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# Security Aspects for Maritime Networks

## CSP004\_S\_M

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- *Project Agreement no. 101083594*

# Security Aspects for Maritime Networks

## Overview

- Topic-1: Secure Network Architecture and Design
- Topic-2: Cryptographic Techniques for Ensuring Secure Data Transmission
- Topic-3: Security mechanisms, services, and attacks in OSI reference model

# Agenda

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Overview
- 3. Symmetric Encryption
- 4. Asymmetric Encryption
- 5. Digital Signature

# Introduction

**Significance of Cryptography:** The Korean Register (KR) underscores the critical role of cryptography in the safekeeping of data.

## Objectives



The Korean Register outlines the **goals of type approval** for **maritime cybersecurity**.

## Security Requirements



Details the specific **security requirements** needed and their respective **levels**.

## Cryptography



**Highlights** the importance of **cryptography** in **securely** storing crucial **data**.

# Introduction

- **Maritime Cyber Security Type Approval**

- This type of approval certifies manufacturers for **equipment intended** for use
- The approval is granted based on the results of **examinations, tests, and inspections** as specified in the guidance.
- Equipment must **meet** these before **installation** on **board** is **approved** by the society.

- KR notes that the use of cryptography is a **common requirement across security levels 1 to 4**.

- **Manufacturers** seeking **cybersecurity type approval** from the Korean Register must **demonstrate** that the encryption algorithms used in their systems/equipment are **secure** and **not vulnerable**.

•Use of cryptography: "If **cryptography** is required, the component should use **cryptographic security** mechanisms according to **internationally recognized** and **proven** security **practices** and **recommendations**" ... Korean Register reports

Section 1 General	Section 5 Data Confidentiality	Section 9 Software Application Requirements
Sections 2 Identification and Authentication	Section 6 Restricted Data Flow	Section 10 Embedded Device Requirements
Section 3 Use Control	Section 7 Timely Response to Events	Section 11 Host Device Requirements
Section 4 System Integrity	Section 8 Resource Availability	Section 12 Network Device Requirements

# Cryptography

- **Cryptography** is the field of applying **mathematical principles** to **encrypt** and **decrypt** data.
- It allows for the secure **storage** and **transmission** of sensitive **information**, **protecting** it from **unauthorized** access, **particularly** when traversing insecure **networks** such as the **Internet**.
- While cryptography **focuses** on **data security**, **cryptanalysis concentrates** on **analyzing** and **breaking** secure communication.
- Classical **cryptanalysis** involves a **combination** of **analytical reasoning**, **mathematical tools**, pattern **recognition**, patience, **determination**, and **sometimes** luck.
- Those **engaged** in cryptanalysis are often referred to as **attackers**.

# Cryptography

- Cryptographic strength is assessed based on the **time** and **resources** needed to **decrypt** the plaintext.
- **Strong cryptography** produces **ciphertext** that is exceptionally **challenging** to **decipher** without employing the appropriate **decryption tool** or **method**.
- Even with the huge **computational power of modern computers**, including a billion computers performing a billion checks per **second**, **deciphering strong cryptography** would take longer than the **lifespan** of the universe.

# History of Cryptography

- The origin of **cryptography** is linked to the **age** when **humans** started **writing**.
- As **civilizations** evolved, **societies** were organized into **tribes**, **groups**, and **kingdoms**.
- This resulted in the rise of concepts like **power**, **battles**, **supremacy**, and **politics**.
- These increased the need for **secret communication** among **individuals**.
- Cryptography evolved **continuously** to **meet** this demand for **covert communication**.
- The **roots** of **cryptography** are found in **Roman** and **Egyptian civilizations**.

# History of Cryptography

- Scholars later transitioned to employing simple **mono-alphabetic substitution** ciphers around **500** to **600** BC.
- This method entailed **replacing letters** in a **message** with other **letters** according to a **secret rule**.
- The rule served as a key to **deciphering** the **message** from the **scrambled** text.
- The **ancient Roman cryptographic** technique, commonly referred to as the **Caesar Shift Cipher**, involves **shifting** the **letters** of a message by a **predetermined number** (often three).
- The **recipient** of the message would then **reverse** the **shift** by the **same number** to **retrieve** the original message.

# History of Cryptography

## Hieroglyph – The Oldest Cryptographic Technique

- The first known evidence of **cryptography** can be traced to the use of '**hieroglyph**'.
- Around **4000** years ago, the **Egyptians** communicated through **messages** written in **hieroglyphs**, a code kept **confidential** by **scribes** entrusted with **transmitting** messages for the **kings**.
- An example of such a **hieroglyph**.



# Features of Cryptography

## Confidentiality



Data is **exclusively accessible** to its **intended recipient**, **preventing** access by any **unauthorized** individuals

## Integrity



Data remains **unaltered** during **storage** or **transmission** between the **sender** and intended **recipient**, with any **modifications** being readily **detectable**

## Non-repudiation



The **creator** or **sender** of data **cannot** disclaim their **intent** to **transmit** the **information** at a later stage

## Authentication



The identities of **both** the **sender** and **receiver** are **verified**, along with the **confirmation** of the information's **source** and **destination**

# Types Of Cryptography



**Symmetric Key Cryptography:** In this encryption system, both the **sender** and **receiver** share a **single key** for **encrypting** and **decrypting** messages. While **Symmetric** Key Systems **offer speed** and **simplicity**, **securely** exchanging the **key** between the **sender** and **receiver** poses a challenge. Common **examples** of symmetric key cryptography systems include the **Data Encryption Standard (DES)** and the **Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)**.



**Hash Functions:** This algorithm operates **without** any **key**. It computes a **fixed-length hash** value based on the **input plain text**, rendering it **impossible** to **retrieve** the original content from the hash. Hash **functions** are commonly employed in various **operating systems** for **password encryption** purposes.



**Asymmetric Key Cryptography:** In this system, a **pair of keys** is employed to **encrypt** and **decrypt** data. The **receiver's public** key is utilized for **encryption**, while their **private** key is employed for **decryption**. The **public** and **private** keys are **distinct**. Even if the **public** key is **widely known**, only the intended **recipient**, who **possesses** the **private key**, can **decode** the **message**. The **RSA** algorithm is **one** of the most **well-known asymmetric** key **cryptography algorithms**.

# Symmetric Encryption

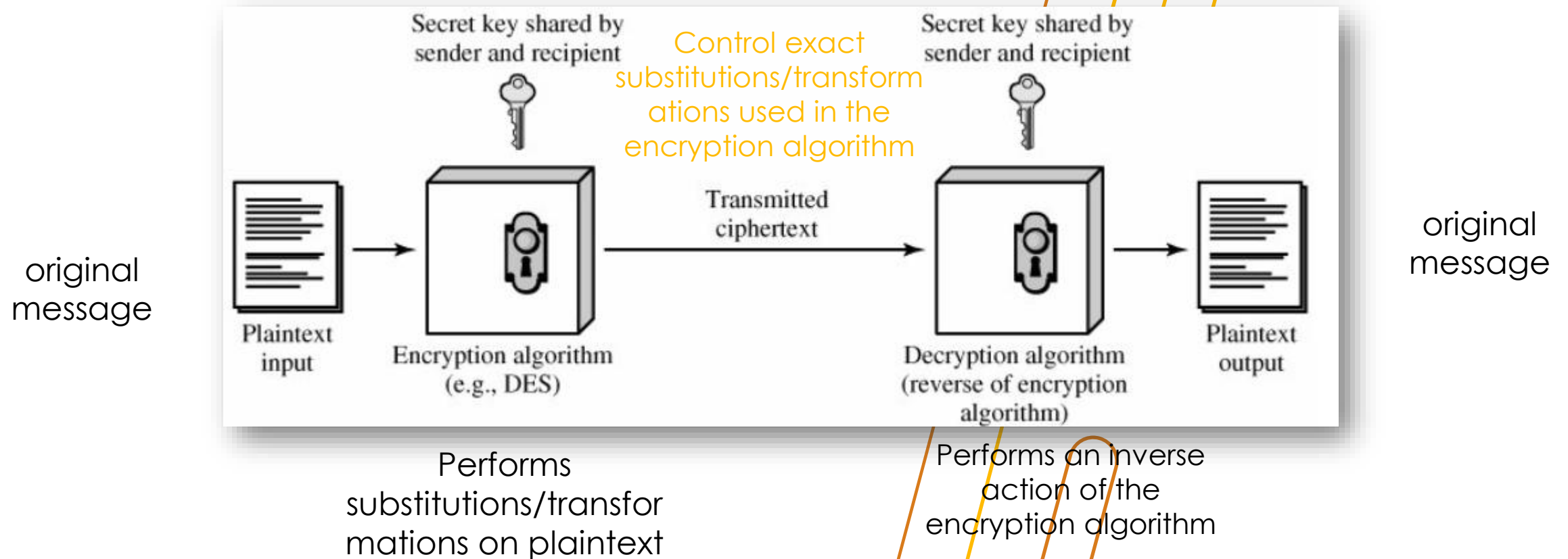
# Symmetric Encryption

- Symmetric **encryption**, also called **conventional** or **single-key** encryption, was the only type of **encryption** in use prior to the **development** of **public-key** encryption in the **1970s**.
- It **remains** the **more widely** used **encryption** method.
- **Symmetric encryption** employs a **single key** for both **encryption** and **decryption**.
- This key is **shared** between the **sender** and **receiver**.
- Both **parties** can **encrypt** or **decrypt** messages using the **same key**.

# 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



# Main Requirements

- We assume that it is **impractical** to **decrypt** a message on the basis of the **cipher text** plus knowledge of the **encryption/decryption algorithm** and do not need to keep the **algorithm secret**; rather, we only need to keep the **key secret**.
- This feature of **symmetric encryption** is what makes it **feasible** for **widespread use**. It allows easy **distribution** of **s/w** and **h/w** implementations.
- two requirements for secure use of symmetric encryption:
  - a **strong** encryption algorithm
  - a **secret** key known only to **sender/receiver**
- **mathematically** have:
  - $Y = E_K(X)$
  - $X = D_K(Y)$
- It can be considered a pair of functions with **plaintext X**, **ciphertext Y**, **key K**, **encryption algorithm EK**, and **decryption algorithm DK**.

# Cryptography Dimensions

1. **The type of operations used for transforming plaintext to ciphertext:**
  - **Encryption algorithms** rely on two main principles: substitution and transposition.
    - **Substitution** involves **mapping** each element in the **plaintext** (i.e., **bit, letter, group of bits, or letters**) to another element.
    - **Transposition** **rearranges** elements within the **plaintext**.
  - The **primary requirement** is to ensure **reversibility**, meaning no information **loss**.
  - Most **systems**, known as product **systems**, incorporate multiple **stages** of **substitutions** and **transpositions**.

# Cryptography Dimensions

## 2. The number of keys used

- When both **sender** and **receiver** utilize the **same** key, it's called **symmetric**, **single-key**, or **conventional** encryption.
- If the **sender** and **receiver** use **different keys**, it's termed **asymmetric** or **public-key encryption**.

## 3. The way in which the plaintext is processed

- A **block cipher** operates on **input blocks**, generating an **output block** for each **input block**.
- In contrast, a **stream cipher** processes **input elements continuously**, producing **output one element** at a time.

# Cryptanalysis and Brute-force Attack

Typically, the objective is to **recover** the key in use rather than simply to **recover** the plaintext of a single ciphertext.

There are two general approaches:

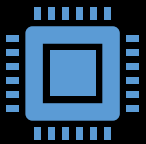
**Cryptanalytic** attacks rely on the **nature** of the **algorithm** plus perhaps some **knowledge** of the **general characteristics** of the **plaintext** or even some sample **plaintext-ciphertext** pairs.

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

# Cryptanalysis and Brute-force Attack

## Types of **Attacks** on **Encrypted** Messages

### Ciphertext only



- Encryption algorithm
- Ciphertext

### Known plaintext



- Encryption algorithm
- Ciphertext
- One or more plaintext-ciphertext pairs formed with the secret key

### Chosen plaintext



- Encryption algorithm
- Ciphertext
- Plaintext message chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding ciphertext generated with the secret key

### Chosen ciphertext



- Encryption algorithm
- Ciphertext
- Purported ciphertext chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding decrypted plaintext generated with the secret key

### Chosen text



- Encryption algorithm
- Ciphertext
- Plaintext message chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding ciphertext generated with the secret key
- Purported ciphertext chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding decrypted plaintext generated with the secret key

# Cryptanalysis and Brute-force Attack

**Two additional** definitions of **encryption** schemes are **either** they take **too long** or are **too expensive** to break the cipher.

## Unconditionally secure

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

## Computationally secure

Given **limited computing resources** (e.g., the **time needed** for calculations is greater than the age of the 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

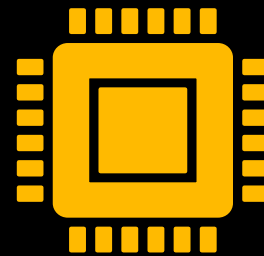
Key Size (bits)	Number of Alternative Keys	Time required at 1 decryption/ $\mu$ s	Time required at $10^6$ decryptions/ $\mu$ s
<b>32</b>	$2^{32} = 4.3 \times 10^9$	$2^{31} \mu\text{s} = 35.8$ minutes	<b>2.15 milliseconds</b>
<b>56</b>	$2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$	$2^{55} \mu\text{s} = 1142$ years	<b>10.01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

# Substitution Techniques

# Classical Substitution Ciphers



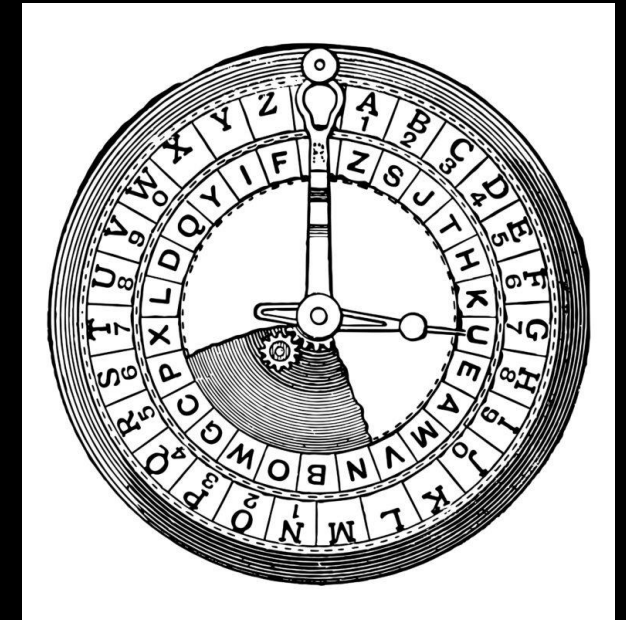
where letters of **plaintext** are **replaced** by other **letters** or by **numbers** or symbols



or if **plaintext** is viewed as a **sequence** of **bits**, then **substitution** involves **replacing plaintext** bit patterns with **ciphertext** bit patterns

# Caesar Cipher

- The **Caesar Cipher** is one of the **earliest** encryption techniques, **attributed** to **Gaius Julius Caesar**, involving **replacing** each letter in a text with **another** letter a **fixed number** of **positions** down the alphabet.
- For instance, shifting each letter by "1" would change **A** to **B** and **B** to **C**.
- Traditionally, the shift value is **3**, but any number of **shifts** can be applied.
- **Decryption** involves **reversing** the shift by the **same number of positions**.
- While the **Caesar Cipher** is not considered **strong encryption** due to its ease of **decoding**, it remains a part of **more complex encryption methods**.
- Despite its simplicity, this encryption was **valuable** during **Caesar's military campaigns**, preventing intercepted messages from **being** easily understood by **adversaries**.



# 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
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
n	o	p	q	r	s	t	u	v	w	x	y	z
13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25

- Then have Caesar cipher as:

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

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

plaintext letter  $p$ , substitute the ciphertext letter  $C$ ,  $k$  takes on a value in the range 1 to 25

# Monoalphabetic Techniques

# Monoalphabetic Cipher Security

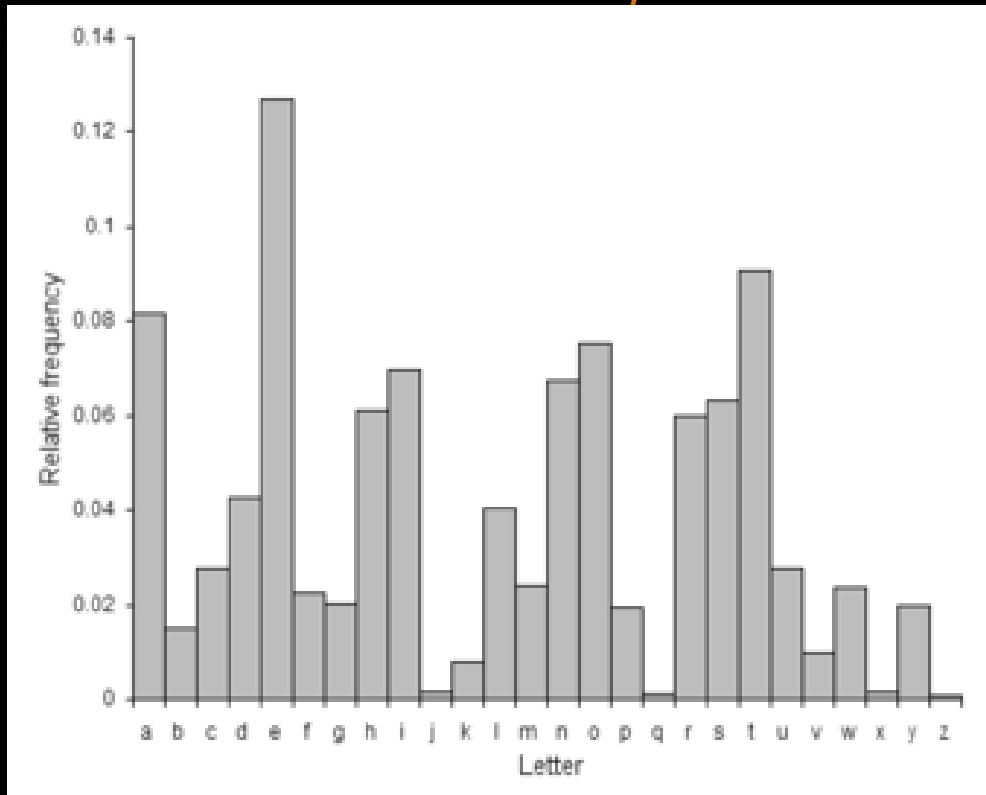
- Rather than just **shifting** the alphabet
- Could **shuffle** (jumble) the **letters arbitrarily**
- Each **plaintext letter** maps to a **different** random ciphertext letter
- Hence key is 26 letters long

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

Plaintext: if we wish to replace letters  
 Ciphertext: WI RF RWAJ UH YFTSDVF SFUUFYA

# Monoalphabetic Cipher Security

- The "cipher" line can be any **permutation** of the **26** alphabetic characters, then there are **26!** or **greater than  $4 \times 10^{26}$**  possible keys.
- With so **many keys**, might think is secure
- but it would be **!!!WRONG!!!**



- The problem is language **characteristics**
- We don't actually need all the **letters** in order to understand written **English text**.
- Human languages are **redundant**
- 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

# Example Cryptanalysis

Given ciphertext:

UZQSOVUOHXMOPVGPOZPEVSGZWSZOPFPESXUDBMET  
 SXAI ZVUEPHZHMDZSHZOWSFPAPPDTSVPQUZWYMXUZ  
 UHSXEPYEPOPDZSZUFPOMBZWPFUPZHMDJUDTMOHMQ

- Count relative letter frequencies

P 13.33	H 5.83	F 3.33	B 1.67	C 0.00
Z 11.67	D 5.00	W 3.33	G 1.67	K 0.00
S 8.33	E 5.00	Q 2.50	Y 1.67	L 0.00
U 8.33	V 4.17	T 2.50	I 0.83	N 0.00
O 7.50	X 4.17	A 1.67	J 0.83	R 0.00
M 6.67				

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
2	2	0	6	6	4	2	7	1	1	0	0	8	0	9	16	3	0	10	3	0	5	4	5	2	14

- 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

# Other Techniques

- 1. Playfair Cipher
- 2. Hill Cipher
- 3. Polyalphabetic Ciphers
- 4. One-Time Pad

# Transposition Ciphers

# Transposition Ciphers



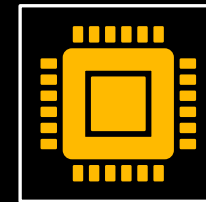
Previously discussed techniques examined so far involve the **substitution** of a **ciphertext** symbol for a plaintext symbol.



A very **different kind** of mapping is achieved by performing some sort of **permutation** on the **plaintext** letters.



This technique is referred to as a **transposition** cipher and forms the **second** basic **building** block of ciphers.



The core idea is to **rearrange** the order of basic units (**letters/bytes/bits**) without **altering** their actual values.

# Rail Fence Cipher

- The **rail fence** technique is one of the **simplest** transposition ciphers used for **encryption**.
- In this **method**, the plaintext **message** is arranged in a **zigzag pattern** across multiple "**rails**" or **rows**.
- For instance, to encrypt the message "**meet me after the toga party**" using a rail **fence depth** of **2**, the plaintext is written **diagonally** across two rows.

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

- The encrypted ciphertext is then formed by reading the characters **row** by **row**.
- This technique provides a **basic level** of encryption but may **not** be secure against **advanced cryptanalysis methods**.

MEMATRHTGPRYETEFETEOAAT

# Row Transposition Ciphers

- A more complex method **involves arranging** the message in a **rectangular grid**, filling it **row by row**.
- The ciphertext is then **generated** by **reading** the **grid column** by **column**, with the order of **columns** altered according to a **predetermined** key.

## ▪ Example

- Plain text: Attack postponed until two am      Key 3 4 2 1 5 6 7

Column number:	1	2	3	4	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

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

- then reorder the columns **according** to some key **before reading off** the rows
  - Ciphertext: **TTNAAPTMTSUOAODWCOIXKNLYPETZ**

# Rotor Machines

# Rotor Machines

- Before modern **ciphers**, **rotor machines** were most common **complex ciphers** in use
- Widely used in **WW2**

## German Enigma



Source: [Enigma machine - Wikipedia](#)

- Implemented a very complex, varying **substitution** cipher
- Used a series of **cylinders**, each giving one **substitution**, which **rotated** and **changed** after each letter was encrypted
- With 3 cylinders have  **$26^3=17576$**  alphabets

## Allied Hagelin



Source: [Hagelin BC-543 \(cryptomuseum.com\)](#)

## Japanese Purple



Secrets Abroad: A History of the Japanese Purple Machine - Wonders & Marvels ([wondersandmarvels.com](#))

# 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

- The terms **diffusion** and **confusion** were introduced by Claude Shannon to capture the **two basic building blocks** for any cryptographic system.
- Every **block** cipher involves a transformation of a **block of plaintext** into a **block of ciphertext**, where the transformation depends on the key.
- The **mechanism of diffusion** seeks to make the **statistical relationship** between the **plaintext** and **ciphertext** as **complex** as possible in order to **thwart attempts** to deduce the key.
- Confusion seeks to make the relationship between the **statistics** of the **ciphertext** and the value of the **encryption key** as **complex as possible**, again to **thwart attempts to discover the key**.
- So successful are **diffusion** and **confusion** in capturing the essence of the desired attributes of a block cipher that they have become the **cornerstone** of modern block cipher design.

# Feistel Cipher Structure

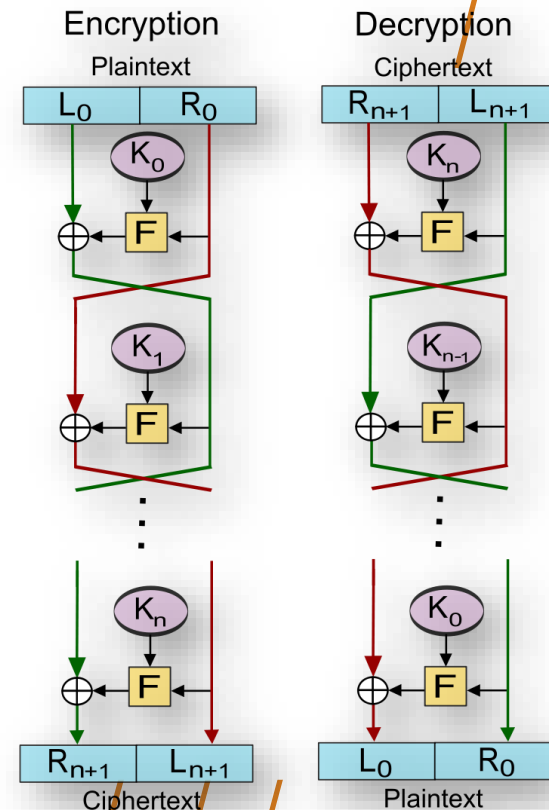
- Horst Feistel, working at **IBM Thomas J Watson Research Labs**, devised a suitable **invertible cipher structure** in the early 70's.
- One of Feistel's main contributions was the **invention** of a **suitable structure** that adapted **Shannon's S-P** network in an easily inverted structure.
- It **partitions** the **input block** into **two halves**, which are processed **through multiple rounds** that perform a **substitution** on the **left data half**, based on the **round function** of the **right half** & **subkey**, and then have **permutation swapping halves**.
- Essentially the same **h/w** or **s/w** is used for **both encryption** and **decryption**, with just a **slight change** in how the **keys are used**.
- One layer of **S-boxes** and the following **P-box** are used to form the round function.



# Feistel Cipher Encryption/Decryption

The exact realization of a Feistel network depends on the choice of the following parameters and design features:

- **block size** - increasing size improves security but slows cipher
- **key size** - increasing size improves security, makes exhaustive key searching harder, but may slow cipher
- **number of rounds** - increasing the number improves security, but slows cipher
- **subkey generation** algorithm - greater complexity can make analysis harder, but slows cipher
- **round function** - greater complexity can make analysis harder, but slows cipher
- **fast software en/decryption** - more recent concern for practical use
- **ease of analysis** - for easier validation & testing of strength



# DES Algorithm - Symmetric Cipher

# DES Decryption

The **Data Encryption Standard (DES)** is a block cipher widely used for **data security**, characterized by a **56-bit** key length.

Despite its historical significance, **DES** has faced increasing vulnerabilities to **powerful attacks over time**.

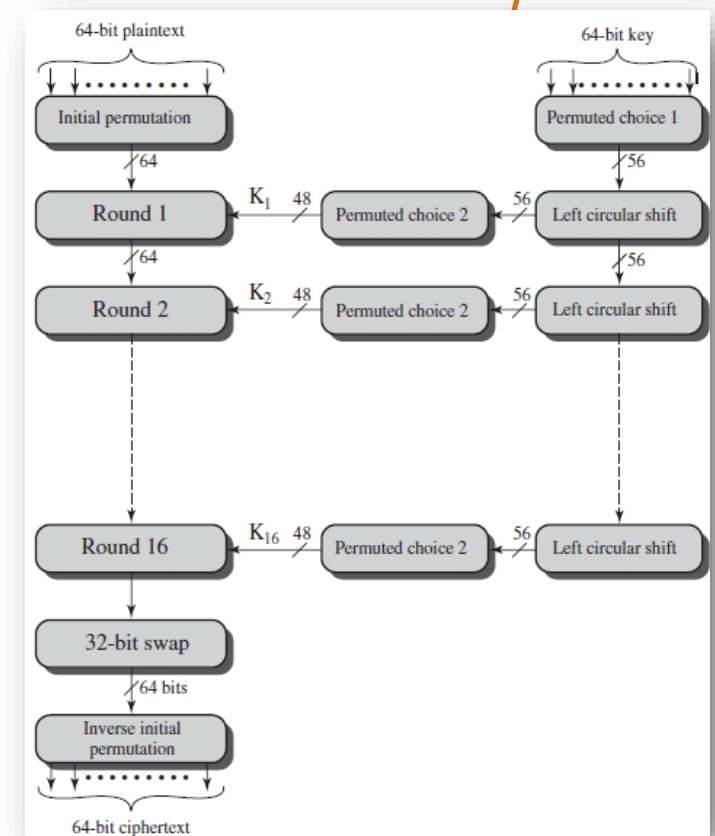
Consequently, the popularity of **DES** has declined due to these security concerns.

DES operates by encrypting data in blocks of **64 bits** each, meaning that **64 bits** of **plaintext** are inputted to produce **64** bits of ciphertext.

Both **encryption** and **decryption** processes in DES utilize the same **algorithm** and **key**, with **minor** differences.

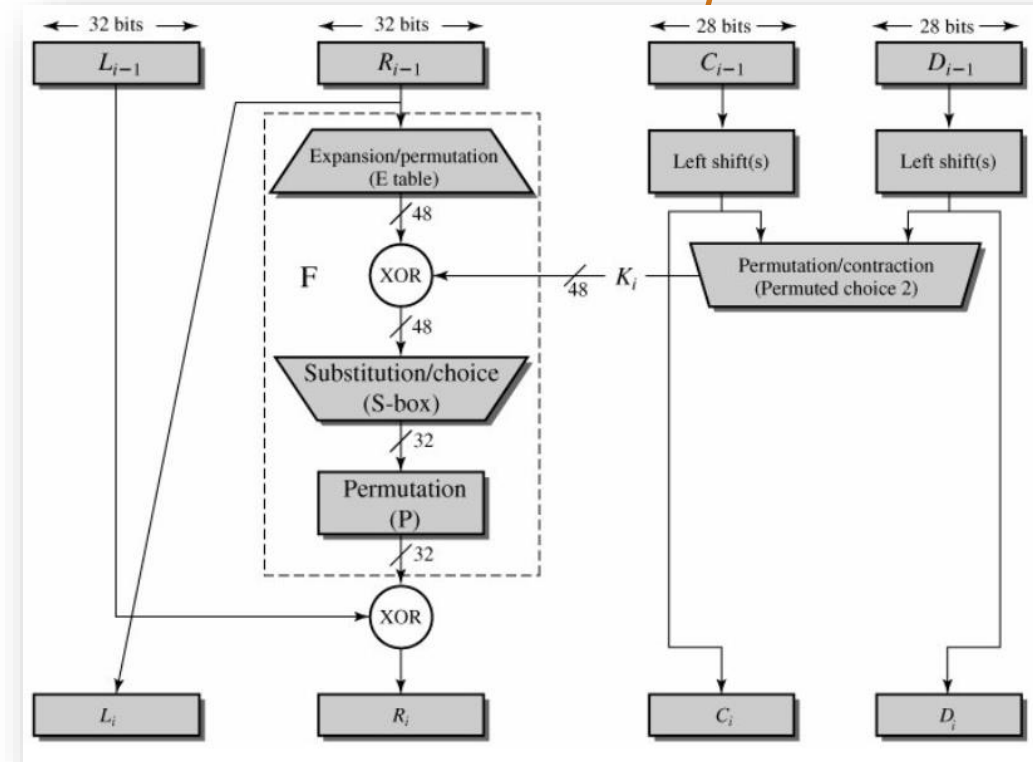
The key length in DES is fixed at **56 bits**.

The function expects a **64-bit** key as input. However, only **56** of these bits are ever used; the other 8 bits can be used as parity bits or simply set arbitrarily



# DES Round Structure

- uses two **32-bit L & R** halves
  - as for any Feistel cipher can describe as:
    - $L_i = R_{i-1}$
    - $R_i = L_{i-1} \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_i)$
  - 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



# Strength of DES – Key Size

- **56-bit** keys have  $2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$  values
- **Brute force** search looks hard
- However **DES** was finally and definitively proved **insecure** in **July 1998**, when the **Electronic Frontier Foundation (EFF)** announced that it had broken a DES encryption using a special-purpose "**DES cracker**" machine that was built for less than **\$250,000**.
- The attack took **less than three days**.
- We must clearly consider **alternatives** to **DES**, the most important of which are **AES** and **triple DES**.

# DES vs Triple DES (3DES)

- **Triple DES (TDES or 3DES)** is an encryption algorithm that applies the **Data Encryption Standard (DES)** cipher **three times** successively to encrypt data.
- While DES performs encryption in **16** rounds for each **data block**, **3DES increases** the number of rounds to **48**, enhancing its cryptographic strength.
- Despite being somewhat **stronger** than **DES**, **3DES** has demonstrated **vulnerabilities** in **securing** data transmissions.
- Due to its **susceptibility** to **brute force attacks**, the **National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)** has **officially prohibited** the use of **3DES beyond 2023**.
- As a result, the **cryptography community** has shifted its **focus** towards the **Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)** as a more secure **alternative** to **3DES**.

# Asymmetric Encryption

# What is Asymmetric Encryption?

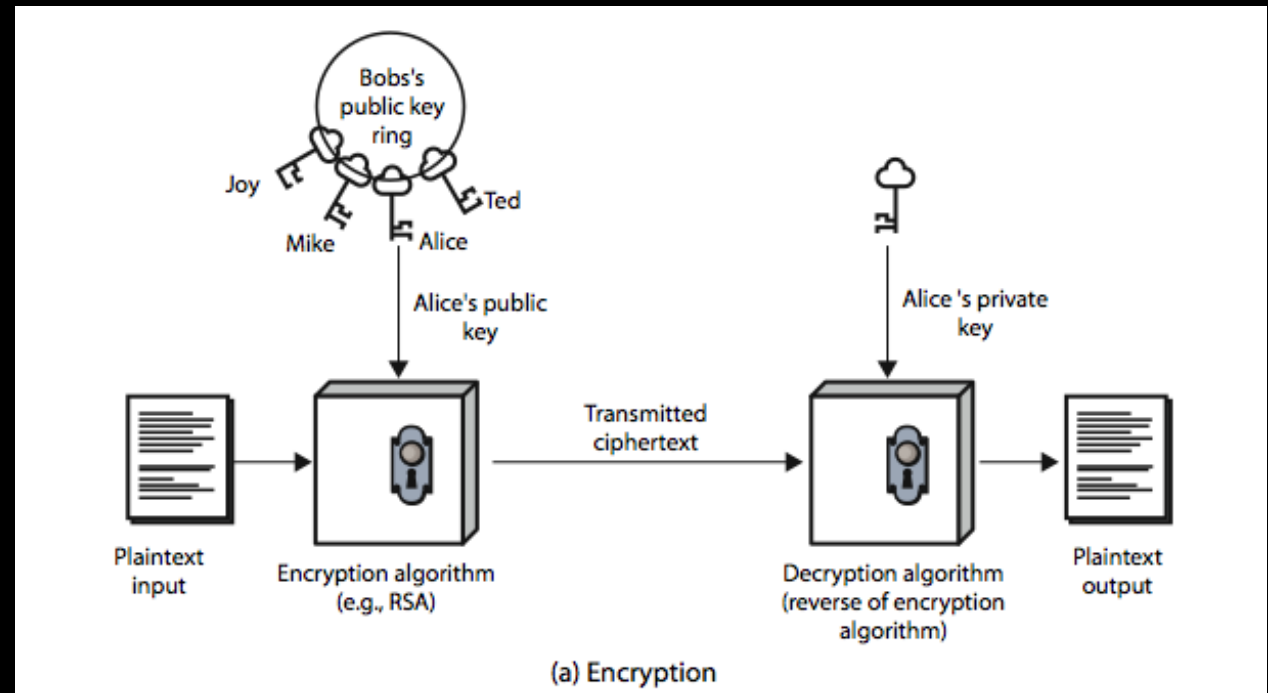
- **Asymmetric encryption**, or **public-key cryptography**, utilizes **two keys** – a **public key**, **shared openly**, and a **private key**, **kept secret**. This method allows for **secure data transmission** without a **shared secret key**.
- The **sender employs** the recipient's **public key** to **encrypt the data**, while the recipient uses their **private key** for **decryption**, ensuring secure communication.
- **Unlike** symmetric encryption, which requires the **exchange of secret keys**, **asymmetric encryption eliminates this need**, simplifying the process, especially in **multi-party** communication.
- Additionally, **asymmetric encryption enables** the **creation** of **digital signatures**, crucial for **verifying data authenticity**.
- Common applications of asymmetric encryption include **secure online communication**, **digital signatures**, and **secure data transfer**.
- Examples of asymmetric encryption algorithms include **RSA**, **Diffie-Hellman**, and **Elliptic Curve Cryptography (ECC)**.

# Advantages of Asymmetric Encryption

- **Enhanced Security:** Unlike **symmetric encryption**, where **one key** is used for both **encryption** and **decryption**, asymmetric encryption utilizes **different keys** for each process. The **private key**, used for **decryption**, **remains secret**, making it **challenging for attackers** to **intercept** and **decrypt data**.
- **Authentication:** **Asymmetric encryption** facilitates **authentication** by allowing the **receiver** to verify the **sender's identity**. The **sender encrypts** a **message with their private key**, which can only be decrypted using their **public key**. **Successful decryption confirms** the **sender's identity**.
- **Non-repudiation:** Asymmetric encryption **ensures non-repudiation**, preventing the **sender** from **denying sending a message** or **altering** its content. **Messages encrypted** with the **sender's private key** can only be **decrypted with their public key**, providing assurance of the sender's identity and message integrity.
- **Key Distribution:** Unlike **symmetric encryption**, which requires a secure **key distribution** system, **asymmetric encryption** eliminates this need. The public key can be **openly shared**, while the **private key remains** secret, simplifying key management.
- **Versatility:** Asymmetric encryption finds applications in various **fields**, including secure **email communication**, **online banking transactions**, **e-commerce**, and securing SSL/TLS connections for **internet traffic**.

# Public-Key Cryptography

A public-key encryption scheme has six ingredients: plaintext, encryption algorithm, public & private keys, ciphertext & decryption algorithm.



# Public-Key Applications

Can classify uses into 3 categories:

- **Encryption/decryption:** The sender **encrypts** a message with the **recipient's public key**.
- **Digital Signatures:** The sender "**signs**" a message with its **private key**, either to the **whole message** or to a **small block of data** that is a function of the message.
- **Key Exchange:** Two sides cooperate to exchange a **session key**. Several different approaches are possible involving the **private key(s)** of **one** or **both** parties.

Some **algorithms** are suitable for all **three applications**, whereas others can be used only for one or two of these applications.

# Security of Public Key Schemes

- Like **private key** schemes brute force **exhaustive search** attack is always theoretically possible
- But keys used are **too large (>512bits)**
- Security relies on a **large enough** difference in difficulty between **easy (en/decrypt)** and **hard (cryptanalysis)** problems
- More generally the **hard** problem is known, but is made hard enough to be **impractical** to break
- Requires the use of **very large numbers**
- Hence is **slow** compared to **private key schemes**

# RSA Algorithm – Asymmetric Cipher

# RSA

- RSA is the best known, and by far the most widely used **general public key encryption algorithm**, and was first published by **Rivest, Shamir & Adleman** of MIT in **1978**.
- Since that time, RSA has reigned supreme as the **most widely accepted** and implemented **general-purpose** approach to **public-key encryption**.
- Uses large integers (eg. **1024** bits).
- Its security is due to the cost of factoring large numbers.
- **Prime Numbers** play an essential role in **RSA**.
- If we have the number **30**, which numbers can be multiplied to give the same result?
  - $15 \times 2$
  - $3 \times 10$
  - $5 \times 6$
  - So we have multiple options to reach 30.
- However, if I repeat the same question with **35**.
- **$5 \times 7$**  is the only answer, according to "**A prime number is a natural number greater than 1 that has no positive integer divisors other than 1 and itself.**"

# RSA Idea

- The **RSA encryption scheme** is founded on the challenge of **factoring large integers**, making it hard to **decipher**.
- Public keys in **RSA** comprise **two numbers**, one of which is the product of **two large prime numbers**, while the **private key** is derived from the **same primes**.
- Security in RSA hinges on the difficulty of factoring the large number, ensuring **private key protection**.
- Encryption strength is **directly proportional** to the **key size**, with **doubling** or **tripling** exponentially **increasing** encryption **robustness**.
- RSA keys are typically **1024** or **2048** bits in length, with concerns over the **vulnerability** of **1024-bit** keys in the future.
- Despite **experts' predictions**, breaking **1024-bit keys** remains an **unfeasible** task at present.

# The Crucial Roles of RSA in Internet Security

- RSA plays two crucial roles in today's internet.
  - Firstly, it's used in over **90% of internet connections** during the **SSL handshake**, which initiates secure communication.
  - This handshake is a key moment where an **attack** could **jeopardize** the **entire session**, potentially **exposing** sensitive **information** such as **personal data**, **financial records**, and **intellectual property**.
  - Another critical function of RSA is generating cryptographic **digital signatures**. These signatures are used for various purposes, such as **authenticating emails**, **documents**, and **software updates**. When a **file** or **program** is **digitally signed**, it is trusted by **computers** and **mobile** devices. Failure at this point could lead to serious consequences.

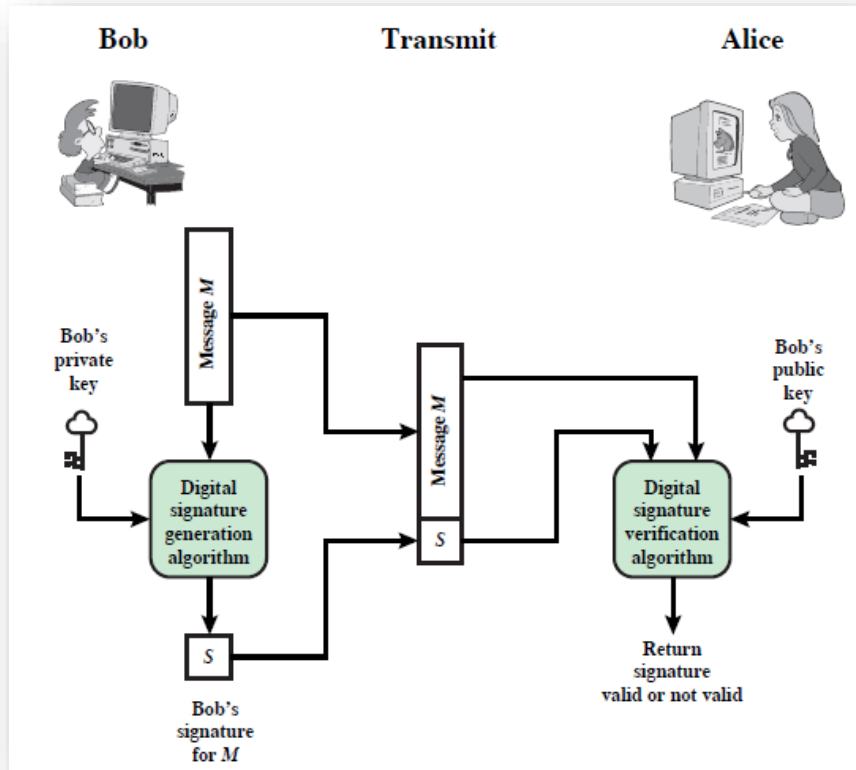
# Digital Signature

# Digital Signature

- The most important development from the work on public-key cryptography is the digital signature.
- A digital signature is **analogous to a handwritten** signature and provides a set of **security capabilities** that would be difficult to implement in any other way.
- A **digital signature** serves as an **authentication** method, allowing the message creator to **attach a code functioning as a signature**.
- It is generated by hashing the message and then encrypting it with the **creator's private key**.
- The signature **ensures** the message's **source** and **integrity**.

# Digital Signature Model

- Bob can generate a **digital signature** for a message using an algorithm.
- This process involves **Bob's private key** and the message as **inputs**.
- Other users, like **Alice**, can verify the **signature**.
- Verification requires the **message, signature**, and **Bob's public key** as **inputs**.



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# Thank you

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