

# (Applied) Cryptography

## Tutorial for week 8

Manuel Barbosa (mbb@fc.up.pt)      Rogério Reis (rogerio.reis@fc.up.pt)

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1. In a public-key system using RSA, you intercept the ciphertext  $C = 20$  sent to a user whose public key is  $e = 13$ ,  $n = 77$ . What is the plaintext  $M$ ?
2. In a RSA system, the public key of a given user is  $e = 65$ ,  $n = 2881$ . What is the private key of this user?
3. In the RSA public-key encryption scheme, each user has a public key  $e$  and a private key  $d$ . Suppose Bob leaks his private key. Rather than generating a new modulus, he decides to generate a new public key  $e$  and a new private key  $d$ . Is this safe?
4. Suppose Bob uses the RSA cryptosystem with a very large modulus  $n$  for which the factorisation cannot be found in a reasonable amount of time. Suppose Alice sends an enciphered message to Bob containing only her phone number. Is this safe?
5. Although, since 2002, there is a published algorithm with polynomial complexity to test primality of an integer, its performance for small sizes is too slow to be considered as usable. What is normally used is a probabilistic test, that can be iterated the necessary number of times so that the probability of a false positive may be made negligible. The Miller-Rabin is a primality test of this kind.

**Theorem 1.** *If  $p$  is an odd prime, then the equation*

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

*has only two solutions:  $x \equiv 1$  and  $x \equiv -1$ .*

*Proof.* If  $x$  is solution of the equation, then

$$\begin{aligned}x^2 - 1 &\equiv 0 \pmod{p} \\(x+1)(x-1) &\equiv 0 \pmod{p}\end{aligned}$$

thus

$$p \mid (x+1) \vee p \mid (x-1).$$

Suppose that  $p \mid (x+1) \wedge p \mid (x-1)$ . Then we can write  $(x+1) = kp$  and  $(x-1) = jp$  for some integers  $k$  and  $j$ . Subtracting both equations we get  $2 = (k-j)p$  that is only satisfied with  $p = 2$ , but the initial assumption states that  $p$  is an odd prime. Thus  $p \mid (x+1) \vee p \mid (x-1)$ . Suppose that  $p \mid (x-1)$ . Then

$$(\exists k)(x-1 = kp)$$

and hence  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

In an entirely analogous manner we proceed if  $x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . □

We can look at this theorem in a different perspective: if we can find a solution for  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  that is different from  $x = \pm 1$ , then we can conclude that  $n$  is not prime.

**Theorem 2.** Let  $p$  be an odd prime and  $a$  such that  $p \nmid a$ . We can always express  $p - 1$  as

$$p - 1 = 2^k d$$

with  $d$  odd. Thus, one of the two following is true:

- (a)  $a^d \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ ,
- (b)  $\exists i \in \{0, \dots, k\} a^{2^i d} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

*Proof.* By Fermat's theorem,  $a^{2^k d} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Thus, in the following sequence

$$a^d, a^{2d}, a^{2^2 d}, \dots, a^{2^k d}$$

at least the last is congruent with 1. But each of the powers of  $a$  is the square of the previous. Thus, one of the following is true

- (a)  $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ ;
- (b)  $\exists i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ ,  
 $a^{2^i d} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \wedge a^{2^{i-1} d} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

As we are in the conditions of the previous theorem, we conclude that

$$a^{2^{i-1} d} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

□

We can, then, write a programming function, WITNESS, that takes a number  $n$  and a “witness”  $a$ , with  $(a, n) = 1$ , and tests if  $a^d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  and  $a^{2^i d} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ , for all  $0 \leq i \leq k$ . If the test succeeds we know for sure that the number is not a prime. If it fails we cannot conclude, but we have a probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$  of being a prime. We can repeat the test (with a different values for  $a$ ). If we try  $n$  times and all the tests are negative we can ensure that the number  $n$  is a prime with a probability  $1 - 2^{-n}$ .

**Programming assignment:** Write a python program that implements this strategy and test it for large primes.