# Applied Cryptography and Computer Security CSE 664 Spring 2017

# **Lecture 14: Security of RSA**

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#### Summary of RSA

- Key generation
  - choose prime p, q, and e; set n = pq
  - public key is pk = (e, n)
  - private key is sk = d, where  $d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$
- Encryption
  - given a message 0 < m < n
  - encrypt as  $c = E_{pk}(m) = m^e \mod n$
- Decryption
  - given ciphertext c
  - decrypt as  $m = D_{sk}(c) = c^d \mod n$

- The security of the RSA encryption schemes depends on the hardness of the RSA problem
- The RSA problem is widely believed to be computationally equivalent to factoring, but no proof is known
- Knowledge of the following is equivalent with public key (n, e), i.e., enables decryption
  - factors p and q
  - $-\phi(n)$
  - private key d

• Knowledge of n and  $\phi(n)$  implies knowledge of factors p and q

– given 
$$n$$
 and  $\phi(n)$ , we can compute

$$\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = n - p - q + 1 = n - p - n/p + 1$$
  
$$p\phi(n) = np - p^2 - n + p$$

then 
$$p^2 - np + \phi(n)p - p + n = 0$$
  
 $p^2 - (n - \phi(n) + 1)p + n = 0$ 

– the above equation has two solutions:  $\boldsymbol{p}$  and  $\boldsymbol{q}$ 

## **Factoring Large Numbers**

- For factoring a product of two primes, most effective algorithms are
  - quadratic sieve
  - number field sieve
  - elliptic curve factoring algorithm
- The best factoring algorithms run in sub-exponential time
- Hardness of factoring
  - 512-bit modulus has been factored in 1999
  - 768-bit modulus has been factored in 2009
  - 1024-bit modulus may be factored soon

- Plain RSA is very weak
- Attacks on plain RSA
  - short messages
  - brute force search
  - common modulus
  - small exponents e and d
  - timing attacks
- Improving security of RSA

- Encrypting short messages with small *e* 
  - often *e* can be very small such as 3
  - suppose that we encrypt a message  $m < n^{1/3}$  and transmit ciphertext  $c = m^e \mod n$ 
    - any m can be encoded as an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  by treating it as integer and padding with 0s on the left
  - no modular reduction used and  $m = c^{1/3}$  over integers can be easily carried out
  - now how about encrypting 128-bit symmetric encryption key with 1024-bit modulus?

- Brute force key search
  - try possible keys hoping to find the correct one
  - infeasible to succeed unlike in case of symmetric encryption
- Brute force message search
  - the message space can be bounded by some value L
  - simply encrypt all messages
    - the encryption algorithm is public
  - when we see ciphertext c, simply compare it to our ciphertexts
  - **–** attack takes time/space linear in *L*

- Brute force message search
  - unfortunately, a much faster attack is known that runs in about  $\sqrt{L}$  time
  - implications: decrypting a 128-bit key takes 2<sup>64</sup> steps
  - algorithm:
    - we are given  $c = \operatorname{Enc}(m) = m^e \mod n$  for some  $m < 2^\ell$
    - set  $T = 2^{\alpha \ell}$  for  $1/2 < \alpha < 1$
    - for r = 1, ..., T, set  $x_r = c/r^e \mod n$
    - sort the pairs  $(r, x_r)$  by the second value
    - for s = 1, ..., T, if  $s^e \mod n = x_r$  for some r, output  $r \cdot s \mod n$

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• Small encryption exponent e

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- suppose that the same e = 3 is used with different moduli (i.e., with different public keys)
- suppose Alice wants to send the same message m to three different people using their moduli  $n_1$ ,  $n_2$ , and  $n_3$
- she sends  $c_i = m^3 \mod n_i$  for i = 1, 2, 3
- an eavesdropper Eve observes  $c_1, c_2$ , and  $c_3$
- Eve can use the Chinese Remainder Theorem to find a solution x( $0 < x < n_1n_2n_3$ ) to the three congruences  $x \equiv c_i \pmod{n_i}$
- the solution is  $x = m^3$  and m can be recovered by computing  $\sqrt[3]{x}$ over integers (since  $m < \min(n_1, n_2, n_3)$ )

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- Common modulus attack
  - this attack deals with a common misuse of RSA
  - suppose for efficiency reasons a trusted party generates one modulus n and several key pairs  $(e_1, d_1), (e_2, d_2), \ldots$
  - then each user has  $pk_i = (e_i, n)$  and  $sk_i = d_i$
  - this setup is trivially insecure
    - why?

- Common modulus attack
  - now suppose that it is all right that all users know each others' keys
  - suppose Eve sees two ciphertexts that encrypt the same message

$$c_1 = m^{e_1} \mod n$$
 and  $c_2 = m^{e_2} \mod n$ 

- $e_1 \neq e_2$  and it is likely that  $gcd(e_1, e_2) = 1$
- then Even can use Extended Euclidean algorithm to compute x and y such that  $e_1x + e_2y = 1$
- Eve computes  $c_1^x \cdot c_2^y \bmod n$  to recover m

- Small decryption exponent d
  - the secret key d cannot be small
  - if  $|d| \approx 1/4|n|$ , there is an efficient algorithm for recovering d from public information (e, n)
  - thus, d should have roughly the same size as n

#### • Timing attacks

- measure decryption time hoping to recover the decryption key
- exponentiation algorithm and the ciphertext are known
- what we can do to prevent such attacks
  - use constant exponentiation time
  - add random delays
  - modify the values used in calculations by blinding

- Are timing attacks practical?
  - the answer is yes
  - OpenSSL was discovered to be vulnerable in 2003
    - researchers discovered a remote timing attack on OpenSSL implementations that allowed to learn RSA keys
    - to secure it, turn RSA blinding on

- Let's get back to security of RSA
  - RSA is not secure because it is deterministic
  - RSA leaks information
- Optimal asymmetric encryption padding (OAEP) attempts to solve these problems
- To achieve security in the sense of indistinguishability, randomization and expansion are necessary
  - now the ciphertext will be longer than the message
  - suppose we want the computation effort of breaking the indistinguishability to be  $2^k$
  - the ciphertext must be at least k bits longer than the message

• Simple padding scheme

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- idea: pad message m with random r and encrypt their concatenation

- let 
$$(n, e, d) \leftarrow \text{GenRSA}(1^k)$$
 with  $|n| = k$ 

$$- ||m| = \ell(k) \le k - 1$$

- Gen: run  $(n, e, d) \leftarrow$  GenRSA $(1^k)$  and output pk = (n, e) and sk = (n, d)
- Enc: given  $m \in \{0, 1\}^{\ell(k)}$ , choose random  $r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^{k-\ell(k)-1}$ and output

$$c = \operatorname{Enc}_{pk}(m) = (r||m)^e \bmod n$$

- Dec: given  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , compute  $m' = c^d \mod n$  and output  $\ell(k)$  least significant bits of it

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- Security of this simple padding scheme
  - if |r| is not large enough, the scheme is not CPA-secure
    - e.g.,  $|r| = O(\log k)$
  - if  $\ell(k) = c \cdot k$  for constant c < 1, the scheme can be conjectured secure
    - no proof based on the standard RSA assumption is known
  - if  $\ell(k) = O(\log k)$ , the scheme has been proven to be CPA-secure under the RSA assumption
    - is it satisfactory?

- PKCS # 1.5
  - it is a widely used and standardized version of RSA from RSA Laboratories
  - it uses the above idea and requires |r| to be at least 8 bytes
  - $\ell(n)$  is at most k/8 11 bytes
  - |r| is  $k/8 \ell 3$  bytes
  - encryption is formed as

 $c = (0000000||0000010||r||0000000||m)^e \mod n$ 

- no byte of r is allowed to be 0
- the construction is believed to be CPA-secure, but no formal proof under the RSA assumption is known

#### **Towards Higher Security Standards**

- An example padding for achieving CPA-security
  - we are given an encryption scheme  $\mathcal{E} = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$  and a cryptographic hash function h
  - to encrypt message m, generate a random number r
  - compute the ciphertext  $(c_1, c_2)$  as

 $c_1 = \operatorname{Enc}_k(r)$  and  $c_2 = h(r) \oplus m$ 

- to decrypt a message given  $(c_1, c_2)$ , compute  $h(\text{Dec}_k(c_1)) \oplus c_2$ 

#### Semantic Security of RSA

- This padding scheme with RSA:
  - public key is (e, n) with 1536-bit modulus
  - encryption of m is  $(r^e \mod n, h(r) \oplus m)$  for a random  $r \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$
  - to decrypt a ciphertext  $(c_1, c_2)$ , compute  $m = h(c_1^d \mod n) \oplus c_2$
  - for 256-bit messages, the size of ciphertexts is 1536 + 256
- Why is this solution secure?
  - it relies on randomness of h and one-way nature of  $Enc_k$
  - to learn something about m from  $h(r) \oplus m$ , one has to know h(r)
  - but since h(r) is random, you cannot recover r
  - recovering r from  $Enc_k(r)$  is also infeasible

# OAEP

- In 1994 Bellare and Rogaway proposed an optimal asymmetric encryption padding (OAEP) method for encoding messages
  - it uses encryption  $\mathcal{E} = (Gen, Enc, Dec)$  (formally modeled as one-way trapdoor permutation)
  - it also uses two hash functions  $h : \{0, 1\}^{\ell} \to \{0, 1\}^{t}$  and  $g : \{0, 1\}^{t} \to \{0, 1\}^{\ell}$
  - to encrypt an  $\ell$ -bit message m:
    - choose an t-bit random r
    - compute the ciphertext as

```
\mathsf{Enc}_k(m\oplus g(r)||r\oplus h(m\oplus g(r)))
```

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# OAEP

- **OAEP** cont.
  - to decrypt ciphertext c:
    - after applying  $Dec_k$  to c, parse the content in two parts  $c_1 || c_2 \leftarrow Dec_k(c)$
    - to recover m from  $m\oplus g(r)$ , we need to find r as  $c_2\oplus h(c_1)$
    - finally, set  $m = c_1 \oplus g(r)$
- Security of OAEP
  - if h and g are modeled as random oracles and the RSA problem is hard
  - RSA-OAEP is proven to be CCA-secure for certain types of public exponents e (including common e = 3)

# OAEP

- Security of OAEP
  - OAEP is designed in such a way that the only way to find m is to explicitly choose m and r and try them
- Size of parameters in OAEP
  - ciphertext has size k (e.g., 1536 for RSA)
  - t should be such that  $2^t$  work is infeasible and negligible
    - e.g., t = O(k)
  - the plaintext size  $\ell$  can be up to k-t
  - e.g., with k = 1536 and t = 128, message size is up to 1408 bits
  - expansion is optimal

### Summary

- Security of RSA
  - many attacks have been discovered over the year
  - attacks on plain RSA can be very damaging
  - countermeasures for implementation-based attacks exist
- CPA-security of RSA
  - can be added by using padding
  - OAEP achieves an optimal expansion and is provably secure