

CSE 484 / CSE M 584 (Autumn 2011)

Asymmetric Cryptography

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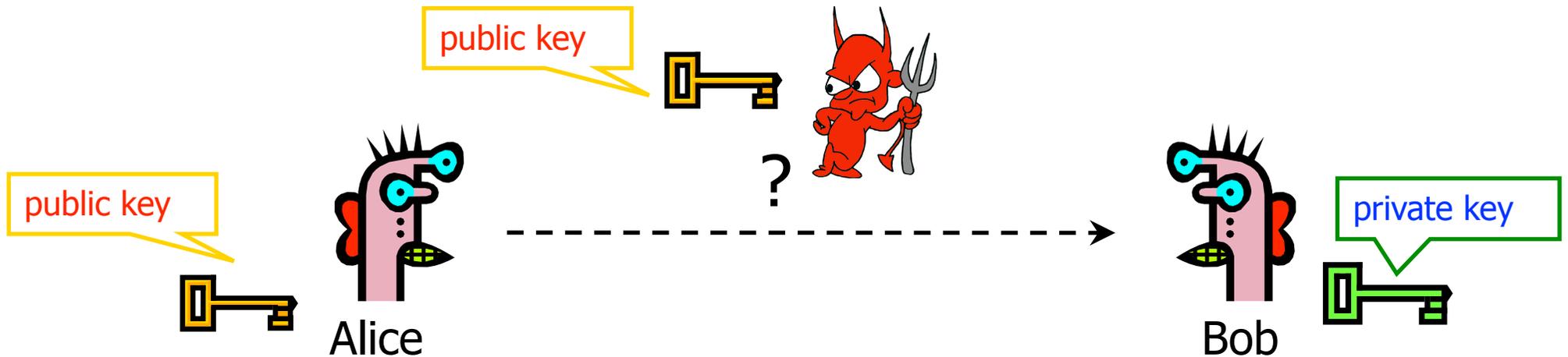
Thanks to Dan Boneh, Dieter Gollmann, John Manferdelli, John Mitchell, Vitaly Shmatikov, Bennet Yee, and many others for sample slides and materials ...

(Reminder:) Symmetric Cryptography

- ◆ **1 secret key**, shared between sender/receiver
- ◆ Repeat fast and simple operations lots of times (rounds) to mix up key and ciphertext
- ◆ **Why do we think it is secure?** (simplistic)
 - If we do lots and lots and lots of mixing, no simple formula (and reversible) describing the whole process (cryptographic weakness).
 - Mix in ways we think it's hard to short-circuit all the rounds. Especially non-linear mixing, e.g., S-boxes.
 - Some math gives us confidence in these assumptions

Public Key Cryptography

Basic Problem



Given: Everybody knows Bob's **public key**

Only Bob knows the corresponding **private key**

- Goals:
1. Alice wants to send a secret message to Bob
 2. Bob wants to authenticate himself

Public-Key Cryptography

- ◆ Everyone has **1 private key and 1 public key**
- ◆ Mathematical relationship between private and public keys
- ◆ **Why do we think it is secure?** (simplistic)
 - Relies entirely on **problems we believe are “hard”**

Applications of Public-Key Crypto

◆ Encryption for confidentiality

- Anyone can encrypt a message
 - With symmetric crypto, must know secret key to encrypt
- Only someone who knows private key can decrypt
- Key management is simpler (or at least different)
 - Secret is stored only at one site: good for open environments

◆ Digital signatures for authentication

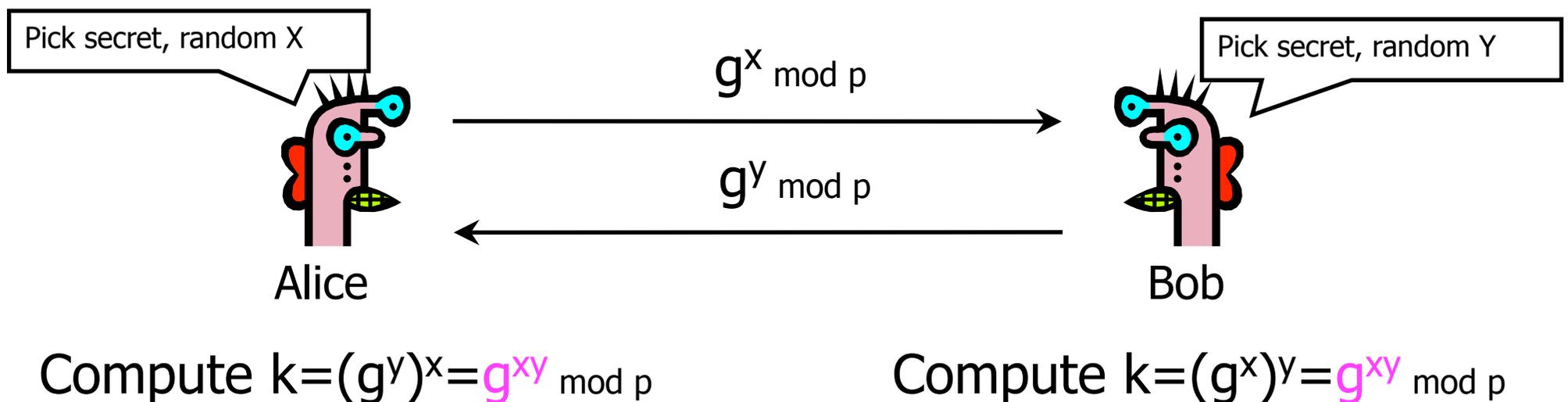
- Can “sign” a message with your private key

◆ Session key establishment

- Exchange messages to create a secret **session key**
- Then switch to symmetric cryptography (why?)

Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

- ◆ Alice and Bob never met and share no secrets
- ◆ Public info: p and g
 - p is a large prime number, g is a generator of Z_p^*
 - $Z_p^* = \{1, 2 \dots p-1\}$; $\forall a \in Z_p^* \exists i$ such that $a = g^i \pmod p$
 - Modular arithmetic: numbers “wrap around” after they reach p



Why Is Diffie-Hellman Secure?

◆ Discrete Logarithm (DL) problem:

given $g^x \bmod p$, it's hard to extract x

- There is no known efficient algorithm for doing this
- This is not enough for Diffie-Hellman to be secure!

◆ Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH) problem:

given g^x and g^y , it's hard to compute $g^{xy} \bmod p$

- ... unless you know x or y , in which case it's easy

◆ Decisional Diffie-Hellman (DDH) problem:

given g^x and g^y , it's hard to tell the difference

between $g^{xy} \bmod p$ and $g^r \bmod p$ where r is random

Properties of Diffie-Hellman

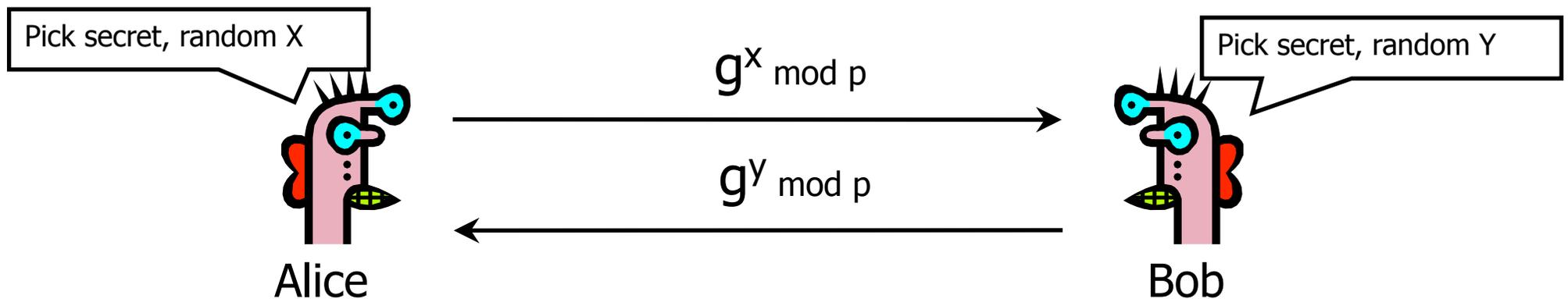
- ◆ Assuming DDH problem is hard, Diffie-Hellman protocol is a secure key establishment protocol against passive attackers
 - Eavesdropper can't tell the difference between established key and a random value
 - Can use new key for symmetric cryptography
 - Approx. 1000 times faster than modular exponentiation
- ◆ Diffie-Hellman protocol (by itself) does not provide authentication

Properties of Diffie-Hellman

- ◆ DDH: not true for integers mod p , but true for other groups
- ◆ DL problem in p can be broken down into DL problems for subgroups, if factorization of $p-1$ is known.
- ◆ Common recommendation:
 - Choose $p = 2q+1$ where q is also a large prime.
 - Pick a g that generates a subgroup of order q in Z_p^*
 - DDH is hard for this group
 - (OK to not know all the details of why for this course.)
 - Hash output of DH key exchange to get the key

Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

- ◆ Alice and Bob never met and share no secrets
- ◆ Public info: p and g
 - p, q are large prime numbers, $p=2q+1$, g a generator for the subgroup of order q
 - Modular arithmetic: numbers “wrap around” after they reach p



Compute $k = H((g^y)^x) = H(g^{xy} \text{ mod } p)$ Compute $k = H((g^x)^y) = H(g^{xy} \text{ mod } p)$

Requirements for Public-Key Encryption

- ◆ **Key generation:** computationally easy to generate a pair (public key PK, private key SK)
 - Computationally infeasible to determine private key SK given only public key PK
- ◆ **Encryption:** given plaintext M and public key PK, easy to compute ciphertext $C = E_{PK}(M)$
- ◆ **Decryption:** given ciphertext $C = E_{PK}(M)$ and private key SK, easy to compute plaintext M
 - Infeasible to compute M from C without SK
 - Even infeasible to learn partial information about M
 - Trapdoor function: $\text{Decrypt}(SK, \text{Encrypt}(PK, M)) = M$

Some Number Theory Facts

- ◆ Euler totient function $\varphi(n)$ where $n \geq 1$ is the number of integers in the $[1, n]$ interval that are relatively prime to n
 - Two numbers are relatively prime if their greatest common divisor (gcd) is 1
- ◆ Euler's theorem:
if $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$, then $a^{\varphi(n)} = 1 \pmod n$
 \mathbb{Z}_n^* : multiplicative group of integers mod n (integers relatively prime to n)
- ◆ Special case: Fermat's Little Theorem
if p is prime and $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, then $a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$

RSA Cryptosystem

[Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

◆ Key generation:

- Generate large primes p, q
 - Say, 1024 bits each (need primality testing, too)
- Compute $n=pq$ and $\varphi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$
- Choose small e , relatively prime to $\varphi(n)$
 - Typically, $e=3$ or $e=2^{16}+1=65537$ (why?)
- Compute unique d such that $ed = 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
- Public key = (e,n) ; private key = (d,n)

◆ Encryption of m : $c = m^e \pmod n$

- Modular exponentiation by repeated squaring

◆ Decryption of c : $c^d \pmod n = (m^e)^d \pmod n = m$