

**CSE 484 / CSE M 584: Computer Security and Privacy**

# **Cryptography**

## **[Asymmetric Cryptography]**

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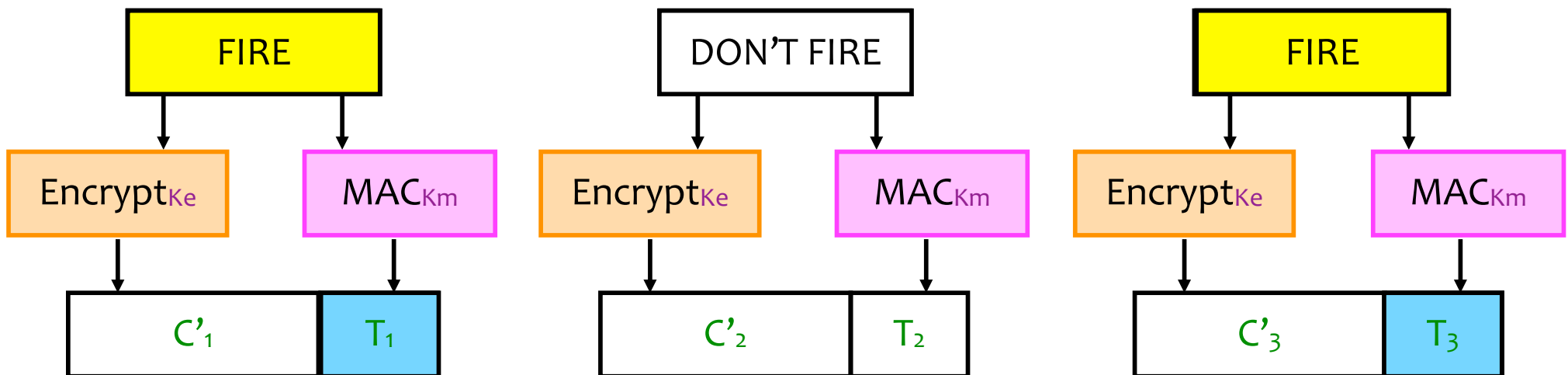
Thanks to Dan Boneh, Dieter Gollmann, Dan Halperin, Yoshi Kohno, Ada Lerner, John Manferdelli, John Mitchell, Vitaly Shmatikov, Bennet Yee, and many others for sample slides and materials ...

# Announcements

- Lab #1 due today
- Coming up
  - Wednesday: tech policy (Emily McReynolds)
  - Friday: adversarial ML (Earlence Fernandes)
  - Then: web security!
- Homework #2 on crypto out on today (due 11/3)
- If office hour times don't work for you, let us know and/or schedule appointments

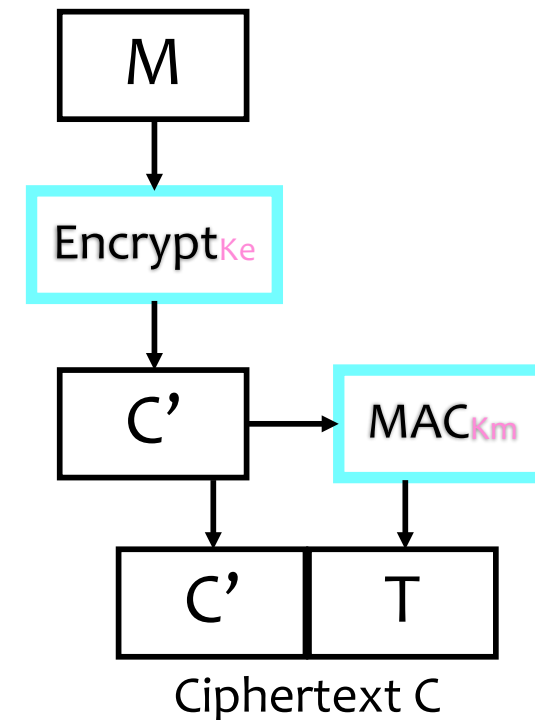
# Recap: Authenticated Encryption

- What if we want both privacy and integrity?
- Natural approach: combine **encryption scheme** and a **MAC**.
- **But be careful!**
  - Obvious approach: **Encrypt-and-MAC**
  - Problem: **MAC is deterministic!** same plaintext  $\rightarrow$  same MAC



# Recap: Authenticated Encryption

- Instead:  
*Encrypt then MAC.*
- (Not as good:  
MAC-then-Encrypt)



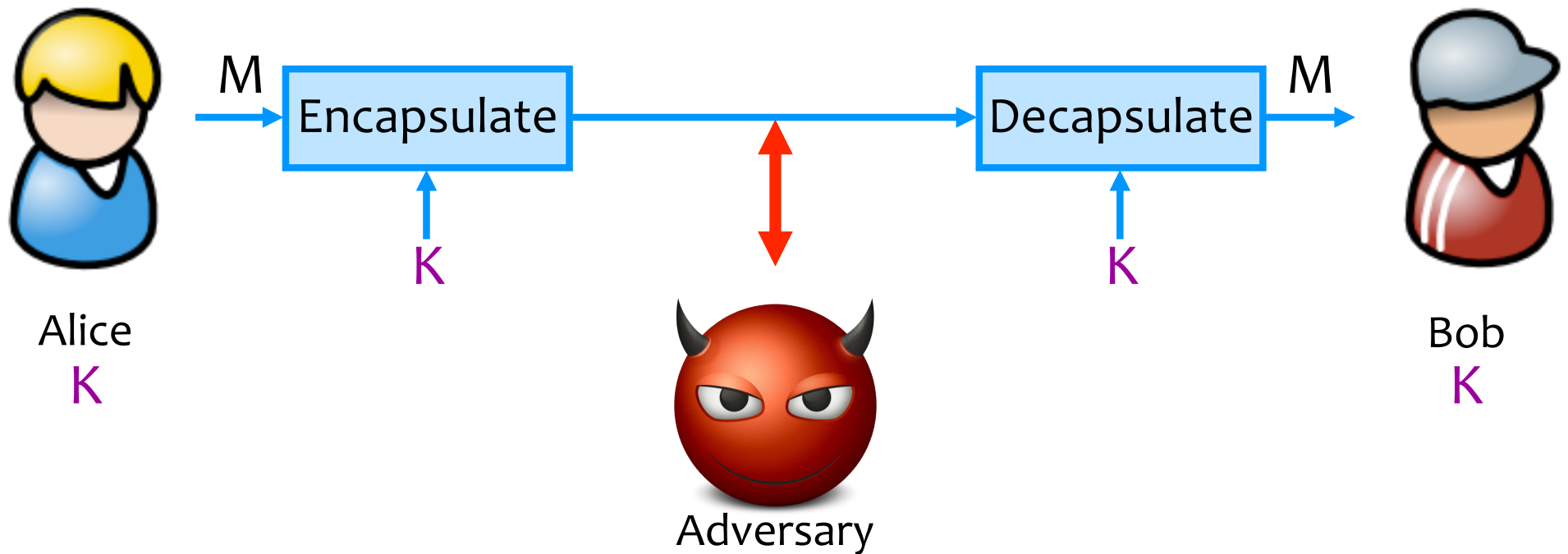
**Encrypt-then-MAC**

# 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  **$sk$** .

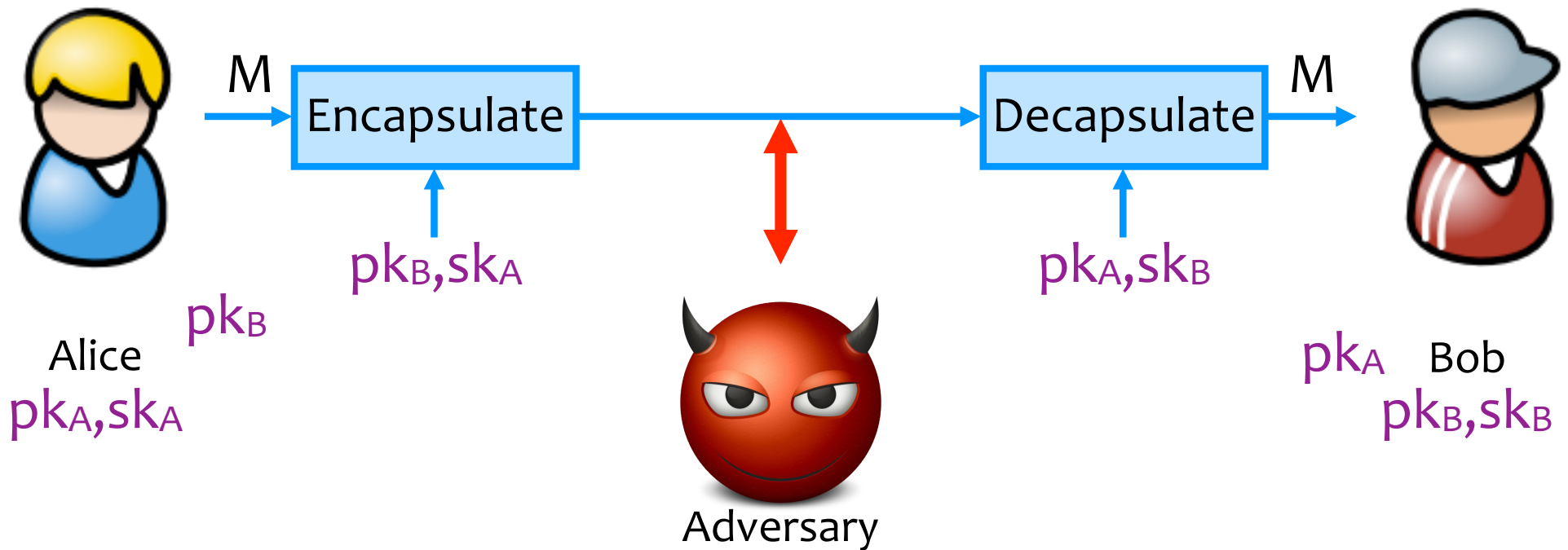
# Symmetric Setting

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  $sk$ .

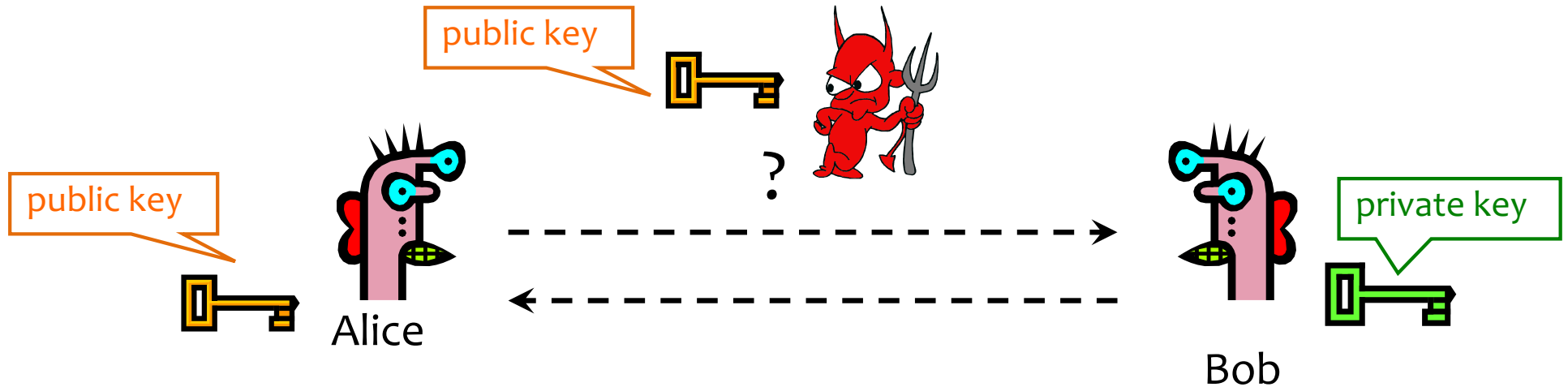


# Flavors of Cryptography

- Symmetric cryptography
  - Both communicating parties have access to a **shared random string  $K$** , called the **key**.
  - **Challenge: How do you privately share a key?**
- Asymmetric cryptography
  - Each party creates a public key  **$pk$**  and a secret key  **$sk$** .
  - **Challenge: How do you validate a public key?**



# 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 himself

# Applications of Public Key Crypto

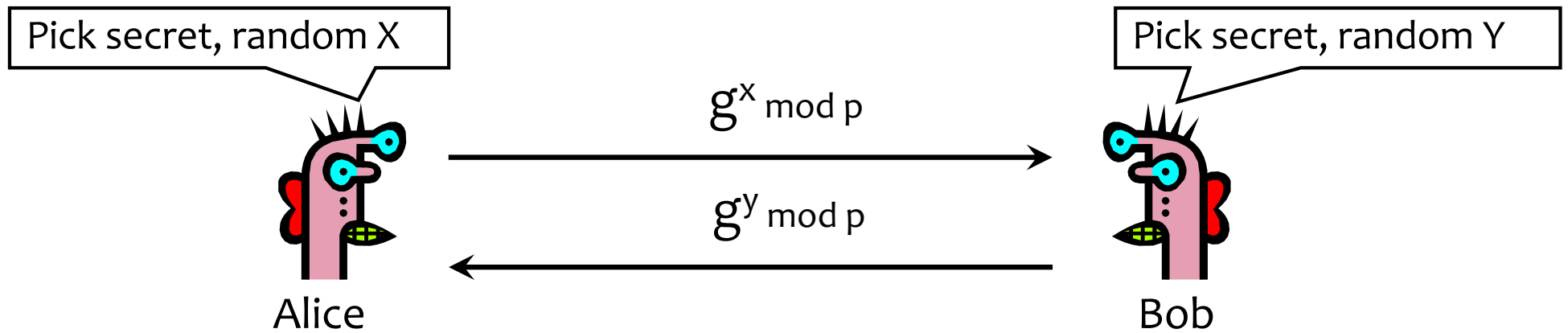
- Encryption for confidentiality
  - Anyone can encrypt a message
    - With symmetric crypto, must know secret key to encrypt
  - Only someone who knows private key can decrypt
  - Key management is simpler (or at least different)
    - Secret is stored only at one site: good for open environments
- 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?)

# Modular Arithmetic

- Refresher in section last week
- Given  $g$  and prime  $p$ , compute:  
 $g^1 \bmod p, g^{100} \bmod p, \dots g^{100} \bmod p$ 
  - For  $p=11, g=10$ 
    - $10^1 \bmod 11 = 10, 10^2 \bmod 11 = 1, 10^3 \bmod 11 = 10, \dots$
    - Produces cyclic group  $\{10, 1\}$  (order=2)
  - For  $p=11, g=7$ 
    - $7^1 \bmod 11 = 7, 7^2 \bmod 11 = 5, 7^3 \bmod 11 = 2, \dots$
    - 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)

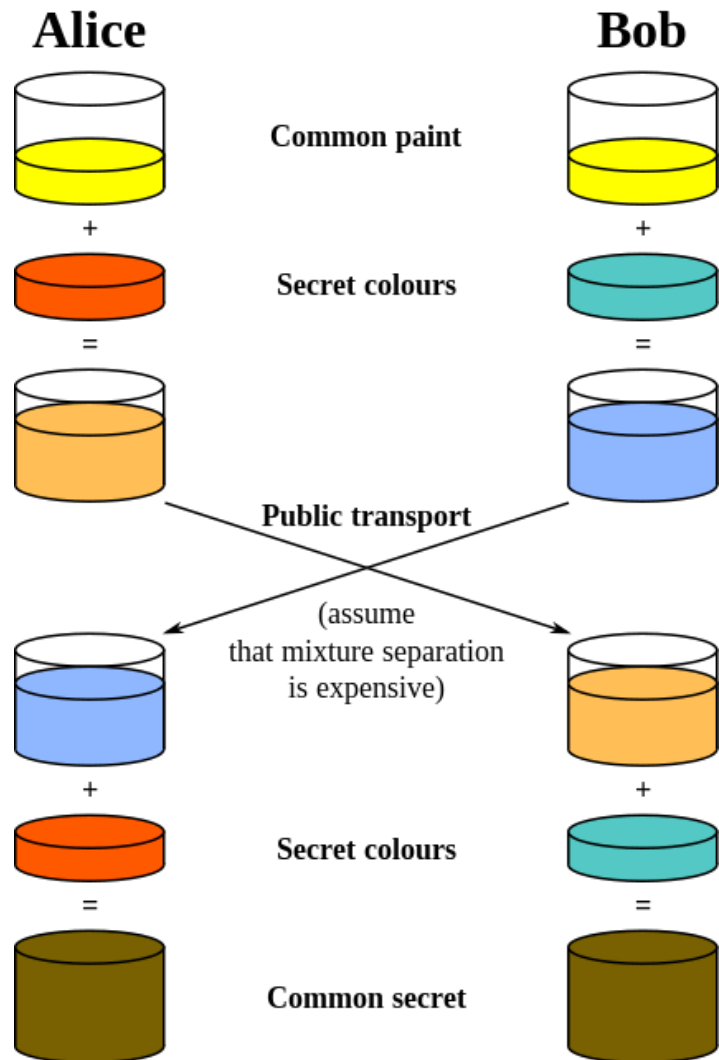
- Alice and Bob never met and share no secrets
- Public info:  $p$  and  $g$ 
  - $p$  is a large prime,  $g$  is a **generator** of  $Z_p^*$ 
    - $Z_p^* = \{1, 2 \dots p-1\}$ ;  $\forall a \in Z_p^* \exists i$  such that  $a = g^i \pmod p$
    - Modular arithmetic: numbers “wrap around” after they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



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

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

# Diffie-Hellman: Conceptually



Common paint:  $p$  and  $g$

Secret colors:  $x$  and  $y$

Send over public transport:

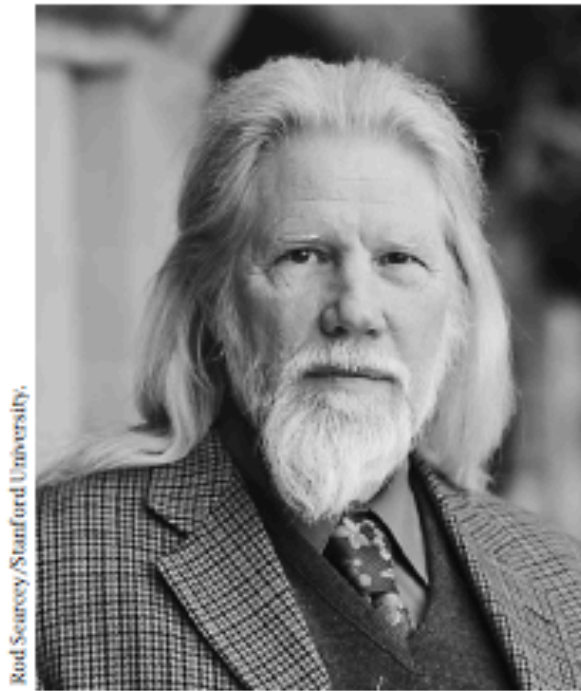
$g^x \bmod p$

$g^y \bmod p$

Common secret:  $g^{xy} \bmod p$

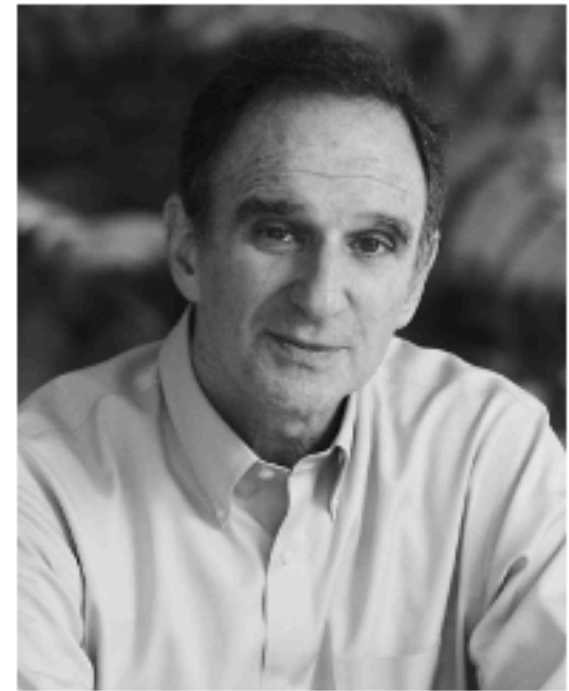
[from Wikipedia]

# Diffie and Hellman Receive 2015 Turing Award



Rod Seancey/Stanford University.

**Whitfield Diffie**



Linda A. Cicero/Stanford News Service.

**Martin E. Hellman**

# Why is Diffie-Hellman Secure?

- **Discrete Logarithm (DL)** problem:  
given  $g^x \bmod p$ , 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  $g^{xy} \bmod p$ 
  - ... 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  $g^{xy} \bmod p$  and  $g^r \bmod p$  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 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  $Z_p^*$
  - 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
  - Man in the middle attack



# 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  $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a) \varphi(b)$

# 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,  $e=3$  or  $e=2^{16}+1=65537$
  - Compute unique  $d$  such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ 
    - Modular inverse:  $d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(n)}$  ← How to compute?
  - Public key =  $(e,n)$ ; private key =  $(d,n)$
- Encryption of  $m$ :  $c = m^e \pmod n$
- Decryption of  $c$ :  $c^d \pmod n = (m^e)^d \pmod n = m$

# Why is RSA Secure?

- **RSA problem:** given  $c$ ,  $n=pq$ , and  $e$  such that  $\gcd(e, \varphi(n))=1$ , find  $m$  such that  $m^e=c \pmod n$ 
  - In other words, recover  $m$  from ciphertext  $c$  and public key  $(n,e)$  by taking  $e^{\text{th}}$  root of  $c$  modulo  $n$
  - There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this
- **Factoring problem:** given positive integer  $n$ , find primes  $p_1, \dots, p_k$  such that  $n=p_1^{e_1}p_2^{e_2}\dots p_k^{e_k}$
- If factoring is easy, then RSA problem is easy (knowing factors means you can compute  $d = \text{inverse of } e \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ )
  - It may be possible to break RSA without factoring  $n$  -- but if it is, we don't know how

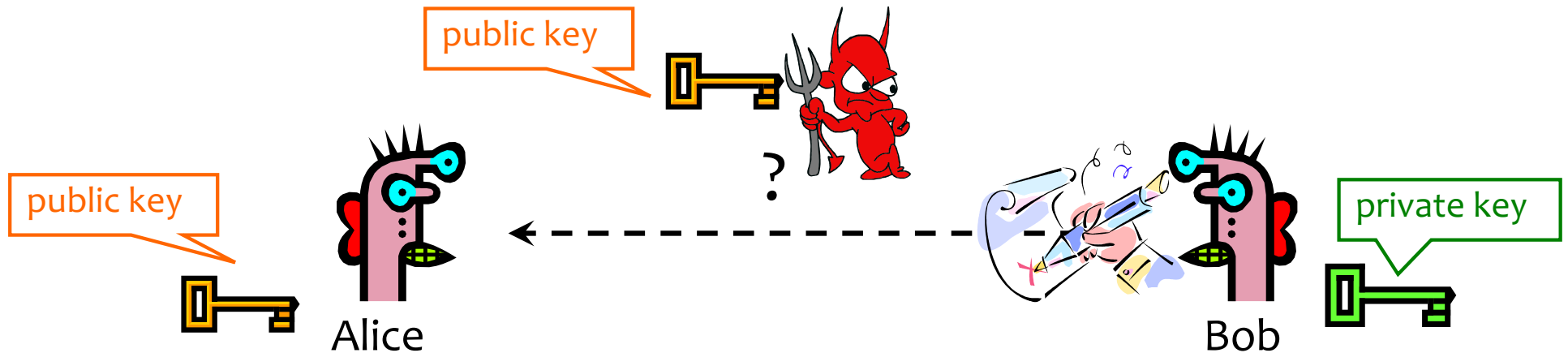
# RSA Encryption Caveats

- 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

# 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**
  - 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:  $x$
- 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)



# Cryptography Summary

- Goal: Privacy
  - Symmetric keys:
    - One-time pad, Stream ciphers
    - Block ciphers (e.g., DES, AES) → modes: EBC, CBC, CTR
  - Public key crypto (e.g., Diffie-Hellman, RSA)
- Goal: Integrity
  - MACs, often using hash functions (e.g., MD5, SHA-256)
- Goal: Privacy and Integrity
  - Encrypt-then-MAC
- Goal: Authenticity (and Integrity)
  - Digital signatures (e.g., RSA, DSS)