

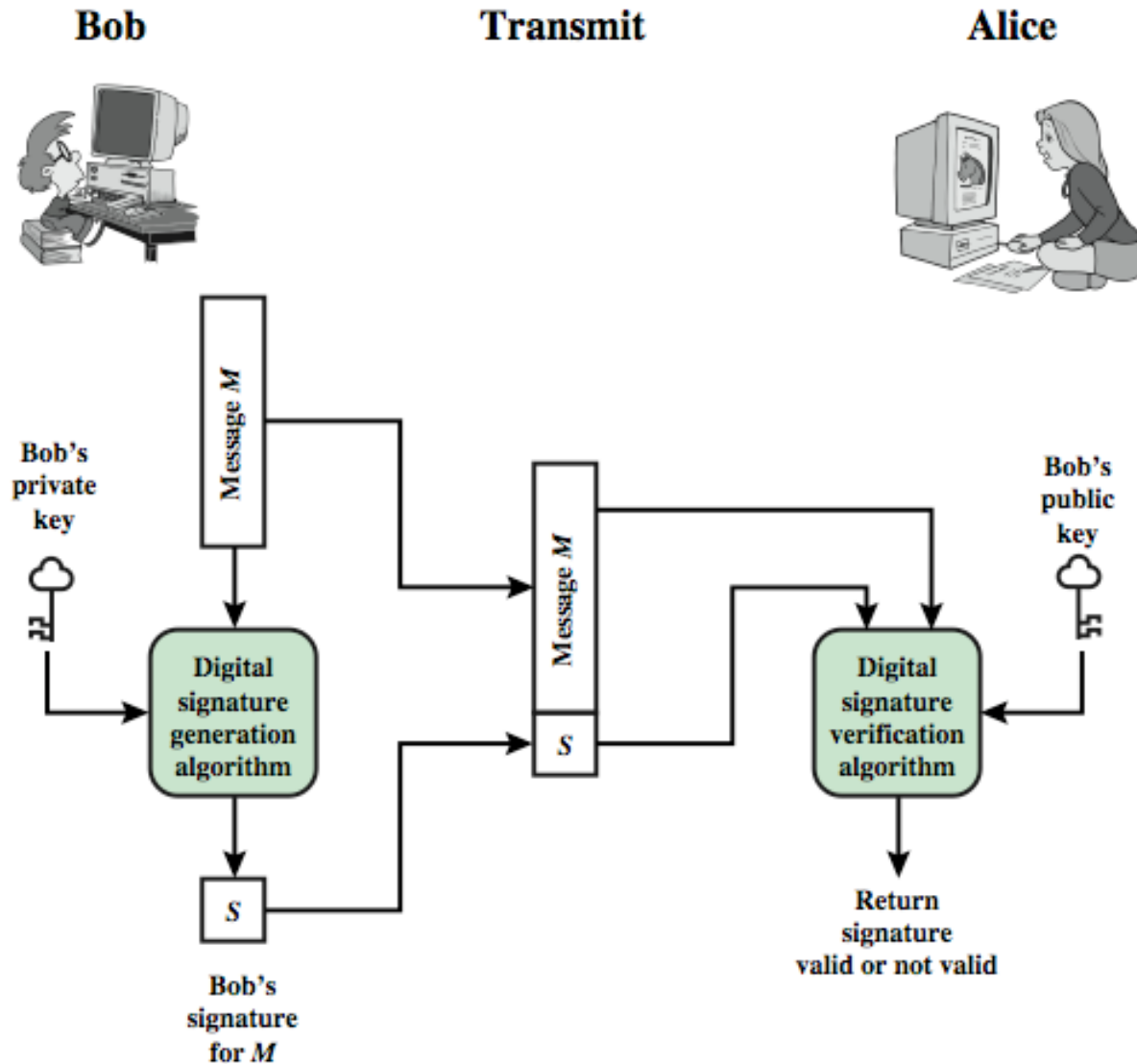
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# Plan of Talk : RSA Signatures

- **RSA Signature**
  - **Issues with Textbook version of RSA Signature**
  - **Next Week: Hash Functions and Practical Signature Schemes**
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# Digital Signature Model





# Digital Signature Requirements

- The signature must be a bit pattern that depends on the message being signed.
- The signature must use some information unique to the sender to prevent both forgery and denial
- It must be relatively easy to produce the digital signature
- It must be relatively easy to recognize and verify the digital signature
- It must be computationally infeasible to forge a digital signature, either by constructing a new message for an existing digital signature or by constructing a fraudulent digital signature for a given message
- It must be practical to retain a copy of the digital signature in storage

# Digital Signatures

- The purpose of this discussion is to understand how RSA signature works and how it is different from RSA encryption we studied earlier.
- RSA signature is a public key signature scheme
- Signature is a means for a trusted third party (Network Security Manager) to bind the identity of a user to a public key.

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# Digital Signatures cont.

- RSA signature is complement of RSA public encryption.
- Owner for the private key signs messages; Anyone with the public key can verify the signatures.
- In RSA encryption, anyone with the public key can encrypt messages and the owner of the private key can decrypt the messages.

# RSA : Alice's parameters

- $N = P \cdot Q$ ;  $P, Q$  Large Primes
- Choose Public key  $e$  and private key  $d$  such that  $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$
- Public address –  $[N, e]$
- Private address –  $[d]$
- Signature Generation:
- Message  $0 < M < N$ ;
- Compute:  $s = M^d \pmod{N}$ ;
- Signature— $[M, s]$
- Verification – if  $s^e \pmod{N} = M$

# Some Consequences: Existential Forgery attack

Multiplicative property of RSA signature

$$(M1 * M2)^d = M1^d * M2^d$$

i.e. if  $s1$  = Signature of  $M1$ ;

$s2$  = Signature of  $M2$

$(s1 * s2)$  is the signature of  $(M1 * M2)$ .

This leads to a possibility of forgery of signature!

Further

- What if Message is very long?
- Also, a problem called blinding.

# Blinding

- Alice's public key –  $[N, e]$ ; Private key  $[d]$
- You want to get Alice sign a message  $M$  which Alice normally may not do.
- Choose a random  $x$  – in the range  $[0..N-1]$
- Form a blinded message --  $M_b = x^e M \bmod N$
- Alice may sign  $s_b = M_b^d \bmod N$
- Now you can compute signature for  $M$  as
- $s = s_b / x \bmod N$
- Note
- $s^e = s_b^e / x^e = (M_b)^d / x^e = (M_b) / x^e = x^e M / x^e = M$
- Hence  $s$  is the signature of  $M$ .



# RSA Signature Modified

- Public address –  $[N, e]$  ; Private address –  $[d]$
- Signature Generation:
- Message  $0 < M < N$ ;
- Find  $M1 = R(M)$ ; where  $R$  is a redundancy function,
- $1 < R(M) < N$ .
- Compute:  $s = (M1)^d \bmod N$ ;
- Signature— $[M, s]$
- Verification –
- Compute  $s^e \bmod N = M1$
- Verify  $R(M) == ? == M1$

# RSA Signature in Practice

A practical signature scheme should take care of the two problems discussed before.

- Messages are generally long
- RSA signature scheme needs a redundancy function to avoid existential forgery attacks.
- Also repeated messages carry same signature.
- In practice, generally a suitable cryptographic hash function is applied to the message (which could be arbitrarily large); and sign the hash.

# Practical RSA Signature Scheme

- Public address –  $[N, e]$  ; Private address –  $[d]$
- Signature Generation:
- Message  $M$  of arbitrary length,
- Find  $h(M)$ ; where  $h$  is an hash function,
- Format the message before signing
- $M1$  as  $[h(M), \text{identity information, random number}]$
- such that  $0 < M1 < n$
- Compute:  $s = (M1)^d \bmod N$ ;
- Signature— $[M, s]$
- Verification –
- Extract  $M1$  by computing  $s^e \bmod N = M1$
- Any formatting violations– reject the signature
- Further Verify  $h(M) == ? == M1$

# Security of RSA

- ❑ Brute force Attack: (infeasible given size of numbers)
- ❑ Attack by making use of loop holes in Key distribution.
- ❑ Mathematical attacks (Factoring and RSA problem)
  - Elementary attacks
  - Advanced Factorization methods
- ❑ Brute force Attack: (infeasible given size of numbers)
- ❑ Network attacks
  - Timing attacks (on running of decryption)

# Mathematical attacks

- The RSA function is one way
- The problem
- Given  $n, e, c = M^e \pmod{n}$ ,
  - Can we determine  $M$ ?
  - Do we have an algorithm to find the  $e^{\text{th}}$  root of  $c \pmod{n}$ ?
  - Can we find  $d$  such that  $de = 1 \pmod{\Phi(n)}$ ?
- Can we factor  $n$ ?

# Factorization Problem

- In general the factorization is hard.
- Brute force algorithm is exponential in  $b$ , where  $b$  is number of bits in the representation of the number  $n$  to be factored.
- Complexity of the best known algorithm for factorization:  
$$\exp((c + O(1))b^{1/3} \text{Log}^{2/3}(b)),$$
  
for some integer  $c < 2$
- It is not worth thinking of factoring.
- May be quantum computers come to our rescue; but may not in our life time!

# Elementary attacks

- Can we use common modulus for more than one user?
- Facts:
- Knowing  $e$  and  $d$  such that
$$ed = 1 \bmod \Phi(n)$$
Is equivalent to factoring.
- Knowing  $n$ ,  $\Phi(n)$  is also equivalent to factoring

# Common modulus

- Every user chooses same modulus  $n=pq$  set up by a trusted central authority. But each user chooses their own private and public key pairs
- User  $i$  ----- $(e_i, d_i)$
- So using the facts in previous slide, any user can factor common modulus  $n$  and
- can find the private information of other user by using only the public information.
- Hence it is extremely important that every entity chooses its own RSA modulus  $n$ .



# Broadcast Problem

A group of entities may all have a same encryption exponent but should have different modulus. Further, to improve the public encryption, let the public key be small, say  $e=3$ .

- A wishes to send a common message  $m$  to three entities with modulus  $n_1, n_2$  and  $n_3$ .
- The cipher text for three entities are given by
- $c_1 = m^3 \pmod{n_1}$
- $c_2 = m^3 \pmod{n_2}$
- $c_3 = m^3 \pmod{n_3}$ .

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- Then, to recover the message  $m$  solve,
  - $x = c_1 \pmod{n_1}$ ,
  - $x = c_2 \pmod{n_2}$ ,
  - $x = c_3 \pmod{n_3}$ ,
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- You can use CRT and Then obtain an unique
  - $x = m^3 \pmod{n_1 n_2 n_3}$
  - $m$  can then be obtained by taking the cube root of  $x$ .
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# RSA-PSS

- RSA Probabilistic Signature Scheme, included in the 2009 version of FIPS 186
- Latest of the RSA schemes and the one that RSA Laboratories recommends as the most secure of the RSA schemes
- For all schemes developed prior to PSS it has not been possible to develop a mathematical proof that the signature scheme is as secure as the underlying RSA encryption/decryption primitive
- The PSS approach first proposed by Bellare and Rogaway
- This approach, unlike the other RSA-based schemes, introduces a randomization process that enables the security of the method to be shown to be closely related to the security of the RSA algorithm itself
- More details on the algorithm are available in the textbook.



# Timing Attacks

- Attack introduced by Paul Kocher in 1996.
- If implemented correctly, an attacker can recover private key by keeping track of how long a receiver computer takes to decipher messages.
- This is a serious attack as the previous models do not address this attack.
- The worry is that it is applicable many other crypto systems including symmetric key ciphers.



# Some typical methods for Timing attacks

- Constant exponentiation time: Ensure that all exponentiations take the same amount of time before returning a result. This is a simple fix but does degrade performance.
- Random delay: Better performance could be achieved by adding a random delay to the exponentiation algorithm to confuse the timing attack.
- Blinding: Multiply the ciphertext by a random number before performing exponentiation. This process prevents the attacker from knowing what ciphertext bits are being processed inside the computer and therefore prevents the bit-by-bit analysis essential to the timing attack.



# Fault-Based Attack

- An attack on a processor that is generating RSA digital signatures
  - ❑ Induces faults in the signature computation by reducing the power to the processor
  - ❑ The faults cause the software to produce invalid signatures which can then be analyzed by the attacker to recover the private key
- The attack algorithm involves inducing single-bit errors and observing the results
- While worthy of consideration, this attack does not appear to be a serious threat to RSA
  - ❑ It requires that the attacker have physical access to the target machine and is able to directly control the input power to the processor

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# Summary

- Security of Public Key Algorithms
  - CCA Attack on Textbook RSA
  - Textbook RSA Signature Algorithm
  - Blinding
  - RSA Attacks
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