CPSC 467b: Cryptography and Computer Security

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What is this course about?

The course title is *Cryptography and Computer Security*.

Here are some definitions paraphrased from Wikipedia:

- Cryptography is the practice and study of hiding information.
- *Computer security* is about protecting computers and networks from unauthorized activities.
- Information security means protecting information and information systems from unauthorized access, use, disclosure, disruption, modification or destruction.
- Information assurance is the practice of managing information-related risks. It is the process of ensuring that authorized users have access to authorized information at the authorized time.

Role of cryptography

Cryptography is to information security as locks are to personal security.

- Both are clever mechanisms that can be analyzed in isolation.
- Both can be effective when used in suitable contexts.
- Both comprise only a small part of the security picture.

Information security in the real world

Some goals of information security.

- Protection against data damage.
- Protection against theft of intellectual property.
- Protection against surveillance.
- Protection against unauthorized actions.
- Protection of constitutional privacy rights.
- Protection of freedom of information.

How is security achieved in the real world?

- Prevention: Physical barriers, locks, encryption, firewalls, etc.
- Detection: Audits, checks and balances.
- Legal means: Laws, sanctions.
- Concealment: Camouflage, steganography.

Threat examples

Some risks and possible countermeasures:

- Eavesdropping on private conversations: encryption.
- Unauthorized use of a computer: passwords, physical security.
- Unwanted email: spam filters.
- Unintentional data corruption: checksums and backups.
- Denial of service: redundancy, isolation.
- Breach of contract: nonrepudiable signatures.
- Data corruption: access controls, cryptographic hash functions.
- Disclosure of confidential data: access controls, encryption, physical security.

Principles of risk management

No such thing as absolute security.

Security goal: optimize tradeoff between cost of security measures and losses from security breaches.

Security risks can be lowered by

- Reducing exposure to attack.
- Reducing number of vulnerabilities.
- Reducing value to the attacker of a successful attack.
- Increasing the cost of a successful attack.
- Increasing the penalty for a failed attempt.

Focus of this course

This course is primarily focused on the use of cryptography in information security. It will cover:

- Classical cryptography.
- Pormal definitions of cryptographic security.
- Cryptographic primitives: private key cryptography, public key cryptography, pseudorandom numbers, MACs, cryptographic hash functions, digital signatures.
- Practical implementations of cryptographic primitives.
- Cryptographic protocols for multiparty problems: contract signing, oblivious transfer, zero-knowledge proofs, bit commitment, secret-splitting, and coin flipping.
- Brief overview of real-world applications of cryptography such as SSH, SSL, WPA, encrypted email, PGP/GPG, etc.

Computer science, mathematics and cryptography

Cryptography cuts across both computer science and mathematics.

Computer science: Cryptographic algorithms must be implemented correctly.

Mathematics: Underlies both algorithms and their analysis.

Many cryptographic primitives are based on:

- Number theoretic problems such as factoring and discrete log;
- Algebraic properties of structures such as elliptic curves.

Understanding and modeling security uses

- Probability theory and coding theory;
- Complexity theory.

Will explore in enough depth to provide insight for how algorithms work and why they are believed secure.

Organization of this course

Roughly organized around *cryptographic primitives*. For each one:

- What can be done with it? Study of cryptographic algorithms and protocols.
 [Primary reference: Trapp & Washington.]
- What are its properties? Modeling and analysis. Requires complexity theory, probability theory, and statistics. [Primary reference: Katz & Lindell.]
- How is it built? Requires a fair amount of mathematics, particularly number theory and algebra. [We'll cover needed math.]
- How is it implemented? Requires attention to detail, especially to prevent accidental leak secret information. [We'll do some implementation.]

What this course is not

This course is broad rather than deep.

- It will not go deeply into the mathematics and details of newer cryptosystems such as AES and elliptic curves.
- It will only briefly touch on *cryptanalysis*, the flip side of *cryptography*.
- It will not go deeply into real-world security protocols.
- It will not talk about security mechanisms for computer and network devices and applications such as firewalls, operating system access controls, detecting software security holes, or dealing with web security vulnerabilities.

Example primitive: symmetric cryptography (informal)

A symmetric cryptosystem (sometimes called a private-key or one-key system) is a pair of efficiently-computable functions E and D such that

- D(k, E(k, m)) = m for all keys k and all messages m.
- Given c = E(k, m), it is hard to find m without knowing k.

Application of a symmetric cryptosystem

Secret message transmission problem:

Alice wants to send Bob a private message m over the internet.

Assume an eavesdropper, Eve, can listen in and learn c. Alice wants m to remain private and unknown to Eve.

Solution using symmetric cryptography:

- Alice and Bob both have a secret key k.
- 2 Alice computes c = E(k, m) and sends c to Bob.
- Sob receives c', computes m' = D(k, c'), and assumes m' to be Alice's message. [What happens if c' ≠ c?]

Requirements

What do we require of E, D, and the computing environment?

- Given *c*, it is hard to find *m* without also knowing *k*.
- k is not initially known to Eve.
- Eve can guess k with at most negligible success probability. (k must be chosen randomly from a large key space.)
- Alice and Bob successfully keep k secret.
 (Their computers have not been compromised; Eve can't find k on their computers even if she is a legitimate user, etc.)
- Eve can't obtain k in other ways, e.g., by social engineering, using binoculars to watch Alice or Bob's keyboard, etc.

Symmetric cryptosystems (somewhat more formal)

A symmetric cryptosystem consists of

- a set \mathcal{M} of *plaintext messages*,
- a set C of *ciphertexts*,
- a set ${\mathcal K}$ of keys,
- an *encryption* function $E : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{M} \to \mathcal{C}$
- a *decryption* function $D : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{C} \to \mathcal{M}$.

We often write $E_k(m) = E(k, m)$ and $D_k(c) = D(k, c)$.

Desired properties

Decipherability $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}, \forall k \in \mathcal{K}, D_k(E_k(m)) = m$. In other words, D_k is the left inverse of E_k .

Feasibility *E* and *D*, regarded as functions of two arguments, should be computable using a feasible amount of time and storage.

Security (weak) It should be difficult to find m given $c = E_k(m)$ without knowing k.

What's wrong with this definition?

This definition leaves three important questions unanswered?

- What is a "feasible" amount of time and storage?
- 2 What does it mean to be "difficult" to find m?
- What does it mean to not "know" k?

These questions are all critical in practice.

- *E* and *D* must be practically computable by Alice and Bob or the cryptosystem can't be used. For most applications, this means computable in milliseconds, not minutes or days.
- The confidentiality of *m* must be preserved, possibly for years, after Eve discovers *c*. How long is long enough?
- The only way to be certain that Eve does not know k is to choose k at random from a random source to which Eve has no access. This is easy to get wrong.