

# Cryptography II

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[bitcoinbook.cs.princeton.edu](http://bitcoinbook.cs.princeton.edu)

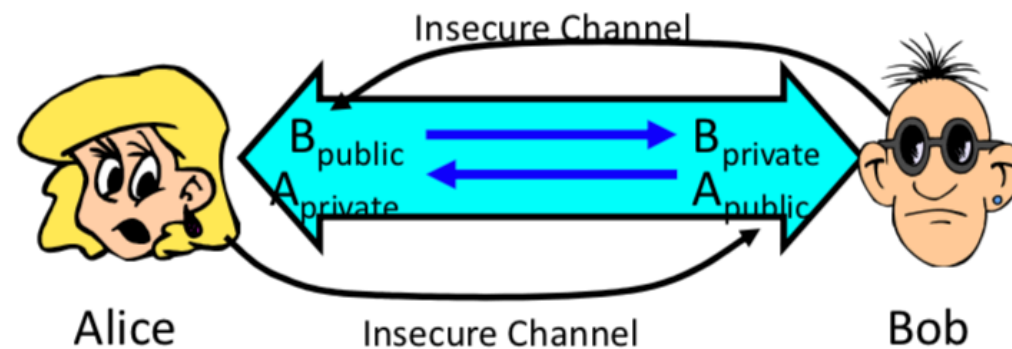
# Public key encryption

- Another way of distributing keys without an authentication server is using a cryptographic system that each user possesses two keys, public and private keys
  - Asymmetric-key cryptography
- Example of public-key crypto system
  - RSA: from Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman, inventors of the scheme
  - ECC: Elliptic Curve Cryptography

# Public key encryption

- Require two keys,  $K_{\text{public}}$  and  $K_{\text{private}}$ 
  - Both keys are mathematically related, but it is extremely hard to derive  $K_{\text{public}}$  from  $K_{\text{private}}$  and vice versa
- Forward encryption:
  - Encrypt:  $(\text{plaint text})^{K_{\text{public}}} = \text{cipher text}_1$
  - Decrypt:  $(\text{cipher text}_1)^{K_{\text{private}}} = \text{plain text}$
- Reverse encryption:
  - Encrypt:  $(\text{plain text})^{K_{\text{private}}} = \text{cipher text}_2$
  - Decrypt:  $(\text{cipher text}_2)^{K_{\text{public}}} = \text{plain text}$
- $\text{cipher text}_1 \neq \text{cipher text}_2$

# Public key encryption

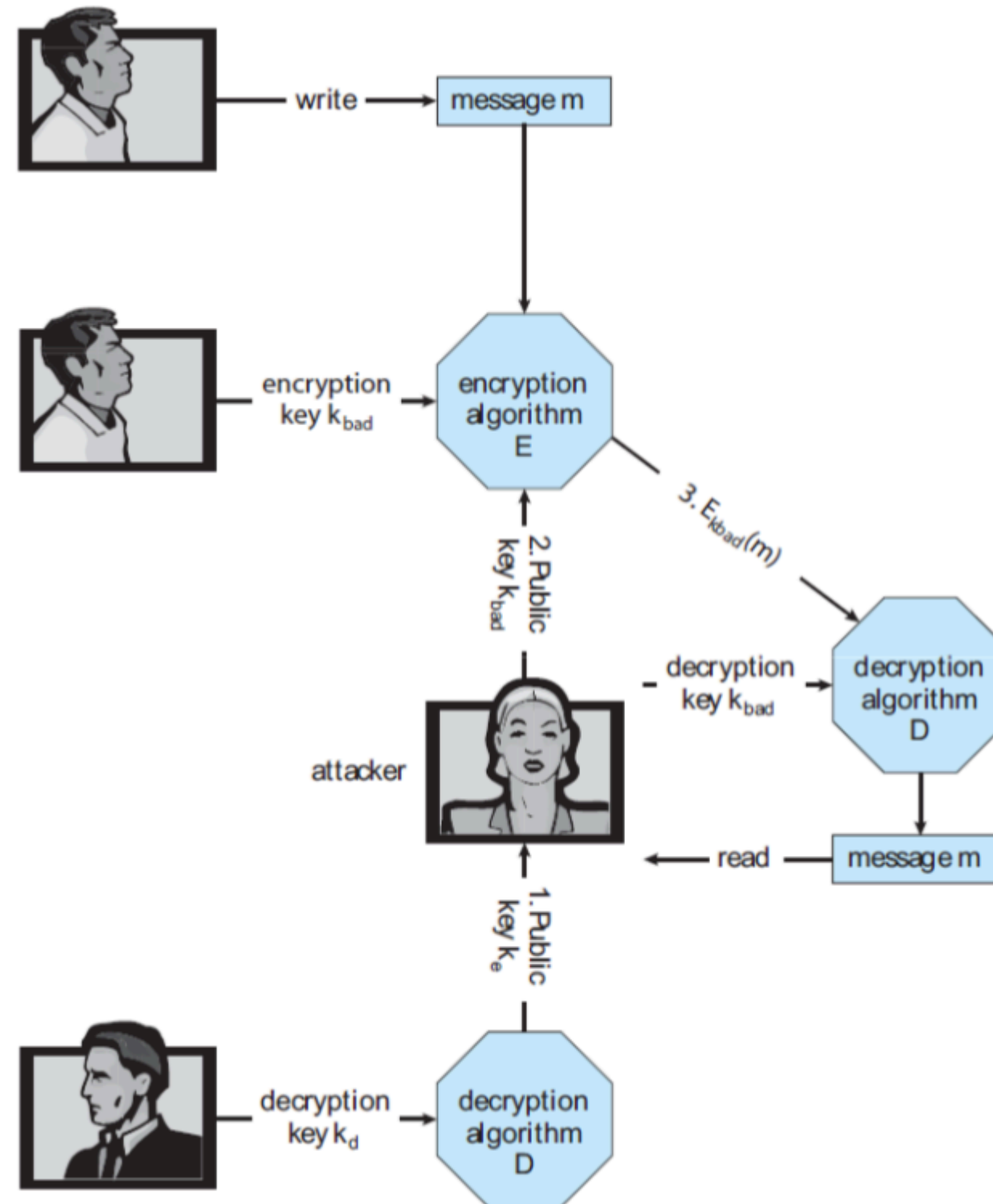


- $K_{\text{public}}$  is to be made public, but  $K_{\text{private}}$  **must absolutely be kept secret**
- Provide data privacy as the only person that can unlock the secret must have the private key in possession
- Can be used for authentication, e.g., Alice wants to ascertain to Bob that she is, indeed, Alice:

**Alice → Bob: [(I'm Alice) <sup>$A_{\text{private}}$</sup>  Rest of message] <sup>$B_{\text{public}}$</sup>**

The main problem in public key encryption: How does Alice know that  $B_{\text{public}}$  actually belongs to Bob, not someone masquerading as Bob

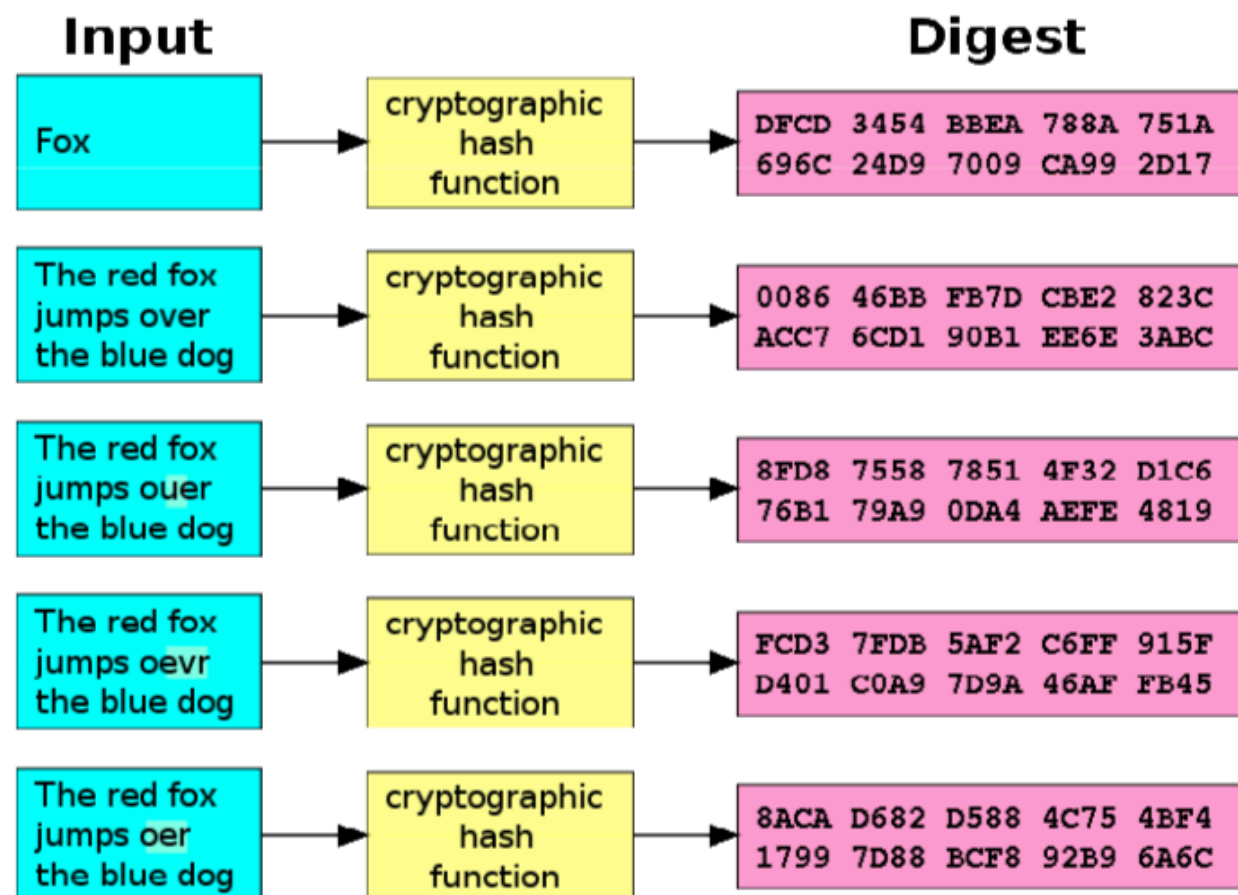
# Man-in-the-middle (MIM) attack in asymmetric key crypto system



**We will come to save this MIM later, but we need to introduce a few cryptographic constructs first, starting with hash functions**

# Secure hash function

- Output of a secure hash function represents a summary of the input message
  - E.g.,  $h_1 = H(M_1)$  is a hash of  $M_1$  such that  $h_1$  is a string of fixed size (e.g., 256 bits), even though  $M_1$  size may vary
  - $h_1$  is called the “digest” of  $M_1$



# Security Properties

- Collision-free
- Hiding
- Puzzle-friendly

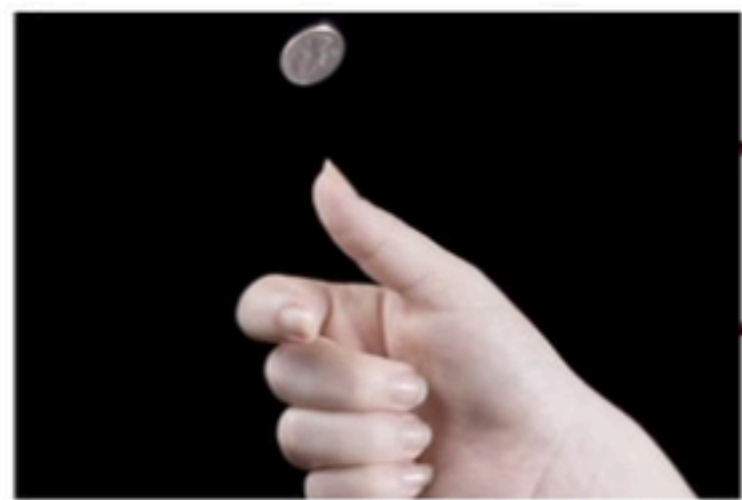


# Collision-Free

- Want: no one should be able to find two different  $x$  and  $y$  values such that  $H(x) = H(y)$
- But, collisions do exist according to the Pigeonhole principle
- For some hash functions, collisions can easily be found, e.g., modulo function
- But, for secure cryptographic hash functions, collisions must be extremely hard, if not impossible, to find

# Hiding

- Want: given  $H(x)$ , it is impossible to reverse the process to discover the input  $x$
- However, if  $x$  is derived from a small domain, this hiding property may not be easily obtained
- So, we concatenate this  $x$  with  $r$ , where  $r$  is some random bit strings from a very large and uniformly distributed domain (e.g.,  $r$  is a random string of 256 bits)
- Then, we calculate the hash  $H(r \parallel x)$



$H(\text{"heads"})$

$H(\text{"tails"})$

Hiding is difficult if inputs are derived from a small domain, need the  $r$  value to enforce hiding

# Puzzle-Friendly

- Want: for every output,  $y$ , if  $k$  is derived from a uniformly distributed and large domain, it is impossible to find  $x$  such that  $H(k \parallel x) = y$

Bitcoin uses this property in its Proof-of-Work scheme (more on this in later lectures)

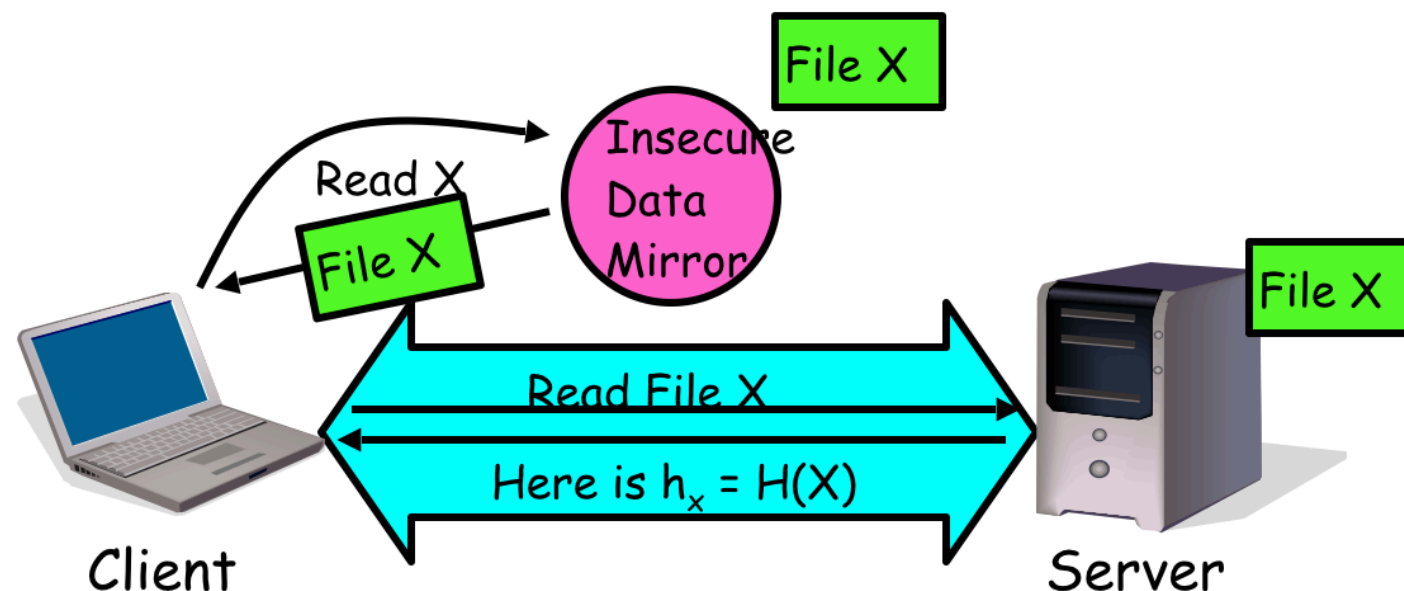
# Hash function ขอดนิยม

- MD5
  - 128-bit output
  - Chinese researchers breaks the collision resistance property back in 2004
- SHA1
  - 160-bit output
  - Security researchers has not recommended SHA1 for secure hash function since 2005
  - In 2017, a team of Google researchers breaks the collision resistance property
    - [security.googleblog.com/2017/02/announcing-first-sha1-collision.html](https://security.googleblog.com/2017/02/announcing-first-sha1-collision.html)
- SHA2 (SHA-224 SHA-256 SHA-384 SHA-512)
  - Has digest sizes of 224, 256, 384, and 512 bits, respectively
  - No security problems encountered so far

# Usage of Hash Functions

# Secure download

- Downloading securely from untrusted mirror sites
  - Mirror sites are to reduce the burden on the main secured server
- Before downloading from a mirror site, contact the main secured server to obtain the hash of the file to download
- With collision-free property, it is impossible to find another file with a different content that can generate the same hash output



# Commitment

- Analogous to sealing a secret inside of an envelope to be opened at a later time, e.g., asking prices in a bidding process

**Commitment API** this is “com” that is revealed to everyone

$\text{commit}(msg) := ( \boxed{H(key \mid msg)}, H(key) )$

where  $key$  is a random 256-bit value

$\text{verify}(com, key, msg) := ( H(key \mid msg) == com )$

Security properties:

Hiding: Given  $H(key \mid msg)$ , infeasible to find  $msg$ .

Binding: Infeasible to find  $msg \neq msg'$  such that

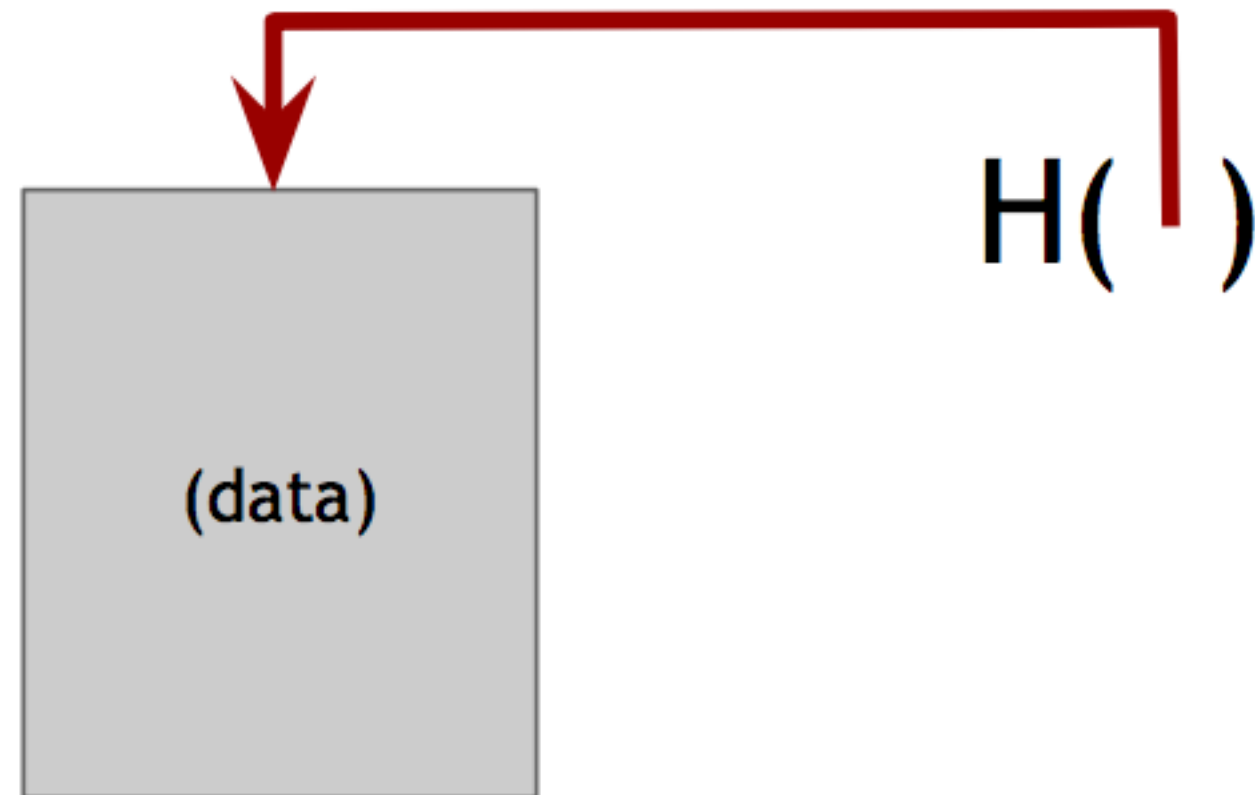
$H(key \mid msg) == H(key \mid msg')$



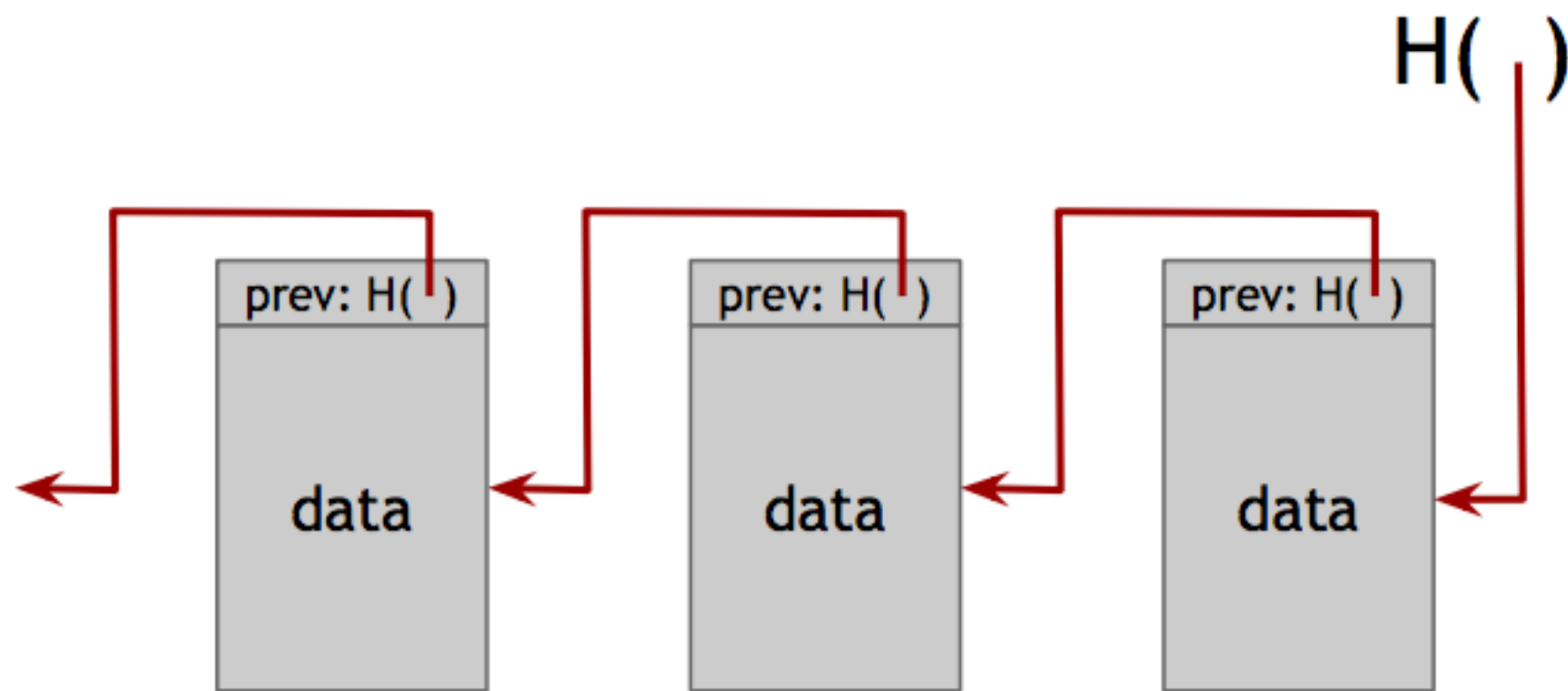
# Hash Pointer

- Is a reference to the beginning address that stores the data together with its hash value
- With a hash pointer, we can
  - Access the data
  - Verify the integrity of the data
- Can combine hash pointers with other dynamic data structures as linked-list or tree for some sophisticated integrity checking

# Hash pointer symbol



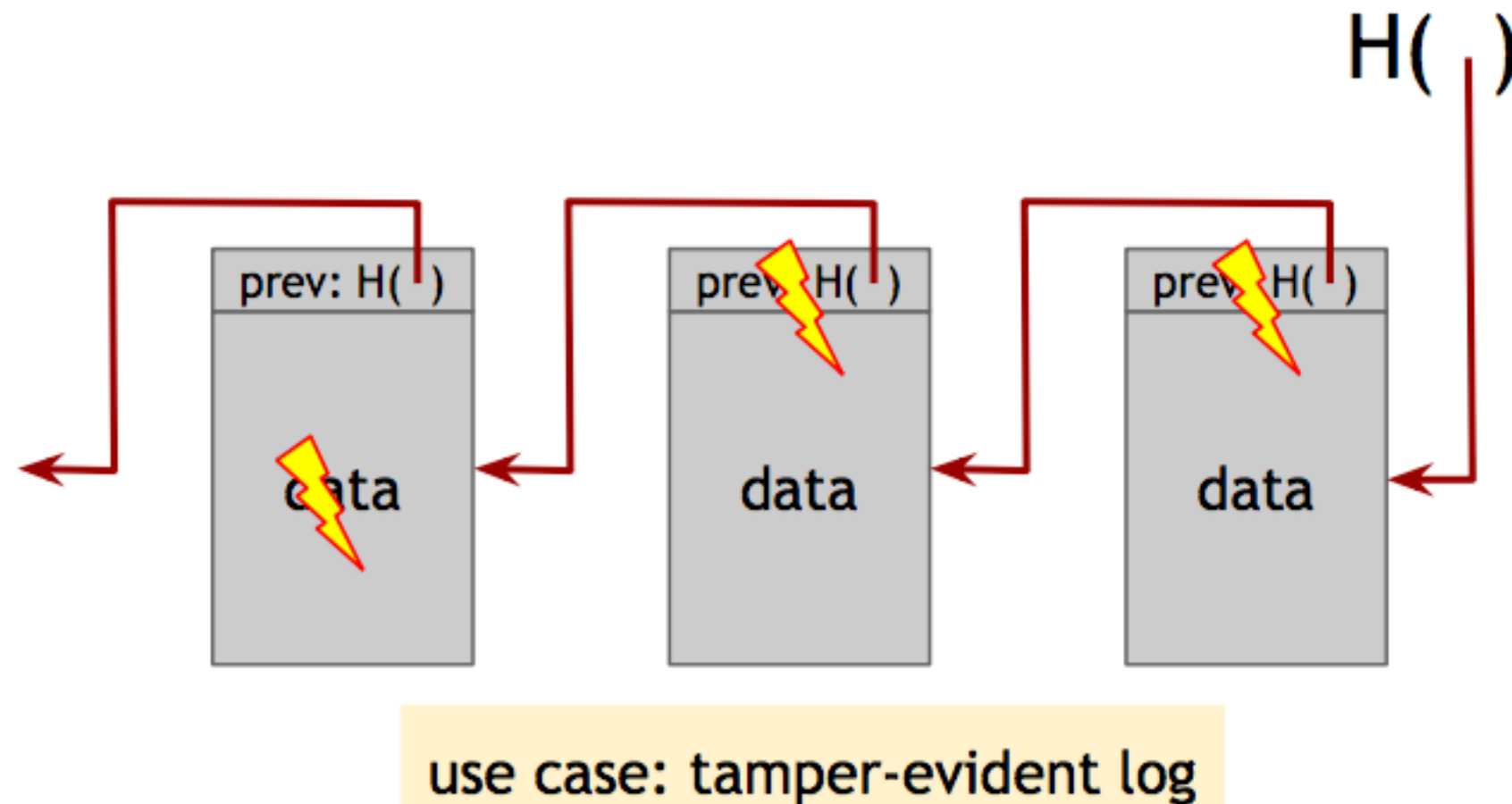
linked list with hash pointers = “block chain”



use case: tamper-evident log

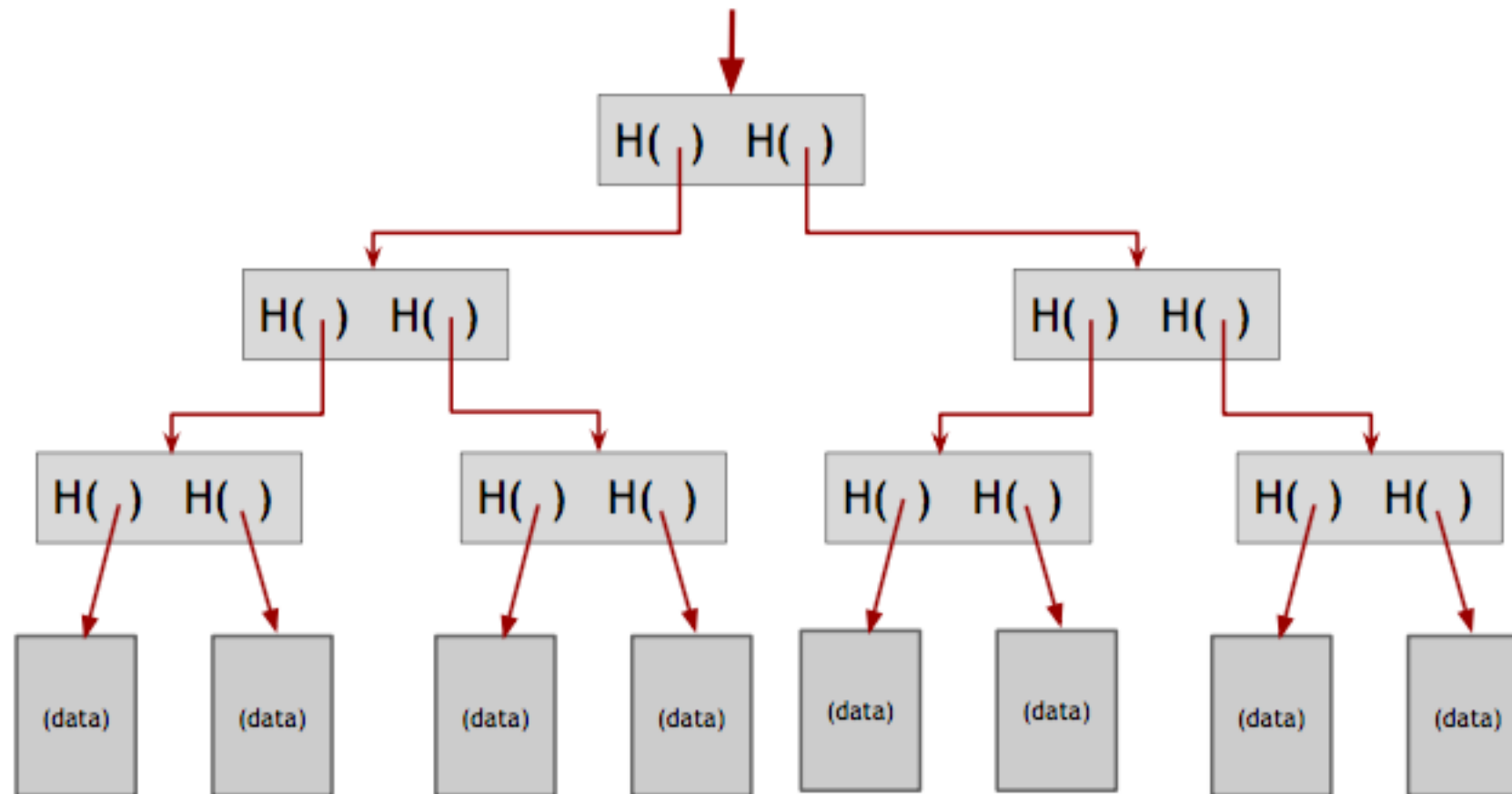
## detecting tampering

Hash of the head (or root) is kept separate from the rest of the database



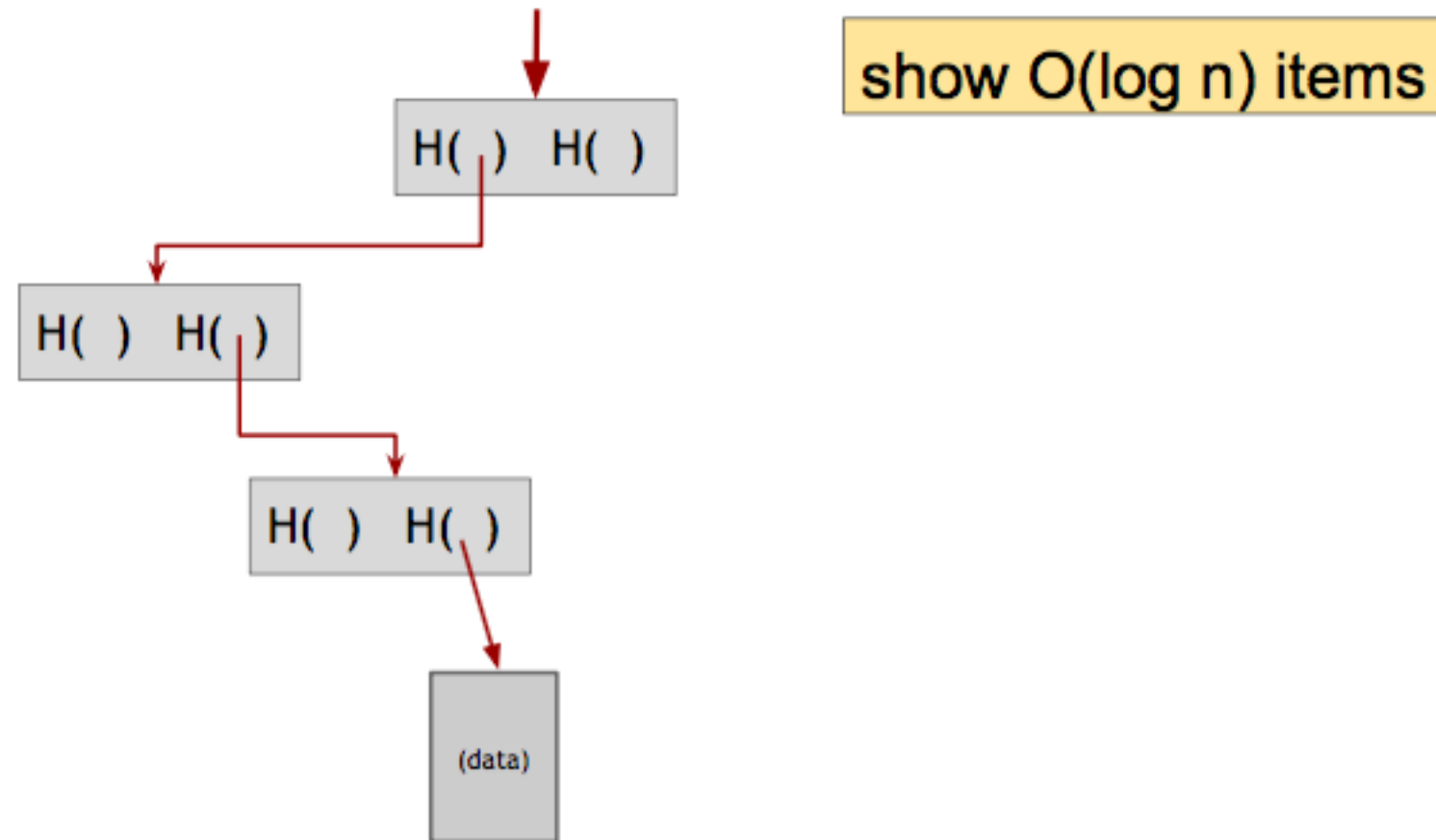
An attacker needs to modify all data and hashes in the log, but will hit a roadblock as he/she cannot get to the root hash

binary tree with hash pointers = “Merkle tree”



Merkle tree style root hash calculation

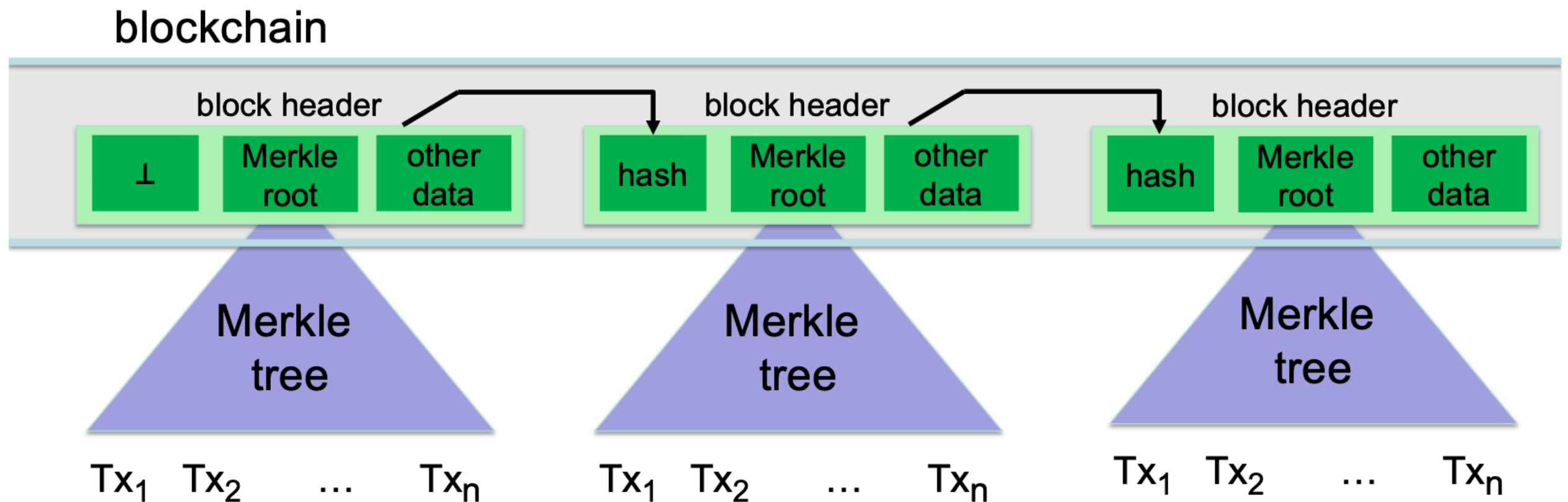
## proving membership in a Merkle tree



Membership of a data block in the set of  $n$  data blocks can be verified using only  $O(\log n)$  size of evidence

If you do it in a linear fashion, the size of evidence needed for such verification is  $O(n)$

# Abstract block chain



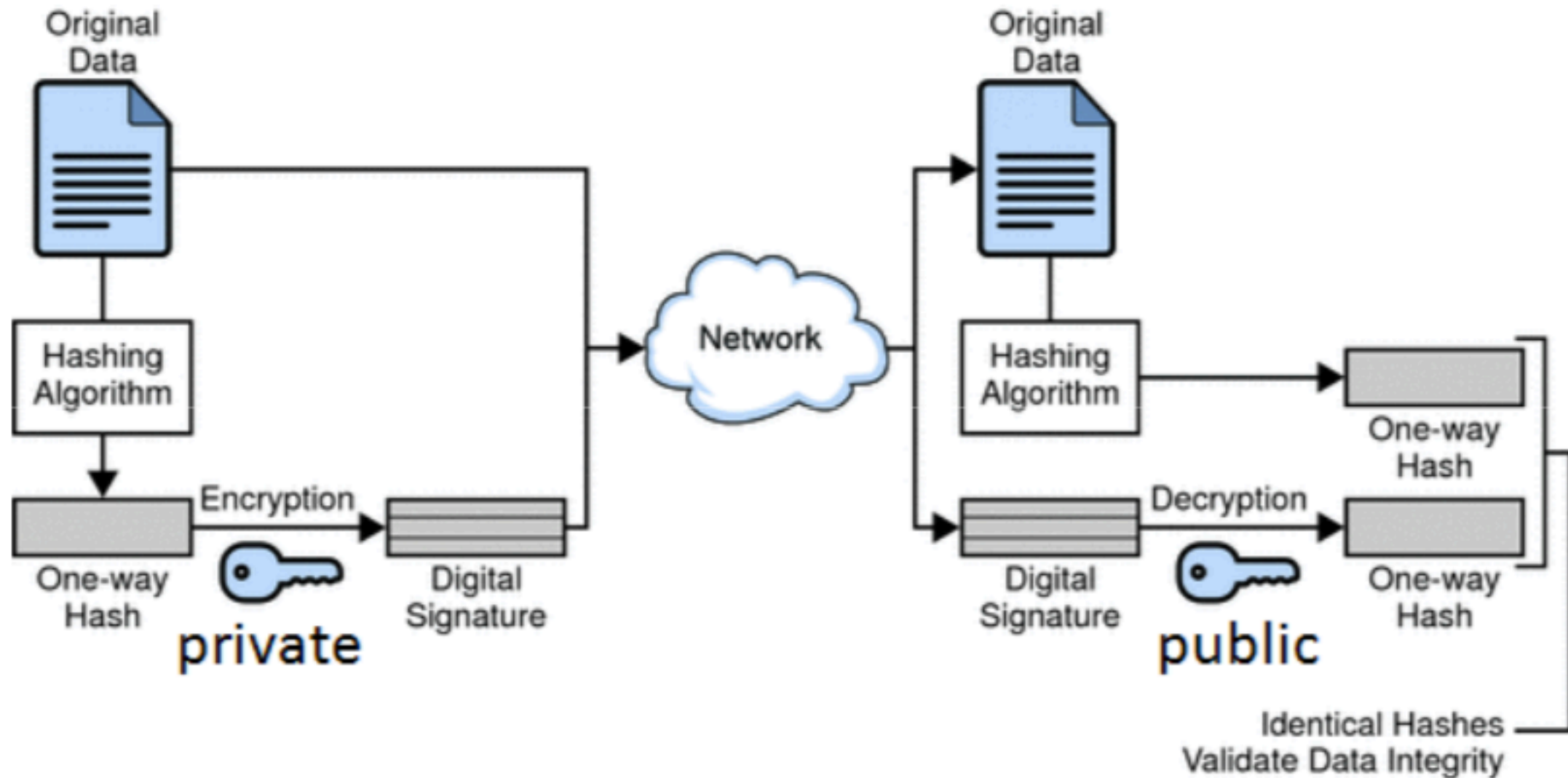
Merkle tree in blockchain; Tx can be verified to be included in a given block in Merkle tree style

# Digital Signature

- Use the key  $X_{\text{public}}$  to represent a person (X has  $X_{\text{public}}$  as its identity)
  - X must be the only person who knows the corresponding private key,  $X_{\text{private}}$
- If the signature of X is required on a document, M
  - Construct the digital signature using the private key and the encryption of the digest of M:
    - Digital signature =  $(H(M))^{X_{\text{private}}}$
  - Send the signed message, M and its digital signature, to the receiver:
    - Signed message =  $[M, (H(M))^{X_{\text{private}}}]$
  - The receiver can verify 2 things: 1) if the signed message contains the true digital signature 2) the integrity of M
    - Three steps:
      - Decrypt the digest of M with  $X_{\text{public}}$
      - Verify that this digest is, indeed,  $H(M)$
      - Hash M to see if you get  $H(M)$



# Digital Signature Illustrative Diagram



# Non-Repudiation

- If the private key is never revealed to anyone beside X, the digital signature of X has non-repudiation property:
  - X cannot deny his/her associations/actions with  $X_{\text{private}}$
- This non-repudiation property can not be had in a symmetric-key crypto system
  - If Alice sends a message to Bob, Alice can refuse that she ever sent that message and claim that Bob was sending the message to himself

# Digital signature used blockchain

1. RSA signatures (not used in blockchains):
    - long sigs and public keys ( $\geq 256$  bytes), fast to verify
  2. Discrete-log signatures: Schnorr and ECDSA (Bitcoin, Ethereum)
    - short sigs (48 or 64 bytes) and public keys (32 bytes)
  3. BLS signatures: 48 bytes, aggregatable, easy threshold  
(Ethereum 2.0, Chia, Dfinity)
- 
4. Post-quantum signatures: long ( $\geq 768$  bytes)

**Let's revisit the man-in-the-middle  
inherent in a public-key crypto system**

# Certificate authorities

- How do we know that  $X_{\text{public}}$  really belongs to X and we are not facing a man-in-the-middle attack
  - The answer: trust a certificate authority (CA) such as Verisign or Entrust
  - X goes to a CA to presents the necessary evidence to authenticate himself
    - CA signs  $X_{\text{public}}$  with the CA's digital signature to ascertain the  $X_{\text{public}}$  does belong to X: **[  $X_{\text{public}}$ ,  $H(X_{\text{public}})^{\text{CA}_{\text{private}}}$  ] - this is a certificate**
  - Before we use  $X_{\text{public}}$  in a communication session, ask X for the certificate of  $X_{\text{public}}$
  - Then, verify the authenticity of the certificate with  **$\text{CA}_{\text{public}}$**
  - Where do we obtain all these  **$\text{CA}_{\text{public}}$**  ?
    - Browser vendors compile these public keys of various CAs into browser programs

# Certificate format

X.509

I hereby certify that the public key

19836A8B03030CF83737E3837837FC3s87092827262643FFA82710382828282A

belongs to

Robert John Smith

12345 University Avenue

Berkeley, CA 94702

Birthday: July 4, 1958

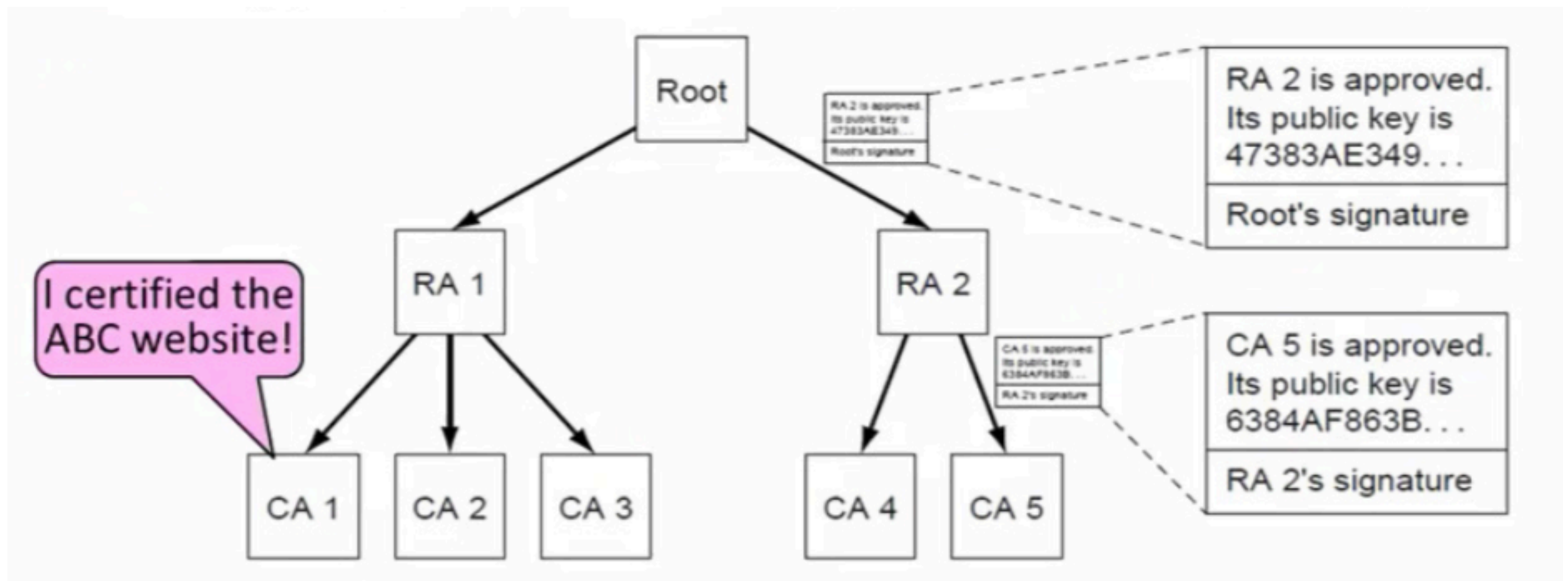
Email: bob@superdupernet.com

Signed by CA



# PKI (Public Key Infrastructure)

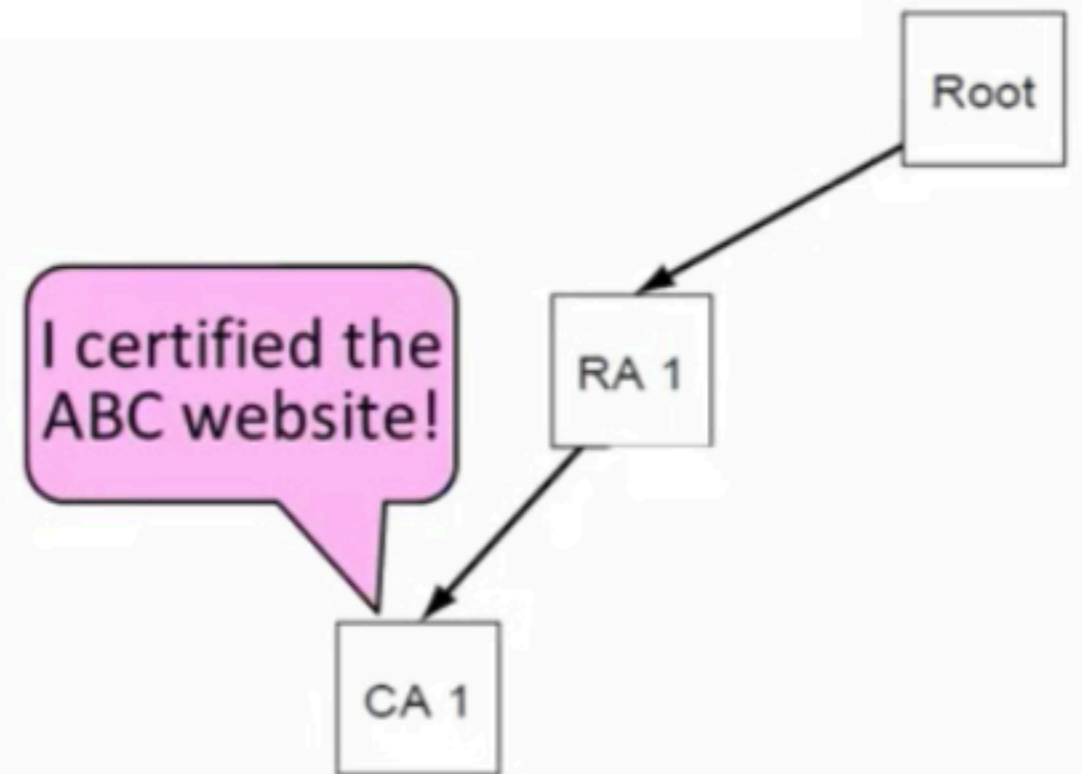
- Hierarchical management for public key verification



# PKI (Public Key Infrastructure)

- The server must house its own certificate together with certificates of other CAs at higher levels, all the way up to the root CA

Browser has Root's public key  
{RA1's key is X} signed Root  
{CA1's key is Y} signed RA1  
{ABC's key Z} signed CA1



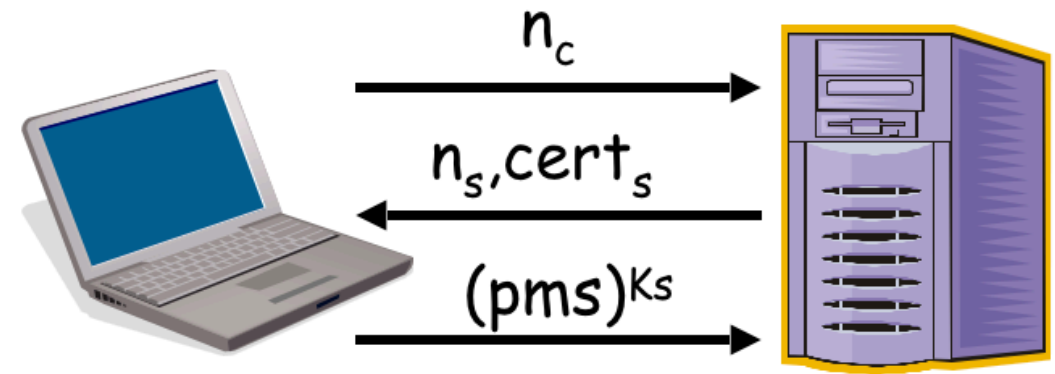


# Asymmetric vs symmetric key crypto system

- Symmetric-key crypto system is about 1000 times faster than its asymmetric-key counterpart
- Therefore, in a communication session, the initial stage is to use asymmetric key system to exchange a shared-key
- After the initial stage, this shared-key is used to encrypt/decrypt all communicating data thereafter

# SSL/TLS HTTPS

- SSL Web Protocol
  - Port 443: secure http (https)
  - Use public-key encryption to distribute a shared-key
- Server has a certificate containing digital signature of the certificate authority
- Want to construct a 48-byte master secret to represent a shared symmetric key
  - Client sends a random data of 28 bytes  $n_c$  to the server
  - Server sends a random data of 28 bytes  $n_s$  and certificate  $cert_s$  to the client
  - Client verifies the certificate, making sure it is talking the right server
  - Client constructs a pre-master secret (pms) of 46 bytes encrypted using the server's public key
  - At this point, the server and the client share  $n_c$ ,  $n_s$ , and pms, both use this shared information to construct a master secret of 48 bytes
  - A shared symmetric key to be used in subsequent communication session after this initial setup stage can be generated from this master secret



# What We Have Learned

- Asymmetric key crypto system
- Man-in-the-middle problem
- Hash function: its usage and security properties
  - Hash pointer
  - Merkle tree
  - Digital signature
- Certificate authorities to solve the man-in-the-middle problem
- SSL/TLS