

## An Introduction to Cyber Security – CS 573

Instructor: Dr. Edward G. Amoroso

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## **Required Week Six Readings**

1. "Why Cryptosystems Fail," Ross Anderson https://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/~rja14/Papers/wcf.pdf

2. Finish Reading "From CIA to APT: An Introduction" to Cyber Security, E. Amoroso & M. Amoroso

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**Week 6: Symmetric Cryptography** 

Reminder: What are the Three Methods of Cryptanalysis?

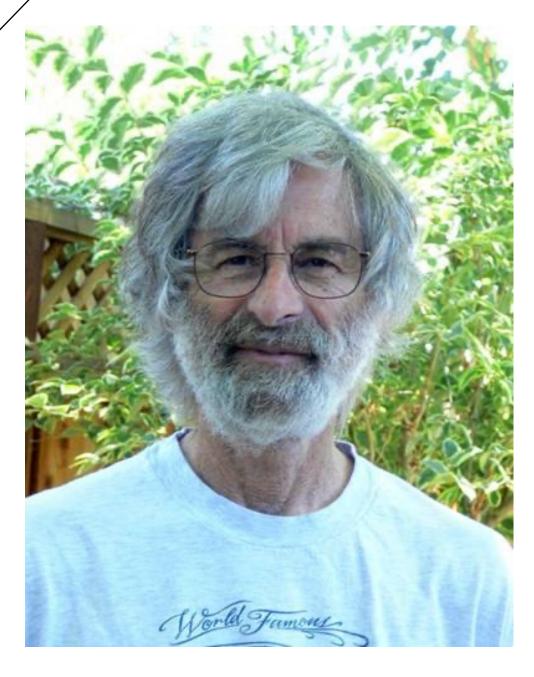
#### **Three Cryptanalytic Methods**

<u>Ciphertext-Only</u>: In this method of cryptanalysis, the attacker has access only to a collection of <u>ciphertexts</u>.

<u>Known-Plaintext</u>: In this method of cryptanalysis, the attacker has a set of ciphertexts to which they know the corresponding <u>plaintext</u>.

<u>Chosen-Plaintext</u>: In the codebook method, the attacker can obtain the ciphertexts (plaintexts) corresponding to an arbitrary set of plaintexts (ciphertexts) of their own choosing.

# Are Authentication Protocols with No Challenge Values Always Ciphertext-Only?



Technical Note Operating Systems

Anita K. Jones Editor

#### Password Authentication with Insecure Communication

Leslie Lamport SRI International

A method of user password authentication is described which is secure even if an intruder can read the system's data, and can tamper with or eavesdrop on the communication between the user and the system. The method assumes a secure one-way encryption function and can be implemented with a microcomputer in the user's terminal.

Key Words and Phrases: security, authentication, passwords, one-way function

CR Categories: 4.35, 4.39

#### I. The Problem

In remotely accessed computer systems, a user identifies himself to the system by sending a secret password. There are three ways an intruder could learn the user's secret password and then impersonate him when interacting with the system:

- By gaining access to the information stored inside the system, e.g., reading the system's password file.
- (2) By intercepting the user's communication with the system, e.g., eavesdropping on the line connecting the user's terminal with the system, or observing the execution of the password checking program.
- (3) By the user's inadvertent disclosure of his password, e.g., choosing an easily guessed password.

The third possibility cannot be prevented by any password protocol, since two individuals presenting the same password information cannot be distinguished by the system. Eliminating this possibility requires some mechanism for physically identifying the user—for ex-

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ample, a voice print. Such a mechanism is beyond the scope of this paper, so we restrict ourselves to the problem of removing the first two weaknesses.

#### II. The Solution

The first weakness can be eliminated by using a oneway function to encode the password. A one-way function is a mapping F from some set of words into itself such that:

- (1) Given a word x, it is easy to compute F(x).
- (2) Given a word y, it is not feasible to compute a word x such that y = F(x).

We will not bother to specify precisely what "easy" and "feasible" mean, so our reasoning will be informal. Note that given F(x), it is always possible to find x by an exhaustive search. We require that such a computation be too costly to be practical. A one-way function F can be constructed from a secure encryption algorithm: one computes F(x) by encrypting a standard word using x as a key [1].

Instead of storing the user's password x, the system stores only the value y = F(x). The user identifies himself by sending x to the system; the system authenticates his identity by computing F(x) and checking that it equals the stored value y. Authentication is easy, since our first assumption about F is that it is easy to compute F(x) from x. Anyone examining the system's permanently stored information can discover only y, and by the second assumption about F it will be infeasible for him to compute a value x such that y = F(x). This is a widely used scheme, and is described in [2] and [3].

While removing the first weakness, this method does not eliminate the second—an eavesdropper can discover the password x and subsequently impersonate the user. To prevent this, one must use a sequence of passwords  $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{1000}$ , where  $x_i$  is the password by which the user identifies himself for the ith time. (Of course, the value 1000 is quite arbitrary. The assumption we will tacitly make is that 1000 is small enough so that it is "feasible" to perform 1000 "easy" computations.) The system must know the sequence  $y_1, \ldots, y_{1000}$ , where  $y_i = F(x_i)$ , and the  $y_i$  must be distinct to prevent an intruder from reusing a prior password.

There are two obvious schemes for choosing the passwords  $x_i$ .

- (1) All the  $x_i$  are chosen initially, and the system maintains the entire sequence of values  $y_1, \ldots, y_{1000}$  in its storage.
- (2) The user sends the value y<sub>i+1</sub> to the system during the ith session—after logging on with x<sub>i</sub>.

Neither scheme is completely satisfactory: the first because both the user and the system must store 1000 pieces of information, and the second because it is not robust—communication failure or interference from an

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#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol – Purpose**

A

В

A is reporting its identity to B

B is attempting to validate A's reported identity (i.e., authenticating A)

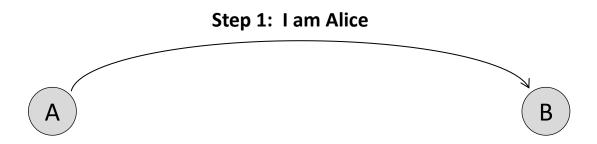
#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol – Set-Up**

B

B Does Not Store The Seed Value (λ)

Known Function:
 f: integer -> integer
Known Seed:
 integer λ
Number of Rounds:
 n = 10,000

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

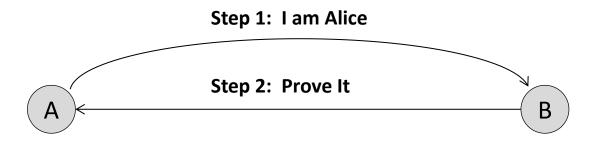
**Known Seed:** 

integer λ

**Number of Rounds:** 

User	Stored	
Α	f, n, f <sup>n</sup> (λ)	

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

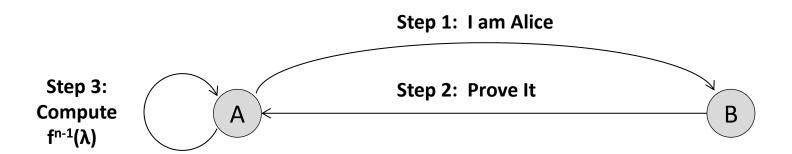
**Known Seed:** 

integer λ

**Number of Rounds:** 

User	Stored	
A	f, n, f <sup>n</sup> (λ)	

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

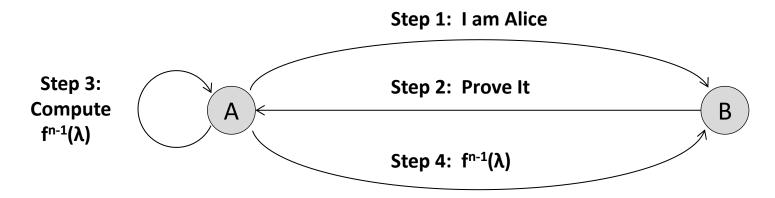
**Known Seed:** 

integer  $\lambda$ 

**Number of Rounds:** 

User	Stored	
Α	f, n, f <sup>n</sup> (λ)	

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

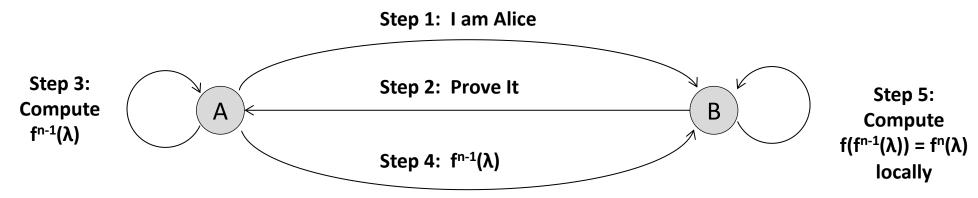
**Known Seed:** 

integer  $\lambda$ 

**Number of Rounds:** 

User	Stored	
Α	f, n, f <sup>n</sup> (λ)	

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

**Known Seed:** 

integer  $\lambda$ 

**Number of Rounds:** 

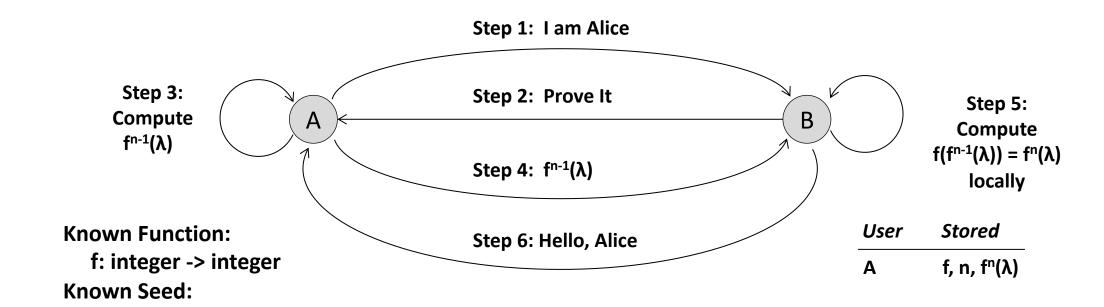
$$\frac{\textit{User} \qquad \textit{Stored}}{\mathsf{A} \qquad \mathsf{f, n, f}^{\mathsf{n}}(\lambda)}$$

integer λ

n = 10,000

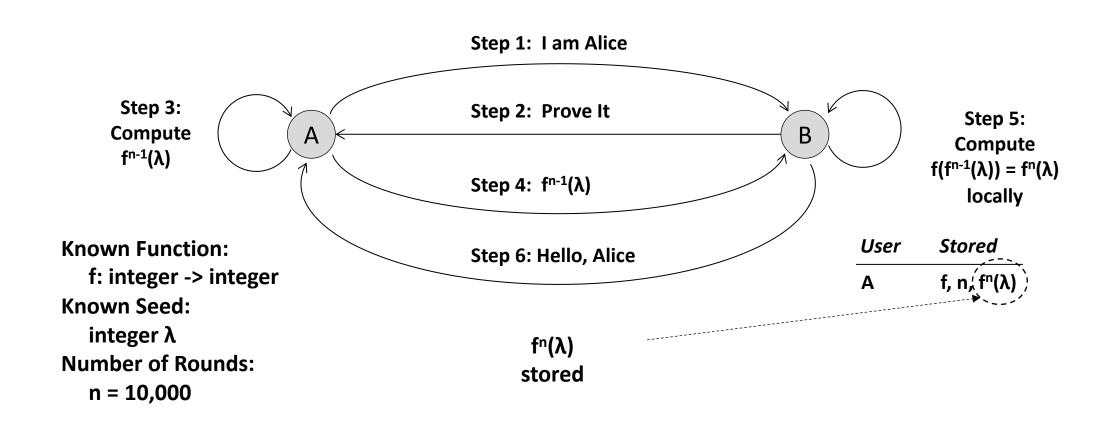
**Number of Rounds:** 

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



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#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**

A

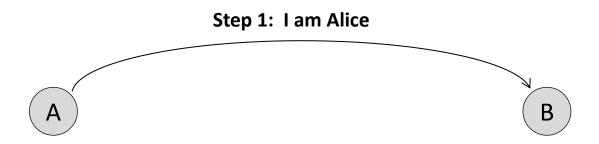
В

Known Function:
 f: integer -> integer
Known Seed:
 integer λ
Number of Rounds:
 n-1 = 9,999

 $f^{n-1}(\lambda)$  now stored

User	Stored
Α	f, n, f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ)

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

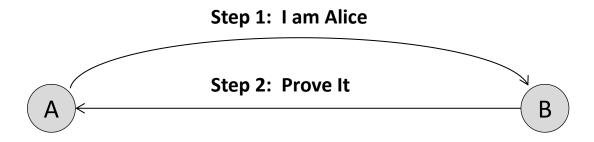
**Known Seed:** 

integer λ

**Number of Rounds:** 

$$\frac{\textit{User} \qquad \textit{Stored}}{A \qquad \qquad \mathsf{f, n, f^{n-1}(\lambda)}}$$

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

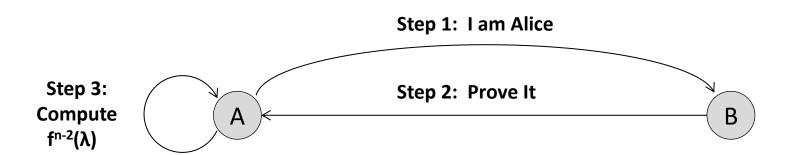
**Known Seed:** 

integer λ

**Number of Rounds:** 

$$\frac{\textit{User} \qquad \textit{Stored}}{A} \qquad \text{f, n, f}^{\text{n-1}}(\lambda)$$

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

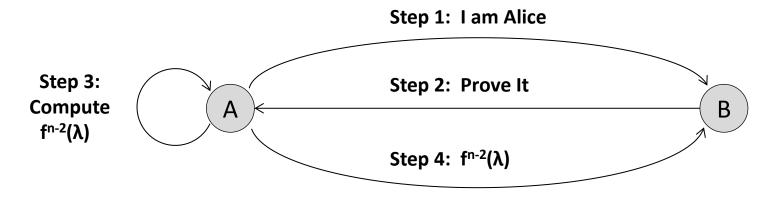
**Known Seed:** 

integer  $\lambda$ 

**Number of Rounds:** 

$$\frac{\textit{User} \qquad \textit{Stored}}{A \qquad \qquad \mathsf{f, n, f^{n-1}(\lambda)}}$$

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

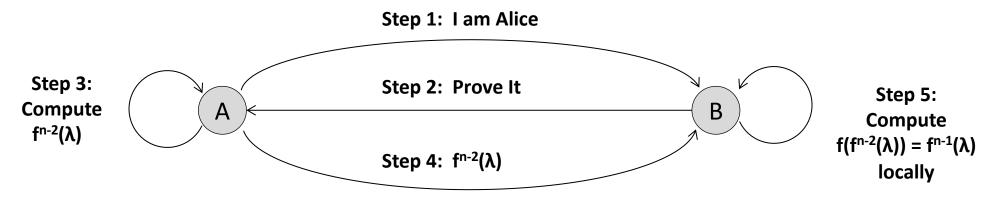
**Known Seed:** 

integer  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ 

**Number of Rounds:** 

User	Stored	
Α	f, n, f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ)	

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



**Known Function:** 

f: integer -> integer

**Known Seed:** 

integer  $\lambda$ 

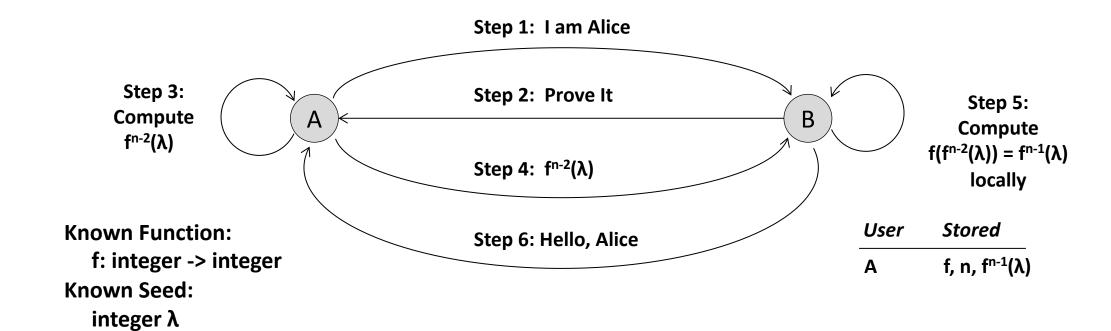
**Number of Rounds:** 

$$\frac{\textit{User} \qquad \textit{Stored}}{\mathsf{A} \qquad \mathsf{f, n, f^{n-1}(\lambda)}}$$

**Number of Rounds:** 

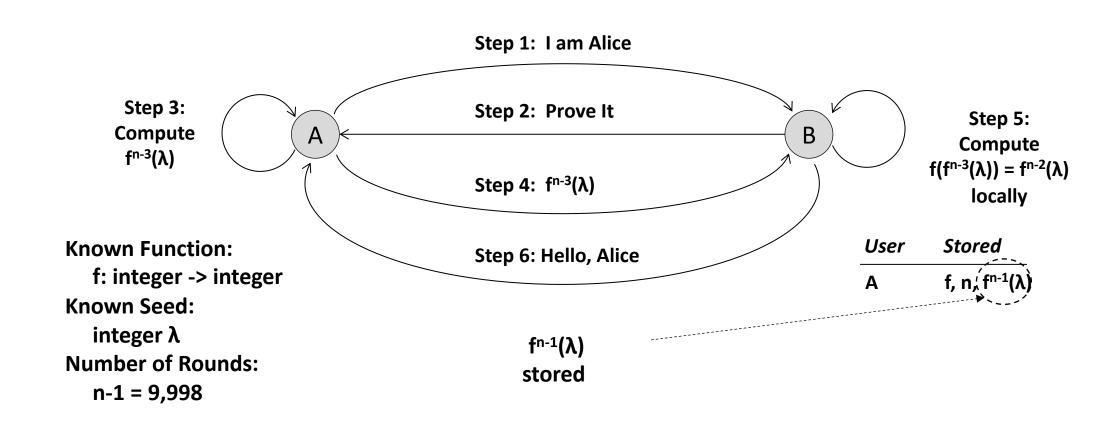
n-1 = 9,999

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



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#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**



#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol**

A

В

Known Function:
 f: integer -> integer
Known Seed:
 integer λ
Number of Rounds:
 n-2 = 9,998

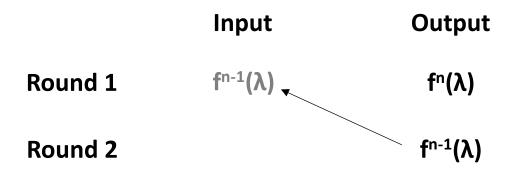
f<sup>n-2</sup>(λ) now stored (decremented)

User	Stored
Α	$f, n, f^{n-2}(\lambda)$

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	Input	Output
Round 1	-	f <sup>n</sup> (λ)

	Input	Output	
Round 1	-	f <sup>n</sup> (λ)	
Round 2		f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ)	Note: $f(f^{n-1}(\lambda)) = f^n(\lambda)$



	Input	Output
Round 1	f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ)	f <sup>n</sup> (λ)
Round 2	f <sup>n-2</sup> (λ)	f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ)
Round 3		f <sup>n-2</sup> (λ)

#### **Lamport S/Key Protocol – Analysis**

	Input	Output
Round 1	f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ) •	<b>f</b> <sup>n</sup> <b>(λ)</b> By
Round 2	f <sup>n-2</sup> (λ)	<b>f</b> <sup>n-1</sup> (λ) rou
Round 3	f <sup>n-3</sup> (λ) -	<b>f</b> <sup>n-2</sup> (λ)
Round 4	f <sup>n-4</sup> (λ)	f <sup>n-3</sup> (λ)

By waiting for successive rounds, observer Eve can see the plaintext for the previous round

	Input	Output	
Round 1	f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ) ,	f <sup>n</sup> (λ)	By waiting for successive
Round 2	f <sup>n-2</sup> (λ)	f <sup>n-1</sup> (λ)	rounds, observer Eve can see the plaintext for the
Round 3	f <sup>n-3</sup> (λ) ,	f <sup>n-2</sup> (λ)	previous round  Implies Known Plaintext
Round 4	f <sup>n-4</sup> (λ)	f <sup>n-3</sup> (λ)	Cryptanalysis

How Does Conventional Cryptography Work?

#### **Definition: Cryptosystem**

#### A cryptosystem is a five-tuple consisting of

- Encryption function E
- Decryption function D
- Set of plaintext elements P
- Set of ciphertext elements C
- Set of cryptographic keys K

#### **Definition: Cryptosystem**

#### A cryptosystem is a five-tuple consisting of

- Encryption function E
- Decryption function D
- Set of plaintext elements P
- Set of ciphertext elements C
- Set of cryptographic keys K

$$E(p) = c$$
 { p } = c

$$D(c) = p$$
 { c } = p

$$D(E(p)) {\{p\}} = p$$

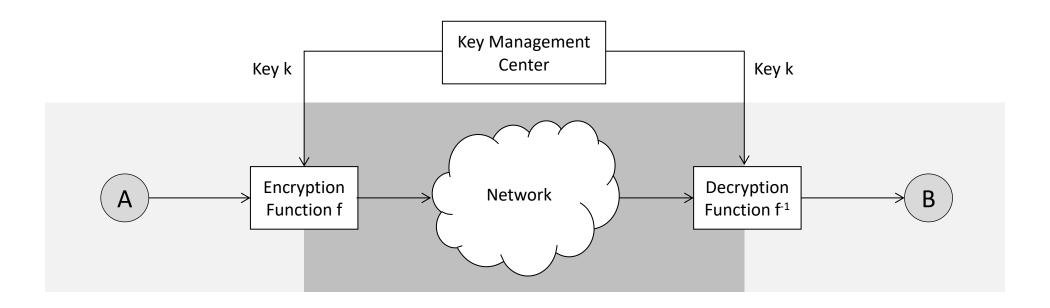
$$E_k(p) = c$$
 { p }<sub>k</sub> = c

$$D_k(c) = p \qquad \{ \{ p \}_k \}_k = p$$

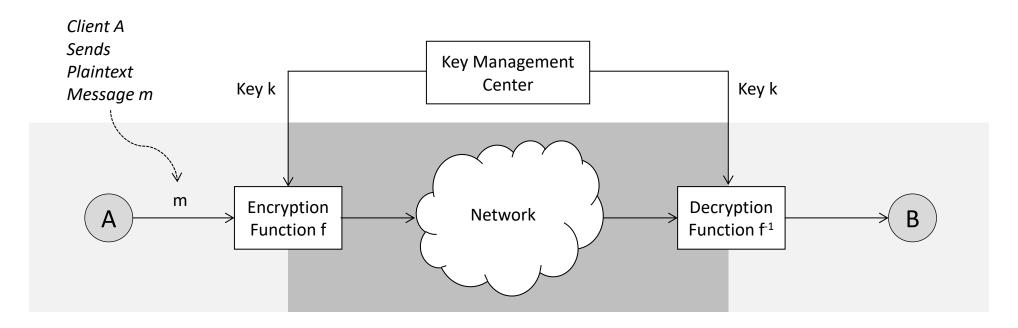
$$Encrypt$$

$$Decrypt$$

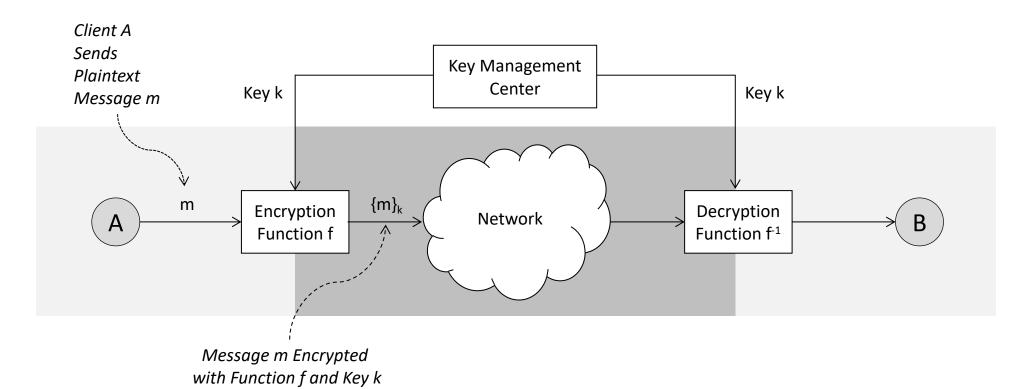
#### **Conventional Encryption Schema**



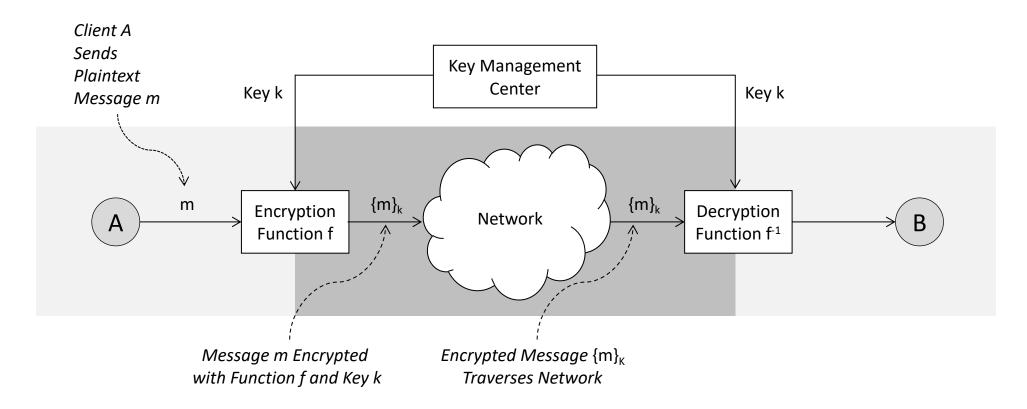
#### **Conventional Encryption Schema**



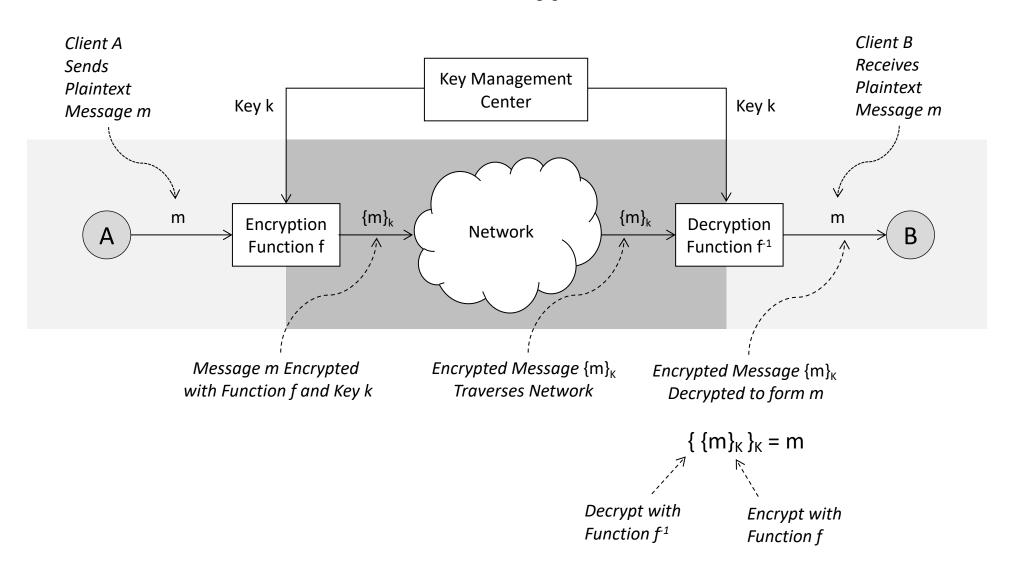
#### **Conventional Encryption Schema**



#### **Conventional Encryption Schema**

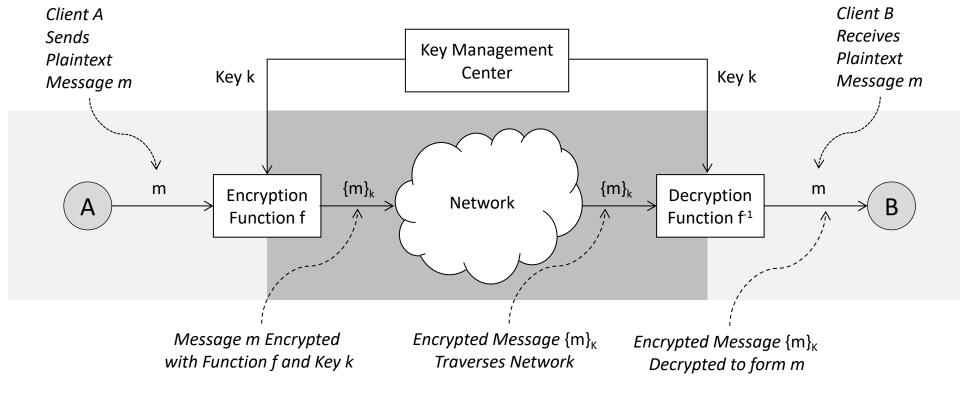


#### **Conventional Encryption Schema**



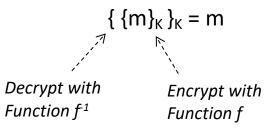
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#### **Conventional Encryption Schema**

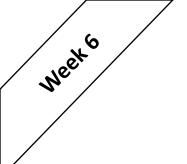


#### Two Important Security Properties:

- 1. Secrecy Between A and B
- 2. Authentication of A by B



What is the Simplest Example Encryption Algorithm?



$$1 XOR 1 = 0$$

$$0 XOR 0 = 0$$

$$1 XOR 0 = 1$$

$$0 XOR 1 = 1$$

#### XOR Function

> 1 XOR 0 = 1 0 XOR 1 = 1

#### XOR Function

Plaintext Input	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1	
		1 XOR 1 = 0
Key	1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0	0  XOR  0 = 0
		1 XOR 0 = 1
		0 XOR 1 = 1

Plaintext Input	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1	1 XOR 1 = 0
Key	1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0	0 XOR 0 = 0
Ciphertext	1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1	1 XOR 0 = 1 0 XOR 1 = 1

Plaintext Input	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1	1 XOR 1 = 0
Key	1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0	0 XOR 0 = 0
Ciphertext	1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1	1 XOR 0 = 1 0 XOR 1 = 1
Kev	1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0	

Plaintext Input	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1	
Key	1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0	1 XOR 1 = 0 0 XOR 0 = 0
Ciphertext	1 1 0 0 1 1 0 1	1 XOR 0 = 1 0 XOR 1 = 1
Key	1 1 1 0 1 1 1 0	
Plaintext Output	0 0 1 0 0 0 1 1	

## What are the Two Most Basic Design Strategies for Encryption Algorithms?

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Substitution Cipher – Replacement of one or more things with one or more things (Symmetric versus Asymmetric)



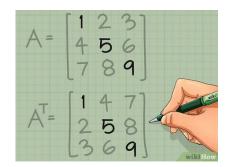
**Conventional Encryption Algorithm – Strategies** 



Substitution Cipher – Replacement of one or more things with one or more things (Symmetric versus Asymmetric)



Transposition Cipher – Use of matrix arithmetic to represent and manipulate text (Linear Algebraic basis)



**Conventional Encryption Algorithm – Strategies** 

## What is the Data Encryption Standard (DES)? (How Did It Influence AES?)

#### United States Patent [19]

Feistel

3,798,359 [11]

[45] Mar. 19, 1974



	[54]	BLOCK C SYSTEM	CIPHER CRYPTOGRAPHIC
	[75]	Inventor:	Horst Feistel, Mount Kisco, N.Y.
	[73]	Assignee:	International Business Machines Corporation, Armonk, N.Y.
	[22]	Filed:	June 30, 1971
	[21]	Appl. No.	: 158,360
	[52] [51] [58]	Int. Cl	
	[56]	UNIT	References Cited TED STATES PATENTS
	3,657,		
3	2,984,		
	3,170,0		.,0,22
	2,995,0		
	2,917,	579 12/195	59 Hagelin 178/22

[57] **ABSTRACT** 

Assistant Examiner-H. A. Birmiel

Primary Examiner—Benjamin A. Borchelt

Attorney, Agent, or Firm-Victor Siber

nary data under the control of a key consisting of a set of binary symbols. The cryptographic system is utilized within a data processing environment to ensure complete privacy of data and information that is stored or processed within a computing system. All authorized subscribers who are permitted access to data within the network are assigned a unique key consisting of a combination of binary symbols. The central processing unit within the computing network contains a complete listing of all distributed authorized subscriber keys. All communications transmitted from terminal input are encrypted into a block cipher by use of the cryptographic system operating under the control of the subscriber key which is inputed to the terminal device. At the receiving station or central processing unit, an identical subscriber key which is obtained from internal tables stored within the computing system is used to decipher all received ciphered communications.

The cryptographic system develops a product cipher which is a combination of linear and nonlinear transformations of the clear message, the transformation being a function of the binary values that appear in the subscriber key. In addition to the transformation, the key controls various register substitutions and modulo-2 additions of partially ciphered data within the cryptographic system.

#### **Data Encryption Standard (DES)**

64-bit block input

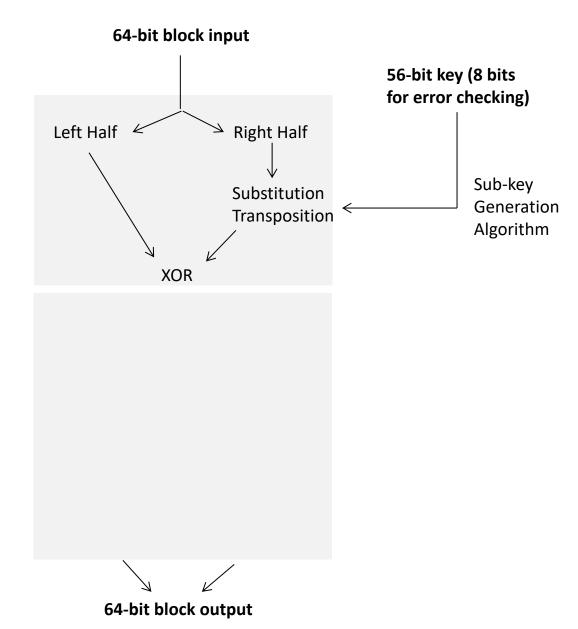
56-bit key (8 bits for error checking)

Original National Bureau of Standards (NBS) in Washington

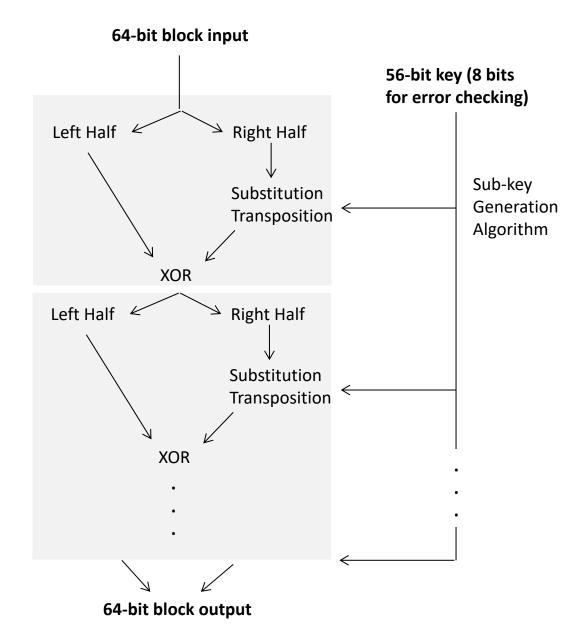




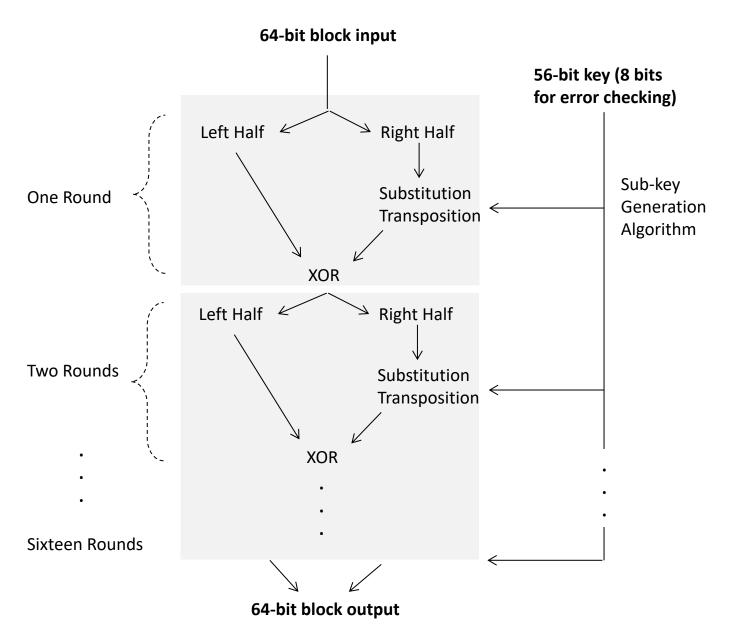
#### **Data Encryption Standard (DES)**



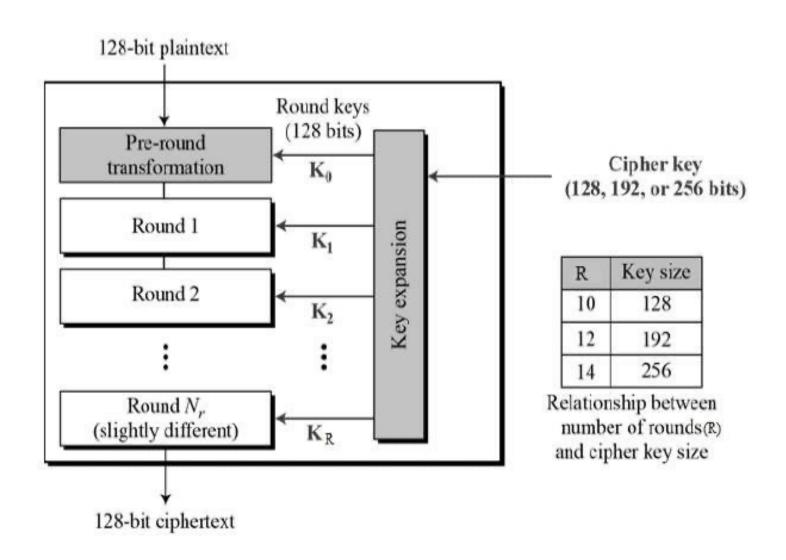
#### **Data Encryption Standard (DES)**



#### **Data Encryption Standard (DES)**



#### **Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)**



What is Triple DES (3DES)?
(How Did It Solve Key Length Issues and 1DES Interoperability?)

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Walt Tuchman – IBM Circa 1981

### **Triple-DES**

{ m } K1 Single-DES 56 Bit Key

$\{ m \}_{K1}$	Single-DES	56 Bit Key
{ { m } <sub>K1</sub> } <sub>K2</sub>	Double-DES	112 Bit Key

Meek

{ m } <sub>K1</sub>	Single-DES	56 Bit Key
$\{\{m\}_{K1}\}_{K2}$	Double-DES	112 Bit Key
$\{\{\{m\}_{K1}\}_{K2}\}_{K3}$	Triple-DES	168 Bit Key

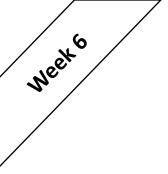
neeko

{ m } <sub>K1</sub>	Single-DES	56 Bit Key
$\{\{m\}_{K1}\}_{K2}$	Double-DES	112 Bit Key
$\{\{\{m\}_{K1}\}_{K2}\}_{K3}$	Triple-DES	168 Bit Key
Single-DES Mode: K1 =	= K2 ≠ K3 { {	$ \left\{ \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} E & D & E \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \left\{ \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} M \right\}_{K1} \right\}_{K3} \\ m & \end{array} \right\}_{K3} $

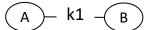
Meek 6

{ m } <sub>K1</sub> Sin	ngle-DES 56 Bit Key
{ { m } <sub>K1</sub> } <sub>K2</sub> Do	ouble-DES 112 Bit Key
{ { { m } <sub>K1</sub> } <sub>K2</sub> } <sub>K3</sub> Tri	ple-DES 168 Bit Key
Single-DES Mode: K1 = K2	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Triple-DES Mode: (K1 = K3	

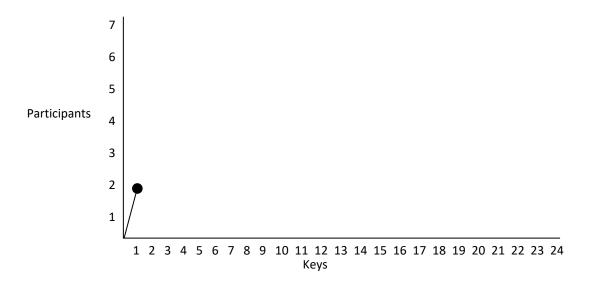
What is the Scaling Issue for Conventional Cryptography?

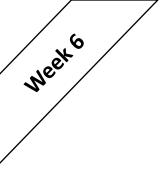


### **Conventional Encryption Scaling Issue**

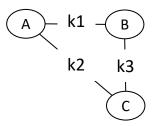


2 participants – 1 shared key



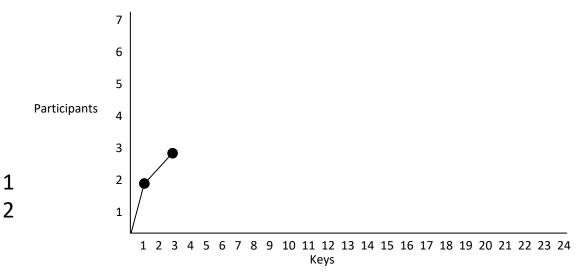


#### **Conventional Encryption Scaling Issue**

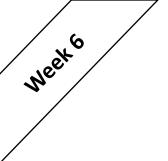


2 participants – 1 shared key

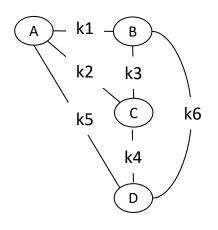
3 participants – 3 shared keys



Added participant 1 Added new keys 2



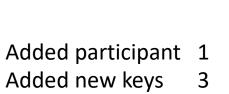
#### **Conventional Encryption Scaling Issue**

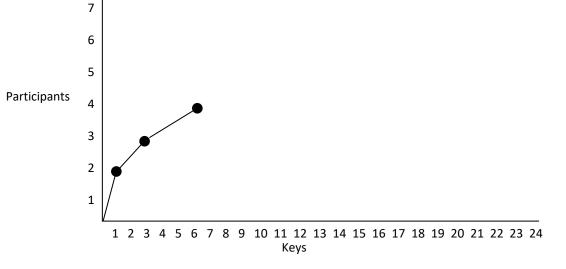


2 participants – 1 shared key

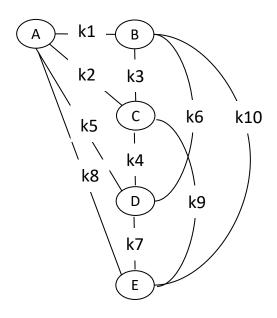
3 participants – 3 shared keys

4 participants – 6 shared keys





#### **Conventional Encryption Scaling Issue**



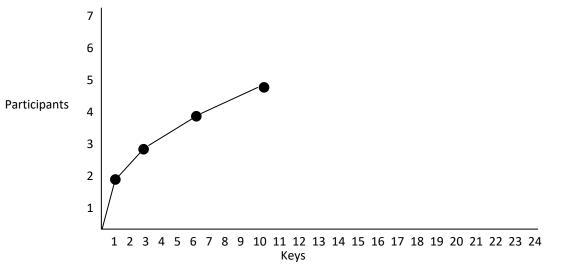
2 participants – 1 shared key

3 participants – 3 shared keys

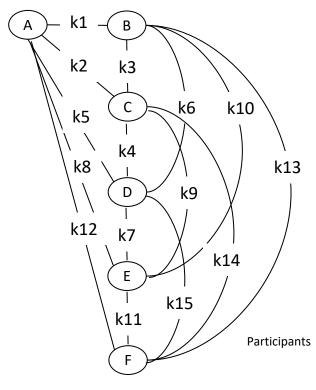
4 participants – 6 shared keys

5 participants – 10 shared keys

Added participant 1 Added new keys 4



#### **Conventional Encryption Scaling Issue**



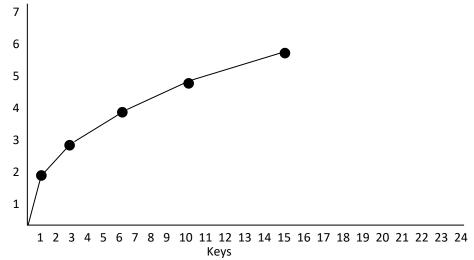
Added participant 1 Added new keys 5 2 participants – 1 shared key

3 participants – 3 shared keys

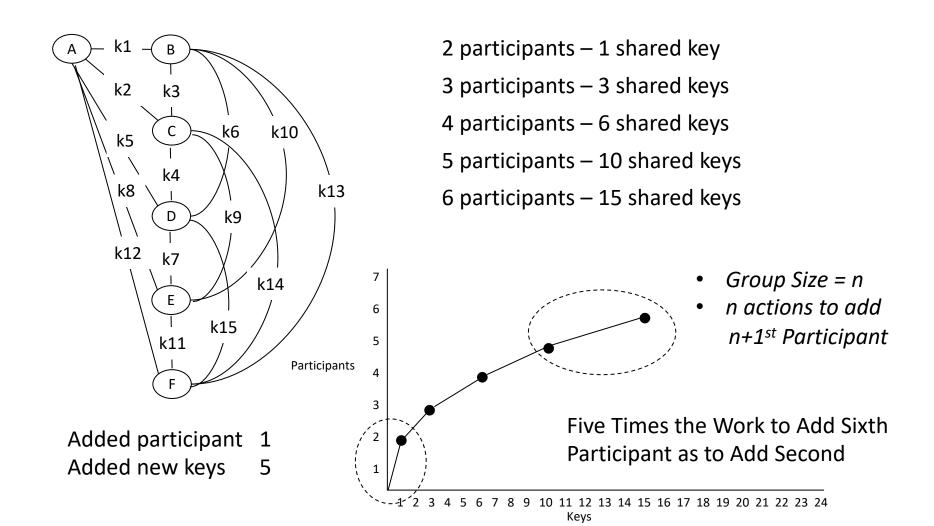
4 participants – 6 shared keys

5 participants – 10 shared keys

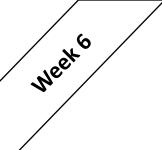
6 participants – 15 shared keys



#### **Conventional Encryption Scaling Issue**



## What are the Key Security Properties of Conventional Cryptography?



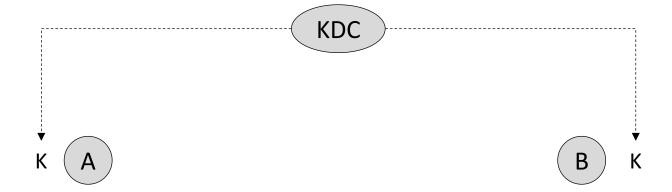
#### **Conventional Cryptography**

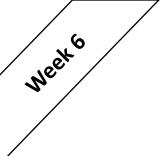


Α

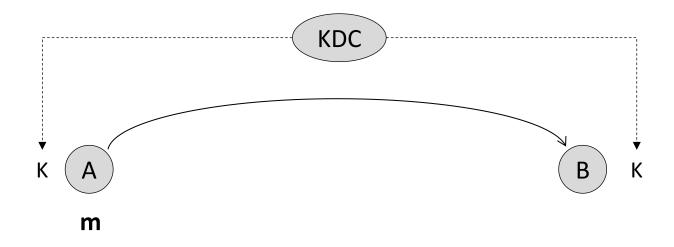
В

### **Conventional Cryptography**

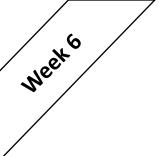




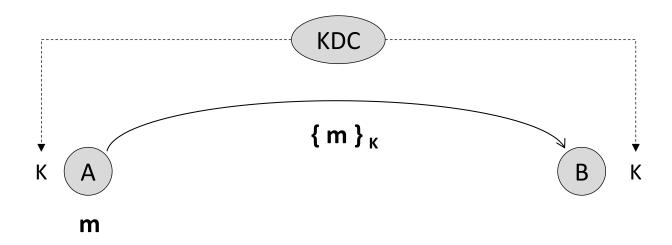
#### **Conventional Cryptography**



Alice creates message m . . .

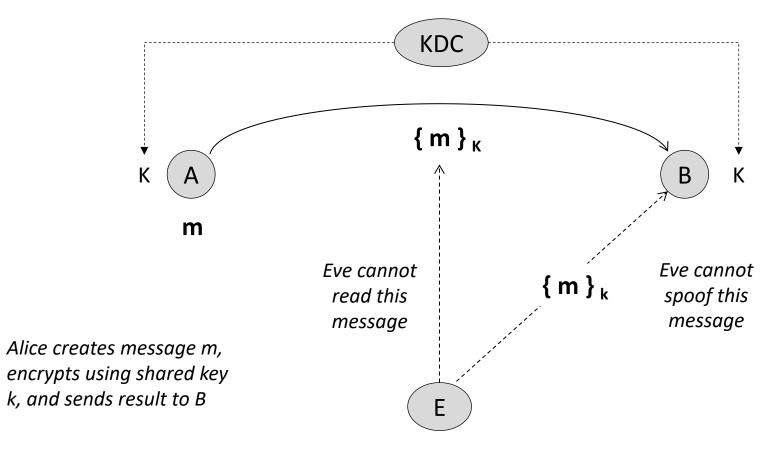


#### **Conventional Cryptography**



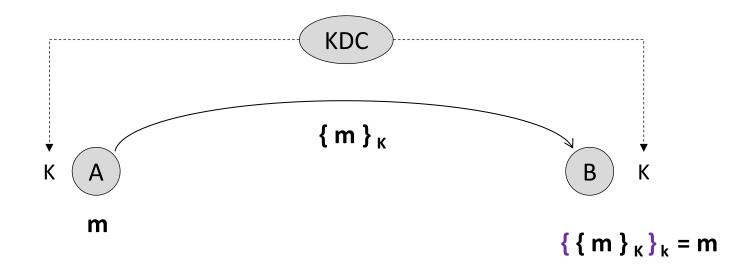
Alice creates message m, encrypts using shared key k, and sends result to B

#### **Conventional Cryptography**



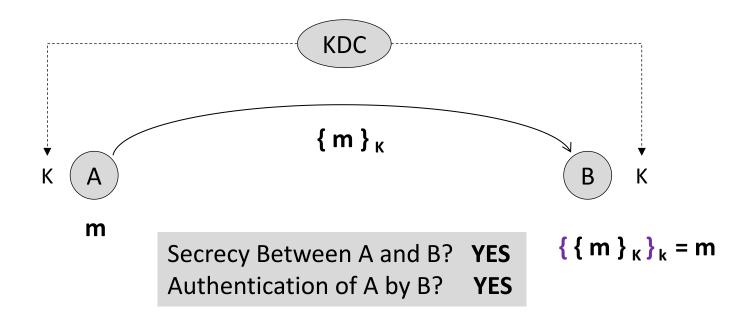
Does not have K

#### **Conventional Cryptography**

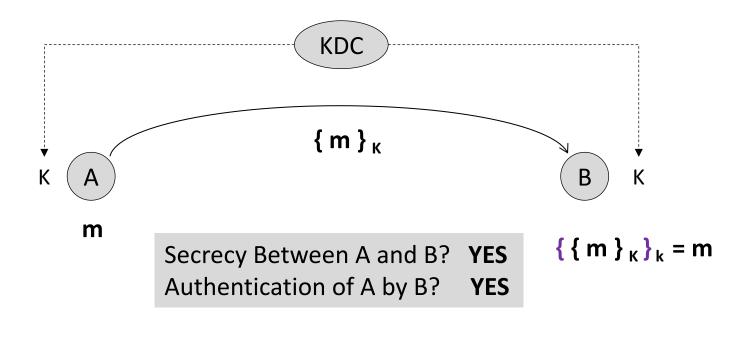


Bob receives encrypted message, and decrypts using shared key k, and obtains message m

#### **Conventional Cryptography**



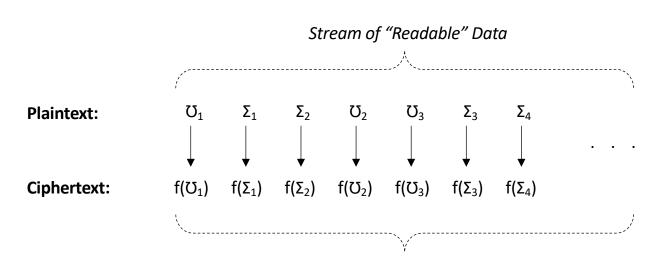
#### **Conventional Cryptography**



Does this approach scale? NO

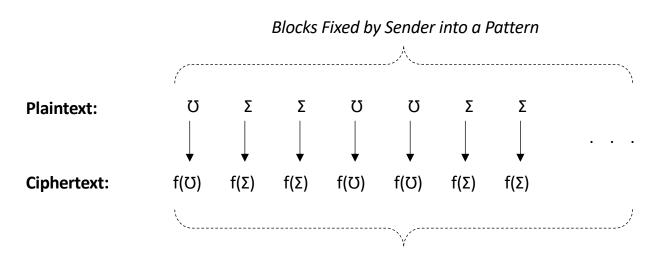
How Does Block Chaining Work?

#### **Conventional Block Cryptography**



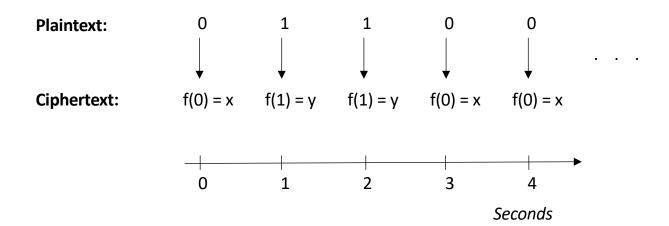
Presumably No Patterns in Stream of "Unreadable" Block Encrypted Data

#### **Conventional Block Cryptography – Covert Channel**



Pattern Can Emerge for External Observer in Encrypted Data

#### **Conventional Block Cryptography – 1 bps Channel**



#### Block Chain Mode Cryptography - Circa 1976 at IBM

**Patents** 

Find prior art

Discuss this patent

### Message verification and transmission error detection by block chaining

US 4074066 A

#### **ABSTRACT**

A message transmission system for the secure transmission of multi-block data messages from a sending station to a receiving station.

The sending station contains cryptographic apparatus operative in successive cycles of operation during each of which an input block of clear data bits is ciphered under control of an input set of cipher key bits to generate an output block of ciphered data bits for transmission to the receiving station. Included in the cryptographic apparatus of the sending station is means providing one of the inputs for each succeeding ciphering cycle of operation as a function of each preceding ciphering cycle of operation. As a result, each succeeding

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Application number US 05/680,404

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Filing date Apr 26, 1976

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Also published as CA1100588A, CA1100588A1, DE2715631A1,

DE2715631C2

Inventors William F. Ehrsam, Carl H. W. Meyer, John L.

Smith, Walter L. Tuchman

Original Assignee International Business Machines Corporation

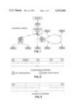
Export Citation BiBTeX, EndNote, RefMan

Patent Citations (5), Referenced by (52), Classifications (10)

External Links: USPTO, USPTO Assignment, Espacenet

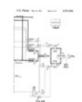
output block of ciphered data bits is effectively chained to all preceding cycles of operation of the cryptographic apparatus of the sending station and is a function of the corresponding input block of clear data bits, all preceding input blocks of clear data bits and the initial input set of cipher key bits.

#### **IMAGES** (5)











Neeko

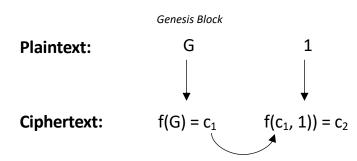
### **Block Chain Mode Cryptography**

Genesis Block

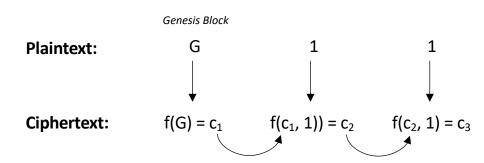
Plaintext:

**Ciphertext:**  $f(G) = c_1$ 

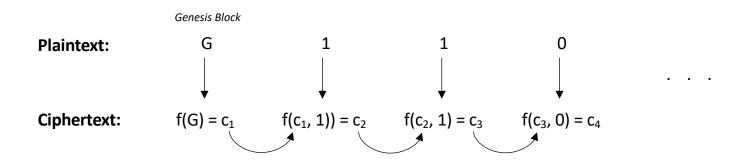
#### **Block Chain Mode Cryptography**

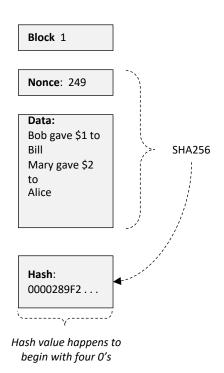


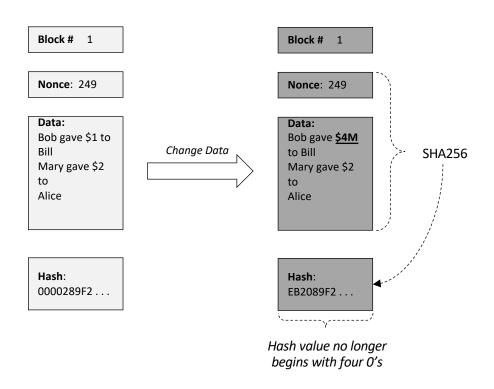
#### **Block Chain Mode Cryptography**

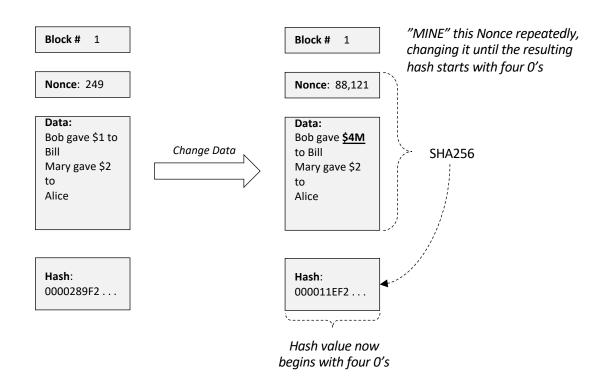


#### **Block Chain Mode Cryptography**









#### **Modern Block Chain Usage**

Block # 1

**Nonce**: 249

Data:

Bob gave \$1 to Bill

Mary gave \$2 to

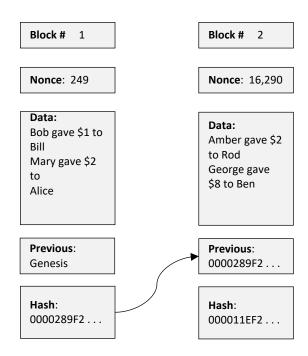
Alice

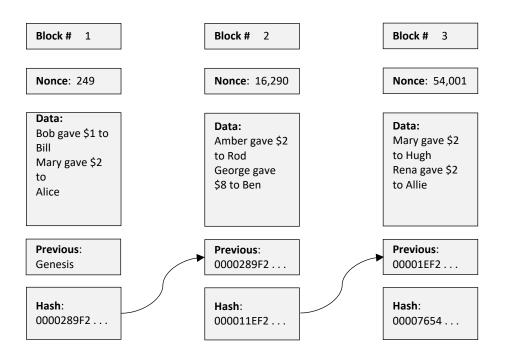
Previous:

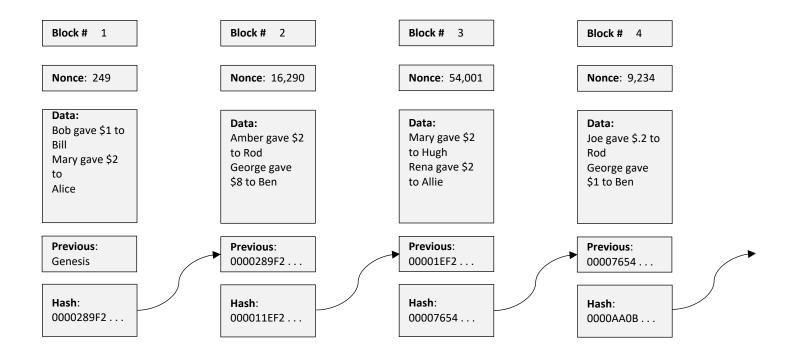
Genesis

Hash:

0000289F2...

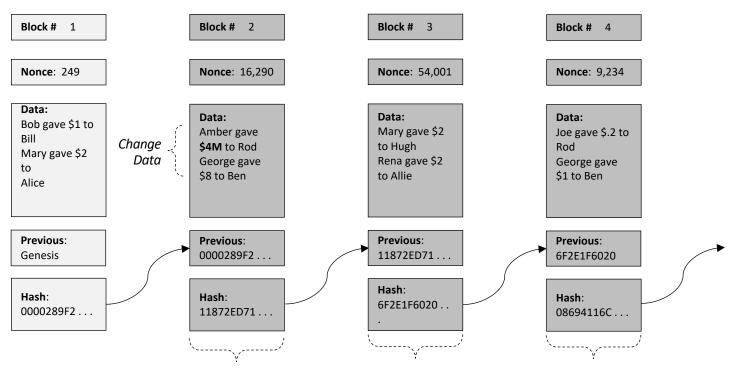






# Meek6

#### **Modern Block Chain Usage**



Messes Up Hashes for all Subsequent Blocks (Lose Leading 4 Zero Property)

