Implementing Cryptography #1

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COMP6230:

Implementing Cybersecurity

Acknowledgements

- partly based on Chapter 2, Pfleeger and Pfleeger, 'Security in Computing', pages 37 to 97
- some slides adapted from a slideset created by V. Tan

Key issues

- Cryptography
 - the art and science of encryption'
 - (literally 'secret writing')
- Context and terminology
- Symmetric and Asymmetric encryption
- Cryptographic examples
- Typical cryptographic applications

What can we expect from Cryptography?

- "cryptography is not the solution"
- "cryptography is very difficult"
- "cryptography is the easy part"

(all above quotes from Ferguson, N., Schneier, B. and Kohno, T. (2010)

Cryptography Engineering: Design Principles and Practical Applications. Wiley)

"A security system is only as strong as its weakest link"

- often find the digital equivalent of a bank vault fitted to a tent! (see images)
- designers need professional paranoia need to design against the bad guys (compared with civil engineer designing a bridge – only has to design against nature)
- "security is a *process*, not a product" (Bruce Schneier)

Primary security issues

- Confidentiality messages remain private
- Integrity messages are not modified
- Authentication confidence in the identity of parties involved
- Non-repudiation parties cannot deny having generated data/message (often at a particular time)
 (evidence acceptable to a court of law)

Security Threats

- Eavesdropping
- Wiretapping
- Key interception
- Impersonation
- Data duplication
- Cryptanalysis
- Physical security
- Social engineering (non-exhaustive list!)

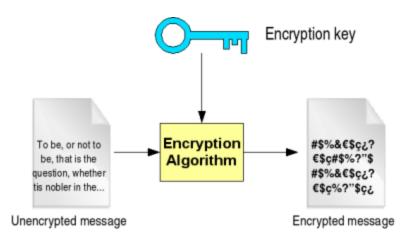
Terminology

(Although cryptography is **not** the complete solution to security issues, it is nevertheless an essential component)

- plaintext P or P/T
- ciphertext C or C/T
- key K
- encryption (or enciphering) P—→C
 C = E (K, P)
- decryption (or deciphering) C→P
- $P = D(K, C) \text{ hence } P^* = D(K, E(K, P))$

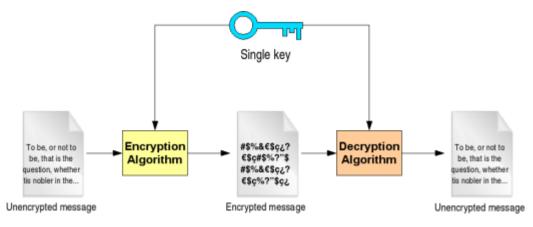
Encryption

- addresses confidentiality/integrity
- uses an encryption algorithm and an encryption key
- for a given plain text message, encrypted version will differ for different key sequences



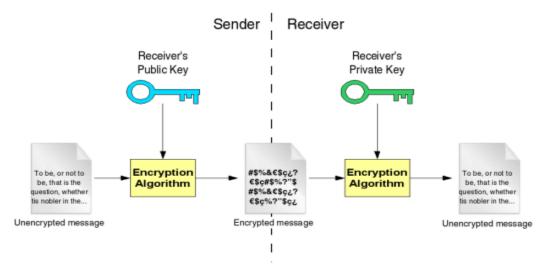
Symmetric encryption

- (also known as 'secret key')
- same key used for encrypting and decrypting
- straightforward implementation, fast operation
- one key, known to sender and recipient
- examples: DES, 3DES, AES



Asymmetric encryption

- (also known as 'Public Key' (hence 'PKI'))
- two types of keys: private and public
- private key kept secret by owner, public key is distributed to whoever needs it (i.e. not secret)
- encryption by public key, decryption by private key (or vice versa ... explained later)
- slower algorithm compared with symmetric encryption: example – RSA (Rivest/Shamir/Adleman)



Key Distribution Problem

- clearly a difficulty with secret key, but even with public key how do you know that the public key distributed is authentic?
- how do you know who you can trust?
- 'out of band' transmission (e.g. courier, postal services)
- often a symmetric session key is used
 - randomly generated (not pseudo-random!)
 - used only for a 'short' time
 - typically sent using a public key system (relatively slow speed unimportant as small amount of data)

Historical ciphers

- earliest cipher attributed to Julius Caesar (hence 'Caesar cipher')
- example of a monoalphabetic substitution cipher

P/T: A B C D etc.

C/T: DEFGetc.

- example: P/T "BAD" → C/T "EDG"
- highly susceptible to cryptanalysis

Simple ciphers

- Caesar cipher classical Latin alphabet had 23 letters - hence just 22 different alphabets available to use (same letter ordering) (e.g. Caesar used a letter shift of 3)
- Slightly more complex is the affine cipher
 (also a monoalphabetic substitution cipher)
- $C_x = (aP_x + b) \text{ modulo m}$ [n.b. key = (a,b)]
- "Px" is a character
 e.g. (A..Z) mapped to (0..25) where m = 26
- a, m must be co-prime: a=1 gives the Caesar cipher. Just 286 non-trivial affine ciphers...

Monoalphabetic substitution ciphers

- more generally, if the letters can be in any position, then there are 26! possible alphabets available for use (4 * 10**26)
- surely such a large number would make cryptanalysis very difficult?
- not true: many techniques are available to the cryptanalyst:
 - e.g. frequency analysis of ciphertext symbols in English, E,T, O, A are more frequent than J, Q, X, Z

Codes and ciphers

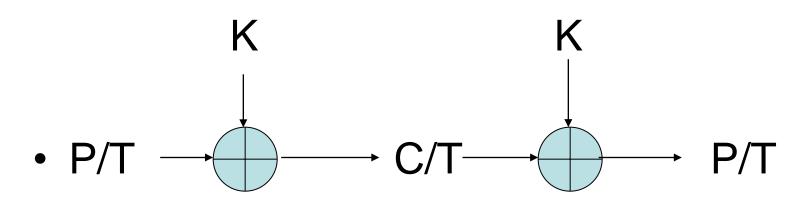
- for a cipher, length (C) = length (P)
- codes require a dictionary or look-up table at both ends (hence "code book")
- C = lookup_table (P)
- P* = lookup_table (C)
- (codebooks must be identical either end)
- potential for data compression if codes shorter than plaintext
- Huffman coding good example where codes used for compression, not security

Codebreaking

- long history of codes being used for secret messages (codebooks being used either end)
 - (hundreds of years)
- long history of third parties intercepting the messages and re-constructing the codebooks ("code breaking") (or stealing the codebooks)

The only unbreakable cipher

- the 'one-time pad'
- (first proposed in 1882, re-discovered by Vernam in 1917) (hence 'Vernam cipher')



One-Time Pad

'exclusive-OR' function (XOR)

hence A XOR B XOR B = A

One-Time Pad continued...

Requirements:

- (1) length (K) = length (P/T)
- (2) K must be random
 (not pseudo-random)
- (3) K must never be re-used

a message encrypted with a one-time pad could be anything

Random numbers

- all computers (programming languages)
 have a "random number generator"
 (RNG), or "pseudorandom number
 generator" (PRNG)
- also straightforward in hardware easiest is a linear-feedback shift register (LFSR)
- example in python (need "from random import *"):
 - seed (1)
 - for i in range (0,6): print random()

Random numbers (2)

- a PRNG cannot be used for any cryptographic application, because it is deterministic
- always repeats, sequence always the same (can reverse-engineer to discover algorithm being used)
- require a truly-random process e.g. thermal noise in electronic device, radioactive decay, roulette wheel etc.

Random numbers (3)

- first UK "lottery" in 1957 used thermal noise ("ERNIE")
- more recently, machines for the UK national lottery select random numbered balls (examples of fraud elsewhere...)
- note possibility of a "cryptographically secure pseudo-random number generator" (CSPRNG)

 starts with random input from a high-quality source and essentially expands it (can't increase the original entropy i.e. disorder or uncertainty)
- must not be able to reverse-engineer...

One-Time Pad continued again...

- "length (K) = length (P/T)"
 this is a major disadvantage because of the key distribution problem
- well-known example from early 1940's the cryptanalysis of Soviet one-time pad encoded traffic, the "Venona" project
- ?? How come? German advance on Moscow resulted in pads being re-used
- (a serious breach of cryptographic procedure)

Stream and Block Ciphers

 stream cipher – converts one symbol of P/T at a time

 block cipher – converts a group of P/T symbols together (typically 64 bits, 128 bits or longer)

Confusion and Diffusion

(background to underlying principles)

- confusion: complex relationship between P/T and C/T
- diffusion: spread changes in P/T over C/T
- (typically stream cipher has low diffusion, block cipher high diffusion)