CSE 484 / CSE M 584: Computer Security and Privacy

Cryptography:

Asymmetric Cryptography (finish)

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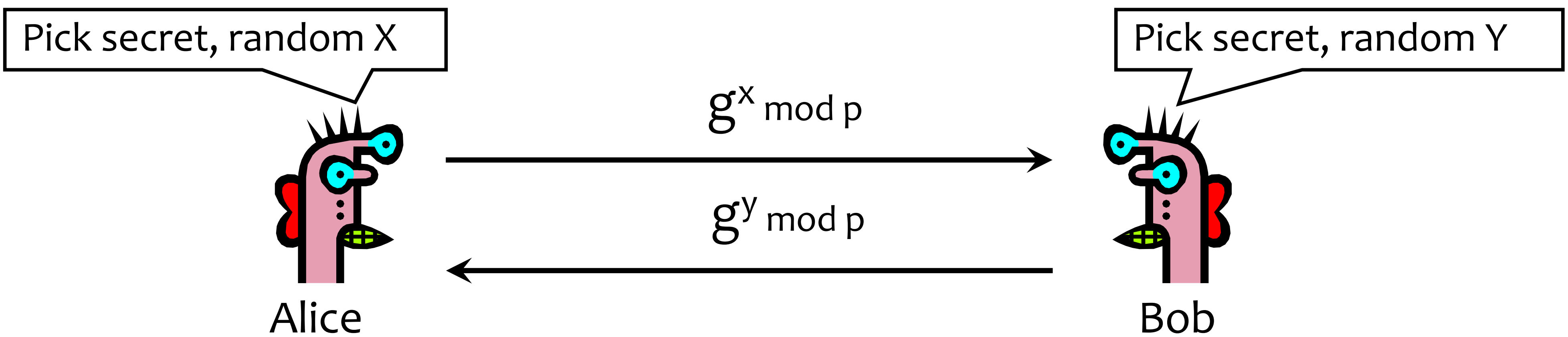
Announcements

- Lab #1 due Friday
- Coming up
  - Today: finish crypto
  - Wednesday: tech policy (Emily McReynolds)
  - Friday: systems security (Xi Wang)
  - Then: web security (meets crypto)
- Homework #2 on crypto out tomorrow (due 5/5)
- My office hours are canceled this week
- In-class worksheets
  - No late worksheets **(extra credit reading opportunities if you're concerned)**
  - We'll drop 3/10 worksheets

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 (subgroup of) Z_p*
    - $Z_p^* = \{1, 2 \ldots p-1\}$; $\forall a \in Z_p^* \; \exists i$ such that $a = g^i \bmod p$
    - Modular arithmetic: numbers "wrap around" after they reach p



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

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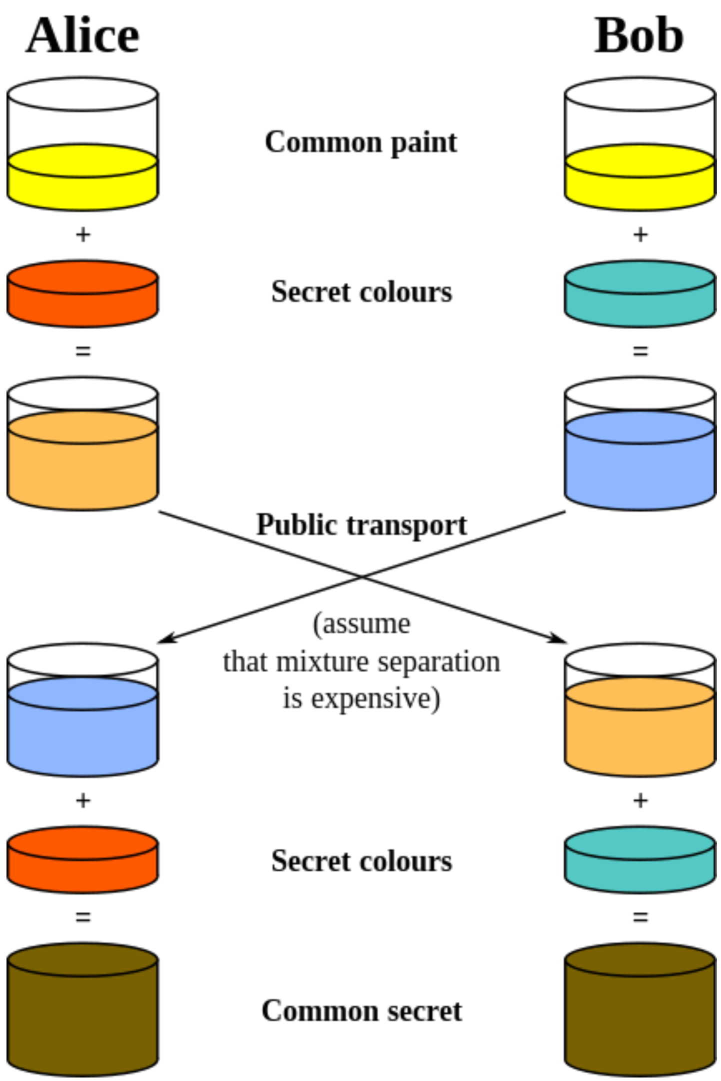
Diffie-Hellman: Conceptually



Common paint: p and g

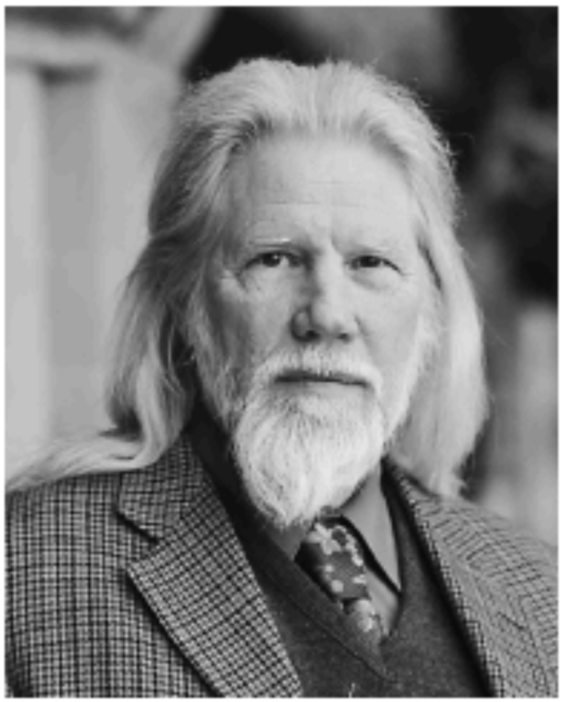
Secret colors: x and y

Send over public transport:
g^x mod p
g^y mod p

Common secret: g^{xy} mod p

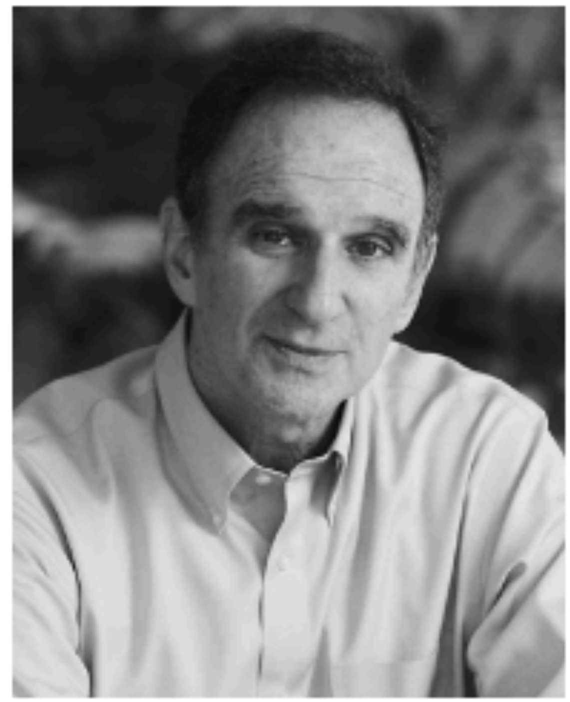
[from Wikipedia]

Diffie and Hellman Receive 2015 Turing Award



Rod Searcey/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 *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

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
  - 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

Choosing p

In practice, we choose very large primes (~600 digits) of the form:

$$q = 2p + 1$$

(where p is prime)

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 **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: $d = e^{-1} \bmod \varphi(n)$
  - Public key = (e,n); private key = (d,n)
- Encryption of m: $c = m^e \bmod n$
- Decryption of c: $c^d \bmod n = (m^e)^d \bmod n = m$

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
- Factoring problem: given positive integer n, find primes $p_1, \ldots, p_k$ such that $n=p_1^{e_1}p_2^{e_2}\ldots p_k^{e_k}$
- 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

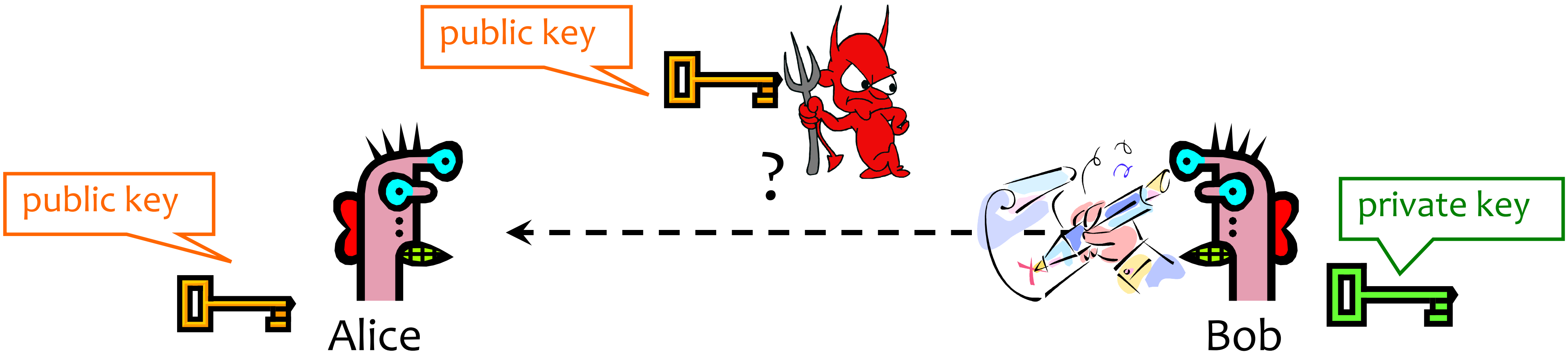
RSA Encryption Caveats

- 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 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)

Advantages of Public Key Crypto

- No shared secrets
  - For neither encryption nor authentication
  - This is pretty magical!
  - Can use this for key establishment

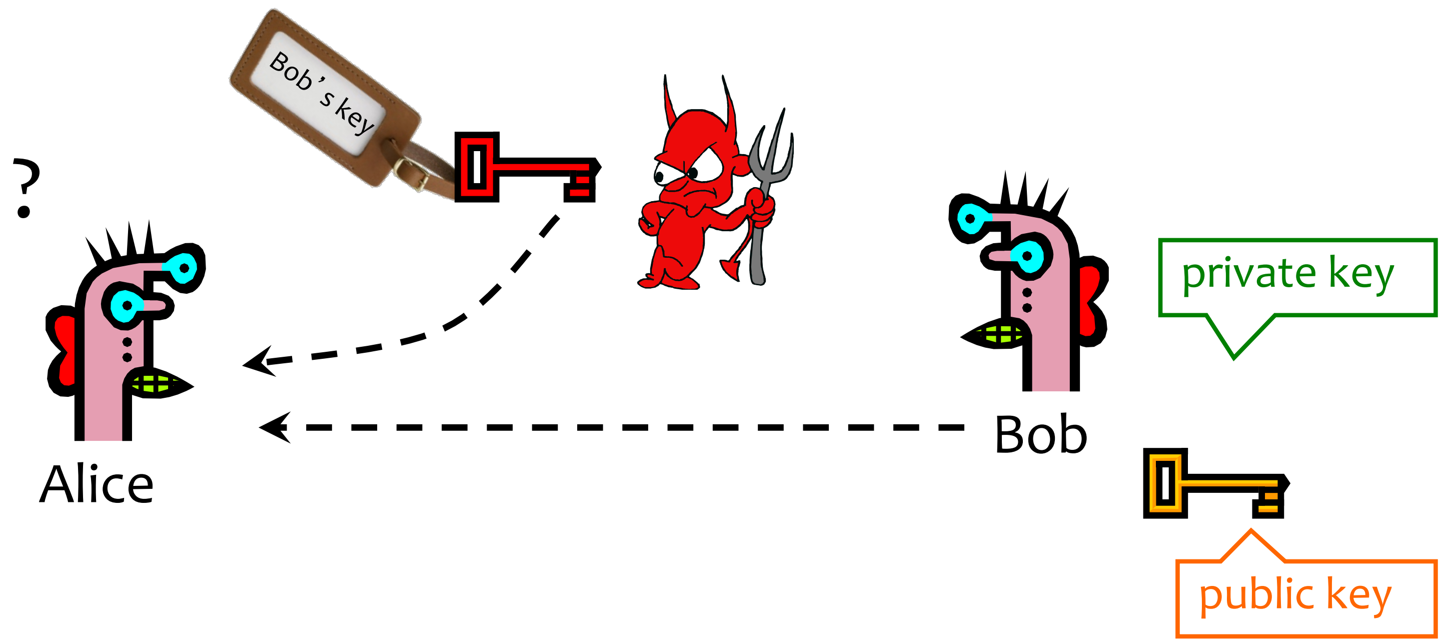
Disadvantages of Public Key Crypto

- Calculations are 2-3 orders of magnitude slower
  - Modular exponentiation is an expensive computation
  - Typical usage: use public-key crypto to bootstrap symmetric key
- Keys are longer
  - 1024+ bits (RSA) rather than 128 bits (AES)
- Relies on unproven number-theoretic assumptions
  - What if factoring is easy?
  - (Of course, symmetric crypto also rests on unproven assumptions…)
- How do you authenticate a key?

Cryptography Summary

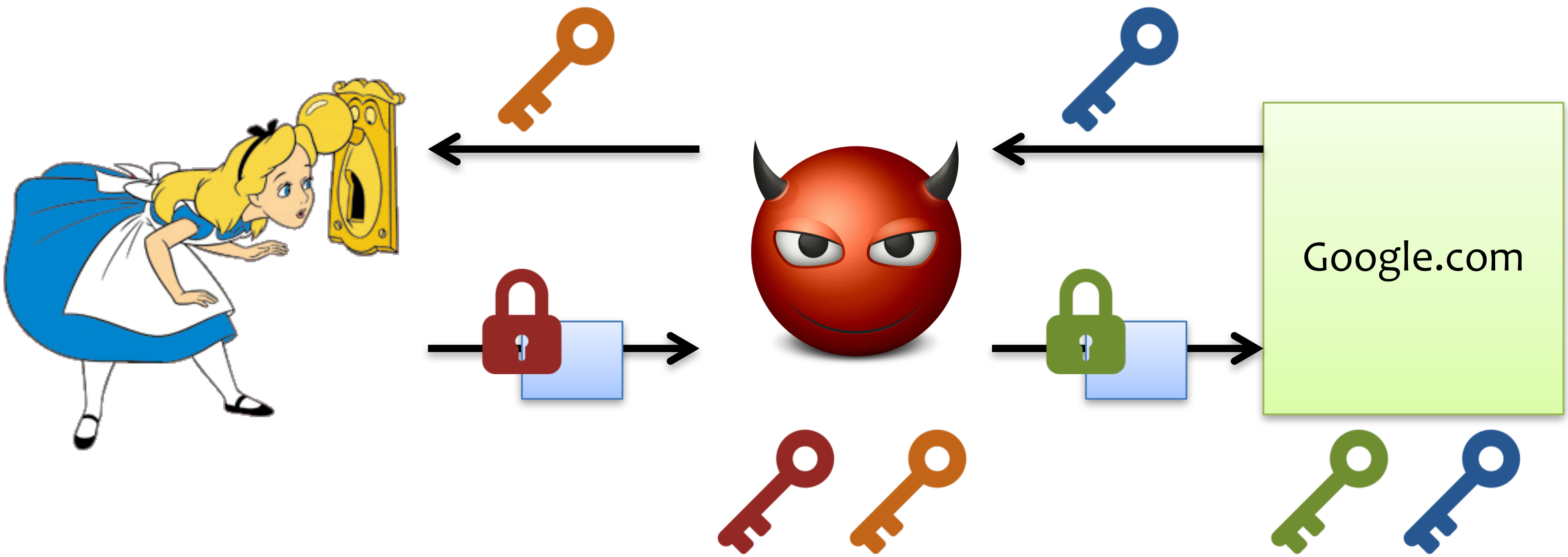
- Goal: Privacy
  - Symmetric keys:
    - One-time pad, Stream ciphers
    - Block ciphers (e.g., DES, AES) → modes: EBC, CBC, CTR
  - Public key crypto (e.g., Diffie-Hellman, RSA)
- Goal: Integrity
  - MACs, often using hash functions (e.g, MD5, SHA-256)
- Goal: Privacy and Integrity
  - Encrypt-then-MAC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

Authenticity of Public Keys

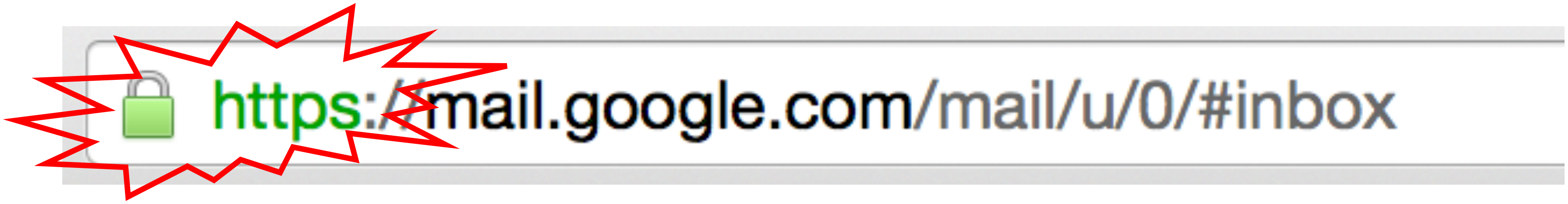


Problem: How does Alice know that the public key she received is really Bob's public key?

Threat: Man-In-The-Middle (MITM)



You encounter this every day…



SSL/TLS: Encryption & authentication for connections

Next time:

How do you know it's really Google's key?

What is SSL/TLS exactly?