

Modular arithmetic and trap door ciphers

Joshua Holden

Rose-Hulman Institute of Technology

<http://www.rose-hulman.edu/~holden>



RSA Setup

Ronald Rivest, Adi Shamir, Leonard Adleman, 1977.

- Pick two primes p and q .
- Compute $n = pq$.
- Pick *encryption exponent* e such that e and $(p - 1)(q - 1)$ don't have any common prime factors.
- Make n and e public. Keep p and q private.



RSA Setup: Example

- $p = 53$
- $q = 71$
- $n = pq = 3763$
- $(p - 1)(q - 1) = 3640 = 2^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 13$
- $e = 27 = 3^3$
- e and $(p - 1)(q - 1)$ don't have any common prime factors



RSA Setup: PGP public key block

```
From holden@math.duke.edu Thu Feb 8 14:07:19 2001
Date: Thu, 8 Feb 2001 14:07:18 -0500
X-Authentication-Warning: hamburg.math.duke.edu: holden set sender to holden@hamburg.math.duke.edu
From: Joshua Holden To: holden@math.duke.edu
Subject: message with PGP block
```

Here is my PGP block: now you can send me messages!

```
-----BEGIN PGP PUBLIC KEY BLOCK-----
```

```
Version: 2.6.2
```

```
Comment: Processed by Mailcrypt 3.5.5, an Emacs/PGP interface
```

```
mQCNAznRHAAAAEEAPix/FD/jF/ixMvd9aIjhZ/K6o2kv/TaGAVkeIG5VZ48jzIa
NTqX1EKDw6aABUiQApqavOaQuiLbi/Ez9HXX9LfcTdcP8u94BKgGmEy6Jv1za08I
2YVL1kUJso6lauryr3Sc8wiQTwx3imohM4ai/1dVuq4Qp2WCBSRdyaaafdchAAUR
tC9Kb3NodWEgSG9sZGVuICgxMDI0IGJpdCkgPGhvbGRlbkBTYXRoLmR1a2UuZWRR1
Pg==
```

```
=VgE9
```

```
-----END PGP PUBLIC KEY BLOCK-----
```



Modular Arithmetic

Karl Friedrich Gauss, 1801.

- Modular Arithmetic = “Wrap-around” computations

Example: Start at 12 o'clock. 5 hours plus 8 hours equals 1 o'clock.

$$5 + 8 \equiv 1 \pmod{12}$$

Example: Start at 12 o'clock. 11 hours times 5 equals 7 o'clock.

$$11 \cdot 5 \equiv 7 \pmod{12}$$



RSA Encryption

Anyone can encrypt, because n and e are public.

- To encrypt, convert your message into a set of *plaintext* numbers P , each less than n .
- For each P , compute $C \equiv P^e \pmod{n}$.
- The numbers C are your *ciphertext*.

RSA Encryption: Example

Send the message “cats and dogs”:

- ca ts an dd og sx
- 0200 1918 0013 0303 1406 1823
- $200^e \equiv 12 \pmod{n}$
- $1918^e \equiv 1918 \pmod{n}$
- $13^e \equiv 1550 \pmod{n}$
- $303^e \equiv 3483 \pmod{n}$
- $1406^e \equiv 2042 \pmod{n}$
- $1823^e \equiv 2735 \pmod{n}$



RSA Encryption: PGP message

```
From holden@math.duke.edu Thu Feb 8 14:09:25 2001
Date: Thu, 8 Feb 2001 14:09:24 -0500
X-Authentication-Warning: hamburg.math.duke.edu: holden set sender to holden@hamburg.math.duke.edu
From: Joshua Holden To: holden@math.duke.edu
Subject: This message is encrypted
```

-----BEGIN PGP MESSAGE-----

Version: 2.6.2

Comment: Processed by Mailcrypt 3.5.5, an Emacs/PGP interface

```
hIwDJF3Jpp91yF0BBAC6gnKTMhGWg9hUELd7WfJgUn7OqObCNmvm9V8ff+tyq0re
nSQqCYw784CAkm5gaUtJ0AW4go2pDyI2hm5ocoVfMeBOJpKeckSchncV9zHSH2zx
jBM8W0NYPAAa7AHFisz19rqxkkt1aQ4W49i7LUxq6rXheoSPMMcHbHyBa/mQEaYA
AABEmtEXwkUSMOh+x4dSM/6ZUswVZznmei9TOw+md8OM+LiOSakw91GT431tJPAN
c44q+q2Yq8ehykaz0sv4fXscPy2H9A0=
=v1z0
```

-----END PGP MESSAGE-----



Trap Door

Leonhard Euler, 1736.

- Let $\phi(n)$ be the number of positive integers less than or equal to n which don't have any common factors with n .

Example: If $n = 15$, then the positive integers less than or equal to n which don't have any common factors with n are 1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14. So $\phi(15) = 8$.



Trap Door: RSA

In the RSA system $n = pq$, so $\phi(n)$ is the number of positive integers less than or equal to n which don't have p or q as a factor.

- How many positive integers less than or equal to n do have p as a factor? $p, 2p, 3p, \dots, n = qp$ so there are q of them.
- Similarly, there are p positive integers less than or equal to n with q as a factor.
- Only one positive integer less than or equal to n has both p and q as factors, namely $n = pq$. So we should only count this once.



Trap Door: Formula

- Therefore,

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

- This is private! You can't calculate it without knowing p and q .
- Why is this useful?



Euler's Theorem

Euler's Theorem: If x is an integer which has no common prime factors with n , then

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

- Why is Euler's Theorem true?
- Two versions of the answer: Number Theory and Group Theory

Number Theory idea: We consider the positive integers less than or equal to n which don't have any common factors with n , and multiply each of them by x modulo n . Compare them to the same integers without multiplying by x .



Euler's Theorem: Example (I)

- For $n = 15$, consider

$$x, 2x, 4x, 7x, 8x, 11x, 13x, 14x \pmod{15},$$

and compare them to $1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14$.

- If we multiply all of the first set we get

$$x^8 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 \cdot 8 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 14 \pmod{15}$$

and if we multiply all of the second set we get

$$1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 \cdot 8 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 14 \pmod{15}.$$

- What if we do all of this for $x = 11$?



Euler's Theorem: Example (II)

The first set will be:

- $1 \cdot 11 \equiv 11 \pmod{15}$
- $2 \cdot 11 \equiv 7 \pmod{15}$
- $4 \cdot 11 \equiv 14 \pmod{15}$
- $7 \cdot 11 \equiv 2 \pmod{15}$
- $8 \cdot 11 \equiv 13 \pmod{15}$
- $11 \cdot 11 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$
- $13 \cdot 11 \equiv 8 \pmod{15}$
- $14 \cdot 11 \equiv 4 \pmod{15}$

Euler's Theorem: Example (III)

- The first set is the same as the second set, only in a different order!
- In fact, this always happens.
- So

$$x^8 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 \cdot 8 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 14 \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 4 \cdot 7 \cdot 8 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 14 \pmod{15}$$

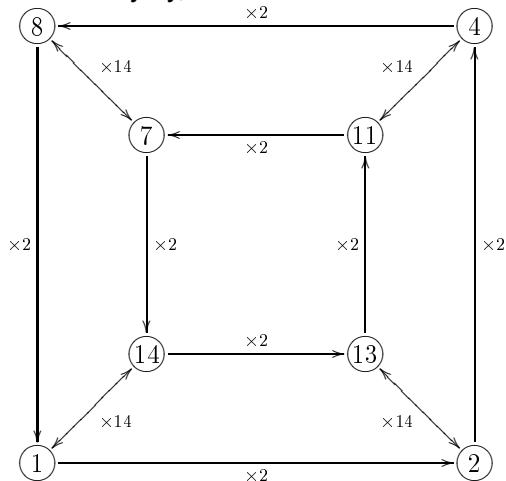
or

$$x^8 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}.$$



Cayley diagram

Arthur Cayley, 1878.



Group Theory idea: We make a *Cayley diagram* for the numbers less than n .



Cayley diagram: Example (II)

- Say $x = 11$. Follow the arrows from 1 to 11. This is one $\times 14$ arrow and two $\times 2$ arrows. If you do this 7 more times, you will be following a total of eight $\times 14$ arrows and sixteen $\times 2$ arrows, and you should end up at 11 to the eighth. However, eight $\times 14$ arrows and sixteen $\times 2$ arrows clearly ends you up back where you started! (Note that it doesn't matter in what order you follow the arrows....)

So how do we use Euler's Theorem as a trap door?



RSA: One More Piece

- We need one more piece of (private) information, and an ancient Greek mathematician will tell us how to get it.

Euclid, about 300 B.C.E.

Theorem: If a and b don't have any common prime factors, then there are integers c and d such that

$$ac + bd = 1.$$



Euclidean Algorithm

- Since we picked e such that e and $(p - 1)(q - 1)$ don't have any common prime factors, then there are integers c and d such that

$$(p - 1)(q - 1)c + ed = 1$$

or

$$\phi(n)c + ed = 1.$$

- Euclid also tells us how to find c and d , using the *Euclidean Algorithm*.
- Once we have found the *decryption exponent* d , which is private, we can decrypt.



RSA Decryption

For each C , compute $C^d \pmod{n}$.

- What will this give you?
- We know $C \equiv P^e \pmod{n}$, although we don't yet know what P is.
So

$$C^d \equiv (P^e)^d \equiv P^{ed} \equiv P^{1-\phi(n)c} \equiv P(P^{\phi(n)})^{-c} \pmod{n}.$$

- But $P^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ by Euler's Theorem!
- So $C^d \equiv P \pmod{n}$ and we get our original plaintext back.



RSA Decryption: Example (I)

- $p = 53$
- $q = 71$
- $(p - 1)(q - 1) = 3640$
- $e = 27$
- The Euclidean Algorithm tells us

$$16(p - 1)(q - 1) - 2157e = 1.$$

- $d = -2157$



RSA Decryption: Example (II)

- $12^d \equiv 200 \pmod{n}$
- $1918^d \equiv 1918 \pmod{n}$
- $1550^d \equiv 13 \pmod{n}$
- $3483^d \equiv 303 \pmod{n}$
- $2042^d \equiv 1406 \pmod{n}$
- $2735^d \equiv 1823 \pmod{n}$
- 0200 1918 0013 0303 1406 1823
- ca ts an dd og sx

“cats and dogs”



Breaking RSA: Factoring

So why do we think RSA is secure?

- As far as we know, the only way to break RSA is to find p and q by factoring n . The fastest known factoring algorithm takes something about like

$$e^{(\log n)^{1/3}(\log(\log n))^{2/3}}$$

time units to factor n . (The size of the time unit depends on things like how fast the computer is!)



Breaking RSA: Fast computers

For the fastest single computer in 2006, it would probably take about 1 billion years to factor a number with 300 decimal digits. However, with networked computers, a large company might be able to improve this by a factor of as much as 1 million.

(More technically, it is estimated that factoring a number with 300 decimal digits would take about 10^{11} MIPS-years. 1 MIPS-year is a million-instructions-per-second processor running for one year. A 1-GHz Pentium is about a 250-MIPS machine.)

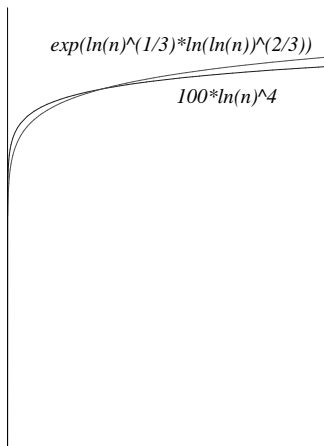


Breaking RSA: Factoring vs. Setup

On the other hand, finding p and q and multiplying them together is very fast. Finding a number p which is (probably) prime takes about $100(\log p)^4$ time units. This looks large, but it isn't really; for a 300-digit number this should only take a few minutes. (Multiplying p and q together is even faster.)



Breaking RSA: A Graph



At *some* size of n it will always be easier to make the cipher than to break it!



RSA Digital Signatures

As a bonus, RSA gives us a way to digitally “sign” messages, thereby proving who wrote them. This uses the same public n and e and private d as before.

- For each plaintext P , compute $S \equiv P^d \pmod{n}$.
- The numbers S are your signed message.

RSA Digital Signatures: Example

Sign the message “cats and dogs”:

- ca ts an dd og sx
- 0200 1918 0013 0303 1406 1823
- $200^d \equiv 648 \pmod{n}$
- $1918^d \equiv 1918 \pmod{n}$
- $13^d \equiv 914 \pmod{n}$
- $303^d \equiv 1946 \pmod{n}$
- $1406^d \equiv 664 \pmod{n}$
- $1823^d \equiv 2735 \pmod{n}$



RSA Digital Signatures: PGP message

```
From holden@math.duke.edu Thu Feb 8 14:10:42 2001
Date: Thu, 8 Feb 2001 14:10:41 -0500
X-Authentication-Warning: hamburg.math.duke.edu: holden set sender to holden@hamburg.math.duke.edu
From: Joshua Holden To: holden@math.duke.edu
Subject: This message is signed but not encrypted
```

```
-----BEGIN PGP SIGNED MESSAGE-----
```

I'm signing this message so that you know it's me!

```
-----BEGIN PGP SIGNATURE-----
```

```
Version: 2.6.2
```

```
Comment: Processed by Mailcrypt 3.5.5, an Emacs/PGP interface
```

```
iQCVAwUBOoLvKyRdyaafdchdAQELuQP+PBR2lY8rEPrgA4GzWQS/MbE4UDECKgBk
v+6Q/gAwrHzMwemXcZxKU1FGFClvfHxxyjoy8hJgYeLYiGvD+q11gtNGZtTdLzqh
xL/Bdw75fseFxa1/32ZS45jMA3gA2220m70hkJg4EzyvlhDUdUI1SIQHn/V26H0g
I25Vom/Ib8s=
=CRW2
```

```
-----END PGP SIGNATURE-----
```



Verifying the Signature

Since only you know the decryption exponent d , only you can sign a message. Anyone you send it to can prove it was you by computing $S^e \pmod{n}$ (since n and e are public) and getting back $P^{de} \pmod{n}$, which we know is congruent to P .

- If this matches the P which you sent separately, then the message was correctly signed, so it must have come from someone who knows d .



Verifying the Signature: Example

- $648^e \equiv 200 \pmod{n}$
- $1918^e \equiv 1918 \pmod{n}$
- $914^e \equiv 13 \pmod{n}$
- $1946^e \equiv 303 \pmod{n}$
- $664^e \equiv 1406 \pmod{n}$
- $2735^e \equiv 1823 \pmod{n}$
- 0200 1918 0013 0303 1406 1823
- ca ts an dd og sx

“cats and dogs”



Encrypting and Signing

One can even sign an encrypted message this way. Suppose Alice wants to send Bob an encrypted message.

- She first encrypts with Bob's public n_B and e_B .
- Secondly, she signs the message with her n_A and private d_A . Since her d_A is different from Bob's d_B , they don't cancel out.
- Then Bob can "unsign" the message with Alice's public n_A and e_A .
- Finally, Bob decrypts the message with his n_B and private d_B !



Encrypting and Signing: Example (I)

Alice:

- Private: $p_A = 53, q_A = 71$
- Public: $n_A = p_A q_A = 3763$
- Public: $e_A = 27$
- Private: $d_A = -2157$ (same as before)

Bob:

- Private: $p_B = 41, q_B = 67$
- Public: $n_B = p_B q_B = 2747$
- Private: $(p_B - 1)(q_B - 1) = 2640 = 2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 11$
- Public: $e_B = 49 = 7^2$
- Private: The Euclidean Algorithm tells Bob

$$8(p_B - 1)(q_B - 1) - 431e_B = 1.$$

- Private: $d_B = -431$



Encrypting and Signing: Example (II)

Alice encrypts the message with Bob's public information:

- ca ts an dd og sx
- 0200 1918 0013 0303 1406 1823
- $200^{e_B} \equiv 2411 \pmod{n_B}$
- $1918^{e_B} \equiv 1836 \pmod{n_B}$
- $13^{e_B} \equiv 1401 \pmod{n_B}$
- $303^{e_B} \equiv 2314 \pmod{n_B}$
- $1406^{e_B} \equiv 2143 \pmod{n_B}$
- $1823^{e_B} \equiv 1154 \pmod{n_B}$



Encrypting and Signing: Example (III)

Alice signs the message with her private information and send the result to Bob:

- $2411^{d_A} \equiv 2041 \pmod{n_A}$
- $1836^{d_A} \equiv 814 \pmod{n_A}$
- $1401^{d_A} \equiv 1249 \pmod{n_A}$
- $2314^{d_A} \equiv 1396 \pmod{n_A}$
- $2143^{d_A} \equiv 772 \pmod{n_A}$
- $1154^{d_A} \equiv 3139 \pmod{n_A}$



Encrypting and Signing: Example (IV)

Bob “unsigns” the message using Alice’s public information:

- $2041^{e_A} \equiv 2411 \pmod{n_A}$
- $814^{e_A} \equiv 1836 \pmod{n_A}$
- $1249^{e_A} \equiv 1401 \pmod{n_A}$
- $1396^{e_A} \equiv 2314 \pmod{n_A}$
- $772^{e_A} \equiv 2143 \pmod{n_A}$
- $3139^{e_A} \equiv 1154 \pmod{n_A}$



Encrypting and Signing: Example (V)

and then decrypts it using his private information:

- $2411^{d_B} \equiv 200 \pmod{n_B}$
- $1836^{d_B} \equiv 1918 \pmod{n_B}$
- $1401^{d_B} \equiv 13 \pmod{n_B}$
- $2314^{d_B} \equiv 303 \pmod{n_B}$
- $2143^{d_B} \equiv 1406 \pmod{n_B}$
- $1154^{d_B} \equiv 1823 \pmod{n_B}$
- 0200 1918 0013 0303 1406 1823
- ca ts an dd og sx

“cats and dogs”



Attacks on RSA

Finding out someone's private d is about as hard as factoring n . But sometimes we can find out a particular message without breaking the general code. Usually this is because e is too small — small e makes the encrypting faster, but can weaken security.

Small Message Attack (I)

- $p = 53, q = 71$
- $n = pq = 3763$
- $e = 3$

“abaracadabara”

- ab ar ac ad ab ar ax
- 0001 0017 0002 0003 0002 0017 0023
- $1^e \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- $17^e \equiv 1150 \pmod{n}$
- $2^e \equiv 8 \pmod{n}$
- $3^e \equiv 27 \pmod{n}$
- $2^e \equiv 8 \pmod{n}$
- $17^e \equiv 1150 \pmod{n}$
- $23^e \equiv 878 \pmod{n}$



Small Message Attack (II)

But:

- $\sqrt[3]{1} = 1$
- $\sqrt[3]{1150} = 10.4769$
- $\sqrt[3]{8} = 2$
- $\sqrt[3]{27} = 3$
- $\sqrt[3]{8} = 2$
- $\sqrt[3]{1150} = 10.4769$
- $\sqrt[3]{878} = 9.5756$
- 0001 ???? 0002 0003 0002 ????? ?????
- ab ?? ac ad ab ?? ??

An eavesdropper can recover most of the message!



Common Exponent Attack (I)

Using a small exponent like $e = 3$ is fast, but it can be insecure. Suppose we're sending the same message to Alice, Bob, and Carol, and they all have the same small exponent.

- $p_A = 53, q_A = 71$
- $n_A = p_A q_A = 3763$ (We've used this key before.)
- $e_A = 3$

- $p_B = 41, q_B = 83$
- $n_B = p_B q_B = 3403$
- $(p_B - 1)(q_B - 1) = 3280 = 2^4 \cdot 5 \cdot 41$
- $e_B = 3$

- $p_C = 47, q_C = 87$
- $n_C = p_C q_C = 4089$
- $(p_C - 1)(q_C - 1) = 3956 = 2^2 \cdot 23 \cdot 43$
- $e_C = 3$



Common Exponent Attack (II)

“cats”:

- ca ts
- 0200 1918

Message to Alice:

- $200^{e_A} \equiv 3625 \pmod{n_A}$
- $1918^{e_A} \equiv 2060 \pmod{n_A}$

Message to Bob:

- $200^{e_B} \equiv 2950 \pmod{n_B}$
- $1918^{e_B} \equiv 2223 \pmod{n_B}$

Message to Carol:

- $200^{e_C} \equiv 1916 \pmod{n_C}$
- $1918^{e_C} \equiv 2326 \pmod{n_C}$



Common Exponent Attack (III)

Eve (an eavesdropper) hears the messages. So Eve knows that

$$3625 \equiv P^3 \pmod{n_A}$$

$$2950 \equiv P^3 \pmod{n_B}$$

$$1916 \equiv P^3 \pmod{n_C}$$

and similarly for the second half of the message. (Everything here except P is public information!)



Chinese Remainder Theorem

But:

Chinese Remainder Theorem: If m_1 and m_2 don't have any common prime factors, then

$$x \equiv a \pmod{m_1}, \quad x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

can be solved for a unique x modulo $m_1 m_2$.

This problem was studied in Greece, China, and India from the first century C.E. on. But the general solution (the *ta-yen*, or “great extension” rule) was first given by Qin Jiushao in 1247.



The *Ta-Yen* Magic Formula

In Eve's case, the *ta-yen* magic formula is:

- $q_A \equiv (n_B n_C)^{-1} \pmod{n_A}$,
- $q_B \equiv (n_A n_C)^{-1} \pmod{n_B}$,
- $q_C \equiv (n_A n_B)^{-1} \pmod{n_C}$,
- $P^3 \equiv 3625n_B n_C q_A + 2950n_A n_C q_B + 1916n_A n_B q_C \pmod{n_A n_B n_C}$
 $\equiv 8000000 \pmod{52361644521}$



The Common Exponent Attack Concluded

But now Eve can use the small message attack:

- $\sqrt[3]{800000000} = 200$
- 0200
- ca (ts)

This is guaranteed to work if there are at least e messages.

First Moral: Small exponents can be dangerous!

Second Moral: Don't send identical messages to different people!





HNAT SOFK LSIR EINT GZXN!

