

Applied Cryptography

Tadayoshi Kohno

Thanks to Dan Boneh, Dieter Gollmann, John Manferdelli, John Mitchell, Vitaly Shmatkov, Bennet Yee, and many others for sample slides and materials ...

Goals for Today

- ◆ Asymmetric Cryptography
- ◆ CELT: Center for Engineering Learning and Teaching
- ◆ Reminder: Midterm on Friday. (Closed book.)
 - Contents up through the material for Monday (through symmetric crypto)
 - Not as hard as last year's midterm.
 - Make sure you understand the core concepts so far in this course:

Requirements for Public-Key Crypto

- ◆ Key generation: computationally easy to generate a pair (public key PK, private key SK)
 - Computationally infeasible to determine private key SK given only public key PK
- ◆ 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 compute M from C without SK
 - Even infeasible to learn partial information about M
 - Trapdoor function: $\text{Decrypt}(SK, \text{Encrypt}(PK, M)) = M$

Some Number Theory Facts ("Skip")

- ◆ Euler totient function $\phi(n)$ where $n \geq 1$ 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
- ◆ Euler's theorem:
if $a \in \mathbb{Z}^*$, then $a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \pmod n$
- ◆ Special case: Fermat's Little Theorem
if p is prime and $\text{gcd}(a, p) = 1$, then $a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$

RSA Cryptosystem ("Fast") [Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

- ◆ Key generation:
 - Generate large primes p, q
 - Say, 1024 bits each (need primality testing, too)
 - Compute $n=pq$ and $\varphi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$
 - Choose small e , relatively prime to $\varphi(n)$
 - Typically, $e=3$ or $e=2^{16}+1=65537$ (why?)
 - Compute unique d such that $ed = 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
 - Public key = (e, n) ; private key = d
- ◆ Encryption of m : $c = m^e \pmod{n}$
 - Modular exponentiation by repeated squaring
- ◆ Decryption of c : $c^d \pmod{n} = (m^e)^d \pmod{n} = m$

Why RSA Decryption Works ("Fast")

- ◆ $e \cdot d = 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
- ◆ Thus $e \cdot d = 1 + k \cdot \varphi(n) = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$ for some k
- ◆ Let m be any integer in \mathbb{Z}_n
- ◆ If $\gcd(m, p) = 1$, then $m^{ed} = m \pmod{p}$
 - By Fermat's Little Theorem, $m^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$
 - Raise both sides to the power $k(q-1)$ and multiply by m
 - $m^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} = m \pmod{p}$, thus $m^{ed} = m \pmod{p}$
 - By the same argument, $m^{ed} = m \pmod{q}$
- ◆ Since p and q are distinct primes and $p \cdot q = n$,
 $m^{ed} = m \pmod{n}$

Why Is RSA Secure? ("Fast")

- ◆ RSA problem: given $n=pq$, e such that $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1))=1$ and c , find m such that $m^e = c \pmod{n}$
 - i.e., recover m from ciphertext c and public key (n, e) by taking e^{th} root of c
 - There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this
- ◆ Factoring problem: given positive integer n , find primes p_1, \dots, p_k such that $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_k^{e_k}$
- ◆ If factoring is easy, then RSA problem is easy, but there is no known reduction from factoring to RSA
 - It may be possible to break RSA without factoring n

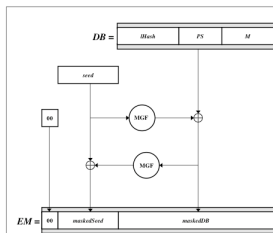
Caveats ("Fast;" Note first bullet)

- ◆ Don't use RSA directly
- ◆ $e = 3$ is a common exponent
 - If $m < n^{1/3}$, then $c = m^3 < n$ and can just take the cube root of c to recover m
 - Even problems if "pad" m in some ways [Hastad]
 - Let $c_i = m^3 \pmod{n_i}$ - same message is encrypted to three people
 - Adversary can compute $m^3 \pmod{n_1 n_2 n_3}$ (using CRT)
 - Then take ordinary cube root to recover m

Integrity in RSA Encryption

- ◆ Plain RSA does not provide integrity
 - Given encryptions of m_1 and m_2 , attacker can create encryption of $m_1 \cdot m_2$
 - $(m_1^e) \cdot (m_2^e) \bmod n = (m_1 \cdot m_2)^e \bmod n$
 - Attacker can convert m into m^k without decrypting
 - $(m_1^e)^k \bmod n = (m^k)^e \bmod n$
- ◆ 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
 - Resulting encryption is plaintext-aware: infeasible to compute a valid encryption without knowing plaintext
 - ... if hash functions are "good" and RSA problem is hard

OAEP (image from PKCS #1 v2.1)



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, enough to know the public key

RSA Signatures

- ◆ Public key is (n, e) , private key is d
- ◆ To sign message m : $s = m^d \bmod n$
 - Signing and decryption are the same operation in RSA
 - It's infeasible to compute s on m if you don't know d
- ◆ To verify signature s on message m :
 $s^e \bmod n = (m^d)^e \bmod n = m$
 - Just like encryption
 - Anyone who knows n and e (public key) can verify signatures produced with d (private key)
- ◆ In practice, also need padding & hashing (why?)

Encryption and Signatures

- ◆ Books often say: Encryption and decryption are inverses, so use decryption as signatures
- ◆ That's a common view
 - True for the RSA primitive
- ◆ But not the cryptographic view
 - To really use RSA, we need padding
 - Some encryption schemes don't have natural signature analogs and vice versa.

Advantages of Public-Key Crypto

- ◆ Confidentiality without shared secrets
 - Very useful in open environments
 - No "chicken-and-egg" key establishment problem
 - With symmetric crypto, two parties must share a secret before they can exchange secret messages
 - Caveats to come
- ◆ Authentication without shared secrets
 - Use digital signatures to prove the origin of messages
- ◆ Reduce protection of information to protection of authenticity of public keys
 - No need to keep public keys secret, but must be sure that Alice's public key is really her true public key

Disadvantages of Public-Key Crypto

- ◆ Calculations are 2-3 orders of magnitude slower
 - Modular exponentiation is an expensive computation
 - Typical usage: use public-key cryptography to establish a shared secret, then switch to symmetric crypto
 - We'll see this in IPsec and SSL
- ◆ Keys are longer
 - 1024 bits (RSA) rather than 128 bits (AES)
- ◆ Relies on unproven number-theoretic assumptions
 - What if factoring is easy?
 - Factoring is believed to be neither P, nor NP-complete
 - (Of course, symmetric crypto also rests on unproven assumptions)