

# Cryptosystem

## Traditional Cryptosystems:

- The two parties agree on a **secret** (one to one) function  $f$ .
- To send a message  $M$ , the sender sends the message  $f(M)$ .
- The receiver computes  $f^{-1}(f(M))$ .

**Advantage:** Cannot be broken if the function  $f$  is used only once (or very few times).

**Disadvantage:** The two parties need a **secure** channel to agree on secret keys.

## Example: Shannon's One-Time Pad

Secret Key:  $K$  is Boolean vector of length  $n$

Message:  $M$  is Boolean vector of length  $n$

Encoding:  $E = M \text{ XOR } K =$  Boolean vector of length  $n$

Decoding:  $E \text{ XOR } K = (M \text{ XOR } K) \text{ XOR } K$

$= M \text{ XOR } (K \text{ XOR } K) = M$

# Public Key Crypto system

Bob needs to send a secret message to Alice:

- Alice generates two functions  $P_A()$  and  $S_A()$ , such that
  1. For any legal message  $M$ ,  $S_A(P_A(M)) = M$ .
  2.  $S_A()$  and  $P_A()$  are easy to compute.
  3. It is computationally hard to compute  $P_A^{-1}()$ .
- Alice publishes the function  $P_A()$ .
- Bob sends Alice the message  $P_A(M)$ .
- Alice computes  $M = S_A(P_A(M))$ .

To decrypt the message without the function  $S_A()$  one needs to compute  $P_A^{-1}()$ .

# Digital Signatures

Bob needs to verify (and be able to prove) that Alice sent him a message  $M$ :

- Alice generates two functions  $P_A()$  and  $S_A()$ , such that
  1. For any legal message  $M$ ,  $P_A(S_A(M)) = M$ .
  2.  $S_A()$  and  $P_A()$  are easy to compute.
  3. It is computationally hard to compute  $P_A^{-1}()$ .
- Alice publishes the function  $P_A()$ .
- Alice sends the message  $(M, S_A(M))$  to Bob.
- Bob verifies that  $P_A(S_A(M)) = M$

To forge Alice's signature one needs to compute  $P_A^{-1}()$ .

# Challenge

How to generate a pair of functions  $(S_A(), P_A())$  such that for any  $M$ :

- $S_A(P_A(M)) = M$  and  $P_A(S_A(M)) = M$  and it is easy to compute.
- Without the function  $S_A()$ , the function  $P_A()$  is hard to “invert” (“one-way function”).

Almost all cryptosystems today use public-key.

We'll study one such method: RSA.

# The RSA Cryptosystem

1. Select at random two LARGE prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$  (100-200 decimal digits).
2. Compute  $n = pq$ .
3. Select a small odd integer  $e$  relatively prime to  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1) =$  number nontrivial factors of  $n$
4. Compute  $d$  such that  $ed = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$  ( $d$  exists and is unique!!!).
5. Publish the **public key** function  $P_A(M) = M^e \pmod n$  (the pair  $(e, n)$ ).
6. Keep secret the **secret key** function  $S_A(C) = C^d \pmod n$ .

We will prove:

**Theorem 1.** *The RSA system is correct, i.e.*

- $S_A(P_A(M)) = M;$
- $P_A(S_A(M)) = M$

This proof will require some elementary number theory:

- (1) GCD
- (2) Fermat's Theorem
- (3) Chinese Remainder Theorem

# Divisibility

Integer  $a$  divides integer  $b$  iff  $\frac{b}{a}$  is an integer.

The **greatest common divisor** of  $a$  and  $b$ ,

$$d = \gcd(a, b)$$

is the largest integer that divides both  $a$  and  $b$ .

Integers  $a$  and  $b$  are **relatively prime** if

$$\gcd(a, b) = 1$$

Integer  $p$  is a prime number if for any  $a < p$ ,  
 $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ .

**Theorem 2.** If  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  then there are integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that

$$d = ax + by$$

**Proof.** Let  $s$  be the smallest positive integer such that  $s = ax + by$  for some integers  $x$  and  $y$ .

$$\text{Let } q = \lfloor \frac{a}{s} \rfloor.$$

$$\begin{aligned} a \bmod s &= a - qs \\ &= a - q(ax + by) \\ &= a(1 - qx) + b(-qy) \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $a \bmod s$  is also a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ .

Since

$$a \bmod s < s$$

and  $s$  is the smallest linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $a \bmod s = 0$ , and  $s$  divides  $a$ .

Similarly  $s$  divides  $b$ , and  $\gcd(a, b) \geq s$ .

But  $\gcd(a, b)$  divides  $s$ , thus  $s = \gcd(a, b)$ .  $\square$



**Theorem 3.** *If  $e$  and  $m = \phi(n)$  are relatively prime the equation*

$$ed = 1 \pmod{m}$$

*has a unique solution for  $d$ .*

**Proof.** Since  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$  there are integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that

$$ex + my = 1$$

or

$$ex - 1 = 0 \pmod{m}$$

□

# Fermat's Theorem

**Theorem 4.** *For any integer  $a$  and prime  $p$  that does not divide  $a$ :*

$$a^{p-1} \bmod p = 1$$

# Powers of Numbers mod a Prime form a repeating circle (and 0 and 1 stay same)

## Powers of Numbers mod 3

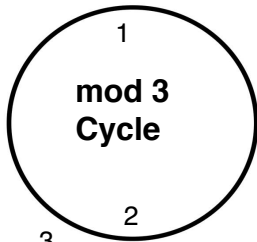
$$0^2 = 0 \pmod{3}$$



$$1^2 = 1 \pmod{3}$$



$$2^2 = 4 = 1 \pmod{3}$$



$$2^3 = 2 \pmod{3}$$

## Powers of Numbers mod 5

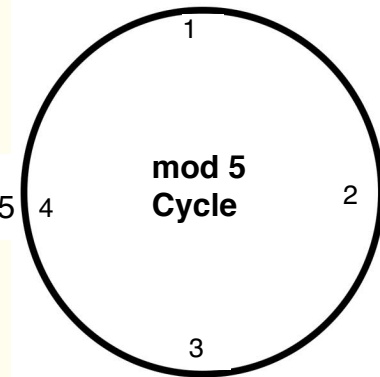
$$0^2 = 0 \pmod{5}$$



$$1^2 = 1 \pmod{5}$$



$$2^4 = 16 = 1 \pmod{5}$$



$$2^2 = 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$2^5 = 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$2^3 = 8 = 3 \pmod{5}$$

## Powers of Numbers mod a Product to two Primes

form multiple repeating circles (and 0 and 1 stay same)

### Powers of Numbers mod 15=3\*5

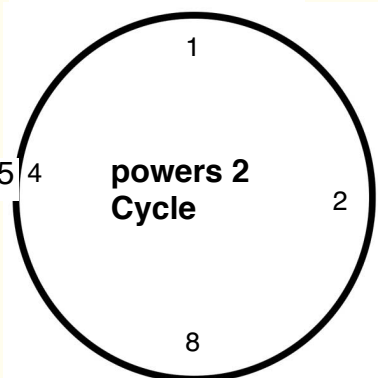
$$0^2 = 0 \pmod{5}$$



$$1^2 = 1 \pmod{5}$$



$$2^4 = 16 = 1 \pmod{15}$$

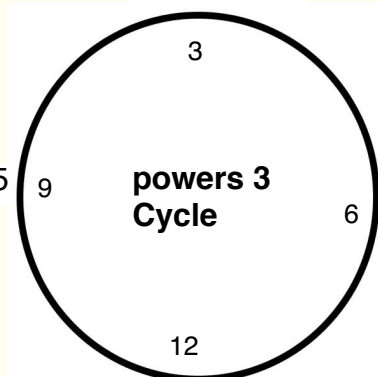


$$2^2 = 4 \pmod{15}$$

$$2^5 = 32 = 2 \pmod{15}$$

$$2^3 = 8 \pmod{15}$$

$$3^5 = 3 \pmod{15}$$



$$3^2 = 9 \pmod{15}$$

$$3^4 = 81 = 6 \pmod{15}$$

$$3^3 = 27 = 12 \pmod{15}$$

# The Chinese Remainder Theorem

**Corollary 1.** *If  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  are pairwise relatively prime and  $n = n_1 n_2 \cdot n_k$ , then for all integer  $a$  and  $b$ ,*

$$a = b \pmod{n_i}$$

*for all  $i = 1, \dots, k$  iff*

$$a = b \pmod{n}$$

# The Chinese Remainder Theorem

**implies:**

**Theorem 5.** *Let  $\gcd(p, q) = 1$  and assume that*

$$M^{ed} = M \pmod{p}, \quad \text{and} \quad M^{ed} = M \pmod{q}.$$

*Let  $n = pq$  then*

$$M^{ed} = M \pmod{n}$$

**Theorem 6.** *The RSA system is correct, i.e.  $S_A(P_A(M)) = M$  and  $P_A(S_A(M)) = M$ .*

**Proof.** *The RSA system:*

$$n = pq.$$

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

$$P_A(S_A(M)) = S_A(P_A(M)) = M^{ed} \text{ mod } n.$$

We need to show that  $M^{ed} \text{ mod } n = M$ .

Since  $ed = 1 \text{ mod } \phi(n)$ , for some integer  $k$   
 $ed = 1 + k(p - 1)(q - 1)$ .

If  $M = 0 \text{ mod } p$  then  $M^{ed} = M \text{ mod } p$ ,

If  $M \neq 0 \text{ mod } p$  then  $M^{p-1} = 1 \text{ mod } p$

$$\begin{aligned} M^{ed} &= M^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \text{ mod } p \\ &= M(M^{p-1})^{k(q-1)} \text{ mod } p \\ &= M \text{ mod } p \end{aligned}$$

Similarly  $M^{ed} = M \pmod q$ .

We have

$$M^{ed} = M \pmod p$$

$$M^{ed} = M \pmod q$$

$n = pq$ , thus by the Chinese remainder theorem for all  $M$ :

$$M^{ed} = M \pmod n$$

□

# Complexity

**Theorem 7.** *Encrypting and decrypting using the RSA method takes  $O(\log n)$  multiplication steps.*



# Security

If an adversary can factor  $n$  it can “guess”  $S_A()$ .

**Conjecture:** Factoring a large number is “hard”.

**Conjecture:** If factoring is hard breaking RSA is hard.