# Fundamentals of Cryptography: Algorithms, and Security Services

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Cryptography: Theory and Practice, Douglas Stinson, Chapman & Hall/CRC

Network Security: Private Communication in a Public World [Chap. 2-8] Charles Kaufman, Mike Speciner, Radia Perlman, Prentice-Hall

Cryptography and Network Security, William Stallings, Prentice Hall

# Outline

- Introduction to security/cryptography
- Secret Key Cryptography
  - n DES, IDEA, AES
- n Modes of Operation
  - <sub>n</sub> ECB, CBC, OFB, CFB, CTR
  - Message Authentication Code (MAC)
- n Hashes and Message Digest
- n Public Key Algorithms



#### Why security?

Internet, E-commerce, Digi-Cash, disclosure of private information

#### Security services:

Authentication, Confidentiality, Integrity, Access control, Non-repudiation, availability

#### n Cryptographic algorithms:

- Symmetric encryption (DES, IDEA, AES)
- Hashing functions
- Symmetric MAC (HMAC)
- Asymmetric (RSA, El-Gamal)

## Terminology

#### Security services:

Authentication, confidentiality, integrity, access control, non-repudiation, availability, key management

#### Security attacks:

Passive, active

#### Cryptography models:

Symmetric (secret key), asymmetric (public key)

#### n Cryptanalysis:

Ciphertext only, known plaintext, chosen plaintext, chosen ciphertext, chosen text

## Security services

#### Authentication:

n assures the recipient of a message the authenticity of the claimed source

#### Access control:

n limits the access to authorized users

#### Confidentiality:

n protects against unauthorized release of message content

#### Integrity:

n guarantees that a message is received as sent

#### Non-repudiation:

n protects against sender/receiver denying sending/receiving a message

#### n Availability:

n guarantees that the system services are always available when needed

#### Security audit:

keeps track of transactions for later use (diagnostic, alarms...)

#### Key management:

n allows to negotiate, setup and maintain keys between communicating entities

## Security Attacks

- Security attacks:
  - Interception (confidentiality)
  - Interruption (availability)
  - Modification (integrity)
  - Fabrication (authenticity)
- Kent's classification
  - Passive attacks:
    - n Release of message content
    - Traffic analysis
  - Active attacks:
    - n Masquerade
    - n Replay
    - m Modification of message
    - Denial of service

## Kerchoff's Principle

- The cipher should be secure when the intruder knows all the details of the encryption process except for the secret key
- "No security by obscurity"
  - Examples of system that did not follow this rule and failed?

### Attacks on Encrypted Messages

#### Ciphertext only:

encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded

#### Known plaintext:

encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded, pairs of (plaintext, ciphertext)

#### Chosen plaintext:

encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded, plaintext (chosen by cryptanalyst) + corresponding ciphertext

#### n Chosen ciphertext:

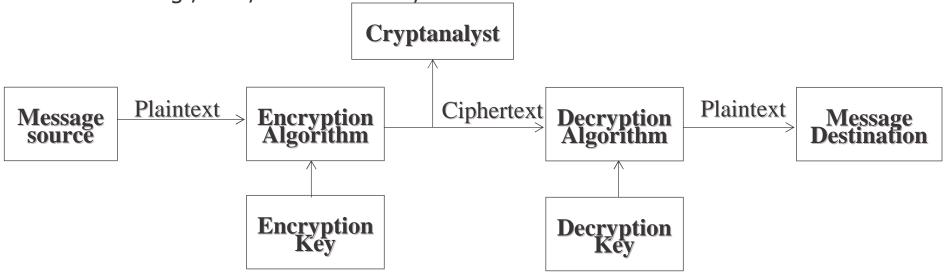
encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded, ciphertext (chosen by cryptanalyst) + corresponding plaintext

#### Chosen text:

encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded, plaintext + corresponding ciphertext (both can be chosen by attacker)

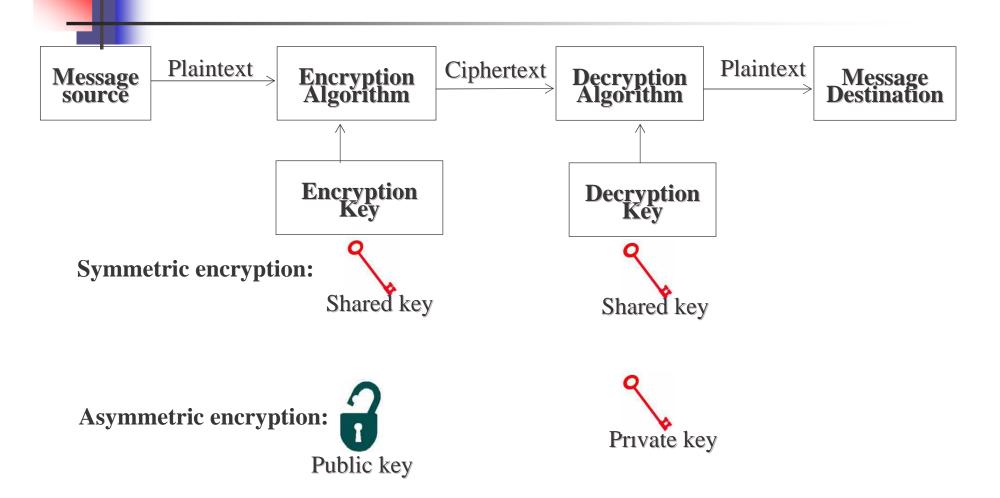
## **Encryption Models**

- Symmetric encryption (conventional encryption)
  - Encryption Key = Decryption Key
  - <sub>n</sub> E.g., AES, DES, FEAL, IDEA, BLOWFISH
- Asymmetric encryption
  - Encryption Key ≠ Decryption key
  - E.g., RSA, Diffie-Hellman, ElGamal



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# **Encryption Models**



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# Some Building Blocks of Cryptography/Security

- Encryption algorithms
- One-way hashing functions (= message digest, cryptographic checksum, message integrity check, etc.)
  - Input: variable length string
  - Output: fixed length (generally smaller) string
  - Desired properties:
    - Hard to generate a pre-image (input) string that hashes to a given string, second preimage, and collisions
- One-way functions
  - y = f(x): easy to compute
  - $x = f^{1}(y)$ : much harder to reverse (it would take millions of years)
  - Example:
    - multiplication of 2 large prime number versus factoring
    - discrete exponentiation/discrete logarithms
- n Protocols
  - authentication, key management, etc.

## Securing Networks

- Where to put the security in a protocol stack?
- Practical considerations:
  - End to end security
  - No modification to OS

**Applications Layer** (configuration) telnet/ftp, http: shttp, mail: PGP (SSL/TLS, ssh) Transport Layer (TCP) Control/Management (IPSec, IKE) Network Layer (IP) Link Layer (IEEE802.1x/IEEE802.10) Physical Layer (spread-Spectrum, quantum crypto, etc.)

Network Security Tools:

Monitoring/Logging/Intrusion Detection



Secret Key Cryptography

Symmetric Cryptography

Conventional Cryptography

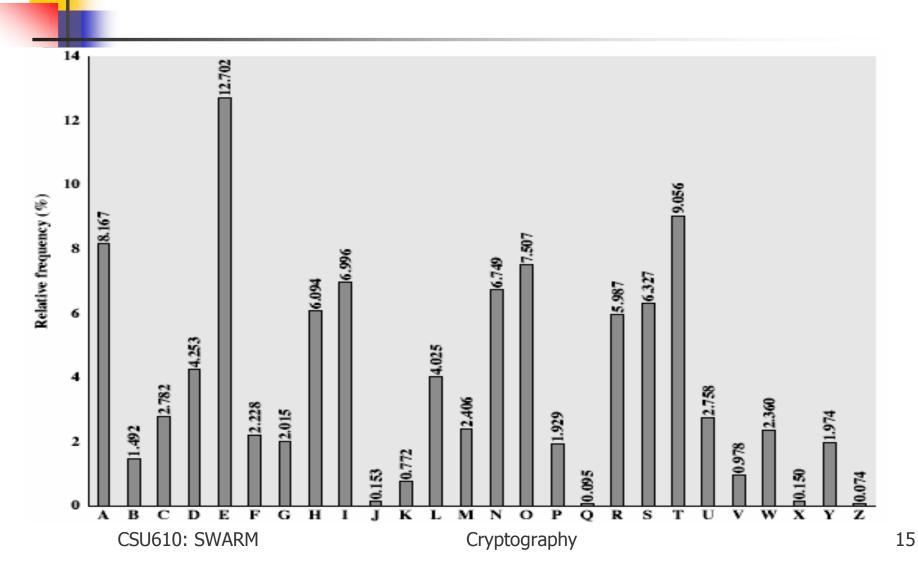
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# Symmetric cryptosystems (conventional cryptosystems)

#### Substitution techniques:

- Caesar cipher
  - Replace each letter with the letter standing x places further
  - Example: (x = 3)
    - plain: meet me after the toga party
    - n cipher: phhw ph diwhu wkh wrjd sduwb
  - <sub>n</sub> Key space: 25
  - Brut force attack: try 25 possibilities
- Monoalphabetic ciphers
  - Arbitrary substitution of alphabet letters
  - <sup>n</sup> Key space:  $26! > 4x10^{26} > \text{key-space(DES)}$
  - Attack if the nature of the plaintext is known (e.g., English text):
    - compute the relative frequency of letters and compare it to standard distribution for English (e.g., E:12.7, T:9, etc.)
    - compute the relative frequency of 2-letter combinations (e.g., TH)

## **English Letters Frequencies**



# Symmetric cryptosystems (Continued)

- Multiple-Letter Encryption (Playfair cipher)
  - Plaintext is encrypted two-letters at a time
  - Based on a 5x5 matrix
  - Identification of individual diagraphs is more difficult (26x26 possibilities)
  - A few hundred letters of ciphertext allow to recover the structure of plaintext (and break the system)
  - Used during World War I & II
- Polyalphabetic Ciphers (Vigenère cipher)
  - 26 Caesar ciphers, each one denoted by a key letter
    - key: deceptivedeceptive
    - plain: wearediscoveredsaveyourself
    - n cipher: ZICVTWQNGRZGVTWAVZHCQYGLMGJ
  - n Enhancement: auto-key (key = initial||plaintext)
- Rotor machines: multi-round monoalphabetic substitution
  - Used during WWII by Germany (ENIGMA) and Japan (Purple)

### **One-Time Pad**

- Introduced by G. Vernam (AT&T, 1918), improved by J. Mauborgne Scheme:
  - <sup>n</sup> Encryption:  $c_i = p_i \oplus k_i$
  - $c_i: f^h$  binary digit of plaintext,  $p_i$ : plaintext,  $k_i$ : key
  - <sup>n</sup> Decryption:  $p_i = c_i \oplus k_i$
  - Key is a random sequence of bits as long as the plaintext
- One-Time Pad is unbreakable
  - No statistical relationship between ciphertext and plaintext
  - Example (Vigenère One-Time Pad):
    - n Cipher: ANKYODKYUREPFJBYOJDSPLREYIUN
    - Plain-1 (with k1): MR MUSTARD WITH THE CANDLE
    - Plain-2 (with k2): MISS SCARLET WITH THE KNIFE
- Share the same long key between the sender & receiver

# Transposition/Permutation Techniques

- Based on permuting the plaintext letters
- Example: rail fence technique

mematrhtgpry

etefeteoaat

n A more complex transposition scheme

Key: 4312567

n Plain: attackp

ostpone

duntilt

woamxyz

Cipher: TTNAAPTMTSUOAODWCOIXKNLYPETZ

Attack: letter/diagraph frequency

Improvement: multiple-stage transposition

## Today's Block Encryption Algorithms

- n Key size:
  - n Too short => easy to guess
- Block size:
  - Too short easy to build a table by the attacker: (plaintext, ciphertext)
  - Minimal size: 64 bits
- Properties:
  - One-to-one mapping
  - Mapping should look random to someone who doesn't have the key
  - Efficient to compute/reverse
- n How:
  - Substitution (small chunks) & permutation (long chunks)
  - Multiple rounds
  - ⇒ SPN (Substitution and Permutation Networks) and variants

## Data Encryption Standard (DES)

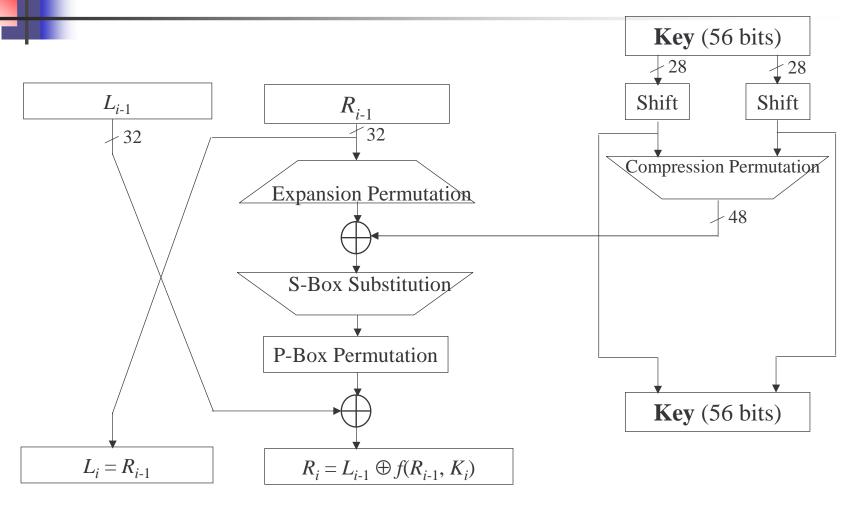
- Developed by IBM for the US government
- Based on Lucifer (64-bits, 128-bits key in 1971)
- To respond to the National Bureau of Standards CFP
  - Modified characteristics (with help of the NSA):
    - <sup>n</sup> 64-bits block size, 56 bits key length
  - Concerns about trapdoors, key size, sbox structure
- Adopted in 1977 as the DES (FIPS PUB 46, ANSI X3.92) and reaffirmed in 1994 for 5 more years
- n Replaced by AES

### Plaintext: 64 32, $L_0$ $R_0$ $48_{-}$ $K_{1}$ $L_1 = R_0$ $R_1 = L_0 \oplus f(R_0, K_1)$ $L_2 = R_1$ $R_2 = L_1 \oplus f(R_1, K_2)$ $L_{15} = R_{14}$ $R_{15} = L_{14} \oplus f(R_{14}, K_{15})$ $K_{16}$ $L_{16} = R_{15}$ $R_{16} = L_{15} \oplus f(R_{15}, K_{16})$ **Ciphertext**

DES is based on Feistel Structure

$$L_i = R_{i-1}$$
  
 $R_i = L_{i-1} \oplus f(R_{i-1}, K_i)$ 

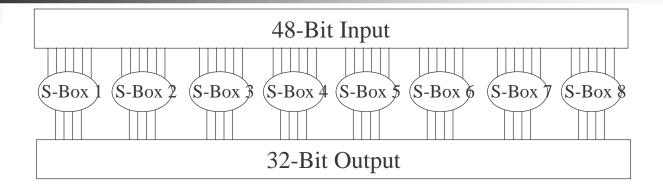
## One DES Round



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### S-Box Substitution

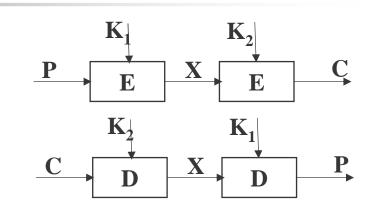


- S-Box heart of DES security
- S-Box: 4x16 entry table
  - Input 6 bits:
    - 2 bits: determine the table (1/4)
    - 4 bits: determine the table entry
  - Output: 4 bits
- S-Boxes are optimized against Differential cryptanalysis

# Double/Triple DES

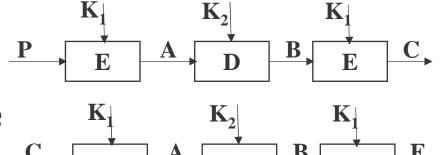
#### n Double DES

Nulnerable to Meet-inthe-Middle Attack[DH77]



### n Triple DES

- Used two keys K<sub>1</sub> and K<sub>2</sub>
- Compatible with simple DES (K1=K2)
- Used in ISO 8732, PEM, ANS X9.17



## Linear/Differential Cryptanalysis

- Differential cryptanalysis
  - "Rediscovered" by E. Biham & A. Shamir in 1990
  - Based on a chosen-plaintext attack:
    - Analyze the difference between the ciphertexts of two plaintexts which have a known fixed difference
    - The analysis provides information on the key
  - 8-round DES broken with 2<sup>14</sup> chosen plaintext
  - <sup>n</sup> 16-round DES requires 2<sup>47</sup> chosen plaintext
- DES design took into account this kind of attacks
- Linear cryptanalysis
  - Uses linear approximations of the DES cipher (M. Matsui 1993)
- IDEA first proposal (PES) was modified to resist to this kind of attacks
- n GSM A3 algorithm is sensitive to this kind of attacks
  - SIM card secret key can be recoverd => GSM cloning

### Breaking DES

- Electronic Frontier Foundation built a "DES Cracking Machine" [1998]
  - Attack: brute force
  - Inputs: two ciphertext
  - Architecture:
    - n PC
    - array of custom chips that can compute DES 24 search units/chip x 64chips/board x 27 boards
  - Power:
    - searches 92 billion keys per second
    - takes 4.5 days for half the key space
  - n Cost:
    - \$130'000 (all the material: chips, boards, cooling, PC etc.)
    - \$80'000 (development from scratch)

# International Data Encryption Algorithm (IDEA)

- Developed by Xu Lai & James Massey (ETH Zurich, Switzerland)
- Characteristics:
  - 64-bits block cipher
  - <sub>n</sub> 128-bits key length
  - Uses three algebraic groups: XOR, + mod  $2^{16}$ ,  $\times$  mod  $2^{16}+1$
  - <sub>n</sub> 17 rounds (or 8 rounds according to the description)
- Speed: software: 2 times faster than DES
- Used in PGP
- Patented (expires in 2011)

# The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) Cipher - Rijndael

- n' Designed by Rijmen-Daemen (Belgium)
- n Key size: 128/192/256 bit
- <sub>n</sub> Block size: 128 bit data
- Properties: iterative rather than Feistel cipher
  - Treats data in 4 groups of 4 bytes
  - Operates on an entire block in every round
- Designed to be:
  - Resistant against known attacks
  - Speed and code compactness on many CPUs
  - Design simplicity



State: 16 bytes structured in a array

S <sub>0,0</sub>	S <sub>0,1</sub>	S <sub>0,2</sub>	S <sub>0,3</sub>
S <sub>1,0</sub>	l	S <sub>1,2</sub>	S <sub>1,3</sub>
S <sub>2,0</sub>		S <sub>2,2</sub>	S <sub>2,3</sub>
S <sub>3,0</sub>	S <sub>3,1</sub>	S <sub>3,2</sub>	S <sub>3,3</sub>

- Each byte is seen as an element of  $\mathbf{F}_{2^8}$ =GF(2<sup>8</sup>)
  - **F**<sub>28</sub> finite field of 256 elements
    - <sub>n</sub> Operations
      - Elements of  $\mathbf{F}_{2^8}$  are viewed as polynomials of degree 7 with coefficients  $\{0, 1\}$
      - $_{\mathtt{n}}$  Addition: polynomials addition  $\Rightarrow$  XOR
      - Multiplication: polynomials multiplication modulo  $x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$

#### **AES Outline**

- 1. Initialize State  $\leftarrow x \oplus$  RoundKey;
- 2. For each of the Nr-1 rounds:
  - SubBytes(State);
  - 2. ShiftRows(State);
  - MixColumns(State);
  - AddRoundKey(State);
- 3. Last round:
  - SubBytes(State);
  - ShiftRows(State);
  - AddRoundKey(State);
- **4.** Output  $y \leftarrow$  State

## Implementation Aspects

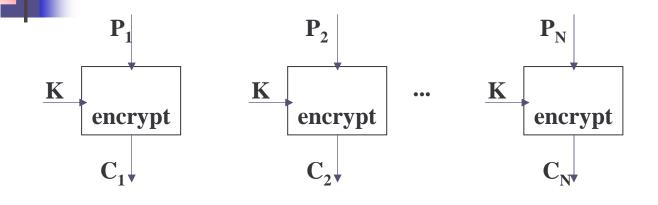
- Can be efficiently implemented on 8-bit CPU
  - byte substitution works on bytes using a table of 256 entries
  - shift rows is a simple byte shifting
  - add round key works on byte XORs
  - mix columns requires matrix multiply in GF(28) which works on byte values, can be simplified to use a table lookup

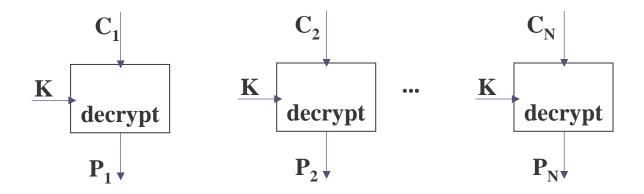
## Implementation Aspects

- <sup>n</sup> Can be efficiently implemented on 32-bit CPU
  - redefine steps to use 32-bit words
  - can pre-compute 4 tables of 256-words
  - then each column in each round can be computed using 4 table lookups + 4 XORs
  - n at a cost of 16Kb to store tables
- Designers believe this very efficient implementation was a key factor in its selection as the AES cipher

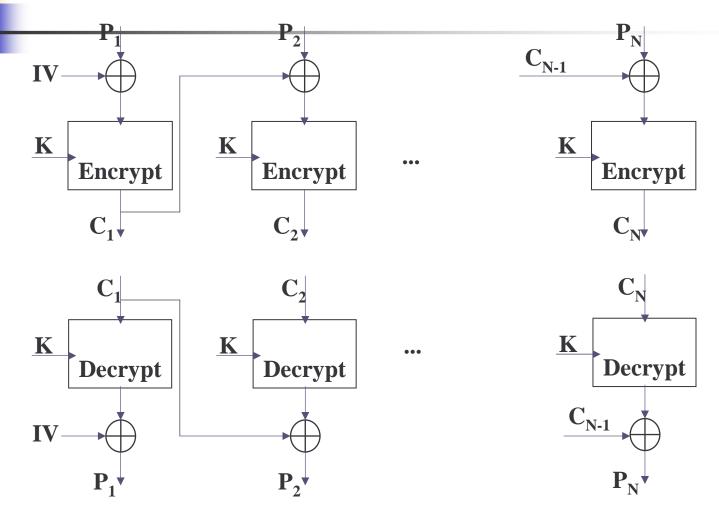
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# Encryption Modes: Electronic Codebook (ECB)

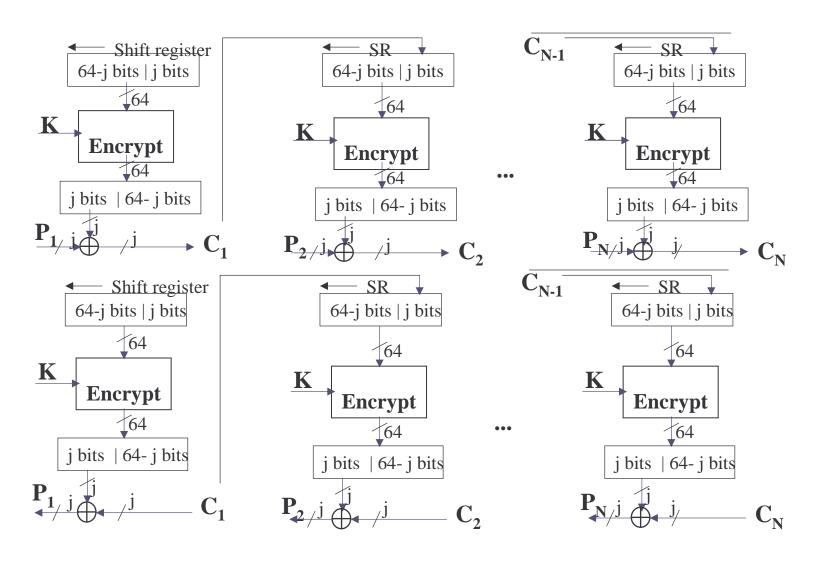




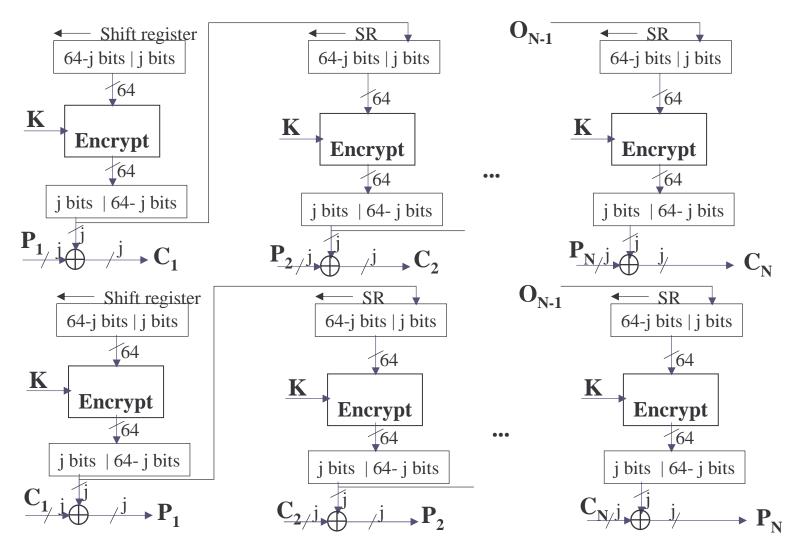
# Encryption Modes: Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)



# Encryption Modes: Cipher Feedback (CFB)



# Encryption Modes: Output Feedback (OFB)



## Counter (CTR)

- Similar to OFB but encrypts counter value rather than any feedback value
- Must have a different key & counter value for every plaintext block (never reused)

$$C_i = P_i XOR O_i$$
  
 $O_i = DES_{K1}(i)$ 

Uses: high-speed network encryptions, random access to files

#### Inside vs. Outside CBC-3DES

Mhat is the impact of using 3DES with CBC on the outside vs. inside?

# Message Authentication Code (MAC) Using an Encryption Algorithm

- Also called Message Integrity Code (MIC)
- n Goal:
  - Detect any modification of the content by an attacker
- Some techniques:
  - Use CBC mode, send only the last block (residue) along with the plaintext message
  - For confidentiality + integrity:
    - Use two keys (one for CBC encryption and one for CBC residue computation)
    - Append a cryptographic hash to the message before CBC encryption
  - New technique: use a Nested MAC technique such as HMAC

### Hashes and Message Digests

#### Goal:

- Input: long message
- Output: short block (called hash or message digest)
- Property: given a hash h it is computationally infeasible to find a message that produces h
- Examples: http://www.slavasoft.com/quickhash/links.htm
  - Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA-1, SHA-2) by NIST
  - MD2, MD4, and MD5 by Ron Rivest [RFC1319, 1320, 1321]
  - <sub>n</sub> SHA-1: output 160 bits
  - SHA-2: output 256-384-512 believed to be more secure than others

#### n Uses:

- MAC: How? Problems? ... HMAC
- Authentication: how?
- Encryption: how?



<sup>n</sup>  $HMAC_K(x) = SHA-1((K \oplus opad) \mid SHA-1((K \oplus ipad)|x))$ 

ipad = 3636...36; opad = 5C5C...5C

#### Assumption:

SHA-1 restricted to one application is a secure MAC

# Message Digest 5 (MD5) by R. Rivest [RFC1321]

- Input: message of arbitrary length
- n Output: 128-bit hash
- Message is processed in blocks of 512 bits (padding if necessary)
- Security:
  - Designed to resist to the Birthday attack
  - Collisions where found in MD5, SHA-0, and almost found for SHA-1
  - Near-Collisions of SHA-0, Eli Biham, Rafi Chen, Proceedings of Crypto 2004
  - http://www.cs.technion.ac.il/~biham/publications.html
  - Collisions for Hash Functions MD4, MD5, HAVAL-128 and RIPEMD
  - Xiaoyun Wang and Dengguo Feng and Xuejia Lai and Hongbo Yu
  - http://eprint.iacr.org/2004/199.pdf

## Birthday Attacks

- <sub>n</sub> Is a 64-bit hash secure?
  - Brute force: 1ns per hash  $=> 10^{13}$  seconds over 300 thousand years
- But by Birthday Paradox it is not
- Example: what is the probability that at least two people out of 23 have the same birthday? P > 0.5

#### Birthday attack technique

- opponent generates 2<sup>m/2</sup> variations of a valid message all with essentially the same meaning
- opponent also generates 2<sup>m/2</sup> variations of a desired fraudulent message
- two sets of messages are compared to find pair with same hash (probability > 0.5 by birthday paradox)
- have user sign the valid message, then substitute the forgery which will have a valid signature
- Need to use larger MACs



## **Public Key Systems**



- Invented by Diffie and Hellman [DH76]
  - When DES was proposed for standardization
- Asymmetric systems are much slower than the symmetric ones (~1000 times)
- n Advantages:
  - does not require a shared key
  - simpler security architecture (no-need to a trusted third party)



### Modular Arithmetic

- Modular addition:
  - $_{n}$  E.g.,  $3 + 5 = 1 \mod 7$
- n Modular multiplication:
  - <sub>n</sub> E.g.,  $3 * 4 = 5 \mod 7$
- n Modular exponentiation:
  - <sub>n</sub> E.g.,  $3^3 = 6 \mod 7$
- n Group, Rings, Finite/Galois Fields ...

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## RSA Cryptosystem [RSA78]

n 
$$E(M) = M^e \mod n = C$$
 (Encryption)  
n  $D(C) = C^d \mod n = M$  (Decryption)

#### n RSA parameters:

$$_{n}$$
  $p_{r}$   $q_{r}$  two big prime numbers

$$n = pq_r \phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$$

<sup>n</sup> 
$$e_r$$
 with  $gcd(\phi(n), e) = 1, 1 < e < \phi(n)$  (public, chosen)

$$_{n} d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$$

n 
$$D(E(M)) = M^{ed} \mod n = M^{k\phi(n)+1} = M$$

(private, chosen)(public, calculated)(public, chosen)(private, calculated)

(Euler's theorem)

#### Prime Numbers Generation

- Density of primes (prime number theorem):
  - $_{n}$   $\pi(x) \sim x/\ln(x)$
- Sieve of Erathostène
  - Try if any number less than SQRT(n) divides n
- Fermat's Little Theorem does not detect Carmichael numbers
  - $b^{n-1} = 1 \mod n$
- Solovay-Strassen primality test
  - If n is not prime at least 50% of b fail to satisfy the following:
    - $_{n}$   $b^{(n-1)/2} = J(b, n) \mod n$
- n Rabin-Miller primality test
  - If n is not prime then it is not pseudoprime to at least 75% of b < n:
    - Pseudoprime:  $n-1 = 2^s t$ ,  $b^t = \pm 1 \mod n$  **OR**  $b^{t2^r} = -1 \mod n$  for some r<r
  - n Probabilistic test, deterministic if the Generalized Riemann Hypothesis is true
- Deterministic polynomial time primality test [Agrawal, Kayal, Saxena'2002]

## Use of RSA

- Encryption (A wants to send a message to B):
  - <sup>n</sup> A uses the public key of B and encrypts M (i.e.,  $E_B(M)$ )
  - Since only B has the private key, only B can decrypt M (i.e.,  $M = D_B(M)$
- Digital signature (A want to send a signed message to B):
  - Based on the fact that  $E_A(D_A(M)) = D_A(E_A(M))$
  - <sup>n</sup> A encrypts M using its private key (i.e.,  $D_A(M)$ ) and sends it to B
  - <sup>n</sup> B can check that  $E_A(D_A(M)) = M$
  - Since only A has the decryption key, only can generate this message

# Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Private: A	Public	Private: B
X	<ul><li>p: prime number,</li><li>a: primitive element of GF(p)</li></ul>	${f y}$
compute:		compute:
a <sup>x</sup> mod p		a <sup>y</sup> mod p
receive:		receive:
ay mod p		a <sup>x</sup> mod p
Compute shared key:  (a <sup>y</sup> ) <sup>x</sup> mod p		Compute shared key:  (a <sup>x</sup> ) <sup>y</sup> mod p

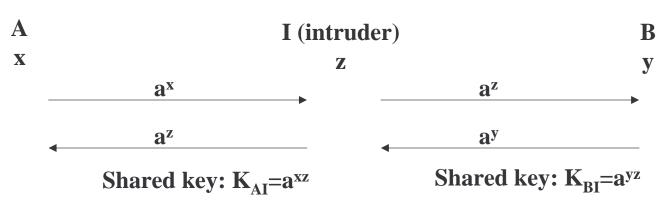
Based on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms

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Morks also in extension Galois fields: GF(pq)

# Attack on Diffie-Hellman Scheme: Public Key Integrity





Message encrypted using  $K_{AI}$ 

 $\begin{array}{c} \textbf{Decrypt using } K_{AI} + \textbf{Decrypt using} \\ K_{\overline{BI}} \end{array} \rightarrow$ 

- Need for a mean to verify the public information: certification
- Another solution: the Interlock Protocol (Rivest & Shamir 1984)

### El Gamal Scheme

#### Parameters:

- p: prime number
- n *g<p:* random number
- n *x*<*p*: random number
- $y = g^x \mod p$

(public, chosen)
(public, chosen)
(private, chosen)
(public, computed)

- Encryption of message M:
  - n choose random k < p-1
  - $a = g^k \mod p$
  - $_{n}$   $b = y^{k} M \mod p$
- Decryption:
  - $_{n}$   $M = b/y^{k}$  mod  $p = b/g^{xk}$  mod  $p = b/a^{x}$
- <sub>n</sub> Message signature
  - <sup>n</sup> choose random k relatively prime with p-1
  - find b:  $M = (xa + kb) \mod (p-1)$  (extended Euclid algorithm)
  - $_{n}$  signature(M) = (a, b)
  - verify signature:  $y^a a^b \mod p = g^M \mod p$

# Knapsack

- Introduced by R. Merkle
- Based on the difficulty of solving the Knapsack problem in polynomial time (Knapsack is an NP-complete problem)

n cargo vector: 
$$a = (a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$$
 (seq. Int)

plaintext msg: 
$$x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$$
 (seq. Bits)

n ciphertext: 
$$S = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + ... + a_n x_n$$

$$a_i = wa_i'$$
 such that  $a_i' > a_1' + ... + a_{i1}'$ ,  $m > a_1' + ... + a_n'$ 

- $_{n}$  w is relatively prime with m
- n One-round Knapsack was broken by A. Shamir in 1982
- Several variations of Knapsack were broken



Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)

n Zero Knowledge Proof Systems

## Security Services

- Confidentiality:
  - Use an encryption algorithm
  - Generally a symmetric algorithm
- n Integrity:
  - MAC algorithm
- n Access control:
  - Use access control tables
- Authentication
  - Use authentication protocols
- Non-repudiation

# Questions

- How many keys are derived in DES?
- n How do rounds relate to the key size in AES?
- Is the decryption process exactly the same as the encryption process for DES? AES?
- If a bit error occurs in the transmission of a ciphertext character in 8-bit CFB mode how far does it propagate?