

# Introduction to Modern Cryptography

## Summary

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# 1 Symmetric encryption

**Kerkhoffs Principle:** The security of a system should only depend on whether the actual key is secret, not on the system itself. The whole system is assumed to be public. No “Security by obscurity”.

## 1.1 Scenario 1

**One message with constant length**

### 1.1.1 Cryptosystems

A cryptosystem is a tuple  $\mathcal{S} = (X, K, Y, e, d)$  with

- $X$ : set of plaintexts
- $K$ : finite set of keys
- $Y$ : set of ciphertexts
- $e$ : encryption function
- $d$ : decryption function

Perfect correctness:  $d(e(x, k), k) \forall x \in X, k \in K$

No unnecessary ciphertexts:  $Y = \{e(x, k) | x \in X, k \in K\}$

### 1.1.2 Vernam system

The Vernam cryptosystem of length  $l$  is defined as  $(\{0, 1\}^l, \{0, 1\}^l, \{0, 1\}^l, e, d)$  where

$e(x, k) = x \oplus k$  and  $d(y, k) = y \oplus k$ .

A vernam system of length  $l > 0$  provides perfect secrecy for every uniform  $P_K$ . It is the perfect system for Scenario 1.

### 1.1.3 Perfect Secrecy

A cryptosystem with key distribution  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{S}[P_k]$  provides perfect secrecy if for all plaintext distributions  $P_X$ , the probability of every plaintext remains the same, i.e.:

$$P(x) = P(x|y) \quad \forall x \in X, y \in Y, P(y) > 0$$

**Example Proof:**

We need to show the criteria above for all plaintext distributions  $P_X$ . Therefore we use variable probabilities for the plaintexts  $P_X(a) = p, P_X(b) = 1 - p$  (for 2 plaintexts, else  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ ).

		$X$		
		a	b	
$\frac{1}{2}$	$k_0$	$A$	$B$	$P(a A) = \frac{P(a, A)}{P(A)} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} * p}{\frac{1}{2} * p + \frac{1}{2} * (1 - p)} = p = P(a)$ $P(a B) = \frac{P(a, B)}{P(B)} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} * p}{\frac{1}{2} * p + \frac{1}{2} * (1 - p)} = p = P(a)$
	$k_1$	$B$	$A$	$P(b A) = \frac{P(b, A)}{P(A)} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} * (1 - p)}{\frac{1}{2} * (1 - p) + \frac{1}{2} * p} = 1 - p = P(b)$ $P(b B) = \frac{P(b, B)}{P(B)} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} * (1 - p)}{\frac{1}{2} * (1 - p) + \frac{1}{2} * p} = 1 - p = P(b)$

**Theorem:**

Let  $\mathcal{S} = (X, K, Y, e, d)$  be a cryptosystem providing perfect secrecy, then it holds  $|K| \geq |Y| \geq |X|$ .

**Shannons Theorem:**

Let  $\mathcal{V} = \mathcal{S}[P_k]$  be a cryptosystem with key distribution  $P_K$  and  $|K| = |Y| = |X|$ . The system provides perfect secrecy if and only if

1.  $P_K$  is a uniform distribution
2.  $\forall x \in X, y \in Y \exists k \in K$  with  $e(x, k) = y$  (There must be a key for every plaintext/ciphertext pair)

## 1.2 Scenario 2

**Multiple messages with constant length, no repetition**

### 1.2.1 Vernam in Scenario 2

Vernam is not a secure cryptosystem anymore, since from 2 ciphertexts, Eve can learn non-trivial information about the plaintexts:

$$y_0 \oplus y_1 = x_0 \oplus k \oplus x_1 \oplus k = x_0 \oplus x_1$$

Also with 1 plaintext-ciphertext pair (CPA), the key can be calculated as  $k = x \oplus y$ .

### 1.2.2 Substitution Cryptosystem

Let  $X$  be a non-empty finite set. A substitution cryptosystem over  $X$  is a tuple  $(X, P_X, X, e, d)$  where  $P_X$  is the set of all permutations of  $X$ .

$$e(x, \pi) = \pi(x) \quad d(y, \pi) = \pi^{-1}(y) \quad \forall x, y \in X, \pi \in P_X$$

Substitution cryptosystems provide “perfect security” in scenario 2, BUT they are impractical because the substitution table ( $\pi$ ) has a size of  $2^l * l$ .

Therefore, we need a weaker security definition that takes into account, that attackers are resource bound.

### 1.2.3 l-Block Cipher

Let  $l : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be a polynomial. An  $l$ -block cipher  $B$  is a cryptosystem of the form

$$\left( \{0, 1\}_{\eta \in \mathbb{N}}^{l(\eta)}, \text{Gen}(1^\eta), \{0, 1\}_{\eta \in \mathbb{N}}^{l(\eta)}, E, D \right) \text{ or simplified: } \left( \{0, 1\}^l, \text{Gen}(1^\eta), \{0, 1\}^l, E, D \right)$$

### 1.2.4 Substitution-Permutation Cryptosystem (SPCS)

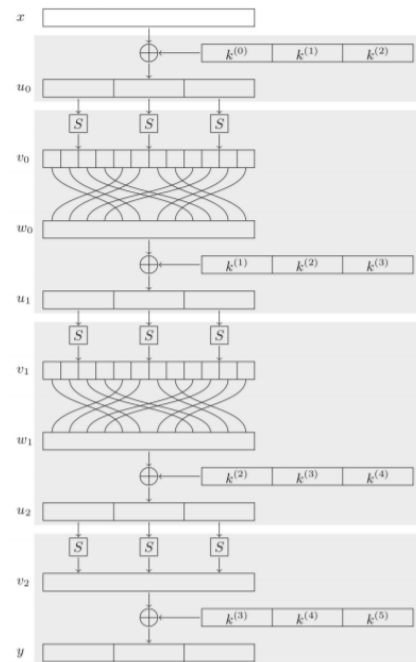
**Notation:**

- plaintexts are split into  $m$  words with length  $n$  with  $l = m * n$ ,  $x^{(i)}$  denotes the  $i$ 'th word
- $[r] = \{0, 1, \dots, r - 1\}$
- $\beta \in \mathcal{P}[l]$ , then  $x^\beta(i) = x(\beta(i))$

**General Principle:** Over  $r$  rounds, (round) key additions, word substitutions and bit permutations are applied, including an initial step that just applies key addition and shortened last round without bit permutation.

$$E(x : \{0, 1\}^{mn}, k : \{0, 1\}^s) : \{0, 1\}^{mn}$$

1. *initial white step (round key addition)*  
 $u = x \oplus K(k, 0)$
2.  $r - 1$  *regular rounds*  
 for  $i = 1$  to  $r - 1$  do
  - a. *word substitutions*  
 for  $j = 0$  to  $m - 1$  do  
 $v^{(j)} = S(u^{(j)})$
  - b. *bit permutation*  
 $w = v^\beta$
  - c. *round key addition*  
 $u = w \oplus K(k, i)$
3. *shortened last round (without bit permutation)*  
 for  $j = 0$  to  $m - 1$  do  
 $v^{(j)} = S(u^{(j)})$   
 $y = v \oplus K(k, r)$ ; return  $y$



**Known Attacks:**

- Brute Force Attack
- Linear Cryptanalysis
- Differential Cryptanalysis

**Linear Cryptanalysis:**

- Relies on a set  $T$  of plaintext-ciphertext pairs
- Instead of brute forcing the whole key, get small parts of the key at a time

- TODO

**AES (Advanced encryption standard):** basically SPCS with modifications

### 1.2.5 Algorithmic Security of Block Ciphers

We consider a block cipher secure if it is almost as good as a substitution cryptosystem w.r.t. resource-bound adversaries. Therefore an adversary  $U$  has to be able to distinguish BCS and SCS. Formally, we use the BCS for  $b = 1$  (real world) and the SCS for  $b = 0$  (random world) in the security game.

The winning probability is  $Pr[\mathbb{E}(1^n) = 1]$ . Since a random guesser already has a probability of 0.5, the advantage is introduced to normalize.

$\mathbb{S}(1^n) : \{0, 1\}$

1. *Choose real world or random world.*  
 $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$   
 if  $b = 1$  then  
 $k \xleftarrow{\$} \text{Gen}(1^n)$  and  $F = E(\cdot, k)$   
 else  
 $F \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{P}_{\{0,1\}^{l(\eta)}}$
2. *Guess phase.*  
 $b' \xleftarrow{\$} U(1^n, F)$
3. *Output.*  
 return  $b'$ .

$$\begin{aligned} Adv_{U,B}(\eta) &= 2 * \left( Pr[\mathbb{E}_U^B(1^n) = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \right) \in [-1, 1] & suc_{U,B}(\eta) &= Pr[\mathbb{S}_U^B \langle b = 1 \rangle(1^n) = 1] \\ Adv_{U,B}(\eta) &= suc_{U,B}(\eta) - fail_{U,B}(\eta) & fail_{U,B}(\eta) &= Pr[\mathbb{S}_U^B \langle b = 0 \rangle(1^n) = 1] \end{aligned}$$

### 1.2.6 PRP/PRF Switching Lemma

Since substitution cryptosystems cannot be distinguished from (secure)  $l$ -Block cryptosystems, we can see  $l$ -Block cryptosystems as pseudo-random permutations (PRP). Anyway, for proving purposes, it can be easier to see them as pseudo-random functions. The PRP/PRF Switching Lemma says, that we can use them interchangeably, since the difference of advantages is negligible:

Let  $B$  be an  $l$ -block cipher and  $U$  be an  $l$ -distinguisher with runtime bound  $q(\eta)$  where  $q$  is a positive polynomial and  $\eta \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then the following holds true:

$$|Adv_{U,B}^{PRP}(\eta) - Adv_{U,B}^{PRF}(\eta)| \leq \frac{q(\eta)^2}{2^{l(\eta)+1}}$$

## 1.3 Scenario 3

**Arbitrary messages with any length (possibly with repetition)**

### 1.3.1 Symmetric Encryption Scheme

A symmetric encryption scheme is a tuple  $S = (Gen(\eta), E, D)$  with

- security parameter  $\eta$
- ppt key generation algorithm  $Gen(1^n)$
- ppt encryption algorithm  $E(x : \{0, 1\}^*, k : K) : \{0, 1\}^*$
- dpt decryption algorithm  $D(y : \{0, 1\}^*, k : K) : \{0, 1\}^*$

- and  $D(E(x, k), k) = x$

$E$  cannot be deterministic, because else we wouldn't be able to send the same message multiple times, i.e. the same plaintext encrypted under the same key should result in a different ciphertext (with a high probability).

### 1.3.2 Encryption Schemes from Stream Ciphers

**Idea:** Vernam is safe if we use every key just once. So using the key as seed of a random number generator, that generates a stream of random numbers, enables the usage of the vernam system for arbitrarily long messages.

#### 1.3.2.1 Number generator

A number generator (NG) is a dpt algorithm of the Form  $G : (s : \{0, 1\}^\eta) : \{0, 1\}^{p(\eta)}$  where  $p$  is the expansion factor.

#### 1.3.2.2 PRNG-Distinguisher

TODO

### 1.3.3 Encryption Schemes from Block Ciphers

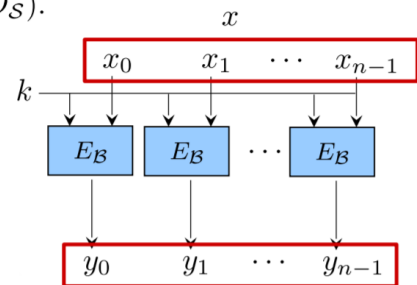
#### 1.3.3.1 ECB Mode

**Idea:** Split the message in blocks of constant length and encrypt each block under the given key using the underlying block cipher.

$$\mathcal{S} = \text{ECB-}\mathcal{B} = (\text{Gen}_{\mathcal{B}}(1^\eta), E_{\mathcal{S}}, D_{\mathcal{S}}).$$

$E_{\mathcal{S}}(x : \{0, 1\}^{l(\eta)+}, k : K_{\mathcal{B}}) : \{0, 1\}^*$ :

1. Split  $x$  into several blocks of length  $l(\eta)$ :  
 $x =: x_0 || \dots || x_{n-1}, n \in \mathbb{N}, x_i \in \{0, 1\}^{l(\eta)}$
2.  $y_i = E_{\mathcal{B}}(x_i, k) \quad \forall i \in \{0, \dots, n-1\}$
3. **return**  $y := y_0 || \dots || y_{n-1}$

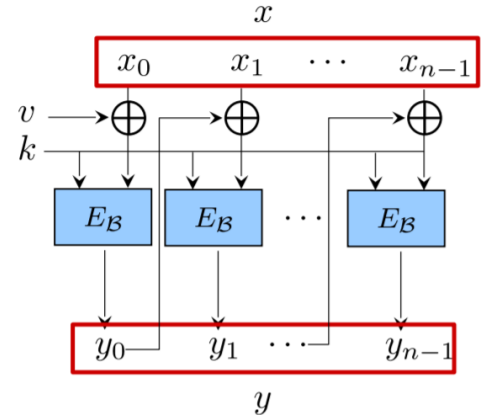


**Security:** It's not secure, since the ciphertext carries non-trivial information about the plaintext: for  $y = y_0 || y_1$ , then  $y_0 = y_1$  if  $x_0 = x_1$ .

#### 1.3.3.2 CBC Mode

**Idea:** Add an initialization vector  $v$  that is **xor**'ed with the plaintext before encrypting. That  $v$  is part of the key.

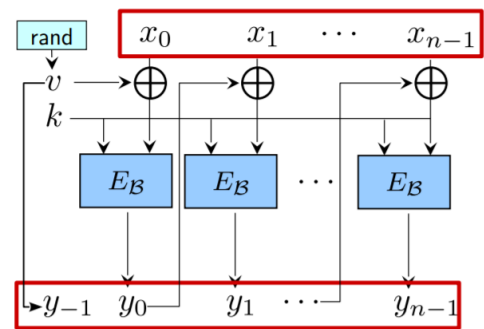
**Problem:** Still deterministic, so every plaintext can be sent just once.



### 1.3.3.3 R-CBC Mode

**Idea:** To solve the issues of CBC-Mode, R-CBC moves the initialization vector  $v$  out of the key and generates a random one while decryption. The vector is appended as first block of the ciphertext to enable decryption.

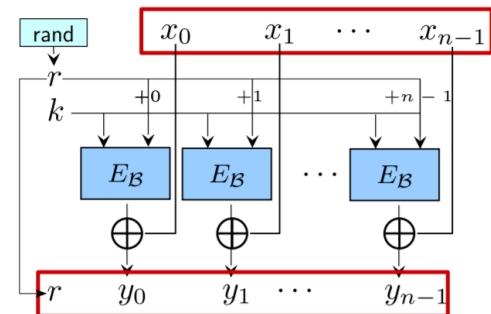
**Security:** Its secure if the underlying block cipher is secure.



### 1.3.3.4 R-CTR Mode

**Idea:** Alternative to R-CBC. Generate a random number  $r$  (comparable to  $v$  of R-CBC), encrypt this random number under the key and xor it with the plaintext. The counter is increased by 1 for each block. The counter  $r$  is appended as first block of  $y$  to enable decryption.

**Security:** Its secure if the underlying block cipher is secure.



## 1.3.4 CPA-Security

**CPA:** Chosen-Plaintext-Attack

**Game:** Adversary  $A$  consists of finder  $AF$  and guesser  $AG$ . The finder chooses 2 plaintexts  $z_0, z_1$ . One of them is encrypted. The guesser has to determine which of them is the corresponding plaintext.

Advantage, success and failure are defined as for block ciphers.

$\mathbb{E}(1^\eta) : \{0, 1\}$

1. *Choose cipher.*

$k \xleftarrow{\$} \text{Gen}(1^\eta); H = E(\cdot, k)$

2. *Find phase.*

$(z_0, z_1) \xleftarrow{\$} AF(1^\eta, H)$

3. *Selection.*

$b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}; y \xleftarrow{\$} H(z_b)$

4. *Guess phase.*

$b' \xleftarrow{\$} AG(1^\eta, H, y)$

5. *Evaluation.*

if  $b' = b$ , return 1, otherwise 0.

### 1.3.5 CCA-Security

**CCA:** Chosen-Ciphertext-Attack

**Game:** In addition to the encryption oracle  $H$  from the CPA-game, the adversary also gets a decryption oracle  $H^{-1}$ .

Advantage, success and failure are defined as for block ciphers.

$\mathbb{E}(1^\eta) : \{0, 1\}$

1. *Choose cipher.*

$k \xleftarrow{\$} \text{Gen}(1^\eta); H = E(\cdot, k)$

2. *Find phase.*

$(z_0, z_1) \xleftarrow{\$} AF(1^\eta, H)$

3. *Selection.*

$b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}; y \xleftarrow{\$} H(z_b)$

4. *Guess phase.*

$b' \xleftarrow{\$} AG(1^\eta, H, y)$

5. *Evaluation.*

if  $b' = b$ , return 1, otherwise 0.