CSE 484 / CSE M 584: Cryptography

Winter 2022

Tadayoshi (Yoshi) Kohno yoshi@cs

UW Instruction Team: David Kohlbrenner, Yoshi Kohno, Franziska Roesner. Thanks to Dan Boneh, Dieter Gollmann, Dan Halperin, John Manferdelli, John Mitchell, Vitaly Shmatikov, Bennet Yee, and many others for sample slides and materials ...

Announcements

- Quiz sections this week have converted to extended office hours via Zoom (optional to attend) (not recorded since they are office hours)
- Friday entirely online (Emily McReynolds guest lecture)

Review slides from Monday

Common Communication Security Goals

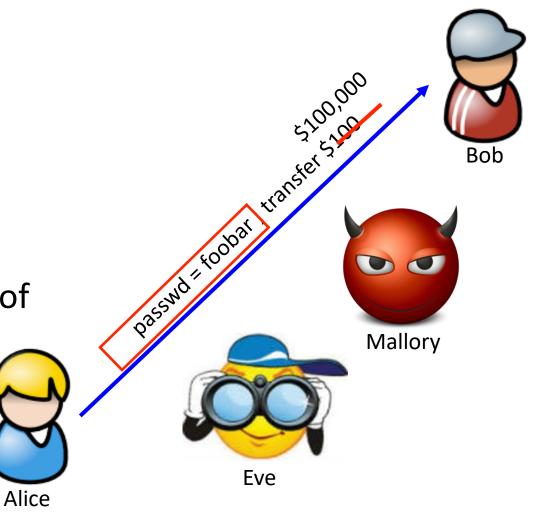
Privacy of data:

Prevent exposure of information

Integrity of data:

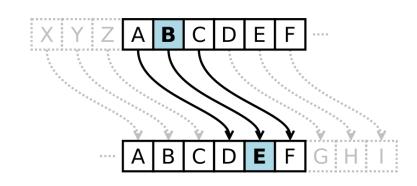
Prevent modification of

information



History: Caesar Cipher (Shift Cipher)

 Plaintext letters are replaced with letters fixed shift away in the alphabet.



• Example:

• Plaintext: The quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog

• Key: Shift 3

ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ DEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZABC

• Ciphertext: wkhtx lfneu rzqir amxps vryhu wkhod cbgrj

1/26/2022 CSE 484 - Winter 2022

6

History: Caesar Cipher (Shift Cipher)

- ROT13: shift 13 (encryption and decryption are symmetric)
- What is the key space?
 - 26 possible shifts.
- How to attack shift ciphers?
 - Brute force.

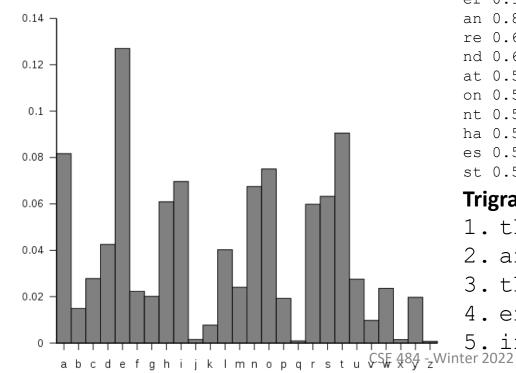


History: Substitution Cipher

- Superset of shift ciphers: each letter is substituted for another one.
- One way to implement: Add a secret key
- Example:
 - Plaintext: ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
 - Cipher: ZEBRASCDFGHIJKLMNOPQTUVWXY
- "State of the art" for thousands of years

History: Substitution Cipher

- What is the key space?
- How to attack?
 - Frequency analysis.



26! ~= 2^88

Bigrams:

th	1.52%	en	0.55%	ng	0.18%
he	1.28%	ed	0.53%	of	0.16%
in	0.94%	to	0.52%	al	0.09%
er	0.94%	it	0.50%	de	0.09%
an	0.82%	ou	0.50%	se	0.08%
re	0.68%	ea	0.47%	le	0.08%
nd	0.63%	hi	0.46%	sa	0.06%
at	0.59%	is	0.46%	si	0.05%
on	0.57%	or	0.43%	ar	0.04%
nt	0.56%	ti	0.34%	ve	0.04%
ha	0.56%	as	0.33%	ra	0.04%
es	0.56%	te	0.27%	ld	0.02%
st	0.55%	et	0.19%	ur	0.02%

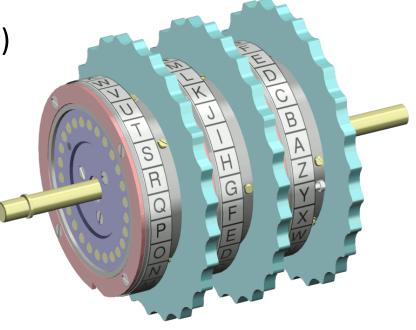
Trigrams:

1. the	6.ion	11.	nce
2.and	7. tio	12.	edt
3. tha	8. for	13.	tis
4.ent	9. nde	14.	oft
5.ing	10.has	15.	sth

History: Enigma Machine

Uses rotors (substitution cipher) that change position after each key.





Key = initial setting of rotors

Key space?

26ⁿ for n rotors

End review of Monday slides

How Cryptosystems Work Today

- Layered approach: Cryptographic protocols (like "CBC mode encryption") built on top of cryptographic primitives (like "block ciphers")
- Flavors of cryptography: Symmetric (private key) and asymmetric (public key)
- Public algorithms (Kerckhoff's Principle)
- Security proofs based on assumptions (not this course)
- Be careful about inventing your own! (If you just want to use some crypto in your system, use vetted libraries!)

The Cryptosystem Stack

- Primitives:
 - AES / DES / etc
 - RSA / ElGamal / Elliptic Curve (ed25519)
- Modes:
 - Block modes (CBC, ECB, CTR, GCM, ...)
 - Padding structures
- Protocols:
 - TLS / SSL / SSH / etc
- Usage of Protocols:
 - Browser security
 - Secure remote logins

Kerckhoff's Principle

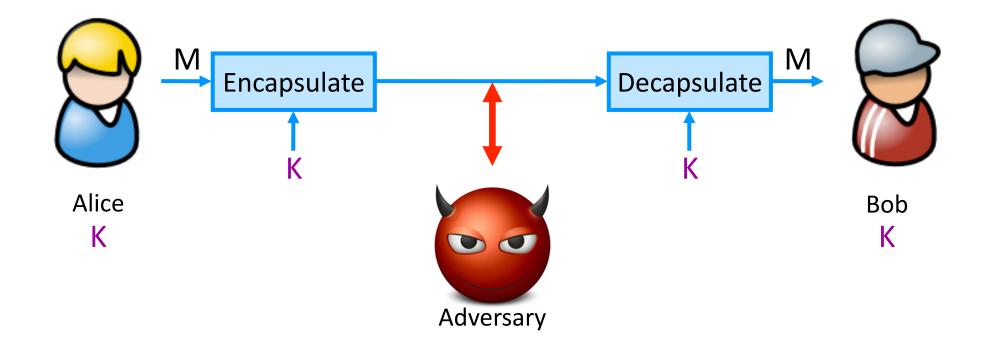
- Security of a cryptographic object should depend only on the secrecy of the secret (private) key.
- Security should not depend on the secrecy of the algorithm itself.

• Foreshadow: Need for randomness – the key to keep private

- Symmetric cryptography
 - Both communicating parties have access to a shared random string K, called the key.
- Asymmetric cryptography
 - Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk.
 - Hard concept to understand, and revolutionary! Inventors won Turing Award

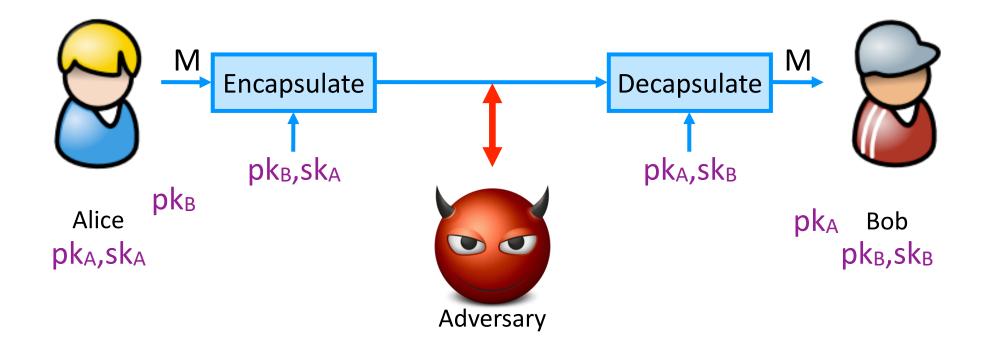
Symmetric Setting

Both communicating parties have access to a shared random string K, called the key.



Asymmetric Setting

Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk.



Received April 4, 1977

A Method for Obtaining Digital Signatures and Public-Key Cryptosystems

R.L. Rivest, A. Shamir, and L. Adleman*

Abstract

An encryption method is presented with the novel property that publicly revealing an encryption key does not thereby reveal the corresponding decryption key. This has two important consequences:

- Couriers or other secure means are not needed to transmit keys, since a
 message can be enciphered using an encryption key publicly revealed by
 the intended recipient. Only he can decipher the message, since only he
 knows the corresponding decryption key.
- 2. A message can be "signed" using a privately held decryption key. Anyone can verify this signature using the corresponding publicly revealed encryption key. Signatures cannot be forged, and a signer cannot later deny the validity of his signature. This has obvious applications in "electronic mail" and "electronic funds transfer" systems.

- Symmetric cryptography
 - Both communicating parties have access to a shared random string K, called the key.
- Asymmetric cryptography
 - Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk.

- Symmetric cryptography
 - Both communicating parties have access to a shared random string K, called the key.
 - Challenge: How do you privately share a key?
- Asymmetric cryptography
 - Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk.
 - Challenge: How do you validate a public key?

- Symmetric cryptography
 - Both communicating parties have access to a shared random string K, called the key.
 - Challenge: How do you privately share a key?
- Asymmetric cryptography
 - Each party creates a public key pk and a secret key sk.
 - Challenge: How do you validate a public key?
- Key building block: Randomness something that the adversaries won't know and can't predict and can't figure out

Ingredient: Randomness

- Many applications (especially security ones) require randomness
- Explicit uses:
 - Generate secret cryptographic keys
 - Generate random initialization vectors for encryption
- Other "non-obvious" uses:
 - Generate passwords for new users
 - Shuffle the order of votes (in an electronic voting machine)
 - Shuffle cards (for an online gambling site)

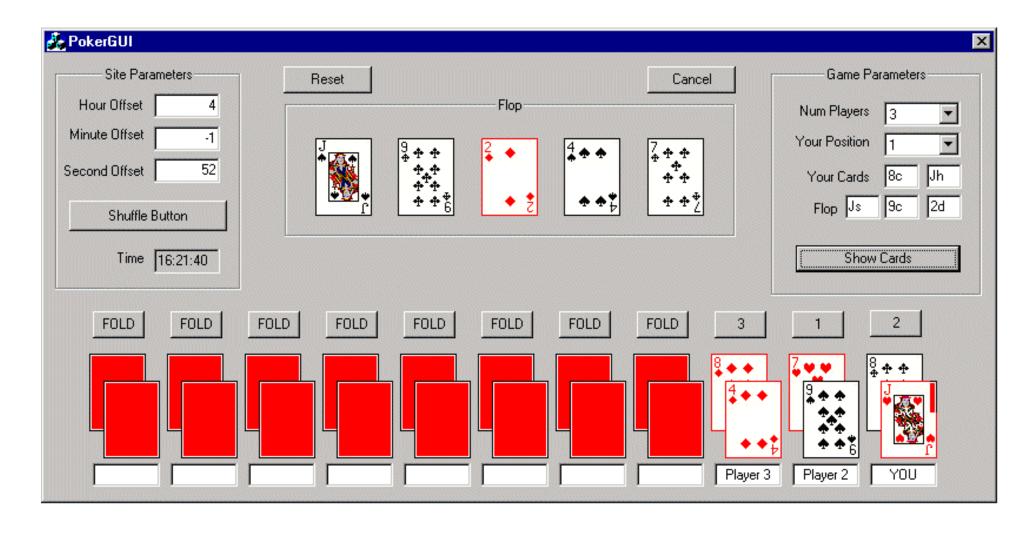
C's rand() Function

C has a built-in random function: rand()

```
unsigned long int next = 1;
/* rand: return pseudo-random integer on 0..32767 */
int rand(void) {
    next = next * 1103515245 + 12345;
    return (unsigned int) (next/65536) % 32768;
}
/* srand: set seed for rand() */
void srand(unsigned int seed) {
    next = seed;
}
```

- Problem: don't use rand() for security-critical applications!
 - Given a few sample outputs, you can predict subsequent ones





More details: "How We Learned to Cheat at Online Poker: A Study in Software Security" http://www.cigital.com/papers/download/developer_gambling.php

PS3 and Randomness

Hackers obtain PS3 private cryptography key due to epic programming fail? (update)

http://www.engadget.com/2010/12/29/hackers-obtain-ps3-private-cryptography-key-due-to-epic-programm/

- 2010/2011: Hackers found/released private root key for Sony's PS3
- Key used to sign software now can load any software on PS3 and it will execute as "trusted"
- Due to bad random number: same "random" value used to sign all system updates

How might we get "good" random numbers?

Obtaining Pseudorandom Numbers

- For security applications, want "cryptographically secure pseudorandom numbers"
- Libraries include cryptographically secure pseudorandom number generators (CSPRNG)

Obtaining Pseudorandom Numbers

• Linux:

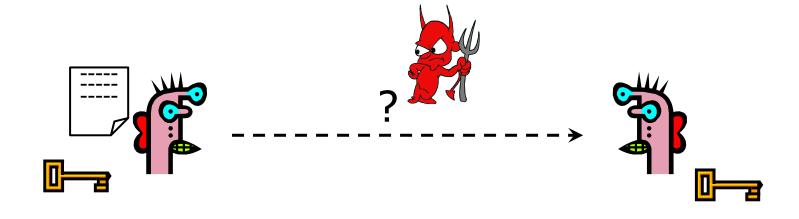
- /dev/random blocking (waits for enough entropy)
- /dev/urandom nonblocking, possibly less entropy
- getrandom() syscall! by default, blocking
- Internally:
 - Entropy pool gathered from multiple sources
 - e.g., mouse/keyboard/network timings
- Challenges with embedded systems, saved VMs

Obtaining Random Numbers

- Better idea:
 - AMD/Intel's on-chip random number generator
 - RDRAND
- Hopefully no hardware bugs!

Back to encryption

Confidentiality: Basic Problem



Given (Symmetric Crypto): both parties know the same secret.

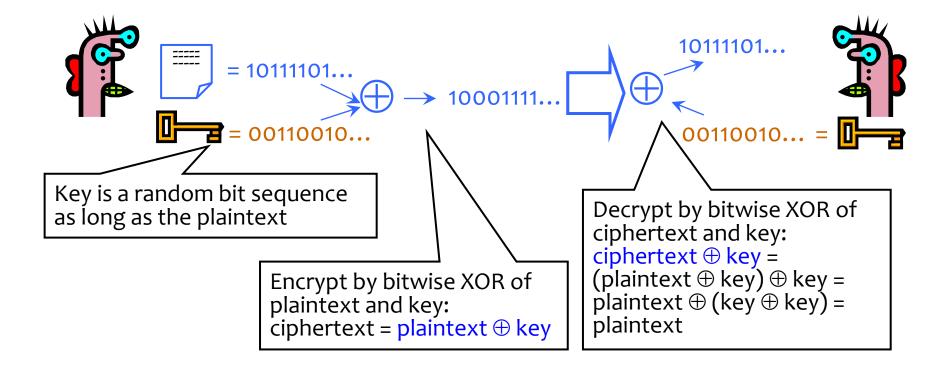
Goal: send a message confidentially.

Ignore for now: How is this achieved in practice??

One weird bit-level trick

- XOR!
 - Just XOR with a random bit!
- Why?
 - Uniform output
 - Independent of 'message' bit

One-Time Pad



Cipher achieves perfect secrecy if and only if there are as many possible keys as possible plaintexts, and every key is equally likely (Claude Shannon, 1949)

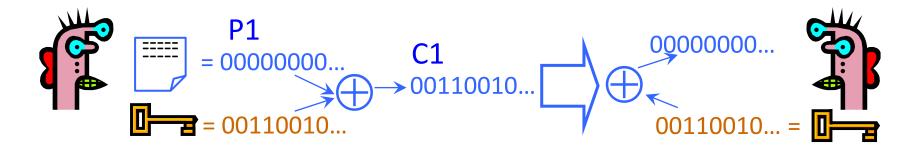
Advantages of One-Time Pad

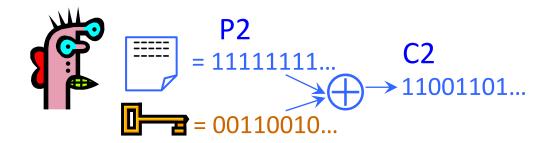
- Easy to compute
 - Encryption and decryption are the same operation
 - Bitwise XOR is very cheap to compute
- As secure as theoretically possible
 - Given a ciphertext, all plaintexts are equally likely, regardless of attacker's computational resources
 - ...as long as the key sequence is truly random
 - True randomness is expensive to obtain in large quantities
 - ...<u>as long as</u> each key is same length as plaintext
 - But how does sender communicate the key to receiver?

Problems with the One-Time Pad?

- Breakout Discussions
- What potential security problems do you see with the one-time pad?
- (Try not to look ahead and next slides)
- Recall two key goals of cryptography: confidentiality and integrity

Dangers of Reuse





Learn relationship between plaintexts

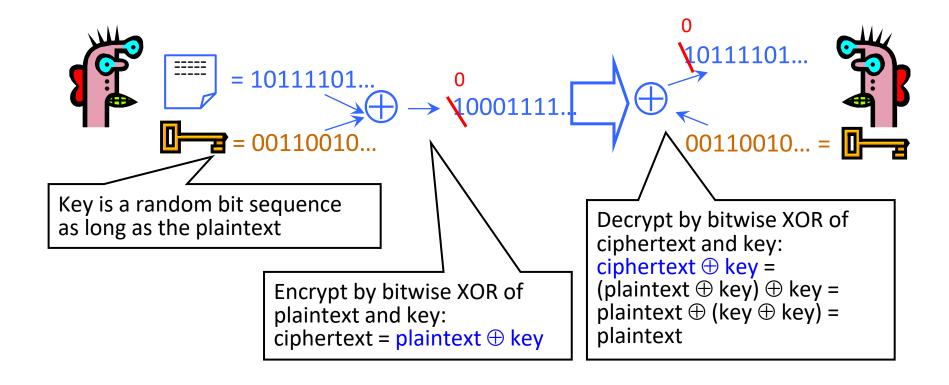
$$C1 \oplus C2 = (P1 \oplus K) \oplus (P2 \oplus K) =$$

 $(P1 \oplus P2) \oplus (K \oplus K) = P1 \oplus P2$

Problems with One-Time Pad

- (1) Key must be as long as the plaintext
 - Impractical in most realistic scenarios
 - Still used for diplomatic and intelligence traffic
- (2) Insecure if keys are reused
 - Attacker can obtain XOR of plaintexts

Integrity?



Problems with One-Time Pad

- (1) Key must be as long as the plaintext
 - Impractical in most realistic scenarios
 - Still used for diplomatic and intelligence traffic
- (2) Insecure if keys are reused
 - Attacker can obtain XOR of plaintexts
- (3) Does not guarantee integrity
 - One-time pad only guarantees confidentiality
 - Attacker cannot recover plaintext, but can easily change it to something else