Information Security (WBCS004-05)

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Some slides are borrowed from Dr. Frank B. Brokken

Today

- Topics (1st lecture) on Modern Cryptography:
 - More on Transposition ciphers
 - Perfect Secrecy
 - One-time Pad (Vernam cipher)
 - Symmetric Crypto
 - Stream ciphers (RC4)
 - Block ciphers (Feistel, DES, 3DES)
 - Asymmetric Crypto
 - Knapsack

Double Transposition

A permutation matrix P is a matrix that has only one "1" in each row or column.

- Is a form of **diffusion**
 - Smears the text in matrix M containing the plaintext row/columnwise over another matrix C containing the ciphertext. How to implement:
 - use permutation matrices P. If P' denotes P's transposition then P'P = I.
 - fill a matrix M with the plaintext;
 - pRemultiply by permutation matrix P₁ to permute Rows: P₁M;
 - pOstmultiply P_1M by permutation matrix P_2 to permute cOlumns: $C = P_1MP_2$
 - Decrypting is easy:
 - $P_1'CP_2' = (P_1'P_1) M (P_2P_2') = M$

Double Transposition

Transposition Example:

☐ A permutation matrix P is a matrix that has only one "1" in each row and column.
☐ When premultiplying a matrix (i.e., M) by P each row i will be moved to row j, if $P_{ij} = 1$ (i,j row and column indices for P)
☐ When postmultiplying a matrix (intermediate M) by P each column j will be moved to column i, assuming that $P_{ij} = 1$ ☐ Multiplying P by its transpose results in the identity matrix:

$$P'P = PP' = I$$

 a t r a n
 0 1 0 0 0
 n a a t r

 u s i n g
 0 0 0 1 0
 g u n s i

 t i o n c
 * 0 0 0 0 1 =
 c t n i o

 i p h e r
 0 0 1 0 0
 r i e p h

 s p o s i
 1 0 0 0 0
 i s s p o

permutes cols. E.g., col 4 to col 3

If I use words to represent these keys, what is the relation between the these two?

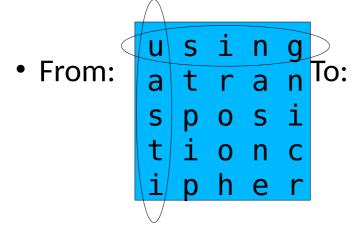
badec, eadbc

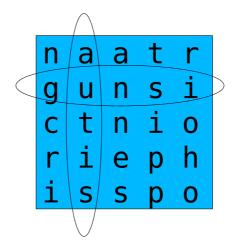
• Key: 21453, 51423

Double Transposition

Fancy of online ciphers? https://www.boxentriq.com/code-breaking/double-transposition-cipher

Transposition Example:





• Breaking is tedious but doable:

each row cq. each column shows the characters of a row cq. column of the original matrix. Once you can guess (find something meaningful), then the rest quickly follows; e.g., multiple anagramming over multiple messages.

Perfect Secrecy (i.e., Provably Secure)

Assume that the key is chosen at random, and used only once

When something is provably secure, it means "some statement" regarding it's security can be (has been) proven.

"Given the ciphertext, any 'plaintext' of the same length can be generated by a suitable choice of 'key' and all possible plaintexts are equally likely. So the ciphertext provides no meaningful information at all about the plaintext."

Perfect Secrecy more formally

- M: message space
- **K**: key space
- **C**: the set of all possible ciphertexts

Perfect Secrecy is defined with probability distributions over M, K and C

- For any key k ∈ K, **Pr[K=k]** denotes the probability that Gen's output is equal to k.
- Pr[M=m]: the message takes on the value $m \in M$
- Pr[C=c]: $E_{k}(m)$ results with $c \in C$,

 $c \leftarrow E_k(m)$: probabilistic, i.e. c is selected probabilistically from C

 $c := E_k(m)$: deterministic

An encryption system: <G,E,D>

- G: a probabilistic key generation algorithm
- $E_k(m)$: Encryption algorithm (key k and message m as input, and ciphertext c as output)
- D_k(c): Decryption algorithm (key k and ciphertext c as input, and message m as output)

Conditional Probability in Encryption (Bayes' Theorem)

Pr[M=a | C=B]: What is the probability that is this? that the message a was encrypted given that we observe ciphertext B?

$$Pr[M=a \lor C=B]=Pr[C=B|M=a \i... Pr[M=a] \frac{\i...}{Pr[C=B]}$$

Perfect Secrecy more formally (cont.)

Definition 1: An encryption scheme is perfectly secret with a message space M, if for every probability distribution for M, every message $m \in M$ and every ciphertext $c \in C$ (for which Pr[C=c] > 0)

$$Pr[M=m \mid C=c] = Pr[M=m]$$

Meaning: The **a posteriori probability** that some message $m \in M$ was sent, conditioned on the ciphertext that was observed, should be no different from **a priori probability** that m would be sent.

Plain English: An eavesdropper can observe the ciphertext. Observing the ciphertext should have no effect on the adversary's knowledge regarding the actual message that was sent.

Perfect Secrecy more formally (cont.)

Two more but equivalent definitions:

• Definition 2 (Ciphertext Distribution): One that requires the distribution of the ciphertext does not depend on the plain text. That is, for every $m,m' \in M$ and every $c \in C$:

$$Pr[E_k(m) = c] = Pr[E_k(m') = c]$$

- Definition 3 (**Perfect (adversarial) indistinguishability**): One, perhaps more interesting, that considers an experiment where, given a ciphertext, the adversary (eavesdropper, denoted as) tries to guess which of the two possible messages was encrypted. Denoted as
 - outputs a pair of messages m_0 , $m_1 \in M$
 - A key k is generated using Gen and a uniform bit $b \in \{0,1\}$ is chosen. $c \leftarrow E_k(m_b)$ is computed and given to .
 - outputs a bit b'.
 - The result of the experiment is 1 if b' = b, otherwise 0. That is

We want
$$Pr[=1] = 1/2$$

One-time Pad (OTP, a.k.a. Vernam cipher)

- Provably secure
- **Textbook Definition**: (Plain text and Key) Letters are mapped to bits (e.g., 'a' = 01000001) and bitwise XORed
- Assume the elements of m (message) and k (key) are integers modulo 26
 To encrypt a message m sequence with the key k sequence

$$E_k(m[i]) = c[i] = (m[i] + k[i]) % 26$$

To decrypt

$$D_k(c[i]) = m[i] = (26 + c[i] - k[i]) % 26$$

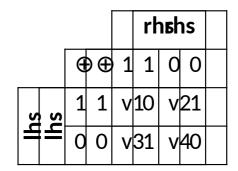
In binary form: Add the plaintext and key bits **modulo 2**, i.e., XOR

- The key k is a random sequence with the size $|\mathbf{m}|$
- Any plaintext can be reconstructed from a given c

Just to stay always positive

- In **OTP**: xor (⊕) for enc/dec
- for *xor* we know;
 - $a \oplus 0 = a$ (identity),
 - $a \oplus a = 0$ (inverse),
 - $a \oplus (b \oplus c) = (a \oplus b) \oplus c = (a \oplus c) \oplus b$ (associativity)

Xor truth table:



What are the values of v1,v2,v3,v4?

In OTP; how does Enc/Dec really work?

```
(Enc) m[i] \oplus k[i] = c[i]

(Dec) c[i] \oplus k[i] = (m[i] \oplus k[i]) \oplus k[i]

= m[i] \oplus (k[i] \oplus k[i])

= m[i] \oplus 0 = m[i]
```

• Recall: Enc/dec in **simple substitution ciphers** using addition/subtraction (very similar!):

```
(m[i] + shift) % 26 = c[i]
(26 + c[i] - shift) % 26 = m[i]
```

Everything is modulo the chosen alphabet length!

• One-time pad (dropping the letter index i):

$$m_1 + k_1 = c$$
 so: $m_1 = c - k_1$
 $m_2 + k_2 = c$ so: $m_2 = c - k_2$

actually used

other possibility/ies for achieving **c**?

(encrypt) (decrypt)

- Same cipher text, only the keys differ. c does not reveal any info whether it is derived from m_1 or m_2 . $m_1^2 + k_1 m_2 = c m_2 = k_2$
- How can we obtain such key (k₂)?:

Note: *any* key is possible; there is *no* reason why *key-1* should be the `correct key', rather than *key-2*

 a
 b
 c
 d
 e
 f
 g
 h
 i
 j
 k
 l
 m
 n
 o
 p
 q
 r
 s
 t
 u
 v
 w
 x
 y
 z

 0
 1
 2
 3
 4
 5
 6
 7
 8
 9
 10
 11
 12
 13
 14
 15
 16
 17
 18
 19
 20
 21
 22
 23
 24
 25

- Example
 - Real text⁽¹⁾ and used key:

Plain text, m₁: kill the president

Key: qwertyuiiopasfga

What are the first two letters of the ciphertext?

$$aepcmfyxzshivjtt$$

 $(m_1 + k_1 = c)$

- Let's see how it is perfectly secure (Definition 1)
 - Choose an alternate plaintext, m₂: hello world crypto
 - First: decrypt cipher text with the alternate plain text

Decrypt: AEPCMFYXZSHIVJTT with 'key' hello world crypto

plaintext/ciphertext: taeryjkgopfrxuaf (k2: the alternative key)

$$(k_2 = c - m_2)$$

• Then: apply the alternate key to the ciphertext:

Decrypt: AEPCMFYXZSHIVJTT with taeryjkgopfrxuaf

Results in: helloworldcrypto

What did we do?

```
m_1(kill the president) + k_1(qwertyuiiopasfga) = m_2(hello world crypto) + k_2(taeryjkgopfrxuaf)
```

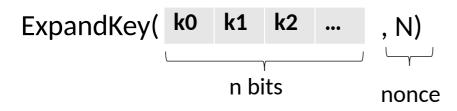
Pr[M="kill the president" | C="aepcmfyxzshivjtt"] = Pr[M="kill the president"]

- One-time pad disadvantages
 - Key size, distribution and usability (in depth vulnerability)
 - If padding is used then the "pad" information needs be securely communicated!

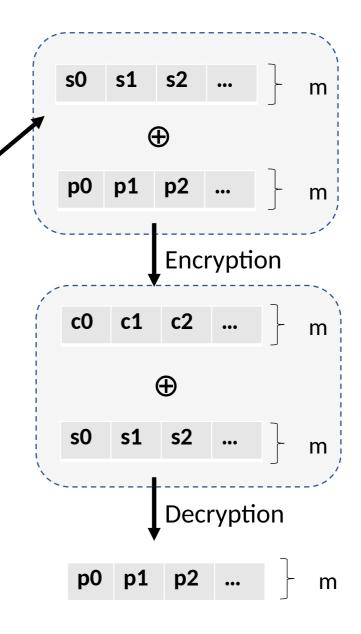
```
m1 + k = c1; m2 + k = c2 c1 - c2 = m1 - m2 (the key vanishes)
(note: m1, m2: plain texts, not characters, k: the used key)
```

Stream Ciphers

- **General** Idea
 - En/decrypt one character at a time
 - A *key* seeds the cipher: *common* secret
 - Uses xor (⊕) to encrypt and decrypt. Keystream
 - The same algorithm is used for encryption and decryption



Examples: RC4, A5/1



Stream Ciphers

Stamp's book mentions:

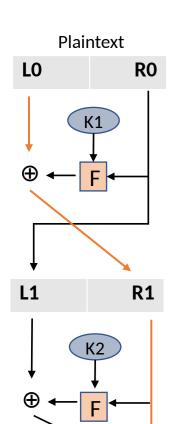
- RC4:
 - Used in SSL communication. If used correctly: fine
 - Byte by byte encryption
 - Tailored to software
- A5/1:
 - Tailored to hardware
 - Used in GSM encryption. Cracked. But how bad is that?
 - **cf:** http://www.schneier.com/blog/archives/2008/02/cryptanalysis_o_1.html

There are many others such as Trivium (EU Project), EO (bluetooth)... See the Wikipedia for a list.

Block Ciphers

- Block ciphers:
 - Key Motivations: Efficiency and Security
 - Widely used
 - Encryption not byte-wise but block-wise (e.g. 8 byte blocks)
 - Plaintext is mangled over several `rounds'
 - To decrypt: the rounds are played back.
 - It is difficult to develop secure and efficient algorithms.
 - Block ciphers are often designed as Feistel ciphers

Feistel



Rn+1

Ln+1

Ciphertext

- Feistel ciphers:
 - Horst Feistel (1915-1990)
 - Achieve invertibility from non-invertible components (i.e., round function)
 - **Encryption** procedure:
 - Split blocks in left/right halves

$$M = (L, R)$$

• The next round's *left* half is the previous *right* half:

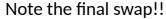
$$L_{i} = R_{i-1}$$

• The next round's right half: previous left xor-ed with the result of a round (key schedule) function F:

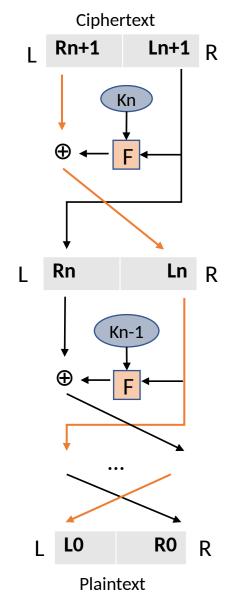
$$R_{i} = L_{i-1} \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_{i})$$







Feistel (cont.)



- **Decrypting** Feistel ciphers:
 - **Invert** the process until M is reached:
 - Split the ciphertext in halves: $C = (L_i, R_i)$
 - Compute *previous* right from *current* left.

That is: since $L_i = R_{i-1}$ (encryption) we get $R_{i-1} = L_i$

Compute previous left: from encryption

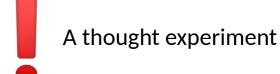
That is: since we have $R_i = L_{i-1} \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_{i-1})$ [Encryption]

we get: $L_{i-1} = R_i \oplus F(R_{i-1}, K_i)$

KAERB A DEEN I || I NEED A BREAK!

DES

- Data Encryption Standard
- Feistel cipher (with 16 rounds)
- Key/block length: 64 bits (key used to be 128 in Lucifer)
- Actual # of bits used for the key: 56 (8 bits are discarded)
- Each round uses 48 bit subset of the 56 bit key
- Think about brute force attacks....
 - Lucifer had exhaustive key search space of 2¹²⁷
 - DES has exhaustive key search space of 2⁵⁵

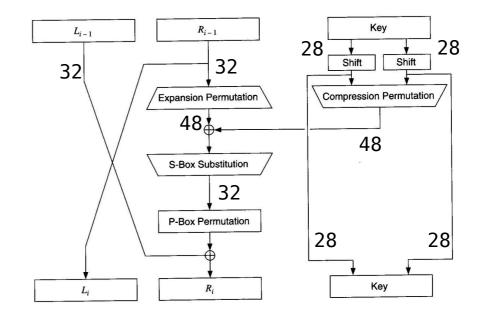


Assume that:

- The effective key length of DES is 48 bits
- We can test 108 keys per second
- 2^k is approximately 10^{k/3} How many (roughly) **months** does it take to find a DES key?

DES

- One DES round:
 - Expansion: 32 bits to 48.
 - S-boxes (8 of them):
 map 6 bits down to 4
 provides non-linearity



(Feistel) Round function in DES $F(R_{i-1}, K_i) = P\text{-Box}(S\text{-Boxes}(Expand(R_{i-1}) \oplus K_i))$

- Key schedule:
 - initially permute the **master key**, and split it to two 28 bits
 - shifts + compression
 - next key: concatenates shifted (rotated) halves
 - key schedule is fixed and public, only master key is secret

The main vulnerability is the key size!

Triples DES (3DES)

- 3DES:
 - DES disadvantage: small key.
 - Solution: use a 112 bit key, split in halves:
 - `2DES' is insufficient: Using a table of 2⁵⁶ keys and a known plaintext 2DES can be broken.
 - 3DES is defined as:

$$C = E(D(E(P,K_1), K_2), K_1)$$

Why EDE instead EEE?

Backward compatibility!

• *Nice*: for K₁ == K₂ this reduces to DES:

$$C = E(D(E(P,K), K), K)$$

• so: C = E(P, K)

- How should multiple blocks be encrypted with a block cipher?
- Highlights:
 - Padding
 - Avoid: Electronic Code Book (ECB) mode
 - Acceptable modes
 - CBC (cipher block chaining mode)
 - CTR (counter mode)
 - Initialization vectors
 - Information Leakage / Collisions
- See also: http://csrc.nist.gov/groups/ST/toolkit/BCM/modes_development.html

- Padding
 - Padding is almost (CBC) always (ECB) required, always at least 1 byte
 - Well-known methods (block size b):
 - Marker: add byte 128 and a remaining number of required 0-bytes (0..b-1)
 - Determine how many padding bytes are needed (n) and add that many n-value bytes.

Avoid: Electronic Code Book (ECB)

```
CodeBlock = E(PlainText, Key) (for each block)
```

- Same plain text results in identical code blocks
 - Think about padding, headers, footers
 - Highly susceptible to
 - Known plaintext attack
- Plain text often has predictable characteristics
- What is the key?
 - With ECB the key is always the same, opportunities for known plaintext attacks

- OK mode: Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)
 - The plain text block is first xor-ed with the previous cipher text
 - Advantage: Identical plain text blocks no longer result in identical cipher blocks
 - Method:

```
CodeBlock = E(PlainText xor Previous Code Block, Key)
```

- Still to solve: what is the 'previous encrypted block' for the very first plain text block?
 - Use Initialization Vectors (IVs)

- OK mode: Counter Mode (CTR)
 - A block cipher mode used as a stream cipher.
 - The algorithm generates a stream of keys
 - Method:

```
Key2Use = E(nonce \mid \mid I, Key) (for i = 1, ... k)

CipherText = PlainText xor Key2Use
```

concatenation

- OK mode: Counter Mode (CTR)
 - A block cipher mode used as a stream cipher.

concatenation

- The algorithm generates a stream of keys
- Method:

```
Key2Use = E(nonce \mid \mid I, Key) (for i = 1, ... k)

CipherText = PlainText xor Key2Use
```

- 128 bit blocks, e.g.
 - Nonce: e.g., 48 bit nonce (i.e., IV) plus 16 bit encoded "i": must be unique or data will leak (cf. ECB)

128 bits -

• 64 bit counter

- Initialization vectors (IVs)
 - Are used to initialize block ciphers:
 - 'Code block' for the 1st plain text block (CBC)
 - Should not be fixed (or data will leak with different messages)
 - Counter IVs: small differences and (almost) identical plain text blocks may cause data to leak
 - Random IV: fine, but IV is sent as 1st block, enlarging the message by 1 block
 - Nonce: used to compute the IV/Key (in case of CTR), is much smaller

- Initialization vectors (IVs)
 - No need to keep secret.
 - Consider:

```
CodeBlock = E(Key, PlainText xor Previous Code Block)
```

- Plaintext is (i.e., remains) unknown;
- *Plaintext xor IV* enters the key schedule, where it is modified:
 - the plaintext cannot be reconstructed from the CodeBlock alone.
- Analogous considerations apply to CTR.

- Information Leakage
 - ECB: always leaks (of course: same keys)
 - With CBC, when C blocks are equal, then:

```
Ci == Cj
E(K, Pi ⊕ Ci-1) == E(K, Pj ⊕ Cj-1)
Pi ⊕ Ci-1 == Pj ⊕ Cj-1
Pi ⊕ Pj == Ci-1 ⊕ Cj-1
```

- previous C-blocks reveal info about P blocks (cf. one-time pad)
- There is also cut-and-paste attack (see the book)
- CTR does not have this property (which is nice)

Enter: Asymmetric Cryptography

Knapsack Cryptosystem

- Does not use a shared key
- First example of public key cryptography
- Proposed by Merkle and Hellman
- Based on a paper by Diffie and Hellman
- Uses a superincreasing knapsack



Knapsack Cryptosystem

- Knapsack:
 - The **general** knapsack problem:
 - Given a set of n-weights, $w_0,...w_{n-1}$, find a series of (integral) values $a_i \in \{0,1\}$) such that a given sum **S** is achieved:

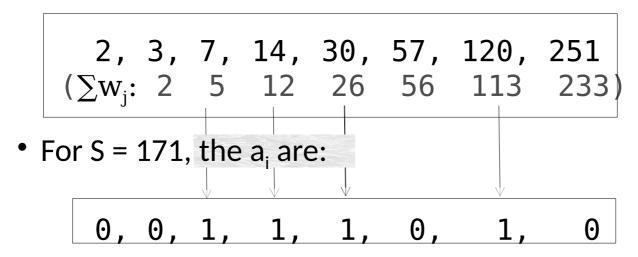
i= {**0**...n}

S =

- Special case: superincreasing knapsack (SK):
 - Order the weights from least to greatest
 - **But**: Each next w_i value exceeds the sum of the previous w_j values: $\forall w_i$: $w_i > \sum w_i$ ($0 \le j < i$)
 - The problem is now easily solved: start with the largest weight, repeatedly subtract values until 0.

Knapsack Cryptosystem

Example SK:



How do we solve this? 171-120=51

New target sum

$$\begin{array}{c}
\longrightarrow \\
51-30=21\\
21-14=7\\
7-7=0
\end{array}$$
New target sum

Asymmetric Crypto

- In public key crypto, you need:
 - a *private key*, kept secret, allowing us to *decrypt* information;
 - a public key, made public, allowing others to send us encrypted information
- In practice, the *private key* cannot be obtained from the public key.

• Given the SK:

```
2, 3, 7, 14, 30, 57, 120, 251 (k values) (\sum w_j: 2 5 12 26 56 113 233)
```

- Generating other parts of the private key:
 - Choose n (called modulus)

```
• n > \sum w_i (0 \le i < k), e.g. n = 491 (> 251 + 233)
```

- Choose *m* such that *m rp n* (i.e., m and n are relatively prime)
 - m: a multiplication constant. E.g., m = 41
- Private key: the SK and the values m and n.

• Given the SK:

```
2, 3, 7, 14, 30, 57, 120, 251
(\sum w_j: 2 5 12 26 56 113 233)
```

- The public key is the general knapsack:
 - Computed from the SK:

Public key: $k_i = m * w_i % n$, producing:

```
82,123,287,83,248,373,10,471
```

- Private key: m, n and the superincreasing knapsack
 - $n > \sum w_i$, e.g. 491
 - m rp n: e.g., 41

Weights from SK

- Knapsack: encrypting a message
 - Assume that the message is "p" in binary **00001110**_b
 - Use the bit-pattern as weight-vector and compute c = a'w using the published public key

```
82,123,287,83,248,373,10,471
idx: 0, ... 7
a: 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0
```

```
c = 248 + 373 + 10 = 631
```

What do we use here? **Hint**: This asymmetric/public key crypto

- Knapsack: decrypt a message (the receiver has m and n):
 - Compute (once) $m^{-1}\%$ n = $41^{-1}\%$ 491 = **12** (modulo inverse)

```
• Intuition: the public key has values: \mathbf{k_i} = \mathbf{m} * \mathbf{w_i} \% \mathbf{n}, so: \mathbf{m}^{-1} * \mathbf{k_i} = \mathbf{m}^{-1} * \mathbf{m} * \mathbf{w_i} \% \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{w_i} \% \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{w_i}
```

Knapsack: decrypt a message:

$$m^{-1} * k_i = m^{-1} * m * w_i \% n = w_i \% n = w_i$$

• Encrypted values are handled likewise:

$$c = \sum k_i = \sum m * w_i = m \sum w_i$$

SO:
$$\mathbf{m}^{-1} * \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{m}^{-1} \sum \mathbf{m} * \mathbf{w}_{i} = \mathbf{m}^{-1} * \mathbf{m} \sum \mathbf{w}_{i} = \sum \mathbf{w}_{i} (\% \mathbf{n})$$

• Example:

• c = 631, 631 * 12 (% 491) = 207 (=
$$\sum w_i$$
 (% n))

- Knapsack: decrypting a message:
 - We just computed:

$$m^{-1}$$
 n
• C = 631, 631 * 12 % 491 = 207 = $\sum a_i$ % n

• Next solve S=207 in the superincreasing knapsack:

•
$$\frac{207}{100}$$
 = 2^{30} , $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{57}{7}$, $\frac{1}{14}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{30}$, $\frac{57}{7}$, $\frac{120}{100}$, $\frac{251}{100}$

• Interpret the values as 1-weights in the $\bf a$ vector and thus in binary: $00001110_{\rm b}$

Take Home

- A huge knapsack... (just for fun)
 - public key:

328D7C79E4FDBE27F1D46591602C408BCF5BFB7DB39A515518A1 819639474E581D95DD469AA423F9B9FED9EB296BD733436A96FC B9C44FFF07D92879ADD74236FCC71DFF4E151856A6ACC330E8BA B5740651905C54E59176EA9ACD5B4529101786466EA26FA8A080 31B30E1AE9EDDD7476DE05E8887BE78968862B91C96853BE996A 2D0EEA17CB85D0543344578251358019E144313A21F30008512C 2AF23628723DBC79A2FB5F1E8E374A0DB73EC62E29B75476F924 3F08D48DC39DF0BCB017FD760F8BD80089FFF3964011C40675A2

private key:

Multiplier: 0D19CC01EF6B6082EDF119437B
modulo: E1C0B242BB64C30487F4A19C1039C25AE4F53DD01A4D467A0D0A
F9CFEFE5E4F15F3C0C6151A0654C4281E61CBCB6C94EA851C9
01A3049CAAD6CBBB0B503B249D9A30E86E2351C294EE8DA620EE
039A82CA6C0BBF5831A0A1329DCD63B509C7ED034C913B5A8322
07168E4FD780F9A05E05B189B3C80C9D0E0E5B415D601C4F119A
0E41DE9C50EC4B29A65273E4D99F74E0D8AB2E13D3B6295D3CCC
1C1D9C0592BCC333AC4489C95DB67C0D89F375B5CB5F55B48BE0
385EDBA2475815EF3EC3AD9FCD57454DBC610F906480594178C8
70FD695B21FC6797CF7AA000FF9D0D698127650AF2441B76A218

What did we learn?

- Some more on Transposition Cipher
- Perfect Secrecy and One-time Pad
- Symmetric Cryptography
 - Stream Ciphers
 - Block Ciphers: Feistel Cipher, DES
- Introduction to Asymmetric Cryptography
 - Knapsack Problem

That's All, Folks, for today.