#### Lecture Notes

Advanced Discrete Structures
COT 4115.001 S15
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## Recap

- ADFGX Cipher
- Block Cipher
  - Modes of Operation
- Hill Cipher
- Inverting a Matrix (mod n)

## Hill Cipher Example

#### • Encryption:

Multiple coded vector by matrix (mod 26)

Coded Vectors: (18,4,4), (18,15,14), (19,17,20), (13,23,23)

$$(18 \quad 4 \quad 4) \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 22 & 17 \\ 8 & 2 & 11 \\ 23 & 5 & 19 \end{pmatrix} = (178 \quad 424 \quad 426) \equiv (22 \quad 8 \quad 10) \pmod{26}$$

$$(18 \quad 15 \quad 14) \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 22 & 17 \\ 8 & 2 & 11 \\ 23 & 5 & 19 \end{pmatrix} = (496 \quad 496 \quad 737) \equiv (2 \quad 2 \quad 9) \pmod{26}$$

$$(19 \quad 17 \quad 20) \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 22 & 17 \\ 8 & 2 & 11 \\ 23 & 5 & 19 \end{pmatrix} = (653 \quad 552 \quad 890) \equiv (3 \quad 6 \quad 6) \pmod{26}$$

$$(13 \quad 23 \quad 23) \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 22 & 17 \\ 8 & 2 & 11 \\ 23 & 5 & 19 \end{pmatrix} = (752 \quad 447 \quad 911) \equiv (24 \quad 5 \quad 1) \pmod{26}$$

Encrypted Vectors: (22,8,10), (2,2,9), (3,6,6), (24,5,1) Ciphertext: W I K C C J D G G Y F B

# Hill Cipher Example

Using the Gauss-Jordan elimination method:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 22 & 17 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 8 & 2 & 11 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 23 & 5 & 19 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 11 & 9 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 5 & 2 & 19 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 10 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{26}$$

which means that if

$$(a \ b \ c)$$
  $\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 22 & 17 \\ 8 & 2 & 11 \\ 23 & 5 & 19 \end{pmatrix} \equiv (A \ B \ C) \pmod{26}$ 

then

$$(a \ b \ c) \equiv (A \ B \ C) \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 9 & 0 \\ 5 & 2 & 19 \\ 10 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{26}$$

## Hill Cipher Example

#### • <u>Decryption</u>:

Multiply the encrypted vectors by the inverse matrix:

$$(22 \quad 8 \quad 10) \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 9 & 0 \\ 5 & 2 & 19 \\ 10 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \equiv (18 \quad 4 \quad 4) \pmod{26}$$

$$(2 \quad 2 \quad 9) \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 9 & 0 \\ 5 & 2 & 19 \\ 10 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \equiv (18 \quad 15 \quad 14) \pmod{26}$$

$$(3 \quad 6 \quad 6) \begin{pmatrix} 11 & 9 & 0 \\ 5 & 2 & 19 \\ 10 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \equiv (19 \quad 17 \quad 20) \pmod{26}$$

$$(24 5 1) \begin{pmatrix} 11 9 0 \\ 5 2 19 \\ 10 5 6 \end{pmatrix} \equiv (13 23 23) (mod 26)$$

Decrypted Vectors: 
$$(18,4,4)$$
,  $(18,15,14)$ ,  $(19,17,20)$ ,  $(13,23,23)$   
Plaintext: SEESPOTRUNXX

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#### **BLOCK CIPHERS**

## Hill Cipher Attacks

#### Ciphertext only:

- Changing one letter of the plaintext usually changes whole block
- If block sizes are small (<4), the little is changed and frequency analysis can be run on the whole blocks

#### Easy to break with:

- Known plaintext
- Chosen plaintext
- Chosen ciphertext

# Hill Cipher - Known Plaintext

Plaintext: d o n t b e e v i l 3 14 13 19 1 4 4 21 8 11

Ciphertext: B J E Z X T N I B G 1 9 4 25 23 19 13 8 1 6

Try various block sizes: For n = 2,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 14 \\ 13 & 19 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 9 \\ 4 & 25 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{26}$$

and

$$\binom{3}{13} \quad \binom{14}{19}^{-1} \equiv \binom{9}{13} \quad \binom{18}{11} \pmod{26}$$

SO

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 9 & 18 \\ 13 & 11 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 9 \\ 4 & 25 \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 11 \\ 5 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{26}$$

## Hill Cipher - Known Plaintext

- If the plaintext matrix does not have an inverse, try a different set of plaintext blocks
  - Recall that matrix M is invertible if  $\det M \not\equiv 0 \pmod{26}$ .
- If none of the plaintext matrices are invertible, try a different block size.

## Hill Cipher – Chosen Plaintext

- 1. Try out different possibilities for n until you find the right one
- 2. Encrypt the following plaintext:
  - $1^{st}$  Block: baaaa...a = 10000...0
  - 2<sup>nd</sup> Block: abaaa...a = 01000...0
  - $n^{th}$  Block: aaaaa...b = 00000...1
- 3. Encryption matrix is the output

# Hill Cipher – Chosen Plaintext

For 
$$n=2$$
,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \pmod{26}$$

Invert the encryption matrix to find the decryption matrix.

# Hill Cipher – Chosen Ciphertext

- Similar to chosen plaintext
  - Guess and check the key size
- Choose to decrypt the identity matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \alpha & \beta \\ \gamma & \delta \end{pmatrix} \equiv \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \pmod{26}$$

- Result is the decryption matrix
  - Invert to find encryption matrix

## Confusion and Diffusion

- Claude Shannon: Communication Theory of Secrecy Systems (1949)
  - Confusion: Each letter of the cipher should depend on multiple parts of the key
  - Diffusion: Changing a letter of the plaintext should change multiple letters of the ciphertext
    - Diffusion causes error-propogation

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#### **BINARY NUMBERS AND ASCII**

## Base Systems

Example: (Base 10)

$$2,345_{10} = 2 \cdot 10^3 + 3 \cdot 10^2 + 4 \cdot 10^1 + 5 \cdot 10^0$$

Example: (Base 2 or Binary)

$$1,101_2 = \mathbf{1} \cdot 2^3 + \mathbf{1} \cdot 2^2 + \mathbf{0} \cdot 2^1 + \mathbf{1} \cdot 2^0$$
$$= 8 + 4 + 1 = 13_{10}$$

## Binary

- Binary number: a string of 0's and 1's
- Each 0 or 1 is called a bit
- A representation that takes 8 bits is called an
   8-bit number or a byte
- The largest number a byte can represent is

$$111111111_2 = 2^8 - 1 = 255$$

## **ASCII**

- <u>A</u>merican <u>S</u>tandard <u>C</u>ode for <u>I</u>nformation <u>I</u>nterchange
- A standard way to represent common alphabet characters
- Each character is represented using 7 bits
  - Extra bit in the byte used for a parity check (to see if an error occurred in transmission)

# **ASCII**

Symbol	ļ!	u	#	\$	%	&	,
, Decimal	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
Binary	0100001	0100010	0100011	0100100	0100101	0100110	0100111
(	)	*	+	,	-		/
40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
0101000	0101001	0101010	0101011	0101100	0101101	0101110	0101111
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
0110000	0110001	0110010	0110011	0110100	0110101	0110110	0110111
8	9	:	;	<	=	>	?
56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63
0111000	0111001	0111010	0111011	0111100	0111101	0111110	0111111
@	A	В	С	D	Е	F	G
64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71
1000000	1000001	1000010	1000011	1000100	1000101	1000110	1000111

## **ASCII**

Each message can be coded in binary:

Message: Yes!

Binary:

```
Y e s!
1011001 1100101 1110011 1000001
```

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#### **ONE-TIME PADS**

## One-Time Pad (1918)

- An "unbreakable" cryptosystem
- Developed by Gilbert Vernam and Joseph Mauborgne
- Reported that during the Cold War the "hot line" between Washington, D.C., and Moscow used one-time pads

- Encryption:
  - Code the message in binary
  - Choose a binary key as long as the message
  - Ciphertext is XOR between message and key

<u>p</u>	q	p XOR q
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Example (Encryption)

```
plaintext: 0101011100101110 (mod 2)

<u>key: + 1110001110001110 (mod 2)</u>
```

(mod 2)

ciphertext: 1011010010100000

Example (Decryption)

```
ciphertext: 1011010010100000 (mod 2)

key: + 1110001110001110 (mod 2)

plaintext: 0101011100101110 (mod 2)
```

Example (Decryption)

```
ciphertext: 1011010010100000 (mod 2)

key: + 1110001110001110 (mod 2)

plaintext: 0101011100101110 (mod 2)
```

#### The Good:

- Brute force and frequency attacks do not work
- All that can be gained from the ciphertext is the message and key length
- Knowing part of the key doesn't give any information about the rest of the key

#### The Bad:

- Knowing the key ⇔ Knowing the plaintext
- Key can only be used once (otherwise can attack with cribdragging)

## **Key Generation**

- A "random" key is desirable over a phrase
  - Knowledge of part of a key gives no knowledge of the rest of the key
  - The seed for a random key may be small, but can generate a longer pseudo-random string

Classical Cryptosystems - Section 2.10

# PSEUDO-RANDOM BIT GENERATION

#### Hardware Random Number Generators

- Sampling from a natural process
  - may not be sufficiently random
  - may take too long/expensive to sample
  - observable to others
- Examples
  - Thermal noise
  - Radiation / Photoelectric effect
  - Quantum states

## Pseudo-Random Bit Generation

- For many purposes a computer algorithm can generate pseudo-random bits
  - Initial input called the seed and produces output bitstream

#### Example:

- C library contains rand () function, which is a linear congruential generator
  - produces a sequence of numbers  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  such that  $x_n \equiv ax_{n-1} + b \pmod{m}$

from a seed  $x_0$  and parameters a, b, and m.

## Pseudo-Random Bit Generation

- Any polynomial congruence generator is insecure
  - Can be predicted even when parameters a,b,m are unknown
- One-way functions: Easy to compute in one direction and hard to find the inverse
  - Digital Encryption Standard (DES)
  - Secure Hash Algorithm (SHA)
    - SSL is based on SHA

1. Generate two large primes:

$$p, q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$

2. Let: n = pq

- 3. Choose a large x relatively prime to n.
- 4. Set:  $x_0 \equiv x^2 \pmod{n}$
- 5. Let:  $x_j \equiv x_{j-1}^2 \pmod{n}$  for j = 1, 2, ...
- 6. Let  $b_i$  be the parity of the last bit of  $x_i$ .

#### Example:

Choose  $p, q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ :  $p = 134095639079, \ q = 3435316544843$ 

n = pq = 460660967519384246719597

Choose x relatively prime to n:

x = 151984354862728938426826

```
x_0 \equiv x^2 \pmod{n}
   \equiv 224896429303392756468086 \pmod{n}
x_1 \equiv x_0^2 \pmod{n}
   \equiv 276799756549439688565582 \pmod{n}
x_2 \equiv x_1^2 \pmod{n}
   \equiv 389970735289039492719843 \pmod{n}
x_3 \equiv x_2^2 \pmod{n}
   \equiv 239541338864411504485899 \pmod{n}
```

$$b_0 = 6 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$$
  
 $b_1 = 2 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$   
 $b_2 = 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$   
 $b_3 = 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$   
:

Or can take several bits  $(k \le \log_2 \log_2 n)$  from each  $x_i$ :

$$b_0 = 086 \to 000$$
,  $b_1 = 582 \to 100$ , ...