# Chapter 9 Public-Key Cryptography & RSA



### Public-Key Cryptography

- Public-key cryptography ราหา (a.k.a. asymmetric cryptography) ษณะวิธีร งาร
  - Public-key cryptography refers to a cryptographic system requiring two separate keys, one of which is secret and one of which is public. Although different, the two parts of the key pair are mathematically linked.
  - A party (Alice) generates a public key along with a matching private key (a.k.a. secret key).
  - The public key is widely distributed and is assumed to be known to anyone (Bob) who wants to communicate with Alice.
  - Alice's public key is also known to the attacker! 3375 Public key
  - Alice's private key remains secret.
  - Bob may or may not have a public key of his own.

### Private- vs. Public-Key Cryptography I

- Disadvantages of private-key/symmetric cryptography
  - Keys need to be securely shared. Deligible 54
    - What if this is not possible?
    - You need to know in advance the parties with whom you will communicate.
    - It can be difficult to distribute/manage keys in a large organization.
  - $O(t^2)$  keys are needed for person-to-person communication in a *t*-party network.
    - All these keys need to be stored securely.
  - Private-key cryptography is inapplicable in open systems.
    - e.g., e-commerce



# Private- vs. Public-Key Cryptography II

- Why do we study private-key cryptography at all?
  - Private-key cryptography is orders of magnitude more efficient.
  - Private-key cryptography still has domains of applicability.
    - Military settings, disk encryption, ...
  - Private-key cryptographic primitives can be combined with public-key techniques to get the best of both (for encryption).
  - Keys may be distributed using trusted entities.
    - e.g., KDC (Key Distribution Center)

# Cryptographic Primitives



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	Symmetric cryptography (Private-key cryptography)	Asymmetric cryptography (Public-key cryptography)
71मुख Confidentiality थ्डर्स्ट्रस्ट्रस्ट्रिक	Private-key encryption (e.g., AES) <b>DE5</b>	Public-key encryption (e.g., RSA-OAEP)
Integrity <b>২</b>	Message authentication code (MAC)	Digital signature (e.g., RSA-PSS)
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### Public-Key Encryption

- Key generation algorithm:
  - Randomized algorithm that outputs (pk, sk).
- OnPutoll Random number
  2011 Gove
- Encryption algorithm: 47024 345 24(4)
  - Takes a public key and a message (plaintext), and outputs a ciphertext.
  - -c = E(pk, m)
- Decryption algorithm:
  - Takes a private key and a ciphertext, and outputs a message.
  - m = D(sk, c)

### RSA Background

• Euler's Theorem 2500 of 2500 per 2500 per 2500 of 2500 per 25

- For m and n that are relatively prime (i.e.,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ ),  $m^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- The number of p and q distinct, odd primes. Where p and q distinct, odd primes. Where p and q distinct, odd primes.
  - $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = |Z_n^*|$

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- Easy to compute  $\phi(n)$  given the factorization of n.
- Hard to compute  $\phi(n)$  without the factorization of n.
- We have an asymmetry!
  - Given d (which can be computed from e and the factorization of n), it is possible to compute m from  $c = m^e \mod n$ .
  - Without the factorization of n, there is no apparent way to compute m from  $c = m^e \mod n$ .

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### RSA Key Generation

- Generate random odd primes p, q of sufficient length.
- Compute n = pq and  $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$ .
- Compute *e* and *d* such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ .
  - e must be relatively prime to  $\phi(n)$ , i.e.,  $gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$ .
  - d can be computed by the extended Euclidean algorithm.
- Public key = (e, n); private key = (d, n).

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### "Textbook RSA" Encryption

- Public key (e, n); private key (d, n).
- To encrypt a message  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , compute  $\mathscr{L}=1$ .

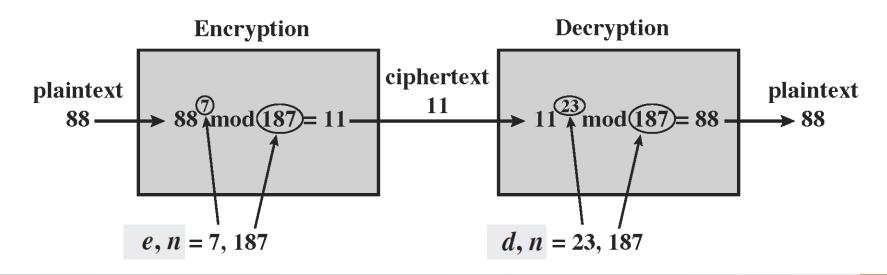
$$c = m^e \mod n$$
.

- To decrypt a ciphertext c, compute  $m = c^d \mod n$ .  $C^d = \bigcap_{i=1}^d C^d = \bigcap_$ 
  - The CRT can speed up the decryption process by approximately four times.

- What about security?
  - It is deterministic! দিল স্থা থাকুলে ধান্যানু ধান্যানু
  - Furthermore, it can be shown that the ciphertext leaks specific information about the plaintext.
    - e.g., the Jacobi symbol  $\left(\frac{c}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{m^e}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)^e = \left(\frac{m}{n}\right)$  because e is odd.
- Rivest, Shamir, Adleman The RSA Algorithm Explained

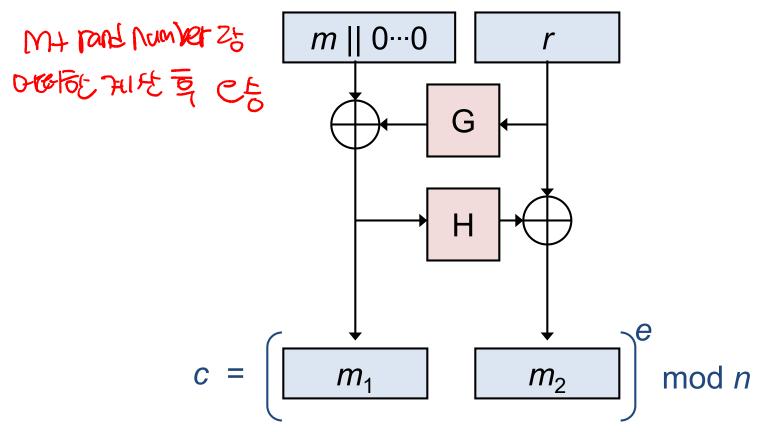
### "Textbook RSA" Example

- **1.** Select two prime numbers, p = 17 and q = 11.
- **2.** Calculate  $n = pq = 17 \times 11 = 187$ .
- 3. Calculate  $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 16 \times 10 = 160$ .
- **4.** Select *e* such that *e* is relatively prime to  $\phi(n) = 160$  and less than  $\phi(n)$ ; we choose e = 7.
- 5. Determine d such that  $de \equiv 1 \pmod{160}$  and d < 160. The correct value is d = 23, because  $23 \times 7 = 161 = (1 \times 160) + 1$ ; d can be calculated using the extended Euclid's algorithm (Chapter 4).



### RSA-OAEP (PKCS #1 v2.1)

• OAEP (Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding)



- In theory, G and H are random oracles.
- In practice, G and H are cryptographic hash functions.

# Hybrid Encryption

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### Hybrid encryption

- A hybrid encryption scheme uses public-key encryption to encrypt a random symmetric key, and then proceeds to encrypt the message with that symmetric key.
- The receiver decrypts the symmetric key using the public-key encryption scheme and then uses the recovered symmetric key to decrypt the message.
- Hybrid encryption gives the functionality of public-key encryption at the (asymptotic) efficiency of private-key encryption!

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$$n \neq (n)$$
  $mod (n) = 1$ 

$$(p-1)(q-1) \qquad mod (n)$$

$$(p-1)(q-1) \qquad pq$$

### Exponentiation

Another consideration is the efficiency of exponentiation, because with RSA, we are dealing with potentially large exponents. To see how efficiency might be increased, consider that we wish to compute  $x^{16}$ . A straightforward approach requires 15 multiplications:

However, we can achieve the same final result with only four multiplications if we repeatedly take the square of each partial result, successively forming  $(x^2, x^4, x^8, x^{16})$ . As another example, suppose we wish to calculate  $x^{11} \mod n$  for some integers x and n. Observe that  $x^{11} = x^{1+2+8} = (x)(x^2)(x^8)$ . In this case, we compute  $x \mod n$ ,  $x^2 \mod n$ ,  $x^4 \mod n$ , and  $x^8 \mod n$  and then calculate  $[(x \mod n) \times (x^2 \mod n) \times (x^8 \mod n)] \mod n$ .

### 

INPUT: an element  $g \in G$  and integer  $e \ge 1$ . OUTPUT:  $g^e$ .

1. 
$$A \leftarrow 1$$
,  $S \leftarrow g$ .  $O_2^e$  (7)  $O_2^{e}$ 

2. While  $e \neq 0$  do the following:

Joint 2.1 If 
$$e$$
 is odd then  $A \leftarrow A \cdot S$ . The off of the function  $2.2$   $e \leftarrow \lfloor e/2 \rfloor$ . 1000 Herchief 401  $e = 1.5$  log  $e = 2.3$  If  $e \neq 0$  then  $S \leftarrow S \cdot S$ . The first  $e = 3$ 

3. Return(A). 74. 2 3 94. 94.

$$e = (e_t e_{t-1} ... e_1 e_0)_2$$
 **2243 2243 1.**  $A \leftarrow 1$ ,  $S \leftarrow g - P_{A} \cup G$ 

2. For i from 0 up to t do the following:

2.1 If 
$$e_i = 1$$
, then  $A \leftarrow A \cdot S$ 

3. Return(A)

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**Example** (*right-to-left binary exponentiation*) The following table displays the values of A, e, and S during each iteration for computing  $g^{283}$ . Note that  $e = 283 = 100011011_{(2)}$ .

						<i>(</i> ,					
A	1	g	$g^3$	$g^3$	$g^{11}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{283}$	) 574Vt-84Q
e	283	141	70	35	17	8	4	2	1	0	n.Bel
S	g	$g^2$	$g^4$	$g^8$	$g^{16}$	$g^{32}$	$g^{64}$	$g^{128}$	$g^{256}$	_	

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#### Algorithm Right-to-left binary exponentiation

INPUT: an element  $g \in G$  and integer  $e \ge 1$ . OUTPUT:  $g^e$ .

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- 2. While  $e \neq 0$  do the following:
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  - $2.2 \ e \leftarrow \lfloor e/2 \rfloor$ .
  - 2.3 If  $e \neq 0$  then  $S \leftarrow S \cdot S$ .
- 3. Return(A).

$$e = (e_t e_{t-1} ... e_1 e_0)_2$$

- $1. A \leftarrow 1, S \leftarrow g$
- 2. For *i* from 0 up to *t* do the following:

2.1 If 
$$e_i = 1$$
, then A  $\leftarrow$  A·S

$$2.2 \text{ S} \leftarrow \text{S} \cdot \text{S}$$

3. Return(A)

**Example** (*right-to-left binary exponentiation*) The following table displays the values of A, e, and S during each iteration for computing  $g^{283}$ . Note that  $e = 283 = 100011011_{(2)}$ .  $\square$ 

A	1	g	$g^3$	$g^3$	$g^{11}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{27}$	$g^{283}$
e	283	141	70	35	17	8	4	2	1	0
S	g	$g^2$	$g^4$	$g^8$	$g^{16}$	$g^{32}$	$g^{64}$	$g^{128}$	$g^{256}$	_

#### **Algorithm** Left-to-right binary exponentiation

INPUT:  $g \in G$  and a positive integer  $e = (e_t e_{t-1} \cdots e_1 e_0)_2$ . OUTPUT:  $g^e$ .



- 1.  $A \leftarrow 1$ .
- 2. For *i* from *t* down to 0 do the following:

2.2 If 
$$e_i = 1$$
, then

3. Return(A).

2.2 If 
$$e_i = 1$$
, then  $A \leftarrow A \cdot g$ 

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i	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
$\overline{e_i}$	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1

#### **Algorithm** Left-to-right binary exponentiation

INPUT:  $g \in G$  and a positive integer  $e = (e_t e_{t-1} \cdots e_1 e_0)_2$ . OUTPUT:  $g^e$ .

- 1.  $A \leftarrow 1$ .
- 2. For *i* from *t* down to 0 do the following:

$$2.1 A \leftarrow A \cdot A$$
.

2.2 If 
$$e_i = 1$$
, then

2.2 If 
$$e_i = 1$$
, then  $A \leftarrow A \cdot g$ 

3. Return(A).

A		<b>a</b> <sup>2</sup>	g <sup>4</sup>	a <sub>8</sub>	q <sup>17</sup>	<b>~</b> 35	g <sup>70</sup>	<b>~</b> 141	a283
$e_i$	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	1
i	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0