

# Cryptography, part I: Symmetric Key Encryption

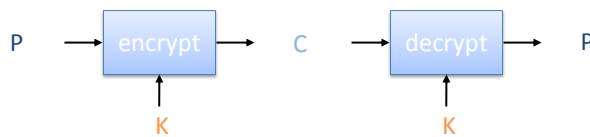
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## Symmetric Cryptosystem

- **Scenario**
  - Alice wants to send a message (plaintext  $P$ ) to Bob.
  - The communication channel is insecure and can be eavesdropped
  - If Alice and Bob have previously agreed on a symmetric encryption scheme and a secret key  $K$ , the message can be sent encrypted (ciphertext  $C$ )
- **Issues**
  - What is a secure symmetric encryption scheme?
  - What is the complexity of encrypting/decrypting?
  - What is the size of the ciphertext, relative to the plaintext?



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# Basics

- Notation (simplified for fixed-length plaintexts)
  - Secret key  $K$
  - Encryption function  $E_K(P)$
  - Decryption function  $D_K(C)$
  - Encryption and decryption are **permutation functions (bijections)** on the set of all  $n$ -bit arrays
- Efficiency
  - functions  $E_K$  and  $D_K$  should have efficient algorithms
- Consistency
  - Decrypting the ciphertext yields the plaintext
  - $D_K(E_K(P)) = P$

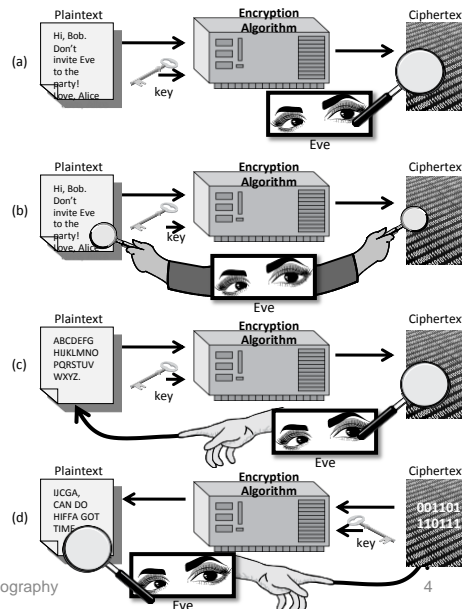
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# Attacks

- Attacker may have
  - a) collection of ciphertexts (**ciphertext only attack**)
  - b) collection of plaintext/ciphertext pairs (**known plaintext attack**)
  - c) collection of plaintext/ciphertext pairs for plaintexts selected by the attacker (**chosen plaintext attack**)
  - d) collection of plaintext/ciphertext pairs for ciphertexts selected by the attacker (**chosen ciphertext attack**)



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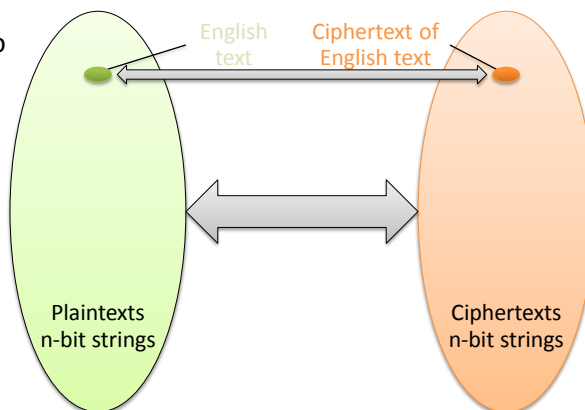
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# Brute-Force Attack

- Try all possible keys  $K$  and determine if  $D_K(C)$  is a likely plaintext
  - Requires some knowledge of the structure of the plaintext (e.g., PDF file or email message)
- Key should be a sufficiently long random value to make exhaustive search attacks unfeasible

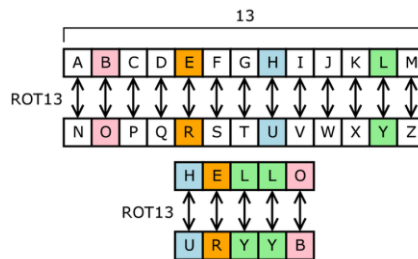
## Encrypting English Text

- English text typically represented with 8-bit ASCII encoding
- A message with  $t$  characters corresponds to an  $n$ -bit array, with  $n = 8t$
- Redundancy due to repeated words and patterns
  - E.g., “th”, “ing”
- English plaintexts are a very small subset of all  $n$ -bit arrays



# Substitution Ciphers

- Each letter is uniquely replaced by another.
- key = permutation between English letters
- There are  $26!$  possible substitution cipher keys
- $26! > 4 \times 10^{26}$
- One popular substitution “cipher” for some Internet posts is ROT13.



Public domain image from <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:ROT13.png>

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## Frequency Analysis

- Letters in a natural language, like English, are not uniformly distributed.
- Knowledge of letter frequencies, including pairs and triples can be used in cryptologic attacks against substitution ciphers.

a: 8.05%	b: 1.67%	c: 2.23%	d: 5.10%
e: 12.22%	f: 2.14%	g: 2.30%	h: 6.62%
i: 6.28%	j: 0.19%	k: 0.95%	l: 4.08%
m: 2.33%	n: 6.95%	o: 7.63%	p: 1.66%
q: 0.06%	r: 5.29%	s: 6.02%	t: 9.67%
u: 2.92%	v: 0.82%	w: 2.60%	x: 0.11%
y: 2.04%	z: 0.06%		

Letter frequencies in the book *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, by

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# Substitution Boxes

- Permutations can also be done over binary alphabets, e.g. n-bit strings.
- Permutation on n-bit strings can be described by  $n/2 \times n/2$  “substitution box”, or “S-box”:

	00	01	10	11
00	0011	0100	1111	0001
01	1010	0110	0101	1011
10	1110	1101	0100	0010
11	0111	0000	1001	1100

(a)

	0	1	2	3
0	3	8	15	1
1	10	6	5	11
2	14	13	4	2
3	7	0	9	12

(b)

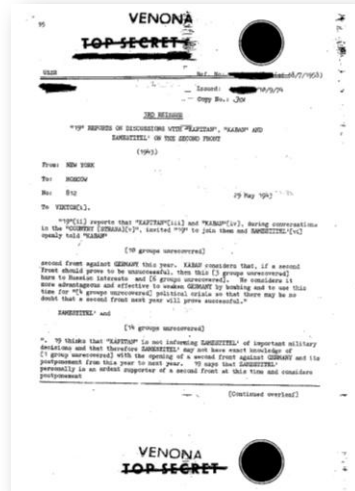
**Figure 8.3:** A 4-bit S-box (a) An S-box in binary. (b) The same S-box in decimal.

# One-Time Pads

- There is one type of substitution cipher that is absolutely unbreakable.
  - The **one-time pad** was invented in 1917 by Joseph Mauborgne and Gilbert Vernam
  - Assume alphabet of p elements (e.g.  $p=26$  for English)
  - We use a block of shift keys,  $K=(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n)$ , to encrypt a plaintext of length n,  $M=(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n)$ , i.e.  $C=(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n)$  where  $c_i = m_i + k_i \pmod{p}$ .
  - Each shift key is chosen uniformly at random in  $\{1, \dots, p\}$
- Since each shift is random, every ciphertext is equally likely for any plaintext.

# Weaknesses of the One-Time Pad

- In spite of their perfect security, one-time pads have some weaknesses
- The key has to be as long as the plaintext
- Keys can never be reused
  - Repeated use of one-time pads allowed the U.S. to break some of the communications of Soviet spies during the Cold War.



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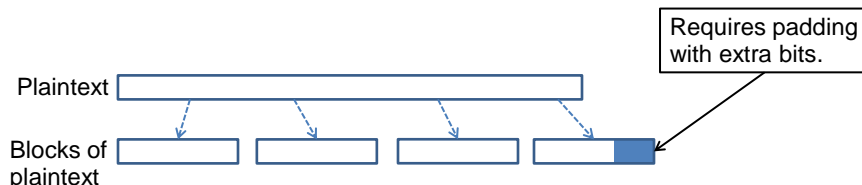
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## Block Ciphers

- In a **block cipher**:
  - Plaintext and ciphertext have fixed block length  $b$  (e.g., 128 bits)
  - A plaintext of length  $n$  is partitioned into a sequence of  $m$  **blocks**,  $P[0], \dots, P[m-1]$ , where  $n \leq bm < n + b$
- Each message is encrypted or decrypted in terms of its blocks.



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# Padding

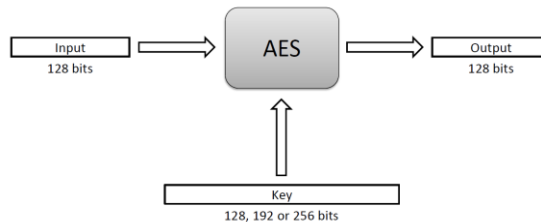
- Block ciphers require the length  $n$  of the plaintext to be a multiple of the block size  $b$
- Padding the last block needs to be unambiguous (cannot just add zeroes)
- When the block size and plaintext length are a multiple of 8, a common padding method (PKCS5) is a sequence of identical bytes, each indicating the length (in bytes) of the padding
- Example for  $b = 128$  (16 bytes)
  - Plaintext: “Roberto” (7 bytes)
  - Padded plaintext: “Roberto99999999” (16 bytes), where 9 denotes the number and not the character
- We need to always pad the last block, which may consist only of padding

## Block Ciphers in Practice

- Data Encryption Standard (DES)
  - Developed by IBM and adopted by NIST in 1977
  - 64-bit blocks and 56-bit keys
  - Small key space makes exhaustive search attack feasible since late 90s
- Triple DES (3DES)
  - Nested application of DES with three different keys  $K_A$ ,  $K_B$ , and  $K_C$
  - Effective key length is 168 bits, making exhaustive search attacks unfeasible
  - $C = E_{K_C}(D_{K_B}(E_{K_A}(P)))$ ;  $P = D_{K_A}(E_{K_B}(D_{K_C}(C)))$
  - Equivalent to DES when  $K_A=K_B=K_C$  (backward compatible)
  - Mode with  $K_C=K_A$  but different  $K_B$  also seems to resist attacks so far.
- Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
  - Selected by NIST in 2001 through open international competition and public discussion
  - 128-bit blocks and several possible key lengths: 128, 192 and 256 bits
  - Exhaustive search attack not currently possible
  - AES-256 is the symmetric encryption algorithm of choice

# The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

- In 1997, the U.S. National Institute for Standards and Technology (NIST) put out a public call for a replacement to DES.
- It narrowed down the list of submissions to five finalists, and ultimately chose an algorithm that is now known as the **Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)**.
- AES is a block cipher that operates on 128-bit blocks. It is designed to be used with keys that are 128, 192, or 256 bits long, yielding ciphers known as AES-128, AES-192, and AES-256.

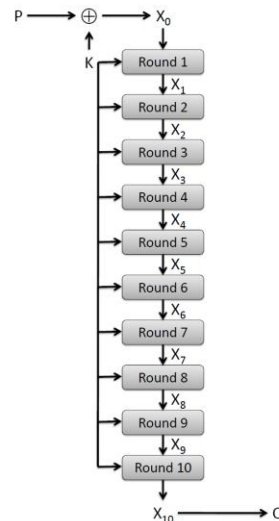


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## AES Round Structure

- The 128-bit version of the AES encryption algorithm proceeds in ten rounds.
- Each round performs an invertible transformation on a 128-bit array, called **state**.
- The initial state  $X_0$  is the XOR of the plaintext  $P$  with the key  $K$ :
- $X_0 = P \text{ XOR } K$ .
- Round  $i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, 10$ ) receives state  $X_{i-1}$  as input and produces state  $X_i$ .
- The ciphertext  $C$  is the output of the final round:  $C = X_{10}$ .



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# AES Rounds

- Each round is built from four basic steps:
  1. **SubBytes step**: an S-box substitution step
  2. **ShiftRows step**: a permutation step
  3. **MixColumns step**: a matrix multiplication step
  4. **AddRoundKey step**: an XOR step with a **round key** derived from the 128-bit encryption key

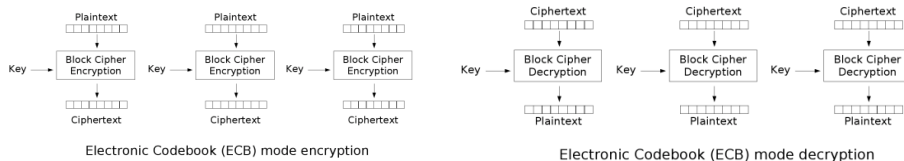
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## Block Cipher Modes

- A block cipher mode describes the way a block cipher encrypts and decrypts a sequence of message blocks.
- Electronic Code Book (ECB) Mode (is the simplest):
  - Block  $P[i]$  encrypted into ciphertext block  $C[i] = E_K(P[i])$
  - Block  $C[i]$  decrypted into plaintext block  $M[i] = D_K(C[i])$



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# Strengths and Weaknesses of ECB

- Strengths:

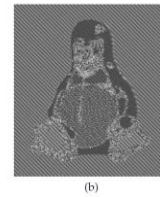
- Is very simple
- Allows for parallel encryptions of the blocks of a plaintext
- Can tolerate the loss or damage of a block

- Weakness:

- Not Chosen-Plaintext Secure
- Intuitively: Related plaintexts always encrypt the same
- Example: Documents and images are not suitable for ECB encryption since patterns in the plaintext are repeated in the ciphertext:

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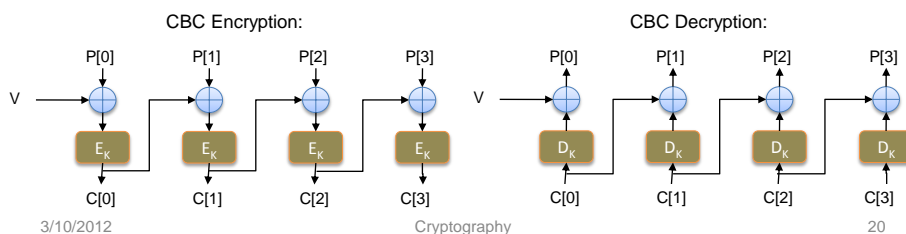
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## Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode

- In Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode

- The previous ciphertext block is combined with the current plaintext block  $C[i] = E_K(C[i-1] \oplus P[i])$
- $C[-1] = V$ , a random block separately transmitted encrypted (known as the initialization vector)
- Decryption:  $P[i] = C[i-1] \oplus D_K(C[i])$



# Strengths and Weaknesses of CBC

- Strengths:
  - Doesn't show patterns in the plaintext
  - Is the most common mode
  - Is fast and relatively simple
- Weaknesses:
  - CBC requires the reliable transmission of all the blocks sequentially
  - CBC is not suitable for applications that allow packet losses (e.g., music and video streaming)