Classic Cryptography: From Caesar to the Hot Line



Overview of the Lecture

- Overview of Cryptography and Security
- Classical Cryptography:
 - Caesar/Shift Cipher
 - Affine Ciphter
 - Vigenere
- One-time Pads
- LFSR



What is Security?

- Security is a hard thing to explicitly define.
- Basically, its an assurance that some entity or thing is protected from possible harm
- In the context of:
 - **Information:** Assurance that information is not learned by entities not intended to learn this information
 - Computer: Assurance that the computer system and its files are not harmed by some form of outside attack
 - Network: Assurance that entities involved in a communication, as well as the information being shared, are kept "safe" or "hidden"
- This class will deal with all of these, and more!



The Basic Secure Communication Scenario



- Alice communicates with Bob via the channel.
- Eve is **evil** and **eavesdrops**. Her goals:
 - Read the message
 - Determine the keys
 - Corrupt the message to Bob gets something different than what Alice sent
 - Pretend to be Alice and fool Bob



The Basic Categories of Attacks

- There are four main strategies that Eve might employ to achieve her evil plans:
 - **Ciphertext only:** Eve only has a copy of the ciphertext
 - Known Plaintext: Eve has a copy of the ciphertext and the corresponding plaintext. Example: Alice always starts her messages the same way.
 - Chosen Plaintext: Eve somehow gains access to the encryption device. She can't open it up to get the key, but she can input whatever she wants.
 - Chosen Ciphertext: Eve somehow gains access to the decryption device. She can't open it up to get the key, but she can input whatever she wants.
- Most types of <u>information</u> security attacks can be loosely categorized as one of these attacks.



Shift Cipher

• Start with the plaintext alphabet. For example, it may be Z₂₆ if we are using A, B, ..., Z. Map these to numbers

 $A = 0 \quad B = 1 \quad C = 2 \quad \dots \qquad Y = 24 \quad Z = 25$

- Plaintext is mapped to a numerical representation "x".
- The key, k, is a letter/number in Z26.
- Encryption yields the ciphertext:

 $y = x + k \pmod{26}$

• Decryption is

 $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{k} \pmod{26}$

• Caesar used k=3.



How to Attack the Shift Cipher?

• **Known Plaintext:** You know x and you know y, so you calculate the key easily by:

 $k = y - x \pmod{26}$

• Chosen plaintext: You get to choose the plaintext x. For simplicity, take x = 'a' = 0. The ciphertext is

 $y = k \pmod{26}$

• **Chosen Ciphertext:** You get to choose the ciphertext y. Choose y='A', then plaintext is x = -k (mod 26).

 $x = -k \pmod{26}$

• What about Known Ciphertext? This is the toughest one. We have the least information.



Ciphertext Only on Shift Cipher

- If all Eve gets is the ciphertext, she may try one of two strategies:
 - She could try all choices for k. There are only 26 and most likely (if message is long enough) only one key will produce something intelligent.
 - She could do a frequency counting:
 - Use knowledge of the underlying language. For example, 'e' occurs the most often in English.
 - Whatever letter occurs the most in the ciphertext probably corresponds to the plaintext 'e'. (If you have a long enough message).
 - The key is probably the value needed to shift 'e' to the most frequent ciphertext letter.
 - If the most frequent fails, try the next most frequent...



Affine Cipher

 The affine cipher involves a key (α,β) and maps the plaintext x to the ciphertext y via

 $y = \alpha x + \beta \pmod{26}$

- **Example:** $y = 9x + 2 \pmod{26}$
- Decryption solves for x. This would normally be simple algebra $x = \frac{1}{\alpha} (y \beta) \pmod{26}$
- What does $(1/\alpha)$ mean?
- It is the inverse of $\alpha \pmod{26}$... ok, so what does that mean?



Inverses (mod n)

- When you think of a number (a⁻¹) in normal algebra, you think of division.
- What is really going on is that you are finding another number b such that ab=1.
- So, when we write $a^{-1} \pmod{n}$ we really mean the number b such that $ab=1 \pmod{n}$.
- How do we find this b?
 - We will see a fast way to do it for large n later... for now, just make a table!
 - Example, suppose a=7, n=26

 $7*1 = 7 \mod 26 \qquad 7*4 = 28 = 2 \mod 26$ $7*2 = 14 \mod 26 \quad 7*5 = 9 \mod 26$ $7*3 = 21 \mod 26 \quad 7*6 = 16 \mod 26 \quad \dots \text{ and so on} \dots$ Until you find a number b such that 7b=1 mod 26. (b= 15)

• Final Comment: You only have inverses when gcd(a,n) = 1



More on the Affine Cipher

- We need gcd(α,26)=1 in order to have an invertible function (see pg 15 for what can happen when you don't have this!)
- There are 12 choices for α since there are 12 numbers with $gcd(\alpha, 26) = 1$. (Check this!)
- We also need to choose β , and there are 26 possibilities.
- In total, we have 12*26 = 312 choices for the key $k=(\alpha,\beta)$



Attacks on Affine Cipher

- **Ciphertext Only:** Just try all 312 possible keys.
- **Known Plaintext:** If you have two pieces of plaintext, you may set up a system of equations

 $y_1 = \alpha x_1 + \beta \pmod{26}$ $y_2 = \alpha x_2 + \beta \pmod{26}$

Solving is just algebra!

- Chosen Plaintext: Choose 'ab' as the plaintext. The first character of the ciphertext will be β, while the second will be α+β.
- Chosen Ciphertext: Similar to Chosen Plaintext.



Vigenere Cipher

- The Vigenere cipher is an extension of the shift cipher.
- Basically, your key is a secret word of unknown length. Encryption proceeds as:
 - Line your key up with your plaintext, repeating it as necessary.
 - Perform a letter-by-letter shift using the letter of the key beneath it.
- Example:



How to Break the Vigenere

- There are two tasks to breaking Vigenere:
 - Find the length of the key
 - Find the key itself.
- If we know the length of the key (L), finding the key itself is not that hard:
 - All we need is to do to find the first letter of the key is grab every Lth letter from the ciphertext and perform frequency analysis
 - Then, to get the 2nd letter of the key, we grab the 2nd, L+2, 2L+2,
 ... letter from the ciphertext
 - And so on...
- The trick lies in finding the length of the key!



Finding the Key Length in Vigenere

• Write the ciphertext on two strips of paper. Put one on top of the other, but displaced by a certain amount of places.



- Mark a * each time a letter and the one below it are the same.
- Count the total number of coincidences for different displacements
- The displacement with the most coincidences is the most likely key size.



Finding the Key Length Explained, pg. 1

- So why does this work?
- Suppose we write down the vector of frequencies for English letters:

$$\mathbf{A}_0 = (.082, .015, .028, ..., .020, .001)$$

- We may shift A_0 by i spaces to the right to get A_i , which corresponds to the probabilities we would get if we applied a shift cipher where we shifted by i letters
- Look at the dot products $< A_i$, $A_j >$, which depend only on |i-j| (Why?)
- The maximum value is when i-j=0.

– This just says that a vector is most similar to itself.



Finding the Key Length Explained, pg. 2

- Now take a strip of ciphertext, and look at a random letter.
- This corresponds to a shift of the corresponding plaintext letter by an amount i, corresponding to an element of the key.
- Now, place a second strip below, and displace it. The letter below the first will correspond to a random letter of English shifted by j.
- What is the probability they are both "A"? This is $A_i(0) * A_i(0)$
- Similarly, the probability they are both "B" is $A_i(1) * A_j(1)$, and so on...
- The total probability that these letters are the same is $\langle A_i, A_j \rangle$.
- When i=j, we have the maximum.
- This happens when the letters lying one above the other have been shifted by the same amount!



Binary and ASCII

- Generally, our data is not simply letters, but may more generally be characters, or they may be binary data generated by a program
- Binary numbers are a way to represent numbers base 2
- Example:

 $110101 = 2^5 + 2^4 + 2^2 + 1$

- ASCII is the America Standard Code for Information Interchange:
 - Each character is represented using 7 bits
 - Total of 128 possibilities
 - Often an extra bit is used for parity checking, or used for extended characters



The One-Time Pad

- The one-time pad is an "unbreakable" cryptosystem developed by Vernam and Mauborgne in 1918.
- The **plaintext** message is represented using a sequence of bits
- The **key** is a random sequence of 0's and 1's as long as the message.
- The **ciphertext** is the XOR of the plaintext with the key.
- Example:

(message) 00101001
 (key) ⊕ 10101100
 (ciphertxt) 10000101

• How to decrypt? Just XOR again with the key!



Vernam-style Ciphers

- The one-time pad belongs to a more general family of stream ciphers known that are often referred to as Vernam-style ciphers
- In a Vernam cipher
 - The plaintext x is a sequence of bits
 - The key sequence k is a sequence of bits
 - The ciphertext y is generated by

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \oplus \mathbf{k}$$

- The key sequence is typically generated using a (cryptographic) pseudo-random number generator
- We will see many choices for generating k later, for now let us look at a popular (but weak) method



Linear Feedback Shift Registers

- Linear feedback shift registers (LFSRs) are a fast method for generating pseudo-random bits.
- Output bits depend on previous output bits using a linear recurrence.
- The general linear recurrence is:

$$x_{n+m} = c_0 x_n + c_1 x_{n+1} + \dots + c_{m-1} x_{n+m-1} \pmod{2}$$

where the initial values are

$$\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \cdots, \mathbf{X}_m$$

- Why would we want to do this?
 - Its fast!
 - A small key (coefficients and/or initial values) can generate a key sequence with a large periodicity.



LFSR, the BAD!!!

- Why shouldn't we use LFSR? Answer: WEAK security
- LFSR succumbs easily to a known plaintext attack:
 - A few bits of plaintext and the corresponding ciphertext and we can solve for the recurrence relationship and generate all future bits in the key sequence.
- How to do this evil deed?
- 1. First, get the corresponding key sequence. (How?)
- We don't know the length of the coefficient vector, so start with m=2. Set up system of linear equations.
 Solve linear equations for c-vector and then test to see if this generates the key sequence.
- 3. If not, try m = 3 and so on...



Setting up the Equations to Attack LFSR

- This is best shown with an example.
- Example: Suppose we have the key sequence (011010111100)

m=2: Recurrence is $X_{n+2} = c_0 X_n + c_1 X_{n+1}$

Which yields the system of equations:

$$1 = c_0 \cdot 0 + c_1 \cdot 1$$

$$0 = c_0 \cdot 1 + c_1 \cdot 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Solve to get}: c_0 = 1, c_1 = 1.$$

Try this out. Note that

$$\mathbf{X}_{n+6} \neq \mathbf{X}_4 + \mathbf{X}_5$$

We must try m=3!



Setting up the Equations to Attack LFSR, pg 2

m=3: The recurrence is: $x_{n+3} = c_0 x_n + c_1 x_{n+1} + c_2 x_{n+2}$

The system of equations we get is:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Do you see any problems with this?

There are no solutions!!!



Setting up the Equations to Attack LFSR, pg 3

m=4: The recurrence is: $x_{n+4} = c_0 x_n + c_1 x_{n+1} + c_2 x_{n+2} + c_3 x_{n+3}$

The system of equations we get is:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Solve this to get $c_0=1$, $c_1=1$, $c_2=0$, $c_3=0$.

The resulting recurrence is:

$$\mathbf{x}_{n+4} = \mathbf{x}_n + \mathbf{x}_{n+1}$$

Checking this, we see that it works.

