

# Basics of Data Encryption

## CS 239

### Computer Security

January 23, 2006

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 1

## Outline

- What is data encryption?
- Basic encryption mechanisms
- Cryptanalysis
- Substitution ciphers

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 2

## Data Encryption Concepts

- Introduction
- Terminology
- Basics of encryption algorithms
- Cryptanalysis

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 3

## Introduction to Encryption

- Much of computer security is about keeping secrets
- One method is to make it hard for others to read
- While (usually) making it simple for authorized parties to read

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 4

## Encryption

- Encryption is the process of hiding information in plain sight
- Transform the secret data into something else
- Even if the attacker can see the transformed data, he can't understand the underlying secret

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 5

## Encryption and Data Transformations

- Encryption is all about transforming the data
- One bit or byte pattern is transformed to another bit or byte pattern
- Usually in a reversible way

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 6

## Encryption Terminology

- Encryption is typically described in terms of sending a message
  - Though it's used for many other purposes
- The sender is  $S$
- The receiver is  $R$
- The transmission medium is  $T$
- And the attacker is  $O$

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 7

## More Terminology

- *Encryption* is the process of making message unreadable/unalterable by  $O$
- *Decryption* is the process of making the encrypted message readable by  $R$
- A system performing these transformations is a *cryptosystem*
  - Rules for transformation sometimes called a *cipher*

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 8

## Plaintext and Ciphertext

- *Plaintext* is the original form of the message (often referred to as  $P$ )
- *Ciphertext* is the encrypted form of the message (often referred to as  $C$ )

Transfer  
\$100 to my  
savings  
account

Sqzmredq  
#099 sn lx  
rzuhmfr  
zbbntms

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 9

## Very Basics of Encryption Algorithms

- Most use a *key* to perform encryption and decryption
  - Referred to as  $K$
- The key is a secret
- Without the key, decryption is hard
- With the key, decryption is easy

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 10

## Terminology for Encryption Algorithms

- The encryption algorithm is referred to as  $E()$
- $C = E(K, P)$
- The decryption algorithm is referred to as  $D()$
- The decryption algorithm also has a key

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 11

## Symmetric and Asymmetric Encryption Systems

- Symmetric systems use the same keys for  $E$  and  $D$  :
  - $P = D(K, C)$
  - Expanding,  $P = D(K, E(K, P))$
- Asymmetric systems use different keys for  $E$  and  $D$ :
  - $C = E(K_E, P)$
  - $P = D(K_D, C)$

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 12

## Characteristics of Keyed Encryption Systems

- If you change only the key, a given plaintext encrypts to a different ciphertext
- Same applies to decryption
- Decryption should be hard without knowing the key

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 13

## Cryptanalysis

- The process of trying to break a cryptosystem
- Finding the meaning of an encrypted message without being given the key

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 14

## Forms of Cryptanalysis

- Analyze an encrypted message and deduce its contents
- Analyze one or more encrypted messages to find a common key
- Analyze a cryptosystem to find a fundamental flaw

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 15

## Breaking Cryptosystems

- Most cryptosystems are breakable
- Some just cost more to break than others
- The job of the cryptosystem is to make the cost infeasible
  - Or incommensurate with the benefit extracted

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 16

## Types of Attacks on Cryptosystems

- Ciphertext only
- Known plaintext
- Chosen plaintext
  - Differential cryptanalysis
- Algorithm and ciphertext
  - Timing attacks

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 17

## Ciphertext Only

- No a priori knowledge of plaintext
- Or details of algorithm
- Must work with probability distributions, patterns of common characters, etc.
- Hardest type of attack

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 18

### Known Plaintext

- Full or partial
- Cryptanalyst has matching sample of ciphertext and plaintext
- Or may know something about what ciphertext represents
  - E.g., an IP packet with its headers

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 19

### Chosen Plaintext

- Cryptanalyst can submit chosen samples of plaintext to the cryptosystem
- And recover the resulting ciphertext
- Clever choices of plaintext may reveal many details
- Differential cryptanalysis iteratively uses varying plaintexts to break the cryptosystem

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 20

### Algorithm and Ciphertext

- Cryptanalyst knows the algorithm and has a sample of ciphertext
- But not the key, and may not get any more similar ciphertext
- Can use “exhaustive” runs of algorithm against guesses at plaintext
- Password guessers often work this way

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 21

### Timing Attacks

- Usually assume knowledge of algorithm
- And ability to watch algorithm encrypting/decrypting
- Some algorithms perform different operations based on key values
- Watch timing to try to deduce keys
- Has been successful against crypto in some smart cards

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 22

### Basic Encryption Methods

- Substitutions
  - Monoalphabetic
  - Polyalphabetic
- Permutations

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 23

### Substitution Ciphers

- Substitute one or more characters in a message with one or more different characters
- Using some set of rules
- Decryption is performed by reversing the substitutions

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 24

## Example of a Simple Substitution Cipher

How did this transformation happen?

Sqzmredq	→	Sqzmredq
#099 sn lx		#099 sn lx
rzuhmfr		rzuhmfr
zbbntms		zbbntms

Every letter was changed to the “next lower” letter

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 25

## Caesar Ciphers

- A simple substitution cipher like the previous example
  - Supposedly invented by Julius Caesar
- Translate each letter a fixed number of positions in the alphabet
- Reverse by translating in opposite direction

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 26

## Is the Caesar Cipher a Good Cipher?

- Well, it worked great 2000 years ago
- It's simple, but
- It's simple
- Fails to conceal many important characteristics of the message
- Which makes cryptanalysis easier
- Limited number of useful keys

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 27

## How Would Cryptanalysis Attack a Caesar Cipher?

- Letter frequencies
- In English (and other alphabetic languages), some letters occur more frequently than others
- Caesar ciphers translate all occurrences of a given letter into the same cipher letter
- All you need is the offset

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 28

## More On Frequency Distributions

- In most languages, some letters used more than others
  - In English, “e,” “t,” and “s” common
- True even in non-natural languages
  - Certain characters appear frequently in C code
  - Zero appears often in much numeric data

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 29

## Cryptanalysis and Frequency Distribution

- If you know what kind of data was encrypted, you can (often) use frequency distributions to break it
- Especially for Caesar ciphers
  - And other simple encryption algorithms

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 30

## Breaking Monoalphabetic Ciphers

- Identify (or guess) kind of data
- Count frequency of each encrypted symbol
- Match to observed frequencies of other symbols in other kinds of data
- Provides probable mapping of cipher
- The more ciphertext available, the more reliable this technique

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 31

## Example

- With ciphertext “Sqzmredq #099 sn lx rzuhmfr zbbntms”
- Frequencies -

a	0	b	2	c	0	d	1	e	1
f	1	g	0	h	1	i	0	j	0
k	0	l	1	m	3	n	2	o	0
p	0	q	2	r	3	s	3	t	1
u	1	v	0	w	0	x	1	y	0
z	3								

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 32

## Applying Frequencies To Our Example

a	0	b	2	c	0	d	1	e	1
f	1	g	0	h	1	i	0	j	0
k	0	l	1	m	3	n	2	o	0
p	0	q	2	r	3	s	3	t	1
u	1	v	0	w	0	x	1	y	0
z	3								

- The most common English letters are typically “e,” “t,” “a,” “o,” and “s”
- Four out of five of the common English letters in the plaintext map to these letters

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 33

## Cracking the Caesar Cipher

- Since all substitutions are offset by the same amount, just need to figure out how much
- How about +1?
  - That would only work for a=>b
- How about -1?
  - That would work for t=>s, a=>z, o=>n, and s=>r
  - Try it on the whole message and see if it looks good

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 34

## More Complex Substitutions

- Monoalphabetic substitutions - Each plaintext letter maps to a single, unique ciphertext letter
- Any mapping is permitted
- Key can provide method of determining the mapping
  - Key could be the mapping

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 35

## Are These Monoalphabetic Ciphers Better?

- Only a little
- Finding the mapping for one character doesn’t give you all mappings
- But the same simple techniques can be used to find the other mappings
- Generally insufficient for anything serious

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 36

## Codes and Monoalphabetic Ciphers

- Codes are sometimes considered different than ciphers
- A series of important words or phrases are replaced with meaningless words or phrases
- E.g., “Transfer \$100 to my savings account” becomes  
– “The hawk flies at midnight”

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 37

## Are Codes More Secure?

- Depends
- Frequency attacks based on letters don't work
- But frequency attacks based on phrases may
- And other tricks may cause problems
- In some ways, just a limited form of substitution cipher
- Weakness based on need for codebook
  - Can your codebook contain all message components?

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 38

## Superencipherment

- First translate message using a code book
- Then encipher the result
- If opponent can't break cipher, great
- If he can, he still has to break the code
- Depending on several factors, may (or may not) be better than just a cipher
- Popular during WWII (but the Allies still read Japan's and Germany's messages)

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 39

## Polyalphabetic Ciphers

- Ciphers that don't always translate a given plaintext character into the same ciphertext character
- For example, use different substitutions for odd and even positions

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 40

## Example of Simple Polyalphabetic Cipher

- Move one character “up” in even positions, one character “down” in odd positions
- Note that same character translates to different characters in some cases

Transfer  
\$100 to my  
savings  
account

S\$zorgds  
%019 sp nx  
tthjmh  
zdbptos

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 41

## Are Polyalphabetic Ciphers Better?

- Depends
- On how easy it is to determine the pattern of substitutions
- If it's easy, then you've gained little

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 42

### Cryptanalysis of Our Example

- Consider all even characters as one set
- And all odd characters as another set
- Apply basic cryptanalysis to each set
- The transformations fall out easily

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 43

### How About For More Complex Patterns?

- Good if the attacker doesn't know the choices of which characters get transformed which way
- Attempt to hide patterns well
- But known methods still exist for breaking them

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 44

### Methods of Attacking Polyalphabetic Ciphers

- Kasiski method tries to find repetitions of the encryption pattern
- Index of coincidence predicts the number of alphabets used to perform the encryption
- Both require lots of ciphertext

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 45

### How Does the Cryptanalyst "Know" When He's Succeeded?

- Every key translates a message into something
- If a cryptanalyst thinks he's got the right key, how can he be sure?
- Usually because he doesn't get garbage when he tries it
- Chances are he will get garbage from any other key
- Why?

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 46

### The Unbreakable Cipher

- There is a "perfect" substitution cipher
- One that is theoretically (and practically) unbreakable without the key

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 47

### One-Time Pads

- Essentially, use a new substitution alphabet for every character
- Substitution alphabets chosen purely at random
  - These constitute the key
- Provably unbreakable without knowing this key

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 48



## Example of One Time Pads

- Usually explained with bits, not characters
- We shall use a highly complex cryptographic transformation:
  - XOR
- And a three bit message
  - 010

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 49

## One Time Pads at Work

0	1	0
---	---	---

Apply our  
sophisticated  
cryptographic  
algorithm

Flip some coins to  
get random  
numbers

0	1	1
---	---	---

What's so secure  
about that?

Any key was  
equally likely

Any plaintext  
could have  
produced this  
message with one  
of those keys

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 50

## Security of One-Time Pads

- If the key is truly random, provable that it can't be broken without the key
- But there are problems
- Need one bit of key per bit of message
- Key distribution is painful
- Synchronization of keys is vital
- A good random number generator is hard to find

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 51

## One-Time Pads and Cryptographic Snake Oil

- Companies regularly claim they have "unbreakable" cryptography
- Usually based on one-time pads
- But typically misused
  - Pads distributed with some other crypto mechanism
  - Pads generated with non-random process
  - Pads reused

CS 239, Winter 2006

Lecture 4  
Page 52