CS 642: Computer Security and Privacy

WISCONSIN
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Cryptography
[Symmetric Encryption]

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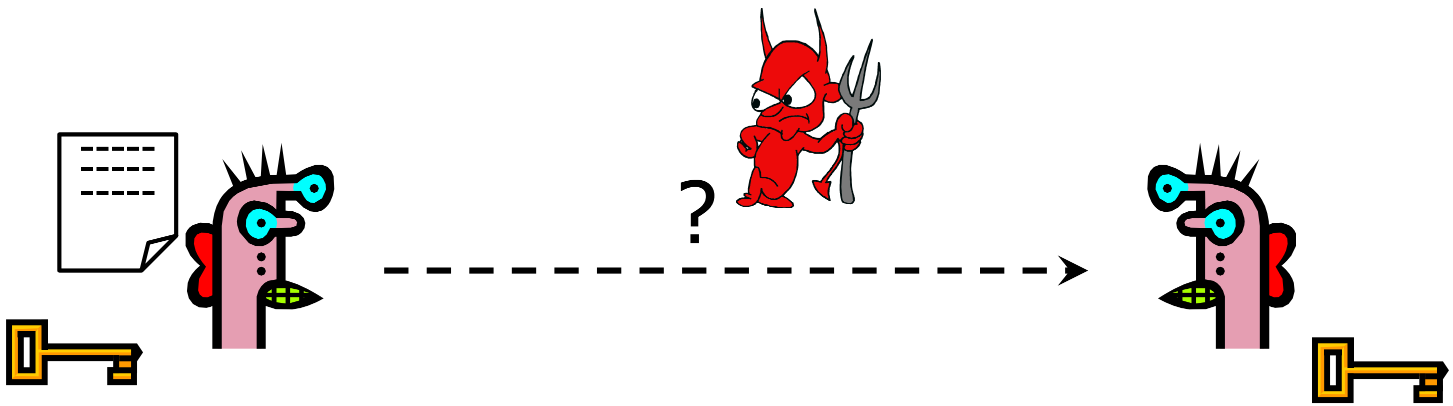
Confidentiality: Basic Problem

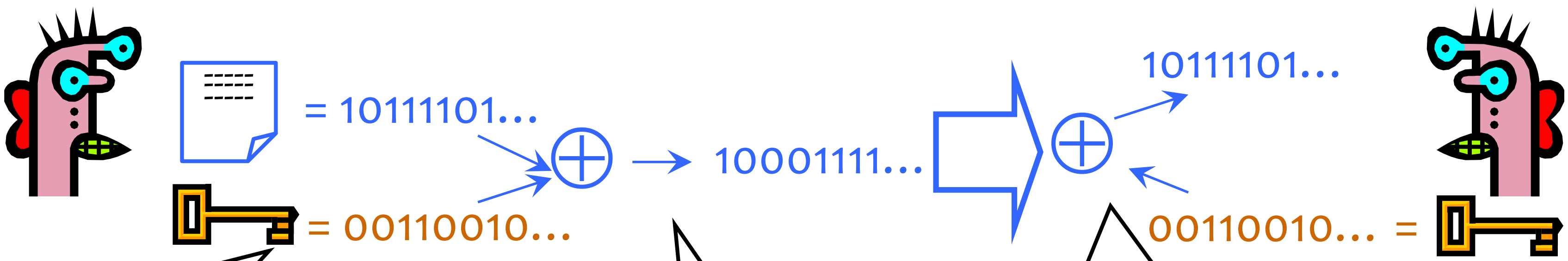


Given (Symmetric Crypto): both parties know the same secret.

Goal: send a message confidentially.

Ignore for now: How is this achieved in practice??

One-Time Pad



Key is a random bit sequence as long as the plaintext

Encrypt by bitwise XOR of plaintext and key:
ciphertext = plaintext ⊕ key

Decrypt by bitwise XOR of ciphertext and key:
ciphertext ⊕ key =
(plaintext ⊕ key) ⊕ key =
plaintext ⊕ (key ⊕ key) =
plaintext

Cipher achieves perfect secrecy if and only if
there are as many possible keys as possible plaintexts,
and every key is equally likely (Claude Shannon, 1949)

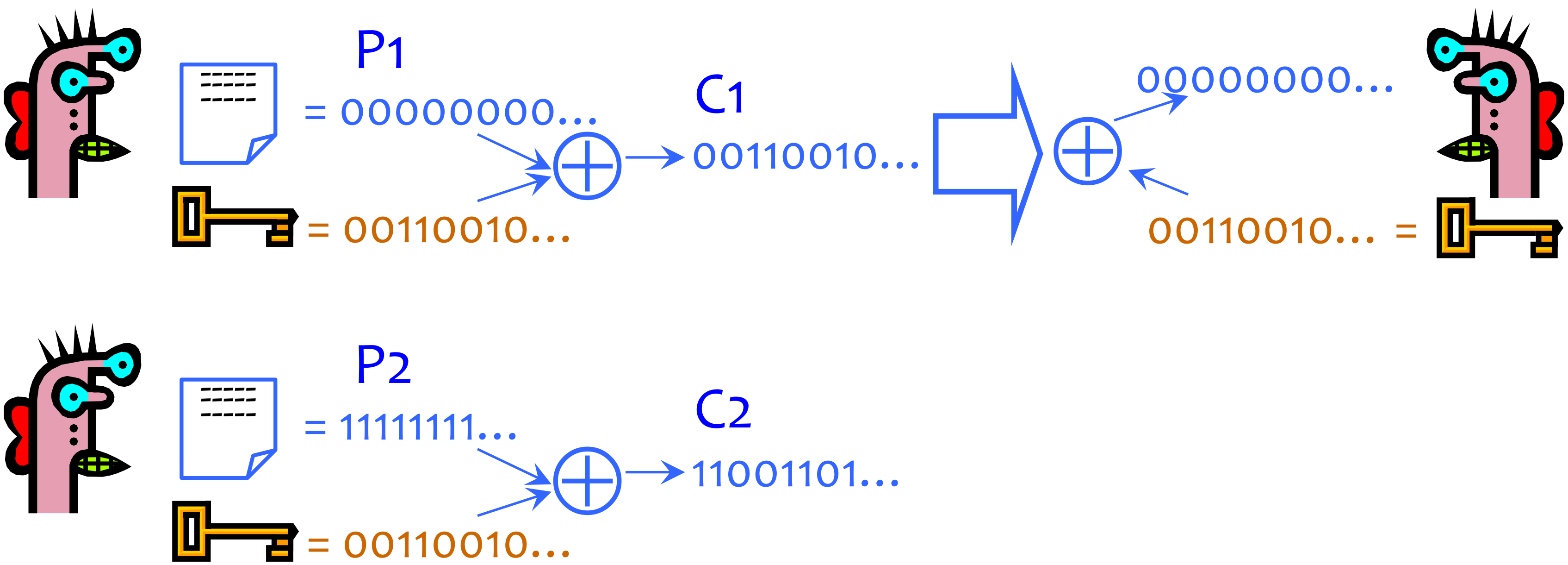
Advantages of One-Time Pad

- Easy to compute
  - Encryption and decryption are the same operation
  - Bitwise XOR is very cheap to compute
- As secure as theoretically possible
  - Given a ciphertext, all plaintexts are equally likely, regardless of attacker's computational resources
  - …as long as the key sequence is truly random
    - True randomness is expensive to obtain in large quantities
  - …as long as each key is same length as plaintext
    - But how does sender communicate the key to receiver?

Problems with One-Time Pad

- (1) Key must be as long as the plaintext
  - Impractical in most realistic scenarios
  - Still used for diplomatic and intelligence traffic
- (2) Insecure if keys are reused

Dangers of Reuse



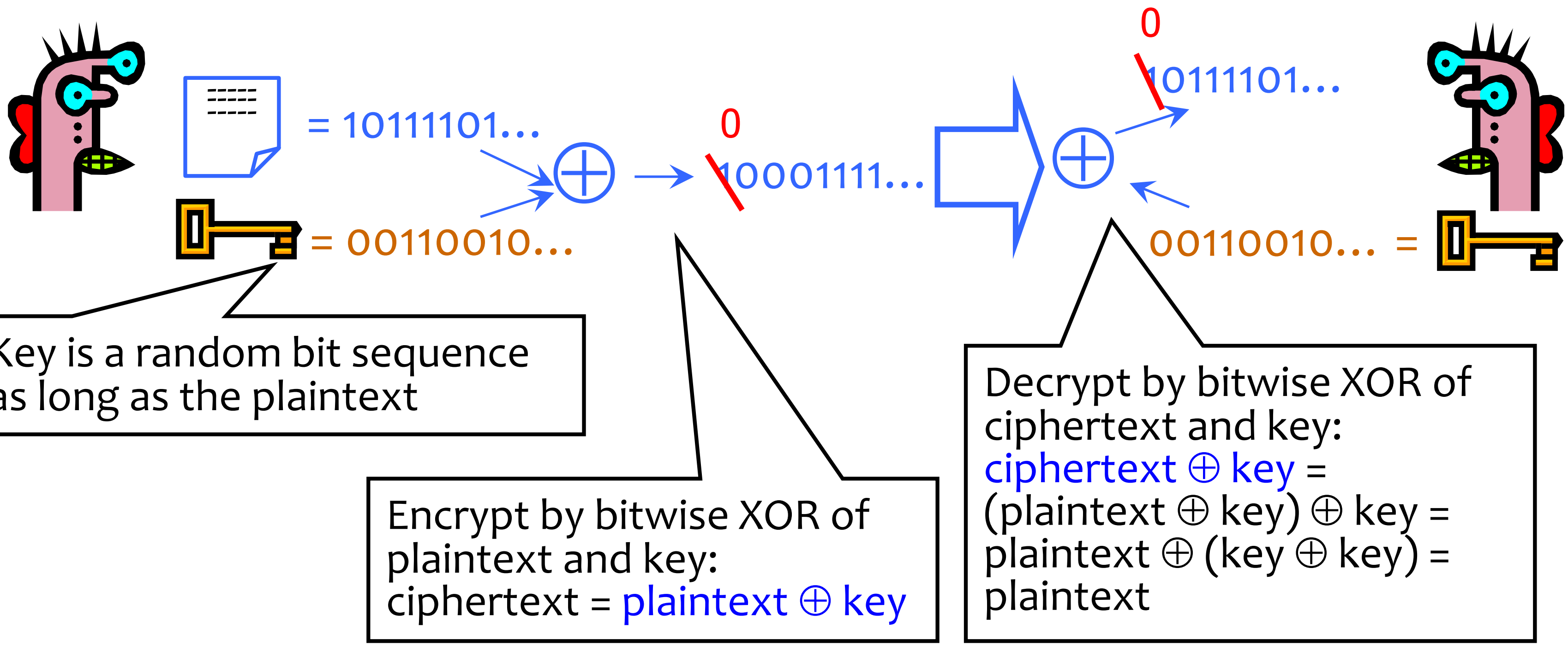
Learn relationship between plaintexts

$C_1 \oplus C_2 = (P_1 \oplus K) \oplus (P_2 \oplus K) =$
$(P_1 \oplus P_2) \oplus (K \oplus K) = P_1 \oplus P_2$

Problems with One-Time Pad

- (1) Key must be as long as the plaintext
  - Impractical in most realistic scenarios
  - Still used for diplomatic and intelligence traffic
- **(2) Insecure if keys are reused**
  - **Attacker can obtain XOR of plaintexts**

Integrity?


= 10111101…
= 00110010…
0
10001111…
0
10111101…
00110010… =
Key is a random bit sequence as long as the plaintext
Encrypt by bitwise XOR of plaintext and key:
ciphertext = plaintext ⊕ key
Decrypt by bitwise XOR of ciphertext and key:
ciphertext ⊕ key =
(plaintext ⊕ key) ⊕ key =
plaintext ⊕ (key ⊕ key) =
plaintext

Problems with One-Time Pad

- (1) Key must be as long as the plaintext
  - Impractical in most realistic scenarios
  - Still used for diplomatic and intelligence traffic
- (2) Insecure if keys are reused
  - Attacker can obtain XOR of plaintexts
- **(3) Does not guarantee integrity**
  - **One-time pad only guarantees confidentiality**
  - **Attacker cannot recover plaintext, but can easily change it to something else**

Reducing Key Size

- What to do when it is infeasible to pre-share huge random keys?
  - When one-time pad is unrealistic…
- Use special cryptographic primitives: block ciphers, stream ciphers
  - Single key can be re-used (with some restrictions)
  - Not as theoretically secure as one-time pad

Stream Ciphers

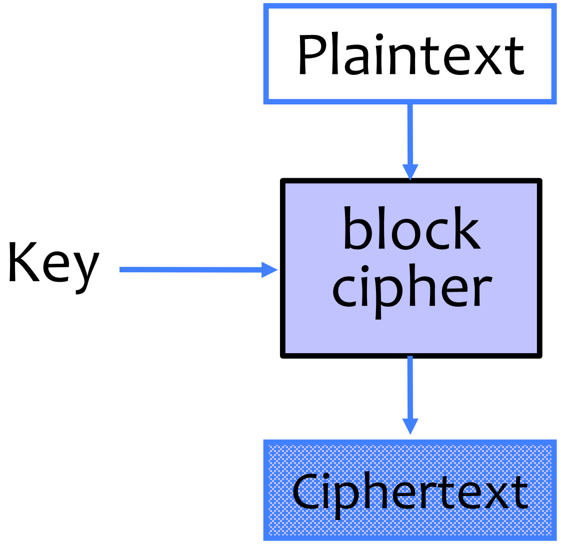
- One-time pad: Ciphertext(Key,Message)=Message⊕Key
  - Key must be a random bit sequence as long as message
- Idea: replace "random" with "pseudo-random"
  - Use a pseudo-random number generator (PRNG)
  - PRNG takes a short, truly random secret seed and expands it into a long "random-looking" sequence
    - E.g., 128-bit seed into a 10^6-bit pseudo-random sequence

No efficient algorithm can tell this sequence from truly random

- Ciphertext(Key,Msg)=Msg⊕PRNG(Key)
  - Message processed bit by bit (like one-time pad)

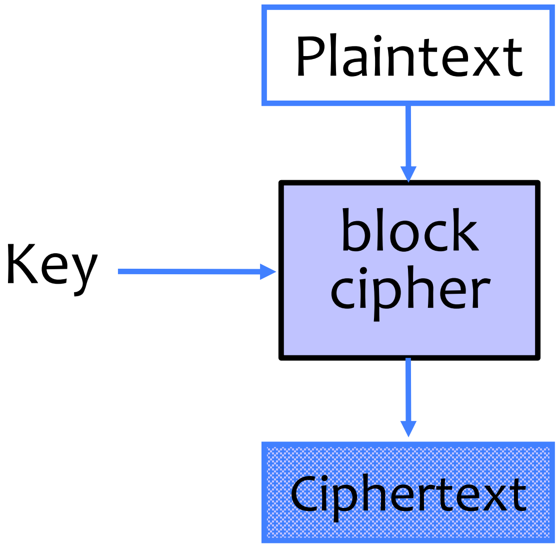
Block Ciphers

- Operates on a single chunk ("block") of plaintext
  - For example, 64 bits for DES, 128 bits for AES
  - Each key defines a different permutation
  - Same key is reused for each block (can use short keys)



Keyed Permutation

- Not just shuffling of input bits!
  - Suppose plaintext = “111”. Then “111” is not the only possible ciphertext!
- Instead:
  - **Permutation of possible outputs**
  - Use secret key to pick a permutation



Keyed Permutation

input	possible output	possible output	etc.
000	010	111	…
001	111	110	…
010	101	000	…
011	110	101	…
…	…		…
111	000	110	…

Key = 00
Key = 01

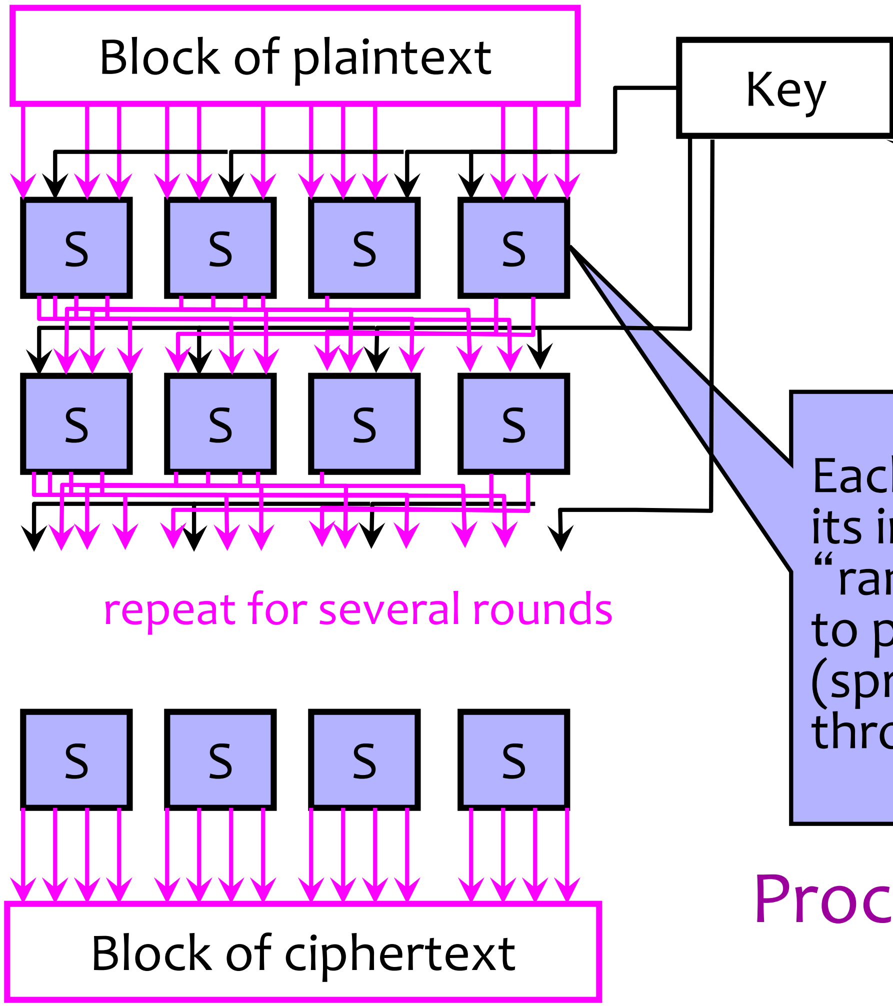
For N-bit input, 2^N! possible permutations
For K-bit key, 2^K possible keys

Block Cipher Security

- Result should look like a random permutation on the inputs
  - Recall: not just shuffling bits. N-bit block cipher permutes over 2^N inputs.

- Only computational guarantee of secrecy
  - Not impossible to break, just very expensive
    - If there is no efficient algorithm (unproven assumption!), then can only break by brute-force, try-every-possible-key search
  - Time and cost of breaking the cipher exceed the value and/or useful lifetime of protected information

Block Cipher Operation (Simplified)



Add some secret key bits to provide confusion

Each S-box transforms its input bits in a "random-looking" way to provide diffusion (spread plaintext bits throughout ciphertext)

Procedure must be reversible (for decryption)

Standard Block Ciphers

- **DES: Data Encryption Standard**
  - Feistel structure: builds invertible function using non-invertible ones
  - Invented by IBM, issued as federal standard in 1977
  - 64-bit blocks, 56-bit key + 8 bits for parity

DES and 56 bit keys

- 56 bit keys are quite short

Key Size (bits)	Number of Alternative Keys	Time required at 1 encryption/μs	Time required at 10^6 encryptions/μs
32	$2^{32} = 4.3 \times 10^9$	$2^{31}\ \mu s = 35.8$ minutes	2.15 milliseconds
56	$2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$	$2^{55}\ \mu s = 1142$ years	10.01 hours
128	$2^{128} = 3.4 \times 10^{38}$	$2^{127}\ \mu s = 5.4 \times 10^{24}$ years	5.4×10^{18} years
168	$2^{168} = 3.7 \times 10^{50}$	$2^{167}\ \mu s = 5.9 \times 10^{36}$ years	5.9×10^{30} years
26 characters (permutation)	$26! = 4 \times 10^{26}$	$2 \times 10^{26}\ \mu s = 6.4 \times 10^{12}$ years	6.4×10^6 years

- 1999: EFF DES Crack + distributed machines
  - < 24 hours to find DES key
- DES ---> 3DES
  - 3DES: DES + inverse DES + DES (with 2 or 3 diff keys)

Standard Block Ciphers

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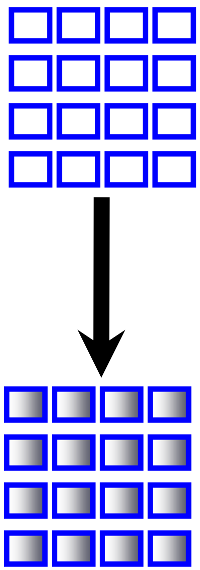
- **AES: Advanced Encryption Standard**
  - New federal standard as of 2001
    - NIST: National Institute of Standards & Technology
  - Based on the Rijndael algorithm
    - Selected via an open process
  - 128-bit blocks, keys can be 128, 192 or 256 bits

Encrypting a Large Message

- So, we've got a good block cipher, but our plaintext is larger than 128-bit block size



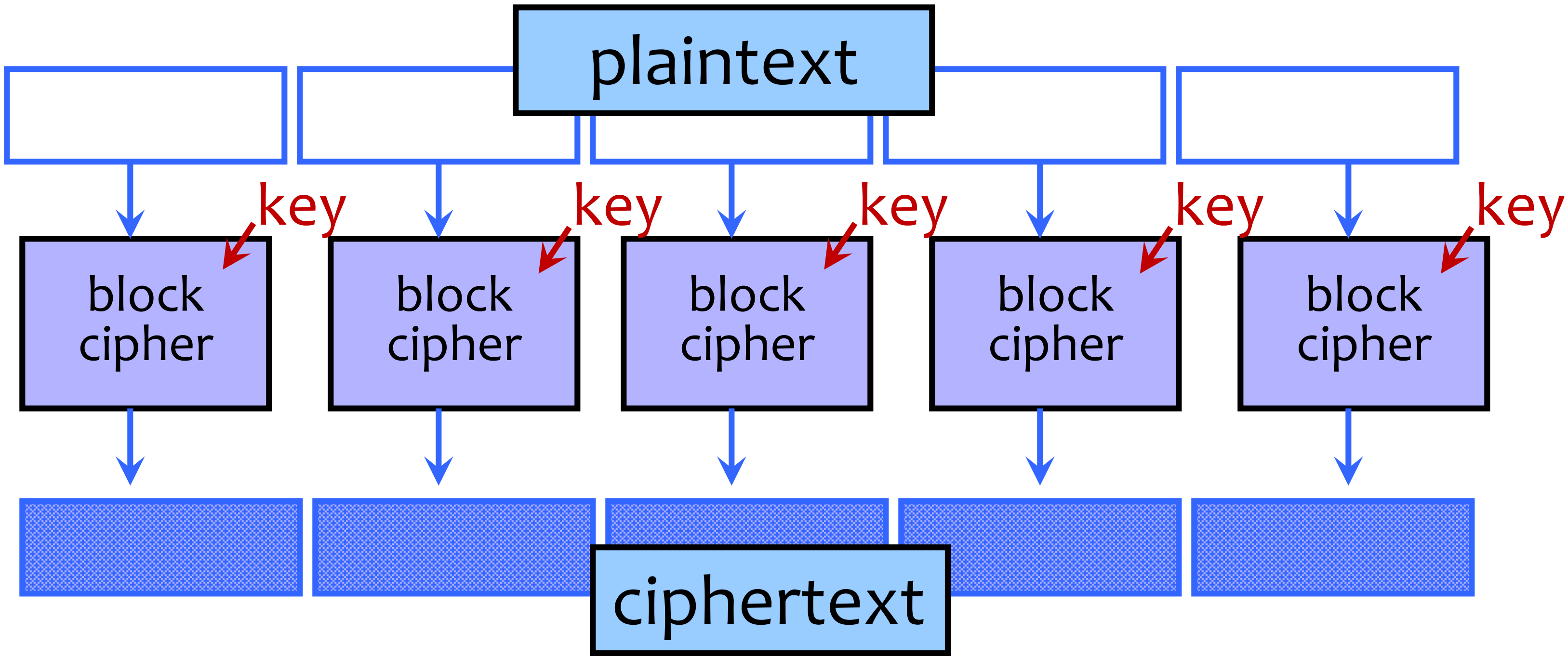
128-bit plaintext

(arranged as 4x4 array of 8-bit bytes)

128-bit ciphertext

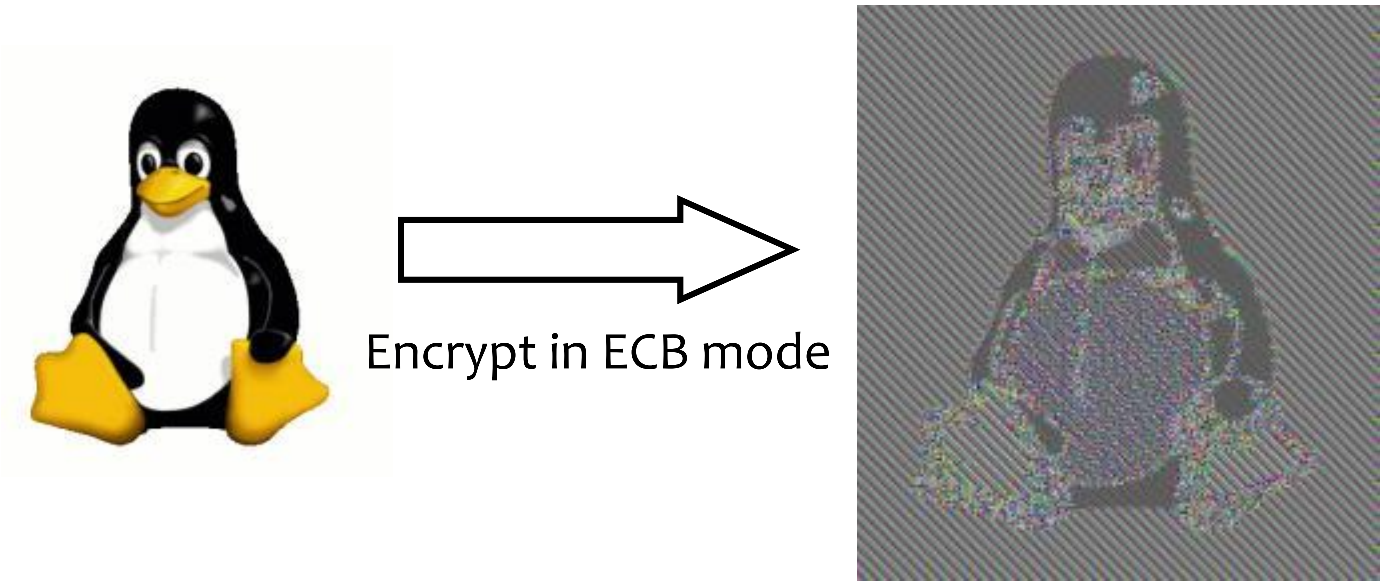
- What should we do?

Electronic Code Book (ECB) Mode



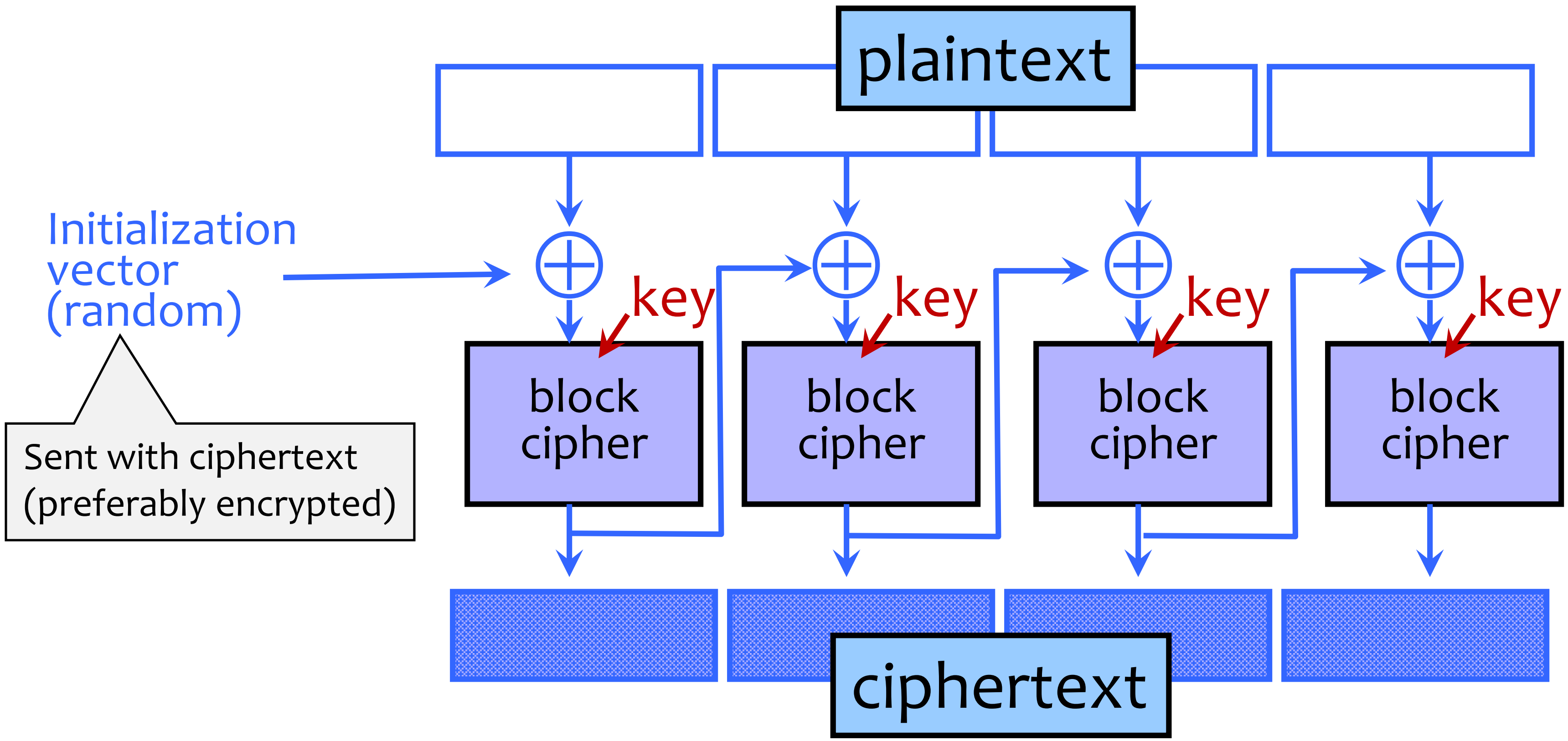
- Identical blocks of plaintext produce identical blocks of ciphertext
- No integrity checks: can mix and match blocks

Information Leakage in ECB Mode



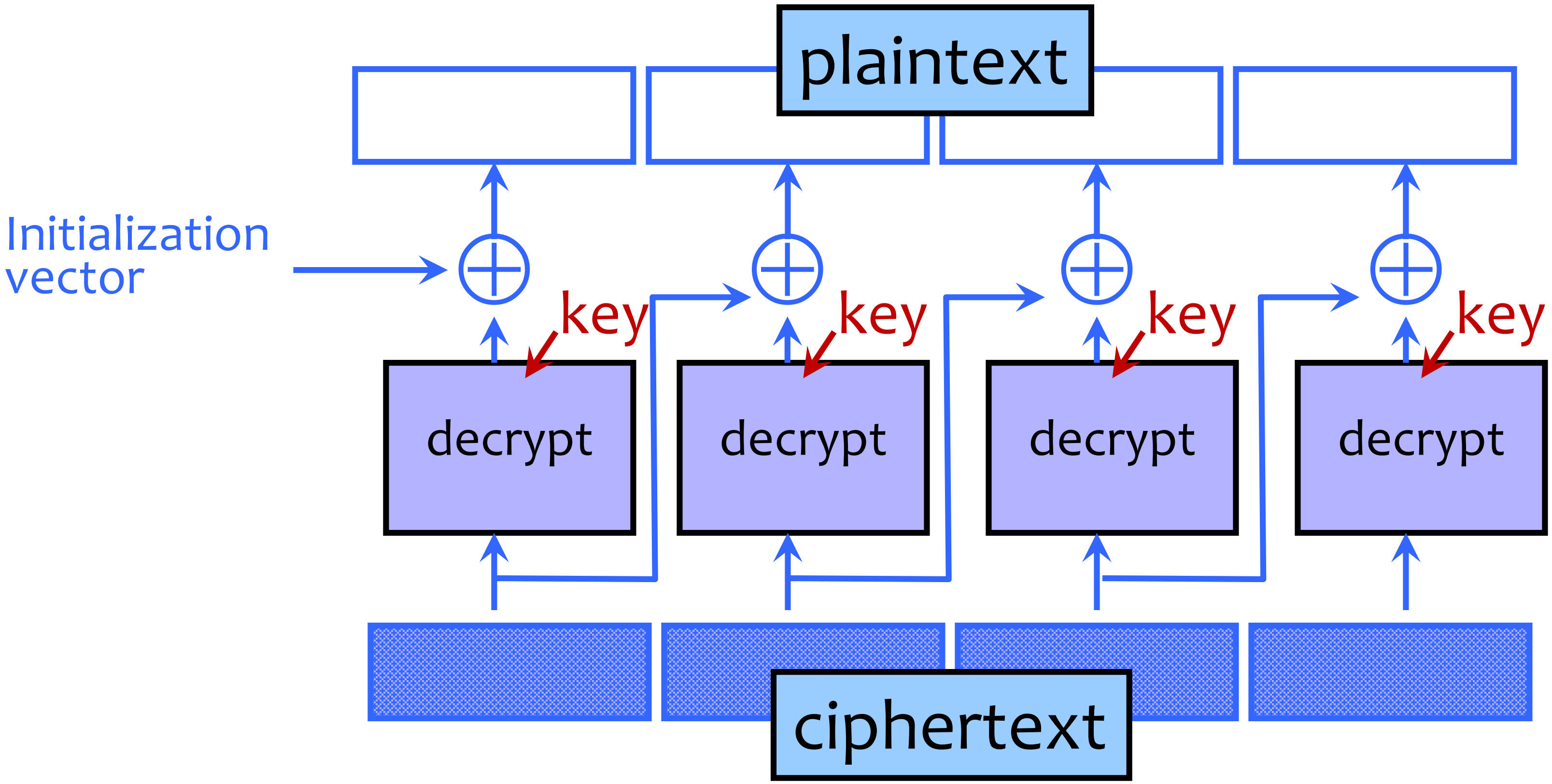
[Wikipedia]

Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode: Encryption

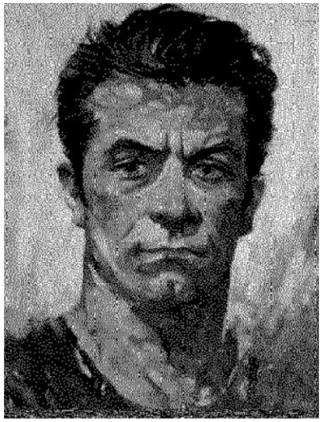


- Identical blocks of plaintext encrypted differently
- Last cipherblock depends on entire plaintext
  - Still does not guarantee integrity

CBC Mode: Decryption

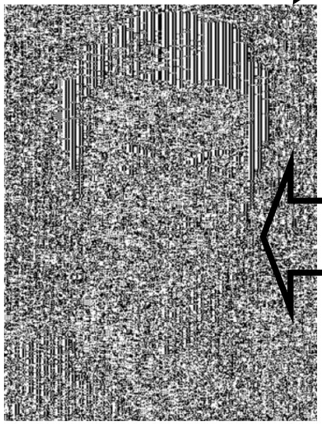


ECB vs. CBC

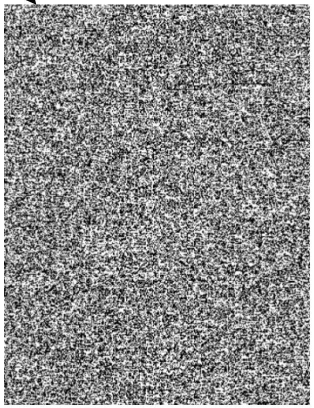


AES in ECB mode

AES in CBC mode

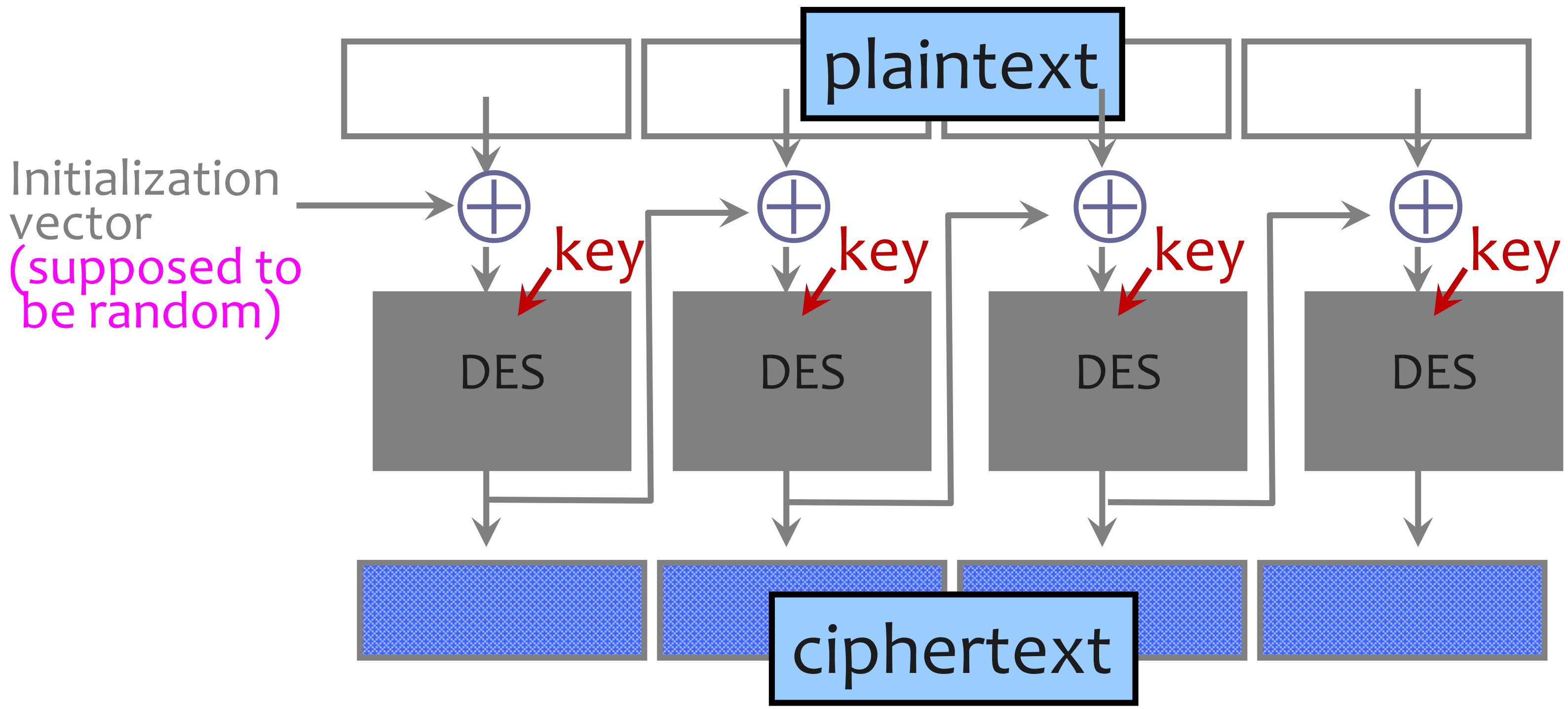


Similar plaintext
blocks produce
similar ciphertext
blocks (not good!)



[Picture due to Bart Preneel]

CBC and Electronic Voting



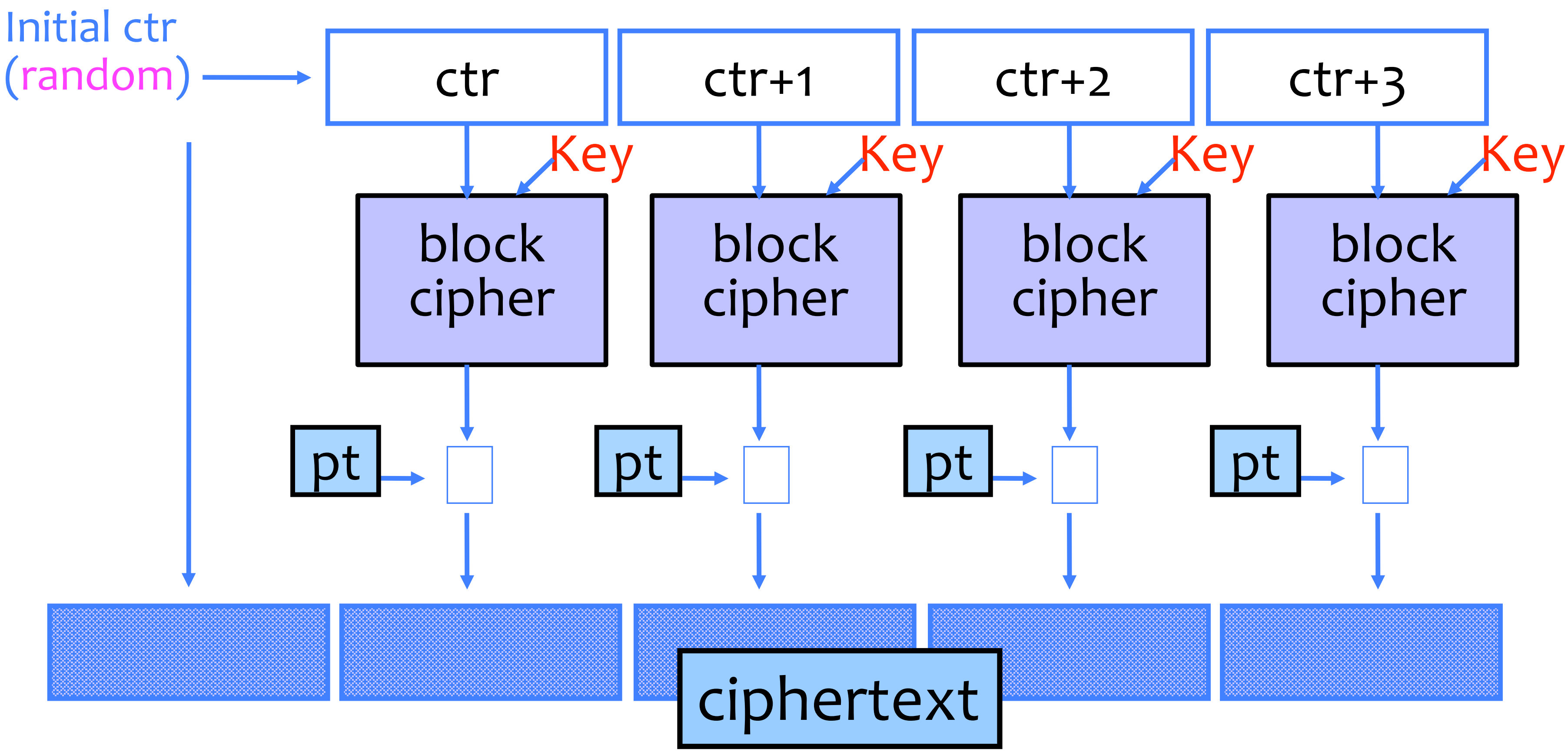
Found in the source code for Diebold voting machines:

```
DesCBCEncrypt((des_c_block*)tmp, (des_c_block*)record.m_Data,
        totalSize, DESKEY, NULL, DES_ENCRYPT)
```

Number Used Once (nonce)

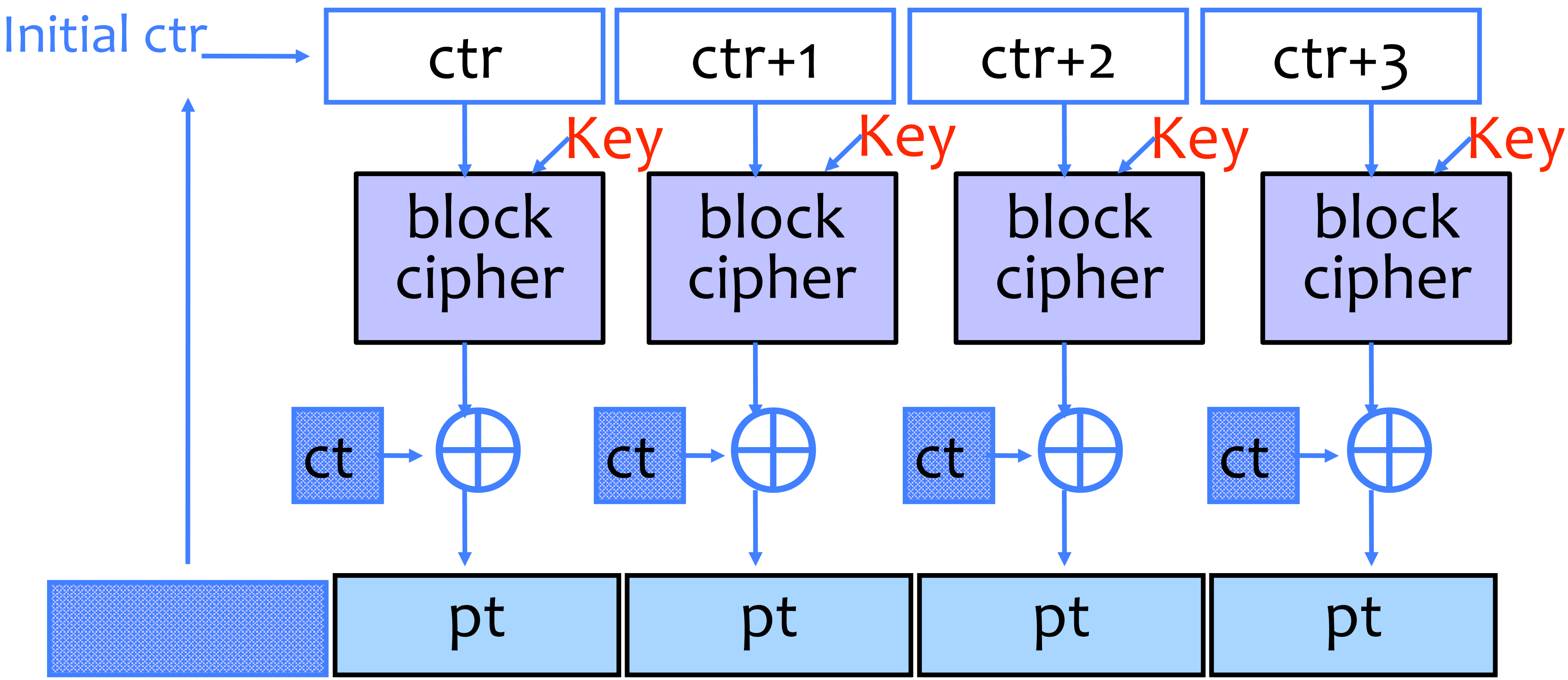
- Assign a number to a message. Typically starts at zero, for example (Note: never allow wrap-around).
- Construct a nonce using the message number. E.g., if sending data in two directions, add a direction indicator. Property is that with a specific key, nonce used only once. Nonce size = block size.
- Encrypt nonce with block cipher = IV
- Encrypt message using IV
- Add enough information inside ciphertext so that receiver can re-compute nonce, and therefore IV

Counter Mode (CTR): Encryption



- Identical blocks of plaintext encrypted differently
- Still does not guarantee integrity; Fragile if ctr repeats

Counter Mode (CTR): Decryption



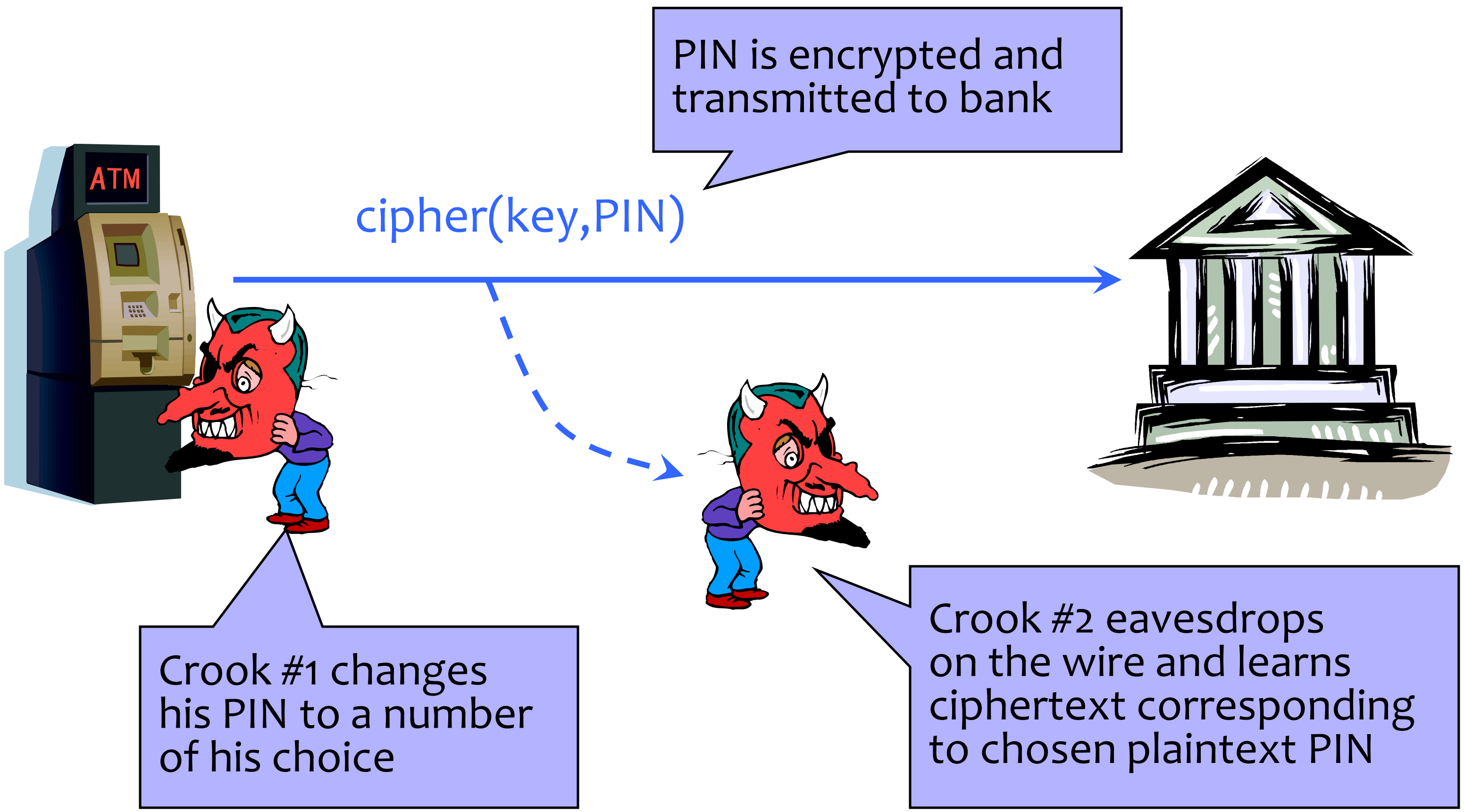
When is an Encryption Scheme "Secure"?

- Hard to recover the key?
  - What if attacker can learn plaintext without learning the key?
- Hard to recover plaintext from ciphertext?
  - What if attacker learns some bits or some function of bits?

How Can a Cipher Be Attacked?

- Attackers knows ciphertext and encryption algthm
  - What else does the attacker know? Depends on the application in which the cipher is used!
- Ciphertext-only attack
- KPA: Known-plaintext attack (stronger)
  - Knows some plaintext-ciphertext pairs
- CPA: Chosen-plaintext attack (even stronger)
  - Can obtain ciphertext for any plaintext of his choice
- CCA: Chosen-ciphertext attack (very strong)
  - Can decrypt any ciphertext <u>except</u> the target

Chosen Plaintext Attack



… repeat for any PIN value

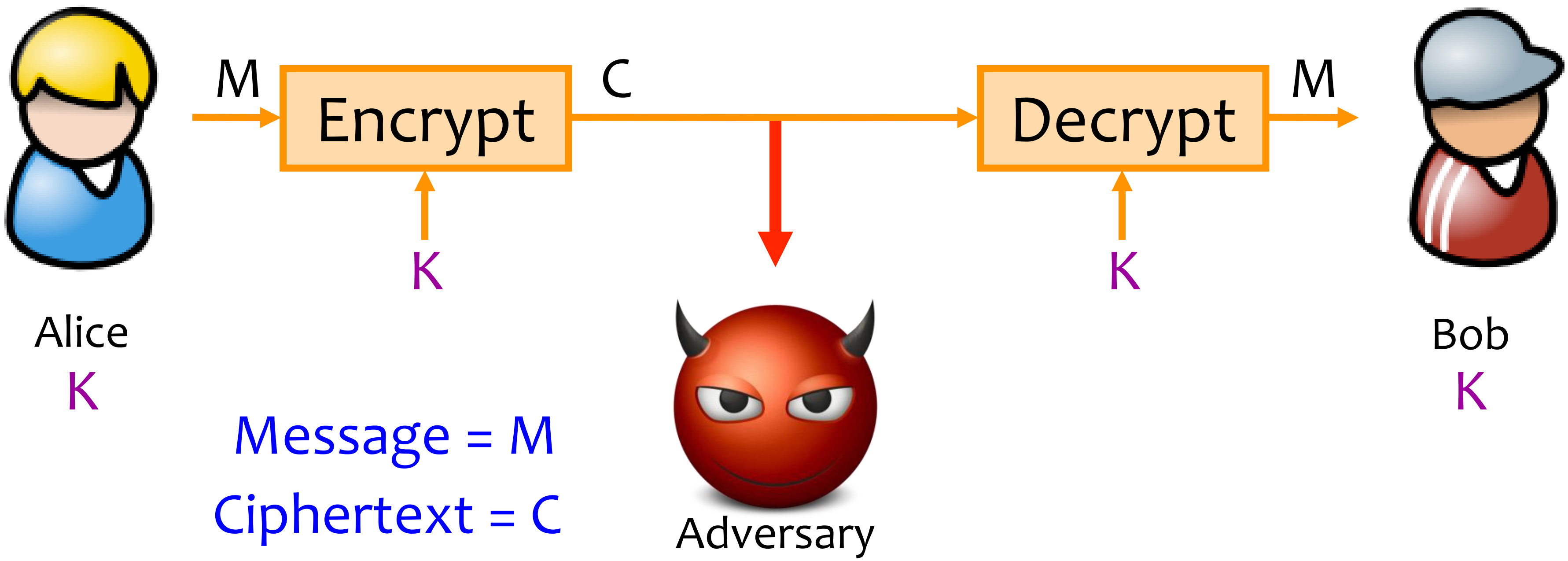
Very Informal Intuition

Minimum security requirement for a modern encryption scheme

- Security against chosen-plaintext attack (CPA)
  - Ciphertext leaks no information about the plaintext
  - Even if the attacker correctly guesses the plaintext, he cannot verify his guess
  - Every ciphertext is unique, encrypting same message twice produces completely different ciphertexts
    - Implication: encryption must be randomized or stateful
- Security against chosen-ciphertext attack (CCA)
  - Integrity protection – it is not possible to change the plaintext by modifying the ciphertext

So Far: Achieving Privacy

Encryption schemes: A tool for protecting privacy.

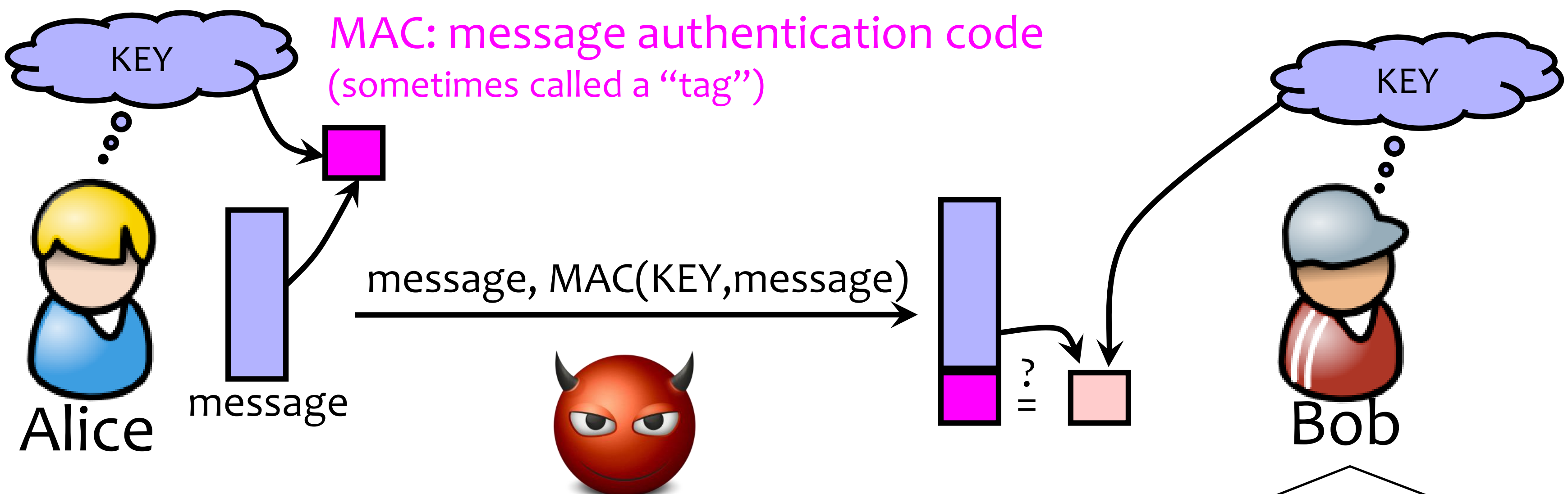


Message = M

Ciphertext = C

Now: Achieving Integrity

Message authentication schemes: A tool for protecting integrity.



Recomputes MAC and verifies whether it is equal to the MAC attached to the message

Integrity and authentication: only someone who knows KEY can compute correct MAC for a given message.