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Cryptography

Security objectives addressed by cryptography:

- Confidentiality
 - symmetric cryptography
 - asymmetric cryptography
- Integrity
 - hashing
- Authentication and non-repudiation
 - digital signatures

Cryptography

Types of attack:

Ciphertext only attack: ciphertext known to the adversary (eavesdropping)

Known plaintext attack: plaintext and ciphertext are known to the adversary

Chosen plaintext attack: the adversary can choose the plaintext and obtain its encryption (for example, has access to the encryption system)

Chosen ciphertext attack: the adversary can choose the ciphertext and obtain its decryption

Historical Ciphers

Monoalphabetic:

- Shift Cipher
- Substitution Cipher

Polyalphabetic:

- Vigenère Cipher
- Vernam Cipher (one-time pad)
- Rotor Machines

Security of Ciphers

Computational security: best known algorithm for breaking cipher requires an unreasonably large amount of computer time.

- Shift cipher, substitution cipher and Vigenère Cipher are not computationally secure.
- Block ciphers such as AES and public-key ciphers such as RSA are computationally secure.

Unconditional security (perfect secrecy, information-theoretical security, semantic security): no bound on the computational power of the adversary.

- Block ciphers such as AES and public-key ciphers such as RSA are not unconditionally secure.
- Vernam cipher (one-time pad) is unconditionally secure if used correctly.

Stream Ciphers

Encrypt an arbitrary stream of data by combining it with a **keystream**.

Examples: **A5/1**, **RC4**.

Keystream can be generated by a cryptographically secure **pseudo-random generator (PRG)** seeded with the key and should:

- Look random
- Be unpredictable
- Have large linear complexity
- Have low correlation between key bits and keystream bits.

The linear congruential generator is not cryptographically secure, but the Blum Blum Shub generator is.

Most stream ciphers are based on a non-linear combination of **LFSRs (Linear Feedback Shift Registers)**.

Block Ciphers

Plaintext is divided into blocks of fixed length and every block is encrypted one at a time.

DES:

- S-P Network, iterated cipher, Feistel structure
- 64-bit block size, 56-bit key size
- 8 different S-boxes
- non-invertible round
- design optimised for hardware implementations

AES:

- S-P Network, iterated cipher
- 128-bit block size, 128-bit (192, 256) key size
- one S-box
- invertible round
- design optimised for byte-orientated implementations

Block vs Stream Ciphers

Block ciphers:

- **More versatile**: can be used as stream cipher.
- **Standardisation**: DES and AES + modes of operation.
- Very well studied and accepted.

Stream ciphers:

- **Easier** to do the maths.
- Either makes them easier to break or easier to study.
- Supposedly **faster** than block ciphers (less flexible).

Modes of Operation

Block ciphers can be used in different **modes of operation**:

- Electronic Code Book (**ECB mode**)
- Cipher Block Chaining (**CBC mode**)
- Output Feed Back (**OFB mode**)
- Cipher Feed Back (**CFB mode**)
- Counter (**CTR mode**)

Hash Functions

A hash function is an efficient **one-way function** mapping binary strings of arbitrary length to binary strings of fixed length called the **hash-value** or **digest**.

A hash function should have the following properties:

- **Pre-image resistant**: given a digest, it should be computationally infeasible to find a piece of data that produces the digest.
- **Weakly collision-free** or **second pre-image resistant**: given message M it is computationally infeasible to find a different message M' such that $H(M) = H(M')$.
- **Strongly collision-free**: it is computationally infeasible to find different messages M and M' such that $H(M) = H(M')$.

Hash Functions

The [birthday paradox](#): if there are n possibilities then on average \sqrt{n} trials are required to find a collision.

Most practical hash functions make use of the [Merkle-Damgård construction](#).

[Applications of hash functions](#): message authentication, digital signatures, password storage, key generation, pseudorandom number generation, intrusion detection, virus detection.

[Example hash functions](#): MD2, MD4, MD5, SHA-1, SHA-2, SHA-3, RIPEMD, RIPEMD-160.

MDCs and MACs

Used to ensure [integrity](#) of data.

[Manipulation Detection Code \(MDC\)](#): hash function without key.

[Message Authentication Code \(MAC\)](#): hash function with secret key.

Types of MAC:

- MACs based on block ciphers in CBC mode ([CBC-MAC](#)).
- MACs based on MDCs (e.g. [HMAC](#)).
- Customized MACs.

Public Key Cryptography

Each user has a [key pair](#), which consists of a [public key](#) (made public, used for [encryption](#)) and a [private key](#) (kept secret, used for [decryption](#)).

Make use of [number-theoretic problems](#) to implement [trapdoor one-way functions](#).

Example one-way functions:

- [Multiplication](#)
 - Inverse problem: [factoring](#)
- [Modular exponentiation](#)
 - Inverse problem: [discrete logarithm](#)

Public Key Cryptography

Hard Problems:

- [Integer factorisation problem](#)
- [RSA problem](#)
- [Quadratic residuosity problem](#)
- [Square root problem](#)
- [Discrete logarithm problem](#)
- [Diffie-Hellman problem](#)

- [Decisional Diffie-Hellman problem](#)

We can compare the relative difficulty of some of these problems using [reductions](#).

Public Key Cryptography

Public key algorithms:

- [Key exchange](#): Diffie-Hellman
- [Encryption](#): encrypt using public key, decrypt using private key.
- [Digital signature](#): encrypt using private key, decrypt using public key.
 - Schemes with [message recovery](#).
 - Schemes with [appendix](#).

Public Key Cryptography: Encryption

[RSA](#)

Encryption and decryption using [modular exponentiation](#).

Encryption can be made more efficient using the [square and multiply algorithm](#), and selecting an encryption exponent with very few bits set e.g. $2^{16} + 1$.

Decryption can be made more efficient by making use of the knowledge of prime factors of the modulus and using the [Chinese Remainder Theorem](#).

The security of RSA relies on the difficulty of the [integer factorisation problem](#).

Raw RSA is not semantically secure, so a [padding scheme](#) should be used to add [randomness](#) and [redundancy](#).

Public Key Cryptography: Encryption

Other public key algorithms:

- [ElGamal](#)
 - Security relies on the difficulty of the [discrete logarithm problem](#).
 - Used as the basis of the [Digital Signature Algorithm \(DSA\)](#).
- [Rabin](#)
 - Security relies on the difficulty of the [square root problem](#) with a composite modulus.
 - Can be viewed as similar to RSA with an encryption exponent of 2.

Main drawback of public key cryptography is the inherently [slow speed](#).

Therefore, public key schemes are not used [directly](#) for encryption.

Instead, they are used [in conjunction with](#) secret key schemes.

- [Encryption](#) is performed by secret key schemes (e.g. AES).
- [Key agreement](#) is performed by public key schemes (e.g. RSA or Diffie-Hellman).

Public Key Cryptography: Digital Signatures

Public key algorithms for digital signatures:

- [RSA](#)
 - Deterministic signatures: for each message, one valid signature exists
 - Faster verifying than signing
- [ElGamal](#)
- [DSA](#): based on ElGamal
 - Non-deterministic signatures: for each message, many valid signatures exist
 - Faster signing than verifying
- [Blind signatures](#)
 - Signing of message without learning anything about it
 - Can be used in online elections

Key Exchange and Authentication Protocols

Secure communications protocols normally have a number of phases:

1. [Authentication Phase](#)
2. [Key-Exchange Phase](#)
3. [Data Transfer Phase](#)

Authentication techniques:

- [Passwords](#)
- [Symmetric ciphers](#)
- [Asymmetric ciphers](#)
- [Zero knowledge Proof](#)

Key exchange techniques:

- [Key exchange](#)
- [Symmetric ciphers](#)
- [Asymmetric ciphers](#)

Key Exchange and Authentication Protocols

Protocols for authentication:

- [Needham-Shroeder Public-Key Protocol](#)
- [Fiat-Shamir Protocol](#)
- [X.509 Authentication Protocols](#)

Protocols for key exchange:

- [Diffie-Hellman Key-Agreement Protocol](#)

Protocols for authentication and key exchange:

- [Needham-Shroeder Secret-Key Protocol](#)
- [Otway-Rees Protocol](#)
- [Kerberos](#)
- [Diffie-Hellman Key-Agreement embedded in Needham-Shroeder Public-Key Protocol](#)

Key Exchange and Authentication Protocols

Attacks on protocols:

- [Replay attacks](#)
- [Reflection attacks](#)
- [Interleaving attacks](#)
- [Chosen plaintext attacks](#)
- [Man-in-the-middle attacks](#)

Real World Protocols[Application Layer](#)

- Secure e-mail (PGP, S/MIME)
- SSH

[Transport Layer](#)

- SSL
- TLS

[Network Layer](#)

- IPSec

Link Layer

- WEP
- WPA
- WPA2

Digital Cash

SET (Secure Electronic Transactions)

- Confidentiality: dual signatures
- Integrity: hashing
- Authenticity: digital signatures

Bitcoin

- Secure transactions
- Protection against double-spending
- Anybody can be a “merchant” or a “customer”
- Pseudo-anonymity
- Digital signatures initiate the transaction
- All transactions are in the blockchain
- Miners verify the transactions