RSA Cryptosystem

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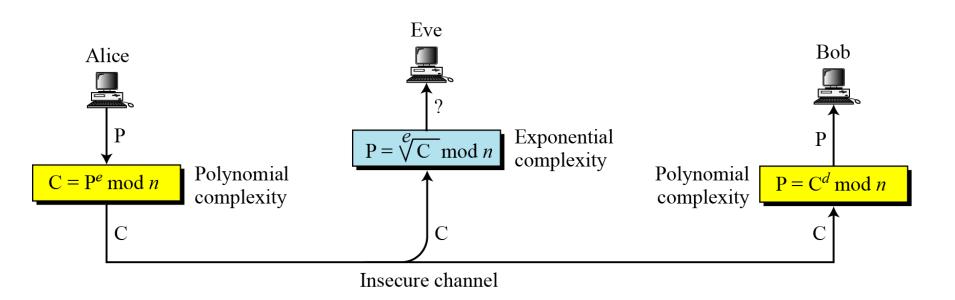
Outline

- To discuss the concepts of RSA cryptosystem
- Practical aspects of RSA
- Attacks on RSA
- Implementation aspects of RSA
- Conclusions

Introduction

- RSA encryption is not meant to replace symmetric ciphers because it is several times slower than ciphers such as AES.
- The main use of the RSA encryption feature is to securely exchange a key for a symmetric cipher.
- RSA is often used together with a symmetric cipher such as AES, where the symmetric cipher does the actual bulk data encryption.
- The underlying one-way function of RSA is the integer factorization problem.

Complexity of operations in RSA



Encryption and Decryption

- Bob chooses two distinct large primes p, and q; and computes n=pq.
- Bob chooses e such that $1 < e < \phi(n)$ and $gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$.
- Bob computes d with $de \equiv 1 \mod \phi(n)$.
- Bob makes n and e public, and keeps d secret.
- Alice encrypts m as $c \equiv m^e \mod n$ and sends c to Bob.
- Bob decrypts by computing $m \equiv c^d \mod n$

Public Key: (e, n) and Private Key: (d)

Example

Alice

message x = 4

$$y = x^e \equiv 4^3 \equiv 31 \mod 33$$

Bob

1. choose
$$p = 3$$
 and $q = 11$

2.
$$n = p \cdot q = 33$$

3.
$$\Phi(n) = (3-1)(11-1) = 20$$

4. choose
$$e=3$$

5.
$$d \equiv e^{-1} \equiv 7 \mod 20$$

 $k_{pub} = (33,3)$

$$y^d = 31^7 \equiv 4 = x \mod 33$$

- In practice m, c, n and d are very long numbers, usually 1024 bit long or more.
- The value e is referred to as encryption exponent or public exponent, and the private key d is called decryption exponent or private exponent.
- If Alice wants to send an encrypted message to Bob, Alice needs to have Bob's public key (n,e), and Bob decrypts with his private key d.

Proof of Correctness

In RSA:
$$n = pq$$

 $ed \equiv 1 \mod \phi(n)$
 $\Rightarrow ed = k\phi(n) + 1$
Encryption: $C = P^e \mod n$
Decryption: $P = C^d \mod n$
Now: $C^d \mod n$
 $= P^{ed} \mod n$
 $= P^{k\phi(n)+1} \mod n$.

Euler's theorem:

If a and n be integers with gcd(a,n) = 1, then:

$$a^{\Phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Case 1:

If P and n are co-prime then

$$P^{k\phi(n)+1} \bmod n$$

$$= P \times P^{k\phi(n)} \bmod n$$

$$= P \bmod n$$

Case 2: If P is a multiple of p but not of q then

Let
$$P = i \times p$$

$$P^{k\phi(n)} \mod q$$

$$= P^{k\phi(p)\phi(q)} \mod q$$

$$= 1$$

$$\Rightarrow P^{k\phi(n)} = jq + 1$$

$$C^{d} \mod n$$

$$= P^{k\phi(n)+1} \mod n$$

$$= P \times P^{k\phi(n)} \mod n$$

$$= P \times (jq+1) \mod n$$

$$= (jqP+P) \mod n$$

$$= (jqip+P) \mod n$$

$$= (jin+P) \mod n$$

$$= P \mod n$$

Fast Exponentiation

 How many multiplications are required to compute the simple exponentiation x⁸?

The straightforward method:

$$x \xrightarrow{SQ} x^2 \xrightarrow{MUL} x^3 \xrightarrow{MUL} x^4 \xrightarrow{MUL} x^5 \xrightarrow{MUL} x^6 \xrightarrow{MUL} x^7 \xrightarrow{MUL} x^8$$

Alternatively, we can do something faster:

$$x \xrightarrow{SQ} x^2 \xrightarrow{SQ} x^4 \xrightarrow{SQ} x^8$$

Two basic operations:

SQ: squaring the current result,

MUL: multiplying the current result by the base element x.

• How many multiplications are required to compute the simple exponentiation x^{26} ?

The straightforward method: requires 25 multiplications.

Alternatively, we can do something faster:

$$x \xrightarrow{SQ} x^2 \xrightarrow{MUL} x^3 \xrightarrow{SQ} x^6 \xrightarrow{SQ} x^{12} \xrightarrow{MUL} x^{13} \xrightarrow{SQ} x^{26}$$
.

Square-and-multiply algorithm

- The algorithm is based on scanning the bit of the exponent from the left (the MSB) to the right (the LSB).
- In every iteration, i.e., for every exponent bit, the current result is squared.
- If and only if the currently scanned exponent bit has the value 1, a multiplication of the current result by x is executed following the squaring.

Example

Example We again consider the exponentiation x^{26} . For the square-and-multiply algorithm, the binary representation of the exponent is crucial:

$$x^{26} = x^{11010_2} = x^{(h_4 h_3 h_2 h_1 h_0)_2}.$$

The algorithm scans the exponent bits, starting on the left with h_4 and ending with the rightmost bit h_0 .

Step #0
$$x = x^{1_2}$$
 inital setting, bit processed: $h_4 = 1$ #1 $a (x^1)^2 = x^2 = x^{10_2}$ SQ, bit processed: h_3 #1 $b x^2 \cdot x = x^3 = x^{10_2}x^{1_2} = x^{11_2}$ SQ, bit processed: h_3 MUL, since $h_3 = 1$ #2 $a (x^3)^2 = x^6 = (x^{11_2})^2 = x^{110_2}$ SQ, bit processed: h_2 no MUL, since $h_2 = 0$ #3 $a (x^6)^2 = x^{12} = (x^{110_2})^2 = x^{1100_2}$ SQ, bit processed: h_1 MUL, since $h_1 = 1$ #4 $a (x^{13})^2 = x^{26} = (x^{1101_2})^2 = x^{11010_2}$ SQ, bit processed: h_0 no MUL, since $h_0 = 0$

Attacks on RSA

Factorization Attack: The security of RSA is based on the idea that the modulus is so large that it is not feasible to factor it in a reasonable time.

The attacker attempts to factor n. If this can be done then it is a simple way to compute $\phi(n)$ and subsequently d will be derived.

Chosen-Ciphertext Attack

- Eve chooses a random integer X in Z_n^* .
- Eve calculates Y=C×X^e mod n
- Eve sends Y to Bob for decrypting and get Z=Y^dmod n.
- Eve can easily find P because...

Attacks on Encryption Exponent

- To reduce the encryption time, it is tempting to use a small encryption exponent e.
- The common value is considered as e=3.
- In Broadcast Attack, If one entity sends the same message to a group of recipients with same low encryption exponent.
- If the public exponent, e=3 and the moduli= n_1 , n_2 , and n_3 then the problem statement will be:

$$C_1 \equiv P^3 \mod n_1$$

$$C_2 \equiv P^3 \mod n_2$$

$$C_3 \equiv P^3 \mod n_3$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT)

Chinese Remainder Theorem is used to solve a set of congruent equations with one variable but different moduli, which are relatively prime then the equations have a unique solution.

$$x \equiv 2 \mod 3$$

$$x \equiv 3 \mod 5$$

$$x \equiv 2 \mod 7$$

Step1:
$$M=3\times5\times7=105$$

Step2:
$$M_1 = \frac{105}{3} = 35; M_2 = \frac{105}{5} = 21; M_3 = \frac{105}{7} = 15$$

Step3:The inverses are
$$M_1^{-1} = 2 \text{ w.r.t.} 3; M_2^{-1} = 1 \text{ w.r.t.} 5; M_3^{-1} = 1 \text{ w.r.t.} 7;$$

$$x \equiv (2 \times M_1 \times M_1^{-1} + 3 \times M_2 \times M_2^{-1} + 2 \times M_3 \times M_3^{-1}) \mod 105 \equiv 23 \mod 105$$

Attacks on Encryption Exponent

• In Broadcast Attack, the problem statement will be:

$$C_1 \equiv P^3 \mod n_1$$

$$C_2 \equiv P^3 \mod n_2$$

$$C_3 \equiv P^3 \mod n_3$$

 Applying the CRT, the attacker can find an equation of the form

$$C' \equiv P^3 \mod n_1 n_2 n_3$$

$$\Rightarrow P^3 < n_1 n_2 n_3$$

$$\Rightarrow P = \sqrt[3]{C'}$$

Low Decryption Exponent Attacks

- Bob may think that using low decryption exponent would make the decryption process faster.
- Wiener showed that if $d < \frac{1}{3}n^{\frac{1}{4}}$ and q then the attacker can factor n in polynomial time.
- In RSA, the recommendation is to have $d \ge \frac{1}{3}n^{\frac{1}{4}}$ to prevent low decryption exponent attack.

Continued Fractions

- To approximate a real number by a rational number.
- For example π =3.14159... may be approximated as 22/7,333/106, 355/113 etc.
- Approximation process: of π =3.14159...
- Floor(π)=3
- 1/0.14159=7.06251

$$3 + \frac{1}{7} = \frac{22}{7}$$

•
$$1/0.06251=15.9966$$
 $3+\frac{1}{7+\frac{1}{15}}=\frac{333}{106}$

1/0.9966=1

$$3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{15 + \frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{355}{113}$$

The last approximate is more accurate.

• In general,
$$\frac{p_n}{q_n} = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{a_1}}}$$

• Each rational number $\frac{p_k}{q_k}$ gives a better approximation than the preceding rational numbers.

Theorem

If
$$\left| x - \frac{r}{s} \right| < \frac{1}{2s^2}$$
 for integers r,s, then $\frac{r}{s} = \frac{p_i}{q_i}$, for some i.

For example,
$$\left| \pi - \frac{22}{7} \right| \approx 0.001 < \frac{1}{98} \text{ and } \frac{22}{7} = \frac{p_2}{q_2}$$
.

Wiener Attack

Theorem. Suppose p, q are primes with q . Let <math>n = pq and let $1 \le d, e < \phi(n)$ satisfy $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$. If $d < \frac{1}{3}n^{1/4}$, then d can be calculated quickly (that is, in time polynomial in $\log n$).

Proof. Since $q^2 < pq = n$, we have $q < \sqrt{n}$. Therefore, since p < 2q,

$$n - \phi(n) = pq - (p-1)(q-1) = p + q - 1 < 3q < 3\sqrt{n}.$$

Write $ed = 1 + \phi(n)k$ for some integer $k \ge 1$. Since $e < \phi(n)$, we have

$$\phi(n)k < ed < \frac{1}{3}\phi(n)n^{1/4}$$
,

so $k < \frac{1}{3}n^{1/4}$. Therefore,

$$kn - ed = k(n - \phi(n)) - 1 < k(n - \phi(n)) < \frac{1}{3}n^{1/4}(3\sqrt{n}) = n^{3/4}.$$

Also, since $k(n-\phi(n))-1>0$, we have kn-ed>0. Dividing by dn yields

$$0 < \frac{k}{d} - \frac{e}{n} < \frac{1}{dn^{1/4}} < \frac{1}{3d^2}$$

since $3d < n^{1/4}$ by assumption.

We now need a result about continued fractions. Recall from Section 3.12 that if x is a positive real number and k and d are positive integers with

$$\left|\frac{k}{d}-x\right|<\frac{1}{2d^2},$$

then k/d arises from the continued fraction expansion of x. Therefore, in our case, k/d arises from the continued fraction expansion of c/n.

Eve does the following:

- 1. Computes the continued fraction of e/n. After each step, she obtains a fraction A/B.
- 2. Eve uses k = A and d = B to compute C = (ed 1)/k. (Since $ed = 1 + \phi(n)k$, this value if C is a candidate for $\phi(n)$.)
- If C is not an integer, she proceeds to the next step of the continued fraction.
- 4. If C is an integer, then she finds the roots r_1, r_2 of $X^2 (n C + 1)X + n$. (Note that this is possibly the equation $X^2 (n \phi(n) + 1)X + n = (X p)(X q)$ from earlier.) If r_1 and r_2 are integers, then Eve has factored n. If not, then Eve proceeds to the next step of the continued fraction algorithm.

Example

Example. Let n = 1966981193543797 and e = 323815174542919. The continued fraction of e/n is

$$[0; 6, 13, 2, 3, 1, 3, 1, 9, 1, 36, 5, 2, 1, 6, 1, 43, 13, 1, 10, 11, 2, 1, 9, 5]$$

$$= \frac{1}{6 + \frac{1}{13 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}$$

The first fraction is 1/6, so we try k = 1, d = 6. Since d must be odd, we discard this possibility.

By the remark, we may jump to the third fraction:

$$\frac{1}{6+\frac{1}{13+\frac{1}{2}}}=\frac{27}{164}.$$

Again, we discard this since d must be odd.

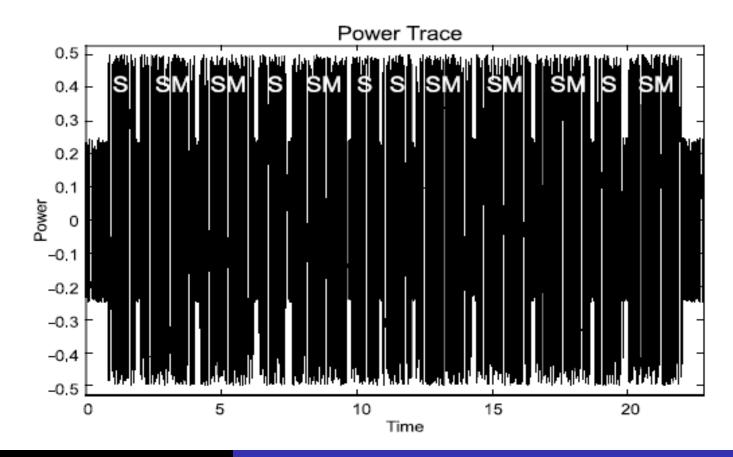
The fifth fraction is 121/735. This gives $C = (e \cdot 735 - 1)/121$, which is not an integer.

The seventh fraction is 578/3511 This gives C = 1966981103495136 as the candidate for $\phi(n)$. The roots of $n = 37264873 \times 52783789$

Side-Channel Attacks

operations: S SM SM S SM S SM SM SM S SM

private key: 0 1 1 0 1 0 0 1 1 1 0 1



Cycling Attack

 Idea: Eve continuously encrypts the intercepted ciphertext C, she eventually get the plaintext.

$$C_1 \equiv C^e \mod n$$

$$C_2 \equiv C_1^e \mod n$$

$$C_3 \equiv C_2^e \mod n$$

$$\vdots$$

$$C_k \equiv C_{k-1}^e \mod n$$
If $C_k = C$ then stop; the plaintext is $P = C_{k-1}$

Short Message Attack

- Even can encrypt all of the possible message until the result is the same as the ciphertext intercepted.
- For example if it is known that Alice is sending a four digit number to Bob, Eve can easily try plaintext numbers from 0000 to 9999 to find the plaintext.
- To defend such kind o attack, Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OAEP) is the standard approach.
- In addition, OAEP mapped the same plaintext with different ciphertext.

Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OAEP)

M: Padded message

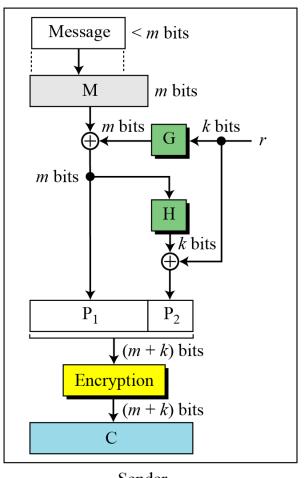
P: Plaintext $(P_1 \parallel P_2)$

G: Public function (*k*-bit to *m*-bit)

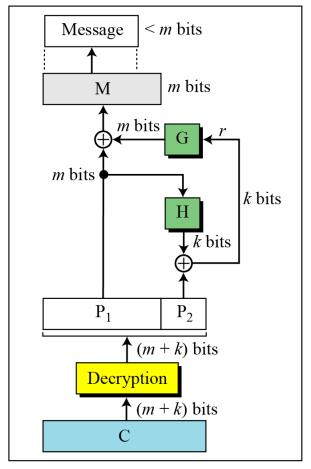
r: One-time random number

C: Ciphertext

H: Public function (*m*-bit to *k*-bit)







Receiver

Key lengths

 Security of public key system should be comparable to security of block cipher.

NIST:

<u>Cipher key-size</u>	<u>Modulus size</u>
≤ 64 bits	512 bits.
80 bits	1024 bits
128 bits	3072 bits.
256 bits (AES)	15360 bits

High security ⇒ very large moduli.

Not possessary with Elliptic Curve Cryptography

Not necessary with Elliptic Curve Cryptography.

!!!Thank You!!!