

# Public Key Crypto

Shuai Wang



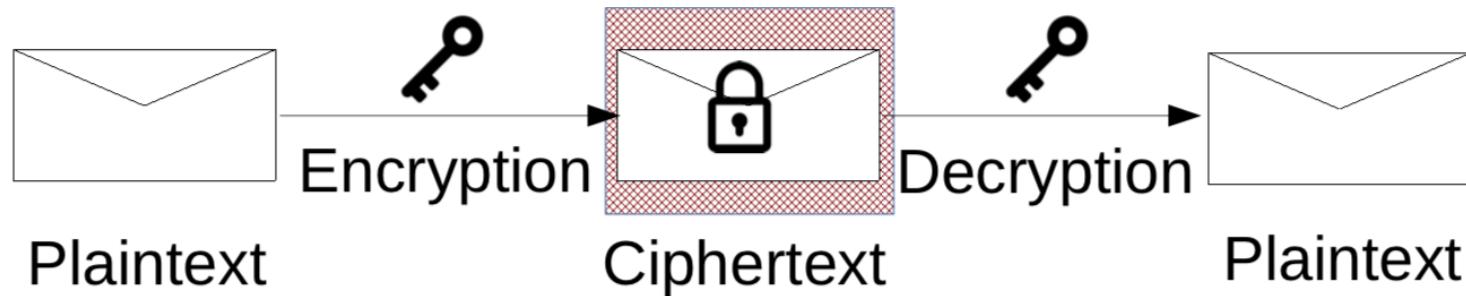
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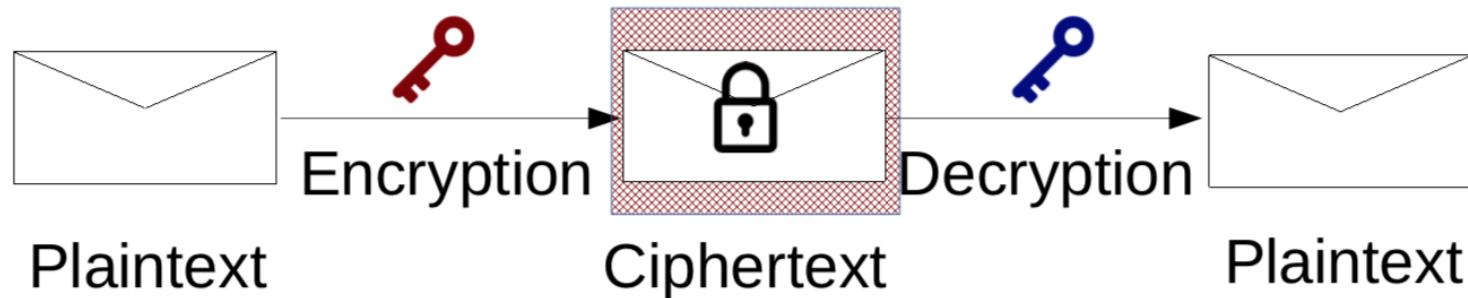
Some slides are written by Mark Stamp.

# Public Key Encryption (PKE)

In SKE, locking and opening require the *same* key



What if we want them to require *different* keys?



This is known as *Public Key Encryption*

# Public Key Encryption (PKE)

Has two keys for two procedures:



*Public key is used for encryption*



*Private key is used for decryption*

Alice generates both keys.

(They are mathematically related.)

Then, Alice publishes her public key:



*Anyone can encrypt*



*Only Alice can decrypt*

*Anyone can write a message that only Alice can read.*

*Examples: RSA, ElGamal, ECC*

# Richard Stallman



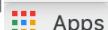
C



stallman.org/rms-pubkey.txt

American

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有道词典首页



Reduce Synonyms...



Urban Dictionary



Ludwig • Find you...



Linggle 10^12- La...



Goog

-----BEGIN PGP PUBLIC KEY BLOCK-----

Version: GnuPG v1.4.10 (GNU/Linux)

nQINBFHqu6YBEAC/f9aXkt2t+58gGhQiInr3yK/uhQYtmTwxvVVVAEcorRhjMFjC

Richard M1PhFsJ7qh0oiCKs7YGh5YSuGTR4YWrf9qS7BzJNWiU+sFmVPTHiiJ4OoFx4f4dM  
9C1+k3I+orPSuTv5LkMz3omBw18bt/zPxAeOMV1h6H87zKjTvRdt8K0/XOKuP83doccasions8pK8gHhIPIBsrQ5YhGImyT8Ni+ffZnjm7IApFKqDJSeMWJ0qJrefwC92i2H/eYcf  
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securitycloud.symantec.com/cc/#/landing

Apps 有道词典首页 Reduce Synonyms... Urban Dictionary Ludwig Find you... Linggle 10\*12- La... Google Ngram Vie... Google Sch...

**Symantec** A Division of Broadcom

We stop threats hiding in plain sight.

Endpoint, Network, Email, Cloud. However they attack, we've got you covered.

Public Key Info

Algorithm: RSA Encryption ( 1.2.840.113549.1.1 )

Parameters: None

Public Key:

```
24 bytes: E7 9D 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
01 B9 00 F1 5F 99 40 D8 9F 7E 5B 08 30 A7 1F
06 43 04 72 F5 82 3A B7 D1 0B BF DC 6E 84
35 02 E6 A5 5E 4B F4 97 08 71 C0 60 0F A3 8E
28 F9 6A D0 B1 00 1A B5 22 D0 E5 B2 26 D4
6B EC 85 DC 2C 99 01 40 41 ED 28 10 11 53 12
C7 8E 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
B0 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
A4 40 4F F0 AC 92 22 05 04 D8 AB 8C 29 98
EE C8 63 1A F2 B7 45 64 01 3F 04 EB CD 60
40 43 73 D1 80 53 58 E7 27 55 D3 F9 7C 62
8C BF 6A DE BD 79 EB 94 2D 5D BC 99 0B 7B
F1 01 50 00 1E 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00
82 27 00 27 9C 04 B6 97 07 05 00 00 00 00 00 00
A8 15 04 B3 28 10 E3 31 B2 A5 A6 50 0C 06
62 6E CE 98 E0 2A B3 52 7F B6 02 7C 76 27 12
EF F5 F2 D2 C1 82 C7 9E 01 9F A6 F5 B6 D6 3E
03 AD AE 4F FB D3 4A 10 95 66 C6 AF D4 E1
```

Exponent: 65537

OK

Purely functional... Manipulating Prol... What's the right S... SGX - Google Drive Felix Schuster at...
 Overview Main origin Reload to view details

This page is secure (valid HTTPS).

- Certificate - valid and trusted
 

The connection to this site is using a valid, trusted server certificate issued by DigICert SHA2 Secure Server CA.

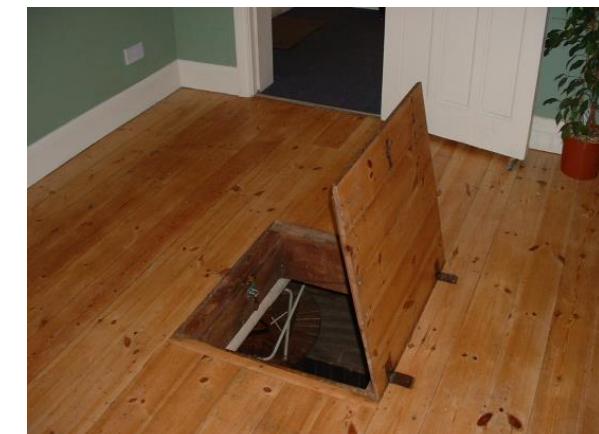
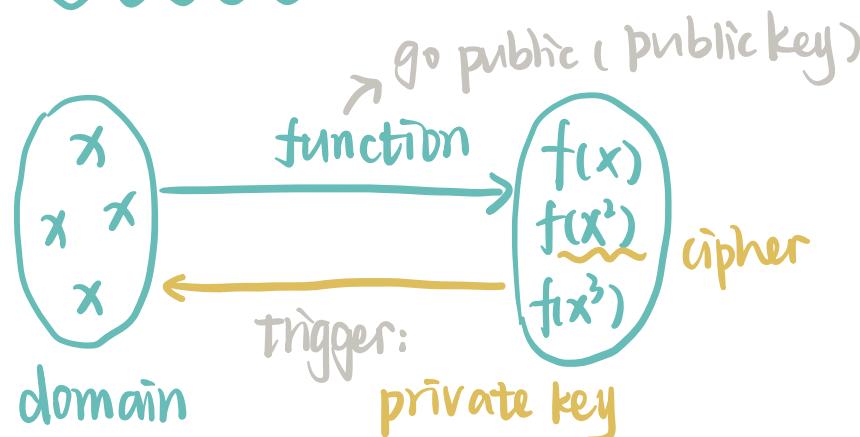
[View certificate](#)
- Connection - secure connection settings
 

The connection to this site is encrypted and authenticated using TLS 1.2, ECDH\_E\_RSA with P-256, and AES\_256\_GCM.
- Resources - all served securely
 

All resources on this page are served securely.

# Public Key Cryptography

- Generally based on “trap door, **one way function**”
  - “One way” means **easy** to compute in one direction, but **hard** to compute in other direction
  - One example: given p and q, product  $N = pq$  easy to compute, but hard to find p and q from N
    - Easy to multiply, but **hard** to factor
  - “Trap door” is used when creating key pairs



# Public Key Cryptography

- Encryption
  - Suppose we **encrypt** M with Bob's **public key**
  - Bob's **private key** can **decrypt** C to recover M
- Digital Signature (less obvious)
  - Bob **signs** by “encrypting” with his **private key**
  - Anyone can **verify** signature by “decrypting” with Bob's **public key**
  - But only Bob could have signed
  - Like a handwritten signature, but much better...

RSA



# RSA

- Invented by **Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman**
  - RSA is the ***gold standard*** in public key crypto
- Let  $p$  and  $q$  be two large prime numbers
- Let  $N = pq$  be the **modulus** 模数
- Choose  $e$  **relatively prime** to  $(p-1)(q-1)$
- Find  $d$  such that  $ed = 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
- **Public key** is  $(N, e)$
- **Private key** is  $d$

# RSA

- Message  $M$  is treated as a number
- To encrypt  $M$  we compute  
$$C = M^e \text{ mod } N$$
- To decrypt ciphertext  $C$ , we compute  
$$M = C^d \text{ mod } N$$
- Recall that  $e$  and  $N$  are public
- If the attacker **can factor  $N = pq$** , he can use  $e$  to easily find  $d$  since  $ed = 1 \text{ mod } (p-1)(q-1)$
- So, **factoring the modulus breaks RSA**

A proof on the RSA correctness requires some knowledge on number theory; we will give a proof after today's class.

# Simple RSA Example

- Example of **textbook** RSA
  - Select “large” primes  $p = 11, q = 3$

Key generation:  $N = p \cdot q = 33$

$$(p-1)(q-1) = 20 \rightarrow e \text{ 取 } 3$$

$$ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)} \Rightarrow d = 7$$

- **Public key:**  $(N, e) = (33, 3)$
- **Private key:**  $(d) = 7$

$M=8$  时:  $C = M^e \pmod{N} = 8^3 \pmod{33} = 17$

$$P = C^d \pmod{N} = 17^7 \pmod{33} = 8$$

# Simple RSA Example

- **Public key:**  $(N, e) = (33, 3)$
- **Private key:**  $d = 7$
- Suppose message to encrypt is  $M = 8$
- Ciphertext  $C$  is computed as  
 $C =$
- Decrypt  $C$  to recover the message  $M$  by  
 $M =$

# RSA Numbers

- RSA lab published a number of **semiprimes (N)** with 100 to 617 decimal digits
  - numbers with exactly two prime factors
  - As of August 2018, 20 of the 54 listed numbers have been factored.

RSA-100 = 15226050279225333605356183781326374297180681149613  
80688657908494580122963258952897654000350692006139

RSA-100 = 37975227936943673922808872755445627854565536638199  
× 40094690950920881030683735292761468389214899724061

RSA-100: the easiest challenge with 330 bits.

RSA-2048 = 2519590847565789349402718324004839857142928212620403202777713783604366202070  
7595556264018525880784406918290641249515082189298559149176184502808489120072  
8449926873928072877767359714183472702618963750149718246911650776133798590957  
0009733045974880842840179742910064245869181719511874612151517265463228221686  
9987549182422433637259085141865462043576798423387184774447920739934236584823  
8242811981638150106748104516603773060562016196762561338441436038339044149526  
3443219011465754445417842402092461651572335077870774981712577246796292638635  
6373289912154831438167899885040445364023527381951378636564391212010397122822  
120720357

RSA-2048: no one can break.

# RSA Key Collisions

- Chances are very low.
  - An informal explanation.

( $p \& q$  are prime numbers) \*  $p \& q$  为足够大的质数  $\Rightarrow$  仅用  $N$  很难回推出  $p$  和  $q$

$$p \times q = N \text{ (semi-prime)}$$

$$\downarrow \quad \quad \quad \in [2^{1024}, 2^{2048}]$$

ss  
10<sup>150</sup>

$$p, q \sim 2^{512}$$

\* Every 500 #  $\rightarrow$  1 prime #

$$2^{512} / 500 = 2^{500} \approx 10^{140} \sim 10^{150}$$



RSA's low collision.

But what about the efficiency?

What if the key are very large? (over 2000 bits)

4294967295 <---- 32-bit integer

# More Efficient RSA

- What if the key are very large? (over 2000 bits)
- Can we still use modular exponentiation?
  - $5^{20} = 95367431640625 = 25 \text{ mod } 35 \rightarrow$  very inefficient
  - Mod each step, without waiting until it gets large!
- A better way: **repeated squaring**
  - $20 = 1 * 2 * 5 * 2 <-- \text{simplified!!}$
  - $5^1 = 5 \text{ mod } 35$
  - $5^2 = (5^1)^2 = 5^2 = 25 \text{ mod } 35$
  - $5^5 = (5^2)^2 \cdot 5^1 = 25^2 \cdot 5 = 3125 = 10 \text{ mod } 35$
  - $5^{10} = (5^5)^2 = 10^2 = 100 = 30 \text{ mod } 35$
  - $5^{20} = (5^{10})^2 = 30^2 = 900 = 25 \text{ mod } 35$
- No huge numbers and it's efficient!
  - Can precompute a table of  $5^x$  (where x is some common numbers)

Detailed algorithm is not required to remember. We will come back to this later this semester to discuss some attacks on RSA.

# RSA Efficiency and Limits

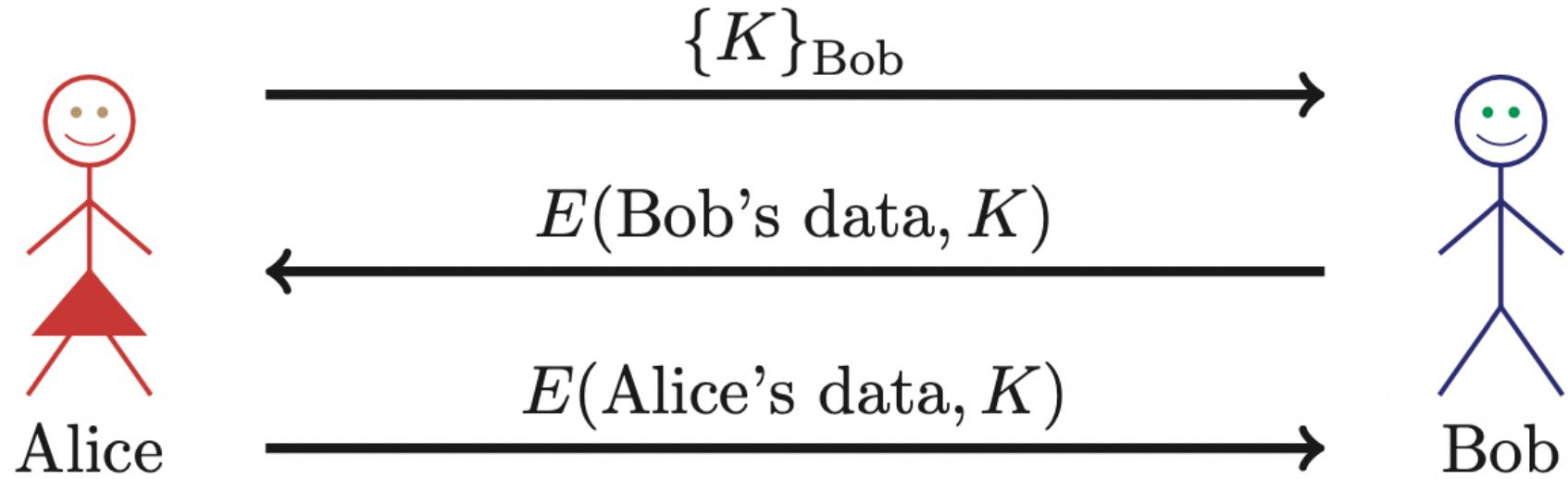
- Encrypt message of limited size
  - Remember we need to do a **mod** operation..
  - In practice, for 2048 bits RSA key, it could be 245 bytes plaintext       $N: 2048 \text{ bits}$        $M: 245 \text{ bytes}$
- RSA + symmetric key encryption (**hybrid cryptosystem**)
  - That's what we are doing (SSL/OpenPGP).
  - RSA isn't designed as a full-speed data transport cipher
- Or cut messages into chunks of 245 bytes?
  - Bad idea (size increase; and still, it's generally slow)

} ① RSA exchange (symmetric key)  
  ② exchange data with symmetric cipher



# Real World Confidentiality

- **Hybrid cryptosystem**
  - Public key crypto to establish a key
  - Symmetric key crypto to encrypt data...



□ Can Bob be sure he's talking to Alice?

# Public Key Crypto vs. Symmetric Key Crypto

	<u>PKE</u>	<u>SKE</u>
<i>Key</i>	Two: public/private	One: secret
<i>Key setup</i>	Share public key	Need safe channel
<i>Encrypt</i>	Anyone	Both participants
<i>Decrypt</i>	Only key generator	Both participants
<i>Efficiency</i>	Costly to encrypt/decrypt	Cheap

We can combine PKE and SKE to cover their weakness!

- But still need **certificates from a trusted third party**. ← talk later.

# Quantum Computers and Public Key Crypto

- Recall that quantum computing ***not*** a serious threat to symmetric ciphers
- But, QC is a **BIG** threat to public key
- Shor's factoring algorithm (1994)
  - Most famous quantum algorithm
- Let  $n$  be number of bits in  $N$ , then...
  - Work factor of  $n^2 \log_2(n) \log_2(\log_2(n))$

# Quantum Computers and Public Key Crypto

- Shor's algorithm much faster than best classic factoring algorithm
  - Number field sieve is best classic alg.
- For a 2048-bit modulus, work factor...
  - Number field sieve equivalent to exhaustive search for 125-bit key
  - Shor's algorithm equivalent to exhaustive search for 30-bit key

# Quantum Computers and Public Key Crypto

- Bottom line?
- QC will make RSA obsolete
- Post-quantum cryptography?
  - Symmetric ciphers will be OK
  - Most popular public key algorithms will fail (RSA, Diffie-Hellman, ...)
- But there exist public key algorithms that are secure against QC
  - For example, NTRU

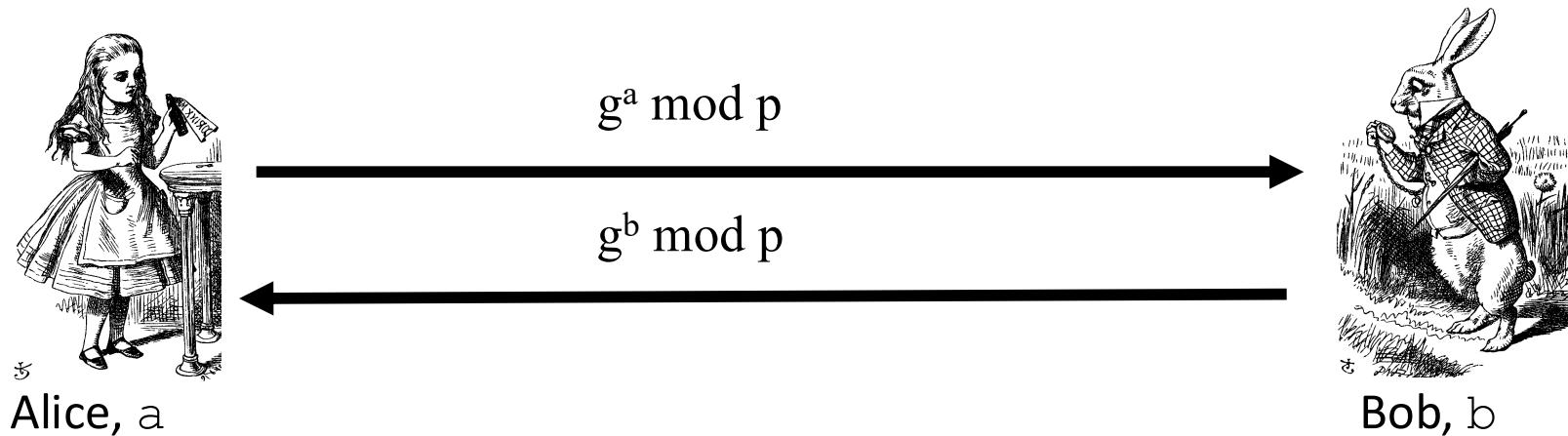
# Diffie-Hellman

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- A “key exchange” algorithm
  - Used to establish a shared symmetric key
  - **Not** for encrypting or signing
- Based on **discrete log** problem
  - **Given:**  $g$ ,  $p$ , and  $g^k \text{ mod } p$
  - **Find:** exponent  $k$
  - Very hard problem...

# Diffie-Hellman

- **Public:**  $g$  and  $p$
- **Private:** Alice's exponent  $a$ , Bob's exponent  $b$



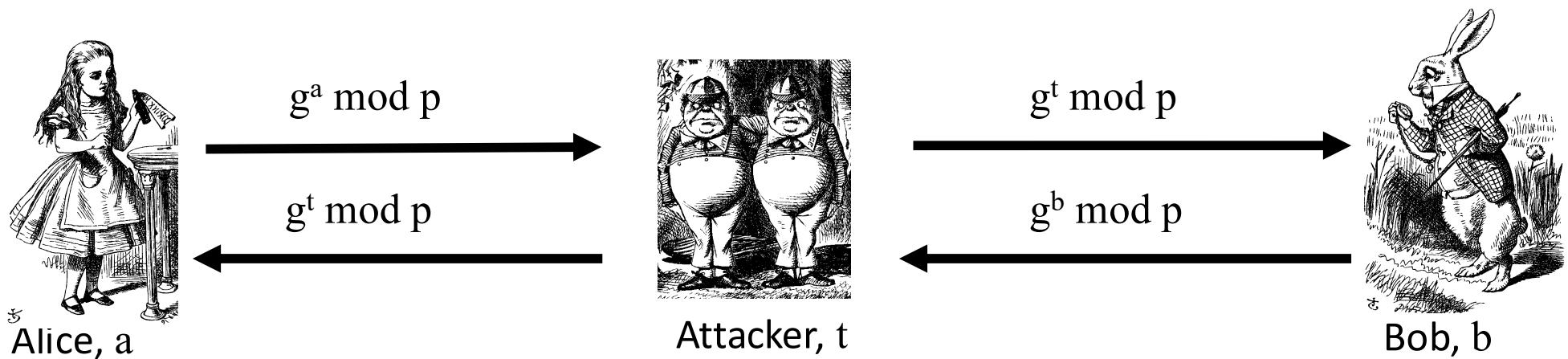
- Alice computes  $(g^b \text{ mod } p)^a = g^{ba} \text{ mod } p = g^{ab} \text{ mod } p$
- Bob computes  $(g^a \text{ mod } p)^b = g^{ab} \text{ mod } p$
- They can use  $K = g^{ab} \text{ mod } p$  as symmetric key

# Diffie-Hellman

- Suppose Bob and Alice use Diffie-Hellman to determine symmetric key  $K = g^{ab} \text{ mod } p$
- The attacker can see  $g^a \text{ mod } p$  and  $g^b \text{ mod } p$ 
  - But...  $g^a g^b \text{ mod } p = g^{a+b} \text{ mod } p \neq g^{ab} \text{ mod } p$
- If attacker can find  $a$  or  $b$ , she gets  $K$
- If attacker can solve **discrete log** problem, she can find  $a$  or  $b$

# Diffie-Hellman

- Subject to man-in-the-middle (MiM) attack



- Trudy shares secret  $g^{at} \text{ mod } p$  with Alice
- Trudy shares secret  $g^{bt} \text{ mod } p$  with Bob
- Alice and Bob don't know attacker is MiM

# Diffie-Hellman

- How to prevent MiM attack?
  - Alice and bob do not share any thing else..
- At this point, DH may look pointless...
  - ...but it's not (more on this later) → need authentication
- You **MUST** be aware of MiM attack on Diffie-Hellman

# Signature with RSA

# Uses for Public Key Crypto

- Confidentiality }  $C = E(M, K_{pub})$   
    }  $M = D(C, K_{private})$ 
  - Transmitting data over insecure channel
  - Secure storage on insecure media
- Authentication protocols (later)
- Digital signature
  - Use private RSA key to “encrypt” message, why?
  - Provides **integrity** and **non-repudiation**
  - No non-repudiation with symmetric keys

$M_{sign} = C = E(M, K_{private})$

$M = D(M_{sign}, K_{pub})$

↑ identity check



repudiation

/rɪ'pjʊ:dɪ'eʃn/



Learn to pronounce

noun

1. rejection of a proposal or idea.  
"the repudiation of reformist policies"
2. denial of the truth or validity of something.

# Repudiation (Non-repudiation)

- Alice orders 100 shares of stock from Bob
- Alice computes **MAC** using symmetric key
- Stock drops, Alice claims she did **not** order
- Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- **No!** Bob also knows the symmetric key, so he could have forged the **MAC**
- **Problem:** Bob knows Alice placed the order, but he can't prove it

# Non-repudiation

- Alice orders 100 shares of stock from Bob
- Alice **signs** order with her private key
- Stock drops, Alice claims she did not order
- Can Bob prove that Alice placed the order?
- **Yes!** Alice's private key used to sign the order — only Alice knows her private key
- This assumes Alice's private key has not been lost/stolen

# Public Key Infrastructure

B可以获取到A的public key 但如何确定此key pub是由A generate?

[CA] Certificate Authority

# Public Key Certificate

- How can the recipient know with certainty the sender's public key? (to validate a digital signature)
- How can the sender know with certainty the recipient's public key? (to send an encrypted message)
- Use a trusted third party to authenticate that the public key belongs to A → **Certification Authority (CA)**
- For each user A, CA creates a message containing A's name and public key (**Digital Certificate**).

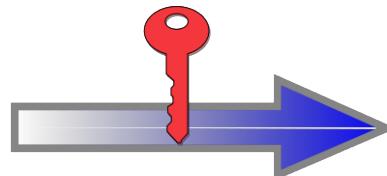
# Public Key Certificate

- **Digital certificate** contains name of user and user's public key (possibly other info too)
- It is *signed* by the issuer, a **Certificate Authority (CA)**
- Signature on certificate is verified using CA's public key

Identity Information and  
Public Key of Mario Rossi



Certificate Authority  
verifies the identity of Mario Rossi  
and encrypts with its Private Key



Certificate of Mario Rossi

Name: *Mario Rossi*  
Organization: *Wikimedia*  
Address: *via .....*  
Country: *United States*  
Validity: *1997/07/01 - 2047/06/30*



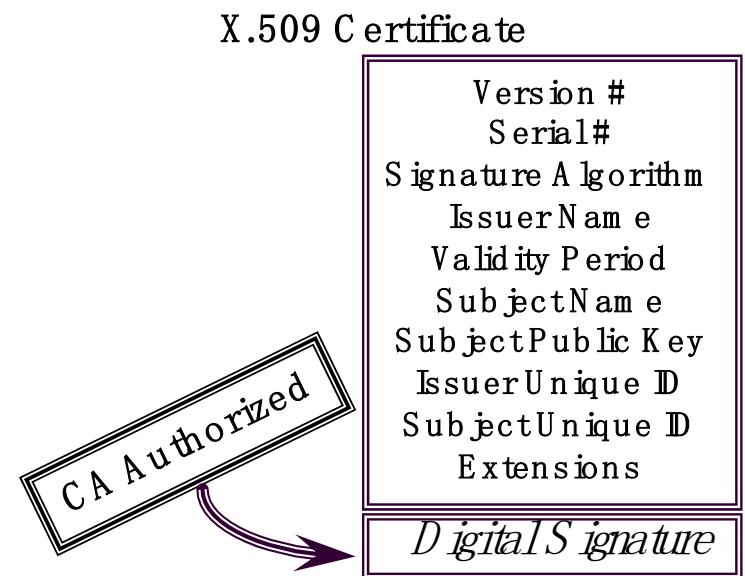
Public Key  
of  
Mario Rossi

Digital Signature  
of the Certificate Authority

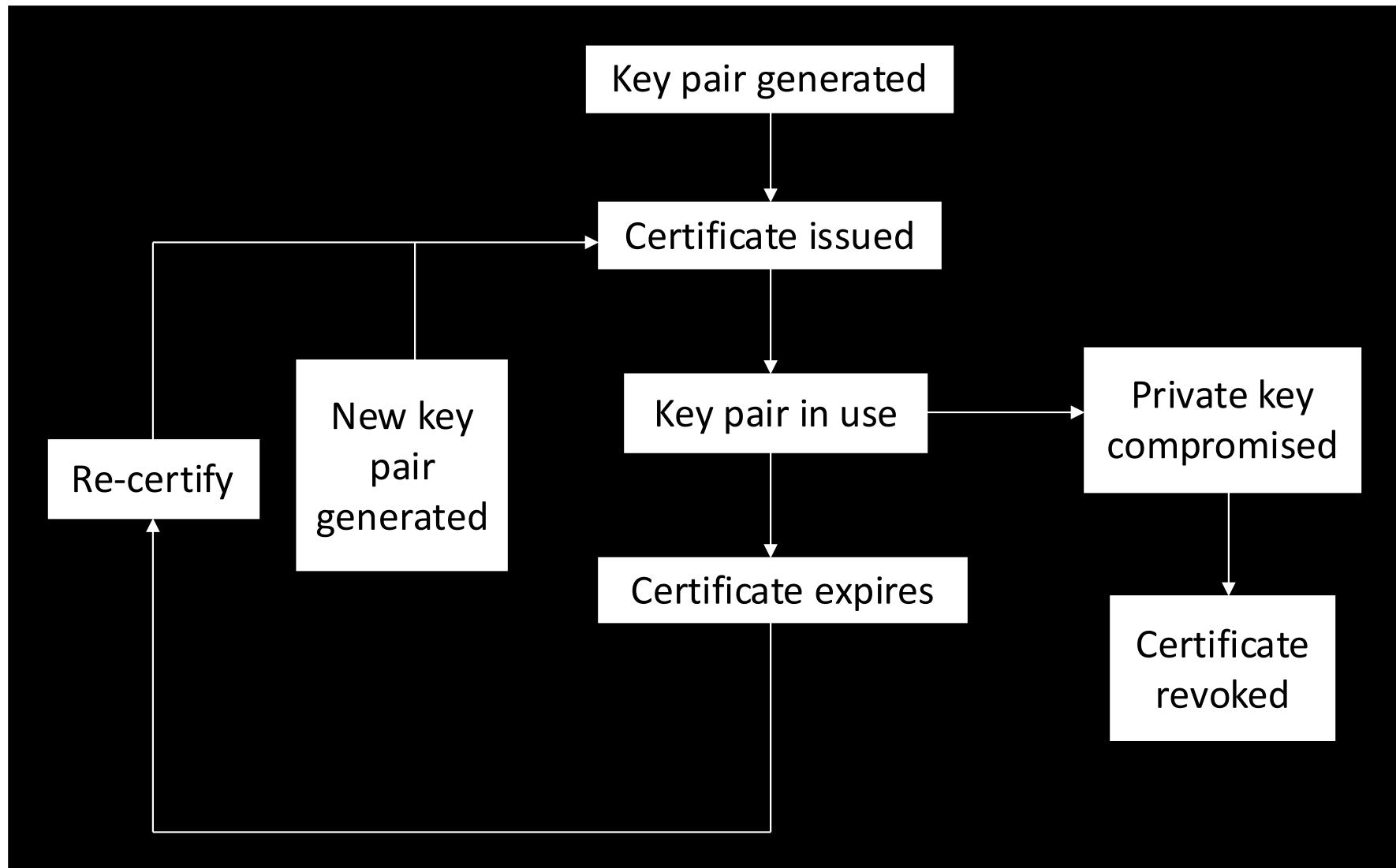
Digitally Signed by  
Certificate Authority

# Certificate Authority (CA)

- Certificate authority (CA) is a **trusted** 3rd party — creates and signs certificates
- Verify signature to verify **integrity**
- A common format for certificates is X.509



# Certificate Life Cycle



# Why do I trust a CA? And Why do a CA trust me?

- “Root CA” stored in your OS/browser/application since installation time
  - Updated as part of normal secured (OS/Application) updates
- Verification of identity by certification authority
  - the identity of a user is verified by real-world measures, not cryptography matters.

# PKI

- **Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)**: the stuff needed to securely use public key crypto
  - Key generation and management
  - Certificate authority (CA) or authorities
  - Certificate revocation lists (CRLs), etc.
- No general standard for PKI
- 3 generic “trust models”
  - Monopoly model
  - A few trusted CAs (most common approach)
  - Everyone is a CA...

$$\{[M]sign\}K_{pub} \equiv M$$

\* Crypto Hash: 更方便验证  $K_{pub}$  的 integrity

Hash Functions  $M, [H(M)] \Rightarrow [H(M)]sign$

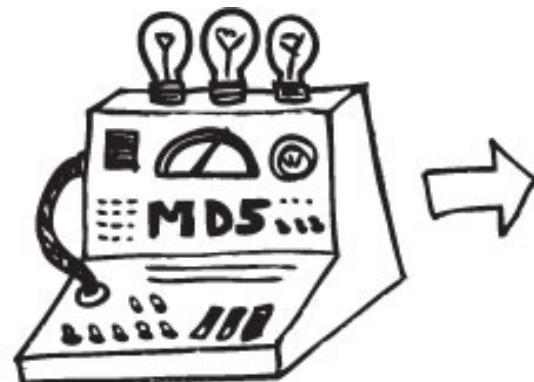


$$H(M) \equiv \{[H(M)]sign\}$$

if:  $H(M_1) = H(M_2)$  (collision)

then it means Message

is no longer safe



06d80eb0  
c50b49a5  
09b49f24  
24e8c805

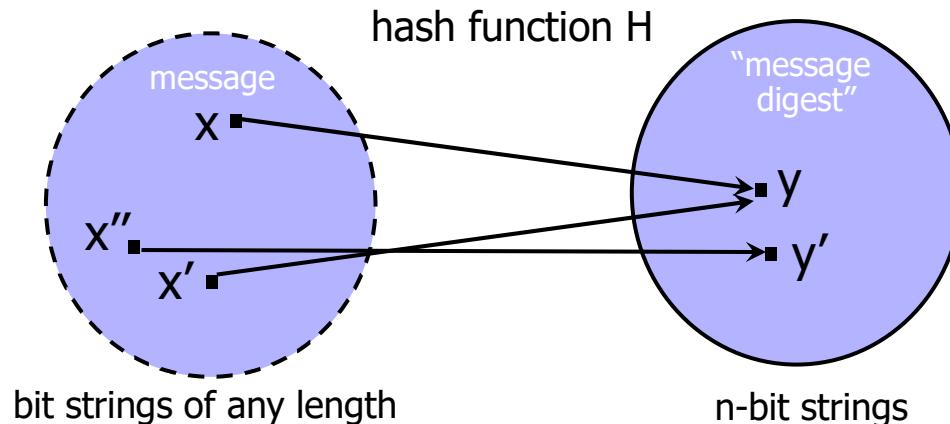
# Hash Function Motivation

- Some terms
  - **Sign** message  $M$  with Alice's **private key**:  $[M]_{\text{Alice}}$
  - **Encrypt** message  $M$  with Alice's **public key**:  $\{M\}_{\text{Alice}}$
- Suppose Alice signs  $M$ 
  - Alice sends  $M$  and  $S = [M]_{\text{Alice}}$  to Bob
  - Bob verifies that  $M = \{S\}_{\text{Alice}}$
- If  $M$  is big,  $[M]_{\text{Alice}}$  costly to **compute & send**
- Suppose instead, Alice signs  $h(M)$ , where  $h(M)$  is a much smaller "**fingerprint**" of  $M$ 
  - Alice sends  $M$  and  $S = [h(M)]_{\text{Alice}}$  to Bob
  - Bob verifies that  $h(M) = \{S\}_{\text{Alice}}$

# Hash Function Motivation

- So, Alice signs  $h(M)$ 
  - That is, Alice computes  $S = [h(M)]_{\text{Alice}}$
  - Alice then sends  $(M, S)$  to Bob
  - Bob verifies that  $h(M) = \{S\}_{\text{Alice}}$
- What properties must  $h(M)$  satisfy?
  - Suppose attacker finds  $M'$  so that  $h(M) = h(M')$
  - Then attacker can replace  $(M, S)$  with  $(M', S)$
- Does Bob detect this tampering?
  - No, since  $h(M') = h(M) = \{S\}_{\text{Alice}}$

# Crypto Hash Function



- Crypto hash function  $H(x)$  shall provide
  - **Compression** — output length is small
  - **Efficiency** —  $H(x)$  easy to compute for any  $x$
  - **One-way** — given a value  $y$  it is infeasible to find an  $x$  such that  $H(x) = y$
  - **Weak collision resistance** — given  $x$  and  $H(x)$ , infeasible to find  $y \neq x$  such that  $H(y) = H(x)$  → **pre-birthday problem**
  - **Strong collision resistance** — infeasible to find any  $y \neq x$  such that  $H(y) = H(x)$  → **birthday problem**

# Pre-Birthday Problem

- Suppose  $N$  people in a room
- How large must  $N$  be before the probability someone has **same birthday as me** is  $\geq 1/2$  ?
  - Solve:  $1/2 = 1 - (364/365)^N$  for  $N$
  - We find  $N = 253$

# Birthday Problem

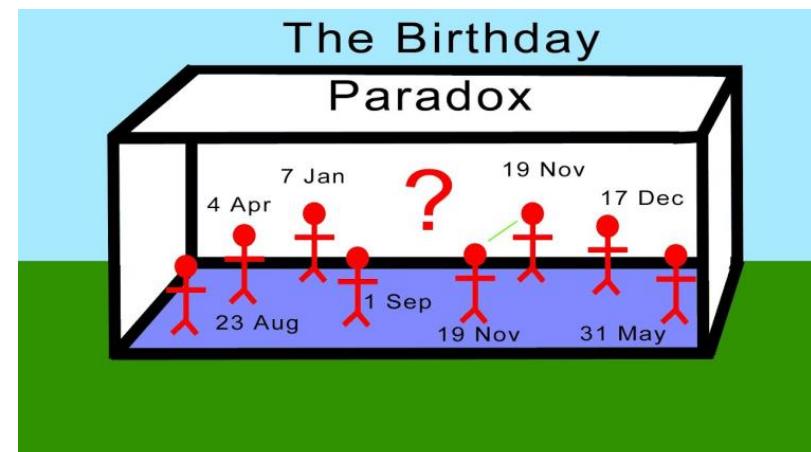
- How many people must be in a room before probability is  $\geq 1/2$  that **any two (or more)** have same birthday?
  - $1 - 365/365 \cdot 364/365 \cdots (365-N+1)/365$
  - Set equal to  $1/2$  and solve: **N = 23**
- “Should be” about  $\sqrt{365}$  since we compare all **pairs** x and y
  - And there are 365 possible birthdays

N bit output:

$x, y (x \neq y), h(x) \neq h(y), 2^N$

how large N should be to avoid h's collision

① Compute M hash outputs:



$$C_m^2 = \frac{m(m-1)}{2}$$

② Estimation: ( $M$  large enough)

$$\frac{(M-1)M}{2} = \frac{1}{2}M^2 - \frac{1}{2}M \approx M^2$$

# Of Hashes and Birthdays

$$\textcircled{3} \quad m^2 \approx 2^N \Rightarrow \text{collision. } (m = 2^{\frac{N}{2}})$$

- If  $h(x)$  is  $N$  bits, then  $2^N$  different hash values are possible
- **ESTIMATION:** so, if you hash about  $\sqrt{2^N} = 2^{N/2}$  values then you expect to find a collision
- **Implication?** “Exhaustive search” attack...
  - Secure  $N$ -bit hash requires  $2^{N/2}$  work to “break”
  - Secure  $N$  bit symmetric key require about  $2^N$  work to break
  - If  $N = 128$ , how many works need to be done to break?

We will explain how this “ESTIMATION” is achieved with some notes after this lecture.

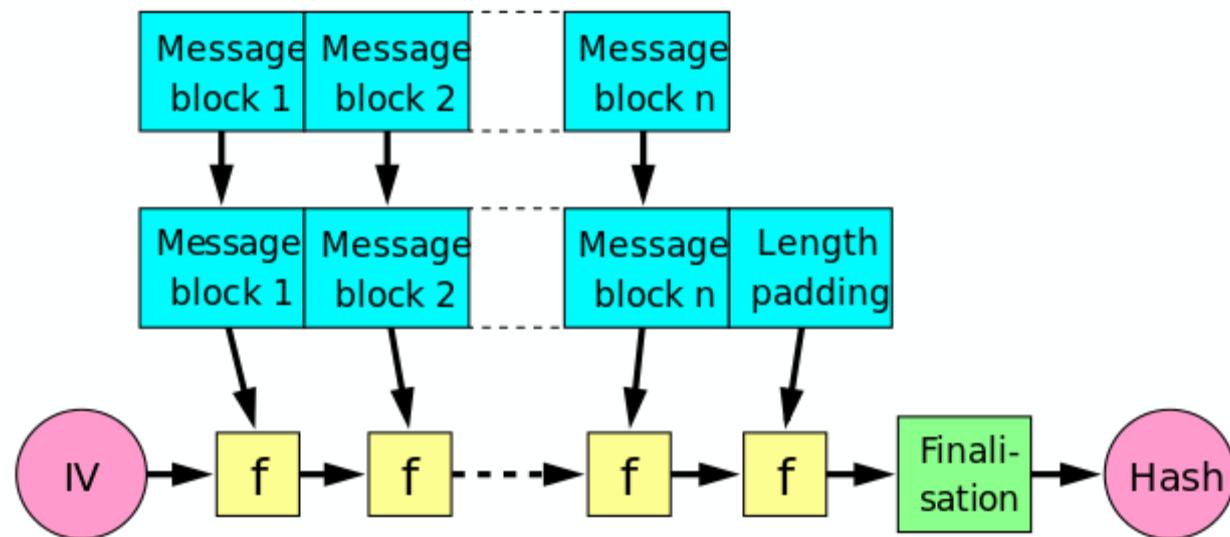
# Popular Crypto Hashes

- **MD5** (Invented by Rivest)
  - 128-bit output
  - MD5 collisions easy to find, so it's broken
- **SHA-1** — A U.S. government standard, inner workings similar with MD5
  - 160-bit output
  - Well, but also crack-able since 2005...
- Many other hashes
  - SHA-224; SHA-364; SHA-512
- **Hashes work by hashing message in blocks**
  - Very very similar to block cipher (e.g., DES)
  - There is no **key** involved.

# Internals of a Hash Function

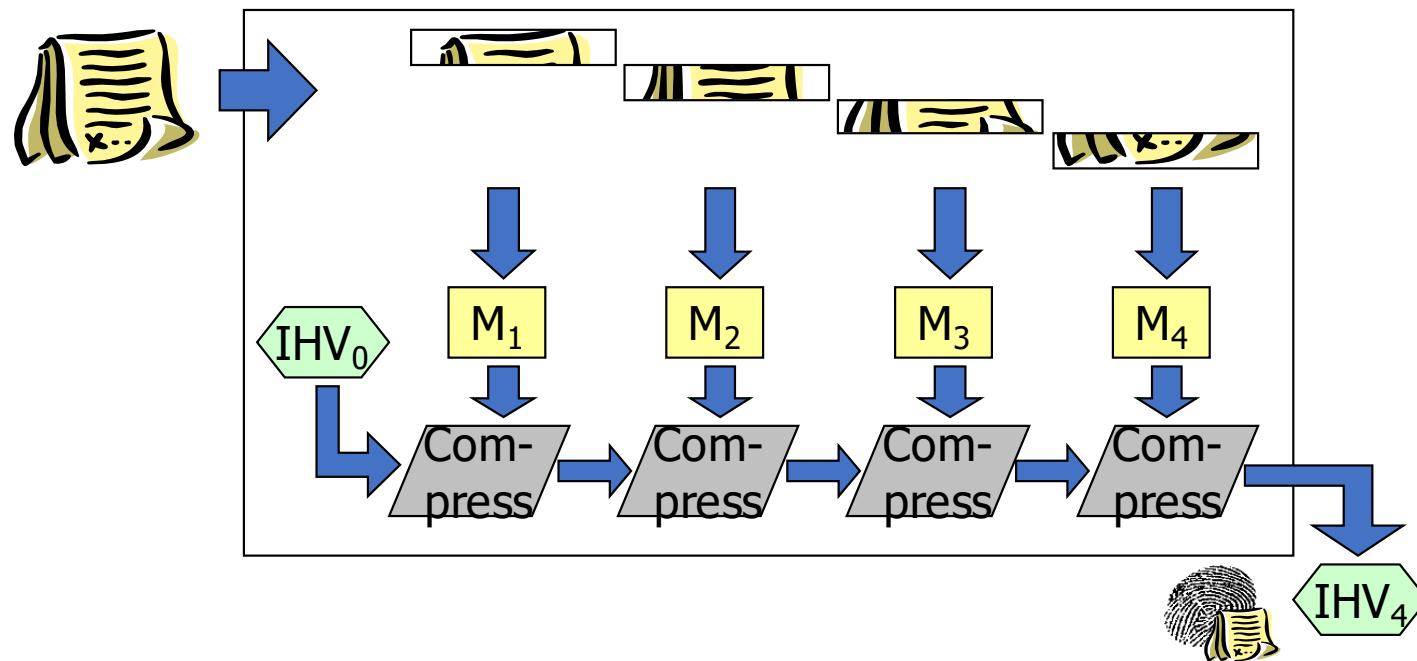
Merkle-Damgard construction:

- A fixed-size “compression function”.
- Each iteration mixes an input block with the previous output.



# MD5

- Iterative design using compression function



avalanche effect

MD5("The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog") = 9e107d9d372bb6826bd81d3542a419d6

MD5("The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog.") = e4d909c290d0fb1ca068ffaddf22cbd0

# Hash Uses

- Authentication
- Message integrity
- Message fingerprint
- Data corruption detection
- Digital signature efficiency
- And many other smart usages...

# How companies store your password?

Create account.



$(U, P)$

(username, password)



$(U, h(P))$



P is never stored directly (why?)

What if two users have the same password?

Password database

⇒ dictionary: rainbow table (One-time)

# Password Hashing

Create account.



\*'salt': `hash(salt || pwd)`

△  
→ crack 'one-time effort'

P is never stored directly (why?)

What if two users have the same password?

Add a random *Salt* to the password



$(U, h(P + S), S)$



Password database

# Using hashes as authenticators

- Prof. Alice wants to cancel today's class, by communicating to the students via Trudy.



**Threat model:** Trudy tries to make Bob **NOT** attend lectures.

Why is this protocol (in)-secure?

- $t$  acts as an authenticated value (authenticator) because Trudy could not have produced  $t$  without **inverting hash()**
- But what if the the Trudy reuse the “ $t$ ” in the future?
  - then Bob keeps NOT attending the lectures. Attack succeed (and you lost your quiz points)!

# Hash Chains

- Suppose we have in total 24 classes.



Prof. Alice

Hold **secret t**

Class 1:  $\text{Hash}^{23}(t)$

Class 3:  $\text{Hash}^{21}(t)$

Class d:  $\text{Hash}^{24-d}(t)$

Class 24:  $t$



Bob

$\text{Hash}^{24}(t)$



Why is this protocol secure?

- Trudy cannot infer  $\text{Hash}^{24-d}$ , by having  $\text{Hash}^{24-(d-1)}$  on hand.
  - Chain of hash values are ordered authenticators

# (Simplified) Token Devices

- A one-time password system that essentially uses a **hash chain** as authenticators.

- For seed ( $S$ ) and chain length ( $l$ ), current iteration ( $i$ )
- Token encodes  $S$  in the hardware (firmware)

$$\text{pw}_i = h^{l-i}(S)$$

- Device display shows password for iteration  $i$
- Your token display at some time does not disclose information **in the future**.



# Hashing for Spam Reduction

- Spam reduction
- Before accept email, want proof that sender had to “work” to create email
  - Here, “work” == CPU cycles
  - “**Proof-of-work**” in Blockchain → talk more later.
- Goal is to limit the amount of email that can be sent
  - This approach will not eliminate spam
  - Instead, make spam **more costly to send**

# Spam Reduction

- Let  $M$  = complete email message
  - $R$  = value to be determined
  - $T$  = current time
- Sender must determine  $R$  so that
$$h(M, R, T) = (00\dots 0, X), \text{ that is,}$$

initial  $N$  bits of hash value are **all zero**
- Sender then sends  $(M, R, T)$
- Recipient accepts email, provided that...
$$h(M, R, T) \text{ begins with } N \text{ zeros}$$

# Spam Reduction

- Sender:  $h(M, R, T)$  begins with  $N$  zeros
- Recipient: verify that  $h(M, R, T)$  begins with  $N$  zeros
- **Work for sender:** on average  $2^N$  hashes
- **Work for recipient:** always 1 hash
- Sender's work increases exponentially in  $N$
- Small work for recipient, regardless of  $N$
- Choose  $N$  so that...
  - Work acceptable for normal amounts of email
  - Work is too high for spammers