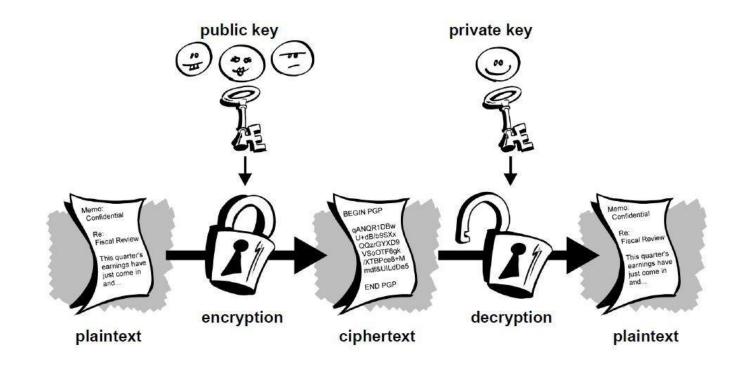
# I 5-25 I Great Theoretical Ideas in Computer Science Lecture 27: Cryptography



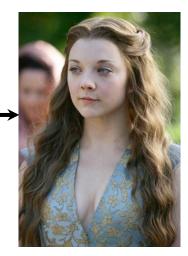
# What is cryptography about?



#### Adversary Eavesdropper



"I will cut his throat"



"I will cut his throat"

# What is cryptography about?



"I will cut his throat" encryption "Ioru23n8uladjkfb!#@" "loru23n8uladjkfb!#@"
decryption
"I will cut his throat"

# What is cryptography about?

Study of protocols that avoid the bad affects of adversaries.

- Secure online voting schemes?
- Digital signatures.
- Computation on encrypted data?
- Zero-Knowledge Interactive Proofs:
   Can I convince you that I have proved P=NP without giving you any information about the proof?

•

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### Reasons to like cryptography

Can do pretty cool and unexpected things.

Has many important applications.

Is fundamentally related to computational complexity.

In fact, comp. complexity revolutionized cryptography.

Applications of computationally hard problems.

Uses cool math (e.g. number theory).

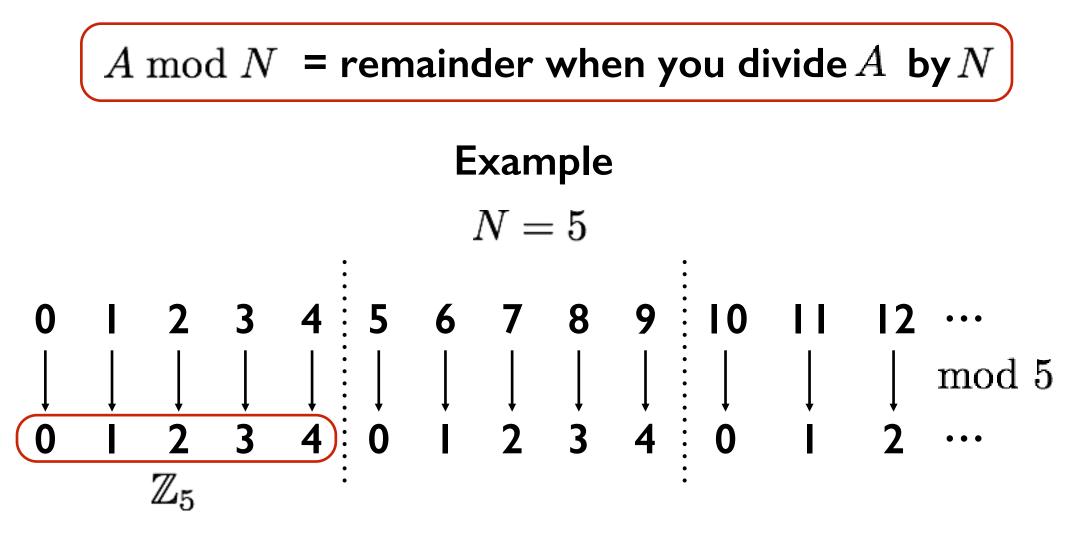
## The plan

First, we will review modular arithmetic.

#### Then we'll talk about private (secret) key crypto.

Finally, we'll talk about public key cryptography.

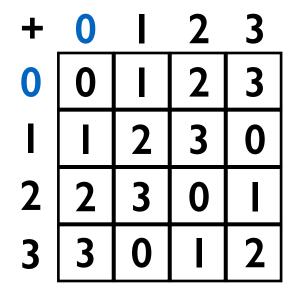
#### **Review of Modular Arithmetic**



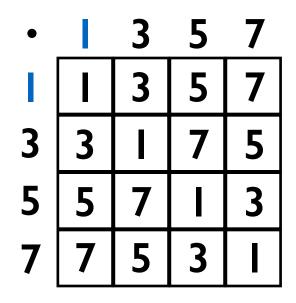
We write  $A \equiv B \mod N$  or  $A \equiv_N B$ when  $A \mod N = B \mod N$ .

Can view the universe as  $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$ .

 $\mathbb{Z}_4$ 



$$\mathbb{Z}_8^*$$



$$\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$$

behaves nicely with respect to <u>addition</u>  $\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{A \in \mathbb{Z}_N : \gcd(A, N) = 1\}$ behaves nicely with respect to <u>multiplication</u>  $\varphi(N) = |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$ 

 $\label{eq:prime} \begin{array}{ll} \mbox{if $P$ prime,} & \varphi(P) = P-1 \\ \mbox{if $P,Q$ distinct primes,} & \varphi(PQ) = (P-1)(Q-1) \end{array}$ 

	$\mathbb{Z}_5^*$						$1^1$	$1^2$	$1^3$	$1^4$	$1^5$	$1^6$	$1^7$	$1^8$
							L	I.	1	I.	T.	I.	I.	I.
•		2	3	4	1	$2^0$	01	o <sup>2</sup>	o3	$2^4$	05		07	08
		2	3	4			2-	2-	2°	2-	2	2°	2.	2
2	2	4		3		Т	2	4	3		2	4	3	
3	3	I	4	2		$3^0$	$3^1$	$3^2$	$3^3$	$3^4$	$3^5$	$3^6$	$3^7$	$3^8$
4	4	3	2	Ι		Î	3	4	2	I.	3	4	2	I.
$\varphi(5) = 4$										$4^4$				
$\mathcal{F}(\mathcal{O})$					1	4	1	4		4	1	4	1	

2 and 3 are called generators.

	$\mathbb{Z}_5^*$						1 <sup>1</sup>	$1^{2}$		1 <sup>4</sup>	1 <sup>5</sup>	1 <sup>6</sup>	1 <sup>7</sup>	
•	1	2	3	4		$1^{0}$	$2^1$	$2^{2}$		$2^4$	$2^5$	$2^6$	$2^7$	$2^8$
2	2	4	5 	<del>-</del> З		I.	2	4	3	Т	2	4		
3 4	3 4	 3	4	2 		3 <sup>0</sup>	3 <sup>1</sup> 3	3 <sup>2</sup> 4	3 <sup>3</sup> 2	3 <sup>4</sup>		3 <sup>6</sup> 4	3 <sup>7</sup> 2	3 <sup>8</sup>
$\varphi(5) = 4$						4 <sup>0</sup>	4 <sup>1</sup> 4	4 <sup>2</sup>		4 <sup>4</sup>	4 <sup>5</sup> 4	4 <sup>6</sup>	$4^{7}$	
	¥.	A,	A	4 =	= 1		$\implies$	$A^{4k}$	<sup>;</sup> = (	$(A^4)^{l}$	$^{k}=1$	1		

### **Euler's Theorem:**

For any  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  ,  $A^{\varphi(N)} = 1$  .

Fermat's Little Theorem:

Let P be a prime. For any  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_P^*$ ,  $A^{P-1} = 1$ . 1  $A^0$  $A^1$  $A^{\varphi(N)-1}$  $A^2$ • • •  $A^{\varphi(N)}$  $A^{\varphi(N)+1}$  $A^{\varphi(N)+2}$  $A^{2\varphi(N)-1}$ • • •  $A^{2\varphi(N)}$  $A^{2\varphi(N)+1}$   $A^{2\varphi(N)+2}$  $A^{3\varphi(N)-1}$ • • •

### IMPORTANT

When exponentiating elements  $A \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  ,

can think of the exponent living in the universe  $\mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}$ .

### Algorithms for Modular Arithmetic

Do regular addition. Then take mod N.

> subtraction  $A - B = A + (-B) \mod N$ 

-B = N - B. Then do addition.

- > multiplication  $A \cdot B \mod N$ Do regular multiplication. Then take mod N.
- > division  $A/B = A \cdot B^{-1} \mod N$ Find  $B^{-1}$ . Then do multiplication.
- **> exponentiation**  $A^B \mod N$

Do regular addition. Then take mod N.

> subtraction  $A - B = A + (-B) \mod N$ 

-B = N - B. Then do addition.

multiplication A · B mod N
Do regular multiplication Then take mod N
division A/B
Find B<sup>-1</sup>. The
Our modification of Euclid's Alg. computes B<sup>-1</sup> given B and N.

Do regular addition. Then take mod N.

> subtraction  $A - B = A + (-B) \mod N$ 

-B = N - B. Then do addition.

- > multiplication  $A \cdot B \mod N$ Do regular multiplication. Then take mod N.
- > division  $A/B = A \cdot B^{-1} \mod N$ Find  $B^{-1}$ . Then do multiplication.
- > exponentiation A<sup>B</sup> mod N repeatedly square and mod to compute powers of two then multiply those mod n as neccessary

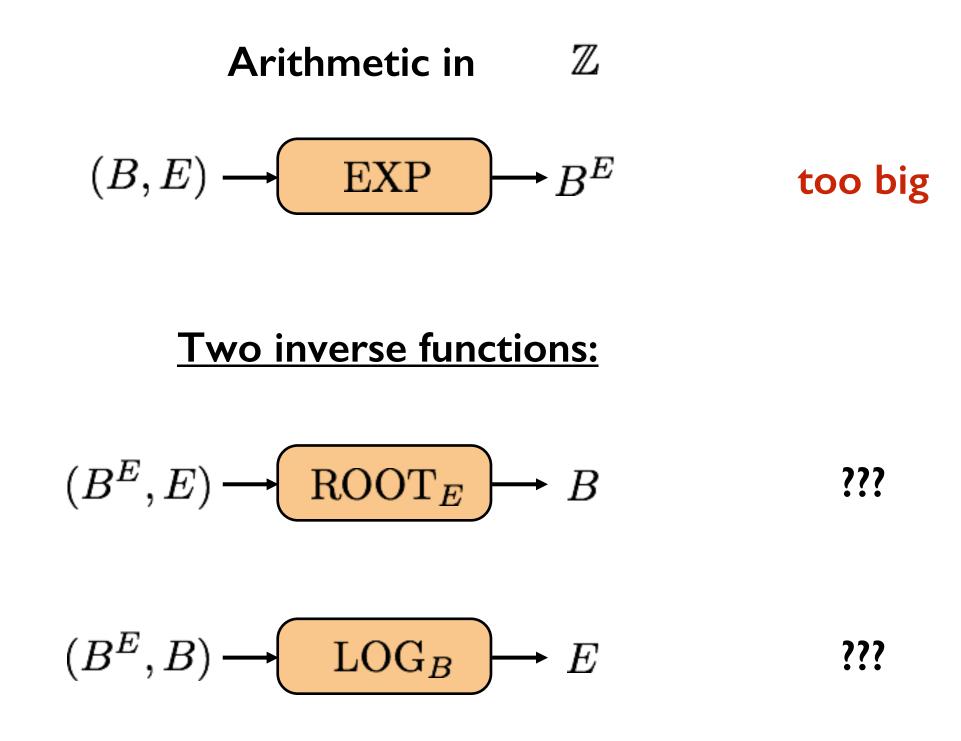
Do regular addition. Then take mod N.

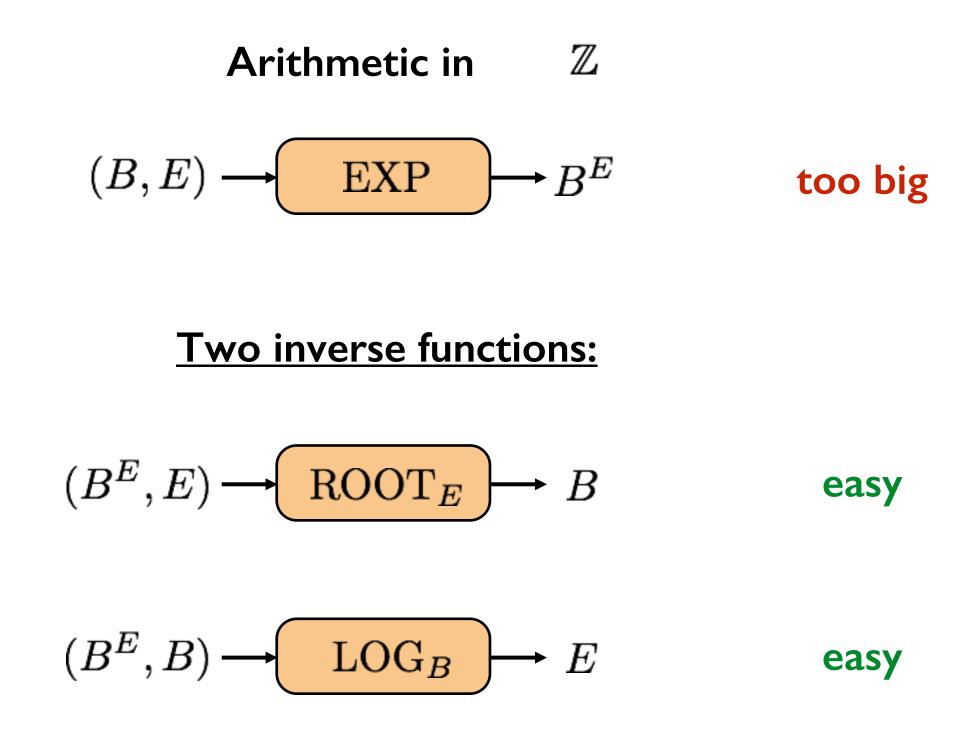
**> subtraction**  $A - B = A + (-B) \mod N$ 

-B = N - B. Then do addition.



> exponentiation A<sup>B</sup> mod N repeatedly square and mod to compute powers of two then multiply those mod n as neccessary





In  $\mathbb{Z}$ 

$$(B^E, E) \longrightarrow \operatorname{ROOT}_E \longrightarrow B$$
 easy

 $(1881676371789154860897069, 3) \longrightarrow 123456789$ (do binary search and exponentiation)

$$(B^E, B) \longrightarrow LOG_B \longrightarrow E$$
 easy

→ 123

(48519278097689642681155855396759336072749841943521979872827, 3)

(keep dividing by B)

Arithmetic in 
$$\mathbb{Z}_N^*$$
  
 $(B, E, N) \longrightarrow EXP \longrightarrow B^E \mod N$  easy

#### Two inverse functions:

$$(B^E, E, N) \longrightarrow \operatorname{ROOT}_E \longrightarrow B$$
 ???

$$(B^E, B, N) \longrightarrow \text{LOG}_B \longrightarrow E$$
 ???

Arithmetic in 
$$\mathbb{Z}_N^*$$
  
 $(B, E, N) \longrightarrow EXP \longrightarrow B^E \mod N$  easy

#### Two inverse functions:

$$(B^{E}, E, N) \longrightarrow \text{ROOT}_{E} \longrightarrow B \qquad \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{seems} \\ \text{hard} \end{array}$$
$$(B^{E}, B, N) \longrightarrow \text{LOG}_{B} \longrightarrow E \qquad \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{seems} \\ \text{hard} \end{array}$$

<u>Question</u>: Why do the algorithms from the setting of  $\mathbb{Z}$  do not work in  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ?

Arithmetic in 
$$\mathbb{Z}_N^*$$
  
 $(B, E, N) \longrightarrow EXP \longrightarrow B^E \mod N$  easy

#### Two inverse functions:

$$(B^{E}, E, N) \longrightarrow \text{ROOT}_{E} \longrightarrow B \qquad \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{seems} \\ \text{hard} \end{array}$$
$$(B^{E}, B, N) \longrightarrow \text{LOG}_{B} \longrightarrow E \qquad \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{seems} \\ \text{hard} \end{array}$$

<u>One-way function:</u> easy to compute, hard to invert. EXP seems to be one-way.

### Private Key Cryptography

## Private key cryptography



#### Parties must agree on a key pair beforehand.

# Private key cryptography

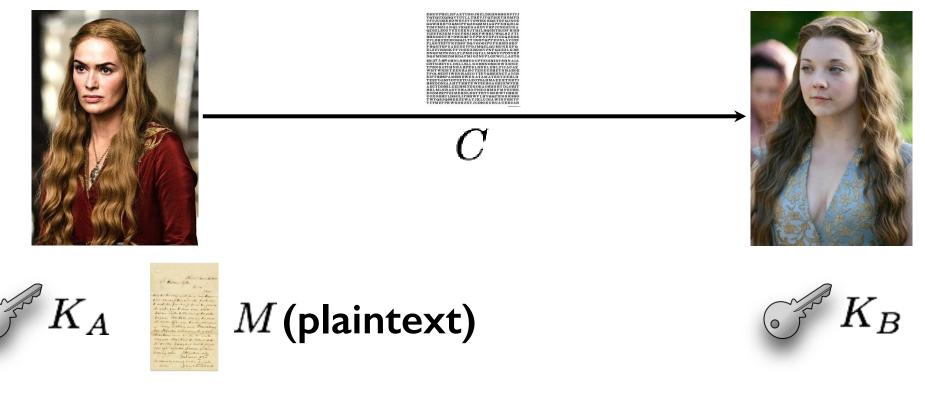


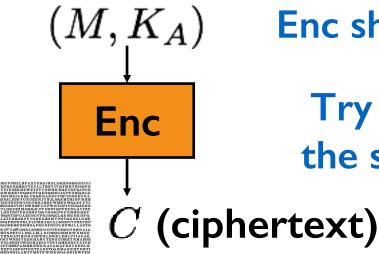




there must be a secure way of exchanging the key

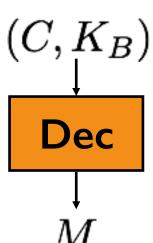
# Private key cryptography





#### Enc should be "one-way".

Try to ensure it using the secrecy of the key.



### A note about security

#### Better to consider worst-case conditions.

Assume the adversary knows everything except the key(s) and the message:

Completely sees cipher text C.

Completely knows the algorithms **Enc** and **Dec**.

### **Caesar shift**

### Example: shift by 3

### (similarly for capital letters)

"Dear Math, please grow up and solve your own problems."

"Ghdu Pdwk, sohdvh jurz xs dqg vroyh brxu rzq sureohpv."



Easy to break.



### **Substitution cipher**

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz ||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||||| jkbdelmcfgnoxyrsvwzatupqhi

': permutation of the alphabet

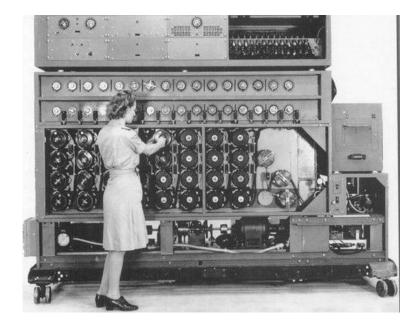
### Easy to break by looking at letter frequencies.

## Enigma

#### A much more complex cipher.







M = message K = key C = encrypted message (everything in binary)

### **Encryption**:

- M = 01011010111010100000111
- + K = 1100110001010111000101
  - C = 1001011010111011000010

### $C = M \oplus K$ (bit-wise XOR)

# <u>For all i:</u> $C[i] = M[i] + K[i] \pmod{2}$

M = message K = key C = encrypted message (everything in binary)

### **Decryption:**

- C = 1001011010111011000010

### M = 0101101011010100000111

# <u>Encryption</u>: $C = M \oplus K$ <u>Decryption</u>: $C \oplus K = (M \oplus K) \oplus K = M \oplus (K \oplus K) = M$

(because  $K \oplus K = 0$ )

# M = 010110101110100000111

### 

### C = 1001011010111011000010

### One-time pad is perfectly secure:

For any M, if K is chosen uniformly at random, then C is uniformly at random.

So adversary learns nothing about M by seeing C.

But the shared key has to be as long as the message! Could we reuse the key?

# M = 01011010111010100000111

#### 

## C = 1001011010111011000010

- Could we reuse the key?
- <u>One-time only:</u>
  - Suppose you encrypt two messages  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  with K
    - $C_I = M_I \oplus K$
    - $C_2 = M_2 \oplus K$
  - Then  $C_1 \oplus C_2 = M_1 \oplus M_2$

## Shannon's Theorem

Is it possible to have a secure system like one-time pad with a smaller key size?

Shannon proved "no".

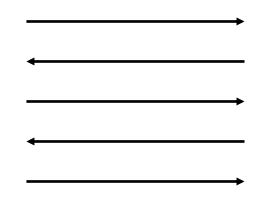
If K is shorter than M:

An adversary with unlimited computational power can learn some information about M.

#### Secret Key Sharing

## **Secret Key Sharing**



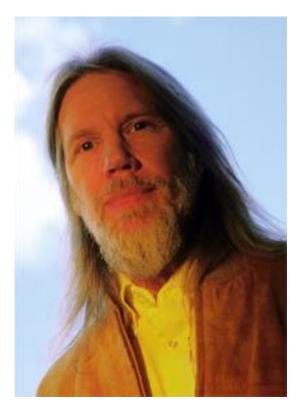








1976





#### Whitfield Diffie

#### Martin Hellman

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \text{In } \mathbb{Z}_N^* \\ (B, E, N) \longrightarrow & \text{EXP} \longrightarrow B^E \mod N & \text{easy} \\ \\ (B^E, B, N) \longrightarrow & \text{LOG}_B \longrightarrow E & & \text{seems} \\ & \text{hard} \end{array}$$

Much better to have a *generator* B.

$$(B, E, N) \longrightarrow EXP \longrightarrow B^E \mod N \quad easy$$
$$(B^E, B, N) \longrightarrow LOG_B \longrightarrow E \qquad \qquad seems \\ hard$$

We'll pick N = P a prime number. (This ensures there is a generator in  $\mathbb{Z}_P^*$ .)

We'll pick  $B \in \mathbb{Z}_P^*$  so that it is a *generator*.  $\{B^0, B^1, B^2, B^3, \dots, B^{P-2}\} = \mathbb{Z}_P^*$ 





Pick prime PPick generator  $B \in \mathbb{Z}_{P}^{*}$ Pick random  $E_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(P)}$  $P, B, B^{E_1}$  $P, B, B^{E_1}$ Pick random  $E_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(P)}$  $B^{E_2}$ Compute Compute  $(B^{E_2})^{E_1} = B^{E_1 E_2}$  $(B^{E_1})^{E_2} = B^{E_1 E_2}$ 





Compute

This is what the adversary sees. Pick prime PIf he can compute  $LOG_B$ Pick generator  $B \in \mathbb{Z}_{P}^{*}$ we are screwed! Pick random  $E_1 \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(P)}$ P, B, I $P, B, B^{E_1}$ Pick random  $E_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(P)}$ 

Compute 
$$(B^{E_2})^{E_1} = B^{E_1 E_2}$$

## Secure?

## Adversary sees: $P, B, B^{E_1}, B^{E_2}$

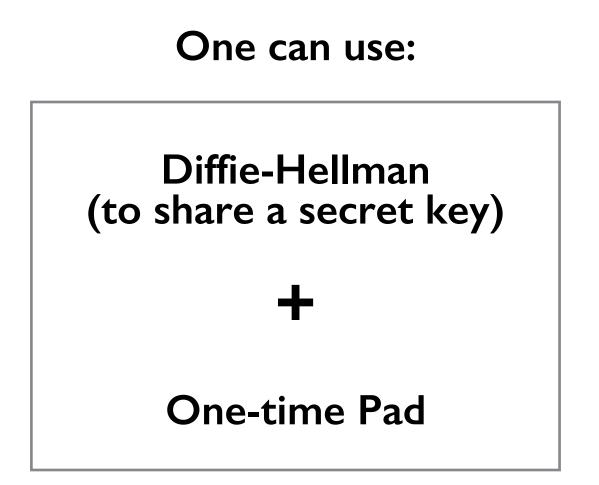
Hopefully he can't compute  $E_1$  from  $B^{E_1}$ . (our hope is that  $LOG_B$  is hard)

<u>Good news</u>: No one knows how to compute  $LOG_B$  efficiently.

<u>Bad news</u>: Proving that it cannot be computed efficiently is at least as hard as the P vs NP problem.

Diffie-Hellman assumption: Computing  $B^{E_1E_2}$  from  $P, B, B^{E_1}, B^{E_2}$  is hard.

Decisional Diffie-Hellman assumption: You actually learn no information about  $B^{E_1E_2}$ 



for secure message transmissions

#### <u>Note</u>

This is as secure as its weakest link, i.e. Diffie-Hellman.



What if we relax the assumption that the adversary is computationally unbounded?

We can find a way to share a random secret key. (over an insecure channel)

We can get rid of the secret key sharing part. (public key cryptography)

### Public Key Cryptography

## Public Key Cryptography





# *public*





## Public Key Cryptography





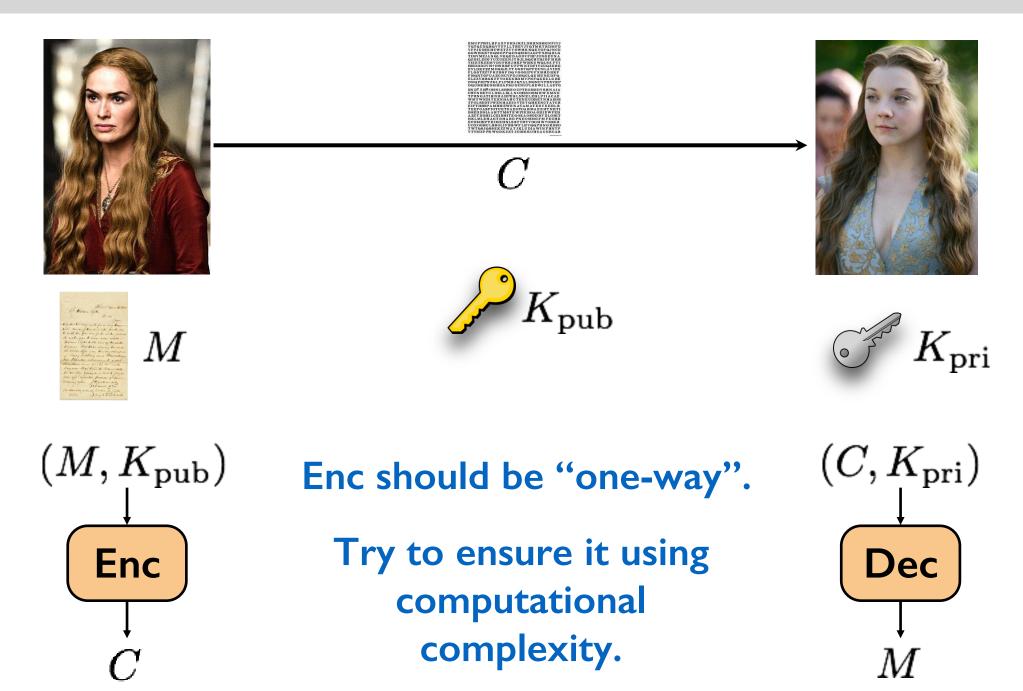




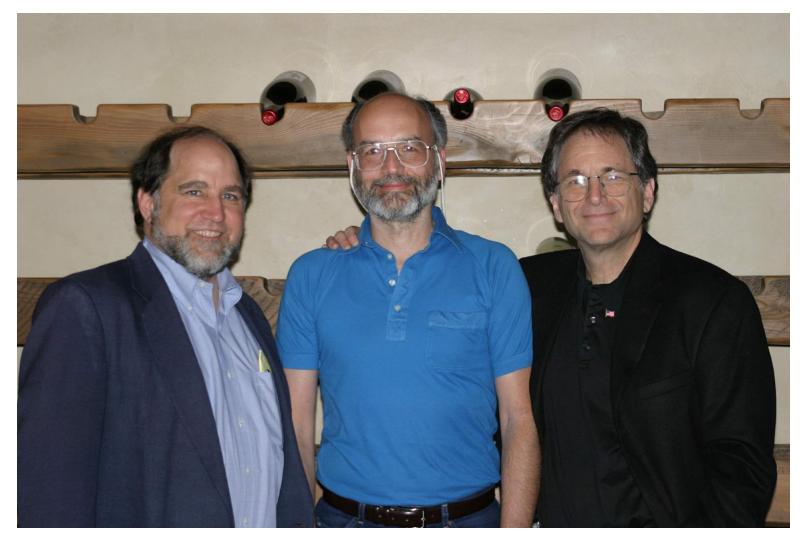


Can be used to lock. *private* But <u>can't</u> be used to unlock.

## Public key cryptography



#### 1977



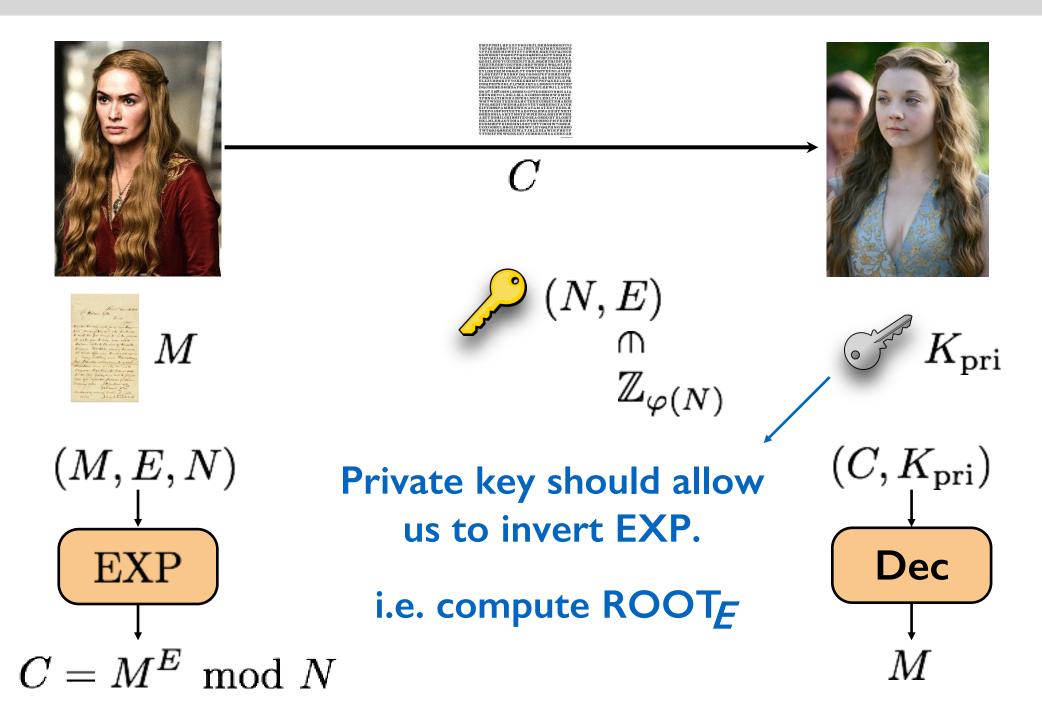
Ron Rivest Adi Shamir Leonard Adleman



#### **Clifford Cocks**

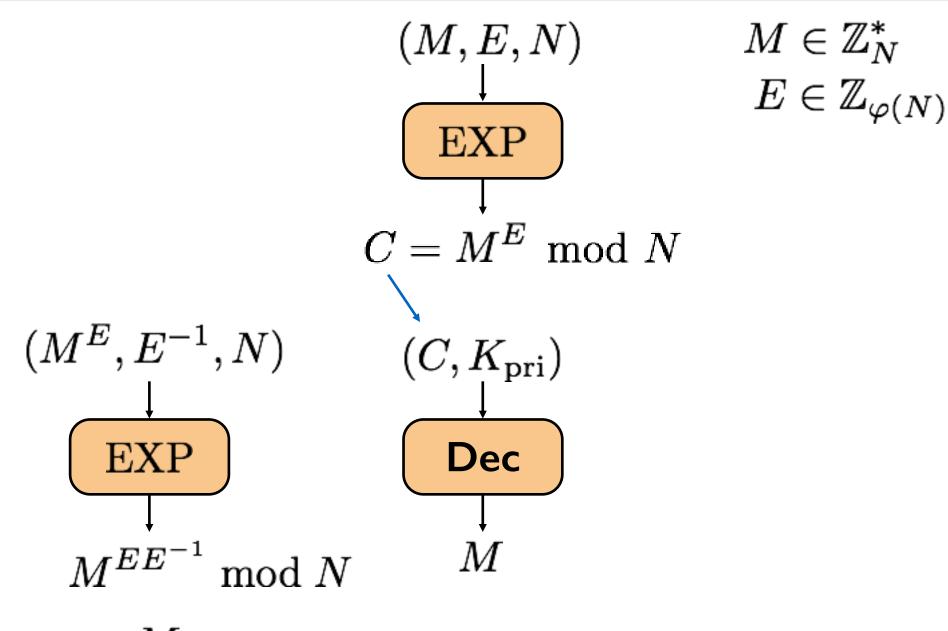
Discovered RSA system 3 years before them. Remained secret until 1997. (classified information)

In 
$$\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}$$
  
 $(B, E, N) \longrightarrow \mathbb{EXP} \longrightarrow B^{E} \mod N$  easy  
 $(B^{E}, E, N) \longrightarrow \mathbb{ROOT}_{E} \longrightarrow B$  seems  
hard  
What if we encode using EXP ?  $(M = B) \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}$   
Public key can be  $(E, N)$  . and  $E \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}$   
 $M, K_{\text{pub}}) = (M, E, N) \longrightarrow \mathbb{Enc} \longrightarrow M^{E} \mod N$   
 $= C$ 

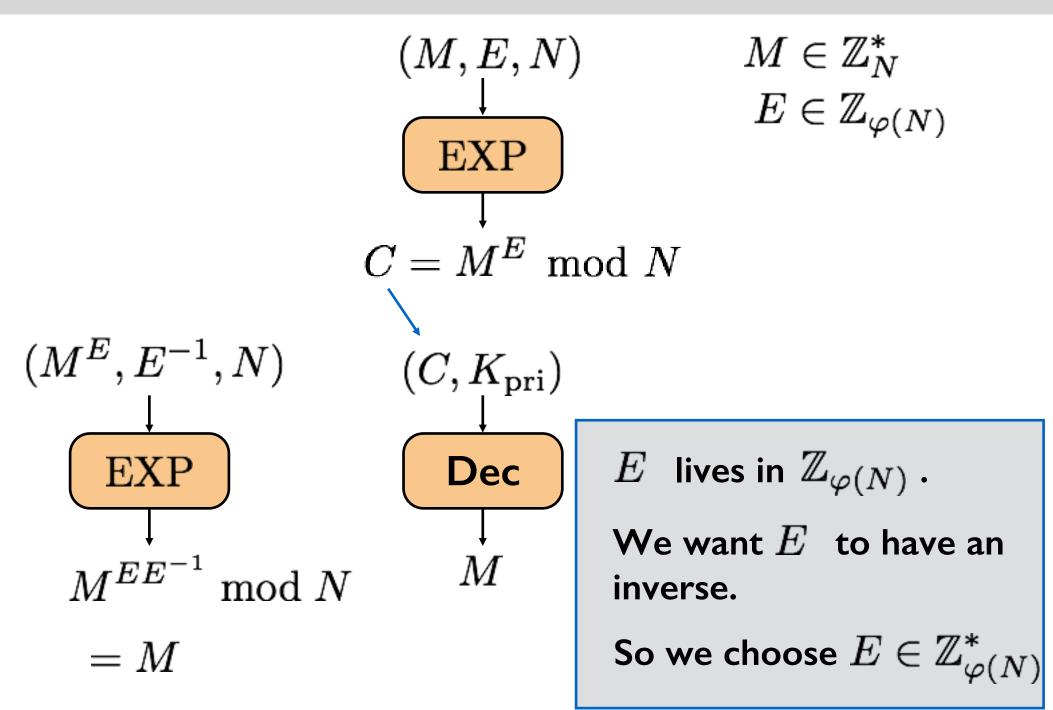


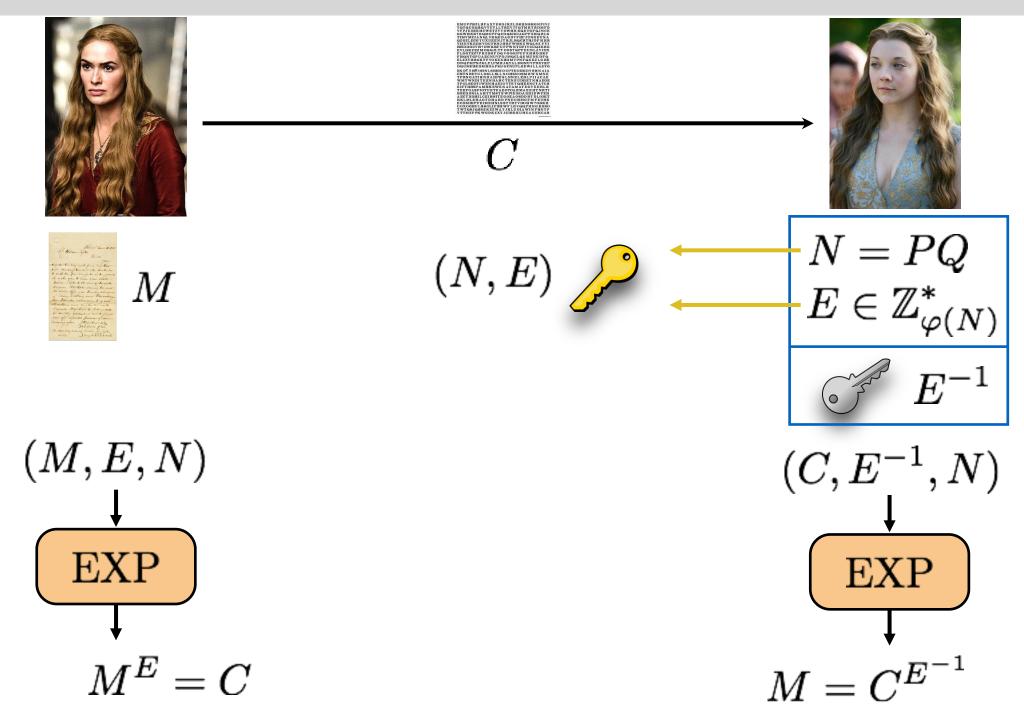
(M, E, N)EXP  $C = M^E \mod N$  $(C, K_{\rm pri})$ Dec M

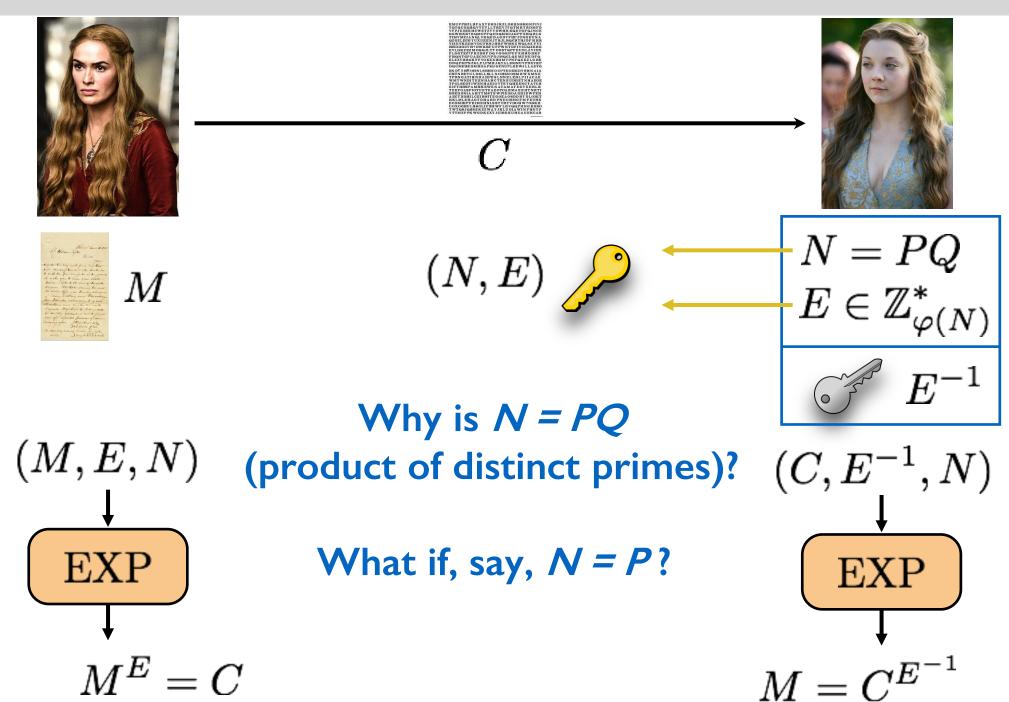
 $M \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  $E \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}$ 



= M







## How to choose N

How does Margaery compute  $E^{-1}$ ? Computing  $E^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$  is easy if you know  $\varphi(N)$ She knows P and Q, so  $\varphi(PQ) = (P-1)(Q-1)$ .

If the adversary can compute  $E^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$ , we are screwed!

Adversary sees (N, E). Can he compute  $\varphi(N)$ ? We believe this is computationally hard.

If the adversary can factor N efficiently, he can also compute  $\varphi(N)$ .



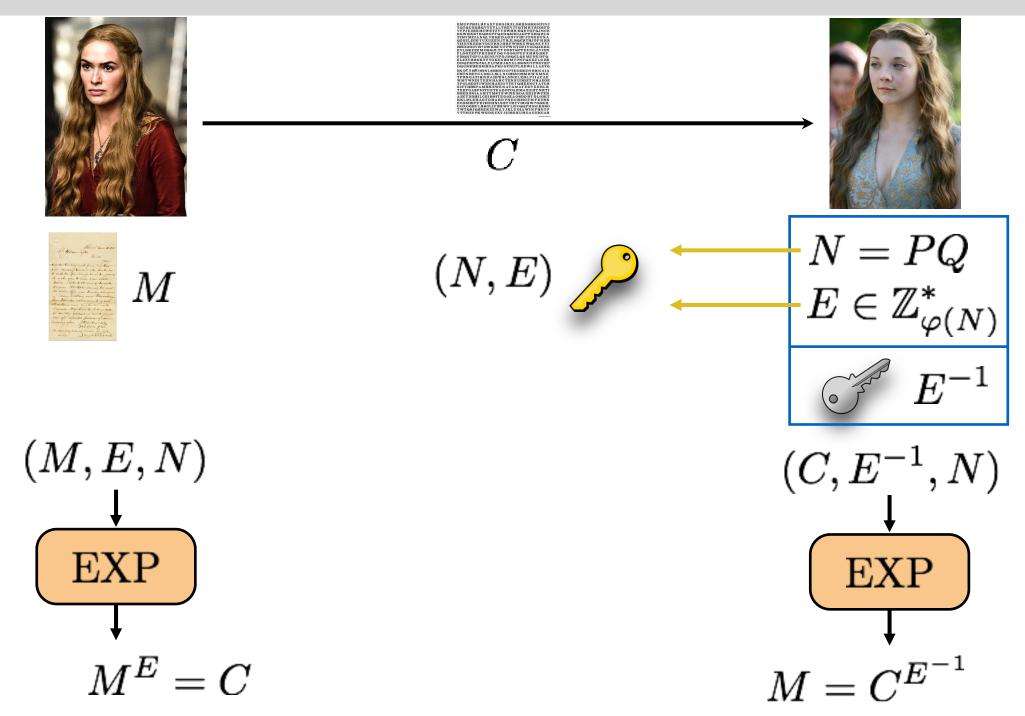
N = PQ

 $E \in \mathbb{Z}^*_{\varphi(N)}$ 

 $(C, E^{-1}, N)$ 

EXP

 $E^{-1}$ 

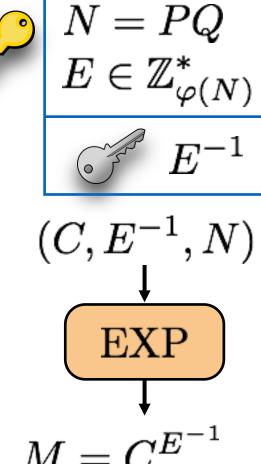


## **Secure**?

The advantage Margaery has over the adversary is that she can compute  $\varphi(N)$ . (and therefore  $E^{-1}$ )

If the adversary can factor N efficiently, he can also compute  $\varphi(N)$ . (and therefore  $E^{-1}$ )



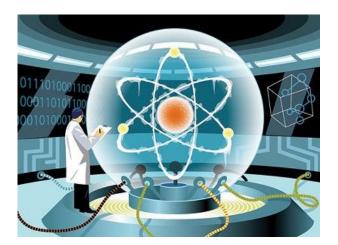


## **Concluding remarks**

A variant of this is widely used in practice.

## From N, if we can efficiently compute $\varphi(N)$ , we can crack RSA.

If we can factor N, we can compute  $\varphi(N)$ .



Quantum computers can factor efficiently.

Is this the only way to crack RSA? We don't know!

So we are really <u>hoping</u> it is secure.

## Study Guide



Modular Arithmetic:

- fast exponentiation
- generators
- hardness of root and logarithm (mod n)
- exp as a one-way func.

#### Cryptographic Algorithms:

- Cesar Cypher
- One Time Pad
- Diffie Hellman
  - (Secure Key Exchange)
- RSA

(Public Key Encryption)