



Cryptography and Network Security

Chapter 3

Public Key Cryptography

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Outline

- Number theory overview
- Public key cryptography
- RSA algorithm

Prime Numbers

- A prime number is *an integer* that can only be divided without remainder by positive and negative values of *itself* and *1*.
- Prime numbers play a critical role both in number theory and in cryptography.

Relatively Prime Numbers & GCD

- two numbers a , b are relatively prime if they have no common divisors apart from 1
- Example: 8 & 15 are relatively prime since factors of 8 are 1,2,4,8 and of 15 are 1,3,5,15 and 1 is the only common factor
- Conversely can determine the Greatest Common Divisor by comparing their prime factorizations and using least powers
- Example: $300=2^2 \times 3^1 \times 5^2$
 $18=2^1 \times 3^2$
hence $\text{GCD}(18,300)=2^1 \times 3^1 \times 5^0=6$

Fermat's Theorem

- Fermat's theorem states the following: If p is prime and is a positive integer not divisible by p , then

$$a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$$

- also known as Fermat's Little Theorem
- also have: $a^p = a \pmod{p}$
- useful in public key and primality testing

Public Key Encryption

- Asymmetric encryption is a form of cryptosystem in which encryption and decryption are performed using the different keys
 - a public key
 - a private key.
- It is also known as public-key encryption

Public Key Encryption

- Asymmetric encryption transforms plaintext into ciphertext using a *one of two keys* and *an encryption algorithm*.
- Using the paired key and a decryption algorithm, the plaintext is recovered from the ciphertext
- Asymmetric encryption can be used for confidentiality, authentication, or both.
- The most widely used public-key cryptosystem is RSA.
- The difficulty of attacking RSA is based on the difficulty of finding the prime factors of a composite number.

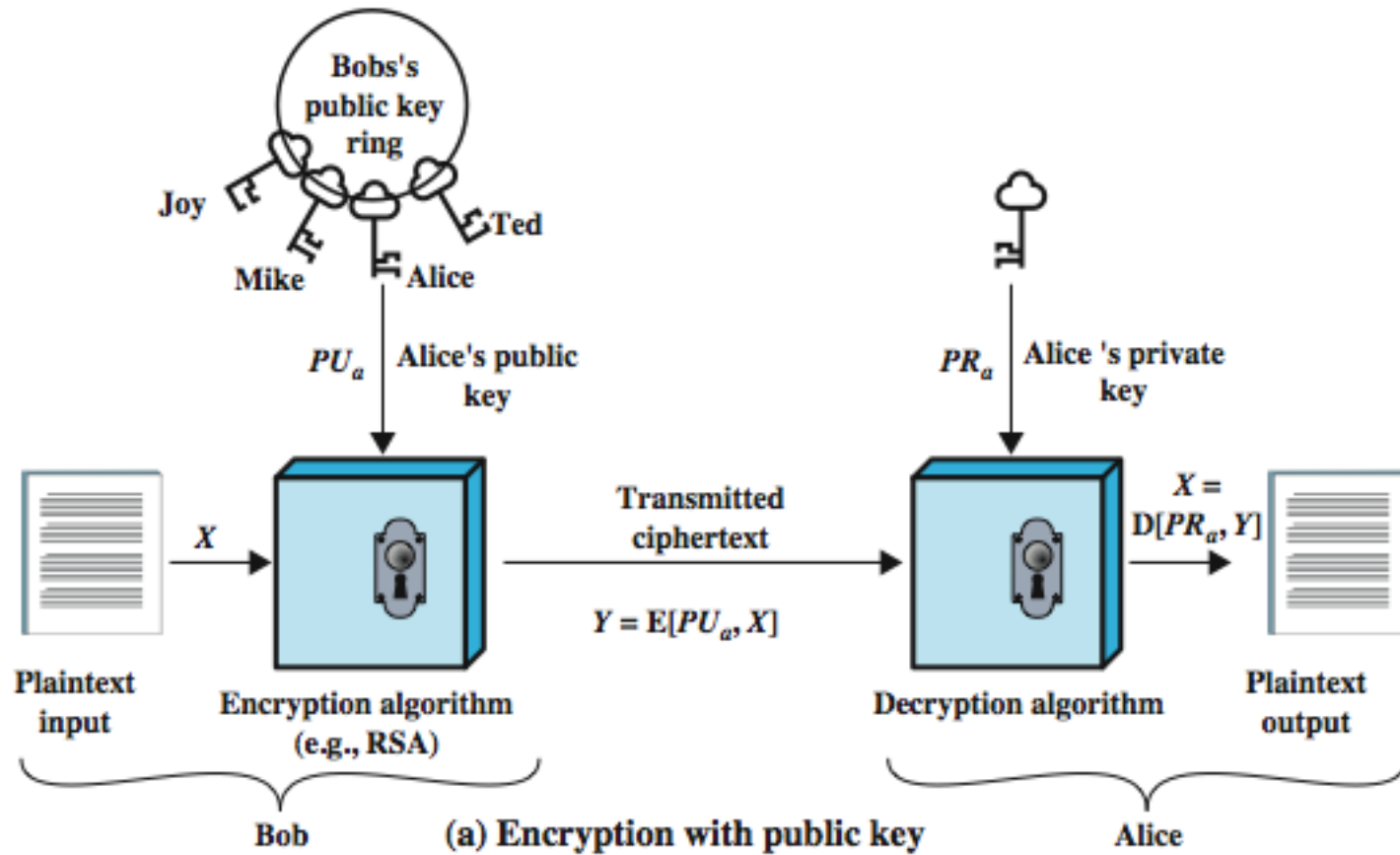
Why Public Key Cryptography?

- 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 University in 1976
 - known earlier in classified community

Public Key Cryptography

- **public-key/two-key/asymmetric cryptography involves the use of two keys:**
 - a **public-key**, which may be known by anybody, and can be used to **encrypt messages**, and **verify signatures**
 - a related **private-key**, known only to the recipient, used to **decrypt messages**, and **sign (create) signatures**
- **Infeasible to determine private key from public**
- **is asymmetric because**
 - those who encrypt messages or verify signatures **cannot** decrypt messages or create signatures

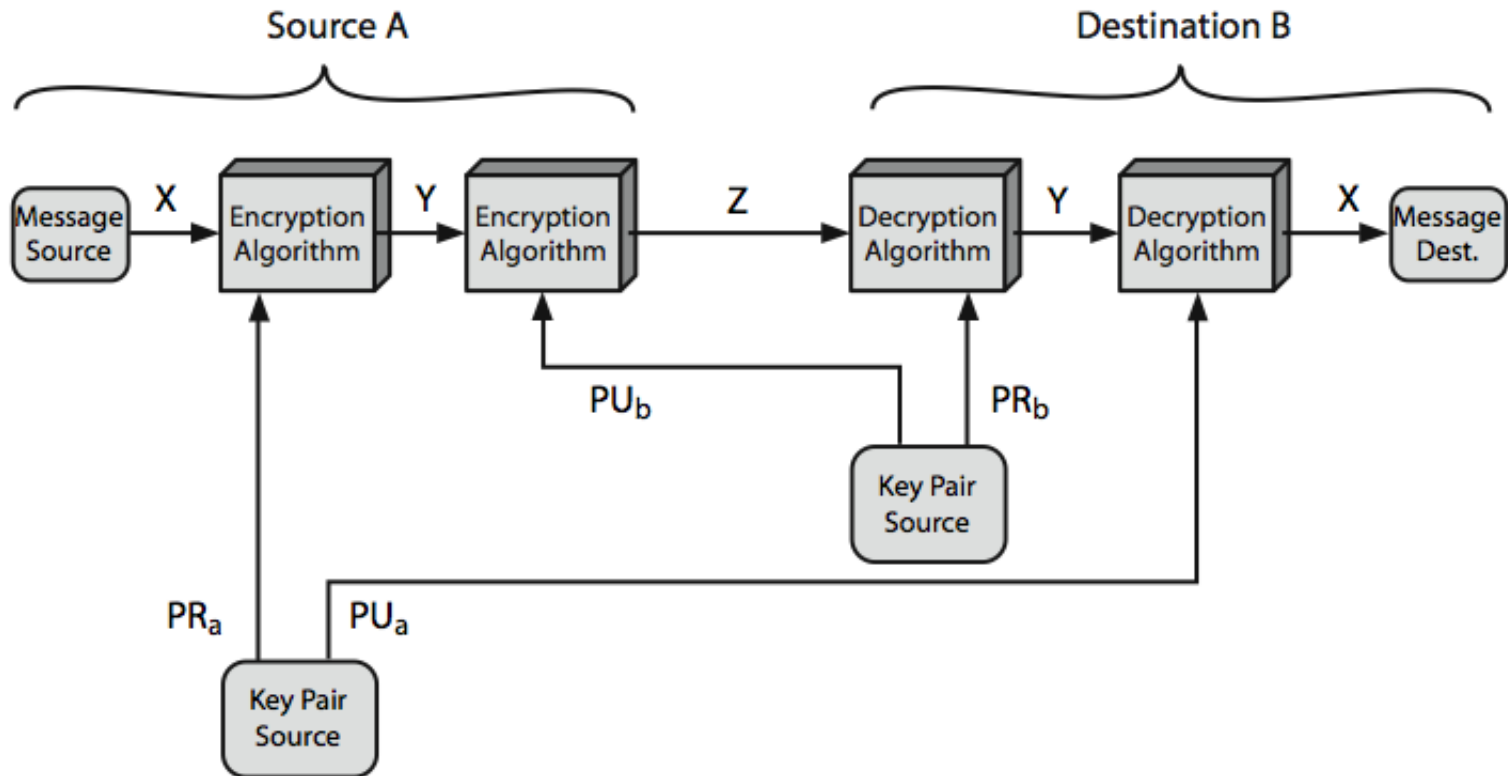
Public Key Cryptography



Symmetric vs. Public Key

Conventional Encryption	Public-Key Encryption
<p data-bbox="208 302 479 337"><i>Needed to Work:</i></p> <ol data-bbox="255 391 950 602" style="list-style-type: none"><li data-bbox="255 391 950 474">1. The same algorithm with the same key is used for encryption and decryption.<li data-bbox="255 519 950 602">2. The sender and receiver must share the algorithm and the key. <p data-bbox="208 654 537 688"><i>Needed for Security:</i></p> <ol data-bbox="255 742 923 1130" style="list-style-type: none"><li data-bbox="255 742 923 776">1. The key must be kept secret.<li data-bbox="255 825 923 951">2. It must be impossible or at least impractical to decipher a message if no other information is available.<li data-bbox="255 1005 923 1130">3. Knowledge of the algorithm plus samples of ciphertext must be insufficient to determine the key.	<p data-bbox="979 302 1250 337"><i>Needed to Work:</i></p> <ol data-bbox="1025 391 1721 688" style="list-style-type: none"><li data-bbox="1025 391 1721 516">1. One algorithm is used for encryption and decryption with a pair of keys, one for encryption and one for decryption.<li data-bbox="1025 562 1721 688">2. The sender and receiver must each have one of the matched pair of keys (not the same one). <p data-bbox="979 739 1307 773"><i>Needed for Security:</i></p> <ol data-bbox="1025 828 1721 1259" style="list-style-type: none"><li data-bbox="1025 828 1721 862">1. One of the two keys must be kept secret.<li data-bbox="1025 911 1721 1036">2. It must be impossible or at least impractical to decipher a message if no other information is available.<li data-bbox="1025 1090 1721 1259">3. Knowledge of the algorithm plus one of the keys plus samples of ciphertext must be insufficient to determine the other key.

Public Key Cryptosystems



Public Key Applications

- can classify uses into **3 categories**:
 - encryption/decryption (provide secrecy)
 - digital signatures (provide authentication)
 - key exchange (of session keys)
- some algorithms are suitable for all uses, others are specific to one

Algorithm	Encryption/Decryption	Digital Signature	Key Exchange
RSA	Yes	Yes	Yes
Elliptic Curve	Yes	Yes	Yes
Diffie-Hellman	No	No	Yes
DSS	No	Yes	No

Public Key Requirements

- **Public-Key algorithms rely on two keys where:**
 - it is computationally *infeasible* to find decryption key knowing only algorithm & encryption key
 - it is computationally *easy to en/decrypt messages* when the relevant (en/decrypt) key is known
 - either of the two related keys can be used for encryption, with the other used for decryption (for some algorithms)

Public Key Requirements

- **need a trap-door one-way function**
- **one-way function has**
 - $Y = f(X)$ easy
 - $X = f^{-1}(Y)$ infeasible
- **a trap-door one-way function has**
 - $Y = f_k(X)$ easy, if k and X are known
 - $X = f_k^{-1}(Y)$ easy, if k and Y are known
 - $X = f_k^{-1}(Y)$ infeasible, if Y known but k not known
- **a practical public-key scheme depends on a suitable trap-door one-way function**

Security of Public Key Schemes

- Like symmetric encryption, a public-key encryption scheme is **vulnerable to a brute-force attack**
- The difference is, keys used are too large (>512bits)
- Requires the use of **very large numbers**
- **Slow** compared to private key schemes

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
 - Note: exponentiation takes $O((\log n)^3)$ operations (easy!)
- uses large integers (eg. 1024 bits)
- security due to cost of factoring large numbers
 - Note: factorization takes $O(e^{\log n \log \log n})$ operations (hard!)

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)**

RSA Key Setup

Each user generates a public/private key pair by:

1. selecting two **large primes** at random: p, q
2. computing their system modulus $n = p \cdot q$
 - note $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
3. selecting at random the encryption key e
 - where $1 < e < \phi(n)$, $\text{GCD}(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
4. solve following equation to find decryption key d
 - $e \cdot d = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ and $0 \leq d \leq n$
5. publish their public encryption key: $PU = \{e, n\}$
6. keep secret private decryption key: $PR = \{d, n\}$

For more details, see references:

[1] pages 278-280

[2] Chapter 8: Security in Computer Networks



Why RSA works

- because of Euler's Theorem:
 - $a^{\phi(n)} \bmod n = 1$ where $\gcd(a, n) = 1$
- in RSA have:
 - $n = p \cdot q$
 - $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
 - carefully chose e & d to be inverses mod $\phi(n)$
 - hence $e \cdot d = 1 + k \cdot \phi(n)$ for some k
- hence :
$$C^d = M^{e \cdot d} = M^{1+k \cdot \phi(n)} = M^1 \cdot (M^{\phi(n)})^k$$
$$= M^1 \cdot (1)^k = M^1 = M \bmod n$$

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 : $de = 1 \pmod{160}$ and $d < 160$
Value is $d = 23$ since $23 \times 7 = 161 = 10 \times 160 + 1$
1. Publish public key $PU = \{7, 187\}$
 2. Keep secret private key $PR = \{23, 187\}$

Efficient Operation using Public Key

- To speed up the operation of the RSA algorithm using the public key, a specific **choice of e** is usually made.
 - The most common choice is 65537 ($2^{16} + 1$);
 - Two other popular choices are 3 and 17.
- Each of these choices has only two 1 bits, so the number of multiplications required to perform exponentiation is minimized.
- However, with a **very small public key**, such as $e = 3$, RSA becomes **vulnerable** to a simple attack.
- Suppose we have three different RSA users who all use the value $e = 3$ but have unique values of n , namely (n_1, n_2, n_3)
- If user A sends the same encrypted message M to all three users, then the three ciphertexts are $C_1 = M^3 \bmod n_1$,
- $C_2 = M^3 \bmod n_2$, and $C_3 = M^3 \bmod n_3$. It is likely that n_1, n_2 , and n_3 are pairwise relatively prime

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- If user A sends the same encrypted message M to all three users, then the three ciphertexts are
 - $C_1 = M^3 \bmod n_1$,
 - $C_2 = M^3 \bmod n_2$, and
 - $C_3 = M^3 \bmod n_3$.
- It is likely that n_1, n_2 , and n_3 are pairwise relatively prime
- Therefore, one can use the Chinese remainder theorem (CRT) to compute $M^3 \bmod (n_1 n_2 n_3)$

RSA Security

- Four possible approaches to attacking the RSA algorithm are
 1. **Brute force**: This involves trying all possible private keys.
 2. **Mathematical attacks**: There are several approaches, all equivalent in effort to factoring the product of two primes.
 3. **Timing attacks**: These depend on the running time of the decryption algorithm.
 4. **Chosen ciphertext attacks**: This type of attack exploits properties of the RSA algorithm.

Summary

- Definition of prime number
- Relatively prime numbers
- Public key cryptography
 - Public key
 - Private key
- RSA algorithm
 - Key setup
 - Security

References

1. Cryptography and Network Security, Principles and Practice, William Stallings, Prentice Hall, Sixth Edition, 2013
2. Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach 6th Edition, Jim Kurose, Keith Ross, Pearson, 2013