Cryptography I: Introduction Computer Security Lecture 2

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17th January 2013

Outline

Terminology

Basic Definitions

Symmetric Cryptography

Asymmetric Cryptography

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Cryptography has a long history. Its original and main application is to enable two parties to communicate in secret, across a unsecured (public) channel.

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- cryptanalysis: breaking ciphers

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- **encryption**: transforming *plain text* to *cipher text*
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- encryption scheme, cipher, cryptosystem: a mechanism for encryption and decryption

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- non-repudiation preventing denial of actions

We want to ensure these properties, even when another party may eavesdrop or intercept messages.

Carefully designed **cryptographic protocols** help this.

Cryptographic primitives

Protocols are built using **cryptographic primitives**, parametrised on 0, 1, or 2 **keys**.

Unkeyed	Secret key	Public key
Random sequences One-way permutations Hash functions	Symmetric-key ciphers — block and stream Keyed hash functions (aka MACs) Identification primitives Digital signatures Pseudorandom	Public-key ciphers Digital signatures Identification primitives
	sequences	

Familiar examples:

- Hash functions: MD5, SHA-1, SHA-256
- Symmetric block ciphers: DES, 3DES, AES
- Public key ciphers: RSA, El Gammal
- Digital signature schemes: RSA, DSA

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- ► Digital signature schemes $S_A(m)$, $V_A(m, s)$
 - key signing: public key infrastructures (PKIs)

Choosing primitives

Choice of primitives influenced by:

- functionality needed
- performance
- implementation ease
- amount of security
- Measuring of security is tricky: may consider
 - primitives are "perfect", maybe "unbreakable"
 - what is the worst that can happen?
 - primitives are "imperfect"
 - what does attacker know?
 - how much effort can attacker spend?

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Model real cryptography primitives

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- Formal analysis now being extended to these kinds of *computational* models.

Cryptanalysis attacks

Setup: have $c_1 = E_k(m_1), \ldots, c_n = E_k(m_n)$, small n.

- Best outcome: find k or algorithm for D_k^{-1} .
- Try to better brute-force (exhaustive search).

Attack type	Attacker knowledge	
Ciphertext only	the c_i (deduce at least m_i)	
Known plaintext	the c_i and m_i	
Chosen plaintext	c_i for chosen m_i	
Adaptive chosen plaintext	as above, but iterative	
Chosen ciphertext	$c_i, m_i = D_d(c_i)$. Find decryption key d .	
"Rubber-hose"	bribery, torture, or blackmail	
"Purchase-key"	(not cryptanalysis, but v. successful)	

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- Necessary but not sufficient to have a key space large enough to prevent feasible brute force attack.
- Rule-of-thumb: for good symmetric encryption algorithms, a key space of 2¹²⁸ is currently considered prudent.
- But this is a simplistic view!

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Bijections

- Recall that a bijection is a mathematical function which is one-to-one (injective) and onto (surjective).
- ▶ In particular, if $f : X \to Y$ is a bijection, then for all $y \in Y$, there is a unique $x \in X$ such that f(x) = y. This unique x is given by the *inverse* function $f^{-1} : Y \to X$.

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(Saying this, non-bijections, in fact non-functions, *are* used as encryption transformations. Can you imagine how?)

Message spaces

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 Elements c ∈ C are called *ciphertexts*.
- Each space is given over some alphabet, a set A. For example, we may consider A to be the letters of the English alphabet A-Z, or the set of binary digits {0, 1}. (Of course, any alphabet can be encoded using words over {0, 1}).

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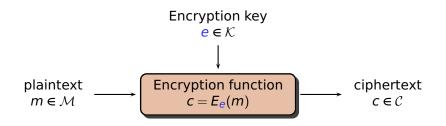
Encryption and decryption transformations are indexed using *keys*.

- The key space \mathcal{K} is a finite set of keys $k \in \mathcal{K}$.
- An encryption scheme consists of two sets indexed by keys
 - ▶ a family of encryption functions $\{E_e \mid e \in \mathcal{K}\}$
 - ► a family of decryption functions $\{D_d \mid d \in \mathcal{K}\}$

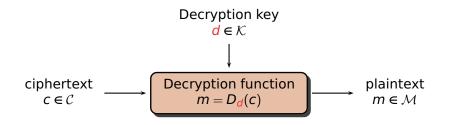
such that for each $e \in \mathcal{K}$, there is a unique $d \in \mathcal{K}$ with $D_d = E_e^{-1}$. We call such a pair (e, d) a key pair.

An encryption scheme is also known as a cryptography system or a cipher.

Encryption



Decryption



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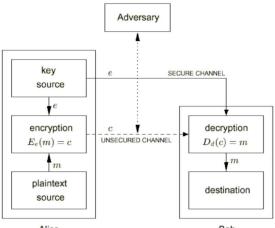
Asymmetric Cryptography

Symmetric and asymmetric cryptography

symmetric cryptography

- e and d are (essentially) the same
- aka secret-key, shared-key, single-key, conventional
- asymmetric cryptography
 - Given *e*, it is (computationally) infeasible to find *d*.
 - aka public-key (PK), since e can be made public.
- Of course, the key-pair relation is not the only difference between symmetric and asymmetric cryptography. Other differences arise from characteristics of known algorithms and usage modes.
- Note: these definitions are imprecise: to be exact, one should define the meanings of "essentially" and "computationally infeasible".

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- Secure channels are difficult and costly to implement. How to deliver secret keys through unsecured channels had confounded thinkers for many centuries.

If you can read everything I write, I cannot rely on any secret that has gone before, how can I possibly send a confidential message to my friend which you cannot also understand?

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The answer uses a creative leap of innovation (two keys, one public), as well relying on some clever maths in its implementation (*trapdoor one-way functions*).

One-way functions

A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is called a **one-way function** if

- ▶ it is feasible to compute f(x) for all $x \in X$, but
- it is infeasible to find any x in the pre-image of f, such that f(x) = y, for a randomly chosen y ∈ Im f.
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The definition above is vague: to be exact, we should give precise notions of *feasible* and *infeasible*. This is possible, but so far **no-one has proved the existence of a true one-way function**. Some functions used in modern ciphers are properly called *candidate one-way functions*, which means that there is a body of belief that they are one-way.

A trapdoor one-way function is a one-way function *f* that has a "trapdoor": given some additional information, it is feasible to compute an *x* such that *f*(*x*) = *y*, for any *y* ∈ Im *f*.

These are just what we need for public key crypto: the private key is the trapdoor information.

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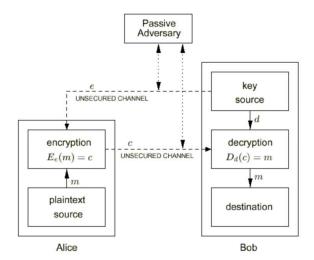
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- It's unlikely that one-way functions do not exist; some hash functions are as secure as NP-complete problems.
- Catastrophic failure for present functions is less common than gradual failure due to advances in computation power and (non-revolutionary but clever) algorithms or cryptanalysis, bringing some attacks closer to feasibility.

Asymmetric cryptography



References

Some content is adapted from Chapter 1 of the HAC. Schneier's text is readable (but dated). Smart's book is more rigorous. Kahn's book has a detailed history.

- National Science (C. Van Oorschot, S. A. Vanstone, eds. Handbook of Applied Cryptography. CRC Press. 1997. Online: http://www.cacr.math.uwaterloo.ca/hac.
- Bruce Schneier. Applied Cryptography. John Wiley & Sons, second edition, 1996.



Nigel Smart. Cryptography: An Introduction. http://www.cs.bris.ac.uk/~nigel/Crypto_Book/



David Kahn, The Codebreakers.

Simon & Schuster, revised edition, 1997.

Recommended Reading

Chapter 1 of HAC. Chapter 3, Sections 11.1–11.2 of Smart (3rd Ed).