

# CS 553

## CRYPTOGRAPHY

### Lecture 26

CRT + DH

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- ▶ Smaller Public Exponent
- ▶ In practice  $e = 65537$  (fourth Fermat number)
- ▶ Speeds up encryption/signature verification
- ▶ Larger  $e \implies$  slower computation of  $x^e \bmod n$

Can  $e$  be even smaller

- ▶ Low exponent attack

# What about Private Exponent

- ▶  $d$  is secret
- ▶ Implication: Must be unpredictable
- ▶ Cannot be restricted to a small value
- ▶ Generally, size of the order of modulus
- ▶ E.g. close to 2048 for 2048-bit RSA

- ▶ Decryption much slower than encryption
- ▶ Signing much slower than verification

- ▶ Speed up decryption and signing

The Chinese remainder theorem allows for faster decryption by computing two exponentiations, modulo  $p$  and modulo  $q$ , rather than simply modulo  $n$ .

- ▶ Because  $p$  and  $q$  are much smaller than  $n$ , its faster to perform two “small” exponentiations than a single “big” one.

► A general result

If  $n = n_1 n_2 n_3 \cdots$ ,

- where the  $n_i$ 's are **pairwise co-prime**
- (that is,  $\text{GCD}(n_i, n_j) = 1$  for any distinct  $i$  and  $j$ )

then the value  $x \bmod n$  can be computed from the values

- $x \bmod n_1$ ,
- $x \bmod n_2$ ,
- $x \bmod n_3, \cdots$

# Applying the CRT to RSA

- ▶ Only two factors for each  $n$  ( $p$  and  $q$ )
- ▶ Given a ciphertext  $y$  to decrypt
- ▶ Instead of computing  $y^d \bmod n$ , use the CRT to compute

- ▶  $x_p = y^s \bmod p$ , where  $s = d \bmod (p - 1)$
- ▶  $x_q = y^t \bmod q$ , where  $t = d \bmod (q - 1)$

- ▶ Combine these two expressions

$$x = x_p \times q \times (1/q \bmod p) + x_q \times p \times (1/p \bmod q) \bmod n$$

- ▶ This is **faster** than square-and-multiply. **How?**

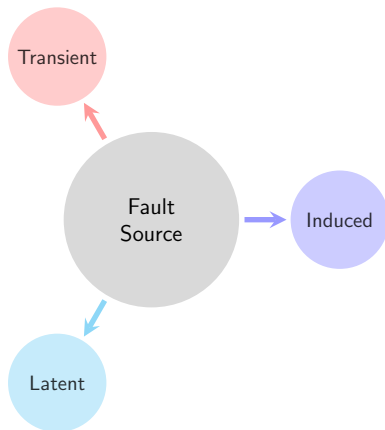
$$x = x_p \times q \times (1/q \bmod p) + x_q \times p \times (1/p \bmod q) \bmod n$$

- ▶ **Pre-compute**  $q \times (1/q \bmod p)$  and  $p \times (1/p \bmod q)$
- ▶ **Final Overhead of combining:**
  - ▶ **Two multiplications** and
  - ▶ **An addition** modulo  $n$

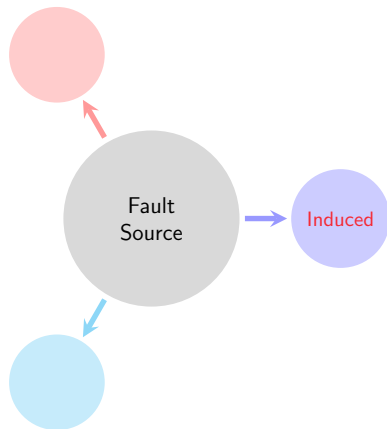
# A Side-Channel Attack On CRT



- ▶ An error in execution
- ▶ (Un)Intentional



- ▶ An error in execution
- ▶ Intentional



- ▶ If you are cryptographer you must worry!
- ▶ Faults can be **fatal**.

## Basic Idea

Malicious modifications of a cryptographic device might leak cryptanalytically useful information leading to possibly a complete break.

- ▶ So, first inject faults in a cryptosystem
- ▶ Then exploit information leaked by faulty output

- ▶ Referred to as **intrusive Side Channel Analysis**
- ▶ Also branded as **Physical Attacks**
- ▶ Early reference '**The Belcore Attack**' - 1996

## First reported attack on RSA-CRT - 1997

- ▶ Due to **Boneh-DeMillo-Lipton**
  - ▶ Initial attack requires both **faulty and fault-free signatures**
- 
- ▶ Improvement suggested by **Lenstra**
  - ▶ Requires the **faulty signature only**

Lets have a look!

## Correct Signature

$$x = x_p \times q \times (1/q \bmod p) + x_q \times p \times (1/p \bmod q) \bmod n$$

- ▶ Attacker induces a fault in  $x_q$  computation
- ▶ Modifies it to some  $x'_q$

## Faulty Signature

$$x' = x_p \times q \times (1/q \bmod p) + x'_q \times p \times (1/p \bmod q) \bmod n$$

The attacker can then subtract the **incorrect** signature  $x'$  from the **correct** signature  $x$  to factor  $n$ !!!

$$x - x' = (x_q - x'_q) \times p \times (1/p \bmod q) \bmod n$$

- ▶  $(x - x')$  is therefore a multiple of  $p$
- ▶ So  $p | (x - x')$
- ▶ Recall  $p | n$

$$\gcd(x - x', n) = p$$

- ▶ Then compute  $q = n/p$  and  $d$
- ▶ Total break of RSA Signatures

# The Diffie-Hellman Function

- ▶ Works with groups  $Z_p^*$  where  $p \in \mathbb{P}$
- ▶ Another public parameter is the base number,  $g$ .
- ▶ All arithmetic operations are performed modulo  $p$ .
- ▶ Two **private** values  $a, b \in Z_p^*$  chosen randomly by the two communicating parties
- ▶ Public value  $A = g^a \bmod p$
- ▶ Public value  $B = g^b \bmod p$

Shared secret:  $g^{ab}$

- ▶  $A^b = (g^a)^b = g^{ab}$
- ▶  $B^a = (g^b)^a = g^{ab}$

- ▶ Shared secret input of **Key Derivation Function (KDF)**



## DLP

The DLP consists of finding the  $y$  for which  $g^y = x$ ,

- ▶ given a base number  $g$  within  $Z_p^*$
  - ▶ where  $p$  is prime and
  - ▶ given a group element  $x$
- 
- ▶ The DLP is called discrete because we are dealing with integers as opposed to real numbers (continuous)
  - ▶ Its called a logarithm because were looking for the logarithm of  $x$  in base  $g$ .

How does the hardness compare with factoring?

# The DiffieHellman Problems

## CDH

## The Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem

Computing the shared secret  $g^{ab}$  given only the public values  $g^a$  and  $g^b$ , and not any of the secret values  $a$  or  $b$ .

- ▶ If you can solve DLP, then you can also solve CDH
  - ▶ DLP is at least as hard as CDH
  - ▶ Is the converse true?
  - ▶ We **don't know for sure** whether CDH is at least as hard as DLP
- 
- ▶ Note the similarity of the above relation of DLP and CDH with factoring and RSA
  - ▶ Note DH offers same security level as RSA for a given modulus size

# The Diffie-Hellman Problems

- ▶ What if the attacker learns some bits of  $g^{ab}$ ?
- ▶ Still cannot break CDH
- ▶ But learns something about  $g^{ab}$

## DDH

## The Decisional Diffie-Hellman Problem

Given  $g^a$ ,  $g^b$ , and a value that is either  $g^{ab}$  or  $g^c$  for some random  $c$  (each of the two with a chance of  $1/2$ ),

- ▶ The DDH problem consists of determining whether  $g^{ab}$  (the shared secret corresponding to  $g^a$  and  $g^b$ ) was chosen.