

# **Lecture 1**

# **Applied Cryptography (Part 1)**

ENGG5105/CSCI5470 Computer and Network Security  
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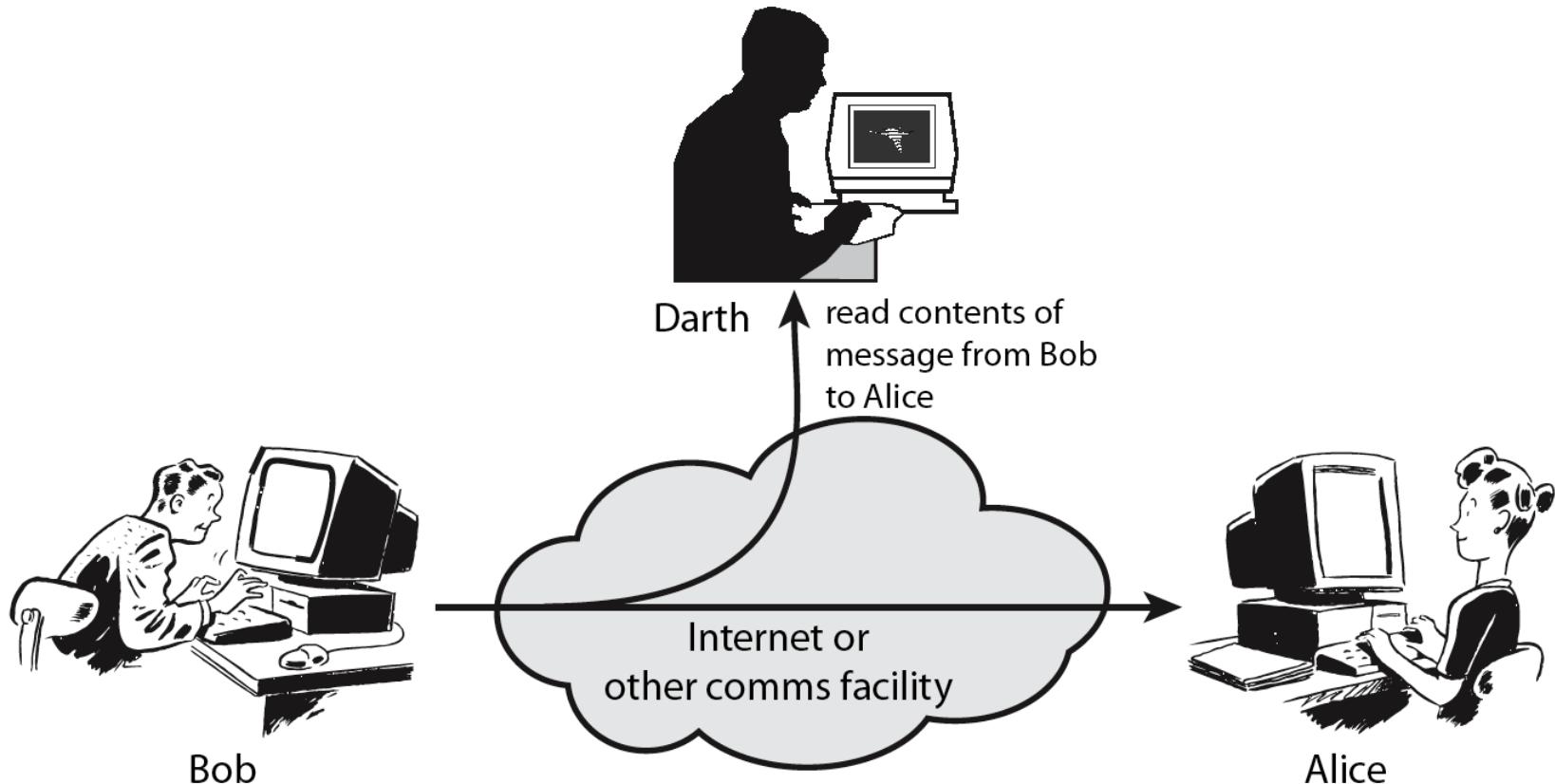
# Roadmap

- Introduction to Security
- Introduction to Cryptography
- Symmetric key cryptography
- Hash and message authentication

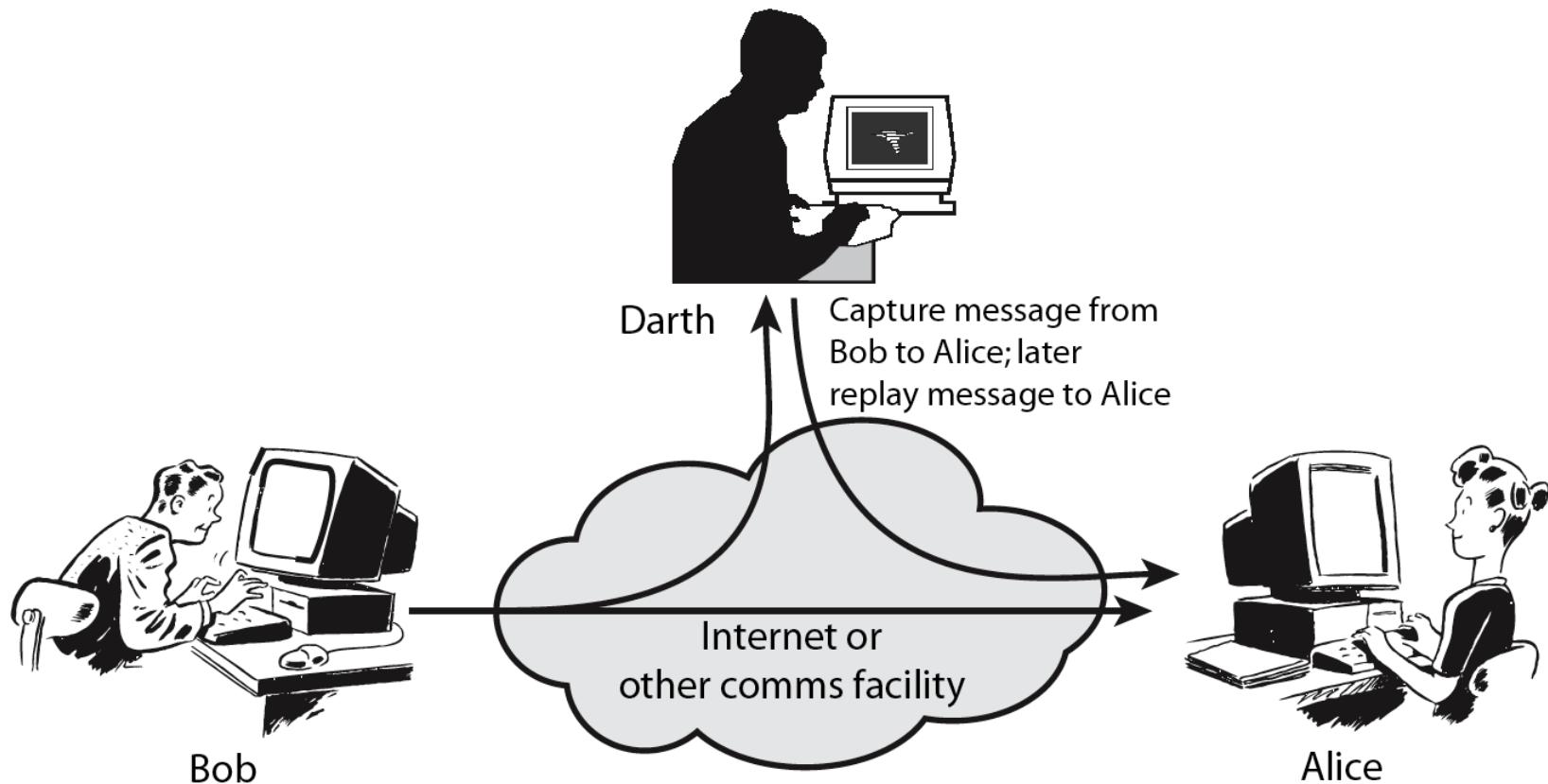
# Introduction to Security

- A computer system or network application is said to be **secure** if it behaves normally even some bad guys try to **attack** it and make it misbehave.
- Definition of **attack** (RFC 2828)
  - An assault on system security that derives from an intelligent threat, i.e., an intelligent act that is a deliberate attempt (especially in the sense of a method or technique) to evade security services and violate the security property of a system.

# Passive Attack



# Active Attack



# Threat Model

- A **threat model** defines the scope and assumptions of security that we consider
  - i.e., the problem formulation
- Two ways to define a threat model:
  - Attacker's perspective:
    - What does an attacker tries to do?
    - What are the assumptions?
  - Defender's perspective:
    - What are the security properties we want to achieve?

# Security Properties

- *What are the security properties we want (from a defender's perspective)?*
- **Confidentiality:** the protection of data from unauthorized disclosure by passive attacks. Sometimes called **privacy**.
- **Authentication:** to assure that the message is from the source that it claims to be from.

# Security Properties

- **Integrity**: content of message is unaltered.
- **Availability**: a system and a system resource remain accessible and usable upon demand.
- **Non-repudiation**: a sender cannot falsely deny that he sent a message
  - Note its difference from authentication

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# What is Cryptography?

- Information of data may be attacked:
  - **Eavesdropping**: sniffing and recording of data transmitted over a channel
    - Passive attack
  - **Modification, insertion, or deletion** of messages or message content
    - Active attack
- **Cryptography** is the ability to send information between participants, in a mangled format, that prevents others from reading it.
  - Address the issue of **information security**.

# What is Cryptography?

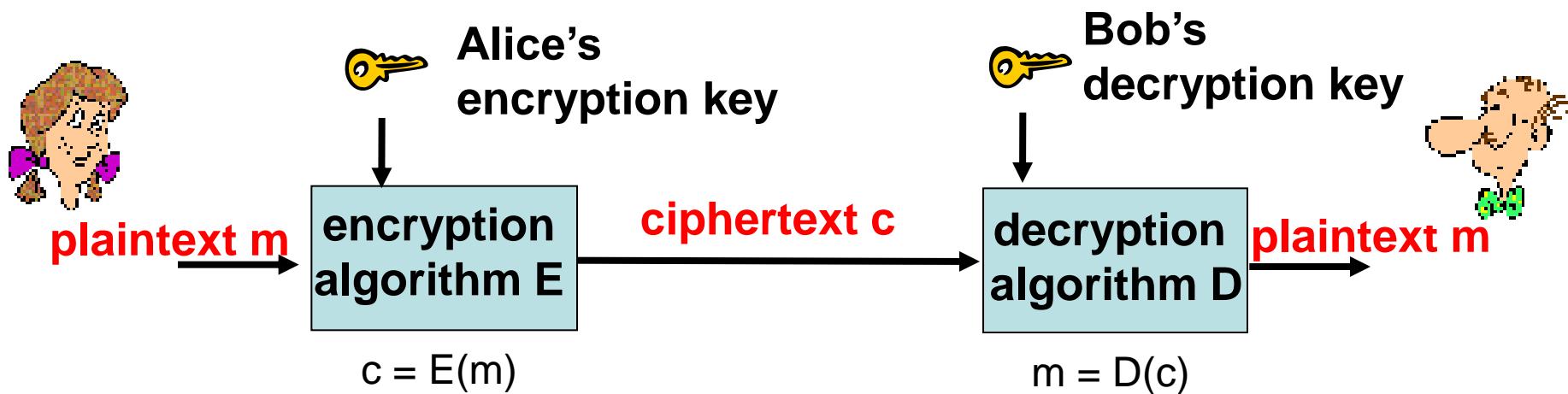
- A message in its original form is called **plaintext** or **cleartext**. The mangled information is called **ciphertext**. The process of producing ciphertext from plaintext is called **encryption**. The reverse of encryption is called **decryption**.
- Parties involved (to help our discussion):
  - **Alice, Bob, Carol, Dave**: good guys who communicate securely
  - **Trudy and Eve**: bad guys who disrupt

# What is Cryptography?

- A **cryptosystem** is a system that is built on cryptographic algorithms.
- Cryptosystems generally involve encryption/decryption algorithms and secret values called **keys**.
- Without the knowledge of keys, it is **computationally infeasible** to recover protected information.
  - Computational difficulty

# What is Cryptography?

- A cryptosystem should remain secure as long as the keys are kept secret, even through algorithm details are published
- A typical cryptosystem:



# Attacks on Cryptography

- An attacker can try every possible key to recover the plaintext, i.e., via **brute force**.
- The goal of **cryptanalysis** is to recover keys based on cryptographic characteristics.
- Three types of attacks:
  - **Ciphertext only**: only ciphertext is known to attackers.
  - **Known plaintext**: some <plaintext, ciphertext> pairs are known to attackers
  - **Chosen plaintext**: Some selected plaintext and the corresponding ciphertext are known to attackers

# Cryptographic Primitives

- Cryptographic primitives are specific cryptographic functions that form the basic building blocks of a cryptosystem.
- Examples:
  - Symmetric key cryptography
  - Public key cryptography
  - Hash functions
  - Digital signatures
  - Certificates

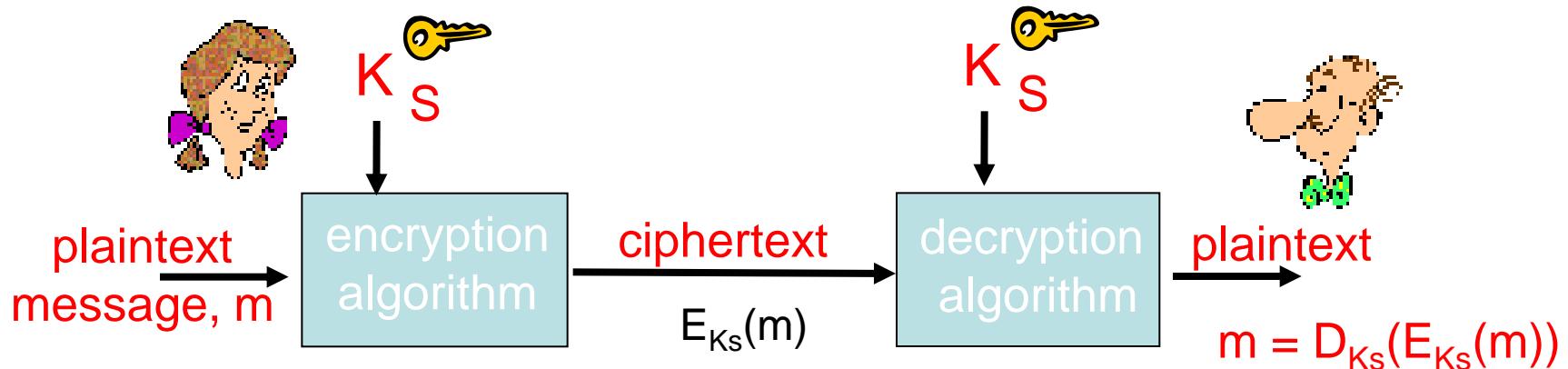
# Cryptographic Primitives

- When we build a cryptosystem, leverage existing cryptographic primitives whenever possible.
- Our focus in this course is to **apply** existing cryptographic primitives into a cryptosystem.
  - In other words, how to have them interact with each other such that the cryptosystem remains secure.

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# Symmetric Key Cryptography



- **symmetric key** crypto: Bob and Alice share same (symmetric) key:  $K$ 
  - Also known as secret key crypto
- For now, assume Bob and Alice have secret and reliable ways to agree on key.

# Generic Block Encryption

- Symmetric key cryptography is mainly built on **block ciphers**:
  - Algorithm takes a fixed-length block of plaintext and a fixed-length key, and generates a block of ciphertext with the same length as the input.
  - E.g., DES uses 64-bit blocks and a 56-bit key
- Another type is called stream ciphers, which encrypt one byte at a time.

# Generic Block Encryption

- Definitely, key length can't be too short.  
But block length is also a matter.
- Block length consideration:
  - Too small: easy to reconstruct all mappings  
(e.g., chosen-plaintext attack, try all plaintext blocks)
  - Too big: performance degradation
  - 64-bit / 128-bit may be reasonable.

# Generic Block Encryption

- Input and output blocks must form **one-to-one mappings**:
  - E.g., block length = 3 bits. One mapping structure:

<u>input</u>	<u>output</u>
000	110
001	111
010	101
011	100

<u>input</u>	<u>output</u>
100	011
101	010
110	000
111	001

- How many mapping structures are there if n-bit blocks are used?

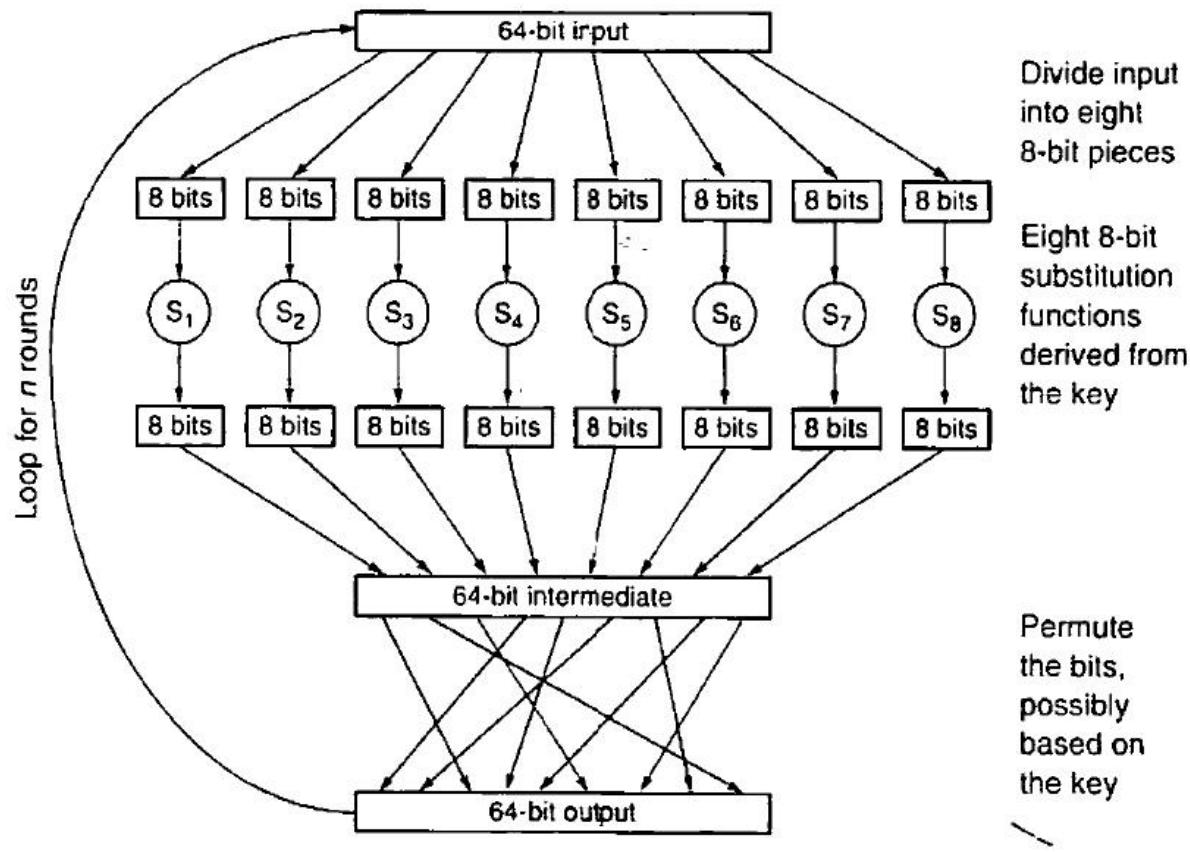
# Generic Block Encryption

- Specifying the whole mapping structure is exhaustive.
- Symmetric key crypto. is to take a reasonable-length key and generate a mapping structure that **looks random**
- How many mapping structures can be specified if a k-bit key is used?

# Generic Block Encryption

- Typical operations of symmetric key crypto
  - **Substitution**: specify mapping of an m-bit input to an m-bit output (assuming m is small)
  - **Permutation**: specify mapping of an input bit position to an output bit position (special case of substitution)
  - In each **round**, run substitution and permutation. Repeat many rounds.

# Example of Block Encryption

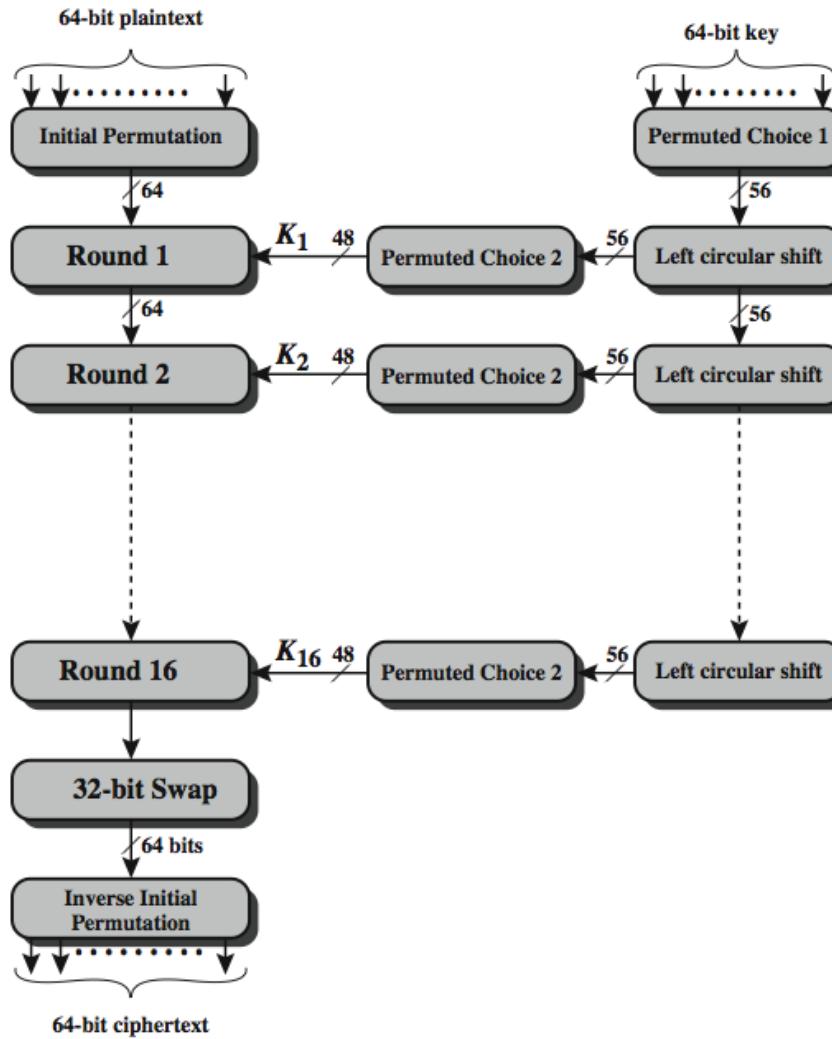


Kaufman et al. (2002), Page 62.

# Data Encryption Standard (DES)

- adopted in 1977 by NBS (now NIST)
- encrypts 64-bit data using 56-bit key
- has widespread use
- with controversial security
- Why 56 bits, not 64 bits?
  - 8 bits are for parity checking of keys (is parity useful?)
  - 56 bits less secure

# DES Overview



# Avalanche Effect

- **Avalanche effect**: change of **one** input or key bit results in changing **many** output bits
  - A key desirable property of encryption algo
- In DES, for one round, change of one bit makes approx half of output bits change
- DES exhibits strong avalanche

# Is DES Perfect?

## ➤ Problems of DES

- Key size and block size are too short
  - A feasible DES cracker was available in 1998
- Efficient in hardware. Slow in software
  - A variant called Triple-DES is too slow although more secure

# **Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)**

- new (Nov. 2001) symmetric-key NIST standard, replacing DES
- always processes data in 128 bit blocks regardless of the key size
- 128, 192, or 256 bit keys
- brute force decryption (try each key) takes 149 trillion years for AES
  - taking 1 sec on DES

# AES

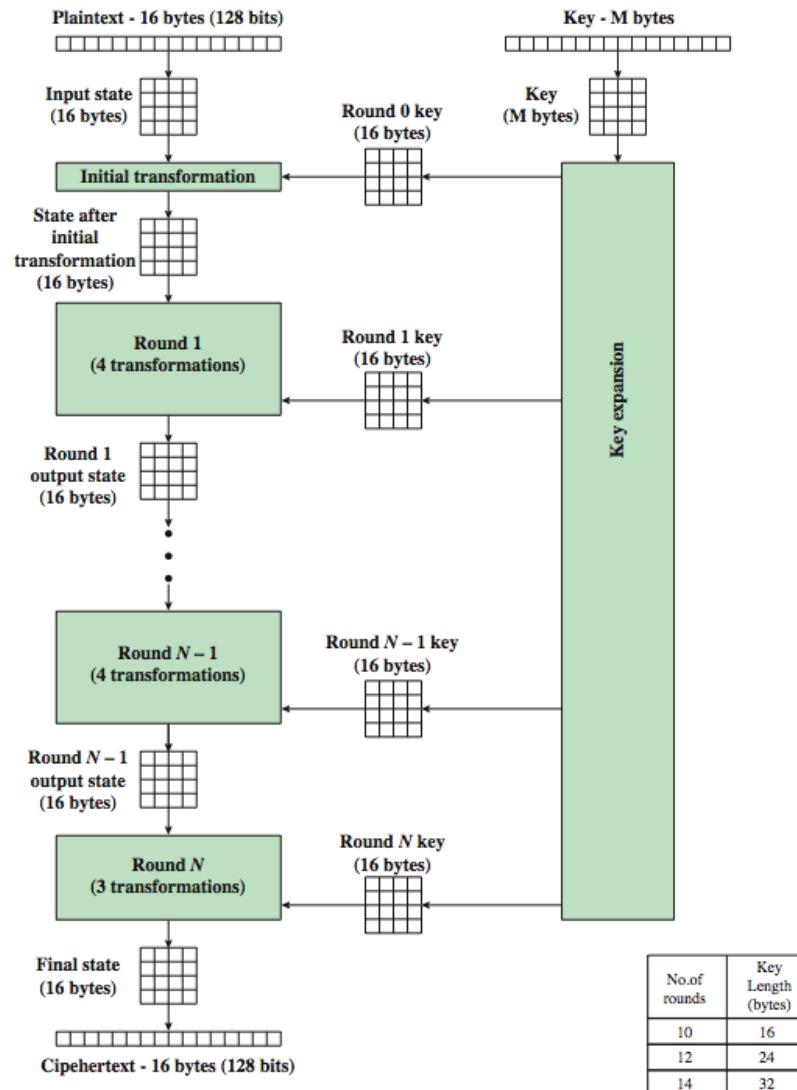
➤ Design goals of AES

- resistant against known attacks
- speed and code compactness on many CPUs
  - Can be efficiently implemented on 8-bit and 32-bit CPUs
- design simplicity

➤ Now widely used

# AES

## ➤ Overview: Encryption process in AES

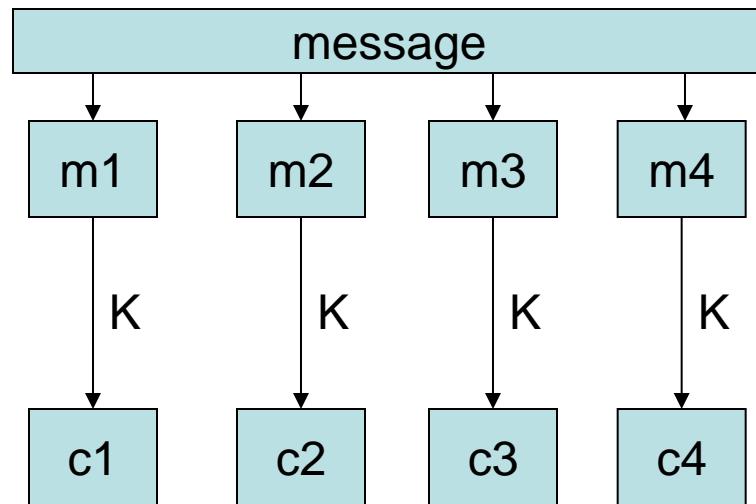


# Encrypting Large Messages

- Let block size = 64 bits.
- How do you encrypt a message larger than 64 bits?
- Modes of operations:
  - Electronic Code Block (ECB)
  - Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)
  - Output Feedback Mode (OFB) – not discussed
  - Counter Mode (CTR)

# Electronic Code Block (ECB)

- Break a message into 64-bit blocks (padding the last one to a full block).  
Encrypt each block with a secret key.

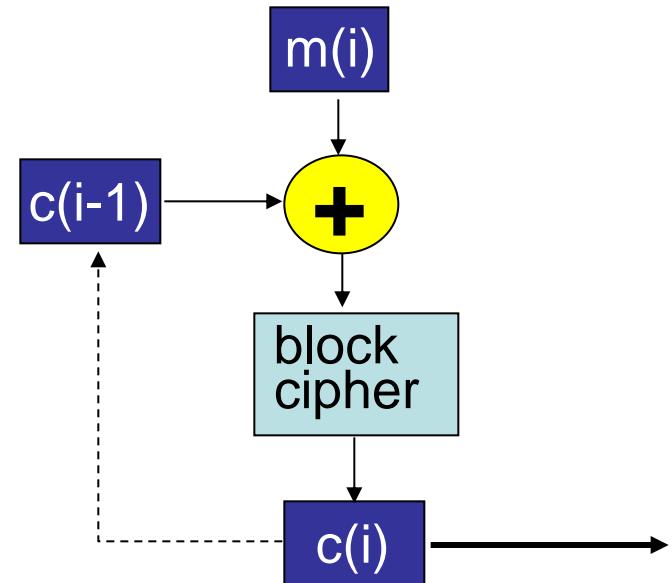


# Electronic Code Block

- If two plaintext blocks are identical, the output ciphertext blocks are also identical
  - Reveal the pattern of information
- Can rearrange blocks to affect the protocol
  - E.g., know two blocks that store salaries \$50K and \$100K. Can reorder the two blocks and change the salaries of employees

# Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)

- Make ciphertext blocks different even they are from the same plaintext blocks
- CBC has encryption of current block depend on result of previous block
- Provide **initialization vector (IV)** to encrypt first block
  - IV need not be secret
- Change IV over each session



# Counter Mode (CTR)

- In CBC, what happen if a ciphertext block is dropped, or garbled?
- Counter mode:
  - $c(i) = E(\text{key}, \text{IV} + \text{block number}, m(i))$
  - Advantage: can decrypt an arbitrary block
  - Disadvantage: Same ciphertext block if key and IV are the same

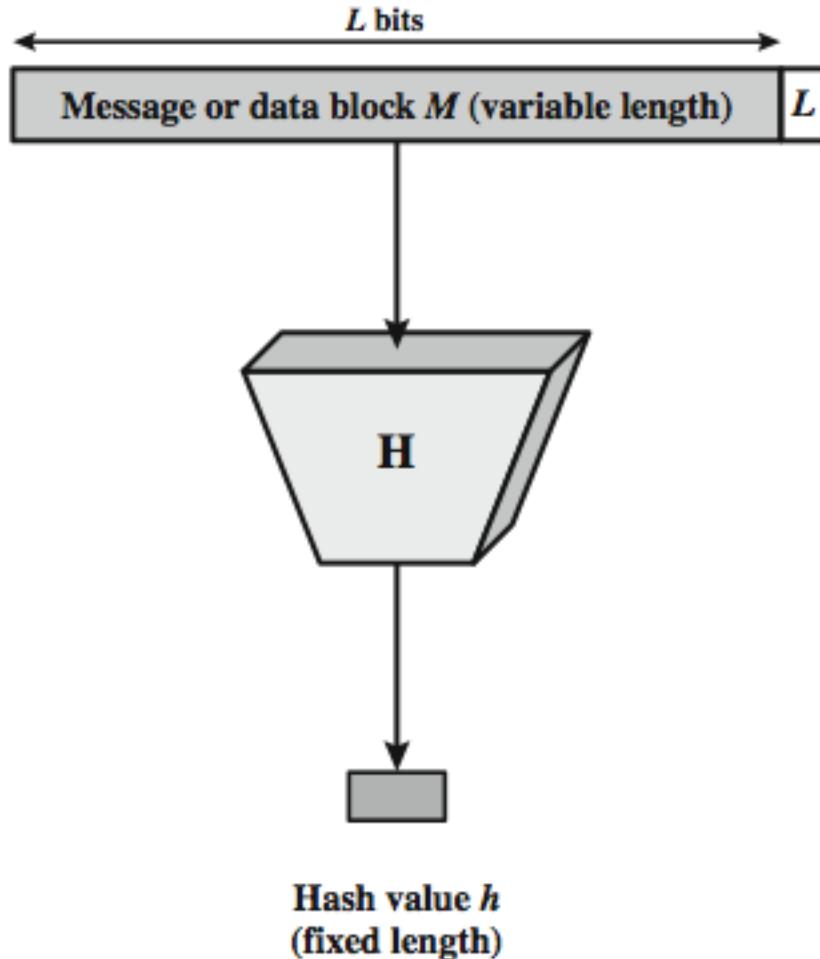
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# Hashes

- Take arbitrary message to generate fixed-size output **hash** (or **digest**)  $h = H(m)$
- Implementation of hash function is public
- Uses of hashes:
  - Sign hash instead of messages
  - Store digests of files for integrity checks (e.g., viruses may modify files)
  - Irreversible password hash database

# Hashes



# Cryptographic Hash

➤ Requirements of a cryptographic hash:

- **One-way property:** Given a hash value  $h$ , computationally infeasible to find  $x$  s.t.  $h = H(x)$
- **Collision resistance property:** Computationally infeasible to find any pair  $(x, y)$  s.t.  $H(x) = H(y)$

# Attacks on Hash Functions

- Attacks via brute force or cryptanalysis
- Attack on one-way:
  - find  $x$  such that  $H(x)$  equals a given value
- Attack on collision resistance:
  - find  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $H(x) = H(y)$
- Which attack is easier to launch?

# Birthday Attack

- Birthday paradox: in a group of people  $N$ , probability of two sharing same birthday  $> 0.5$  if  $N \geq 23$
- Birthday attack:
  - given user prepared to sign a valid message  $x$  using  $k$ -bit hash
  - opponent generates  $2^{k/2}$  variations  $x'$  of legitimate message  $x$ , all with essentially the same meaning, and saves them
  - opponent generates  $2^{k/2}$  variations  $y'$  of a desired fraudulent message  $y$
  - two sets of messages are compared to find pair with same hash (probability  $> 0.5$  by birthday paradox)
  - have user sign the valid message, then substitute the forgery which will have a valid signature
- Conclusion: need large enough  $k$

# Hash Algorithms

## ➤ MD5 (RFC 1321)

- computes 128-bit message digest
- In 2005, collision attack is feasibly launched (using a laptop running with a few hours)

# Secure Hash Algorithm

- SHA originally designed by NIST & NSA in 1993, and was revised in 1995 as SHA-1
- SHA-1
  - US standard for use with DSA signature scheme
  - produces 160-bit hash values
  - Unlike MD5, SHA-1 is not defined if input message length  $> 2^{64}$  bits (but enough in practice)
- recent 2005 results on security of SHA-1 have raised concerns on its use in future applications

# Revised SHA

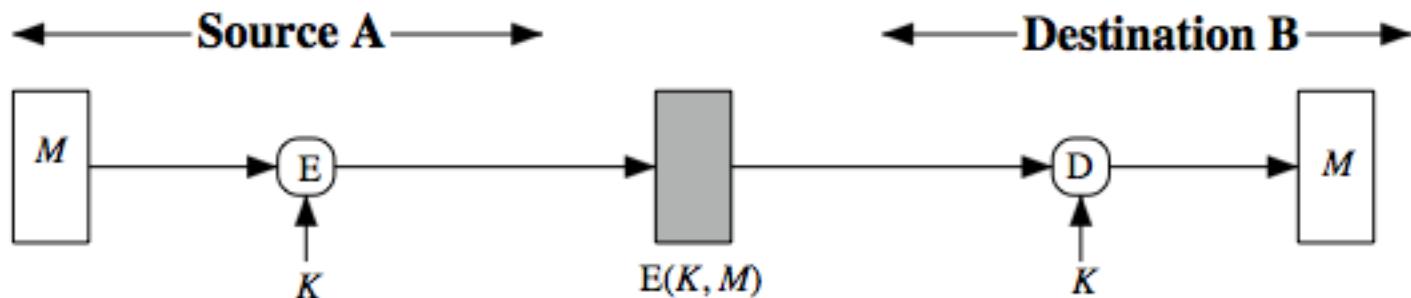
- adds 3 additional versions of SHA
  - SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512
- designed for compatibility with increased security provided by the AES cipher
- structure & detail is similar to SHA-1
- hence analysis should be similar
- but security levels are rather higher

# Message Authentication

- message authentication is concerned with:
  - protecting the integrity of a message
  - validating identity of originator
  - non-repudiation of origin
    - No denial of message transmission by origin
- then three alternative functions used:
  - hash function – but can't guarantee identity
  - message encryption
  - message authentication code (MAC)

# Message Encryption

- use encryption for authentication
- if symmetric encryption is used then:
  - receiver know sender must have created it and content can't be altered
- Drawback: not efficient



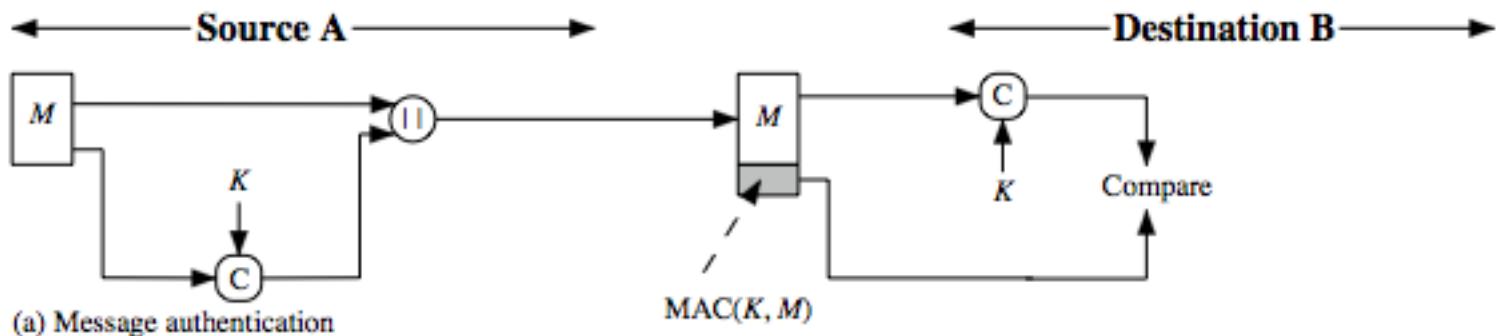
(a) Symmetric encryption: confidentiality and authentication

# Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- generated by an algorithm that creates a small fixed-sized block
  - depending on both message and some key
  - like encryption though need not be reversible
- appended to message as a **signature**
- receiver performs same computation on message and checks it matches the MAC
- provides assurance that message is unaltered and comes from sender

# MAC

- a small fixed-sized block of data
  - generated from message + secret key
  - $\text{MAC} = \text{C}(K, M)$ 
    - $\text{C}(\cdot)$  is some MAC function, may not be hash function
  - appended to message when sent



# Keyed Hash Functions as MAC

- But no reason of not using hash function for MAC
- Advantages of using hash functions:
  - because hash functions are generally faster
  - crypto hash function code is widely available
- hash includes a key along with message
- original proposal:  
$$\text{KeyedHash} = \text{Hash}(\text{Key} \mid \text{Message})$$
  - some weaknesses were found with this
- eventually led to development of HMAC

# HMAC (Hash-Based MAC)

- specified as Internet standard RFC2104
- HMAC algorithm:
  - Concatenates secret to front of message
  - Hashes concatenated message
  - Concatenates the secret to front of digest
  - Hashes the combination again

# HMAC

- uses hash function on the message:

$$\text{HMAC}_K(M) = \text{Hash}[(K^+ \text{ XOR } \text{opad}) \parallel \text{Hash}[(K^+ \text{ XOR } \text{ipad}) \parallel M]]$$

- where  $K^+$  is the key padded out to size
  - **opad, ipad** are specified padding constants
- overhead is just 3 more hash calculations than the message needs alone
    - i.e., 3 more blocks to hash (2 keys and inner hash)
  - any hash function can be used
    - e.g., MD5, SHA-1

# HMAC

- proved security of HMAC relates to that of the underlying hash algorithm
- attacking HMAC requires either:
  - brute force attack on key used
  - birthday attack (but since keyed would need to observe a very large number of messages)
- choose hash function used based on speed versus security constraints

# Pseudorandom Number Generator (PRNG)

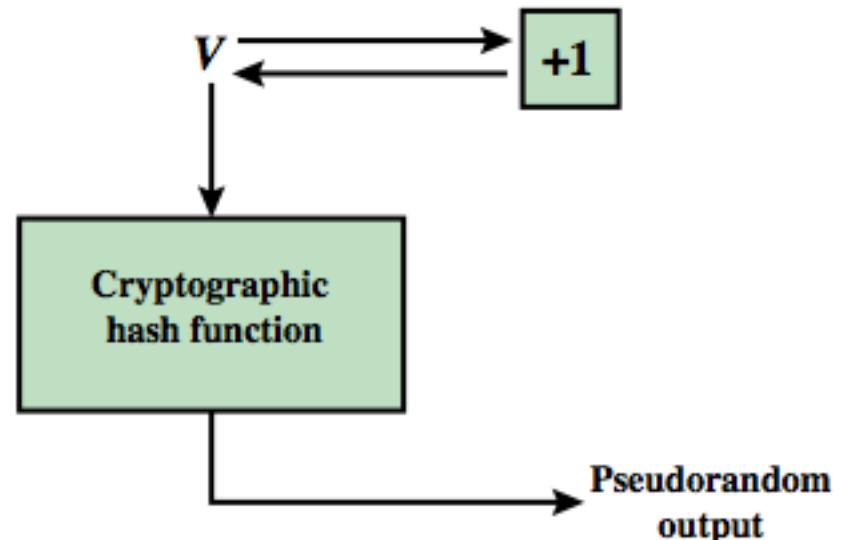
- Essential elements of any pseudorandom number generator (PRNG) are a **seed value** and a **deterministic algorithm** for generating a stream of pseudorandom bits
- PRNG can be based on
  - Encryption algorithm
  - Hash function
  - MAC

# Hash-Based PRNG

➤ Steps:

- Take seed  $V$
- Repeatedly add 1
- Hash  $V$
- Use  $n$ -bits of hash

➤ Secure if good  
hash is used

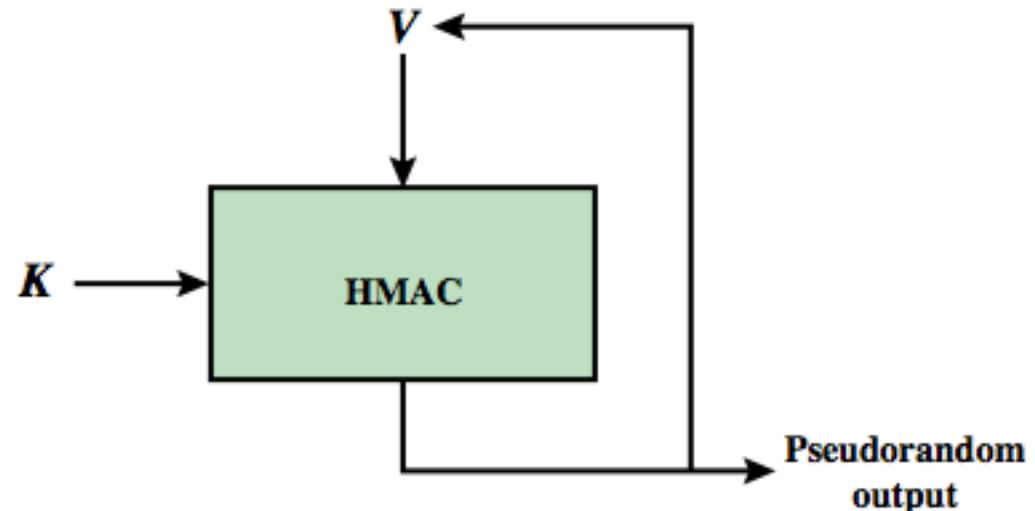


(a) PRNG using cryptographic hash function

# MAC-based PRNG

## ➤ Steps:

- Use a key  $K$  and seed  $V$
- Input based on last hash



(b) PRNG using HMAC

# Summary and References

## ➤ Summary:

- Introduction to security
  - Security defined by **security properties**
- Introduction to cryptography
  - Cryptographic primitives
- Symmetric key cryptography
- Hash functions and message digests

## ➤ References:

- Kaufman et al., Ch. 1-5
- Stallings, Ch. 1, 2, 3, 5, 11, 12
- Kurose & Ross, Ch. 8