

Introduction to Cryptography

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Information Security Basics

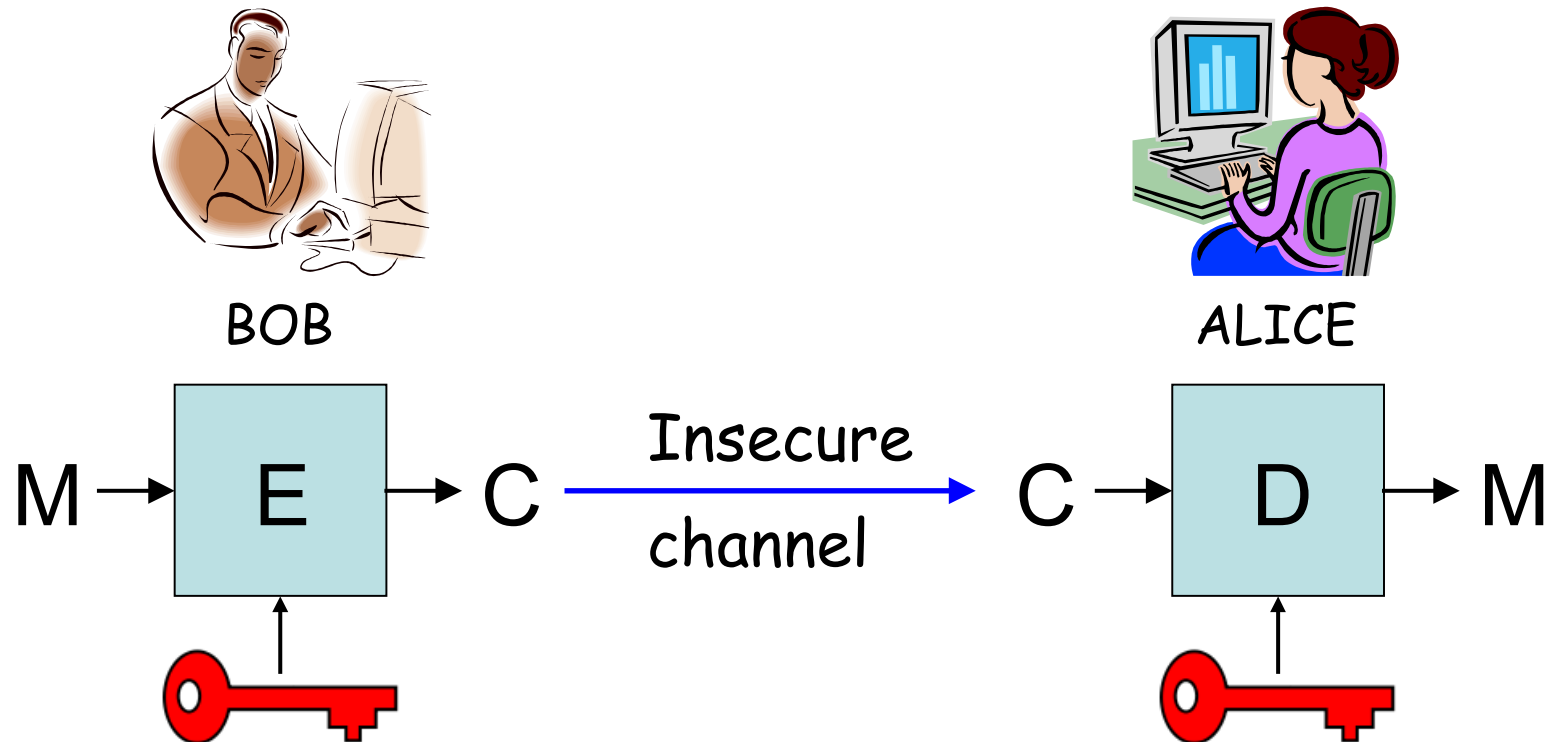
- 4 parts
- Public-key cryptography:
 - Jean-Sébastien Coron
- Symmetric-key cryptography:
 - Alex Biryukov
- Security protocols:
 - Sjouke Mauw and Hugo Jonker
- Advanced security protocols:
 - Peter Ryan

Outline

- Early symmetric-key encryption schemes
- Public-key cryptography
 - Public-key encryption
 - The RSA cryptosystem
 - Digital signatures
 - Diffie-Hellman Key-exchange

Traditional goal: encryption

- Symmetric cryptography



One-time pad (1917)

- Plaintext is XORed with the key to produce the ciphertext

011001011001

111010010010

100011001011

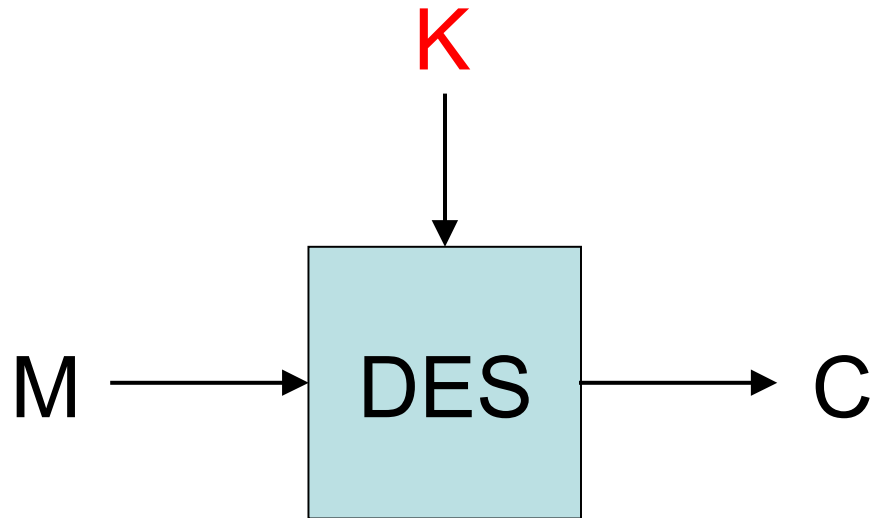
- Proved unbreakable by Shannon (1949) if key is random and as long as the plaintext.
- Issue: key as long as the plaintext.
- Used for the hotline between Washington and Moscow during the cold war.

DES (1976)

- Data Encryption Standard (DES), published as FIPS PUB 46.
- Developed by NBS (National Bureau of Standards), now NIST (National Institute of Standards and Technology), following an algorithm from IBM.
- De facto world-wide standard since 1976.
- Superseded by the AES, but remains in widespread use.

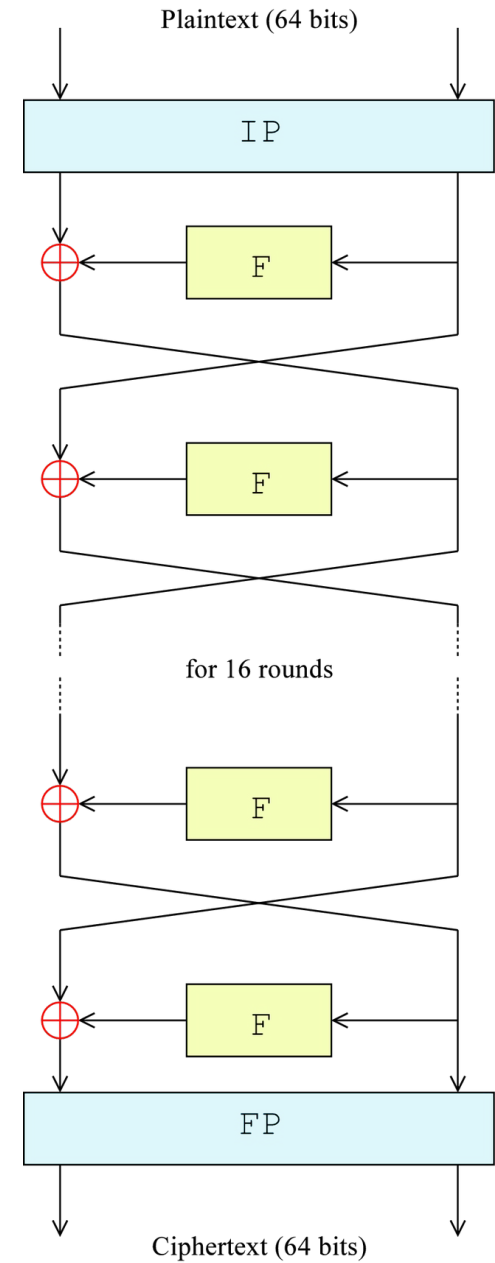
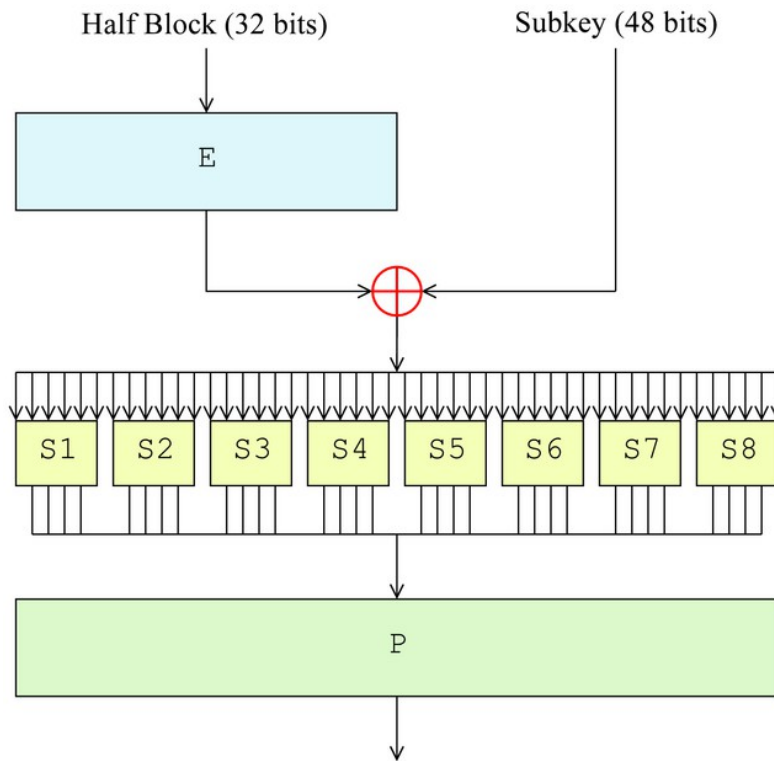
DES block-cipher

- Input length: 64 bits.
- Output length: 64 bits.
- Key length: 56 bits.



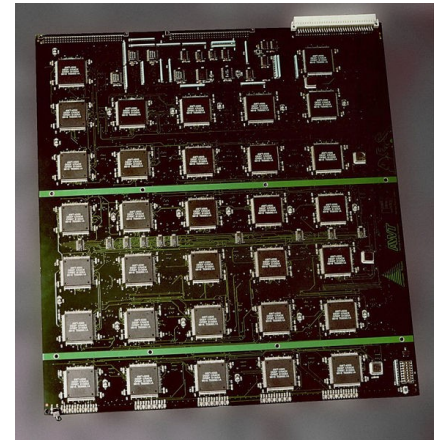
DES

- Feistel Cipher
- F function:



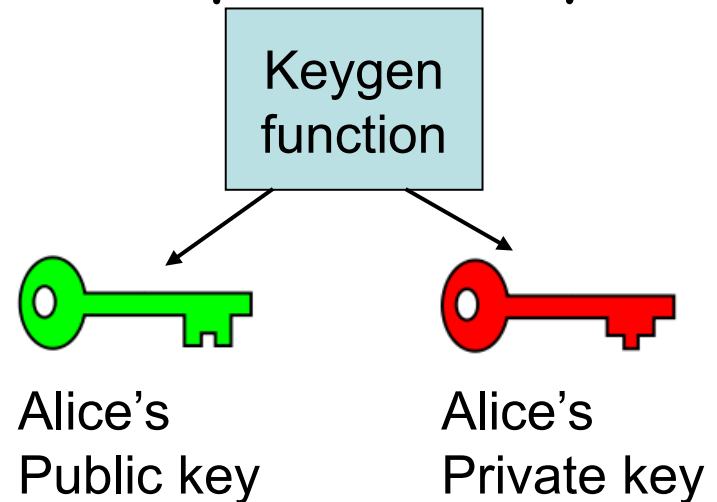
Security of DES

- Problem: key is too short (56 bits). Exhaustive search has become feasible
 - DES cracker from Electronic Frontier Foundation (EFF). Breaks DES in 2 days (1998).
- Other attacks
 - Differential cryptanalysis (Biham and Shamir). 2^{47} chosen plaintexts
 - Linear cryptanalysis (Matsui, 1993). 2^{43} known plaintexts.
- New standard: AES



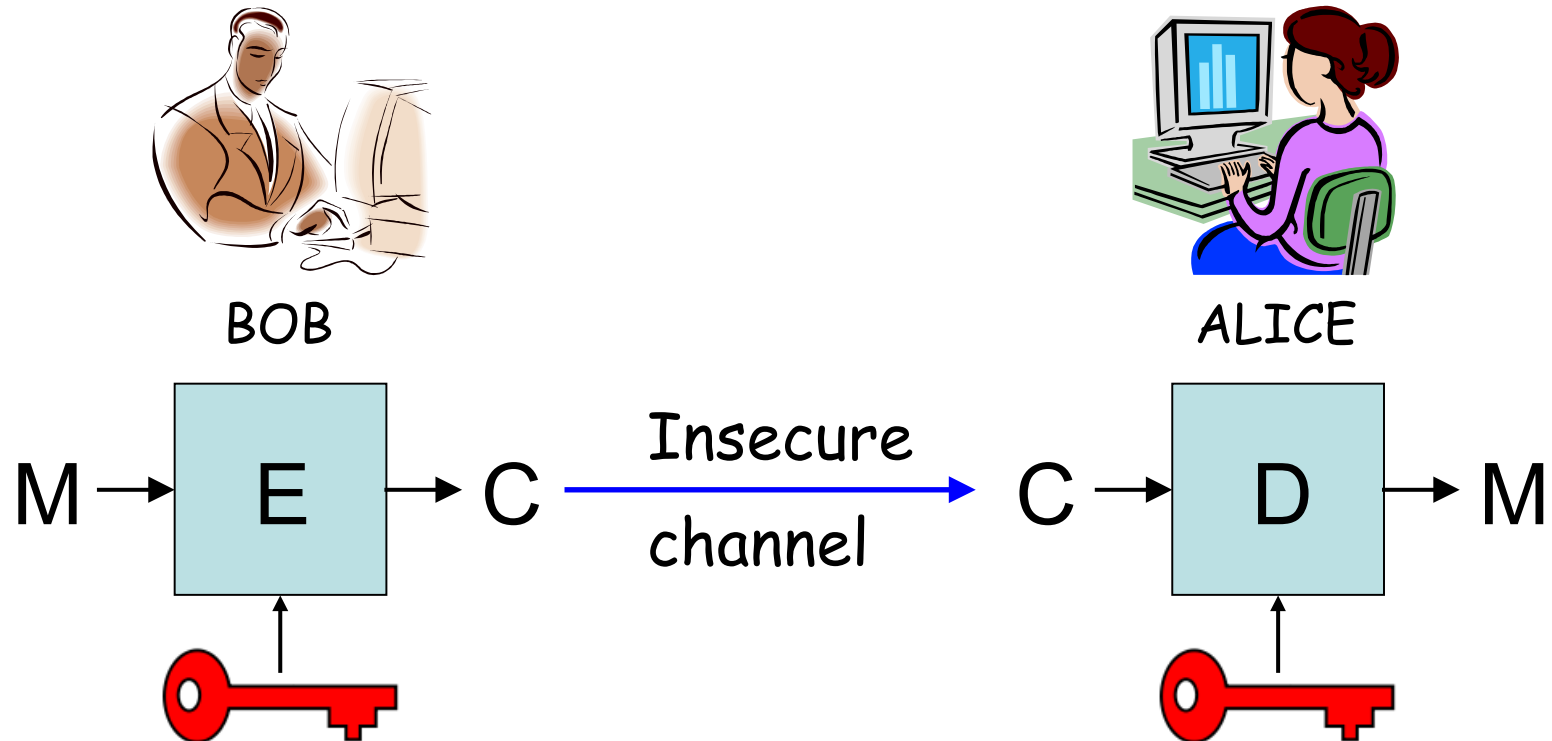
Public-key cryptography

- Invented by Diffie and Hellman in 1976. Revolutionized the field.
- Each user now has two keys
 - A public key
 - A private key
- Should be hard to compute the private key from the public key.
- Enables:
 - Asymmetric encryption
 - Digital signatures
 - Key exchange
 - Identification, and many other protocols.



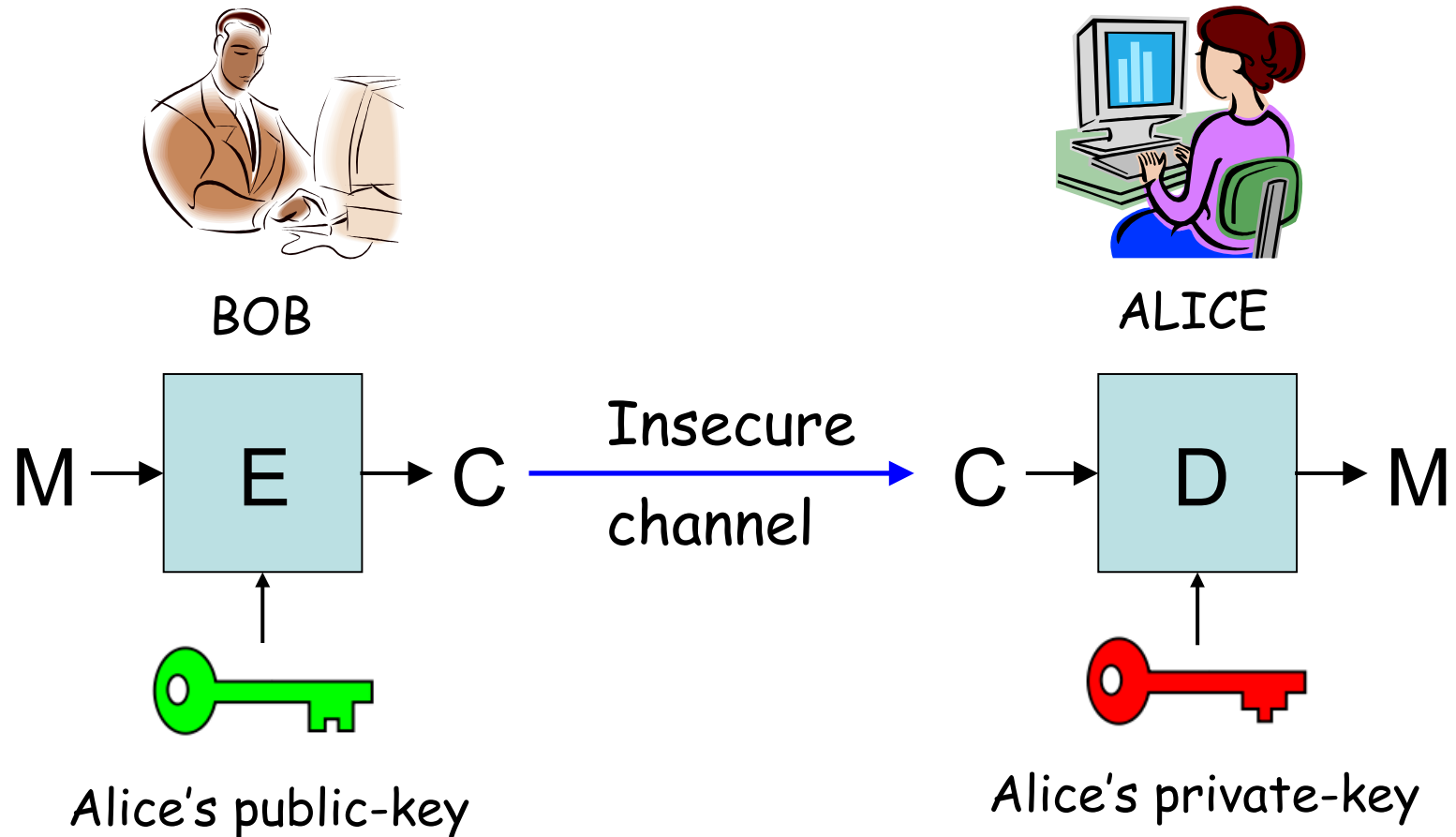
Key distribution issue

- Symmetric cryptography
 - How to initially distribute the key to establish a secure channel ?



Asymmetric encryption

- Solves the key distribution issue



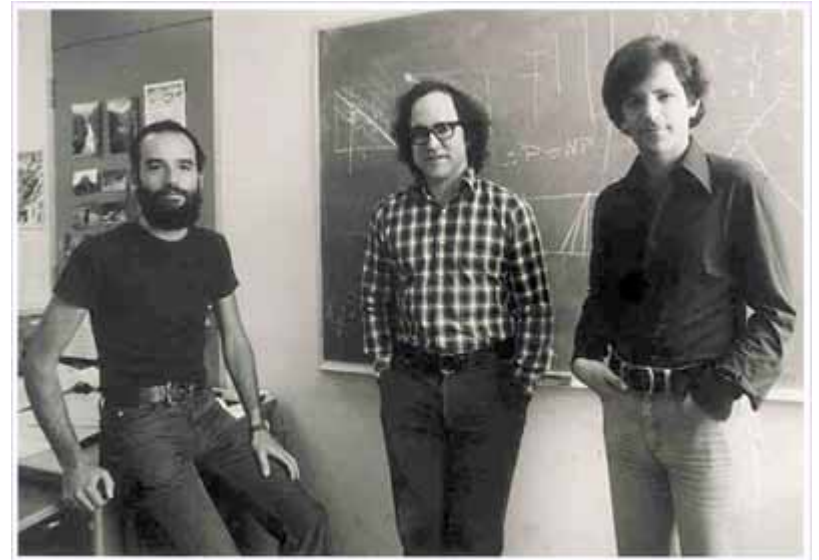
Analogy: the mailbox



- Bob wants to send a letter to Alice
 - Bob obtains Alice's address
 - Bob puts his letter in Alice's mailbox
 - Alice opens her mailbox and read Bob's letter.
- Properties of the mailbox
 - Anybody can put a letter in the mailbox
 - Only Alice can open her mailbox

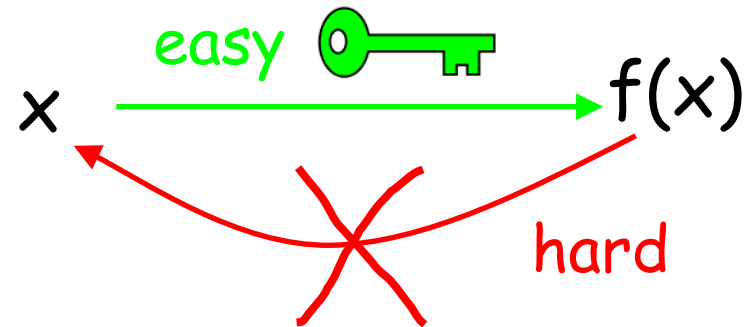
RSA (1977)

- Invented by Rivest, Shamir and Adleman
- First realization of asymmetric encryption.
- Implements a trapdoor one-way permutation.
- Still the most widely PK algorithm in use.

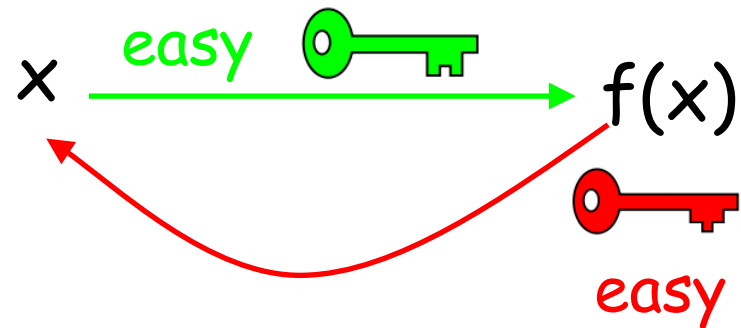


Trapdoor one-way permutation

- Trapdoor unknown:



- Trapdoor known:



- Asymmetric encryption:

- Everybody can encrypt to Alice using
- Only Alice can decrypt using



RSA

- Public key: $n=p.q$ and e
 - Primes p and q remain secret.
- Private key: d such that
$$e.d=1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$$
- Encryption using public n,e :
$$c=m^e \pmod n$$
- Decryption using private d :
$$m=c^d \pmod n$$
- PKCS#1 v2.1

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RSA

- Decryption works because $m = c^d = (m^e)^d = m^{e \cdot d} = m$ because $e \cdot d = 1 \pmod{\phi}$
- Security is based on the hardness of factorization
 - Given $n = p \cdot q$, no known efficient algorithm to recover p and q .
 - Factorization record: 768 bits (2010)
- Public modulus n must be large enough
 - At least 1024 bits. 2048 bits is better.

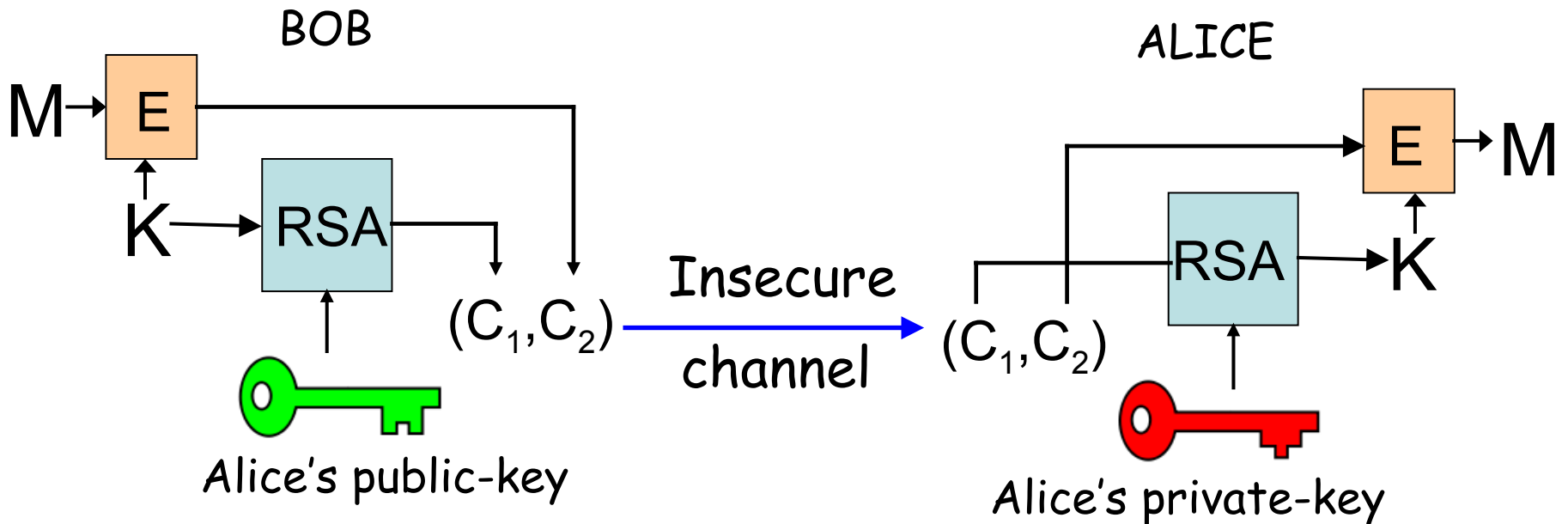
Implementation of RSA

- Required: computing with large integers
 - more than 1024 bits.
- In software
 - big integer library: *GMP*, *NTL*
- In hardware
 - Cryptoprocessor for smart-card
 - Hardware accelerator for PC.



Speed of RSA

- RSA much slower than AES and other secret key algorithms.
 - to encrypt long messages, encrypt a symmetric key K with RSA, and encrypt the long message with K .



Security of RSA

- Security of RSA is based on the hardness of factorization
 - Given $n=p.q$, no known efficient algorithm to recover p and q .
 - Factorization record: 663 bits (2005)
- Public modulus n must be large enough
 - At least 1024 bits. 2048 bits is better.
- Factoring is just one line of attack
 - not necessarily the most practical
 - more attacks to take into account...

Attacks against RSA

- Dictionary attack
 - If only two possible messages m_0 and m_1 , then only two ciphertexts $c_0 = m_0^e [n]$ and $c_1 = m_1^e [n]$.
 - Encryption must be probabilistic (or non-static).
- Coppersmith's attack (1996)
 - Applies for RSA with small e , when some part of the message is known

Attacks against RSA

- Chosen-ciphertext attack:
Given ciphertext c to be decrypted
 - Generate a random r
 - Ask for the decryption of the random looking ciphertext $c' = c * (r^e) [n]$
 - One gets $m' = c'^d = c^d * (r^e)^d = c^d * r = m * r [n]$
 - This enables to compute $m = m' / r [n]$

Attacks against RSA

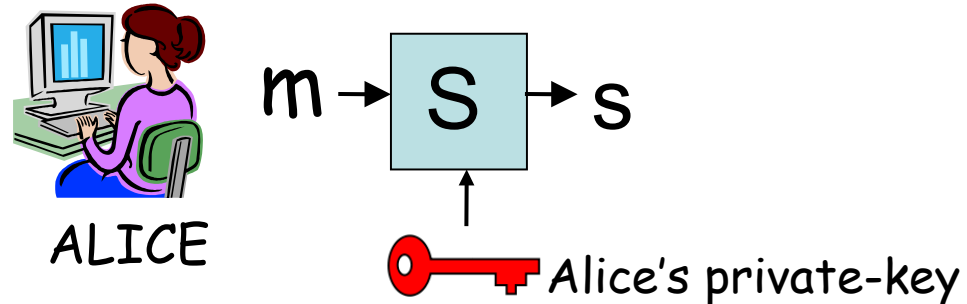
- One cannot use plain RSA encryption
 - one must add some randomness
 - one must apply some preformatting to the message
- Example: PKCS#1 v1.5
 - Encryption: $m(m) = 0002 \parallel r \parallel 00 \parallel m$, then $c = m(m)^d [n]$
 - Decryption: recover $m(m)$, check redundancy.
- Bleichenbacher's attack against PKCS#1 v1.5
 - Appeared in 1998. Could be used against web-servers using SSL protocol.

Security of RSA (and other cryptosystems)

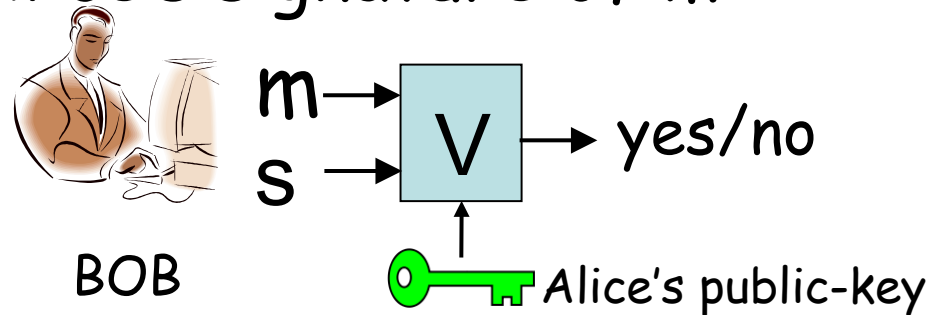
- To be rigorous when speaking about security, one must specify
 - the attacker's goal:
does he need to recover the key or only decrypt a particular ciphertext or less ?
 - the attacker's power:
does he get only the user's public-key, or more ?

Digital signature

- A bit string that depends on the message m and the user's public-key
 - Only Alice can sign a message using her private-key



- Anybody can verify Alice's signature of m given her public-key



Digital signature



- A digital signature provides:
 - Authenticity: only Alice can produce a signature of a message valid under her public-key.
 - Integrity: the signed message cannot be modified.
 - Non-repudiation: Alice cannot later claim that she did not sign the message

Signing with RSA

- Public key: $n=p.q$ and e
- Private key: d such that
$$e.d=1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$$
- Signing using private d :
$$s=m^d \pmod n$$
- Verifying using public n,e :
check that $m=s^e \pmod n$
- ISO 9796-2, PKCS#1 v2.1

Attacks against RSA signatures

- Given $s_1 = m_1^d \bmod n$ and $s_2 = m_2^d \bmod n$
 - one can compute the signature of $m_1 * m_2$ without knowing d
$$s = s_1 * s_2 = (m_1^d) * (m_2^d) \bmod n = (m_1 * m_2)^d \bmod n$$
- One cannot use plain RSA signature
 - One must apply some pre-formatting to the message to cancel the mathematical structure.

Other signature schemes

- Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA) (1993)
 - Digital Signature Standard (DSS) proposed by NIST, specified in FIPS 186.
 - Security based on the hardness of discrete log.
 - ECDSA: a variant of DSA for elliptic-curves
- Rabin signature scheme
 - Similar to RSA but with $e=2$
- El-Gamal signature scheme (1984)
 - Based on the discrete-log problem

Diffie-Hellman key exchange (1976)

- Public parameters: g and p



BOB

$$B = g^b$$

B



A



ALICE

$$A = g^a$$

$$K_B = A^b = (g^a)^b = g^{a \cdot b}$$

$$K_A = B^a = (g^b)^a = g^{b \cdot a}$$

$$K_B = K_A$$

Security of Diffie-Hellman

- Based on the hardness of the discrete-log problem:
 - Given $A = g^a \text{ mod } p$, find a
 - No efficient algorithm for large p .
- No authentication
 - Vulnerable to the man in the middle attack
- Authenticated key exchange
 - Using a PKI. Alice and Bob can sign A and B
 - Password-authenticated key-exchange
IEEE P1363.2

Lessons from the past

- Cryptography is a permanent race between construction and attacks
 - but somehow this has changed with modern cryptography and security proofs.
- Security should rely on the secrecy of the key and not of the algorithm
 - Open algorithms enables open scrutiny.

Modern cryptography

- New functionalities
 - Identity-based encryption, voting, electronic money, auction...
- Formalization of security notions
 - What is a secure encryption scheme ? a secure signature scheme ?
- Construction of schemes or protocols that provably achieve these security notions
 - Based on some hardness assumption (e.g., factoring is hard).
- Modern cryptography is about security proofs.
 - A scheme without security proof is useless.