## Introduction to Computer Security

Chapter 2: Cryptographic Tools

Chi-Yu Li (2020 Spring)
Computer Science Department
National Chiao Tung University

#### Outline

- Confidentiality with Symmetric Encryption
- Message Authentication and Hash Function
- Public-Key Encryption
- Digital Signatures and Key Management
- Random and Pseudorandom Numbers

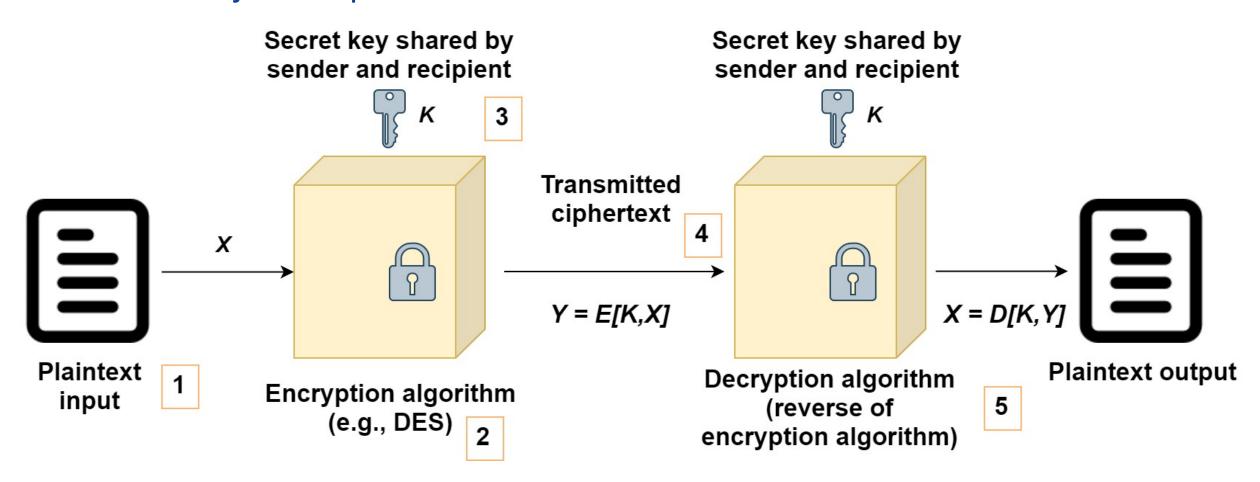
## Confidentiality with Symmetric Encryption

- Symmetric encryption
  - □ Providing confidentiality for transmitted or stored data
  - □ Conventional encryption or single-key encryption

- Two requirements for its secure use
  - ☐ A strong encryption algorithm
    - Opponent: Unable to decrypt ciphertext or discover the key,
       (given pairs of ciphertexts and plaintexts, as well as the algorithm)
  - ☐ Secure key distribution and maintenance

## Simplified Model of Symmetric Encryption

Five major components



## **Attacking Symmetric Encryption**

#### **Cryptanalytic Attacks**

- Exploit
  - Nature of the algorithm
  - ☐ General characteristics of the plaintext
  - Sample plaintext-ciphertext pairs
- Deduce a specific plaintext or the key

#### **Brute-Force Attacks**

- Exploit
  - ☐ Knowledge about the expected plaintext
- Try all possible keys on some ciphertexts
  - ☐ Until an intelligible translation into plaintext is obtained
  - ☐ On average half of all possible keys must be tried to achieve success

## Data Encryption Standard (DES)

- Adopted in 1977 by the NIST (FIPS PUB 46)
  - □ Most widely used encryption scheme: aka Data Encryption Algorithm (DEA)
  - □ 64-bit plaintext blocks and a 56-bit key → 64-bit ciphertext blocks

- Security concerns
  - □ Algorithm: characteristics may be exploited?
    - Most-studied encryption algo: numerous attempts to find weakness, but no fatal one yet
  - ☐ Key length: too short
    - 56 bits  $\rightarrow$  2<sup>56</sup> = 7.2 x 10<sup>16</sup> possible keys (Inadequate for today's processor speed)

<u>FIPS (Federal Information Processing Standard)</u>: describes document processing, encryption algorithms and other technology standards for use within non-military government agencies and by government contractors and vendors who work with the agencies.

## Brute-Force Attacks against DES

- On average, half the key space has to be searched
  - $\Box$  One DES encryption per micro second  $\Rightarrow$  more than 1000 years (3.6 x 10<sup>16</sup> keys)
- In July 1998, EFF broke a DES encryption
  - □ DES cracker: less than \$250,000, less than three days
    - http://cs-exhibitions.uni-klu.ac.at/index.php?id=263
- Encryption speeds advance
  - □ Seagate Technology [SEAG08]
    - Multicore computers (2008): 10<sup>9</sup> per second
  - □ EE Times [AROR12]
    - Contemporary supercomputer (2012): 10<sup>13</sup> per second → break DES within 1 hour



DES cracker circuit board: key discovery in 56 hours

**EFF (Electronic Frontier Foundation):** the leading nonprofit organization defending civil liberties in the digital world

## Triple DES (3DES)

- Part of the DES in 1999: FIPS PUB 46-3
  - □ Repeat basic DES algorithm 3 times using either 2 or 3 unique keys
  - □ A key size of 112 or 168 bits
- Two attractions
  - 168-bit key length: overcomes brute-force attack of DES
  - ☐ Underlying encryption algorithm is the same as in DES
- Two drawbacks
  - □ Sluggish algorithm/software: not efficient software code and three times as DES
  - □ Uses a 64-bit block size: not efficient and not secure

## Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

- AES: now widely available in commercial products
  - A replacement for 3DES
  - 3DES was not reasonable for long term use
- NIST called for proposals for a new AES in 1997
  - ☐ Security strength: equal to or better than 3DES
  - Significantly improved efficiency
  - ☐ Symmetric block cipher
  - □ 128-bit data and 128/192/256 bit keys
- Selected Rijndael Algorithm in Nov. 2001: published as FIPS 197

## Symmetric Block Encryption Algorithms

- Block ciphers: most commonly used symmetric encryption
  - ☐ Fixed-size blocks of plaintext → blocks of ciphertext of equal size

|                              | DES | Triple DES | AES         |
|------------------------------|-----|------------|-------------|
| Plaintext block size (bits)  | 64  | 64         | 128         |
| Ciphertext block size (bits) | 64  | 64         | 128         |
| Key size (bits)              | 56  | 112/168    | 128/192/256 |

## Average Time Required for Exhaustive Key Search

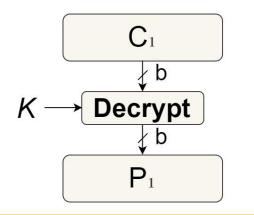
| Cipher     | Number of Alternative<br>Keys        | Time Required<br>at 10 <sup>9</sup><br>decryptions/s  | Time Required<br>at 10 <sup>13</sup><br>decryptions/s   |
|------------|--------------------------------------|---|---|
| DES        | $2^{56} \approx 7.2 \times 10^{16}$  | 2⁵⁵ ns = 1.125<br>years   | 1 hour  |
| AES        | $2^{128} \approx 3.4 \times 10^{38}$ | 2 <sup>127</sup> ns = 5.3 x 10 <sup>21</sup><br>years   | 5.3 x 10 <sup>17</sup> years  |
| Triple DES | $2^{168} \approx 3.7 \times 10^{50}$ | 2 <sup>167</sup> ns = 5.8 x 10 <sup>33</sup> years  | 5.8 x 10 <sup>29</sup> years  |
| AES        | $2^{192} \approx 6.3 \times 10^{57}$ | 2 <sup>191</sup> ns = 9.8 x 10 <sup>40</sup><br>years   | 9.8 x 10 <sup>36</sup><br>years   |
| AES        | $2^{256} \approx 1.2 \times 10^{77}$ | 2 <sup>255</sup> ns = 1.8 x 10 <sup>60</sup> years  | 1.8 x 10⁵6<br>years   |
|            | DES AES AES                          | DES $2^{56} \approx 7.2 \times 10^{16}$ AES $2^{128} \approx 3.4 \times 10^{38}$ Triple DES $2^{168} \approx 3.7 \times 10^{50}$ AES $2^{192} \approx 6.3 \times 10^{57}$ | Cipher     Number of Alternative Keys     at 10° decryptions/s       DES $2^{56} \approx 7.2 \times 10^{16}$ $2^{55} \text{ ns} = 1.125$ years       AES $2^{128} \approx 3.4 \times 10^{38}$ $2^{127} \text{ ns} = 5.3 \times 10^{21}$ years       Triple DES $2^{168} \approx 3.7 \times 10^{50}$ $2^{167} \text{ ns} = 5.8 \times 10^{33}$ years       AES $2^{192} \approx 6.3 \times 10^{57}$ $2^{191} \text{ ns} = 9.8 \times 10^{40}$ years       AES $2^{256} \approx 1.2 \times 10^{77}$ $2^{255} \text{ ns} = 1.8 \times 10^{60}$ |

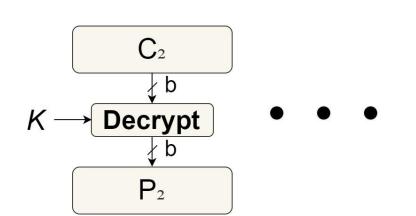
## **Practical Security Issues**

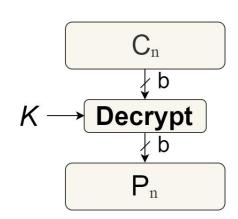
- How to apply the symmetric encryption to a unit of data larger than a single 64-bit or 128-bit block?
  - e.g., E-mail messages, network packets, and database records
- Simplest approach: electronic codebook (ECB)
  - Multiple block encryption
  - Each block of plaintext is encrypted using the same key
- Issue: Cryptanalysts may exploit regularities in the plaintext

#### Illustration of the ECB Mode

Decryption



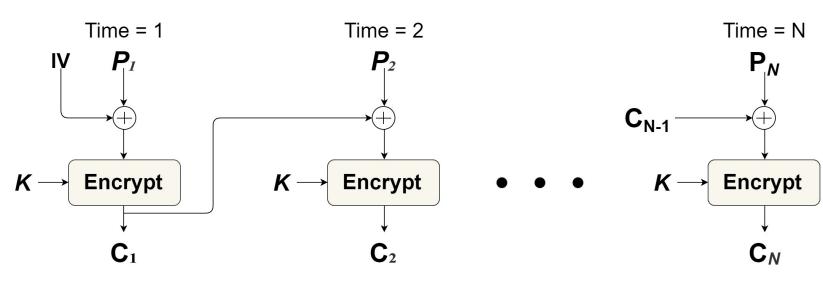




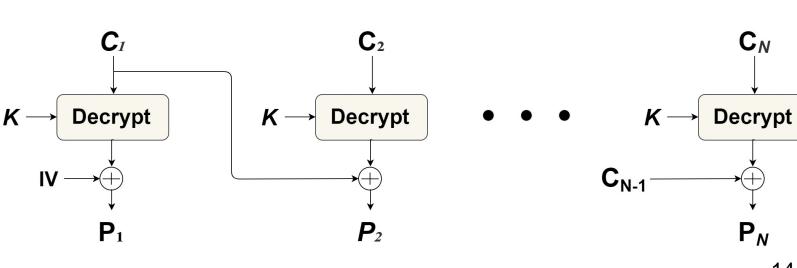
How to address the ECB issue (regularities)?

## **Modes of Operation**

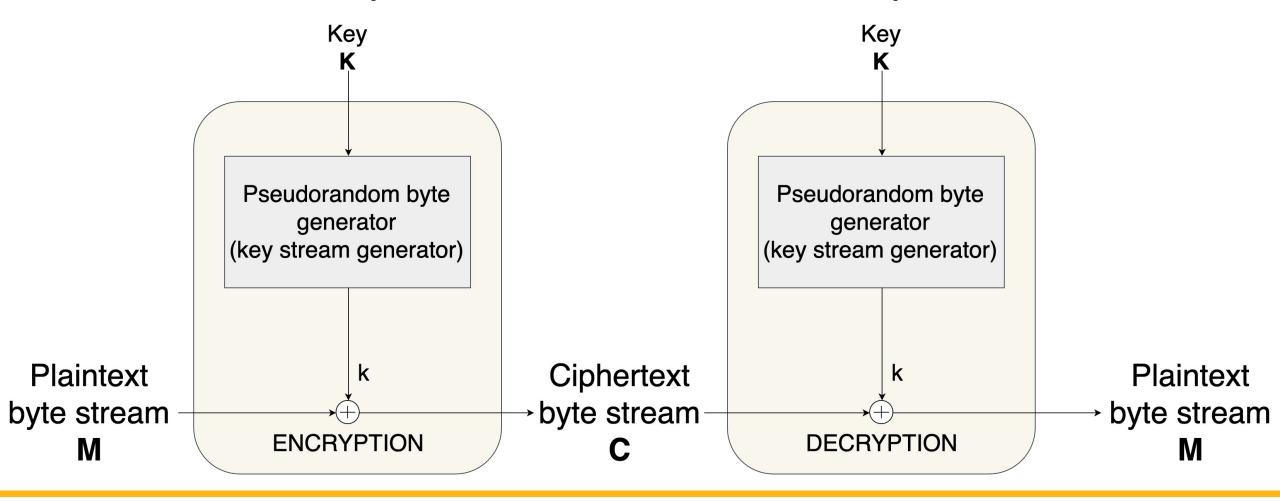
- Five modes of operation defined by NIST
  - **□** ECB, CBC, etc.
- CBC can overcome the weakness of ECB



Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode



## The Other Cipher Method: Stream Cipher



## **Block & Stream Ciphers**

#### **Block Cipher**

- Processing one block at a time
- Each input block → an output block

- Pro: Can reuse keys
  - More common
- Apps: file transfer, e-mail, and database

#### Stream Cipher

- Processing input elements continuously
- One element at a time
  - ☐ Typically: one byte; one bit or larger units are also allowed
- Pro: almost always faster (XOR) and use far less code
- Apps: data stream over a communication channel or a browser/Web link

## Message Authentication and Hash Functions

- Message (data) authentication
  - □ Communicating parties can verify that received/stored messages are authentic
  - Against falsification of data and transactions
- Two major aspects to verify
  - Message contents: not altered
  - Message source: authentic
- Another aspect
  - Message timeliness/sequence: not artificially delayed or replayed

## Can We Use Symmetric Encryption?

- Authentic source
  - Only the sender and the receiver share the key
- No altered contents
  - ☐ An error-detection code

- Proper message timeliness
  - ☐ A sequence number or a timestamp

## Message Authentication w/o Encryption

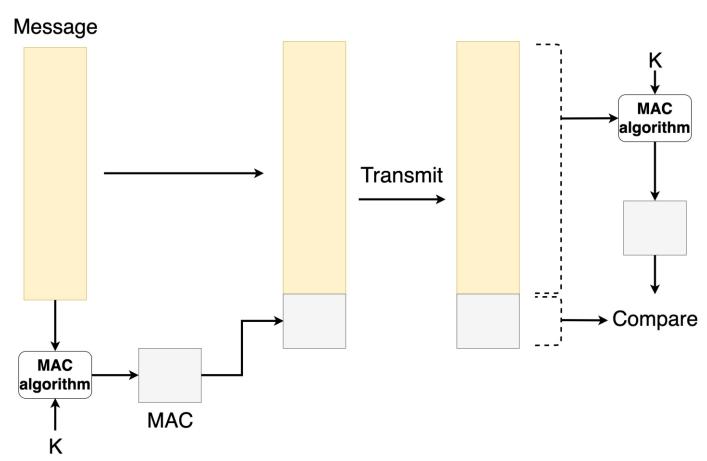
- Message authentication: a separate function from message encryption
  - e.g., a broadcast message to many destinations, not able to decrypt all incoming messages, wasteful of processor resources

- How? an auth. tag is generated and appended to each message
  - Message Authentication Code (MAC)
  - ☐ One-Way Hash Function

#### MAC

 Use a secret key to generate a small block of data

 Assumption: two communicating parties share the secret key



- MAC algorithms: NIST recommends DES
  - □ MAC: last 16- or 32-bit code of the encrypted message

## MAC (Cont.)

- Drawbacks
  - Encryption software is quite slow
  - Encryption hardware costs are non-negligible
  - Encryption hardware is optimized toward large data sizes

Does message authentication really need encryption of the message?

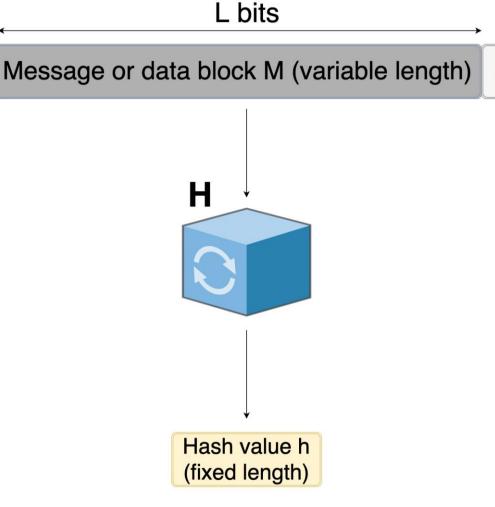
- No. Why?
  - Authentication need not be reversible
  - □ Only need a way to generate a tag which can verify messages

## One-way Hash Function

■ A variable-size message M →
 Tag: a fixed-size message digest H(M)

Unlike MAC

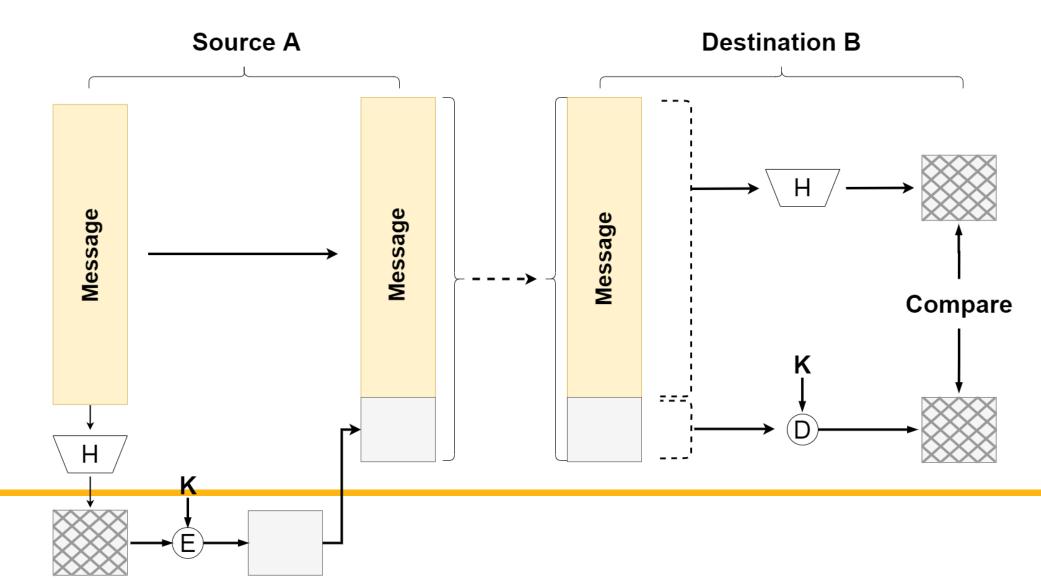
□ does not take a secret key as input



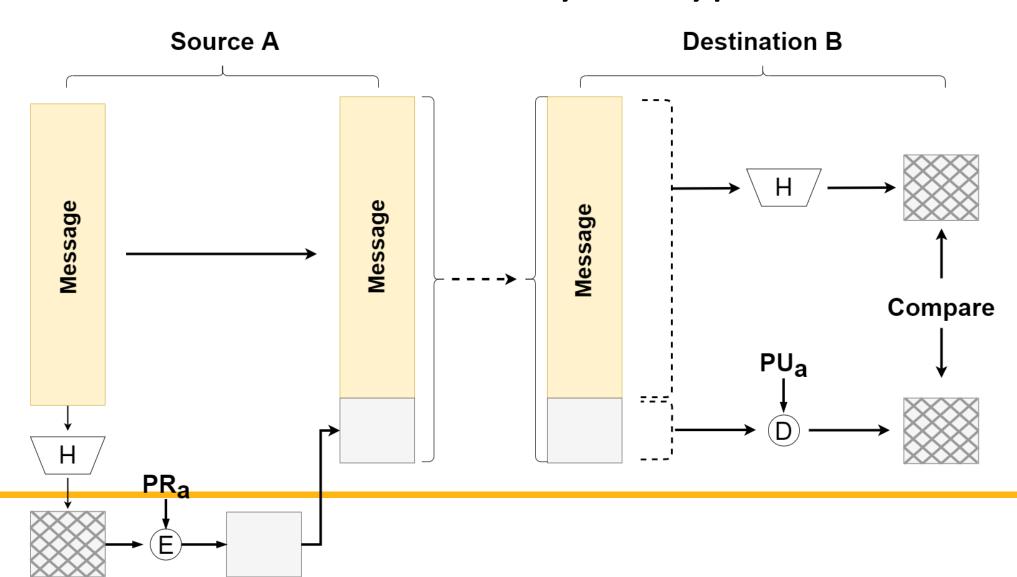
P, L = padding plus length field

The hash value ensures only unaltered contents. How about authentic source?

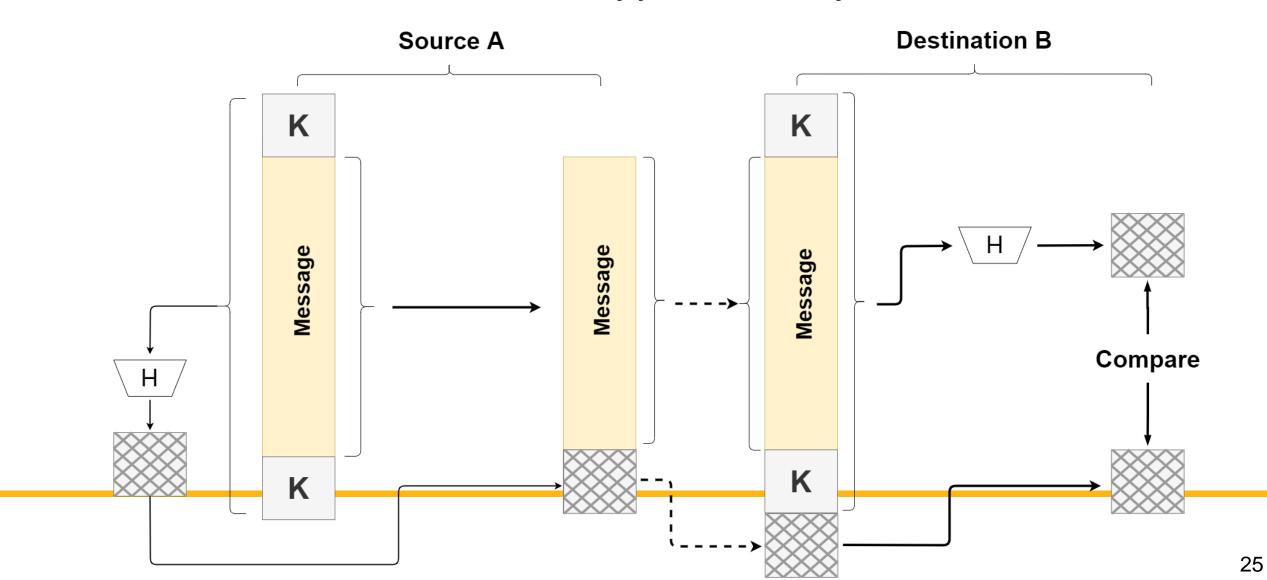
## Hash Function w/ Symmetric Encryption



## Hash Function w/ Public-key Encryption



## Hash Function w/o Encryption: Keyed Hash MAC



#### Secure Hash Functions

- A hash function H must have the following properties
  - □ *H* can be applied to a block of data of any size
  - *H* produces a fixed-length output
  - $\square H(x)$  is relatively easy to compute for any given x
    - Making both hardware and software implementations practical
  - One-way (pre-image resistant)
    - For any given code h, it is computationally infeasible to find x such that H(x) = h
  - ☐ Second pre-image (weak collision) resistant
    - For any given block x, it is computationally infeasible to find  $y \neq x$  with H(y) = H(x)
  - □ Collision (strong collision) resistant
    - It is computationally infeasible to find any pair (x, y) such that H(x) = H(y)

## Security of Hash Functions

- Two attack approaches
  - □ Cryptanalysis: exploits logical weaknesses in algorithms → algorithm dependent
  - Brute-force → solely on the length of the hash code

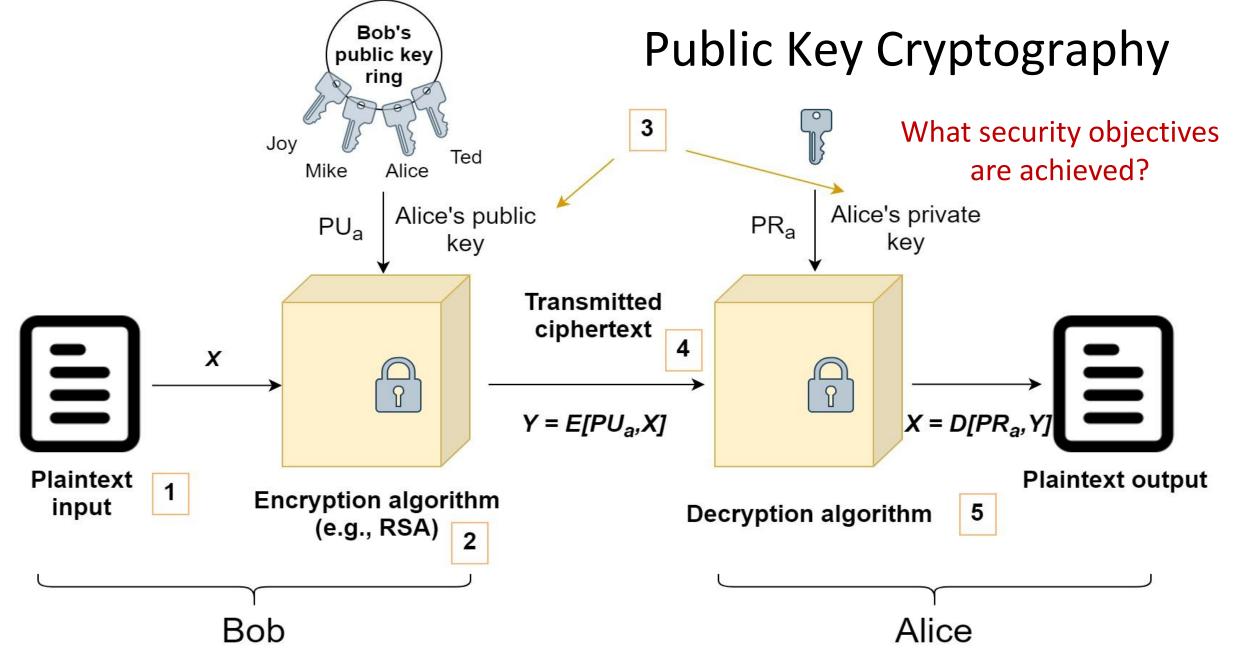
- Security strength against brute-force attacks
  - $\square$  Preimage resistant:  $2^n$
  - $\square$  Second preimage resistant:  $2^n$
  - $\square$  Collision resistant:  $2^{n/2}$ 
    - Based on that a birthday attack on a message digest of size n produces a collision
    - 128-bit MD5 [VANO94]: 24 days
    - 160-bit SHA: > 4000 years

## Security of Hash Functions (Cont.)

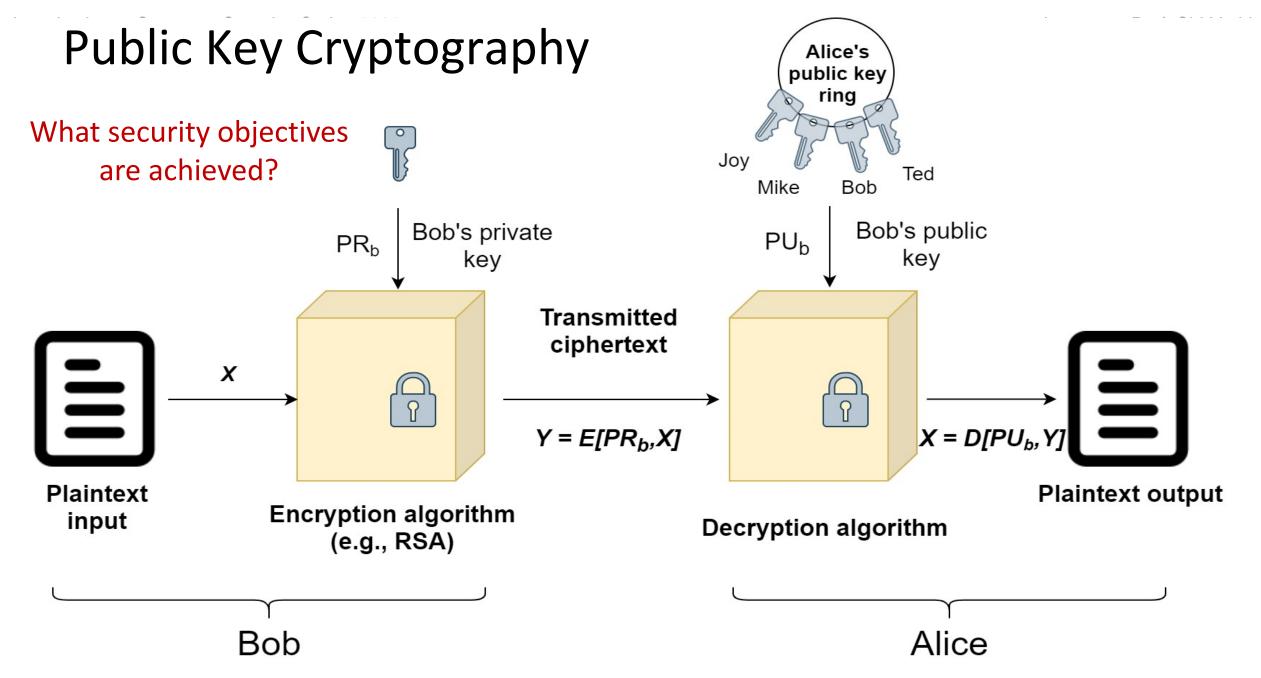
- Most widely used hash algorithm: Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA)
  - □ Developed by NIST, and published in FIPS 180, 1993
  - □ SHA-1 160-bit (1995)
  - □ SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512 (2002)
- Applications of hash functions
  - Message authentication
  - □ Digital signatures (later in this Chapter)
  - □ Passwords (Chapter 3)
  - □ Intrusion detection (Chapter 8)

## Public-Key Encryption

- Public-key cryptography
  - □ Proposed by Diffie and Hellman in 1976
  - Asymmetric algorithm
    - Two separate keys: public and private keys
  - Based on mathematical functions
    - Different from symmetric algorithms: simple operations on bit patterns
- Three common misconceptions for public-key encryption
  - More secure than symmetric ones
  - ☐ A general-purpose technique that has made symmetric ones obsolete
  - Key distribution is trivial



(a) Encryption with public key



(b) Encryption with pribate key

## Requirements for Public-Key Cryptosystems

- Computationally easy
  - ☐ Create key pairs
  - ☐ for sender knowing public key to encrypt messages
  - ☐ for receiver knowing private key to decrypt ciphertext
- Computationally infeasible for opponent knowing public key
  - Determine private key
  - □ Recover original message, which is encrypted by public key
- Either of private and public keys can be used for encryption

## **Encryption Algorithms and Applications**

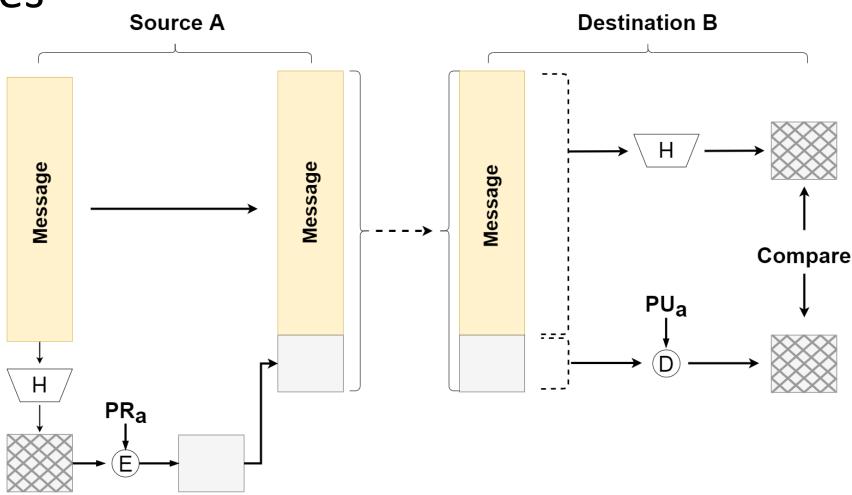
| Algorithm      | Digital Signature | Symmetric Key<br>Distribution | Encryption of Secret<br>Keys |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------|
| RSA            | Yes               | Yes                           | Yes                          |
| Diffie-Hellman | No                | Yes                           | No                           |
| DSS            | Yes               | No                            | No                           |
| Elliptic Curve | Yes               | Yes                           | Yes                          |

## Digital Signatures and Key Management

- Digital signatures
- Public-key certificates: secure distribution of public keys
- Symmetric key exchange using public-key encryption
- Digital envelopes: distribution of secret keys

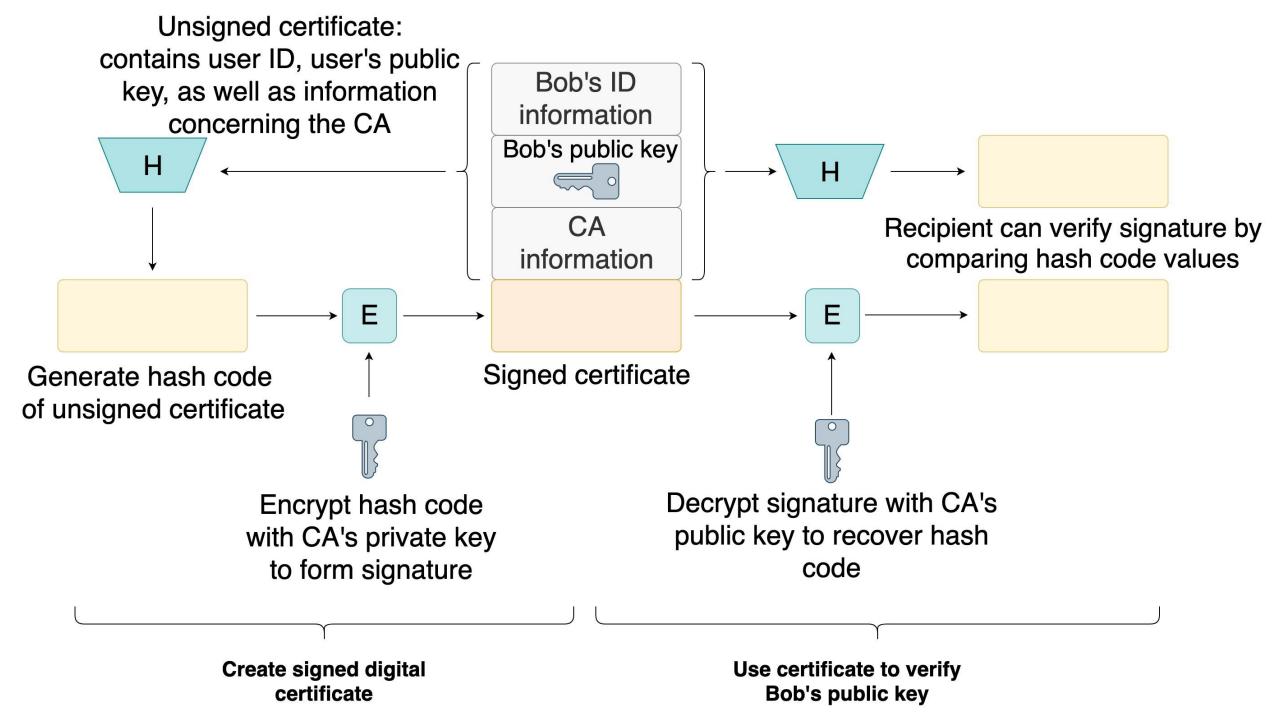
## Digital Signatures

- Encrypts hash code with private key
- What security objectives can be achieved?
- Do they provide confidentiality?



## **Public-Key Certificates**

- Public key distribution
  - ☐ Any person can release his or her public key
  - But anyone can forge such a public announcement
- Solution: public-key certificate
  - ☐ Certificate: a public key + a user ID of the key owner
  - ☐ The whole block signed by a trusted third party, CA (Certificate Authority)
    - CA has to be trusted by the user community (e.g., government)
  - ☐ Certificate also includes CA information and validity period
- X.509 standard: universally accepted certificates
  - ☐ Used in most network security apps: IPSec, TLS, SSH, S/MIME



# Symmetric Key Exchange



■ Major drawback: no authentication of two communicating partners

■ Many variations proposed to overcome this problem



Alice

Alice and Bob share a prime q and α, such that α < q and α is a primitive root of q

Alice generates a private key X<sub>A</sub> such that X<sub>A</sub> < q

Alice calculates a public key  $Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \mod q$ 

YA

Alice receives Bob's public key Y<sub>B</sub> in plaintext

Alice calculates shared secret key K = (Y<sub>B</sub>)<sup>X<sub>A</sub></sup> mod q



Bob

Alice and Bob share a prime q and α, such that α < q and α is a primitive root of q

Bob generates a private key X<sub>B</sub> such that X<sub>B</sub> < q

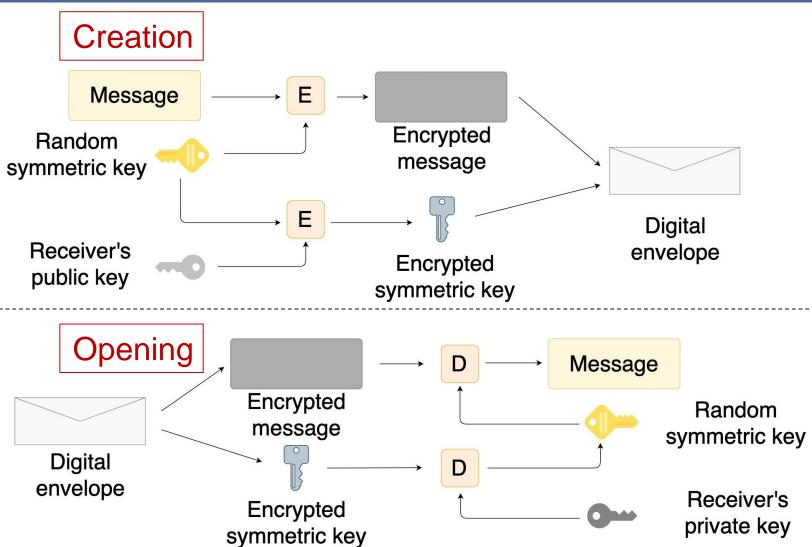
Bob calculates a public key  $Y_B = \alpha^{X_B} \mod q$ 

Bob receives Alice's public key Y<sub>A</sub> in plaintext

Bob calculates shared secret key K =  $(Y_A)^{X_B}$ mod q

## **Digital Envelopes**

- Protect a message
   without having the same
   secret key between
   sender/receiver
  - Equate to the same thing as a sealed envelope containing a letter
- Can also be used to deliver a symmetric key only



#### Random Numbers

- Used for generation of
  - ☐ Keys for public-key algorithms, stream keys for symmetric stream cipher, symmetric keys, etc.
- Two distinct requirements
  - Randomness
    - Uniform distribution: frequency of each number should be roughly the same
    - Independence: no one value can be inferred from the others
  - Unpredictability
    - Not so much that the sequence of numbers be statistically random
    - But, the successive members of the sequence are unpredictable

#### Random vs. Pseudorandom

- Pseudorandom: its use is widely accepted
  - Apps typically use deterministic algorithms
  - □ Sequences: not statistically random, but can satisfy statistical randomness tests
- Random: true random number generator (TRNG)
  - ☐ Use a nondeterministic source to produce randomness
  - Most operate by measuring unpredictable natural processes
    - E.g., radiation, gas discharge, leaky capacitors, thermal noise
  - □ Increasing provided on modern chips

# Questions?