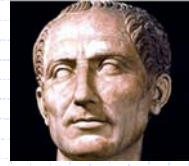


Cryptography Overview

John Mitchell

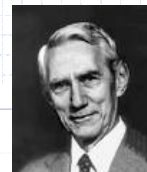
Caesar cipher



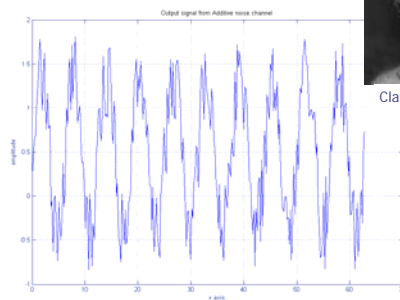
German Enigma



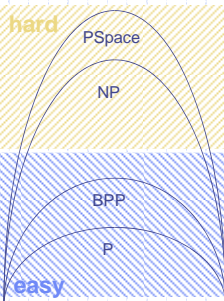
Information theory



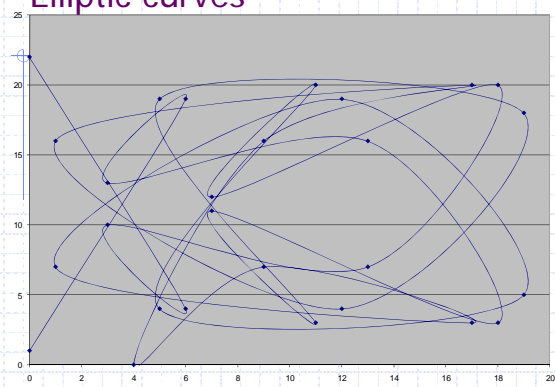
Claude Shannon



Complexity theory



Elliptic curves



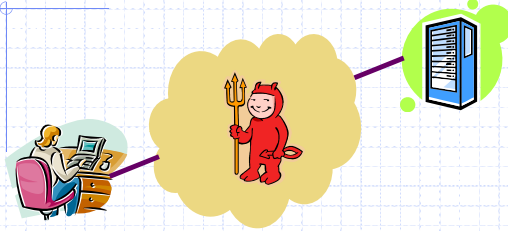
Cryptography

- ◆ Is
 - A tremendous tool
 - The basis for many security mechanisms
- ◆ Is not
 - The solution to all security problems
 - Reliable unless implemented properly
 - Reliable unless used properly
 - Something you should try to invent yourself unless
 - you spend a lot of time becoming an expert
 - you subject your design to outside review

Basic Cryptographic Concepts

- ◆ Encryption scheme:
 - functions to encrypt, decrypt data
- ◆ Symmetric encryption
 - Block, stream ciphers
- ◆ Hash function, MAC
 - Map any input to short hash; ideally, no collisions
 - MAC (keyed hash) used for message integrity
- ◆ Public-key cryptography
 - PK encryption: public *key* does not reveal *key*⁻¹
 - Signatures: sign data, verify signature

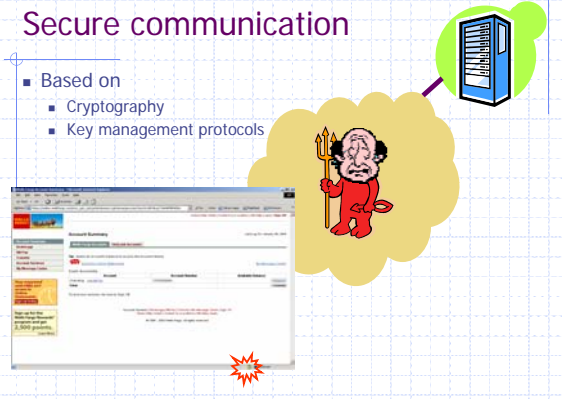
Example: network transactions



- Assume attackers can control the network
- We will talk about how they do this in a few weeks
 - Attackers can intercept packets, tamper with or suppress them, and inject arbitrary packets

Secure communication

- Based on
 - Cryptography
 - Key management protocols



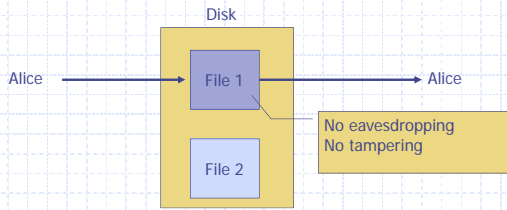
Secure Sockets Layer / TLS

- ◆ Standard for Internet security
 - Originally designed by Netscape
 - Goal: "... provide privacy and reliability between two communicating applications"
- ◆ Two main parts
 - Handshake Protocol
 - Establish shared secret key using public-key cryptography
 - Signed certificates for authentication
 - Record Layer
 - Transmit data using negotiated key, encryption function

SSL/TLS Cryptography

- ◆ Public-key encryption
 - Key chosen secretly (handshake protocol)
 - Key material sent encrypted with public key
- ◆ Symmetric encryption
 - Shared (secret) key encryption of data packets
- ◆ Signature-based authentication
 - Client can check signed server certificate
 - And vice-versa, if client certificates used
- ◆ Hash for integrity
 - Client, server check hash of sequence of messages
 - MAC used in data packets (record protocol)

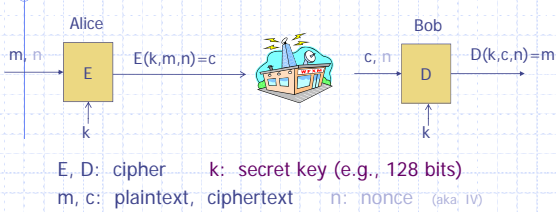
Goal 2: protected files



Analogous to secure communication:
Alice today sends a message to Alice tomorrow

Symmetric Cryptography

Symmetric encryption



Encryption algorithm is publicly known

- Never use a proprietary cipher

First example: One Time Pad

(single use key)

◆ Vernam (1917)

Key:	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	1	0
Plaintext:	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0
Ciphertext:	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	0

⊕

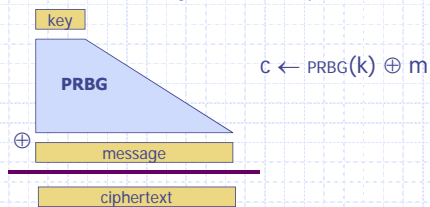
◆ Shannon '49:

- OTP is "secure" against ciphertext-only attacks

Stream ciphers (single use key)

Problem: OTP key is as long the message

Solution: Pseudo random key -- stream ciphers



Stream ciphers: RC4 (113MB/sec), SEAL (293MB/sec)

Dangers in using stream ciphers

One time key !! "Two time pad" is insecure:

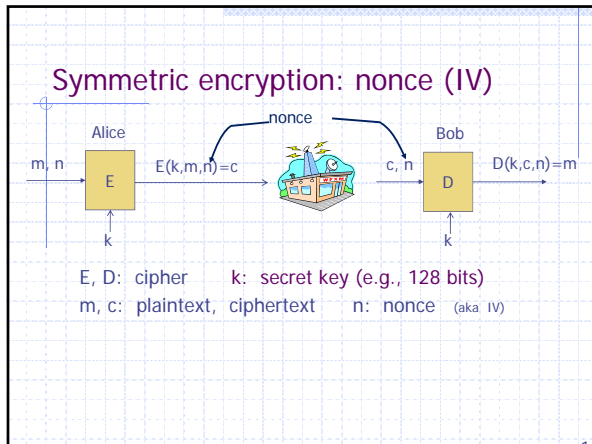
$$\begin{cases} C_1 \leftarrow m_1 \oplus \text{PRBG}(k) \\ C_2 \leftarrow m_2 \oplus \text{PRBG}(k) \end{cases}$$

Eavesdropper does:

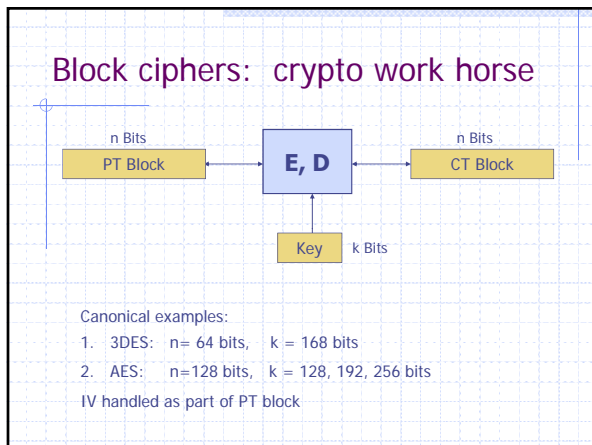
$$C_1 \oplus C_2 \rightarrow m_1 \oplus m_2$$

Enough redundant information in English that:

$$m_1 \oplus m_2 \rightarrow m_1, m_2$$

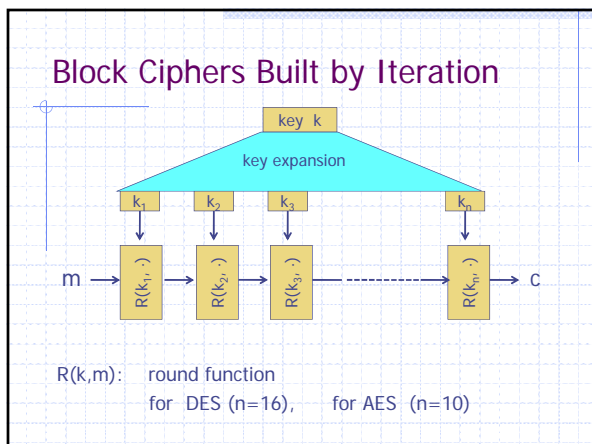


- ### Use Cases
- ◆ Single use key: (one time key)
 - Key is only used to encrypt one message
 - encrypted email: new key generated for every email
 - No need for nonce (set to 0)
 - ◆ Multi use key:
 - Key used to encrypt multiple messages
 - SSL: same key used to encrypt many packets
 - Need either unique nonce or random nonce
 - ◆ Multi use key, but all plaintexts are distinct:
 - Can eliminate nonce (use 0) using special mode (SIV)



- ### Building a block cipher
- Input: (m, k)
- Repeat simple mixing operation several times
- DES: Repeat 16 times:

$$\begin{cases} m_L \leftarrow m_R \\ m_R \leftarrow m_L \oplus F(k, m_R) \end{cases}$$
 - AES-128: Mixing step repeated 10 times
- Difficult to design: must resist subtle attacks
- differential attacks, linear attacks, brute-force, ...



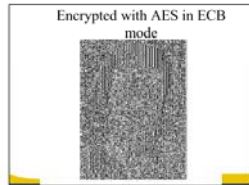
- ### Incorrect use of block ciphers
- ◆ Electronic Code Book (ECB):

PT: m₁ m₂ ...

↓

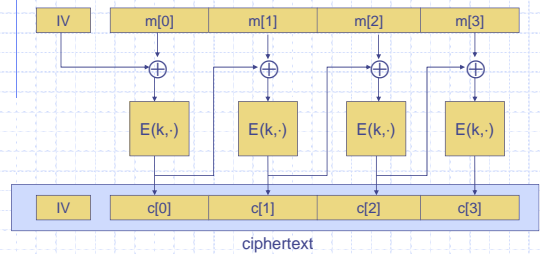
CT: c₁ c₂ ...
 - ◆ Problem:
 - if $m_1 = m_2$ then $c_1 = c_2$

In pictures



Correct use of block ciphers I: CBC mode

E a secure PRP. Cipher Block Chaining with IV:



Q: how to do decryption?

Use cases: how to choose an IV

Single use key: no IV needed ($IV=0$)

Multi use key: (CPA Security)

Best: use a fresh *random* IV for every message ($IV \leftarrow X$)

Can use *unique* IV (e.g. counter) [Bitlocker]
but then first step in CBC must be $IV' \leftarrow E(k, IV)$
benefit: may save transmitting IV with ciphertext

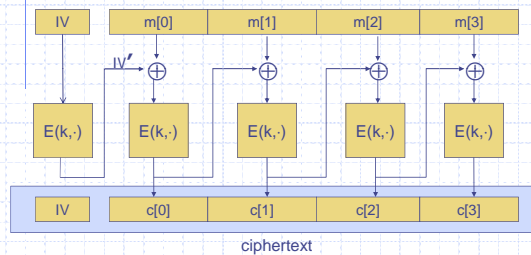
Multi-use key, but unique messages

SIV: eliminate IV by setting $IV \leftarrow F(k', PT)$

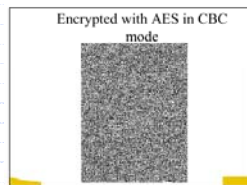
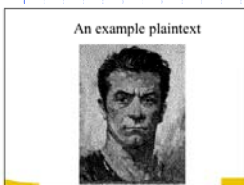
F: secure PRF with key k'

CBC with Unique IVs

unique IV means: (k, IV) pair is used for only one message
may be predictable so use $E(k, \cdot)$ as PRF

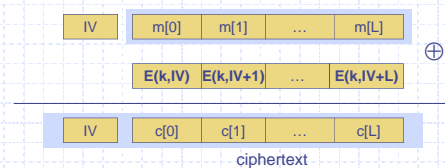


In pictures



Correct use of block ciphers II: CTR mode

Counter mode with a random IV: (parallel encryption)



- Why are these modes secure? not today.

Performance: Crypto++ 5.2.1 [Wei Dai]

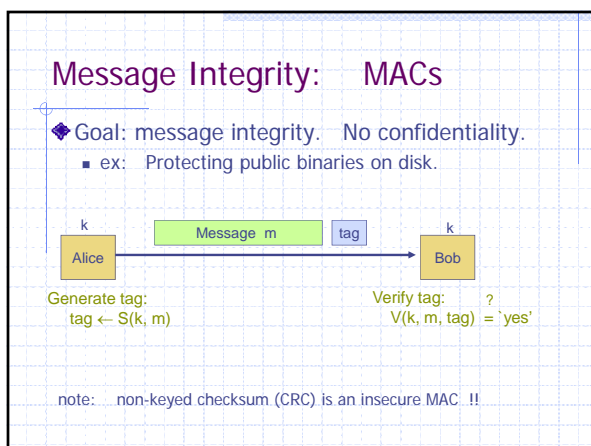
Pentium 4, 2.1 GHz (on Windows XP SP1, Visual C++ 2003)

Cipher	Block/key size	Speed (MB/sec)
RC4		113
SEAL		293
3DES	64/168	9
AES	128/128	61
IDEA	64/128	19
SHACAL-2	512/128	20

Hash functions and message integrity

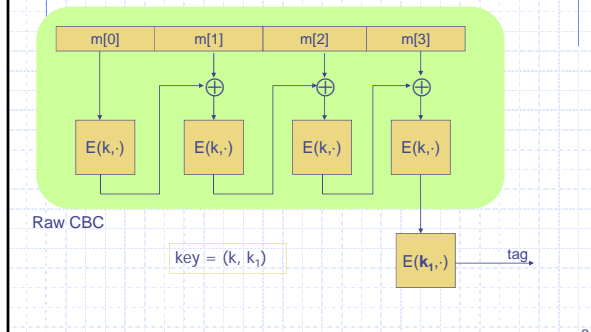
- ### Cryptographic hash functions
- ◆ Length-reducing function h
 - Map arbitrary strings to strings of fixed length
 - ◆ One way ("preimage resistance")
 - Given y , hard to find x with $h(x)=y$
 - ◆ Collision resistant
 - Hard to find any distinct m, m' with $h(m)=h(m')$
 - ◆ Also useful: 2nd preimage resistance
 - Given x , hard to find $x' \neq x$ with $h(x')=h(x)$
 - Collision resistance \Rightarrow 2nd preimage resistance

- ### Applications of one-way hash
- ◆ Password files (one way)
 - ◆ Digital signatures (collision resistant)
 - Sign hash of message instead of entire message
 - ◆ Data integrity
 - Compute and securely store hash of some data
 - Check later by recomputing hash and comparing
 - ◆ Keyed hash for message authentication
 - MAC – Message Authentication Code



- ### Secure MACs
- ◆ Attacker's power: chosen message attack.
 - for m_1, m_2, \dots, m_q attacker is given $t_i \leftarrow S(k, m_i)$
 - ◆ Attacker's goal: existential forgery.
 - produce some **new** valid message/tag pair (m, t) .
 $(m, t) \notin \{ (m_1, t_1), \dots, (m_q, t_q) \}$
 - ◆ A secure PRF gives a secure MAC:
 - $S(k, m) = F(k, m)$
 - $V(k, m, t)$: 'yes' if $t = F(k, m)$ and 'no' otherwise.

Construction 1: ECBC



Construction 2: HMAC (Hash-MAC)

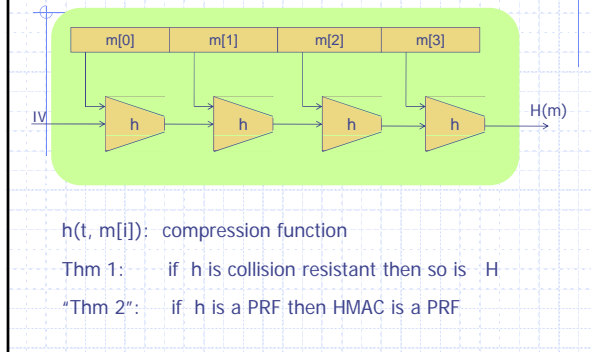
Most widely used MAC on the Internet.

H: hash function.
example: SHA-256 ; output is 256 bits

Building a MAC out of a hash function:

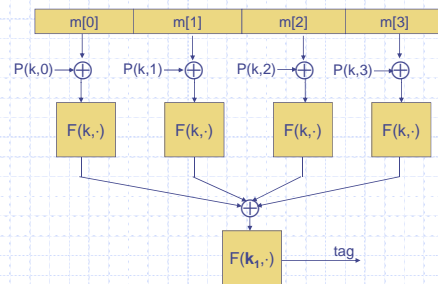
Standardized method: HMAC
 $S(k, m) = H(k \oplus \text{opad} \parallel H(k \oplus \text{ipad} \parallel m))$

SHA-256: Merkle-Damgard



Construction 3: PMAC – parallel MAC

ECBC and HMAC are sequential. PMAC:



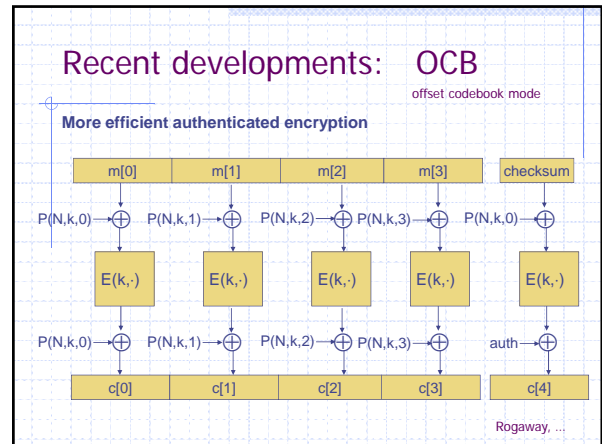
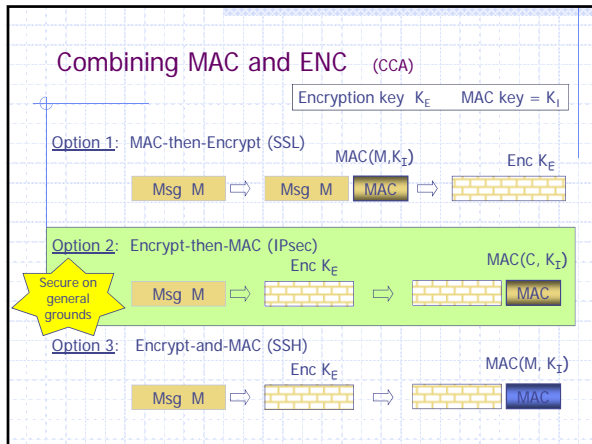
Why are these MAC constructions secure?

- ... not today – take CS255

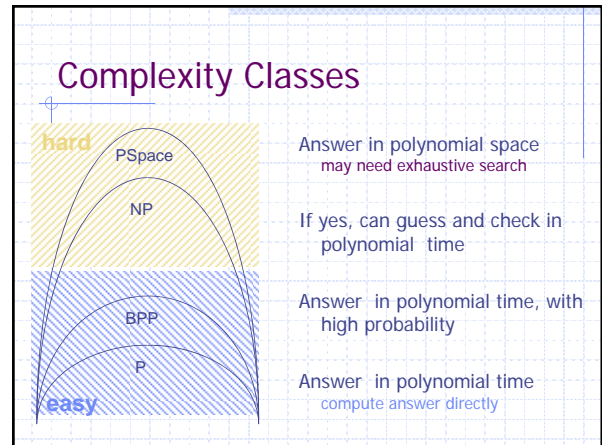
Why the last encryption step in ECBC?

- CBC (aka Raw-CBC) is not a secure MAC:
 - Given tag on a message m , attacker can deduce tag for some other message m'
 - How: good exercise.

Authenticated Encryption: Encryption + MAC



Public-key Cryptography



- ### Example: RSA
- Arithmetic modulo pq
 - Generate secret primes p, q
 - Generate secret numbers a, b with $x^{ab} \equiv x \pmod{pq}$
 - Public encryption key $\langle n, a \rangle$
 - Encrypt($\langle n, a \rangle, x$) = $x^a \pmod{n}$
 - Private decryption key $\langle n, b \rangle$
 - Decrypt($\langle n, b \rangle, y$) = $y^b \pmod{n}$
 - Main properties
 - This appears to be a "trapdoor permutation"
 - Cannot compute b from n, a
 - Apparently, need to factor $n = pq$

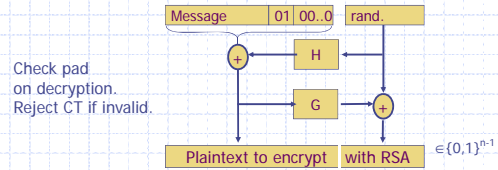
- ### Why RSA works (quick sketch)
- Let p, q be two distinct primes and let $n = p \cdot q$
 - Encryption, decryption based on group Z_n^*
 - For $n = p \cdot q$, order $\phi(n) = (p-1) \cdot (q-1)$
 - Proof: $(p-1) \cdot (q-1) = p \cdot q - p - q + 1$
 - Key pair: $\langle a, b \rangle$ with $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$
 - Encrypt(x) = $x^a \pmod{n}$
 - Decrypt(y) = $y^b \pmod{n}$
 - Since $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$, have $x^{ab} \equiv x \pmod{n}$
 - Proof: if $\gcd(x, n) = 1$, then by general group theory, otherwise use "Chinese remainder theorem".

Textbook RSA is insecure

- ◆ What if message is from a small set (yes/no)?
 - Can build table
- ◆ What if I want to outbid you in secret auction?
 - I take your encrypted bid c and submit $c \cdot (101/100)^e \bmod n$
- ◆ What if there's some protocol in which I can learn other message decryptions?

OAEP [BR94, Shoup '01]

Preprocess message for RSA



- ◆ If RSA is trapdoor permutation, then this is chosen-ciphertext secure (if H,G "random oracles")
- ◆ In practice: use SHA-1 or MD5 for H and G

Digital Signatures

- ◆ Public-key encryption
 - Alice publishes encryption key
 - Anyone can send encrypted message
 - Only Alice can decrypt messages with this key
- ◆ Digital signature scheme
 - Alice publishes key for verifying signatures
 - Anyone can check a message signed by Alice
 - Only Alice can send signed messages

Properties of signatures

- ◆ Functions to sign and verify
 - $\text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, \text{message})$
 - $\text{Verify}(\text{Key}, x, m) = \begin{cases} \text{true} & \text{if } x = \text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, m) \\ \text{false} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$
- ◆ Resists forgery
 - Cannot compute $\text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, m)$ from m and Key
 - Resists existential forgery: given Key , cannot produce $\text{Sign}(\text{Key}^{-1}, m)$ for any random or arbitrary m

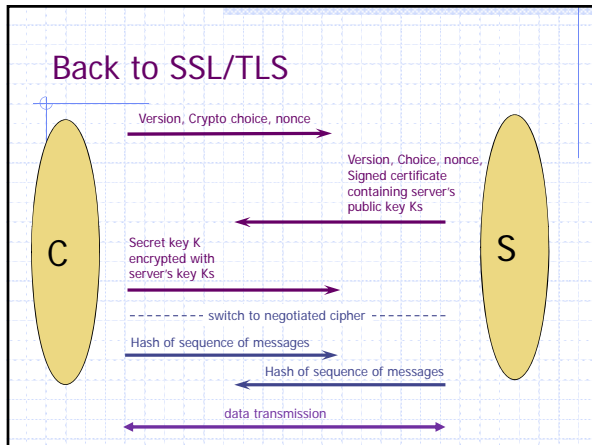
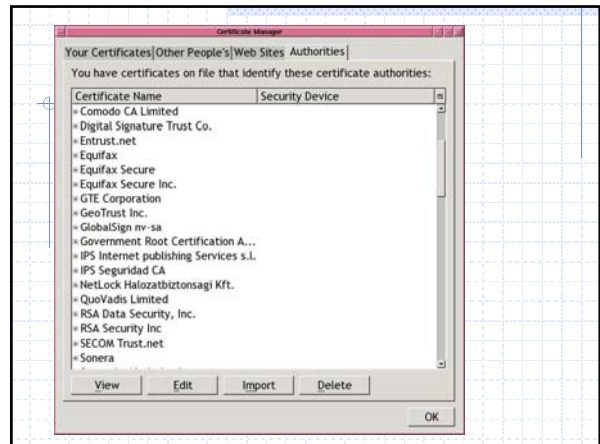
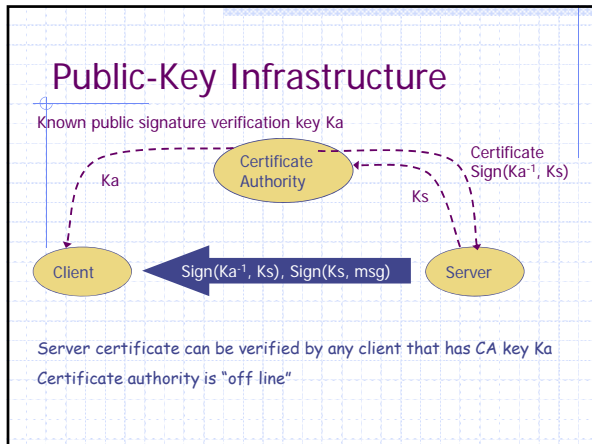
RSA Signature Scheme

- ◆ Publish decryption instead of encryption key
 - Alice publishes decryption key
 - Anyone can decrypt a message encrypted by Alice
 - Only Alice can send encrypt messages
- ◆ In more detail,
 - Alice generates primes p, q and key pair (a, b)
 - $\text{Sign}(x) = x^a \bmod n$
 - $\text{Verify}(y) = y^b \bmod n$
 - Since $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$, have $x^{ab} \equiv x \pmod n$

Generally, sign hash of message instead of full plaintext

Public-Key Infrastructure (PKI)

- ◆ Anyone can send Bob a secret message
 - Provided they know Bob's public key
- ◆ How do we know a key belongs to Bob?
 - If imposter substitutes another key, can read Bob's mail
- ◆ One solution: PKI
 - Trusted root authority (VeriSign, IBM, United Nations)
 - Everyone must know the verification key of root authority
 - Check your browser; there are hundreds!!
 - Root authority can sign certificates
 - Certificates identify others, including other authorities
 - Leads to certificate chains



- ## Crypto Summary
- Encryption scheme:
 - functions to encrypt, decrypt data
 - Symmetric encryption
 - Block, stream ciphers
 - Hash function, MAC
 - Map any input to short hash; ideally, no collisions
 - MAC (keyed hash) used for message integrity
 - Public-key cryptography
 - PK encryption: public *key* does not reveal *key*¹
 - Signatures: sign data, verify signature

- ## Limitations of cryptography
- Most security problems are not crypto problems
 - This is good
 - Cryptography works!
 - This is bad
 - People make other mistakes; crypto doesn't solve them
 - Misuse of cryptography is fatal for security
 - WEP – ineffective, highly embarrassing for industry
 - Occasional unexpected attacks on systems subjected to serious review

