

# Computer Security

Cunsheng Ding, HKUST

**COMP4631** 

## Lecture 10: The RSA Public-Key Block Cipher

## Objectives of this Lecture

- 1. To introduce the RSA public-key block cipher.
- 2. To look at its security issues.

**History:** The RSA public-key block cipher was invented in 1977 by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, and Len Adleman at MIT.



## Euler's Totient Function $\phi(n)$

 $\phi(n)$ : The number of positive integers less than n that is relative prime to n.

**Example:**  $\phi(7) = 6$  because

$${x: 1 \le x < 7, \gcd(x,7) = 1} = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}.$$

**Example:**  $\phi(6) = 2$  because

$${x: 1 \le x < 6, \gcd(x, 6) = 1} = {1, 5}.$$

**Question:** What is  $\phi(8)$ ?



## Formula for Euler's Totient Function $\phi$

#### Theorem:

- $\phi(p) = p 1$  for any prime number p.
- $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$  for any two distinct primes p and q.

**Proof:** The first conclusion is straightforward. We now prove the second. Note that pq has only divisors 1, p, q, pq. The following is the set of integers a such that  $1 \le a < pq$  and  $\gcd(a, pq) \ne 1$ :

$$\{1p, 2p, \dots, (q-1)p, 1q, 2q, \dots, (p-1)q\}$$

which has (q-1) + (p-1) elements. Hence,  $\phi(pq) = pq - 1 - (q-1) - (p-1) = (p-1)(q-1)$ .

## \*\*

#### Fermat's and Euler's Theorem

**Euler's Theorem:** For every integer a and n that are relatively prime,

$$a^{\phi(n)} \bmod n = 1.$$

If n = p is prime, we have **Fermat's Theorem**:

$$a^{p-1} \bmod p = 1.$$

**Proof:** See, e.g., W. Stallings, Cryptography and Network Security, pp. 239–241.

**Example:** Let a=3 and n=10. Then  $\phi(10)=4$  and

$$a^{\phi(n)} \mod 10 = 3^4 \mod 10 = 81 \mod 10 = 1.$$

# The RSA Public-key Block Cipher

Plaintext space:  $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^*$ .

Ciphertext space:  $C = \{0, 1\}^*$ .

## Binary representation and integers:

A binary block  $M = m_0 m_1 \cdots m_{k-1}$  is identified with integer

$$m_0 + m_1 2 + m_2 2^2 + \dots + m_{k-1} 2^{k-1}$$

which is in  $\{0, 1, \dots, 2^k - 1\}$ .

## \*\*

## The RSA Public-key Block Cipher

Choose two distinct primes p and q. Define n = pq.

**Select** d:  $1 \le d < \phi(n)$  with  $gcd(d, \phi(n)) = 1$ .

Compute e: e is the multiplicative inverse of d modulo  $\phi(n)$ .

Public key: (e, n)

Private key: d

Public-key space:  $\mathcal{K}_e = \{1 \le i < \phi(n) : \gcd(i, \phi(n)) = 1\} \times \{n\}$ 

Private-key space:  $\mathcal{K}_d = \{1 \leq i < \phi(n) : \gcd(i, \phi(n)) = 1\}.$ 

## The RSA Public-key Block Cipher

Let  $2^k < n < 2^{k+1}$ , i.e.,  $k = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ . Plaintext is broken into blocks of length k.

**Encryption:** For each block M,  $C = M^e \mod n$ .

**Decryption:**  $M = C^d \mod n$ .

**Remark:** Each message block M, when viewed as an integer, is at most  $2^k \le n-1$ .

## \*\*

# Correctness of Decryption: $M = C^d \mod n$

**Proof:** Case I gcd(M, n) = 1.

By Euler's theorem,

$$C^{d} \bmod n = M^{ed} \bmod n$$

$$= M^{u\phi(n)+1} \bmod n$$

$$= (M^{u\phi(n)} \bmod n)M \bmod n$$

$$= (M^{\phi(n)} \bmod n)^{u}M \bmod n$$

$$= M,$$

where u is some integer.



# Correctness of Decryption: $M = C^d \mod n$

**Proof:** Case II gcd(M, n) = p.

We have M = tp, 0 < t < q. So gcd(M, q) = 1. Since  $ed = u\phi(n) + 1$  for some u, by Fermat's

$$(M^{u\phi(n)} - 1) \mod q = ([M^{u(p-1)}]^{q-1} - 1) \mod q = 0.$$

Whence

$$(M^{ed} - M) \mod n = M (M^{ed-1} - 1) \mod n = tp (M^{u\phi(n)} - 1) \mod pq = 0.$$

# Correctness of Decryption: $M = C^d \mod n$

**Proof:** Case III gcd(M, n) = q.

Similar to Case II.

**Proof:** Case IV gcd(M, n) = pq.

Trivial because M=0 and C=0.

## \*

## The RSA Public-key Block Cipher: Example

Parameters:

Public key: (7,55)

Private key: 23

**Encryption:** M = 28,  $C = M^7 \mod 55 = 52$ .

**Decryption:**  $M = C^{23} \mod 55 = 28$ .

## The Parameters of the RSA

Parameters:  $p \quad q \quad n \quad \phi \quad e \quad d$ 

Public key: (e, n)

Private key: d

Other parameters:  $p, q, \phi(n)$  must be kept secret.

Question: Why?

## The Security of the RSA

Brute force attack: Trying all possible private keys.

The number of decryption keys:

$$|\{1 \le d < \phi(n)| \gcd(d, \phi(n)) = 1\}| = \phi(\phi(n)) = \phi((p-1)(q-1)).$$

**Comment:** As long as p and q are large enough, this attack does not work as  $\phi((p-1)(q-1)) - 1$  will be large! But the larger the n, the slower the system.

## Attacking the RSA Using Mathematical Structures

**Attack:** Factor n into pq. Thus  $\phi(n)$  and d are known.

**Attack:** Determine  $\phi(n)$  directly, without first determining p and q.

**Attack:** Determine d directly, without first determining  $\phi(n)$ .

Page 14 COMP4631

# Attacking the RSA Using Mathematical Structures

**Comment:** It is believed that determine  $\phi(n)$  given n is equivalent to factoring n.

Comment: With presently known algorithms, determining d given e and n, appears to be at least as time-consuming as the factoring problem.

Claim: We may use factoring as the benchmark for security evaluation.

Page 15 COMP4631



## RSA Security: Factoring

Security of RSA with respect to factoring depends on:

- (1) development of algorithms for factorization;
- (2) increase in computing power.

Comment: A number of algorithms for factorization. Most of them involve too much number theory and cannot be introduced here.

**Comment:** Computing power increases dramatically each year due to advances in hardware technology.

## RSA Security: Advance in Factoring

**Measure:** in MIPS-years, a million-instructions-per-second processor running for one year.

No. of digits	100	110	120	129	130
No. of bits	332	365	398	428	431
Year	1991	1992	1993	1994	1996
MIPS-Years	7	75	830	5000	500

**Key size:** 1024 to 2048 bits for the near future, due to advance in factorization.

# How to Choose p and q

**Remark:** There are some suggestions for choosing p and q. See the following reference for details.

**Reference:** A. Salomaa, Public-Key Cryptography, 2nd Edition, Springer, 1996, pp. 134–136.

• They should not be too close to each other.

Why?

Page 18 COMP4631

## \*

## Further Comments on the RSA

- We may define the message and ciphertext spaces as  $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \mathbf{Z}_{pq}$ .
- RSA can be used for both encryption and digital signature. It can be used for signing messages, because the function  $E_{k_e}(x)$  has the same domain and range!

Page 19 COMP4631