



# FIT2093 INTRODUCTION TO CYBER SECURITY

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# FIT2093 INTRODUCTION TO CYBER SECURITY

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## **Lecture 7: Public Key Cryptography**

# Unit Structure

- Introduction to security of
- Authentication
- Access Control Fundamental
- Fundamental concepts of cryptography
- Symmetric encryption techniques
- Introduction to number theory
- **Public key cryptography**
- Integrity management
- Practical aspects of cyber security
- Hacking and countermeasures
- Database security
- IT risk management & Ethics and privacy

# Previous Lecture

- **Prime number**
- **Coprime or relative prime**
- **Understand the idea of factorisation.**
- **Modular arithmetic / clock arithmetic**
- **Modular arithmetic properties.**
- **Eulers Totient function**
- **Use of modulo arithmetic properties in cryptography**



# Modular Arithmetic in Cryptography

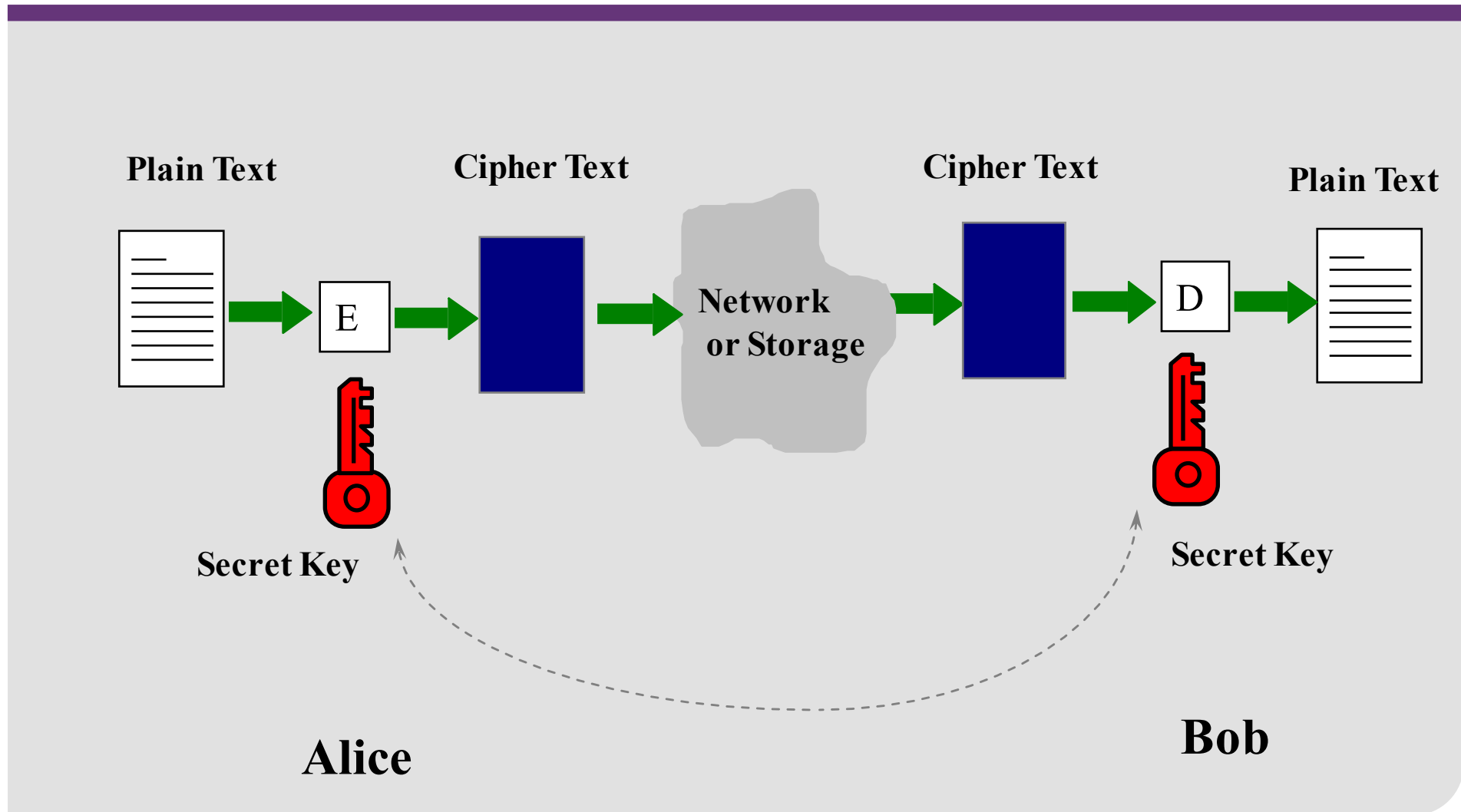
- $y$  &  $n$  are relatively prime integers and  $y \pmod{\phi(n)} = 1$ , for any  $M < n$ , then
$$M^y \pmod n = M$$
- Let  $y = a * b$ , then
$$\begin{aligned} M^y \pmod n &= M \\ &= M^{a * b} \pmod n \\ &= M \text{ if } a * b \pmod{\phi(n)} = 1 \end{aligned}$$
- $a$  &  $b$  are multiplicative inverse in modulo  $\phi(n)$  arithmetic.
- If message/data  $M$  need to be protected, transform  $M$  as  $M^a \pmod n$  and store it and to get it back, do  $(M^a)^b \pmod n = M$
- Not knowing  $b$ , it will be difficult to get  $M$  from  $M^a$ .

# Outline

- **Why public key cryptography ?**
- **General principles of public key cryptography**
- **Diffie-Hellman key exchange**
- **The RSA public key cryptosystem**



# Private (Symmetric) key cipher



# Attacking Symmetric Encryption

- **cryptanalysis**
  - rely on nature of the algorithm
  - plus some knowledge of plaintext characteristics
  - even some sample plaintext-ciphertext pairs
  - exploits characteristics of algorithm to deduce specific plaintext or key
- **brute-force attack**
  - try all possible keys on some ciphertext until get an intelligible translation into plaintext



## Problems with private key ciphers

Data (Advanced)  
Encryption  
Standard

- In order for Alice & Bob to be able to communicate securely using a private key cipher, such as DES/AES, they have to have a shared key in the first place.
  - Question:  
What if they have never met before ?
- Alice needs to keep **100** different keys if she wishes to communicate with **100** different people

# Motivation of Public Key Cryptography

- **Is it possible for Alice & Bob, who have no shared secret key, to communicate securely ?**
- **This led to the SINGLE MOST IMPORTANT discovery of public key communications:**
  - Diffie & Hellman's ideas of public key cryptography: <private-key, public-key>



# Main ideas

- **Bob:**
  - publishes, say in Yellow/White pages, his
    - > public (for encryption) key, and
    - > encryption algorithm.
  - keeps to himself
    - > the matching secret (for decryption) key – also called private key (do not confuse with symmetric key cipher).

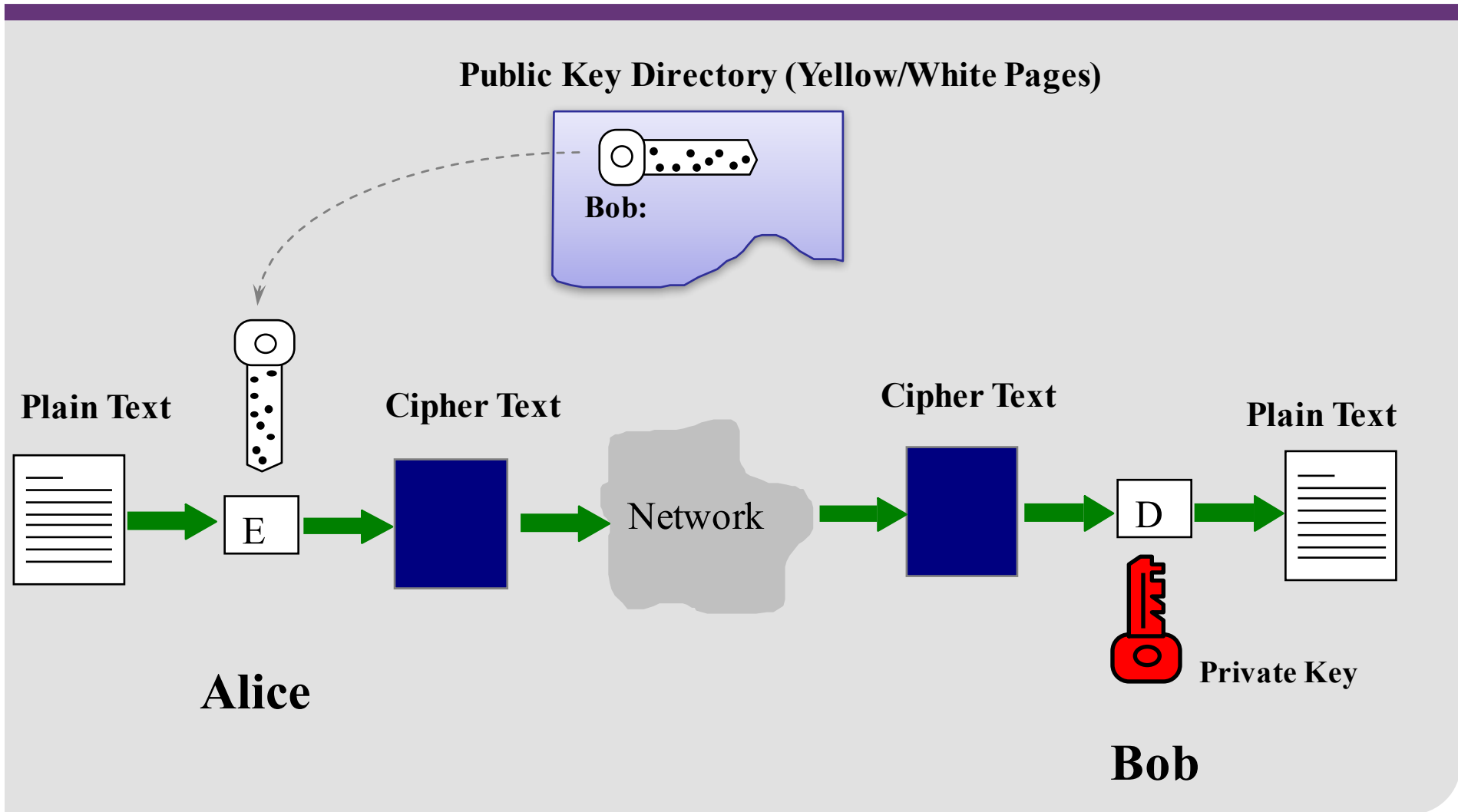
# Main ideas (2)

- **Alice:**
  - Looks up the phone book, and finds out Bob's
    - > public key, and
    - > encryption algorithm.
  - Encrypts a message using Bob's public key and encryption algorithm.
  - sends the ciphertext to Bob.

# Main ideas (3)

- **Bob:**
  - Receives the ciphertext from Alice
  - Decrypts the ciphertext using his secret/private key, together with the decryption algorithm

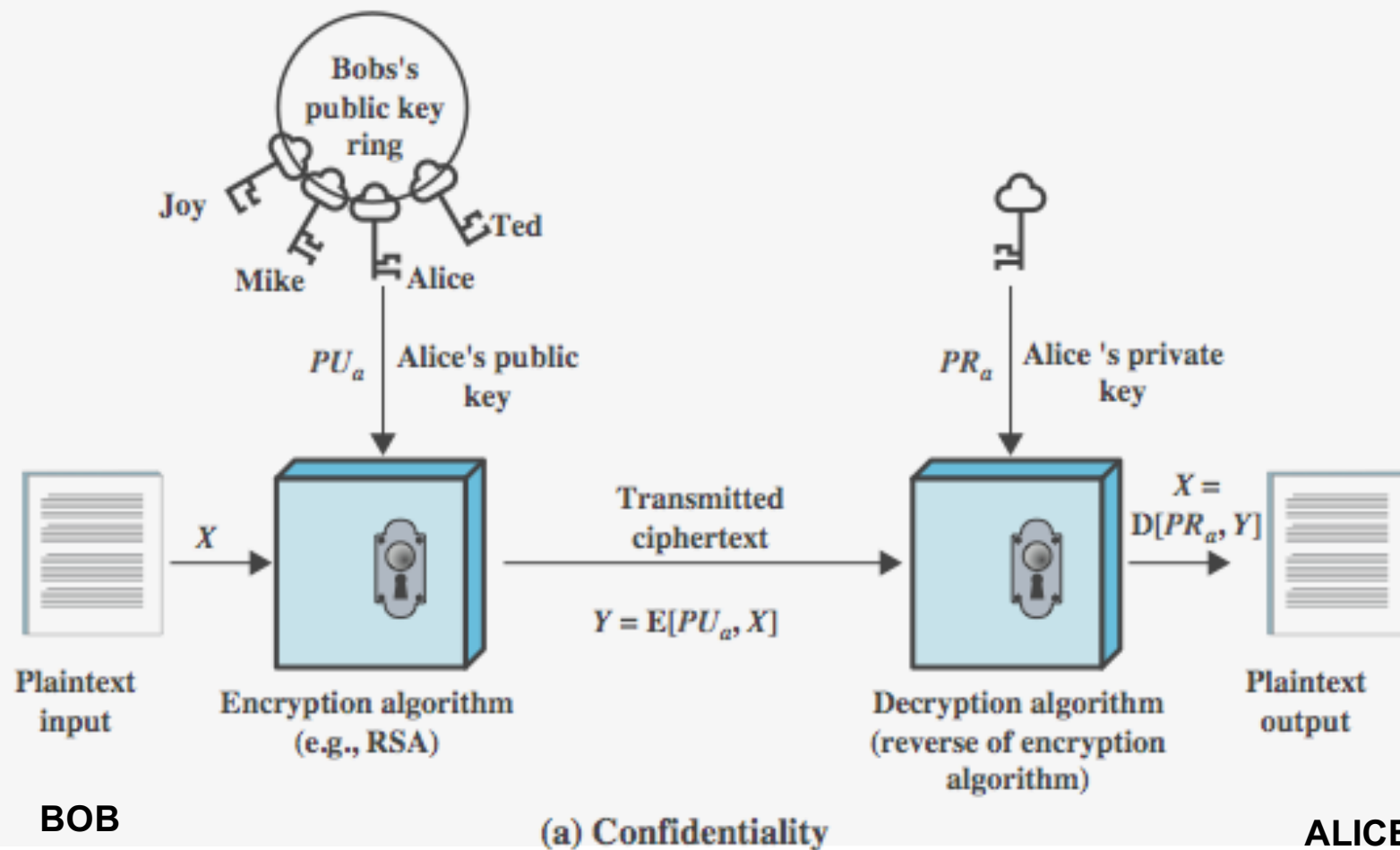
# Public Key Cryptosystem



# Main differences with DES

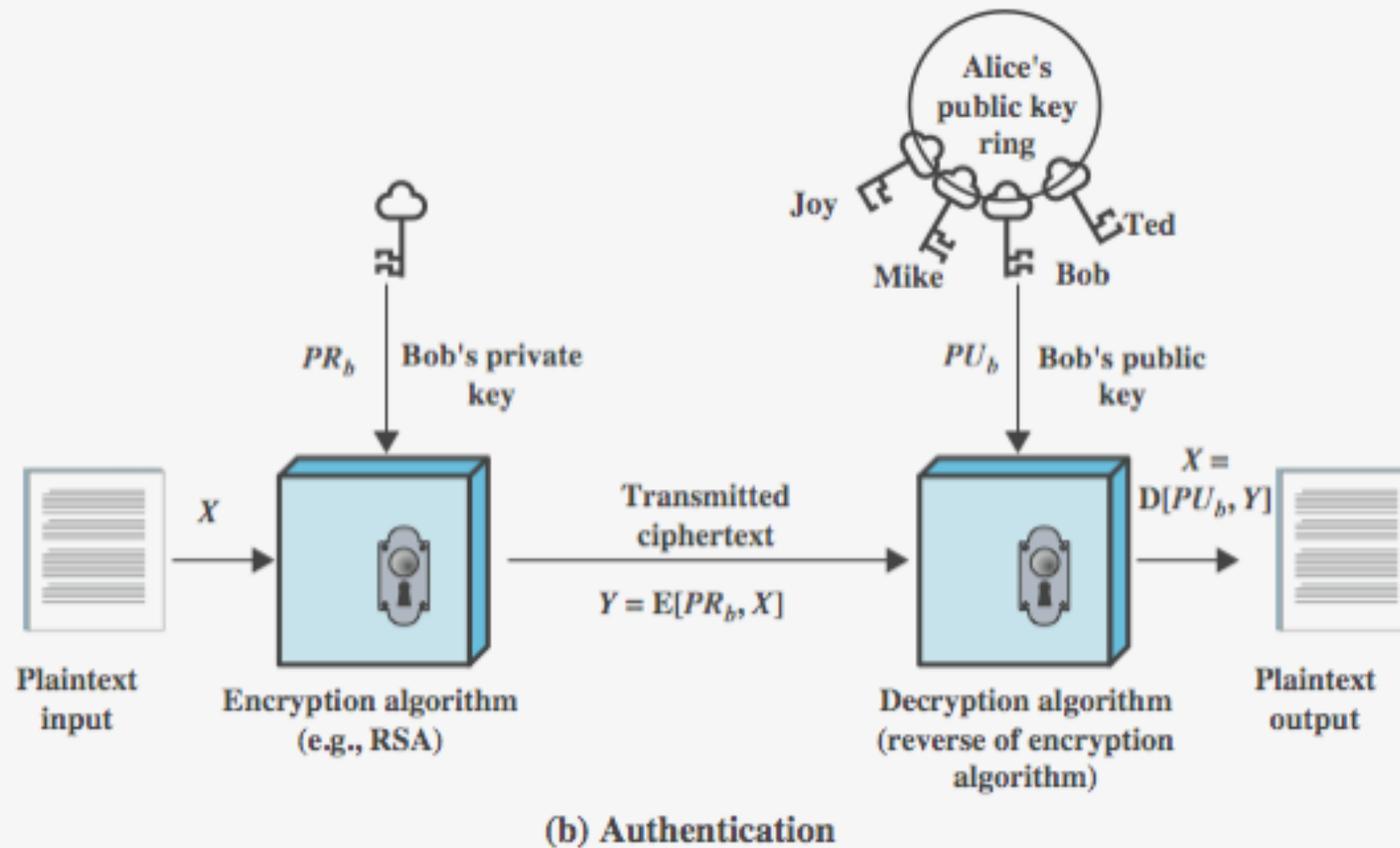
- **The public key is different from the secret or private key.**
- **Infeasible for an attacker to find out the secret key from the public key.**
- **No need for Alice & Bob to distribute a shared secret key beforehand !**
- **Only one pair of public and secret keys is required for each user !**

# Public Key Encryption





# Public Key Authentication



# Public Key Requirements

- 1. computationally easy to create key pairs**
- 2. computationally easy for sender knowing public key to encrypt messages**
- 3. computationally easy for receiver knowing private key to decrypt ciphertext**
- 4. computationally infeasible for opponent to determine private key from public key**
- 5. computationally infeasible for opponent to otherwise recover original message**
- 6. useful if either key can be used for each role**



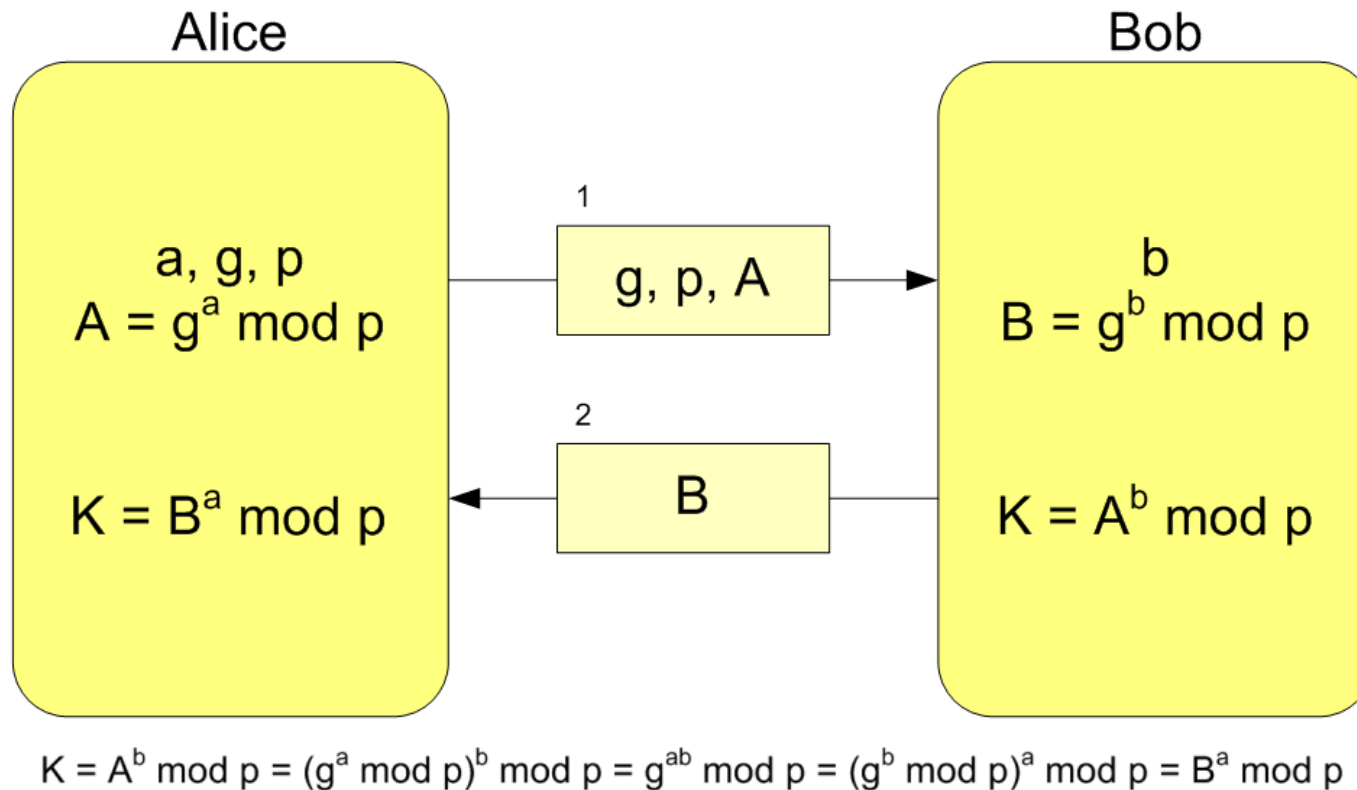
# Public Key Algorithms

- **RSA (Rivest, Shamir, Adleman)**
  - developed in 1977
  - only widely accepted public-key encryption alg
  - given tech advances need 1024+ bit keys
- **Diffie-Hellman key exchange algorithm (1976)**
  - only allows exchange of a secret key
- **Digital Signature Standard (DSS) (1991)**
  - provides only a digital signature function with SHA-1
- **Elliptic curve cryptography (ECC) (1985)**
  - new, security like RSA, but with much smaller keys

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- **first public-key type scheme proposed**
- **by Diffie & Hellman in 1976 along with the exposition of public key concepts**
  - note: now know that Williamson (UK CESG) secretly proposed the concept in 1970
- **practical method to exchange a secret key**
- **used in a number of commercial products**
- **security relies on difficulty of computing discrete logarithms**

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange – Main Idea



- $g, p$  are known to both Alice and Bob.  
 $g < p$
- $p$  is a prime number.
- $a$  is Alice's secret number,  $a < p$
- $b$  is Bob's secret number,  $b < p$

Wikipedia.org

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- **Answer to the problem of key distribution in private key.**
  - The shared-key can be generated by using the combination of the non-secret values of  $p$  and  $g$ .
  - The shared-key can only be generated by knowing either the value of  $A$  (Alice's public key) and  $b$  (Bob's private Key) or  $B$  and  $a$ .

# Diffie-Hellman Example

- Alice and Bob agree to use a prime number  $p=23$  and base  $g=5$ .
- Alice chooses a secret integer  $a=6$ , then sends Bob  $(g^a \bmod p)$ 
  - $A=5^6 \bmod 23 = 5^2 \times 5^2 \times 5^2 \bmod 23 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \bmod 23 = 8$ .
- Bob chooses a secret integer  $b=15$ , then sends Alice  $(g^b \bmod p)$ 
  - $B=5^{15} \bmod 23 = (5^2)^7 \times 5 \bmod 23 = 2^7 \times 5 \bmod 23 = 128 \times 5 \bmod 23 = 13 \times 5 \bmod 23 = 65 \bmod 23 = 19$ .
- Alice computes  $(g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p = B^a \bmod p$ 
  - $K=19^6 \bmod 23 = (19^2)^3 \bmod 23 = (361)^3 \bmod 23 = 16^3 \bmod 23 = 16^2 \times 16 \bmod 23 = 256 \times 16 \bmod 23 = 3 \times 16 \bmod 23 = 2$ .
- Bob computes  $(g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p = A^b \bmod p$ 
  - $K=8^{15} \bmod 23 = (8^4)^3 \times 8^3 \bmod 23 = 2^3 \times 8^3 \bmod 23 = 8^4 \bmod 23 = 2$ .
- The shared secret key is 2.

[Wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Diffie-Hellman_key_exchange)

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange : Example (2)

- **Will Marvin be able to guess the value of the shared key?**
- **Marvin will know:**
  - $5^a \bmod 23 = 8$ .
  - $5^b \bmod 23 = 19$
  - $19^a \bmod 23 = s$
  - $8^b \bmod 23 = s$
  - $19^a \bmod 23 = 8^b \bmod 23$
- **Finding the value of an exponent such as  $a$  or  $b$  knowing the integer and modulo values are not trivial,  $\Rightarrow$  It will take Marvin a long time to calculate either  $a$  or  $b$ !**
  - See slide 23 on number theory



# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- The model shows that it is possible to create a secret key based on “known” or “published” information.
- The introduction of this key exchange protocol triggers the interests in the exploration of modular mathematics and prime number theory in cryptography.
- Still have the need to agree on  $p$  and the  $g$  before secret key can be generated, i.e reaching an agreement process is still needed.
- What can we do about it?

# Realising public key ciphers

- The most famous system that implements Diffie & Hellman's ideas on public key ciphers is due to
  - Ronald Rivest
  - Adi Shamir
  - Leonard Adleman
- This public key cryptosystem is called RSA.

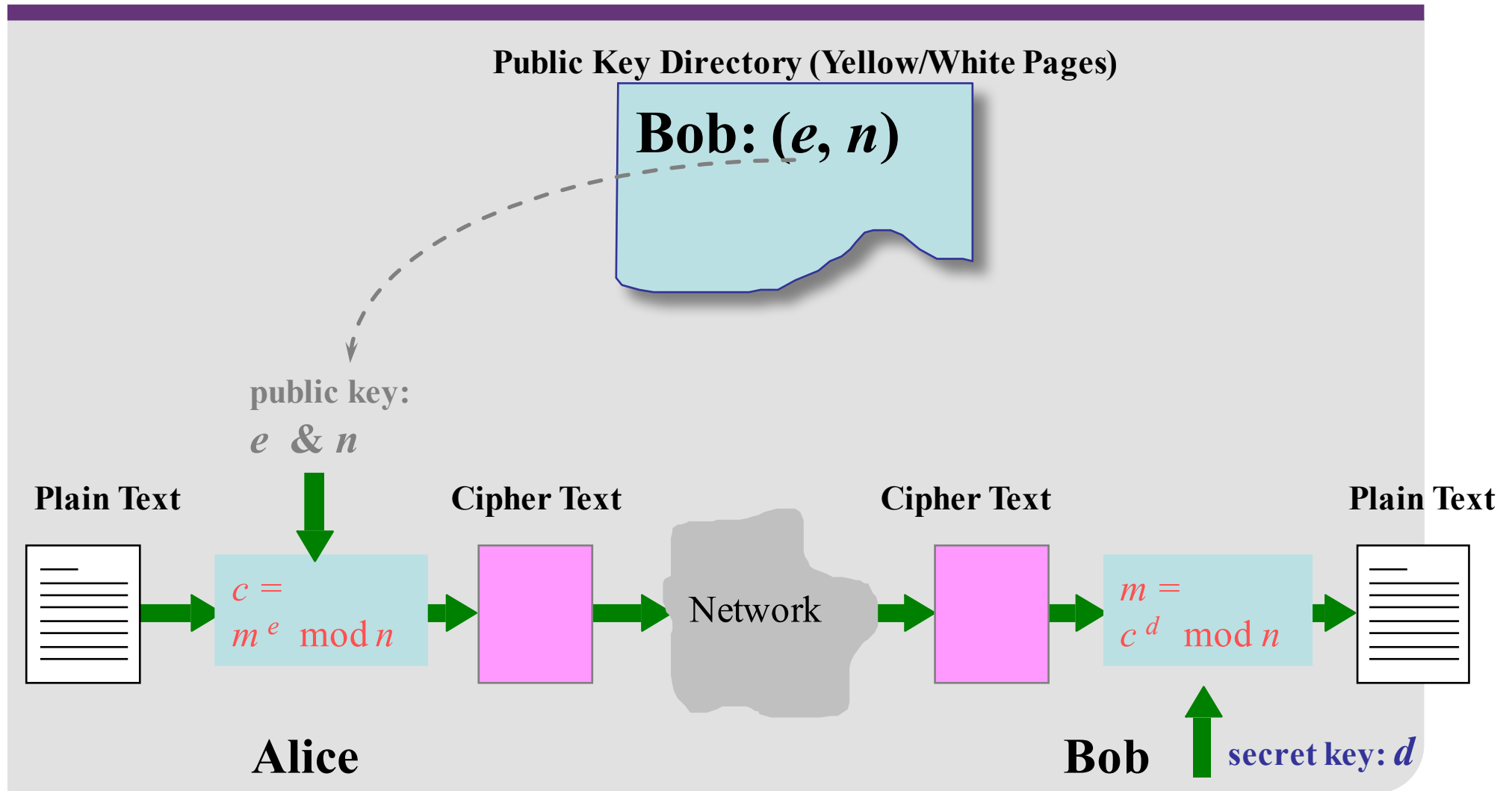
1977, at MIT



2003, RSA



# RSA Public Key Cryptosystem



Look at this  $\rightarrow M^y \bmod n = M$

- Let  $y = a * b$ , and  $y$  &  $n$  are relatively prime then

For any  $M < n$ ,

$$M^y \bmod n = M$$

$$= M^{a*b} \bmod n$$

$$= M \text{ if } a*b \bmod \phi(n) = 1$$


$$a * b = 1 \bmod \phi(n)$$

- $a$  &  $b$  are multiplicative inverse in modulo  $\phi(n)$  arithmetic.

- Refer to slide 30 from number theory



# RSA Key Setup

- **Bob:**
  - chooses 2 large prime numbers:  $p, q$   
multiplies  $p$  and  $q$ :  $n = p * q$
  - finds out two numbers  $e$  &  $d$  such that
    - >  $(e * d) \bmod \phi(n) = 1$
    - Or  $(e * d) \bmod [(p-1)*(q-1)] = 1$
  - public key (published in the phone book)
    - > 2 numbers:  $(e, n)$
    - > encryption alg: modular exponentiation
  - secret key:  $(d, n)$

# RSA : Encryption

- **Alice has a message  $m$  to be sent to Bob:**
  - finds out Bob's public encryption key  $(e, n)$
  - calculates
$$m^e \pmod n \rightarrow c$$
  - sends the ciphertext  $c$  to Bob



# RSA : Decryption

- **Bob:**

- receives the ciphertext  $c$  from Alice
- uses his matching secret decryption key  $d$  to calculate

$$c^d \pmod{n} \rightarrow m$$



# RSA ---A simple example (1)

- **Bob:**
  - chooses 2 primes:  $p=5, q=11$   
multiplies  $p$  and  $q$ :  $n = p * q = 55$
  - $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)=4 \times 10=40$
  - finds out two numbers  $e=3$  &  $d=27$  which satisfy  
 $(3 * 27) \bmod 40 = 1$ ;
  - Bob's public key
    - > 2 numbers:  $(3, 55)$
    - > encryption alg: modular exponentiation
  - secret key:  $(27, 55)$



# RSA --- A simple example (2)

- **Alice has a message  $m=13$  to be sent to Bob:**

- finds out Bob's public encryption key  
(3, 55)

- calculates  $c$ :

$$\begin{aligned}c &= m^e \pmod{n} \\&= 13^3 \pmod{55} \\&= (169 \pmod{55}) * 13 \pmod{55} \pmod{55} \\&= (4 * 13) \pmod{55} \\&= 52\end{aligned}$$

- sends the ciphertext  $c=52$  to Bob

# RSA --- A simple example (3)

- **Bob:**

- receives the ciphertext  $c=52$  from Alice
- uses his matching secret decryption key 27 to calculate  $m$ :

$$\begin{aligned}m &= 52^{27} \pmod{55} \\&= (4 \cdot 13)^{27} \pmod{55} = 4^{27} \cdot 13^{27} \pmod{55} \\&= 4^{27} \cdot (13^{2 \times 13}) \cdot 13 \pmod{55} \\&= 4^{27} \cdot 4^{13} \cdot 13 \pmod{55} \\&= 4^{40} \cdot 13 \pmod{55} = 1 \pmod{55} \cdot 13 \pmod{55}\end{aligned}$$

**$[a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \pmod{n}]$ , if  $a$  &  $n$  are relatively prime-Euler's theorem**  
 **$= 13$  (Alice's message)**

# How does RSA work?

- $n = p * q \Rightarrow \phi(n) = \phi(p * q) = (p-1) * (q-1)$
- We choose  $d$  &  $e$  such that
  - $(e * d) \bmod \phi(n) = 1$  ;
  - for any  $m < n$ :  $m^{de} = m \bmod n$  ;
  - **an RSA** encryption consists of taking  $m$  and raising it to  $e$ ; and decrypting the ciphertext by raising the result of the encryption to  $d$ .
    - > We have  $(a * b) \bmod n = ((a \bmod n) * (b \bmod n)) \bmod n$
    - > hence :  $(m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n = (m^e)^d \bmod n = (m^{ed}) \bmod n = m \bmod n = m$

# Constraints on RSA

- The message  $m$  has to be an integer between the range  $[1, (n-1)]$ .
- To encrypt long messages we can use modes of operation as for block private key ciphers, or a hybrid cryptosystem.
- The values of  $e$  &  $d$  are large else it will be vulnerable to a brute force attack and to other forms of cryptanalysis

# Why RSA is Secure?

- **Attack Scenario:**

- Marvin wants to read Alice's private message ( $m$ ) intended to be read only by Bob.
- However, Alice used RSA to encrypt  $m$  using Bob's public key  $(e, n)$ , into the ciphertext  $c = m^e \pmod{n}$ .
- Marvin is a determined attacker and managed to intercept the ciphertext  $c$  on its way from Alice's to Bob's computer.
- Marvin also looked up Bob's public key  $(e, n)$  to help him in his attack.

# Why RSA is Secure?

- **Marvin now has  $(c,e,n)$  and wants to find out  $m$ .**
- **How can Marvin proceed to find  $m$ ?**
  - Approach 1: If Marvin could also find out Bob's secret key  $d$ , he could decrypt  $c$  into  $m$  in the same way as Bob does.
    - > Suppose Bob guards his secret key  $d$  very well, what can Marvin do then?
  - Approach 2: Marvin knows that  $c = m^e \pmod{n}$ . He knows that  $m$  is a number between 0 and  $n-1$ . So he could use exhaustive search through all  $n$  possible messages  $m$ .
    - > But if  $n$  is large this takes a long time!

# Why RSA is Secure?

- **Marvin's Attack options (cont):**

- Approach 3: Marvin can try to **compute Bob's secret key  $d$  from  $(e,n)$  and then use Approach 1.**

- > Remember that  $(e * d) \bmod ((p-1)*(q-1)) = 1$

- > Marvin found in a 'Number Theory' book a very fast algorithm called *EUCLID* to solve the following problem: Given two numbers  $(r,s)$ , the algorithm outputs a number  $x$  such that

- $(r * x) \bmod s = 1.$



# Why RSA is Secure?

- Approach 3 is the most efficient known method Marvin can use to attack RSA!
- The time taken for Marvin to execute the attack in Approach 3 is essentially the time to factorize  $n=p*q$  into the prime factors  $p$  and  $q$ .
- 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 !*



# Why RSA is Secure?

- Therefore, when both  $p$  and  $q$  in RSA are of at least 155 digits, the product  $n=p*q$  is 310 digits.
- Then no one can factorize  $n$  in less time than a few thousand years, not even Marvin!!
- Thus the *only* person who can extract the plaintext  $m$  from the ciphertext  $c$  is Bob, as only he knows the secret decryption key  $d$  !



# Marvin's New Attack Idea

- **Instead of just eavesdropping, Marvin can try a more *active* attack!**
- **Outline of the New Attack:**
  - Marvin generates an RSA key pair
    - > Public key =  $K_{pub}^* = (N^*, e^*)$
    - > Secret key =  $K_{sec}^* = d^*$
  - Marvin sends the following email to Alice, pretending to be Bob:
    - > Hi Alice,
      - Please use my new public key from now on to encrypt messages to me. My new public key is  $K_{pub}^*$ .
      - Yours sincerely, Bob.
  - Marvin decrypts any messages Alice sends to Bob (encrypted with  $K_{pub}^*$ ), using  $K_{sec}^*$ .

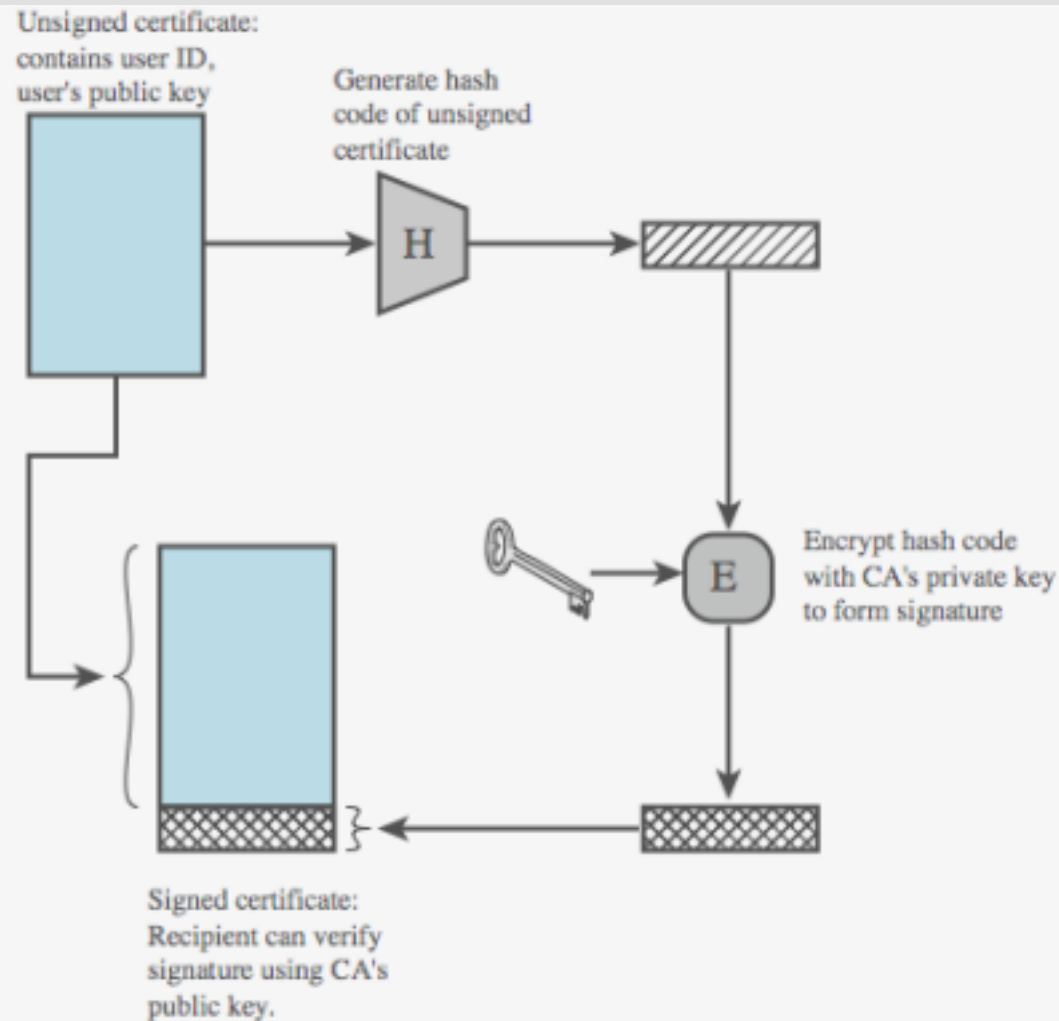
# Preventing Marvin's Active Attack

- **The active attack works because:**
  - Alice was tricked by Marvin into encrypting a message intended for Bob using a “fake” public key which is NOT Bob's public key (in fact it was Marvin's).
- **To prevent the attack:**
  - Before Alice encrypts a message for Bob, she must make sure she has Bob's CORRECT public key (and not a fake one).
  - Alice needs a way of testing the truth of any “Bob's key message” informing Alice of Bob's Public Key.
  - No one besides Bob should be able to produce such a message so that it will pass Alice's Test.

## Preventing Marvin' s Active Attack (2)

- **This is a setting where Alice and Bob have a message integrity security requirement!**
  - i.e. Alice and Bob want to prevent fabrication and/or modification of a “Bob’ s key message” (a message informing Alice of Bob’ s public key) by unauthorised parties (like Marvin).
- **The main cryptographic tool used to achieve message integrity is “Authority Certificates”.**
- **Later we shall see how Digital Signatures can be used to prevent Marvin’ s Attack!**

# Public Key Certificates



# Private key ciphers

- **Strengths**

- in-expensive to use
- fast
- low cost VLSI chips available

- **Weakness**

- key distribution is a problem
- If there are  $n$  people who need to communicate, then  $n(n-1)/2$  keys are needed for each pair of people to communicate privately.

# Public key ciphers

- **Strengths**

- key distribution is NOT a problem
- Only 2 keys required for communicating with  $n$  users

- **Weaknesses**

- relatively expensive to use
- relatively slow
- VLSI chips not available or relatively high cost

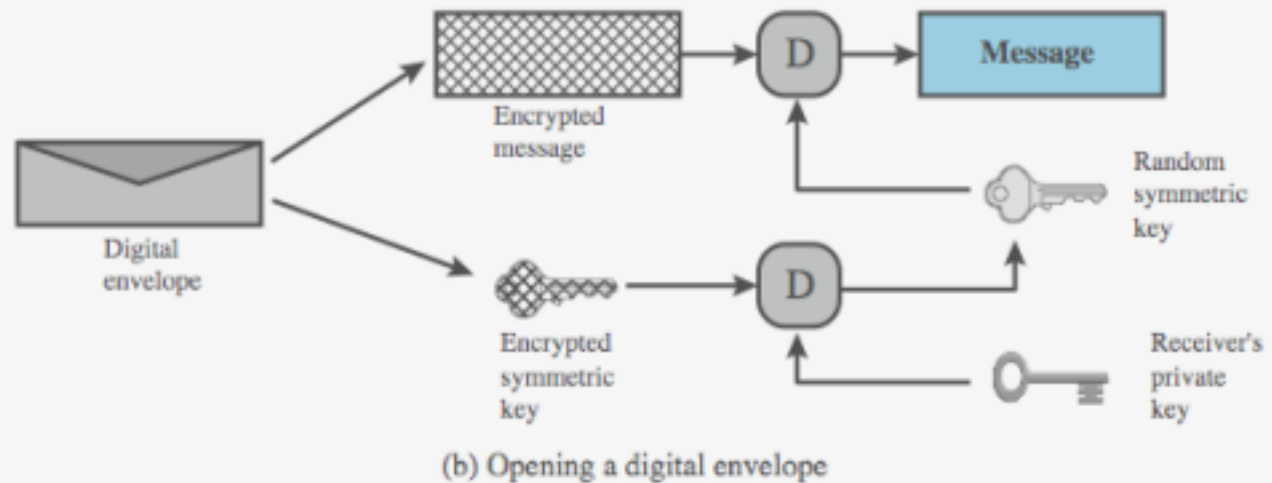
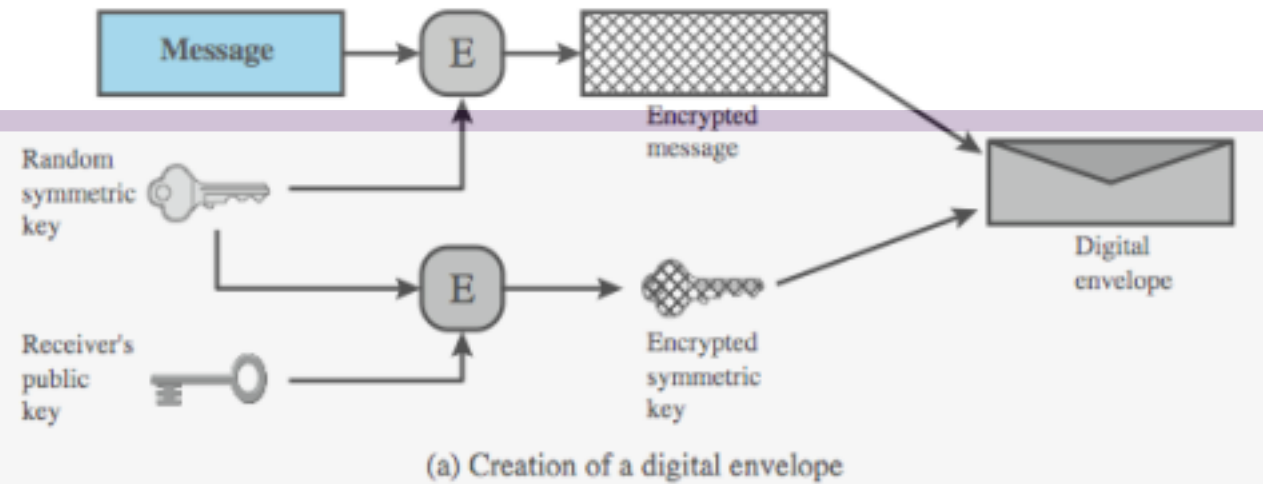
# Combining 2 Type of Ciphers

- **In practice, we can**
  - use a public key cipher (such as RSA) to distribute key for symmetric key cipher
  - use a symmetric key cipher (such as AES) to encrypt and decrypt messages





# Digital Envelopes



# Summary

- **Why public key cryptography ?**
- **General principles of public key cryptography**
- **Diffie-Hellman public key exchange**
- **RSA public key cryptosystem**
- **RSA Security**

# Further Reading

- **Chapters 2 & 21 of the textbook: *Computer Security: Principles and Practice*” by William Stallings & Lawrie Brown, Prentice Hall, 2015**
- **Acknowledgement: part of the materials presented in the slides was developed with the help of Instructor’s Manual and other resources made available by the author of the textbook.**