

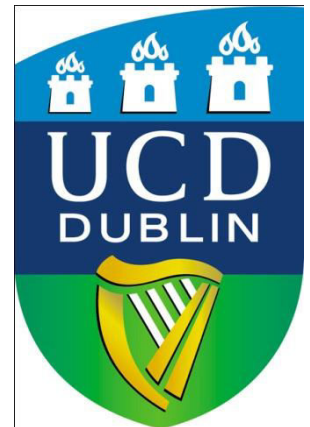
COM307000 - Cryptography

Public Key Crypto_part 2:

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Public Key Algorithms

✓ Knapsack

☐ RSA

☐ Diffie Hellman

☐ Elliptic Curve based Crypto (ECC)

Others: Elgamal, Rabin, Goldwasser-Micali (probanilistic), Blum-Goldwasser (probalistic), Schnorr signature, Zero-Knowledge Algorithms (Fiat-Shamir, Ohta-Okamoto,...)

RSA

RSA

- ❑ Invented by Clifford Cocks (GCHQ) and Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman (MIT)
 - RSA is the *gold standard* in public key crypto
- ❑ Let p and q be two large prime numbers
- ❑ Let $N = pq$ be the **modulus**
- ❑ Choose e relatively prime to $(p-1)(q-1)$
- ❑ Find d such that $ed = 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$
- ❑ **Public key** is (N, e)
- ❑ **Private key** is d

RSA

- ❑ Message M is treated as a number
- ❑ To encrypt M we compute
$$C = M^e \bmod N$$
- ❑ To decrypt ciphertext C compute
$$M = C^d \bmod N$$
- ❑ Recall that e and N are public
- ❑ If Trudy can factor $N = pq$, she can use e to easily find d since $ed = 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$
- ❑ So, **factoring the modulus breaks RSA**
 - Is factoring the only way to break RSA?

Does RSA Really Work?

- ❑ Given $C = M^e \bmod N$ we want to show that $M = C^d \bmod N = M^{ed} \bmod N$
- ❑ We'll need **Euler's Theorem**:
If x is relatively prime to n then $x^{\phi(n)} = 1 \bmod n$
- ❑ Facts:
 - 1) $ed = 1 \bmod (p - 1)(q - 1)$
 - 2) By definition of "mod", $ed = k(p - 1)(q - 1) + 1$
 - 3) $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
- ❑ Then $ed - 1 = k(p - 1)(q - 1) = k\phi(N)$
- ❑ So, $M^{ed} = M^{(ed - 1) + 1} = M \cdot M^{ed - 1} = M \cdot M^{k\phi(N)}$
 $= M \cdot (M^{\phi(N)})^k \bmod N = M \cdot 1^k \bmod N = M \bmod N$

Simple RSA Example

- Example of *textbook* RSA
 - Select “large” primes $p = 11, q = 3$
 - Then $N = pq = 33$ and $(p - 1)(q - 1) = 20$
 - Choose $e = 3$ (relatively prime to 20)
 - Find d such that $ed = 1 \pmod{20}$
 - We find that $d = 7$ works
- **Public key:** $(N, e) = (33, 3)$
- **Private key:** $d = 7$

Simple RSA Example

□ **Public key:** $(N, e) = (33, 3)$

□ **Private key:** $d = 7$

□ Suppose message to encrypt is $M = 8$

□ Ciphertext C is computed as

$$C = M^e \bmod N = 8^3 = 512 = 17 \bmod 33$$

□ Decrypt C to recover the message M by

$$\begin{aligned} M &= C^d \bmod N = 17^7 = 410,338,673 \\ &= 12,434,505 * 33 + 8 = 8 \bmod 33 \end{aligned}$$

More Efficient RSA (1)

- ❑ Modular exponentiation example
 - $5^{20} = 95367431640625 = 25 \bmod 35$
- ❑ A better way: **repeated squaring**
 - $20 = 10100$ base 2
 - $(1, 10, 101, 1010, 10100) = (1, 2, 5, 10, 20)$
 - Note that $2 = 1 \cdot 2$, $5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1$, $10 = 2 \cdot 5$, $20 = 2 \cdot 10$
 - $5^1 = 5 \bmod 35$
 - $5^2 = (5^1)^2 = 5^2 = 25 \bmod 35$
 - $5^5 = (5^2)^2 \cdot 5^1 = 25^2 \cdot 5 = 3125 = 10 \bmod 35$
 - $5^{10} = (5^5)^2 = 10^2 = 100 = 30 \bmod 35$
 - $5^{20} = (5^{10})^2 = 30^2 = 900 = 25 \bmod 35$
- ❑ No huge numbers and it's efficient!

More Efficient RSA (2)

- ❑ Use $e = 3$ for all users (but not same N or d)
 - + Public key operations only require 2 multiplies
 - o Private key operations remain expensive
 - If $M < N^{1/3}$ then $C = M^e = M^3$ and **cube root attack**
 - For any M , if C_1, C_2, C_3 sent to 3 users, cube root attack works (uses Chinese Remainder Theorem)
- ❑ Can prevent cube root attack by padding message with random bits
- ❑ Note: $e = 2^{16} + 1$ also used (“better” than $e = 3$)

Diffie-Hellman

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

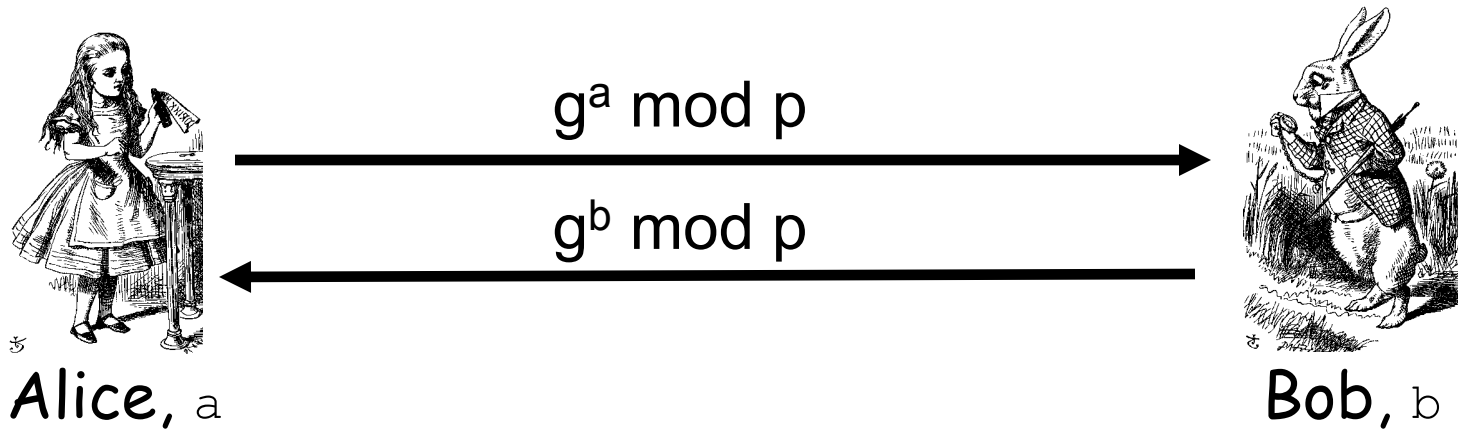
- ❑ Invented by Williamson (GCHQ) and, independently, by D and H (Stanford)
- ❑ A “key exchange” algorithm
 - Used to establish a shared symmetric key
 - *Not* for encrypting or signing
- ❑ Based on **discrete log** problem
 - **Given:** g , p , and $g^k \bmod p$
 - **Find:** exponent k

Diffie-Hellman

- ❑ Let p be prime, let g be a **generator**
 - For any $x \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ there is n s.t. $x = g^n \bmod p$
- ❑ Alice selects her private value a
- ❑ Bob selects his private value b
- ❑ Alice sends $g^a \bmod p$ to Bob
- ❑ Bob sends $g^b \bmod p$ to Alice
- ❑ Both compute shared secret, $g^{ab} \bmod p$
- ❑ Shared secret can be used as symmetric key

Diffie-Hellman

- **Public:** g and p
- **Private:** Alice's exponent a , Bob's exponent b



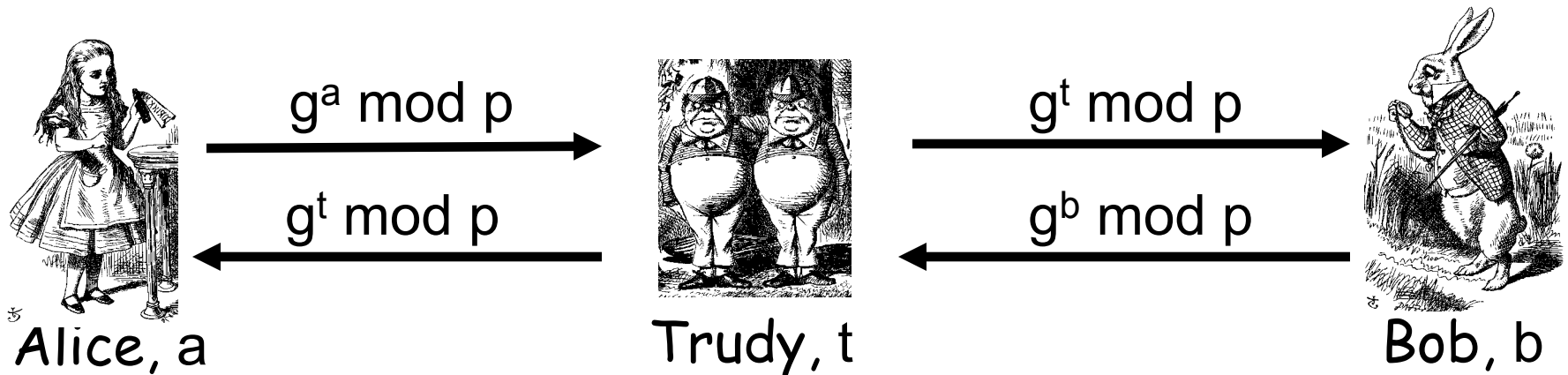
- Alice computes $(g^b)^a = g^{ba} = g^{ab} \bmod p$
- Bob computes $(g^a)^b = g^{ab} \bmod p$
- They can use **$K = g^{ab} \bmod p$** as **symmetric key**

Diffie-Hellman

- ❑ Suppose Bob and Alice use Diffie-Hellman to determine symmetric key $K = g^{ab} \bmod p$
- ❑ Trudy can see $g^a \bmod p$ and $g^b \bmod p$
 - But... $g^a g^b \bmod p = g^{a+b} \bmod p \neq g^{ab} \bmod p$
- ❑ If Trudy can find a or b , she gets K
- ❑ If Trudy can solve **discrete log** problem, she can find a or b

Diffie-Hellman

- Subject to man-in-the-middle (MiM) attack



- Trudy shares secret $g^{at} \bmod p$ with Alice
- Trudy shares secret $g^{bt} \bmod p$ with Bob
- Alice and Bob don't know Trudy is MiM

Diffie-Hellman

- ❑ **How to prevent MiM attack?**
 - Encrypt DH exchange with symmetric key
 - Encrypt DH exchange with public key
 - Sign DH values with private key
 - Other?
- ❑ **At this point, DH may look pointless...**
 - ...but it's not (more on this later)
- ❑ You **must** be aware of MiM attack on Diffie-Hellman

Elliptic Curve Cryptography

Elliptic Curve Crypto (ECC)

- ❑ “Elliptic curve” is **not** a cryptosystem
- ❑ Elliptic curves provide different way to do the math in public key system
- ❑ Elliptic curve versions of DH, RSA, ...
- ❑ Elliptic curves are more efficient
 - Fewer bits needed for same security
 - But the operations are more complex

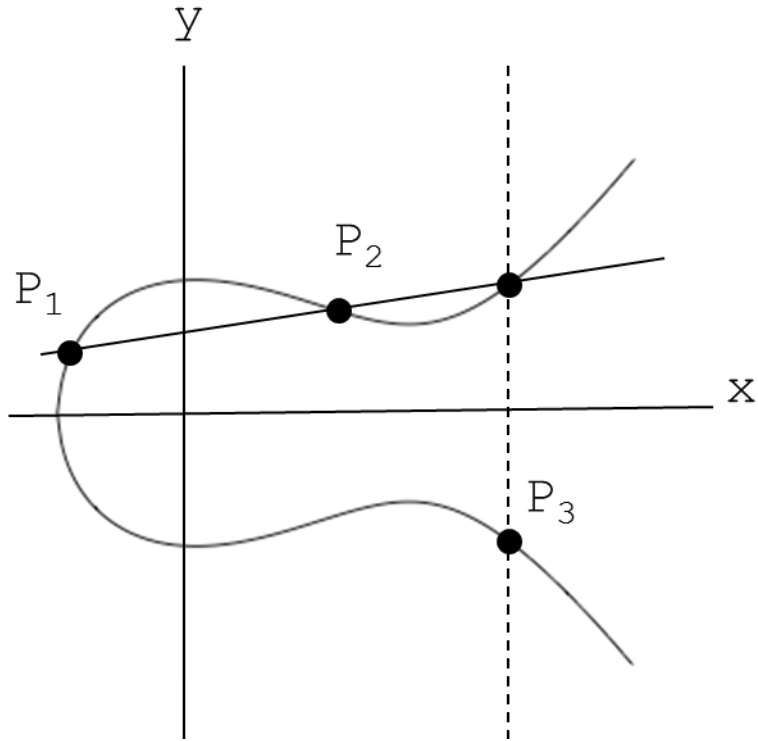
What is an Elliptic Curve?

- An elliptic curve E is the graph of an equation of the form

$$y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$$

- Also includes a “point at infinity”
- What do elliptic curves look like?
- See the next slide!

Elliptic Curve Picture



- Consider elliptic curve

$$E: y^2 = x^3 - x + 1$$

- If P_1 and P_2 are on E , we can define

$$P_3 = P_1 + P_2$$

as shown in picture

- Addition is all we need

Points on Elliptic Curve

□ Consider $y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 3 \pmod{5}$

$$x = 0 \Rightarrow y^2 = 3 \Rightarrow \text{no solution} \pmod{5}$$

$$x = 1 \Rightarrow y^2 = 6 = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1, 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$x = 2 \Rightarrow y^2 = 15 = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$x = 3 \Rightarrow y^2 = 36 = 1 \Rightarrow y = 1, 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$x = 4 \Rightarrow y^2 = 75 = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0 \pmod{5}$$

□ Then points on the elliptic curve are:

$$(1, 1) \quad (1, 4) \quad (2, 0) \quad (3, 1) \quad (3, 4) \quad (4, 0)$$

and the point at infinity: ∞

Elliptic Curve Math

□ **Addition on:** $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$

$$P_1 = (x_1, y_1), P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$$

$$P_1 + P_2 = P_3 = (x_3, y_3) \text{ where}$$

$$x_3 = m^2 - x_1 - x_2 \pmod{p}$$

$$y_3 = m(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 \pmod{p}$$

And $m = (y_2 - y_1) * (x_2 - x_1)^{-1} \pmod{p}, \text{ if } P_1 \neq P_2$

$$m = (3x_1^2 + a) * (2y_1)^{-1} \pmod{p}, \text{ if } P_1 = P_2$$

Special cases: If m is infinite, $P_3 = \infty$, and

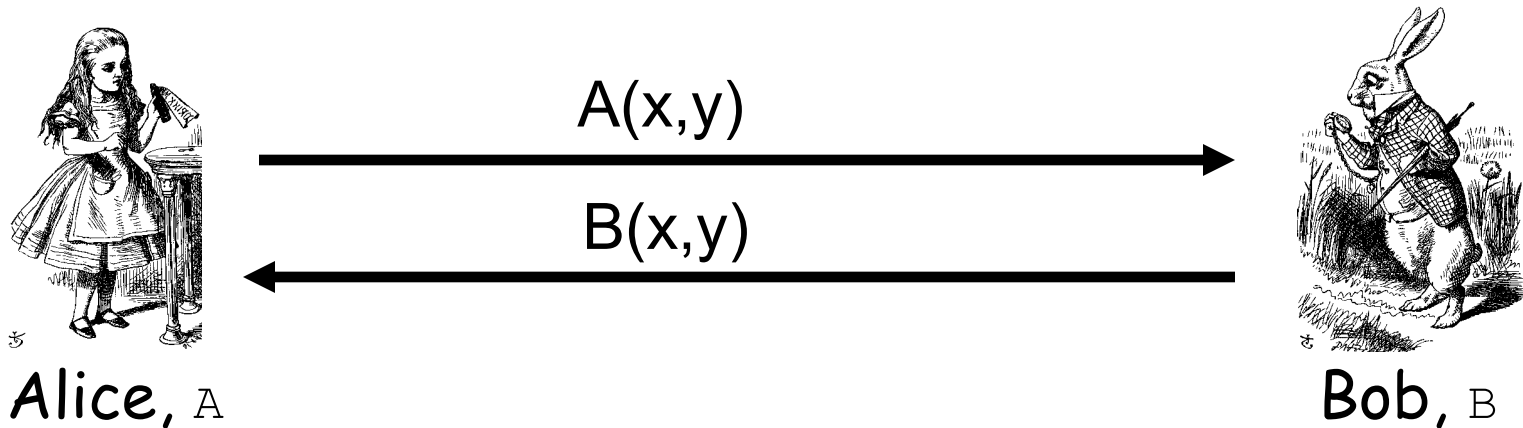
$$\infty + P = P \text{ for all } P$$

Elliptic Curve Addition

- **Consider** $y^2 = x^3 + 2x + 3 \pmod{5}$.
Points on the curve are $(1, 1)$ $(1, 4)$ $(2, 0)$
 $(3, 1)$ $(3, 4)$ $(4, 0)$ and ∞
- **What is** $(1, 4) + (3, 1) = P_3 = (x_3, y_3)$?
$$m = (1-4) * (3-1)^{-1} = -3 * 2^{-1}$$
$$= 2(3) = 6 = 1 \pmod{5}$$
$$x_3 = 1 - 1 - 3 = 2 \pmod{5}$$
$$y_3 = 1(1-2) - 4 = 0 \pmod{5}$$
- **On this curve,** $(1, 4) + (3, 1) = (2, 0)$

ECC Diffie-Hellman

- ❑ **Public:** Elliptic curve and point (x,y) on curve
- ❑ **Private:** Alice's A and Bob's B



- ❑ Alice computes $A(B(x,y))$
- ❑ Bob computes $B(A(x,y))$
- ❑ These are the same since $AB = BA$

ECC Diffie-Hellman

- **Public: Curve** $y^2 = x^3 + 7x + b \pmod{37}$
and point $(2, 5) \Rightarrow b = 3$
- **Alice's private:** $A = 4$
- **Bob's private:** $B = 7$
- **Alice sends Bob:** $4(2, 5) = (7, 32)$
- **Bob sends Alice:** $7(2, 5) = (18, 35)$
- **Alice computes:** $4(18, 35) = (22, 1)$
- **Bob computes:** $7(7, 32) = (22, 1)$

Uses for Public Key Crypto

Uses for Public Key Crypto

- ❑ Confidentiality
 - Transmitting data over insecure channel
 - Secure storage on insecure media
- ❑ Authentication protocols (later)
- ❑ Digital signature
 - Provides integrity and **non-repudiation**
 - No non-repudiation with symmetric keys

Non-non-repudiation

- ❑ Alice orders 100 shares of stock from Bob
- ❑ Alice computes **MAC** using symmetric key
- ❑ Stock drops, Alice claims she did *not* order
- ❑ Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- ❑ **No!** Bob also knows the symmetric key, so he could have forged the **MAC**
- ❑ **Problem:** Bob knows Alice placed the order, but he can't prove it

Non-repudiation

- ❑ Alice orders 100 shares of stock from Bob
- ❑ Alice **signs** order with her private key
- ❑ Stock drops, Alice claims she did not order
- ❑ Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- ❑ **Yes!** Alice's private key used to sign the order — only Alice knows her private key
- ❑ This assumes Alice's private key has not been lost/stolen

Public Key Notation

- **Sign** message M with Alice's **private** key:
 $\{M\}K_{APriv}$
- **Encrypt** message M with Alice's **public** key:
 $\{M\}K_{APub}$
- Then
$$\{\{M\}K_{APriv}\}k_{APub} = M$$
$$\{\{M\}K_{APub}\}k_{APriv} = M$$

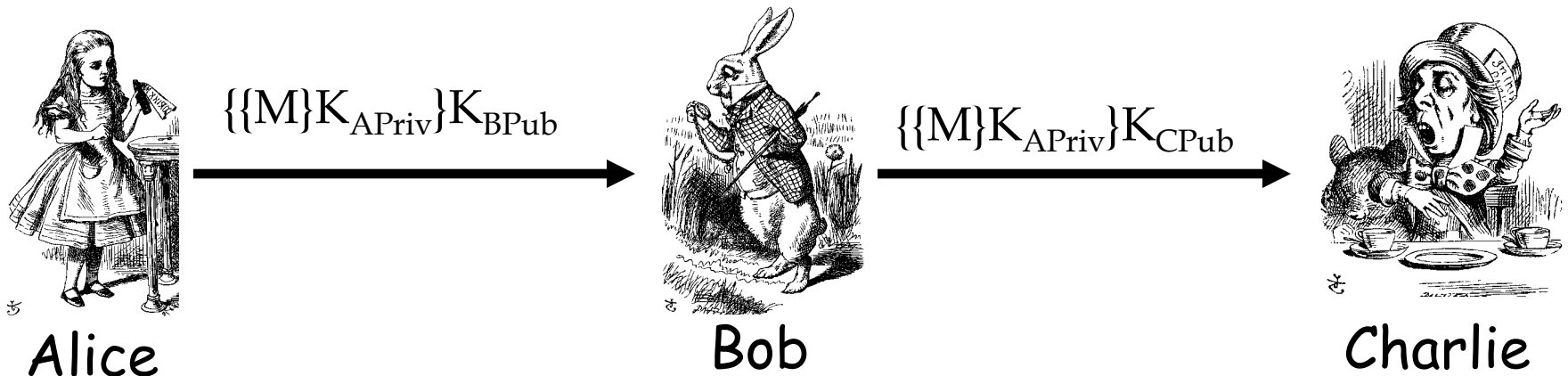
Sign and Encrypt vs Encrypt and Sign

Confidentiality and Non-repudiation?

- ❑ Suppose that we want confidentiality and integrity/non-repudiation
- ❑ Can public key crypto achieve both?
- ❑ Alice sends message to Bob
 - **Sign and encrypt:** $\{\{M\}_{K_{APriv}}\}_{K_{BPub}}$
 - **Encrypt and sign:** $\{\{M\}_{K_{BPub}}\}_{K_{APriv}}$
- ❑ Can the order possibly matter?

Sign and Encrypt

- M = "I love you"



- **Q:** What's the problem?
- **A:** No problem — public key is public

Encrypt and Sign

- $M = \text{"My theory, which is mine...."}$



Alice

$\{\{M\}K_{B\text{Pub}}\}K_{A\text{Priv}}$



Charlie

$\{\{M\}K_{B\text{Pub}}\}K_{C\text{Priv}}$



Bob

- **Note** that Charlie cannot decrypt M
- **Q:** What is the problem?
- **A:** No problem — public key is public

Public Key Infrastructure