

Module 11

Digital signatures

CRYPTOGRAPHY AND COMPUTER SECURITY COURSE

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OUTLINE

- 11. Digital signatures
 - Digital signature schemes
 - RSA (digital signature)
 - El Gamal (digital signature)
 - Attacks
 - Digital signature and encryption

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 - **Digital signature schemes**
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Digital signature schemes

- [ISO-7498-2]
 - Data appended to, or a cryptographic transformation of, a data unit that allows a recipient of the data unit to prove the source and integrity of the data unit and protect against forgery e.g. by the recipient.
- [NIST SP 800-57 Pt. 1 Rev. 5: 2020]
 - The result of a cryptographic transformation of data that, when properly implemented with a supporting infrastructure and policy, provides the services of:
 - 1. Source/identity authentication,
 - 2. Data integrity authentication, and/or
 - 3. Support for signer non-repudiation.

Digital signature schemes

- Concept introduced by Diffie and Hellman in 1976
- Somehow, it is the digital equivalent to a handwritten signature
- Properties of handwritten signatures:
 - Easy and cheap to produce
 - Easy to recognize (for verification)
 - Signer cannot reject (repuadiate) the signature
 - Unforgeable (theoretically)
- Digital signatures should satisfy the same properties, but:
 - Digital signature cannot be the same for all documents as it could be easily forged

Digital signature schemes.

Security properties

- Authenticates the signer of a message
- Prevents unauthorized message modifications (i.e., allows message integrity verification)
- Prevents non-repudiation: it can be used in dispute resolution

It does NOT provide ~~confidentiality~~

Digital signature schemes.

Components

- A digital signature scheme is composed by three parts:
 - Key generation algorithm G
 - Signature generation algorithm S
 - Signature verification algorithm V

Digital signature schemes

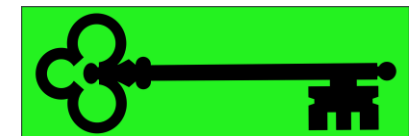
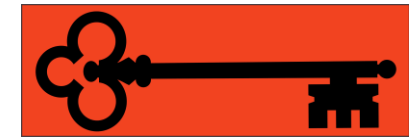
Each user has a key pair:

– **private key**

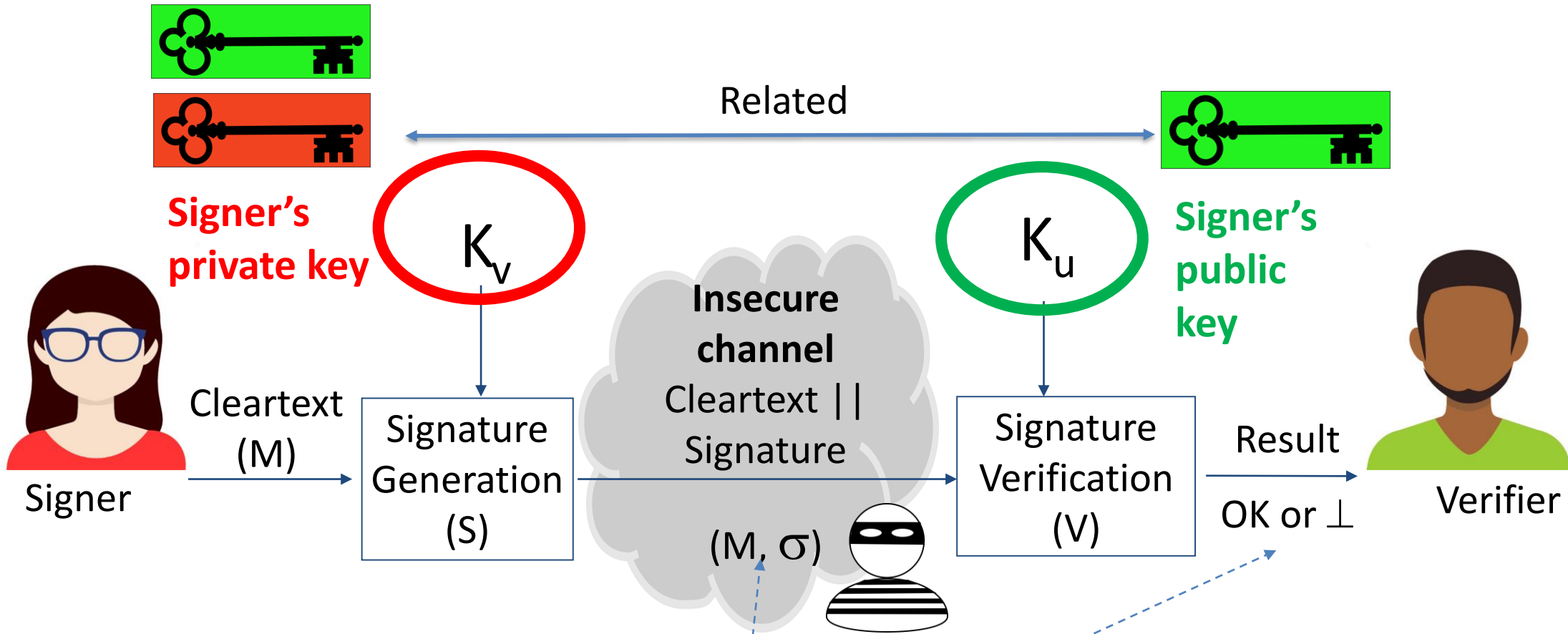
- Known only by the owner
- Used to generate signatures

– **Public key**

- Known by everyone
- Used to verify signatures: the verifier uses the signer's public key to verify the signatures (generated by the signer)



Digital signature schemes



$$\sigma = S(k_v, M) = S_{k_v}(M)$$



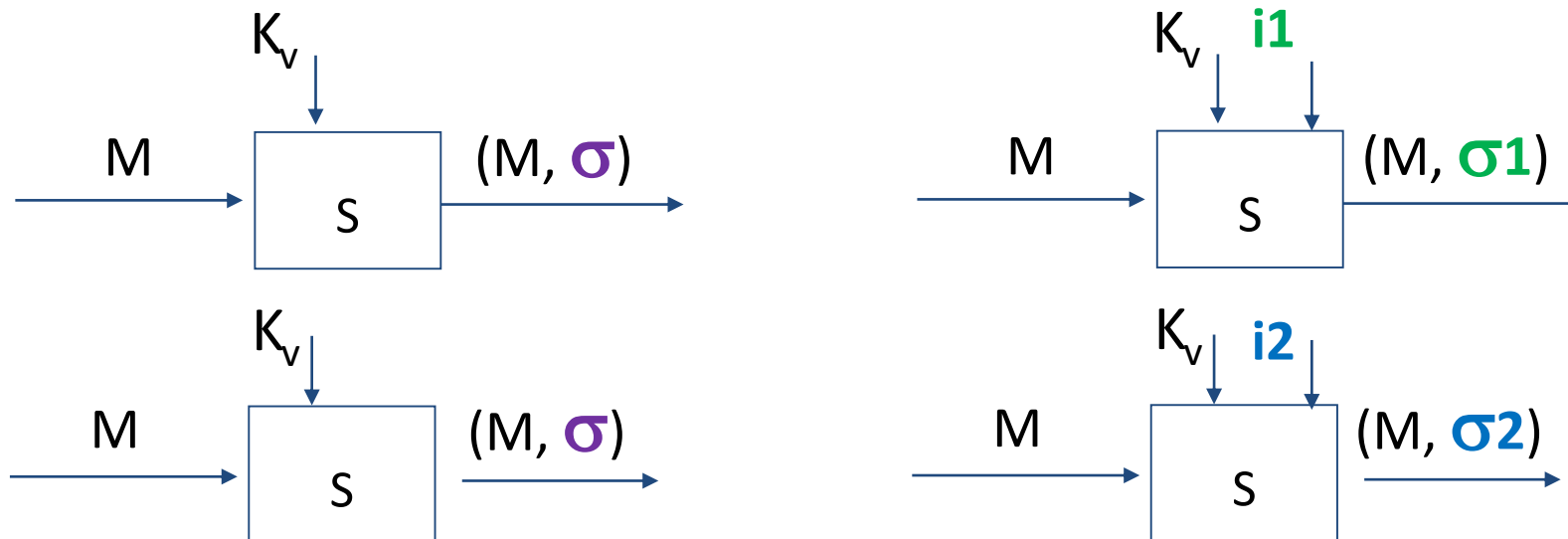
$$\text{Result} = V(k_u, M, \sigma) = V_{k_u}(M, \sigma)$$



Digital signature schemes.

Deterministic vs Randomized

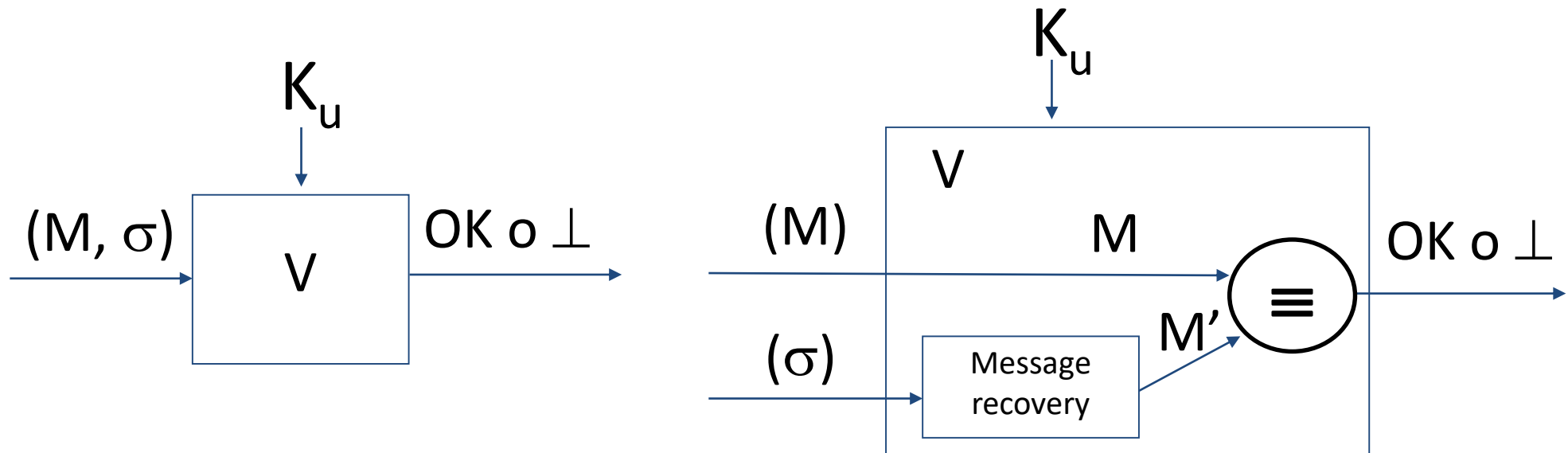
- Digital signature schemes can be:
 - Deterministic: Signatures generated over the same message are equal (eg, “naïve” RSA signatures)
 - Randomized: Signatures generated over the same message are different as they depend on an index (eg, El Gamal signatures)



Digital signature schemes.

With appendix vs Message recovery

- Digital signatures schemes can be:
 - With appendix or separated from the message: The signature is a value that is appended to the message (e.g., El Gamal digital signatures)
 - With message recovery: The signature is the transformation produced on the message (e.g., “naïve” RSA signatures)



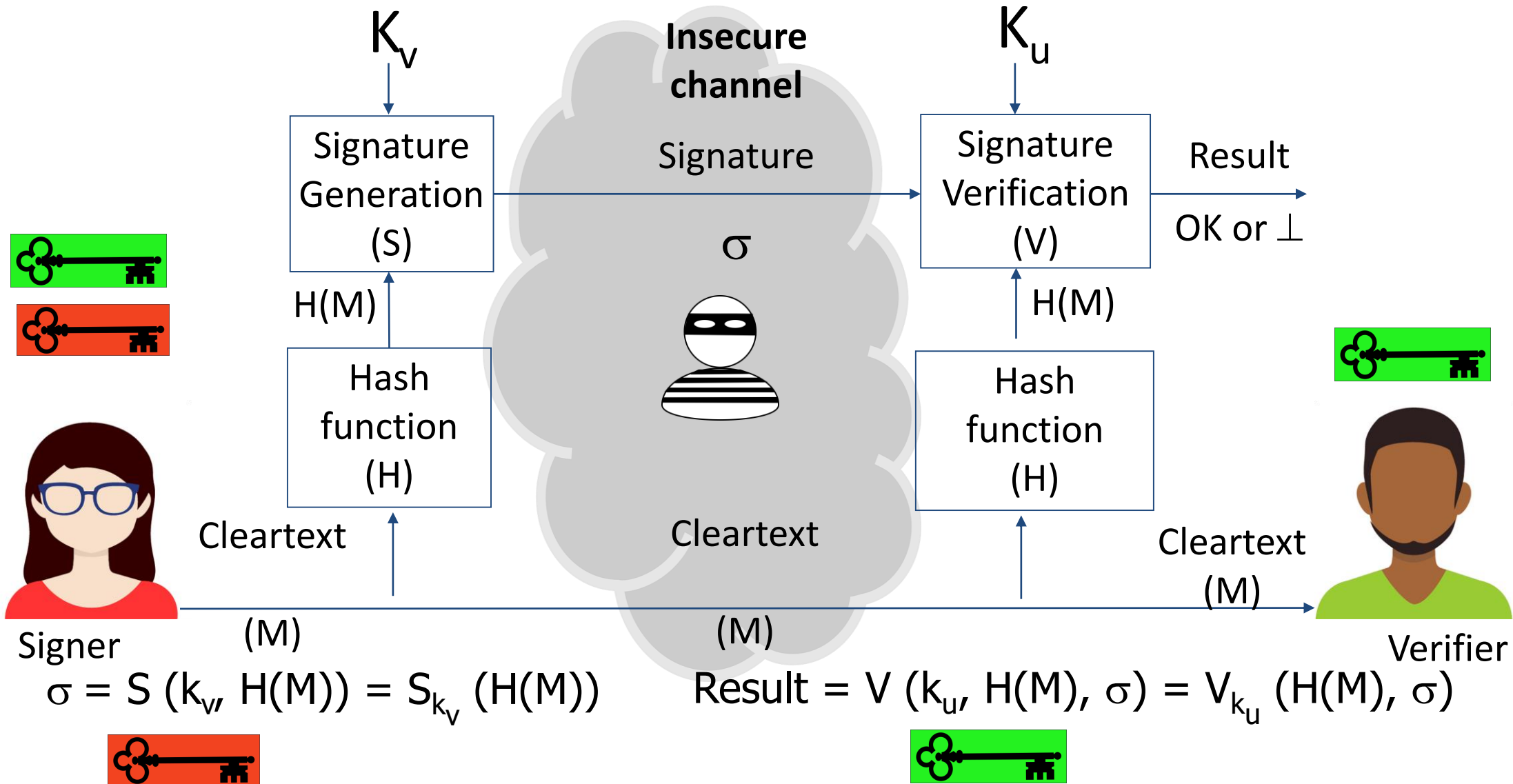
Digital signature schemes.

Hash-then-sign

- Generally, signatures are not generated over messages directly but on the message's hash value
 - It is more efficient (especially for long messages - message should be split in blocks if greater than the modulo)
 - It is more secure, both for RSA and El Gamal based signatures
- To verify hash-then-sign signatures, the verifier first must compute the message's hash

Digital signature schemes.

Hash-then-sign



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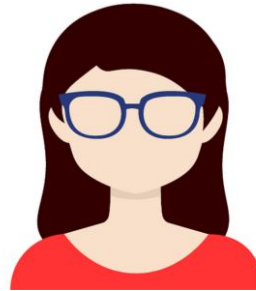
RSA (digital signature)

- Digital signature scheme
 - Deterministic
 - With message recovery
- Security based on the problem of integer factorization
 - Recommended key sizes are similar to those recommended for encryption

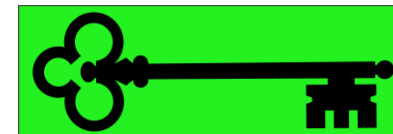
RSA (digital signature)

- **A's key pair generation**

- A chooses p_A, q_A (big integers, private)
- A computes $n_A = p_A \cdot q_A$
- A computes $\phi(n_A) = \phi(p_A) \cdot \phi(q_A)$
- A chooses $e_A \in \mathbb{Z}^+ / \text{m.c.d.}(e_A, \phi(n_A))=1$
- A computes $d_A / e_A \cdot d_A = 1 \pmod{\phi(n_A)}$



- A's public key: $k_{U,A} = (e_A, n_A)$

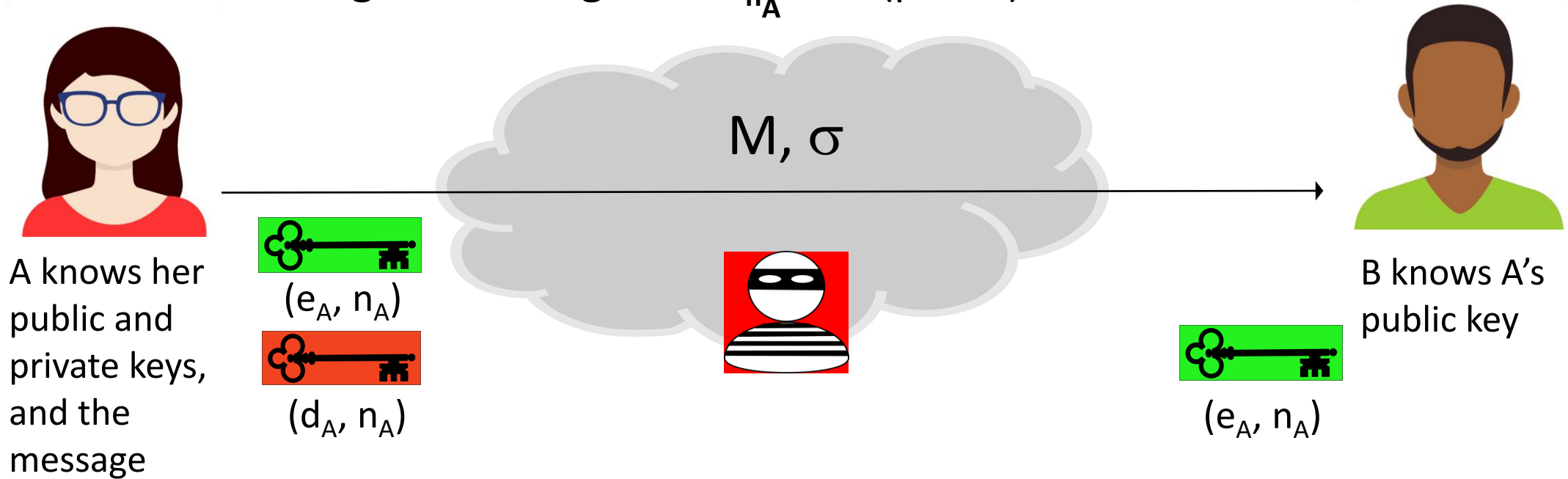


- A's private key: $k_{V,A} = (d_A, n_A)$



RSA (digital signature)

- A sends a signed message $M \in \mathbb{Z}_{n_A}$ to B (part 1)

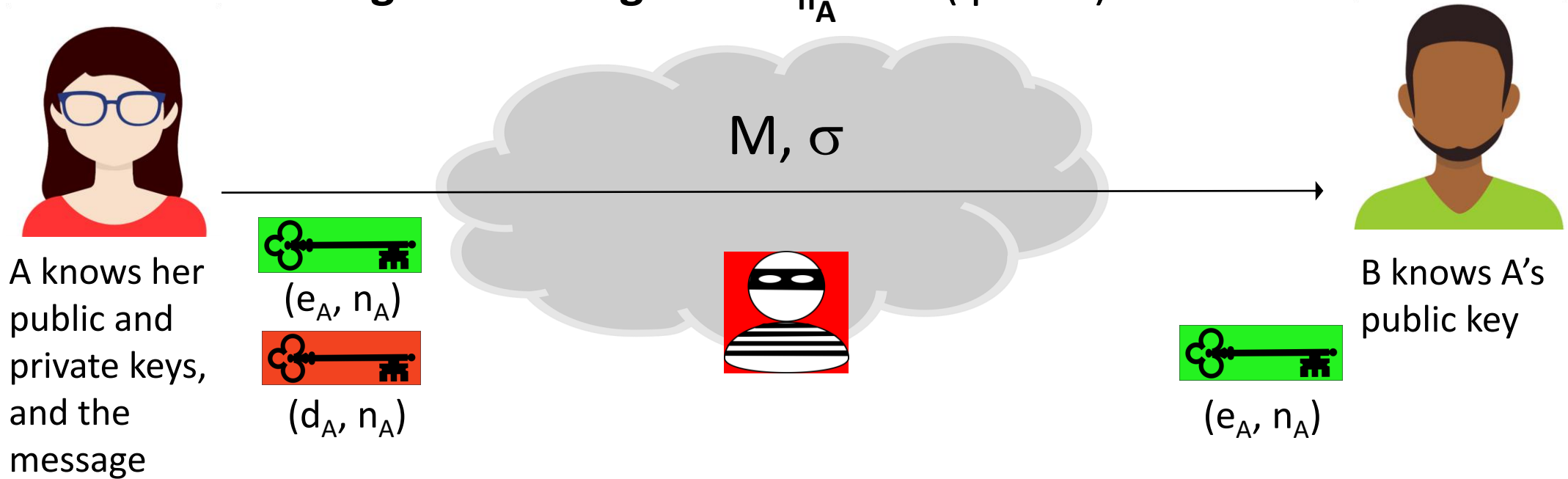


A computes the signature on M using (d_A, n_A) , her private key, and sends to B the message M and the signature σ

$$(M, \sigma = M^{d_A} \text{ mod. } n_A)$$

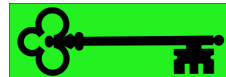
RSA (digital signature)

- A sends a signed message $M \in \mathbb{Z}_{n_A}$ to B (part 2)



B verifies signature σ on M using (e_A, n_A) , A's public key, and accepts the message only if result of the verification is OK

$$M' = \sigma^{e_A} \text{ mod. } n_A; \quad \text{if } M' \equiv M \rightarrow \text{OK, otherwise, } \perp$$



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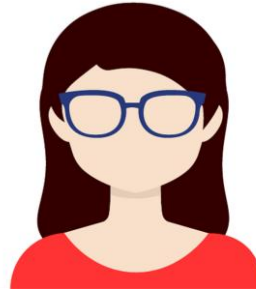
El Gamal (digital signature)

- Digital signature scheme
 - Randomized
 - With appendix
- Security based on the problem of computing the discrete logarithm
 - Recommended key sizes are similar to those recommended for encryption
- Instead of using El Gamal digital signature scheme, it is more common to use DSA (*Digital Signature Algorithm*), which is a variant derived from El Gamal, or ECDSA, its elliptic curve version

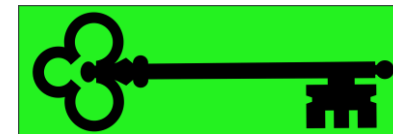
El Gamal (digital signature)

- **A's key pair generation**

- A chooses p_A , large prime number
- A selects g_A , generator of a cyclic group G of order p_A
- A chooses x_A , private key such as $1 < x_A < p_A - 1$
- A computes y_A , public key ($y_A = g^{x_A} \pmod{p_A}$)



- A's private key: $k_{V,A} = (x_A)$

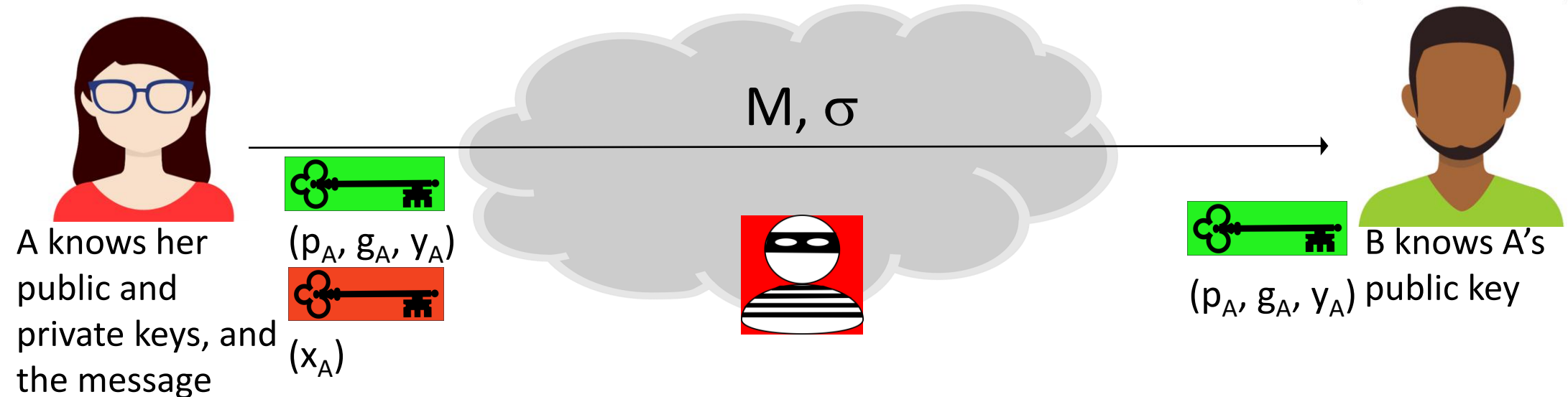


- A's public key: $k_{U,A} = (p_A, g_A, y_A)$



El Gamal (digital signature)

- A sends a signed message $M \in G(p_A)$ to B (part 1)



A chooses an **ephemeral key** k_s s.t. $0 < k_s < p_A$ and computes $r = g^{k_s} \pmod{p_A}$

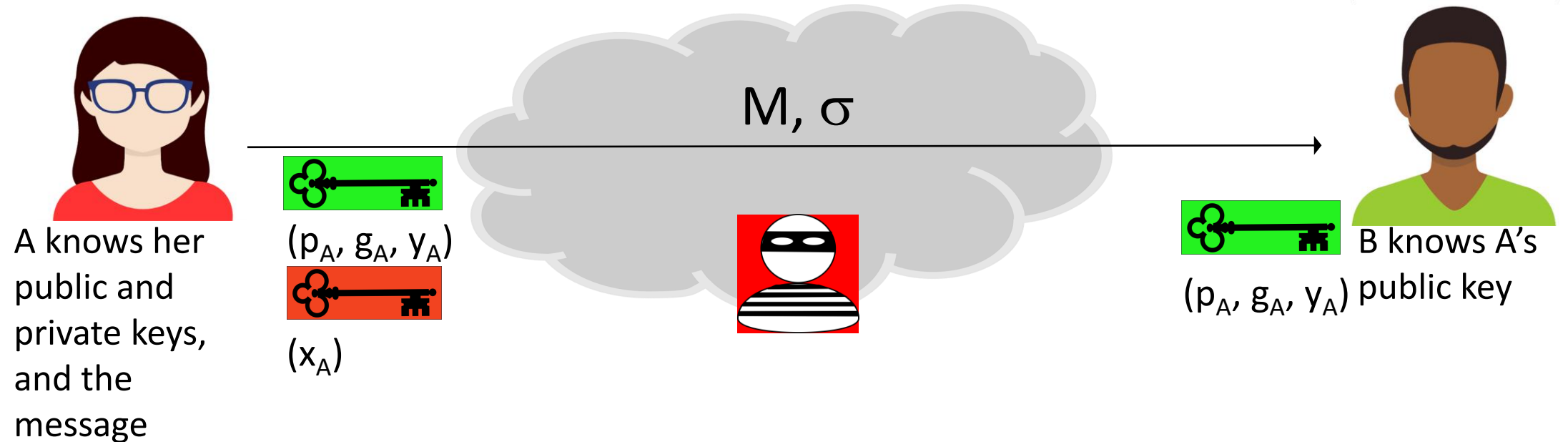
A, using her private key (x_A) , computes $s = (M - x_A \cdot r) \cdot k_s^{-1} \pmod{(p_A - 1)}$

A sends to B message M and its signature, $\sigma = (r, s)$

$$(M, \sigma) = (M, r, s) = (M, g^{k_s} \pmod{p_A}, (M - x_A \cdot r) \cdot k_s^{-1} \pmod{(p_A - 1)})$$

El Gamal (digital signature)

- A sends a signed message $M \in G(p_A)$ to B (part 2)



B verifies M 's signature using (p_A, g_A, y_A) , A's public key, and accepts the message only if verification result is OK

$$V_1 = y_A^r \cdot r^s \pmod{p_A}; V_2 = g_A^M \pmod{p_A}; \text{ if } V_1 \equiv V_2 \rightarrow \text{OK, otherwise, } \perp$$



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Attacks

- Adversary's goal is to forge valid signatures
 - Total break: The adversary determines A 's private key
 - Universal forgery: The adversary has a signing algorithm functionally equivalent to the A 's one
 - Selective forgery: The adversary forges a signature on a message chosen by the adversary
 - Existential forgery: The adversary can forge a signature for at least one message, but the adversary has no control over this message

Attacks. RSA

- “Text-book” RSA is vulnerable to existential forgery attacks

Attack 1:

C wants to create a valid signature, as A would have generated it

Let's assume that C knows A's public key (e_A, n_A)

C randomly chooses $\sigma \in \mathbb{Z}_{n_A}$ and computes $M = \sigma^{e_A} \bmod n_A$

C sends to B the computed message M and its “forged” signature:

$C \rightarrow B: (M, \sigma)$

B verifies the message and its signature as correct, as

$M \equiv M' = \sigma^{e_A} \bmod n_A \rightarrow \text{OK}$

Attacks. RSA

Attack 2:

C can forge a valid signature from two valid signatures generated by A

C gets two valid (message, signature) pairs:

$$(M_1, \sigma_1); (M_2, \sigma_2)$$

C can create a valid signature σ' for message $M' = M_1 \cdot M_2 \text{ mod. } n_A$

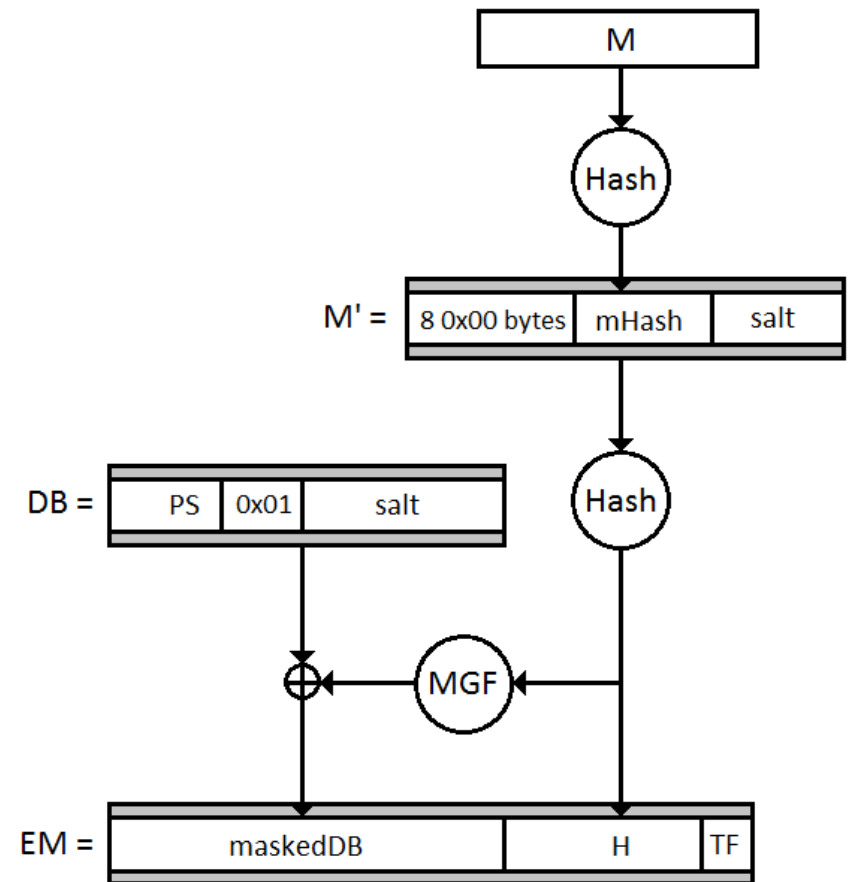
$$\sigma' = \sigma_1 \cdot \sigma_2 \text{ mod. } n_A$$

B verifies as correct the signature σ' on M' , as

$$M' \equiv \sigma'^{e_A} \text{ mod. } n_A = \sigma_1^{e_A} \cdot \sigma_2^{e_A} \text{ mod. } n_A = M_1 \cdot M_2 \text{ mod. } n_A \rightarrow \text{OK}$$

Attacks. RSA

- Solution:
 - Attacks are prevented if the message's hash value is signed instead of the message itself
 - However, this is not enough to satisfy all modern security requirements. It is desirable to transform deterministic RSA to a randomized scheme
 - RSA-PSS (*Probabilistic Signature Scheme*)
 - Specific padding and random values (*salt*) are added and random values in a way similar to the shown figure



Attacks. El Gamal

- Similarly to RSA, “text-book” El Gamal is vulnerable to existential forgery attacks
 - We’ll not see their details
- Solution:
 - Similarly to RSA, the message’s hash value is signed instead of directly signing the message

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Digital signature and encryption

- To build a secure channel (message confidentiality and authentication) using public key cryptography, it is necessary to combine a public key cryptosystem and a digital signature scheme
- In the last decades, the security properties of different ways of combining both constructions have been discussed
 - *Sign-then-encrypt*
 - *Sign-and-encrypt*
 - *Encrypt-then-sign*

Davis, D. (2001, June). Defective Sign & Encrypt in S/MIME, PKCS# 7, MOSS, PEM, PGP, and XML. In *USENIX Annual Technical Conference, General Track* (pp. 65-78).

<https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/3de0/d2e8d6a46c07264bbe1cacefc446b35b2b7e.pdf>

Digital signature and encryption

- Finally, a new cryptographic scheme has been defined, named ***signcryption***, that has to satisfy:
 - If A sends to B a “*signcrypted*” message,
 - only B can decrypt the message, and
 - B can verify that the message’s origin was A
- Combinations *sign-then-encrypt* and *encrypt-then-sign* are considered secure if the identities of both the receiver and the sender are included in the signature and the ciphertext, respectively, among other requirements

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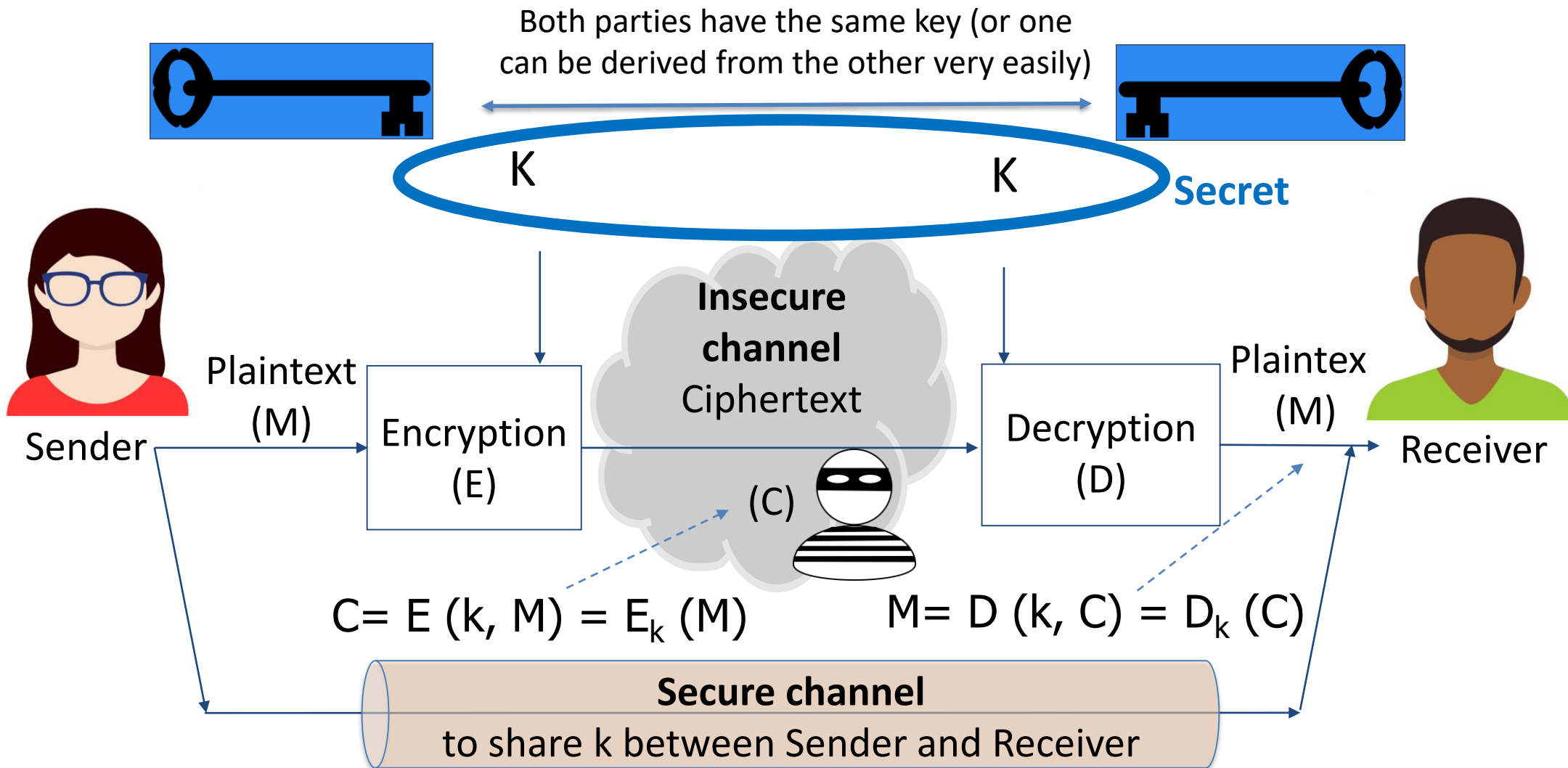
- 7. Key distribution and asymmetric encryption
 - Asymmetric encryption
 - Historical context and impact
 - Asymmetric encryption model
 - RSA (cipher)
 - El Gamal (cipher)
 - Specific attacks

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- 7. Key distribution and asymmetric encryption
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 - **Historical context and impact**
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Historical context and impact

Recalling symmetric encryption model



Historical context and impact

- Problem:
 - Two parties, who have not shared any secret a priori, need to exchange a message using an insecure channel
 - In symmetric cryptosystems, communicating parties need a secure channel to exchange or agree on the secret key
 - For more than 3,000 years it was thought that there was no solution

Historical context and impact

- Whitfield Diffie, Martin E. Hellman. ***New Directions in Cryptography***. IEEE Transactions in Information Theory, v. IT-22, pp 664-654. November 1976.
 - Seminal article that proposed public key cryptography
 - Probably the biggest cryptographic milestone in 3,000 years
 - It was previously discovered by British Intelligence Services
 - It proposes asymmetric cryptosystems --- in a theoretical way --- and the Diffie-Hellman key exchange algorithm, based also in asymmetric cryptography

Historical context and impact

- Whitfield Diffie, Martin E. Hellman. *New Directions in Cryptography*. IEEE Transactions in Information Theory, v. IT-22, pp 664-654. November 1976.
 - **Abstract** Two kinds of contemporary developments in cryptography are examined. Widening applications of teleprocessing have given rise to a need for new types of cryptographic systems, which minimize the need for secure key distribution channels and supply the equivalent of a written signature. This paper suggests ways to solve these currently open problems. It also discusses how the theories of communication and computation are beginning to provide the tools to solve cryptographic problems of long standing.
 - <https://www-ee.stanford.edu/~hellman/publications/24.pdf>

Historical context and impact

- Next we'll see asymmetric cryptosystems
- Later we'll see:
 - The Diffie-Hellman key exchange algorithm,
 - Main approaches to key distribution, based on symmetric cryptography or on asymmetric one

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Asymmetric encryption model

- Asymmetric cryptosystem (aka public key)

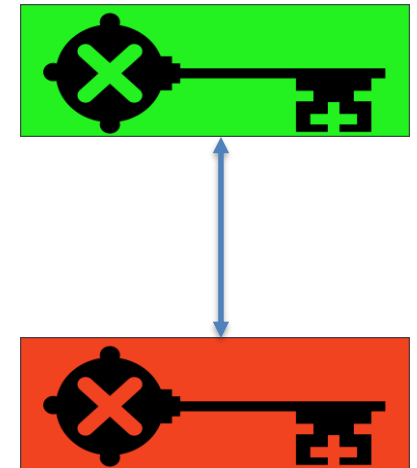
Uses key pairs:

- **public key**

- Known by everybody
- The sender of a message uses the receiver's public key to encrypt the message for him/her

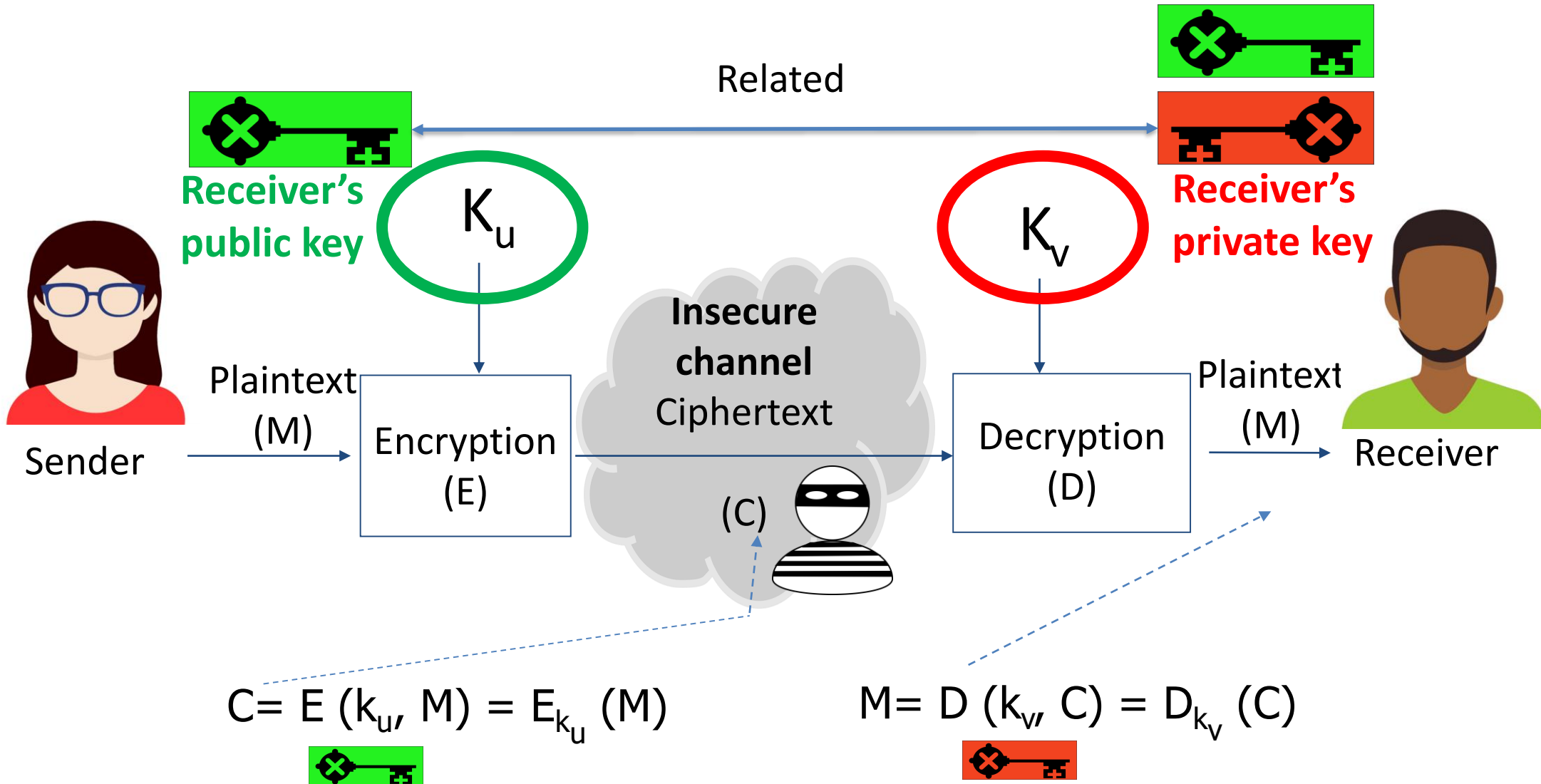
- **related private key**

- Known by the owner (only)
- The receiver of an encrypted message uses his/her private key to decrypt ciphertexts sent to him/her



Unfeasible to determine the private key from the public one

Asymmetric encryption model



Asymmetric encryption model

- **Computational security**
 - Brute-force search is possible in theory
 - Keys must be large enough
 - Security of public key encryption is based on *hard* problems → Trapdoor one-way function
 - Integer factorization (for large numbers)
 - Discrete logarithm (for large numbers)
- **Slower than symmetric algorithms**

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 - Asymmetric encryption
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 - Asymmetric encryption model
 - **RSA (cipher)**
 - El Gamal (cipher)
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RSA

- R. L. Rivest, A. Shamir, L. Adleman. ***A Method for Obtaining Digital Signature and Public-Key Cryptosystems.***
Communications of the ACM, v. 21, nº 2, pp 120-126.
February 1978.
 - First public key cryptosystem, the well-known RSA
 - Based on the difficulty of factoring a number product of two large primes of similar bit-length (integer factoring is a *hard problem*)
 - More public key cryptosystems have been proposed (some of them are broken). RSA is still robust considering some modifications

RSA

- R. L. Rivest, A. Shamir, L. Adleman. ***A Method for Obtaining Digital Signature and Public-Key Cryptosystems***. Communications of the ACM, v. 21, nº 2, pp 120-126. February 1978.
 - **Abstract** An encryption method is presented with the novel property that publicly revealing an encryption key does not thereby reveal the corresponding decryption key. This has two important consequences:
 - Couriers or other secure means are not needed to transmit keys, since a message can be enciphered using an encryption key publicly revealed by the intended recipient. Only he can decipher the message, since only he knows the corresponding decryption key.
 - (...)
 - A message is encrypted by representing it as a number M , raising M to a publicly specified power e , and then taking the remainder when the result is divided by the publicly specified product, n , of two large secret prime numbers p and q . Decryption is similar; only a different, secret, power d is used, where $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{(p - 1) \cdot (q - 1)}$. The security of the system rests in part on the difficulty of factoring the published divisor, n .
 - <https://people.csail.mit.edu/rivest/Rsapaper.pdf>

RSA (cipher)

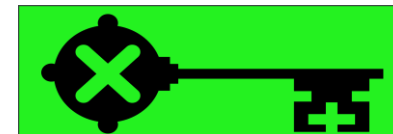


- **B's key pair generation**

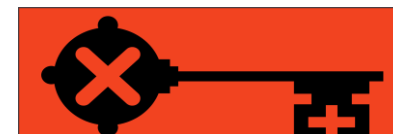
- B chooses p_B, q_B (very large primes, private)
- B computes $n_B = p_B \cdot q_B$
- B computes $\phi(n_B) = \phi(p_B) \cdot \phi(q_B)$
- B chooses $e_B \in \mathbb{Z}^+ / \text{m.c.d.}(e_B, \phi(n_B))=1$
- B computes $d_B / e_B \cdot d_B = 1 \pmod{\phi(n_B)}$



- B's public key: $k_{U,B} = (e_B, n_B)$

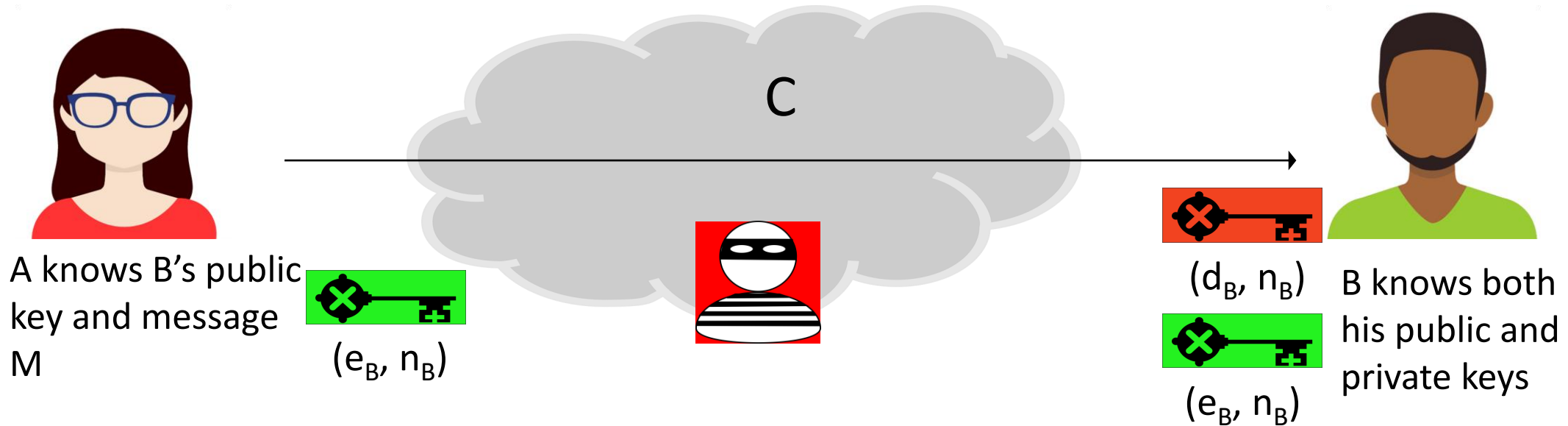


- B's private key: $k_{V,B} = (d_B, n_B)$



RSA (cipher)

- A sends an encrypted message $M \in \mathbb{Z}_{n_B}$ to B (part 1)

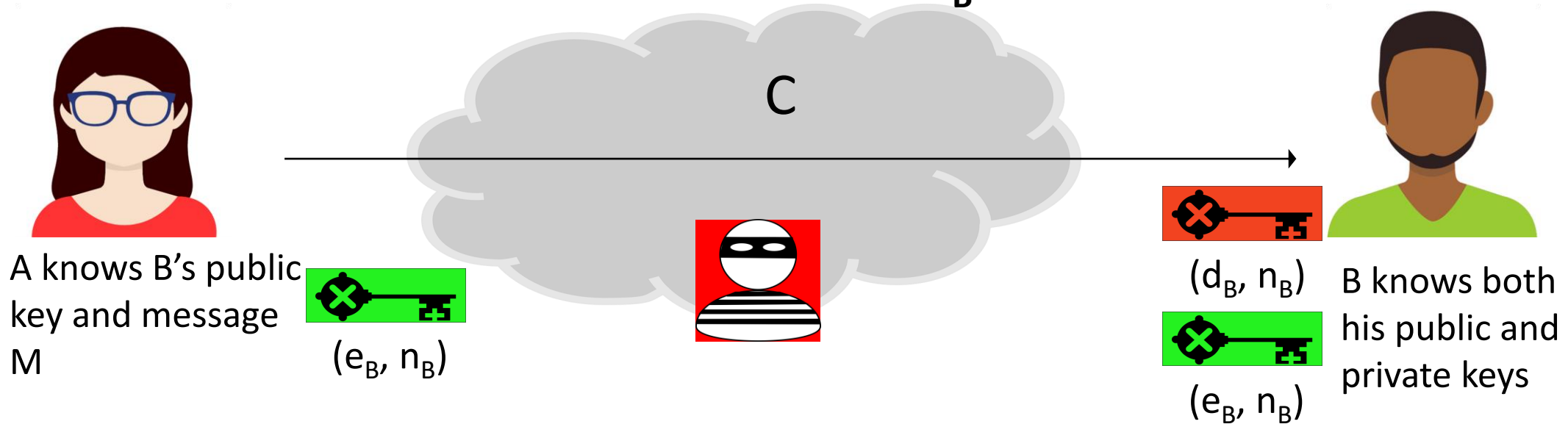


A encrypts M using (e_B, n_B) , B's public key, and sends ciphertext to B

$$C = M^{e_B} \text{ mod. } n_B$$

RSA (cifrado)

- A sends an encrypted message $M \in \mathbb{Z}_{n_B}$ to B (part 2)



B decrypts C using (d_B, n_B) , his private key

$$M = C^{d_B} \text{ mod. } n_B$$



RSA (cipher)

- Proof of correctness:

$$C = M^{e_B} \bmod n_B \Rightarrow C^{d_B} \bmod n_B = M^{e_B \cdot d_B} \bmod n_B$$

$$e_B \cdot d_B = 1 \bmod \phi(n_B) \Rightarrow e_B \cdot d_B = 1 + k \cdot \phi(n_B)$$

By Euler's Theo. (*),

$$M^{\phi(n_B)} \bmod n_B = 1$$

$$M^{e_B \cdot d_B} \bmod n_B = M^{1 + k \cdot \phi(n_B)} \bmod n_B = M$$

$$C^{d_B} \bmod n_B = M$$

(*) Note that this demonstration as provided here only works for M such that $\gcd(M, n_B) = 1$. RSA correctness can be proved as well for M that are not relatively prime to n_B .

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA_\(cryptosystem\)#Proof_using_Euler's_theorem](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA_(cryptosystem)#Proof_using_Euler's_theorem)

RSA (cipher)

- RSA's security is shown to be as hard as the integer factorization problem
 - To compute $d = \text{inv}[e, \phi(n)]$
 - You need to compute $\phi(n) = (p - 1) \cdot (q - 1)$
 - To efficiently compute $\phi(n)$, it is necessary to know p and q
 - $O(e^{\ln(n) \cdot \ln \ln(n)})$
- RSA factoring challenge
 - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA_Factoring_Challenge
 - RSA-768 (768 bits, 232 decimal digits) was factorized on 2009/12/12
 - RSA-230 (762 bits, 230 decimal digits) was factorized on 2018/08/15
- Recommended modulo bit-length
 - At least 2048 bits (NIST 2016) or 3072 bits (ECRYPT-CSA 2018)
 - <https://www.keylength.com/en/>

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 - RSA (cipher)
 - **El Gamal (cipher)**
 - Specific attacks

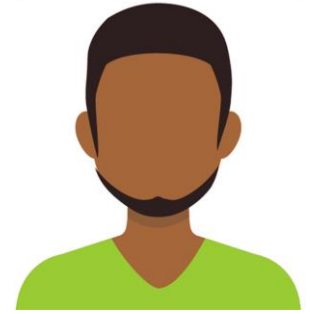
El Gamal (cipher)

- Taher ElGamal. ***A Public Key Cryptosystem and a Signature Scheme Based on Discrete Logarithms***. IEEE Transactions in Information Theory, vol. IT-31, nº 4, pp. 4569-472, July 1985.
 - Public key cryptosystem based on hard problems related to the difficulty of efficiently computing the discrete logarithm
 - <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.476.4791&rep=rep1&type=pdf>

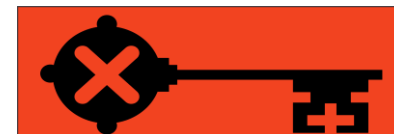
El Gamal (cipher)

- **B's key pair generation**

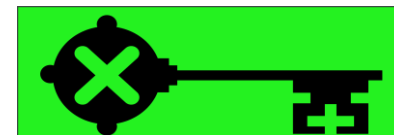
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- B chooses g_B , generator of cyclic group G of order p_B
- B selects x_B as B's private such that
$$1 < x_B < p_B - 1$$
- B computes y_B , s B's public key ($y_B = g^{x_B} \text{ mod. } p_B$)



- B's private key: $k_{V,B} = (x_B)$

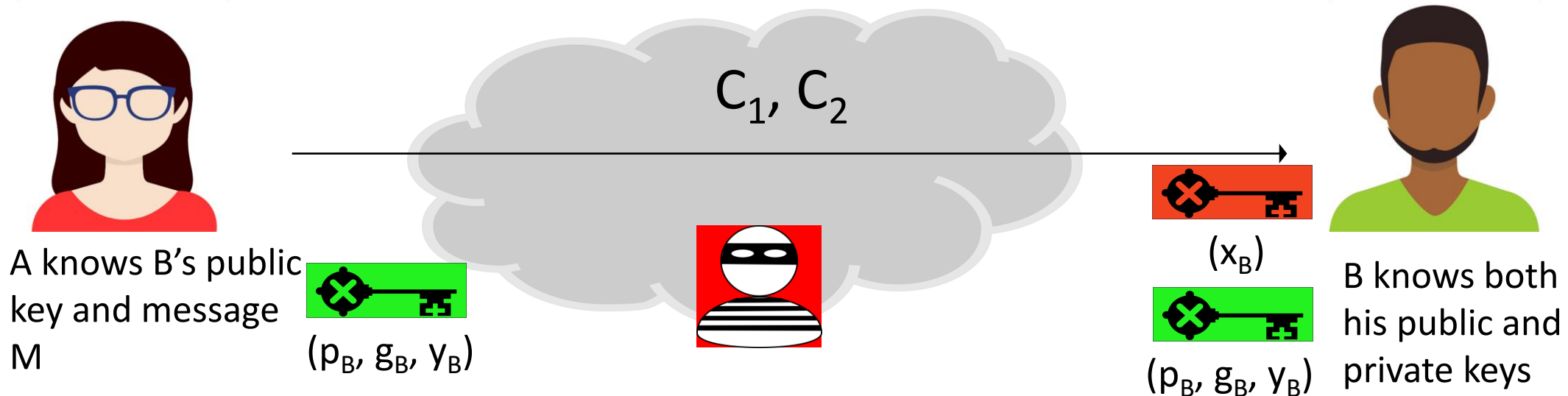


- B's public key: $k_{U,B} = (p_B, g_B, y_B)$



El Gamal (cipher)

- A sends message $M \in G(p_B)$ encrypted to B (part 1)



A chooses k_e (random) | $1 < k_e < p_B - 1$

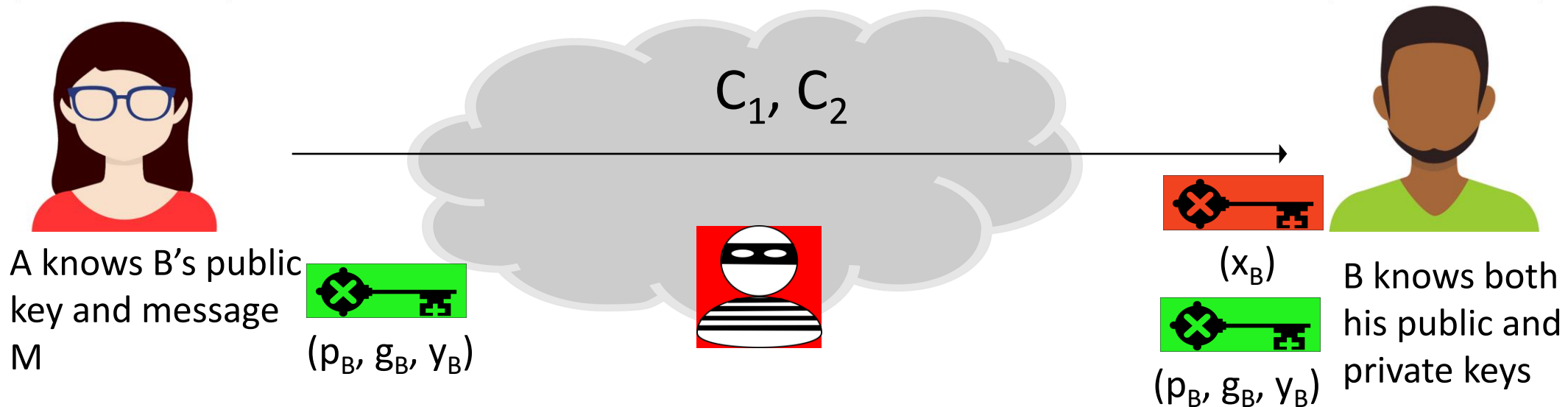
A computes $C_1 = g_B^{k_e} \text{ mod. } p_B$

A computes **ephemeral key** using B's public key: $K_T = y_B^{k_e} \text{ mod. } p_B$

A computes M's ciphertext as $C_2 = K_T \cdot M \text{ mod. } p_B$

El Gamal (cipher)

- A sends message $M \in G(p_B)$ encrypted to B (part 2)



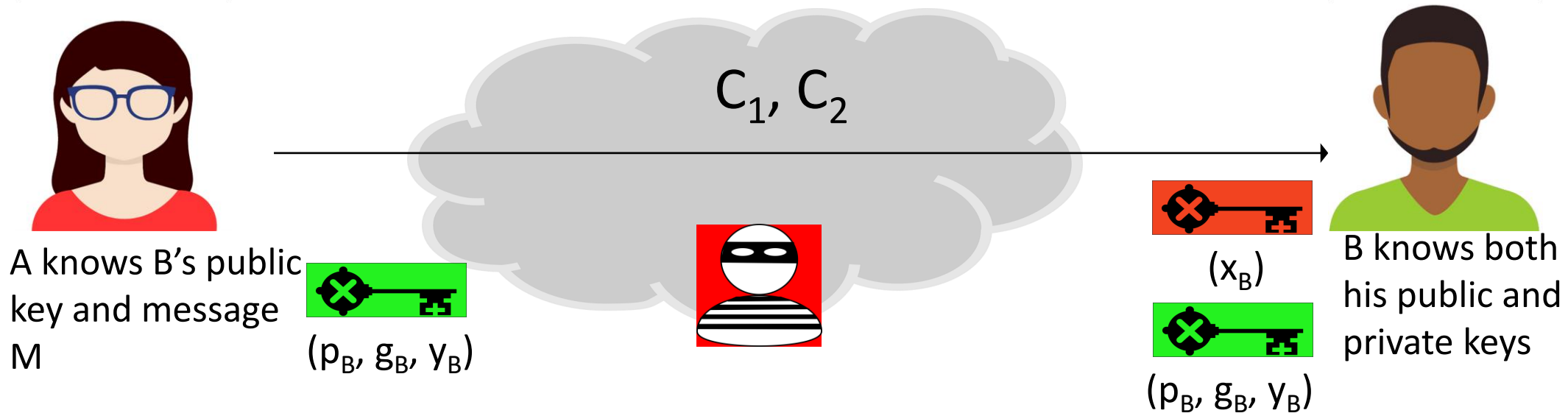
A sends to B $C = C_1, C_2$

$$C_1 = g_B^{k_e} \text{ mod. } p_B, C_2 = K_T \cdot M \text{ mod. } p_B$$

If $C_2 = K_T \cdot M \text{ mod. } p_B$, M and $K_T \in G(p_B) \rightarrow M = C_2 \cdot K_T^{-1} \text{ mod. } p_B$

El Gamal (cipher)

- A sends message $M \in G(p_B)$ encrypted to B (part 3)



B first recovers ephemeral key and then decrypts C:

$$K_T = C_1^{x_B} \text{ mod. } p_B, \text{ as } (g_B^{x_B})^{k_e} \text{ mod. } p_B = (g_B^{k_e})^{x_B} \text{ mod. } p_B$$



As for Fermat's Theorem

$$M = C_2 \cdot K_T^{-1} \text{ mod. } p_B = C_2 \cdot C_1^{-x_B} \text{ mod. } p_B = C_2 \cdot C_1^{p_B - 1 - x_B} \text{ mod. } p_B$$



El Gamal (cipher)

- El Gamal security is based on the discrete logarithm problem
 - Given a cyclic group of order p with a generator g , once selected $y \in G(p)$, there is a unique $x \mid g^x = y \pmod{p}$
 - Computing $x = \log_g y \pmod{p}$ is a hard problem
- Recommended length for primes p
 - At least 2048 bits (NIST 2016) or 3072 bits (ECRYPT-CSA 2018)
 - If cyclic groups are defined over elliptic curves, they should have at least 224 bits (NIST 2016) or 256 bits (ECRYPT-CSA 2018)

El Gamal (cipher)

- In practice
 - Group and parameters p and g are standardized and are publicly known
 - K_T is not used directly as the symmetric key but another symmetric key K_T' is derived from it, e.g, using a hash function, to encrypt the message M (hybrid encryption)

$$K_T' = H(K_T)$$

$$C_1 = g_B^{k_e} \text{ mod. } p_B, C_2' = E_{SIM}(K_T', M)$$

OUTLINE

- 7. Key distribution and asymmetric encryption
 - Asymmetric encryption
 - Historical context and impact
 - Asymmetric encryption model
 - RSA (cipher)
 - El Gamal (cipher)
 - **Specific attacks**

Specific attacks on RSA

- *Text-book* RSA encryption is deterministic \rightarrow it is not IND-CPA secure
 - Adv produces m_0 and m_1
 - Challenger encrypts one of them: $c^* \leftarrow m_b^e \bmod n$
 - Adv computes both $m_0^e \bmod n$ and $m_1^e \bmod n$ being able to distinguish the value of b
- *Text-book* RSA encryption is malleable
 - Given ciphertext C , that decrypts into plaintext M , it is easy to obtain a ciphertext C' that decrypts to a plaintext M' related to M
$$M \rightarrow C = M^e \bmod n$$
$$C' = C \cdot \alpha^e \bmod n \quad \rightarrow M' = \alpha \cdot M$$

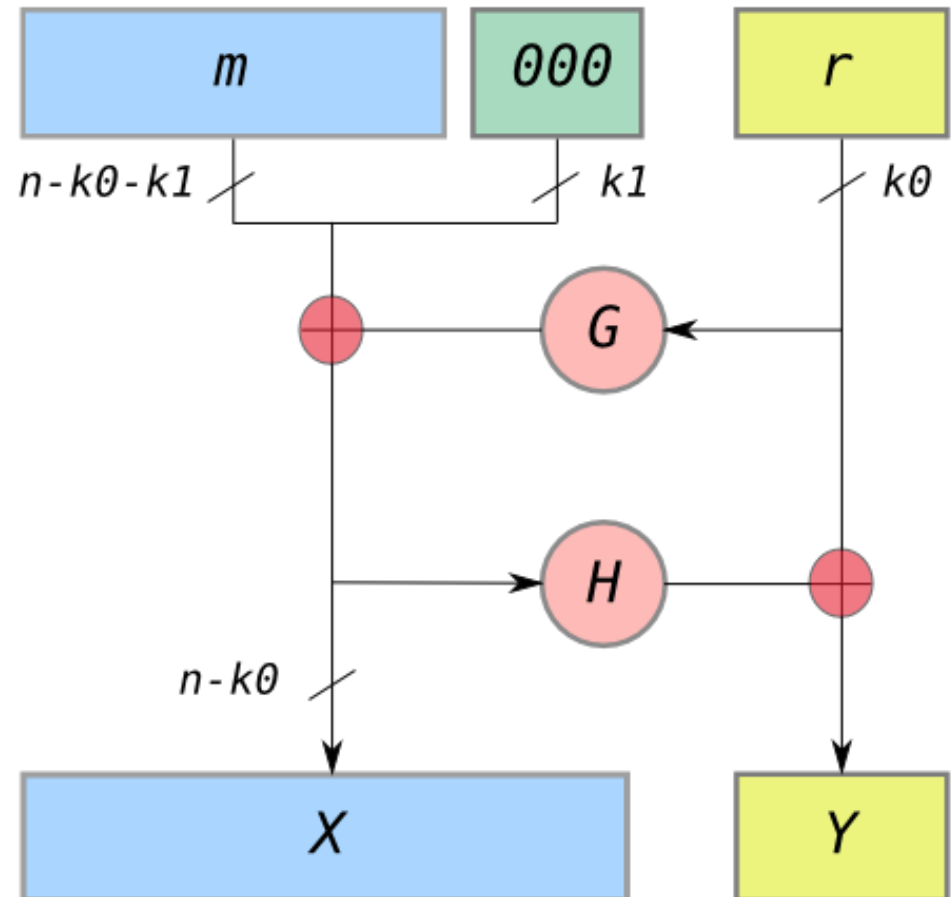
Specific attacks on RSA.

RSA-OAEP

- Fixing *text-book* RSA encryption → RSA-OAEP

- Padding is added to RSA
 - OAEP (*Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding*)
 - Current standardized algorithm is similar to the one in the figure
- Some redundancy is added so not all messages are valid
- After padding, padded message is encrypted:

$$C = (X \parallel Y)^e \text{ mod. } n$$



Specific attacks on El Gamal

- El Gamal is malleable
 - Given a ciphertext $C = (C_1, C_2)$ that encrypts a cleartext M , it is easy for an adversary to compute a second ciphertext C' that encrypts a message M' related to M

$$M \rightarrow C_1 = g_B^{k_e} \text{ mod. } p_B, \quad C_2 = (y_B^{k_e}) \cdot M \text{ mod. } p_B$$
$$C_1' = C_1, \quad C_2' = \alpha \cdot C_2 = (y_B^{k_e}) \cdot (\alpha \cdot M) \text{ mod. } p_B \rightarrow M' = \alpha \cdot M$$

- Solution: Use a symmetric key K_T' derived with a secure hash function and encrypt the message with a robust symmetric encryption algorithm (hybrid encryption)
 - DHIES (*Diffie-Hellman Integrated Encryption Scheme*) and ECIES (*Elliptic Curve Integrated Encryption Scheme*)

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