CSE 484 / CSE M 584: Computer Security and Privacy

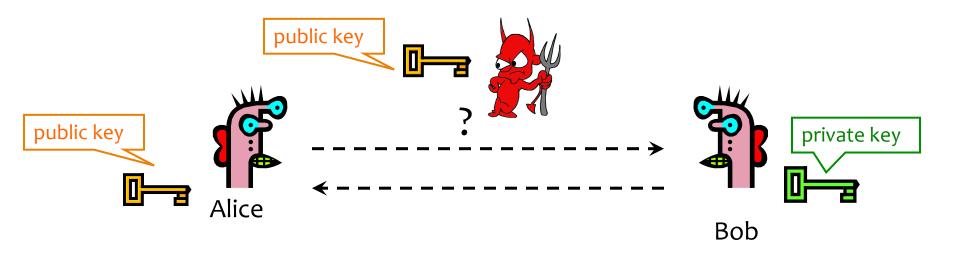
Cryptography: Asymmetric Cryptography [continued]

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Public Key Crypto: Basic Problem



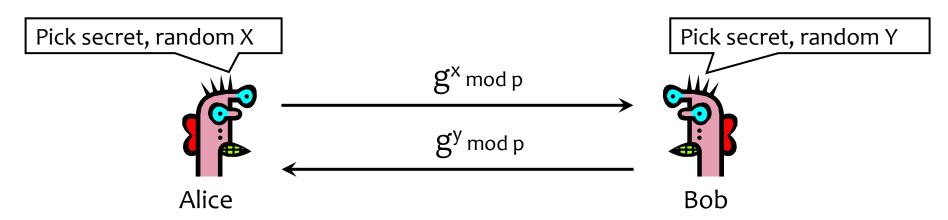
<u>Given</u>: Everybody knows Bob's public key
Only Bob knows the corresponding private key

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

2. Bob wants to authenticate himself

Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

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



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

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

Why is Diffie-Hellman Secure?

- Discrete Logarithm (DL) problem:
 given g^x mod p, it's hard to extract x
 - There is no known <u>efficient</u> algorithm for doing this
 - This is <u>not</u> 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

Properties of Diffie-Hellman

- Assuming DDH problem is hard (depends on choice of parameters!), Diffie-Hellman protocol is a secure key establishment protocol against <u>passive</u> attackers
 - Eavesdropper can't tell the difference between the established key and a random value
 - Can use the new key for symmetric cryptography
- Diffie-Hellman protocol (by itself) does not provide authentication

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 φ(n) (n≥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 $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a) \varphi(b)$
- Euler's theorem: if $a \in Z_n^*$, then $a^{\varphi(n)}=1 \mod n$ Z_n^* : integers relatively prime to n

RSA Cryptosystem [Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

- Key generation:
 - Generate large primes p, q
 - Say, 1024 bits each (need primality testing, too)
 - Compute n=pq and $\varphi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$
 - Choose small e, relatively prime to $\varphi(n)$
 - Typically, e=3 (can be vulnerable) or $e=2^{16}+1=65537$
 - Compute unique d such that ed = 1 mod $\varphi(n)$
 - Modular inverse: $d = e^{-1} \mod \varphi(n)$
 - Public key = (e,n); private 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 RSA Decryption Works

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e·d=1 mod \varphi(n), thus e·d=1+k·\varphi(n) for some k
Let m be any integer in Z_n* (not all of Z_n)
c^{d} \mod n = (m^{e})^{d} \mod n = m^{1+k \cdot \varphi(n)} \mod n
            = (m \mod n) * (m^{k \cdot \varphi(n)} \mod n)
Recall: Euler's theorem: if a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*, then a^{\varphi(n)}=1 \mod n
c^{d} \mod n = (m \mod n) * (1 \mod n)
            = m \mod n
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Proof omitted: True for all m in Z_n, not just m in Z_n*

Why is RSA Secure?

- RSA problem: given c, n=pq, and e such that $gcd(e, \varphi(n))=1$, find m such that $m^e=c \mod n$
 - In other words, recover m from ciphertext c and public key (n,e) by taking eth root of c modulo n
 - There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this
- Factoring problem: given positive integer n, find primes $p_1, ..., p_k$ such that $n=p_1^{e_1}p_2^{e_2}...p_k^{e_k}$
- 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

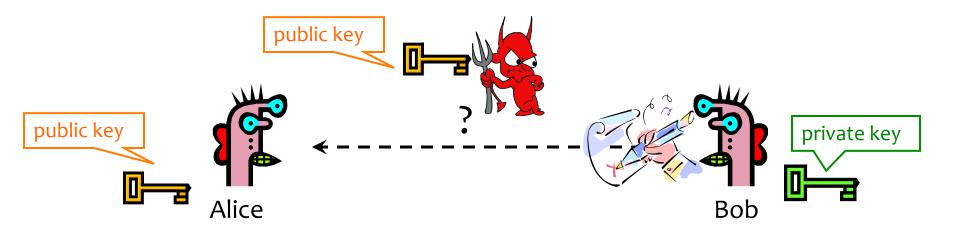
RSA Encryption Caveats

- 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 <u>not</u> 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

Digital Signatures: Basic Idea



<u>Given</u>: Everybody knows Bob's <u>public key</u> 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 mod 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 se mod n = (m^d)e mod 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

DSS Signatures

- Digital Signature Standard (DSS)
 - U.S. government standard (1991, most recent rev. 2013)
- Public key: (p, q, g, y=g^x mod 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 mod p (public key)

Advantages of Public Key Crypto

- Confidentiality without shared secrets
 - Very useful in open environments
 - Can use this for key establishment, with fewer "chickenor-egg" problems
 - With symmetric crypto, two parties must share a secret before they can exchange secret messages
- Authentication without shared secrets
 - Use digital signatures to prove the origin of messages
- Encryption keys are public, but must be sure that Alice's public key is really her public key
 - This is a hard problem...

Disadvantages of Public Key Crypto

- 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...)