

Week 4 - Friday

COMP 4290

Last time

- What did we talk about last time?
- Finished AES
- Public key cryptography
- Started number theory

Questions?

Project 1

Spencer Wilson Presents

More Number Theory!

Greatest common divisor

- The greatest common divisor or GCD of two numbers gives the largest factor they have in common
- Example:
 - $\text{GCD}(12, 18) =$
 - $\text{GCD}(42, 56) =$
- For small numbers, we can determine GCD by doing a complete factorization

Euclid's algorithm

- For large numbers, we can use Euclid's algorithm to determine the GCD of two numbers
- Algorithm $\text{GCD}(a, b)$
 1. If $b = 0$
 - Return a
 2. Else
 - $\text{temp} = a \bmod b$
 - $a = b$
 - $b = \text{temp}$
 3. Goto Step 1
- Example: $\text{GCD}(1970, 1066)$

Extended Euclid's algorithm

- We can extend Euclid's algorithm to give us the multiplicative inverse for modular arithmetic
- Example: Find the inverse of $120 \bmod 23$
- Let a be the number
- Let b be the modular base

Find Inverse(a, b)

$x = 0$

$lastx = 1$

$y = 1$

$lasty = 0$

while $b \neq 0$

$quotient = a \text{ div } b$

$temp = b$

$b = a \bmod b$

$a = temp$

$temp = x$

$x = lastx - quotient * x$

$lastx = temp$

$temp = y$

$y = lasty - quotient * y$

$lasty = temp$

Return $lastx$

Fermat's Little Theorem

- If p is prime and a is a positive integer not divisible by p , then:

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

Proof of Fermat's Theorem

- Assume a is positive and less than p
- Consider the sequence $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$
- If these are taken mod p , we will get (in a different order):
 - $1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1$
 - This bit is the least obvious part of the proof
 - However (because p is prime) if you add any non-zero element repeatedly, you will eventually get back to the starting point, covering all values (except 0) once
- Multiplying this sequence together gives:
 - $a \cdot 2a \cdot 3a \cdot \dots \cdot (p-1)a \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot (p-1) \pmod{p}$
 - $a^{p-1}(p-1)! \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$
 - $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Euler's in the mix too

- Euler's totient function is written $\phi(n)$
- $\phi(n)$ = the number of positive integers less than n and relatively prime to n (including 1)
- If p is prime, then $\phi(p) = p - 1$
- If we have two primes p and q (which are different), then:
$$\phi(pq) = \phi(p) \cdot \phi(q) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$$

Take that, Fermat

- **Euler's Theorem:**

For every a and n that are relatively prime,

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

- This generalizes Fermat's Theorem because $\phi(p) = p - 1$ if p is prime
- Proof is messier

RSA

RSA Algorithm

- Named for **R**ivest, **S**hamir, and **A**dleman
- Take a plaintext ***M*** converted to an integer
- Create a ciphertext ***C*** as follows:
$$C = M^e \bmod n$$
- Decrypt ***C*** back into ***M*** as follows:
$$M = C^d \bmod n = (M^e)^d \bmod n = M^{ed} \bmod n$$

The pieces

Term	Details	Source
M	Message to be encrypted	Sender
C	Encrypted message	Computed by sender
n	Modulus, $n = pq$	Known by everyone
p	Prime number	Known by receiver
q	Prime number	Known by receiver
e	Encryption exponent	Known by everyone
d	Decryption exponent	Computed by receiver
$\phi(n)$	Totient of n	Known by receiver

How it works

- To encrypt:
 $C = M^e \bmod n$
- e could be 3 and is often 65537, but is always publically known
- To decrypt:
 $M = C^d \bmod n = M^{ed} \bmod n$
- We get d by finding the multiplicative inverse of $e \bmod \phi(n)$
- So, $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

Why it works

- We know that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$
- This means that $ed = k\phi(n) + 1$ for some nonnegative integer k
- $M^{ed} = M^{k\phi(n) + 1} \equiv M \cdot (M^{\phi(n)})^k \pmod{n}$
- By Euler's Theorem
 $M^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- So, $M \cdot (M^{\phi(n)})^k \equiv M \pmod{n}$

An example

- $M = 26$
- $p = 17, q = 11, n = 187, e = 3$
- $C = M^3 \bmod 187 = 185$
- $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1) = 160$
- $d = e^{-1} \bmod 160 = 107$
- $C^d = 185^{107} \bmod 187 = 26$
- If you can trust my modular arithmetic

Why it's safe

- You can't compute the multiplicative inverse of e mod $\phi(n)$ unless you know what $\phi(n)$ is
- If you know p and q , finding $\phi(n)$ is easy
- Finding $\phi(n)$ is equivalent to finding p and q by factoring n
- No one knows an efficient way to factor a large composite number
 - Or they're not telling

Future risks

- Public key cryptography would come crashing down if
 - Advances in number theory could make RSA easy to break
 - Quantum computers could make it easy to factor large composites

Practical considerations

- Choose your primes carefully
 - $p < q < 2p$
 - But, the primes can't be too close together either
 - Some standards insist that p and q are **strong primes**, meaning that $p - 1 = 2m$ and $p + 1 = 2n$ where m and n have large prime factors
 - There are ways to factor poorly chosen pairs of primes
- Pad your data carefully
- Take the example of a credit card number
 - If you know a credit card number is encrypted using RSA using a public n and an e of 3, how do you discover the credit card number?

Upcoming

Next time...

- Key management
- Hash functions
- Colm Oneacre presents

Reminders

- Office hours today start late:
 - 2:30-5 instead of 1:45-4
- Keep reading 12.4
- Work on Project 1
 - Due tonight!