

# Public-key Algorithms



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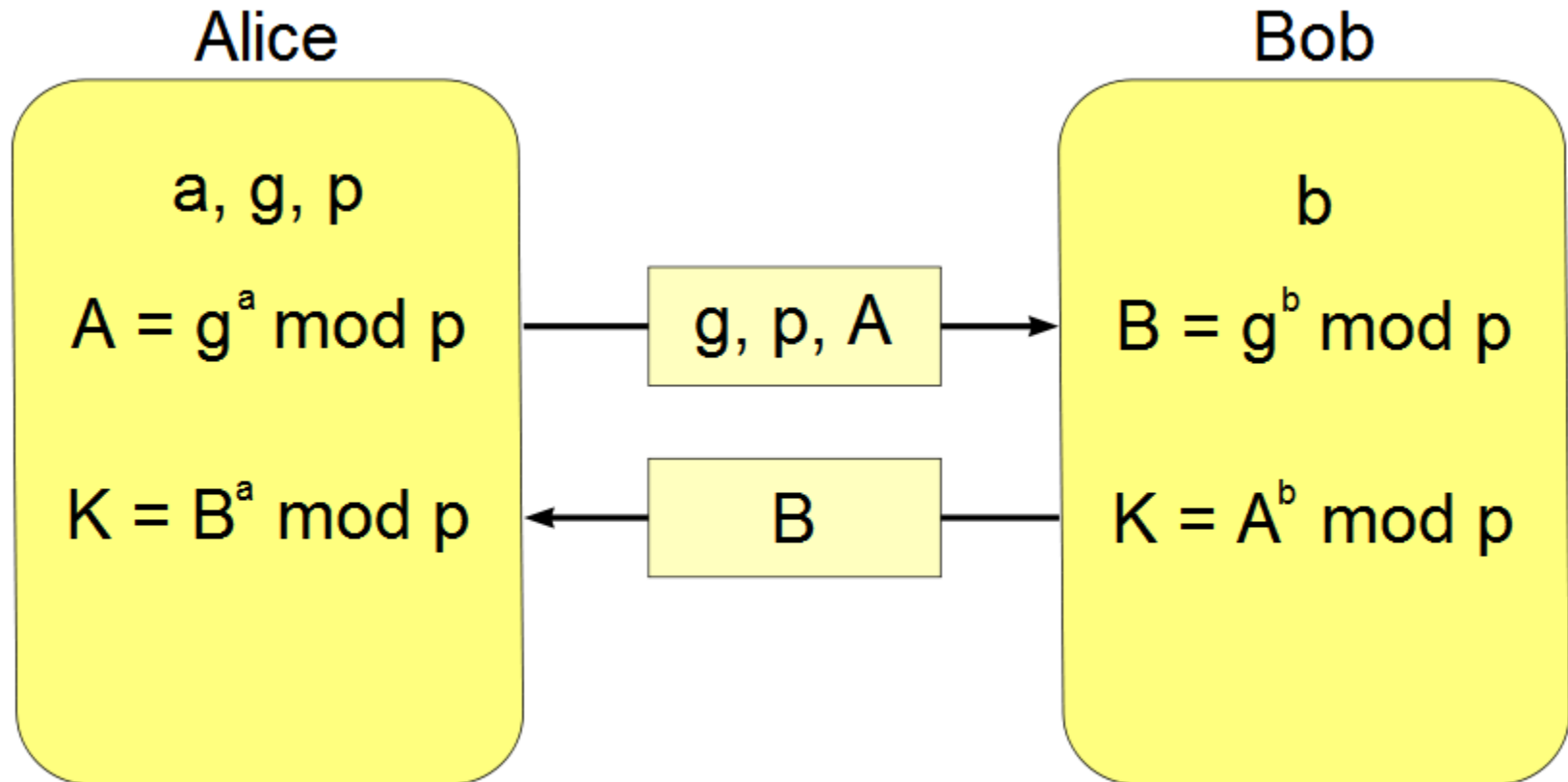
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# Key establishment

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- Symmetric-key cipher requires sharing of a secret
- Can it be done on a public channel?

# Diffie-Hellman Protocols



$$K = A^b \bmod p = (g^a \bmod p)^b \bmod p = g^{ab} \bmod p = (g^b \bmod p)^a \bmod p = B^a \bmod p$$

$g$  and  $p$  can be public.  $g$  can be small.

Difficult to do discrete logarithm

# Diffie-Hellman key exchange

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- Alice and Bob want to construct a private key over a public channel. Both agree on a public prime  $p$  and primitive root  $g$  modulo  $p$ .
  1. Alice chooses a random value  $x$
  2. Alice sends  $g^x \bmod p$  to Bob
  3. Bob chooses a random value  $y$
  4. Bob sends  $g^y \bmod p$  to Bob
  5. Alice computes  $g^{xy} \bmod p$  as  $(g^x \bmod p)^y \bmod p$
  6. Bob computes  $g^{xy} \bmod p$  as  $(g^y \bmod p)^x \bmod p$
- **Discrete logarithm problem:** Given  $g$ ,  $p$ , and  $g^x \bmod p$ , find  $x$ .
- **Diffie-Hellman problem:** Given  $g$ ,  $p$ ,  $g^x \bmod p$ , and  $g^y \bmod p$ , find  $g^{xy} \bmod p$ .

# DHP and DLP

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- One way to solve DHP is to solve DLP

Given  $g^x \bmod p$  and  $g^y \bmod p$ , if one can solve DLP, s/he can recover  $x$  and  $y$ , and easily compute  $g^{xy} \bmod p$ .

  - Other ways? Not very likely (so far)
- If DHP is hard, the key agreement protocol is secure
- DHP is not harder than DLP
- Many groups:
  - DHP is equivalent to DLP
    - Given an oracle to solve DHP, DLP can be solved

# DLP

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- Discrete log in  $\text{GF}(p)$ 
  - Hard if  $p$  is ‘safe prime’:  $(p - 1)/2$  is also prime
  - RFC defines groups with moduli of from 1536 to 8192 bits
    - The size of exponents are from 180 to 620
- Discrete in other groups
  - Probably even harder (because of less algebraic structure)
  - For example, points on elliptic curve over a finite field

# Diffie-Hellman Protocol for 3 Parties

	Alice	Bob	Charlie
Generate secret	$x$	$y$	$z$
Exponentiation	$g^x$	$g^y$	$g^z$
Communication	$g^x \rightarrow B$	$g^y \rightarrow C$	$g^z \rightarrow A$
Exponentiation	$g^{xz}$	$g^{xy}$	$g^{yz}$
Communication	$g^{xz} \rightarrow B$	$g^{xy} \rightarrow C$	$g^{yz} \rightarrow A$
Exponentiation	$g^{xyz}$	$g^{xyz}$	$g^{xyz}$

The number of exponentiations can be reduced, e.g., by coordinating through a binary tree

# Properties of public-key algorithms

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- A pair of keys: public and private keys
  - Encrypt with private key, decrypt with public key
  - Encrypt with public key, decrypt with private key
- The public key can be known by everyone and the private key should be kept secret
  - It is hard to derive private key from public key
- RSA is the best known public-key algorithm
  - Rivest, Shamir & Adleman of MIT in 1977
  - Patent expired on 9/21/2000 (only in US)
  - Clifford Cocks (UK) had the idea in 1973



# RSA set up

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Find two distinct prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$

which should be large and kept secret

$n = p \cdot q$   $n$  is the modulus.  $n$ 's length is the key length.

$\varphi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$   $\varphi(n)$  should be kept secret.

Alternatively use  $\lambda(n) = \text{lcm}(p - 1, q - 1)$

Choose  $e$  such that  $1 < e < \varphi(n)$  and  $e$  is coprime to  $\varphi(n)$ .

$e$  can be released as the public exponent

Compute the private exponent  $d$  such that

$$e \cdot d = 1 \bmod (p - 1)(q - 1)$$

# RSA encryption and decryption

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Encryption:

Given a message  $m$ , compute

$$c = m^e \bmod n$$

Note  $e$  and  $n$  are public.

Decryption:

Given a ciphertext  $c$ , compute

$$c^d = (m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} = m \bmod n$$

It works even if  $m$  is not coprime to  $n$ .

# RSA Proof (correctness)

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- $\gcd(m, n) = 1$   
$$c^d = (m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} = m \bmod n$$
- $\gcd(m, n) > 1$ ,  $p \mid m$  or  $q \mid m$ . ( $m$  is evenly divided by  $p$  or  $q$ )  
Use CRT. If two numbers are congruent both mod  $p$  and mod  $q$ , they also congruent mod  $pq$ .

**WLOG**, let us assume  $p \mid m$ .

$m = 0 \bmod p$ .  $m^{ed} = 0 \bmod p$ . Therefore,  $m = m^{ed} \bmod p$ .

$m^{ed} = m^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} = (m^{k(p-1)})^{(q-1)} \cdot m = m \bmod q$ . (FLT)

By CRT,  $m = m^{ed} \bmod n$ , where  $n = pq$ .

# RSA examples

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$$p = 19, q = 31, n = 589$$

$$\varphi(n) = 18 * 30 = 540$$

$$e = 13 \text{ (factors in 540: 2, 3, 5).}$$

$$d = e^{-1} = 457 \text{ mod } 540 \text{ (not mod 589)}$$

$$m = 387 \quad c = m^d = 387^{457} = 178 \quad m^{ed} = 178^{13} = 387 \text{ mod } 589$$

$$m = 323 \quad c = m^d = 323^{457} = 456 \quad m^{ed} = 456^{13} = 323 \text{ mod } 589$$

Note:  $323 = 19 * 17$  has a common factor with  $n = 589$

# RSA Implementation

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- Use CRT to accelerate the exponentiation if  $p$  and  $q$  are known
  - Speedup 2.5 times or more
- Miller-Rabin used as  $p$  and  $q$  for primality test
- Strong primes are mandated in ANSI X9.31
- $p - q$  should be large
- Use smaller public exponent
  - Security concerns
- RSA is much slower than block ciphers
  - For example, on 200M Hz Pentium Pro, the throughput of AES is about 70M bits/s while that of RSA decryption is about 30K bits/s

# Square root of 1 mod $n$

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**Fact 1:** if  $n$  is prime, there are no non-trivial square roots of 1 mod  $n$

Trivial square roots of 1 mod  $p$  : 1 and  $-1$  (or  $p - 1$ )

If  $n$  is not prime, there are non-trivial square roots of 1.

Suppose  $n = p \cdot q$ .

According to CRT: A number  $x$  mod  $n$  can be mapped to two numbers  $(x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$ .

square roots are:  $(1, 1)$ ,  $(1, -1)$ ,  $(-1, 1)$ ,  $(-1, -1)$ .

Example,  $p = 5$ ,  $q = 7$ , and  $n = 35$ . Square roots of 1 are:

Trivial roots:  $1 \equiv (1, 1) \pmod{35}$  and  $-1 \equiv (-1, -1) \pmod{35} = (4, 6)$

Non-trivial roots:

$$6 \equiv (1, -1) \pmod{35} = (6 \bmod 5, 6 \bmod 7)$$

$$29 \equiv (-1, 1) \pmod{35} = (4 \bmod 5, 1 \bmod 7)$$

## Square root of 1 mod $n$ (2)

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Let  $x > 1$  be a non-trivial square root of 1 mod  $n$ . So  $x^2 = 1 \bmod n$ .

$$x^2 - 1 = 0 \bmod n$$

$$(x + 1) \cdot (x - 1) = 0 \bmod n$$

$$(x + 1) \cdot (x - 1) = k n$$

If  $x$  is not 1 or  $-1$ ,  $(x + 1)$  and  $(x - 1)$  have common factors with  $n$ .

$\gcd(x+1, n)$  and  $\gcd(x-1, n)$  can be computed with extended Euclidean algorithm.

# Factoring $n$ vs exposing $d$

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Theorem: Factoring  $N$  is equivalent to exposing  $d$

If one can factor  $N$ ,  $d$  can be computed from  $e$

If  $d$  is known, one can factor  $N$

$$e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$$

$$e \cdot d - 1 = k \varphi(n)$$

$$a^{e \cdot d - 1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \quad \text{for all } a \text{ that is coprime to } n$$

Let  $(e \cdot d - 1) = 2^s \cdot t$  and  $t$  is odd.

Select  $a$  that is coprime to  $n$ , compute

$$r_1 = a^{(e \cdot d - 1)/2}, r_2 = a^{(e \cdot d - 1)/4}, r_3 = a^{(e \cdot d - 1)/8}, \dots, a^t \pmod{n}$$

With 50% chance, one of the value  $\neq \pm 1$ . Note  $r_2$  is the square root of  $r_1$ .

Suppose the first is  $z$ .  $\gcd(z - 1, n)$  is a non-trivial factor of  $n$



## Example: factoring $n$ if $d$ is known

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$$p = 19, q = 31, n = 589$$

$$\phi(n) = 18 * 30 = 540$$

$$e = 13 \quad (13 \text{ is coprime to } 540. \text{ Factors in } 540 \text{ are } 2, 3, \text{ and } 5)$$

$$d = e^{-1} = 457 \text{ mod } 540 \quad (\text{not mod } 589)$$

$$(d \cdot e - 1) = 5940 = 2^2 * 1485 \quad (s = 2, t = 1485)$$

The exponents to be used in test are 1485 and 2970.

Suppose randomly pick 90. 90 is coprime to 589.

$$90 \quad 90^{2970} = 1 \quad 90^{1485} = 94 \text{ mod } 589$$

94 is a non-trivial square-root of 1.

93 and 95 have common factors with 589.

$$\gcd(93, 589) = 31 \quad \gcd(95, 589) = 19$$

# Possible attacks on RSA (1)

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- Factor  $n$ 
  - Factor  $n$ , then  $d$  can be computed easily from  $e$ , because  $\phi(n)$  is known
- Guessing  $d$ 
  - The factors of  $n$  can be found if  $d$  is known
  - It is slow because there are so many  $d$ s
- Cycle attack
  - Repeat encryption until the ciphertext repeats
- Common modulus
  - For example, use  $n$  to generate  $(e_0, d_0)$ ,  $(e_1, d_1)$ , etc.
  - Do not use the same  $n$  to encrypt messages to different parties
    - If one knows  $d$ , he can factor  $n$

# Possible attacks on RSA (2)

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- Faulty encryption
  - Similar to common modulus
- Low exponent (either public or private)
  - If  $e$  is small, and  $m$  is also same for  $e$  parties,  $m$  can be obtained with CRT
  - If  $d$  is small (length is less  $\frac{1}{4}$  of  $n$ ), it can be computed from  $(n, e)$
- Small message

# Common modulus attack

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Suppose Alice and Bob generate their keys using the same  $n$ .  
Alice's keys are  $(n, e_a)$ . Bob's keys are  $(n, e_b)$ .  $\gcd(e_a, e_b) = 1$

One send the same message  $m$  to both Alic and Bob.  
Eve obtained the ciphertext: and .  
She can find out  $m$ .

First, she finds out  $s_a$  and  $s_b$  such that, .  
Then she computes

# Factoring large numbers

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- General number field sieve
  - $(c + o(1)) n^{1/3} \log^{2/3} n$  for some  $c < 2$
- The largest number factored in 2010 was 768 bits long
  - RSA-768
- In  $p - 1$  is a product of factors less than  $B$ , then  $N$  can be factored in time less than  $B^3$ 
  - Such  $p$  can be rejected

# ElGamal Encryption

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- **Key generation:**
  - Parameters: (safe) prime  $p$  and generator  $\alpha$  of  $GF(p)$
  - **Private key:**  $x$  ( $1 < x < p - 1$ )
  - **Public key:**  $y = \alpha^x \bmod p$
- **Encryption:**
  - Generate random  $k$  ( $1 < k < p - 1$ ) with  $\gcd(k, p - 1) = 1$
  - $r = \alpha^k \bmod p$  ( $k$  and  $r$  are ephemeral key pair)
  - $s = y^k \cdot m \bmod p$  ( $0 \leq m \leq p - 1$ )
  - **Ciphertext**  $c = (r, s)$
- **Decryption:**
  - $m = s \cdot r^{-x} \bmod p$   
$$r^{-x} = \alpha^{-kx} = y^{-k} \bmod p$$

# About ElGamal

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- Security relies on the discrete log problem and not on factoring
- Ciphertext twice as long as the plaintext
- Secure random number generator required for  $k$ 
  - Non-deterministic encryption: the same plaintext will always result in different ciphertexts

# Some theroms

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- It is difficult to find the  $e^{th}$  root of  $c \bmod n = pq$  when the factors of  $n$  is unknown