

# CSE 127: Introduction to Security

## Lecture 16: Public-Key Cryptography

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UCSD

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Material from Nadia Heninger

“We stand today on the brink of a  
revolution in cryptography.”

— Diffie and Hellman, 1976

# Lecture Outline

- ▶ Key Exchange
- ▶ Public Key Encryption
- ▶ Digital Signatures

# Asymmetric cryptography/public-key cryptography

**Main insight:** Separate keys for different operations.

Keys come in pairs, and are related to each other by the specific algorithm:

- ▶ Public key: known to everyone, used to encrypt or verify signatures
- ▶ Private key: used to decrypt and sign

# Public-key encryption

- ▶ Encryption: (public key, plaintext)  $\rightarrow$  ciphertext

$$\text{Enc}_{pk}(m) = c$$

- ▶ Decryption: (secret key, ciphertext)  $\rightarrow$  plaintext

$$\text{Dec}_{sk}(c) = m$$

Properties:

- ▶ Encryption and decryption are inverse operations:

# Public-key encryption

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$$\text{Enc}_{pk}(m) = c$$

- ▶ Decryption: (secret key, ciphertext)  $\rightarrow$  plaintext

$$\text{Dec}_{sk}(c) = m$$

Properties:

- ▶ Encryption and decryption are inverse operations:

$$\text{Dec}_{sk}(\text{Enc}_{pk}(m)) = m$$

- ▶ Secrecy: ciphertext reveals nothing about plaintext
  - ▶ Computationally hard to decrypt without secret key
- ▶ The point:
  - ▶ Anybody with your public key can send you a secret message!  
Solves key distribution problem.

# Modular Arithmetic Review

Division: Let  $n, d, q, r$  be integers.

$$\lfloor n/d \rfloor = q$$

$$n = qd + r \quad 0 \leq r < d$$

$$n \equiv r \pmod{d}$$

Facts about remainders/modular arithmetic:

**Add:**  $(a \bmod d) + (b \bmod d) \equiv (a + b) \bmod d$

**Subtract:**  $(a \bmod d) - (b \bmod d) \equiv (a - b) \bmod d$

**Multiply:**  $(a \bmod d) \cdot (b \bmod d) \equiv (a \cdot b) \bmod d$

## Modular Inverse: “Division” for modular arithmetic

If  $a \cdot b \bmod d = c \bmod d$  we would like  $c/b \bmod d = a \bmod d$ .

Let's try this: let  $a = 3$ ,  $b = 2$ , and  $d = 4$



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If  $a \cdot b \bmod d = c \bmod d$  we would like  $c/b \bmod d = a \bmod d$ .

Let's try this: let  $a = 3$ ,  $b = 2$ , and  $d = 4$

This doesn't quite work, it says  $3 = 1 \bmod 4$ !

**Fix:** For rationals,  $\frac{a}{b} = a \cdot \frac{1}{b}$        $b \cdot \frac{1}{b} = 1$ .

Define modular inverse:  $\frac{1}{b}$  means  $b^{-1} \bmod d$ .

- ▶  $b^{-1} \bmod d$  is a value such that  $b \cdot b^{-1} \equiv 1 \bmod d$ .
- ▶ Example:  $3 \cdot (3^{-1} \bmod 5) \equiv 3 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \bmod 5$ .
- ▶ If  $\gcd(a, d) = 1$  then  $a^{-1}$  is well defined.
- ▶ Efficient to compute.

# Modular exponentiation and discrete log

## Modular exponentiation

- ▶ Over the integers,  $g^a = g \cdot g \cdot g \dots g$
- ▶  $g^a \bmod d$  it's the same:  
$$g^a \bmod d = (((g \bmod d) \cdot g \bmod d) \dots g \bmod d) \bmod d$$
- ▶ Efficient to compute using the binary representation of  $a$ .

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- ▶ Define discrete log similarly:  
Input  $b, d, y$ , discrete log is  $a$  such that  $b^a \equiv y \bmod d$ .
- ▶ No known polynomial-time algorithm to compute this.

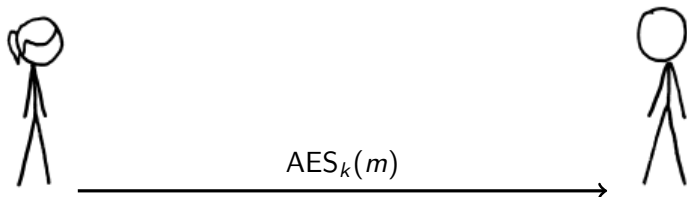


# New Directions in Cryptography

*Invited Paper*

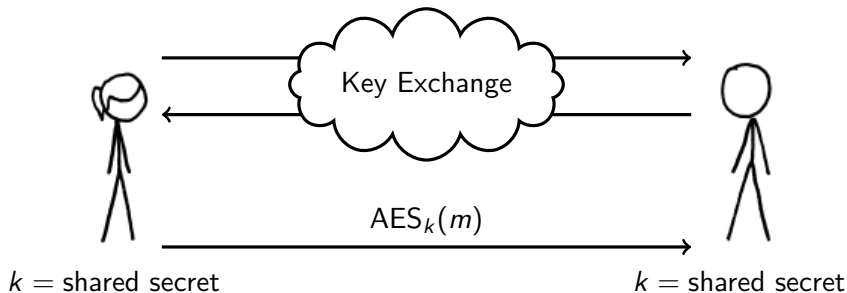
WHITFIELD DIFFIE AND MARTIN E. HELLMAN, MEMBER, IEEE

## Symmetric cryptography



# Public key crypto idea # 1: Key exchange

Solving key distribution without trusted third parties





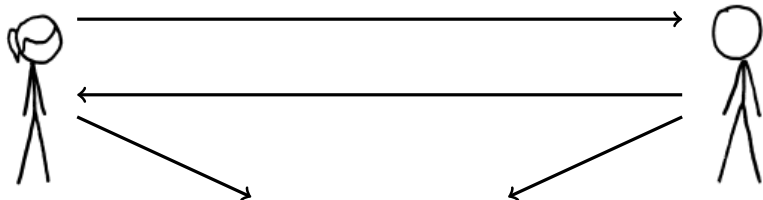
# Textbook Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

## Public Parameters

$p$  a prime

$g$  an integer mod  $p$

## Key Exchange



Note:  $(g^a)^b \bmod p = g^{ab} \bmod p = g^{ba} \bmod p = (g^b)^a \bmod p$ .

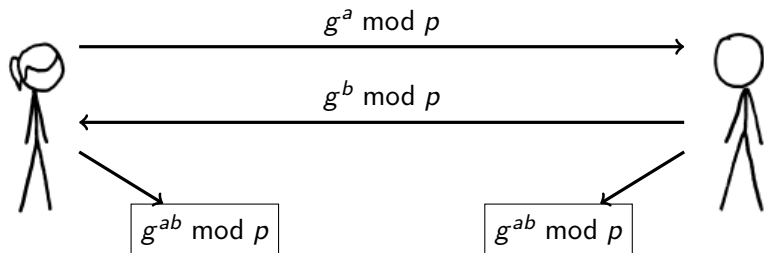
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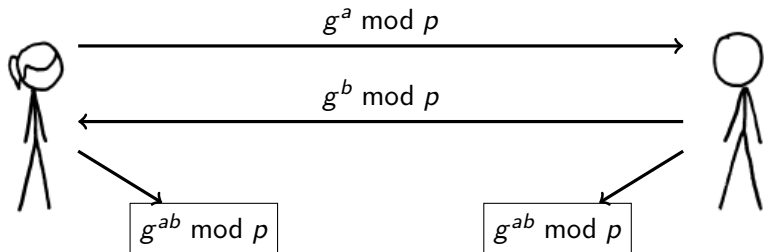
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## Key Exchange



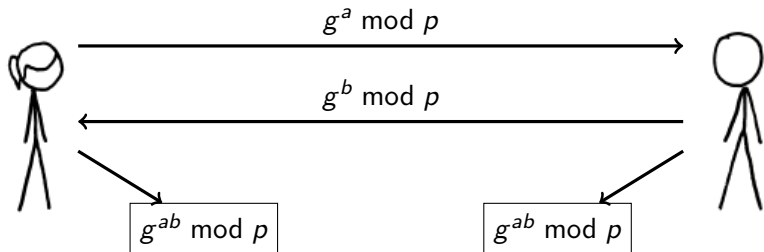
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# Diffie-Hellman Security



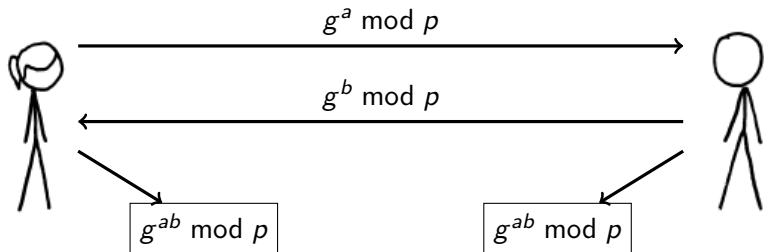
- ▶ Most efficient algorithm for passive eavesdropper to break:  
Compute discrete log of public values  $g^a \bmod p$  or  $g^b \bmod p$ .

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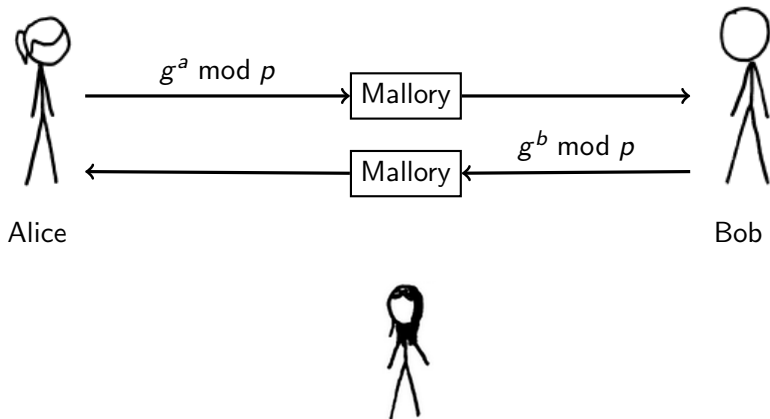
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- ▶ Parameter selection:  $p$  should be  $\geq 2048$  bits.

# Diffie-Hellman Security



- ▶ Most efficient algorithm for passive eavesdropper to break: Compute discrete log of public values  $g^a \bmod p$  or  $g^b \bmod p$ .
- ▶ Parameter selection:  $p$  should be  $\geq 2048$  bits.
- ▶ **Do not implement this yourself ever: discrete log is only hard for certain choices of  $p$  and  $g$ .**
- ▶ Best current choice: Use elliptic curve Diffie-Hellman. (Similar idea, more complicated math.)

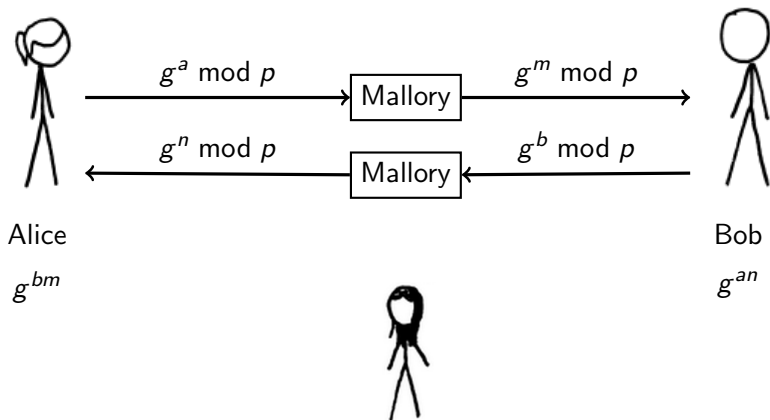
## Diffie-Hellman insecure against man-in-the-middle



Active adversary can modify Diffie-Hellman messages in transit and learn both shared secrets.

Allows transparent MITM attack against later encryption.

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**Fix:** Need to authenticate messages.

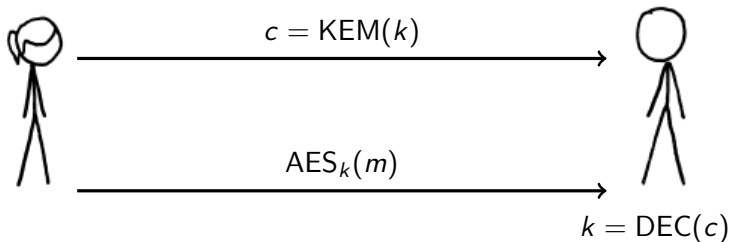
# Computational complexity for integer problems

- ▶ Integer multiplication is efficient to compute.
- ▶ There is no known polynomial-time algorithm for general-purpose factoring.
- ▶ Efficient factoring algorithms for many types of integers. Easy to find small factors of random integers.
- ▶ Modular exponentiation is efficient to compute.
- ▶ Modular inverses are efficient to compute.



## Idea # 2: Key encapsulation/public-key encryption

Solving key distribution without trusted third parties





## A Method for Obtaining Digital Signatures and Public-Key Cryptosystems

R.L. Rivest, A. Shamir, and L. Adleman\*

# Textbook RSA Encryption

[Rivest Shamir Adleman 1977]

Public Key  $pk$

$N = pq$  modulus

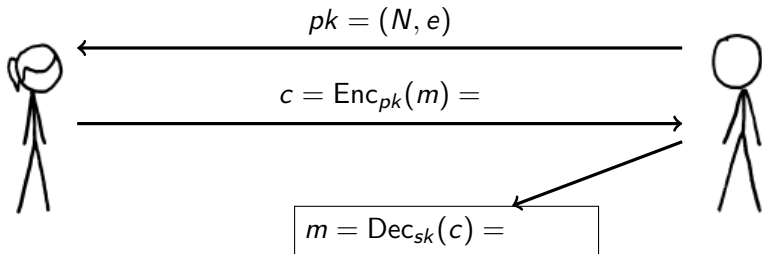
$e$  encryption exponent

Secret Key  $sk$

$p, q$  primes

$d$  decryption exponent

$$(d = e^{-1} \bmod (p-1)(q-1) = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N))$$



$$\text{Dec}(\text{Enc}(m)) =$$

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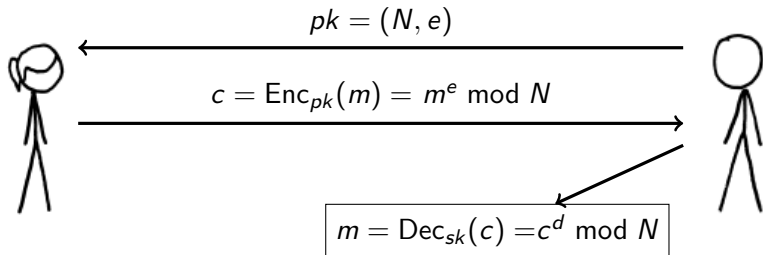
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$\text{Dec}(\text{Enc}(m)) = m^{ed} \bmod N \equiv m^{1+k\phi(N)} \equiv m \bmod N$  by Euler's theorem.

# RSA Security

- ▶ Best algorithm to break RSA: Factor  $N$  and compute  $d$ .
- ▶ Factoring is not efficient in general.
- ▶ Current key size recommendations:  $N$  should be  $\geq 2048$  bits.
- ▶ Do not ever implement this yourself. Factoring is only hard for some integers, and textbook RSA is insecure.

## Textbook RSA is super insecure

Unpadded RSA encryption is homomorphic under multiplication.  
Let's have some fun!

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## Attack: Malleability

Given a ciphertext  $c = \text{Enc}(m) = m^e \bmod N$ , attacker can forge ciphertext  $\text{Enc}(ma) = ca^e \bmod N$  for any  $a$ .

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## Attack: Chosen ciphertext attack

Given a ciphertext  $c = \text{Enc}(m)$  for unknown  $m$ , attacker asks for  $\text{Dec}(ca^e \bmod N) = d$  and computes  $m = da^{-1} \bmod N$ .



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**Fix:** always use padding on messages.

# RSA PKCS #1 v1.5 padding

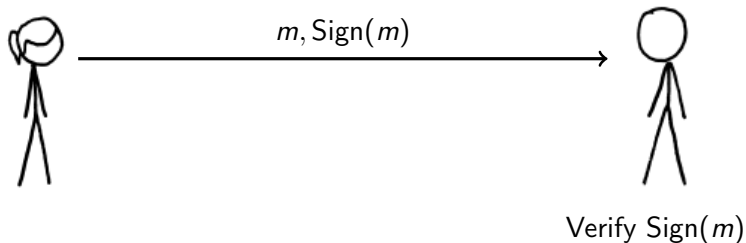
Most common implementation choice even though it is insecure

$\text{pad}(m) = 00\ 02\ [\text{random padding string}]\ 00\ [m]$

- ▶ Encrypter pads message, then encrypts padded message using RSA public key:  $\text{Enc}_{pk}(m) = \text{pad}(m)^e \bmod N$
- ▶ Decrypter decrypts using RSA private key, strips off padding to recover original data:  $\text{Dec}_{sk}(c) = c^d \bmod N = \text{pad}(m)$

PKCS#1v1.5 padding is vulnerable to a number of padding attacks. It is still commonly used in practice.

## Idea #3: Digital Signatures



Bob wants to verify Alice's signature using only a public key.

- ▶ Signature verifies that Alice was the only one who could have sent this message.
- ▶ Signature also verifies that the message hasn't been modified in transit.

# Digital Signatures

- ▶ Signing: (secret key, message)  $\rightarrow$  signature

$$\text{Sign}_{sk}(m) = s$$

- ▶ Verification: (public key, message, signature)  $\rightarrow$  bool

$$\text{Verify}_{pk}(m, s) = \text{true} \mid \text{false}$$

Signature properties:

- ▶ Verification of signed message succeeds:

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Signature properties:

- ▶ Verification of signed message succeeds:
  - ▶  $\text{Verify}_{pk}(m, \text{Sign}_{sk}(m)) = \text{true}$
- ▶ Unforgeability: Can't compute signature for message  $m$  that verifies with public key without corresponding secret key.
- ▶ The point:
  - ▶ Anybody with your public key can verify that you signed something!

# Textbook RSA Signatures

[Rivest Shamir Adleman 1977]

Public Key  $pk$

$N = pq$  modulus

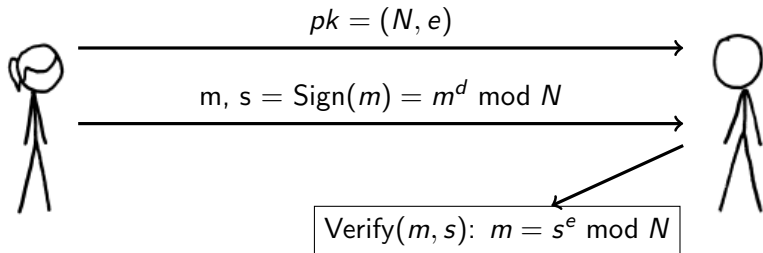
$e$  public exponent

Secret Key  $sk$

$p, q$  primes

$d$  private exponent

$(d = e^{-1} \bmod (p-1)(q-1))$



Works for the same reason RSA encryption does.

# Textbook RSA signatures are super insecure

## Attack: Signature forgery

1. Attacker wants  $\text{Sign}(x)$ .
2. Attacker computes  $z = xy^e \bmod N$  for some  $y$ .
3. Attacker asks signer for  $s = \text{Sign}(z) = z^d \bmod N$ .
4. Attacker computes  $\text{Sign}(x) = sy^{-1} \bmod N$ .

Countermeasures:

- ▶ **Always use padding with RSA.**
- ▶ **Sign hash of  $m$  and not raw message  $m$ .**

Positive viewpoint:

- ▶ Blind signatures: Lots of neat crypto applications.

# RSA PKCS #1 v1.5 signature padding

Most widely used padding scheme in practice

$\text{pad}(m) = 00\ 01\ [\text{FF}\ \text{FF}\ \text{FF}\ \dots\ \text{FF}\ \text{FF}]\ 00\ [\text{data}\ H(m)]$

- ▶ Signer hashes and pads message, then signs padded message using RSA private key.
- ▶ Verifier verifies using RSA public key, strips off padding to recover hash of message.

**Q:** What happens if a decrypter doesn't correctly check padding length?

**A:** **Bleichenbacher low exponent signature forgery attack.**



# Bleichenbacher RSA Signature Forgery

$\text{pad}(m) = 00\ 01\ [\text{FF}\ \text{FF}\ \text{FF}\ \dots\ \text{FF}\ \text{FF}]\ 00\ [\text{data}\ H(m)]$

If victim shortcuts padding check: just looks for padding format but doesn't check length, and signature uses  $e = 3$ :

1. Construct a perfect cube over the integers, ignoring  $N$ , such that

$$s = 0001FF \dots FF00[\text{hash of forged message}][\text{garbage}]$$

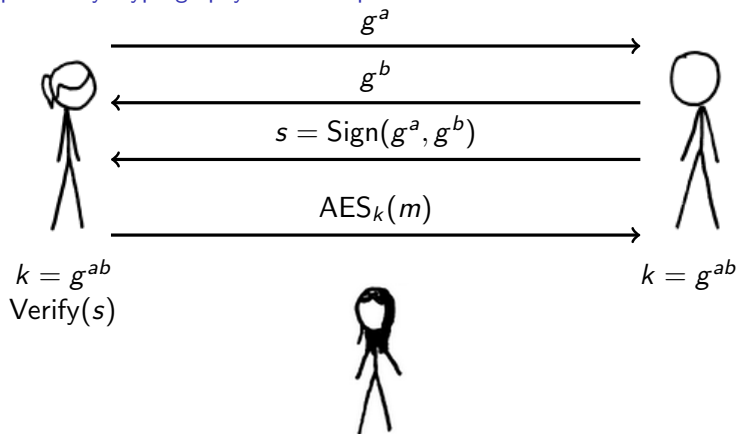
2. Compute  $x$  such that  $x^3 = s$ .  
(Easy way:  $x = \lceil [\text{desired values}]000 \dots 0000 \rceil^{1/3}$ .)
3. Lazy implementation validates bad signature!

# Security for RSA signatures

- ▶ Same as RSA encryption.
- ▶ Recommendation: Use ECDSA or ed25519 instead.

# Putting it all together

How public-key cryptography is used in practice



- ▶ Diffie-Hellman used to negotiate shared session key.
- ▶ Alice verifies Bob's signature to ensure that key exchange was not man-in-the-middle.
- ▶ Shared secret used to symmetrically encrypt data.

# Public-key cryptography and quantum computers

Right now, all public-key cryptography used in the real world involves three “hard” problems:

- ▶ Factoring
- ▶ Discrete log mod primes
- ▶ Elliptic curve discrete log

All of these problems can be solved efficiently by a general-purpose quantum computer.

Big standardization effort now to develop replacements:

- ▶ Lattice-based cryptography
- ▶ Multivariate cryptography
- ▶ Hash-based signatures
- ▶ Supersingular isogeny Diffie-Hellman

These will likely be used more in the real world in the next few years.