

The RSA Cryptosystem

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Objectives

- **The RSA Cipher**
- **Quadratic Residues**

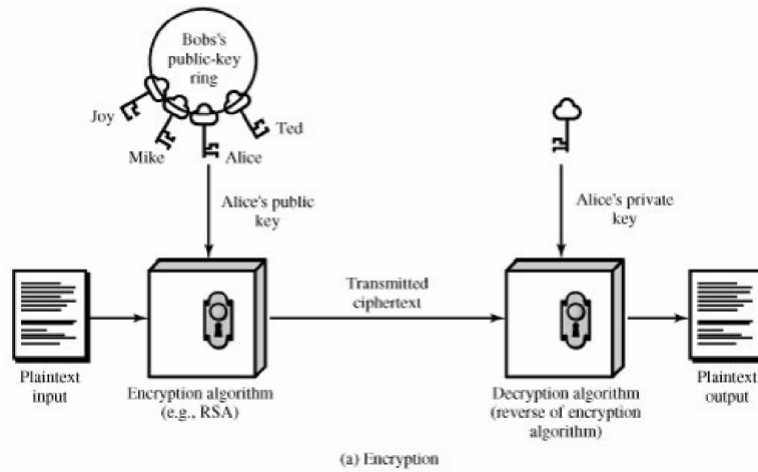
Public Key Cryptography

- **Two keys**
 - Sender uses recipient's public key to encrypt
 - Receiver uses his private key to decrypt
- **Based on trap door, one way function**
 - Easy to compute in one direction
 - Hard to compute in other direction
 - “Trap door” used to create keys
 - Example: Given p and q , product $N=pq$ is easy to compute, but given N , it is hard to find p and q

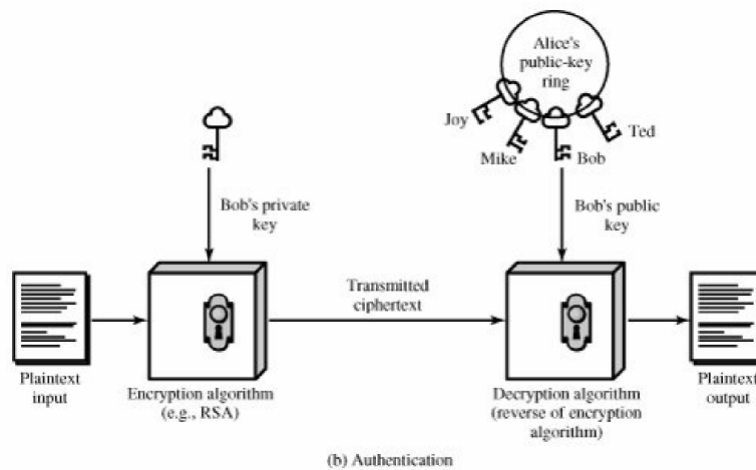
Public Key Cryptography

- Encryption
 - Suppose we encrypt M with Bob's public key
 - Only Bob's private key can decrypt to find M
- Digital Signature
 - Sign by “encrypting” with private key
 - Anyone can verify signature by “decrypting” with public key
 - But only private key holder could have signed
 - Like a handwritten signature

Encryption



Authentication



The RSA

RSA Cryptosystem

Let $n = pq$, where p and q are primes. Let $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathbb{Z}_n$, and define

$$\mathcal{K} = \{(n, p, q, a, b) : ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}\}.$$

For $K = (n, p, q, a, b)$, define

$$e_K(x) = x^b \pmod{n}$$

and

$$d_K(y) = y^a \pmod{n}$$

$(x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_n)$. The values n and b comprise the public key, and the values p, q and a form the private key.

Proof of Correctness

$$ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)} \Rightarrow ab = 1 + t\phi(n)$$

for some integer $t \geq 1$.

$$\text{Suppose, } x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^* \Rightarrow x^{ab} \equiv x^{1+t\phi(n)} \equiv x(x^{\phi(n)})^t \equiv x \pmod{n}$$

[follows from Euler's Theorem]

Now, consider $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \mathbb{Z}_n^*$

So, $\gcd(x, n) \neq 1 \Rightarrow (x \text{ is a multiple of } p) \text{ or } (x \text{ is a multiple of } q)$

Thus, $\gcd(x, p) = p$ or $\gcd(x, q) = q$

If $\gcd(x, p) = p$, then $\gcd(x, q) = 1$

[as otherwise x is a multiple of both p and q and still

x is less than $n = pq$]

Proof of Correctness

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Thus, } x^{\phi(q)} &\equiv 1 \pmod{q} \Rightarrow x^{t\phi(q)} \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \\ &\Rightarrow x^{t\phi(q)\phi(p)} \equiv 1 \pmod{q} \\ &\Rightarrow x^{t\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus, } x^{t\phi(n)} = 1 + kq,$$

where k is a positive integer

Multiplying both sides by x,

$$x^{t\phi(n)+1} = x + kqx$$

$\because \gcd(x, p) = p \Rightarrow x = cp$, for some positive integer c

$$x^{t\phi(n)+1} = x + kcpq$$

$$\Rightarrow x^{t\phi(n)+1} \equiv x^{ab} \equiv x \pmod{n}$$

Similarly, we can prove when $\gcd(x, q) = q$

Example

- **Bob chooses p=101 and q=113**
 - Thus n=11413
 - $\Phi(n)=100 \times 112=11200=2^6 5^2 7$
 - b can be used for encryption if and only if it is not a multiple of 2, 5 or 7. Let b=3533
- In practice Bob will not factor $\Phi(n)$, but will check whether $\gcd(b, \Phi(n))=1$ using EA and compute b^{-1} at the same time.

Examples

- Bob publishes $n=11413$ and $b=3533$.
- Suppose Alice wants to encrypt $x=9726$ and send to Bob.
- Hence, she computes $x^b \pmod n$
 $=9726^{3533} \pmod{11413}=5761$ and sends it to Bob.
- Bob computes $b^{-1} \pmod{\Phi(n)}=6597$ and decrypts using $5761^{6597} \pmod{11413}=9726$

Efficient Exponentiation

- Compute x^c efficiently mod n .
- Express c as follows: $c = \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} c_i 2^i$

SQUARE-AND-MULTIPLY(x, c, n)

```
z ← 1
for i ← ℓ - 1 downto 0
  do {
    if  $c_i = 1$ 
      then  $z \leftarrow (z \times x) \pmod n$ 
  }
return (z)
```

Choosing the parameters of RSA

RSA PARAMETER GENERATION

1. Generate two large primes, p and q , such that $p \neq q$
2. $n \leftarrow pq$ and $\phi(n) \leftarrow (p-1)(q-1)$
3. Choose a random b ($1 < b < \phi(n)$) such that $\gcd(b, \phi(n)) = 1$
4. $a \leftarrow b^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$
5. The public key is (n, b) and the private key is (p, q, a) .

- n is known, but its factors are not known
- b is also known, so to compute a one needs the value of $\Phi(n)$, for which we need p and q
- It has been conjectured that breaking RSA is polynomially equivalent to factoring n . But there is no proof!
- Typically, value of n is 1024 bit long and the factors are also large of around 512 bits.

Primality Testing

- How do we say whether a given number is prime?
- We propose randomized algorithms, called Monte-Carlo algorithms
- These algorithms give an answer in time that is polynomial in $\log_2 n$, which is the number of bits required to store n .
- However there is a probability that the algorithm may claim that n is prime when it is not. These numbers are called pseudo-primes.

Prime Number Theorem

- **Number of primes that are less than or equal to N is given by:**

$$\pi(N) \approx \frac{N}{\ln N}$$

Hence,...

- **If N is a 512 bit number, then there are around $2^{512}/\ln 2^{512} \approx 2^{512}/355$.**
- **So, a random 512 bit integer will be prime with probability of 1/355.**
- **Thus, if you choose 355 integers then there is one number which is prime**
- **If you choose only odd numbers the probability doubles.**

Monte-Carlo Algorithm

- **Randomized algorithm, which is yes based**
 - There is always an answer
 - When the answer is yes, it is correct
 - If the answer is no, the answer may be wrong
- **(Error Probability= ϵ) => (for any instance if the answer is yes, it can say no with a probability at most ϵ).**
- **The probability is over all random choices of the algorithm.**

The Problem Composites

	Composites
Instance:	A positive integer $n \geq 2$.
Question:	Is n composite?

- **This is a decision problem.**
- **We will discuss the Solovay-Strassen Algorithm, which is a Monte-Carlo algorithm for Composites.**
- **Thus if it says yes, n is surely composite.**
- **However, if n is composite then it says yes with probability at least $\frac{1}{2}$**

Quadratic Residue

Suppose p is an odd prime and a is an integer. a is defined to be a *quadratic residue* modulo p if $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and the congruence $y^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$ has a solution $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. a is defined to be a *quadratic non-residue* modulo p if $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and a is not a quadratic residue modulo p .

- **There are exactly $(p-1)/2$ QR (Quadratic Residues)**

Example

- \mathbb{Z}_{11}
 $1^2=1$
 $2^2=4$
 $3^2=9$
 $4^2=5$
 $5^2=3$
 $6^2=3$
 $7^2=5$
 $8^2=9$
 $9^2=4$
 $10^2=1$

Note, that the QR forms a palindrome

There are exactly $(11-1)/2=5$ QRs.

Generalization

How many solutions are there to $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$

for odd positive prime p ?

If, $y^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$, $y \in Z_p^*$

then $(-y)^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$

Note, $y \equiv -y \pmod{p}$, as p is odd

Thus, the quadratic congruence:

$$x^2 - a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

can be factored into

$$(x - y)(x + y) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

Since, p is prime, $p \mid (x - y)$ or $p \mid (x + y)$

Thus, $x \equiv \pm y \pmod{p}$

Thus, there are exactly two solutions of the congruence.

The QR Problem

<input type="checkbox"/>	Quadratic Residues
Instance:	An odd prime p , and an integer a .
Question:	Is a a quadratic residue modulo p ?

- **We have a polynomial time deterministic algorithm to solve this decision problem.**

Euler comes to the rescue again

(**Euler's Criterion**) Let p be an odd prime. Then a is a quadratic residue modulo p if and only if

$$a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

- The time complexity of this check is $O(\log p)^3$ by applying square and multiply method to raise an element to a power.
- Note that if $a^{(p-1)/2} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ then a is a non-quadratic residue.

Legendre Symbol

Suppose p is an odd prime. For any integer a , define the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$ as follows:

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } a \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\ 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue modulo } p \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic non-residue modulo } p. \end{cases}$$

Suppose p is an odd prime. Then

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}.$$

Jacobi Symbol

Suppose n is an odd positive integer, and the prime power factorization of n is

$$n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i}.$$

Let a be an integer. The *Jacobi symbol* $\left(\frac{a}{n}\right)$ is defined to be

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{a}{p_i}\right)^{e_i}.$$

Example

- **Compute** $\left(\frac{6278}{9975}\right)$

- **Note** $9975=3 \times 5^2 \times 7 \times 19$

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{6278}{9975}\right) &= \left(\frac{6278}{3}\right) \left(\frac{6278}{5}\right)^2 \left(\frac{6278}{7}\right) \left(\frac{6278}{19}\right) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^2 \left(\frac{6}{7}\right) \left(\frac{8}{19}\right) \\ &= (-1)(-1)^2(-1)(-1) = -1 \end{aligned}$$

References

- **D. Stinson, Cryptography: Theory and Practice, Chapman & Hall/CRC**

Next Days Topic

- **Primality Testing**