Public-Key Encryption, Key Exchange, Digital Signatures CMSC 23200/33250, Autumn 2018, Lecture 7

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Plan

- 1. Security of RSA
- 2. Key Exchange, Diffie-Hellman
- 3. Begin digital signatures

Assignment 1 is Due Wednesday

- 1. I will hold office hours Tomorrow (Tuesday), 2:30pm-4:30pm.
- 2. Thanks to everyone who reported server error bugs. I will respond to piazza posts this afternoon.
- 3. Please ping me on piazza if any more bugs comes up.

RSA "Trapdoor Function"

 $PK = (N, e)$ *SK* = (N, d) where $N = pq$, $ed = 1 \text{ mod } \phi(N)$

$$
Enc((N, e), M) = Me \bmod N
$$

$$
Dec((N, d), C) = Cd \bmod N
$$

Messages and ciphertexts are in \mathbb{Z}_N^* *N*

Setting up RSA:

- Pick two large random primes p,q
- Pick e and then find d using p and q
	- $-$ Usually $e = 3$ or $e = 65537 = 0$ b10000000000000000001

RSA "Trapdoor Function"

Finding "e-th roots modulo N" is hard. Contrast is usual arithmetic, where finding roots is easy.

Better Padding: RSA-OAEP

RSA-OAEP [Bellare and Rogaway, '94] prevents padding-oracle attacks with better padding using a hash function.

(Then apply RSA trapdoor function.)

Security of RSA Trapdoor Function Against Inversion

- In principle one may invert RSA without factoring N, but it is the only approach known.

Naive Factoring Algorithm

- Given input N=901, what are p,q?

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NaiveFactor(N):
 1. For i=2…sqrt(N):
      If i divides N:
        Output p=i, q=N/i
```
- Runtime is sqrt(N)≪N
- But sqrt(N) is still huge (e.g. sqrt(2^{2048}) = 2^{1024})

Factoring Algorithms

- If we can factor N, we can find d and break any version of RSA.

 $\begin{array}{c} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{array}$

- Total break requires $c = O(\ln \ln N)$

Factoring Records

- Challenges posted publicly by RSA Laboratories

- Recommended bit-length today: 2048
- Note that fast algorithms force such a large key.
	- 512-bit N defeats naive factoring

Bad Randomness, Bad Primes, Bad Security

Mining Your Ps and Qs: Detection of Widespread Weak Keys in Network Devices

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- Gathered moduli N from 10 million hosts (used in TLS and SSH)
- Factored \approx 1% of all N… how?
- Many pairs of moduli shared **exactly one** prime factor
	- Find it fast using: $gcd(N_1,N_2) = p$
	- … why?

- Bad randomness for entire execution is actually better
	- Can define $q = H(p)$

KeyGen():

- 1. Pick p <>>
Might not be random at startup
- 2. Pick q Slightly later, might be random
- 3. Pick e
- 4. Compute d
- 5. Output (N,e) and (N,d)

Public-Key Encryption in Practice: Hybrid Encryption

- RSA runs reasonably fast but is orders of magnitude slower than symmetric encryption with AES.
	- My laptop…
		- Can encrypt 800 MB per second using AES-CBC
		- Can only evaluate RSA 1000 times per second

Solution: Use public-key encryption to send a 16-byte key K for AES. Then encrypt rest of traffic using authenticated encryption.

- Called "hybrid encryption"

Key Exchange and Hybrid Encryption

(Kg, Enc, Dec) is a public-key encryption scheme.

Goal: Establish secret key K to use with Authenticated Encryption.

Key Exchange and Hybrid Encryption

- After up-front cost, bulk encryption is very cheap
- TLS/SSH Terminology:
	- "Handshake" = key exchange
	- "Record protocol" = symmetric encryption phase

An alternative approach to key exchange

- They modulus N for RSA is relatively large
	- Mostly important because it slows down encryption/decryption
- Now: A totally different, faster approach based on different math
	- Invented in 1970s, but new ideas have recently made it the standard choice
	- Strictly speaking, not public-key encryption, but can adapted into it if needed

The Setting: Discrete Logarithm Problem

Discrete Logarithm Problem:

Input: Prime p, integers g, X. Output: integer r such that $q^r = X$ mod p.

- Different from factoring: Only one prime.
- Contrast with logarithms with real numbers, which are easy to compute. *Discrete* logarithms appear to be hard to compute
- Largest solved instances: 768-bit prime p (2016)

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Parameters: (fixed in standards, used by everyone): Prime p (1024 bit usually) Number $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ (usually 2)

(*p*, *g*)

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(*p*, *g*)

Security of Diffie-Hellman

Best attack known: Compute discrete log of X_A, X_B

Key Exchange in the Future: Elliptic Curve Diffie-Hellman

- Diffie-Hellman works in any algebraic setting called a "finite cyclic group"
- Instead of multiplication modulo a prime, other settings have been suggested called "elliptic curve groups over finite fields"
- Advantage: Bandwidth and computation
	- 256 bit vs 2048-bit messages.

Public-Key Encryption/Key Exchange Wrap-Up

- RSA-OAEP and Diffie-Hellman (either mod a prime or in an elliptic curve) are unbroken and run fine in TLS/SSH/etc.
- Elliptic-Curve Diffie-Hellman is likely to be preferred choice going forward.

Huge quantum computers will break:

- RSA (any padding)
- Diffie-Hellman (any finite cyclic group)

Shor's algorithm, 1994

Peter Shor

- First gen quantum computers will be far from this large
- "Post-quantum" crypto = crypto not known to be broken by quantum computers (i.e. not RSA or DH)
- On-going research on post-quantum cryptography from hard problems on lattices, with first beta deployments in recent years

Key Exchange with a Person-in-the-Middle

Adversary may silently sit between parties and modify messages.

Parties agree on different keys, both known to adversary…

Key Exchange with a Person-in-the-Middle

Connection is totally transparent to adversary.

Translation is invisible to parties.

Next up: Stopping the Person-in-the-Middle

- Public-Key Infrastructure (PKI)
- Digital Signatures
- Certificates and chains of trust

Public Keys on the Internet

- Anyone can set up a server and generate their own keys.
- When you connect, how do you know you got the correct key?

Naive Solution

- Just distribute all the keys ahead of time, and store them locally!

keys.txt google.com:PK1 amazon.com:PK2 facebook.com:PK3 twitter.com:PK4 **…**

Problems:

- List will be huge
- List will need to be updated often
- Who sends the list?
- Can adversaries tamper with list?

Distributing keys via "Transferring Trust"

- We will "transfer trust" from one key to another.

If A knows that PK_B belongs to a trusted (in the eyes of A) entity B, and B knows that PK_C belongs to a trusted (in the eyes of B) entity C, then A should also trust C and PK_C.

- Initial "root" of trust established out-of-band via physical interaction.

Distributing keys via "Transferring Trust"

Crypto Tool: Digital Signatures

Definition. A digital signature scheme consists of three algorithms **Kg**, **Sign**, and **Verify**

- Key generation algorithm **Kg**, takes no input and outputs a (random) public-verification-key/secret-signing key pair (VK, SK)
- Signing algorithm **Sign**, takes input the secret key SK and a message M, outputs "signature" σ←Sign(SK,M)
- Verification algorithm **verify**, takes input the public key VK, a message M, a signature σ , and outputs ACCEPT /REJECT Verify(VK,M,σ)=ACCEPT/REJECT

Digital Signature Security Goal: Unforgeability

Scheme satisfies **unforgeability** if it is unfeasible for Adversary (who knows VK) to fool Bob into accepting M' not previously sent by Alice.

Industry Standard: RSA Signatures

 $VK = (N, e)$ $SK = (N, d)$ where $N = pq$, $ed = 1 \text{ mod } \phi(N)$

 $Sign((N, d), M) = H(M)^d \mod N$ $Verify((N, e), M, \sigma) : \sigma^e = H(M) \bmod N$? Messages & sigs are in \mathbb{Z}_N^* *N*

 H is cryptographic hash function mapping strings to \mathbb{Z}_N^* *N*

The End