

Classical Ciphers

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Symmetric Ciphers

Def: A **Cipher** defined over a message space, key space and Ciphertext space is a pair of efficient algorithms (E,D), where,

$$E : \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathcal{C} \quad \text{and} \quad D : \mathcal{C} \times \mathcal{K} \rightarrow \mathcal{M},$$

Such that,

$$\forall m \in \mathcal{M} \text{ and } k \in \mathcal{K}, D(E(m, k)) = m$$

This is also called Shannon Cipher

E is often **randomised**, D is always deterministic

One Time Pad

$$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \{0,1\}^n \quad \mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^n$$

$$C = E(M, K) = M \oplus K, D(C, K) = C \oplus K$$

$$D = C \oplus K$$

Eg: M = 0111100101

K = 1100100100

C = 1011000001

One Time Pad

$$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \{0,1\}^n$$

$$\mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^n$$

Vernam 1917

$$C = E(M, K) = M \oplus K, \quad D(C, K) = C \oplus K$$

Eg: $M = 0111100101$

$$K = 1100100100$$

$$M \text{ XOR } K = C = 1011000001$$

Advantages =?

Simple, Fast,

Disadvantages=?

Key as large as message

Attack Models

- **Ciphertext-only attack:** The adversary possesses a string of ciphertext, y
- **Known plaintext attack:** The adversary possesses a string of plaintext, x , and the corresponding ciphertext, y
- **Chosen plaintext attack:** The opponent has obtained temporary access to the encryption machinery. Hence he can choose a plaintext string, x , and construct the corresponding ciphertext string, y .
- **Chosen ciphertext attack:** The adversary has obtained temporary access to the decryption machinery. Hence he can choose a ciphertext string, y , and construct the corresponding plaintext string, x .

What is a secure cipher?

Attacker's abilities: **CT only attack** (for now)

Possible security requirements:

attempt #1: **attacker cannot recover secret key**

attempt #2: **attacker cannot recover all of plaintext**

**Shannon's idea: CT should reveal no "info" about
plaintext**

Secure cipher is one for which an encrypted message remains "well hidden," even after seeing its encryption.

Information Theoretic Security (Shannon 1949)

- A cipher (E, D) over $(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C})$ has perfect secrecy if $\forall m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}, \text{len}(m_0) = \text{len}(m_1)$ and $\forall c \in \mathcal{C}$
- $P[E(m_0, k) = c] = P[E(m_1, k) = c]$
- Where, k is chosen uniformly at random from \mathcal{K} (meaning $k \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{K}$)
- What does this mean?
- Given a CT c , you cannot tell if the message is m_0 or m_1 .
- Even the most powerful adversary cannot tell PT by looking at the CT
- No CT only attack possible (Of course there might be other attacks)

OTP has Perfect Secrecy

- In OTP, $\forall m, c$, if $E(m, k) = c$, then $c = m \oplus k$,
- $\implies k = m \oplus c$
- $|\{k \in \mathcal{K} : E(m, k) = c\}| = 1$
- $\forall m, c, P[E(m, k) = c] = \frac{\text{no. of keys } k \in \mathcal{K}, \text{ such that } E(m, k) = c}{|\mathcal{K}|} = 1/|\mathcal{K}|$
- Therefore OTP has perfect secrecy

Property

- Perfect secrecy $\Rightarrow |\mathcal{K}| \geq |\mathcal{M}|$
- Proof: Boneh-Shoup Section 2.1.3
- This means that key length should be more than message length, which is impractical in most applications.
- To encrypt a 1 GB message you's need a 1 GB key, inconvenient :(

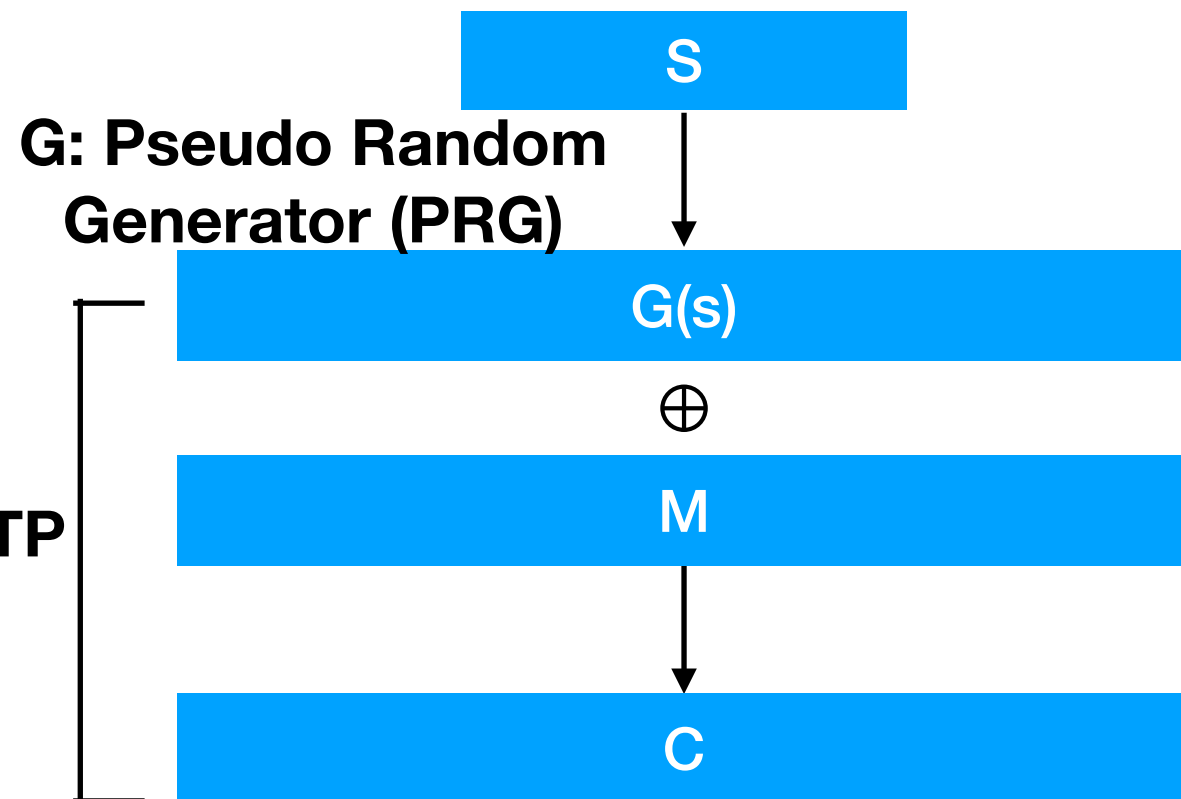
Practical OTP

- Use PRG instead of OTP
- Stream ciphers
- The security is not “perfect Secrecy” because the size of the key is smaller
- We prove semantic security
- Intuitively an adversary cannot say the difference between a pseudo random string and a truly random string.
- Design effective statistical tests

Practical OTP

No
Size of K is
smaller than
message

Q1: Does this have perfect secrecy?



Size of message is L

Q1: What is G? What properties does it have?
 $|s| < |M|$. K should look like a random string r of length L .

How to do this?
We use Statistical Tests

Q3: What can we say about the security of this cipher?

$$C = M \oplus G(K)$$

$$M = C \oplus G(K)$$

This does not have perfect secrecy, so we define a new type of security called “semantic Security”

These are called stream ciphers

Statistical Tests

- To distinguish a pseudo-random string $G(s)$ from a truly random string r of L bits
- Algorithm takes a string and outputs 0 or 1
- Such a test is called effective if the probability that it outputs 1 on a pseudo-random input is significantly different than the probability that it outputs 1 on a truly random input
- Count number of 1's appearing in the input, if this is $\approx L/2$
- Count the pairs 00, 01, 10, 11, each of these should be $\approx L/4$
- Count the pairs 000, 001...10, 111, each of these should be $\approx L/8$
- But ... this is not enough, Try the next bit test

Next Bit Test and Unpredictability

- If an adversary can figure out the L -th bit from the $L-1$ bits of $G(s)$, then it can know that LSB of the message. Could be disastrous. (5 diplomats casts their votes, 4 have last names ending in even number, 1 in odd number alphabet)
- We say that a PRG $G : k \rightarrow \{0,1\}^L$ is predictable if there exists an efficient algorithm A , and $0 \leq i < L$,
$$Pr_{k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}}[A(G(k)) \mid_{1,2,\dots,i} A(G(k)) \mid_{i+1}] > 1/2 + \epsilon$$
- PRGs must be unpredictable
- Def: $\forall i$, there are no efficient adversary that can can predict bit $(i + 1)$ for “non-neg” ϵ

PRG in Practice

- linear congruential generators (LCG) generate pseudo-random numbers not for Crypto

$r[0] \leftarrow \text{seed}$

$r[i] \leftarrow (a \cdot r[i-1] + b) \% p;$

output $r[i] \gg x;$

$i++;$

glibc/random()

$r[i] \leftarrow (r[i-3] + r[i-31]) \% 2^{32}$

output $r[i] \gg 1$

**Never use
Kerberos 4 used and was hacked.**

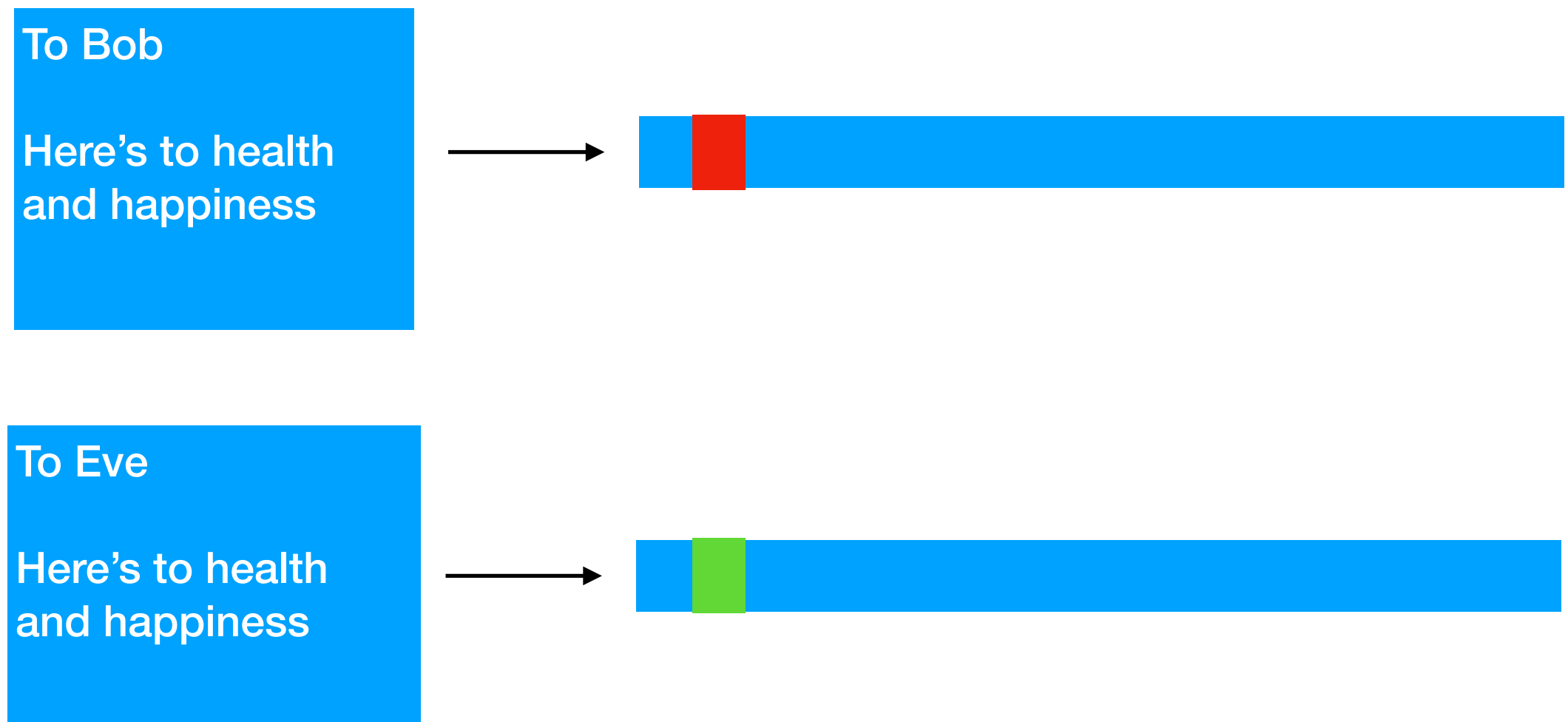
Attacks on Ciphers

Attacks 1: Never use same Key Twice in Stream ciphers

- Suppose K_1 is used to encrypt two messages m_1 and m_2
- Therefore, $c_1 = m_1 \oplus k_1$ and $c_2 = m_2 \oplus k_1$
- Hence, $c_1 \oplus c_2 = m_1 \oplus m_2$
- If you know some bits of m_1 , you can infer corresponding bits m_2
- For example if there are a sequence of same bits in two messages, m_1 and m_2 , this can be known

Real-world attacks

Messages encrypted on disc with the same key k



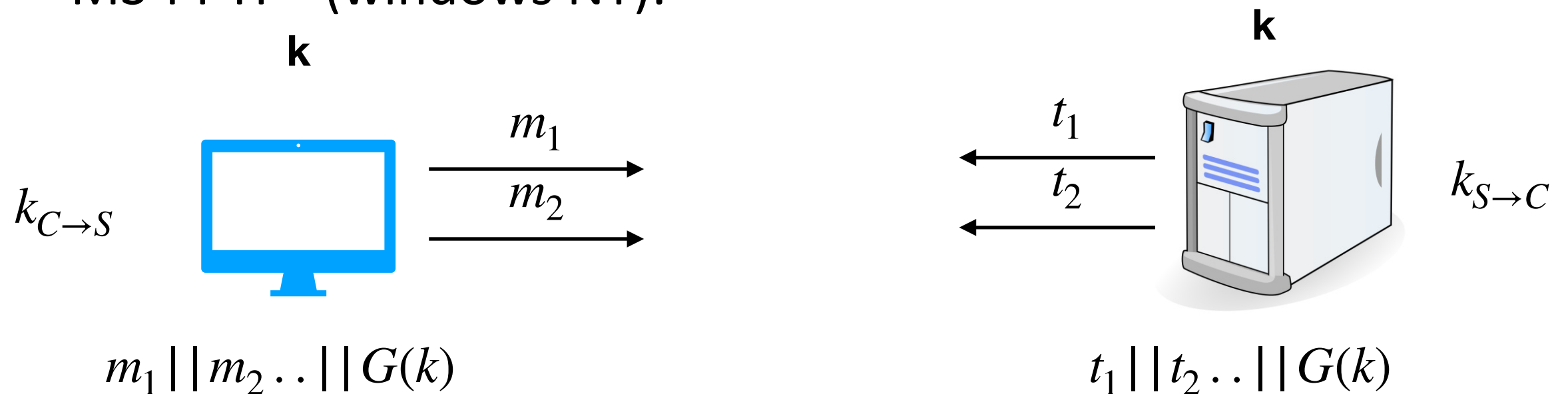
Easily infer that both messages are the same

DO NOT USE STREAM CIPHERS FOR DISK ENCRYPTION

Real-world attacks

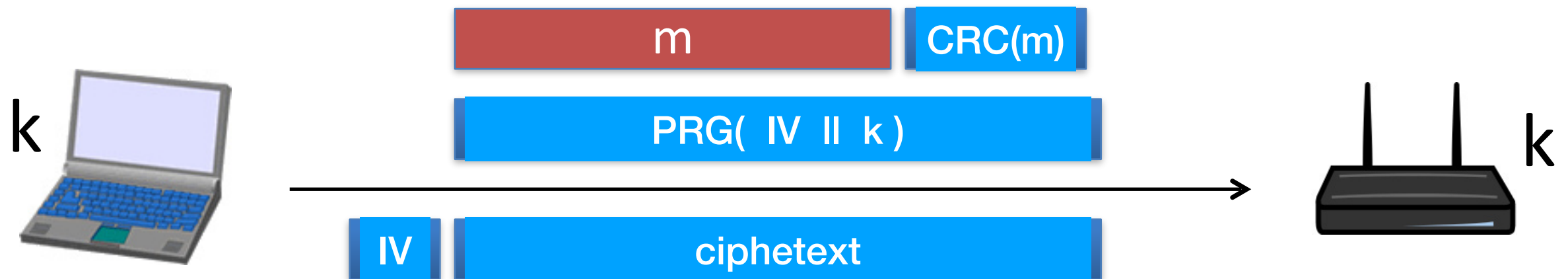
- Project Venona (1941-1946): Russian project which used OTP (insecurely) and intercepted by NSA (3000 msgs decrypted)

MS-PPTP (windows NT):



In any bidirectional channel use two keys

802.11b WEP Vulnerabilities



Length of IV: 24 bits

- Repeated IV after $2^{24} \approx 16\text{M}$ frames
- On some 802.11 cards: IV resets to 0 after power cycle

key for frame #1: $(1 \parallel k)$ (4 + 104) bits

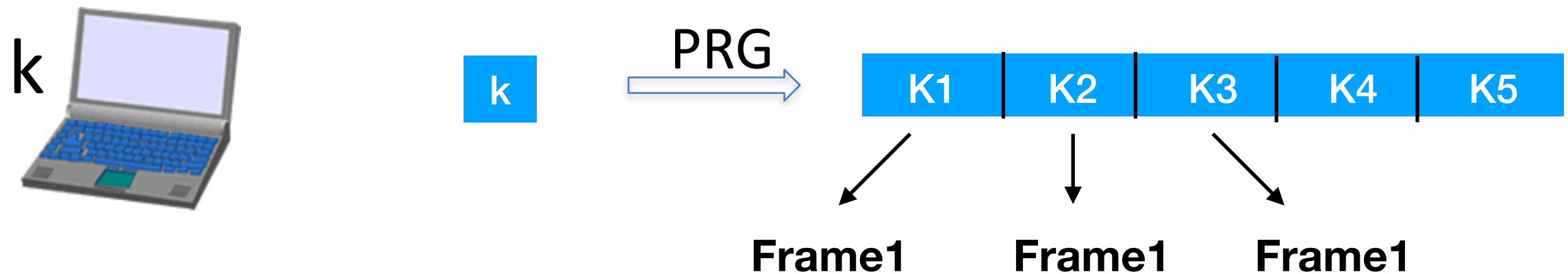
key for frame #2: $(2 \parallel k)$ (4 + 104) bits

Related key attacks

More attacks later in
context of RC4

New keys for every session (As in TLS)

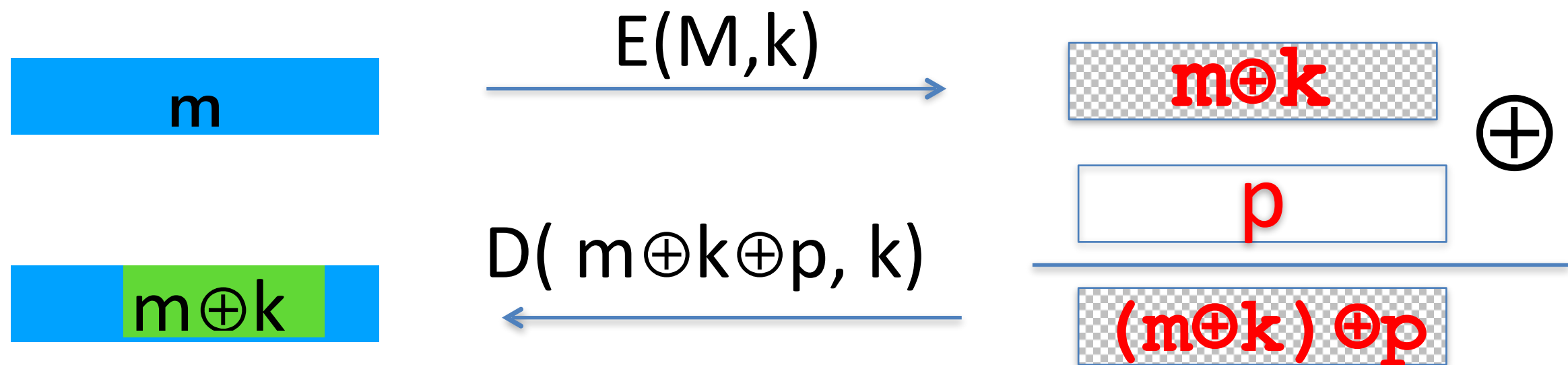
Alternate Better Construction



⇒ now each frame has a pseudorandom key

better solution: use stronger encryption method (as in WPA2)

Attack 2: No integrity



Modifications to ciphertext are undetected and have **predictable** impact on plaintext

(OTP is malleable)

Stream Ciphers

RC4 Rivest Cipher (1987)

Key scheduling algo, input key k

Algorithm KSA

Initialization:

For $i = 0, \dots, N - 1$

$S[i] = i;$

$j = 0;$

Scrambling:

For $i = 0, \dots, N - 1$

$j = (j + S[i] + K[i]);$

Swap($S[i], S[j]$);

Pseudo Random Generator Algo,
Use Internal state S

Algorithm PRGA

Initialization:

$i = j = 0;$

Output Keystream Generation Loop:

$i = i + 1;$

$j = j + S[i];$

Swap($S[i], S[j]$);

$t = S[i] + S[j];$

Output $z = S[t];$

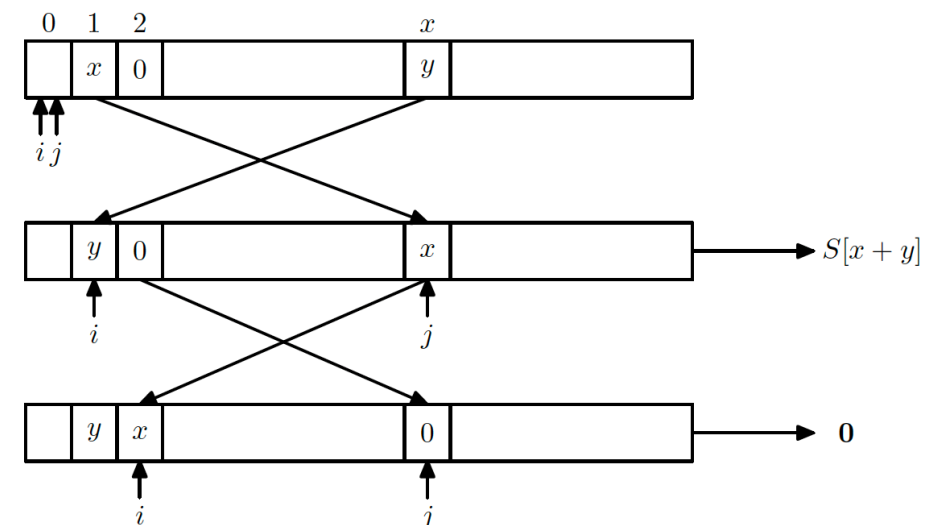
- Weaknesses:

1. Bias in initial output: $\Pr[2^{\text{nd}} \text{ byte} = 0] = 2/256$

2. Prob. of (0,0) is $1/256^2 + 1/$

3. Related key

4. No longer used



RC4 Rivest Cipher (1987)

Algorithm PRGA

Initialization:

$i = j = 0;$

Output Keystream Generation Loop:

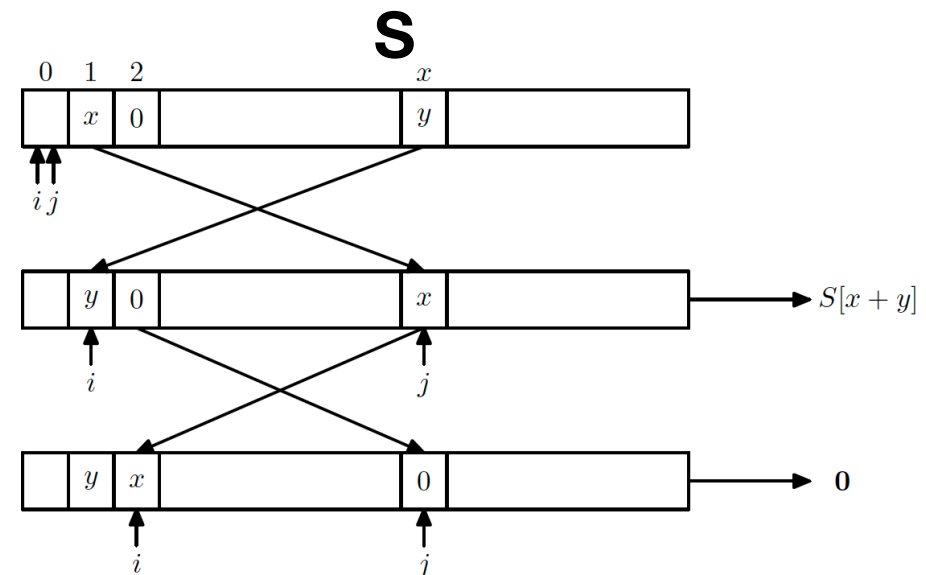
$i = i + 1;$

$j = j + S[i];$

Swap($S[i], S[j]$);

$t = S[i] + S[j];$

Output $z = S[t];$



Bias in initial output: $\Pr[2^{\text{nd}} \text{ byte} = 0] = 2/256$

Let P be the event that $S[2] = 0$ and $S[1] \neq 2$, $\Pr[z_2 = 0] = 1$

Otherwise, z_2 is evenly distributed in $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$.

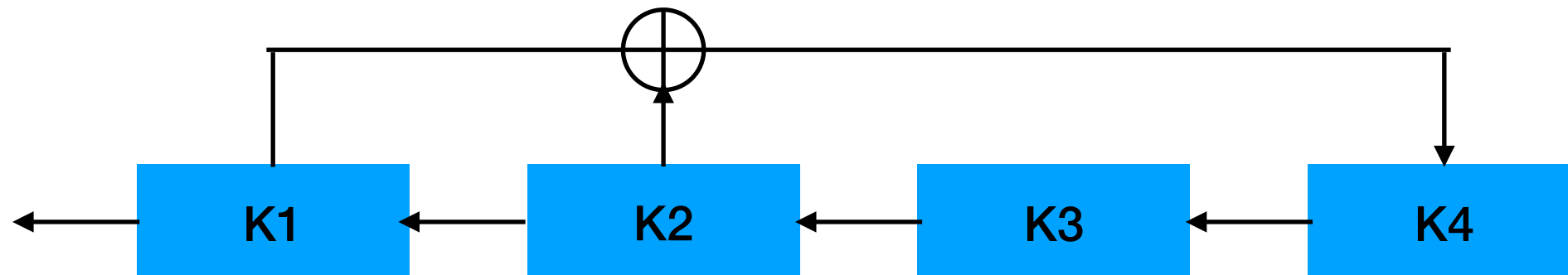
$$\Pr[z_2 = 0] = \Pr[z_2 = 0 | P] \Pr[P] + \Pr[z_2 = 0 | \neg P] \Pr[\neg P]$$

$$\approx 1.1/n + (1 - 1/n)1/n \approx 2/n$$

Later it is possible to recover the first 128 bytes of the plaintext with probability close to 1.

Other attacks: Boneh-Shoup 3.9

Linear Feedback Shift Register (LFSR)



- (1000) \rightarrow 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 1 1...
- Combine many LFSRs, but weak PRGs
- Trivium (eSTREAM), A5/1 (GSM), E0 (Bluetooth) use LFSR
- CSS: Content Scramble System, used in DVDs use 2 LFRS
- Broken (Read Section 3.8, Boneh-Shoup)

Stream ciphers: eStream

$$\text{PRG: } \{0,1\}^s \times R \longrightarrow \{0,1\}^n$$

Nonce: a non-repeating value for a given key.

$$E(k, m ; r) = m \oplus \text{PRG}(k ; r)$$

The pair (k,r) is never used more than once.

Profile 1 (SW)

[HC-128](#)

[Rabbit](#)

[Salsa20/12](#)

[SOSEMANUK](#)

Profile 2 (HW)

[Grain v1](#)

[Rabbit](#)

[Trivium](#)

Thank you