



NPTEL ONLINE CERTIFICATION COURSES

Course Name: Ethical Hacking

Faculty Name: Prof. Indranil Sen Gupta




Department : Computer Science and Engineering

Topic

Lecture 26: Basic Concepts of Cryptography

CONCEPTS COVERED

- ☐ Security attacks
- ☐ Security services
- ☐ Cryptographic primitives



Security Attacks

- Any action that compromises the security of information.
- Four types of attack:
 - a) Interruption
 - b) Interception
 - c) Modification
 - d) Fabrication
- Basic model:

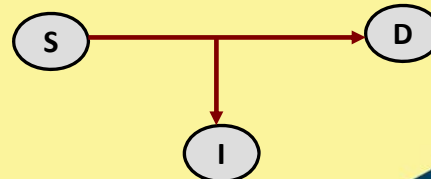


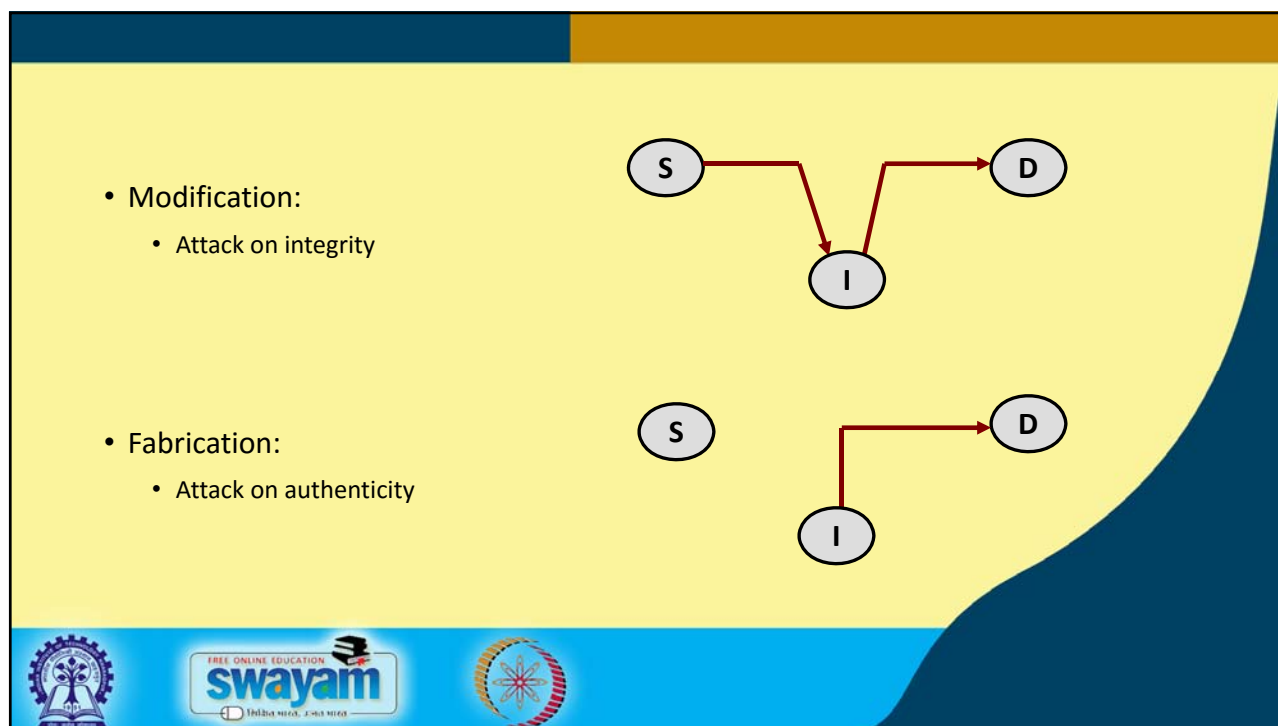
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- Interruption:
 - Attack on availability



- Interception:
 - Attack on confidentiality





Passive and Active Attacks

- **Passive attacks**
 - Obtain information that is being transmitted (eavesdropping).
 - Two types:
 - a) Release of message contents.
 - b) Traffic analysis.
 - Very difficult to detect.

- **Active attacks**

- Involve some modification of the data stream or the creation of a false stream.
- Four categories:
 - a) **Masquerade**:- One entity pretends to be a different entity.
 - b) **Replay**:- Passive capture of a transaction and subsequent replay.
 - c) **Modification**:- Some portion of a message is altered on its way.
 - d) **Denial of service**:- Prevents access to resources.



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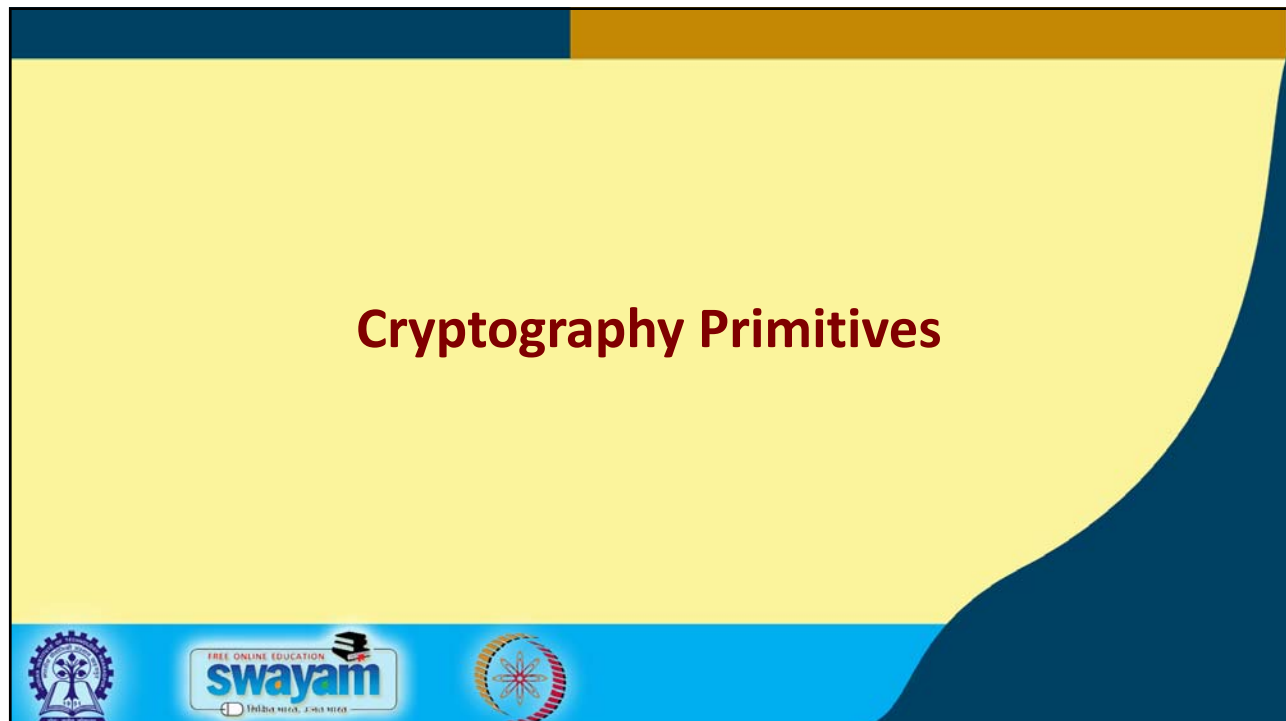
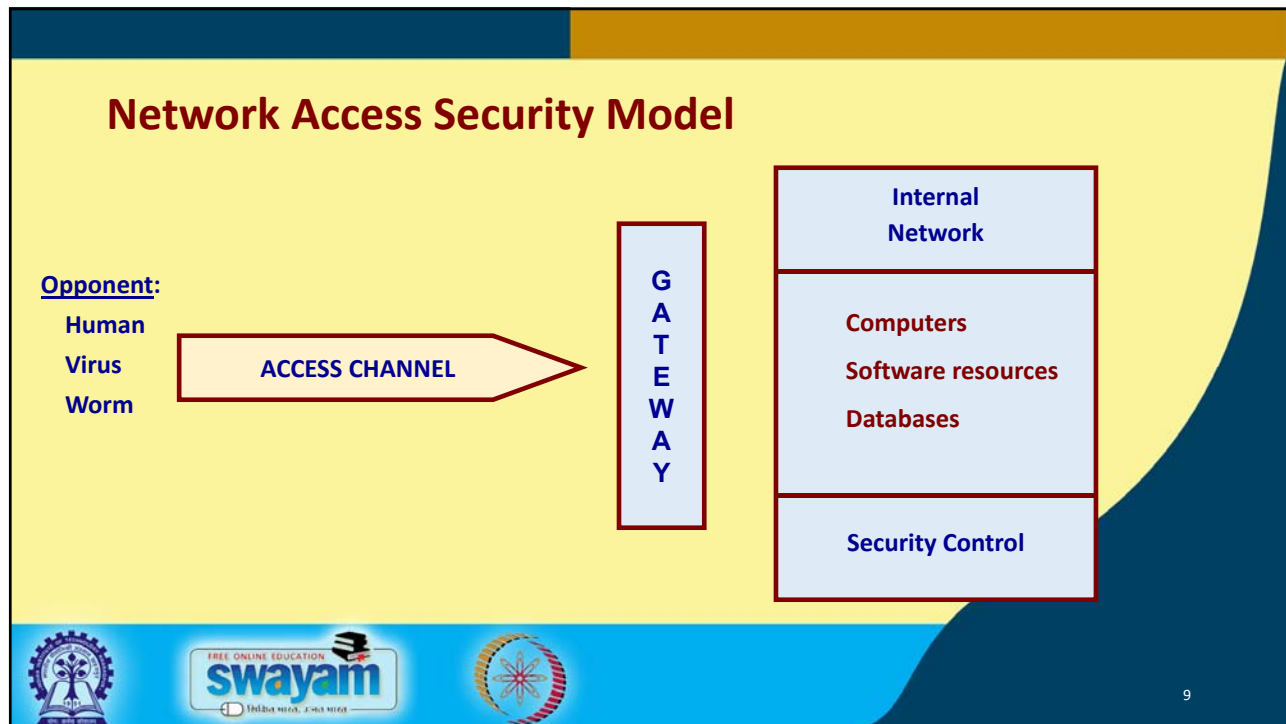
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Security Services

- Confidentiality (privacy)
- Authentication (who created or sent the data)
- Integrity (has not been altered)
- Non-repudiation (parties cannot later deny)
- Access control (prevent misuse of resources)
- Availability (permanence, non-erasure)
 - Denial of Service Attacks
 - Virus that deletes files

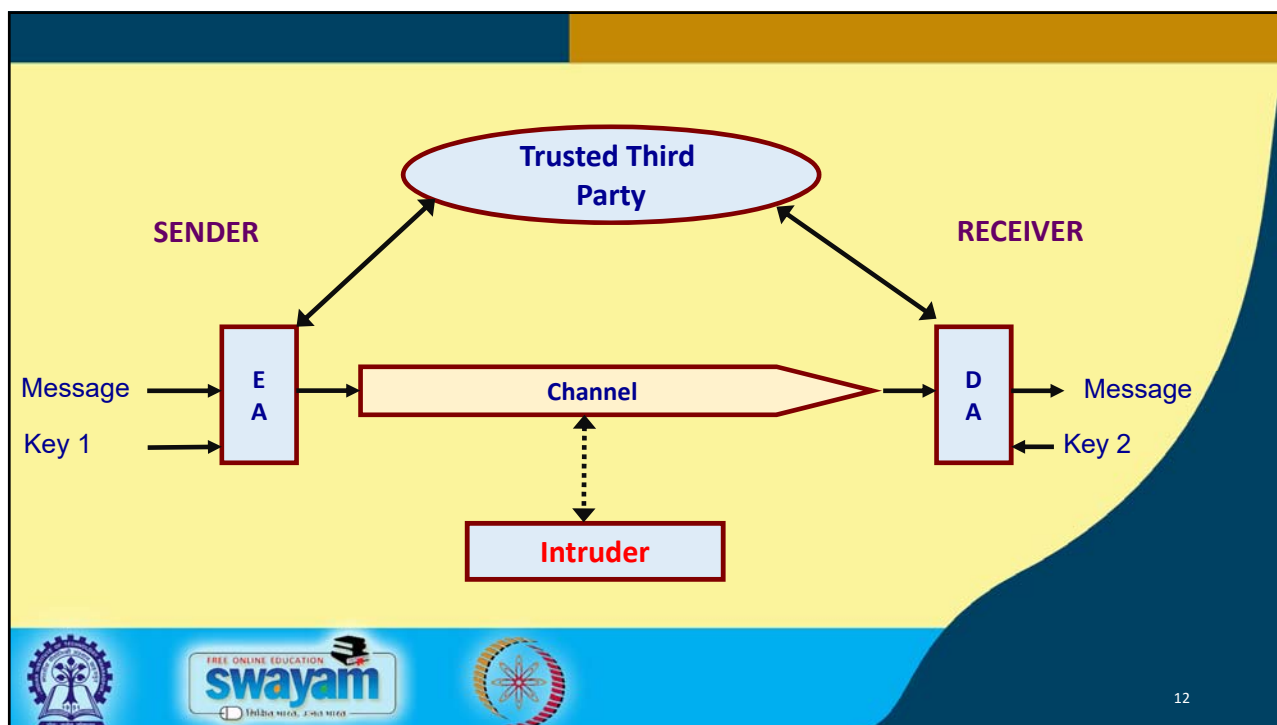


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Encryption

- Most important concept behind network security is *encryption*.
- Two forms of encryption:
 1. Private (or Symmetric)
 - Single key shared by sender and receiver.
 2. Public-key (or Asymmetric)
 - Separate keys for sender and receiver.



Authentication

- Techniques to uniquely identify the sender of a message.
- Various approaches:
 - Encryption techniques
 - Cryptographic hash functions
 - Digital signature → a combination of various cryptographic primitives.



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Lecture 27: Private-Key Cryptography (Part I)

CONCEPTS COVERED

- ❑ Private/symmetric key cryptography
- ❑ Classical encryption techniques



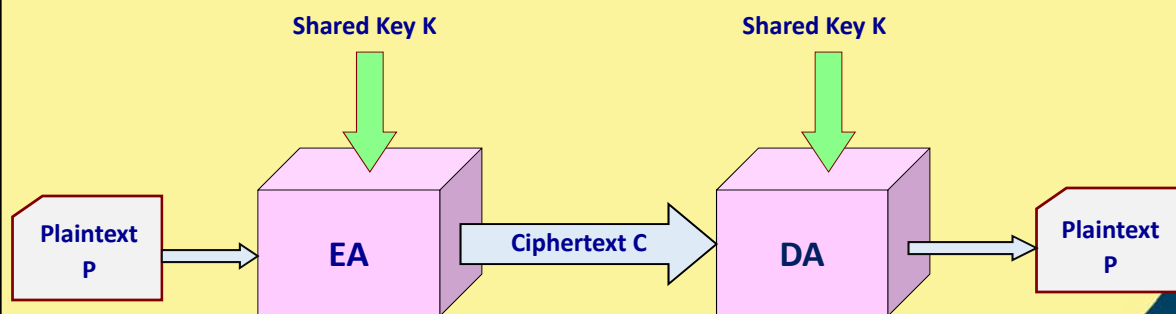
Introduction

- Private or Symmetric Key Cryptography
 - A common secret value K (called **key**) is shared between sender and receiver.
 - Sender encrypts a message P (called **plaintext**) using K to generate a **ciphertext** C .
 - ❖ $C = EA(P, K)$
 - Receiver decrypts the ciphertext C using K to get back the plaintext P .
 - ❖ $P = DA(C, K)$



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Illustration



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Point to Note

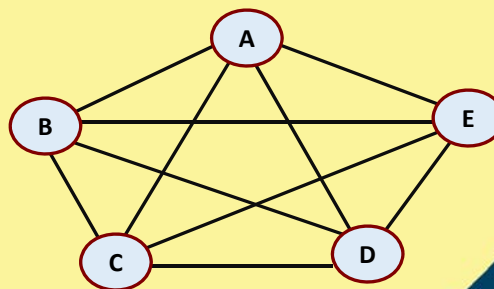
- Security of the scheme
 - Should depend only on the secrecy of the key.
 - Should not depend on the secrecy of the algorithm.
- Assumptions that we make:
 - Algorithms for encryption/decryption are known to the public.
 - Keys used for encryption/decryption are kept secret.



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Some Points to Observe

- *Key distribution* problem of secret key systems:
 - Establish key before communication.
 - Need $n(n-1)/2$ keys with n different parties.
- Overall, very large number of keys are required.
 - Difficult to maintain secrecy.



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Classical Private-Key Encryption Techniques

- Broadly falls under two categories:
 1. **Substitution ciphers**
 - Each letter or group of letters of the plaintext are replaced by some other letter or group of letters, to obtain the ciphertext.
 2. **Transposition ciphers**
 - Letters of the plaintext are permuted in some form.



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A Simple Example

Caesar Cipher (a substitution cipher):

- Earliest known substitution cipher.
- Replace each letter of the alphabet with the letter **three places after** that alphabet.
- Alphabets are assumed to be wrapped around (Z is followed by A, etc.).

P: HAPPY NEW YEAR

C: KDSSB QHZ BHDU



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- We can generalize the idea by replacing each letter by the k^{th} following letter.
 - “k” becomes the secret key.
- If we assign a number to each letter (A=1, B=2, etc), then

$$C = E(P) = (P + k - 1) \% 26 + 1$$

$$P = D(C) = (C - k + 25) \% 26 + 1$$
- **Drawback:**
 - Brute force attack is easy
 - Number of possibilities are rather small (i.e. 25)



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Mono-alphabetic Cipher:

- Allow any arbitrary substitution.
- There can be $26!$ or 4×10^{26} possible keys.
- A typical key may be: (Z A Q W S X C D E R F V B G T Y H N M J U I K L O P)
 - “A” replaced by “Z”, “B” replaced by “A”, “C” replaced by “Q”, and so on.
- **Drawbacks:**
 - We can make guesses by observing the relative frequency of letters, digrams, and trigrams in the text.
 - Easy to break in general.



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Transposition Ciphers

- Many techniques have been proposed under this category.
- A simple scheme:
 - Write out the plaintext in a rectangle, row by row, and read the message column by column, by permuting the order of the columns.
 - Order of the column becomes the **key**.



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P: welcome to the npTEL course on ethical hacking

Key:	4	3	1	2	5	6	7
w	e	l	c	o	m	e	
-	t	o	-	t	h	e	
-	n	p	t	e	l	-	
c	o	u	r	s	e	-	
o	n	-	e	t	h	i	
c	a	l	-	h	a	c	
k	i	n	g	-	-	-	

C: lopu-ln c-tre-g etnonai w--cock otesth- mhleha-
ee--ic-



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Transposition Cipher ... Drawbacks

- The ciphertext has the same letter frequency as the original plaintext.
- Guessing the number of columns and some probable words in the plaintext holds the key.



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Practical Ciphers

- They are much more complicated.
 - Require computers to perform encryption and decryption.
 - Almost impossible to carry out by hand.
 - Can encrypt any kind of data, not necessarily only text.



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Stream Ciphers vs. Block Ciphers

- A stream cipher encrypts the plaintext bit by bit (in streams).
- A block cipher encrypts n-bit blocks at a time.
 - For example, a 256-bit cipher encrypts 256-bit blocks at a time.
 - Shorter blocks have to be suitably padded.



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Lecture 28: Private-Key Cryptography (Part II)

CONCEPTS COVERED

- ❑ Practical private-key algorithms
- ❑ DES and Triple-DES
- ❑ Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)



Practical Private-Key Algorithms

- a) Data Encryption Standard (DES)
 - Block size is 64 bits.
 - Key is 56 bits.
- b) IDEA
 - Block size is 64 bits.
 - Key size is 128 bits.
- c) Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
 - Also known as Rijndael cryptosystem.
 - Block size is 128 bits.
 - Key size can be 128, 192, or 256 bits.



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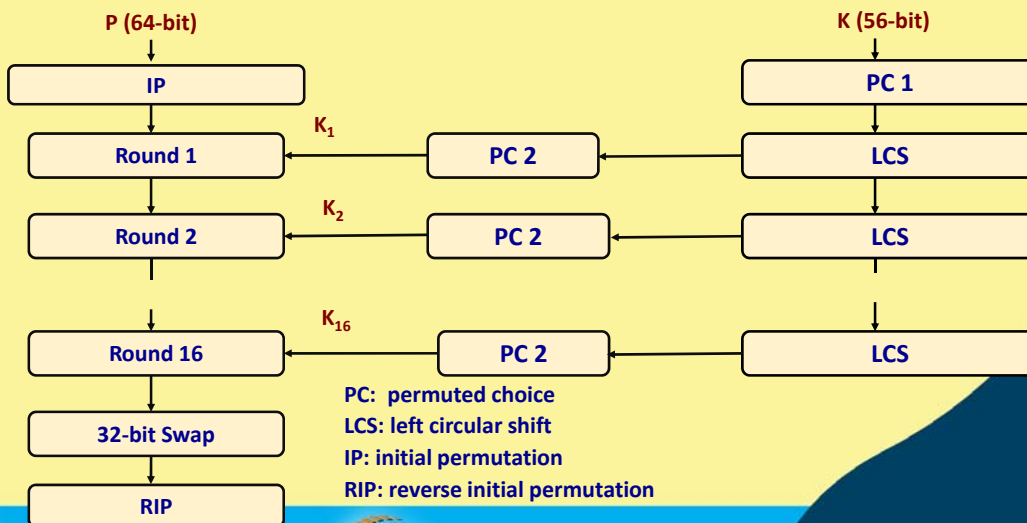
Data Encryption Standard (DES)

- The most widely used encryption scheme at one time.
 - Also known as the Data Encryption Algorithm (DEA).
 - It is a block cipher.
- Some of the features:
 - The plaintext is 64-bits in length.
 - The key is 56-bits in length.
 - Longer plaintexts are processed in 64-bit blocks.



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General Schematic of DES



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DES

- The overall processing at each iteration:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} L_i &= R_{i-1} \\ R_i &= L_{i-1} \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_i) \end{aligned} \right\} \text{Fiestel Structure}$$

- Concerns about:
 - The algorithm and the key length (56-bits).
 - Longer key lengths are essential for critical applications.

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Triple DES

- Use three keys and three executions of the DES algorithm (encrypt-decrypt - encrypt).

$$C = E_{K_3} [D_{K_2} [E_{K_1} [P]]]$$

C = ciphertext

P = Plaintext

$E_K[X]$ = encryption of X using key K

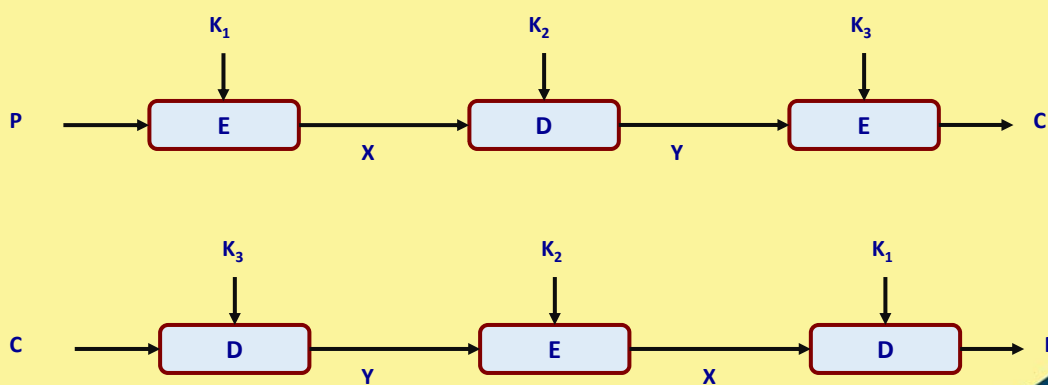
$D_K[Y]$ = decryption of Y using key K

- Effective key length is 168 bits.



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Triple DES: Illustration



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Need for a new standard

- DES had been in use for a long time.
 - A replacement for DES was needed.
 - Theoretical attacks can break it.
- Can use Triple-DES – but slow with small blocks.
- US NIST issued call for ciphers in 1997.
 - 15 candidates accepted in June 1998.
 - 5 were short-listed in August 1999.
- Rijndael was selected as the **Advanced Encryption Standard** in October 2000.



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The AES Cryptosystem

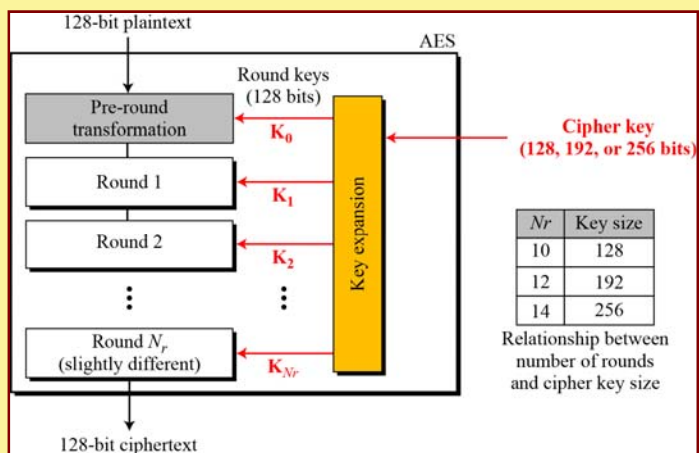
- In the Rijndael proposal, the block length and the key length can be independently specified to be 128, 192, or 256 bits.
- The AES standard limits the block length to 128 bits.
 - Key length can be 128, 192, or 256 bits.
- Easy to implement, both in hardware and software.
- Resistant against all known attacks.



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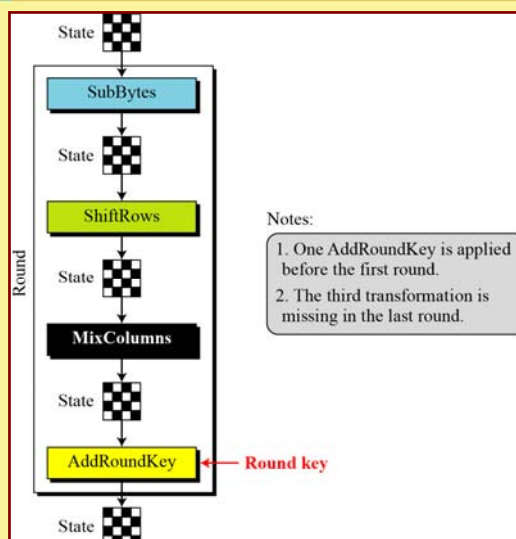
AES Rounds

- AES has 10, 12 or 14 rounds.
 - All rounds are identical, except the first and last one.
- Various steps in each round:
 - SubBytes** – Non-linear substitution
 - ShiftRows** – Transposition
 - MixColumn** – Mixing operations of each column
 - AddRoundKey** – Round key added to state.

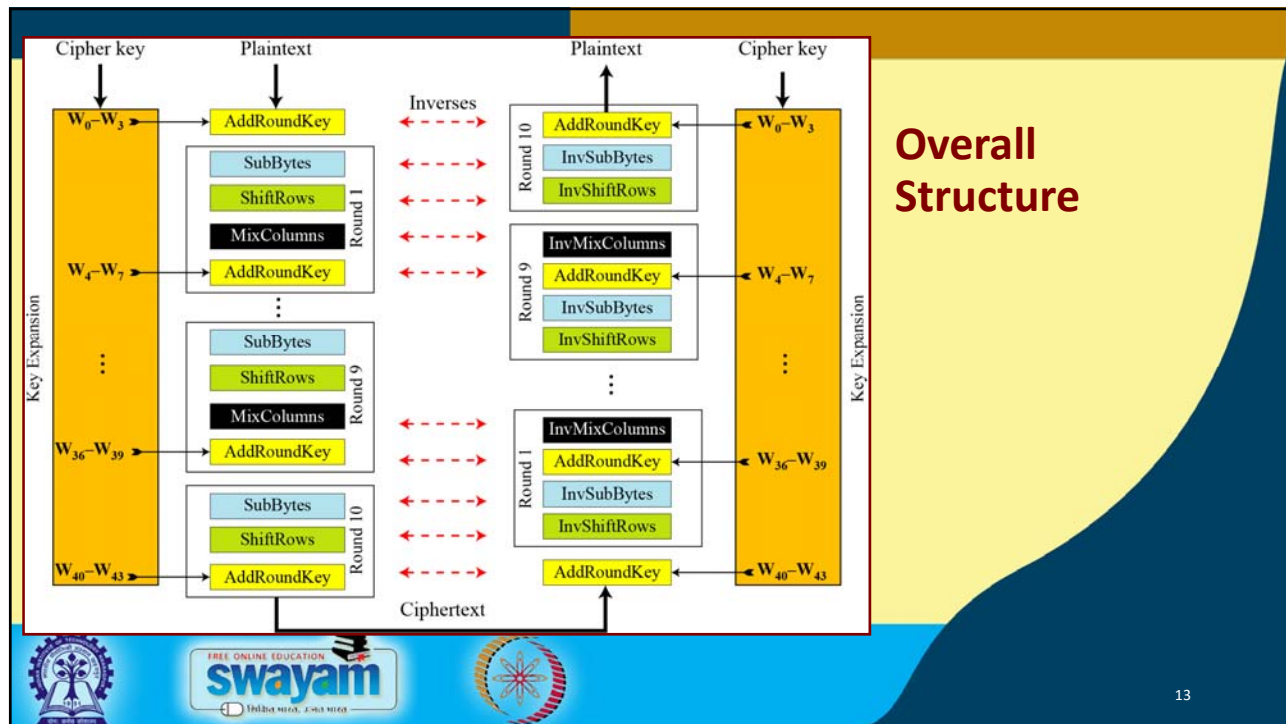


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Details of Each Round



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Lecture 29: Public-Key Cryptography (Part I)

CONCEPTS COVERED

- ☐ Public-key cryptography
- ☐ Encryption and authentication
- ☐ RSA algorithm



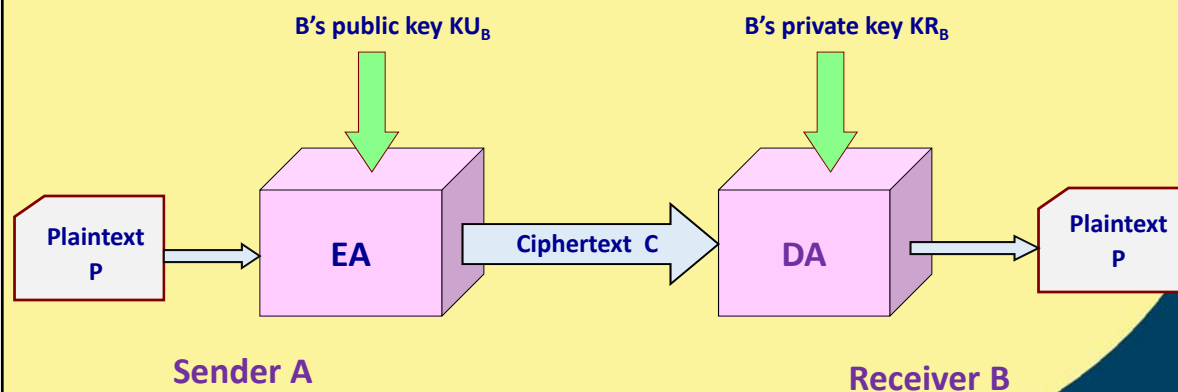
Public Key Cryptography

- Uses two keys for every simplex logical communication link.
 - a) Public key
 - b) Private key
- The use of two keys has profound consequences in the areas of
 - Confidentiality
 - Key distribution
 - Authentication

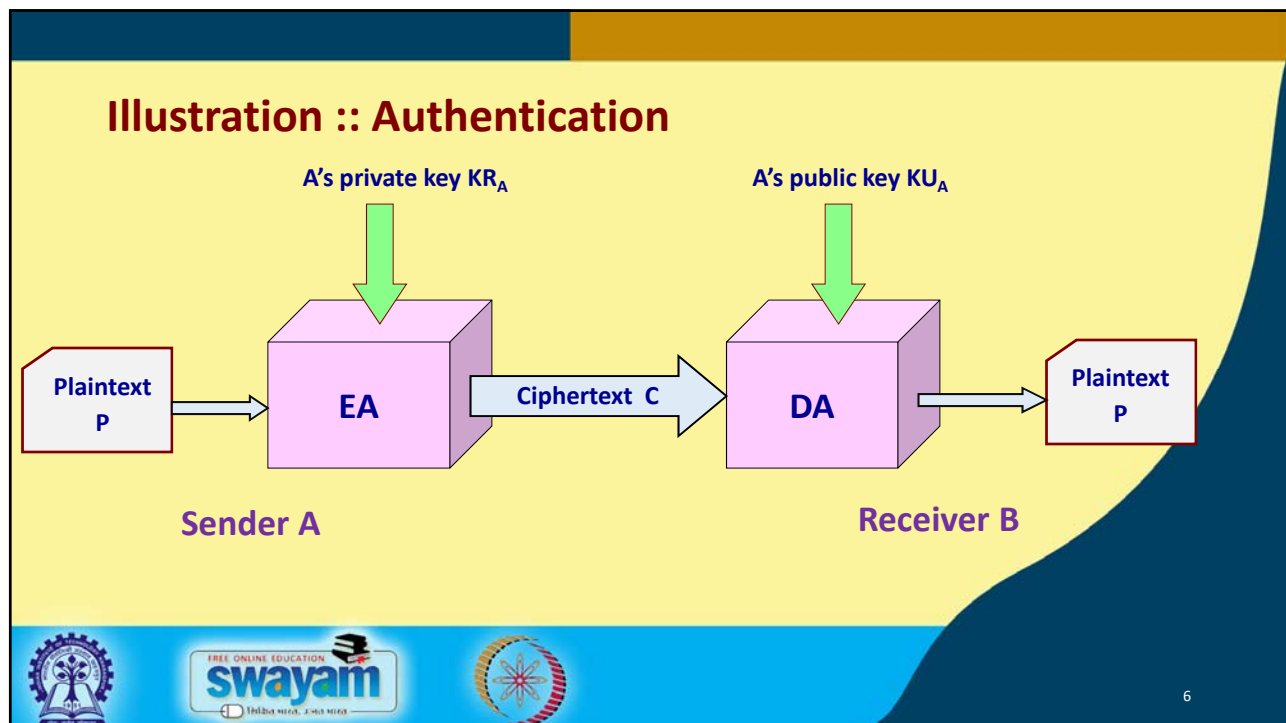
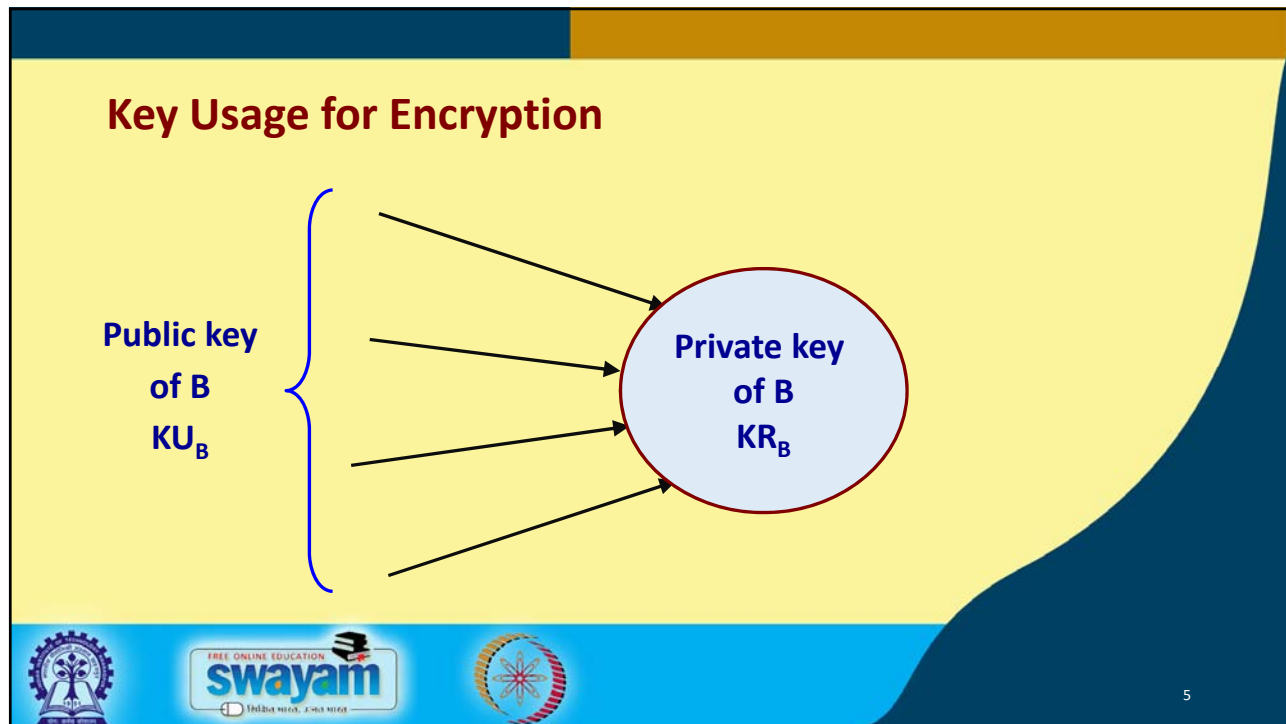


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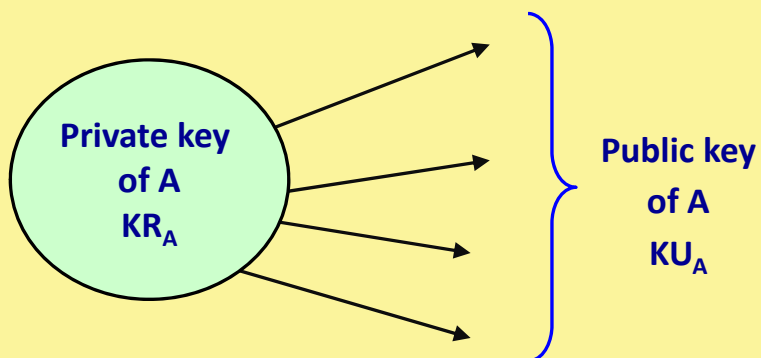
Illustration :: Encryption



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Key Usage for Authentication



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Applications

- Three categories:
 - a) **Encryption/decryption:**
 - The sender encrypts a message with the recipient's public key.
 - b) **Digital signature / authentication:**
 - The sender signs a message with its private key.
 - c) **Key exchange:**
 - Two sides cooperate to exchange a session key.



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Requirements

- Computationally easy for a party B to generate a key pair
 - a) Public key KU_B
 - b) Private key KR_B
- Easy for sender to generate ciphertext:

$$C = E(M, KU_B)$$
- Easy for the receiver to decrypt ciphertext using private key:

$$M = D(C, KR_B) = D(E(M, KU_B), KR_B)$$



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- Computationally infeasible to determine KR_B knowing KU_B .
- Computationally infeasible to recover message M , knowing KU_B and ciphertext C .
- Either of the two keys can be used for encryption, with the other used for decryption:

$$M = D(E(M, KU_B), KR_B) = D(E(M, KR_B), KU_B)$$



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The RSA Public Key Algorithm

- RSA Algorithm
 - Developed by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Len Adleman at MIT, in 1977.
 - A block cipher.
 - The most widely implemented.



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RSA : Key Generation

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 1. Select p, q | p and q both prime |
| 2. Calculate $n = p \times q$ | |
| 3. Calculate | $\Phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$ |
| 4. Select integer e | $\gcd(\Phi(n), e) = 1; 1 < e < \Phi(n)$ |
| 5. Calculate d | $d = e^{-1} \bmod \Phi(n)$ |
| 6. Public Key | $KU = \{e, n\}$ |
| 7. Private key | $KR = \{d, n\}$ |

$\phi(n)$ is the number of positive numbers less than n and relatively prime to n (called **Euler totient**).



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RSA : Encryption

- Plaintext: $M < n$
- Ciphertext: $C = M^e \pmod{n}$

RSA : Decryption

- Ciphertext: C
- Plaintext: $M = C^d \pmod{n}$



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Example

- Select two prime numbers, $p=7$ and $q=17$.
- Calculate $n = pq = 7 \times 17 = 119$.
- Calculate $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 96$.
- Select e such that e is relatively prime to $\phi(n)=96$, and less than $\phi(n)$.
 - In this case, $e=5$.
- Determine d such that $de = 1 \pmod{96}$ and $d < 96$.
 - $d=77$, because $77 \times 5 = 385 = 4 \times 96 + 1$.

Public key $KU = \{5, 119\}$

Private key $KR = \{77, 119\}$



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- **Encryption process:**

- Say, plaintext $M = 19$.
- Ciphertext $C = 19^5 \pmod{119}$
 $= 2476099 \pmod{119} = 66$

- **Decryption process:**

- $M = 66^{77} \pmod{119} = 19$.



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The Security of RSA

- RSA is secure since
 - We use large number of bits in e and d .
 - The problem of factoring n into two prime factors is computationally very difficult.
 - ❖ Knowing p and q will allow us to know $\Phi(n)$.
 - ❖ This will help an intruder to know the values of e and d .
 - Key sizes in the range of 1024 to 2048 bits seems safe.



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Points to Note

- The RSA algorithm in conjunction with some private key algorithm (like AES) can be used for secure data transfer over insecure channel.
 - Private key K transmitted using public key algorithms (i.e. RSA).
 - K is used for encryption using private key algorithm.
- Prime factorization problem is solvable in polynomial time using quantum computers.
 - Resulted in research on post-quantum cryptographic algorithms.
 - Resistant against quantum attacks.



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Lecture 30: Public-Key Cryptography (Part II)

CONCEPTS COVERED

- ☐ Diffie Hellman key exchange
- ☐ Message authentication



Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- Proposed in 1976.
- Allows group of users to agree on secret key *over insecure channel*.
- Cannot be used to encrypt and decrypt messages.
- Depends for its effectiveness on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms.

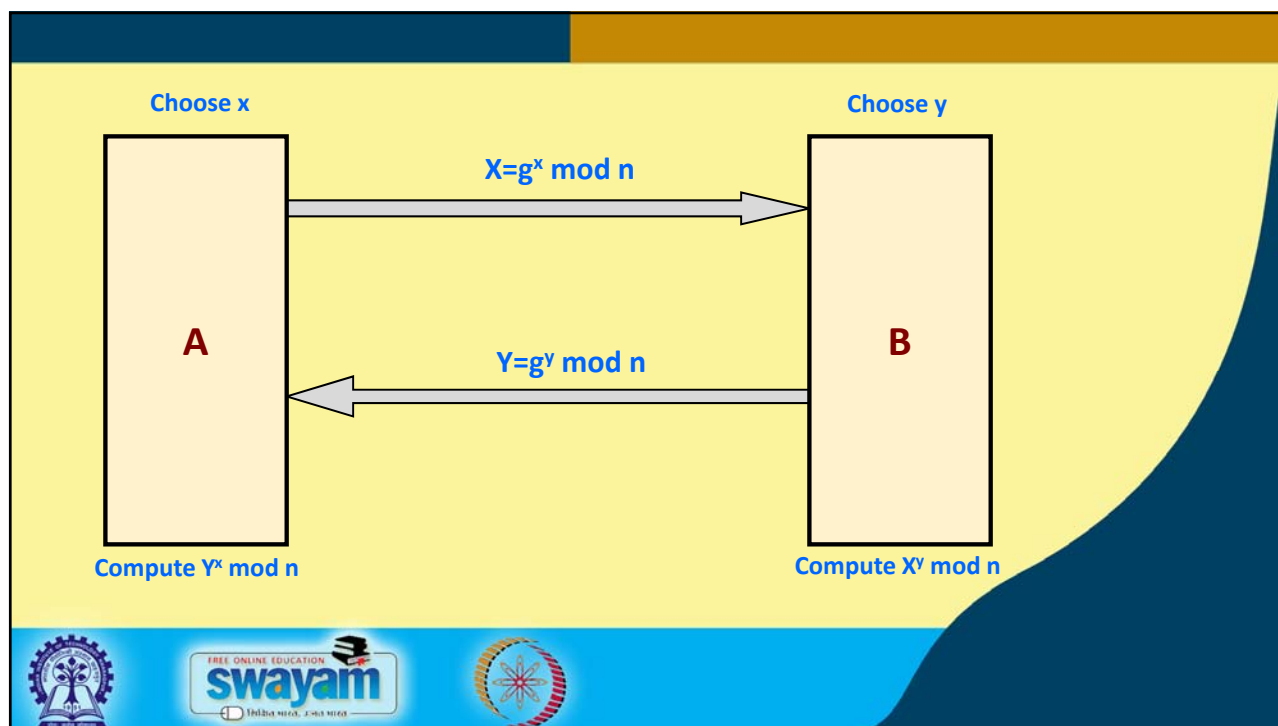


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D-H Algorithm

- A and B want to agree on secret key.
 - a) A and B agree on two large numbers n and g , such that $1 < g < n$.
 - b) A choose random x , computes $X = g^x \bmod n$, and sends X to B.
 - c) B chooses random y , computes $Y = g^y \bmod n$, and sends Y to A.
 - d) A computes $k_1 = Y^x \bmod n$.
 - e) B computes $k_2 = X^y \bmod n$.
- Note: $k_1 = k_2 = g^{yx} \bmod n$.



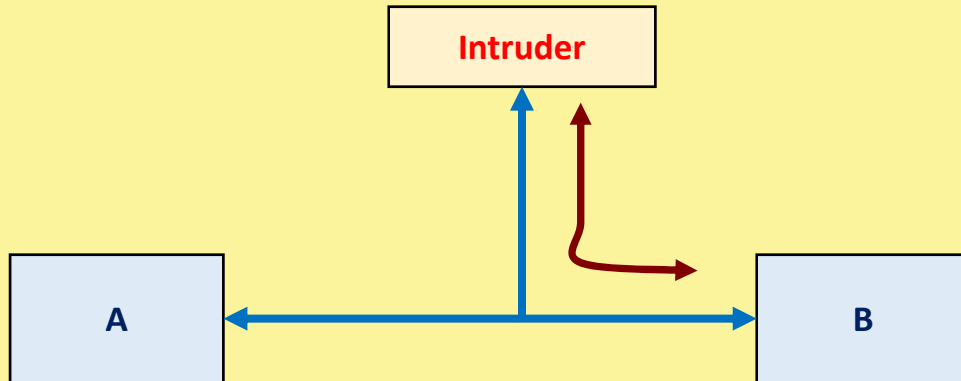


D-H Algorithm (contd.)

- Requires no prior communication between **A** and **B**.
- Security depends on difficulty of computing x , given $X = g^x \text{ mod } n$.
- Choices for g and n are critical.
 - Both n and $(n-1)/2$ should be prime.
 - The value of n should be large.
- Susceptible to intruder-in-the-middle (man-in-the-middle) attack.
 - Active intruder.



Man-in-the-Middle Attack



A Comparison

- Symmetric encryption/decryption is much faster than asymmetric encryption/decryption:

RSA: kilobits/second

DES: megabits/second



DES is about 100 times faster than RSA

- Key size:
 - a) **RSA:** selected by user
 - b) **DES:** 56 bits
 - c) **AES:** 128, 192 or 256 bits

Message Authentication

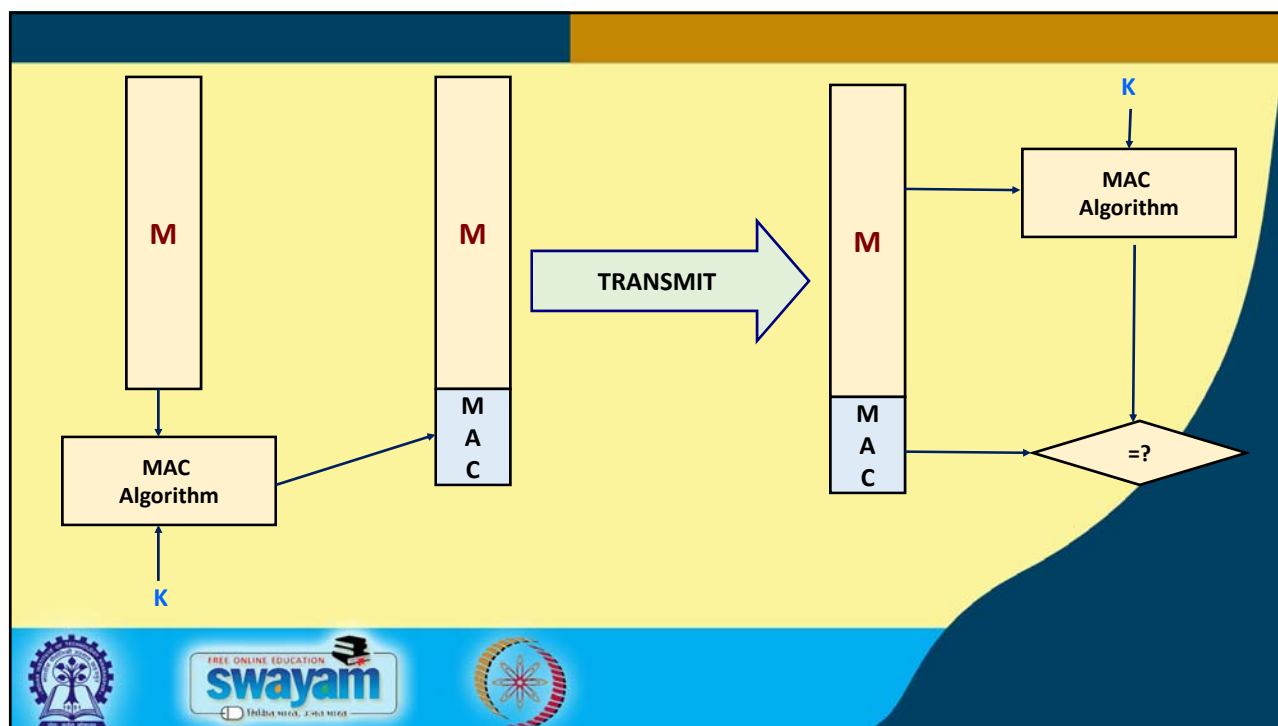


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Various Approaches

- a) Authentication using conventional encryption.
 - Only the sender and receiver should share a key.
- b) Message authentication without message encryption.
 - An authentication tag is generated and appended to each message.
- c) Message authentication code.
 - Calculate the MAC as a function of the message and the key: $MAC = F(K, M)$





Commonly Used Schemes

- The MD family
 - MD2, MD4 and MD5 (128-bit hash).
- The SHA family
 - SHA-1 (160-bit), SHA-256 (256-bit), SHA-384 (384-bit) and SHA-512 (512-bit).
- RIPEMD-128 (128-bit), RIPEMD-160 (160-bit).

