BLM5102 Computer Systems and Network Security

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(8th Week)

### Outline

# 3. Cryptographic Algorithms -3.1. Cryptographic Tools -3.2. Symmetric Encryption and Message Confidentiality 2.2. Public Koy Cryptography and Message

3.3. Public-Key Cryptography and Message Authentication

3.1. Cryptographic Tools

### 3.1. Outline

- Confidentiality with Symmetric Encryption
- Message Authentication and Hash Functions
- Public-Key Encryption
- Digital Signatures and Key Management
- Random and Pseudorandom Numbers

# Symmetric Encryption

- The universal technique for providing confidentiality for transmitted or stored data
- Also referred to as conventional encryption or single-key encryption
- Two requirements for secure use:
  - Need a strong encryption algorithm
  - Sender and receiver must have obtained copies of the secret key in a secure fashion and must keep the key secure



Figure 2.1 Simplified Model of Symmetric Encryption

### Attacking Symmetric Encryption

### **Cryptanalytic Attacks**

### **Brute-Force Attacks**

- Rely on:
  - Nature of the algorithm
  - Some knowledge of the general characteristics of the plaintext
  - Some sample plaintextciphertext pairs
- Exploits the characteristics of the algorithm to attempt to deduce a specific plaintext or the key being used
  - If successful all future and past messages encrypted with that key are compromised

- Try all possible keys on some ciphertext until an intelligible translation into plaintext is obtained
  - On average half of all possible keys must be tried to achieve success

# Data Encryption Standard (DES)



Until recently was the most widely used encryption scheme

- Adapted in 1977 FIPS PUB 46
- Referred to as the Data Encryption Algorithm (DEA)
- Uses 64 bit plaintext block and 56 bit key to produce a 64 bit ciphertext block



- Strength concerns:
  - Concerns about the algorithm itself.
    - DES is the most studied encryption algorithm in existence
    - No one has so far reported a fatal weakness in DES.
    - Concerns about the use of a 56-bit key
      - The speed of commercial off-the-shelf processors makes this key length woefully inadequate

# Triple DES (3DES)

- The life of DES was extended by the use of triple DES
- Repeats basic DES algorithm three times using either two or three unique keys
- First standardized for use in financial applications in ANSI standard X9.17 in 1985
- Attractions:
  - 168-bit key length overcomes the vulnerability to brute-force attack of DES
  - Underlying encryption algorithm is the same as in DES
- Drawbacks:
  - Algorithm is sluggish in software
  - Uses a 64-bit block size

### Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

### Needed a replacement for 3DES

3DES was not reasonable for long term use NIST called for proposals for a new AES in 1997

> Should have a security strength equal to or better than 3DES

> Significantly improved efficiency

Symmetric block cipher

128 bit data and 128/192/256 bit keys Selected Rijndael in November 2001

In a first round of evaluation, 15 proposed algorithms were accepted

A second round narrowed the field to 5 algorithm

> Published as FIPS 197

### Comparison of Three Popular Symmetric Encryption Algorithms

	DES	<b>Triple DES</b>	AES
Plaintext block size (bits)	64	64	128
<b>Ciphertext block size (bits)</b>	64	64	128
Key size (bits)	56	112 or 168	128, 192, or 256

DES = Data Encryption Standard AES = Advanced Encryption Standard

### Average Time Required for Exhaustive Key Search

Key size (bits)	Cipher	Number of Alternative Keys	Time Required at 10 <sup>9</sup> decryptions/s	Time Required at 10 <sup>13</sup> decryptions/s
56	DES	$2^{56} \approx 7.2$ $10^{16}$	$2^{55}$ ns = 1.125 years	1 hour
128	AES	$2^{128} \approx 3.4$ $10^{38}$	$2^{127} \text{ ns} = 5.3 \text{ (10)}^{21} \text{ years}$	5.3 $\cdot$ 10 <sup>17</sup> years
168	Triple DES	$2^{168} \approx 3.7$ $10^{50}$	$2^{167}$ ns = 5.8 $\cdot$ 10 <sup>33</sup> years	5.8 $\cdot$ 10 <sup>29</sup> years
192	AES	$2^{192} \approx 6.3$ $10^{57}$	$2^{191} \text{ ns} = 9.8  10^{40} \text{ years}$	9.8 ´ 10 <sup>36</sup> years
256	AES	$2^{256} \approx 1.2$ $10^{77}$	$2^{255}$ ns = 1.8 $\cdot$ 10 <sup>60</sup> years	1.8 ´ 10 <sup>56</sup> years

# Practical Security Issues

- Typically symmetric encryption is applied to a unit of data larger than a single 64-bit or 128-bit block
- Electronic codebook (ECB) mode is the simplest approach to multiple-block encryption
  - Each block of plaintext is encrypted using the same key
  - Cryptanalysts may be able to exploit regularities in the plaintext
- Modes of operation
  - Alternative techniques developed to increase the security of symmetric block encryption for large sequences
  - Overcomes the weaknesses of ECB







(b) Stream encryption

Figure 2.2 Types of Symmetric Encryption

# Block & Stream Ciphers

### **Block Cipher**

- Processes the input one block of elements at a time
- Produces an output block for each input block
- Can reuse keys
- More common

#### **Stream Cipher**

- Processes the input elements continuously
- Produces output one element at a time
- Primary advantage is that they are almost always faster and use far less code
- Encrypts plaintext one byte at a time
- Pseudorandom stream is one that is unpredictable without knowledge of the input key

# Message Authentication



### Message Authentication Without Confidentiality

- Message encryption by itself does not provide a secure form of authentication
- It is possible to combine authentication and confidentiality in a single algorithm by encrypting a message plus its authentication tag
- Typically message authentication is provided as a separate function from message encryption
- Situations in which message authentication without confidentiality may be preferable include:
  - There are a number of applications in which the same message is broadcast to a number of destinations
  - An exchange in which one side has a heavy load and cannot afford the time to decrypt all incoming messages
  - Authentication of a computer program in plaintext is an attractive service
- Thus, there is a place for both authentication and encryption in meeting security requirements



Authentication Code (MAC).



### To be useful for message authentication, a hash function H must have the following properties:

Can be applied to a block of data of any size

Produces a fixed-length output

H(x) is relatively easy to compute for any given x

One-way or pre-image resistantComputationally infeasible to find x such that H(x) = h

Computationally infeasible to find  $y \neq x$  such that H(y) = H(x)

Collision resistant or strong collision resistance

• Computationally infeasible to find any pair (x,y) such that H(x) = H(y)

# Security of Hash Functions

There are two approaches to attacking a secure hash function:

#### Cryptanalysis

• Exploit logical weaknesses in the algorithm

#### Brute-force attack

•Strength of hash function depends solely on the length of the hash code produced by the algorithm SHA most widely used hash algorithm

SHA was developed NIST and published in 1993

### Additional secure hash function applications:

#### Passwords

• Hash of a password is stored by an operating system

#### Intrusion detection

• Store H(F) for each file on a system and secure the hash values

### Public-Key Encryption Structure

Publicly proposed by Diffie and Hellman in 1976

### Based on mathematical functions

#### Asymmetric

- Uses two separate keys
- Public key and private key
- Public key is made public for others to use

Some form of protocol is needed for distribution



Plaintext

Readable message or data that is fed into the algorithm as input

### Encryption algorithm

Performs transformations on the plaintext

#### • Public and private key

Pair of keys, one for encryption, one for decryption

### Ciphertext

- Scrambled message produced as output
- Decryption key
  - Produces the original plaintext



Figure 2.6 Public-Key Cryptography

- User encrypts data using his or her own private key
- Anyone who knows the corresponding public key will be able to decrypt the message

### Asymmetric Encryption Algorithms



### **Applications for Public-Key Cryptosystems**

Algorithm	Digital Signature	Symmetric Key Distribution	Encryption of Secret Keys
RSA	Yes	Yes	Yes
Diffie-Hellman	No	Yes	No
DSS	Yes	No	No
Elliptic Curve	Yes	Yes	Yes

### Requirements for Public-Key Cryptosystems

Computationally easy to create key pairs

Useful if either key can be used for each role

Computationally infeasible for opponent to otherwise recover original message Computationally easy for sender knowing public key to encrypt messages

Computationally easy for receiver knowing private key to decrypt ciphertext

Computationally infeasible for opponent to determine private key from public key

# Digital Signatures

• NIST FIPS PUB 186-4 defines a digital signature as:

"The result of a cryptographic transformation of data that, when properly implemented, provides a mechanism for verifying origin authentication, data integrity and signatory non-repudiation."

- Thus, a digital signature is a data-dependent bit pattern, generated by an agent as a function of a file, message, or other form of data block
- FIPS 186-4 specifies the use of one of three digital signature algorithms:
  - Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)
  - RSA Digital Signature Algorithm
  - Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA)





Figure 2.8 Public-Key Certificate Use



# Random Numbers

# Uses include generation of:

- Keys for public-key algorithms
- Stream key for symmetric stream cipher
- Symmetric key for use as a temporary session key or in creating a digital envelope
- Handshaking to prevent replay attacks
- Session key

### Random Number Requirements

### Randomness

### • Criteria:

- Uniform distribution
  - Frequency of occurrence of each of the numbers should be approximately the same
- Independence
  - No one value in the sequence can be inferred from the others

### Unpredictability

- Each number is statistically independent of other numbers in the sequence
- Opponent should not be able to predict future elements of the sequence on the basis of earlier elements

### Random versus Pseudorandom

### Cryptographic applications typically make use of algorithmic techniques for random number generation

• Algorithms are deterministic and therefore produce sequences of numbers that are not statistically random

#### Pseudorandom numbers are:

- Sequences produced that satisfy statistical randomness tests
- Likely to be predictable

#### True random number generator (TRNG):

- Uses a nondeterministic source to produce randomness
- Most operate by measuring unpredictable natural processes
- e.g. radiation, gas discharge, leaky capacitors
- Increasingly provided on modern processors

# Practical Application: Encryption of Stored Data

### Common to encrypt transmitted data

### Much less common for stored data

