## Internetsicherheit - Einführung in die Kryptologie What is Cryptology?



# **Goals of Cryptography**

Confidentiality (privacy)
- A message can only be read by the intended parties
Authentication

 The receiver of a message can ascertain its origin, an attacker should not be able to masquerade as someone else Integrity

The receiver of a message can verify that the message was not altered in transit

# Non-Repudiation

- The sender of a message cannot falsely deny later that he sent the message (the recipient can prove this to a third party) (Anonymity) - Not part of ISI

→ Form the basic building blocks for secure communication

# Secret Key Cryptography - Basic Terminology



#### Primary goal - Confidentiality

Messages and Encryption - A message is plaintext. The Process of disguising a message in such a way as to hide its substance is called encryption

Algorithms and Keys - A cryptographic algorithm, also called a cipher, is the

The sprographic argonism, and canced a spring is the mathematical function used for encryption and decryption - The security of a modern cryptographic algorithm is based on a secret key. This key might be any one of a large number of values. The range of possible key values is called the **keyspace** - Encryption and decryption operations are dependent on the key K and this is denoted by the K subscript in the functions

 $E_k(P) = C$  and  $D_k(C) = P$ - Given a key, every possible plaintext must result in a unique ciphertext because otherwise, decryption would not be unambiguously possible

#### What is a Secure Cryptographic Algorithm Ideal: the algorithm is information-theoretically secure

 It cannot, by no means, be broken (even trying all keys does not help)
 There is only one such scheme known today: the One-Time Pad

Desirable: the algorithm is computationally secure - It can be proven that there is no better method than trying all keys

- Today, there's no such algorithm known!

Reality: we use algorithms we believe/hope to be close to computationally secure - The algorithm has been publicly available for a while (at least a

few years) - N one has found a way to broat the standard of th

 N one has found a way to break the algorithm significantly faster than trying all keys (at least not officially published!)
 Using all computers in the world, it takes a long time to try all keys

- Trying all keys is also known as the brute force attack



- "Good Guys" (knowing the key) can compute the output efficiently
   "Bad Guys" (without key) have a hard time to compute the correct output
- Analogy: Combination lock, three numbers between 1 and 20  $20^3 = 8000$  different combinations 10 seconds to enter a combination  $\rightarrow$  effort of the good guy

Classical Phase

Caesar and Monoalphabetic Substitution Cipher

Substitution Table - Caesar's Cipher

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

DEFGHIJKLMNOPORSTUVWXYZABC

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ

General Substitution Table

MESSAGE FROM MARY STUART KILL THE QUEEN

PHVVD JHIUR PPDUB VWXDU WNLOO WKHTX HHO

JEKKE DEMAR JJEAF KOLEA OHVII OXENL BEP

Security of the Monoalphabetic Substitution Cipher

Used in the Arab world and Europe (alchemists, monks,

- But: the cipher is very susceptible to frequency analysis

diplomats) as early as during the 13th century

infeasible

ciphertext character

plaintext-language

Substitution means replacing of bits or bytes using a table!

 $-26! = 4 * 10^{26} = 2^{88} Keys \rightarrow$  Brute force attack even today

- A specific plaintext character is always mapped to the same

- Cryptanalysis: compare the frequencies of occurrence of the

Vigenère square

Keyword: WHITE

MESSAGE FROM ...

WHITEWH ITEW

ILALECL NKSI

ciphertext characters with the character-frequencies of the

The cipher (and variants) was used for centuries, only a few

Vigenère Polyalphabetic Substitution Cipher (1553)

ning the keyword length

· If they are encrypted using the same keyword-characters, the

By analysing the behaviour of common digrams, trigrams (ES, ER, THE...)

 → If digrams/trigrams in the ciphertext correspond to digrams/trigrams in the plaintext, their distance must be a multiple of the keyword length

Plaintext THEBESTQUESTTOTESTTHEBESTOFTHERESTINTHEWESTISTHETEST

Ciphertext POMUTOAYNTOABHXAZBMLATMLXKMBATNLAMMJAPXAAZBBWPOMMTOA

45 = 3 · 3 · ⑤

Keyword length = n → every n<sup>th</sup> plaintext character is encrypted with the

· Take the same characters that are encrypted with the same Caesar Cipher

Ciphertext POMUIOATNIOABHXAZEMLAIMLXKMBAINLAMMJAPXAAZEBBWPOMMIOA

ne Caesar Cipher (determined by the Vigenère square)

The factor 5 appears in most distances of ciphertext digrams/trigrams → it

25 = 5 5

40 = 2 · 2 · 2 · 5

5 = 1 . 5

 The factor of appears in hist distances of opis most likely the keyword length
 2. Step: Determining the keyword characters

> $POOAAKNJAPO \rightarrow W$ OAAZIMLAZOA  $\rightarrow H$

scientists were able to break the cipher back then

Vgenere royaipmadedic Subsitutudo Al Colf refi JKL HNO POR ST UVWXI IA COLF REFI ST UVXXI IA COLF FG II JKL HNO POR ST UVWXI IA COLF FG II JKL HNO POR ST UVWXI IA COLF FG II JK HNO POR ST UVWXI IA COLF FG II JK HNO POR ST UVWXI IA COLF FG II JK

HIN O O C R T U U W XI LA R C D F G H I J KL NO O C R T U U W XI LA R C D F G H I J KL NO P Q R T U U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q R T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M N S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M N S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W XI LA R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W X S T A R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W X S T A R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W X S T A R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W X S T A R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W X S T A R C D F G H J KL M O P Q S T U W X

Breaking the Vigenère Cipher

digrams/trigrams are also vi

1. Sten: Determine

EYUOBMDXVTHIJPRCNAKQLSGZFW + 26! possible keys

- 8000 \* 10 = 80000 seconds = 1 day to try all combinations
   On average: efford of the bad guy = 40'000 sec = 1/2 day
   What does a fourth number in the lock cost/help?
- Good guy: 13.3 sec (+ 33%)
- Bad guy:  $\frac{1}{2} * 20^4 * 13.3 = 1066666$  sec = 12.5 days (+ 2400%)

#### ➔ Making secrets/keys longer is usually a good idea!

- Modern computers can try keys much faster than humans entering numbers in a combination lock
- trying hundreds of thousands of keys per seconds is feasible
   special hardware, parallelization to speed it up
- Today's ciphers use binary keys, 128 bits is considered secure  $-2^{128}=3.4\ast10^{38}$
- 1 Computer, 1000000 keys/s  $\rightarrow$  3.4 \* 10<sup>32</sup> sec = 10<sup>25</sup> years - Using 1000000 computers in parallel  $\rightarrow$  10<sup>19</sup> years - Compare: age of the universe is 1.5 \* 10<sup>10</sup> years
- Are 64-bit keys also enough?
   NOI
- NO! $- 2^{64} = 1.8 * 10^{19}, 1000000 \frac{keys}{s} \rightarrow 1.8 * 10^{13} \text{ sec} = 570000 \text{ years}$
- 100000 computers in parallel → 0.57 years = 208 days

#### Cryptanalysis Fundamental Assumptions

# The security of a cipher should rely on the secrecy of the key only!

Auguste Kerckhoffs, "La Cryptographie militaire", 1883

 Attacker knows every detail of the cryptographic algorithm
 Attacker is in possession of encryption / decryption equipment
 Attacker has access to an arbitrary number of plaintext / ciphertext pairs generated with the same (unknown) key
 Strong cipher: There is no better attack than trying all keys (brute force attack)

# Types of attack

Ciphertext-Only Attack - Attacker knows ciphertext of several messages encrypted with the same key and/or several keys - Recover the plaintext of as many messages as possible or even better deduce the key (or keys)

Known-Plaintext Attack

Known ciphertext / plaintext pair of several messages
 Deduce the key or an algorithm to decrypt further messages
 Chosen-Plaintext Attack

 Attacker can choose the plaintext that gets encrypted and can thereby potentially get more information about the key (one application: differential cryptanalysis)

### ➔ A strong cipher should resist all these attacks!

## **Historical Development of Cryptology**

- Classical phase until 18th century - Various forms of message hiding (Steganography), e.g. tattoos on the scalps of slaves covered by hair - Caesar cipher - Mono- and polyalphabetic substitution ciphery
- Transposition ciphers "Semi"-modern phase (1800-1970) - Mechanization of ciphers, rotors machines

#### Modern phase (1970-today) - Heavily influenced by Claude Shannon's work

- Reavily influenced by Claude Snannon's work
   Computer-based ciphers, partially based on mathematical
   foundations (especially public key cryptography)
- - MOAEE MRQSM TUSAK EARIE GYLNE SLFTT RUH SMTUE SLGYL NMOAE ARIER UHSAK EFTTE MRQ

Transposition means permutation of bit- or byte-positions!

#### Breaking the Transposition Cipher

- Trick: the cipher can be attacked "incrementally"
  The attacker first guesses the number of columns (here: 9)
- 33 characters / 9 = 3.66 → 6 columns with 4 characters and 3 columns with 3 characters
   He then takes a 4-character block from the ciphertext and compares it
- If "4 reasonable 2-character block not not combinations" show up, then it is likely that the columns follow after each other in the column-ordered plaintext
- the columns follow after each other in the column-ordered plaintext SMTUESLGYLNMOABARIERUHSAKEFTTEMRO

EMRQ EMRQ EMRQ EMRQ

- The likely combinations are then tested with a third 4-character block and so on,...

SMTUESLGYLNMOAEARIERUHSAKEFTTEMRQ EMRQ SMTU

#### Semi-Modern Phase

 Desire to increase speed to encrypt / decrypt → mechanical ciphers (usually rotor machines)
 Cryptography became even more important with the advent of radio communications, especially for the military
 First mechanical cipher: Thomas Jefferson's Cipher Wheel

#### World War II: German Enigma Machine

- Electromechanical rotor machine implementing a polyalphabetic substitution cipher

- Used during World War II by the German Wehrmacht and Kriegsmarine to encrypt most of its communications
- Key determines initial rotor settings and cables on the plugboard, 10<sup>23</sup> possible Keys (= 76 Bits)

Yey was kept constant for a day, distributed via codebooks
 Could be broken by the British at Bletchley Park, mainly due to weaknesses both in the implementation and the usage of the

#### **Modern Phase**

machine

Scientific Foundations by Claude Shannon (1916-2001) - Worked at MIT / Bell Labs

Information Theory
 Maximum capacity of a noisy transmission channel
 Definition of the "binary digit" (bit) as a unit of information

Definition of "entropy" as a measure of information
 Cryptography

Model of a secrecy system
 Definition of perfect secrecy
 Formulation the basic principles of "confusion" (substitution
 operations) and "diffusion" (transposition/permutation
 operations)

# Entropy - the Measure of Information

 Shannon defines entropy as the amount of information in the outcome of a random experiment (e.g. rolling a dice), measured in bits

 "the difficulty to guess the outcome correctly"
 For a discrete random experiment x with n possible outcomes (1...n), entropy is defines as follows

 $H = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p(i) \log_2\left(\frac{1}{p(i)}\right)$ 

-  $p(\mathbf{i})$  is the probability of the outcome I and the probabilities of all outcomes must add up to one:

 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} p(i) = 1$ 

- The entropy of a discrete random experiment is always maximized if all outcomes are equally like

# Entropy and Key Length

Entropy of flipping a fair coin (pheads = ptails = 0.5)  $H = \frac{1}{2} * \log_2(2) + \frac{1}{2} * \log_2(2) = 2 * \frac{1}{2} * \log_2(2) = 1 Bit$ 

- Entropy of flipping an unfair coin (pheads = 0.25, ptails = 0.75)
- $H = \frac{1}{4} * \log_2(4) + \frac{3}{4} * \log_2\left(\frac{4}{2}\right) = 0.81 Bit$
- A property of entropy is that it is additive
- Throwing two fair coins together:
- $H = 4 * \frac{1}{4} * \log_2(4) = 2 Bits$
- → equal to throwing two coins seperately (1 Bit + 1 Bit) - So what's the entropy of a cryptographic key with length 128 Bits?
- If the bits are selected independently and randomly: 128\*1 = 128 Bits

- but if the bits are not selected completely randomly, the entropy is smaller; with p = 0.25/0.75: 128 \* 0.81 = 104 Bits (corresponds to a truly randomly selected key of 104 bits) - Since the second key has 24 Bits less entropy, it is  $2^{24}$  = 16777216 times easier to break than the first key with a brute force attack

→ Selecting key material as randomly as possible is crucial in cryptography!

## Entropy of the English Language

difficult

- W/hv?

the plaintext

The One-Time Pad

n bits of plaintext P

n bits of random kev K

1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 0

 $C = P \oplus K \rightarrow P = C \oplus K$ 

• Example: Plaintext = 0010, Key = 1011

attack:  $P = C \oplus K$ 

 $1001 \oplus 0000 = 1001$ 

 $1001 \oplus 0001 = 1000$  $1001 \oplus 0010 = 1011$ 

 $1001 \oplus 0011 = 1010$ 

 $1001 \oplus 0100 = 1101$ 

 $1001 \oplus 0101 = 1100$ 

 $1001 \oplus 0110 = 1111$ 

 $1001 \oplus 0111 = 1110$ 

Problems:

plaintext

Summarv

ciphertext

positions

- Cryptanalysis often bases on the redundancy of natural language texts

→ analysis with Shannon's measure of information - If all 26 characters were equally frequent and selected independently

- Entropy  $H = 4.7 \frac{bits}{character} \rightarrow$  no redundancy (max.entropy) - With real probability distribution of characters in English texts -  $H = 4.19 \frac{bits}{character} \rightarrow 0.51$  bits redundancy per character - Written English taking into account the full context

Written English taking into account the full context
 Shannon (1950): Entropy H = 0.6...1.3 Bits/Character
 Simulations (1999): Entropy H = 1.1 bits/Character
 > Logs and lots of redundancy in real English text!

- Reducing this redundancy makes frequency analysis more

- Good data compression algorithms (e.g. Lempel-Ziv) remove

nearly all redundancy and come very close to the entropy of

Shannon's Definition of Perfect Security

- Decrypting works by applying the same key sequence again

With a ciphertext of length n, trying all 2<sup>n</sup> keys results in all

- The attacker cannot tell which plaintext is the correct one

**1001 () 1000 = 0001** 

1001 · 1001 = 0000

1001 

1010 = 0011

 $1001 \oplus 1011 = 0010$ 

1001 @ 1100 = 0101

1001 + 1101 = 0100

 $1001 \oplus 1110 = 0111$ 

1001 + 1111 = 0110

Only used in situations with extreme security demands (military etc.)

distribution of secret key over secure channel

Same key can be used for several messages, but should be changed

Goals: confidentiality, authentication, integrity, non-repudiation

- Secret key cryptosystem; a message (plaintext) is encrypted using

- 128 bits is a reasonable key-length for secret key cryptosystems

- Substitution (diffusion) means replacing of bits using a table

- Transposition (confusion) means permutation of bit- or byte-

- Cryptosystems can often be broken because of redundancy of

- Claude Shannon started the area of modern cryptography

a cipher and a secret key and results in the corresponding

Cumbersome usage: key must be as long as plaintext

Secret Key or Symmetric Cryptosystems

Same key used for encryption and decryption

periodically → secure key distribution problem

- Cryptology = Cryptography + Cryptanalysis

- All security should lie in the secrecy of the key

- Entrony as the measure for information

- One-Time-Pad as the perfect cryptosystem

- General model of secret key cryptosystems

- Basic operations of ciphers

the plaintext  $\rightarrow$  frequency analysis

Key must be kept absolutely secret

The attacker intercepts the ciphertext and performs a brute force

- This is the only cipher known today that is information

theoretically secure → even trying all keys won't work!

2<sup>n</sup> different possibilities of the plaintext of length n

bitwise XOR

n bits of ciphertext c

use n random key bits only

once and then discard them

So which is the

right plaintext?

How? → Compressing before encryption!