COMP170 Discrete Mathematical Tools for Computer Science Intro to Crypto and Mod

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Discrete Math for Computer Science K. Bogart, C. Stein and R.L. Drysdale Section 2.1, pp. 43-54

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from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/G._H._Hardy



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and

"... then the great bulk of higher mathematics is useless. Modern Geometry and algebra, the theory of numbers, the theory of aggregates and functions, relativity, quantum mechanics — no one of them stands the test much better than another, . . ."

If he could see the world now, G.H. Hardy would be spinning in his grave.

Number theory, introduced in this lecture, is the basis of modern coding theory.

Computer security and e-commerce would be *impossible* without it.

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At one point, not long ago, the largest employer of mathematicians in the United States, and therefore probably the world, was the National Security Agency (NSA). The NSA is the largest spy agency in the US – bigger than the CIA – and has the responsibility for code design and breaking.

(Euclid's Division Theorem)

Let n be a positive integer. Then for every integer m, there exist unique integers q and r such that m = nq + r and $0 \le r < n$.

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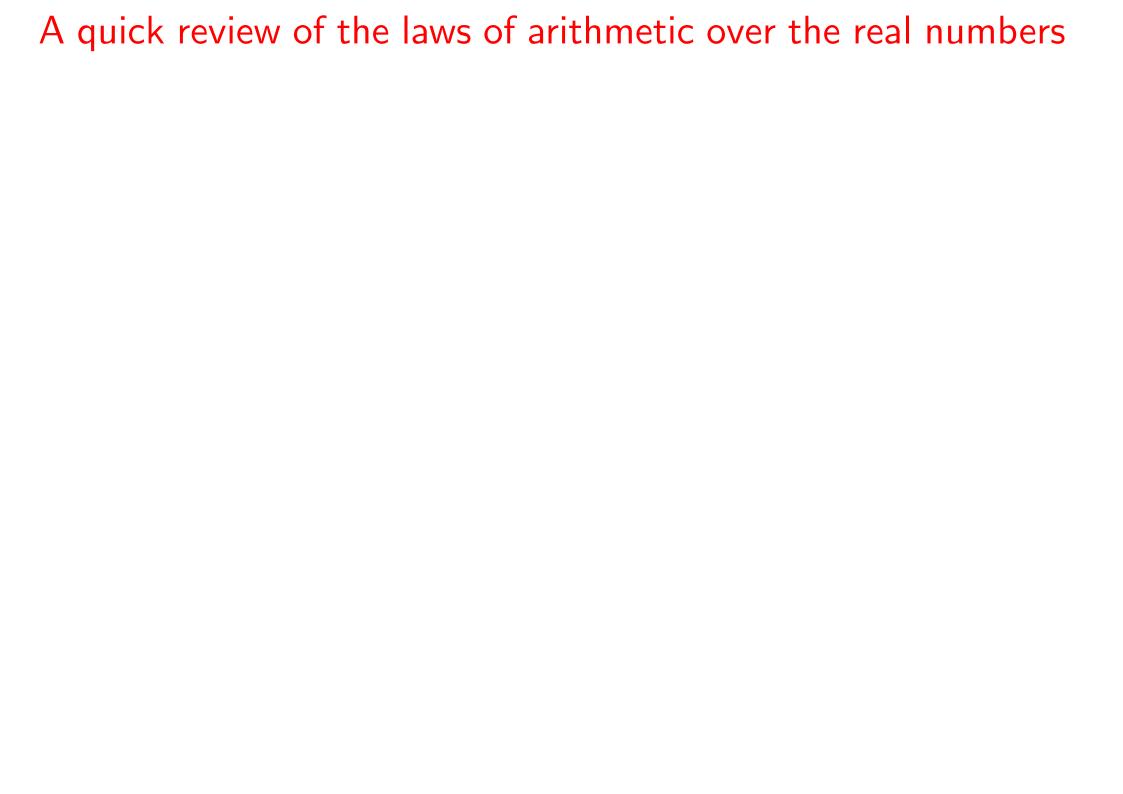
Let n be a positive integer. Then for every integer m, there exist unique integers q and r such that m = nq + r and $0 \le r < n$.

This will be proven in next lecture. It says that $m \mod n$ is *uniquely* defined.

- Arithmetic Modulo n
- Introduction to Cryptography

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• The commutative laws for addition and multiplication

$$a+b=b+a;$$
 $ab=ba$

Ex:
$$3 + 7.2 = 7.2 + 3$$
; $3 \cdot 5 = 5 \cdot 3$.

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The associative laws for addition and multiplication

$$a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c;$$
 $a(bc) = (ab)c$
Ex: $5 + (3 + 7) = (5 + 3) + 7;$ $5 \cdot (3 \cdot 7) = (5 \cdot 3) \cdot 7$

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$$(a+b)c = ac + bc$$

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- Every number a has an additive inverse -a such that a+(-a)=0. Ex: 5+(-5)=0.
- Every number $a \neq 0$ has a multiplicative inverse a^{-1} s.t. $aa^{-1} = 1$. Ex: $5 \cdot \frac{1}{5} = 1$.

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Definition (2nd version);

For an integer m and positive integer n, $m \bmod n$ is the smallest nonnegative integer r such that, for some integer q, m = nq + r.

 $25 \mod 4 = 1$ because $25 = 4 \cdot 6 + 1$ and any other way of writing $25 = 4 \cdot q + r$ would have an r bigger than 1.

 $-25 \mod 4 = 3$ because $-25 = 4 \cdot (-7) + 3$ and any other way of writing $-25 = 4 \cdot q + r$ would have an r bigger than 3. (why?)

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Note: In general, except if
$$[m \mod n] = 0$$
,
$$[(-m) \mod n] = n - [m \mod n] \quad \text{so}$$

$$[(-m) \mod n] \neq [m \mod n] \quad \text{unless}$$

$$[m \mod n] = n/2.$$

```
Compute
21 mod 9
38 mod 9
(21 · 38) mod 9
(21 mod 9) · (38 mod 9)
(21 + 38) mod 9
(21 mod 9) + (38 mod 9)
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Compute 21 \mod 9 3 38 \mod 9 (21 \cdot 38) \mod 9 (21 \mod 9) \cdot (38 \mod 9) (21 + 38) \mod 9 (21 \mod 9) + (38 \mod 9)
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It looks as if [(ab) \bmod n] = [(a \bmod n) \cdot (b \bmod n)] and [(a+b) \bmod n] = [(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)]
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Is this true?

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So what is happening here?

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Both true, since adding multiples of n to i does not change the value of the *remainder*, $i \mod n$.

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Lemma 2.2

 $i \bmod n = (i + kn) \bmod n$ for all integers k.

$$i \bmod n = (i+2n) \bmod n$$
? $i \bmod n = (i-3n) \bmod n$?

Both true, since adding multiples of n to i does not change the value of the *remainder*, $i \mod n$.

Lemma 2.2

 $i \bmod n = (i + kn) \bmod n$ for all integers k.

Proof:

- By Euclid's Division Theorem, i = nq + r (*), for *unique* integers q and r, with $0 \le r < n$.
- By (*) and definition of mod, $r = i \mod n$.
- Adding kn to both sides, i + kn = n(q + k) + r (**).
- From (**), Eucid's div thm and definition of mod, $r = (i + kn) \mod n$, and we are done.

```
(i+j) \mod n = (i+(j \mod n)) \mod n= ((i \mod n) + j) \mod n= ((i \mod n) + (j \mod n)) \mod n,
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(i+j) \bmod n = (i+(j \bmod n)) \bmod n= ((i \bmod n) + j) \bmod n= ((i \bmod n) + (j \bmod n)) \bmod n
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$$(i \cdot j) \mod n = (i \cdot (j \mod n)) \mod n$$

= $((i \mod n) \cdot j) \mod n$
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$$(i+j) \mod n = (i+(j \mod n)) \mod n$$
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Proof:

We prove that item on left is equal to bottom item on right. Proofs of all other equalities are very similar.

$$(i+j) \mod n = (i+(j \mod n)) \mod n$$
$$= ((i \mod n) + j) \mod n$$
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Proof:

We prove that item on left is equal to bottom item on right. Proofs of all other equalities are very similar.

By Euclid's Division Theorem, for unique q_1 and q_2 , $i = (i \bmod n) + q_1 n$ and $j = (j \bmod n) + q_2 n$.

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By Euclid's Division Theorem, for unique q_1 and q_2 , $i = (i \bmod n) + q_1 n$ and $j = (j \bmod n) + q_2 n$.

Adding these 2 equations together mod n and using Lemma 2.2,

$$(i + j) \mod n = ((i \mod n) + q_1 n + (j \mod n) + q_2 n) \mod n$$

= $((i \mod n) + (j \mod n) + n(q_1 + q_2)) \mod n$
= $((i \mod n) + (j \mod n)) \mod n$.

 Z_n is the set of integers $\{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$ with addition mod n

addition
$$\mod n$$
 $i+_n j=(i+j) \mod n$ and $i\cdot_n j=(i\cdot j) \mod n$

 Z_n is the set of integers $\{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$ with multiplication mod n $i \cdot_n j = (i \cdot j) \mod n$

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- If $x, y \in Z_n$, we use $x +_n y$ and $x \cdot_n y$ to perform algebraic operations on x, y.

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- If $x, y \in Z_n$, we use $x +_n y$ and $x \cdot_n y$ to perform algebraic operations on x, y.
- Additive identity property: $0 +_n i = i$. Multiplicative identity property: $1 \cdot_n i = i$.

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- If $x, y \in Z_n$, we use $x +_n y$ and $x \cdot_n y$ to perform algebraic operations on x, y.
- $0 +_{n} i = i$. Additive identity property: Multiplicative identity property: $1 \cdot_n i = i$.
- $a -_n b$ denotes $a +_n (-b)$.

Addition and multiplication mod n satisfy the **commutative**, **associative** and **distributive** laws.

Addition and multiplication $\bmod n$ satisfy the **commutative**, **associative** and **distributive** laws.

Proof: Commutativity of $+_n$ and \cdot_n follows immediately from commutativity of ordinary addition and multiplication. We prove the associative law for addition in the following equations; the other laws follow similarly.

Addition and multiplication $\bmod n$ satisfy the **commutative**, **associative** and **distributive** laws.

$$a +_n (b +_n c) \bigoplus (a + (b +_n c)) \bmod n$$

$$i +_n j = (i + j) \mod n$$
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$$= (a + ((b + c)) \mod n) \mod n$$

$$= (a + (b + c)) \mod n$$

$$\bigoplus ((a + b) + c) \mod n$$

Associative law for ordinary sums.

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2.1 Cryptography and Modular Arithmetic

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- Introduction to Cryptography
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Introduction to Cryptography

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A difficult goal!

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This cipher is named after the Roman emperor **Julius Caesar** (b. 100BC, d. 44BC). Caesar supposedly used this type of cipher (with a shift of 3) to communicate with his generals.

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Plaintext message: ONE IF BY LAND AND TWO IF BY SEA.
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Plaintext message: ONE IF BY LAND AND TWO IF BY SEA.

Ciphertext: SRI MJ FC PERH ERH XAS MJ FC WIE.
```

Sender and receiver agree in advance on a secret code and then send messages using that code.

Caesar cipher: A private-key cryptosystem in which letters of the alphabet are shifted (circularly) by some fixed amount.

Original message is called plaintext and the encoded text is called ciphertext.

```
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
E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D
Plaintext message: ONE IF BY LAND AND TWO IF BY SEA.

Ciphertext: SRI MJ FC PERH ERH XAS MJ FC WIE.
```

Easy to implement using arithmetic mod 26.

Q: What does the numerical representation of this word become if we shift every letter 2 places to the right?

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Q: What if we shift every letter 13 places to the right?

A: Replace n by $(n+13) \mod 26$, \Rightarrow SEA becomes $5 \ 17 \ 13$.

A Caesar cipher with shift s can easily be implemented on most computers by replacing each "letter" n with $(n+s) \mod 26$. Most computer languages can easily convert between text and numbers, and provide predefined \mod functions.

• E.G. To shift each letter 2 to the right, replace n by $n' = (n+2) \mod 26$, \Rightarrow SEA becomes $20 \ 6 \ 2$.

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Easy: Replace n' by $(n'-s) \mod 26$,

- E.G. If s=2, then a received 20 6 2 becomes $18 \ 4 \ 0$ which is SEA.
- So, we've just seen how $+_n$ on Z_n (for n=26) can be used to implement **encrypting** and **decrypting** Caesar ciphers.

- A Caesar cipher has a private-key k
- To encode x, use the function $f_k(x) = x +_{26} k$
- To decode y, use the function $g_k(y) = y -_{26} k$
- Note that $g_k(y) = f_k^{-1}(y)$, i.e., g(f(x)) = x and f(g(y)) = y

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Alice

Bob

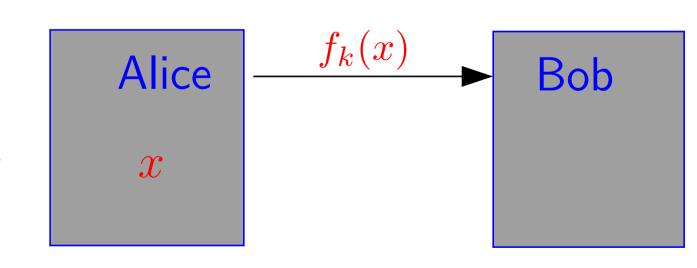
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- 0) Bob & Alice know k
- i) Alice has letter x

Alice

 \mathcal{X}

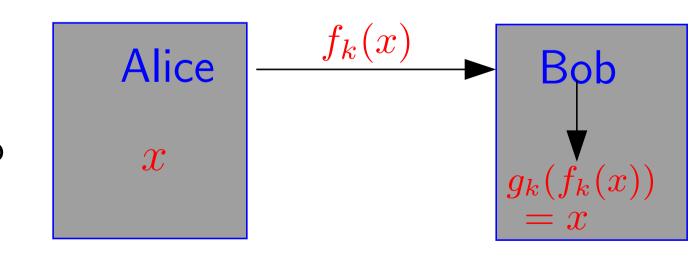
Bob

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- 0) Bob & Alice know k
- i) Alice has letter x
- ii) She sends $f_k(x)$ to Bob
- iii) Bob calculates

$$x = g_k(f_k(x))$$



2.1 Cryptography and Modular Arithmetic

- Arithmetic Modulo n
- Introduction to Cryptography
- Private-Key Cryptography
 - ullet Caesar Ciphers: Cryptography Using Addition $\bmod n$
 - ullet Cryptography Using Multiplication $\bmod n$
- Public-Key Cryptography

• We just saw how to use modular addition/subtraction to encrypt/decrypt. Now we'll discuss how to use modular multiplication. We assume that message is a *number*, M.

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Decrypt: "Divide" f(M) by $a \mod n$.

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• In order for this to work *division* must exist and define an inverse to multiplication., i.e.

$$g_{a,n}(f_{a,n}(M)) = M$$
 where $g_{a,n}(X) = a^{-1} \cdot_n X$

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Does division exist?

What exactly does division mod n mean?

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- (a) (a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12),
- (b) (a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12),
- (c) (a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)

 \mathcal{T}

Z_{12}	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
<i>1</i> 4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
•												

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(a)
$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
:

 \mathcal{X}

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(a)
$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 4 \cdot_{12} 3 = 0.$$

 ${\mathcal X}$

Z_{12}	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
<i>1</i> 4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
•												

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$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 4 \cdot_{12} 3 = 0.$$

Recipient receives 0.

 \mathcal{T}

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(a)
$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 4 \cdot_{12} 3 = 0.$$

Recipient receives 0.

Problem:

There are 4 values of x, (0,3,6,9), s. t. $a \cdot_{12} x = 0$.

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(a)
$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
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You send the message

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$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
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Problem:

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Recipient doesn't know which x you intended.

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(a)
$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 4 \cdot_{12} 3 = 0.$$

Recipient receives 0.

Problem:

There are 4 values of x, (0, 3, 6, 9), s. t. $a \cdot_{12} x = 0$.

Recipient doesn't know which x you intended.

 $\Rightarrow f^{-1}$ doesn't exist! Impossible to decrypt!

 \mathcal{X}

Z_{12}	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
<i>1</i> 3 │	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
•												

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(b)
$$(a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12)$$
:

 \mathcal{T}

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(b)
$$(a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 3 \cdot_{12} 6 = 6.$$

 \mathcal{X}

Z_{1}	2 0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
a 3	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	. 0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
	•											

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(b)
$$(a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 3 \cdot_{12} 6 = 6$$
.

Recipient receives 6.

 \mathcal{L}

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(b)
$$(a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 3 \cdot_{12} 6 = 6$$
.

Recipient receives 6.

Problem:

There are 3 values of x, (2, 6, 10), s. t. $a \cdot_{12} x = 6$.

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(b)
$$(a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 3 \cdot_{12} 6 = 6$$
.

Recipient receives 6.

Problem:

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$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

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You send the message

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Recipient receives 6.

Problem:

There are 3 values of x, (2, 6, 10), s. t. $a \cdot_{12} x = 6$.

Recipient doesn't know which x you intended.

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(b)
$$(a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 3 \cdot_{12} 6 = 6.$$

Recipient receives 6.

Problem:

There are 3 values of x, (2,6,10), s. t. $a \cdot_{12} x = 6$.

Recipient doesn't know which x you intended.

 $\Rightarrow f^{-1}$ doesn't exist! Impossible to decrypt!

 ${\mathcal X}$

Z_{12}	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
a 5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$
:

 \mathcal{X}

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 5 \cdot_{12} 7 = 11.$$

 ${\mathcal X}$

Z_{12}	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
a 5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$
:

You send the message $f(x) = 5 \cdot_{12} 7 = 11$.

Recipient receives 11.

 ${\mathcal X}$

Z_{12}	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
a 5 \mid	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4		6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 5 \cdot_{12} 7 = 11.$$

Recipient receives 11.

In fact,

7 is unique solution to

$$5 \cdot_{12} x = 11!$$

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$
:

You send the message

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Recipient receives 11.

In fact,

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$$5 \cdot_{12} x = 11!$$

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$
:

You send the message $f(x) = 5 \cdot_{12} 7 = 11$.

Recipient receives 11.

In fact,

7 is unique solution to

$$5 \cdot_{12} x = 11!$$

Recipient does know which x you intended.

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$
:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 5 \cdot_{12} 7 = 11.$$

Recipient receives 11.

In fact,

7 is unique solution to

$$5 \cdot_{12} x = 11!$$

Recipient does know which x you intended.

⇒ Recepient could decrypt this messsage!

Suppose, for some x, we had calculated $f(x) = a \cdot_n x$. Does f^{-1} exist?

(a)
$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
, (b) $(a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12)$,

(c)
$$(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$$

Suppose, for some x, we had calculated $f(x) = a \cdot_n x$. Does f^{-1} exist?

- (a) (a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12), (b) (a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12), (c) (a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)
 - We just saw that in cases (a) and (b), there is an $x' \neq x$ s.t. f(x') = f(x) so recipient would not be able to decrypt message. This means that we can not use this f(x) as an encoding function

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 - In case (c), given x, recipient could uniquely calculate x so f(x) might be a good encoding function.
 - f(x) can be used as an encoding function when f(x) has an inverse!

When does $f_{a,n}(x) = a \cdot_n x$ have an inverse?

 $f_{a,n}(x) = a \cdot_n x$ has an inverse if and only if a and n are relatively prime, i.e., they have no common factors greater than 1.

In the next lecture we will see what this means and how to use it to define division in \mathbb{Z}_n .

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- The security of **all** of them rely on the fact that the codebook is kept secret between the sender and receiver.

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- There are many other more sophisticated and secure types of private-key encryption, see, e.g., COMP364
- The security of all of them rely on the fact that the codebook is kept secret between the sender and receiver.
- What happens if codebook is lost or stolen?
 No good answer to this
 How can we distribute different codebooks
 to millions of customers?
 Problem in e-commerce where each customer

would need own codebook

- The Caesar cipher is a very simple form of private-key encryption. The *key* is the shift.
- There are many other more sophisticated and secure types of private-key encryption, see, e.g., COMP364
- The security of **all** of them rely on the fact that the codebook is kept secret between the sender and receiver.
- What happens if codebook is lost or stolen?
 No good answer to this
 How can we distribute different codebooks
 to millions of customers?
 Problem in e-commerce where each customer
 would need own codebook
- Motivation for Public-Key Cryptography

Public-Key Cryptosystems

• In **private-key cryptosystems** the sender and receiver *share* a private-key or codebook.

The same key is used for encypting and decrypting. Implicit assumption: knowing how a message is encypted implies knowing how to decrypt it

- In public-key cryptography this is no longer true. Everybody has two keys; a public key and a secret key.
- My public key: Known by all. Used to send me a message My secret key: Known only by me.
 Used to decrypt messages sent to me that were encrypted using my public key.
- Important: Even though everyone knows how messages sent to me were encrypted, only I can decrypt them.

Public-Key Cryptosystems

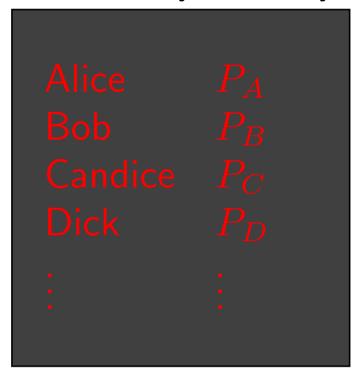
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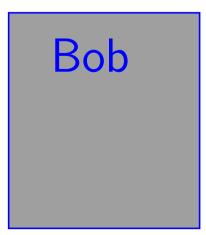
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The Black Pages
Public Key Directory



Alice
M



- i) Alice wants to send M to Bob
- ii) In public directory, Alice looks up Bob's Public Key, P_B

The Black Pages
Public Key Directory



Alice

M

Bob

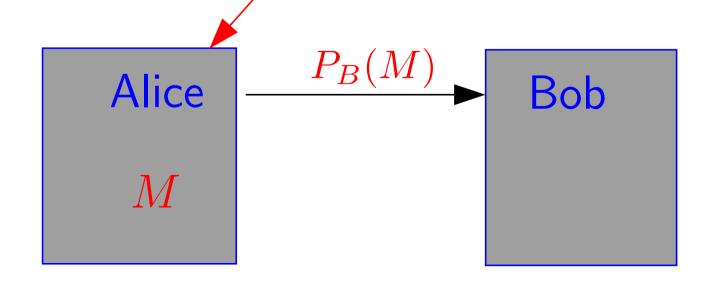
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ii) In public directory, Alice looks up Bob's Public Key, P_B

iii) Alice sends $P_B(M)$ to Bob

The Black Pages
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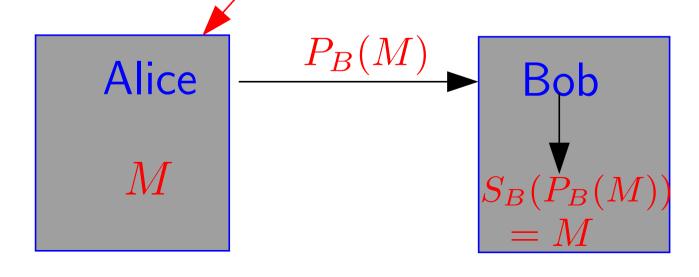




- i) Alice wants to send M to Bob
- ii) In public directory, Alice looks up Bob's Public Key, P_B
- iii) Alice sends $P_B(M)$ to Bob
- iv) Bob uses his Secret Key, S_B to decrypt $M = S_B(P_B(M))$

The Black Pages
Public Key Directory





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- Functions associated with KS_A , KP_A , KS_B , KP_B are S_A , P_A , S_B , and P_B . S_A and P_A are inverses; S_B and S_B are inverses; So, for any message M

$$M = S_A(P_A(M)) = P_A(S_A(M)),$$

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- Problem: this is *Not* secure, because *anyone* who knows public key, P_B , can figure out secret key S_B .

Challenge: In order for a public-key cryptosystem to work we must be able to find public/secret key pairs such that

- Receiver Bob can easily calculate $S_B(X)$
- No one else knowing **public key**, P_B , will easily be able to figure out our **secret key**, S_B .

Constructing such **pubic/secret key pairs** sounds almost impossible. Surprisingly, in the mid 1970s, Rivest, Shamir and Adelman, figured out how to do this using simple modular arithmetic.

The result is the **RSA Public Key Cryptosystem**, which is the basis for most e-commerce. We will learn its details in the lecture following the next one.