A Working Intro to Cryptography

Illustrated with Python

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There are two further types of symmetric keys: stream and block ciphers. Stream ciphers operate on data streams, i.e. one byte at a time. Block ciphers operate on blocks of data, typically 16 bytes at a time. The most common block cipher and the standard one you should use unless you have a very good reason to use another one is the AES¹ block cipher, also documented in FIPS PUB 197². AES is a specific subset of the Rijndael cipher. AES uses block size of 128-bits (16 bytes); data should be padded out to fit the block size - the length of the data block must be multiple of the block size. For example, given an input of ABCDABCDABCD ABCDABCDABCD an additional 4 bytes of padding would need to be done. However, given ABCDABCDABCD ABCDABCDABCD an additional 4 bytes of padding would need to be added. A common padding scheme is to use 0x80 as the first byte of padding, with 0x00 bytes filling out the rest of the padding. With padding, the previous example would look like: ABCDABCDABCDABCD ABCDABCDABCD\x80\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00\x00.

Here's our padding function:

```
def pad_data(data):
        # return data if no padding is required
 2
        if len(data) % 16 == 0:
 3
            return data
 4
 5
        # subtract one byte that should be the 0x80
        # if 0 bytes of padding are required, it means only
 7
        # a single \x 80 is required.
8
9
10
        padding_required
                              = 15 - (len(data) \% 16)
11
12
        data = '%s\x80' % data
13
        data = '%s%s' % (data, '\x00' * padding_required)
14
15
        return data
```

Our function to remove padding is similar:

 $^{{\}bf ^1} https://secure.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/wiki/Advanced_Encryption_Standard$

²http://csrc.nist.gov/publications/fips/fips197/fips-197.pdf

```
def unpad_data(data):
    if not data:
        return data

data = data.rstrip('\x00')
    if data[-1] == '\x80':
        return data[:-1]

else:
    return data
```

Encryption with a block cipher requires selecting a block mode³. By far the most common mode used is **cipher block chaining** or *CBC* mode. Other modes include *counter (CTR)*, *cipher feedback (CFB)*, and the extremely insecure *electronic codebook (ECB)*. CBC mode is the standard and is well-vetted, so I will stick to that in this tutorial. Cipher block chaining works by XORing the previous block of ciphertext with the current block. You might recognise that the first block has nothing to be XOR'd with; enter the *initialisation vector*⁴. This comprises a number of randomly-generated bytes of data the same size as the cipher's block size. This initialisation vector should random enough that it cannot be recovered.

One of the most critical components to encryption is properly generating random data. Fortunately, most of this is handled by the PyCrypto library's Crypto.Random.OSRNG module. You should know that the more entropy sources that are available (such as network traffic and disk activity), the faster the system can generate cryptographically-secure random data. I've written a function that can generate a *nonce*⁵ suitable for use as an initialisation vector. This will work on a UNIX machine; the comments note how easy it is to adapt it to a Windows machine. This function requires a version of PyCrypto at least 2.1.0 or higher.

```
import Crypto.Random.OSRNG.posix as RNG

def generate_nonce():
    """Generate a random number used once."""
    return RNG.new().read(AES.block_size)
```

I will note here that the python random module is completely unsuitable for cryptography (as it is completely deterministic). You shouldn't use it for cryptographic code.

Symmetric ciphers are so-named because the key is shared across any entities. There are three key sizes for AES: 128-bit, 192-bit, and 256-bit, aka 16-byte, 24-byte, and 32-byte key sizes. Instead, we just need to generate 32 random bytes (and make sure we keep track of it) and use that as the key:

³https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Block_cipher_mode

⁴https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Initialization_vector

⁵https://secure.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/en/wiki/Cryptographic_nonce

```
1 KEYSIZE = 32
2
3
4 def generate_key():
5    return RNG.new().read(KEY_SIZE)
```

We can use this key to encrypt and decrypt data. To encrypt, we need the initialisation vector (i.e. a nonce), the key, and the data. However, the IV isn't a secret. When we encrypt, we'll prepend the IV to our encrypted data and make that part of the output. We can (and should) generate a completely random IV for each new message.

```
import Crypto.Cipher.AES as AES
1
 2
    def encrypt(data, key):
3
 4
5
        Encrypt data using AES in CBC mode. The IV is prepended to the
        ciphertext.
 6
        n n n
 7
8
        data = pad_data(data)
        ivec = generate_nonce()
9
        aes = AES.new(key, AES.MODE_CBC, ivec)
10
        ctxt = aes.encrypt(data)
11
        return ivec + ctxt
12
13
14
    def decrypt(ciphertext, key):
15
16
        Decrypt a ciphertext encrypted with AES in CBC mode; assumes the IV
17
        has been prepended to the ciphertext.
18
19
        if len(ciphertext) <= AES.block_size:</pre>
20
21
            raise Exception("Invalid ciphertext.")
        ivec = ciphertext[:AES.block_size]
22
        ciphertext = ciphertext[AES.block_size:]
23
        aes = AES.new(key, AES.MODE_CBC, ivec)
24
        data = aes.decrypt(ciphertext)
25
26
        return unpad_data(data)
```

However, this is only part of the equation for securing messages: AES only gives us confidentiality. Remember how we had a few other criteria? We still need to add integrity and authenticity to our process. Readers with some experience might immediately think of hashing algorithms, like MD5 (which should be avoided like the plague) and SHA. The problem with these is that they are

malleable: it is easy to change a digest produced by one of these algorithms, and there is no indication it's been changed. We need, a hash function that uses a key to generate the digest; the one we'll use is called HMAC. We do not want the same key used to encrypt the message; we should have a new, freshly generated key that is the same size as the digest's output size (although in many cases, this will be overkill).

In order to encrypt properly, then, we need to modify our code a bit. The first thing you need to know is that HMAC is based on a particular SHA function. Since we're using AES-256, we'll use SHA-384. We say our message tags are computed using HMAC-SHA-384. This produces a 48-byte digest. Let's add a few new constants in, and update the KEYSIZE variable:

```
\underline{\phantom{a}}aes_keylen = 32
   _{tag_keylen} = 48
   KEYSIZE = __aes_keylen + __tag_keylen
    Now, let's add message tagging in:
    import Crypto.Hash.HMAC as HMAC
1
    import Crypto.Hash.SHA384 as SHA384
2
3
 4
    def new_tag(ciphertext, key):
5
        """Compute a new message tag using HMAC-SHA-384."""
 6
        return HMAC.new(key, msg=ciphertext, digestmod=SHA384).digest()
 7
    Here's our updated encrypt function:
1
    def encrypt(data, key):
 2
        Encrypt data using AES in CBC mode. The IV is prepended to the
 3
        ciphertext.
 4
        n n n
5
        data = pad_data(data)
 6
        ivec = generate_nonce()
 7
        aes = AES.new(key[:__aes_keylen], AES.MODE_CBC, ivec)
8
9
        ctxt = aes.encrypt(data)
        tag = new_tag(ivec + ctxt, key[__aes_keylen:])
10
        return ivec + ctxt + tag
11
```

Decryption has a snag: what we want to do is check to see if the message tag matches what we think it should be. However, the Python == operator stops matching on the first character it finds that doesn't match. This opens a verification based on the == operator to a timing attack. Without going into much detail, note that several cryptosystems have fallen prey to this exact attack; the keyczar system, for example, use the == operator and suffered an attack on the system. We'll use the streq1 package (i.e. pip instal1 streq1) to perform a constant-time comparison of the tags.

```
import streq1
1
2
3
 4
    def verify_tag(ciphertext, key):
        """Verify the tag on a ciphertext."""
5
        tag_start = len(ciphertext) - __taglen
6
        data = ciphertext[:tag_start]
        tag = ciphertext[tag_start:]
8
9
        actual_tag = new_tag(data, key)
        return streql.equals(actual_tag, tag)
10
```

We'll also change our decrypt function to return a tuple: the original message (or None on failure), and a boolean that will be True if the tag was authenticated and the message decrypted

```
def decrypt(ciphertext, key):
1
        11 11 11
 2
        Decrypt a ciphertext encrypted with AES in CBC mode; assumes the IV
 3
        has been prepended to the ciphertext.
 4
        .....
 5
 6
        if len(ciphertext) <= AES.block_size:</pre>
            return None, False
        tag_start = len(ciphertext) - __TAG_LEN
8
        ivec = ciphertext[:AES.block_size]
9
        data = ciphertext[AES.block_size:tag_start]
10
        if not verify_tag(ciphertext, key[__AES_KEYLEN:]):
11
12
            return None, False
13
        aes = AES.new(key[:__AES_KEYLEN], AES.MODE_CBC, ivec)
        data = aes.decrypt(data)
14
        return unpad_data(data), True
15
```

We could also generate a key using a passphrase; to do so, you should use a key derivation algorithm, such as PBKDF2⁶. A function to derive a key from a passphrase will also need to store the salt that goes with the passphrase. PBKDf2 takes three arguments: the passphrase, the salt, and the number of iterations to run through. The currently recommended minimum number of iterations in 16384; this is a sensible default for programs using PBKDF2.

What is a salt? A salt is a randomly generated value used to make sure the output of two runs of PBKDF2 are unique for the same passphrase. Generally, this should be a minimum of 16 bytes (128-bits).

Here are two functions to generate a random salt and generate a secret key from PBKDF2:

⁶https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pbkdf2

```
import pbkdf2
1
    def generate_salt(salt_len):
2
        """Generate a salt for use with PBKDF2."""
3
        return RNG.new().read(salt_len)
4
5
6
    def password_key(passphrase, salt=None):
        """Generate a key from a passphrase. Returns the tuple (salt, key)."""
8
9
        if salt is None:
10
            salt = generate_salt(16)
        passkey = pbkdf2.PBKDF2(passphrase, salt, iterations=16384).read(KEYSIZE)
11
        return salt, passkey
12
```

Keep in mind that the salt, while a public and non-secret value, must be present to recover the key. To generate a new key, pass None as the salt value, and a random salt will be generated. To recover the same key from the passphrase, the salt must be provided (and it must be the same salt generated when the passphrase key is generated). As an example, the salt could be provided as the first len(salt) bytes of the ciphertext.

That should cover the basics of block cipher encryption. We've gone over key generation, padding, and encryption / decryption. This code has been packaged up in the example source directory as secretkey.