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Greg Rose graduated from the University of New South Wales with a B.Sc. (honours) in computer science and was awarded the University Medal in 1977. A member of the Board of Directors of the USENIX Association, he served as program chair of the 1996 USENIX Security Symposium. As Senior VP for product security at QUALCOMM, he focuses on cryptographic security and authentication for wireless communications. He has written a number of public tools using cryptography, and he holds generic cryptographic export licenses for two countries.



I feel it is always enlightening to see some of the history behind a subject.

There is much more to cryptography than algorithms, such as key management, protocols, and so on. This tutorial does not attempt to address these other things.



Image of Blaise de Vigenère courtesy of Wikipedia.

<u>Giovan Battista Bellaso</u> in his 1553 book *La cifra del. Sig. Giovan Battista Bellaso*



In 1882, a California banker named Frank Miller published Telegraphic Code to Insure Privacy and Secrecy in the Transmission of Telegrams. (See *Frank Miller: Inventor of the One-Time Pad* Steven M. Bellovin, Department of Computer Science, Columbia University)

Gilbert Sandford Vernam at Bell Labs

Capt. Joseph Mauborgne, US Army Signal Corps

Claude Shannon at Bell Labs, work done during WW2, published 1948, founded information theory



Image shamelessly stolen from Amazon



VENONA: USSR accidentally re-used some of their one-time pads. NSA ran huge correlations on archived data, turned them into running-key ciphers, decrypted.



National Cryptologic Museum, just outside NSA headquarters in Fort Meade, Maryland. (Converted motel!) Used to encode and encrypt voice transmissions between Roosevelt and Churchill during WW2. Random pad distributed on phonograph records. 50 tons, 30kW.



If you reuse a key, the same stream of output is generated. If you take two encrypted samples and XOR them together, the stream cipher cancels out, and you have two chunks of data XORed together. This is called a running key cipher, and is surprisingly easy to break using statistical properties of the plaintexts. (It doesn't matter *how* you combine the stream, there's always (by definition) a way to make it cancel out.)

Because you get nothing for free, you always must use stream ciphers together with other things; random numbers to enhance keys, some way to agree on keys, MACs or hashes to authenticate and bind data, some way to guarantee synchronisation.



See many papers by Courtois and others

Painting of Karl Friedrich Gauss by Christian Albrect Jensen



Note that in the latter case, you are not so much attacking the cipher itself, as the way in which it must be used in practice.

CFB mode stream ciphers must be very strong indeed, because they leave the door wide open for chosen-plaintext attacks.

The intelligence community uses different terminology in this area than is common in the open literature, and it can get quite confusing. What I call *key* they call *cryptovariable*, and what I call *stream* or *keystream* they call *key*.



Image from wikipedia. Biases courtesy of Fluhrer and McGrew, then many others.

When i == 0 (known to the attacker), and first output is 0, probability of second being zero is 1/128, exactly twice what it should be.



Image is of the Wikileaks server a former cold war bunker is located in the Pionen White Mountain in Sweden. See http://bitshare.tumblr.com/post/ 2383169988/the-wikileaks-server-cave





This slide is a gross oversimplification of a very mathematical attack, which is nevertheless very simple and elegant.

The paper is to appear at Selected Areas of Cryptography (Toronto, August 15-17, 2001).

Folks at AT&T Labs (Rubin, Ioannides, ???) who already had 802.11 sniffer stuff lying around, implemented the attack in a few days and found that it takes about 15 minutes of intercepted traffic to recover the key (regardless of the key length).

Note that the attack even works on *unknown* plaintext, so long as there is an identifiable bias (eg. English text, IP address), it just requires more input.





This is just the simplest example.

The polynomial form is called *the characteristic polynomial* of the recurrence relation.

General form of a k-th order linear recurrence relation:

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

Characteristic polynomial:

 $X^n - c_0 x^{n-1} - c_1 x^{n-2} \dots - c_{k-1}$

Note that when the coefficients are over a field of characteristic 2, "+" is the same as "-", so people often write the characteristic polynomial with "+" signs and this gets confusing. More later.

The *order* of the recurrence relation is the same as the *degree* (greatest exponent) of the polynomial.



Of course there are infinite sets too, like the *ring of integers* or the *field of real numbers*. We just generally don't get to use truly infinite things.



For those with applicable upbringing, the group properties can be remembered as CAIN (Closure, Associative, Identity, iNverse) and ABEL.

When referring to a group, you get to choose whether you talk about it *additively* as above, or using *multiplicative* notation, where you think of the operator as multiplication, the identity as "1", and the inverse as 1/x or x^{-1} . This doesn't matter much until you start thinking about rings.

Matrix multiplication is a group most people are familiar with that is *not* abelian.



Yes, there are rings which don't have an identity element, for example the set of *even* integers... (*1* is not an element of the set, but all the other rules apply). Note that we're talking about the *multiplicative* identity here... there must be an additive identity because G is a group.





"sub-thingys" is not a very technical term.



What is x? Who cares? Think of it more as a placeholder for sorting out the arithmetic, and not a variable or something to be solved for.

Polynomials generally (when not limited in size, or when the field itself is not finite) form a *ring with identity.*

Evariste Galois died in a duel at the age of about 21... a terrible waste.

Enough of this for now? Good. We'll be back.





Many aspects of cryptanalysis boil down to describing things so that they act as fields, then gathering enough information to apply Gaussian Elimination. Sean Murphy's result about Twofish mentioned earlier is a sort of example.

If you have *n* independent equations in *n* variables, you have a solution. By *independent* we mean that the equations don't duplicate (or contradict) information you already had. The exact definition of this is too complicated for here.

Karl Friedrich Gauss is who this is named after.



The polynomial shown is *primitive* (I know, 'cause Schneier told me so...). Remember, those "+"s are really "-"s, but that's the same thing in a field of characteristic 2.







There are many different ways of writing this, pre- or post-multiplication, row or column vector, but the point is it can be done fairly simply, and this equivalence makes all sorts of results easy to figure out.

Note that the first column of the matrix (in this form) is the bits of the recurrence relation.



There are different ways of defining "primitive" and "generator", and in fact the definitions are related in interesting ways. These concepts will come up later, in a context where it is easier to explain them, under Public-key Cryptography.

For the time being, I' II just note that a perfectly good definition of the terms is "if you have a maximal length sequence generated by a shift register, then the characteristic polynomial must have been primitive".





The "multiple LFSR" is exactly what you get when you have a larger LFSR. However the particular state and feedback function of the hypothetical larger LFSR is quite complicated when compared to the individual smaller LFSRs.



While the algorithm is capable of accepting a 64 bit key, in actual use in GSM it is only ever fed a *54* bit key (10 of the bits are set to zero). No-one knows a way to exploit this other than brute force, and there are other ways to do break it more efficiently than that.

See Biryukov, Shamir and Wagner in Fast Software Encryption, 2000.

Image from Wikipedia.



An early version of A5 appeared in public in the early '90s, but there were a number of things about it which were unknown or incorrect. The correct version (which satisfies the test vectors) was reverse engineered in 1999 by the Smart Card Developers Association, see http://www.scard.org.

There is also an intentionally weakened version called A5/2, in which the clocking is controlled by a fourth shift register and a simple nonlinear filter is added, for which a simple divide-and-conquer attack applies (try every possibility for the fourth register, and derive a set of linear equations relating the unknowns of the original three to the observed outputs. With somewhat more than 64 bits of known plaintext, if you can solve the linear equations, you have with high probability have found the initial state).



Published in Australian Conference on Information Security and Privacy, 1998. The published one had only linear key mixing, which was a bad mistake, and a new kind of brute force attack was developed (Bleichenbacher, Patel, Sundaramen, FSE' 99). The current version fixes the former, and optimizes against the latter, and the design paper and source code are online at http://www.home.aone.net.au/qualcomm.

SOBER-t16 and -t32 are being considered for standardisation for the European NESSIE project.









2005/040 Christophe De Cannière, Joseph Lano and Bart Preneel, "Comments on the Rediscovery of Time Memory Data Tradeoffs", <u>pdf</u>,

submitted 2005-04-29.

FMS = Fluhrer, Mantin and Shamir " Weaknesses in the Key Scheduling Algorithm of RC4"





On September 23, 2011 researchers Thai Duong and Juliano Rizzo demonstrated a "proof of concept" called BEAST (using a Java Applet to violate "same origin policy" constraints) for a long-known <u>Cipher block chaining</u> (CBC) vulnerability in TLS 1.0. (Wikipedia)



