## Some Applications to Cryptography

Suppose we want to send a message to someone, but there is a possibility that a third party can capture our message. Because of that, we want to encode our message before sending it.

Example: (Caesar's cipher)

$$A \rightarrow B$$
 ,  $B \rightarrow C$  ,  $C \rightarrow D$  , ... ,  $X \rightarrow Y$  ,  $Y \rightarrow Z$  ,  $Z \rightarrow A$ 

encodedmessage - fodpefenfttbhf

To decode, we use

$$A \rightarrow Z$$
,  $B \rightarrow A$ ,  $C \rightarrow B$ ,...,  $Y \rightarrow X$ ,  $Z \rightarrow Y$ 

fodpefenfttbhf --> encodedmessage

Clearly, this is not a very strong encryption

Goal: Find a way to encode so that it is difficult to decode for third parties.

Let's agree on this: we just need to deal with sending a number to another person instead of an arbitrary message.

Because we can express every letter with a number before encoding it such that  $A \rightarrow 101$ ,  $B \rightarrow 102$ ,  $C \rightarrow 103$ , ...,  $Z \rightarrow 126$  etc.

## Modular Exponentian Cipher numbers

Two parties A and B want to exchange messages. Say x is the message that A wants to send B.

- 1) They choose a prime p (very large, larger than x). p is a public information, everyone knows
- (2) They agree on a secret key e such that (e, p-1)=1 before starting to exchange messages e is known by A and B only
- (3) A will compute  $m \equiv x^e \pmod{p}$  and send the encoded message  $m = x^e \pmod{p}$
- ① To decode the received message, B first finds the inverse of e modulo p-1 (say f, i.e. ef=1 (mod p-1)) and computes  $m^f$  (mod p) which is equivalent to x (mod p) by Fermat's theorem.

$$mf \equiv (x^e)^f \equiv x^e \equiv x^{k \cdot (p-1)+1}$$

$$\equiv (x^{p-1})^k \times x \equiv x \pmod{p}$$

Two important things:

- 1. B can easily decode because
- finding  $f \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{p}$  is easy (Euclidean algoritm)
- computing mf (mod p) is also easy because taking powers mod p is easy.
- 2. A third party cannot decode easily without knowing e.

Example: (a) Encode x=7 using e=26 and p=101.

$$7^{26} \equiv 7^{16} \cdot 7^{8} \cdot 7^{2}$$

$$7^4 = 49^2 = 2401 = 78 \pmod{101}$$

$$7^8 = 78^2 = (-23)^2 = 529 = 24 \pmod{101}$$

$$7^{16} \equiv 24^2 \equiv 576 \equiv 71 \pmod{101}$$

$$7^{16} \cdot 7^{8} \cdot 7^{2} = 71 \cdot 24 \cdot 49 = 70 \pmod{101}$$

m = 70.

(b) Decode m=13 with e=7 and p=101.

Find f such that 7f = 1 (mod 100)

7a + 100 b = 1. Use Euclidean algorithm,

 $7.43 - 3.100 = 1 \Rightarrow f = 43$ 

Compute  $m^{\frac{1}{2}} = 13 = 13 \cdot 13 \cdot 13 \cdot 13 = 9 \pmod{101}$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  x = 9

Remark: We should choose p in a way that ordp(x) is large otherwise there won't be many possibilities for  $m^f \equiv (x^e)^f \pmod{p}$ .

Imagine p=101 and x=10 and e=3. If a third party captures  $m \equiv 1000 \equiv -10 \pmod{p}$ , then they know that x is one of the followings:

 $(-10)^{1} = 91$ ,  $(-10)^{2} = 100$ ,  $(-10)^{3} = 10$ ,  $(-10)^{4} = 1$  (mod 101) Only four possibilities: almost as good as

decoding it.

## Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

A and B want to agree on a key securely to use later.

- 1) They pick a large prime p and an integer 1 < g < p. p and g are public information, everyone knows.
- 2) A chooses a secret integer a and B chooses a secret integer b.

a is only known by A.

b is only known by B.

- (3) A computes  $a' \equiv g^a \pmod{p}$  and sends it to B. B computes  $b' \equiv g^b \pmod{p}$  and sends it to A. a' and b' are public information, everyone knows.
- (4) A and B compute  $(a')^b \equiv (b')^a$  (mod p) using their secret integers, this will be their key.  $(g^a)^b \equiv (g^b)^a \pmod{p}$

Even if a third party knows  $g, p, g^a, g^b$ , it is still difficult to compute  $g^{ab}$  (mod p). This is known as Diffie-Hellman problem (D.H.P) One way to solve D.H.P is to find a and b first.

Discrete Logarithm Problem (D. L. P): Given g, p and  $g^a$  (mod p), can you find a?

Clearly, DHP is not harder than DLP because if we can solve DLP, then we can solve DHP as well.

Example: (a) Suppose g=2, p=101If  $g^a \equiv 53$ ,  $g^b \equiv 48$  (mod 101), then  $g^{ab} \equiv ?$  (mod 101)

Difficult

(b) g = 2, p = 101If a = 23 and b = 73, then find the key.  $2^{23 \cdot 73} = 2^{1679} = (2^{160})^{16} \cdot 2^{79} = 2^{79} \pmod{101}$   $2^{79} = 2^{64} \cdot 2^{8} \cdot 2^{4} \cdot 2^{2} \cdot 2^{1} = 42 \pmod{101}$ 

## RSA Public Key

In RSA public key, our goal is to come up with a system that allows a random person to send us a message securely.

- ① We pick two very large distinct primes p and q and an encryption key e such that (e, (p-1).(q-1))=1 We publish e and the value of pq, say on our website. pq and e are public information, everyone knows. The pair (pq,e) is called the public key

  The values of p and q are only known to us.

  (Even if pq is publicly known, factorizing to find p and q is not easy. Practically not possible when p and q are large enough)
- ② Say someone wants to send us the message x securely. They will compute  $m \equiv x^e \pmod{pq}$  and send the encoded message m to us.
- (3) To decode the received message, we first find the inverse of e modulo  $(p-1)\cdot(q-1)$  (say f, i.e.  $ef\equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ ) and compute  $m^f \pmod{pq}$  which is equivalent to  $x \pmod{pq}$  by Euler's theorem,  $p(pq) = (p-1)\cdot(q-1)$  (f will be called our private key)  $m^f = x^{ef} = x \pmod{pq}$   $\equiv x \pmod{pq}$

Remark: A third party cannot decode in because they cannot compute f without knowing (p-1). (q-1).

Example: (a) Suppose pq = 10147, e = 119 and m = 9247, decode to find x.

This is not very easy, even factorizing 10147 is not so easy.

(b) p = 73, q = 139, e = 119, m = 9247, decode to find x.

Find f such that  $119f \equiv 1 \pmod{72.138}$ 

 $\Rightarrow f = 167 \text{ after Euclidean algorithm}$   $(9247)^{167} = 9247^{128} \cdot 9247^{32} \cdot 9247^{4} \cdot 9247^{7} \cdot 9247$   $= 3 \pmod{10147}.$