

Introduction to Cryptography

Slide 1

Definition

- process data into unintelligible form, reversibly, without data loss \Rightarrow typically digitally
- usually one-to-one in size \leftrightarrow compression
- analog cryptography: voice changers, shredder
- other services:
 - integrity checking: no tampering
 - authentication: not an impostor



Slide 2

Cryptography Caveats

- Cannot *prove* that code is secure \implies assume until otherwise
but: can prove (some) systems/protocols secure (assuming secure code)
- Difficult to explain algorithm securely \implies Cryptographic system = algorithm
(published or secret) + secret value (*key*)
- Assume Trudy has algorithm

Slide 3

Computational Difficulty

- algorithm needs to be efficient \implies may use inefficient for short key
- brute-force cryptanalysis: try all keys until “looks like” plaintext
- any scheme can be broken \implies depends on $\$ = f(t)$
- longer key \implies more secure:
 - encryption: $O(N + 1)$
 - brute-force cryptanalysis: $O(2^{N+1}) \implies$ twice as hard
- cryptanalysis tools:
 - special-purpose hardware
 - parallel machines
 - Internet coarse-grain parallelism
 - ...

Slide 4

Secret Key vs. Secret Algorithm

- secret algorithm \implies additional hurdle
- hard to keep secret if widely used: reverse engineering, social engineering
- commercial: published \implies wide review, trust
- military: avoid giving enemy good ideas (not just messages)

Slide 5

Trivial Codes

Caesar cipher: substitution cipher: $A \rightarrow D, B \rightarrow E$

Captain Midnight secret Decoder ring: shift by variable n : IBM \implies HAL \implies only 26 possibilities

monoalphabetic cipher: generalization \implies arbitrary mapping letter to letter \implies $26! = 4 \cdot 10^{26}$ possibilities \implies statistical analysis of letter frequencies \implies larger codebook

Slide 6

Cryptanalysis

Ciphertext only: ▶ exhaustive search until “recognizable plaintext” (unless limited base set) ▶ need enough ciphertext

Known plaintext: secret may be revealed (by spy, time) ▶ pair (ciphertext, plaintext)
 ▶ great for monoalphabetic ciphers

Chosen plaintext: choose text, get encrypted ▶ useful if limited set of messages or initial strings

Slide 7

Some Large Numbers

Time to next ice age	14,000 yrs
DES 56 bits	$7 \cdot 10^{16}$ keys
probability of MD5 collision	$1/3 \cdot 10^{38}$
Age of planet	10^9 yrs
Time until sun goes nova	10^{14} yrs
Age of universe	10^{10} yrs
Number of atoms in universe	10^{77}

Slide 8

Brute Force Attacks

- Number of encryptions/sec: 1 million to 1 billion bits/sec
- 1999: 56-bit key broken in 22.5 h with 1,800 chips (\$250,000) ($245 \cdot 10^9$ keys/s, see eff.org); helped by distributed.net
- 1995: 56-bit key broken in 1 week with 120,000 processors (\$6.7M)
- 56-bit key broken in 1 month with 28,000 processors (\$1.6M)
- 64-bit key broken in 1 week with $3.1 \cdot 10^7$ processors (\$1.7B)
- 128-bit key broken in 1 week with $5.6 \cdot 10^{26}$ processors
- Chinese Lottery:
With machines that test at the rate of a million keys every second, take 64 seconds to break DES with a billion such machines running in parallel.

Slide 9

- DES'osaur:
With suitable advances in biotechnology, a 10^{14} celled DES'osaur can break DES in 0.2 secs.

Slide 10

Types of Cryptography

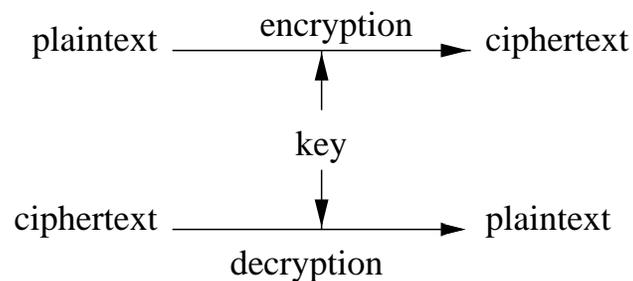
hash functions: no key

secret key cryptography: one key

public key cryptography: two keys – public, private

Slide 11

Secret Key Cryptography



- ciphertext \approx same length as plaintext
- symmetric cryptography
- substitution codes, DES, IDEA

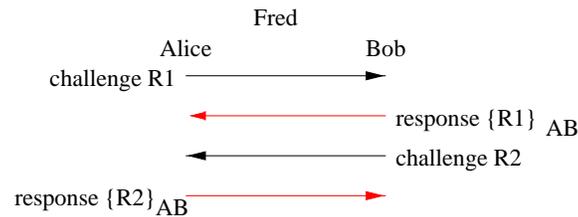
Message transmission: agree on key (how?), communicate over insecure channel

Secure storage: crypt \rightsquigarrow dangerous, no indication of trouble, no redundancy

Slide 12

Strong Authentication

= prove knowledge of key without revealing it



- Fred: obtain chosen plaintext, ciphertext pairs
- not completely secure!

Integrity check = fixed-length checksum for message

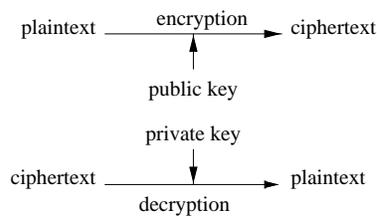
CRC not sufficient \implies easy to pick new message with same CRC

encrypt MIC (*message integrity check*)

Slide 13

Public Key Cryptography

- asymmetric cryptography
- publicly invented in 1975
- two keys: private (d), public (e)
- much slower than secret key cryptography



Slide 14

Public Key Cryptography

Data transmission:

Alice		Bob	
encrypt m_A using e_B	\longrightarrow	decrypt to m_A using d_B	
decrypt to m_B using d_A	\longleftarrow	encrypt m_B using e_A	

Storage: safety copy: use public key of trusted person

Authentication: • secret keys: need secret key for every person to communicate with

- secret key: Alice could share key with enemies of Bob
- need to store no secrets:

Alice		Bob	
encrypt r using e_B	\longrightarrow	decrypt to r using d_B	
	\longleftarrow	r	

Slide 15

Digital Signatures

encrypt *hash* $h(m)$ with private key \rightsquigarrow

- doesn't reveal text \rightsquigarrow semi-trusted party
- authorship
- integrity
- non-repudiation: can't do with secret-key cryptography

Slide 16

Hash Algorithms

- = *message digest*, one-way transformation $h(m)$
- $\text{length}(h(m)) \ll \text{length}(m)$
- usually fixed lengths: 48 – 128 bits
- easy to compute $h(m)$
- given $h(m)$ but not m , no easy way to find m
- computationally infeasible to find m_1, m_2 with $h(m_1) = h(m_2)$
- example: $(m + c)^2$, take middle digits

Slide 17

Password Hashing

- don't need to know password to verify it
- \Rightarrow store $h(p + s)$, s , with *salt* s
- salt makes dictionary attack more difficult
- compare entry with $h(p + s)$
- password file could be world-readable
- Unix: non-standard DES, 4096 salt values

Slide 18

Message Integrity using Hash

- agree on password
- compute $h(m|p)$, send m
- doesn't require encryption algorithm \implies exportable!
- virus protection, downline load, Java applets: $h(\text{program})$ with *secure* program on write-once storage

Slide 19