Discrete Mathematics Lecture-15

Ngày 9 tháng 12 năm 2011

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How can we accomplish this?

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 $S^d \mod k$ and retrieves M where $d = e^{(-1)} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$.

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 $d = e^{(-1)} \bmod (p-1)(q-1) \Longrightarrow d \cdot e = a \cdot (p-1)(q-1) + 1$

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

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 $d = e^{(-1)} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$ and in order to do it they just need to factor k.

Our goal is to understand how this system works, why it is considered secure and other applications of this system.

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

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- Theorem: Every finite field has primitive elements.
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- A polynomial *p*(*x*) of degree *k* over *GF*(*q*) has at most *k* roots.

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Question

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 $a^{(n-1)} \mod n \neq 1$ are very slim.

For instance if n = (6k + 1)(12k + 1)(18k + 1) and (6k + 1), (12k + 1) and (18k + 1) are prime, then if gcd(a, n) = 1 aⁿ⁻¹ mod n = 1.

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But what can we conclude if $a^{N-1} \mod N = 1$?

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, $k^{1728} \mod 1729 = 1$ for all k, gcd(k, 1729) = 1. Our chances to randomly select k such that gcd(k, 1729) > 1 are very slim.

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Positive integers N for which $a^{N-1} \mod N = 1$ $\forall a \text{ such that } gcd(a, N) = 1 \text{ are called Carmichael numbers.}$

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- Or: $w^{2^{i} \cdot (2k+1)} \mod (N) = 1$ and $w^{2k+1} = \pm 1$.

In other words, the test fails to determine whether *N* is composite.

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Theorem (The Miller-Rabin Test)

- Let N be an odd positive integer, $N 1 = 2^m \cdot (2k + 1)$.
- An integer w is NOT a "witnesses" that N is composite if:
- For some $1 \le i \le m$ $w^{2^{i} \cdot (2k+1)} = -1$
- Or: $w^{2^{i} \cdot (2k+1)} \mod (N) = 1$ and $w^{2k+1} = \pm 1$.

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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Discrete Mathematics Lecture-15

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• If *N* is prime then $w^{N-1} \mod N = 1$ (Fermat).

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- If $w^{(N-1)/2} \mod N = 1$ we calculate $w^{(N-1)/4} \mod N = \pm 1$.

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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 probability that we made a mistake, that is declared p is prime while it is not, is less than $(\frac{1}{2})^{100}$ which is far less that the probability that the computer will make a mistake.



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• 1729 is a composite integer.

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- But $3^{3^3} = 664$ proving that 1729 is composite.

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

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Factoring large integers

• The inventors of RSA published in 1977 an integer called RSA-129 (129 digits long) and chelleneged the public to factor it.

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- The largest RSA number factored so far is RSA-768 (232 decimal digits).
- 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 2.2GHz single processor.

 To implement the RSA cryptosystem we need to produce large prime numbers.



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- There are efficient algorithms that can manufacture "certified" large primes.
- In today's implementations, keys with 309 digits are being used.
- Are all large primes "safe"?
- Not really. There are some very sofisticated attacks on "weak" primes.

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Most integers are not perfect squares. Finding the square root or identifying that it is not a perfect square is very easy. Yet in modular arithmetic the situation is drastically different.

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Most integers are not perfect squares. Finding the square root or identifying that it is not a perfect square is very easy. Yet in modular arithmetic the situation is drastically different.

We shall show that finding $\sqrt{n} \mod k$ is as difficult as factoring k. That is if we had an algorithm that could efficiently find $\sqrt{n} \mod k$ then we could factor k.

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Definition

 $r \in GF * (q)$ is a **quadratic-residue mod q** if there is an $s \in GF(q)$ such that $s^2 = r$.

We shall start with the easy task: finding $\sqrt{n} \mod p$, p is prime.

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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.

Testing whether an integer n is a quadratic residue mod p is easy:

Calcuate $n^{(p-1)/2} \mod p$.

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- If a = -1 stop, n does not have a square root mod p.
- $n^{2k+1} = 1 \mod p \Longrightarrow n^{2k+2} \mod p = n$.

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- This can be accomplished as follows:

• While $a^{2^{d}(2m+1)} \mod p = 1$ do: d = d - 1.

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- If $a^{2m+1} \mod p = 1$ then $\sqrt{a} \mod p = a^{m+1} \mod p$.
- If a^{2^d(2m+1)} mod p = −1 then find b, a non-quadratic residue mod p.

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- If a^{2^d(2m+1)} mod p = -1 then find b, a non-quadratic residue mod p.
- This is easy. Note that $b^{2^{k-1}(2m+1)} \mod p = -1$ so:

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 a^{2^d(2m+1)}b^{2^{k-1}(2m+1)} mod p = 1

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- This loop will terminate either when a^{2^d(2m+1)} mod p = -1 or a^{2m+1} mod p = 1
- If $a^{2m+1} \mod p = 1$ then $\sqrt{a} \mod p = a^{m+1} \mod p$.
- If a^{2^d(2m+1)} mod p = -1 then find b, a non-quadratic residue mod p.
- This is easy. Note that $b^{2^{k-1}(2m+1)} \mod p = -1$ so:
- $a^{2^{d}(2m+1)}b^{2^{k-1}(2m+1)} \mod p = 1$
- We can repeat reducing the exponent by a factor of 2, multiplying by b to make sure that the product will remain 1 until we reach a^{2k+1}b^{2j} mod p = 1.

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- For an example see the SAGE sample in the supplements folder.

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See the file factoring.pdf



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