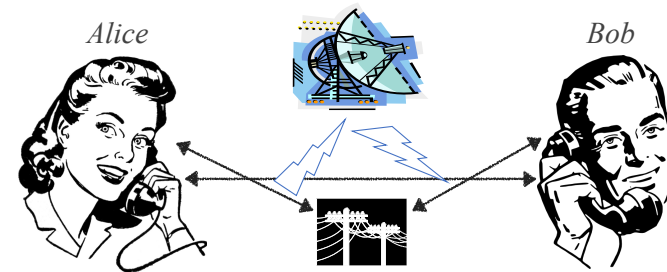


# Cybersecurity: Introduction to Cryptography

*Ozalp Babaoglu*

ALMA MATER STUDIORUM – UNIVERSITÀ DI BOLOGNA

## Historic Motivation for Cryptography



**Confidentiality:** Private communication in a public environment (infrastructure)

© Babaoglu 2001-2022

Cybersecurity

2

## Goals

- Learn what problems can (and cannot) be solved using cryptography
- Become convinced that:
  - Using cryptography requires building a substantial (but easily overlooked) infrastructure
  - Designing a good crypto system is extremely difficult
  - Wide-spread use of cryptography requires overcoming legal and social barriers

© Babaoglu 2001-2022

Cybersecurity

3

## Terminology

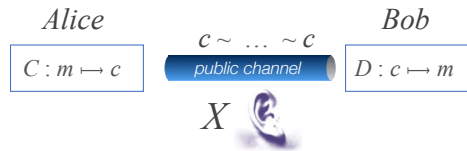
- **Plaintext:** the original message or data to be communicated that is fed as input to the encryption algorithm
- **Encryption algorithm (cipher):** transforms the plaintext to make it unintelligible (private)
- **Secret key:** second input to the encryption algorithm that determines the exact transformations performed by the algorithm on the plaintext
- **Ciphertext:** transformed version of the plaintext produced as output of the encryption algorithm
- **Decryption algorithm:** inverse of the encryption algorithm that takes the ciphertext and the same secret key to reproduce the original plaintext

© Babaoglu 2001-2022

Cybersecurity

4

## Communication Scenario



- **Alice (A)** : sender
- **Bob (B)** : receiver
- $m$  : plaintext message
- $C$  : encryption algorithm
- $c$  : ciphertext
- $D$  : decryption algorithm
- $X$  : cryptanalyst

## More Terminology

- **Cryptography**: the design of secure and efficient ciphers (and their inverses)
- **Cryptanalysis**: the process of attempting to discover the plaintext or key. The strategy used by the cryptanalyst depends on the nature of the encryption scheme and the available information
- **Cryptology**: Cryptography + Cryptanalysis

## Two Families of Cryptography

- **Secret/Private-key (symmetric) Cryptography**:
  - The keys used for encrypting and decrypting are the same (therefore must be shared by the sender and receiver)
  - The encryption and decryption functions  $C$  and  $D$  are often the same
- **Public-key (asymmetric) Cryptography**:
  - Different keys are used for encrypting and for decrypting
  - The encryption and decryption functions  $C$  and  $D$  are different

## Cryptanalyst $X$

- Motives: curiosity, espionage, malice, ...
- Roles
  - **Passive**: is limited to eavesdropping (listening and recording)
  - **Active**: can interject into the conversation or modify it
- What does the cryptanalyst know?
  - Encryption/Decryption algorithms (no "security through obscurity")
  - All information that can be collected from observing past communication between  $A$  and  $B$

## Types of attack

- What the cryptanalyst knows in addition to the encryption/decryption algorithm determines the type of attack:
  - **Brute-force attack**: nothing (other than the algorithms)
  - **Ciphertext attack**: ciphertext as a collection of  $c_1, \dots, c_n$
  - **Known plaintext attack**: ciphertext plus one or more pairs  $(m_i, c_i)$
  - **Chosen plaintext attack**: ciphertext plus one or more pairs  $(m_i, c_i)$  where  $m_i$  is chosen by the cryptanalyst

## Definitions, Notation

- Encryption function
  - $C_k(m) = c$  “encryption of  $m$  with key  $k$ ”
- Decryption function
  - $D_k(c) = m$  “decryption of  $c$  with key  $k$ ”
- $D_k$  is the *mathematical inverse* of  $C_k$ :
  - $D_k(C_k(m)) = m$
  - Sometimes we require that they be also *commutative*  
$$D_k(C_k(m)) = C_k(D_k(m)) = m$$

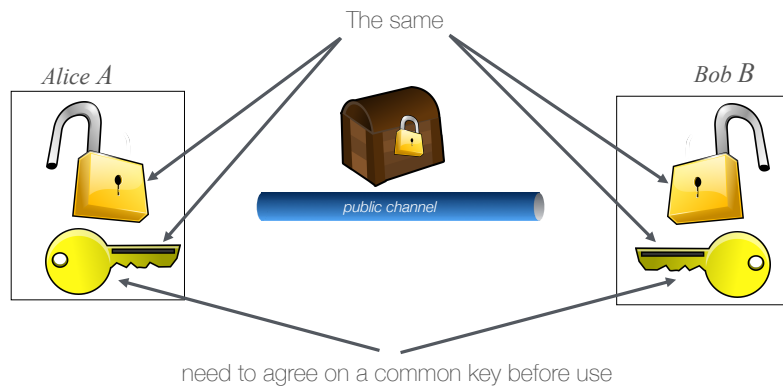
## Can we build a “perfect” cipher?

- A “perfect” cipher would guarantee secrecy (confidentiality) always
- Need to distinguish between
  - **Perfect secrecy**: Confidentiality always guaranteed
  - **Computational secrecy**: Confidentiality guaranteed only if we limit the resources available to the adversary (cryptanalyst)
- “Resources” can be computing power, time, memory, communication bandwidth, etc.

## Can we build a “perfect” cipher?

- As long as information (messages) are composed from a finite alphabet and have finite length ( $n$  bits), perfect secrecy is impossible to achieve
- Brute force method — for each letter in the ciphertext, the adversary can always “guess” the corresponding plaintext letter to see if the resulting text “makes sense”
- Thus, **perfect secrecy** is not possible
- The best we can aim for is **computational secrecy**: can we encrypt information such that confidentiality is guaranteed in the presence of an adversary with limited resources?

## Secret-Key (Symmetric) Cryptography A Metaphor



## Secret-Key (Symmetric) Cryptography

- The two parties must share a common secret key before use
  - Agreeing on the common key cannot use the public channel
  - Has to be based on an “out-of-band” communication channel that is used only once
  - The “out-of-band” channel can be slow and expensive
  - The high cost of the “out-of-band” channel can be amortized over many subsequent exchanges using public channel
- The secret key space must be very large:
  - To prevent “brute-force attacks” (try all possible keys)
  - Necessary but not sufficient

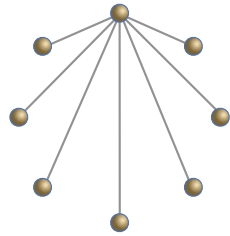
## Secret-Key Ciphers

- Some well-know “secret key” (symmetric) ciphers:
  - *Data Encryption Standard (DES)*
  - *Triple-DES*
  - *Blowfish*
  - *International Data Encryption Algorithm (IDEA)*
  - *Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)*

## Secret-Key Ciphers

- The functions for encrypting and decrypting are interchangeable
- Sender and receiver:
  - Both know a common secret key  $k$
  - Both can encrypt or decrypt
  - Both promise to keep  $k$  a secret
- What are the defects of secret-key cryptography?
  - Requires a common secret key
  - For confidential communication between  $O(n)$  parties, requires  $O(n^2)$  secret keys

## Secret-Key Cryptography



Each pair must have a *different* secret key

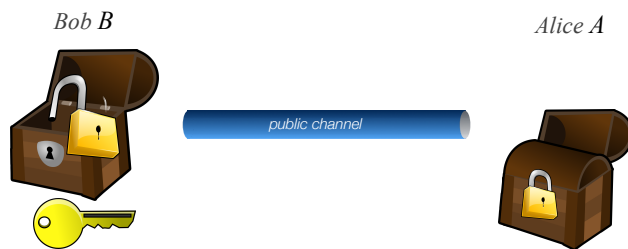
- Consider  $n$  parties
- For any one receiver, there can be  $(n-1)$  senders
  - thus we need  $(n-1)$  secret keys
- For  $n$  possible receivers and  $n$  possible senders
  - we need  $n(n-1)/2$  which is  $O(n^2)$  secret keys

## Public-Key (Asymmetric) Cryptography

- Is it possible to exchange information confidentially without having to first agree on a key?
- The year 1976 is a turning point! (Diffie-Hellman and Merkle)
- Huge consequences:
  - from a theoretical point of view
  - from an economical point of view (basis of modern e-commerce on the Internet)

## Public-Key (Asymmetric) Cryptography A Metaphor

- Is it possible to exchange information confidentially without having to first agree on a key?



## Asymmetric or Public-Key Cryptography

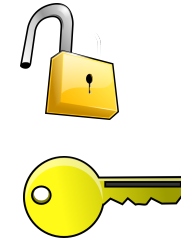
- Goal: break the symmetry between encrypting and decrypting
- Who knows how to encrypt must *not* know how to decrypt
- The key  $k$  divided in two parts  $k[priv]$ ,  $k[pub]$ :
  - The key  $k$  generated by the destination
  - $k[priv]$  kept secret by the destination and used to decrypt
  - $k[pub]$  made public by the destination and used by *everyone* to encrypt messages for the destination
  - It must be (computationally) difficult to go from  $k[pub]$  to  $k[priv]$
- Concept of “one-way trap-door” function

## One-way Trapdoor Functions

- A function is “One-way Trapdoor” if it is
  - easy to compute,
  - difficult to invert in general,
  - easy to invert if you know some additional information

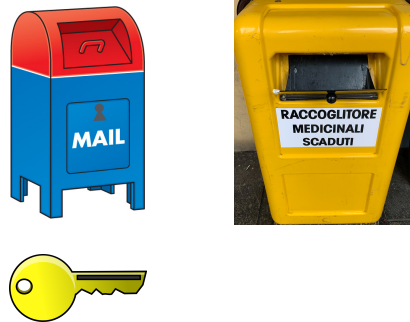
## One-way Trapdoor Functions

- A lock that is open:
  - is easy to close,
  - difficult to open,
  - unless you have the key



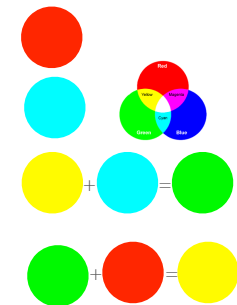
## One-way Trapdoor Functions

- A sidewalk mailbox:
  - easy to drop a letter,
  - difficult to remove a letter,
  - unless you have the key



## One-way Trapdoor Function Physical Metaphor

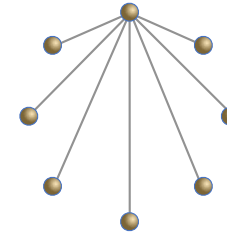
- Alice picks a random color (keeps it private)
- Alice determines its complement color and sends it to Bob
- Bob “encodes” his message using the complement color and sends the result to Alice
- Alice “decodes” the message by mixing her private color to the color received from Bob



## One-way Trapdoor Functions

- Let  $p$  and  $q$  be two prime numbers:
  - given  $p$  and  $q$ , it is easy to compute  $n=pq$
  - given  $n$ , it is difficult to compute  $p$  (or  $q$ )
  - unless you know  $q$  ( $p=n/q$ )

## Public-Key Cryptography



- Consider  $n$  parties
- For any one receiver, there can be  $(n-1)$  senders
  - but they all use the **same** public key of the receiver
- For  $n$  possible senders and  $n$  possible receivers, it suffices to have just  $n$  public keys (and  $n$  private keys)

## Properties of Modern Cryptography

- For modern cryptography, **confidentiality** is not the only property that is required
- Modern uses of cryptography need three additional properties:
  - **Integrity**: The receiver must be able to determine if the received message has been tampered with (modified, replaced)
  - **Authentication**: The receiver must be able to ascertain that the message was sent by the presumed sender
  - **Non-repudiation**: The sender must not be able to refute having sent the message. The receiver must be able to convince a third party (judge) that the received message was indeed sent by the sender (obtained through *digital signatures*)