

RSA and Digital Signatures

Kurose & Ross, Chapters 8.2-8.3 (5th ed.)

Slides adapted from:

J. Kurose & K. Ross \

Computer Networking: A Top Down Approach (5th ed.)

Addison-Wesley, April 2009.

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Public Key Cryptography

symmetric key crypto

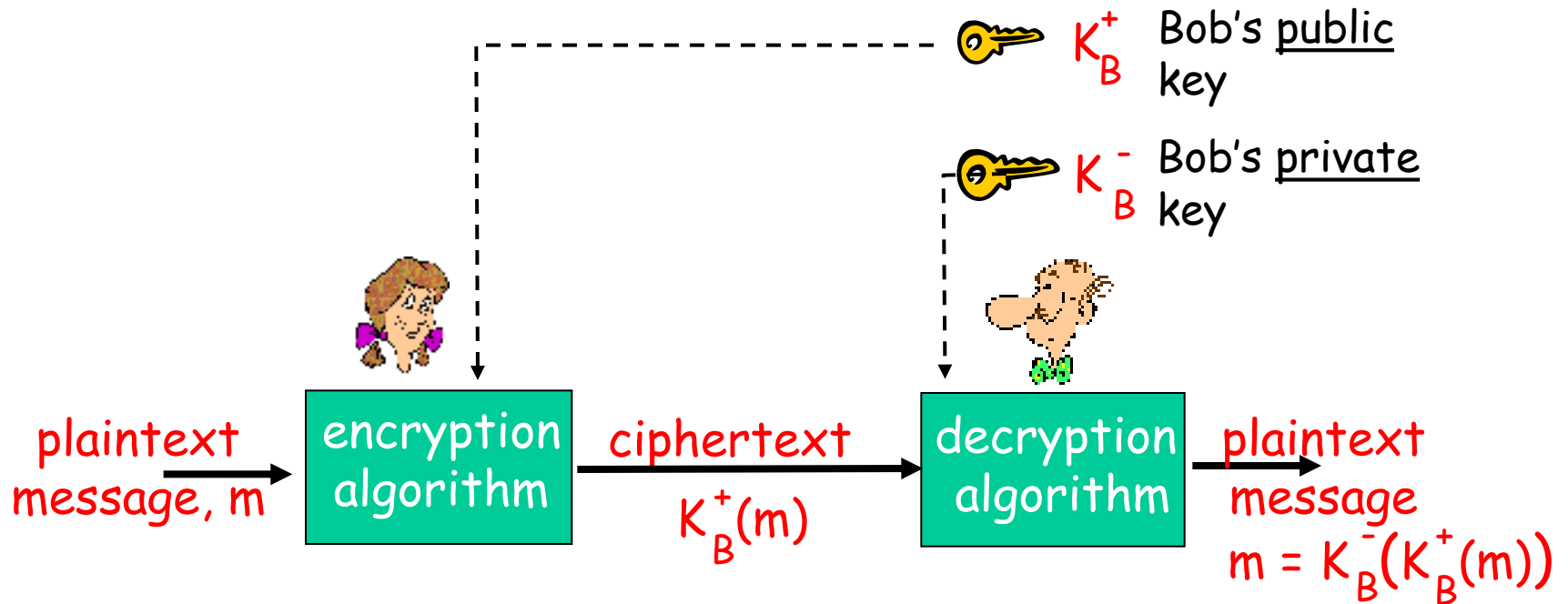
- ❖ requires sender, receiver know shared secret key
- ❖ Q: how to agree on key in first place (particularly if never "met")?

public key cryptography

- ❖ radically different approach [Diffie-Hellman76, RSA78]
- ❖ sender, receiver do *not* share secret key
- ❖ *public* encryption key known to *all*
- ❖ *private* decryption key known only to receiver



Public key cryptography



Public key encryption algorithms

Requirements:

① need $K_B^+(\cdot)$ and $K_B^-(\cdot)$ such that

$$K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m$$

② given public key K_B^+ , it should be impossible to compute private key K_B^-

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm

Prerequisite: modular arithmetic

❖ $x \bmod n$ = remainder of x when divide by n

❖ Facts:

$$[(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a+b) \bmod n$$

$$[(a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a-b) \bmod n$$

$$[(a \bmod n) * (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a*b) \bmod n$$

❖ Thus

$$(a \bmod n)^d \bmod n = a^d \bmod n$$

❖ Example: $x=14$, $n=10$, $d=2$:

$$(x \bmod n)^d \bmod n = 4^2 \bmod 10 = 6$$

$$x^d = 14^2 = 196 \quad x^d \bmod 10 = 6$$


RSA: getting ready

- ❖ A message is a bit pattern.
- ❖ A bit pattern can be uniquely represented by an integer number.
- ❖ Thus encrypting a message is equivalent to encrypting a number.

Example

- ❖ $m = 10010001$. This message is uniquely represented by the decimal number 145.
- ❖ To encrypt m , we encrypt the corresponding number, which gives a new number (the ciphertext).

RSA: Creating public/private key pair

1. Choose two large prime numbers p, q .
(e.g., 1024 bits each)
2. Compute $n = pq, z = (p-1)(q-1)$
3. Choose e (with $e < n$) that has no common factors with z . (e, z are "relatively prime").
4. Choose d such that $ed-1$ is exactly divisible by z .
(in other words: $ed \bmod z = 1$).
5. Public key is (n, e) . Private key is (n, d) .


The diagram shows two red curly brackets under the pairs (n, e) and (n, d) . Below the first bracket is the label K_B^+ and below the second is K_B^- .

RSA: Encryption, decryption

0. Given (n,e) and (n,d) as computed above

1. To encrypt message $m (<n)$, compute

$$c = m^e \bmod n$$

2. To decrypt received bit pattern, c , compute

$$m = c^d \bmod n$$

Magic
happens!

$$m = \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_c^d \bmod n$$

RSA example:

Bob chooses $p=5$, $q=7$. Then $n=35$, $z=24$.

$e=5$ (so e, z relatively prime).

$d=29$ (so $ed-1$ exactly divisible by z).

Encrypting 8-bit messages.

encrypt: bit pattern m m^e $c = m^e \text{ mod } n$
 00001000 12 24832 17

decrypt: c c^d $m = c^d \text{ mod } n$
 17 481968572106750915091411825223071697 12

Why does RSA work?

- ❖ Must show that $c^d \bmod n = m$
where $c = m^e \bmod n$
- ❖ Fact: for any x and y : $x^y \bmod n = x^{(y \bmod z)} \bmod n$
 - where $n = pq$ and $z = (p-1)(q-1)$
- ❖ Thus,
$$\begin{aligned}c^d \bmod n &= (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n \\ &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\ &= m^{(ed \bmod z)} \bmod n \\ &= m^1 \bmod n \\ &= m\end{aligned}$$

RSA: another important property

The following property will be *very* useful later:

$$\underbrace{K_B^-(K_B^+(m))}_{\text{use public key first, followed by private key}} = m = \underbrace{K_B^+(K_B^-(m))}_{\text{use private key first, followed by public key}}$$

use public key
first, followed
by private key

use private key
first, followed
by public key

Result is the same!

Why $K_B^-(K_B^+(m)) = m = K_B^+(K_B^-(m))$?

Follows directly from modular arithmetic:

$$\begin{aligned}(m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n &= m^{ed} \bmod n \\ &= m^{de} \bmod n \\ &= (m^d \bmod n)^e \bmod n\end{aligned}$$

Why is RSA Secure?

- ❖ suppose you know Bob's public key (n,e) . How hard is it to determine d ?
- ❖ essentially need to find factors of n without knowing the two factors p and q .
- ❖ fact: factoring a big number is hard.

Generating RSA keys

- ❖ have to find big primes p and q
- ❖ approach: make good guess then apply testing rules (see Kaufman)

Session keys

- ❖ Exponentiation is computationally intensive
- ❖ DES is at least 100 times faster than RSA

Session key, K_S

- ❖ Bob and Alice use RSA to exchange a symmetric key K_S
- ❖ Once both have K_S , they use symmetric key cryptography

Chapter 8 roadmap

8.1 What is network security?

8.2 Principles of cryptography

8.3 **Message integrity**

8.4 Securing e-mail

8.5 Securing TCP connections: SSL

8.6 Network layer security: IPsec

8.7 Securing wireless LANs

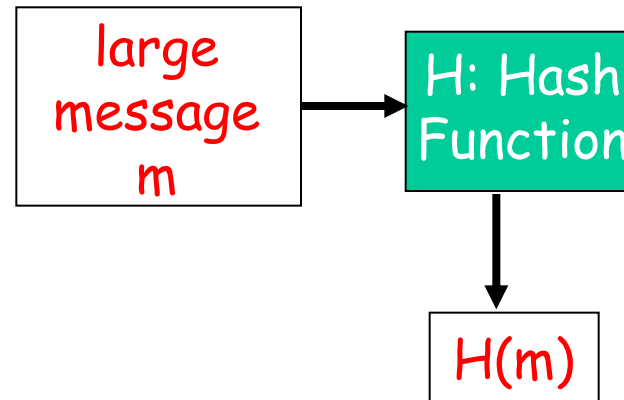
8.8 Operational security: firewalls and IDS

Message Integrity

- ❖ allows communicating parties to verify that received messages are authentic.
 - Content of message has not been altered
 - Source of message is who/what you think it is
 - Message has not been replayed
 - Sequence of messages is maintained
- ❖ let's first talk about message digests

Message Digests

- ❖ function $H()$ that takes as input an arbitrary length message and outputs a fixed-length string: "message signature"
- ❖ note that $H()$ is a many-to-1 function
- ❖ $H()$ is often called a "hash function"



desirable properties:

- easy to calculate
- irreversibility: Can't determine m from $H(m)$
- collision resistance: computationally difficult to produce m and m' such that $H(m) = H(m')$
- seemingly random output

Internet checksum: poor message digest

Internet checksum has some properties of hash function:

- ✓ produces fixed length digest (16-bit sum) of input
- ✓ is many-to-one
- ❖ but given message with given hash value, it is easy to find another message with same hash value.
 - e.g.,: simplified checksum: add 4-byte chunks at a time:

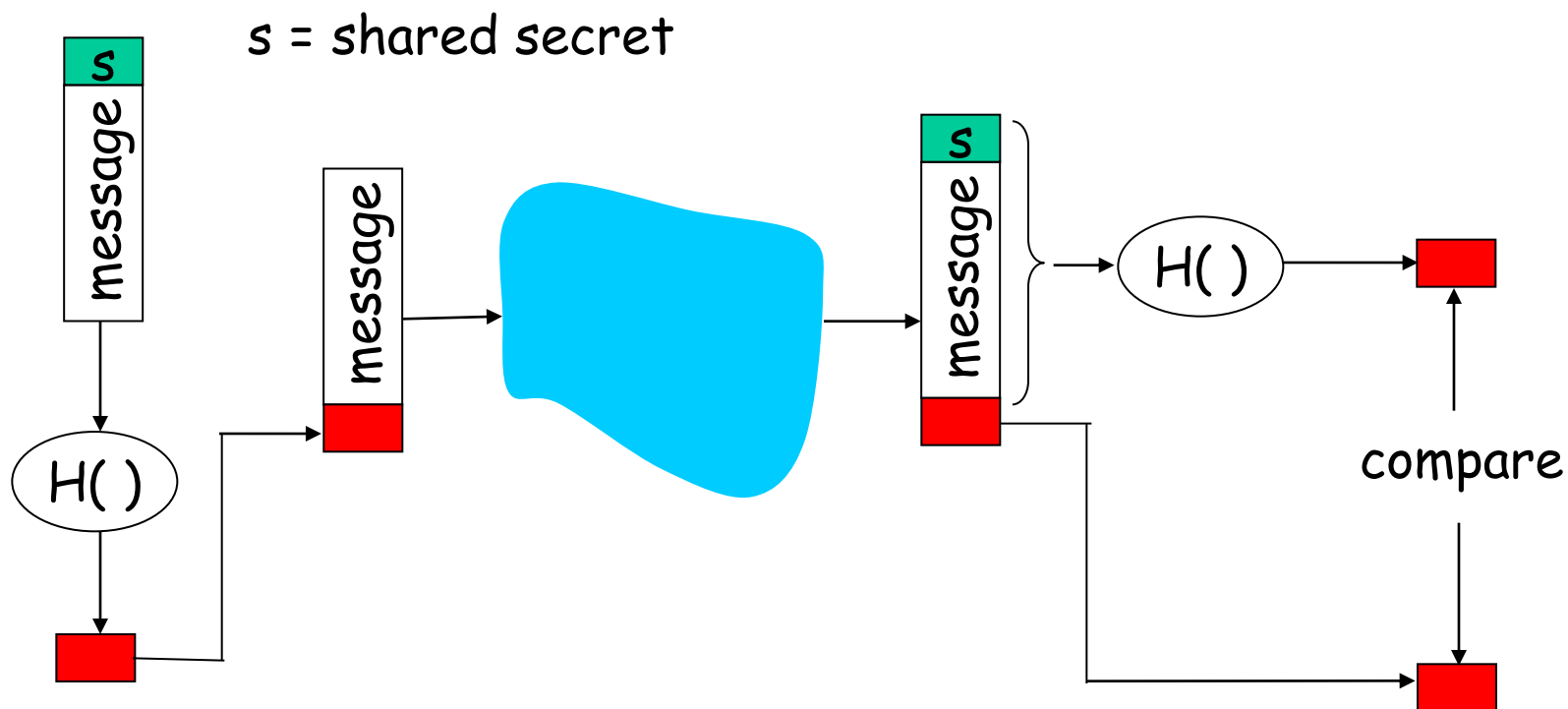
<u>message</u>	<u>ASCII format</u>	<u>message</u>	<u>ASCII format</u>
I O U 1	49 4F 55 31	I O U <u>9</u>	49 4F 55 <u>39</u>
0 0 . 9	30 30 2E 39	0 0 . <u>1</u>	30 30 2E <u>31</u>
9 B O B	39 42 D2 42	9 B O B	39 42 D2 42
	<u>B2 C1 D2 AC</u>		<u>B2 C1 D2 AC</u>

different messages
but identical checksums!

Hash Function Algorithms

- ❖ MD5 hash function widely used (RFC 1321)
 - computes 128-bit message digest in 4-step process.
- ❖ SHA-1 is also used.
 - US standard [NIST, FIPS PUB 180-1]
 - 160-bit message digest

Message Authentication Code (MAC)



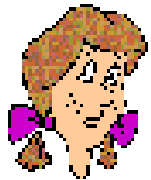
- ❖ *Authenticates sender*
- ❖ *Verifies message integrity*
- ❖ No encryption !
- ❖ Also called "keyed hash"
- ❖ Notation: $MD_m = H(s||m)$; send $m||MD_m$

End-point authentication

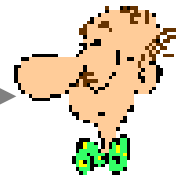
- ❖ want to be sure of the originator of the message - *end-point authentication*
- ❖ assuming Alice and Bob have a shared secret, will MAC provide end-point authentication?
 - we do know that Alice created message.
 - ... but did she send it?

Playback attack

MAC =
 $f(\text{msg}, s)$

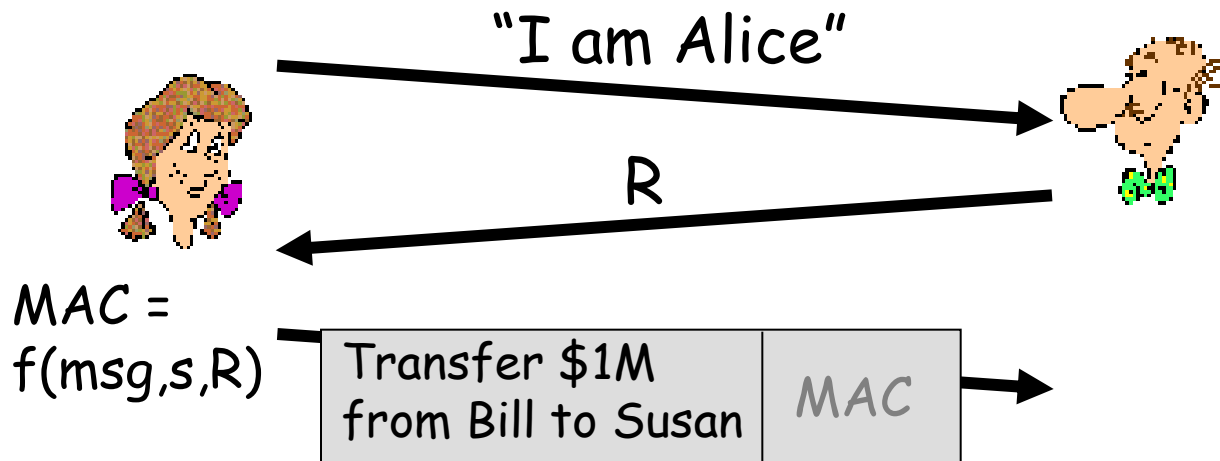


Transfer \$1M from Bill to Trudy	MAC
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Transfer \$1M from Bill to Trudy	MAC
-------------------------------------	-----

Defending against playback attack: nonce



Digital Signatures

cryptographic technique analogous to handwritten signatures.

- ❖ sender (Bob) digitally signs document, establishing he is document owner/creator.
- ❖ goal is similar to that of MAC, except now use public-key cryptography
- ❖ *verifiable, nonforgeable*: recipient (Alice) can prove to someone that Bob, and no one else (including Alice), must have signed document

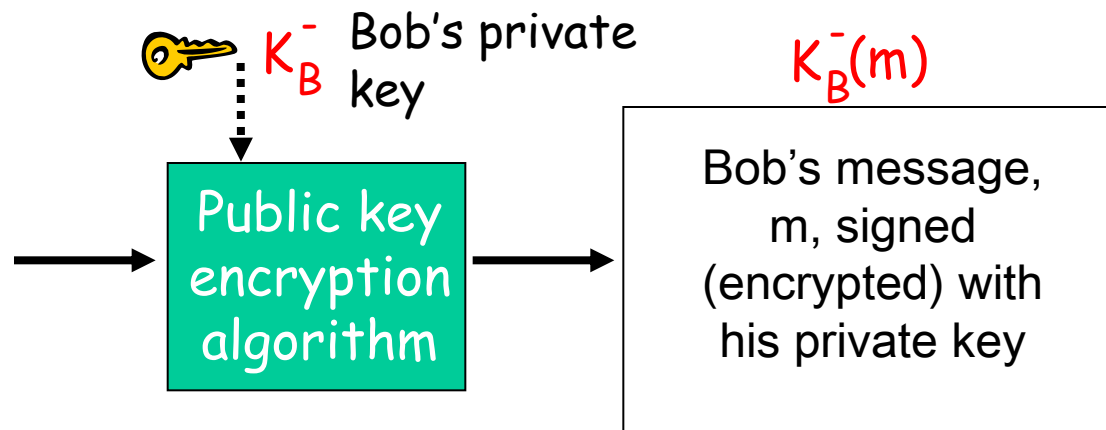
Digital Signatures

simple digital signature for message m :

- ❖ Bob signs m by encrypting with his private key K_B^- , creating "signed" message, $K_B^-(m)$

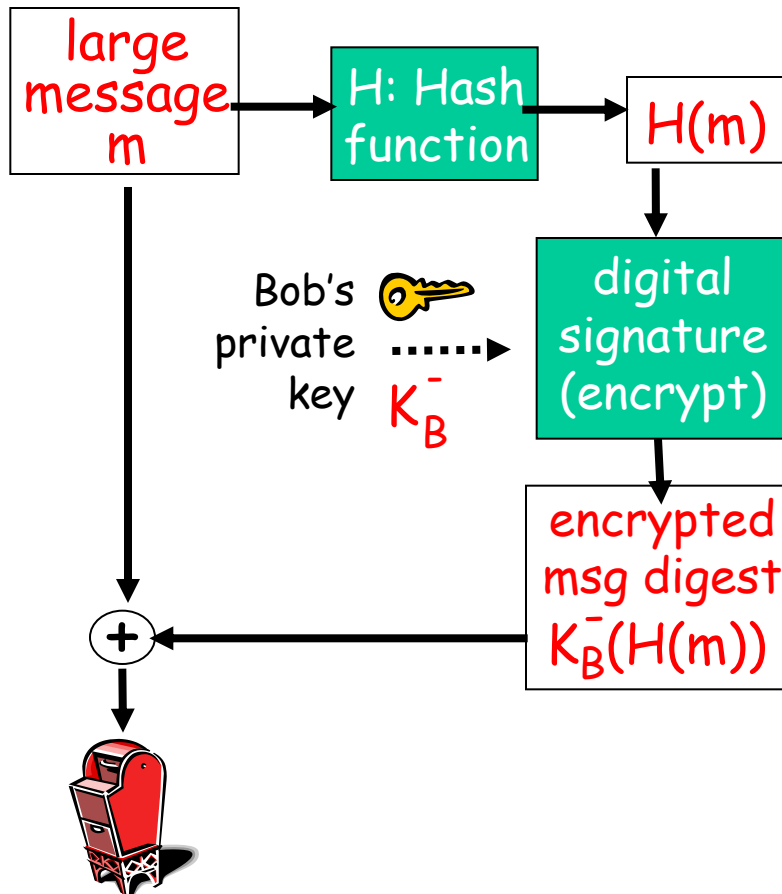
Bob's message, m

Dear Alice
Oh, how I have missed you. I think of you all the time! ... (blah blah blah)
Bob

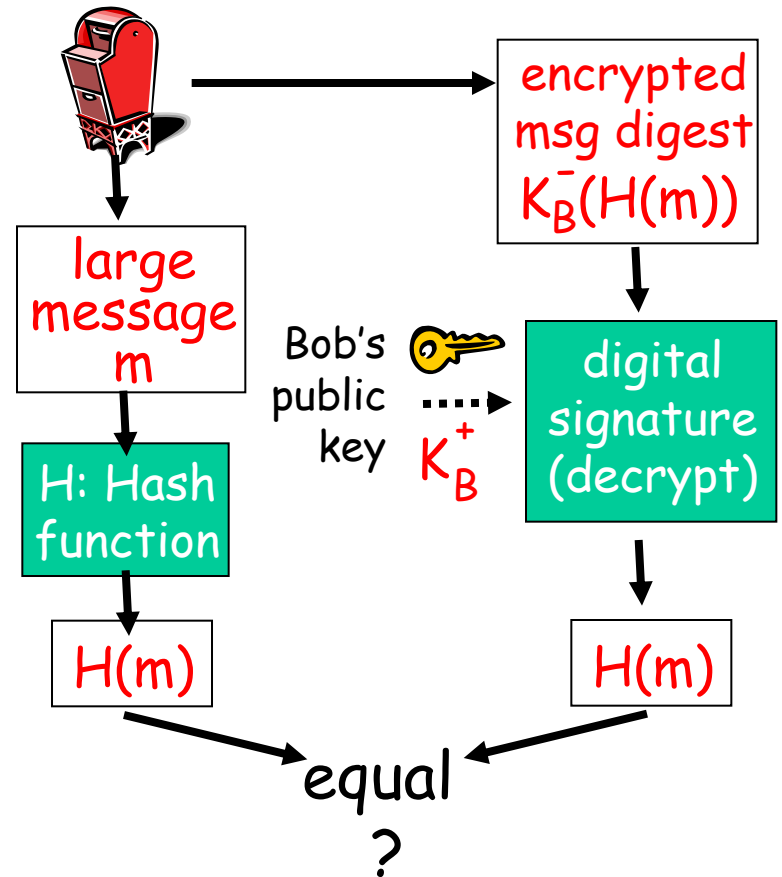


Digital signature = signed message digest

Bob sends digitally signed message:



Alice verifies signature and integrity of digitally signed message:



Digital Signatures (more)

- ❖ suppose Alice receives msg m , digital signature $K_B^-(m)$
- ❖ Alice verifies m signed by Bob by applying Bob's public key K_B^+ to $K_B^-(m)$ then checks $K_B^+(K_B^-(m)) = m$.
- ❖ if $K_B^+(K_B^-(m)) = m$, whoever signed m must have used Bob's private key.

Alice thus verifies that:

- ✓ Bob signed m .
- ✓ no one else signed m .
- ✓ Bob signed m and not m' .

Non-repudiation:

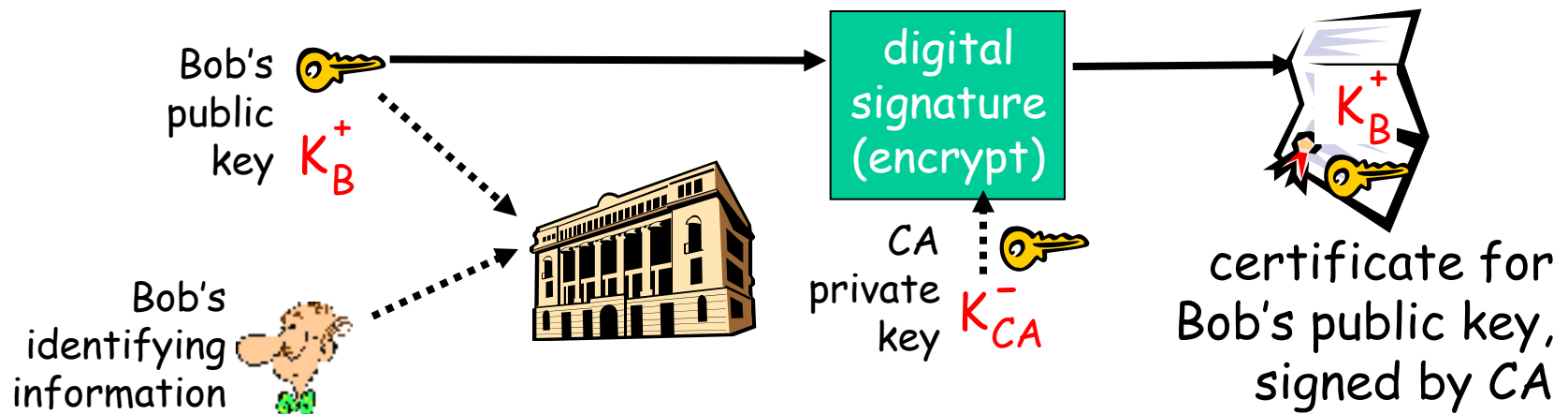
- ✓ Alice can take m , and signature $K_B^-(m)$ to court and prove that Bob signed m .

Public-key certification

- ❖ motivation: Trudy plays pizza prank on Bob
 - Trudy creates e-mail order:
Dear Pizza Store, Please deliver to me four pepperoni pizzas. Thank you, Bob
 - Trudy signs order with her private key
 - Trudy sends order to Pizza Store
 - Trudy sends to Pizza Store her public key, but says it's Bob's public key.
 - Pizza Store verifies signature; then delivers four pizzas to Bob.
 - Bob doesn't even like Pepperoni

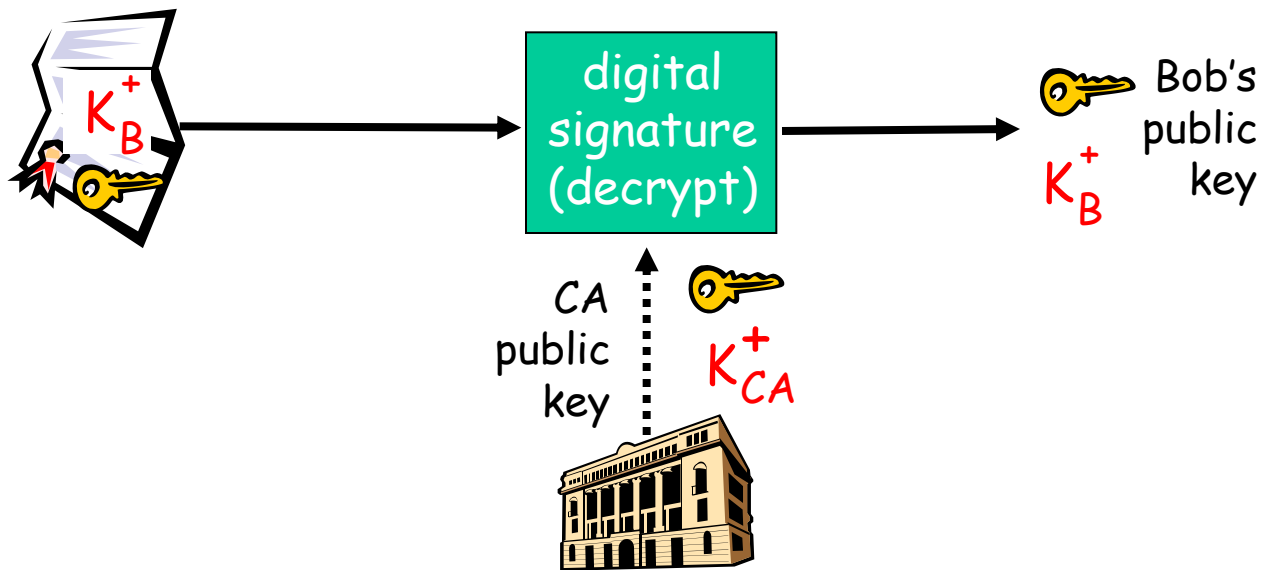
Certification Authorities

- ❖ **Certification authority (CA):** binds public key to particular entity, E.
- ❖ E (person, router) registers its public key with CA.
 - E provides "proof of identity" to CA.
 - CA creates certificate binding E to its public key.
 - certificate containing E's public key digitally signed by CA - CA says "this is E's public key"



Certification Authorities

- ❖ when Alice wants Bob's public key:
 - gets Bob's certificate (Bob or elsewhere).
 - apply CA's public key to Bob's certificate, get Bob's public key



Certificates: summary

- ❖ primary standard X.509 (RFC 2459)
- ❖ certificate contains:
 - issuer name
 - entity name, address, domain name, etc.
 - entity's public key
 - digital signature (signed with issuer's private key)
- ❖ Public-Key Infrastructure (PKI)
 - certificates, certification authorities
 - often considered "heavy"

Why study computer networks?

- An interface between theory (algorithms, mathematics) and practice
 - Understanding the design principles of a truly complex system
 - Industry-relevant knowledge
 - Fun!
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- Challenges in teaching computer networks
 - Students' feedback