

# **COMPUTER SECURITY**

**CHAPTER 4 & 5: CRYPTOGRAPHY**

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# WHAT IS CRYPTO...?

## Cryptography

- practice and study of hiding information, converting a plaintext into a cipher

## Cryptanalysis

- practice and study of penetration or breaking of cryptographic systems, exposing information hidden by cryptography.

## Cryptology

- cryptography and cryptanalysis

# TRADITIONAL AND MODERN CRYPTOGRAPHY

- In its traditional definition cryptography is the science of secret writing.
- Modern cryptography is very much a mathematical discipline.

# TRADITIONAL AND MODERN CRYPTOGRAPHY

Traditional: Secure communication

- Data confidentiality
- Data integrity
- Data origin authentication

Modern: Solve disputes

- In addition: non-repudiation

# CIA AND CRYPTOGRAPHY

- **Data Confidentiality:** encryption algorithms hide the content of messages.
- **Data Integrity:** integrity check functions provide the means to detect whether a message has been changed.
- **Data origin authentication:** message authentication codes or digital signature algorithms provide the means to verify the source and integrity of a message.

# **CRYPTOGRAPHIC MECHANISMS**

**Hash functions (integrity check functions, MDCs, MAC)**

**Digital Signatures**

**Encryption/decryption**

- Symmetric, Private-key
- Asymmetric, Public-key

# COMPUTABILITY

- ***Easy to compute: computable in polynomial time.***
- ***Infeasible: not computable in polynomial .***

# ONE-WAY TRAPDOOR FUNCTIONS

A one-way function  $f$  is a (1-1) function  $f$  s.t.

$y = f(x)$  is easy to compute, but  $x = f^{-1}(y)$  is infeasible

A trapdoor function  $f$  is a function s.t.

$x = f_k^{-1}(y)$  is easy iff the key  $k$  is known

# **ONE-WAY TRAPDOOR FUNCTIONS**

**Examples:**

- Mixing colors

# PROBLEMS OFTEN USED IN CRYPTO

## Problems often used in crypto

- 1. • Discrete Logarithm Problem, DLP:  
Given  $p$ ,  $a$  and  $y = a^x \text{ mod } p$ , find  $x$
- 2. •  $n^{\text{th}}$  root problem:  
Given  $m$ ,  $n$  and  $a$ , find  $b$  such that  $a = b^n \text{ mod } m$
- 3. • Factorisation:  
Given  $n$ , find prime factors

# HASH FUNCTIONS

Maps arbitrary-length  $m$  to fix-length hash value  $h(m)$

- A "fingerprint" of  $m$ , message digest, "checksum"

## Desired properties

- 1 • Ease of computation
- 2 • Compression
- 3 • Pre-image resistance: given  $x$ , computationally infeasible to find  $m$  s.t.  $x=h(m)$
- 4 • Weak collision resistance: given  $x$  and  $h(x)$ , infeasible to find  $y \neq x$  s.t.  $h(x)=h(y)$
- 5 • Strong collision resistance: infeasible to find pair  $(x,y)$  s.t.  $h(x)=h(y)$

# HASH USAGE

1.  $m+H(m)$  - no confidentiality or authentication
2.  $E_k(m+H(m))$  - auth&conf
3.  $m+E_k(H(m))$  - same as MAC
4.  $m+E_{eA}(H(m))$  - authentication (digital signature)
5.  $E_k(m+E_{eA}(H(m)))$  - and confidentiality
6.  $m+H(m+k)$  - authentication without encryption
7.  $E_k(m+H(m+k))$  - and confidentiality

# MESSAGE AUTHENTICATION CODES

Keyed hash function that provides data origin authentication (verify integrity and source)

Properties:

- 1 • Ease of computation
- 2 • Compression
- 3 • Computation resistance: For secret key  $k$ , given a set of pairs  $(m_i, C_k(m_i))$  infeasible to compute  $C_k(m)$  for a new  $m$

# **MESSAGE AUTHENTICATION CODE ATTACKS**

**Brute force attack to find k is no less difficult than finding a decryption key of same length**

# DIGITAL SIGNATURES

A digital signature scheme consists of a key generation algorithm, a signature algorithm and a verification algorithm.

Digital signatures support non repudiation.

Examples of digital signatures:

- El Gamal
- One time signature
- RSA(Rivest, Shamir, & Adleman)

# DIGITAL SIGNATURES

## MAC is not enough

- Recipient can fake it since he knows k
- Sender can therefore deny messages

## Digital signatures must be

- *unforgeable*: impossible for anyone else to make A's signature
- *authentic*: B can check that a message mis-signed by A, and the signature is "firmly attached" to m.
- *Verify the author, time and date*. Authenticates the contents . Verifiable by third party.

# DIGITAL SIGNATURES

Two parts: signature algorithm, verification algorithm.

- Signature uses *private key known only to signer (plus hash of) data to sign*
- Verification uses *public key (and signed data)*

# DIGITAL SIGNATURES, EXAMPLES

El Gamal, DSA:

- security related to DLP (discrete logarithm problem)

**RSA signatures (Rivest, Shamir, & Adleman)**

- security related to factorisation
- $s = E_k A(h(m))$ : encrypt hash value using sender's private key
- verify:  $h(m) = D_k A(s)$ : decrypt signature with sender's public key, compare with hash value

# MESSAGE AUTHENTICATION AND DIGITAL SIGNATURE

**Message authentication ensures two things:** confirming the sender's legitimate and validating that the message hasn't been altered.

**Digital signatures go further by providing non-repudiation:** ensuring the sender can't deny sending the message.

This process involves two tiers:

- Authentication function
- Authentication protocol (employing the authentication function).

# ENCRYPTION

We use "encryption" specifically for algorithms designed to safeguard data confidentiality.

While some encryption algorithms offer methods to detect breaches in integrity, this isn't a universal feature.

Encryption algorithms consistently fall into two categories:

- Symmetric algorithms
- Asymmetric algorithms

# AUTHENTICATION BY ENCRYPTION

## Public-key encryption

- $c = EdB(m)$  gives confidentiality but no authentication
- $c = EeA(m)$  gives authentication but no confidentiality
- $c = EdB(EeA(m))$  gives both
- B cannot forge messages, and A cannot deny them
- Still needs checksum for arbitrary data

# ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS

Encryption algorithms can be categorized into block ciphers and stream ciphers based on two distinguishing criteria:

- Block size
- Key stream

# BLOCK SIZE

- The block cipher encrypts sizable data blocks, often around 64 bits, employing a complex encryption function.
- It encrypts all blocks from the same document using a single key.
- The security of a block cipher relies on the intricacies and robustness of its encryption function design.

# KEY STREAM

- A stream cipher encrypts smaller units of data, usually bits or bytes, using a straightforward encryption function.
- It encrypts data under a dynamically changing key stream.
- The security of stream ciphers hinges on the design of the key stream generator.

# SYMMETRIC ALGORITHMS

- A single key is utilized for encryption and decryption purposes and must be kept confidential.
- All parties possessing this shared key can decrypt and access data encrypted under that specific key.

# **ASYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION ALGORITHMS**

Also called **public key algorithms**,

Different keys are used for encryption and decryption.

The encryption key can be made public,

The decryption key has to remain private.

# CRYPTOGRAPHIC STRENGTH

Strength of algorithm and key –not by secret algorithms  
(security by obscurity)

- *empirically secure*
- *provably secure*
- *unconditionally secure*

# **EMPIRICALLY SECURE**

- An algorithm is empirically secure when it has endured over time without revealing significant weaknesses under prolonged analysis.
- While there's no definitive proof that the algorithm might not succumb to a novel and innovative attack in the future, its acceptance within the cryptographic community signifies trust and recognition.

# PROVABLY SECURE

- Provably secure algorithms fulfill the longstanding aspiration of computer security.
- An algorithm is deemed secure if breaking it is at least as challenging as solving another problem known to be arduous.

# UNCONDITIONALLY SECURE

- An unconditionally secure algorithm remains impervious to decryption, even when faced with attackers possessing unlimited computing power.
- The concept of unconditionally secure algorithms is rooted in information theory.
- An algorithm is considered secure if an attacker cannot obtain additional information about the plaintext by observing the corresponding ciphertext.

# UNCONDITIONALLY SECURE- EXAMPLE

- The classic illustration of an unconditionally secure algorithm is the one-time pad.
- In this method, the sender and receiver share a completely random key stream, utilized only once.
- However, even unconditionally secure ciphers have been compromised when operators reuse the same vital streams more than once.