RSA, POLYNOMAILS, SECRET SHARING, ERASURE ERRORS

COMPUTER SCIENCE MENTORS 70

Feb 20 to Feb 27, 2017

RSA

1.1 Questions

1. How does RSA work?

a. Alice wants to send Bob a message m=5 using his public key (n=26, e=11). What cipher text E(m) will Alice send?

Solution:

$$5^{1} = 5 \mod 26$$

 $5^{2} = 5 \mod 26$
 $= -1 \mod 26$
 $5^{4} = (-1)^{2} \mod 26$
 $= 1 \mod 26$
 $5^{8} = 1 \mod 26$
 $5^{11} = 5^{8} * 5^{2} * 5^{1} \mod 26$
 $= 1 * -1 * 5 \mod 26$
 $= -5 \mod 26$
 $= 21 \mod 26$

b. What is the value of d (Bobs private key) in this scheme? Note that traditional RSA schemes use much larger prime numbers, so its harder to break n down into its prime factors than it is in this problem.

Solution:
$$n=26 o$$
 because $26=pq$ and $p\neq a*q$ for all a within integers, $p=13, q=2$
$$d=e^{-1}\mod(13-1)(2-1)$$

$$d=11^{-1}\mod12$$

$$d=11$$

2. In RSA, if Alice wants to send a confidential message to Bob, she uses Bobs public key to encode it. Then Bob uses his private key to decode the message. Suppose that Bob chose N=77. And then Bob chose e=3 so his public key is (3, 77). And then Bob chose d=26 so his private key is (26, 77).

Will this work for encoding and decoding messages? If not, where did Bob first go wrong in the above sequence of steps and what is the consequence of that error? If it does work, then show that it works.

Solution: e should be co-prime to (p-1)(q-1). e=3 is not co-prime to (7-1)(11-1)=60, so this is incorrect, since therefore e does not have an inverse $\mod 60$.

3. Coin tosses over text messages

You and one of your friends want to get your hands on the new gadget thats coming out. One of you has to wait in line overnight so that you have a chance to get the gadgets while they last. In order to decide who this person should be, you both agree to toss a coin. But you wont meet each other until the day of the actual sale and you have to settle this coin toss over text messages (using your old gadgets). Obviously neither of you trusts the other person to simply do the coin toss and report the results.

How can you use RSA to help fix the problem?

Solution: If there was a way for me to make my choice (i.e. toss the coin) without revealing to my friend what the result was before s/he makes her/his decision, then we would be in good shape. RSA enables us to do just that. One can commit to a choice without revealing what that choice really is. So here is how we proceed:

- 1. First I select a public key (N,e) and a private key d. I toss a coin, but instead of sending the result to my friend, I first encrypt it using the public key (N,e). Then I send my friend the public key along with the encrypted message.
- 2. My friend is supposedly (read the next part for why the word supposedly is used) unable to see what the result of the coin toss was and therefore cannot cheat. So s/he makes her/his choice (what HEADS and TAILS mean) and sends it to me.
- 3. Once I have successfully received the result, I reveal the result of the coin toss by sending my friend the result in plain text (i.e. with no encryption). My friend can now verify that I have not cheated (i.e. I have not changed the result) by encrypting the result using the public key I have given her/him and making sure it was the same as the encrypted message I send her/him. Note that RSA encryption and decryption are both bijections, therefore if I

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know the encrypted version of two messages are the same, then those two messages must be the same.

Note that I cannot cheat here, because I commit to the result of the coin toss before I know my friends choice. Commitment is a very useful primitive (used in many places in cryptography) that enables a party to convincingly commit to a choice without revealing it until they choose to reveal it. The party should not be able to change their mind after the commitment which is what the scheme guarantees.

2.1 Introduction

- 1. There is a unique polynomial of degree n-1 such that $P(i)=m_i$ for each packet m_1,\ldots,m_n
- 2. To account for errors we send $c_1 = P(1), \ldots, c_{n+j} = P(n+j)$
- 3. If polynomial P(x) has degree n-1 then we can uniquely reconstruct it from any n distinct points.
- 4. If a polynomial P(x) has degree n-1 then it can be uniquely described by its n coefficients

2.2 Questions

- 1. Define the sequence of polynomials by $P_0(x) = x + 12$, $P_1(x) = x^2 5x + 5$ and $P_n(x) = xP_{n-2}(x) P_{n-1}(x)$. (For instance, $P_2(x) = 17x 5$ and $P_3(x) = x^3 5x^2 12x + 5$.)
 - (a) Show that $P_n(7) \equiv 0 \pmod{19}$ for every $n \in N$.

Solution:

(a) Prove using strong induction.

Base Case There are two base cases because each polynomial is defined in terms of the two previous ones except for P_0 and P_1 .

$$P_0(7) \equiv 7 + 12 \equiv 19 \equiv 0 \pmod{19}$$

 $P_1(7) \equiv 7^2 - 5 \cdot 7 + 5 \equiv 49 - 35 + 5 \equiv 19 \equiv 0 \pmod{19}$

Inductive Hypothesis Assume $P_n(7) \equiv 0 \pmod{19}$ for every $n \leq k$.

Inductive Step Using the definition of P_{k+1} , we have that

$$P_{k+1}(7) \equiv x P_{k-1}(7) - P_k(7) \pmod{19}$$

 $\equiv x \cdot 0 - 0 \pmod{19}$
 $\equiv 0 \pmod{19}$

Therefore, $P_n(7) \equiv 0 \pmod{19}$ for all natural numbers n.

(b) Show that, for every prime q, if $P_{2013}(x) \not\equiv 0 \pmod{q}$, then $P_{2013}(x)$ has at most 2013 roots modulo q.

Solution: This question asks to prove that, for all prime numbers q, if $P_{2013}(x)$ is a non-zero polynomial \pmod{q} , then $P_{2013}(x)$ has at most 2013 roots \pmod{q} .

The proof of Property 1 of polynomials (a polynomial of degree d can have at most d roots) still works in the finite field GF(q). Therefore we need only show that P_{2013} has degree at most 2013. We prove that $\deg(P_n) \leq n$ for n > 1 by strong induction.

Base cases There are 4:

$$deg(P_0) = deg(x + 12) = 1$$

$$deg(P_1) = deg(x^2 - 5x + 5) = 2$$

$$deg(P_2) = deg(xP_0(x) - P_1(x)) \le 2$$

$$deg(P_3) = deg(xP_1(x) - P_2(x)) \le 3$$

Inductive Hypothesis Assume $deg(P_n) \le n$ for all $2 \le n \le k$. Inductive Step Then

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\deg(P_{k+1}(x)) \\ \leq \max\{\deg(xP_{k-1}(x)), \deg(P_k(x))\} \\ = \max\{1 + \deg(P_{k-1}(x)), \deg(P_k(x))\} \\ \leq \max\{1 + k - 1, k\} \\ \leq k \\ \leq k + 1
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3.1 Questions

- 1. Suppose the Oral Exam questions are created by 2 TAs and 3 Readers. The answers are all encrypted and we know that:
 - (a) Both TAs should be able to access the answers
 - (b) All 3 Readers can also access the answers
 - (c) One TA and one Reader should also be able to do the same

Design a secret sharing scheme to make this work.

Solution: Use a 2 degree polynomial which requires at least 3 shares to recover the polynomial. Generate a total of 7 shares, give each Reader a share, and each TA 2 shares. Then, all possible combinations will have at least 3 shares to recover the answer key. Basically the point of this problem is to assign different weights to different classes of people. If we give one share to everyone, then 2 Readers can also recover the secret and the scheme is broken.

2. The United Nations (for the purposes of this question) consists of n countries, each having k representatives. A vault in the United Nations can be opened with a secret combination s. The vault should only be opened in one of two situations. First, it can be opened if all n countries in the UN help. Second, it can be opened if at least m countries get together with the Secretary General of the UN.

Propose a scheme that gives private information to the Secretary General and n countries so that s can only be recovered under either one of the two specified conditions.

Solution: Have two schemes, one for the first condition and one for the second.

For the first condition: just one polynomial of degree n - 1 or less would do, where each country gets one point. The polynomial evaluated at 0 would give the secret.

For the second condition: one polynomial is created of degree m - 1 and a point is given to each country. Another polynomial of degree 1 is created, where one point is given to the secretary general and the second point can be constructed from the first polynomial if m or more of the countries come together. With these two points, we have a unique 1-degree polynomial, which could give the secret evaluated at 0.

4.1 Introduction

We want to send n packets and we know that k packets could get lost.

3 1 5 0 **→** 1 5 □

How many more points does Alice need to send to account for k possible errors? $_$

Solution: k

What degree will the resulting polynomial be? ___

Solution: n-1

How large should q be if Alice is sending n packets with k erasure errors, where each packet has b bits?

Solution: Modulus should be larger than n + k and larger than 2^b and be prime

What would happen if Alice instead send n+k-1? Why will Bob be unable to recover the message?

Solution: Bob will receive n-1 distinct points and needs to reconstruct a polynomial of degree n-1. By Fact #3 this is impossible. There are q polynomials of at most degree n-1 in GF(q) that go through the n-1 points that Alice sent.

4.2 Questions

1. Suppose A = 1, B = 2, C = 3, D = 4, and E = 5. Assume we want to send a message of length 3. Recover the lost part of the message, or explain why it can not be done.

Solution: P(0) = 3, P(2) = 1, P(3) = 1. Once we interpolate the polynomial over $\mod 7$, as E is 5, we get $5x^2 + 3x + 3$. Now, once we evaluate this at 1, we get 4. So, in the end, its CDAA.

2. CE__

Solution: Impossible. In order to get the original degree 2 polynomial, we need at least 3 > 2 points.

2. Suppose we want to send n packets, and we know p = 20% of the packets will be erased. How many extra packets should we send? What happens if p increases (say to 90%)?

Solution: We want to have (1-p)*(n+k) = n, where k is the number of additional packets we send. Solving for k, we get $\frac{n}{1-p} - n$. When p is large, we have to send many times the number of original packets. (fraction packets not erased)*(how many packets are sent) = (number packets in original message)