

Network Security

<CH 4>

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Security Models: types of cipher

- Random functions hash functions
 - : accepts an input string of any length and outputs a string of fixed length, say *n* bits long
- Random generators stream ciphers
 - : (reverse of hash function) accepts a short input and produces a long output
- Random permutations block ciphers
 - : keyed-invertible function transfers a fixed-size input to a fixed size output and vice-versa
- Public key encryption(special kind of block cipher):
 - : encrypt for anyone, but decrypt for only key owner
- Digital signatures
 - : sign by only key owner, but checked by anyone

Asymmetric crypto primitives

- Crypto based on factoring
 - RSA(Rivest, Shamir, Adleman): based on the difficulty of resolving a composite number into its two large random primes (in 2020, 250 decimal digits(829-bit) factorized, in 2019, 240 decimal digits factorized)
- Crypto based on discrete logarithms
 - Diffie-Hellman key establishment
- Elliptic curve cryptography
 - based on "cryptographic" elliptic curves
 - for high performance and shorter variables
- Certification authorities(CAs)

RSA – Crypto based on factoring

- Let p and q be two large prime numbers
- Let N = pq be the **modulus**
- Choose e relatively prime to (p-1)(q-1)
- Find d such that ed = 1 mod (p-1)(q-1)
- Public key is (N,e), Private key is d
- Message M is treated as a number (M < N)
- To encrypt M, we compute $C = M^e \mod N$
- To decrypt C, compute $M = C^d \mod N$
- Recall that e and N are public
- If Trudy can factor N=pq, she can use e to easily find d since $ed=1 \mod (p-1)(q-1)$
- → Factoring the modulus breaks RSA

How RSA Works?

- Given $C = M^e \mod N$ we must show $M = C^d \mod N = M^{ed} \mod N$
- We'll use **Euler's Theorem:** If *x* is relatively prime to *n* then $x^{\varphi(n)} = 1 \mod n$
- Facts:
 - 1) $ed = 1 \mod (p-1)(q-1)$
 - 2) By definition of "mod", ed = k(p-1)(q-1) + 1
 - 3) $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- Then $ed 1 = k(p 1)(q 1) = k\varphi(N)$
- Finally,

$$M^{ed} = M^{(ed-1)+1} = M \cdot M^{ed-1} = M \cdot M^{k\phi(N)}$$
$$= M \cdot (M^{\phi(N)})^k \mod N = M \cdot 1^k \mod N = M \mod N$$

What if M is not relatively prime to N?

Fermat's Little Theorem:

$$x^{p-1} = 1 \mod p$$
 (for all x, all prime p)

Observation:

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a = b \mod p, a = b \mod q \rightarrow a = b \mod pq
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$$M^{ed} = M^{(ed-1)+1} = M^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \cdot M = (M^{(p-1)})^{k(q-1)} \cdot M$$
 $= 1^{k(q-1)} \cdot M = M \mod p$ ----- (a)

Similarly, we have $M^{ed} = M \mod q$ ----- (b)

From (a) and (b), $M^{ed} = M \mod pq = M \mod N$

Simple RSA Example

- Pick a large prime number p = 11 and q = 3
- Then, N = pq = 33 and (p-1)(q-1) = 20
- e = 3 (coprime with 20)
- Find d that satisfies $ed = 1 \mod 20 \Rightarrow d = 7$

- Public key: (N, e) = (33, 3)
- **Private key:** d = 7

Simple RSA Example

- Public key: (N, e) = (33, 3)
- **Private key:** d = 7
- Suppose message M = 8 (Note M < N)
- Ciphertext C is computed as $C = M^e \mod N = 8^3 = 512 \mod 33 \Rightarrow 17$
- Decrypt C to recover the message M by

$$M = C^d \mod N = 17^7 = 410,338,673 \mod 33$$

=> 12,434,505 * 33 + 8 => 8

Caution to RSA Usage

- Use e = 3 for all users (but not same N or d)
 - + Public key operations only require 2 multiplies
 - Private key operations remain expensive
 - If $M < N^{1/3}$ then $C = M^e = M^3$ and cube root attack
 - For any M, if C_1, C_2, C_3 sent to 3 users, cube root attack works (uses Chinese Remainder Theorem)
- Can prevent cube root attack by padding message with random bits

Modulo Exponential Example

Modulo Exponential Example

• $5^{20} = 95367431640625 = 25 \mod 35$

Improved method: iteration of squares

- $5^1 = 5 \pmod{35}$
- $5^2 = (5^1)^2 = 5^2 = 25 \pmod{35}$
- $5^5 = (5^2)^2 \cdot 5^1 = 25^2 \cdot 5 = 3125 = 10 \pmod{35}$
- $5^{10} = (5^5)^2 = 10^2 = 100 = 30 \pmod{35}$
- $5^{20} = (5^{10})^2 = 30^2 = 900 = 25 \pmod{35}$

Never deal with huge numbers!

Diffie-Hellman KE: Crypto based on discrete logarithms

- Diffie-Hellman key exchange
 - used to establish a shared symmetric key

p, g : public

A's private key: x, B's private key: y

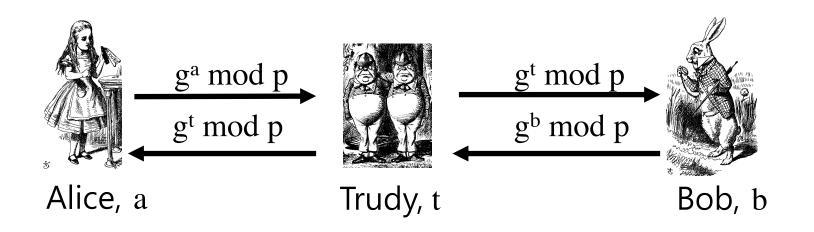
 $A \to B$: $g^x \mod p$

 $B \to A$: $g^y \mod p$

Now both can form $(g^x)^y = (g^y)^x$ and use a hash of it as a shared key. The eavesdropper faces the *Diffie-Hellman Problem* of determining

- NOT for encrypting or signing

Diffie-Hellman MiM attack



- How to prevent MiM attack?
 - encrypt DH exchange with symmetric key
 - encrypt DH exchange with public(encrypting) key
 - sign DH exchange with private(signing) key

ElGamal digital signature: Crypto based on discrete logarithms

- p, g are public values
- Alice's private signing key X, public signature verification key $Y=g^X \mod p$
- Signing
 - message M (whose message digest is m), random key k
 - compute $r = g^k \mod p$
 - compute signature *s*=*k*+*mX* mod *p*-1
 - M and (r, s): given to verifier who has Y

ElGamal digital signature

- Verification: using M and (r, s)
 - compute *m* from *M* using digest function
 - check if $g^s = r \cdot Y^m \mod p$ (this will be true if signature is valid $g^s = g^{k+mX} = g^k \cdot g^{mX} = r \cdot (g^X)^m = r \cdot Y^m \mod p$)
- If M modified, signature won't match the modified M
- Knowing signature won't help divulge X
- Without X, none can compute valid signature

Elliptic Curve Cryptography

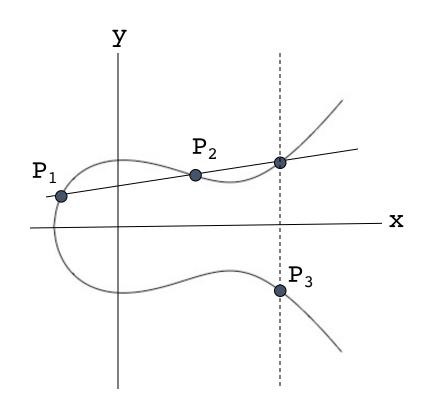
- Elliptic curves are a different way to do the math in public key system
- Why use ECC? (compared to RSA)
 - can be used to sign and encrypt
 - same level of security w/ shorter keys
 - performance: signing and (signing+verifying) are faster
 - requiring less space(key storage) and less bandwidth
- But, it looks RSA will continue to be used for some time

What is an Elliptic Curve?

• An elliptic curve E is the graph of an equation of the form $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$

"cryptographic" elliptic curve
 y² mod p = (x³ + ax + b)mod p
 points allowed: integers from 0 to p-1,
 also includes a "point at infinity"

Elliptic Curve Picture



Consider elliptic curve

E:
$$y^2 = x^3 - x + 1$$

• If P_1 and P_2 are on E, we can define

$$P_3 = P_1 + P_2$$

as shown in picture

Points on Elliptic Curve

```
• Consider y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 3 \pmod{5}

x = 0 \Rightarrow y^2 = 3 \Rightarrow \text{no solution (mod 5)}

x = 1 \Rightarrow y^2 = 6 = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1,4 \pmod{5}

x = 2 \Rightarrow y^2 = 15 = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0 \pmod{5}

x = 3 \Rightarrow y^2 = 36 = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1,4 \pmod{5}

x = 4 \Rightarrow y^2 = 75 = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0 \pmod{5}
```

• Then points on the elliptic curve are (1,1) (1,4) (2,0) (3,1) (3,4) (4,0) and the point at infinity: ∞

Elliptic Curve Math

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• Addition on: y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}
   P_1 = (x_1, y_1), P_2 = (x_2, y_2)
   P_1 + P_2 = P_3 = (x_3, y_3) where
         x_3 = m^2 - x_1 - x_2 \pmod{p}
         y_3 = m(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 \pmod{p}
   And m = (y_2-y_1)*(x_2-x_1)^{-1} \mod p, if P_1 \neq P_2
           m = (3x_1^2+a)*(2y_1)^{-1} \mod p, if P_1 = P_2
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Special cases: If m is infinite, $P_3 = \infty$, and $\infty + P = P$ for all P

Elliptic Curve Addition

- Consider $y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 3 \pmod{5}$.
- Points on the curve are (1,1) (1,4) (2,0) (3,1) (3,4) (4,0) and ∞
- What is $(1,4) + (3,1) = P_3 = (x_3, y_3)$? $m = (1-4)*(3-1)^{-1} = -3*2^{-1}$ $= 2(3) = 6 = 1 \pmod{5}$ $x_3 = 1 - 1 - 3 = 2 \pmod{5}$ $y_3 = 1(1-2) - 4 = 0 \pmod{5}$
- On this curve, (1,4) + (3,1) = (2,0)

ECC Diffie-Hellman

- Public: Curve $y^2 = x^3 + 7x + b \pmod{37}$ and point $(2,5) \Rightarrow b = 3$
- Alice's private: $d_A = 4$
- Bob's private: $d_B = 7$
- Alice sends Bob: 4(2,5) = (7,32)
- Bob sends Alice: 7(2,5) = (18,35)
- Alice computes: 4(18,35) = (22,1)
- Bob computes: 7(7,32) = (22,1)

ECC Signature and Verification

• Sign

- 1. calculate z = hash(m), m: the message to sign
- 2. select a random number k
- 3. calculate curve point $(x_1,y_1)=k\ G\ G$ is elliptic curve base point
- 4. calculate $r = x_1 \mod n$
- 5. calculate $s = k^{-1}(z + rd_A) \mod n$, where d_A is Alice's private key,
- 6. signature (r,s)

Verification

- 1. calculate z = hash(m), m: the message to verity its signature
- 2. calculate $u_1 = zs^{-1} \mod n$ and $u_2 = rs^{-1} \mod n$
- 3. calculate the curve point $(x_1,y_1)=u_1G+u_2Q_A$, where $Q_A=d_AG$
- 4. if $r = x_1 \mod n$, the signature is valid, invalid otherwise

Uses for Public Key Crypto

Confidentiality

Authentication

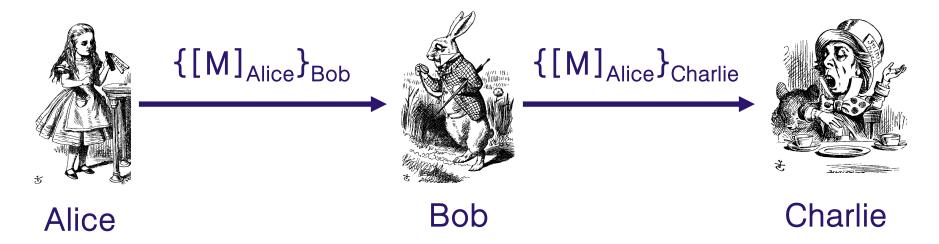
Digital signature provides integrity and non-repudiation

Non-non-repudiation

- Alice orders 100 shares of stock from Bob
- Alice computes MAC using symmetric key
- Stock drops, Alice claims she did not order
- Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- No! Since Bob also knows the symmetric key, he could have forged message
- Problem: Bob knows Alice placed the order, but he can't prove it
- Now, Alice signs order with her private key
- Stock drops, Alice claims she did not order
- Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- Yes! Only someone with Alice's private key could have signed the order

Sign and Encrypt

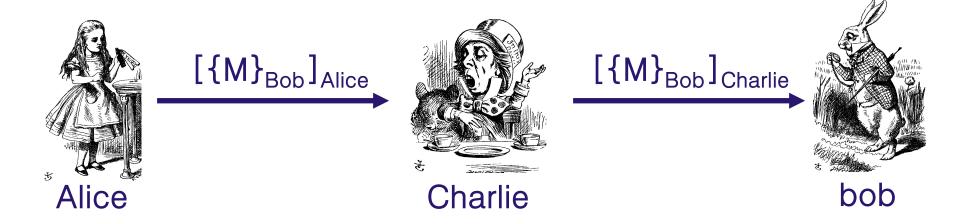
• M = "I love you to death."



- Problem: What is the problem?
- Answer: Charlie misunderstood the password!

Encrypt and Sign

• M = "Novel research results..."



- Note that Charlie cannot decrypt M
- Problem: What is the problem?
- Answer: Bob misunderstood the password!

Public-key Infrastructure

Public key encryption and signature algorithms allow the establishment of confidential and authenticated communication links with the owners of public/private key pairs.

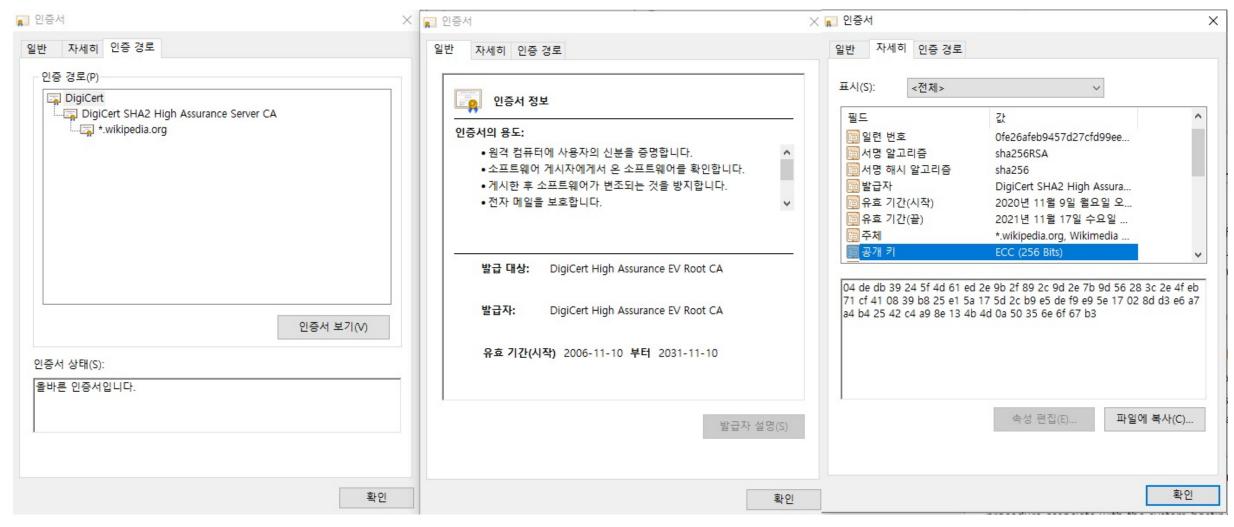
Public keys still need to be reliably associated with identities of owners. In the absence of a personal exchange of public keys, this can be mediated via a trusted third party. Such a *certification authority* C issues a digitally signed *public key certificate*

$$Cert_C(A) = \{A, K_A, T, L\}_{K_C}$$

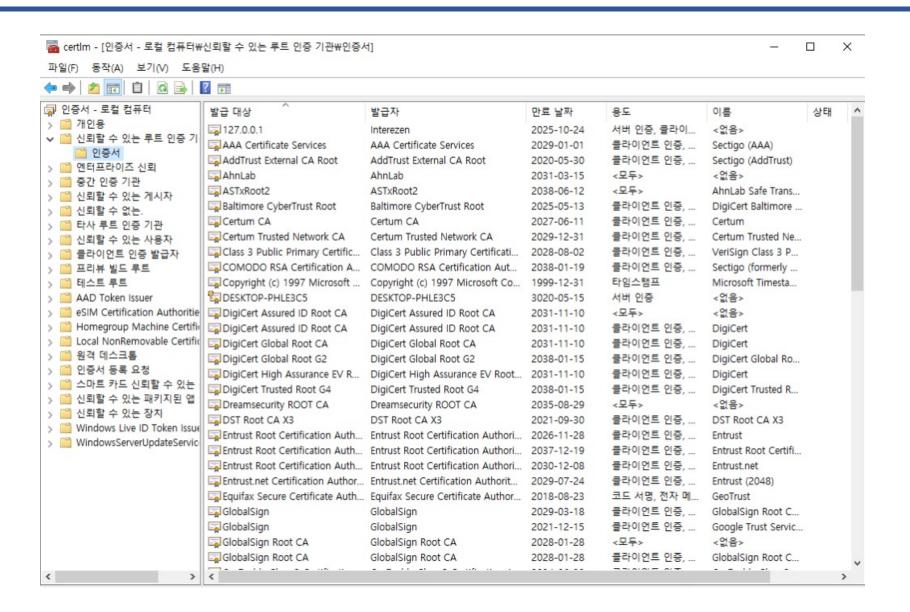
in which C confirms that the public key K_A belongs to A starting at time T and that this confirmation is valid for the time interval L, and all this is digitally signed with C's private signing key K_C .

Anyone who knows C's public key K_C from a trustworthy source can use it to verify the certificate $\operatorname{Cert}_C(A)$ and obtain a trustworthy copy of A's key K_A this way.

Public-key Infrastructure



Public-key Infrastructure



PKI Trust Models

- Monopoly model
 - One universally trusted organization is the CA for the known universe
 - Big problems if CA is ever compromised
 - Who will act as CA???
 - System is useless if you don't trust the CA!
- Oligarchy
 - Multiple trusted CAs
 - This is approach used in browsers today
 - Browser may have 100 or more certificates, just to verify certificates!
 - User can decide which CAs to trust

PKI Trust Models

- Anarchy model
 - Everyone is a CA
 - Users must decide who to trust
 - This approach used in PGP: "Web of trust"
 - Why is it anarchy?
 "Suppose a certificate

"Suppose a certificate is signed by Frank and you don't know Frank, but you do trust Bob and Bob says Alice is trustworthy and Alice vouches for Frank. Should you accept the certificate?"

Many other PKI issues ...

Q & A

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