

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

$T = \text{MAC}_K(M) = ax + b \pmod{p} \quad [x=M] \quad (*)$

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

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

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

Security:

If adversary hears  $(M, T)$  on the line, and replaces it with  $(M', T') \quad [M' \neq M]$ , 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"  $a=7, b=5$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} 7 &= 7 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 0 \\ 5 &= 7 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \text{initial values}$$

$$2 = 7 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot (-1) \quad [\text{subtract 2 eqns}]$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 7 \cdot (-2) + 5 \cdot 3 \\ &= ax + by \end{aligned}$$

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

Recall Fermat's Little Theorem:

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

For general  $n$ , we have Euler's Theorem:

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

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

= multiplicative group modulo  $n$

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

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

$$\varphi(10) = 4$$

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

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	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>1</u> ...	order(1) = 1
2	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u> ...	order(2) = 3
3	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>3</u> ...	order(3) = 6
4	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>4</u> ...	order(4) = 3
5	<u>5</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>5</u> ...	order(5) = 6
6	<u>6</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>6</u> ...	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  $p$ .

$$\begin{array}{r} x = 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \\ g^x = 3 \quad 2 \quad 6 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 1 \end{array}$$

for  $g=3$ , modulo 7.

Theorem:  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  has a generator  
(i.e.  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  is cyclic)  
iff  $n$  is

$$2, 4, p^m, \text{ or } 2p^m$$

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

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:  $p = 23, q = 11$        $p = 11, q = 5$

$$p = 59, q = 29 \quad \dots$$

Theorem: If  $p$  is a safe prime

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

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

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:

$$\text{check that } g^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p} \quad \checkmark \text{ by Fermat}$$

$$\& \quad g^2 \neq 1 \pmod{p} \quad [\text{order}_p(g) \neq 2]$$

$$\& \quad g^q \neq 1 \pmod{p} \quad [\text{order}_p(g) \neq q]$$

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

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

$$\underline{\text{do}} \quad g \leftarrow_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_p^*$$

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

Generators are quite common:

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

then # generators mod  $p$

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

$$= q-1 \quad (\text{almost half of them!})$$

(In general:

Theorem: If  $p$  prime, then

# 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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