



Asymmetric Crypto System

EECE 412
Session 5

Last Session Recap

- Symmetric Cryptography
 - Classical cryptography
 - Sender, receiver share common key
 - Same key used for encryption and decryption
- Two basic types
 - Transposition (permutation) ciphers
 - Substitution ciphers
- Block cipher
 - SP-network
 - Modes of operation



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Outline

- Asymmetric Cryptography
- Diffie Hellman
- RSA
- Cryptographic Checksums



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Asymmetric Cryptography

- Public key cryptography
- Based on mathematical functions
- Two keys
 - Private key known only to individual (owner)
 - Public key available to anyone
- Idea
 - Confidentiality: encipher using public key, decipher using private key
 - Integrity/authentication: encipher using private key, decipher using public one



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Requirements

- It must be computationally easy to encipher or decipher a message given the appropriate key
- It must be computationally infeasible to derive the private key from the public key
- It must be computationally infeasible to determine the private key from a chosen plaintext attack



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Well-Known Public Key Schemes

- Diffie / Hellman (1976)
 - First public key scheme
 - Originally proposed for key exchange
- RSA (Rivest, Shamir, Adleman) (1977)
 - Only widely accepted and implemented general-purpose approach to public-key encryption.



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Diffie-Hellman

- Compute a common, shared key
 - Called a *symmetric key exchange protocol*
- Based on discrete logarithm problem
 - Given integers n and g and prime number p , compute k such that $n = g^k \text{ mod } p$
 - Solutions known for small p
 - Solutions computationally infeasible as p grows large
 - $\{k\}$ can be viewed as private key and $\{n\}$ can be viewed as public key



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Algorithm

- Constants: prime p , integer $g \neq 0, 1, p-1$
 - Known to all participants
- Alice chooses private key k_{Alice} , computes public key $K_{Alice} = g^{k_{Alice}} \text{ mod } p$
- To communicate with Bob, Alice computes $K_{shared} = K_{Bob}^{k_{Alice}} \text{ mod } p$
- To communicate with Alice, Bob computes $K_{shared} = K_{Alice}^{k_{Bob}} \text{ mod } p$
 - It can be shown these keys are equal



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Example

- Assume $p = 53$ and $g = 17$
- Alice chooses $k_{Alice} = 5$
 - Then $K_{Alice} = 17^5 \text{ mod } 53 = 40$
- Bob chooses $k_{Bob} = 7$
 - Then $K_{Bob} = 17^7 \text{ mod } 53 = 6$
- Shared key:
 - $K_{Bob}^{k_{Alice}} \text{ mod } p = 6^5 \text{ mod } 53 = 38$
 - $K_{Alice}^{k_{Bob}} \text{ mod } p = 40^7 \text{ mod } 53 = 38$



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RSA

- Exponentiation cipher
- Relies on the difficulty of determining the number of numbers relatively prime to a large integer n
- Plaintext is encrypted in blocks m . ($m < n$)
- Encipher: $c = m^e \text{ mod } n$
- Decipher: $m = c^d \text{ mod } n$
 - $(= (m^e)^d \text{ mod } n$
 - $= m^{ed} \text{ mod } n = m \text{ mod } n)$
- Sender knows: $\{e, n\}$ - *public key*
- Receiver knows: $\{d, n\}$ - *private key*



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Requirements of RSA

- It is possible to find values of e, d, n such that $m = m^{ed} \text{ mod } n$ for all $m < n$.
- It is relatively easy to calculate m^e and c^d for all values of $m < n$.
- It is infeasible to determine d given e and n .



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Background

- Totient function $\phi(n)$
 - Number of positive integers less than n and relatively prime to n
 - *Relatively prime* means with no factors in common with n
- Example: $\phi(10) = 4$
 - 1, 3, 7, 9 are relatively prime to 10
- Example: $\phi(21) = 12$
 - 1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20 are relatively prime to 21



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Algorithm

- Choose two large prime numbers p, q
 - Let $n = pq$; then $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
 - Choose $e < n$ such that e is relatively prime to $\phi(n)$.
 - Compute d such that $ed \bmod \phi(n) = 1$
- Public key: (e, n) ; private key: (d, n) ; $P, q, \phi(n)$ are safely destroyed.
- Encipher: $c = m^e \bmod n$
- Decipher: $m = c^d \bmod n$

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Example

- Take $p = 7, q = 11$, so $n = 77$ and $\phi(n) = 60$
- Alice chooses $e = 17$, making $d = 53$
- Bob wants to send Alice secret message HELLO (07 04 11 11 14)
 - $07^{17} \bmod 77 = 28$
 - $04^{17} \bmod 77 = 16$
 - $11^{17} \bmod 77 = 44$
 - $11^{17} \bmod 77 = 44$
 - $14^{17} \bmod 77 = 42$
- Bob sends 28 16 44 44 42

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Example

- Alice receives 28 16 44 44 42
- Alice uses private key, $d = 53$, to decrypt message:
 - $28^{53} \bmod 77 = 07$
 - $16^{53} \bmod 77 = 04$
 - $44^{53} \bmod 77 = 11$
 - $44^{53} \bmod 77 = 11$
 - $42^{53} \bmod 77 = 14$
- Alice translates message to letters to read HELLO
 - No one else could read it, as only Alice knows her private key and that is needed for decryption

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A few points

- It could be slow
 - Depend on the key length: 512, 1024, 2048, 4096...
- but . . .
 - I don't have to distribute a secret key because I have my Private Key
 - Everyone with whom I communicate can know my Public Key
 - Scales well
 - There's only one copy of the Private Key

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Common Misconceptions

- It is more secure from cryptanalysis than is conventional encryption
- It makes conventional encryption obsolete
- Key distribution is trivial when using public-key encryption.

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Security Services

- Confidentiality
 - Only the owner of the private key knows it, so text enciphered with public key cannot be read by anyone except the owner of the private key
- Authentication
 - Only the owner of the private key knows it, so text enciphered with private key must have been generated by the owner

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More Security Services

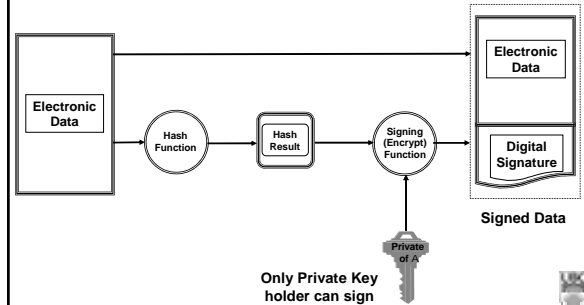
- Integrity
 - Enciphered letters cannot be changed undetectably without knowing private key
- Non-Repudiation
 - Message enciphered with private key came from someone who knew it

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Digital Signature

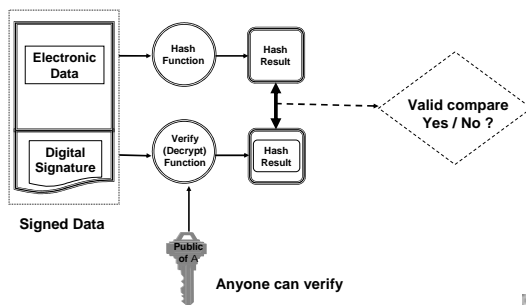
- Authenticates sender's identity



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Digital Signature Verification



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Cryptographic Checksums

- Used for message authentication
- Mathematical function to generate a set of k bits from a set of n bits (where $k \leq n$).
 - k is smaller than n except in unusual circumstances
- Example: ASCII parity bit
 - ASCII has 7 bits; 8th bit is "parity"
 - Even parity: even number of 1 bits
 - Odd parity: odd number of 1 bits

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Keys

- Keyed cryptographic checksum: requires cryptographic key
 - Message Authentication Code (MAC)
 - DES in chaining mode: encipher message, use last n bits. Requires a key to encipher, so it is a keyed cryptographic checksum.
- Keyless cryptographic checksum: requires no cryptographic key
 - Hash Function
 - MD5 and SHA-1 are best known; others include MD4, HAVAL, and Snefru

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HMAC

- Incorporation of a secret key into an existing hash algorithm
- "A hash function such as MD5 was not designed for use as a MAC and cannot be used directly for that purpose because it does not rely on a secret key."

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Algorithm

- h keyless cryptographic checksum function that takes data in blocks of b bytes and outputs blocks of l bytes. k' is cryptographic key of length b bytes
 - If short, pad with 0 bytes; if long, hash to length b
- $ipad$ is 00110110 repeated b times
- $opad$ is 01011100 repeated b times
- $HMAC-h(k, m) = h(k' \oplus opad || h(k' \oplus ipad || m))$
 - \oplus exclusive or, $||$ concatenation

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Key Points

- Public key cryptosystems encipher and decipher using different keys
 - Computationally infeasible to derive one from the other
- Cryptographic checksums provide a check on integrity
 - Keyed and Keyless

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Next Session

- Lecture on Key Management
 - 50 minutes
- Quiz 1
 - 40 minutes

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