Cryptography III: Symmetric Ciphers Computer Security Lecture 7

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¹Based on original lecture notes by David Aspinall

Outline

Stream ciphers

Block ciphers

DES and Rijndael

Summary

Stream ciphers and block ciphers

Symmetric-key encryption schemes are often characterised as *stream ciphers* or *block ciphers*, but the distinction can be fuzzy.

- A stream cipher is an encryption scheme which treats the plaintext symbol-by-symbol (e.g., by bit or byte);
- security in a stream cipher lies in a changing keystream rather than the encryption function, which may be simple.
- A block cipher is an encryption scheme which breaks up the plaintext message into *blocks* of a fixed length (e.g., 128 bits), and encrypts one block at a time;
- the block encryption function is a complex function parameterised on a fixed size key.

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Typically, $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{A}$ and a stream of symbols

 $m_1 m_2 m_3 \cdots$

is encrypted using a keystream

 $e_1 e_2 e_3 \cdots$

to generate

$$E_{e_1}(m_1) E_{e_2}(m_2) E_{e_3}(m_3) \cdots$$

Stream ciphers may be

- synchronous (keystream generated independently of the plaintext and ciphertext), or
- self-synchronizing (the keystream is generated as a function of the key and a fixed amount of previous ciphertext).

Vernam cipher and one-time pad

The Vernam cipher is a stream cipher defined on the alphabet A = {0,1}, with a key stream also of binary digits. Each symbol m_i in the message is encoded using the corresponding symbol k_i of the key stream, using exclusive-or:

$$c_i = m_i \oplus k_i$$
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Because $(a \oplus b) \oplus b = a$, the decryption operation is identical:

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If the key string is randomly chosen, and never reused, then this cipher is called a **one-time pad**. Claude Shannon proved that this cipher is unconditionally secure. Unfortunately, to guarantee this, it requires a true random source for key bits (hard to come by), and a key stream as long as the message. This makes it impractical for most applications. It used to be used for high security communications between Washington and Moscow.

Feedback Shift Registers

- More practical than the one-time pad would be to use a pseudorandom keystream, which is *seeded* with a much shorter key. Feedback shift registers (FSRs) are the basic component of many keystream generators, used to produce pseudorandom bit streams.
- An FSR of length n consists of n 1-bit register stages connected together, whose contents s are inputs to a boolean function f. At each tick, the contents are shifted right, and f calculates the feedback digit.



If the initial state is [s_{n-1},..., s₀], then the output sequence s₀, s₁,... is determined by the equation:
s_j = f(s_{j-1}, s_{j-2},...s_{j-n}) for j ≥ n.

In a *n*-length LFSR, the feedback function *f* is set by a *n*-degree *connection polynomial C* with binary coefficients c_i

$$C(X) = 1 + c_1 X + c_2 X^2 \ldots + c_n X^n$$

this determines the feedback function, as:

$$s_j = (c_1s_{j-1} + c_2s_{j-2} + \cdots + c_ns_{j-n}) \mod 2 \qquad \text{for } j \ge n.$$

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- However, LFSRs are insecure. To break, find the length n, and then use a known-plaintext attack of length 2n.
- In practice, some controlled **non-linearity** is added by either non-linear filtering or composition of LFSRs, or LFSR-controlled clocking.

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A *simple substitution cipher* is a block cipher for arbitrary block length *t*. It swaps each letter for another letter, using a permutation of the alphabet.

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- For each e ∈ K define E_e by applying the permutation e to each letter in the plaintext block:

$$E_e(m) = e(m_1)e(m_2)\cdots e(m_t) = c$$

where $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_t$.

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where $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_t$. For each $d \in \mathcal{K}$ we define E_d in exactly the same way,

$$D_d(c) = d(c_1)d(c_2)\cdots d(c_t).$$

• Key pairs are permutations and their inverses, so $d = e^{-1}$, and $D_d(c) = e^{-1}(c_1)e^{-1}(c_2)\cdots e^{-1}(c_t) = m_1m_2\cdots m_t = m.$

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• The corresponding decryption key is $d = (p_1^{-1}, \dots, p_t^{-1})$.

The Vigenère cipher has a block-length of 3, and uses the permutations e = (p₁, p₂, p₃) where p₁ rotates each letter of the alphabet three places to the right, p₂ rotates seven positions, and p₃ ten positions (e may be represented as the word DHK). For example:

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Polyalphabetic substitution ciphers have the advantage over simple substitution ciphers that symbol frequencies are not preserved: a single letter may be encrypted to several different letters, in different positions. However, cryptanalysis is still straightforward, by first determining the block size, and then applying frequency analysis by splitting the letters into groups which are encrypted with the same permutation. So polyalphabetic substitutions are certainly **not secure**.

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The corresponding decryption key is the inverse permutation. This cipher again preserves letter frequencies, which allows easy cryptanalysis. So it is **not secure**. These block ciphers so far are not useful by themselves, but get interesting when combined. A good cipher should add both **confusion** by substitution transformations and **diffusion** by transpositions. Confusion obscures the relationship between the key and the ciphertext. Diffusion spreads out redundancy in the plaintext across the ciphertext. Modern block ciphers apply rounds consisting of substitution and transposition steps.

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- ► The overall encryption function composes the parts:

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Involutions (functions that are their own inverse) are particularly useful in constructing product ciphers. The favourite is XOR: f(x) = x ⊕ c.

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$$L_{i+1} = R_i \qquad R_{i+1} = L_i \oplus f(K_i, R_i).$$

The inverse operation is:

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Modes for block ciphers: ECB

- Block ciphers can be used in various modes. Important reading exercise: compare the security, efficiency, inbuilt data integrity, and error recovery of these different modes.
- ECB: electronic codebook mode. Each block of plaintext x_j is enciphered independently.



This is the simplest mode, but it has obvious failings.

Modes for block ciphers: CBC

► CBC: cipherblock chaining mode. Each plaintext block x_j is XORed with the previous ciphertext c_{j-1} block before encryption. An *initialization vector* (IV) (optionally secret, fresh for each message) is used for c₀.

$$c_j = E_k(x_j \oplus c_{j-1})$$
 $x_j = c_{j-1} \oplus E_k^{-1}(c_j)$



Modes for block ciphers: OFB

 OFB: output-feedback mode. Block cipher encryption function used as synchronous stream cipher (*internal* feedback).



Modes for block ciphers: CFB

 CFB cipher-feedback mode. Encryption function of block cipher used as self-synchronizing stream cipher for symbols of size up to block size.



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- Main threat isn't cryptanalytic, but (slightly optimised) exhaustive search in small key-space. Remedied by 3DES (triple DES), 3 keys:

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Several other DES variants, including DESX, using whitenening keys k₁, k₂ as C = E_k(P ⊕ k₁) ⊕ k₂. (Used in Win2K encrypting FS).

Overview of DES internals [FIPS 46-3]



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- Security: mathematical, cryptanalytic resistance; randomness;
- Efficiency: time/space, hardware and software;
- Flexibility: block sizes 128 bits, key sizes 128/192/256 bits.
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 Rijndael is built as a network of linear transformations and substitutions, with 10, 12 or 14 rounds, depending on key size.

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- Block ciphers DES, 3DES, Rijndael outlined previously.
 - IDEA, 64-bit blocks, 128-bit key. Efficient: uses XOR, addition and multiplication operations. Patented for commercial use. Used in PGP.

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- RC4/ARCFOUR. RSADSI trade secret; code posted anonymously in 1994. Variable key-size, byte-wide, OFB with 8 × 8 S-box. Very fast & simple, widely licensed (Lotus Notes, Oracle SQL), less widely studied.

Block ciphers • DES, 3DES, Rijndael outlined previously.

IDEA, 64-bit blocks, 128-bit key. Efficient: uses XOR, addition and multiplication operations. Patented for commercial use. Used in PGP.

 Skipjack. NSA designed, once classified (key escrow and LEAF issue) and patented under a secrecy order; now public domain. Block size 64 bits, 80-bit key. Used in tamperproof Clipper and Capstone chips.

References

The DES diagram is from Smart, Chapter 8 and the block cipher diagrams are from Figure 7.1 in the HAC.

Alfred J. Menezes, Paul C. Van Oorschot, and Scott A. Vanstone, editors. Handbook of Applied Cryptography. CRC Press Series on Discrete Mathematics and Its Applications. CRC Press, 1997. Online version at

http://www.cacr.math.uwaterloo.ca/hac.



Bruce Schneier. Applied Cryptography. John Wiley & Sons, second edition, 1996.



Nigel Smart. Cryptography: An Introduction. 3rd edition, 2008, at http://www.cs.bris.ac.uk/~nigel/Crypto_Book/.

Recommended Reading

Chapters 7 and 8 of Smart.