

Cybersecurity for IoT – Public Key Cryptography

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Pavia 2018

This lecture is based on “Cryptography and Network Security”, 4/e, book by William Stallings

Keyed Hash Functions as MACs

- want a MAC based on a hash function
 - because hash functions are widely available
- hash includes a key along with message
- original proposal:
 - `KeyedHash = Hash(Key | Message)`

HMAC Design Objectives

- allow for easy replaceability of embedded hash function
- use and handle keys in a simple way
- have well understood cryptographic analysis of authentication mechanism strength

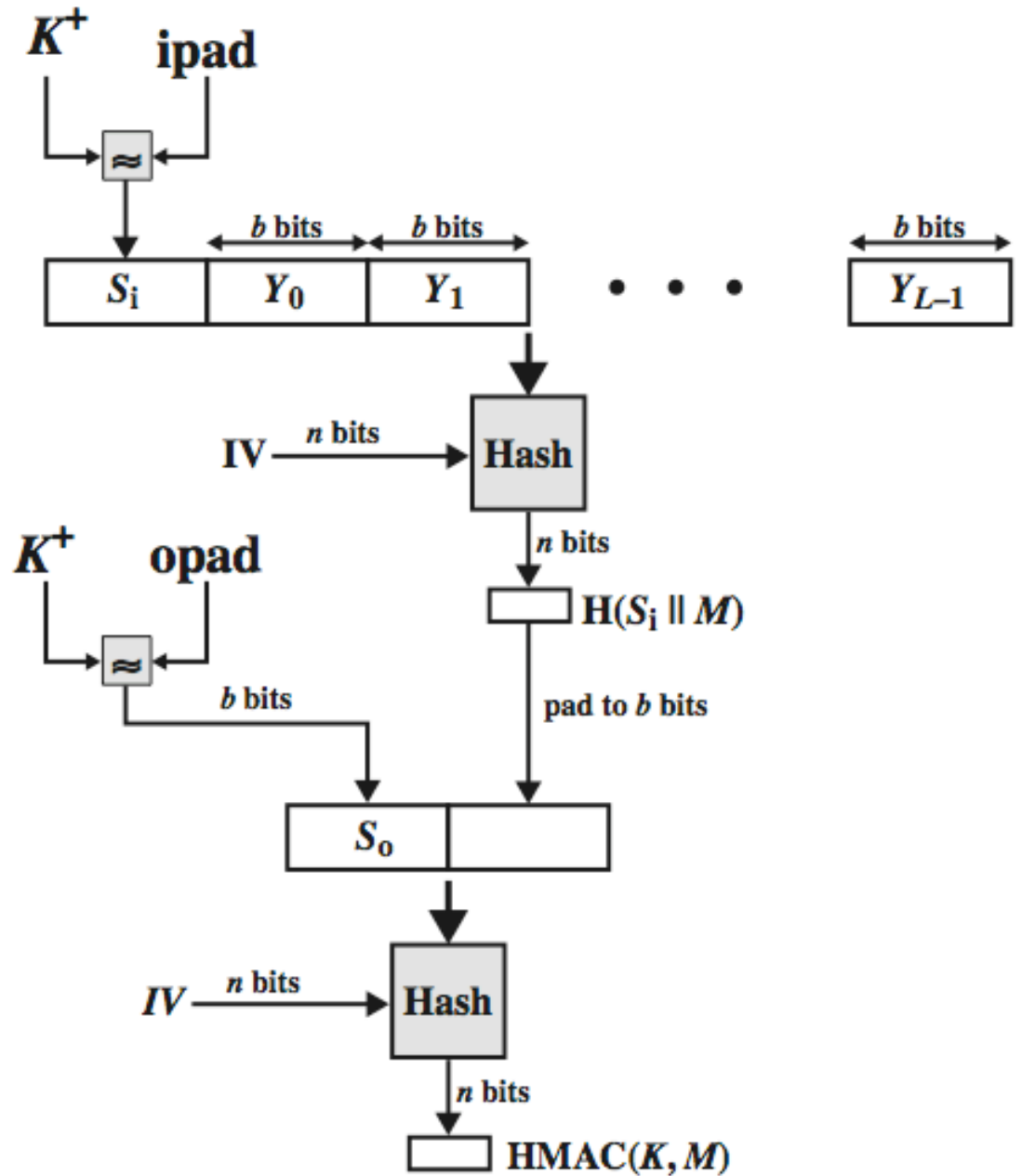
HMAC

- specified as Internet standard RFC2104
- uses hash function on the message:

$$\text{HMAC}_K(M) = \text{Hash}[(K^+ \text{ XOR } \text{opad}) \parallel \text{Hash}[(K^+ \text{ XOR } \text{ipad}) \parallel M]]$$

- where K^+ is the key padded out to size
- opad , ipad are specified padding constants
- any hash function can be used
 - eg. SHA-1, SHA-2, SHA-3, Whirlpool

HMAC Overview



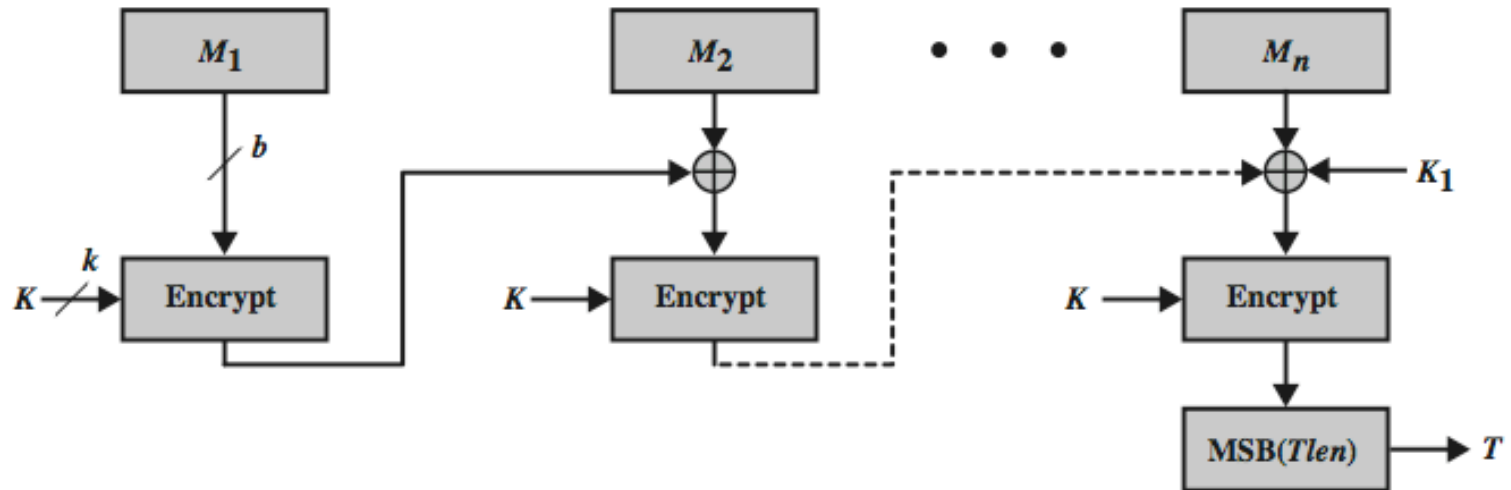
HMAC Security

- proved security of HMAC relates to that of the underlying hash algorithm
- attacking HMAC requires:
 - brute force attack on key used
- choose hash function used based on speed verses security constraints

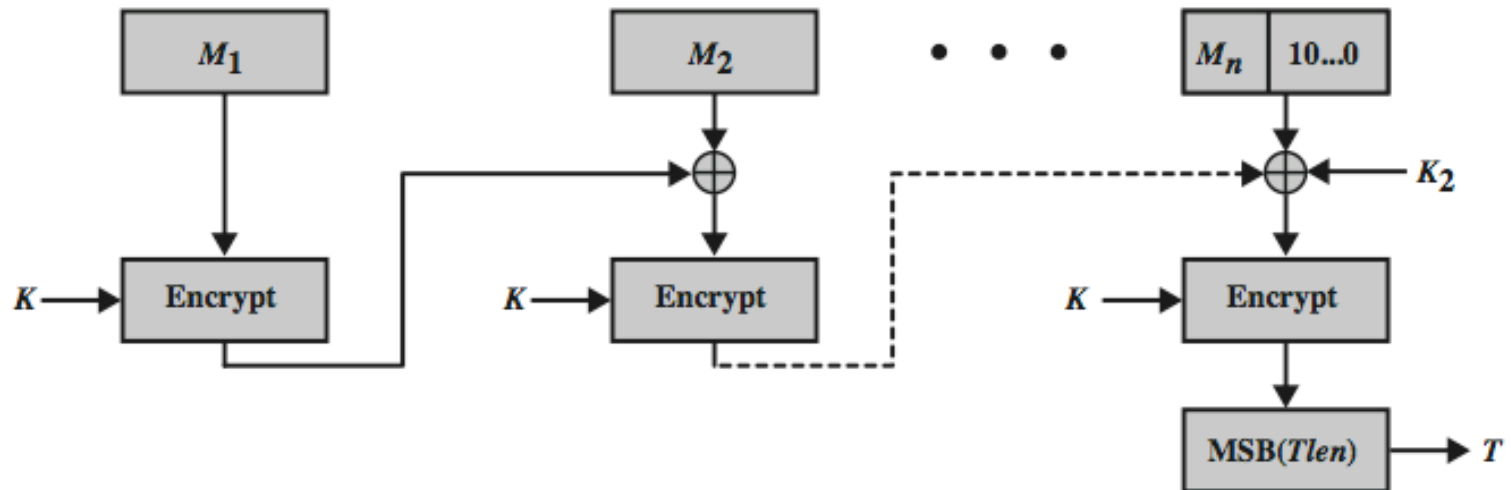
CMAC

- widely used in govt & industry
- but has message size limitation
- can overcome using 2 keys & padding
- Cipher-based Message Authentication Code (CMAC)
- adopted by NIST SP800-38B

CMAC Overview



(a) Message length is integer multiple of block size



(b) Message length is not integer multiple of block size

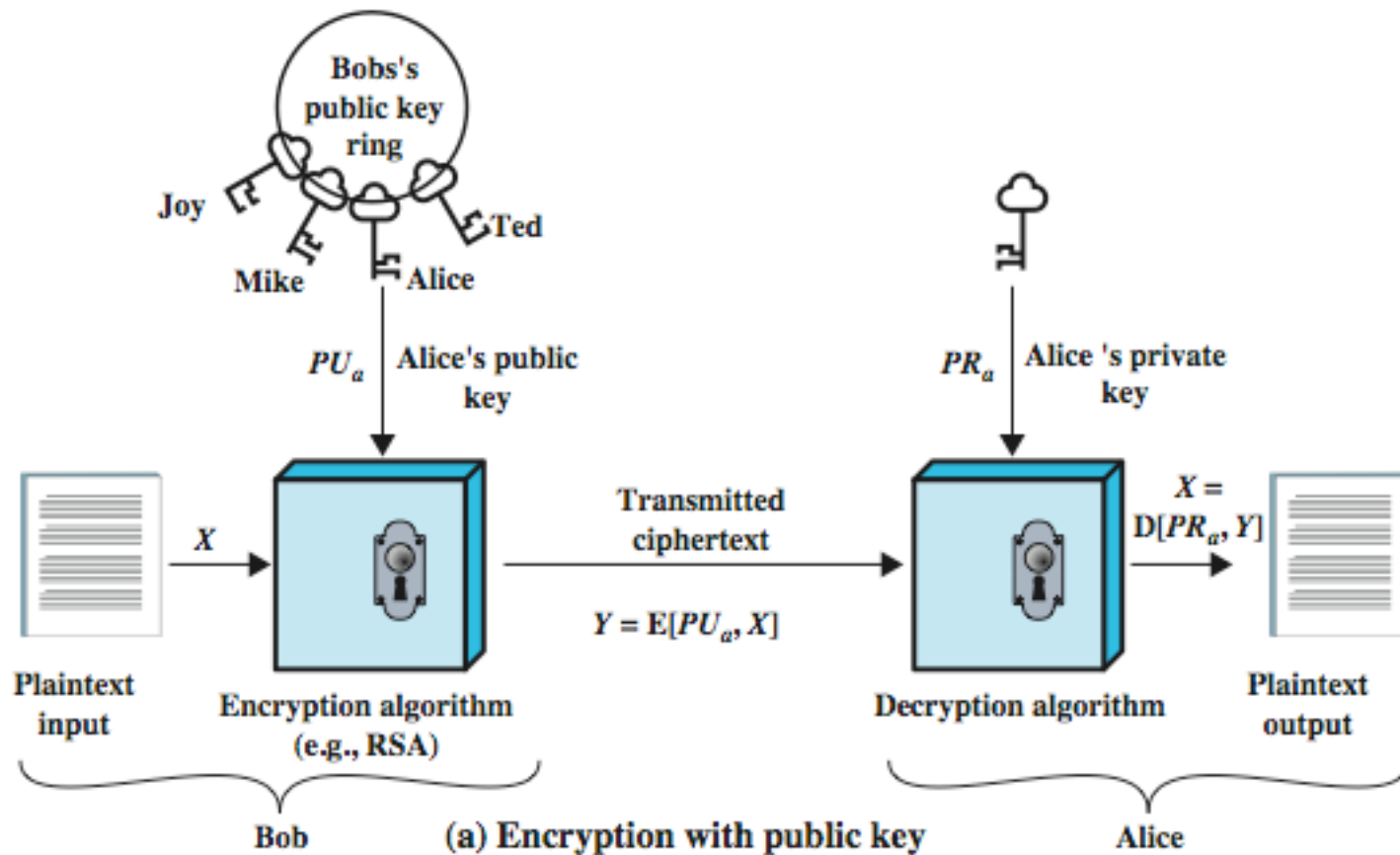
Public-Key Cryptography

- probably most significant advance in the 3000 year history of cryptography
- uses **two** keys – a public & a private key
- **asymmetric** since parties are **not** equal
- uses clever application of number theoretic concepts to function
- complements **rather than** replaces private key crypto

Why Public-Key Cryptography?

- developed to address two key issues:
 - **key distribution** – how to have secure communications in general without having to trust a KDC with your key
 - **digital signatures** – how to verify a message comes intact from the claimed sender
- public invention due to Whitfield Diffie & Martin Hellman at Stanford Uni in 1976
 - known earlier in classified community

Public-Key Cryptography



RSA

- by Rivest, Shamir & Adleman of MIT in 1977
- best known & widely used public-key scheme
- based on exponentiation in a finite (Galois) field over integers modulo a prime
- uses large integers (eg. 1024 bits and bigger)
- security due to cost of factoring large numbers

RSA En/decryption

- to encrypt a message M the sender:
 - obtains **public key** of recipient $PU = \{e, n\}$
 - computes: $C = M^e \bmod n$, where $0 \leq M < n$
- to decrypt the ciphertext C the owner:
 - uses their private key $PR = \{d, n\}$
 - computes: $M = C^d \bmod n$
- note that the message M must be smaller than the modulus n (block if needed)

Modulo Operation [Wikipedia]

- The modulo operation finds the remainder after division of one number by another (sometimes called modulus).
- Given two positive numbers, a (the dividend) and n (the divisor), $a \bmod n$ (abbreviated as $a \text{ mod } n$) is the remainder of the division of a by n . For example, the expression " $5 \text{ mod } 2$ " would evaluate to 1 because 5 divided by 2 leaves a quotient of 2 and a remainder of 1

RSA Key Setup

- each user generates a public/private key pair by:
- selecting two large primes at random: p, q
- computing their system modulus $n=p \cdot q$
 - note $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- selecting at random the encryption key e
 - where $1 < e < \phi(n)$, $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
- solve following equation to find decryption key d
 - $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ and $0 \leq d \leq n$
- publish their public encryption key: $PU = \{e, n\}$
- keep secret private decryption key: $PR = \{d, n\}$

* The symbol \equiv means equivalent

RSA Example - Key Setup

1. Select primes: $p=17$ & $q=11$
2. Calculate $n = pq = 17 \times 11 = 187$
3. Calculate $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 16 \times 10 = 160$
4. Select e : $\gcd(e, 160) = 1$; choose $e=7$
5. Determine d : $de \equiv 1 \pmod{160}$ and $d < 160$
Value is $d=23$. An example of a simple solution in the next slide!!!!
6. Publish public key $PU = \{7, 187\}$
7. Keep secret private key $PR = \{23, 187\}$

Solution of $de \equiv 1 \pmod{160}$

We have $de \equiv 1 \pmod{160}$ in which means

$$de \pmod{160} = 1 \pmod{160}$$

$de \pmod{160} = 1$. If $e=7$ then

$$7d \pmod{160} = 1.$$

Then we are trying all the possibilities of d .

For $d=1$ then is equation is not true. For $d=2$ is also not true.

...

For $d=23$ the equation is true!!

RSA Example - En/Decryption

➤ sample RSA encryption/decryption is:

➤ given message $M = 88$ (nb. $88 < 187$)

➤ encryption:

$$C = 88^7 \bmod 187 = 11$$

➤ decryption:

$$M = 11^{23} \bmod 187 = 88$$

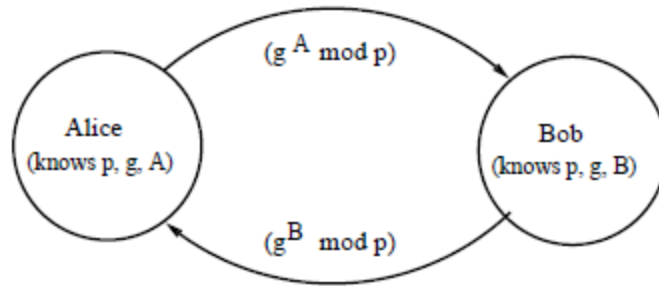
Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- first public-key type scheme proposed
- by Diffie & Hellman in 1976 along with the exposition of public key concepts
- is a practical method for public exchange of a secret key
- used in a number of commercial products

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- a public-key distribution scheme
 - cannot be used to exchange an arbitrary message
 - rather it can establish a common key
 - known only to the two participants
- value of key depends on the participants (and their private and public key information)
- based on exponentiation in a finite (Galois) field (modulo a prime or a polynomial) - easy
- security relies on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms (similar to factoring) – hard

Diffie-Hellman...



Steps in the algorithm:

- The two users (e.g. Alice and Bob) agree on a prime number p and a base g .
 - g must be a primitive root of p

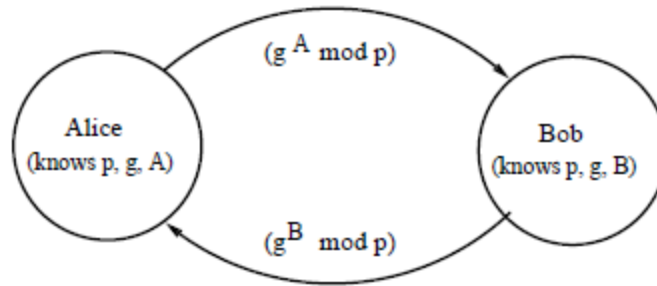
“g must be a primitive root of p” meaning

- Primitive root is an integer g , in which the powers mod p produce the numbers from 1 to $p-1$
- So, if g is a primitive root of the prime number p , then the numbers produced by $g \bmod p$, $g^2 \bmod p$, ..., $g^{p-1} \bmod p$ are 1stly) different and 2ndly) are equals to the numbers from 1 to $p-1$
 - For example, $p = 14$.
 - The number 14 is coprime with 1, 3, 4, 9, 11 and 13.
 - The number 3 is a primitive root of 14 because of:
 - $3 \bmod 14 = 3$, $3^2 \bmod 14 = 9$, $3^3 \bmod 14 = 13$, $3^4 \bmod 14 = 11$, $3^5 \bmod 14 = 5$
...

Coprime integers

- Two integers a and b are said to be relatively prime, mutually prime, or coprime if the only positive integer (factor) that divides both of them is 1.
- This is equivalent to their greatest common divisor (gcd) being 1, $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

...Diffie-Hellman



Alice chooses a secret number A , and sends Bob the $(g^A \text{ mod } p)$

- Bob chooses a secret number B , and sends Alice the $g^B \text{ mod } p$
- Alice computes $((g^B \text{ mod } p)^A \text{ mod } p)$
- Bob computes $((g^A \text{ mod } p)^B \text{ mod } p)$
- Both parties share the secret key $K_{AB} = g^{AB} \text{ mod } p$

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- K_{AB} is used as session key in private-key encryption scheme between Alice and Bob
- if Alice and Bob subsequently communicate, they will have the **same** key as before, unless they choose new public-keys
- attacker needs an x , must solve discrete log

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Scheme

Bob		Alice
p, g	Public keys	p, g
A	Private keys	B
$g^A \bmod p$	Transmission	$g^B \bmod p$
$(g^B \bmod p)^A \bmod p$	Computation	$(g^A \bmod p)^B \bmod p$

Diffie-Hellman Example1

- users Alice & Bob who wish to swap keys:
- agree on prime $p=353$ and $g=3$
- select random secret keys:
 - Alice chooses $A=97$, Bob chooses $B=233$
- compute respective public keys:
 - $Y_A = 3^{97} \bmod 353 = 40$ (Alice)
 - $Y_B = 3^{233} \bmod 353 = 248$ (Bob)
- compute shared session key as:
 - $K_{AB} = Y_B^A \bmod 353 = 248^{97} \bmod 353 = 160$ (Alice)
 - $K_{AB} = Y_A^B \bmod 353 = 40^{233} \bmod 353 = 160$ (Bob)

Diffie-Hellman Example2

- Alice and Bob agree on $p = 23$ and $g = 5$.
- Alice chooses $a = 6$ and sends $5^6 \bmod 23 = 8$.
- Bob chooses $b = 15$ and sends $5^{15} \bmod 23 = 19$.
- Alice computes $19^6 \bmod 23 = 2$.
- Bob computes $8^{15} \bmod 23 = 2$.
- Then 2 is the shared secret.

Key Exchange Protocols

- users could create random private/public D-H keys each time they communicate
- users could create a known private/public D-H key and publish in a directory, then consulted and used to securely communicate with them
- authentication of the keys is needed

Questions??