# ECE 443/518 – Computer Cyber Security Lecture 02 Cryptography

Professor Jia Wang Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering Illinois Institute of Technology

August 21, 2024

ECE 443/518 – Computer Cyber Security, Dept. of ECE, IIT

1/26

Symmetric Cryptography

Modular Arithmetic

- ► This lecture: UC 1
- Next lecture: UC 2

Symmetric Cryptography

Modular Arithmetic

#### "secret writing"

#### Old and new

- As early as 2000 B.C. in ancient Egypt
- Turing vs. Enigma machine in World War II
- Academic research and commercial adoption since 1970's
- Essential for computer cyber security.
  - Provide good examples for us to learn to identify threats and to design defense mechanisms in a formal (mathematical) setting.
  - Many security constructs are impossible without advances in cryptography.

## Basic Model

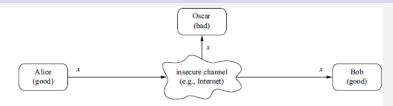


Fig. 1.4 Communication over an insecure channel

(Paar and Pelzl)

- Recall our example of king and general.
- Alice and Bob
  - For "good" parties like the king and the general.
  - Instead of using meaningless symbols like A and B.
- The opponent (attacker) Oscar who is "bad".
- The message x passing through the "insecure" channel for communication.
- What do "good", "insecure", and "bad" mean?
  - If we need to discuss security requirements like confidentiality and integrity?

## Assumptions

- "Good" parties
  - We trust that Alice and Bob will faithfully follow the mechanism that we will design later.
  - If they use computers, we trust the computers to faithfully follow the mechanism.
- "Insecure" channel
  - We treat the channel as a blackbox that receives messages from Alice and sends messages to Bob.
  - We leave what is allowed and what is not allowed to happen in the channel to the "bad" opponent.
- "Bad" opponent, i.e. adversary
  - Address security requirements by defining behavior of attackers.
  - Passive adversary: break confidentiality by reading messages passing through the channel – but cannot do anything else like modifying messages or inserting messages.
  - And many other types of adversaries.

Symmetric Cryptography

Modular Arithmetic

# Symmetric Cryptography

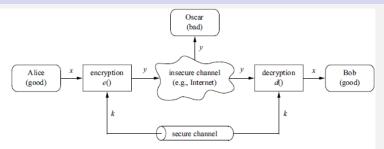


Fig. 1.5 Symmetric-key cryptosystem

(Paar and Pelzl)

- A mechanism for confidentiality
- plaintext x, ciphertext y, and the key k
- e(): encryption such that  $y = e_k(x)$
- d(): decryption such that  $x = d_k(y)$
- "Symmetric": both Alice and Bob know k.
  - If you feel uncomfortable with the secure channel to establish k between Alice and Bob, you are not alone – this motivated the discovery of public-key cryptography.

## Assumptions

Adversaries know y.

- No "security by obscurity"
  - ▶ We should assume adversaries to know *e*() and *d*().
  - Attackers will eventually know e() and d().
  - History showed that to break the system from there was easy.
  - No matter there is additional secret (Enigma) or not (DVD/CSS).
- Adversaries cannot know k directly.
  - But might be able to derive k from y, e(), and d().
  - Plus any other information explicitly allowed.

Given y, e(), and d(), find x and k such that:

$$y = e_k(x)$$
, and  $x = d_k(y)$ .

- Use mathematics to model how passive adverseries attack symmetric cryptography.
- Brute-force attack
  - Key space K: the set of all possible keys
  - For each k ∈ K, compute x = d<sub>k</sub>(y) and report k if x is meaningful.
  - What does "meaningful" mean?

## Simple Symmetric Encryption: The Substitution Cipher

- For illustration purposes only.
- x consist of upper case letters and spaces.
- k is a mapping from upper case letters to lower case letters.

► E.g.  $A \rightarrow k$ ,  $B \rightarrow d$ ,  $C \rightarrow w$ , ...

e() uses k to substitute upper case letters in x.

• E.g. for x = ABBA C we have y = kddk w.

- k needs to be one-to-one for d() to work properly.
- Can we apply brute-force attacks to find k and x for the ciphertext y below?

iq ifcc vqqr fb rdq vfllcq na rdq cfjwhwz hr bnnb hcc hwwhbsqvqbre hwq vhlq

## Practical Limitation of Computational Power

- ► There are 26 \* 25 \* · · · \* 1 ≈ 2<sup>88</sup> possible keys for the passive adversary to try using brute-force attack.
  - Need a few billions years if a computer can try a key in a nanosecond.
- We claim the substitution cipher is <u>computationally secure</u> against brute-force attack.
  - Assume the passive adversary is computationally <u>bounded</u> instead of <u>unbounded</u>.
- Can a computationally bounded passive adversary apply another attack to break the substitution cipher?
- Is there a cipher secure against brute-force attacks for computationally unbounded passive adversaries?

# iq ifcc vqqr fb rdq vfllcq na rdq

cfjwhwz hr bnnb hcc hwwhbsqvqbre hwq vhlq

- Instead of treating the substitution cipher as a blackbox, adversaries may exploit how it encrypts messages.
- Spaces are preserved so adversaries can identify words.
  - In particular those short words.
  - Any good guess of what is rdq?
- Adversaries may work with a key known only partially.
  - What is hr if adversaries can decrypt rdq?
  - And then hcc and hwq? And then everything?

iqifccvqqrfbrdqvfllcqnardqcfjwh wzhrbnnbhcchwwhbsqvqbrehwqvhlq

What if we preprocess the plaintext to remove spaces?

- With some effort, we can still read the message.
- Adversaries cannot decrypt by identifying short words first.
- However, as the same upper case letter maps to the same lower case letter, the letter frequencies will match those for English.

E.g. E, T, A are most probable.

Adversaries may still obtain x without first knowing k.

- Key space need to be large enough to resist brute-force attacks for computationally bounded adversaries.
- Good ciphers should not allow to decrypt partially with partially known keys.
- Good ciphers should hide the statistical properties of the encrypted plaintext.
  - Preprocess the plaintext to remove any statistical properties will further help.
- Don't design ciphers by yourself and expect them to be good!

#### Implementation Attacks

- Even if a mechanism is secure, implementations may leak x and k through a side-channel.
- Usually associated with signals in the physical world.
- Social Engineering Attacks
  - As utimately human beings manage the secret key, adversaries may exploit our weakness to obtain the key.
  - ► Via violence, deception, system/software bugs etc.
- We will leave both to the later half of the semester.

Symmetric Cryptography

Modular Arithmetic

- Without computers, ancient ciphers are limited to simple rules that can be followed by human beings.
  - Usually simplified substitution ciphers.
  - Can be described by mathematics, especially those dealing with arithmetics, known today as elementary number theory.
- With a computer, it turned out elementary number theory still plays a very important role in designing cryptosystem with surprising properties.
- Let's start with modular arithmetic.

## Integer Division with Remainder

Given a (dividend) and m > 0 (divisor), there exist unique q (quotiant) and r (remainder) such that:

a = qm + r, and  $0 \le r < m$ ,

where a, m, q, r are all integers.

- m divides a iff (if and only if) r = 0, written as m|a.
  - In such case, we also call *m* a factor, or a divisor of *a*.
  - Obviously 1|a and a|a. a is a prime number iff a has no other divisor.
- We use a mod m to emphasize the process to compute r from a and m.
  - We don't care about the quotiant most of the time.
  - Most programming languages use %. But be aware of the difference when a is negative.
  - Anyway, cryptography nowadays uses extremely large integers so we always need to rely on library functions.

## Practices

- 13 mod 5
- 17 mod 5
- (13 \* 17) mod 5
- ((13 mod 5) \* 17) mod 5
- (13 \* (17 mod 5)) mod 5
- ((13 mod 5) \* (17 mod 5)) mod 5
- The last 4 equations give the same result.
  - There is a better way to reason with remainders without computing them everytime.

## Congruence

If  $a \mod m$  and  $b \mod m$  is the same, we write:

 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

- That is equivalent to m|a b.
- In comparison to the textbook, we use the extra parenthesis around (mod m) to emphasize ≡ works like =.
  - Addition, subtraction, and multiplication just work.
  - E.g. since  $13 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$  and  $17 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ , we have

$$13*17 \equiv 3*2 \equiv 6 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}.$$

- This kind of structures is called a ring.
- What about divisions?

## Algebra

- What is  $\frac{1}{2}$ ?
  - 0.5. Not an integer.
  - Or we can use <u>algebra</u>:  $\frac{1}{2}$  is a solution to 2x = 1.
    - If this doesn't make sense, then think of  $\sqrt{2}$ .
- Now consider congruence and treat  $\equiv$  as =.
  - Does  $2x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  have an integer solution?
  - Yes,  $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$ , infinite many integers.
- When does  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  have solutions?
  - Assume  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ .
  - If m is a prime number, then always there are solutions.
    - This is an example of <u>finite field</u> (a.k.a. <u>Galois field</u>).
  - What about  $4x \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$ ?  $4x \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$ ?

## More on Algebra

Solve the following for the unknown integer x.

Linear equation

 $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

System of congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1},$$
  

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2},$$
  

$$\dots,$$
  

$$x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}.$$

*n*-th root

$$x^n \equiv a \pmod{m}$$
.

Discrete logarithm

$$a^x \equiv b \pmod{m}$$
.

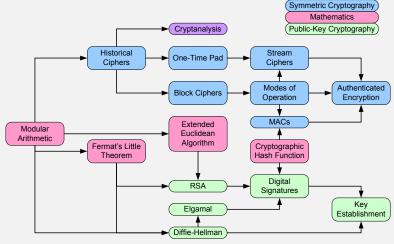
They serve as the foundation for the current practice of public-key cryptography.

## **Historical Ciphers**

#### Message encoding

- Upper case letters only, each as an integer between 0 and 25.
- Plaintext and ciphertext are both strings of integers.
- Caesar Cipher, a.k.a. Shift Cipher
  - Choose an integer key k
  - e(): substitute each plaintext letter x with  $x + k \mod 26$ .
  - d(): substitute each ciphertext letter y with  $y k \mod 26$ .
- Affine Cipher
  - Choose a pair of integers (a, b) as the key.
    - Make sure there is an integer c such that ac ≡ 1 (mod 26), e.g. a = 3 and c = 9.
  - e(): substitute each plaintext letter x with  $ax + b \mod 26$ .
  - d(): substitute each ciphertext letter y with  $c(y b) \mod 26$ .
- The key space is too small to even resist brute-force attack.
  - For Caesar cipher, any k' ≡ k (mod 26) will work adversaries only need to try 26 keys.
  - For affine cipher, at most 25 \* 26 keys.
- 25/26 ECE 443/518 Computer Cyber Security, Dept. of ECE, IIT

# Introductory Cryptography Readmap



The midterm exam will cover most of them.