

CNT4406/5412 Network Security

Public Key Algorithms

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Introduction

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 - public key is announced to the public
 - private key is kept secret

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 - public key is announced to the public
 - private key is kept secret
- Public key algorithms are different in design
 - Diffie-Hellman allows establishment of a shared secret

	encryption	signature	key exchange
RSA	y	y	y
Diffie-Hellman	n	n	y
DSA	n	y	n

Modular Addition

- Modular addition is reversible for all numbers $a < n$
 - Caesar cipher uses modular addition

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

Modular Addition

- Modular addition is reversible for all numbers $a < n$
 - Caesar cipher uses modular addition
- Additive inverse of a is $-a \pmod n$
 - e.g., 7 is 3 's additive inverse in $\pmod{10}$

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1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
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Modular Multiplication

- It is reversible for numbers relatively-prime to and less than n
 - multiplicative inverse can be calculated by Euclid's algorithm

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2	0	2	4	6	8	0	2	4	6	8
3	0	3	6	9	2	5	8	1	4	7
4	0	4	8	2	6	0	4	8	2	6
5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5
6	0	6	2	8	4	0	6	2	8	4
7	0	7	4	1	8	5	2	9	6	3
8	0	8	6	4	2	0	8	6	4	2
9	0	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Modular Multiplication

- It is reversible for numbers relatively-prime to and less than n
 - multiplicative inverse can be calculated by Euclid's algorithm
- Totient function $\phi(n)$: how many numbers less than and relatively-prime to n
 - if n is prime, $\phi(n) = n - 1$
 - if $n = pq$ and p, q are prime, $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1) = \phi(p)\phi(q)$

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1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
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Modular Exponentiation

- Euler's theorem: $x^y \bmod n = x^{y \bmod \phi(n)} \bmod n$ if n is prime or a product of two **distinct primes**
 - e.g., $n = 10, \phi(n) = 4, x^1 = x^5 = x^9 \bmod 10$

x^y	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	2	4	8	6	2	4	8	6	2	4	8	6
3	1	3	9	7	1	3	9	7	1	3	9	7	1
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- Exponentiative inverse: $yz = 1 \bmod \phi(n) \rightsquigarrow (x^y)^z = x^{yz} = x$
 - $yz = 1 \bmod \phi(n)$: z is y 's multiplicative inverse $\bmod \phi(n)$

x^y	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
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- Basis: factorization of large numbers is hard
- RSA is slow, mostly used to encrypt/sign short messages
 - e.g., shared session keys or message digests

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- Let $n = p \times q$ ($\phi(n) = ???$)
 - factoring n (512 bit) into p and q is hard
- Public key is $\langle e, n \rangle$, e relatively prime to $\phi(n)$,
private key is $\langle d, n \rangle$, $ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

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- Signing $m < n$: $s = m^d \pmod n$
verification: $m = s^e \pmod n$
- Who are the principles of these operations???

Example

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$$d = e^{-1} \pmod{220} = 79 \rightsquigarrow \text{private key: } \langle 79, 253 \rangle$$

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$$\Rightarrow m = 80$$

- encryption: $c = m^e \pmod{n} = 80^{39} \pmod{253} = 37$
- decryption: $m = c^d \pmod{n} = 37^{79} \pmod{253} = 80$

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- encryption: $c = m^e \pmod{n} = 80^{39} \pmod{253} = 37$
- decryption: $m = c^d \pmod{n} = 37^{79} \pmod{253} = 80$
- signature: $s = m^d \pmod{n} = 80^{79} \pmod{253} = 224$
- verification: $m = s^e \pmod{n} = 224^{39} \pmod{253} = 80$

Why RSA Works

$n = pq, \phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$, and $de = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

$\rightsquigarrow x^{de} = x \pmod{n}$ (Euler's theorem, $x \in Z_n$)

Why RSA Works

$$n = pq, \phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1), \text{ and } de = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$$

$$\rightsquigarrow x^{de} = x \pmod{n} \text{ (Euler's theorem, } x \in \mathbb{Z}_n)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{ encryption: } x^e, \text{ decryption: } (x^e)^d = x^{ed} = x$$

\Rightarrow signature and verification are the reverse

Why RSA is Secure

- Public key $\langle e, n \rangle$ is a public information
- Factoring large number n into $p \times q$ is difficult
 - if factored $\rightsquigarrow \phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
 - $\rightsquigarrow d = e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)} \rightsquigarrow \langle d, n \rangle$

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 - 1024 bits are consider secure for now, 2048 bits are better

Implementation

- Basic operation: exponentiating with big numbers
- Generating RSA keys:
 - finding big primes p and q , and selecting d and e

Exponentiating

To compute $a^x \pmod t$, use **repeated squaring** and do modular reduction at each step

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Example

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 1_2
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1_2		123	
10_2	\uparrow	$123^2 = 123 \times 123 = 15129 = 213 \bmod 678$	
11_2	$+1$	$123^3 = 213 \times 123 = 26199 = 435 \bmod 678$	

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11010_2	\uparrow	$123^{26} = 27 \times 27 = 729 = 51 \pmod{678}$
11011_2	$+1$	$123^{27} = 51 \times 123 = 6273 = 171 \pmod{678}$

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11011_2	+1	$123^{27} = 51 \times 123 = 6273 = 171 \pmod{678}$
110110_2	↙	$123^{54} = 171 \times 171 = 29241 = 87 \pmod{678}$

Exponentiating

Pseudo code to compute $a^x \bmod t$, assuming x has k bits

```
 $r = a$ 
```

```
for  $i = k - 1$  to 1:
```

```
     $r = r \times r \bmod t$ 
```

```
    if  $x_i == 1$ :
```

```
         $r = r \times a \bmod t$ 
```

```
return  $r$ 
```

Exponentiating: Timing Attacks

- Timing attack: to recover the private key from the running time of the decryption algorithm ($m = c^d \pmod n$)

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 - for **some** c and m combination, this step is extremely slow
 - ▮ attackers can determine bits of d by comparing time*
- To mitigate, use *blinding*: multiply the ciphertext by a random number before decryption

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Finding Big Primes

- Infinite number of primes, but thin out when getting bigger
 - probability of a random number n being prime is $\frac{1}{\ln n}$
 - e.g., 1 in 23 for a ten-digit number, 1 in 230 for hundred-digits

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- Infinite number of primes, but thin out when getting bigger
 - probability of a random number n being prime is $\frac{1}{\ln n}$
 - e.g., 1 in 23 for a ten-digit number, 1 in 230 for hundred-digits
- Method: choose a random number then test if it is a prime

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 - ▮ test multiple a to increase confidence
 - ▮ Carmichael numbers are special cases

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Miller and Rabin test

If n is a prime, the only $\pmod n$ square roots of 1 are 1 and -1, but many square roots if n is not a power of a prime (exercise: **why??**)

Finding d and e

- Choose a number that is relatively-prime to $\phi(n)$ as e
 - ➡ e is public and can be a small number such as 3 or 65537

Finding d and e

- Choose a number that is relatively-prime to $\phi(n)$ as e
 - e is public and can be a small number such as 3 or 65537
- Compute d using Euclid's algorithm
 - d must be big to avoid being searchable

Issues with $e = 3$

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 - to address it, use random/individualized padding

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 - assume message are padded on the right with random numbers
 - to forge signature, digest the message to h , pad it on the right with zeros, then set the signature to $r = h^{\frac{1}{3}}$
 - signature is forged because $r^3 = h$ (padded with random numbers)

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 $m_1 \times m_2, \frac{m_1}{m_2}, m_1^j, m_1^j \times m_2^k, \dots$
 - ⇒ “small” primes provide flexible building blocks
attackers can forge signatures on any product from his collection

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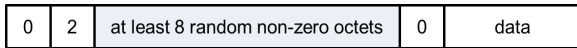
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 - encrypting messages $\leq n^{\frac{1}{3}}$ when $e = 3$
 - signing messages with random padding on the right when $e = 3$

PKCS #1 Encryption

- How does PKCS #1 address the following pitfalls?
 - encrypting guessable message
 - multiple recipients of a message when $e = 3$
 - encrypting messages $\leq n^{\frac{1}{3}}$ when $e = 3$



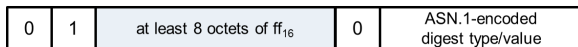
PKCS #1 Signature

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PKCS #1 Signature

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- Why 8 octets of ff_{16} instead of random bytes?



Diffie-Hellman

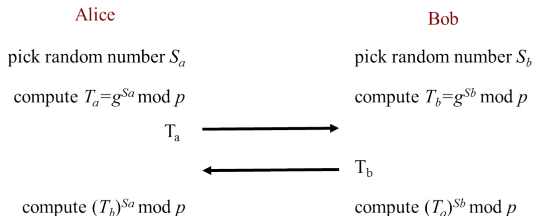
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Diffie-Hellman

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 - i.e. not suitable for public key encryption
- Diffie-Hellman does not provide authentication of the principles
 - you could negotiate a key with a complete stranger

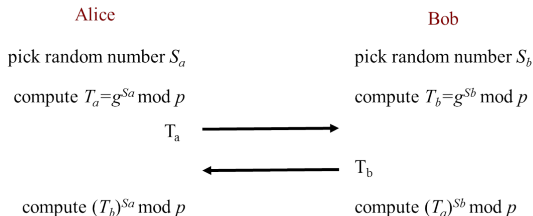
Diffie-Hellman Protocol

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 - p is a large prime (about 512 bits), and $g < p$



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- Alice and Bob exchange two numbers T_a and T_b
- They agree upon $g^{S_a S_b} \bmod p$ after DH exchange



Example

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Bob computes $K = T_a^{S_b} \bmod p = 40^{233} \bmod 353 = 160$

Diffie-Hellman Offline Mode

The same as Diffie-Hellman, but Bob pre-selects his S_b and publishes T_b

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- Bob computes $K_{ab} = T_a^{S_b}$, and decrypts the message with it

Why DH is Secure

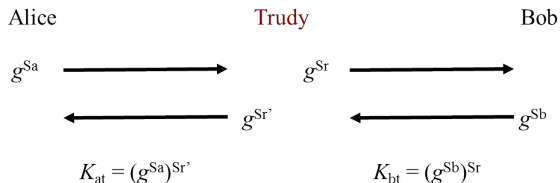
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 - ⇒ given $g^S \pmod p$, g , and p , it is computationally difficult to get S
 - ⇒ no guarantee, but remember Fundamental Tenet of Cryptograph?
- For “obscure mathematical reasons:”
 - ⇒ p and $\frac{p-1}{2}$ should be prime
 - ⇒ $g^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = -1 \pmod p$

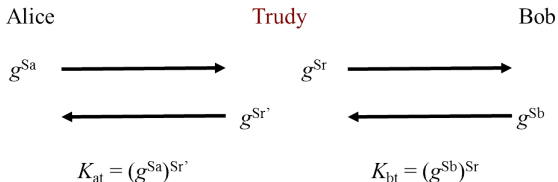
Man-in-the-Middle Attack

- Alice and Bob both negotiated a key with Trudy



Man-in-the-Middle Attack

- Alice and Bob both negotiated a key with Trudy
- Trudy forwards messages between Alice and Bob
 - ▣ Alice \rightarrow Bob: $E(K_{bt}, D(K_{at}, c_{ab}))$
 - ▣ Bob \rightarrow Alice: $E(K_{at}, D(K_{bt}, c_{ba}))$



Defense Against MITM Attacks

- Published DH numbers
 - ⇒ everybody agrees upon a p and g , and publishes his g^S
 - ⇒ grab the other's g^S then compute the secret
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 - eliminate the need for the first two messages in DH protocol
- Authenticated Diffie-Hellman
 - share a secret or publish one's public key in advance
 - there are various ways to mix Diffie-Hellman and authentication

DSS (Digital Signature Standard)

- An algorithm designed by NIST for digital signature
 - the algorithm is known as DSA (digital signature algorithm)
 - messages are digested first, the digest is then signed
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- Signing is faster than verification
 - e.g., for use in the smart cards

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 - ⇒ pick a random number $S < q$, let $T = g^S \pmod p$
- 4 Choose a per message public/private key pair $\langle T_m, S_m \rangle$
 - ⇒ pick a random S_m , let $T_m = ((g^{S_m} \pmod p) \pmod q)$

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- 2 $x = d_m X^{-1} \pmod q$
 $y = T_m X^{-1} \pmod q$
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- 3 if $z = T_m$, the signature is verified

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$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow z &= g^x T^y = g^{d_m S_m v} g^{ST_m S_m v} = g^{(d_m + ST_m) S_m v} \\ &= g^{S_m} = T_m \pmod p \pmod q \end{aligned}$$

DSA Pitfalls

Private key (S) can be revealed if

- per-message private key S_m is leaked

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 - $X_m = S_m^{-1}(d_m + ST_m) \rightsquigarrow (X_m S_m - d_m) T_m^{-1} \pmod q = S \pmod q$
- two messages are signed with the same per-message private key
 - $(X_m - X'_m)^{-1}(d_m - d'_m) \pmod q = S_m \pmod q$

Summary

- Modular arithmetic
- RSA
- Diffie-Hellman
- DSA

- Next lecture: authentication