

Part I

Public-key cryptosystems basics: I. Key exchange, knapsack, RSA

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The realization that a cryptosystem does not need to be symmetric/private can be seen as the single most important breakthrough in the modern cryptography and as one of the key discoveries leading to the internet and to information society.

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Supercomputer Salomon in Ostrava, with performance 1.407 petaflops was on 40th place in June 2015; best in India on 79th place.

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Ostrava's Solomon is currently on 282 position. They got a new one, called Barbora, with 8 times larger performance.

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Why they are needed? Exascale computers would allow to make extremely precise simulations of biological systems what is expected to allow to deal with such problems as climate change and growing food that could withstand drought.

CHAPTER 5: PUBLIC-KEY CRYPTOGRAPHY I. RSA

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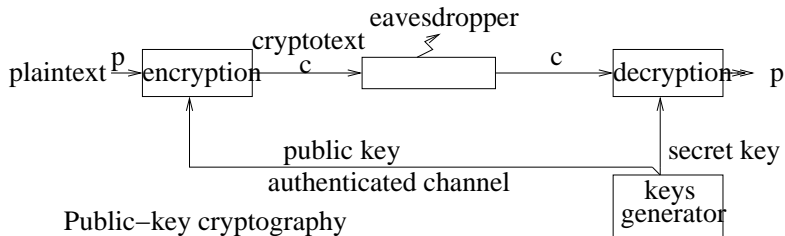
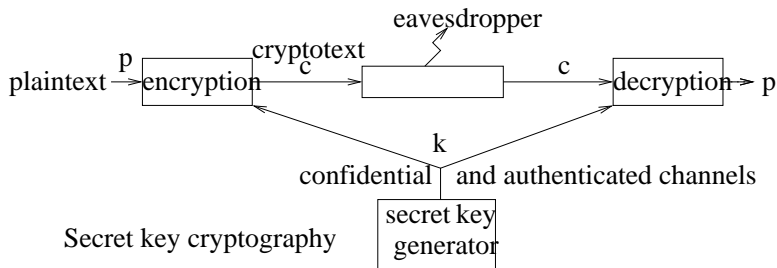
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Therefore, **private key cryptography is not a sufficiently good tool for massive communication capable to protect secrecy, privacy and anonymity.**

SYMMETRIC versus ASYMMETRIC CRYPTOSYSTEMS



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Encryption and decryption keys of public key cryptography could (and should) be different - we can therefore say also that public-key cryptography is **asymmetric cryptography**. Secret key cryptography, that has the same key for encryption and for decryption is then called also as **symmetric cryptography**.

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- Big banks had special employees that used to travel all the time around the world and to deliver keys, in special briefcases, to everyone who had to get a message next week.

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- Key distribution has been a big problem for 2000 of years, especially during both World Wars.
- **Around 1970** a vision of an internet started to appear (ARPAnet was created in 1969) and it started to be clear that an enormous communication potential that a whole world connecting network could provide, could hardly be fully utilized unless secrecy of communication can be established. Therefore the **key distribution problem started to be seen as the problem of immense importance**.
- For example around 1970 only US government institutions needed to distribute daily tons of keys (on discs, tapes,...) to users they planned to communicate with.
- Big banks had special employees that used to travel all the time around the world and to deliver keys, in special briefcases, to everyone who had to get a message next week.
- Informatization of society was questioned because if governments had problems with key distribution how smaller companies could handle the key distribution problem without bankrupting?

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- Big banks had special employees that used to travel all the time around the world and to deliver keys, in special briefcases, to everyone who had to get a message next week.
- Informatization of society was questioned because if governments had problems with key distribution how smaller companies could handle the key distribution problem without bankrupting?
- At the same time, the **key distribution problem** used to be considered, practically by all, as an **unsolvable problem.**

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MERKLE JOINING DIFFIE-HELLMAN

After Diffie and Hellman announced their solution to the key generation problem, Ralph Merkle claimed, and could prove, that he had a similar idea some years ago.

That is the way why some people talk about Merkle-Diffie-Hellman key exchange.



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Let Bob use the encryption substitution.

a	b	c	d	e	f	g	h	i	j	k	l	m	n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z
C	P	M	G	A	T	N	O	J	E	F	W	I	Q	B	U	R	Y	H	X	S	D	Z	K	L	V

Message m e e t m e a t n o o n

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Message		m	e	e	t		m	e		a	t		n	o	o	n
---------	--	---	---	---	---	--	---	---	--	---	---	--	---	---	---	---

Alice's encrypt.	Y	G	G	C		Y	G		H	C		J	B	B	J
------------------	---	---	---	---	--	---	---	--	---	---	--	---	---	---	---

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Basic assumption: Each user X has its own

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Disadvantage: 3 communications are needed (in such a context 3 is a too large number).

Advantage: It is a perfect protocol for secret distribution of messages.

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Diffie+Hellman solved this problem of key distribution first in 1976 by designing a **protocol for secure key establishment (distribution) over public communication channels.**

Diffie-Hellman Protocol: If two parties, Alice and Bob, want to create a common secret key, then they first agree, somehow, on large primes p and a $q < p$ of large order in Z_p^* and then they perform, using a public channel, the following activities.

- Alice chooses, randomly, a large $1 \leq x < p - 1$ and computes

$$X = q^x \bmod p.$$

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- Alice and Bob exchange **X** and **Y**, through a public channel, but keep x, y secret.
- Alice now computes $Y^x \bmod p$ and Bob computes $X^y \bmod p$. After that each of them has the same (**key**)

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An eavesdropper seems to need, in order to determine x from **X**, q , p and y from **Y**, q , p , a capability to compute discrete logarithms, or to compute q^{xy} from q^x and q^y , what is believed to be infeasible.

MERKLE JOINING DIFFIE-HELLMAN

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That is the way why some people talk now about Merkle-Diffie-Hellman key exchange.



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- 7 Meanwhile, Eve enjoys reading Alice's message.

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The protocol required still too much communication and a cooperation of both parties for quite a time.

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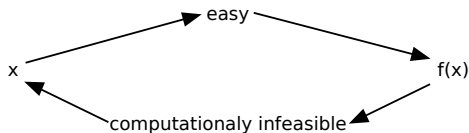
Mathematically, the problem was to find a simple enough so-called **one-way trapdoor function**.

A search (hunt) for such a function started.

ONE-WAY FUNCTIONS

Informally, a function $F : N \rightarrow N$ is said to be a **one-way function** if it is easily computable - in polynomial time - but any computation of its inverse is infeasible.

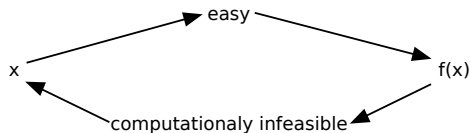
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Definition A function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ is called a **strongly one-way function** if the following conditions are satisfied:

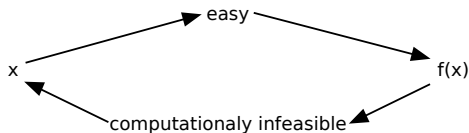
- 1 f can be computed in polynomial time;
- 2 there are $c, \epsilon > 0$ such that $|x|^\epsilon \leq |f(x)| \leq |x|^c$;
- 3 for every randomized polynomial time algorithm A , and any constant $c > 0$, there exists an n_c such that for $|x| = n > n_c$

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Candidates:

Modular exponentiation: $f(x) = a^x \bmod n$

Modular squaring $f(x) = x^2 \bmod n$, $n - a$ Blum integer

Prime number multiplication $f(p, q) = pq$.

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New basic idea: To make a clever use of outcomes of computational complexity theory.

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Modern cryptography uses such encryption methods that no “enemy” can have enough computational power and time to do decryption (even those capable to use thousands of supercomputers during tens of years for encryption).

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Primes recognition: Is a given n a prime? – fast randomized algorithms exist (1977). The existence of polynomial deterministic algorithms for primes recognition has been shown only in 2002

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Knapsack problem: Given a (knapsack - integer) vector $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ and an (integer capacity) c , find a binary vector (b_1, \dots, b_n) such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i = c.$$

Problem is *NP*-hard in general, but easy if $x_i > \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} x_j$, for all $1 < i \leq n$.

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A **way to design a trapdoor one-way function** is to **transform** an easy case of a hard (one-way) function to a hard-looking case of such a function, that can be, however, solved easily by those knowing how the above **transformation** was performed.

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FORMAL VIEW of PUBLIC-KEY CRYPTOSYSTEMS

A public-key cryptosystem consists of three fixed and publically known deterministic algorithms:

- E — encryption algorithm;
- D — decryption algorithm;
- G — key-generation algorithm

In addition: the following binary words will be considered:

- M — message;
- C — cryptotext
- T — trapdoor

Prior transformation of any message the receiver R generates (or someone behind him) a trapdoor T_R , say randomly, and then computes the pair $(K_{T_R,e}, K_{T_R,d})$ of keys.

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Once PKC is to be used broadly usual a huge machinery has to be established in a country for generating, storing and validation (of validity,....) of public keys.

Interesting and important public key cryptosystems were developed on the base of the KNAPSACK PROBLEM and its modifications

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Algorithm – to solve knapsack problems with superincreasing vectors:

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for  $i = n \leftarrow$  downto 2 do
  if  $c \geq 2x_i$  then terminate {no solution}
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KNAPSACK and MCELIECE CRYPTOSYSTEMS

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Example

If $A = (74, 82, 94, 83, 39, 99, 56, 49, 73, 99)$ and $B = (1100110101)$ then

$$AB^T =$$

DESIGN of KNAPSACK CRYPTOSYSTEMS

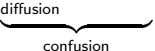
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Lemma Let X, m, u, X', c, c' be as defined above. Then the knapsack problem instances (X, c') and (X', c) have at most one solution, and if one of them has a solution, then the second one has the same solution.

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Proof Let $X'w^T = c$. Then

$$c' \equiv u^{-1}c \equiv u^{-1}X'w^T \equiv u^{-1}uXw^T \equiv Xw^T \pmod{m}.$$

Since X is superincreasing and $m > 2x_n$ we have

$$(Xw^T) \bmod m = Xw^T$$
$$c' = Xw^T.$$

and therefore

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Remark. Density of super-increasing vectors of length n is $\leq \frac{n}{n-1}$

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For our version of the **knapsack problem** the term **Merkle-Hellman (Knapsack) Cryptosystem** is often used.

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- 7 It can be shown that it is not safe to encrypt twice the same plaintext with the same public key (and different error vectors).

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- That is why cryptosystem is rarely used in practise in spite of the fact that it has some advantages comparing with RSA cryptosystem discussed next - it has more easy encoding and decoding.

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- 5 **Master keys** are usually used for longer time and need therefore be carefully stored. Master keys are usually keys of a public-key cryptosystem.

RSA

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In doing that we will illustrate modern distributed techniques to factorize very large integers.

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All that means that in modern cryptography we need, for security reasons, to work with numbers that have no correspondence in the physical reality.

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- For example, RSA is a key component of SSL (Secure Sockets Layer) and TLS (Transport level Security) protocols that are universally accepted standards for authenticated and encrypted communications between clients and servers, especially in internet.
- SSL/TLS use a combination of PKC and SKC. SSL uses mainly **RSA**, TLS uses mainly **ECC** (Elliptic Curves Cryptography).

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In other words. If we know the RSA-encryption of unknown plaintext w , we can compute encryption of w^2 without knowing w .

Indeed, if $c = w^e$, then $c^2 = (w^e)^2 = w^{2e} = (w^2)^e$.

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Method 1 Use Extended Euclid algorithm, see the Appendix, that shows how to find, given integers $0 < m < n$ with $GCD(m, n) = 1$, integers x, y such that

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Method 2 It follows from the Euler Totient Theorem, see the Appendix, that

$$m^{-1} \equiv m^{\phi(n)-1} \bmod \phi(n)$$

if $m < n$ and $GCD(m, n) = 1$

KEY THEOREMS for RSA DISCOVERY

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Theorem (Fermat's Little Theorem)

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for any w and any prime p .

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$$m^{-1} \equiv m^{\phi(n)-1} \bmod \phi(n)$$

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EXPONENTIATION by squaring

Exponentiation (modular) plays the key role in many cryptosystems. If

$$n = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} b_i 2^i, \quad b_i \in \{0, 1\}$$

then

$$e = a^n = a^{\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} b_i 2^i} = \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} a^{b_i 2^i} = \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (a^{2^i})^{b_i}$$

Algorithm for exponentiation

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begin  $e \leftarrow 1$ ;  $p \leftarrow a$ ;  
  for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $k - 1$   
    do if  $b_i = 1$  then  $e \leftarrow e \cdot p$ ;  
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Modular exponentiation: $a^n \bmod m = ((a \bmod m)^n) \bmod m$

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$= 5^{250} \bmod 19 = \dots$

$3^{10000} \bmod 13 = 3$

$3^{340} \bmod 11 = 1$

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GOOD e -EXPONENTS

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- short bits length;
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- $e = 3, 17, 65537 = 2^{16} + 1$

HISTORICAL QUESTION

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For centuries cryptography was used mainly for military and diplomatic purposes and for that private cryptography was well suited. It was the increased computerization and communication of and in economic life that led to very new needs in cryptography.

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$$\begin{array}{ll} 2306^{2087} \bmod 2501 = 100, & 1893^{2087} \bmod 2501 = 17 \\ 621^{2087} \bmod 2501 = 111, & 1380^{2087} \bmod 2501 = 817 \\ 490^{2087} \bmod 2501 = 200, & 313^{2087} \bmod 2501 = 704 \end{array}$$

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encrypted using the RSA cryptosystem with 129 digit number, called also RSA129

n : 114 381 625 757 888 867 669 235 779 976 146 612 010 218 296 721 242 362 562 561
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The problem was solved in 1994 by first factorizing n into one 64-bit prime and one 65-bit prime, and then computing the **plaintext**

THE MAGIC WORDS ARE SQUEMISH OSSIFRAGE

In 2002 RSA inventors received Turing award.

The system includes a communication channel coupled to at least one terminal having an encoding device and to at least one terminal having a decoding device.

A message-to-be-transferred is enciphered to ciphertext at the encoding terminal by encoding a message as a number, M , in a predetermined set.

That number is then raised to a first predetermined power (associated with the intended receiver) and finally computed. The remainder of residue, C , is ... computed when the exponentiated number is divided by the product of two predetermined prime numbers (associated with the predetermined receiver).

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- **Integer factorization problem.**
- **RSA problem:** Given a public key (n, e) and a cryptotext c find an m such that $c = m^e \pmod{n}$.

- Diffie published his idea of asymmetric cryptosystem in summer 1975, though he had no example of such a cryptosystem.

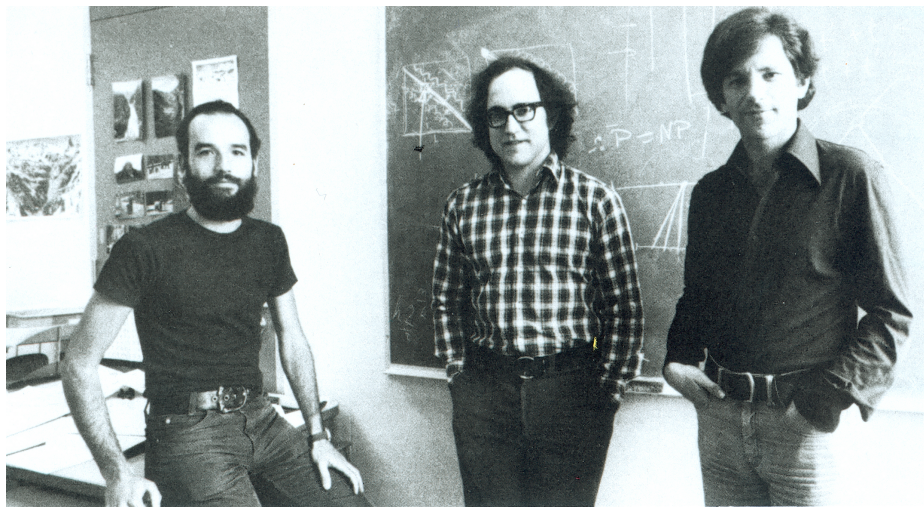
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- At night Rivest could not sleep, mediated and all of sudden got an idea. In the morning the paper about RSA was practically written down.

Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman



Copied from the brochure on LCS

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- This discovery was, however, too early and GCHQ kept it secret and they disclosed their discovery only in 1997, after RSA has been shown very successful.

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- 3.1 Neither d nor e should be small.
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For example, if $p - q < 2n^{0.25}$

(which for even small 1024-bit values of n is about $3 \cdot 10^{77}$)

then factoring of n is quite easy.

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Several simple and some sophisticated factorization algorithms will be presented and illustrated in the following.

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In 2009 RSA-768, a 768-bits number, was factorized by a team from several institutions. Time needed would be 2000 years on a single 2.2 GHz AND Opterons. Cash price obtained - 30 000 \$.

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Indeed, if $|p - q|$ is small, and $p > q$, then $\frac{(p+q)}{2}$ is only slightly larger than \sqrt{n} because

$$\frac{(p+q)^2}{4} - n = \frac{(p-q)^2}{4}$$

In addition, $\frac{(p+q)^2}{4} - n$ is a square, say y^2 .

In order to factor n , it is then enough to test $x > \sqrt{n}$ until x is found such that $x^2 - n$ is a square, say y^2 . In such a case

$$p + q = 2x, p - q = 2y \quad \text{and therefore } p = x + y, q = x - y.$$

Claim 2. $\gcd(p - 1, q - 1)$ should not be large.

Indeed, in the opposite case $s = \text{lcm}(p - 1, q - 1)$ is much smaller than $\phi(n)$ If

$$d' e \equiv 1 \pmod{s},$$

then, for some integer k ,

$$c^d \equiv w^{ed} \equiv w^{ks+1} \equiv w \pmod{n}$$

since $p - 1 | s, q - 1 | s$ and therefore $w^{ks} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $w^{ks+1} \equiv w \pmod{q}$.

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Question Is there enough primes (to choose again and again new ones)?

No problem, the number of primes of length 512 bit or less exceeds 10^{150} .

WHAT SMALL REALLY MEANS

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(which for even small 1024-bit values of n is about $3 \cdot 10^{77}$)

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- Polynomial time computational equivalence of the functions **half** and **parity** follows from the following identities

$$\mathbf{half}_{e_k}(c) = \mathbf{parity}_{e_k}((c \times e_k(2)) \bmod n)$$

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- 2 There is an efficient algorithm, on the next slide, to determine the plaintexts w from the cryptotexts c obtained from w by an RSA-encryption provided the efficiently computable function **half** can be used as the oracle:

- 660-bits integers were already (factorized) broken in practice.
- 1024-bits integers are currently used as moduli.
- 512-bit integers can be factorized with a device costing 5.000 \$ in about 10 minutes.
- 1024-bit integers could be factorized in 6 weeks by a device costing 10 millions of dollars.

RSA can be seen as well secure. However, this does not mean that under special circumstances some special attacks can not be successful. Two of such attacks are:

- The first attack succeeds in case the decryption exponent is not large enough.
Theorem (Wiener, 1990) Let $n = pq$, where p and q are primes such that $q < p < 2q$ and let (n, e) be such that $de \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$. If $d < \frac{1}{3}n^{1/4}$. then there is an efficient procedure for computing d .
- **Timing attack** P. Kocher (1995) showed that it is possible to discover the decryption exponent by carefully counting the computation times for a series of decryptions. Basic idea: Suppose that Eve is able to observe times Bob needs to decrypt several cryptotext s . Knowing cryptotext and times needed for their decryption, it is possible to determine decryption exponent.

CASES WHEN RSA IS EASY TO BREAK

- If an user U wants to broadcast a value x to n other users, using for a communication with a user P_i a public key (e, N_i) , where e is small, by sending $y_i = x^e \bmod N_i$.
- If $e = 3$ and $2/3$ of the bits of the plaintext are known, then one can decrypt efficiently;
- If 25% of the least significant bits of the decryption exponent d are known, then d can be computed efficiently.
- If two plaintexts differ only in a (known) window of length $1/9$ of the full length and $e = 3$, one can decrypt the two corresponding cryptotext.
- Wiener showed how to get secret key efficiently if $n = pq$, $q < p < 2q$ and $d < \frac{1}{3}n^{0.25}$.

- Imad Khaled Selah, Abdullah Darwish, Saleh Ogeili: Mathematical attacks on RSA Cryptosystem, Journal of Computer Science 2 (8) 665-671, 2006
- Dan Boneh: Twenty years of attacks on RSA Cryptosystems, [crypto.stanford.edu/ Dabo/pubs/papers/RSA-survey.pdf](http://crypto.stanford.edu/Dabo/pubs/papers/RSA-survey.pdf)