Miscellany!

Lecture 20 The Last Lecture!

Public-Key Crypto Maths

 Initially public-key crypto was based on hardness of problems in modular arithmetic and number theory (RSA/factoring, modular discrete log)

Problems from several other areas, since then

Elliptic curve cryptography (mainstream, currently)

Code-based crypto

Lattice-based crypto

"Post-Quantum Crypto" candidates

Multivariate Polynomial crypto

Elliptic Curve Crypto

Starting 1985 (by Miller, Koblitz)

- Groups where Discrete log (and DDH) is considered much harder than in modular arithmetic, and hence much smaller groups can be used.
- Given a finite field F, one can define a commutative group G ⊆ F², as points (x,y) which lie on an "elliptic curve," with an appropriately defined group operation
 - Different curves yield different groups
- Today, most popular PKE schemes use Diffie-Hellman over elliptic curves specified by various standards.
 - Pro: Significantly faster!
 - Con: Which elliptic curves are good?

Code-Based Crypto

Coding theory based, since McEliece crypto system (1978)

- A random linear code is specified by a matrix G s.t. a message x is encoded into a codeword Gx. Can easily check if c is a codeword, but seems hard to check if c is close in Hamming distance to a codeword.
- Structured linear codes exist for which error correcting algorithms are known
- Idea: Masquerade structured codes to look random. Secret key reveals the original structured code

Not commonly used today, as large key sizes and slow computation

Lattice-Based Crypto

- Lattice: set of (real) vectors obtained by linear combination of basis vectors using only <u>integer coefficients</u>
 - Hard problems related to finding short vectors in the lattice
- Original use of lattices: to break a candidate for PKE (called the "Knapsack cryptosystem") by Merkle and Hellman
- Constructions: NTRU (1996), Ajtai/Ajtai-Dwork (1996/97), ...
- More recent constructions based on Learning With Errors (LWE) over Z_q which is hard if some lattice problems are
 - (A, Ax + e) is pseudorandom when e is a "short" noise vector

Lattice-Based Crypto: PKE

NTRU approach: Private key is a "good" basis, and the public key is a "bad basis"

 Worst basis (one that can be efficiently computed from any basis): Hermite Normal Form (HNF) basis

 To encrypt a message, encode it (randomized) as a short "noise vector" u. Output c = v+u for a lattice point v that is chosen using the public basis

To decrypt, use the good basis to find v as the closest lattice vector to c, and recover u=c-v

• NTRU Encryption: use lattices with succinct basis

Conjectured to be CPA secure for appropriate lattices. No security reduction known to simple lattice problems

Lattice-Based Crypto: PKE

An LWE based approach:

- Public-key is (A,P) where P=AS+E, for random matrices (of appropriate dimensions) A and S, and a noise matrix E over \mathbb{Z}_q
- To encrypt an n bit message, first map it to a vector \underline{v} in (a sparse sub-lattice of) \mathbb{Z}_q^n ; pick a random vector \underline{a} with small coordinates; ciphertext is ($\underline{u}, \underline{c}$) where $\underline{u} = A^T \underline{a}$ and $\underline{c} = P^T \underline{a} + \underline{v}$
- Decryption using S: recover message from $\underline{c} S^T \underline{u} = \underline{v} + E^T \underline{a}$
 - Allows a small error probability; can be made negligible by first encoding the message using an error correcting code
- CPA security: By LWE assumption, the public-key is indistinguishable from random; and, encryption under random (A,P) loses essentially all information about the message

Quantum Cryptography

- Quantum information: Using microscopic physical state of "quantum systems" (spin of atoms/sub-atomic particles, polarization of photons etc.) to encode information (and generate randomness)
 - Communicated over special "quantum channels" (optic fibers, free space...)
- Quantum Key-Distribution: Agreeing on a secret key over a public (quantum+classical) channel, without computational restrictions on the adversary
 - Needs authenticated communication between the two parties
 - Can use a short key for (information-theoretically secure) MAC to bootstrap the communication

QKD History

Bennett and Brassard proposed BB84 in 1984

 Eavesdropping on a quantum channel will change the qubits that the adversary observes

Similar ideas by Wiesner in early 1970s
QKD scheme based on "entanglement" by Ekert in 1990
Several other schemes by now

Quantum Key Distribution

Originally restricted definitions/proofs

- e.g., in BB84 Eve measured/transformed each transmitted qubit separately
- Didn't consider composability (e.g., key may be used for other tasks later, and attack may not be separately on QKD and subsequent use)
- Universally Composable Security for QKD (2005)
- Originally several idealizations required for security: crucially depends on reliable quantum channels and devices
 - Many idealizations can be removed using quantum errorcorrection, quantum repeaters, self-testing devices
 - Commercial products available



End-to-End Encryption

- In typical web-based applications (e.g., email services), servers are privy to all the information used by the clients
 - TLS only protects against outside eavesdroppers
- End-to-end encryption/authentication: Don't trust the server
 - e.g., OpenPGP standard for email
 - Users need to distribute their public-keys (key-signing parties, web-of-trust)
 - Many chat applications using the "Signal protocol"
 - e.g., WhatsApp, Google Allo (incognito mode), Signal, Facebook
 Messenger (secret conversations)

End-to-End Encryption

Security considerations

- Forward secrecy: avoid using long term encryption keys
 Keep updating the key after each message, deleting old ones, so that the current key doesn't reveal past keys ("Ratcheting")
 Plausible Deniability: No one should be able prove to anyone else that the sender actually sent a message.
- Messages are signed using MAC keys that are shared, so receiver can forge MACs. Further, MAC key revealed publicly in the next round, so anyone could have forged MACs.
 Several "usability" considerations in chat applications
 - e.g., Key-exchange requires a Receiver → Sender message.
 OK in a conversation, but a problem for an offline message.
 In the Signal Protocol, users leave several public-keys (for one-time use) on the server for senders to use.

Anonymity

Encryption does not mask the fact that a communication occurred

- In IPsec <u>tunnel mode</u> (e.g., when using VPN), entire IP packets (including headers) are communicated under encryption
- But routers themselves can observe source/destination of the packets
- Services that facilitate anonymous routing
 - TOR (based on Onion Routing): sender selects a sequence of routers, with each knowing only its two neighbours in the path.
 - If observing the source <u>and</u> the destination, remains possible to correlate incoming and outgoing channels via timing (no buffering for efficiency)

Leakage from Traffic Rate

Traffic rate can leak a lot of information about the messages

Reading key-strokes from SSH via timing attacks

- Identifying Netflix movies being played, from the sizes of video segments and the rate at which they are communicated (the compressed sizes depend on the movie)
- Recovering spoken words from encrypted Voice-over-IP services

IDEAL model for encryption allowed this explicitly!

Side-channel Attacks

- Various physical signals leak information about the state (including keys and internal randomness) of the algorithms
 - Timing: can be exploited even remotely
 - Power-monitoring: if connected to the same electrical circuitry. Reveals how code executed e.g., taking/not taking conditional branches.
 - Acoustic and/or Electromagnetic signals: with an antenna
 - Cold boot/Data remnance attacks...
- More attacks by actively tampering
- Engineering solution: mitigate the side-channels
- Leakage-Resilient crypto: can't predict/prevent <u>all</u> side-channels, so design assuming a low bandwidth unknown side-channel

Summary

Many crypto concepts in this course

- High-level primitives: SKE, PKE (perfect/CPA/CCA), MAC, Digital Signatures, ...
- Low-level primitives: Secret-Sharing, OWF, PRG, PRF, Trapdoor OWF, 2UHF, CRHF, ...
- Security Models: IND/SIM, Random Oracle model, ...
- A little bit of the math: DDH, RSA, ...
- Crucial to practical network security
- Major (but lessening) gaps between theory and practice

Several other components in network/information security: human behaviour (phishing), software engineering (bugs), formal methods (for security policies, high-level protocols), machine-learning (for intrusion detection), securing hardware, ...

That's All Folks!

