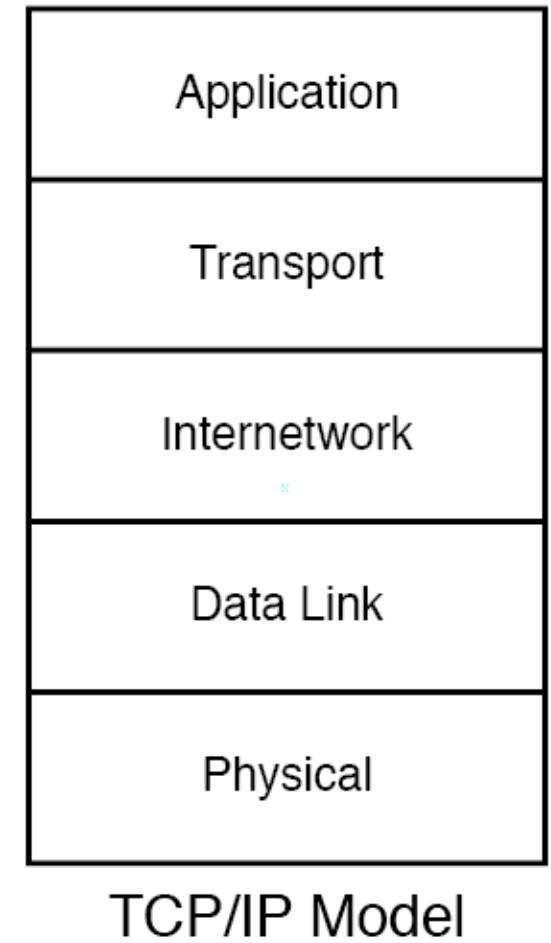


Security & Encryption

The TCP/IP Model

- *Commonly-used version of TCP/IP model has five layers.*
- *Original TCP/IP model had four layers:*
 - *Bottom two layers of model combined into Network Interface layer (or Network Access layer).*



Packet Switching

- Why packets?
 - More users can share the link
 - More efficient error control
 - Easier to buffer along the route

Mandatory Access Controls

- Security perimeter
- Security Levels
 - People, processes and information each have a security label consisting of
 - Security level (unclassified<confidential<secret<top secret)
 - Category (eg; comsec, intel, crypto, nuclear)
 - Read-up and write-down are illegal

Covert Channels

- Timing Channel (processor cycles)
- Storage Channel (shared resources)
- Low Bandwidth (introduce noise)
- Example: 64 Mbyte message and a covert channel with a bandwidth of 1 bit/sec. How long will it take to transmit the plaintext of the message. If the message is encrypted with a 56 bit key and transmitted over an insecure channel. How long will it take the covert channel to deliver the key?

The XOR

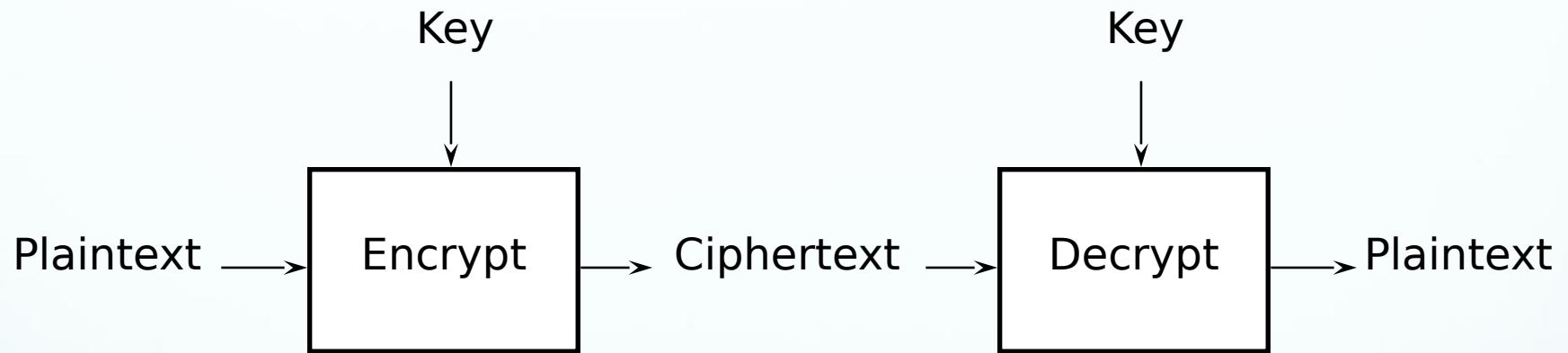
Cryptography (defined)

- Definition: Cryptography is the study of mathematical techniques related to aspects of information security such as confidentiality, data integrity, entity authentication, and data origin authentication.

Cryptographic goals

- (1) privacy or confidentiality
- (2) data integrity
- (3) authentication (entity and data origin)
- (4) non-repudiation

Secret Key Encryption for Privacy



How Secure is Encryption?

- An attacker who knows the algorithm we're using could try all possible keys
- Security of cryptography depends on the limited computational power of the attacker
- A fairly small key (e.g. 64 bits) represents a formidable challenge to the attacker
- Algorithms can also have weaknesses, independent of key size

To Publish or Not to Publish

- If the good guys break your algorithm, you'll hear about it
- If you publish your algorithm, the good guys provide free consulting by trying to crack it
- The bad guys will learn your algorithm anyway
- Today, most commercial algorithms are published; most military algorithms are not

Computer Security Objectives

Confidentiality

- Data confidentiality
 - Assures that private or confidential information is not made available or disclosed to unauthorized individuals
- Privacy
 - Assures that individuals control or influence what information related to them may be collected and stored and by whom and to whom that information may be disclosed

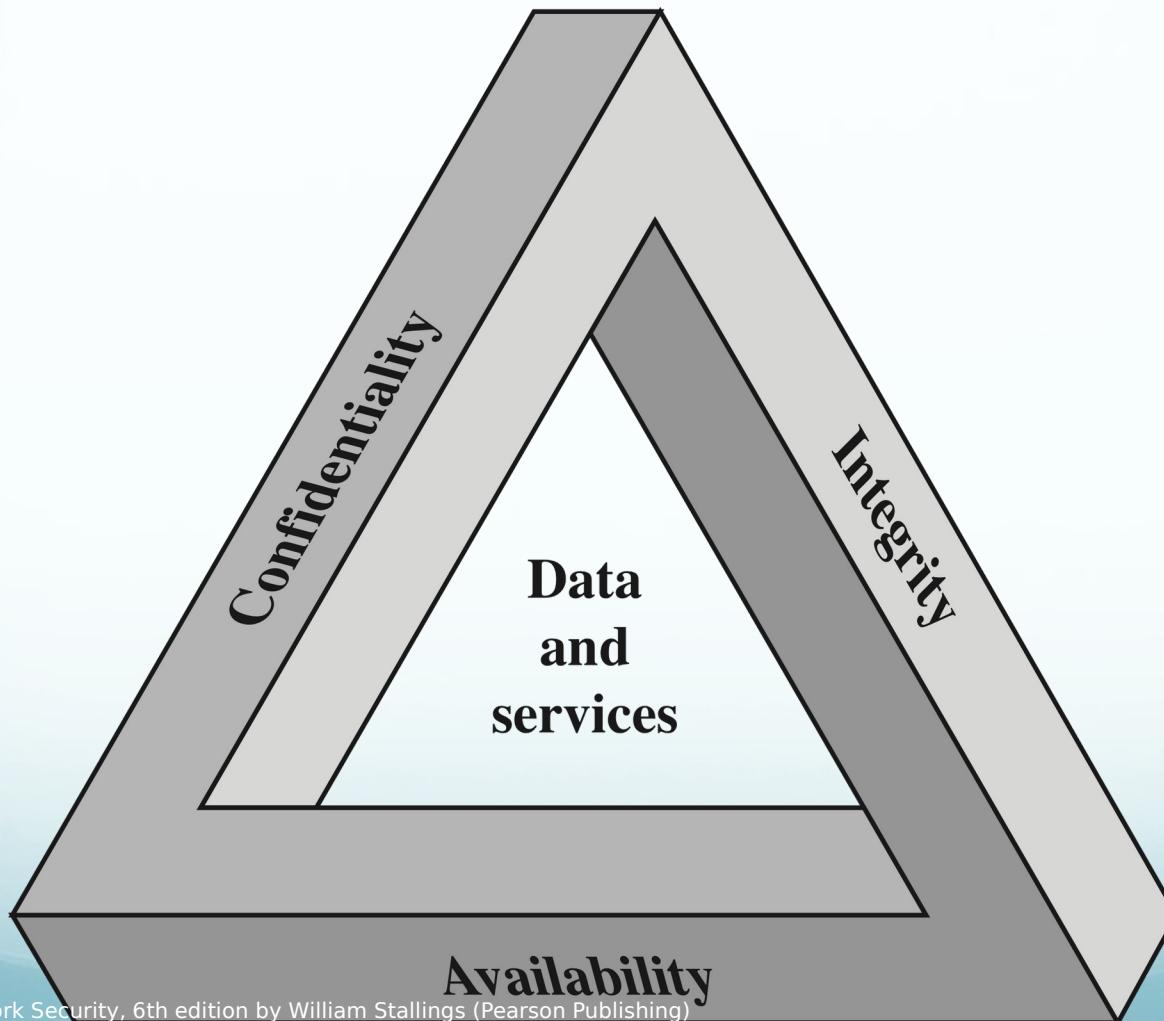
Integrity

- Data integrity
 - Assures that information and programs are changed only in a specified and authorized manner
- System integrity
 - Assures that a system performs its intended function in an unimpaired manner, free from deliberate or inadvertent unauthorized manipulation of the system

Availability

- Assures that systems work promptly and service is not denied to authorized users

CIA Triad



Possible additional concepts:

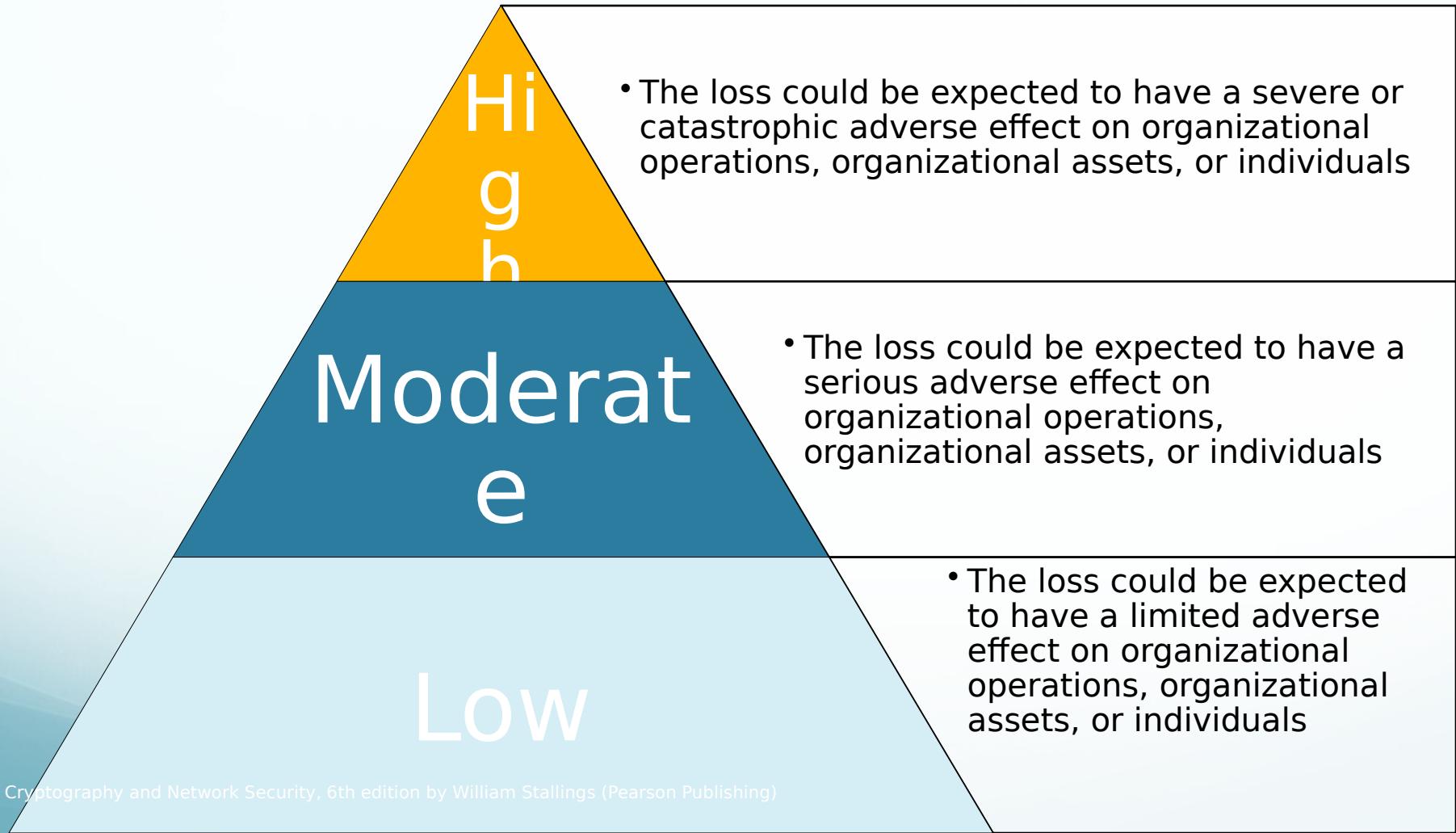
Authenticity

- Verifying that users are who they say they are and that each input arriving at the system came from a trusted source

Accountability

- The security goal that generates the requirement for actions of an entity to be traced uniquely to that entity

Breach of Security Levels of Impact



OSI Security Architecture

- Security attack
 - Any action that compromises the security of information owned by an organization
- Security mechanism
 - A process (or a device incorporating such a process) that is designed to detect, prevent, or recover from a security attack
- Security service
 - A processing or communication service that enhances the security of the data processing systems and the information transfers of an organization
 - Intended to counter security attacks, and they make use of one or more security mechanisms to provide the service

Passive Attacks

- Are in the nature of eavesdropping on, or monitoring of, transmissions
 - Goal of the opponent is to obtain information that is being transmitted
-
- Two types of passive attacks are:
 - The release of message contents
 - Traffic analysis



Active Attacks

- Involve some modification of the data stream or the creation of a false stream
- Difficult to prevent because of the wide variety of potential physical, software, and network vulnerabilities
- Goal is to detect attacks and to recover from any disruption or delays caused by them



Masquerade

- Takes place when one entity pretends to be a different entity
- Usually includes one of the other forms of active attack

Replay

- Involves the passive capture of a data unit and its subsequent retransmission to produce an unauthorized effect

Modification of messages

- Some portion of a legitimate message is altered, or messages are delayed or reordered to produce an unauthorized effect

Denial of service

- Prevents or inhibits the normal use or management of communications facilities

Security Services

- Defined by X.800 as:
 - A service provided by a protocol layer of communicating open systems and that ensures adequate security of the systems or of data transfers

X.800 Service Categories

- Authentication
- Access control
- Data confidentiality
- Data integrity
- Nonrepudiation



Authentication

- Concerned with assuring that a communication is authentic
 - In the case of a single message, assures the recipient that the message is from the source that it claims to be from
 - In the case of ongoing interaction, assures the two entities are authentic and that the connection is not interfered with in such a way that a third party can masquerade as one of the two legitimate parties

Two specific authentication services are defined in X.800:

- Peer entity authentication
- Data origin authentication

Access Control

- The ability to limit and control the access to host systems and applications via communications links
- To achieve this, each entity trying to gain access must first be identified, or authenticated, so that access rights can be tailored to the individual



Data Confidentiality

- The protection of transmitted data from passive attacks
 - Broadest service protects all user data transmitted between two users over a period of time
 - Narrower forms of service includes the protection of a single message or even specific fields within a message
- The protection of traffic flow from analysis
 - This requires that an attacker not be able to observe the source and destination, frequency, length, or other characteristics of the traffic on a communications facility

Nonrepudiation

- Prevents either sender or receiver from denying a transmitted message
- When a message is sent, the receiver can prove that the alleged sender in fact sent the message
- When a message is received, the sender can prove that the alleged receiver in fact received the message

Cryptographic Systems

- Characterized along three independent dimensions:

The type of operations used for transforming plaintext to ciphertext

Substitution

Transposition

The number of keys used

Symmetric, single-key, secret-key, conventional encryption

Asymmetric, two-key, or public-key encryption

The way in which the plaintext is processed

Block cipher

Stream cipher

Define.....

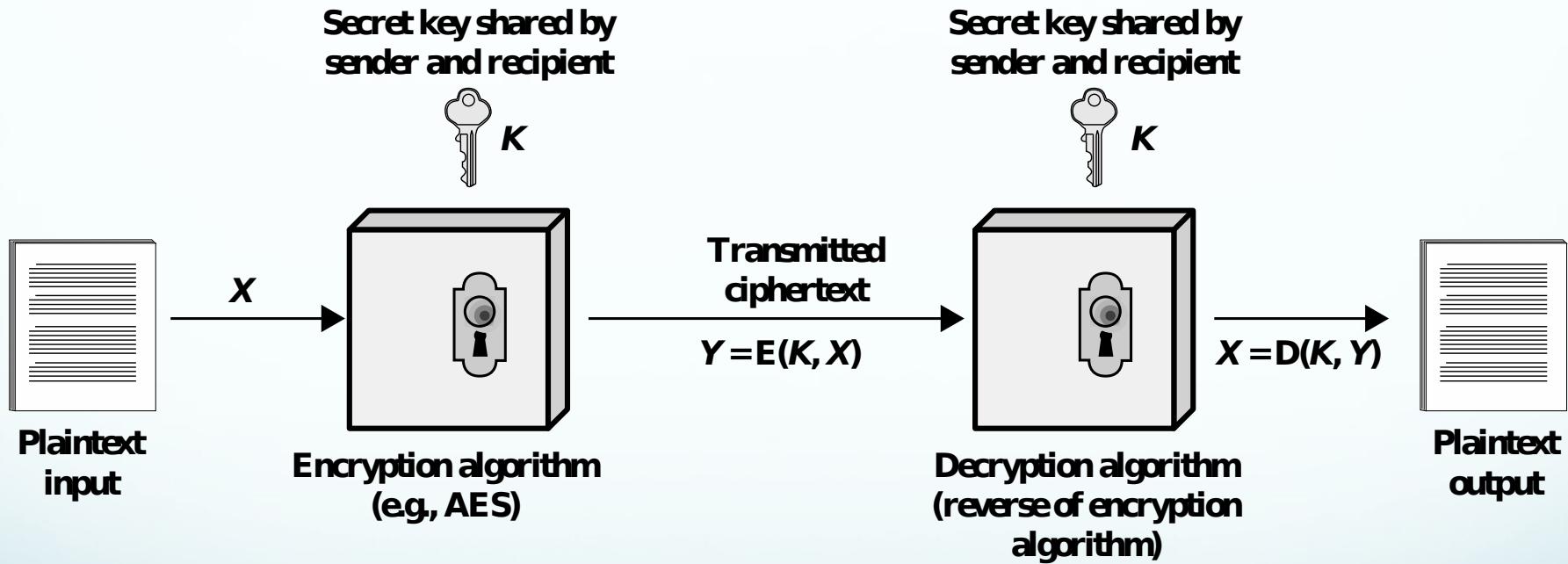
- Plaintext
 - The original message
- Ciphertext
 - The coded message
- Enciphering or encryption
 - Process of converting from plaintext to ciphertext
- Deciphering or decryption
 - Restoring the plaintext from the ciphertext
- Cryptography
 - Study of encryption
- Cryptographic system or cipher
 - Schemes used for encryption
- Cryptanalysis
 - Techniques used for deciphering a message without any knowledge of the enciphering details
- Cryptology
 - Areas of cryptography and cryptanalysis together

Symmetric Encryption

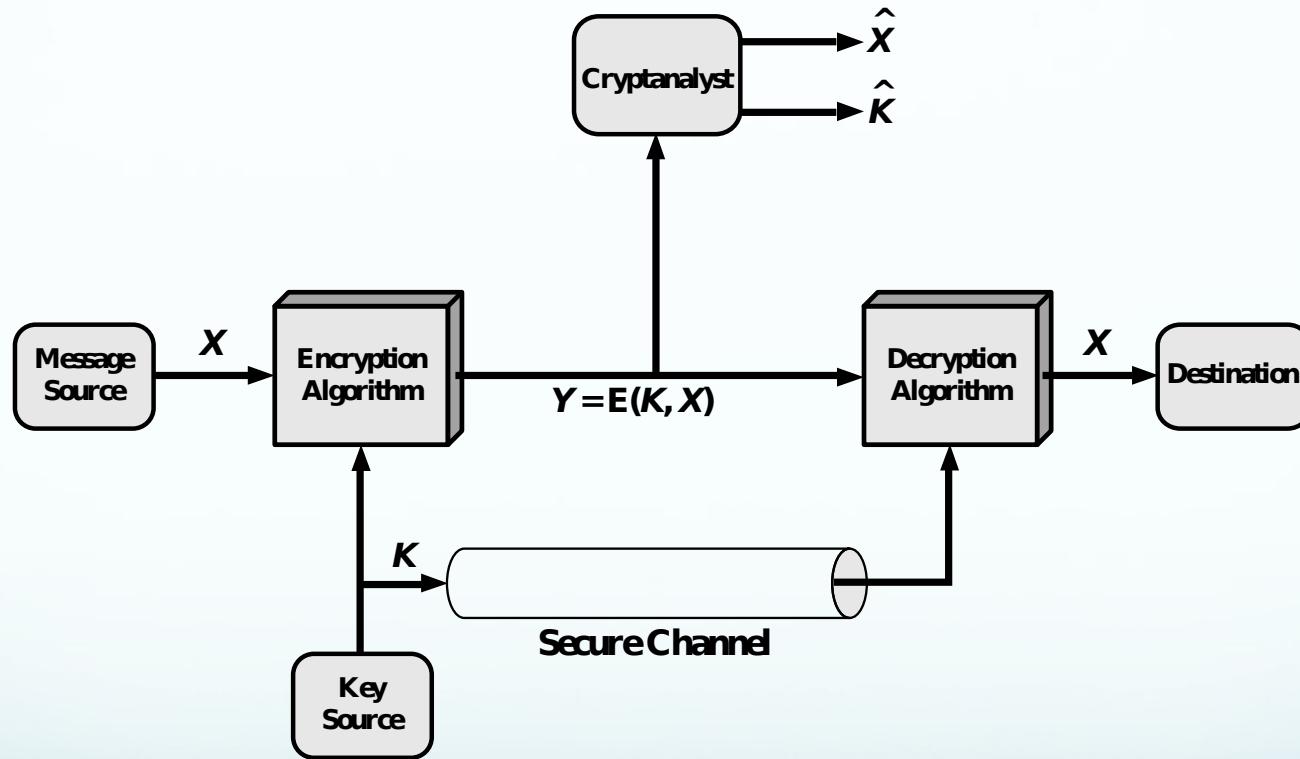
- Also referred to as conventional encryption or single-key encryption
- Was the only type of encryption in use prior to the development of public-key encryption in the 1970s
- Remains by far the most widely used of the two types of encryption



Simplified Model of Symmetric Encryption



Model of Symmetric Cryptosystem



Cryptanalysis and Brute-Force Attack

Cryptanalysis

- **Attack relies on the nature of the algorithm plus some knowledge of the general characteristics of the plaintext**
- **Attack exploits the characteristics of the algorithm to attempt to deduce a specific plaintext or to deduce the key being used**

Brute-force attack

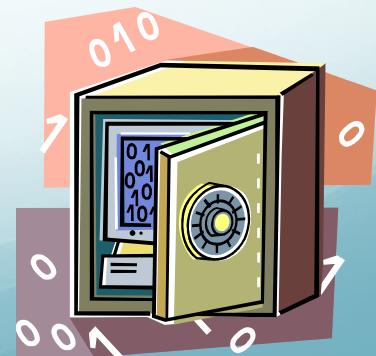
- **Attacker tries every possible key on a piece of ciphertext until an intelligible translation into plaintext is obtained**
- **On average, half of all possible keys must be tried to achieve success**

Types of Cryptanalytic Attacks based on the Amount of Information known to the cryptanalyst

Type of Attack	Known to Cryptanalyst
Ciphertext Only	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Encryption algorithm• Ciphertext
Known Plaintext	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Encryption algorithm• Ciphertext• One or more plaintext-ciphertext pairs formed with the secret key
Chosen Plaintext	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Encryption algorithm• Ciphertext• Plaintext message chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding ciphertext generated with the secret key

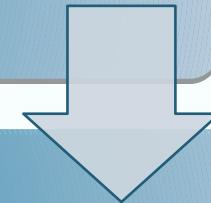
Encryption Scheme Security

- Unconditionally secure
 - No matter how much time an opponent has, it is impossible for him or her to decrypt the ciphertext simply because the required information is not there
- Computationally secure
 - The cost of breaking the cipher exceeds the value of the encrypted information
 - The time required to break the cipher exceeds the useful lifetime of the information

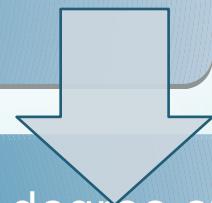


Brute-Force Attack

Involves trying every possible key until an intelligible translation of the ciphertext into plaintext is obtained



On average, half of all possible keys must be tried to achieve success



To supplement the brute-force approach, some degree of knowledge about the expected plaintext is needed, and some means of automatically distinguishing plaintext from garble is also needed

Substitution Technique

- Is one in which the letters of plaintext are replaced by other letters or by numbers or symbols
- If the plaintext is viewed as a sequence of bits, then substitution involves replacing plaintext bit patterns with ciphertext bit patterns





Caesar Cipher

- Simplest and earliest known use of a substitution cipher
- Used by Julius Caesar
- Involves replacing each letter of the alphabet with the letter standing three places further down the alphabet
- Alphabet is wrapped around so that the letter following Z is A

plain: meet me after the toga party

cipher: PHHW PH DIWHU WKH WRJD SDUWB

Caesar Cipher Algorithm

- Can define transformation as:

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z
D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C

- Mathematically give each letter a number

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

- Algorithm can be expressed as:

$$c = E(3, p) = (p + 3) \bmod 26$$

- A shift may be of any amount, so that the general Caesar algorithm is:

$$C = E(k, p) = (p + k) \bmod 26$$

- Where k takes on a value in the range 1 to 25; the decryption algorithm is simply:

$$p = D(k, C) = (C - k) \bmod 26$$

Brute-Force Cryptanalysis of Caesar Cipher

KEY	PHHW PH DIWHU WKH WRJD SDUWB
1	oggv og chvgt vjg vqic rctva
2	nffu nf bgufs uif uphb qbsuz
3	meet me after the toga party
4	ldds ld zesdq sgd snfz ozqsx
5	kccr kc ydrcc rfc rmey nyprw
6	jbbq jb xcqbo qeb qldx mxoqv
7	iaap ia wbpan pda pkcw lwnpu
8	hzzo hz vaozm ocz ojbv kvmot
9	gyyn gy uznyl nby niau julns
10	fxxm fx tymxk max mhzt itkmr
11	ewwl ew sxlwj lzw lgys hsjlq
12	dvvk dv rwkvi kyv kfxr grikp
13	cuuj cu qvjuh jxu jewq fqhjo
14	btti bt puitg iwt idvp epgin
15	assh as othsf hvs hcua dofhm
16	zrrg zr nsgre gur gbtn cnegl
17	yqqf yq mrfqd ftq fasm bmdfk
18	xppe xp lqepc esp ezrl alcej
19	wood wo kpdob dro dyqk zkldi
20	vnnn vn jocna cqn cxpj yjach
21	ummb um inbmz bpm bwoi xizbg
22	tlla tl hmaly aol avnh whyaf
23	skkz sk glzkx znk zumg vgxze
24	rjjy rj fkyjw ymj ytlf ufwyd
25	qiix qi ejxiv xli xske tevxc

Monoalphabetic Cipher

- Permutation
 - Of a finite set of elements S is an ordered sequence of all the elements of S , with each element appearing exactly once
- If the “cipher” line can be any permutation of the 26 alphabetic characters, then there are $26!$ or greater than 4×10^{26} possible keys
 - This is 10 orders of magnitude greater than the key space for DES
 - Approach is referred to as a *monoalphabetic substitution cipher* because a single cipher alphabet is used per message

Playfair Key Matrix

- Fill in letters of keyword (minus duplicates) from left to right and from top to bottom, then fill in the remainder of the matrix with the remaining letters in alphabetic order
- Using the keyword MONARCHY:

M	O	N	A	R
C	H	Y	B	D
E	F	G	I/J	K
L	P	Q	S	T
U	V	W	X	Z

Vigenère Cipher

- Best known and one of the simplest polyalphabetic substitution ciphers
- In this scheme the set of related monoalphabetic substitution rules consists of the 26 Caesar ciphers with shifts of 0 through 25
- Each cipher is denoted by a key letter which is the ciphertext letter that substitutes for the plaintext letter a

Example of Vigenère Cipher

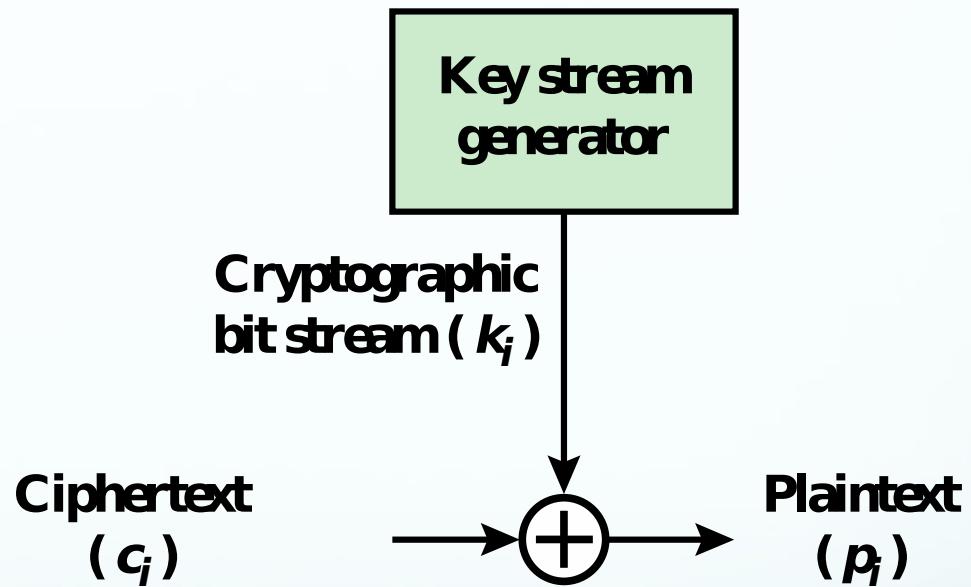
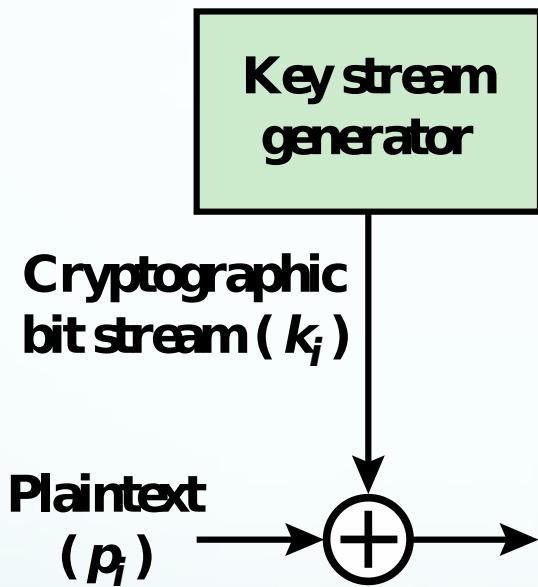
- To encrypt a message, a key is needed that is as long as the message
- Usually, the key is a repeating keyword
- For example, if the keyword is *deceptive*, the message “we are discovered save yourself” is encrypted as:

key: deceptive deceptive deceptive

plaintext: wearediscoveredsaveyourself

ciphertext: ZICVTWQNGRZGVTWAVZHCQYGLMGJ

Vernam Cipher



One-Time Pad

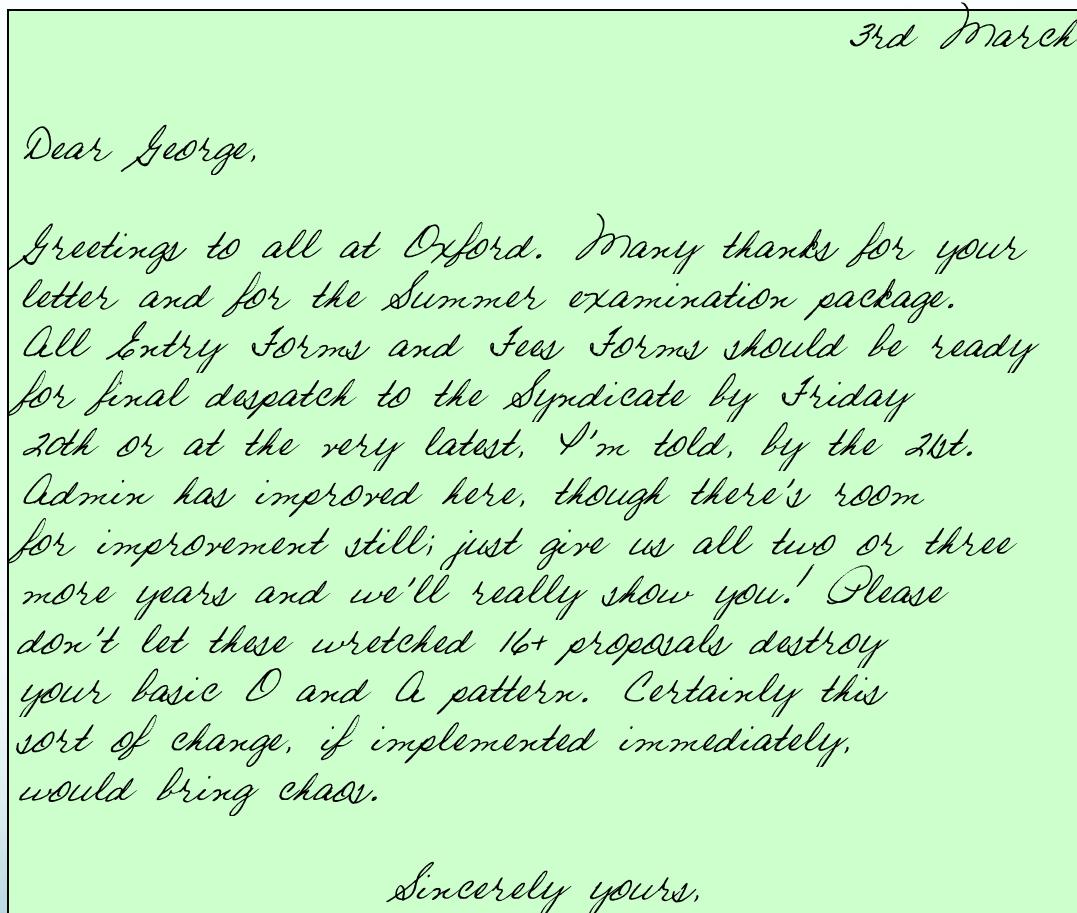
- Improvement to Vernam cipher proposed by an Army Signal Corp officer, Joseph Mauborgne
- Use a random key that is as long as the message so that the key need not be repeated
- Key is used to encrypt and decrypt a single message and then is discarded
- Each new message requires a new key of the same length as the new message
- Scheme is unbreakable
 - Produces random output that bears no statistical relationship to the plaintext
 - Because the ciphertext contains no information whatsoever about the plaintext, there is simply no way to break the code



Difficulties

- The one-time pad offers complete security but, in practice, has two fundamental difficulties:
 - There is the practical problem of making large quantities of random keys
 - Any heavily used system might require millions of random characters on a regular basis
 - Mammoth key distribution problem
 - For every message to be sent, a key of equal length is needed by both sender and receiver
- Because of these difficulties, the one-time pad is of limited utility
 - Useful primarily for low-bandwidth channels requiring very high security
- The one-time pad is the only cryptosystem that exhibits *perfect secrecy*

Steganography



Cryptography and Network Security, 6th edition by William Stallings (Pearson Publishing)
**Figure 2.9 A Puzzle for Inspector Morse
(from *The Silent World of Nicholas Quinn*, by Colin Dexter)**

Stream Cipher

Encrypts a digital data stream one bit or one byte at a time

Examples:

- Autokeyed Vigenère cipher
- Vernam cipher

In the ideal case a one-time pad version of the Vernam cipher would be used, in which the keystream is as long as the plaintext bit stream

If the cryptographic keystream is random, then this cipher is unbreakable by any means other than acquiring the keystream

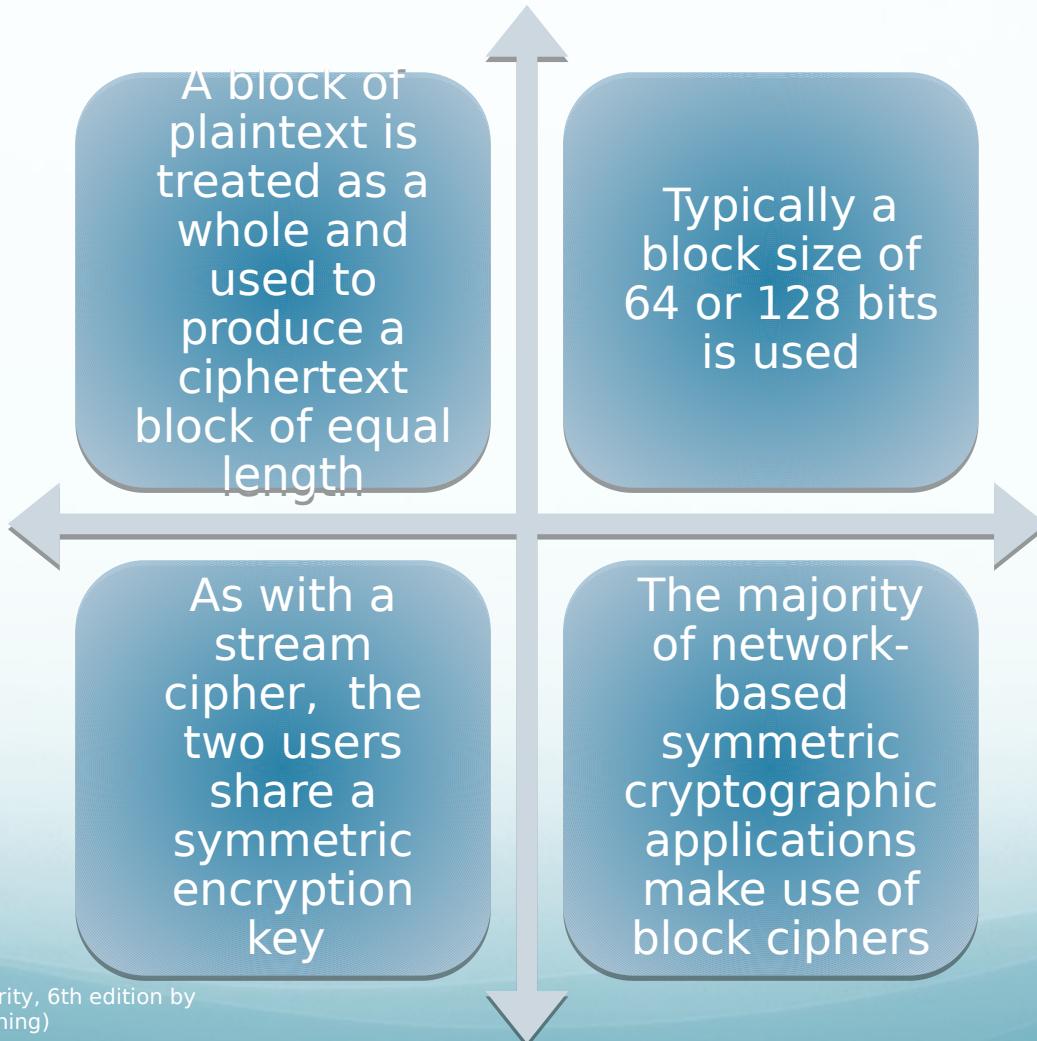
- Keystream must be provided to both users in advance via some independent and secure channel
- This introduces insurmountable logistical problems if the intended data traffic is very large

For practical reasons the bit-stream generator must be implemented as an algorithmic procedure so that the cryptographic bit stream can be produced by both

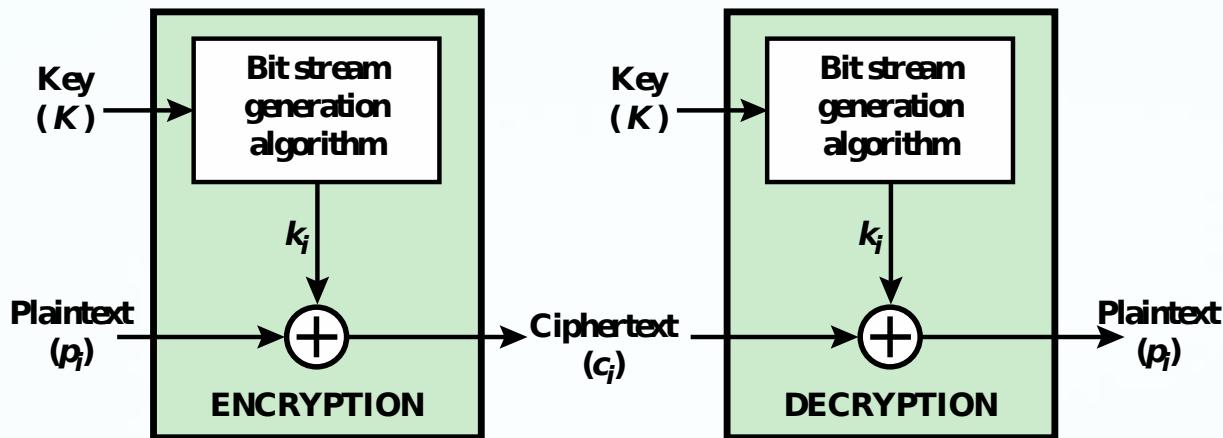
It must be computationally impractical to predict future portions of the bit stream based on previous portions of the bit stream

The two users need only share the generating key and each can produce the keystream

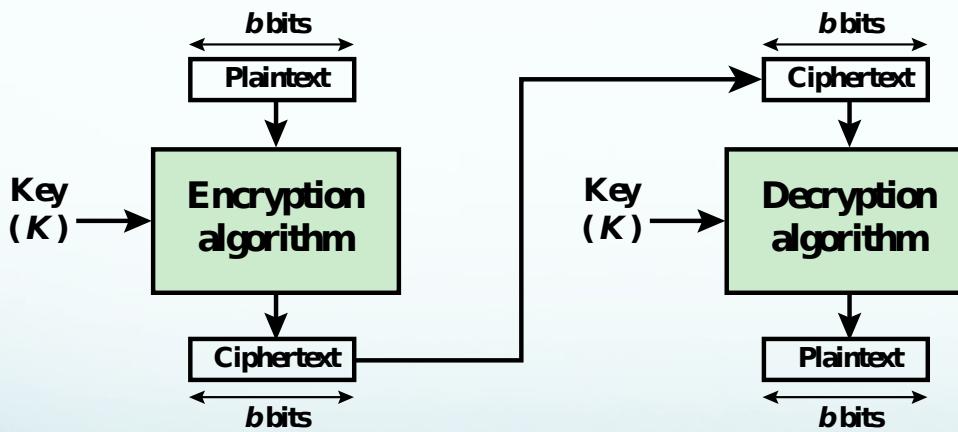
Block Cipher



Stream Cipher and Block Cipher



(a) Stream Cipher Using Algorithmic Bit Stream Generator



(b) Block Cipher

Feistel Cipher

- Proposed the use of a cipher that alternates substitutions and permutations

Substitution
S

- Each plaintext element or group of elements is uniquely replaced by a corresponding ciphertext element or group of elements

Permutation

- No elements are added or deleted or replaced in the sequence, rather the order in which the elements appear in the sequence is changed

Claude Shannon to develop a product cipher that alternates confusion and diffusion functions

- Is the structure used by many significant symmetric block ciphers currently in use

Diffusion and Confusion

- The concern was to thwart cryptanalysis based on statistical analysis

Diffusion

- The statistical structure of the plaintext is dissipated into long-range statistics of the ciphertext
- This is achieved by having each plaintext digit affect the value of many ciphertext digits

Confusion

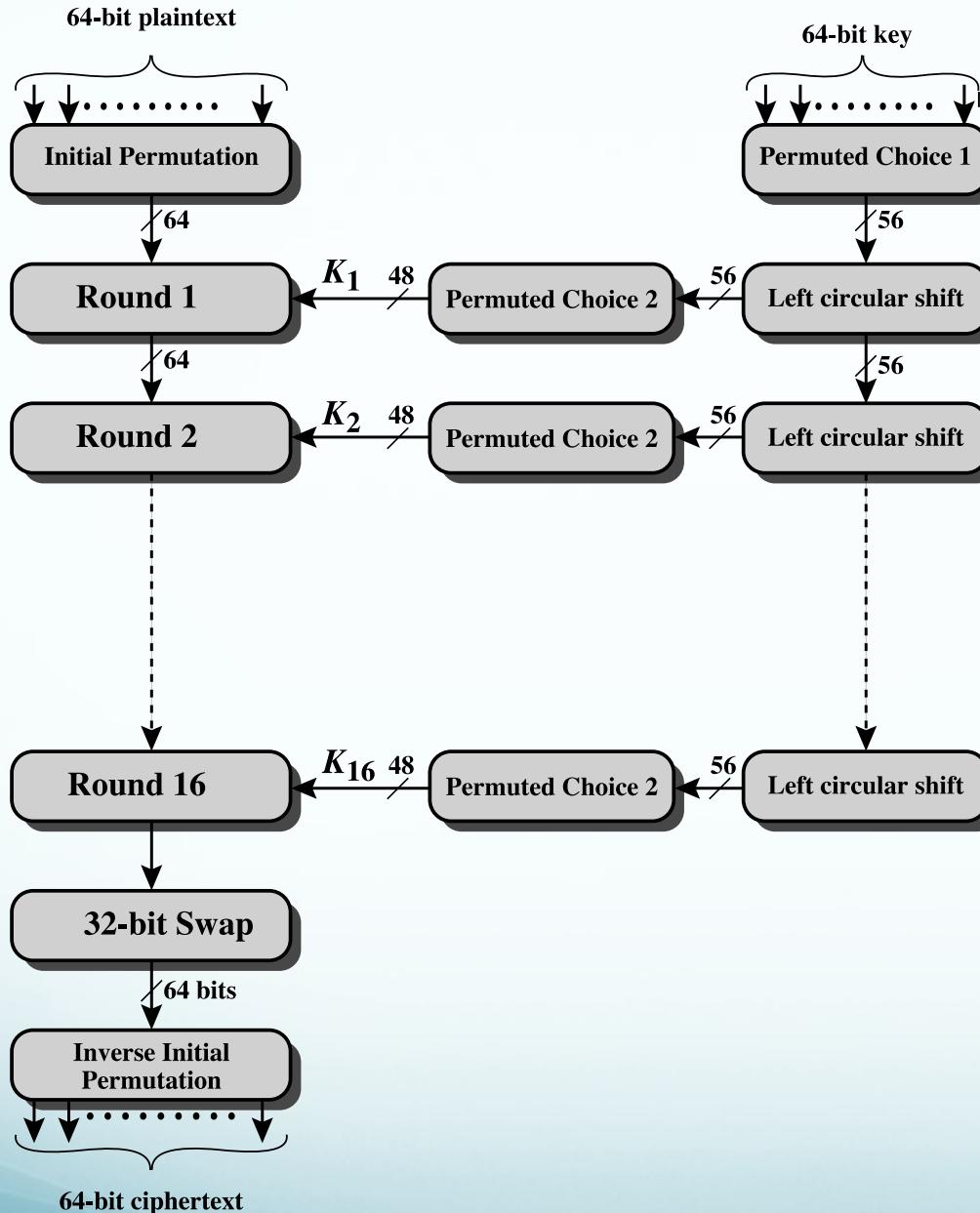
- Seeks to make the relationship between the statistics of the ciphertext and the value of the encryption key as complex as possible
- Even if the attacker can get some handle on the statistics of the ciphertext, the way in which the key was used to produce that ciphertext is so complex as to make it difficult to deduce the key

Feistel Cipher Design Features

- Block size
 - Larger block sizes mean greater security but reduced encryption/decryption speed for a given algorithm
- Key size
 - Larger key size means greater security but may decrease encryption/decryption speeds
- Number of rounds
 - The essence of the Feistel cipher is that a single round offers inadequate security but that multiple rounds offer increasing security
- Subkey generation algorithm
 - Greater complexity in this algorithm should lead to greater difficulty of cryptanalysis
- Round function F
 - Greater complexity generally means greater resistance to cryptanalysis
- Fast software encryption/decryption
 - In many cases, encrypting is embedded in applications or utility functions in such a way as to preclude a hardware implementation; accordingly, the speed of execution of the algorithm becomes a concern
- Ease of analysis
 - If the algorithm can be concisely and clearly explained, it is easier to analyze that algorithm for cryptanalytic vulnerabilities and therefore develop a higher level of assurance as to its strength

Data Encryption Standard (DES)

- Issued in 1977 by the National Bureau of Standards (now NIST) as Federal Information Processing Standard 46
- Was the most widely used encryption scheme until the introduction of the Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) in 2001
- Algorithm itself is referred to as the Data Encryption Algorithm (DEA)
 - Data are encrypted in 64-bit blocks using a 56-bit key
 - The algorithm transforms 64-bit input in a series of steps into a 64-bit output
 - The same steps, with the same key, are used to reverse the encryption



DES Encryption Algorithm

Principles: Number of Rounds

The greater the number of rounds, the more difficult it is to perform cryptanalysis

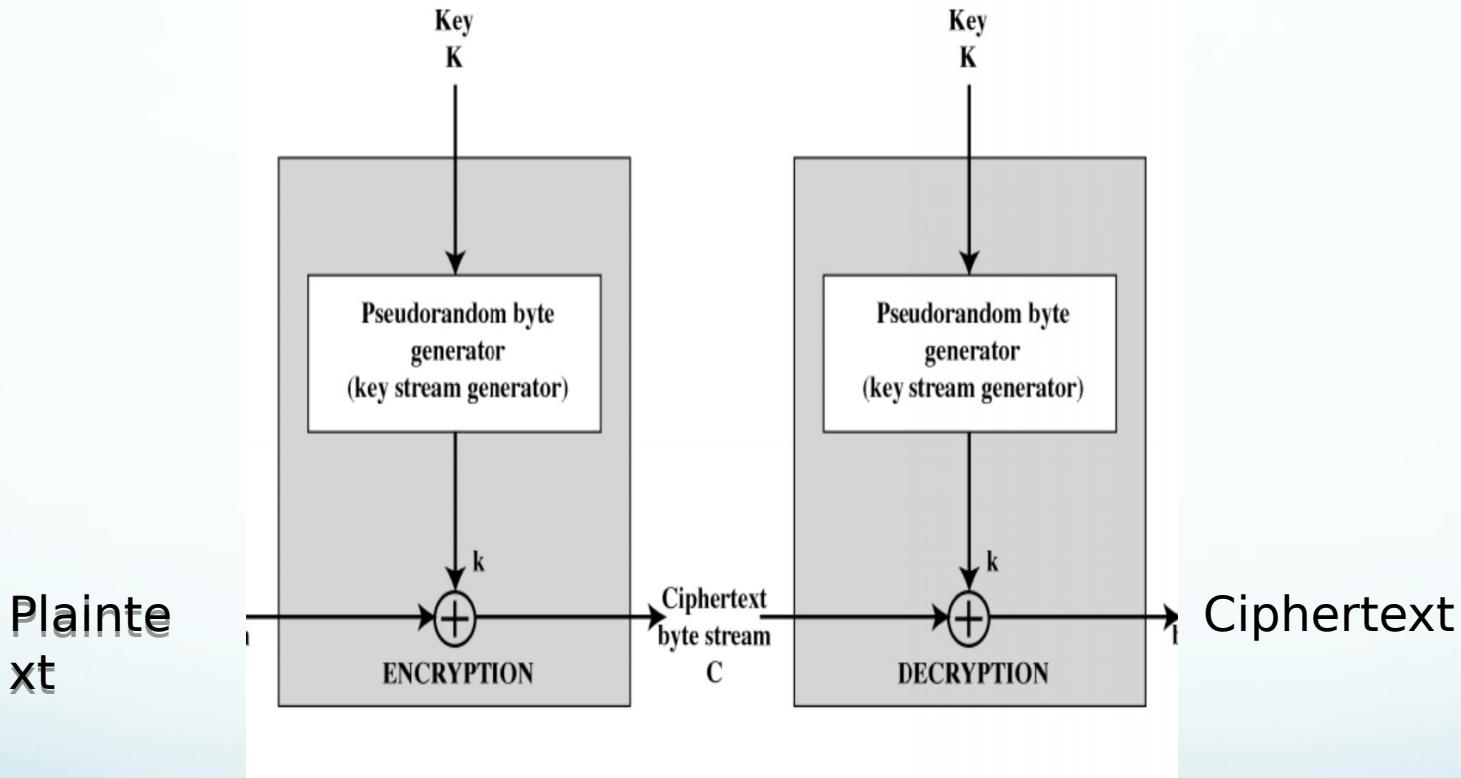
In general, the criterion should be that the number of rounds is chosen so that known cryptanalytic efforts require greater effort than a simple brute-force key search attack

If DES had 15 or fewer rounds, differential cryptanalysis would require less effort than a brute-force key search

Principles: Design of Function F

- The heart of a Feistel block cipher is the function F
- The more nonlinear F, the more difficult any type of cryptanalysis will be
- The algorithm should have good avalanche properties

Stream Cipher Diagram



Conditions for Security

1. The encryption sequence should have a large period. A pseudorandom number generator uses a function that produces a deterministic stream of bits that eventually repeats. The longer the period of repeat the more difficult it will be to do cryptanalysis.
2. The keystream should approximate the properties of a true random number stream as close as possible. For example, there should be an approximately equal number of 1s and 0s. If the keystream is treated as a stream of bytes, then all of the 256 possible byte values should appear approximately equally often. The more random-appearing the keystream is, the more randomized the ciphertext is, making cryptanalysis more difficult.
3. Note from previous figure that the output of the pseudorandom number generator is conditioned on the value of the input key. To guard against brute-force attacks, the key needs to be sufficiently long. The same considerations as apply for block ciphers are valid here. Thus, with current technology, a key length of at least 128 bits is desirable.

Stream vs Block Ciphers

Speed Comparisons of Symmetric Ciphers on a Pentium II

Cipher	Key Length	Speed (Mbps)
DES	56	9
3DES	168	3
RC2	variable	0.9
RC4	variable	45

The RC4 Algorithm

- Designed in 1987 by Ron Rivest for RSA Security
- Variable key-size stream cipher with byte-oriented operations
- Analysis shows that the period of the cipher is overwhelmingly likely to be greater than 10^{100}
- Runs very quickly in software
- Kept as a trade secret by RSA Security. In September 1994, the RC4 algorithm was anonymously posted on the Internet on the Cypherpunks anonymous remailers list.

The RC4 Algorithm

- The RC4 algorithm is remarkably simple and quite easy to explain. A variable-length key of from 1 to 256 bytes (8 to 2048 bits) is used to initialize a 256-byte state vector S, with elements S[0], S[1], ..., S[255]. At all times, S contains a permutation of all 8-bit numbers from 0 through 255. For encryption and decryption, a byte k is generated from S by selecting one of the 255 entries in a systematic fashion. As each value of k is generated, the entries in S are once again permuted.

The RC4 Algorithm

Initialization of S

- To begin, the entries of S are set equal to the values from 0 through 255 in ascending order; that is; $S[0] = 0, S[1] = 1, \dots, S[255] = 255$
- A temporary vector, T, is also created. If the length of the key K is 256 bytes, then K is transferred to T. Otherwise, for a key of length keylen bytes, the first keylen elements of T are copied from K and then K is repeated as many times as necessary to fill out T
- Next we use T to produce the initial permutation of S. This involves starting with $S[0]$ and going through to $S[255]$, and, for each $S[i]$, swapping $S[i]$ with another byte in S according to a scheme dictated by $T[i]$
- Because the only operation on S is a swap, the only effect is a permutation. S still contains all the numbers from 0 through 255.

The RC4 Algorithm

Stream Generation

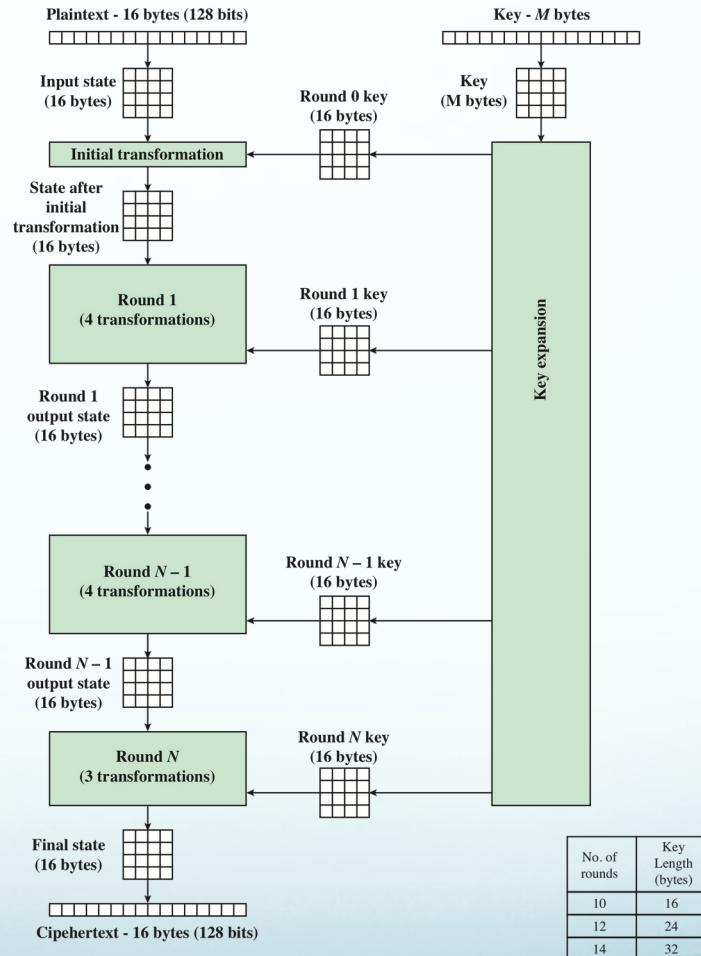
- Once the S vector is initialized, the input key is no longer used
- Stream generation involves starting with S[0] and going through to S[255], and, for each S[i], swapping S[i] with another byte in S according to a scheme dictated by the current configuration of S
- After S[255] is reached, the process continues, starting over again at S[0]
- To encrypt, XOR the value k with the next byte of plaintext.
To decrypt, XOR the value k with the next byte of ciphertext

Advanced Encryption Standard

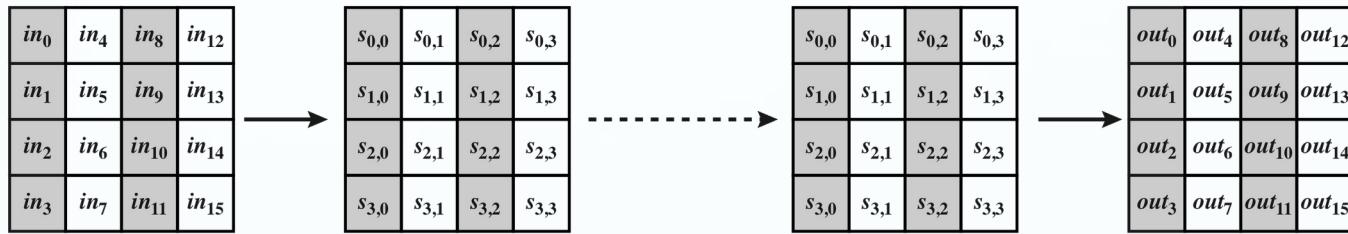
AES Primitive Operations

- EXOR
- The S-Box which is an octet for octet substitution
- Rearrangement of octets by shifting a row and or a column by a number of cells
- A Mix Column operation

AES Encryption Process



AES Data Structures

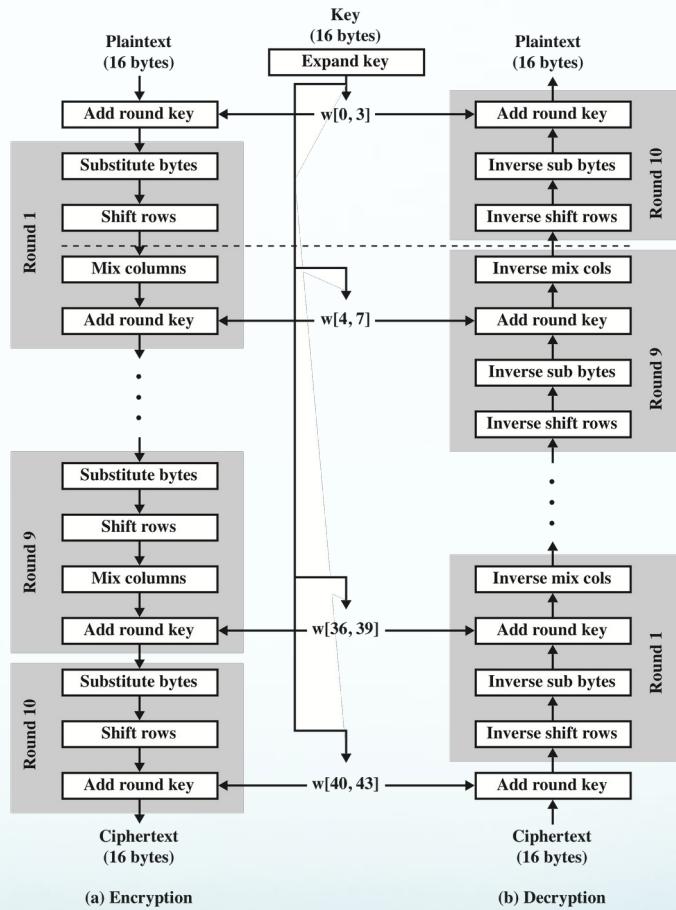


(a) Input, state array, and output



(b) Key and expanded key

AES Encryption and Decryption



S-Box Rationale

- The S-box is designed to be resistant to known cryptanalytic attacks
- The Rijndael developers sought a design that has a low correlation between input bits and output bits and the property that the output is not a linear mathematical function of the input
- The nonlinearity is due to the use of the multiplicative inverse

Shift Row Rationale

- More substantial than it may first appear
- The State, as well as the cipher input and output, is treated as an array of four 4-byte columns
- On encryption, the first 4 bytes of the plaintext are copied to the first column of State, and so on
- The round key is applied to State column by column
 - Thus, a row shift moves an individual byte from one column to another, which is a linear distance of a multiple of 4 bytes
- Transformation ensures that the 4 bytes of one column are spread out to four different columns

Mix Columns Rationale

- The mix column transformation combined with the shift row transformation ensures that after a few rounds all output bits depend on all input bits

AddRoundKey Transformation

- The 128 bits of State are bitwise XORed with the 128 bits of the round key
- Operation is viewed as a columnwise operation between the 4 bytes of a State column and one word of the round key
 - Can also be viewed as a byte-level operation

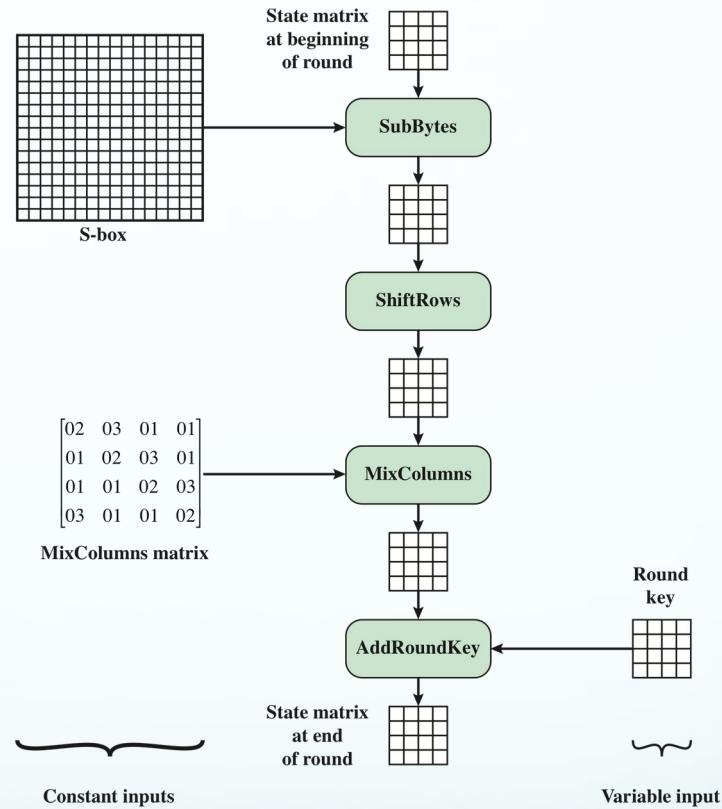
Rationale

:

Is as simple as possible and affects every bit of State

The complexity of the round key expansion plus the complexity of the other stages of AES ensure security

Inputs for Single AES Round



AES Key Expansion

- Takes as input a four-word (16 byte) key and produces a linear array of 44 words (176) bytes
 - This is sufficient to provide a four-word round key for the initial AddRoundKey stage and each of the 10 rounds of the cipher
- Key is copied into the first four words of the expanded key
 - The remainder of the expanded key is filled in four words at a time
- Each added word $w[i]$ depends on the immediately preceding word, $w[i - 1]$, and the word four positions back, $w[i - 4]$
 - In three out of four cases a simple XOR is used
 - For a word whose position in the w array is a multiple of 4, a more complex function is used

- Modes of Operation – ECB vs CBC
- Meet in the Middle attack

- Review All Classwork
- Review Homework Assignments