



# Public Key Cryptography

EECE 412

# What is it?

- Two keys
  - Sender uses recipient's **public key** to encrypt
  - Receiver uses his **private key** to decrypt
- Based on **trap door, one way function**
  - Easy to compute in one direction
  - Hard to compute in other direction
  - “Trap door” used to create keys
  - Example: Given  $p$  and  $q$ , product  $N=pq$  is easy to compute, but given  $N$ , it is hard to find  $p$  and  $q$

# How is it used?

- Encryption
  - Suppose we encrypt  $M$  with Bob's public key
  - Only Bob's private key can decrypt to find  $M$
- Digital Signature
  - **Sign** by “encrypting” with private key
    - Anyone can **verify** signature by “decrypting” with public key
    - But only private key holder could have signed
    - Like a handwritten signature

# Topic Outline

- The Random Oracle model for Public Key Cryptosystems
  - Public key encryption and trapdoor one-way permutations
  - Digital signatures
- Looking under the hood
  - Knapsack
  - RSA
- Uses of Public Crypto
- The order of sign and encrypt

# Public Key Encryption and Trap-door One-Way Permutation as Random Oracle

- Public Key Encryption Scheme:
  - Key pair  $(KR, KR^{-1})$  generation function from random string  $R$

- $KR \rightarrow KR^{-1}$  is **infeasible**

- $C = \{M\}_{KR}$

- $M = \{C\}_{KR^{-1}}$



- In:
  - fixed size short string (**plaintext**)  $M$ ,
  - Key  $KR$
- Out: fixed size short string (**ciphertext**)  $C$

# Digital Signature as Random Oracle

- Public Key Signature Scheme:
  - Key pair  $(\sigma_R, VR)$  generation function
  - $VR \rightarrow \sigma_R$  is **infeasible**
  - $S = \text{Sig}_{\sigma_R}(M)$
  - $\{\text{True}, \text{False}\} = \text{Ver}_{VR}(S)$



	Signing	Verifying
Input	Any string $M + \sigma_R$	$S + VR$
Output	$S = \text{hash}(M) \mid \text{cipher block}$	"True" or "False"



# Looking Under the Hood

# Knapsack Cryptosystem





# Knapsack Problem

- Given a set of  $n$  weights  $W_0, W_1, \dots, W_{n-1}$  and a sum  $S$ , is it possible to find  $a_i \in \{0,1\}$  so that

$$S = a_0 W_0 + a_1 W_1 + \dots + a_{n-1} W_{n-1}$$

(technically, this is “subset sum” problem)

- **Example**
  - Weights (62,93,26,52,166,48,91,141)
  - Problem: Find subset that sums to  $S=302$
  - Answer:  $62+26+166+48=302$
- The (general) knapsack is NP-complete

# Knapsack Problem

- General knapsack (GK) is hard to solve
- But **super-increasing knapsack** (SIK) is easy
- SIK: each weight greater than the sum of all previous weights
- **SIK Example**
  - Weights (2,3,7,14,30,57,120,251)
  - Problem: Find subset that sums to  $S=186$
  - Work from largest to smallest weight
  - Answer:  $120+57+7+2=186$

# Knapsack Cryptosystem

1. Generate super-increasing knapsack (SIK)
  2. Convert SIK into “general” knapsack (GK)
  3. **Public Key:** GK
  4. **Private Key:** SIK plus conversion factors
- Easy to encrypt with GK
  - With private key, easy to decrypt (convert ciphertext to SIK)
  - Without private key, must solve GK (???)

# Knapsack Cryptosystem

- Let  $(2,3,7,14,30,57,120,251)$  be the SIK
- Choose  $m = 41$  and  $n = 491$  with  $m, n$  relatively prime and  $n$  greater than sum of elements of SIK

- General knapsack

$$(2 \cdot 41) \bmod 491 = 82$$

$$3 \cdot 41 \bmod 491 = 123$$

$$7 \cdot 41 \bmod 491 = 287$$

$$14 \cdot 41 \bmod 491 = 83$$

$$30 \cdot 41 \bmod 491 = 248$$

$$57 \cdot 41 \bmod 491 = 373$$

$$120 \cdot 41 \bmod 491 = 10$$

$$251 \cdot 41 \bmod 491 = 471$$

- General knapsack:  $(82,123,287,83,248,373,10,471)$

# Knapsack Example

- **Private key:**  $(2,3,7,14,30,57,120,251)$ ,  $n = 491$ ,  $m^{-1}=12$ 
  - $m^{-1} \bmod n = 41^{-1} \bmod 491 = 12$
  - $(x^{-1} x) \bmod n = 1 \bmod n$
- **Public key:**  $(82,123,287,83,248,373,10,471)$
- **Throw away:**  $m = 41$
- **Example: Encrypt**  $150 = 10010110$   
 $82 + 83 + 373 + 10 = 548 = C$
- **To decrypt,**
  - $(C m^{-1}) \bmod n = (548 \cdot 12) \bmod 491 = 193 \bmod 491$
  - Solve (easy) SKK with  $S = 193$
  - Obtain plaintext  $10010110 = 150$

# Knapsack Weakness

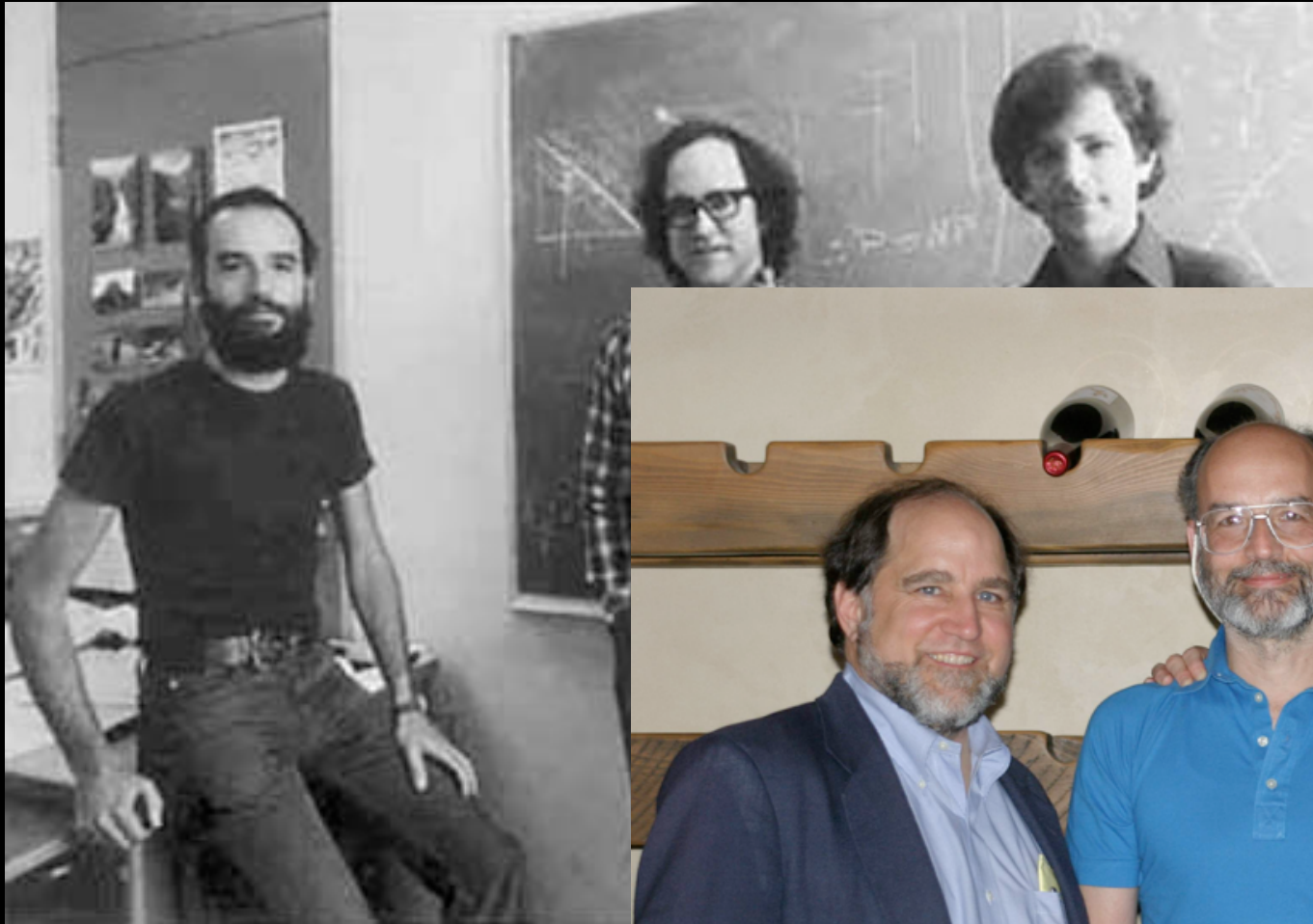
- **Trapdoor:** Convert SK into “general” knapsack using modular arithmetic
- **One-way:** General knapsack easy to encrypt, hard to solve; SK easy to solve
- This knapsack cryptosystem is **insecure**
  - **Broken by Shamir in 1983 with Apple II computer**
  - The attack uses **lattice reduction**
- “General knapsack” is not general enough!
- This special knapsack is easy to solve!



# RSA

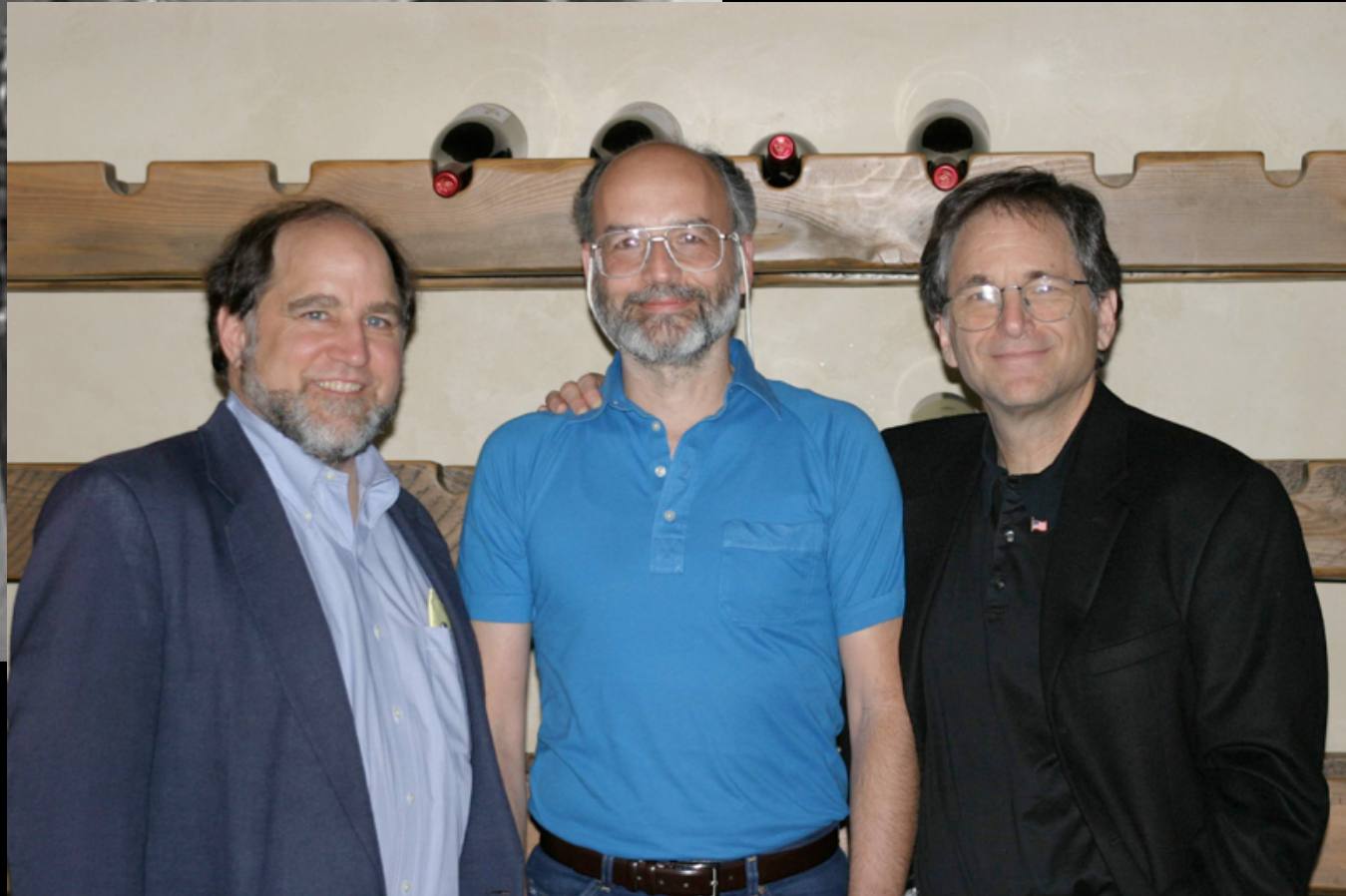
Cocks (GCHQ), independently, by  
Rivest, Shamir and Adleman (MIT)

# Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman



1978

2003





# basics

- Let  $p$  and  $q$  be two large (e.g., 200 digits) **prime** numbers
  - use **probabilistic primality tests** to find  $p$  &  $q$  quickly
- Let  $n = p \times q$  be the **modulus**
  - Factoring  $n$  is supposed to be hard (i.e., billions of years)
- $e$  relatively prime to  $(p-1)(q-1)$  -- **encryption exponent**
- $d = e^{-1} \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$  -- **decryption exponent**
- **Throw Away:**  $p, q$
- **Public key:**  $(n, e)$
- **Private key:**  $d$
- Notation: public is in **cyan**, secret is in **red**

# encrypting & decrypting

- To encrypt message  $M$  compute
  - $C = M^e \bmod n$  -- fast with modular exponentiation
- To decrypt  $C$  compute
  - $M = C^d \bmod n$
- Recall that  $e$  and  $n$  are public
- If attacker can factor  $n$ , he can use  $e$  to easily find  $d$  since  $ed = 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$
- Factoring the modulus breaks RSA
- It is not known whether factoring is the only way to break RSA



# RSA in the works

# simple RSA example: initialization

- Select “large” primes  $p = 43$ ,  $q = 59$
- Then  $n = p \times q = 2537$  and  $(p-1)(q-1) = 2436$
- Choose  $e = 13$  (relatively prime to 2436)
- Find  $d$  such that  $ed = 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ ,  
we find that  $d = 937$  works
- note:  $d$  exists because  $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$
- **Public key:**  $(N, e) = (2537, 13)$
- **Private key:**  $d = 937$

# simple RSA example: encryption

- plain text:  $M = \text{“STOP”} = (18\ 19, 14\ 15)$
- ciphertext:  $C = M^e \bmod n = (1819^{13} \bmod 2537, 1415^{13} \bmod 2537) = 20\ 81\ 21\ 82 = \text{“UDVE”}$
- fast modular exponentiation

# simple RSA example: decryption

- $ed = 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)} \Rightarrow \exists k \text{ s.t. } ed = k(p-1)(q-1) + 1$
- $C^d \equiv (M^e)^d = M^{de} = M^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n}$
- $M^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $M^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$   
by **Fermat's Little Theorem**:
- If  $p$  is prime and  $a$  is an integer not divisible by  $p$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Furthermore  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$
- $C^d \equiv M \times ((M^{p-1})^{k(q-1)}) \pmod{p} \equiv M \times 1 \pmod{p} \equiv M \pmod{p}$
- $C^d \equiv M \times ((M^{q-1})^{k(p-1)}) \pmod{q} \equiv M \times 1 \pmod{q} \equiv M \pmod{q}$
- Because  $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ ,  $C^d \equiv M \pmod{p \times q}$  by **Chinese Remainder Theorem**

# simple RSA example: decryption

- Decrypt message 0981 0461
- $M \equiv C^d \pmod{p \times q}$
- $0981^{937} \pmod{2537} = 0704 = \text{“HE”}$
- $0461^{937} \pmod{2537} = 1115 = \text{“LP”}$
- **HELP**



# Uses for Public Key Crypto



# Uses for Public Key Crypto

- Confidentiality
  - Transmitting data over insecure channel
  - Secure storage on insecure media
- Authentication
- Digital signature provides integrity and **non-repudiation**
  - No non-repudiation with symmetric keys

# Non-non-repudiation

- Alice orders 100 shares of stock from Bob
- Alice computes **MAC** using symmetric key
- Stock drops, Alice claims she did not order
- Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- **No!** Since Bob also knows symmetric key, he could have forged message
- **Problem:** Bob knows Alice placed the order, but he can't prove it

# Non-repudiation

- Alice orders 100 shares of stock from Bob
- Alice **signs** order with her private key
- Stock drops, Alice claims she did not order
- Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- **Yes!** Only someone with Alice's private key could have signed the order
- This assumes Alice's private key is not stolen (revocation problem)



# Sign and Encrypt vs Encrypt and Sign

# Public Key Notation

- **Sign** message  $M$  with Alice's **private key**:

$$[M]_{\text{Alice}}$$

- **Encrypt** message  $M$  with Alice's **public key**:  $\{M\}_{\text{Alice}}$

- Then

$$\{[M]_{\text{Alice}}\}_{\text{Alice}} = M$$

$$[\{M\}_{\text{Alice}}]_{\text{Alice}} = M$$

# Confidentiality and Non-repudiation

- Suppose that we want confidentiality and non-repudiation
- Can public key crypto achieve both?
- Alice sends message to Bob
  - **Sign and encrypt**  $\{[M]_{Alice}\}_{Bob}$
  - **Encrypt and sign**  $[\{M\}_{Bob}]_{Alice}$
- Can the order possibly matter? (see Stamp)

# Sign and Encrypt

$M = \text{"I love you"}$



Alice

$\{[M]_{\text{Alice}}\}_{\text{Bob}}$



Bob

$\{[M]_{\text{Alice}}\}_{\text{Charlie}}$



Charlie

**Q:** What is the problem?

**A:** Charlie misunderstands crypto!

# Encrypt and Sign

M = “My theory, which is mine, is this:

”  
....



Alice

$[\{M\}_{Bob}]_{Alice}$



Charlie

$[\{M\}_{Bob}]_{Charlie}$



Bob

**Note** that Charlie cannot decrypt M

**Q:** What is the problem?

**A:** Bob misunderstands crypto!



# Summary

- The Random Oracle model for Public Key Cryptosystems
  - Public key encryption and trapdoor one-way permutations
  - Digital signatures
- Looking under the hood
  - Knapsack
  - RSA
- Uses of Public Crypto
- The order of sign and encrypt