

Lecture 11: October 31, 2001

- ◆ Hash functions
- ◆ DSS
- ◆ DH Key Distribution

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Digital Signatures

*I did not
issue any
inappropriate
presidential
pardons!*

WJ Clinton

- Integrity
- Authentication
- Non-repudiation
- Timestamping
- Causality
- Authorization

*Read my
lips: no
new
taxes!*

GW Bush Sr.

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Hash Functions

- Many applications; in and out of crypto
- Make signatures practical
- Provide integrity and authentication
- Reduction of input into fixed-size digest
- $|\text{domain}| \gg |\text{range}|$
- Need to be very, very fast and secure...

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Properties of a Good Hash Function

- fixed-size digest
 - for any $|x|$, the size of $f(x)$ is constant
- easy computation
 - $f(x)$ is easy to compute
- one-wayness
 - given y , finding x such that $f(x)=y$ is hard
- collision-resistance (weak)
 - given x , finding z such that $f(x)=f(z)$ is hard
- collision-resistance (strong)
 - finding **any** x,z such that $f(x)=f(z)$ is hard

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The Birthday Paradox

- Hash function: Birthday(person) = y
- y ranges over $Y = [1 \dots 365]$, let $|Y| = n$
- how many people do we need to 'hash' to have a collision?

What is the probability of selecting at random k random and DISTINCT numbers from Y?

$$P_0 = 1 * (1 - 1/n) * (1 - 2/n) * \dots * (1 - (k-1)/n) \approx e^{-k(k-1)/(2n)}$$

$$P_1 = 1 - P_0 \rightarrow \text{at least one collision}$$

Say, P_1 is at least 0.5... solve for k

$$k \approx 1.17 * \sqrt{n}$$

$$k = 22.3 \text{ for } n = 365$$

The Birthday Paradox

What is it good for?

Test of strong collision-resistance: for a well-designed hash function with n-bit output, it must hold that:

finding any pair $(x, y) \ni f(x) = f(y)$

takes $2^{n/2}$ trials

Discrete-log hash function

- Chaum et al.
- Provably secure based on discrete log problem
- $p, q = (p-1)/2$ --- primes
- let $n = |p|$
- a, b --- generators in Z_p
- secret x , where $a^x = b \pmod p$
- $h(x_1, x_2) = a^{x_1} b^{x_2} \pmod p$
- where x_1, x_2 in $[0, \dots, q-1]$
- Given just one collision, x can be computed!!!
- Expensive, not very reductive:
Hashes two $(n-1)$ -bit numbers to one n -bit number

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Discrete-log hash function

Suppose Alice computes (x_1, x_1', x_2, x_2') such that

$$h(x_1, x_2) = h(x_1', x_2')$$

Or

$$a^{x_1} b^{x_2} \pmod p = a^{x_1'} b^{x_2'} \pmod p$$

then, $x_1 + x_2 * x \pmod{(p-1)} = x_1' + x_2' * x \pmod{(p-1)}$

$$(x_2 - x_2')x \pmod{(p-1)} = x_1' - x_1 \pmod{(p-1)}$$

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More on hash functions

- Given a secure finite-input $H()$ we can construct a secure arbitrary-input H^* by “sort of” hashing the hashes...
- Secure hash functions can be built out of cryptosystems where keys are known, e.g.:
 - $H_i = E(H_{i-1}, X_i) \text{ XOR } X_i$
 - or
 - $H_i = E(H_{i-1}, X_i \text{ XOR } H_{i-1}) \text{ XOR } X_i$
- But, **truly useful** hash functions must be **FAST!**
- Examples: MD4 & MD5 (Rivest), SHA/SHS (NIST)
- Use only: $|$, $\&$, \gg , $+$, \sim , XOR
- SW-optimized...
- Security is based on prudent design, not math...

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MD5

- MD5 (Rivest, 1992): 128-bit hash, 512-bit blocks
(similar to MD4, 1990)
- (MD = Message Digest)
- Simplified versions have been cryptanalyzed, but not MD5 itself
- But: strong **collision resistance only 64-bit**
- Not really long enough nowadays
- Like DES: now being phased out

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SHA

- Secure Hash Algorithm SHA (or SHA-1): NIST, NSA, 1995
- 160-bit hash, 512-bit blocks
- Used in DSS (Digital Signature Standard)
- 80-bit strong collision resistance

RIPE-MD

- RIPE-MD developed in Europe (1996-7), funded by EC
- RIPEMD-160: 160-bit hash, 512-bit blocks (same as SHA-1)
- Comparable to SHA-1 in speed, security

- Both SHA and RIPE-MD are roughly half the speed of MD5
- American standard is SHA-1 (for now)
- SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512 match key lengths in AES

Schnorr Signature

$$Z_p^* = \langle b \rangle$$

$$g = b^{(p-1)/q}$$

$$G_q = \langle g \rangle = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{q-1}\}$$

$$x \in_R Z_q$$

$$y \equiv g^x \pmod{p}$$

$$P = Z_p^*$$

$$A = Z_p^* \times Z_p^*$$

publics : p, b, g, y

secrets : x

Signing :

1. generate $r \in_R Z_{p-1}$

2. compute : $e = H(m \parallel g^r)$

3. compute : $s = (r - xe) \pmod{q}$

signature = $\{e, s\}$

Verifying :

$$e = H(m \parallel g^s y^e) \quad ???$$

notice that :

$$g^s y^e = g^{r-xe} g^{xe} = g^r$$

The Digital Signature Standard (DSS)

- Why DSS?
- RSA issues: patents, malleability, etc.
- A variant of El Gamal
- Originally for $|p|=512$ bits, now up to 1024
- Optimized for signature size (320- vs. 1024-bit)
- Signing -1 exp, verification - 2 exps
- No attacks thus far

DSS (contd)

p - 512-bit prime
 q - 160-bit prime, $(p-1)\%q = 0$
 b - base, $b^q \equiv 1 \pmod p$ ($b = d^{(p-1)/q}$)
 x - private exponent
 y - public residue; $y \equiv b^x \pmod p$
 $P = Z_p^*$, $A = Z_q \times Z_q$
 publics: p, q, b, y secrets: x

Signing :

1. generate random $r \in Z_{q-1}^*$
2. compute: $k = (b^r \pmod p) \pmod q$
3. compute: $c = (m + xk)r^{-1} \pmod q$
4. signature = $\{k, c\}$

Verifying :

$$(b^{mc^{-1}} k^{kc^{-1}} \pmod p) \pmod q = k \text{ ???}$$

notice that :

$$\begin{aligned}
 b^{mc^{-1}} k^{kc^{-1}} &= b^{mr/(m+xb^r)} (b^x)^{(b^r r)/(m+xb^r)} \\
 &= b^{(mr+xb^r r)/(m+xb^r)} = b^r
 \end{aligned}$$

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DSS

vs

El Gamal

p - 512-bit prime
 q - 160-bit prime, $(p-1)\%q = 0$
 b - base, $b^q \equiv 1 \pmod p$ ($b = d^{(p-1)/q}$)
 x - private exponent
 y - public residue; $y \equiv b^x \pmod p$
 $P = Z_p^*$, $A = Z_q \times Z_q$
 publics: p, q, b, y secrets: x

Signing :

1. generate random $r \in Z_{q-1}^*$
2. compute: $k = (b^r \pmod p) \pmod q$
3. compute: $c = (m + xk)r^{-1} \pmod q$
4. signature = $\{k, c\}$

Verifying :

$$(b^{mc^{-1}} k^{kc^{-1}} \pmod p) \pmod q = k \text{ ???}$$

p - large prime
 b - base, generator
 x - private exponent
 y - public residue; $y \equiv b^x \pmod p$
 $P = Z_p^*$, $A = Z_p^* \times Z_p^*$
 publics: p, b, y secrets: x

Signing :

1. generate random $r \in Z_{p-1}^*$
2. compute: $k = b^r \pmod p$
3. compute: $c = (m - xk)r^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$
4. signature = $\{k, c\}$

Verifying :

$$y^k k^c \pmod p = b^m \pmod p \text{ ???}$$

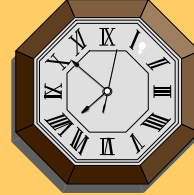
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The importance of Having a Good Time

- Often, signatures must be time-stamped
- How can Alice trust Bob's time?
- Can Alice trust her own time?
- Consider compromise scenario (Alice loses her key...)
- How to prove time-of-signing:
 - Not before time/date X
 - Not after time/date Y
- Using a Trusted Time-stamping Service



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Key Distribution

- How can two (or more) entities achieve secure communication without a shared key?
- Can they do so efficiently?
- How can a key be established?
- Is there a TTP/TA/KDC/AS/KDS/etc, etc.?
- Who chooses it (key)?
- Who contributes to it?
- How strong/long is it?
- How long can it be used?
- What can it be used for?
- Is there a separate SUPER-SECURE channel for KD?
- Can keys be pre-distributed?
- What about attacks?

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Key pre-distribution: Diffie-Hellman

System-wide parameters :
 p – large prime, a – generator in Z_p
 Alice :
 secret – x_a , public – $y_a = a^{x_a} \bmod p$
 Bob :
 secret – x_b , public – $y_b = a^{x_b} \bmod p$

$CERT_u = \{ID_u, y_u, \text{validity}, ID_{CA}\}^{CA}$

Alice : $CERT_{bob}$
 Bob : $CERT_{alice}$

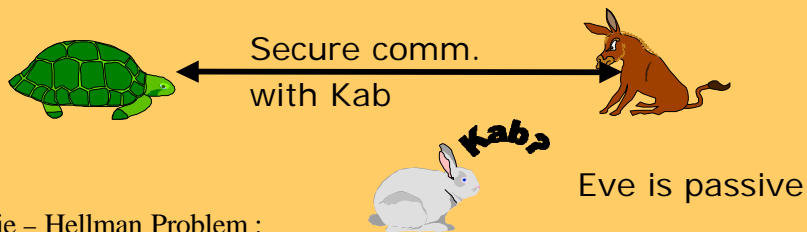
$K_{ab} = a^{x_a x_b} \bmod p$

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Key pre-distribution: Diffie-Hellman



Diffie – Hellman Problem :
 p – large prime, a – generator in Z_p
 Given :
 $y_a = a^{x_a} \bmod p$ and $y_b = a^{x_b} \bmod p$
 FIND : $a^{x_a x_b} \bmod p$

Discrete Log Problem :
 Given :
 $y_a = a^{x_a} \bmod p$
 FIND : x_a

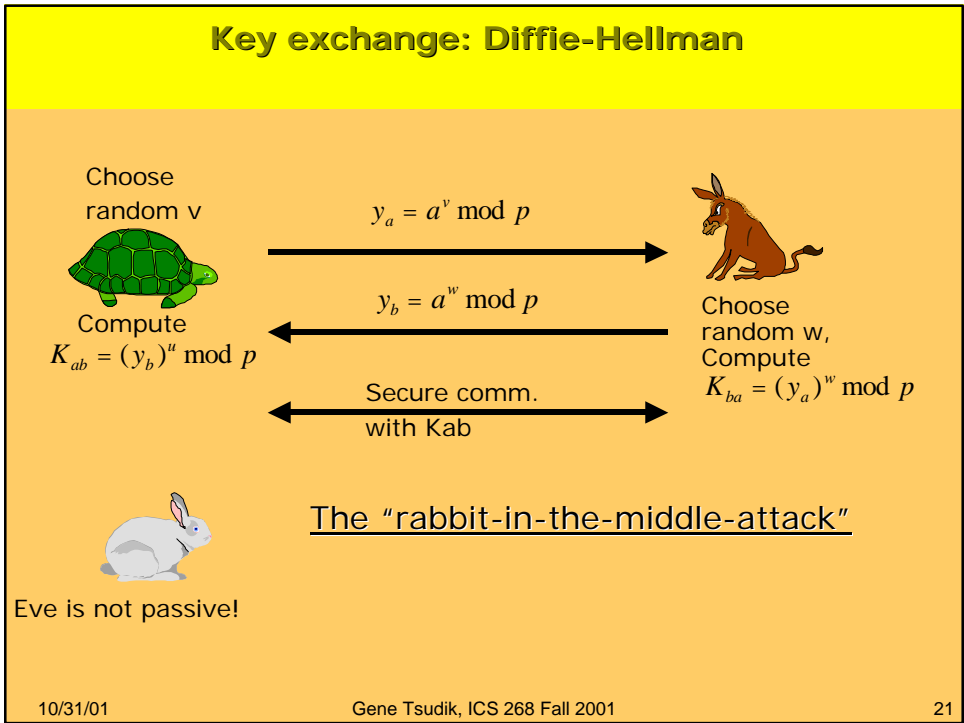
Decision DH Problem :
 p – large prime, a – generator
 Given :
 $y_a = a^{x_a} \bmod p$, $y_b = a^{x_b} \bmod p$
 Distinguish :
 $K_{ab} = a^{x_a x_b} \bmod p$
 from a random number!

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Key exchange: Diffie-Hellman



Authenticated Key Exchange (STS)

