



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
 - DES, IDEA, AES
- Modes of Operation
 - ECB, CBC, OFB, CFB, CTR
 - Message Authentication Code (MAC)
- Hashes and Message Digest
- Public Key Algorithms



Why/How?

- Why security?
 - Internet, E-commerce, Digi-Cash, disclosure of private information
 - ...
- Security services:
 - Authentication, Confidentiality, Integrity, Access control, Non-repudiation, availability
- 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)
- Cryptanalysis:
 - Ciphertext only, known plaintext, chosen plaintext, chosen ciphertext, chosen text



Security services

- **Authentication:**
 - assures the recipient of a message the authenticity of the claimed source
- **Access control:**
 - limits the access to authorized users
- **Confidentiality:**
 - protects against unauthorized release of message content
- **Integrity:**
 - guarantees that a message is received as sent
- **Non-repudiation:**
 - protects against sender/receiver denying sending/receiving a message
- **Availability:**
 - guarantees that the system services are always available when needed
- **Security audit:**
 - keeps track of transactions for later use (diagnostic, alarms...)
- **Key management:**
 - 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:
 - Release of message content
 - Traffic analysis
 - Active attacks:
 - Masquerade
 - Replay
 - 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?

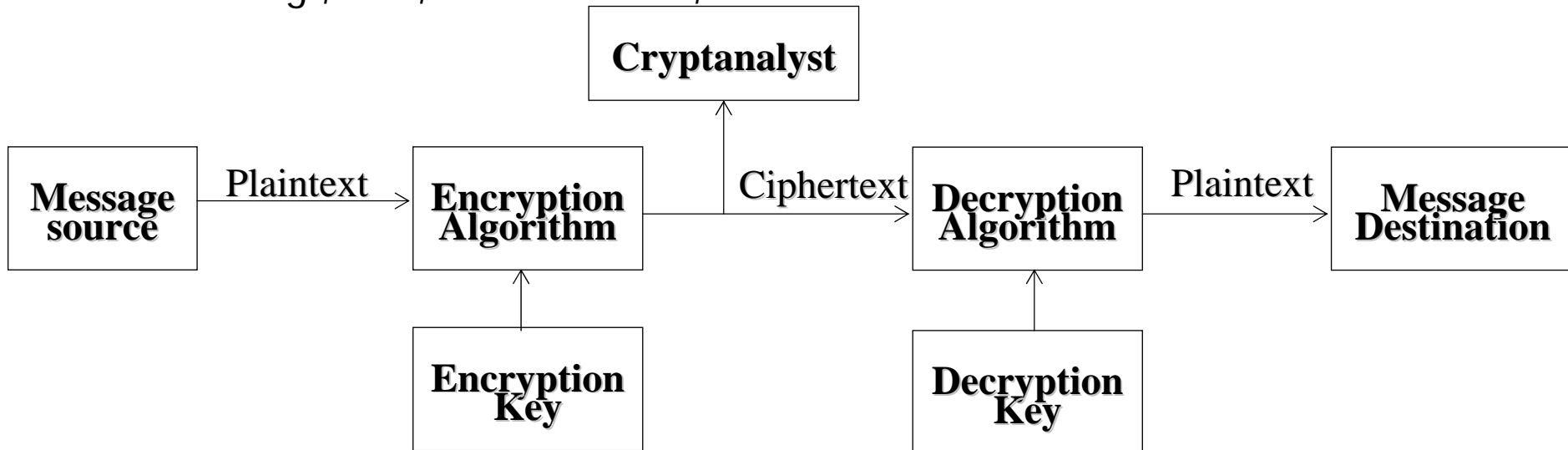


Attacks on Encrypted Messages

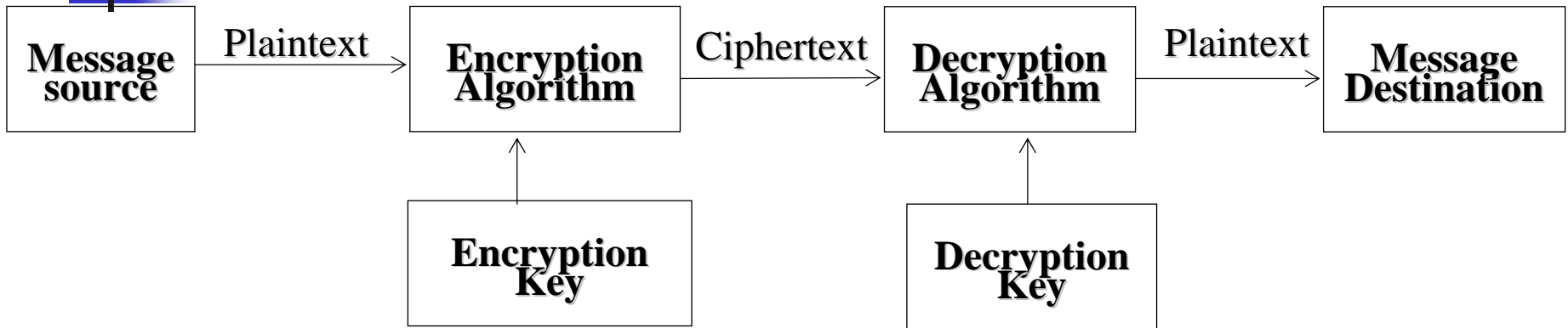
- Ciphertext only:
 - encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded
- Known plaintext:
 - encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded, pairs of (plaintext, ciphertext)
- Chosen plaintext:
 - encryption algorithm, ciphertext to be decoded, plaintext (chosen by cryptanalyst) + corresponding ciphertext
- 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

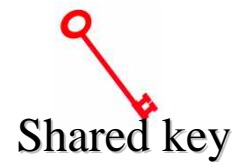
- Symmetric encryption (conventional encryption)
 - Encryption Key = Decryption Key
 - E.g., AES, DES, FEAL, IDEA, BLOWFISH
- Asymmetric encryption
 - Encryption Key \neq Decryption key
 - E.g., RSA, Diffie-Hellman, ElGamal



Encryption Models



Symmetric encryption:



Asymmetric encryption:



Public key



Private key

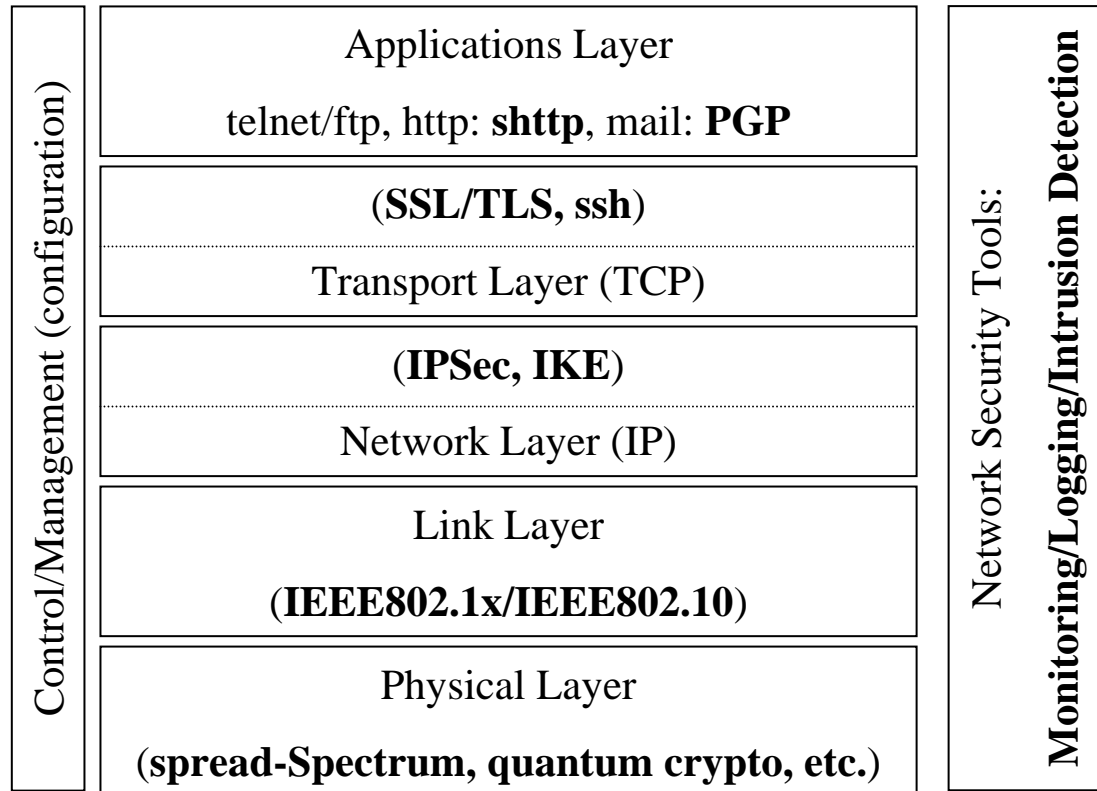
Some Building Blocks of Cryptography/Security



- 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
- 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





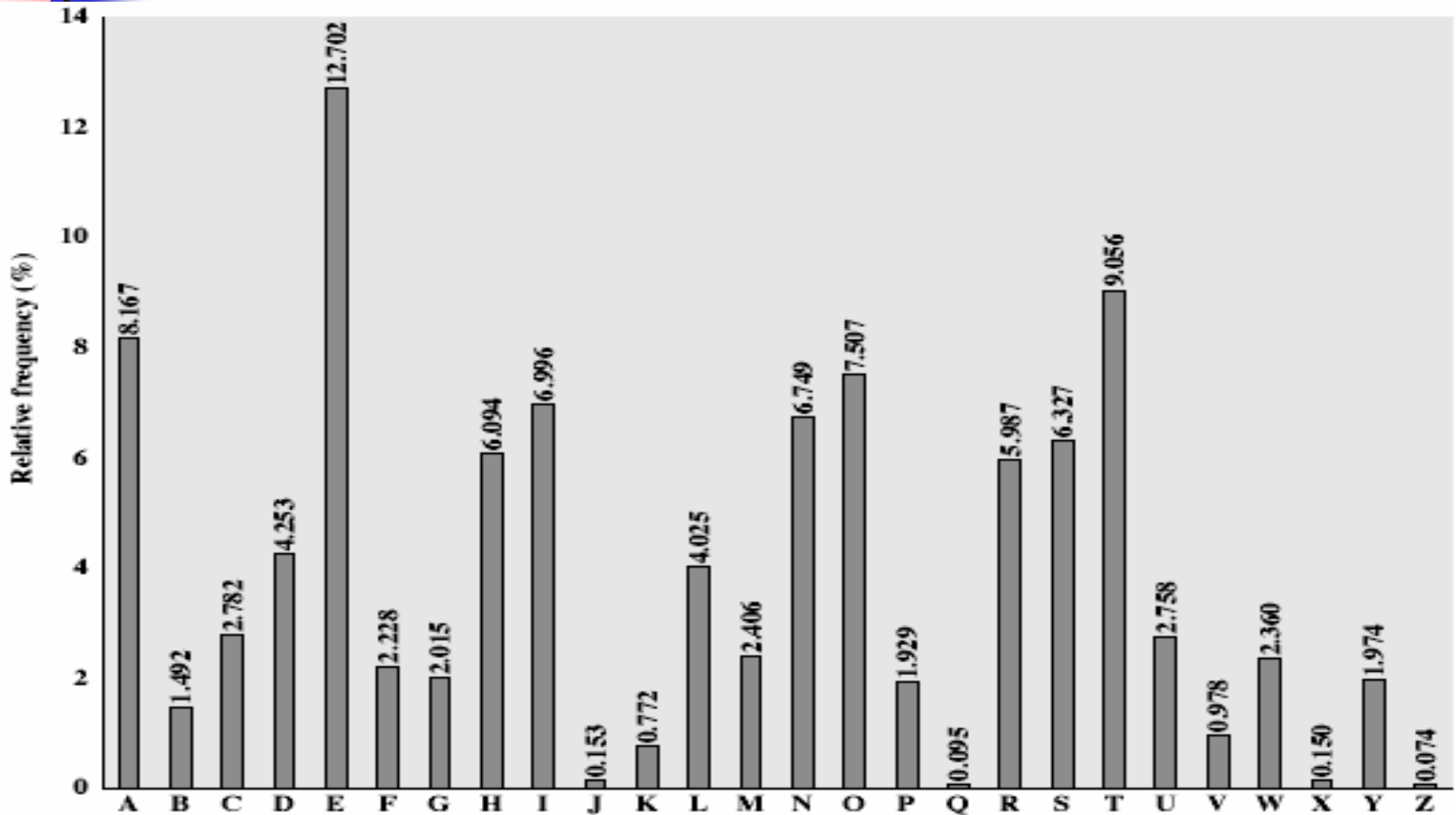
Secret Key Cryptography
=
Symmetric Cryptography
=
Conventional Cryptography

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`
 - cipher: `phhw ph diwhu wkh wrjd sduwb`
 - Key space: 25
 - Brut force attack: try 25 possibilities
- Monoalphabetic ciphers
 - Arbitrary substitution of alphabet letters
 - Key space: $26! > 4 \times 10^{26} > \text{key-space(DES)}$
 - 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 digraphs 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: **deceptivedeceptivedeceptive**
 - plain: **wearediscoveredsaveyourself**
 - cipher: **ZICVTWQNGRZGVTWAVZHCQYGLMGJ**
 - 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:
 - Encryption: $c_i = p_i \oplus k_i$
 - c_i : i^{th} binary digit of ciphertext, p_i : plaintext, k_i : key
 - 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):
 - Cipher: **ANKYODKYUREPFJBYOJDSPREYIUN**
 - 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`
- A more complex transposition scheme
 - Key: `4312567`
 - Plain: `attackp`
`ostpone`
`duntilt`
`woamxyz`
 - Cipher: `TTNAAPTMTSUOAODWCOIXKNLYPETZ`
- Attack: letter/digraph frequency
- Improvement: multiple-stage transposition



Today's Block Encryption Algorithms

- Key size:
 - 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
- How:
 - Substitution (small chunks) & permutation (long chunks)
 - Multiple rounds

⇒ SPN (Substitution and Permutation Networks) and variants

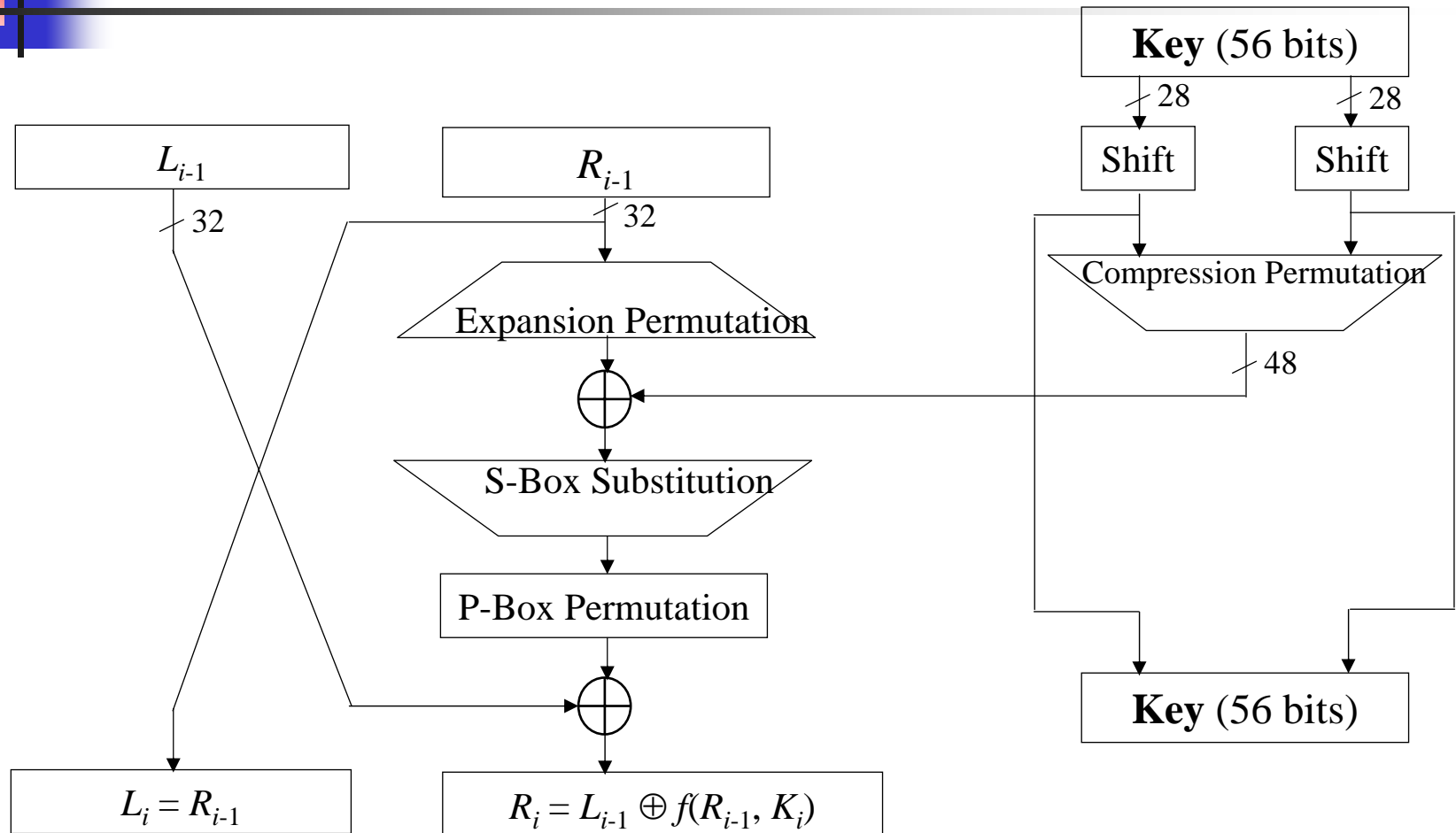


Data Encryption Standard (DES)

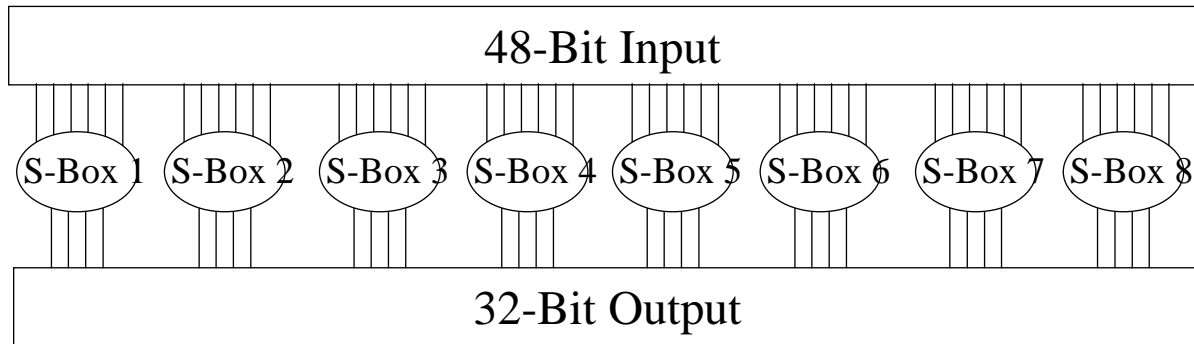
- Developed by IBM for the US government
- Based on Lucifer (64-bits, 128-bits key in 1971)
- To respond to the National Bureau of Standards CFP
 - Modified characteristics (with help of the NSA):
 - 64-bits block size, 56 bits key length
 - Concerns about trapdoors, key size, sbox structure
- Adopted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

- Replaced by AES

One DES Round



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

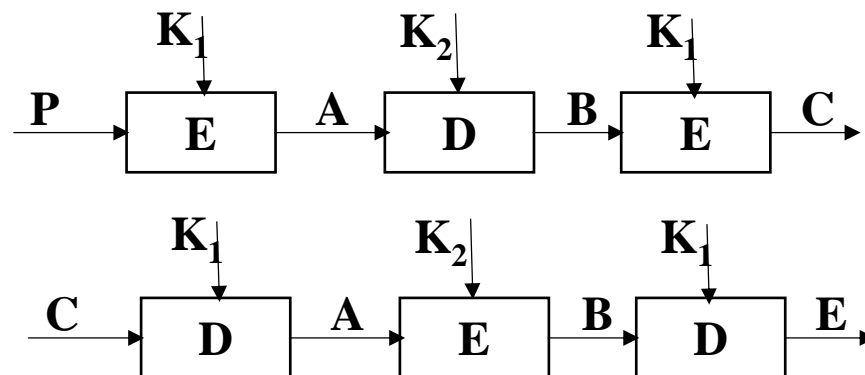
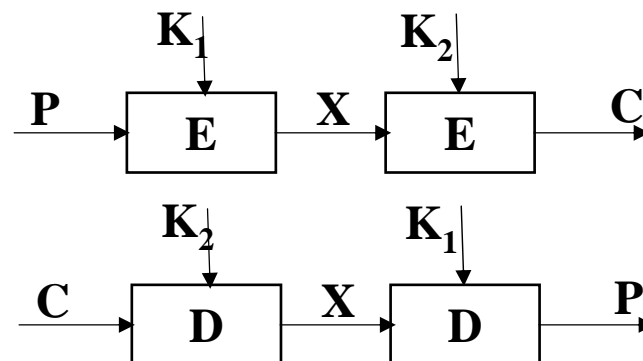
Double/Triple DES

- Double DES

- Vulnerable to Meet-in-the-Middle Attack [DH77]

- Triple DES

- Used two keys K_1 and K_2
- Compatible with simple DES ($K_1=K_2$)
- 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^{14} chosen plaintext
- 16-round DES requires 2^{47} 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
- GSM A3 algorithm is sensitive to this kind of attacks
 - SIM card secret key can be recovered => GSM cloning



Breaking DES

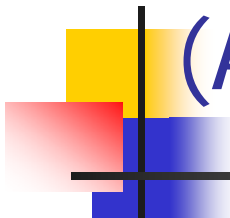
- Electronic Frontier Foundation built a “DES Cracking Machine” [1998]
 - Attack: brute force
 - Inputs: two ciphertext
 - Architecture:
 - PC
 - array of custom chips that can compute DES
24 search units/chip x 64chips/board x 27 boards
 - Power:
 - searches 92 billion keys per second
 - takes 4.5 days for half the key space
 - 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
 - 128-bits key length
 - Uses three algebraic groups: XOR, $+ \text{ mod } 2^{16}$, $\times \text{ mod } 2^{16}+1$
 - 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



- Designed by Rijmen-Daemen (Belgium)
- Key size: 128/192/256 bit
- 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



AES

- State: 16 bytes structured in a array

$S_{0,0}$	$S_{0,1}$	$S_{0,2}$	$S_{0,3}$
$S_{1,0}$	$S_{1,1}$	$S_{1,2}$	$S_{1,3}$
$S_{2,0}$	$S_{2,1}$	$S_{2,2}$	$S_{2,3}$
$S_{3,0}$	$S_{3,1}$	$S_{3,2}$	$S_{3,3}$

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



AES Outline

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



Implementation Aspects

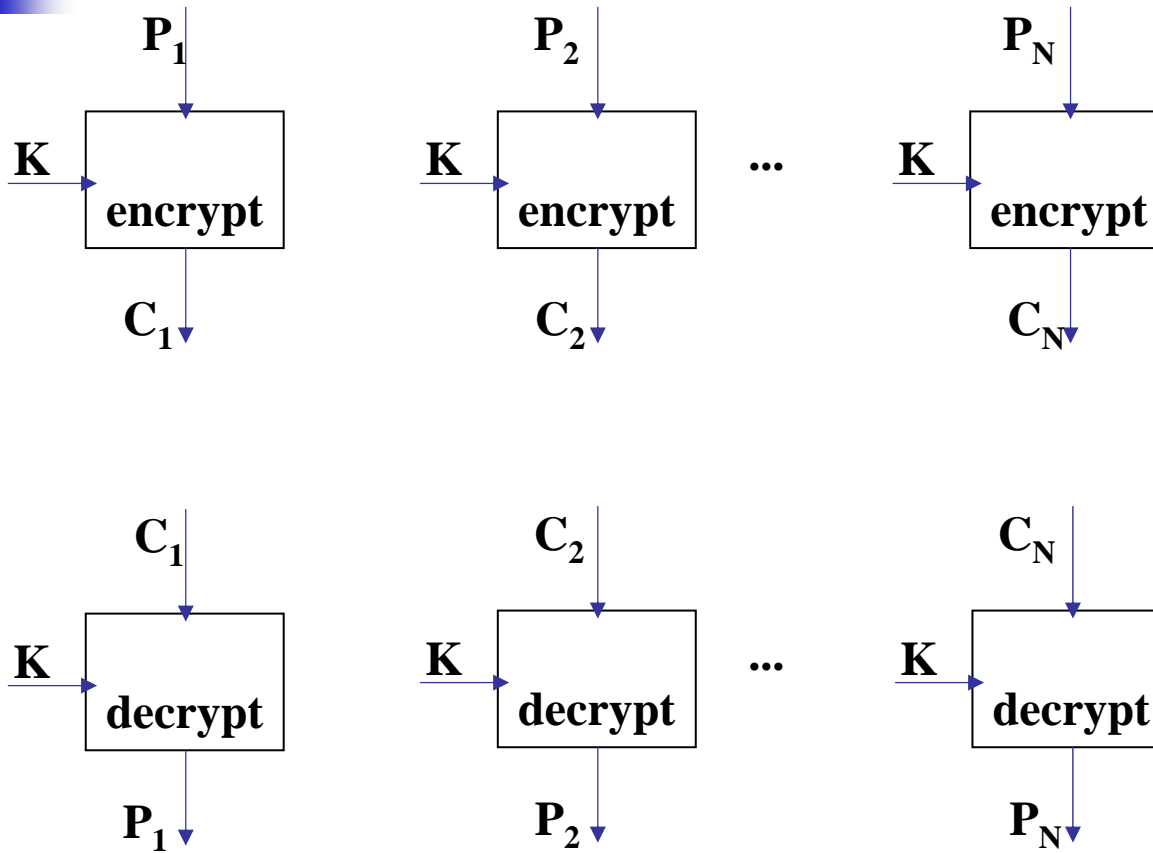
- Can be efficiently implemented on 8-bit CPU
 - byte substitution works on bytes using a table of 256 entries
 - shift rows is a simple byte shifting
 - add round key works on byte XORs
 - mix columns requires matrix multiply in $GF(2^8)$ which works on byte values, can be simplified to use a table lookup



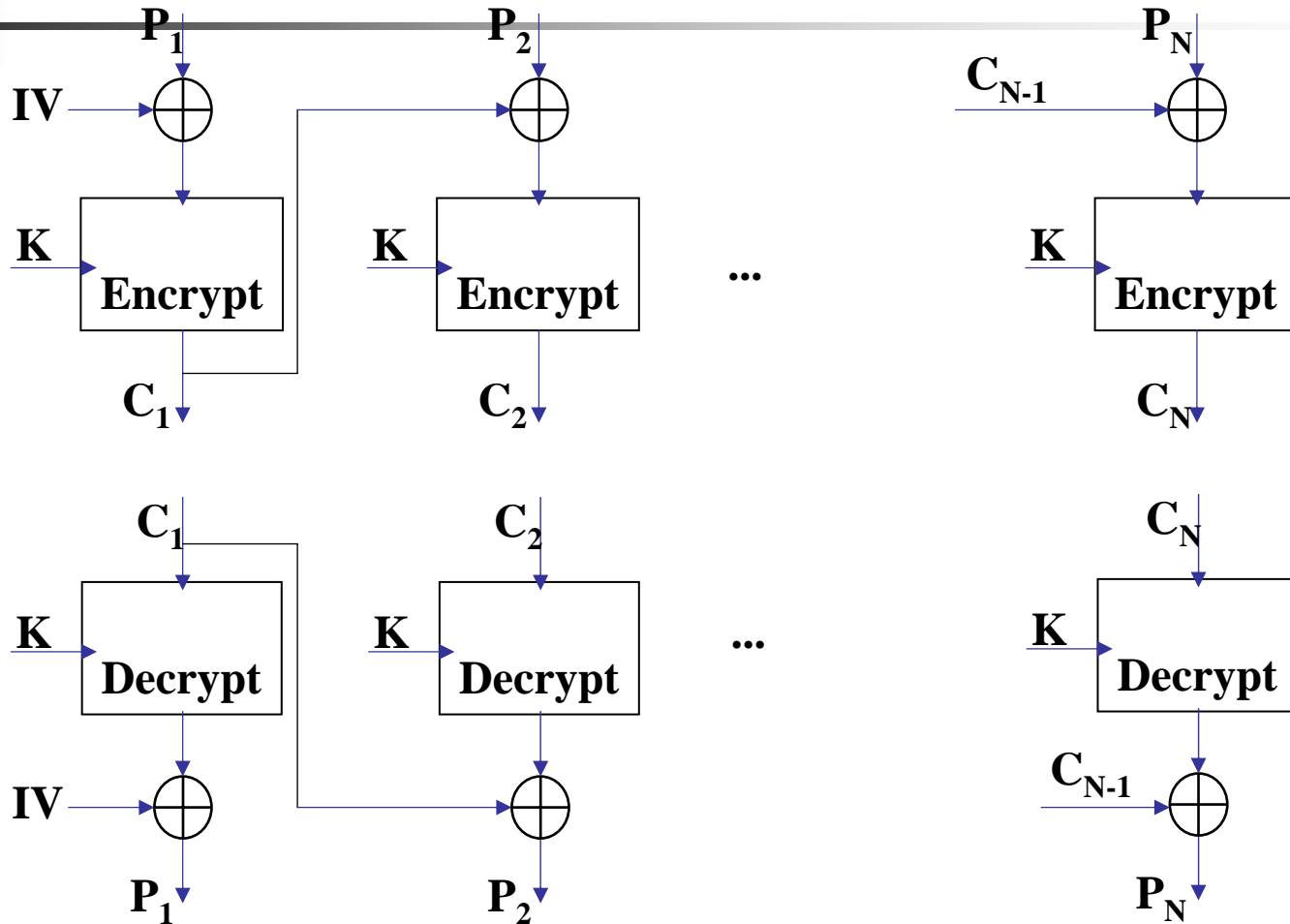
Implementation Aspects

- 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
 - 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

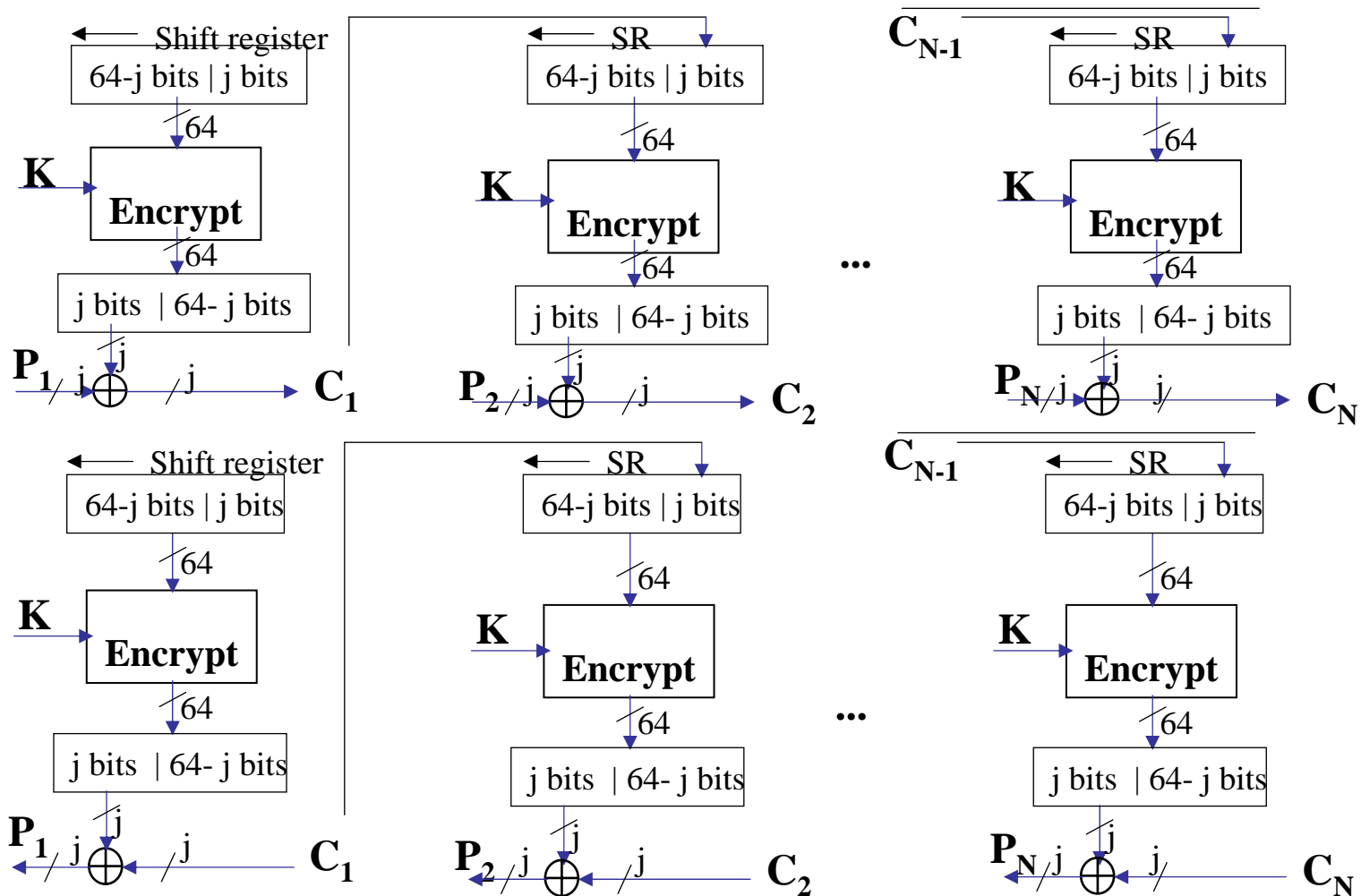
Encryption Modes: Electronic Codebook (ECB)



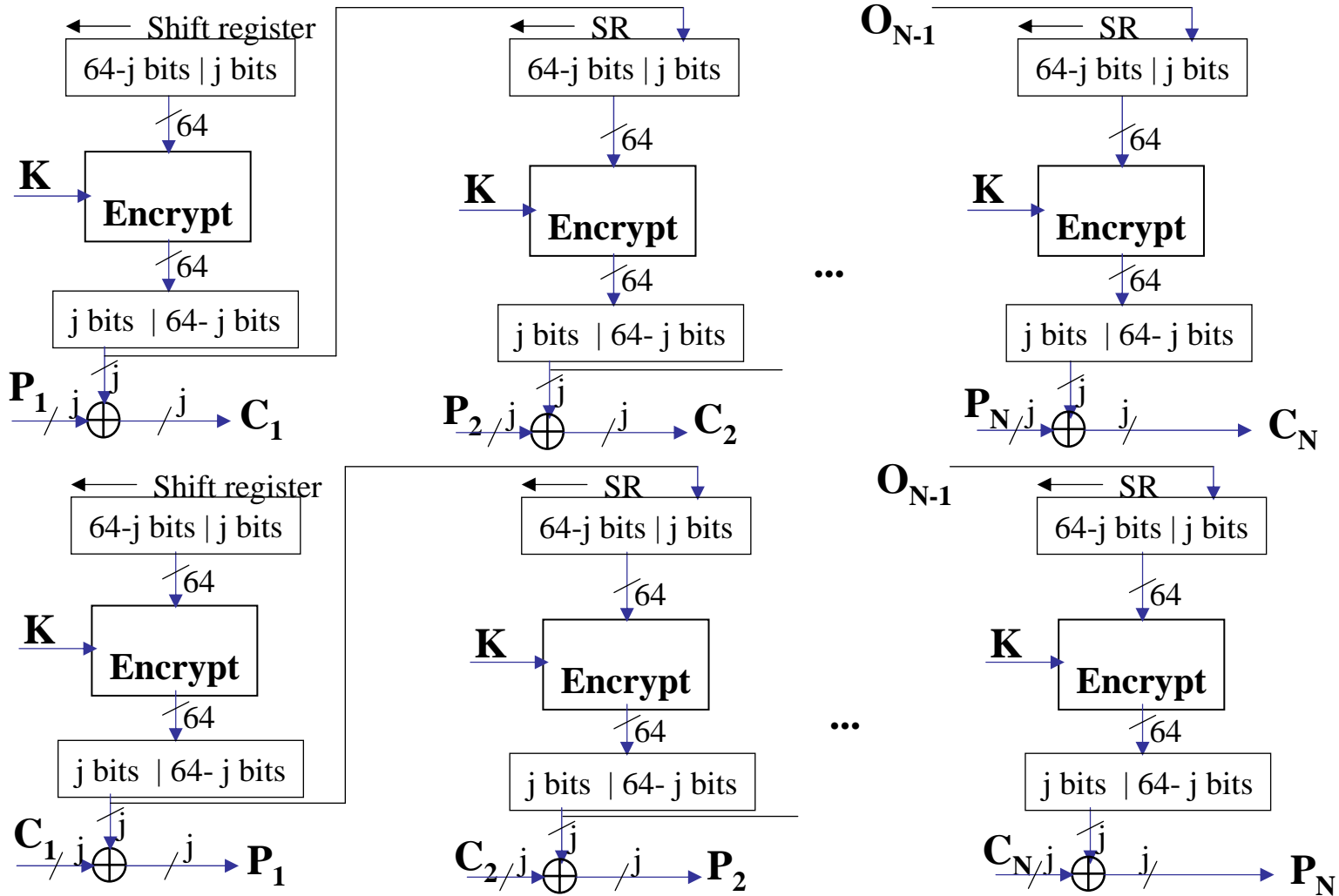
Encryption Modes: Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)



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)

$$C_i = P_i \text{ XOR } O_i$$

$$O_i = \text{DES}_{K1}(i)$$

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



Inside vs. Outside CBC-3DES

- What 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)
- 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]
 - SHA-1: output 160 bits
 - SHA-2: output 256-384-512 believed to be more secure than others
- Uses:
 - MAC: How? Problems? ... HMAC
 - Authentication: how?
 - Encryption: how?



HMAC

- $\text{HMAC}_K(x) = \text{SHA-1}((K \oplus \text{opad}) \mid \text{SHA-1}((K \oplus \text{ipad}) \mid x))$
 - $\text{ipad} = 3636\dots36$; $\text{opad} = 5C5C\dots5C$
- Assumption:
 - SHA-1 restricted to one application is a secure MAC

Message Digest 5 (MD5)

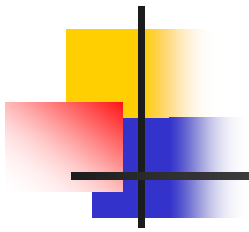
by R. Rivest [RFC1321]

- Input: message of arbitrary length
- 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

- 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 $2^{m/2}$ variations of a valid message all with essentially the same meaning
 - opponent also generates $2^{m/2}$ 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

Asymmetric cryptosystems

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

Public Key



Encrypted Message



Private Key





Modular Arithmetic

- Modular addition:
 - E.g., $3 + 5 = 1 \pmod{7}$
- Modular multiplication:
 - E.g., $3 * 4 = 5 \pmod{7}$
- Modular exponentiation:
 - E.g., $3^3 = 6 \pmod{7}$

- Group, Rings, Finite/Galois Fields ...



RSA Cryptosystem [RSA78]

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

- RSA parameters:
 - p, q , two big prime numbers (private, chosen)
 - $n = pq, \phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$ (public, calculated)
 - e , with $\gcd(\phi(n), e) = 1, 1 < e < \phi(n)$ (public, chosen)
 - $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$ (private, calculated)

- $D(E(M)) = M^{ed} \bmod n = M^{k\phi(n)+1} = M$ (Euler's theorem)



Prime Numbers Generation

- Density of primes (prime number theorem):
 - $\pi(x) \sim x/\ln(x)$
- Sieve of Erathostène
 - Try if any number less than $\text{SQRT}(n)$ divides n
- Based on Fermat's Little Theorem but does not detect Carmichael numbers
 - $b^{n-1} = 1 \pmod n$ [if there exists b s.t. $\text{gcd}(b, n) = 1$ and $b^{n-1} \neq 1 \pmod n$ then n does not pass Fermat's test for half b 's relatively prime with n]
- Solovay-Strassen primality test
 - If n is not prime at least 50% of b fail to satisfy the following:
 - $b^{(n-1)/2} = J(b, n) \pmod n$
- Rabin-Miller primality test
 - If n is not prime then it is not pseudoprime to at least 75% of $b < n$:
 - Pseudoprime: $n-1 = 2^s t$, $b^t = \pm 1 \pmod n$ **OR** $b^{t2^r} = -1 \pmod n$ for some $r < s$
 - 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):
 - 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 $E_A(D_A(M)) = D_A(E_A(M))$
 - A encrypts M using its private key (i.e., $D_A(M)$) and sends it to B
 - 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

**p: prime number,
a: primitive element of GF(p)**

y

**compute:
 $a^x \bmod p$**

**compute:
 $a^y \bmod p$**

**receive:
 $a^y \bmod p$**

**receive:
 $a^x \bmod p$**

**Compute shared key:
 $(a^y)^x \bmod p$**

**Compute shared key:
 $(a^x)^y \bmod p$**

- Based on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms
- Works also in extension Galois fields: $GF(p^q)$



El Gamal Scheme

Parameters:

- p : prime number (public, chosen)
- $g < p$: random number (public, chosen)
- $x < p$: random number (private, chosen)
- $y = g^x \text{ mod } p$ (public, computed)

■ Encryption of message M :

- choose random $k < p-1$
- $a = g^k \text{ mod } p$
- $b = y^k M \text{ mod } p$

■ Decryption:

- $M = b/y^k \text{ mod } p = b/g^{xk} \text{ mod } p = b/a^x$

■ Message signature

- choose random k relatively prime with $p-1$
- find b : $M = (xa + kb) \text{ mod } (p-1)$ (extended Euclid algorithm)
- signature(M) = (a, b)
- verify signature: $y^a a^b \text{ mod } p = g^M \text{ mod } p$



Knapsack

- Introduced by R. Merkle
- Based on the difficulty of solving the Knapsack problem in polynomial time (Knapsack is an NP-complete problem)
 - cargo vector: $a = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ (seq. Int)
 - plaintext msg: $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ (seq. Bits)
 - ciphertext: $S = a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \dots + a_nx_n$
 - $a_i = wa'_i$ such that $a'_i > a'_1 + \dots + a'_{i-1}$, $m > a'_1 + \dots + a'_n$
 - w is relatively prime with m
- One-round Knapsack was broken by A. Shamir in 1982
- Several variations of Knapsack were broken



Others

- Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)
- Zero Knowledge Proof Systems



Security Services

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



Questions

- How many keys are derived in DES?
- 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?