



# Security Objectives/Goals: Information System

- CIA triad
- Confidentiality (or secrecy)
  - unauthorized users cannot read information
- Integrity
  - unauthorized users cannot alter information
- Availability
  - authorized users can always access information
- Related properties:
  - Availability: Robustness (critical systems ...)
  - Confidentiality/Integrity : Privacy Protection

# Security Services: processes/communication

- **Security services according to ITU-T X-800 (OSI context) :**
  - **Confidentiality** (prevent acquiring knowledge of some data)
    - Information (application data, network data like headers)
    - Network traffic (metadata revealing information flow between entities)
  - **Integrity**
    - Of data (preventing data modification)
    - Of program and their execution (original code, vulnerabilities)
  - **Authentication**
    - Of data / program origin (prevent the injection of fake data)
    - Of entities (prevent identity theft)
  - **Authorization / Access Control** (prevent unauthorized accesses)
  - **Non-repudiation** (prevent a posteriori denial of a transaction)
    - With proof of origin
    - With proof of delivery
- **More:**
  - traceability and auditing (forensics)
  - monitoring (real-time auditing)
  - multi-level security
  - privacy & anonymity

# How to Realize Security Objectives?

- Approaches:
  - Prevention
    - measures to stop breaches of security goals
  - Detection
    - measures to detect breaches of security goals
  - Reaction
    - measures to recover assets, repair damage, and fight (and deter) offenders
- Good prevention does not make detection & reaction superfluous
  - E.g., breaking into any house with windows is trivial; despite this absence of prevention, detection & reaction still deter burglars
- Defense in depth!!

# Security Mechanisms

- Cryptography
  - for threats related to insecure communication and storage
  - Also used for algorithmic access control
- Logical Access control and Security Architectures
  - for threats related to misbehaving users
  - Definition and defense of a perimeter
  - Data / access protection
  - Access control models (E.g., role-based access control)
- Language-based security
  - for threats related to misbehaving programs
    - typing, memory-safety, modules, packages ...
    - sandboxing
  - E.g., Java, .NET/C#, Rust

# Cryptography: Encryption, Hash Functions, Certificates

# Encryption

- Transforms data (also called plaintexts or cleartexts) into a ciphertext
  - The ciphertext cannot be read by anybody outside those who possess a secret
  - The secret is also called an encryption or decryption key
- Encryption is a mechanism ensuring the confidentiality property
- Kerckhoffs principle (1883):
  - The security of a system must only rely on the ignorance of the key, not that of another parameter
  - No "security by obscurity"



Enigma Machine



Augustin Kerckhoffs

# Symmetric Key Cryptography



- Encryption and decryption are symmetrical and use the same key
- Main problem of symmetric key encryption: key exchange
  - The keys must be exchanged between each pair of communicating entities
  - In practice, one must also distribute secret keys that will be used without these keys being intercepted by eavesdroppers.

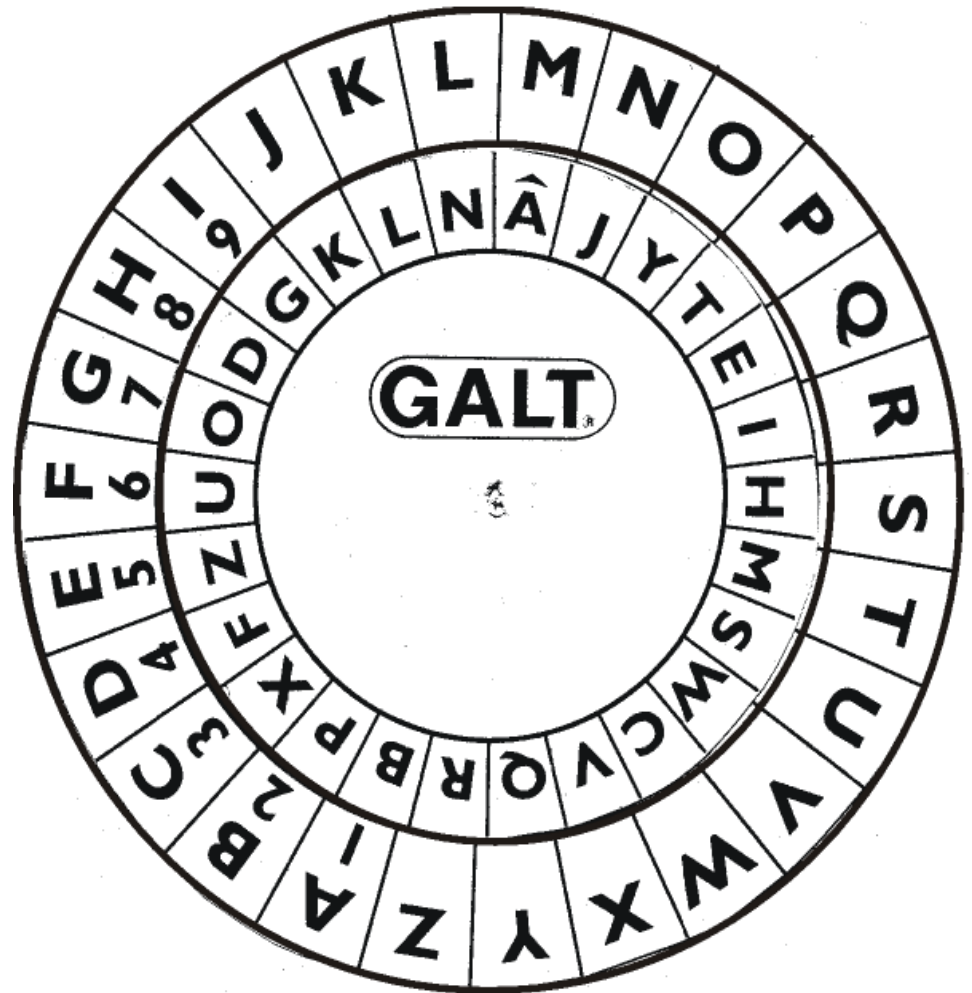


# Encryption - approaches

- Substitution Ciphers
  - Monoalphabetic Ciphers
    - Each letter is substituted by another chosen arbitrarily
    - Weakness: frequential analysis (frequency of occurrence of letters ...)
    - Example: The alphabet is shifted (rotation) - Caesar's cipher (3 shifts)
  - Polyalphabetic substitution Ciphers
    - Permutation of alphabetic symbols
    - Using multiple ciphering alphabets (1 permutation per symbol)
    - The key selects which alphabet is used for each letter
    - Example: Vigenère's cipher
- Permutation Ciphers (or Transposition Ciphers)
  - The letter order is modified without changing their value
  - Permuting input symbols
  - The key identifies the permutation
- Product Ciphers
  - Combination of substitutions and permutations
  - Foundation of modern encryption

# Encryption: Monoalphabetic Substitution

simple shift can be supported by simple hardware (rotating wheel)



# Encryption: Polyalphabetic Substitution

For the « B » letter in the key, a shift of +1 is used in the alphabet.

If the plaintext contains a « R », and the key a « B », the cleartext will be « S »

If the plaintext contains a « E », and the key a « A », the cleartext will remain a « E »

clair =	R	E	N	A	I	S	S	A	N	C	E
clé =	<b>B</b>	<b>A</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>D</b>	B	A	N	D	B	A	N
chiffrement =	S	E	A	D	J	S	F	D	O	C	R



Blaise de Vigenère

# Encryption : Permutation

1	2	3	4	
r	e	n	d	Encryption Key: «3 1 4 2»
e	z	v	o	First line : «nrde»
u	s	d	e	Ciphertext:
m	a	i	n	
a	l	u	n	
i	v	e	r	
s	i	t	e	«nrdeveozduesimnuanleirvtsei»

# Block Ciphers

- Confusion :
  - The relationship between plaintext  $P$  and ciphertext  $C$  statistics must be overly complex to be exploited through cryptanalysis
  - Base Technique: Substitution
- Diffusion :
  - Each symbol of  $P$  and/or  $K$  must influence several symbols of  $C$
  - The plaintext redundancy must be distributed over a ciphertext
  - Base Technique: Permutation (Transposition)

# DES

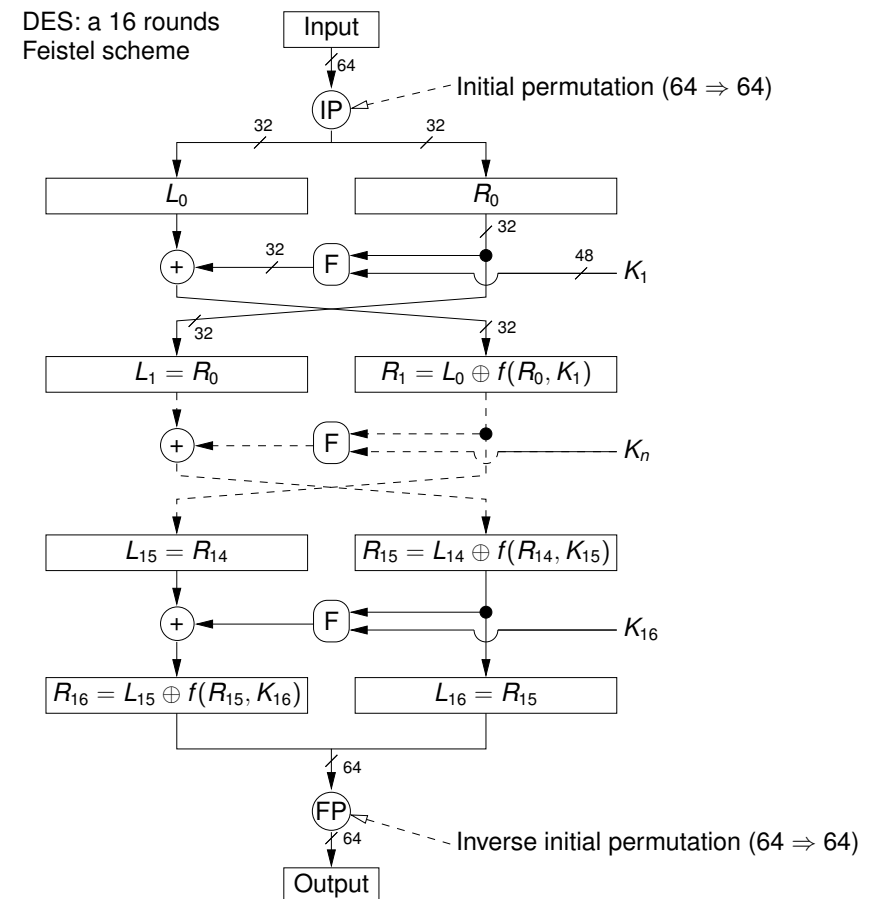
In 1973, the *National Bureau of Standards* of the USA launches a call for a cryptographic system.

In 1975, the Data Encryption Standard (DES), developed by IBM (under the name « Lucifer ») is adopted.

- 64 bit Block Cipher
- 56 bit Key (72 057 594 037 927 936 keys)

# Encryption with DES

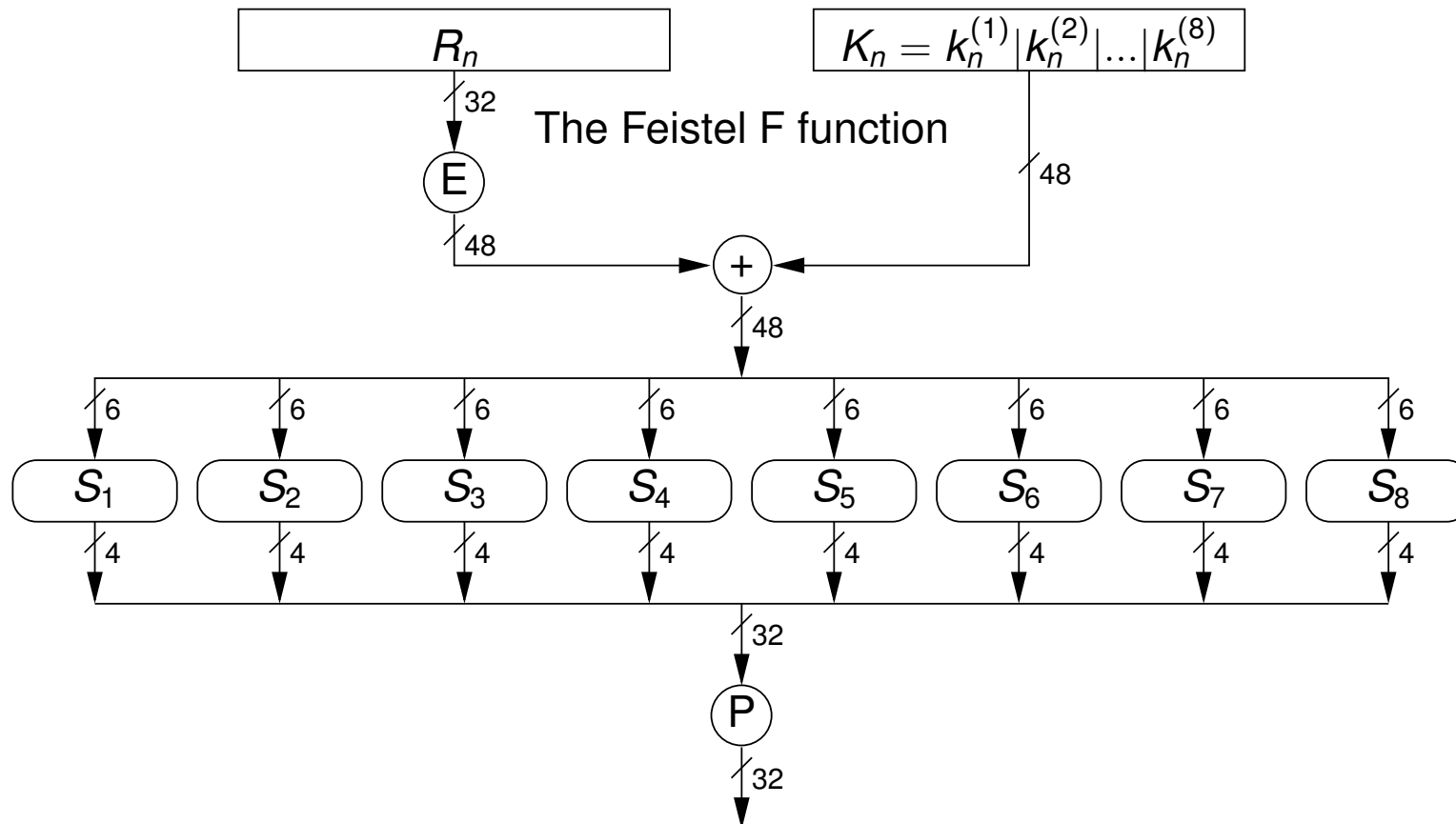
- DES - Data Encryption Standard (1976)
  - Feistel scheme (iterative block encryption)
  - Optimized for hardware implementation
  - 56 bit key, vulnerable to exhaustive key search ( $2^{56}$  possibilities)
  - A computer with 1024 processors running at 1 GHz can explore all keys in a day
  - DES is no longer secure but is now used as Triple DES (DED or EDE).
- Newer standard: AES – Advanced Encryption Standard (2000)
  - 128-256 bit keys



# The Feistel $f$ function in the DES algorithm

- 1) 32 bit transposition towards 48 bits
- 2) Precomputed substitution (stored in tables called S-boxes)

S-Box design (pre-computed substitutions) was widely discussed





# DES: Substitutions / Permutation

- S-boxes (S1-S8) – 6 bits each:

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
S <sub>1</sub>	14	4	13	1	2	15	11	8	3	10	6	12	5	9	0	7
1	0	15	7	4	14	2	13	1	10	6	12	11	9	5	3	8
2	4	1	14	8	13	6	2	11	15	12	9	7	3	10	5	0
3	15	12	8	2	4	9	1	7	5	11	3	14	10	0	6	13

- Line selected after bits 0|5
- Column selected after bits 1|2|3|4
- E.g. 101110 = line 2 (« 10 »), column 7 (« 0111 »)

- Permutation – 32 bits:

P	16	7	20	21	29	12	28	17
1	1	15	23	26	5	18	31	10
2	2	8	24	14	32	27	3	9
19	19	13	30	6	22	11	4	25

# Chaining Modes

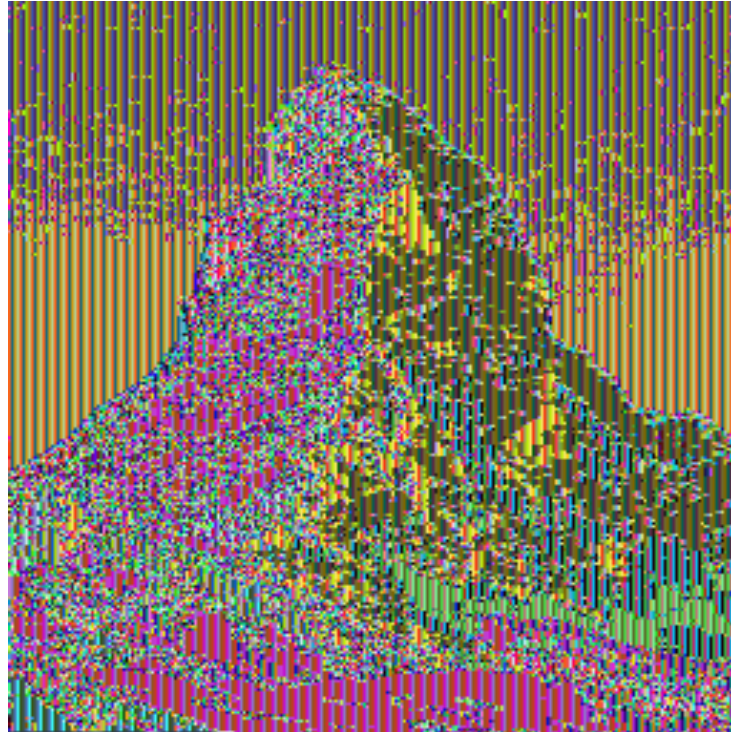
- ❑ Electronic Code Book (ECB) – **Statistical Attacks** against DES in ECB mode !
- ❑ Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)
- ❑ Cipher Feedback (CFB)
- ❑ Output Feedback (OFB)
- ❑ Counter (CTR)
- ❑ CTS, PCBC, XEX, TCB, LRW, XTS ...

**Chaining blocks introduces problems with respect to error propagation and resynchronization ...**

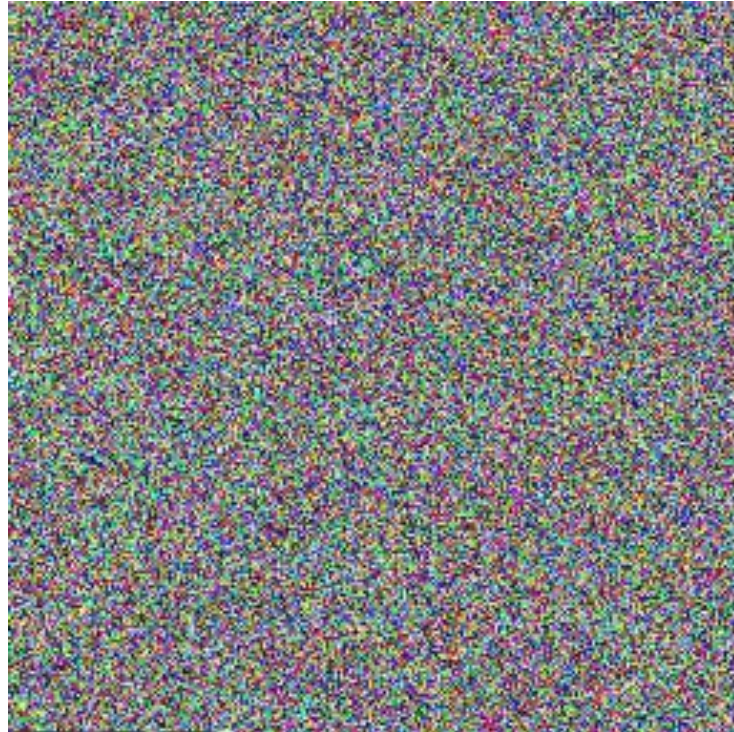
# Plaintext



# DES-ECB Encryption



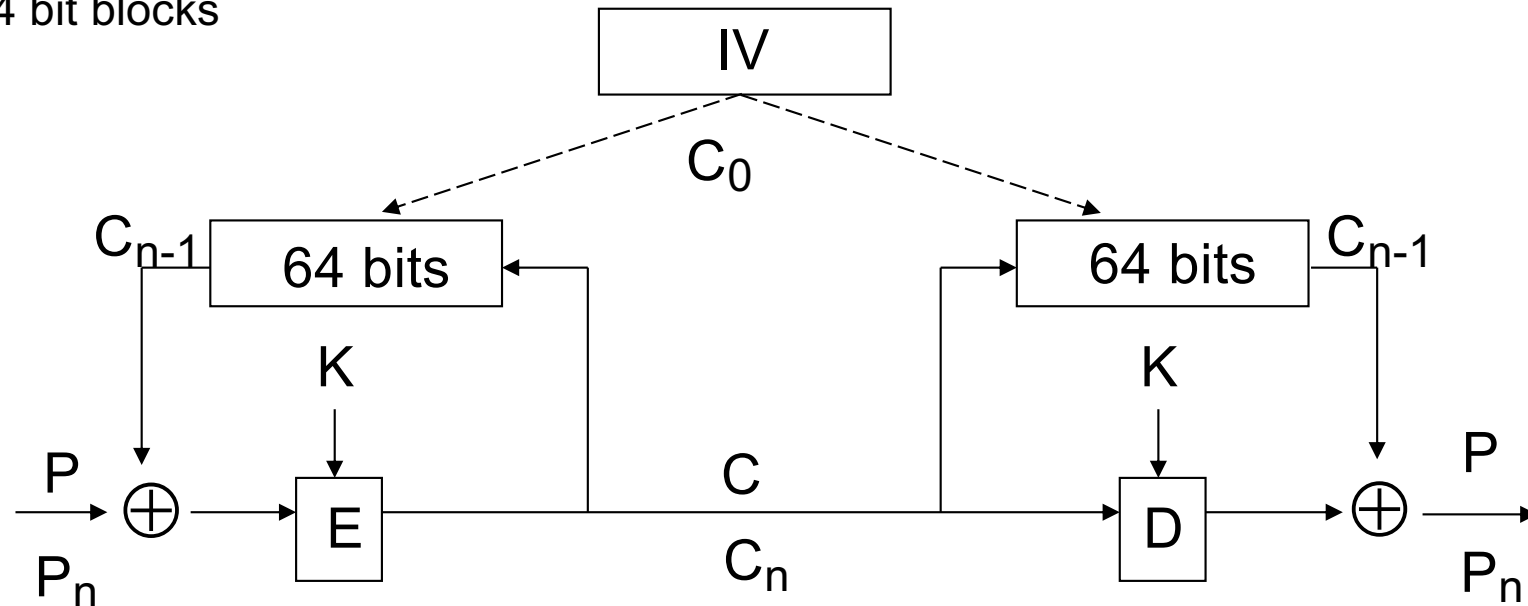
# DES-CBC Encryption



# CBC Mode

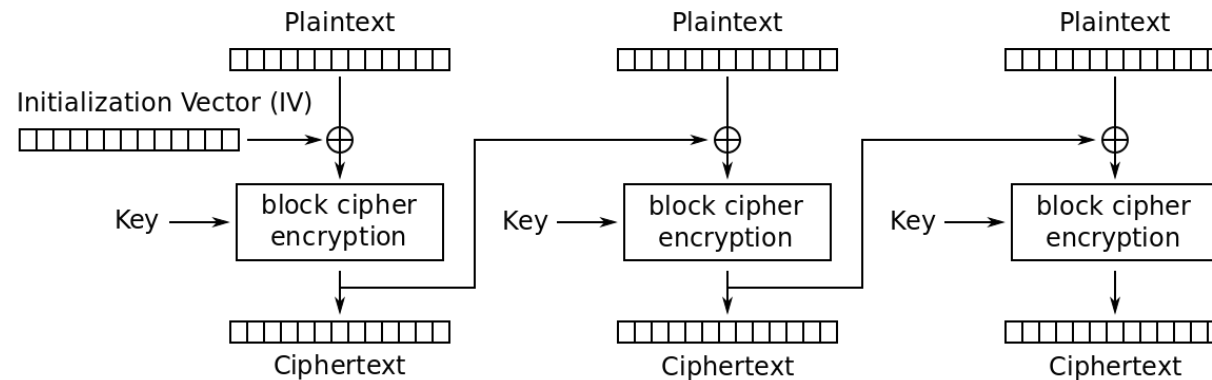
## Cipher Block Chaining

64 bit blocks

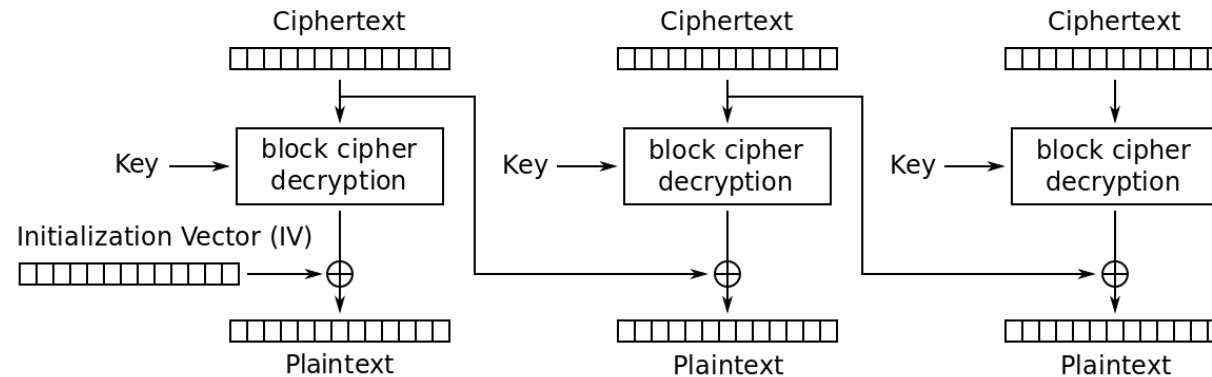


- $C_i = E_K(P_i \oplus C_{i-1})$
- $C_0 = E_K(P_0 \oplus IV)$ , IV (Initialization Vector) transmitted in clear
- $P_i = D_K(C_i) \oplus C_{i-1}$
  
- chaining effect :  $C_i$  depends on all  $P_j$  with  $j \leq i$
- last block in  $C$  : depends on all cleartext blocks
- converts DES into a stream cipher
- 1 encryption / decryption operation per 64 bits

# Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode



Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode encryption

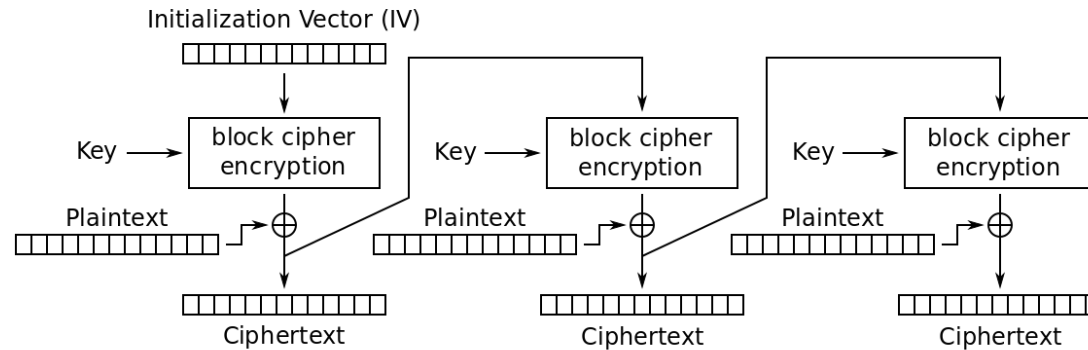


Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode decryption

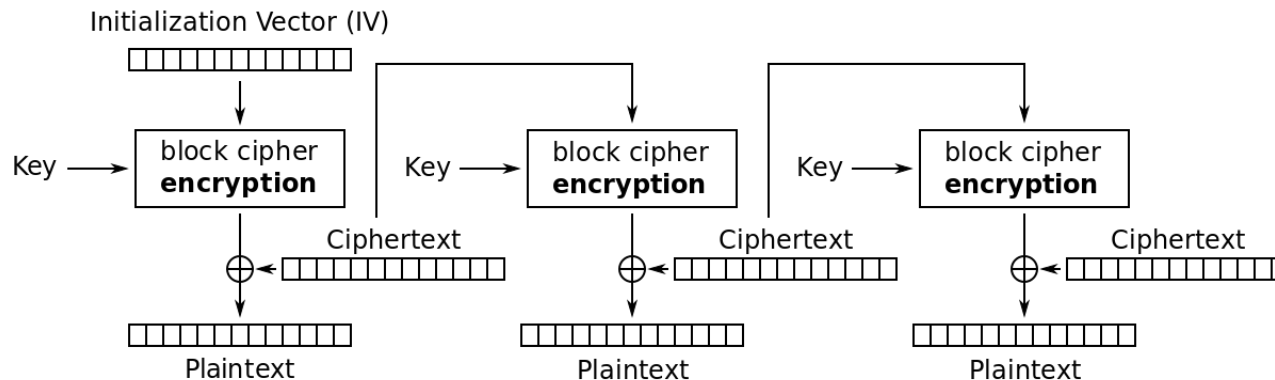
- Computation cannot be parallelized
- Requires padding if text too small (block cipher)

# Cipher Feedback (CFB) Mode

- Sort of stream cipher



Cipher Feedback (CFB) mode encryption

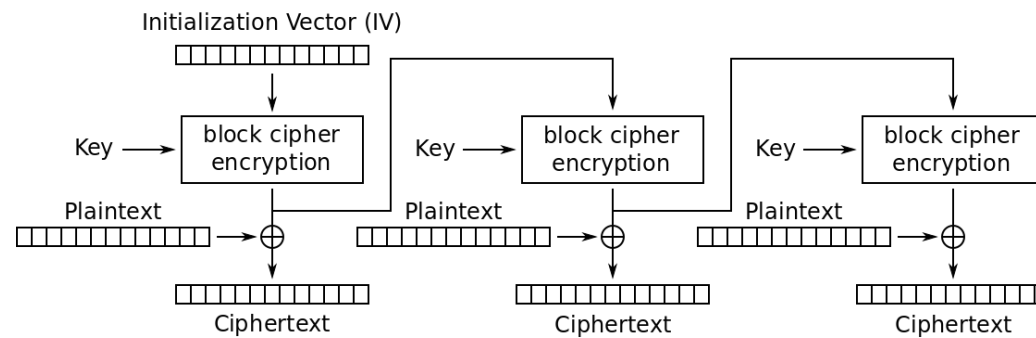


Cipher Feedback (CFB) mode decryption

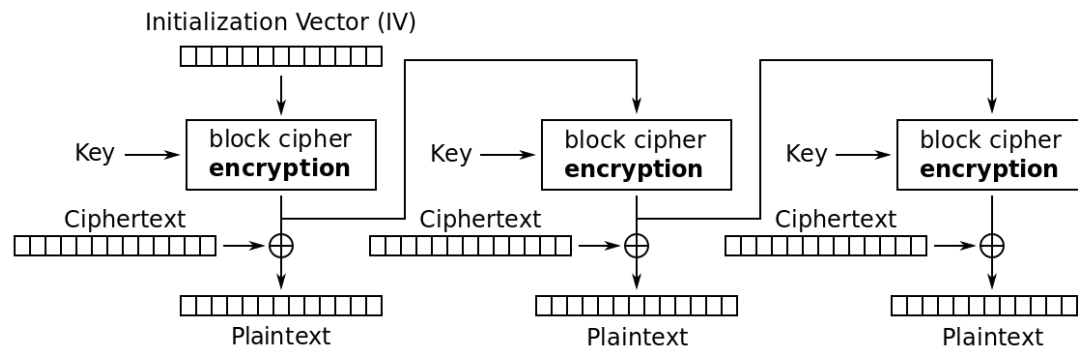


# Output Feedback (OFB) Mode

- Same as CFB except keys can be precomputed

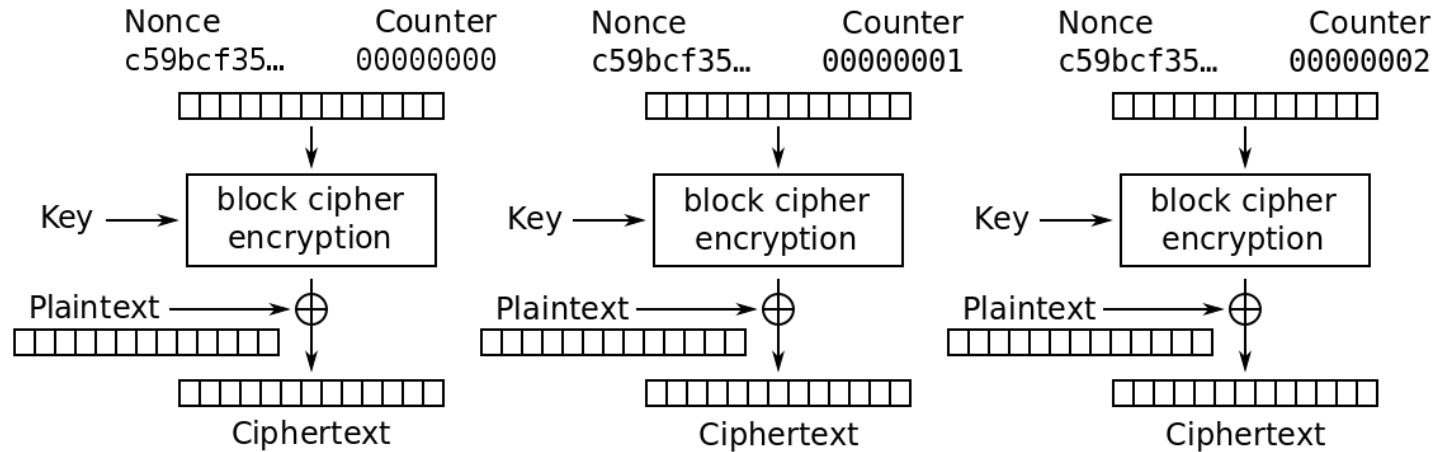


Output Feedback (OFB) mode encryption

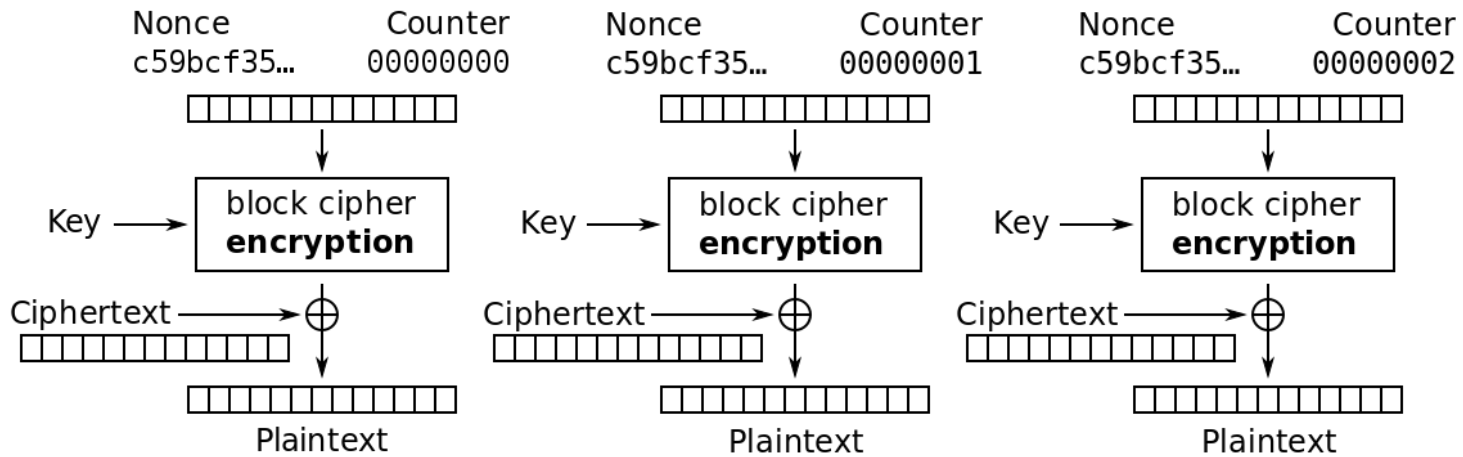


Output Feedback (OFB) mode decryption

# Counter (CTR) Mode

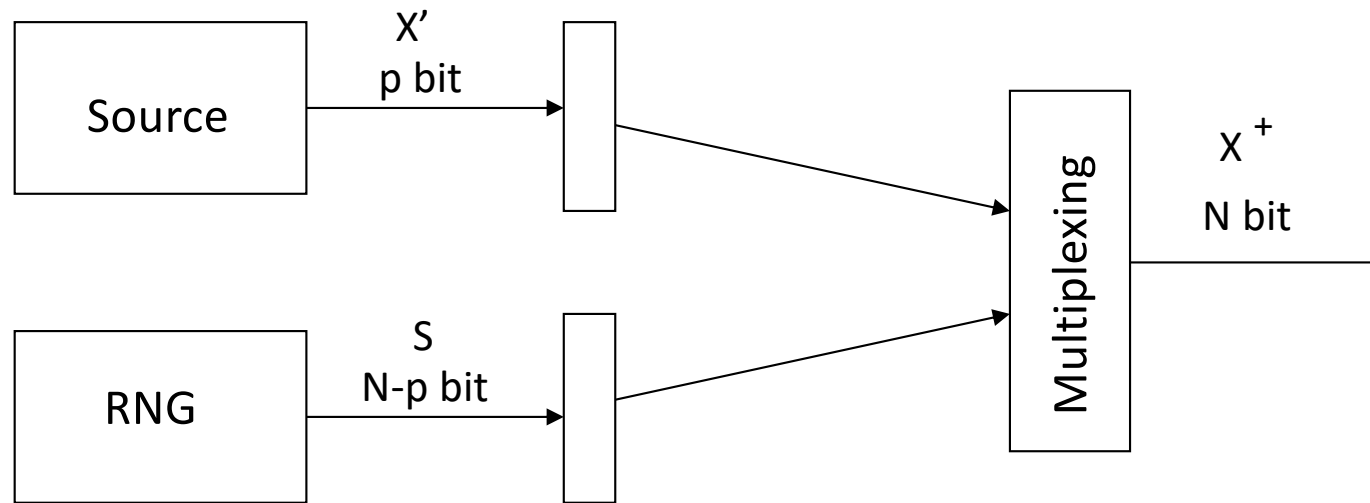


Counter (CTR) mode encryption



Counter (CTR) mode decryption

# Padding



- Two applications:
  - fighting cryptanalysis (e.g., frequency analysis)
  - Adapting cleartext to algorithms (input format size, e.g., 64 bits in DES)
- Example
  - Encryption Algorithm: 56-bit DES key,  $H(K) = 56$  bits
  - Cleartext: 8-bit English coded in ASCII,  $r = 6,7$  bits/character
  - Padding of every source bit with 63 random bits,  $p=1$
- Standards:
  - PKCS#5 and PKCS#7 (Public Key Cryptography Standard), PKCS#1 - RSA-OAEP (Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding), zero padding for hashes (ISO/EIC 10118-1) ...

# Types of attacks

- ***Ciphertext only attacks:***

the attacker knows  $C$  with  $C = E_K(P)$

objectives: find  $P$  and  $K$

- ***Known cleartext attacks:***

the attacker knows  $(P_i, C_i)$  with  $C_i = E_K(P_i)$

objectives: find  $K$

- ***Chosen cleartext attacks:***

the attacker can obtain  $C_i$  starting from a chosen  $P_i$

objectives : find  $K$

the attacks can be adaptive

- ***Chosen ciphertext attacks:***

the attacker can obtain  $P_i$  for a chosen  $C_i$

objectives : find  $K$

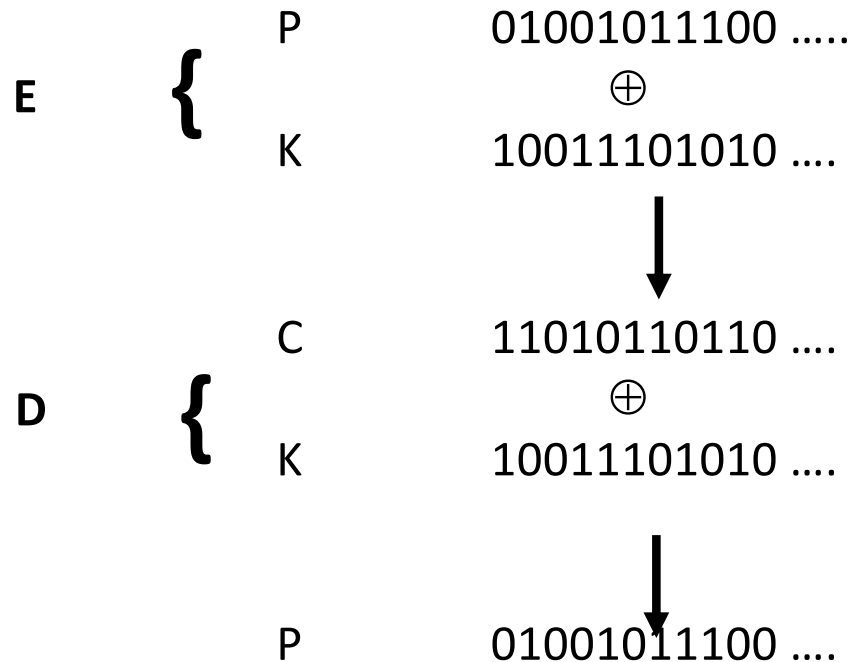
the attacks can also be adaptive

# Security Evaluation

- **Unconditional Security (Perfect Secrecy)** = the system is secure against an attacker with an unlimited amount of time or resources
  - so: is there enough information to compromise the system security?
- **Security through theoretical complexity** = proving that the system is secure against an adversary with polynomial capability.
- **Provable Security** = proving that compromising the system security amounts to solving a problem known as “difficult” (e.g., discrete logarithm, factoring big integers).
- **Computational Security** (practical security) = the system is secure against an attacker with a given time and resources.

# One-time pad: perfect secrecy

## Vernam Cipher



Gilbert Vernam

- Additive group operation
- Implementation using exclusive or (XOR)

# Hash Functions

- A hash function  $h$  is a function which associates to a message  $M$  of any length a message  $h(M)$  (also denoted as  $\{M\}^h$ ) of a constant (generally short) length.
- While  $M$  can be arbitrarily large while  $\{M\}^h$  has a given length

Example: file system hashcodes, error detection codes

# Cryptographic hash functions

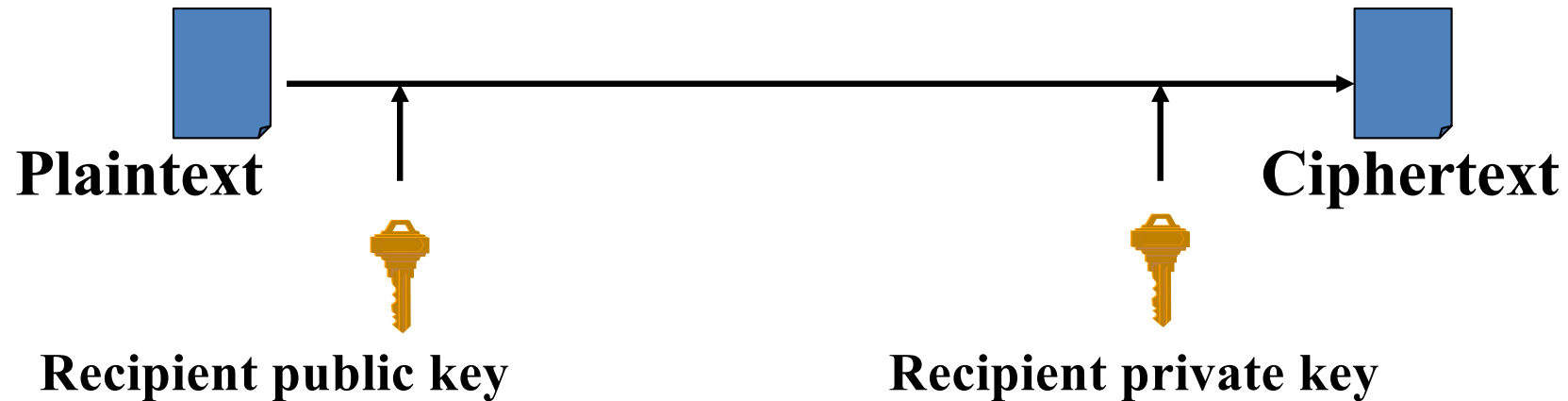
Notable usage: integrity protection, password « storage »

MD5 (do not use!), SHA-1 (DNU!), SHA-256, bcrypt, scrypt, Argon2, ...

- 3 properties:
- Preimage resistance: given  $K$ , it is computationally hard to find  $M$  such that  $h(M)=K$
- 2<sup>nd</sup> Preimage resistance: given  $M$ , it is computationally hard to find  $M'$  distinct from  $M$  such that  $h(M)=h(M')=K$
- Collision-free: it is computationally hard to find  $M$  and  $M'$  distinct from  $M$  such that  $h(M)=h(M')$ 
  - Birthday attacks ...
- It is keyed if its computation depends on a secret information (termed MAC – Message Authentication Code)



# Asymmetric Key Cryptography



- Encryption based on the difficulty to find the inverse solution to a mathematical problem
  - Much more costly than symmetric key encryption
- Diffie-Hellman (1977)
  - Secret sharing :  $(g^a)^b = (g^b)^a = g^{ab} \mod p$
- RSA : Rivest-Shamir-Adleman (1978)
  - Standard solution today
  - $E_{KP}(P) = M^e \mod n$  et  $D_{KS}(C) = M^d \mod n$
  - Les clés  $KP=(e,n)$  et  $KS=(d,n)$  are connected by a mathematical relationship
- Elliptic curves: the new breed

# Diffie-Hellman algorithm

$p$  is a large prime,  $a$  a primitive element of  $Z_p^*$

<i>Known by A</i>	<i>Public</i>	<i>Known by B</i>
$0 < x \leq p-2$	$a, p$	$0 < y \leq p-2$
$a^x \bmod p$	$a^x \bmod p$ $a^y \bmod p$	$a^y \bmod p$
$a^y \bmod p$		$a^x \bmod p$
compute : $(a^y)^x \bmod p$		compute : $(a^x)^y \bmod p$
$= a^{yx} \bmod p$		$= a^{xy} \bmod p$

- A and B establish a shared secret ( $a^{xy} \bmod p$ ) without exchanging any secret information
  - $a^{xy} \bmod p$  may be used as a secret key with a symmetric key algorithm in order to encrypt data
  - relies on the hardness to compute the discrete logarithm

# Public key encryption

The algorithm on an operation whose inverse computation is hard

Modulus:

X	1	2	3	4	5	6
$3^x$	3	9	27	81	243	729
$3^x \bmod 7$	3	2	6	4	5	1

# RSA: Inversibility

## Euler Function

For an integer  $n$ ,  $z = \phi(n)$  is the number of primes with  $n$ .

- if  $n$  is prime  $\phi(n) = n-1$
- if  $n = p.q$  with  $p$  and  $q$  prime

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

## Euler Theorem

If  $a$  and  $n$  are respectively prime

$$a^{\phi(n)} \bmod n = 1$$

## Why RSA works

$$\begin{aligned} D_K(E_k(M)) &= ((M)^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n \\ &= (M^e)^d \bmod n = M^{e.d} \bmod n \end{aligned}$$

But we chose  $e.d = 1 \bmod z$

Thus there exists an integer  $j$  such that  $e.d = jz + 1$

$$M^{e.d} = M^{j.z} M \bmod n = M \bmod n$$

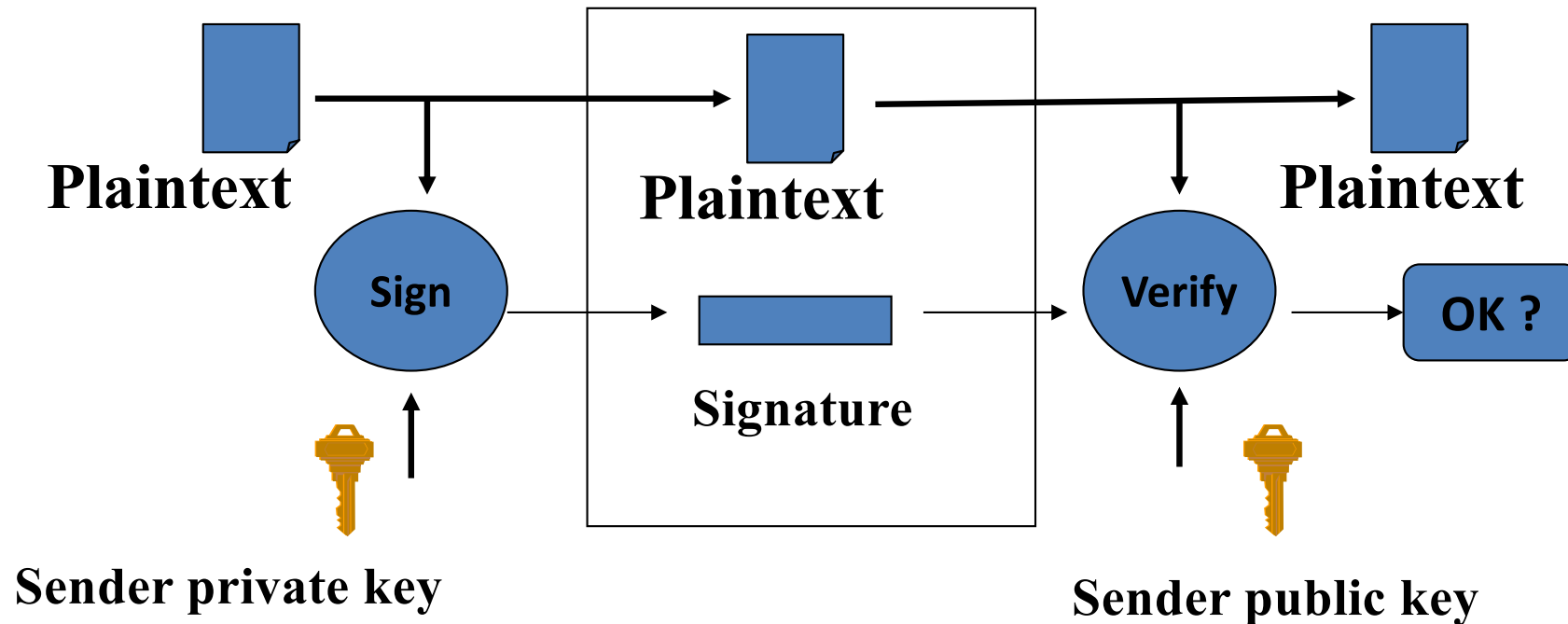
According to Euler theorem:

$$M^{j.z} \bmod n = (M^z)^j \bmod n = (1)^j = 1$$

# RSA: implementation weaknesses

- Never use a value overly small for  $n$ ,
- Never use an overly short private key
- Use only strong keys such that  $p-1$  and  $q-1$  have a large prime factor
- Do not encrypt overly short blocks (always complete them to  $n-1$  bits, so as to destroy any syntactic structure)
- Do not use a  $n$  factor common to several keys if those keys can be used to encrypt the same message
- If a private key  $(d, n)$  is compromised, do not use the other keys using  $n$  as a modulus
- Never encrypt or authenticate a message from a third party without modifying it (by adding a few random bytes for instance)

# Digital Signature



- Comes with a message (which can be encrypted or in cleartext)
- Ensures:
  - The authentication of the origin of a message
  - The protection of the integrity of a message
  - The non repudiation of a message

# Signature using a public key algorithm

E, D : public key algorithm

Generating the signature of A over message M :

$$S = E_{K_{Sa}}(h(M))$$

Verifying the signature :

- compute  $h(M)$
- verify whether  $D_{K_{Pa}}(S) = h(M)$

# Cryptographic Libraries (and APIs)

- C:
  - OpenSSL: <https://www.openssl.org>
  - Cryptlib: <https://www.cryptlib.com>
  - NaCL (Networking and Cryptography): <https://nacl.cr.yp.to>
- Java:
  - JCA/JCE architecture and its implementations (Bouncy Castle: <https://www.bouncycastle.org/fr/>)
  - JAAS for authentication & authorization – notably for J2EE
  - Apache Commons Crypto (OpenSSL wrapper): <https://github.com/apache/commons-crypto>
  - jNaCL: <https://github.com/neilalexander/jnacl>
- Python:
  - NaCL (Networking and Cryptography): <https://nacl.cr.yp.to>
  - pyOpenSSL: <https://www.pyopenssl.org/en/stable/index.html>
  - cryptography: <https://github.com/pyca/cryptography>
- Web:
  - W3C low-level Crypto API (available in browsers): <https://www.w3.org/TR/WebCryptoAPI/>
  - IETF Javascript Object Signing and Encryption (jose): <https://datatracker.ietf.org/wg/jose/about/>



# Public Key Infrastructure (PKI)

- Public key certificates
  - Certifies the association of a name and a key
  - Some certificates can also reference authorizations (permissions)
- Foundational to today's secure and commercial Internet
- Assurances over identity, not trust!
  - Trust = external knowledge
- Example of usage: Thunderbird + Enigmail

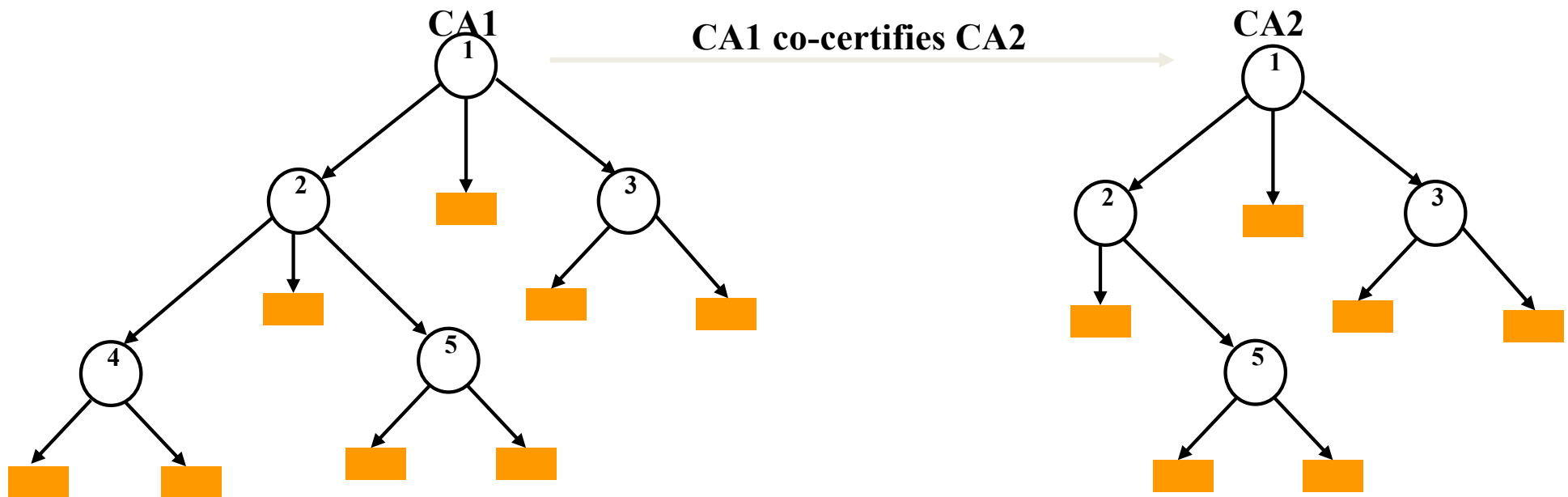


# Certificates

- Introduced in 1978 [Kohnfelder]
- Certificates  $\neq$  Signature
  - Certificates are *implemented using* signatures
- Certificates  $\neq$  Authentication / Authorizations
  - Authentication (resp. authorizations) *can be implemented with* certificates
- X.509 – the current “standard”
  - v.1 (1988) and v.2 – not extensible
  - v.3 (1997) current standard – optional extensions
  - Numerous other proposals extend X.509
- Other standards
  - PGP (notably OpenPGP), SPKI, etc.

# Trust Models in X.509

- Hierarchical Infrastructure
- Possibility to certify between 2 CAs belonging to different trees (co-certification)



# Countermeasures and More Vulnerabilities

- Countermeasures can lead to new vulnerabilities
  - E.g., if we only allow three incorrect logins, as a countermeasure to brute-force attacks (account is frozen), which new vulnerability do we introduce?
    - **Denial of Service attack**
  - If a countermeasure relies on new software, bugs in this new software may mean
    - that it is ineffective, or
    - worse still, that it introduces more weaknesses
    - E.g., Witty worm appeared in Mar 2004 exploited ISS security software
      - [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Witty\\_%28computer\\_worm%29](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Witty_%28computer_worm%29)

# Caveat: insecurities in cryptography

- SSH was meant to provide security, namely as countermeasure against eavesdropping on network, but is a source of new vulnerabilities
- Cryptography is not the cause of these vulnerabilities, and could not solve/prevent these vulnerabilities
  - Protocol, implementation errors (e.g., WEP in WiFi)
  - Programming errors (buffer overflow)
  - Distribution errors (trojan)
- Bruce Schneier: *“Currently encryption is the strongest link we have. Everything else is worse: software, networks, people. There's absolutely no value in taking the strongest link and making it even stronger”*