

- The opponent O knows $u = a^x \pmod{p}$, $v = a^y \pmod{p}$, a, p
 If O is able to calculate discrete log's, the system is broken, i.e.
 Breaking the DH problem is no harder than calculating discrete log's.

Def 7.6 | Diffie-Hellman- Problem (DHP)

Given $p, a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, $a^x \pmod{p}, a^y \pmod{p}$
 Calculate $a^{xy} \pmod{p}$ is the Diffie-Hellman problem

An efficient alg. to solve the DHP would break the DH scheme

Open question: Does an efficient alg for solving DHP lead to an efficient alg. for discrete log's?

7.2 Shamir's no-key protocol

Prop 7.7 Let p be prime, $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}^*$. Then

$$\forall m \in \mathbb{Z}_p \quad m^{ab a^{-1} b^{-1}} \equiv m \pmod{p}$$

Proof: $a^{-1}, b^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}^*$ exist by def. satisfying

$$a \cdot a^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1} \quad b \cdot b^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$a \cdot a^{-1} = s(p-1) + 1 \quad b \cdot b^{-1} = t(p-1) + 1 \quad \text{for some } s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Hence, for all $m \in \mathbb{Z}_p$,

$$\begin{aligned} m^{ab a^{-1} b^{-1}} &= m^{(s(p-1)+1)(t(p-1)+1)} \\ &= m \cdot \underbrace{m^{(p-1)}}_{\equiv 1 \pmod{p}, \text{ Fermat}}^{(st(p-1)+s+t)} \equiv m \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

A sends a key m to B as follows

- Initial setup : a prime p is chosen and published

- Protocol actions :

A and B choose secret random number $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}^*$ and calculate $a^{-1}, b^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$, respectively

$$A \rightarrow B : c_1 = m^a \pmod{p} \quad (A \text{ locks, sends to } B)$$

$$B \rightarrow A : c_2 = (c_1)^b \pmod{p} \quad (B \text{ locks, sends to } A)$$

$$A \rightarrow B : c_3 = (c_2)^{a^{-1}} \pmod{p} \quad (A \text{ unlocks, returns to } B)$$

$$B \text{ deciphers } m = (c_3)^{b^{-1}} \pmod{p} \quad (B \text{ unlocks, reads } m)$$

$$(c_3)^{b^{-1}} = m^{ab^{-1}a^{-1}b^{-1}} \equiv m \pmod{p}$$

Observe : no authentication provided, protection from passive adversaries only

8. Public key Encryption

Asymmetric cryptosystem which does not need to exchange secret keys.

Idea: [key Diffie Hellman (76), earlier but not published paper by James Ellis (70) paper released by British government 97)]

- All user share the same e, d (en- decryption function)
- Each user has a pair of keys (k, L) such that

$$d(e(M, k), L) = M \quad \forall M \in M$$

k is public, L is private key

- Requirements

(i) $c = e(M, k)$ "easy" given M, k , solving for M

"infeasible" given c and k

Hence, $f_k(M) = e(M, k)$ is a one-way function with

"trapdoor" L

- Further requirements

(ii) (k, L) easy to generate

(iii) There are sufficiently many pairs (k, L) ,
exhaustive search impossible

8.1 The RSA cryptosystem (Rivest, Shamir, Adleman, 1978)

(originally invented by Cope (73), not published, released 1978)

RSA-System

- (i) Choose $p \neq q$ (large prime numbers), compute $n = p \cdot q$
- (ii) Choose $d \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell(n)}^*$, i.e. $\gcd(d, \ell(n)) = 1$
 Compute $e = d^{-1} \pmod{\ell(n)}$
- (iii) Public key (e, n) , private key d
- (iv) Message $m \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$
 Encryption: $c = m^e \pmod{n}$
 Decryption: $b = c^d \pmod{n}$

Questions: 1) $b = m$? 2) Security 3) Implementation

Prop. 8.1 $p \neq q$ Prime, $x, y \in \mathbb{N}$

$$x \equiv y \pmod{p} \wedge x \equiv y \pmod{q} \Leftrightarrow x \equiv y \pmod{p \cdot q}$$

Proof: $p \nmid x-y, q \nmid x-y \Leftrightarrow p \cdot q \mid x-y$ (since p, q are relatively prime)

Prop 8.2 Let $p \neq q$ prime, $n = p \cdot q$, $d, d^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\ell(n)}^*$, $0 \leq m < n$, $c = m^{d^{-1}} \pmod{n}$. Then $m = c^d \pmod{n}$

Proof: $d^{-1}d \equiv 1 \pmod{\ell(n)} \Rightarrow \exists t : d^{-1}d = t(p-1)(q-1) + 1$

$$(m^{d^{-1}})^d \equiv m^{t(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv m \cdot (m^{p-1})^{t(q-1)} \equiv m \pmod{p}$$

$$\equiv 1 \pmod{p}, \text{ Fermat}$$

$$(ii) g(d(m, p)) = p \quad p|m, \text{ i.e., } m \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

$$\Rightarrow (m^{d-1})^d \equiv 0 \equiv m \pmod{p}$$

Analogously $(m^{d-1})^d \equiv m \pmod{q}$

Using Prop 8.1 : $(m^{d-1})^d \equiv m \pmod{n=p \cdot q}$

Security of RSA

Chosen plaintext attacks is most relevant, since anybody can encrypt an arbitrary number of any messages using the public key.

Hence, known: d^{-1}, n , arbitrary many pairs (m, c)

a) Factoring of ~~n~~ \rightarrow the p, q to compute

$$d = (d-1)^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)} = (p-1)(q-1) \quad \text{the private key.}$$

But, Factoring is infeasible.

b) Computing square roots modulo n allows factoring.

Prop 8.3] Let $n = p \cdot q$, $p \neq q$ prime, x a nontrivial solution of $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, i.e., $x \not\equiv \pm 1 \pmod{n}$. Then $\gcd(x+1, n) \in \{p, q\}$

Proof: Exercise

Hence: Computing square roots is no easier than factoring.

c) Computing $\ell(n)$ without factoring n .

Any efficient alg for computing $\ell(n)$ yields an efficient alg for factoring.

Hence, computing $\ell(n)$ is no easier than factoring.

Proof: Let $n = p \cdot q$, p, q prime (unknown)

$\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$ is known

$$\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = \underbrace{pq}_{n} - p - q + 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow p+q = n - \phi(n) + 1 \quad (1)$$

$$(p-q)^2 - (p+q)^2 = -4pq \Leftrightarrow (p-q)^2 = (p+q)^2 - 4n \quad (2)$$

$$\Rightarrow q = \frac{1}{2}((p+q) - (p-q)) \quad (3)$$

(1) yields $(p+q)$, from (2) obtain $(p-q)$, q follows by (3)

d) Computing $(d^{-1})^{-1}$ (without knowing $\phi(n)$)

Prop 8.4 / For $n = p \cdot q$, p, q prime. Any efficient alg for computing $b^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$ leads to an efficient probabilistic alg for factoring n with error probability $< \frac{1}{2}$

Proof: Stinson p. 139-141

Repeat the above alg until a factorization is found.

Hence, computing $b^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$ is no easier than factoring

Remarks

a) If d is known, n can be efficiently factored

If the private key d is detected, it is not sufficient to compute some near d, d^{-1} , also change p, q .

b) Never let somebody observe your decryption process

RSA system yields an efficient factoring alg.
(still open question)