

6.857 Computer and Network Security
Lecture 11

Project Ideas:

- Evaluate encrypted email options (esp. ease-of-use)
- Overview of open-source crypto libraries

Today: More “crypto math”

- Finding large primes
- One-time mac
- Divisors, gcd, extended gcd, mult. Inverses
- Orders of elements
- Finding generators

- How to find large (k -bit) random prime #?

Generate & test: do $p \leftarrow$ random k -bit integer
until p is prime

- Works because primes are "dense":

about $2^k / \ln(2^k)$ k -bit primes (Prime Number Theorem)

\Rightarrow one of every $\approx 0.69k$ k -bit integers is prime.

- To test if a large randomly-chosen k -bit integer is prime, it suffices to test

$$2^{p-1} \stackrel{?}{=} 1 \pmod{p}$$

- This works with high probability (w.h.p) for random p ;

doesn't work for adversarially chosen p .

- See CLRS for Miller-Rabin primality test (randomized)

- Technically, above gives "base-2 pseudoprime", but this is almost always prime

- \exists deterministic poly-time primality test (Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena 2002):

$$\text{Test } (x-a)^p = x^p - a \pmod{p} \quad x \text{ variable}$$

which is true iff p is prime

Test mod p & mod $x^r - 1$ for small r & small a 's.

storage requirements?! (see handout)

One-time MAC (soln):

Idea:



$K = (a, b)$
 p public
 K is use-once

$$T = \text{MAC}_K(M) = ax + b \pmod{p}$$

$$[x=M] \quad (*)$$

Need two points to determine line; Eve hears just one: (M, T)

p large prime (e.g. $2^{128} + 51$)

key $K = (a, b)$ $0 \leq a < p$, $0 \leq b < p$ (p^2 keys)

Security:

If adversary hears (M, T) on the line,
 and replaces it with (M', T') $[M' \neq M]$,
 then Bob accepts with probability $1/p$.

PF: Hearing (M, T) reduces set of possible keys to
 those satisfying (*). Nonetheless, for each possible T' ,
 there is an (a, b) satisfying both (*) and

$$T = aM' + b \pmod{p} \quad (***)$$

all such keys are equally likely; Eve has no
 way to pick correct T' .

Details:

For fixed $M, M' [M \neq M']$, fixed T s.t.

$$aM + b = T \pmod{p} \quad (*)$$

For each T' , \exists exactly one key (a, b) s.t. $(*)$ and

$$aM' + b = T' \pmod{p} \quad (**)$$

holds:

$$a = (T - T') / (M - M') \pmod{p}$$

$$b = T - a \cdot M \pmod{p}$$

Thus Eve gains no information on $T' = \text{MAC}_K(M')$ by hearing (M, T) . Method is information-theoretically secure.

- True even if Eve can control M .
- Note that key K is twice as large as message M .

Divisors

- $d|a \equiv$ "d divides a" (evenly)
 $\equiv (\exists k) a = d \cdot k$
- d is a divisor of a if $d \geq 0$ & $d|a$
- $(\forall d) d|0$
- $(\forall a) 1|a$
- If d is a divisor of a & a divisor of b,
then d is a common divisor of a & b.
- The greatest common divisor of a & b is
the largest of their common divisors.
[But $\gcd(0, 0) = 0$ by definition.]
- Examples: $\gcd(24, 30) = 6$
 $\gcd(5, 0) = 5$
 $\gcd(33, 12) = 3$
- Def: a & b are relatively prime
if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$

- Euclid's algorithm for computing $\text{gcd}(a, b)$ [$a, b \geq 0$]:

$$\text{gcd}(a, b) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } b = 0 \\ \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- Example: $\text{gcd}(7, 5)$

$$= \text{gcd}(5, 2)$$

$$= \text{gcd}(2, 1)$$

$$= \text{gcd}(1, 0)$$

$$= 1$$

- Running time is $\approx \lg(a) \cdot \lg(b)$ bit operations

(Polynomial running time, like multiplying.)

Theorem $(\forall a, b) (\exists x, y) ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$

Proof "by example" $a=7, b=5$

$$\begin{aligned} 7 &= 7 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 0 \\ 5 &= 7 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 1 \\ 2 &= 7 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot (-1) \quad [\text{subtract 2 eqns}] \\ 1 &= 7 \cdot (-2) + 5 \cdot 3 \\ &= a x + b y \end{aligned}$$

This is the "extended version of Euclid's algorithm".

Computing modular multiplicative inverses with Euclid's extended alg:

Suppose $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ (so $1 \leq a < p$ & $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, p prime(?))

How to compute $a^{-1} \pmod{p}$?

If p prime: $a^{-1} = a^{p-2} \pmod{p}$

Otherwise:

Find x, y s.t. $ax + py = 1$

so $ax = 1 \pmod{p}$

and $x = a^{-1} \pmod{p}$

Example: $5^{-1} = 3 \pmod{7}$

Order of elements (in \mathbb{Z}_p^* or \mathbb{Z}_n^*):

Define: $\text{order}_n(a) = \text{"order of } a \text{, modulo } n"$
 $= \text{least } t > 0 \text{ s.t. } a^t \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Recall Fermat's Little Theorem:

If p prime, then $(\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*) a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

For general n , we have Euler's Theorem:

$$(\forall n)(\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*) a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

where $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{a : \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$
 $= \text{multiplicative group modulo } n$

$$\varphi(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$$

Example: $\mathbb{Z}_{10}^* = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$

$$\varphi(10) = 4$$

$$3^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$$

Thus $\varphi(n)$ is well-defined for all n , &

$\text{order}_n(a)$ is also well-defined.

Can we say more?

Example: mod $p = 7$

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	...
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	...
2	2	4	1	2	4	1	2	...
3	3	2	6	4	5	1	3	...
4	4	2	1	4	2	1	4	...
5	5	4	6	2	3	1	5	...
6	6	1	6	1	6	1	6	...

order(1) = 1
order(2) = 3
order(3) = 6
order(4) = 3
order(5) = 6
order(6) = 2

Fermat

Def: $\langle a \rangle = \{a^i : i \geq 0\}$ = subgroup generated by a

Example: $\langle 2 \rangle = \{2, 4, 1\}$ (in \mathbb{Z}_7^*)

Theorem: $\text{order}(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$

Theorem: If p prime: $\text{order}_p(a) \mid (p-1)$.

Theorem: $|\langle a \rangle| \mid |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$

or: $\text{order}_n(a) \mid \varphi(n)$ equivalently.

Generators

Def: If $\text{order}_p(g) = p-1$

then g is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* .

(i.e. $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$)

Theorem: If p is a prime and

g is a generator mod p , then

$$g^x = y \pmod{p}$$

has a unique solution x ($0 \leq x < p-1$)

for each $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$.

Def: x is the "discrete logarithm"

of y , base g , modulo p .

$$x = 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6$$

$$g^x = 3 \quad 2 \quad 6 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 1$$

for $g=3$, modulo 7.

Theorem: \mathbb{Z}_n^* has a generator

(i.e. \mathbb{Z}_n^* is cyclic)

iff n is

$2, 4, p^m$, or $2p^m$

for some prime p & $m \geq 1$.

\nwarrow odd

Theorem: If p is prime, the number
of generators mod p is $\varphi(p-1)$

Example: $p = 11$

\mathbb{Z}_{11}^* has $\varphi(10) = 4$ generators

(they are 2, 6, 7, and 8).

How to find a generator mod a prime p ?

In general, seems to require knowledge of
factorization of $p-1$.

While factoring is hard, we can create
primes for which factoring $p-1$ is trivial.

Def: If p & q are both primes &

$$p = 2q + 1$$

then p is a "safe prime" and

q is a "Sophie Germain prime".

Examples: $p = 23, q = 11 \quad p = 11, q = 5$

$$p = 59, q = 29$$

...

Theorem: If p is a safe prime

$$\text{then } p-1 = 2 \cdot q$$

$$\text{so } (\forall g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*) \text{ order}_p(g) \in \{1, 2, q, 2q\}.$$

It is not hard to find safe primes. ("Probability" that a prime p is safe is $\approx 1/\ln(p)$, empirically.)

Can test if g is a generator mod $p = 2q+1$ easily:

check that $g^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$ ✓ by Fermat

& $g^2 \neq 1 \pmod{p}$ [order_p(g) ≠ 2]

& $g^q \neq 1 \pmod{p}$ [order_p(g) ≠ q]

then order_p(g) = $p-1$.

We can use "generate & test" again: (for "safe prime" p)

$$\text{do } g \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^*$$

$$\text{until } \text{order}_p(g) = p-1$$

Generators are quite common:

Theorem: If $p = 2g + 1$ is a "safe prime"

$$\text{then } \# \text{ generators mod } p$$

$$= \varphi(p-1)$$

$$= g-1 \quad (\text{at most half of them!})$$

(In general:

Theorem: If p prime, then

$$\# \text{ generators mod } p$$

$$= \varphi(p-1)$$

$$\geq \frac{p-1}{6 \ln \ln(p-1)}$$

)

So generate & test works well for finding
generators modulo a safe prime p , or modulo
any prime p for which you know $\varphi(p-1)$.

Common public-key setup:

Public system parameters

p large prime (e.g. 1024 bits)

g generator mod p

Alice choose x $0 \leq x < p-1$ as her secret key.

Alice publishes $y = g^x \pmod{p}$ as her public key.

- Secrecy of x protected by difficulty of computing discrete log
 $\log_{g,p}(y) = x$
- Commonly assumed that discrete log problem (DLP) is infeasible for p large & random, or p large safe prime.
 (Appears to be roughly as hard as factoring a large integer of the same size as p .
 This is observation, not a theorem.)

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