Information Security
UNIT-I

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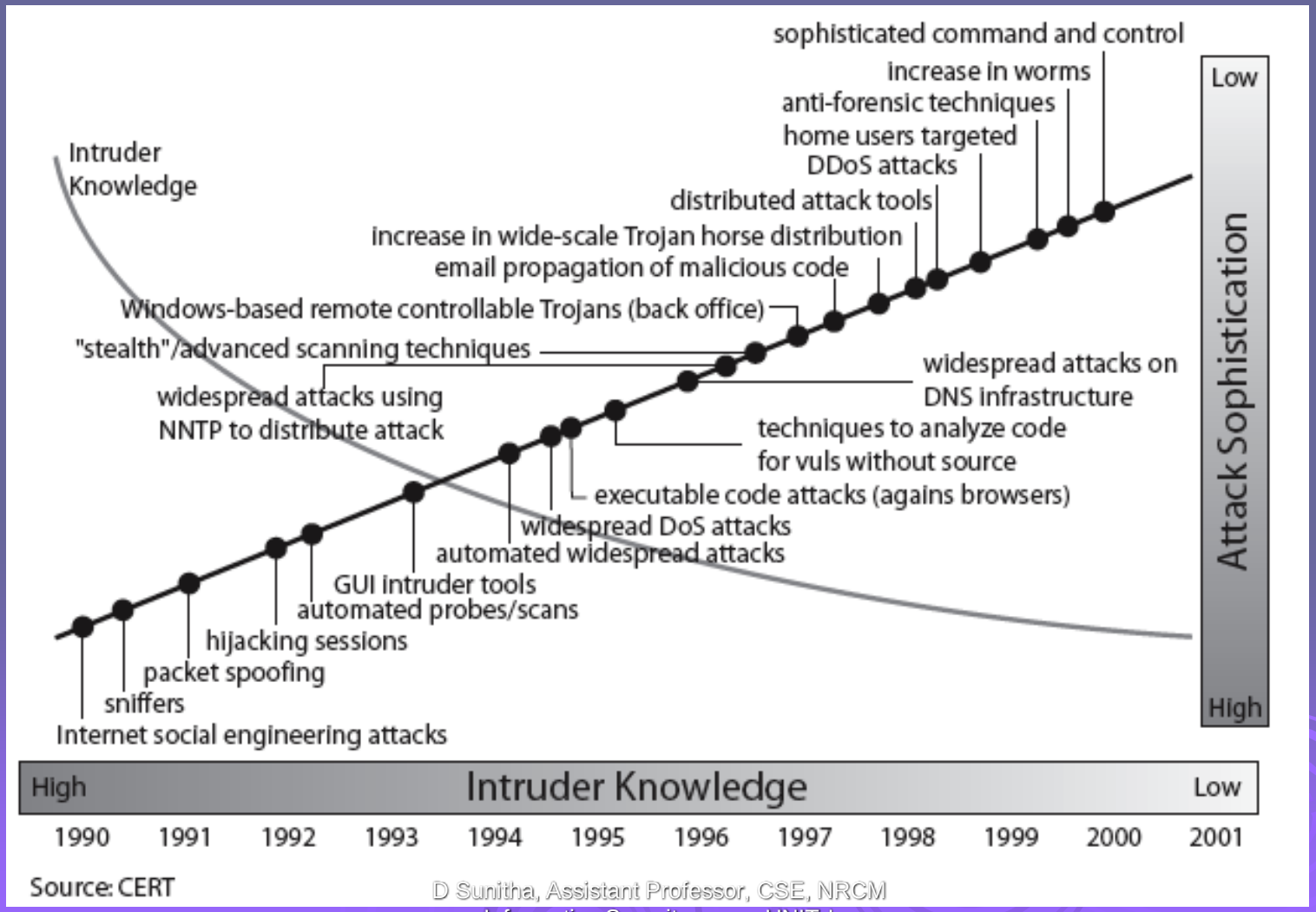
Introduction

- Information Security requirements have changed in recent times
- traditionally provided by physical and administrative mechanisms
- computer use requires automated tools to protect files and other stored information
- use of networks and communications links requires measures to protect data during transmission

Definitions

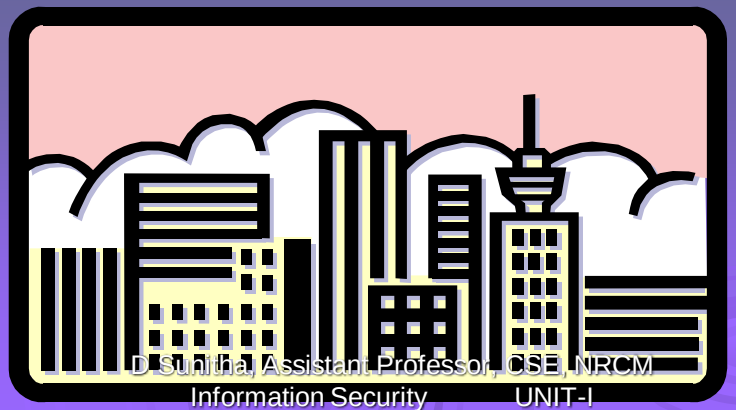
- **Computer Security** - generic name for the collection of tools designed to protect data and to thwart hackers
- **Network Security** - measures to protect data during their transmission
- **Internet Security** - measures to protect data during their transmission over a collection of interconnected networks

Security Trends



OSI Security Architecture

- ITU-T X.800 “Security Architecture for OSI”
- defines a systematic way of defining and providing security requirements
- for us it provides a useful, if abstract, overview of concepts we will study



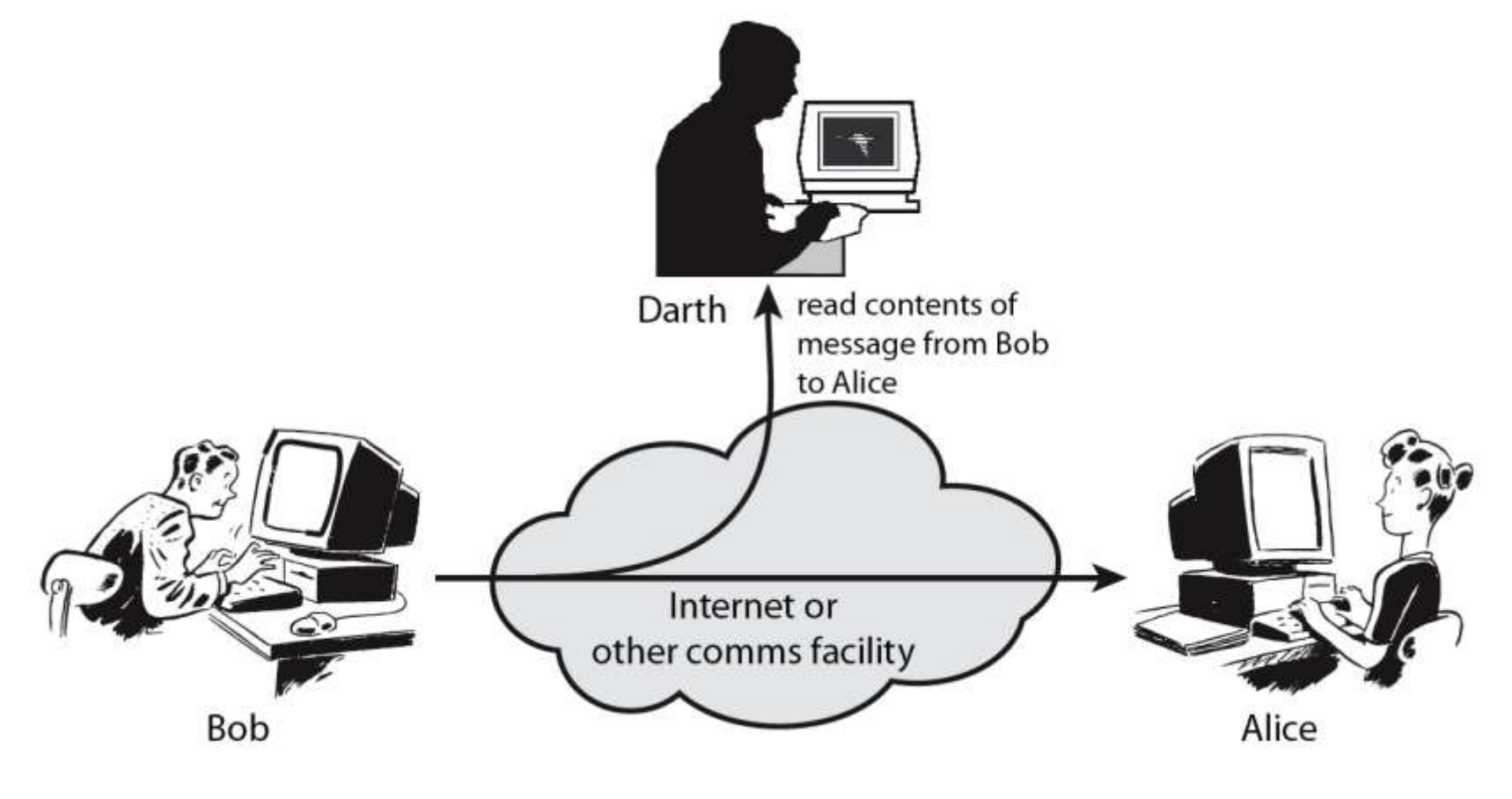
Aspects of Security

- consider 3 aspects of information security:
  - **security attack**
  - **security mechanism**
  - **security service**

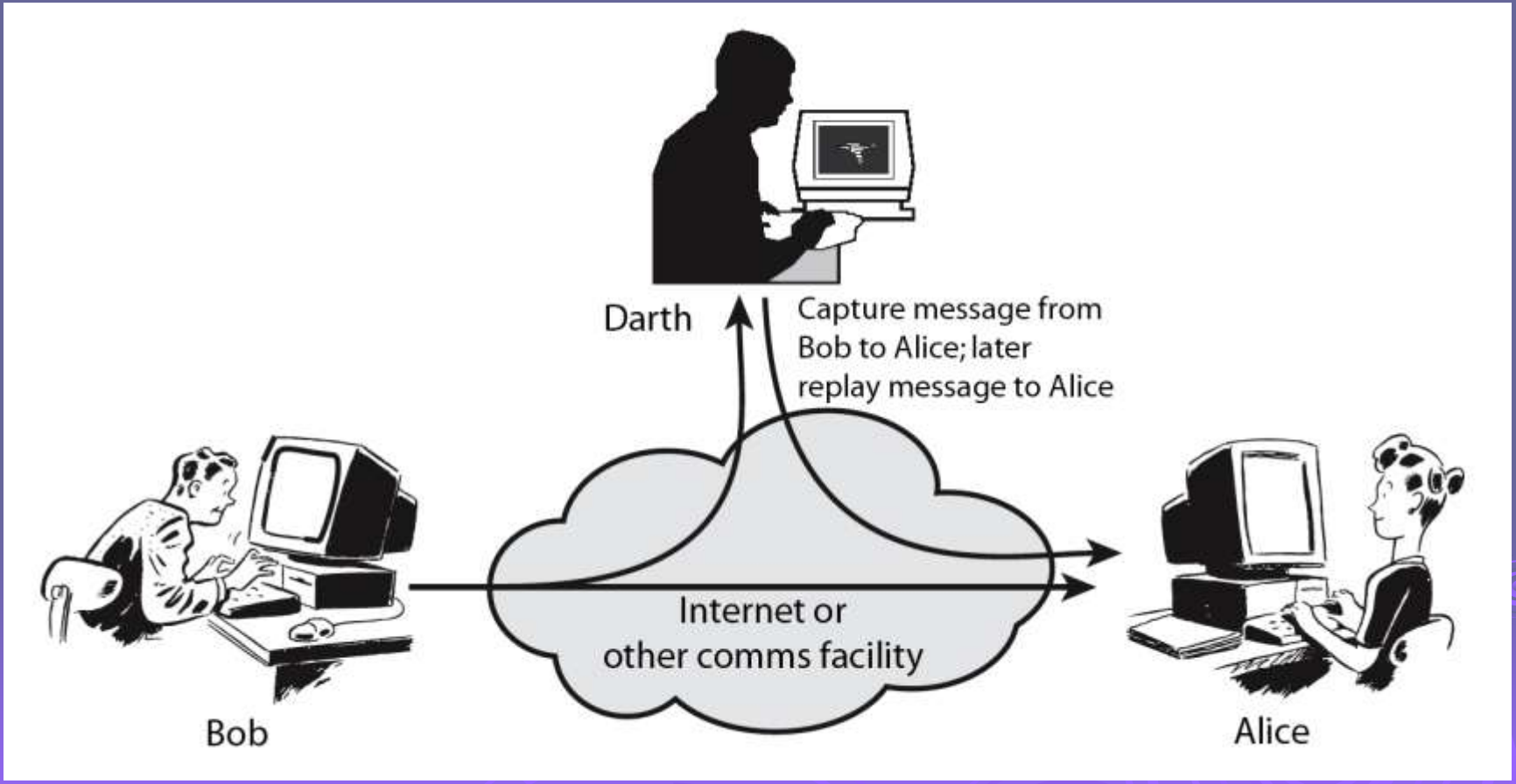
Security Attack

- any action that compromises the security of information owned by an organization
- information security is about how to prevent attacks, or failing that, to detect attacks on information-based systems
- often *threat* & *attack* used to mean same thing
- have a wide range of attacks
- can focus of generic types of attacks
  - passive
  - active

Passive Attacks



Active Attacks



Security Service

- enhance security of data processing systems and information transfers of an organization
- intended to counter security attacks
- using one or more security mechanisms
- often replicates functions normally associated with physical documents
  - which, for example, have signatures, dates; need protection from disclosure, tampering, or destruction; be notarized or witnessed; be recorded or licensed

Security Services

- X.800:

  "a service provided by a protocol layer of communicating open systems, which ensures adequate security of the systems or of data transfers"

- RFC 2828:

  "a processing or communication service provided by a system to give a specific kind of protection to system resources"

Security Services (X.800)

- **Authentication** - assurance that the communicating entity is the one claimed
- **Access Control** - prevention of the unauthorized use of a resource
- **Data Confidentiality** –protection of data from unauthorized disclosure
- **Data Integrity** - assurance that data received is as sent by an authorized entity
- **Non-Repudiation** - protection against denial by one of the parties in a communication

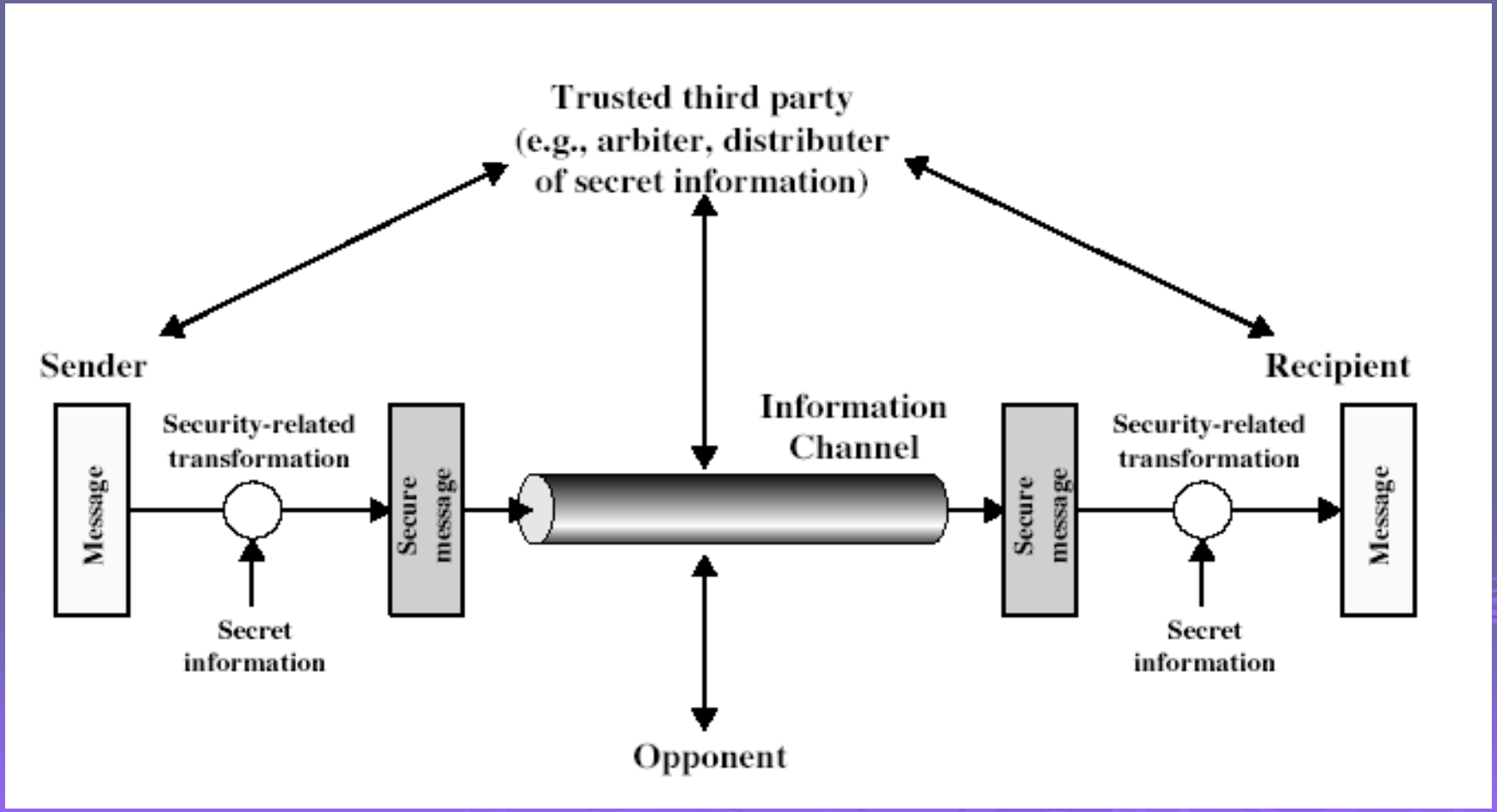
Security Mechanism

- feature designed to detect, prevent, or recover from a security attack
- no single mechanism that will support all services required
- however one particular element underlies many of the security mechanisms in use:
  - **cryptographic techniques**
- hence our focus on this topic

Security Mechanisms (X.800)

- specific security mechanisms:
  - encipherment, digital signatures, access controls, data integrity, authentication exchange, traffic padding, routing control, notarization
- pervasive security mechanisms:
  - trusted functionality, security labels, event detection, security audit trails, security recovery

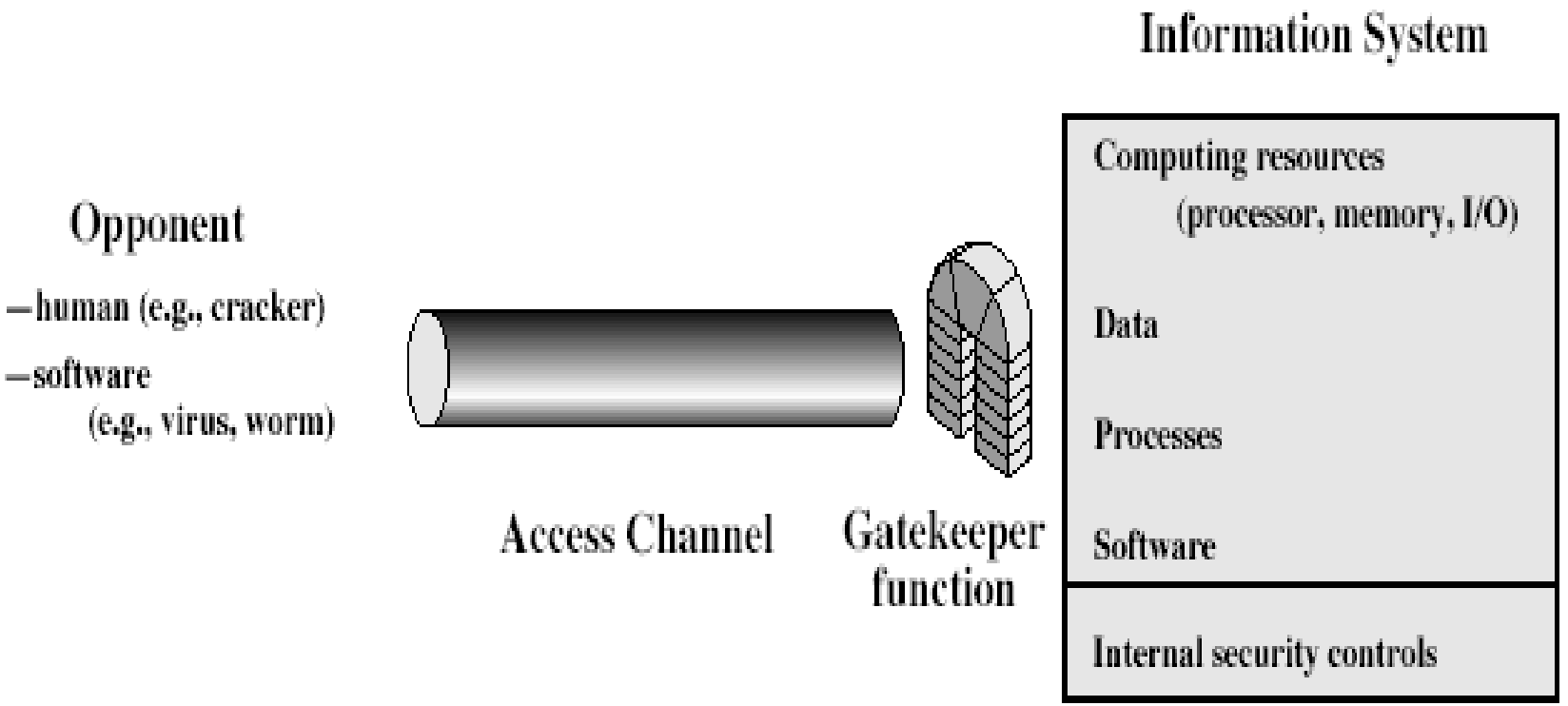
Model for Network Security



Model for Network Security

- using this model requires us to:
  1. design a suitable algorithm for the security transformation
  2. generate the secret information (keys) used by the algorithm
  3. develop methods to distribute and share the secret information
  4. specify a protocol enabling the principals to use the transformation and secret information for a security service

Model for Network Access Security



Model for Network Access Security

- using this model requires us to:
  1. select appropriate gatekeeper functions to identify users
  2. implement security controls to ensure only authorised users access designated information or resources
- trusted computer systems may be useful to help implement this model

Classical Encryption Techniques

Many savages at the present day regard their names as vital parts of themselves, and therefore take great pains to conceal their real names, lest these should give to evil-disposed persons a handle by which to injure their owners.

—*The Golden Bough,* Sir James George Frazer

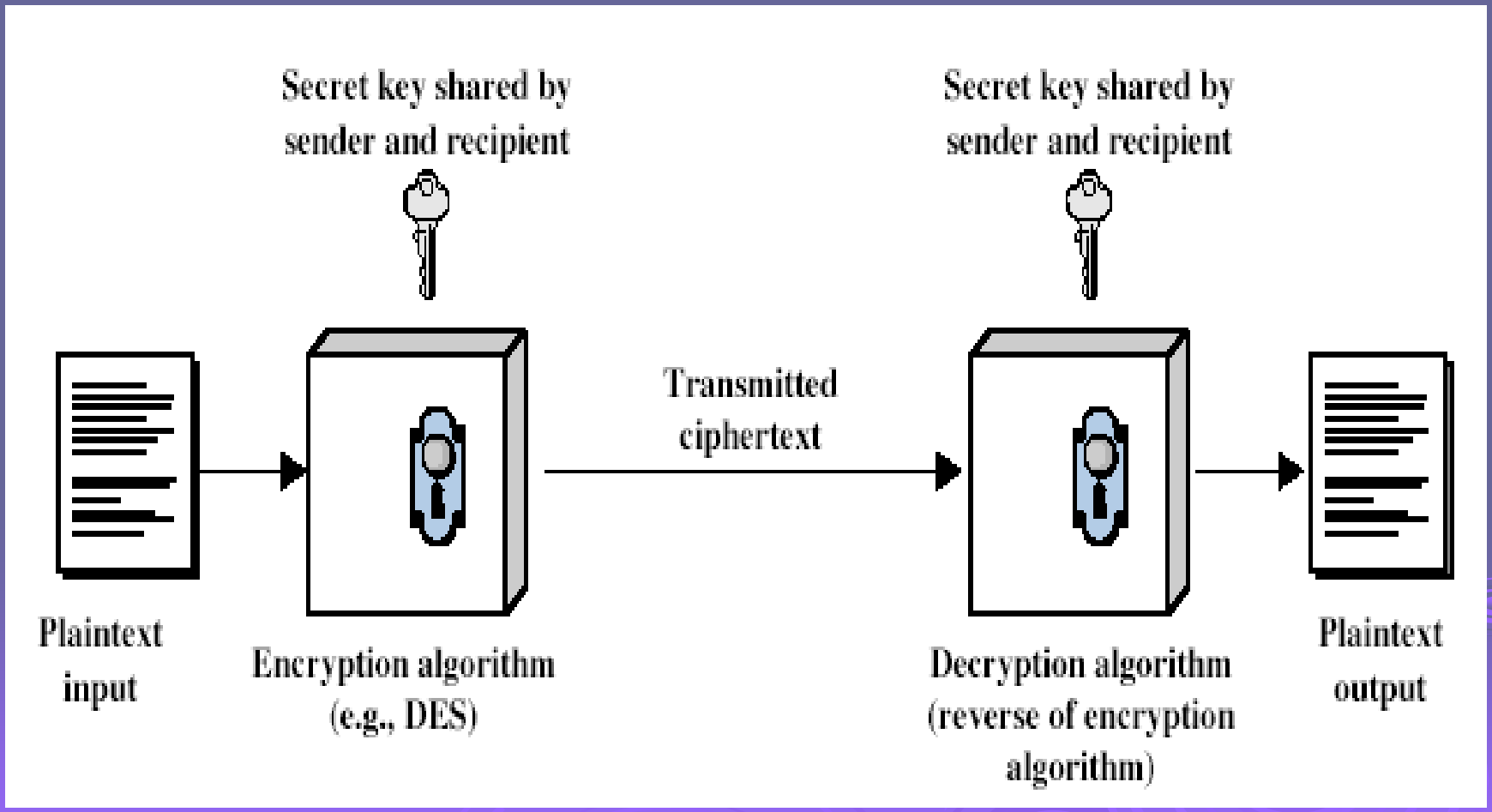
Symmetric Encryption

- or conventional / private-key / single-key
- sender and recipient share a common key
- all classical encryption algorithms are private-key
- was only type prior to invention of public-key in 1970's
- and by far most widely used

Some Basic Terminology

- **plaintext** - original message
- **ciphertext** - coded message
- **cipher** - algorithm for transforming plaintext to ciphertext
- **key** - info used in cipher known only to sender/receiver
- **encipher (encrypt)** - converting plaintext to ciphertext
- **decipher (decrypt)** - recovering ciphertext from plaintext
- **cryptography** - study of encryption principles/methods
- **cryptanalysis (codebreaking)** - study of principles/ methods of deciphering ciphertext *without* knowing key
- **cryptology** - field of both cryptography and cryptanalysis

Symmetric Cipher Model



Requirements

- two requirements for secure use of symmetric encryption:
  - a strong encryption algorithm
  - a secret key known only to sender / receiver
- mathematically have:

  $Y = E_K(X)$

  $X = D_K(Y)$
- assume encryption algorithm is known
- implies a secure channel to distribute key

Cryptography

- characterize cryptographic system by:
  - type of encryption operations used
    - substitution / transposition / product
  - number of keys used
    - single-key or private / two-key or public
  - way in which plaintext is processed
    - block / stream

Cryptanalysis

- objective to recover key not just message
- general approaches:
  - cryptanalytic attack
  - brute-force attack

Cryptanalytic Attacks

- **ciphertext only**
  - only know algorithm & ciphertext, is statistical, know or can identify plaintext
- **known plaintext**
  - know/suspect plaintext & ciphertext
- **chosen plaintext**
  - select plaintext and obtain ciphertext
- **chosen ciphertext**
  - select ciphertext and obtain plaintext
- **chosen text**
  - select plaintext or ciphertext to en/decrypt

More Definitions

- **unconditional security**
  - no matter how much computer power or time is available, the cipher cannot be broken since the ciphertext provides insufficient information to uniquely determine the corresponding plaintext
- **computational security**
  - given limited computing resources (eg time needed for calculations is greater than age of universe), the cipher cannot be broken

Brute Force Search

- always possible to simply try every key
- most basic attack, proportional to key size
- assume either know / recognise plaintext

Key Size (bits)	Number of Alternative Keys	Time required at 1 decryption/μs	Time required at 10^6 decryptions/μs
32	$2^{32} = 4.3 \times 10^9$	2^{31} μs = 35.8 minutes	2.15 milliseconds
56	$2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$	2^{55} μs = 1142 years	10.01 hours
128	$2^{128} = 3.4 \times 10^{38}$	2^{127} μs = 5.4×10^{24} years	5.4×10^{18} years
168	$2^{168} = 3.7 \times 10^{50}$	2^{167} μs = 5.9×10^{36} years	5.9×10^{30} years
26 characters (permutation)	$26! = 4 \times 10^{26}$	2×10^{26} μs = 6.4×10^{12} years	6.4×10^6 years

Classical Substitution Ciphers

- where letters of plaintext are replaced by other letters or by numbers or symbols
- or if plaintext is viewed as a sequence of bits, then substitution involves replacing plaintext bit patterns with ciphertext bit patterns

Caesar Cipher

- earliest known substitution cipher
- by Julius Caesar
- first attested use in military affairs
- replaces each letter by 3rd letter on
- example:

```
meet me after the toga party
PHHW PH DIWHU WKH WRJD SDUWB
```

Caesar Cipher

- 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

- then have Caesar cipher as:

$c = E(p) = (p + k) \bmod (26)$

$p = D(c) = (c - k) \bmod (26)$

Cryptanalysis of Caesar Cipher

- only have 26 possible ciphers
  - A maps to A,B,..Z
- could simply try each in turn
- a **brute force search**
- given ciphertext, just try all shifts of letters
- do need to recognize when have plaintext
- eg. break ciphertext "GCUA VQ DTGCM"

Monoalphabetic Cipher

- rather than just shifting the alphabet
- could shuffle (jumble) the letters arbitrarily
- each plaintext letter maps to a different random ciphertext letter
- hence key is 26 letters long

```
Plain:  abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz
Cipher: DKVQFIBJWPESCXHTMYAUOLRGZN

Plaintext:  ifwewishtoreplaceletters
Ciphertext: WIRFRWAJUHYFTSDVFSFUUFYA
```

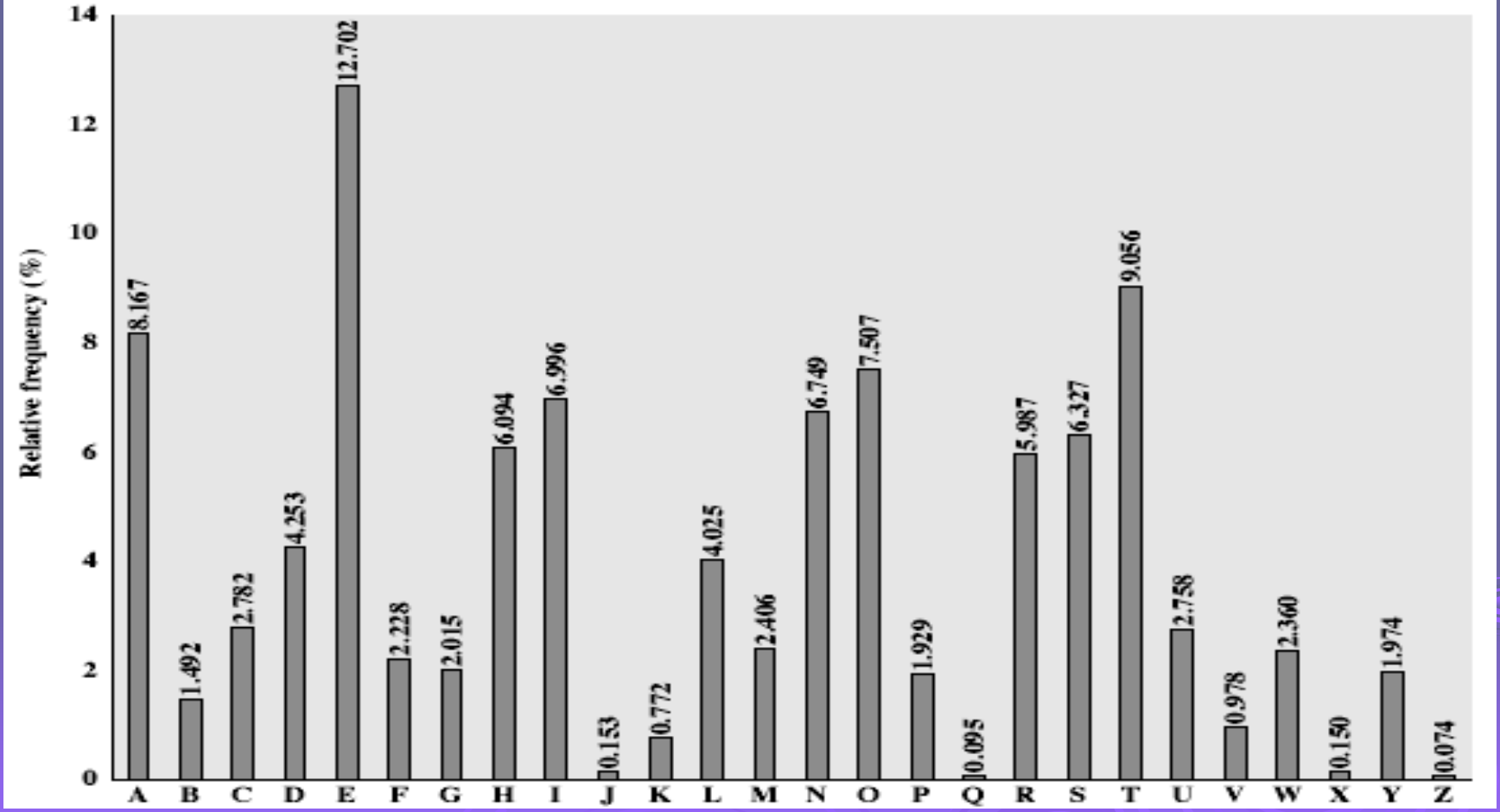
Monoalphabetic Cipher Security

- now have a total of 26! = 4 x 1026 keys
- with so many keys, might think is secure
- but would be **!!!WRONG!!!**
- problem is language characteristics

Language Redundancy and Cryptanalysis

- human languages are **redundant**
- eg "th lrd s m shphrd shll nt wnt"
- letters are not equally commonly used
- in English E is by far the most common letter
  - followed by T,R,N,I,O,A,S
- other letters like Z,J,K,Q,X are fairly rare
- have tables of single, double & triple letter frequencies for various languages

English Letter Frequencies



Use in Cryptanalysis

- key concept - monoalphabetic substitution ciphers do not change relative letter frequencies
- discovered by Arabian scientists in 9th century
- calculate letter frequencies for ciphertext
- compare counts/plots against known values
- if caesar cipher look for common peaks/troughs
  - peaks at: A-E-I triple, NO pair, RST triple
  - troughs at: JK, X-Z
- for monoalphabetic must identify each letter
  - tables of common double/triple letters help

Example Cryptanalysis

- given ciphertext:

```
UZQSOVUOHXMOPVGPOZPEVSGZWSZOPFPESXUDBMETSXAIZ
VUEPHZHMDZSHZOWSFPAPPDTSVPQUZWYMXUZUHSX
EPYEPOPDZSZUFPOMBZWPFUPZHMDJUDTMOHMQ
```

- count relative letter frequencies (see text)
- guess P & Z are e and t
- guess ZW is th and hence ZWP is the
- proceeding with trial and error finally get:

```
it was disclosed yesterday that several informal but
direct contacts have been made with political
representatives of the viet cong in moscow
```

Playfair Cipher

- not even the large number of keys in a monoalphabetic cipher provides security
- one approach to improving security was to encrypt multiple letters
- the **Playfair Cipher** is an example
- invented by Charles Wheatstone in 1854, but named after his friend Baron Playfair

Playfair Key Matrix

- a 5X5 matrix of letters based on a keyword
- fill in letters of keyword (sans duplicates)
- fill rest of matrix with other letters
- eg. 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

Encrypting and Decrypting

- plaintext is encrypted two letters at a time
  1. if a pair is a repeated letter, insert filler like 'X'
  2. if both letters fall in the same row, replace each with letter to right (wrapping back to start from end)
  3. if both letters fall in the same column, replace each with the letter below it (again wrapping to top from bottom)
  4. otherwise each letter is replaced by the letter in the same row and in the column of the other letter of the pair

Security of Playfair Cipher

- security much improved over monoalphabetic
- since have 26 x 26 = 676 digrams
- would need a 676 entry frequency table to analyse (verses 26 for a monoalphabetic)
- and correspondingly more ciphertext
- was widely used for many years
  - eg. by US & British military in WW1
- it **can** be broken, given a few hundred letters
- since still has much of plaintext structure

Polyalphabetic Ciphers

- **polyalphabetic substitution ciphers**
- improve security using multiple cipher alphabets
- make cryptanalysis harder with more alphabets to guess and flatter frequency distribution
- use a key to select which alphabet is used for each letter of the message
- use each alphabet in turn
- repeat from start after end of key is reached

Vigenère Cipher

- simplest polyalphabetic substitution cipher
- effectively multiple caesar ciphers
- key is multiple letters long $K = k_1\ k_2\ \ldots\ k_d$
- i^{th} letter specifies i^{th} alphabet to use
- use each alphabet in turn
- repeat from start after d letters in message
- decryption simply works in reverse

Example of Vigenère Cipher

- write the plaintext out
- write the keyword repeated above it
- use each key letter as a caesar cipher key
- encrypt the corresponding plaintext letter
- eg using keyword *deceptive*

```
key:        deceptivedeceptivedeceptive
plaintext:  wearediscoveredsaveyourself
ciphertext:ZICVTWQNGRZGVTWAVZHCQYGLMGJ
```

Aids

- simple aids can assist with en/decryption
- a **Saint-Cyr Slide** is a simple manual aid
  - a slide with repeated alphabet
  - line up plaintext 'A' with key letter, eg 'C'
  - then read off any mapping for key letter
- can bend round into a **cipher disk**
- or expand into a **Vigenère Tableau**

Security of Vigenère Ciphers

- have multiple ciphertext letters for each plaintext letter
- hence letter frequencies are obscured
- but not totally lost
- start with letter frequencies
  - see if look monoalphabetic or not
- if not, then need to determine number of alphabets, since then can attach each

Kasiski Method

- method developed by Babbage / Kasiski
- repetitions in ciphertext give clues to period
- so find same plaintext an exact period apart
- which results in the same ciphertext
- of course, could also be random fluke
- eg repeated “VTW” in previous example
- suggests size of 3 or 9
- then attack each monoalphabetic cipher individually using same techniques as before

Autokey Cipher

- ideally want a key as long as the message
- Vigenère proposed the **autokey** cipher
- with keyword is prefixed to message as key
- knowing keyword can recover the first few letters
- use these in turn on the rest of the message
- but still have frequency characteristics to attack
- eg. given key *deceptive*

```
key:        deceptivewearediscoveredsav
plaintext:  wearediscoveredsaveyourself
ciphertext:ZICVTWQNGKZEIIGASXSTSLVVWLA
```

One-Time Pad

- if a truly random key as long as the message is used, the cipher will be secure
- called a One-Time pad
- is unbreakable since ciphertext bears no statistical relationship to the plaintext
- since for **any plaintext** & **any ciphertext** there exists a key mapping one to other
- can only use the key **once** though
- problems in generation & safe distribution of key

Transposition Ciphers

- now consider classical **transposition** or **permutation** ciphers
- these hide the message by rearranging the letter order
- without altering the actual letters used
- can recognise these since have the same frequency distribution as the original text

Rail Fence cipher

- write message letters out diagonally over a number of rows
- then read off cipher row by row
- eg. write message out as:

```
m e m a t r h t g p r y
  e t e f e t e o a a t
```

- giving ciphertext

```
MEMATRHTGPRYETEFETEOAAT
```

Row Transposition Ciphers

- a more complex transposition
- write letters of message out in rows over a specified number of columns
- then reorder the columns according to some key before reading off the rows

```
Key:         3 4 2 1 5 6 7
Plaintext: a t t a c k p
           o s t p o n e
           d u n t i l t
           w o a m x y z
Ciphertext: TTNAAPTMTSUOAODWCOIXKNLYPETZ
```

Steganography

- an alternative to encryption
- hides existence of message
  - using only a subset of letters/words in a longer message marked in some way
  - using invisible ink
  - hiding in LSB in graphic image or sound file
- has drawbacks
  - high overhead to hide relatively few info bits

UNIT-II

Block Ciphers and the Data Encryption Standard

All the afternoon Mungo had been working on Stern's code, principally with the aid of the latest messages which he had copied down at the Nevin Square drop. Stern was very confident. He must be well aware London Central knew about that drop. It was obvious that they didn't care how often Mungo read their messages, so confident were they in the impenetrability of the code.

***—Talking to Strange Men,* Ruth Rendell**

Modern Block Ciphers

- now look at modern block ciphers
- one of the most widely used types of cryptographic algorithms
- provide secrecy /authentication services
- focus on DES (Data Encryption Standard)
- to illustrate block cipher design principles

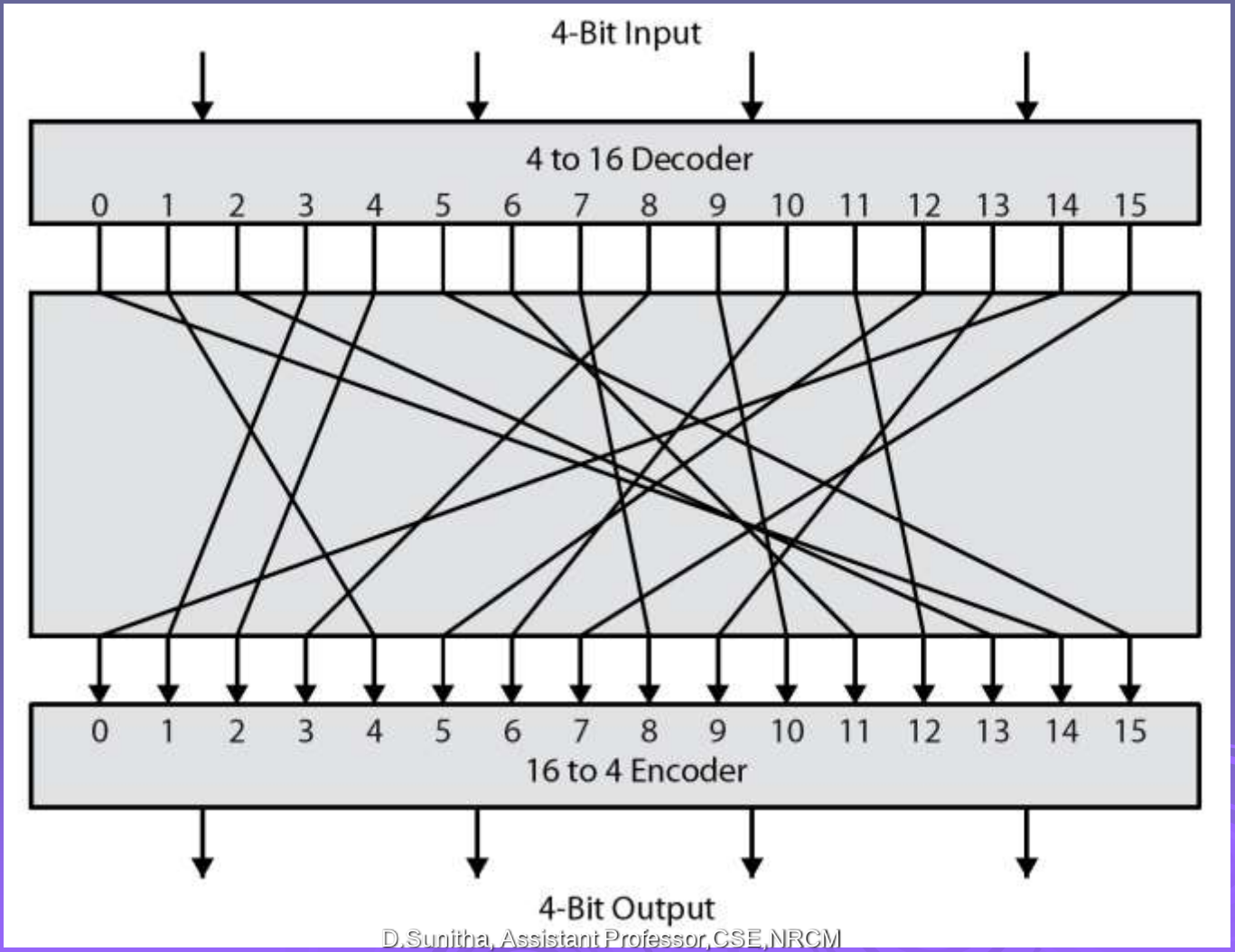
Block vs Stream Ciphers

- block ciphers process messages in blocks, each of which is then en/decrypted
- like a substitution on very big characters
  - 64-bits or more
- stream ciphers process messages a bit or byte at a time when en/decrypting
- many current ciphers are block ciphers
- broader range of applications

Block Cipher Principles

- most symmetric block ciphers are based on a **Feistel Cipher Structure**
- needed since must be able to **decrypt** ciphertext to recover messages efficiently
- block ciphers look like an extremely large substitution
- would need table of 2^{64} entries for a 64-bit block
- instead create from smaller building blocks
- using idea of a product cipher

Ideal Block Cipher



Claude Shannon and Substitution-Permutation Ciphers

- Claude Shannon introduced idea of substitution-permutation (S-P) networks in 1949 paper
- form basis of modern block ciphers
- S-P nets are based on the two primitive cryptographic operations seen before:
  - *substitution* (S-box)
  - *permutation* (P-box)
- provide *confusion* & *diffusion* of message & key

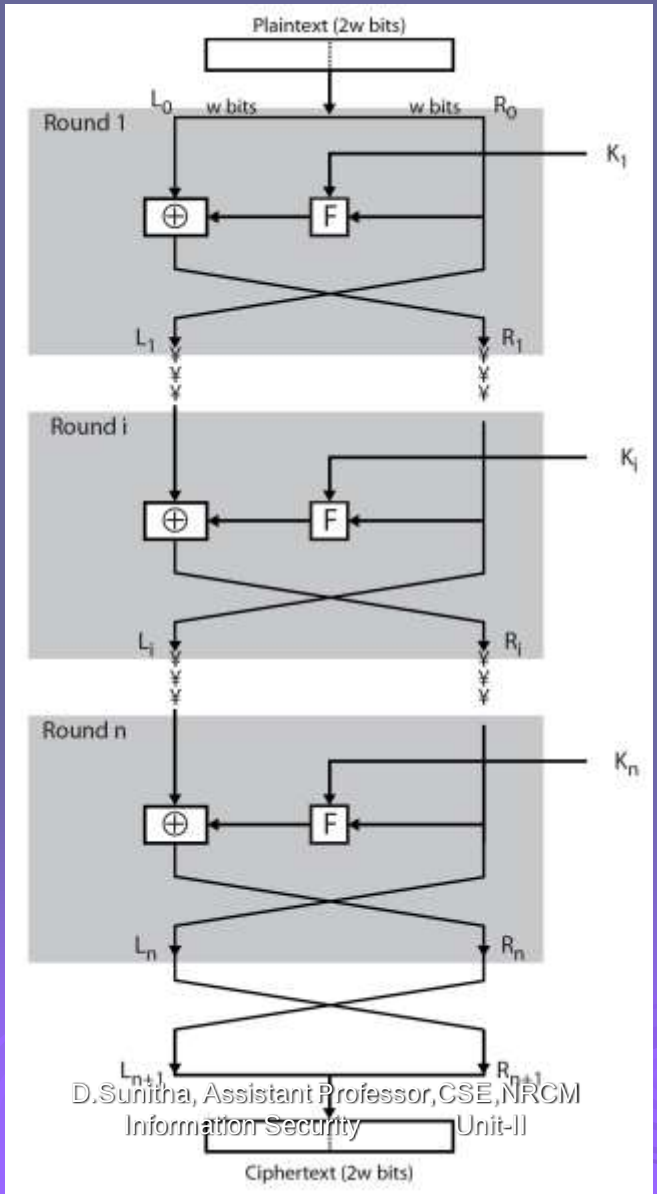
Confusion and Diffusion

- cipher needs to completely obscure statistical properties of original message
- a one-time pad does this
- more practically Shannon suggested combining S & P elements to obtain:
- **diffusion** – dissipates statistical structure of plaintext over bulk of ciphertext
- **confusion** – makes relationship between ciphertext and key as complex as possible

Feistel Cipher Structure

- Horst Feistel devised the **feistel cipher**
  - based on concept of invertible product cipher
- partitions input block into two halves
  - process through multiple rounds which
  - perform a substitution on left data half
  - based on round function of right half & subkey
  - then have permutation swapping halves
- implements Shannon's S-P net concept

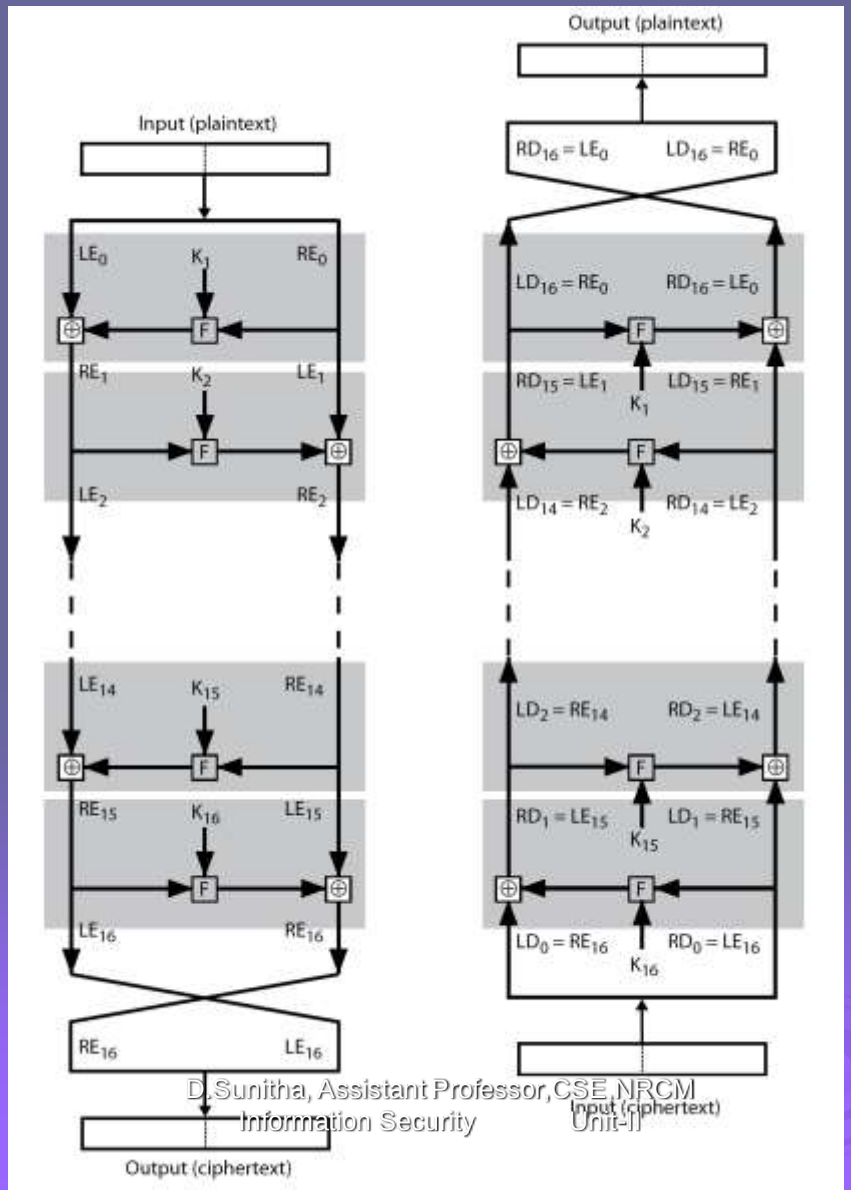
Feistel Cipher Structure



Feistel Cipher Design Elements

- block size
- key size
- number of rounds
- subkey generation algorithm
- round function
- fast software en/decryption
- ease of analysis

Feistel Cipher Decryption



Data Encryption Standard (DES)

- most widely used block cipher in world
- adopted in 1977 by NBS (now NIST)
  - as FIPS PUB 46
- encrypts 64-bit data using 56-bit key
- has widespread use
- has been considerable controversy over its security

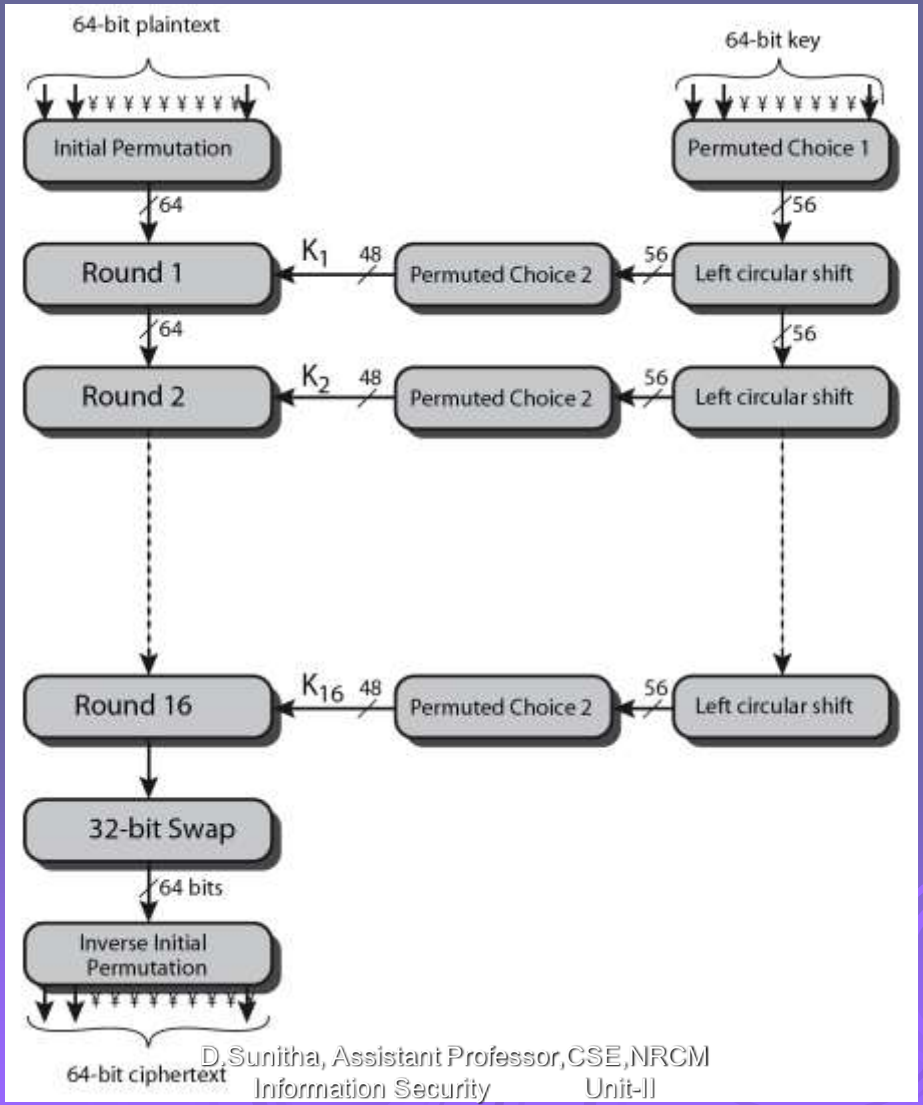
DES History

- IBM developed Lucifer cipher
  - by team led by Feistel in late 60's
  - used 64-bit data blocks with 128-bit key
- then redeveloped as a commercial cipher with input from NSA and others
- in 1973 NBS issued request for proposals for a national cipher standard
- IBM submitted their revised Lucifer which was eventually accepted as the DES

DES Design Controversy

- although DES standard is public
- was considerable controversy over design
  - in choice of 56-bit key (vs Lucifer 128-bit)
  - and because design criteria were classified
- subsequent events and public analysis show in fact design was appropriate
- use of DES has flourished
  - especially in financial applications
  - still standardised for legacy application use

DES Encryption Overview



Initial Permutation IP

- first step of the data computation
- IP reorders the input data bits
- even bits to LH half, odd bits to RH half
- quite regular in structure (easy in h/w)
- example:

```
IP(675a6967 5e5a6b5a) = (ffb2194d
004df6fb)
```

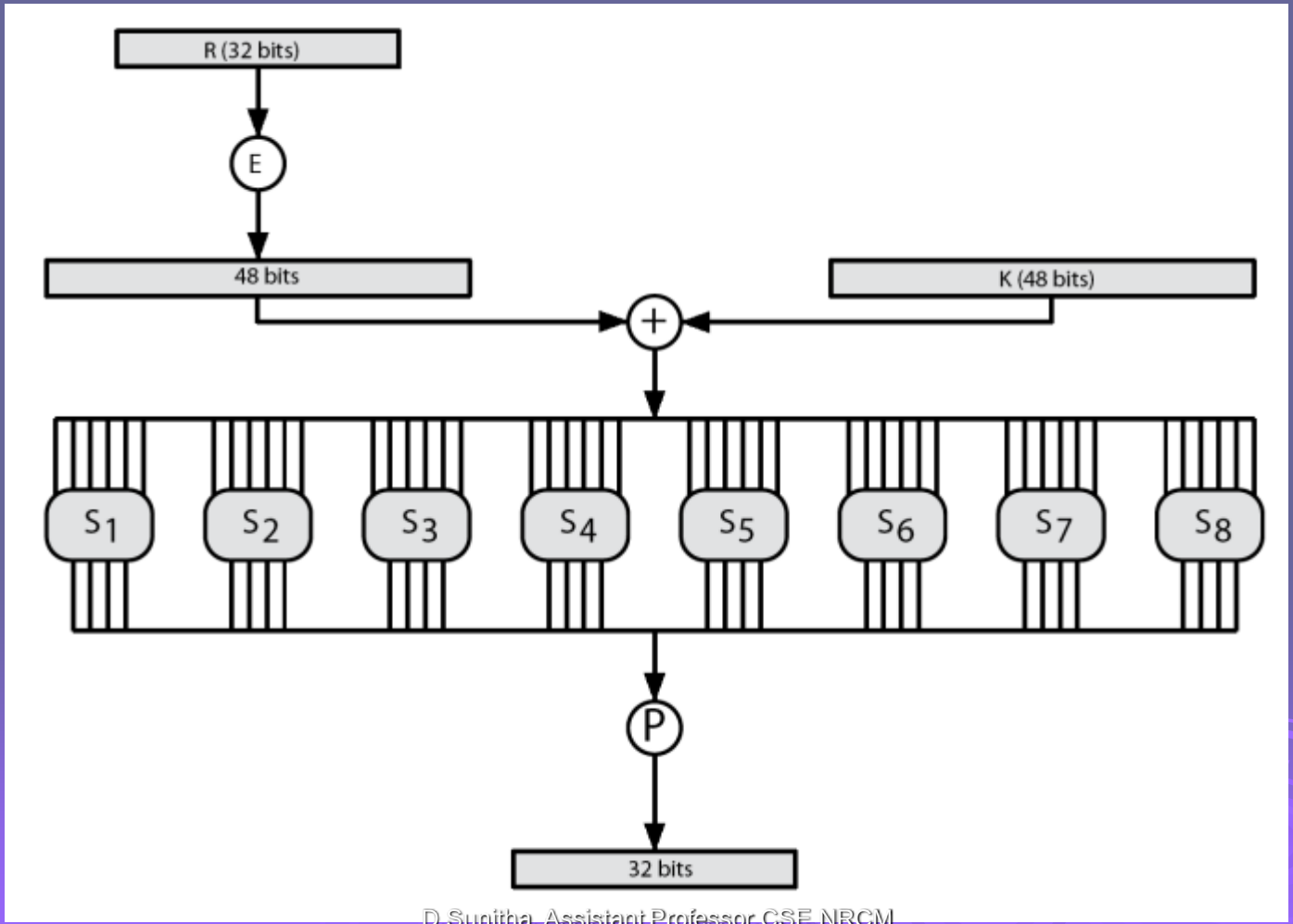
DES Round Structure

- uses two 32-bit L & R halves
- as for any Feistel cipher can describe as:

  $L_i = R_{i-1}$

  $R_i = L_{i-1} \oplus \mathrm{F}(R_{i-1}, K_i)$
- F takes 32-bit R half and 48-bit subkey:
  - expands R to 48-bits using perm E
  - adds to subkey using XOR
  - passes through 8 S-boxes to get 32-bit result
  - finally permutes using 32-bit perm P

DES Round Structure



Substitution Boxes S

- have eight S-boxes which map 6 to 4 bits
- each S-box is actually 4 little 4 bit boxes
  - outer bits 1 & 6 (**row** bits) select one row of 4
  - inner bits 2-5 (**col** bits) are substituted
  - result is 8 lots of 4 bits, or 32 bits
- row selection depends on both data & key
  - feature known as autoclaving (autokeying)
- example:
  - `S(18 09 12 3d 11 17 38 39) = 5fd25e03`

DES Key Schedule

- forms subkeys used in each round
  - initial permutation of the key (PC1) which selects 56-bits in two 28-bit halves
  - 16 stages consisting of:
    - rotating **each half** separately either 1 or 2 places depending on the **key rotation schedule** K
    - selecting 24-bits from each half & permuting them by PC2 for use in round function F
- note practical use issues in h/w vs s/w

DES Decryption

- decrypt must unwind steps of data computation
- with Feistel design, do encryption steps again using subkeys in reverse order (SK16 … SK1)
  - IP undoes final FP step of encryption
  - 1st round with SK16 undoes 16th encrypt round
  - ….
  - 16th round with SK1 undoes 1st encrypt round
  - then final FP undoes initial encryption IP
  - thus recovering original data value

Avalanche Effect

- key desirable property of encryption alg
- where a change of **one** input or key bit results in changing approx **half** output bits
- making attempts to “home-in” by guessing keys impossible
- DES exhibits strong avalanche

Strength of DES – Key Size

- 56-bit keys have $2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$ values
- brute force search looks hard
- recent advances have shown is possible
  - in 1997 on Internet in a few months
  - in 1998 on dedicated h/w (EFF) in a few days
  - in 1999 above combined in 22hrs!
- still must be able to recognize plaintext
- must now consider alternatives to DES

Strength of DES – Analytic Attacks

- now have several analytic attacks on DES
- these utilise some deep structure of the cipher
  - by gathering information about encryptions
  - can eventually recover some/all of the sub-key bits
  - if necessary then exhaustively search for the rest
- generally these are statistical attacks
- include
  - differential cryptanalysis
  - linear cryptanalysis
  - related key attacks

Strength of DES – Timing Attacks

- attacks actual implementation of cipher
- use knowledge of consequences of implementation to derive information about some/all subkey bits
- specifically use fact that calculations can take varying times depending on the value of the inputs to it
- particularly problematic on smartcards

Differential Cryptanalysis

- one of the most significant recent (public) advances in cryptanalysis
- known by NSA in 70's cf DES design
- Murphy, Biham & Shamir published in 90's
- powerful method to analyse block ciphers
- used to analyse most current block ciphers with varying degrees of success
- DES reasonably resistant to it, cf Lucifer

Differential Cryptanalysis

- a statistical attack against Feistel ciphers
- uses cipher structure not previously used
- design of S-P networks has output of function *f* influenced by both input & key
- hence cannot trace values back through cipher without knowing value of the key
- differential cryptanalysis compares two related pairs of encryptions

Differential Cryptanalysis Compares Pairs of Encryptions

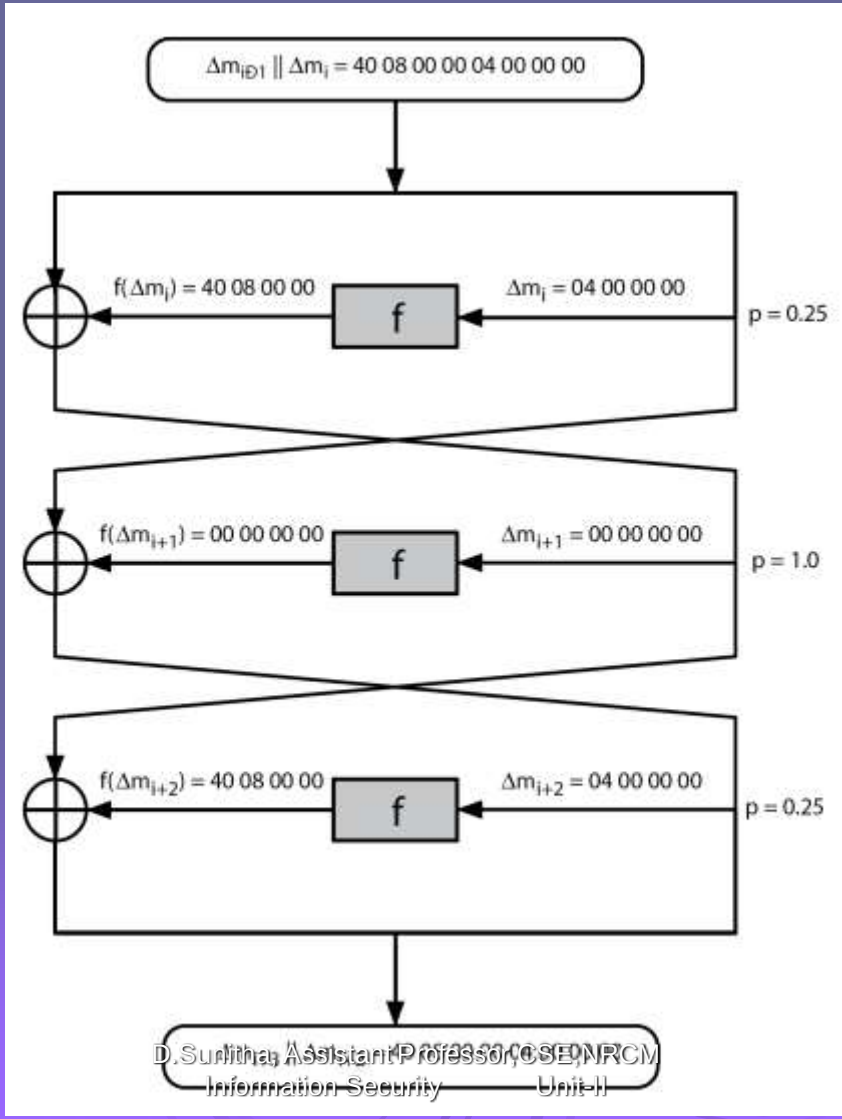
- with a known difference in the input
- searching for a known difference in output
- when same subkeys are used

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta m_{i+1} &= m_{i+1} \oplus m'_{i+1} \\
&= [m_{i-1} \oplus \mathrm{f}(m_i, K_i)] \oplus [m'_{i-1} \oplus \mathrm{f}(m'_i, K_i)] \\
&= \Delta m_{i-1} \oplus [\mathrm{f}(m_i, K_i) \oplus \mathrm{f}(m'_i, K_i)]
\end{aligned}
$$

Differential Cryptanalysis

- have some input difference giving some output difference with probability p
- if find instances of some higher probability input / output difference pairs occurring
- can infer subkey that was used in round
- then must iterate process over many rounds (with decreasing probabilities)

Differential Cryptanalysis



Differential Cryptanalysis

- perform attack by repeatedly encrypting plaintext pairs with known input XOR until obtain desired output XOR
- when found
  - if intermediate rounds match required XOR have a **right pair**
  - if not then have a **wrong pair**, relative ratio is S/N for attack
- can then deduce keys values for the rounds
  - right pairs suggest same key bits
  - wrong pairs give random values
- for large numbers of rounds, probability is so low that more pairs are required than exist with 64-bit inputs
- Biham and Shamir have shown how a 13-round iterated characteristic can break the full 16-round DES

Linear Cryptanalysis

- another recent development
- also a statistical method
- must be iterated over rounds, with decreasing probabilities
- developed by Matsui et al in early 90's
- based on finding linear approximations
- can attack DES with 2^{43} known plaintexts, easier but still in practise infeasible

DES Design Criteria

- as reported by Coppersmith in [COPP94]
- 7 criteria for S-boxes provide for
  - non-linearity
  - resistance to differential cryptanalysis
  - good confusion
- 3 criteria for permutation P provide for
  - increased diffusion

Block Cipher Design

- basic principles still like Feistel's in 1970's
- number of rounds
  - more is better, exhaustive search best attack
- function f:
  - provides "confusion", is nonlinear, avalanche
  - have issues of how S-boxes are selected
- key schedule
  - complex subkey creation, key avalanche

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- has 128/192/256 bit keys, 128 bit data
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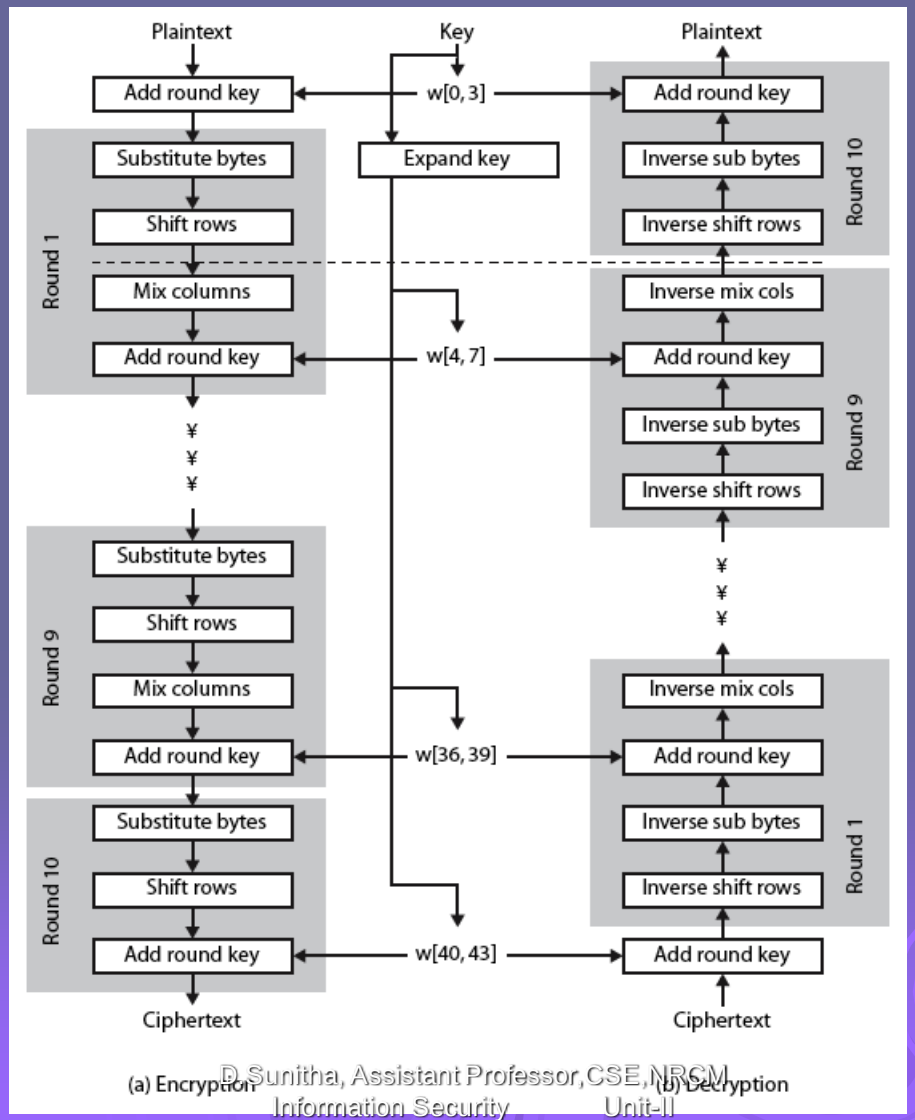
  - processes data as block of 4 columns of 4 bytes
  - operates on entire data block in every round
- designed to be:
  - resistant against known attacks
  - speed and code compactness on many CPUs
  - design simplicity

Rijndael

- data block of 4 columns of 4 bytes is state
- key is expanded to array of words
- has 9/11/13 rounds in which state undergoes:
  - byte substitution (1 S-box used on every byte)
  - shift rows (permute bytes between groups/columns)
  - mix columns (subs using matrix multipy of groups)
  - add round key (XOR state with key material)
  - view as alternating XOR key & scramble data bytes
- initial XOR key material & incomplete last round
- with fast XOR & table lookup implementation

Rijndael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Expand key
Inverse sub bytes
Round 10
Shift rows
Inverse shift rows
Round 1
Mix columns
Inverse mix cols
Add round key
w[4, 7]
Add round key
Round 9
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Inverse shift rows
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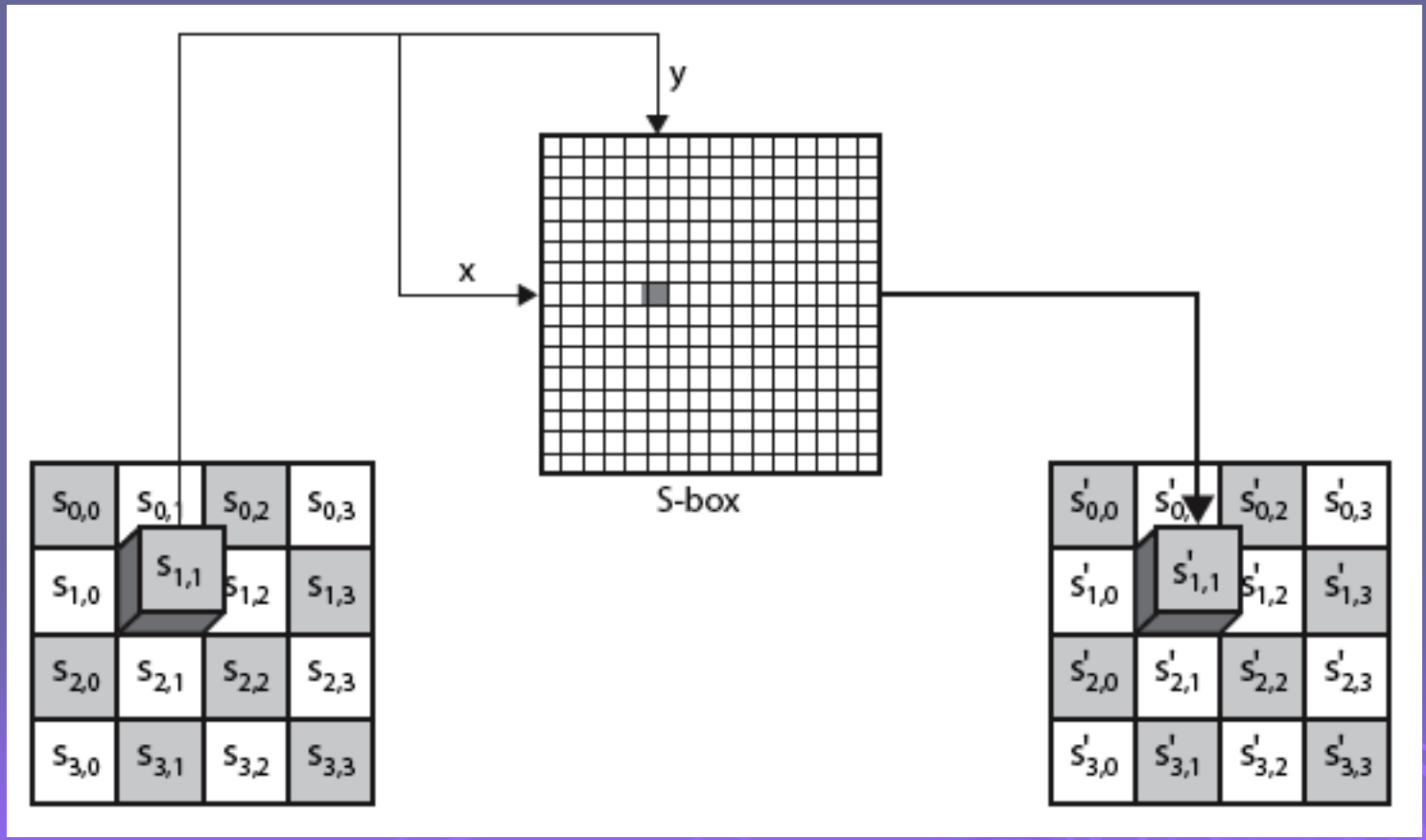

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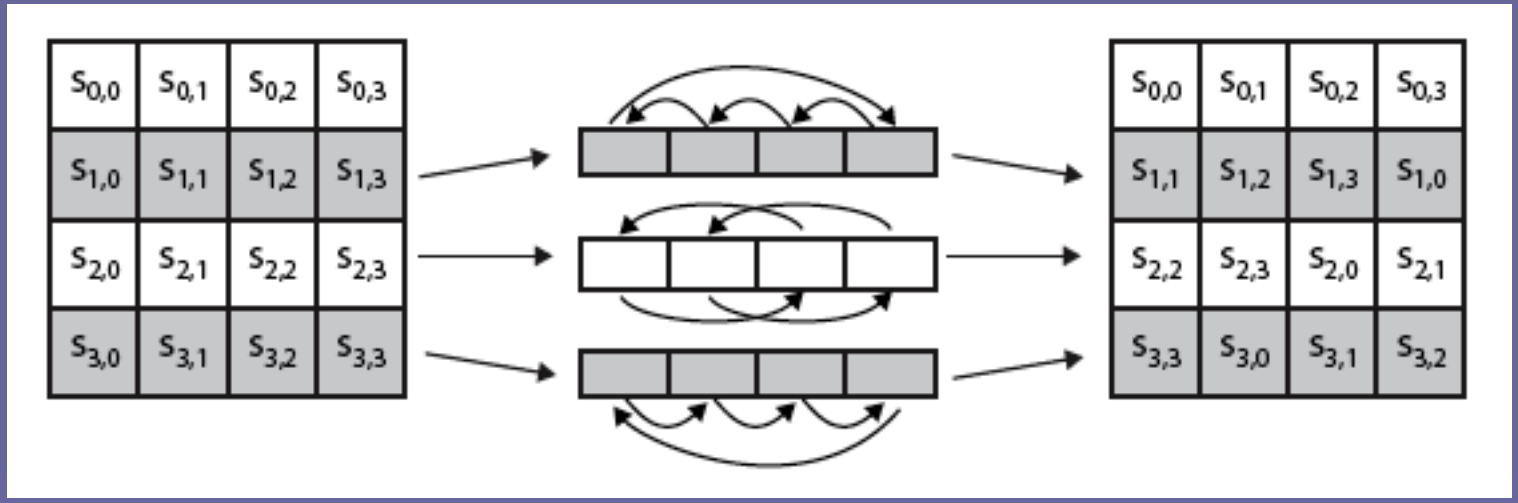
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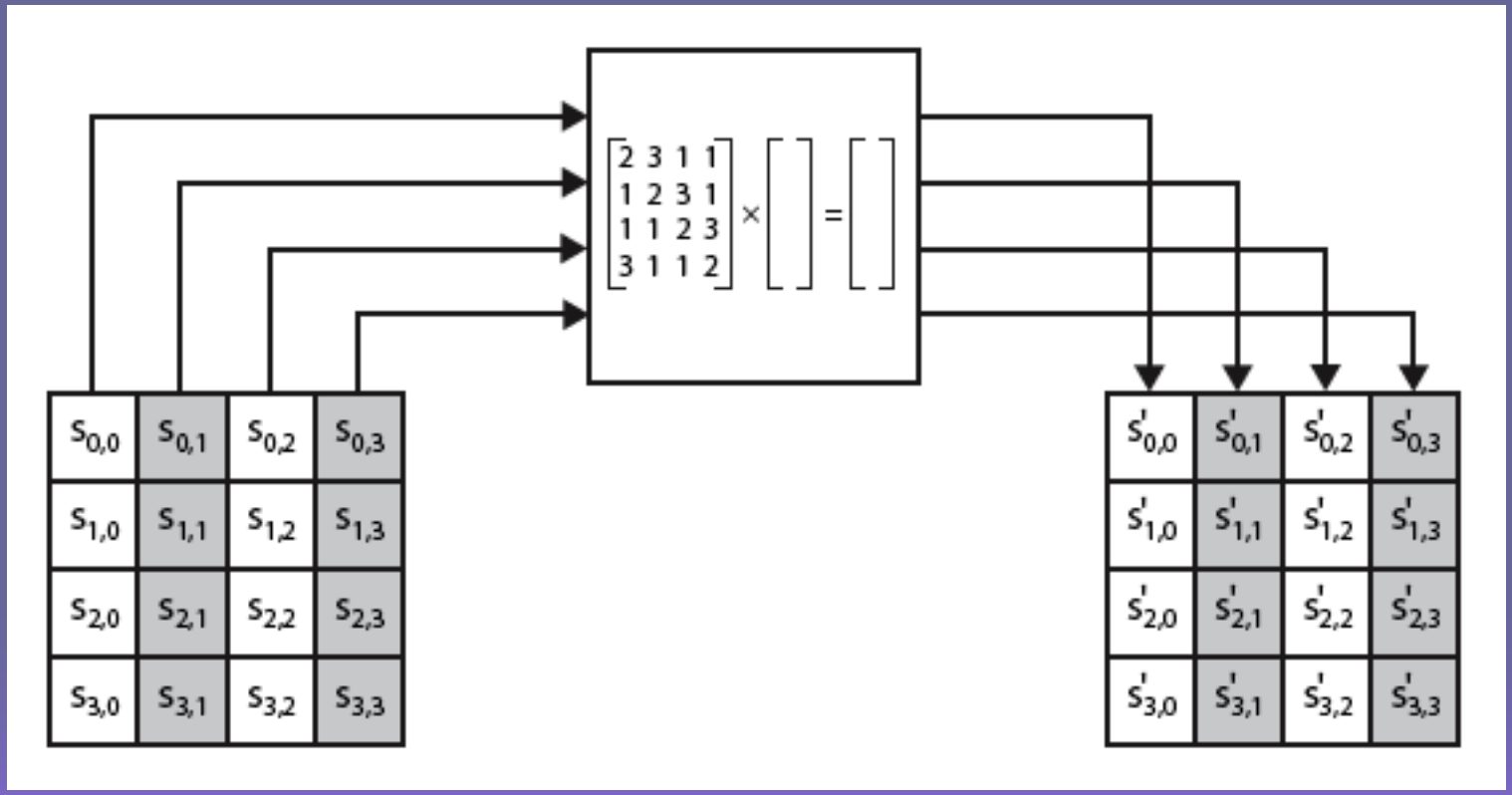
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1 2 3 1
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×
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  - with larger coefficients, hence a little harder
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- XOR state with 128-bits of the round key
- again processed by column (though effectively a series of byte operations)
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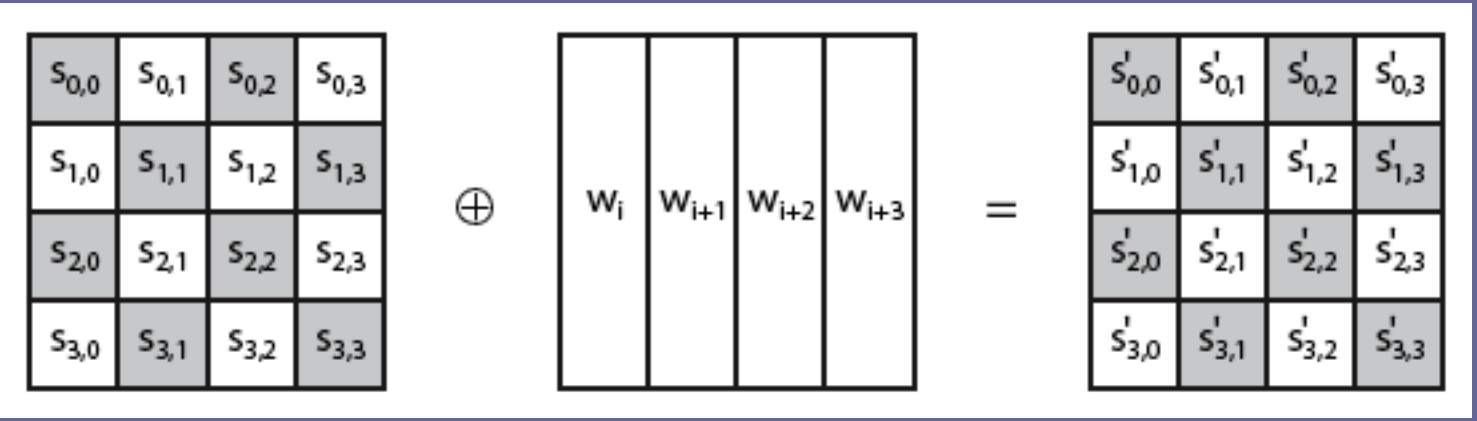
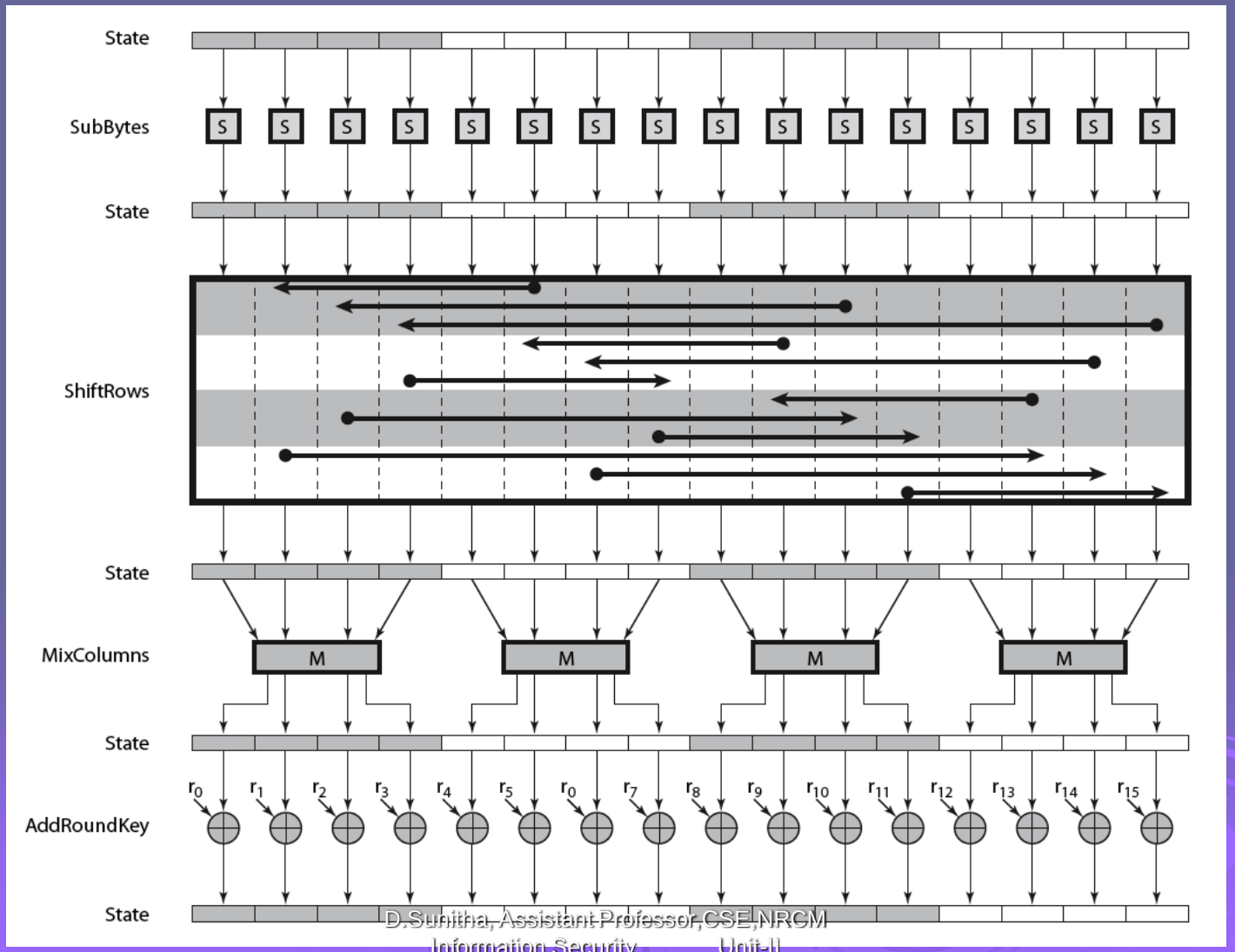


AES Round


State
SubBytes
S
State
ShiftRows
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MixColumns
M
State
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- start by copying key into first 4 words
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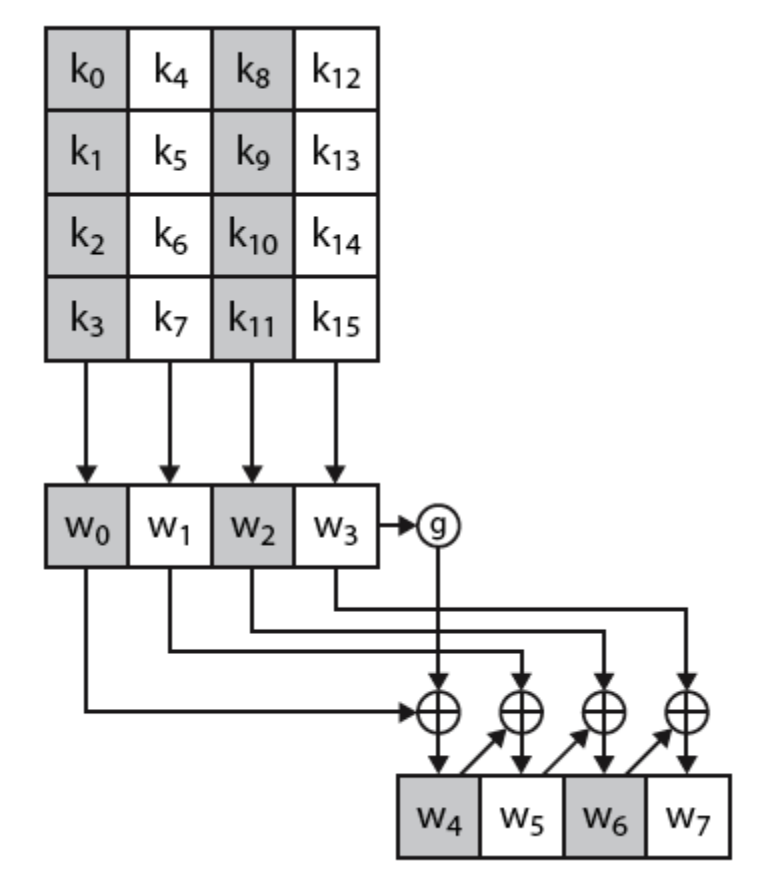

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  - knowing part key insufficient to find many more
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  - fast on wide range of CPU's
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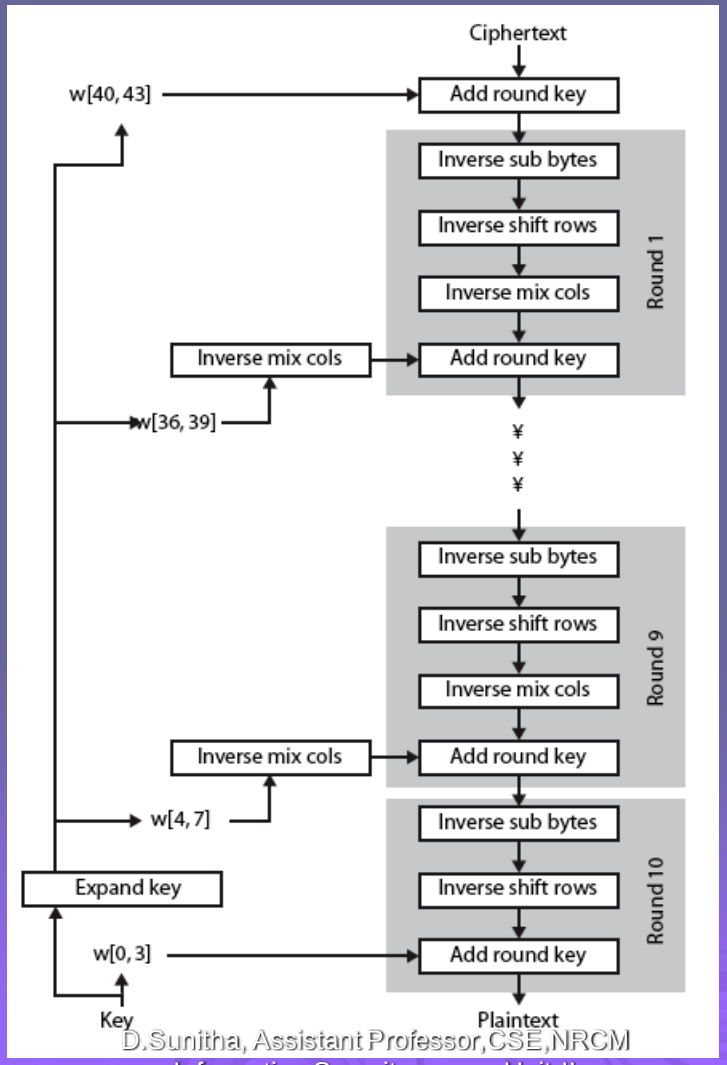

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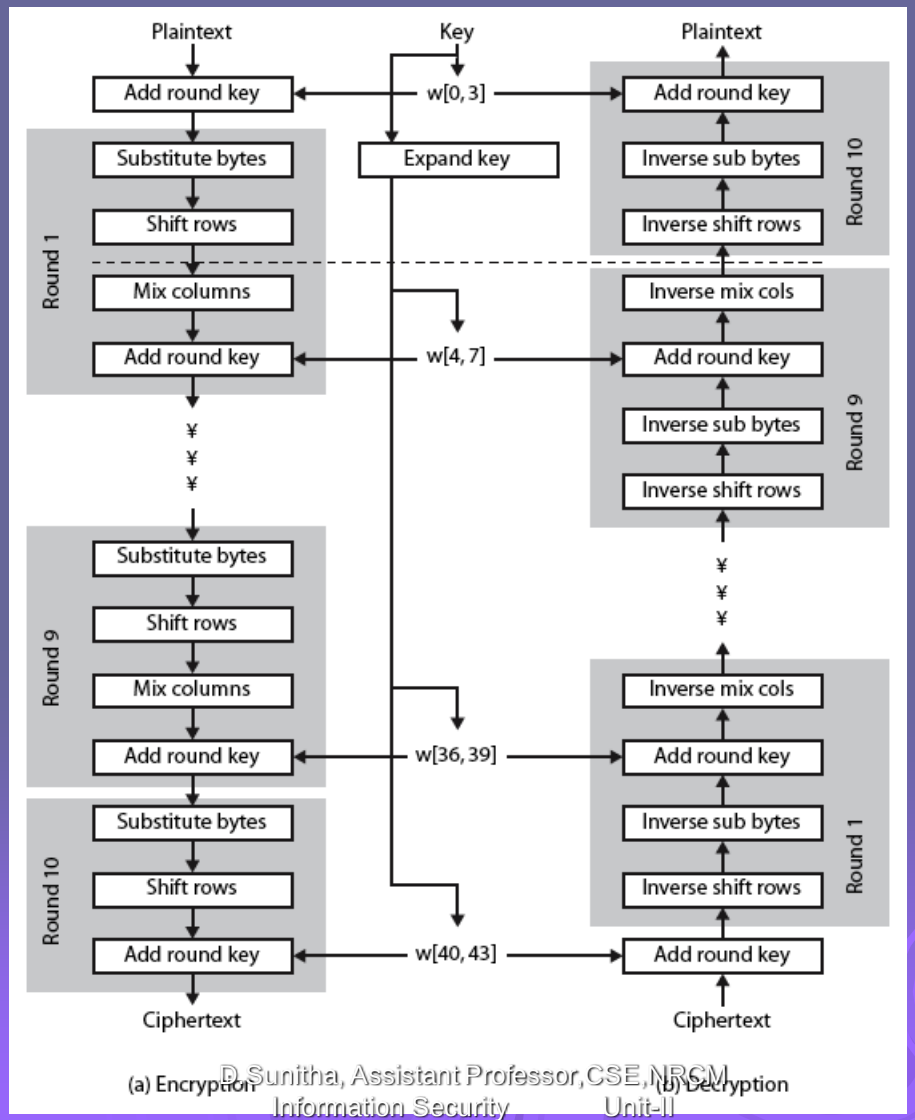
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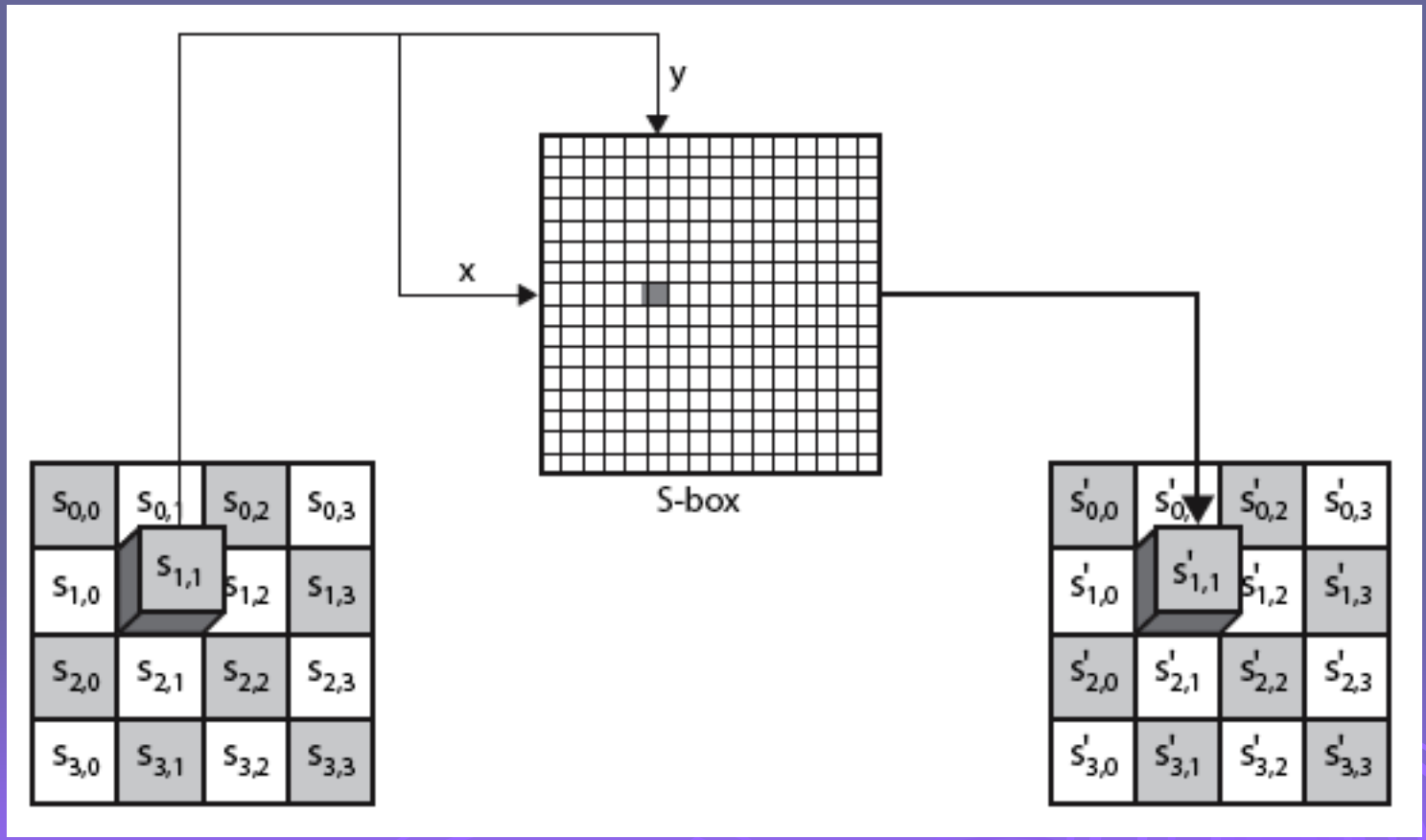

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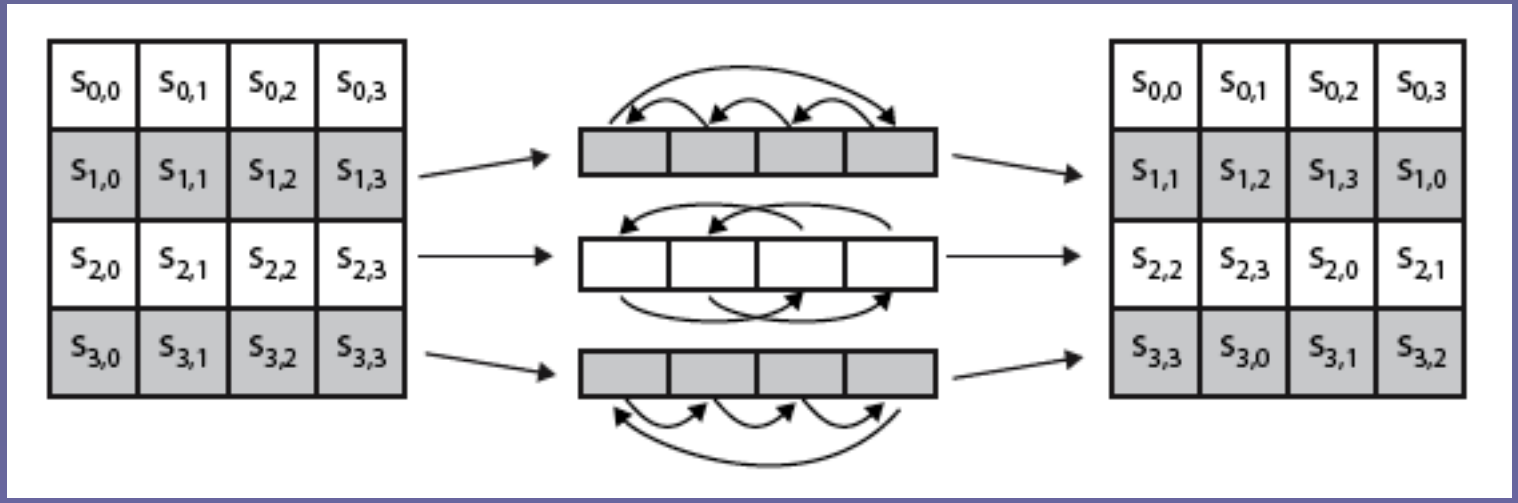
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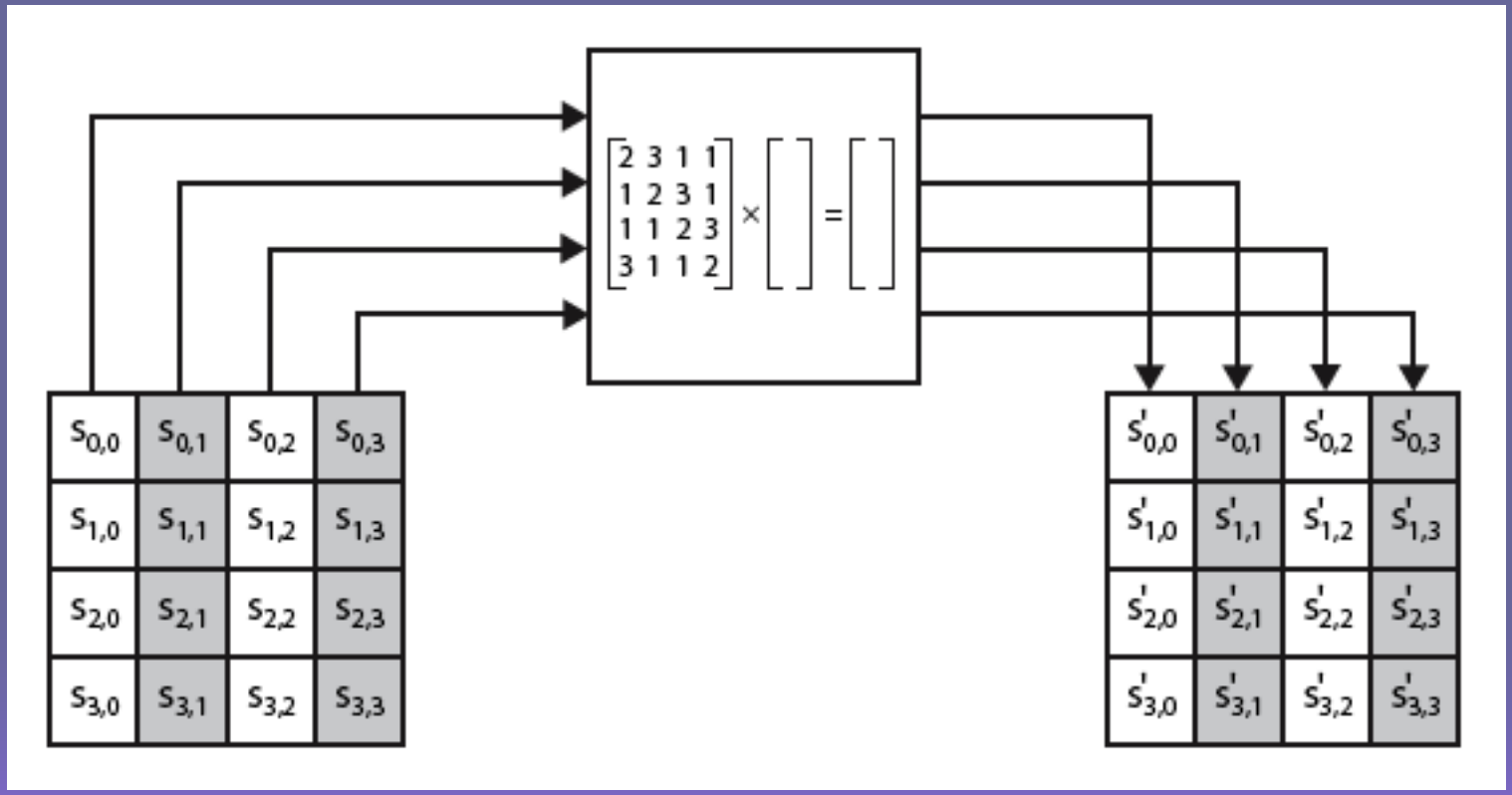
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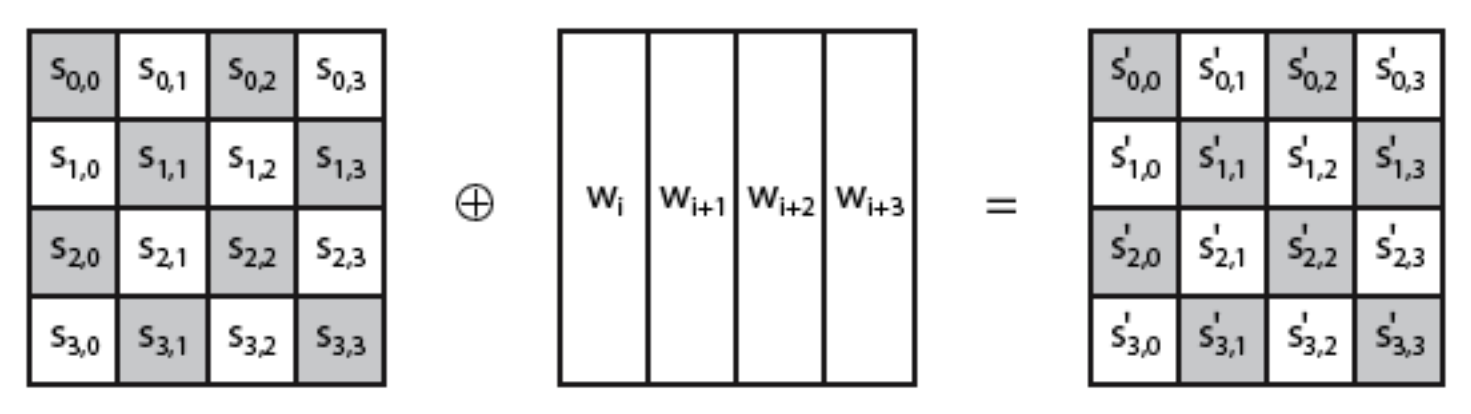
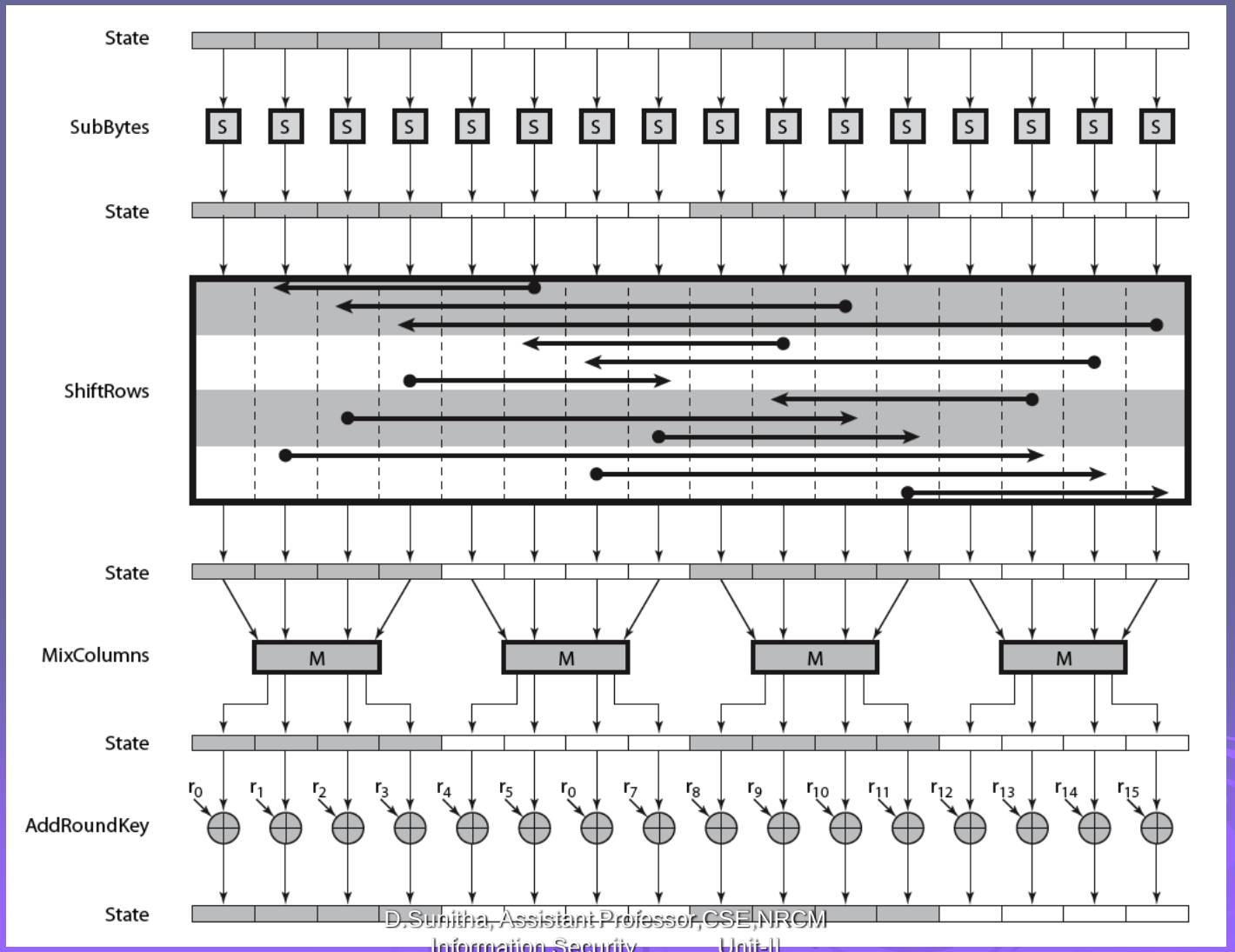


AES Round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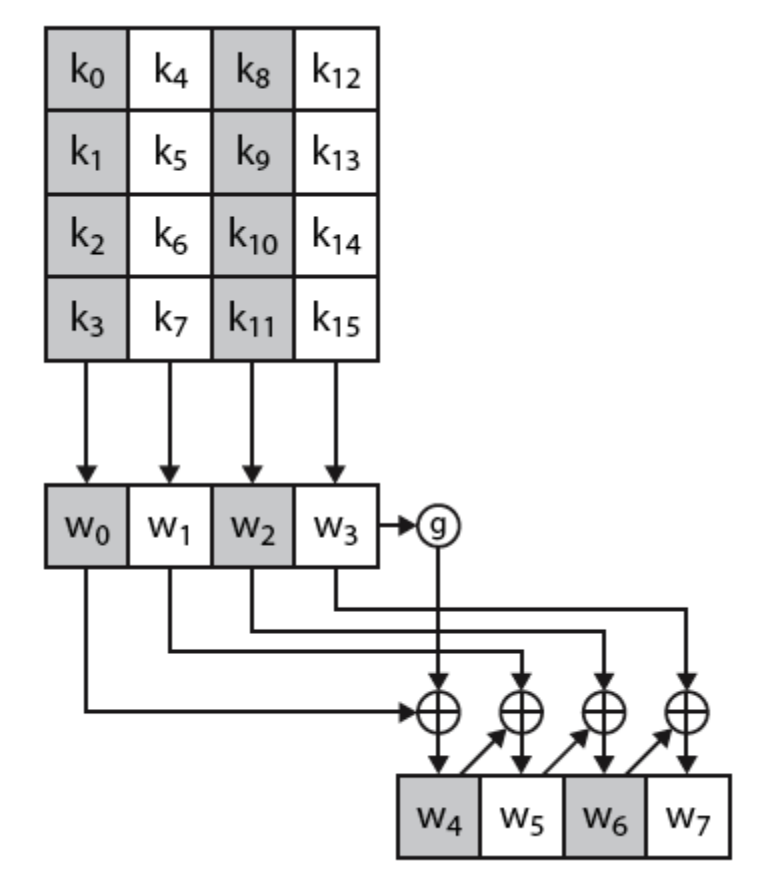

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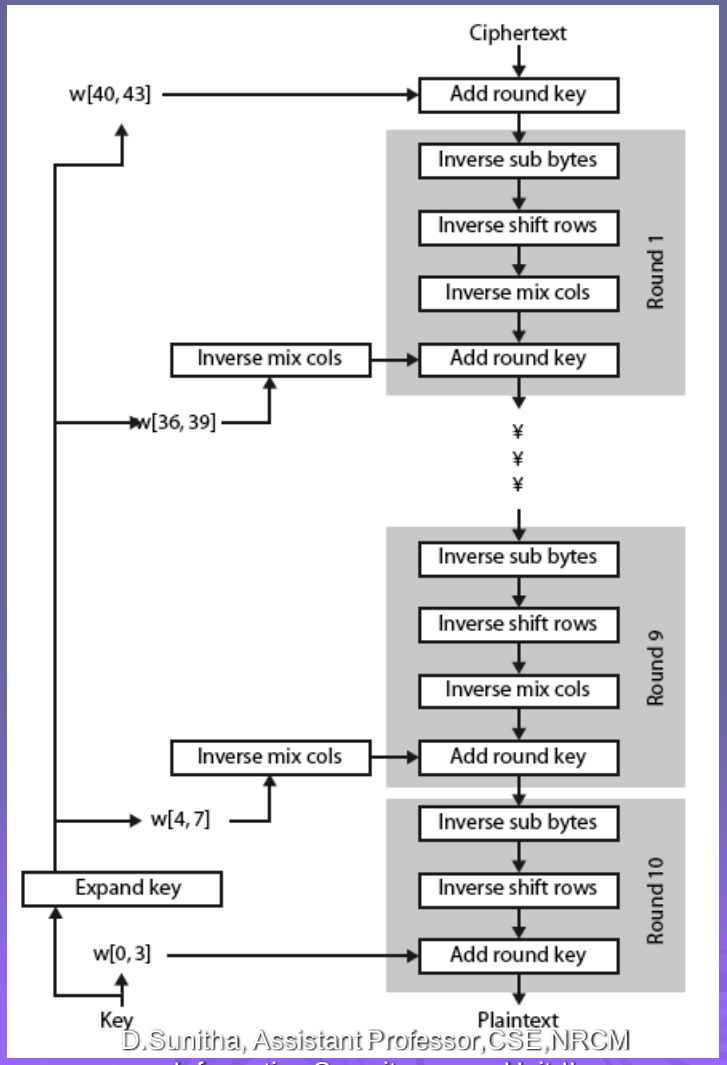
  - swap mix columns & add (tweaked) round key

AES Decryption



Key Management; Other Public Key Cryptosystems

No Singhalese, whether man or woman, would venture out of the house without a bunch of keys in his hand, for without such a talisman he would fear that some devil might take advantage of his weak state to slip into his body.

***—The Golden Bough,* Sir James George Frazer**

Key Management

- public-key encryption helps address key distribution problems
- have two aspects of this:
  - distribution of public keys
  - use of public-key encryption to distribute secret keys

Distribution of Public Keys

- can be considered as using one of:
  - public announcement
  - publicly available directory
  - public-key authority
  - public-key certificates

Public Announcement

- users distribute public keys to recipients or broadcast to community at large
  - eg. append PGP keys to email messages or post to news groups or email list
- major weakness is forgery
  - anyone can create a key claiming to be someone else and broadcast it
  - until forgery is discovered can masquerade as claimed user

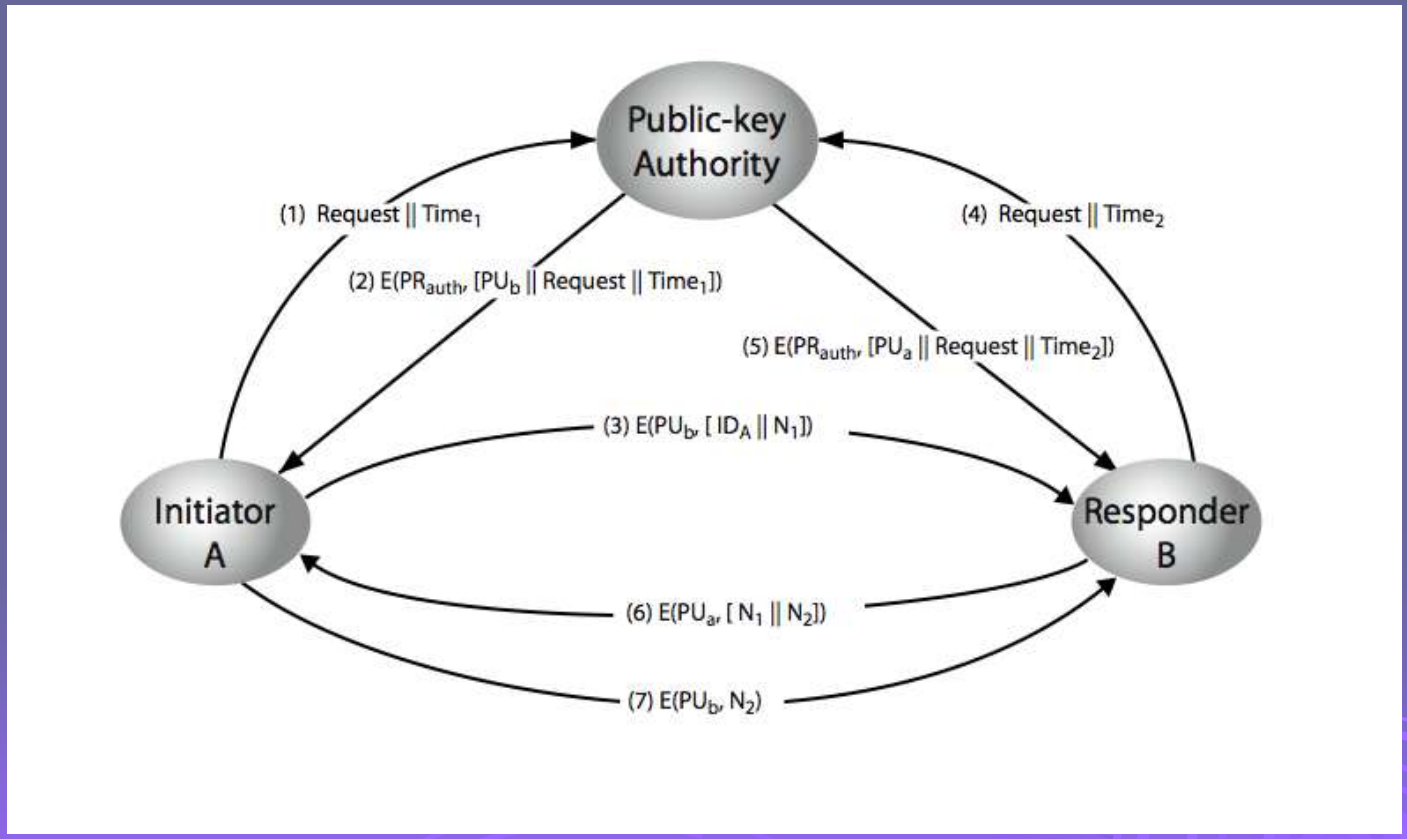
Publicly Available Directory

- can obtain greater security by registering keys with a public directory
- directory must be trusted with properties:
  - contains {name,public-key} entries
  - participants register securely with directory
  - participants can replace key at any time
  - directory is periodically published
  - directory can be accessed electronically
- still vulnerable to tampering or forgery

Public-Key Authority

- improve security by tightening control over distribution of keys from directory
- has properties of directory
- and requires users to know public key for the directory
- then users interact with directory to obtain any desired public key securely
  - does require real-time access to directory when keys are needed

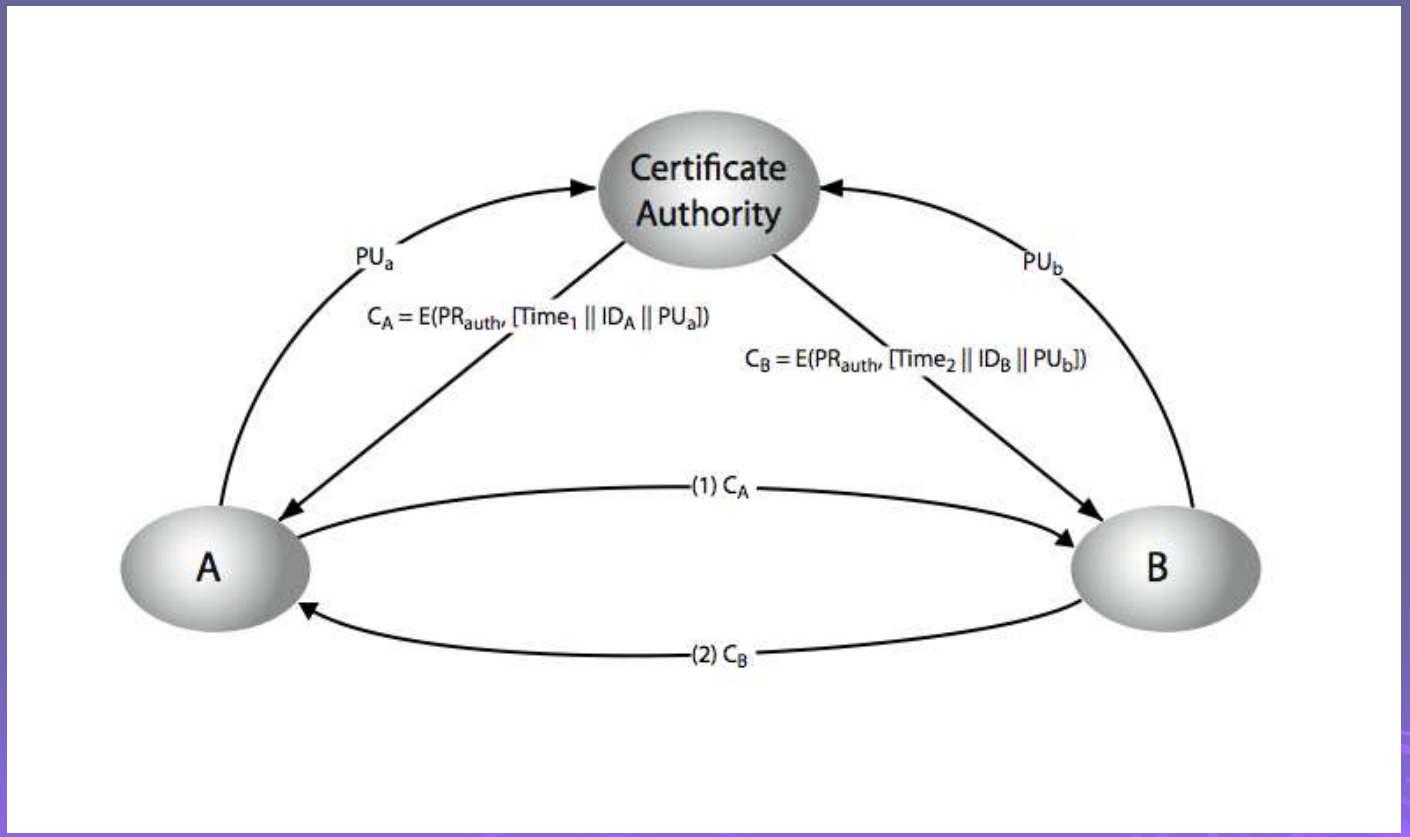
Public-Key Authority



Public-Key Certificates

- certificates allow key exchange without real-time access to public-key authority
- a certificate binds **identity** to **public key**
  - usually with other info such as period of validity, rights of use etc
- with all contents **signed** by a trusted Public-Key or Certificate Authority (CA)
- can be verified by anyone who knows the public-key authorities public-key

Public-Key Certificates



Public-Key Distribution of Secret Keys

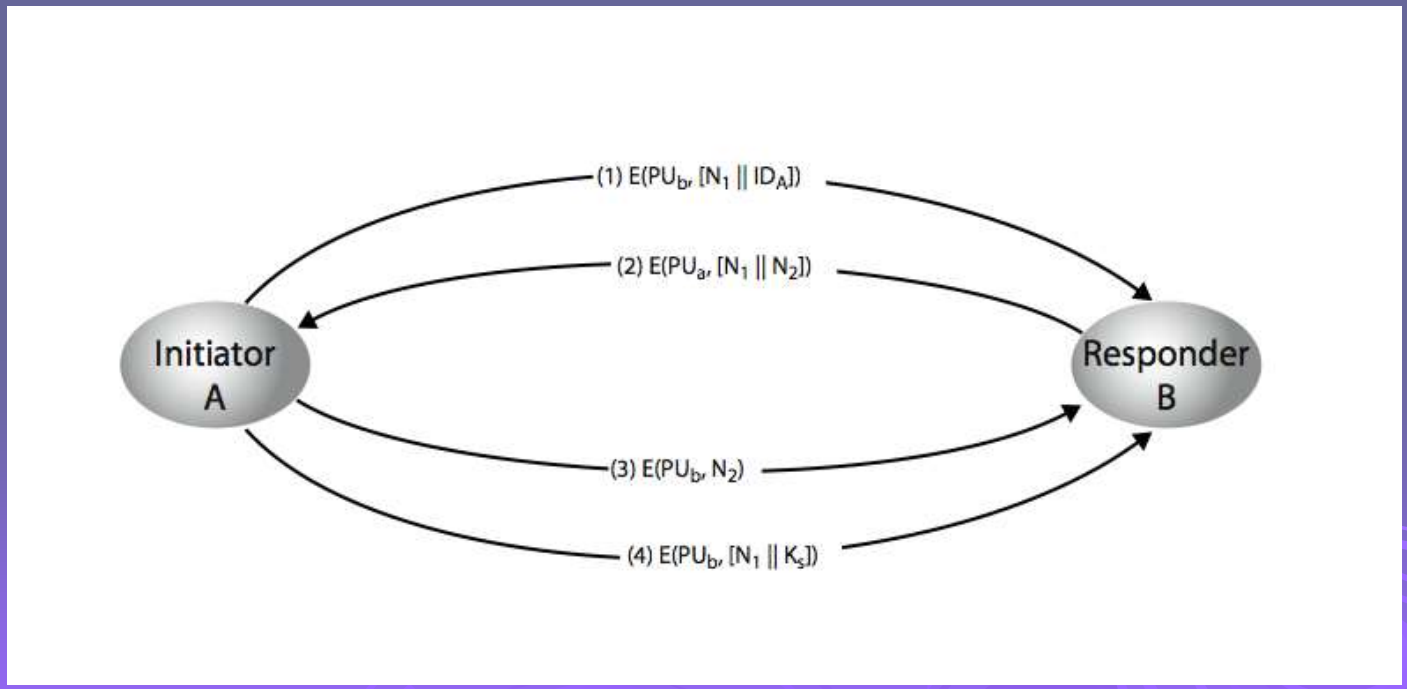
- use previous methods to obtain public-key
- can use for secrecy or authentication
- but public-key algorithms are slow
- so usually want to use private-key encryption to protect message contents
- hence need a session key
- have several alternatives for negotiating a suitable session

Simple Secret Key Distribution

- proposed by Merkle in 1979
  - A generates a new temporary public key pair
  - A sends B the public key and their identity
  - B generates a session key K sends it to A encrypted using the supplied public key
  - A decrypts the session key and both use
- problem is that an opponent can intercept and impersonate both halves of protocol

Public-Key Distribution of Secret Keys

- if have securely exchanged public-keys:



Hybrid Key Distribution

- retain use of private-key KDC
- shares secret master key with each user
- distributes session key using master key
- public-key used to distribute master keys
  - especially useful with widely distributed users
- rationale
  - performance
  - backward compatibility

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- first public-key type scheme proposed
- by Diffie & Hellman in 1976 along with the exposition of public key concepts
  - note: now know that Williamson (UK CESG) secretly proposed the concept in 1970
- is a practical method for public exchange of a secret key
- used in a number of commercial products

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- a public-key distribution scheme
  - cannot be used to exchange an arbitrary message
  - rather it can establish a common key
  - known only to the two participants
- value of key depends on the participants (and their private and public key information)
- based on exponentiation in a finite (Galois) field (modulo a prime or a polynomial) - easy
- security relies on the difficulty of computing discrete logarithms (similar to factoring) – hard

Diffie-Hellman Setup

- all users agree on global parameters:
  - large prime integer or polynomial q
  - a being a primitive root mod q
- each user (eg. A) generates their key
  - chooses a secret key (number): $x_A < q$
  - compute their **public key**: $y_A = a^{x_A} \bmod q$
- each user makes public that key y_A

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

- shared session key for users A & B is K_{AB}:

$$K_{AB} = a^{x_A . x_B} \bmod q$$
$$= y_A^{x_B} \bmod q \quad \text{(which } \mathbf{B} \text{ can compute)}$$
$$= y_B^{x_A} \bmod q \quad \text{(which } \mathbf{A} \text{ can compute)}$$

- K_{AB} is used as session key in private-key encryption scheme between Alice and Bob
- if Alice and Bob subsequently communicate, they will have the **same** key as before, unless they choose new public-keys
- attacker needs an x, must solve discrete log

Diffie-Hellman Example

- users Alice & Bob who wish to swap keys:
- agree on prime $q=353$ and $a=3$
- select random secret keys:
  - A chooses $x_A=97$, B chooses $x_B=233$
- compute respective public keys:
  - $y_A=3^{97} \mod 353 = 40$ (Alice)
  - $y_B=3^{233} \mod 353 = 248$ (Bob)
- compute shared session key as:
  - $K_{AB}= y_B^{x_A} \mod 353 = 248^{97} = 160$ (Alice)
  - $K_{AB}= y_A^{x_B} \mod 353 = 40^{233} = 160$ (Bob)

Key Exchange Protocols

- users could create random private/public D-H keys each time they communicate
- users could create a known private/public D-H key and publish in a directory, then consulted and used to securely communicate with them
- both of these are vulnerable to a meet-in-the-Middle Attack
- authentication of the keys is needed

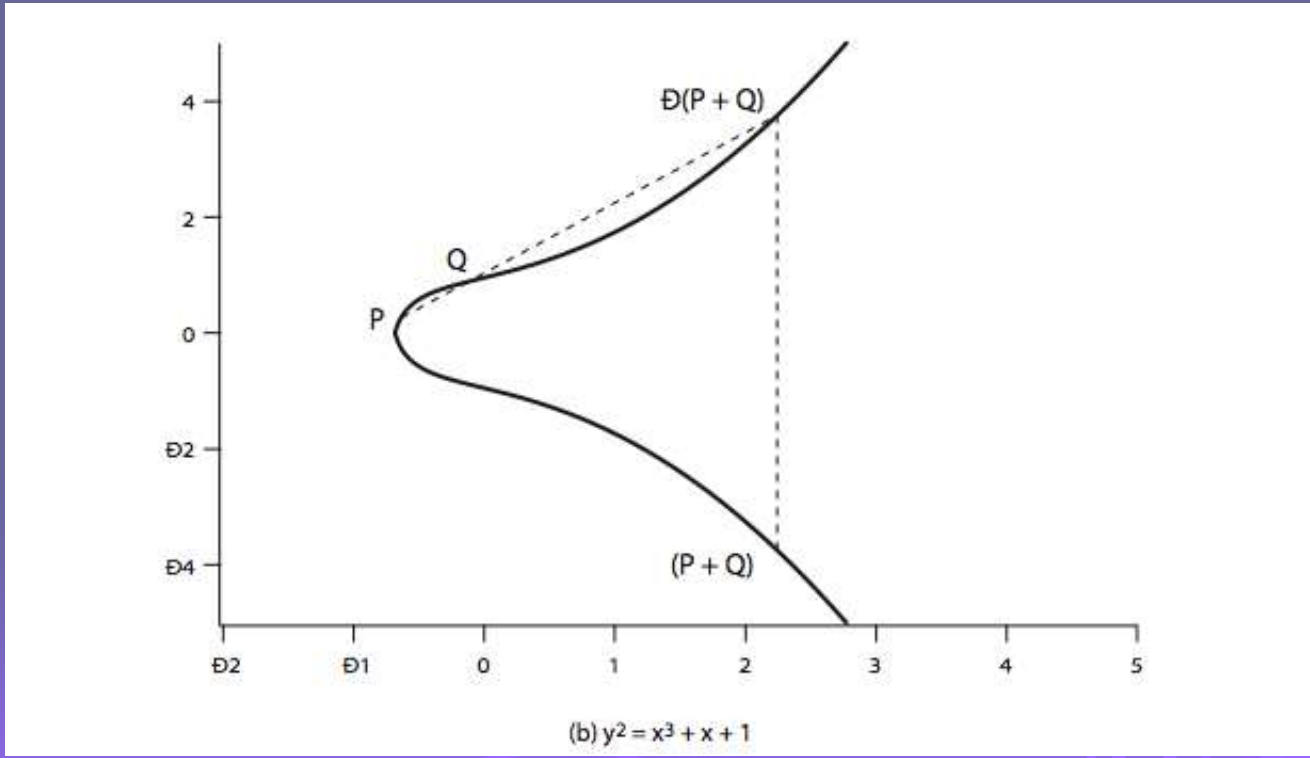
Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- majority of public-key crypto (RSA, D-H) use either integer or polynomial arithmetic with very large numbers/polynomials
- imposes a significant load in storing and processing keys and messages
- an alternative is to use elliptic curves
- offers same security with smaller bit sizes
- newer, but not as well analysed

Real Elliptic Curves

- an elliptic curve is defined by an equation in two variables x & y, with coefficients
- consider a cubic elliptic curve of form
  - $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$
  - where x,y,a,b are all real numbers
  - also define zero point O
- have addition operation for elliptic curve
  - geometrically sum of Q+R is reflection of intersection R

Real Elliptic Curve Example



Finite Elliptic Curves

- Elliptic curve cryptography uses curves whose variables & coefficients are finite
- have two families commonly used:
  - prime curves $E_p(a,b)$ defined over Z_p
    - use integers modulo a prime
    - best in software
  - binary curves $E_{2m}(a,b)$ defined over $GF(2^n)$
    - use polynomials with binary coefficients
    - best in hardware

Elliptic Curve Cryptography

- ECC addition is analog of modulo multiply
- ECC repeated addition is analog of modulo exponentiation
- need “hard” problem equiv to discrete log
  - $Q=kP$, where Q,P belong to a prime curve
  - is “easy” to compute Q given k,P
  - but “hard” to find k given Q,P
  - known as the elliptic curve logarithm problem
- Certicom example: $E_{23}(9,17)$

ECC Encryption/Decryption

- several alternatives, will consider simplest
- must first encode any message M as a point on the elliptic curve P_m
- select suitable curve & point G as in D-H
- each user chooses private key $n_A < n$
- and computes public key $P_A = n_A G$
- to encrypt P_m : $C_m = \{kG,\ P_m + kP_b\}$, k random
- decrypt C_m compute:

$$P_m + kP_b - n_B(kG) = P_m + k(n_B G) - n_B(kG) = P_m$$

ECC Security

- relies on elliptic curve logarithm problem
- fastest method is “Pollard rho method”
- compared to factoring, can use much smaller key sizes than with RSA etc
- for equivalent key lengths computations are roughly equivalent
- hence for similar security ECC offers significant computational advantages

UNIT-III

Message Authentication and Hash Functions

- *At cats' green on the Sunday he took the message from the inside of the pillar and added Peter Moran's name to the two names already printed there in the "Brontosaur" code. The message now read: “Leviathan to Dragon: Martin Hillman, Trevor Allan, Peter Moran: observe and tail.” What was the good of it John hardly knew. He felt better, he felt that at last he had made an attack on Peter Moran instead of waiting passively and effecting no retaliation. Besides, what was the use of being in possession of the key to the codes if he never took advantage of it?*

Message Authentication

- message authentication is concerned with:
  - protecting the integrity of a message
  - validating identity of originator
  - non-repudiation of origin (dispute resolution)
- will consider the security requirements
- then three alternative functions used:
  - message encryption
  - message authentication code (MAC)
  - hash function

Security Requirements

- disclosure
- traffic analysis
- masquerade
- content modification
- sequence modification
- timing modification
- source repudiation
- destination repudiation

Message Encryption

- message encryption by itself also provides a measure of authentication
- if symmetric encryption is used then:
  - receiver know sender must have created it
  - since only sender and receiver now key used
  - know content cannot of been altered
  - if message has suitable structure, redundancy or a checksum to detect any changes

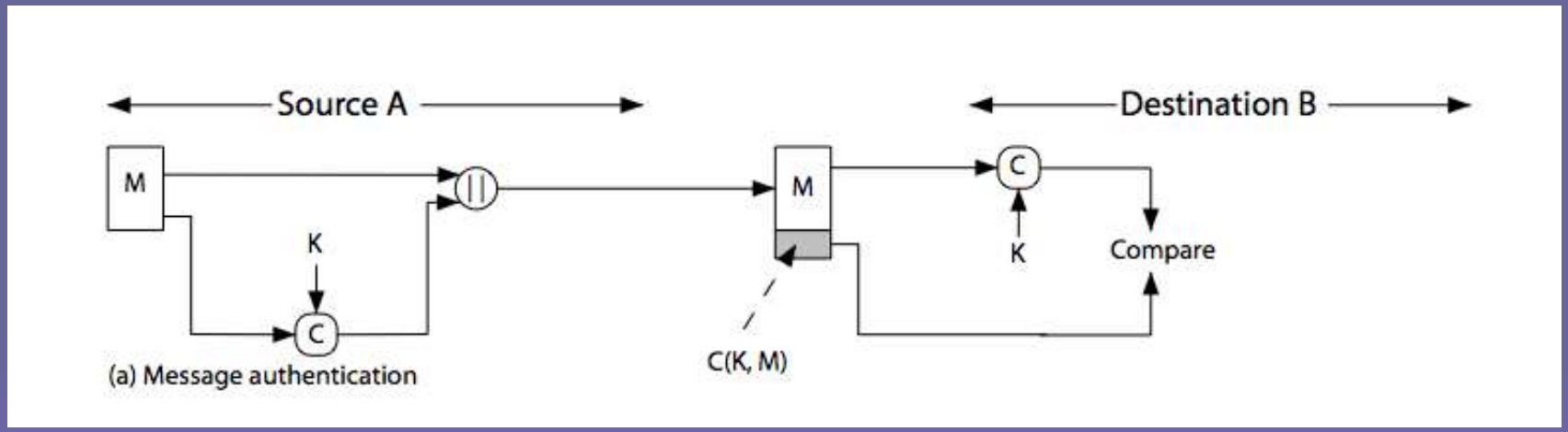
Message Encryption

- if public-key encryption is used:
  - encryption provides no confidence of sender
  - since anyone potentially knows public-key
  - however if
    - sender **signs** message using their private-key
    - then encrypts with recipients public key
    - have both secrecy and authentication
  - again need to recognize corrupted messages
  - but at cost of two public-key uses on message

Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- generated by an algorithm that creates a small fixed-sized block
  - depending on both message and some key
  - like encryption though need not be reversible
- appended to message as a **signature**
- receiver performs same computation on message and checks it matches the MAC
- provides assurance that message is unaltered and comes from sender

Message Authentication Code



Message Authentication Codes

- as shown the MAC provides authentication
- can also use encryption for secrecy
  - generally use separate keys for each
  - can compute MAC either before or after encryption
  - is generally regarded as better done before
- why use a MAC?
  - sometimes only authentication is needed
  - sometimes need authentication to persist longer than the encryption (eg. archival use)
- note that a MAC is not a digital signature

MAC Properties

- a MAC is a cryptographic checksum

  $MAC = C_K(M)$

  - condenses a variable-length message M
  - using a secret key K
  - to a fixed-sized authenticator
- is a many-to-one function
  - potentially many messages have same MAC
  - but finding these needs to be very difficult

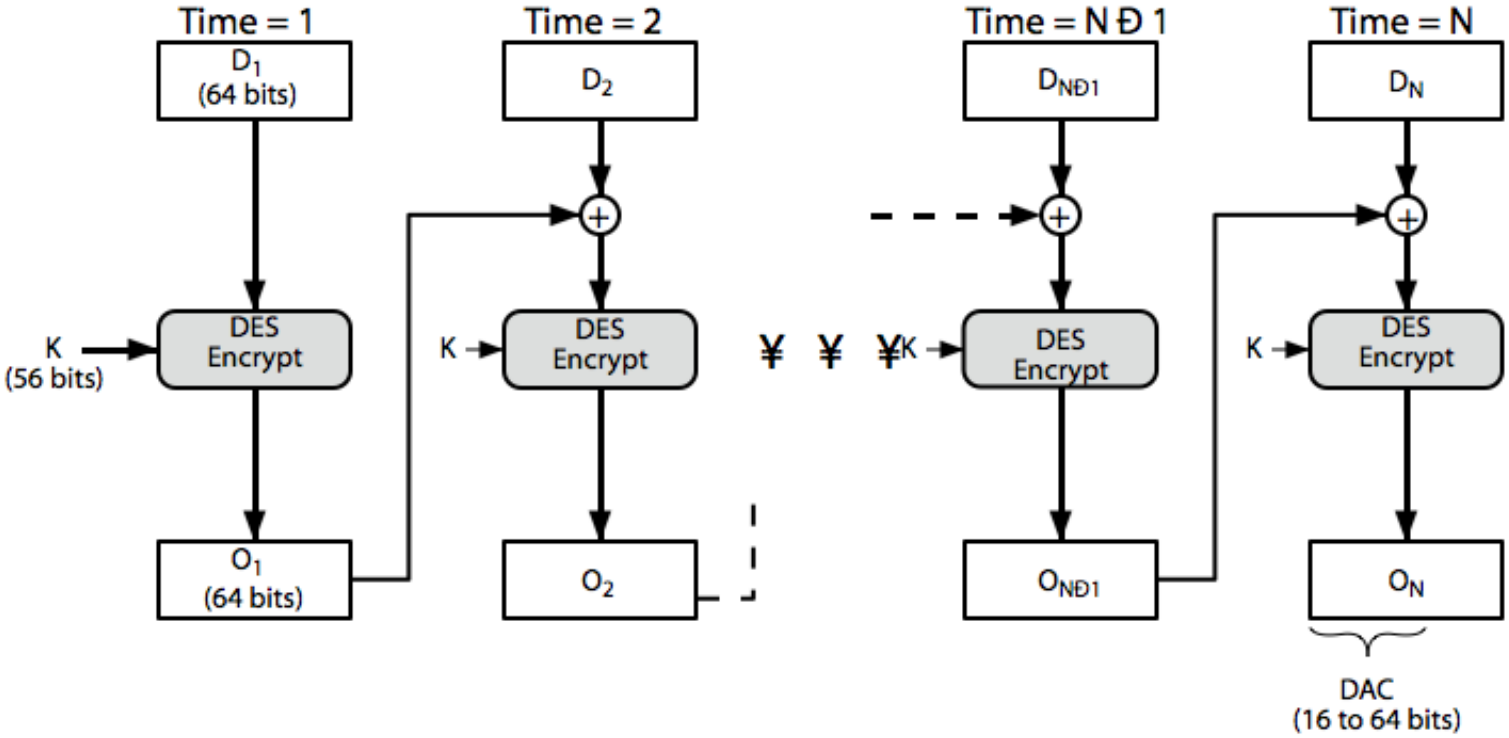
Requirements for MACs

- taking into account the types of attacks
- need the MAC to satisfy the following:
  1. knowing a message and MAC, is infeasible to find another message with same MAC
  2. MACs should be uniformly distributed
  3. MAC should depend equally on all bits of the message

Using Symmetric Ciphers for MACs

- can use any block cipher chaining mode and use final block as a MAC
- **Data Authentication Algorithm (DAA)** is a widely used MAC based on DES-CBC
  - using IV=0 and zero-pad of final block
  - encrypt message using DES in CBC mode
  - and send just the final block as the MAC
    - or the leftmost M bits (16≤M≤64) of final block
- but final MAC is now too small for security

Data Authentication Algorithm



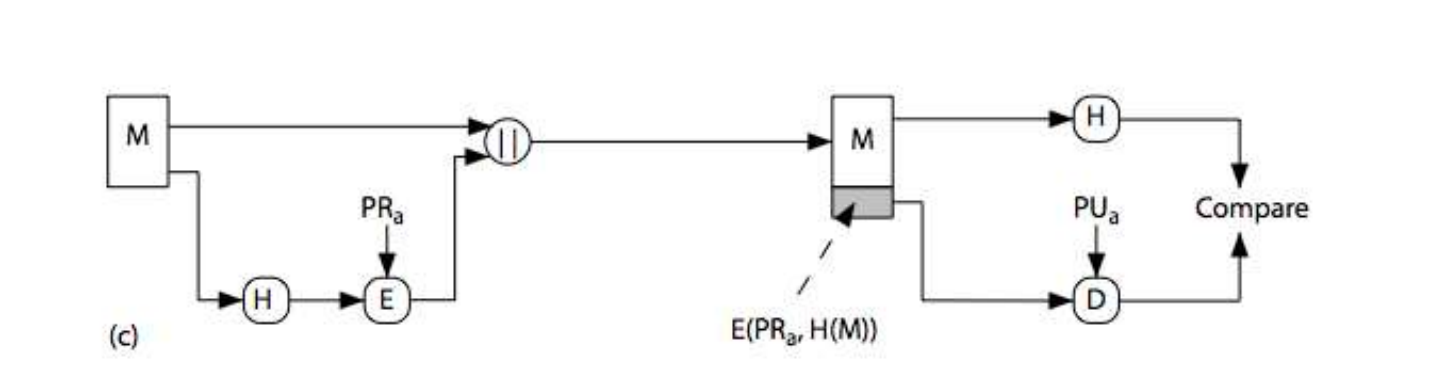
Hash Functions

- condenses arbitrary message to fixed size

  `h = H(M)`

- usually assume that the hash function is public and not keyed
  - cf. MAC which is keyed
- hash used to detect changes to message
- can use in various ways with message
- most often to create a digital signature

Hash Functions & Digital Signatures



Requirements for Hash Functions

1. can be applied to any sized message `M`
2. produces fixed-length output `h`
3. is easy to compute `h=H(M)` for any message `M`
4. given `h` is infeasible to find `x` s.t. `H(x)=h`
   - one-way property
5. given `x` is infeasible to find `y` s.t. `H(y)=H(x)`
   - weak collision resistance
6. is infeasible to find any `x,y` s.t. `H(y)=H(x)`
   - strong collision resistance

Simple Hash Functions

- are several proposals for simple functions
- based on XOR of message blocks
- not secure since can manipulate any message and either not change hash or change hash also
- need a stronger cryptographic function (next chapter)

Birthday Attacks

- might think a 64-bit hash is secure
- but by **Birthday Paradox** is not
- **birthday attack** works thus:
  - opponent generates $2^{m/2}$ variations of a valid message all with essentially the same meaning
  - opponent also generates $2^{m/2}$ variations of a desired fraudulent message
  - two sets of messages are compared to find pair with same hash (probability > 0.5 by birthday paradox)
  - have user sign the valid message, then substitute the forgery which will have a valid signature
- conclusion is that need to use larger MAC/hash

Block Ciphers as Hash Functions

- can use block ciphers as hash functions
  - using H_0=0 and zero-pad of final block
  - compute: $H_i = E_{M_i} [H_{i-1}]$
  - and use final block as the hash value
  - similar to CBC but without a key
- resulting hash is too small (64-bit)
  - both due to direct birthday attack
  - and to “meet-in-the-middle” attack
- other variants also susceptible to attack

Hash Functions & MAC Security

- like block ciphers have:
- **brute-force** attacks exploiting
  - strong collision resistance hash have cost $2^{m/2}$
    - have proposal for h/w MD5 cracker
    - 128-bit hash looks vulnerable, 160-bits better
  - MACs with known message-MAC pairs
    - can either attack keyspace (cf key search) or MAC
    - at least 128-bit MAC is needed for security

Hash Functions & MAC Security

- **cryptanalytic attacks** exploit structure
  - like block ciphers want brute-force attacks to be the best alternative
- have a number of analytic attacks on iterated hash functions
  - $CV_i = f[CV_{i-1}, M_i]$; $H(M)=CV_N$
  - typically focus on collisions in function f
  - like block ciphers is often composed of rounds
  - attacks exploit properties of round functions

Hash and MAC Algorithms

Each of the messages, like each one he had ever read of Stern's commands, began with a number and ended with a number or row of numbers. No efforts on the part of Mungo or any of his experts had been able to break Stern's code, nor was there any clue as to what the preliminary number and those ultimate numbers signified.

Digital Signatures & Authentication Protocols

To guard against the baneful influence exerted by strangers is therefore an elementary dictate of savage prudence. Hence before strangers are allowed to enter a district, or at least before they are permitted to mingle freely with the inhabitants, certain ceremonies are often performed by the natives of the country for the purpose of disarming the strangers of their magical powers, or of disinfecting, so to speak, the tainted atmosphere by which they are supposed to be surrounded.

—*The Golden Bough*, Sir James George Frazer

Digital Signatures

- have looked at message authentication
  - but does not address issues of lack of trust
- digital signatures provide the ability to:
  - verify author, date & time of signature
  - authenticate message contents
  - be verified by third parties to resolve disputes
- hence include authentication function with additional capabilities

Digital Signature Properties

- must depend on the message signed
- must use information unique to sender
  - to prevent both forgery and denial
- must be relatively easy to produce
- must be relatively easy to recognize & verify
- be computationally infeasible to forge
  - with new message for existing digital signature
  - with fraudulent digital signature for given message
- be practical save digital signature in storage

Direct Digital Signatures

- involve only sender & receiver
- assumed receiver has sender's public-key
- digital signature made by sender signing entire message or hash with private-key
- can encrypt using receivers public-key
- important that sign first then encrypt message & signature
- security depends on sender's private-key

Arbitrated Digital Signatures

- involves use of arbiter A
  - validates any signed message
  - then dated and sent to recipient
- requires suitable level of trust in arbiter
- can be implemented with either private or public-key algorithms
- arbiter may or may not see message

Authentication Protocols

- used to convince parties of each others identity and to exchange session keys
- may be one-way or mutual
- key issues are
  - confidentiality – to protect session keys
  - timeliness – to prevent replay attacks
- published protocols are often found to have flaws and need to be modified

Replay Attacks

- where a valid signed message is copied and later resent
  - simple replay
  - repetition that can be logged
  - repetition that cannot be detected
  - backward replay without modification
- countermeasures include
  - use of sequence numbers (generally impractical)
  - timestamps (needs synchronized clocks)
  - challenge/response (using unique nonce)

Using Symmetric Encryption

- as discussed previously can use a two-level hierarchy of keys
- usually with a trusted Key Distribution Center (KDC)
  - each party shares own master key with KDC
  - KDC generates session keys used for connections between parties
  - master keys used to distribute these to them

Needham-Schroeder Protocol

- original third-party key distribution protocol
- for session between A B mediated by KDC
- protocol overview is:

1. A->KDC: $ID_A \| ID_B \| N_1$

2. KDC -> A: $E_{Ka}[Ks \| ID_B \| N_1 \| E_{Kb}[Ks \| ID_A]]$

3. A -> B: $E_{Kb}[Ks \| ID_A]$

4. B -> A: $E_{Ks}[N_2]$

5. A -> B: $E_{Ks}[f(N_2)]$

Needham-Schroeder Protocol

- used to securely distribute a new session key for communications between A & B
- but is vulnerable to a replay attack if an old session key has been compromised
  - then message 3 can be resent convincing B that is communicating with A
- modifications to address this require:
  - timestamps (Denning 81)
  - using an extra nonce (Neuman 93)

Using Public-Key Encryption

- have a range of approaches based on the use of public-key encryption
- need to ensure have correct public keys for other parties
- using a central Authentication Server (AS)
- various protocols exist using timestamps or nonces

Denning AS Protocol

- Denning 81 presented the following:
  1. A -> AS: $ID_A \| ID_B$
  2. AS -> A: $E_{PRas}[ID_A \| PU_a \| T] \| E_{PRas}[ID_B \| PU_b \| T]$
  3. A -> B: $E_{PRas}[ID_A \| PU_a \| T] \| E_{PRas}[ID_B \| PU_b \| T] \| E_{PUb}[E_{PRas}[K_s \| T]]$
- note session key is chosen by A, hence AS need not be trusted to protect it
- timestamps prevent replay but require synchronized clocks

One-Way Authentication

- required when sender & receiver are not in communications at same time (eg. email)
- have header in clear so can be delivered by email system
- may want contents of body protected & sender authenticated

Using Symmetric Encryption

- can refine use of KDC but can't have final exchange of nonces, vis:
  1. A->KDC: $ID_A \| ID_B \| N_1$
  2. KDC -> A: $E_{Ka}[Ks \| ID_B \| N_1 \| E_{Kb}[Ks \| ID_A]]$
  3. A -> B: $E_{Kb}[Ks \| ID_A] \| E_{Ks}[M]$
- does not protect against replays
  - could rely on timestamp in message, though email delays make this problematic

Public-Key Approaches

- have seen some public-key approaches
- if confidentiality is major concern, can use:

  A->B: $E_{PUb}[Ks] \| E_{Ks}[M]$
  - has encrypted session key, encrypted message
- if authentication needed use a digital signature with a digital certificate:

  A->B: $M \| E_{PRa}[H(M)] \| E_{PRas}[T \| ID_A \| PU_a]$
  - with message, signature, certificate

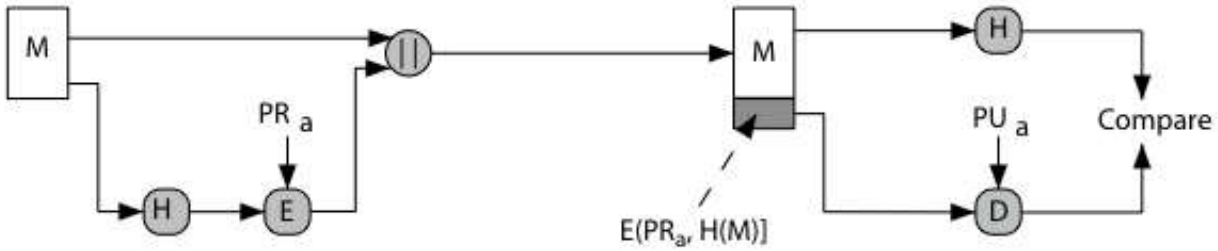
Digital Signature Standard (DSS)

- US Govt approved signature scheme
- designed by NIST & NSA in early 90's
- published as FIPS-186 in 1991
- revised in 1993, 1996 & then 2000
- uses the SHA hash algorithm
- DSS is the standard, DSA is the algorithm
- FIPS 186-2 (2000) includes alternative RSA & elliptic curve signature variants

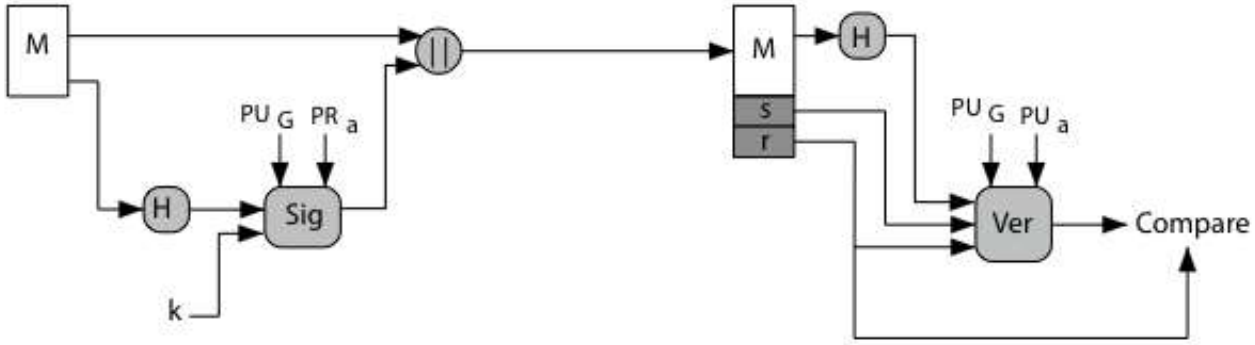
Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)

- creates a 320 bit signature
- with 512-1024 bit security
- smaller and faster than RSA
- a digital signature scheme only
- security depends on difficulty of computing discrete logarithms
- variant of ElGamal & Schnorr schemes

Digital Signature Algorithm (DSA)



(a) RSA Approach



(b) DSS Approach

DSA Key Generation

- have shared global public key values (p,q,g):
  - choose q, a 160 bit
  - choose a large prime $p = 2^L$
    - where L= 512 to 1024 bits and is a multiple of 64
    - and q is a prime factor of $(p-1)$
  - choose $g = h^{(p-1)/q}$
    - where $h<p-1$, $h^{(p-1)/q} \pmod p > 1$
- users choose private & compute public key:
  - choose $x<q$
  - compute $y = g^x \pmod p$

DSA Signature Creation

- to **sign** a message M the sender:
  - generates a random signature key k, k<q
  - nb. k must be random, be destroyed after use, and never be reused
- then computes signature pair:

$$r = (g^k \pmod p) \pmod q$$

$$s = (k^{-1}.H(M) + x.r) \pmod q$$

- sends signature (r,s) with message M

DSA Signature Verification

- having received M & signature (r,s)
- to **verify** a signature, recipient computes:

$w = s^{-1} \pmod q$

$u1 = (H(M).w) \pmod q$

$u2 = (r.w) \pmod q$

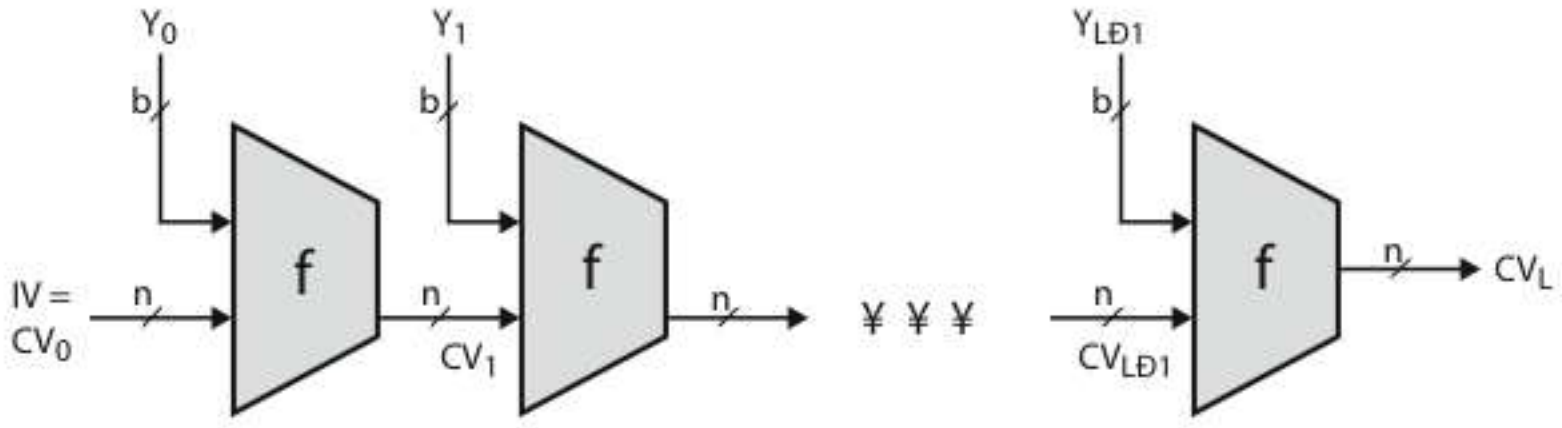
$v = (g^{u1}.y^{u2} \pmod p) \pmod q$

- if v=r then signature is verified
- see book web site for details of proof why

Hash and MAC Algorithms

- Hash Functions
  - condense arbitrary size message to fixed size
  - by processing message in blocks
  - through some compression function
  - either custom or block cipher based
- Message Authentication Code (MAC)
  - fixed sized authenticator for some message
  - to provide authentication for message
  - by using block cipher mode or hash function

Hash Algorithm Structure



IV = Initial value
CV_i = chaining variable
Y_i = ith input block
f = compression algorithm

L = number of input blocks
n = length of hash code
b = length of input block

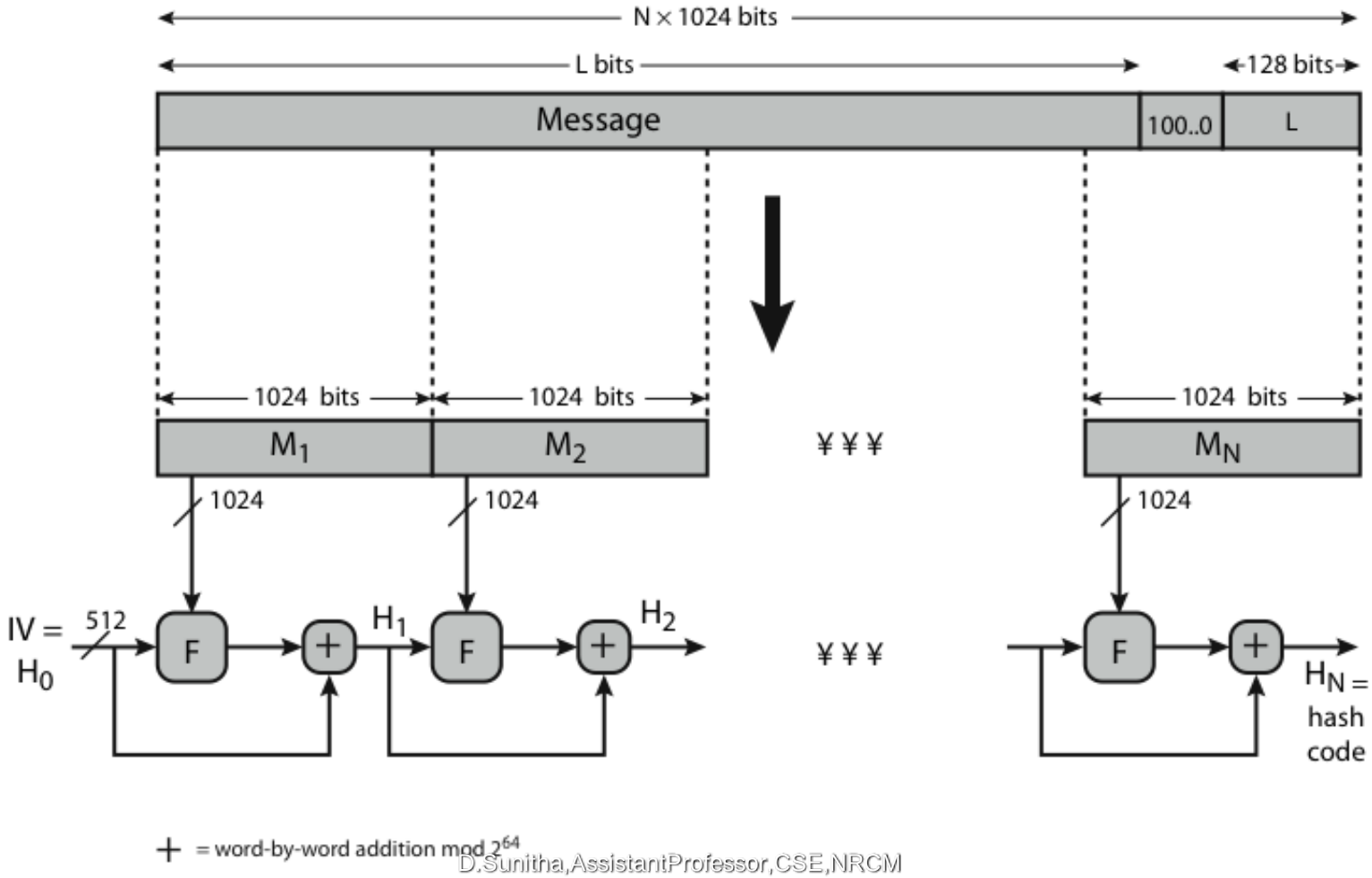
Secure Hash Algorithm

- SHA originally designed by NIST & NSA in 1993
- was revised in 1995 as SHA-1
- US standard for use with DSA signature scheme
  - standard is FIPS 180-1 1995, also Internet RFC3174
  - nb. the algorithm is SHA, the standard is SHS
- based on design of MD4 with key differences
- produces 160-bit hash values
- recent 2005 results on security of SHA-1 have raised concerns on its use in future applications

Revised Secure Hash Standard

- NIST issued revision FIPS 180-2 in 2002
- adds 3 additional versions of SHA
  - SHA-256, SHA-384, SHA-512
- designed for compatibility with increased security provided by the AES cipher
- structure & detail is similar to SHA-1
- hence analysis should be similar
- but security levels are rather higher

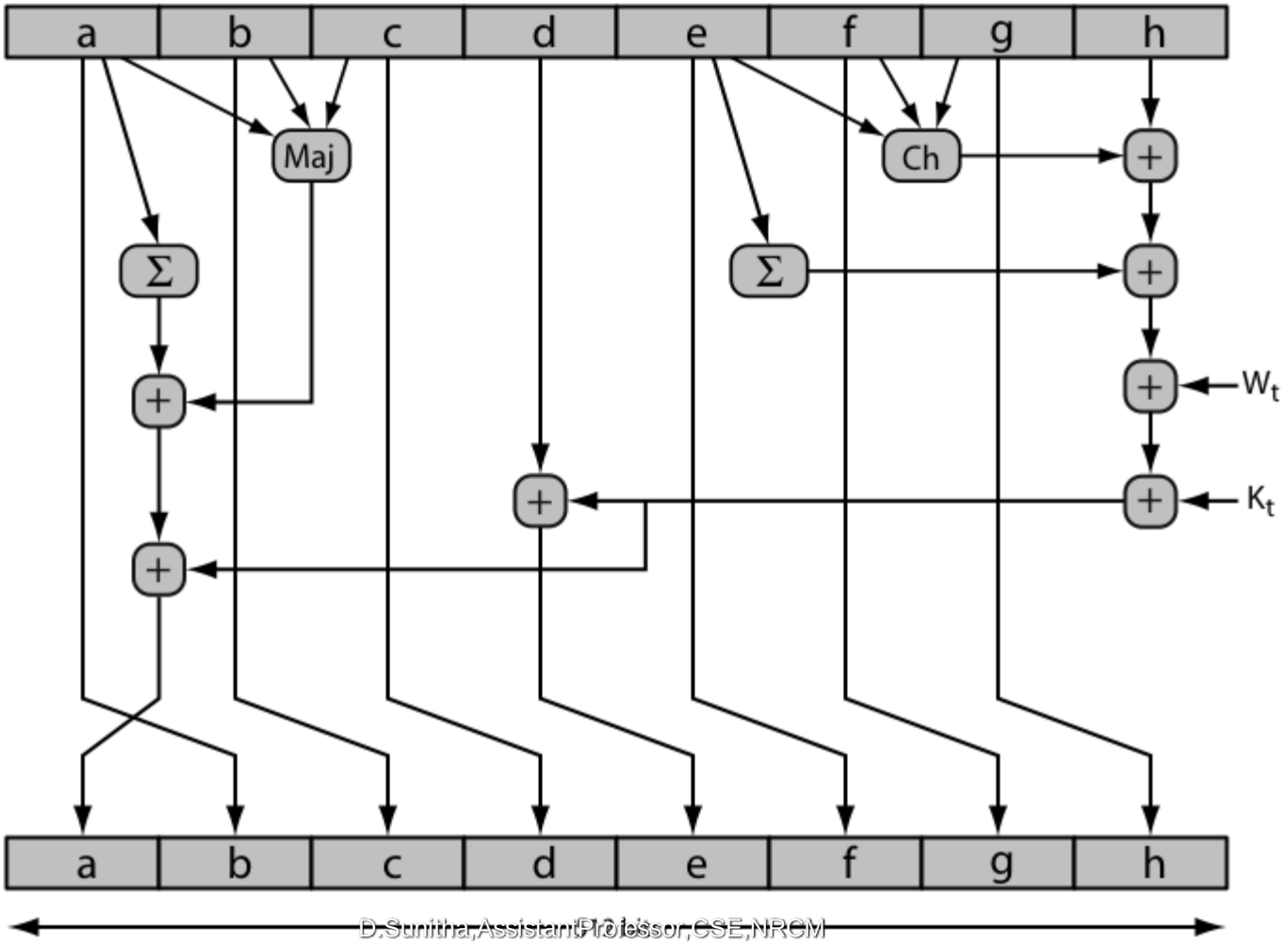
SHA-512 Overview



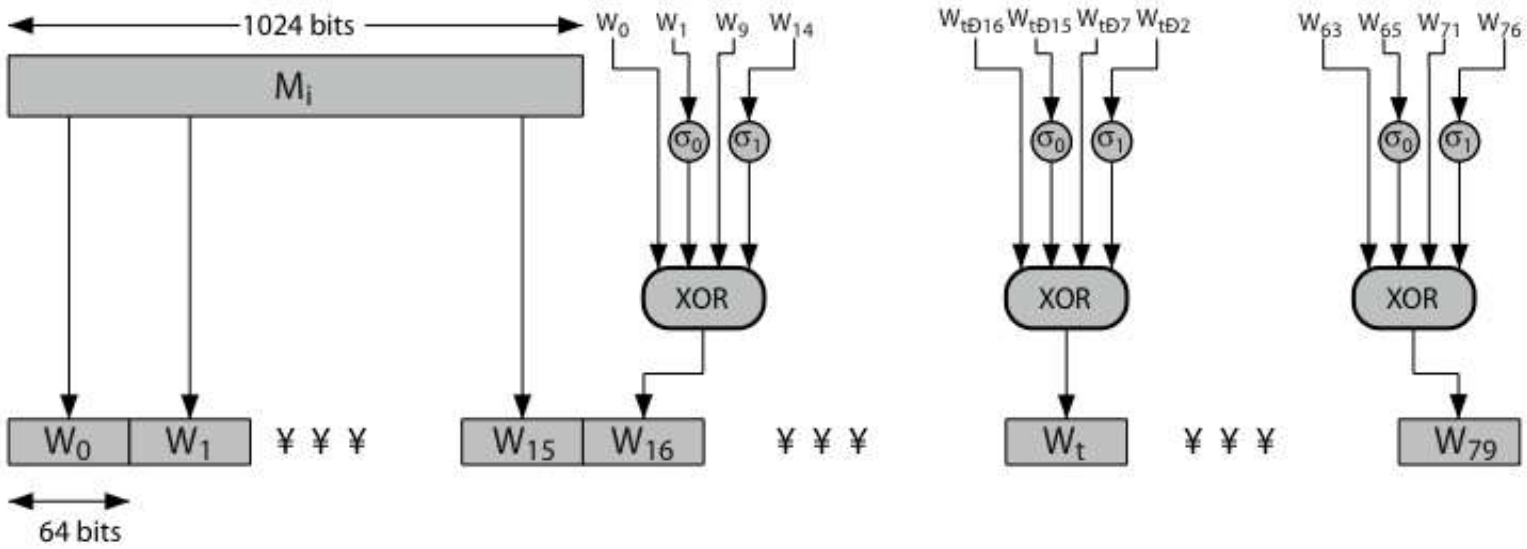
SHA-512 Compression Function

- heart of the algorithm
- processing message in 1024-bit blocks
- consists of 80 rounds
  - updating a 512-bit buffer
  - using a 64-bit value Wt derived from the current message block
  - and a round constant based on cube root of first 80 prime numbers

SHA-512 Round Function



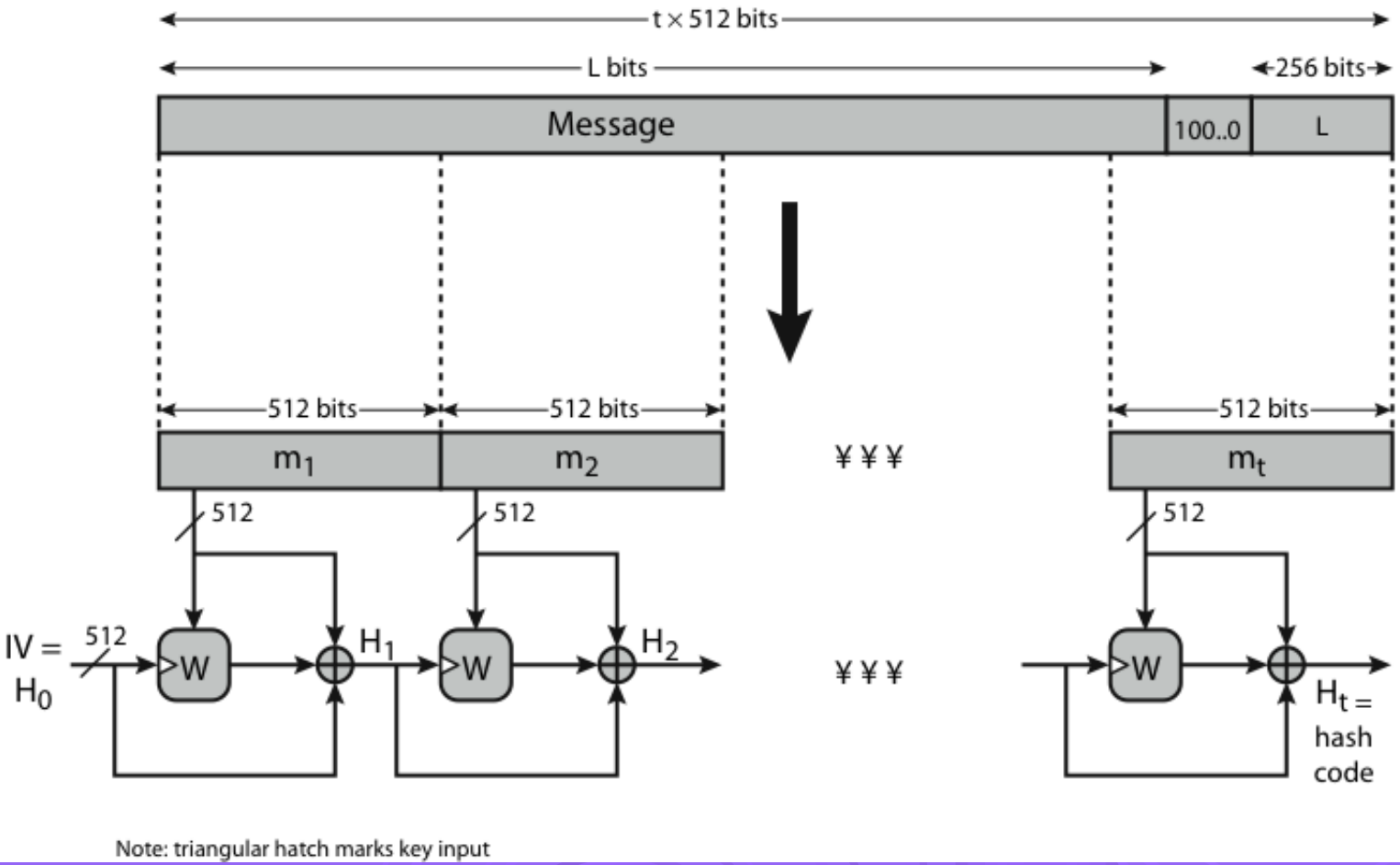
SHA-512 Round Function



Whirlpool

- now examine the Whirlpool hash function
- endorsed by European NESSIE project
- uses modified AES internals as compression function
- addressing concerns on use of block ciphers seen previously
- with performance comparable to dedicated algorithms like SHA

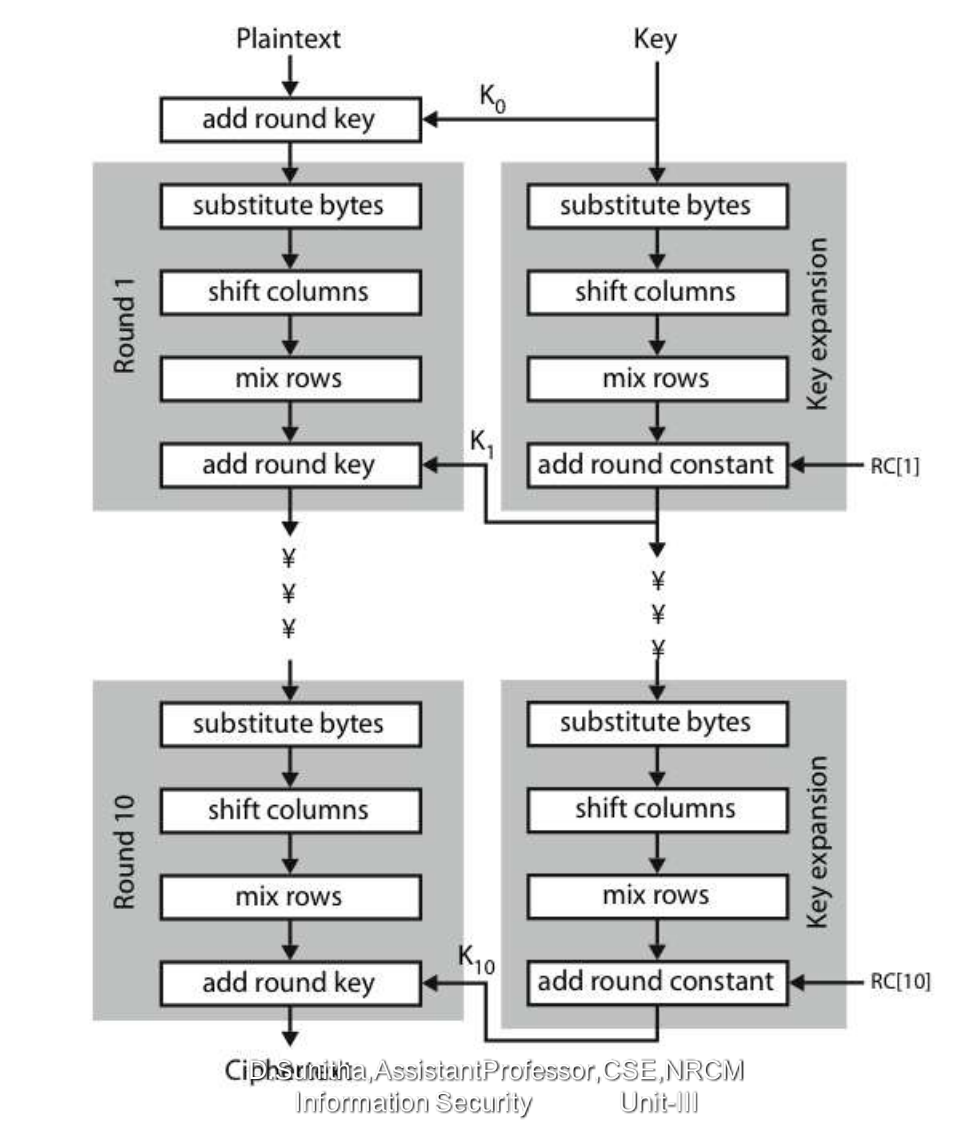
Whirlpool Overview



Whirlpool Block Cipher W

- designed specifically for hash function use
- with security and efficiency of AES
- but with 512-bit block size and hence hash
- similar structure & functions as AES but
  - input is mapped row wise
  - has 10 rounds
  - a different primitive polynomial for GF(2^8)
  - uses different S-box design & values

Whirlpool Block Cipher W



Whirlpool Performance & Security

- Whirlpool is a very new proposal
- hence little experience with use
- but many AES findings should apply
- does seem to need more h/w than SHA, but with better resulting performance

Keyed Hash Functions as MACs

- want a MAC based on a hash function
  - because hash functions are generally faster
  - code for crypto hash functions widely available
- hash includes a key along with message
- original proposal:

```
KeyedHash = Hash(Key|Message)
```

  - some weaknesses were found with this
- eventually led to development of HMAC

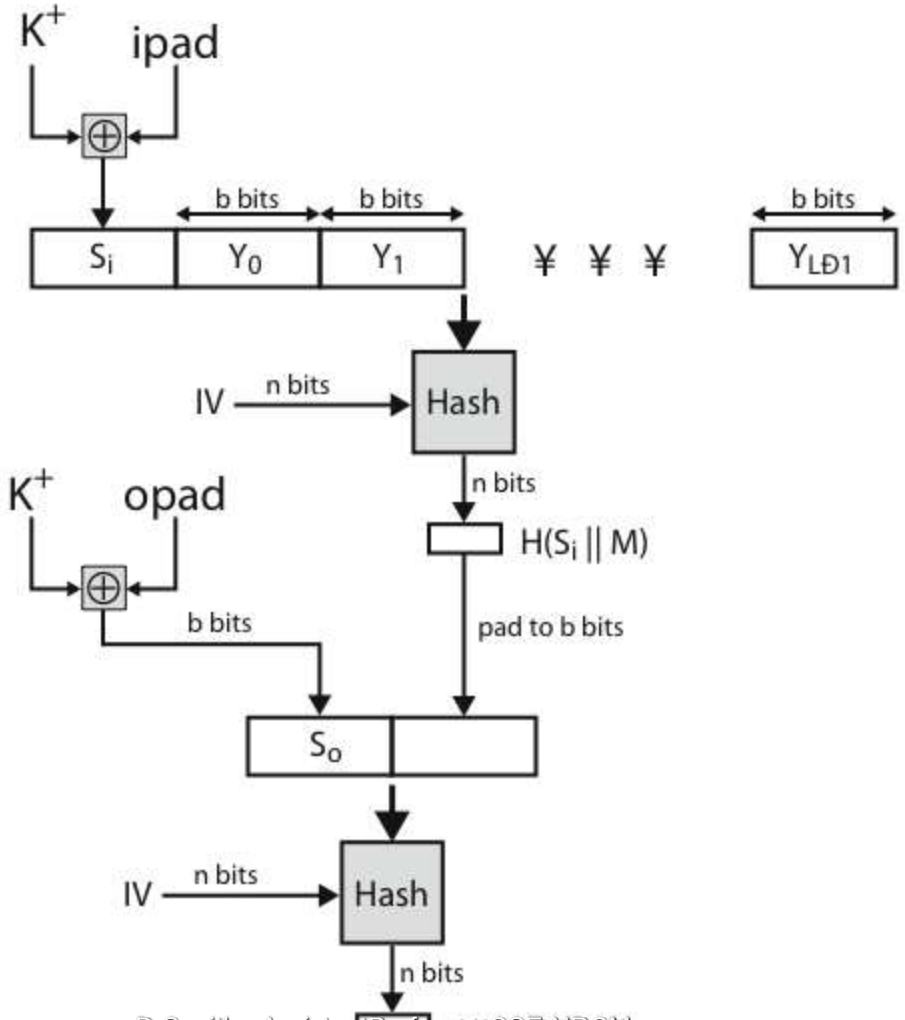
HMAC

- specified as Internet standard RFC2104
- uses hash function on the message:

$$HMAC_K = Hash[(K^+ \text{ XOR opad}) \,||\, Hash[(K^+ \text{ XOR ipad})||M)]]$$

- where K^+ is the key padded out to size
- and opad, ipad are specified padding constants
- overhead is just 3 more hash calculations than the message needs alone
- any hash function can be used
  - eg. MD5, SHA-1, RIPEMD-160, Whirlpool

HMAC Overview



HMAC Security

- proved security of HMAC relates to that of the underlying hash algorithm
- attacking HMAC requires either:
  - brute force attack on key used
  - birthday attack (but since keyed would need to observe a very large number of messages)
- choose hash function used based on speed verses security constraints

CMAC

- previously saw the DAA (CBC-MAC)
- widely used in govt & industry
- but has message size limitation
- can overcome using 2 keys & padding
- thus forming the Cipher-based Message Authentication Code (CMAC)
- adopted by NIST SP800-38B

Unit-IV

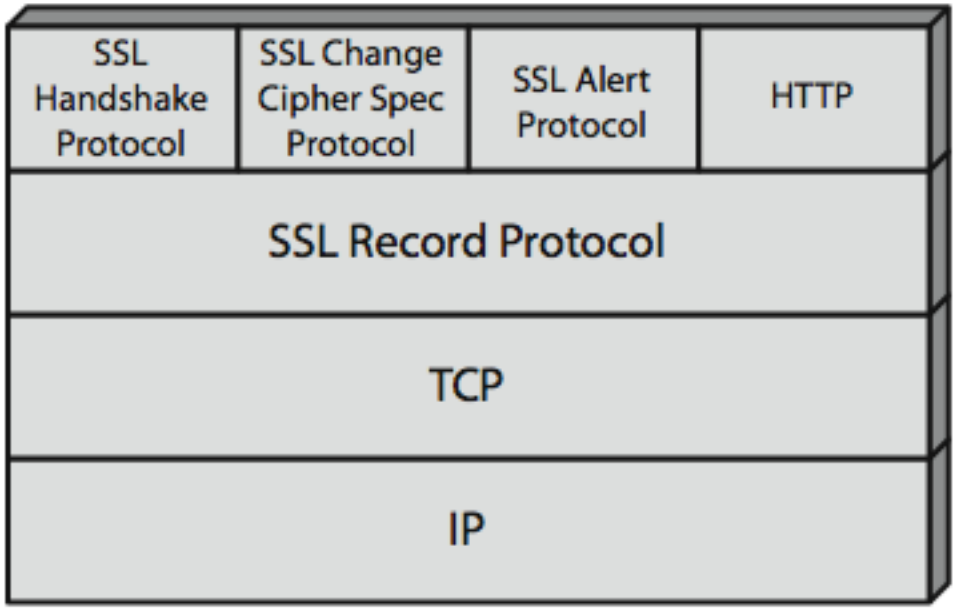
Web Security

- Web now widely used by business, government, individuals
- but Internet & Web are vulnerable
- have a variety of threats
  - integrity
  - confidentiality
  - denial of service
  - authentication
- need added security mechanisms

SSL (Secure Socket Layer)

- transport layer security service
- originally developed by Netscape
- version 3 designed with public input
- subsequently became Internet standard known as TLS (Transport Layer Security)
- uses TCP to provide a reliable end-to-end service
- SSL has two layers of protocols

SSL Architecture



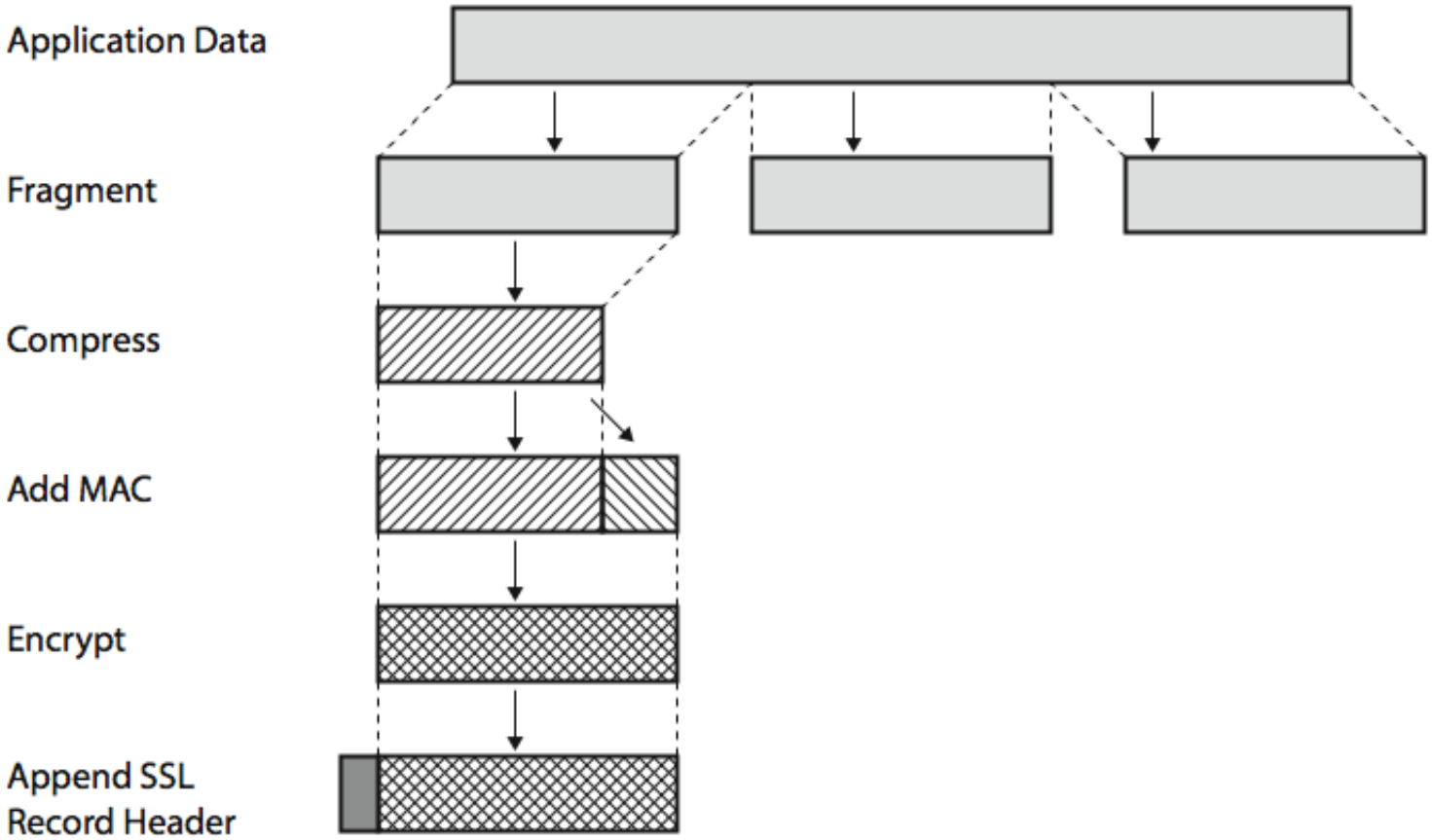
SSL Architecture

- **SSL connection**
  - a transient, peer-to-peer, communications link
  - associated with 1 SSL session
- **SSL session**
  - an association between client & server
  - created by the Handshake Protocol
  - define a set of cryptographic parameters
  - may be shared by multiple SSL connections

SSL Record Protocol Services

- **message integrity**
  - using a MAC with shared secret key
  - similar to HMAC but with different padding
- **confidentiality**
  - using symmetric encryption with a shared secret key defined by Handshake Protocol
  - AES, IDEA, RC2-40, DES-40, DES, 3DES, Fortezza, RC4-40, RC4-128
  - message is compressed before encryption

SSL Record Protocol Operation



SSL Change Cipher Spec Protocol

- one of 3 SSL specific protocols which use the SSL Record protocol
- a single message
- causes pending state to become current
- hence updating the cipher suite in use

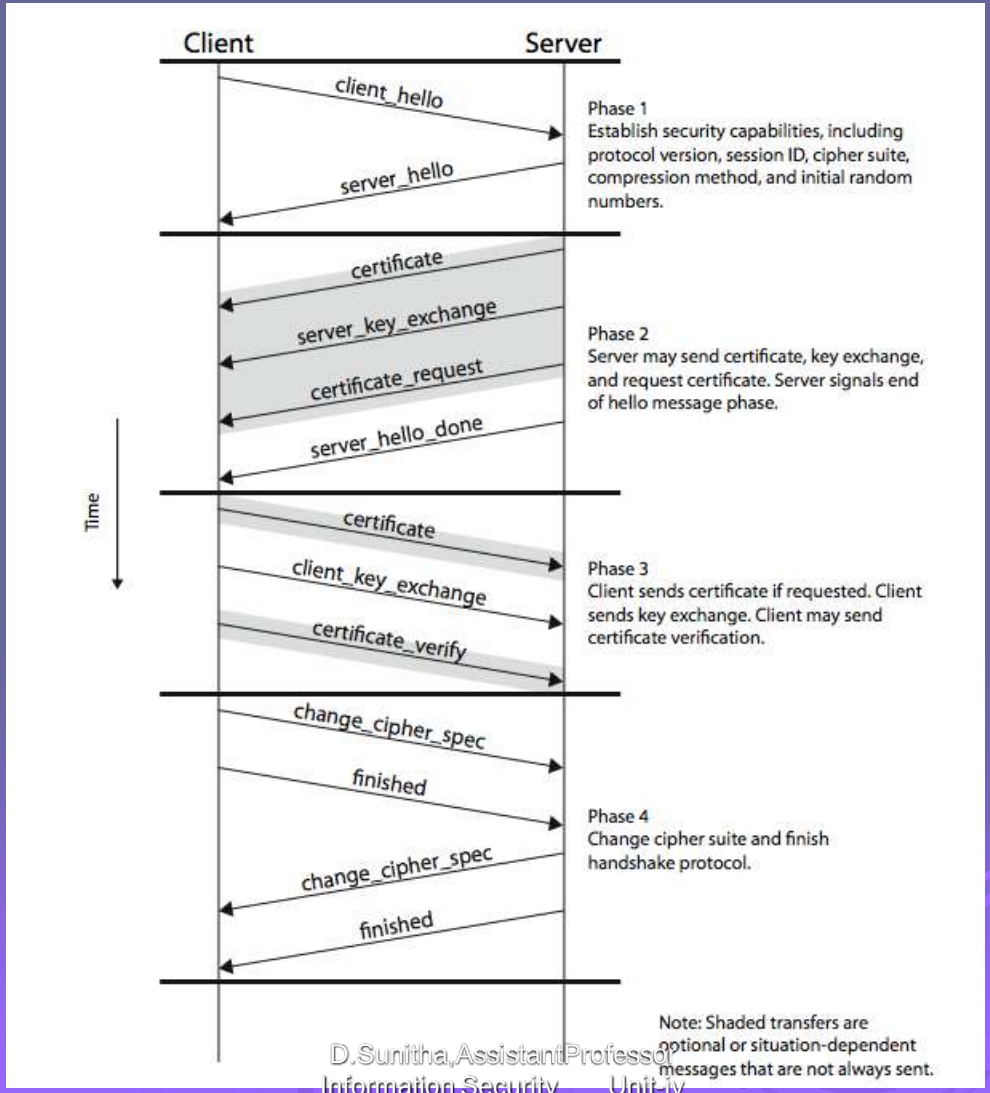
SSL Alert Protocol

- conveys SSL-related alerts to peer entity
- severity
  - warning or fatal
- specific alert
  - fatal: unexpected message, bad record mac, decompression failure, handshake failure, illegal parameter
  - warning: close notify, no certificate, bad certificate, unsupported certificate, certificate revoked, certificate expired, certificate unknown
- compressed & encrypted like all SSL data

SSL Handshake Protocol

- allows server & client to:
  - authenticate each other
  - to negotiate encryption & MAC algorithms
  - to negotiate cryptographic keys to be used
- comprises a series of messages in phases
  1. Establish Security Capabilities
  2. Server Authentication and Key Exchange
  3. Client Authentication and Key Exchange
  4. Finish

SSL Handshake Protocol



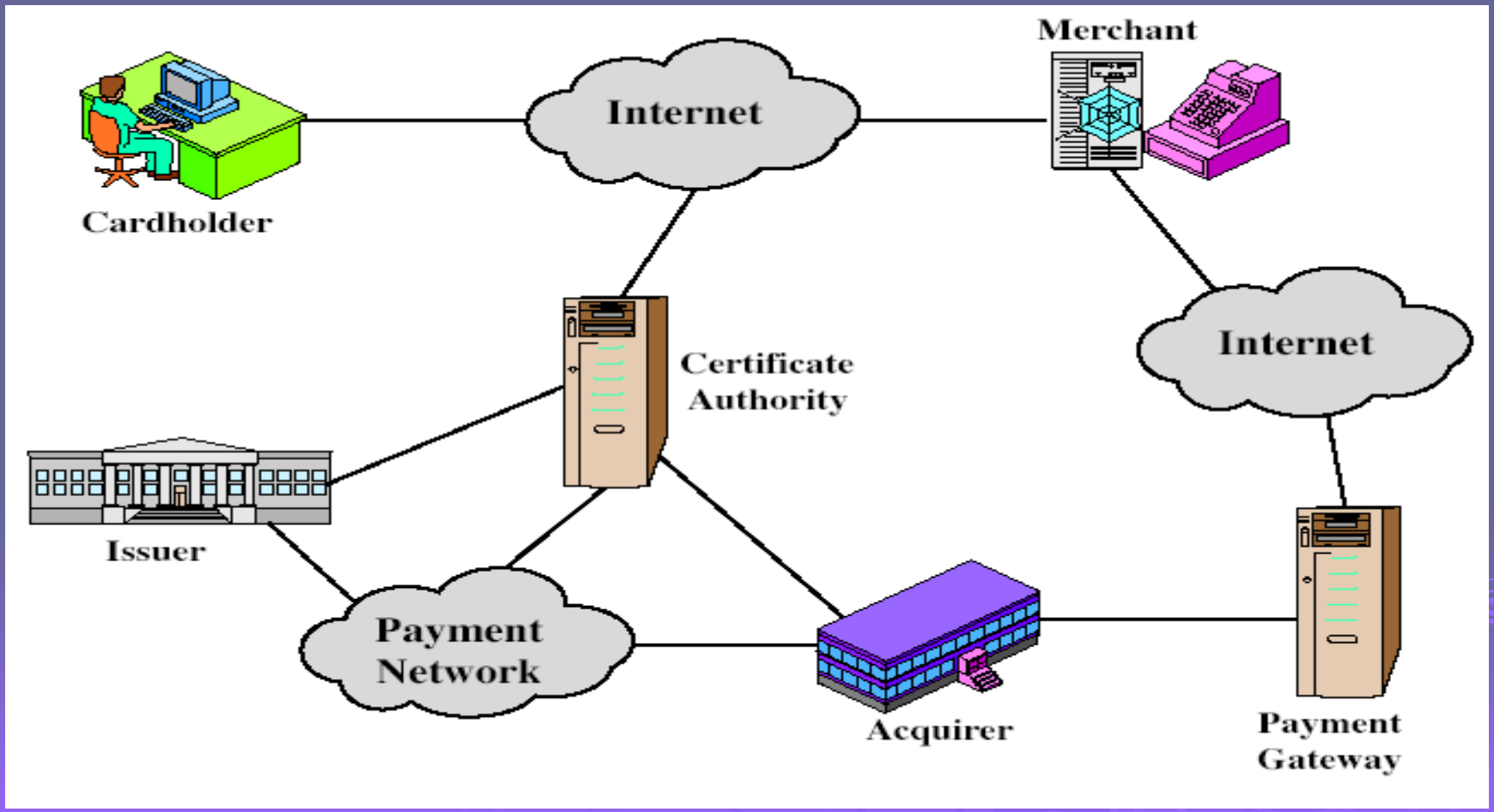
TLS (Transport Layer Security)

- IETF standard RFC 2246 similar to SSLv3
- with minor differences
  - in record format version number
  - uses HMAC for MAC
  - a pseudo-random function expands secrets
  - has additional alert codes
  - some changes in supported ciphers
  - changes in certificate types & negotiations
  - changes in crypto computations & padding

Secure Electronic Transactions (SET)

- open encryption & security specification
- to protect Internet credit card transactions
- developed in 1996 by Mastercard, Visa etc
- not a payment system
- rather a set of security protocols & formats
  - secure communications amongst parties
  - trust from use of X.509v3 certificates
  - privacy by restricted info to those who need it

SET Components



SET Transaction

1. customer opens account
2. customer receives a certificate
3. merchants have their own certificates
4. customer places an order
5. merchant is verified
6. order and payment are sent
7. merchant requests payment authorization
8. merchant confirms order
9. merchant provides goods or service
10. merchant requests payment

Dual Signature

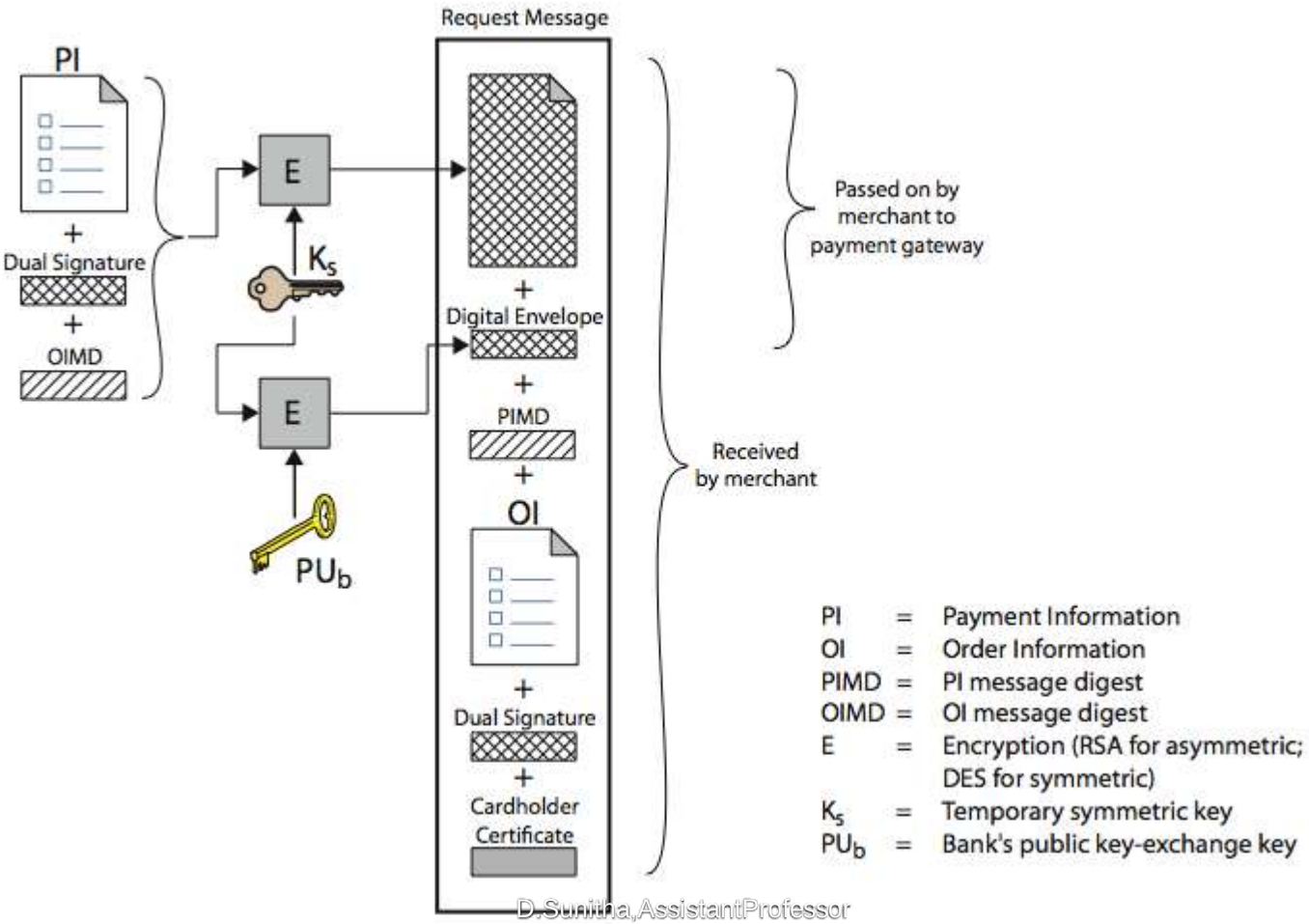
- customer creates dual messages
  - order information (OI) for merchant
  - payment information (PI) for bank
- neither party needs details of other
- but **must** know they are linked
- use a dual signature for this
  - signed concatenated hashes of OI & PI

$$DS = E(PR_C, [H(H(PI)||H(OI))])$$

SET Purchase Request

- SET purchase request exchange consists of four messages
  1. Initiate Request - get certificates
  2. Initiate Response - signed response
  3. Purchase Request - of OI & PI
  4. Purchase Response - ack order

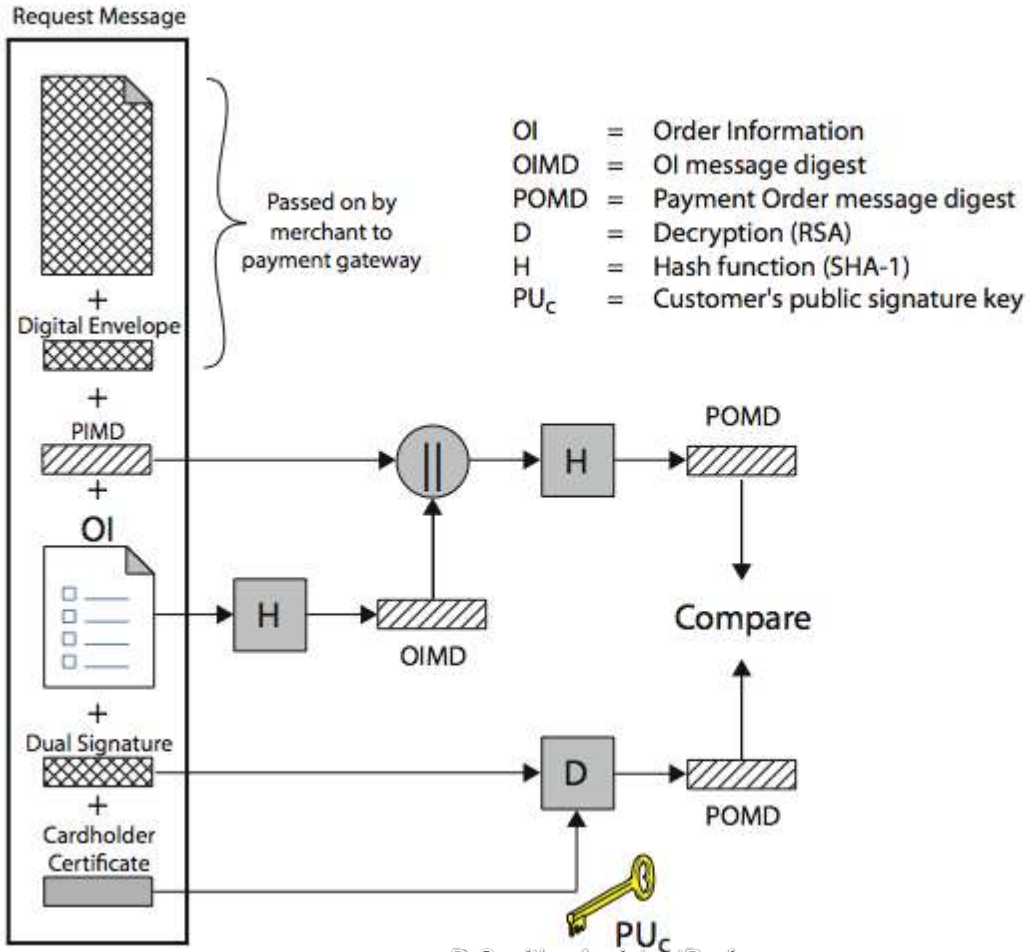
Purchase Request – Customer



Purchase Request – Merchant

1. verifies cardholder certificates using CA sigs
2. verifies dual signature using customer's public signature key to ensure order has not been tampered with in transit & that it was signed using cardholder's private signature key
3. processes order and forwards the payment information to the payment gateway for authorization (described later)
4. sends a purchase response to cardholder

Purchase Request – Merchant



Payment Gateway Authorization

1. verifies all certificates
2. decrypts digital envelope of authorization block to obtain symmetric key & then decrypts authorization block
3. verifies merchant's signature on authorization block
4. decrypts digital envelope of payment block to obtain symmetric key & then decrypts payment block
5. verifies dual signature on payment block
6. verifies that transaction ID received from merchant matches that in PI received (indirectly) from customer
7. requests & receives an authorization from issuer
8. sends authorization response back to merchant

Payment Capture

- merchant sends payment gateway a payment capture request
- gateway checks request
- then causes funds to be transferred to merchants account
- notifies merchant using capture response

Unit-v

Electronic Mail Security

Despite the refusal of VADM Poindexter and LtCol North to appear, the Board's access to other sources of information filled much of this gap. The FBI provided documents taken from the files of the National Security Advisor and relevant NSC staff members, including messages from the PROF system between VADM Poindexter and LtCol North. The PROF messages were conversations by computer, written at the time events occurred and presumed by the writers to be protected from disclosure. In this sense, they provide a first-hand, contemporaneous account of events.

Email Security

- email is one of the most widely used and regarded network services
- currently message contents are not secure
  - may be inspected either in transit
  - or by suitably privileged users on destination system

Email Security Enhancements

- confidentiality
  - protection from disclosure
- authentication
  - of sender of message
- message integrity
  - protection from modification
- non-repudiation of origin
  - protection from denial by sender

Pretty Good Privacy (PGP)

- widely used de facto secure email
- developed by Phil Zimmermann
- selected best available crypto algs to use
- integrated into a single program
- on Unix, PC, Macintosh and other systems
- originally free, now also have commercial versions available

PGP Operation – Authentication

1. sender creates message
2. use SHA-1 to generate 160-bit hash of message
3. signed hash with RSA using sender's private key, and is attached to message
4. receiver uses RSA with sender's public key to decrypt and recover hash code
5. receiver verifies received message using hash of it and compares with decrypted hash code

PGP Operation – Confidentiality

1. sender generates message and 128-bit random number as session key for it
2. encrypt message using CAST-128 / IDEA / 3DES in CBC mode with session key
3. session key encrypted using RSA with recipient's public key, & attached to msg
4. receiver uses RSA with private key to decrypt and recover session key
5. session key is used to decrypt message

PGP Operation – Confidentiality & Authentication

- can use both services on same message
  - create signature & attach to message
  - encrypt both message & signature
  - attach RSA/ElGamal encrypted session key

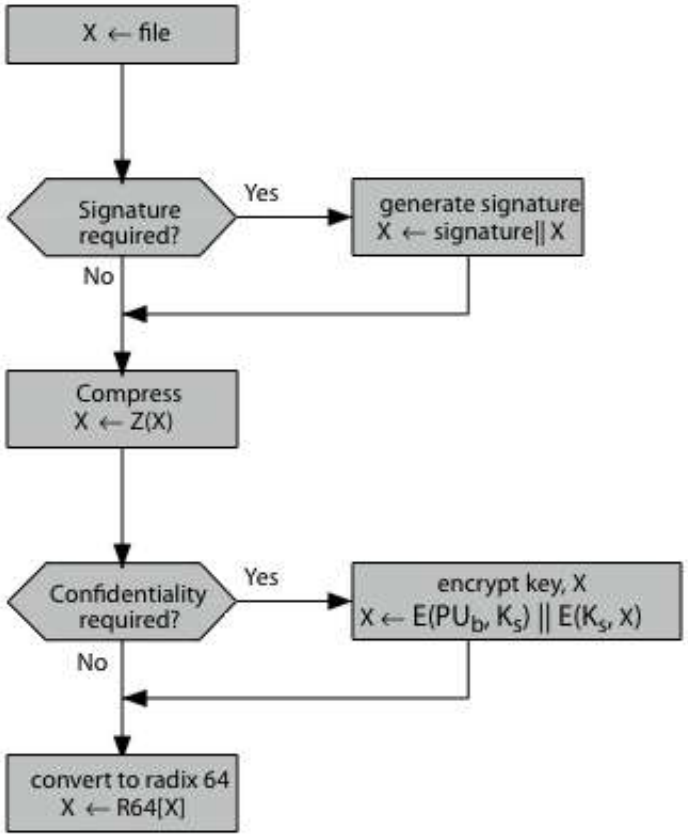
PGP Operation – Compression

- by default PGP compresses message after signing but before encrypting
  - so can store uncompressed message & signature for later verification
  - & because compression is non deterministic
- uses ZIP compression algorithm

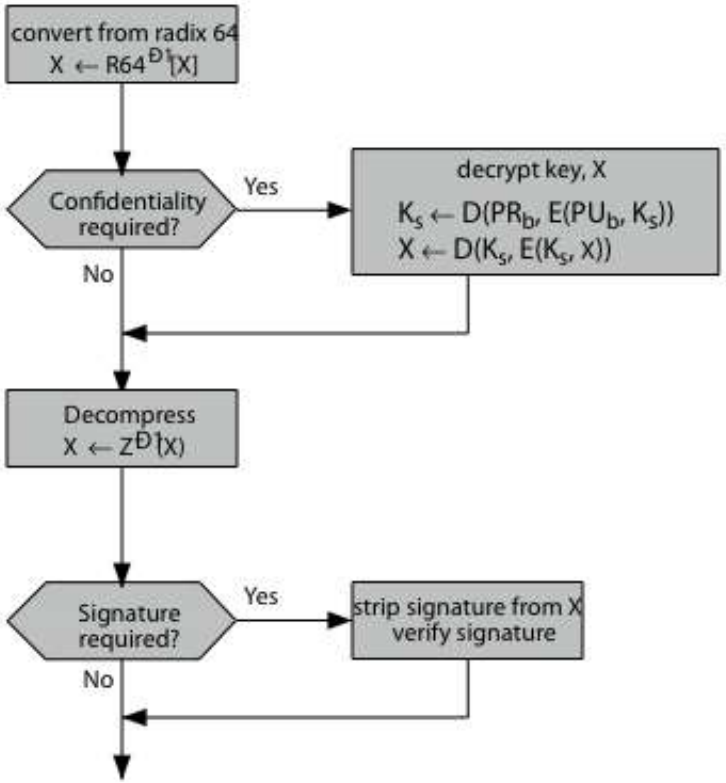
PGP Operation – Email Compatibility

- when using PGP will have binary data to send (encrypted message etc)
- however email was designed only for text
- hence PGP must encode raw binary data into printable ASCII characters
- uses radix-64 algorithm
  - maps 3 bytes to 4 printable chars
  - also appends a CRC
- PGP also segments messages if too big

PGP Operation – Summary



(a) Generic Transmission Diagram (from A)



(b) Generic Reception Diagram (to B)

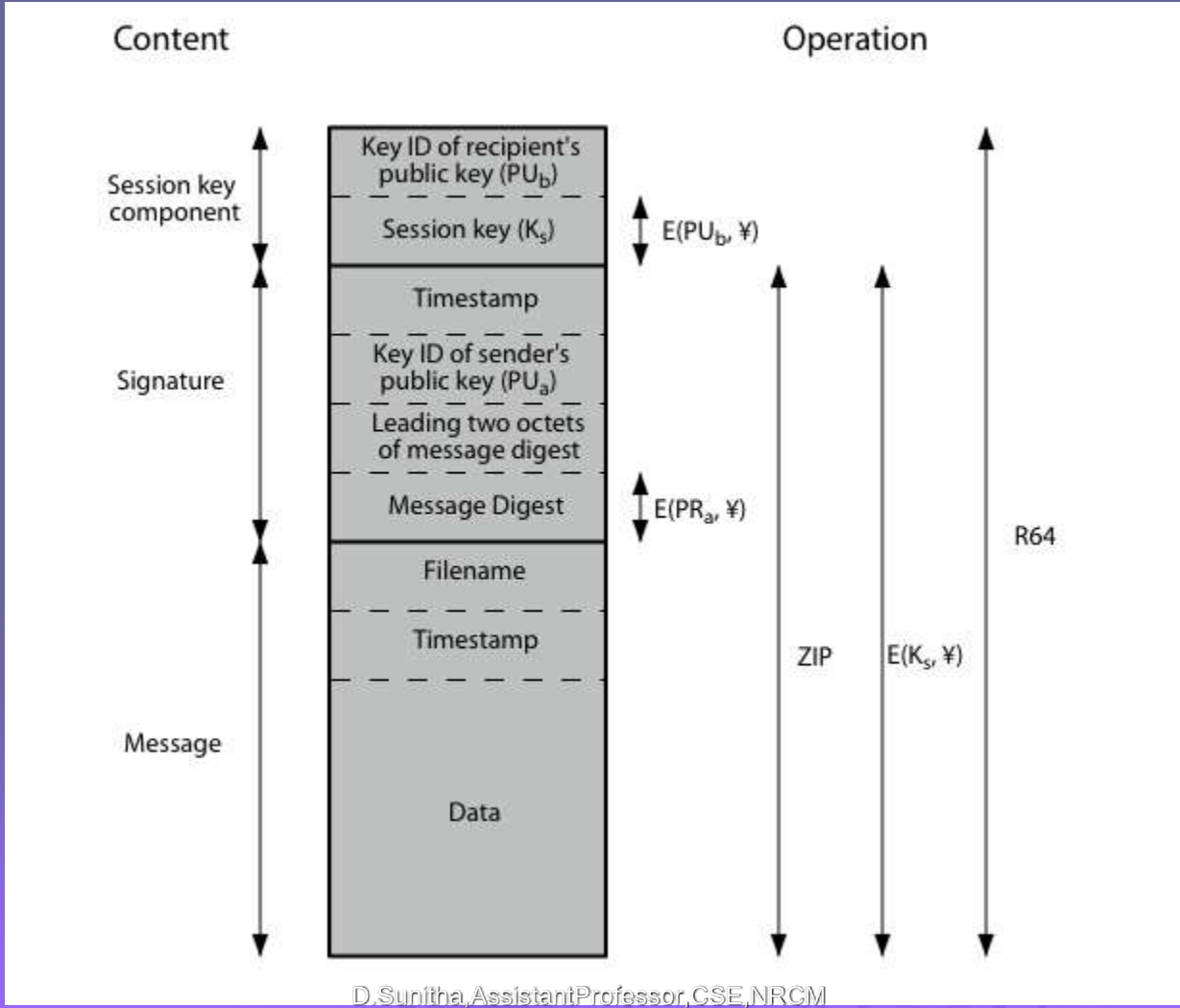
PGP Session Keys

- need a session key for each message
  - of varying sizes: 56-bit DES, 128-bit CAST or IDEA, 168-bit Triple-DES
- generated using ANSI X12.17 mode
- uses random inputs taken from previous uses and from keystroke timing of user

PGP Public & Private Keys

- since many public/private keys may be in use, need to identify which is actually used to encrypt session key in a message
  - could send full public-key with every message
  - but this is inefficient
- rather use a key identifier based on key
  - is least significant 64-bits of the key
  - will very likely be unique
- also use key ID in signatures

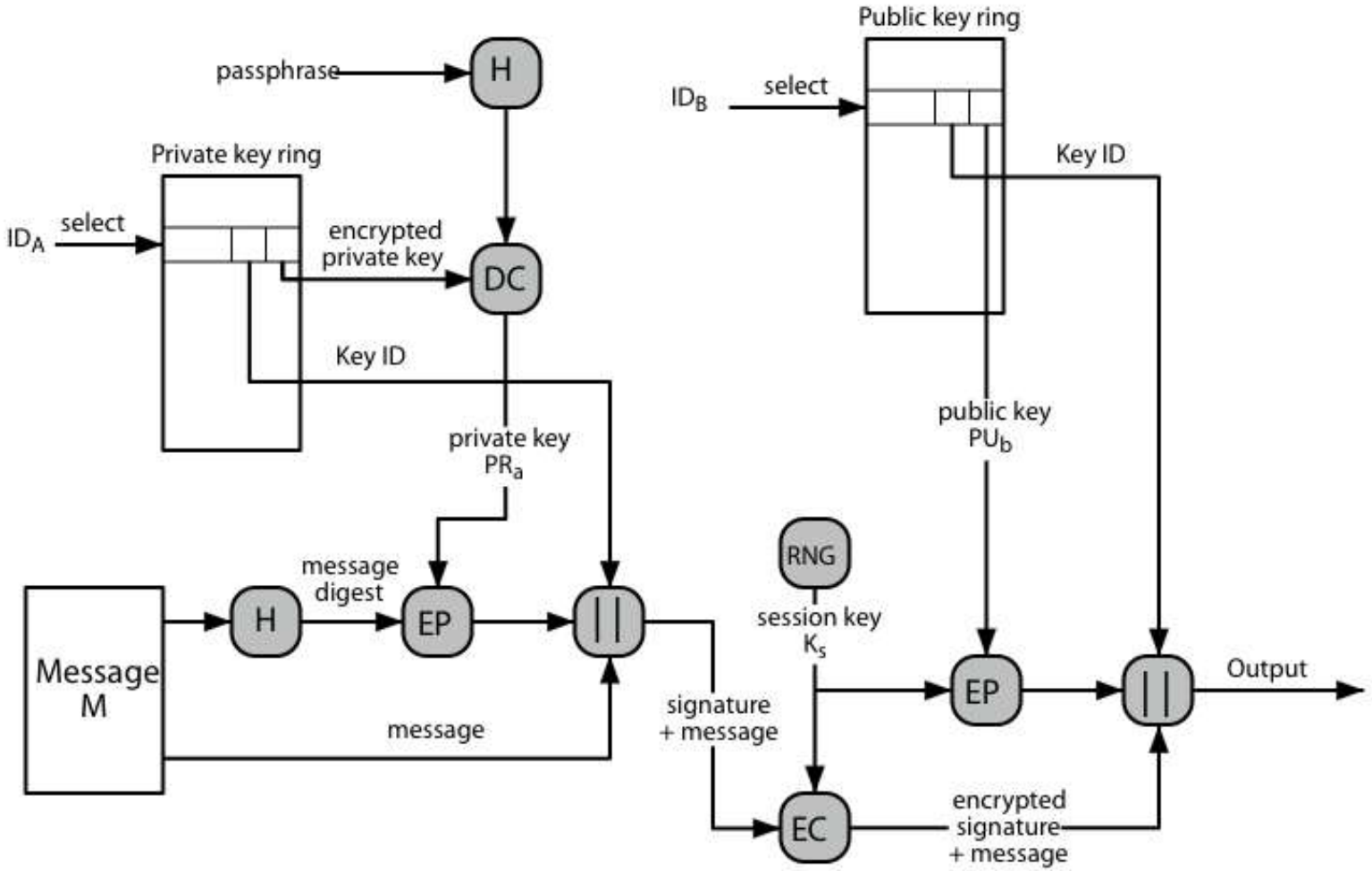
PGP Message Format



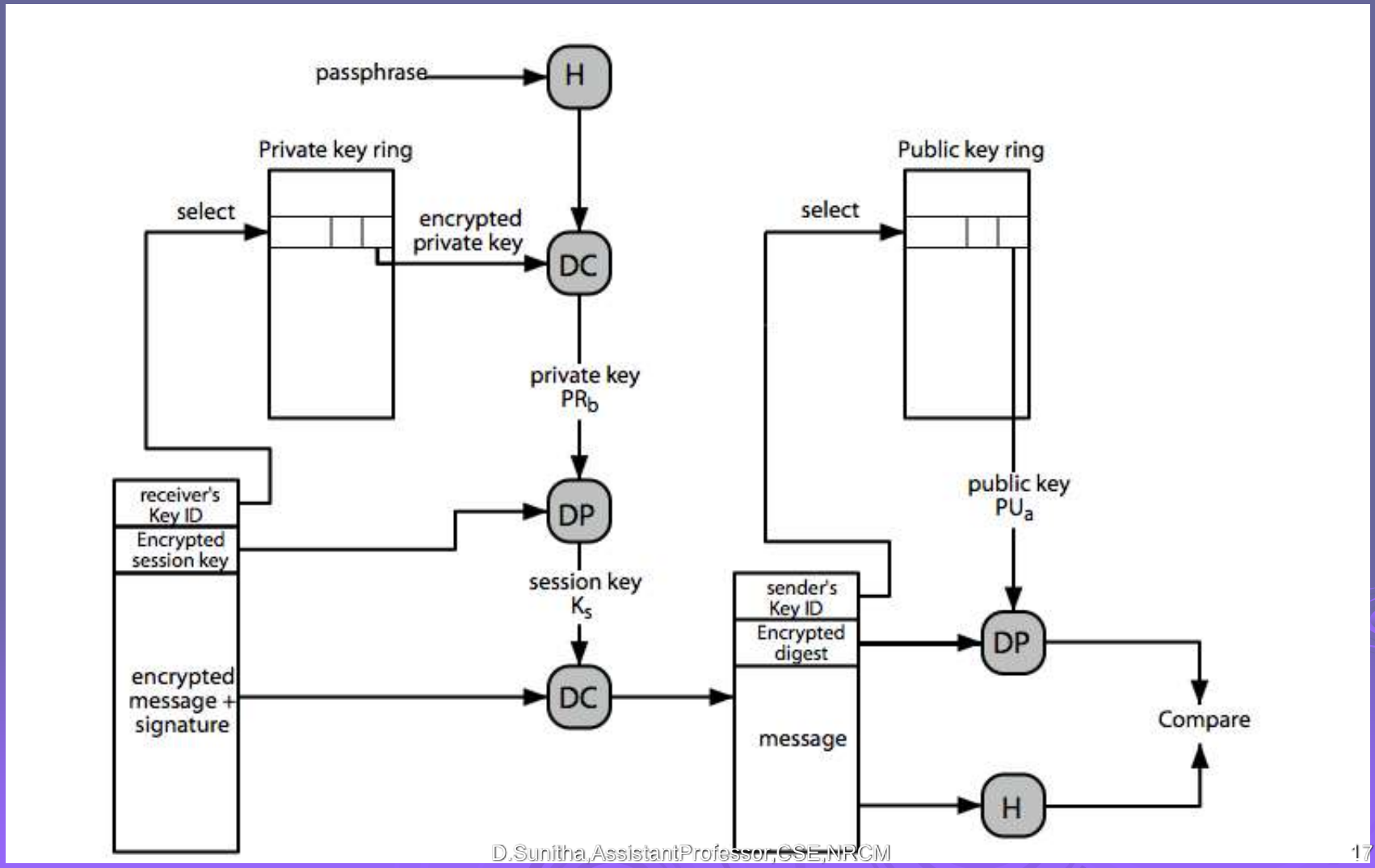
PGP Key Rings

- each PGP user has a pair of keyrings:
  - public-key ring contains all the public-keys of other PGP users known to this user, indexed by key ID
  - private-key ring contains the public/private key pair(s) for this user, indexed by key ID & encrypted keyed from a hashed passphrase
- security of private keys thus depends on the pass-phrase security

PGP Message Generation



PGP Message Reception



PGP Key Management

- rather than relying on certificate authorities
- in PGP every user is own CA
  - can sign keys for users they know directly
- forms a “web of trust”
  - trust keys have signed
  - can trust keys others have signed if have a chain of signatures to them
- key ring includes trust indicators
- users can also revoke their keys

S/MIME (Secure/Multipurpose Internet Mail Extensions)

- security enhancement to MIME email
  - original Internet RFC822 email was text only
  - MIME provided support for varying content types and multi-part messages
  - with encoding of binary data to textual form
  - S/MIME added security enhancements
- have S/MIME support in many mail agents
  - eg MS Outlook, Mozilla, Mac Mail etc

S/MIME Functions

- enveloped data
  - encrypted content and associated keys
- signed data
  - encoded message + signed digest
- clear-signed data
  - cleartext message + encoded signed digest
- signed & enveloped data
  - nesting of signed & encrypted entities

S/MIME Cryptographic Algorithms

- digital signatures: DSS & RSA
- hash functions: SHA-1 & MD5
- session key encryption: ElGamal & RSA
- message encryption: AES, Triple-DES, RC2/40 and others
- MAC: HMAC with SHA-1
- have process to decide which algs to use

S/MIME Messages

- S/MIME secures a MIME entity with a signature, encryption, or both
- forming a MIME wrapped PKCS object
- have a range of content-types:
  - enveloped data
  - signed data
  - clear-signed data
  - registration request
  - certificate only message

S/MIME Certificate Processing

- S/MIME uses X.509 v3 certificates
- managed using a hybrid of a strict X.509 CA hierarchy & PGP's web of trust
- each client has a list of trusted CA's certs
- and own public/private key pairs & certs
- certificates must be signed by trusted CA's

Certificate Authorities

- have several well-known CA's
- Verisign one of most widely used
- Verisign issues several types of Digital IDs
- increasing levels of checks & hence trust

Class	Identity Checks	Usage
1	name/email check	web browsing/email
2	+ enroll/addr check	email, subs, s/w validate
3	+ ID documents	e-banking/service access

IP Security

If a secret piece of news is divulged by a spy before the time is ripe, he must be put to death, together with the man to whom the secret was told.

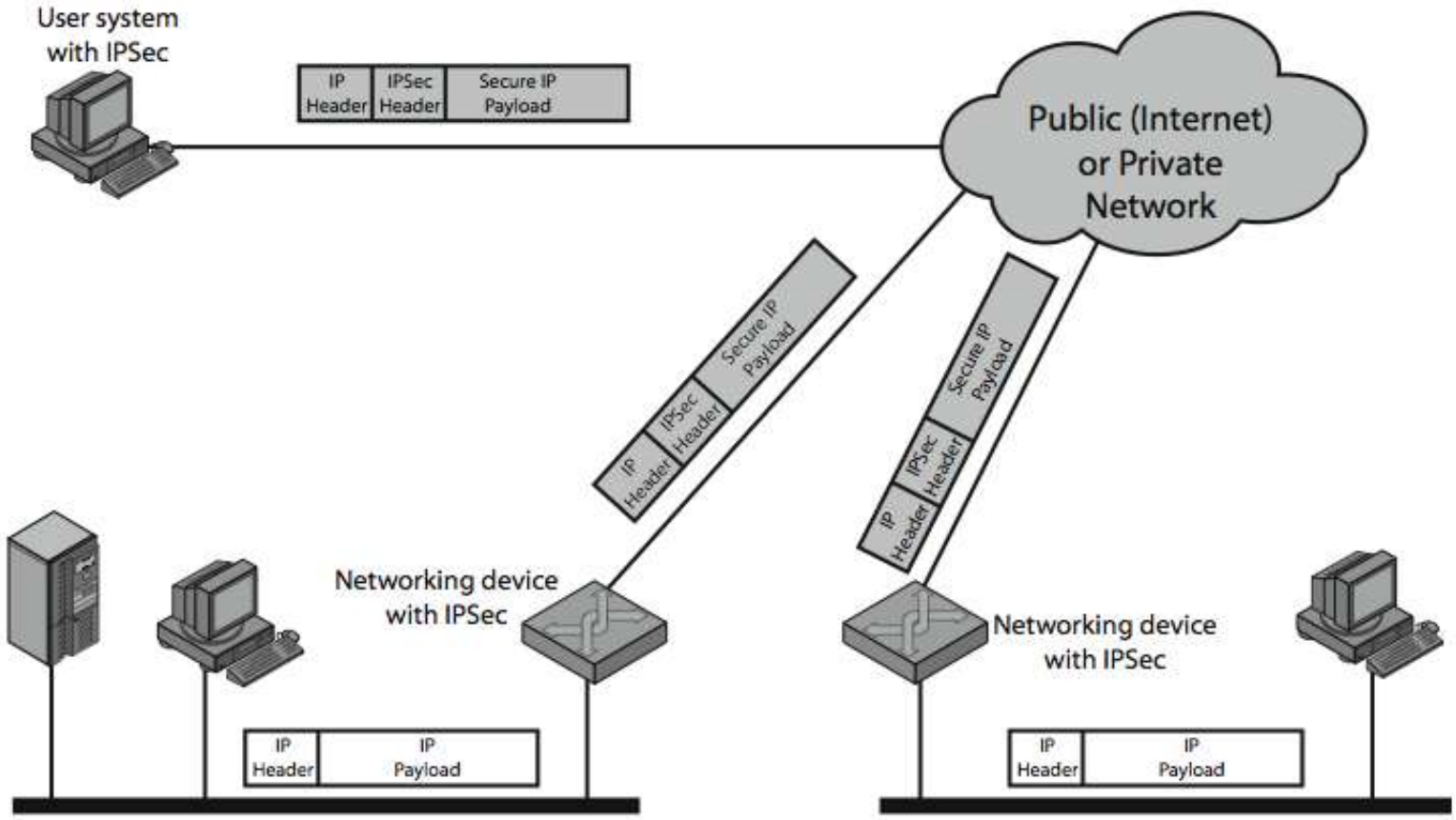
IP Security

- have a range of application specific security mechanisms
  - eg. S/MIME, PGP, Kerberos, SSL/HTTPS
- however there are security concerns that cut across protocol layers
- would like security implemented by the network for all applications

IPSec

- general IP Security mechanisms
- provides
  - authentication
  - confidentiality
  - key management
- applicable to use over LANs, across public & private WANs, & for the Internet

IPSec Uses


User system with IPSec
IP Header
IPSec Header
Secure IP Payload
Public (Internet) or Private Network
Networking device with IPSec
Networking device with IPSec
IP Header
IP Payload
IP Header
IP Payload

Benefits of IPSec

- in a firewall/router provides strong security to all traffic crossing the perimeter
- in a firewall/router is resistant to bypass
- is below transport layer, hence transparent to applications
- can be transparent to end users
- can provide security for individual users
- secures routing architecture

IP Security Architecture

- specification is quite complex
- defined in numerous RFC's
  - incl. RFC 2401/2402/2406/2408
  - many others, grouped by category
- mandatory in IPv6, optional in IPv4
- have two security header extensions:
  - Authentication Header (AH)
  - Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP)

IPSec Services

- Access control
- Connectionless integrity
- Data origin authentication
- Rejection of replayed packets
  - a form of partial sequence integrity
- Confidentiality (encryption)
- Limited traffic flow confidentiality

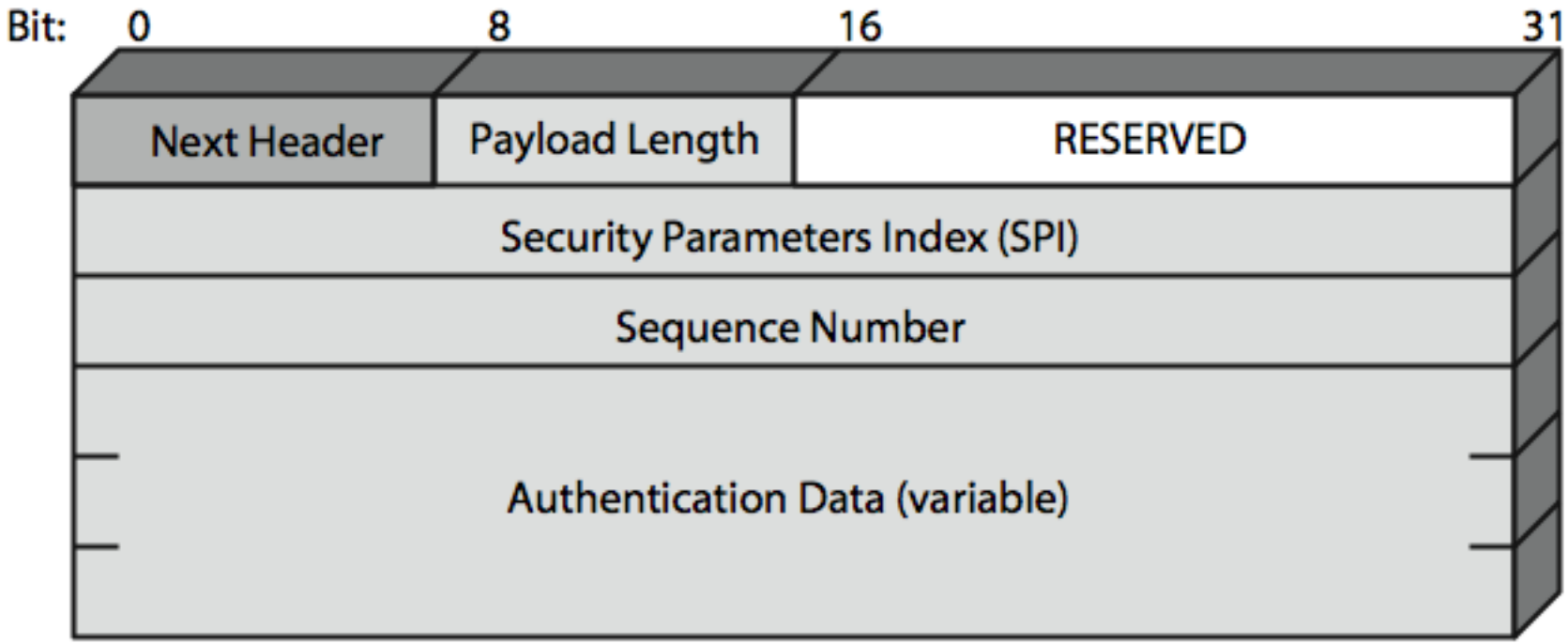
Security Associations

- a one-way relationship between sender & receiver that affords security for traffic flow
- defined by 3 parameters:
  - Security Parameters Index (SPI)
  - IP Destination Address
  - Security Protocol Identifier
- has a number of other parameters
  - seq no, AH & EH info, lifetime etc
- have a database of Security Associations

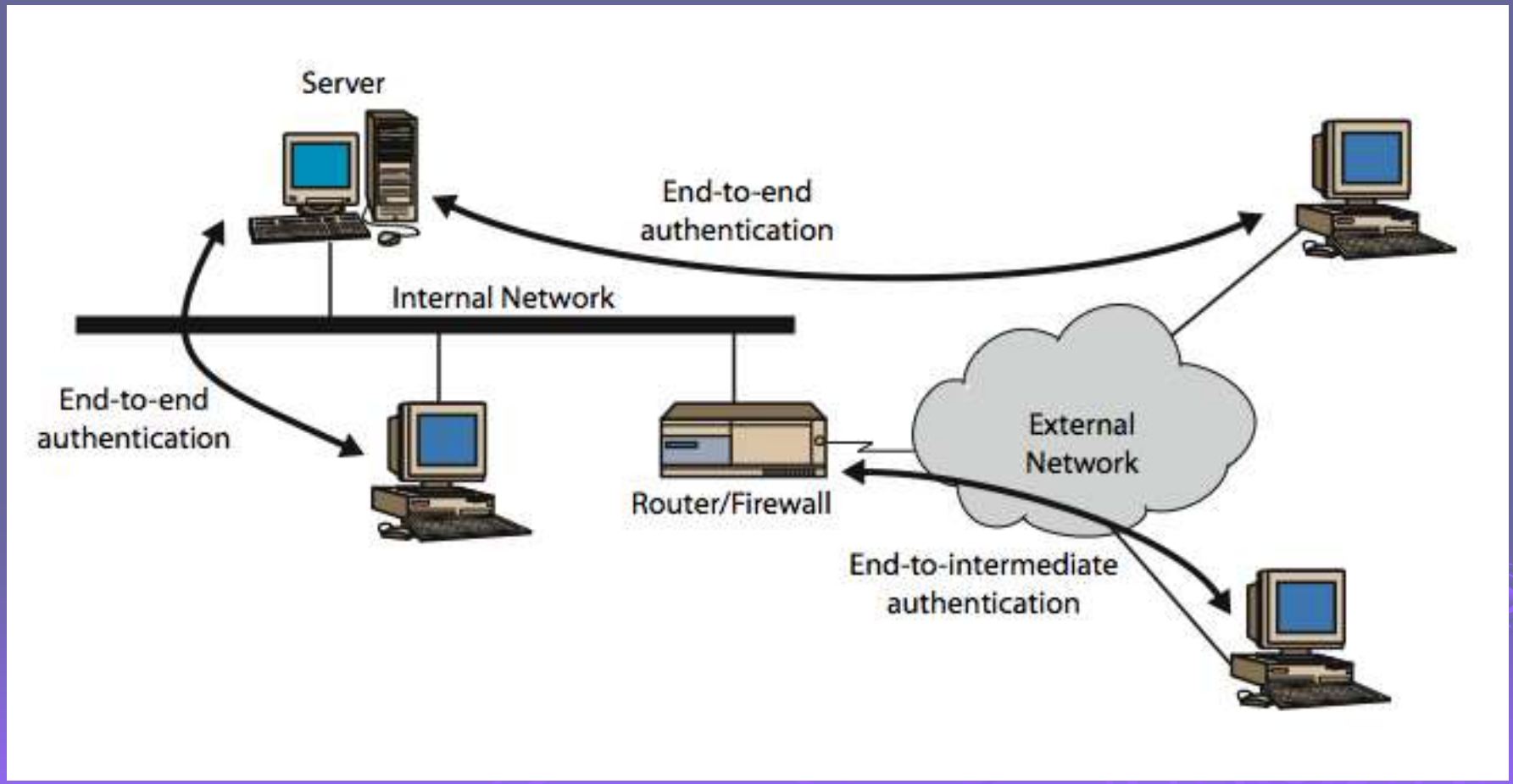
Authentication Header (AH)

- provides support for data integrity & authentication of IP packets
  - end system/router can authenticate user/app
  - prevents address spoofing attacks by tracking sequence numbers
- based on use of a MAC
  - HMAC-MD5-96 or HMAC-SHA-1-96
- parties must share a secret key

Authentication Header



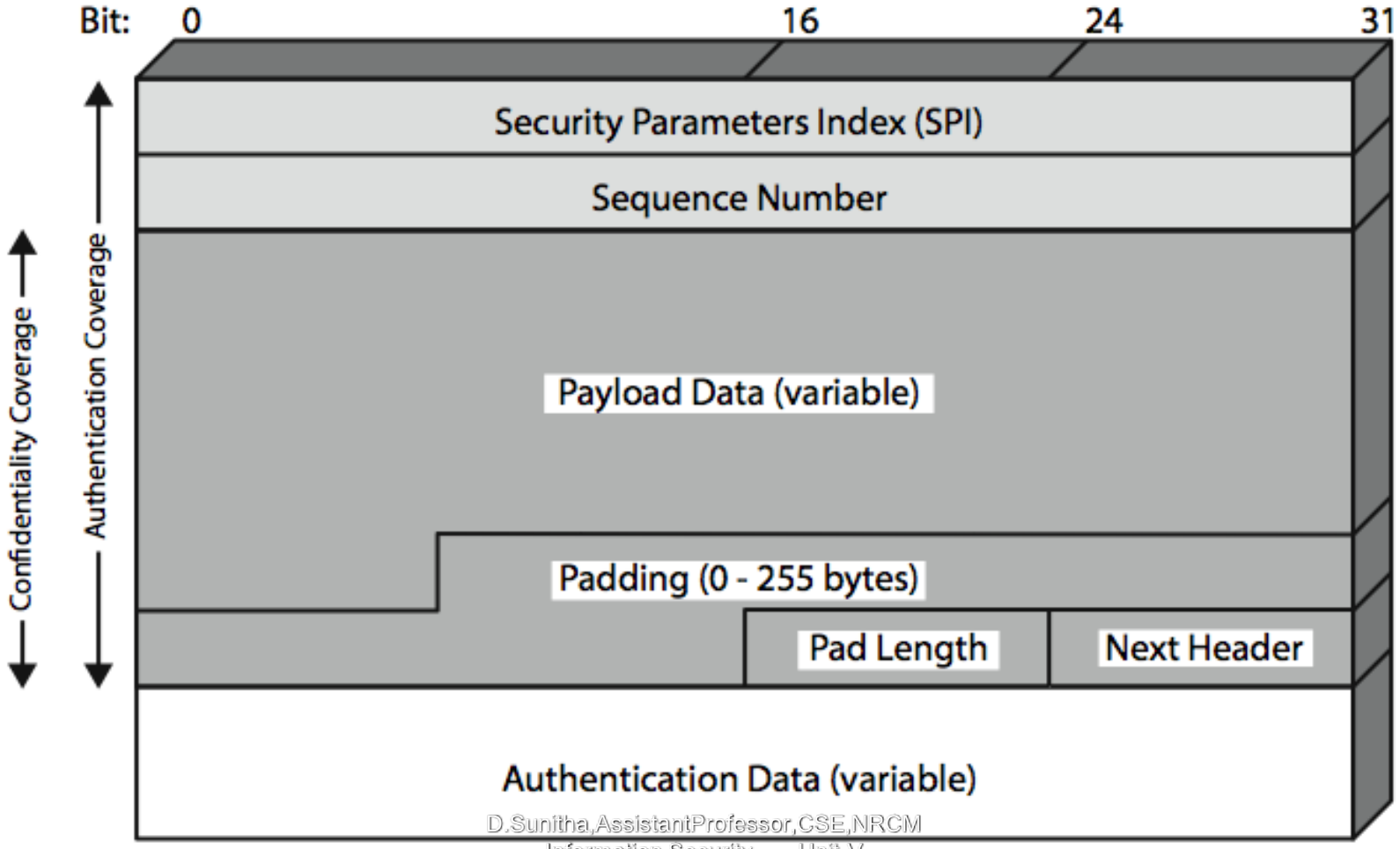
Transport & Tunnel Modes



Encapsulating Security Payload (ESP)

- provides message content confidentiality & limited traffic flow confidentiality
- can optionally provide the same authentication services as AH
- supports range of ciphers, modes, padding
  - incl. DES, Triple-DES, RC5, IDEA, CAST etc
  - CBC & other modes
  - padding needed to fill blocksize, fields, for traffic flow

Encapsulating Security Payload



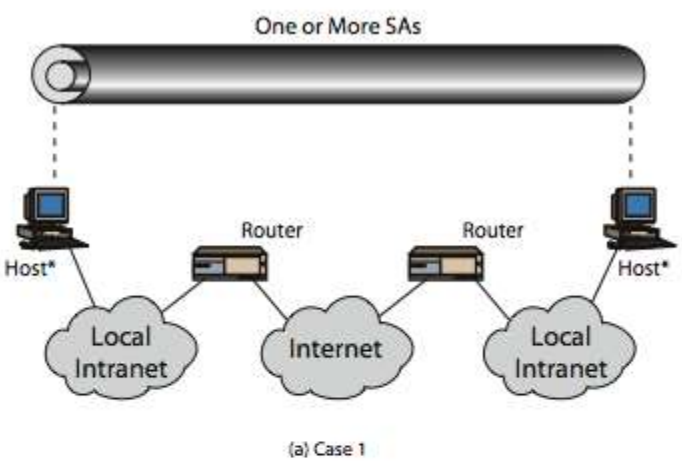
Transport vs Tunnel Mode ESP

- transport mode is used to encrypt & optionally authenticate IP data
  - data protected but header left in clear
  - can do traffic analysis but is efficient
  - good for ESP host to host traffic
- tunnel mode encrypts entire IP packet
  - add new header for next hop
  - good for VPNs, gateway to gateway security

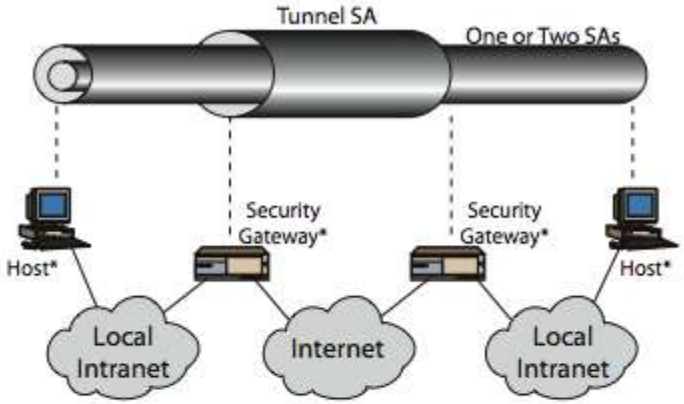
Combining Security Associations

- SA's can implement either AH or ESP
- to implement both need to combine SA's
  - form a security association bundle
  - may terminate at different or same endpoints
  - combined by
    - transport adjacency
    - iterated tunneling
- issue of authentication & encryption order

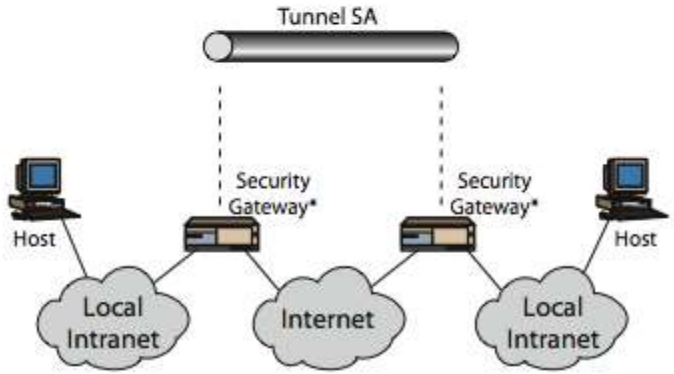
Combining Security Associations



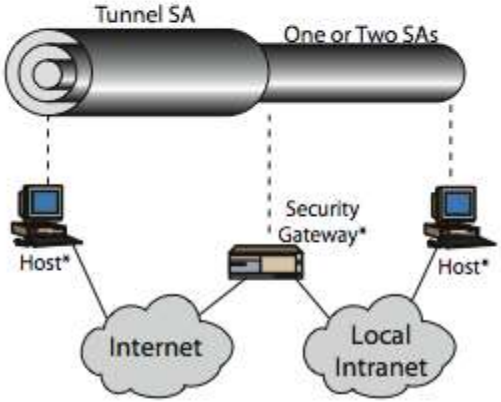
(a) Case 1



(c) Case 3



(b) Case 2



(d) Case 4

Key Management

- handles key generation & distribution
- typically need 2 pairs of keys
  - 2 per direction for AH & ESP
- manual key management
  - sysadmin manually configures every system
- automated key management
  - automated system for on demand creation of keys for SA's in large systems
  - has Oakley & ISAKMP elements

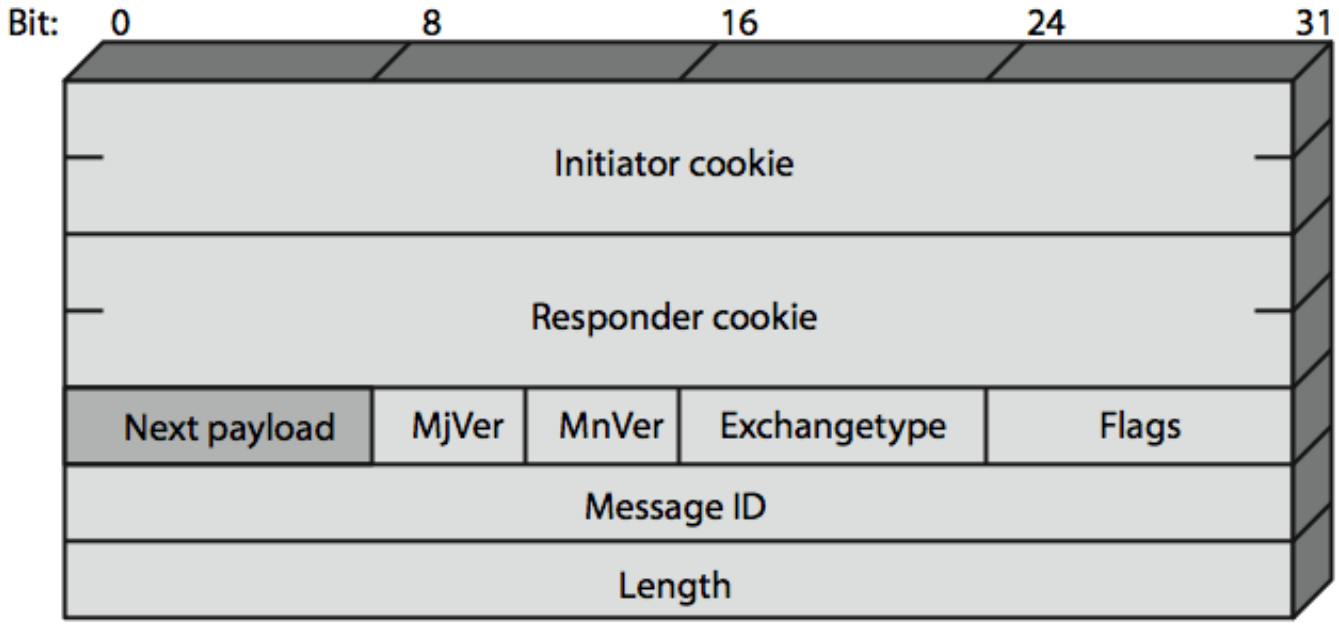
Oakley

- a key exchange protocol
- based on Diffie-Hellman key exchange
- adds features to address weaknesses
  - cookies, groups (global params), nonces, DH key exchange with authentication
- can use arithmetic in prime fields or elliptic curve fields

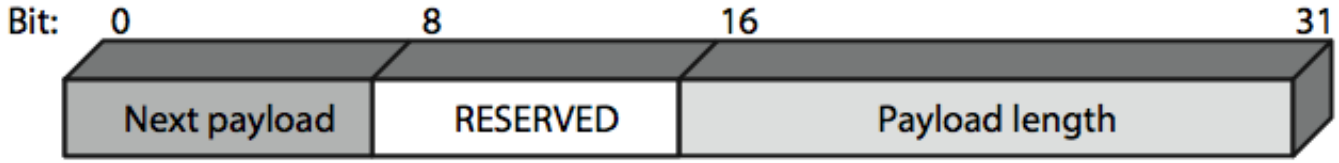
ISAKMP

- Internet Security Association and Key Management Protocol
- provides framework for key management
- defines procedures and packet formats to establish, negotiate, modify, & delete SAs
- independent of key exchange protocol, encryption alg, & authentication method

ISAKMP



(a) ISAKMP Header



(b) Generic Payload Header

ISAKMP Payloads & Exchanges

- have a number of ISAKMP payload types:
  - Security, Proposal, Transform, Key, Identification, Certificate, Certificate, Hash, Signature, Nonce, Notification, Delete
- ISAKMP has framework for 5 types of message exchanges:
  - base, identity protection, authentication only, aggressive, informational