## Introduction to Cryptography

## Lecture 2

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## Perfect Cipher

- What type of security would we like to achieve?
- "Given C, the adversary has no idea what M is"
- Impossible since adversary might have a-priori information
- In an "ideal" world, the message will be delivered in a magical way, out of the reach of the adversary
- We would like to achieve similar security
- Definition: a perfect cipher
- $\operatorname{Pr}($ plaintext $=P /$ ciphertext $=C)=\operatorname{Pr}($ plaintext $=P)$


## Perfect Ciphers

- A simple criteria for perfect ciphers.
- Claim: The cipher is perfect if, and only if, $\forall \mathrm{m}_{1}, \mathrm{~m}_{2} \in \mathrm{M}, \forall$ cipher c ,

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\operatorname{Enc}\left(m_{1}\right)=c\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(\operatorname{Enc}\left(m_{2}\right)=c\right) . \quad \text { (homework) }
$$

- Idea: Regardless of the plaintext, the adversary sees the same distribution of ciphertexts.
- Note that the proof cannot assume that the cipher is the one-time-pad, but rather only that $\operatorname{Pr}($ plaintext $=P /$ ciphertext $=C)=\operatorname{Pr}($ plaintext $=P)$


## Size of key space

- Theorem: For a perfect encryption scheme, the number of keys is at least the size of the message space.
- Proof:
- Consider ciphertext C.
- Must be a possible encryption of any plaintext $m$.
- But, need a different key per message m.
- Corollary: Key length of one-time pad is optimal $)^{*}$


## Computational security

- We should only worry about polynomial adversaries
- Idea: Generate a string which "looks random" to any polynomial adversary. Use it instead of a OTP.
- Looks random?
- Fraction of bits set to 1 is $\approx 50 \%$
- Longest run of 0 's is of length $\approx \log (\mathrm{n})$,
- Is that sufficient?...
- Enumerating a set of statistical tests that the string should pass is not enough.


## Computational security - Pseudo-randomness

- Pseudo-random string: no efficient observer can distinguish it from a uniformly random string of the same length
- Motivation: Indistinguishable objects are equivalent
- The foundation of modern cryptography
- (t, $\varepsilon$ )-Pseudo-random generator (PRG)
$-\mathrm{G}:\{0,1\}^{\mathrm{k} \mid} \Rightarrow\{0,1\}^{|\mathrm{m}|} \quad|\mathrm{k}|<|\mathrm{m}|$, polynomially computable.
- $\forall$ adversary D running in time $t$, for $s \in_{R}\{0,1\}^{|k|}, \quad u \in_{R}\{0,1\}^{|m|}$, it holds that $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{D}(\mathrm{G}(\mathrm{s})) \neq \mathrm{D}(\mathrm{u})<\varepsilon$


## Pseudo-random generators

- Pseudo-random generator (PRG)
- $\mathrm{G}:\{0,1\}^{\mathrm{k} \mid} \Rightarrow\{0,1\}^{|\mathrm{m}|} \quad|\mathrm{k}|<|\mathrm{m}|$, polynomially computable.
- $\forall$ polynomial time adversary D, for $s \in_{R}\{0,1\}^{|k|}, \quad u \in_{R}\{0,1\}^{|m|}$, it holds that $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{D}(\mathrm{G}(\mathrm{s})) \neq \mathrm{D}(\mathrm{u})$ is negligible
- Polynomial time: running in time $t(n)$ s.t. $\exists$ polynomial $p()$ for which $t(n)<p(n)$ for all large enough $n$
- Negligible: the difference is a function $\varepsilon(n)$ s.t. $\forall$ polynomials $q()$, for all large enough $n$ it holds that $\varepsilon(n)<q(n)$


## Pseudo-random generator



## Using a PRG for Encryption

- Key: a (short) random seed $s \in\{0,1\}^{|k|}$.
- Message $m=m_{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{~m}_{|\mathrm{m}|}$.
- Encryption:
- Use the output of the PRG as a one-time pad. Namely,
- Generate G(s) $=\mathrm{g}_{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{~g}_{\text {|m| }}$
- Ciphertext C = $g_{1} \oplus \mathrm{~m}_{1}, \ldots, \mathrm{~g}_{|\mathrm{m}|} \oplus \mathrm{m}_{|\mathrm{m}|}$


## Using a PRG for Encryption: Security

- One time pad:
- $\forall \mathrm{m}_{1}, \mathrm{~m}_{2} \in \mathrm{M}, \forall \mathrm{c}$, the probability that c is an encryption of $m_{1}$ is equal to the probability that $c$ is an encryption of $m_{2}$.
- I.e., $\forall \mathrm{m}_{1}, \mathrm{~m}_{2} \in \mathrm{M} \forall \mathrm{c}$, it is impossible to tell whether c is an encryption of $m_{1}$ or of $m_{2}$.
- Security of pseudo-random encryption:
- Show that $\forall \mathrm{m}_{1}, \mathrm{~m}_{2} \in \mathrm{M}$, no polynomial time adversary can distinguish between the encryptions of $m_{1}$ and of $m_{2}$.
- Proof by reduction: if one can break the security of the encryption (distinguish between encryptions of $m_{1}$ and of $m_{2}$ ), it can also break the security of the PRG (distinguish it from random).


## Proof of Security



Distinguishing between (1) and (4), implies distinguishing between (1) and (2), or (2) and (3), or (3) and (4).

## Symmetric systems used in practice

- Are not based on computational problems
- Are (usually) not proven secure by reductions
- Are designed for specific input and key lengths
- Are very efficient
- Stream ciphers
- Meant to implement a pseudo-random generator
- Usually used for encryption in the same way as OTP
- Examples: A5, RC4, SEAL.
- Require synchronization


## Block Ciphers

- Plaintexts, ciphertexts of fixed length, $|\mathrm{m}|$. Usually, |m|=64 or |m|=128 bits.
- The encryption algorithm $E_{k}$ is a permutation over $\{0,1\}^{|m|}$, and the decryption $D_{k}$ is its inverse.
- Ideally, use a random permutation. Instead, use a pseudo-random permutation, keyed by a key k .
- Encrypt/decrypt whole blocks of bits
- Might provide better encryption by simultaneously working on a block of bits
- Error propagation: one error in ciphertext affects whole block
- Delay in encryption/decryption
- Different modes of operation


## ECB Encryption Mode (Electronic Code Book)



Namely, encrypt each plaintext block separately.

## Properties of ECB

- Simple and efficient
- Parallel implementation is possible
- Does not conceal plaintext patterns
$-\operatorname{Enc}\left(\mathrm{P}_{1}, \mathrm{P}_{2}, \mathrm{P}_{1}, \mathrm{P}_{3}\right)$
- Active attacks are possible (plaintext can be easily manipulated by removing, repeating, or interchanging blocks).


## CBC Encryption Mode (Cipher Block Chaining)



Previous ciphertext is XORed with current plaintext before encrypting current block. An initialization vector IV is used as a "seed" for the process. IV can be transmitted in the clear (unencrypted).

CBC Mode


## Properties of CBC

- Asynchronous: the receiver can start decrypting from any block in the ciphertext.
- Errors in one ciphertext block propagate to the decryption of the next block (but that's it).
- Conceals plaintext patterns (same block -> different ciphertext blocks)
- But if IV is fixed, CBC does not hide not common prefixes
- No parallel implementation is known
- Plaintext cannot be easily manipulated.
- Standard in most systems: SSL, IPSec, etc.


## OFB Mode (Output FeedBack)



- An initialization vector $\mathrm{s}_{0}$ is used as a "seed" for generating a sequence of "pad" blocks $\mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{i}}$. $\left(\mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{i}}=\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k}}\left(\mathrm{s}_{\mathrm{i}-1}\right)\right.$ )
- Essentially a stream cipher
- $\mathrm{s}_{0}$ can be sent in the clear.


## Properties of OFB

- Synchronous stream cipher. I.e., the two parties must know $\mathrm{s}_{0}$ and the current bit position.
- The parties must synchronize the location they are encrypting/decrypting.
- Errors in ciphertext do not propagate
- Implementation:
- Pre-processing is possible
- No parallel implementation known
- Conceals plaintext patterns
- Active attacks (by manipulating the plaintext) are possible


## Design of Block Ciphers

- More an art/engineering challenge than science. Based on experience and public scrutiny.
- "Diffusion": each intermediate/output bit affected by many input bits
- "Confusion": avoid structural relationships between bits
- Cascaded (round) design: the encryption algorithm is composed of iterative applications of a simple round
- A common round function: Feistel network


## Feistel Networks

- Encryption:
- Input: $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{i}-1}\left|\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{i}-1} \cdot\right| \mathrm{L}_{\mathrm{i}-1}\left|=\left|\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{i}-1}\right|\right.$
$-L_{i}=R_{i-1}$
$-R_{i}=L_{i-1} \oplus F\left(K_{i}, R_{i-1}\right)$
- Decryption?
- No matter which function is used as F, we obtain a permutation (i.e., $F$ is reversible).
- The same code/circuit, with keys is reverse order, can be used for decryption.
- Theoretical result [LubRac]: If
 $F$ is a pseudo-random function then 4 rounds give a pseudorandom permutation


## DES (Data Encryption Standard)

- A Feistel network encryption algorithm:
- How many rounds?
- How are the round keys generated?
- What is F?
- DES (Data Encryption Standard)
- Designed by IBM and the NSA, 1977.
- 64 bit input and output
- 56 bit key
- 16 round Feistel network
- Each round key is a 48 bit subset of the key
- Throughput $\approx$ software: $10 \mathrm{Mb} / \mathrm{sec}$, hardware: $1 \mathrm{~Gb} / \mathrm{sec}$ (in 1991!).
- Criticized for unpublished design decisions (designers did not want to disclose differential cryptanalysis).
- Linear cryptanalysis: about $2^{40}$ known plaintexts


## DES diagram



## DES F functions



## Double DES

- DES is out of date due to brute force attacks on its short key (56 bits)
- Why not apply DES twice with two keys?
- Double DES: DES ${ }_{\mathrm{k} 1, \mathrm{k} 2}=\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k} 2}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k} 1}(\mathrm{~m})\right.$ )
- Key length: 112 bits

- But, double DES is susceptible to a meet-in-the-middle attack, requiring $\approx 2^{56}$ operations and storage.
- Compared to brute a force attack, requiring $2^{112}$ operations and $\mathrm{O}(1)$ storage.


## Meet-in-the-middle attacks

- Meet-in-the-middle attack
$-C=E_{k 2}\left(E_{k 1}(m)\right)$
$-D_{k 2}(c)=E_{k 1}(m)$
- The attack:
- Input: ( $m, c$ ) for which $c=E_{k 2}\left(E_{k 1}(m)\right)$
- For every possible value of $k_{1}$, generate and store $E_{k 1}(m)$
- For every possible value of $k_{2}$, check if $D_{k 2}(c)$ is in the table
- Might obtain several options for ( $\mathrm{k}_{1}, \mathrm{k}_{2}$ ). Check them or repeat the process again with a new $(m, c)$ pair.
- The attack is applicable to any iterated cipher


## Triple DES

- DDES $_{\mathrm{k} 1, \mathrm{k} 2}=\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k} 1}\left(\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{k} 2}\left(\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{k} 1}(\mathrm{~m})\right)\right.$
- Why use Enc(Dec(Enc( ))) ?
- Backward compatibility: setting $\mathrm{k}_{1}=\mathrm{k}_{2}$ is compatible with single key DES
- Only two keys
- Effective key length is 112 bits
- Why not use three keys? There is a meet-in-the-middle attack with $2^{112}$ operations
- Provides good security. Widely used. Less efficient.


## AES (Advanced Encryption Standard)

- Design initiated in 1997 by NIST
- Goals: improve security and software efficiency of DES
- 15 submissions, several rounds of public analysis
- The winning algorithm: Rijndael
- Input block length: 128 bits
- Key length: 128, 192 or 256 bits
- Multiple rounds (10, 12 or 14 ), but does not use a Feistel network


## What we've learned today

- Perfect security implies $|\mathrm{M}| \leq|\mathrm{K}|$
- Computational security
- Pseudo-randomness, Pseudo-random generator
- Block ciphers
- DES, AES
- Meet in the middle attack

