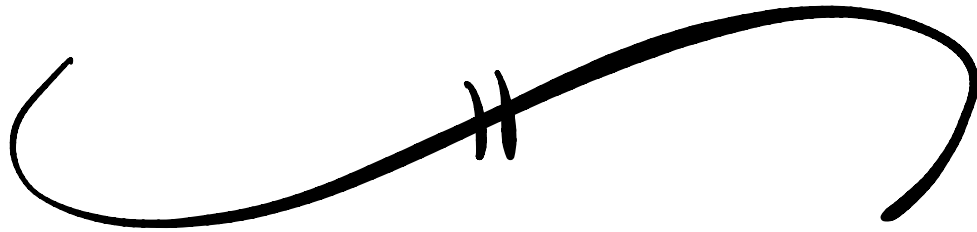


# RSA Encryption and Signatures



Lecture 17, CS 284, Autumn 2021

David Cash

# Outline

- ① Recall groups,  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ , public-key encryption
- ② RSA Encryption
- ③ Digital Signatures: Motivation and Definitions
- ④ RSA Signatures

Corollary Let  $G$  be a finite abelian group of order  $m > 1$ . Let  $e > 0$  be an integer relatively prime to  $m$ . Then the function  $f_e$ ,

$$f_e: G \rightarrow G, \\ g \mapsto g^e$$

$$\underline{f_e(g) = g^e}$$

is a permutation. Moreover, if  $d$  is an inverse of  $e$  modulo  $m$ , then

$$f_d: G \rightarrow G \\ g \mapsto g^d$$

$$f_d(s) = s^d$$

is the inverse of  $f_e$ .

$$\text{For all } g \\ f_d(f_e(s)) = g \\ = f_e(f_d(s))$$

# The Group $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ (Recall)

Intuition: Need to throw out not just  $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_N$ , but everything that does not have an inverse modular.

Def For a positive integer  $N$ , define

$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{ x \mid 1 \leq x < N, \gcd(x, N) = 1 \}.$$

Claim For each positive integer  $N$ ,  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  with operation  $x \circ y = [xy \text{ mod } N]$  is a group.

Proof Sketch: ID 1 ✓

INV  $x^{-1}$  is modular  
inverse of  $x \text{ mod } N$

ASSOC: ✓

# Euler's Theorem (!)


Theorem For any positive integer  $N$ , and integer  $a$  relatively prime to  $N$ ,

$$a^{\varphi(N)} = 1 \pmod{N}.$$

Proof

In  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ,  $\sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} g = 1$  for any  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ .

$\varphi(N)$



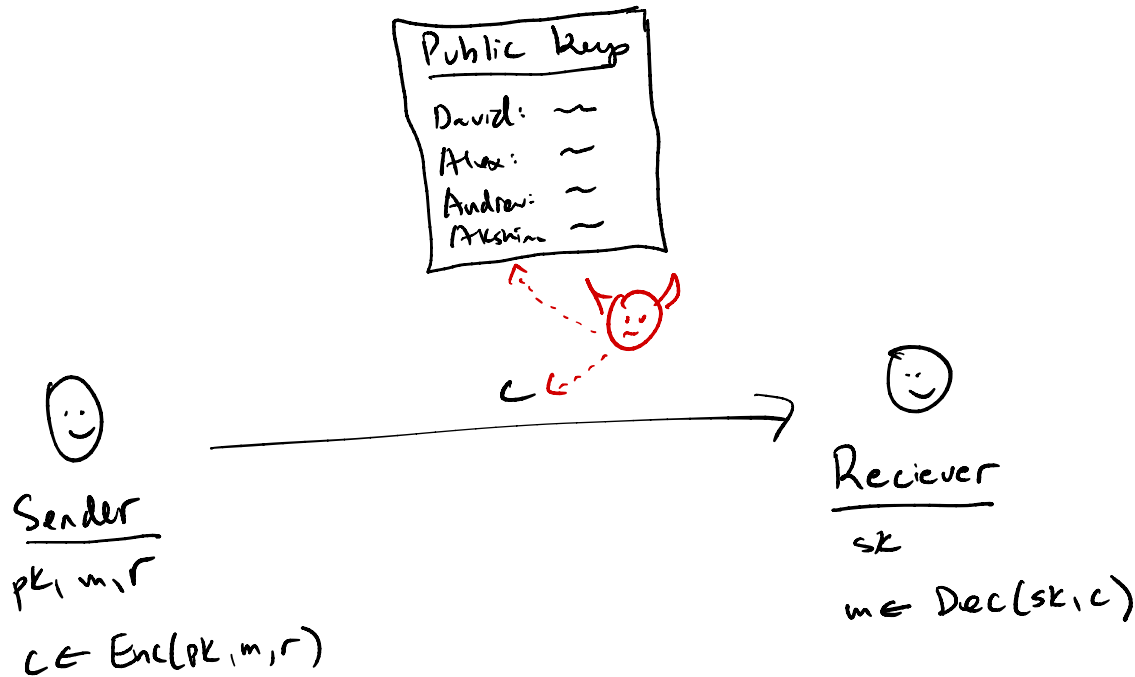
# Public-Key Encryption Syntax

Def A **public-key encryption scheme**  $\Pi$  consists of three algorithms

$\Pi = (\text{Keygen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ , where

- Keygen is randomized, takes no input besides random bits, and outputs two keys  $(pk, sk)$ .
- Enc is randomized (with input  $r$  written explicitly), takes <sup>two</sup> ~~more~~ inputs  $pk, m$ , and outputs a ciphertext.
- Dec is deterministic, takes inputs  $sk, c$  and outputs  $m$ .

# Chosen-Plain Text Attack Security: Motivation



- has  $pk$  and  $c$ , but not  $sk$  or  $r$
- wants info about  $m$ ; can influence what sender encrypts

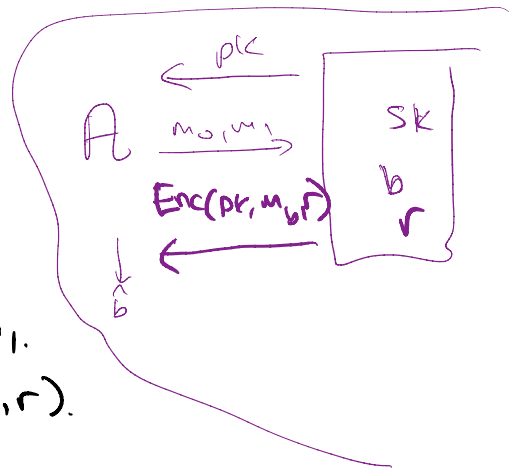
## Chosen-Plain Text Attack Security: Definition

Def Let  $\Pi = (\text{Keygen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$  be a public-key encryption scheme, and let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary. Define  $\text{Exp}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A})$  by

$$\underline{\text{Exp}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A})}$$

1. Run  $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Keygen}()$
2. Give  $pk$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ . It chooses two messages  $m_0, m_1$ .
3. Pick  $b \in \{0, 1\}$ , random  $r$ , compute  $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(pk, m_b, r)$ .
4. Give  $c$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ . It outputs  $\hat{b}$ .
5. If  $\hat{b} = b$  output 1. Else output 0.

$$\text{Define } \text{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A}) = \left| \Pr[\text{Exp}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A}) = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \right|.$$





## Chosen-Plaintext Attack Security: Discussion

\* No oracle for Enc; Just "one shot" for  $\mathcal{A}$ .

↳ But giving an oracle actually does not change definition much.

\* Deterministic Enc algorithm  $\Rightarrow$  can't have good CPA security

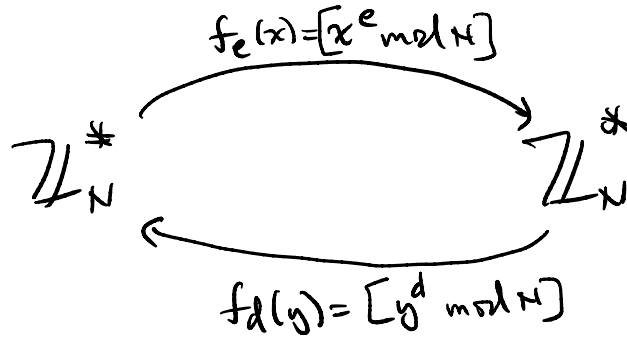
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# The Main Idea: The RSA Trapdoor Function

RSA = Rivest, Shamir, Adelman  
😊😊😊

- Pick large primes  $p \neq q$ , set  $N = pq$ .
- Pick  $e$  relatively prime to  $\phi(N)$ . (The order of  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ )
- Set  $d = [e^{-1} \text{ mod } \phi(N)]$



Use early "e/d" w/ollary, applied to the group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ .

# Basic (Deterministic) RSA Public-Key Encryption

"Textbook RSA"

Keygen: Pick  $k$ -bit primes  $p \neq q$ .  $N \leftarrow pq$ . Pick some small  $e > 1$  such that  $\gcd(e, \phi(N)) = 1$ . (know  $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$ )

Set  $d = [e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)]$ .

Output  $pk = (N, e)$ ,  $sk = (N, d)$

MOD EXP  
↓

Enc( $pk, m$ ): Parse  $pk = (N, e)$ ; Assume  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ . Output  $c = [m^e \bmod N]$ .

Dec( $sk, c$ ): Parse  $sk = (N, d)$ . Output  $m = [c^d \bmod N]$ .

↑  
MOD EXP

Correctness?  $fd = fe^{-1}$

	# bits
$p, q$	$k = 624$
$N$	$2k \approx 2048$
$e$	2, 3, ...
$d$	$2k \approx 2048$

## Questions to Address

① OK to assume  $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ? 

② Is this secure?

③ This is deterministic. How can we randomize it?

Inverting RSA  $\Leftrightarrow$  Computing " $e^{\text{th}}$  root mod  $N$ "

•  $e=3$  used to be common,  $e=65537$  is used now.

Inverting  $E_{pk}(m) \Leftrightarrow$  finding  $m$  such that  $[m^3 \bmod N] = c$ .

\* Without the "mod" this is easy. (find  $m$  such that  $m^3 = c$ ).

## Security Intuition for RSA

Given  $pk = (N, e)$  and  $c = [m^e \bmod N]$ , can someone find  $m$ ?

Hopeful thinking:

(1) To find  $m$ , need  $d = [e^{-1} \bmod \phi(N)]$

(2) To find  $d$ , need  $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1) = pq - p - q + 1$

(3) To find  $\phi(N)$ , need  $p$  and  $q$ .

\* Finding  $p, q$  from  $N = pq$  is the "factoring problem".

# Factoring Algorithms (Details are optional into)

Algorithm	Time to factor $N$
Naive: Try dividing $N$ by $1, 2, \dots$	$\sqrt{N} = \exp(0.5 \cdot \ln(N))$
Meet-in-the-Middle type attack	$N^{1/4} = \exp(0.25 \cdot \ln(N))$
"Quadratic Sieve"	$O(\exp(\ln(N)^{1/2} \cdot \ln(\ln(N))^{1/2})) \approx N^{1/\ln(N)^{1/2}}$
"Number Field Sieve"	$O(\exp(1.9 \ln(N)^{1/3} \cdot \ln(\ln(N))^{2/3})) \approx N^{1/\ln(N)^{1/3}}$

Total break would be  $\ln(N)^c = \exp(c \cdot \ln(\ln(N)))$



# Factoring Records

Challenges posted by RSA Labs

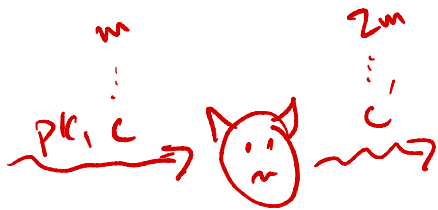
Bit Length $n$	Year Factored
400	1993
478	1994
515	1999
768	2009
795	2019
829	2020

# Deterministic RSA Security Problems (Even if factoring is hard)

①  $\text{Enc}(pk, 1) = \underline{1}$

② If  $m < N^{1/3}$ , then  $\text{Enc}(pk, m) = m^3$  (as a real number)

③ **Malleability**: Given  $pk$  and  $c = [m^e \bmod N]$  (but not  $m$ ),  
can compute  $c'$  that decrypts to  $2m$ .



$$\begin{aligned} c' &= [2^e \cdot c \bmod N] \\ &= [2^e \cdot m^e \bmod N] \\ &= [(2m)^e \bmod N] \end{aligned}$$

# Randomized RSA (Sketch)

During encryption, add random padding that is removed.

$$\text{Enc}(pk, m, r) = [(r || m)^e \bmod N]$$

↑  
concatenate message and  
randomness, treat result as  
element of  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ .

→ Malleability (???)

Bleichenbacher's  
Padding Oracle

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# Signing Documents

David  


I, David, hereby pay  
Alex 20 units of 284-money.  
Signature: David

Alex  


I, David, hereby pay  
Alex 20 units of 284-money.  
Signature: David

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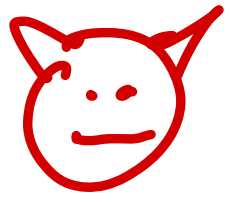
Alex  


Hey Akshina,  
David gave  
me \$20!

Akshina  


I, David, hereby pay  
Alex 20 units of 284-money.  
Signature: David

# Electronic Signatures?

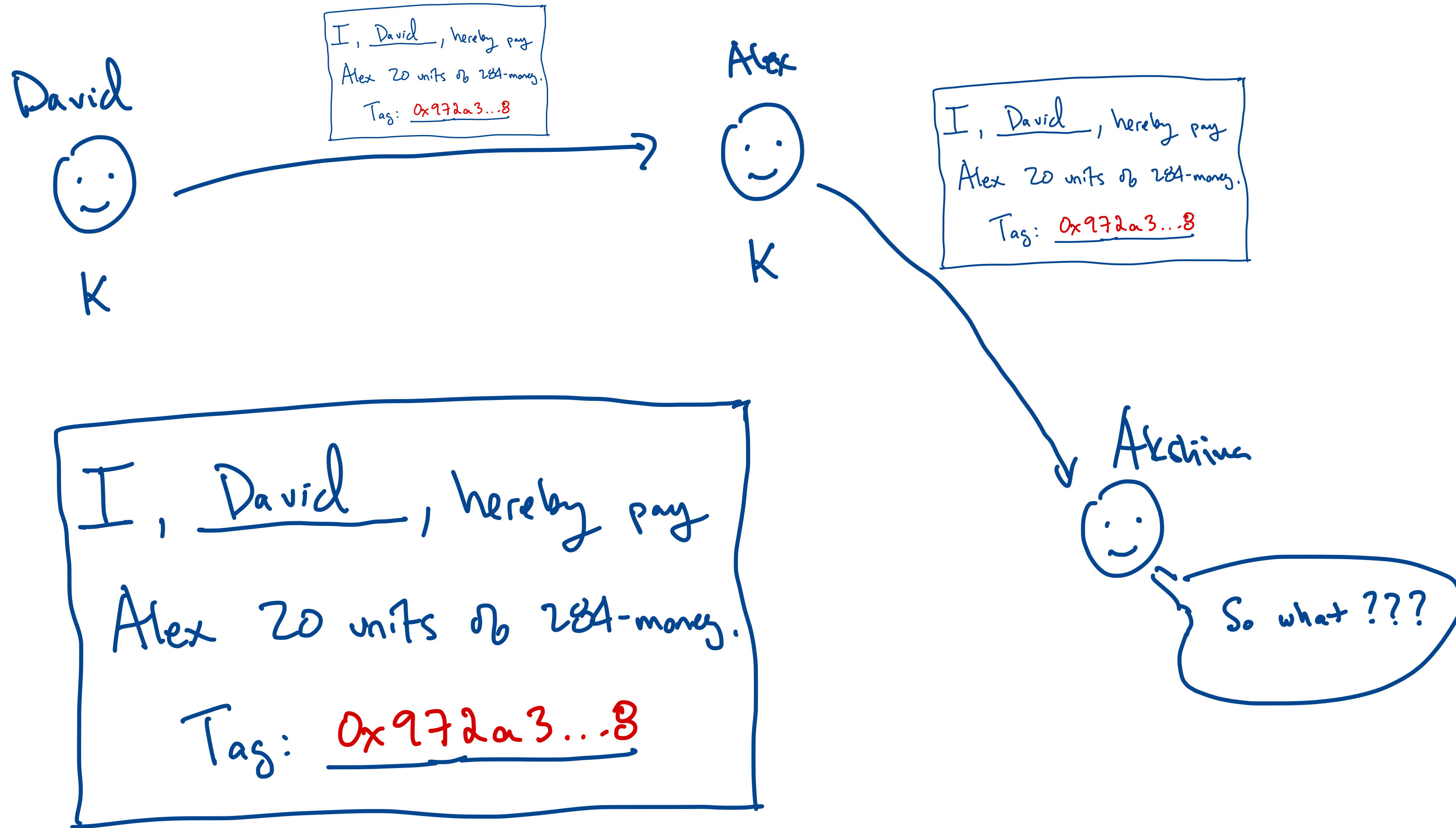


I, David, hereby pay  
Alex 20 units of 284-money.  
Signature: David



I, David, hereby pay  
~~Alex~~ 20 units of 284-money.  
Signature: David

# What about using a MAC?





# Digital Signatures: Syntax

**Definition:** A digital signature scheme with message space  $\mathcal{M}$  consists of three algorithms  $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Verify})$  with the following syntax:

- **KeyGen** takes no input, and outputs a pair of keys  $(pk, sk)$ .
- **Sign** takes inputs  $sk$  and  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and outputs a “signature”  $\sigma$
- **Verify** takes inputs  $pk$ ,  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , and  $\sigma$  and outputs a bit.

# How to Use Digital Signatures

Verify( $pk_{amazon}, m, \sigma$ )?

public key posted online:  
 $pk_{amazon}$

$\sigma$   
User  
 $pk_{amazon}$

$(m, \sigma)$

Server  
(Internet)

$(m, \sigma)$

Amazon

$sk_{amazon}$

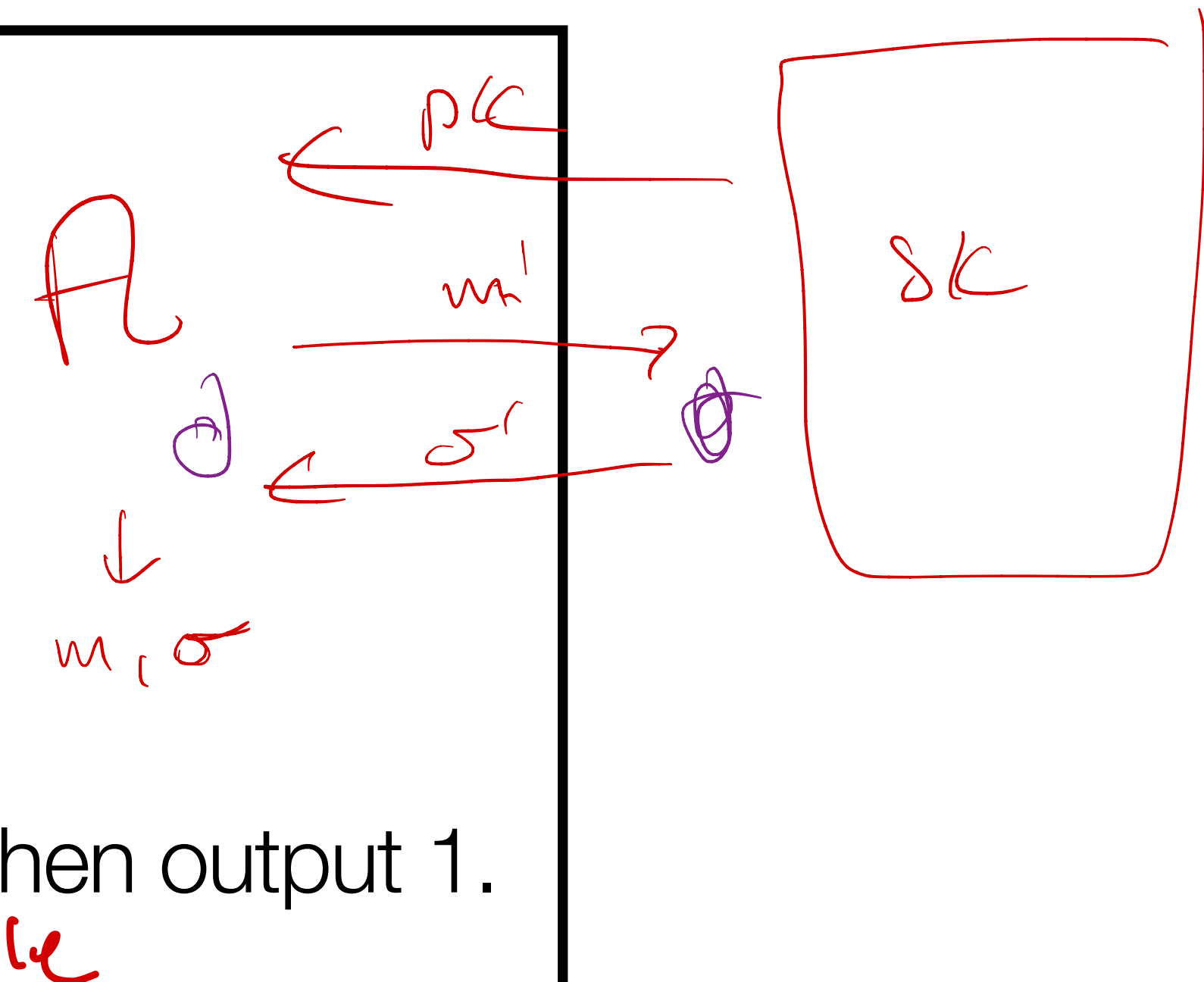
$\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(sk_{amazon}, m)$

# Security of Digital Signatures: Definition

**Definition:** Let  $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Sign}, \text{Verify})$  be a digital signature scheme with message space  $\mathcal{M}$  and let  $\mathcal{A}$  be an adversary. Define

$\text{Expt}_{\Pi}^{\text{uf}}(\mathcal{A})$ :

1.  $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}$
2. Run  $\mathcal{A}$  with input  $pk$  and oracle  $\text{Sign}(sk, \cdot)$ .
3. Eventually  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs  $m, \sigma$ .
4. If  $\text{Verify}(pk, m, \sigma) = 1$  and  $m$  was never queried to  $\mathcal{A}$ 's oracle, then output 1.
5. Else output 0.

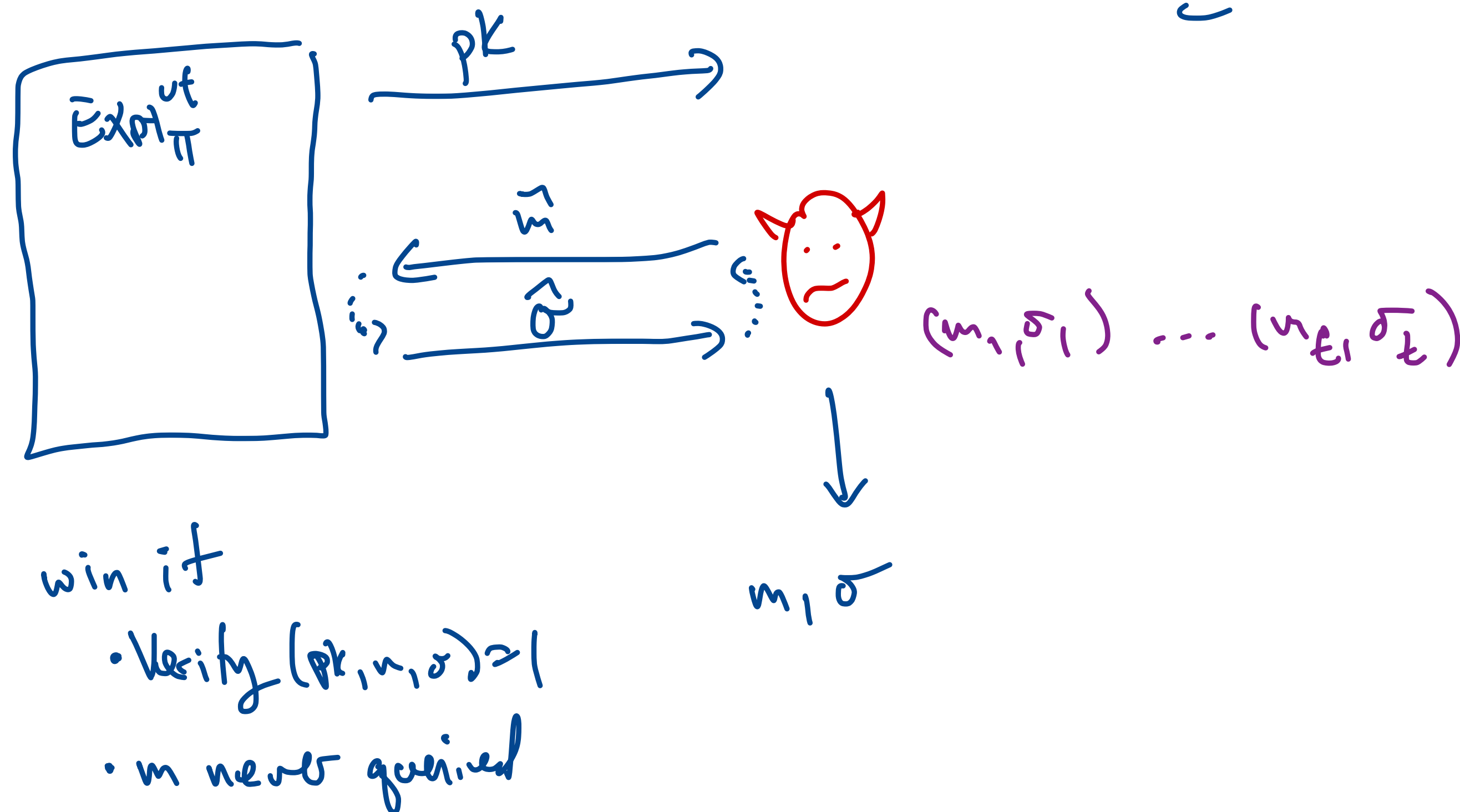


Finally, let  $\text{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text{uf}}(\mathcal{A}) = \Pr[\text{Expt}_{\Pi}^{\text{uf}}(\mathcal{A}) = 1]$ .

# Security of Digital Signatures: Idea

- Goal: Hard to forge, even after seeing  $pk$  + lots of signatures

@ One try at forgery?



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<sup>u</sup>Textbook<sup>4</sup>

# Plain RSA Signatures (Insecure!)

Fix a bit-size  $n$  for RSA primes and some exponent  $e > \overset{1}{\cancel{0}}$ . (e.g.  $n \approx 1024$ ,  $e = 65537$ ).

Message space  $\mathcal{M} \subseteq \{0,1\}^{2n-1}$ .

- **KeyGen**: Choose random  $n$ -bit primes  $p, q$ . Let  $N \leftarrow pq$ ,  $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$ , and  $d \leftarrow [e^{-1} \bmod \varphi(N)]$ . Let  $pk \leftarrow (N, e)$ ,  $sk \leftarrow (N, d)$ . Output  $(pk, sk)$
- **Sign**( $sk, m$ ): Parse  $sk$  as  $(N, d)$  and view  $m$  as integer in  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ . Output

$$\sigma = [m^d \bmod N].$$

- **Verify**( $pk, m, \sigma$ ): Parse  $pk$  as  $(N, e)$  and view  $m, \sigma$  as integers in  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ . Output 1 iff

$$m = [\sigma^e \bmod N].$$

# Attack #1 on Plain RSA



On input  $pk$ : Output  $m=1, \sigma=1$ .

→ Wins because

- $\text{Verify}(pk, 1, 1)$  checks if  $\sigma^e = [m \bmod N]$
- $m$  never queried.

# Attack #2 on Plain RSA : "Malleability"

Sign(sk, ·)



On input PK:

1. Pick some  $\hat{m}_1, \hat{m}_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ,  $\hat{m}_1 \neq \hat{m}_2$ , neither equal to 1.
2. Query  $\hat{m}_1$  to get  $\hat{\sigma}_1$ .
3. Query  $\hat{m}_2$  to get  $\hat{\sigma}_2$ .
4. Set  $m = [\hat{m}_1 \cdot \hat{m}_2 \bmod N]$ ,  $\sigma = [\hat{\sigma}_1 \cdot \hat{\sigma}_2 \bmod N]$ .
5. Output  $(m, \sigma)$ .

$$\sigma^e \equiv (\hat{\sigma}_1 \hat{\sigma}_2)^e \equiv (\hat{m}_1 \hat{m}_2)^{d \cdot e} \equiv \hat{m}_1 \hat{m}_2 \equiv m \bmod N$$



# Attack #3 on Plain RSA: "Backwards Signing"



On input PK:

1. Pick  $\sigma \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ .
2. Set  $m \leftarrow [\sigma^e \bmod N]$ .
3. Output  $(m, \sigma)$ .

Wins because:

- No queries.

•  $[\sigma^e \bmod N] = m$  by definition!

# Securing RSA Signatures with Hashing

- Use a hash function  $\text{Hash}: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{2048}$
- Keygen is unchanged

Sign(sk, m)

1. Parse sk as  $(N, d)$
- 2.  $x \leftarrow \text{Hash}(m)$
3.  $\sigma \leftarrow [x^d \bmod N]$
4. Output  $\sigma$ .

Verify(pk, m,  $\sigma$ )

1. Parse pk as  $(N, e)$
- 2.  $x \leftarrow \text{Hash}(m)$
3. If  $x \stackrel{?}{=} [\sigma^e \bmod N]$  output 1,  
Else output  $\emptyset$ .

# Security of RSA Signatures with Hashing

- ① Signature of  $m=1$  is no longer  $\sigma=1$  ( $1^e \neq H(1)$ )
- ② Malleability is prevented ( $H(m_1) \cdot H(m_2) \neq H(m_1 \cdot m_2)$ )
- ③ Backwards Signing is prevented

↳ A picks  $\sigma$ , wants to find  $m$  such that  $\sigma^e = H(m)$ ...  
⇒ Hash should be preimage-resistant.

④ New threat: **Collisions**

↳ If A finds collision  $m_1 \neq m_2$ ,  $H(m_1) = H(m_2)$  then a signature on  $m_1$  is also a signature on  $m_2$ .

# Choosing the Hash Function for RSA Signatures

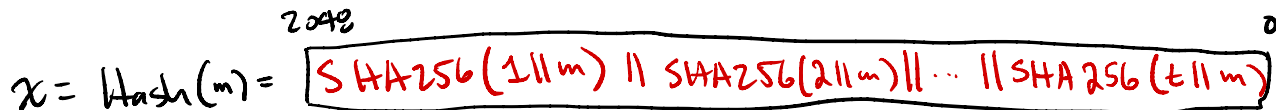
Using SHA256 (or similar) is insecure! (for subtle reasons)

Say  $N$  is 2048 bits long.



→ An algorithm called "index calculus" can find  $[x^e \bmod N]$  relatively quickly.

→ Instead use a "full domain hash"



The End

