

RSA: Public Key Crypto

- Ex: Alice creates a public RSA key
 - She picks 2 primes: p, q . $p = 7, q = 11$.
 $n = pq = 7 * 11 = 77$
 $e,$
Need $\gcd(e, (p - 1)(q - 1)) = 1$
 $e = 17$
 - Alice's Public Key in $(n, e) = (77, 17)$. Everyone knows these numbers.
 - Bob wants to send the message $m = 9$ to Alice.
 - Bob computes $E(9) \equiv 9^{17} \pmod{77}$
 $17 = 16 + 1$
 $9^1 \equiv 9 \pmod{77}$
 $9^2 \equiv 81 \equiv 4 \pmod{77}$
 $9^4 \equiv 4^2 \equiv 16 \pmod{77}$
 $9^8 \equiv 16^2 \equiv 256 \equiv 25 \pmod{77}$
 $9^{16} \equiv 25^2 \equiv 625 \equiv 9 \pmod{77}$
 $9^{17} \equiv (9^{16})(9^1) \equiv 9 \times 9 \equiv 81$
 - To decrypt, Alice has to compute $d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$ Note:
 $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
 $d \equiv 17^{-1} \pmod{(7 - 1)(11 - 1)}$ Note: $(7 - 1)(11 - 1) = 60$
Euclid's Algorithm
 $\gcd(17, 60)$
 $60 = 3(17) + 9$
 $17 = 1(9) + 8$
 $9 = 1(8) + 1$
 $1 = 9 - 1(8)$
 $= 9 - 1(17 - 1(9)) = 2(9) - 1(17)$
 $= 2(60 - 3(17)) - 1(17)$
 $1 = 2(60) - 7(17)$
- RSA is secure as long as n is too big to factor.
- What if there was an easier way to compute $\phi(n)$? (A way that didn't require factoring?)
- **Computing $\phi(n)$** and **Factoring n** are equally difficult.
- Suppose you have a fast way to compute $\phi(n)$:
 $\phi(n) = \phi(pq) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
- Compute
 $V = n - \phi(n) + 1$
 $= pq - (p - 1)(q - 1) + 1$

$$= pq - (pq - p - q + 1) + 1$$

$$= p + q$$

p and q are the roots of $x^2 - vx + n = (x - q)(x - p)$

$$p, q = \frac{v \pm \sqrt{v^2 - 4n}}{2}$$

- Suppose $n = 27,906,817$
 $\phi(n) = 27,894,996$
 Use this info to find p, q .
 - $p = 8563$
 - $q = 3259$
- Alice needs two really large primes p and q , essentially p and q need to be “brand new”, prime numbers never used before.
- There are much faster ways to check if a number is prime than to factor it.
- Fermat Primality test “compositeness”.
- Fermat’s Little theorem: If p is prime and $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.
 - Contrapositive: if $a^{p-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ then p is not prime.
- Steps to Fermat’s Primality test:
 - We want to test if n is prime.
 - 1) Pick a randomly $1 < a < n - 1$
 - 2) Compute $a^{n-1} \pmod{n}$
 - If we don’t get 1, n is composite.
 - If we do get 1, n is “probably prime”.
- Ex: $n = 5, a = 2$. Compute $2^{n-1} \equiv 2^4 \equiv 16 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$
 - Fermat says 5 is “probably prime”.
- Test if $n = 33$ is prime.
 - Pick an a
 - $a = 5$
 $5^{33-1} \equiv 5^{32}$
 - Repeated squaring:

$$5^2 \equiv 25 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^4 \equiv 25^2 \equiv (-8)^2 \equiv 64 \equiv 31 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^8 \equiv 31^2 \equiv (-2)^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^{16} \equiv 4^2 \equiv 16 \pmod{33}$$

$$5^{32} \equiv 16^2 \equiv 256 \equiv 25 \pmod{33}. \text{ Note: Not } 1 \pmod{33}$$
 - 33 is **not prime**.

- Test $n = 21$ using Fermat's test and $a = 13$. Compute $13^{20} \pmod{21}$

$$13^2 \equiv (-8)^2 \equiv 64 \pmod{21} \equiv 1 \pmod{21}$$

$$13^4 \equiv 1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{21}$$

$$13^8 \equiv 1$$

$$13^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{21}$$

$$13^{20} \equiv 13^{16} \times 13^4 \equiv (1)(1) \equiv 1 \pmod{21}$$
 - Fermat says $n = 21$ is "probably prime".
 - Keep trying more values of a to see if they also give probably prime. Try $a = 2$,
$$2^{20} \equiv (2^{16})(2^4) \pmod{21}$$

$$2^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{21}$$

$$2^4 \equiv 4^2 \equiv 16 \pmod{21}$$

$$2^8 \equiv 16^2 \equiv (-5)^2 \equiv 25 \equiv 4 \pmod{21}$$

$$2^{16} \equiv 4^2 \equiv 16 \pmod{21}$$

$$2^{20} \equiv 2^{16} \times 2^4 \equiv 16 \times 16 \equiv 4 \pmod{21}. \text{ Note: Not 1. 21 is composite.}$$
- If n is composite but $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, we call n a base- a **pseudoprime**.
 - 21 is a base-13 pseudoprime.
- There exists composite numbers v^n which are pseudoprimes to every base coprime to n . These are called Carmichael numbers. The smallest example is $n = 561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17$.