### Sistemes de clau pública

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Criptografia i Seguretat

# Contingut

- 1 Problem with Symetric Encryption
- 2 Diffie Hellman
- 3 Asymmetric Key Scheme
- 4 RSA
- 5 Xifratge basat en el logaritme discret: ElGamal

### Problem

OK, symmetric key encryption works, but...



how can I deliver a key to my communication partner knowing that the shared medium is **hostile**?

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- Bob chooses randomly some b and computes  $B := g^b$ .
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- Alice computes  $k := B^a = (g^b)^a = g^{a*b}$ .
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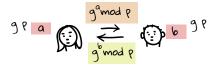




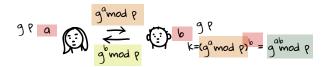
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### Key exchange: Diffie-Hellman. Primivite Roots

The simplest and the original implementation of the protocol uses the multiplicative group of integers modulo p, where p is prime, and g is a primitive root modulo p.

In modular arithmetic, a number g is a primitive root modulo n if every number a coprime to n is congruent to a power of g modulo n.

```
2 is a primitive root mod 5, because for every number a relatively prime to 5, there is an integer a such that a = a. All the numbers relatively prime to 5 are 1, 2, 3, 4, and each of these (mod 5) is itself (for instance 2 (mod 5) = 2):

• a = a = a. I (mod 5) = 1, so a = a = a. I (mod 5) = 2, so a = a. I (mod 5) = 2, so a = a. I (mod 5) = 3, so a = a. I (mod 5) = 4, so a = a. I (mod 5) = 4, so a = a. If a = a is not a primitive root mod 5, because for every number relatively prime to 5 (again, 1, 2, 3, 4) there is not a power of 4 that is congruent. Powers of 4 (mod 5) are only congruent to 1 or 4. There is no power of 4 that is congruent to 2 or 3:

• a = a = a. I (mod 5) = 1
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• a = a. In (mod 5) = 4
• a = a. The material continues...
```

### Key exchange: Diffie-Hellman Example

- Alice and Bob publicly agree to use a modulus p=23 and base g=5
- Alice chooses a secret integer a = 4, then sends Bob  $A = g^a \mod p$ :

$$A = 5^4 \mod 23 = 4$$

• Bob chooses a secret integer b = 3, then sends Alice  $B = g^b \mod p$ :

$$B = 5^3 \mod 23 = 10$$

• Alice computes  $k = B^a \mod p$ :

$$k = 10^4 \mod 23 = 18$$

• Bob computes  $k = A^b \mod p$ :

$$k = 4^3 \mod 23 = 18$$

• Alice and Bob now share a secret (the number 18)

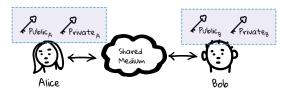


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# Asymmetric Key Scheme

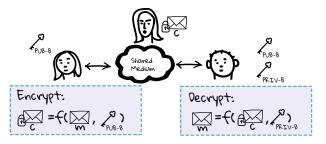
**Asymmetric encryption** schemes rely on two **keys** for each user.



These keys have the property that what is **encrypted** with one of them will be **decrypted** with the other.

### Asymmetric Key Scheme: Confidentiality

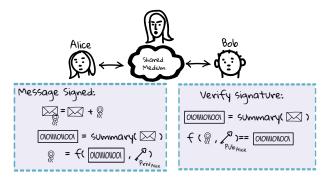
Public-key cryptography, or asymmetric cryptography, is a cryptographic system that uses **pairs** of keys: public keys, which may be disseminated widely, and private keys, which are known only to the owner.



In such a system, any person can encrypt a message using the receiver's public key, but that encrypted message can only be decrypted with the receiver's private key.

### Asymmetric Key Scheme: Authentication/Integrity

A message is signed by summarising the message using a hash function, for example. Then, the summary is encrypted using the sender's private key.



The recipient of the message can **verify** the integrity of the message by computing the summary of the received message and compare it to the result of decrypting with the sender's public key the signature.

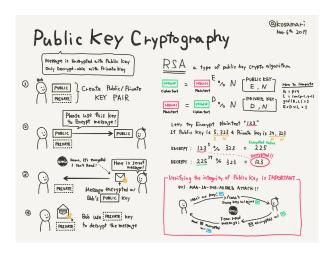
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### RSA (Rivest-Shamir-Adleman)



## RSA (visual)



# RSA (recipe)

#### Algorithm Key generation for RSA public-key encryption

SUMMARY: each entity creates an RSA public key and a corresponding private key. Each entity *A* should do the following:

- 1. Generate two large random (and distinct) primes p and q, each roughly the same size.
- 2. Compute n = pq and  $\phi = (p-1)(q-1)$ . (See Note 8.5.)
- 3. Select a random integer  $e, 1 < e < \phi$ , such that  $\gcd(e, \phi) = 1$ .
- 4. Use the extended Euclidean algorithm (Algorithm 2.107) to compute the unique integer d,  $1 < d < \phi$ , such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi}$ .
- 5. A's public key is (n, e); A's private key is d.

**Security** is based on the hardness of **factorization**. Given n = p.q, no known efficient algorithm to recover p and q.

# RSA (encrypt decrypt)

#### Algorithm RSA public-key encryption

SUMMARY: B encrypts a message m for A, which A decrypts.

- 1. Encryption. B should do the following:
  - (a) Obtain A's authentic public key (n, e).
  - (b) Represent the message as an integer m in the interval [0, n-1].
  - (c) Compute  $c = m^e \mod n$  (e.g., using Algorithm 2.143).
  - (d) Send the ciphertext c to A.
- 2. Decryption. To recover plaintext m from c, A should do the following:
  - (a) Use the private key d to recover  $m = c^d \mod n$ .

**Security** is based on the hardness of **factorization**. Given n = p.q, no known efficient algorithm to recover p and q.

# RSA (toy example)

#### Key generat on:

- Choose two prime numbers, for example p=5, q=11
- Calculate n so that  $n = p \times q = 55$
- Calculate φ as φ = (p-1) x (q-1) = 40
- Choose an e such that it must be coprime with  $\phi$ , for example e=7
- Choose d as the inverse of e modulo  $\phi$ , that is,  $e \times d = 1 \pmod{\phi}$ . Since  $7 \times 23 = 161 = 4 \times 40 + 1$ , then d = 23
- o Public Key: (e, n)
- Private Key: (d, n)



# RSA (toy example)

- Message Creation:
  - Choose a toy message, for example ("Hello"). Let's start with "H" (8). Our plain text (m = 8)
- Encryption:
  - Generate the encrypted text:  $c = m^e \pmod{n} = 8^7 \pmod{55} = 2$
- Decryption:
  - Decrypt the encrypted text:  $m = c^d \pmod{55} = 2^{23} \pmod{55} = 8$

### Factorisation example

```
import java.util.ArravList:
import java.util.List:
import java. util. Scanner;
public class PrimeFactorsEffective {
    public static List<Double> primeFactors(double numbers) {
        double n = numbers:
        List<Double> factors = new ArrayList<Double>():
        for (double i = 2; i <= n / i; i++) {
            while (n \% i == 0) {
                factors.add(i):
                n /= i;
        if (n > 1) {
            factors.add(n):
        return factors;
    public static void main(String[] args) {
                double n:
        Scanner readme = new Scanner(System.in):
        System.out.println("Enter p");
        double p = readme.nextDouble();
                System.out.println("Enter a"):
        double q = readme.nextDouble();
               n = p * q;
                long startTime = System.nanoTime();
                System.out.println("Primefactors of " + n);
        for (Double d : primeFactors(n)) {
            System.out.println(d);
                long endTime = System.nanoTime();
                long duration = (endTime - startTime);
                System.out.println("Factor time: "+ duration):
                startTime = System.nanoTime();
                n = p * a:
                endTime = System.nanoTime();
                duration = (endTime - startTime);
                System.out.println("Multiplication time:"+ duration):
```

### Función de Euler $\phi(n)$

- El Indicador o Función de Euler φ(n) nos entregará el número de elementos del CRR.
- Podremos representar cualquier número n de estas cuatro formas:
  - a) n es un número primo.
  - b) n se representa como  $n = p^k$  con p primo y k entero.
  - c) n es el producto n = p\*q con p y q primos.
  - d) n es un número cualquiera, forma genérica:

$$n = p_1^{e1} * p_2^{e2} * ... * p_t^{et} = \prod_{i=1}^{t} p_i^{ei}$$

### Función $\phi(n)$ de Euler cuando n = p

Caso 1: n es un número primo

Si n es primo,  $\phi(n)$  será igual a CCR menos el 0.

$$\phi(n) = n - 1$$

Si n es primo, entonces CRR = CCR - 1 ya que todos los restos de n, excepto el cero, serán primos entre sí.

Ejemplo 
$$CRR(7) = \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$$
 seis elementos  $\therefore \phi(7) = n - 1 = 7 - 1 = 6$   
 $\phi(11) = 11 - 1 = 10; \quad \phi(23) = 23 - 1 = 22$ 

Esta expresión se usará en los sistemas de cifra de ElGamal y DSS.

### Función $\phi(n)$ de Euler cuando n = p\*q

Caso 3: n = p\*q (con p y q primos)

$$\phi(n) \ = \boxed{\phi(p*q) = \phi(p)*\phi(q) = (p\text{-}1)(q\text{-}1)}$$

De los p\*q elementos del CCR, restaremos todos los múltiplos de p = 1\*p, 2\*p, ... (q - 1)\*p, todos los múltiplos de q = 1\*q, 2\*q, ... (p - 1)\*q y el cero.

$$\phi(p*q) = p*q - [(q-1) + (p-1) + 1] = p*q - q - p + 1$$

$$(p-1)(q-1)$$

Esta expresión se usará en el sistema de cifra RSA.

### Teorema de Euler

Dice que si mcd  $(a,n) = 1 \implies a^{\phi(n)} \mod n = 1$ Ahora igualamos  $a*x \mod n = 1$  y  $a^{\phi(n)} \mod n = 1$ 

$$\therefore \quad a^{\phi(n)} * a^{-1} \bmod n = x \bmod n$$

$$\therefore$$
  $x = a^{\phi(n)-1} \mod n$ 

El valor x será el inverso de a en el cuerpo n

Nota: Observe que se ha *dividido* por a en el cálculo anterior. Esto se puede hacer porque mcd (a, n) = 1 y por lo tanto hay un único valor inverso en el cuerpo n que lo permite.

# RSA (demonstration)

Proof that decryption works. Since  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi}$ , there exists an integer k such that  $ed = 1 + k\phi$ . Now, if  $\gcd(m,p) = 1$  then by Fermat's theorem (Fact 2.127),

$$m^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Raising both sides of this congruence to the power k(q-1) and then multiplying both sides by m yields

$$m^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv m \pmod{p}.$$

On the other hand, if  $\gcd(m,p)=p$ , then this last congruence is again valid since each side is congruent to 0 modulo p. Hence, in all cases

$$m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{p}$$
.

By the same argument,

$$m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{q}$$
.

Finally, since p and q are distinct primes, it follows that

$$m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{n}$$
,

and, hence,

$$c^d \equiv (m^e)^d \equiv m \pmod{n}.$$



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ElGamal és un criptosistema de clau pública basat en Diffie-Hellman i el problema del logaritme discret.

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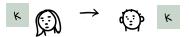
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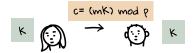
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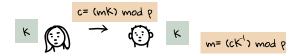












### Diffie-Hellman: generació d'una clau compartida simètrica

$$g^a \mod p$$
 $g^a \mod p$ 
 $g^b \mod p$ 

- Alice tria de manera aleatòria un a i calcula  $A := g^a$ .
- Bob tria de manera aleatòria b i calcula  $B := g^b$ .
- Alice envia a Bob A. Bob envia a Alice B.
- Alice calcula  $k := B^a = (g^b)^a = g^{a*b}$ .
- Bob calcula  $k := B^a = (g^a)^b = g^{a*b}$ .
- Ara Alice i Bob poden fer servir *k* com el seu secret per xifrar i desxifrar.