

# **Information Systems Security**



Lecture 4

## **Asymmetric cryptography**

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# references

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- [2] Cryptography and Network Security, By W. Stallings. Prentice Hall, 2003.
- [3] Handbook of applied Cryptography by A. Menezes, P. Van Oorschot and S. Vanstone. 5<sup>th</sup> printing, 2001  
<http://www.cacr.math.uwaterloo.ca/hac>
- [4] Cryptography: A Very Short Introduction (Very Short Introduction S.), by [Fred Piper](#) and [Sean Murphy](#), Oxford University Press, 2002.

# Outline

1. Basic mathematical concepts
2. Public key cryptography
3. OWF
4. RSA
5. ElGamal

# 1. The modulo operation

## ■ Definition

- Let  $a, r, n$  be integers and let  $q > 0$
- We write  $a \equiv r \pmod{n}$  if  $n$  divides  $a - r$  (or  $r - a$ ) and  $0 \leq r < n$
- $n$  is called the *modulus*
- $r$  is called the *remainder*
  - Note that  $r$  is positive or zero
- Note that  $a = n \cdot q + r$  where  $q$  is another integer (*quotient*)

## ■ Example: $42 \equiv 6 \pmod{9}$

- 9 divides  $42 - 6 = 36$
- 9 also divides  $6 - 42 = -36$
- Note that  $42 = 9 \times 4 + 6$ 
  - ( $q = 4$ )

# Number Theory

- Natural numbers  $N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- Whole numbers  $W = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- Integers  $Z = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- Divisors
  - A number  $b$  is said to divide  $a$  if  $a = mb$  for some  $m$  where  $a, b, m \in Z$
  - We write this as  $b|a$ 
    - Read as “ $b$  divides  $a$ ”

# Divisors

- Some common properties
  - If  $a|1$ ,  $a = +1$  or  $-1$
  - If  $a|b$  and  $b|a$  then  $a = +b$  or  $-b$
  - Any  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  divides 0 if  $b \neq 0$
  - If  $b|g$  and  $b|h$  then  $b|(mg + nh)$  where  $b, m, n, g, h \in \mathbb{Z}$
- Examples:
  - The positive divisors of 42 are 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 14, 21, 42
  - $3|6$  and  $3|21 \Rightarrow 3|21m + 6n$  for  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$

# Prime Numbers

- An integer  $p$  is said to be a prime number if its only positive divisors are 1 and itself
  - Examples 2, 3, 7, 11, ..
- Any integer can be expressed as a ***unique*** product of prime numbers raised to positive integral powers
  - $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_k^{e_k}$  //  $n$ : integer,  $p_i$ : prime,  $e_i$ : positive integer
- Examples
  - $7569 = 3 \times 3 \times 29 \times 29 = 3^2 \times 29^2$
  - $5886 = 2 \times 27 \times 109 = 2 \times 3^3 \times 109$
- This process is called ***Prime Factorization***

# Greatest common divisor (GCD)

- Definition: *Greatest Common Divisor*
  - This is the largest divisor of *both*  $a$  and  $b$
- Given two integers  $a$  and  $b$ , the positive integer  $c$  is called their GCD or greatest common divisor if and only if
  - $c \mid a$  and  $c \mid b$
  - Any divisor of both  $a$  and  $b$  also divides  $c$
- Notation:  $\gcd(a, b) = c$
- Example:  $\gcd(49, 63) = ?$
- $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$
- Exception:  $\gcd(0, 0) = 0$



# Relatively Prime Numbers

- Two numbers are said to be *relatively prime* if their *gcd* is 1
  - Example: 63 and 22 are relatively prime
- How do you determine if two numbers are relatively prime?
  - Find their *gcd* or
  - Find their prime factors
    - If they do not have a common prime factor other than 1, they are relatively prime
  - Example:  $63 = 9 \times 7 = 3^2 \times 7$  and  $22 = 11 \times 2$

# Modular Arithmetic Again

- We say that  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  if  $m \mid a - b$ 
  - Read as:  $a$  is *congruent* to  $b$  modulo  $m$
  - $m$  is called the *modulus*
  - Example:  $27 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$
- Note that  $b$  is the *remainder* after dividing  $a$  by  $m$ 
  - Example:  $27 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$  and  $7 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$
- $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{m}$ 
  - Example:  $2 \equiv 27 \pmod{5}$
- We usually consider the *smallest positive remainder* which is sometimes called the *residue*

# Modulo Operation

- The modulo operation “**reduces**” the infinite set of integers to a finite set
- **Example: modulo 5 operation**
  - We have five sets
    - $\{\dots, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, \dots\} \Rightarrow a \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$
    - $\{\dots, -9, -4, 1, 6, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow a \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$
    - $\{\dots, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, \dots\} \Rightarrow a \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$
    - $\{\dots, -7, -2, 3, 8, 13, \dots\} \Rightarrow a \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$
    - $\{\dots, -6, -1, 4, 9, 14, \dots\} \Rightarrow a \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$
  - The set of residues of integers modulo 5 has five elements  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$  and is denoted  $\mathbb{Z}_5$ .

# Euler phi (or totient) function

- For  $n \geq 1$ ,  $\phi(n)$ : is the number of integers in  $[1, n]$  which are relatively prime to  $n$  //  $\phi(n)$  is the *Euler phi* or *totient function*
- If  $p$  is prime, then  $\phi(p)=p-1$
- If  $\gcd(m, n)=1$ , then  $\phi(mn)=\phi(m).\phi(n)$
- Examples:
  - $\phi(21)=\phi(3).\phi(7)=(3-1) * (7-1)=12$

# multiplicative group $Z_n^*$

- Definition: the *multiplicative group*  $Z_n^*$  of  $Z_n$ 
  - $Z_n^* = \{a \in Z_n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$
  - If  $n$  is prime then  $Z_n^* = \{a \in Z_n \mid 1 \leq a \leq n-1\}$
  - $\phi(n) = |Z_n^*|$
- Let  $n \geq 2$  be an integer
  - Euler's theorem: If  $g \in Z_n^*$  then  $g^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
  - If  $n$  is a product of distinct primes, and if  $r \equiv s \pmod{\phi(n)}$ , then  $g^r \equiv g^s \pmod{n}$  for all integers  $g$
  - i.e., when working modulo an  $n$ , exponents can be reduced modulo  $\phi(n)$

# multiplicative group $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$

## ■ Let $p$ be a prime number

- Fermat's theorem: If  $\gcd(a,p)=1$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
- If  $r \equiv s \pmod{p-1}$ , then  $a^r \equiv a^s \pmod{p}$  for all integers  $a$ 
  - i.e., when working modulo a prime  $p$ , exponents can be reduced modulo  $p-1$
- Particular case:  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$  for all integers  $a$

# Generator of $Z_n^*$

- Let  $g \in Z_n^*$ , the **order** of  $g$  is the least positive integer  $t$  such that  $g^t \equiv 1 \pmod n$
- If the order of  $g \in Z_n^*$  is  $t$ , and  $g^s \equiv 1 \pmod n$ , then  $t$  divides  $s$ 
  - A particular case:  $t \mid \phi(n)$
- Let  $g \in Z_n^*$ , if the order of  $g$  is  $\phi(n)$ , then  $g$  is said to be a **generator** or a **primitive element** of  $Z_n^*$ .
  - If  $g$  is a generator of  $Z_n^*$ , then  $Z_n^* = \{g^i \pmod n \mid 0 \leq i \leq \phi(n) - 1\}$

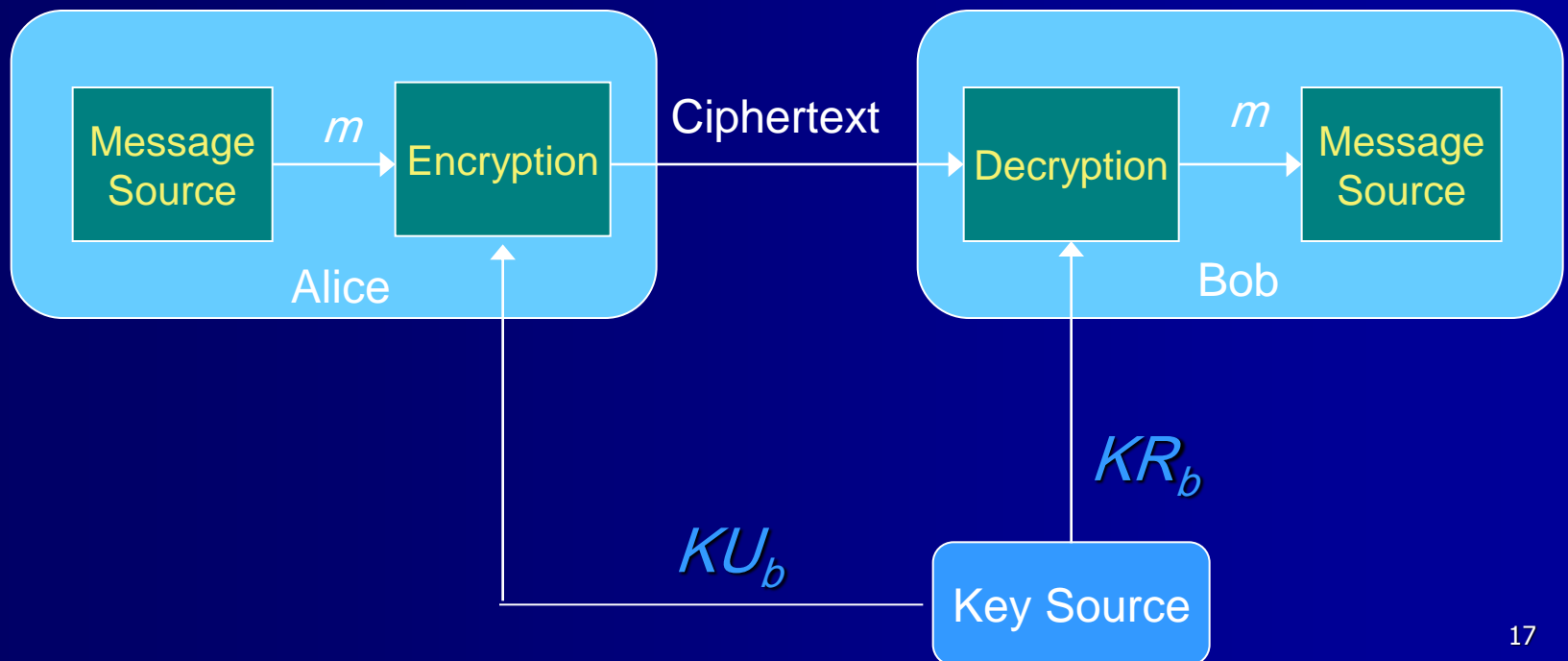
## 2. Public-key cryptography

- Called also *asymmetric cryptography*
- The keys used to encrypt and decrypt are different.
- Anyone who wants to be a receiver needs to “publish” an encryption key, which is known as the *public key,  $K_U$* .
- Anyone who wants to be a receiver needs a unique decryption key, which is known as the *private key,  $K_R$* .
- If B wants to send an enciphered text to A, B should knows *the encryption algorithm* and A's public key.



# Confidentiality via Public key cryptography

- Alice wants to send a secret message  $m$  to Bob
- Bob should have 2 keys: public  $KU_b$  and private  $KR_b$
- Prior to message encryption, Alice gets by some means an authentic copy of Bob's public key (*i.e.*, the encryption key)



# Public-key cryptography

- It should not be possible to deduce the plaintext from knowledge of the ciphertext and the public key.
- It should not be possible to deduce the private key from knowledge of the public key.
- Public-key cryptography is based on *One-Way Functions*

# 3. One-Way Functions (OWF)

- A **one-way function** is a function that is “easy” to compute and “difficult” to reverse
- Examples of OWF that we’ll use in this lecture to explain public-key systems:
  - Multiplication of two primes
  - **Modular exponentiation**

# OWF: Multiplying two primes

- Multiplication of two prime numbers is **believed** to be a one-way function.
- Given two prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$ 
  - It's easy to find  $n=p.q$
  - However, starting from  $n$ , it's difficult to find  $p$  and  $q$
- Is it prime factorization?

# OWF: Modular exponentiation

- The process of *exponentiation* just means raising numbers to a power.
- Raising  $a$  to the power  $b$ , normally denoted  $a^b$  just means multiplying  $a$  by itself  $b$  times. In other words:
$$a^b = a \times a \times a \times \dots \times a$$
- *Modular exponentiation* means computing  $a^b$  modulo some other number  $n$ . We tend to write this as
$$a^b \bmod n.$$
- Modular exponentiation is “easy”.

# OWF: Modular exponentiation

- However, given  $a$ , and  $a^b \bmod n$  (when  $n$  is prime), calculating  $b$  is regarded by mathematicians as a hard problem.
- This difficult problem is often referred to as the discrete logarithm problem.
- In other words, given a number  $a$  and a prime number  $n$ , the function

$$f(b) = a^b \bmod n$$

is believed to be a one-way function.

# 4. RSA

- It is named after its inventors Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Len Adleman.
- Published in 1978
- It is the most widely used public-key encryption algorithm today.
- It provides confidentiality and digital signatures.
- Its security is based on the difficulty of integer factorization

# RSA algorithm (key generation for RSA public-key encryption)

- Each entity  $A$  creates a public key and a corresponding private key by doing the following
  - Generate two large (at least 1024 bits) primes  $p$  and  $q$
  - Compute  $n=pq$  and  $\phi(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$ .
  - Choose  $e < \phi$  relatively prime to  $\phi$  (i.e.,  $\gcd(e, \phi)=1$ )
  - Compute  $d$  such that  $ed \bmod \phi(n) \equiv 1$
- $A$ 's Public key:  $(e, n)$  // to be published.
- $A$ 's private key:  $d$  (or  $(d, n)$ ) // to be kept secretly by  $A$
- Who is capable of computing  $d$ ?



# RSA Encryption/decryption

- Summary: B encrypts a message  $m$  for A. Upon reception, A decrypts it using its private key.
- Encryption: B should do the following
  - Obtain A's authentic public key  $(n,e)$ .
  - Represent the message as an integer in the interval  $[0,n-1]$
  - Compute  $c = m^e \bmod n$  // Encryption
  - Send the ciphertext  $c$  to A
- Decryption: to recover plaintext  $m$  from  $c$ , A does the following
  - Use the private key  $d$  to recover  $m = c^d \bmod n$  // Decryption
- *How does B obtain A's authentic key?*

# Example: confidentiality

- Take  $p = 7$ ,  $q = 11$ , so  $n = 77$  and  $\phi(n) = 60$
- Say Bob chooses  $(KU_b)$   $e = 17$ , making  $(KR_b)$   $d = 53$ 
  - $17 \times 53 \bmod 60 = ?$
- Alice wants to secretly send Bob the message HELLO [07 04 11 11 14]
  - $07^{17} \bmod 77 = 28$
  - $04^{17} \bmod 77 = 16$
  - $11^{17} \bmod 77 = 44$
  - $11^{17} \bmod 77 = 44$
  - $14^{17} \bmod 77 = 42$
- Alice sends ciphertext [28 16 44 44 42]

# Example: confidentiality

- Bob receives [28 16 44 44 42]
- Bob uses private key ( $KR_b$ ),  $d=53$ , to decrypt the message:
  - $28^{53} \bmod 77 = 07$  H
  - $16^{53} \bmod 77 = 04$  E
  - $44^{53} \bmod 77 = 11$  L
  - $44^{53} \bmod 77 = 11$  L
  - $42^{53} \bmod 77 = 14$  O
- No one else could read it, as only Bob knows his private key and that is needed for decryption

# Attacking RSA

1. Trying to decrypt a ciphertext without knowledge of the private key
  - The encryption process in RSA involves computing the function  $c = m^e \bmod n$ , which is regarded as being easy
  - An attacker who observes this ciphertext  $c$ , and has knowledge of  $e$  and  $n$ , needs to try to work out what  $m$  is.
  - *i.e.*, find  $m$  such that  $m^e = c \bmod n$
  - In other words, find the  $e^{th}$  root of  $c \bmod n$
- Computing  $m$  from  $c$ ,  $e$  and  $n$  is regarded as a hard problem and known as *RSA problem*.

# Attacking RSA

2. If the attacker knows the public key of a user  $(e, n)$ , what would she/he need to do in order to obtain the corresponding private key?
  - He/she needs to find  $d$  such that  $ed \bmod \phi(n) = 1$
  - *i.e.*, needs to know  $p$  and  $q$
  - In other words, he/she must factor  $n$  (problem of prime factorization)
- Recommended size of  $n$ :
  - 768-bit is recommended
  - 1024-bit or larger is required for long term security
  - it is believed that factoring a 512 bit number is about as hard as searching for a 56 bit symmetric key.

# 5. El Gamal

- ElGamal is another public-key encryption
- We will also take a look at the ElGamal public key cipher system for a number of reasons:
  - To show that RSA is not the only public key system
  - To exhibit a public key system based on a different one way function
  - ElGamal is the basis for several well-known cryptosystems

# ElGamal algorithm (key generation)

- Key generation for ElGamal public-key encryption
- Each entity  $A$  creates a public key and a corresponding private key.
  - Generate a large prime number  $p$  (1024 bits)
  - Generate a generator  $g$  of the multiplicative group  $Z_p^*$  of the integers modulo  $p$
  - Select a random integer  $x$ ,  $1 \leq x \leq p-2$
  - Compute  $y = g^x \bmod p$
  - $A$ 's public key is  $(p, g, y)$ 
    - To be published
  - $A$ 's private key is  $x$ 
    - To be kept secret by  $A$

# ElGamal algorithm (key generation)

- Example
- Step 1: Let  $p = 2357$
- Step 2: Select a generator  $g = 2$  of  $Z_{2357}^*$
- Step 3: Choose a private key  $x = 1751$
- Step 4: Compute  $y = 2^{1751} \pmod{2357}$   
 $= 1185$
- Public key is  $(2357, 2, 1185)$
- Private key is  $1751$



# ElGamal algorithm (Encryption/decryption)

- Summary: B encrypts a message  $m$  for A, which A decrypts
- Encryption: B should do the following
  - Obtain A's authentic public key  $(p, g, y)$ .
  - Represent the message as an integer in the interval  $[0, p-1]$
  - Select an integer  $k$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq p-2$
  - Compute  $\gamma = g^k \bmod p$  and  $\delta = m \cdot (y)^k \bmod p$
  - Send the ciphertext  $c = (\gamma, \delta)$  to A
- Decryption
  - A uses the private key  $x$  to compute  $z = \gamma^{p-1-x} \bmod p$
  - A computes  $z \cdot \delta \bmod p (=m)$

# ElGamal algorithm (Encryption/decryption)

## ■ Encryption

- To encrypt  $m = 2035$  using Public key  $(2357, 2, 1185)$
- Generate a random number  $k = 1520$
- Compute  $\gamma = 2^{1520} \bmod 2357 = 1430$   
 $\delta = 2035 \times 1185^{1520} \bmod 2357 = 697$
- Ciphertext  $c = (1430, 697)$

## ■ Decryption

- $z = \gamma^{p-1-x} \bmod p = 1430^{605} \bmod 2357 = 872$
- $872 \times 697 \bmod 2357 = 2035$

# ElGamal Properties

- There is a *message expansion* by a factor of 2
  - *i.e.*, the ciphertext is twice as long as the corresponding plaintext
- *Requires a random number generator ( $k$ )*
- Relies on discrete algorithm problem, *i.e.*, having  $y = g^x \mod p$  it's hard to find  $x$  (the private key)
- ElGamal encryption is randomized (coming from the random number  $k$ ), RSA encryption is deterministic.
- ElGamal is the basis of many other algorithms (*e.g.*, DSA)

# Summary

- RSA is a public key encryption algorithm whose security is believed to be based on the problem of factoring large numbers.
- ElGamal is a public key encryption algorithm whose security is believed to be based on the discrete logarithm problem.
- RSA is generally favoured over ElGamal for practical rather than security reasons.
- RSA and ElGamal are less efficient and fast to operate than most symmetric encryption algorithms because they involve modular exponentiation.
  - Public key cryptography confined to **key management** and **signature applications**.

Questions?