# Discrete Mathematics Lecture-16 Communication Security 

November 17, 2012

## Security Transactions

## Question

Mr. Nguyen sells expensive jewelry. He has an interesting idea for a business model. Each customer will have access to boxes with a combination lock. Once a person grabs a box he can set his own private combination lock. An open box can be closed by anyone, but only the owner knows the combination and can open it. The content of any open box sent between persons will be stolen.

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You wish to buy an expensive gift for your significant other's birthday. This means money will have to be sent to Mr. Nguyen (who is honest and trustworthy) and the gift delivered to you. Transaction details, such as item, price etc. can be discussed by phone.
How can we accomplish this?

## Discussion

This is exactly how business transactions are being conducted on the Internet today, except that the boxes are virtual boxes. Closing a box is accomplished by encrypting the message. So while the message is traveling on the Internet, being exposed to hackers and others, it is encrypted using a "key". Only the owner of the key knows how to open the box and retrieve its content.

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- Messages can be sent to "Bob" so only Bob will be able to understand.
- Transactions can be "signed."


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In 1976 Rivest, Shamir and Adelman proposed the public key cryptosystem: RSA.

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- Decryption: the receiver calculates $S^{d} \bmod k$ and retrieves $M$ where $d=e^{(-1)} \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$.


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In order to calculate $e^{(-1)} \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$ we need to know $(p-1)(q-1)$ but finding this number if we only know the product $k(=p q)$ is equivalent to being able to factor $k$

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We shall devote the rest of our time to take a quick glimpse at factoring.

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Note: we assume that everyone can intercept the message $S$. Furthermore, everyone knows exactly how S was calculated, everyone knows $k$ and e, so why can't they retrieve $M$ ?

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After all, all they need to do is calculate $d=e^{(-1)} \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$ and in order to do it they just need to factor $k$.

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To understand it we need to study some very mathematically interesting topics in modular arithmetic.

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An element $\alpha \in G F(q)$ is primitive if
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- A polynomial $p(x)$ of degree $k$ over $G F(q)$ has at most $k$ roots.


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Can Fermat's theorem be used for testing primality?

## Answer

Unfortunately not. There are numbers for which the chances for finding an integer $a<n$ such that $a^{(n-1)} \bmod n \neq 1$ are very slim.
For instance if $n=(6 k+1)(12 k+1)(18 k+1)$ and $(6 k+1),(12 k+1)$ and $(18 k+1)$ are prime, then if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, n)=1 a^{n-1} \bmod n=1$.

## Primality testing

Let N be an integer. By Fermat's theorem if N is prime then $a^{N-1} \bmod N=1$. This calculation can be executed very fast on integers with a few thousand digits. This means that if for some $1<a<N-1 ; a^{N-1} \bmod N \neq=1$ then $N$ is definitely not a prime number.

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But what can we conclude if $a^{N-1} \bmod N=1$ ?
Answer: NOTHING! $N$ may be prime and it may be composite!
At best, we can try another integer a.

## Example

As we noted in our drill, $k^{1728} \bmod 1729=1$ for all
$k, \operatorname{gcd}(k, 1729)=1$. Our chances to randomly select $k$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(k, 1729)>1$ are very slim.

## The Miller-Rabin Primality Test

## Comment

Positive integers $N$ for which $a^{N-1} \bmod N=1$
$\forall$ a such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)=1$ are called Carmichael numbers.
There are infinitely many Carmichael numbers.

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In other words, the test fails to determine whether $N$ is composite. (Do you know another example of a "failing" test?)

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- If $N$ is prime then $w^{N-1} \bmod N=1$ (Fermat).
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- If $w^{(N-1) / 2} \bmod N=-1$ the test stops. it is inconclusive.
- If $w^{(N-1) / 2} \bmod N=1$ we calculate $w^{(N-1) / 4} \bmod N= \pm 1$.
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- As long as the results of $w^{(N-1) / 2^{i}} \bmod N=1$ we continue until we reach $w^{2 k+1}$.


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We skip the important part of the proof: more than $50 \%$ of the integers $a<N$ are composite-witnesses. So, to test whether an integer $p$ is prime, randomly select 100 integers $a<p$, apply to them the Miller-Rabin test. If the test fails, we assume that $p$ is prime. The probabilty that we made a mistake, that is declared $p$ is prime while it is not, is less than $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{100}$ which is far less that the probability that the computer will make a mistake.

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- $3^{2^{i} \cdot 3^{3}}=\bmod 1729=1$ for $1 \leq i \leq 6$.


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- Drill: Find a witness that will prove that 413138881 is composite.


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- RSA-200 was factored in 2009. The CPU time spent by computers working in parallel on this factorization was equivalent to about 75 years of CPU time on a 2.2 GHz single processor.
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- Are all large primes "safe"?
- Not really. There are some very sofisticated attacks on "weak" primes.


## Square roots and factoring

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$r \in G F *(q)$ is a quadratic-residue $\bmod \mathbf{q}$ if there is an $s \in G F(q)$ such that $s^{2}=r$.

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Half the positive integres mod a prime number $p$ are quadratic residues. While finding their square roots is not difficult it is a bit trickier than finding the square root of an integer.

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- This can be accomplished as follows:
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- For an example see the SAGE sample in the supplements folder.


## $\sqrt{\mathbf{n}} \bmod \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{q}$

## See the file factoring.pdf

