

# Public Key Encryption

Diffie and Hellman – 1976 *Famous Paper:*  
New Directions In Cryptography - 1976

First **revolutionary** advance in cryptography  
in thousands of years

Based on **mathematical functions** not bit  
manipulation

**Asymmetric**, two separate key

**Profound effect** on confidentiality, key  
distribution and authentication

# Public Key Structure

**Plaintext:** message input into the algorithm

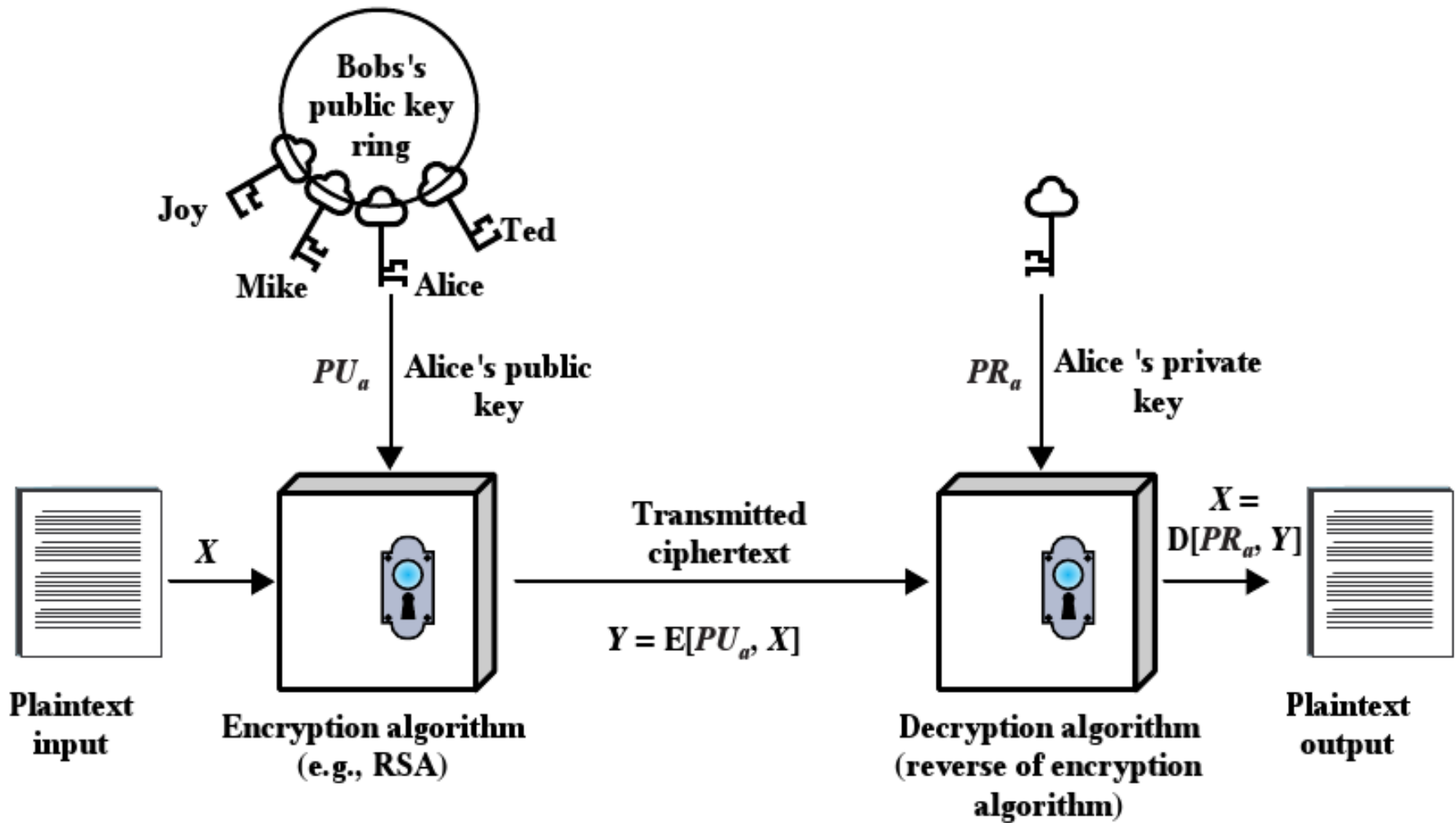
**Encryption algorithm:** transformations on plaintext

**Public & Private Key:** pair of keys, one for encryption; one for decryption

**Ciphertext:** scrambled message

**Decryption algorithm:** produces original plaintext

# Public Key Encryption



(a) Encryption

# The Basic Steps

Each user *generates* a *pair* of keys

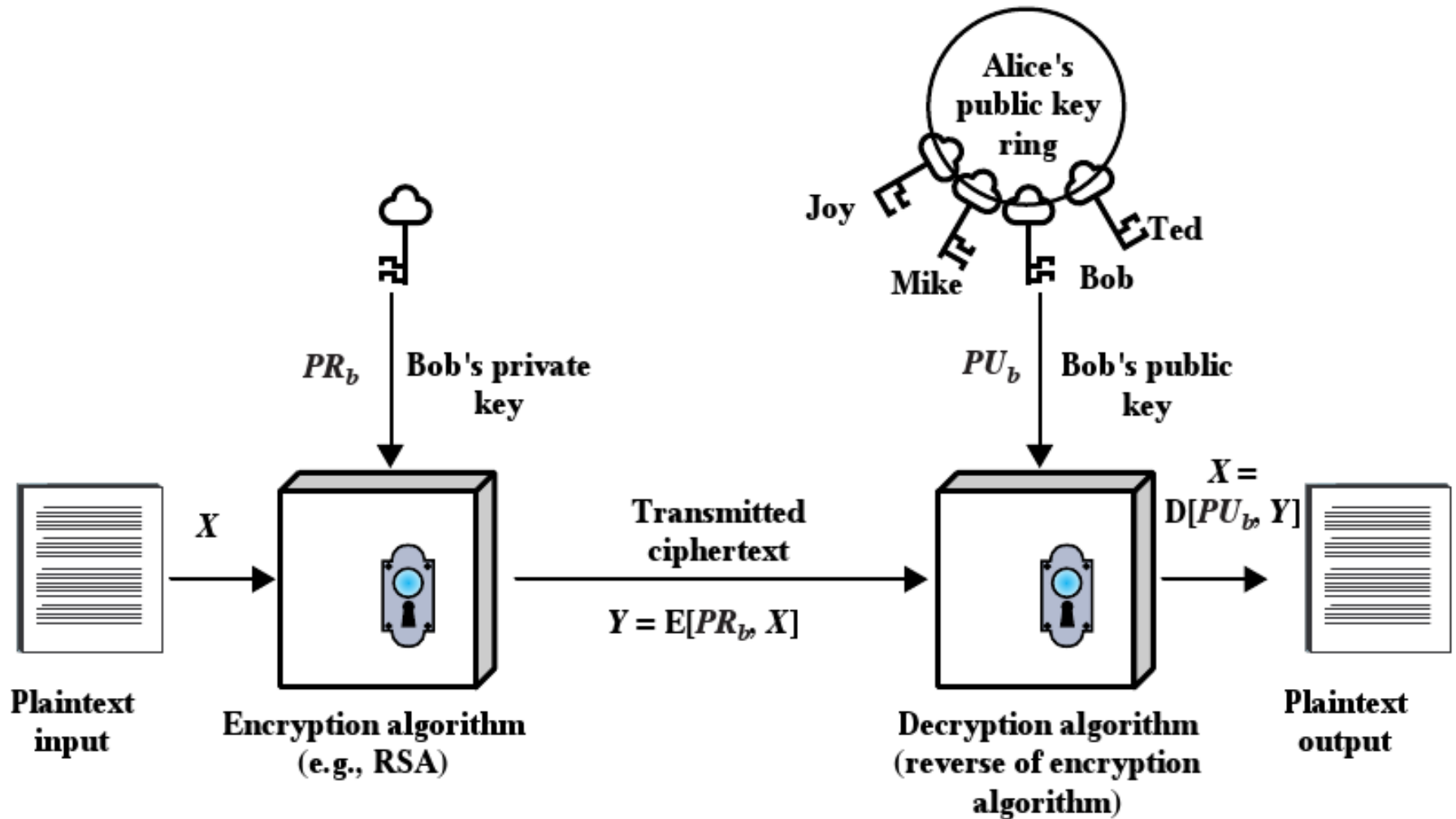
The *public key* goes in a public register

The *private key* is kept private

If Bob wishes to send a private message to Alice, Bob *encrypts* the message using Alice's *public* key

When Alice receives the message, she *decrypts* using her *private* key

# Public Key Authentication



(b) Authentication

Figure 3.7 Public-Key Cryptography

# Public Key Applications

**Encryption/decryption** – encrypts a message with the recipient's public key

**Digital signature** – sender *signs* a message with private key

**Key Exchange** – two sides cooperate to exchange a session key

# Requirements For Public Key

Easy for party  $B$  to generate pairs:  
public key  $KU_b$  ; private key  $KR_b$

Easy for sender  $A$  to generate  
ciphertext using public key:

$$C = E_{KU_b}(M)$$

HINT: Easy for receiver  $B$  to decrypt using  
the private key to recover original  
message

$$M = D_{KR_b}(C) = D_{KR_b}[E_{KU_b}(M)]$$

# Requirements For Public Key

It is computationally **infeasible** for an opponent, knowing the public key  $KU_b$  to **determine the private key**  $KR_b$

It is computationally **infeasible** for an opponent, knowing the public key  $KU_b$  and a ciphertext,  $C$ , to **recover** the original message,  $M$

**Either** of the two related keys can be used for encryption, with the other used for **decryption**

$$M = D_{KR_b}[E_{KU_b}(M)] = D_{KU_b}[E_{KR_b}(M)]$$



# RSA Algorithm

Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, Len Adleman –  
1978

Most widely accepted and implemented  
approach to public key encryption

$M$  and  $C$  are integers between  $0$  and  $n-1$   
for some  $n$  :

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

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

**Table 3.2 Applications for Public-Key Cryptosystems**

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

# RSA Algorithm

Sender and receiver know the values of  $n$  and  $e$ , but **only the receiver knows the value of  $d$**

Public key:  $KU = \{e, n\}$

Private key:  $KR = \{d, n\}$

# RSA Requirements

It is possible to find values of  $e$ ,  $d$ ,  $n$  such that  $M^{ed} = M \pmod n$  for all  $M < n$

It is relatively easy to calculate  $M^e$  and  $C$  for all values of  $M < n$

It is **infeasible** to determine  $d$  given  $e$  and  $n$

# RSA Algorithm

## Key Generation

Select  $p, q$

$p$  and  $q$  both prime,  $p \neq q$

Calculate  $n = p \times q$

Calculate  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$

Select integer  $e$

$\gcd(\phi(n), e) = 1; 1 < e < \phi(n)$

Calculate  $d$

$de \bmod \phi(n) = 1$

Public key

$KU = \{e, n\}$

Private key

$KR = \{d, n\}$

# RSA Algorithm

## Encryption

Plaintext:  $M < n$

Ciphertext:  $C = M^e \pmod{n}$

## Decryption

Ciphertext:  $C$

Plaintext:  $M = C^d \pmod{n}$

**Figure 3.8 The RSA Algorithm**

# RSA Example

Select two prime numbers,  $p=7$  and  $q=17$

Calculate  $n = pq = 7 \times 17 = 119$  — this is the modulus

Calculate  $\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 96$  — Euler totient

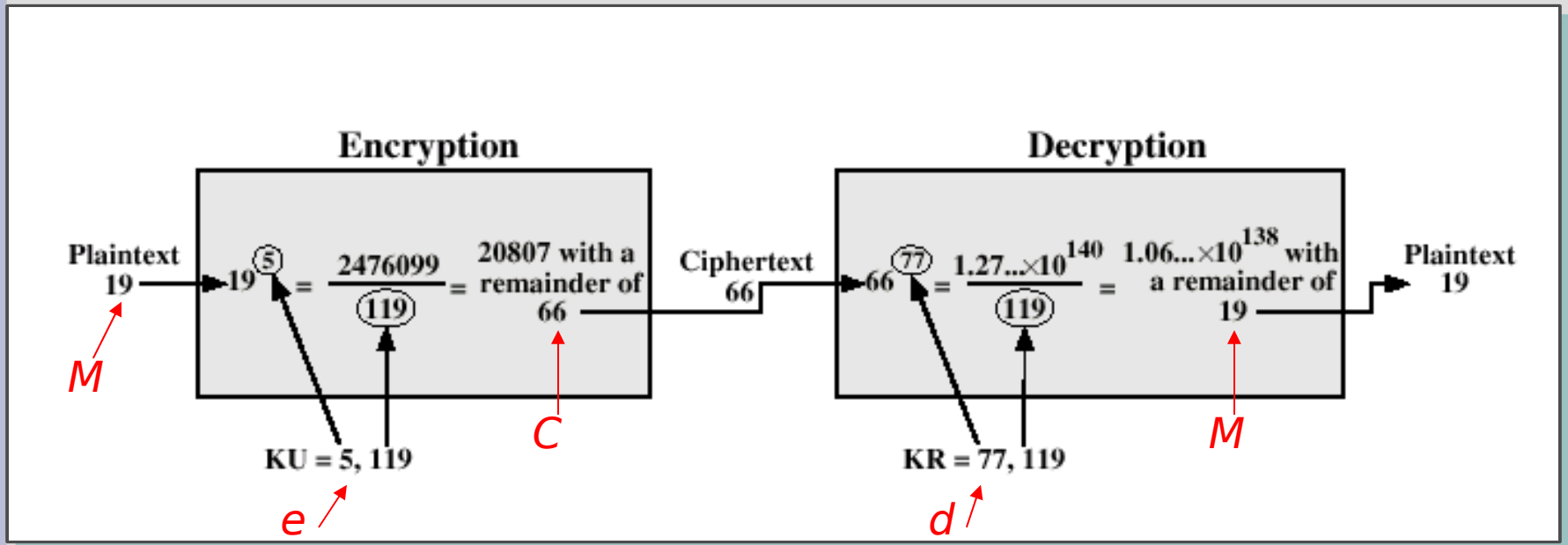
Select  $e$  such that  $e$  is relatively prime to  $\Phi(n) = 96$  and less than  $\Phi(n)$ ; in this case,  $e = 5$

Determine  $d$  such that  $de = 1 \pmod{96}$  and  $d < 96$ . The correct value is  $d = 77$ ,  
because multiplicative inverse of  $e$

$77 \times 5 = 385 = 4 \times 96 + 1$   
See also “a very simple example of RSA encryption”:

[http://www.di-mgt.com.au/rsa\\_alg.html](http://www.di-mgt.com.au/rsa_alg.html)

# RSA Example





# RSA Strength

**Brute force attack:** try all possible keys – the larger  $e$  and  $d$  the more secure

The larger the key, the slower the system

For large  $n$  with large prime factors, factoring is a hard problem

**Cracked** in 1994 a 428 bit key; **\$100**

As of 2008 , the largest (known) number factored by a general-purpose factoring algorithm was 663 bits long (see RSA-200), using a state-of-the-art distributed implementation (Wikipedia)

It was estimated that the factoring for 512-bit RSA can be completed in 10 minutes by a \$10 000 device and 1024-bit RSA in less than 1 year with a \$10 million device (2003).

RSA keys are typically 1024–2048 bits long. Some experts

# A primitive root of the prime number $p$

A primitive root of the prime number  $p$ , namely  $a$  is positive integer less than  $p$  and its powers (from 1 to  $p-1$ ) generates all the integers from 1 to  $p-1$ , that is

$$S = \{ a^1 \bmod p, a^2 \bmod p, \dots, a^{p-1} \bmod p \} = \{ 1, 2, \dots, p-1 \}$$

(Here the first set is a permutation on the integers from 1 to  $p-1$ ).

Note that  $a^i$  not equivalent to  $a^j \bmod p$  when  $i$  is different than  $j$ , where  $0 < i < j < p$ .

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

## Global Public Elements

$q$  prime number

$\alpha$   $\alpha < q$  and  $\alpha$  a primitive root of  $q$

## User A Key Generation

Select private  $X_A$   $X_A < q$

Calculate public  $Y_A$   $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \bmod q$

## User B Key Generation

Select private  $X_B$   $X_B < q$

Calculate public  $Y_B$   $Y_B = \alpha^{X_B} \bmod q$

Enables two users to exchange a secret key (of a block cipher or a stream cipher) for securely.

# Exchange

User A

Generate  
random  $X_A < q$ ;  
Calculate  
 $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \bmod q$

Calculate  
 $K = (Y_B)^{X_A} \bmod q$

User B

Generate  
random  $X_B < q$ ;  
Calculate  
 $Y_B = \alpha^{X_B} \bmod q$ ;  
Calculate  
 $K = (Y_A)^{X_B} \bmod q$

$Y_A$

$Y_B$

Visualization of "Diffie Hellman Key Exchange Protocol"  
Use Cryptool Software ([www.cryptool.org](http://www.cryptool.org)) and choose Menu -->  
Indv. Procedures --> Protocols --> Diffie-Hellman Demonstration

Figure 3.11 Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

# Security of Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

It is relatively easy to calculate exponentials modulo a prime but very difficult to calculate discrete logarithms (for large prime  $q$ , the latter task is computationally infeasible).

The adversary (opponent such as Darth or Oscar) has only  $\alpha, q$ , and  $Y_A$  and  $Y_B$  and he should calculate the following discrete logarithm in order to find the private key of part A,  $X_A$  (respectively  $X_B$ ):

$$X_A = \text{dlog}_{\alpha, q}(Y_A)$$

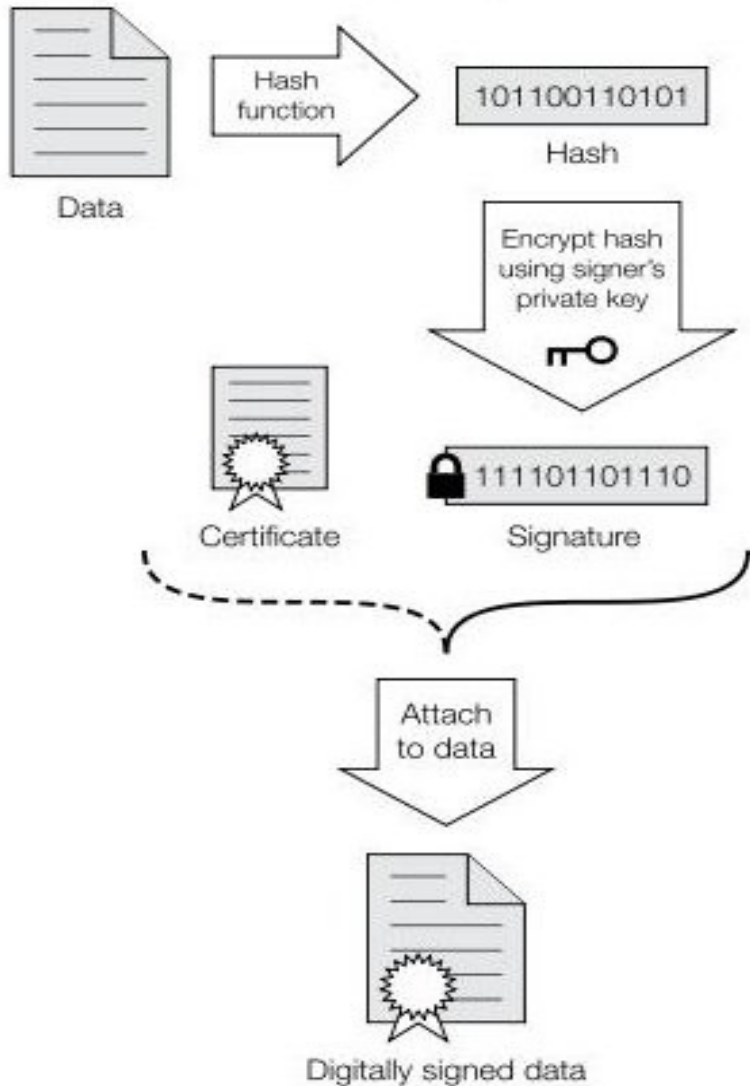
# Other Public Key Algorithms

Digital Signature Standard (DSS) – makes use of SHA-1 and presents a new digital signature algorithm (DSA)

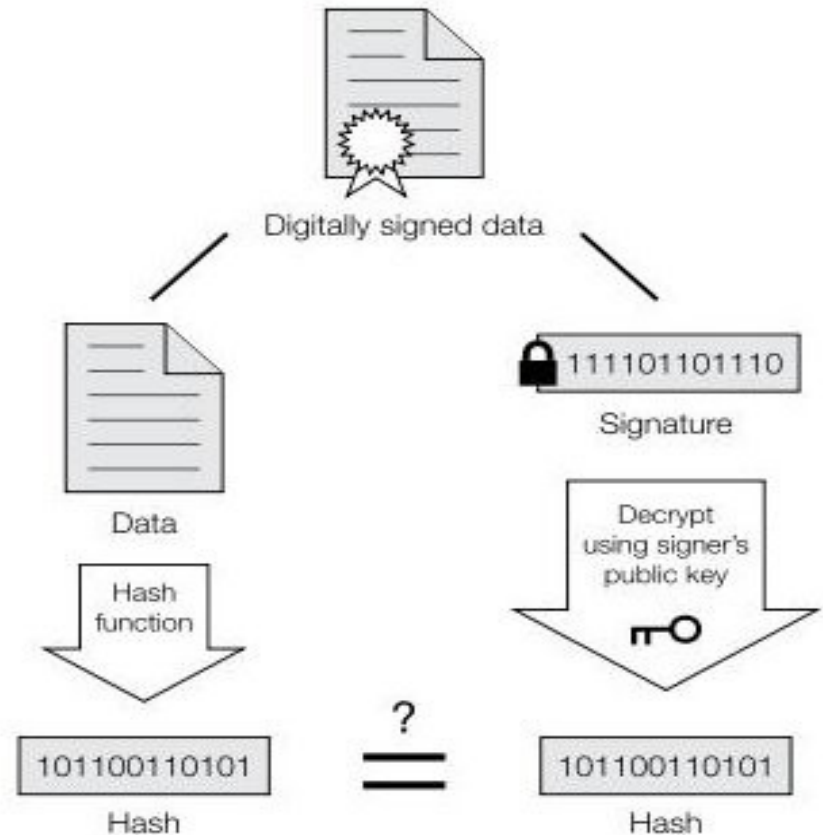
Only used for digital signatures not encryption or key exchange

# Digital Signatures

## Signing



## Verification



If the hashes are equal, the signature is valid.

# Digital Signatures (See Figure 3.2b )

Digital signatures are equivalent to traditional handwritten signatures in many respects; properly implemented digital signatures are more difficult to forge than the handwritten type.

Digital signatures can also provide non-repudiation

Digitally signed messages may be anything representable as a bitstring: examples include electronic mail, contracts, or a message sent via some other cryptographic protocol.



# Digital Signatures

## (See Figure 3.2b )

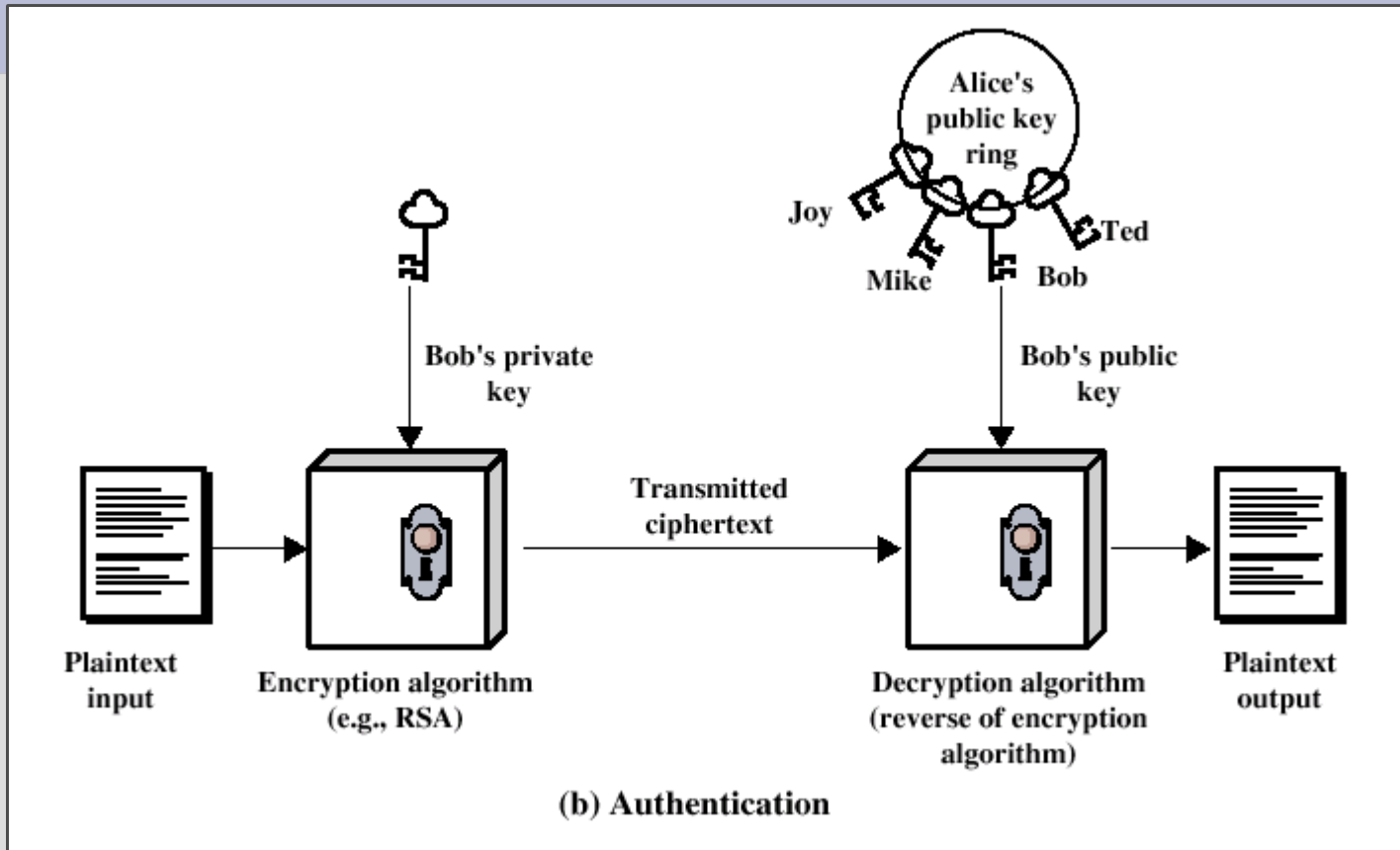
A digital signature scheme typically consists of three algorithms:

A key generation algorithm that selects a private key uniformly at random from a set of possible private keys. The algorithm outputs the private key and a corresponding public key.

A signing algorithm which, given a message and a private key, produces a signature.

A signature verifying algorithm which given a message, public key and a signature, either accepts or rejects.

# Public Key Authentication



# Key Management

## Digital Certificate

**Certificate** consists of a *public key* plus a *user ID* of the key owner (other user information may also be added), with the whole block signed by a trusted third party, the **certificate authority (CA)** (trusted by user community such as a government or a financial institution)

CA has public key (and associated certificate also) and private key pair.

User publishes his/her certificate and public key can be obtained from this certificate (trusted in a sense that CA signature verified by using CA's public key)

Hash code of unsigned user certificate signed by the CA's private key to obtain signature (See Figure 3.12)

# Key Management

## Digital Certificate

Certificate Fundamental and important object in [X.509](#) standard.

X.509 public-key certificates universally accepted.

X.509 public-key certificates are used in most network security applications: IP Security, SSL, SET and S/MIME

[Verisign](#) is primary vendor

In Turkey, legally valid user certificates are delivered by  
(see

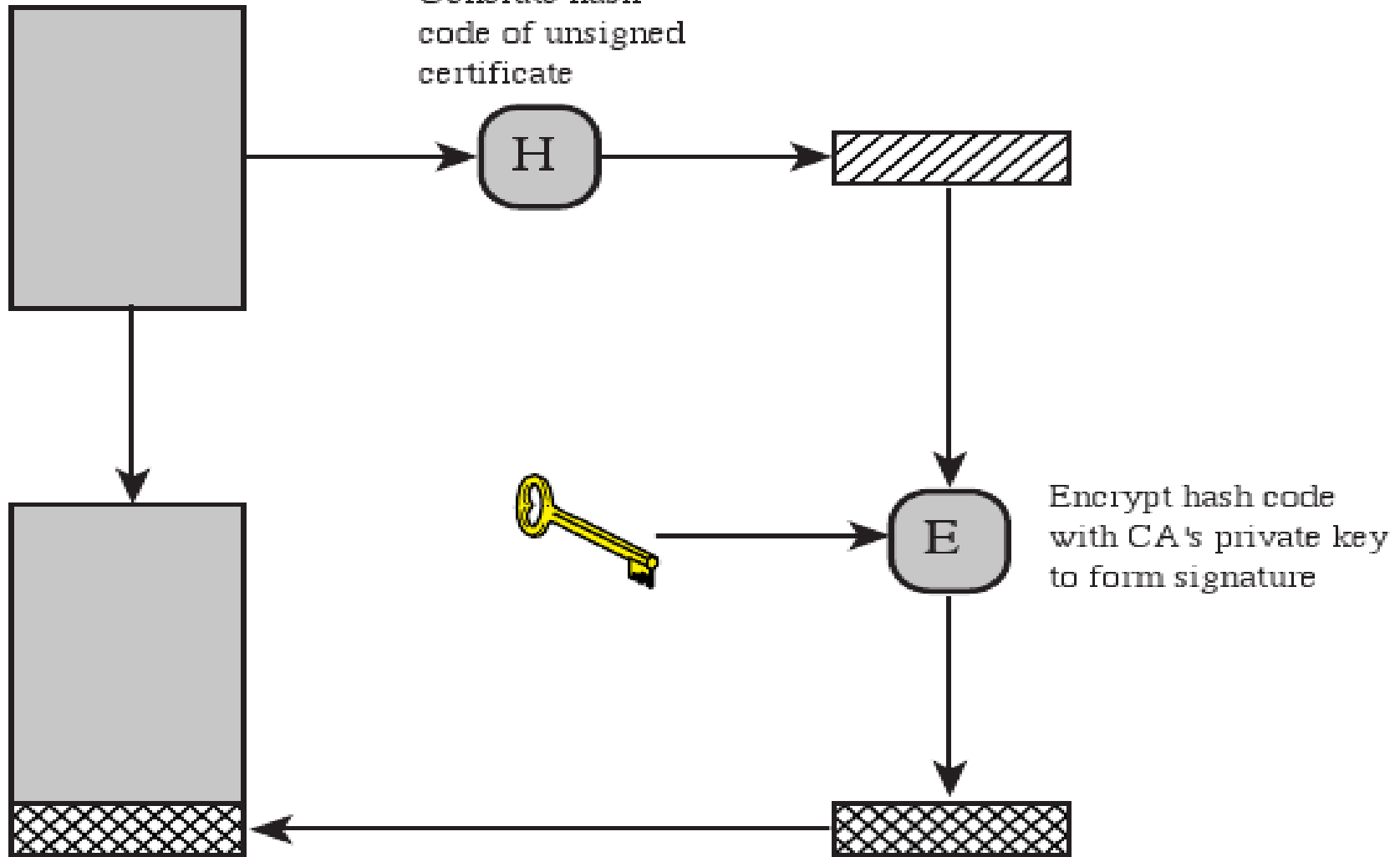
[http://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elektronik\\_imza](http://tr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Elektronik_imza) )

Tübitak Kamu Sertifikasyon Merkezi (<http://www.kamusm.gov.tr>)

TurkTrust Elektronik Sertifika Sağlayıcısı  
(<https://www.turktrust.com.tr>)

E-Güven, Elektronik İmza (e-imza) ve Elektronik Sertifika Hizmetleri

Unsigned certificate:  
contains user ID,  
user's public key



Signed certificate:  
Recipient can verify  
signature using CA's  
public key

Figure 3.12 Public Key Certificate Use