#### Myrto Arapinis School of Informatics University of Edinburgh

February 29, 2015

4 ロ ト 4 日 ト 4 三 ト 4 三 ト 2 9 Q (\* 1/16)

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

<ロ > < 回 > < 回 > < 三 > < 三 > 三 の Q (~ 2/16

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

▶ Encryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}$ .  $E(k, m) = k \oplus m$ 

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

▶ Encryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}$ .  $E(k, m) = k \oplus m$ 

$$k = 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1$$
$$m = 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1$$
$$c = 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0$$

<ロ > < 回 > < 巨 > < 巨 > < 巨 > 三 の Q (\* 2/16

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

▶ Encryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}$ .  $E(k, m) = k \oplus m$ 

k	=	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	
т	=	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	
С	=	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	

▶ Decryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall c \in \mathcal{C}$ .  $D(k, c) = k \oplus c$ 

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

▶ Encryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}$ .  $E(k, m) = k \oplus m$ 

k	=	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
т	=	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1

 $c = 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0$ 

▶ Decryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall c \in \mathcal{C}$ .  $D(k, c) = k \oplus c$ 

k	=	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
С	=	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
т	=	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1

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

▶ Encryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall m \in \mathcal{M}$ .  $E(k, m) = k \oplus m$ 

k	=	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
т	=	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1

 $c = 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0$ 

▶ Decryption:  $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$ .  $\forall c \in \mathcal{C}$ .  $D(k, c) = k \oplus c$ 

k	=	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
С	=	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	0

 $m = 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1$ 

► Consistency:  $D(k, E(k, m)) = k \oplus (k \oplus m) = m$ 

2/16

#### Definition

A cipher (E, D) over  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K})$  satisfies perfect secrecy if for all messages  $m_1, m_2 \in \mathcal{M}$  of same length  $(|m_1| = |m_2|)$ , and for all ciphertexts  $c \in C$ 

$$|\Pr(E(k, m_1) = c) - \Pr(E(k, m_2) = c)| \le \epsilon$$

where  $k \xleftarrow{r} \mathcal{K}$  and  $\epsilon$  is some "negligible quantity".

Theorem (Shannon 1949)

The One-Time Pad satisfies perfect secrecy

Theorem (Shannon 1949)

The One-Time Pad satisfies perfect secrecy

<u>Proof:</u> We first note that for all messages  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and all ciphertexts  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 

Pr(E(k,m)=c)

where  $k \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$ .

<ロ > < 回 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < < / > < < < / > < < < < / >

#### Theorem (Shannon 1949)

The One-Time Pad satisfies perfect secrecy

<u>Proof:</u> We first note that for all messages  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and all ciphertexts  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 

$$Pr(E(k,m)=c) = \frac{\#\{k\in\mathcal{K}: k\oplus m=c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$

where  $k \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$ .

<ロ > < 回 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > < < / > < < < / > < < < < / >

#### Theorem (Shannon 1949)

The One-Time Pad satisfies perfect secrecy

<u>Proof:</u> We first note that for all messages  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and all ciphertexts  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 

$$Pr(E(k,m) = c) = \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: k \oplus m = c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$
$$= \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: k = m \oplus c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$

where  $k \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$ .

4 ロ ト 4 回 ト 4 三 ト 4 三 ト 三 9 Q (\*
4/16

#### Theorem (Shannon 1949)

The One-Time Pad satisfies perfect secrecy

<u>Proof:</u> We first note that for all messages  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and all ciphertexts  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 

$$Pr(E(k,m) = c) = \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: k \oplus m = c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$
$$= \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: k = m \oplus c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$

where  $k \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$ .

#### Theorem (Shannon 1949)

The One-Time Pad satisfies perfect secrecy

<u>Proof:</u> We first note that for all messages  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and all ciphertexts  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 

$$Pr(E(k,m) = c) = \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: k \oplus m = c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$
$$= \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: k = m \oplus c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$

where  $k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}$ . Thus, for all messages  $m_1, m_2 \in \mathcal{M}$ , and for all ciphertexts  $c \in C$ 

$$|Pr(E(k,m_1)=c)-Pr(E(k,m_2)=c)| \leq$$

4 ロ ト 4 回 ト 4 三 ト 4 三 ト 三 9 Q (\*
4/16

#### Theorem (Shannon 1949)

The One-Time Pad satisfies perfect secrecy

<u>Proof:</u> We first note that for all messages  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  and all ciphertexts  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 

$$Pr(E(k,m) = c) = \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: \ k \oplus m = c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$
$$= \frac{\#\{k \in \mathcal{K}: \ k = m \oplus c\}}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$
$$= \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{K}}$$

where  $k \xleftarrow{r} \mathcal{K}$ . Thus, for all messages  $m_1, m_2 \in \mathcal{M}$ , and for all ciphertexts  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ 

$$|Pr(E(k,m_1)=c) - Pr(E(k,m_2)=c)| \leq \left|\frac{1}{\#\mathcal{K}} - \frac{1}{\#\mathcal{K}}\right| = 0$$

< □ > < 部 > < 差 > < 差 > 差 > 差 の Q (~ 5/16)

- ► Key-length!
  - The key should be as long as the plaintext.

- ► Key-length!
  - The key should be as long as the plaintext.
- Getting true randomness!
  - ► The key should not be guessable from an attacker.

- ► Key-length!
  - The key should be as long as the plaintext.
- Getting true randomness!
  - ► The key should not be guessable from an attacker.
- Perfect secrecy does not capture all possible attacks

- Key-length!
  - The key should be as long as the plaintext.
- Getting true randomness!
  - ► The key should not be guessable from an attacker.
- Perfect secrecy does not capture all possible attacks
  - OTP is subject to two-time pad attacks given m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ k and m<sub>2</sub> ⊕ k, we can compute m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ m<sub>2</sub> = (m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ k) ⊕ (m<sub>2</sub> ⊕ k) English has enough redundancy s.t. m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ m<sub>2</sub> → m<sub>1</sub>, m<sub>2</sub>

- Key-length!
  - The key should be as long as the plaintext.
- Getting true randomness!
  - ► The key should not be guessable from an attacker.
- Perfect secrecy does not capture all possible attacks
  - OTP is subject to two-time pad attacks given m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ k and m<sub>2</sub> ⊕ k, we can compute m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ m<sub>2</sub> = (m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ k) ⊕ (m<sub>2</sub> ⊕ k) English has enough redundancy s.t. m<sub>1</sub> ⊕ m<sub>2</sub> → m<sub>1</sub>, m<sub>2</sub>
  - OTP is malleable given the ciphertext c = E(k, m) with  $m = to \ bob : m_0$ , it is possible to compute the ciphertext c' = E(k, m') with  $m' = to \ eve : m_0$  $c' := c \oplus "to \ bob : 00 \dots 00" \oplus "to \ eve : 00 \dots 00"$

► Goal: make the OTP practical

- ► Goal: make the OTP practical
- ► Idea: use a pseudorandom key rather than a really random key

- ► Goal: make the OTP practical
- ► Idea: use a pseudorandom key rather than a really random key
  - ► The key will not really be random, but will look random

- ► Goal: make the OTP practical
- ► Idea: use a pseudorandom key rather than a really random key
  - ► The key will not really be random, but will look random
  - The key will be generated from a key seed using a Pseudo-Random Generator (PRG)
     G: {0,1}<sup>s</sup> → {0,1}<sup>n</sup> with s << n</li>

- ► Goal: make the OTP practical
- ► Idea: use a pseudorandom key rather than a really random key
  - ► The key will not really be random, but will look random

6/16

- The key will be generated from a key seed using a Pseudo-Random Generator (PRG)
   G: {0,1}<sup>s</sup> → {0,1}<sup>n</sup> with s << n</li>
- Encryption using a PRG G:  $E(k,m) = G(k) \oplus m$

- ► Goal: make the OTP practical
- ► Idea: use a pseudorandom key rather than a really random key
  - ► The key will not really be random, but will look random

6/16

- The key will be generated from a key seed using a Pseudo-Random Generator (PRG)
   G: {0,1}<sup>s</sup> → {0,1}<sup>n</sup> with s << n</li>
- Encryption using a PRG G:  $E(k,m) = G(k) \oplus m$
- Decryption using a PRG G:  $D(k,c) = G(k) \oplus c$

- ► Goal: make the OTP practical
- ► Idea: use a pseudorandom key rather than a really random key
  - ► The key will not really be random, but will look random
  - The key will be generated from a key seed using a Pseudo-Random Generator (PRG)
     G: {0,1}<sup>s</sup> → {0,1}<sup>n</sup> with s << n</li>
- Encryption using a PRG G:  $E(k,m) = G(k) \oplus m$
- Decryption using a PRG  $G: D(k,c) = G(k) \oplus c$
- Stream ciphers are subject to two-time pad attacks

- ► Goal: make the OTP practical
- ► Idea: use a pseudorandom key rather than a really random key
  - ► The key will not really be random, but will look random
  - The key will be generated from a key seed using a Pseudo-Random Generator (PRG)
     G: {0,1}<sup>s</sup> → {0,1}<sup>n</sup> with s << n</li>
- Encryption using a PRG G:  $E(k,m) = G(k) \oplus m$
- Decryption using a PRG  $G: D(k,c) = G(k) \oplus c$
- Stream ciphers are subject to two-time pad attacks
- Stream ciphers are malleable



▶ Stream cipher invented by Ron Rivest in 1987



- ► Stream cipher invented by Ron Rivest in 1987
- ► Consists of 2 phases:





- ► Stream cipher invented by Ron Rivest in 1987
- ► Consists of 2 phases:



► Main data structure: array *S* of 256 bytes.



- Stream cipher invented by Ron Rivest in 1987
- Consists of 2 phases:



- ▶ Main data structure: array *S* of 256 bytes.
- Used in HTTPS and WEP



- Stream cipher invented by Ron Rivest in 1987
- Consists of 2 phases:



- ► Main data structure: array S of 256 bytes.
- ▶ Used in HTTPS and WEP
- Weaknesses of RC4:



- ► Stream cipher invented by Ron Rivest in 1987
- Consists of 2 phases:



- ▶ Main data structure: array S of 256 bytes.
- ▶ Used in HTTPS and WEP
- Weaknesses of RC4:
  - First bytes are biased
     → drop the first to 256 generated bytes



- ► Stream cipher invented by Ron Rivest in 1987
- Consists of 2 phases:



- ▶ Main data structure: array S of 256 bytes.
- Used in HTTPS and WEP
- Weaknesses of RC4:
  - First bytes are biased
     → drop the first to 256 generated bytes
  - ► subject to related keys attacks
     → choose randomly generated keys as seeds
    - E ⇒ E ∽ Q ( 7/16

### **RC4:** initialisation

```
for i := 0 to 255 do

S[i] := i

end

j := 0

for i := 0 to 255 do

j := (j + S[i] + K[i(mod |K|)])(mod 256)

swap(S[i], S[j])

end

i := 0
```

*j* := 0

## RC4: key stream generation

```
while generatingOutput

i := i + 1 \pmod{256}

j := j + S[i] \pmod{256}

swap(S[i], S[j])

output(S[S[i] + S[j] \pmod{256}])

end
```

### WEP uses RC4



Initialisation Vector (IV): 24-bits long string

< □ > < @ > < 클 > < 클 > = ∽ < ♡ < ↔ 10 / 16

<ロト < 回 ト < 直 ト < 直 ト < 直 ト 差 の Q () 11/16

► two-time pad attack: IV is 24 bits long, so the key is reused after at most 2<sup>24</sup> frames

 $\longrightarrow use \ \text{longer} \ \text{IVs}$ 

- ► two-time pad attack: IV is 24 bits long, so the key is reused after at most 2<sup>24</sup> frames → use longer IVs
- Fluhrer, Mantin and Shamir (FMS) attack (related keys attack):
  - the keys only differ in the 24 bits IV
  - first bytes of key stream known because standard headers are always sent
  - for certain IVs knowing m bytes of key and keystream means you can deduce byte m+1 of key

 $\longrightarrow$  instead of using related IVs, generate IVs using a PRG

- ► two-time pad attack: IV is 24 bits long, so the key is reused after at most 2<sup>24</sup> frames → use longer IVs
- Fluhrer, Mantin and Shamir (FMS) attack (related keys attack):
  - the keys only differ in the 24 bits IV
  - first bytes of key stream known because standard headers are always sent
  - for certain IVs knowing m bytes of key and keystream means you can deduce byte m+1 of key

 $\longrightarrow$  instead of using related IVs, generate IVs using a PRG

#### Remark

The FMS attack does not apply to RC4-based SSL (TLS), since SSL generates the encryption keys it uses for RC4 by hashing, meaning that different SSL sessions have unrelated keys

<ロ > < 回 > < 回 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > 三 の Q (~ 12 / 16)

• 
$$\mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^s$$

4 ロ ト 4 部 ト 4 注 ト 4 注 ト 2 少 3 3 4 12 / 16

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^s$
- Main data structure: register R of s bits

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^s$
- Main data structure: register R of s bits
- Initialisation: R := k

- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^s$
- Main data structure: register R of s bits
- Initialisation: R := k
- Keystream generation: 1-bit output per round

taps:  $i_1, i_2, \dots i_{\ell}$ feedback bit:  $R[i_1] \oplus R[i_2] \oplus \dots \oplus R[i_{\ell}]$ output bit: R[s]



- $\mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^s$
- ► Main data structure: register *R* of *s* bits
- Initialisation: R := k
- ► Keystream generation: 1-bit output per round

taps:  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_\ell$ feedback bit:  $R[i_1] \oplus R[i_2] \oplus \dots \oplus R[i_\ell]$ output bit: R[s]



- Broken LFSR-based stream ciphers:
  - ► DVD encryption: CSS (2 LFSRs)
  - ► GSM encryption: A5 (3 LFSRs)
  - - 12/16

<ロト < 部 > < き > < き > き う < ご 13/16

• 
$$\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^{40}$$

▶ 
$$\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^{40}$$

▶ Data structures: 17-bits LFSR  $(R_{17})$  and 25-bits LFSR  $(R_{25})$ 

▶ 
$$\mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^{40}$$

▶ Data structures: 17-bits LFSR  $(R_{17})$  and 25-bits LFSR  $(R_{25})$ 

► Initialisation: 
$$R_{17} := 1 || \mathcal{K}[0 - 15]$$
  
 $R_{25} := 1 || \mathcal{K}[16 - 39]$ 

▶ 
$$\mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^{40}$$

▶ Data structures: 17-bits LFSR (*R*<sub>17</sub>) and 25-bits LFSR (*R*<sub>25</sub>)

► Initialisation: 
$$R_{17} := 1 || K[0 - 15]$$
  
 $R_{25} := 1 || K[16 - 39]$ 

Keystream generation: 1-byte output per round



Can be broken in time  $2^{17}$ . The idea of the attack is as follows:

 Because of structure of MPEG-2, first 20 bytes of plaintext are known

- Because of structure of MPEG-2, first 20 bytes of plaintext are known
- ► Hence also first 20 bytes of keystream are known

- Because of structure of MPEG-2, first 20 bytes of plaintext are known
- ► Hence also first 20 bytes of keystream are known
- Given output of 17 bit LFSR, can deduce output of 25 bit LFSR by subtraction

- Because of structure of MPEG-2, first 20 bytes of plaintext are known
- ► Hence also first 20 bytes of keystream are known
- Given output of 17 bit LFSR, can deduce output of 25 bit LFSR by subtraction
- ► Hence try all 2<sup>17</sup> possibilities for 17 bit LFSR and if generated 25 bit LFSR produces observed keystream, cipher is cracked

**Project eStream**: project to "identify new stream ciphers suitable for widespread adoption", organised by the EU ECRYPT network  $\rightarrow$  HC-128, Rabbit, Salsa20/12, SOSEMANUK,

Grain v1, MICKEY 2.0, Trivium

Project eStream: project to "identify new stream ciphers suitable for widespread adoption", organised by the EU ECRYPT network → HC-128, Rabbit, Salsa20/12, SOSEMANUK, Grain v1, MICKEY 2.0, Trivium

Conjecture

These eStream stream ciphers are "secure"

<ロ > < 回 > < 回 > < 三 > < 三 > < 三 > 三 の Q (~ 16 / 16

▶ Perfect secrecy does not capture all possible attacks.

 $\longrightarrow$  need for different security definition

- ▶ Perfect secrecy does not capture all possible attacks.
   → need for different security definition
- Theorem (Shannon 1949) Let (E, D) be a cipher over (M, C, K). If (E, D) satisfies perfect secrecy, then the keys should be at least as long as the plaintexts (|M| ≤ |K|).
   ⇒ Stream ciphers do not satisfy perfect secrecy because the keys in K are smaller than the messages in M
   → need for different security definition

- ▶ Perfect secrecy does not capture all possible attacks.
   → need for different security definition
- Theorem (Shannon 1949) Let (E, D) be a cipher over (M, C, K). If (E, D) satisfies perfect secrecy, then the keys should be at least as long as the plaintexts (|M| ≤ |K|).
   ⇒ Stream ciphers do not satisfy perfect secrecy because the keys in K are smaller than the messages in M
   → need for different security definition
- The design of crypto primitives is a subtle and error prone task: define threat model, propose construction, prove that breaking construction would solve an underlying hard problem.

   → use standardised publicly know primitives

- ▶ Perfect secrecy does not capture all possible attacks.
   → need for different security definition
- Theorem (Shannon 1949) Let (E, D) be a cipher over (M, C, K). If (E, D) satisfies perfect secrecy, then the keys should be at least as long as the plaintexts (|M| ≤ |K|).
   ⇒ Stream ciphers do not satisfy perfect secrecy because the keys in K are smaller than the messages in M
   → need for different security definition
- The design of crypto primitives is a subtle and error prone task: define threat model, propose construction, prove that breaking construction would solve an underlying hard problem.

   → use standardised publicly know primitives
- Crypto primitives are secure under a precisely defined threat model.
  - $\rightarrow$  respect the security assumptions of the crypto primitives you use