

# Lecture 6

## Asymmetric Cryptography

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CSSY2201 : Introduction to Cryptography

# Plan

1 Principles of Asymmetric cryptography

2 RSA

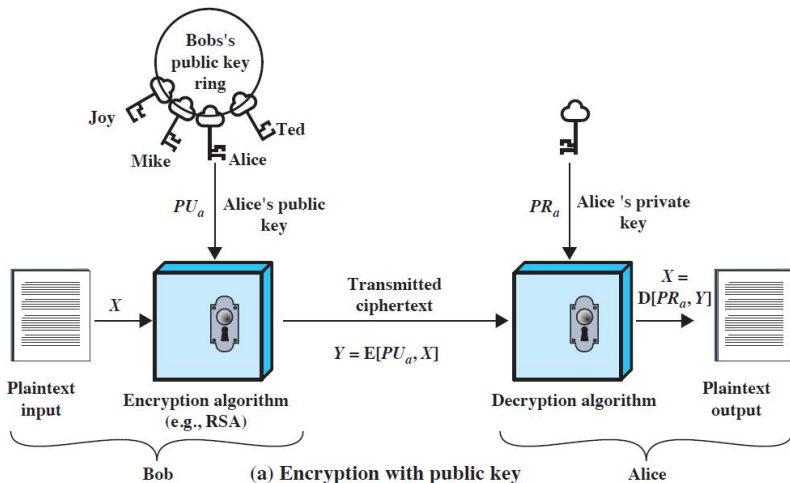
# Principles of asymmetric cryptography

- asymmetric cryptography solve two main problems :
  - Distribution of keys : How to establish a secret communication without the intervention of a third trusted party (KDC : Key distribution Center)
  - Digital Signature : A way to authenticate the message and the message origin (the sender authentication)
- Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman from Stanford University have proposed in 1976 the first new concept of asymmetric cryptography.

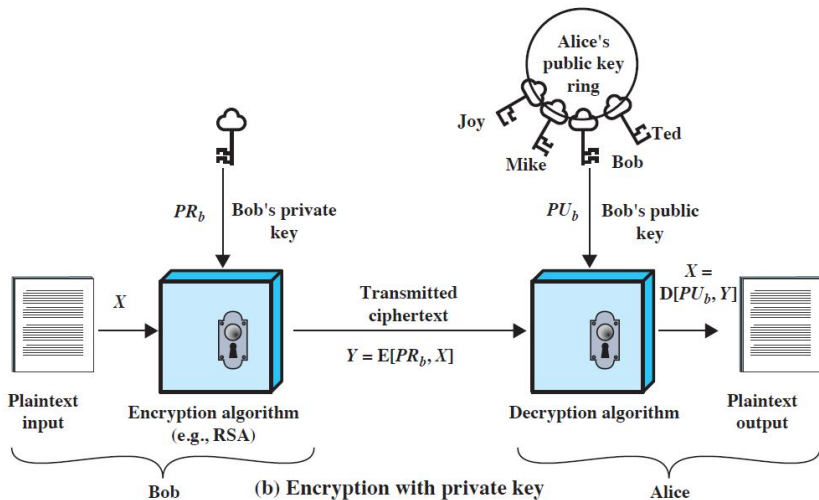
# Terminology of Asymmetric cryptography

- Plaintext : original text
- Ciphertext : encrypted text
- Encryption : The process of conversion from plaintext to ciphertext
- Decryption : The process of conversion from ciphertext to plaintext
- Public key : used in the Encryption algorithm ( by the sender for confidentiality)
- Private key : used in the Decryption algorithm ( by the receiver for confidentiality)

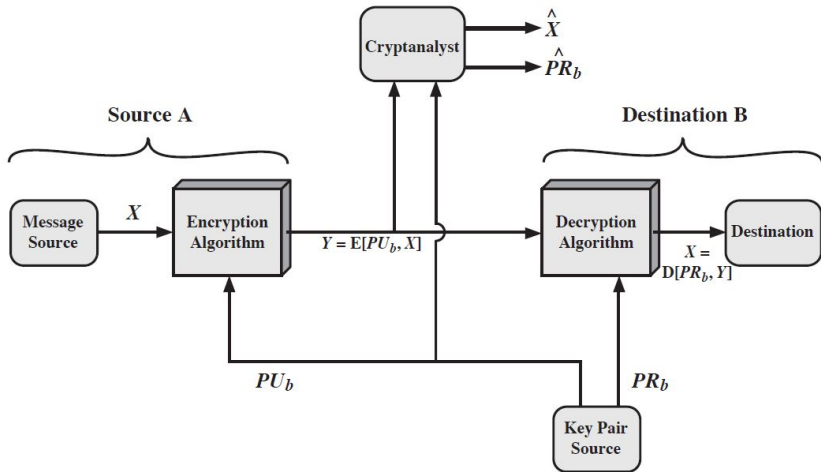
# Encryption with the public key



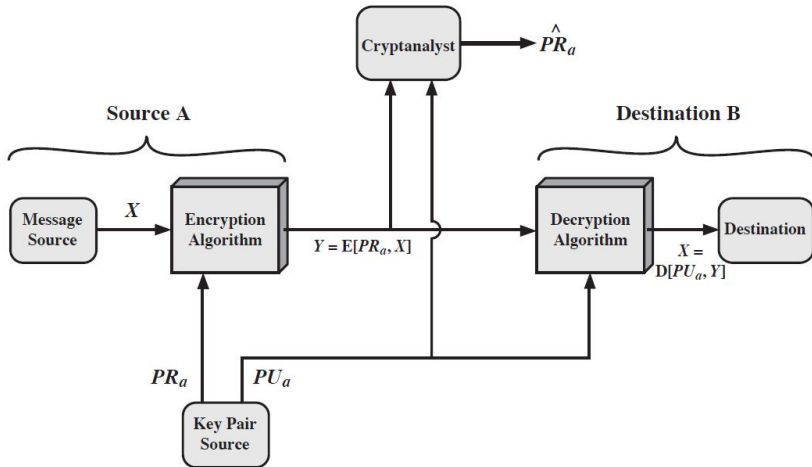
# Encryption with the private key



# Asymmetric cryptography : confidentiality

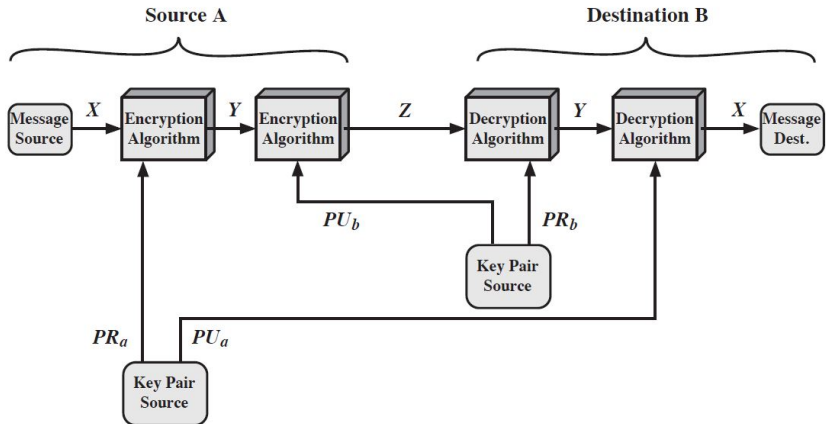


# Asymmetric cryptography : authentication





# Asymmetric cryptography : confidentiality & authentication



# Applications of asymmetric cryptography

- Asymmetric cryptography are used in three main applications :
  - Encryption/Decryption : Sender encrypts a plaintext using the receiver's public key.
  - Digital signature : Sender signs a message using his private key.
  - Key Exchange : Sender and receiver negotiate to establish a common secret key.
- Some algorithms can be used in all those applications. Some others are appropriate for one or to applications.

# Applications of asymmetric cryptography

Algorithm	Encryption/Decryption	Digital Signature	Key Exchange
RSA	Yes	Yes	Yes
Elliptic Curve	Yes	Yes	Yes
Diffie-Hellman	No	No	Yes
DSS	No	Yes	No

# Asymmetric Cryptography Requirements

These alg must have the following requirements

- need one way trap function
- a one-way function verifies the following :
  - $Y = f(X)$  is easy
  - $X = f^{-1}(Y)$  is not feasible
- a one-way trapdoor function is a  $f_k$  family of reversible functions satisfying :
  - $Y = f_k(X)$  is easy if  $k$  and  $X$  are known
  - $X = f_k^{-1}(Y)$  is easy if  $k$  and  $Y$  are known
  - $X = f_k^{-1}(Y)$  is not feasible if  $Y$  is known and  $k$  not known
- a public key alg is therefore based on a one-way trap function

# RSA

- Developed in 1977 at MIT by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir & Len Adleman
- the most used public key alg
- is an alg whose plaintext and ciphertext are integers between 0 and  $n-1$ .
- $n$  is a number of size 1024 bits or 309 decimal digits

# RSA Algorithm

- the plaintext is encrypted in blocks, each block has a value less than  $n$
- Encryption of a plaintext block is as follows :

$$C = M^e \bmod n$$

- decryption is as follows :

$$M = C^d \bmod n = (M^e)^d \bmod n = M^{ed} \bmod n$$

- sender and receiver know the value of  $n$
- The sender knows the value of  $e$
- only the receiver knows the value of  $d$
- the public key is the pair  $(e, n)$
- the private key is the pair  $(d, n)$

# Key Generation

- each user generates their own keys (private and public) by :
- select two large primes  $p$  and  $q$
- calculate  $n = p \times q$
- calculate  $\phi(n) = (p - 1) \times (q - 1)$
- randomly select a number  $e$  with :  $1 < e < \phi(n)$  and  $GCD(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
- solve this equation to find  $d$  with  $0 \leq d \leq n$  :

$$e \times d = 1 \text{ mod } \phi(n)$$

$d$  is called the multiplicative inverse of  $e \text{ mod } \phi(n)$

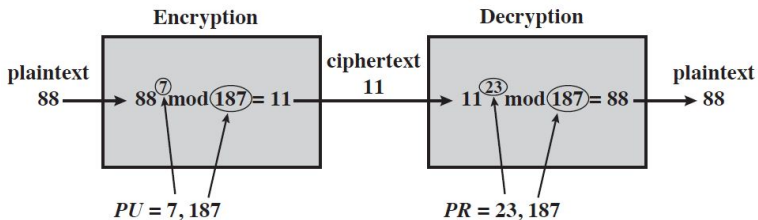
- publish pair  $PU = \{e, n\}$  as public key
- secretly keep  $PR = \{d, n\}$  pair as private key

# Toy example

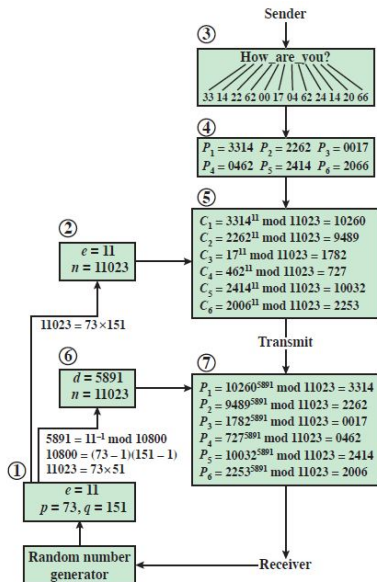
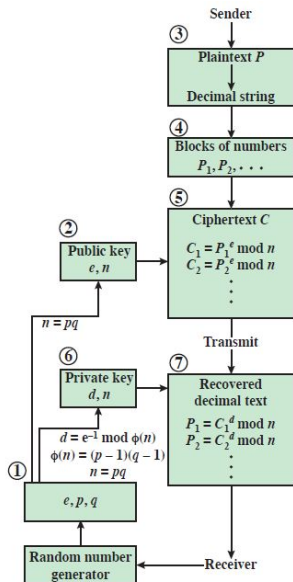
- 1 Select prime numbers :  $p = 17$  &  $q = 11$
- 2 Calculate  $n = p \times q = 17 \times 11 = 187$
- 3 Calculate  $\phi(n) = (p - 1) \times (q - 1) = 16 \times 10 = 160$
- 4 Select  $e$  :  $\gcd(e, 160) = 1$  ; choose  $e = 7$
- 5 Determine  $d$  such that  $d \times e = 1 \bmod 160$  : the value is  $d = 23$  since  $23 \times 7 = 161 = 10 \times 160 + 1$
- 6 Publish public key  $PU = \{7, 187\}$
- 7 Keep private key  $PR = \{23, 187\}$  secret



# Encryption/decryption



# Example RSA on a long message



# Exponentiation in RSA

- encryption and decryption manipulates exponentiations of large numbers modulo  $n$
- we can use properties of modular arithmetic :

$$(a \bmod n) \times (b \bmod n) = (a \times b) \bmod n$$

- we must also try to do the exponentiation as quickly as possible
- we can render the exponentiation in  $O(\log_2 n)$  multiplications for a number  $n$

$$\text{ex1 : } 7^5 = 7^4 \times 7^1 = 3 \times 7 = 10 \bmod 11 \implies \log_2 5 = 3$$

multiplications

$$\text{ex2 : } 3^{129} = 3^{128} \times 3^1 = 5 \times 3 = 4 \bmod 11 \implies \log_2 129 = 8$$

multiplications

# Computing of $a^b \bmod n$

```

c ← 0; f ← 1
for i ← k downto 0
    do    c ← 2 × c
          f ← (f × f) mod n
    if    bi = 1
        then c ← c + 1
           f ← (f × a) mod n
return f

```

with  $b$  is an integer converted to binary in  $b_k b_{k-1} \dots b_0$

Example of calculation of  $a^b \bmod n$ , for  $a = 7$ ,

$b = 560 = (1000110000)_2$ , and  $n = 561$

$i$	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
$b_i$	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
$c$	1	2	4	8	17	35	70	140	280	560
$f$	7	49	157	526	160	241	298	166	67	1

# Attacks on RSA ?

Three approaches to attack RSA :

- Factor  $n$  into two primes  $p$  and  $q$ . This will lead to find  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$  which leads to determine  $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$
- determine  $\phi(n)$  directly without finding  $p$  and  $q$ , which leads to determine  $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$
- Determine  $d$  directly without determining  $\phi(n)$