

Cryptography

Public Key Cryptography - RSA

University of Birmingham

Autumn Term 2017

Lecturer: David Galindo



UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

Security
and
Privacy

symmetric key cryptography was given by Mark Ryan;
public key cryptography will be given by myself

A total of **two summative assessments** plus exam

Exam counts **80%**

Continuous Assessment counts **20%**
of final mark

2nd assessment: distributed 16 Nov, deadline 27 Nov

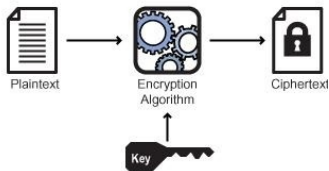
Where&how to find me:

- My Office is Room 116, 1st floor, SCoS
- Office hours:
 - Wednesdays 2pm-4pm
- **Contact:** `D.Galindo@cs.bham.ac.uk`

Secret key encryption

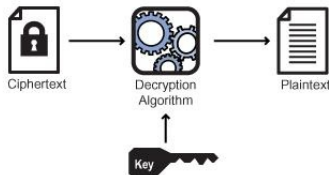
so far: we covered **symmetric encryption**, where encryption key K and decryption key K are equal

Symmetric Key Encryption



<http://www.infosectoday.com>

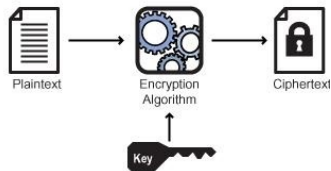
Symmetric Key Decryption



Secret key encryption

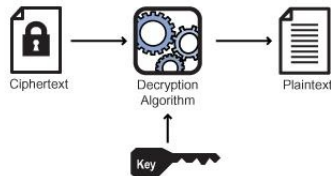
so far: we covered **symmetric encryption**, where encryption key K and decryption key K are equal

Symmetric Key Encryption



<http://www.infosectoday.com>

Symmetric Key Decryption



Question 1: give examples of symmetric key encryption where encryption and decryption algorithms are equal

Some responses to Question 1

Definition 5.1.5 Counter mode (CTR)

Let $e()$ be a block cipher of block size b , and let x_i and y_i be bit strings of length b . The concatenation of the initialization value IV and the counter CTR_i is denoted by $(IV || CTR_i)$ and is a bit string of length b .

Encryption: $y_i = e_k(IV || CTR_i) \oplus x_i, \quad i \geq 1$

Decryption: $x_i = e_k(IV || CTR_i) \oplus y_i, \quad i \geq 1$

Definition 5.1.4 Cipher feedback mode (CFB)

Let $e()$ be a block cipher of block size b ; let x_i and y_i be bit strings of length b ; and IV be a nonce of length b .

Encryption (first block): $y_1 = e_k(IV) \oplus x_1$

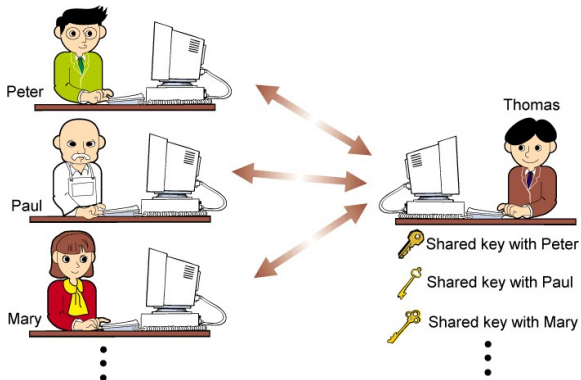
Encryption (general block): $y_i = e_k(y_{i-1}) \oplus x_i, \quad i \geq 2$

Decryption (first block): $x_1 = e_k(IV) \oplus y_1$

Decryption (general block): $x_i = e_k(y_{i-1}) \oplus y_i, \quad i \geq 2$

from *Understanding Cryptography*. Paar, Pelzl (2010)

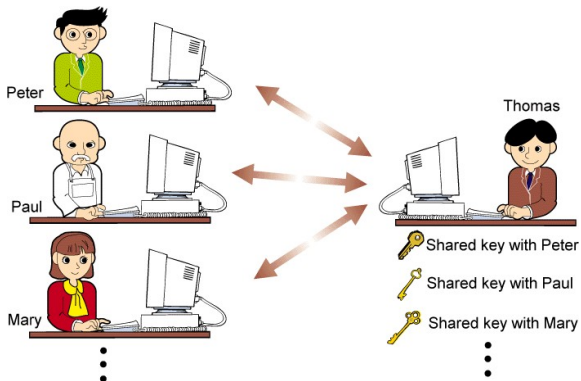
Key management problem



<http://www.csis.hku.hk>

Question: how many keys needed for pairwise **secret communication** between n parties?

Key management problem

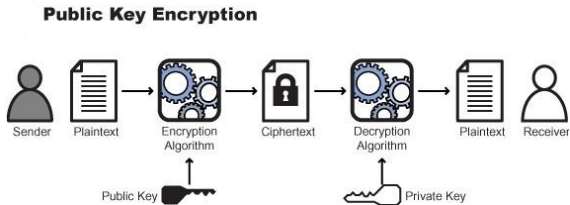


<http://www.csis.hku.hk>

Question: how many keys needed for pairwise **secret communication** between n parties? $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$

Public key encryption

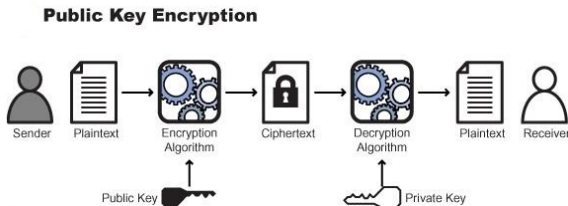
Can do differently: can use **asymmetric encryption**, where encryption key K and decryption key K' are different



<http://www.infosectoday.com>

Public key encryption

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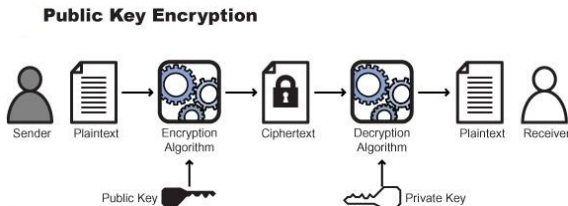


<http://www.infosectoday.com>

Question 1: Would it make sense to make both keys *public*?

Public key encryption

Can do differently: can use **asymmetric encryption**, where encryption key K and decryption key K' are different



<http://www.infosectoday.com>

Question 1: Would it make sense to make both keys *public*?

Question 2: In asymmetric encryption, can encryption and decryption algorithms *be equal*?

Public key encryption - physical analogy



<http://csunplugged.org>

Alice encrypts to Bob's public key

Assume Alice has **padlock** and Bob has the **key**

Alice places her **message** in a **safe box**, applies padlock

Bob **unlocks** padlock with **key** and takes out **message** from **safe box**

Public key encryption - physical analogy



<http://csunplugged.org>

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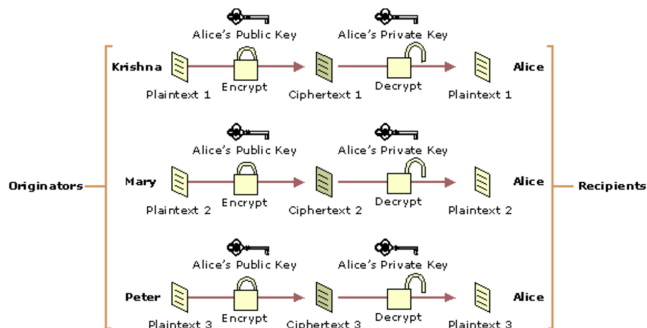
Alice places her **message** in a **safe box**, applies padlock

Bob **unlocks** padlock with **key** and takes out **message** from **safe box**

Question: Find a variation of this analogy for *symmetric key* crypto

Public key encryption and Key Management

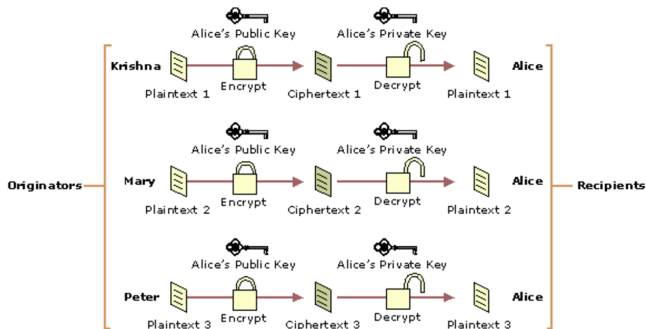
Consider key management for n communicating parties:



<https://technet.microsoft.com>

Public key encryption and Key Management

Consider key management for n communicating parties:

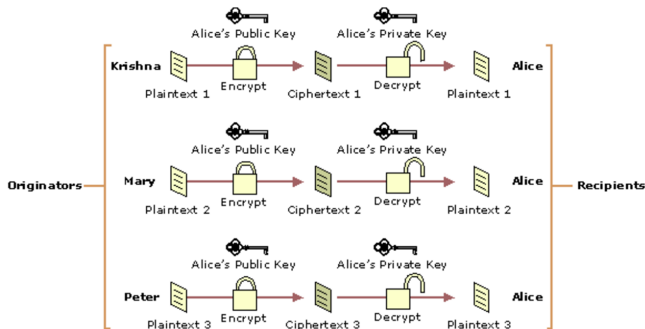


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Question: how many keys needed for pairwise **secret communication** between n parties?

Public key encryption and Key Management

Consider key management for n communicating parties:



<https://technet.microsoft.com>

Question: how many keys needed for pairwise **secret communication** between n parties? n public keys

Public key encryption - syntax

A public key encryption scheme consists of the following algorithms $\text{PKE} = (\text{KG}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$:

- $\text{KG}(\lambda)$ on input a **security parameter** λ outputs a pair of encryption/decryption keys (PK, SK)
- $\text{Enc}(PK, m; r)$ on inputs a public key PK , plaintext m outputs a ciphertext C (eventually local randomness r)
- $\text{Dec}(SK, C)$ on inputs a decryption key SK and a ciphertext C outputs a plaintext m

Modular Arithmetic - Recap

\mathbb{Z}_N and modular arithmetic

Definition (mod N)

Fix a positive integer N which we call the *modulus*. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ two integers. We write $a = b \pmod{N}$ or $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$ if N divides $b - a$. Equivalently if $b - a = q \cdot N$ for an integer q . We say that a and b are **congruent modulo N** or that the **modular reduction modulo N** of a is b

Definition (\mathbb{Z}_N)

\mathbb{Z}_N for $N \in \mathbb{Z}, N > 0$ is defined as $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, \dots, N-2, N-1\}$. We call it the **ring of integers modulo N**

Basic modular arithmetic

The set \mathbb{Z}_N has two modular operations, namely **addition** and **multiplication**.

For example, for $N = 16$

$$11 + 13 \bmod 16 = 24 = 8 \bmod 16 \text{ since } 24 - 8 = 16 \cdot 1$$

$$11 \cdot 13 \bmod 16 = 143 \bmod 16 = 15 \text{ since } 143 - 15 = 16 \cdot 8$$

$$27 \cdot 45 \bmod 16 = 15 \text{ since } 27 \cdot 45 \bmod 16 = 11 \cdot 13 \bmod 16$$

Greatest Common Divisor (Euclidean Algorithm)

Definition (GCD)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ be two integers with $a \neq 0$ and $b \neq 0$. The **greatest common divisor** for a and b , written $\gcd(a, b)$, is the largest positive integer that divides both numbers without remainder

compute $\gcd(a, b)$

1 **read** a, b

2 **while** $b \neq 0$ **do**

$r \leftarrow a \bmod b$

$a \leftarrow b$

$b \leftarrow r$

3 **return** $|a|$

Examples:

$\gcd(100, 76) = \gcd(76, 24) = \gcd(24, 4) = 4$

$\gcd(1665, 910) = \gcd(1665, 910) = \gcd(910, 755)$

$\gcd(155, 135) = \gcd(135, 20) = \gcd(20, 15) =$

$\gcd(15, 5) = \gcd(5, 0) = 5$

Question: Show that $\gcd(1426668559730, 810653094756) = 1417082$

Check out <http://wrean.ca/cazelais/euclid.pdf>

Solution to GCD calculation

$$\begin{aligned}\gcd(1\,426\,668\,559\,730, 810\,653\,094\,756) &= \gcd(810\,653\,094\,756, 616\,015\,464\,974), \\ &= \gcd(616\,015\,464\,974, 194\,637\,629\,782), \\ &= \gcd(194\,637\,629\,782, 32\,102\,575\,628), \\ &= \gcd(32\,102\,575\,628, 2\,022\,176\,014), \\ &= \gcd(2\,022\,176\,014, 1\,769\,935\,418), \\ &= \gcd(1\,769\,935\,418, 252\,240\,596), \\ &= \gcd(252\,240\,596, 4\,251\,246), \\ &= \gcd(4\,251\,246, 1\,417\,082), \\ &= \gcd(1\,417\,082, 0), \\ &= 1\,417\,082.\end{aligned}$$

from *Cryptography Made Simple*. N.P. Smart (2016)

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Let $a > b$ be two integers such that $a > 0$ and $b > 0$. Then the following algorithm computes integers α and β such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = \alpha \cdot a + \beta \cdot b$$

read a, b

1 $\lambda_{11} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{22} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{12} \leftarrow 0, \lambda_{21} \leftarrow 0$

2 **while** $b \neq 0$ **do**

3 $q \leftarrow a \div b$

4 $r \leftarrow a \bmod b$

5 $a \leftarrow b$

6 $b \leftarrow r$

7 $t_{21} \leftarrow \lambda_{21}; t_{22} \leftarrow \lambda_{22}$

8 $\lambda_{21} \leftarrow \lambda_{11} - q \cdot \lambda_{21}$

9 $\lambda_{22} \leftarrow \lambda_{12} - q \cdot \lambda_{22}$

10 $\lambda_{11} \leftarrow t_{21}$

11 $\lambda_{12} \leftarrow t_{22}$

return $(\gcd(a, b), \alpha, \beta) \leftarrow (|a|, \lambda_{11}, \lambda_{12})$

Inverses modulo N

Theorem

$x \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ has an inverse y (i.e. there exists $y \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ such that $x \cdot y = 1 \pmod N$) if and only if $\gcd(N, x) = 1$. We say y is the **inverse** of x **modulo** N and write it as $y = x^{-1} = 1/x \pmod N$

Fact

$y = x^{-1} \pmod N$ can be computed with the Extended Euclidean algorithm: let $\gcd(N, x) = \alpha \cdot N + \beta \cdot x = 1$. Then $y := \beta$

Example: Inverses modulo 19

We compute $7^{-1} \pmod{19}$ using $\text{gcd}(19, 7) = \alpha \cdot 19 + \beta \cdot 7$

0 $\lambda_{11} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{22} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{12} \leftarrow 0, \lambda_{21} \leftarrow 0, a \leftarrow 19, b \leftarrow 7$

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1 $q \leftarrow 2, r \leftarrow 5, a \leftarrow 7, b \leftarrow 5, t_{21} \leftarrow 0, t_{22} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{21} \leftarrow 1,$
 $\lambda_{22} \leftarrow -2, \lambda_{11} \leftarrow 0, \lambda_{12} \leftarrow 1$

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- 2 $q \leftarrow 1, r \leftarrow 2, a \leftarrow 5, b \leftarrow 2, t_{21} \leftarrow 1, t_{22} \leftarrow -2, \lambda_{21} \leftarrow -1, \lambda_{22} \leftarrow 3, \lambda_{11} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{12} \leftarrow -2$

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- ⑤ $q \leftarrow 2, r \leftarrow 0, a \leftarrow 1, b \leftarrow 0, t_{21} \leftarrow 3, t_{22} \leftarrow -8, \lambda_{21} \leftarrow -7, \lambda_{22} \leftarrow 14, \lambda_{11} \leftarrow 3, \lambda_{12} \leftarrow -8$

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Hence $\text{gcd}(19, 7) = 3 \cdot 19 + (-8) \cdot 7$

Example: Inverses modulo 19

We compute $7^{-1} \bmod 19$ using $\text{gcd}(19, 7) = \alpha \cdot 19 + \beta \cdot 7$

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Hence $\text{gcd}(19, 7) = 3 \cdot 19 + (-8) \cdot 7$

Finally $7^{-1} \bmod 19 = -8 = 11 \bmod 19$

Example: Inverses modulo 19

We compute $7^{-1} \bmod 19$ using $\gcd(19, 7) = \alpha \cdot 19 + \beta \cdot 7$

- ① $\lambda_{11} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{22} \leftarrow 1, \lambda_{12} \leftarrow 0, \lambda_{21} \leftarrow 0, a \leftarrow 19, b \leftarrow 7$
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Hence $\gcd(19, 7) = 3 \cdot 19 + (-8) \cdot 7$

Finally $7^{-1} \bmod 19 = -8 = 11 \bmod 19$

Question: Compute $11^{-1} \bmod 19$ and $5^{-1} \bmod 19$

Check out <http://wrean.ca/cazelais/xeuclid.pdf>

Inverses modulo N

Definition

\mathbb{Z}_N^* is the subset of \mathbb{Z}_N containing all its invertible elements

Definition

We call the function $\phi(N)$, which assigns to an integer N the number of invertible elements in \mathbb{Z}_N^* *Euler's Totient function*

Properties ϕ function

- If $p \geq 2$ is prime, then

$$\phi(p) = p - 1$$

- More generally, for any $e \geq 1$,

$$\phi(p^e) = p^{e-1} \cdot (p - 1)$$

- For $n, m > 0$ such that $\gcd(n, m) = 1$, we have:

$$\phi(n \cdot m) = \phi(n) \cdot \phi(m)$$

Euler's theorem

Theorem

Let $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $\gcd(a, N) = 1$, then we have $a^{\phi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$

• Proof

- Consider the map $f_a : \mathbb{Z}_N^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, such that $f_a(b) = a \cdot b$ for any $b \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$
- f_a is a bijection (also called permutation in crypto language)
 - f_a is injective, i.e. $f_a(b_1) = f_a(b_2)$ iff $b_1 = b_2 \pmod{N}$
 - f_a is exhaustive, i.e. for any $b \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ there exists $b' \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ such that $f_a(b') = b$
- therefore

$$\prod_{b \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} b = \prod_{b' \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} (a \cdot b') = a^{\phi(N)} \cdot \prod_{b' \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} b'$$

- We can conclude that $a^{\phi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$

Fermat's little theorem

- Theorem

- For any prime p and any integer $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Moreover, for any integer a , we have $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$

- Proof

- *Hint:* Use Euler's theorem

Fermat's little theorem

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- Proof

- *Hint:* Use Euler's theorem
- *Answer:* From Euler's theorem we know that if $\gcd(a, N) = 1$ then $a^{\phi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$. Since p is prime and $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ then $\gcd(a, N) = 1$. Finally, $\phi(p) = p - 1$

Solving modular linear equations

Let $a, x, b \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ for a positive integer N

Question: How to solve the equation

$$ax = b \pmod{N} \quad ?$$

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Answer: Indeed $a \cdot (a^{-1} \cdot b) = a \cdot a^{-1} \cdot b = 1 \cdot b = b \pmod{N}$

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Question: Solve the equation $7 \cdot x + 3 = 7 \pmod{19}$

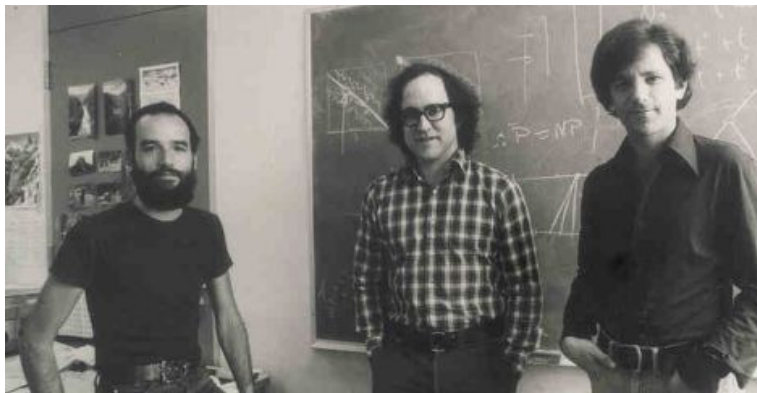
Answer: $x = 7^{-1} \cdot 4 = 6 \pmod{19}$

Check out http://wrean.ca/cazelais/linear_congruence.pdf

RSA - A Trapdoor One-Way Permutation

The RSA algorithm

- The RSA algorithm is the most widely-used public-key encryption algorithm
 - Invented in 1977 by Rivest, Shamir and Adleman
 - Used for encryption and signature
 - Widely used in electronic commerce protocols (TLS, PKI)



RSA cryptosystem

- Key generation $\text{RSA.KG}(\lambda)$

- Generate two distinct primes p and q of same bit-size λ
- Compute $N = p \cdot q$ and $\phi = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
- Select a random integer e , $1 < e < \phi$ such that $\gcd(e, \phi) = 1$
- Compute the unique integer d such that

$$e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi}$$

using the Extended Euclidean algorithm

- The public key is $PK = (N, e)$. The private key is $SK = d^*$

*The convention is that SK includes PK

RSA cryptosystem

- Encryption $\text{RSA.Enc}(PK, m)$
 - Given a message $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ and the recipient's public-key $PK = (N, e)$ compute the ciphertext:

$$c = m^e \mod N$$

- Decryption $\text{RSA.Dec}(SK, c)^\dagger$
 - Given a ciphertext c , to recover m , compute:

$$m = c^d \mod N$$

[†]Knowledge of PK is needed to perform this computation

Toy Example

- $p = 3, q = 11, N = 33, \phi = ?$
- Let e s.t. $\gcd(e, \phi) = 1$. For instance $e = 7$
- $d = ??$
- $PK = (N, e) = (33, 7)$ and $SK = d = ??$
- The message space is $\mathbb{Z}_{33}^* = ??$
- Encrypt $m = 4$ using RSA encryption with $PK = (33, 7)$
 - $C = ??$
- Recover m from C using RSA decryption with SK

Toy Example

- $p = 3, q = 11, N = 33, \phi = 20$

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- $PK = (n, e) = (33, 7)$ and $SK = d = 3$

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- $PK = (n, e) = (33, 7)$ and $SK = d = 3$
- The message space is $\mathbb{Z}_{33}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 13, 14, 16, 17, 19, 20, 23, 25, 26, 28, 29, 31, 32\}$

Toy Example

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- Encrypt $m = 4$ using RSA encryption with $PK = (33, 7)$
 - $C = 4^7 \bmod 33 \equiv 4^3 \cdot 4^3 \cdot 4 \equiv (-2) \cdot (-2) \cdot 4 \equiv 16 \bmod 33$
- Recover m using RSA decryption with $SK = 3$
 - $m = 16^3 \bmod 33 \equiv 2^{12} \equiv 2^5 \cdot 2^5 \cdot 4 \equiv (-1) \cdot (-1) \cdot 4 \equiv 4 \bmod 33$

Proof that decryption works

Let us prove that $\text{RSA.Dec}(SK, \text{RSA.Enc}(PK, m)) = m$ where $(PK, SK) \leftarrow \text{RSA.KG}(\lambda)$ for every legitimate message m

- Does it hold that $(m^e)^d = 1 \bmod N$?

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- Does it hold that $(m^e)^d = 1 \pmod N$?
- Since $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(N)}$, there is an integer k such that $e \cdot d = 1 + k \cdot \phi(N)$
- If $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod N$, then by Euler's theorem $m^{\phi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod N$ which gives :

$$m^{e \cdot d} = m^{1+k \cdot \phi(N)} \equiv m \cdot \left(m^{\phi(N)}\right)^k \equiv m \cdot 1 \equiv m \pmod N$$

Check out <http://wrean.ca/cazelais/rsa.pdf>

Modular exponentiation

Let $d_{k-1}d_{k-2}\dots d_1d_0$ be the binary representation of $d \in \mathbb{N}$

- We need to compute $x^d \bmod N$
- Naive method: multiplying x in total d times by itself modulo N
- Slow: if d is 100 bits, roughly 2^{100} multiplications!

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Better: use the **square-and-multiply** algorithm for fast modular exponentiation:

```
int ModPower(int  $x, N$ , bit-string  $d_{k-1}d_{k-2}\dots d_1d_0$ )  
     $y \leftarrow x$   
    for  $i \leftarrow k-2$  downto 0 do  
         $y \leftarrow y^2 \cdot x^{d_i} \bmod N$   
    return  $y = x^e \bmod N$ 
```

<http://www.sfs.uni-tuebingen.de/~adriane/2006/winter/384/handouts/decimal-binary.pdf>

CRT-based RSA decryption

For $d, N \approx 2^{2048}$ and $N = p \cdot q$

- Given a ciphertext c , to recover m we need to compute

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With knowledge of p, q we can speed up this computation by a **4-factor**

- let

$$c_p = c^{d_p} \mod p$$

$$c_q = c^{d_q} \mod q$$

where

$$d_p = d \mod p - 1$$

$$d_q = d \mod q - 1$$

and let $m = q \cdot (q^{-1} \mod p) \cdot c_p + p \cdot (p^{-1} \mod q) \cdot c_q$

Alternative RSA decryption: an example

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- $d_q = d \bmod (q - 1) = 29 \bmod 12 \equiv 5$

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- $c_p = 82^5 \bmod 7 \equiv 5^5 \equiv (-2)^5 \equiv -4 \equiv 3 \bmod 7$
- $c_q = 82^5 \bmod 13 \equiv 4^5 \equiv (2)^5 \cdot (2)^5 \equiv 6 \cdot 6 \equiv 10 \bmod 13$

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- $7^{-1} \bmod 13 = 2$ since $7 \cdot 2 \bmod 13 = 1$
- $13^{-1} \bmod 7 = 6$ since $13 \cdot 6 \equiv 6 \cdot 6 \bmod 7 = 1$

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- $7^{-1} \bmod 13 = 2$ since $7 \cdot 2 \bmod 13 = 1$
- $13^{-1} \bmod 7 = 6$ since $13 \cdot 6 \equiv 6 \cdot 6 \bmod 7 = 1$
- $m = q \cdot (q^{-1} \bmod p) \cdot c_p + p \cdot (p^{-1} \bmod q) \cdot c_q$
- $m = 13 \cdot 6 \cdot 3 + 7 \cdot 2 \cdot 10 \equiv 374 \equiv 10 \bmod 91$

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Question: Confirm m by computing $c^d \bmod N$ directly

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Theorem

Let $n_1, n_2 > 0$ integers such that $\gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$. For all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ there exists a unique solution in $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1 \cdot n_2}$ to the equation

$$x \equiv a \pmod{n_1}$$

$$x \equiv b \pmod{n_2}$$

Furthermore $x = n_2 \cdot i_1 \cdot a + n_1 \cdot i_2 \cdot b$, where

$$i_1 = (n_2)^{-1} \pmod{n_1}$$

$$i_2 = (n_1)^{-1} \pmod{n_2}$$

i.e. $x = n_2 \cdot ((n_2)^{-1} \pmod{n_1}) \cdot a + n_1 \cdot ((n_1)^{-1} \pmod{n_2}) \cdot b$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Indeed, let

$$x = n_2 \cdot ((n_2)^{-1} \bmod n_1) \cdot a + n_1 \cdot ((n_1)^{-1} \bmod n_2) \cdot b$$

then

- $x \bmod n_1 \equiv n_2 \cdot ((n_2)^{-1} \bmod n_1) \cdot a \equiv a \bmod n_1$
- $x \bmod n_2 \equiv n_1 \cdot ((n_1)^{-1} \bmod n_2) \cdot b \equiv b \bmod n_2$

Proof that decryption works (alternative, using CRT)

- Since $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi}$, there is an integer k such that $e \cdot d = 1 + k \cdot \phi$
- If $m \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then by Fermat's little theorem $m^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, which gives :

$$m^{1+k \cdot (p-1) \cdot (q-1)} \equiv m \pmod{p}$$

- This gives $m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{p}$ for all m .
- Similarly, $m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{q}$ for all m .
- By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, if $p \neq q$, then

$$m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{N}$$

Attacks against RSA encryption

- **Factoring:** given $N = p \cdot q$ for p, q chosen at random and λ -bit N , compute p, q
- **Secret key recovery:** given (N, e) with $N = p \cdot q$ for p, q chosen at random and λ -bit N ; with $1 < e < \phi(N)$ such that $\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$, compute $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$
 - reminder: $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
- **Breaking RSA primitive** (with λ bits security):
 - Given (N, e) and y chosen at random, for λ -bit N , find x such that $y \equiv x^e \bmod N$
 - equivalently, compute $y^d \bmod N$ where $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$
 - indeed if $x := y^d \bmod N$ the $x^e = (y^d)^e = y \bmod N$

Attacks against RSA

- **Factoring large integers:** given $N = p \cdot q$ compute p, q
 - Best factoring algorithm: Number Field Sieve
 - Sub-exponential complexity

$$\exp\left((c + o(1)) n^{1/3} \log^{2/3} n\right)$$

for n -bit integer.

- Current factoring record (2009): 768-bit RSA modulus (232 digits)
- **Knowing d is equivalent to factoring**
 - Probabilistic algorithm (RSA, 1978)
 - Deterministic algorithm (A. May 2004)
- **Open problem**
 - Is breaking RSA equivalent to factoring?

Key sizes (NIST 2016 recommendations)

Date	Minimum of Strength	Symmetric Algorithms	Factoring Modulus	Discrete Logarithm Key	Discrete Logarithm Group	Elliptic Curve	Hash (A)	Hash (B)
(Legacy)	80	2TDEA*	1024	160	1024	160	SHA-1**	
2016 - 2030	112	3TDEA	2048	224	2048	224	SHA-224 SHA-512/224 SHA3-224	
2016 - 2030 & beyond	128	AES-128	3072	256	3072	256	SHA-256 SHA-512/256 SHA3-256	SHA-1
2016 - 2030 & beyond	192	AES-192	7680	384	7680	384	SHA-384 SHA3-384	SHA-224 SHA-512/224
2016 - 2030 & beyond	256	AES-256	15360	512	15360	512	SHA-512 SHA3-512	SHA-256 SHA-512/256 SHA-384 SHA-512 SHA3-512

<https://www.keylength.com/>

Elementary attacks against plain RSA encryption

- Plain RSA encryption: **dictionary attack**
 - If only two possible messages m_0 and m_1 , then only $c_0 = (m_0)^e \bmod N$ and $c_1 = (m_1)^e \bmod N$
 \Rightarrow encryption must be probabilistic
- Plain RSA encryption: **malleability attack**
 - Given an encryption $c = m^e \bmod N$ for an unknown message m it is possible to create a encryption of $m' = \lambda \cdot m \bmod N$ by computing

$$c' = (m)^e \cdot \lambda^e = (m \cdot \lambda)^e \bmod N$$

\Rightarrow encryption must be non-malleable

Elementary attacks against RSA with padding

Network Working Group
Request for Comments: 2313
Category: Informational

B. Kaliski
RSA Laboratories East
March 1998

PKCS #1: RSA Encryption Version 1.5

Status of this Memo

This memo provides information for the Internet community. It does not specify an Internet standard of any kind. Distribution of this memo is unlimited.

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Overview

This document describes a method for encrypting data using the RSA public-key cryptosystem.

● PKCS#1 v1.5

- $\mu(m) = 0002\|r\|00\|m$
- $c = \mu(m)^e \bmod N$
- Still insufficient (Bleichenbacher's attack, 1998)

Attacks against plain RSA encryption

- Mathematical attacks
 - Attacks against plain RSA encryption
 - Low private / public exponent attacks (smallest recommend $e = 2^{16} + 1$)
 - **Solution:** Provably secure constructions

Basic Encryption Security

Definition (One-Wayness)

One-wayness under chosen-plaintext attack (OW-CPA) game is played between the challenger and an attacker

- The challenger runs $(PK, SK) \leftarrow KG(\lambda)$ and passes the public key PK to the attacker
- The challenger selects a m from the message space at random
- The challenger returns $C = Enc(PK, m)$ to the attacker, where r is randomness local to running Enc
- The attacker performs a polynomial number of computations and outputs a message m'

The attacker wins this game if $m' = m$

One-wayness

Intuitively, we call a public key encryption scheme *OW-CPA secure*, simply **one-way**, if the attacker cannot compute m correctly, i.e. wins the game almost never.

Definition

Let $\Pr[m = m']$ be the probability that the attacker wins the OW-CPA game, taken over all randomness involved in the game. A PKE scheme satisfies *one-wayness* (OW) if

$$|\Pr[m = m']|$$

is negligible as a function of λ

Defense against dictionary attacks

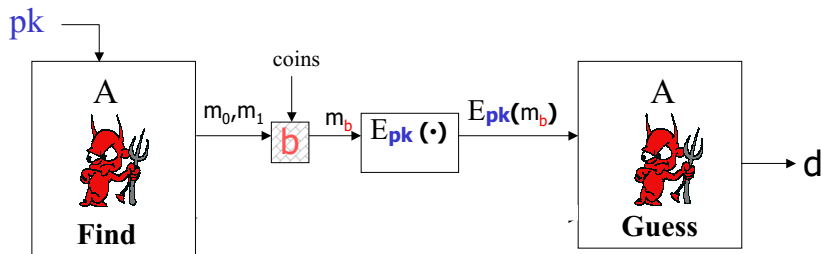
Definition (Semantic security)

Indistinguishability under chosen-plaintext attack (IND-CPA) game is played between the challenger and an attacker

- The challenger runs $(PK, SK) \leftarrow KG(\lambda)$ and passes the public key pk to the attacker
- The attacker performs a polynomial number of computations
- The attacker submits two messages m_0 and m_1 of equal length to the challenger
- The challenger selects a bit $b \in \{0, 1\}$ at random
- The challenger returns $C_b = Enc(PK, m_b)$ to the attacker
- The attacker performs a polynomial number of computations and outputs a bit b'

The attacker wins this game if $b' = b$

IND-CPA game



Intuitively, we call a public key encryption scheme *IND-CPA secure* if the attacker cannot do better than guessing the bit b , i.e. wins the game at most half the time.

Definition

Let $\Pr[b = b']$ be the probability that the attacker wins the IND-CPA game, taken over all randomness involved in the game. A PKE scheme satisfies *indistinguishability under chosen-plaintext attack* (IND-CPA) if

$$\left| \Pr[b = b'] - \frac{1}{2} \right|$$

is negligible as a function of λ

Encrypting messages of arbitrary length

Can encrypt arbitrarily large messages by splitting them up into blocks of suitable size and encrypting each block separately

Theorem

If public-key encryption scheme is IND-CPA-secure, encrypting arbitrarily large messages by splitting them into blocks of suitable size and encrypting each block separately with the same key is IND-CPA secure

IND-CPA secure public-key encryption

Several possibilities to achieve IND-CPA secure public-key encryption

First possibility: add suitable padding (PKCS) to RSA

IND-CPA secure public-key encryption

Second possibility: encrypt random number rather than message

(H is hash function)

- Encryption: choose random r , ciphertext is $(E_{PK}(r), H(r) \oplus m)$
- Decryption: Given (c_1, c_2) , compute message as $H(D_{SK}(c_1)) \oplus c_2$

Intuitively: IND-CPA satisfied because attacker cannot decrypt c_1 , hence second component looks like one-time pad
Formal proof surprisingly difficult - requires new ideas

RSA-based IND-CPA encryption

Let $F_{(N,e)} : \mathbb{Z}_N^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ be $F_{(N,e)} = x^e \bmod N$ be the RSA Trapdoor One-Way Permutation.

Let $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\tau$ for $\tau \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ Let us build an IND-CPA PKE scheme:

- $\text{Enc}((N, e), m; r)$: to encrypt $m \in \{0, 1\}^\tau$, choose random r in \mathbb{Z}_N^* . The ciphertext is $(F_{(N,e)}(r), H(r) \oplus m) \in \mathbb{Z}_N^* \times \{0, 1\}^\tau$
- $\text{Dec}((N, e, d), C)$: Given $C = (c_1, c_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_N^* \times \{0, 1\}^\tau$, compute message as $m = H(F_{(N,e,d)}^{-1}(c_1)) \oplus c_2$

Intuitively: IND-CPA satisfied because attacker cannot decrypt c_1 , hence second component looks like one-time pad

Formal proof is involved - requires tools and formal reasoning we have not used yet