Lecture 22: Cryptography: Encryption

- Symmetric key encryption
- Key exchange
- Asymmetric key encryption
- RSA
- NP-complete problems and cryptography
 - graph coloring
 - knapsack

Symmetric key encryption

$$c = e_k(m)$$

$$m = d_k(c)$$

Here c is the *ciphertext*, m is the *plaintext*, e is the encryption function, d is the decryption function and k is the secret key. e, d permute and reverse-permute the space of all messages.

Reversible operations: \oplus , +/-, shift left/right.

Symmetric algorithms: AES, RC5, DES

Key Management Question

How does secret key k get exchanged/shared?

Alice wants to send a message to Bob. There are pirates between Alice and Bob, that will take any keys or messages in unlocked box(es), but won't touch locked boxes. How can Alice send a message or a key to Bob (without pirates knowing what was sent)?

Solution:

- Alice puts m in box, locks it with k_A
- Box sent to Bob

- Bob locks box with k_B
- Box sent to Alice
- Alice unlocks k_A
- Box sent to Bob
- Bob unlocks k_B , reads m

Notice that this method relied on the commutativity of the locks. This means that the order of the lock and unlock operations doesn't matter.

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

$$G = F_p^*$$

Here F_p^* is a finite field (mod p, a prime). * means invertible elements only $(\{1,2,...,p-1\})$

Alice g public Bob
$$2 \le g \le p-2$$

Select a Compute g^a g^b g^b

Alice can compute $(g^b)^a \mod p = k$. Bob can compute $(g^a)^b \mod p = k$.

Assumes the Discrete Log Problem is hard (given g^a , compute a) and Diffie Hellman Problem is hard (given g^a , g^b compute g^{ab}).

Can we attack this? Man-in-the-middle:

- Alice doesn't know she is communicating with Bob.
- Alice agrees to a key exchange with Eve (thinking she is Bob).
- Bob agrees to a key exchagne with Eve (thinking she is Alice).
- Eve can see all communications.

Public Key Encryption

The two keys need to be linked in a mathematical way. Knowing the public key should tell you nothing about the private key.

RSA

- Alice picks two large secret primes p and q.
- Alice computes $N = p \cdot q$.
- Chooses an encryption exponent e which satisfies gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1, e = 3, 17, 65537.
- Alice's public key= (N, e).
- Decryption exponent obtained using Extended Euclidean Algorithm by Alice such that $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \mod (p-1)(q-1)$.
- Alice private key=(d, p, q) (storing p and q is not absolutely necessary, but we do it for efficiency).

Encryption and Decryption with RSA

$$c = m^e \mod N$$
 encryption $m = c^d \mod N$ decryption

Why it works

$$\phi = (p-1)(q-1)$$

Since $ed \equiv 1 \mod \phi$ there exists an integer k such that $ed = 1 + k\phi$.

Two cases:

Case 1 gcd(m, p) = 1. By Fermat's theorem,

$$m^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$$
$$\left(m^{p-1}\right)^{k(q-1)} \cdot m \equiv m \mod p$$
$$m^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} = m^{ed} \equiv m \mod p$$

Case 2 gcd(m, p) = p. This means that $m \mod p = 0$ and so $m^{ed} \equiv m$ Thus, in both cases, $m^{ed} \equiv m \mod p$. Similarly, $m^{ed} \equiv m \mod q$. Since p, q are distinct primes, $m^{ed} \equiv m \mod N$. So $c^d = (m^e)^d \equiv m \mod N$

Hardness of RSA

- Factoring: given N, hard to factor into p, q.
- RSA Problem: given e such that gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1 and c, find m such that $m^e \equiv c \mod N$.

NP-completeness

Is N composite with a factor within a range? unknown if NP-complete

Is a graph \underline{k} -colorable? In other words: can you assign one of k colors to each vertex such that no two vertices connected by an edge share the same color? NP-complete

Given a pile of n items, each with different weights w_i , is it possible to put items in a knapsack such that we get a specific total weight S? NP-complete

NP-completeness and Cryptography

- NP-completeness: about worst-case complexity
- Cryptography: want a problem instance, with suitably chosen parameters that is hard on average

Most knapsack cryptosystems have failed.

Determining if a graph is 3-colorable is NP-complete, but very easy on average. This is because an average graph, beyond a certain size, is not 3-colorable!

Consider a standard backtracking search to determine 3-colorability.

- Order vertices $v_1, ..., v_t$. Colors = $\{1, 2, 3\}$
- Traverse graph in order of vertices.
- On visiting a vertex, choose smallest possible color that "works".
- If you get stuck, backtrack to previous choice, and try next choice.

- Run out of colors for 1^{st} vertex \rightarrow output 'NO'
- Successfully color last vertex \rightarrow output 'YES'

On a random graph of t vertices, average number of vertices traveled < 197, regardless of t!

Knapsack Cryptography

General knapsack problem: NP-complete

Super-increasing knapsack: linear time solvable. In this problem, the weights are constrained as follows:

$$w_j \ge \sum_{i=1}^{j-1} w_i$$

Merkle Hellman Cryptosystem

Private key \rightarrow super-increasing knapsack problem $\xrightarrow{\text{Private transform}}$ "hard" general knapsack problem \rightarrow public key.

Transform: two private integers N, M s.t. gcd(N, M) = 1.

Multiply all values in the sequence by N and then take mod M.

Example: N = 31, M = 105, private key= $\{2, 3, 6, 14, 27, 52\}$, public key= $\{62, 93, 81, 88, 102, 37\}$

Merkle Hellman Example

Message = 011000 110101 101110
Ciphertext:011000
$$93 + 81 = 174$$

 110101 $62 + 93 + 88 + 37 = 280$
 101110 $62 + 81 + 88 + 102 = 333$
 $= 174, 280, 333$

Recipient knows $N=31, M=105, \{2,3,6,14,27,52\}$. Multiplies each ciphertext block by $N^{-1} \mod M$. In this case, $N^{-1}=61 \mod 105$.

$$174 \cdot 61 = 9 = 3 + 6 = 011000$$

 $280 \cdot 61 = 70 = 2 + 3 + 13 + 52 = 110101$
 $333 \cdot 61 = 48 = 2 + 6 + 13 + 27 = 101110$

Beautiful but broken

Lattice based techniques break this scheme.

Density of knapsack $d=\frac{n}{\max\{\log_2 w_i:1\leq i\leq n\}}$ Lattice basis reduction can solve knapsacks of low density. Unfortunately, M-H scheme always produces knapsacks of low density.

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6.046 J / 18.410 J Design and Analysis of Algorithms Spring 2015

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