

**NPTEL ONLINE CERTIFICATION COURSES**

**Course Name: Ethical Hacking**

**Faculty Name: Prof. Indranil Sen Gupta**




**Department : Computer Science and Engineering**

**Topic**

**Lecture 26: Basic Concepts of Cryptography**

**CONCEPTS COVERED**

- ☐ Security attacks
- ☐ Security services
- ☐ Cryptographic primitives



## Security Attacks

- Any action that compromises the security of information.
- Four types of attack:
  - Interruption
  - Interception
  - Modification
  - Fabrication
- Basic model:

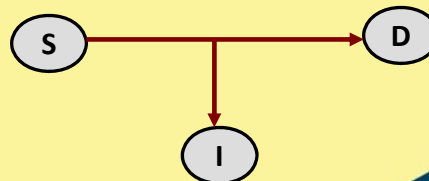


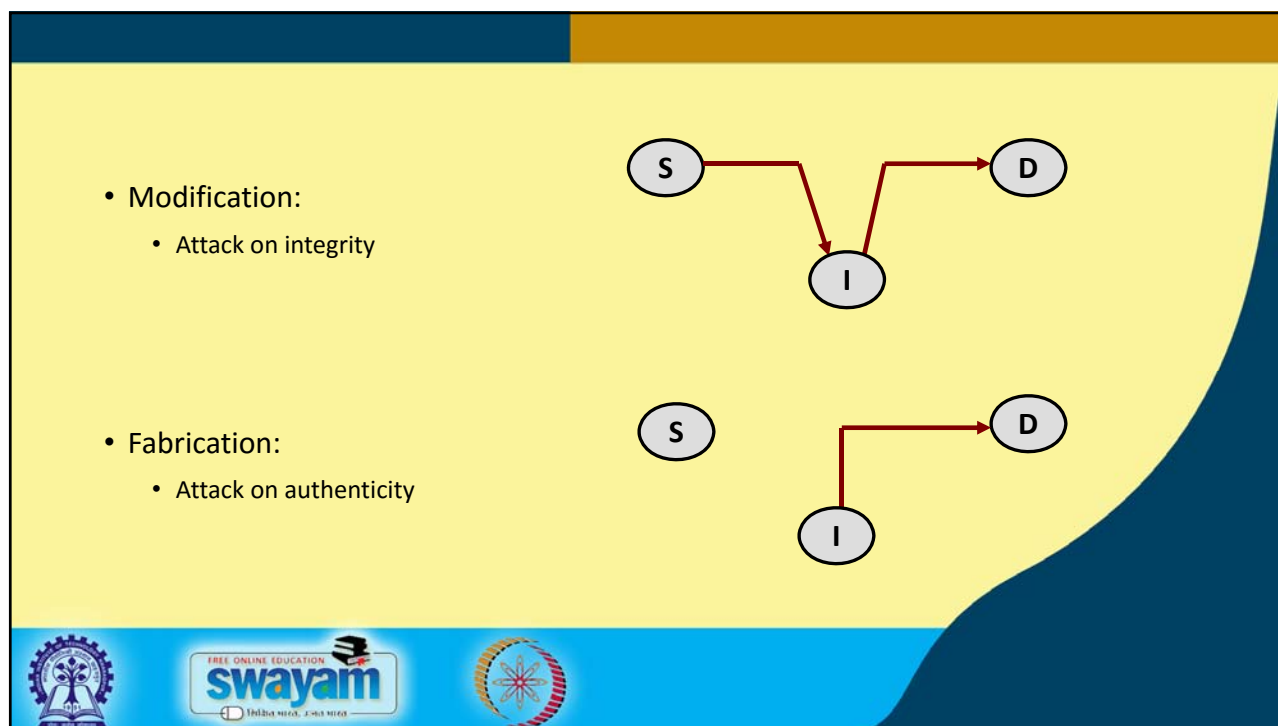
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- Interruption:
  - Attack on availability



- Interception:
  - Attack on confidentiality





## Passive and Active Attacks

- **Passive attacks**
  - Obtain information that is being transmitted (eavesdropping).
  - Two types:
    - a) Release of message contents.
    - b) Traffic analysis.
  - Very difficult to detect.

The diagram consists of two parts. The top part shows a sequence of three nodes: S, I, and D. A red arrow points from S to I, and another red arrow points from I to D. The bottom part shows a similar sequence: S, I, and D. A red arrow points from S to I, and another red arrow points from I to D. The nodes are represented as circles with their respective letters inside.

- **Active attacks**

- Involve some modification of the data stream or the creation of a false stream.
- Four categories:
  - a) **Masquerade**:- One entity pretends to be a different entity.
  - b) **Replay**:- Passive capture of a transaction and subsequent replay.
  - c) **Modification**:- Some portion of a message is altered on its way.
  - d) **Denial of service**:- Prevents access to resources.



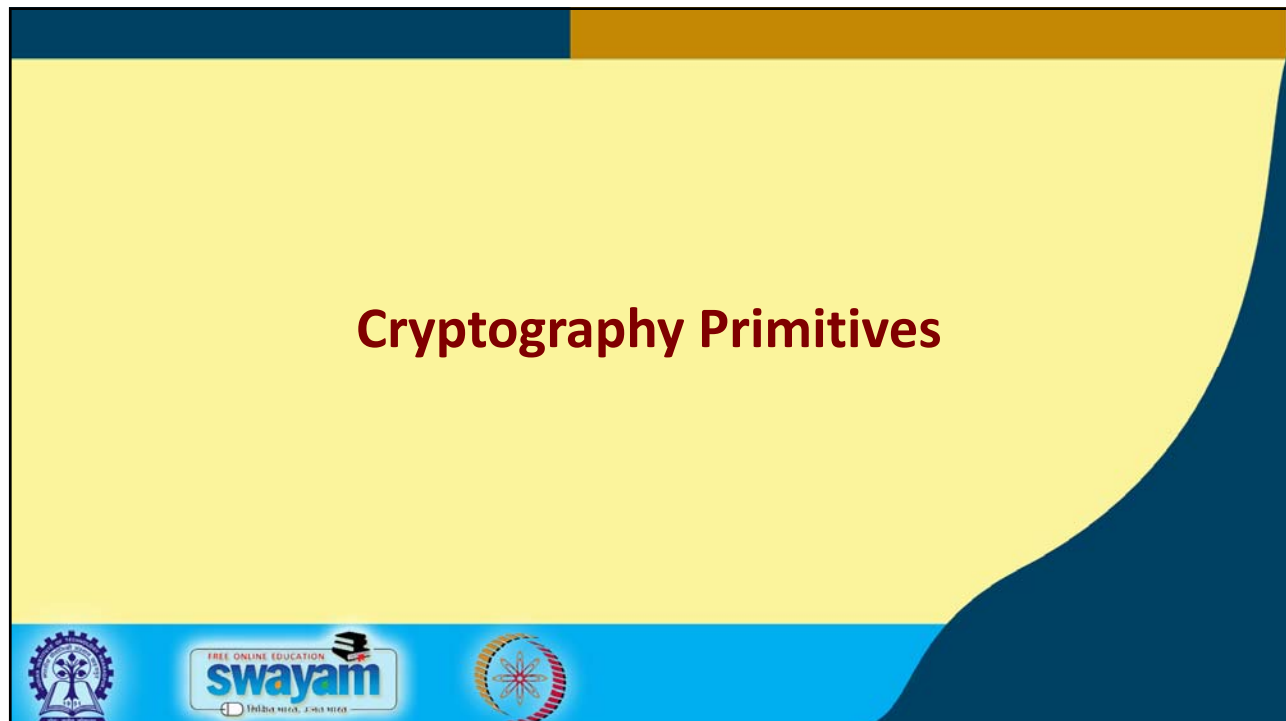
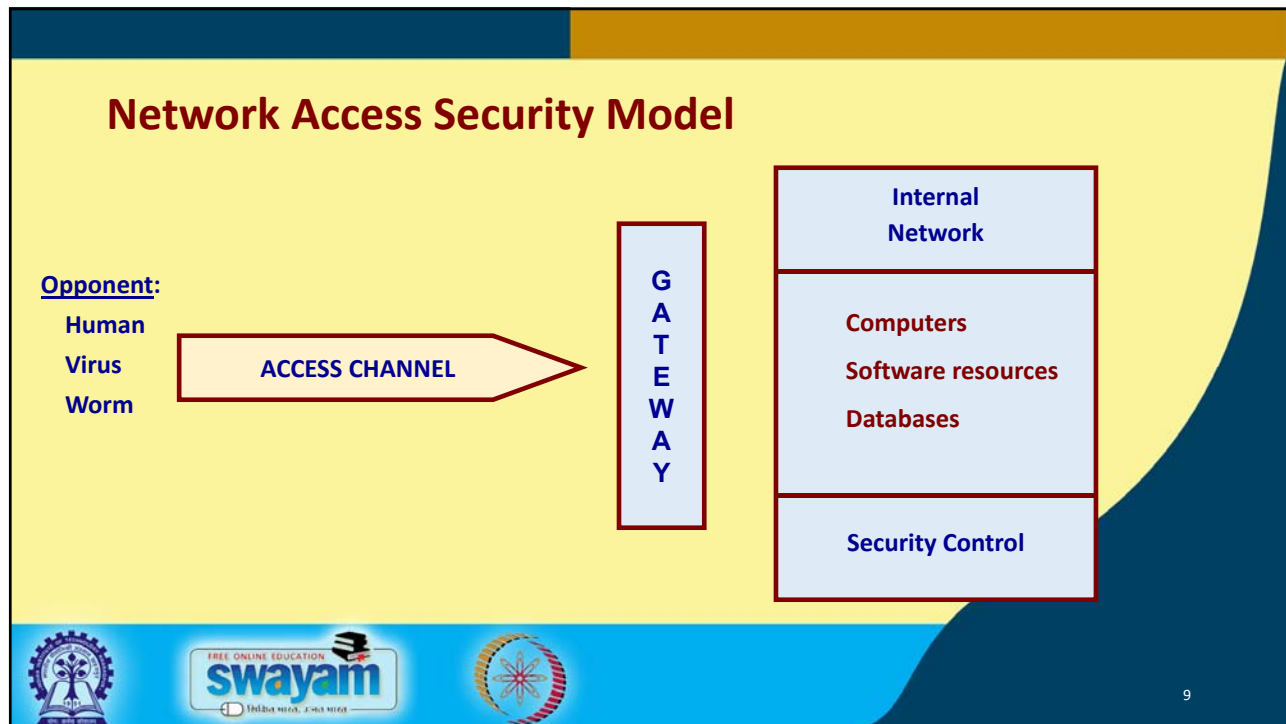
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## Security Services

- Confidentiality (privacy)
- Authentication (who created or sent the data)
- Integrity (has not been altered)
- Non-repudiation (parties cannot later deny)
- Access control (prevent misuse of resources)
- Availability (permanence, non-erasure)
  - Denial of Service Attacks
  - Virus that deletes files

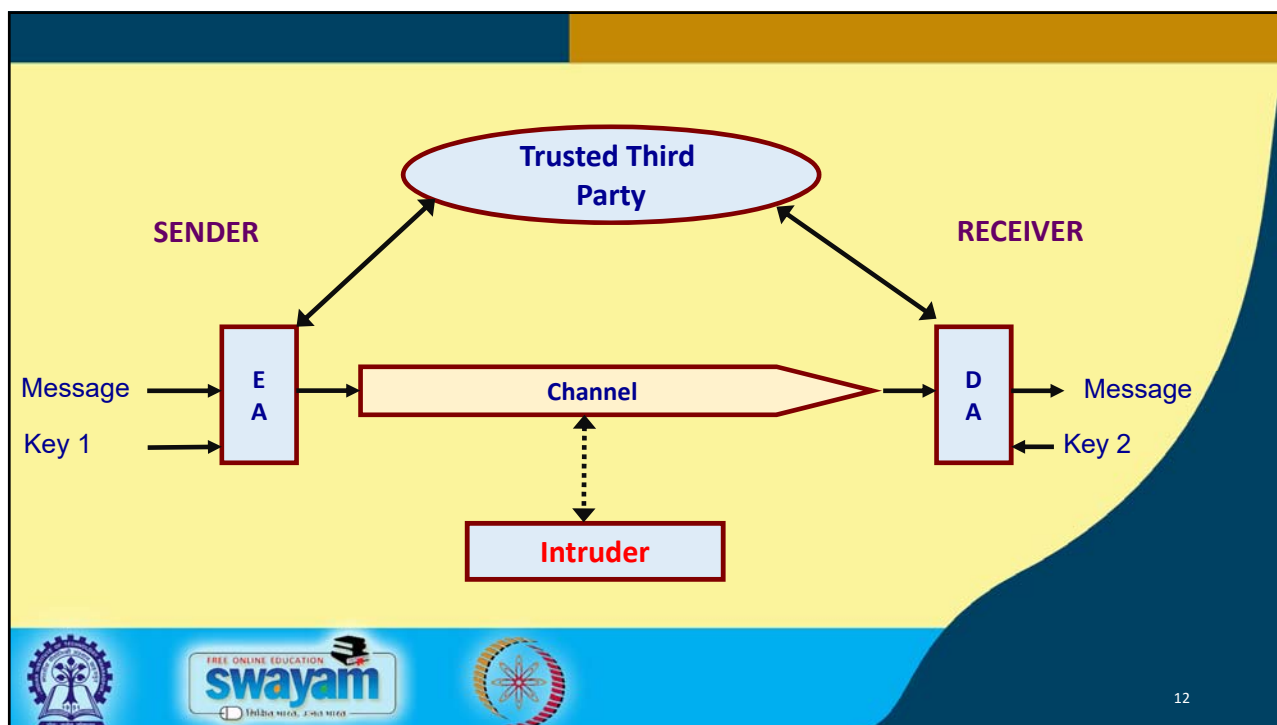


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## Encryption

- Most important concept behind network security is *encryption*.
- Two forms of encryption:
  1. Private (or Symmetric)
    - Single key shared by sender and receiver.
  2. Public-key (or Asymmetric)
    - Separate keys for sender and receiver.



## Authentication

- Techniques to uniquely identify the sender of a message.
- Various approaches:
  - Encryption techniques
  - Cryptographic hash functions
  - Digital signature → a combination of various cryptographic primitives.



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# Thank you!

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**Lecture 27: Private-Key Cryptography (Part I)**

**CONCEPTS COVERED**

- ❑ Private/symmetric key cryptography
- ❑ Classical encryption techniques





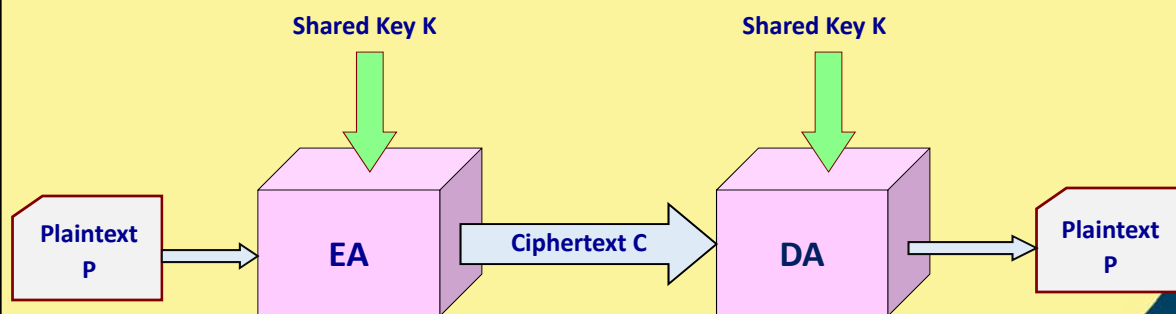
## Introduction

- Private or Symmetric Key Cryptography
  - A common secret value  $K$  (called **key**) is shared between sender and receiver.
  - Sender encrypts a message  $P$  (called **plaintext**) using  $K$  to generate a **ciphertext**  $C$ .
    - ❖  $C = EA(P, K)$
  - Receiver decrypts the ciphertext  $C$  using  $K$  to get back the plaintext  $P$ .
    - ❖  $P = DA(C, K)$



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## Illustration



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## Point to Note

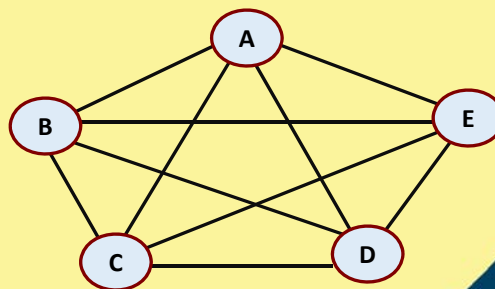
- Security of the scheme
  - Should depend only on the secrecy of the key.
  - Should not depend on the secrecy of the algorithm.
- Assumptions that we make:
  - Algorithms for encryption/decryption are known to the public.
  - Keys used for encryption/decryption are kept secret.



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## Some Points to Observe

- *Key distribution* problem of secret key systems:
  - Establish key before communication.
  - Need  $n(n-1)/2$  keys with  $n$  different parties.
- Overall, very large number of keys are required.
  - Difficult to maintain secrecy.



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## Classical Private-Key Encryption Techniques

- Broadly falls under two categories:

- Substitution ciphers**

- Each letter or group of letters of the plaintext are replaced by some other letter or group of letters, to obtain the ciphertext.

- Transposition ciphers**

- Letters of the plaintext are permuted in some form.



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## A Simple Example

Caesar Cipher (a substitution cipher):

- Earliest known substitution cipher.
- Replace each letter of the alphabet with the letter **three places after** that alphabet.
- Alphabets are assumed to be wrapped around ( Z is followed by A, etc.).

P: HAPPY NEW YEAR

C: KDSSB QHZ BHDU



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- We can generalize the idea by replacing each letter by the  $k^{\text{th}}$  following letter.
  - “k” becomes the secret key.
- If we assign a number to each letter (A=1, B=2, etc), then

$$C = E(P) = (P + k - 1) \% 26 + 1$$

$$P = D(C) = (C - k + 25) \% 26 + 1$$

- **Drawback:**
  - Brute force attack is easy
  - Number of possibilities are rather small (i.e. 25)



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### Mono-alphabetic Cipher:

- Allow any arbitrary substitution.
- There can be  $26!$  or  $4 \times 10^{26}$  possible keys.
- A typical key may be: (Z A Q W S X C D E R F V B G T Y H N M J U I K L O P)
  - “A” replaced by “Z”, “B” replaced by “A”, “C” replaced by “Q”, and so on.
- **Drawbacks:**
  - We can make guesses by observing the relative frequency of letters, digrams, and trigrams in the text.
  - Easy to break in general.



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## Transposition Ciphers

- Many techniques have been proposed under this category.
- A simple scheme:
  - Write out the plaintext in a rectangle, row by row, and read the message column by column, by permuting the order of the columns.
  - Order of the column becomes the **key**.



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P: welcome to the npTEL course on ethical hacking

Key:	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
w	e	l	c	o	m	e	
-	t	o	-	t	h	e	
-	n	p	t	e	l	-	
c	o	u	r	s	e	-	
o	n	-	e	t	h	i	
c	a	l	-	h	a	c	
k	i	n	g	-	-	-	

C: lopu-ln c-tre-g etnonai w--cock otesth- mhleha-  
ee--ic-



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## Transposition Cipher ... Drawbacks

- The ciphertext has the same letter frequency as the original plaintext.
- Guessing the number of columns and some probable words in the plaintext holds the key.



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## Practical Ciphers

- They are much more complicated.
  - Require computers to perform encryption and decryption.
  - Almost impossible to carry out by hand.
  - Can encrypt any kind of data, not necessarily only text.



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## Stream Ciphers vs. Block Ciphers

- A stream cipher encrypts the plaintext bit by bit (in streams).
- A block cipher encrypts n-bit blocks at a time.
  - For example, a 256-bit cipher encrypts 256-bit blocks at a time.
  - Shorter blocks have to be suitably padded.




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**Thank  
you!**

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**Topic**

**Lecture 28: Private-Key Cryptography (Part II)**

**CONCEPTS COVERED**

- ☐ Practical private-key algorithms
- ☐ DES and Triple-DES
- ☐ Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)





## Practical Private-Key Algorithms

- a) Data Encryption Standard (DES)
  - Block size is 64 bits.
  - Key is 56 bits.
- b) IDEA
  - Block size is 64 bits.
  - Key size is 128 bits.
- c) Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
  - Also known as Rijndael cryptosystem.
  - Block size is 128 bits.
  - Key size can be 128, 192, or 256 bits.



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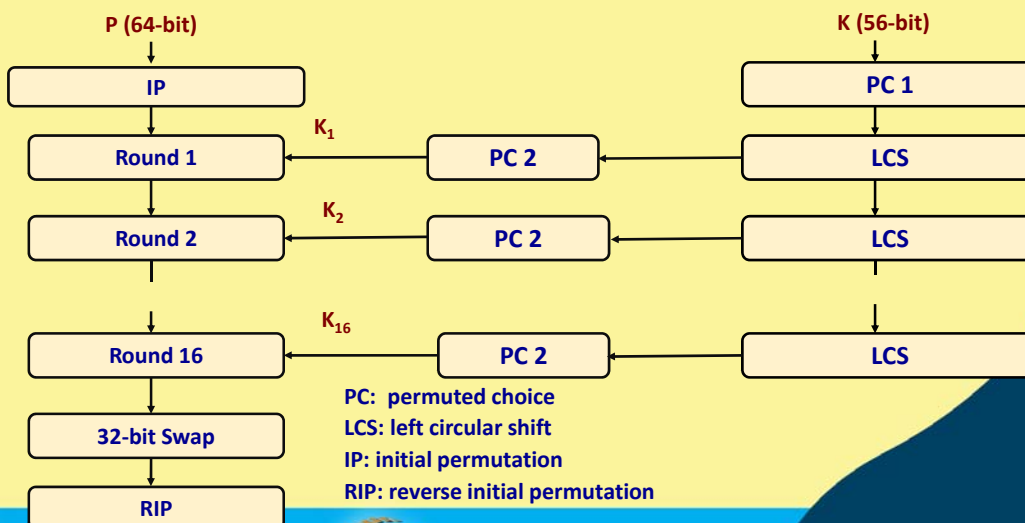
## Data Encryption Standard (DES)

- The most widely used encryption scheme at one time.
  - Also known as the Data Encryption Algorithm (DEA).
  - It is a block cipher.
- Some of the features:
  - The plaintext is 64-bits in length.
  - The key is 56-bits in length.
  - Longer plaintexts are processed in 64-bit blocks.



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## General Schematic of DES



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## DES

- The overall processing at each iteration:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} L_i &= R_{i-1} \\ R_i &= L_{i-1} \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_i) \end{aligned} \right\} \text{Fiestel Structure}$$

- Concerns about:
  - The algorithm and the key length (56-bits).
  - Longer key lengths are essential for critical applications.

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## Triple DES

- Use three keys and three executions of the DES algorithm (encrypt-decrypt - encrypt).

$$C = E_{K_3} [D_{K_2} [E_{K_1} [P]]]$$

C = ciphertext

P = Plaintext

$E_K[X]$  = encryption of X using key K

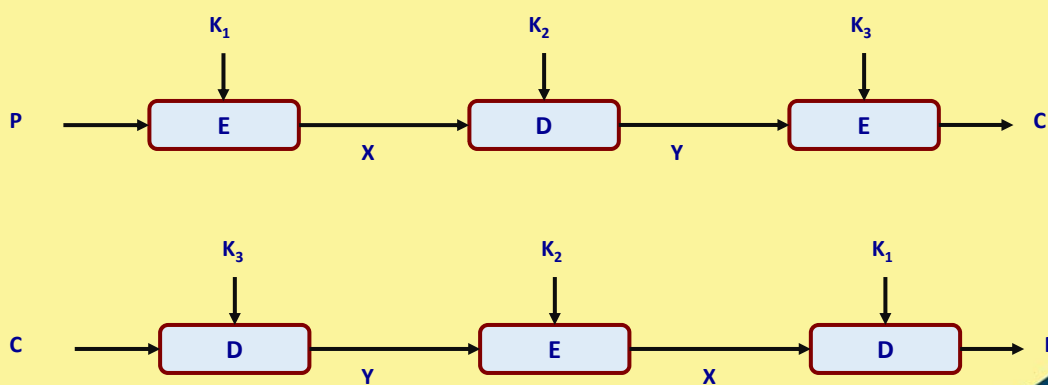
$D_K[Y]$  = decryption of Y using key K

- Effective key length is 168 bits.



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## Triple DES: Illustration



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## Need for a new standard

- DES had been in use for a long time.
  - A replacement for DES was needed.
  - Theoretical attacks can break it.
- Can use Triple-DES – but slow with small blocks.
- US NIST issued call for ciphers in 1997.
  - 15 candidates accepted in June 1998.
  - 5 were short-listed in August 1999.
- Rijndael was selected as the **Advanced Encryption Standard** in October 2000.



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## The AES Cryptosystem

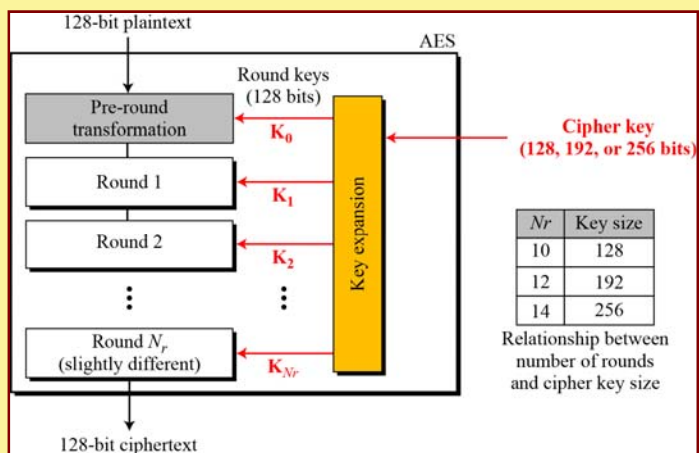
- In the Rijndael proposal, the block length and the key length can be independently specified to be 128, 192, or 256 bits.
- The AES standard limits the block length to 128 bits.
  - Key length can be 128, 192, or 256 bits.
- Easy to implement, both in hardware and software.
- Resistant against all known attacks.



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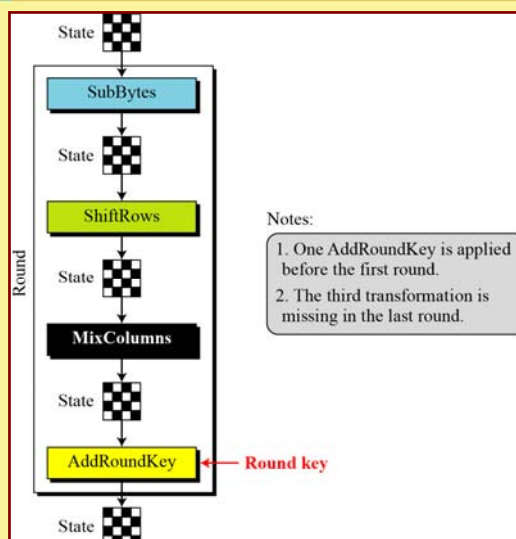
## AES Rounds

- AES has 10, 12 or 14 rounds.
  - All rounds are identical, except the first and last one.
- Various steps in each round:
  - SubBytes** – Non-linear substitution
  - ShiftRows** – Transposition
  - MixColumn** – Mixing operations of each column
  - AddRoundKey** – Round key added to state.

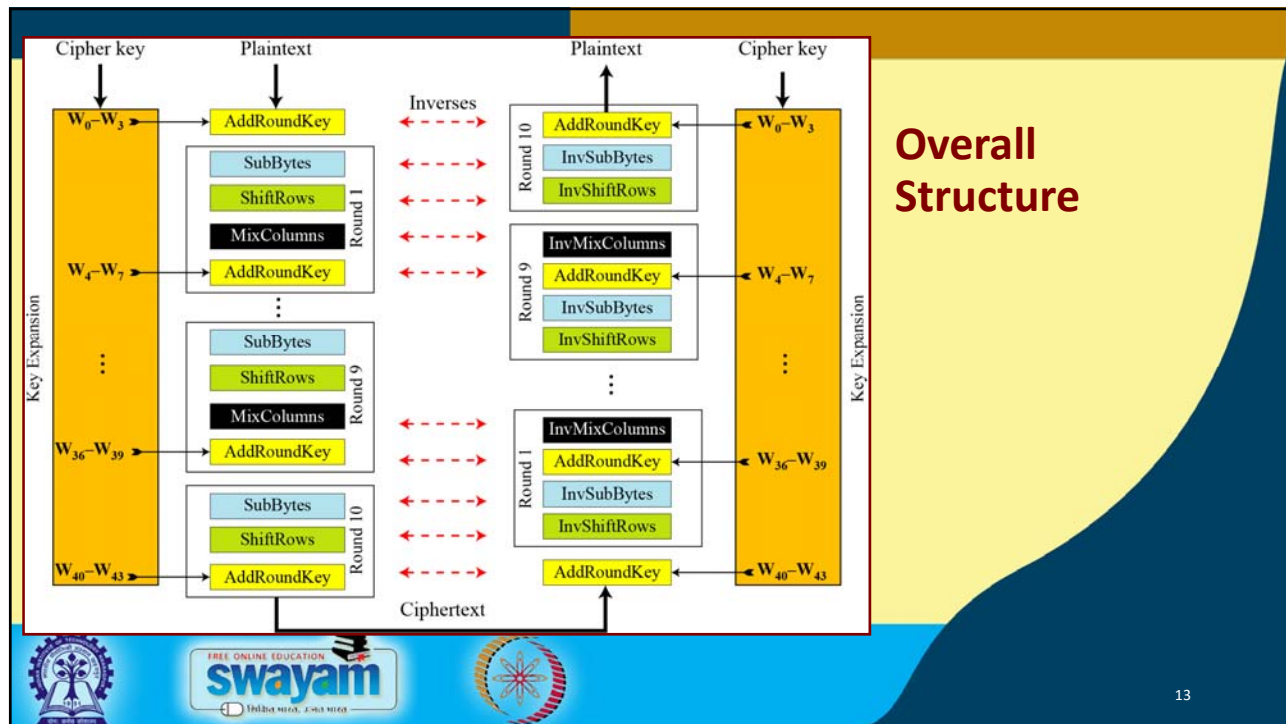






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## Details of Each Round



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**Lecture 29: Public-Key Cryptography (Part I)**

**CONCEPTS COVERED**

- ☐ Public-key cryptography
- ☐ Encryption and authentication
- ☐ RSA algorithm





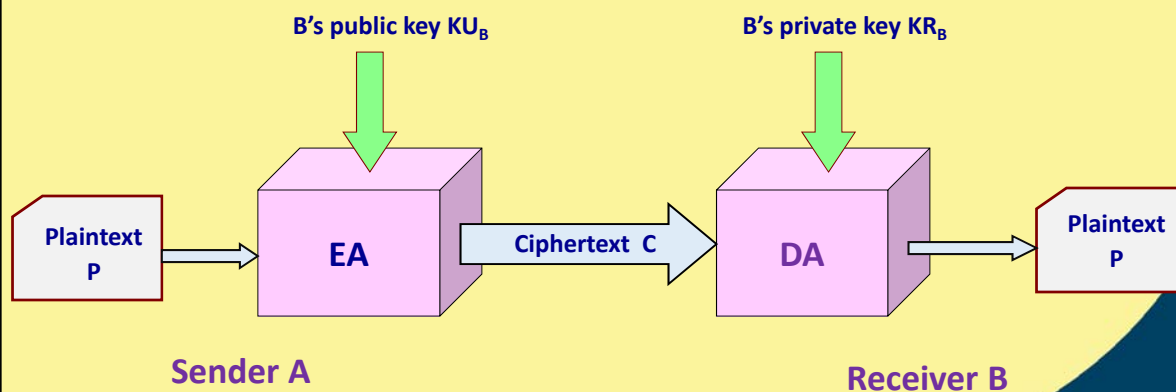
## Public Key Cryptography

- Uses two keys for every simplex logical communication link.
  - a) Public key
  - b) Private key
- The use of two keys has profound consequences in the areas of
  - Confidentiality
  - Key distribution
  - Authentication



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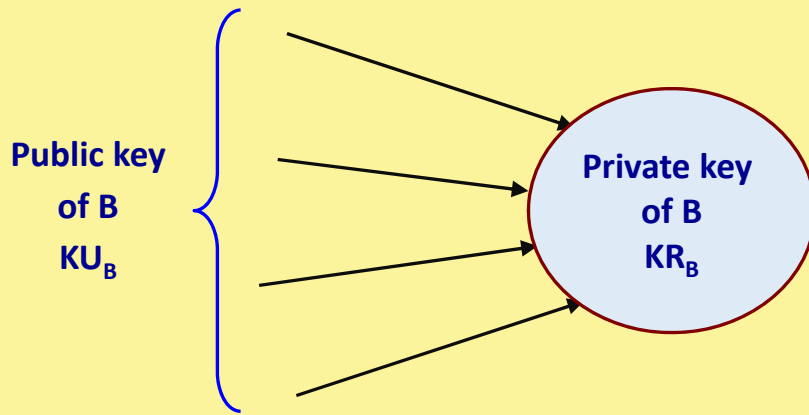
## Illustration :: Encryption



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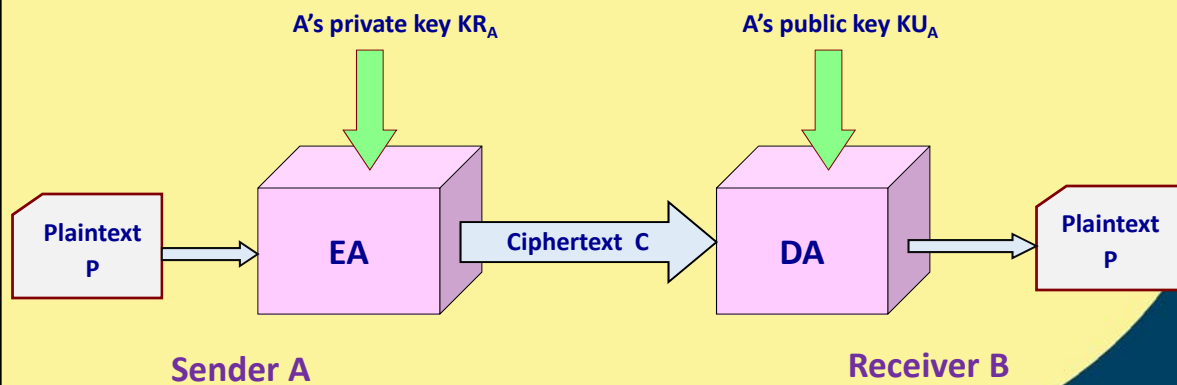


## Key Usage for Encryption



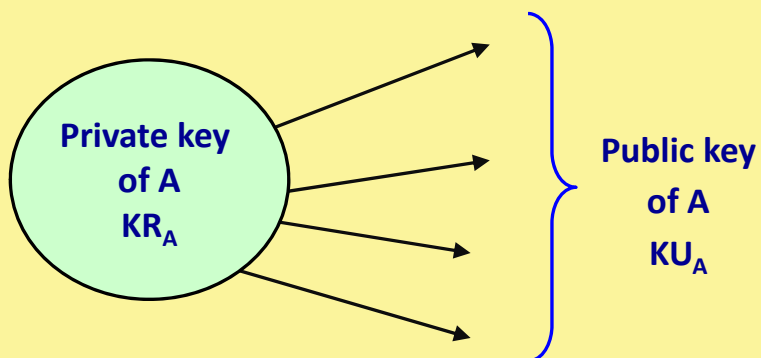
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## Illustration :: Authentication



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## Key Usage for Authentication



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## Applications

- Three categories:
  - a) **Encryption/decryption:**
    - The sender encrypts a message with the recipient's public key.
  - b) **Digital signature / authentication:**
    - The sender signs a message with its private key.
  - c) **Key exchange:**
    - Two sides cooperate to exchange a session key.



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## Requirements

- Computationally easy for a party B to generate a key pair
  - a) Public key  $KU_B$
  - b) Private key  $KR_B$
- Easy for sender to generate ciphertext:
 
$$C = E(M, KU_B)$$
- Easy for the receiver to decrypt ciphertext using private key:
 
$$M = D(C, KR_B) = D(E(M, KU_B), KR_B)$$



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- Computationally infeasible to determine  $KR_B$  knowing  $KU_B$ .
- Computationally infeasible to recover message  $M$ , knowing  $KU_B$  and ciphertext  $C$ .
- Either of the two keys can be used for encryption, with the other used for decryption:

$$M = D(E(M, KU_B), KR_B) = D(E(M, KR_B), KU_B)$$



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## The RSA Public Key Algorithm

- RSA Algorithm
  - Developed by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Len Adleman at MIT, in 1977.
  - A block cipher.
  - The most widely implemented.



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## RSA : Key Generation

- |                               |   |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 1. Select $p, q$              | $p$ and $q$ both prime                  |
| 2. Calculate $n = p \times q$ |   |
| 3. Calculate                  | $\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$                  |
| 4. Select integer $e$         | $\gcd(\Phi(n), e) = 1; 1 < e < \Phi(n)$ |
| 5. Calculate $d$              | $d = e^{-1} \bmod \Phi(n)$              |
| 6. Public Key                 | $KU = \{e, n\}$                         |
| 7. Private key                | $KR = \{d, n\}$                         |

$\phi(n)$  is the number of positive numbers less than  $n$  and relatively prime to  $n$  (called **Euler totient**).



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## RSA : Encryption

- Plaintext:  $M < n$
- Ciphertext:  $C = M^e \pmod{n}$

## RSA : Decryption

- Ciphertext:  $C$
- Plaintext:  $M = C^d \pmod{n}$



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## Example

- Select two prime numbers,  $p=7$  and  $q=17$ .
- Calculate  $n = pq = 7 \times 17 = 119$ .
- Calculate  $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 96$ .
- Select  $e$  such that  $e$  is relatively prime to  $\phi(n)=96$ , and less than  $\phi(n)$ .
  - In this case,  $e=5$ .
- Determine  $d$  such that  $de = 1 \pmod{96}$  and  $d < 96$ .
  - $d=77$ , because  $77 \times 5 = 385 = 4 \times 96 + 1$ .

**Public key**  $KU = \{5, 119\}$

**Private key**  $KR = \{77, 119\}$



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- **Encryption process:**

- Say, plaintext  $M = 19$ .
- Ciphertext  $C = 19^5 \pmod{119}$   
 $= 2476099 \pmod{119} = 66$

- **Decryption process:**

- $M = 66^{77} \pmod{119} = 19$ .



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## The Security of RSA

- RSA is secure since
  - We use large number of bits in  $e$  and  $d$ .
  - The problem of factoring  $n$  into two prime factors is computationally very difficult.
    - ❖ Knowing  $p$  and  $q$  will allow us to know  $\Phi(n)$ .
    - ❖ This will help an intruder to know the values of  $e$  and  $d$ .
  - Key sizes in the range of 1024 to 2048 bits seems safe.



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## Points to Note

- The RSA algorithm in conjunction with some private key algorithm (like AES) can be used for secure data transfer over insecure channel.
  - Private key  $K$  transmitted using public key algorithms (i.e. RSA).
  - $K$  is used for encryption using private key algorithm.
- Prime factorization problem is solvable in polynomial time using quantum computers.
  - Resulted in research on post-quantum cryptographic algorithms.
  - Resistant against quantum attacks.







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**Lecture 30: Public-Key Cryptography (Part II)**

**CONCEPTS COVERED**

- ☐ Diffie Hellman key exchange
- ☐ Message authentication





## Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

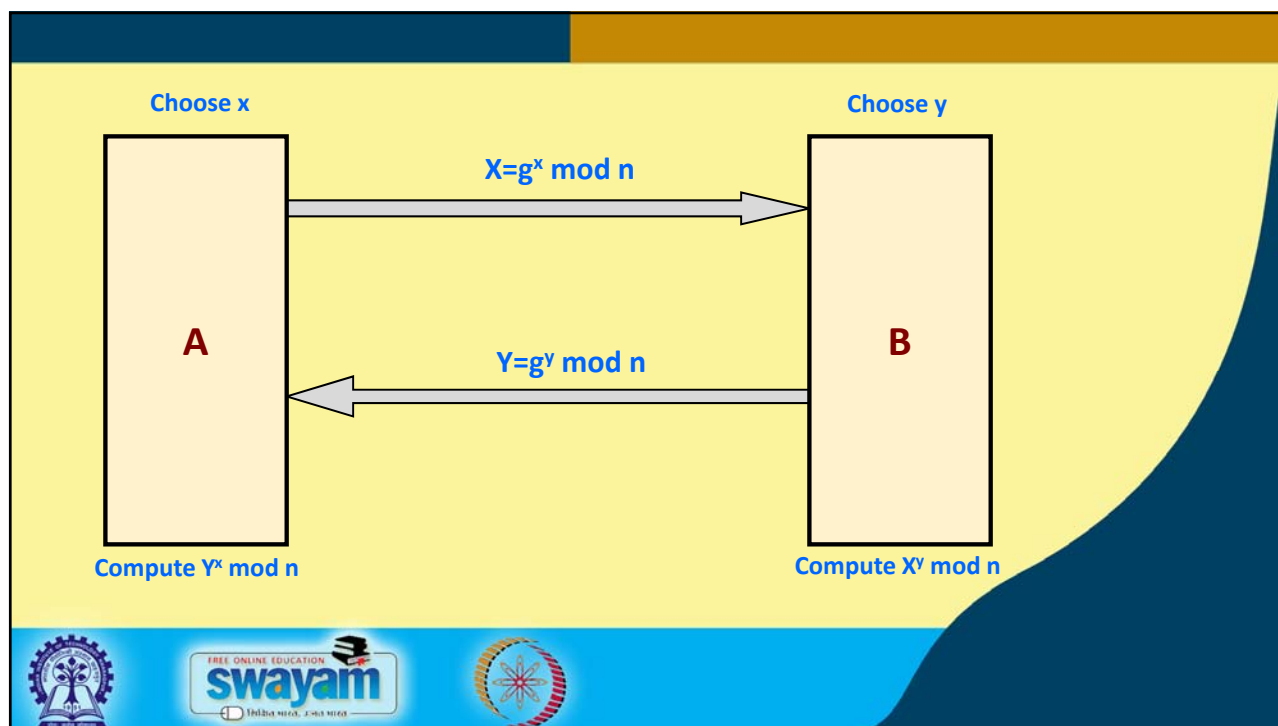
- Proposed in 1976.
- Allows group of users to agree on secret key *over insecure channel*.
- Cannot be used to encrypt and decrypt messages.
- Depends for its effectiveness on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms.



## D-H Algorithm

- A and B want to agree on secret key.
  - a) A and B agree on two large numbers  $n$  and  $g$ , such that  $1 < g < n$ .
  - b) A choose random  $x$ , computes  $X = g^x \bmod n$ , and sends  $X$  to B.
  - c) B chooses random  $y$ , computes  $Y = g^y \bmod n$ , and sends  $Y$  to A.
  - d) A computes  $k_1 = Y^x \bmod n$ .
  - e) B computes  $k_2 = X^y \bmod n$ .
- Note:  $k_1 = k_2 = g^{yx} \bmod n$ .

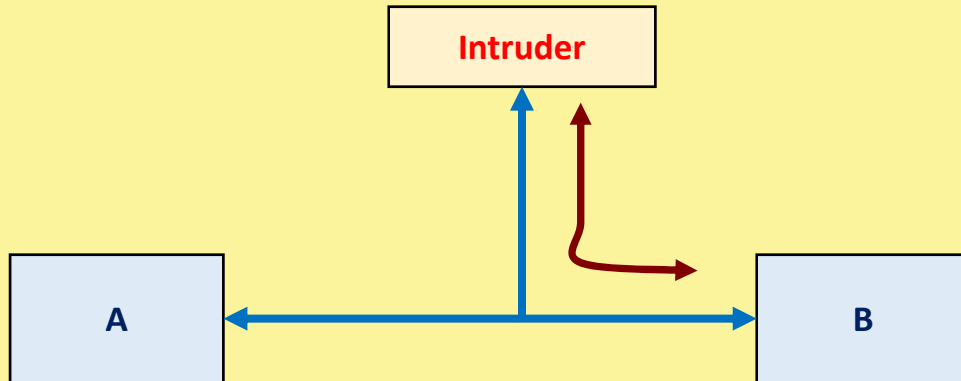




## D-H Algorithm (contd.)

- Requires no prior communication between **A** and **B**.
- Security depends on difficulty of computing  $x$ , given  $X = g^x \bmod n$ .
- Choices for  $g$  and  $n$  are critical.
  - Both  $n$  and  $(n-1)/2$  should be prime.
  - The value of  $n$  should be large.
- Susceptible to intruder-in-the-middle (man-in-the-middle) attack.
  - Active intruder.

## Man-in-the-Middle Attack



## A Comparison

- Symmetric encryption/decryption is much faster than asymmetric encryption/decryption:

*RSA: kilobits/second*

*DES: megabits/second*



*DES is about 100 times faster than RSA*

- Key size:
  - a) **RSA**: selected by user
  - b) **DES**: 56 bits
  - c) **AES**: 128, 192 or 256 bits

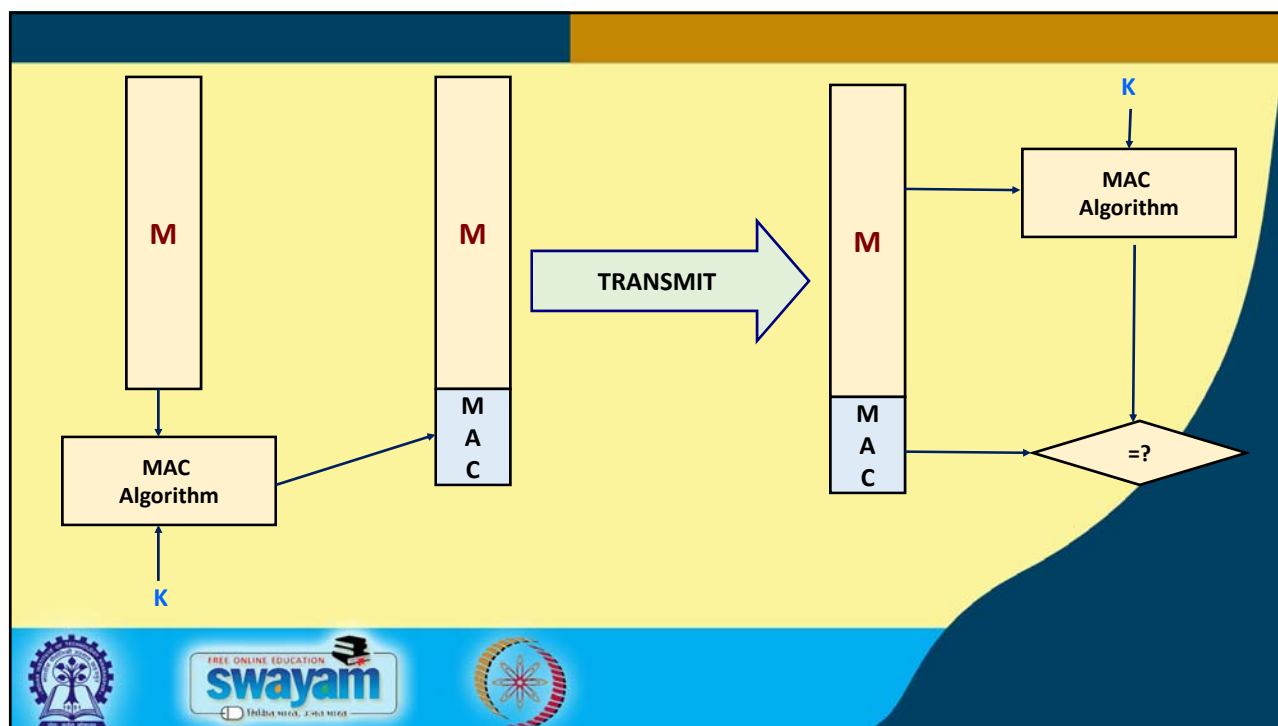
# Message Authentication



## Various Approaches

- a) Authentication using conventional encryption.
  - Only the sender and receiver should share a key.
- b) Message authentication without message encryption.
  - An authentication tag is generated and appended to each message.
- c) Message authentication code.
  - Calculate the MAC as a function of the message and the key:  $MAC = F(K, M)$





## Commonly Used Schemes

- The MD family
  - MD2, MD4 and MD5 (128-bit hash).
- The SHA family
  - SHA-1 (160-bit), SHA-256 (256-bit), SHA-384 (384-bit) and SHA-512 (512-bit).
- RIPEMD-128 (128-bit), RIPEMD-160 (160-bit).

