# RSA Encryption and Decryption

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## 1 Introduction

The RSA cryptosystem is one of the most widely used public-key cryptosystems in use today for securing information. Fundamentally, it allows two parties to exchange a secret message who have never communicated in the past. To accomplish this, RSA utilizes a pair of keys, a public key for encryption and a private key for decryption. The encryption and decryption keys are distinct, and so RSA is often referred to as an asymmetric cryptosystem.

For this project, we studied the RSA cryptosystem to understand how and why it works. As one of the most mature cryptosystems, RSA has been studied extensively, and there are plenty of interesting resources on attacks and how to prevent them [1]. These attacks provide an excellent exposition for the dangers of improperly implementing RSA, which makes such a project well-suited for learning.

We focused on the number theory behind the algorithm, well-known attacks on the RSA cryptosysem, and secure coding practices associated with implementing cryptosystems more broadly. We implemented the RSA encryption and decryption algorithms according to cryptographic considerations for security and performance and according the well-established specifications. This provided a better understanding of the nuances of cryptographic coding in practice.

## 2 Implementation

We first detail how we handle multiple precision numbers, then we detail our implementation of RSA key generation and encryption and decryption functions.

### 2.1 Handling Multiple Precision Numbers

Even before starting the implementation of PKCS #1 [2] itself, the first major challenge we faced was deciding how to store the numbers that would be used for encryption. Typical RSA integers are on the order of 1000 bits in size, which far exceeds the capacity of standard C data types. Thus, some custom BigInteger data type was necessary to store integers of arbitrary precision. Though less of a security concern, this was nonetheless a fundamental part of implementing the encryption scheme.

To gain experience working with arbitrary precision integers, we initially attempted to create the BigInteger library ourselves. Three primary design decisions guided the process. First of all, to make memory usage efficient, we used dynamically-sized integers. This allowed integers to occupy only the memory they required, and freed up any they didn't. It also had the additional benefit of placing no limit on the capacity of a BigInteger. Secondly, intending to replicate the behavior of primitive C data types, we did not use in-place operations on BigIntegers. That is, the output of any BigInteger operation was a newly allocated BigInteger, and the operands were unchanged. Finally, we decided not to represent negative integers. This is sufficient for RSA, and had the advantage of simplicity.

The dynamic sizing ultimately proved to be very cumbersome to work with. For most operations, it wasn't possible to predict the number of bytes of storage that would be needed until after the result was computed. This resulted in excessive memory management (for example, reallocating memory after the operation to fit the size of the result) and significant performance overhead. It would have been better to assign a maximum size for a multi-precision integer, allocate a fixed block of that size, and let it grow or shrink as needed. Although this is a less efficient use of memory, the lack of overhead for managing memory would have cleaned up the code and increase performance significantly.

Likewise, avoiding in-place operations proved to be an inconvenience. On several occasions, it would have been more convenient to write back the result of an operation to one of the operands (for example, to use immediately afterword). But our library did not support this, so we were forced to allocate a new integer whether or not it wasn't necessary. This again resulted in unnecessary overhead due to memory management, and made the library more difficult to use.

In the end, our custom solution was quite inefficient, and fixing all its issues would have likely required a complete redesign. Thus, we decided instead to incorporate a preexisting library to handle multiple-precision integers. For this purpose, we settled on GMP (the GNU Multi-Precision library) [3].

## 2.2 Key Pair Generation

We follow the Digital Signature Standard (DSS) [4] issued by the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) to generate key pairs.

### 2.2.1 Pseudorandom Number Generator

In order to generate random primes, it is important that we use a cryptographically secure pseudorandom number generator. We decide to use the UNIX-based special file `/dev/random`, which generates high-quality pseudorandom numbers that are well-suited for key generation.

The semantics for `/dev/random` vary based on the operating system. In Linux, `/dev/random` is generated from entropy created by keystrokes, mouse movements, IDE timings, and other kernel processes. In macOS, `/dev/random` data is generated using the Yarrow-160 algorithm, which is a cryptographic pseudorandom number generator. Yarrow-160 outputs random bits using a combination of the SHA1 hash function and three-key triple-DES.

We believe `/dev/random`, as prescribed, is sufficient for our purposes, but the entropy pool can be further improved using specialized programs or hardware random number generators.

#### 2.2.2 Primality Testing

We use the Miller-Rabin probabilistic primality test to validate the generation of prime numbers. There are two approaches for using Miller-Rabin primality testing: (1) using several iterations of Miller-Rabin alone; (2) using several iterations of Miller-Rabin followed by a Lucas primality test. For simplicity, we use the iterative Miller-Rabin implementation available in the GNU MP Library. Instead, we find it more interesting to learn how to use Miller-Rabin testing correctly in practice, as specified in the DSS.

For example, different modulus lengths for RSA require varying rounds of Miller-Rabin testing. We reproduce the number of rounds necessary for various auxiliary prime (see Section 2.2.3) lengths in Table 1, and we follow this in our implementation.

| Auxiliary Prime Length | Rounds of M-R Testing |
|---|---|
| $> 100$ bits | 28 |
| $> 140$ bits | 38 |
| $> 170$ bits | 41 |

Table 1: The table shows the number of Miller-Rabin rounds necessary as a function of the lengths of auxiliary primes $p_1$, $p_2$, $q_1$, and $q_2$.

#### 2.2.3 Criteria for Key Pairs

The key pair for RSA consists of the public key $(n, e)$ and the private key $(n, d)$. The RSA modulus $n$ is the product of two distinct prime numbers $p$ and $q$. RSA's security rests on the primality and secrecy of $p$ and $q$, as well as the secrecy of the private exponent $d$. The methodology for generating these parameters varies based on the desired number of bits of security and the desired quality of primes. However, several desideratum must hold true for all methods.

**Public Exponent $e$.** The following constraints must hold true for the public exponent $e$.

1. The public verification exponent $e$ must be selected prior to generating the primes $p$ and $q$, and the private signature exponent $d$.
2. The public verification exponent $e$ must be an odd positive integer such that $2^{16} < e < 2^{256}$.

It is immaterial whether or not $e$ is a fixed value or a random value, as long as it satisfies constraint 2 above. For simplicity, we fix $e = 2^{16} + 1 = 65537$.

**Primes $p$ and $q$.** The following constraints must hold true for random primes $p$ and $q$.

1. Both $p$ and $q$ shall be either provable primes or probable primes.
2. Both $p$ and $q$ shall be randomly generated prime numbers such that all of the following subconstraints hold:
   - $(p + 1)$ has a prime factor $p_1$
   - $(p - 1)$ has a prime factor $p_2$
   - $(q + 1)$ has a prime factor $q_1$
   - $(q - 1)$ has a prime factor $q_2$

   where $p_1$, $p_2$, $q_1$, $q_2$ are auxiliary primes of $p$ and $q$. Then, one of the following shall also apply:

   (i) $p_1$, $p_2$, $q_1$, $q_2$, $p$, and $q$ are all provable primes

   (ii) $p_1$, $p_2$, $q_1$, $q_2$ are provable primes, and $p$ and $q$ are probable primes

   (iii) $p_1$, $p_2$, $q_1$, $q_2$, $p$, and $q$ are all probable primes

For our implementation, we choose to generate probable primes $p$ and $q$ with conditions based on auxiliary probable primes $p_1$, $p_2$, $q_1$, and $q_2$. In other words, we choose the method (iii) listed above. While this method offers the lowest quality of primes, it offers the best performance. It would be interesting future work to benchmark key generation times and quality of primes among these three methods.

Method (iii) supports key sizes of length 1024, 2048, and 3072, which offers more utility over method (i), which offers only key sizes of length 2048 and 3072. For different key sizes, various lengths of auxiliary primes must be satisfied, which is reproduced in Table 2. Table 2 can be joined with Table 1 for a comprehensive view of parameters as a function of the key size *nlen*.

| Key Size (*nlen*) | Minimum Length of Auxiliary Primes |
|---|---|
| 1024 bits | $> 100$ bits |
| 2048 bits | $> 140$ bits |
| 3072 bits | $> 170$ bits |

Table 2: The table shows the minimum length of auxiliary primes $p_1$, $p_2$, $q_1$, and $q_2$ as a function of the key size *nlen*.

Regarding our actual implementation of method (iii), we closely follow the constraints above and how probable primes are generated from probable auxiliary primes as specified in the DSS [4]. There are further constraints to the above, which are specific to method (iii), that we satisfy but do not fully detail here. However, one important aspect of method (iii) is that it leverages the Chinese Remainder Theorem to improve performance for key generation.

**Private exponent $d$.** The following constraints must hold true for the private exponent $d$.

1. The private exponent $d$ must be a positive integer between

$$2^{nlen/2} < d < LCM(p-1, q-1). \tag{1}$$

2. $1 \equiv (ed) \pmod{LCM(p-1, q-1)}$.

Implementing constraints for the private exponent $d$ is relatively straightforward. However, we do consider that in the rare case when $d \leq 2^{nlen/2}$, new primes must be generated.

## 2.3 Encryption and Decryption

The PKCS #1 standard outlines two difference schemes for RSA encryption RSAES-OAEP and RSAES-PKCS1-v1_5. The former is required for new applications, and the latter is an older scheme kept around for backwards compatibility. For our project, we chose to implement the OAEP scheme. As indicated by its name, this scheme incorporates OAEP (Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding) which turns the otherwise deterministic RSA encryption into probabilistic encryption. This makes the scheme CPA-secure.

## 2.4 Data Primitives

As specified in the standard, there are two primary data types used for RSA encryption  octet strings and multiple-precision integers. Octet strings are used to represent messages (i.e. plaintext and ciphertext) and the multiple-precision integers are used to perform the basic mathematical operations of the RSA scheme (i.e. exponentiation). To convert between the two, the standard specifies two data conversion primitives  I2OSP (Integer to Octet String) and OS2IP (Octet String to Integer). To represent the multiple-precision integers, we already decided on the GMP library. However, there were a couple options for how to represent the octet strings.

1. Represent each octet as a single character: this is the most efficient way of representing octets, since each character can be any one of its possible 256 values. However, with this representation, string manipulation of octet strings became a challenge. Since $'\backslash 0'$ is a valid octet, a NULL character cannot be used to represent the end of an octet string. This would require storing the length of the octet string separately.

2. Represent each octet as two hex characters: this method is less efficient, as it requires two characters for each octet. But it allows for NULL-terminated octet strings, which is the standard way of representing strings in C. Furthermore, the GMP library has little support for base-256 octet strings, so this is the option we chose.

### 2.5 Cryptographic Primitives

The two cryptographic primitives are RSAEP, which is the encryption primitive, and RSADP, which is the decryption primitive. We implement these as prescribed in the specification, adapting the GMP Library. These two cryptographic primitives perform the modular exponentiation portion of RSA.

### 2.6 RSAES-OAEP

RSAES-OAEP combines both of the cryptographic primitives aforementioned, and uses an encoding method based on Bellare and Rogaway's Optimal Assymetric Encryption Scheme [5]. RSAES-OAEP is parameterized by a hash function and mask generation function. Both the RSAES-OAEP-Encryption and RSAES-OAEP-Decryption operations are implemented as prescribed in the PKCS specification.

To accomplish the OAEP padding, the RSA-OAEP scheme makes use of a Mask Generation Function, which in turn is based on a secure hash. The PKCS #1 standard recommends the use of a hashing algorithm from the SHA-2 hash family, but does not require any hash algorithm in particular. For our project, we decided to use the SHA-256 hash algorithm. Since the algorithm is not given in the standard, we used the implementation from the OpenSSL library.

The representation of octets as pairs of hex characters worked fairly well, but there were some issues it caused. In particular, the OpenSSL SHA256 hash function uses outputs a base-256 octet string, which was not compatible with our octet string representation. Consequently, we had to convert back and forth between these formats, decreasing the performance of our implementation. It would have been better to have a single common format for octet strings. The simplest way to do this would probably have been to store the length of an octet string along with the data and represent all octet strings in base-256.

## 3 Crypto Learning

Here, we overview a number of strengths and weaknesses of our RSA implementation. In particular, we discuss attacks that we do protect against, and attacks that would cause our implementation to fail.

### 3.1 Attacks via Insecure PRNGs

We generate pseudorandom numbers using the `/dev/random` file, as specified in Section 2.2.1. This is considered a cryptographically secure method for generating pseudorandom numbers and is widely used in practice. Even so, there exist several theoretical attacks on Linux's implementation of this PRNG.

Gutterman *et al.* perform an analysis of Linux's pseudorandom number generator (LRNG) and expose a number of security vulnerabilities [6]. More specifically, they reverse engineer LRNG and show that given the current state of the generator, it is possible to reconstruct previous states, thereby compromising the security of past usage. Further, they show that it is possible to measure and analyze the entropy created by the kernel. Bernstein presents a related attack in which monitoring one source of entropy could compromise the randomness of other sources of entropy [7].

While the latter attacks are theoretical, and to our knowledge have not been successful in practice, Gutterman also presents a denial of service attack that our implementation is susceptible to [6]. Since Linux's implementation of `/dev/random` may block the output of bits when the entropy is low, one simple attack would be to simply read all the bits from `/dev/random`, thereby blocking other users' access to new bits for a long period of time. More interestingly, an attack can also be performed remotely by triggering system requests for `get_random_bytes`, which will block both `/dev/random` and the non-blocking `/dev/urandom` pool.

One possible solution is to limit the per user consumption of random bits. Alternatively, we could avoid using `/dev/random` altogether and instead generate pseudorandom numbers via hardware random number generators.

## 3.2 Common Modulus Attack

While the common modulus attack is simple, it is a case in point for the dangers of misusing RSA [1].

In order to prevent having to generate a different modulus $n$ for different users, a developer might choose to fix $n$ for a number of users or for all users. This is insecure, since a user could use his/her own exponents $e$ and $d$ to factor the fixed $n$, thereby recovering the private key $d$ from some other user. Thus, the common modulus attack shows that the RSA modulus should not be fixed. Our implementation precludes this attack by generating a random modulus every time. This is done through calls to the `gen_primes` function.

## 3.3 Low Private Exponent Attack

In order to reduce the decryption time, a developer might choose a smaller value for the private exponent $d$ rather than a random value. Choosing a small $d$ can improve decryption performance (modular exponentation) by a factor of at least 10 for a 1024-bit modulus. However, Weiner shows that such a simplification is completely insecure [8]. Boneh and Durfee further improve the bounds of Weiner's attack, showing that $d < n^{0.292}$ is susceptible to attack [9]. There are two techniques to prevent this attack; both of which our implementation supports.

The first technique is to use a large public exponent $e$. Weiner shows that as long as $e > n^{1.5}$, this attack cannot be performed. In our implementation, we fix $e = 65537$. Thus, for $nlen = 1024$, our implementation supports this technique. However, this technique does not hold true for $nlen = 2048$ or $nlen = 3072$. This can be easily fixed by increasing $e$ to satisfy $nlen = 3072$, however, the downside is that it will increase encryption time. Nonetheless, the second technique, using the Chinese Remainder Theorem to speed up decryption, is fully supported by our implementation.

### 3.4 Low Public Exponent Attack

Similar to the latter attack, in order to reduce the encryption time, a developer might choose a smaller value for the public exponent $e$. This engenders a number of attacks on low public exponents, most of which are based on Coppersmith's theorem [10]. While the smallest $e$ possible is 3, $e \geq 2^{16} + 1$ is recommended to prevent certain attacks. This is the value of $e$ that we use in our implementation. It is simple to increase $e$ for security, but this will result in a performance decline.

### 3.5 Partial Key Exposure Attack

Suppose that for a given private key $(n, d)$, some portion of the private exponent $d$ is exposed. Boneh *et al.* show that recovering the rest of the private exponent $d$ is possible when the corresponding private exponent $e$ is small. Specifically, they show that it is possible to reconstruct all of $d$ as long as $e < \sqrt{n}$. In our implementation, $e = 65537$ and all $nlen$ are secure from such an attack. However, partial key exposure attacks do illustrate the importance of keeping the entire private key secret. This is one consideration that our implementation is lacking, and it will be interesting to explore this in the future.

### 3.6 Side-Channel Attacks

Kocher's seminal cryptanalysis of RSA via a timing attack shows that a clever attacker could measure the amount of time it takes for RSA decryption, thereby recovering the private exponent $d$ [11]. Our implementation does not protect against such timing attacks.

There were two main security concerns addressed by the PKCS #1 standard, both timing attacks. The first deals with the RSA encryption (RSAEP) and decryption (RSADP) primitives. Both of these primitives implement exponentiation and so take longer to run as the length of the encryption and decryption exponents increases. To prevent timing attacks on these functions, we used a function provided by GMP `mpz_powm_sec()` which is intended for cryptographic applications. It is designed to run in constant time and have the same cache patterns across inputs of the same size, and so provides resilience to these kinds of side-channel attacks.

Likewise, there is a potential timing attack on the `RSAES-OAEP-DECRYPT()` function. When decrypting a ciphertext, the function performs several checks on the decrypted data block to ensure that decryption was successful before returning the plaintext M. The standard states that it is important to ensure that an opponent cannot distinguish which error condition caused decryption to fail, as this gives important information to an attacker. To satisfy this requirement, we eliminated all branches from the error conditions, and perform all of them every time (no short-circuiting). At the end, if any one of them failed, then an error code is returned. This should cause the error checking to run in constant time and provide resilience against timing attacks.

Kocher also discovered another side-channel attack by measuring the amount of power consumed during decryption. Since multiprecision multiplication causes greater power consumption, it is simple to detect the number of multiplications, thereby revealing information about the private exponent $d$. It would be interesting to examine this further.

# 4 Secure Coding

We next overview secure coding practices that we considered for our implementation, as well as practices that could have further improved our code. These are mostly based on the SEI CERT C Coding Standard [12].

## 4.1 Integers and Floats

Handling multiple precision integers and multiple precision floats and understanding conversions between these data types is crucial in implementing RSA.

In regards to integers, we use different types of integers (i.e. `int`, ûnsigned long int, and `mpz_t` (multiple precision integers) for different purposes. For general purpose counters, we can safely use the `int` data type. For representing the size of an object, we can safely use the `size_t` data type, since this generally covers the entire address space. For any integers that may be used in multiple precision arithmetic, we err on the side of caution and use the `unsigned long int` data type. Then finally, for any integers that require multiple precision, we use the `mpz_t` data type from the GMP Library.

In regards to floating point numbers, we simply use the `mpf_t` data type from the GMP Library, since their use is limited and the multiple precision float data type offers enough utility for the required use cases.

Further, we also perform adequate range checking, integer overflow checking, and truncation checking. For the generation of key parameters, it is crucial that we perform range checking thoroughly, since a single misstep could lead to an incorrect encryption or decryption. Additionally, we err on the side of caution and instantiate integers as either `long int` or `mpz_t` to prevent integer overflows. Finally, we pay attention to any truncation that may occur as a result of conversions between integers and floats. For example, it is important to consider that while a multiple precision integer square root function is available, the result is truncated to an integer. Thus, we must handle such operations more precisely using the `mpf_t` (multiple precision float) object.

## 4.2 Memory Management

Since memory owned by our process can be accessed and reused by another process in the absence of proper memory management, this could potentially reveal information about secret keys to other processes. Even further, systems with multiple users make it possible for one user to sniff keys from another users' process. Thus, proper memory management is crucial for the secrecy of private keys.

In this regard, we free dynamically allocated memory whenever it is no longer needed. This occurs throughout our implementation in two fashions. First, consider when a new block of memory is allocated using `malloc`. Once the allocated block of memory is no longer in use, memory is freed using the function call `free`. Second, when using the GMP Library to instantiate multiple precision numbers, these numbers are also dynamically allocated. Thus, this memory must either be freed using the function call `mpz_clear` (for integers) or "zeroized" to ensure that no information about the secret keys are revealed.

## 4.3 Characters and Strings

One secure coding practice that we should have considered is to cast characters to `unsigned char` before converting them to larger integer sizes. One instance of this is when generating pseudorandom numbers from `/dev/random`, since we sample random characters from this file and then convert it to a pseudorandom multiple precision integer. More broadly, any arguments to character-handling functions should be represented as an `unsigned char`. However, this is only applicable to platforms in which `char` data types have the same representation as `signed char` data types.

## 4.4 Error Handling

Another secure coding practice that we should have considered is to handle errors throughout the entire program. Although there are instances in which we do handle errors, our program would be much more robust if it detected and handled all standard library errors and GMP Library errors. Having a consistent and comprehensive error-handling policy would improve our implementation's resilience in the face of erroneous or malicious inputs, hardware or software faults, and unexpected environment changes. This would be advantageous both to the developers as well as the end-users of our implementation.

## 4.5 Test Suite

It would have been beneficial to set up a comprehensive test suite, which could rigorously test the modules within our implementation. Alternatively, we could have used a fuzzer to exercise the logic of our implementation. In the future, we can leverage static analysis techniques and a binary fuzzer, such as American Fuzzy Lop (AFL), to discover any bugs or vulnerabilities in our code.

# 5 Summary

Taken as a whole, this project illuminated many of the intricacies involved in a real-world implementation of the RSA cryptosystem, and cryptosystems more broadly. Truly, what we learn as "textbook" RSA is a tremendous oversimplification to what RSA is in practice. As expected, the learning outcomes from this project were innumerable as we were confronted with both number theoretic attacks, as well as implementation attacks. In regards to secure coding practices, perhaps the most important learning outcome was realizing that the vast space of considerations makes cryptographic coding especially difficult, and mistakes devastating for the security of the cryptosystem. This project skimmed the surface of an RSA implementation, and it will be interesting future work to improve upon cryptographic coding practices, general coding practices, and performance.

# References


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# A Code

Listing 1: Code for `rsa.h`.

```
/*
 * Data Types
 */
struct RSAPublicKey {
        mpz_t modulus;
        mpz_t publicExponent;
};

struct RSAPrivateKey {
        mpz_t modulus;
        mpz_t privateExponent;
};

/*
 * Methods for Generating Key Pairs
 */

void    gen_e               (mpz_t e);
void    gen_d               (mpz_t d, mpz_t p_minus_1, mpz_t q_minus_1, mpz_t e, int n);
void    gen_probable_prime  (mpz_t p, mpz_t p1, mpz_t p2, mpz_t e, int n);
void    gen_primes          (mpz_t p, mpz_t e, int n);
int     coprime             (mpz_t a, mpz_t b);
void    PRNG                            (mpz_t rand, int n);

/*
 * Methods for Encryption and Decryption
 */
char*   I2OSP                           (mpz_t x, int xLen);
void    OS2IP                           (char *X, mpz_t x);
int             RSAEP                           (struct RSAPublicKey *K, mpz_t m, mpz_t c);
int             RSADP                           (struct RSAPrivateKey *K, mpz_t c, mpz_t m);
char*   MGF1                            (char *mgfSeed, unsigned long long maskLen);
char*   RSAES_OAEP_ENCRYPT      (struct RSAPublicKey *K, char *M, char *L);
char*   RSAES_OAEP_DECRYPT      (struct RSAPrivateKey *K, char *C, char *L);
```

Listing 2: Code for `rsa.c`.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdarg.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <time.h>
#include <gmp.h>
#include <openssl/sha.h>
#include "rsa.h"
#include <sys/types.h>
```

```c
#include <sys/stat.h>
#include <fcntl.h>
#include <math.h>
#include <assert.h>

// Convert nonnegative integer x to a zero-padded octet string of length xLen.
char* I2OSP(mpz_t x, int xLen) {
    size_t osLen = mpz_sizeinbase(x, 16);
    xLen *= 2;
    if (xLen < osLen) {
        printf("integer␣too␣large\n");
        return NULL;
    }
    char *os = malloc((xLen + 1) * sizeof(char));
    memset(os, '0', xLen - osLen);
    mpz_get_str(os + xLen - osLen, 16, x);
    os[xLen] = '\0';
    return os;
}

// Convert octet string to a nonnegative integer
void OS2IP(char *X, mpz_t x) {
        mpz_set_str(x, X, 16);
}

// RSA Encryption Primative
int RSAEP(struct RSAPublicKey *K, mpz_t m, mpz_t c) {
        if (mpz_cmp(m, K->modulus) >= 0) {
                printf("message␣representative␣out␣of␣range\n");
                return 0;
        }
        mpz_powm_sec(c, m, K->publicExponent, K->modulus);
        return 1;
}

// RSA Decryption Primative
int RSADP(struct RSAPrivateKey *K, mpz_t c, mpz_t m) {
        if (mpz_cmp(c, K->modulus) >= 0) {
                printf("ciphertext␣representative␣out␣of␣range\n");
                return 0;
        }
        mpz_powm_sec(m, c, K->privateExponent, K->modulus);
        return 1;
}

// Mask generation function specified in PKCS #1 Appendix B.
char* MGF1(char *mgfSeed, unsigned long long maskLen) {

    // Step 1: Verify maskLen <= (hLen * 2^32)
    unsigned long long hLen = SHA256_DIGEST_LENGTH;
    if (maskLen > (hLen << 32)) {
        printf("mask␣too␣long\n");
        return NULL;
    }
    maskLen *= 2;
    hLen *= 2;
```

```c

    // Step 2: Init T to empty octet string. T consists of TLen SHA256 hashes.
    int TLen = (maskLen + hLen - 1) / hLen;
    char *T = malloc((TLen * hLen) * sizeof(char));

    char *TPtr = T;
    char *hashOp;
    size_t mgfSeedLen = strlen(mgfSeed);
    hashOp = malloc((mgfSeedLen + 4 * 2) * sizeof(char));
    memcpy(hashOp, mgfSeed, mgfSeedLen);

    // Step 3: Generate mask
    int i, j;
    char *C;
    unsigned char *hash;
    unsigned char hChar;
    hash = malloc(SHA256_DIGEST_LENGTH * sizeof(char));
    mpz_t counter;
    mpz_init(counter);
    for (i = 0; i < TLen; ++i) {
        mpz_set_ui(counter, i);
        C = I2OSP(counter, 4);
        memcpy(hashOp + mgfSeedLen, C, 4 * 2);
        SHA256(hashOp, mgfSeedLen + 4 * 2, hash);
        for (j = 0; j < hLen; j += 2)
            sprintf(TPtr + j, "%02x", hash[j/2]);
        TPtr += hLen;
        free(C);
    }

    // Step 4: Output mask
    char *mask = malloc(maskLen + 1);
    memcpy(mask, T, maskLen);
    mask[maskLen] = '\0';
    free(hash); free(hashOp); free(T);
    return mask;
}

// RSA Encryption with OAEP. Section 7.1.1 in PKCS #1
char* RSAES_OAEP_ENCRYPT(struct RSAPublicKey *K, char* M, char *L) {

        // Step 1: Length checking (*_o stores size in octets; *_h in hex chars)
        size_t k_o = (mpz_sizeinbase(K->modulus, 16) + 1) / 2;
        size_t hLen_o = SHA256_DIGEST_LENGTH;
        size_t mLen_o = strlen(M) / 2;
        size_t maxmLen_o = k_o - 2 * hLen_o - 2;
        if (mLen_o > maxmLen_o) {
                printf("message␣too␣long\n");
                return NULL;
        }
        size_t k_h = k_o * 2;
        size_t hLen_h = hLen_o * 2;
        size_t mLen_h = mLen_o * 2;      // If M is valid, then mLen_h = strlen(M)
```

```

    // Step 2: EME-OAEP encoding
    if (L == NULL) L = "";
    char *lHash = SHA256(L, strlen(L), NULL);

    // b. Generate random padding string (PS)
    size_t PSLen_h = (maxmLen_o - mLen_o) * 2;
    char *PS = malloc(PSLen_h * sizeof(char));
    memset(PS, '0', PSLen_h);

    // c. Generate data block (DB)
    size_t DBLen_o = k_o - hLen_o - 1;
    size_t DBLen_h = DBLen_o * 2;
    char *DB = malloc((DBLen_h + 1) * sizeof(char));
    int i;
    for (i = 0; i < hLen_o; ++i)
            sprintf(DB + 2 * i, "%02x", (unsigned char)lHash[i
                ]);
    memcpy(DB + hLen_h, PS, PSLen_h);
    memcpy(DB + hLen_h + PSLen_h, "01", 2);
    memcpy(DB + DBLen_h - mLen_h, M, mLen_h);
    DB[DBLen_h] = '\0';

    // d. Generate random seed
    mpz_t seed;
    mpz_init(seed);
    PRNG(seed, hLen_o * 8);
    char *seedStr = I2OSP(seed, hLen_o);

    // ef. Generate dbMask and compute DB XOR dbMask
    char *dbMask = MGF1(seedStr, DBLen_o);
    mpz_t op1, op2, rop;
    mpz_init_set_str(op1, DB, 16);
    mpz_init_set_str(op2, dbMask, 16);
    mpz_init(rop);
    mpz_xor(rop, op1, op2);
    char *maskedDB = I2OSP(rop, DBLen_o);

    // gh. Generate seedMask and compute seed XOR seedMask
    char *seedMask = MGF1(maskedDB, hLen_o);
    mpz_set_str(op1, seedStr, 16);
    mpz_set_str(op2, seedMask, 16);
    mpz_xor(rop, op1, op2);
    char *maskedSeed = I2OSP(rop, hLen_o);

    // i. Generate encoded message (EM)
    size_t EMLen_h = hLen_h + DBLen_h + 2;
    char *EM = malloc((EMLen_h + 1) * sizeof(char));
    memset(EM, '0', 2);
    memcpy(EM + 2, maskedSeed, hLen_h);
    memcpy(EM + hLen_h + 2, maskedDB, DBLen_h);
    EM[EMLen_h] = '\0';

    // Step 3-4: RSA encryption
    mpz_t m, c;
    mpz_init(m);
    mpz_init(c);
```

```
	OS2IP(EM, m);
	RSAEP(K, m, c);
	char *C = I2OSP(c, k_o);

	// Free memory
	free(PS); free(DB); free(dbMask); free(maskedDB);
	free(seedMask); free(maskedSeed); free(EM);
	mpz_clear(op1); mpz_clear(op2); mpz_clear(rop);
	mpz_clear(m); mpz_clear(c);

	return C;
}

// RSA Decryption with OAEP. Section 7.1.2 in PKCS #1
char *RSAES_OAEP_DECRYPT(struct RSAPrivateKey *K, char* C, char *L) {

	// Step 1: Length checking (*_o stores sizes in octets; *_h in hex chars)
	size_t k_o = (mpz_sizeinbase(K->modulus, 16) + 1) / 2;
	size_t CLen_o = strlen(C) / 2;
	if (k_o != CLen_o) {
		printf("decryption error\n");
		return NULL;
	}
	size_t hLen_o = SHA256_DIGEST_LENGTH;
	if (k_o < (2 * hLen_o + 2)) {
		printf("decryption error\n");
		return NULL;
	}

	// Step 2: RSA Decryption
	mpz_t c, m;
	mpz_init(c);
	mpz_init(m);
	OS2IP(C, c);
	if (!RSADP(K, c, m)) {
		printf("decryption error\n");
		return NULL;
	}
	char *EM = I2OSP(m, k_o);

	// Step 3: EME-OAEP decoding
	if (L == NULL) L = "";
	size_t hLen_h = hLen_o * 2;
	char *lHash_o = malloc(hLen_o * sizeof(char));
	char *lHash_h = malloc(hLen_h * sizeof(char));
	SHA256(L, strlen(L), lHash_o);
	int i;
	for (i = 0; i < hLen_o; ++i)
		sprintf(lHash_h + 2 * i, "%02x", (unsigned char) lHash_o[i]);

	// b. Separate encoded message (EM) into its component parts
	size_t DBLen_o = k_o - hLen_o - 1;
	size_t DBLen_h = DBLen_o * 2;
```

```c
        char *maskedSeed = malloc((hLen_h + 1) * sizeof(char));
        char *maskedDB = malloc((DBLen_h + 1) * sizeof(char));
        memcpy(maskedSeed, EM + 2, hLen_h);
        memcpy(maskedDB, EM + 2 + hLen_h, DBLen_h);
        maskedSeed[hLen_h] = '\0';
        maskedDB[DBLen_h] = '\0';

        // cd. Generate seedMask and compute maskedSeed XOR seedMask
        char *seedMask = MGF1(maskedDB, hLen_o);
        mpz_t op1, op2, rop;
        mpz_init_set_str(op1, maskedSeed, 16);
        mpz_init_set_str(op2, seedMask, 16);
        mpz_init(rop);
        mpz_xor(rop, op1, op2);
        char *seed = I2OSP(rop, hLen_o);

        // ef. Generate dbMask and compute maskedDB XOR dbMask
        char *dbMask = MGF1(seed, DBLen_o);
        mpz_set_str(op1, maskedDB, 16);
        mpz_set_str(op2, dbMask, 16);
        mpz_xor(rop, op1, op2);
        char *DB = I2OSP(rop, DBLen_o);

        // g. Separate data block (DB) into component parts to recover message
        size_t PSLen_h = strstr(DB + hLen_h, "01") - DB - hLen_h;
        int mLen_h = DBLen_h - PSLen_h - hLen_h - 1;
        int errCount = 0;
        errCount += (mLen_h < 0);
        errCount += !(EM[0] == '0' && EM[1] == '0');
        errCount += (strncmp(DB, lHash_h, hLen_h) != 0);
        if (errCount  > 0) {
                printf("decryption error\n");
                return NULL;
        }
        char *M = malloc((mLen_h + 1) * sizeof(char));
        memcpy(M, DB + DBLen_h - mLen_h + 1, mLen_h);
        M[mLen_h] = '\0';

        // Free memory
        free(EM); free(lHash_o); free(lHash_h); free(maskedSeed); free(maskedDB);
        free(seedMask); free(seed); free(dbMask); free(DB);
        mpz_clear(op1); mpz_clear(op2); mpz_clear(rop);
        mpz_clear(m); mpz_clear(c);

        return M;
}

// Generates pseudorandom n bits from /dev/random file
void PRNG(mpz_t rand, int n) {
    int devrandom = open("/dev/random", O_RDONLY);
    char randbits[n/8];
    size_t randlen = 0;
    while (randlen < sizeof randbits) {

```

```
        ssize_t result = read(devrandom, randbits + randlen, (sizeof randbits) - randlen);
        if (result < 0)
            printf("%s\n", "Could not read from /dev/random");
        randlen += result;
    }
    close(devrandom);

    mpz_import(rand, sizeof(randbits), 1, sizeof(randbits[0]), 0, 0, randbits);
    // Make sure rand is odd
    if (mpz_odd_p(rand) == 0) {
        unsigned long int one = 1;
        mpz_add_ui(rand, rand, one);
    }
}

// Generate (constant) public exponent e
void gen_e(mpz_t e) {
    // Set e to 2^16 + 1
    unsigned long int e_int = pow(2,16)+1;
    mpz_set_ui(e, e_int);
}

// Generate private exponent d
void gen_d(mpz_t d, mpz_t p_minus_1, mpz_t q_minus_1, mpz_t e, int n) {

    unsigned long int one = 1;
    mpz_t lower_bound, upper_bound, base;
    mpz_init(lower_bound); mpz_init(upper_bound); mpz_init_set_str(base, "2", 10);
    mpz_pow_ui(lower_bound, base, n/2);
    mpz_lcm(upper_bound, p_minus_1, q_minus_1);

    mpz_invert(d, e, upper_bound);
    if (mpz_cmp(d, lower_bound) < 0 || mpz_cmp(d, upper_bound) > 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Private exponent d too small, try again\n");
        exit(-1);
    }

    mpz_t ed, check_d;
    mpz_init(ed); mpz_init(check_d);

    mpz_mul(ed, e, d);
    mpz_mod(check_d, ed, upper_bound);

    assert(mpz_cmp_ui(check_d, one) == 0);

}

// Generate probable prime from auxiliary primes
void gen_probable_prime(mpz_t p, mpz_t p1, mpz_t p2, mpz_t e, int n) {

```

```
    // Step 1: Check if p1 and p2 are coprime
    mpz_t gcd, twop1;
    mpz_init(gcd); mpz_init(twop1);
    unsigned long int one = 1;
    unsigned long int two = 2;
    mpz_mul_ui(twop1, p1, two);
    mpz_gcd(gcd, twop1, p2);
    if (mpz_cmp_ui(gcd, one) != 0) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Auxiliaries p1 and p2 not coprime\n");
        exit(-1);
    }

    // Step 2: Chinese remainder theorem
    mpz_t R; mpz_t R1; mpz_t R2;
    mpz_init(R); mpz_init(R1); mpz_init(R2);

    mpz_invert(R1, p2, twop1);
    mpz_mul(R1, R1, p2);

    mpz_invert(R2, twop1, p2);
    mpz_mul(R2, R2, twop1);

    mpz_sub(R, R1, R2);

    // Check for CRT
    mpz_t check1; mpz_t check2; mpz_t mpz_one;
    mpz_init(check1); mpz_init(check2); mpz_init(mpz_one);
    mpz_set_str(mpz_one, "1", 10);
    mpz_mod(check1, R, twop1);
    mpz_mod(check2, R, p2);
    mpz_sub(check2, p2, check2);
    assert(mpz_cmp(check1, mpz_one) == 0);
    assert(mpz_cmp(check2, mpz_one) == 0);


    // Step 3: Generate random X between lower_bound and
        upper_bound
    mpz_t lower_bound; mpz_t upper_bound; mpz_t base; mpz_t X;
        mpz_t temp; mpz_t Y;
    mpz_init(lower_bound); mpz_init(upper_bound); mpz_init(base);
        mpz_init(X); mpz_init(temp); mpz_init(Y);

    mpz_set_str(base, "2", 10);
    mpz_pow_ui(upper_bound, base, n/2);
    mpz_sub_ui(upper_bound, upper_bound, one);


    mpf_t f_lb, f_sqrt, f_base;

    mpf_init(f_lb); mpf_init(f_sqrt); mpf_init_set_str(f_base, "2",
         10);

    mpf_sqrt(f_sqrt, f_base);
    mpf_pow_ui(f_lb, f_base, n/2-1);
    mpf_mul(f_lb, f_lb, f_sqrt);
    mpz_set_f(lower_bound, f_lb);

```

```c

    mpz_t cond;
    mpz_init(cond);
    mpz_pow_ui(cond, base, n/2);

    mpz_t Y_minus_1;
    mpz_init(Y_minus_1);
    mpz_sub_ui(Y_minus_1, Y, one);


    int i = 0;
    do {

        PRNG(X, n/2);
        while (mpz_cmp(X, lower_bound) < 0 || mpz_cmp(X,
            upper_bound) > 0) {
            PRNG(X, n/2);
        }

        // Step 4: Calculate Y
        mpz_mul(temp, twop1, p2);
        mpz_sub(Y, R, X);
        mpz_mod(Y, Y, temp);
        mpz_add(Y, Y, X);

        // Step 5: i = 0
        i = 0;

        mpz_gcd(gcd, Y_minus_1, e);

        // Step 11: Go to Step 6
        while (mpz_cmp(Y, cond) < 0) {
            i += 1;
            if (mpz_cmp_ui(gcd, one) != 0) {
                if (i >= 5*(n/2)) {
                    printf("%s\n", "FAILURE");
                    exit(-1);
                }
                mpz_add(Y, Y, temp);
                mpz_gcd(gcd, Y_minus_1, e);
            }
            // Step 7: If GCD(Y-1, e) = 1
            else {
                if (mpz_probab_prime_p(Y, 28) >= 1) {
                    mpz_set(p, Y);
                    return;
                }

                //Step 8: Check if failure
                if (i >= 5*(n/2)) {
                    printf("%s\n", "FAILURE");
                    exit(-1);
                }

                //Step 10: Update Y
                mpz_add(Y, Y, temp);
                mpz_gcd(gcd, Y_minus_1, e);
```

```
            }
        }
    // Step 6: Check condition for Y > cond
    } while (mpz_cmp(Y, cond) >= 0);

    mpz_clear(gcd); mpz_clear(twop1); mpz_clear(R); mpz_clear(R1); mpz_clear(R2);
    mpz_clear(check1); mpz_clear(check2); mpz_clear(mpz_one);
    mpz_clear(lower_bound); mpz_clear(upper_bound); mpz_clear(base); mpz_clear(X); mpz_clear(temp); mpz_clear(Y);
    mpz_clear(cond); mpz_clear(Y_minus_1);

    mpf_clear(f_lb); mpf_clear(f_sqrt); mpf_clear(f_base);
}


// Generate auxiliary primes
void gen_auxiliary_primes(mpz_t p, mpz_t e, int n) {
    if (n != 1024 && n != 2048 && n != 3072) {
        fprintf(stderr, "Invalid bit length for RSA modulus. Exiting...\n");
        exit(-1);
    }
    mpz_t xp, xp1, xp2, p1, p2;
    mpz_init(xp); mpz_init(xp1); mpz_init(xp2); mpz_init(p1); mpz_init(p2);
    unsigned long int two = 2;

    int len_aux = 0;
    int mr_rounds = 0;
    if (n == 1024) {
        len_aux = 104;
        mr_rounds = 28;
    }
    else if (n == 2048) {
        len_aux = 144;
        mr_rounds = 38;
    }
    else if (n == 3072) {
        len_aux = 176;
        mr_rounds = 41;
    }

    PRNG(xp1, len_aux);
    PRNG(xp2, len_aux);

    while (mpz_probab_prime_p(xp1, mr_rounds) != 1) {
        mpz_add_ui(xp1, xp1, two);
    }
    while (mpz_probab_prime_p(xp2, mr_rounds) != 1) {
        mpz_add_ui(xp2, xp2, two);
    }
    //gmp_printf("%s\n%Zd\n%Zd\n", "Auxiliary primes for p: ", xp1, xp2);
    mpz_set(p1, xp1);
    mpz_set(p2, xp2);

```

```
    gen_probable_prime(p, p1, p2, e, n);
    mpz_clear(xp); mpz_clear(xp1); mpz_clear(xp2); mpz_clear(p1); mpz_clear(p2);
}

// Check if gcd(a,b) = 1 (coprime)
int coprime(mpz_t a, mpz_t b) {
    int coprime = 1;
    mpz_t gcd; mpz_init(gcd);
    mpz_t one; mpz_init_set_str(one, "1", 10);

    mpz_gcd(gcd, a, b);
    if (mpz_cmp(gcd, one) != 0) {
        coprime = 0;
    }
    mpz_clear(gcd); mpz_clear(one);
    return coprime;
}
/*
int main() {
        struct RSAPublicKey pubK;
        struct RSAPrivateKey privK;
    mpz_init(pubK.modulus); mpz_init(pubK.publicExponent);
    mpz_init(privK.modulus); mpz_init(privK.privateExponent);
        mpz_t mod, e, d, p, q;
    mpz_init(mod); mpz_init(e); mpz_init(d); mpz_init(p); mpz_init(q);

    /*
     * Key generation
     *

    // Generate public exponent e
    gen_e(e);
    gmp_printf("%s%Zd\n\n", "Public exponent e: ", e);

    // Generate primes p and q for modulus n
    gen_auxiliary_primes(p, e, 1024);
    gen_auxiliary_primes(q, e, 1024);

    // Check if (p-1) and (q-1) are coprime with e
    unsigned long int one = 1;
    mpz_t p_minus_1, q_minus_1;
    mpz_init(p_minus_1); mpz_init(q_minus_1);
    mpz_sub_ui(p_minus_1, p, one);
    mpz_sub_ui(q_minus_1, q, one);

    assert(coprime(p_minus_1, e) == 1);
    assert(coprime(q_minus_1, e) == 1);

    gmp_printf("%s%Zd\n\n", "Prime p: ", p);
    gmp_printf("%s%Zd\n\n", "Prime q: ", q);

    mpz_mul(mod, p, q);

    gmp_printf("%s%Zd\n\n", "Modulus n: ", mod);

```

```
    // Generate private exponent d
    gen_d(d, p_minus_1, q_minus_1, e, 1024);

    gmp_printf("%s%Zd\n\n", "Private exponent d: ", d);

    mpz_set(pubK.modulus, mod);
    mpz_set(pubK.publicExponent, e);

    mpz_set(privK.modulus, mod);
    mpz_set(privK.privateExponent, d);

    gmp_printf("%Zd\n", pubK.modulus);
        gmp_printf("%Zd\n", pubK.publicExponent);
        return 0;
}*/
```

Listing 3: Code for `test.c`.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <string.h>
#include <gmp.h>
#include "rsa.h"

int Test1(struct RSAPublicKey*, struct RSAPrivateKey*);

int main() {
        struct RSAPublicKey pubK;
        struct RSAPrivateKey privK;
        mpz_init(pubK.modulus);
        mpz_init(pubK.publicExponent);
        mpz_init(privK.modulus);
        mpz_init(privK.privateExponent);

        if (Test1(&pubK, &privK))
                printf("Test1:␣Passed!\n");
        else
                printf("Test2:␣Failed!\n");

        return 0;
}

int Test1(struct RSAPublicKey *pubK, struct RSAPrivateKey *privK) {
        char *message = "6628194
            e12073db03ba94cda9ef9532397d50dba79b987004afefe34";
        char *mStr = "a8␣b3␣b2␣84␣af␣8e␣b5␣0b␣38␣70␣34␣a8␣60␣f1␣46␣
            c4␣91␣9f␣31␣87␣63␣cd␣6c␣55␣98␣c8␣ae␣48␣11␣a1␣e0␣ab␣c4␣
            c7␣e0␣b0␣82␣d6␣93␣a5␣e7␣fc␣ed␣67␣5c␣f4␣66␣85␣12␣77␣2c␣0
            c␣bc␣64␣a7␣42␣c6␣c6␣30␣f5␣33␣c8␣cc␣72␣f6␣2a␣e8␣33␣c4␣0b
            ␣f2␣58␣42␣e9␣84␣bb␣78␣bd␣bf␣97␣c0␣10␣7d␣55␣bd␣b6␣62␣f5␣
            c4␣e0␣fa␣b9␣84␣5c␣b5␣14␣8e␣f7␣39␣2d␣d3␣aa␣ff␣93␣ae␣1e␣6
            b␣66␣7b␣b3␣d4␣24␣76␣16␣d4␣f5␣ba␣10␣d4␣cf␣d2␣26␣de␣88␣d3
            ␣9f␣16␣fb";
        char *eStr = "01␣00␣01";
        char *dStr = "53␣33␣9c␣fd␣b7␣9f␣c8␣46␣6a␣65␣5c␣73␣16␣ac␣a8␣
            5c␣55␣fd␣8f␣6d␣d8␣98␣fd␣af␣11␣95␣17␣ef␣4f␣52␣e8␣fd␣8e␣
            25␣8d␣f9␣3f␣ee␣18␣0f␣a0␣e4␣ab␣29␣69␣3c␣d8␣3b␣15␣2a␣55␣3
            d␣4a␣c4␣d1␣81␣2b␣8b␣9f␣a5␣af␣0e␣7f␣55␣fe␣73␣04␣df␣41␣57
```

```
                ␣09␣26␣f3␣31␣1f␣15␣c4␣d6␣5a␣73␣2c␣48␣31␣16␣ee␣3d␣3d␣2d␣
                0a␣f3␣54␣9a␣d9␣bf␣7c␣bf␣b7␣8a␣d8␣84␣f8␣4d␣5b␣eb␣04␣72␣4
                d␣c7␣36␣9b␣31␣de␣f3␣7d␣0c␣f5␣39␣e9␣cf␣cd␣d3␣de␣65␣37␣29
                ␣ea␣d5␣d1";
        mpz_set_str(pubK->modulus, mStr, 16);
        mpz_set(privK->modulus, pubK->modulus);
        mpz_set_str(pubK->publicExponent, eStr, 16);
        mpz_set_str(privK->privateExponent, dStr, 16);

        char *C = RSAES_OAEP_ENCRYPT(pubK, message, NULL);
        char *M = RSAES_OAEP_DECRYPT(privK, C, NULL);
        if (!M) return -1;

        return (strcmp(M, message) == 0);
}
```

# B Crypto Coding Practices

1. We learned how to use a cryptographically secure pseudorandom number generator and that even this has inherent disadvantages.

2. We learned how to prevent the elementary common modulus attack.

3. We learned how to prevent low private exponent attacks and that the security of our implementation can be improved further by choosing a larger public exponent.

4. We learned how to prevent low public exponent attacks and that the security of our implementation can be improved further by choosing a larger public exponent.

5. We learned how to prevent partial key exposure attacks and that our implementation is lacking in privacy provisions for the private exponent $d$.

6. We learned that our implementation is not immune to timing attacks and power consumption attacks and that precluding these attacks is difficult.

# C Secure Coding Practices

1. We learned the importance of freeing dynamically allocated memory, especially in a cryptographic setting where unfreed memory can contain sensitive data.

2. We learned to correctly size memory allocation for an object; using GMP Library for most instances greatly reduces developer errors.

3. We learned the importance of converting `char` data types to `unsigned char` data types whenever it is being passed to a character-handling function.

4. We learned retrospectively that consistent and comphrehensive error handling would have made the development effort much easier.

5. We would have liked to create a comprehensive test suite that could ensure correctness through future iterations of our implementation. This would have been tremendously helpful during the development process.

6. It would be interesting to leverage static analysis techniques and a binary fuzzer, such as AFL, to discover any unintended behavior in our implementation.