

CS70: Lecture 9. Outline.

1. Public Key Cryptography
2. RSA system
 - 2.1 Efficiency: Repeated Squaring.
 - 2.2 Correctness: Fermat's Theorem.
 - 2.3 Construction.
3. Warnings.

Isomorphisms.

Bijection:

$$f(x) = ax \pmod{m} \text{ if } \gcd(a, m) = 1.$$

Simplified Chinese Remainder Theorem:

If $\gcd(b, m) = 1$, there is unique $x \pmod{mn}$ where $x = a \pmod{m}$ and $x = b \pmod{n}$.

Bijection between $(a \pmod{n}, b \pmod{m})$ and $x \pmod{mn}$.

Consider $m = 5, n = 9$, then if $(a, b) = (3, 7)$ then $x = 43 \pmod{45}$.

Consider $(a', b') = (2, 4)$, then $x = 22 \pmod{45}$.

Now consider: $(a, b) + (a', b') = (0, 2)$.

What is x where $x = 0 \pmod{5}$ and $x = 2 \pmod{9}$?

Try $43 + 22 = 65 = 20 \pmod{45}$.

Is it $0 \pmod{5}$? Yes! Is it $2 \pmod{9}$? Yes!

Isomorphism:

the actions under $(\pmod{5}), (\pmod{9})$
correspond to actions in $(\pmod{45})$!

Poll

$$x = 5 \pmod{7} \text{ and } x = 5 \pmod{6}$$

$$y = 4 \pmod{7} \text{ and } y = 3 \pmod{6}$$

What's true?

- (A) $x + y = 2 \pmod{7}$
- (B) $x + y = 2 \pmod{6}$
- (C) $xy = 3 \pmod{6}$
- (D) $xy = 6 \pmod{7}$
- (E) $x = 5 \pmod{42}$
- (F) $y = 39 \pmod{42}$

All true.

Xor

Computer Science:

1 - True
0 - False

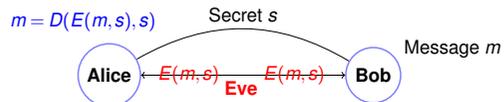
$1 \vee 1 = 1$
 $1 \vee 0 = 1$
 $0 \vee 1 = 1$
 $0 \vee 0 = 0$

$A \oplus B$ - Exclusive or.
 $1 \oplus 1 = 0$
 $1 \oplus 0 = 1$
 $0 \oplus 1 = 1$
 $0 \oplus 0 = 0$

Note: Also modular addition modulo 2!
 $\{0, 1\}$ is set. Take remainder for 2.

Property: $A \oplus B \oplus B = A$.
By cases: $1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 = 1$

Cryptography ...



Example:

One-time Pad: secret s is string of length $|m|$.

$m = 10101011110101101$

$s = \dots\dots\dots$

$E(m, s)$ - bitwise $m \oplus s$.

$D(x, s)$ - bitwise $x \oplus s$.

Works because $m \oplus s \oplus s = m$!

...and totally secure!

...given $E(m, s)$ any message m is equally likely.

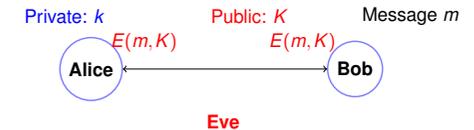
Disadvantages:

Shared secret!

Uses up one time pad..or less and less secure.

Public key cryptography.

$$m = D(E(m, K), k)$$



Everyone knows key K !

Bob (and Eve and me and you and you ...) can encode.

Only Alice knows the secret key k for public key K .

(Only?) Alice can decode with k .

Is this even possible?

Is public key crypto possible?

We don't really know.
...but we do it every day!!!

RSA (Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman)
Pick two large primes p and q . Let $N = pq$.
Choose e relatively prime to $(p-1)(q-1)$.¹
Compute $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$.
Announce $N (= p \cdot q)$ and e : $K = (N, e)$ is my public key!

Encoding: $\text{mod}(x^e, N)$.

Decoding: $\text{mod}(y^d, N)$.

Does $D(E(m)) = m^{ed} = m \pmod{N}$?

Yes!

¹Typically small, say $e=3$.

Encryption/Decryption Techniques.

Public Key: $(77, 7)$

Message Choices: $\{0, \dots, 76\}$.

Message: 2!

$E(2) = 2^e = 2^7 = 128 = 51 \pmod{77}$

$D(51) = 51^{43} \pmod{77}$

uh oh!

Obvious way: 43 multiplications. **Ouch.**

In general, $O(N)$ or $O(2^n)$ multiplications!

Poll

What is a piece of RSA?

Bob has a key (N, e, d) . Alice is good, Eve is evil.

- (A) Eve knows e and N .
 - (B) Alice knows e and N .
 - (C) $ed = 1 \pmod{N-1}$
 - (D) Bob forgot p and q but can still decode?
 - (E) Bob knows d
 - (F) $ed = 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ if $N = pq$.
- (A), (B), (D), (E), (F)

Repeated squaring.

Notice: $43 = 32 + 8 + 2 + 1$ or 101011 in binary.

$51^{43} = 51^{32+8+2+1} = 51^{32} \cdot 51^8 \cdot 51^2 \cdot 51^1 \pmod{77}$.

4 multiplications sort of...

Need to compute $51^{32} \dots 51^1$?

$51^1 \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$

$51^2 = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$

$51^4 = (51^2) * (51^2) = 60 * 60 = 3600 \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$

$51^8 = (51^4) * (51^4) = 58 * 58 = 3364 \equiv 53 \pmod{77}$

$51^{16} = (51^8) * (51^8) = 53 * 53 = 2809 \equiv 37 \pmod{77}$

$51^{32} = (51^{16}) * (51^{16}) = 37 * 37 = 1369 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$

5 more multiplications.

$51^{32} \cdot 51^8 \cdot 51^2 \cdot 51^1 = (60) * (53) * (60) * (51) \equiv 2 \pmod{77}$.

Decoding got the message back!

Repeated Squaring took 9 multiplications versus 43.

Iterative Extended GCD.

Example: $p=7, q=11$.

$N=77$.

$(p-1)(q-1) = 60$

Choose $e=7$, since $\text{gcd}(7, 60) = 1$.
 $\text{egcd}(7, 60)$.

$$7(0) + 60(1) = 60$$

$$7(1) + 60(0) = 7$$

$$7(-8) + 60(1) = 4$$

$$7(9) + 60(-1) = 3$$

$$7(-17) + 60(2) = 1$$

Confirm: $-119 + 120 = 1$

$d = e^{-1} = -17 = 43 \pmod{60}$

Recursive version.

```
(define (power x y m)
  (if (= y 1)
      (mod x m)
      (let ((x-to-evened-y (power (square x) (/ y 2) m)))
        (if (evenp y)
            x-to-evened-y
            (mod (* x x-to-evened-y) m))))))
```

Claim: Program correctly computes x^y .

Base: $x^1 = x \pmod{m}$.

Note: $y = 2\lfloor y/2 \rfloor + \text{mod}(y, 2)$.

$x^y = x^{2(\lfloor y/2 \rfloor) + \text{mod}(y, 2)} = (x^2)^{\lfloor y/2 \rfloor} x^{\text{mod}(y, 2)} \pmod{m}$.

Induction:

Recursive call on x^2 and $\lfloor y/2 \rfloor$, returns $(x^2)^{\lfloor y/2 \rfloor}$.

≤ 2 multiplications per recursive call.

Note: $\lfloor y/2 \rfloor$ is integer division.

Repeated Squaring: x^y

Repeated squaring $O(\log y)$ multiplications versus $y!!!$

1. x^y : Compute $x^1, x^2, x^4, \dots, x^{2^{\lceil \log y \rceil}}$.
2. Multiply together x^i where the $(\log(i))$ th bit of y (in binary) is 1.
Example: $43 = 101011$ in binary.
 $x^{43} = x^{32} * x^8 * x^2 * x^1$.

Modular Exponentiation: $x^y \pmod N$. All n -bit numbers. Repeated Squaring:
 $O(n)$ multiplications.
 $O(n^2)$ time per multiplication.
 $\implies O(n^3)$ time.
Conclusion: $x^y \pmod N$ takes $O(n^3)$ time.

Always decode correctly?

$$E(m, (N, e)) = m^e \pmod N.$$

$$D(m, (N, d)) = m^d \pmod N.$$

$$N = pq \text{ and } d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.$$

$$\text{Want: } (m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m \pmod N.$$

Another view:

$$d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)} \iff ed = k(p-1)(q-1) + 1.$$

Consider...

Fermat's Little Theorem: For prime p , and $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$,

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p.$$

$$\implies a^{k(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod p \implies a^{k(p-1)+1} = a \pmod p$$

$$\text{versus } a^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} = a \pmod{pq}.$$

Similar, not same, but useful.

RSA is pretty fast.

Modular Exponentiation: $x^y \pmod N$. All n -bit numbers.
 $O(n^3)$ time.

Remember RSA encoding/decoding!

$$E(m, (N, e)) = m^e \pmod N.$$

$$D(m, (N, d)) = m^d \pmod N.$$

For 512 bits, a few hundred million operations.
Easy, peasey.

Correct decoding...

Fermat's Little Theorem: For prime p , and $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod p$,

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p.$$

Proof: Consider $S = \{a \cdot 1, \dots, a \cdot (p-1)\}$.

All different modulo p since a has an inverse modulo p .

S contains representative of $\{1, \dots, p-1\}$ modulo p .

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \pmod p,$$

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1 \cdots (p-1)) \equiv (1 \cdots (p-1)) \pmod p.$$

Each of $2, \dots, (p-1)$ has an inverse modulo p , solve to get...

$$a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod p. \quad \square$$

Decoding.

$$E(m, (N, e)) = m^e \pmod N.$$

$$D(m, (N, d)) = m^d \pmod N.$$

$$N = pq \text{ and } d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.$$

$$\text{Want: } (m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m \pmod N.$$

Poll

Mark what is true.

(A) $2^7 = 1 \pmod 7$

(B) $2^6 = 1 \pmod 7$

(C) $2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5, 2^6, 2^7$ are distinct mod 7.

(D) $2^1, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5, 2^6$ are distinct mod 7

(E) $2^1 5 = 2 \pmod 7$

(F) $2^1 5 = 1 \pmod 7$

(B), (F)

Always decode correctly? (cont.)

Fermat's Little Theorem: For prime p , and $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$,

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Lemma 1: For any prime p and any a, b ,
 $a^{1+b(p-1)} \equiv a \pmod{p}$

Proof: If $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, of course.

Otherwise

$$a^{1+b(p-1)} \equiv a^1 * (a^{p-1})^b \equiv a * (1)^b \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

□

...Decoding correctness...

Lemma 1: For any prime p and any a, b ,
 $a^{1+b(p-1)} \equiv a \pmod{p}$

Lemma 2: For any two different primes p, q and any x, k ,
 $x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv x \pmod{pq}$

Let $a = x$, $b = k(p-1)$ and apply Lemma 1 with modulus q .

$$x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv x \pmod{q}$$

Let $a = x$, $b = k(q-1)$ and apply Lemma 1 with modulus p .

$$x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv x \pmod{p} \quad x^{1+k(q-1)(p-1)} - x \text{ is multiple of } p \text{ and } q.$$

$$x^{1+k(q-1)(p-1)} - x \equiv 0 \pmod{pq} \implies x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} = x \pmod{pq}.$$

□

From CRT: $y = x \pmod{p}$ and $y = x \pmod{q} \implies y = x$.

RSA decodes correctly..

Lemma 2: For any two different primes p, q and any x, k ,
 $x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv x \pmod{pq}$

Theorem: RSA correctly decodes!

Recall

$$D(E(x)) = (x^e)^d = x^{ed} \equiv x \pmod{pq},$$

where $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)} \implies ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$

$$x^{ed} \equiv x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv x \pmod{pq}.$$

□

Construction of keys.. ..

1. Find large (100 digit) primes p and q ?

Prime Number Theorem: $\pi(N)$ number of primes less than N . For all $N \geq 17$

$$\pi(N) \geq N / \ln N.$$

Choosing randomly gives approximately $1/(\ln N)$ chance of number being a prime. (How do you tell if it is prime? ... cs170..Miller-Rabin test.. Primes in P).

For 1024 bit number, 1 in 710 is prime.

2. Choose e with $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$.
Use gcd algorithm to test.
3. Find inverse d of e modulo $(p-1)(q-1)$.
Use extended gcd algorithm.

All steps are polynomial in $O(\log N)$, the number of bits.

Security of RSA.

Security?

1. Alice knows p and q .
2. Bob only knows, $N (= pq)$, and e .
Does not know, for example, d or factorization of N .
3. I don't know how to break this scheme without factoring N .

No one I know or have heard of admits to knowing how to factor N .

Breaking in general sense \implies factoring algorithm.

Much more to it.....

If Bobs sends a message (Credit Card Number) to Alice,
Eve sees it.

Eve can send credit card again!!

The protocols are built on RSA but more complicated;

For example, several rounds of challenge/response.

One trick:

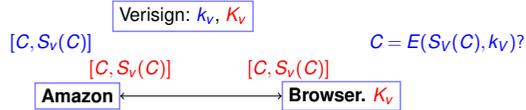
Bob encodes credit card number, c ,
concatenated with random k -bit number r .

Never sends just c .

Again, more work to do to get entire system.

CS161...

Signatures using RSA.



Certificate Authority: Verisign, GoDaddy, DigiNotar,...

Verisign's key: $K_V = (N, e)$ and $k_V = d$ ($N = pq$.)

Browser "knows" Verisign's public key: K_V .

Amazon Certificate: $C =$ "I am Amazon. My public Key is K_A ."

Verisign signature of C : $S_V(C)$: $D(C, k_V) = C^d \pmod N$.

Browser receives: $[C, y]$

Checks $E(y, K_V) = C?$

$E(S_V(C), K_V) = (S_V(C))^e = (C^d)^e = C^{de} = C \pmod N$

Valid signature of Amazon certificate C !

Security: Eve can't forge unless she "breaks" RSA scheme.

Other Eve.

Get CA to certify fake certificates: Microsoft Corporation.

2001..Doh.

... and August 28, 2011 announcement.

DigiNotar Certificate issued for Microsoft!!!

How does Microsoft get a CA to issue certificate to them ...

and only them?

RSA

Public Key Cryptography:

$D(E(m, K), k) = (m^e)^d \pmod N = m$.

Signature scheme:

$E(D(C, k), K) = (C^d)^e \pmod N = C$

Poll

Signature authority has public key (N,e).

- (A) Given message/signature (x, y) : check $y^d = x \pmod N$
- (B) Given message/signature (x, y) : check $y^e = x \pmod N$
- (C) Signature of message x is $x^e \pmod N$
- (D) Signature of message x is $x^d \pmod N$

Summary.

Public-Key Encryption.

RSA Scheme:

$N = pq$ and $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$.

$E(x) = x^e \pmod N$.

$D(y) = y^d \pmod N$.

Repeated Squaring \implies efficiency.

Fermat's Theorem \implies correctness.

Good for Encryption and Signature Schemes.