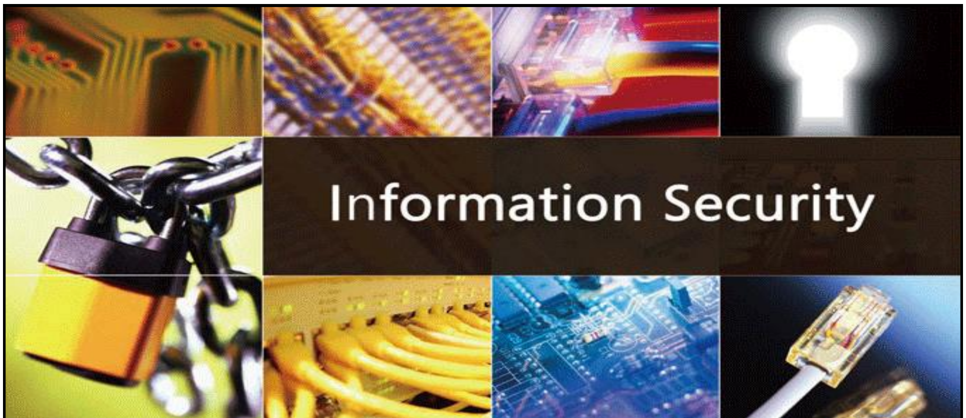

Asymmetric encryption

Lecturer: Nguyễn Thị Thanh Vân – FIT - HCMUTE

Objective

- Asymmetric encryption
- Modular arithmetic
- RSA
- Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange
- Message Authentication - MAC
- Cryptographic Hash Functions
- Digital Signatures

Asymmetric encryption

- ***Asymmetric encryption* is a form of cryptosystem in which *encryption* and *decryption* are performed using the different keys**
  - **a public key**
  - **a private key.**

- **It is also known as *public-key encryption***

Private – key Cryptography

- Private – key Cryptography also called **secret/ single key/ symmetric/ conventional.**
- It uses **ONLY ONE** key shared with both Recipient and Sender.
- *Private– key Cryptography looks like sealed box with message inside.*
- Private – key Cryptography's disadvantages:
  - Needs of secure channel to exchange keys
  - Each pair of users have to share one secret key. So the number of keys for N users should be N(N-1)/2 : so many keys!
  - Solution: **Using Public – key Cryptography**

Public – key Cryptography

- Cryptography with **public – key/2 keys/asymmetric** uses **TWO** keys that have one owner**:**
  - **Public - key**,
    - everyone can know and
    - use to **encrypt the message** or
    - to **check the signature** of key's owner.
  - **Private – key**:
    - only owner knows and
    - use to **decrypt the message** or
    - to **create the signature**

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Public – key Cryptography

- In **asymmetric cryptography,** role of sender and recipient are **not** same:
  - *Person who encrypt message either check the signature*
  - *that can not be decrypted or create the signature.*

- Mathematical basis: *One-way functions*
  - ***$y = f(x)$ is the one – way function if $y = f(x)$ is easy to calculate but $x = f^{-1}(y)$ is difficult to find***
  - *$x = f^{-1}(y)$ might be easy to calculate if given additional information (key)*

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Public key theory

- **Public key** can be calculated from **private key** and other information of cryptography (**P problem**)
- However, if knowing the public key and the ciphertext cannot calculate the private key (**NP problem**)
- Public key needs to be distributed safely for everyone, who needs securely send message to key's owner
- Problem of public key distribution is important – that is **key distribution problem**

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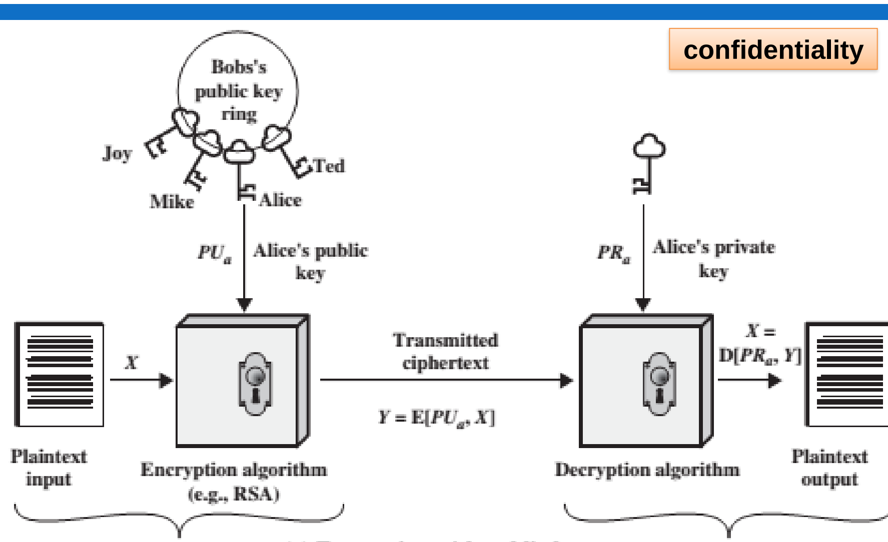
Encryption with public key

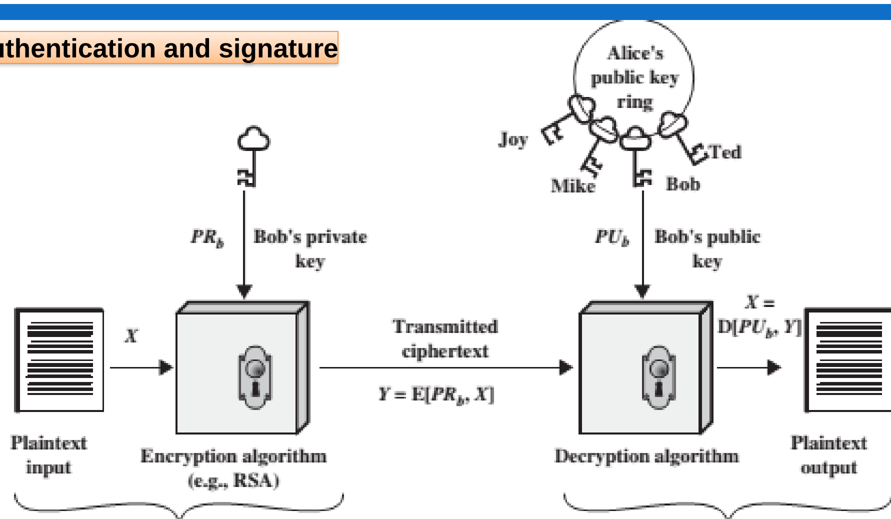
confidentiality



(a) Encryption with public key

Encryption with private key

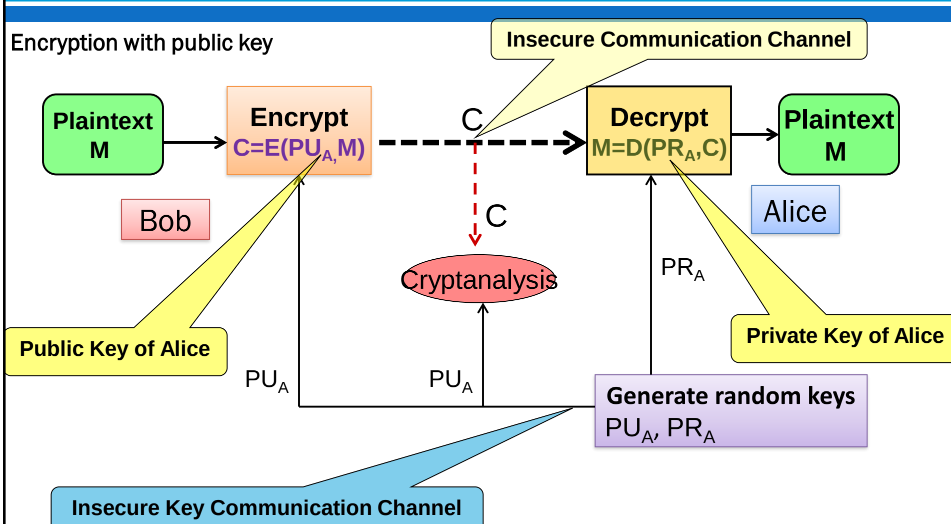
authentication and signature



(b) Encryption with private key

Public – key Cryptography: Model

Encryption with public key



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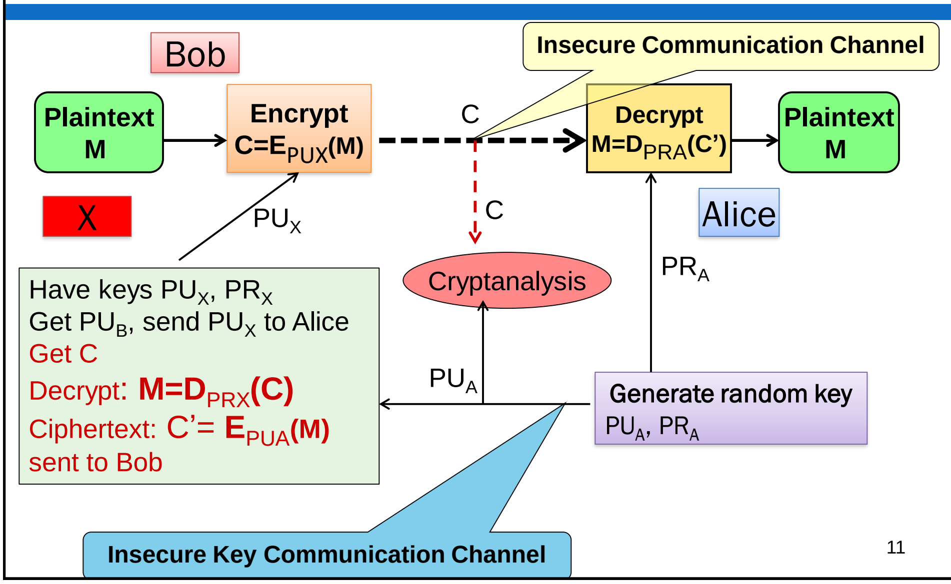
Public – key Cryptography: Model



Public key cryptography Security

- Security based on **the difference** between the hardness of encryption/decryption problem (**easy**) and cryptanalysis problem (**hard**)
- Cryptanalysis using **key exhaustive key search** is always done theoretically. But in fact, the number of used keys is too large for it (>512 bit)
- To resist some other **advanced cryptanalysis methods**, need to use **the very large keys** (>>512 bit)
- Therefore implementation of public key cryptography is much slower than the secret key cryptography

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Problems of public key cryptography

Encryption using public key:
- Using to encrypt message then sent it to key owner
- Everyone can use **public key to encrypt**
- The owner uses **private key to decrypt**

○ **=> Ensuring the confidentiality of message**

Encryption using private key:
- Using to create signature for message
- Owner uses **private key** to sign message
- Everyone uses **public key to check the signature**

○ **=> Ensuring the authentication of the message**

Public Key Distribution Scenario (PKDS):
- Methods of **public key distribution**
- Using **PK cryptography to exchange private keys**

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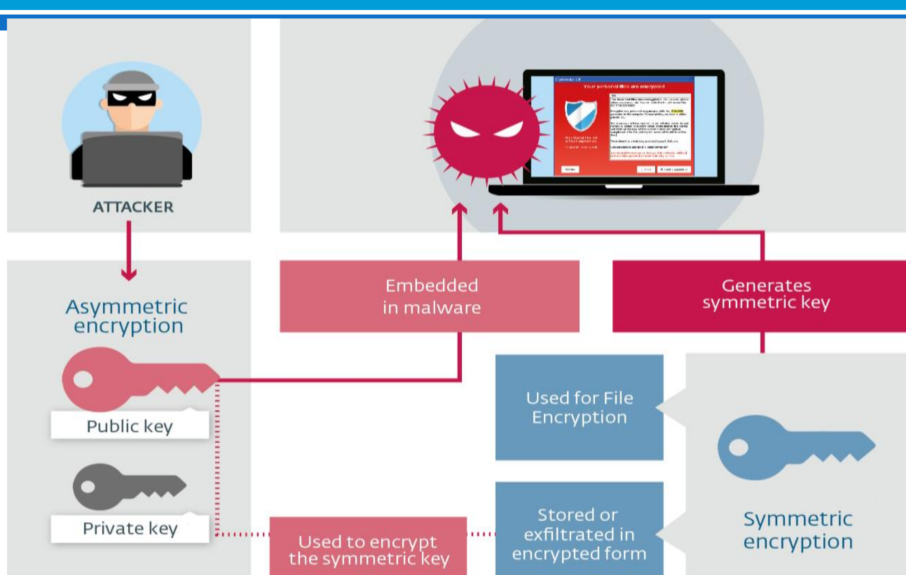
Ex, Symmetric /Asymmetric encryption



Modular Arithmetic

- Modulo, modulus
- Congruence modulo
- Properties (addition, subtraction, multiplication, exponentiation)
- Modular inverse (additive, multiplicative)
- Totient (Euler's phi) function

Modular, congruence

- In mathematics, **modular arithmetic** is a system of arithmetic for integers, where numbers "wrap around" upon reaching a certain value—the **modulus** (plural **moduli**).
- The modern approach to modular arithmetic was developed by Carl Friedrich Gauss
- Ex: Instead of 13 = 1.
  - write 13 ≡ 1 (mod 12) and read it "13 is congruent to 1 modulo 12" or, to abbreviate, "13 is 1 modulo 12".
- Examples:
  - 12 ≡ 0 (mod 12); 17 ≡ 5 (mod 12)
    37 ≡ 1 (mod 12); -1 ≡ 11 (mod 12)
- In general, a ≡ b (mod n) if a-b is a multiple of n.
  Equivalently, a ≡ b (mod n) if a and b have the same remainder when divided by n (remainder modulo n)

Properties
(addition, subtraction, multiplication, exponentiation)

- mod n = 6
  - 4 + 3 = 7 - 6 = 1
  - 3 – 5 = -2 + 6 = 4
  - 4 * 5 = 20 % 6 = 2
  - 5^{13} (mod 6)
    - 5 - 6 ≡ -1, -1^{13} ≡ -1 (mod 6)

Associated with addition, multiplicative

- Additive

$$\begin{array}{rcll} \textit{If} \quad a & \equiv & b \pmod{m} & \textit{and} \\ c & \equiv & d \pmod{m}, & \textit{then} \\ a+c & \equiv & b+d \pmod{m}. & \end{array}$$

- Multiplicative

$$\begin{array}{rcll} \textit{If} \quad a & \equiv & b \pmod{m} & \textit{and} \\ c & \equiv & d \pmod{m}, & \textit{then} \\ a \times c & \equiv & b \times d \pmod{m}. & \end{array}$$

Ex, Additive

- Examples:
  - 7 + 8 ≡ 3 (mod 12); 10 + 2 ≡ 0 (mod 12)
    13 + 2 ≡ 3 (mod 12); -1 + 14 ≡ 1 (mod 12)
- Ex, 19 + 23 + 15 ≡ ? (mod 12)
  - First replace each number by its remainder mod 12:
    7 + 11 + 3. then do the sum: 21
  - and replace the sum by its remainder modulo 12: 9
    19 + 23 + 15 ≡ 9 (mod 12)
- If today is Sunday, what day will it be in 1000 days?
  We need to find the remainder of 1000 when divided by 7
  - 1000: = 700+280+20

ex

- Examples multiplicative:
  - 7 x 4 ≡ 8 (mod 10);
  - 19 x 28 ≡ 2 (mod 10): 9x8 = 72 ≡ 2 (mod 10)
  - -2 x 6 ≡ 8 (mod 10)
- Ex, exponentiation
  - $x=3^2$ mod 13 . $x = 3^2$ mod 13 = 9
  - $x = 3^{10}$ mod 13 = $3^4 \cdot 3^4 \cdot 3^2$ mod 13 = 9^2 . $9^2 \cdot 9$ mod 13 =
    (6.13+3). (6.13+3). 9 mod 13= 3.3.9 mod 13 = 3
- Ex, exponentiation: 17^2 (mod 19)
  - 17^2= 289, divide that by 19 and then take the remainder 4.
  - However, since we know that 17 ≡ -2 (mod 19), we can multiply this congruence equation by itself to obtain $17^2 \equiv -2^2 \equiv 4$ (mod 19).
- Ex: $x= 18^{489391312}$ (mod 19)

Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- GCD: a common problem in number theory
- GCD (a,b) of a and b is the largest number that divides evenly into both a and b
- Ex, GCD(60,24) = 12
- often want no common factors (except 1) and hence numbers are relatively prime
- Ex, GCD(8,15) = 1, hence 8 & 15 are relatively prime

Euclidean Algorithm

- an efficient way to find the GCD(a,b):
  GCD(a,b) = GCD(b, a mod b)
- Euclidean Algorithm to compute GCD(a,b) is:

```
EUCLID(a,b)
1. A = a; B = b
2. if B = 0 return A = gcd(a, b)
3. R = A mod B
4. A = B
5. B = R
6. goto 2
```

- Example GCD(1970,1066)

Fermat's Theorem

- $a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$
  - where p is prime and gcd(a,p)=1
  - also known as Fermat's Little Theorem
  - Ex: $2^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$.
  - Ex: $2^{50} \equiv ? \pmod{17}$

  50=(16x3)+2 => $2^{(16)x3} \times 2^2 = 1^3 \times 4 \equiv 4 \pmod{17}$
- also $a^p = p \pmod{p}$
  - useful in public key and primality testing
  - Ex, if $a = 2$ and $p = 7$, then:

  $2^7 = 128$, and $128 - 2 = 126 = 7 \times 18$ is an integer multiple of 7.

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Euler Totient Function ø(n)

- Euler Totient Function ø(n)
  - when doing arithmetic modulo n
  - **complete set of residues** is: 0..n-1
  - **reduced set of residues** is those numbers (residues) which are relatively prime to n
  - eg for n=10,
    – complete set of residues is {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9}
    – reduced set of residues is {1,3,7,9}
  - number of elements in reduced set of residues is called the **Euler Totient Function ø(n)**

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Euler Totient Function ø(n)

- to compute ø(n) need to count number of residues to be excluded
  - in general need prime factorization, but
    – for p (p prime): ø(p) = p-1
    – for p.q (p,q prime): ø(pq) =(p-1)x(q-1)
  - eg.
    ø(37) = 36
    ø(21) = (3–1)x(7–1) = 2x6 = 12

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RSA (Rivest, Shamir, Adleman)

- RSA is a well – known and widely popular public key cryptography.
- Firstly published by the authors in 1977 (MIT)
- **Its based on exponentiation on Galos' Field of the integers of modulo prime number**
  - Exponentiation has complexity $O((\log n)^3)$ (**easy**)
- RSA security is based on hardness of the factor analysis and the discrete logarithm problem:
  - Analysis problem has complexity $O(e^{\log n \log \log n})$ (**difficult**)
  - Similarly, discrete logarithm is very hard
- RSA has been copyrighted in North America and in some other countries.

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RSA Algorithm

- **Users create pair of public/private keys :**
  - Choose 2 random prime numbers $p \neq q$ (>120 digits)
  - Calculate $N = p \times q$,
  - Calculate $\varphi(N) = (p-1) \times (q-1)$
  - Choose integer e, $1< e < \varphi(N)$ such as: $gcd(e,\varphi(N)) = 1$
  - Calculate $d = e^{-1} \bmod \varphi(N)$ and $0 < d < \varphi(N)$
  - **Public key is the pair: $K_u = \{e,N\}$**
  - **Private key is the pair: $K_r = \{d,N\}$**
- **Encryption**: $c = m^e \bmod n,\ m < n$
- **Decryption**: $m = c^d \bmod n$
- **Signature**: $s = m^d \bmod n,\ m < n$
- **Verification:** $m = s^e \bmod n$

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RSA Example - Key Setup

1. Select primes: $p = 17$ & $q = 11$
2. Calculate $n = pq = 17 \times 11 = 187$
3. Calculate $ø(n)=(p–1)(q-1)=16x10=160$
4. Select e: gcd(e,160) = 1; choose $e = 7$
5. Determine d: $de = 1 \bmod 160$ and $d < 160$

Value is d = 23 since 23x7 = 161 = 1x160 + 1

1. Publish public key PU = {7,187}
2. Keep secret private key PR = {23,187}

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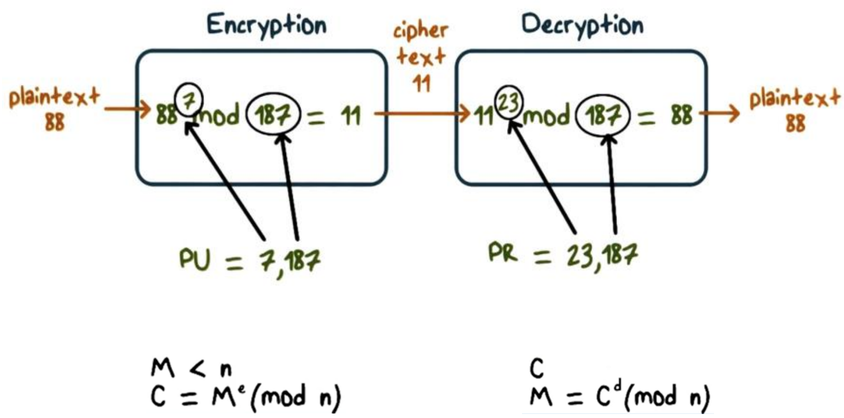
Why does RSA Work?



RSA Quiz

Fill in the text boxes:

Given p = 3 and q = 11

1. Compute n: n= ☐

2. Compute φ(n):
φ(n) = ☐

3. Assume e = 7
Compute the value of d:
d = ☐

4. What is the public key

(e,n) = (☐ , ☐)

5. What is the private key

(d,n) = (☐ , ☐)

RSA Encryption Quiz

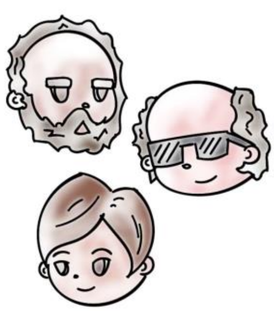
Given:
- Public key is (e, n) => (7, 33)
- Private key is (d, n) => (3, 33)
- Message m = 2

What is the encryption of m:

What formula is used to decrypt m?

(Use ** for denoting an exponent)

RSA Characteristics



- **Variable key length**
- **Variable plaintext block size**
  - Plaintext treated as an integer, and must be “smaller” than the key
  - Ciphertext block size is the same as the key length

RSA Security

- Four possible approaches to attacking the RSA algorithm are:

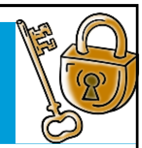
1. Brute force: This involves trying all possible private keys.

2. Mathematical attacks: There are several approaches, all equivalent in effort to factoring the product of two primes.

3. Timing attacks: These depend on the running time of the decryption algorithm.

4. Chosen ciphertext attacks: This type of attack exploits properties of the RSA algorithm.

Why RSA is Secure?

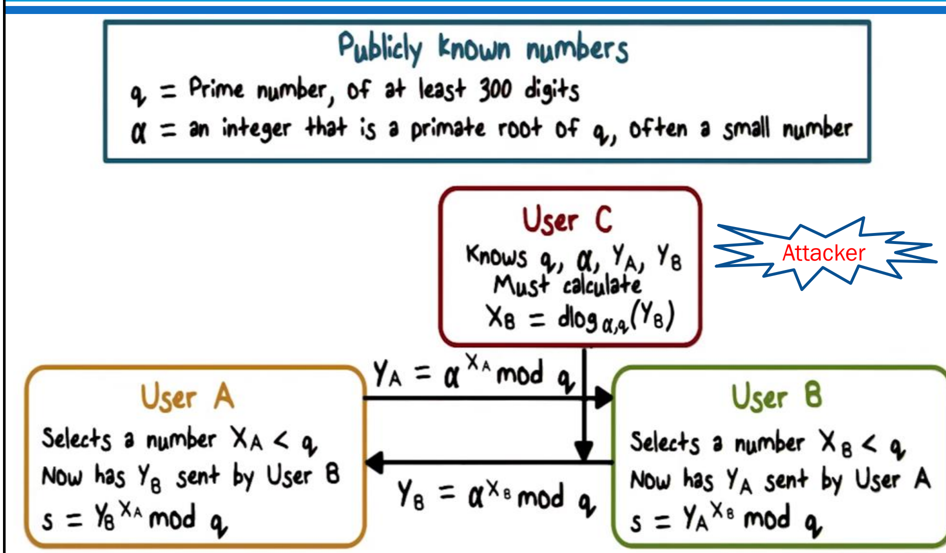


- Factoring an integer with at least 512-bit is **very hard**!
- **But if you can factor big number n then given public key <e,n>, you can find d, and hence the private key by:**
  - Knowing factors p, q, such that, $n = p \times q$
  - Then compute $ø(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$
  - Then find d such that $e \times d = 1 \bmod ø(n)$

Diffie and Hellman Key Exchange

- **First published** public-key algorithm
- By Diffie and Hellman in 1976 along with the **exposition of public key concepts**
- Used in a number of commercial products
- **Practical method to exchange a secret key** securely that can then be used for subsequent encryption of messages
- Security **relies on difficulty of computing discrete logarithms**

Diffie and Hellman Key Exchange



Diffie-Hellman Example

Have
- Prime number $q = 353$
- Prime number $\alpha = 3$

A and B each computer their public keys
- A computes $Y_A = 3^{97} \bmod 353 = 40$
- B computes $Y_B = 3^{233} \bmod 353 = 248$

Then exchange and computer secret key:
- For A: $K = (Y_B)^{XA} \bmod 353 = 248^{97} \bmod 353 = 160$
- For B: $K = (Y_A)^{XB} \bmod 353 = 40^{233} \bmod 353 = 160$

Attacker must solve:
- $3^{\alpha} \bmod 353 = 40$ which is hard
- Desired answer is 97, then computer key as B does

Diffie-Hellman Quiz

Alice and Bob agree to use
prime q = 29 and primitive root α = 5

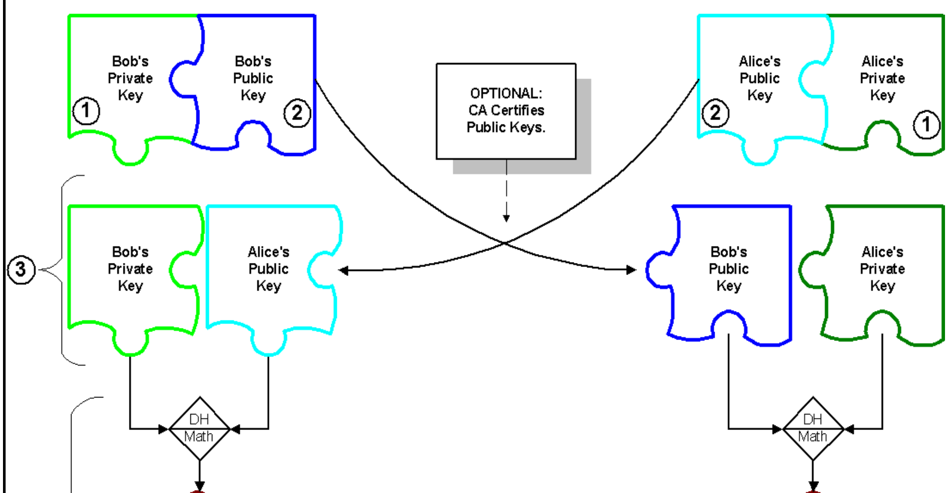
Alice chooses secret a = 6
Bob chooses secret b= 5

What number does Alice send Bob?

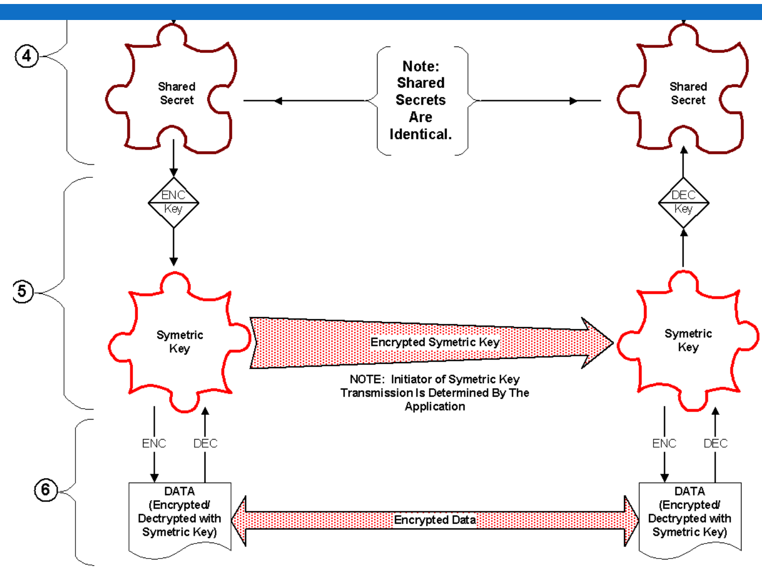
What number does Bob send Alice?

Implementation

Diffie-Helman Key Exchange



Implementation



Diffie-Hellman Security

- **Shared key (the secret) itself never transmitted**
- Discrete logarithm is very hard
- $Y = \alpha^X \bmod q$
- **Conjecture:** given Y, α, and q, it is extremely hard to compute the value of X because q is a very large prime (discrete logarithm)

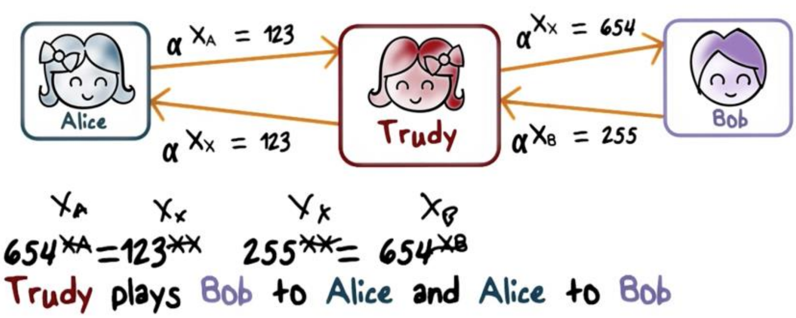
Applications

- Diffie-Hellman is currently used in many protocols, namely:
  - Secure Sockets Layer (SSL)/Transport Layer Security (TLS)
  - Secure Shell (SSH)
  - Internet Protocol Security (IPSec)
  - Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

Diffie-Hellman Limitations

- Expensive exponential operation
  - DoS possible
- The scheme itself **cannot be used to encrypt anything –** it is for secret key establishment
- **No authentication**, so you cannot sign anything

Bucket Brigade Attack, Man-in-the-Middle(MIM)



Other Public-Key Algorithms

Digital Signal Standard:

- Makes use of SHA-1 and the Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
- Originally proposed in 1991, revised in 1993 due to security concerns, and another minor revision in 1996
- **Cannot be used for encryption or key exchange**
- Uses an algorithm that is designed to provide only the digital signature function

Other Public-Key Algorithms

Elliptic-Curve Cryptography (ECC):

- Equal security for smaller bit size than RSA
- Seen in standards such as IEEE P1363
- Confidence level in ECC is not yet as high as that in RSA
- **Based on a mathematical construct known as the elliptic curve**

Part 3: Cryptographic data integrity algorithms

Nguyen Thi Thanh Van - Khoa CNTT

Contents

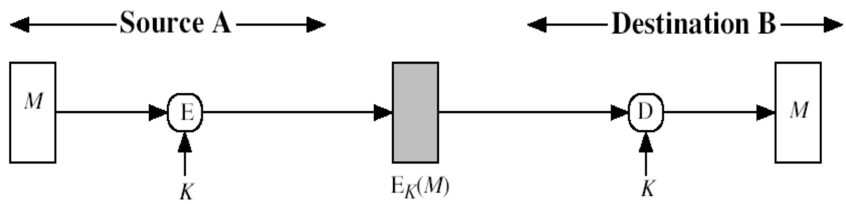
- Message Authentication
- **Cryptographic Hash Functions**
- Digital Signatures

Message Authentication

- **Authentication has purpose:**
  - Ensure **message sequentiality**
  - Assure **message integrity**
  - Confirm **sender's validity**
- **Mechanisms for message authentication**
  - Message encryption (in symmetric, asymmetric)
  - Hash function
  - Message Authentication Code – MAC

Message encryption

Symmetric Cryptography



Symmetric encryption: confidentiality and authentication

- **Confidentiality:** Only A & B have key K to decrypt
- **Authentication:** M must only from A. M cannot be changed without detection. Need more constraints *(in case M is binary)*
- **No signature:** Recipient can fabricate message, and sender can deny message.

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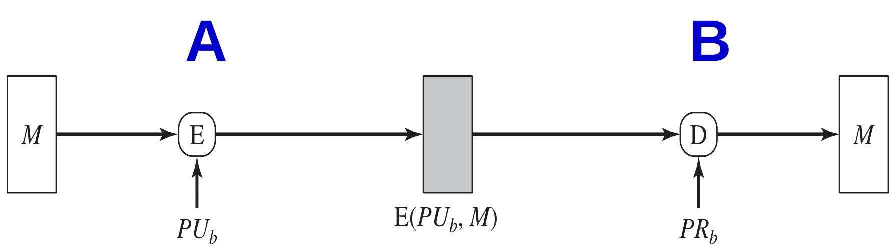
Asymmetric Cryptography



Public-key encryption: confidentiality

- **Confidentiality:** Only **B** has PR_b to decrypt
- **No authentication:** everyone can use PU_b to encrypt M then blame on **A**

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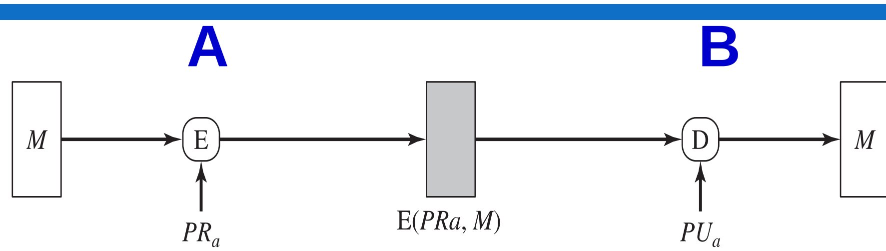
Asymmetric Cryptography (2)



Public-key encryption: authentication and signature

- Only **A** has PR_a to encrypt
- M cannot changed
- Need more constraints
- Everyone can use PU_a to check signature

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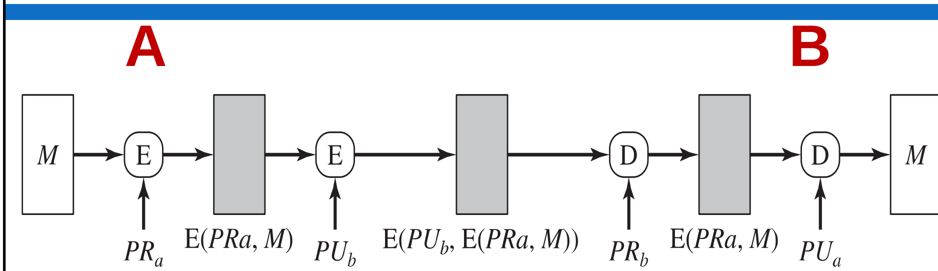
Asymmetric Cryptography (3)



Public-key encryption: confidentiality, authentication, and signature

- **Confidentiality:**
  - Because of using PUb to encrypt
- **Authentication & Signature:**
  - Because of using PRa to encrypt

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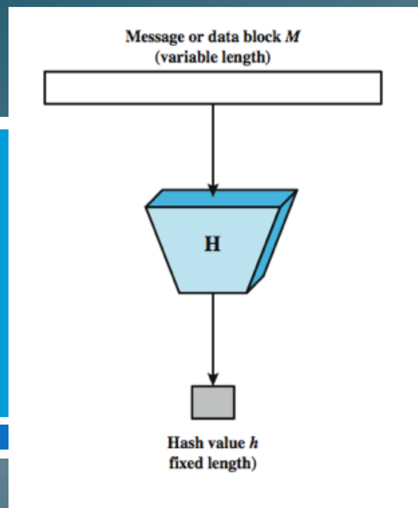
Hash function



Cryptographic Hash Functions

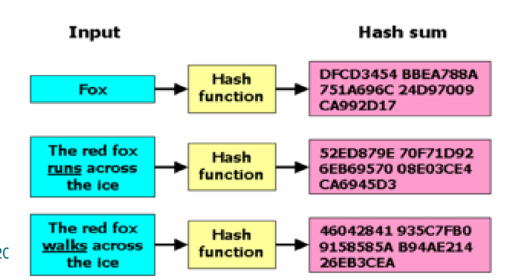
- What is Hash Functions
- Hash function Requirement
- Hash Functions in Message authentication
- Attacks on Hash Functions
- Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA)

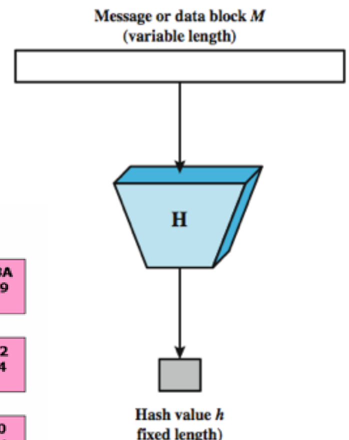
What is Hash Functions

- A hash function maps a *variable-length message* into a *fixed-length hash value*,

  or message digest

  ***h* = H(*M*)**
- The *principal object:*
  - *data integrity*





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Hash function Requirement

- Variable input size
- Fixed output size
- Efficiency: H (M) is easily calculated with arbitrary M
- For any given value h, it is difficult to find M such that H(M) = h
  - One-way function
- For any M1, it is very difficult to find M2#M1 such that H(M2) = H(M1)
  - collision resistant: weak
- Very difficult to find any pair (M1, M2) such that H (M1) = H(M2)
  - collision resistant: Strong

A Strong hash function: satisfied all 6 reqs (weak: 5 reqs)

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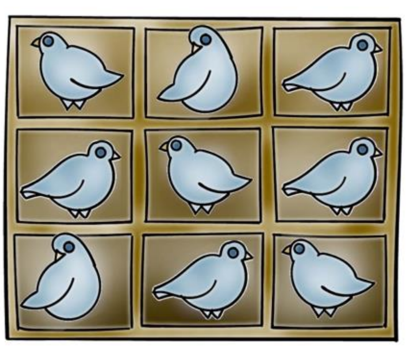
Hash Functions - Issues

Pigeonhole Principle

The Birthday Paradox

Hash Function Weaknesses

Pigeonhole Principle



n = number of pigeons
m = number of holes

n = m There is one pigeon per hole

n > m Then at least one hole must have more than one pigeon

Hash Function Weaknesses

Hash Functions:

- There are many more 'pigeons' than 'pigeonholes'
- Many inputs will be mapped to the same output. That is, ***many input messages will have the same hash.***

Conclusion: The longer the length of the hash, the fewer collisions.

Determining Hash Length

Hash Length	Possible # of hash values
1	2
64	2^{32}

Hash Size Quiz

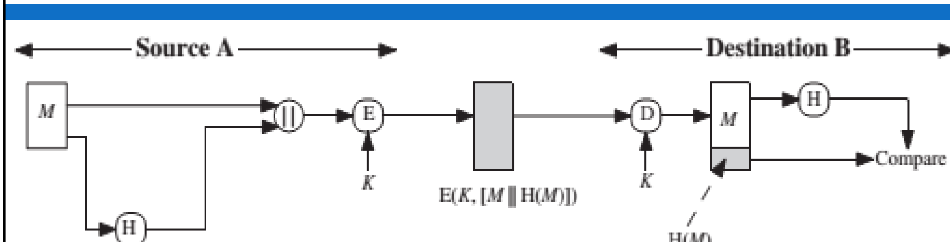
Choose the correct answer:

If the length of hash is 128 bits, then how many messages does an attack need to search in order to find two that share the same hash?

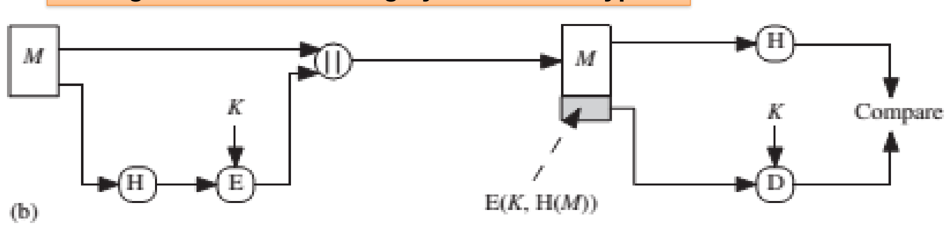
- ☐ 128
- ☐ 2^{127}
- ☐ 2^{128}
- ☐ 2^{64}

Exs of the Use of a Hash Function

for Message Authentication

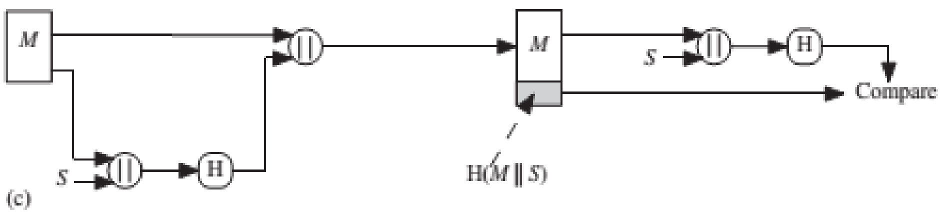


Message Auth & Conf using symmetric encryption

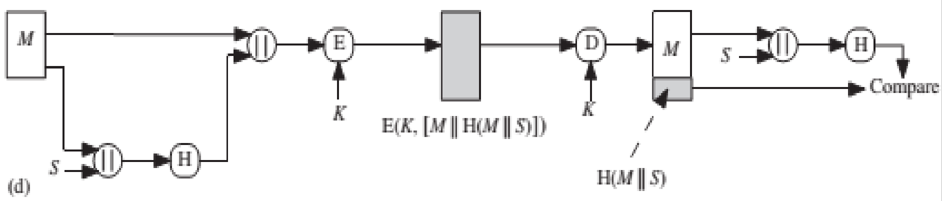


Message Authentication using symmetric encryption

Exs of the Use of a Hash Function
for Message Authentication



Message Auth & Integrity, no encryption



Message Auth & Conf using encryption

keyed hash function

- More commonly, message authentication is achieved using a **message authentication code (MAC)**, also known as a **keyed hash function**.
- Typically, MACs are used between two parties that share a secret key to authenticate information exchanged between those parties.
- A MAC function takes as input:
  - a secret key and
  - a data block
  - and produces a hash value, referred to as the MAC

Hash function: MD5

- **MD5 creates hash value of 128-bit from message**
  - Calculations in 32 – bit numbers is fast and widely used with **the acceptable security** (RFC1321 standard)
  - it is fast, simple and small => used in many cases even collision was found
- **Calculation Process of MD5:**
  - Add to message 1→512 bits to get length of **448 mod 512**
  - **Add one 64-bit value to the message**
  - Begin with **4-word 32-bit (128-bit) block**, that is (A,B,C,D)
  - In 16-word (512-bit) blocks: use **4 rounds** to calculate 16- bit numbers in the buffer and blocks. **Add outputs into inputs** to create new buffer values
  - **Hash value** is the final result of (A,B,C,D)

SHA - Secure Hash function

- SHA (Secure Hash Algorithm) originally designed by NIST & NSA in 1993, was revised in 1995 as SHA-1
- US standard for use with DSA signature scheme
  - standard is FIPS 180-1 1995, also Internet RFC3174
  - Note that, the algorithm is SHA, the standard is SHS
- based on design of MD4 with key differences
- produces 160-bit hash values
- recent 2005 results on security of SHA-1 have raised
- concerns on its use in future applications
- adds 3 additional versions of SHA: SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512

Comparison of SHA Parameters

	SHA-1	SHA-256	SHA-384	SHA-512
Message digest size	160	256	384	512
Message size	$<2^{64}$	$<2^{64}$	$<2^{128}$	$<2^{128}$
Block size	512	512	1024	1024
Word size	32	32	64	64
Number of steps	80	80	80	80
Security	80	128	192	256

Notes:
1. All sizes are measured in bits.
2. Security refers to the fact that a birthday attack on a message digest of size n produces a collision with a work factor of approximately $2^{n/2}$.

Attacks on Hash function

- two categories of attacks on hash functions:
  - Brute-force attack:
    - depend only on bit length of the hash value (not specific algorithm)
    - Attack to: One-way function; collision resistant - weak

    wishes to find a value y such that H(y)=h, try 2m-1 values
    - Attack to: collision resistant - strong

    wishes to find 2 messages: x,y, that yield H(y)=H(x), try 2m/2 values
  - Cryptanalysis:
    - based on weaknesses in a particular cryptographic algorithm.
    - require a cryptanalytic effort greater than or equal to the BF effort

MAC –
Message Authentication Code

Nguyen Thi Thanh Van - Khoa CNTT

12/5/2018

Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- **Message Authentication Code** *(MAC)*
  - attached to message
  - depends on **both message** and **private key** that only sender and recipient know
  - Message length can be arbitrary, but MAC often has certain fixed length (Ex: 128 bit)
  - To create MAC we can use hash function
    - To reduce message length
    - To keep message integrity

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Message Authentication Code - MAC

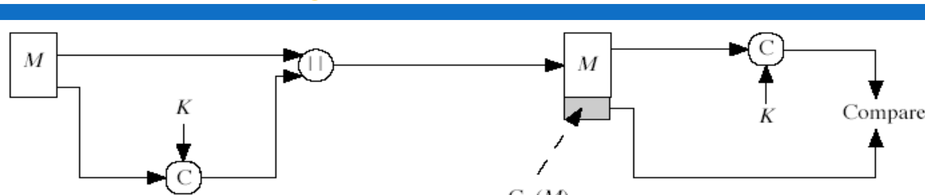
- When A has a message to send to B, it calculates the MAC (checksum) as a function of the message M and the key K:

MAC = C(M,K)

where
M = input message
K = shared secret key
C = MAC function

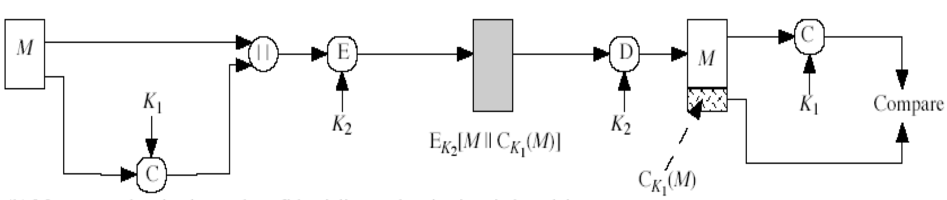
- MAC = message authentication code, is attached to M
- When B receive MAC & M, B calculates *MAC'* = C(**M,K**);
- If *MAC* = *MAC'* we can conclude:
  - **M** is not changed
  - **A** is the one who sent **M**

Basic Uses of Message Authentication Code



(a) Message authentication

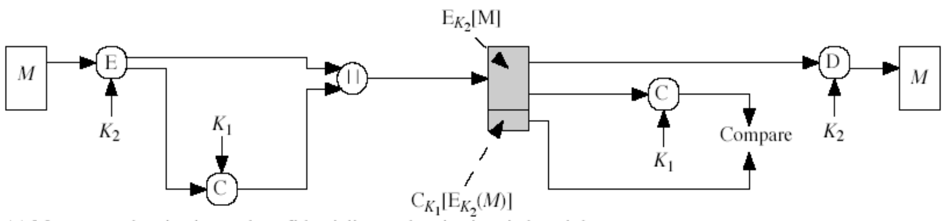
Authentication: Only **A** & **B** have key **K**



(b) Message authentication and confidentiality; authentication tied to plaintext

Confidentiality: Only **A** & **B** have key $\mathbf{K_2}$
Authentication: Only **A** & **B** have key $\mathbf{K_1}$

Basic Uses of Message Authentication Code



(c) Message authentication and confidentiality; authentication tied to ciphertext

Confidentiality: Due to **K_1.**
Authentication: Due to **K_2**

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Security of MAC

- two categories of attacks on MAC:
  - Brute-force attack:
    - depends on the relative size of the key and the tag
    - more difficult undertaking than BF attack on a hash function because it requires known message-tag pairs.
  - Cryptanalysis:
    - based on weaknesses in a particular cryptographic algorithm.
    - require a cryptanalytic effort greater than or equal to the BF effort
    - There is much more variety in the structure of MACs than in hash functions, so it is difficult to generalize about the cryptanalysis of MACs.

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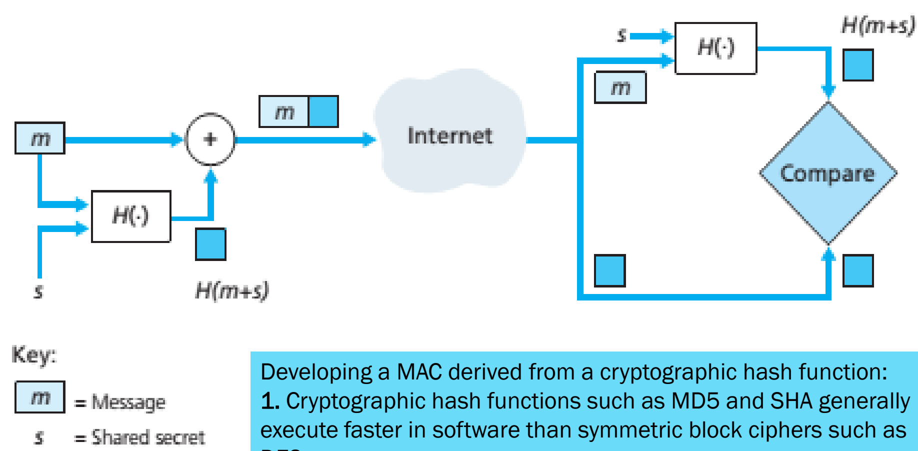
MAC based on Hash Function: HMAC



Developing a MAC derived from a cryptographic hash function:
1. Cryptographic hash functions such as MD5 and SHA generally execute faster in software than symmetric block ciphers such as DES.
2. Library code for cryptographic hash functions is widely available.

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MAC based on Hash Function: HMAC

1. Append zeros to the left end of to create a b-bit string K+ (e.g., if is of length 160 bits and , then will be appended with 44 zeroes).
2. XOR (bitwise exclusive-OR) with ipad to produce the b-bit block Si.
3. Append M to Si
4. Apply H to the stream generated in step 3.
5. XOR with opad to produce the b-bit block S0.
6. Append the hash result from step 4 to S0.
7. Apply H to the stream generated in step 6 and output the result.

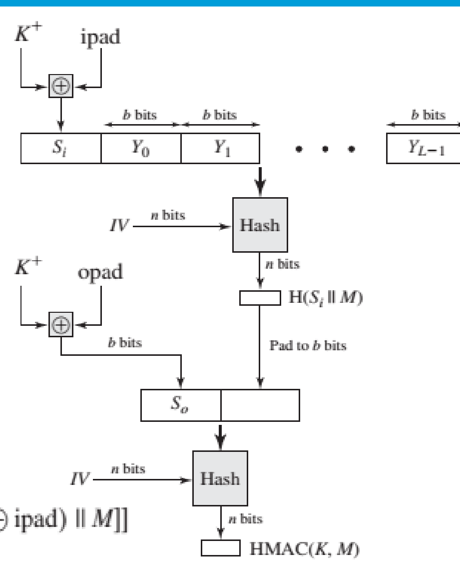


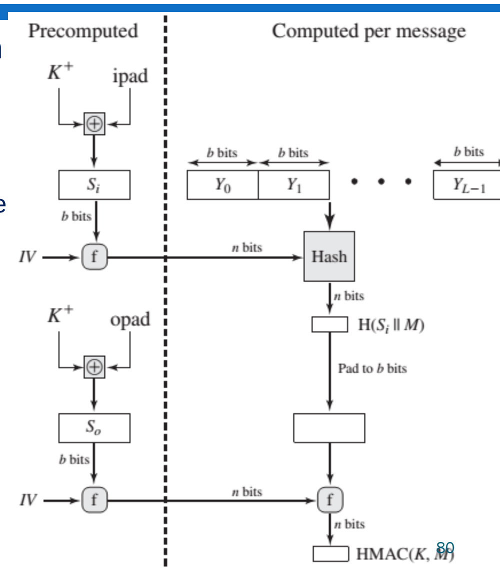
Figure 12.5 HMAC Structure

HMAC:

$$\mathrm{HMAC}(K, M) = \mathrm{H}[(K^+ \oplus \mathrm{opad}) \| \mathrm{H}[(K^+ \oplus \mathrm{ipad}) \| M]]$$

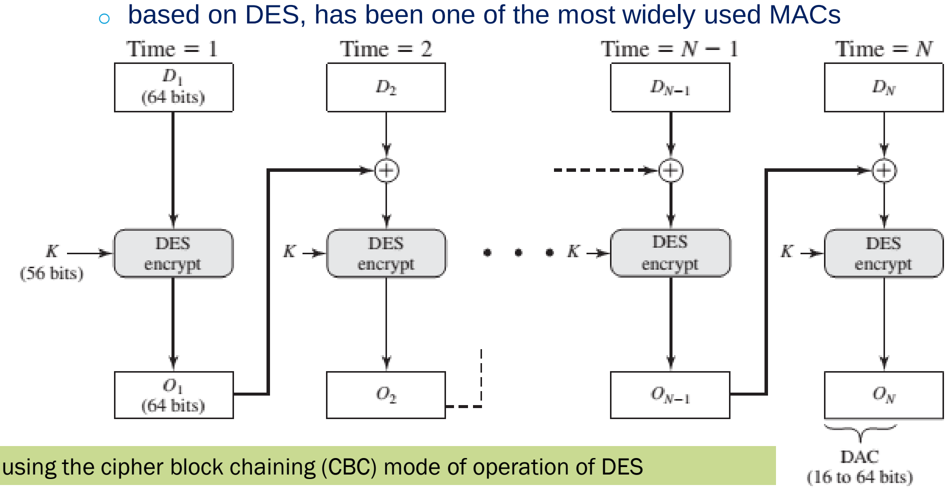
Security of HMAC

- based on an embedded hash function
  - depends on strength of the core hash function.
  - the probability of successful fake with time spent and some message–tag pairs created with the same key.
- Attack:
  - compute an output of the compression function
  - finds collisions in the hash function



MACS based on block ciphers: DAA & CMAC

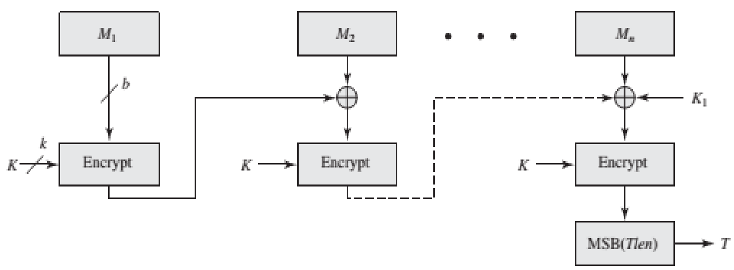
- **Data Authentication Algorithm** (DAA) (obsolete – old)
  - based on DES, has been one of the most widely used MACs



using the cipher block chaining (CBC) mode of operation of DES

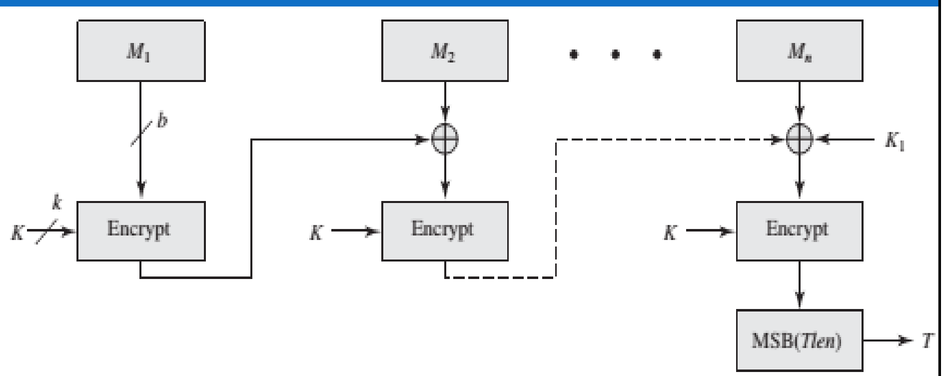
Cipher-Based Message Authentication Code (CMAC)

- operation for use with AES and triple DES:
- using three keys:
  - one key of length to be used at each step of the cipher block chaining and
  - two keys of length , where is the key length and is the cipher block length.
- This proposed construction: the two -bit keys could be derived from the encryption key, rather than being provided separately



(a) Message length is integer multiple of block size

Cipher-Based Message Authentication Code (CMAC)



(a) Message length is integer multiple of block size

$$C_n = E(K, [M_n \oplus C_{n-1} \oplus K_1])$$
$$T = MSB_{Tlen}(C_n)$$

T = message authetication code, also referred to as the tag
$Tlen$ = bit length of T
$MSB_s(X)$ = the s leftmost bits of the bit string X

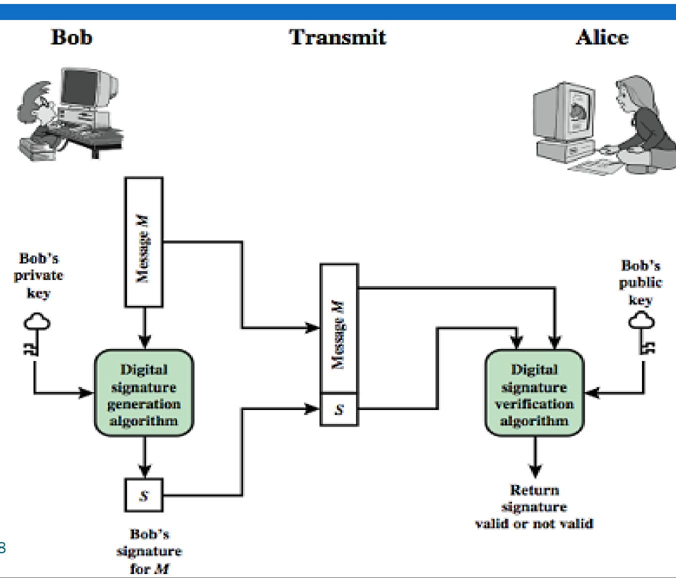
Digital Signature

Nguyen Thi Thanh Van - Khoa CNTT

Digital signature

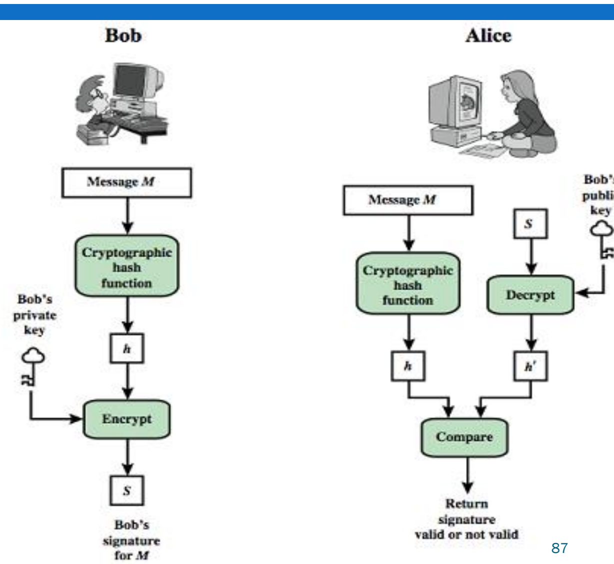
- A digital signature:
  - enables the creator of a message to attach a code that acts as a signature.
  - is formed by taking the hash of the message and encrypting the message with the creator’s private key.
- digital signature properties:
  - verify the author and time of the signature.
  - authenticate the contents at the time of the signature.
  - It must be verifiable by third parties, to resolve disputes.

Generic Model of Digital Signature Process



Simplified Depiction of Essential Elements of Digital Signature Process

Hash code is used to provide a digital signature



Ex of Digital Signatures

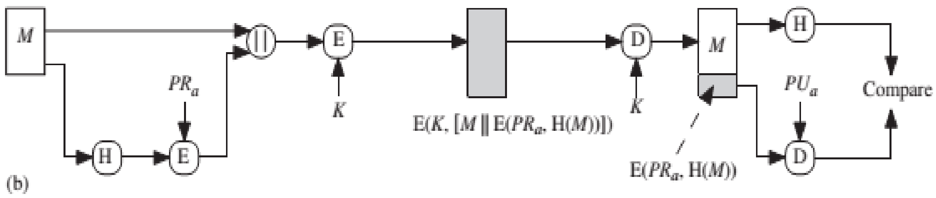


Figure 11.3 Simplified Examples of Digital Signatures

- hash code is used to provide a digital signature:
  - E(K,[M,E(PR_a, H(M))]): confidential
  - This is a common technique

Digital Signature Standard DSS

- DSS: Digital Signature Standard
  - US Govt approved signature scheme
  - designed by NIST & NSA in early 90's
  - published as FIPS-186 in 1991, revised in 1993, 1996, 2000
  - Use RSA to create the digital signature process
- DSA: Digital Signature Algorithm
  - new digital signature technique
  - is a public-key technique
- SHA: Secure Hash Algorithm
  - Is American standard in Digital Signature Algorithm DSA

Digital Signature using RSA

- RSA is used to create the digital signature process
- Assume we have the process RSA {(e,N), (d,N)}
- To **sign** the message **M** we calculate:

  S = $\mathbf{M}^{d}$(mod N).
- **Signature S should be attached to message M:**

  {M,S}
- To **check** signature we have to verify the equality of **M** and $\mathbf{S}^{e}$:

  $\mathbf{S}^{e}$(mod N) = $\mathbf{M}^{e.d}$(mod N) = **M**(mod N)

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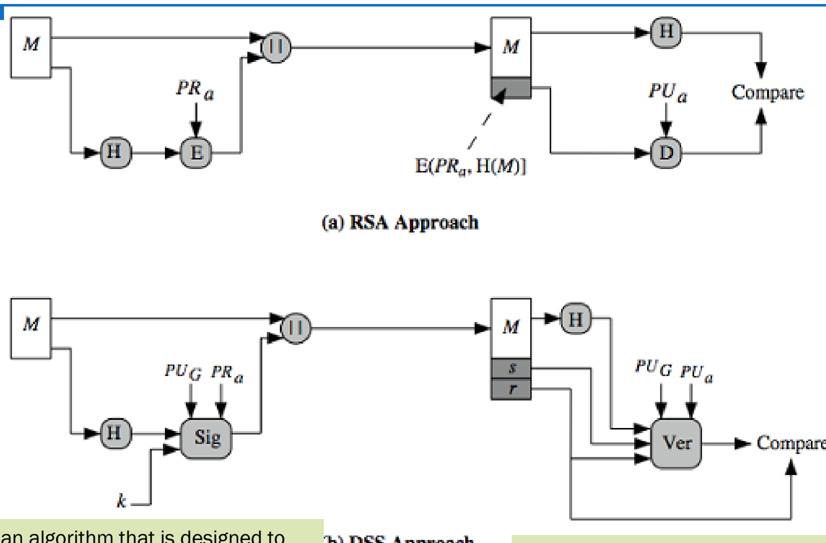
RSA vs. DSS



DSS uses an algorithm that is designed to provide only the digital signature function

it cannot be used for encryption

Digital Signature Algorithm - DSA

The DSA is based on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms and is based on schemes originally

Global Public-Key Components

p prime number where $2^{L-1} < p < 2^L$ for $512 \le L \le 1024$ and L a multiple of 64; i.e., bit length of between 512 and 1024 bits in increments of 64 bits

q prime divisor of $(p-1)$, where $2^{159} < q < 2^{160}$; i.e., bit length of 160 bits

g $= h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p$, where h is any integer with $1 < h < (p-1)$ such that $h^{(p-1)/q} \bmod p > 1$

User's Private Key

x random or pseudorandom integer with $0 < x < q$

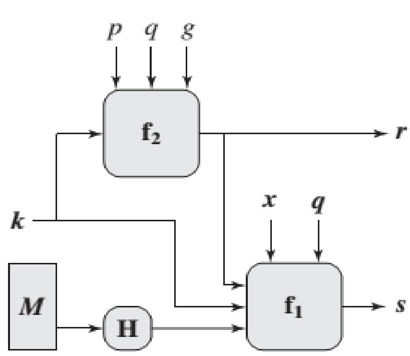
User's Public Key

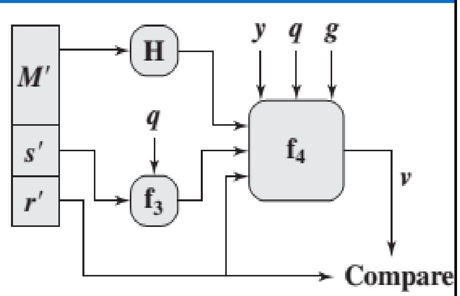
$y \;= g^x \bmod p$

User's Per-Message Secret Number

$k \;=$ random or pseudorandom integer with $0 < k < q$

Digital Signature Algorithm - DSA





Signing

$r \;= (g^k \bmod p) \bmod q$

$s \;= [k^{-1}(H(M) + xr)] \bmod q$

Signature $= (r, s)$

Verifying

$w \;= (s')^{-1} \bmod q$

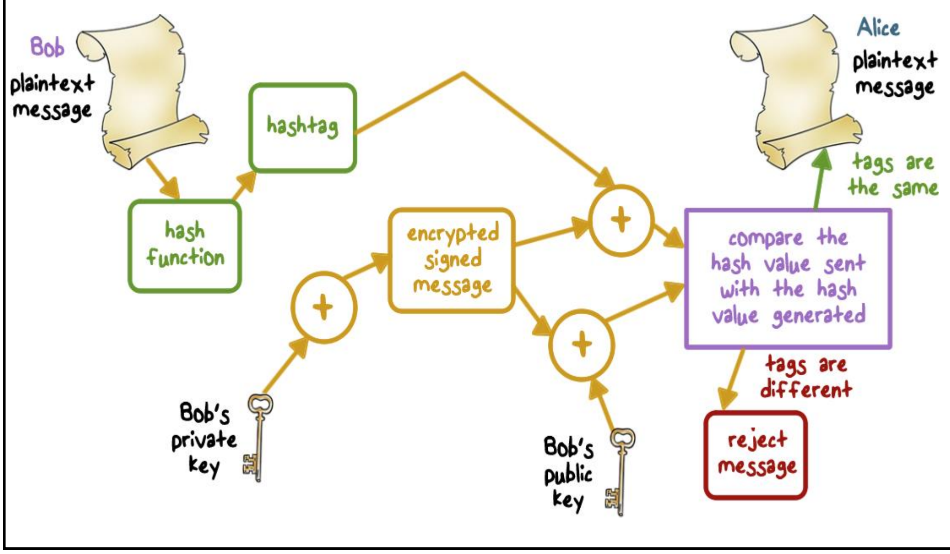
$u_1 = [H(M')w] \bmod q$

$u_2 = (r')w \bmod q$

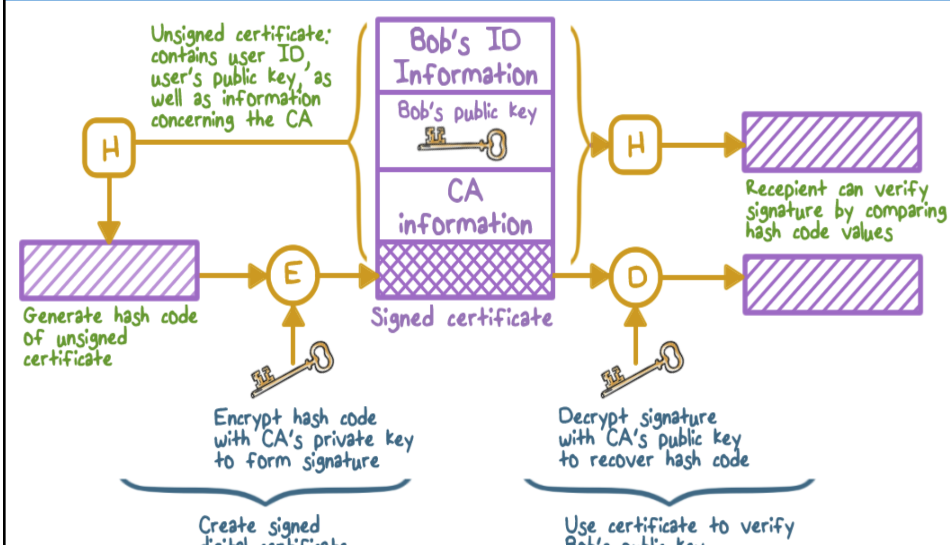
$v \;= [(g^{u1} y^{u2}) \bmod p] \bmod q$

TEST: $v = r'$

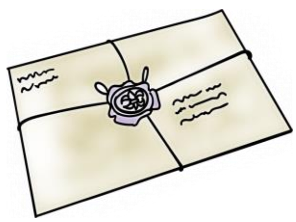
Digital Signatures



Digital Signatures

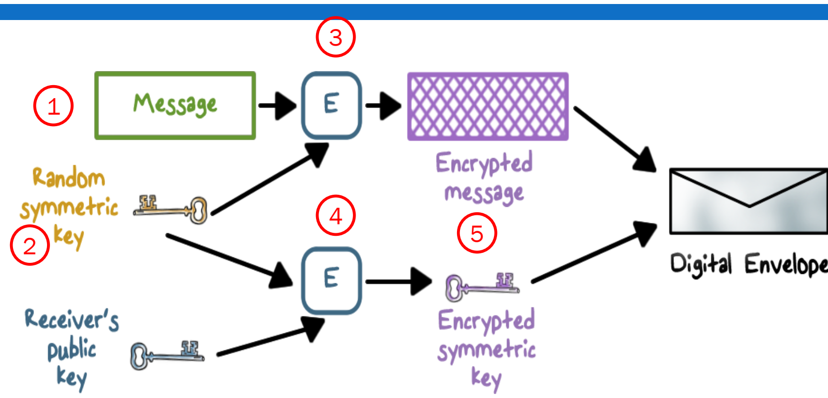


Digital Envelopes



- Means: public-key encryption is used to protect a symmetric key
- Protects a message **without needing** to first arrange for sender and receiver to have the same secret key
- Compares to the same thing as a **wrapped envelope containing an unsigned letter**

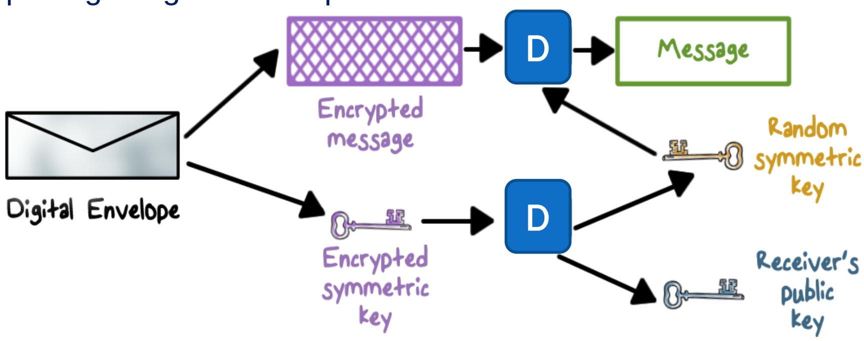
Digital Envelopes



1. Prepares a message.
2. Generates a random symmetric key that will be used this one time only.
3. Encrypts that message using symmetric encryption the one-time key.
4. Encrypts the one-time key using public-key encryption with Alice's public key.
5. Attaches the encrypted one-time key to the encrypted message and sends it

Digital Envelopes

Opening a digital envelope



Receiver is capable of decrypting the one-time key and recovering the original message. If Bob obtains Alice's public key by means of Alice's public-key certificate, then Bob is assured that it is a valid key.

Practice openSSL

- **Secure Sockets Layer (SSL)** is an application-level protocol which was developed by the Netscape Corporation for the purpose of transmitting sensitive information, such as Credit Card details, via the Internet
- **OpenSSL** is a robust, commercial-grade implementation of SSL tools, and related general-purpose library based upon SSL, developed by Eric A. Young and Tim J. Hudson
- OpenSSL is already installed on SEEDUbuntu

Q & A