CSE 477: Introduction to Computer Security

Lecture – 9

Course Teacher: Dr. Md Sadek Ferdous

Assistant Professor, CSE, SUST

E-mail: ripul.bd@gmail.com

Outline

- Elgamal Crypto System
- Key Exchange
- Hash Function

- The *Elgamal* cryptosystem, named after its inventor, Taher Elgamal, is a public-key cryptosystem that uses randomisation
 - Enabling independent encryptions of the same plaintext to produce different ciphertexts
- In the number system Z_p , all arithmetic is done modulo a prime number, p
- A number, g in Z_p , is said to be a **generator** or **primitive root** modulo p if, for each positive integer k in Z_p , k is in range [0, p-2], there is a **unique** integer i such that $i = g^k \mod p$
- For example,
 - 3 is a primitive root modulo 7
 - $3^0 \mod 7 = 1$, $3^1 \mod 7 = 3$, $3^2 \mod 7 = 2$, $3^3 \mod 7 = 6$, $3^4 \mod 7 = 4$, $3^5 \mod 7 = 5$
 - Here, you get all the possible results: 1,3,2,6,4,5
 - 3 is not a primitive root modulo 11
 - $3^0 \mod 11 = 1$, $3^1 \mod 11 = 3$, $3^2 \mod 11 = 9$, $3^3 \mod 11 = 5$, $3^4 \mod 11 = 4$, $3^5 \mod 11 = 1$
 - You get 1, 3, 9, 5, 4 and this sequence repeats after 3⁵

- It turns out that there are $\varphi(\varphi(p)) = \varphi(p-1)$ generators for Z_p
 - So we can test different numbers until we find one that is a generator
- Once we have a generator g, we can efficiently compute $x = g^k \mod p$, for any value k
- Conversely, given x, g, and p, the problem of determining k such that $x = g^k \mod p$ is known as the **discrete logarithm** problem
- Like factoring, the discrete logarithm problem is widely believed to be computationally hard
- The security of the Elgamal cryptosystem depends on the difficulty of the discrete logarithm problem

• Setup:

- Bob chooses a random large prime number, p, and finds a generator, g, for Z_p
- He then picks a random number, x, between 1 and p-2, and computes $y=g^x \mod p$
- The number, x, is Bob's secret key
- His public key is the triple (p, g, y)
- When Alice wants to encrypt a plaintext message, M, for Bob, she begins by getting his public key, (p, g, y)
- She then generates a random number, k, between 1 and p-2
- She then uses modular multiplication and exponentiation to compute two numbers:
 - $a = g^k \mod p$
 - $b = My^k \mod p$
 - The encryption of M is the pair (a,b)

- The decryption can be carried out by Bob in the following manner:
 - $M = b(a^x)^{-1} \mod p$
- Correctness:

•
$$b(a^x)^{-1} mod p = My^k (g^{kx})^{-1} mod p$$

$$= M(g^x)^k g^{-kx} mod p$$

$$= Mg^{kx}g^{-kx} mod p$$

$$= M mod p = M$$

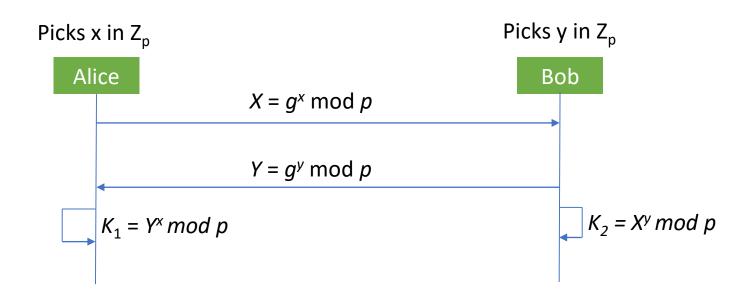
- Note that Bob doesn't need to know the random value, k, to decrypt a message that was encrypted using this value
- And Alice didn't need to know Bob's secret key to encrypt the message for him in the first place
- Instead, Alice got g^x , as y, from Bob's public key, and Bob got g^k , as a, from Alice's ciphertext
- Alice raised y to the power k and Bob raised a to the power x, and in so doing they implicitly computed a type of one-time shared key, g^{xk}
 - which Alice used for encryption and Bob used for decryption

- The security of this scheme is based on the fact that, without knowing x, it would be very difficult for an eavesdropper to decrypt the ciphertext, (a, b)
- Since everyone knows $y = g^x \mod p$, from Bob's public key, the security of this scheme is therefore related to the difficulty of solving the discrete logarithm problem
- That is, Elgamal could be broken by an eavesdropper finding the secret key, x
 - This can be only done by solving the discrete logarithm problem which is believed to computationally hard
- Note that an Elgamal encryption is dependent on the choice of the random number, k
 - Different *k* should be chosen for different message encryption
- If *k* is reused she would be leaking information much like the one-time pad would leak information if we were to reuse a pad

Key exchange

- The use of a symmetric cryptosystem requires that Alice and Bob agree on a secret key before they can send encrypted messages to each other
- Accomplish it by the one-time use of a private communication channel, such as an in-person meeting in a private room, or mailing in tamper-proof containers
- A key exchange protocol, which is also called key agreement protocol, is a cryptographic approach
 - to establish a shared secret key by communicating solely over an insecure channel, without any previous private communication
- Intuitively, the existence of a key exchange protocol appears unlikely
 - as the adversary can arbitrarily disrupt the communication between Alice and Bob
- Indeed, it can be shown that no key exchange protocol exists if the adversary can actively modify messages sent over the insecure channel
- Nevertheless, key exchange can be successfully accomplished if the adversary is limited to only passive eavesdropping on messages

- The classic *Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol* (*DH protocol*), which is named after its inventors, Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman
 - based on modular exponentiation
- Assumed two public parameters have been established and are known to all participants (including the attacker):
 - a prime number, p, and a generator g, for Z_p
- Alice picks a random number $x \in Z_p$
- Bob picks a random number $y \in Z_p$

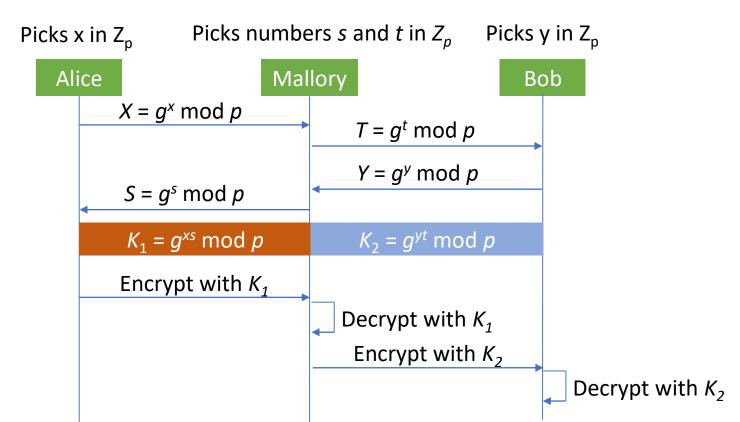


- The secret key essentially is $K = g^{xy} \mod p$
- Proof:
 - $K_1 = Y^x \mod p = (g^y)^x \mod p = (g^x)^y \mod p = X^y \mod p = K_2$
- The security of the DH protocol is based on the assumption
 - It is difficult for the attacker to determine the key K from the public parameters and the eavesdropped values X and Y

- Alice and Bob agree on p = 23 and g = 5
- Alice chooses x = 6 and sends 5^6 mod 23 = 8 as X
- Bob chooses y = 15 and sends 5^{15} mod 23 = 19 as Y
- Alice computes $K_1 = 19^6 \mod 23 = 2$
- Bob computes $8^{15} \mod 23 = 2$
- 2 is their shared secret!
- Clearly, much larger values of x, y, and p are required

Attack on DH protocol

 Even though it is secure against a passive attacker, the DH protocol is vulnerable to a man-in-the-middle attack if the attacker can intercept and modify the messages exchanged by Alice and Bob



Cryptographic Hash Functions

- A cryptographic *hash function* produces a compressed digest of a message with three properties: **deterministic**, *one-way*, and *collision-resistant*
- Deterministic property will ensure that a fixed input will produce a same output
 - The hash value should be significantly smaller than a typical message
- For example, the commonly used standard hash function SHA-256 produces hash values with 256 bits
- The digest will be such that changing one bit of input should potentially impact every bit of output, known as diffusion
- A hash function utilises several of the techniques employed in symmetric encryption, including substitution, permutation, exclusive-or, and iteration, in a way that provides the required diffusion

Hash Function: one way

- That is, given a message, M, it should be easy to compute a hash value, H(M), from that message
- However, given only a value, x, it should be difficult to find a message, M, such that x = H(M)

Hash Function: collision resistance

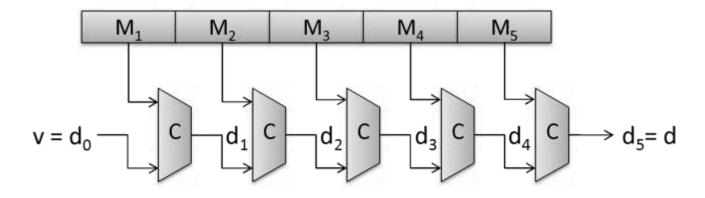
- A hash function, H, is a mapping of input strings to (smaller) output strings
- We say that H has **weak collision resistance** if, given any message, M, it is computationally difficult to find another message, $M' \neq M$, such that
 - H(M') = H(M)
- Hash function H has **strong collision resistance** if it is computationally difficult to compute two distinct messages, M_1 and M_2 , such that
 - $H(M_1) = H(M_2)$
- That is, in weak collision resistance, we are trying to avoid a collision with a specific message, and in strong collision resistance we are trying to avoid collisions in general
- It is usually a challenge to prove that real-world cryptographic hash functions have strong collision resistance

Hash Function: construction

- A hash function utilises a building block called cryptographic compression function C(X, Y)
 - C takes as input two strings, X and Y, where X has fixed length m and Y has fixed length n
 - produces a hash value of length n
- Given a message M, we divide M into multiple blocks, M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_k , each of length m
 - ullet The last block is padded in an unambiguous way with additional bits to make it of length m

Hash Function: construction

- For block $M_{1,}$ input M_1 with a fixed string v of length n, known as the *initialization vector*, to C
 - Denote, $d_1 = C(M_1, v)$
- Next, we apply the compression function to block M_2 and d_1
 - resulting in $d_2 = C(M_2, d_1)$
- These go on for all *k* blocks
- Final hash value, $H = d_k$
- Known as the Merkle-Damgård construction
 - Ralph Merkle & Ivan Damgård



Hash Function: practical implementation

- The currently recommended hash function for cryptographic applications are the SHA-256 and SHA-512 standardised by NIST
 - SHA stands for "Secure Hash Algorithm"
 - The numeric suffix refers to the length of the hash value
- Utilises the Merkle-Damgård construction
- SHA-256 employs a compression function with inputs of:
 - m = 512 bits and n = 256 bits and produces hash values of n = 256 bits
- For SHA-512: m = 1,024 and n = 512
- MD5 (Message Digest 5) hash function is still widely used in legacy applications
 - However, it is considered insecure as several attacks against it have been demonstrated
- For example, one can generate different PDF files or executable files with the same MD5 hash, a major vulnerability!

Hash Function: birthday attack

- The main way that cryptographic hash functions are attacked with is by compromising their collision resistance
- Sometimes this is done by careful cryptanalysis of the algorithms used to perform cryptographic hashing
- But it can also be done by using a brute-force technique known as a birthday attack
- This attack is based on a nonintuitive statistical phenomenon that states that as soon as there are more than 23 people in a room, there is better than a 50-50 chance that two of the people have the same birthday
- If there are more than 60 people in a room, it is almost certain that two of them share a birthday
- Here, sharing birthday represents finding a collision

Hash Function: birthday attack

- The problem is to compute the approximate probability that in a group of n people, at least two have the same birthday
- The goal is to compute P(A)
 - the probability that at least two people in the room have the same birthday
- However, it is simpler to calculate P(A')
 - the probability that no two people in the room have the same birthday
- Because A and A' are the only two possibilities and are also mutually exclusive, P(A) = 1 P(A')
- When events are independent of each other, the probability of all of the events occurring is equal to a product of the probabilities of each of the events occurring
- *P*(*A*') can be described as 23 independent events
 - $P(A') = P(1) \times P(2) \times P(3) \times ... \times P(23)$

Hash Function: birthday attack

- For Event 1, there are no previously analysed people
 - The probability, P(1), that Person 1 does not share his/her birthday with previously analysed people is 1, or 100% or 365/365 ignoring leap years
- For Event 2, the probability, P(2), that Person 2 has a different birthday than Person 1 is 364/365
- For Event 3, the probability, P(3), that Person 3 has a different birthday than Person 1 and Person 2 is 363/365

•
$$P(A') = \frac{365}{365} \times \frac{364}{365} \times \frac{363}{365} \times \dots \times \frac{343}{365}$$

= $\left(\frac{1}{365}\right)^{23} \times (365 \times 364 \times \dots \times 343)$
= 0.492703

•
$$P(A) = 1 - P(A') = 1 - 0.492703 = 0.507297$$
 or $50.7\% > 50\%$

Hash Function: rainbow table attack

- Hash functions is widely used in password hashing
- In your OS, passwords of users are stored as hashes so that no one can ever retrieve the passwords when the PC is compromised
- Similarly, passwords must be stored as hashes within a DB
- Consider a web application that requires sign up (registration) and subsequent sign in of users
- During the registration process, the provided password must be hashed in the source (at the client end within the browser) using client side JS
 - The hashed password must be stored in the DB
- Similarly during the sign in process, passwords must be hashed at the source and transmitted the hashed version

Hash Function: rainbow table attack

- If we know the type or properties of hashed data, then it is prone to rainbow table attack
- A rainbow table is a precomputed table for caching the output of cryptographic hash functions, usually for cracking password hashes

```
* /etc/passwd
* userid:hashed password:uid:gid:Name,phone,etc:home directory:shell
*
root:*:0:0:System Administrator:/var/root:/bin/sh
aseltzer:5f4dcc3b5aa765d61d8327deb882cf99:3:10:Al K. Seltzer:/home/aseltzer:/bin/sh
cpbacon:e10adc3949ba59abbe56e057f20f883e:4:10:Chris P. Bacon:/home/cpbacon:/bin/ksh
srthornton:d8578edf8458ce06fbc5bb76a58c5ca4:5:10:Sven Thornton:/home/srthornton:/bin/ksh
spreston:e10adc3949ba59abbe56e057f20f883e:6:10:Samantha Preston:/home/spreston:/bin/sh
ileague:96e79218965eb72c92a549dd5a330112:7:10:Ivy League:/home/ileague:/bin/sh
jshorts:5f4dcc3b5aa765d61d8327deb882cf99:8:10:Jim Shorts:/home/jshorts:/bin/sh
wpeace:c7c9cfbb7ed7d1cebb7a4442dc30877f:9:10:Warren Peace/home/wpeace:/bin/sh
```

Hash Function: rainbow table attack

* /etc/passwd

* userid:hashed password:uid:gid:Name,phone,etc:home directory:shell

* root:*:0:0:System Administrator:/var/root:/bin/sh
aseltzer:5f4dcc3b5aa765d61d8327deb882cf99:3:10:Al K. Seltzer:/home/aseltzer:/bin/sh
cpbacon:e10adc3949ba59abbe56e057f20f883e:4:10:Chris P. Bacon:/home/cpbacon:/bin/ksh
srthornton:d8578edf8458ce06fbc5bb76a58c5ca4:5:10:Sven Thornton:/home/srthornton:/bin/ksh
spreston:e10adc3949ba59abbe56e057f20f883e:6:10:Samantha Preston:/home/spreston:/bin/sh
ileague:96e79218965eb72c92a549dd5a330112:7:10:Ivy League:/home/ileague:/bin/sh
jshorts:5f4dcc3b5aa765d61d8327deb882cf99:8:10:Jim Shorts:/home/jshorts:/bin/sh
wpeace:c7c9cfbb7ed7d1cebb7a4442dc30877f:9:10:Warren Peace/home/wpeace:/bin/sh

