

CSE 484 / CSE M 584: Asymmetric Cryptography

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Announcements

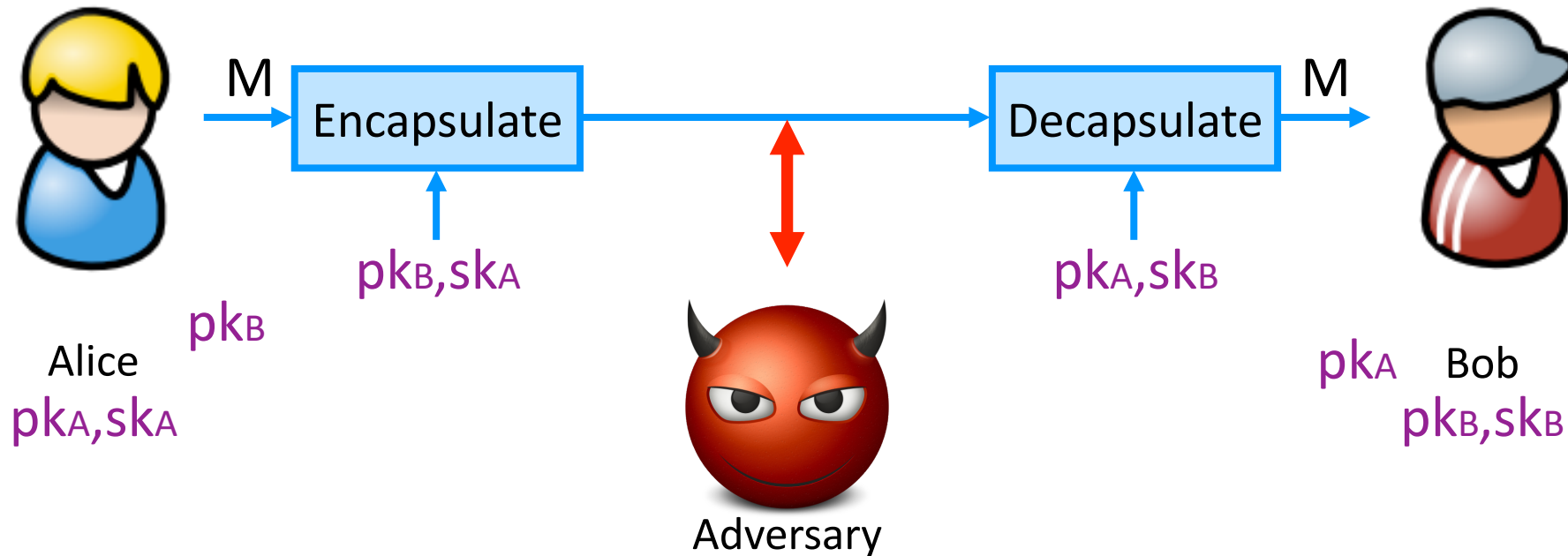
- Things due
 - Lab 1: Wednesday
 - Homework 2: Next Friday
 - Individual assignment (no groups)
 - CSE 584M: Don't forget about weekly research readings
- Roadmap
 - Monday & Wednesday: Asymmetric crypto
 - Friday: Crypto in practice (on the web)
 - Next week: Web security

Flavors of Cryptography

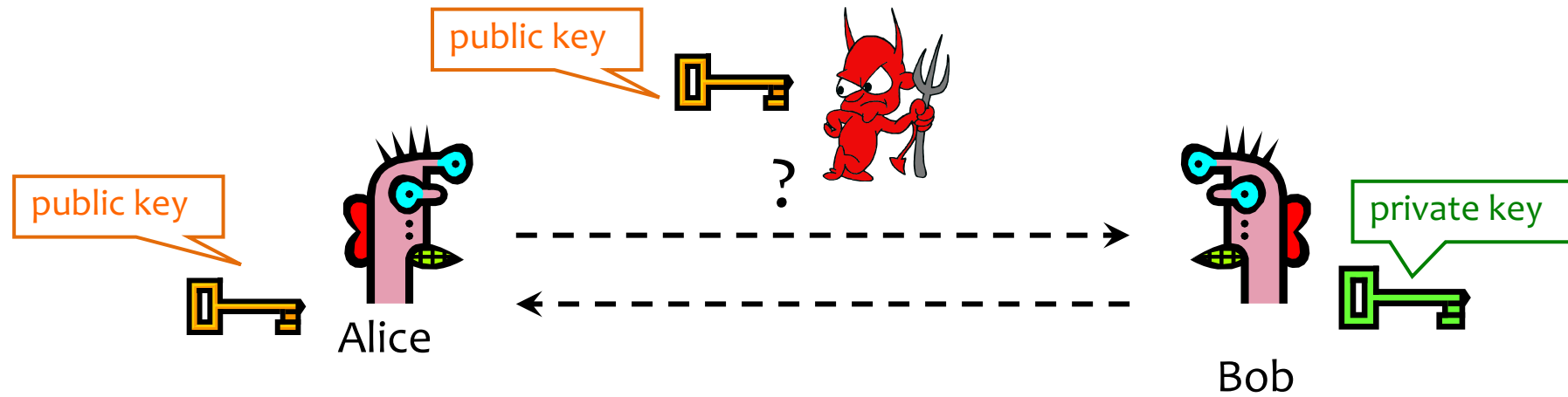
- Symmetric cryptography
 - Both communicating parties have access to a **shared random string K** , called the **key**.
- Asymmetric cryptography
 - Each party creates a public key **pk** and a secret key **sk** .

Asymmetric Setting

Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk .



Public Key Crypto: Basic Problem



Given: Everybody knows Bob's **public key**
Only Bob knows the corresponding **private key**

Ignore for now: How do we know it's REALLY Bob's??

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

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?)

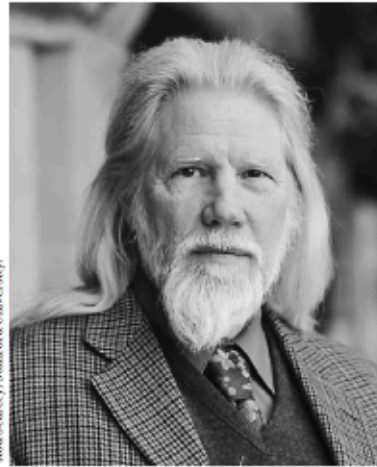
Session Key Establishment

Modular Arithmetic

- Given g and prime p , compute: $g^1 \bmod p, g^2 \bmod p, \dots, g^{100} \bmod p$
 - For $p=11, g=10$
 - $10^1 \bmod 11 = 10, 10^2 \bmod 11 = 1, 10^3 \bmod 11 = 10, \dots$
 - Produces cyclic group $\{10, 1\}$ (order=2)
 - For $p=11, g=7$
 - $7^1 \bmod 11 = 7, 7^2 \bmod 11 = 5, 7^3 \bmod 11 = 2, \dots$
 - Produces cyclic group $\{7, 5, 2, 3, 10, 4, 6, 9, 8, 1\}$ (order = 10)
 - Numbers “wrap around” after they reach p
 - $g=7$ is a “generator” of Z_{11}^*

Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

Diffie and Hellman Receive 2015 Turing Award



Rod Searcy/Stanford University

Whitfield Diffie

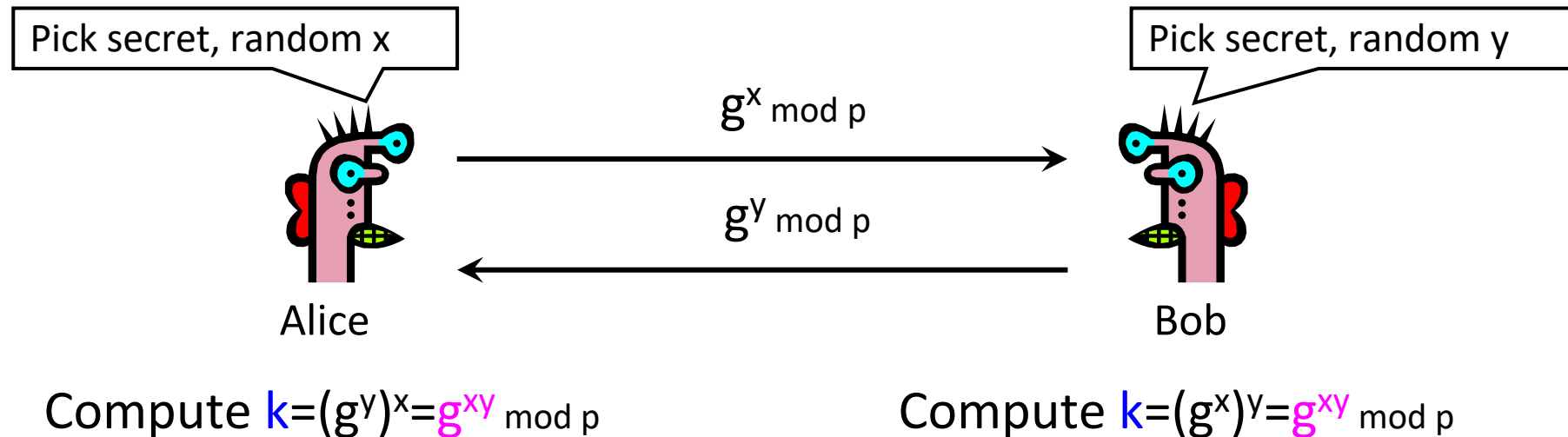


Linda A. Cicero/Stanford News Service

Martin E. Hellman

Diffie-Hellman Protocol (1976)

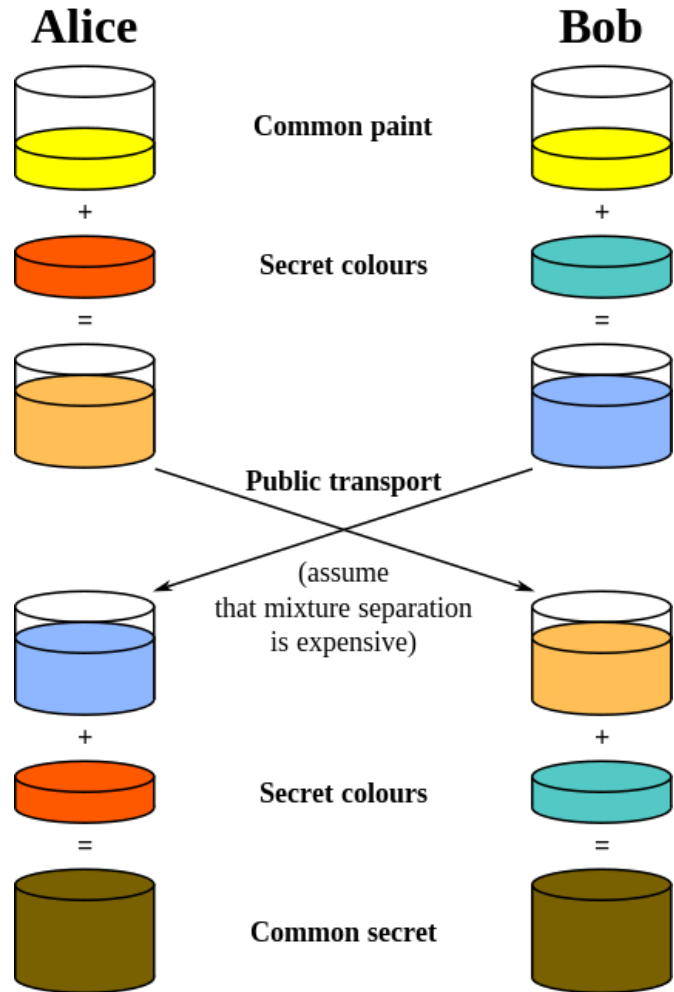
- Alice and Bob never met and share no secrets
- Public info: p and g
 - p is a large prime, g is a **generator** of Z_p^*
 - $Z_p^* = \{1, 2 \dots p-1\}$; a is in Z_p^* if there is an i such that $a = g^i \pmod p$



Example Diffie Hellman Computation

- PUBLIC
 - $p = 11$
 - $g = 2$
 - (g is a generator for group mod p)
- Alice: $x=9$, sends 6 ($g^x \text{ mod } p = 2^9 \text{ mod } 11 = 6$)
- Bob: $y=4$, send 5 ($g^y \text{ mod } p = 2^4 \text{ mod } 11 = 5$)
- A compute: $5^x \text{ mod } 11$ ($5^9 \text{ mod } 11 = 9$)
- B compute $6^y \text{ mod } 11$ ($6^4 \text{ mod } 11 = 9$)
- Both get 9
- All computations modulo 11

Diffie-Hellman: Conceptually



Common paint: p and g

Secret colors: x and y

Send over public transport:

$g^x \bmod p$

$g^y \bmod p$

Common secret: $g^{xy} \bmod p$

[from Wikipedia]

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

Diffie-Hellman Caveats (1)

- Assuming DDH problem is hard (depends on choice of parameters!), Diffie-Hellman protocol is a secure key establishment protocol against passive attackers
 - Common recommendation:
 - Choose $p=2q+1$, where q is also a large prime
 - Choose g that generates a subgroup of order q in Z_p^*
 - DDH is hard in this group
 - Eavesdropper can't tell the difference between the established key and a random value
 - In practice, often hash $g^{xy} \bmod p$, and use the hash as the key
 - Can use the new key for symmetric cryptography

Diffie-Hellman Caveats (2)

- Diffie-Hellman protocol (by itself) does not provide authentication (against active attackers)
 - Person in the middle attack (aka “man in the middle attack”)

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Today

- **Important Note:**
 - We have discussed discrete logs modulo integers
 - Significant advantages in using **elliptic curve groups**
 - Groups with some similar mathematical properties (i.e., are “groups”) but have better security and performance (size) properties
 - Today’s de-facto standard

Stepping Back: Asymmetric Crypto

- We've just seen **session key establishment**
 - Can then use shared key for symmetric crypto
- Next: **public key encryption**
 - For confidentiality
- Then: **digital signatures**
 - For authenticity

Requirements for Public Key Encryption

- **Key generation:** computationally easy to generate a pair (public key **PK**, private key **SK**)
- **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 learn anything about M from C without **SK**
 - Trapdoor function: $\text{Decrypt}(\text{SK}, \text{Encrypt}(\text{PK}, M)) = M$

Some Number Theory Facts

- Euler totient function $\varphi(n)$ ($n \geq 1$) 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
 - Easy to compute for primes: $\varphi(p) = p-1$
 - Note that $\varphi(ab) = \varphi(a) \varphi(b)$ if a & b are relatively prime

RSA Cryptosystem [Rivest, Shamir, Adleman 1977]

- Key generation:
 - Generate large primes p, q
 - Say, 2048 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 $e=2^{16}+1=65537$
 - Compute unique d such that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
 - Modular inverse: $d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\varphi(n)}$
 - Public key = (e,n) ; private key = (d,n)
- Encryption of m : $c = m^e \pmod n$
- Decryption of c : $c^d \pmod n = (m^e)^d \pmod n = m$

How to compute?

- Extended Euclidian algorithm
- Wolfram Alpha 😊
- Brute force for small values