

Module III : Cryptography III ; Email security

- ① Hash-functions (cryptographic primitive, properties, security)
- ② Mac Authentication codes (authentication & integrity, private key)
- ③ Key Distribution : Private key setting
- ④ $pk \leftarrow \text{Private} \quad sk \leftarrow \text{Public}$
- ⑤ Email - security (PGP primitive)

Lecture 1 : Hash-functions

- can be applied to data of any length. (large ifp)
- Output is fixed length, usually very short. (ifp length does not matter)
- Relatively easy to compute $h(x)$, given x . (large ifp $\rightarrow 160/128$)
function is deterministic. (same o/p if hash bits are same, value is compressed twice, short)
- Infeasible to get x , given $h(x)$. One-wayness property
- Infeasible to find any pair x and y ($x \neq y$) such that $h(x) = h(y)$. Collision resistance property. [forgery, signature will also collide]
[large ifp, small o/p, many collisions might happen bcoz of inherent property of hash function]
- verify by matching the value of hash-value with the hashing of the file received.
- * Usually, if a function is collision-resistant, it is automatically has one-wayness property.

Applications :

- ① checksum for large amount of data [validate integrity of data]
- ② Password hashing
- ③ Digital signatures
- ④ Mac authentication codes [authentication & integrity]
- ⑤ used also in RSA-OAEP & many other cryptographic constructions.

Hash output length

- * (1) o/p should be of short length (2) o/p's should not collide with each other! so, what should be the minimal o/p length.
- * How many people you have to sample to find 2 people having the same bday. (bday paradox)

$$\neq 365, \quad \sqrt{365} = 23 \text{ people, (at least 2 of them will have same bday)}$$

- * A collision can be found in roughly (n/α) trials for an n-bit hash
- * $\sqrt{\alpha}$ operations (extreme amount of operations)
- * n should be at least 160 bit.

IMP

$$\sqrt{\alpha} = 2^{80} \text{ operations}$$

bday attack would be failed

Generic Hash-function - Merkle-Damgard construction

- * It is not 100% sure that if $h()$ is collision-resistant then $H()$ will always be collision resistant. there has to be some sort of construction as the Merkle-Damgard construction. Here, $H()$ is CR because $h()$ is CR.

Avalanche effect → reason why $H()$ is collision resistant.

IV → fixed as hash is deterministic. (public known constant)

CV → chaining-vector

- * $CV_n \rightarrow$ o/p of the hash-function. [160 bits here]
- * $\text{large msg} \rightarrow (n \times 512 \text{ bits hashed into } 160 \text{ bit o/p})$
using this construct.
- * Slide 6 illustrate the avalanche effect of the Merkle-Damgard constructed hash-function. very collision resistant.

Practical example

Secure hash algorithms

(1) SHA-1

- o/p = 160 bits
- 2⁸⁰ calls
- 2⁸⁰ calls
- 2⁸⁰ calls
- 2⁸⁰ calls

(2) MD5

- o/p = 128 bits
- 2^{64} calls only
- (msg digest version 5)

(3) SHA-256 (256 long hash digest)

- o/p attack requires 2^{128} calls
- 2^{128} calls
- * stronger version

* only difference in the Merkle-Damgard construct is the compression function $ih(\cdot)$ between these implementations.

Lecture 2: Message Authentication Codes (MAC)

- * integrity & authentication (private-key cryptosystem)
- * $\text{send}(m, MAC)$; MAC is created on m using the key shared b/w two parties. [MAC + msg to the recipient, recipient verify MAC to know if message is tampered]
- * Has to be deterministic to enable verification
 - unlike encryption scheme.
- * MAC \rightarrow small & secure as possible (efficiency)
 - msg has not been tampered
- * Can not provide non-repudiation? why?
 - ↳ Digital signatures (public key) provide non-repudiation also
- * A can say that B did not create this MAC on msg using key B
 - Yes done it (recipient) as B also has same key. No way to resolve dispute. Court cannot find who out of A & B private key created the MAC-value [deny sending what you sent]
- * Some key

MAC - function

- ① keyGen - outputs a key (some key shared b/w A & B)
- ② MAC - creates a checksum on m using key K .
- ③ verify - validates whether the checksum on m is computed correctly.

Just create MAC & compare. (deterministic function)

Security - Notion

- ① very similar to security notion for a digital signature scheme.
 - ② Existential forgery under (adaptively) chosen msg attack [query MAC from msg]
- * prevent forgery \Rightarrow If attacker has many msgs & MAC pairs, he should not be able to create a new msg/MAC-pair.

MAC Based on Block cipher in the CBC mode - CBC Mac

- * end result is used as the MAC - code.
- * not an encryption scheme, don't need randomization property [∴ start with 0] \Rightarrow should be fixed
- * $E \rightarrow$ Triple DES/AES (EV) (not random)

- * IV is zero & only send result of last computation (Diff. from CBC)
- * secure against MA (because of avalanche effect)

HMAC: MAC using HASH functions

- * MAC derived from Hash.

- * Double-hash

- * Nested hash →

$$\text{HMAC}_K = H[(K \oplus \text{opad}) \parallel H[(K \oplus \text{ipad}) \parallel M]]$$

- * other party repeats the same computation

- * ipad & opad such that inner-key score for outer-key (even if key is sent)

- * security → Nested-hash

- * single-hash → not secure

- * security related to collision resistance.

- * CBC-MAC / HMAC

↳ If a single-round function is used, then it is called as a single-round MAC.

↳ Definition of MAC: MAC is a function which takes message and key as input and produces a short fixed-length output.

↳ Properties of MAC: 1. MAC is a one-way function. 2. MAC is a probabilistic function. 3. MAC is a family of functions.

↳ Examples of MAC: 1. CBC-MAC 2. HMAC 3. GMAC 4. T-MAC 5. OMAC 6. UMAC 7. CMAC 8. Poly1305-AES.

↳ Advantages of MAC: 1. MAC is a simple function. 2. MAC is a fast function. 3. MAC is a secure function.

↳ Disadvantages of MAC: 1. MAC is a deterministic function. 2. MAC is a stateful function. 3. MAC is a stateless function.

↳ Applications of MAC: 1. Integrity check 2. Authentication 3. Key exchange 4. Message authentication code (MAC).

↳ MAC is a function which takes message and key as input and produces a short fixed-length output.

Lecture 3: key-distribution

(Private-key setting)

- Private key → A & B share a secret key unknown to others.
- Public key → A has a "trusted" (or authenticated) copy of Bob's public-key.
- * • But, how does this happen in the first-place?
- A & B meet & exchange keys
↳ Not practical or possible (not physical close)
- we need key-distribution, first & foremost!
- ↳ Idea: make use of a trusted third-party (TTP)

Private-key

- Protocol assumes that A & B share a session-key k_A and k_B with a key-distribution centre (KDC)
- Alice calls Trent (trusted KDC) and requests a session-key to communicate with Bob.

Trent generates random session key k and sends $E_{k_A}(k)$ and $E_{k_B}(k)$ to Alice & Bob respectively.

Alice & Bob decrypt with k_A & k_B respectively to get k .

- Key-distribution protocol.
- Susceptible to replay-attack.

[Attackers can observe one session of communication b/w A & TTP & (B & TTP) & eavesdrop the encrypted keys

& replay the keys in the next session & fool A & B into agreeing upon some keys in next session also]

k_A & k_B
↓
Bob
shares
states
with
third
party

- * If first session was compromised due to a maluser or something somehow key was leaked out, by forcing A & B to agree upon the same keys in the second session, second session has automatically been compromised.
- * Session keys are different. Compromise of one session should not compromise the next session.

Needham-Schroeder Protocol

- * random nonce N_1 so that msgs are tied to the key.
- * Reduces the impact of the replay attack.
- * Vulnerability \rightarrow attacker can do a replay attack on the ticket, $EKB(K \parallel ID_A)$ does not have ~~nonce~~
- * Not fully susceptible to replay attack ~~nonce~~

Corrected version (with mutual authentication)

- * Attack time-stamp in the ticket also.
- * Within certain interval, then only msg is fresh time-stamp
- * Nonce, secure !!
- * Just TS should be synchronised with each other.

Lecture 4: Key Distribution

(Public-key setting)

- * Alice has a "trusted" (or authenticated) copy of Bob's public key. (how does Alice obtain public key of Bob)
 - ↳ TTP (trusted third party)

Public-key Distribution

- Public announcements (such as email)

* — can be forged

- Public-directory (website)

* — can be tampered with

- Public-key certification authority (CA) (such as VeriSign)

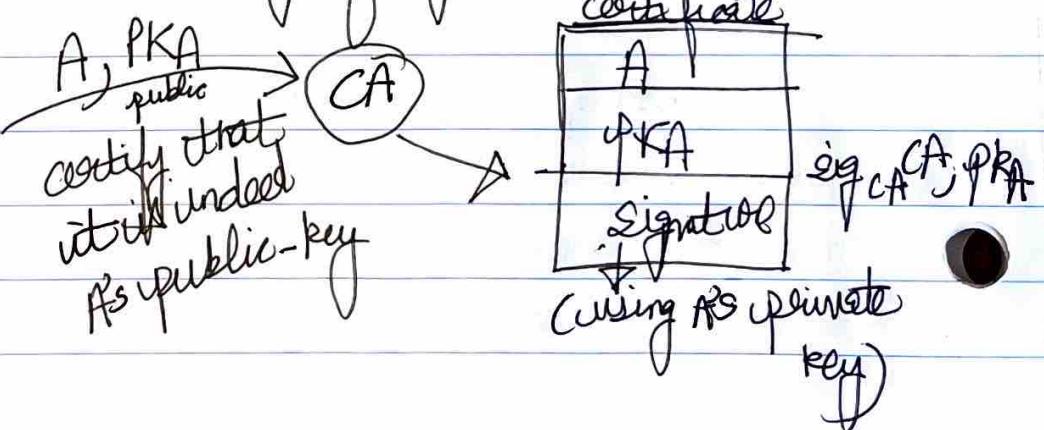
(Third-party) — CA issues certificates to the user.

(malware)

- * M inserts his own public key instead of Bob's.

M can intercept it & decrypt it. (using his private-key).

- * ~~Verifies~~ ties the identity of right owner.



- * You can see the certificate, verify its P's key.
- * CA ~~attests~~ a bind b/w ^{its identity} And you.
- * DMV → license (name, identity, hair-color, TM GA signs the license)
 - ↳ publ. (verify license)

Naming & certificates

- Certification authority's vouch for the identity of an entity - distinguished names (DN) → unique name
 $O = \text{UAB/OU} = \text{CS/CN} = \text{Nitish Sehrawi}$
- Although CN may be same, DN is different.
 \downarrow
 (common name)

Types of certificates

- CA's vouch at some level the identity of the principal.
- Eg - Verisign
- Class 1 - Email address
- Class 2 - Name and address verified through database.
- Class 3 - Background check
 \downarrow periodically (eg → every night)

- * Certificate Revocation → certificate revocation list (CRL)
 - list of every certificate that has been revoked but not expired.
 - other mechanism to validate validity of certificate if it has been revoked or not
- * OCSP (online certificate status protocol)
 - (real-time) (query cert)

* X.509 Certs (standard)

Advantages of CA over KDC

(only when sig
→ requesting sig
on certificate)
not for communication

- CA does not need to be online all the time.
 - CA can be very simple computing device.
 - If CA crashes, life goes on (except CRL)
 - Certificates can be stored in an insecure manner.
 - Compromised CA cannot decrypt msgs [does not know private key only knows public-key so compromised communication]
 - Scales well.
- * KDC [has access to private-key, if compromised, all communication gone!]

Public-key Infrastructure (PKI)

- Digital certificates + public-key + certificate-authority cryptography

* Google's server certificate

* Browser verifies validity of Google's certificate before we do communication with it.
(Gmail-server)

Vulnerable: Lecture 5: Email Security via PGP

- ① eavesdropping ; ② Impersonation / Create email on behalf of other people

(II)

Properties

- ① Confidentiality - protection from disclosure [Hide email-communication from attacker]
- ② Authentication - of sender of msg
- ③ Integrity - protection from modification
- ④ Non-repudiation of origin - protection from denial by sender.
↳ Digital signatures [Non-repudiation, authentication & integrity]
- MAC [only integrity & authentication, not non-repudiation] + encryption (for confidentiality)

(III)

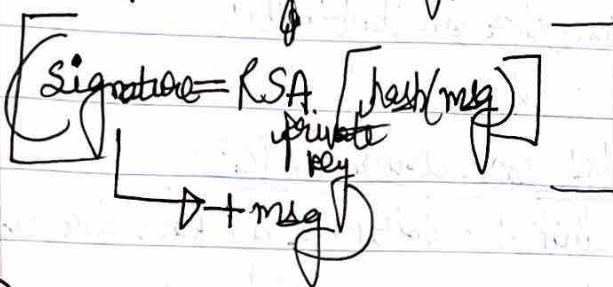
Pretty good privacy (PGP)

- ① open-source, freely-available software package for secure email
- ② de-facto standard for secure email
- ③ Developed by phil Zimmermann
- ④ selected best available crypto algo to use
- ⑤ runs on a variety of platforms like Unix, PC, Mac & other systems
- ⑥ originally free (now also have commercial versions available)

(IV)

PGP Operation - Authentication + Integrity +
Just use digital signatures: non-repudiation

- 1) Sender creates msg.
- 2) Generates a digital signature for the msg. (using private key)
- 3) Use SHA-1 to generate 160 bit hash for the msg.
- 4) signed hash with RSA using sender's private key and is attached to msg.
- 5) Receiver uses RSA with sender's public key to decrypt and recover hash-code.
- 6) Receiver verifies received msg using hash of it & compares with decrypted hash-code.



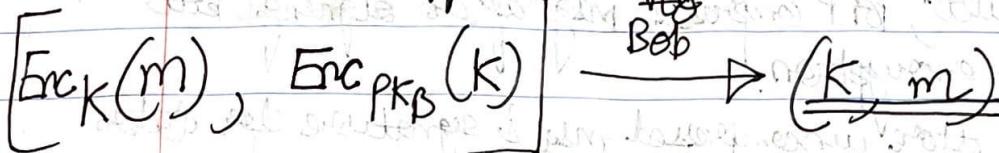
(V)

PGP operation - Confidentiality (only)

private
key
session

- 1) Sender generates a msg.
- 2) Generates a 128-bit random no. as session-key.
- 3) Encrypts the msg using CAST-128 / IDEA / 3-DES in CBC mode with session-key.
- 4) Session key encrypted using RSA with recipient's public-key and attached to the msg.
- 5) Receiver uses RSA with private key to decrypt & receive session-key.
- 6) Session key is used to decrypt the msg.

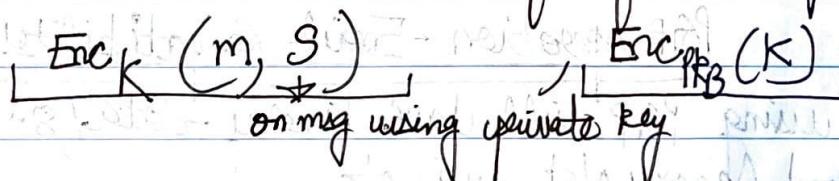
- * encrypting using public-key [RSA-OAEP] quite intensive if the msg is very long. So we don't do it. Computation power ↑↑
- * session-key (short) as it is private can efficiently encrypt long-msg's instead of using public-key (quite-long) to encrypt msg's. But, use the public-key to encrypt the session-key & as session-key is short, computation remains efficient only.



(VII)

PGP operation - Confidentiality & authentication

- can use both services on same msg.
 - 1) create signature & attach it to the msg.
 - 2) Encrypt both msg & signature
 - 3) attach RSA encrypted session-key
- sequence is preferred because-
- 1) one can store the P.T msg/file and its signature
 - 2) no need to store the C.T for future signature verification



- * Could have first encrypted the msg & then signed
but the previous approach is preferred bcz
- * (Sign & then encrypt)
- * Can store signature/msg pair for future verification
[In case something goes wrong later verify it]



PGP Operation - Compression

- 1) PGP compresses msg to save space for email to & storage.
- 2) By default, PGP compresses msg after signing but before encryption.
- so can store uncompressed msg & signature for later verification
- Encryption after compression strengthens security
(because compression has less redundancy)
- 3) uses ZIP compression algo.

*
$$\left[\text{Enc}_K(Z(m, s)), \text{Enc}_{pkB}(K) \right]$$

* Verify signature if needed at later point of time



PGP operation - Email Compatibility

- 1) When using PGP will have binary-data (8 bit octets) to send (encrypted msg) etc.
- 2) However, email was designed only for text.
- 3) Hence, PGP must encode your binary data into printable ASCII characters.

- ④ uses oracle-64 algo
 - maps 3 bytes to 4 printable chars
 - also appends a CRC (verify integrity of the msg)
- ⑤ PGP also segments msg if too big (max length 50,000 octets)
 - encoding → decoding
 - (binary → text) (text → binary → cryptography, all properties like authenticity etc. are verified)
- * Store msg & signature at receiver for future verification at the receiver side.

(IX)

PGP session-keys

- ① Need a session key for each msg
 - of varying sizes : 56-bit DES, 128-bit CAST or IDEA, 192-bit for triple-DES
- ② Uses random info taken from
 - actual key chks.
 - keystroke timing of user
 - mouse movement!

user-actions

(really true random-value)

↳ to create session key

(rather than usual random values)

(X)

PGP key distribution

- ① Public key for encrypting session key / verifying signature
- ② Where do these keys come from and on what basis they can be trusted?

Signature, Compress, Encrypt

(XII)

PGP key Distribution:

- ① PGP adopts a trust model called the web of trust.
- * ② No centralised authority. (de-centralised)
- * ③ Individual signs one another's public-keys, these "certificates" are stored along with keys.
- ④ PGP computes a trust-level for each public-key in key-ring. [scale]
- ⑤ User interpret trust level for themselves.
- * ~~⑥ More scalable, certifying public-keys~~
↳ no authority.

(XIII)

Issues:

- ① original intention was email users would contribute to the web of trust. (not many people use PGP encryption)
- ② Reality is that web is sparsely populated.
- ③ How should security-unaware users assign & interpret trust-levels?
- A) later version of PGP support X.509 certs.

(C.A)

- * setting public-key & sending encrypted msgs via email to T.A.