CSE 484: Computer Security and Privacy

Cryptography 6

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Logistics

- Lab 1b grades might be slow, handling the multiple servers is manual
- Homework 2
  - Plenty of it is doable today, especially after this lecture ☺
- Lab 2
  - Will go out next week, probably not Monday
  - As with lab 1, solo or partnered, website exploitation

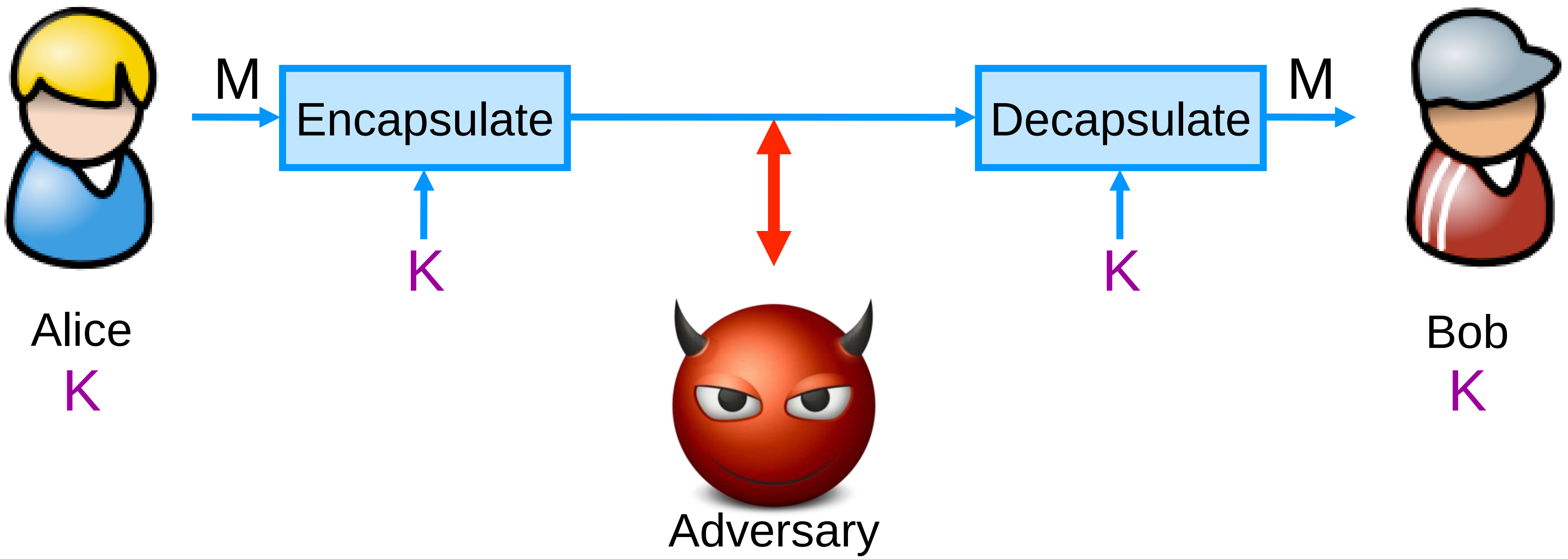
Stepping Back: Flavors of Cryptography

- Symmetric cryptography
  - Both communicating parties have access to a shared random string K, called the key.

- Asymmetric cryptography
  - Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk.

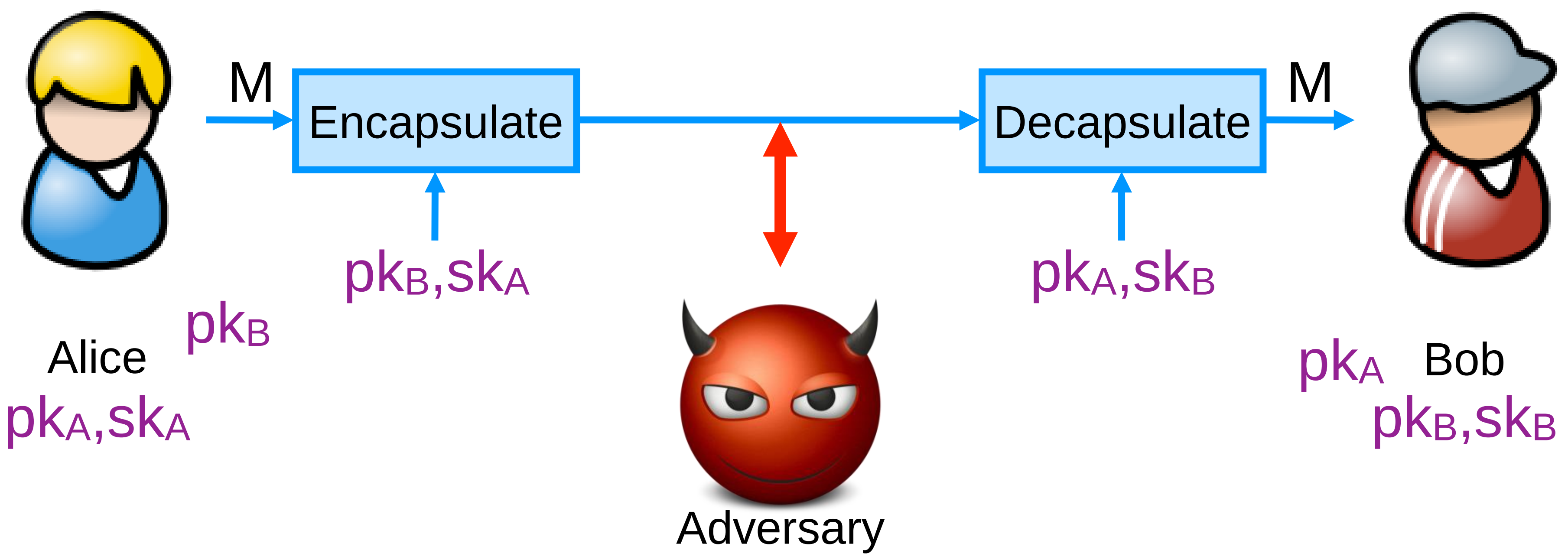
Symmetric Setting

Both communicating parties have access to a shared random string K, called the key.

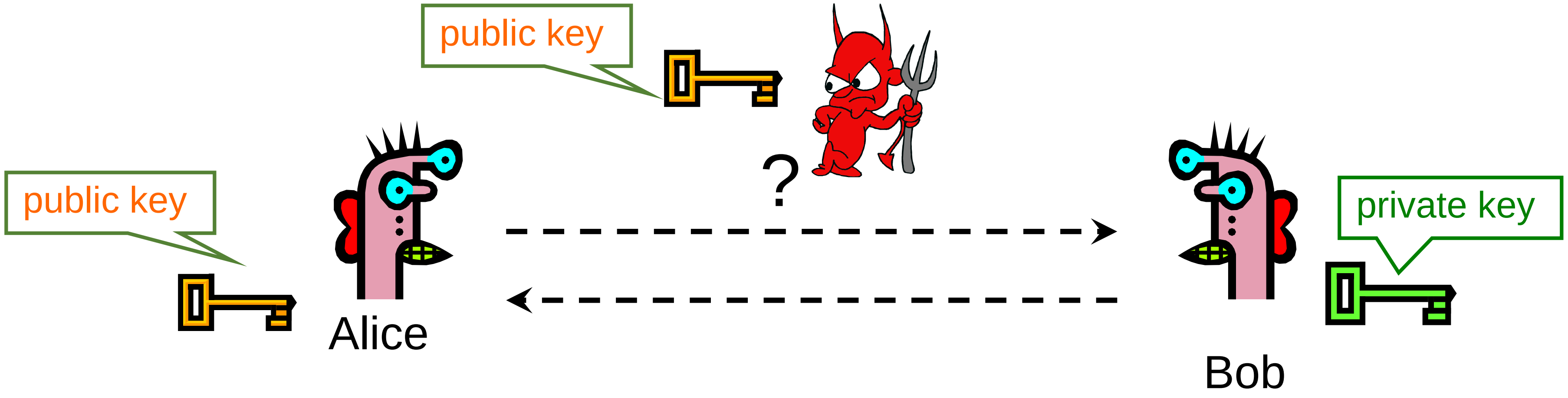


Asymmetric Setting

Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk.



Public Key Crypto: Basic Problem



Given: Everybody knows Bob's public key
Only Bob knows the corresponding private key

Goals: 1. Alice wants to send a secret message to Bob
2. Bob wants to authenticate themself

Applications of Public Key Crypto

- Encryption for confidentiality
  - Anyone can encrypt a message
    - With symmetric crypto, must know secret key to encrypt
  - Only someone who knows private key can decrypt
  - Key management is simpler (or at least different)
    - Secret is stored only at one site: good for open environments
- Digital signatures for authentication
  - Can “sign” a message with your private key
- Session key establishment
  - Exchange messages to create a secret session key
  - Then switch to symmetric cryptography (why?)

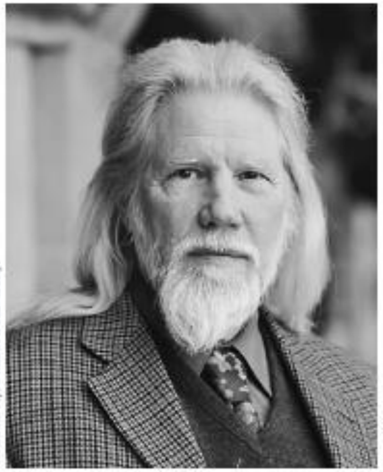
Session Key Establishment

Modular Arithmetic

- Given g and prime p, compute: g^1 mod p, g^2 mod p, … g^{100} mod p
  - For p=11, g=10
    - 10^1 mod 11 = 10, 10^2 mod 11 = 1, 10^3 mod 11 = 10, …
    - Produces cyclic group {10, 1} (order=2)
  - For p=11, g=7
    - 7^1 mod 11 = 7, 7^2 mod 11 = 5, 7^3 mod 11 = 2, …
    - Produces cyclic group {7,5,2,3,10,4,6,9,8,1} (order = 10)
    - g=7 is a "generator" of Z_{11}^*

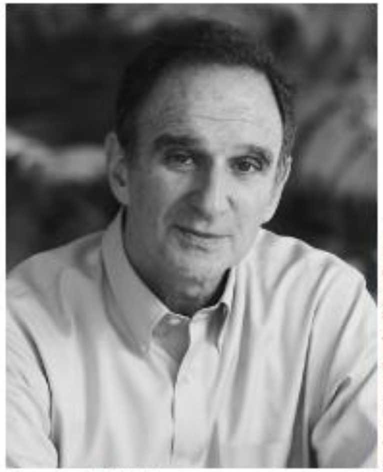
Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

Diffie and Hellman Receive 2015 Turing Award



Rod Searcey/Stanford University.

Whitfield Diffie

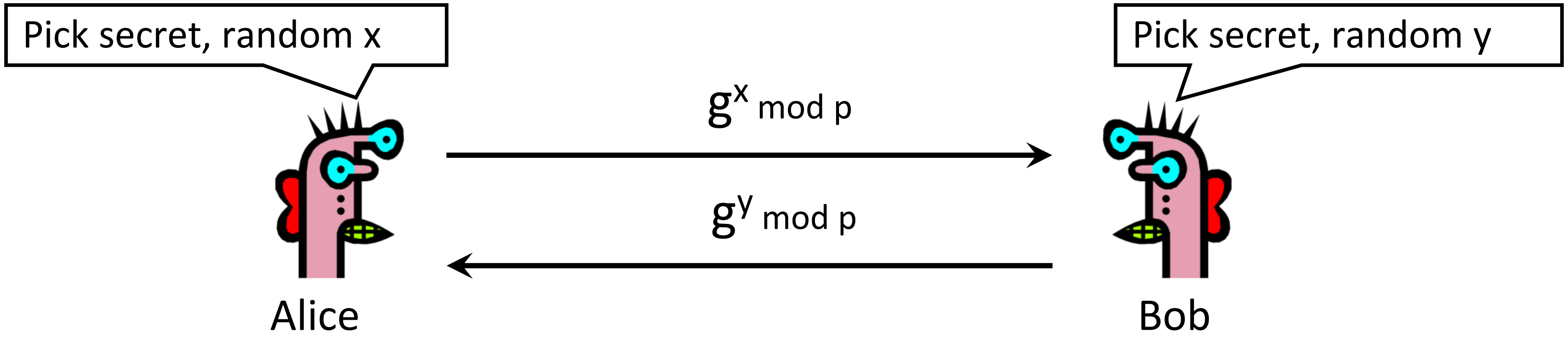


Linda A. Cicero/Stanford News Service.

Martin E. Hellman

Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

- Alice and Bob never met and share no secrets
- Public info: p and g
  - p is a large prime, g is a **generator** of Z_p^*
    - $Z_p^* = \{1, 2 \ldots p-1\}$; a Z_p^* i such that $a = g^i \bmod p$
    - Modular arithmetic: numbers "wrap around" after they reach p



Compute $k=(g^y)^x=g^{xy} \bmod p$

Compute $k=(g^x)^y=g^{xy} \bmod p$

Example Diffie Hellman Computation

Why is Diffie-Hellman Secure?

- Discrete Logarithm (DL) problem:

  given g^x *mod p*, it's hard to extract x
  - There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this
  - This is not enough for Diffie-Hellman to be secure!
- Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH) problem:

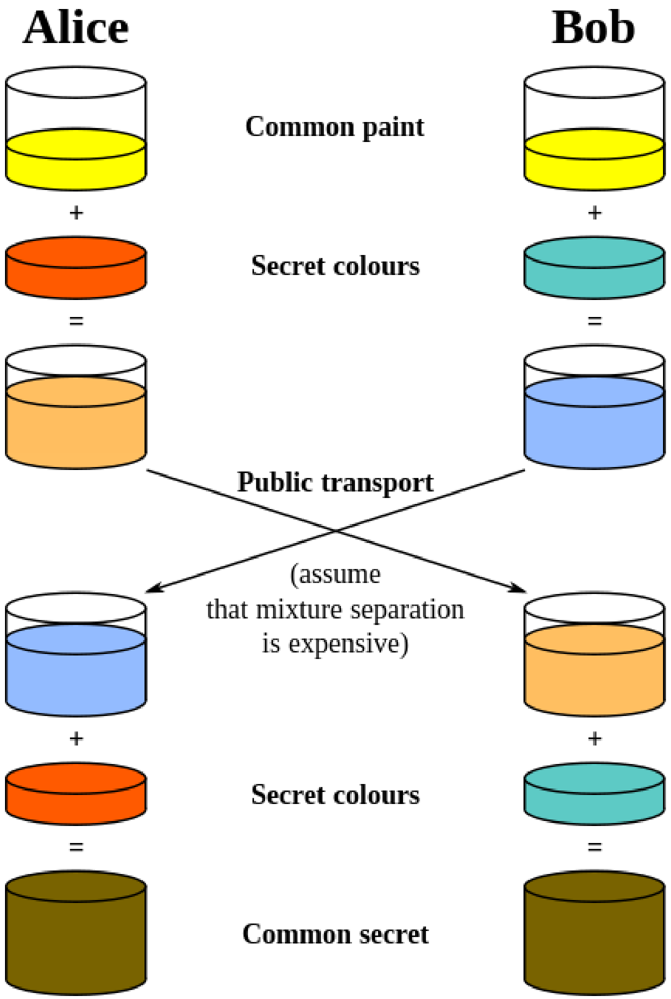
  given g^x and g^y, it's hard to compute g^{xy} *mod p*
  - … unless you know x or y, in which case it's easy
- Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) problem:

  given g^x and g^y, it's hard to tell the difference between g^{xy} *mod p* and g^r *mod p* where r is random

More on Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Important Note:
  - We have discussed discrete logs modulo integers
  - Significant advantages in using elliptic curve groups
    - Groups with some similar mathematical properties (i.e., are “groups”) but have better security and performance (size) properties

Diffie-Hellman: Conceptually



Common paint: p and g

Secret colors: x and y

Send over public transport:

g^x mod p

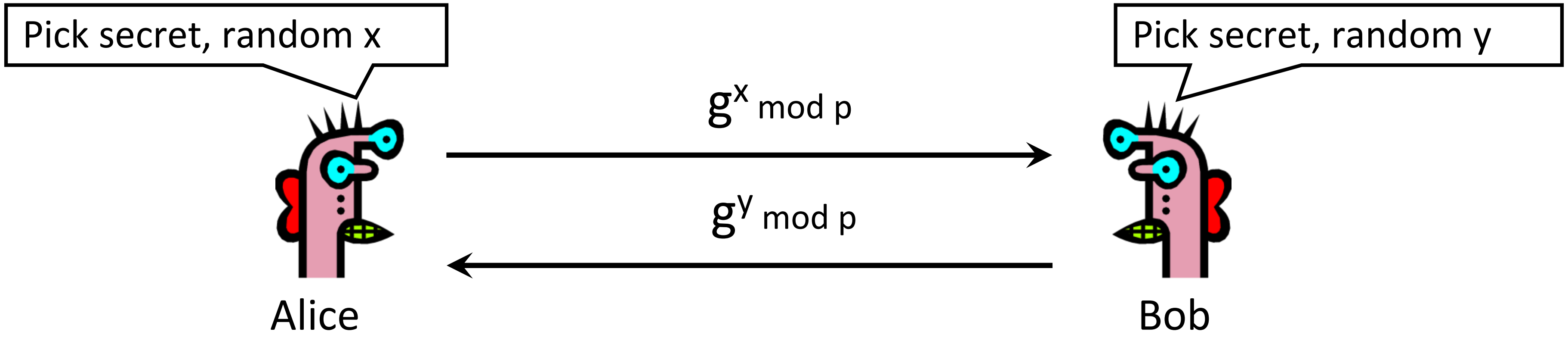
g^y mod p

Common secret: g^{xy} mod p

[from Wikipedia]

Diffie-Hellman: Gradescope

- DH is a great tool, but doesn’t solve every problem
- Under what circumstances (what type of adversary) is DH going to give us the full CIA(A) triad for the secret key?
- Under what circumstances might DH _not_ do that?



Compute $k=(g^y)^x=g^{xy}$ mod p

Compute $k=(g^x)^y=g^{xy}$ mod p

Diffie-Hellman Caveats

- Assuming DDH problem is hard (depends on choice of parameters!), Diffie-Hellman protocol is a secure key establishment protocol against passive attackers
  - Common recommendation:
    - Choose p=2q+1, where q is also a large prime
    - Choose g that generates a subgroup of order q in Z_p*
    - DDH is hard in this group
  - Eavesdropper can't tell the difference between the established key and a random value
  - In practice, often hash $g^{xy} \bmod p$, and use the hash as the key
  - Can use the new key for symmetric cryptography
- Diffie-Hellman protocol (by itself) does not provide authentication (against active attackers)
  - Person in the middle attack (also called "man in the middle attack")

Example from Earlier

- Given g and prime p, compute: g^1 mod p, g^2 mod p, … g^{100} mod p
  - For p=11, g=10
    - 10^1 mod 11 = 10, 10^2 mod 11 = 1, 10^3 mod 11 = 10, …
    - Produces cyclic group {10, 1} (order=2)
  - For p=11, g=7
    - 7^1 mod 11 = 7, 7^2 mod 11 = 5, 7^3 mod 11 = 2, …
    - Produces cyclic group {7,5,2,3,10,4,6,9,8,1} (order = 10)
    - g=7 is a "generator" of Z_{11}*
  - For p=11, g=3
    - 3^1 mod 11 = 3, 3^2 mod 11 = 9, 3^3 mod 11 = 5, …
    - Produces cyclic group {3,9,5,4,1} (order = 5) (5 is a prime)
    - g=3 generates a group of prime order

Stepping Back: Asymmetric Crypto

- We've just seen session key establishment
  - Can then use shared key for symmetric crypto
- Next: public key encryption
  - For confidentiality
- Then: digital signatures
  - For authenticity

Requirements for Public Key Encryption

- Key generation: computationally easy to generate a pair (public key PK, private key SK)
- Encryption: given plaintext M and public key PK, easy to compute ciphertext $C=E_{PK}(M)$
- Decryption: given ciphertext $C=E_{PK}(M)$ and private key SK, easy to compute plaintext M
  - Infeasible to learn anything about M from C without SK
  - Trapdoor function: Decrypt(SK,Encrypt(PK,M))=M

Some Number Theory Facts

- Euler totient function $\varphi(n)$ ($n \geq 1$) is the number of integers in the [1,n] interval that are relatively prime to n
  - Two numbers are relatively prime if their greatest common divisor (gcd) is 1
  - Easy to compute for primes: $\varphi(p) = p-1$
  - Note that $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a)\,\varphi(b)$ if a & b are relatively prime

RSA Cryptosystem [Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

- Key generation:
  - Generate large primes p, q
  - Compute **n**=pq and **φ(n)**=(p-1)(q-1)
  - Choose small **e**, relatively prime to φ(n)
    - Typically, **e=3** or **e=2^{16}+1=65537**
  - Compute unique **d** such that ed ≡ 1 mod φ(n)
    - Modular inverse: d ≡ e^{-1} mod φ(n)

Public key = (e,n);

Secret key = (d,n)

Encryption of m: c = m^e mod n

Decryption of c: c^d mod n = $(m^e)^d$ mod n = m

Why is RSA Secure?

- RSA problem:
  - Given c, n=pq, and e such that gcd(e, $\varphi(n)$)=1
  - Find m such that $m^e = c \bmod n$
  - In other words, recover m from ciphertext c and public key (n,e) by taking e^{th} root of c modulo n
  - There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this *without* knowing p and q

Why is RSA Secure?

- There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this *without* knowing p and q

- Factoring problem: given positive integer n, find primes $p_1, \ldots, p_k$ such that $n=p_1^{e1}p_2^{e2}\ldots p_k^{ek}$

- If factoring is easy, then RSA problem is easy (knowing factors means you can compute d = inverse of e mod (p-1)(q-1))
  - It may be possible to break RSA without factoring n -- but if it is, we don't know how

RSA Encryption Caveats

- Encrypted message needs to be interpreted as an integer less than n
- Don’t use RSA **directly** for privacy – output is deterministic! Need to pre-process input somehow
- Plain RSA also does not provide integrity
  - Can tamper with encrypted messages

In practice, OAEP is used: instead of encrypting M, encrypt

$M \oplus G(r) \,||\, r \oplus H(M \oplus G(r))$

- r is random and fresh, G and H are hash functions

Review: RSA Cryptosystem [Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

- Key generation:
  - Generate large primes p, q
    - Say, 2048 bits each (need primality testing, too)
  - Compute **n**=pq and **φ(n)**=(p-1)(q-1)
  - Choose small **e**, relatively prime to φ(n)
    - Typically, **e=3** or **$e=2^{16}+1=65537$**
  - Compute unique **d** such that ed ≡ 1 mod φ(n)
    - Modular inverse: $d \equiv e^{-1} \bmod \varphi(n)$
  - Public key = (e,n); private key = (d,n)
- Encryption of m: $c = m^e \bmod n$
- Decryption of c: $c^d \bmod n = (m^e)^d \bmod n = m$

Actually, RSA is bad and stop using it

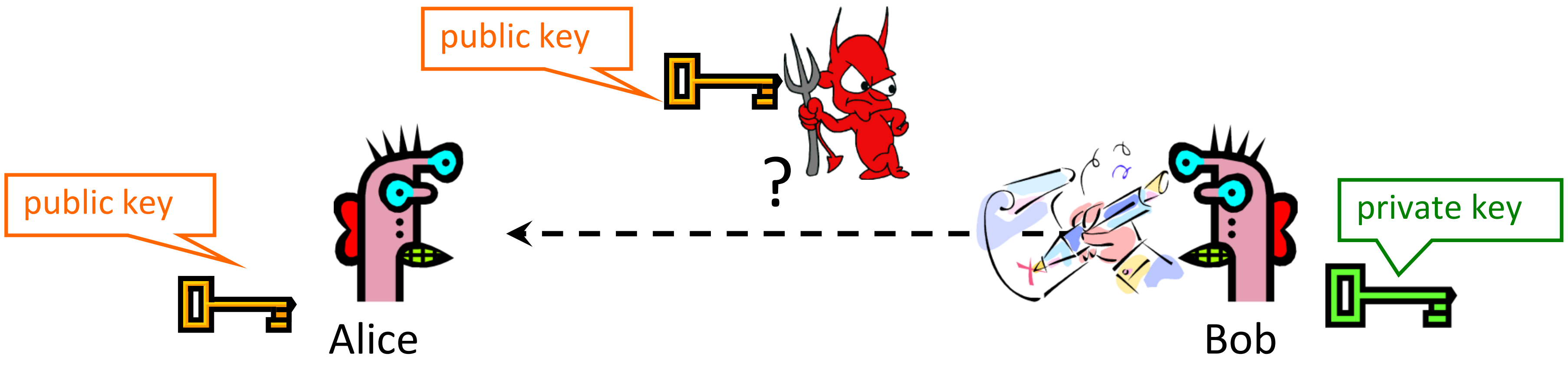
- Math is OK, implementation isn't
  - Yes, all the implementations

- https://blog.trailofbits.com/2019/07/08/fuck-rsa/

- Sorry I just spent time teaching it to you
  - Maybe you would've preferred projected coordinate math on elliptic curves?

Using public key cryptography… backwards

Digital Signatures: Basic Idea



Given: Everybody knows Bob's public key
Only Bob knows the corresponding private key

Goal: Bob sends a "digitally signed" message

1. To compute a signature, must know the private key
2. To verify a signature, only the public key is needed

RSA Signatures

- Public key is **(n,e)**, private key is **(n,d)**
- To sign message m: $s = m^d \bmod n$
  - Signing & decryption are same **underlying** operation in RSA
  - It's infeasible to compute **s** on **m** if you don't know **d**
- To verify signature s on message m:

  verify that $s^e \bmod n = (m^d)^e \bmod n = m$
  - Just like encryption (for RSA primitive)
  - Anyone who knows **n** and **e** (public key) can verify signatures produced with d (private key)
- In practice, also need padding & hashing
  - Without padding and hashing: Consider multiplying two signatures together
  - Standard padding/hashing schemes exist for RSA signatures

DSS Signatures

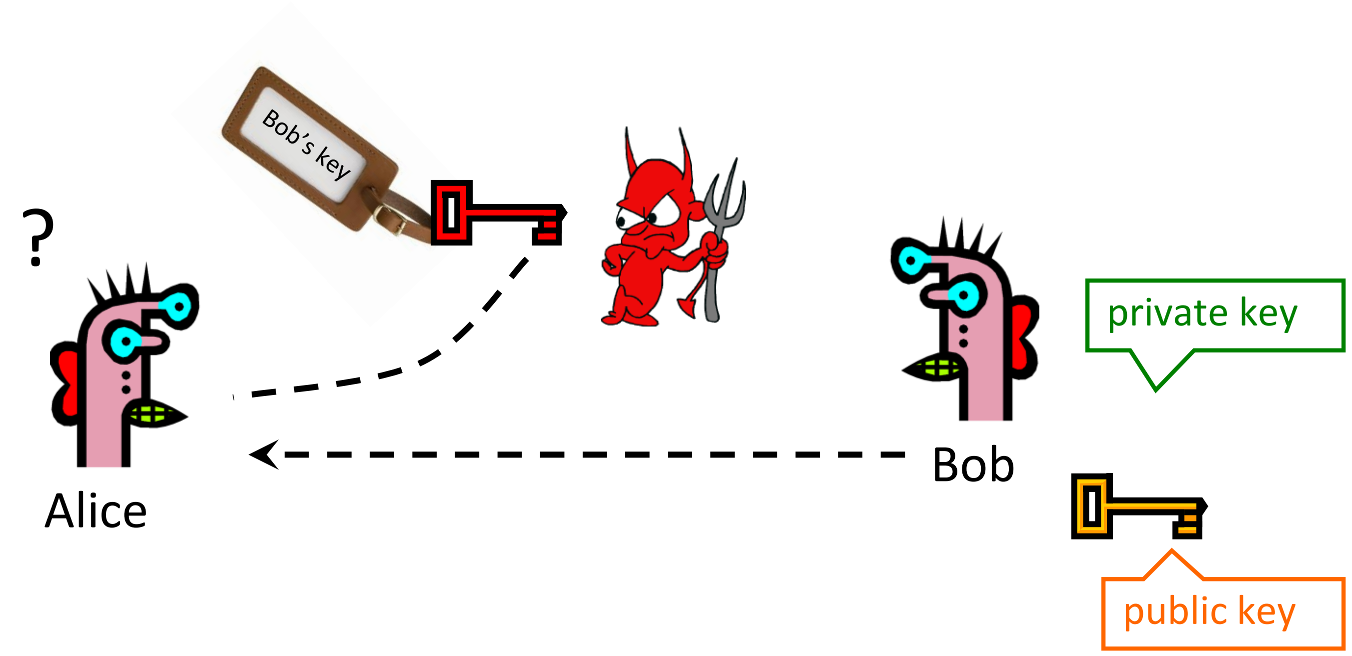
- Digital Signature Standard (DSS)
  - U.S. government standard (1991, most recent rev. 2013)
- Public key: (p, q, g, $y=g^x \bmod p$), private key: x
- Each signing operation picks a new random value, to use during signing. Security breaks if two messages are signed with that same value.
- Security of DSS requires hardness of discrete log
  - If could solve discrete logarithm problem, would extract x (private key) from $g^x \bmod p$ (public key)
- Again: We've discussed discrete logs modulo integers; significant advantages to using elliptic curve groups instead.

Post-Quantum

- If quantum computer become a reality
  - It becomes much more efficient to break conventional asymmetric encryption schemes (e.g., factoring becomes “easy”)
  - Easy is a very relative term, but Shor’s Algorithm is compelling.

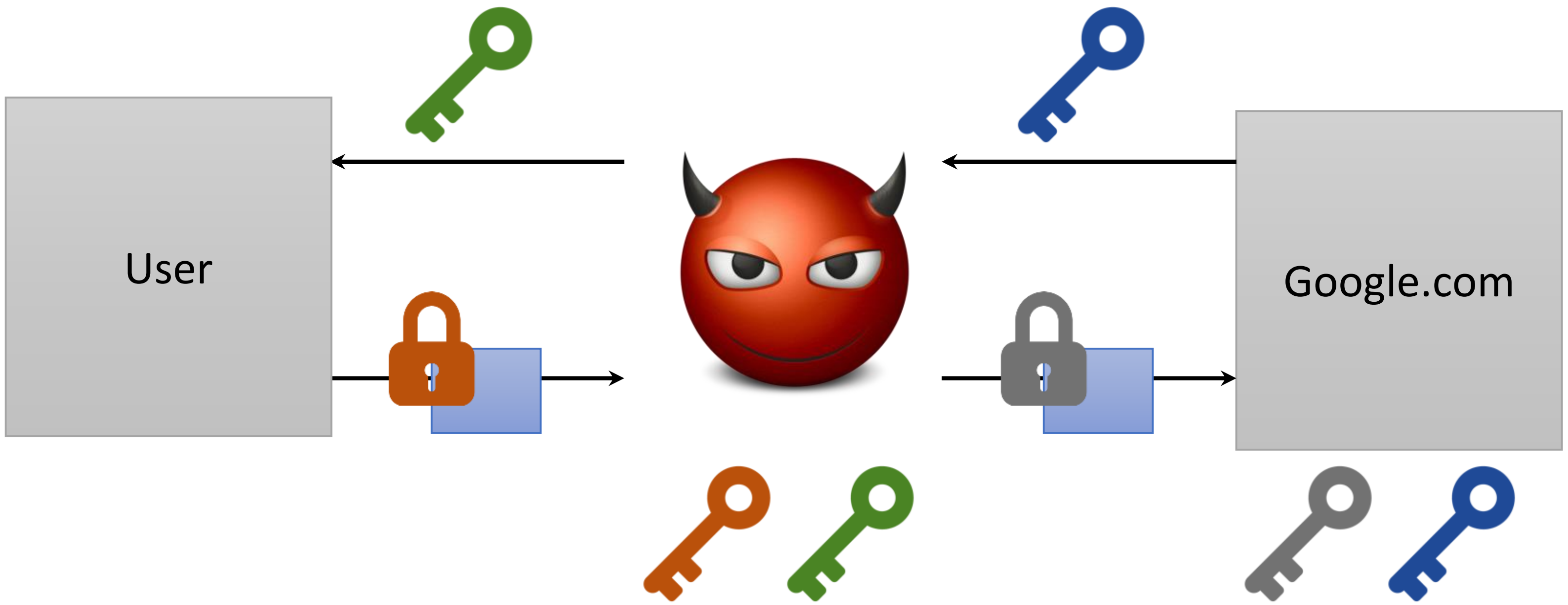
- There exists efforts to make quantum-resilient asymmetric encryption schemes
  - (Check out NIST’s PQC competition!)

Authenticity of Public Keys



Problem: How does Alice know that the public key they received is really Bob's public key?

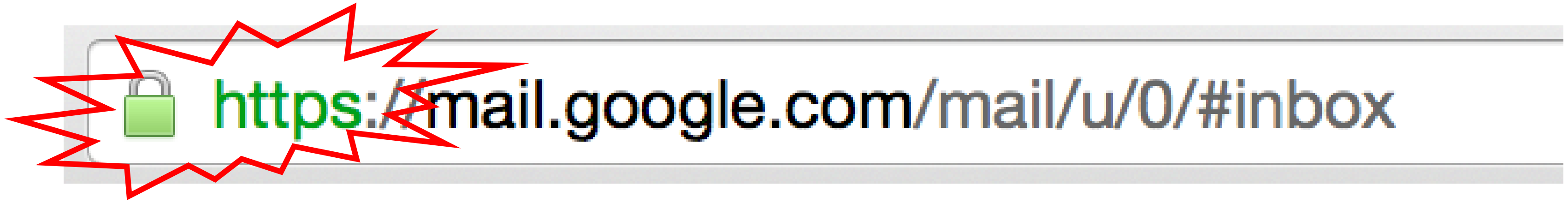
Threat: Person-in-the Middle



Distribution of Public Keys

- Public announcement or public directory
  - Risks: forgery and tampering
- Public-key certificate
  - Signed statement specifying the key and identity
    - sig_{CA}(“Bob”, PK_B)
    - Additional information often signed as well (e.g., expiration date)
- Common approach: certificate authority (CA)
  - Single agency responsible for certifying public keys
  - After generating a private/public key pair, user proves their identity and knowledge of the private key to obtain CA’s certificate for the public key (offline)
  - Every computer is <u>pre-configured</u> with CA’s public key

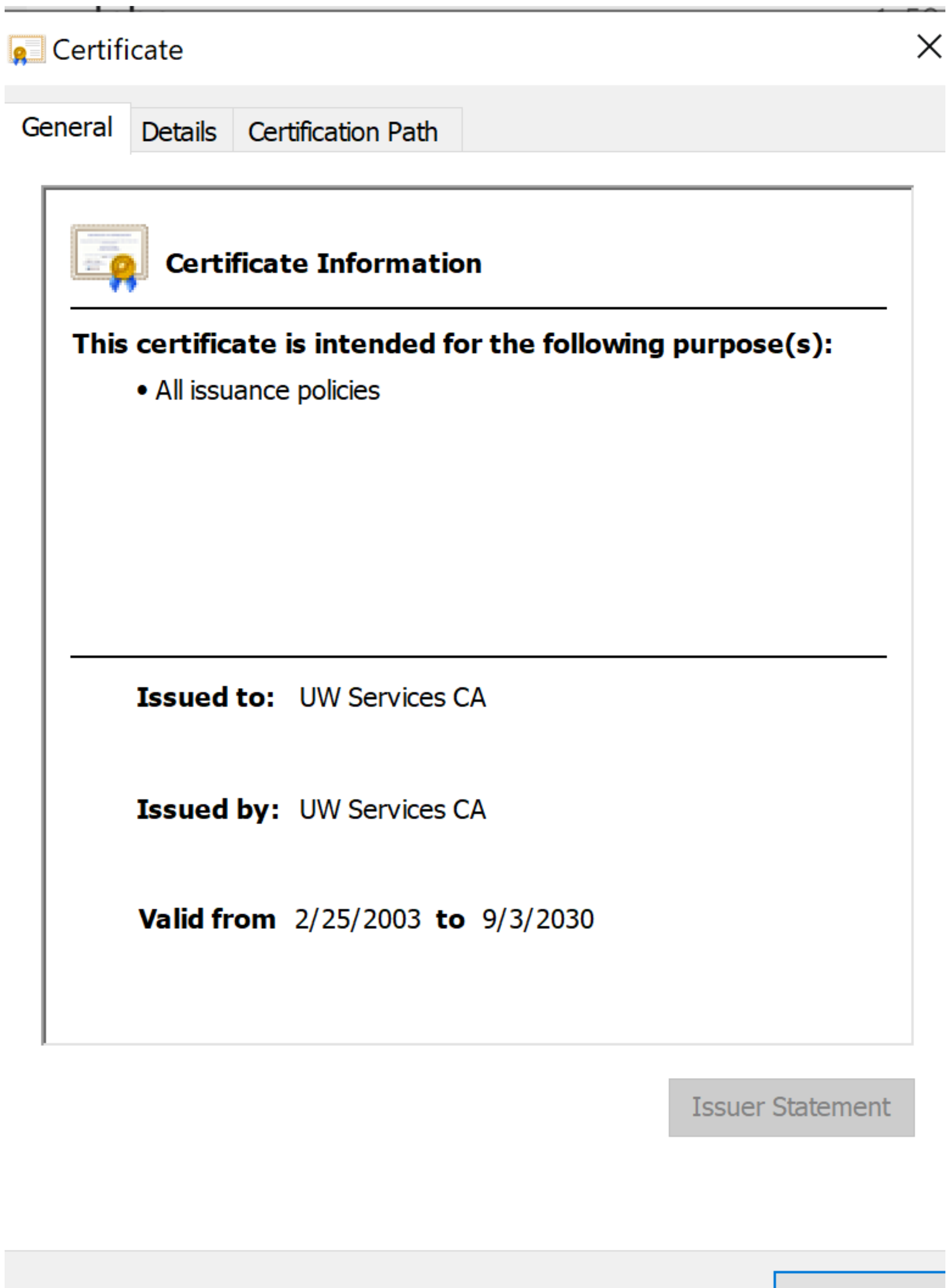
You encounter this every day…

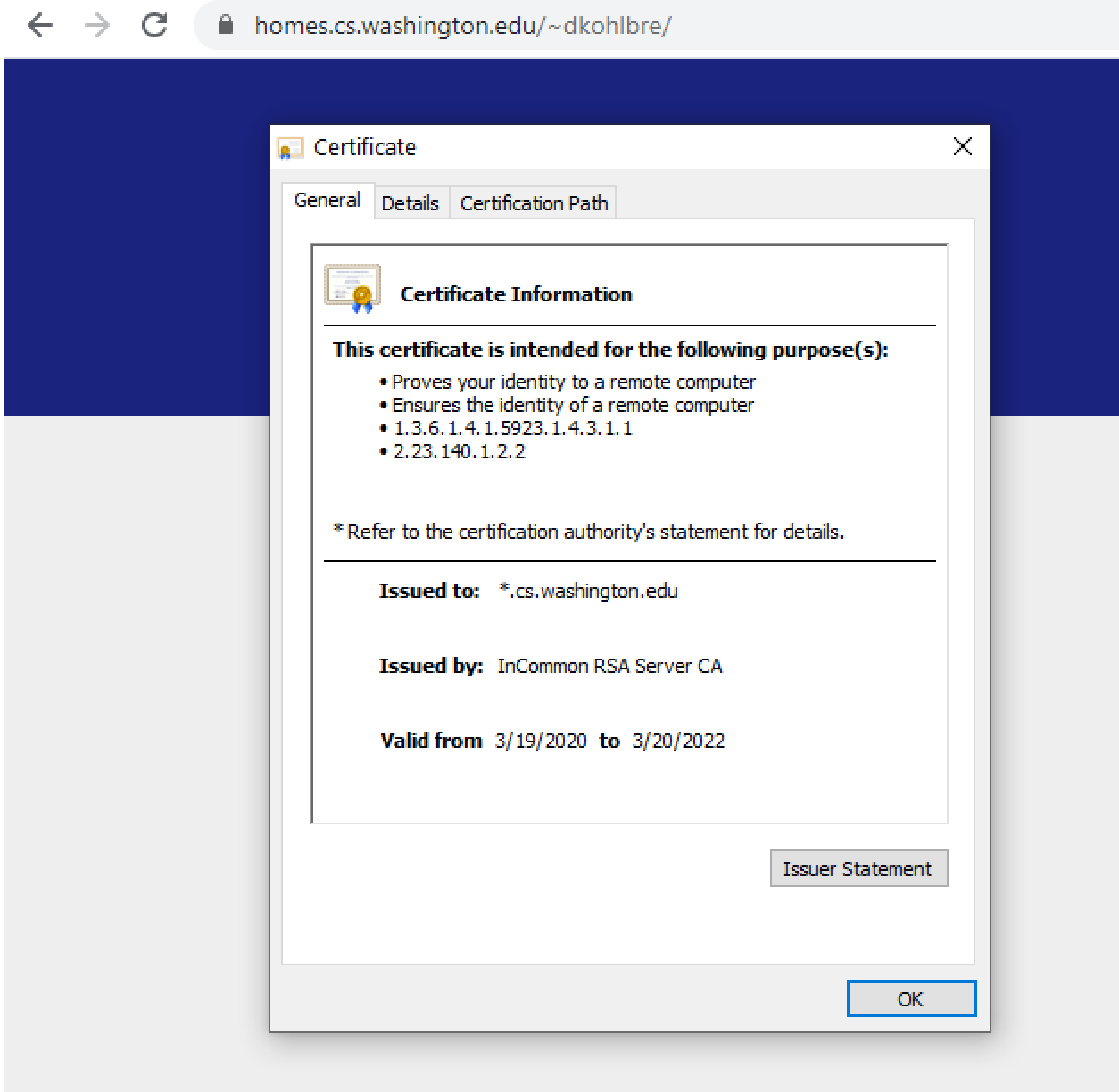


SSL/TLS: Encryption & authentication for connections

SSL/TLS High Level

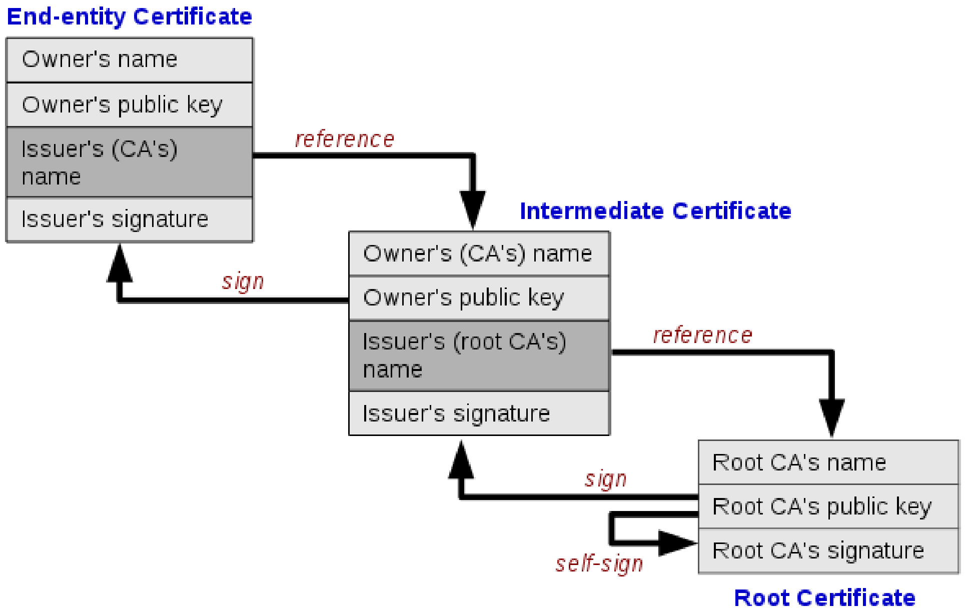
- SSL/TLS consists of two protocols
  - Familiar pattern for key exchange protocols
- Handshake protocol
  - Use public-key cryptography to establish a shared secret key between the client and the server
- Record protocol
  - Use the secret symmetric key established in the handshake protocol to protect communication between the client and the server


Certificate
General
Details
Certification Path
Certificate Information
This certificate is intended for the following purpose(s):
• All issuance policies
Issued to: UW Services CA
Issued by: UW Services CA
Valid from 2/25/2003 to 9/3/2030
Issuer Statement


homes.cs.washington.edu/~dkohlbre/
Certificate
General
Details
Certification Path
Certificate Information
This certificate is intended for the following purpose(s):
• Proves your identity to a remote computer
• Ensures the identity of a remote computer
• 1.3.6.1.4.1.5923.1.4.3.1.1
• 2.23.140.1.2.2
* Refer to the certification authority's statement for details.
Issued to: *.cs.washington.edu
Issued by: InCommon RSA Server CA
Valid from 3/19/2020 to 3/20/2022
Issuer Statement
OK

Hierarchical Approach

- Single CA certifying every public key is impractical
- Instead, use a trusted root authority (e.g., Verisign)
  - Everybody must know the root's public key
  - Instead of single cert, use a certificate chain
    - $sig_{Verisign}$("AnotherCA", $PK_{AnotherCA}$), $sig_{AnotherCA}$("Alice", PK_A)
  - Not shown in figure but important:
    - Signed as part of each cert is whether party is a CA or not



- What happens if root authority is ever compromised?