The RSA Trapdoor Permutation

Recap

Public key encryption: (G, E, D)

$$G() \rightarrow (pk, sk)$$
, $E(pk, m) \rightarrow c$, $D(sk, c) \rightarrow m$



Constructions: (1) ElGamal encryption, (2) today: RSA

Security from last lecture:

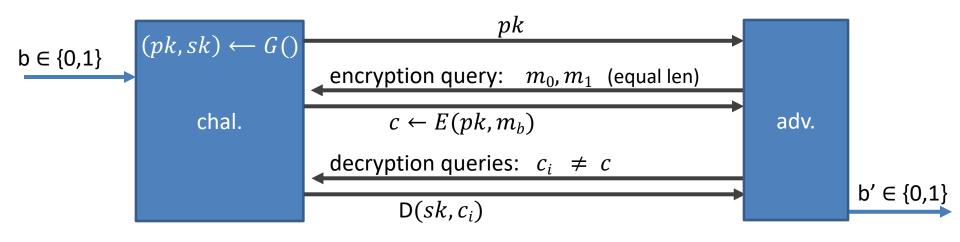
semantic security against an eavesdropper

In practice security against eavesdropping is insufficient:

adversary can make up ciphertexts and see how recipient reacts

Security against chosen ciphertext attacks (CCA)

A PKE (G, E, D) is chosen-ciphertext secure if no "efficient" adversary can win the following game:



<u>Thm</u>: ElGamal encryption from last lecture is CCA secure assuming interactive-CDH in G holds, and H is a modeled as a random oracle

Recap

Public key encryption: (G, E, D)

$$G() \longrightarrow (pk, sk)$$
, $E(pk, m) \longrightarrow c$, $D(sk, c) \longrightarrow m$

Security: semantic security against a chosen-ciphertext attack

• Semantic security against adv. that can issue decryption queries

Constructions: (1) ElGamal encryption, (2) today: RSA

... but first: **trapdoor functions**

Trapdoor functions (TDF)

<u>**Def**</u>: a trapdoor func. $X \rightarrow Y$ is a triple of efficient algs. (G, F, F⁻¹)

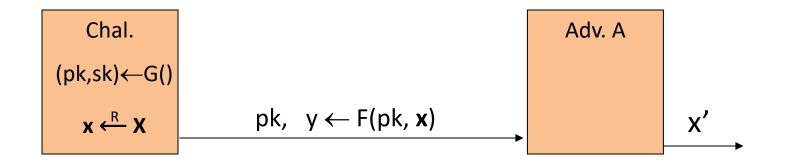
- G(): randomized alg. outputs a key pair (pk, sk)
- $F(pk,\cdot)$: det. alg. that defines a function $X \longrightarrow Y$
- $F^{-1}(sk,\cdot)$: defines a function $Y \to X$ that inverts $F(pk,\cdot)$

More precisely: $\forall (pk, sk)$ output by G

$$\forall x \in X$$
: $F^{-1}(sk, F(pk, x)) = x$

Secure Trapdoor Functions (TDFs)

(G, F, F^{-1}) is secure if $F(pk, \cdot)$ is a "one-way" function: can be evaluated, but cannot be inverted without sk



<u>Def</u>: (G, F, F⁻¹) is a secure TDF if for all efficient A:

$$Adv_{OW}[A,F] = Pr[x = x'] < negligible$$

Public-key encryption from TDFs

- (G, F, F⁻¹): secure TDF $X \rightarrow Y$
- (E_s, D_s): symmetric auth. encryption defined over (K,M,C)
- H: $X \rightarrow K$ a hash function

We construct a pub-key enc. system (G, E, D):

Key generation G: same as G for TDF

Public-key encryption from TDFs

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```
E(pk, m):

x \stackrel{\mathbb{R}}{\leftarrow} X, y \leftarrow F(pk, x)

k \leftarrow H(x), c \leftarrow E_s(k, m)

output (y, c)
```

```
\begin{array}{c} \underline{\textbf{D(sk,(y,c))}}:\\ & x \longleftarrow F^{-1}(sk,y),\\ & k \longleftarrow H(x), \quad m \longleftarrow D_s(k,c)\\ & \text{output } m \end{array}
```

In pictures:
$$E_s(H(x), m)$$
 header body

Security Theorem:

If (G, F, F^{-1}) is a secure TDF, (E_s, D_s) provides auth. enc. and $H: X \longrightarrow K$ is a "random oracle" then (G,E,D) is CCA^{ro} secure.

Incorrect use of a Trapdoor Function (TDF)

Never encrypt by applying F directly to plaintext:

```
E(pk, m):

output c \leftarrow F(pk, m)
```

```
D(sk, c):
output F<sup>-1</sup>(sk, c)
```

Problems:

- Deterministic: cannot be semantically secure !!
- Many attacks exist (coming)

The RSA trapdoor permutation

Review: arithmetic mod composites

Let
$$N = p \cdot q$$
 where p,q are prime
$$Z_N = \{0,1,2,...,N-1\} \quad ; \quad (Z_N)^* = \{\text{invertible elements in } Z_N \}$$

Facts:
$$x \in Z_N$$
 is invertible \iff $gcd(x,N) = 1$

- Number of elements in $(Z_N)^*$ is $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1) = N-p-q+1$

Euler's thm:
$$\forall x \in (Z_N)^* : x^{\phi(N)} = 1$$

The RSA trapdoor permutation

First published: Scientific American, Aug. 1977.

Applications:

- HTTPS: web certificates
- deprecated for key exchange in TLS 1.3

The RSA trapdoor permutation

G(): choose random primes $p,q \approx 1024$ bits. Set **N=pq**. choose integers **e**, **d** s.t. **e**·**d** = **1** (mod ϕ (**N**)) output pk = (N, e), sk = (N, d)

F(pk, x):
$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* \to \mathbb{Z}_N^*$$
 ; RSA(x) = x^e (in \mathbb{Z}_N)

$$F^{-1}(sk, y) = y^{d};$$
 $y^{d} = RSA(x)^{d} = x^{ed} = x^{k\phi(N)+1} = (x^{\phi(N)})^{k} \cdot x = x$

The RSA assumption

RSA_e assumption: RSA with exp. e is a one-way permutation

For all efficient algs. A:

$$Pr[A(N,e,\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}^{1/e}] < negligible$$

where $p,q \leftarrow R - bit primes$, $N \leftarrow pq$, $y \leftarrow R - Z_N^*$

RSA pub-key encryption (ISO std)

(E_s, D_s): symmetric enc. scheme providing auth. encryption.

 $H: \mathbb{Z}_N \to K$ where K is key space of (E_s, D_s)

- G(): generate RSA params: pk = (N,e), sk = (N,d)
- **E**(pk, m): (1) choose random x in \mathbb{Z}_N^*

(2)
$$y \leftarrow RSA(x) = x^e$$
, $k \leftarrow H(x)$

(3) output $(y, E_s(k,m))$

• **D**(sk, (y, c)): output $D_s(H(RSA^{-1}(y)), c)$

Textbook RSA is insecure

Textbook RSA encryption:

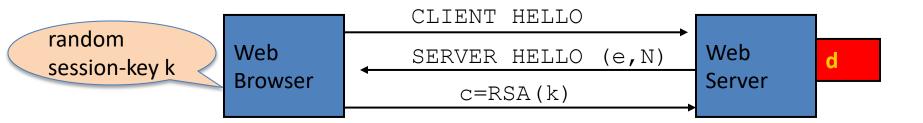
- public key: (N,e) Encrypt: $\mathbf{c} \leftarrow \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{e}}$ (in Z_N)
- secret key: (N,d) Decrypt: $c^d \rightarrow m$

Insecure cryptosystem!!

Is not semantically secure and many attacks exist

⇒ The RSA trapdoor permutation is not an encryption scheme!

A simple attack on textbook RSA



Suppose k is 64 bits: $k \in \{0,...,2^{64}\}$. Eve sees: $c = k^e$ in Z_N

If
$$\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k_1} \cdot \mathbf{k_2}$$
 where $\mathbf{k_1}$, $\mathbf{k_2} < 2^{34}$ (prob. $\approx 20\%$) then $\mathbf{c/k_1}^e = \mathbf{k_2}^e$ in Z_N

Step 1: build table: $c/1^e$, $c/2^e$, $c/3^e$, ..., $c/2^{34e}$. time: 2^{34}

Step 2: for $k_2 = 0,..., 2^{34}$ test if k_2^e is in table. time: 2^{34}

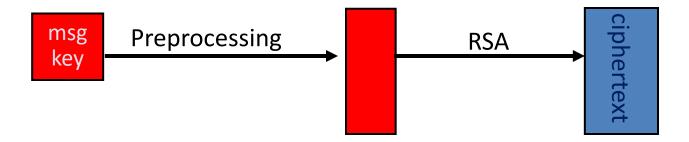
Output matching (k_1, k_2) . Total attack time: $\approx 2^{34} << 2^{64}$

RSA in practice

RSA encryption in practice

Never use textbook RSA.

RSA in practice (since ISO standard is not often used):

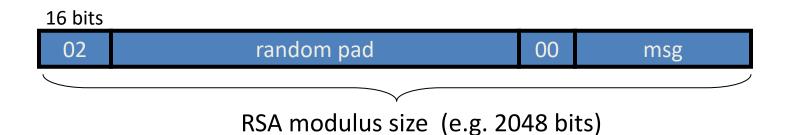


Main questions:

- How should the preprocessing be done?
- Can we argue about security of resulting system?

PKCS1 v1.5

PKCS1 mode 2: (encryption)

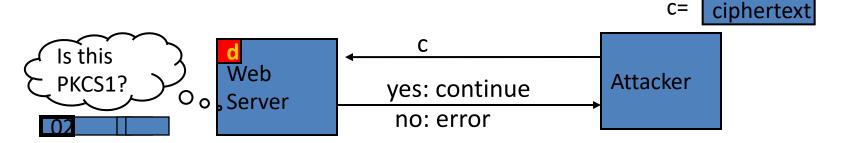


- Resulting value is RSA encrypted
- Widely deployed, e.g. in HTTPS (TLS 1.2)

Attack on PKCS1 v1.5

(Bleichenbacher 1998)

PKCS1 used in HTTPS:

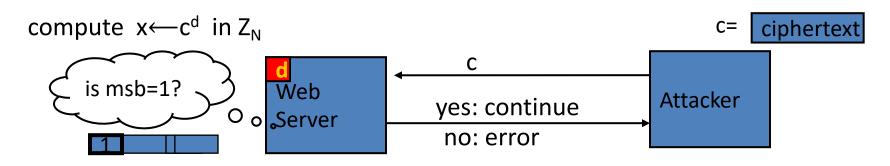


 \Rightarrow attacker can test if 16 MSBs of plaintext = '02'

Chosen-ciphertext attack: to decrypt a given ciphertext C do:

- Choose $r \in Z_N$. Compute $c' \leftarrow r^e \cdot c = (r \cdot PKCS1(m))^e$
- Send c' to web server and use response

Baby Bleichenbacher



Suppose N is $N = 2^n$ (an invalid RSA modulus). Then:

- Sending c reveals msb(x)
- Sending $2^e \cdot c = (2x)^e$ in Z_N reveals $msb(2x \mod N) = <math>msb_2(x)$
- Sending $4^e \cdot c = (4x)^e$ in Z_N reveals $msb(4x \mod N) = <math>msb_3(x)$

... and so on to reveal all of x

HTTPS Defense (RFC 5246)

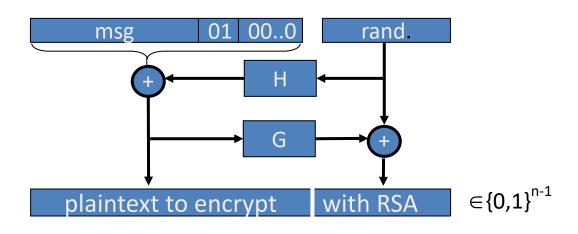
Attacks discovered by Bleichenbacher and Klima et al. ... can be avoided by treating incorrectly formatted message blocks ... in a manner indistinguishable from correctly formatted RSA blocks. In other words:

- 1. Generate a string R of 46 random bytes
- 2. Decrypt the message to recover the plaintext M
- 3. If the PKCS#1 padding is not correct pre_master_secret = R

PKCS1 v2.0: OAEP

New preprocessing function: OAEP [BR94]

check pad on decryption. reject CT if invalid.



Thm [FOPS'01]: RSA is a trap-door permutation ⇒ RSA-OAEP is CCA secure when H,G are random oracles

in practice: use SHA-256 for H and G

Subtleties in implementing OAEP

[M '00]

```
OAEP-decrypt(ct):
    error = 0;
    .......

if (RSA<sup>-1</sup>(ct) > 2<sup>n-1</sup>)
    { error = 1; goto exit; }
......

if (pad(OAEP<sup>-1</sup>(RSA<sup>-1</sup>(ct))) != "01000")
    { error = 1; goto exit; }
```

Problem: timing information leaks type of error

⇒ Attacker can decrypt any ciphertext

Lesson: Don't implement RSA-OAEP yourself!

Is RSA a one-way function?

Is RSA a one-way permutation?

To invert the RSA one-way func. (without d) attacker must compute: x from $c = x^e$ (mod N).

How hard is computing e'th roots modulo N??

Best known algorithm:

- Step 1: factor N (hard)
- Step 2: compute e'th roots modulo p and q (easy)

Shortcuts?

Must one factor N in order to compute e'th roots?

To prove no shortcut exists show a reduction:

Efficient algorithm for e'th roots mod N

 \Rightarrow efficient algorithm for factoring N.

Oldest open problem in public key cryptography.

Some evidence no reduction exists: (BV'98)

- "Algebraic" reduction \Rightarrow factoring is easy.

How **not** to improve RSA's performance

To speed up RSA decryption use small private key d ($d \approx 2^{128}$)

$$c^d = m \pmod{N}$$

Wiener'87: if $d < N^{0.25}$ then RSA is insecure.

BD'98: if $d < N^{0.292}$ then RSA is insecure (open: $d < N^{0.5}$)

<u>Insecure:</u> priv. key d can be found from (N,e)

Recall:
$$e \cdot d = 1 \pmod{\phi(N)} \Rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} : e \cdot d = k \cdot \phi(N) + 1$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} e \\ \varphi(N) - \frac{1}{d} \end{vmatrix} = \frac{1}{d \cdot \varphi(N)} \leq \frac{1}{N}$$

Recall:
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$$\varphi(N) = N-p-q+1 \implies |N-\varphi(N)| \le p+q \le 3\sqrt{N}$$

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$$d \leq N^{0.25}/3 \Rightarrow \left| \frac{e}{N} - \frac{\kappa}{d} \right| \leq \left| \frac{e}{N} - \frac{e}{\varphi(N)} \right| + \left| \frac{e}{\varphi(N)} - \frac{\kappa}{d} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2d^2}$$

Recall:
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$$\phi(N) = N-p-q+1 \implies |N-\phi(N)| \le p+q \le 3\sqrt{N}$$

$$d \le N^{0.25}/3 \implies |P-\frac{K}{A}| \le |P-\frac{E}{A}| + |P-\frac{K}{A}| \le \frac{1}{2A^2}$$

$$\leq \frac{3N}{N} \cdot \frac{1}{2N} \le \frac{3}{2A^2} - \frac{1}{2A^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{ Continued fraction expansion of e/N gives k/d.}$$

 $e \cdot d = 1 \pmod{k} \implies \gcd(d,k)=1 \implies \operatorname{can} \operatorname{find} \operatorname{d} \operatorname{from} k/d$

RSA With Low public exponent

To speed up RSA encryption use a small e: $c = m^e \pmod{N}$

- Minimum value: **e=3** (gcd(e, $\phi(N)$) = 1)
- Recommended value: e=65537=2¹⁶+1

Encryption: 17 multiplications

Asymmetry of RSA: fast enc. / slow dec.

ElGamal: approx. same time for both.

Key lengths

Security of public key system should be comparable to security of symmetric cipher:

	RSA	Elliptic Curve
Cipher key-size	Modulus size	Modulus size
80 bits	1024 bits	160 bits
128 bits	3072 bits	256 bits
256 bits (AES)	15360 bits	512 bits

Best factoring algorithm (GNF): n-bits integer, time $\approx \exp(n^{1/3})$

Implementation attacks

Timing attack: [Kocher et al. 1997] , [BB'04]

The time it takes to compute c^d (mod N) can expose d

Power attack: [Kocher et al. 1999)

The power consumption of a smartcard while it is computing c^d (mod N) can expose d.

Faults attack: [BDL'97]

A computer error during c^d (mod N) can expose d.

A common defense: check output. 10% slowdown.

An Example Fault Attack on RSA (CRT)

A common implementation of RSA decryption: $x = c^d$ in Z_N

decrypt mod p:
$$x_p = c^d$$
 in Z_p combine to get $x = c^d$ in Z_N decrypt mod q: $x_q = c^d$ in Z_q

Suppose error occurs when computing x_q , but no error in x_p

Then: output is x' where $x' = c^d$ in Z_p but $x' \neq c^d$ in Z_q

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $(x')^e = c \text{ in } Z_p \text{ but } (x')^e \neq c \text{ in } Z_q \Rightarrow \gcd((x')^e - c, N) = p$

RSA Key Generation Trouble [Heninger et al./Lenstra et al.]

OpenSSL RSA key generation (abstract):

```
prng.seed(seed)
p = prng.generate_random_prime()
prng.add_randomness(bits)
q = prng.generate_random_prime()
N = p*q
```

Suppose poor entropy at startup:

- Same p will be generated by multiple devices, but different q
- N_1 , N_2 : RSA keys from different devices \Rightarrow gcd(N_1 , N_2) = p

RSA Key Generation Trouble [Heninger et al./Lenstra et al.]

Experiment: factors 0.4% of public HTTPS keys!!

Lesson:

 Make sure random number generator is properly seeded when generating keys

THE END