

# **SENG1050**

## **Web Technologies**



THE UNIVERSITY OF  
**NEWCASTLE**  
AUSTRALIA

FACULTY OF  
ENGINEERING AND  
BUILT ENVIRONMENT



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### Lecture 11: Encryption

# Lecture Overview

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- Protecting Internet Communications
  - Foundation of Cryptography
  - Secret Key versus Public Key
  - Key Management
  - Cryptography for Data Integrity
  - Strong Cryptography
  - Public-key Certificates
  - Secure Connection: SSL
  - Popular System: PGP

# Protecting Internet Communications: Encryption

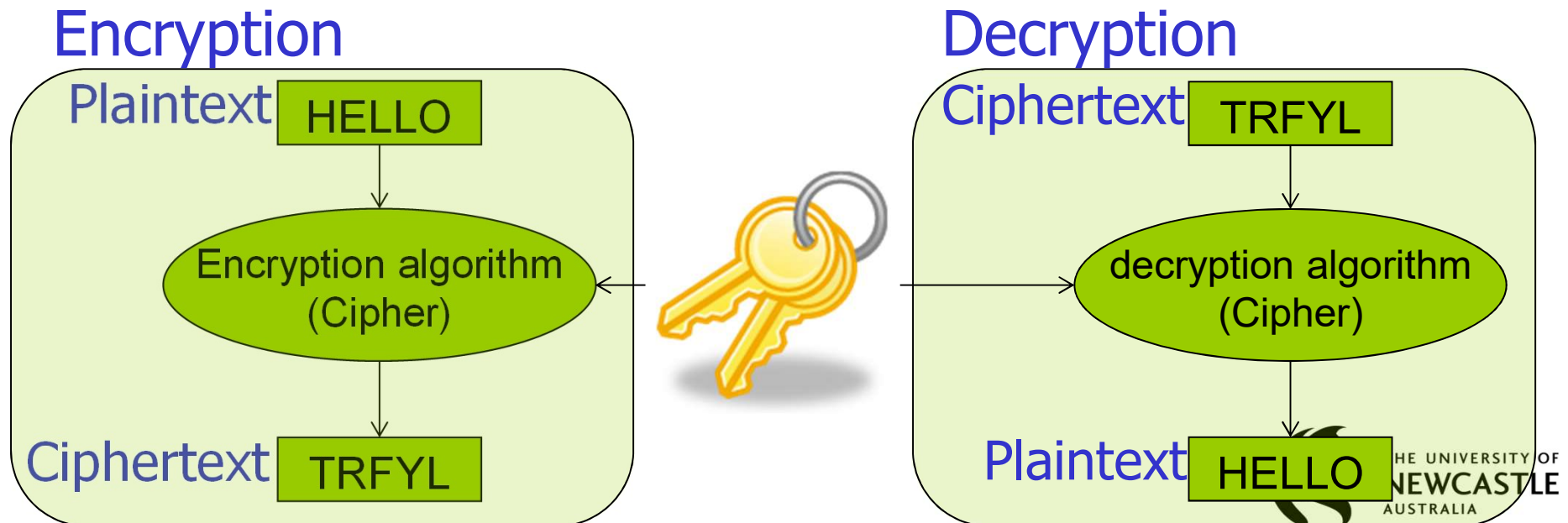
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- Encryption: The process of transforming plain text or data into **cipher text** that cannot be read by anyone other than the sender and receiver
- Purpose: Secure stored information and information transmission
- To encrypt or decrypt, you need  
**an algorithm + a key**

# Cryptography

- Plaintext - a message
- Ciphertext - an encrypted message
- Encryption - plaintext  $\rightarrow$  ciphertext
- Decryption - ciphertext  $\rightarrow$  plaintext
- Cipher - encryption algorithm



# Encryption and the Internet

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- Not an early priority for Internet developers
  - Most protocols work on plaintext messages
  - Developed mostly through free work at the University level
  - Open design, sharing and public information were the driving forces for the Internet

# Encryption and the Internet

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- Priorities have changed in the last 10 years
  - More company, government and private (i.e., secret) information being transmitted
- Not a new problem – Military networks have long been used for secret information
  - Usually isolated on a separate network, shielded from the Internet

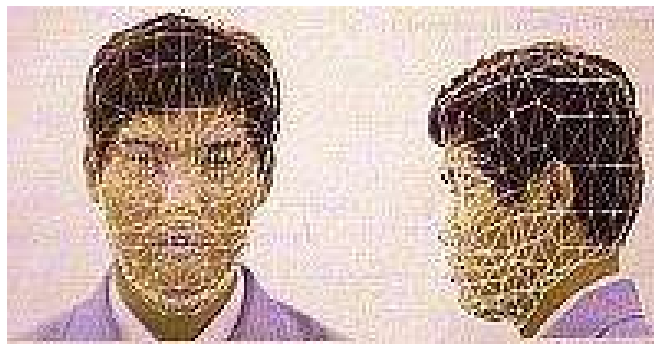
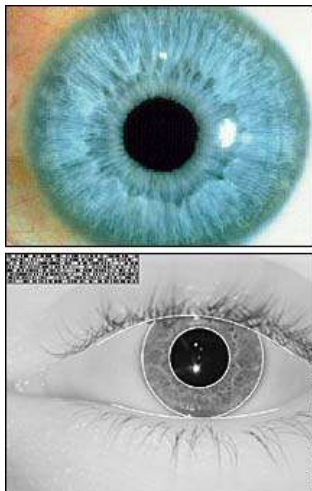
# 3 Fundamental Reasons for Cryptography

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## 1. Authentication

- The receiver of the message can ascertain and validate its origin. Such schemes based on:
  - Something you “know” (password)
  - Something you “have” (swipe card, *SecureId* or other device)
  - Something you “are” (voiceprint, fingerprint, retinal scan – biometrics, face detection)



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# 3 Fundamental Reasons for Cryptography

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## 2. Integrity

- The receiver can verify that the message was not modified during the transmission

## 3. Non-repudiation

- The sender cannot deny that they sent the message



# 3? Fundamental Reasons for Cryptography

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...okay...

## 4. Confidentiality

- A message can be sent without “eavesdroppers” being able to read it

# Who Needs Cryptography?

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- Electronic Funds Transfer – between banks
- Electronic Funds Transfer – EFTPOS, ATMs
- Credit card number across the web
- Bank records and other financial data
- Business/Government communications
- Product development data
- Your personal files
- Student grades



# A VERY Simple Example

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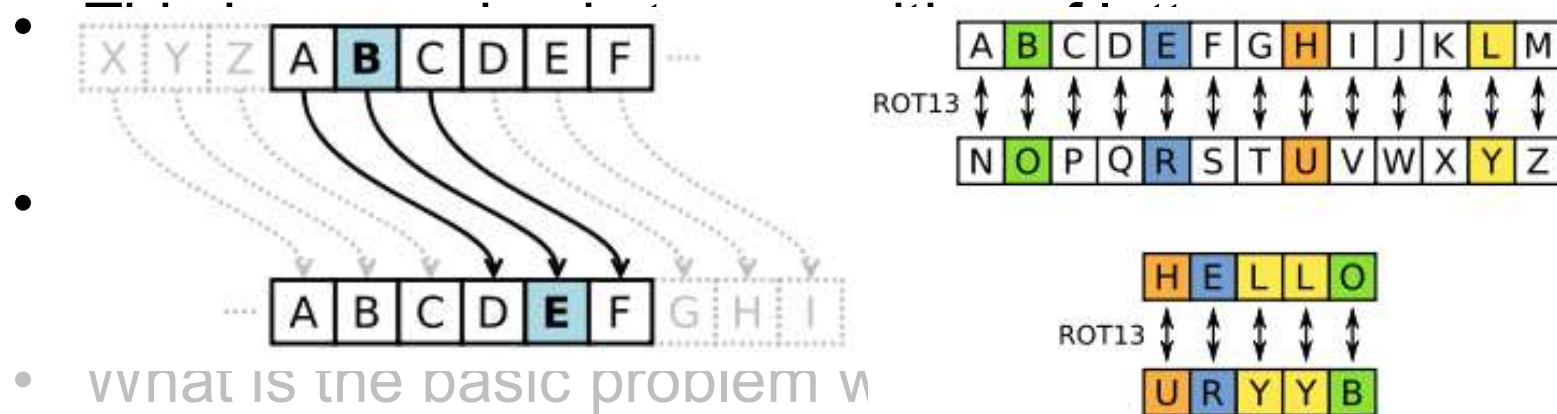
11

- Plaintext:           This is a secret sentence
- Ciphertext:         Uijt jt b tfdsfu tfoufodf
- This is a very basic transposition of letters
  - $a \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow c, c \rightarrow d, \dots$
- The “key” is the number of letters to transpose
  - Caesar cipher used a shift of 3
- What is the basic problem with this method?
  - A very small set of permutations available – only 26
  - Only have to “try” 26 keys to find the correct one

# A VERY Simple Example

12

- Plaintext: This is a secret sentence
- Ciphertext: Uijt jt b tfdsfu tfoufodf



- A very small set of permutations available – only 26
- Only 26 possible “keys” to find the correct one



shift 3  
 plainText the quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog  
 cipherText WKH TXLFN EURZQ IRA MXPSV RYHU WKH ODCB GRJ



# A VERY Simple Example

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13

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# Mono-alphabetic Substitution

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- Where a letter of plaintext **always** produces the same letter of ciphertext
- Plaintext:           a b c d **e** f g h i j k l m
- Ciphertext:         Q R S K **O** W E I P L T U Y
- There are 26! different cipher alphabets! Far too many to try them all
- But it is still not secure. Why?
  - The letter frequencies and underlying patterns are unchanged
    - **e** is the most common letter, now O will be
    - **the** is a very common word, ...

# Mono-alphabetic Substitution

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Ftt bdv bfhvq efno ukvj f tnmvbnxv ic bdv fkvjfyv Fxvjnlzf  
fjv qevzb ic bdv yukvjzxvzb nz tvqq bdfz f qvluzo.

Pnx MnvinY     V, F, N, B, Z – E, T, A, I, N, bdv – the

the t e e et e the  
Ftt bdv bfhvq efno ukvj f tnmvbnxv ic bdv  
  
e e e e et the e et  
fkvjfyv Fxvjnlzf fjv qevzb ic bdv yukvjzxvzb  
  
e th e  
nz tvqq bdfz f qvluzo.

e  
Pnx MnvinY

All the ta e a e a l et e the  
Ftt bdv bfhvq efno ukvj f tnmvbnxv ic bdv

a e a e A e an a e ent the e n ent  
fkvjfyv Fxvjnlzf fjv qevzb ic bdv yukvjzxvzb

n le than a e n  
nz tvqq bdfz f qvluzo.

e  
Pnx MnvinY

# Transposition Ciphers

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Cryptography and Network  
Security Principles and Practice,  
2<sup>nd</sup> Edition – by William Stallings

4	3	1	2	5	6	7
A	T	T	A	C	K	P
O	S	T	P	O	N	E
D	U	N	T	I	L	T
W	O	A	M	X	Y	Z

- It is fairly straightforward to break
- Cipher text needs to be placed in a matrix and play around with the column positions
- More than one stage of transposition can make it significantly difficult

Plain text: attack postponed until two am

Cipher text: ttnaaptmtsuoaodwcoixknlypetz



# Lecture Overview

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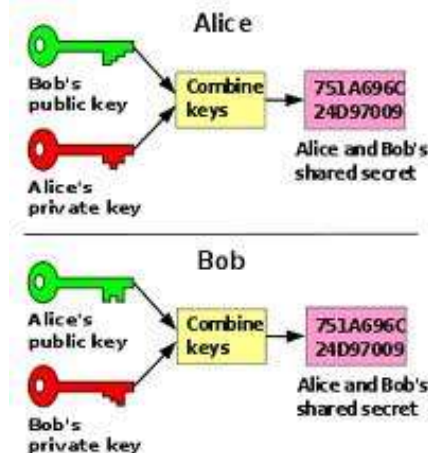
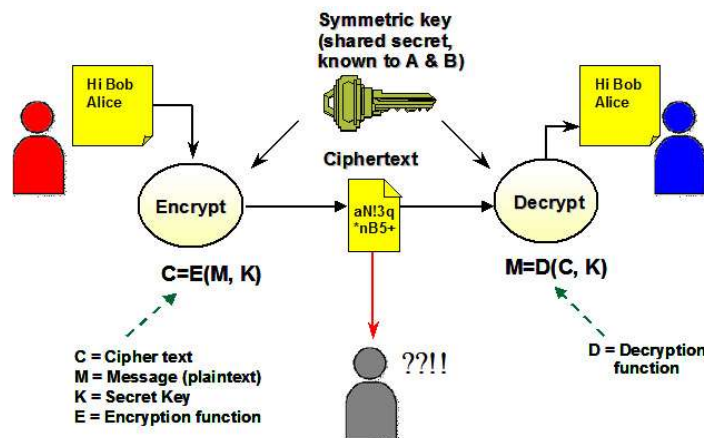
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  - Foundation of Cryptography
  - **Secret Key versus Public Key**
  - Key Management
  - Cryptography for Data Integrity
  - Strong Cryptography
  - Public-key Certificates
  - Secure Connection: SSL
  - Popular System: PGP

# Secret key vs Public key

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- Secret key: symmetric cryptography, the same key is used for both encryption and decryption.
  - Data Encryption Standard (DES)
- Public key: each user has a *public key* and a *private key*.
  - RSA (Rivest, Shamir, Adleman)



# Lecture Overview

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# Secret Key Encryption

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- Both sender and receiver share a **common secret – the key**
- Simple example: XOR

MESSAGE: 00111010010010

KEY: 01110110100101

CIPHERTEXT:



Sender does this  
XOR and sends  
the *ciphertext*



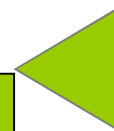
CIPHERTEXT: 01001100110111

KEY: 01110110100101

MESSAGE:



Receiver does this  
XOR and reads  
the *plaintext*



- Note: XOR is its own inverse

# Secret Key Encryption

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- If the message is longer than **the key**?
  - One solution: just repeat **the key**
- DES (Data Encryption Standard)
  - Uses both transposition and substitution ciphers
  - Encrypts 64-bit blocks of data with **56-bit key**
- IDEA (International Data data with **128-bit key**)
  - Used in PGP program (Pretty Good Privacy)

How do you send the key?

# Lecture Overview

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# Key management: Communication Example

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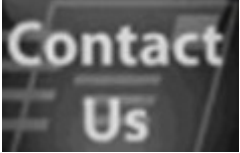



23

- Alice wants to send Bob secret messages via the Internet, but knows that Lucy is listening
- One strategy:
  - Alice encrypts message  $m$  into ciphertext  $c$  using key  $k$ , and sends  $c$  to Bob
  - Bob decrypts  $c$  into the original plaintext  $m$  using key  $k$
  - Even if Lucy intercepts  $c$ , she still needs key  $k$  to read the message
- Drawbacks:
  - Alice and Bob must agree on the key  $k$  to use

# Key Management

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- How should Alice send a key to Bob?
  - Should she email it?
    - Is email secure?
  - Should she phone him with it?
    - Is the phone line secure?
    - How complex is this key?
    - Will he be there when she calls?
  - Should she fax it?
  - Should she post it?
- All methods of key transfer are open to interception – some are more secure than others



# Key Management: Modulo

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- Mathematical operator
  - Write as **MOD** (C, C++, Java uses **%**)
  - Is the “**remainder**” after an **integer division**
- $5/2$  (‘normal’) = 2.5,  $5/2$  (integer) = 2
- $5 \text{ MOD } 2 = 1$ ,  $15 \text{ MOD } 5 = 0$
- $23 \text{ MOD } 6 = 5$ ,  $13 \text{ MOD } 6 = 1$

quotient  
divisor ) dividend  
remainder

# Key Management

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- Key-exchange protocol – Diffie-Hellman algorithm
  1. Alice and Bob agree on a large prime number  $n$  and another number  $g$  – *these are not necessarily secret*
  2. Alice generates a random number  $x$  – *which is secret* – and sends to Bob the value  $X = (g^x) \bmod n$
  3. Bob generates a random number  $y$  – *which is secret* – and sends to Alice the value  $Y = (g^y) \bmod n$
  4. Alice receives  $Y$  and computes  $K_x = (Y^x) \bmod n$
  5. Bob receives  $X$  and computes  $K_y = (X^y) \bmod n$

**$K_x$  is equal to  $K_y$**

# Key Management

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- Key-exchange protocol – Diffie-Hellman algorithm
  1. Alice and Bob agree on a large prime number  $n$  and another number  $g$  – *these are not necessarily secret*

$$n=23, g=5$$

2. Alice generates a random number  $x$  – *which is secret* – and sends to Bob the value  $X = g^x \bmod n$



$$x = 6, X = 5^6 \bmod 23 = 15,625 \bmod 23 = 8$$

3. Bob generates a random number  $y$  – *which is secret* – and sends to Alice the value  $Y = (g^y) \bmod n$



$$y = 15, Y = 5^{15} \bmod 23 = 30,517,578,125 \bmod 23 = 19$$

# Key Management

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- Key-exchange protocol – Diffie-Hellman algorithm

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$$y = 15, Y = 5^{15} \mod 23 = 30,517,578,125 \mod 23 = 19$$

4. Alice receives  $Y$  and computes  $K_x = (Y^x) \mod n$



$$K_x = 19^6 \mod 23 = 47,045,881 \mod 23 = 2$$

5. Bob receives  $X$  and computes  $K_y = (X^y) \mod n$



$$K_y = 8^{15} \mod 23 = 35,184,372,088,832 \mod 23 = 2$$

**$K_x$  is equal to  $K_y$**

# Lecture Overview

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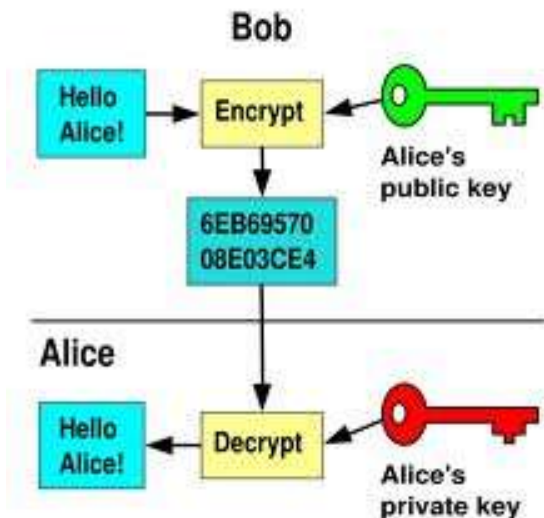
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- Protecting Internet Communications
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# Public-key Encryption

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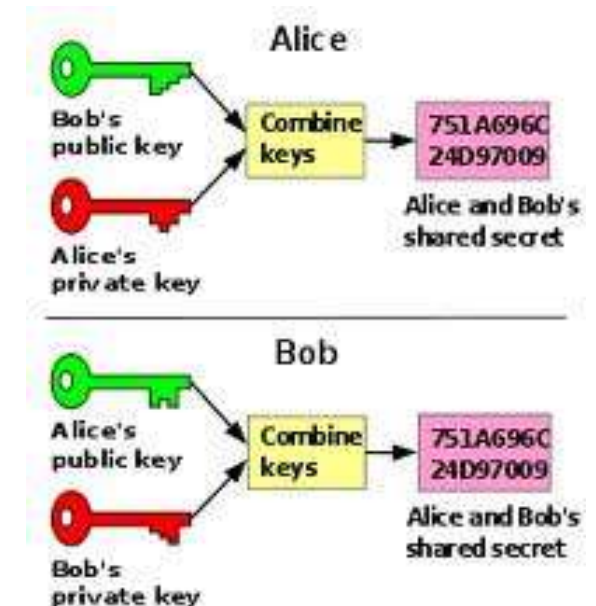
- Each user has a pair of keys
  - **Public key** – public knowledge – used for encryption
  - **Private key** – **known only to its owner** – used for decryption and signing
- Bob wants to send a secure message to Alice – he encrypts it with Alice's public key
- Alice receives the message and decrypts it using her private key
- **Each key is one way**
- eg) RSA Cryptographic



# RSA Cryptographic System


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- Rivest, Shamir, Adleman (1978)
- Alice and Bob don't need to hide the key from Lucy before communicating securely
- Bob can openly distribute keys which can be used to send him a secure message
- Bob doesn't need to give different keys to different people



# RSA – How it works

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- Alice's Setup 


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  - Picks two large prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$
  - Multiplies  $p$  and  $q$  to obtain  $n$
  - $w = (p - 1)(q - 1)$
  - Chooses  $e$ , such that  $e$  and  $w$  are relatively prime (no common factor).
  - Chooses  $d$  such that  $1 = d \times e \bmod w$  ( $d = e^{-1} \bmod w$ )
  - **Public key** is:  $\langle e, n \rangle \rightarrow$  send this key to Bob
  - **Private key** is:  $\langle d, n \rangle \rightarrow$  keep this key in a safe place
  - Message code  $m$ , secret code  $c$ 
    - $c = m^e \bmod n$  : encryption
      - Bob encrypts a message  $m$  for Alice
    - $m = c^d \bmod n$  : decryption
      - Alice receives and decrypts ciphertext  $c$




# RSA – How it works

33

- Alice's Setup 
  - Picks two large prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$ 
    - $p = 47$  and  $q = 71$
  - Multiplies  $p$  and  $q$  to obtain  $n$ 
    - $n = p * q = 3337$
  - $w = (p - 1)(q - 1) = 46 * 70 = 3220$
  - Chooses  $e$ , such that  $e$  and  $w$  are relatively prime (no common factor).
    - $1 < e < w$ ,  $\text{GCD}(e, w) = 1$
    - 79 (Extended Euclidean Algorithm's Table Method)
  - Chooses  $d$  such that  $1 = d \times e \text{ mod } w$  ( $d = e^{-1} \text{ mod } w$ )
    - $d = 79^{-1} \text{ mod } 3220 = 1019$
  - Public key is:  $\langle e, n \rangle - \langle 79, 3337 \rangle$
  - Private key is:  $\langle d, n \rangle - \langle 1019, 3337 \rangle$
  - Message code  $m$ , secret code  $c$ 
    - $c = m^e \text{ mod } n$ 
      - $m = \text{hello} [104_{m1}, 101_{m2}, 108_{m3}, 108_{m4}, 111_{m5}]$
      - $c = [104^{79} \text{ mod } 3337, 101^{79} \text{ mod } 3337, 108^{79} \text{ mod } 3337, 108^{79} \text{ mod } 3337, 111^{79} \text{ mod } 3337]$
      - $c = [2.2\text{+e}159 \text{ mod } 3337, 2.19\text{+e}158 \text{ mod } 3337, 4.36\text{+e}160 \text{ mod } 3337, 4.36\text{+e}160 \text{ mod } 3337, 3.80 + 161 \text{ mod } 3337]$
      - $c = [2893, 1113, 1795, 1795, 2237]$
    - $m = c^d \text{ mod } n$ 
      - $m = [2893^{1019}, 1113^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337, 1795^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337, 1795^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337, 2237^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337]$
      - $m = [104, 101, 108, 108, 111]$

# RSA – How it works

34

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# RSA – How it works

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## • Bob encrypts a message

- Picks two large prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$ 
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- Multiplies  $p$  and  $q$  to obtain  $n$ 
  - $n = p * q = 3337$
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## – Message code $m$ , secret code $c$

- $c = m^e \text{ mod } n$

- $m = \mathbf{h e l l o} [104_{m1} \ 101_{m2} \ 108_{m3} \ 108_{m4} \ 111_{m5}]$

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- $c = [2.2 + e159 \text{ mod } 3337, 2.19 + e158 \text{ mod } 3337, 4.36 + e160 \text{ mod } 3337, 4.36 + e160 \text{ mod } 3337, 3.80 + 161 \text{ mod } 3337]$

- $c = [2893, 1113, 1795, 1795, 2237]$

## • Alice decrypts the message



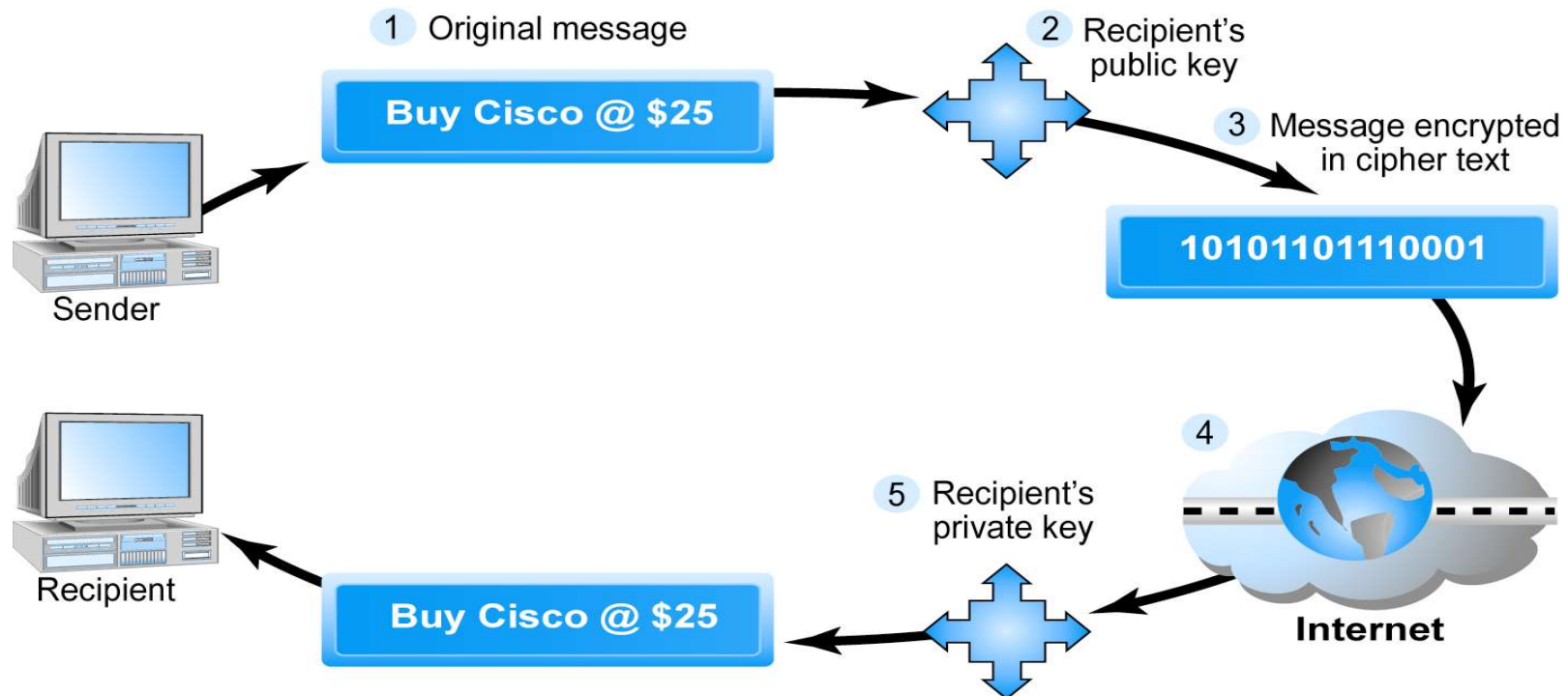
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- $m = [2893^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337, 1113^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337, 1795^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337, 1795^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337, 2237^{1019} \text{ mod } 3337]$

- $m = [104, 101, 108, 108, 111] \mathbf{h e l l o}$

# RSA – public key encryption

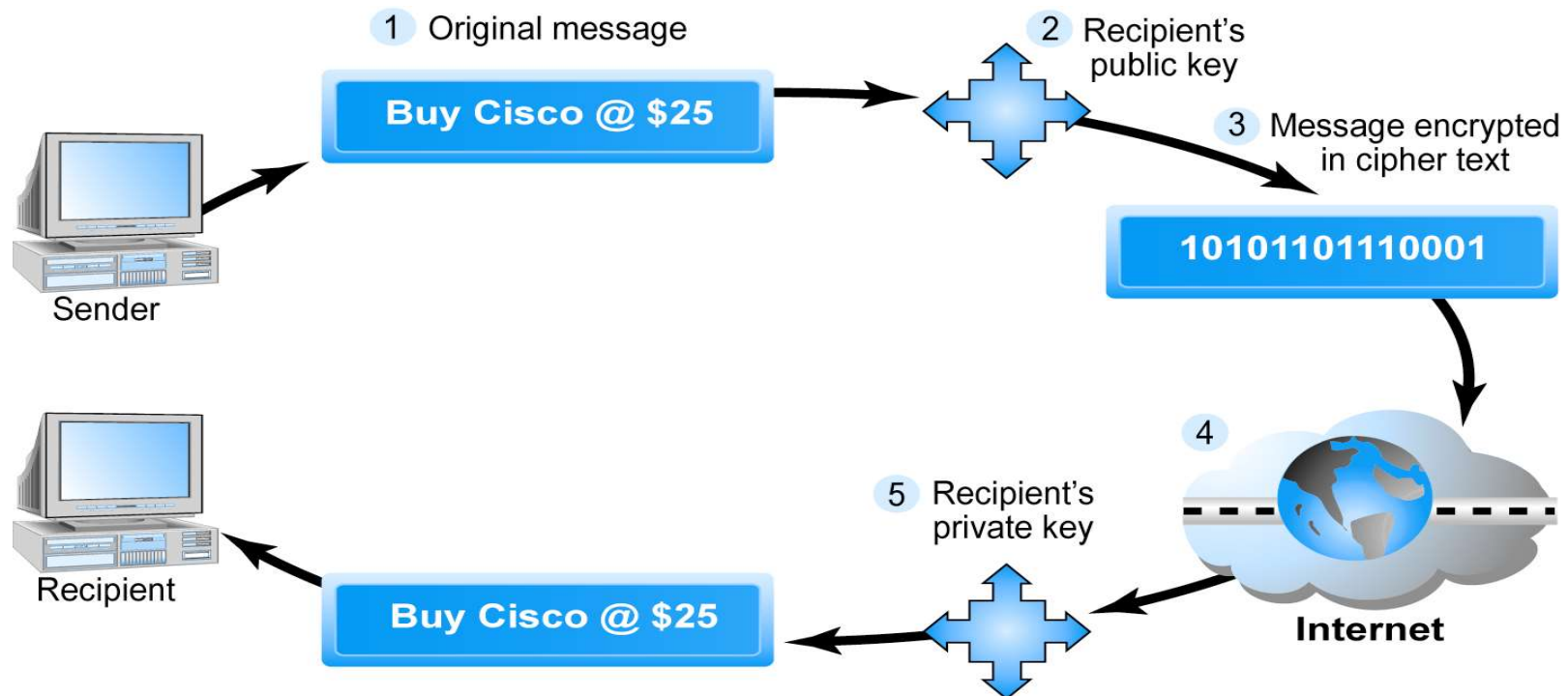
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# RSA – public key encryption – Confidentiality

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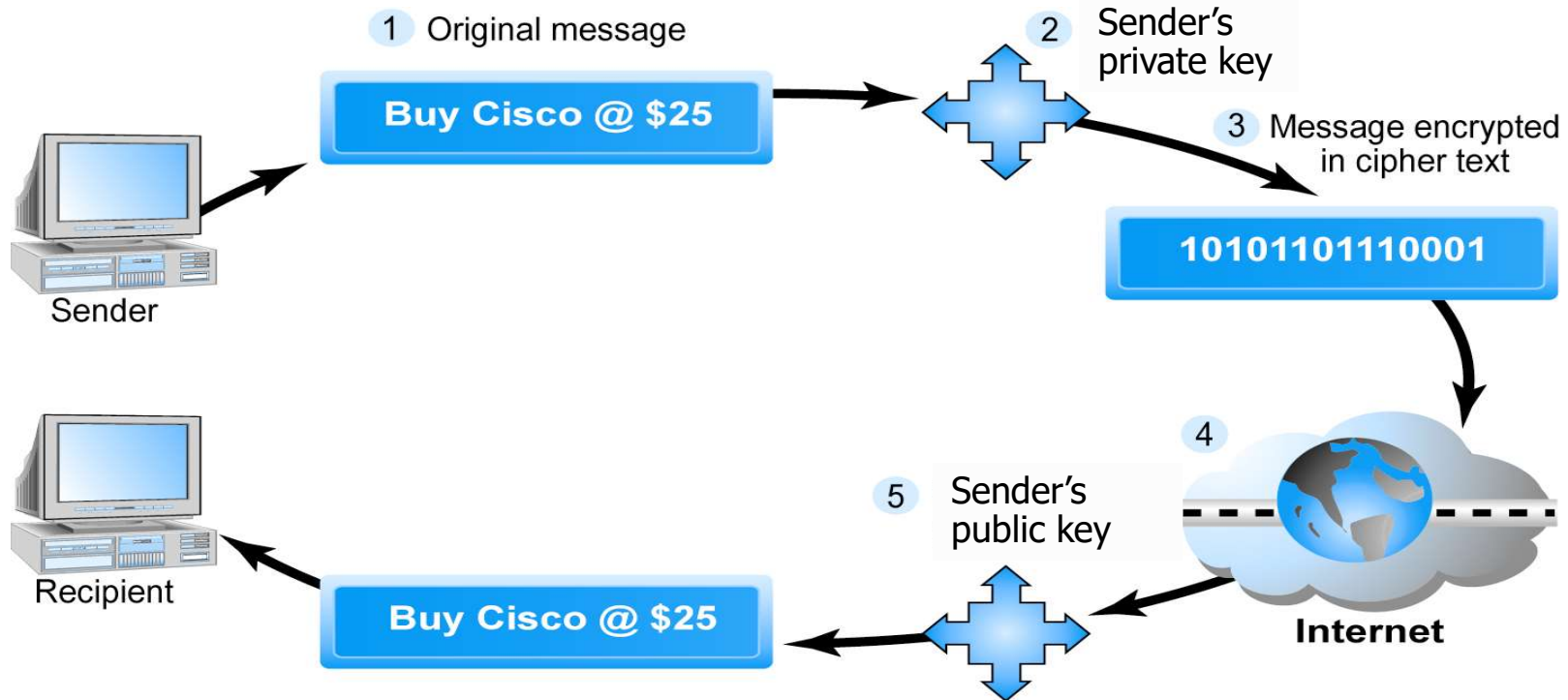
Intercepted message cannot be read



# RSA – public key encryption – Authentication

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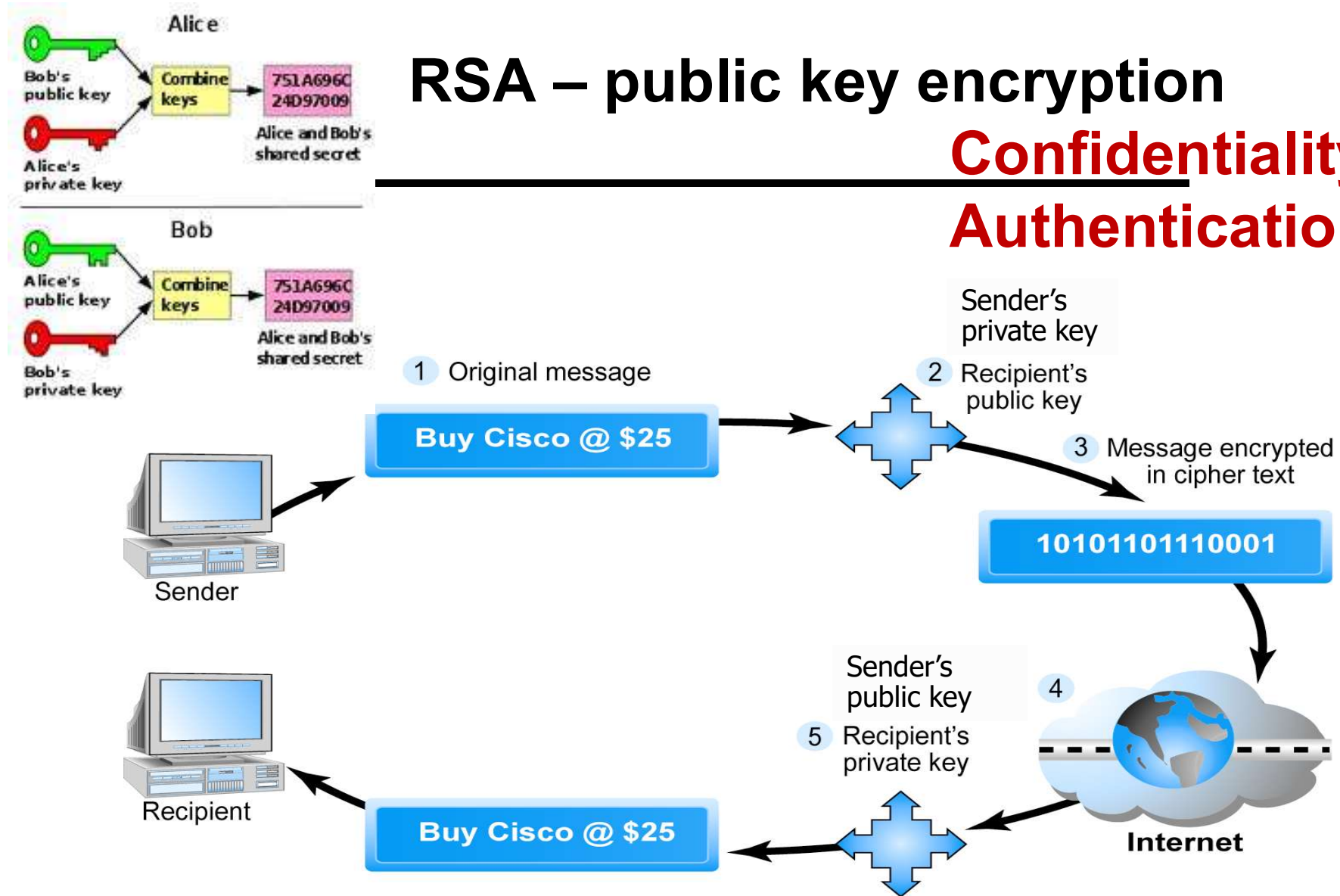
We should know who sent the message



# RSA – public key encryption

**Confidentiality**  
**Authentication**

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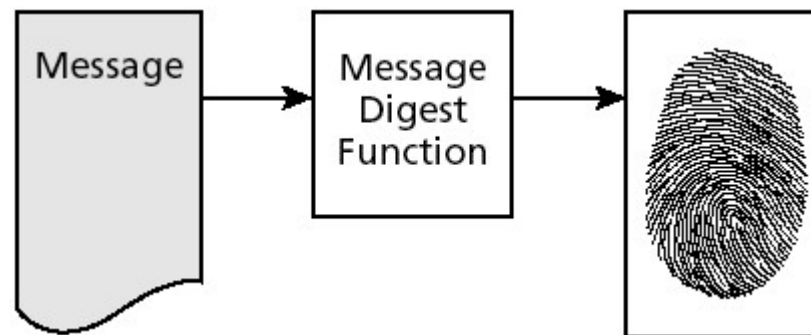


# Data Integrity: Message digest

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- In some cases, we may only concern with data **integrity**.
- As it is slow to perform encryption, it may not be necessary to encrypt all messages.
- A message digest algorithm can generate an almost unique message digest (looks like a “fingerprint”) for a message.
- A popular message digest algorithm is MD5.



# Data integrity: message digest - Digital Signatures

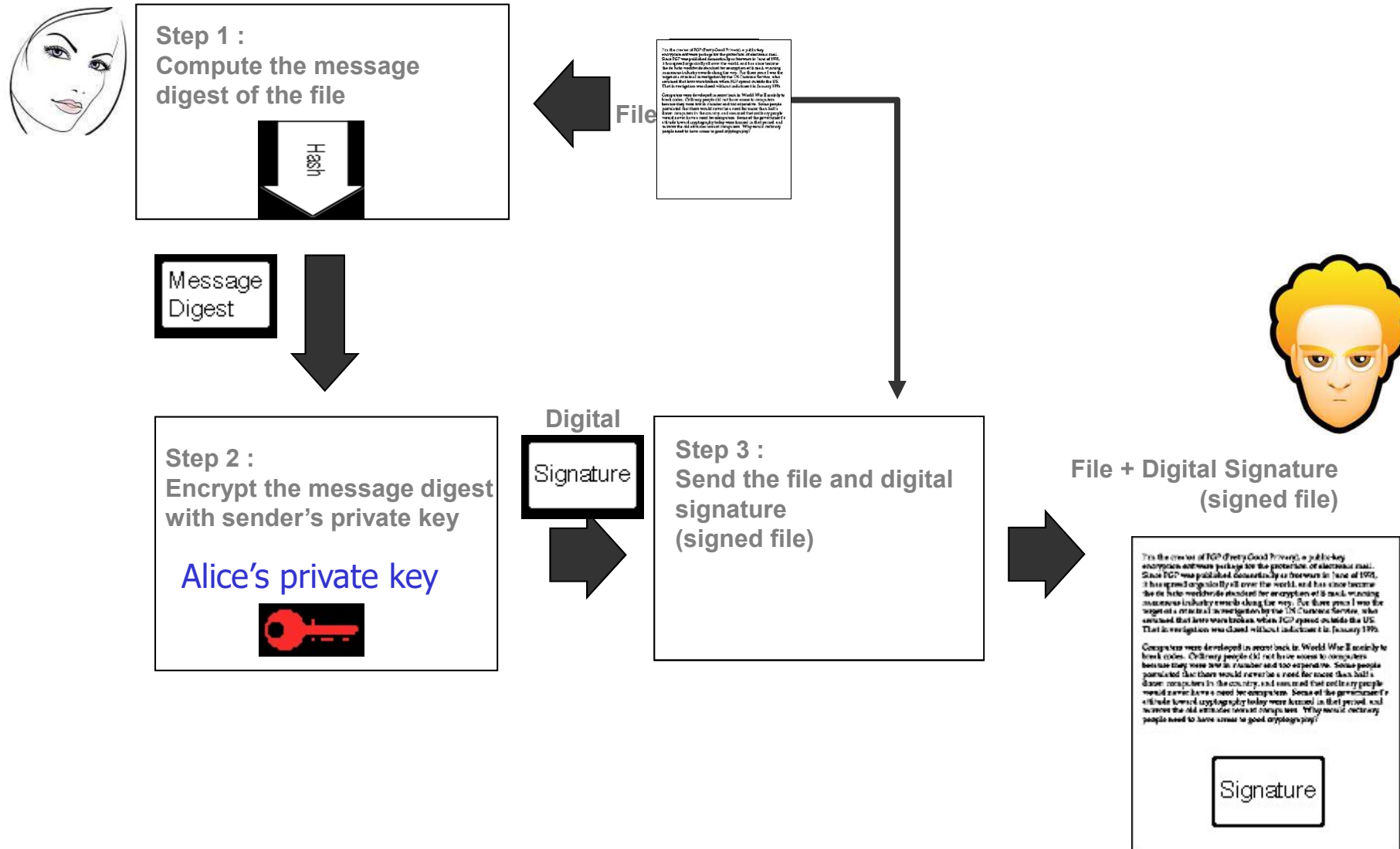
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- Can use **one-way hash functions**
  - Creates a hash value (checksum) of the message
  - The hash value is relatively small
  - Given a message, it's easy to generate the hash value
  - Given the hash value, it's difficult to reconstruct the message
  - Given the hash value, it's difficult to find a message which has the same hash value

# Steps in digital signature generation

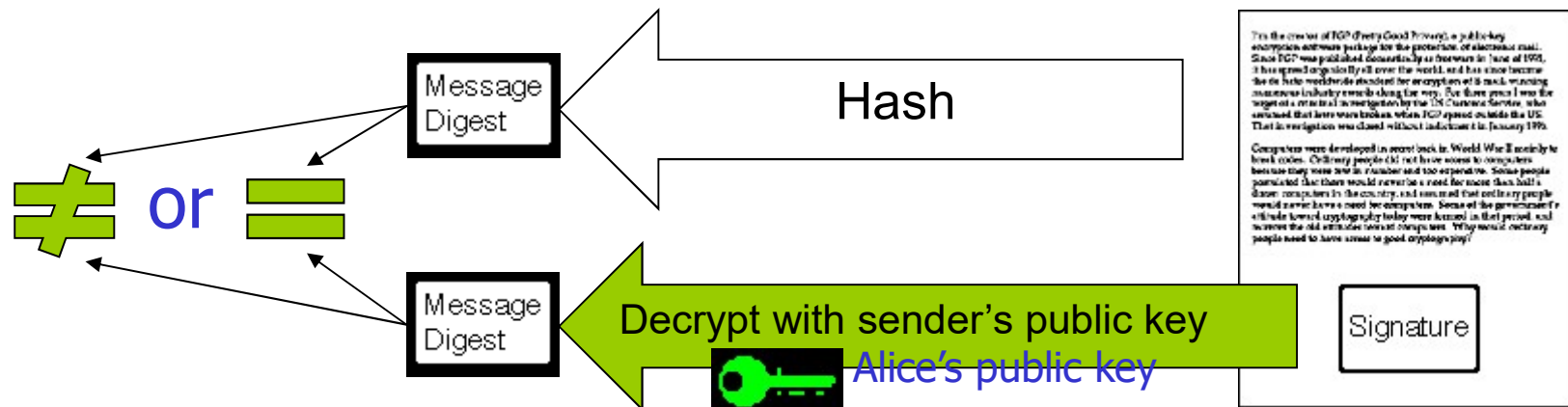
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# Digital Signatures and Public Keys

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- Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA)
  - 🧑 Bob decrypts the digital signature using Alice's **public key**
  - He then computes the hash code and compares it with the decrypted value
  - If they match he has ensured the **integrity** of the message
  - He has also ensured **non-repudiation**, as only Alice could have signed it with her private key!



# Lecture Overview

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- Protecting Internet Communications
  - Foundation of Cryptography
  - Secret Key versus Public Key
  - Key Management
  - Cryptography for Data Integrity
  - Strong Cryptography
  - Public-key Certificates
  - Secure Connection: SSL
  - Popular System: PGP

# So, what are the problems?

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- Strong cryptography:
  - Methods that are considered safe in this practical sense
  - Methods which can only be broken (guessed) after a long time (1000s of years)
- Weak cryptography:
  - Methods that can be broken in a practical time frame
  - DES 64 is now considered Weak Cryptography
    - due to its small key size

# So, what are the problems?


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- Security of private keys
  - Your keys are usually stored in a file on disk
  - They are usually password protected – another level of security
- Counterfeit keys
  - How do you know the public key you receive really belongs to the claimed owner?
  - A variation on the man-in-the-middle attack


# Counterfeit Keys

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A real public key in a public directory is replaced with a **counterfeit key** by Lucy 

Message encrypted with **counterfeit key** is sent across the Internet

 Alice (unknowingly) uses this key to send to Bob 


Message is intercepted en route by Lucy 

Message is decoded with the **private key** that matches the **counterfeit public key**

New message is sent out onto the Internet with forged e-mail headers

The decoded message is encoded again – this time using **Bob's real public key**

Encrypted message arrives to Bob  which looks like it comes from Alice 

 Bob receives the message, decodes it and thinks nothing is wrong!



# Lecture Overview

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- Protecting Internet Communications
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# Public-Key Certificates

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- One Solution: Trusted Third Party
  -  Bob physically goes to a “Certificates Authority”
    - <http://www.necs.gov.au/Digital-Signature-Certificate-Suppliers/default.aspx>
  - Presents his public key and valid ID
  - Issued with a Cert which include:
    - Bob’s distinguished name (DN):
      - C=County O=Organization CN=Authority
    - Bob’s public key
    - Issuer’s distinguished name (DN)
    - Validity Period
    - Serial Number
    - Issuer’s digital signature

# Public-Key Certificates

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-  Alice asks for Bob's certificate
- Alice verifies the certificate
  - Must know the public key of the Issuer
  - Issuer is well-known and has published key
  - Or the issuer's key can be certified by another issuer whom Alice knows and trusts
  - This chain of certification is called the *public key infrastructure*
  - Web browsers come with a few certificates installed
- Alice extract **Bob's public key** and can now send him a message

# Lecture Overview

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  - Public-key Certificates
  - **Secure Connection: SSL**
  - Popular System: PGP

Application (HTTP)
Security (SSL)
Transport (TCP)
Network (IP)
Data link (PPP)
Physical (modem, ADSL, cable TV)

# Secure connection: **Secure Sockets Layer (SSL)**

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- Used to create a secure and reliable communication channel
  - **The connection is private**
    - Encryption is used after **the initial handshake** to define the cryptographic protocol
    - Secret key encryption (=symmetric cryptography) is used for data encryption
  - **Sender/Receiver can authenticate each others identity**
  - **The connection is reliable**

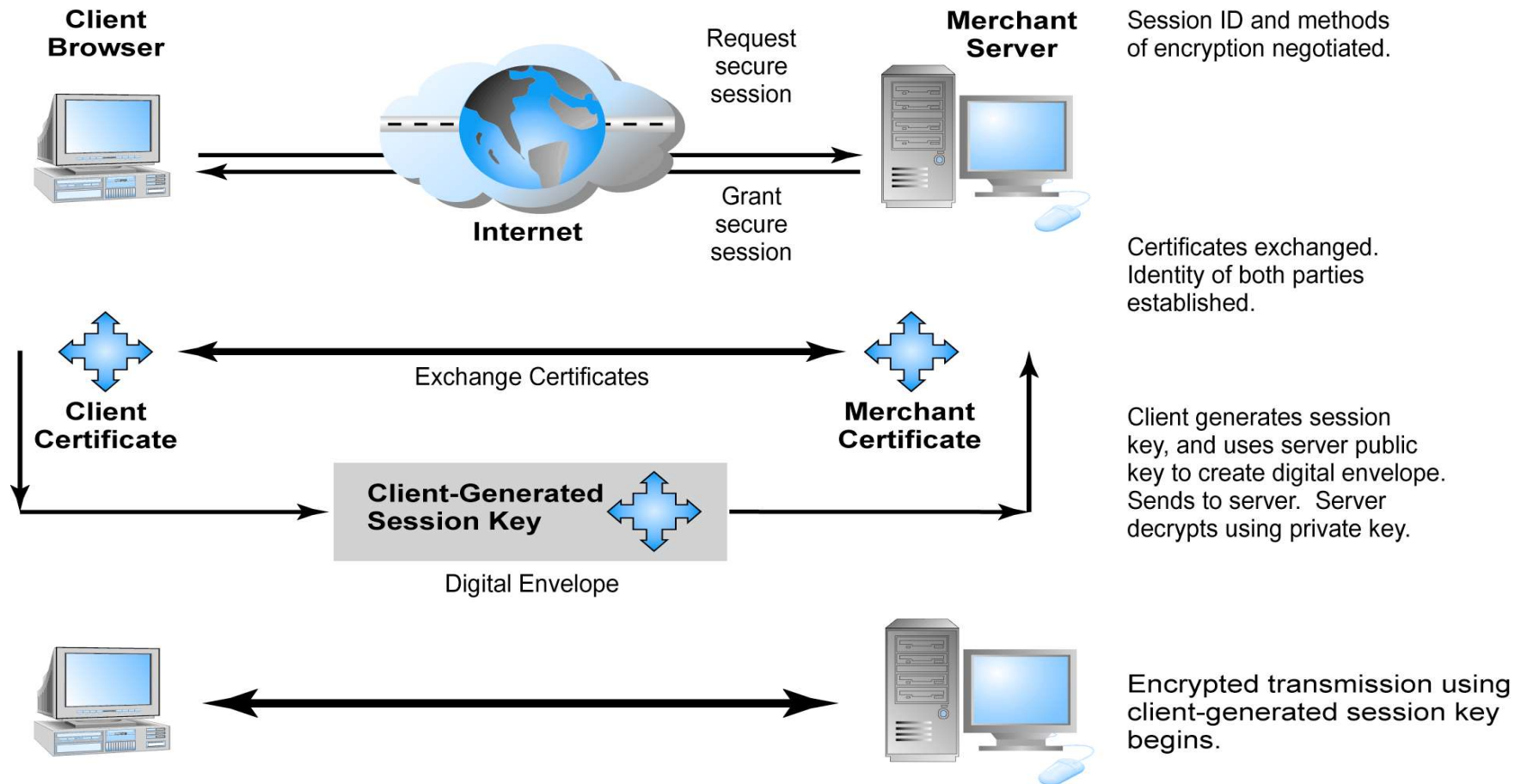
Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) technology protects your Web site and makes it easy for your Web site visitors to trust you in three essential ways:

-  1. An SSL Certificate enables **encryption** of sensitive information during online transactions.
-  2. Each SSL Certificate contains unique, **authenticated** information about the certificate owner.
-  3. A Certificate Authority **verifies** the identity of the certificate owner when it is issued.



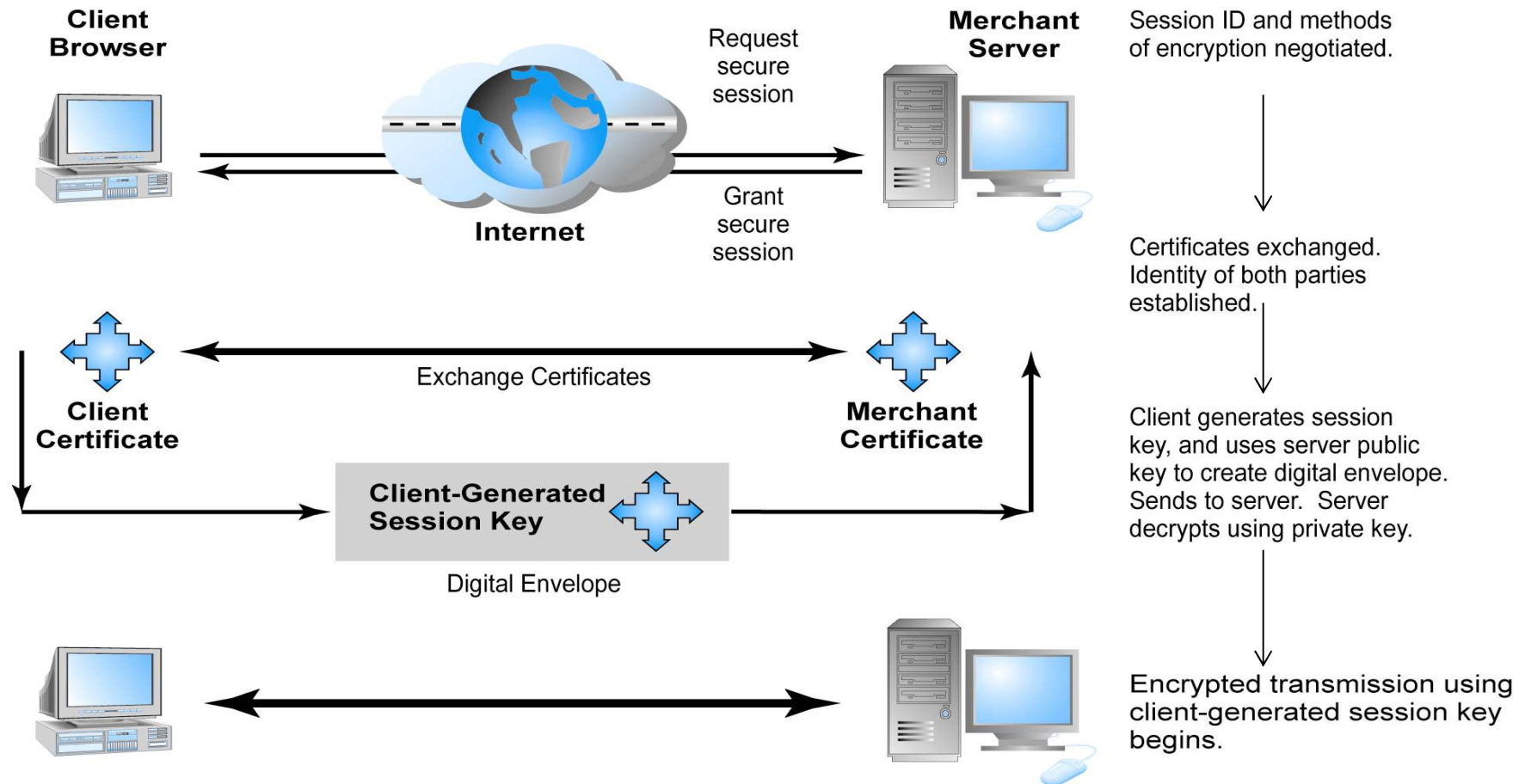
# Secure Negotiated Sessions Using SSL

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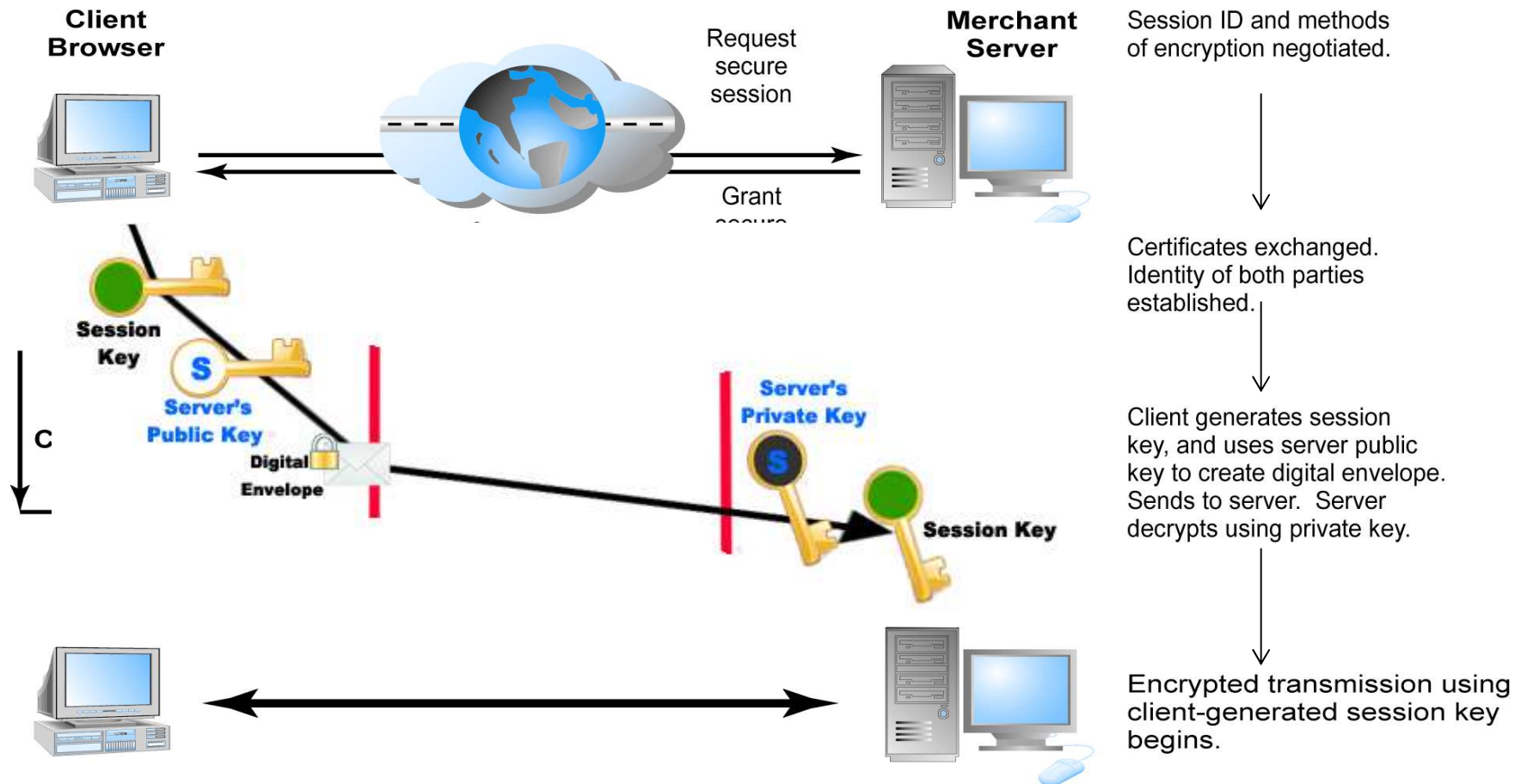
# Secure Negotiated Sessions Using SSL

55



# Secure Negotiated Sessions Using SSL

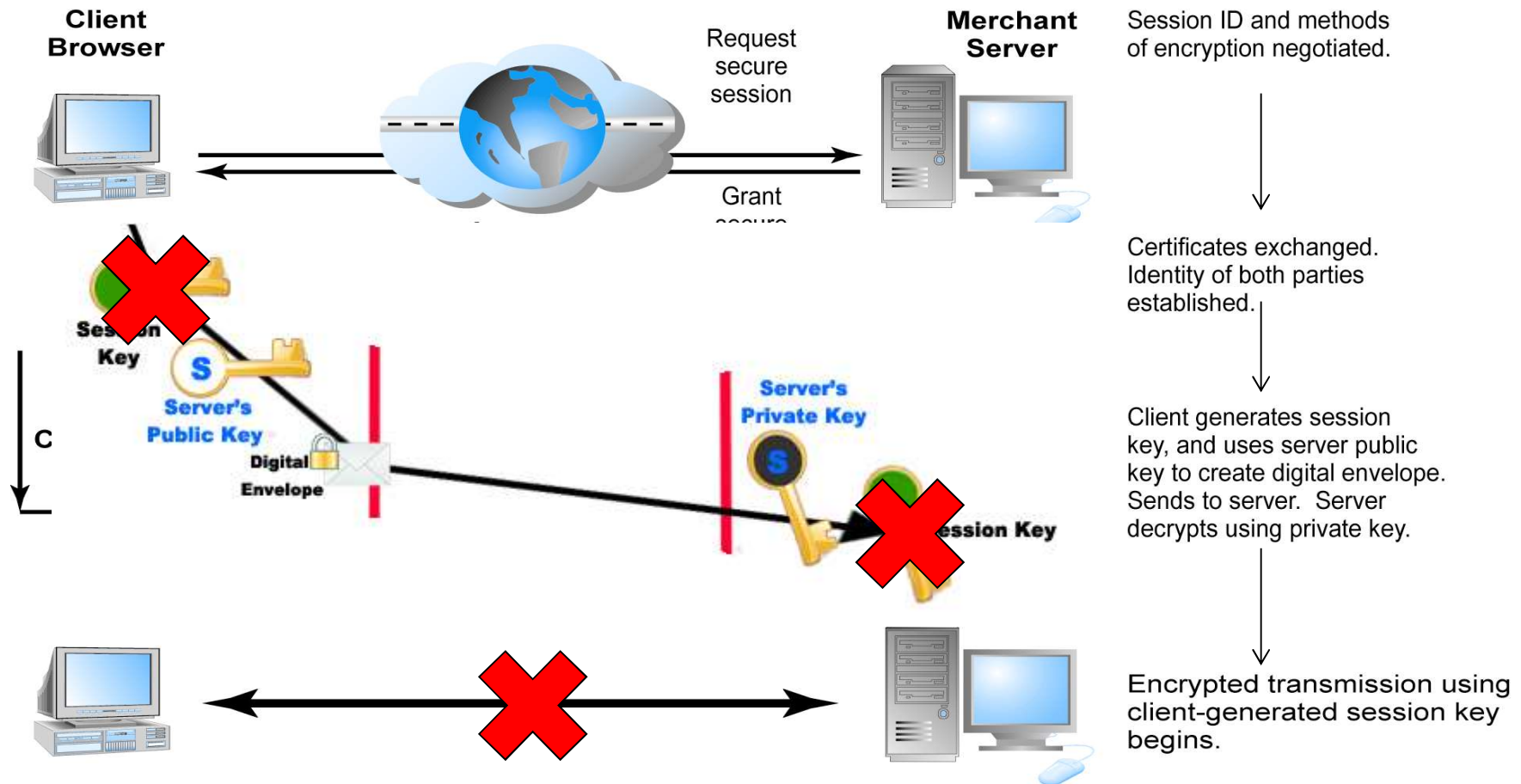
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# Secure Negotiated Sessions Using SSL

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# Lecture Overview

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- Protecting Internet Communications
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  - Public-key Certificates
  - Secure Connection: SSL
  - Popular System: PGP

# Popular System: Pretty Good Privacy (PGP)

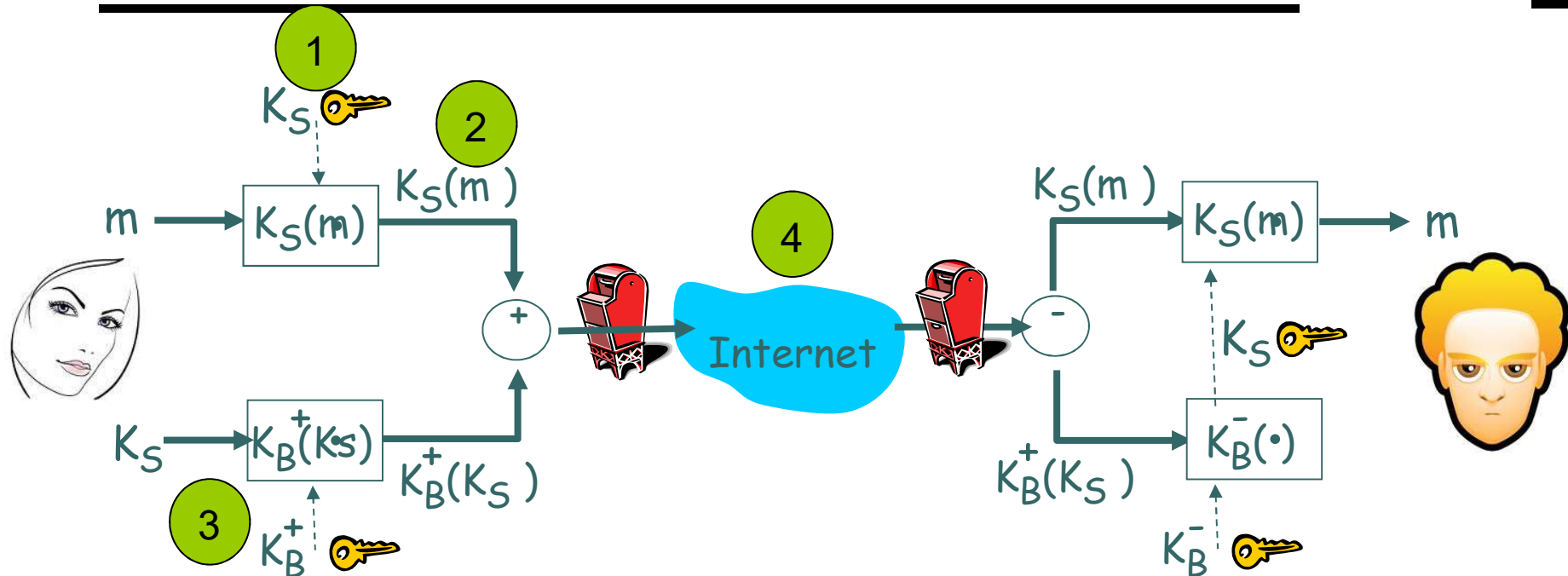
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- A popular cryptographic system
- Freeware: Open PGP and variants:
  - [www.openpgp.org](http://www.openpgp.org), [www.gnupg.org](http://www.gnupg.org)
- Based on RSA
  - Public keys for encrypting session keys / verifying signatures
  - Private keys for decrypting session keys / creating signatures

# Popular System: Pretty Good Privacy (PGP)

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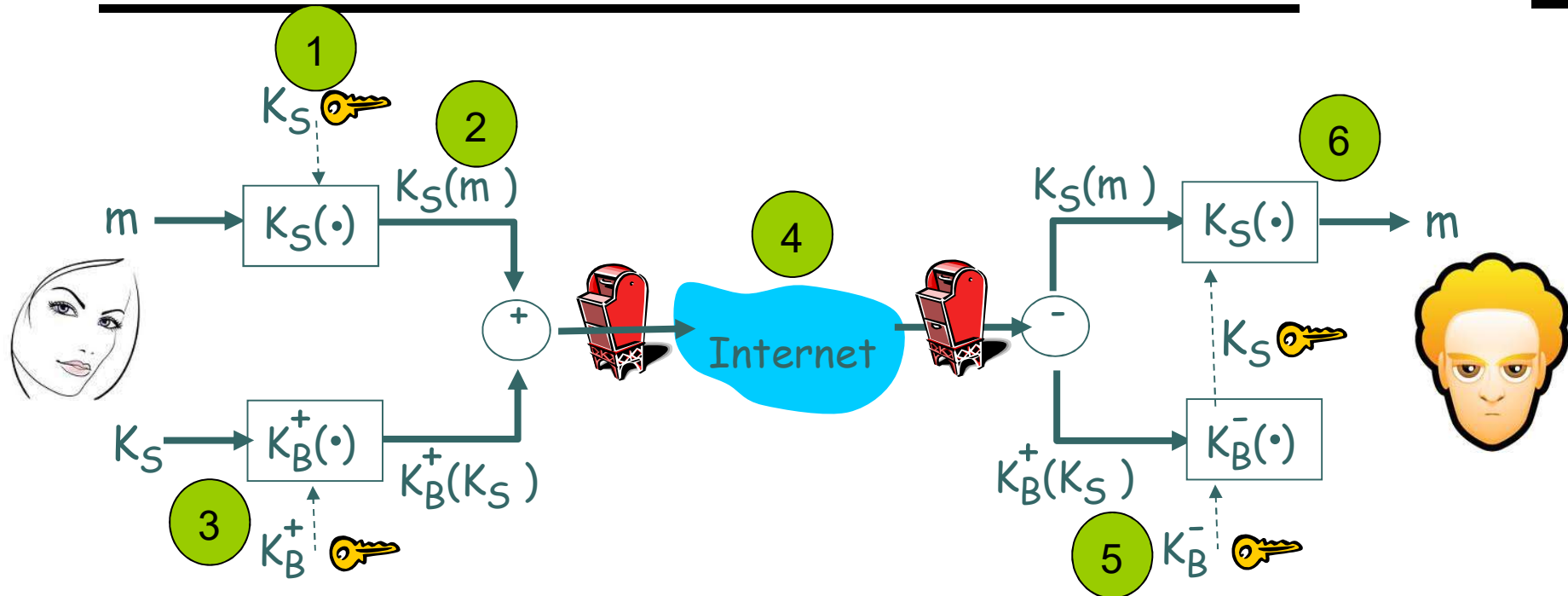


- **Alice:**

- 1 generates random *symmetric* private key,  $K_S$ .
- 2 encrypts message with  $K_S$  (for efficiency)
- 3 also encrypts  $K_S$  with Bob's public key.
- 4 sends both  $K_S(m)$  and  $K_B(K_S)$  to Bob.

# Popular System: Pretty Good Privacy (PGP)

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- **Bob:**

- 5** uses his private key to decrypt and recover  $K_S$
- 6** uses  $K_S$  to decrypt  $K_S(m)$  to recover  $m$

- Some countries place restrictions on...
  - Who can use cryptographic software
  - The export of cryptographic software
- Laws are constantly changing
  - [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Export\\_of\\_cryptography](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Export_of_cryptography)
  - <http://www.efa.org.au/Issues/Crypto/cryptfaq.html>

*"There are currently no direct controls limiting the **import** of cryptographic software or hardware to Australia, nor for the **domestic use** of cryptography **within** Australia (export of cryptographic technology is a different story). Even so, there are some limits in place or currently planned which can have a similar effect."*

# Questions?

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