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# CSC 580

## Cryptography and Computer Security

*Math Basics for Cryptography*

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January 24, 2017

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## Overview

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Today: Math basics (Sections 2.1-2.3)

To do before Thursday:

- Study for first quiz (based on HW1 problems)
- Read Sections 3.1, 3.2 (can skip Hill Cipher), and 3.5

Longer term:

- Start phase 1 of project (handout - design and threat model)

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## The Big Picture...

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Messages are typically strings of symbols from a finite alphabet

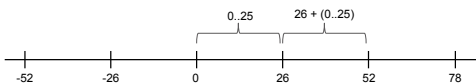
- Strings from the set of 26 letters ("classical cryptography")
- Strings of bytes (256 possible values for each byte)
- Strings of larger blocks (e.g., 128-bit blocks for AES)

**Problem:** Doing arithmetic with values takes you out of the allowed range

- Caesar cipher adds 3 to each letter:  $24 + 3 = 27$  ← oops - not a valid letter!

**Solution:**

- View infinite number line in "pieces" of appropriate size
- All pieces give different representatives of same alphabet
- So above,  $27=26+1$  is treated the same as 1



Modular arithmetic - more useful than just "working with a finite alphabet"  
You have all seen this before: Do you remember where?

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## Some Basic Ideas and Definitions

### Divisibility, multiples, divisors, ...

Terminology: For integers  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $m$ , if  $a = m \cdot b$  then

- $a$  is a **multiple** of  $b$
- $b$  **divides**  $a$  (written  $b \mid a$ )
- $b$  is a **divisor** of  $a$
- $b$  is a **factor** of  $a$

Every integer has a set of positive divisors (incl. at least 1)

- Example 1: Divisors of 15 are 1, 3, 5, 15
- Example 2: Divisors of 18 are 1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 18
- Often interested in greatest common divisor ( $\gcd(15, 18) = 3$ )

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## Modular Arithmetic

### Definitions and some basic properties

For any  $a$  and  $b$ , there is a unique  $r$  such that

$$a = q \cdot b + r, \text{ where } 0 \leq r < b \text{ (and } q = \lfloor a/b \rfloor \text{)}$$

- $q$  is the **quotient**
- $r$  is the **remainder**

Two related notions:

- mod as a binary operator
  - $a \bmod b$  is the remainder of  $a$  divided by  $b$
  - $7 \bmod 5 = 2$  ;  $24 \bmod 7 = 3$  ;  $27 \bmod 9 = 0$
- mod as a congruence relation
  - $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  if and only if  $(a-b) \mid n$
  - $7 \equiv 12 \pmod{5}$  ;  $24 \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$  ;  $128 \equiv 428 \pmod{100}$

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## Modular Arithmetic

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- $q$  is the **quotient**
- $r$  is the **remainder**

**Warning:** Best to always work with non-negative numbers with mod. Some languages (like C) say mod definition on negative numbers is "implementation dependent" (with certain restrictions - but it's unpredictable!).

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## Greatest Common Divisor

A very important algorithm!

Numbers  $a$  and  $b$  are **relatively prime** if  $\gcd(a,b) = 1$

How to compute gcd fast?

Euclid's Algorithm

Assuming  $a > b$ :

$\gcd(a,b)$ :  
if  $(b \mid a)$  then return  $b$   
else return  $\gcd(b, (a \bmod b))$

Running time:  $O(\log b)$

Example:  $\gcd(522,64)$

a	b	(a mod b)
522	64	10
64	10	4
10	4	2
4	2	0

$a \bmod b = 0$  means  $b \mid a$ , so done  
Final answer  $\gcd(522,64) = 2$

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### You try one:

Compute  $\gcd(79,64)$

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## Modular Arithmetic

A very important property

If you want the result of an algebraic formula modulo  $n$ , it doesn't matter if you do the mod operation mid-computation or just at the end!

$$\text{So } ((x^*y+321)*71+z) \bmod n = ((x^*y) \bmod n + 321)*31 + z) \bmod n$$

Application: Keep all intermediate results small

Example: I want to compute  $1234^{16} \bmod 10000$

- $1234^{16}$  is 50 digits long  $\rightarrow$  overflows 64-bit integer
- Note that  $1234^{16} = (((1234^2)^2)^2)^2$
- Can do  $((1234^2 \bmod 10000)^2 \bmod 10000)^2 \bmod 10000$
- No intermediate result can be larger than  $9999^2 = 99,980,001$  (8 digits)

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## Modular Arithmetic

### Other properties of modular addition

The "mod 7" addition table (notice how easy to do in Python!)

```
>>> np.asmatrix([[i+j)%7 for j in range(7)] for i in range(7)])
matrix([[0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6],
        [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 0],
        [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 0, 1],
        [3, 4, 5, 6, 0, 1, 2],
        [4, 5, 6, 0, 1, 2, 3],
        [5, 6, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4],
        [6, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5]])
```

#### Properties

- 0 is the "identity" (for every  $x$ ,  $0 + x \bmod 7 = x$ )
- Each row/column contains all values, shifted by an appropriate amount
  - Each row/column includes a 0 → each element has an additive inverse
- Not obvious from table, but: operation is associative and commutative

**Note: These properties hold for any modulus, not just 7**

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## Modular Arithmetic

### Other properties of modular multiplication

The "mod 7" multiplication table

```
>>> np.asmatrix([[i*j)%7 for j in range(7)] for i in range(7)])
matrix([[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
        [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6],
        [0, 2, 4, 6, 1, 3, 5],
        [0, 3, 6, 2, 5, 1, 4],
        [0, 4, 1, 5, 2, 6, 3],
        [0, 5, 3, 1, 6, 4, 2],
        [0, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1]])
```

Properties of the "mod 7" multiplication table - for all elements except 0:

- 1 is the "identity" (for every  $x$ ,  $1 * x \bmod 7 = x$ )
- Each row/column contains all values, permuted
  - Each row/column includes a 1 → each element has a multiplicative inverse

Not obvious from table, but: operation is associative and commutative

**Do these properties hold for any modulus?**

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## Modular Arithmetic

### Other properties of modular multiplication

The "mod 8" multiplication table

```
>>> np.asmatrix([[i*j)%8 for j in range(8)] for i in range(8)])
matrix([[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
        [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7],
        [0, 2, 4, 6, 0, 2, 4, 6],
        [0, 3, 6, 1, 4, 7, 2, 5],
        [0, 4, 0, 4, 0, 4, 0, 4],
        [0, 5, 2, 7, 4, 1, 6, 3],
        [0, 6, 4, 2, 0, 6, 4, 2],
        [0, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1]])
```

Row doesn't contain a 1!

Next: Try a few more moduli in Python... What's the pattern for rows with 1's?

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## Modular Arithmetic

### Other properties of modular multiplication

The "mod 8" multiplication table

```
>>> np.asmatrix([[ (i+j)%8 for j in range(8)] for i in range(8)])
matrix([[0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0],
       [0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7],
       [0, 2, 4, 6, 0, 2, 4, 6],
       [0, 3, 6, 1, 4, 7, 2, 5],
       [0, 4, 0, 4, 0, 4, 0, 4],
       [0, 5, 2, 7, 4, 1, 6, 3],
       [0, 6, 4, 2, 0, 6, 4, 2],
       [0, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1]])
```

Row doesn't contain a 1!

Next: Try a few more moduli in Python... What's the pattern for rows with 1's?

Answer: Row  $x$  has a 1 (i.e.,  $x$  has a mult inverse) if and only if  $x$  is relatively prime to the modulus.

Important fact: Can use the "Extended Euclidean" algorithm to find  $x$ 's inverse mod  $n$  in  $O(\log n)$  time. (details in book)

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## Number Sizes

### Estimating with powers of two

Important values to know cold:

- $2^{10}$  is "about 1000" (actually 1024)
- $2^{20}$  is "about a million" (actually 1,048,576)
- $2^{30}$  is "about a billion"
- $2^{40}$  is "about a trillion"
- ...

And the converse for dealing with base 2 logarithms:

- $\log_2(1000)$  is about 10
- $\log_2(1,000,000)$  is about 20
- $\log_2(1,000,000,000)$  is about 30
- ...

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## Number Sizes

### Using for quick estimates - crypto example

Consider a "key cracking" machine that is clocked at 1 GHz, so can test 1 billion keys per second.

Attacking a cipher with 40-bit keys.

**Question:** How long to test all possible keys?

1. A billion keys/second is about  $2^{30}$  keys/second
2. There are  $2^{40}$  different 40-bit keys
3. Time required is then  $2^{40} / 2^{30} = 2^{10}$  seconds
4.  $2^{10}$  seconds is about 1,000 seconds
5. An hour has 3,600 seconds, so this is just a little over 15 minutes (not a very secure cipher!)

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## Number Sizes

### More precise estimates

Know powers of 2 up to  $2^{10}$  - a few important ones:

- $2^4 = 16$
- $2^5 = 32$
- $2^8 = 256$

Examples:

- What is  $2^{25}$ ?  $2^{20} \cdot 2^5 =$  approx 32 million
- What is  $2^{38}$ ?  $2^{30} \cdot 2^8 =$  approx 256 billion

Relation to a few other measures:

- One hour is 3,600 seconds, which is approx  $2^{12}$
- One day is 86,400, which is approx  $2^{16}$  (closer:  $2^{16.4}$ )
- One year is approx  $2^{25}$  seconds

So 8 trillion cycles on a 1GHz machine takes:

$$2^{43} / 2^{30} = 2^{13} \text{ seconds} \rightarrow \text{about 2 hours}$$

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## Number Sizes

### Algorithm understanding example

Need the multiplicative inverse of a number with 55-bit modulus

"Counting down" algorithm:

- For modulus  $n$  takes time  $\Theta(n)$  time
- $n = 2^{55} \rightarrow 2^{55}$  computational steps
- At a billion steps / second  $\rightarrow 2^{55}/2^{30} = 2^{25}$  seconds (1 year)

Euclid's algorithm:

- For modulus  $n$ , takes time  $O(\log n)$  (specifically,  $< 2 \cdot \log_2(n)$  steps)
- $n$  is  $2^{55} \rightarrow$  less than  $2 \cdot 55 = 110$  steps
- At a billion steps / second  $\rightarrow$  Less than a millionth of a second

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## Your turn!

DES (which we'll look at next week) uses a 56-bit key. In 1998 a machine ("Deep Crack") was built that could test 90 billion keys per second.

How long does it take to test all keys? (Hint: round values sensibly!)

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## Number Sizes

### Moore's Law

Moore's Law states that computing power double approximately every 18 months (1.5 years).

Example use:

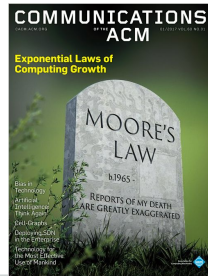
9 years from now, we will have had 6 "doublings", so computing power will be  $2^6 = 64$  times faster than today.

Can this continue indefinitely?

No.

Are we near the end of Moore's Law?

Opinions vary....



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## Your turn #2! Moore's Law and flipped around

A reasonable "clock speed" today is around 2-4 GHz, so assume that is the lower bound for a single core to test a key (really takes longer).

Custom hardware can give you a speed boost of, say, a million times.

Question: Assuming Moore's Law continues, how long a key to be safe for the next 30 years? What if you wanted an extra "cushion" of a factor of 1000?

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## Number Sizes

### Some really big numbers (impress your friends!)

Handout: "Large Numbers" from *Applied Cryptography* (Schneier)

Fun with large numbers....

- Randomly guessing a DES key: Probability of getting the correct key is half the probability of "winning the top prize in a U.S. state lottery and being killed by lightning in the same day."
- Time to go through all 128-bit values at 1 trillion/second  $2^{128} / 2^{40} = 2^{88}$  seconds (or  $2^{88}/2^{25} = 2^{63}$  years ... or  $2^{53}/2^{30} = 2^{23}$  or 8 million times the "time until the sun goes nova")
- Factoring 1024-bit numbers (for breaking a small RSA key)  
*Idea:* Can we make a table of all prime factorizations?  
 $2^{1024}$  entries in the table.  $2^{265}$  atoms in the universe. So not even remotely within the realm of possibility.

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## Number Sizes

Some really big numbers (impress your friends!)

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A final thing to think about:

Finding a multiplicative inverse with a 2048-bit modulus is a very common operation in cryptography.

If we didn't know Euclid's algorithm, how long would the "counting down" algorithm take?

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