Introduction to Cryptography

Lecture 1

Benny Pinkas

November 1, 2006

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Administrative Details

- Grade
 - Exam 75%
 - Homework 25% (might include programming)
- Office hours: Wednesday, 12-13.
- Email: benny@cs.haifa.ac.il
- Web page: http://www.pinkas.net/courses/itc/2006/index.html
- Goal: Learn the basics of modern cryptography
- Method: introductory, applied, precise.

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Bibliography

Textbook:

Cryptography Theory and Practice, Second (or third)
 edition by D. Stinson. (Also, של בעברית של למידה בעברית של)

Optional:

- Handbook of Applied Cryptography, by A. Menezes, P. Van Oorschot, S. Vanstone. (Free!)
- Introduction to Cryptography Applied to Secure Communication and Commerce, by Amir Herzberg. (Free!)
- Applied Cryptography, by B. Schneier.

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In the Library

- In the "reserved books" section:
- Four copies of
 - Cryptography :theory and practice / Douglas R. Stinson
 - Introduction to cryptography :principles and applications /Hans Delfs, Helmut Knebl
 - Foundations of cryptography / Oded Goldreich
- One copy of
 - Handbook of applied cryptography / Alfred J. Menezes et al. (also available online)
 - Applied cryptography / Bruce Schneier

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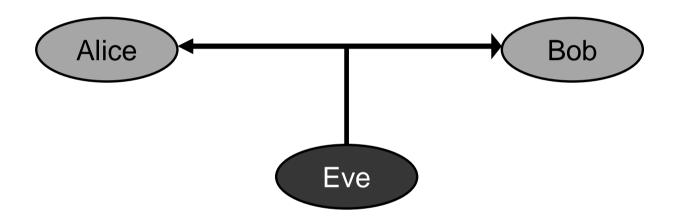
Course Outline

- Course Outline
 - Data secrecy: encryption
 - Symmetric encryption
 - Asymmetric (public key) encryption
 - Data Integrity: authentication, digital signatures.
 - Required background in number theory
 - Cryptographic protocols

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Encryption

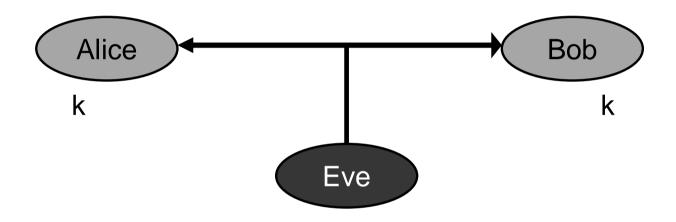


- •Two parties: Alice and Bob
- •Reliable communication link
- •Goal: send a message m while hiding it from Eve (as if they were both in the same room)

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Secret key

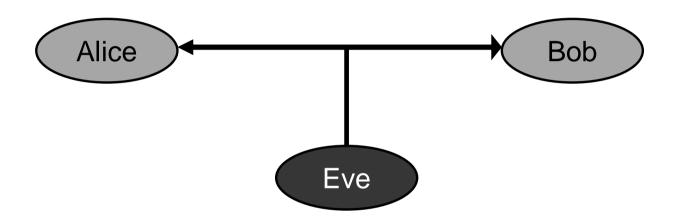


- Alice must have some secret information that Eve does not know. Otherwise...
- In symmetric encryption, Alice and Bob share a secret key k, which they use for encrypting and decrypting the message.

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Authentication / Signatures



•Goal:

- •Enable Bob to verify that Eve did not change messages sent by Alice
- •Enable Bob to prove to others the origin of messages sent by Alice
- (We'll discuss these issues in later classes)

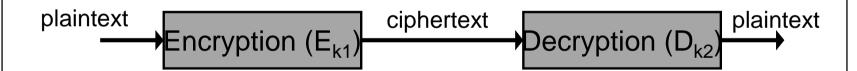
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Encryption

- Message space {m}
- Encryption key k₁, decryption key k₂
- Key generation algorithm
- Encryption function *E*
- Decryption function D

Define the encryption system



- For every message m
 - $-D_{k2}(E_{k1}(m)) = m$
 - I.e., the decryption of the encryption of *m* is *m*
- Symmetric encryption $k = k_1 = k_2$

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Security Goals

- (1) No adversary can determine *m* or, even better,
- (2) No adversary can determine any information about *m*
- Suppose m = "attack on Sunday, October 17, 2004".
- The adversary can at most learn that
 - m = "attack on S**day, Oct**er 17, 2004"
- Here, goal (1) is satisfied, but not goal (2)

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Adversarial Model

- Adversary Knows encryption and decryption algorithms E and D, and message space.
- Kerckhoff's Principle (1883):
 - The only thing Eve does not know is the secret key k
 - The design is public
 - Allows public scrutiny of the design
 - No need to replace the system if the design is exposed ⇒ no need to keep the design secret
 - Same design can be used for multiple applications
 - Focus on securing the key
 - Examples
 - Security by obscurity, Intel's HDCP ☺
 - DES, AES, SSL ☺

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Adversarial Power

- Types of attacks:
 - Ciphertext only attack ciphertext known to the adversary (eavesdropping)
 - Known plaintext attack plaintext and ciphertext are known to the adversary
 - Chosen plaintext attack the adversary can choose the plaintext and obtain its encryption (e.g. he has access to the encryption system)
 - Chosen ciphertext attack the adversary can choose the ciphertext and obtain its decryption
- Assume restrictions on the adversary's capabilities, but not that it is using specific attacks or strategies.

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Breaking the Enigma

- German cipher in WW II
- Kerckhoff's principle
- Known plaintext attack
- (somewhat) chosen plaintext attack



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Caesar Cipher

- A shift cipher
- Plaintext: "ATTACK AT DAWN"
- Ciphertext: "DWWDFN DW GDZQ"
- Key: $k \in_{\mathbb{R}} \{0,25\}$. (In this example k=3)
- More formally:
 - Key: $k \in \mathbb{R} \{0...25\}$, chosen at random.
 - Message space: English text (i.e., $\{0...25\}^{|m|}$)
 - Algorithm: ciphertext letter = plaintext letter + k mod 25
- Kerckhoff's principle
- Not a good idea

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Brute Force Attacks

- Brute force attack: adversary tests all key space and checks which key decrypts the message
- Caesar cipher: |key space| = 26
- We need a large key space
- Usually, the key is a bit string chosen uniformly at random from $\{0,1\}^{|k|}$. Implying $2^{|k|}$ equiprobable keys.
- How long should k be?
- The adversary should not be able to do 2^{|k|} decryption trials

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Adversary's computation power

- Theoretically
 - Adversary can perform poly(/k/) computation
 - Key space = $2^{|k|}$
- Practically
 - $-|\mathbf{k}| = 64$ is too short for a key length
 - $|\mathbf{k}| = 80$ starts to be reasonable
 - Why? (what can be done by 1000 computers in a year?)
 - $2^{55} = 2^{20}$ (ops per second)
 - x 2²⁰ (seconds in two weeks)
 - $x 2^5$ (\approx fortnights in a year) (might invest more than a year..)
 - x 2¹⁰ (computers in parallel)
- All this, assuming that the adversary cannot do better than a brute force attack

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Monoalphabetic Substitution cipher

A	В	С	D	E	F	G	Н		J	K	L	М	N	O	Р	Q	R	S	Т	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
Y	Α	Н	Р	0	G	Z	Q	W	В	Т	S	F	L	R	С	V	M	U	Е	K	J	D		X	N

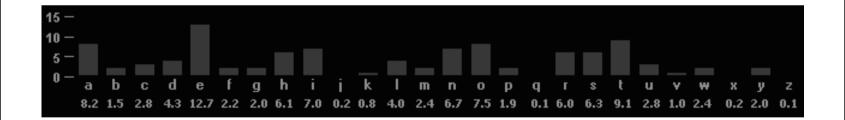
- Plaintext: "ATTACK AT DAWN"
- Ciphertext: "YEEYHT YE PYDL"
- More formally:
 - Plaintext space = ciphertext space = {0..25} |m|
 - Key space = 1-to-1 mappings of {0..25} (i.e., permutations)
 - Encryption: map each letter according to the key
- Key space = $26! \approx 4 \times 10^{28} \approx 2^{95}$. (Large enough.)
- Still easy to break

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Breaking the substitution cipher

- The plaintext has a lot of structure
 - Known letter distribution in English (e.g. Pr("e") = 13%).
 - Known distribution of pairs of letters ("th" vs. "jj")



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Cryptanalysis of a substitution cipher

- QEFP FP QEB CFOPQ QBUQ
- QEFP FP QEB CFOPQ QBUQ
- •TH TH T T
- THFP FP THB CFOPT TBUT
- •THIS IS TH I ST T T
- THIS IS THE CLOST TRUT
- THIS IS THE I ST TE T
- THIS IS THE FIRST TEXT

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The Vigenere cipher

- Plaintext space = ciphertext space = {0..25} |m|
- Key space = strings of |k| letters {0..25}|K|
- Generate a pad by repeating the key until it is as long as the plaintext (e.g., "SECRETSECRETSEC..")
- Encryption algorithm: add the corresponding characters of the pad and the plaintext
 - THIS IS THE PLAINTEXT TO BE ENCRYPTED
 - SECR ET SEC RETSECRET SE CR ETSECRETSE
- |Key space| = $26^{|\mathbf{k}|}$. (k=17 implies |key space| $\approx 2^{80}$)
- Each plaintext letter is mapped to |k| different letters

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Attacking the Vigenere cipher

- Known plaintext attack (or rather, known plaintext distribution)
 - Guess the key length |k|
 - Examine every |k|'th letter, this is a shift cipher
 - THIS IS THE PLAINTEXT TO BE ENCRYPTED
 - SECR ET SEC RETSECRET SE CR ETSECRETS
 - Attack time: |k| x |k| x time of attacking a shift cipher⁽¹⁾
- Chosen plaintext attack:
 - Use the plaintext "aaaaaaaa..."
 - (1) Can't assume English plaintext. Can assume known letter frequency

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Perfect Cipher

- What type of security would we like to achieve?
- "Given C, the adversary has no idea what M is"
 - Impossible since the adversary might have a-priori information
- In an "ideal" world, the message will be delivered in a magical way, out of the reach of the adversary
 - We would like to achieve similar security
- Definition: a perfect cipher
 - Pr(plaintext = P | ciphertext = C) = Pr(plaintext = P)
 - The ciphertext does not add information about the plaintext

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Perfect Cipher

- For a perfect cipher, it holds that given ciphertext C,
 - $Pr(plaintext = P \mid C) = Pr(plaintext = P)$
 - i.e., knowledge of ciphertext does not change the a-priori distribution of the plaintext
 - Probabilities taken over key space and plaintext space
 - Does this hold for monoalphabetic substitution?
- One Time Pad (Vernam cipher): (for a one bit plaintext)
 - Plaintext $p \in \{0,1\}$
 - Key $k \in \{0,1\}$ (i.e. $Pr(k=0) = Pr(k=1) = \frac{1}{2}$)
 - Ciphertext = $p \oplus k$
 - What happens if we know a-priori that Pr(plaintext=1)=0.8?

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The one-time-pad is a perfect cipher

```
ciphertext = plaintext ⊕ k
  Pr(ciphertext = 1)
= Pr (plaintext \oplus key = 1)
= Pr(key = plaintext \oplus 1) = \frac{1}{2}
  Pr(plaintext = 1 \mid ciphertext = 1)
= Pr(plaintext = 1 \& ciphertext = 1) / Pr(ciphertext = 1)
= Pr(plaintext = 1 \& ciphertext = 1) / \frac{1}{2}
= Pr(ciphertext = 1 \mid plaintext = 1) \cdot Pr(plaintext = 1) / \frac{1}{2}
= Pr(key = 0) \cdot Pr(plaintext = 1) / \frac{1}{2}
= \frac{1}{2} \cdot Pr(plaintext = 1) / \frac{1}{2}
= Pr(plaintext = 1)
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The one-time-pad

- Plaintext = $p_1p_2...p_m \in \Sigma^m$ (e.g. $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$, or $\Sigma = \{A...Z\}$)
- key = $k_1 k_2 ... k_m \in_R \Sigma^m$
- Ciphertext = $c_1c_2...c_m$, $c_i = p_i \oplus k_i$
- Essentially a shift cipher with a different key for every character
- Shannon [47,49]:
 - An OTP is a perfect cipher, unconditionally secure.
 - As long as the key is a random string, of the same length as the plaintext.
 - Cannot use
 - Shorter key (e.g., Vigenere cipher)
 - A key which is not chosen uniformly at random

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What we've learned today

- Introduction
- Kerckhoff's Principle
- Some classic ciphers
 - Brute force attacks
 - Required key length
 - A large key does no guarantee security
- Perfect ciphers

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