

# Introduction to cryptography

#### Ragni Ryvold Arnesen Ragni.Ryvold.Arnesen@nr.no Norsk Regnesentral

Norsk Regnesentral Norwegian Computing Center

Ragni Ryvold Arnesen



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#### Terminology

- *P* is a finite set of possible *plaintexts*
- *C* is a finite set of possible *cryptotexts*
- K is a finite set of possible keys (keyspace)
- For each  $k \in K$  there is an *encryption* function  $e_k: P \to C$ , and a corresponding decryption function  $d_k: C \to P$  such that  $d_k(e_k(x))=x$  for every plaintext  $x \in P$



#### Security characteristics

- Perfect Secrecy (or *unconditional* security):
  - The system is unbreakable even with infinite computational resources
- Computational Security:
  - The perceived level of computation required to break the security exceeds, by a comfortable margin, the computational resources of the adversary



#### Perfect secrecy

- A cryptosystem has *perfect secrecy* if *p*<sub>P</sub>(x|y) = p<sub>P</sub>(x) for all x∈P
- In other words: The *a posteriori* probability that the plaintext is *x*, given that the ciphertext *y* is observed, is identical to the *a priori* probability that the plaintext is *x*
- It follows that not even exhaustive search through the entire keyspace will give any knowledge of the plaintext or the key
- Disadvantage: The amount of key needed is at least as big as the amount of plaintext



#### One-time pad

- The one-time pad is the only known cryptoalgorithm that achieves perfect secrecy
- Let  $P = C = K = (\mathbb{Z}_2)^n$ ,
  - plaintext  $x = (x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_n)_{,}$
  - key  $k = (k_1, k_2, k_3, \dots, k_n)$ , must be truly random!
  - cryptotext  $y = (y_1, y_2, y_3, ..., y_n)$

Encryption:  $e_k(x) = (x_1 \oplus k_1, x_2 \oplus k_2, x_3 \oplus k_3, \dots, x_n \oplus k_n)$ 

**Decryption:** 

 $d_k(y) = (y_1 \oplus k_1, y_2 \oplus k_2, y_3 \oplus k_3, \dots, y_n \oplus k_n)$ 

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#### Confusion and diffusion

• A good algorithm should ensure a high level of confusion and diffusion.

Confusion:

- Relationship between key and ciphertext is as complex as possible.
- One bit change in the key should result in change in approximately half of the ciphertext bits.

Diffusion:

- Redundancy of the plaintext is spread out over the ciphertext.
- One bit change in the plaintext should result in change in approximately half of the ciphertext bits.



# Symmetric crypto algorithms



- The same key is used for encryption and decryption.
- The keys must be secret and shared in advance (off-line or by some key exchange mechanism)
- Symmetric cryptoalgorithms are used mainly to ensure
  - Confidentiality (conceal contents of data)
  - Integrity (protect data from change)



#### Stream ciphers



plaintext  $m_i$ ciphertext  $c_i$ key kkeystream  $z_i$ 

Properties of a stream cipher:

- encrypts individual characters, one at a time
- the encryption transformation varies with time
- usually fast and simple in hardware
- no need for buffering plaintext or cryptotext
- limited or no error propagation
- much of the theory dates back to around
   World War II and is extensively analysed
- few algorithms published in the open literature
- widely used in telecommunications, radios and military communication equipment



# LFSR -Linear Feedback Shift Register

State polynomial:  $a_1 x^9 + a_2 x^8 + a_3 x^7 + a_4 x^6 + a_5 x^5 + a_6 x^4 + a_7 x^3 + a_8 x^2 + a_9 x + a_{10}$ 



Corresponds to the connection polynomial

 $x^{10} + x^6 + 1$ 

- If the polynomial is *primitive*, the LFSR will have its maximum possible *period* 2<sup>n</sup>-1, where *n* is the length of the LFSR
- Stepping the LFSR once corresponds to multiplying the *state polynomial* with x and reducing modulo the *connection polynomial*
- LFSRs are very often used as parts of a stream cipher



### GSM cipher - A5/1



 A register is *clocked* if its *clocking tap* (marked grey) agrees with the majority of the three clocking taps.



## Cryptanalysis of A5/1

- 64-bit keys, but in all implementations 10 bits are set to zero
- Anderson and Roe, 1994
  - Guess R1 and R2 (41 bits) and derive R3 from the output, complexity about O(2<sup>45</sup>)
- Time/memory trade-off (Babbage 1995, Golic 1997)
  - Complexity  $O(2^{22})$  with 64TB diskspace, or
  - Complexity  $O(2^{28})$  with 862GB diskspace
- Best attack known : Alex Biryukov, Adi Shamir and David Wagner, 1999-2000
  - Preparation: 2<sup>48</sup> (carried out only once)
  - 2 min known plaintext: key computed in 1 sec.
  - 2 sec known plaintext: key computed in a few minutes
  - Question: How to get hold of the plaintext?



#### **Block ciphers**



encryption function Eplaintext  $m_i$ ciphertext  $c_i$ key k

Properties of a block cipher:

- maps *n*-bit plaintext blocks to *n*-bit ciphertext blocks
- pure block ciphers are *memoryless*
- many algorithms in the open literature that have been extensively analysed (DES, IDEA, AES, etc.)
- widely used in e-commerce and banking



#### **UMTS cipher - KASUMI**



Fig. 1: Modified MISTY1

Fig.4: FL Function



#### S-boxes: S7

Input:  $(x_6, x_5, x_4, x_3, x_2, x_1, x_0)$ Output:  $(y_6, y_5, y_4, y_3, y_2, y_1, y_0)$ 

Gate Logic:

 $y_{0} = x_{1}x_{3} + x_{4} + x_{0}x_{1}x_{4} + x_{5} + x_{2}x_{5} + x_{3}x_{4}x_{5} + x_{6} + x_{0}x_{6} + x_{1}x_{6} + x_{3}x_{6} + x_{2}x_{4} + x_{1}x_{5}x_{6} + x_{4}x_{5}x_{6} + x_{4}x_{6}x_{6} + x_{4}x_{6} + x_{4}x_{6}$ 

Decimal Table:

54	50	62	56	22	34	94	96	38	6	63	93	2	18	123	33
55	113	39	114	21	67	65	12	47	73	46	27	25	111	124	81
53	9	121	79	52	60	58	48	101	127	40	120	104	70	71	43
20	122	72	61	23	109	13	100	77	1	16	7	82	10	105	98
117	116	76	11	89	106	0	125	118	99	86	69	30	57	126	87
112	51	17	5	95	14	90	84	91	8	35	103	32	97	28	66
102	31	26	45	75	4	85	92	37	74	80	49	68	29	115	44
64	107	108	24	110	83	36	78	42	19	15	41	88	119	59	3

S9 is constructed similarly, but with  $2^9 = 512$  entries in the table.



Key schedule

Secret Key

Κ

128 bit

Subkey

Ki (1 <= i <= 8)	16 bit	$K = K1 \parallel K2 \parallel K3 \parallel \parallel K8$
Ki' (1 <= i <= 8)	16 bit	Ki' = Ki XOR Ci

Key Symbols

KLi KLij	$(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le j \le 2)$	32 bit 16 bit	KLi = KLi1    KLi2
KOi KOij	$(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le j \le 3)$	48 bit 16 bit	KOi = KOi1    KOi2    KOi3
KIi KIij	$(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le j \le 3)$	48 bit 16 bit	KIi = KIi1    KIi2    KIi3 KIi = KIij1    KIij2
KIij1	$(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le i \le 3)$	9 bit	
KIij2	$(1 \le i \le 8)$ $(1 \le j \le 3)$	7 bit	

Subkey - KeySymbol Relation

i = 2i = 3 i = 4i = 8i = 1i = 5 i = 6 i = 7 KLi1 K1<<<1 K2<<<1 K3<<<1 K4<<<1 K5<<<1 K6<<<1 K7<<<1 K8<<<1 KLi2 K3' K4' K5' K6' K7' K8' K1' K2' KOi1 K2<<<5 K3<<<5 K4<<<5 K5<<<5 K6<<<5 K7<<<5 K8<<<5 K1<<<5 KOi2 K6<<<8 K7<<<8 K8<<8 K1<<<8 K2<<8 K3<<<8 K4<<<8 K5<<<8 KOi3 K7<<<13 K7<<13 K7<13 KIi1 K5' K6' K7' K8' K1' K2' K3' K4' KIi2 K4' K5' K6' K7' K8' K1' K2' K3' KIi3 K8' K1' K2' K3' K4' K5' K6' K7'

Constant Values

 $\begin{array}{l} C1 = 0x0123\\ C2 = 0x4567\\ C3 = 0x89ab\\ C4 = 0xcdef\\ C5 = 0xfedc\\ C6 = 0xba98\\ C7 = 0x7654\\ C8 = 0x3210 \end{array}$ 



#### Modes of use

- A block cipher is seldom used in its pure form (*n* bits plaintext in, *n* bits plaintext out)
- Instead it is used in one of several possible *modes* depending on the objectives:
  - Confidentiality protection
  - Integrity protection
  - Key generation
  - Key exchange
  - Challenge-response protocol
  - etc.

# NR UMTS Confidentiality algorithm - f8

#### Parameters

COUNT	32 bits
BEARER	5 bits
DIRECTION	1 bit
BLKCTR	64 bits
LENGTH	? bits
CK	128 bits
$\{PT_i\}_{i=0,1,1,\dots,LENGTH\text{-}1}$	
$\{CT_i\}_{i=0,1,1,\dots,LENGTH\text{-}1}$	
$\{KS_i\}_{i=0,1,1,\ldots,LENGTH\text{-}1}$	

COUNT || BEARER || DIRECTION || 0...0

time dependent input bearer identity direction of transmission block counter length of key stream cipher key plaintext bit sequence ciphertext bit sequence output key stream

#### СК⊕КМ ► KASUMI Æ BLKCTR = 2BLKCTR = 1₩Ð BLKCTR = n-1₩Ð BLKCTR = 0CK CK \_ CK \_ KASUMI CK KASUMI KASUMI KASUMI KS[0] ... KS[63] KS[64] ... KS[127] KS[128] ... KS[191] CT[ i ] = PT[ i ] XOR KS[ i ] **Norsk Regnesentral Norwegian Computing Center**



## Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- Used to ensure *integrity* of data
- Maps an arbitrary-length message onto a fixed-length output (MAC)
  - Key dependent
  - Often based on a block-cipher
- The MAC is attached to the cryptotext, and by verifying it, the receiver knows two things:
  - the message was produced by the someone holding the secret integrity key
  - the message has not been changed during transmission



# UMTS Integrity algorithm - f9

#### Parameters

COUNT	32 bits	time dependent input
FRESH	32 bits	random number
DIRECTION	1 bit	direction of transmission
IK	128 bits	integrity key
{MESSAGE} <sub>i=0,1,1,,LENGTH-1</sub>		plaintext bit sequence
MAC-I	32 bits	message authentication code





# Asymmetric (public key) crypto algorithms



- Encrypt with *receiver's* public key
- Receiver decrypts with his private key
- *N* public keys for *N* parties (as opposed to *N*(*N*-1) for symmetric cryptosystems)



#### Services

- Confidentiality
  - Conceal contents of data
- Integrity
  - Detect change of data
- Authentication
  - Establish identity of communicating parties
  - Establish identity of data origin
- Non-repudiation
  - Convince third party that an action
    - has been executed by a certain individual
    - has been executed at a given point in time



#### The integer factorisation problem

- Given a positive integer *n*, find its prime factorisation, i.e. write  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \dots p_k^{e_k}$  where the  $p_i$  are pairwise distinct primes and each  $e_i \ge 1$
- Factoring algorithms:
  - Trial division
  - Pollard rho method
  - Pollard's p -1 method
  - Quadratic sieve
  - Lenstra's elliptic curve method
  - Number field sieve



Number theory

- Definition:
  - Two positive integers x and y are *relatively* prime if they have no common factors, i.e. their greatest common divisor is 1. We write gcd(x, y) = 1.
- Euler phi function:
  - Let *n* be a positive integer. The Euler *phi* function  $\varphi(n)$  is the number of positive integers not exceeding *n* that are relatively prime to *n*
- Theorem:
  - If *p* is prime, then  $\varphi(p) = p 1$
- Theorem:
  - Let *m* and *n* be relatively prime positive integers. Then  $\varphi(mn) = \varphi(m) \varphi(n)$
- Euler's theorem:
  - If *m* is a positive integer and *a* is an integer with gcd(a,m) = 1, then  $a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$
- Fermat's theorem:
  - Special case of Euler's theorem: If gcd(a, p) = 1, then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$



#### RSA - key generation

#### Each entity A should do the following:

- Generate large primes *p* and *q*
- Compute n = pq and  $\varphi = (p 1)(q 1)$
- Select random integer *e*,  $1 < e < \varphi$ , such that  $gcd(e, \varphi) = 1$
- Compute the unique integer d,  $1 < d < \varphi$ , such that  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi}$
- A's public key is (*n*, *e*), A's private key is *d*
- (Note that *p*, *q* and *φ* must also be kept secret)

#### • Conjecture:

- Nobody can compute
  - p, q or  $\varphi$  from knowledge of n, or
  - d from knowledge of n and e



#### **RSA** - encryption

 $B \xrightarrow{m} A$ 

- Encryption. *B* should do the following:
  - Obtain A's public key (n, e)
  - Represent the message as an integer *m* in the interval [0, *n*-1]
  - Compute  $c = m^e \mod n$
  - Send the ciphertext c to A
- Decryption. A should do the following
  - Use the private key *d* to recover  $m = c^d \mod n$



### RSA - proof that decryption works

- $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi} \Rightarrow$  there exists integer k such that  $ed = 1 + k\varphi$
- By Euler's theorem:  $m^{\varphi} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ 
  - (This is true only if gcd(*m*,*n*) = 1. But if not, then we have found a factor of *n*, and the key is broken! The probability for this is extremely small.)

$$\Rightarrow m^{k\varphi} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

- $\Rightarrow m^{k\varphi+1} \equiv m \pmod{n}$
- $\Rightarrow m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{n}$

$$\Rightarrow c^d = (m^e)^d = m^{ed} \equiv m \pmod{n}$$





 Public key is used to encrypt symmetric key



## Hashing

- One-way function:
  - A function *f* such that f(x) is easy to compute for each *x* in the domain of *f*; but it is computationally infeasible to find any *x* such that f(x) = y, for essentially all *y* in the range of *f* 
    - It is not known whether real one-way functions exist
- Hash function
  - A one-way function where variable-length input is mapped to fixed-length output

I, Alice, hereby declare that I will pay Bob \$ 10.000.000 when I have received the following: ...





#### Security properties for hash functions

- Let h be a hash function with inputs x, x' and outputs y, y'.
- Preimage resistance (or *one-way*):
  - For essentially all pre-specified outputs y, it is computationally infeasible to find any preimage x' such that h(x') = y
- 2nd preimage resistance (or weak collision resistance):
  - Given x, it is computationally infeasible to find any  $x' \neq x$  such that h(x) = h(x')
- Collision resistance (*strong* c.r.):
  - It is computationally infeasible to find any two distinct inputs x, x' such that h(x) = h(x')



## **Digital signatures**



- Sign with sender's private key
- Verify signature with public key



## **Digital signatures**

- When the receiver has verified the signature he knows that:
  - the document is really written by the person who owns the public key, i.e. the person who knows the corresponding private key (authentication of data origin)
  - the document has not been changed after the sender signed it since the hashes match (integrity of data)
- And:
  - The receiver can convince a *third party* that the contents of the document was really written by the sender (non-repudiation)



# RSA signature

- Key generation as for encryption
- Signature generation. A should do the following:
  - if *M* is the message, compute *m* = *h*(*M*), an integer in the range [0, *n*-1]
  - compute  $s = m^d \mod n$
  - A's signature for *M* is s
- Verification. *B* should:
  - obtain A's public key (*n*, *e*)
  - compute  $m' = s^e \mod n$  and h(M)
  - verify that m' = h(M)
- (h() is a hash function)



## Discrete logarithm problem (DLP)

- The generalised discrete logarithm problem is the following:
  - Given a finite cyclic group *G* of order *n*, a generator  $\alpha$  of *G*, and an element  $\beta \in G$ , find the integer *x*,  $0 \le x \le n 1$ , such that  $\alpha^{x} = \beta$
- Algorithms for solving the DLP:
  - Exhaustive search
  - Baby-step giant-step
  - Pollard's rho algorithm
  - Pohlig-Hellman algorithm
  - Index calculus algorithms



#### ElGamal - key generation

#### • Each entity A should do the following:

- Generate a large random prime p and a generator  $\alpha$  of the multiplicative group  $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$
- Select random integer *a* such that  $1 \le a \le p$  -2
- Compute  $y = a^a \mod p$
- A's public key is  $(p, \alpha, y)$ , A's private key is a
- Conjecture:
  - Nobody can compute *a* from knowledge of *y* and  $\alpha$



## ElGamal - signature

- Signature generation. A should do the following:
  - Select random secret integer k, 1 < k < p 2with gcd(k, p - 1) = 1
  - Compute  $r = \alpha^k \mod p$
  - Compute  $k^{-1} \mod (p 1)$
  - Compute  $s = k^{-1}(h(m) ar) \mod (p 1)$
  - A's signature for m is the pair (r, s)
- Verification. *B* should:
  - Obtain A's authentic public key (p,  $\alpha$ , y)
  - Verify that  $1 \le r \le p$  -1; if not, reject signature
  - Compute  $v_1 = y^r r^s \mod p$
  - Compute h(m) and  $v_2 = a^{h(m)} \mod p$
  - Accept the signature if and only if  $v_1 = v_2$

#### (*h*() is a hash function)



#### ElGamal -

proof that signature verification works

 Assume (r, s) is a legitimate signature of entity A on message m

$$\Rightarrow s \equiv k^{-1}(h(m) - ar) \pmod{p - 1}$$
(1)

$$\Rightarrow h(m) \equiv ar + ks \pmod{p-1}$$
 (2)

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^{h(m)} \equiv \alpha^{ar+ks} \equiv (\alpha^a)^r \, r^s \, (\text{mod } p) \tag{3}$$

 $\Rightarrow v_2 = v_1$ 

- Theorem: Let *a*, *n* be relatively prime integers and n > 0. Then  $a^i \equiv a^j \pmod{n}$  where *i* and *j* are positive integers, if and only if  $i \equiv j \pmod{n}$ ord<sub>n</sub> *a*).
- Here,  $ord_n a$  is the least positive integer x such that  $a^x \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , so if a is a generator of  $\mathbf{Z}_p^*$ then  $ord_n a = p - 1$  Norsk Regresentral

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