

RSA public key crypto system

12 The RSA public-key cryptosystem

12.1 Public-key cryptosystems

participants X :

- $X = A$, Alice, $X = B$ Bob, want private communication and authentication (signature) of documents from a *message domain* D .
- $X = E$ eavesdropper, listens on public channel

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keys of X :

- public key P_X
- secret key S_X
- for messages $M \in D$ one denotes by $P_X(M)$ resp. $S_X(M)$ the result of applying key P_X resp. S_X to d . Obvious overloading of notation.
- functions

$$P_X, S_X : D \rightarrow D$$

are bijective (i.e. permutations) and inverses of each other

$$P_X(S_X(M)) = S_X(P_X(M)) = M \quad \text{for all } M \in D$$

- the hard part: even if P_X is known it is for the eavesdropper computationally extremely hard to discover S_X

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how Bob encrypts message M :

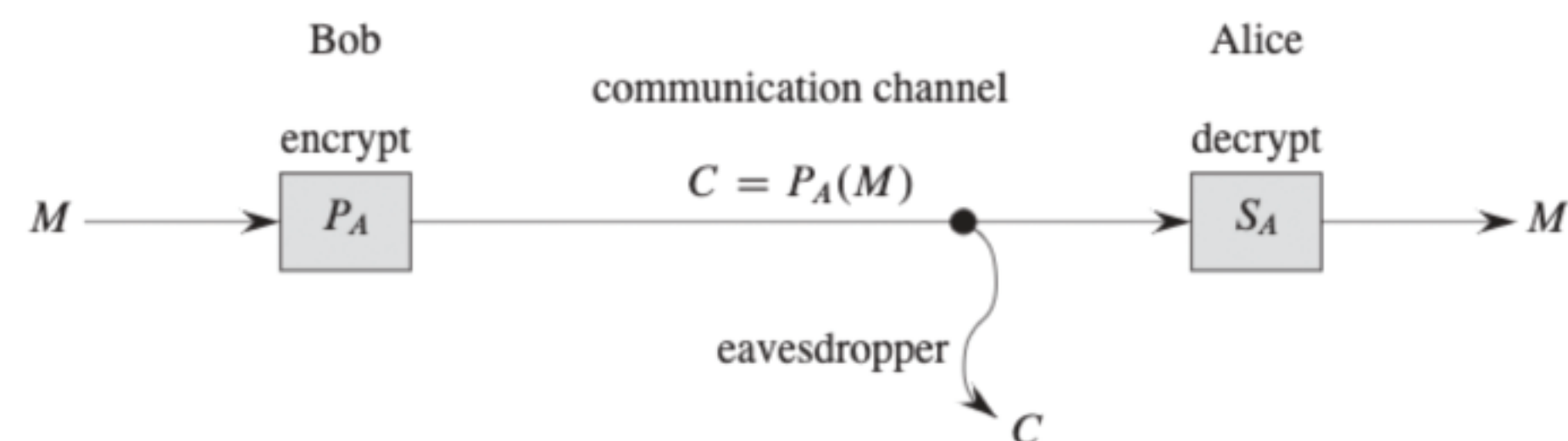


Figure 1: from [CLRS]: encrypting and decrypting a message

- Using public key of Alice Bob computes
$$C = P_A(M)$$
- eavesdropper can observe C and is hopefully unable to discover M
- using her secret key Alice decodes

$$M = S_A(C) = S_A(P_A(M)) = M$$

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how Alice signs message M' :

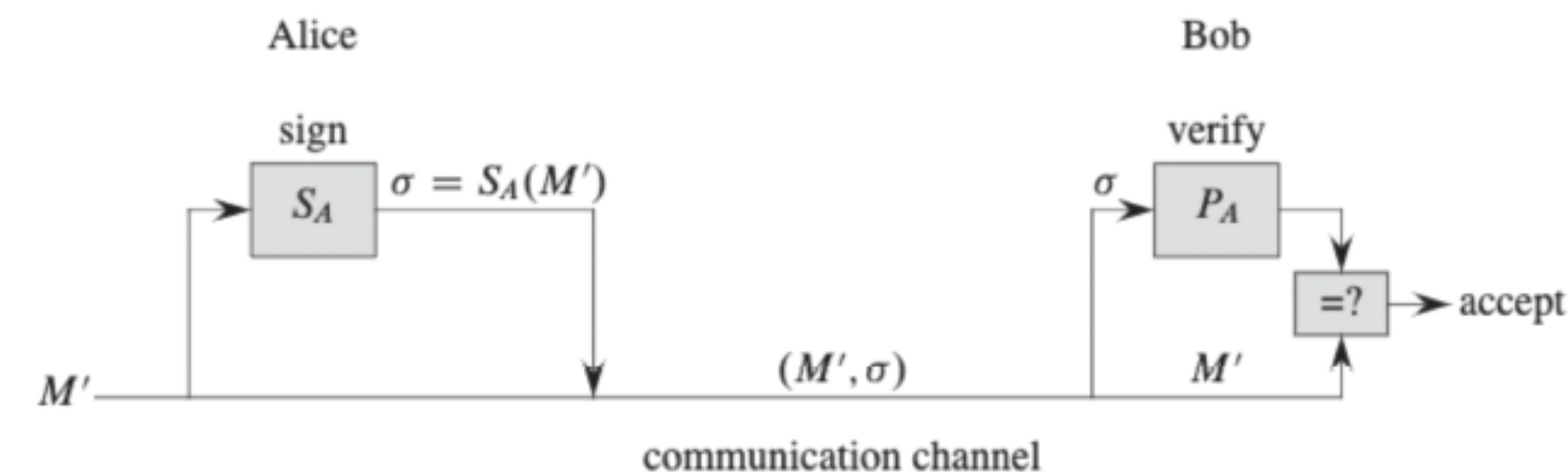


Figure 2: from [CLRS]: signing a message and checking the signature

- using her private key Alice computes signature

$$\sigma = S_A(M')$$

- then Alice transmits

(M', σ) . i.e. message and signature

- using Alices public key Bob decodes the signature. The result should be the transmitted message

$$P_A(\sigma) = P_A(S_A(M')) = M'$$

He accepts, if this is the case

protocols can be combined

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exploits that finding large primes is easy (we show how to do this later) and that factoring their product is (up till now) hard.

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generation of keys (requires a trusted agency)

1. select two large prime numbers p, q with $p \neq q$. [CLRS] suggest 1024 bits, but that was a long time ago. We show how to do this later.
2. compute $n = pq$
3. select a small odd integer e relatively prime to $\varphi(n)$

$$\gcd(e, \varphi(n)) = \gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$$

4. compute the multiplicative inverse d of e modulo $\varphi(n)$.

$$de \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$$

Lemma 24 $\rightarrow d$ exists and is unique. Compute by

$$\text{ext-eucl}(e, \varphi(n)) = (1, x, y)$$

Then

$$1 = xe + y\varphi(n) \quad , \quad xe \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)} \quad , \quad d = x \pmod{\varphi(n)}$$

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$$P = (e, n)$$

6. Inform only the user who requested key generation of the secret key

$$S = (d, n)$$

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- decoding C

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complexity of coding and decoding:

Let

$$\log e = O(1) \quad , \quad \log d \leq \beta \quad , \quad \log n \leq \beta$$

and assume mulitplication of β bit numbers with $O(\beta^2)$ bit operations. Then cost is

- for encoding M : $O(1)$ modular multiplications, $O(\beta^2)$ bit operations
- for decoding C : using repeated squaring $O(\beta)$ modular multiplications, $O(\beta^3)$ bit operations

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Lemma 35. Functions $P(\cdot)$ and $S(\cdot)$ defined above satisfy for any $M \in \mathbb{Z}_n$

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$$ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)} \quad , \quad \varphi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$$

hence

$$ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1) \quad \text{for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

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- claim: $M^{ed} \equiv M \pmod{p}$ for all M .

trivial for $M \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Thus assume $M \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$:

$$\begin{aligned} M^{ed} &\equiv M(M^{p-1})^{k(q-1)} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv M(M \pmod{p})^{p-1})^{k(q-1)} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv M(1) \pmod{p} \quad (\text{lemma 30, Fermat's theorem}) \\ &\equiv M \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

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• similarly: $M^{ed} \equiv M \bmod q$ for all M

• Recall lemma 28, corollary of Chinese remainder theorem:

Let

$$n = n_1 n_2 \dots n_k \quad , \quad i \neq j \rightarrow \gcd(n_i, n_j) = 1 \quad (\text{pairwise relatively prime})$$

and

$$a, x \in \mathbb{Z}$$

then

$$x \equiv a \bmod n_i \text{ for all } i \in [1 : k] \quad \leftrightarrow \quad x \equiv a \bmod n$$

$$M^{ed} \equiv M \bmod n$$