

CS408

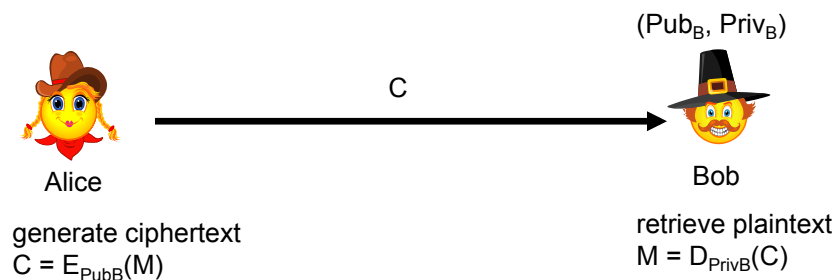
Cryptography & Internet Security

Lecture 15: Public-key Cryptography, RSA

Public key encryption

Each entity has:

- a public key (Pub), which is made public
- a private key (Priv), which is kept secret



Public key encryption

- Entities don't need to establish a secret key or a trust relationship ahead of time
- A public key encryption scheme is a collection of three algorithms (G, E, D)
 - Key generation algorithm G: generates a pair of keys (Pub, Priv)
 - Encryption algorithm E: $C = E_{\text{Pub}}(M)$
 - Decryption algorithm D: $M = E_{\text{Priv}}(C)$
- The following should always hold true:
 - $D_{\text{Priv}}(E_{\text{Pub}}(M)) = M$
- It is infeasible to derive the private key from the public key
- The public keys may be made publicly available, e.g., in a publicly available directory
- Many can encrypt, only one can decrypt
- Provides: confidentiality
- Does not provide: authentication, non-repudiation
- It is a keyed cryptographic primitive
- Example: RSA encryption, El-Gamal encryption

Public-key Cryptography

- Public-key cryptography (a.k.a. asymmetric-key cryptography)
 - encryption key different from decryption key
 - cannot derive decryption key from encryption key
 - higher cost than symmetric cryptography
 - simplifies key distribution
- Came into existence in 1976
- Analogy with a mailbox



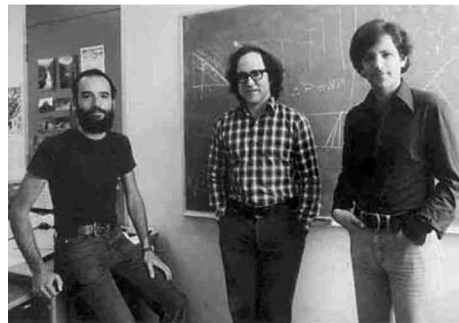
Miscellaneous: Turing Award

- The **Turing Award** is the equivalent of the Nobel Prize for Computer Science
 - \$1,000,000 prize (used to be \$250K until 2014)
 - Named after Alan Turing (British mathematician who was part of the team which cracked the Enigma machine; also had many contributions in theoretical Computer Science and a significant role in the creation of the modern computer)



Miscellaneous: Turing Award

- Past winners:
Rivest, **S**hamir, **A**dleman (in 2002) for “their ingenious contribution to making public-key cryptography useful in practice”



Miscellaneous: Turing Award

- Past winners:
Shafi Goldwasser and Silvio Micali (in 2012):
for “transformative work that laid the complexity-theoretic foundations for the science of cryptography, and in the process pioneered new methods for efficient verification of mathematical proofs in complexity theory.”
 - Press release:
<http://www.acm.org/press-room/awards/turing-award-12>
 - “their work helped to establish the tone and character of modern cryptographic research.”



Public-key Cryptography

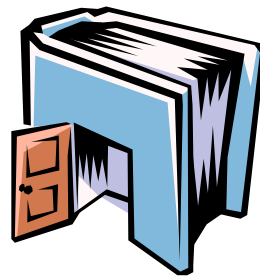
- Alice has pair of keys $\text{Pub}_A, \text{Priv}_A$
- E_{Pub_A} must be a one-way function:
knowing $C = E_{\text{Pub}_A}[M]$, it should be infeasible to find M
- However, E_{Pub_A} should **not** be one-way from Alice's perspective. The function E_{Pub_A} must have a trapdoor such that knowledge of the trapdoor enables Alice to invert it (you can think of the private key Priv_A as the trapdoor)

One-way Trapdoor Functions

Definition:

A function $f: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$ is a trapdoor one-way function iff $f(x)$ is a one-way function; however, given some extra information it becomes feasible to compute f^{-1} : given y , find x s.t. $y = f(x)$

- Example: $f(x) = x^3 \bmod n$, $n = pq$ (based on the integer factorization problem)
 - If factorization of n is unknown, then f is a one-way function
 - However, if one knows p and q s.t. $n=pq$, then it is easy to invert the function



RSA Algorithm

- Invented in **1978** by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman
 - Published as R. L. Rivest, A. Shamir, L. Adleman, "On Digital Signatures and Public Key Cryptosystems", Communications of the ACM, vol. 21 no. 2, pp120-126, Feb 1978
- Security relies on the difficulty of factoring large composite numbers

Z_n^* (multiplicative group of integers mod n)

- Let $n > 1$ be an integer and let $Z_n^* = \{a \in Z_n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$. (Z_n^*, \cdot) is a group, where \cdot is multiplication modulo n . (Z_n^*, \cdot) is called the **multiplicative group of Z_n** .
- Let p and q be two large primes
- Denote their product $n = pq$
- $Z_n^* = Z_{pq}^*$ contains all integers in the range $[1, n-1]$ that are relatively prime to both p and q
- The size of Z_n^* is $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- For every $x \in Z_n^*$, $x^{(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

RSA Public Key Cryptosystem

Key generation:

- Select 2 large prime numbers of about the same size, p and q
- Compute $n = pq$, and $\phi(n) = (q-1)(p-1)$
- Select a random integer e , $1 < e < \phi(n)$, s.t. $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
- Compute d , $1 < d < \phi(n)$ s.t. $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

Public key: (n, e)

Private key: d

Note: p and q must remain secret

RSA Public Key Cryptosystem

Encryption

- Obtain the recipient's public key (n, e)
- Represent the message as an integer M , $0 \leq M < n$
- Compute $C = M^e \bmod n$
- Send ciphertext C to recipient

Decryption

- Given a ciphertext C , use private key d to recover M :
 $M = C^d \bmod n$

RSA Example

- $p = 11, q = 7, n = 77, \phi(n) = 60$
- $d = 13, e = 37$ ($ed = 481; ed \bmod 60 = 1$)
- Let $M = 15$. Then $C \equiv M^e \bmod n$
 $C \equiv 15^{37} \bmod 77 = 71$
- $M \equiv C^d \bmod n$
 $M \equiv 71^{13} \bmod 77 = 15$

Why does RSA decryption work?

- Need to show that $(M^e)^d \equiv M \pmod{n}$, where $n = pq$
- Since $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$, there exists k s.t. $ed = 1 + k \phi(n)$
- If we can show that $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{p}$ and $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{q}$, then $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{n}$ (since $\gcd(p,q)=1$)
- Show that $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{p}$:
 - If $M \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then certainly $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{p}$
 - If $M \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then by Fermat's Little Theorem: $M^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
Thus: $M^{ed} \equiv M^{1+k\phi(n)} \equiv M^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv M (M^{p-1})^{k(q-1)} \equiv M 1^{k(q-1)} \equiv M \pmod{p}$
- Similarly, we can show that $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{q}$

RSA Implementation

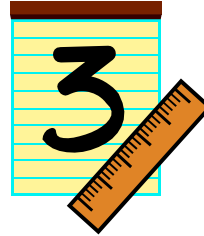
n, p, q

- The security of RSA depends on how large n is, which is often measured in the number of bits for n . Current NIST recommendation is at least 2048 bits for n .
- p and q should have the same bit length, so for 2048-bit RSA, p and q should each be about 1024 bits.
- $p - q$ should not be small

RSA Implementation

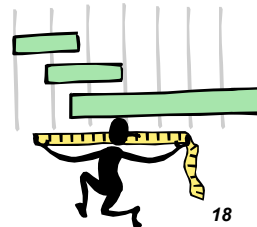
Value for e ?

- e is usually chosen to be 3 or $2^{16} + 1 = 65537$
- In order to speed up the encryption
 - the smaller the number of 1 bits, the better
 - why?



RSA on Long Messages

- RSA requires that the message M is at most $n-1$ where n is the RSA modulus.
- What about longer messages?
 - They are broken into blocks with value at most $n-1$.
 - Smaller messages are padded.
 - CBC is used to prevent attacks regarding the blocks.
- In practice RSA is used to encrypt symmetric keys, so the message is not very long.
 - To encrypt a long message M for Bob, Alice generates a random symmetric key K, then computes:
 $AES_K(M)$ and $RSA_{Bob_pub_key}(K)$,
and sends them to Bob.



Public Key Cryptography

- Advantages over symmetric key crypto
 - Key management
 - Key establishment: does not require secure channel to transmit secret keys
 - Key distribution: does not require $O(n^2)$ keys to be managed to communicate with n entities
- Disadvantages over symmetric key crypto
 - Slower (orders of magnitude)
- Is not meant to completely replace symmetric key cryptography, but to supplement it
 - $E1_{Pub}(K), E2_K(M)$
(where $E1$ is symmetric-key encryption and $E2$ is public-key encryption)