

# Full-Time-Pad Symmetric Stream Cipher

## Improved One-Time-Pad Encryption Scheme

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## Abstract

**One-Time-Pad** Encryption Scheme is a secure algorithm but there are 2 main security risks. One, a key cannot be reused. Two, plaintext length equals key length which is very inefficient when dealing with long plaintexts. These 2 security risks only exist due to a lack of confusion and diffusion per ciphertext. As denoted by Claude Shannon in the report he published in 1945, A Mathematical Theory of Cryptography, A secure cryptographic algorithm requires confusion and diffusion. The **Full-Time-Pad** symmetric stream cipher is developed based on the **One-Time-Pad** with solutions to the security risks while maintaining high speed computation. To achieve diffusion, the key is permuted in it's byte array form using a constant permutation matrix. To achieve the confusion, the key is manipulated in it's 32-bit integer representation using Modular **A**ddition in  $F_p$ , Bitwise **R**otations, and **X**or (**ARX**). The permutation guarantees that every time there is a manipulation, each 32-bit number is made up of a different byte order.

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Pre-requisite Terminology

<b>Key</b>	32-byte random array that's transformed, then hashed before XORed with the plaintext to encrypt
<b>Symmetric</b>	Same key is used for encryption and decryption
<b>Stream</b>	Plaintext is encrypted without separating it into blocks
<b>Plaintext</b>	Plain data before encryption
<b>Ciphertext</b>	Encrypted plaintext
<b>Cipher</b>	Encryption algorithm. Plaintext is transformed into a ciphertext that can only be reversed with a key
<b>Diffusion</b>	plaintext/key is spread out in the ciphertext
<b>Confusion</b>	The ciphertext has no possible statistical analysis, or cryptanalysis to determine the plaintext
<b>Bit</b>	0 or 1. Smallest discrete unit for computation
<b>Byte</b>	8-bit number
<b>Galois Field</b>	Finite Field where there are only limited number of numbers. Only prime galois fields ( $F_p$ ) are used where size of the field is denoted by prime number $p$
<b>Avalanche Effect</b>	An aspect of diffusion. If smallest unit (1 bit) of data is changed, the ciphertext changes in an unrecognizable way.

## 1.2 Applications

## 1.3 Key Generation

The 32-byte key should be generated using a cryptographically secure method, including but not limited to cryptographic random number generators and Elliptic Cryptography Diffie Hellman (ECDH) protocol with Hash-based Key Derivation Function (HKDF)

## 1.4 Prerequisite Mathematics

## 1.5 Vector Permutation

# 2 Security Vulnerabilities

In One-Time-Pad, key isn't reusable. Here is the proof:

```
let  $m_1, m_2$  be 2 plaintexts
let  $k$  be the key
let  $c_1 = m_1 \oplus k$ 
let  $c_2 = m_2 \oplus k$ 
 $c_1 \oplus c_2 = (m_1 \oplus k) \oplus (m_2 \oplus k)$ 
 $c_1 \oplus c_2 = m_1 \oplus m_2$ 
```

Since the key is reused, the 2 ciphertext's XORed factor out the key since  $k \oplus k = 0$ . Using cryptanalysis, the 2 plaintexts can be found.

For  $c_1 \oplus c_2 = m_1 \oplus m_2$  to not hold true, for each encryption, the key needs to be different. If  $k$  is transformed each time so that it has an avalanche effect. Even with no confusion, it would still be secure since  $k' \oplus k \neq 0$  where  $k'$  is transformed key.

But there is another concern,

What if the plaintext and ciphertext are known, then it is possible to find  $k$  so don't use  $k$  without transformation, since  $\text{plaintext} \oplus \text{ciphertext} = \text{key}$ . So for each plaintext, key needs to be transformed irreversibly and it also requires confusion since if  $k'$  is found,  $k$  is still unknown but if  $k$  is found, then all instances of  $k'_n$  are known, which means that:

```
 $k'_1 = \text{hash}(k + 1)$  where  $\text{hash}()$  is an irreversible transformation
 $k'_2 = \text{hash}(k + 2)$ 
 $c_1 \oplus c_2 = (m_1 \oplus k'_1) \oplus (m_2 \oplus k'_2)$ 
 $c_1 \oplus c_2 \neq m_1 \oplus m_2$ 
 $m_1 \oplus c_1 = k'_1$ 
 $m_2 \oplus c_2 = k'_2$ 
 $k'_1, k'_2$  are calculated using an irreversible hashing algorithm
```

$\therefore$  the Full-Time-Pad Cipher requires both diffusion and confusion

## 2.1 Brute-Force

Due to the use of a galois field. The total number of combinations per 256-bit key isn't  $a = 2^{256}$ , but rather  $b = 4294967291^8$  where  $p = 4294967291$  for arithmetic in  $F_p$  and there are 8 32-bit numbers in a 256-bit key.

```
 $a = 115792089237316195423570985008687907853269984665640564039457584007913129639936_{10}$ 
 $b = 115792088158918333131516597762172392628570465465856793992332884130307292657121_{10}$ 
let  $\Delta = a - b$ 
 $\Delta = 1078397862292054387246515515224699519199783770047124699877605836982815_{10}$ 
```

So the difference  $\Delta$  is a somewhat large integer. The number of combinations with a galois field is lower than without a galois field ( $b < a$ ). This isn't a big concern as their difference measured exponentially is only around  $2^{\log_2 \Delta} \approx 2^{229}$  which means that their difference is around  $2^{229}$ , this is a negligible difference as the difference between  $2^{230}$  and  $2^{229}$  is also huge.

∴ Using a galois field doesn't negatively impact number of combinations in terms of brute force as the total number of combinations when using a galois field vs not is a negligible amount

### 2.1.1 Birthday Problem

The birthday problem is a paradox. It goes as follows: how many people are required so that there is more than 50% chance that at least 2 people have the same birthday.

The answer is an unexpected 23 people.

In the context of this encryption algorithm, it might be a concern, as number of key reused (with transformation) increase, the chances of finding the key increase:

let  $V_c$  be the number of combinations per key without order and repetitions  
 let  $k$  be the number of keys needed for hash(key) to have a 50% chance to equal another hash(key)  
 let  $V_t$  be the number of combinations per key with order and repetitions

$$V_c = \frac{b!}{(b-k)!} = \frac{4294967291^8!}{(4294967291^8 - k)!}$$

$$V_t = b^k = 4294967291^{8^k}$$

$$P(A) = \frac{V_c}{V_t}$$

$$P(A) = \frac{\frac{b!}{(b-k)!}}{b^k}$$

$$P(B) = 1 - P(A) = 50\%$$

$$P(A) = 1 - 50\%$$

$$1 - 50\% = \frac{\frac{b!}{(b-k)!}}{b^k}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}b^k = \frac{b!}{(b-k)!}$$

$$\text{since } 50\% = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\log_b \frac{1}{2}b^k = \log_b \frac{b!}{(b-k)!}$$

$$\log_b \frac{1}{2} + \log_b b^k = \log_b b! - \log_b (b-k)!$$

$$0 = \log_b b! - \log_b (b-k)! - \log_b \frac{1}{2} - k$$

$$\text{since } \log_b b^k = k$$

According to Ramanujan's Approximation:

$$\log_b b! \approx \frac{b \ln b - b + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + b(1+4b(1+2b)) \right]}{6}}{\ln b} + \frac{\ln \pi}{2}$$

And

$$\log_b(b-k)! \approx \frac{(b-k) \ln(b-k) - (b-k) + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + (b-k)(1+4(b-k)(1+2(b-k))) \right]}{6}}{\ln b} + \frac{\ln \pi}{2}$$

Recall:

$$0 = \log_b b! - \log_b(b-k)! - \log_b \frac{1}{2} - k \quad \text{isolate } \log_b(b-k)!$$

$$\log_b(b-k)! = \log_b b! - \log_b \frac{1}{2} - k$$

Combine both equations for  $\log_b(b-k)!$ :

$$\log_b b! - \log_b \frac{1}{2} - k \approx \frac{(b-k) \ln(b-k) - (b-k) + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + (b-k)(1+4(b-k)(1+2(b-k))) \right]}{6}}{\ln b} + \frac{\ln \pi}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{b \ln b - b + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + b(1+4b(1+2b)) \right]}{6}}{\ln b} + \frac{\ln \pi}{2} - \log_b \frac{1}{2} - k &\approx \frac{(b-k) \ln(b-k) - (b-k)}{\ln b} + \\ &+ \frac{\frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + (b-k)(1+4(b-k)(1+2(b-k))) \right]}{6}}{\ln b} + \frac{\ln \pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \frac{b \log b + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + b(1+4b(1+2b)) \right]}{6} + \frac{\ln \pi}{2} - \ln b \log_b \frac{1}{2} - \ln bk}{\ln b} \approx \frac{(b-k) \ln(b-k) + k}{\ln b} + \\
& \quad + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + (b-k)(1+4(b-k)(1+2(b-k))) \right]}{6} + \frac{\ln \pi}{2} \\
\text{let } C &= b \ln b + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + b(1+4b(1+2b)) \right]}{6} - \ln b \log_b \frac{1}{2} \approx (b-k) \ln(b-k) + k + \ln bk \\
& \quad + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + (b-k)(1+4(b-k)(1+2(b-k))) \right]}{6} \\
\text{let } f(k) &= (b-k) \ln(b-k) + k + \ln bk + \frac{\ln \left[ \frac{1}{\pi^3} + (b-k)(1+4(b-k)(1+2(b-k))) \right]}{6} - C = 0
\end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f(k)$  can be used to evaluate how many keys it would take so that 2 hashes have a 50% chance of being equal.  $f(k)$  can be evaluated using the secant algorithm

After running `test/secant.py`, given the parameters:

Based on Wikipedia Article: Birthday Attack, we can approximate  $x_0$  and  $x_1$

$$x_0 = \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + 2 \times \ln(2) \times b} \text{ (due to Approximation of number of people)}$$

$$x_1 = \sqrt{b} \text{ (due to square approximation)}$$

error tolerance:  $e = 1 \times 10^{-200}$

for  $b = 4294967291^8$ , we get  $k_1 = 400651867432320527534628274526034254879$  for the root.

And for  $b = 2^{256}$ , we get  $k_2 = 400651869298001176472314306405665023048$  for the root

So then  $\Delta k = k_2 - k_1 = 1865680648937686031879630768169 \approx 2^{101}$  Since the difference between  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  is negligible ( $2^{101}$  isn't big considering the magnitude of  $b$ ). We can conclude that using a galois field doesn't increase risk of birthday attacks which justifies the use of Galois fields to increase avalanche effect.

### 2.1.2 Denial of Service (DoS)

Most denial of service attacks related to encryption algorithms are based on brute-force methods. To see if this algorithm has a potential collision attack:

$$\text{transform}(key_1) = \text{transform}(key_2)$$

For example:  $x + y = 16$

$$x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq x, y < 256$$

there are 17-combinations for  $x$  to satisfy this equation, and simultaneously, there are 17 combinations for  $y$  to satisfy the equation, so a total of 17 combinations.

But for  $x + y = z$ , there are 257 combinations to try. if the result of an arithmetic operation



is known, there may be ways to get the same end-result with less combinations to brute-force. Knowing the value of  $z$  reduced the number of combinations by 15 times.

This means that the calculation done on 2.1.1 for the birthday problem would be irrelevant because there is a better algorithm than random brute forcing (to find collisions for `transform(key)`)

$\therefore$  if there is an operation that can provide the same output for a wide range of inputs, there can be a collision attack. Collision attacks can be used to derive the same transformed key using a different input key and decrypt the plaintext without actually having the original key. In the context of this encryption algorithm (using addition as an example): keysize is 32-bytes so for byte  $n$ :  $x_n + y_n = z_n$   
 $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq x, y, z < 256$

Number of combinations can be represented by

$$\prod_{n=0}^{32-1} (z_n + 1)$$

so the number of combinations would be between a minimum of 32 combinations ( $z_n = 0$  for all 32-bytes) up to a maximum of  $2^{256}$  combinations ( $z_n = 255$  for all 32-bytes) which can be brute forced for small  $z_n$ . So a simple addition is prone to collision attacks for  $x_n + y_n = z_n$ , where  $x, y$  are unknown. The use of galois field makes  $z_n$  even smaller. So even less combinations. Solution is to use operations that cannot be represented differently. e.g.

$$\sum_{i=0}^{z_n} x_n + y_n = z_n \implies \sum_{i=0}^{z_n} (z_n - i) + (i) = z_n$$

solves for all possible  $x, y$  values for each  $z_n$ . An addition operation can be represented differently to solve for 2 unknowns, while a good mix of ARX operations cannot be reverse engineered. This is also the reason why pre-manipulating the key (using addition) before `transform()` isn't a good option. Since it provides a very obvious collision attack which makes it invalid even though pre-manipulation will provide a good avalanche effect for every single byte of the key (if 1-bit of any byte is changed, ciphertext changes completely).

So the final solution is to calculate sum of each 32-bit segment of the key (represented by  $k_i$ ) in order to interlink them to make sure that every byte of the key offers the same avalanche effect:

$$\sum_{i=0}^7 k_i$$

To test if this offers enough collision resistance: think of this problem as an example:

1.  $x + y = 16$  offers n=17 combinations
  2.  $x + y + z = 16$  offers n=153 combinations (determined experimentally)
  3.  $x + y + z + v = 16$  offers n=969 combinations (determined experimentally)
- $x, y, z, v \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq x, y, z, v < 256$

So there has to be an equation or algorithm to summarize the relationship between number of variables ( $l$ ) and the sum of the addition operation (16);

Knowing that equation 1. is the simplest equation and it offers 17 combinations. Then if the rest of the equations are represented in 2-variable fashion. we can find number of combinations  $n$ :

For equation 2.: There are 3 ways to represent as 2-variable equation

$$x + y \quad x + z \quad y + z$$

For equation **3.**: There are 6 ways to represent as 2-variable equation

$$x + y \quad x + z \quad x + v$$

$$y + z \quad y + v \quad z + v$$

The number of ways a multi-variable equation can be represented as a 2 variable equation can be summarized by the following:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{l-1} i$$

Using some number crunching and logic, I found that there is a direct corrolation between the number of combinations and the ratio between the current number of ways to represent as 2-variable equation over the previous number of ways to represent as a 2-variable equation:

$$n_l \propto \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{l-1} i}{l-2}$$

Using more number crunching: I found the following recursive formula that finds the number of combinations that satisfies  $x+y+\dots = 16$ :

$$n_l = (n_{l-1} \frac{\sum_{i=1}^x i}{x-1} + 17) \times 3 - 17 \times 3((x+1) \mod 2)$$

where  $x = l - 1$  and x should be incremented until correct answer is reached for  $l \geq 6$  and  $n_{l-1}$  is previous number of combinations. This formula doesn't translate to cases where the 2-variable equation doesn't have 17 combinations.

Simply put this equation couldn't be used accurately, it can only be an approximation. But upon further number crunching, I derived the following equation that satisfies all cases:

$$x \prod_{i=1}^{l-1} \frac{(x+i)}{1+i}$$

where x is the number of combinations for 2 variable equations. e.g. for  $a+b = 16$ ,  $x = 16+1 = 17$ .

Using this equation for the context of this encryption algorithm:  
Recall:

$$c = \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} i$$

where  $l = 8$  since 8 32-bit segments to the 256-bit key then,  $x = c + 1$   
the total number of combinations according to the equation is between 1 and  
 $2871827628774669857283799072180574717903946432793745331030345747716374528 \approx 2.9 \times 10^{72}$

## 2.2 Reverse Engineering the Transformation

## 2.3 Collision-Resistance

### 2.3.1 Different Permutation Matrices

tried permutation matrices that followed logic or randomness. But they didn't offer the proper diffusion and collision resistance required to make a secure algorithm. The permutation matrix needs to be perfect so that the chances of collision (tested in `test/significant_perm_byte.cpp`) for every byte of the key should be around the same.

### 2.3.2 Number of Rounds

### 2.3.3 Constant - $F_p$ - Prime Galois Field Size

### 2.3.4 Constant - $r$ - Dynamic Rotation Constant

## 3 Hashing

### 3.1 Diffusion - Permutation

#### 3.1.1 Dynamic vs. Static

### 3.2 Dynamic Matrix Permutation

#### 3.2.1 Deravation

Python code is in the `test/perm.py`

---

**Algorithm 1** Dynamic Permutation Matrix Deravation Pseudo-code

---

```
1: Input: an array of incrementing numbers (0-31)  $A$ 
2: Output: Most Efficient Permutation Matrix  $V$  ( $16 \times 32$ )
3: Begin
4:  $P \leftarrow \text{copy of } A$ 
5: for  $k = 0$  to 4 do
6:   for  $i = 0$  to 8 do
7:      $P_i \leftarrow A_{i \times 4}$ 
8:      $P_{i+8} \leftarrow A_{i \times 4 + 1}$ 
9:      $P_{i+16} \leftarrow A_{i \times 4 + 2}$ 
10:     $P_{i+24} \leftarrow A_{i \times 4 + 3}$ 
11:   end for
12:    $A \leftarrow \text{copy of } P$ 
13:    $V.append(P)$ 
14:    $C \leftarrow \text{copy of } P$ 
15:   for  $m = 0$  to 3 do
16:     for  $i = 0$  to 8 do
17:       for  $n = 0$  to 4 do
18:          $P_{i \times 4 + n} \leftarrow C_{(1+n+m) \bmod 4 + i \times 4}$ 
19:       end for
20:     end for
21:      $V.append(P)$ 
22:   end for
23:    $A \leftarrow \text{copy of } P$ 
24: end for
25: Return  $V$ 
```

---

### 3.2.2 Dynamic Permutation Matrix Values

0	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	1	5	9	13	17	21	25	29	2	6	10	14	18	22	26	30	3	7	11	15	19	23	27	31
4	8	12	0	20	24	28	16	5	9	13	1	21	25	29	17	6	10	14	2	22	26	30	18	7	11	15	3	23	27	31	19
8	12	0	4	24	28	16	20	9	13	1	5	25	29	17	21	10	14	2	6	26	30	18	22	11	15	3	7	27	31	19	23
12	0	4	8	28	16	20	24	13	1	5	9	29	17	21	25	14	2	6	10	30	18	22	26	15	3	7	11	31	19	23	27
12	28	13	29	14	30	15	31	0	16	1	17	2	18	3	19	4	20	5	21	6	22	7	23	8	24	9	25	10	26	11	27
28	13	29	12	30	15	31	14	16	1	17	0	18	3	19	2	20	5	21	4	22	7	23	6	24	9	25	8	26	11	27	10
13	29	12	28	15	31	14	30	1	17	0	16	3	19	2	18	5	21	4	20	7	23	6	22	9	25	8	24	11	27	10	26
29	12	28	13	31	14	30	15	17	0	16	1	19	2	18	3	21	4	20	5	23	6	22	7	25	8	24	9	27	10	26	11
29	31	17	19	21	23	25	27	12	14	0	2	4	6	8	10	28	30	16	18	20	22	24	26	13	15	1	3	5	7	9	11
31	17	19	29	23	25	27	21	14	0	2	12	6	8	10	4	30	16	18	28	22	24	26	20	15	1	3	13	7	9	11	5
17	19	29	31	25	27	21	23	0	2	12	14	8	10	4	6	16	18	28	30	24	26	20	22	1	3	13	15	9	11	5	7
19	29	31	17	27	21	23	25	2	12	14	0	10	4	6	8	18	28	30	16	26	20	22	24	3	13	15	1	11	5	7	9
19	27	2	10	18	26	3	11	29	21	12	4	28	20	13	5	31	23	14	6	30	22	15	7	17	25	0	8	16	24	1	9
27	2	10	19	26	3	11	18	21	12	4	29	20	13	5	28	23	14	6	31	22	15	7	30	25	0	8	17	24	1	9	16
2	10	19	27	3	11	18	26	12	4	29	21	13	5	28	20	14	6	31	23	15	7	30	22	0	8	17	25	1	9	16	24
10	19	27	2	11	18	26	3	4	29	21	12	5	28	20	13	6	31	23	14	7	30	22	15	8	17	25	0	9	16	24	1

### 3.2.3 Other Options

## 3.3 Confusion - ARX

### 3.3.1 A - Modular Addition

### 3.3.2 R - Bitwise Rotation

### 3.3.3 X - XOR

## 3.4 Key Transformation

# 4 Cipher

## 4.1 Transformation

## 4.2 Avalanche Effect - Plaintext

### 4.2.1 Encryption Index

## 4.3 Long Plaintexts