

Computer Networks

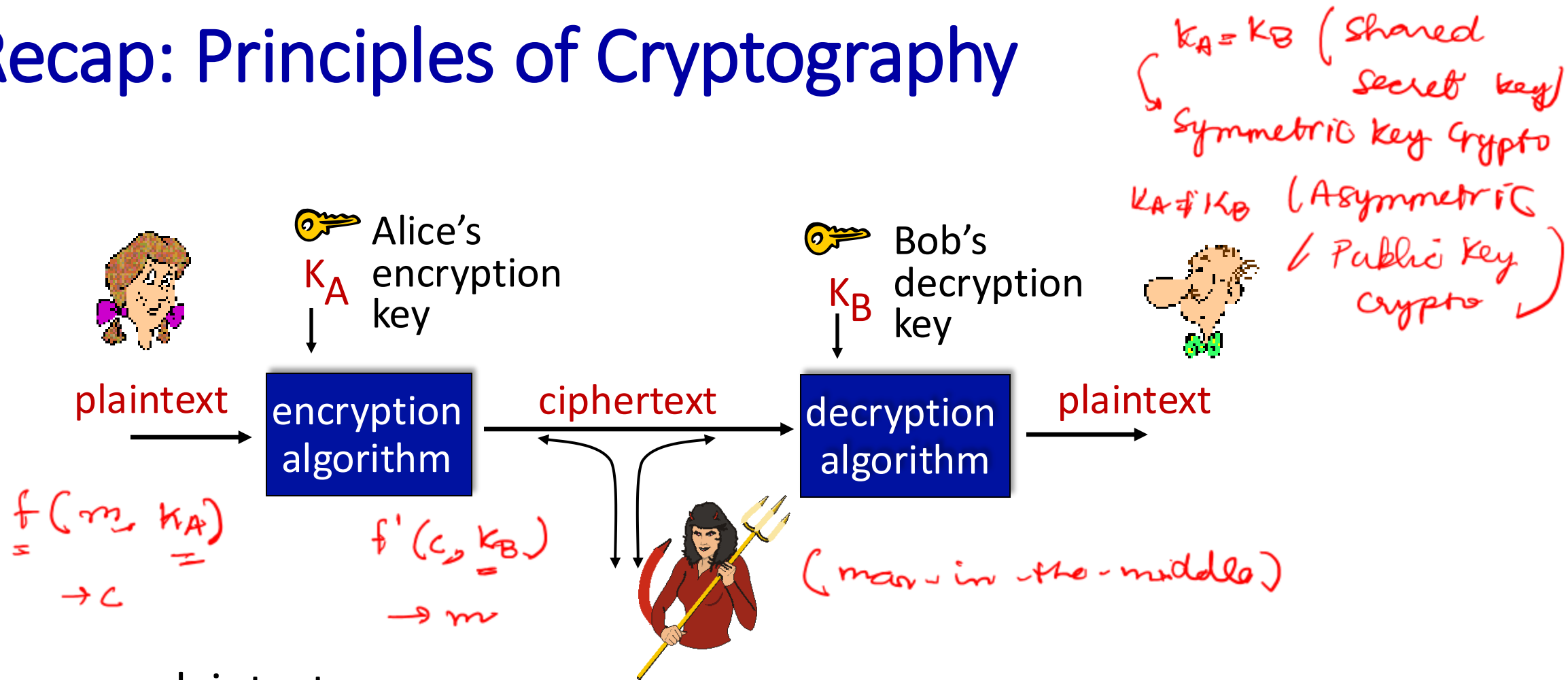
COL 334/672

Network Security

Slides adapted from KR

Sem 1, 2025-26

Recap: Principles of Cryptography



m : plaintext message

$K_A(m)$: ciphertext, encrypted with key K_A

$m = K_B(K_A(m))$

Symmetric Key Crypto: Block Cipher

- Cipher: n bits \rightarrow n bits. Example: 3-bit block cipher:

- N -bit table is the shared secret key 2^n

$110101 \rightarrow 000010$ (ciphertext)
11 01 01

$2^n!$ \rightarrow exponential

- Can (and how) you do a brute-force attack on a 3-bit block cipher?

- How to avoid the attack?

Use a large n
 $n = 64$

\rightarrow need to maintain a large table

Table / function: $n \rightarrow n$

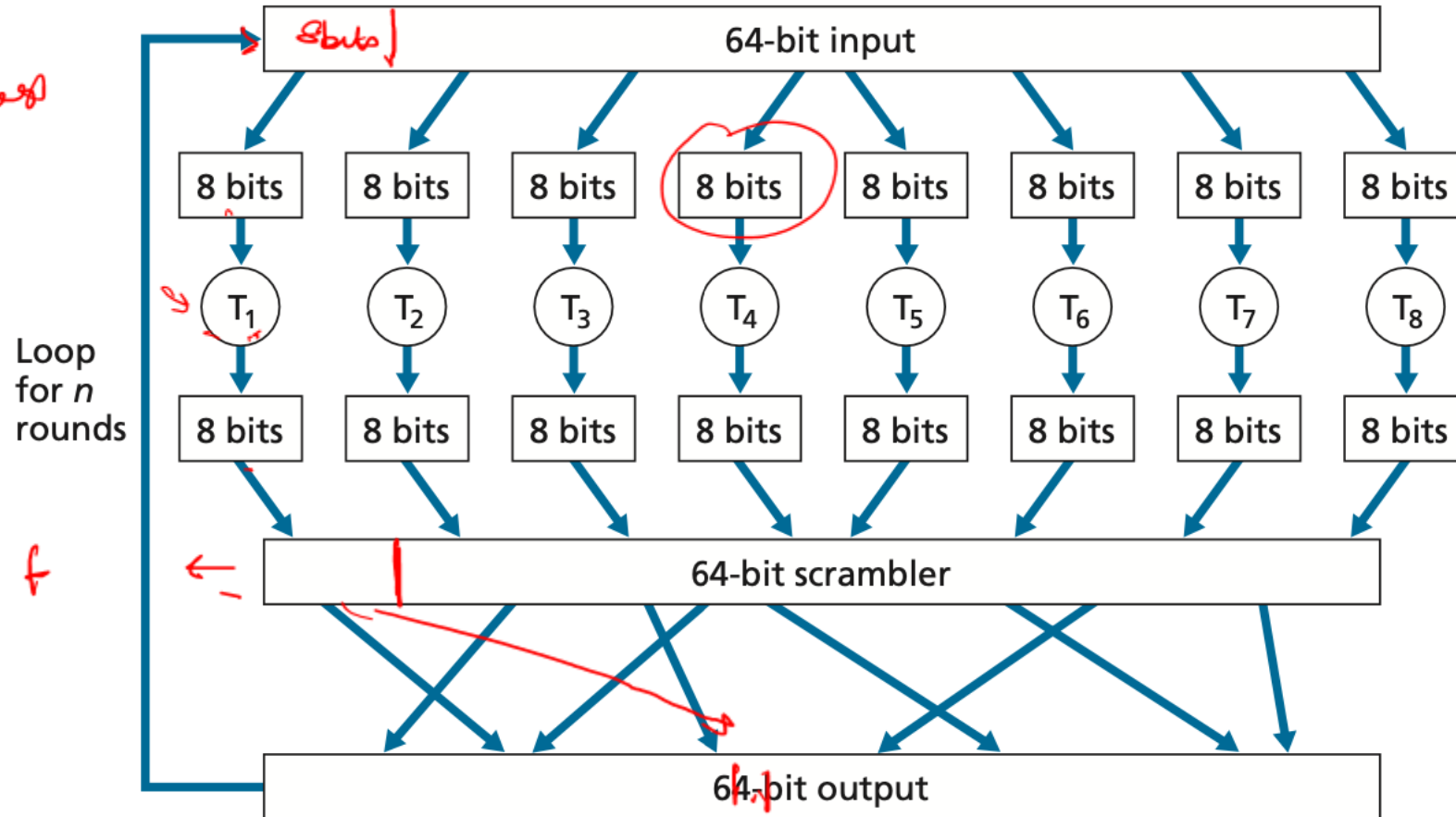
input	output	input	output
000	110	100	011
001	111	101	010
010	101	110	000
011	100	111	001

64-bit Block Cipher Idea

2^{64}
 $2^3 \times 2^8$

Diffusion in crypto

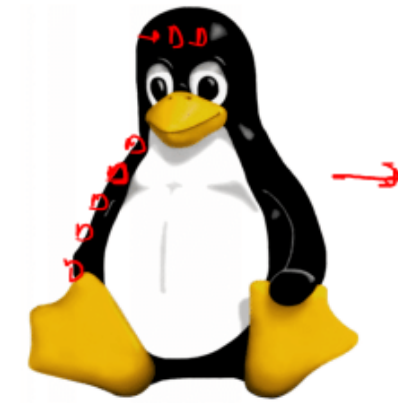
AES \rightarrow 128 bit key



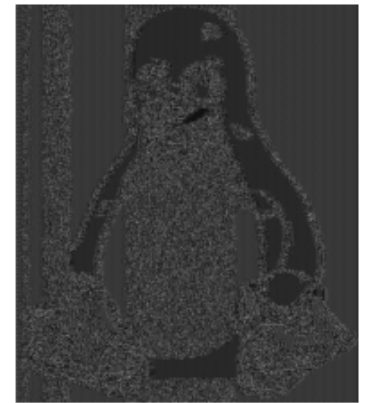
Limitation of Block Cipher

- Susceptible to **known plaintext attack**

- For instance, two or more blocks could be “HTTP/1.1” which would lead to same ciphertext



Original image



Encrypted using ECB mode

$m(1) \ m(2) \ m(3) \ \dots \ m(n)$

$c(1) \ c(2) \ c(3) \ \dots \ c(n)$ secret

$$c(1) = \underbrace{k_s}_{\text{secret}} (m(1) \oplus r(1)) \quad k_s (m(2) \oplus r(2))$$

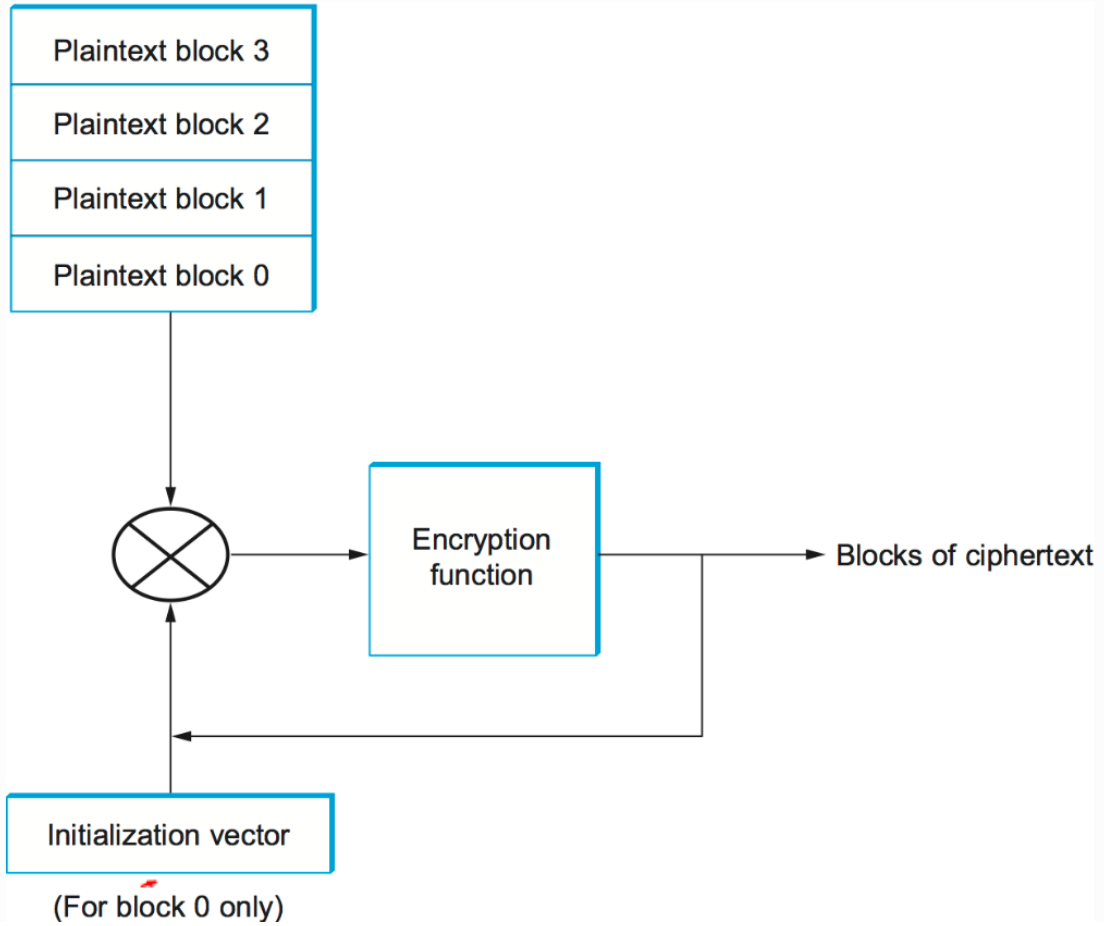
$$\hookrightarrow \underbrace{c(1)}_c \underbrace{r(1)}_r \quad \underbrace{c(2)}_c \underbrace{r(2)}_r \quad \dots \quad \underbrace{c(n)}_c \underbrace{r(n)}_r$$

$$c(k) = k_s (m(k) \oplus c(k-1)) \quad \forall k \geq 1$$

Initialization Vector

$$c(1) = k_s (IV \oplus m(1))$$

Cipher Block Chaining



Symmetric key Cryptography

- Popular symmetric key algorithms: Data Encryption Standard (DES), Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

↳ HTTPS, WiFi

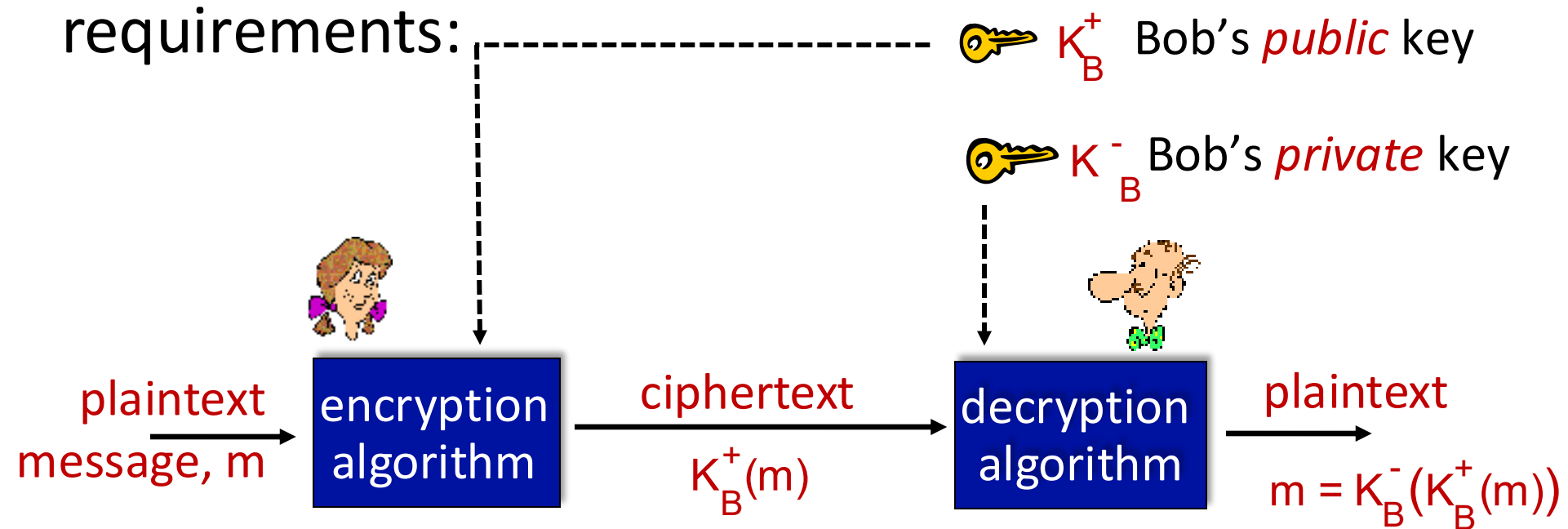
scrambler function

$O(n)$

- **Problem:** how to share secret key?

Diffie Hellman Key Exchange

Public Key Cryptography



Public key encryption algorithms

requirements:

- ① need $K_B^+(\cdot)$ and $K_B^-(\cdot)$ such that

$$\underline{K_B^-(K_B^+(m))} = m$$

- ② given public key K_B^+ , it should be impossible to compute private key K_B^-

*computationally
expensive*

RSA: Rivest, Shamir, Adelson algorithm

RSA: algorithm

- message: just a bit pattern
- bit pattern can be uniquely represented by an integer number
- thus, encrypting a message is equivalent to encrypting a number

example:

- $m = 10010001$. This message is uniquely represented by the decimal number 145.
- to encrypt m , we encrypt the corresponding number, which gives a new number (the ciphertext).

RSA: Creating public/private key pair

1. choose two large prime numbers p, q . (e.g., 1024 bits each)

2. compute $\underline{n} = pq$, $\underline{z = (p-1)(q-1)}$

Euler Totient Function

Euler's Theorem

$$a^z \bmod n = 1$$

3. choose \underline{e} (with $e < n$) that has no common factors with z (e, z are “relatively prime”).

4. choose \underline{d} such that $ed-1$ is exactly divisible by z . (in other words: $ed \bmod z = 1$).

$$ed \bmod z = 1$$

5. *public* key is $(\underline{n, e})$. *private* key is $(\underline{n, d})$.

K_B^+

K_B^-

RSA: encryption, decryption

0. given (n, e) and (n, d) as computed above

1. to encrypt message m ($< n$), compute

$$c = m^{\overset{\text{Public}}{e}} \bmod n$$

\Rightarrow cypher text

2. to decrypt received bit pattern, c , compute

$$m = c^{\overset{\text{Private}}{d}} \bmod n$$

magic happens!

$$m = \underbrace{(m^e \bmod n)}_c^d \bmod n$$

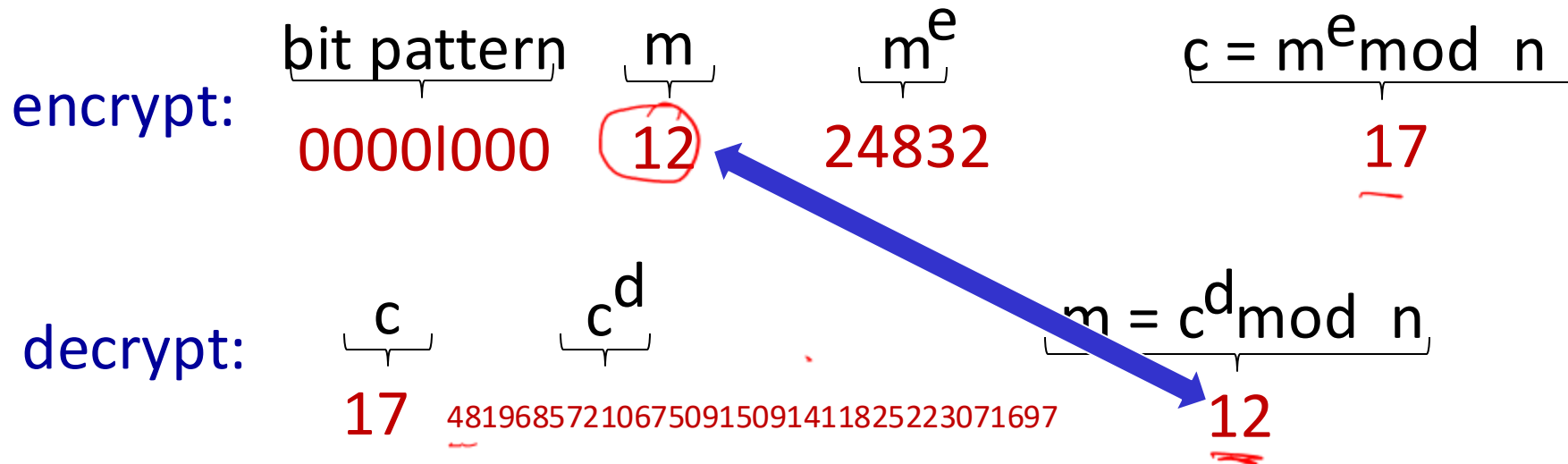
RSA example:

Bob chooses $p=5$, $q=7$. Then $n=\underline{35}$, $z=\underline{24}$.

$e=\underline{5}$ (so e, z relatively prime).

$d=\underline{29}$ (so $ed-1$ exactly divisible by z).

encrypting 8-bit messages.



Why is RSA secure?

- suppose you know Bob's public key (n,e) . How hard is it to determine d ?
- essentially need to find factors of n without knowing the two factors p and q
 - fact: factoring a big number is hard

$$m^z \bmod n \geq 1 \quad (\text{Euler's Theorem})$$

$$ed \geq zk+1$$

$$\begin{array}{c} n \text{ -- bits} \\ \hline \downarrow \\ 2^n \end{array}$$

$$\text{Encrypt } C = m^e \bmod n$$

$$ed \bmod z = 1$$

$$\text{Decrypt } C^d \bmod n$$

$$= (m^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n$$

$$= m^{ed} \bmod n$$

$$= m^{zk+1} \bmod n$$

$$= m^{zk} \bmod n \cdot m \bmod n$$

$$= (m^z \bmod n)^k \cdot m \bmod n$$

$$= m \bmod n$$

Reasons

prime factorization of n

$$O(\sqrt{n})$$

RSA in practice: session keys

Alice $K_B^+(K_S)$

Bob $K_B^-(K_B^+(K_S))$

- exponentiation in RSA is computationally intensive
- symmetric crypto DES is at least 100 times faster than RSA
- use public key crypto to establish secure connection, then establish second key – symmetric session key – for encrypting data

AES

session key, K_S

- Bob and Alice use RSA to exchange a symmetric session key K_S
- once both have K_S , they use symmetric key cryptography

What is network security?

↳ **confidentiality**: only sender, intended receiver should “understand” message contents

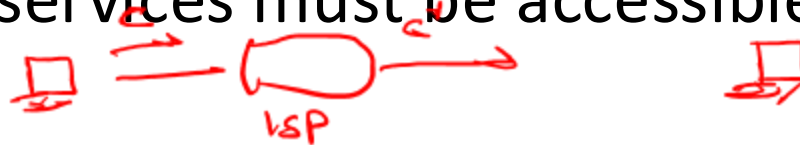
- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

Encryption / Decryption

message integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

access and availability: services must be accessible and available to users



How to provide integrity?

m, H(m) → hashing function

↳ checksum →

→ n bits

↳ MD5

↳ SHA-256

→ cryptographic hashing

checksum
Easy to find

m' , $H(m')$

$$H(m') = H(m)$$

- Finding m' such that $H(m') = H(m)$
is computationally expensive

m , $H(m)$ $\xrightarrow{\text{modification}}$ m' , $H(m')$

Assume: shared secret key S

m, $H(m+S)$

↕

m' , $H(m+S)$

Public key cryptography

m , $K_B^-(H(m))$

↓

m , $K_B^+ K_B^-(H(m))$

↓
 $H(m)$