

# CS 114: Network Security

Lecture 5 - Public Key Cryptography

Prof. Daniel Votipka  
Spring 2023

(some slides courtesy of Prof. Micah Sherr and Prof. Patrick McDaniel)



# Administrivia

- Homework 1, part 1 due **Tonight** at 11:59pm
- Homework 1, part 2 due Feb. 28th at 11:59pm

# Crypto

## Confidentiality: Encryption and Decryption

Private Key

Stream  
Cipher

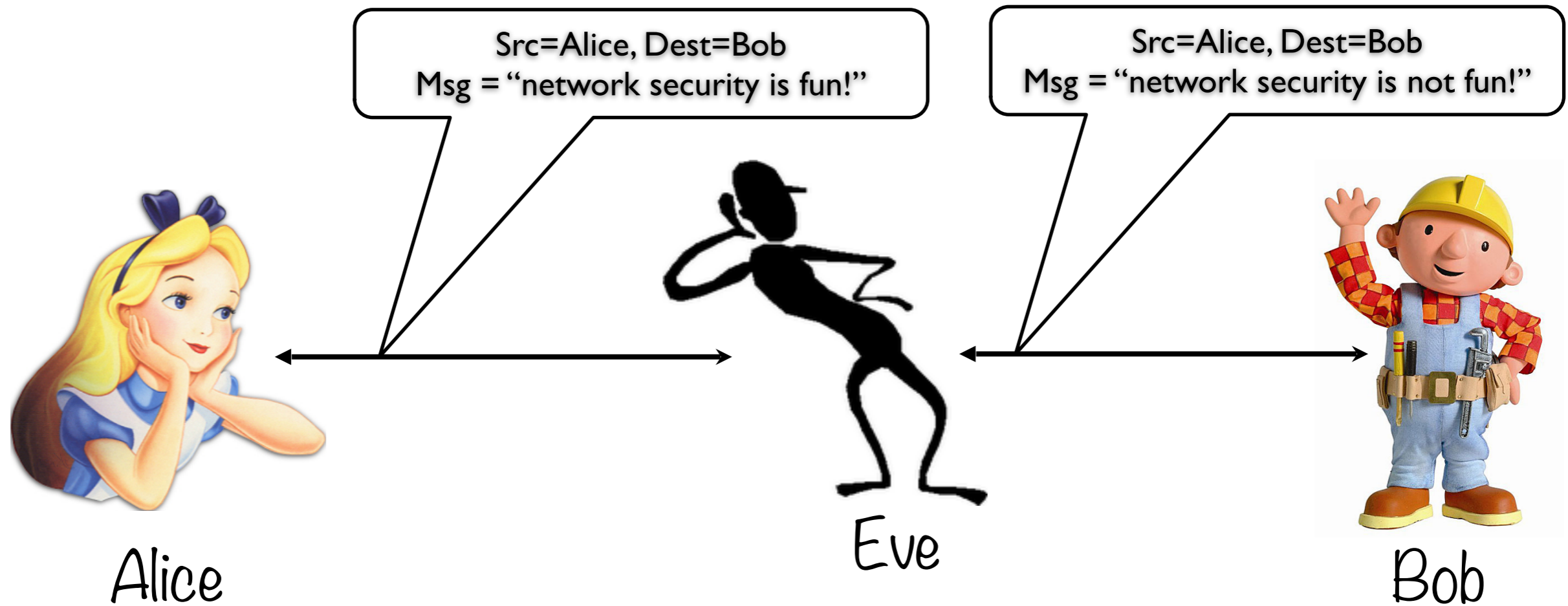
Block  
Cipher

## Integrity and Authentication

Message  
Authentication Codes

Crypto Hash

# Man-in-the-Middle (MitM) attack

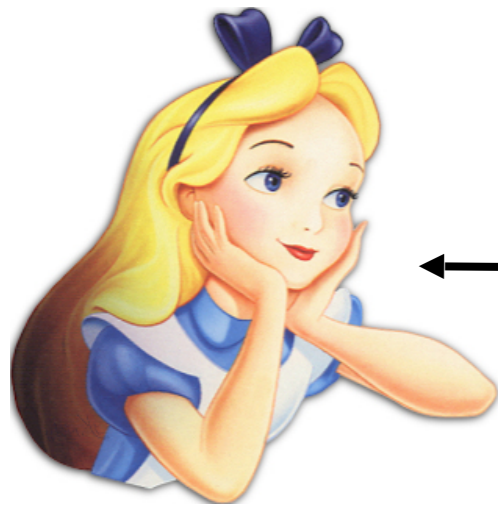


# Cryptographic Hash Functions

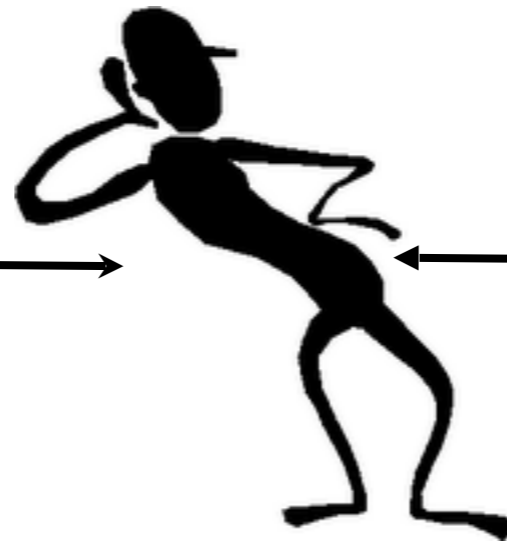
- Properties of good cryptographic hash functions:
  - **preimage resistance**
  - **2nd-preimage resistance**
  - **collision resistance**

# Encryption and Message Authenticity

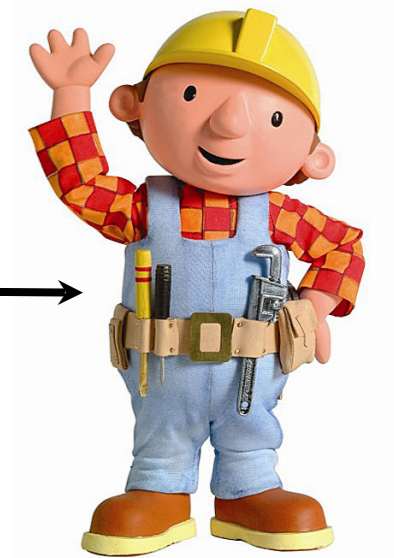
Src = Alice, Dest = Bob  
Msg =  $E_{k_1}$ {“network security is fun”},  
 $MAC_{k_2}(E_{k_1}$ {“network security is fun”})



Alice



Eve



Bob

**Without knowing  $k_1$ ,  
Eve can't read Alice's message.**

**Without knowing  $k_2$ , Eve can't compute a valid  
MAC for her forged message!**

# Message Authentication Codes (MACs)

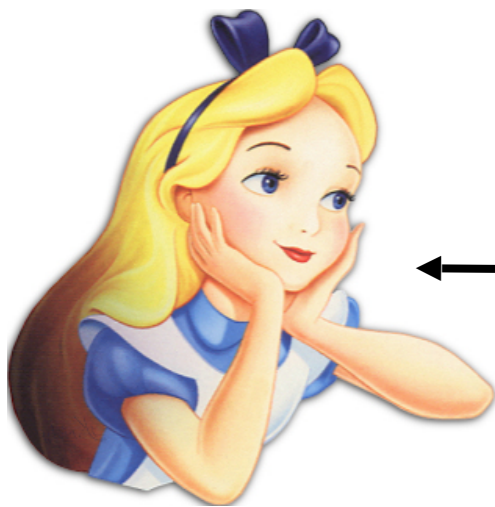
- MACs provide message **integrity** and **authenticity**
- $MAC_K(M)$  – use symmetric encryption to produce short sequence of bits that depends on both the message (M) and the key (K)
- MACs should be resistant to **existential forgery**: Eve should not be able to produce a valid MAC for a message  $M'$  without knowing K
- To provide confidentiality, authenticity, and integrity of a message, Alice sends

- MAC-then-Encrypt:  $E_K(M, MAC_K(M))$  where  $E_K(X)$  is the encryption of X using key K; or
- Encrypt-then-MAC:  $E_K(M), MAC_K(E_K(M))$  ← **Best option**
- or
- Encrypt-and-MAC:  $E_K(M), MAC_K(M)$
- Proves that M was encrypted (confidentiality) by someone who knew K (authenticity) and hasn't been changed (integrity)

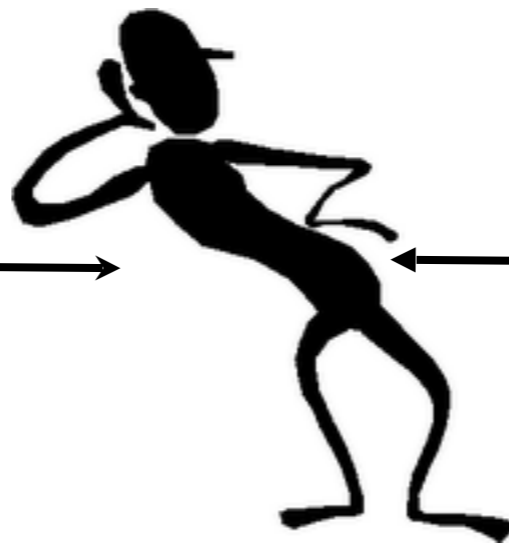
# Encryption and Message Authenticity

Src = Alice, Dest = Bob  
Msg =  $E_{k1}$ {“network security is fun”},  
 $MAC_{k2}(E_{k1}$ {“network security is fun”})

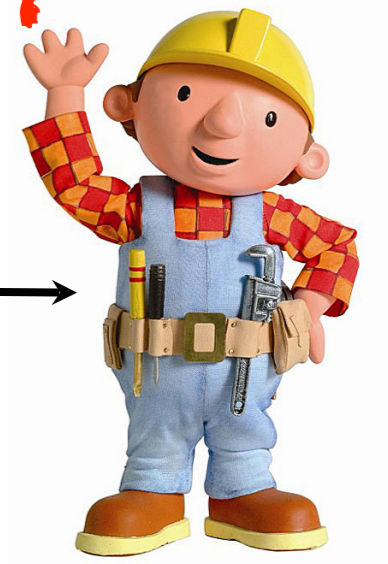
What's the hard part?



Alice



Eve



Bob

**Without knowing  $k1$ ,  
Eve can't read Alice's message.**

**Without knowing  $k2$ , Eve can't compute a valid  
MAC for her forged message!**



# Crypto

## Confidentiality: Encryption and Decryption

Private Key

Stream  
Cipher

Block  
Cipher

Public Key

?

## Integrity and Authentication

Message  
Authentication Codes

Crypto Hash

Public Key

?

# Private Key Crypto

---

# Public Key Crypto

(10,000 ft view)

- Separate keys for encryption and decryption
  - Public key: anyone can know this
  - Private key: kept confidential
- Anyone can encrypt a message to you using your public key
- The private key (kept confidential) is required to decrypt the communication
- Alice and Bob no longer have to have *a priori* shared a secret key

# Public Key Cryptography

- Each key pair consists of a public and private component:  $k^+$  (public key),  $k^-$  (private key)

$$D_{k^-} (E_{k^+} (m)) = m$$

- Public keys are distributed (typically) through public key certificates
- Anyone can communicate secretly with you ***if they have your certificate***

# Public Key Cryptography



Alice  
(A<sup>+</sup>, A<sup>-</sup>)

$E_{B^+}(\text{"cs114 is cool"})$



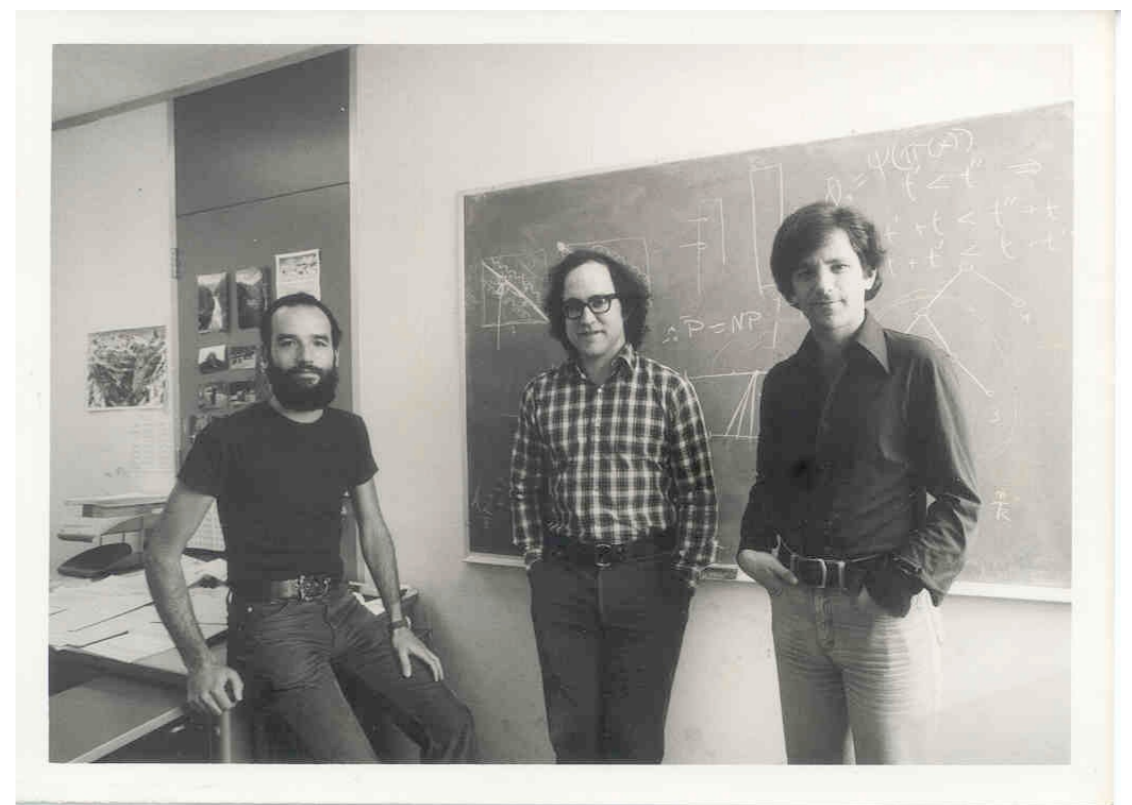
Bob  
(B<sup>+</sup>, B<sup>-</sup>)

# RSA

## (Rivest, Shamir, Adelman)

- The dominant public key algorithm
- The algorithm itself is conceptually simple
- Why it is secure is very deep (number theory)
- Uses properties of exponentiation modulo a product of large primes

"A method for obtaining Digital Signatures and Public Key Cryptosystems", Communications of the ACM, Feb. 1978.



# RSA Key Generation

- Choose distinct primes  $p$  and  $q$
- Compute  $n = pq$
- Compute  $\Phi(n) = \Phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- Randomly choose  $1 < e < \Phi(pq)$  such that  $e$  and  $\Phi(pq)$  are coprime.  $e$  is the **public key exponent**
- Compute  $d = e^{-1} \bmod(\Phi(pq))$ .  $d$  is the **private key exponent**

Why does  
this work?

# Euler's Totient Function

- **coprime**: having no common positive factors other than 1 (also called **relatively prime**)
  - 16 and 25 are coprime
  - 6 and 27 are not coprime
- **Euler's Totient Function**:  $\Phi(n)$  = number of integers less than or equal to  $n$  that are coprime with  $n$

$$\Phi(n) = n \cdot \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

where product ranges over distinct primes dividing  $n$



# Euler's Totient Function

$$\Phi(n) = n \cdot \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

$$\Phi(18) = 18(1 - 1/3)(1 - 1/2) = 6$$

1, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17

# Euler's Totient Function

- **coprime**: having no common positive factors other than 1 (also called **relatively prime**)
  - 16 and 25 are coprime
  - 6 and 27 are not coprime
- **Euler's Totient Function**:  $\Phi(n)$  = number of integers less than or equal to  $n$  that are coprime with  $n$

$$\Phi(n) = n \cdot \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

where product ranges over distinct primes dividing  $n$

- If  $m$  and  $n$  are coprime, then  $\Phi(mn) = \Phi(m)\Phi(n)$
- If  $m$  is prime, then  $\Phi(m) = m - 1$

# RSA Key Generation

- Choose distinct primes  $p$  and  $q$
- Compute  $n = pq$
- Compute  $\Phi(n) = \Phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- Randomly choose  $1 < e < \Phi(pq)$  such that  $e$  and  $\Phi(pq)$  are coprime.  $e$  is the **public key exponent**
- Compute  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\Phi(pq)}$ .  $d$  is the **private key exponent**

## Example:

let  $p=3, q=11$

$n=33$

$\Phi(pq) = (3-1)(11-1) = 20$

let  $e=7$

# Modular Arithmetic

- Integers  $Z_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$
- $x \bmod n =$  remainder of  $x$  divided by  $n$ 
  - $5 \bmod 13 = 5$
  - $13 \bmod 5 = 3$
- $y$  is **modular inverse** of  $x$  iff  $xy \bmod n = 1$ 
  - 4 is inverse of 3 in  $Z_{11}$
- $Z_n$  has modular inverses for all integers  $n$  is co-prime with except 0

# RSA Key Generation

- Choose distinct primes  $p$  and  $q$
- Compute  $n = pq$
- Compute  $\Phi(n) = \Phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$
- Randomly choose  $1 < e < \Phi(pq)$  such that  $e$  and  $\Phi(pq)$  are coprime.  $e$  is the **public key exponent**
- Compute  $d = e^{-1} \bmod(\Phi(pq))$ .  $d$  is the **private key exponent**

## Example:

let  $p=3, q=11$

$n=33$

$\Phi(pq) = (3-1)(11-1) = 20$

let  $e=7$

$ed \bmod \Phi(pq) = 1$

$7d \bmod 20 = 1$

$d = 3$

# RSA Encryption/ Decryption

- Public key  $k^+$  is  $\{e,n\}$  and private key  $k^-$  is  $\{d,n\}$
- Encryption and Decryption

$$E_{k^+}(M) : \text{ciphertext} = \text{plaintext}^e \bmod n$$

$$D_{k^-}(\text{ciphertext}) : \text{plaintext} = \text{ciphertext}^d \bmod n$$

- Example
  - Public key (7,33), Private Key (3,33)
  - Plaintext: 4
  - $E_{\{7,33\}}(4) = 4^7 \bmod 33 = 16384 \bmod 33 = 16$
  - $D_{\{3,33\}}(16) = 16^3 \bmod 33 = 4096 \bmod 33 = 4$

# Why does it work?

- Difficult to find  $\Phi(n)$  or  $d$  using only  $e$  and  $n$ .
- Finding  $d$  is equivalent in difficulty to factoring  $n$  as  $p^*q$ 
  - No efficient integer factorization algorithm is known
  - Example: Took 18 months to factor a 200 digit number into its 2 prime factors
- It is feasible to encrypt and decrypt because:
  - It is possible to find large primes.
  - It is possible to find coprimes and their inverses.
  - Modular exponentiation is feasible.

# Modular exponentiation is easy!

## $4^{10} \bmod 497$

- $e' = 1$ .  $c = (1 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 4 \bmod 497 = 4$ .
- $e' = 2$ .  $c = (4 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 16 \bmod 497 = 16$ .
- $e' = 3$ .  $c = (16 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 64 \bmod 497 = 64$ .
- $e' = 4$ .  $c = (64 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 256 \bmod 497 = 256$ .
- $e' = 5$ .  $c = (256 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 1024 \bmod 497 = 30$ .
- $e' = 6$ .  $c = (30 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 120 \bmod 497 = 120$ .
- $e' = 7$ .  $c = (120 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 480 \bmod 497 = 480$ .
- $e' = 8$ .  $c = (480 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 1920 \bmod 497 = 429$ .
- $e' = 9$ .  $c = (429 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 1716 \bmod 497 = 225$ .
- $e' = 10$ .  $c = (225 \cdot 4) \bmod 497 = 900 \bmod 497 = 403$ .



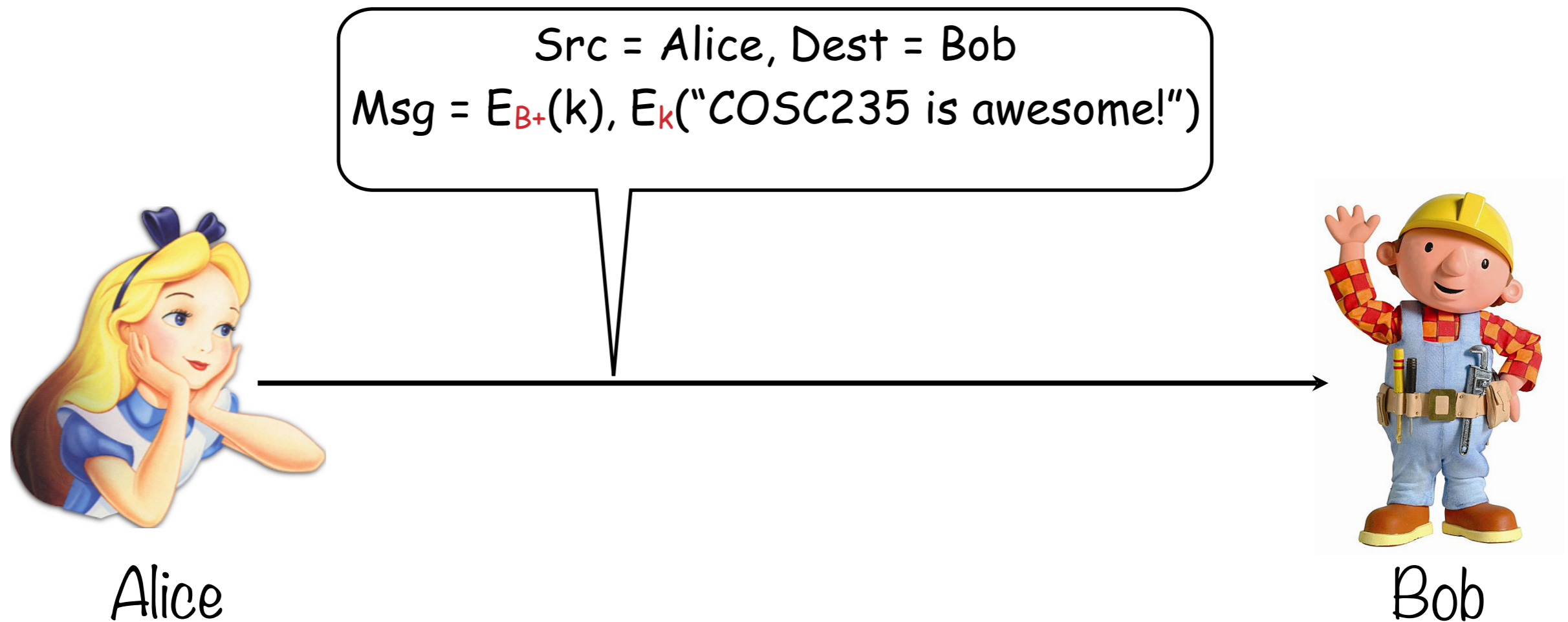
# Why do we care about private key crypto?

- Most public key systems use at least 1,024-bit keys
  - Key size not comparable to symmetric key algorithms
- RSA is much slower than most symmetric crypto algorithms
  - AES: ~161 MB/s
  - RSA: ~82 KB/s
  - This is **too** slow to use for modern network communication!
  - Solution: Use hybrid encryption

# Hybrid Cryptosystems

- In practice, public-key cryptography is used to secure and distribute session keys.
- These keys are used with symmetric algorithms for communication.
- Sender generates a random session key, encrypts it using receiver's public key and sends it.
- Receiver decrypts the message to recover the session key.
- Both encrypt/decrypt their communications using the same key.
- Key is destroyed in the end.

# Hybrid Cryptosystems



$(B^+, B^-)$  is Bob's long-term public-private key pair.  
 $k$  is the session key; sometimes called the **ephemeral key**.

# Crypto

## Confidentiality: Encryption and Decryption

Private Key

Stream  
Cipher

Block  
Cipher

Public Key

RSA!

## Integrity and Authentication

Message  
Authentication Codes

Crypto Hash

Public Key

?

# Digital Signatures

---

# Digital Signatures

- A digital signature serves the same purpose as a real signature.
  - It is a mark that only sender can make
  - Other people can easily recognize it as belonging to the sender
- Digital signatures must be:
  - **Unforgeable**: If Alice signs message  $M$  with signature  $S$ , it is impossible for someone else to produce the pair  $(M, S)$ .
  - **Authentic**: If Bob receives the pair  $(M, S)$  and knows Alice's public key, he can check ("verify") that the signature is really from Alice

# Encryption using private key

$$E_{k^-}(M) : \text{ciphertext} = \text{plaintext}^d \text{ mod } n$$

$$D_{k^+}(\text{ciphertext}) : \text{plaintext} = \text{ciphertext}^e \text{ mod } n$$

# How can Alice *sign* a digital document?

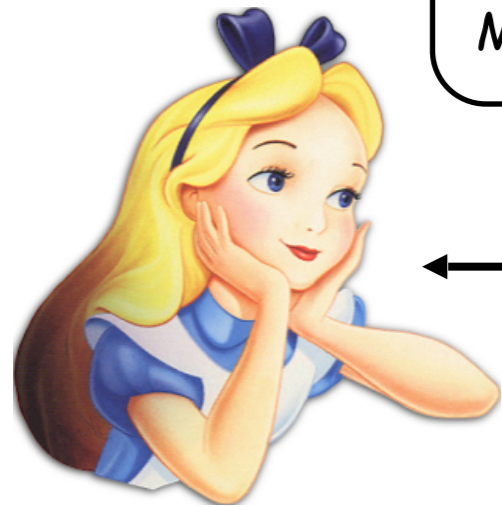
- Digital document:  $M$
- Since RSA is slow, hash  $M$  to compute digest:  $m = h(M)$
- Signature:  $\text{Sig}(M) = E_{k^-}(m) = m^d \bmod n$ 
  - Since only Alice knows  $k^-$ , only she can create the signature
- To verify:  $\text{Verify}(M, \text{Sig}(M))$ 
  - Bob computes  $h(m)$  and compares it with  $D_{k^+}(\text{Sig}(M))$
  - Bob can compute  $D_{k^+}(\text{Sig}(M))$  since he knows  $k^+$  (Alice's public key)
  - If and only if they match, the signature is verified (otherwise, verification fails)



# Properties of a Digital Signature

- **No forgery possible:** No one can forge a message that is purportedly from Alice. If you get a signed message you should be able to verify that it's really from Alice
- **No alteration/Integrity:** No party can undetectably alter a signed message
- Provides authentication, integrity, and **non-repudiation** (cannot deny having signed a signed message)

# Non-Repudiation

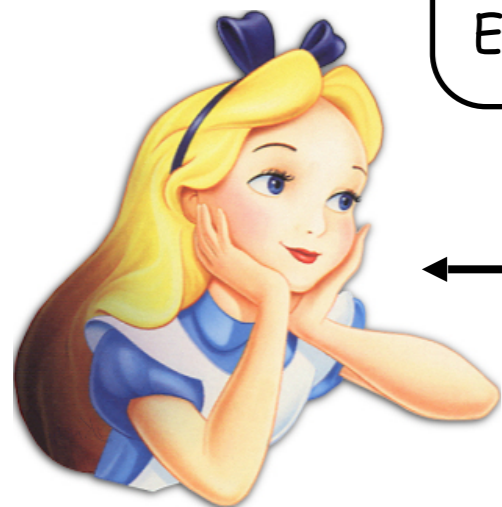


Alice

Src = Alice, Dest = Bob  
Msg = {"network security is fun!",  
MAC<sub>k</sub>("network security is fun!")}



Bob



Alice

Src = Alice, Dest = Bob  
Msg = {"network security is fun!",  
E<sub>A</sub>-(h("network security is fun!"))}

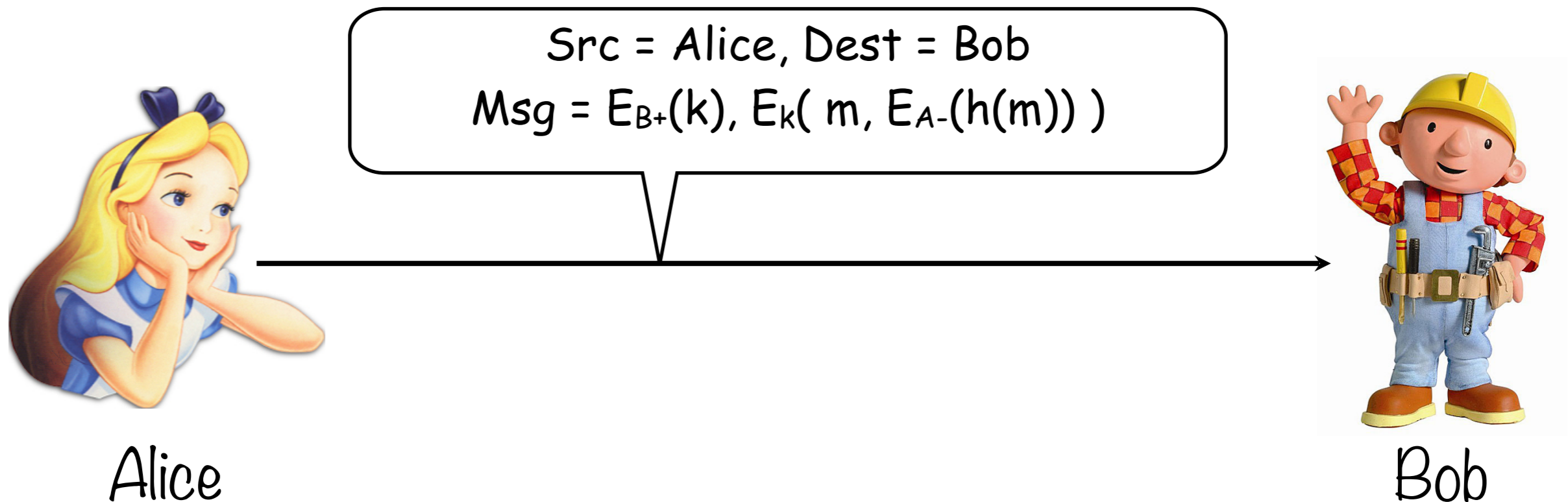


Bob

Which of these  
offer non-  
repudiation?

# Putting it all together

Define  $m = \text{"cs114 is awesome"}$



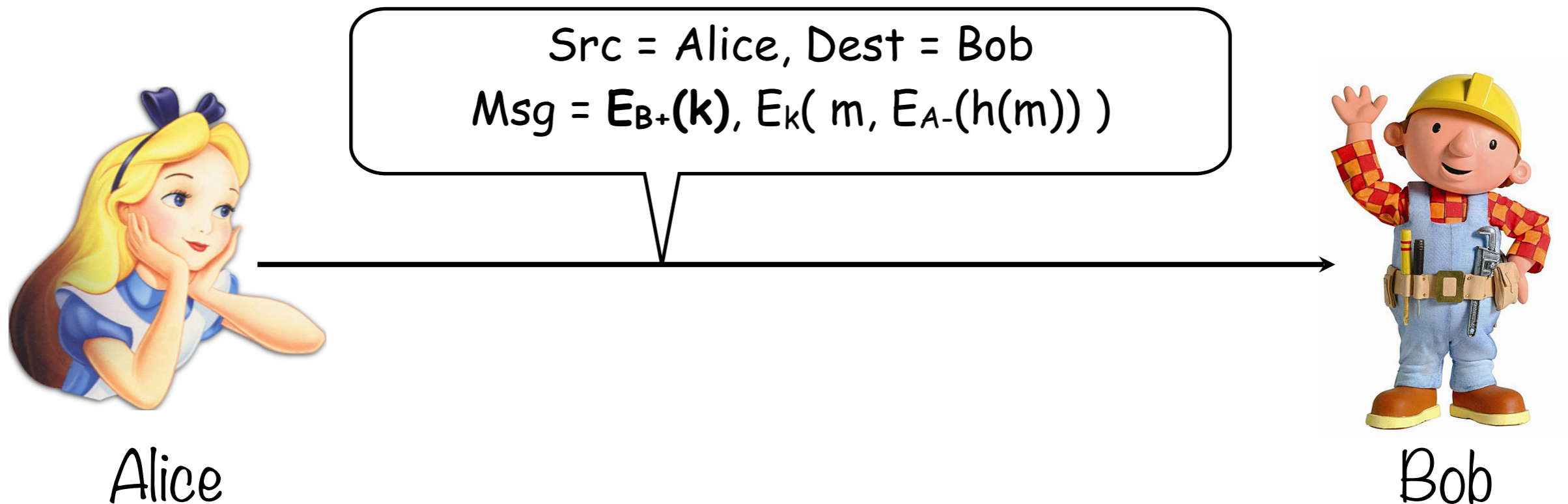
$(A^+, A^-)$  is Alice's long-term public-private key pair.

$(B^+, B^-)$  is Bob's long-term public-private key pair.

$k$  is the session key; sometimes called the **ephemeral key**.

# Putting it all together

Define  $m = \text{“cs114 is awesome”}$



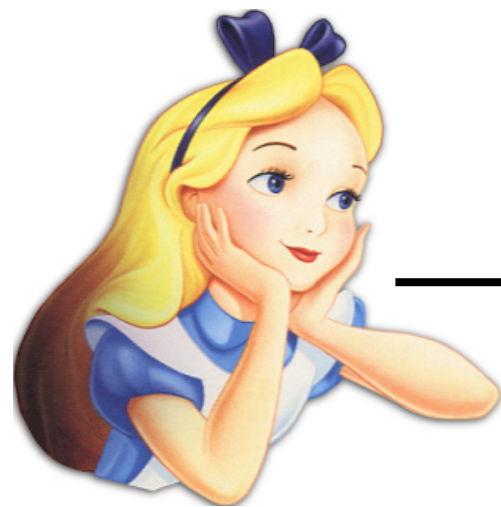
$(A^+, A^-)$  is Alice's long-term public-private key pair.

$(B^+, B^-)$  is Bob's long-term public-private key pair.

$k$  is the session key; sometimes called the **ephemeral key**.

# Putting it all together

Define  $m = \text{"cs114 is awesome"}$



Alice

Src = Alice, Dest = Bob  
Msg =  $E_{B^+}(k), E_k(m, E_{A^-}(h(m)))$



Bob

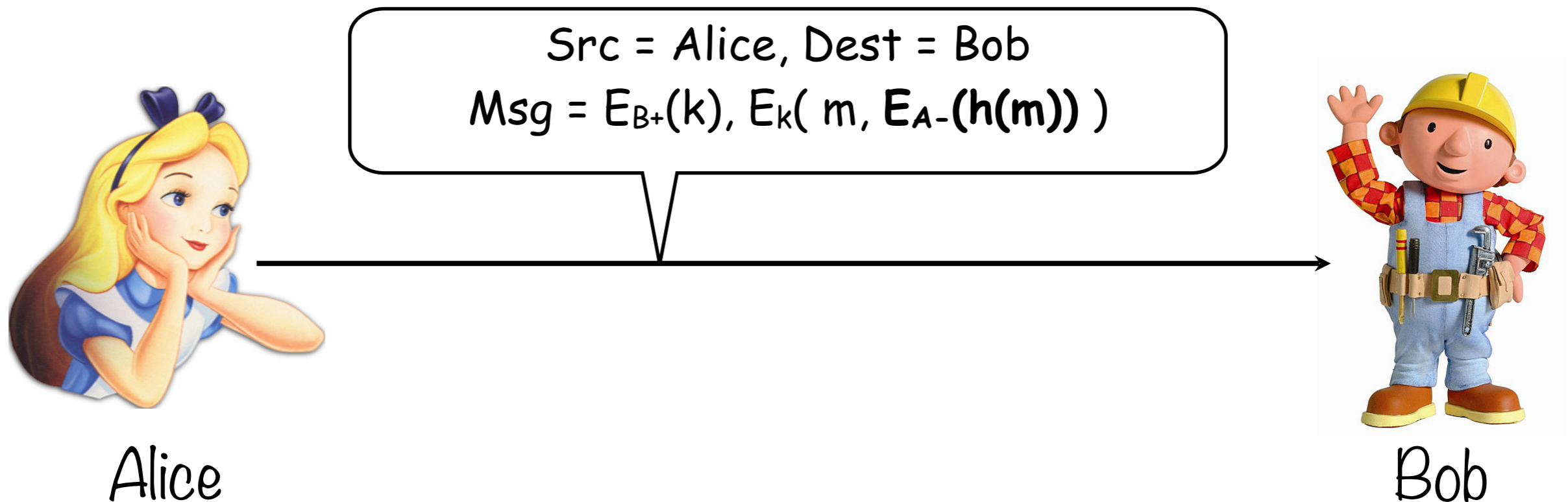
$(A^+, A^-)$  is Alice's long-term public-private key pair.

$(B^+, B^-)$  is Bob's long-term public-private key pair.

$k$  is the session key; sometimes called the **ephemeral key**.

# Putting it all together

Define  $m = \text{“cs2114 is awesome”}$



$(A^+, A^-)$  is Alice's long-term public-private key pair.

$(B^+, B^-)$  is Bob's long-term public-private key pair.

$k$  is the session key; sometimes called the **ephemeral key**.

# Key Management

The screenshot shows a web browser window with the address bar at `pgp.mit.edu`. The page title is "MIT PGP Public Key Server". Below the title, there are links for "Help" (Extracting keys, Submitting keys, Email interface, About this server, FAQ) and "Related Info" (Information about PGP, MIT distribution site for PGP).

**Extract a key**

Search String:

Index:  Verbose Index:

Show PGP fingerprints for keys

Only return exact matches

**Submit a key**

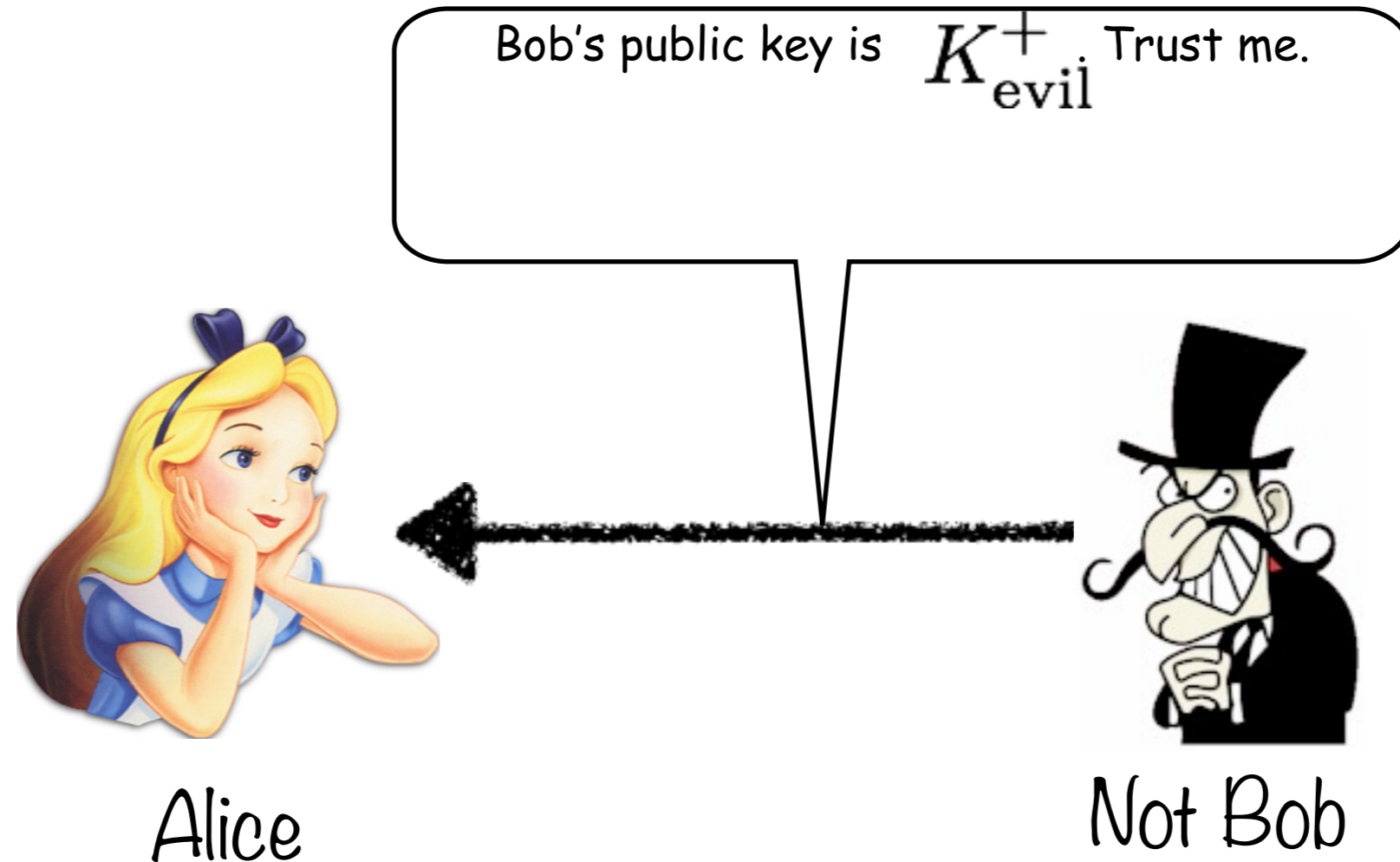
Enter ASCII-armored PGP key here:

**Remove a key**

Search String:

*Please send bug reports or problem reports to [bug-pks@mit.edu](mailto:bug-pks@mit.edu) only after reading our [FAQ](#).  
This page is a modified version of the examples provided by [Brian LaMacchia](#) and [Marc Horowitz](#)*

# But how do we *verify* we're using the correct public key?





Short answer:  
We can't.

It's turtles all  
the way down.

(more on this next week)

