


The Fundamental Equation

$$Z = Y^X \pmod N$$

When Z is unknown, it can be efficiently computed.

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The Fundamental Equation

$$Z = Y^X \pmod N$$

When X is unknown, the problem is known as the *discrete logarithm* and is generally believed to be hard to solve.

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The Fundamental Equation

$$Z = Y^X \pmod N$$

When Y is unknown, the problem is known as *discrete root finding* and is generally believed to be hard to solve ... without the factorization of N .

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The Fundamental Equation

$$Z = Y^X \pmod N$$

The problem is not well-studied for the case when N is unknown.

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How to compute $Y^X \pmod N$

Compute Y^X and then reduce $\pmod N$.

- ◆ If X , Y , and N each are 1,000-bit integers, Y^X consists of $\sim 2^{1010}$ bits.
- ◆ Since there are roughly 2^{250} particles in the universe, storage is a problem.


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How to compute $Y^X \pmod N$

- ◆ Repeatedly multiplying by Y (followed each time by a reduction modulo N) X times solves the storage problem.
- ◆ However, we would need to perform $\sim 2^{900}$ 32-bit multiplications per second to complete the computation before the sun burns out.

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How to compute $Y^X \bmod N$

Multiplication by Repeated Doubling

To compute $X \cdot Y$,
 compute $Y, 2Y, 4Y, 8Y, 16Y, \dots$
 and sum up those values dictated by the binary
 representation of X .

Example: $26Y = 2Y + 8Y + 16Y$.

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How to compute $Y^X \bmod N$

Exponentiation by Repeated Squaring

To compute Y^X ,
 compute $Y, Y^2, Y^4, Y^8, Y^{16}, \dots$
 and multiply those values dictated by the binary
 representation of X .

Example: $Y^{26} = Y^2 \cdot Y^8 \cdot Y^{16}$.

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How to compute $Y^X \bmod N$

We can now perform a 1,000-bit modular
 exponentiation using ~1,500 1,000-bit
 modular multiplications.

- ◆ 1,000 squarings: $y, y^2, y^4, \dots, y^{2^{1000}}$
- ◆ ~500 “ordinary” multiplications

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The Fundamental Equation

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RSA Encryption/Decryption

- ◆ Select two large primes p and q .
- ◆ Publish the product $N = pq$.
- ◆ The exponent X is typically fixed at 65537.
- ◆ Encrypt message Y as $E(Y) = Y^X \bmod N$.
- ◆ Decrypt ciphertext Z as $D(Z) = Z^{1/X} \bmod N$.
- ◆ Note $D(E(Y)) = (Y^X)^{1/X} \bmod N = Y$.

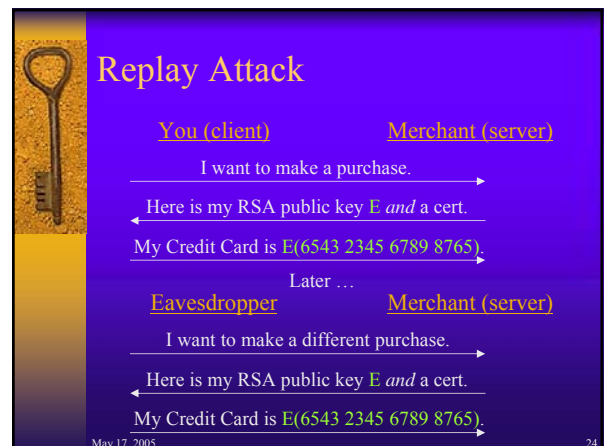
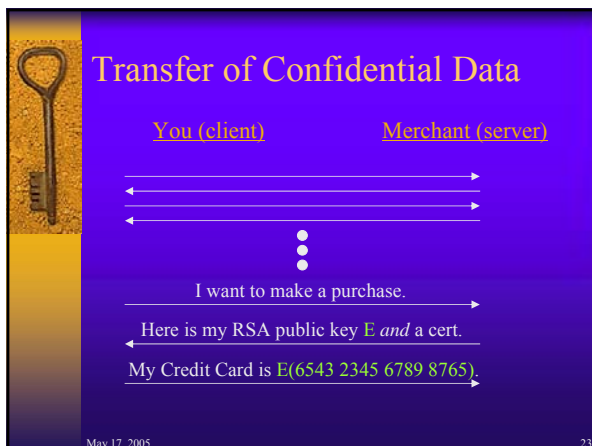
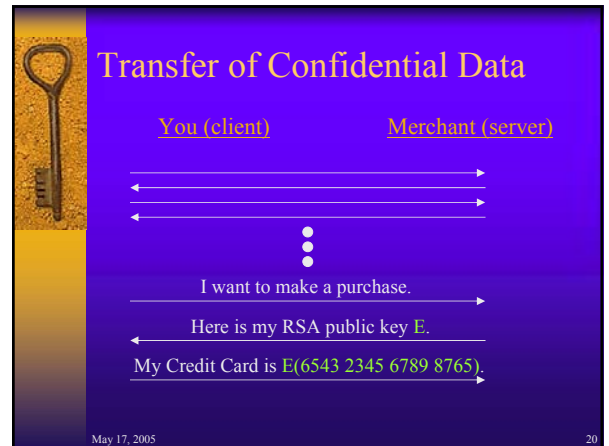
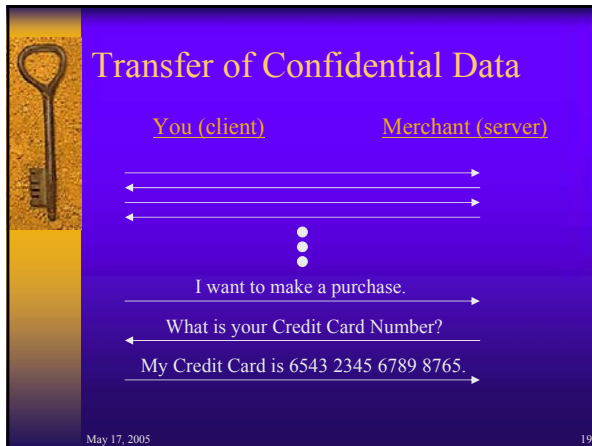
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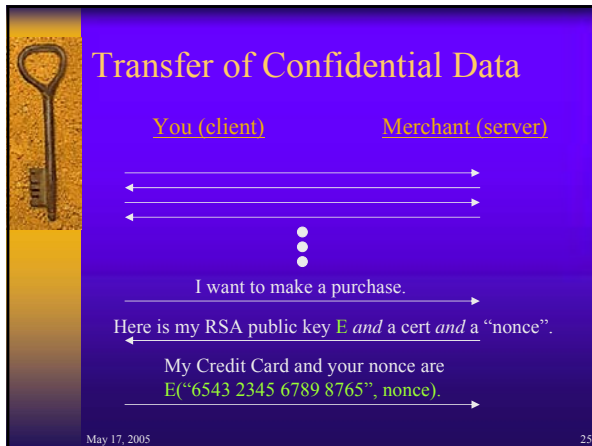


RSA Signatures and Verification

- ◆ Not only is $D(E(Y)) = (Y^X)^{1/X} \bmod N = Y$,
 but also $E(D(Y)) = (Y^{1/X})^X \bmod N = Y$.
- ◆ To form a signature of message Y , create
 $S = D(Y) = Y^{1/X} \bmod N$.
- ◆ To verify the signature, check that
 $E(S) = S^X \bmod N$ matches Y .

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- ## SSL/PCT/TLS History
- ◆ 1994: Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) V2.0
 - ◆ 1995: Private Communication Technology (PCT) V1.0
 - ◆ 1996: Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) V3.0
 - ◆ 1997: Private Communication Technology (PCT) V4.0
 - ◆ 1999: Transport Layer Security (TLS) V1.0
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SSL/TLS

All subsequent secure messages are sent using the symmetric key and a keyed hash for message authentication.

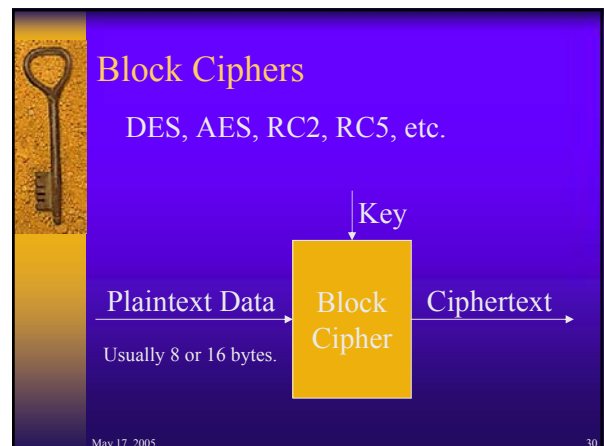
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Symmetric Ciphers

Private-key (symmetric) ciphers are usually divided into two classes.

- ◆ Block ciphers
- ◆ Stream ciphers

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Block Cipher Modes

Electronic Code Book (ECB) Encryption:

The diagram shows four green rectangular blocks representing Plaintext. Below each block is a yellow box labeled 'Block Cipher'. Arrows point from each Plaintext block to its corresponding Block Cipher box. Below each Block Cipher box is a green rectangular block representing Ciphertext. Arrows point from each Block Cipher box to its corresponding Ciphertext block.

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Block Cipher Modes

Electronic Code Book (ECB) Decryption:

The diagram shows four green rectangular blocks representing Ciphertext. Above each block is a yellow box labeled 'Inverse Cipher'. Arrows point from each Ciphertext block to its corresponding Inverse Cipher box. Above each Inverse Cipher box is a green rectangular block representing Plaintext. Arrows point from each Inverse Cipher box to its corresponding Plaintext block.

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Block Cipher Integrity

With ECB mode, identical blocks will have identical encryptions.

This can enable replay attacks as well as re-orderings of data. Even a passive observer may obtain statistical data.

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Block Cipher Modes

Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Encryption:

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Stream Ciphers

RC4, SEAL, etc.

- ◆ Use the key as a seed to a pseudo-random number-generator.
- ◆ Take the stream of output bits from the PRNG and XOR it with the plaintext to form the ciphertext.

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Stream Cipher Encryption

Plaintext: ■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■

PRNG(seed): ⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕⊕

Ciphertext: ■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■■

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Stream Cipher Integrity

- It is easy for an adversary (even one who can't decrypt the ciphertext) to alter the plaintext in a known way.

Bob to Bob's Bank:
Please transfer \$0,000,002.00 to the account of my good friend Alice.

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One-Way Hash Functions

The idea of a *checksum* is great, but it is designed to prevent accidental changes in a message.

For cryptographic integrity, we need an integrity check that is resilient against a smart and determined adversary.

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One-Way Hash Functions

MD4, MD5, SHA-1, SHA-256, etc.

Generally, a *one-way hash function* is a function $H : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^k$ (typically k is 128 or 160) such that given an input value x , one cannot find a value $x' \neq x$ such that $H(x) = H(x')$.

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One-Way Hash Functions

There are many measures for one-way hashes.

- Non-invertability: given y , it's difficult to find any x such that $H(x) = y$.
- Collision-intractability: one cannot find a pair of values $x' \neq x$ such that $H(x) = H(x')$.

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One-Way Hash Functions

- ◆ When using a stream cipher, a hash of the message can be appended to ensure integrity. [Message Authentication Code]
- ◆ When forming a digital signature, the signature need only be applied to a hash of the message. [Message Digest]

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