#### CS 5319 Advanced Discrete Structure

#### Lecture 10: Introduction to Number Theory III

## Outline

- Divisibility
- Greatest Common Divisor
- Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic
- Modular Arithmetic
- Euler Phi Function
- RSA Cryptosystem

Reference: Course Notes of MIT 6.042J (Fall 05) by Prof. Meyer and Prof. Rubinfeld

- A cryptosystem allows a sender to encrypt a message *M* into some form *C* so that only the intended receiver can decrypt *C* back to *M*
- Most cryptosystems are symmetric, where the sender and the receiver have to *share* a secret key in order to perform the encoding and decoding
  - we can encrypt if and only if we can decrypt
- Major problem : How can the receiver and sender agree on the secret key in the first place ?

- In 1977, Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman announced a scheme which does not need a shared secret key
- This is widely known as the RSA cryptosystem
  - Indeed, a similar scheme was invented earlier in 1973 by Ellis and Cocks
  - Since these schemes do not need shared secret keys, they are called public key cryptosystems
- The following describes how RSA works

**Setup.** Receiver performs the following :

- Choose two distinct primes *p* and *q*. Let  $n = p \cdot q$
- Select an integer *e* coprime to  $\varphi(n)$ .
  - The pair (*e*, *n*) is the *public key* and the receiver tells all the others
- Find the unique *d* such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ .
  - The pair (*d*, *n*) is the *secret key*, and the receiver keeps this hidden

**Encryption.** Sender performs the following :

- Get the public key (e, n) of the receiver
- Given a message *M*, with 0 < M < n, encrypt *M* by computing

$$C = M^e \operatorname{rem} n$$

• Send *C* to the receiver

**Decryption.** Receiver performs the following :

- Receive *C* from sender
- Decrypt *C* by computing

 $M = C^d \operatorname{rem} n$ 

Question : Why does RSA work ??

Theorem 9:

Decryption of RSA works.

Proof: When *M* is coprime to *n*. Since  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$ , there is an integer *t* such that  $ed = 1 + t \varphi(n)$ . Thus  $C^{d} \equiv M^{ed} \equiv M^{1+t}\varphi(n) \equiv M \pmod{n}$  $\downarrow M = C^{d} \operatorname{rem} n$ 

Proof (cont): When *M* is not coprime to *n*.

Suppose *M* is a multiple of *p* (but not *q*). Then  $C^{d} \equiv M^{ed} \equiv 0 \equiv M \pmod{p}$   $C^{d} \equiv M^{ed} \equiv M^{1+t \varphi(n)}$   $\equiv M (M^{q-1})^{t(p-1)} \equiv M \pmod{q}$   $\Rightarrow C^{d} - M$  is a multiple of both *p* and *q*  $\Rightarrow C^{d} \equiv M \pmod{n}$  [why?]

Ex : Finding Public and Secret Keys

- Suppose receiver chooses primes p = 7 and q = 11
- Then n = 77, with  $\varphi(n) = (7 1)(11 1) = 60$
- Suppose the receiver choose *e* = 7, since 7 is coprime to 60
- The corresponding *d* becomes 43, since 43 × 7 = 301 ≡ 1 (mod 60)
  → Public key = (7, 77); Secret key = (43, 77)

- Ex : Encryption and Decryption
- If sender wants to send M = 4, she encrypts it as

 $C = 4^7$  rem 77

= 16384 rem 77 = 60

• When receiver receives C = 60, he decrypts it as

 $M = 60^{43} \text{ rem } 77 = 4$ 

Note:  $60^2 \equiv 58, \ 60^4 \equiv 53, \ 60^8 \equiv 37, \ 60^{16} \equiv 60, \ 60^{32} \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$   $\Rightarrow 60^{43} \equiv 60^{32} \times 60^8 \times 60^2 \times 60$  $\equiv 58 \times 37 \times 58 \times 60 \equiv 4 \pmod{77}$ 

- Security of RSA relies on the assumption below :
   Given the public key (e, n) and C, it is difficult to compute the message M
  - This relies on the assumption that given the public key (e, n), it is difficult to compute d
  - This further relies on the assumption that it is difficult to factor n into p and q
- It is recommended that *n* is at least 2048 bits long

- Because RSA is now widely used, many people wants to break RSA
- Some weaknesses in RSA are known. Example :
  - If the prime factors of either p 1 or q 1 are all small, the technique by Pollard (1974) can factor n quickly
  - Also true if the prime factors of either *p* + 1 or *q* + 1 are all small (Williams (1982))

Theorem 10:

If p and q are 'close', then RSA is insecure.

Proof:

If p and q are 'close', then (p + q) / 2 is not much larger than  $\sqrt{n}$  (we know that it is at least as big)

Now, suppose p > q and we set

x = (p + q) / 2, y = (p - q) / 2

Proof (cont) :

Thus  $n = p \cdot q$ =  $x^2 - y^2 = (x + y)(x - y)$ 

Hence, if an attacker can express n as a difference of two squares, she can factor n

To do this, the attacker tests the numbers  $\lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$ ,  $\lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil + 1$ ,  $\lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil + 2$ , ... until finding *s* such that  $s^2 - n$  is a square number

Proof (cont) :

The number of tests is equal to  $x - \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil = (p+q)/2 - \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$ which is small

More precisely, if  $p = (1+\varepsilon)\sqrt{n}$ , then the number of tests is approximately :

$$\left(\frac{(1+\varepsilon)+(1+\varepsilon)^{-1}}{2}-1\right)\sqrt{n} = \frac{\varepsilon^2\sqrt{n}}{2(1+\varepsilon)}$$

Ex : Primes p and q are too close

If n = 56759,

then the ceiling of its square root is 239. By testing  $s = 239, 240, \dots$  we find that

 $240^2 - 56759 = 841 = 29^2$ 

Thus we have  $n = 56759 = 240^2 - 29^2 = 269 \times 211$