A very brief introduction to Cryptography

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Elements of a Cryptosystem

- $\mathcal{P} =$ the set of possible plaintexts
- C = the set of possible ciphertexts
- $\mathcal{K} =$ the keyspace (the set of possible keys)
- For eack $K \in \mathcal{K}$, there is an encryption function

 $e_{K}: \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$

and a decryption function

 $d_K : C \rightarrow P$

satisfying

 $d_{\mathcal{K}}(e_{\mathcal{K}}(x)) = x$ for all $x \in \mathcal{P}$.

Note that, for all K ∈ K, e_K must be an injective function, i.e.

$$x_1 \neq x_2 \Rightarrow e_K(x_1) \neq e_K(x_2).$$

Modular Arithmetic

- Let *m* be a positive integer. Given integers *a* and *b*, we say $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if b a is divisible by *m*.
- Every integer *a* is equivalent (mod *m*) to precisely one element *r* of $\{0, 1, ..., m-1\}$, and we refer to this element *r* as *a* mod *m*.
- We set $\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\}$, and we note that addition and multiplication can be defined as operations on \mathbb{Z}_m .
- For example, working in \mathbb{Z}_{26} we have

$$14 + 20 = 34 \equiv 8 \pmod{26}$$
,

and

$$5 \cdot 7 = 35 \equiv 9 \pmod{26}$$
.

Therefore, in \mathbb{Z}_{26} , 14 + 20 = 8 and $5 \cdot 7 = 9$.

 Under these operations, Z_m satisfies the properties required to be an Abelian group (and, in fact, a commutative ring).

Shift Cipher

- $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$ (or \mathbb{Z}_m)
- For all $K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}$ and $x \in \mathcal{P}$, define

$e_K(x)$	=	x + K	mod 26
$d_K(x)$	=	x - K	mod 26

• We use the following text-to-numeric conversion:

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

• Suppose K = 7. The plaintext 'ihavefoundthekey' will yield

which yields the ciphertext 'POHCLMVBUKAOLRLF'.

• To decrypt the message, we subtract 7 from each character (mod 26, of course). Alternatively, you can add 19 to each character (again, mod 26).

Cryptanalysis

- Cryptanalysis attempts to answer the question, "If Oscar is allowed to see the ciphertext, can he use this information to discover the plaintext?"
- For the shift cipher on \mathbb{Z}_{26} , there are only 26 possible keys, and therefore the decryption key can be found quickly using an exhaustive key search.
- The number of possible keys (i.e. the cardinality of the keyspace \mathcal{K}) becomes an important factor in constructing secure cryptosystems.

Substitution Cipher

- $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$
- $\mathcal{K} =$ the set of all permutations of $\{0, 1, \dots, 25\}$.
- $K \in \mathcal{K}$ is chosen at random and used as the encryption function.
- For example, one possible key is

a b c d e | f g h i j | k l m n o | p q r s t | u v w x y | z L T Y G N A O Q B W Z X D S I U E P H M C J V R F | K

 Given this key, the string "thisistheinput" is encrypted as "MQBHBHMQNBSUCM"

Security of Substitution Cipher

- There are 26! $\approx 4.03 \times 10^{26}$ possible keys, making an exhaustive key search infeasible.
- Unfortunately, simple techniques that do not need to exhaust the keyspace can be employed to decrypt this cipher so it is *not* secure.
- For instance, in English, **e** is the most common character, followed by **t**, **a**, **o**, **i**, **n**, **s**, **h**, **r**. Thus, if **Q** is the most common character in a ciphertext, it is probably the letter **e**.
- Further, the most common digrams in English are **TH**, **HE**, **IN**, etc. and the most common trigrams are **THE**, **ING**, **AND**, etc.
- This is precisely why the substitution cipher used in many of the puzzles in newspapers.

Exercise: Decrypting a Substitution Cipher

 Attempt to decode the following message that was encoded using a substitution cipher. When you have decrypted it, tell me what the plaintext message was.
 onndtcn nk udikud nbd lkxxkawzp tdggopd nbon aog dzikudu jgwzp o gjqgnwnjnwkz iwcbdh abdz mkj bovd udihmcndu wn ndxx td abon nbd cxowzndfn tdggopd

aog • Get the text here

• You may find this website helpful:

http://substitution.webmasters.sk/simple-substitution-cipher.php

• Check with me once you think you have it, but don't spoil it for anyone else by telling them the answer!

Vigenère Cipher

- $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}^m$
- The plaintext is arranged into 'vectors' of length *m*, and then the chosen vector *K* is added to each vector.
- With m = 5 and K = (17, 7, 5, 10, 11) (or **rhfkl**), the plaintext 'ihavefoundtheproblem' will produce

Х	8	7	0	21	4	5	14	20	13	3	19	7	4	15	17	14	1	11	4	12
+	17	7	5	10	11	17	7	5	10	11	17	7	5	10	11	17	7	5	10	11
$e_K(x)$	25	14	5	5	15	22	21	25	23	14	10	14	9	25	2	5	8	16	14	23

which yields the ciphertext 'ZOFFPWVZXOKOJZCFIQOX'.

 As with the substitution cipher, there are well-known techniques to crack a Vigenère cipher so it is not secure.

One-Time Pad

- A one-time pad is exactly like a Vigenère cipher except that the length of the key is the same as the length of the plaintext.
- As long as the key is not compromised, it is unbreakable (*unconditionally secure*, provides *perfect secrecy*) since every possible plaintext is equally likely to be correct.
- The downside is that a very lengthy key needs to be exchanged and kept secret.
- **Example:** If you can decode this message, you will get an A in this course: **Icncwyyfhia**.

Public-key Cryptography

- So far, the cryptosystems we have seen use a secret key *K* that is shared between those who wish to communicate.
- Another way to think about them is that if you know how a message was encrypted, then you have enough information to decrypt it.
- These are called **private-key** or **symmetric** cryptosystems.
- In **public-key (or asymmetric) cryptography**, the full details of the encryption function e_{κ} can be known publicly. The cryptosystem is designed so that it is computationally infeasible to determine d_{κ} from e_{κ} without additional information.
- The clear advantage is that no key needs to be shared between two people in order for them to communicate securely.

One-way Functions and Trapdoors

- An injective function *f* : *P* → *C* is called a **one-way** function if it is easy to compute *f*(*x*) for all *x*, but, given *y* it is hard to find *x* such that *f*(*x*) = *y*.
- For public-key cryptography, we need the encryption function e_K to be a one-way function with a trapdoor.
- A **trapdoor** consists of secret information that makes inversion of a one-way function easy.
- Thus, what is needed for public-key cryptography is a **trapdoor one-way function**.

Facts about \mathbb{Z}_n

- For a positive integer n, φ(n) is defined as the number of integers in {0, 1, 2, ..., n − 1} that are relatively prime to n.
- An element a ∈ Z_n is invertible under multiplication if and only if gcd(a, n) = 1.
- The inverse of an element a ∈ Z_n is the number b ∈ Z_n such that a ⋅ b mod n = 1. We denote the inverse of a as a⁻¹.
- Let

$$\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{ a \in \mathbb{Z}_n : a^{-1} \text{ exists in } \mathbb{Z}^n \}.$$

Then \mathbb{Z}_n^* is a group under multiplication, and $|\mathbb{Z}_n^*| = \phi(n)$.

More about $\phi(n)$

- If p is prime, then $\phi(p) = p 1$.
- If p is prime and $e \ge 2$, then $\phi(p^e) = p \cdot \phi(p^{e-1})$.
- If *p* is prime and $e \ge 1$, then $\phi(p^e) = p^e p^{e-1}$.
- If *p* and *q* are relatively prime, then $\phi(pq) = \phi(p)\phi(q)$.
- If $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_k^{e_k}$ is a prime factorization,

$$\phi(\mathbf{n}) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} (p_i^{\mathbf{e}_i} - p_i^{\mathbf{e}_i - 1}).$$

 We will need this later: Theorem: If b ∈ Z^{*}_n, then b^{φ(n)} ≡ 1 (mod n).

Euclidean Algorithm

- The Euclidean Algorithm solves two problems:
 - ► Given positive integers *a* and *b*, find gcd(*a*, *b*).
 - Given positive integers b and n with gcd(b, n) = 1, find b⁻¹ in Z_n.
- **Example:** Compute gcd(70, 26).

 $70 = 2 \times 26 + 18$ $26 = 1 \times 18 + 8$ $18 = 2 \times 8 + 2$ $8 = 4 \times 2 + 0$

When the remainder is 0, the GCD is the number on the right side of the \times . Thus, gcd(70, 26) = 2.

Euclidean Algorithm to find a^{-1}

Example: To find 11^{-1} in \mathbb{Z}_{26} .

• First, computer *gcd*(26, 11) using Euclidean algorithm.

1 + 4	11	\times	2	=	26
1 + 3	4	\times	2	=	11
3 + 1	3	\times	1	=	4
1 + 0	1	\times	3	=	3

• Next, do substitutions backwards to find a^{-1} .

$$1 = 4 - (1 \times 3)$$

$$1 = 4 - (1 \times (11 - 2 \times 4)) = 3 \times 4 - 11$$

$$1 = 3 \times (26 - 2 \times 11) - 11 = 3 \times 26 - 7 \times 11$$

Thus, $-7 \times 11 \equiv 1 \mod 26$, so $11^{-1} \mod 26 = (26 - 7) = 19$.

RSA

- Let *p* and *q* be distinct odd primes. Let n = pq.
- We have $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$.
- $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathbb{Z}_n$.
- $\mathcal{K} = \{(n, p, q, a, b) : ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}\}.$
- For $x \in \mathcal{P}$ and $y \in \mathcal{C}$, define

$$e_{\mathcal{K}}(x) = x^b \mod n,$$

and

$$d_K(y) = y^a \mod n.$$

- Public key: *n* and *b*.
- Private information: p, q, a.

Why RSA works

- $e_{\mathcal{K}}(x) = x^b \mod n$ where $d_{\mathcal{K}}(y) = y^a \mod n$ and $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$.
- We need to show that decryption "works,", i.e. that for all x, $d_{\kappa}(e_{\kappa}(x)) = x$. This amounts to showing that

$$(x^b)^a \equiv x \pmod{n}$$
 for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

• If $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$, then

$$(x^b)^a \equiv x^{ab} \equiv x^{\phi(n)t+1} \equiv (x^{\phi(n)})^t x \equiv 1^t x \equiv x \pmod{n}.$$

• If $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{\mathbb{Z}_n^* \cup 0\}$ (That is, *x* has either *p* or *q* as a factor), then it can also be shown that $(x^b)^a \equiv x \pmod{n}$, but it is more complicated.

Example of RSA

- Suppose *n* = 98069 and *b* = 36119.
- If the plaintext is x = 76111, then

 $e_{\mathcal{K}}(x) = 76111^{36119} \mod 98069 = 91332.$

 With the additional information that n = 98069 = 281 · 349, Bob can compute φ(n) = 280 · 348 = 97440, and then compute

$$36119^{-1} \mod 97440 = 839.$$

Then

$$d_{\mathcal{K}}(91332) = 91332^{839} \mod 98069 = 76111.$$

RSA Excercise

Assume you know the following

n = 42876092449717

b = 33389740312697 (encryption key)

$$e_k(x) = 37247990695057$$
 (cipher text)

Find the plaintext x. • Get the values here

- Hint: Factor *n*, compute φ(n), compute a = b⁻¹ (mod φ(n)), and finally compute x.
- You may use WolframAlpha or similar tool for your computations.

Security of RSA

- RSA is believed to be secure for large primes *p* and *q*.
- $e_{\mathcal{K}}(x) = x^b \mod n$ is believed to be a one-way function.
- The trapdoor is the factorization of *n* as *pq*.
- If someone knows *p* and *q*, they can compute φ(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1), and thereby compute *a* using the extended Euclidean algorithm.

Implementation

- The primes *p* and *q* must be chosen large enough so that factoring *n* is computationally infeasible. For safety, *p* and *q* are typically primes that require 512 bits to represent them in binary.
- Let *n* be a *k*-bit integer. RSA requires
 - ▶ modular addition and subtraction mod *n* (takes *O*(*k*) time),
 - modular multiplication mod n (takes $O(k^2)$ time), and
 - modular inversion mod n (takes ($O(k^3)$) time).
- Computing x^c mod n can be done using c 1 modular multiplications, but this is very inefficient if c is large.
- Instead, we use the SQUARE AND MULTIPLY ALGORITHM, which runs in time $O(k^2 \log c)$.

Repeated Squaring

- Computing *x^c* mod *n* using square and multiply algorithm is pretty straightforward.
- Intuitively, we express *c* in binary as c_{ℓ-1}c_{ℓ-2} · · · c₁c₀, then compute x^c mod *n* by computing

$$X^{c_0}(X^{c_1}(X^{c_2}(\cdots(X^{c_{\ell-1}})^2\cdots)^2)^2)^2)$$

• For example, to compute $3^{57} \mod 7$, we write $57 = 111001_2$. Then

$$3^{57} = 3^{32}3^{16}3^83^1 = 3(((3(3(3)^2)^2)^2)^2)^2)^2$$

From this, we can see that $3^{57} \mod 7 = 6$.

RSA Implementation and Parameter Generation

- Choose two large primes *p* and *q*.
- Set n = pq and $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$. This can be done in time $O((\log n)^2)$.
- Choose a random *b* with $gcd(b, \phi(n)) = 1$, and compute $a = b^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$. This can be done in time $O((\log n)^2)$ using the EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM.
- RSA encryption and decryption using the SQUARE AND MULTIPLY ALGORITHM each take time $O((\log n)^3)$.

Related Topics

- Hashing (How do you store passwords so that they cannot be retrieved?)
- Digital Signatures (How can you authenticate the sender of a message?)
- Key Distribution (How do you exchange private keys over a public channel?)
- Identification Schemes (How do you prove you are who you say you are?)
- Secrete Sharing Schemes (How do you require that (for instance) two of three people be present to open a safe?)
- Zero Knowledge Proofs (How do you convince someone that a statement is true without revealing *any* information beyond the fact that the statement is true?)