

# Cryptography and Security

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### Lecture 7: Introduction to Public-Key Cryptography

#### Objectives of this Lecture

- 1. Introduce the idea of public-key cryptography.
- 2. Present the history of public-key cryptography.
- 3. Outline three applications of public-key ciphers.



A Disadvantage of One-Key Block Ciphers

### A Disadvantage of One-Key Block Ciphers

One-key block ciphers:  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, E_k, D_k)$ , where the encryption and decryption keys are the same.

- The sender and receiver must share the same secret key. Key distribution is a must.
- If 10000 people want to communicate (two and two, in all possible ways), each must keep 9999 secret keys, and the system requires a total of

$$9999 \cdot 10000/2 = 4995000$$

secret keys. This makes key management difficult.



The Idea of Public-Key Cryptography

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### Two-key Ciphers

A six-tuple  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}_e, \mathcal{K}_d, E_{k_e}, D_{k_d})$ , where

- $\mathcal{M}$ ,  $\mathcal{C}$ ,  $\mathcal{K}_e$ ,  $\mathcal{K}_d$  are respectively the plaintext space, ciphertext space, encryption key space, and decryption key space;
- $k_e \in \mathcal{K}_e$  and  $k_d \in \mathcal{K}_d$  are corresponding encryption and decryption keys respectively;
- $E_{k_e}$  and  $D_{k_d}$  are the encryption and decryption transformations, and

$$D_{k_d}(E_{k_e}(m)) = m,$$

for all  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  (unique and correct decryption).

### The Idea of Public-Key Cryptography

Suppose that our university has a two-key cipher  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}_e, \mathcal{K}_d, E_{k_e}, D_{k_d})$ , which is in the public domain.

I generate my encryption and decryption key pair  $(k_e, k_d)$ , and then publicize  $k_e$  in the public domain, in order for anybody else to encrypt a message and send it to me. **Everyone in our university does the same.** 

A two-key cipher used in this special way is called a **public-key cipher**.

Comment: The encryption key  $k_e$  is called the **public key**, and the decryption key  $k_d$  is called the **private key**, which must be kept confidential by its holder.



#### The Security of Public-Key Ciphers

A public-key cipher  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}_e, \mathcal{K}_d, E_{k_e}, D_{k_d})$  is **computationally-secure** if and only if the following two conditions are satisfied:

- C1: it is "computationally infeasible" to derive the decryption key  $k_d$  from the given encryption key  $k_e$ ; and
- C2: it is "computationally infeasible" to derive the plaintext m if the corresponding ciphertext c is known.
  - In theory, a public key  $k_e$  should contain all information about the private key  $k_d$ . But it should be computationally infeasible to retrieve all the information about  $k_d$ .
  - $E_{k_e}$  is known to everyone. So, its inverse function  $D_{k_d}$  is also known in theory. But it should be computationally infeasible to derive the decryption function  $D_{k_d}$ .



**Matrix:** An  $n \times m$  matrix A = [a[i,j]] over  $\{0,1\}$  is a 2-dimensional array

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a[1,1] & a[1,2] & \cdots & a[1,m-1] & a[1,m] \\ a[2,1] & a[2,2] & \cdots & a[2,m-1] & a[2,m] \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a[n,1] & a[n,2] & \cdots & a[n,m-1] & a[n,m] \end{bmatrix},$$

which has n rows and m columns, and each  $a[i,j] \in \{0,1\}$ .



Given an  $n \times m$  matrix A and an  $m \times l$  matrix B, the multiplication C = AB over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  is an  $n \times l$  matrix given by

$$c[i,j] = \sum_{k=1}^{m} a[i,k]b[k,j]$$

for  $1 \le i \le n$  and  $1 \le j \le l$ , where operations in the sum are mudulo-2 additions and mudulo-2 multiplications.



$$A = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 1 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} 
ight], \qquad B = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 1 & 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{array} 
ight],$$

then

$$C = AB = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



**Definition:** Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix over  $\mathbb{Z}_2$ . If there exists an  $n \times n$  matrix  $B \in \mathbb{Z}_2$  such that  $AB = I_n$ , i.e., the  $n \times n$  identity matrix, then A is said **invertible**, and B is the **inverse matrix** of A.

**Example:** A is the inverse of itself:

$$A = \left[ egin{array}{cccc} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} 
ight].$$



Let  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \{0, 1\}^*$ , all the finite binary strings, and let  $\mathcal{K}$  be the set of all invertible  $512 \times 512$  matrices k over  $\mathbf{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$  with  $k \neq k^{-1}$ . Each message is broken into blocks of length 512 bits. The encryption and decryption algorithms work on blocks.

**Encryption and decryption:** For a 512-bit plaintext block x and ciphertext block y,

$$E_k(x) = kx, \quad D_{k^{-1}}(y) = k^{-1}y,$$

where all the arithmetic operations involved in computing kx are modulo-2, and  $(k_e, k_d) = (k, k^{-1})$ 

Comment: C1 and C2 are not satisfied. Why?

## Design Requirements for Public-Key Ciphers

The C1 and C2 described before plus the following efficiency requirements:

- 1. It is "computationally easy" for a party B to generate a pair  $\left(k_e^{(B)}, k_d^{(B)}\right)$ .
- 2. It is "computationally easy" for a sender A, knowing the public key and the message to be encrypted, m, to generate the corresponding ciphertext  $c = E_{k_c^{(B)}}(m)$ .
- 3. It is "computationally easy" for the receiver B to recover the message  $m = D_{k_d^{(B)}}(c)$ .

#### Existence and Construction Problems

**Question:** Is there any public-key cipher meeting the five requirements described in the previous page?

**Answer:** Several public-key ciphers in the literature are believed to meet these requirements. But there is no proof.

#### How to construct a public-key cipher?

Use a problem that is believed to be hard to solve, e.g., the discrete logarithm problem.

#### Advantages and Disadvantages

- With a public-key cipher, a user does not need to share many keys with others. This is an advantage of public-key ciphers over private-key ciphers.
- The **disadvantage** of public-key ciphers is their performance in hardware and software, as no **efficient** and **secure** public-key cipher is known.



History of Public-Key Cryptography



### History of Public-Key Cryptography (I)

- The idea of public-key cryptography was published by W. Diffie and M. Hellman, and independently by R. Merkle in 1976. It is regarded as a REVOLUTION in the history of cryptography!
- Admiral Bobby Inman, while director of the NSA, claimed that public-key cryptography had been discovered at NSA in the mid-1960s.
- The <u>first (???)</u> documented introduction of these concepts was given in 1970 by the Communications-Electronics Security Group, Britain's counterpart of NSA, in a classified report by James Ellis.

## History of Public-Key Cryptography (II)

- The Knapsack public-key cipher was developed by Ralph Merkle and Martin Hellman in 1978, but was broken in 1982 by Shamir and Zipple.
- In the same year (1978), another public-key block cipher was invented by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, and Leonard Adleman. It is known as RSA. It is easy to understand and to implement, and is one of a few that are still regarded as secure. It is widely used in real-world security systems.
- Many other public-key ciphers have been proposed. Most of them have been broken.



Three Applications of Public-Key Ciphers



## Application in Encrypting Data

Given a public-key cipher  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}_e, \mathcal{K}_d, E_{k_e}, D_{k_d})$ :

- Alice generates a key pair  $(k_e^{(A)}, k_d^{(A)})$ , keeps the decryption key  $k_d^{(A)}$  confidential, and publishes the encryption key  $k_e^{(A)}$  and the encryption algorithm in a public directory.
- If Bob wants to send a message m to Alice, he finds Alice's encryption key  $k_e^{(A)}$  and the encryption algorithm in the public directory, encrypts the message to get  $c = E_{k_c^{(A)}}(m)$ , and sends c to A.
- $\bullet$  After receiving c, Alice uses her decryption key and computes

$$D_{k_d^{(A)}}(c) = D_{k_d^{(A)}}(E_{k_e^{(A)}}(m)) = m.$$

**Remark:** This is recommended for encrypting data of small size.



A Key Distribution Protocol Using a Public-Key Cipher

#### Application in Key Distribution

**Session key:** Two parties want to communicate using a one-key cipher for encryption. They need a session key for each session of communication.

#### Session key distribution with a public-key cipher

- Alice generates a session key k and then sends  $E_{k_e^{(B)}}(k)$  to Bob.
- Bob uses his private key  $k_e^{(B)}$  to decrypt  $E_{k_d^{(B)}}(k)$  and recovers k.

**Remark:** The  $E_{k_e^{(B)}}(k)$  is called a **digital envelope** and this protocol is called the **digital envelop protocol**, which is widely used in real-world security systems!

**Remark:** In this protocol, we assume that Alice and Bob exchanged their public keys beforehand.



A Digital Signature Scheme Using a Public-Key Cipher



### The Digital Signature Scheme: Signing Process

Suppose that we have a hash function h and public-key cipher  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}_e, \mathcal{K}_d, E_{k_e}, D_{k_d})$ , where the domain and range of  $E_{k_e}$  are the same. Both are put in the public domain.

Alice can use her private key  $k_d^{(A)}$  to **sign** messages.

- To sign a message m, Alice computes h(m), which is called the **message digest**.
- She then uses her private key to sign on the message digest, obtaining  $D_{k_d^{(A)}}(h(m))$ , i.e., her digital signature on m. Then she sends the data  $m||D_{k_d^{(A)}}(h(m))$  to the receiver Bob.

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## Properties of the Digital Signature

Message from Alice:  $m||D_{k_d^{(A)}}(h(m))|$ 

**Property 1:** The digital signature  $D_{k_d^{(A)}}(h(m))$  has a fixed length for all messages m.

**Property 2:** The message m and the digital signature  $D_{k_d^{(A)}}(h(m))$  have the following relationship:

$$h(m) = E_{k_e^{(A)}} \left( D_{k_d^{(A)}} (h(m)) \right).$$

Thus, if the received message c by Bob was indeed created by Alice, and is partitioned into  $c = c_1 || c_2$ , where  $c_2$  has the same length as the digital signature, then

$$h(c_1) = E_{k_e^{(A)}}(c_2).$$

This relation is the basis of the digital signature verification process.



## The Digital Signature Scheme: Signature Verification

- Bob partitions the received message c into two parts  $c_1||c_2$ , where  $c_2$  has the same length as the digital signature.
- Then he uses Alice's public key  $k_e^{(A)}$  to compute  $E_{k_e^{(A)}}(c_2)$ .
- Then he computes  $h(c_1)$  (the hash function is public).
- Finally, he compares  $h(c_1)$  with  $E_{k_e^{(A)}}(c_2)$ .

  If  $h(c_1) = E_{k_e^{(A)}}(c_2)$ , he accepts  $c_1||c_2|$  as a valid message with signature from Alice.
  - In this case,  $c_1||c_2|$  may be a modified or forged one. But the probability of this event should be very small if the public-key cipher and h are well designed.

If  $h(c_1) \neq E_{k_e^{(A)}}(c_2)$ , he is sure that  $c_2$  is not the digital signature on  $c_1$  created by Alice.

## Security Requirements of the Two Building Blocks

Question: How should we design the public-key cipher and the hash function so that the success probability of forging the signer's digital signature is very small?

**Answer:** The answer is that it depends on specific forgery attacks on the digital signature scheme.

**Remark:** We will answer the question above later.

**Remark:** This digital signature scheme is used in certain real-world security systems.

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## Applications of Public-Key Cryptography

#### Three types of applications:

Encryption, digital signature, key distribution.

Comments: Some public-key ciphers can be used for all the three applications, while others can be used only for two of these applications.

This will be made clear later when we cover specific public-key ciphers.