

# Introduction to cryptology (GBIN8U16)



## RSA Encryption, RSA Signatures

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# The RSA permutation family

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- ▶ Let  $N = pq$ , with  $p, q$  prime numbers
- ▶ Let  $e$  be s.t.  $\gcd(e, \varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ 
  - ▶ In practice,  $e$  is often fixed to 3 or 65537
- ▶ The RSA permutation  $\mathcal{P}$  over  $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$  is given by  $m \mapsto m^e$
- ▶ The inverse  $\mathcal{P}^{-1}$  is given by  $m \mapsto m^d$ , where  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(N)}$
- ▶  $N, e$  are the *public parameters* defining  $\mathcal{P}$
- ▶  $N, e, d$  are the *private parameters* defining  $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}^{-1}$

Assumption: Given only the public parameters, it is “hard” to invert  $\mathcal{P}$

The objective: use RSA to build

- ▶ Public-key (asymmetric) encryption
  - ▶ Can then be used for asymmetric key exchange
- ▶ Public-key signatures

These schemes will need to satisfy the usual security notions

- ▶ For encryption: IND-CPA/CCA (“semantic security”)
- ▶ For signatures: Existential unforgeability under chosen-message attacks (EUF-CMA)

# IND-CCA for Public-Key encryption

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IND-CCA for (Enc, Dec): An adversary cannot distinguish  $\text{Enc}(pk_C, 0)$  from  $\text{Enc}(pk_C, 1)$ , when given (restricted) oracle access to  $\text{Dec}(sk_C, \cdot)$  oracle:

- 1 The Challenger chooses a key pair  $(pk_C, sk_C)$ , a random bit  $b$ , sends  $c = \text{Enc}(pk_C, b)$ ,  $pk_C$  to the Adversary
- 2 The Adversary may repeatedly submit queries  $x_i \neq c$  to the Challenger
- 3 The Challenger answers a query with  $\text{Dec}(sk_C, x_i) \in \{0, 1, \perp\}$ 
  - ▶ This assumes w.l.o.g. that the domain of Enc is  $\{0, 1\}$ , and that decryption may fail
- 4 The Adversary tries to guess  $b$

## EUF-CMA for Public-Key signatures

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EUF-CMA for (Sig, Ver): An adversary cannot forge a valid signature  $\sigma$  for a message  $m$  such that  $\text{Ver}(pk_C, \sigma, m)$  succeeds, when given (restricted) oracle access to  $\text{Sig}(sk_C, \cdot)$ :

- 1 The Challenger chooses a pair  $(pk_C, sk_C)$  and sends  $pk_C$  to the Adversary
- 2 The Adversary may repeatedly submit queries  $m_i$  to the Challenger
- 3 The Challenger answers a query with  $\sigma_i = \text{Sig}(sk_C, m_i)$
- 4 The Adversary tries to forge a signature  $\sigma_f$  for a message  $m_f \neq m_i$ , s.t.  $\text{Ver}(pk_C, \sigma_f, m_f) = \top$

# RSA Encryption: first attempt

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Let  $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}^{-1}$  be RSA permutations with parameters  $N, e, d$ . Define:

- ▶  $\text{Enc}(pk = (N, e), m) = \mathcal{P}(m) = (m^e \bmod N)$
- ▶  $\text{Dec}(sk = (N, e, d), c) = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(c) = (c^d \bmod N)$

Not randomized  $\Rightarrow$  fails miserably, not IND-CCA

- ▶ When receiving  $c = \mathcal{P}(b)$ , the Adversary compares with  $c_0 = \mathcal{P}(0), c_1 = \mathcal{P}(1)$

## More issues with raw RSA

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- ▶ If  $m$ ,  $e$  are small, it may be that  $m^e \bmod N = m^e$  (over the integers)  $\Rightarrow$  trivial to invert
  - ▶ Example:  $N$  is of 2048 bits,  $e = 3$ ,  $m$  is a one-bit challenge: adding 512 random bits of padding before encrypting does not provide IND-CCA security!
- ▶ Consider a *broadcast* setting where  $m$  is encrypted as  $c_i = m^3 \bmod N_i$ ,  $i \in [1, 3]$ . Suppose that  $\forall i, m < N_i < c_i$ . Using the CRT, one can reconstruct  $m^3 \bmod N_1 N_2 N_3 = m^3$  and retrieve  $m$ .
  - ▶ Even random padding might not prevent this attack, if too structured (Hastad, Coppersmith)

## More issues with (semi-)raw RSA

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A very useful result for analysing the security of RSA is due to Coppersmith (1996):

### Finding small modular roots of univariate polynomials

Let  $P$  be a polynomial of degree  $k$  defined modulo  $N$ , then there is an efficient algorithm that computes its roots that are less than  $N^{1/k}$

- ▶ The complexity of the algorithm is polynomial in  $k$  (but w. a high degree)
- ▶ Example application: if  $c = (2^k B + x)^3 \pmod N$  is an RSA image,  $B$  is known and of size  $2/3 \log(N)$ , one can find  $x$  of size  $k < 1/3 \log(N)$  by solving  $(2^k B + k)^3 - c = 0$
- ▶ Other applications: in the previous slide; in slide #13, ...



# Proper RSA-ENC

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Let  $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}^{-1}$  be RSA permutations with parameters  $N, e, d$ . Let  $\text{Pad}, \text{Pad}^{-1}$  be a padding function and its inverse. Define:

- ▶  $\text{Enc}(pk = (N, e), m) = \mathcal{P}(\text{Pad}(m)) = (\text{Pad}(m)^e \bmod N)$
- ▶  $\text{Dec}(sk = (N, e, d), c) = \text{Pad}^{-1}(\mathcal{P}^{-1}(c)) = \text{Pad}^{-1}(c^d \bmod N)$

Necessary conditions on  $\text{Pad}$ :

- ▶ It must be invertible
- ▶ It must be randomized (with a large-enough number of bits)
- ▶ For all  $m, N, e$ ,  $\text{Pad}(m)^e$  must be larger than  $N$

# OAEP: A good padding function for RSA-ENC

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OAEP: Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (Bellare & Rogaway, 1994):

- ▶ Let  $k = \lfloor \log(N) \rfloor$ ,  $\kappa$  be a security parameter
- ▶ Let  $\mathcal{G} : \{0, 1\}^\kappa \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$ ,  $\mathcal{H} : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^\kappa$  be two hash functions
- ▶ Define  $\text{Pad}(x)$  as  $(y_L || y_R) = x \oplus \mathcal{G}(r) || r \oplus \mathcal{H}(x \oplus \mathcal{G}(r))$ , where  $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\kappa$
- ▶ One has  $x = \text{Pad}^{-1}(y_L || y_R) = y_L \oplus \mathcal{G}(y_R \oplus \mathcal{H}(y_L))$

- ▶ OAEP essentially uses a two-round Feistel structure
- ▶ To be instantiated, it requires two hash functions  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\mathcal{G}$  with variable output size
- ▶ A possibility is to use a single XOF  $\mathcal{X} : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ , such as SHAKE-128

## OAEP: Why does it work (kind of)?

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Intuitively, full knowledge of  $(y_L || y_R)$  is necessary to invert:

- ▶ If part of  $y_L$  is unknown,  $\mathcal{H}(y_L)$ , then  $\mathcal{G}(y_R \oplus \mathcal{H}(y_L))$  are uniformly random
- ▶ If part of  $y_R$  is unknown,  $\mathcal{G}(y_R \oplus \mathcal{H}(y_L))$  is uniformly random
- ▶ In both cases  $\Rightarrow x$  is hidden by a “one-time-pad”

More formally, we would like a reduction of the form:

Breaking RSA-OAEP w. Adv.  $\epsilon \Rightarrow$  Inverting RSA w. Adv.  $\approx \epsilon$

- ▶ The original proof that OWP-OAEP is IND-CCA (for any good OWP) (Bellare & Rogaway, 1994) was incorrect
- ▶ Shoup showed that there can be no such proof (2001)
- ▶ But when OWP is RSA, then there *is* a proof (Shoup, 2001; Fujisaki & al., 2000)!
  - ▶ Exploits Coppersmith's algorithm!
- ▶ Not all the proofs are *tight* (e.g.  $\text{Adv. } \epsilon \Rightarrow \text{Adv. } \epsilon^2$ )
  - ▶ Need large parameters to give a meaningful guarantee

## What about RSA-SIG now?

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Let  $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}^{-1}$  be RSA permutations with parameters  $N, e, d$ . Define:

- ▶  $\text{Sig}(sk = (N, e, d), m) = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(m)$
- ▶  $\text{Ver}(pk = (N, e), \sigma, m) = \mathcal{P}(\sigma) \stackrel{?}{=} m \quad \top : \perp$

Why this might work:

- ▶ Correctness:  $(m^d)^e \equiv m \pmod{N}$  ( $\mathcal{P}^{-1} \circ \mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P} \circ \mathcal{P}^{-1} = \text{Id}$ )
- ▶ Security: Comes from the hardness of inverting  $\mathcal{P}$  w/o knowing  $d \rightsquigarrow$  forging a signature for  $m \Leftarrow$  compute  $\mathcal{P}^{-1}(m)$

## Raw RSA-SIG: That's no good!

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- ▶ If  $m \equiv m' \pmod{N}$ , then  $\mathcal{P}^{-1}(m) = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(m') \Rightarrow$  trivial forgeries
- ▶  $\mathcal{P}^{-1}(m) \mathcal{P}^{-1}(m') = (m^d)(m'^d) \pmod{N} = (mm')^d \pmod{N} = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(mm') \Rightarrow$  trivial forgeries over  $[0, N - 1]$

Again, some padding is necessary!

## Proper RSA-SIG

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Let  $\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{P}^{-1}$  be RSA permutations with parameters  $N, e, d$ . Let  $\text{Pad}$  be a padding function. Define:

- ▶  $\text{Sig}(sk = (N, e, d), m) = \mathcal{P}^{-1}(\text{Pad}(m))$
- ▶  $\text{Ver}(pk = (N, e), \sigma, m) = \mathcal{P}(\sigma) == \text{Pad}(m) ? \top : \perp$
  
- ▶  $\text{Pad}$  does not need to be invertible
- ▶ It does not need to be randomized (tho this can help)



## What padding functions for RSA-SIG?

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Let  $k = \lceil \log(N) \rceil$

Full-Domain Hash (FDH) (Bellare & Rogaway; 1993):

- ▶ Let  $\mathcal{H} : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^k$  be a hash function,  $\text{Pad}(m) = \mathcal{H}(m)$

PFDH (Coron, 2002):

- ▶ Let  $\mathcal{H} : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^k$  be a hash function,  $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n$ ,  $\text{Pad}(m) = \mathcal{H}(m||r)$ 
  - ▶  $r$  is not included in the padding *per se*, but must be transmitted along
- ▶ Both are pretty simple, both provable in the random oracle model (ROM)
- ▶ The proof is *tighter* for PFDH (“good” security is obtained for smaller  $N$ )
- ▶  $\mathcal{H}$  can be instantiated by a XOF

## Another nice padding: PSS-R

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PSS-R (Bellare & Rogaway, 1996):

- ▶ Let  $\lfloor \log(N) \rfloor = k = k_0 + k_1 + k_2$ ,  $\mathcal{H} : \{0, 1\}^{k-k_1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_1}$ ,  
 $\mathcal{G} : \{0, 1\}^{k_1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{k-k_1}$  be two hash functions,  $r \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^{k_0}$
- ▶  $\text{Pad} : \{0, 1\}^{k_2} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^k$  is defined by  
$$\text{Pad}(x) = \mathcal{H}(x||r) || (x||r \oplus \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{H}(x||r)))$$
- ▶ If  $|x| < k_2$ , PSS-R is invertible (then, the message  $m$  does not need to be transmitted with the signature)
- ▶ Otherwise, e.g. compute  $\text{Pad}(x')$  where  $x' = \mathcal{I}(x)$ ,  
 $\mathcal{I} : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_2}$  a hash function (then,  $k_2$  must be “large enough”)

## More on PSS-R

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- ▶ In fact, PSS-R may also be used as padding for RSA-ENC (Coron & al., 2002)!
  - ▶ Notice the relative similarity between PSS-R and OAEP
- ▶ Both SIG and ENC cases are provably secure in the ROM
  - ▶ In the specific case of RSA, same as OAEP

## RSA-SIG: Quick implementation comments

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- ▶ The signer knows  $N$ ,  $e$ ,  $d$ , and also the factorization  $p \times q$  of  $N$
- ▶ Thanks to the CRT, any computation mod  $N$  (in particular  $m \mapsto m^d$ ) may be done mod  $p$  and mod  $q$
- ▶ A CRT implementation is more efficient, as multiplying two numbers does not have a linear cost
- ▶ In fact, such CRT decomposition is a useful approach for general big number arithmetic
- ▶  $\Rightarrow$  “RSA-CRT” implementations
  - ▶ More efficient, but beware of fault attacks! (That’s a general warning, tho)

One can also use the RSA permutation to define a PRNG (Micali & Schnorr, 1988). Let  $(N, e)$  be RSA parameters,  $n = \log(N)$ , then:

- 1 Start with a random (secret) seed  $x_0 \in [0, 2^r[$ ,  $2^r \ll N$
- 2 Step the generator by computing  $v_i = x_{i-1}^e \bmod N$
- 3 Extract the next secret state  $x_i$  from  $v_i = 2^k x_i + w_i$ ,  $k = n - r$
- 4 Output  $w_i$  as pseudo-random bits

Question: how small can  $r$  be?

- ▶ Should be at least  $n/e$ , otherwise modular reduction may not happen
- ▶ Micali and Schnorr proposed  $2n/e$ , which seems okay (Fouque & Zapalowicz, 2014)

# RSA, DH recap, comparison

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Roughly, hardness of factoring, DLOG  $\Rightarrow$  Asymmetric key exchange, public-key signatures

- ▶ Factoring  $\leadsto$  RSA: One-way permutation w. trapdoor, can be used for both
- ▶ DLOG  $\leadsto$  DH, Schnorr/DSA/...: No permutation, but same functionalities

There are some differences, tho

## Some DLOG schemes properties

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- ▶ For key exchange, can change the secret every time  $\Rightarrow$  “forward secrecy”
- ▶ For signatures, good randomness is essential! (Otherwise it breaks)
- ▶ Picking a random exponent is easy
- ▶ Picking a good group is not completely straightforward
- ▶ Some active attacks are possible
- ▶ It is possible to “break entire groups” (e.g.  $\mathbb{F}_p^\times$ )

## Some RSA properties

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- ▶ Secrets are fixed  $\Rightarrow$  a break can compromise a long history
- ▶ No randomness needed for signatures (e.g. basic FDH), randomness failures don't reveal the secret
- ▶ Generating parameters is somewhat hard
- ▶ But all of them are independent (in principle)