Cryptography Part 2 CMSC 23200, Winter 2023, Lecture 5

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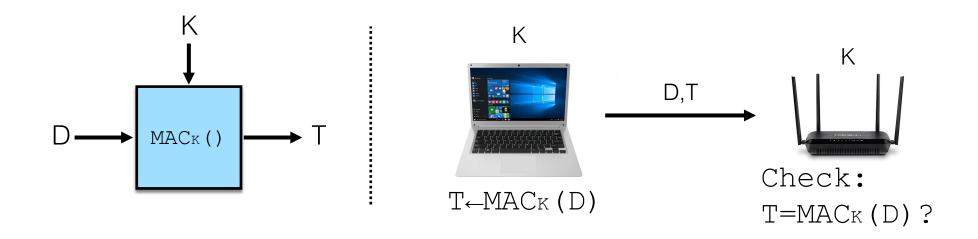
Outline: Crypto Part 2

- Symmetric Key Cryptography
 - Hash functions and MACs
 - Authenticated Encryption (and Block Ciphers)
- Asymmetric (Public) Key Cryptography
 - Public-Key Encryption
 - Digital Signatures
- Hybrid Encryption: Building secure channels from scratch*

Recall: Integrity (Message Authentication Codes)

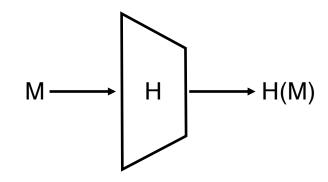
Provide integrity by attaching a MAC (tag T) to each message (D), where the tag is:

- 1) Short string that validates the message D
- 2) Unforgeable (can't create) without knowing secret key K



Building Block: Hash Functions

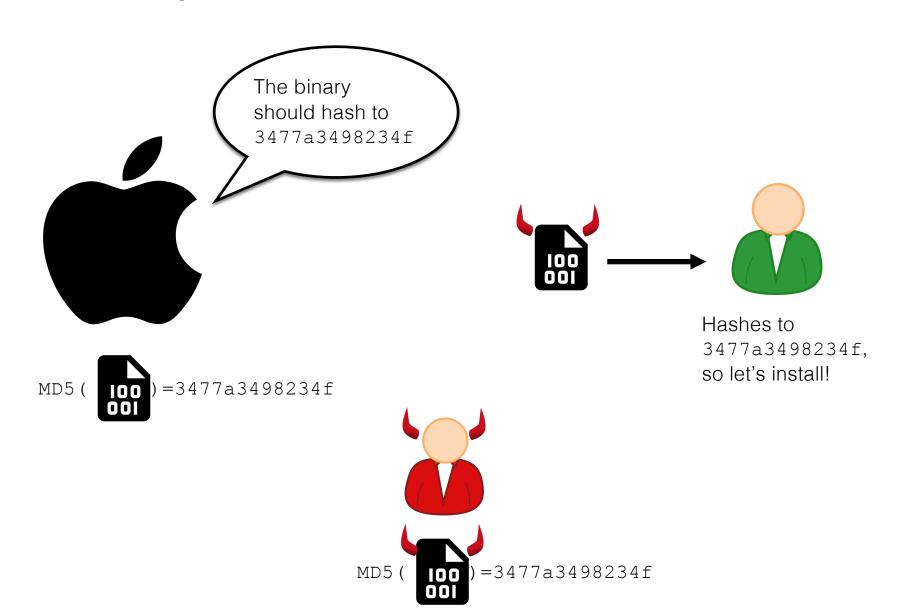
Definition: A <u>hash function</u> is a deterministic function H(...) that maps arbitrary strings to fixed-length outputs.



Properties of a *secure* hash function:

- One-way function: given H(M), can't find M
- 2. Collision resistance: can't find M != M' such that H(M) = H(M')
- 3. Second-preimage resistance: given H(M), can't find M' s.t. H(M') = H(M)
- Note: Very different from hashes used in data structures!

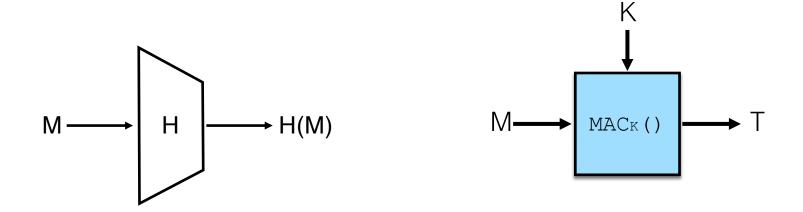
Why are hash collisions bad?



Practical Hash Functions

Name	Year	Output Len (bits)	Broken?
MD5	1993	128	Super-duper broken
SHA-1	1994	160	Yes
SHA-2 (SHA-256)	1999	256	No
SHA-2 (SHA-512)	2009	512	No
SHA-3	2019	>=224	No

Hash Functions are **not** MACs



Both functions map long inputs to short outputs... but hash func's do not use a key: Attackers can compute hash of any message they want (not unforgeable)

Intuition: a MAC is like a hash function, that only the someone w/ the key can evaluate.

Building MACs from Hash Functions

Goal: Build a secure MAC out of a good hash function.

Construction: $MAC(K, D) = H(K \parallel D)$ Warning: Broken





- Totally insecure if H = MD5, SHA1, SHA-256, SHA-512

Secure MAC: Use standard HMAC function $MAC(K, D) = H(K \oplus opad || H(K \oplus ipad || D))$

NEVER Design your own crypto algorithms, always use standard libraries!

Length Extension Attack on Insecure MACs

Construction: MAC(K, D) = H(K || D) Warning: Broken





Adversary goal: Find new message D' and a valid tag T' for D'



In other words: Given $T=H(K \parallel D)$, find $T'=H(K \parallel D')$ without knowing K.

Attack: Can craft D' = D || XYZ, with some string XYZ that consists of (1) substr that attacker can freely choose and (2) substr to make attack work

In Assignment 3: Break this construction!

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Four Cryptography Problems / Tools

Security Goal	Confidentiality	Authenticity/Integrity
Sugar Salt	Symmetric Encryption	Message Authentication Code (MAC)
	Security: Ciphertext reveals <i>nothing</i> about plaintext message	Security: Tag for new msg is impossible to compute without secret key

Authenticated Encryption

Authenticated Encryption algorithms provide both confidentiality and integrity.

- One approach: Built using a good stream cipher and a MAC.
 - Ex: Salsa20 with HMAC-SHA2
- Best solution: Use ready-made Authenticated Encryption
 - Ex: AES-GCM is the standard

Brief Detour: AES & Block Ciphers

Blockciphers: common crypto building block for solving many problems.

Informal definition: A <u>blockcipher</u> is essentially a substitution cipher with a very large alphabet and a very compact key.

Typical parameters:

Alphabet = $\{0,1\}^{128}$

Key length = 16 bytes.

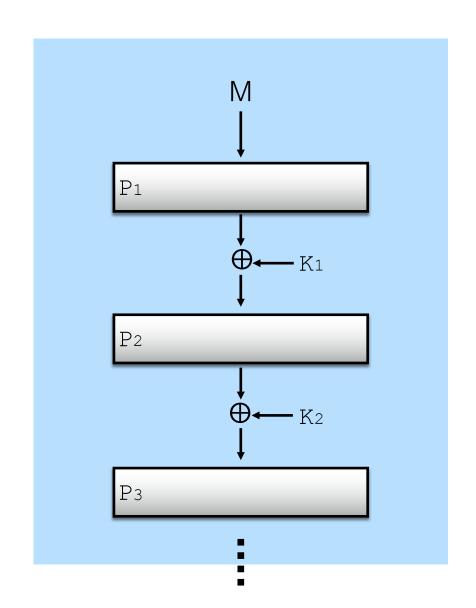
Can build many higher-level protocols from a good blockcipher.

Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

- NIST ran competition to develop standard encryption algorithms in 1997
- Several submissions, *Rijndael* chosen and standardized

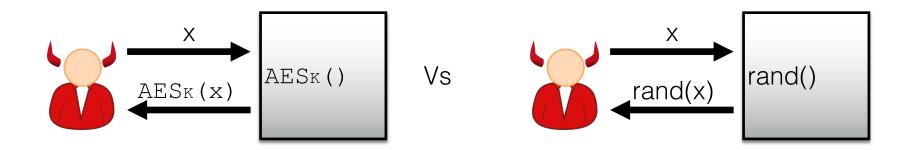
Rijmen and Daemen

- Block length n = 128
- Key length k = 128,192,256
- 10 rounds of "substitutionpermutation network"
- Break msg M into blocks and encrypt each block



Blockcipher Security (Confidentiality)

- AES is thought to be a good "Pseudorandom Permutation"



- Outputs all look random and independent, even when inputs are maliciously controlled.
- Formal definition in CS284.

Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

- AES is now the gold standard blockcipher
 - Very fast; Intel & AMD CPU chips have built-in AES instructions
- AES has different *modes* of operation
 - Some common modes: ECB, CTR, CBC, GCM
 - ECB : do not use insecure!!
 - CTR & CBC do not provide integrity
 - GCM: authenticated encryption (both conf & integrity)

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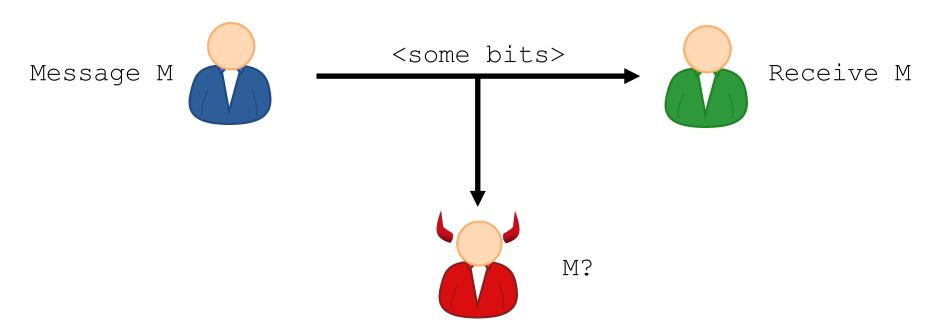
Why do we need Public-Key Cryptography?

Motivation: If two people do <u>not</u> have a pre-shared secret key, can they send private messages in the presence of an attacker?

Security Goal Pre-shared key?	Confidentiality	Authenticity/ Integrity
Yes ("Symmetric")	Symmetric Encryption	Message Authentication Code (MAC)
No ("Asymmetric")	Public-Key Encryption	Digital Signatures

Why do we need Public-Key Cryptography?

Motivation: If two people do <u>not</u> have a pre-shared secret key, can they send private messages in the presence of an attacker?



Formally impossible (in some sense):
No difference between receiver and adversary.

Why do we need Public-Key Cryptography?

Motivation: If two people do <u>not</u> have a pre-shared secret key, can they send private messages in the presence of an attacker?







Yes...



Cocks, Ellis, Williamson in 1969, at GCHQ:

Diffie and Hellman in 1976: **Yes!**

Turing Award, 2015

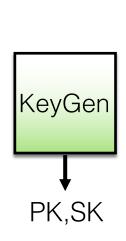
Rivest, Shamir, Adleman in 1978: **Yes, differently!**

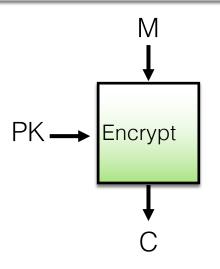
Turing Award, 2002

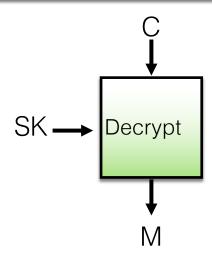
Public-Key Encryption (Confidentiality)

A <u>public-key encryption scheme</u> consists of three algorithms:

KeyGen, Encrypt, and Decrypt







KeyGen: Outputs two keys.

PK published openly, and

SK kept secret.

Encrypt(PK, M):

Uses PK and M to produce a ciphertext C.

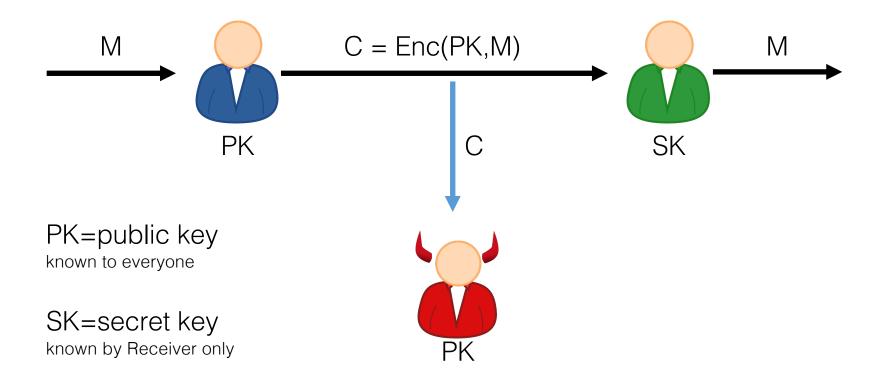
Decrypt(SK, C):

Uses SK and C to recover M.

Public-Key Encryption

Goal: Passive Attacker, knows algorithm implementations (Enc, Dec) and PK, but the ciphertext C reveals nothing about the plaintext message M

- Attacker might also have partial knowledge, e.g., other (M*, C*) pairs
- Encryption (symmetric too) not even allowed to reveal if a message repeated!



Public Key Encryption Schemes: RSA

Key Generation:

- Pick p and q be *large* random prime numbers (around 2^{1024})
- Compute $N \leftarrow pq$
- Set e to a default value (e = 3 and e = 65537 are common)
- Compute d such that ed = 1 mod(p-1)(q-1)
- Output:
- Public key pk = (N, e)
- Secret key sk = (N, d)

Example:

$$-p = 5, q = 11, N = 55$$

$$-e = 3, d = 27$$

Plain RSA Encryption

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

Note: Taking modular roots is believed to be computational hard

Encryption & Decryption:

$$\operatorname{Enc}((N, e), x) = x^e mod N$$

$$Dec((N,d), y) = y^d mod N$$

Using number theory from CMSC 27100, can show:

$$Dec(Enc((N,e),x)) = (x^e)^d = x \bmod N$$

Never use directly as encryption!





Best Known Attack on RSA: Factoring

- Factoring N allows recovery of secret key... can compute $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- Challenges posted publicly by RSA Laboratories

Bit-length of N	Year
400	1993
478	1994
515	1999
768	2009
795	2019

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

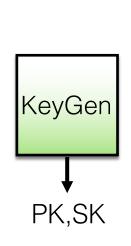
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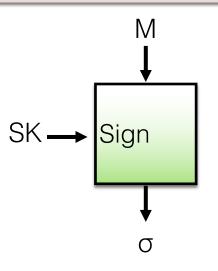
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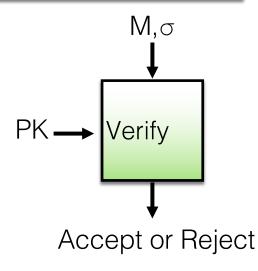
Digital Signatures Schemes (Integrity & Auth)

A <u>digital signature scheme</u> consists of three algorithms

KeyGen, Sign, and Verify







KeyGen: Outputs two keys.

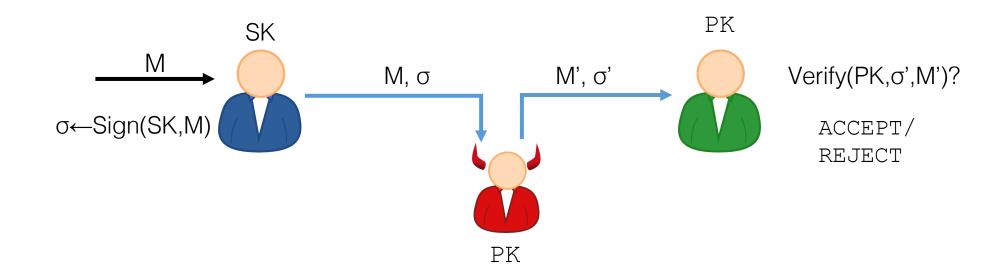
PK published openly, and

SK kept secret.

Sign: Uses SK to produce a "signature" σ on M.

<u>Verify</u>: Uses PK to check if signature σ is valid for M.

Digital Signature Security Goal: Unforgeability



Scheme satisfies **unforgeability** if an Adversary (who knows PK) cannot to fool Bob into accepting (M', σ ') that Alice has not sent.

"Plain" RSA Signature with No Encoding



KeyGen is same as regular RSA:

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

e=3 is common for fast verification.

$$Sign((N,d),M) = M^d mod N$$

Verify(
$$(N, e), M, \sigma$$
): $\sigma^e = MmodN$?

"Plain" RSA Weaknesses



Assume e=3.

$$Sign((N,d),M) = M^d modN$$

Sign
$$((N,d),M) = M^d mod N$$
 Verify $((N,3),M,\sigma)$: $\sigma^3 = M mod N$?

To forge a signature on message M': Find number σ' such that $(\sigma')^3=M'\mod N$

Trivial Attack: Easy to forge signature for M'=1: Take σ '=1:

$$(\sigma'^3) = 1^3 = 1 = M' \mod N$$



Cube-M weakness: For any M' that is a perfect cube, it is easy to forge.

Attack: Signature $\sigma' = \sqrt[3]{M'}$, i.e. the usual cube root of M'

Example: To forge on M' = 8, which is a perfect cube, set σ' = 2.

$$(\sigma')^3 = 2^3 = 8 = M' \mod N$$



(Intuition: If cubing does not "wrap modulo N", then it is easy to un-do.)

More "Plain" RSA Weaknesses



Assume e=3.

Sign
$$((N,d), M) = M^d mod N$$
 Verify $((N,3), M, \sigma)$: $\sigma^3 = M mod N$?

<u>To forge a signature on message M'</u>: Find number σ' such that $(\sigma')^3=M' \mod N$

Malleability weakness: If σ is a valid signature for M, then it is easy to forge a signature for new msg M' = (8M mod N),

Given (M, σ) , compute forgery (M', σ') as

$$M' = (8*M \mod N), \text{ and } \sigma' = (2*\sigma \mod N)$$

This is a valid pair because: $Verify((N,3), M', \sigma')$ checks:

$$(\sigma')^3 = (2*\sigma \mod N)^3 = (2^3*\sigma^3 \mod N) = (2^3*M \mod N) = 8M \mod N$$

 σ^3 =M mod N because σ is valid sig. on M

Secure RSA Signatures with Encodings

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

$$Sign((N, d), M) = (encode(M))^d mod N$$

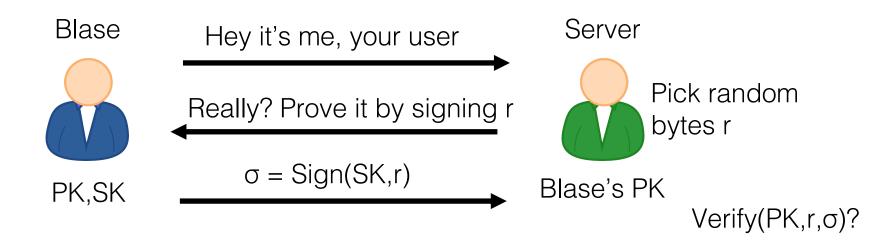
Verify(
$$(N, e), M, \sigma$$
): $\sigma^e = \text{encode}(M) \mod N$?

encode maps bit strings to numbers between 0 and N

Encoding must be chosen with extreme care.



Authentication via Digital Signatures



- "Challenge Response" Protocol
- This and similar ideas used in SSH, TLS, etc.

Digital Signature Summary

As with all crypto schemes: do not build your own signature schemes!

- Plain RSA signatures are very broken!
- Several secure RSA options in widely deployed libraries available:
 - PKCS#1 v.1.5 is widely used, in TLS, and fine if implemented correctly
 - Full-Domain Hash and PSS should be preferred
- There are also other signature schemes that aren't based on RSA (e.g., DSA/ECDSA)

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Why not use asymmetric crypto for everything?

Answer

Symmetric key

crypto algorithms

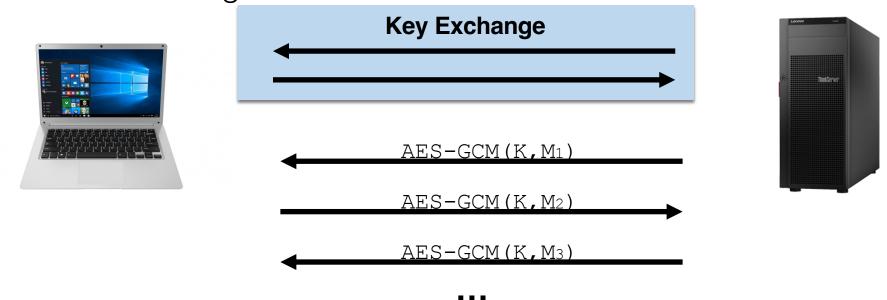
are **MUCH** faster

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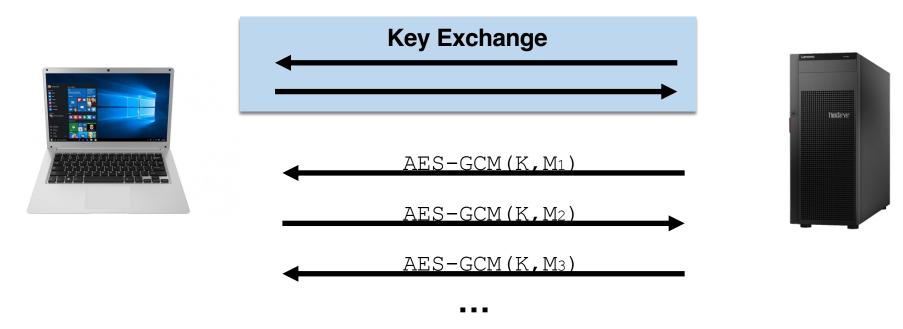
Hybrid Encryption: Real-world Secure Channels

Strategy:

- Alice & Bob use a key exchange protocol to share their secret key(s)
- 2. Alice & Bob then use symmetric authenticated encryption (fast) for all their msg's



Key Exchange Protocols



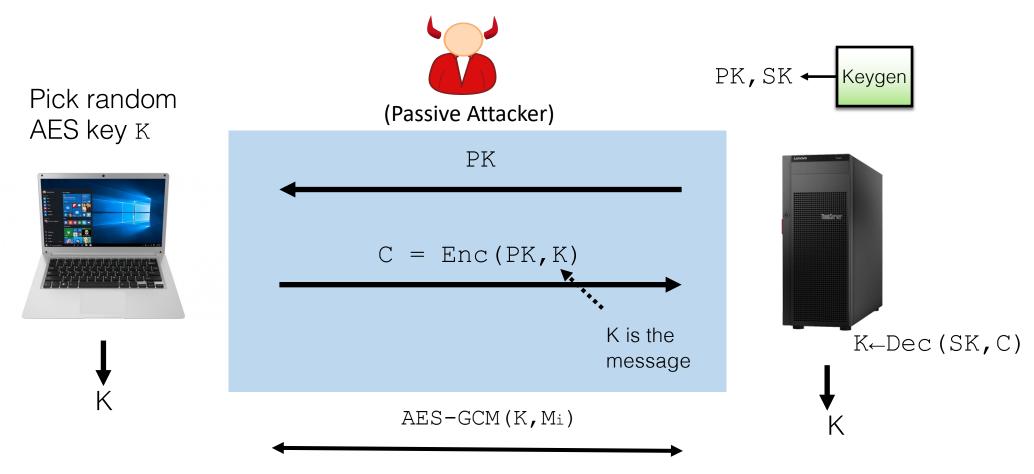
Options

- 1. Use public-key crypto algorithms (RSA encryption & signatures)
- 2. Use dedicated key exchange algorithms (Diffie-Hellman): Faster & recommended approach (e.g., TLS, SSH)

Key Exchange using Public Key Crypto

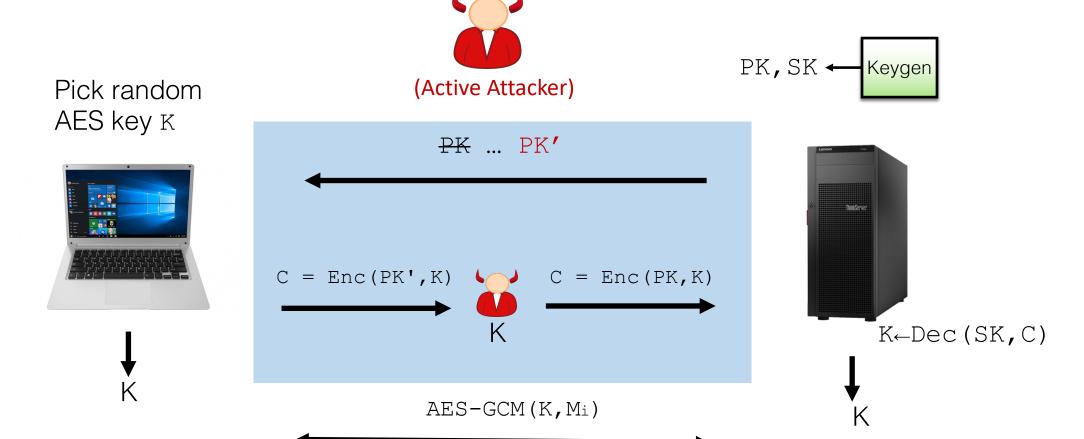
Goal: Establish secret key K to use with Authenticated Encryption.

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



Key Exchange using Public Key Crypto

Q: How do we make this secure against an active attacker?
A: Certificates w/ Signatures (Next Lecture)



The End