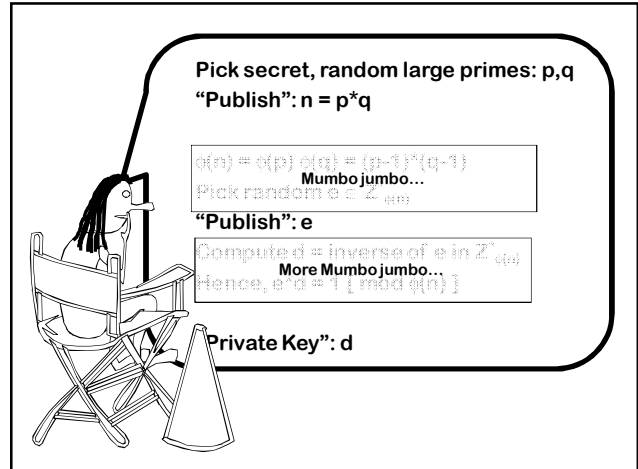


The RSA Cryptosystem

Rivest, Shamir, and Adelman (1978)

RSA is one of the most used cryptographic protocols on the net.

Your browser uses it to establish a secure session with a site.



But how does it all work?

What is $\phi(n)$?

What is $\mathbb{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*$?

...

Why do all the steps work?

To understand this, we need a little number theory...

$$\text{MAX}(a,b) + \text{MIN}(a,b) = a+b$$

$n|m$ means that:

m is an integer multiple of n .
(We say that " n divides m ".)

Greatest Common Divisor:

$\text{GCD}(x,y)$ = greatest $k \geq 1$ such that $k|x$ and $k|y$

Least Common Multiple:

$\text{LCM}(x,y)$ = smallest $k \geq 1$ such that $x|k$ and $y|k$

Fact: $\text{GCD}(x,y) \times \text{LCM}(x,y) = x \times y$

You can use $\text{MAX}(a,b) + \text{MIN}(a,b) = a+b$ to prove the above fact.

Modulus

$(a \bmod n)$ means:

the remainder when a is divided by n

If $a = dn + r$ with $0 \leq r < n$

Then $r = (a \bmod n)$

and $d = (a \text{ div } n)$

Modular Equivalence

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow (a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n) \\ \Leftrightarrow n|(a-b)$$

Written as $a \equiv_n b$, and spoken
“ a and b are equivalent modulo n ”

Example: $31 \equiv 81 \pmod{2}$
 $31 \equiv_2 81$

\equiv_n is an Equivalence Relation

In other words, it is:

Reflexive: $a \equiv_n a$

Symmetric: $(a \equiv_n b) \Rightarrow (b \equiv_n a)$

Transitive: $(a \equiv_n b \text{ and } b \equiv_n c) \Rightarrow (a \equiv_n c)$

\equiv_n induces a partition of Z into n classes

a and b are said to be in the same “residue class” or “congruence class” when $a \equiv_n b$

$a \equiv_n b \Leftrightarrow n|(a-b)$
“a and b are equivalent modulo n”

Define Residue class [i] = the set of all integers that are congruent to i modulo n

Residue Classes Mod 3:

- [0] = { ..., -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, .. }
- [1] = { ..., -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, .. }
- [2] = { ..., -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, .. }
- [-6] = { ..., -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, .. }
- [7] = { ..., -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, .. }
- [-1] = { ..., -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, .. }

Fact: equivalence mod n implies equivalence mod any divisor of n.

If $(x \equiv_n y)$ and $(k|n)$ then: $x \equiv_k y$

Example: $10 \equiv_6 16 \Rightarrow 10 \equiv_3 16$

Proof: $x \equiv_n y \Leftrightarrow n|(x-y)$
 $\Rightarrow k|(x-y)$
 $\Rightarrow x \equiv_k y$

Fundamental lemma of plus, minus, and times mod n:

If $(x \equiv_n y)$ and $(a \equiv_n b)$, then:

1. $x + a \equiv_n y + b$
2. $x - a \equiv_n y - b$
3. $x * a \equiv_n y * b$

When doing plus, minus, and times modulo n, you can at any time replace a number with a number in the same residue class modulo n

What is $(249)(504) \bmod 251$?

When working mod 251: $(-2)(2) = -4 = 247$

A Unique Representation System Modulo n:

We pick exactly one representative from each residue class.

We do all our calculations using these representatives.

Unique Representation System Modulo 3

Finite set $S = \{0, 1, 2\}$

+ and * defined on S:

+	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

*	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2
2	0	2	1

Unique Representation System Modulo 3

Finite set $S = \{0, 1, -1\}$

+ and * defined on S:

+	0	1	-1
0	0	1	-1
1	1	-1	0
-1	-1	0	1

*	0	1	-1
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	-1
-1	0	-1	1

Perhaps The Most Convenient Set of Representatives

The reduced system modulo n:

$$Z_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$$

Define operations $+_n$ and $*_n$:

$$a +_n b = (a+b \text{ mod } n)$$

$$a *_n b = (a*b \text{ mod } n)$$

The Reduced System Modulo 2

$$Z_2 = \{0, 1\}$$

Two binary, associative
operators on Z_2 :

$+_2$	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

$*_2$	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

**The Reduced System
Modulo 2
 $Z_2 = \{0, 1\}$**

Two binary, associative operators on Z_2 :

\oplus_2 XOR	0	1	\otimes_2 AND	0	1
0	0	1	0	0	0
1	1	0	1	0	1

**The Reduced System
 $Z_4 = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$**

+	0	1	2	3	*	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3	0	0	0	0	0
1	1	2	3	0	1	0	1	2	3
2	2	3	0	1	2	0	2	0	2
3	3	0	1	2	3	0	3	2	1

**The Reduced System
 $Z_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$**

+	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	2	3	4	5	0
2	2	3	4	5	0	1
3	3	4	5	0	1	2
4	4	5	0	1	2	3
5	5	0	1	2	3	4

An operator has the permutation property if each row and each column has a permutation of the elements.

For every n , \oplus_n on Z_n has the permutation property

What about multiplication?
Does \otimes_6 on Z_6 have the permutation property?

*	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

NO!

What about $*_8$ on Z_8 ?

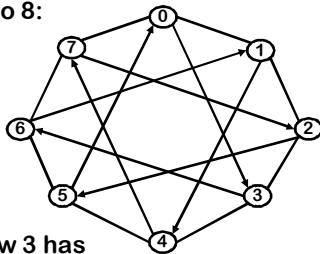
*	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0								
1								
2								
3	0	3	6	1	4	7	2	5
4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
5								
6								
7								

Which rows have the permutation property?

A visual way to understand multiplication and the “permutation property”.

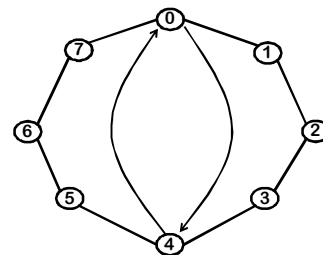
The multiples of c modulo n is the set:
 $\{0, c, c +_n c, c +_n c +_n c, \dots\}$
 $= \{kc \text{ mod } n \mid 0 \leq k \leq n-1\}$

There are exactly 8 distinct multiples of 3 modulo 8:

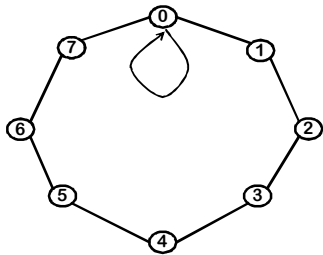


Hit all numbers \Leftrightarrow row 3 has the “permutation property”

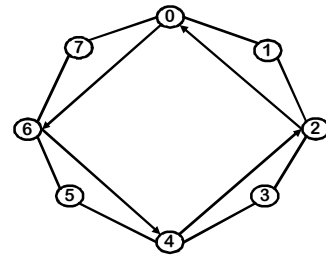
There are exactly 2 distinct multiples of 4 modulo 8



There is exactly 1 distinct multiple of 8 modulo 8



There are exactly 4 distinct multiples of 6 modulo 8



There number of distinct multiples of c modulo n is:

$$\text{LCM}(n,c)/c = n/\text{GCD}(c,n)$$

Hence only those values of c with $\text{GCD}(c,n) = 1$ have the permutation property for \cdot_n on Z_n

Theorem: There are exactly $k = n/\text{GCD}(c,n) = \text{LCM}(c,n)/c$ distinct multiples of c modulo n , and these are: $\{c^*i \bmod n \mid 0 \leq i < k\}$

Proof:

Clearly, $c/\text{GCD}(c,n) \geq 1$ is a whole number

$$ck = cn/\text{GCD}(c,n) = n(c/\text{GCD}(c,n)) \equiv_n 0$$

So there are at most k multiples of c mod n :

$$c^*0, c^*1, c^*2, \dots, c^*(k-1)$$

Also, $k =$ all the factors of n missing from c

$$\Rightarrow cx \equiv_n cy \Leftrightarrow n|c(x-y) \Rightarrow k|(x-y) \Rightarrow x-y \geq k$$

Hence, there are exactly k multiples of c .

**Fundamental lemma of plus,
minus, and times mod n:**

If $(x \equiv_n y)$ and $(a \equiv_n b)$, then:

- 1. $x + a \equiv_n y + b$**
- 2. $x - a \equiv_n y - b$**
- 3. $x * a \equiv_n y * b$**

**Is there a fundamental lemma
of division modulo n?**

$$cx \equiv_n cy \Rightarrow x \equiv_n y ?$$

Of course not!

If $c=0[\text{mod } n]$, $cx \equiv_n cy$ for all x and y .

Canceling the c is like dividing by zero.

Let's Fix That!

**Repaired fundamental lemma of
division modulo n?**

if $c \neq 0 [\text{mod } n]$, then

$$cx \equiv_n cy \Rightarrow x \equiv_n y ?$$

$6*3 \equiv_{10} 6*8$, but not $3 \equiv_{10} 8$

$2*2 \equiv_6 2*5$, but not $2 \equiv_6 5$

This also doesn't work!

When Can't I Divide By c?

**Theorem: There are exactly $n/\text{GCD}(c,n)$
distinct multiples of c modulo n**

**Corollary: If $\text{GCD}(c,n) > 1$, then the
number of multiples of c is less than n**

**Corollary: If $\text{GCD}(c,n) > 1$ then you
can't always divide by c .**

Proof:

**There must exist distinct $x,y < n$ such that
 $c*x=c*y$ (but $x \neq y$). Hence can't divide.**

Fundamental lemma of division modulo n:
if $\text{GCD}(c,n)=1$, then $ca \equiv_n cb \Rightarrow a \equiv_n b$

Proof: $ca \equiv_n cb \Rightarrow n|(cb-ca)$

$$\Rightarrow n|c(b-a)$$

$$\Rightarrow n|(b-a) \quad (\text{because } \text{GCD}(c,n)=1)$$

$$\Rightarrow a \equiv_n b$$

Fundamental lemma of division modulo n:
if $\text{GCD}(c,n)=1$, then $ca \equiv_n cb \Rightarrow a \equiv_n b$

Consider the set:

$$Z_n^* = \{x \in Z_n \mid \text{GCD}(x,n) = 1\}$$

Multiplication over this set Z_n^* will
have the cancellation property

$$Z_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$$

$$Z_6^* = \{1, 5\}$$

*	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

$$Z_{12}^* = \{0 \leq x < 12 \mid \text{gcd}(x,12) = 1\}$$

$$= \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$$

* ₁₂	1	5	7	11
1	1	5	7	11
5	5	1	11	7
7	7	11	1	5
11	11	7	5	1

$$\mathbb{Z}_5^* = \{1,2,3,4\} = \mathbb{Z}_5 \setminus \{0\}$$

$*_5$	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

For all primes p , $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$,
since all $0 < x < p$ satisfy $\gcd(x,p) = 1$

Euler Phi Function $\phi(n)$

Define $\phi(n)$ = size of \mathbb{Z}_n^*

(number of $1 \leq k < n$ that
are relatively prime to n)

If p is prime, then $\phi(p) = p-1$

$$\mathbb{Z}_{12}^* = \{0 \leq x < 12 \mid \gcd(x,12) = 1\}$$

$$= \{1,5,7,11\}$$

$*_{12}$	1	5	7	11
1	1	5	7	11
5	5	1	11	7
7	7	11	1	5
11	11	7	5	1

$$\phi(12) = 4$$

Theorem: if p,q distinct primes then:

$$\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$$

Proof:

of integers from 1 to pq : pq

of multiples of q up to pq : p

of multiples of p up to pq : q

of multiples of both p and q up to pq : 1

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

Additive Inverse

The additive inverse of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ is the unique $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ such that $a +_n b \equiv_n 0$.

We denote this inverse by “-a”

It is trivial to calculate:
“-a” = n-a

Multiplicative Inverse

The multiplicative inverse of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ is the unique $b \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ such that $a *_n b \equiv_n 1$

We denote this inverse by “a⁻¹” or “1/a”

The unique inverse of “a” must exist because the “a” row contains a permutation of the elements and hence contains a unique 1.

*	1	b	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
a	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

Efficient Algorithm To Compute a⁻¹ From a and n

Run Extended Euclidean Algorithm on the numbers a and n

It will give two integers r and s such that $ra + sn = \gcd(a,n) = 1$

Taking both sides modulo n, we obtain: $ra \equiv_n 1$

Output r, which is the inverse of a

Fundamental Lemmas Until Now

If $(x \equiv_n y)$ and $(a \equiv_n b)$, then:

1. $x + a \equiv_n y + b$
2. $x - a \equiv_n y - b$
3. $x *_n a \equiv_n y *_n b$

For a,b,c in \mathbb{Z}_n^*
then $ca \equiv_n cb \Rightarrow a \equiv_n b$

If $(a \equiv_n b)$ then $x^a \equiv_n x^b$? **NO!**

$(2 \equiv_3 5)$, but it is not the case that: $2^2 \equiv_3 2^5$

Euler's Theorem:

$$a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*, a^{\phi(n)} \equiv_n 1$$

Fermat's Little Theorem:

$$p \text{ prime, } a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* \Rightarrow a^{p-1} \equiv_p 1$$

**Fundamental
Lemma of Powers:**

$$\text{If } a \equiv_{\phi(n)} b \text{ Then } x^a \equiv_n x^b$$

Equivalently,
 $x^a \equiv_n x^{a \bmod \phi(n)}$

What is $2^{4444444441} \bmod 5$?

$$x^a \pmod n = x^{a \bmod \phi(n)} \pmod n$$

$$4444444441 \equiv_{\phi(5)} 1$$

$$\text{So } 2^{4444444441} \bmod 5 = 2$$

Negative Powers

Suppose $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$, and a, n are naturals. x^{-a} is defined to be the multiplicative inverse of x^a

$$x^{-a} = (x^a)^{-1}$$

Rule of Integer Exponents

Suppose $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$, and a, b are integers:

$$(xy)^{-1} \equiv_n x^{-1} y^{-1}$$

$$x^a x^b \equiv_n x^{a+b}$$

The RSA Cryptosystem



Pick secret, random large primes: p, q
"Publish": $n = p \cdot q$

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

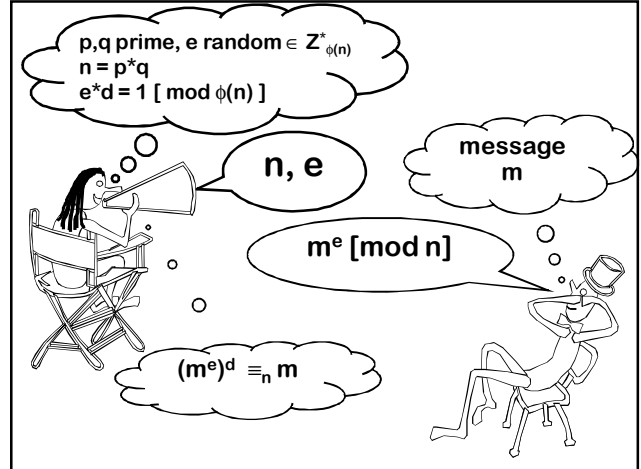
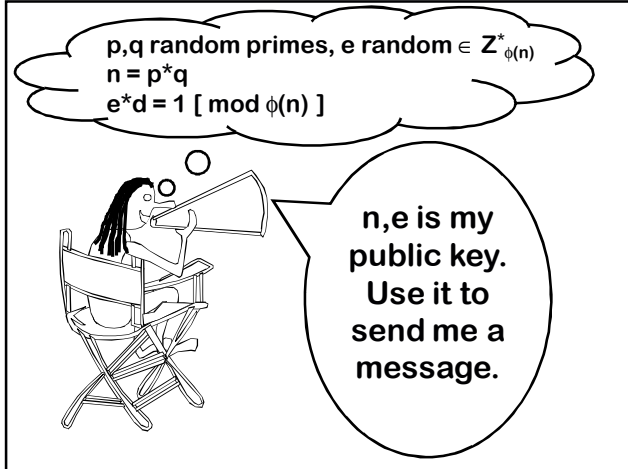
Pick random $e \in \mathbb{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*$

"Publish": e

Compute $d = \text{inverse of } e \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{\phi(n)}^*$

Hence, $e \cdot d = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

"Private Key": d



Here's What You Need to Know...

- Working modulo integer n
- Definitions of $\mathbb{Z}_n, \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ and their properties
- Fundamental lemmas of $+, -, *, /$
- When can you divide out
- How to calculate $c^{-1} \pmod{n}$.
- Fundamental lemma of powers
- Euler phi function $\phi(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$
- Euler's theorem
- Fermat's little theorem
- RSA algorithm