Public Key Crypto: Math Needed and DH

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What do the following Private Key Encryption Schemes all have in common:

- 1. Shift Cipher
- 2. Affine Cipher
- 3. Vig Cipher
- 4. General Sub
- 5. Matrix Cipher
- 6. One-Time Pad

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Alice and Bob need to meet! (Hence Private Key.) Can Alice and Bob to establish a key without meeting? Yes! And that is the key to public-key cryptography. Aim: We present three such schemes: Diffie-Helman, ElGamal, and RSA. (Diffie-Helman is not quite an encryption scheme.)

General Philosophy

A good crypto system is such that:

- 1. The computational task to encrypt and decrypt is easy.
- 2. The computational task to crack is hard.

Caveats:

- 1. Hard to achieve information-theoretic hardness (1-time pad).
- 2. Hard to achieve comp-hardness. Few problems provably hard.

3. Can use hardness assumptions (e.g., factoring is hard)

What is Easy? What is Hard?

How hard is a problem based on the length of the input Examples

- 1. SAT on a formula with *n* variables seems to require $2^{O(n)}$ steps. We do not know this.
- 2. Polynomial vs Exp time is our notion of easy vs hard.
- 3. Factoring *n* can be done in $O(\sqrt{n})$ time: Discuss. Easy!

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- 3. Factoring *n* can be done in $O(\sqrt{n})$ time: Discuss. Easy! NO!!: *n* is of length lg n + O(1) (henceforth just lg *n*). $\sqrt{n} = 2^{(0.5) \lg n}$. Exponential. Slightly better algs known.

Upshot: For numeric problems length is $\lg n$. We want (or don't want) algorithms polynomial in $\lg n$.

What We Count: We will count arithmetic operations as taking 1 time step. This could be an issue with enormous numbers.

Math Needed for Both Diffie-Helman and RSA

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Notation

Let p be a prime.

- 1. \mathbb{Z}_p is the numbers $\{0, \ldots, p-1\}$ with modular addition and multiplication.
- 2. \mathbb{Z}_p^* is the numbers $\{1, \ldots, p-1\}$ with modular multiplication.

Problem: Given a, n, p find $a^n \pmod{p}$ First Attempt

1.
$$x_0 = a$$

- 2. For i = 1 to $n, x_i = ax_{i-1}$.
- 3. Let $x = x_n \pmod{p}$.
- 4. Output x.

Is this a good idea?

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Is this a good idea? Its called First Attempt, so no. Takes n steps and also x gets really large. Can mod p every step so x not large. But still takes n steps.

Example of a Good Algorithm Want 3⁶⁴ (mod 101). All arithmetic is mod 101. $x_0 = 3$ $x_1 = x_0^2 \equiv 9$ This is 3². $x_2 = x_1^2 \equiv 9^2 \equiv 81$. This is 3⁴. $x_3 = x_2^2 \equiv 81^2 \equiv 97$. This is 3⁸. $x_4 = x_3^2 \equiv 97^2 \equiv 16$. This is 3¹⁶. $x_5 = x_4^2 \equiv 16^2 \equiv 54$. This is 3³². $x_6 = x_5^2 \equiv 54^2 \equiv 88$. This is 3⁶⁴. So in 6 steps we got the answer!

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Repeated Squaring Algorithm

All arithmetic is mod p.

- 1. Input (a, n, p)
- 2. Convert *n* to base 2: $n = 2^{n_L} + \cdots + 2^{n_0}$.
- 3. $x_0 = a$
- 4. For i = 1 to n_L , $x_i = x_{i-1}^2$.
- 5. (Now have $a^{2^{n_0}}, \ldots, a^{2^{n_L}}$) Answer is $a^{2^{n_0}} \times \cdots \times a^{2^{n_L}}$ Number of operations: $O(\log n)$.

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Diffie-Helman Key Exchange

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Generators mod p

Lets take powers of 3 mod 7. All arithmetic is mod 7. $3^{0} \equiv 1$ $3^{1} \equiv 3$ $3^{2} \equiv 3 \times 3^{1} \equiv 9 \equiv 2$ $3^{3} \equiv 3 \times 3^{2} \equiv 3 \times 2 \equiv 6$ $3^{4} \equiv 3 \times 3^{3} \equiv 3 \times 6 \equiv 18 \equiv 4$ $3^{5} \equiv 3 \times 3^{4} \equiv 3 \times 4 \equiv 12 \equiv 5$ $3^{6} \equiv 3 \times 3^{5} \equiv 3 \times 5 \equiv 15 \equiv 1$ $\{3^{0}, 3^{1}, 3^{2}, 3^{3}, 3^{4}, 3^{5}, 3^{6}\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ Not in order

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Generators mod p

Lets take powers of 3 mod 7. All arithmetic is mod 7. $3^0 = 1$ $3^1 = 3$ $3^2 = 3 \times 3^1 = 9 = 2$ $3^3 = 3 \times 3^2 = 3 \times 2 = 6$ $3^4 = 3 \times 3^3 = 3 \times 6 = 18 = 4$ $3^5 = 3 \times 3^4 = 3 \times 4 = 12 = 5$ $3^6 = 3 \times 3^5 \equiv 3 \times 5 \equiv 15 \equiv 1$ $\{3^0, 3^1, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5, 3^6\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ Not in order 3 is a generator for \mathbb{Z}_7 . Definition: If *p* is a prime and $\{g^0, g^1, ..., g^{p-1}\} = \{1, ..., p-1\}$ then g is a generator for \mathbb{Z}_p .

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Discrete Log-Example

Fact: 5 is a generator mod 73. All arithmetic is mod 73. Discuss the following with your neighbor:

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- 1. Find x such that $5^x \equiv 25$
- 2. Find x such that $5^x \equiv 26$

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- 2. Find x such that $5^x \equiv 26$. Do not know. Could try computing $5^3, 5^4, \ldots$, until you get 26. Might take ~ 70 steps.

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The second problem seems hard.

Discrete Log-General

Definition Let p be a prime and g be a generator mod p. The Discrete Log Problem is: given y, find x such that $g^x = y$.

Discuss: Is this problem computationally hard?



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Discuss: Is this problem computationally hard?

- 1. If g, y are small so that then could be easy. Example: $7^x \equiv 49 \pmod{1009}$ is easy.
- 2. If g small, y large, then the problem is sometimes easy (HW).
- 3. If $g, y \in \{\frac{p}{3}, \dots, \frac{2p}{3}\}$ then problem suspected hard.
- 4. Obv alg: O(p) steps. There is an $O(\sqrt{p})$ alg. Still too slow.

Consider What We Already Have Here

- Exponentiation is Easy.
- Discrete Log is thought to be Hard.

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Can we come up with a crypto system where Alice and Bob do Exponentiation to encrypt and decrypt, while Eve has to do Discrete Log to crack it?

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No. But we'll come close.

First Attempt at, given p, find a gen for \mathbb{Z}_p

1. Input p

2. For
$$g = 2$$
 to $p - 1$

Compute $g^1, g^2, \ldots, g^{p-1}$ until either hit a repeat or finish. If repeats then g is NOT a generator, so go to the next g. If finishes then output g and stop.

PRO: $\sim p/2 g$'s are gens so O(1) iterations. CON: Computing g^1, \ldots, g^{p-1} is $O(p \log p)$ operations.

Theorem: If g is not a generator then there exists x that (1) x divides p - 1, (2) $x \neq p - 1$, and (3) $g^x = 1$.

Second Attempt at, given p, find a gen for \mathbb{Z}_p

- 1. Input p
- 2. Factor p 1. Let F be the set of its factors except p 1.

3. For
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 to $p - 1$

Compute g^x for all $x \in F$. If any = 1 then g not generator. If none are 1 then output g and stop.

Is this a good algorithm?

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Is this a good algorithm? PRO: As noted before, O(1) iterations. PRO: Every iter $-O(|F|(\log p))$ ops. $|F| \le \log p$ so okay. BIG CON: Factoring p - 1? Really? Darn!

Idea:Pick p such that p - 1 = 2q where q is prime. Third Attempt at, given p, find a gen for \mathbb{Z}_p

- 1. Input p a prime such that p 1 = 2q where q is prime.
- 2. Factor p 1. Let F be the set of its factors except p 1. Thats EASY: $F = \{2, q\}$.

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PRO: Every iteration does $O(|F|(\log p)) = O(\log p)$ operations.

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PRO: Every iteration does $O(|F|(\log p)) = O(\log p)$ operations.

CON: None. But need both p and $\frac{p-1}{2}$ are primes.

Warning: The next few slides will culminate in a test for primality that may FAIL. It is NOT used. But ideas are used in real algorithm.

Lemma

p prime, $2 \le i \le p-1$, then $\frac{p!}{i!(p-i)!} \in \mathbb{N}$ and is divisible by p.

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Lemma

p prime, $2 \le i \le p-1$, then $\frac{p!}{i!(p-i)!} \in \mathbb{N}$ and is divisible by p.

Proof.

The expression is the answer to a question that has a \mathbb{N} solution: How many ways can you choose *i* items out of *p*? Since $\frac{p!}{i!(p-i)!} \in \mathbb{N}$, *p* divides the numerator, *p* does not divide the denominator, *p* divides the number.

Note:
$$\binom{p}{i} = \frac{p!}{(p-i)!i!}$$

Lemma

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $(x + y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^i y^{n-i}$

Lemma

 $p \text{ prime, } a \in \mathbb{N}, a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}.$

Proof.

Fix prime p. By induction on a. Base Case: $1^p \equiv 1$. Ind Hyp: $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ Ind Step:

$$(a+1)^p = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{p}{i} a^i 1^{p-i} = \sum_{i=0}^p \binom{p}{i} a^i \equiv a^p + a^0 \equiv a+1$$

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Prior Slides: If p is prime and $a \in \mathbb{N}$ then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. What has been observed: If p is NOT prime then USUALLY for MOST $a, a^p \not\equiv a \pmod{p}$. Primality Algorithm:

- 1. Input p. (In algorithm all arithmetic is mod p.)
- Form random set R of a ∈ {2,..., p − 1} of size 2 [lg p] (Could take c [lg p] for any c. Use O(lg p) so that this step is efficient.)
- 3. For each $a \in R$ compute a^p .
 - 3.1 If ever get $a^p \not\equiv a$ then p NOT PRIME (We are SURE.)
 - 3.2 If for all a, $a^p \equiv a$ then PRIME (We are NOT SURE.)

Two reasons for our uncertainty

- ▶ If *p* is composite but we were unluckily with *R*.
- There are some composite p such that for all a, $a^p \equiv a$.

Primality Testing – What is Really True

- 1. Exists algorithm that only has first problem, possible bad luck.
- 2. That algorithm has prob of failure $\leq \frac{1}{2^{p}}$. Good enough!
- 3. Exists deterministic poly time algorithm but is much slower.
- 4. *n* is a Carmichael Numbers if, for all *a*, $a^n \equiv a$. These are the numbers my algorithm FAILS on.

- 5. The first seven Carmichael Numbers: 561, 1105, 1729, 2465, 2821, 6601, 8911
- 6. Carmichael numbers are rare.

Generating Primes (also needed for RSA)

Take as given: Primality Testing is FAST.

First Attempt at, given n, generate a prime of length n.

- 1. lnput(n)
- 2. Pick $y \in \{0,1\}^{n-1}$ at random.
- 3. x = 1y (so x is a true *n*-bit number)
- 4. Test if x is prime.
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Generating Safe Primes

Definition

p is a safe prime if p is prime and $\frac{p-1}{2}$ is prime.

First Attempt at, given n, generate a safe prime of length n

- 1. lnput(n)
- 2. Pick $y \in \{0, 1\}^{n-2}1$ at random.
- 3. x = 1y (note that x is odd).
- 4. Test if x and $\frac{x-1}{2}$ are prime.
- 5. If they both are then output x and stop, else goto step 2.

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Alice and Bob will share a secret s.

- 1. Alice finds a (p,g), p of length n, g gen for \mathbb{Z}_p . Arith mod p.
- 2. Alice sends (p, g) to Bob in the clear (Eve can see it).
- 3. Alice picks random $a \in \{\frac{p}{3}, \ldots, \frac{2p}{3}\}$. Alice computes g^a and sends it to Bob in the clear (Eve can see it).
- 4. Bob picks random $b \in \{\frac{p}{3}, \ldots, \frac{2p}{3}\}$. Bob computes g^b and sends it to Alice in the clear (Eve can see it).

- 5. Alice computes $(g^b)^a = g^{ab}$.
- 6. Bob computes $(g^a)^b = g^{ab}$.
- 7. g^{ab} is the shared secret.

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PRO: Alice and Bob can execute the protocol easily. Biggest PRO: Alice and Bob never had to meet!

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- 2. Alice sends (p, g) to Bob in the clear (Eve can see it).
- 3. Alice picks random $a \in \{\frac{p}{3}, \ldots, \frac{2p}{3}\}$. Alice computes g^a and sends it to Bob in the clear (Eve can see it).
- 4. Bob picks random $b \in \{\frac{p}{3}, \ldots, \frac{2p}{3}\}$. Bob computes g^b and sends it to Alice in the clear (Eve can see it).

- 5. Alice computes $(g^b)^a = g^{ab}$.
- 6. Bob computes $(g^a)^b = g^{ab}$.
- 7. g^{ab} is the shared secret.

PRO: Alice and Bob can execute the protocol easily. Biggest PRO: Alice and Bob never had to meet! Question: Can Eve find out *s*?