

# Key Agreement

- We have assumed that Alice and Bob have agreed upon a key known only to themselves
- How did they do that?
- Secret key agreement: Alice and Bob agree upon shared key  $K$ , over a public channel, without any eavesdroppers learning  $K$
- How can we achieve secret key agreement?

# Diffie-Hellman (1/3)

- Two people can agree over an insecure channel on a secret key in such a way that both of them receive the same key without anyone else knowing it
- Original protocol published in 1976
- $p$ : A prime number being 2000 to 4000 bits long
  - Prime: A number that has exactly two divisors, 1 and itself
- Taking a modulo: Just divide  $r$  by  $p$ , throw away the quotient and keep the remainder as the answer
  - Example: 25 modulo 7, you divide 25 by 7, which gives a quotient of 3 with a remainder of 4, so  $25 \bmod 7 = 4$
- We first choose a large prime  $p$  and a primitive element  $g$  which generates a finite field

# Diffie-Hellman (2/3)

Alice

Bob

$g^x \bmod p$

$g^y \bmod p$

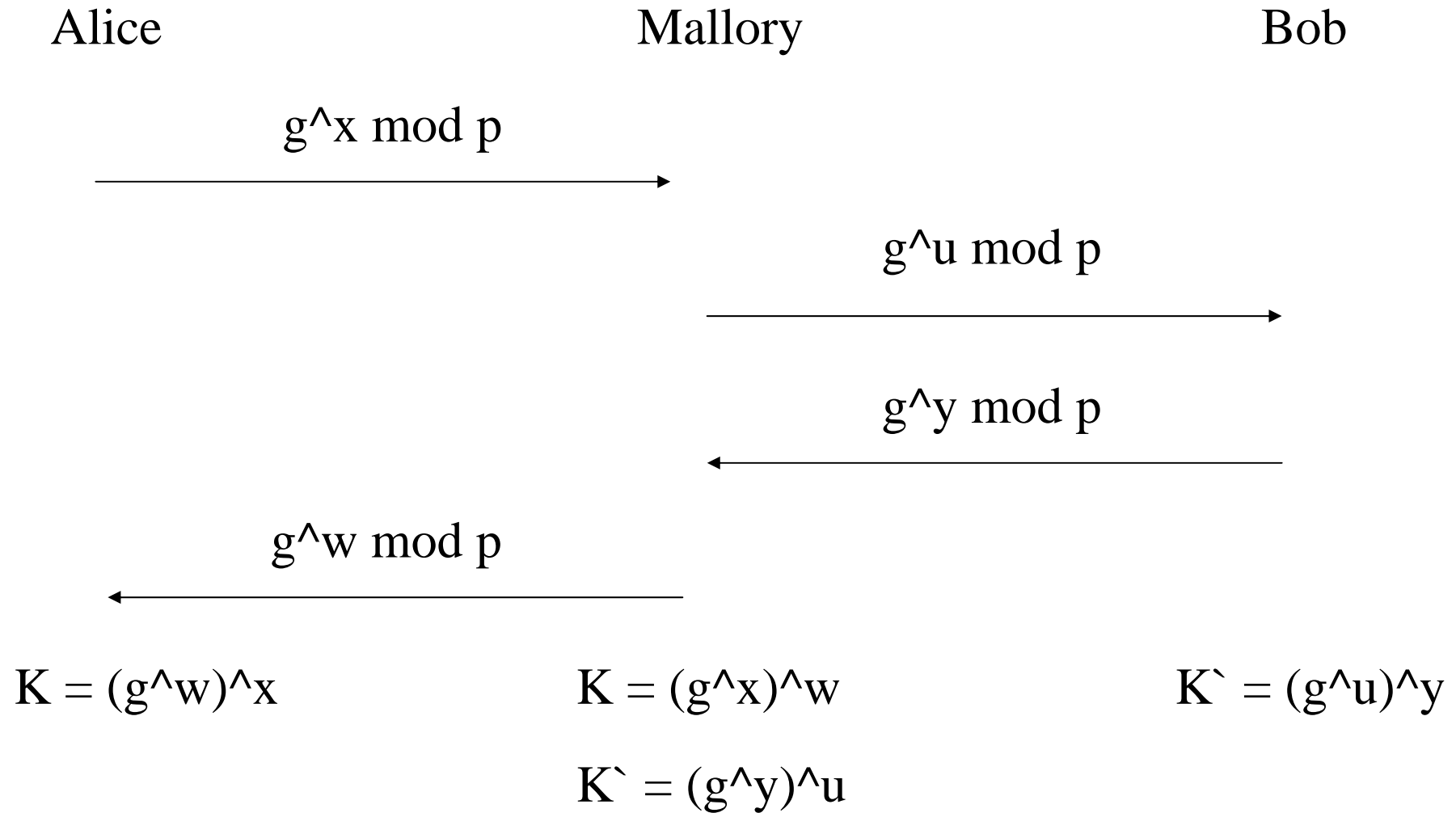
$$K = (g^y)^x$$

$$K = (g^x)^y$$

# Diffie-Hellman (3/3)

- The attacker sees  $g^x$  and  $g^y$  but not  $x$  or  $y$
- The problem of computing  $g^{xy}$  given  $g^x$  and  $g^y$  is known as the DH problem
- As long as  $p$  and  $g$  are chosen correctly there is no way to compute this efficiently
- In the finite field is called discrete logarithm and the problem of computing  $x$  from  $g^x$  in a finite group is known as the discrete logarithm problem

# An Active Attack

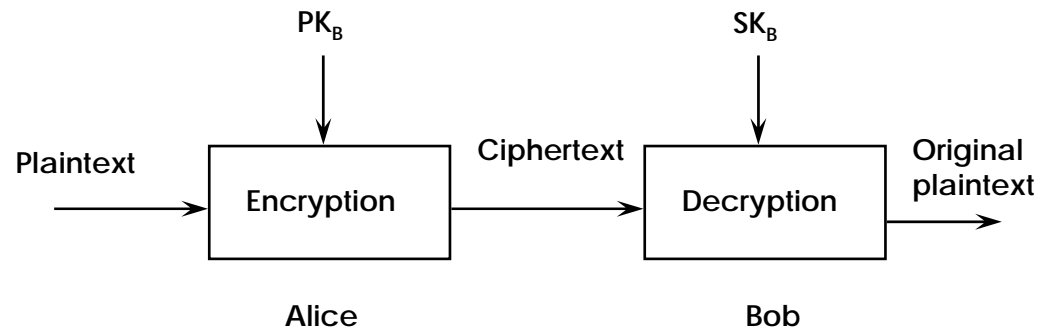


# Asymmetric Key Cryptosystems

- In public key cryptography each person has a pair of keys
  - The *public key* and the *private key*
- Public key is published and widely distributed
  - While the private key is kept secret
- Need for exchanging secret keys is eliminated
  - All communications involve only public keys
- Examples of public key cryptographic algorithms are:
  - RSA, ElGamal, Rabin

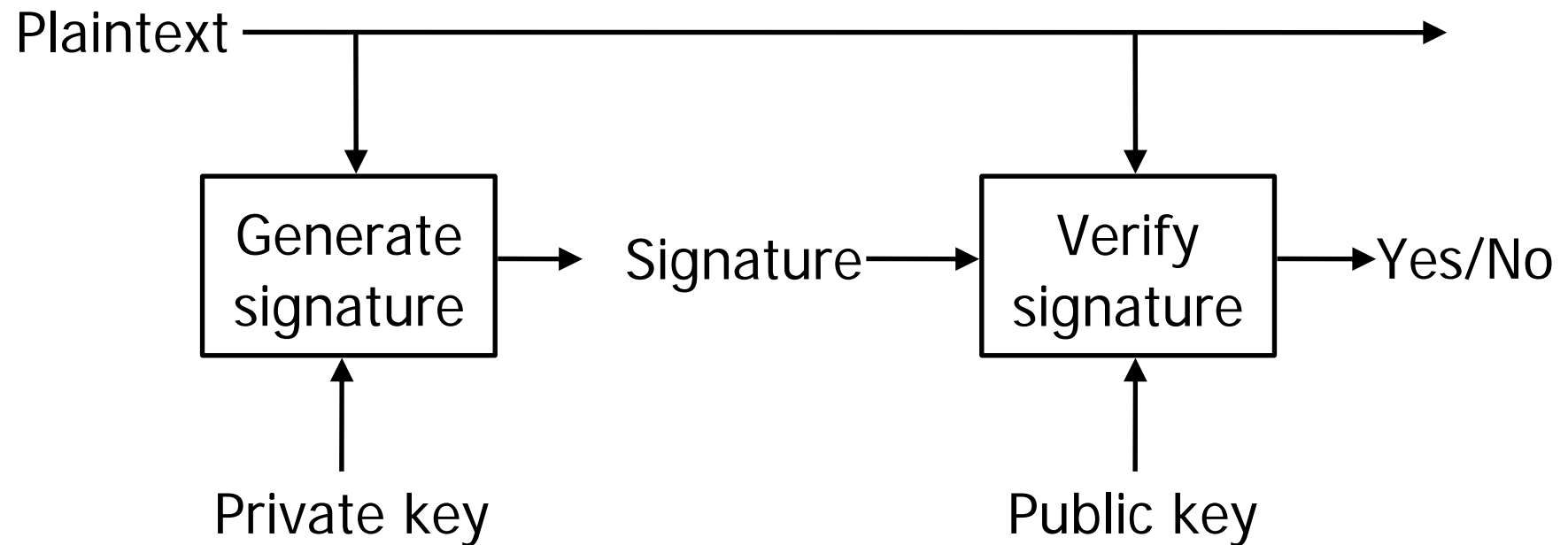
# Public Key Cryptography

- Each user in a public key system creates his own private key ( $SK$ ) and his own public key ( $PK$ )



- When user Alice wants to send an encrypted message to Bob
  - She looks up his public key ( $PK_B$ ) in a public directory
    - \* Or obtains it by some other means

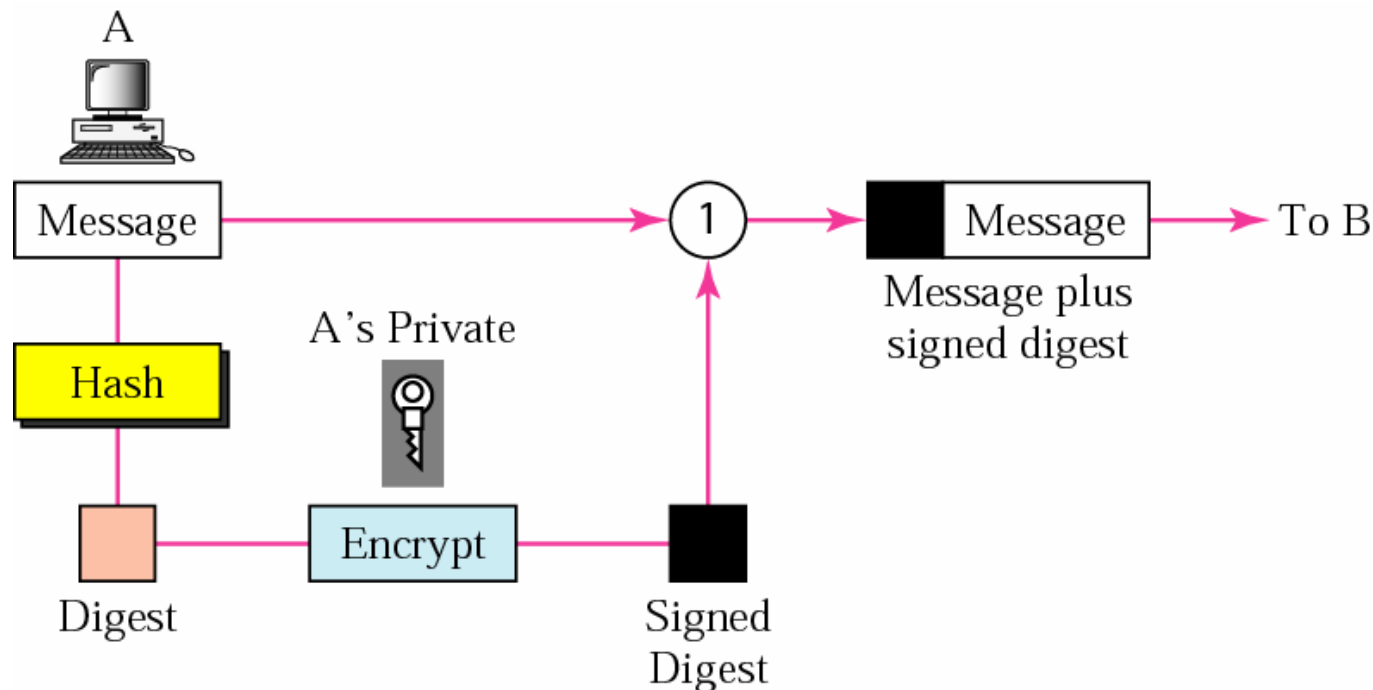
# Public Key Integrity Protection



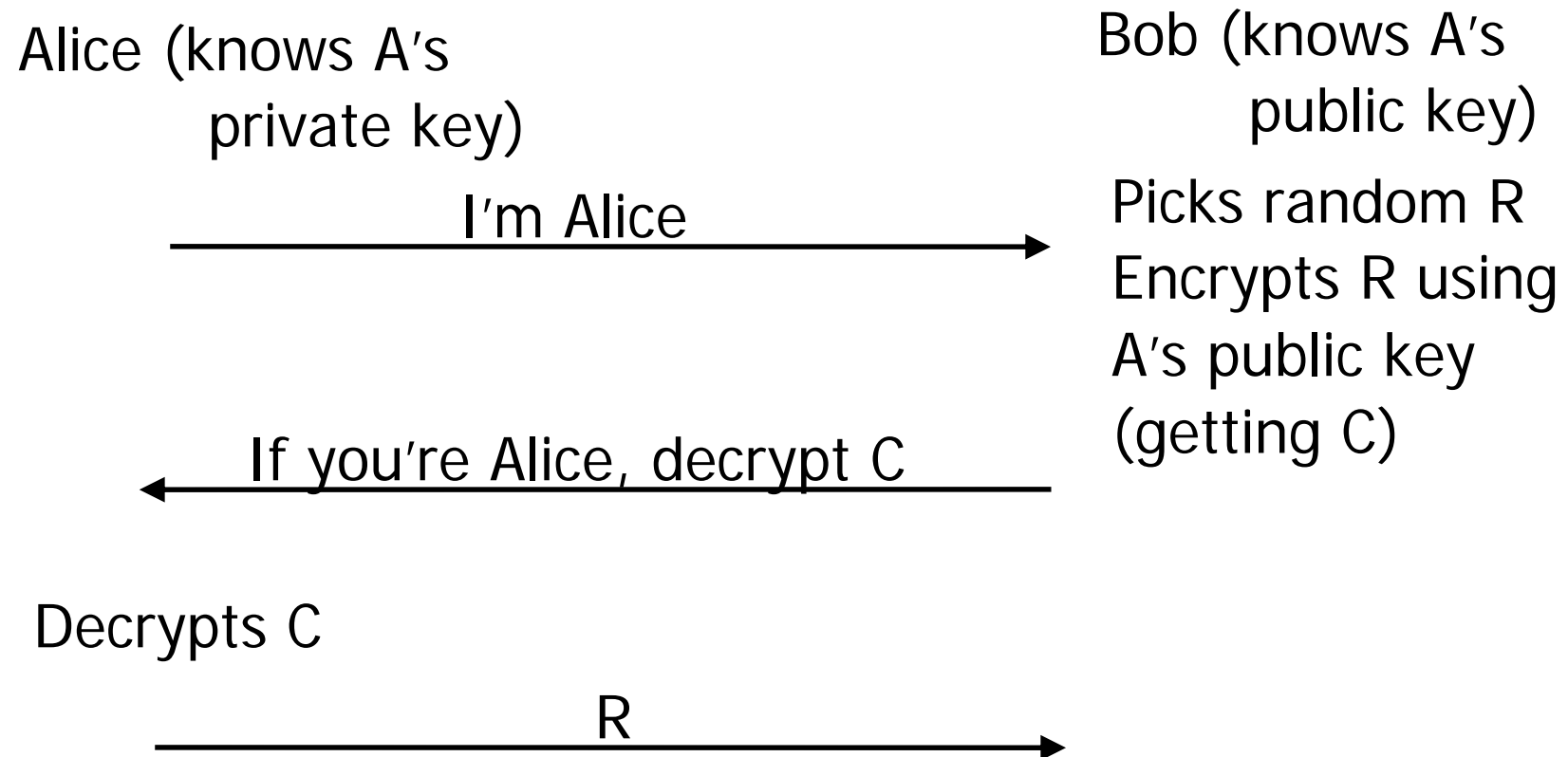


# Signatures and Message Digests

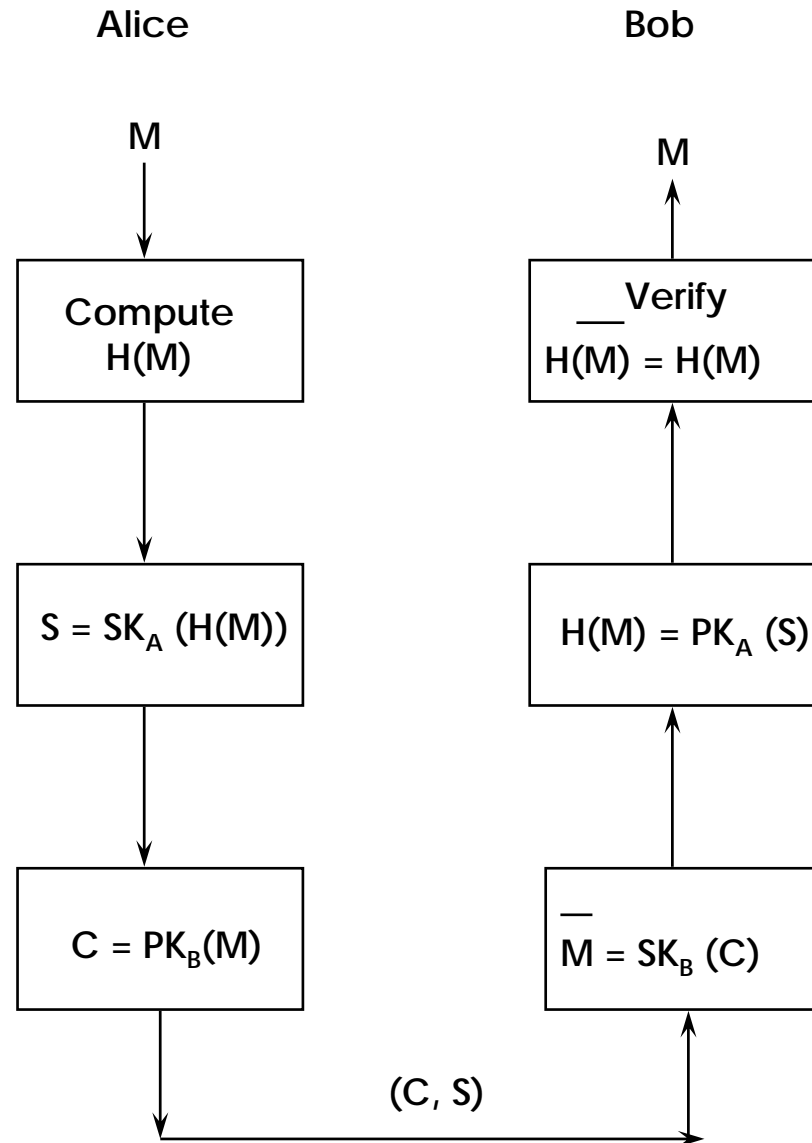
- Instead of creating a digital signature on an arbitrarily large document
  - Compute a message digest on the document and then create a digital signature on the digest



# Public Key Authentication

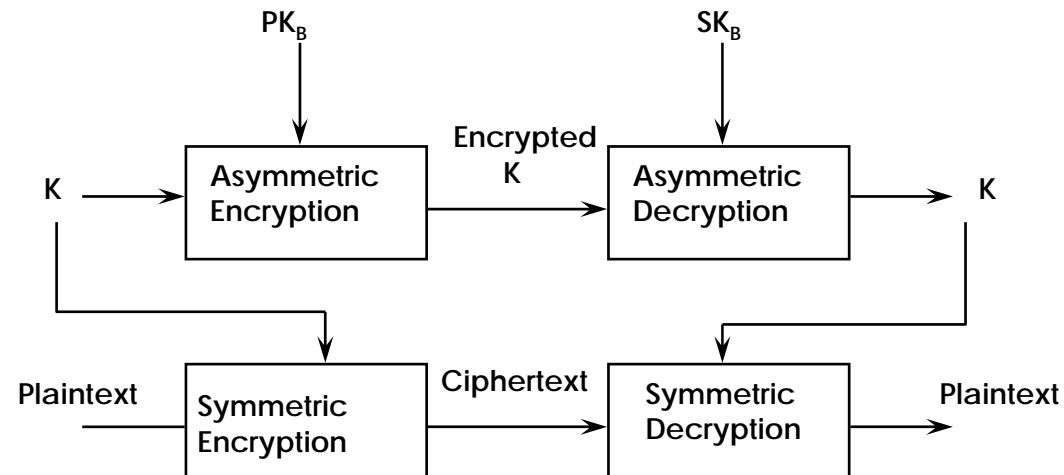


# Enveloped and Signed Data



# Hybrid Schemes

- Public key algorithms are not a replacement for secret key algorithms such as AES
  - Rather they supplement AES or any other fast bulk encryption cipher



- The above example shows
  - How we can use a public key algorithm to securely transfer a *session key* ( $K$ ) and
  - Use the session key for bulk encryption and decryption

# RSA

- Named after its inventors Rivest, Shamir and Adleman who developed it in 1978 while working at MIT
- Algorithm:
  - Randomly choose two different large primes  $p$  and  $q$  and compute  $n = p * q$  ( $n$  is known as the *modulus*)
  - Randomly choose an encryption key  $e$  such that  $e$  and  $(p-1) * (q-1)$  are relatively prime
  - To encrypt a message  $m$  the sender computes the ciphertext  $c$  as  $c := m^e \pmod{n}$
  - To decrypt a ciphertext  $c$  the receiver computes  $c^d \pmod{n}$
  - $d$  is the decryption key:  $e * d = 1 \pmod{(p-1) * (q-1)}$
  - The pair  $(n, e)$  forms the public key
  - The values  $(p, q, d)$  are the private key
  - To sign a message  $m$  the owner of the private key computes  $s$  as  $s := m^d \pmod{n}$  the pair  $(m, s)$  is now a signed message
  - To verify the signature anyone who knows the public key can verify that  $s^e = m \pmod{n}$

# RSA Security

- The security of RSA is based on a trapdoor one-way function
- Given the public  $n$  and  $e$  it is easy to compute  $m^e \pmod n$  from  $m$  but not the other way around
- However, if you know the factorization of  $n$  then it is easy to do the inverse computation
- The factorization of  $n$  is the trapdoor information
- As with encryption the security of the signature is based on the fact that the  $e$ 'th root on  $m$  can only be computed by someone who knows the private key
- Just remember that computations of any roots modulo  $n$  require knowledge of the private key

# Key Management

- Public key cryptography is based on the idea that
  - An individual will generate a key pair
  - Keep one component secret and publish the other component (public key)
- Other users on the network
  - Must be able to retrieve this public key and associate the user's identity with it
- One way to form this association is
  - To enlist the services of a Trusted Third Party (*TTP*)

# X.509 Certificates

- The TTP will construct a message referred to as a *certificate*

Subject (Identity of User)	Public Key	Validity Period	Issuer (Identity of TTP)	Other fields	Signature of TTP
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- The certificate contains a number of fields
  - Identity of the user
  - Public key of the user
  - Validity period of the certificate
  - Identity of the TTP
  - Miscellaneous fields
  - A digital signature on the above fields with the secret key of the *TTP*
- It is assumed that every user in the system is equipped with the public key of the *TTP*
  - This allows one to verify the digital signature on the certificate
  - Thus guaranteeing that the public key is associated with the named user



# Certification Hierarchy

- TTPs that issue certificates are referred to as Certification Authorities (CAs)
- The root CA issues certificates only to other CAs
- Each user of the system need only hold the public key of the root CA

