

# **Cryptography (DES+RSA)**

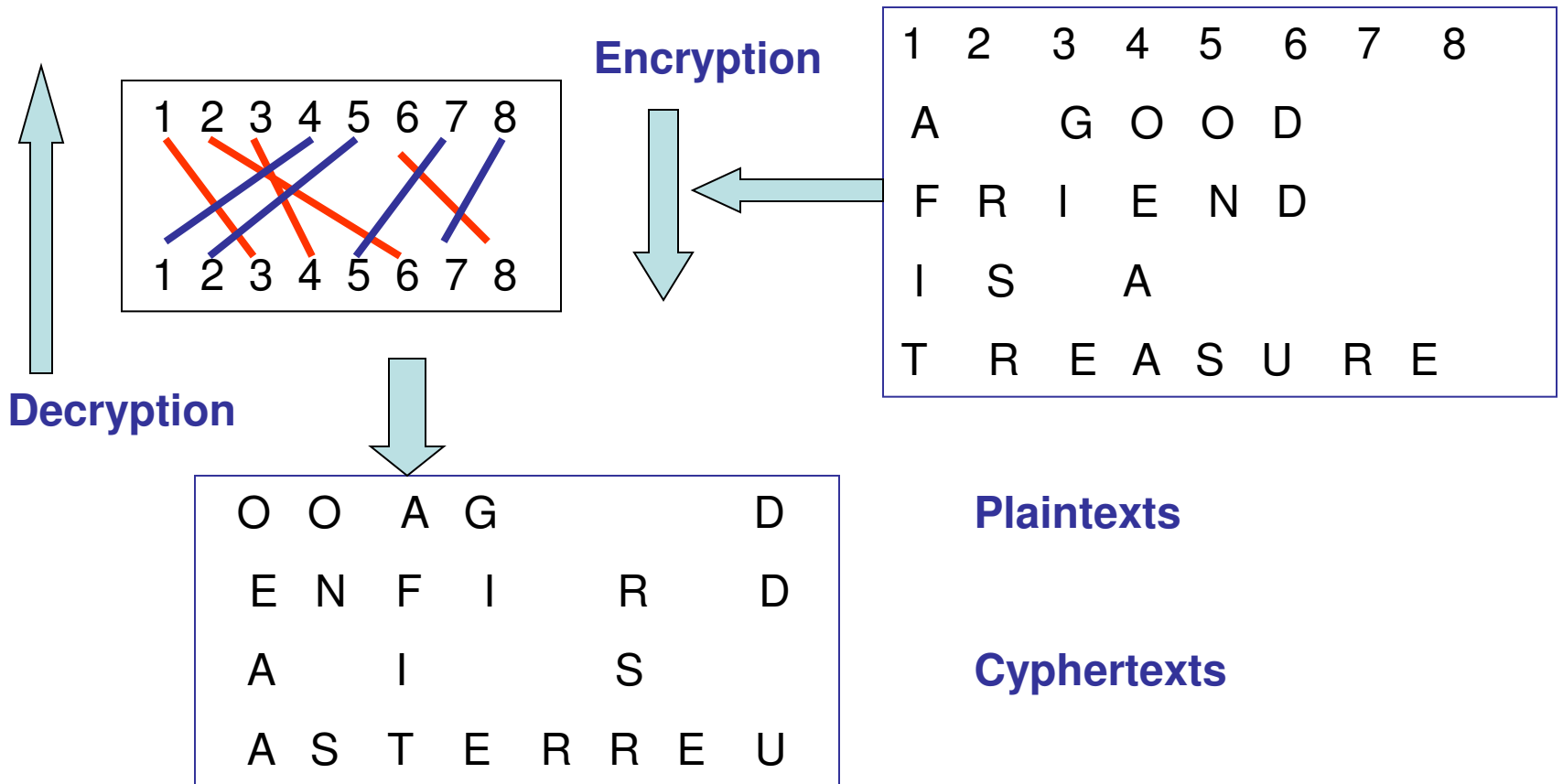
by

**Amit Konar**

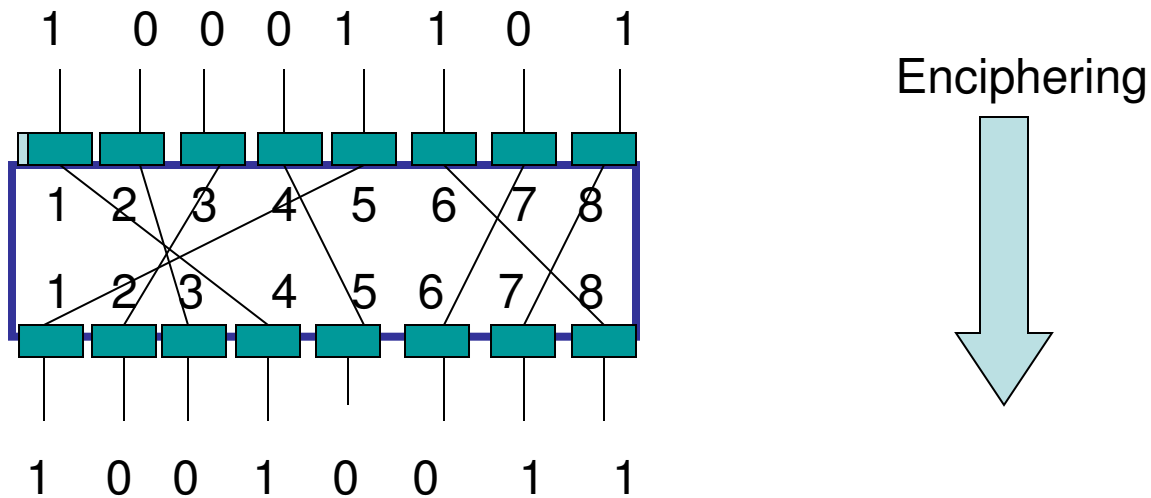
Dept. of Math and CS, UMSL

# Transpositional Ciphers-A

## Review

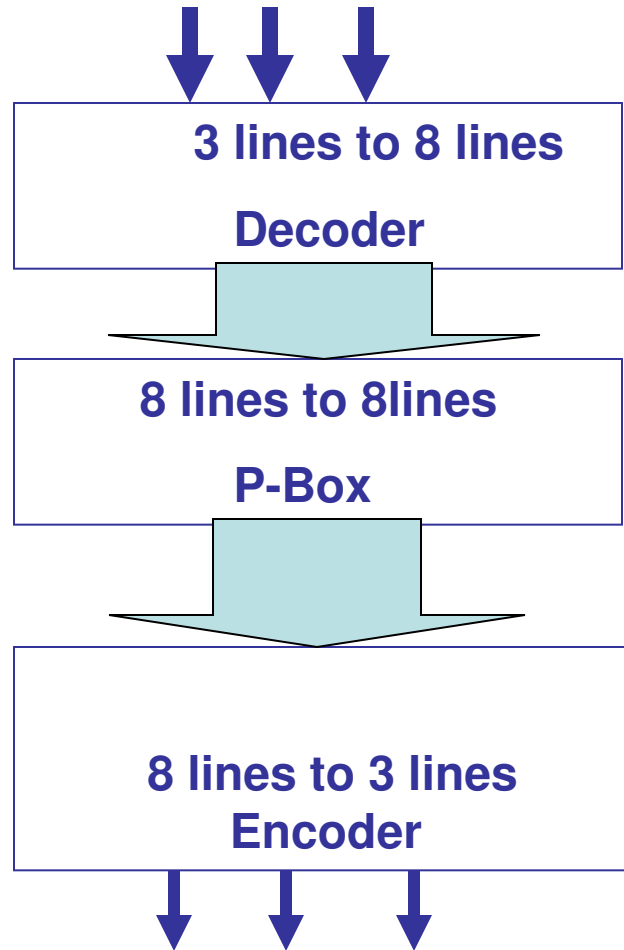


# Digital P-box



A **P-box (Permutation box)** performs transposition at the bit level. It can be implemented by hardware or software, but hardwired realization is faster.

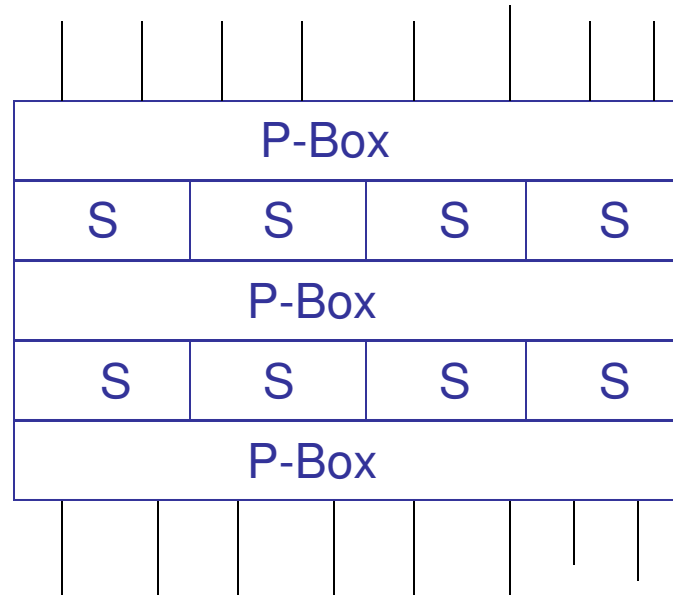
# S-Box



An S-box (substitution box) performs substitution at the bit level.

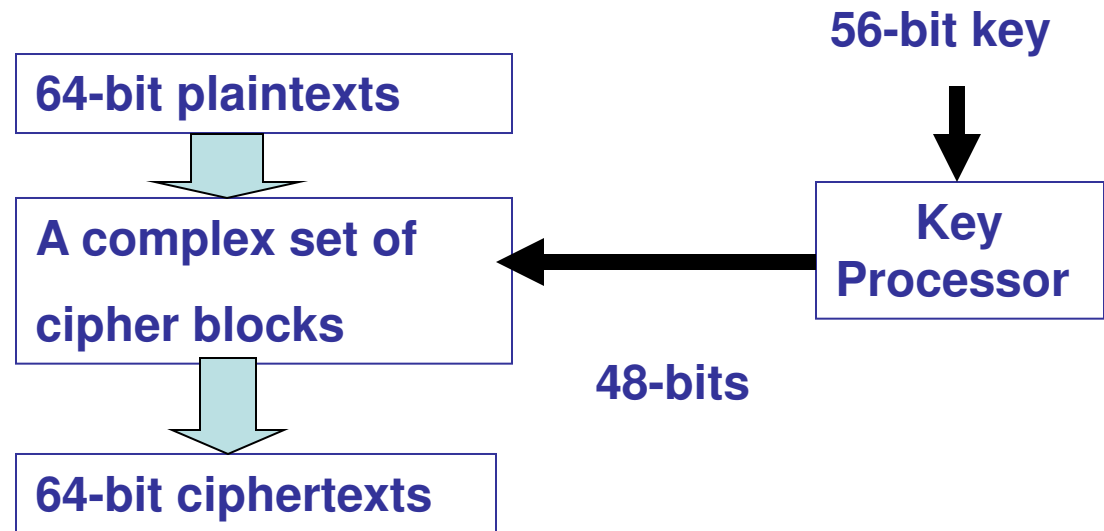
**Example:** Suppose 2 (010) is the input. Decoder's output is 00000010. P-box's output is 01000000. Encoder output is 6 (110)

# Product Block

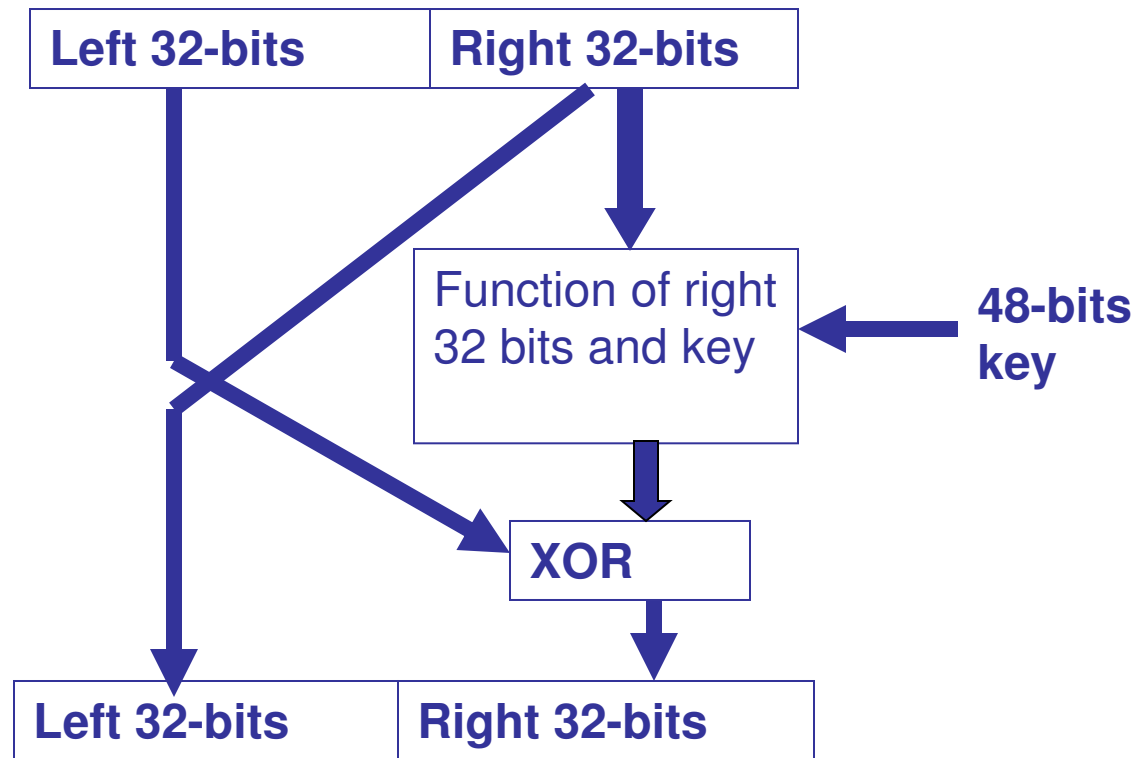


The **P-boxes** and **S-boxes** can be combined to get more complex cipher blocks, called **product blocks**.

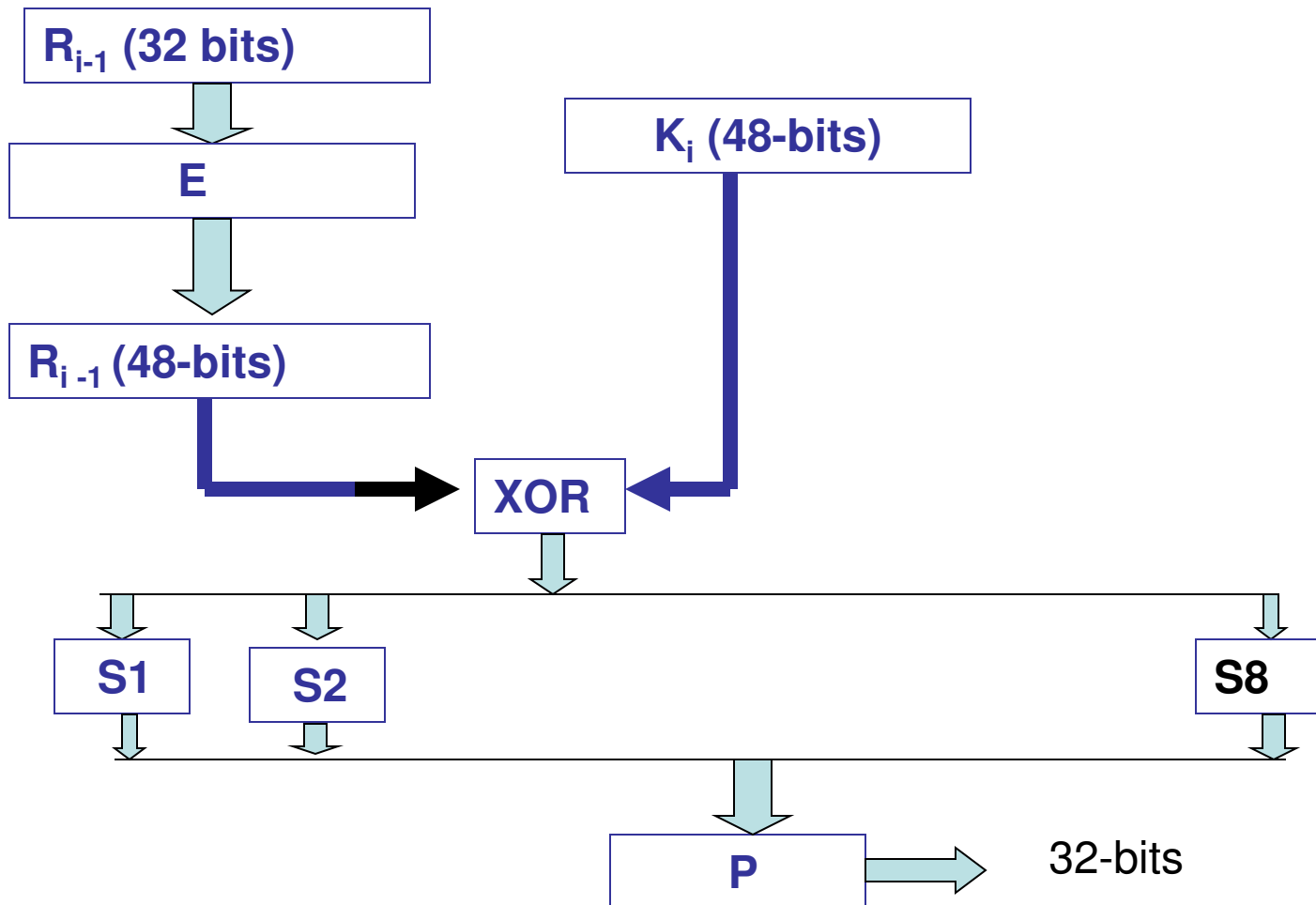
# Data Encryption Standard (DES)



# Iteration Block



# The f-function





# Public Key Cryptography

In public key cryptography, we have two keys: one private key and the other public key.

A public Key cryptosystem must meet the following **conditions**:

1. Given the keys, the enciphering and deciphering processes should be simple.
2. Deriving the private key from the public key should be computationally infeasible.
3. Determining the private key from a chosen plaintext attack should be computationally infeasible.

# Defining Totients in Public Key Cryptography

**Totient:** Let  $p$  and  $q$  be two prime numbers and  $n = p q$ . Then the totient  $\Phi(n)$  is the number less than  $n$  with no factors common with  $n$ .

**Example:** Let  $p=5$  and  $q=2$ . So,  $n=10$ . Then the numbers that are less than 10 are relatively prime to 10 (i.e. no factors common with 10) are 1, 3, 7 and 9. So,  $\Phi(10)=4$ . Similarly, when  $n=21$ , the nos. that are relatively prime to 21 are 1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19 and 20. Therefore,  $\Phi(21) = 12$ .

# Defining Keys in Public Key Cryptography

Given  $n$ , choose an integer  $e < n$ , that is relatively prime to  $\Phi(n)$ . Find a second integer  $d$ , such that

$$e \cdot d \bmod \Phi(n) = 1$$

then **the public key is  $(e, n)$** , and **the private key is  $d$** .

# Encryption and Decryption in Public Key Cryptography

The RSA Method after its inventors  
(Rivest, Shamir and Adleman)

Let  $m$  be a message. Then

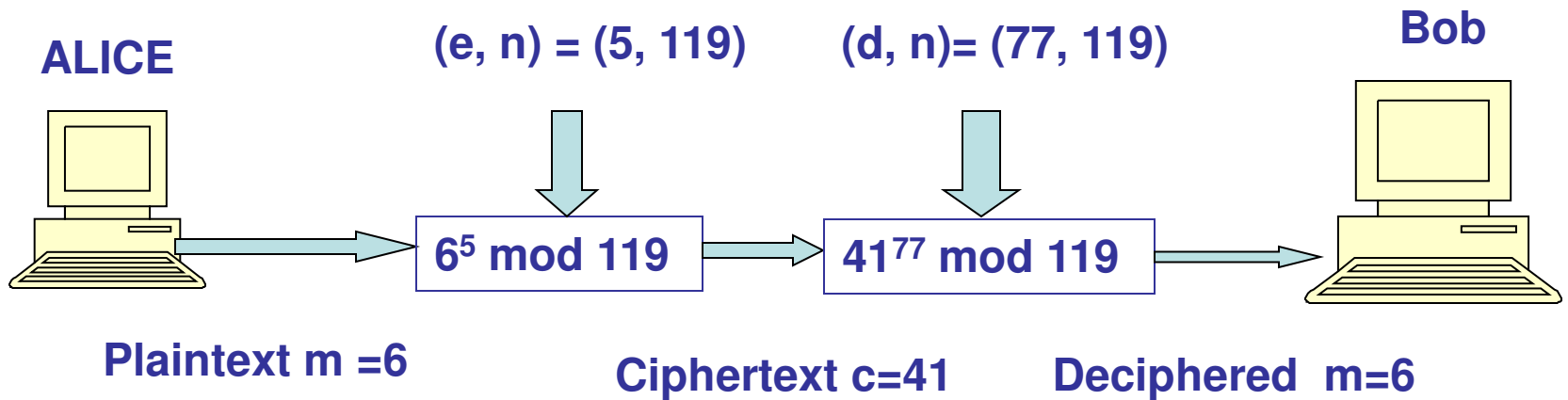
ciphertext  $c = m^e \bmod n$ , and

decrypted plaintext  $m = c^d \bmod n$

where

public key is  $(e, n)$  and private key is  $d$   
or  $(d, n)$ , such that  $e \cdot d \bmod \Phi(n) = 1$ .

# Example: The RSA Method



Public key  $(e, n) = (5, 119)$

Private key  $(d, n) = (77, 119)$

# Is RSA really Effective?

**If an intruder knows the decryption algorithm and  $n=119$ , the only thing missing is  $d=77$ . Why couldn't the intruder use trial and error to find  $d$ ?**

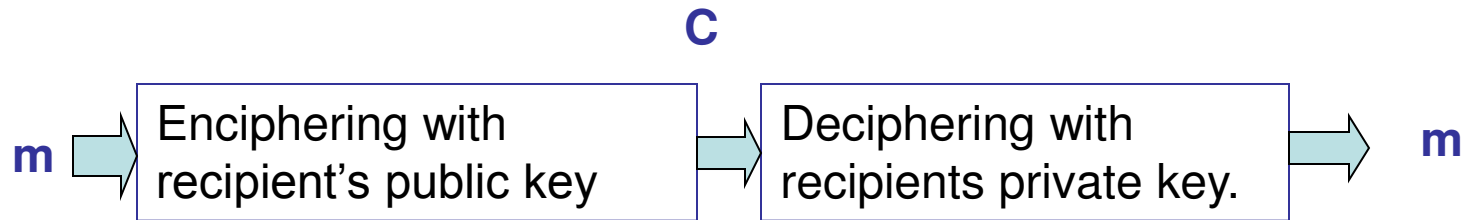
The answer is yes, in this trivial example, an intruder could easily guess the value of  $d$ . But a major concept of the RSA algorithm is to use very large numbers for  $d$  and  $e$ . In practice, the numbers are so large (on the scale of tens of digits) that the trial-and-error approach of breaking the code takes a long time (several years) even with the fastest computer today.

# Selection of Public and Private Keys

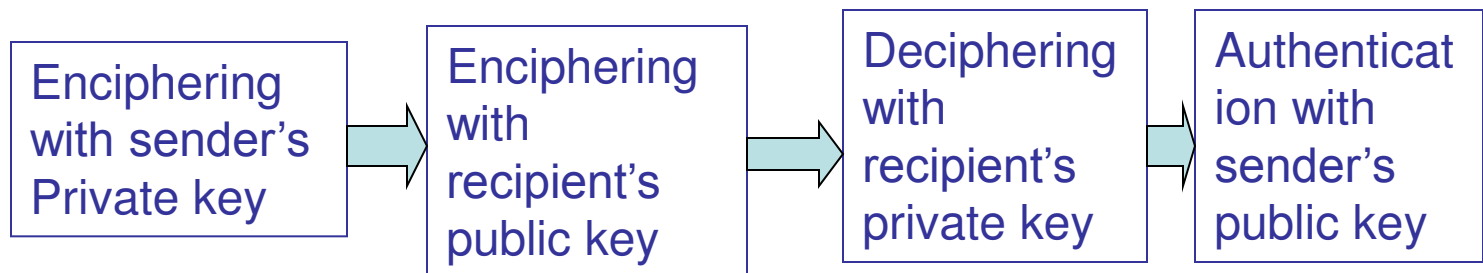
1. Choose two large prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$ .
2. Compute  $n = p \times q$ .
3. Choose  $e$  (less than  $n$ ) such that  $e$  and  $(p - 1)(q - 1)$  are relatively prime (having no common factors other than 1).
4. Choose  $d$  such that  $e \times d \bmod [(p - 1)(q - 1)]$  is equal to 1.

# Confidentiality and authentication together in RSA

## 1. ONLY CONFIDENTIALITY



## 2. BOTH CONFIDENTIALITY & AUTHENTICATION





# How does RSA provide data and origin authentication?

**Example:** Let  $p=7$ ,  $q=11$ ; so,  $n=77$ . Let  $e=17$ ; so  $d=53$ . Suppose, Alice wishes to send Bob "HELLO WORLD". The plaintext is 07 04 11 11 14 26 22 14 17 11 03. Using **Alice's private key**( $d, n$ ), the ciphertext is

$$07^{53} \bmod 77 = 35$$

$$04^{53} \bmod 77 = 09 \dots$$

or, 35 09 44 44 93 12 24 94 04 05.

# Providing Confidentiality and Authentication by RSA

Providing both confidentiality and authentication requires enciphering with the **sender's private key** and the **recipient's public key**.

**Example:** Suppose, Alice wishes to send Bob HELLO WORLD in confidence and authenticated. Assume Alice's private key is 53 and Bob's public key is 37. The plaintext is 07 04 11 11 ... and the encipherment is

$$(07^{53} \bmod 77)^{37} \bmod 77 = 07$$

$$(04^{53} \bmod 77)^{37} \bmod 77 = 37$$

or, 07 37 44 44 14 59 22 14 61 44 47.

# Deciphering confidential and authenticated message

The recipient uses recipient's private key to decipher the message and the sender's public key to authenticate it.

Bob receives the ciphertext: 07 37 44 44 14 59 22 14 61 44 47. The decipherment is

$$(07^{13} \bmod 77)^{17} \bmod 77 = 07$$

$$(37^{13} \bmod 77)^{17} \bmod 77 = 04 \dots\dots$$

Or, 07 04 11 11 14 26 22 14 17 11 03.

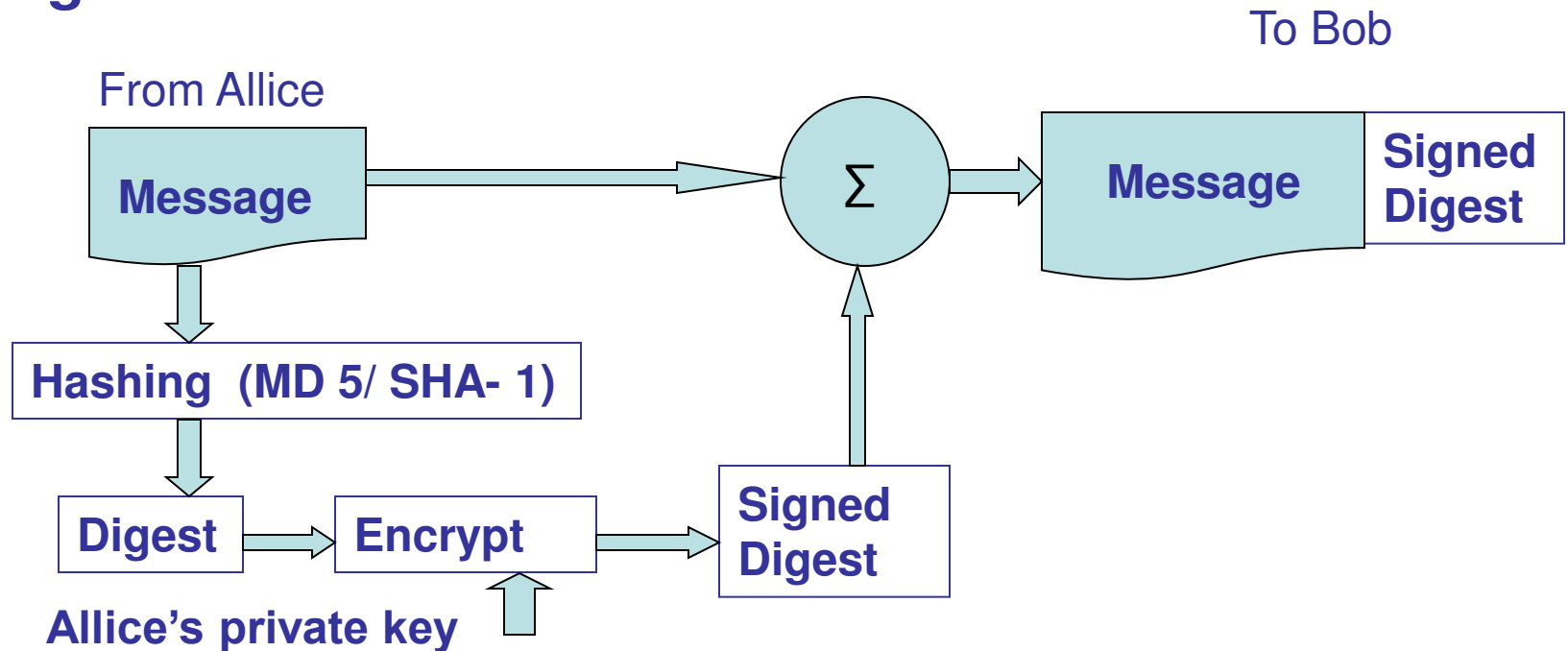
# What is Digital Signature?

A digital signature ensures authentication (sender's identity), integrity (no changes in data) and non-repudiation (i.e. the receiver is able to prove that the received message came from a specific sender).

**It can be realized by RSA through enciphering by sender's private key and deciphering by sender's public key.**

# Signing the Digest

Signing the entire message is not time-efficient. The sender prepares a digest by Hashing and then encrypts the digest. The message plus the signed digest is communicated.



# Receiver Site

