

# **Network Security**

## **<CH 2>**

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# Crypto

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- Cryptography – the science and art of designing ciphers (making 'secret codes')
- Cryptanalysis – the science and art of breaking them (breaking 'secret codes')
- Cryptology – the study of both
- Crypto – all of the above (context-aware)

# Basic Definitions

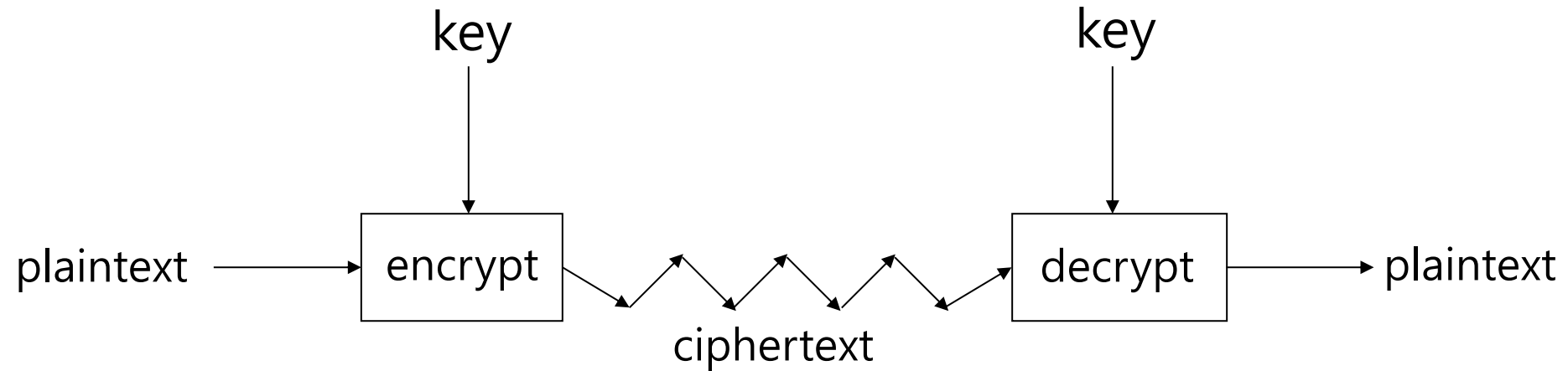
- A *cipher* or *cryptosystem* is used to *encrypt* the *plaintext(cleartext)*
- The result of encryption is *ciphertext*
- We *decrypt* ciphertext to recover plaintext
- Some building blocks: block ciphers, stream ciphers, hash functions
- Or key-based classifications: 1 key, 2 keys, ...
- A *key* is used to configure a cryptosystem
- A *symmetric key* cryptosystem uses the same key to encrypt as to decrypt
- A *public key(asymmetric key)* cryptosystem uses a *public key* to encrypt and a *private key* to decrypt

# Crypto

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- Basic assumptions
  - The system is completely known to the attacker
  - Only the key is secret
  - That is, crypto algorithms are not secret
- Why do we make this assumption?
  - Experience has shown that secret algorithms are weak when exposed
  - Secret algorithms never remain secret
  - Better to find weaknesses beforehand

# Crypto as Black Box



A generic view of symmetric key crypto

# Historic Example of Simple ciphers

**Shift Cipher:** Treat letters  $\{A, \dots, Z\}$  like integers  $\{0, \dots, 25\} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$ . Chose key  $K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}$ , *encrypt* by addition modulo 26, *decrypt* by subtraction modulo 26.

Example with  $K=25$ : IBM  $\rightarrow$  HAL.

With  $K = 3$  known as *Caesar Cipher*, with  $K = 13$  known as rot13.

The tiny key space size 26 makes *brute force* key search trivial.

**Transposition Cipher:**  $K$  is permutation of letter positions.

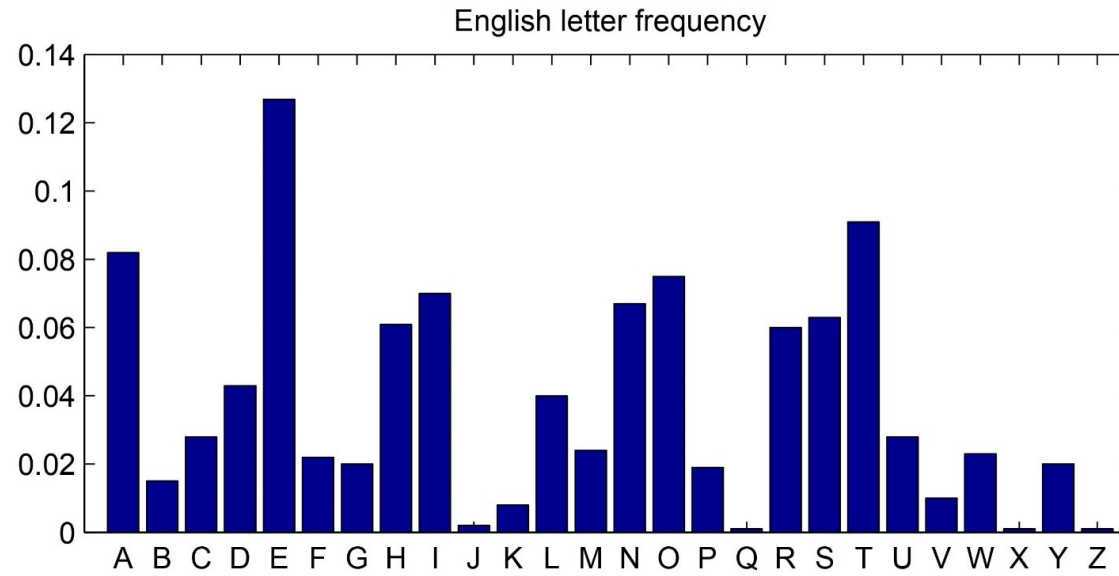
Key space is  $n!$ , where  $n$  is the permutation block length.

**Substitution Cipher (monoalphabetic):** Key is permutation  $K : \mathbb{Z}_{26} \leftrightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{26}$ . Encrypt plaintext  $P = p_1 p_2 \dots p_m$  with  $c_i = K(p_i)$  to get ciphertext  $C = c_1 c_2 \dots c_m$ , decrypt with  $p_i = K^{-1}(c_i)$ .

Key space size  $26! > 4 \times 10^{26}$  makes brute force search infeasible.

Monoalphabetic substitution ciphers allow easy ciphertext-only attack with the help of language statistics (for messages that are at least few hundred characters long):

# Historic Example of Simple ciphers



The most common letters in English:

E, T, A, O, I, N, S, H, R, D, L, C, U, M, W, F, G, Y, P, B, V, K, ...

The most common digrams in English:

TH, HE, IN, ER, AN, RE, ED, ON, ES, ST, EN, AT, TO, ...

The most common trigrams in English:

THE, ING, AND, HER, ERE, ENT, THA, NTH, WAS, ETH, FOR, ...

# Historic Example of Simple ciphers

## Vigenère cipher

Inputs:

→ Key word  $K = k_1 k_2 \dots k_n$

→ Plain text  $P = p_1 p_2 \dots p_m$

Encrypt into ciphertext:

$$c_i = (p_i + k_{[(i-1) \bmod n] + 1}) \bmod 26.$$

Example:  $K = \text{SECRET}$

S	E	C	R	E	T	S	E	C	...
A	T	T	A	C	K	A	T	D	...
S	X	V	R	G	D	S	X	F	...

The modular addition can also be replaced with XOR or any other group operator available on the alphabet. Vigenère is an example of a *polyalphabetic* cipher.

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ  
BCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZA  
CDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZAB  
DEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABC  
EFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCD  
FGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDE  
GHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEF  
HIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFG  
IJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGH  
JKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHI  
LMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJK  
MNOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKL  
NOPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLM  
OPQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMN  
PQRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNO  
QRSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOP  
RSTUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQ  
STUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQR  
TUVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRS  
UVWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRST  
VWXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTU  
WXYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTU  
XYZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUV  
YZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVW  
ZABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXY



# Historic Example of Simple ciphers

## Perfect secrecy

- Computational security – The most efficient known algorithm for breaking a cipher would require far more computational steps than any hardware available to an opponent can perform.
- Unconditional security – The opponent has not enough information to decide whether one plaintext is more likely to be correct than another, even if unlimited computational power were available.

Perfect secrecy means that the cryptanalyst's a-posteriori probability distribution of the plaintext, after having seen the ciphertext, is identical to its a-priori distribution. In other words: looking at the ciphertext leads to no new information.

C.E. Shannon: Communication theory of secrecy systems. Bell System Technical Journal, Vol 28, Oct 1949, pp 656–715. <http://netlab.cs.ucla.edu/wiki/files/shannon1949.pdf>

from Introduction to Security by Markus Kuhn  
<http://www.cl.cam.ac.uk/teaching/0708/IntroSec/>

# Historic Example of Simple ciphers

## Vernam cipher / one-time pad

The one-time pad is a variant of the Vigenère Cipher with  $m = n$ . The key is as long as the plaintext, and no key letter is ever used to encrypt more than one plaintext letter.

For each possible plaintext  $P$ , there exists a key  $K$  that turns a given ciphertext  $C$  into  $P = D(K, C)$ . If all  $K$  are equally likely, then also all  $P$  will be equally likely for a given  $C$ , which fulfills Shannon's definition of perfect secrecy.

One-time pads have been used intensively during significant parts of the 20th century for diplomatic communications security, e.g. on the telex line between Moscow and Washington. Keys were generated by hardware random bit stream generators and distributed via trusted couriers.

In the 1940s, the Soviet Union encrypted part of its diplomatic communication using recycled one-time pads, leading to the success of the US decryption project VENONA.

<http://www.nsa.gov/venona/>

# One-Time Pad: Encryption

e=000   h=001   i=010   k=011   l=100   r=101   s=110   t=111

**Encryption:** Plaintext  $\oplus$  Key = Ciphertext

	h	e	i	l	h	i	t	l	e	r
Plaintext:	001	000	010	100	001	010	111	100	000	101
Key:	111	101	110	101	111	100	000	101	110	000
Ciphertext:	110	101	100	001	110	110	111	001	110	101
	s	r	l	h	s	s	t	h	s	r

# One-Time Pad: Decryption

e=000   h=001   i=010   k=011   l=100   r=101   s=110   t=111

**Decryption:** Ciphertext  $\oplus$  Key = Plaintext

	s	r	l	h	s	s	t	h	s	r
Ciphertext:	110	101	100	001	110	110	111	001	110	101
Key:	111	101	110	101	111	100	000	101	110	000
Plaintext:	001	000	010	100	001	010	111	100	000	101
	h	e	i	l	h	i	t	l	e	r

# One-Time Pad

Double agent claims sender used following "key"

	s	r	l	h	s	s	t	h	s	r
Ciphertext:	110	101	100	001	110	110	111	001	110	101
"key":	101	111	000	101	111	100	000	101	110	000
"Plaintext":	011	010	100	100	001	010	111	100	000	101
	k	i	l	l	h	i	t	l	e	r

e=000    h=001    i=010    k=011    l=100    r=101    s=110    t=111

# One-Time Pad Summary

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- **Provably secure...** (= **unconditionally secure**)  
(= ensuring **Perfect Secrecy**)
  - Ciphertext provides **no** information about plaintext
  - All plaintexts are equally likely
- ...but, only when be used correctly
  - Pad must be random, used only once
  - Pad is known only to sender and receiver
- Note: pad (key) is same size as message
- So, why not distribute msg instead of pad?

# Cryptanalysis: Terminology

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- Cryptosystem is **secure** if best known attack is to try all keys
  - that is, Exhaustive key search
- Cryptosystem is **insecure** if *any* shortcut attack is known

# Codebook Cipher

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- Literally, a book filled with “codewords”
- [Zimmerman Telegram](#) encrypted via codebook

Februar	13605
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fest	13732
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finanzielle	13850
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folgender	13918
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Frieden	17142
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Friedenschluss	17149
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# Zimmerman Telegram

- Perhaps most famous codebook ciphertext ever
- A major factor in U.S. entry into World War I

WESTERN UNION TELEGRAM

Send the following telegram, subject to the terms on back hereof, which are hereby agreed to

GERMAN LEGATION  
MEXICO CITY

via Galveston

JAN 20 1917

130	13042	13401	8501	115	3528	416	17214	6491	11310
18147	18222	21560	10247	11518	23677	13605	3494	14936	
98092	5905	11311	10392	10371	0302	21290	5161	59695	
23571	17504	11269	18276	18101	0317	0228	17694	4473	
23284	22200	19452	21589	67893	5569	13918	8958	12137	
1333	4725	4458	5905	17166	15851	4458	17149	14471	6706
13850	12224	6929	14991	7382	15857	67893	14218	36477	
5870	17553	67893	5870	5454	16102	15217	22801	17138	
21001	17388	7440	23638	18222	6719	14331	15021	23845	
3158	23552	22096	21604	4797	9497	22404	20855	4377	
23610	18140	22260	5905	13347	20420	39689	13732	20667	
6929	5275	18507	52262	1340	22049	13339	11265	22295	
10439	14814	4178	6992	8784	7632	7357	6926	52262	11267
21100	21272	9346	9559	22464	15874	18502	18500	15857	
2188	5376	7381	98092	16127	13486	9350	9220	76036	14219
5144	2831	17920	11347	17142	11264	7667	7762	15099	9110
10482	97556	3569	3670						

Charge German Embassy.

# Zimmerman Telegram Decrypted

- British had recovered partial codebook
- Then able to fill in missing parts
- Modern **block ciphers** are codebooks!

MAILED  
October 1-8-58  
Mr. [illegible], State Dept.  
By *Wm. A. Echhoff, Assistant*  
Date *Oct. 22, 1918*

TELEGRAM RECEIVED.

FROM 2nd from London # 5747.

"We intend to begin on the first of February unrestricted submarine warfare. We shall endeavor in spite of this to keep the United States of America neutral. In the event of this not succeeding, we make Mexico a proposal of alliance on the following basis: make war together, make peace together, generous financial support and an understanding on our part that Mexico is to reconquer the lost territory in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. The settlement in detail is left to you. You will inform the President of the above most secretly as soon as the outbreak of war with the United States of America is certain and add the suggestion that he should, on his own initiative, <sup>invite</sup> ~~write~~ Japan to immediate adherence and at the same time mediate between Japan and ourselves. Please call the President's attention to the fact that the ruthless employment of our submarines now offers the prospect of compelling England in a few months to make peace." Signed, ZIMMERMAN.

# Security Models: types of cipher

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- Random functions – hash functions  
: accepts an input string of any length and outputs a string of fixed length, say  $n$  bits long
- Random generators – stream ciphers  
: (reverse of hash function?) accepts a short input and produces a long output
- Random permutations – block ciphers  
: keyed-invertible function transfers a fixed-size input to a fixed size output and vice-versa
- Public key encryption(special kind of block cipher):  
: encrypt for anyone, but decrypt for only key owner
- Digital signatures  
: sign by only key owner, but checked by anyone

# Cryptographic Hash Function

- Cryptographic hash function  $h(x)$  must provide
  - **Compression** — output length is small
  - **Efficiency** — easy to compute  $h(x)$  for any  $x$
  - **One-way** — given a value  $y$  it is infeasible to find an  $x$  such that  $h(x) = y$
  - **Weak collision resistance** — given  $x$  and  $h(x)$ , infeasible to find  $y \neq x$  such that  $h(y) = h(x)$
  - **Strong collision resistance** — infeasible to find *any*  $x$  and  $y$ , with  $x \neq y$  such that  $h(x) = h(y)$
- Lots of collisions exist, but hard to find *any*
- <https://www.convertstring.com/ko/Hash/SHA256>

# Pre-Birthday Problem

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- Suppose  $N$  people in a room
- How large must  $N$  be before the probability someone has same birthday as me is  $\geq 1/2$  ?
  - Solve:  $1/2 = 1 - (364/365)^N$  for  $N$
  - We find  $N = 253$

# Birthday Paradox

With 23 random people in a room, there is a 0.507 chance that two share a birthday. This perhaps surprising observation has important implications for the design of cryptographic systems.

If we randomly throw  $k$  balls into  $n$  bins, then the probability that no bin contains two balls is

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{2}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{n}\right) = \prod_{i=1}^{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{n}\right) = \frac{n!}{(n-k)! \cdot n^k}$$

It can be shown that this probability is less than  $\frac{1}{2}$  if  $k$  is slightly above  $\sqrt{n}$ . As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the expected number of balls needed for a collision is  $\sqrt{n\pi/2}$ .

One consequence is that if a  $2^n$  search is considered computationally sufficiently infeasible, then the output of a collision-resistant hash function needs to be at least  $2n$  bits large.



# Of Hashes and Birthdays

- If  $h(x)$  is  $N$  bits long,  $2^N$  different hash values are possible
- So, if you hash about  $2^{N/2}$  random values then you expect to find a collision
  - Since  $\sqrt{2^N} = 2^{N/2}$
- **Implication:** secure  $N$  bit symmetric key requires  $2^{N-1}$  work to “break” while secure  $N$  bit hash requires  $2^{N/2}$  work to “break”
  - Using brute force attack(that is exhaustive key search)

# Popular Cryptographic Hashes

- **MD5** — invented by Rivest (do NOT use!)
  - 128 bit output, collisions easy to find
- **SHA-1** — A U.S. government standard, inner workings similar to MD5 (broken in 2017, do NOT use!)
  - 160 bit output
- SHA-2 family
  - same basic algorithm with SHA-1(so?)
  - SHA-224, SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512
- SHA-3 family: *Keccak* as SHA-3 in 2015(NIST)
  - different math algorithm to SHA-1/2
  - SHA3-224, SHA3-256, SHA3-384, SHA3-512



# Applications of Secure Hash Functions

## Message Authentication Code

Hash a message  $M$  concatenated with a key  $K$ :

$$\text{MAC}_K(M) = h(K, M)$$

A standard technique that is widely used with MD5 or SHA-1 for  $h$  is:

$$\text{HMAC}_K = h(K \oplus X_1, h(K \oplus X_2, M))$$

The fixed padding values  $X_1, X_2$  used in HMAC extend the length of the key to the input size of the compression function, thereby permitting precomputation of its first iteration.

<http://www.ietf.org/rfc/rfc2104.txt>

# Hash Usage Example: Spam Reduction

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- Spam reduction
- Before accept email, want proof that sender spent effort to create email
  - Here, effort == CPU cycles
- Goal is to limit the amount of email that can be sent
  - This approach will not eliminate spam
  - Instead, make spam more costly to send

# Hash Usage Example: Spam Reduction

- Let  $M$  = email message  
     $R$  = value to be determined  
     $T$  = current time
- Sender must find  $R$  so that  
     $h(M, R, T) = (00\dots 0, X)$ , where  
     $N$  initial bits of hash value are **all zero**
- Sender then sends  $(M, R, T)$
- Recipient accepts email, provided that...  
     $h(M, R, T)$  begins with  $N$  zeros

# Hash Usage Example: Spam Reduction

- Sender:  $h(M,R,T)$  begins with  $N$  zeros
- Recipient: verify that  $h(M,R,T)$  begins with  $N$  zeros
- **Work for sender:** about  $2^N$  hashes
- **Work for recipient:** always 1 hash
- Sender's work increases exponentially in  $N$
- Small work for recipient regardless of  $N$
- Choose  $N$  so that...
  - Work acceptable for normal email users
  - Work is too high for spammers

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# Q & A

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