

# Cryptography

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- We ordinarily do this to provide a basic level of security against an adversary who might do bad things with the information, had they been able to see it "in the clear."

# Ciphers

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- A wide variety of different types of ciphers exist, with varying levels of inherent security potential.

# Substitution Cipher

- Imagine having possession of this device.



Image source: eBay

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- 3 = L
- 4 = M
- 5 = K
- 6 = W
- 7 = N
- 8 = O



Image source: eBay

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- What's the problem with this cipher? Put another way, what is the "attack vector"?



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- If the adversary is also a member of Little Orphan Annie's Secret Society, they know how to crack the code.



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# Substitution Cipher

- What's the problem with this cipher? Put another way, what is the "attack vector"?
- If the adversary is also a member of Little Orphan Annie's Secret Society, they know how to crack the code.
- We might think of this decoder pin as a "key".



Image source: eBay

# Substitution Cipher

- Alternatively, we could use the ordinal positions of letters in a cipher, perhaps.

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	...	X	Y	Z
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	...	24	25	26

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A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	...	X	Y	Z
21	22	23	24	25	26	1	2	3	4	5	...	18	19	20

+20

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# Caesar Cipher

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- In ancient times, it was apparently very challenging to crack. Nowadays, it's quite easy.
- Limited number of rotational "keys". Only 26 ways to lay the alphabet out.

# Vigenere Cipher

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# Vigenere Cipher

- The Vigenere cipher is an extended idea to the Caesar cipher, but instead of using a single key, it uses multiple keys, by selecting a keyword.
- Each new letter of the message we want to encrypt (aka the *plaintext*) is enciphered using a different letter of the keyword.

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- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.

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<b>plaintext</b>					
ordinal position					
<b>keyword</b>					
keyword ordinal position					
<b>sum</b>					
sum, wrapping around					
<b>ciphertext</b>					



# Vigenere Cipher

- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.

<b>plaintext</b>	<b>H</b>				
ordinal position	8				
<b>keyword</b>					
keyword ordinal position					
<b>sum</b>					
sum, wrapping around					
<b>ciphertext</b>					

# Vigenere Cipher

- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.

<b>plaintext</b>	<b>H</b>				
ordinal position	8				
<b>keyword</b>	<b>L</b>				
keyword ordinal position	12				
<b>sum</b>					
sum, wrapping around					
<b>ciphertext</b>					

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<b>plaintext</b>	<b>H</b>				
ordinal position	8				
<b>keyword</b>	<b>L</b>				
keyword ordinal position	12				
<b>sum</b>	<b>20</b>				
sum, wrapping around	20				
<b>ciphertext</b>	<b>T</b>				

# Vigenere Cipher

- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.

<b>plaintext</b>	<b>H</b>	<b>E</b>			
ordinal position	8	5			
<b>keyword</b>	<b>L</b>	<b>A</b>			
keyword ordinal position	12	1			
<b>sum</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>6</b>			
sum, wrapping around	20	6			
<b>ciphertext</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>			

# Vigenere Cipher

- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.

plaintext	H	E	L		
ordinal position	8	5	12		
keyword	L	A	W		
keyword ordinal position	12	1	23		
sum	20	6	35		
sum, wrapping around	20	6	9		
ciphertext	T	F	I		

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- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.

plaintext	H	E	L	L	
ordinal position	8	5	12	12	
keyword	L	A	W	L	
keyword ordinal position	12	1	23	12	
sum	20	6	35	24	
sum, wrapping around	20	6	9	24	
ciphertext	T	F	I	X	

# Vigenere Cipher

- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.

plaintext	H	E	L	L	O
ordinal position	8	5	12	12	15
keyword	L	A	W	L	A
keyword ordinal position	12	1	23	12	1
sum	20	6	35	24	16
sum, wrapping around	20	6	9	24	16
ciphertext	T	F	I	X	P

# Vigenere Cipher

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- So, **HELLO** becomes **TFIXP**.



# Vigenere Cipher

- Let's encrypt the message **HELLO** using the keyword **LAW**.
- So, **HELLO** becomes **TFIXP**.
- Unlike Caesar, which is limited to 26 keys, Vigenere cipher has  $26^n$  keys, where  $n$  is the length of the keyword chosen.

# Substitution Cipher

- Let's assume that your adversary *isn't* a member of Little Orphan Annie's Secret Society.



Image source: eBay

# Substitution Cipher

- Let's assume that your adversary *isn't* a member of Little Orphan Annie's Secret Society.
- How might they nevertheless crack a code enciphered with the pin?



Image source: eBay

# Frequency Analysis

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M
8.1%	1.5%	2.8%	4.3%	12.7%	2.2%	2.0%	6.1%	7.0%	0.2%	0.8%	4.0%	2.4%
N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
6.7%	7.5%	1.9%	0.1%	6.0%	6.3%	9.1%	2.8%	1.0%	2.4%	0.2%	2.0%	0.1%

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N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W	X	Y	Z
6.7%	7.5%	1.9%	0.1%	6.0%	6.3%	9.1%	2.8%	1.0%	2.4%	0.2%	2.0%	0.1%

- It's probably tedious for a human to analyze, but a computer can do it very quickly!

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- There are also *transposition* ciphers, which algorithmically rearrange the letters in a message.
- The problem is that all of these classic ciphers are easily cracked, and often suffer from a problem of how to distribute the key.



# RECOVER PASSWORD

---

Enter your email and we'll email you a link to change your password.

Enter Email

---

**SEND PASSWORD LINK**

**SIGN IN**

**REGISTER**

# Hashes

- A major distinction between ciphers and hashes are that ciphers are (generally) reversible, while hashes are (generally) not.

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- A major distinction between ciphers and hashes are that ciphers are (generally) reversible, while hashes are (generally) not.
- To *hash* some data, we run it through a *hash function*, which mathematically manipulates it in some way, and it outputs a value (sometimes a number, sometimes a string).

# Hashes

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- This is why those services can't just tell you what your password is – they don't know it either (hopefully!)

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  - Use only the data being hashed

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  - **MULL**
  - **BBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBBB**

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- By running the actual password through the hash function, if we get a match, odds are they entered the right password.

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- Typically the algorithms that are used do not work on a character-by-character basis.
- Most work by taking data of some arbitrary size, and mapping it to a string of bits that is always exactly the same size.

# Cryptographic Hash Functions

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  - Be deterministic
  - Generate very different hash codes for very similar data
  - **Never allow two different sets of data to hash to the same value**
- The output of a cryptographic hash function is normally referred to as the digest.

# SHA-1

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- It works by mapping messages of arbitrary size into a "bit string" of 160 bits. This means that there are  $2^{160}$  different SHA-1 digests, or a bit over  $10^{48}$ .
- It is such an important algorithm that federal regulations require its use.

# SHAttered

<https://shattered.io/>



# SHAttered

"It is now practically possible to craft two colliding PDF files and obtain a SHA-1 digital signature on the first PDF file which can also be abused as a valid signature on the second PDF file. For example, by crafting the two colliding PDF files as two rental agreements with different rent, it is possible to trick someone to create a valid signature for a high-rent contract by having him or her sign a low-rent contract."

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- SHA-2, SHA-3
- *MD5*, MD6

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- Email
- Secure web browsing
- VPN
- Document storage
- ...

# Public-Key Cryptography

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$$14 \times 8 = 112$$

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$$112 \times \frac{1}{8} = 14$$

# Public-Key Cryptography

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$$112 / 8 = 14$$

# Public-Key Cryptography

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- In this sense, we can think of multiplication as a reversible function. If we multiply some number  $x$  by some other number  $y$ , we get a result,  $z$ .

# Public-Key Cryptography

- Let's take a trip down memory lane...
- In this sense, we can think of multiplication as a reversible function. If we multiply some number  $x$  by some other number  $y$ , we get a result,  $z$ .
- If we multiply that result,  $z$  by the reciprocal of  $y$ , we get back the original  $x$ . As long as you know what  $y$  is, it's reversible.

# Public-Key Cryptography

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$$f(n) = n \times 8$$



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$$f(14) = 112$$

- Here, imagine *14* is the plaintext and *112* is the ciphertext.

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$$f(14) = 112$$

$$f(n) = n \times 8$$

# Public-Key Cryptography

- Let's take a trip down memory lane...

$$f(14) = 112$$

$$f(n) = (n \times 10) - 28$$

# Public-Key Cryptography

- Let's take a trip down memory lane...

$$f(14) = 112$$
$$f(n) = (4/7) \times n^2$$

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- Two functions,  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , each of which is a one-way function.

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- This is the basic idea behind how public-key cryptography works.
- Two functions,  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , each of which is a one-way function.
- One of those functions is *public* and anyone can use it to encrypt information intended for you. The other is *private*, known only to you, and can be used to reverse the encryption of the first.



# Asymmetric Encryption

- To generate these keys, start with a really huge, normally prime, randomly-generated number.

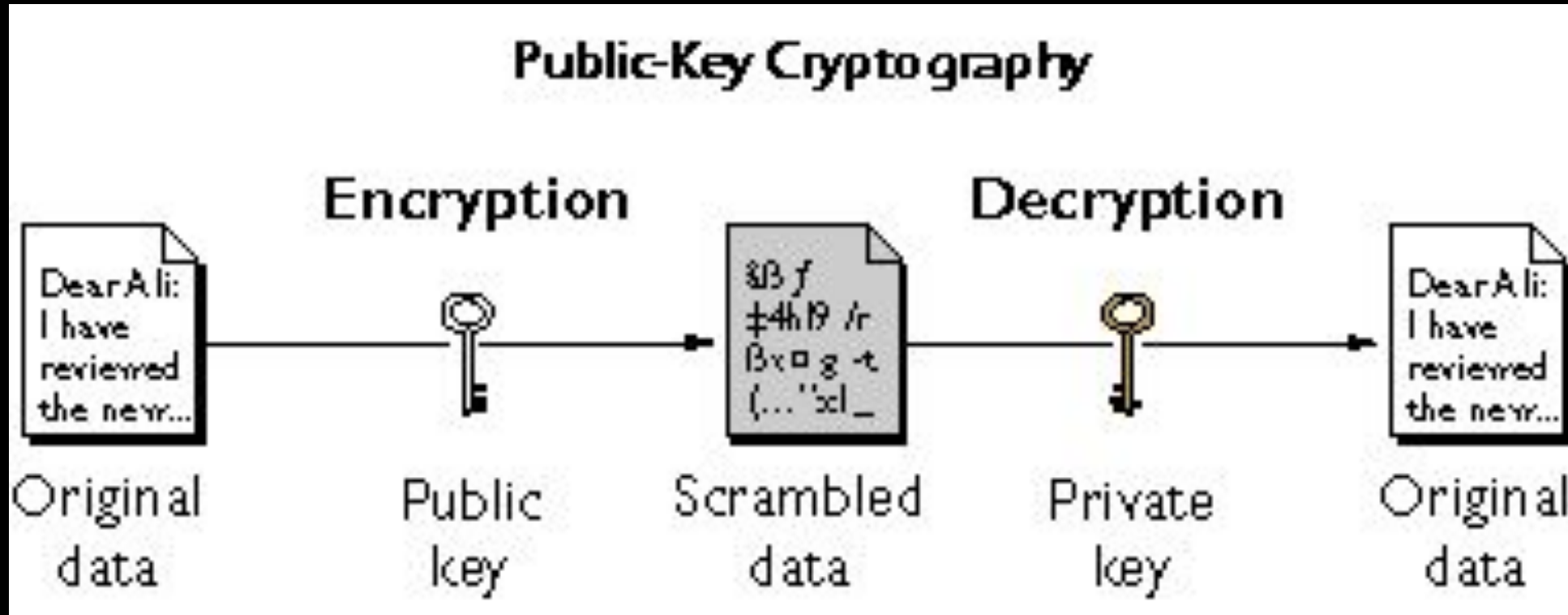
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# Asymmetric Encryption

- To generate these keys, start with a really huge, normally prime, randomly-generated number.
- From there, two complementary one-way functions (quite a bit more complicated than our  $f(n)$ ) are generated to create a public-private key pair.
- Typically done by a program called RSA.

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- The encryption step can be done by anyone who has access to the public key.
- The decryption step can (theoretically) be done only by the individual(s) who have the private key.

# Digital Signatures

- Digital signatures (not the same as e-signatures!) are almost the inverse of encryption.

# Digital Signatures

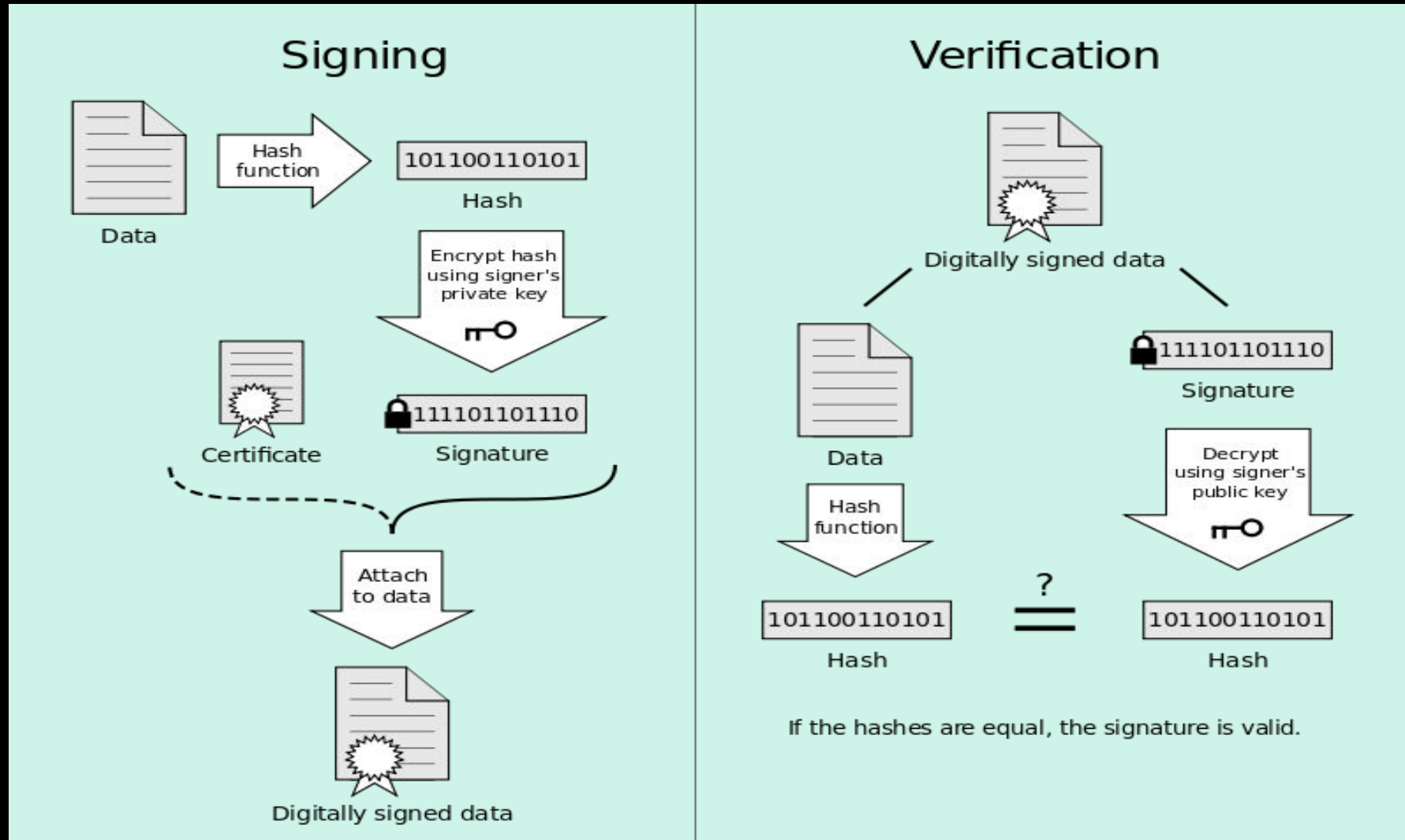
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- Digital signatures (not the same as e-signatures!) are almost the inverse of encryption.
- Using a digital signature, one can verify the authenticity of the sender of a document.
- Many digital signatures are 256-bits (meaning  $2^{256}$  distinct digital signatures are possible, meaning the likelihood of a "forgery" is infinitesimal).

# Digital Signatures



# Blockchain

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- The use of blockchain known by most people is in the cryptocurrency domain – Bitcoin and the like, but it has utility far beyond that.
- 3Blue1Brown: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=bBC-nXj3Ng4>

# Blockchain



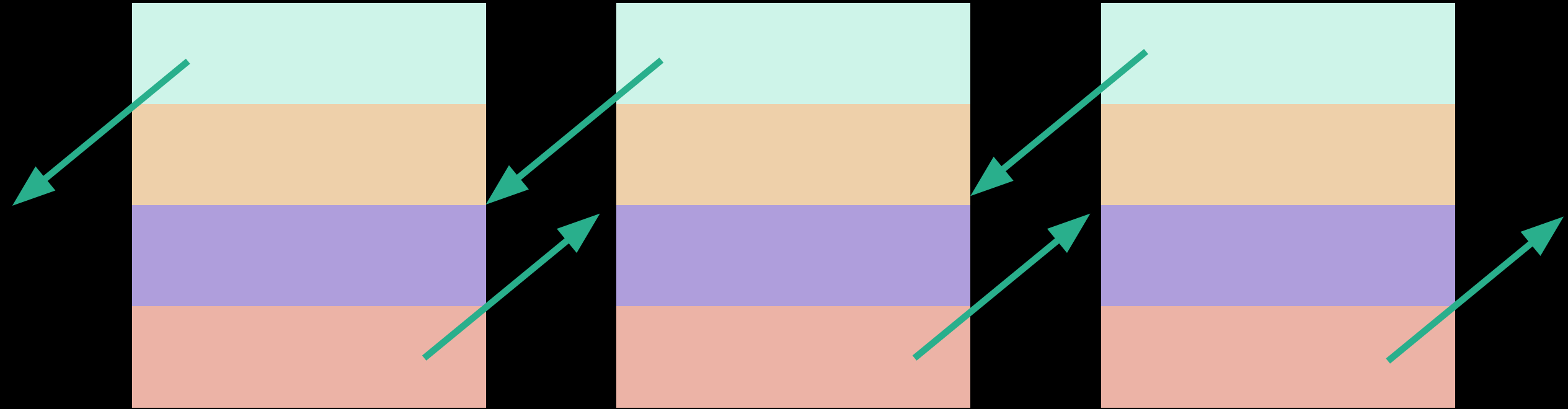
Image source: [bitcoin.it](https://bitcoin.it)

# Blockchain

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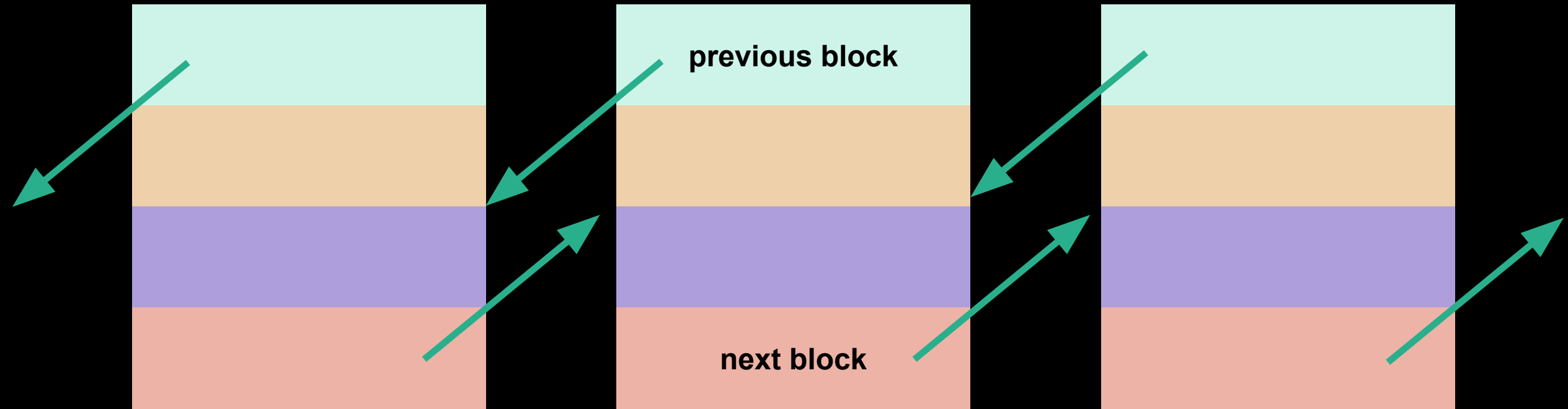
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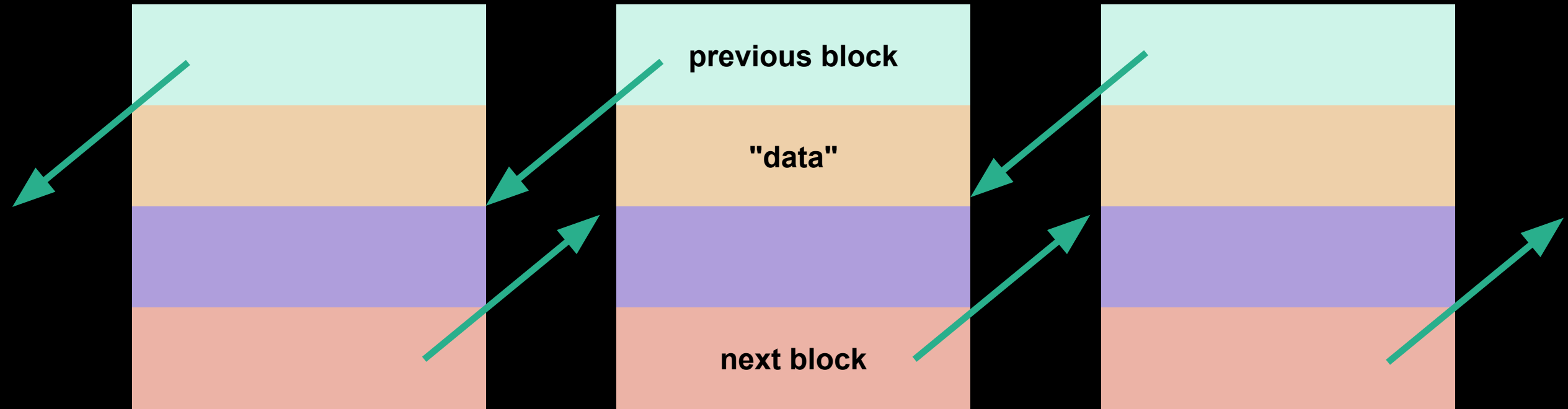
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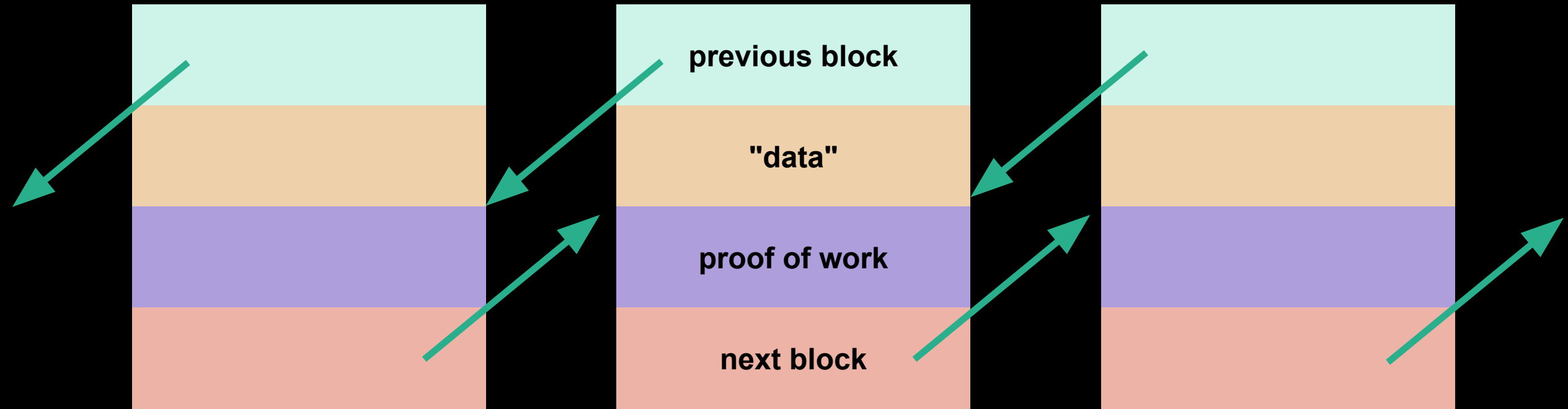
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- It's easiest to think of the blockchain as a linked list.
- What's the data? If we're talking about a cryptocurrency, it's a ledger of transactions, each of which is digitally signed by the person who made that transaction.
- That ledger is also, in the case of a cryptocurrency, *decentralized*, so any time the data is recorded, everyone must record that transaction on their own copy of the ledger, in that block.

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- But how do you know the block(chain) is legitimate, if everyone has their own copy and could hypothetically modify it?
- The way many cryptocurrencies do it is to assume the blockchain with the most computational work put into it is the "true" chain.
- This leads to the concept of proof of work.



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- We can hash the block, over and over, coupled with some random number, until we find a highly unusual pattern in the first  $n$  (say, 30 to 40) out of 256 bits.

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- We can hash the block, over and over, coupled with some random number, until we find a highly unusual pattern in the first  $n$  (say, 30 to 40) out of 256 bits.
- The smallest change in any of the transactions would produce a totally different hash, making that block unverified (and everything after it potentially fraudulent too.)

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- The longer a chain gets (in the case of chain conflicts), the more and more likely it is that chain consists only of verified, legitimate transactions.

# Blockchain

- We can very easily verify the correctness of someone's proof of work.
- The longer a chain gets (in the case of chain conflicts), the more and more likely it is that chain consists only of verified, legitimate transactions.
- What's a transaction?

# Blockchain

- What if the data, instead of being a list of transactions, was something else instead?
  - This is what underpins another blockchain-based technology, Ethereum.

# Cryptography