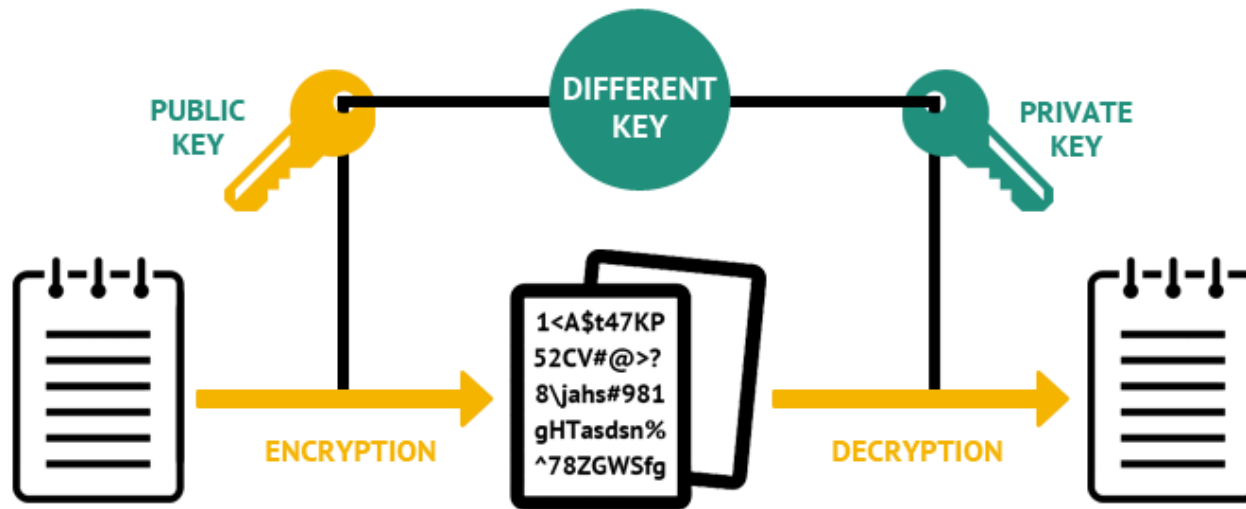
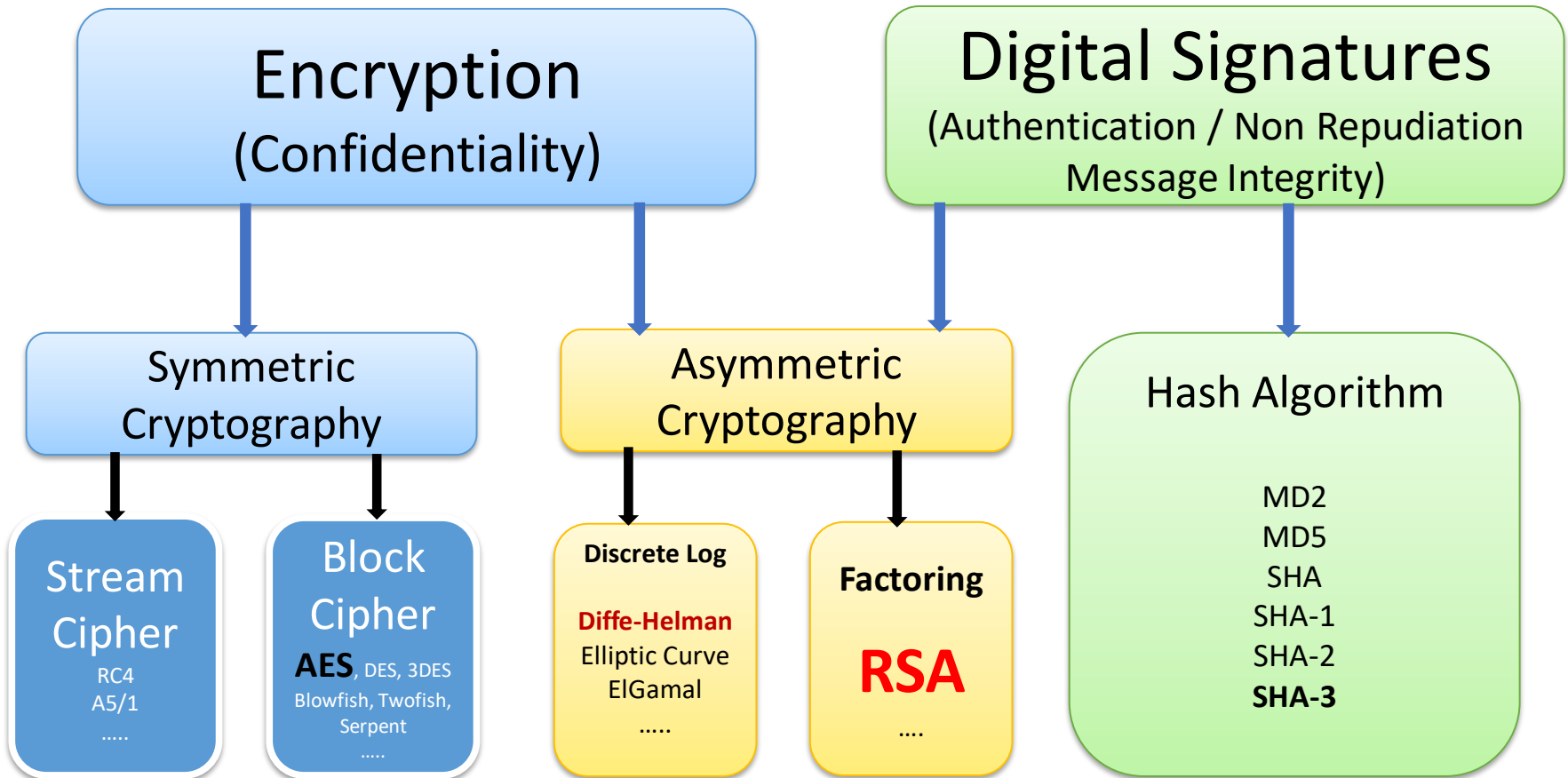


# Asymmetric Cryptography

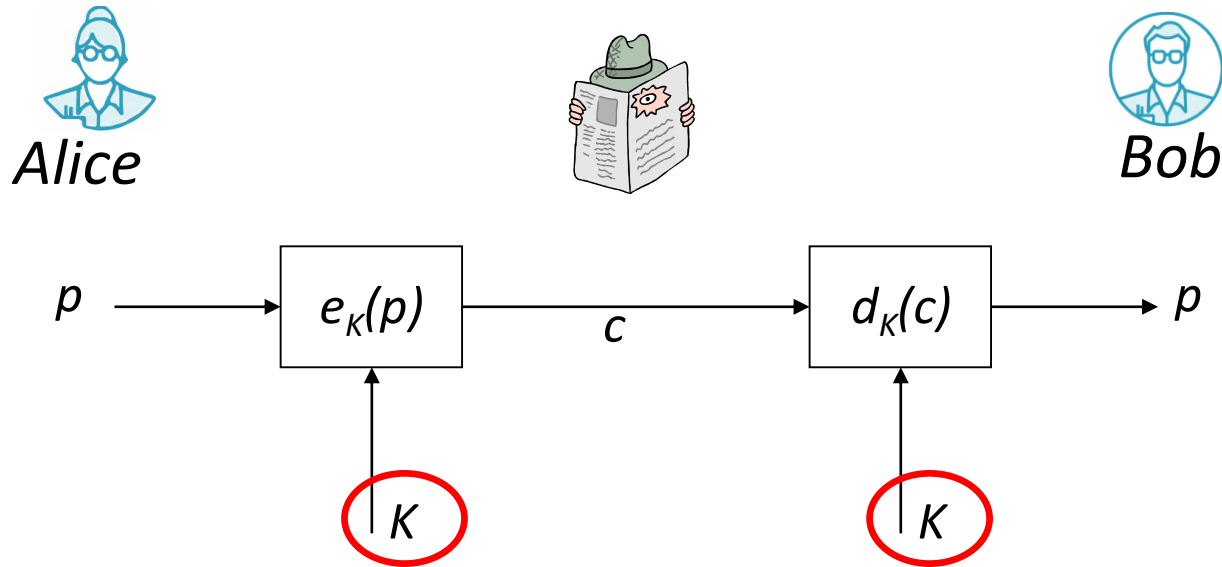




# Current Cryptographic Standards



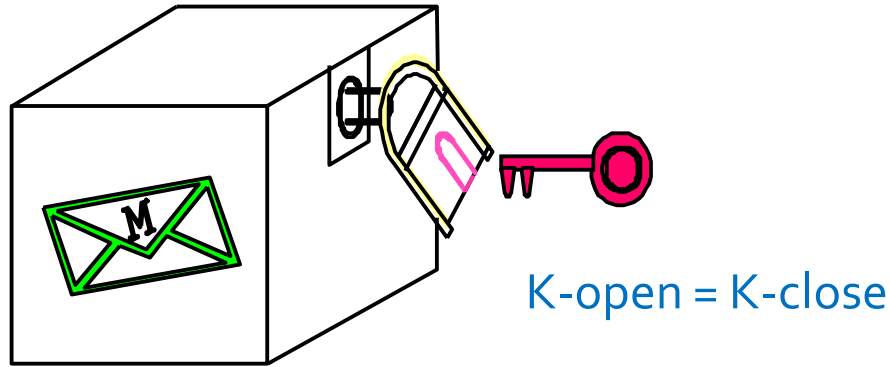
# Cryptography revisited



Two properties of symmetric (secret-key) crypto-systems:

- The **same secret key  $K$**  is used for encryption and decryption
- Encryption and Decryption are very similar (or even identical) functions

# Symmetric Cryptography: Analogy



Safe with a strong lock, only Alice and Bob have a copy of the key

- Alice encrypts → locks message in the safe with her key
- Bob decrypts → uses his copy of the key to open the safe

- Open and close using **shared secret keys**
- Secret key agreement required !

# Symmetric Cryptography: Analogy



Alice

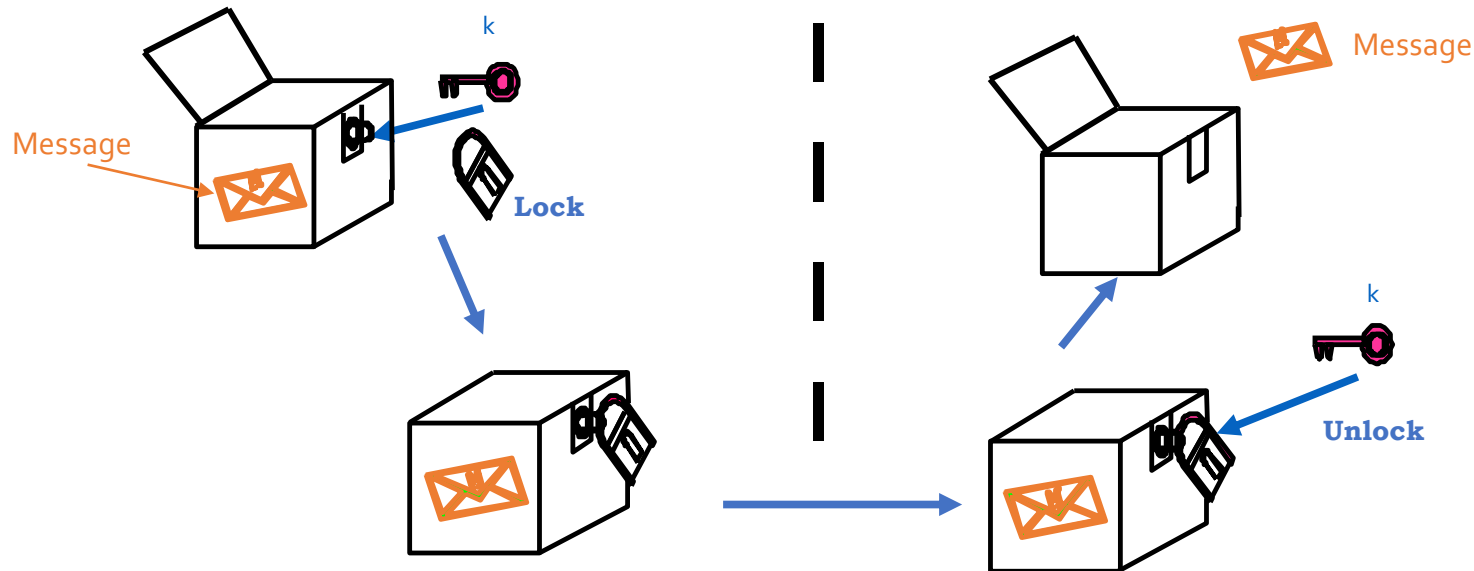


Bob

Shared Key =  $k$

Secret key agreement

Shared Key =  $k$

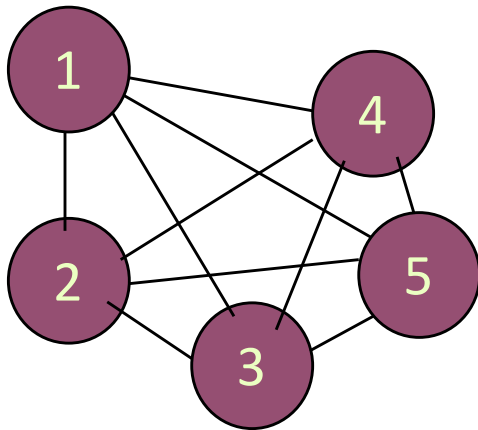


# Symmetric Cryptography Shortcomings

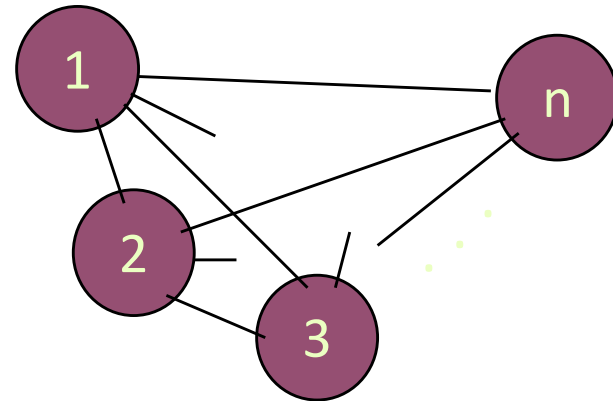
- Key distribution problem: The secret key must be **exchanged securely**
  - Establish a shared key with each entity we want to communicate with
- Number of keys: In a network, each pair of users requires an individual key
  - $n$  users in the network require  $\frac{n \cdot (n - 1)}{2}$  keys, each user stores  $(n-1)$  keys
- No support for message **integrity**: verifying that a message comes intact from the sender
- No support for “**non-repudiation**”
  - **Example**: Alice can claim that she never ordered a TV on-line from Bob (he could have fabricated her order)

# Symmetric Cryptography Shortcomings

Question: How many secret-keys needed to be exchanged in order to set up a system of n-users?



10 key-exchanges for 5 users



$\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$  keys for n users

For 10 000 users we need 50 million key-exchanges !

Public-Key system **drops out** the secret key-agreement completely


# Idea behind Asymmetric Cryptography



**New Idea:**

Use the “good old mailbox” principle:

**Everyone** can drop a letter

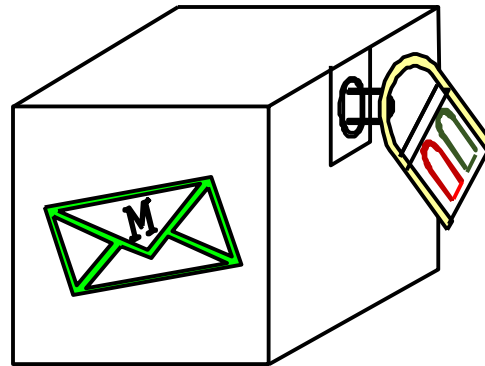
**But: Only the owner** has the correct key  to open the box







# Asymmetric Cryptography: Analogy

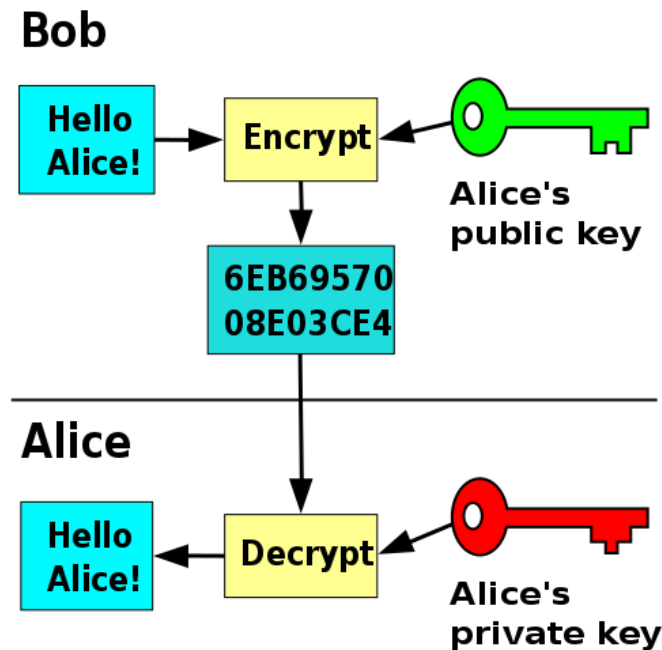


**K-lock (public)**

**K-unlock (private)**

- Lock and Unlock with different keys!!
- No Secret Key Agreement required

# Asymmetric Cryptography



→ **Key Exchange Problem** solved

→ Anyone can encrypt messages using the **public key**, but only the holder of the **paired private key** can decrypt. Security depends on the secrecy of the private key.

→ During the key generation, a key pair  $K_{pub}$  and  $K_{pr}$  is computed

# Public Key Cryptography Applications

The asymmetric cryptography (e.g., RSA) is mainly used for:

- **Key Exchange** without a pre-shared secret (key)
- **Digital Signatures** to provide message integrity and non-repudiation

Rarely used for:

- **Encryption** because it is computationally very intensive (1000 times slower than symmetric Algorithms!)

# Hybrid Crypto System

In practice, **hybrid system** is used incorporating both asymmetric and symmetric algorithms:

1. **Key exchange** and **digital signatures** are performed with (slow) **asymmetric** algorithms
2. **Encryption** of data is done using (fast) symmetric ciphers, e.g., **block ciphers or stream ciphers**

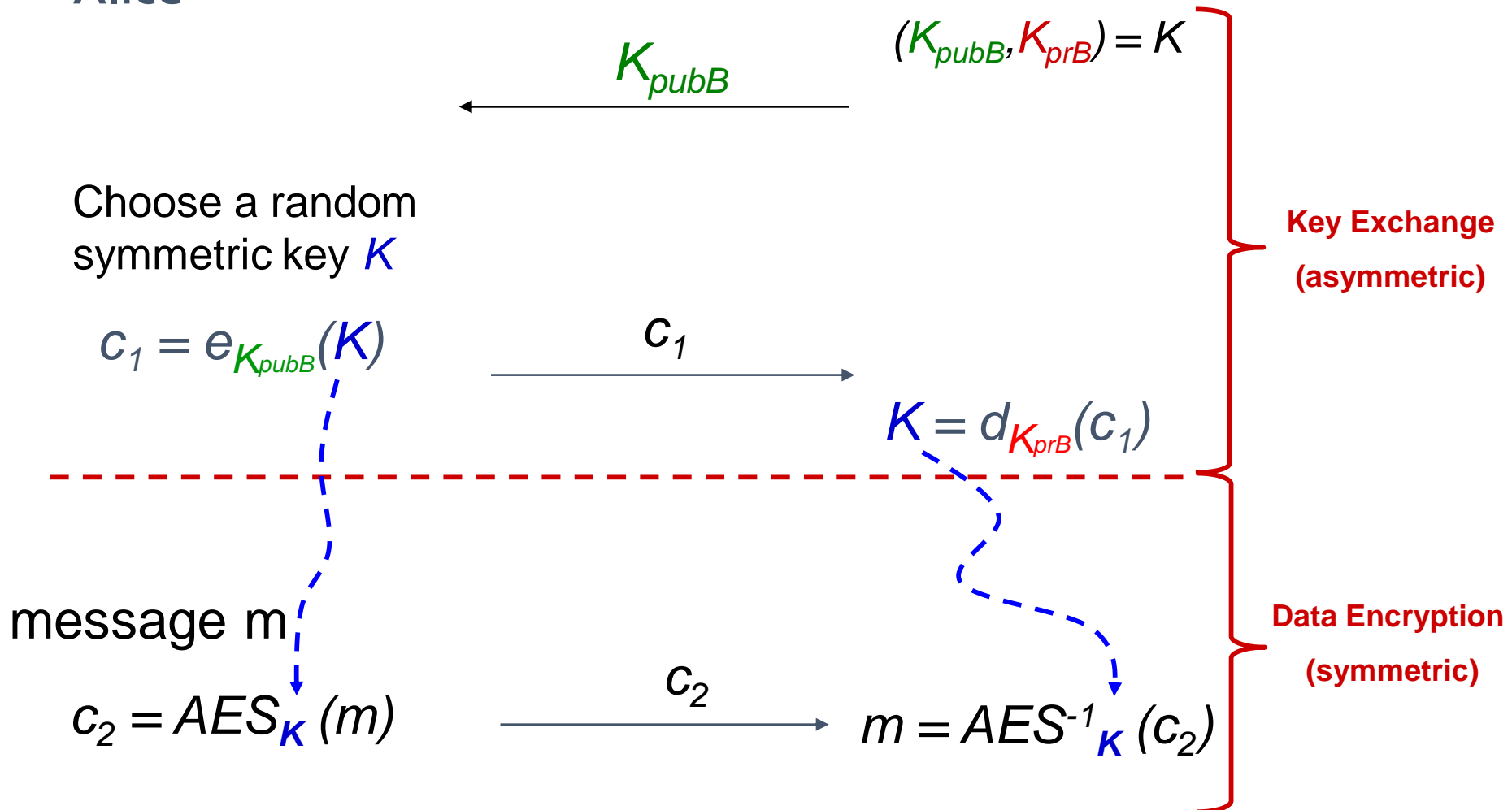
# Hybrid Crypto System – Example



Alice



Bob



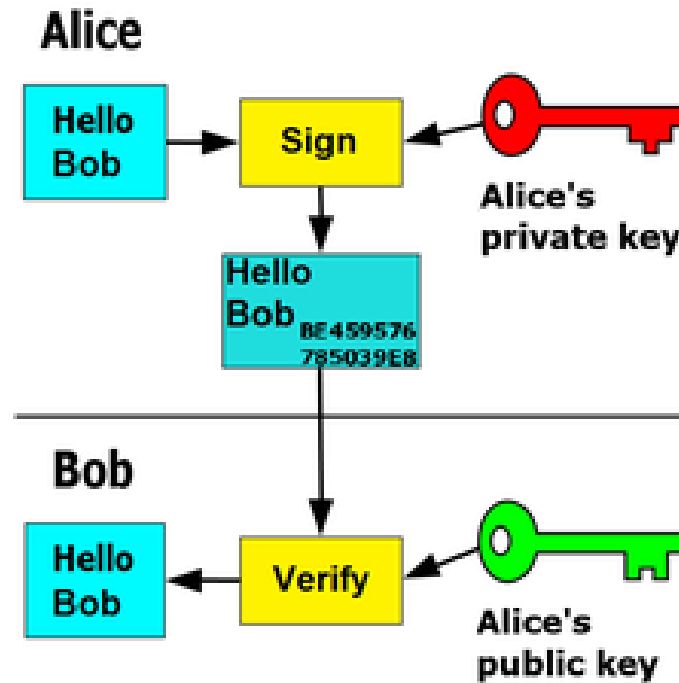
AES used as the symmetric cipher

# Key Exchange with Public Key Crypto

- Alice creates a secret key, encrypts it with Bob's public key and sends it off
- Bob decrypts the message with his private key
- Use shared key for further communication
- This is how many applications work
- Could encrypt/decrypt using public key cryptography but it is slow

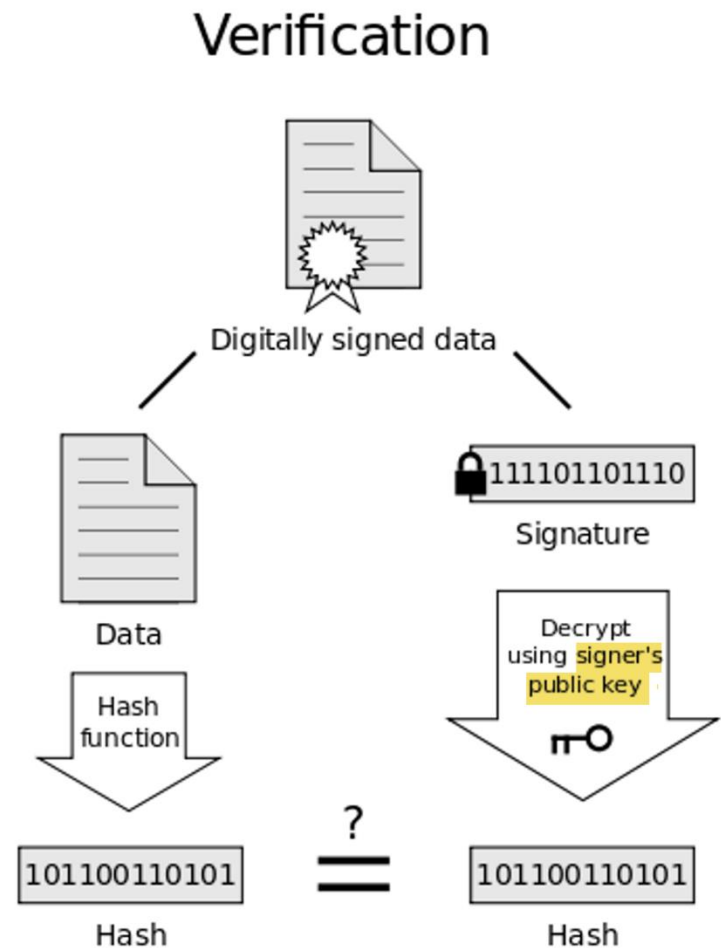
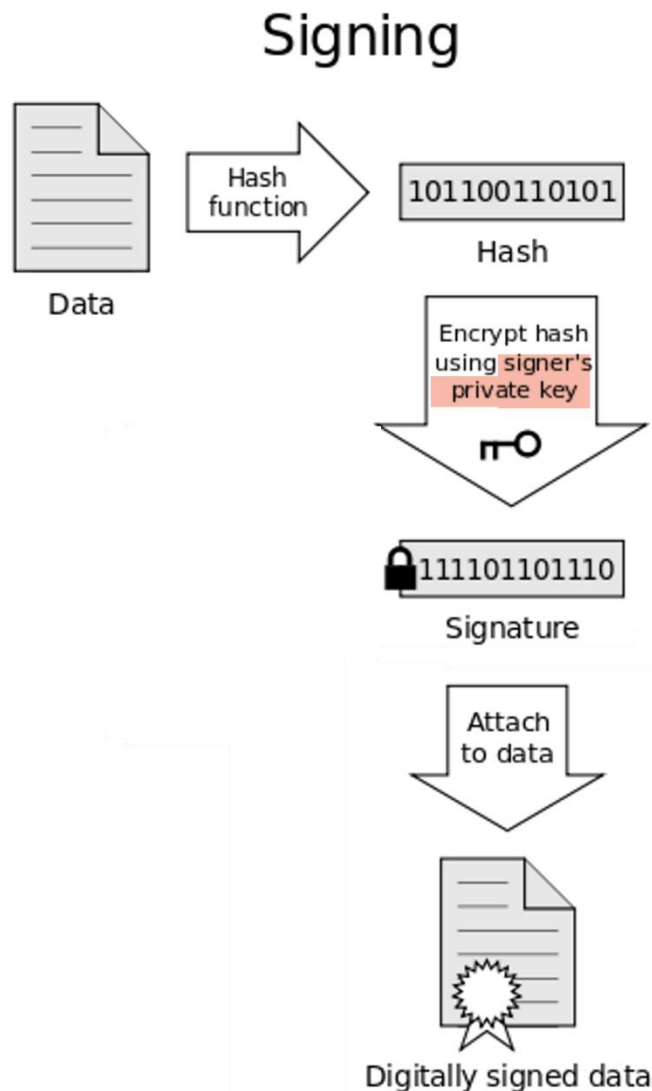


# Digital Signatures



1. Alice signs a message with her private key
2. Bob can verify that Alice sent the message (i.e., **non-repudiation**) and that the message has not been modified (i.e., **integrity**)

# Public-Key Signature Process

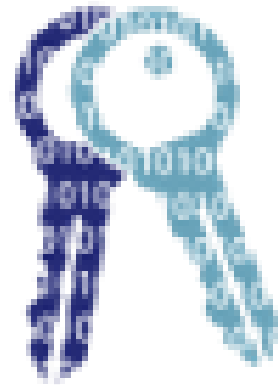


If the hashes are equal, the signature is valid.

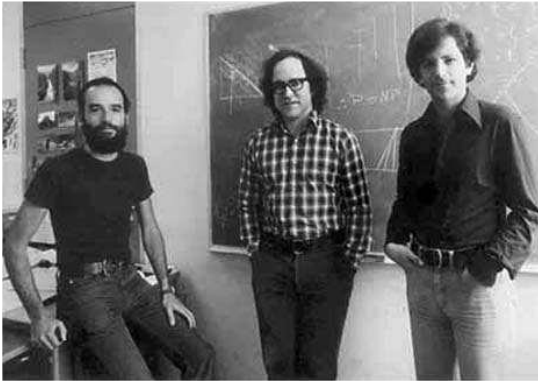


# RSA

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# RSA Cryptosystem



**Rivest**



**Shamir**



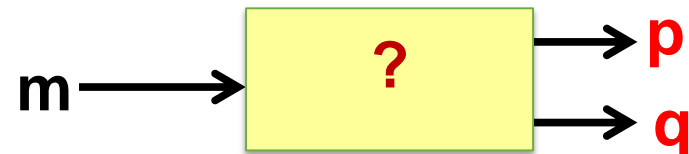
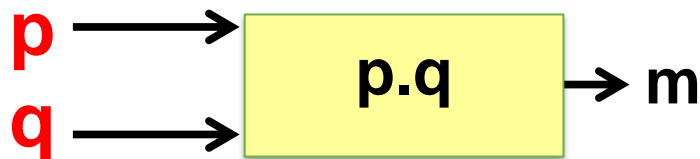
**Adleman**

- Developed by Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman in 1977
- Until now, RSA is the most widely use asymmetric cryptosystem although Elliptic Curve cryptography (ECC) becomes increasingly popular
- RSA is mainly used for two applications: Key exchange & Digital signatures

# RSA One-way Function (Lock)

Asymmetric schemes are based on a “**one-way function**”  $f()$ :

- Computing  $y = f(x)$  is computationally easy
- Computing the inverse  $x = f^{-1}(y)$  is computationally infeasible
- One way functions are based on **mathematically hard problems**
- RSA security relies on the difficulty of **factoring** large integers
  - Multiplying two primes is easy (e.g.,  $1889 \times 3547 = 6,700,283$  )
  - Given a composite integer  $n$ , find its prime factors is mathematically hard!  
(e.g., It is hard to find  $\text{Prime}_1$  and  $\text{Prime}_2$  such that  $\text{Prime}_1 \times \text{Prime}_2 = 6,700,283$  )



Factorization  
Problem (RSA Lock)

# Encryption and Decryption

- Encryption and decryption are simply exponentiations

## Definition

Given the public key  $(n, e) = k_{pub}$  and the private key  $d = k_{pr}$  we write

$$c = e_{k_{pub}}(m) = m^e \bmod n$$

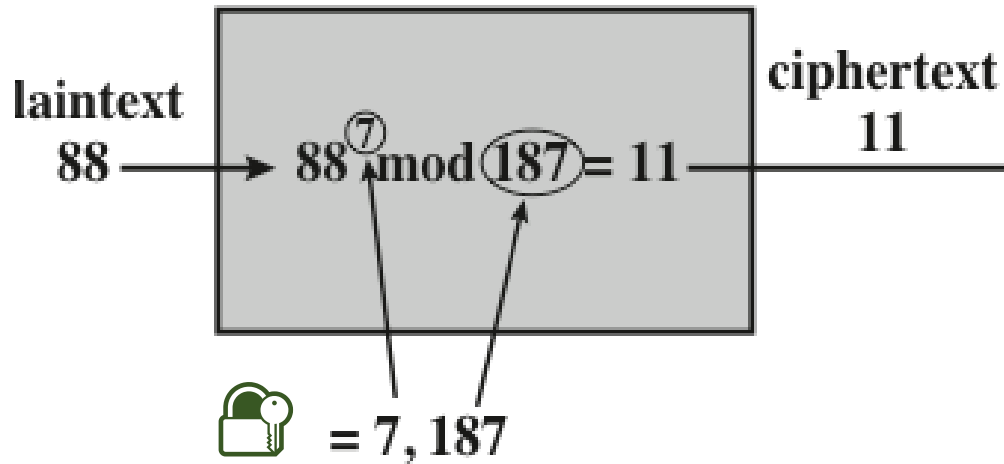
$$m = d_{k_{pr}}(c) = c^d \bmod n$$

$e_{k_{pub}}()$  is the encryption operation and  $d_{k_{pr}}()$  is the decryption operation.

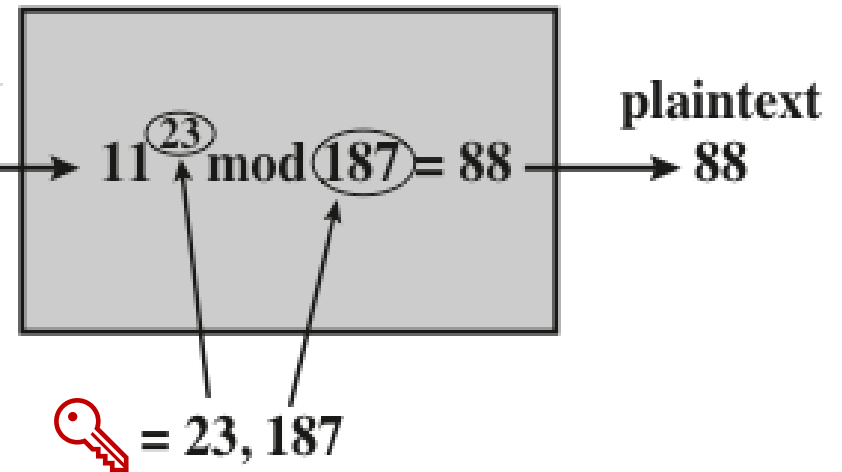
- In practice  $d$  and  $n$  are very long integer numbers ( $\geq 1024$  bits)
- The security of the scheme relies on the fact that it is hard to derive the private key  $d$  given the public-key  $(n, e)$

# RSA Example

## Encryption





## Decryption



# RSA Key Generation Algorithm

**Output:** public key:  $k_{pub} = (n, e)$  and private key  $k_{pr} = d$

1. Choose two large primes  $p, q$
2. Compute  $n = p * q$
3. Compute  $\Phi(n) = (p-1) * (q-1)$
4.  Select the odd public exponent  $e$  such that  $1 < e < \Phi(n)$  and  $\gcd(e, \Phi(n)) = 1$  (i.e.  $e$  does not share any factor with  $\Phi(n)$ )
5.  Compute the private key  $d$  such that  $(d * e) \bmod \Phi(n) = 1$   
=> Compute  $d$  by solving  $ex + \phi(n)y = 1$  using **Extended Euclidean Algorithm**
6. **RETURN**  $k_{pub} = (n, e), k_{pr} = d$

- $d$  is the **inverse** of  $e \bmod \Phi(n) \Rightarrow d = e^{-1} \bmod \Phi(n)$
- $\gcd(e, \Phi(n)) = 1$  ensures that  $e$  has an inverse (i.e., a private key  $d$ )
- $\Phi$  is called Phi                      **gcd** is the greatest common divisor

# Example: RSA with small numbers

**ALICE**

Message  **$m = 4$**

$$c = m^e = 4^3 \bmod 33 = 31$$

$$c = 31$$

**BOB**

1. Choose  $p = 3$  and  $q = 11$
2. Compute  $n = p * q = 33$
3.  $\Phi(n) = (3-1) * (11-1) = 20$
4. Choose  $e = 3$
5. Compute the private key  **$d$**  such that  **$(d * e) \bmod \Phi(n) = 1$**

$$\Rightarrow d=7$$

$$c^d = 31^7 \bmod 33 = 4$$

# Compute **d** using Extended Euclidean Algorithm

- EED calculates **x** and **y** such that  $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$

Now let  $a=e$ ,  $b=\phi(n)$ , and thus  $\gcd(e, \phi(n))=1$

>> We have to solve:  $ex + \phi(n)y = 1$

We need to solve  $3x + 20y = 1$

1. Euclidean algorithm to compute $\gcd(3, 20)$	2. Back substitution (write 1 as a linear combination of 3 and 20)
$20 = 6(3) + 2$ $3 = 1(2) + 1$	$1 = 3 - 1(2)$ $1 = 3 - 1(20 - 6(3))$ $1 = 7(3) - 1(20) \Rightarrow d = 7$

$$d = x = 7$$

The value of  $y$  does not actually matter, since it will get eliminated by modulo  $\phi(n)$  regardless of its value  $\Rightarrow$  can safely discard it



# Asymmetric Key Cryptography – RSA Encryption Algorithm

- Message:  $m = 3$
- Choose 2 random, prime numbers:  $p = 19, q = 13$
- $n = pq, n = 247$
- Choose a random # to be  $e$  (encryption key):  $e = 7$
- $\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 216$
- Compute  $d$  (private key)  
 $d * e \bmod \Phi(n) = 1$  (need to solve for  $d$ )  
 $d = 31$  (using Extended Euclidean Algorithm)
- Public key =  $(n, e) = (247, 7)$
- To encrypt:  $c = m^e \bmod n \rightarrow c = 3^7 \bmod 247 \rightarrow$   
 $c = 211$  (ciphertext)
- To decrypt:  $m = c^d \bmod n \rightarrow m = 211^{31} \bmod 247 \rightarrow$   
 $m = 3$  (plaintext)

# Another example

$$e \cdot d \bmod \varphi(n) = 1$$

$$7 \cdot d \bmod 40 = \textcircled{1}$$

Step 1: Euclidean algorithm

$$40x + 7y = 1$$

$$40 = 5(7) + 5 \leftarrow$$

$$7 = 1(5) + 2 \leftarrow$$

$$5 = 2(2) + 1 \leftarrow$$

Step 2: Back substitution

$$1 = 5 - 2(2)$$

$$1 = 5 - 2(7 - 1(5))$$

$$1 = 3(5) - 2(7)$$

$$1 = 3(40 - 5(7)) - 2(7)$$

$$1 = 3(40) - \textcircled{17}(7)$$

$$p = 11$$

$$q = 5$$

$$n = 55$$

$$\varphi(n) = \underline{40}$$

$$e = 7$$

$$d =$$

# Attacks and Countermeasures

- **Brute force key search**

- using exhaustive search for factoring of  $n$  in order to obtain  $\Phi(n)$
- Can be prevented using a sufficiently large modulus  $n$
- The current factoring record is 664 bits. Thus, it is recommended that  $n$  should have a bit length between 1024 and 3072 bits

- Implementation attacks such **Side-channel analysis**

- Exploit physical leakage of RSA implementation (e.g., power consumption, etc.)
- Timing attacks on running of decryption can infer operand size based on time taken

# Summary

- RSA is the most widely used public-key cryptosystem
- RSA is mainly used for key exchange and digital signatures
- RSA relies on the fact that it is hard to factorize  $n$
- Currently 1024-bit cannot be factored, but progress in factorization could bring this into reach within 10-15 years.
  - Hence, RSA with a 2048 or 3076 bit key should be used for long-term security

# References

- Asymmetric cryptography Wikipedia pages

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Public-key\\_cryptography](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Public-key_cryptography)

[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA\\_\(cryptosystem\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA_(cryptosystem))

- Greatest Common Divisor

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JUzYl1TYMcU>

- Extended Euclidean algorithm

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=kYasb426Yjk>

- Extended Euclidean Algorithm and Inverse Modulo Tutorial

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=fz1vxq5ts5I>