

CSE 484 (Winter 2011)

# Asymmetric Cryptography

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Thanks to Dan Boneh, Dieter Gollmann, John Manferdelli, John Mitchell, Vitaly Shmatikov, Bennet Yee, and many others for sample slides and materials ...

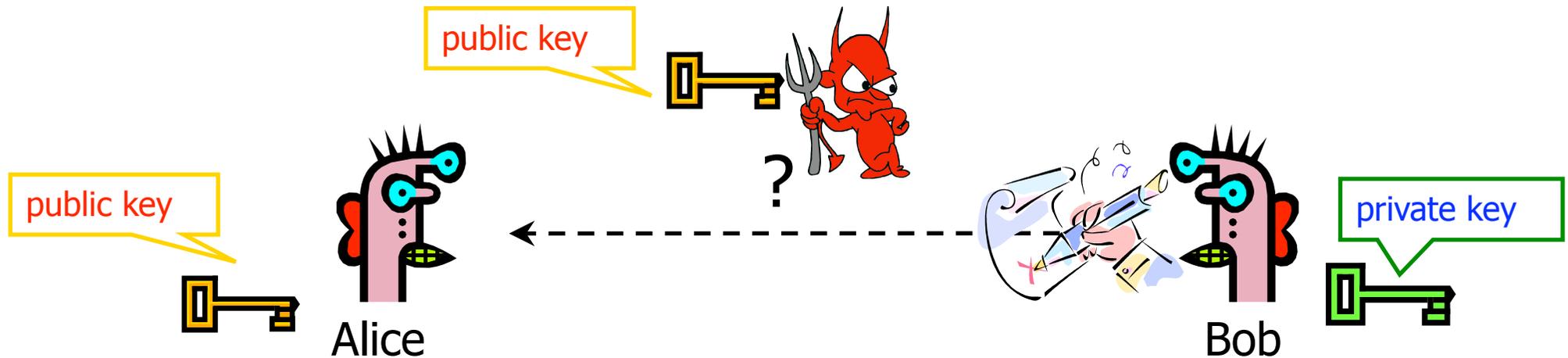
# Goals for Today

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- ◆ Asymmetric Cryptography
- ◆ HW2 returned at end of class (please remember to wait to pick up)

# Digital Signatures: Basic Idea

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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, enough to know the public key

# RSA Signatures

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- ◆ Public key is  $(n, e)$ , private key is  $d$
- ◆ To **sign** message  $m$ :  $s = m^d \bmod n$ 
  - Signing and decryption are the 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  $m$ :  
 $s^e \bmod n = (m^d)^e \bmod n = m$ 
  - Just like encryption
  - Anyone who knows  $n$  and  $e$  (public key) can verify signatures produced with  $d$  (private key)
- ◆ In practice, also need padding & hashing
  - Standard padding/hashing schemes exist for RSA signatures

# Encryption and Signatures

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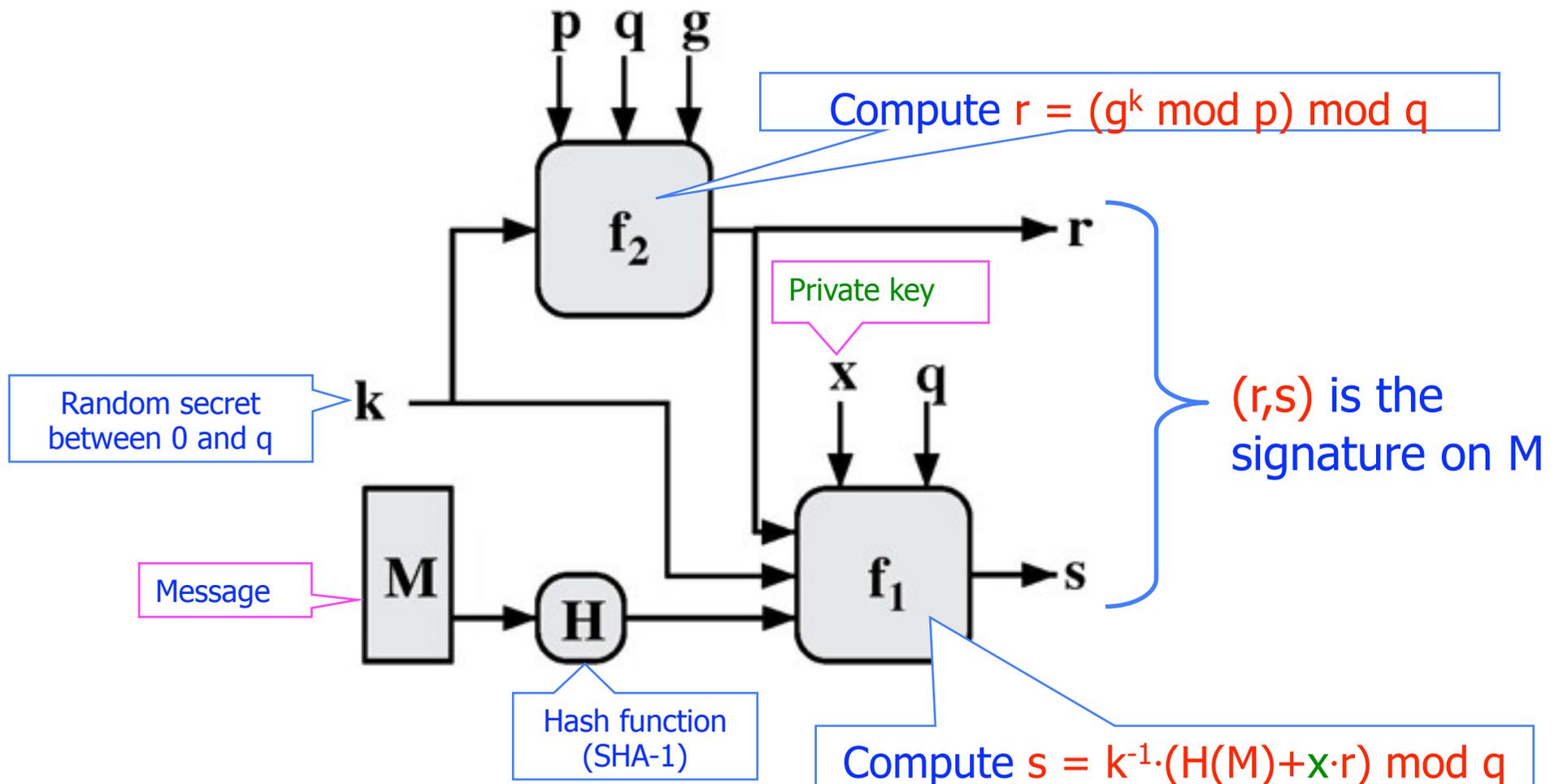
- ◆ Often people think: Encryption and decryption are inverses.
- ◆ That's a common view
  - True for the RSA **primitive (underlying component)**
- ◆ But not one we'll take
  - To really use RSA, we need padding
  - And there are many other decryption methods

# Digital Signature Standard (DSS)

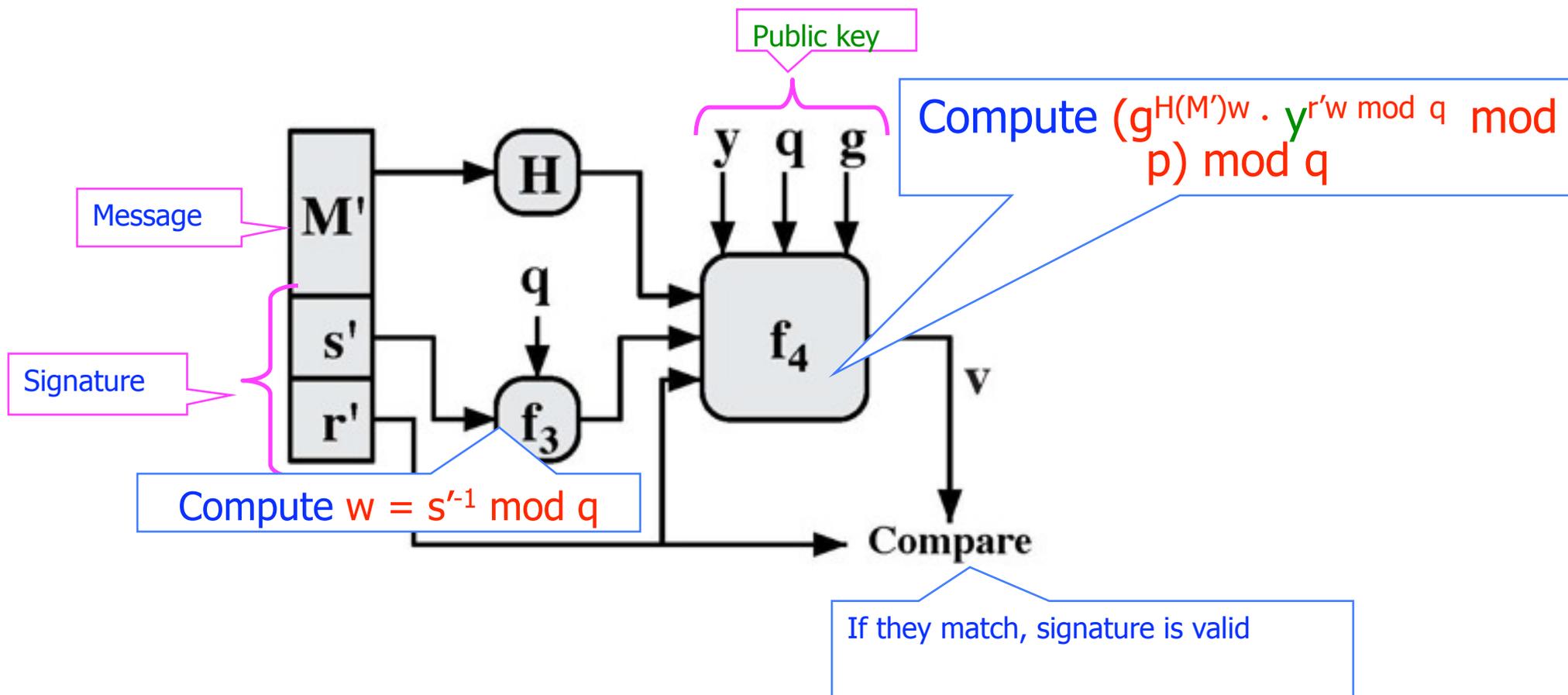
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- ◆ U.S. government standard (1991-94)
  - Modification of the ElGamal signature scheme (1985)
- ◆ Key generation:
  - Generate large primes  $p, q$  such that  $q$  divides  $p-1$   
–  $2^{159} < q < 2^{160}, 2^{511+64t} < p < 2^{512+64t}$  where  $0 \leq t \leq 8$
  - Select  $h \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  and compute  $g = h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p$
  - Select random  $x$  such  $1 \leq x \leq q-1$ , compute  $y = g^x \bmod p$
- ◆ Public key:  $(p, q, g, y = g^x \bmod p)$ , private key:  $x$
- ◆ 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)

# DSS: Signing a Message (Skim)



# DSS: Verifying a Signature (Skim)



# Why DSS Verification Works (Skim)

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- ◆ If  $(r,s)$  is a legitimate signature, then
$$r = (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q ; s = k^{-1} \cdot (H(M) + x \cdot r) \bmod q$$
- ◆ Thus  $H(M) = -x \cdot r + k \cdot s \bmod q$ 
  - Multiply both sides by  $w = s^{-1} \bmod q$
- ◆  $H(M) \cdot w + x \cdot r \cdot w = k \bmod q$ 
  - Exponentiate  $g$  to both sides
- ◆  $(g^{H(M) \cdot w + x \cdot r \cdot w} = g^k) \bmod p \bmod q$ 
  - In a valid signature,  $g^k \bmod p \bmod q = r$ ,  $g^x \bmod p = y$
- ◆ Verify  $g^{H(M) \cdot w} \cdot y^{r \cdot w} = r \bmod p \bmod q$

# Security of DSS

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- ◆ Can't create a valid signature without private key
- ◆ Given a signature, hard to recover private key
- ◆ Can't change or tamper with signed message
- ◆ If the same message is signed twice, signatures are different
  - Each signature is based in part on random secret  $k$
- ◆ Secret  $k$  must be different for each signature!
  - If  $k$  is leaked or if two messages re-use the same  $k$ , attacker can recover secret key  $x$  and forge any signature from then on
  - Example problem scenario: rebooted VMs; restarted embedded machines, Sony PS3!

# Advantages of Public-Key Crypto

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- ◆ Confidentiality without shared secrets
  - Very useful in open environments
  - No “chicken-and-egg” key establishment problem
    - With symmetric crypto, two parties must share a secret before they can exchange secret messages
    - Caveats to come
- ◆ Authentication without shared secrets
  - Use digital signatures to prove the origin of messages
- ◆ Reduce protection of information to protection of authenticity of public keys
  - No need to keep public keys secret, but must be sure that Alice’s public key is really her true public key

# Disadvantages of Public-Key Crypto

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- ◆ Calculations are 2-3 orders of magnitude slower
  - Modular exponentiation is an expensive computation
  - Typical usage: use public-key cryptography to establish a shared secret, then switch to symmetric crypto
    - E.g., IPsec, SSL, SSH, ...
- ◆ Keys are longer
  - 1024+ bits (RSA) rather than 128 bits (AES)
- ◆ Relies on unproven number-theoretic assumptions
  - What if factoring is easy?
    - Factoring is believed to be neither P, nor NP-complete
  - (Of course, symmetric crypto also rests on unproven assumptions)

# Exponentiation

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- ◆ How to compute  $M^x \bmod N$ ?
- ◆ Say,  $x = 13$
- ◆ Sums of power of 2,  $x = 8+4+1 = 2^3+2^2+2^0$
- ◆ Can also write  $x$  in binary, e.g.,  $x = 1101$
- ◆ Can solve by repeated squaring
  - $y = 1$ ;
  - $y = y^2 * M \bmod N // y = M$
  - $y = y^2 * M \bmod N // y = M^2 * M = M^{2+1} = M^3$
  - $y = y^2 \bmod N // y = (M^3)^2 = M^6$
  - $y = y^2 * M \bmod N // y = (M^6)^2 * M = M^{12+1} = M^{13} = M^x$

# Timing attacks

Collect timings for exponentiation with a bunch of messages  $M_1$ ,  $M_2$ , ... (e.g., RSA signing operations with a private exponent)

Assume (inductively) know  $b_3=1$ ,  $b_2=1$ , guess  $b_1=1$

i	$b_i = 0$	$b_i = 1$	Comp	Meas
3	$y = y^2 \bmod N$	$y = y^2 * M_1 \bmod N$		
2	$y = y^2 \bmod N$	$y = y^2 * M_1 \bmod N$		
1	$y = y^2 \bmod N$	$y = y^2 * M_1 \bmod N$	X1 secs	
0	$y = y^2 \bmod N$	$y = y^2 * M_1 \bmod N$		Y1 secs

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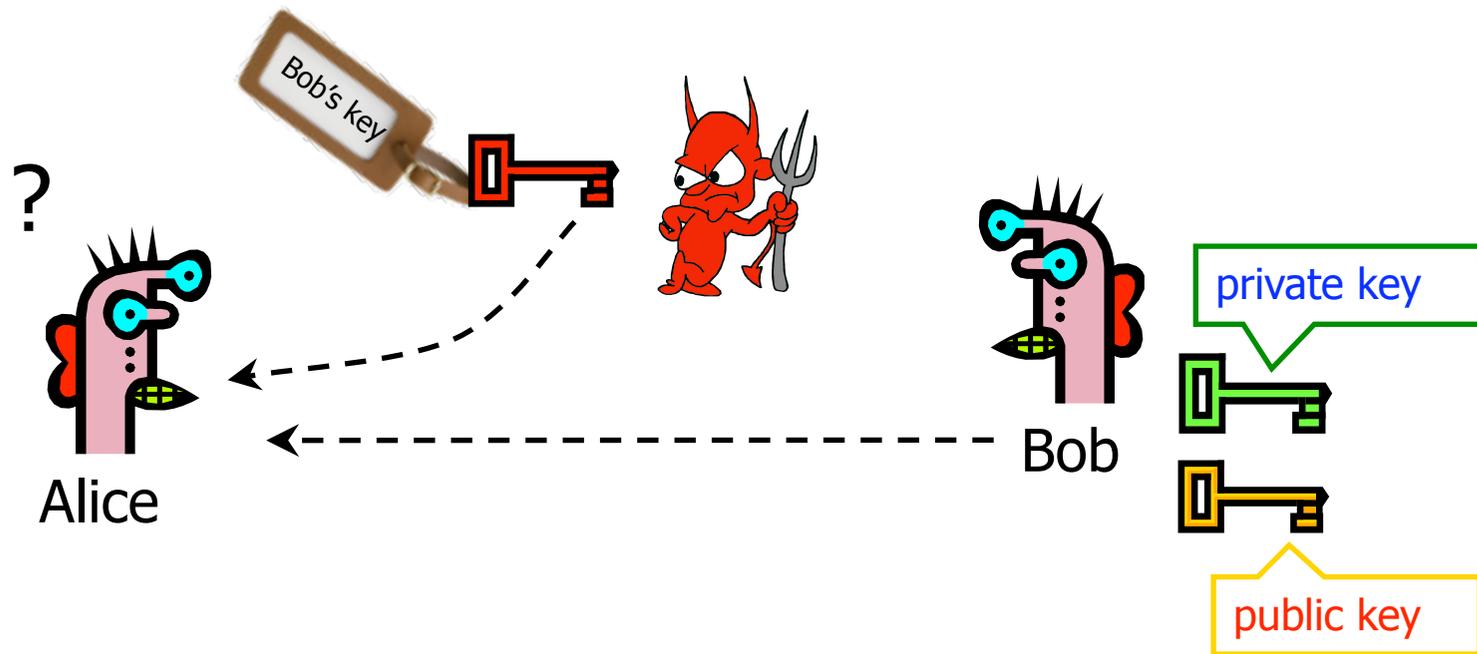
# Timing attacks

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- ◆ If  $b_1 = 1$ , then set of  $\{ Y_j - X_j \mid j \text{ in } \{1,2, \dots\} \}$  has distribution with “small” variance (due to time for final step,  $i=0$ )
  - “Guess” was correct when we computed  $X_1, X_2, \dots$
- ◆ If  $b_1 = 0$ , then set of  $\{ Y_j - X_j \mid j \text{ in } \{1,2, \dots\} \}$  has distribution with “large” variance (due to time for final step,  $i=0$ , and incorrect guess for  $b_1$ )
  - “Guess” was incorrect when we computed  $X_1, X_2, \dots$
  - So time computation wrong ( $X_j$  computed as large, but really small, ...)
- ◆ Strategy: Force user to sign large number of messages  $M_1, M_2, \dots$ . Record timings for signing.
- ◆ Iteratively learn bits of key by using above property.

# Authenticity of Public Keys

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

# Distribution of Public Keys

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- ◆ Public announcement or public directory
  - Risks: forgery and tampering
- ◆ Public-key certificate
  - Signed statement specifying the key and identity
    - $\text{sig}_{CA}(\text{"Bob"}, \text{PK}_B)$
- ◆ Common approach: certificate authority (CA)
  - Single agency responsible for certifying public keys
  - After generating a private/public key pair, user proves his identity and knowledge of the private key to obtain CA's certificate for the public key (offline)
  - Every computer is pre-configured with CA's public key

# Hierarchical Approach

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- ◆ Single CA certifying every public key is impractical
- ◆ Instead, use a trusted **root authority**
  - For example, Verisign
  - Everybody must know the public key for verifying root authority's signatures
- ◆ Root authority signs certificates for lower-level authorities, lower-level authorities sign certificates for individual networks, and so on
  - Instead of a single certificate, use a **certificate chain**
    - $\text{sig}_{\text{Verisign}}(\text{"AnotherCA"}, \text{PK}_{\text{AnotherCA}}), \text{sig}_{\text{AnotherCA}}(\text{"Alice"}, \text{PK}_A)$
  - What happens if root authority is ever compromised?

# Many Challenges

## Spooing URLs With Unicode

Posted by [timothy](#) on Mon May 27, '02 09:48 PM  
from the [there-is-a-problem-with-this-certificate](#) dept.

[Embedded Geek](#) writes:

"Scientific American has an interesting [article](#) about how a pair of students at the [Technion-Israel Institute of Technology](#) registered "microsoft.com" with Verisign, using the Russian Cyrillic letters "c" and "o". Even though it is a completely different domain, the two display identically (the article uses the term "homograph"). The work was done for a paper in the **Communications of the ACM** (the paper itself is not online). The article characterizes attacks using this spoof as "scary, if not entirely probable," assuming that a hacker would have to first take over a page at another site. I disagree: sending out a mail message with the URL waiting to be clicked ("Bill Gates will send you ten dollars!") is just one alternate technique. While security problems with Unicode have been noted here [before](#), this might be a new twist."



# Many Challenges

## CCC Create a Rogue CA Certificate

Posted by [CmdrTaco](#) on Tue Dec 30, 2008 12:14 PM

from the [they-even-faked-this-dept](#) dept.

[t3rmin4t0r](#) writes

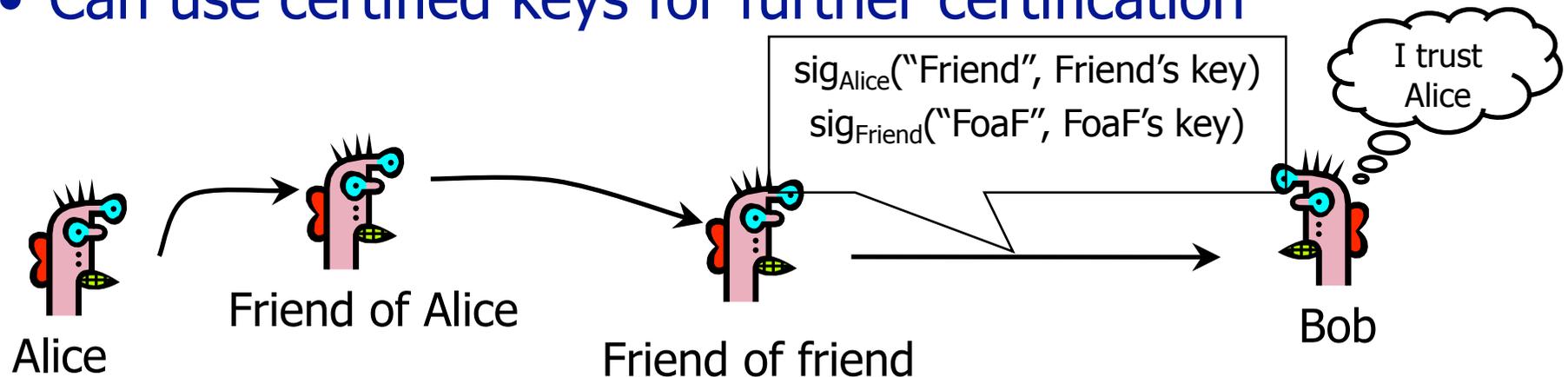
"Just when you were breathing easy about [Kaminsky](#), DNS and the word hijacking, by repeating the word SSL in your head, the hackers at [CCC](#) were busy at work making a hash of SSL certificate security. Here's the scoop on how they set up their own [rogue CA](#), by (from what I can figure) reversing the hash and engineering a collision up in MD5 space. Until now, MD5 collisions have been ignored because nobody would put in that much effort to create a useful dummy file, but a CA certificate for phishing seems juicy enough to be fodder for the botnets now."



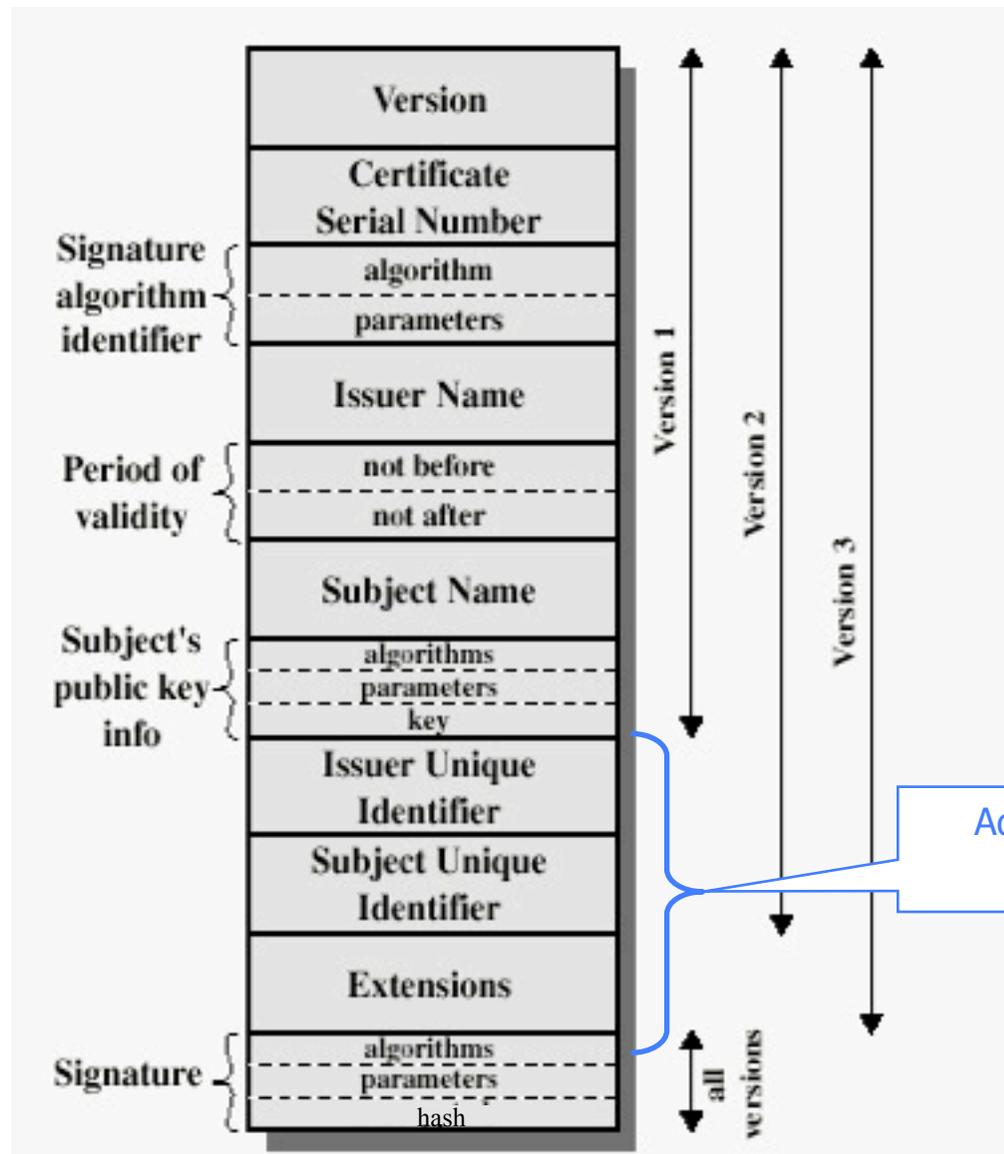
# Alternative: "Web of Trust"

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- ◆ Used in PGP (Pretty Good Privacy)
- ◆ Instead of a single root certificate authority, each person has a set of keys they "trust"
  - If public-key certificate is signed by one of the "trusted" keys, the public key contained in it will be deemed valid
- ◆ Trust can be transitive
  - Can use certified keys for further certification



# X.509 Certificate



Added in X.509 versions 2 and 3 to address usability and security problems

# Certificate Revocation

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- ◆ Revocation is very important
- ◆ Many valid reasons to revoke a certificate
  - Private key corresponding to the certified public key has been compromised
  - User stopped paying his certification fee to this CA and CA no longer wishes to certify him
  - CA's private key has been compromised!
- ◆ Expiration is a form of revocation, too
  - Many deployed systems don't bother with revocation
  - Re-issuance of certificates is a big revenue source for certificate authorities

# Certificate Revocation Mechanisms

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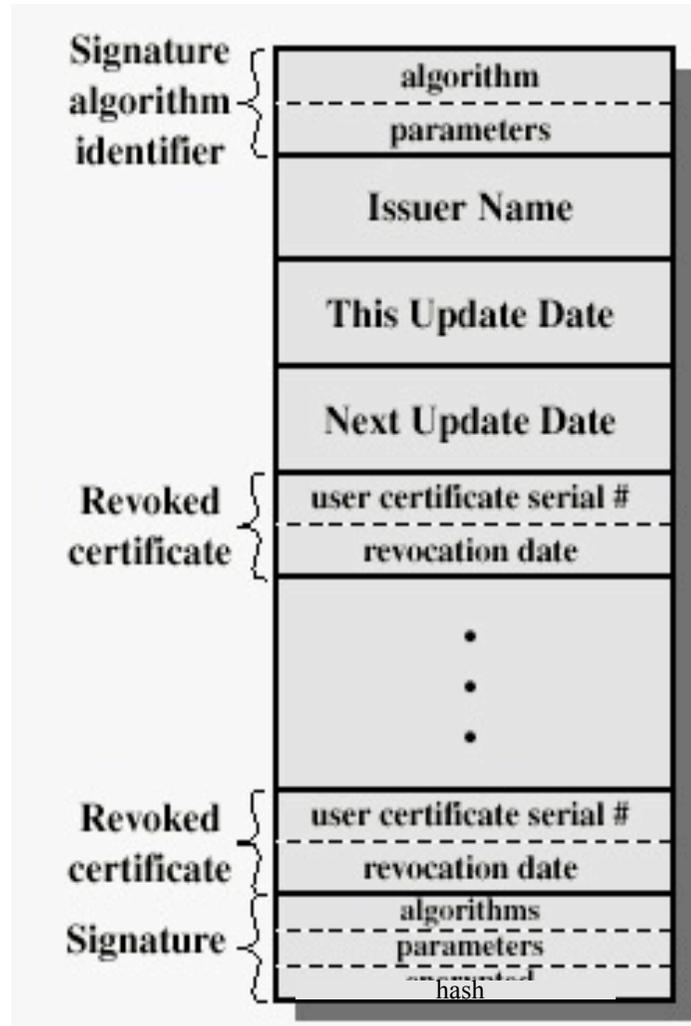
## ◆ Online revocation service

- When a certificate is presented, recipient goes to a special online service to verify whether it is still valid
  - Like a merchant dialing up the credit card processor

## ◆ Certificate revocation list (CRL)

- CA periodically issues a signed list of revoked certificates
  - Credit card companies used to issue thick books of canceled credit card numbers
- Can issue a “delta CRL” containing only updates

# X.509 Certificate Revocation List



Because certificate serial numbers must be unique within each CA, this is enough to identify the certificate