# CSC3631 Cryptography Stream Cipher

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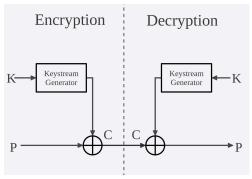
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# Modern Cryptography

- Cryptography we are currently using.
- Clearly defined
- Rigorous design
- Provably secure (at least mathematically)

## **Stream Cipher**

- Encrypt individual bits one at a time.
- ► A key is used to generate a **key stream** a bit stream.
- ➤ To encrypt, plaintext stream is XORed (⊕) with the key stream.
- ➤ To decrypt, ciphertext stream is XORed with the (same) key stream.



#### XOR

- Exclusive OR, or simply XOR, is one of the most widely used operations in cryptography.
- ➤ XOR is a Boolean operation that takes two bits as the input and outputs one bit.
- lts truth table is as the following:

Α	В	$A \oplus B$
1	1	0
0	0	0
1	0	1
0	1	1

▶ If the bits are the same, the result is 0; if the bits are different, the result is 1.

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#### Properties of XOR

- XOR has a few interesting properties that makes it useful in cryptogrpahy:
  - lt is associative and commutative
    - ▶ Associative:  $(A \oplus B) \oplus C = A \oplus (B \oplus C)$
    - ▶ Commutative:  $A \oplus B = B \oplus A$
  - ▶ Anything XORs 1 is its negation:  $A \oplus 1 = \neg A$
  - ▶ Anything XORs 0 is itself  $A \oplus 0 = A$
  - ▶ Anything XORs itself is  $0 A \oplus A = 0$

## **Vernam Cipher**

- A stream cipher invented by Vernam in the 1917
- Key is a random bit string that is no shorter than the plaintext
- Bitwise XOR for encryption and decryption
- ▶ Plaintext as a bit stream XORed with with the key stream
- $ightharpoonup c_i = m_i \oplus k_i$
- ► To decrypt, XOR the ciphertext stream with the same key stream again
- $c_i \oplus k_i = (m_i \oplus k_i) \oplus k_i = m_i \oplus (k_i \oplus k_i) = m_i \oplus 0 = m_i$

# **How Secure is the Vernam Cipher**

- Intuitively, it is secure
- ▶ The key is random, the ciphertext is then also random
- Claude Shannon proved that this cipher is unconditionally secure (perfect secrecy).

### Perfect Secrecy

- ► The first rigorous security definition, still used in literatures nowadays.
- a cipher has perfect secrecy means:
  - It is secure: Given the ciphertext, the attacker's knowledge about the plaintext is as much as not given the ciphertext.
  - The security is unconditional: Even if the attacker has unlimited computational power, the cipher is still secure.
- More formally, for any plaintext m and ciphertext c, Pr[M = m | C = c] = Pr[M = m]
  - Pr[M = m]: the estimated probability of the plaintext being a particular message m before seeing the ciphertext.
  - Pr[M = m | C = c]: the estimated probability of the plaintext being m after knowing that the ciphertext is c.

- The plaintext is 1-bit long and the key is 1-bit long
- The plaintext can be either 0 or 1
- The key can be either 0 or 1
- ► For whatever reason, the attacker thinks the probability of the plaintext being 1 is *p* before seeing the ciphertext
- ▶ Then the probability of the plaintext being 0 is 1-p from the attacker's point of view
- ▶ Since the key is chosen randomly, it is 50/50 being 1 or 0
- ► That is
  - ▶ Pr[M = 1] = p
  - ▶ Pr[M = 0] = 1 p
  - Pr[K = 0] = 0.5
  - Pr[K = 1] = 0.5

► The ciphertext is 1 when the plaintext is 1 and the key is 0, or when the plaintext is 0 and the key is 1, so the probability of the ciphertext being 1 is:

$$Pr[C = 1]$$
=  $Pr[M = 1 \text{ and } K = 0] + Pr[M = 0 \text{ and } K = 1]$ 
=  $Pr[M = 1] \times Pr[K = 0] + Pr[M = 0] \times Pr[K = 1]$ 
=  $p \times 0.5 + (1 - p) \times 0.5$ 
=  $0.5p + 0.5 - 0.5p$ 
=  $0.5$ 

Then the probability of the ciphertext being 0 is Pr[C=0] = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5

$$Pr[M = 1] = p$$
  
 $Pr[M = 0] = 1 - p$   
 $Pr[K = 0] = 0.5$   
 $Pr[K = 1] = 0.5$ 

- ▶ Now the attacker sees the ciphertext
- ▶ If the ciphertext is 0, there are two cases
- 1 The plaintext is 1, the probability of this case
  - Pr[M=1|C=0]
- Pr[M=0|C=0]

e are two cases 
$$Pr[M = 0] = 1 - p$$
  
 $Pr[K = 0] = 0.5$   
 $Pr[K = 1] = 0.5$   
 $Pr[C = 0] = 0.5$   
 $Pr[C = 1] = 0.5$ 

probability of this case

Pr[M=1] = p

$$Pr[M = 1 | C = 0]$$

$$= \frac{Pr[M = 1 \text{ and } C = 0]}{Pr[C = 0]}$$

$$= \frac{Pr[M = 1 \text{ and } K = 1]}{Pr[C = 0]}$$

$$= \frac{Pr[M = 1] \times Pr[K = 1]}{Pr[C = 0]}$$

$$= \frac{Pr[M = 0 \text{ and } K = 0]}{Pr[C = 0]}$$

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- If the ciphertext is 1, there are two similar cases
  - 3 The plaintext is 1, Pr[M = 1 | C = 1] = Pr[M = 1]
  - 4 The plaintext is 0, Pr[M = 0 | C = 1] = Pr[M = 0]
- These are the only cases
- ▶ In all cases Pr[M = m | C = c] = Pr[M = m]
- ▶ The proof can be generalised to multiple bits
- The Vernam cipher indeed has perfect secrecy

# **Limitations of Perfect Secrecy**

- ► Hard to achieve and perfectly secure ciphers are difficult to use in practice
  - Requires truly randomly keys
  - ► Key-length ≥ message-length
  - Keys are never reused

## **Modern Stream Ciphers**

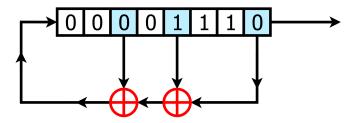
- Main differences:
  - The keystream is not truly random, but pseudorandom
  - The quality of the pseudorandom bit streams generated by a stream cipher must be very similar to that of real random bit streams
  - Keystream generators produce a stream of pseudorandom bits using short secret keys

## **PRG and Stream Ciphers**

- ► The keystream generators are deterministic: the same key generates the same keystream
- Essentially, stream ciphers are pseudorandom generators (PRGs), the keys are the seeds
- One bit change in the key should change the output completely

# Linear Feedback Shift Registers (LFSRs)

- ➤ A shift register whose input bit is a linear function of its previous state.
- ▶ In each cycle, some bits in the register is XORed together to produce a new bit, then the register shift and output 1 bit, the new bit then takes the empty space of the register.



#### Recurrence

- It is impossible to generate an infinitely long key stream.
- After some cycles, LFSR will return to a state it has been in, and start to produce the same bit stream it has produced before.
- ▶ The period can be short or long, depending on the design.
- ▶ The best case: for an *L*-bit LFSR, the period is  $2^L 1$  (i.e. can produce a  $2^L 1$  bit long stream).
  - ▶ L = 128, we can get  $2^{128} 1$  bits
  - ▶ 1 TB =  $2^{43}$  bits, you need  $2^{85} = 38$  trillion trillion 1TB disks if you want to store the whole stream.
- ► (If you want to know the math about how to design a good LFSR, read Cryptography made simple §12.2 not required)

#### Combine LFSRs

- ► LFSRs, although can produced large number of non-repeating bits, are insecure.
- ► For an *L*-bit LFSR, it is sufficient to determine its entire stream if one can obtain 2*L* consecutive bits from the stream.
  - Due to the linearity of the function
  - ▶ If a stream cipher is naively built on top of LFSR, it would not secure against a known plaintext attack.
- ► To solve the problem, use multiple LFSRs and combine the output using a non-linear function.
- ► (If you want to know more, read Cryptography made simple §12.4 not required)

#### RC4

- The most commonly implemented stream ciphers
- Historically used in Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) (to protect Internet traffic) and WEP (to protect Wireless traffic) – still being used in many legacy devices.
- ► Support variable key size (40 -256 bits)
- Output unbounded number of bytes
- Simple design and easy to implement
- Not secure should be avoided if possible.

## **Other Stream Ciphers**

- ► SEAL (Software-optimized Encryption Algorithm): 160-bit key
- ► Grain, HC-256, MICKEY, Rabbit, Salsa20, SOSEMANUK, Trivium . . .
- ► See wikipedia for a (possibly incomplete) list.

# **Advantage of Stream Ciphers**

- ► Fast
- ► Easy to implement in hardware
- Can encrypt streams
  - ▶ You don't want to buffer data before encryption
- However, nowadays, block ciphers can work as a stream cipher (in certain mode) and their speed can be very good with hardware acceleration (e.g. Intel AES instruction set) – in many cases you don't really need a pure stream cipher.

## Weaknesses of Stream Ciphers

- ▶ If the same key stream is ever used twice, then easy to break
  - $ightharpoonup C_1 = A \oplus K, C_2 = B \oplus K$
  - $C_1 \oplus C_2 = A \oplus K \oplus B \oplus K = A \oplus B$
  - Reveal partial information about A and B
- Ciphertext can be modified so that plaintext is changed accordingly after decryption
  - ► Send 1 bit means yes/no
  - An attacker intercepts the ciphertext and flip the bit then passes the modified bit to the receiver
  - Receiver decrypts the bit but no the plaintext is exactly the opposite

#### How to Counter the Weaknesses

- Key stream reuse
  - Use Initialisation Vector (IV).
  - Essentially a random or pseudorandom bit string
  - ► For each encryption, generates a new IV and combine it with the key to form a one-time key
  - IV can be sent in clear with the ciphertext,
- Ciphertext modification
  - ▶ Need some integrity protection mechanisms
  - Usually Message authentication code (will see later)

#### RC4 and WEP

- ► WEP (Wired Equivalent Privacy): used in 802.11 wireless network to provide security
- ▶ WEP uses RC4 for confidentiality
  - ightharpoonup A long term secret key k (that's fine)
  - ► An IV is prepended to the key before encrypting a packet (that's also fine)
  - ► IV is sent in clear with the packet (that's still fine)
  - ► IV is 24-bit long (that's NOT fine)
  - ► In most systems, implemented as a counter starting from 0 (that makes things even worse)
- Passive attack: collect enough raw encrypted data and look for plaintext encrypted with the same IV.
- A table-based attack:
  - An insider generates a packet for each IV.
  - Extracts the key stream by xoring the ciphertext with the plaintext.
  - Stores all the key streams in a table indexed by the IV. (Requires 15GB in total.)

#### RC4 and WEP

- More sophisticated attack
  - Some correlation allows an attacker to recover once a byte in the key given enough key streams.
  - Certain packets used in TCP/IP have fixed structure and predictable content (known-plaintext)
  - You can get key streams without an insider
  - You can send the packet back to get new reply packets
    - You can collect enough key stream with packet injection very fast
- ▶ 104-bit key can be recovered in less than 1 minute
- ▶ Using less than 40,000 packets with a success probability of 50%. In order to succeed in 95% of all cases, 85,000 packets are needed.
- ► (Here the attacks are based on implementation and design flaws of WEP, rather than attacking RC4 itself. A recent attack on WPA-TKIP and TLS is actually by attacking RC4. see https://www.rc4nomore.com/)

# Reading

- ► Cryptography made simple §9.1,9.2, 10.2, 12
- ► Cryptography theory and practice \$1.1.7, 2.3
- ► Applied cryptography: §16,17