

# STMC HKOI Training

RSA Encrpytion

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# Goal today

- Learn theory behind RSA encryption
- Implement proof-of-concept RSA encryption in Python



# Useful mathematical results

## Theorem (Chinese Remainder Theorem)

Let  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  be a set of  $n$  relatively prime integers (i.e.  $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$  if  $i \neq j$ )  
the the following sysmtem of linear congruence:

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

$\dots$

$$x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution  $\pmod{m_1 m_2 m_3 \dots m_n}$



# Useful mathematical results

## Corollary

*Let  $n = pq$  and  $p, q$  are distinct primes, then solving*

$$x \equiv a \pmod{n}$$

*is equivalent as solving*

$$x \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

$$x \equiv a \pmod{q}$$



# Useful mathematical results

## Theorem (Fermat's Little Theorem)

*Let  $p$  be a prime number and  $p \nmid a$ , then*

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

## Corollary (Another form of Fermat's little theorem)

*Let  $a$  be any integers, then*

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

**Proof:** If  $p \nmid a$ , then by the theorem above  $a^{p-1} \equiv a^{-1} \pmod{p}$  and thus  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ ;  
Otherwise,  $p|a$  and  $a^p \equiv a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$



# Useful mathematical results

We can generalize Fermat's little theorem using the Euler Phi function to obtain the Euler's theorem

## Theorem (Euler's Theorem)

*Let  $a$  be an integer with  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , then:*

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

*where  $\phi(n)$  denotes the Euler phi function*



# RSA Encryption: Motivation

- We want to work out a way such that



# RSA Encryption: Preparation

1. Find two large prime numbers  $p, q$
2. Compute  $n = pq$  and  $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
3. Choose an integer  $c$  relatively prime to  $\phi(n)$  (i.e.  $\gcd(c, \phi(n)) = 1$ )
4. Compute the multiplicative inverse of  $c \bmod \phi(n)$ . Call it  $d$

$$cd \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$$

5. Keep  $p, q, d, \phi(n)$  secret while make  $(n, c)$  public





# RSA Encryption: Encrypt and Decrypt

Now,  $d$  is your **private key** and  $(n, c)$  is your **public key**. Let  $M$  be your **message** and  $M < n$  (Otherwise break  $M$  into smaller parts that are less than  $n$ ). To **encrypt** a message, compute:

$$E = M^c \mod n$$

To **decrypt** a message, compute:

$$M = E^d \mod n$$



# RSA Encryption: Example with context

Ben has followed the procedure above and computed a public key  $(n, c)$  and private key  $d$  which he kept secret. Now let's say Amy wants to send him a secret message  $M$ . Now instead of sending  $M$  unencrypted through the internet, she will first take Ben's private key  $c$  and compute:

$$E = M^c \mod n$$

She then send this encrypted message  $E$  over the net. Ben, upon receiving  $E$  will be able to decrypt her secret message by computing:

$$M = E^d \mod n$$



# RSA Encryption: Why it works

We will now prove the *correctness* of the RSA algorithm (i.e. Prove that we can actually decrypt the original message  $M$  from  $E$  through the procedure)

## Proof.

Recall  $M < n$  and  $n = pq$ . So if we consider  $\gcd(M, n)$ , there are 4 cases:

1.  $\gcd(M, n) = 1$
2.  $\gcd(M, n) = p$
3.  $\gcd(M, n) = q$
4.  $\gcd(M, n) = n$



# RSA Encryption: Why it works

## Proof.

**Case 1**  $\gcd(M, n) = 1$ : Since  $cd \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$ ,  $cd = 1 + t\phi(n)$  for some integer  $t$ .  
Hence:

$$E^d = M^{cd} = M \left( M^{\phi(n)} \right)^t \equiv M(1) \equiv M \pmod{n}$$

Here we have used Euler Theorem  $M^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  if  $\gcd(M, n) = 1$



# RSA Encryption: Why it works

## Proof.

**Case 2**  $\gcd(M, n) = p$ : We cannot apply Euler's theorem directly. However, we can use Chinese remainder theorem to convert our original congruence from:

$$E^d \equiv M^{cd} \pmod{n}$$

To

$$E^d \equiv M^{cd} \pmod{p}$$

$$E^d \equiv M^{cd} \pmod{q}$$



# RSA Encryption: Why it works

## Proof.

Now  $\gcd(M, n) = p$ , so  $p|M$  and thus:

$$M^{cd} \equiv M \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

On the other hand,  $\gcd(M, q) = 1$  and  $cd = 1 + t\phi(n) = 1 + t(p-1)(q-1)$ , so:

$$M^{cd} \equiv M (M^{q-1})^{t(p-1)} \equiv M(1) \equiv M \pmod{q}$$

Here we used the Fermat's little theorem  $M^{q-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$  if  $\gcd(M, q) = 1$



# RSA Encryption: Why it works

## Proof.

**Case 3**  $\gcd(M, n) = q$ : Same as Case 2 except  $p, q$  swapped

**Case 4**  $\gcd(M, n) = pq$ : In this case  $n|M$  so:

$$E^d \equiv M^{cd} \equiv M \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

So in all 4 cases we have  $E^d \equiv M \pmod{n}$ . This means  $E^d = M + nt$  for some integer  $t$ .  
But  $M < n$ , so  $t = 0$  and  $E^d \pmod{n} = M$  □



# RSA Encryption: Finding the primes

- To compute RSA keys, we need to find two large primes  $p, q$
- How can we find these primes?
- The idea is simple: We find large numbers at random, and check if they are primes
- But how to check primes *efficiently*?





# Primality test: Trial division

- This is the simplest but also slowest algorithm
- To test the primality of  $n$ , we first find all the primes from 2 to  $\sqrt{n}$ , call it  $\{p_i\}$

$$\{p_i\} = \{p \text{ is prime} | 2 \leq p \leq \sqrt{n}\}$$

- We then loop over  $p_i$  and check if  $n$  is divisible by any of it; If so, it's not a prime, otherwise it is a prime
- We will prove the *correctness* of the algorithm in the next slide



# Primality test: Trial division

## Theorem (Correctness of Trial division)

*Let  $n$  be an integer and  $\{p_i\}$  be the collection of all primes  $\leq \sqrt{n}$ , then  $n$  is a prime if and only if  $p_i \nmid n$  for all  $p_i \in \{p_i\}$*

### Proof.

*(Only if): If  $n$  is a prime, obviously it is not divisible by  $p_i$ . Done.*

*(If): Suppose not,  $p_i \nmid n$  for all  $p_i \in \{p_i\}$  but  $n$  is composite. Then there exist some prime  $q \notin \{p_i\}$  and  $q|n$ . Now  $q > \sqrt{n}$ , otherwise it would have been included in  $\{p_i\}$ .*

*Furthermore, consider  $h = n/q$ . Obviously  $h|n$  and  $h < \sqrt{n}$  because  $q > \sqrt{n}$ . Now no matter if  $h$  is composite or prime, there exist some prime number  $s|h$  and so  $s|n$  but  $s < \sqrt{n}$ , which is a contradiction.*

□



# Primality test: Fermat's test

- Trial division is slow, so we wish to find something faster
- Here we introduce Fermat test, which can test if a number is **not** prime

## Theorem (Fermat Test)

*Let  $a, n$  be integers and  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ ,  $n$  is composite if*

$$a^{n-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

## Proof.

*If  $n$  is prime, then by Fermat's little theorem  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , which is a contradiction.*

□



# Primality test: Fermat's test

- Note that  $n$  passing the Fermat test **does not imply**  $n$  is a prime
- For example,  $21 = 7 \times 3$  is certainly not a prime and  $\gcd(55, 21) = 1$ . However,

$$55^{21-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{21}$$

so 21 passes the Fermat test to the base 55

- In general, suppose  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  and  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . Then we said  $n$  is a **pseudoprime base  $a$**



# Primality test: Carmichael numbers

- Worse still, there exist some  $n$  such that for any  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ ,  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- That is, even if you check all possible (reasonable)  $a$  and find out  $n$  passes all these Fermat tests, you will still not be able to conclude if  $n$  is prime
- These are called **Carmichael number**
- For example,  $561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17$  is a smallest carmichael number.



# Primality test: Carmichael numbers

## Theorem

*561 is a Carmichael number*

## Proof.

*Note that  $561 = 3 \times 11 \times 17$  satisfy some interesting properties. Namely:*

$$(3 - 1) | (561 - 1)$$

$$(11 - 1) | (561 - 1)$$

$$(17 - 1) | (561 - 1)$$

*Furthermore, since 3, 11, 17 are all primes. For any  $\gcd(a, 561) = 1$ , we have  $3 \nmid a$ ,  $11 \nmid a$ ,  $17 \nmid a$*



# Primality test: Carmichael numbers

## Proof.

Hence by Fermat's little theorem:

$$a^{3-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$a^{11-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

$$a^{17-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$$



# Primality test: Carmichael numbers

## Proof.

Furthermore, by the since 561 satisfy those interesting properties above, we can raise each of the congruence equation to an integer power so that the exponent all becomes  $561 - 1$

$$a^{561-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$a^{561-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

$$a^{561-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$$

Thus, by Chinese remainder theorem:  $a^{561-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{1561}$  for any  $\gcd(a, 561) = 1$   $\square$





# Primality test: Carmichael numbers

- We can generalize the proof here easily to show the following theorem:

## Theorem (Korselt's criterion)

*A positive composite integer  $n$  is a Carmichael number if and only if  $n$  is square-free, and for all prime divisors  $p$  of  $n$ , it's true that  $p - 1 \mid n - 1$*

## Proof.

*Refer to Theorem 5.3 of Elementary Number Theory by Burton (2011)*



# Primality test: Miller-Rabin test

- Since Fermat test have bad properties, we need a better test
- Miller-Rabin test is another stronger test for testing if a number is **not** prime
- Turns out, it avoids the problem of Fermat's test and allow use to test for primes *probabilistically*

