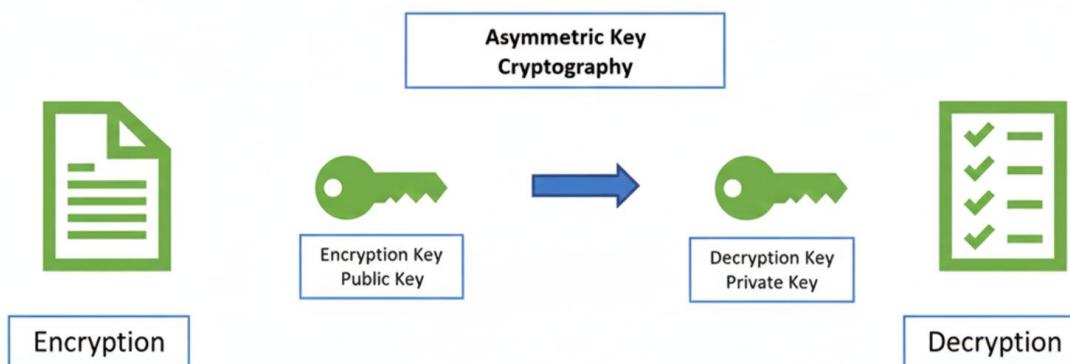


Public Key Cryptography: Enabling Trust in Digital Communications

From RSA to Digital Signatures and Beyond



Introduction

Consider a business meeting over coffee discussing confidential plans. Security emerges naturally from the physical setting: you see and hear your partner directly (authentication), verify their words come from them (authenticity), confirm nothing alters their speech across the table (integrity), and maintain privacy by choosing distant seats and speaking quietly (confidentiality). These four security pillars-authentication, authenticity, integrity, and confidentiality-form the foundation of secure communication.

Digital communication lacks these inherent physical protections. When receiving a text message, how do you verify the sender's identity? How do you ensure nothing modified the message during transmission? Online business communications demand cryptographic solutions to establish these security guarantees that physical meetings provide automatically.

While symmetric encryption primarily protects confidentiality, public key cryptography (asymmetric encryption) plays the crucial role in authentication, authenticity, and integrity. This guide explores how asymmetric cryptography achieves these security objectives through RSA, Diffie-Hellman, digital signatures, certificates, and PGP/GPG implementations.

Learning Objectives

This comprehensive guide covers:

- RSA encryption with simplified mathematical examples
- Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol step-by-step
- SSH key pairs for secure remote access
- SSL/TLS certificates and chain of trust
- PGP and GPG for email encryption and signing

The Key Exchange Problem

Symmetric encryption faces a fundamental challenge: securely sharing the secret key. Imagine you want to send an encrypted document to your colleague. You can easily email the encrypted file, but how do you send them the password? If you email the password too, anyone who intercepts your email gets both the locked box and the key to open it. Asymmetric cryptography provides an elegant solution to this problem.

The Lock and Key Analogy

Think of it this way: imagine you want to send secret instructions to a friend without anyone else reading them. Here's a simple solution:

1. Ask your friend to send you an **unlocked padlock** (but keep the key)
2. Put your secret instructions in a box and **lock it with their padlock**
3. Send the locked box back to them
4. They **unlock it with their key** (which only they have)

Even if someone intercepts the locked box during transit, they can't open it because they don't have the key. This is exactly how public key cryptography works:

Physical Analogy	Cryptographic Equivalent
Secret instructions you want to share	Symmetric encryption key
Open padlock (anyone can use)	Public key (shared with everyone)
Key to the padlock (kept private)	Private key (kept secret)

Key Point: Asymmetric cryptography uses this one-time to establish a secure connection, then switches to faster symmetric encryption for the actual conversation. It's like using the padlock once to share a secret code, then using that code for all future messages.

RSA Encryption - The Math Made Simple

RSA is based on a simple observation: some math operations are easy in one direction but extremely hard to reverse. Let's explore this with everyday examples before diving into RSA.

Understanding the Core Concept: Easy vs. Hard

Example 1: Multiplication is Easy, Factoring is Hard

Quick, multiply these two numbers: 17×19 . You can do this in your head or on paper in seconds. The answer is 323.

Now try the reverse: I give you 323, and ask you to find which two numbers multiply to make it. Much harder, right? You'd have to try: Is it $2 \times$ something? $3 \times$ something? $7 \times$ something? This takes much longer.

This is the entire secret behind RSA security! Multiplying two numbers = EASY. Finding which two numbers were multiplied = HARD (especially with huge numbers).

RSA With Really Simple Numbers

Let's walk through RSA step-by-step using tiny numbers so you can understand the process. In real life, the numbers would be hundreds of digits long, but the process is exactly the same.

Step 1: Bob Creates His Keys

Bob picks two **prime numbers** (numbers only divisible by 1 and themselves):

p = 5 (first prime number)

q = 11 (second prime number)

Bob multiplies them together:

$$n = p \times q = 5 \times 11 = 55$$

Why this matters: Everyone will know $n = 55$, but only Bob knows it came from 5×11 . If the numbers were huge (300 digits each), it would take millions of years to figure out which two primes were multiplied.

Step 2: Bob Calculates a Special Number

Bob calculates $\phi(n)$ using this formula: $\phi(n) = (p - 1) \times (q - 1)$

$$\phi(n) = (5 - 1) \times (11 - 1) = 4 \times 10 = 40$$

This number is used to create the public and private keys. Don't worry about why this formula works - just know that it's part of the mathematical magic that makes RSA secure.

Step 3: Choosing the Public Key

Bob picks a number **e** that doesn't share factors with $\phi(n)$. A common choice is $e = 3$ or $e = 7$. Let's use:

$$e = 7$$

Bob's PUBLIC KEY is now: $(n, e) = (55, 7)$

Bob can share this with everyone. Anyone can use it to encrypt messages to Bob.

Step 4: Calculating the Private Key

Bob needs to find **d** (the private key) such that: $(e \times d) \bmod \phi(n) = 1$

Let's try $d = 23$:

$$(7 \times 23) \bmod 40 = 161 \bmod 40 = 1 \checkmark \text{ This works!}$$

Bob's PRIVATE KEY is now: $(n, d) = (55, 23)$

Bob keeps this secret. Only this key can decrypt messages encrypted with the public key.

Step 5: Alice Encrypts a Message

Alice wants to send the number **m = 4** to Bob secretly. She uses Bob's public key $(55, 7)$:

$$\text{Encrypted message} = m^e \bmod n = 4^7 \bmod 55 = 16,384 \bmod 55 = 9$$

Alice sends **9** to Bob. Anyone intercepting this just sees the number 9-they can't figure out the original message was 4.

Step 6: Bob Decrypts the Message

Bob receives 9 and uses his private key (55, 23):

$$\text{Original message} = 9^{23} \bmod 55 = \dots = 4$$

Bob successfully recovers the original message: 4!

Why This Works: The Magic Explained

Here's what makes RSA secure:

- **Public Knowledge:** Everyone knows $n = 55$ and $e = 7$
- **Secret Knowledge:** Only Bob knows $d = 23$
- **The Hard Part:** To find d , you'd need to know p and q (the original primes). But getting them from $n = 55$ requires factoring
- **In Real Life:** Instead of $n = 55$, we use numbers with 600+ digits. Factoring takes millions of years!

Bottom Line: The public key can encrypt, but only the private key can decrypt. The security comes from the fact that even knowing the public key and the encrypted message, you can't figure out the private key without factoring huge numbers.

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange - Simplified

Diffie-Hellman solves a fascinating problem: How can two people agree on a secret key while talking over a phone that's being tapped? Let's understand this with a color mixing analogy first.

The Paint Mixing Analogy

Imagine Alice and Bob want to create a secret color, but someone is watching everything they send to each other:

1. **Public Starting Color:** They both start with YELLOW paint (everyone can see this)
2. **Private Colors:** Alice secretly adds RED. Bob secretly adds BLUE
3. **Exchange Mixed Colors:** Alice sends her ORANGE mix (yellow + red) to Bob. Bob sends his GREEN mix (yellow + blue) to Alice
4. **Final Mix:** Alice adds her RED to Bob's GREEN = BROWN. Bob adds his BLUE to Alice's ORANGE = BROWN. They both get BROWN!

The Key Point: Even though the eavesdropper saw YELLOW, ORANGE, and GREEN, they can't recreate BROWN because they don't know Alice's secret RED or Bob's secret BLUE. Unmixing paint is practically impossible!

Diffie-Hellman With Simple Numbers

Now let's see how this works with numbers. We'll use small numbers to make it easy to follow:

Setup: Public Information (Everyone Knows This)

$p = 23$ (a prime number - like the YELLOW paint)

$g = 5$ (a generator number)

These numbers are announced publicly. Everyone including eavesdroppers knows them.

Step 1: Alice and Bob Choose Secret Numbers

Alice's secret: $a = 6$ (she keeps this private - like her RED paint)

Bob's secret: $b = 15$ (he keeps this private - like his BLUE paint)

Step 2: They Calculate Public Values

Alice calculates: $A = g^a \text{ mod } p$

$$A = 5^6 \text{ mod } 23 = 15,625 \text{ mod } 23 = 8$$

Bob calculates: $B = g^b \text{ mod } p$

$$B = 5^{15} \text{ mod } 23 = 30,517,578,125 \text{ mod } 23 = 19$$

Alice sends 8 to Bob. Bob sends 19 to Alice. These numbers can be intercepted-it doesn't matter!

Step 3: They Calculate the Shared Secret

Alice receives Bob's 19 and uses her secret 6:

$$\text{Secret} = 19^6 \text{ mod } 23 = 47,045,881 \text{ mod } 23 = 2$$

Bob receives Alice's 8 and uses his secret 15:

$$\text{Secret} = 8^{15} \text{ mod } 23 = 35,184,372,088,832 \text{ mod } 23 = 2$$

Both got 2! This is their shared secret key. They can now use 2 as their encryption key for symmetric encryption.

Why Can't the Eavesdropper Figure It Out?

The eavesdropper knows:

- $p = 23$, $g = 5$ (public parameters)
- $A = 8$ (what Alice sent)
- $B = 19$ (what Bob sent)

But they DON'T know:

- Alice's secret $a = 6$
- Bob's secret $b = 15$

To find the shared secret from just the public information requires solving what's called the 'discrete logarithm problem,' which is computationally very hard with large numbers. It's like trying to unmix paint-mathematically extremely difficult!

Digital Signatures

Physical signatures prove you agreed to something-a contract, a receipt, a document. Digital signatures do the same thing for electronic files, using the same public/private key system we just learned.

How Digital Signatures Work

Think of it in reverse from encryption:

- **Signing:** You encrypt a document with your PRIVATE key (instead of public)
- **Verifying:** Anyone can decrypt it with your PUBLIC key (instead of private)

Why this proves it's from you: Only your private key could have created something that your public key can decrypt. Since only you have your private key, only you could have signed it.

In practice, you don't encrypt the whole document (too slow). Instead, you create a hash (a unique fingerprint) of the document and encrypt that hash with your private key. This encrypted hash is the digital signature.

Certificates and Trust

When you visit <https://tryhackme.com>, how does your browser know it's really TryHackMe and not a fake site? Through certificates and a chain of trust.

Think of it like an ID card:

- The website has a certificate (like an ID card) saying 'I am tryhackme.com'
- This certificate is signed by a trusted authority (like a government issuing IDs)
- Your browser automatically trusts certain authorities (Certificate Authorities)

If the certificate checks out (valid signature from trusted authority), your browser trusts the website. The green padlock in your browser means this chain of trust is complete.

PGP and GPG - Email Encryption

PGP (Pretty Good Privacy) and GPG (GNU Privacy Guard) apply public key cryptography to email. They let you encrypt emails so only the intended recipient can read them, and sign emails to prove they're really from you.

Simple workflow:

1. Generate your key pair (public + private)
2. Share your public key with contacts
3. They encrypt emails to you using your public key
4. You decrypt with your private key

Common commands:

- `gpg --import backup.key` - Import your key
- `gpg --decrypt message.gpg` - Decrypt a message

Key Takeaways

- Public key cryptography uses paired keys: public (shared with everyone) and private (kept secret)
- RSA security relies on: multiplication is easy, factoring is hard
- Diffie-Hellman lets two people create a shared secret over public channels
- Digital signatures prove authenticity by encrypting with private key, verifying with public key
- Certificates create chains of trust for secure websites (HTTPS)
- PGP/GPG applies these concepts to email encryption

Conclusion

Public key cryptography revolutionized digital security by solving the key distribution problem. The mathematical concepts might seem complex at first, but they boil down to simple ideas: some operations are easy one way and hard to reverse, and paired keys can work together in clever ways.

Remember the core concepts: RSA uses the difficulty of factoring, Diffie-Hellman is like mixing paint colors, and digital signatures work like encryption in reverse. These technologies secure every HTTPS website, SSH connection, and encrypted email you use daily.

With these fundamentals mastered, you're ready to explore advanced cryptographic protocols and implementations.