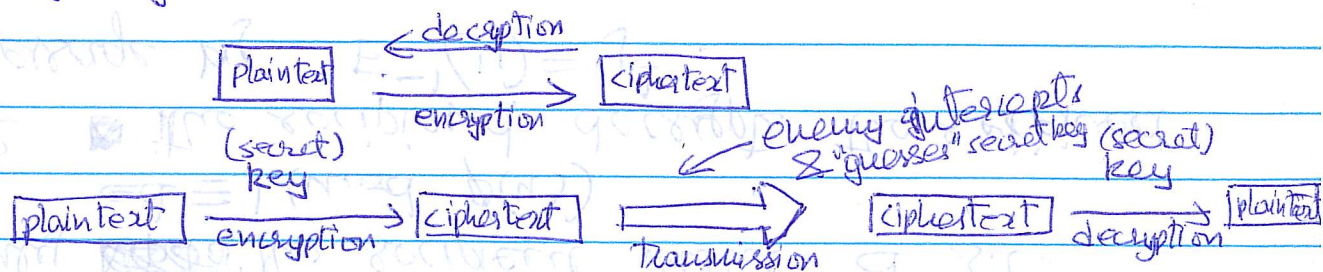


Cryptography

Read Section 10.1 (1st half) for a discussion  
some old ~~simple~~ simple cryptographic techniques.

We are interested in public-key cryptography  
where  $\exists$  two keys — encryption key &  
decryption key (inverses of each other)  
Encryption key is public but decryption key  
is only with the receiver — so everyone  
(consumers) can intercept messages (CC numbers)  
to receiver (Bank) but only the recipient can  
~~decrypt them~~ decipher them.

In 1977, Rivest, Shamir, & Adleman (RSA)  
proposed a public-key cryptosystem using elementary  
ideas from NT. (still used in OpenSSH protocol)

Create a ~~message~~ trapdoor or one-way function  
on a set  $X$ ,  $E: X \rightarrow X$ , that is invertible &  
the receiver can easily compute  $E^{-1}$  but  
difficult for others.

~~Let~~ say  $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$ , i.e., the message has been converted to an integer in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  (if the msg. is too long then break it into blocks)

### Setup for RSA

Step 1 Pick two large primes  $p$  &  $q$   
& let  $n = pq$

Step 2 Easily compute  $\phi(n) = \phi(p)\phi(q) = (p-1)(q-1)$

Step 3 Choose integers  $e$  with  $1 < e < \phi(n)$   
and  $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$   
*usually small*

Step 4 Solve  $ex \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ , i.e. find the multiplicative inverse of  $e$  modulo  $\phi(n)$ , call it  $d$ . (Use EA or some such)

Step 5 Define the function  $E: \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$   
by  $E(x) = x^e \pmod{n}$   
(Easy to compute by repeated squaring)

Recipient's public key is  $(n, e)$  & anyone can apply  $E(x)$  to encrypt their message & send it to the recipient.

Only ~~the~~ the recipient knows  $d$  s.t.  
 $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

& the recipient decrypts the received message by  $E^{-1}(y) = y^d$ .

Claim:  $(x^e)^d \equiv x \pmod{n}$ .

Theorem (Decryption key)

Let  $n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$ , product of distinct primes.

Let  $d, e \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  s.t.  ~~$de \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$~~   $de \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

Then  $a^{de} \equiv a \pmod{n}$  for all  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof

Since  $n \mid a^{de} - a$  iff  $p_i \mid a^{de} - a$  for each  $i = 1, \dots, k$

It is enough to show  $a^{de} \equiv a \pmod{p_i}$  for ~~some~~ <sup>any</sup>  $p = p_i$

If  $\gcd(a, p) \neq 1$ , then  $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow a^{de} \equiv a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

If  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  (Fermat)

Since  $\phi(n) \mid de - 1$ ,  $p - 1 \mid de - 1$ .

$(p-1) \mid (p-1) \cdot (p-1)$

This implies  $a^{de-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Multiplying by  $a$ ,  $a^{de} \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

RSA is secure as long as it's difficult to find  $d$  given the public key  $(n, e)$ .

To find  $d$  we need  $\phi(n)$ , but the only way to do that is by finding  $p \neq q$  s.t.  $n = pq$ . Then  $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$ .

Typically, this prime factorization is ~~not~~ very difficult (computationally).

Careful -  $p \neq q$  "close" to each other, then we can apply Fermat's factorization method.

eg. 1. Choose  $p$  &  $q$  :  $p=17$   $q=19$  so  $n=pq=323$

2. Compute  $\phi(n)$  :  $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 288$

3. Choose  $e < 288$  &  $\gcd(e, 288) = 1$  : Let  $e=95$

4. Solve  $95x \equiv 1 \pmod{288}$  to get  $d=191$

Public key is  $(323, 95)$

Encryption fn. is  $E(x) = x^{95} \pmod{323}$

& the Decryption fn. is  $D(x) = x^{191} \pmod{323}$

e.g. "X" is encoded as 24

$$\text{So } E(24) = 24^{95} \equiv 294 \pmod{323}$$

$$\& E^{-1}(294) = (294)^{191} \equiv 24 \pmod{323}$$

ElGamal public-key cryptosystem

When we are working with the real numbers  $\log_b y$  is the value  $x$ , such that  $b^x = y$ .

We can define an analogous discrete logarithm.

Given integers  $b \neq n$ , with  $b < n$ , the disc. log of an integer  $y$  to the base  $b$  is an integer  $x$ , s.t.

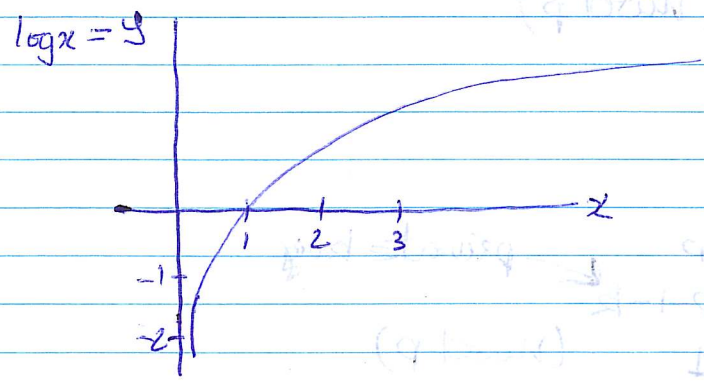
$b^x \equiv y \pmod{n}$

(Think of  $n$  as prime &  $b$  as primitive root of  $n$ )

written as

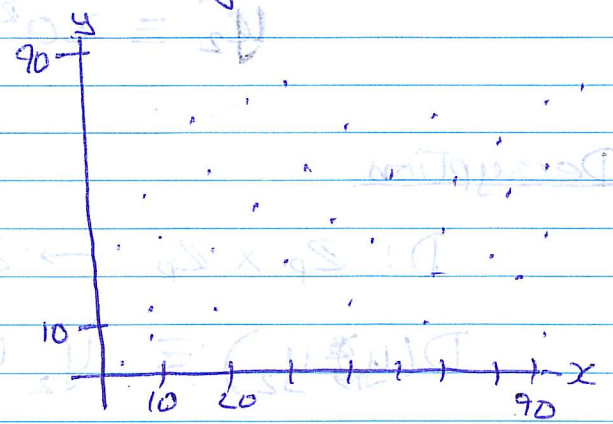
$x = \text{ind}_{b,n} y$  (index).

While it is quite efficient to raise numbers to large powers modulo  $p$  (repeated squaring algo), the inverse computation of discrete log is much harder.



~~continuous~~ log in reals

"continuous"



discrete log modulo 97

"random like"

The ElGamal cryptosystem relies on the intractability of the discrete log.

$$\mathbb{Z}_p = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$$

## ElGamal Encryption Public-key & private-key generation

1. Pick a (large) prime  $p$  &  $g$ , a primitive root of  $p$ .
2. Pick an integer  $k$ ,  $2 \leq k \leq p-2$  (secret key)
3. Calculate  $a \equiv g^k \pmod{p}$

Public-key is  $(p, g, a)$

Private-key is  $k$  (note this is the discrete log of  $a$  to the base  $g$  modulo  $p$ )

### Encryption

$$E: \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p$$

1. Pick any  $k'$ ,  $2 \leq k' \leq p-2$  & note the public key  $(p, g, a)$
2.  $E(x) = (y_1, y_2)$

Where

$$y_1 \equiv g^{k'} \pmod{p}$$
$$y_2 \equiv x a^{k'} \pmod{p}$$

### Decryption

$$D: \mathbb{Z}_p \times \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$$

← private key

$$D(y_1, y_2) \equiv y_2 y_1^{p-1-k'} \pmod{p}$$

Claim:  $D(E(x)) = x$

$$\begin{aligned} D(y_1, y_2) &\equiv y_2 y_1^{p-1-k'} \equiv (x a^{k'}) (g^{k'})^{p-1-k'} \\ &\equiv x (g^k)^{k'} (g^{k'(p-1)-k'k}) \\ &\equiv x (g^{k'(p-1)}) \\ &\equiv x (g^{p-1})^{k'} \\ &\equiv x \pmod{p}, \text{ by Fermat.} \end{aligned}$$

e.g. key generation  $p=2357$  &  $q=2$   
Choose  $k=1751$

$$a = k^q \equiv 2^{1751} \equiv 1185 \pmod{2387}$$

Public key =  $(p=2357, q=2, a=1185)$

private key =  $k=1751$

Encryption To encrypt  $x=2035$ , use  $(p, q, a)$  & select  $k'=1520$  (say)

$$y_1 = k'^q \equiv 2^{1520} \equiv 1430 \pmod{2357}$$

$$y_2 = x \cdot a^{k'} \equiv 2035 \cdot (1185)^{1520} \equiv 697 \pmod{2357}$$

Send  $(y_1, y_2) = (1430, 697)$

Decryption

$$x = 697 \cdot (1430)^{2357-1751} \equiv 2035 \pmod{2357}$$



A variation of the above system is used for DRM (Digital rights management) & other such applications that involve "digital signatures" — protection against forgeries such as unauthorized copy of music or video files. It should be difficult to tamper with, but its authenticity should be easy to verify.

Given public-key  $(p, q, a)$  ← present hidden on your comp. (different from your friend's)  
& private-key  $k$  ← license bought from recording company

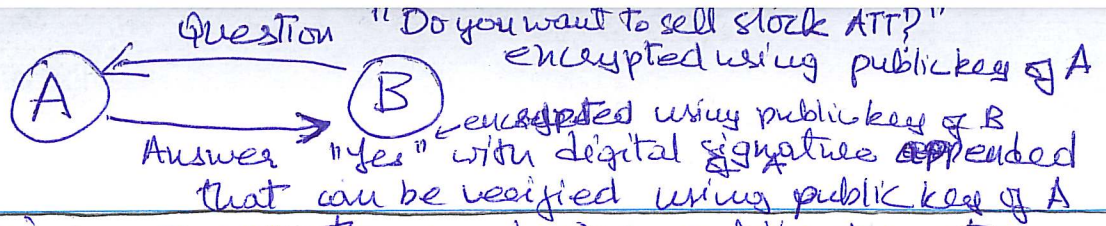
Generate a signature  $S = (\cancel{S_1}, S_2) = (s_1, s_2)$

First pick an integer  $k'$ ,  $1 \leq k' \leq \phi(p) = p-1$  s.t.  $\gcd(k', p-1) = 1$ .

$s_1 \equiv k'^k \pmod{p}$  ← private key

Solve  $k' s_2 \equiv x - k s_1 \pmod{p-1}$  using EA, etc. to get  $s_2 \equiv (k')^{-1} (x - k s_1) \pmod{p-1}$

↑ multiplicative inverse of  $k'$  modulo  $p-1$  (exists since  $\gcd(k', p-1) = 1$ )



Now, the receiver uses the sender's public key to confirm the message.

Check: Calculate  $V_1 \equiv a^{s_1} s_1^{s_2} \pmod{p}$   
 $V_2 \equiv r^x \pmod{p}$

Signature is legitimate if  $V_1 = V_2$ .

Claim  $V_1 = V_2$

$$V_1 \equiv a^{s_1} s_1^{s_2} \equiv (r^k)^{s_1} (r^{k'})^{s_2} \xrightarrow{\text{by de Moivre}} r^{ks_1 + k's_2} \xrightarrow{\text{by Fermat}} r^{x + 2(p-1)} \equiv r^x (r^{p-1})^2 \equiv r^x \pmod{p}$$

Again, to fake a signature you would need to know  $k$  (the private key). Difficult!

e.g. You want send sign & send message  $x$

any one could send this  $\rightarrow$  Block 1 =  $x$  encrypted using receiver's public key  
 only you can send this  $\rightarrow$  Block 2 =  $g^k s$  signature using your public & private key, & Block 1

e.g. let  $(43, 3, 22)$  be the public key &  $k=15$  be the private key.  
 Choose  $k'$  with  $\gcd(k', 42) = 1$ , say  $k'=25$

If Block 1 = 13 (already encrypted)

Then  $s_1 = 3^{25} \equiv 5 \pmod{43}$

$25s_2 \equiv 13 - 5 \cdot 15 \pmod{42}$  gives  $s_2 = 16 \pmod{42}$

$\therefore$  digital signature  $S = (s_1, s_2) = (5, 16)$

To verify:  $V_1 \equiv 22^5 \cdot 5^{16} \equiv 39 \cdot 40 \equiv 12 \pmod{43}$   
 $V_2 \equiv 3^{13} \equiv 12 \pmod{43}$



## Attacks on RSA

Recall public-key  $(n, e)$  s.t.  $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$   
private key  $d$  (multiplicative inverse of  $e$  modulo  $\phi(n)$ )

$$E(x) \equiv x^e \pmod{n}$$

$$D(y) \equiv y^d \pmod{n}$$

$$D(E(x)) \equiv x \pmod{n}$$

Fact 1 If we know the factorization of  $n = pq$   
Then we can find  $\phi(n)$   
which will allow us to find  $d$  (since  $e$  is known)

Fact 2 If we know  $\phi(n)$  then we can factor  $n$

$$n = pq, \quad \& \quad \phi(n) = pq - (p+q) + 1, \quad \text{i.e. } p+q = n+1 - \phi(n)$$

$$\therefore x^2 - (p+q)x + pq = (x-p)(x-q)$$

can be found using quadratic formula.

Fact 3 Given  $d$ , we can efficiently factor  $n$ .

" Factorization of  $n$  "  
" value of  $\phi(n)$  "  
& " value of  $d$  " can each be found from <sup>the knowledge</sup> any one of the other two.

## Attacks

(I)  $n$  can be factored if  $p$  &  $q$  are close to each other

- Use Fermat's factorization method

(II) Common modulus To avoid generating a different modulus  $n$  for each user, one may wish to fix  $N$  for all. A trusted central authority provides user  $i$  with unique pairs  $e_i$  &  $d_i$  to form the public key  $(n, e_i)$  & private key  $(n, d_i)$ .

Now, ciphertext  $x^{e_i}$  meant for user  $i$  cannot be decrypted by user  $j$  because he doesn't have  $d_i$ . However, as used above user  $j$  can use his own  $d_j$  &  $e_j$  to factor  $n$  & obtain  $d_i$  from the public key  $e_i$  (has its unique mult. inverse).

III Low private exponent:

Small  $d$  speeds up decryption. However - Wiener's attack Let  $n=pq$ , with  $q < p < 2q$ . Let  $d < \frac{1}{3} n^{1/4}$  ( $\rightarrow$  improved to  $d < n^{0.29}$ ). Given  $(n, e)$  with  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ ,  $d$  can be found efficiently.

Proof depends on a property of "continued fractions".