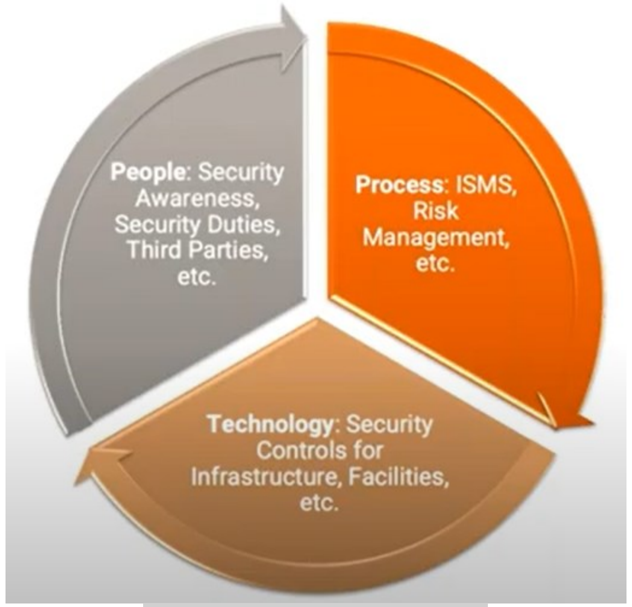
CS 3002 Information Security

Fall 2022

1. Explain key concepts of information security such as design principles, cryptography, risk management,(1)

2. Discuss legal, ethical, and professional issues in information security (6)
3. Analyze real world scenarios, model them using security measures, and apply various security and risk management tools for achieving information security and privacy (2)
4. Identify appropriate techniques to tackle and solve problems of real life in the discipline of information security (3)
5. Understand issues related to ethics in the field of information security(8)


People: Security Awareness, Security Duties, Third Parties, etc.
Process: ISMS, Risk Management, etc.
Technology: Security Controls for Infrastructure, Facilities, etc.

ISO/IEC 27001: 2013

Week # 2 – Lecture # 6, 7, 8

9th , 10th , 12th Safar ul Muzaffar, 1445

6th , 7th, 9th September 2022

Dr. Nadeem Kafi Khan

Lecture # 6

- Diffusion and Confusion
- Feistel Network Construction
- Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

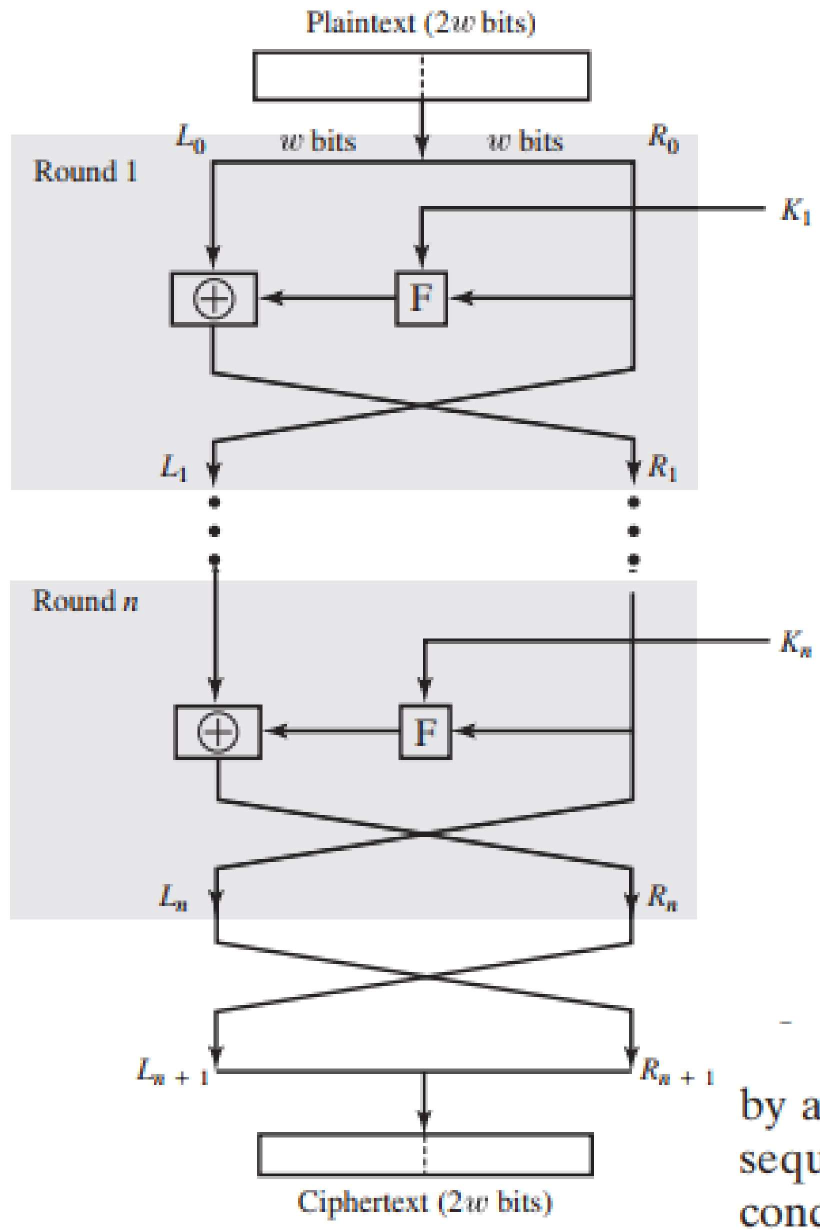
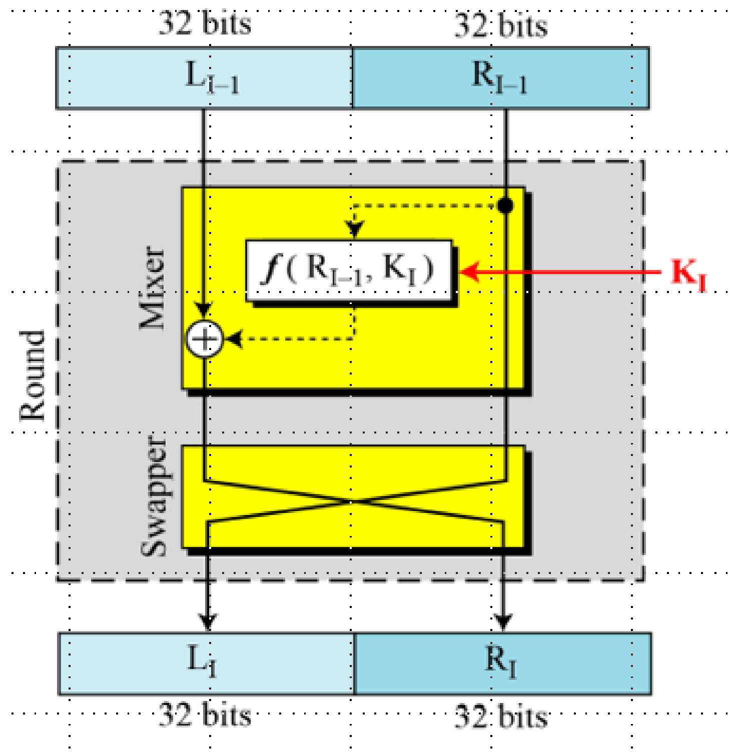


Figure 20.1 **Classical Feistel Network**

Textbook page 631-631



The Feistel structure is a particular example of the more general structure used by all symmetric block ciphers. In general, a symmetric block cipher consists of a sequence of rounds, with each round performing substitutions and permutations conditioned by a secret key value. The exact realization of a symmetric block cipher

Feistel Cipher Structure

Textbook page 631-631

Many symmetric block encryption algorithms, including DES, have a structure first described by Horst Feistel of IBM in 1973 [FEIS73] and shown in Figure 20.1. The inputs to the encryption algorithm are a plaintext block of length $2w$ bits and a key K. The plaintext block is divided into two halves, L_0 and R_0. The two halves of the data pass through n rounds of processing and then combine to produce the ciphertext block. Each round i has as inputs L_{i-1} and R_{i-1}, derived from the previous round, as well as a subkey K_i, derived from the overall K. In general, the subkeys K_i are different from K and from each other, and are generated from the key by a subkey generation algorithm.

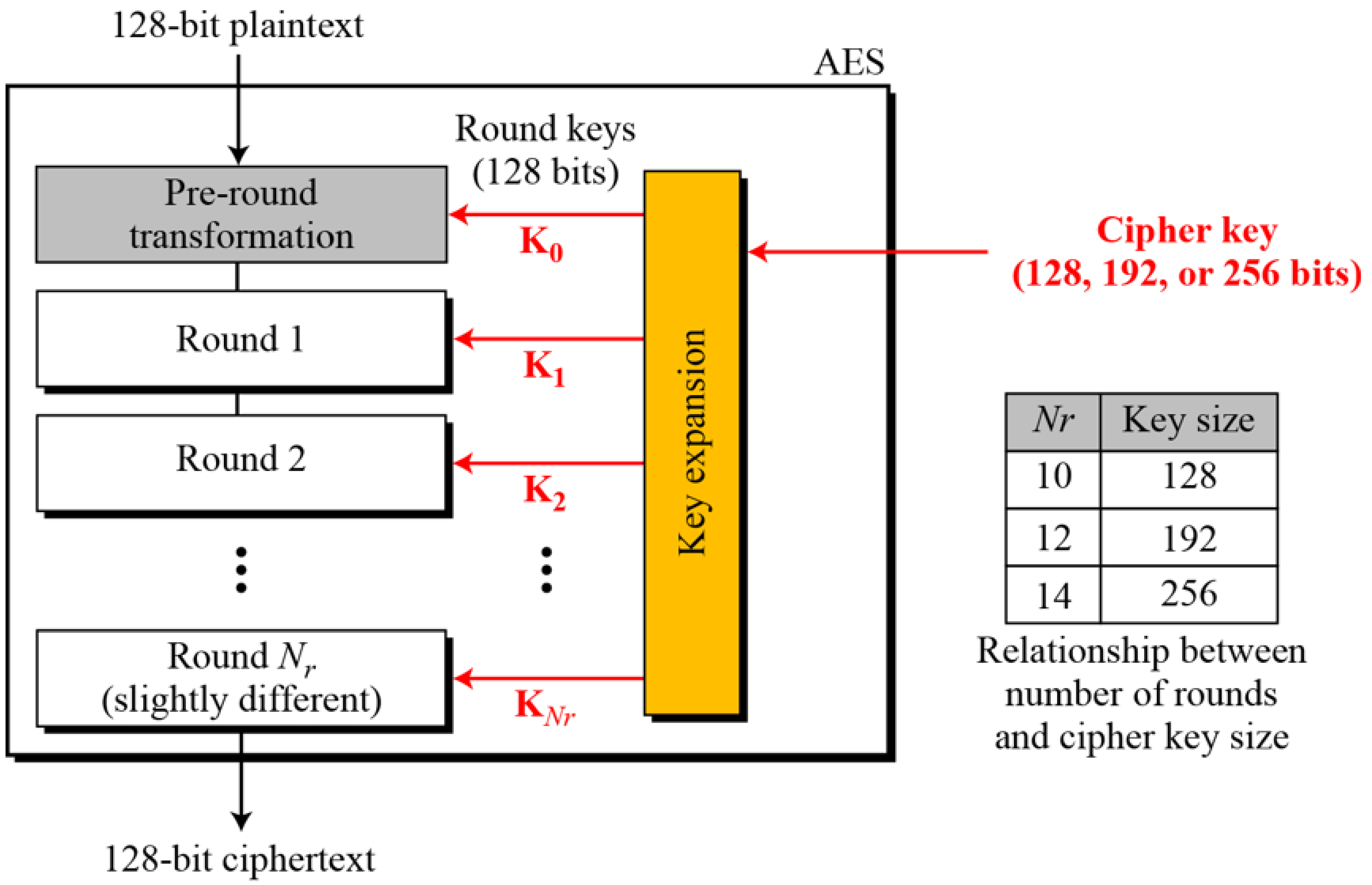
All rounds have the same structure. A substitution is performed on the left half of the data. This is done by applying a *round function* F to the right half of the data and then taking the exclusive-OR (XOR) of the output of that function and the left half of the data. The round function has the same general structure for each round but is parameterized by the round subkey K_i. Following this substitution, a permutation is performed that consists of the interchange of the two halves of the data.

Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

AES is a non-Feistel cipher that encrypts and decrypts a data block of 128 bits. It uses 10, 12, or 14 rounds. The key size, which can be 128, 192, or 256 bits, depends on the number of rounds.

AES has defined three versions, with 10, 12, and 14 rounds.
Each version uses a different cipher key size (128, 192, or 256), but the round keys are always 128 bits.

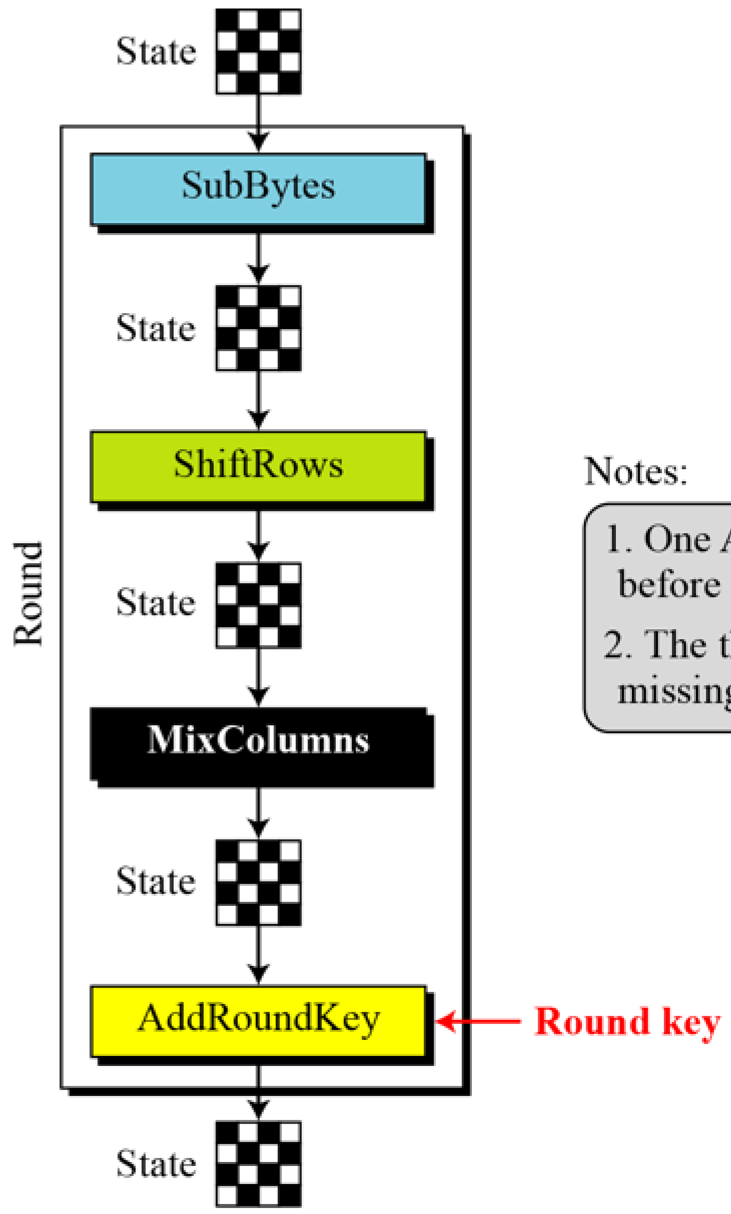
Figure 7.1 *General design of AES encryption cipher*



Nr	Key size
10	128
12	192
14	256

Relationship between number of rounds and cipher key size

Figure 7.5 *Structure of each round at the encryption site*



Notes:

1. One AddRoundKey is applied before the first round.
2. The third transformation is missing in the last round.

Figure 7.17 *Ciphers and inverse ciphers of the original design*

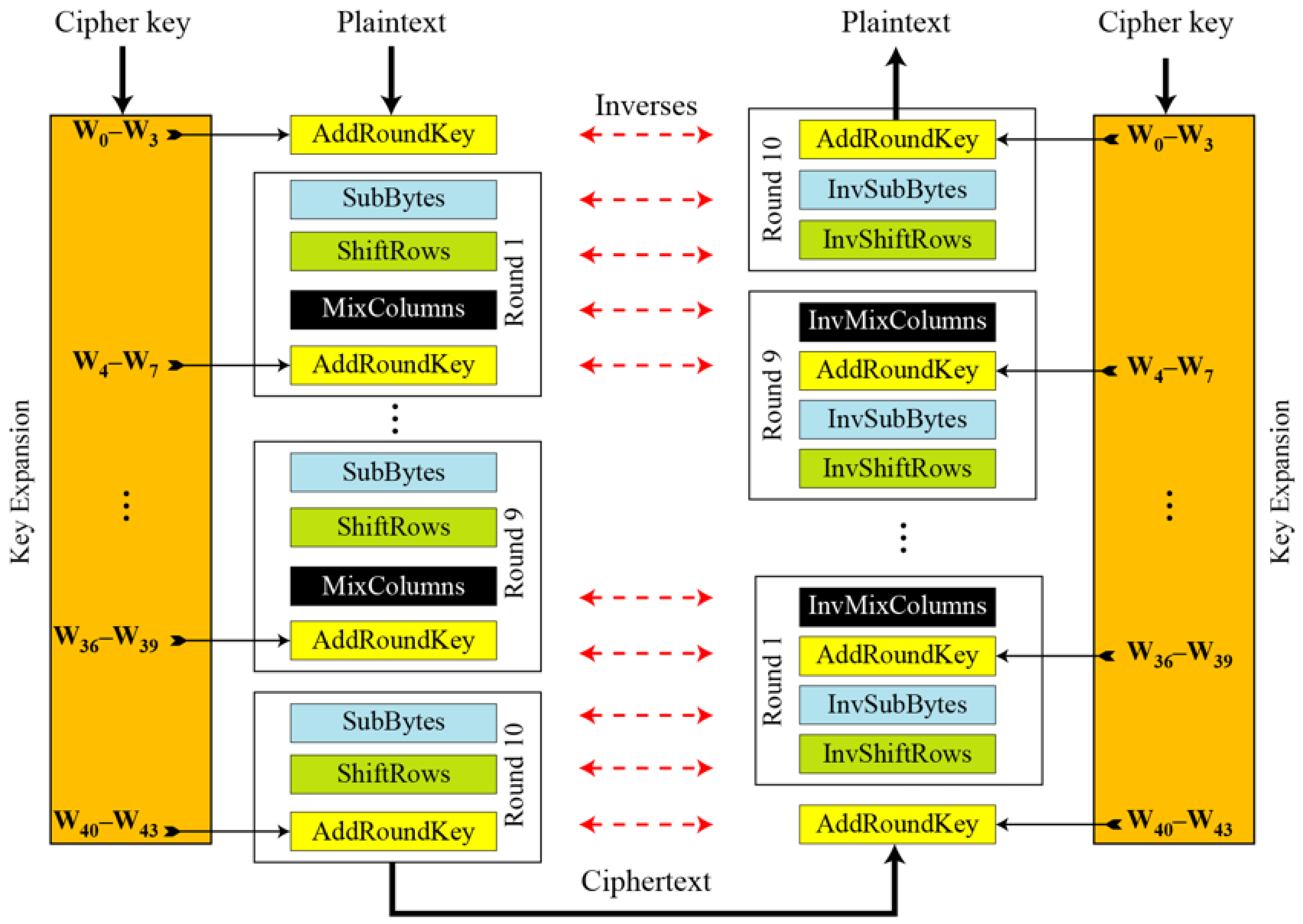


Figure 7.4 *Changing plaintext to state*

Text	A	E	S	U	S	E	S	A	M	A	T	R	I	X	Z	Z
Hexadecimal	00	04	12	14	12	04	12	00	0C	00	13	11	08	23	19	19

$$\begin{bmatrix} 00 & 12 & 0C & 08 \\ 04 & 04 & 00 & 23 \\ 12 & 12 & 13 & 19 \\ 14 & 00 & 11 & 19 \end{bmatrix} \text{State}$$

Figure 7.2 *Data units used in AES*

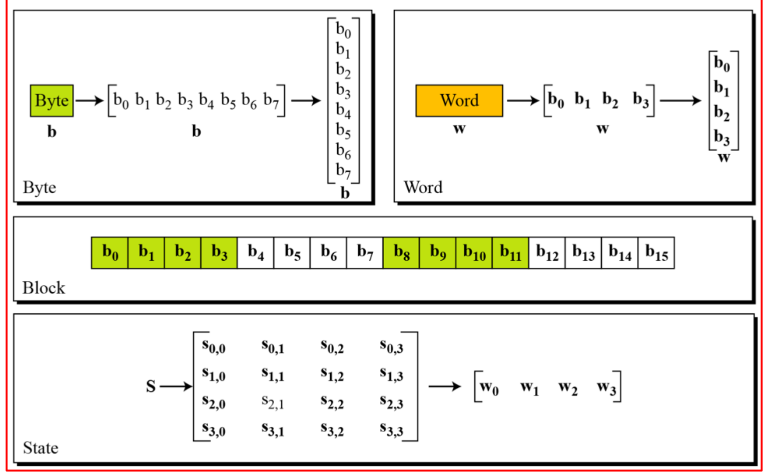
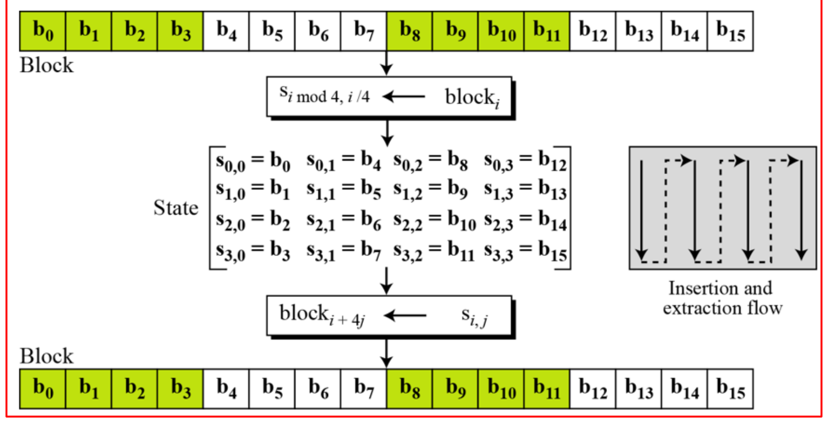


Figure 7.3 *Block-to-state and state-to-block transformation*



Block
$s_{i \bmod 4,\, i/4} \leftarrow \text{block}_i$
State
$\text{block}_{i+4j} \leftarrow s_{i,j}$
Block
Insertion and extraction flow

Figure 7.6 *SubBytes transformation*

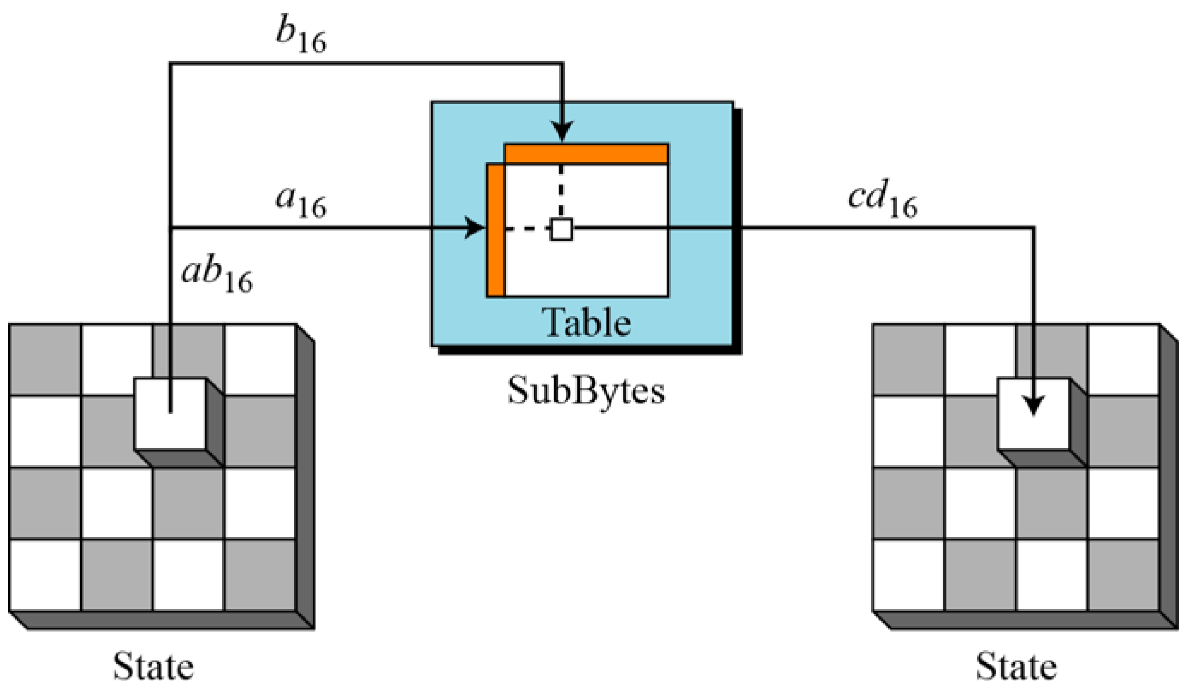


Table 7.1 *SubBytes transformation table*

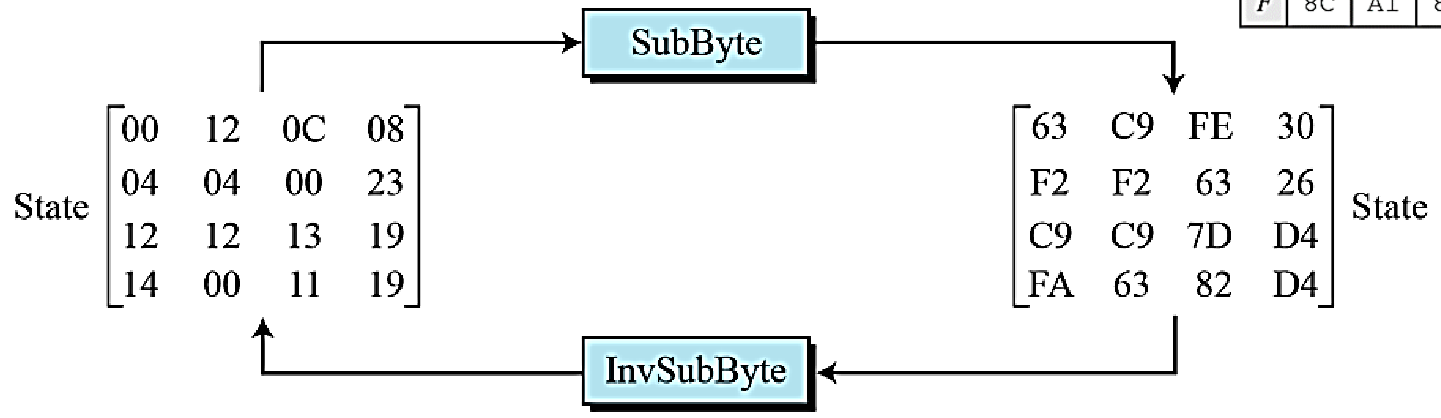
	0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*A*	*B*	*C*	*D*	*E*	*F*
0	63	7C	77	7B	F2	6B	6F	C5	30	01	67	2B	FE	D7	AB	76
1	CA	82	C9	7D	FA	59	47	F0	AD	D4	A2	AF	9C	A4	72	C0
2	B7	FD	93	26	36	3F	F7	CC	34	A5	E5	F1	71	D8	31	15
3	04	C7	23	C3	18	96	05	9A	07	12	80	E2	EB	27	B2	75
4	09	83	2C	1A	1B	6E	5A	A0	52	3B	D6	B3	29	E3	2F	84
5	53	D1	00	ED	20	FC	B1	5B	6A	CB	BE	39	4A	4C	58	CF
6	D0	EF	AA	FB	43	4D	33	85	45	F9	02	7F	50	3C	9F	A8
7	51	A3	40	8F	92	9D	38	F5	BC	B6	DA	21	10	FF	F3	D2
8	CD	0C	13	EC	5F	97	44	17	C4	A7	7E	3D	64	5D	19	73
9	60	81	4F	DC	22	2A	90	88	46	EE	B8	14	DE	5E	0B	DB
A	E0	32	3A	0A	49	06	24	5C	C2	D3	AC	62	91	95	E4	79
B	E7	CB	37	6D	8D	D5	4E	A9	6C	56	F4	EA	65	7A	AE	08
C	BA	78	25	2E	1C	A6	B4	C6	E8	DD	74	1F	4B	BD	8B	8A
D	70	3E	B5	66	48	03	F6	0E	61	35	57	B9	86	C1	1D	9E
E	E1	F8	98	11	69	D9	8E	94	9B	1E	87	E9	CE	55	28	DF
F	8C	A1	89	0D	BF	E6	42	68	41	99	2D	0F	B0	54	BB	16

To find the substitute byte for a given input byte, we divide the input byte into two 4-bit patterns, each yielding an integer value between 0 and 15. (We can represent these by their hex values 0 through F.) One of the hex values is used as a row index and the other as a column index for reaching into the 16 × 16 lookup table.

SubBytes transformation

Table 7.1 *SubBytes transformation table*

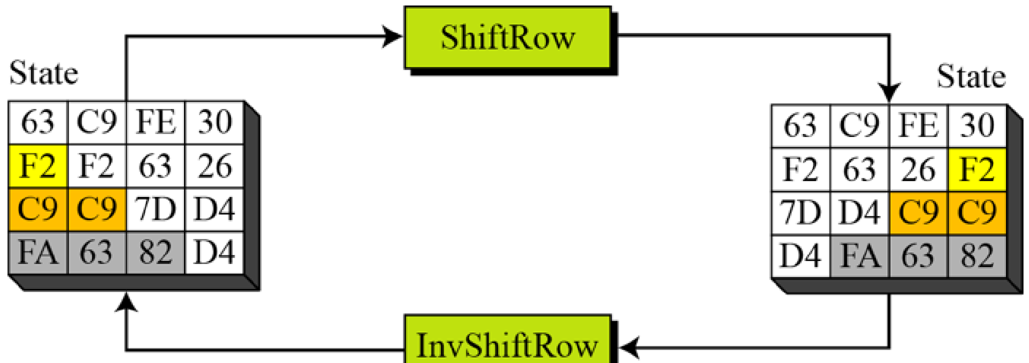
	0	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*A*	*B*	*C*	*D*	*E*	*F*
0	63	7C	77	7B	F2	6B	6F	C5	30	01	67	2B	FE	D7	AB	76
1	CA	82	C9	7D	FA	59	47	F0	AD	D4	A2	AF	9C	A4	72	C0
2	B7	FD	93	26	36	3F	F7	CC	34	A5	E5	F1	71	D8	31	15
3	04	C7	23	C3	18	96	05	9A	07	12	80	E2	EB	27	B2	75
4	09	83	2C	1A	1B	6E	5A	A0	52	3B	D6	B3	29	E3	2F	84
5	53	D1	00	ED	20	FC	B1	5B	6A	CB	BE	39	4A	4C	58	CF
6	D0	EF	AA	FB	43	4D	33	85	45	F9	02	7F	50	3C	9F	A8
7	51	A3	40	8F	92	9D	38	F5	BC	B6	DA	21	10	FF	F3	D2
8	CD	0C	13	EC	5F	97	44	17	C4	A7	7E	3D	64	5D	19	73
9	60	81	4F	DC	22	2A	90	88	46	EE	B8	14	DE	5E	0B	DB
A	E0	32	3A	0A	49	06	24	5C	C2	D3	AC	62	91	95	E4	79
B	E7	CB	37	6D	8D	D5	4E	A9	6C	56	F4	EA	65	7A	AE	08
C	BA	78	25	2E	1C	A6	B4	C6	E8	DD	74	1F	4B	BD	8B	8A
D	70	3E	B5	66	48	03	F6	0E	61	35	57	B9	86	C1	1D	9E
E	E1	F8	98	11	69	D9	8E	94	9B	1E	87	E9	CE	55	28	DF
F	8C	A1	89	0D	BF	E6	42	68	41	99	2D	0F	B0	54	BB	16



Another transformation found in a round is shifting, which permutes the bytes.

ShiftRows

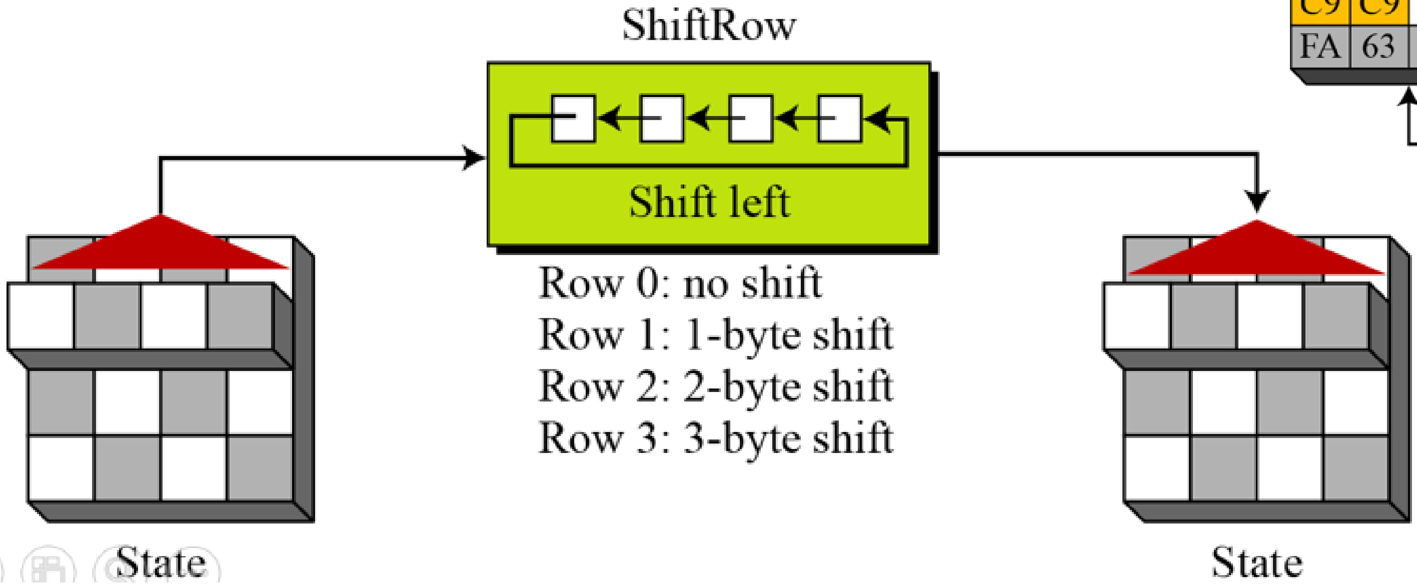
In the encryption, the transformation is called ShiftRows.



63	C9	FE	30
F2	F2	63	26
C9	C9	7D	D4
FA	63	82	D4

63	C9	FE	30
F2	63	26	F2
7D	D4	C9	C9
D4	FA	63	82

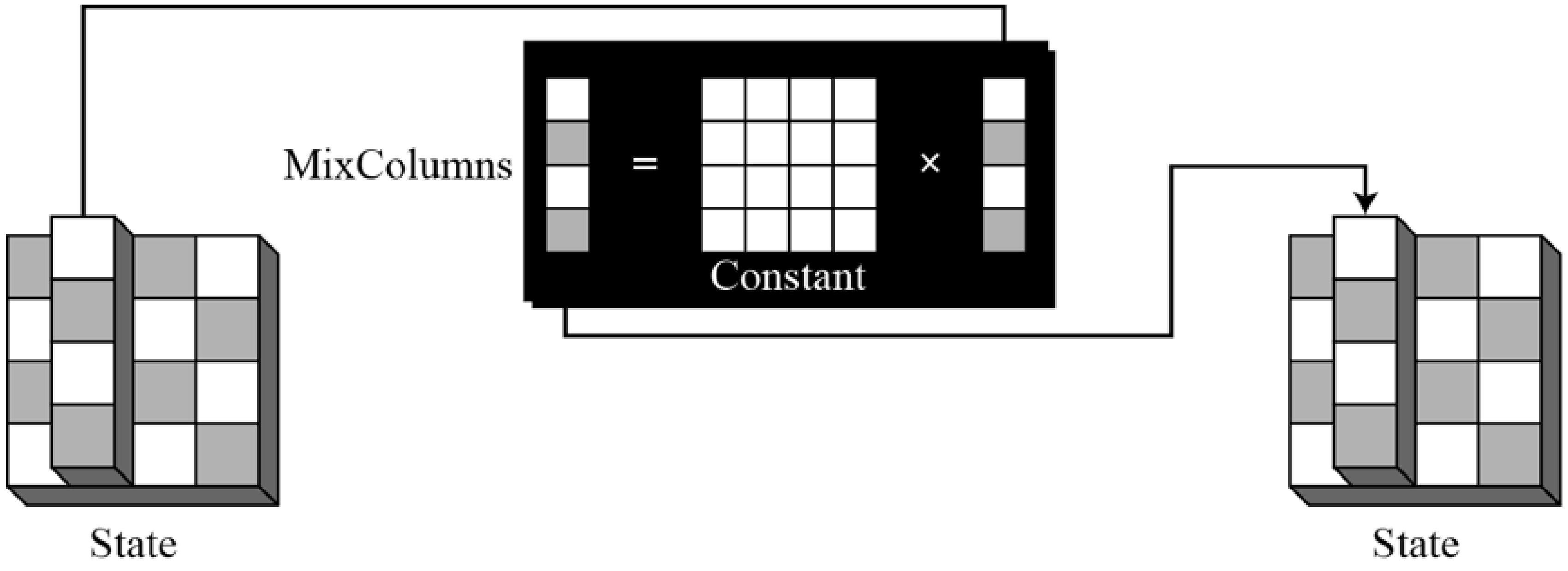
Figure 7.9 ***ShiftRows transformation***



MixColumns

The MixColumns transformation operates at the column level; it transforms each column of the state to a new column.

Figure 7.13 *MixColumns transformation*



MixColumns

$$s'_{0,j} \quad = \quad (0\text{x}02 \times s_{0,j}) \otimes (0\text{x}03 \times s_{1,j}) \otimes s_{2,j} \otimes s_{3,j}$$

the column operations can be shown as

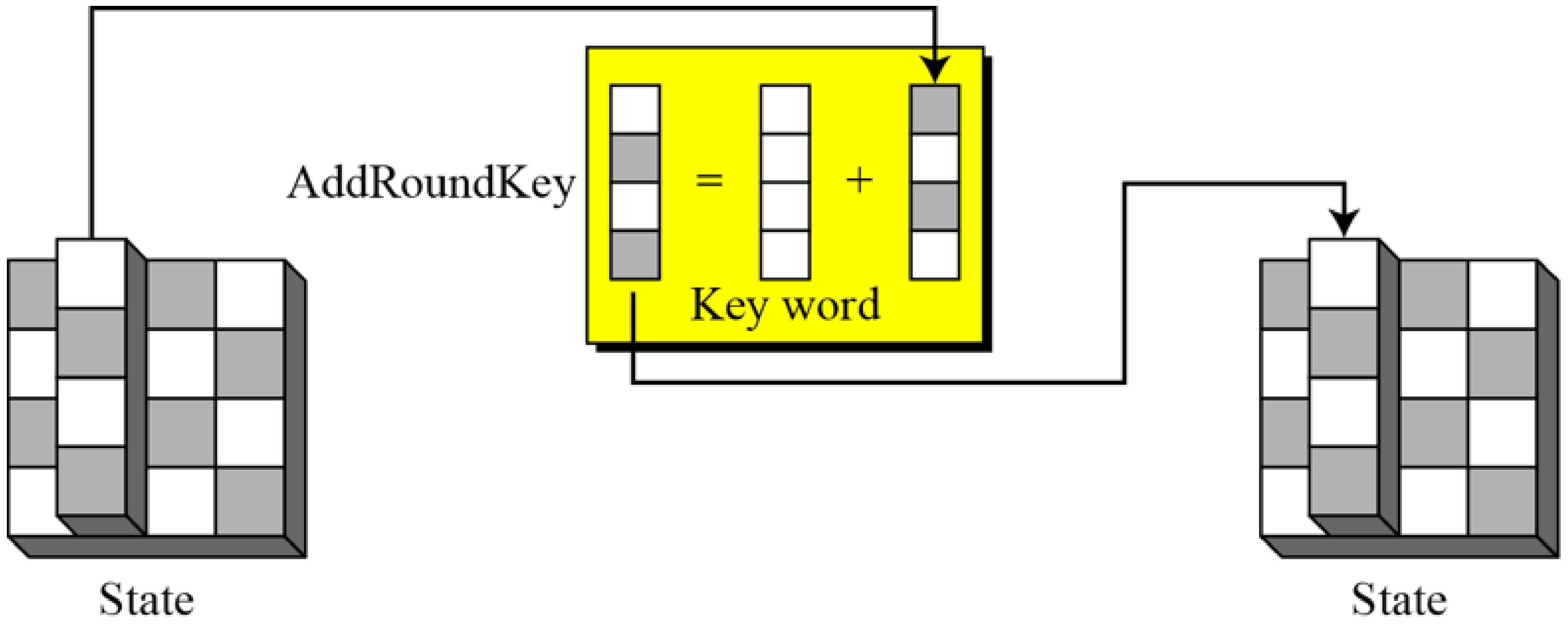
[redacted]

$$\begin{bmatrix} 01 & 02 & 03 & 01 \\ 01 & 01 & 02 & 03 \\ 03 & 01 & 01 & 02 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} s_{1.0} & s_{1,1} & s_{1,2} & s_{1,3} \\ s_{2.0} & s_{2,1} & s_{2,2} & s_{2,3} \\ s_{3.0} & s_{3,1} & s_{3,2} & s_{3,3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} s'_{1.0} & s'_{1,1} & s'_{1,2} & s'_{1,3} \\ s'_{2.0} & s'_{2,1} & s'_{2,2} & s'_{2,3} \\ s'_{3.0} & s'_{3,1} & s'_{3,2} & s'_{3,3} \end{bmatrix}$$

where, on the left hand side, when a row of the leftmost matrix multiples a column of the state array matrix, additions involved are meant to be XOR operations.

* The multiplications implied by the word ‘times’ and the additions implied by the word ‘plus’ are meant to be carried out in GF(2^8) arithmetic

Figure 7.15 *AddRoundKey transformation*



$$\begin{bmatrix} 41 & b9 & e0 & 8b \\ 6e & 83 & 95 & a9 \\ 18 & da & 8b & 38 \\ 99 & 00 & 65 & d0 \end{bmatrix} \oplus \begin{bmatrix} e1 & c1 & e1 & c1 \\ 21 & 10 & 52 & 19 \\ 86 & b4 & fd & b8 \\ f2 & ca & 9e & c7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a0 & 78 & 01 & 4a \\ 4f & 93 & c7 & b0 \\ 9e & 6e & 76 & 80 \\ 6b & ca & fb & 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

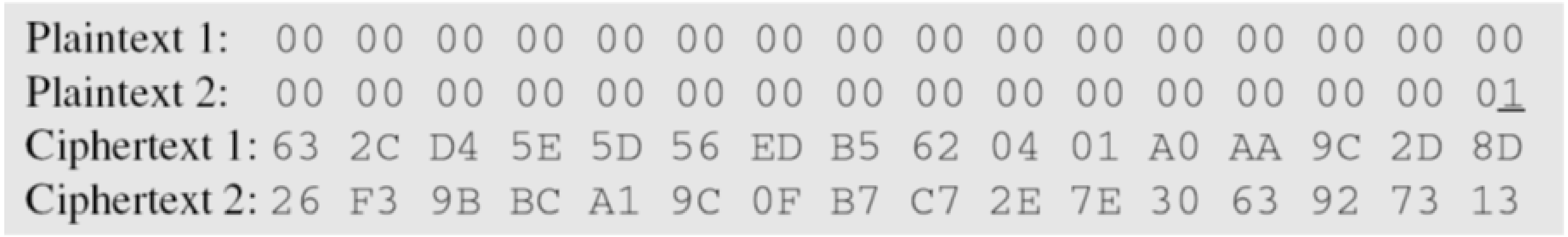
$$d0 \oplus c7 = 17$$

AES Key Expansion (for key length of 128 bits)

The AES key expansion algorithm takes as input a 4-word (16-byte) key and produces a linear array of 44 words (176 bytes). This is sufficient to provide a 4-word round key for the initial AddRoundKey stage and each of the 10 rounds of the cipher.

Claude Shannon (1949) gave two properties that a good cryptosystem should have to hinder statistical analysis: and .

- **Diffusion** means that if we change a character of the plaintext, then several characters of the ciphertext should change, and similarly, if we change a character of the ciphertext, then several characters of the plaintext should change.



Plaintext 1:	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00
Plaintext 2:	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	0<u>1</u>
Ciphertext 1:	63	2C	D4	5E	5D	56	ED	B5	62	04	01	A0	AA	9C	2D	8D
Ciphertext 2:	26	F3	9B	BC	A1	9C	0F	B7	C7	2E	7E	30	63	92	73	13

- **Confusion** means that the key does not relate in a simple way to the ciphertext. In particular, each character of the ciphertext should depend on several parts of the key.

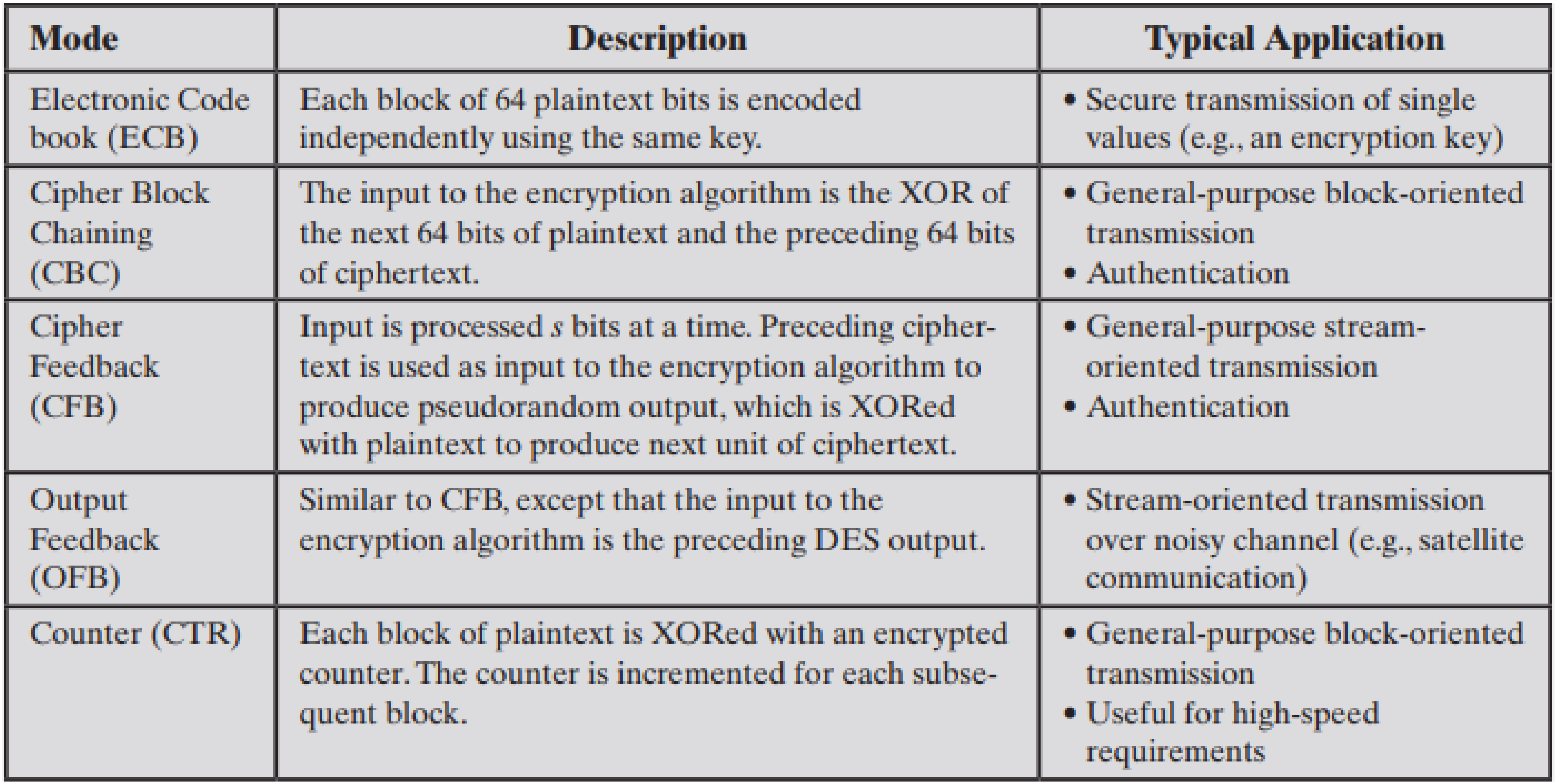
Confusion = **Substitution** a --> b, **Diffusion** = **Transposition or Permutation** abcd --> dacb

Lecture # 7

- Use of confidentiality, Integrity, Availability, Authentication and Auditability in real-world scenarios
- Message Authentication
- Message encryption is not a secure form of authentication
- Message authentication without confidentiality
- Message Authentication Code

Read Only. We will touch on this topic during encryption lab.

Table 20.3 **Block Cipher Modes of Operation**



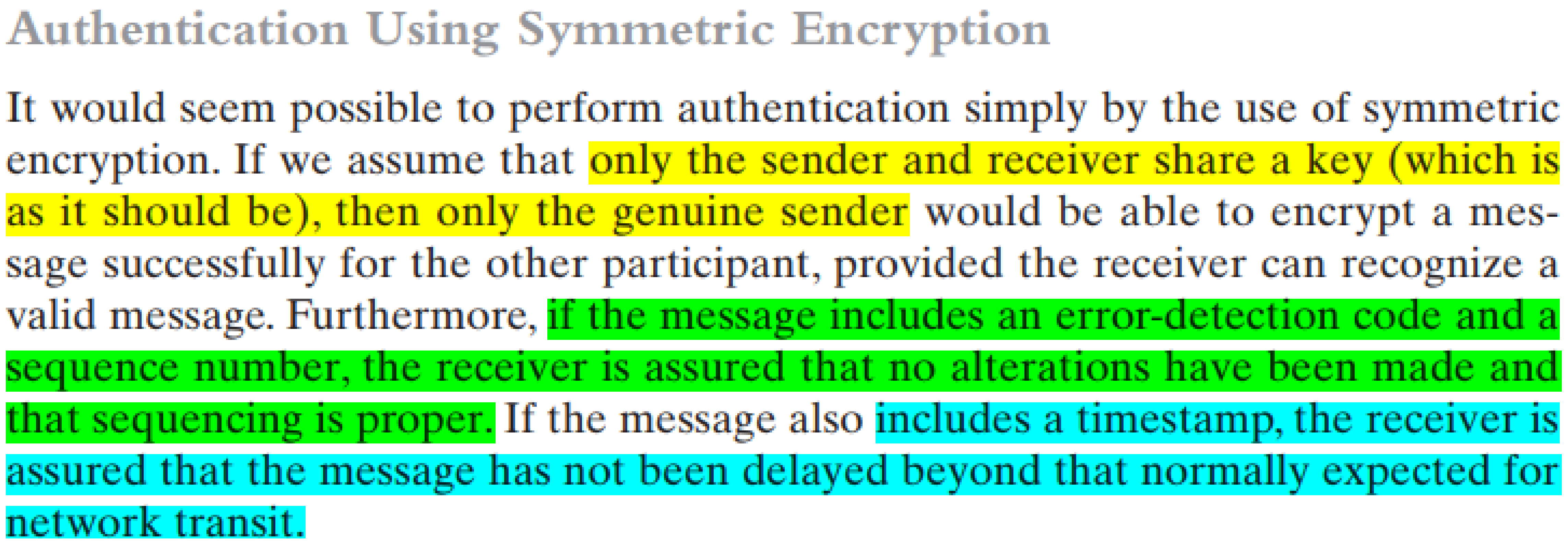
Mode	Description	Typical Application
Electronic Code book (ECB)	Each block of 64 plaintext bits is encoded independently using the same key.	• Secure transmission of single values (e.g., an encryption key)
Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)	The input to the encryption algorithm is the XOR of the next 64 bits of plaintext and the preceding 64 bits of ciphertext.	• General-purpose block-oriented transmission • Authentication
Cipher Feedback (CFB)	Input is processed *s* bits at a time. Preceding cipher-text is used as input to the encryption algorithm to produce pseudorandom output, which is XORed with plaintext to produce next unit of ciphertext.	• General-purpose stream-oriented transmission • Authentication
Output Feedback (OFB)	Similar to CFB, except that the input to the encryption algorithm is the preceding DES output.	• Stream-oriented transmission over noisy channel (e.g., satellite communication)
Counter (CTR)	Each block of plaintext is XORed with an encrypted counter. The counter is incremented for each subse-quent block.	• General-purpose block-oriented transmission • Useful for high-speed requirements

2.2 MESSAGE AUTHENTICATION AND HASH FUNCTIONS

Encryption protects against passive attack (eavesdropping). A different requirement is to protect against active attack (falsification of data and transactions). Protection against such attacks is known as message or data authentication.

A message, file, document, or other collection of data is said to be authentic when it is genuine and came from its alleged source. Message or data authentication is a procedure that allows communicating parties to verify that received or stored messages are authentic.[2] The two important aspects are to verify that the contents of the message have not been altered and that the source is authentic. We may also wish to verify a message's timeliness (it has not been artificially delayed and replayed) and sequence relative to other messages flowing between two parties.

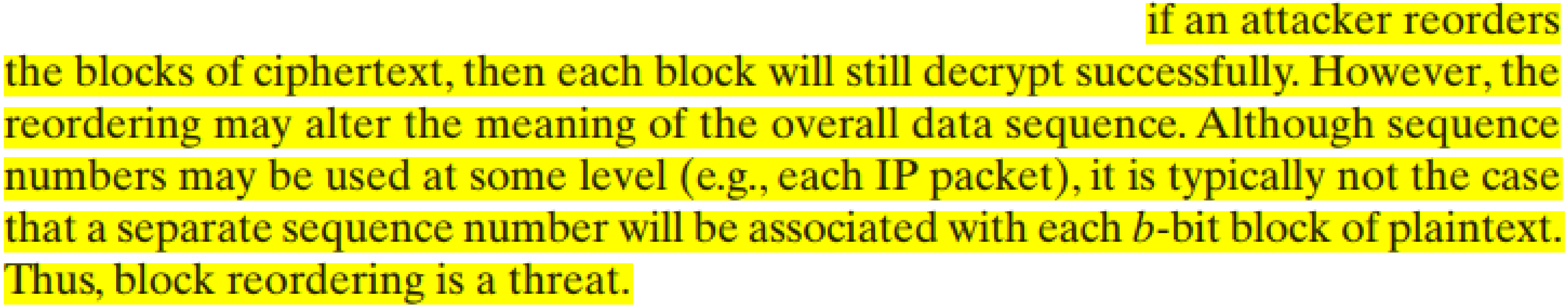
[2]For simplicity, for the remainder of this section, we refer to *message authentication*. By this, we mean both authentication of transmitted messages and of stored data (*data authentication*).



Authentication Using Symmetric Encryption

It would seem possible to perform authentication simply by the use of symmetric encryption. If we assume that only the sender and receiver share a key (which is as it should be), then only the genuine sender would be able to encrypt a message successfully for the other participant, provided the receiver can recognize a valid message. Furthermore, if the message includes an error-detection code and a sequence number, the receiver is assured that no alterations have been made and that sequencing is proper. If the message also includes a timestamp, the receiver is assured that the message has not been delayed beyond that normally expected for network transit.

Message encryption by itself does not provide a secure form of authentication.



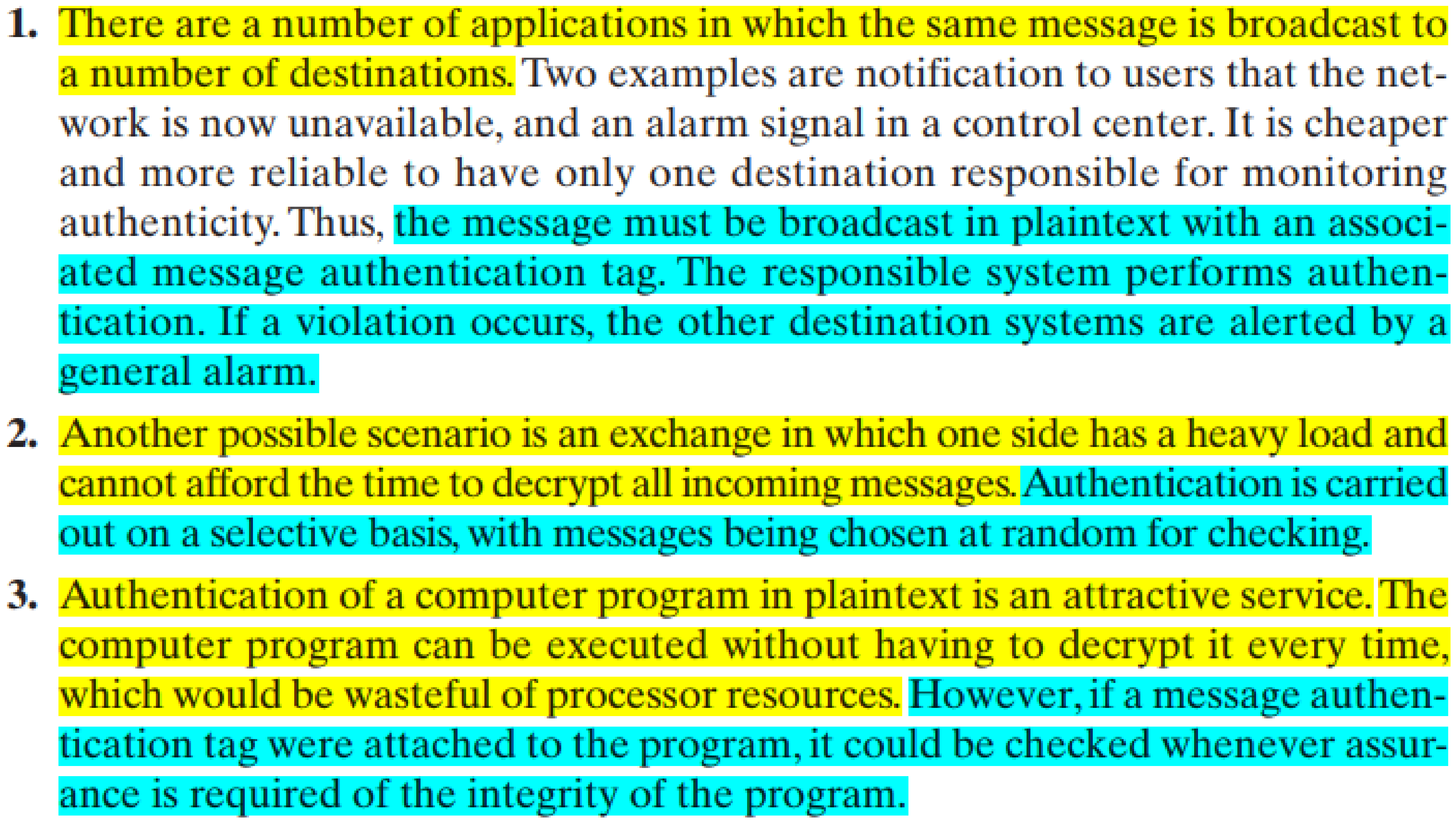
if an attacker reorders the blocks of ciphertext, then each block will still decrypt successfully. However, the reordering may alter the meaning of the overall data sequence. Although sequence numbers may be used at some level (e.g., each IP packet), it is typically not the case that a separate sequence number will be associated with each *b*-bit block of plaintext. Thus, block reordering is a threat.

It is possible to combine authentication and confidentiality in a single algorithm by encrypting a message plus its authentication tag.

Message authentication is provided as a separate function from message encryption.

Message Authentication without Message Encryption

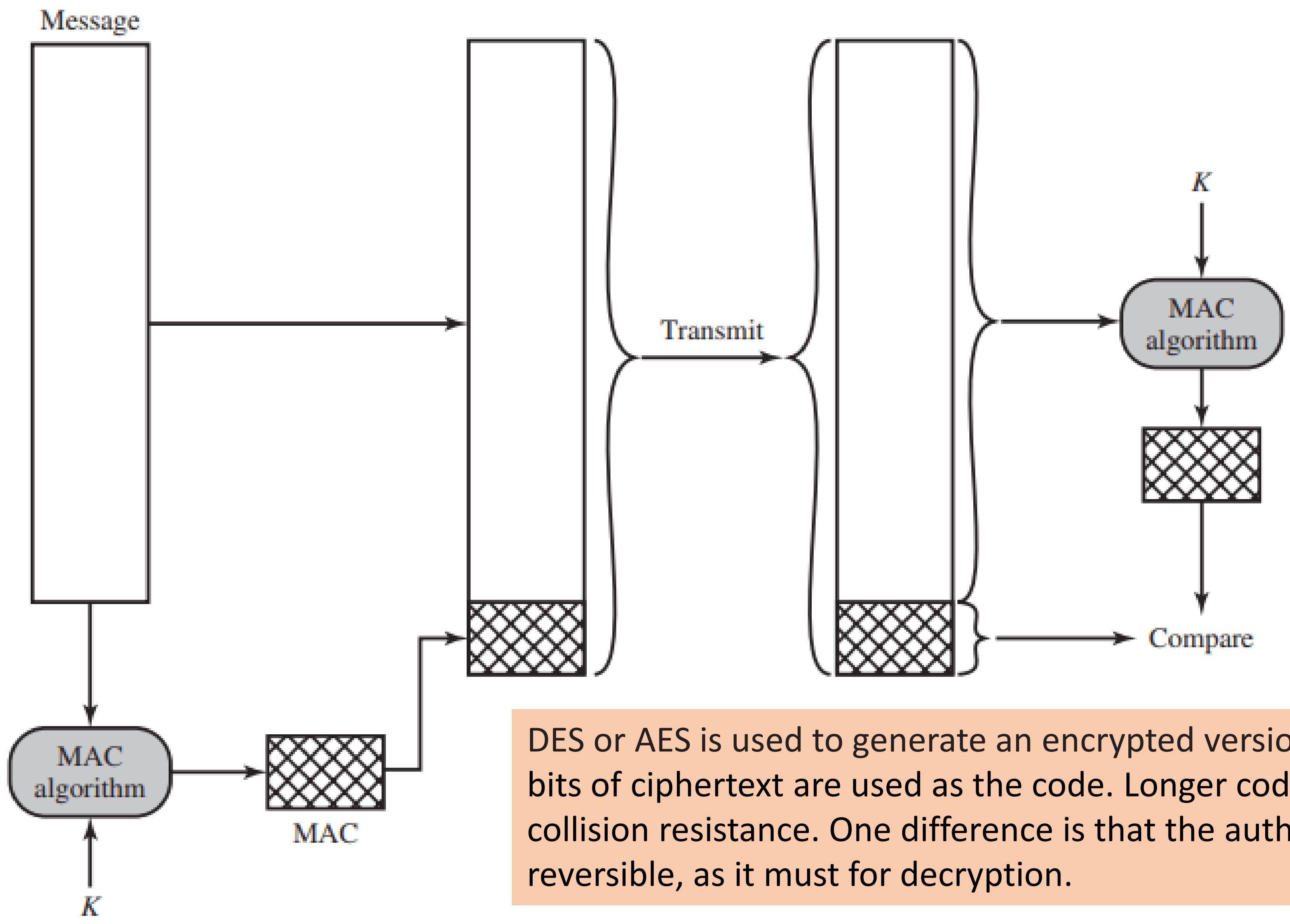
Three situations in which message authentication without confidentiality is preferable:



1. There are a number of applications in which the same message is broadcast to a number of destinations. Two examples are notification to users that the network is now unavailable, and an alarm signal in a control center. It is cheaper and more reliable to have only one destination responsible for monitoring authenticity. Thus, the message must be broadcast in plaintext with an associated message authentication tag. The responsible system performs authentication. If a violation occurs, the other destination systems are alerted by a general alarm.
2. Another possible scenario is an exchange in which one side has a heavy load and cannot afford the time to decrypt all incoming messages. Authentication is carried out on a selective basis, with messages being chosen at random for checking.
3. Authentication of a computer program in plaintext is an attractive service. The computer program can be executed without having to decrypt it every time, which would be wasteful of processor resources. However, if a message authentication tag were attached to the program, it could be checked whenever assurance is required of the integrity of the program.

MESSAGE AUTHENTICATION CODE

One authentication technique involves the use of a secret key to generate a small block of data, known as a message authentication code, that is appended to the message. This technique assumes that two communicating parties, say A and B, share a common secret key K_{AB}. When A has a message to send to B, it calculates the message authentication code as a complex function of the message and the key: $\text{MAC}_M = \text{F}(K_{AB}, M)$.[3] The message plus code are transmitted to the intended recipient. The recipient performs the same calculation on the received message, using the same secret key, to generate a new message authentication code. The received code is compared to the calculated code (see Figure 2.3).



DES or AES is used to generate an encrypted version of the message, and some of the bits of ciphertext are used as the code. Longer codes are used to provide sufficient collision resistance. One difference is that the authentication algorithm need not be reversible, as it must for decryption.

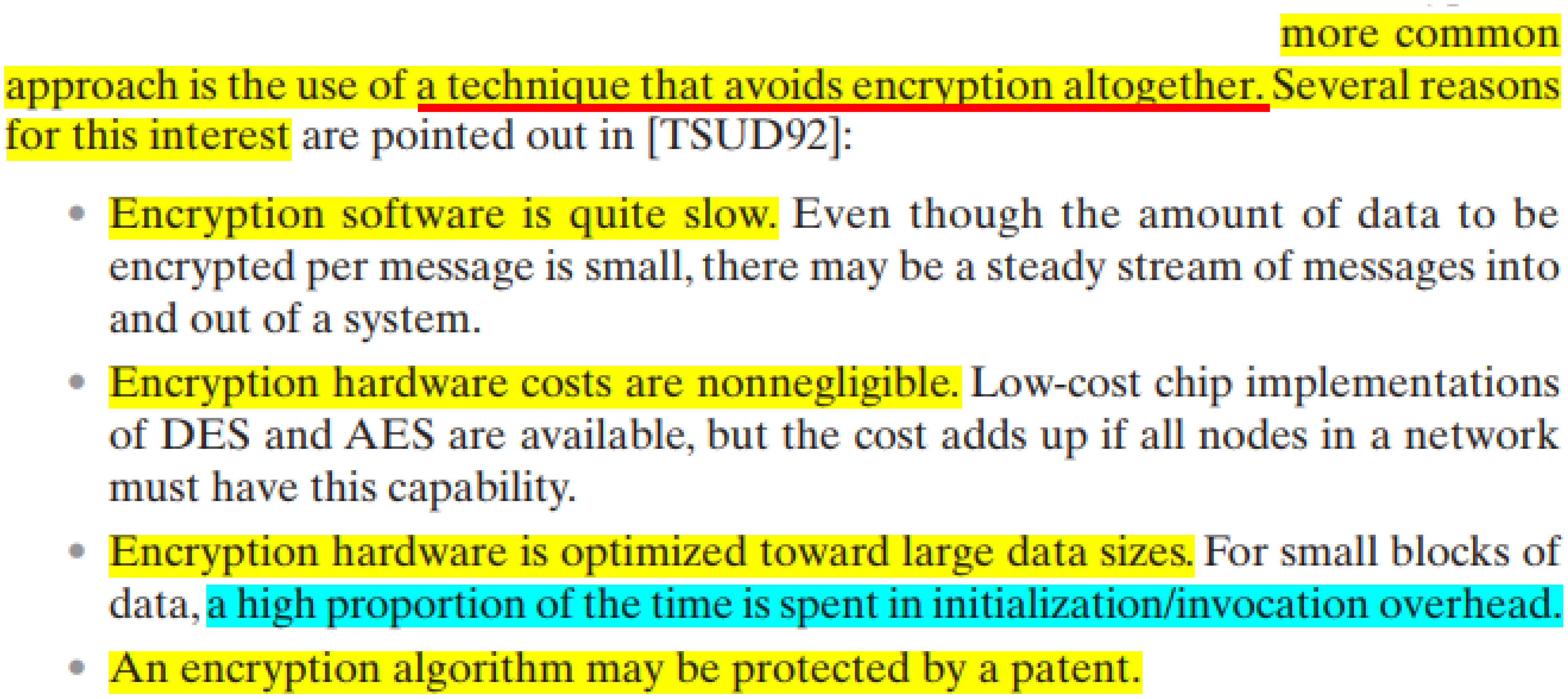
Figure 2.3 Message Authentication Using a Message Authentication Code (MAC)

Lecture # 8

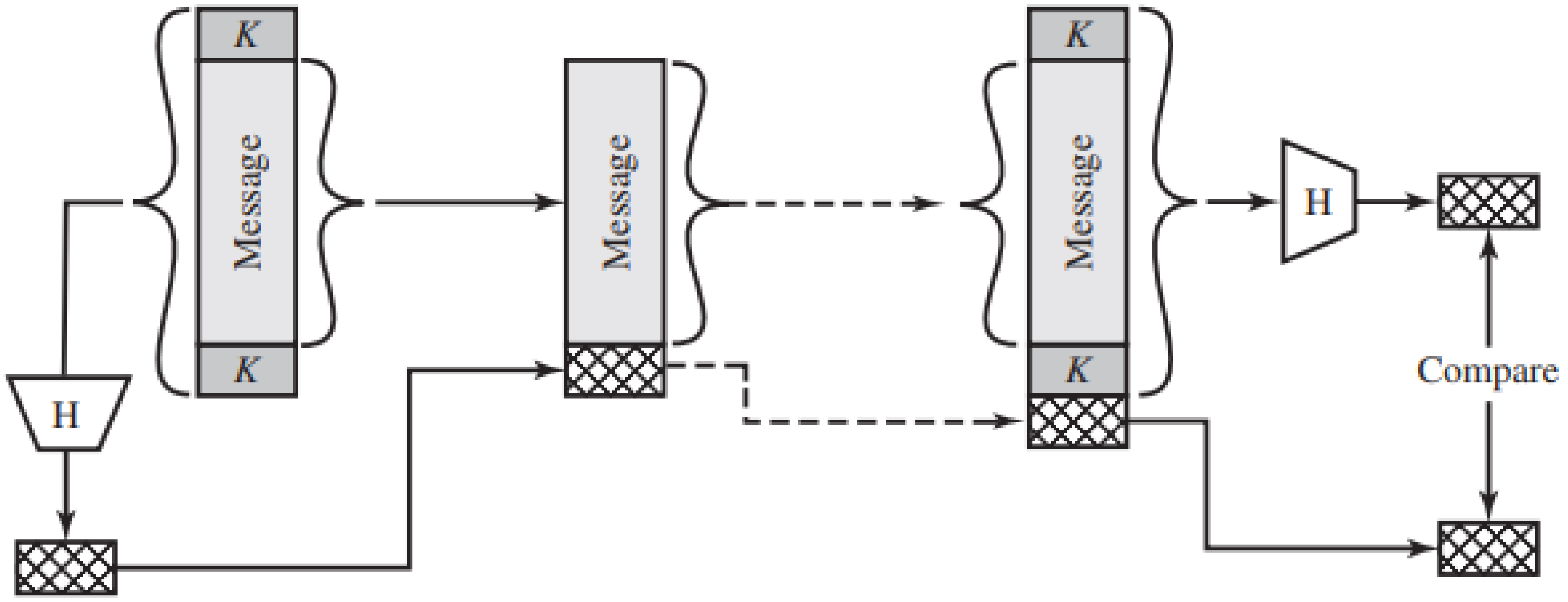
- One-Way Hash Functions
- Reasons to avoid Encryption
- Keyed Hash MAC
- Hash Function Requirements

ONE-WAY HASH FUNCTION An alternative to the message authentication code is the one-way hash function. As with the message authentication code, a hash function accepts a variable-size message *M* as input and produces a fixed-size message digest H(*M*) as output (see Figure 2.4). Typically, the message is padded out to an integer multiple of some fixed length (e.g., 1024 bits) and the padding includes the value of the length of the original message in bits. The length field is a security measure to increase the difficulty for an attacker to produce an alternative message with the same hash value.

Unlike the MAC, a hash function does not take a secret key as input. Figure 2.5


more common approach is the use of a technique that avoids encryption altogether. Several reasons for this interest are pointed out in [TSUD92]:

- Encryption software is quite slow. Even though the amount of data to be encrypted per message is small, there may be a steady stream of messages into and out of a system.
- Encryption hardware costs are nonnegligible. Low-cost chip implementations of DES and AES are available, but the cost adds up if all nodes in a network must have this capability.
- Encryption hardware is optimized toward large data sizes. For small blocks of data, a high proportion of the time is spent in initialization/invocation overhead.
- An encryption algorithm may be protected by a patent.



(c) Using secret value Figure 2.5 **Message Authentication Using a One-Way Hash Function**

This technique, known as a keyed hash MAC, assumes that two communicating parties, say A and B, share a common secret key K. This secret key is incorporated into the process of generating a hash code. In the approach illustrated in Figure 2.5c, when A has a message to send to B, it calculates the hash function over the concatenation of the secret key and the message: $MD_M = \mathrm{H}(K \| M \| K)$.[5] It then sends $[M \| MD_M]$ to B. Because B possesses K, it can recompute $\mathrm{H}(K \| M \| K)$ and verify MD_M. Because the secret key itself is not sent, it should not be possible for an attacker to modify an intercepted message. As long as the secret key remains secret, it should not be possible for an attacker to generate a false message.

Hash Function Requirements The purpose of a hash function is to produce a "fingerprint" of a file, message, or other block of data. To be useful for message authentication, a hash function H must have the following properties:

1. H can be applied to a block of data of any size.
2. H produces a fixed-length output.
3. H(x) is relatively easy to compute for any given x, making both hardware and software implementations practical.
4. For any given code h, it is computationally infeasible to find x such that $H(x) = h$. A hash function with this property is referred to as **one-way** or **preimage resistant**.[6]

[redacted]