Introduction to Information Security

—— Symmetric/Secret Key Cryptography & Asymmetric/Public Key Cryptography

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Outlines

- **Symmetric/Secret Key Cryptography**
  - Model of Symmetric Key Cryptography
  - Feistel cipher structure, DES, and other modern cryptography
  - Key Distribution problem and the solution
- **Asymmetric/Public Key Cryptography**
  - Fundamentals and model of Asymmetric/Public Key Cryptography
  - Diffie-Hellman algorithm and attack
  - RSA algorithm

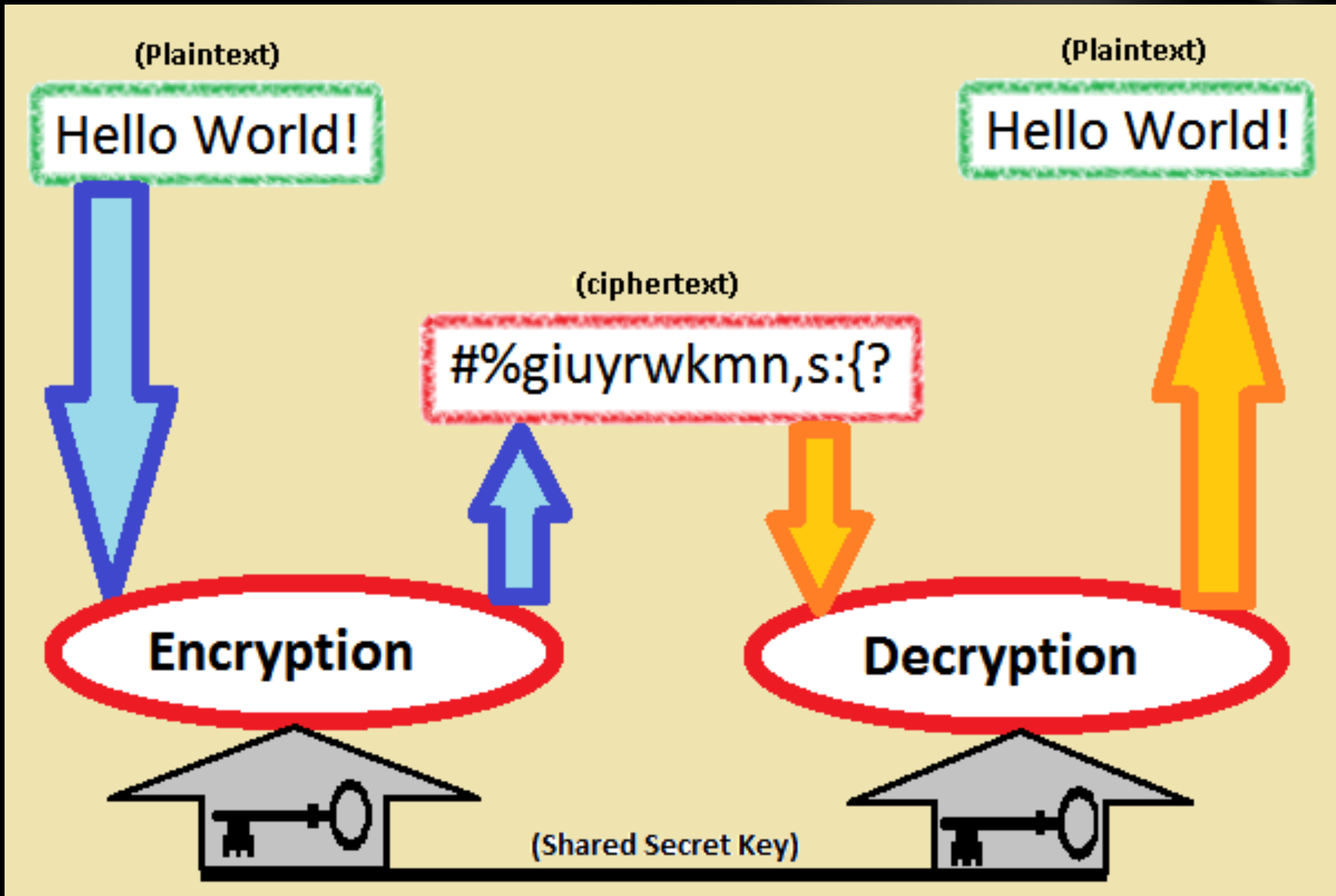
Symmetric/Secret Key Cryptography

Direct impact by computer in the field of cryptography …

What’s Symmetric Key Cryptography？

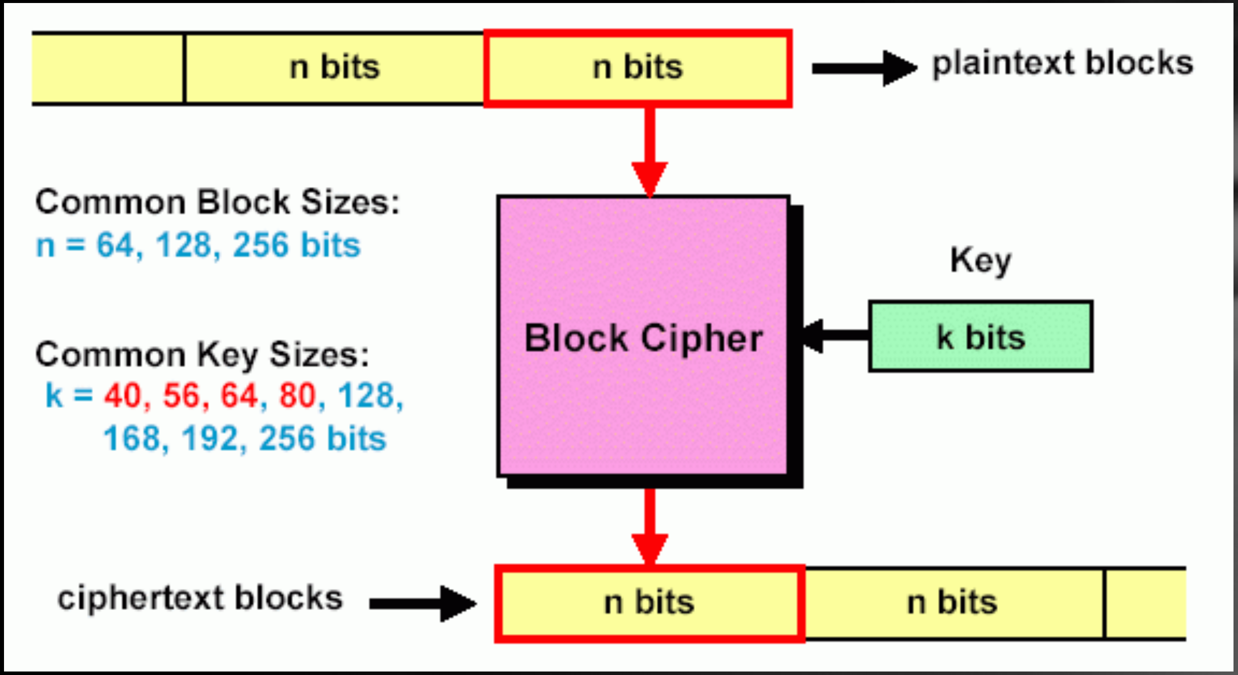
- Symmetric Key Ciphers（对称密钥加密算法）, also called
  - Shared Key Ciphers（共享密钥加密算法）
  - Secure Key Ciphers（保密密钥加密算法）
- Symmetric Key Algorithm is one kind of encryption algorithm in Cryptography.
  - Symmetric-key algorithms are algorithms for cryptography that use the same cryptographic keys for both the encryption of plaintext and the decryption of ciphertext.
  - The keys may be identical, or there may be a simple transformation to go between the two keys. The keys, in practice, represent a shared secret between two or more parties that can be used to maintain a private information link.
  - The requirement that both parties have access to the secret key is one of the main drawbacks of symmetric-key encryption.
- Complies with the Kerckhoffs’s principle

Model of Secret Key Cryptography



Block Cipher

Divide the input bit stream into n-bit sections, and encrypt only that section, with no dependency/history between sections.



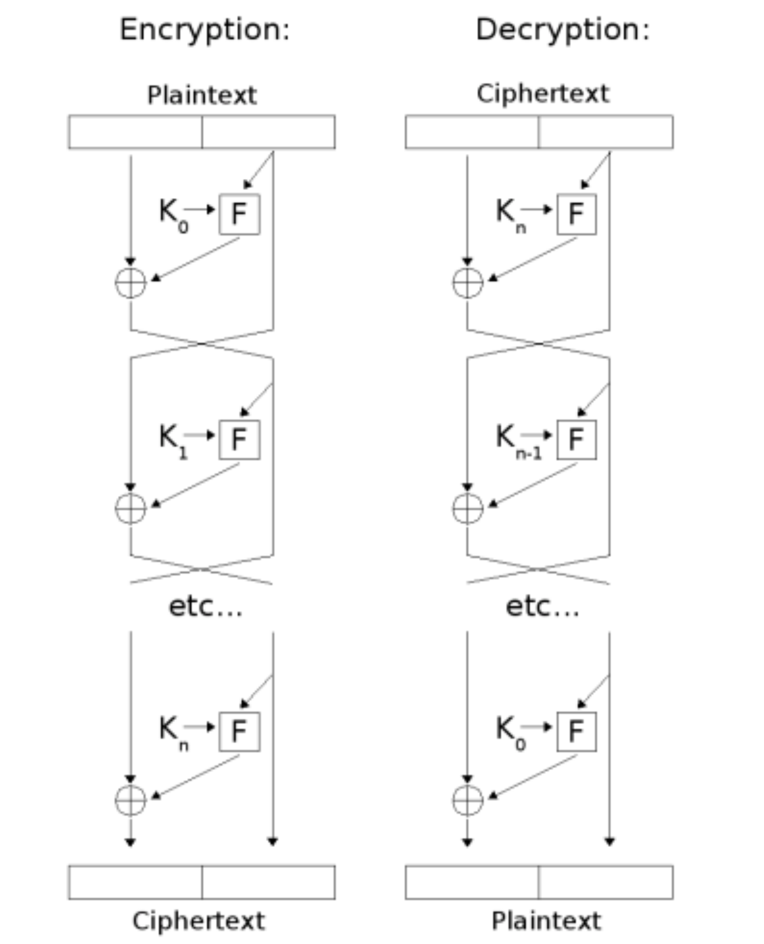
In a good block cipher, each output bit is a function of all n input bits and all k key bits.

Feistel Cipher Structure

- Proposed by IBM Feistel in 1973
  - Almost all modern symmetric encryption algorithms are based on this structure.
- Use block cipher, and increase the block size.
  - If adopting the ideal block cipher (Completely random mapping) may cause the length of the key to be too long ($n*2^n$), n = 64 needs 2^{70} bits length of the key.
  - Thus, it needs an approximation to the ideal block cipher.
- Design：
  - Feistel utilized the concept of a product cipher to solve this problem
  - With two approaches to cause avalanche effect：
    - Diffusion 扩散 ——使得密文的统计特性与明文之间的关系尽量复杂
    - Confusion 扰乱 ——使得密文的统计特性与加密密钥之间的关系尽量复杂

Feistel cipher encryption & decryption process

- **Diffusion** - iteratively interchange left-right half
- **Confusion** - round function F
  - **Block Size:** Larger block size means greater security; the typical size is 64bits or 128bits
  - **Key Length:** Larger key size means greater security; the typical size is 128bits
  - **Number of rounds:** more rounds mean greater security, and the standard size is 16
  - **Sub-key generation algorithm**： Greater complexity in this algorithm should lead to more incredible difficulty of cryptanalysis
  - **Round function F:** Greater complexity generally means more excellent resistance to cryptanalysis



Feistel Cipher

DES Algorithm —— Progress

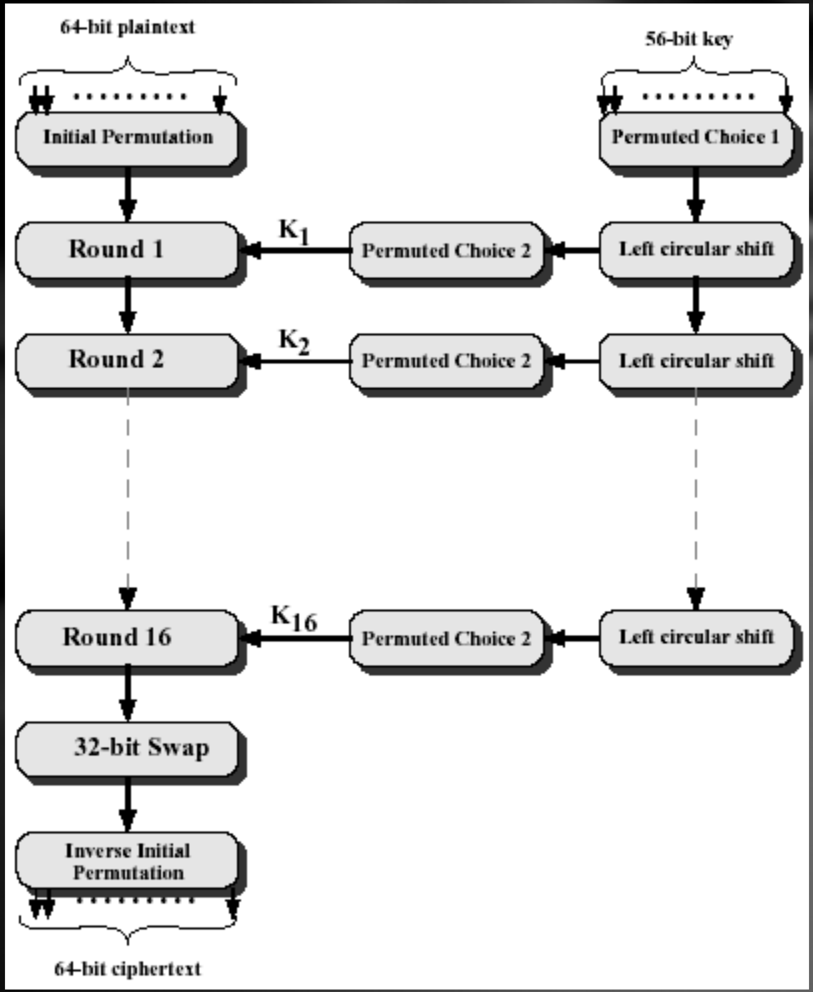
Data Encryption Standard, DES

- Adopted in 1977 by the National Bureau of Standards
- Widespread use at present
- Encrypted in 64-bit blocks
- Using a 56-bit key based on the Feistel structure

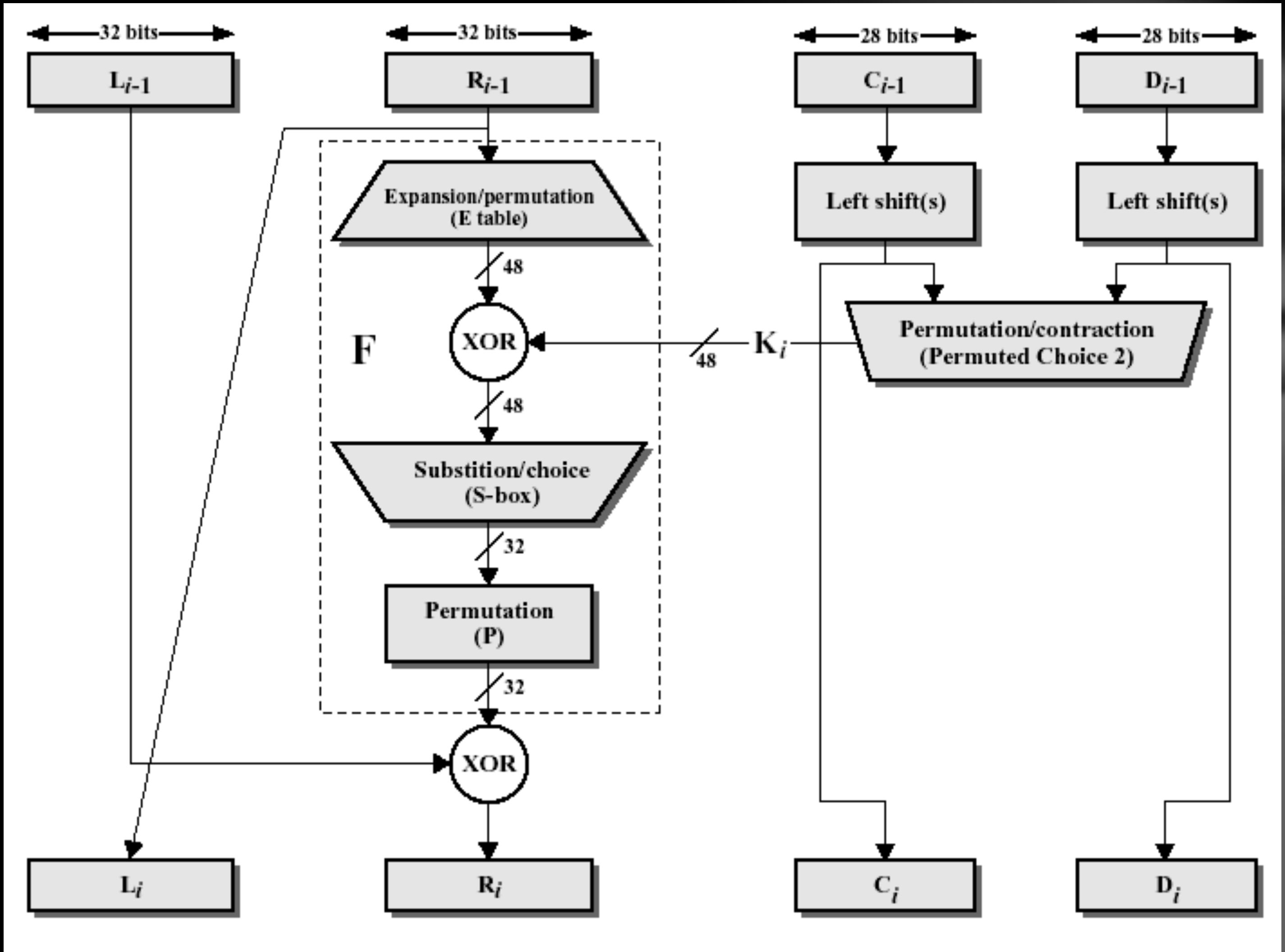
Characteristics of DES：

- Strong avalanche effect
- It has strong anti-crack strength and only can be attacked with the brute-force method.
- In the Internet age, it is not safe enough with only a 56-bit key.

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Data_Encryption_Standard



Single Round of DES Algorithm



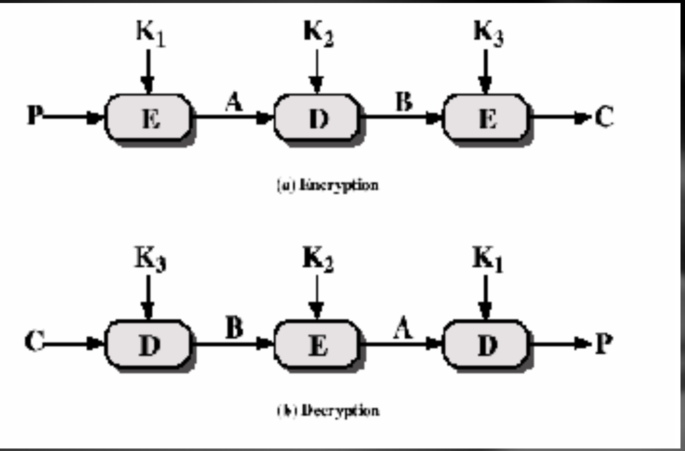
Cracking DES

- DES has excellent anti-crack performance. Secure for about 25 years.
  - estimated 2283 years, however
- Cracked in 1997
  - Key is only 56bits, 2^{56} = 72,057,584,037,927,936
  - Computing capability is increasing exponentially
  - Parallel attack – exhaustively search the keyspace
- 1997: Team led by Roche Verse using 70000 PCs connected to the Internet, 96 days
- 1998: EFF (Electronic Frontier Foundation) using a specially designed machine ($250,000), 3 days
- 1999: Using a supercomputer, only 22 hours.

Triple DES

- Encryption, Decryption, and Encryption
- to complete data encryption:

$$C = E_{K3}[D_{K2}[E_{K1}[P]]]$$



- C: Ciphertext; P: Plaintext

- Key size is up to 56 x 3 = 168
- Utilize K3 = K2 or K1 = K2 to provide backward compatibility for the DES algorithm
- Adopted for Internet applications, e.g., PGP and S/MIME
- http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Triple_DES

Other Symmetric Key Cryptography

- **International Data Encryption Algorithm(IDEA)**
  - Designed by Sweden Royal Institute of Technology (KTH), James Massey and Lai Xuejia
  - Based on Feistel cipher structure， 64bits block, 128bits key
  - Adopted by PGP (Pretty Good Privacy)
  - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/International_Data_Encryption_Algorithm
- **Blowfish Algorithm**
  - Invented by American cryptologist Bruce Schneier in 1993;
  - Based on the Feistel cipher structure, encrypting both two parts of data in each round. S box depends on the key and is harder to decipher; key size is from 32bit to 448bit
  - Easy to implement, fast to encryption, and can run below 5k memory!
  - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Blowfish_(cipher)
- **RC5**
  - Invented by MIT Prof. Ronald L. Rivest in 1994
  - Only use common preliminary computing operations, satisfied for both hardware and software implementation
  - Easy and fast implementation
  - RC5-w/r/b, and w/r/b are all parameters
    - w: word size 16/32/64, satisfied for different CPU
    - r: number of rounds (0 to 255)
    - b: key size (0 to 2040)
  - Cost low memory, excellent security
  - http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RC5

New International Encryption Standard —— AES

- **Advanced Encryption Standard, the promulgation of the new US Encryption Standard in 2001**
  - Adopted Rijndael Algorithm proposed by Belgian scientists Joan Daemen and Vincent Rijmen
  - Replace DES and 3DES to overcome the following disadvantages of 3DES:
    - 3DES is slowly implemented by software method
    - Block size is only 64bits
- **Characteristics of AES :**
  - Block size: 128bits
  - Key size: 128/192/256 bits
  - Immune to all known attacks
  - Execution fast and code compactness on every platform
  - Simple design

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Advanced_Encryption_Standard

Mode of Operation

A block cipher is only suitable for the secure cryptographic transformation (encryption or decryption) of one fixed-length group of bits called a "block."

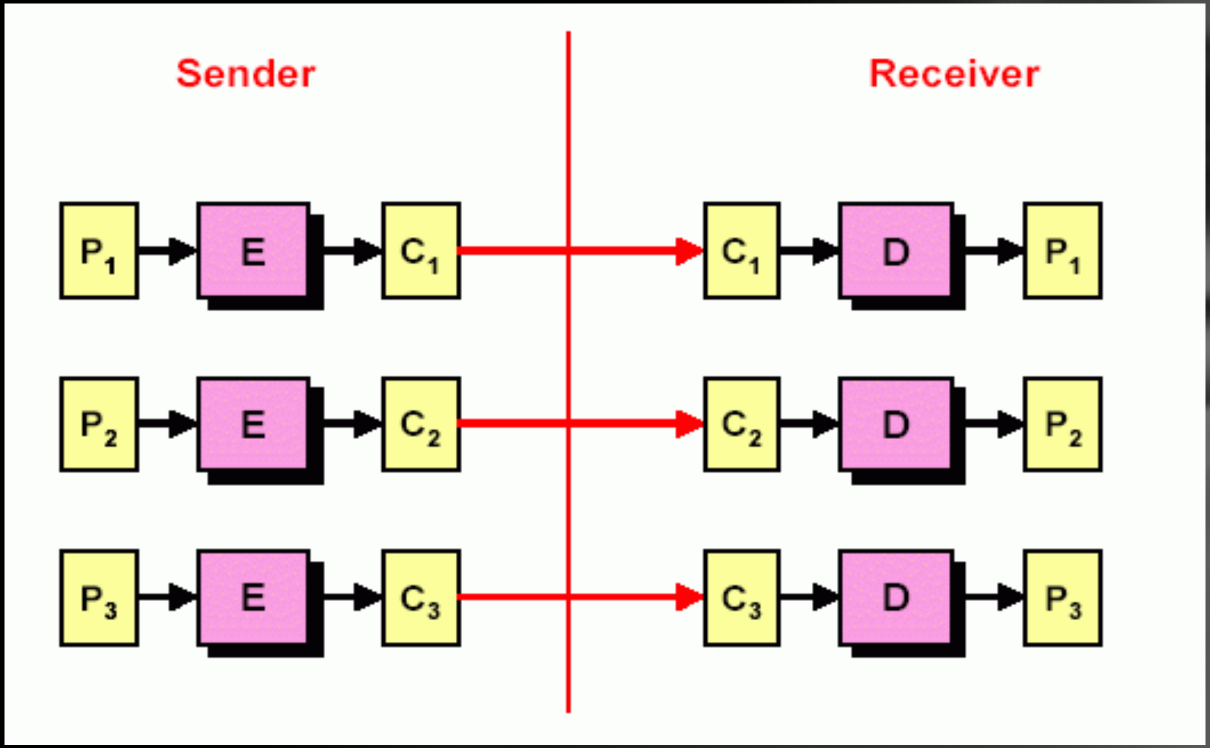
A mode of operation describes how to repeatedly apply a cipher's single-block operation to transform amounts of data larger than a block securely.

- Electronic Codebook (ECB)
- Cipher-block chaining (CBC)
- Propagating cipher-block chaining (PCBC)
- Cipher Feedback (CFB)
- Output feedback (OFB)
- Counter (CTR)

We will address ECB and CBC. For more information, please refer to: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Block_cipher_mode_of_operation

ECB

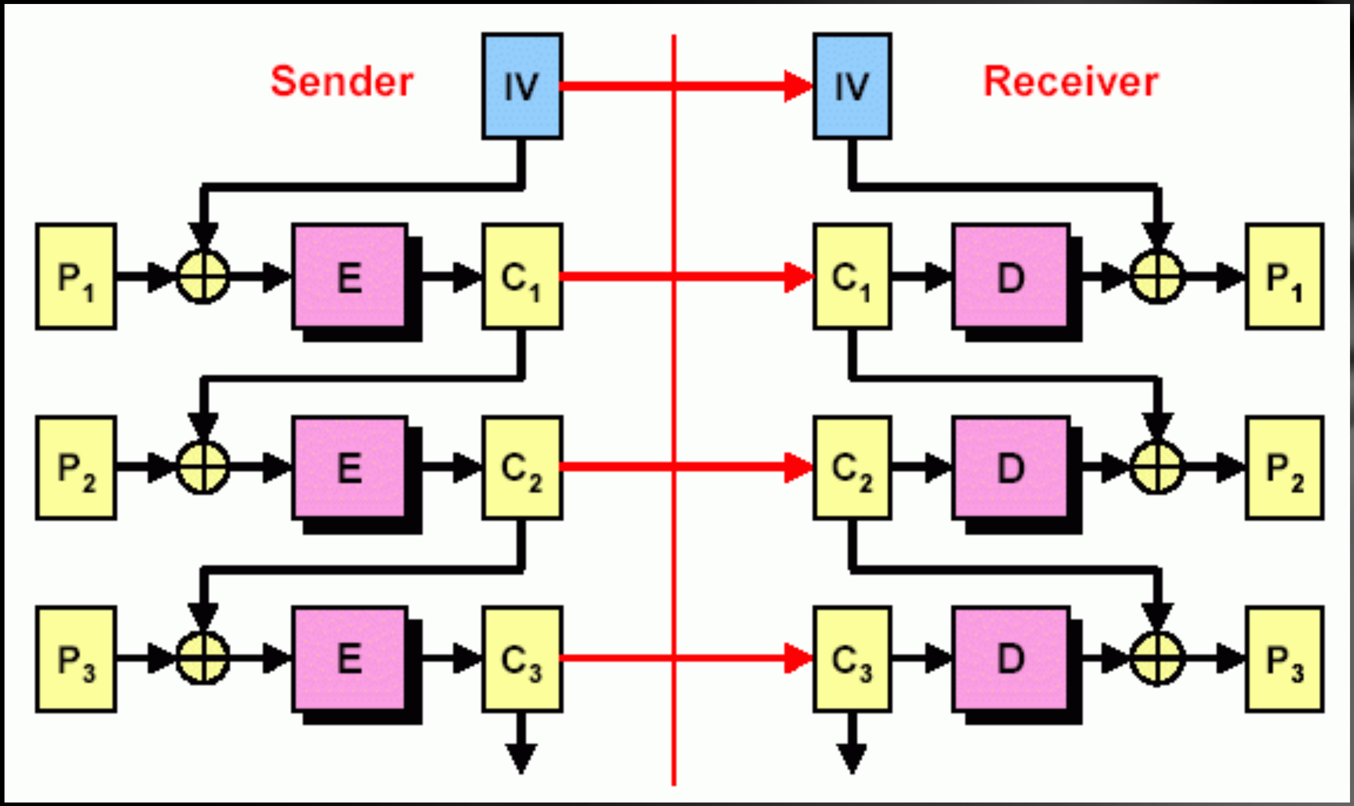
for block ciphers of a long digital sequence



If an attacker thinks block C_2 corresponds to \$ amount, then substitute another C_k (ciphertext-only attacks)

Attackers can also build a codebook of <C_k, guessed P_k> pairs (chosen plaintext attacks). Replay Attacks?

CBC

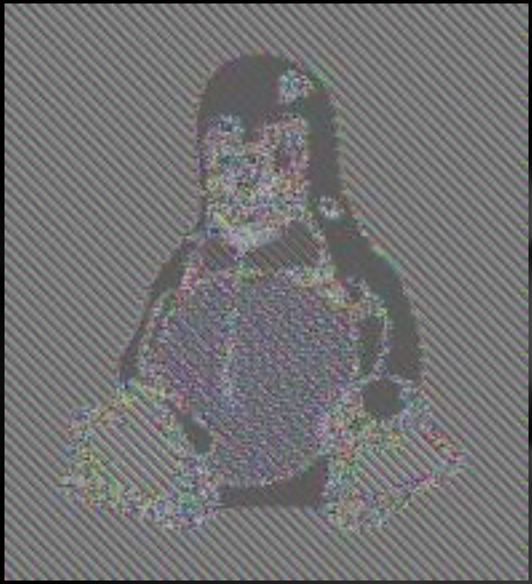


Inhibits replay attacks and codebook building: identical input plaintext $P_i = P_k$ won't result in the same output code due to memory-based chaining

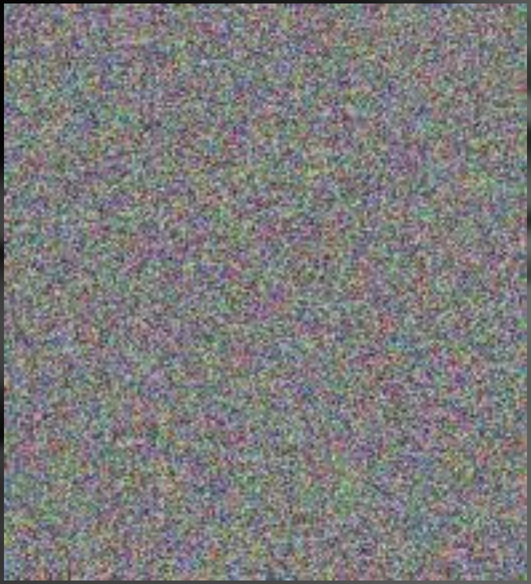
IV = Initialization Vector – use only once

Different Mode of Operations

Original Image

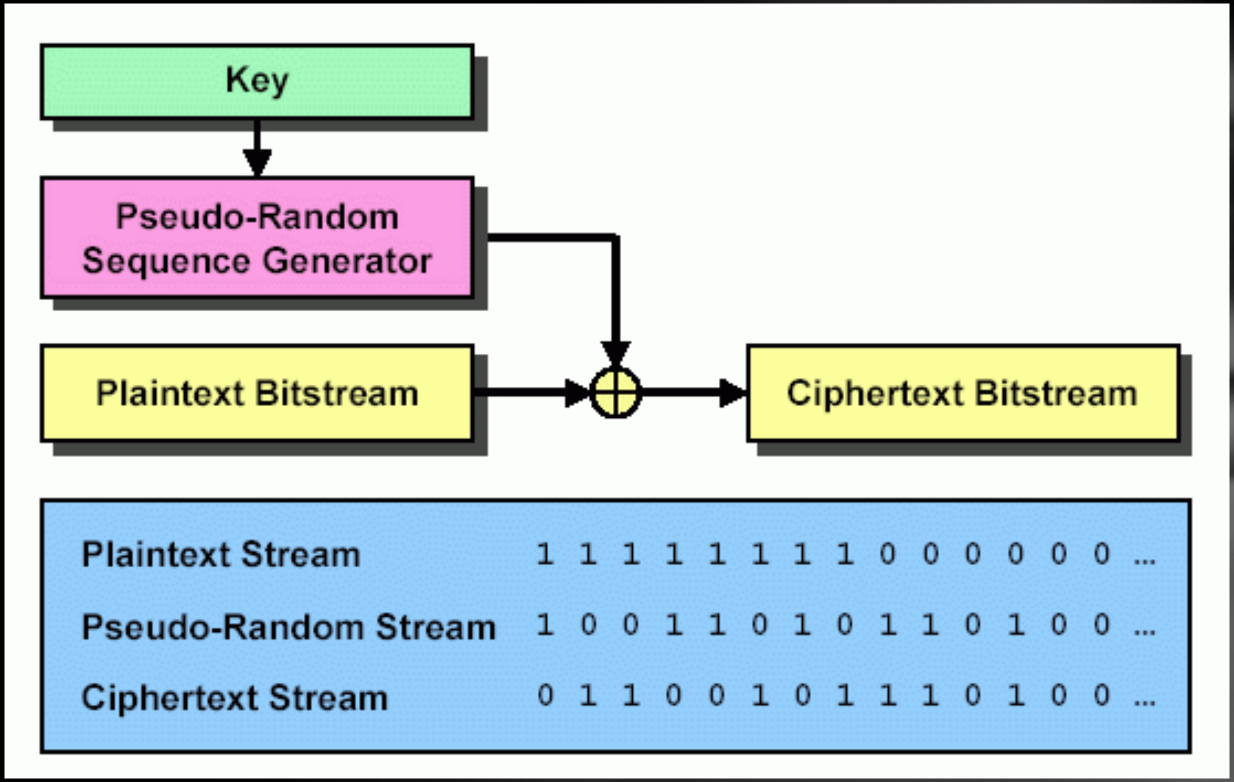


Encrypting using ECB



Encrypting using other modes

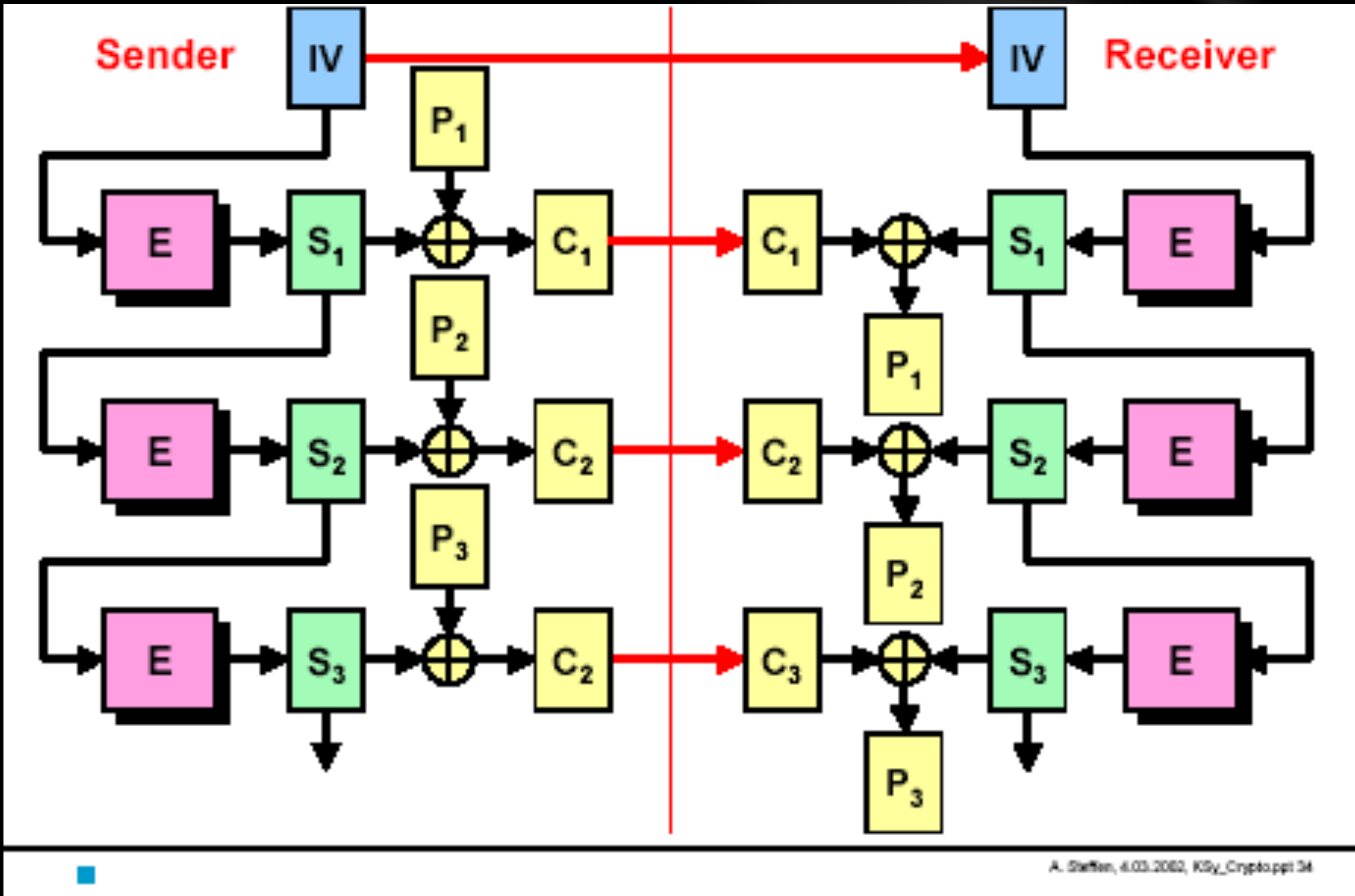
Beyond Block Ciphers, Stream Cipher



Rather than divide the bit stream into discrete blocks, as block ciphers do, XOR each bit of your plaintext continuous stream with a bit from a pseudo-random sequence.

Use the same symmetric key, XOR, again to extract plaintext at the receiver.

Beyond Block Ciphers, Stream Cipher



The Key Distribution Problem

- **According to Kerckhoffs's principle, the key is most important!**
  - For symmetric encryption, the key should be shared, and how to share the key?
- **For symmetric encryption, key distribution is as follows：**
  - A can select a key and physically deliver it to B
  - A third party can choose the key and physically return it to A and B
  - If A and B have previously and recently used a key, one party can transmit the new key to the other, encrypted using the old key.
  - If A and B have an encrypted connection to a third party C, C can deliver a key on the encrypted links to A and B.
- Typical solution—— Key Distribution Center(KDC)
- Can this ensure confidentiality?

Public Key Cryptography

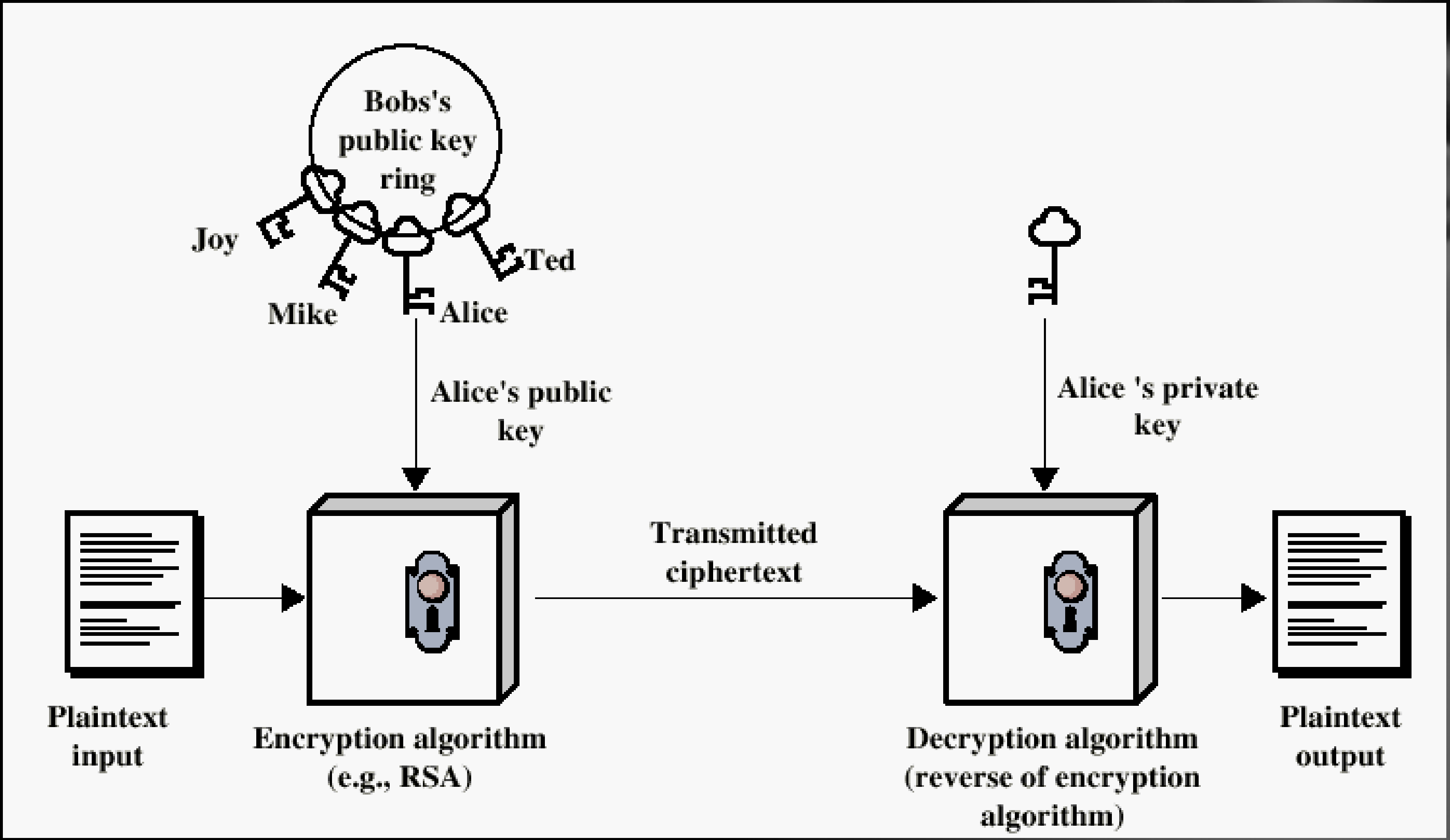
The greatest revolution in the history of cryptography ……

Existing problem of Secret Key Cryptography

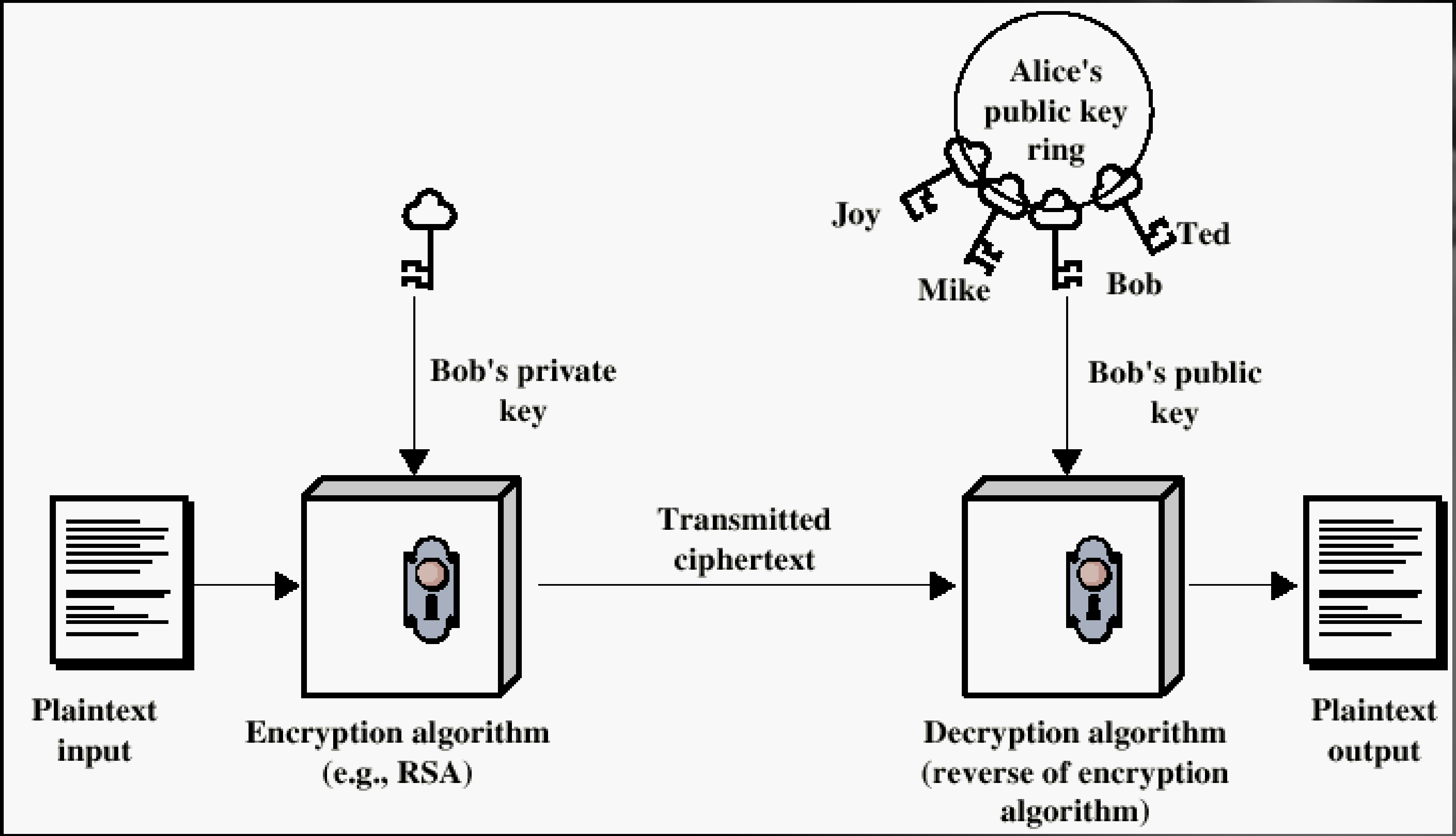
Alice sends an unpublished paper to Bob by Email:

- Problem 1: Alice does not want others except Bob to read her paper
  - Alice needs to encrypt her paper, but how can she tell the password to Bob?
  - If she emails the password, anyone who captures all the emails between Alice and Bob can read the unpublished paper.
- Problem 2: If Bob plagiarizes and publishes the paper, Alice should be able to prove Bob's plagiarism

Model of Public Key Cryptosystem —— for Secrecy



Model of Public Key Cryptosystem —— for Authentication



Principle of Public Key

- **A public key model consists of six elements：**
  - Plaintext
  - Public key KU
  - Private key KR
  - Encryption Algorithm
  - Ciphertext
  - Decryption Algorithm
- The key for a successful public key system is to find a one-way function (Calculating the result of the function is easy, but the inverse computing is infeasible)
  - We will cover this issue later.

Requirements of Public Key Cryptography

- It is computationally easy for party B to generate a pair (public key KU_b, private key KR_b).
  - Ensure: key generation is easy!
- It is computationally easy for sender A to encrypt.
  - Ensure: Encryption is acceptable in time!
- It is computationally easy for the receiver B to decrypt
  - Ensure: Decryption is acceptable in time!
- It is computationally infeasible for an attacker, knowing the public key, Ku_b, to determine the private key $KR_{b.}$
- Knowing only the public key KU_b and the ciphertext C, it is still computationally infeasible for an attacker to recover the original message M.
- Cipher pairs can be exchanged.
  - Ensure: can be used both in encryption or in signature.

Development of Public Key Cryptography

- Diffie & Hellman proposed the thought of public key cryptography in "New Directions in Cryptography" for the first time in 1976.
  - IEEE TRANSACTIONS ON INFORMATION THEORY, 22(6), NOVEMBER. 1976
  - http://www-ee.stanford.edu/~hellman/publications/24.pdf
- Rivest, Shamir & Adleman proposed the RSA algorithm in 1977.
  - "A METHOD FOR OBTAINING DIGITAL SIGNATURES AND PUBLIC-KEY CRYPTOSYSTEMS"
  - COMMUNICATION OF THE ACM, 21 (2): 120–126, 1978
  - http://people.csail.mit.edu/rivest/Rsapaper.pdf
- Other public key cryptography appeared.
  - ElGamal Algorithm (By Taher ElGamal, 1985)
    - "A Public-Key Cryptosystem and a Signature Scheme Based on Discrete Logarithms." IEEE Transactions on Information Theory 31 (4): 469–472, 1985
    - http://caislab.kaist.ac.kr/lecture/2010/spring/cs548/basic/B02.pdf
  - Elliptic Curves Algorithm （ By Neal Koblitz and Victor S. Miller, 1985）
    - "Elliptic curve cryptosystems." Mathematics of Computation 48 (177): 203–209.
    - "Use of elliptic curves in cryptography." CRYPTO 85: 417–426.

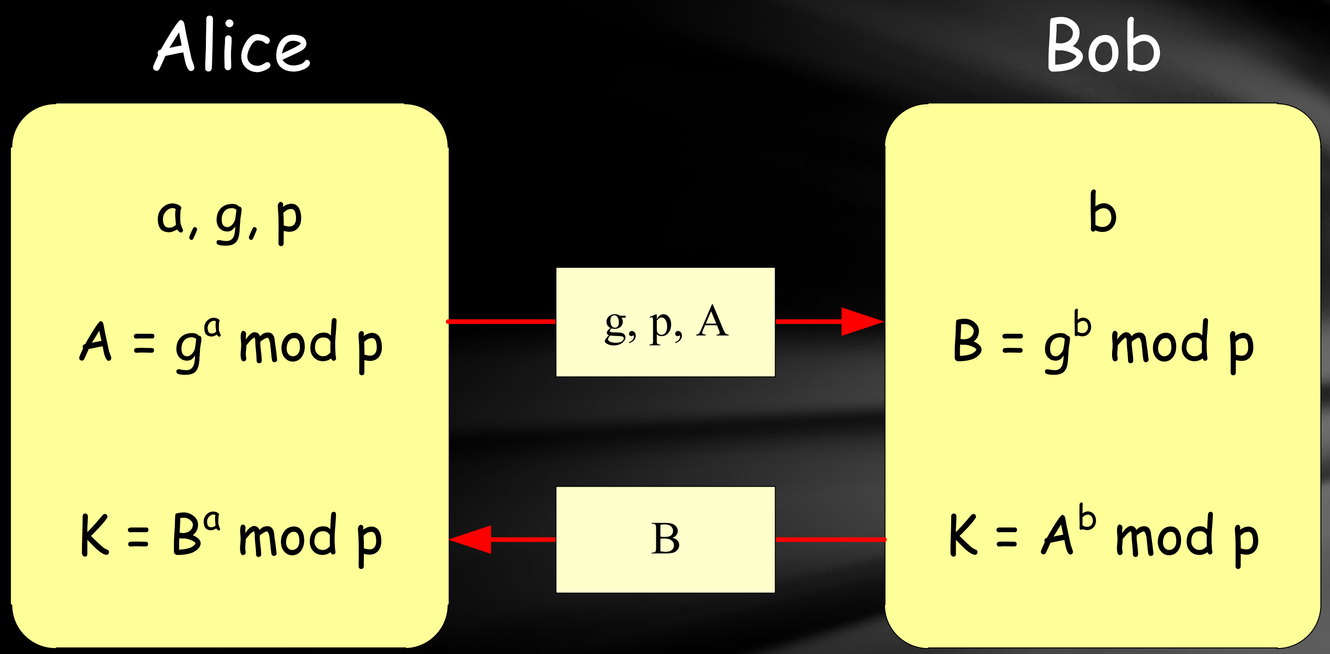
Diffie-Hellman Algorithm

- For a prime number *p* and an integer *g* :
  - g is a primitive root （原根） of p, if g mod p, g^2 mod p, ……, g^{p-1} mod p are different integers and include all integers from 1 to p-1.
  - For any **integer A** (0 ≤ A ≤ p-1), we can find only **exponent a** let
    - A = g^a mod p (0≤a ≤p-1 , 0≤A ≤p-1)
    - We call the **exponent a** as A's discrete logarithm (离散对数) with base g and mod p
- Calculating the remainder of the power of an integer dividing a prime is relatively easy, but calculating the discrete logarithm is very hard:
  - When **p and g** are fixed, and p is big enough
    - given **a** to calculate **A** is easy
    - However, given **A** to calculate **a** is difficult

Diffie-Hellman Algorithm

- First, let's prove the formula :
  - **$g^{ab} \bmod p = (g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p = (g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p$**
  - Prove :
    - Let $g^a = n*p + i$, then: $g^a \bmod p = i$
    - $g^{ab} = (n*p + i)^b$ -> $g^{ab} \bmod p = (n*p + i)^b \bmod p = i^b \bmod p$
    - So, $g^{ab} \bmod p = (g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p$
    - Also, $g^{ab} \bmod p = (g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p$

Principle of Diffie-Hellman



$$K = A^b \bmod p = (g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p = g^{ab} \bmod p = (g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p = B^a \bmod p$$

A's private key： a， B's private key： b

A's public key： A， B's public key： B

Shared message： g, p

Session key： K

Example of Diffie-Hellman

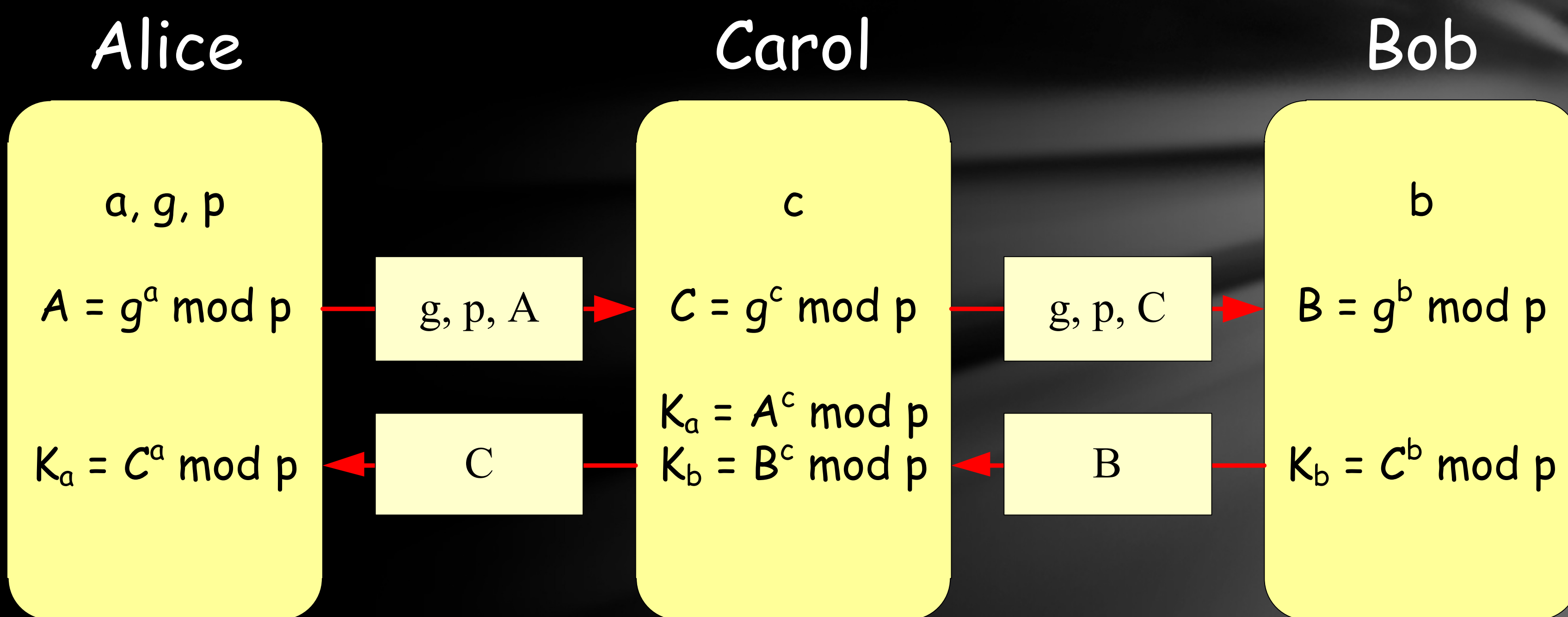
- Choose a prime number p = 353， primitive root g = 3
- Choose a private key a = 97， b = 233
- Computes public key in each：
  - A: $A = 3^{97} \bmod 353 = 40$
  - B: $B = 3^{233} \bmod 353 = 248$
- Computers key of exchanging in each：
  - A： $K = B^{a} \bmod 353 = (248)^{97} \bmod 353 = 160$
  - B： $K = A^{b} \bmod 353 = (40)^{233} \bmod 353 = 160$

Example of Diffie-Hellman

- Attention: The selection of **a, b, and p** will significantly affect the security of the algorithm
  - Simple brute force can easily find results if they are too small.
  - Generally, when using DH, p is at least a 300-digit prime number, and a and b are at least 100 digits.
  - Under this condition, even today, the best algorithms and the best computer cannot break this encryption algorithm in a meaningful time.
  - In the algorithm, g need not be huge. We commonly choose 2, 3, and 5 in practice.

Drawback of Diffie-Hellman

- It can only be used in key exchange (no plaintext/ciphertext)
- The Man-in-the-Middle Attack



RSA Algorithm

RSA is proposed by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman in MIT in 1977

One-way function: **large primes multiplication**.

- Multiplication is easy, but factorization is very difficult

Reference： http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA_(algorithm)

Mathematical foundation of RSA

Euler's totient function $\phi(n)$ is defined to be the number of positive integers less than n that are coprime to n

- If n is prime， $\phi(n) = n-1$
- If n is a composite number, it can be factorized as $n = \Pi p_i^{ai}$, $ai>0$, p_i is different, then： $\phi(n) = n(1-1/p_1)(1-1/p_2)\ldots(1-1/p_k)$
- For example： $20 = 2*2*5$, then:
  - $\phi(20) = 20*(1-1/2)*(1-1/5) = 8$
  - Integers from 1-19 which are coprime to 20, are:
    - 1,3,7,9,11,13,17,19. total 8

- If p and q are coprime, then $\phi(pq) = \phi(p)\phi(q)$

  In particular, if $p \neq q$ and both are prime, then $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$

Mathematical foundation of RSA

Euler's theorem (also known as the **Fermat–Euler theorem** or **Euler's totient theorem**): if n and a are coprime positive integers, then: $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

- Prove:
  - Define the set of all numbers less than n and coprime to it to be $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{\phi(n)}\}$, and consider a number c<n and coprime to it, i.e., $c \in \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{\phi(n)}\}$.
  - First, observe that for any a_i, $c*a_i \equiv a_j \pmod{n}$ for some j. (True, since c and a_i are themselves coprime to n, their product has to be coprime to n).
  - And if $c*a_i \equiv c*a_j \pmod{n}$, then $a_i = a_j$. (True as cancellation can be done since c is coprime to n).
  - **Hence, if we now consider the set $\{c*a_1, c*a_2, \ldots, c*a_{\phi(n)}\}$, this is just a (mod n) permutation of the set $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{\phi(n)}\}$.**
  - Thereby, we have: $\prod_{k=1..\phi(n)} c*a_k \equiv \prod_{k=1..\phi(n)} a_k \pmod{n}$
  - Hence, we also get: $c^{\phi(n)} * \prod_{k=1..\phi(n)} a_k \equiv \prod_{k=1..\phi(n)} a_k \pmod{n}$
  - Since $\prod_{k=1..\phi(n)} a_k$ is coprime to n, and hence you can cancel them on both sides to get: $c^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, whenever c coprime to n.

Mathematical foundation of RSA

- **Fermat Little Theorem**
  - If p is prime, for any integer a: $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$
    - Example :
      $5^2 \bmod 2 = 25 \bmod 2 = 1 = 5 \bmod 2$
      $5^3 \bmod 3 = 125 \bmod 3 = 2 = 5 \bmod 3$
  - If a is a positive integer not divisible by p, then: $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
    - Prove:
      - It is a special case of the Euler Theorem $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
      - If p is prime, $\phi(p) = p-1$.
      - So $a^{\phi(p)} = a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

RSA – Key Generation & Encryption/Decryption

Bob generates key pair, keeps his private key, and sends the public key to Alice

- Choose two prime p and q (at least 100 digits), Multiplies p and q： $n = p * q$
- Finds out two numbers e & d such that ：
  - e and (p-1)(q-1) are co-prime, and $1 < e$ & $d < (p-1)(q-1)$
  - $e * d \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
- Publish (e, n) as the public key on the Public key directory, and keep d as the private key.

Alice has to encrypt plaintext m （m must be smaller than n） to c and send it to Bob：

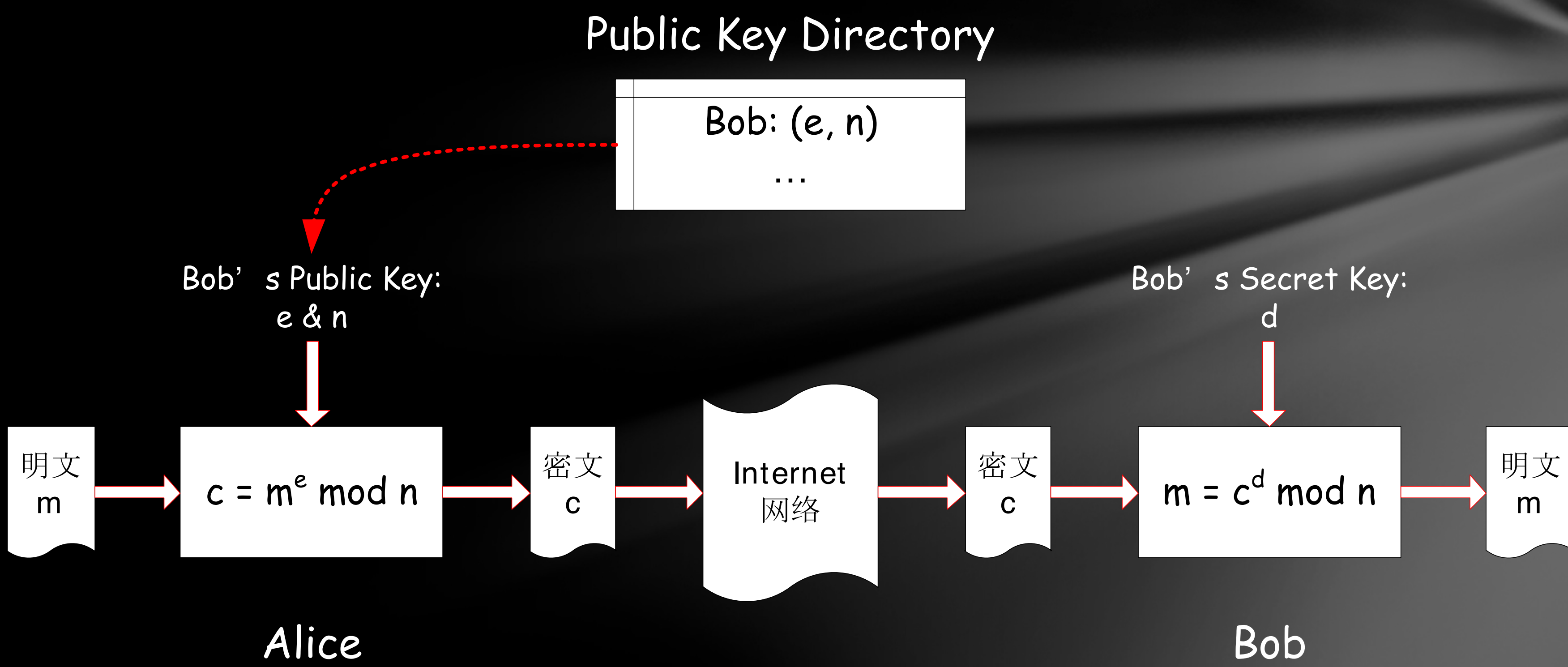
- First, find Bob's public key (e, n), and calculate： $c = m^e \bmod n$
- Sends cipher c to Bob

Bob receives cipher c, decrypts, and gets plaintext m：

- Use private key d to calculate： $m = c^d \bmod n$

RSA – Key Generation & Encryption/Decryption

Alice want to send message m to Bob:



Principle of RSA —— Why RSA is Correct?

- 1. $c^d = (m^e \bmod n)^d \equiv m^{ed} \pmod n$
- 2. If m & n coprime:
  - From Euler Thereom: $m^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$
  - $c^d \equiv m^{ed} \pmod n = m^{h\phi(n)+1} \pmod n \equiv m \pmod n$
- 3. Otherwise:
  - From Requirement of key generation:
    - $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ ->
    - $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)}$ and $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(q-1)}$
  - That is: $ed = k(p-1) + 1$ and $ed = h(q-1) + 1$
- 4. If m is not a multiple of p, then m and p are co-prime,
  - According to Fermat Little Theorem: $m^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p$
  - $m^{ed} = m^{k(p-1)+1} = (m^{p-1})^k m \equiv 1^k m \pmod p = m \pmod p$
- 5. If m is a multiple of p, then: $m^{ed} \bmod p = 0 \equiv m \pmod p$
- 6. Synthesize 4 and 5: $m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod p$, and: $m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod q$
- 7. Since p and q are prime, $m^{ed} - m$ is divisible by pq, we have: $m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{pq}$
- 8. Since n=pq, according to 1, we get: $c^d \equiv m^{ed} \pmod n \equiv m \pmod n$

Requirement of key generation:

- $n = pq$, $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$

Encryption:

- $c = m^e \bmod n$

Decryption:

- $m = c^d \bmod n$

RSA Example (1)

- Bob choose two prime p = 5, q = 11, then n = p*q = 55
  - (p-1)(q-1) = 4*10 = 40
  - Find two numbers: e = 3, d = 27 and： $3 * 27 \equiv 1 \pmod{40}$
  - So： Bob's public key is : (3, 55), private key is： 27
- Alice sends message m = 13 to Bob：
  - Receive Bob's public key(3,55), and calculates： $c = m^e \bmod n = 13^3 \bmod 55 = 2197 \bmod 55 = 52$
  - Send cipher c = 52 to Bob。
- Bob receives message c = 52：
  - With private key 27, calculate： $m = c^d \bmod n = 52^{27} \bmod 55 = 13$

RSA Example (2)

- Bob choose two prime p = 101, q = 113, then n = p*q = 11413
  - (p-1)(q-1) = 100*112 = 11200
  - Find two numbers: e = 3533, d = 6597 which： 3533 * 6597 ≡ 1 (mod 11200)
  - So： Bob's pubic key: (3533, 11413)， Bob's private key： 6597
- **Alice sends message m = 9726 to Bob：**
  - Receive Bob's private key (3533,11413), and calculate： $c = m^e \bmod n = 9726^{3533} \bmod 11413 = 5761$
  - Send ciphertext c = 5761 to Bob。
- Bob receives message c = 5761：
  - With private key 6597， calculate： $m = c^d \bmod n = 5761^{6597} \bmod 11413 = 9726$

Is RSA Secure?

- **Attack scenarios：**
  - Marvin wants to get the information m from Alice to Bob, which is supposed to be seen by Bob only;
  - Alice uses RSA with Bob’s public key (e,n) and encrypts plaintext m to ciphertext $c = m^e \bmod n$;
  - Marvin is a determined attacker, and he managed to intercept the communication between Alice and Bob and retrieved the ciphertext c;
  - Marvin also looked up the public key dictionary to get Bob’s public key (e, n) to help him in his attack.
  - Now, Begin……
- Marvin now has (c, e, n) and wants to find out m!

Is RSA Secure?

- Marvin now has (c, e, n) and wants to find out m!
  - **Approach 1: If Marvin could also discover Bob's private key d……He knows All~**
    - Suppose Bob guards his private key d very well; what can Marvin do then?
  - **Approach 2: Marvin knows that m is a number between 1 and n, so he could search brute-force**
    - But n is too large (as mentioned before, p and q are commonly 100 digits primes)
  - **Approach 3: Marvin can try to compute Bob's private key d from (e, n) and then use Approach 1**
    - $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$, Marvin found an efficient algorithm called "extended EUCLID algorithm" in a "Number Theory" book to solve the following problem: given two numbers (r, s), computes x such that
      - $r * x \equiv 1 \pmod{s}$.
    - Once n can be factorized to p and q, d can be easily found!
      - Note that this algorithm will be used to generate the (e,d) pair when generating the key pair.
- **Approach 3 is the most efficient known method to attack RSA!**

Is RSA Secure? —— factorization problem

The time taken for Marvin to attack in Approach 3 is essentially the time to factorize :

- Therefore, we say that RSA is based on the factorization problem: While it is easy to multiply large primes together, **it is computationally infeasible to factorize or split a large composite into its prime factors!**
- It is the "one-way function" of the RSA.

Is RSA Secure? —— factorization problem

Research of prime factorization algorithm：

- The largest factored RSA number is a 250-digit prime, RSA-250, in 2020.02
  - RSA-250 (250 digits, 829 bits) =
  - 2140324650240744961264423072839333563008614715144755017797754920881418023447
    140136643345519095804679610992851872470914587687396261921557363047454770520805119056493106687691590019759405693457452230589325976697471681738069364894699871578494975937497937
    =
    6413528947707158027879019017057738908482501474294344720811685963202453234463023862359875266834770873766192558569463979885336 7 ×
    3337202759497815655622601060535511422794076034476755466678452098702384172921003708025744867329688187756571898625803693206271 1

- The factorization of RSA-250 utilized approximately 2700 CPU core years, using a 2.1Ghz Intel Xeon Gold 6130 CPU as a reference.

Is RSA Secure? —— factorization problem

Research of prime factorization algorithm:

- RSA-1024 (309 digits, 1024 bits) =

  13506641086599522334960321627880596993888147560566702752448514385152651060
  48595338339402871505719094417982072821644715513736804197039641917430464965
  89274256239341020864383202110372958725762358509643110564073501508187510676
  59462920556368552947521350085287941637732853390610975054433499981115005697
  7236890927563

- Successful factorization of RSA-1024 will have significant security implications for many users of the RSA algorithm; NIST has "deprecated" 1024-bit RSA since 2011, with the recommendation switching to "disallowed" starting in 2014.
- However, RSA-2048, the largest RSA number, may not be factorizable for many years to come unless considerable advances are made in integer factorization or computational power shortly.
- RSA-2048 (617 digits, 2048 bits) =

  2519590847565789349402718324004839857142928212620403202777713783604366202070
  7595556264018525880784406918290641249515082189298559149176184502808489120072
  8449926873928072877767359714183472702618963750149718246911650776133798590957
  0009733045974880842840179742910064245869181719511874612151517265463228221686
  9987549182422433637259085141865462043576798423387184774447920739934236584823
  8242811981638150106748104516603773060562016196762561338441436038339044149526
  3443219011465754445417842402092461651572335077870774981712577246796292638635
  6373289912154831438167899885040445364023527381951378636564391212010397122822120720357

Is RSA Secure?

- Marvin never gives up! He cannot discover the key passively but can use active attack! (active attack vs. passive attack）
- Approach 4 ：
  - Marvin generates an RSA key pair of his own
    - Public key： Kpub_* = (n_*, e_*)， Private key： Ksec_* = d_*
    - Marvin sends a mail to Alice in the name "Bob"：
    - Dear Alice，
    - Please send mail to me with my new public key Kpub_*
    - Yours sincerely, Bob
    - Alice follows, sending mail to Bob encrypted by Kpub_*, and Marvin can decrypt by Ksec_*!

Is RSA Secure?

Why can Approach 4 be successful?

- Wicked Marvin cheats on naïve Alice!
- Alice uses fake Bob's public key (it's Marvin's)!

How to counter the attack?

- Before Alice sends the ciphertext to Bob, she must ensure that Bob's public key is correct.
- Alice needs to verify the correctness of all the information which informs Bob's key.
- Except for Bob, no one can create a message that can pass the verification by Alice!
- This leads Message Integrity problem:

Alice and Bob must avoid "Bob's key" being forged or distorted by attackers.

The tool of cryptography to solve this problem is "Digital Signatures."

Public Key Cryptography

- **Public key cryptography is the greatest revolution in the history** of cryptography; It may be the **ONLY** revolution.
  - Public key encryption algorithms rely on mathematical functions instead of substitution or transposition.
  - Public key cryptography is asymmetric, using two different keys.

- **Public Key Cryptosystems Used in Three Domains:**
  - **Encryption/Decryption**: the sender encrypts a message with the recipient's public key.
    - Solve the key distribution problem (independent of KDC), corresponding to the previous problem 1
  - **Digital signature**: The sender "signs" a message with its private key.
    - Solve the digital signature problem, corresponding to problem 2
  - **Key exchange**: two sides cooperate in exchanging a session key.

Major Differences with Secret Key Ciphers

- The public key used for encryption differs from the private key used for decryption.
  - It is infeasible for an attacker to find the private key from the public key.
  - Thus, there is no need for Alice & Bob to distribute a shared secret key beforehand!
  - Only one pair of public and private keys is required for each user! No matter how many communication counterparties there are.
- It is also called the "asymmetric key" algorithm instead of the "symmetric key" algorithm.

Symmetric vs. Asymmetric ciphers

- **Symmetric ciphers:**
  - Pros: cheap and fast； Low-cost VLSI chips available.
  - Cons: key distribution is a problem！
- **Asymmetric ciphers:**
  - Pros: Key distribution is NOT a problem!
  - Cons: Relatively expensive and slow; VLSI chips are unavailable or relatively expensive.
- **In practice:**
  - Use a public key cipher (such as RSA) to distribute key
  - Use a private key cipher (such as AES) to encrypt and decrypt messages
- 另外，需要澄清的两个常见误解：
  - **公开密钥加密在防范密码攻击上比常规加密更安全。**
    - 实际上，两者都依赖于密钥长度和解密的计算工作量，从抗密码分析的角度分析，互相之间都不比对方优越
  - **公开密钥加密使得常规加密过时。**
    - 实际上，公开密钥加密在计算上相对的巨大开销，使得公开密钥加密更多地用于密钥管理和数字签名应用

Review

- **Symmetric/Secret Key Cryptography**
  - Fundamentals and model
  - Feistel cipher structure and DES cryptography
  - Existing problems of Symmetric/Secret Key Cryptography
- **Asymmetric/Public Key Cryptography**
  - Fundamentals and model
  - DH Algorithm： Methods and issues
  - RSA Algorithm： Methods
- **Compare and combination of Symmetric and Asymmetric cryptography**