

Euclidean Algorithm & Chinese Remainder Theorem

CS 5158/6058 Data Security and Privacy

Spring 2018

Instructor: Boyang Wang

Textbook RSA

- KeyGen: given a security parameter 1^n , generate two n -bit primes p, q , compute $N = pq$, choose e s.t. $\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$, compute $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$, output public key $pk = (N, e)$, private key $sk = d$
- Enc: given a message m and a public key $pk = (N, e)$, return $c = m^e \bmod N$
- Dec: given a ciphertext c and a private key $sk = d$, return $m = c^d \bmod N$

Textbook RSA

- Example: $p \cdot q = 11 \cdot 7 = 77 = N$
 - $\phi(N) = |Z_N^*| = (p-1)(q-1) = 10 \cdot 6 = 60$
 - choose e , s.t. $\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$
 - $e = 7$,
 - $d = 43$, $ed = 7 \cdot 43 = 1 \pmod{60}$
 - $pk = (N, e) = (77, 7)$, $sk = d = 43$
- Given $m = 2$ and pk , $c = m^e = 2^7 = 51 \pmod{77}$
- Given $c = 51$ and sk , $m = c^d = 51^{43} = 2 \pmod{77}$

Textbook RSA

- **RSA Problem**: given N and e , compute d
- (Textbook) RSA is secure if RSA problem is hard

$$m^e = c \pmod{N}, \quad c^d = m \pmod{N}$$

- easy to compute (encrypt) given N and e
 - hard to invert (decrypt) given N and e
 - but easy to invert (decrypt) given d
-
- In practice, N is 1024 or 2048 bits

Textbook RSA

- **Factoring** is the best (known) way to solve RSA problem
 - There might be better algo to compute RSA problem
 - But we do not know.....
- If factoring is easy, then RSA is not secure.
 - If factoring is easy, given N , obtain p and q
 - then obtain $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$
 - then obtain $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$
 - d is the private key, can decrypt any ciphertext

Textbook RSA

$$m^e = c \bmod N, \quad c^d = m \bmod N$$

- Textbook RSA is **deterministic**, not CPA-secure
- (Padded) RSA in practice (E.g., PKCS #1)
 - Pad a message with a random
 - plaintext m is $(N-k)$ bits
 - $m' = r||m$, where r is chosen uniformly from 2^k
 - m' has N bits
 - Padding is invertible s.t. decryption is correct

Euclidean Algorithm

Given e and $\phi(N)$, how to compute $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)$

- Need to learn [Euclidean Algorithm](#) first
 - Given a and b , $\text{Euclidean}(a, b)$ outputs $\text{gcd}(a, b)$
 - Input: a and b
 - 1) if $a < b$, switch a and b
 - 2) Divide a by b , get remainder r
 - if $r = 0$, then b is $\text{gcd}(a, b)$
 - else do $a = b$, $b = r$, run $\text{Euclidean}(a, b)$

- Euclidean(a, b)
 - 1) if $a < b$, switch a and b
 - 2) Divide a by b , get remainder r
 - if $r = 0$, then b is $\text{gcd}(a, b)$
 - else do $a = b, b = r$, run Euclidean(a, b)
- Example: $a = 210, b = 45$
 - Divide 210 by 45, $210 = 4 \cdot 45 + 30$, remainder is 30
 - $a = b = 45, b = r = 30$
 - Divide 45 by 30, $45 = 1 \cdot 30 + 15$, remainder is 15
 - $a = b = 30, b = r = 15$
 - Divide 30 by 15, $30 = 2 \cdot 15 + 0$, remainder is 0
 - 15 is $\text{gcd}(210, 45)$

- Euclidean(a, b)
 - 1) if $a < b$, switch a and b
 - 2) Divide a by b , get remainder r
 - if $r = 0$, then b is $\text{gcd}(a, b)$
 - else do $a = b, b = r$, run Euclidean(a, b)
- Practice: $a = 215, b = 55$
 - Divide 215 by 55, $215 = 3 \cdot 55 + 50$, remainder is 50
 - $a = b = 55, b = r = 50$
 - Divide 55 by 50, $55 = 1 \cdot 50 + 5$, remainder is 5
 - $a = b = 50, b = r = 5$
 - Divide 50 by 5, $50 = 10 \cdot 5 + 0$, remainder is 0
 - 5 is $\text{gcd}(215, 55)$

Extended Euclidean Algorithm

- Given a and b , there are m and n , s.t.
 - $\gcd(a, b) = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
- [Extended Euclidean Algorithm](#) outputs m and n
- Example of Euclidean Algorithm:
 - $a = 210, b = 45$
 - Divide 210 by 45, $210 = 4 \cdot 45 + 30$, remainder is 30
 - $a = b = 45, b = r = 30$
 - Divide 45 by 30, $45 = 1 \cdot 30 + 15$, remainder is 15
 - $a = b = 30, b = r = 15$, 15 is $\gcd(210, 45)$

- Example of Euclidean Algorithm:
 - $a = 210, b = 45$
 - Divide 210 by 45, $210 = 4 \cdot 45 + 30$, remainder is 30
 - $a = b = 45, b = r = 30$
 - Divide 45 by 30, $45 = 1 \cdot 30 + 15$, remainder is 15
 - $a = b = 30, b = r = 15$
 - 15 is $\gcd(210, 45)$
- EEA outputs m and n , s.t., $\gcd(a, b) = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
 - Based on round1: $r = 30 = 210 - 4 \cdot 45$
 - Based on round2: $r = 15 = 45 - 1 \cdot 30$
 - $15 = 45 - 1 \cdot (210 - 4 \cdot 45) = (-1) \cdot 210 + 5 \cdot 45 = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
 - $m = -1$ and $n = 5$

- Example of Euclidean Algorithm:
 - $a = 215, b = 55$
 - Divide 215 by 55, $215 = 3 \cdot 55 + 50$, remainder is 50
 - $a = b = 55, b = r = 50$
 - Divide 55 by 50, $55 = 1 \cdot 50 + 5$, remainder is 5
 - $a = b = 50, b = r = 5$
 - 5 is $\gcd(215, 55)$
- Practice: compute m and n s.t. $\gcd(a, b) = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
 - Based on round1: $r = 50 = 215 - 3 \cdot 55$
 - Based on round2: $r = 5 = 55 - 1 \cdot 50$
 - $5 = 55 - 1 \cdot (215 - 3 \cdot 55) = (-1) \cdot 215 + 4 \cdot 55 = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
 - $m = -1$ and $n = 4$

Extended Euclidean Algorithm

- Given a and b , there are m and n , s.t.
 - $\gcd(a, b) = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
- Extended Euclidean Algorithm outputs m and n
 - if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $1 = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
 - $1 = m \cdot a \pmod{b}$
 - $m = a^{-1} \pmod{b}$
- Given a and b , EEA outputs m , s.t., $m = a^{-1} \pmod{b}$
- Given e and $\phi(N)$, EEA outputs d , s.t.

$$d = e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(N)}$$

- EEA Example: $a = 3$, $b = 20$, $\gcd(a, b) = 1$
 - $a = 3$, $b = 20$ (switch)
 - Divide 20 by 3, $20 = 6 \cdot 3 + 2$, remainder is 2
 - $a = b = 3$, $b = r = 2$
 - Divide 3 by 2, $3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$, remainder is 1
 - $a = b = 2$, $b = r = 1$
 - 1 is $\gcd(20, 3)$
- Based on round1: $r = 2 = 20 - 6 \cdot 3$
- Based on round2: $r = 1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2$
- $1 = 3 - 1 \cdot (20 - 6 \cdot 3) = 7 \cdot 3 + (-1) \cdot 20 = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
- $1 = 7 \cdot a \bmod b = 7 \cdot 3 \bmod 20$
- $m = a^{-1} = 7 \bmod b$

Textbook RSA

- Example of RSA: $p \cdot q = 11 \cdot 7 = 77 = N$
 - $\phi(N) = |Z_N^*| = (p-1)(q-1) = 10 \cdot 6 = 60$
 - choose e , s.t. $\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$
 - $e = 7$, $\phi(N) = 60$,
 - public key $pk = (N, e)$,
 - private key $sk = d$
- What is d , s.t. $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(N)}$?
 - Use EEA to compute d

- EEA Example in RSA:
 - $a = e = 7, b = \phi(N) = 60, \gcd(a, b) = 1$
 - Use Euclidean Algorithm compute $\gcd(a, b)$
 - $a = 7, b = 60$ (switch)
 - Divide 60 by 7, $60 = 8 \cdot 7 + 4$, remainder is 4
 - $a = b = 7, b = r = 4$
 - Divide 7 by 4, $7 = 1 \cdot 4 + 3$, remainder is 3
 - $a = b = 4, b = r = 3$
 - Divide 4 by 3, $4 = 1 \cdot 3 + 1$, remainder is 1
 - $a = b = 3, b = r = 1$,
 - Divide 3 by 1, $3 = 3 \cdot 1 + 0$, remainder is 0
 - 1 is $\gcd(7, 60)$

- EEA Example in RSA: $a = e = 7$, $b = \phi(N) = 60$,
 - $a = 7$, $b = 60$ (switch), remainder is 4, $60 = 8 \cdot 7 + 4$
 - $a = b = 7$, $b = r = 4$, remainder is 3, $7 = 1 \cdot 4 + 3$
 - $a = b = 4$, $b = r = 3$, remainder is 1, $4 = 1 \cdot 3 + 1$
 - $a = b = 3$, $b = r = 1$, remainder is 0, 1 is $\gcd(7, 60)$
 - Based on round1: $r = 4 = 60 - 8 \cdot 7$
 - Based on round2: $r = 3 = 7 - 1 \cdot 4$
 - Based on round3: $r = 1 = 4 - 1 \cdot 3$
 - $1 = 4 - 1 \cdot (7 - 1 \cdot 4) = (-1) \cdot 7 + 2 \cdot 4 = (-1) \cdot 7 + 2(60 - 8 \cdot 7) = (-17) \cdot 7 + 2 \cdot 60 = m \cdot a + n \cdot b$
 - $1 = m \cdot a \bmod b = (-17) \cdot 7 \bmod 60$
 - $m = a^{-1} = -17 = 43 \bmod 60$
 - $d = e^{-1} = \underline{43} \bmod \phi(N)$

RSA Performance

Try “`openssl speed rsa`” on your computer

**performance
on Mac OS**

RSA-2048(Enc) RSA-2048(Dec)

Operations/
second

12,200

329

- Normally, RSA Enc is faster than RSA Dec
 - e is small, $c = m^e \bmod N$ is faster
 - d is large, $m = c^d \bmod N$ is slower

RSA Performance

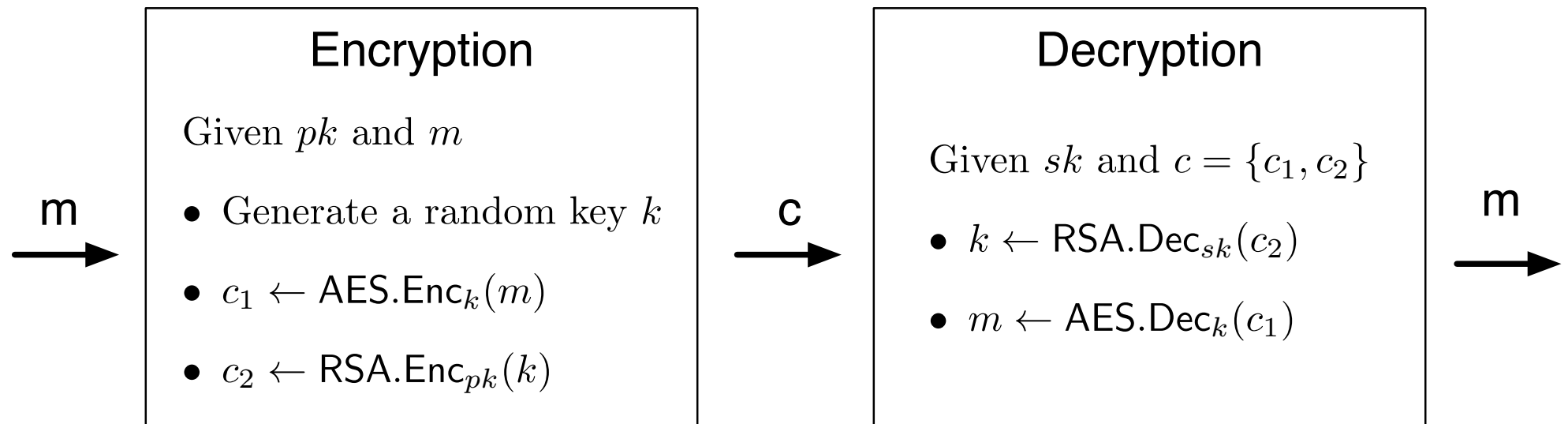
Try “`openssl speed aes`” on your computer

performance on Mac OS	AES-CBC-256	RSA-2048(Enc)
Operations/ second	7,368,657	12,200

- RSA is much slower than AES
 - AES is over 600 times faster than RSA
 - E.g., Encrypting a movie with RSA is inefficient

Hybrid Encryption

- Hybrid Encryption
 - Encrypt data with a random AES key
 - Then encrypt random AES key with RSA



Ransomware

- Ransomware encrypts Alice's data on her laptop
- Alice needs to pay certain amount of Bitcoin to attacker to recover her data
- Ransomware leverages Hybrid Encryption
 - Alice clicks a link in a spam email
 - Malware generates a random AES key
 - Malware encrypts Alice's data with AES
 - Malware encrypts AES key with Attacker's pk
 - Malware sends encrypted AES key to Attacker

Payment for private key



Private key will be destroyed on
10/13/2013
1:21 PM

Time left
71 : 33 : 17

Choose a convenient payment method and click «Next»:

Bitcoin (most cheap option)



Bitcoin is a cryptocurrency where the creation and transfer of bitcoins is based on an open-source cryptographic protocol that is independent of any central authority. Bitcoins can be transferred through a computer or smartphone without an intermediate financial institution.

You have to send **2 BTC** to Bitcoin address

[REDACTED] and specify the Transaction ID on the next page, which will be verified and confirmed.

[Home Page](#)
[Getting started with Bitcoin](#)

<< Back

Next >>

Ransomware

- Ransomware leverages Hybrid Encryption
 - Malware sends encrypted AES key to Attacker
 - Malware asks Alice to pay Bitcoin
 - Alice pays Bitcoin, Attacker receives Bitcoin
 - Attacker sends AES key (in plaintext) to Alice
 - Alice decrypts her data with AES key
- If Attacker receives Bitcoin, but does not send AES key to Alice, Alice.....

Ransomware

- Why Ransomware is successful (why Alice cannot recover her data without paying Bitcoin)?
 - Hybrid encryption is secure
- Some unsuccessful examples of ransomware fail to implemented correctly
 - Use a same seed, e.g., `Rand(0)`, for AES key
 - Alice can recompute AES key with `Rand(0)`
 - Alice recovers her data without paying bitcoin

Chinese Remainder Theorem

- Sun Tzu, Chinese mathematician, 4th century AD

“We have a number of things, but we do not know exactly how many. If we count them by threes we have two left over. If we count them by fives we have three left over. If we count them by sevens we have two left over. How many things are there?”

$$x = 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x = 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x = 2 \pmod{7}$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

- CRT indicates an interesting structure of group Z_N^* , which can improve RSA encryption time
- CRT: for $N=p \cdot q$, p and q are primes.
 - for **all** integers u and v , where
 - u in $Z_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, v in $Z_q^* = \{1, 2, \dots, q-1\}$
 - there is a **unique** x in Z_N^* , s.t.
 - $x = u \bmod p \ \&\& \ x = v \bmod q$
 - i.e., a mapping $x \longleftrightarrow (u, v)$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

- CRT indicates a unique mapping from $x \longleftrightarrow (u, v)$
 - $N = pq$, p and q are primes
- For any x in Z_N^* , there is a unique pair (u, v) in (Z_p^*, Z_q^*)
 - **Isomorphism**: $Z_N^* \longleftrightarrow (Z_p^*, Z_q^*)$
- Example: $N=15=5*3=p*q$, $Z_{15}^* \longleftrightarrow (Z_5^* Z_3^*)$
 - $Z_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$
 - $Z_5^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$
 - $Z_3^* = \{1, 2\}$

- Example: $N = 15 = 5 \cdot 3 = p \cdot q$, $Z_{15}^* \longleftrightarrow (Z_5^* Z_3^*)$
 - $Z_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$
 - $Z_5^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $Z_3^* = \{1, 2\}$
 - E.g., $x = 11 \bmod N$
 - $x = 11 = 1 = u \bmod p$, $x = 11 = 2 \bmod q$
 - $11 \longleftrightarrow (1, 2)$
 - E.g., $x = 13 \bmod N$
 - $x = 13 = 3 \bmod p$, $x = 13 = 1 \bmod q$

$1 \longleftrightarrow (1, 1)$	$2 \longleftrightarrow (2, 2)$	$4 \longleftrightarrow (4, 1)$	$7 \longleftrightarrow (2, 1)$
$8 \longleftrightarrow (3, 2)$	$11 \longleftrightarrow (1, 2)$	$13 \longleftrightarrow (3, 1)$	$14 \longleftrightarrow (4, 2)$

Properties of CRT

- CRT indicates a unique mapping from $x \longleftrightarrow (u, v)$
- **Isomorphism:** $Z_N^* \longleftrightarrow (Z_p^*, Z_q^*)$
 - Z_N^* , Z_p^* , and Z_q^* are multiplicative groups
- Given g_1, g_2 in Z_N^*
 - if $g_1 \longleftrightarrow (u_1, v_1)$, $g_2 \longleftrightarrow (u_2, v_2)$
 - u_1, u_2 in Z_p^* , v_1, v_2 in Z_q^*
- $g_1 * g_2 \longleftrightarrow (u_1 * u_2, v_1 * v_2)$
- For any integer d , $g_1^d \longleftrightarrow (u_1^d, v_1^d)$

$1 \longleftrightarrow (1, 1)$	$2 \longleftrightarrow (2, 2)$	$4 \longleftrightarrow (4, 1)$	$7 \longleftrightarrow (2, 1)$
$8 \longleftrightarrow (3, 2)$	$11 \longleftrightarrow (1, 2)$	$13 \longleftrightarrow (3, 1)$	$14 \longleftrightarrow (4, 2)$

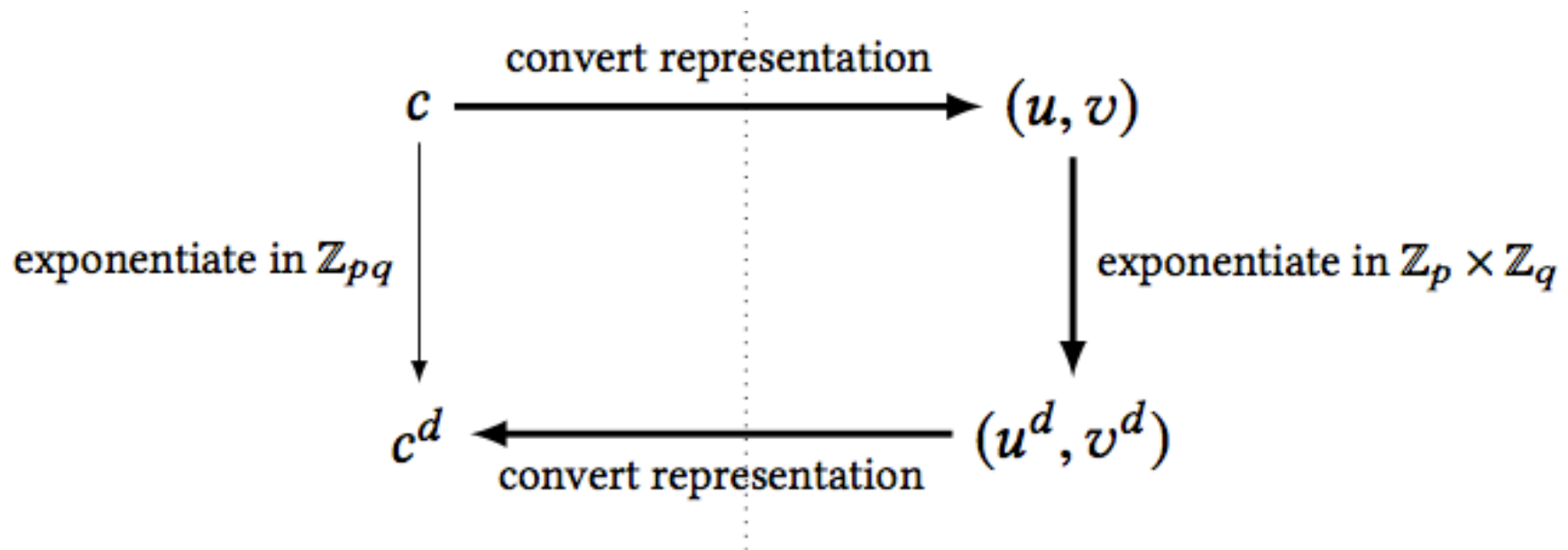
- $N = 15 = 5 \cdot 3 = p \cdot q, \quad Z_{15}^* \longleftrightarrow (Z_5^*, Z_3^*)$
 - $Z_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$
 - $Z_5^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}, \quad Z_3^* = \{1, 2\}$
- Example: $11 \longleftrightarrow (1, 2), \quad 4 \longleftrightarrow (4, 1)$
 - $11 \cdot 4 = 44 = 14 \pmod{15}$
 - $1 \cdot 4 = 4 \pmod{5}$
 - $2 \cdot 1 = 2 \pmod{3}$
 - $14 \longleftrightarrow (4, 2)$

$1 \longleftrightarrow (1, 1)$	$2 \longleftrightarrow (2, 2)$	$4 \longleftrightarrow (4, 1)$	$7 \longleftrightarrow (2, 1)$
$8 \longleftrightarrow (3, 2)$	$11 \longleftrightarrow (1, 2)$	$13 \longleftrightarrow (3, 1)$	$14 \longleftrightarrow (4, 2)$

- $N = 15 = 5 \cdot 3 = p \cdot q$, $Z_{15}^* \longleftrightarrow (Z_5^* \ Z_3^*)$
 - $Z_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$
 - $Z_5^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $Z_3^* = \{1, 2\}$
- Example: $11 \longleftrightarrow (1, 2)$, integer $m = 4$, $11^m = ? \bmod N$
 - $11^m = 11^4 = 1 \bmod N$
 - $1^m = 1^4 = 1 \bmod p$
 - $2^m = 2^4 = 16 = 1 \bmod q$
 - $1 \longleftrightarrow (1, 1)$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

- **Isomorphism:** $\mathbb{Z}_N^* \longleftrightarrow (\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \mathbb{Z}_q^*)$
- CRT shows a (faster) way of computing exponentiation
 - For any integer d , $g^d \longleftrightarrow (u^d, v^d)$
 - Instead of computing g^d , compute u^d and v^d



Why CRT is Faster?

- For an n -bit element, one exp costs n^3 steps
- Given $N = pq$, N is $2n$ -bit, p, q are n -bits
 - Given $g \longleftrightarrow (u, v)$ and integer d , compute g^d
 - Without CRT: compute $g^d \bmod N$
 - $(2n)^3 = 8n^3$ steps
 - With CRT: compute $u^d \bmod p, v^d \bmod q$
 - $n^3 + n^3 = 2n^3$ steps
 - Mapping between $g^d \longleftrightarrow (u^d, v^d)$ is fast
- Overall, using CRT is (about) 4 times faster

Additional Reading

Chapter 8, *Introduction to Modern Cryptography*, Drs.
J. Katz and Y. Lindell, 2nd edition