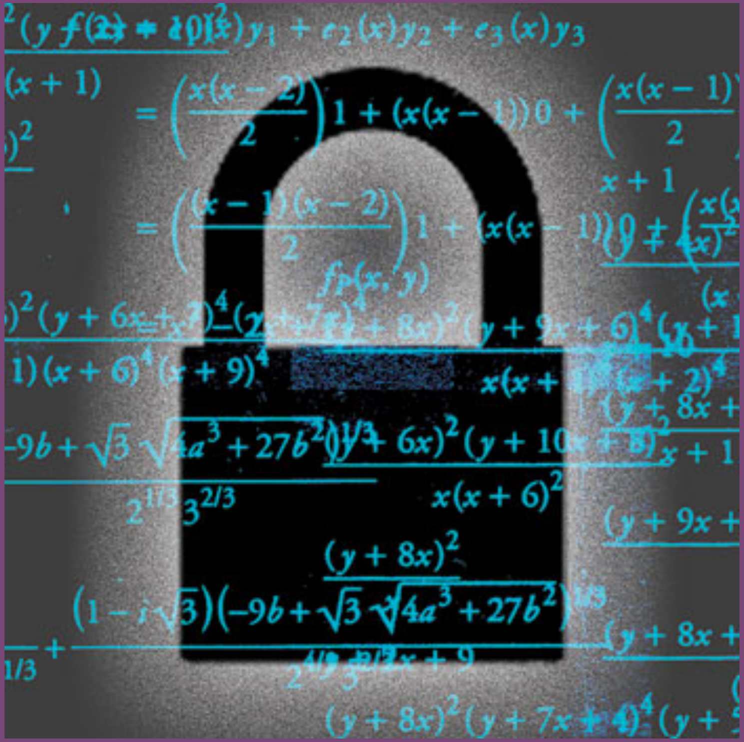


Cryptography 2

INGI2347: COMPUTER SYSTEM SECURITY (Spring 2014)

Marco Canini | Guest lecturer: Xavier Carpent

UCL Université catholique de Louvain

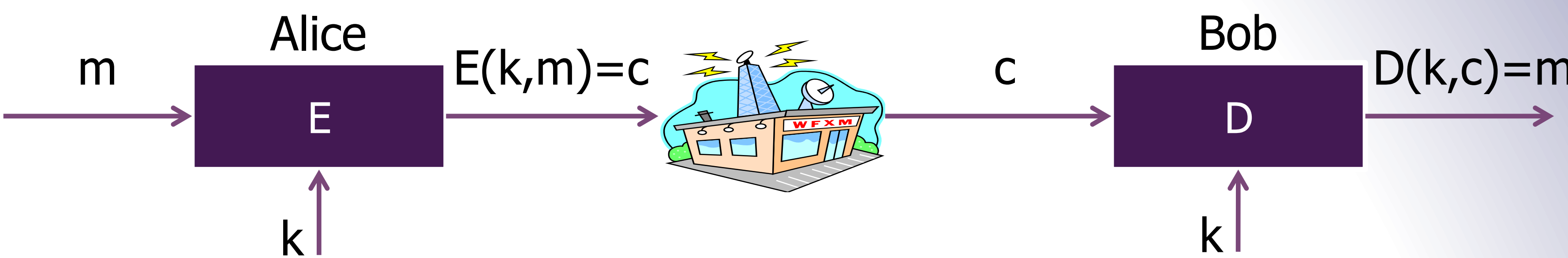
Lecture slides adapted from UCL INGI2347 by Gildas Avoine, Upenn CSE331 by Steve Zdancewic, and Dan Boneh, Stanford Cryptography I@Coursera. Reproduced with permission

Plan for today

Lecture 7

- Recap on Symmetric vs Public Key Crypto ⇐ NEXT
- RSA
- Diffie-Hellman
- Authentication
- Generic collision resistance attack
- Integrity

Symmetric Key Encryption



E, D: cipher k: secret key (e.g., 128 bits)

m, c: plaintext, ciphertext

- Same secret key for both encryption and decryption
- Stream ciphers
  - Act on the plaintext one symbol at a time
- Block ciphers
  - Act on the plaintext in blocks of symbols

Stream Ciphers: The One Time Pad (Vernam 1917)

First example of a "secure" cipher

$$M = C = \{0,1\}^n, \quad K = \{0,1\}^n$$

key = (random bit string as long the message)

$$E(k,m) = k \oplus m$$

$$D(k,c) = k \oplus c$$

msg:	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	$\oplus$
key:	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	
CT:	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	

One-time vs Many-time Security

Never use stream cipher key more than once !!

$$C_1 \leftarrow m_1 \oplus k$$
$$C_2 \leftarrow m_2 \oplus k$$

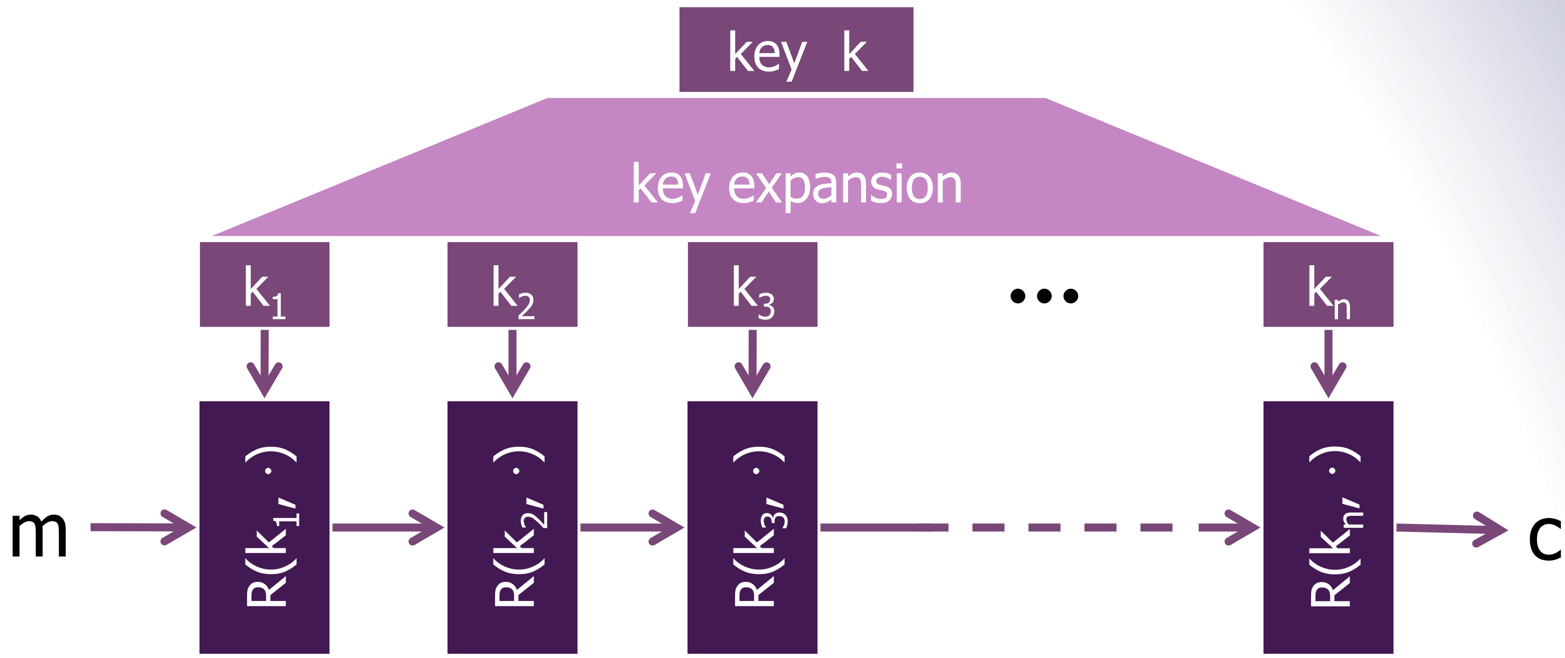
Eavesdropper does:

$$C_1 \oplus C_2 \quad \rightarrow \quad m_1 \oplus m_2$$

Enough redundancy in English and ASCII encoding that:

$$m_1 \oplus m_2 \quad \rightarrow \quad m_1 , \ m_2$$

Block Ciphers Built by Iteration

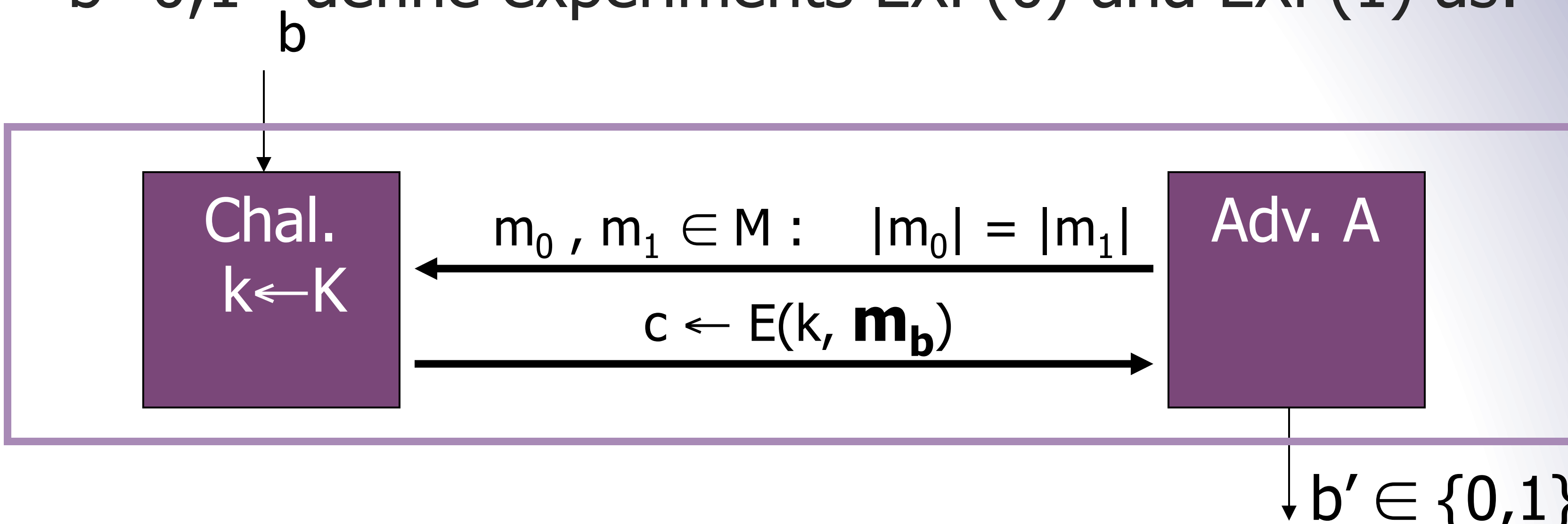


R(k,m) is called a round function

for 3DES (n=48), for AES-128 (n=10)

Semantic Security (one-time key)

For $b=0,1$ define experiments EXP(0) and EXP(1) as:



for $b=0,1$: W_b := [event that EXP(b)=1]

<u>Def</u>: E is sem. secure if for all efficient A:

$$\text{Adv}_{SS}[A,E] := \left|\, \Pr[\, W_0 \,] - \Pr[\, W_1 \,] \,\right| < \text{negligible}$$

Sematic Security Advantage of A against E

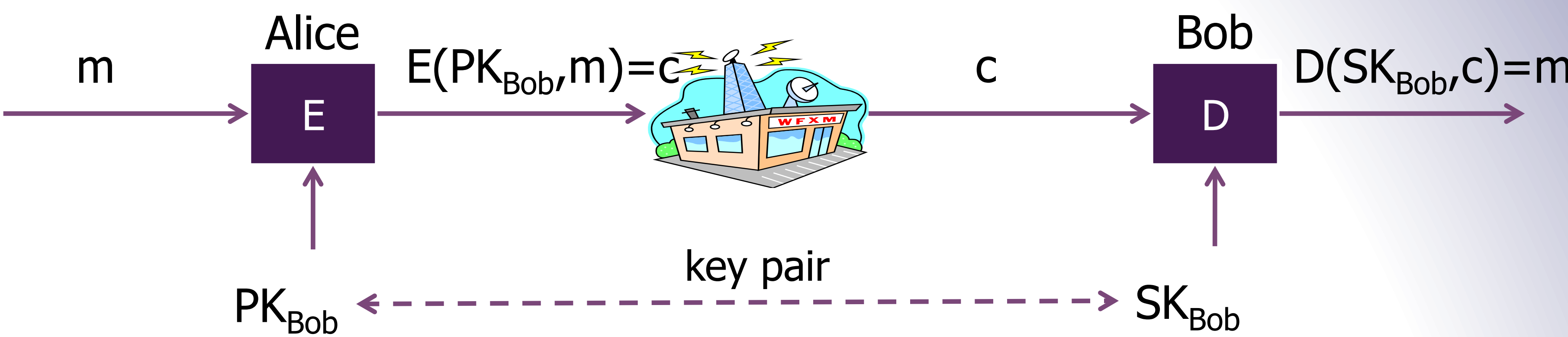
Model of the attacker (also for PK)

- Chosen-ciphertext attack (CCA)
  - The attacker has access to a **decryption** oracle: he can choose ciphertexts (other than the ciphertext he is challenged with) and get their corresponding plaintext
- Chosen-plaintext attack (CPA)
  - The adversary has access to an **encryption** oracle: he can choose plaintexts and get their corresponding ciphertexts
  - More powerful than CCA

Problems with Shared Key Crypto

- Compromised key means interceptors can decrypt any ciphertext they've acquired
  - Change keys frequently to limit damage
- Distribution of keys is problematic
  - Keys must be transmitted securely
  - Use couriers?
  - Distribute in pieces over separate channels?
- O(n) keys per user ; O(n^2) keys in the system
- Online TTP not an ideal solution

Public Key Encryption



PK: public key ,   SK: secret key (e.g., 1024 bits)

Example: Bob generates (PK_{Bob}, SK_{Bob}) and gives PK_{Bob} to Alice

- Only the private key must be kept secret!

Establishing a shared secret

Alice **Bob**

(pk, sk) $\leftarrow$ G()

"Alice", pk $\longrightarrow$

choose random
$x \in \{0,1\}^{128}$

$\longleftarrow$ "Bob", c$\leftarrow$E(pk,x)

D(sk,c) $\rightarrow$ x shared secret

Note: protocol is vulnerable to man-in-the-middle

Insecure against man in the middle

The protocol is insecure against **active** attacks

Alice	**MiTM**	**Bob**
(pk, sk) ⟵ G()	(pk', sk') ⟵ G()	
"Alice", pk ⟶	**"Alice", pk'** ⟶	
		choose random $x \in \{0,1\}^{128}$
	⟵ "Bob", E(pk', x)	
	x ⟵ D(sk', E(pk', x))	
⟵ **"Bob", E(pk, x)**		

Trade-offs for Public Key Crypto

- More computationally expensive than symmetric (shared) key crypto
  - Algorithms are harder to implement
  - Require more complex machinery
- More formal justification of difficulty
  - Hardness based on complexity-theoretic results
- A principal needs 1 private key and 1 public key
  - Number of keys for pair-wise communication is O(n)

RSA

RSA Algorithm

- Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, Leonard Adleman
  - Proposed in 1979
  - They won the 2002 Turing award for this work
- Has withstood years of cryptanalysis
  - Not a guarantee of security!
  - But a strong vote of confidence
    - Further reading: Twenty years of attacks on the RSA cryptosystem, D. Boneh, Notices of the AMS, 1999
- Hardware implementations:
  - 1000 x slower than DES

RSA at a High Level

- Public and private key are derived from secret prime numbers
  - Today at least 1024 bits to ensure security (4096 bits is better)
- Plaintext message (a sequence of bits)
  - Treated as a (large!) binary number
- Encryption is modular exponentiation
- To break the encryption, conjectured that one must be able to factor large numbers
  - Not known to be in P (polynomial time algorithms)

RSA Details: Key Generation

- Choose two distinct prime numbers p and q
- Compute the **modulus**: $n = p \cdot q$
- Compute $\varphi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$, where φ is Euler's totient function
  - $\varphi(n)$ counts the positive integers $\leq n$ that are relatively prime to n
  - Euler's theorem: $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \bmod n$, for any a coprime with n
- Choose e such that $1 < e < \varphi(n)$ and with e and $\varphi(n)$ coprime
  - e is the **public key exponent** (public key $= (e, n)$)
  - Typically small: e.g. $e = 2^{16} + 1 = 65537$
- Determine $d \equiv e^{-1} \cdot \bmod \varphi(n)$, that is the multiplicative inverse of e
  - d is the **private key exponent** (private key $= (d, n)$)
  - We have that $d \cdot e \equiv 1 \bmod \varphi(n)$

RSA Details: Key Generation

- Publish (e, n) as the public key
- Keep (d, n) as the private key
- p, q, and $\varphi(n)$ must also be kept secret!
  - Why?

RSA Details: Encryption

- Message M is turned to an integer m s.t. $0 \leq m < n$
- We use the **recipient's public key** (e, n) to compute:

$$c \equiv m^e \bmod n$$

- We use exponentiation by squaring to perform this quickly:

$$m^e \equiv (m^2 \bmod n)^{(e/2)} \bmod n \qquad \text{, if } e \equiv 0 \bmod 2$$

$$m^e \equiv m\,(m^2 \bmod n)^{((e\text{-}1)/2)} \bmod n \qquad \text{, else}$$

RSA Details: Encryption Example

- Scaled-down example
  - (explicit form of the one on Wikipedia):

$$
\begin{aligned}
65^{17} &\equiv 65\,(65^2 \bmod 3233)^8 && \equiv 65 \cdot 992^8 \\
&\equiv 65\,(992^2 \bmod 3233)^4 && \equiv 65 \cdot 1232^4 \\
&\equiv 65\,(1232^2 \bmod 3233)^2 && \equiv 65 \cdot 1547^2 \\
&\equiv 65\,(1547^2 \bmod 3233) && \equiv 65 \cdot 789 \\
&\equiv 2790 \pmod{3233}
\end{aligned}
$$

RSA Details: Decryption

- The recipient uses its private key (d, n) to compute:

$$m \equiv c^d \bmod n$$

- This works. Why?

$$\begin{aligned} c^d \bmod n &\equiv (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n \\ &\equiv m^{(e \cdot d)} \bmod n \\ &\equiv m^1 \bmod n \end{aligned}$$

  - Last step works thanks to Euler's theorem and Fermat's Little Theorem

RSA Details: Miscellaneous

- How to encrypt long messages ($m > n$)?
  - Use a mode of encryption such as CBC?
  - **Too expensive!**
  - Use hybrid encryption: encrypt a symmetric key with RSA, then use this to **encrypt the bulk data**
- How would one do signature with RSA?
  - Sign the message by applying the decryption alg. with the private key
  - For long messages, hash the message first, then sign the hash value

RSA Details: Miscellaneous

- The “1024” bits (or 2048, or 4096, …) is the size of the **modulus** n
- Does that mean “1024-bit security”, like with block ciphers?
- **No!**
  - Why? (What is an efficient attack on RSA? And on block ciphers?)

cipher key size	modulus size
80 bits	1024 bits
128 bits	3072 bits
256 bits (AES)	**15360** bits

- RSA is not CCA-secure (see exercises), but it is never used as explained here (RSA strengthening)

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Problem with shared-key systems:

  Distributing the shared key

- Suppose that Alice and Bob want to agree on a secret (i.e. a key)
  - Communication link is public
  - They don't already share any secrets

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Choose a prime p (publicly known)
  - Should be about 512 bits or more
- Pick $g < p$ (also public)
  - g must be a *primitive root* of p
  - A primitive root generates the finite field p
  - Every n in {1, 2, ..., p-1} can be written as g^k mod p
  - Example: 2 is a primitive root of 5
  - $2^0 = 1$ $2^1 = 2$ $2^2 = 4$ $2^3 = 3$ (mod 5)
  - Intuitively means that it's hard to take logarithms base g because there are many candidates

Diffie-Hellman Protocol

Alice **Bob**

"Let's use (p, g)" →

← "OK"

g^A mod p →

← g^B mod p

1. Alice & Bob decide on a public prime p and primitive root g
2. Alice chooses secret number A   Bob chooses secret number B
3. Alice sends Bob **g^A mod p**   Bob sends Alice **g^B mod p**
4. The shared secret is **g^{AB} mod p**

Note: security against eavesdropping only (vulnerable to man-in-the-middle)

Diffie-Hellman Details

- Alice computes g^{AB} mod p because she knows A:

$$g^{AB} \bmod p = (g^{B} \bmod p)^{A} \bmod p$$

- An eavesdropper gets g^{A} mod p and g^{B} mod p
  - They can easily calculate g^{A+B} mod p but that doesn't help
  - The problem of computing discrete logarithms (to recover A from g^{A} mod p) is hard

Diffie-Hellman Example

- Alice and Bob agree that p=71 and g=7
- Alice selects a private key A=5 and calculates a public key

  $g^A \equiv 7^5 \equiv 51 \pmod{71}$; she sends this to Bob

- Bob selects a private key B=12 and calculates a public key

  $g^B \equiv 7^{12} \equiv 4 \pmod{71}$; he sends this to Alice

- Alice calculates the shared secret:

  $S \equiv (g^B)^A \equiv 4^5 \equiv 30 \pmod{71}$

- Bob calculates the shared secret:

  $S \equiv (g^A)^B \equiv 51^{12} \equiv 30 \pmod{71}$

Why Does It Work?

- Security is provided by the difficulty of calculating discrete logarithms
- Feasibility is provided by
  - The ability to find large primes
  - The ability to find primitive roots for large primes
  - The ability to do efficient modular arithmetic
- Correctness is an immediate consequence of basic facts about modular arithmetic

Authentication

Authenticated channel

- You should always expect a **man-in-the-middle**
  - e.g. on the internet, your messages go through many intermediaries

- Solution: Use an authenticated channel
  - For instance, Alice and Bob have certificates that contain a public key, and exchange them prior to the DH exchange
  - They use them to authenticate the values in the DH phase
  - More on that in the SSL/TLS lecture

+

Collision resistance

Generic birthday attack

Cryptographic Hashes

- Create a hard-to-invert summary of input data

$$h:\{0,1\}^{*} \xrightarrow{\text{hash}} \{0,1\}^{n}$$

- Sometimes called a Message Digest
- Examples:
  - Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA)
  - Message Digest (MD4, MD5)

Desired Properties

- One way hash function
  - Given a hash value y, it should be infeasible to find m s.t. $\mathrm{h}(m)=y$
- Collision resistance
  - It should be infeasible to find two different messages m_1 and m_2 s.t. $\mathrm{h}(m_1)=\mathrm{h}(m_2)$
- Random oracle property
  - $\mathrm{h}(m)$ is indistinguishable from a random n-bit value
  - Attacker must spend a lot of effort to be able to modify the message without altering the hash value

Generic attack on C.R. functions

Let H: $M \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ be a hash function ($|M| >> 2^n$)

Generic alg. to find a collision **in time $O(2^{n/2})$** hashes

Algorithm:

1. Choose $\mathbf{2^{n/2}}$ random messages in M: $m_1, \ldots, m_{2^{n/2}}$
   (distinct w.h.p)
2. For i = 1, …, $2^{n/2}$ compute $t_i = H(m_i)$ $\in \{0,1\}^n$
3. Look for a collision ($t_i = t_j$).
   If not found, got back to step 1.

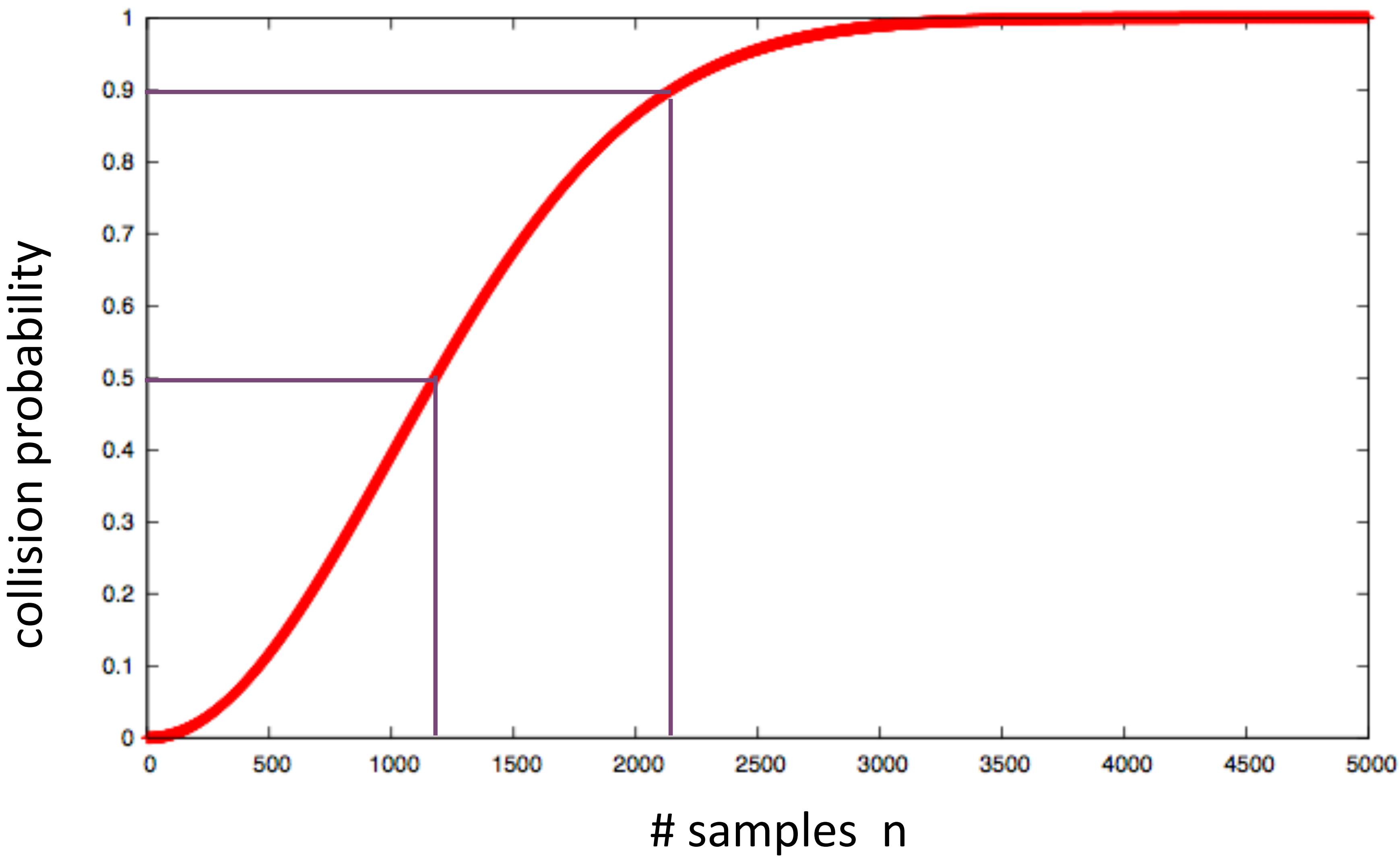
How well will this work?

The birthday paradox

- In a group of **23** people, the probability to have at least two people with the same birthday is about **50%**
- Theorem: If we pick $\theta\sqrt{N}$ independently and uniformly distributed random numbers in {1,2,…,N}, we get at least two occurrences of the same number with probability:

$$1-\frac{N!}{N^{\theta\sqrt{N}}(N-\theta\sqrt{N})!} \xrightarrow[N\to+\infty]{} 1-e^{-\frac{\theta^2}{2}}$$

N=10^6



collision probability
0
0.1
0.2
0.3
0.4
0.5
0.6
0.7
0.8
0.9
1
0
500
1000
1500
2000
2500
3000
3500
4000
4500
5000
samples n

Generic attack

$H: M \to \{0,1\}^n$. Collision finding algorithm:

1. Choose $\mathbf{2^{n/2}}$ random elements in M: $m_1, \ldots, m_{2^{n/2}}$
2. For i = 1, …, $2^{n/2}$ compute $t_i = H(m_i) \in \{0,1\}^n$
3. Look for a collision $(t_i = t_j)$.
   If not found, got back to step 1.

Expected number of iteration ≈ 2

Running time: $\mathbf{O(2^{n/2})}$ (space $O(2^{n/2})$)

Integrity

Message Integrity

Goal: **integrity**, no confidentiality

Examples:

- Protecting public binaries on disk
- Protecting banner ads on web pages

Message Integrity: MAC

Generate tag:

tag ← S(k, m)

Verify tag:

$$V(k, m, tag) \overset{?}{=} \text{'yes'}$$

Def: **MAC** $I=(S,V)$ defined over (K,M,T) is a pair of algs

- $S(k,m)$ outputs t in T
- $V(k,m,t)$ outputs 'yes' or 'no'

Consistency: $\forall(\mathrm{k}PK,\ SK)$ output by G :

$$\forall k \in K,\ \forall m \in M: \quad V(k, \mathrm{m}, S(k, m)) = \text{'yes'}$$

An Insecure MAC Construction

- Let us define $t = S(m, k) = H(k \,||\, m)$
- Because of the way typical hash function are implemented (up to SHA-2), the "Merkle-Damgård" construction, an attack is possible
- An adversary can compute $t' = H(k \,||\, m \,||\, \text{padding} \,||\, m')$ without knowing m
- She can therefore send m', t' instead of m, t

Standardized method: HMAC (Hash-MAC)

- Most widely used MAC on the Internet
  - Proposed by Bellare, Canetti, Krawczyk in 1996
  - Provably secure
  - Standards: FIPS 198-1, RFC 2104, ISO 9797-2
- Builds a MAC out of a hash function

HMAC: $S(k, m) = H\big(\ k \oplus \text{opad} \ \|\ \ H(\ k \oplus \textbf{ipad} \ \| \ \boldsymbol{m}\ )\ \big)$

  - Maintains performance of the original hash function
  - Examples:
    - HMAC-SHA256: H = SHA256 ; output is 256 bits
    - HMAC-SHA1-96: H = SHA1 ; output truncated to 96 bits

Things To Remember

- Cryptography is:
  - A tremendous tool
  - The basis for many security mechanisms
- Cryptography is **NOT**:
  - The solution to all security problems
  - Reliable unless implemented and used properly
  - Something you should try to invent yourself

Any questions?

Stay tuned

Next time you will learn about

Certificates | IPsec