



# Elements of Cryptography. Symmetric Encryption.

NSE, sections 2.1-2.2  
WSPC, chapter 3

# Cryptography

- Cryptography is a collection of mathematical techniques for protecting information;
- Most important cryptographic technique is *encryption/decryption*

# Cryptography for information protection

Level	What to protect	Method
3	Existence of message	Steganography
2	Metadata of message	Privacy-enhancing technologies
1	Content of message	Encryption
0	Nothing	None

Table by I.A. Goldberg

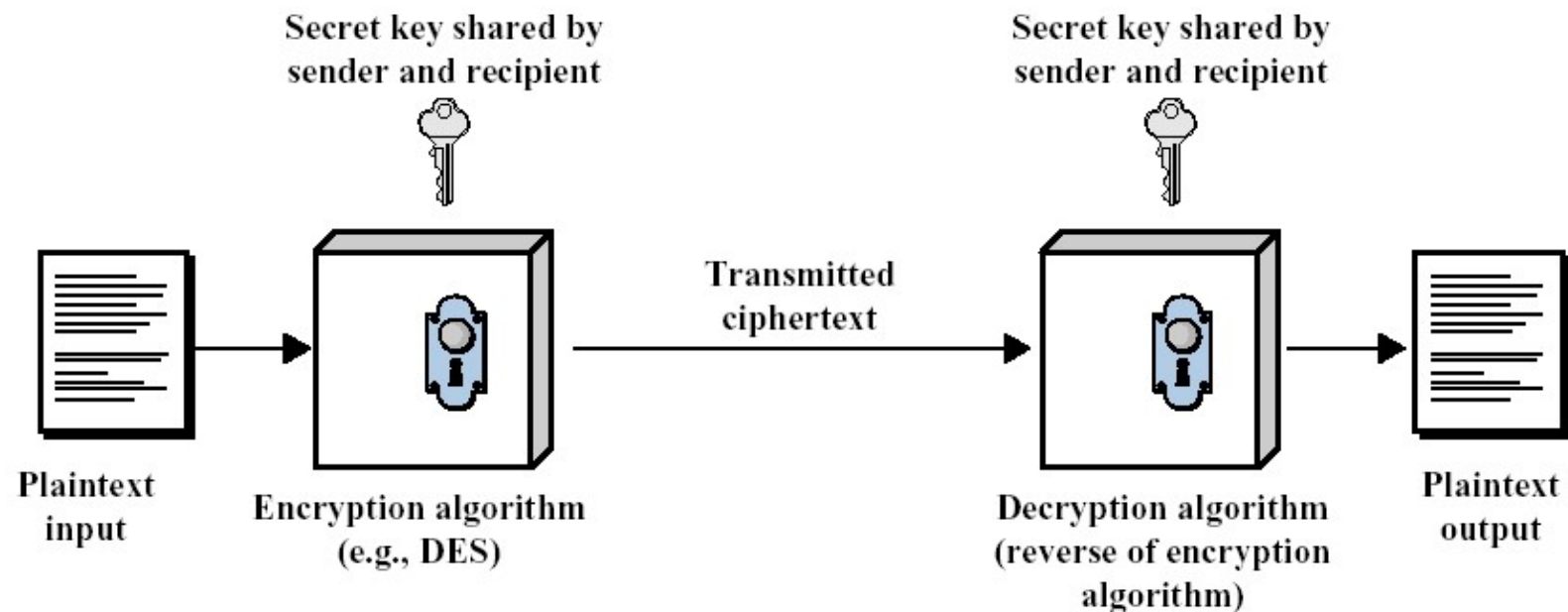
Encryption is used

- Directly at the level 1
- As an important ingredient at the levels 2 and 3

# Two categories of encryption algorithms

- Symmetric encryption (or symmetric key encryption):
  - to encrypt and decrypt a message the *same key* (a piece of information; sequence of bits) is used
- Asymmetric encryption (or asymmetric key encryption):
  - One key is used for encryption (usually publicly known, *public key*);
  - Another key is used for decryption (usually *private*, or *secret key*)

# Symmetric (conventional) encryption



**Figure 2.1 Simplified Model of Symmetric Encryption**

# Components of Symmetric Encryption

- Plaintext
- Encryption algorithm
- Secret key
- Ciphertext (encrypted text)
- Decryption algorithm

# Security of symmetric encryption

- **Important principle:**
- security of symmetric encryption depends on
  - the secrecy of the key,
  - Not the secrecy of the algorithm

## **Why?**

- It is difficult to *invent* new algorithms and *keep* them in a secret;
- Producing keys is much easier;

# Requirements for symmetric encryption

- *Strong* encryption algorithm:
  - The adversary (opponent) should be unable to decrypt encrypted text, even if he/she knows several pairs (plaintext, encrypted plaintext)
- Sender and receiver must have obtained copies of the secret key in a secure way and *must keep the key secure*



# Two more classifications of cryptosystems

- **Type of operations used**
  - Substitutions;
  - Transpositions;
- **The way in which plaintext is processed**
  - Block cipher: input block of elements (e.g. characters) is transformed to the output block at once;
  - Stream cipher: processes the input elements continuously, one element at a time.

# Classics: substitutions

- Each element of the plaintext (bit, letter, group of bits) is mapped to another element
- **Example:**

A -> B

B -> C

C -> D

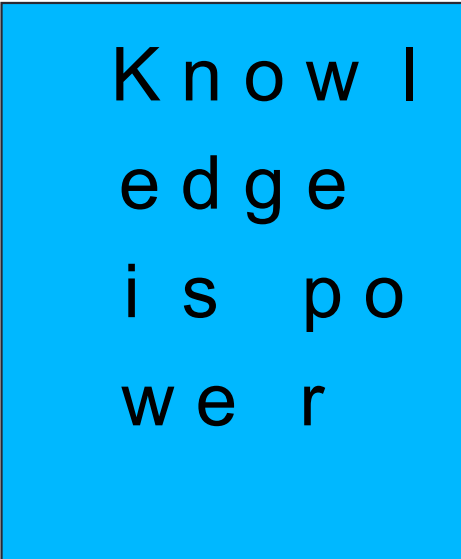
....

Z -> A

Plaintext **“Knowledge is power”**  
is transformed into  
**“Lopxmfeh j rpxfs”**

# Classics: transposition

- Elements of the plaintext are re-arranged.
- Example: “Knowledge is power”

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K n o w l  
e d g e  
i s p o  
w e r

Is transformed into

“Keiwndseog weprl o “

# Two remarks

- Most modern algorithms include multiple stages of *interleaving* substitutions and transpositions;
- The encryption uses a *key* (unlike simple examples on the previous slides)

# Cryptanalysis and computationally secure schemes

- **Cryptanalysis:** The process of attempting to discover the plaintext or key;
- Depends very much on the information available;
- An encryption scheme is *computationally secure* if
  - The cost of breaking the scheme exceeds the value of the encrypted information;
  - The time required to break the scheme is more than lifetime of the information;

# Types of Attacks (Cryptanalysis)

**Table 2.1 Types of Attacks on Encrypted Messages**

Type of Attack	Known to Cryptanalyst
Ciphertext only	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Encryption algorithm</li><li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li></ul>
Known plaintext	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Encryption algorithm</li><li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li><li>•One or more plaintext-ciphertext pairs formed with the secret key</li></ul>
Chosen plaintext	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Encryption algorithm</li><li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li><li>•Plaintext message chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding ciphertext generated with the secret key</li></ul>
Chosen ciphertext	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Encryption algorithm</li><li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li><li>•Purported ciphertext chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding decrypted plaintext generated with the secret key</li></ul>
Chosen text	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>•Encryption algorithm</li><li>•Ciphertext to be decoded</li><li>•Plaintext message chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding ciphertext generated with the secret key</li><li>•Purported ciphertext chosen by cryptanalyst, together with its corresponding decrypted plaintext generated with the secret key</li></ul>

# Brute-Force Approach in Cryptanalysis

- If nothing else helps and there is no weakness in the encryption algorithms, brute-force approach may be applied;
- Try every possible key until correct translation of the encrypted text into plaintext is obtained;
- **Possible issue:** how does cryptanalyst recognize correct plaintext? Imagine it has been compressed before encryption;
- **Main issue:** time !!!

# Time required for brute-force search

Key Size (bits)	Number of Alternative Keys	Time required at 1 encryption/ $\mu$ s	Time required at $10^6$ encryptions/ $\mu$ s
32	$2^{32} = 4.3 \times 10^9$	$2^{31} \mu\text{s} = 35.8$ minutes	2.15 milliseconds
56	$2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$	$2^{55} \mu\text{s} = 1142$ years	10.01 hours
128	$2^{128} = 3.4 \times 10^{38}$	$2^{127} \mu\text{s} = 5.4 \times 10^{24}$ years	$5.4 \times 10^{18}$ years
168	$2^{168} = 3.7 \times 10^{50}$	$2^{167} \mu\text{s} = 5.9 \times 10^{36}$ years	$5.9 \times 10^{30}$ years
26 characters (permutation)	$26! = 4 \times 10^{26}$	$2 \times 10^{26} \mu\text{s} = 6.4 \times 10^{12}$ years	$6.4 \times 10^6$ years



# Analysis vs cryptanalysis

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- One of the main goals when creating new encryption/decryption algorithm is to make it as difficult as possible for *cryptanalysis* (difficult to break);
- One the other hand, making an algorithm easy to *analyse* could be beneficial, because then
  - Analysis of the algorithm can provide with a higher level of assurance;



Symmetric Encryption. Feistel cipher.  
DES and AES

# Block vs stream ciphers

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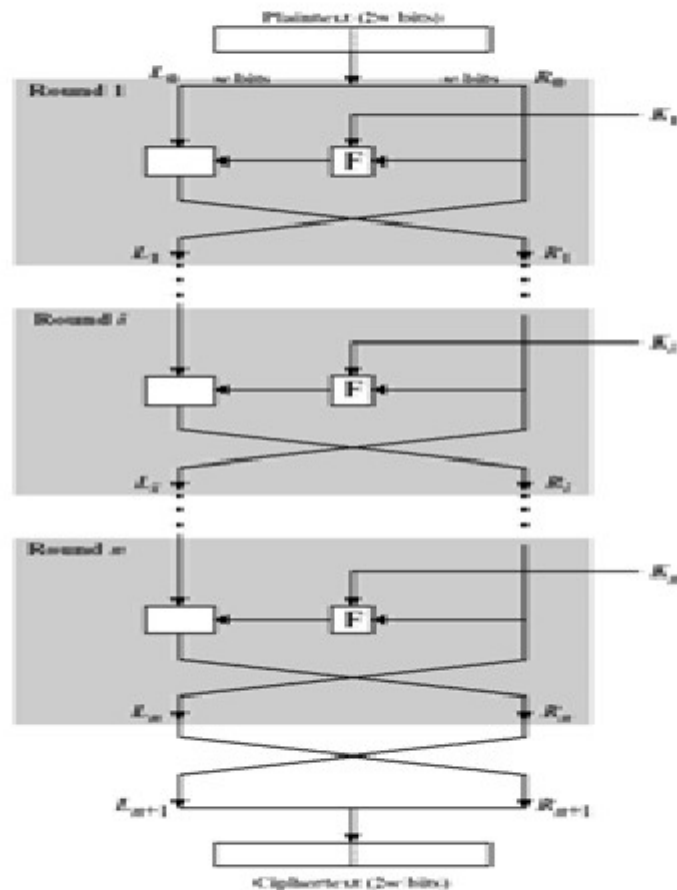
- **The way in which plaintext is processed**
  - Block cipher: input block of elements (e.g. characters) is transformed to the output block at once;
  - Stream cipher: processes the input elements continuously, one element at a time.

# Feistel cipher structure

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- Most symmetric block encryption algorithms have a structure proposed by H. Feistel in 1973;
- The input is divided into the blocks of even numbers of elements;
- Then multiple stages of substitutions and transpositions is applied;
- Multiple keys (derived from a single key) are used at different rounds of the algorithm.

# Feistel Cipher Structure



- Input is a plaintext block of the size  $2w$  bits;
- The block is divided into two parts  $L_0$  and  $R_0$ ;
- Two parts going through  $n$  rounds of processing;
- At every round, a function  $F$  (round function) is applied to the right half using a (sub)key, the result is XOR'ed with the left half of the data;
- At every round a new (sub)key may be used; all sub(keys) are generated from the same secret key

# Decryption in a Feistel cipher

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- The same algorithm is used as for encryption;
- The only difference is subkeys should be applied in a reverse order:
  - If for encryption  $K_1, \dots, K_n$  have been used at the rounds  $1, \dots, n$ , then
  - $K_n, \dots, K_1$  are used for decryption at the rounds  $1, \dots, n$ .

# Choices in Feistel network scheme

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- **Block size:** the larger the block size the more secure and slower the scheme is. 64 bits is a usual size;
- **Key size:** the larger key size means the greater security but slower the scheme. 128 bits is the most common key length;
- **Number of rounds:** more rounds means more security;
- **Subkey generation algorithm:** more complex algorithm generally means more difficult cryptanalysis;
- **Round function:** the same as above.



# Symmetric Encryption Algorithms

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## **Most important symmetric block ciphers**

- DES (Data Encryption Standard);
- 3DES (triple DES);
- AES (Advanced Encryption Standard);



# Data Encryption Standard (DES)

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- Adopted in 1977 by National Bureau of Standards (now NIST);
- The algorithm itself is called Data Encryption algorithm (DEA);
- A variant of the Feistel schema;
- Blocks have a size 64-bits;
- The key is 56 bits long;
- Uses 16 rounds of processing;
- From the original 56-bit key, 16 subkeys are generated, one for each round.

# The weakness of DEA

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- **Weakness:** the size of the key (56 bits).

Altogether there are  $2^{56} \approx 7.2 \times 10^{16}$  different keys of such a length;

- The number is huge, but the special purpose machine “DES cracker” built in 1998 was able to break the algorithm in a less than 3 days using brute-force search;
- **Remedy:** increase the length of the key!! Increasing the length to 128 bits would increase the time of the brute-force search by “DES cracker” to  $10^{18}$  years.

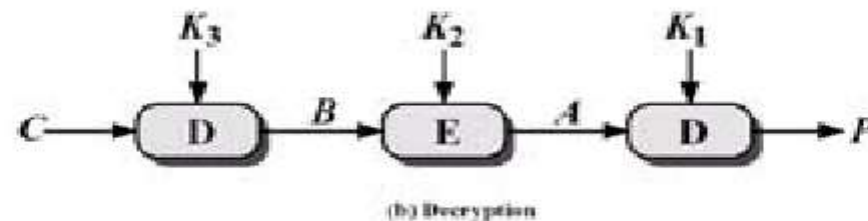
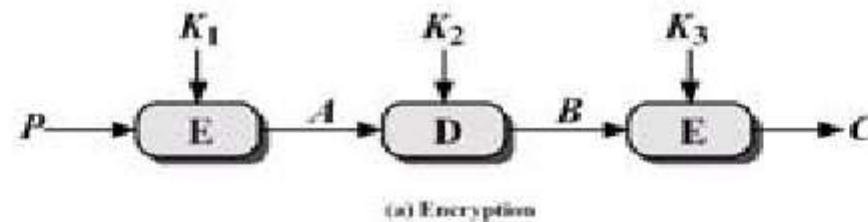
# The strength of DEA

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- The strength of DEA is based on the fact that no essentially better than brute-force search attack is known for DEA;
- In other words, no fatal weakness of DES itself has been discovered (only the weakness related to the small length of the key);
- But, no proof that an efficient attack is impossible.

# Triple DES

- Triple DES (3DES) is a standard introduced in 1985;
- 3DES algorithm does what its name says: it runs DES (rather DEA) algorithm 3 times;
- It uses three keys, one for each execution of DEA;



# Encryption and Decryption in 3DES

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**Encryption:**  $C = E_{K_3}[D_{K_2}[E_{K_1}[P]]]$

**Decryption:**  $P = D_{K_1}[E_{K_2}[D_{K_3}[C]]]$

Where

- $C$  is ciphertext
- $P$  is plaintext
- $E_K[X]$  is encryption of  $X$  using key  $K$
- $D_K[Y]$  is decryption of  $Y$  using key  $K$

3DES is compatible with DES:  $C = E_{K_1}[D_{K_1}[E_{K_1}[P]]] = E_{K_1}[P]$

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# Advanced Encryption Standard

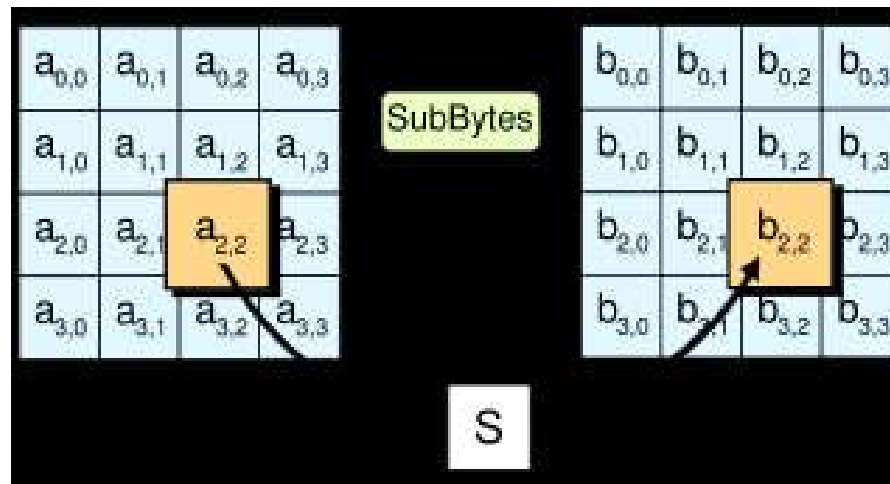
- Designers: J. Daemen, Vincent Rijmen
- First published: 1998
- Became effective as a NIST standard May, 2002
- A variant of substitution-permutation network
- Key size is 128, 192 or 256 bits
- Number of rounds is 10, 12, or 14

# Advanced Encryption Standard

- Design uses theory of finite fields, a branch of algebra;
- Every block of 128 bits is presented as 4 by 4 array of bytes
- Key Expansion: Key  $\rightarrow$  Round keys

# Steps in AES processing, I

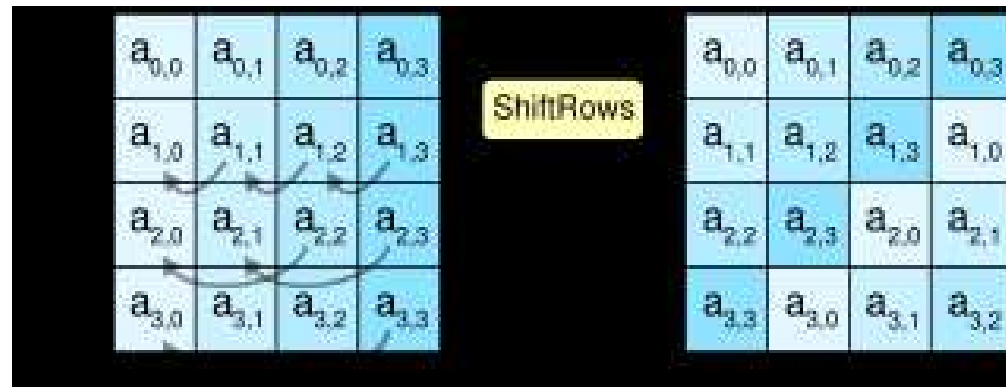
- Every round includes the following steps:
  - **Substitution**: each byte is replaced with another based on lookup table





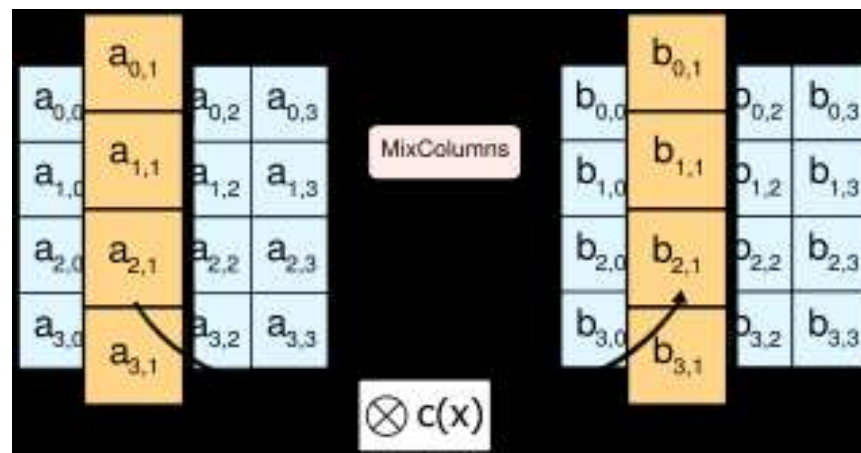
# Steps in AES processing, II

- **ShiftRows**: each row is shifted cyclically certain amount of steps



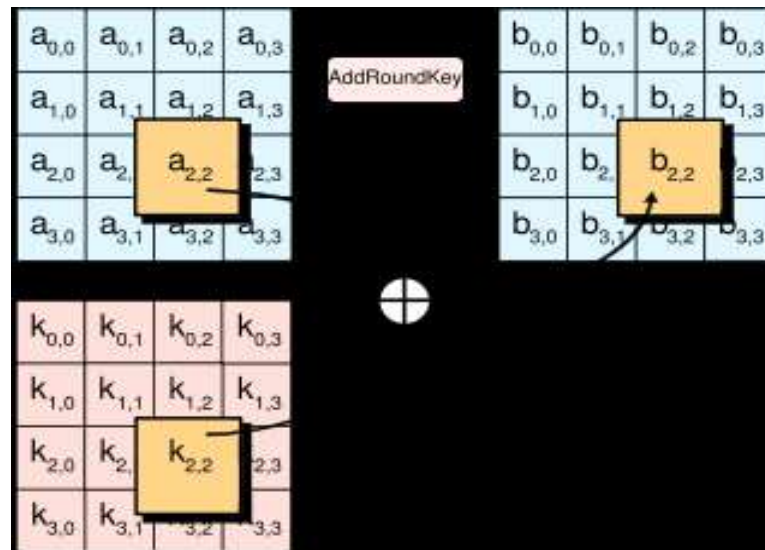
# Steps in AES processing, III

- **MixColumns:** mixing operation on the columns (defined in terms of computations in a finite field).



# Steps in AES processing, IV

- **AddRoundKey**- each byte is combined with the round key



# Security of AES

- Considered secure for use for classified information, secret and top secret level;
- However, there are some concerns related to the algebraic foundations of algorithm – underlying algebraic structure might be used in the attacks in some clever way;
- The above is for Black Box setting; rather efficient Side Channels attacks have been discovered recently



# Symmetric Encryption. Part 2

# Block ciphers modes

- Block ciphers may be used in different modes. Most common modes are
  - Electronic Codebook Mode (ECB)
  - Cipher Block Chaining (CBC)
  - Cipher Feedback Mode (CFB)

# Electronic Codebook Mode (ECB)

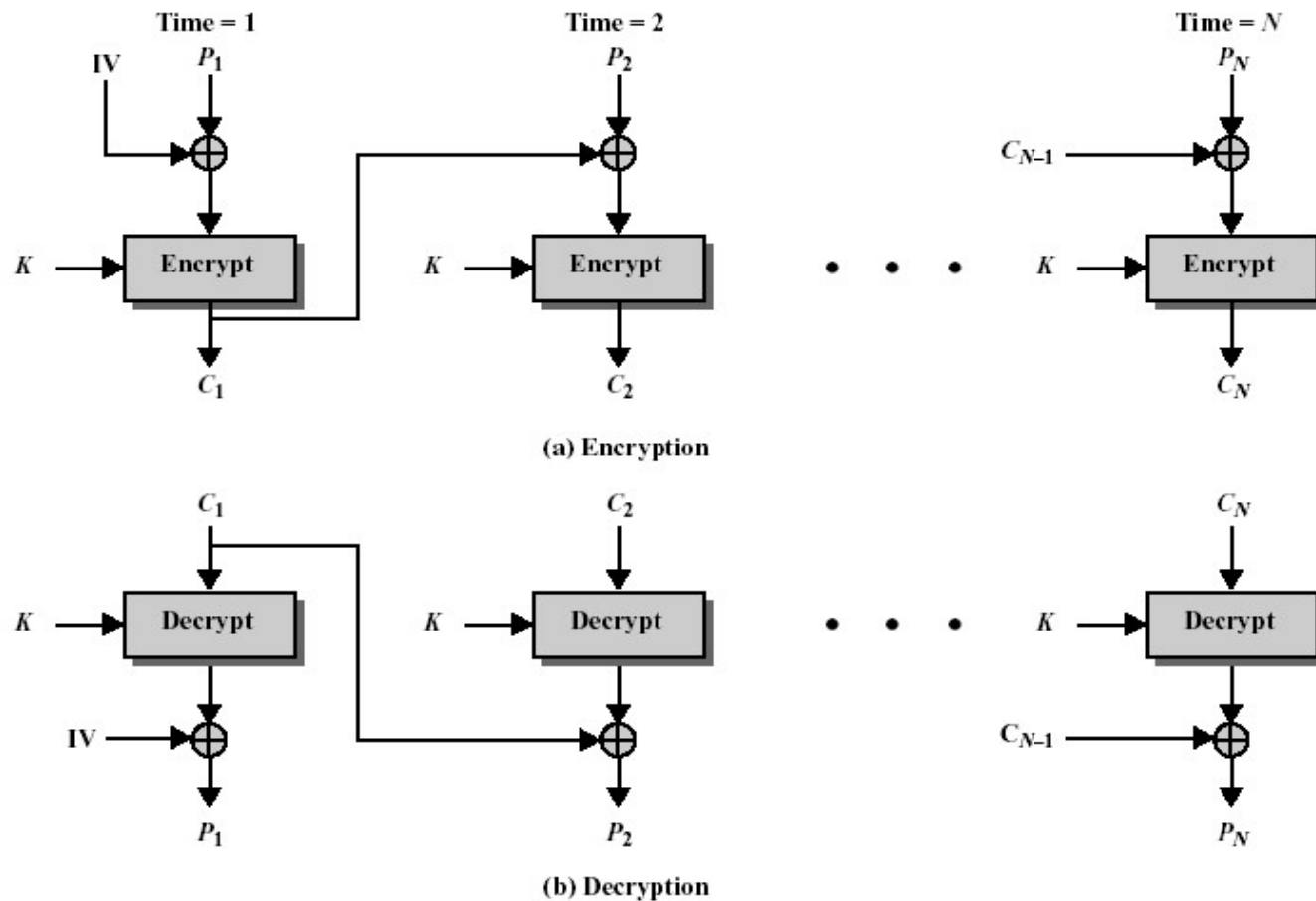
- **Simple mode:** each block, say of size 64 bits is encrypted with the same key;
- For a given block of the plaintext and a given key the result of encryption is unique;
- If a block of plaintext is repeated several times, the result of encryption contains several copies of the same ciphertext;
- So, the encryption of the lengthy (regular) messages might be insecure.

# Cipher Block Chaining Mode (CBC)

- CBC mode fixes abovementioned disadvantage of ECB mode: here the **same** blocks of plaintext may produce **different** blocks of ciphertext;
- **Simple idea:** before encryption a block of the plaintext is XOR'ed with the result of encryption of the previous block;
- For the first block encryption  $C_i = E_K[C_{i-1} \oplus P_i]$  vector (IV) is used;
- It is better to keep both a key and IV secret.



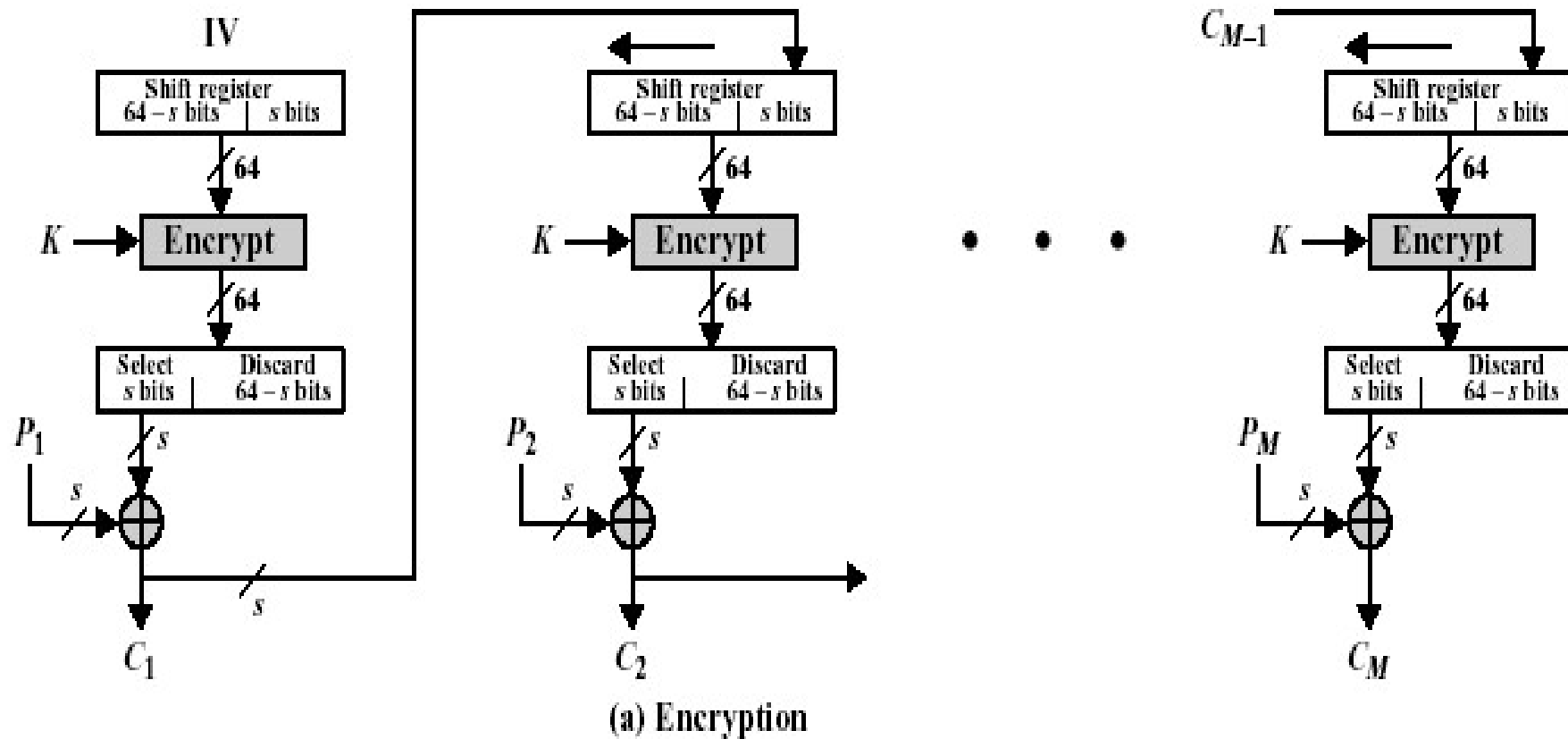
# CBC encryption and decryption



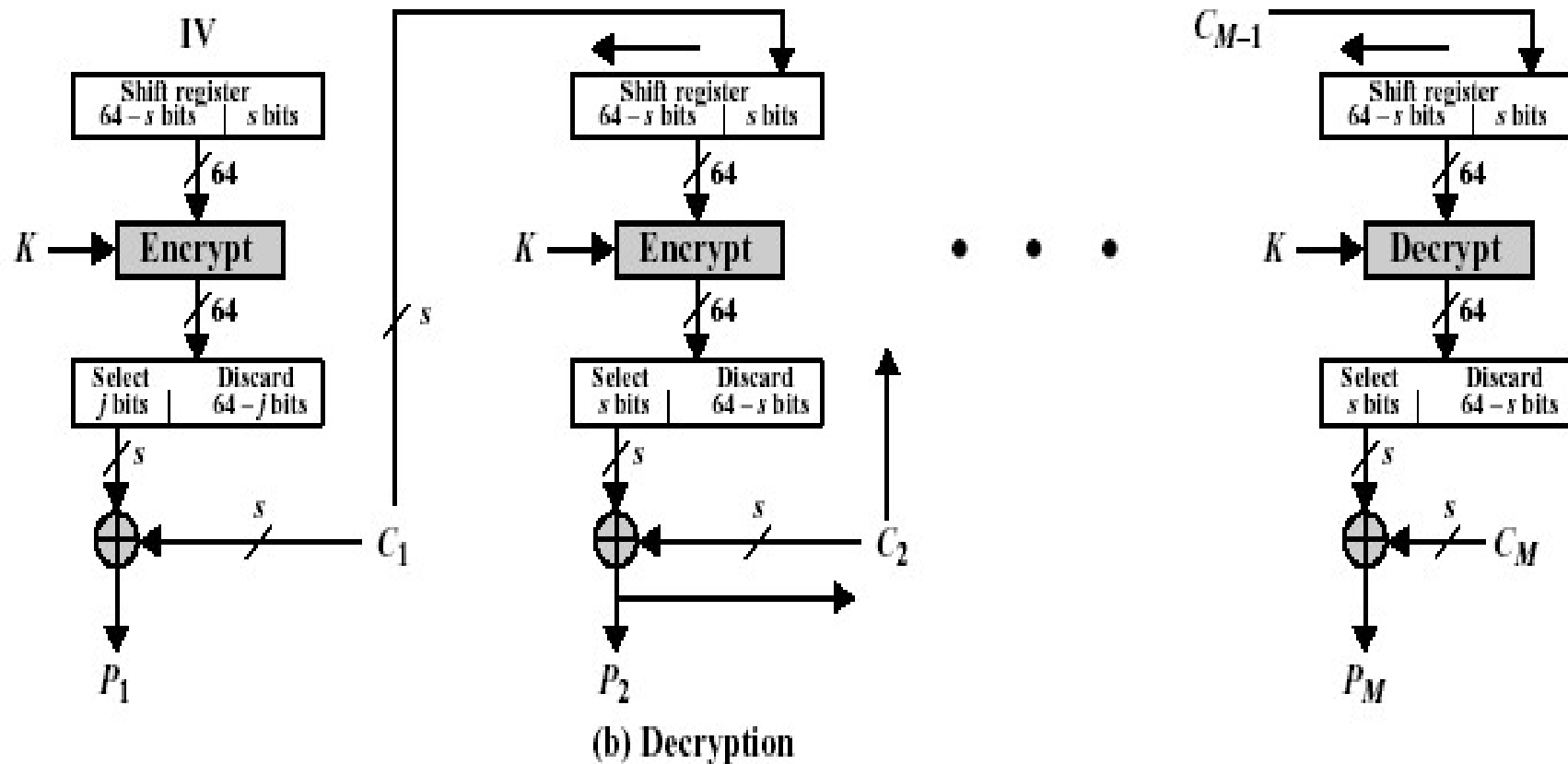
# Cipher Feedback Mode (CFB)

- CFB mode may be used to transform a block cipher to the stream cipher;
- It has a parameter  $s$  (the size of transmission unit); if 8-bit characters are used as transmission unit, then  $s = 8$ ;
- Shift register of the size equal to the size of the block of the block cipher is used (typically it is 64 bits);
- Again, an initialisation vector is needed.

# s-bits CFB encryption



# s-bits CFB decryption



# Key distribution

- **From requirements for symmetric encryption:**
- “Sender and receiver must *have obtained copies of the secret key* in a secure way and must keep the key secure”
- **Important issue:** how to distribute secret keys?

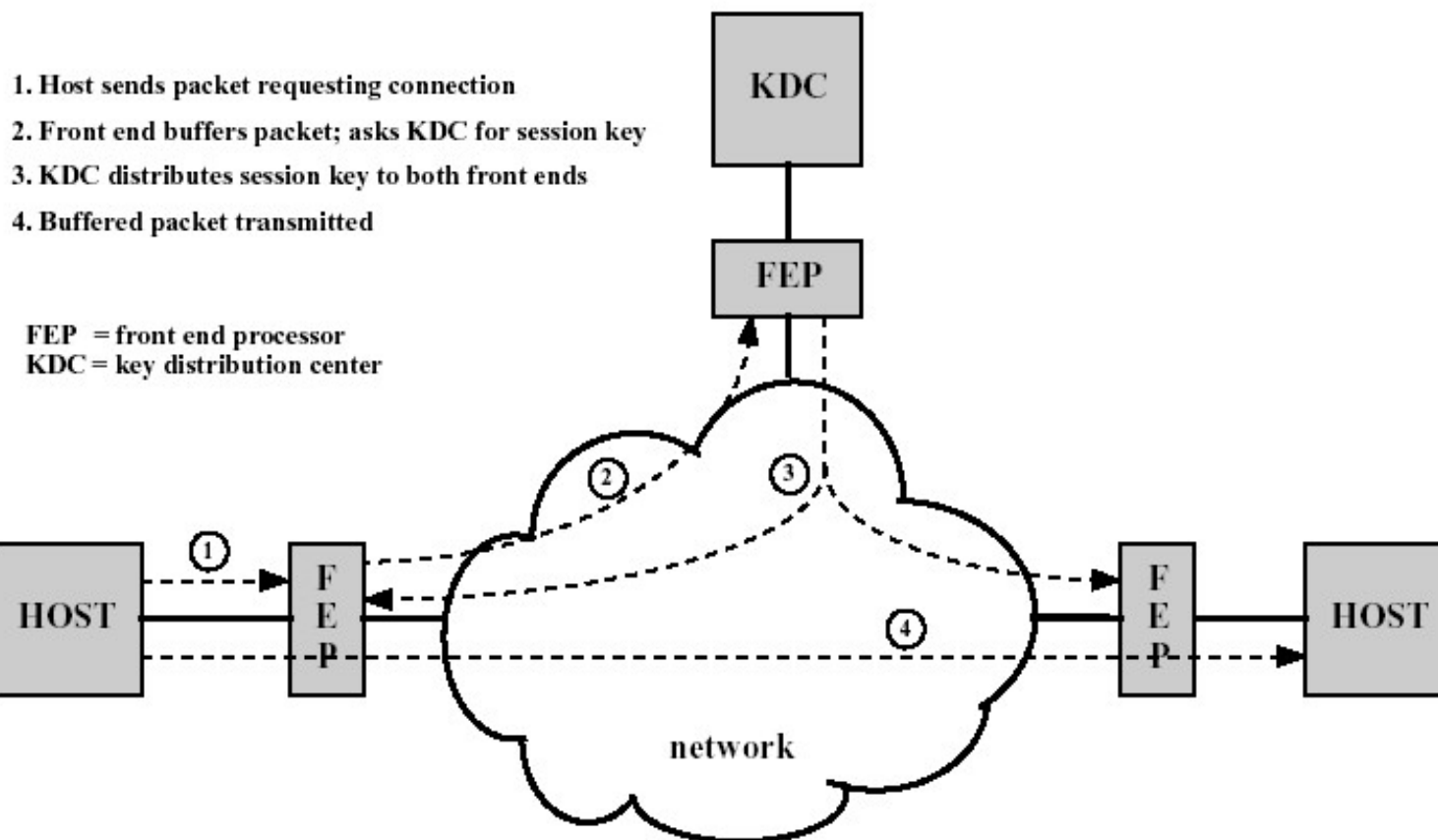
# Key distribution, manual delivery

- For two parties A and B:
- A key could be created by A and delivered physically to B (or vice versa);
- A key could be created by the third trusted party C and delivered physically to A and B;
- Difficult to use in wide area distributed systems, when dynamic connections are needed.

# Key distribution, further techniques

- If A and B have used recently a secret key, one of them could create a new secret key and send it to the partner using old key;
- *Potential problem: once an attacker learned one key, he can disclose all keys afterwards*
- There is a third trusted party C connected by encrypted channels with both A and B. Then C creates a key and distributes it among A and B using encrypted channels;

# Automated key distribution





# Finally

- The option we will discuss next time:
- *Both parties use public-key cryptographic techniques*