

## 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  $\gcd(n, m) = 1$ , 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.

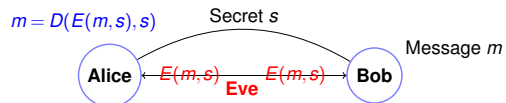
$1 \oplus 1 = 0$   
 $1 \oplus 0 = 1$   
 $0 \oplus 1 = 1$   
 $0 \oplus 0 = 0$

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.

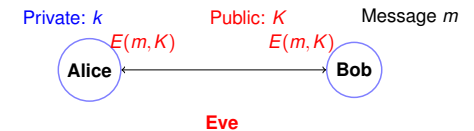
**Disadvantages:**

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?

No. In a sense. One can try every message to "break" system. Too slow. Does it have to be slow? We don't really know.  
...but we do public-key cryptography constantly!!!

RSA (Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman)

Pick two large primes  $p$  and  $q$ . Let  $N = pq$ .

Choose  $e$  relatively prime to  $(p-1)(q-1)$ .<sup>1</sup>

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!

<sup>1</sup>Typically 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:  $-119 + 120 = 1$

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

## Repeated Squaring: $x^y$

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

1.  $x^y$ : Compute  $x^1, x^2, x^4, \dots, x^{2^{\lfloor \log y \rfloor}}$ .

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.

## 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.

## Decoding.

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

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

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

## 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.

## 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...

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

## 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)  $2^{15} = 2 \pmod 7$

(F)  $2^{15} = 1 \pmod 7$

(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

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

### ...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  $p$ .  
 $x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv x \pmod{p}$   $x^{1+k(q-1)(p-1)} - x$  is multiple of  $p$  and  $q$ .  
 $x^{1+k(q-1)(p-1)} - x \equiv 0 \pmod{pq} \implies x^{1+k(q-1)(p-1)} = x \pmod{pq}$ .  $\square$

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

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

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

### 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:

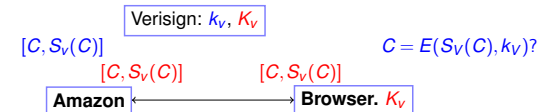
Bob encodes credit card number,  $c$ ,  
 concatenated with random  $k$ -bit number  $r$ .

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  $k_V = d \pmod{N = pq}$ .

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.

## RSA

Public Key Cryptography:

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

Signature scheme:

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

## Summary.

Public-Key Encryption.

RSA Scheme:

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

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

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

Repeated Squaring  $\implies$  efficiency.

Fermat's Theorem  $\implies$  correctness.

Good for Encryption and Signature Schemes.

## 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  $x^d \pmod{N}$

## 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?**