

# Introduction to Cryptography

## CS 355

### Lecture 23



## Attacks on RSA

# Lecture Outline

- Quadratic Residues Modulo a composite number
- Attacks on RSA



# Notation clarification

- $Z_n^* = \{ 0 < a < n \mid \gcd(a, n) = 1 \}$
- $(Z_n^*, *)$  is a group
- $|Z_n^*| = \phi(n)$
- $Z_n^*$  is called the standard reduced set of residues modulo  $n$

# Quadratic Residues Modulo a Composite $n$

**Definition:**  $a$  is a **quadratic residue** modulo  $n$  ( $a \in Q_n$ ) if  $\exists b \in Z_n^*$  such that  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$ , otherwise when  $a \neq 0$ ,  $a$  is a **quadratic nonresidue**

**Fact:**  $a \in Q_n^*$ , where  $n=pq$ , iff.  $a \in Q_p$  and  $a \in Q_q$

- The “only if” direction:  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$ , then  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  and  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod{q}$
- The “if” direction: If  $b^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  and  $c^2 \equiv a \pmod{q}$ , then the four solutions to the four equation sets
  1.  $x \equiv b \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv c \pmod{q}$
  2.  $x \equiv b \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv -c \pmod{q}$
  3.  $x \equiv -b \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv c \pmod{q}$
  4.  $x \equiv -b \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv -c \pmod{q}$

satisfies  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$

# For example

- **Fact:** if  $n=pq$ , then  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  has four solutions that are  $<n$ .
  - $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  if and only if
    - both  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$
  - Two trivial solutions: 1 and  $n-1$ 
    - 1 is solution to  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$
    - $n-1$  is solution to  $x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv -1 \pmod{q}$
  - Two other solutions
    - solution to  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv -1 \pmod{q}$
    - solution to  $x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  and  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$
  - E.g.,  $n=3 \times 5=15$ , then  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{15}$  has the following solutions: 1, 4, 11, 14

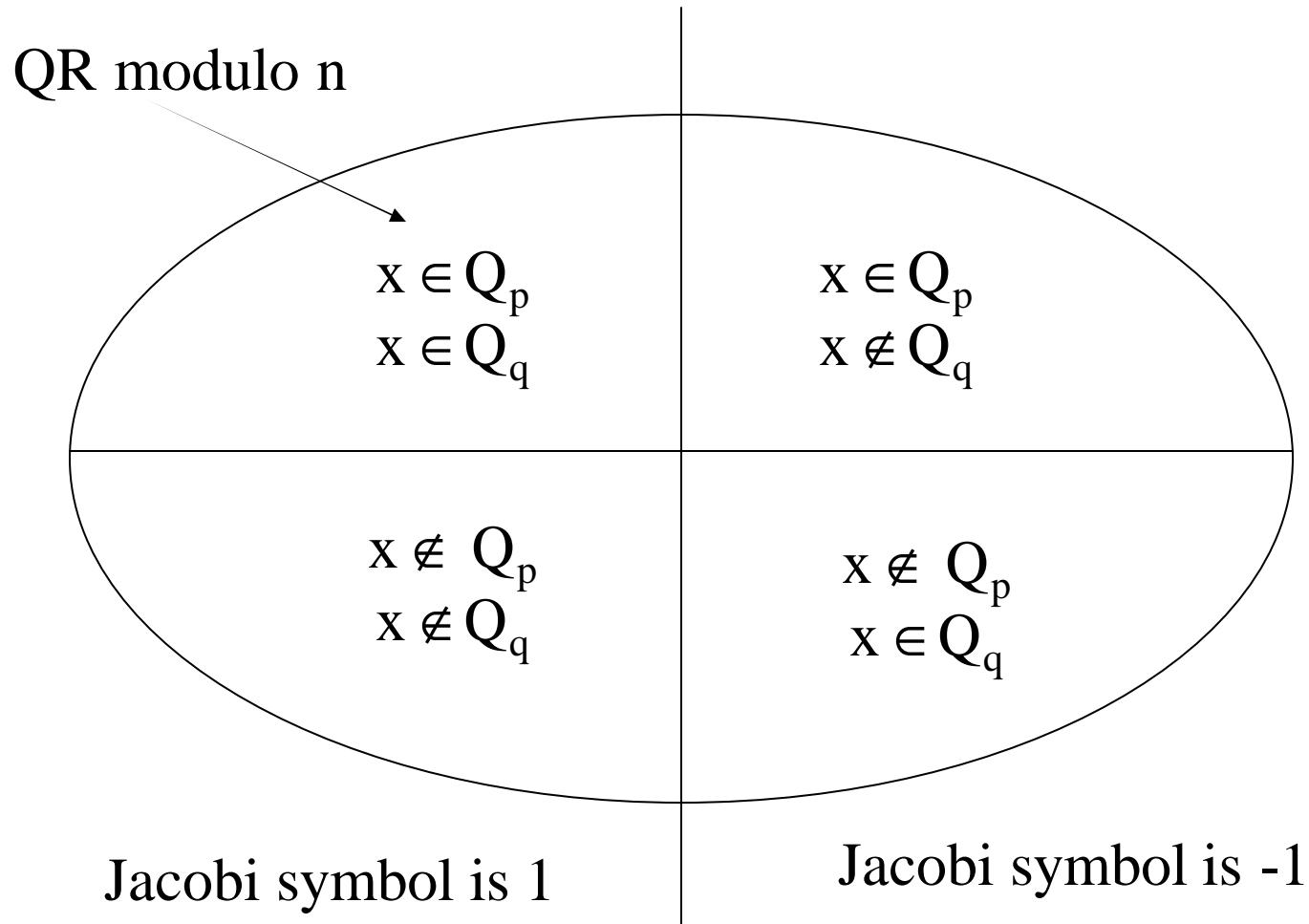
# Quadratic Residues Modulo a Composite

- $|\overline{Q}_n| = |\overline{Q}_p| \cdot |\overline{Q}_q| = (p-1)(q-1)/4$
- $\overline{Q}_n = 3(p-1)(q-1)/4$
- Jacobi symbol does not tell whether a number  $a$  is a QR

$$\left(\frac{a}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \left(\frac{a}{q}\right)$$

- when it is  $-1$ , then either  $a \in Q_p \wedge a \notin Q_q$  or  $a \notin Q_p \wedge a \in Q_q$ , then  $a$  is not QR
- when it is  $1$ , then either  $a \in Q_p \wedge a \in Q_q$  or  $a \notin Q_p \wedge a \notin Q_q$
- it is widely believed that determining QR modulo  $n$  is equivalent to factoring  $n$ , no proof is known
  - without factoring, one can guess correctly with prob.  $1/2$

# Integers in $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$



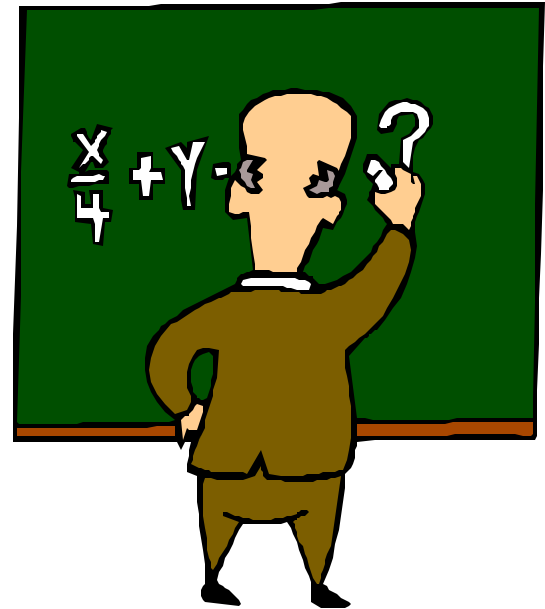
# Attacks on RSA

- Goals:
  - recover secret key  $d$ 
    - Brute force key search
      - infeasible
    - Timing attacks
    - Mathematical attacks
  - decrypt one message
  - learn information from the cipher texts



# Math-Based Key Recovery Attacks

- Three possible approaches:
  1. Factor  $n = pq$
  2. Determine  $\Phi(n)$
  3. Find the private key  $d$  directly
- All the above are equivalent to factoring  $n$ 
  - 1 implies 2
  - 2 implies 3
  - we show 2 implies 1 and 3 implies 1



# Factoring Large Numbers

- Three most effective algorithms are
  - quadratic sieve
  - elliptic curve factoring algorithm
  - number field sieve
- One idea many factoring algorithms use:
  - Suppose one find  $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$  such that  $x \not\equiv y \pmod{n}$  and  $x \not\equiv -y \pmod{n}$ . Then  $n \mid (x-y)(x+y)$ . Neither  $(x-y)$  or  $(x+y)$  is divisible by  $n$ ; thus,  $\gcd(x-y, n)$  has a non-trivial factor of  $n$

# Time complexity of factoring

- quadratic sieve:
  - $O(e^{(1+o(1))\sqrt{\ln n \ln \ln n}})$  for  $n$  around  $2^{1024}$ ,  $O(e^{68})$
- elliptic curve factoring algorithm
  - $O(e^{(1+o(1))\sqrt{2 \ln p \ln \ln p}})$ , where  $p$  is the smallest prime factor
  - for  $n=pq$  and  $p, q$  around  $2^{512}$ , for  $n$  around  $2^{1024}$   $O(e^{65})$
- number field sieve
  - $O(e^{(1.92+o(1)) (\ln n)^{1/3} (\ln \ln n)^{2/3}})$ , for  $n$  around  $2^{1024}$   $O(e^{60})$
- Multiple 512-bit moduli have been factored
- Extrapolating trends of factoring suggests that
  - 768-bit moduli will be factored by 2010
  - 1024-bit moduli will be factored by 2018

# $\Phi(n)$ implies factorization

- Knowing both  $n$  and  $\Phi(n)$ , one knows

$$n = pq$$

$$\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = pq - p - q + 1$$

$$= n - p - n/p + 1$$

$$p\Phi(n) = np - p^2 - n + p$$

$$p^2 - np + \Phi(n)p - p + n = 0$$

$$p^2 + (\Phi(n) - n - 1)p + n = 0$$

- There are two solutions of  $p$  in the above equation, which is in standard (rather than modular) arithmetic

- Both  $p$  and  $q$  are solutions.

# Factoring when knowing $e$ and $d$

- Knowing  $ed$  such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\Phi(n)}$ 
  - write  $ed - 1 = 2^s r$  ( $r$  odd)
  - choose  $w$  at random such that  $1 < w < n-1$
  - if  $w$  not relative prime to  $n$  then return  $\gcd(w, n)$ 
    - (if  $\gcd(w, n) = 1$ , what value is  $(w^{2^s r} \pmod n)$ ?)
  - compute  $w^r, w^{2r}, w^{4r}, \dots$ , by successive squaring until find  $w^{2^t r} \equiv 1 \pmod n$
  - Fails when  $w^r \equiv 1 \pmod n$  or  $w^{2^t r} \equiv -1 \pmod n$
  - Failure probability is less than  $\frac{1}{2}$  (Proof is complicated)

# Summary of Key Recovery Math-based Attacks on RSA

- Three possible approaches:
  1. Factor  $n = pq$
  2. Determine  $\Phi(n)$
  3. Find the private key  $d$  directly
- All are equivalent
  - finding out  $d$  implies factoring  $n$
  - if factoring is hard, so is finding out  $d$
- Should never have different users share one common modulus
  - (why?)

# Decryption attacks on RSA

- The RSA Problem: Given a positive integer  $n$  that is a product of two distinct large primes  $p$  and  $q$ , a positive integer  $e$  such that  $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1))=1$ , and an integer  $c$ , find an integer  $m$  such that  $m^e \equiv c \pmod{n}$ 
  - widely believed that the RSA problem is computationally equivalent to integer factorization; however, no proof is known
- The security of RSA encryption's scheme depends on the hardness of the RSA problem.

# Other Decryption Attacks on RSA

## Small encryption exponent $e$

- When  $e=3$ , Alice sends the encryption of message  $m$  to three people (public keys  $(e, n_1)$ ,  $(e, n_2)$ ,  $(e, n_3)$ )
  - $C_1 = M^3 \bmod n_1$ ,  $C_2 = M^3 \bmod n_2$ ,  $C_3 = M^3 \bmod n_3$ ,
- An attacker can compute a solution to the following system

$$x \equiv c_1 \pmod{n_1}$$

$$x \equiv c_2 \pmod{n_2}$$

$$x \equiv c_3 \pmod{n_3}$$

- The solution  $x$  modulo  $n_1 n_2 n_3$  must be  $M^3$ 
  - (No modulus!), one can compute integer cubit root
- Countermeasure: padding required



# Other Attacks on RSA

## Forward Search Attack

- If the message space is small, the attacker can create a dictionary of encrypted messages (public key known, encrypt all possible messages and store them)
- When the attacker 'sees' a message on the network, compares the encrypted messages, so he finds out what particular message was encrypted

QuickTime™ and a TIFF (Uncompressed) decompressor are needed to see this picture.

# Coming Attractions ...

- Discrete Log
- Diffie-Hellman
- ElGamal Encryption

