Institutionen för systemteknik
Department of Electrical Engineering

Examensarbete

Replacement of the DVB-CSA

Subtitle goes here!

Examensarbete utfört i Subject goes here
vid Tekniska högskolan vid Linköpings universitet
av

Gustaf Bengtz

LiTH-ISY-EX--YY/NNNN--SE

Linköping 2014

Linköpings universitet
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Genomgång av nya och alternativa krypterings- och scramblingssystem för digital-teve samt implementering av ny scrambling-algoritm (DVB-CSA3)

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Replacement of the DVB-CSA

Författare
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Sammanfattning
Abstract

This report adresses why an implementation of CSA3 is needed as a replacement to the currently used scrambling standard CSA for cryptography for IPTV data streams.

It adresses the strengths and weaknesses of using CSA, as well as the need for encryption and scrambling of data in the DVB world.

Nyckelord
Keywords

problem, solving, DVB, scrambling, CISSA, cipher, CSA, CSA3

Abstract

Här skriver jag texten som ska in i engelska abstracten. För närvarande:

Nothing to say mon.

Notation

Abbreviations

Abbrevation	Meaning
AES	Advanced Encryption Standard
CAM	Conditional Access Module
CAS	Conditional Access System
CBC mode	Cipher block chaining mode
Ciphertext	Encrypted plaintext
CISSA	Common IPTV Software-oriented Scrambling Algorithm
CPU	Central Processing Unig
CSA	Common Scrambling Algorithm
CTR mode	Counter mode
CW	Control Word
DVB	Digital Video Broadcasting
ECM	Entitlement Control Message
EMM	Entitlement Management Messages
ES	Elementary stream
ETSI	European Telecommunications Standards Institute
IPTV	Internet Protocol Television
IV	Initialization vector
LFSR	Linear Feedback Shift-Register
LSB	Least Significant Bit
MSB	Most Significant Bit
Nibble	Half a byte (4 bits)
Nonce	A value that is only used once
P-Box	Permutation-Box
PES	Packetized Elementary Stream
Plaintext	Data
PS	Program Stream
S-Box	Substitution-Box
STB	Set-top Box
TS	Transport Stream
XRC	eXtended emulation Resistant Cipher

Contents

1 Encryption of the DVB

There are many parts that are needed to provide DVB with a secure way of transmitting streams without facing the risk of content getting stolen. The most important parts are:

- Scrambler - explained in chapter 2
- CAS - explained in section 1.1
- Common Interface - explained in section 1.3
- Descrambler - the inverse of a scrambler.

1.1 CAS

Conditional Access is used to make sure that a user fulfills an amount of criteria before being able to view content. To make sure that a user that demands data does, the CW used to scramble the data is encrypted by a CAS, and only users that are allowed to view said material are allowed to. A CAS consists of an EMM-generator and an ECM-generator in addition to some other parts. We are only interrested in the ECMG and EMMG since they are the parts that affect the scrambler. The ECM is generated using the CW, while the EMM is generated based on information related to the user. That information varies, but might relate to what channels the user is allowed to access and when the subscription ends. A TV will not broadcast any channels without receiving an EMM telling it to do so.

Source: You need to fin more sources tha just Patrik

A simple example is that a user needs to pay for tv-services to be able to watch certain channels. The content provider generates an EMM that tells the smart-card if the user has paid for the material it requests. The content provider also generates an ECM based on the CW, which the smart-card decrypts and passes to the descrambler if the EMM allows it.

Repetition; Is this merely a repetition?

CA-modules. What are they, how and where are they connected to the system? I think that the CAM is where you input the smart-card.

1.1.1 Standards

The three most common CAS in Sweden are Viaccess, Conax and Strong. You need to buy a specific CAM depending on what distributor you choose for your channels. This

Viaccess

Viaccess is the CA-module used by Boxer. This is currently the most commonly used distributor in Sweden.

Conax

Conax is the CA-module used by Com Hem. This is currently the second most used distributor in Sweden. Conax has got its headquarter in Norway and is a part of the Telenor Group, which deals with mobile telecommunications [Conax, 2014].

Strong

Strong is the CA-module used by Canal Digital. This is currently the third most used distributor in Sweden.

1.2 DVB-SimulCrypt

DVB-SimulCrypt is widespread in Europe, and works as an interface between the head-end and the CAS [ETSI TS, 2008].

SimulCrypt encourages the use of several CAS at once [ETSI TS, 2008, p. 17]. But how does it do that? Why and how can we do that? Is that because the scrambling is the same, where the only thing differentiating the CAS is the encoding of the control word?

1.3 Common Interface

THE COMMON INTERFACE CAN'T READ, SO IT WON'T MIND IF I WRITE IN ALL-CAPS ;___; IT ALSO CAN'T UNDERSTAND EMOJIS, WHICH MEANS THAT I CAN INPUT AS MANY STUPID THINGS AS I WANT TO. stupid common interface..

1.4 Set-up

The TS is scrambled using a key which is called a *control word*. The control word is at least changed several times per minute, but it is not uncommon to change the CW every 10 seconds. This means that breaking the key has very little effect since it will just be changed in a few seconds even if you manage to break it. The control word is generated randomly to make sure that consecutive control words are not related to each other.

The control word is scrambled, then sent to the content provider. The content provider then encrypts the CW as an *entitlement control message* (ECM). The content provider also generates an *entitlement management message* (EMM) which tells the smart-card if the user is allowed access to the data. The ECM and EMM are then sent back to the scrambler where it is attached to the scrambled TS. This package is then sent to the user, where the ECM, EMM and TS are separated. The ECM and EMM are sent to the box containing the smart-card for processing, and the TS is sent directly to the descrambler where it waits for the CW. The TS is then descrambled using the CW and the pure data is then displayed to the user.

2 Scrambling

Security is not only about cryptography. But there is a main reason why cryptography is attacked , and that is because there is a very low chance of being detected. There will be no traces of the attack, since the attacker's access will look just like a legitimate /"good" access.

This can be compared to a real-life break-in. The break-in will be noticed if the thief breaks in using a crowbar. If the thief, on the other hand, would be to pick the lock, there is a possibility that you will never notice that your security has been breached [Schneier and Fergusson, 2003].

There are many rules concerning cryptography, as there are to all sciences. The one I found most noteworthy was that one is to always assume that someone is "out to get you". Because of this, Schneier and Fergusson [2003, pp. 12–14] say that we always need to look for possible ways to break systems, to make sure that we are safe.

2.1 Data packets

The data processed by the DVB systems is sent in data packets. All of them are created from ES packets (elementary streams) which generally is the output from an audio or video encoder. The ES packets are then packeted into PS, TS or PES packets and then distributed. There are three different ways of packing data, but only two of them are commonly used. The types are called TS, PS and PES. PS packets are used while data isbeing stored, while TS and PES are used when data is being transmitted. The ones interresting when working with DVB are therefore the TS packets as well as the PES packets.

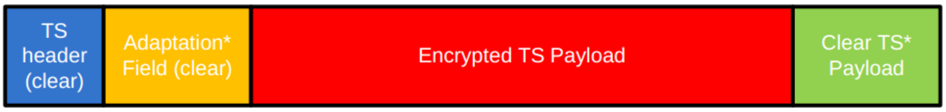

Figure 2.1: *General layout of a data packet [ETSI TS , 2013]*

2.1.1 TS packets

TS packets are the ones used by the DVB society, possibly due to their fixed lenghts. TS packets have got a length of 188 bytes with a 4 byte long header, meaning the payload consists of 184 bytes. The layout of a TS packet can be viewed in figure 2.1.

The building blocks that the TS packets consist of are:

- Header
- Adaptation field - might not exist
- Encrypted payload - might not exist
- Clear payload

The header consist of information regarding the packet. The header provides information as to whether there is an adaptation field in the packet, what id the packet has, the sync byte and two bits telling us whether the data is scrambled using an odd or even key, if it is scrambled. The header is never to be encrypted and is always found in the beginning of the packets.

The adaptation field is a padding that you input when the end of the data is not aligned with the end of the TS packet. This is done to make sure that the TS packet is filled. We only find adaptation fields we are working with the last string of data, if the data does not align. Adaptation fields are not encrypted.

We are prone to end up with clear bytes of data in the TS packets when we work with block ciphers, since block ciphers only encrypt fixed sizes of data. The clear data is always located at the end of the packets and can in a worst case scenario be up to one byte smaller than the block size, since that will be the largest amount of bytes that does not fill an entire block. The encrypted payload is always located in front of the clear payload [ETSI TS , 2013, pp. 10–11].

2.1.2 PES packets

The PES packets have varying lengths of up to 64 KBytes.

PES-packets can be of any size less than 64 Kbytes. They are often packed into TS packets when distributed, due to the strength of the TS packets. The payload data in the TS packets consists of the entire PES packets, which consists of the header and the data. PES packets do not use adaptation fields, since they can be of more or less any length, as long as the packet do not exceed 64 KBytes.

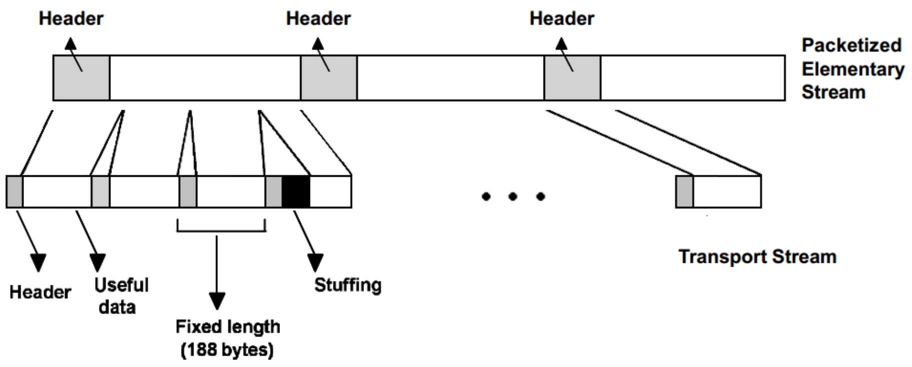

Figure 2.2: PES packet derived from TS packets (inspiration for the image taken from [ETSI, 1996, p. 9])

2.2 Scrambling or Encrypting?

The main difference between scrambling and encryption is that scrambling is the way we generate the secret control word (key) which is used when we make the data unreadable to outsiders. Encryption is the way we protect the control word, when we send it.

Todo: Det här måste jag b säkrare på

2.3 What is the need for cryptography?

If we communicate without encrypting the data we are sending, someone else will most likely be eavesdropping. For most people this isn't a problem, but in some instances sending secure messages can be extremely important. One example is communication during war, where a single piece of intelligence might turn the tide of the entire war. Another example is sending manuscripts, and drafts of books over the internet. These are some of the reasons as to why we want to encode messages.

Another reason for scrambling is to reduce the number of adjacent data-bits with the same value, as in long strings of zeros or ones.

Having long strings of the same value leads the capacitors to fully charge into that value, which in turn makes them switch slower when they need to change value.

Source: Find source, and a better description a to why this is!

2.4 Encryption and decryption

There are two things that you need when you decrypt messages. These things are the decryption algorithm and the decryption-key. There are mainly two ways of doing this. The first method is the symmetric-key encryption, and the second method is the public-key encryption.

2.4.1 Symmetric-key encryption

The symmetric-key encryption uses the same key to encode and decode messages. Distrubution of the key, when using the symmetric-key encryption is troublesome and the fact that both parties need access to the same secret key is a major drawback of the symmetric key encryption, as compared to the public-key encryption method. Sending the key in an email is a bad idea, since the persons who wants to read our messages most likely already will be listening, and they will therefore obtain the key as well as the means to decode the messages we send.

2.5 Public-key encryption

The public-key encryption uses a public key that anyone can look up, and a secret key that only one person knows [Simmons, 1992, pp. 25–32]. For instance say that the two persons, Bob and Alice, want to communicate. Bob produces a keypair P_{Bob} (Bob's public key) and S_{Bob} (Bob's secret key) and publishes P_{Bob} for anyone to see. When Alice wants to send Bob a message, she looks up Bob's public key P_{Bob}, which she then uses to encode her message. When she sends Bob the message, Bob decodes the message using his secret key S_{Bob} [Schneier and Fergusson, 2003].

2.5.1 Combinational encryption

The big question now is why we would use anything other than the public-key encryption, since it seems secure and easy to manage. The reason is that the public-key encryption is not as effective as the symmetric-key encryption. It is common to use a combination of those two since an easy and effective way to encrypt messages is what we desire. To do this we use a symmetric-key algorithm to encode the plaintext into ciphertext, and then we use the public-key encryption to encode the symmteric-key we used when encoding the plaintext. This encoded key is then sent together with the ciphertext to the recipient, who uses the secret key to decode the symmetric key, which is then used to decipher ciphertext and obtain the plaintext.

Decryption is often performed by reversing the encryption. You need to know the algorithm, preferably through a mathematical representation, to calculate how to obtain the plaintext from the ciphertext. A description of how this is done for the CBC-mode (described in 2.6.1) is described in A.1 in appendix A. We assume that we know the decryption algorithm here for simplicity.

Source: feels like a given, but still

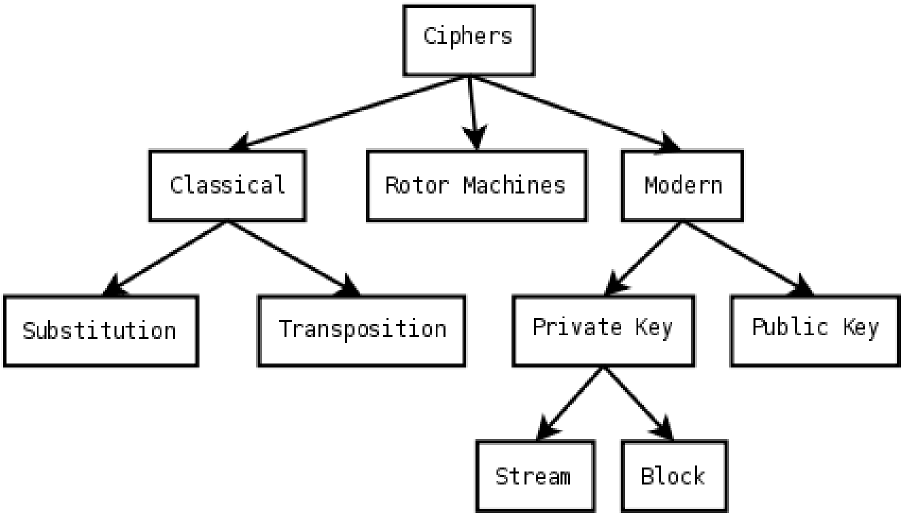

Figure 2.3: *Different kinds of ciphers [Wikipedia, 2014b]*

2.6 Ciphers

A cipher is the same as an algorithm, that operates on either plaintexts or ciphertexts to perform encryption or decryption. Figure 2.3 describes how they can be split into smaller groups.

There are mainly two kinds of ciphers that are used when designing modern cryptosystems. Those ciphers are called block ciphers and stream ciphers. Many systems use a combination of block ciphers and stream ciphers to provide security.

Source: At least the CS uses it. But yo need a source if yo want this to be here

2.6.1 Block cipher

A block cipher operates on blocks where each block consists of a fixed number of bytes. This might cause a need for padding the blocks, in case the plaintext contains a number of bytes that is not even with the blocksize. Block cipher often use itself of a combination of S-boxes and P-boxes in a so-called SP-network (Figure 2.4).

There are many modes of block ciphers, but the two recommended by Schneier and Fergusson [2003] are the CBC-mode and the CTR-mode.

CBC stands for *cipher block chaining* and is performed by first encrypting the result of an XOR between an IV and the plaintext. This is the ciphertext that corresponds to the first plaintext. This is then put into an XOR with the next plaintext, and then encrypted [Stinson, 2006, pp. 109–111]. For reference, see image A.5 in appendix A.

CTR stands for *counter*, and refers to the way the IV is generated. The counter outputs a value, which is encoded with the key. The output is then run in an XOR together with the plaintext, producing the ciphertext. The counter is then incremented and the procedure is iterated [Stinson, 2006, p. 111].

2.6.2 Stream cipher

Stream ciphers work on a stream of data (as implied by the name). They usually consist of some kind of a keystream generator which performs a modulo 2 addition with the data [Simmons, 1992, pp. 67]. An effective implementation of the stream cipher is to use a linear feedback shift-register which uses the current internal state (key) to produce the next state by a simple XOR-addition between two or more of the bits in the state. This is mainly used because of how easy it is to construct in hardware [Fischer, 2008].

2.7 Confusion and Diffusion

Two properties that are needed to ensure that a cipher provides security are confusion and diffusion [Shannon, 1949]. Note that a cipher is not secure just because these two properties are obtained.

Confusion refers to making the relationship between ciphertext and key as complex as possible. *Diffusion* refers to replacing and shuffling the data, to make it impossible to analyze data statistically. This is usually done by performing substitutions and permutations in a simple pattern multiple times. This can easily be done by using an SP-network (S-box / P-box network) [Stinson, 2006, pp. 74–79]. The very first, as well as last step, of SP-Networks is usually an XOR between the subkey and the data. This is called *whitening*, and is according to Stinson [2006, p. 75] regarded as a very effective way to prevent encryption/decryption without a known key. The goal of this is to make it hard to find the key, even though one has access to multiple plaintext/ciphertext pairs produced with the same key [Shannon, 1949].

2.7.1 S-boxes

The S-box is one of the basic components that is used when creating ciphers. An S-box takes a number of input bits and creates a number of output bits in a non-linear fashion [Stinson, 2006, pp. 74–75]. They can effectively be implemented as lookup tables. Each input has to correspond to a unique output, to make sure that the input can be recreated in the descrambler. One way of making it harder to find the relation between the input and the output is to place adjacent bits far from each other in the lookup table .

TODO: You need sources for this!

2.7.2 P-Boxes

The second basic component used in cryptography is the P-box. A P-box shuffles/rearranges the order of given bits. This can be viewed in the SP-network in figure 2.4, where the P-box is represented by the dotted rectangle in the middle.

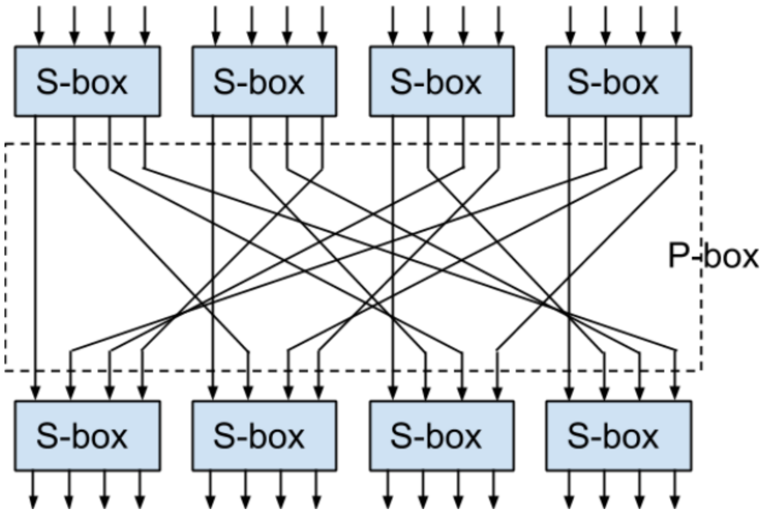

Figure 2.4: *SP-Network*

2.8 Secrecy

Although encryption is important, as well as the strength of the encryption, keeping the algorithm secret is never a good ideaq. A simple mistake when designing the algorithm might turn the encryption from very strong, to incredibly weak. It is therefore never a good idea to use algorithms exclusive for a few persons. If you use an open algorithm, faults will most likely be discovered and fixed by experienced cryptographers [Schneier and Fergusson, 2003, pp. 23].

3 CSA

The CSA is currently the most commonly used encryption algorithm in DVB for encryption of video-streams. There are two versions of the DVB-CSA, CSA1 and CSA2. The only difference between them being the key-length [DVB Scene, 2013, p. 23]. The CSA uses a combination of a block cipher taking an input of a 64-bit block, and a stream cipher. Both of the ciphers use the same key, so that the entire system uses the same key [Li and Gu, 2007, pp. 271–272]. This means that the complete algorithm would break if the key would be recovered. Using the same key does on the other hand allow us to change the key at regular intervals more easily.

CSA has been the official scrambling method for DVB since may 1994. CSA was to be implemented in hardware and hard to implement in software, for the sake of making reverse-engineering difficult [DVB Scene, 2013].

3.1 History

CSA was largely kept secret until 2002. It was made very hard to reverse engineer since it was largely implemented in hardware. The patent papers gave some hints of the layout, but important details like the layout of the S-boxes remained secret. Without the S-boxes, free implementations of the algorithm were out of question. Initially, CSA was to remain implemented in hardware only, but software implementations were found on the internet, which made it possible to analyze the entire solution.

In 2002 FreeDec was released, implementing CSA in software. Though released as binary only, disassembly revealed the missing details and allowed reimplementation of the algorithm in higher-level programming languages.

source: Is this relevant and you nee another source tha Wikipedia

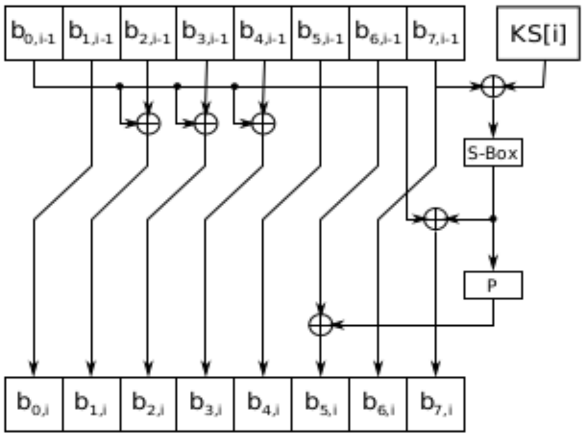

Figure 3.1: *Image from Tews et al. [2012, pp. 49]*

With CSA now publicly known in its entirety, cryptanalysts started looking for weaknesses.

3.2 Layout of the CSA

The CSA consists a block cipher and a stream cipher connected in sequence [Li and Gu, 2007, p. 271]. The block cipher reads 64-bit blocks of data, which is then run in Cipher Block Chaining-mode. The block cipher processes these blocks of data in 56 rounds. The output of this is sent to the stream cipher where additional encoding is performed. The first block of data sent from the block cipher to the stream cipher is used as an IV for the stream cipher, and is not encoded in this phase. [Weimann and Wirt, 2006]

3.3 Security

One of the problems associated with CW distribution is the fact that CW sharing has become rather common [Farncombe Consulting Group, 2009]. This is possibly due to the fact that the CW is sent in the clear between the smart card and the STB, meaning that a user might grab the clear CW during transmission and redistribute it over the internet. This has become a financial problem for content distributors, since people stop paying for the content which they are watching.

One way of dealing with CW sharing is to decode the encrypted CW on the CI system, and then encrypt it once again on the CI, before sending it to the STB. The latter key is setup between the CI system and the STB through a one time sychronization. This means that users are not able to grab the clear CW and redistribute it. [Schrijen, 2011, pp. 12–13]

Another security issue that you need to think of when designing the hardware, to prevent content theft, is to make sure that no contacts are ever accessible from the top layer of the circuit board. This is due to the fact that people would be able to connect hardware to the board and download the material that way, if they were.

Source: Except from Patri
Lantto

We also need to be aware of people trying to break the algorithm through forced ways as well as CW sharing and hardware methods of stealing content.

There are a few standard ways to try when you want to break a cipher. Those are the brute force approach, known-plaintext attacks, chosen plaintext attacks and birthday attacks [Schneier and Fergusson, 2003, pp. 31-34]. You choose what method to use depending on what the ciphers look like. I will not discuss all of them, but I will talk about the most relevant ones here.

3.3.1 Brute force

The CSA uses a key consisting of 64-bits, which gives us 18.5 Quintillion possible keys (Quintillion is 10^{18}). But byte 3 and 7 are often used as parity bytes in CA systems which leads to only 48 bits being used in the key [Tews et al., 2012]. This can be seen in figure 3.1. 48 bits on other hand leads to 2^{48} combinations, which corresponds to 281 trillion possible keys (Trillion is 10^{12}). Testing a million keys per second is about what is possible through on a modern x86 processor using software methods , which means it would take roughly 3258 days to force brake the keys. That is roughly 8.8 years.

Todo: How did I get thi
number?

Moreover, systems need to change the key at least every 120 seconds [Simpson et al., 2009] and most systems issues new keys every 10-120 second [Wirt, 2004].

It is possible to use dedicated hardware and FPGA implementations to speed this up, using hardware accelerations and other methods. But even if we would be able to scan through 2.8 trillion keys per second, precisely allowing us to be certain to find the key in two minutes, we could just change the key more often. As such, the brute force method of obtaining the key is not a feasible option.

3.4 Why do we need a new standard?

The DVB-CSA standard offers short-term protection (it assumed content is viewed in real time and not stored). But due to the development during recent years, we now need to be able to distribute the content around the home. This means that the focus needs to be moved from securing the delivery, to securing the content. [Farncombe Consulting Group, 2009]

There are currently two implementations suggested for doing this. The first is the hardware friendly CSA3 which uses itself of AES blocks (with keys of sized 128, 192 or 256 bits) as well as a confidential block cipher called the XRC. The second version is the software friendly CISSA which uses the AES-128 as a basic building block. [ETSI TS , 2013]

What are the pros and cons of having hardware scramblers and software scramblers. Software uses itself of the date to generate a random key. Hardware uses itself of additive scramblers, and other random output generators to generate the key.

4 CSA3 and CISSA

There are currently two scrambling algorithms being assessed with the purpose of replacing the currently used CSA1. This is done to assure content security for yet another ten years.

CSA3 is a hardware-friendly, software-unfriendly scrambling algorithm chosen by the ETSI to replace the currently used CSA. [ETSI TS , 2013, pp. 6–7]

CISSA is meant to be a software-friendly algorithm designed to allow descrambling on CPU-based units such as computers, smart phones and tablets. CISSA is not designed to be hardware-unfriendly in spite of it being designed to be software-friendly. [ETSI TS , 2013, p. 9]

Both of the algorithms are to be implemented in hardware for scrambling of data. The difference is that CSA3 is to make it hard to descramble the material in software. Since both of the algorithms are confidential, it is sadly impossible to find out what makes the CSA3 algorithm software-unfriendly, while the CISSA algorithm is software-friendly.

Source: Om jag får be snällt

4.1 CISSA

CISSA stands for *Common IPTV Software-oriented Scrambling Algorithm* and is designed to be software-friendly. Opposite to the CSA3, CISSA is made to be easily descrambled in software, so that CPU-based systems such as computers and smart-phones can also implement it. Although it is software-friendly, it is supposed to able to be implemented efficiently on hardware as well as in software [ETSI TS , 2013, p. 9].

CISSA is to use the AES-128 block cipher in CBC-mode with a 16 byte IV with

Find more: But I don't know the name of the second block cipher

the value 0x445642544d4350544145534349535341.

4.1.1 Software friendly

What makes this algorithm software friendly? Is it still possible to make use of it on an FPGA - since FPGAs are so general?

4.2 CSA3

CSA is to be succeeded by CSA3 which is based on a combination of a 128-bit AES block cipher, which is simply called the AES-128, and a confidential block cipher called the XRC [ETSI TS , 2013, p. 8].

4.2.1 XRC

XRC stands for eXtended emulation Resistant Cipher and is a confidential cipher used in DVB [ETSI TS , 2013, p. 8].

4.2.2 Hardware friendly

What makes the CSA3 so hardware friendly? Is it because it is meant to be a secret standard, only to be delivered on a chip, to make it as good as impossible to reverse-engineer?

4.3 Conclusion

From what I've seen, both the CISSA and CSA3 implement the AES-128 for scrambling , combined with a secret cipher. The secret cipher for CSA3 is the XRC cipher, and the secret CISSA cipher is yet to be known. CISSA sounds like a great idea in my opinion, allowing CPU-based units to descramble data streams without a dedicated HW-Chip. While that is good and all, CSA3 is a finished standard, and will probably be more easily implemented on an FPGA.

5 Advanced Encryption standard

The AES is based on an SP-network and is fast both in hardware as well as software. Rijndael, which is used in AES, has key-sizes of at least 128 bits, block lengths of 128 bits, 8 to 8 bit S-boxes and a minimum of 10 rounds of repetition [Stinson, 2006, p. 79]. It is a symmetric-key algorithm with a fixed block size of 128 bits, where the key-size can vary between 128, 192 or 256 bits. The number of cycles needed to convert the plaintext into ciphertext depends on the size of the key. For a 128-bit key 10 cycles of repetitions are needed. A 192-bit key needs 12 cycles and a 256-bit key needs 14 cycles [Stinson, 2006, p. 103].

5.1 Method

The AES consists of a number of steps that are repeated for each block to be encoded. The steps to be performed are, according to Stinson [2006]:

Set-up steps

1. KeyExpansion - Produce round keys.
2. InitialRound - Combine each byte of the state with a byte of round key.

Steps performed in rounds

1. SubBytes - Each byte is *substituted* using the Rijndael's S-box.
2. ShiftRows - The rows of the state matrix are *permutated*.
3. MixColums - The columns of the matrix are multiplicated with a matrix.
4. AddRoundKey - The state matrix is once again combined with round-keys.

In the final round we do everything except the MixColumns step

1. SubBytes
2. ShiftRows
3. AddRoundKey

The ciphertext is then defined as the state-matrix [Stinson, 2006, p. 103]. As mentioned in section 2.7 (Confusion and Diffusion), both confusion and diffusion are nescessary. They can be seen in the SubBytes and ShiftRows steps above. These steps also performs whitening, which strengthens the cipher. Whitening is, as mentioned in 2.7, performed through an XOR between the subkey and the data.

The KeySchedule is explained in section 5.2.

5.1.1 InitialRound

This is simply an initial AddRoundKey.

5.1.2 SubBytes

In the SubBytes step, each byte is sent to a Rijndael S-box (which is basically a lookup table) where they are substituted in a non-linear fashion. This gives us a substituted state matrix.

5.1.3 ShiftRows

The next step is called the ShiftRows step, which left-shift the rows n-1 steps where n is the index of the row. This means that the first row is left as it is, the second row is shifted one step, the third row is shifted two steps, and the fourth row is shifted three steps.

5.1.4 MixColumns

In the MixColumns step, the four bytes of each row are combined through a matrix multiplication. The MixColumns function takes four bytes as input and multiplies them with a fixed matrix (figure A.3 in appendix A). While this might seem simple, it really is not. The multiplication makes sure that each input byte affect all output bytes. [Internet, 2014]

The matrix is multiplicated from the left to the vector (4x4 * 4x1 = 4x1) which is a column from the state-matrix. Multiplication with 1 means that the value is left untouched. Multiplication by 2 means left shift, then XOR with 0x1B is the value is larger than 0xFF. Multiplication with 3 means left-shift (including XOR with 0x1B if the value exceeds 0xFF), then XOR with the initial value. Addition is replaced with XOR, due to the calculations taking place in GF(2^8) .

DOODOO: Add a reference to Galois fields

5.1.5 AddRoundKey

Each of the 16 bytes of the state is combined with a byte of the round key using bitwise xor. They are then combined to a state matrix (figure A.2 in appendix A) containing 4x4 bytes.

5.2 KeyExpansion

To generate round keys from the cipher key, we use the Rijndael's key schedule. This is done since AES requires a separate 128-bit round key for each round, plus one extra key for the initialization.

Todo: This includes mor steps than this

The schedule consists of a loop, and a key-schedule core.

INPUT A FLOWCHART OR SOMETHING HERE!

Todo: Explain the genera algorithm here You might input a flowchart if you wan to

5.2.1 Key-schedule core

The key-schedule core takes an input of 4 bytes (32 bits) which it then rotates 1 byte (8 bits) to the left. Let us say that our key is *AB CD EF 01*. This would give us the key *CD EF 01 AB* after the rotation. This operation is also called the RotWord-operation [Stinson, 2006, p. 107]. The next step is to apply Rijndael's S-box to each of these bytes, giving us 4 new bytes. The bytes AB CD EF 01 would give us 62 BD DF 7C when input in the Rijndael S-box (Figure Table A.1).

Each of these bytes are then XORed with a value from the Rcon function depending on what round you are currently at. You can read more about the Rcon function in section 5.2.3.

5.2.2 Rijndael's S-Box

Rijndael's S-box takes an input byte which it transforms according to a matrix (figure A.1 in appendix A). Where the most significant nibble is placed on the Y axis, and the least significant nibble is set on the X axis. Let us say we have an input of 0x31, then 0xC7 would be output from the Rijndael's S-box.

5.2.3 Rcon

The value input into the Rcon function depends on what round you are currently at. Which means that you would choose Rcon(1) the first round, Rcon(2) the second, and so on. The values in the Rcon array are calculated mathematically, and can then be accessed through a simple vector or such.

If the input value is 0 or 1, we just return that value, otherwise the following steps are performed [Wikipedia, 2014c]. This can also be replaced by an S-box where you input your byte, and get another back, since the input byte is just used as a counter that decides how many times you perform steps 2 through 6 .

TODO: You need more re liable sources tha WIKIPEDIA!

1. Set a variable c to 0x01.

2. If the input-value does not equal 1, set variable b to c & 0x80. Otherwise, go to 7.
3. Left shift c one step.
4. If b is equal to 0x80 proceed to 5, otherwise go to 6.
5. Store the result of a bitwise XOR between c and 0x1B in c.
6. The input value is decreased by one, and we go back to 2.
7. We set the output to c.

6 Result

Här är väl tanken att jag ska skriva lite om hur jag implementerat och bearbetat allt som har med CSA3 implementationen att göra.

6.1 Hardware

Såhär ser hårdvaran ut i en sjukt snygg bild jag ritat:

```
Inputs       ______        Outputs
     1  --|           |--  1
     2  --|           |--  2
     3  --|    HW     |--  3
     4  --|           |--  4
     5  --|           |--  5
             ______
```

6.2 Flow

Berätta om flödet på implementationen.

6.3 Special solutions

Berätta om hur det fungerar.

6.4 How much of the CSA3 standard has been implemented?

Berätta om vilka delar du realiserat.

Appendix

A Matrixes

A.1 Calculations on the CBC-mode

The ciphertext is obtained through the following equation where
C_0 is the IV and the XOR-operation is noted with $\oplus$.

C_i is the ciphertext
P_i is the plaintext
E_k is the encryption algorithm
D_k is the decryption algorithm

$$C_i = E_k(P_i \oplus C_{i-1}) \tag{A.4}$$

The inverse of the encryption algorithm E_k is the decryption algorithm D_k.

The inverse of the XOR-operation the XOR-operation.

This gives us:

$$D_k(C_i) = P_i \oplus C_{i-1} \tag{A.5}$$

which gives us

$$P_i = D_k(C_i) \oplus C_{i-1} \tag{A.6}$$

Nibble	00	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	0A	0B	0C	0D	0E	0F
00	63	7C	77	7B	F2	6B	6F	C5	30	01	67	2B	FE	D7	AB	76
10	CA	82	C9	7D	FA	59	47	F0	AD	D4	A2	AF	9C	A4	72	C0
20	B7	FD	93	26	36	3F	F7	CC	34	A5	E5	F1	71	D8	31	15
30	04	C7	23	C3	18	96	05	9A	07	12	80	E2	EB	27	B2	75
40	09	83	2C	1A	1B	6E	5A	A0	52	3B	D6	B3	29	E3	2F	84
50	53	D1	00	ED	20	FC	B1	5B	6A	CB	BE	39	4A	4C	58	CF
60	D0	EF	AA	FB	43	4D	33	85	45	F9	02	7F	50	3C	9F	A8
70	51	A3	40	8F	92	9D	38	F5	BC	B6	DA	21	10	FF	F3	D2
80	CD	0C	13	EC	5F	97	44	17	C4	A7	7E	3D	64	5D	19	73
90	60	81	4F	DC	22	2A	90	88	46	EE	B8	14	DE	5E	0B	DB
A0	E0	32	3A	0A	49	06	24	5C	C2	D3	AC	62	91	95	E4	79
B0	E7	C8	37	6D	8D	D5	4E	A9	6C	56	F4	EA	65	7A	AE	08
C0	BA	78	25	2E	1C	A6	B4	C6	E8	DD	74	1F	4B	BD	8B	8A
D0	70	3E	B5	66	48	03	F6	0E	61	35	57	B9	86	C1	1D	9E
E0	E1	F8	98	11	69	D9	8E	94	9B	1E	87	E9	CE	55	28	DF
F0	8C	A1	89	0D	BF	E6	42	68	41	99	2D	0F	B0	54	BB	16

(A.1)

Figure A.1: *Rijndael S-box*

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & a_{1,4} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & a_{2,4} \\ a_{3,1} & a_{3,2} & a_{3,3} & a_{3,4} \\ a_{4,1} & a_{4,2} & a_{4,3} & a_{4,4} \end{bmatrix} \tag{A.2}$$

Figure A.2: *State-Matrix*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,i} \\ a_{2,i} \\ a_{3,i} \\ a_{4,i} \end{bmatrix}, i = \{1, 2, 3, 4\} \tag{A.3}$$

Figure A.3: *"Rijndael MixColumns equation"*

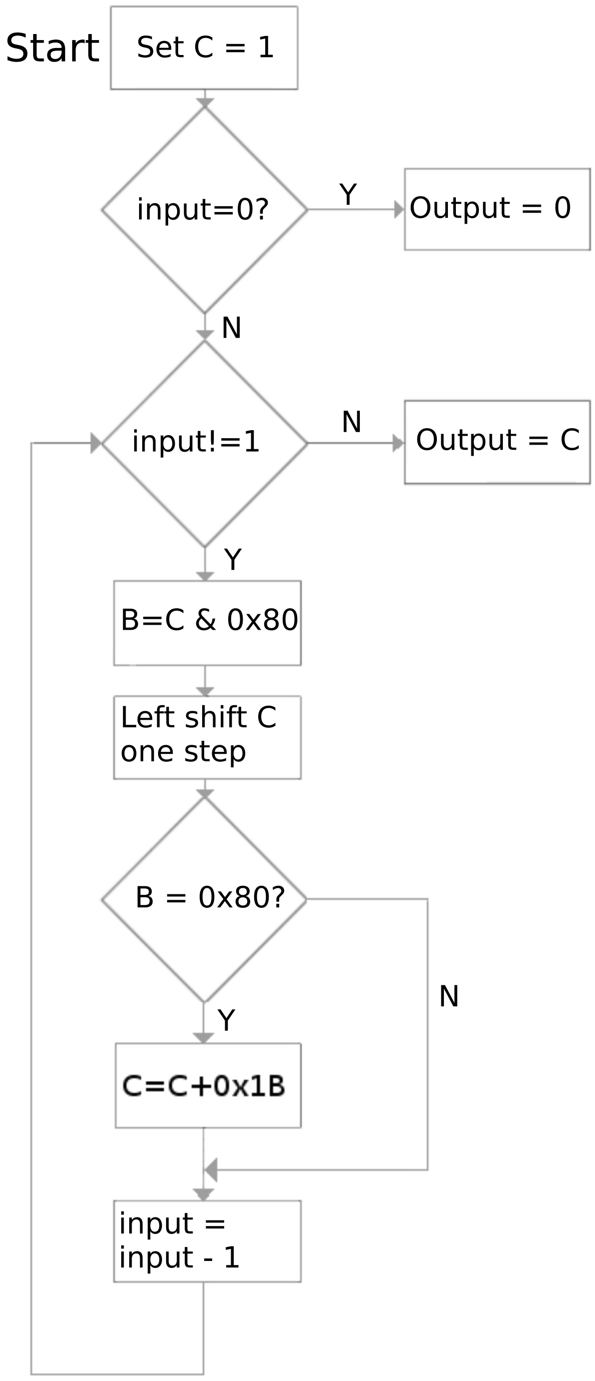

Figure A.4: *Flowchart of the Rcon function*

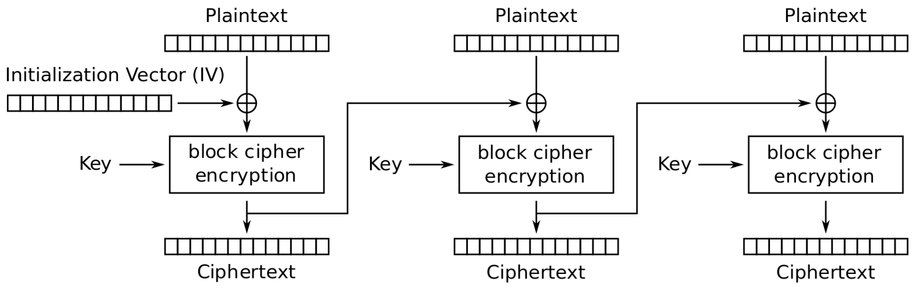

Figure A.5: *Cipher block chaining mode, [Wikipedia, 2014a]*

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