Băhēm

Provably Secure Symmetric Cipher

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Overview

This paper proposes Bǎhēm; a symmetric cipher that, when given a random-looking key \mathbf{k} , a true random number generator (TRNG) and a cleartext message \mathbf{m} to encrypt, no cryptanalysis can degrade its security below min $[H(\mathbf{m}), H(\mathbf{k})]$ bits of entropy, even under Grover's algorithm [1] or even if it turned out that P = NP.

Aside from the cost of memory access and input/output processing, Băhēm requires only one addition per-session, and two additions and one bitwise exclusive-or operation (XOR) per-block, in order to encrypt or decrypt, and is also highly parallelise-able.

Despite Băhēm's $128 + 2|\mathbf{m}|$ bits overhead per $|\mathbf{m}|$ bits cleartext, its early prototype, Alyal, achieved similar run-time speeds to OpenSSL's ChaCha20 [2]; slightly faster decryption, while slightly slower encryption when the TRNG was prepared in a file in advance. This demonstrates that Bǎhēm is also practicality usable for many real-world applications.

Later implementations, with better TRNG optimisations and parallelism, must allow the prototype an even faster run-time for both, encryption and decryption.

Notation

 $H(\mathbf{x})$: Shannon's entropy of random variable \mathbf{x} .

 $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \mod 2^{128}$: Unsigned 128-bit addition.

random(128): A sequence of 128 many random bits generated by a TRNG.

k: A 128-bit pre-shared secret key with enough $H(\mathbf{k})$ that looks random. Ideally $\mathbf{k} = \text{random}(128)$.

 \mathbf{m} : A cleartext message of $|\mathbf{m}|$ many bits.

 $\lceil \frac{|\mathbf{m}|}{128} \rceil$: Number of 128-bit blocks in cleartext \mathbf{m} .

 \mathbf{m}_b : The b^{th} 128-bit block from \mathbf{m} . In other words: $\mathbf{m}_0 \| \mathbf{m}_1 \| \dots \| \mathbf{m}_{\lceil \frac{\|\mathbf{m}\|}{1000} \rceil} = \mathbf{m}$.

s = random(128): Session key.

 $\mathbf{p}_b = \text{random}(128)$: Pad key of the b^{th} block.

 $\hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b$: Encrypted \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{p}_b and \mathbf{m}_b , respectively.

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1 Proposed Algorithm

Algorithms 1 and 2 show Băhēm's encryption and decryption by which the process is repeated over every 128-bit blocks of $\mathbf{m}\colon \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1, \dots, \mathbf{m}_{\lceil \frac{|\mathbf{m}|}{3} \rceil}$.

Algorithm 1: Băhēm encryption

input : $\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{m}_0, \mathbf{m}_1, \dots$ output: $\hat{\mathbf{s}}, (\hat{\mathbf{p}}_0, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_0), (\hat{\mathbf{p}}_1, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_1), \dots$

 $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \operatorname{random}(128)$ $\mathbf{\hat{s}} \leftarrow \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{k} \mod 2^{128}$ $\mathbf{for} \ b \in (0, 1, \dots, \lceil \frac{|\mathbf{m}|}{128} \rceil - 1) \ \mathbf{do}$ $\mathbf{p}_b \leftarrow \operatorname{random}(128)$ $\mathbf{\hat{p}}_b \leftarrow \mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{k} \mod 2^{128}$ $\mathbf{\hat{m}}_b \leftarrow \mathbf{m}_b \oplus (\mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{s} \mod 2^{128})$

Algorithm 2: Băhēm decryption

input : $k, \hat{s}, (\hat{p}_0, \hat{m}_0), (\hat{p}_1, \hat{m}_1), \dots$ output: m_0, m_1, \dots

 $\mathbf{s} \leftarrow \hat{\mathbf{s}} - \mathbf{k} \mod 2^{128}$ $\mathbf{for} \ b \in (0, 1, \dots, \lceil \frac{|\mathbf{m}|}{128} \rceil - 1) \ \mathbf{do}$ $\mathbf{p}_b \leftarrow \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b - \mathbf{k} \mod 2^{128}$ $\mathbf{m}_b \leftarrow \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b \oplus (\mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{s} \mod 2^{128})$

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2 Security Analysis

The Băhēm encryption is essentially the XOR cryptosystem:

$$\hat{\mathbf{m}}_b \leftarrow \mathbf{m}_b \oplus \underbrace{(\mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{s} \bmod 2^{128})}_{\text{One-time encryption pad}}$$

It trivially follows from Shannon's perfect secrecy proof of the one-time pad (OTP) [3] that Băhēm is secure if its encryption pad maintains its security.

To simplify the analysis, suppose that the size of a block in Băhēm is 3 bits only, and that the cleartext block \mathbf{m}_b is known to the adversary, which implies that the adversary can trivially know that:

$$\mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{s} \mod 2^3 = \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b \oplus \mathbf{m}_b$$

in addition to adversary's knowledge of the public variables $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_b$. More specifically, suppose that the adversary found that:

$$0 = \hat{\mathbf{s}} = \mathbf{s} + \mathbf{k} \mod 2^3$$
$$3 = \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b = \mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{k} \mod 2^3$$
$$5 = \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b \oplus \mathbf{m}_b = \mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{s} \mod 2^3$$

Then, the question is: will this information reduce the space from which the key \mathbf{k} is chosen from? In other words, what are the possible values of \mathbf{k} that can lead to the outputs 0, 3 and 5 above? Table 1 visualises this.

				\mathcal{Y}				
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	1
\mathcal{X} 3	3	4	5	6	7	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 1: Exhaustive unsigned 3-bit addition. For a given output $\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y} \mod 2^3$, there are 2^3 many possible input values of $(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ that map to $\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y} \mod 2^3$.

As shown in table 1, the total number of horizontal, or vertical, intersections that simultaneously cross all of the outputs 0, 3 and 5, remain 2^3 . Meaning, the total number of values of **k** that could lead to the outputs remains 2^3 .

This 3-bit example can be trivially extended by induction to show that the same conclusions hold even

with a 128-bit unsigned addition and any other output numbers than 0, 3 and 5.

Therefore, we can conclude that adversary's knowledge of the public variables $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_b$, $\hat{\mathbf{m}}_b$ and the clear-text \mathbf{m}_b , which leads to deducing $\mathbf{p}_b + \mathbf{s} \mod 2^{128}$, can not reduce the space from which \mathbf{k} , \mathbf{s} and \mathbf{p}_b are sampled.

If \mathbf{k} , \mathbf{s} and \mathbf{p}_b are generated by a TRNG, then any of the 2^{128} many possiblities are equally likely to correspond to the actual values of \mathbf{k} , \mathbf{s} and \mathbf{p}_b . In other words:

$$H(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{p}_b | \hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b, \mathbf{m}_b) = 128$$

However, since \mathbf{k} could be derived from a password, such that it looks random, but with an entropy $H(\mathbf{k}) \leq 128$, and since finding any of the numbers \mathbf{k} , \mathbf{s} and \mathbf{p}_b deterministically leads to finding the others, therefore it follows that:

$$H(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{p}_b | \hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b, \mathbf{m}_b) = H(\mathbf{k})$$

The numbers **s** and \mathbf{p}_b are generated by a TRNG by definition, therefore the weakest element in the chain can only be \mathbf{k} .

Since the public variables $\hat{\mathbf{s}}$, $\hat{\mathbf{p}}_b$ and $\hat{\mathbf{m}}_b$, and the cleartext \mathbf{m}_b are exhaustively all of the outputs of Băhēm that can be accessible to an adversary, and since they can not reduce Băhēm's private variables' space below $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{k})$, therefore no cryptanalysis can reduce their entropy below $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{k})$.

Lemma 1 (Secure private values).

$$H(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{p}_b | \hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b, \mathbf{m}_b) = H(\mathbf{k})$$

It is trivially implied from lemma 1 that, since the private values \mathbf{s} and \mathbf{p}_b maintain an entropy of $H(\mathbf{k})$, so does their 128-bit summation $\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{p}_b \mod 2^{128}$, which is Băhēm's XOR encryption pad. Therefore, Băhēm's encryption pad has to be secure as well.

Lemma 2 (Secure encryption pad).

$$H(\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{p}_b \mod 2^{128} | \hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b) = \min[H(\mathbf{m}_b), H(\mathbf{k})]$$

Since Băhēm is an XOR cryptosystem, and since its encryption pad is $H(\mathbf{k})$ -bits secure (lemma 2), therefore it necessarily follows by Shannon's perfect secrecy [3] that Băhēm's encryption is either $H(\mathbf{k})$ -bits secure, or $H(\mathbf{m}_b)$ -bits secure, whichever is smaller.

Theorem 1 (Secure encryption).

$$H(\mathbf{m}_b|\hat{\mathbf{s}}, \hat{\mathbf{p}}_b, \hat{\mathbf{m}}_b) = \min[H(\mathbf{m}_b), H(\mathbf{k})]$$

Note: Băhēm does not aim at achieving perfect secrecy, as perfect secrecy requires a usually-impractical key that is as long as the length |**m**| of the cleartext message **m** itself, with an unnecessarily too large upper security bound that is worth |**m**| many bits of entropy.

Băhēm rather aims at achieving a security that is worth min[$H(\mathbf{m}_b)$, $H(\mathbf{k})$] entropy bits. Unlike the OTP, this is *practically* secure and only requires pre-sharing a small 128-bit key.

Shannon's proof of perfect secrecy of the OTP is cited only for its relevance as an XOR cryptosystem.

3 Implementation Examples

3.1 C Functions

Listings 1 and 2 show example C functions for encrypting and decrypting session keys.

Listings 3 and 4 show the same but for encrypting and decrypting cleartext and ciphertext blocks, respectively.

In these examples, all encryptions and decryptions happen in-place whenever possible, so the caller does not have to allocate separate memory for the output. The only excepton is listing 1, where the unencrypted session key is required to encrypt the subsequent cleartext blocks. Also, since 128-bit wide CPU instructions are not common, the examples operate in 64-bit basis, each time with a different 64-bit part of the pre-shared and session keys.

Listing 1: Session key encryption function example.

Listing 2: Session key decryption function example.

```
void baheem_session_dec(
    uint64_t *k, /* pre-shared key */
    uint64_t *s /* session key */
) {
    s[0] -= k[0];
    s[1] -= k[1];
}
```

Listing 3: Block encryption function example.

```
void baheem_block_enc(
    uint64_t *k, /* pre-shared key
    uint64_t *s, /* session key
                                      */
   uint64_t *p, /* pad keys
                                      */
    uint64_t *m, /* message
    size_t len /* length of m and p */
    size_t i;
    for (i = 0; i < len; i += 2) {
       m[i] ^= p[i]
                       + s[0];
       m[i+1] = p[i+1] + s[1];
              += k[0];
       p[i]
       p[i+1] += k[1];
   }
}
```

Listing 4: Block decryption function example.

```
void baheem_block_dec(
    uint64_t *k, /* pre-shared key
   uint64_t *s, /* session key
   uint64_t *p, /* pad keys
                                      */
   uint64_t *m, /* message
    size_t len /* length of m and p */
) {
    size_t i;
    for (i = 0; i < len; i += 2) {
        p[i] -= k[0];
       p[i+1] -= k[1];
       m[i] ^= p[i]
                         + s[0];
       m[i+1] = p[i+1] + s[1];
    }
}
```

3.2 A File Encryption Tool

Alyal is an single-threaded implementation to demonstrate Băhēm's practical utility with real-world scenarios. Internally, Alyal uses the functions in listings 1 to 4.

3.2.1 Installation

```
git clone \
   https://codeberg.org/rajululkahf/alyal
cd alyal
make
make test

3.2.2 Usage
alyal (enc|dec) IN OUT [TRNG]
alyal help
```

To encrypt a cleartext file a and save it as file b:

alyal enc a b

To decrypt the latter back to its cleartext form and save it as file c:

alyal dec b c

3.2.3 Benchmark

This is a benchmark that was performed on a computer with a 3.4GHz Intel Core i5-3570K CPU, 32GB RAM, 7200 RPM hard disks, Linux 5.17.4-gentoo-x86-64, and OpenSSL 1.1.1n.

	${\rm OpenSSL}$	Alyal		
	ChaCha20	${ m Breve{a}har{e}m}$		
		/dev/random	file.rand	
Encrypt	$0.90 \mathrm{\ secs}$	2.58 secs	1.38 secs	
500MB	1.06 secs	2.60 secs	1.35 secs	
	1.04 secs	2.58 secs	1.35 secs	
Decrypt	$0.89 \mathrm{secs}$	0.82 secs		
500MB	1.12 secs	$0.87 \mathrm{\ secs}$		
	1.06 secs	$0.82\;\mathrm{secs}$		

Table 2: Wall-clock run-time comparison between OpenSSL's ChaCha20, and Alyal's Băhēm implementation with two sources as the TRNG: /dev/random and file.rand; the latter is simply /dev/random that was prepared in advance.

Table 2 shows that, while the early Băhēm prototype, Alyal, has a faster decryption run-time than OpenSSL's ChaCha20, it has a slower encryption run-time. However:

- The differences in run-time are insignificant for most applications, which proves Băhēm's practical utility in the real world.
- 2. Băhēm's provable security should arguably justify waiting the extra seconds, or fractions of seconds in case the TRNG is prepared in advance, for the 500MB data, specially that many user applications involve encrypting much smaller data sizes with unnoticeable time difference
- 3. Preparing the random bits in advance significantly reduces the encryption time as shown with the file.rand case in table 2, and can be optimised further should it be prepared in memory.
- 4. Alyal is currently single-threaded despite Băhēm's capacity for high parallelism as all blocks are independent. This gives room for future versions to be significantly faster.

4 Conclusions

This paper proposed Băhēm with the following properties:

Provably secure: No cryptanalysis can degrade its security below $min[H(\mathbf{m}), H(\mathbf{k})]$ bits.

Fast: Requires only three additions (one per-session, two per-block) and a single XOR per encryption or decryption alike.

Highly parallelisable as the encryption, or decryption, of any bit is independent of other bits.

Băhēm's single-threaded prototype, Alyal, outperformed OpenSSL's ChaCha20 when decrypting files, despite Băhēm's 1-bit overhead, which demonstrates that such overhead is negligible in practice.

While the prototype has a slower encryption runtime due to its use of a TRNG, optimising it is trivial by preparing the TRNG in advance.

Simple: Băhēm's simplicity implies fewer expected number of implementation bugs, and therefore higher practical security.

Another interesting advantage of this simplicity is that it allows Băhēm to be used with a mere pen and a paper should one lack a computer, such as the case with post-apocalyptic scenarios.

For example, in a post-apocalyptic scenario, one can generate the random numbers \mathbf{p}_b and \mathbf{q}_b by rolling dies enough number of times until adequate entropy is obtained, and then using a pen and a paper to calculate the ciphertext as per algorithm 1.

Since Băhēm does not require repeating rounds over and over, Băhēm is significantly simpler to perform using a pen and a paper than, say, ChaCha20, AES [4], etc, which require many repeated rounds that make it too tedious for a human to perform by the pen and paper method.

Declarations

All data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article. Implementation code is available in the following repository:

https://codeberg.org/rajululkahf/alval

References

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