



Algorithm Design and Analysis III

Algorithms with Numbers II

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Primality

Fermat's Little Theorem



Theorem

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$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

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Let $S = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, then multiplying these numbers by $a \pmod{p}$ is to *permute* them.

$a \cdot i \pmod{p}$ are distinct for $i \in S$, and all the values are nonzero.

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Theorem

If p is a **prime**, then for every $1 \leq a < p$,

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

Proof:

Let $S = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, then multiplying these numbers by $a \pmod{p}$ is to **permute** them.

$a \cdot i \pmod{p}$ are distinct for $i \in S$, and all the values are nonzero.

multiplying all numbers in each representation, then gives $(p-1)! \equiv a^{(p-1)} \cdot (p-1)! \pmod{p}$, and thus

$$1 \equiv a^{(p-1)} \pmod{p}$$

A (Problematic) Algorithm for Testing Primality



```
PRIMALITY( $N$ )  
Positive integer  $N$ ;  
Pick a positive integer  $a < N$  at random;  
if  $a^{N-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  then  
    | return yes;  
    | else return no;  
end
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Our best hope: for composite N , **most values** of a will fail the test.

Rather than fixing an arbitrary value of a , we should choose it randomly from $\{1, \dots, N-1\}$.



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There are composite numbers N such that for every $a < N$ relatively prime to N ,

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Example:

$$561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$$

Non-Carmichael Number



Lemma

If $a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ for some a relatively prime to N , then it must hold for at least *half* the choices of $a < N$.

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Assume some $b < N$ satisfies $b^{N-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$, then

$$(a \cdot b)^{N-1} \equiv a^{N-1} \cdot b^{N-1} \equiv a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$$



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The one-to-one function $b \mapsto a \cdot b \pmod{N}$ shows that at least as many elements *fail* the test as *pass* it.

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Therefore, (for non-Carmichael numbers)

- $Pr(\text{PRIMALITY returns yes when } N \text{ is prime}) = 1$
- $Pr(\text{PRIMALITY returns yes when } N \text{ is not prime}) \leq 1/2$

Primality Testing with Low Error Probability



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Pick positive integers  $a_1, \dots, a_k < N$  at random;
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Lagrange's Prime Number Theorem

Let $\pi(x)$ be the number of primes $\leq x$. Then $\pi(x) \approx x/\ln(x)$, or more precisely,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{(x/\ln x)} = 1$$



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Such abundance makes it simple to generate a random n -bit prime:

- Pick a random n -bit number N .
- Run a primality test on N .
- If it passes the test, output N ; else repeat the process.

Generating Random Primes



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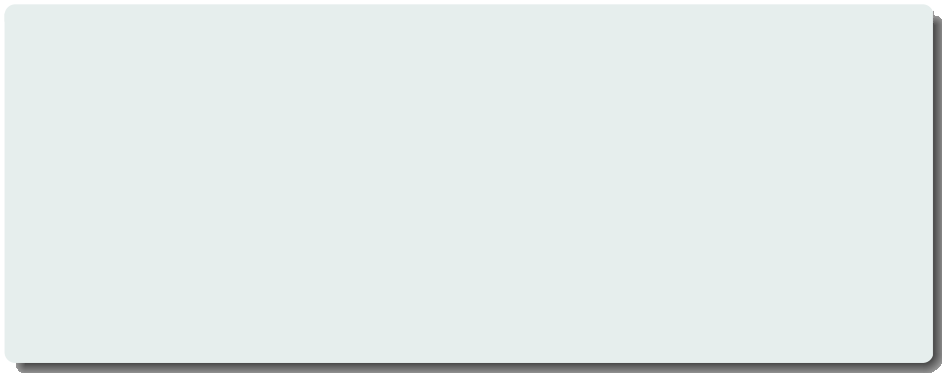
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- Exercise 1.34!

Tips: Randomized Algorithm



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- Always bounded in runtime
- Correctness is random

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Las Vegas Algorithm (LV):

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- **Examples:** Quicksort, Hashing

Cryptography

The Typical Setting for Cryptography



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Eve, an eavesdropper, will go to great lengths to find out what Alice and Bob are saying.

Even Ida, an intruder, will break the rules of communications positively.

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IOW, knowing $e(x)$ tells her little or nothing about what x might be.

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Public-key schemes allow **Alice** to send **Bob** a message without having met him before.

Bob is able to implement a **digital lock**, to which only he has the key. Now by making this digital lock public, he gives **Alice** a way to send him a secure message.

Private-Key Schemes: One-Time Pad



An encryption function:

$$e : \langle \text{messages} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{encoded messages} \rangle$$

e must be **invertible**, and is therefore a **bijection**.

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- **Alice**'s encryption function is then a **bitwise exclusive-or**

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- The function e_r is a bijection, and it is its own inverse:

$$e_r(e_r(x)) = (x \oplus r) \oplus r = x \oplus 0 = x$$

Why Secure?



Alice and Bob pick r at random.

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This will ensure that if Eve intercepts the encoded message $y = e_r(x)$, she gets no information about x .

Why One-Time Pad



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AES (advanced encryption standard)

- 128-bit fixed size.
- repeatedly use
- no techniques to break are better than brute force

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When **Alice** wants to send message x to **Bob**, she encodes it using his **public key**.

Bob decrypts it using his **secret key**, to retrieve x .

Eve is welcome to see as many encrypted messages, but she will not be able to decode them, under **certain assumptions**.

The RSA Cryptosystem: Fundamental Property



Pick up two primes p and q and let $N = pq$.

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For any e relatively prime to $(p - 1)(q - 1)$:

- The mapping $x \mapsto x^e \bmod N$ is a **bijection** on $\{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$.
- The inverse mapping is easily realized: let d be the **inverse** of e modulo $(p - 1)(q - 1)$. Then for all $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, N - 1\}$,

$$(x^e)^d \equiv x \bmod N$$



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Bob retain the value d as his secret key, with which he can decode all messages that come to him by simply raising them to the d -th power modulo N .

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To prove statement 2, observe that e is invertible modulo $(p-1)(q-1)$ because it is relatively prime to this number.

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To show that $(x^e)^d \equiv x \bmod N$: Since $ed \equiv 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$, can write $ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$ for some k .

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Then

$$(x^e)^d - x = x^{ed} - x = x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} - x$$

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$$(x^e)^d - x = x^{ed} - x = x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} - x$$

$x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} - x$ is divisible by p (since $x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p$) and likewise by q . Since p and q are primes, this expression must be divisible by $N = pq$.



Bob chooses his public and secret keys:

- He starts by picking two large (n -bit) random primes p and q .
- His public key is (N, e) where $N = pq$ and e is a $2n$ -bit number relatively prime to $(p-1)(q-1)$.
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Alice wishes to send message x to Bob

- She looks up his public key (N, e) and sends him $y = (x^e \bmod N)$.
- He decodes the message by computing $y^d \bmod N$.

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Given N , e and $y = x^e \bmod N$, it is **computationally intractable** to determine x .

How might Eve try to guess x

She could experiment with all possible values of x , each time checking whether $x^e \equiv y \bmod N$, but this would take **exponential time**.

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Given N , e and $y = x^e \bmod N$, it is **computationally intractable** to determine x .

How might Eve try to guess x

She could experiment with all possible values of x , each time checking whether $x^e \equiv y \bmod N$, but this would take **exponential time**.

How might Eve try to guess x

she could try to factor N to retrieve p and q , and then figure out d by inverting e modulo $(p-1)(q-1)$, but we believe **factoring to be hard**.

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Digital Signature



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A signature **verifying algorithm** that, given a message, public key and a signature, either accepts or rejects the message's claim to authenticity.

Is Communication Safe?

Is a communication safe in the internet when cryptography is unbreakable?

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- No!

The NSPK Protocol


$$\begin{aligned} A \longrightarrow B : & \quad \{A, N_A\}_{+K_B} \\ B \longrightarrow A : & \quad \{N_A, N_B\}_{+K_A} \\ A \longrightarrow B : & \quad \{N_B\}_{+K_B} \end{aligned}$$

An Attack


$$\begin{array}{lll} A & \longrightarrow & I : \quad \{A, N_A\}_{+K_I} \\ I(A) & \longrightarrow & B : \quad \{A, N_A\}_{+K_B} \\ B & \longrightarrow & I(A) : \quad \{N_A, N_B\}_{+K_A} \\ I & \longrightarrow & A : \quad \{N_A, N_B\}_{+K_A} \\ A & \longrightarrow & I : \quad \{N_B\}_{+K_I} \\ I(A) & \longrightarrow & B : \quad \{N_B\}_{+K_B} \end{array}$$

The Fixed NSPK Protocol



$A \longrightarrow B : \quad \{A, N_A\}_{+K_B}$
 $B \longrightarrow A : \quad \{B, N_A, N_B\}_{+K_A}$
 $A \longrightarrow B : \quad \{N_B\}_{+K_B}$

$A \longrightarrow I : \quad \{A, N_A\}_{+K_I}$
 $I(A) \longrightarrow B : \quad \{A, N_A\}_{+K_B}$
 $B \longrightarrow I(A) : \quad \{B, N_A, N_B\}_{+K_A}$
 $I \not\longrightarrow A : \quad \{I, N_A, N_B\}_{+K_A}$