

## General notes on cryptographic hash functions

Important properties of a cryptographic hash function  $h$ :

- First preimage resistance: Given fixed  $h(m)$ , it is computationally difficult to find  $m$ .
- Second preimage resistance: Given fixed  $m$ , it is computationally difficult to find  $m' \neq m$  such that  $h(m) = h(m')$
- Collision resistance: It is computationally difficult to find any  $m$  and  $m'$ , with  $m \neq m'$  such that  $h(m) = h(m')$

Here is an example of a **\*broken\*** hash function that one student mentioned:

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/MD5>

Some further goodies about MD5:

<http://web.archive.org/web/20071226014140/http://www.cits.rub.de/MD5Collisions/>

<https://www.mathstat.dal.ca/~selinger/md5collision/>

Another example is SHA-1, which is still widely used in many applications, but fortunately being used less and less.

See <https://shattered.io/> for more details

## Breakout Session 1 on RSA and Hash Functions

When broadcasting a message to multiple people, you may be able to use the Chinese Remainder Theorem to reveal the message.

Question:

Q: What padding schemes are used in the real world?

A: See:

- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Optimal\\_asymmetric\\_encryption\\_padding](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Optimal_asymmetric_encryption_padding)
- <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/PKCS>

Q: During the videolecture Tanja explained how to compute RSA signatures on a message  $m$  like this: Compute  $h(m)^d \pmod n$ , where  $h$  is some  $k$ -bit hash function. We require  $2^k < n$  (using  $h(m) = h_0, h_1, \dots, h_{k-1}$  as  $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} h_i \cdot 2^i$ ).

Can you explain in your words what she means by this?

A: The output of a hash function is a bit string of length  $k$ . We can view this bit string as an integer encoded in binary (little-endian in this case, for the CS students), and interpret it as a base 10 integer (modulo  $n$ ) using the summation given in the question. We then use this number to compute the signature.

## Breakout Session 2 on RSA and Hash Functions

Q: When signing, why do we use the hash functions. how is signing different to encrypting and decrypting a message with 'normal RSA'?

A: Cryptographic hash functions output "random"-looking outputs that eliminate algebraic relationships between messages that could be used in attacks.

Q: Can you explain general properties of hash functions?

A: Hash functions in the most general sense map arbitrarily long sequence of bits to a fixed-length sequence of bits. For cryptographic hash functions we require the three properties mentioned above. I gave some motivation for these properties using RSA signatures.

## Breakout Session 3 on RSA and Hash Functions

Q: How are the dangers of the version of RSA Tanja has shown mitigated in real life?

A: There are many mitigations used in real systems. Just a few of them: we use hashing in signatures to eliminate algebraic relationships between messages. We use padding to make sure that exponentiated values are large enough to be reduced mod  $n$ . We also use padding to introduce randomness so that encryption is not deterministic.

Q: Are there any alternatives to RSA if you want to use public key cryptography?

A: YES. Too many to mention here. You'll learn about some of them in this course.

Q: Why do we only use hashes for RSA signatures?

A: There are two sides to this coin as I think about it: A desired property of cryptographic hashes is that they look like "random" functions, and so they eliminate any structure between related messages that is preserved during the exponentiation mod  $n$ . This adds security against some kinds of attacks for signatures. However, they are also one-way functions (i.e. they have first pre-image resistance), and so if I encrypt a message  $m$  by computing  $h(m)^e \pmod n$ , then even if the owner of the private key decrypts this ciphertext, they cannot recover  $m$  from  $h(m)$ . So hashing wouldn't be very useful in this context.

Q: During an earlier lecture Tanja proved why the RSA system is sound, i.e.  $m = m'$ . I understand the case where  $\gcd(m,n) = 1$ , but I am a little bit confused by the case where  $m = r \cdot p$  and thus  $\gcd(m,n)$  is not 1. Can you maybe explain that part of the proof?

A: Rough sketch: if  $m$  not in  $Z^*_n$ , we still want that  $m^{\{ed\}} = m \pmod n$ . Remember  $ed = 1 + k \cdot \phi(n)$ , so  $m^{\{ed\}} = m^{(1 + k \cdot \phi(n))} = m \cdot m^{k \cdot \phi(n)}$ . Given that  $\phi(n) = (p-1) \cdot (q-1)$ , we can look at  $m^{k \cdot \phi(n)} \pmod p$  and  $\pmod q$ . You should be able to use this and CRT to show that this is  $1 \pmod n$ . So you get that  $m^{\{ed\}} = m \pmod n$ , even if  $m$  not in  $Z^*_n$ .