ECE 443/518 – Computer Cyber Security Lecture 09 The RSA Cryptosystem

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Modular *n*-th Root

Public-Key Cryptography

RSA

- ► This lecture: UC 6,7, except 7.6
- Next lecture: UC 8.1,8.5,13.3.1

### Outline

Modular *n*-th Root

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RSA

$$x^n \equiv a \pmod{m}$$
.

What if m is not a prime number?

• Consider m = pq where  $p \neq q$  are both prime numbers.

Idea

Solve the equation for p and q individually.

Then combine the results.

### Solve Modular *n*-th Root

 $x^n \equiv a \pmod{m}$ , where m = pq.

By Fermat's Little Theorem,

- For  $ny \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}$ ,  $(a^y)^n \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .
- For  $ny' \equiv 1 \pmod{q-1}$ ,  $(a^{y'})^n \equiv a \pmod{q}$ .

By Chinese Remainder Theorem,

- If we can choose y = y', then  $(a^y)^n \equiv a \pmod{pq}$ .
- This is possible if gcd(n, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

Solve  $ny \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$  to obtain y.

• We can solve  $x^n \equiv a \pmod{pq}$  if gcd(n, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1.

Solution:  $x \equiv a^y \pmod{m}$ , or practically  $x = a^y \mod m$ .

• Time complexity:  $O(N^3)$ 

Note that you cannot use this method to solve the seemingly very simple case of x<sup>2</sup> ≡ a (mod pq).

## Example

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Solve x<sup>5</sup> ≡ 197 (mod 221).
221 = 13 \* 17
Apply EEA to solve 5y ≡ 1 (mod 192)
y ≡ 77 (mod 192)
To compute x ≡ 197<sup>77</sup> (mod 221),
Use Chinese Remainder Theorem to simplify computation.
x ≡ 197<sup>77</sup> ≡ 2<sup>77</sup> ≡ 2<sup>5</sup> ≡ 6 (mod 13)
x ≡ 197<sup>77</sup> ≡ 10<sup>77</sup> ≡ 10<sup>13</sup> ≡ 11 (mod 17)
x ≡ 45 (mod 221)

$$x^n \equiv a \pmod{m}$$
.

But what if you don't know p and q for m = pq?

- Factor m into pq first, or
- Brute force: try  $x = 1, 2, \ldots, m-1$
- What are their time complexities?
  - Any better algorithms?
- Is this observation of any practical importance?

### Outline

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# Symmetric Cryptography Revisited



Fig. 6.1 Principle of symmetric-key encryption

(Paar and Pelzl)

- With the use of MAC as needed.
- Issue with Key Distribution: to establish a secret channel using symmetric cryptography, Alice and Bob need a secret channel to share the secret key k.
- Issue with Number of Keys: for a group of n people to communicate securely among each two of them, each people need to manage n keys and a total of n(n-1)/2 keys are needed.
- Issue with Nonrepudiation: Alice cannot prove to a third party that a ciphertext (with MAC) was sent by Bob as she also know the secret key k to generate the ciphertext.

# Public-Key Cryptography



#### Fig. 6.4 Basic protocol for public-key encryption

• Key pair k: a public  $k_{pub}$  and a private (secret)  $k_{pr}^{(Paar and Pelzl)}$ 

No one should be able to derive  $k_{pr}$  from  $k_{pub}$ .

- Key Distribution: to establish a secret channel, Alice only need to obtain Bob's k<sub>pub</sub> via an authentic channel.
- Number of Keys: each people just need to manage 1 key no matter how many people are there in the group.
- Nonrepudiation: via digital signatures if roles of k<sub>pr</sub> and k<sub>pub</sub> can be exchanged.
- Only if we could find such a cipher ...
  - For computationally unbounded adversaries?
  - For computationally bounded adversaries?
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# A Simple Hybrid Protocol



Fig. 6.5 Basic key transport protocol with AES as an example of a symmetric cipher

- In practice, symmetric ciphers remain very useful as public-key ciphers are usually orders of magnitude slower.
  - Use public-key ciphers to create a "slower" secure channel from an authentic channel between Alice and Bob.
  - Then Alice and Bob can use this "slower" secure channel to establish the secret key for symmetric ciphers, and thus create a "faster" secure channel.

### Outline

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- 1977: created by Ronald Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman
- 1983: RSA patent granted in US
- 1997: Clifford Cocks' equivalent system when working in the British intelligence agency GCHQ in 1973 was declassified.
- ▶ 2000: RSA patent expired in US

- Choose two prime numbers p and q.
- Compute n = pq.
- ► Choose a positive integer e such that gcd(e, (p − 1)(q − 1)) = 1.
- Solve  $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$  for a positive integer d.

• Public key: 
$$k_{pub} = (n, e)$$

• Private key: 
$$k_{pr} = (p, q, d)$$

- Use a public key from *Bob*, Alice can only encrypt the message but cannot decrypt the message.
  - Why? What are our assumptions?

- Oscar knows  $k_{pub} = (n, e)$  and the ciphertext y.
  - Assume n to be N bits.
- Apply brute force to find x
  - Need  $O(2^N)$  time.
- Factor n into p and q
  - Apply integer factorization.
  - If p and q are chosen to be around <sup>N</sup>/<sub>2</sub>-bit, then this will take Oscar O(2<sup>N</sup>/<sub>2</sub>) time.
- Both are not practical for large N.
  - At least N = 2048 to be secure in long term.

# Padding

- Oscar may derive useful statistics about plaintext from ciphertext since RSA is deterministic.
- Oscar may recover small x if e is small by trying to compute  $\sqrt[e]{y}$ ,  $\sqrt[e]{y+n}$ , etc. using usual (non-modular) math.
- Oscar may modify y to change the plaintext in predictable ways: for any chosen s, if y' = s<sup>e</sup>y, then x' = d<sub>kor</sub>(y') = sx.
- Use padding to introduce random structure into plaintext.
- E.g. Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OAEP) in Public Key Cryptography Standard #1 (PKCS #1).
- A lot of other considerations for both security and performance.

# Summary

### RSA

- Key generation: by Bob,  $k_{pub} = (n, e)$ ,  $k_{pr} = (p, q, d)$
- Encryption: everyone,  $y = e_{k_{pub}}(x) = x^e \mod n$ .
- Decryption: Bob only,  $x = d_{k_{pr}}(y) = y^d \mod pq$ .
- Assumption: Oscar cannot factorize n into p and q in polynomial time.
- Similar to other cryptosystems, there are a lot of pitfalls for actual implementation – you should follow documented standards exactly or use an established library instead.