

# **Week 3**

## Block Ciphers



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## DES and Block Ciphers

- A block cipher is a pair of encryption/decryption algorithms ( $E$ ,  $D$ ) operating on blocks of a fixed length  $B$ .

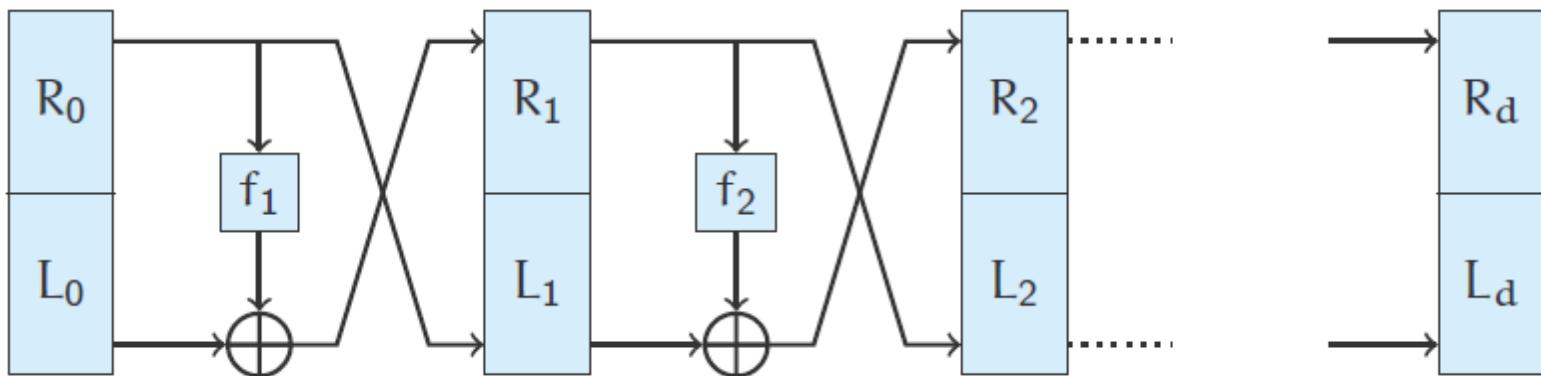
- Both algorithms take a  $K$ -bit key  $k$ , and for any block  $b$ :

$$D_k(E_k(b)) = b$$

- Data Encryption Standard (DES) is a block cipher operating on 64-bit blocks, using a 56-bit key.

# Feistel Networks

- Recall: a block cipher  $E_k : \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$  must be **invertible**.
  - Hard: coming up with a cryptographically secure invertible function.
  - Easier: coming up with pseudorandom functions (such as hashes).
- Feistel Network
  - Given  $d$  pseudorandom functions  $f_1, \dots, f_d$ , where each  $f_i$  maps  $n$  bits to  $n$  bits, a Feistel Network combines these functions into a secure invertible function  $F$ , mapping  $2n$  bits to  $2n$  bits.



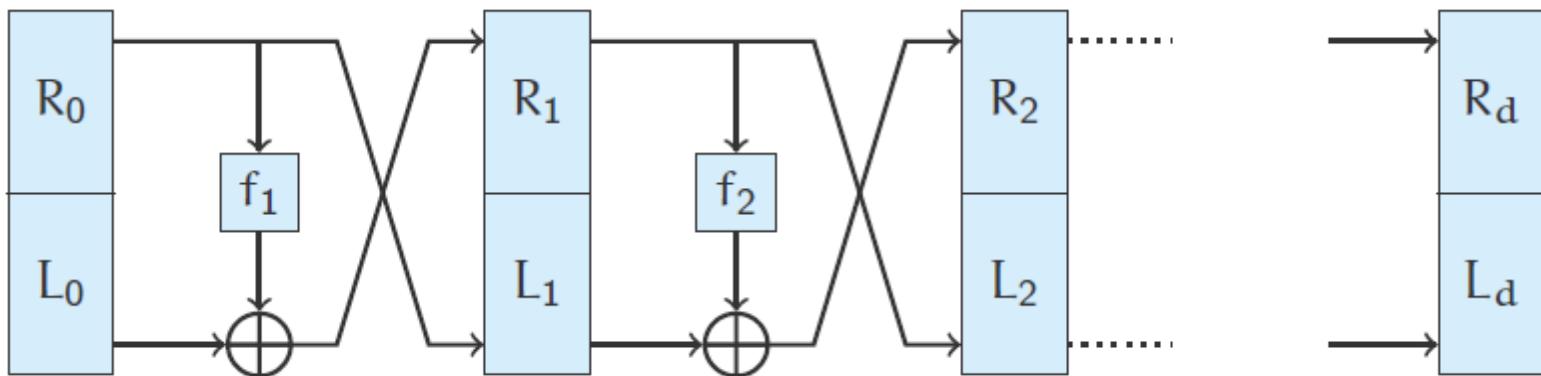
# Feistel Networks

- Algebraically, we have  $d$  functions  $f_1, \dots, f_d$ , and split our initial input into two:  $(L_0, R_0)$ . The Feistel network is then:

$$L_i = R_{i-1}$$

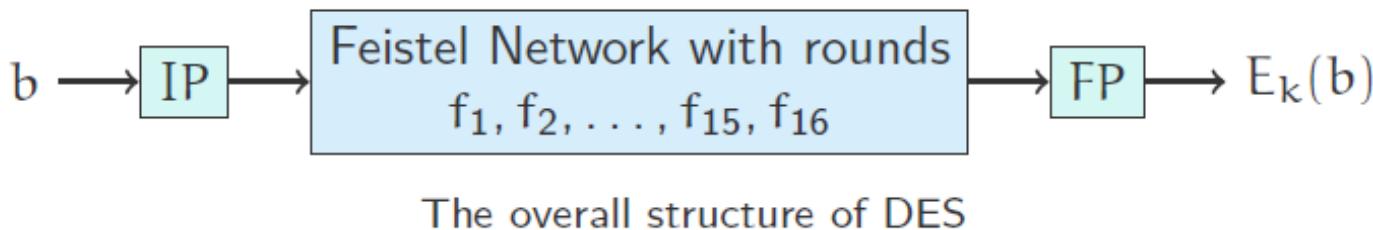
$$R_i = f_i(R_{i-1}) \oplus L_{i-1}$$

- The whole network is invertible because each step is invertible.
- In fact, the inverse network is identical, but with the function order reversed:  $f_d, f_{d-1}, \dots, f_2, f_1$ .
- When used in a cipher, the functions  $f_1, \dots, f_d$  are called round functions.



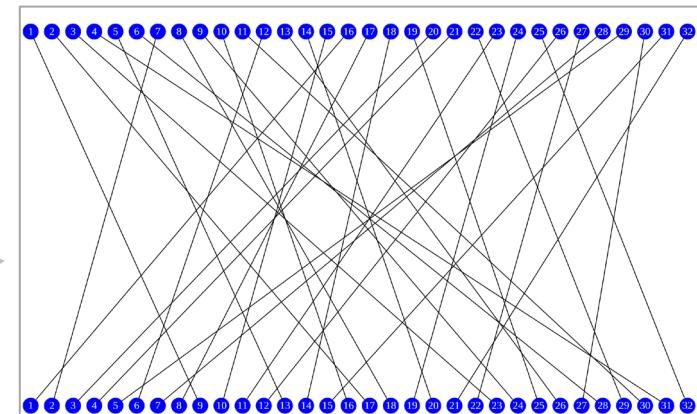
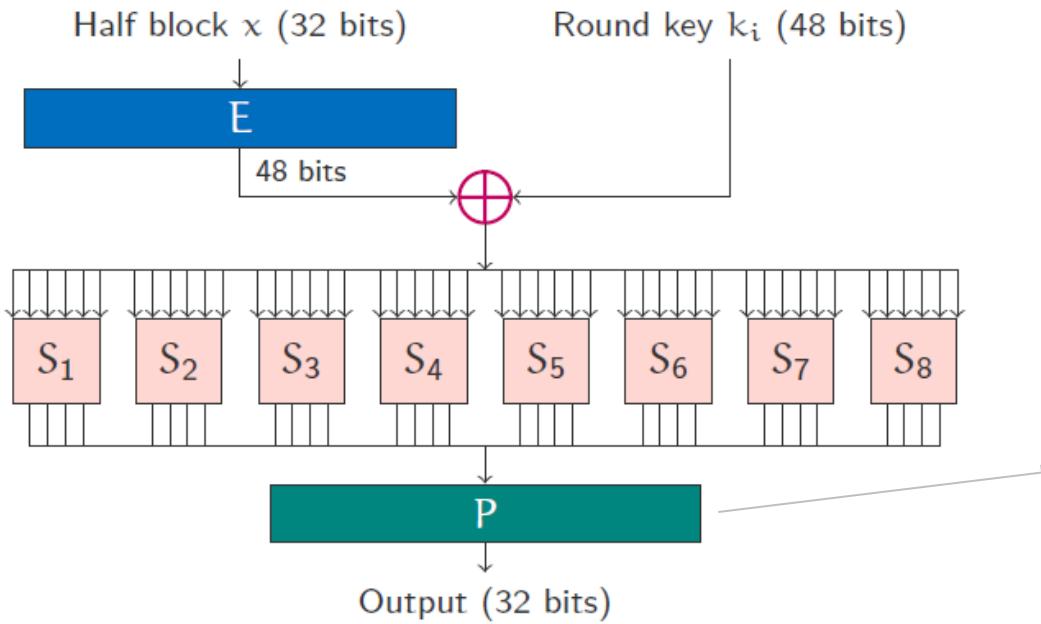
## DES Internals

- DES takes a 56-bit key  $k$  and a 64-bit block  $b$  to be encrypted.
  - An initial permutation (IP) is applied to the block.
  - The block is then fed into a 16-round Feistel network, with round functions  $f_i(x) = F(x, k_i)$ , where  $k_i \in \{k_1, \dots, k_{16}\}$  is the key schedule derived from  $k$ , and  $F$  is the DES round function.
  - Each round key  $k_i$  is 48-bits
  - A final permutation (FP) is then applied to the output.



# DES Round Function

- The round function  $f_i(x) = F(x, k_i)$  consists of:
  - $E$ , an expansion permutation widening  $x$  from 32 to 48 bits.
  - $S_j$ , the substitution boxes (S-boxes) which collapse 6 bits to 4 bits.
  - $P$ , a fixed permutation (P-box).
  - [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DES\\_supplementary\\_material](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DES_supplementary_material)



# Diffusion and Confusion

- Diffusion and confusion are desirable properties of ciphers to prevent statistic-based cryptanalysis
- **Diffusion** is the dissipation of statistical information in the plaintext.
  - Flipping a bit in the plaintext should result in half the bits of the ciphertext changing.
  - Flipping a bit in the ciphertext should result in half the bits of the plaintext changing.
  - Related to permutation ciphers.
- **Confusion** is making the relationship between the key and ciphertext as complicated as possible.
  - Each bit of the ciphertext should depend on multiple bits of the key.
  - Even if an attacker gathers many (plaintext, ciphertext) pairs encrypted under the same key, they should not be able to deduce the key.
  - Related to substitution ciphers.

## DES S-Boxes and P-Boxes

- When highly nonlinear S-boxes are combined with good P-boxes, both the properties of confusion and diffusion arise.
  - Having linear S-boxes would make the whole of DES a linear function.
  - Having P-boxes not spreading bits around enough would allow DES to be broken down into smaller independent subproblems.
- Qualitatively, “good” S and P-boxes “work together”:
  - S-boxes will be highly nonlinear, and flipping an input bit should result in half the output bits flipping.
  - The P-box following this up should distribute those bits evenly across S-boxes in the next round.

# **Block Cipher Padding and Modes of Operation**



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# Block Cipher Padding

- We need to pad the plaintext when it does not fit neatly into blocks.
  - Done by appending a pre-defined sequence of bits to “fill” the final block.
- It’s important that the bits used for padding are chosen carefully, as they have cryptographic implications. Some acceptable padding functions:
  - ANSI X9.23 [ANSI X9.23 cipher block chaining - IBM Documentation](#)
  - PKCS#5 and PKCS#7  
<https://www.ibm.com/docs/en/zos/2.4.0?topic=rules-pkcs-padding-method>

# Block Cipher Modes of Operation

- Once a key  $k$  is chosen and loaded into a block cipher,  $E_k$  only operates on single blocks of data.
  - Block size usually small (16-byte blocks for AES)
  - Message to be sent usually large (web page + assets  $\approx$  500kB)
  - Need a way to repeatedly apply the cipher with the same key to a large message.
- A mode of operation describes how a block cipher is repeatedly applied to encrypt a message. Each mode of operation has its own advantages and disadvantages.
- By using different modes of operation, messages of an arbitrary length can be split into blocks and encrypted using a block cipher.

# Evaluating Block Ciphers & Modes

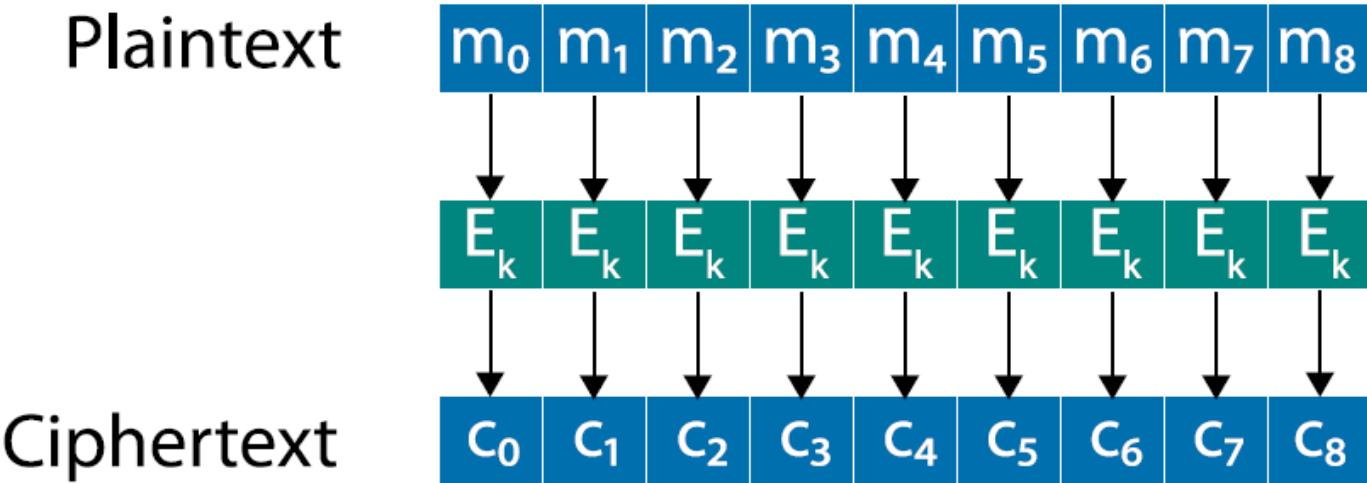
- To evaluate a cipher and a mode of operation, examine:
  1. **Key Size:** Upper bound on security, but longer keys add costs (generation, storage, etc.)
  2. **Block Size:** Larger is better to reduce overheads, but is more costly.
  3. **Estimated Security Level:** Confidence grows the more it is analysed, known failure cases for certain modes
  4. **Throughput:** How fast can it be encrypted/decrypted? Can it be pre-computed? Can it be parallelised?
  5. **Error Propagation:** What happens as a result of bit errors or bit loss?
- Points #1 and #2 are relevant only to the cipher. Points #3, #4, and #5 are relevant to both the cipher and mode of operation.

# Evaluating Block Ciphers & Modes

- We will consider 5 different modes of operation:
  - Electronic Code Book (ECB)
  - Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)
  - Output Feedback (OFB)
  - Counter Mode (CTR)
  - Galois/Counter Mode (GCM)

## Electronic Code Book (ECB) Mode

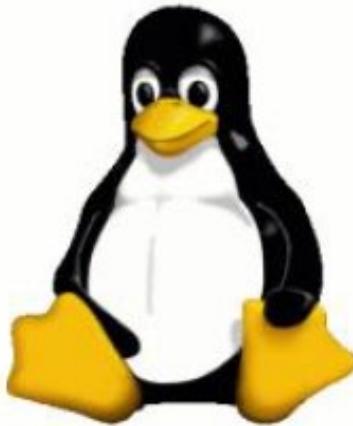
- Electronic Code Book (ECB) encrypts each block separately. Simple to implement but vulnerable to dictionary and frequency attacks.



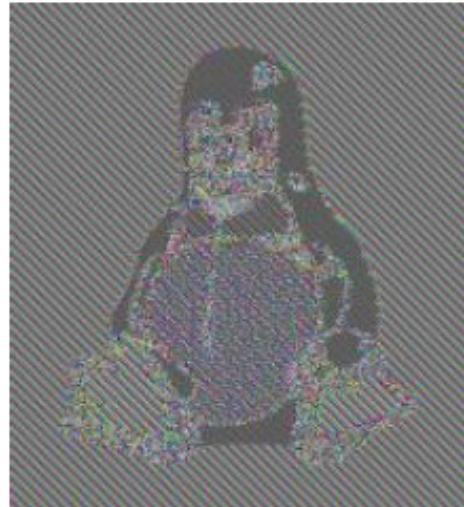
- Problem with ECB is that it is a substitution cipher, with blocks instead of letters!

## ECB Properties

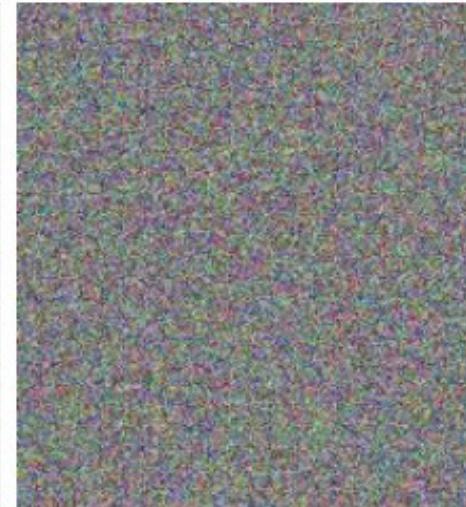
- Identical plaintext blocks result in identical ciphertext blocks
  - Since blocks are enciphered independently, a reordering of ciphertext blocks results in reordering of plaintext blocks.



(a) Original Image



(b) ECB mode

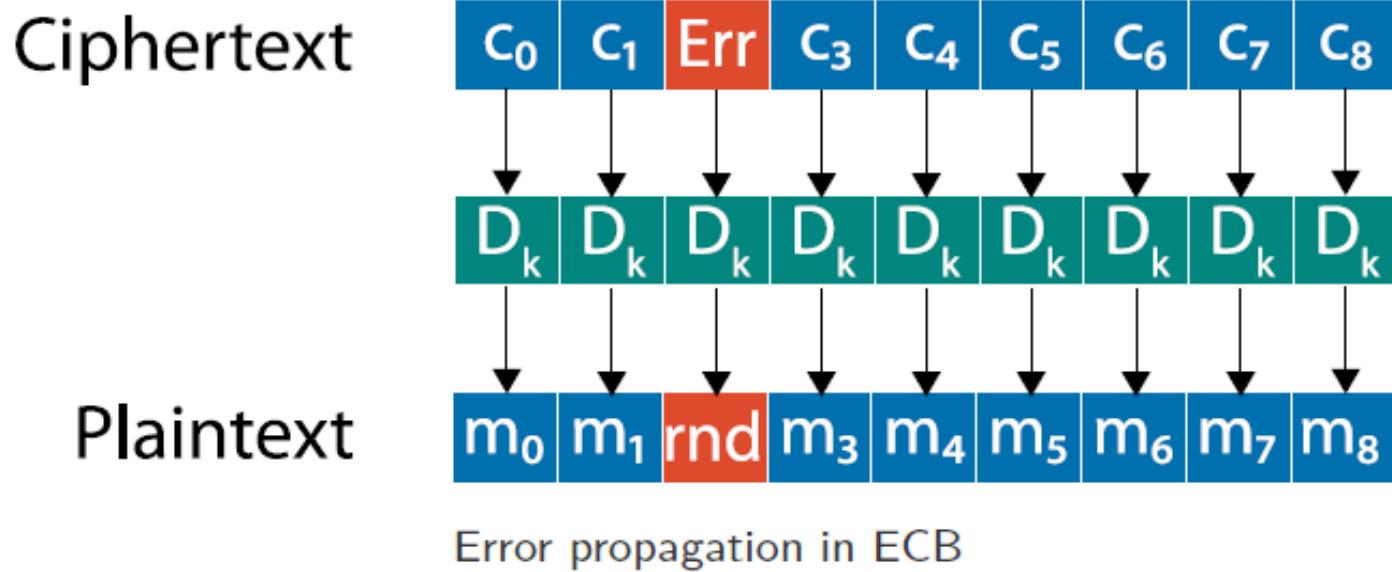


(c) Other mode

Encryption of Tux<sup>1</sup> image.

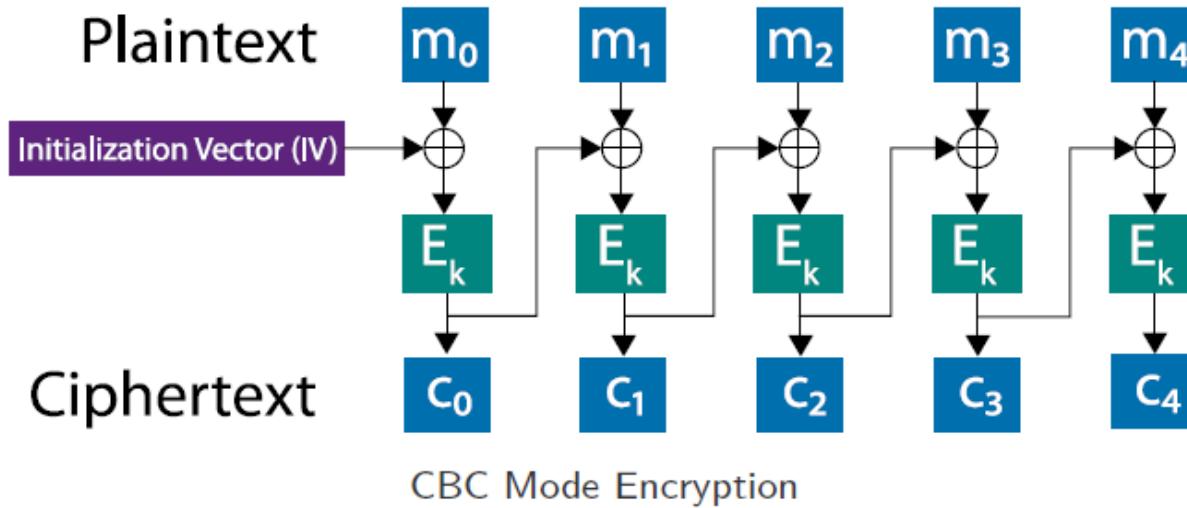
## ECB Properties

- Local error propagation: Bit errors only impact the decoding of the corrupted block (block will result in gibberish)



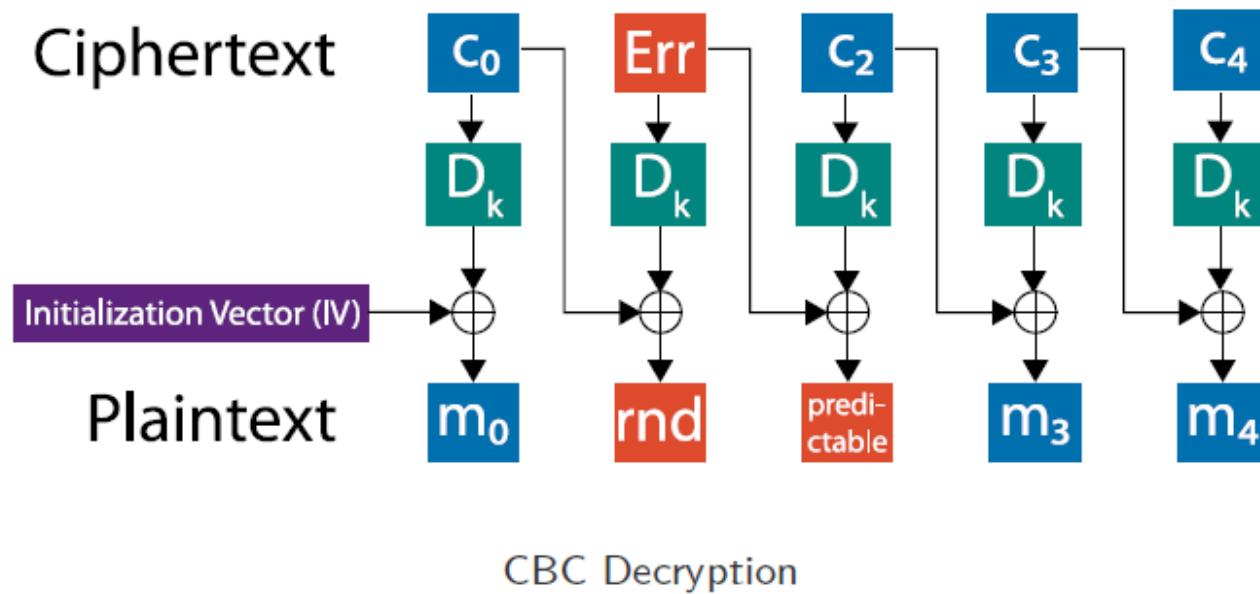
# Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode

- In Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) blocks are chained together using XOR.
- The Initialisation Vector (IV) is a **random** value that ensures the same plaintext and key does not produce the same ciphertext and IV does not need to be kept a secret.



# CBC Decryption

- Ciphertext errors only affect two plaintext blocks, one in a predictable way.
- Encryption must be done sequentially.
- Decryption can be random-access and is fully parallelisable.

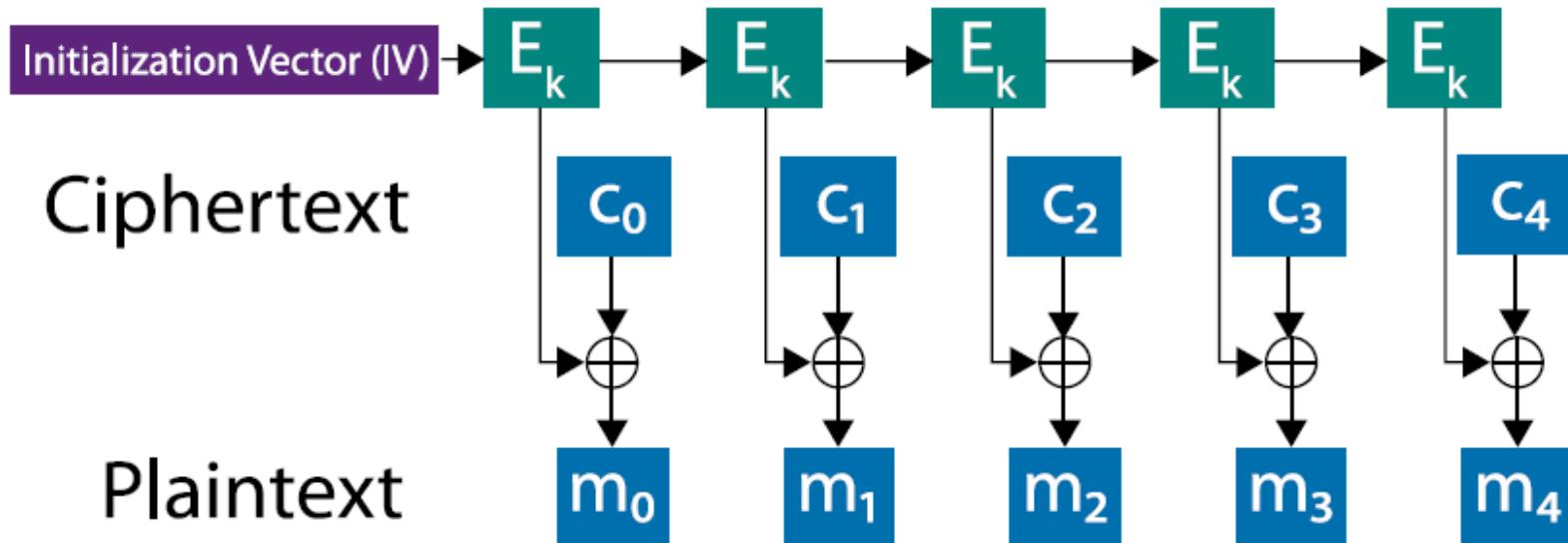


## CBC Properties

- Identical plaintexts result in identical ciphertexts when the same plaintext is enciphered using the same key and IV.
  - Changing at least one of  $[k, IV, m_0]$  addresses this.
- Rearrangement of ciphertext blocks affects decryption, as ciphertext part  $c_j$  depends on all of  $[m_0, m_1, \dots, m_j]$ .
- **Error propagation:**
  - Bit error in ciphertext  $c_j$  affects deciphering current and next blocks  $c_j$  and  $c_{j+1}$ . Recovered block  $m'_j$  typically results in random bits.
  - Bit errors in recovered block  $m'_{j+1}$  are precisely where  $c_j$  was in error.
  - Attacker can cause **predictable** bit changes in  $m_{j+1}$  by altering  $c_j$ .
- **Bit recovery:**
  - CBC is self-synchronising in that if a bit error occurs in  $c_j$  but not  $c_{j+1}$ , then  $c_{j+2}$  correctly decrypts to  $m_{j+2}$ . Only two blocks affected by error.

## Output Feedback (OFB) Mode

- Output Feedback Mode (OFB) turns a block cipher into a synchronous stream cipher.
- The Initialisation Vector (IV) and the key are used to generate a keystream.

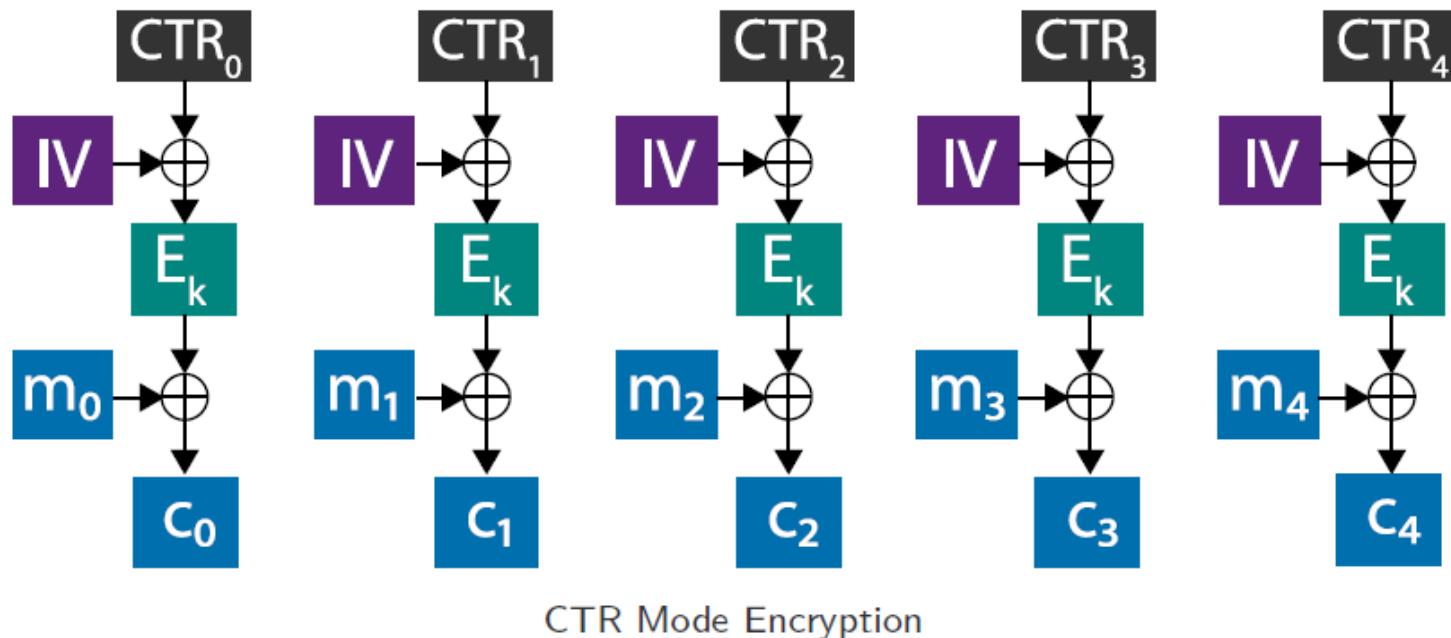


## OFB Properties

- Identical plaintext results in identical ciphertext when the same plaintext is enciphered using the same key and IV.
- **Chaining Dependencies:** (Same as a stream cipher) The key stream is plaintext independent.
- **Error propagation:** (Same as a stream cipher) Bit errors in ciphertext blocks cause errors in the same position in the plaintext.
- **Error recovery:** (Same as a stream cipher) Recovers from bit errors, but not bit loss (misalignment of key stream)
- **Throughput:** Key stream may be calculated independently — e.g. pre-computed — before encryption/decryption become parallelisable.
- IV must change. Otherwise, it becomes a two time pad.

## Counter (CTR) Mode

- Counter Mode (CTR) modifies the IV for each block using a predictable counter function, turning the block cipher into a stream cipher.
- The counter can be any function (e.g. a PRNG), but it is commonly just an incrementing integer.



## CTR Properties

- Identical plaintext results in identical ciphertext when the same plaintext is enciphered using the same key and IV.
- **Chaining Dependencies:** (Same as a stream cipher) The key stream is plaintext independent.
- **Error propagation:** (Same as a stream cipher) Bit errors in ciphertext blocks cause errors in the same position in the plaintext.
- **Error recovery:** (Same as a stream cipher) Recovers from bit errors, but not bit loss (misalignment of key stream)
- **Throughput:** Both encryption and decryption can be randomly accessed and/or parallelised: the best we could hope for.
- IV must change. Otherwise, it becomes a two time pad.
- OFB and CTR share similar properties, because they both make the block cipher act as a stream cipher.

## Galois/Counter Mode

- Galois/Counter Mode (GCM) mode is not strictly a cipher mode of operation since it also provides a mechanism to verify the integrity of data: assurance the ciphertext has not been tampered with.
  - An extension of CTR mode.
  - While encryption happens, the ciphertext blocks are combined into something like a MAC.
  - Unlike HMAC, is parallelisable (you can't combine two HMACs into one larger one).
  - Used for low-latency, high-throughput dedicated hardware applications (network packets).

# Attacks on DES



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## DES Keys

- Given one plaintext/ciphertext pair  $(m, c)$ , there is a high probability that only one key will satisfy:

$$c = DES(m, k)$$

- Consider DES as a collection of permutations:  $\pi(1) \dots \pi(256)$ . If  $\pi(i)$  are independent permutations then for all  $(m, k)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\exists k_1 \neq k : DES(m, k_1) = DES(m, k)] \\ = 2^{-56} \\ = 1.39 \times 10^{-17} \\ = 0.000000000000000139\% \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, given one  $(m, c)$  pair, the key is (almost definitely) uniquely determined. The problem is to find  $k$ .

## Attacks on DES

- Known Plaintext Exhaustive Key Search
  - Strong  $n$ -bit block cipher,  $j$ -bit key, the key can be recovered on average in  $2^{j-1}$  brute force attempts, given a small number ( $< (j + 4)/n$ ) of plaintext/ciphertext pairs
  - For DES,  $j = 56$ ,  $n = 64$  so exhaustive key search is expected to yield the key in  $2^{55}$  operations.

## Increasing Attacks on DES

- DES is a Feistel Network, so due to the complementation property:

$$DES(\neg m, \neg k) = \neg DES(m, k)$$

- This property can be exploited with a Chosen Plaintext Attack

- Let the actual key be  $k$  and the proposed key be  $K$ . If the encryption of a message  $m$  and its complement  $\neg m$  can be obtained, brute force attempts can be reduced as follows:

```
if  $c_1 = DES(m, k)$  and  $c_2 = DES(\neg m, k)$  then
    if  $DES(m, K) \neq c_1$  OR  $\bar{c}_2$  then
         $K \neq k$  or  $\neg k$ 
    end if
end if
```

$\bar{c}_2 = \neg c_2 = DES(m, \neg k)$

- Therefore, the search space is halved.

# **DES Enhancements**

**2DES, 3DES, DESX**



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## 2DES

- DES Double Encryption with 2 keys (2DES)
$$2\text{DES}_{k_1, k_2}(m) = E_{k_1}(E_{k_2}(m))$$
  - Vulnerable to known plaintext meet-in-the-middle attack.
- Example:
  - for a fixed message,  $m$ , create a table of all possible ciphertext with each 56-bit encryption keys:
$$E_k(m) \text{ for all } k \text{ in } \{0, 1\}^{56}$$
  - Then, for  $c = E_{k_1, k_2}(m)$ , try to decrypt:
$$D_k(c) \text{ for all } k \text{ in } \{0, 1\}^{56}$$
  - Until  $D_k(c)$  appears in the table, since  $D_{k_1}(c) = E_{k_2}(m)$ .
- This means that 2DES can be broken in  $2^{56}$  operations on average, using  $2^{56}$  memory slots. (A time-space trade-off!). This is not good when the key is 112-bits (56 + 56).

## 3DES

- Two-key Triple DES (3DES) - DES 3 times, 2 keys. (112 bits)  
$$3\text{DES}_{k_1, k_2}(m) = E_{k_1}(D_{k_2}(E_{k_1}(m)))$$
- A [Common Vulnerabilities and Exposures \(CVE\) released in 2016](#) discovered a major security flaw in DES/3DES.
- NIST deprecated DES/3DES for new applications in 2017, and for all applications at the end of 2023.

## DESX

- A modification of DES to avoid exhaustive key search is DESX.

$k_1 = 56$  bits (DES Key)

$k_2 = 64$  bits (Whitening Key)

$k_3 = 64$  bits

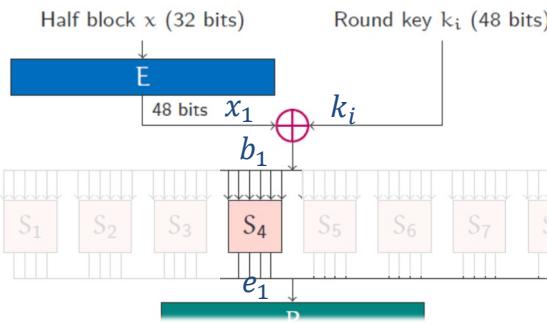
- $DESX_{k_1, k_2, k_3}(m) = k_3 \oplus E_{k_1}(m \oplus k_2)$
- The **whitening key** gives greater resilience to brute force attacks.

# **DES Cryptanalysis**



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# Differential Cryptanalysis



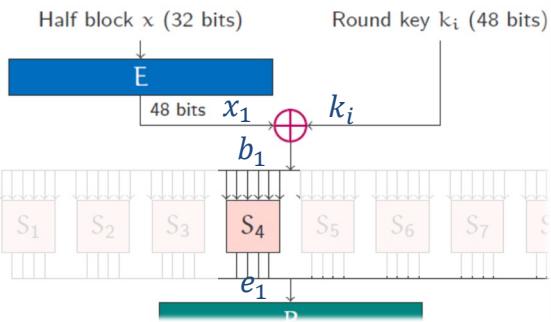
- Better than brute-force approach for attacking DES.
- Utilises (plaintext, ciphertext) pairs with Chosen Plaintext Attack (CPA). Involves looking at the XOR of two texts.
- Consider any s-box function  $F(x, k_i)$  with key  $k_i$  and define the difference measure between two different inputs to the s-box ( $b_1$  and  $b_2$ ) as:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta &= b_1 \oplus b_2 \\ &= (x_1 \oplus k_i) \oplus (x_2 \oplus k_i) \\ &= x_1 \oplus x_2\end{aligned}$$

where  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are the corresponding outputs of the Expander Function.

- The input XOR ( $b_1 \oplus b_2$ ) does not depend on the key, but the output XOR ( $e_1 \oplus e_2$ ) will still depend on the key.

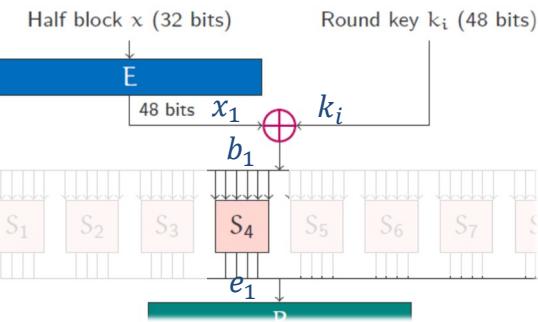
## Example



- Define the set  $\Delta(b)$  consisting of input ordered pairs  $(b_1, b_2)$  with 6 bits, where  $|\Delta(b)| = 2^6 = 64$ .
 
$$\Delta(b) = \{(b_1, b_2) \text{ in } \{0, 1\}^6 \mid b_1 \oplus b_2 = b\}$$
- If  $b = b_1 \oplus b_2 = 110100$ , then consider the first S-Box pairs to be:
 
$$\Delta(b) = \{(000000, 110100), (000001, 110101), \dots, (111111, 001011)\}$$
- For all 64 pairs in  $\Delta(b)$ , the distribution of output XORs  $(e_1 \oplus e_2)$  is
 

$(e_1 \oplus e_2)$ :	0000	0001	...	1111
Count	0	8		6
- So, if  $(b_1 \oplus b_2) = 110100$  and  $(e_1 \oplus e_2) = 0001$ , then  $(b_1, b_2)$  must be one of the eight possible pairs,  $\therefore b_1$  is one of 16 possible values.
- Since  $x_1$  is derived from the known plaintext, the 6 bits of the key used in  $x_1 \oplus k_i = b_1$  are one of the 16 possible values. This is repeated with different  $\Delta$  to make deductions about the key!

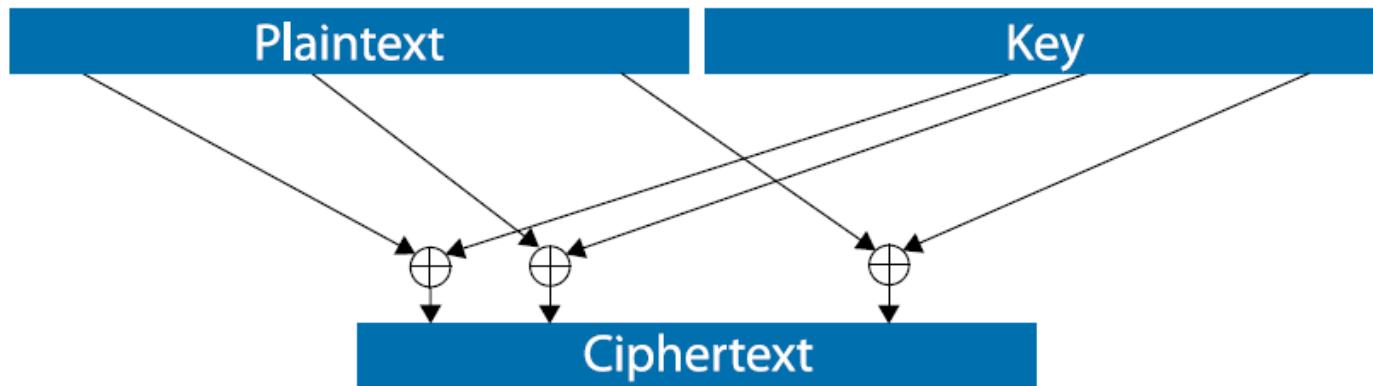
## Example



- Define the set  $\Delta(b)$  consisting of input ordered pairs  $(b_1, b_2)$  with 6 bits, where  $|\Delta(b)| = 2^6 = 64$ . Without knowing  $b$ ,  $b_1$  has 64 possibilities and  $b_2$  has 64 possibilities causing a  $64 \times 64$  brute-force search space. Because of  $b$ ,  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  can only have 64 possibilities
- If  $b = b_1 \oplus b_2 = 110100$ , then consider the first S-Box pairs to be:  
 $\Delta(b) = \{(000000, 110100), (000001, 110101), \dots, (111111, 001011)\}$
- For all 64 pairs in  $\Delta(b)$ , the distribution of output XORs  $(e_1 \oplus e_2)$  is  
Because of  $e_1 \oplus e_2$  constraint,  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  can only have 8 possibilities. Since  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  are interchangeable, each of  $b_1$  and  $b_2$  has 16 possibilities
- So, if  $(b_1 \oplus b_2) = 110100$  and  $(e_1 \oplus e_2) = 0001$ , then  $(b_1, b_2)$  must be one of the eight possible pairs,  $\therefore b_1$  is one of 16 possible values.
- Since  $x_1$  is derived from the known plaintext, the 6 bits of the key used in  $x_1 \oplus k_i = b_1$  are one of the 16 possible values. This is repeated with different  $\Delta$  to make deductions about the key! Since  $x_1$  is known, 16 possibilities for  $b_1$  are a result of the 16 possibilities for  $k_i$

# Linear Cryptanalysis

- Consider the ciphertext derived by combining certain bits from plaintext and key:



- The cipher can be easily broken because it is **linear**. For example:  
$$c[1] = p[4] \oplus p[17] \oplus k[5] \oplus k[3]$$
- Therefore,  $k[3] \oplus k[5] = c[1] \oplus p[4] \oplus p[17]$

## Linear Cryptanalysis

- The purpose of linear cryptanalysis is to find the following “effective” linear expression for a given cipher algorithm

$$p[i_1, \dots, i_u] \oplus c[j_1, \dots, j_v] = k[s_1, \dots, s_w]$$

where  $i_1, \dots, i_u, j_1, \dots, j_v$  and  $s_1, \dots, s_w$  are fixed bit locations.

- An attacker wants the above expression to hold with probability,  $\rho \neq 0.5$  for randomly given plaintext P and corresponding cipher text C. If  $|\rho - 0.5|$  is large, then the attacker can accurately guess  $k[s_1, \dots, s_w]$ .
- Optimally, for a break,  $|\rho - 0.5| = 0.5$  (i.e.,  $\rho = 0$  or  $1$ ) whilst a perfect cipher should have  $\rho = 0.5$ .

# DES Strength against attacks

## – Attack vs Complexity

Attack	Messages		Requirements	
	Known	Chosen	Storage	Processing
Exhaustive Precomputation	-	1	$2^{56}$	1
Exhaustive Search	1	-	Neg.	$2^{55}$
Linear Cryptanalysis	$2^{43}$ (85%)	-	Texts	$2^{43}$
	$2^{38}$ (10%)	-	Texts	$2^{50}$
Differential Cryptanalysis	-	$2^{47}$	Texts	$2^{47}$
	$2^{55}$	-	Texts	$2^{55}$

# **Replacing DES**

Advanced Encryption  
Standard (AES)



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## Introducing AES

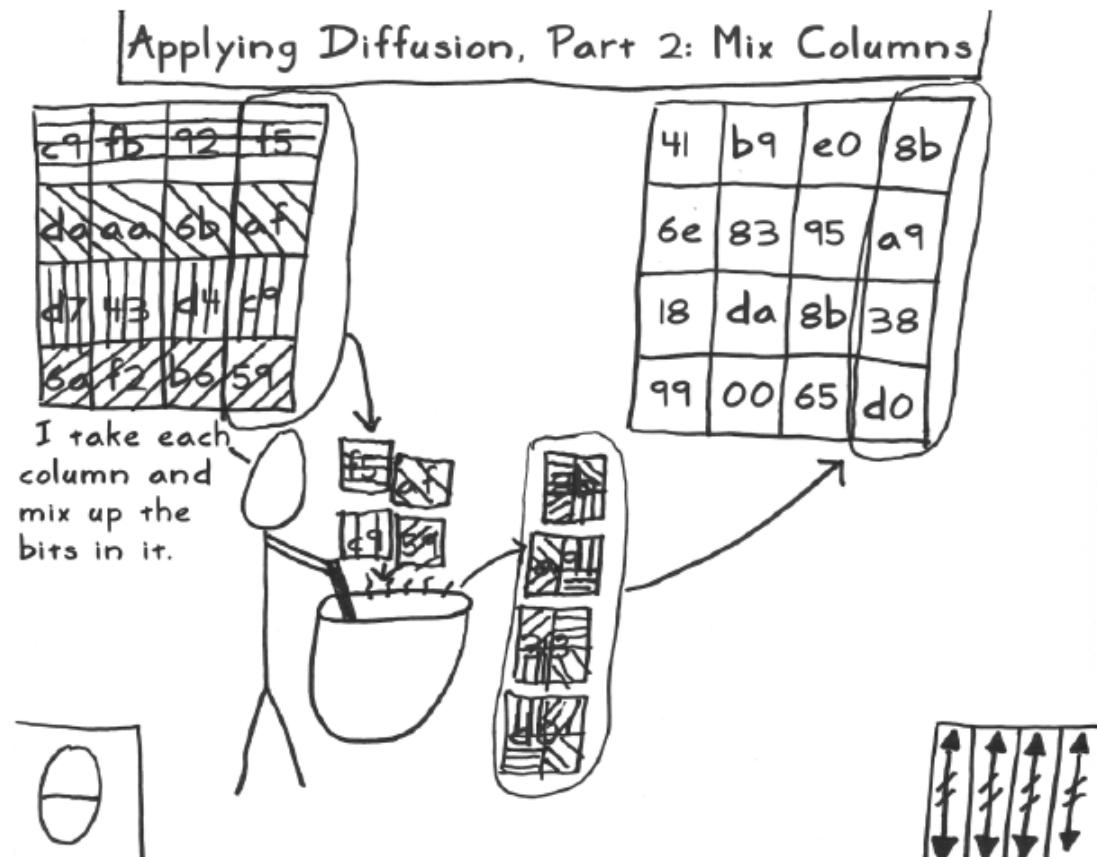
- In 1997 NIST announced that a competition would be held to choose a new cipher to replace the outdated DES cipher, this to be was named the Advanced Encryption Standard – AES.
- Of the 15 international contenders, they chose Rijndael as the AES.
  - Block cipher
  - Operates on 128-bit blocks
  - Key length is variable: 128/192/256-bit keys
  - It is an SP-network (substitution-permutation network) which uses a single non-linear S-box which acts on a byte input to give a byte output (a 256-byte lookup table)
  - Construction gives tight differential and linear bounds

# AES

- The number of rounds are variable:
  - 10 rounds – 128-bit keys
  - 12 rounds – 192-bit keys
  - 14 rounds – 256-bit keys
- Rounds have a 50% margin of safety based on current known attacks. Potential attacks (which require an enormous number of plaintext/ciphertext pairs) are possible on:
  - Only 6 rounds for 128-bit keys
  - Only 7 rounds for 192-bit keys
  - Only 9 rounds for 256-bit keys
- Safety against possible attacks believed to currently be  $\approx 100\%$

# AES

- <http://www.moserware.com/2009/09/stick-figure-guide-to-advanced.html>



## Questions

- Why is it important to have properties of diffusion and confusion in the block cipher?
- What is the purpose of the Initialisation Vector (IV) in block cipher modes?
- What are two cryptanalysis techniques applied to DES and their main differences?



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