CS 361S

# Overview of Symmetric Encryption 

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## Reading Assignment

■cfandacosk
Read Kaufman 2.1-4 and 4.2

## Basic Problem



Given: both parties already know the same secret
Goal: send a message confidentially

Any communication system that aims to guarantee confidentiality must solve this problem

## Kerckhoffs's Principle

-An encryption scheme should be secure even if enemy knows everything about it except the key

- Attacker knows all algorithms

- Attacker does not know random numbers
-Do not'rely on secrecy of the algonthms ("security by obscurity")
Full name:
Easy lesson:
use a good random number generator!

Jean-Guillaume-Hubert-Victor-
François-Alexandre-Auguste
Kerckhoffs von Nieuwenhof

## Randomness Matters!

The Alw Hork ©imes

## Business Day

Technology


Crypto shocker: four of every 1,000 public keys provide no security (updated)
By Dan Goodin | Published 7 days ago

## One-Time Pad (Vernam Cipher)



Cipher achieves perfect secrecy if and only if there are as many possible keys as possible plaintexts, and every key is equally likely (Claude Shannon, 1949)

## Advantages of One-Time Pad

- Easy to compute
- Encryption and decryption are the same operation
- Bitwise XOR is very cheap to compute
-As secure as theoretically possible
- Given a ciphertext, all plaintexts are equally likely, regardless of attacker's computational resources
- ...if and only if the key sequence is truly random
- True randomness is expensive to obtain in large quantities
- ...if and only if each key is as long as the plaintext
- But how do the sender and the receiver communicate the key to each other? Where do they store the key?


## Problems with One-Time Pad

$\rightarrow$ Key must be as long as the plaintext

- Impractical in most realistic scenarios
- Still used for diplomatic and intelligence traffic

Does not guarantee integrity

- One-time pad only guarantees confidentiality
- Attacker cannot recover plaintext, but can easily change it to something else
- Insecure if keys are reused
- Attacker can obtain XOR of plaintexts


## No Integrity



## Dangers of Reuse




症
P2

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \xrightarrow[\rightarrow]{\rightarrow-\overbrace{0}}=1111111 \ldots \xrightarrow{C 2} \\
& \square \vec{\square}=00110010 \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

Learn relationship between plaintexts
$\mathrm{C} 1 \oplus \mathrm{C} 2=(\mathrm{P} 1 \oplus \mathrm{~K}) \oplus(\mathrm{P} 2 \oplus \mathrm{~K})=$
$(\mathrm{P} 1 \oplus \mathrm{P} 2) \oplus(\mathrm{K} \oplus \mathrm{K})=\mathrm{P} 1 \oplus \mathrm{P} 2$

## Reducing Key Size

$\checkmark$ What to do when it is infeasible to pre-share huge random keys?
-Use special cryptographic primitives: block ciphers, stream ciphers

- Single key can be re-used (with some restrictions)
- Not as theoretically secure as one-time pad


## Block Ciphers

Operates on a single chunk ("block") of plaintext

- For example, 64 bits for DES, 128 bits for AES
- Same key is reused for each block (can use short keys)
-Result should look like a random permutation
- Not impossible to break, just very expensive
- If there is no more efficient algorithm (unproven assumption!), can only break the cipher by brute-force, try-every-possible-key search
- Time and cost of breaking the cipher exceed the value and/or useful lifetime of protected information


## Permutation



For N-bit input, N! possible permutations

- Idea: split plaintext into blocks, for each block use secret key to pick a permutation, rinse and repeat
- Without the key, permutation should "look random"


## A Bit of Block Cipher History

- Playfair and variants (from 1854 until WWII)

Feistel structure Textbook

- "Ladder" structure: split input in half, put one half through the round and XOR with the other half
- After 3 random rounds, ciphertext indistinguishable from a random permutation
$\rightarrow$ DES: Data Encryption Standard Textbook
- Invented by IBM, issued as federal standard in 1977
- 64-bit blocks, 56-bit key +8 bits for parity
- Very widely used (usually as 3DES) until recently
- 3DES: DES + inverse DES + DES (with 2 or 3 different keys)


## DES Operation (Simplified)



Procedure must be reversible
(for decryption)

## Remember SHA-1?




## Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)

-US federal standard as of 2001
Based on the Rijndael algorithm
128-bit blocks, keys can be 128, 192 or 256 bits

- Unlike DES, does not use Feistel structure
- The entire block is processed during each round
- Design uses some clever math
- See section 8.5 of the textbook for a concise summary


## Basic Structure of Rijndael



## Encrypting a Large Message

-So, we've got a good block cipher, but our plaintext is larger than 128 -bit block size
$\rightarrow$ Electronic Code Book (ECB) mode

- Split plaintext into blocks, encrypt each one separately using the block cipher
- Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode
- Split plaintext into blocks, XOR each block with the result of encrypting previous blocks
- Also various counter modes, feedback modes, etc.


## ECB Mode



- Identical blocks of plaintext produce identical blocks of ciphertext
$\rightarrow$ No integrity checks: can mix and match blocks


# Information Leakage in ECB Mode <br> [Wikipedia] 



## Adobe Passwords Stolen (2013)

-153 million account passwords

- 56 million of them unique

Encrypted using 3DES in ECB mode rather than hashed

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| 105009730-1--1- | gon@ic. fbi.gov - \|-9nCgb38RHiw=-|-band|-- |
| 108684532-\| - - - | burn@ic.fbi.gov-\|-EQ7fIpT7i/Q=-|-numbers $\mid-$ |
| 33041670-\|-- - | v-1-hRwtmq98mKzioxG6CatHEw=-1-1 |
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|  |  |

## CBC Mode: Encryption



- Identical blocks of plaintext encrypted differently

Last cipherblock depends on entire plaintext

- Still does not guarantee integrity


## CBC Mode: Decryption



## ECB vs. CBC



## Choosing the Initialization Vector

- Key used only once
- No IV needed (can use IV=0)
$\rightarrow$ Key used multiple times
- Best: fresh, random IV for every message
- Can also use unique IV (eg, counter), but then the first step in CBC mode must be $\mathrm{IV}^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathrm{E}(\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{IV})$
- Example: Windows BitLocker
- May not need to transmit IV with the ciphertext
- Multi-use key, unique messages
- Synthetic IV: IV $\leftarrow F\left(k^{\prime}\right.$, message)
- $F$ is a cryptographically secure keyed pseudorandom function


## CBC and Electronic Voting





Found in the source code for Diebold voting machines:
DesCBCEncrypt((des_c_block*)tmp, (des_c_block*) record.m_Data, totalSize, DESKEY, NULL, DES_ENCRYPT)

## CTR (Counter Mode)



Still does not guarantee integrity
$\checkmark$ Fragile if counter repeats

## When Is a Cipher "Secure"?

-Hard to recover plaintext from ciphertext?

- What if attacker learns only some bits of the plaintext? Some function of the bits? Some partial information about the plaintext?
- Fixed mapping from plaintexts to ciphertexts?
- What if attacker sees two identical ciphertexts and infers that the corresponding plaintexts are identical?
- What if attacker guesses the plaintext - can he verify his guess?
- Implication: encryption must be randomized or stateful


## How Can a Cipher Be Attacked?

- Attackers knows ciphertext and encryption algthm
- What else does the attacker know? Depends on the application in which the cipher is used!
- Known-plaintext attack (stronger)
- Knows some plaintext-ciphertext pairs

-Chosen-plaintext attack (even stronger)
- Can obtain ciphertext for any plaintext of his choice

Chosen-ciphertext attack (very strong)

- Can decrypt any ciphertext except the target
- Sometimes very realistic OpenSSL


## Known-Plaintext Attack

[From "The Art of Intrusion"]
Extracting password from an encrypted PKZIP file ...
>"... I opened the ZIP file and found a `logo.tif" file, so I went to their main Web site and looked at all the files named `logo.tif.' I downloaded them and zipped them all up and found one that matched the same checksum as the one in the protected ZIP file"
$\checkmark$ With known plaintext, PkCrack took 5 minutes to extract the key

- Biham-Kocher attack on PKZIP stream cipher


## Chosen-Plaintext Attack


... repeat for any PIN value

## Very Informal Intuition

 Minimum security requirement for a modern encryption scheme-Security against chosen-plaintext attack

- Ciphertext leaks no information about the plaintext
- Even if the attacker correctly guesses the plaintext, he cannot verify his guess
- Every ciphertext is unique, encrypting same message twice produces completely different ciphertexts
Security against chosen-ciphertext attack
- Integrity protection - it is not possible to change the plaintext by modifying the ciphertext


## The Chosen-Plaintext Game

- Attacker does not know the key
- He chooses as many plaintexts as he wants, and receives the corresponding ciphertexts
- When ready, he picks two plaintexts $M_{0}$ and $M_{1}$
- He is even allowed to pick plaintexts for which he previously learned ciphertexts!
- He receives either a ciphertext of $\mathrm{M}_{0}$, or a ciphertext of $\mathrm{M}_{1}$
He wins if he guesses correctly which one it is


## Meaning of "Leaks No Information"

- Idea: given a ciphertext, attacker should not be able to learn even a single bit of useful information about the plaintext
Let Enc( $\left.M_{0}, M_{1}, b\right)$ be a "magic box" that returns encrypted $\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{b}} \quad 0$ or 1
- Given two plaintexts, the box always returns the ciphertext of the left plaintext or right plaintext
- Attacker can use this box to obtain the ciphertext of any plaintext $M$ by submitting $M_{0}=M_{1}=M$, or he can try to learn even more by submitting $M_{0} \neq M_{1}$
-Attacker's goal is to learn just this one bit b


## Chosen-Plaintext Security

Consider two experiments (A is the attacker)

Experiment 0
A interacts with Enc(-,-,0)
and outputs his guess of bit b

Experiment 1
A interacts with Enc $(-,-, 1)$
and outputs his guess of bit $b$

- Identical except for the value of the secret bit
- $b$ is attacker's guess of the secret bit
- Attacker's advantage is defined as
$\operatorname{Prob}(A$ outputs 1 in Exp0) - Prob(A outputs 1 in Exp1)) |
- Encryption scheme is chosen-plaintext secure if this advantage is negligible for any efficient A


## Simple Example

Any deterministic, stateless symmetric encryption scheme is insecure

- Attacker can easily distinguish encryptions of different plaintexts from encryptions of identical plaintexts
- This includes ECB mode of common block ciphers!

Attacker A interacts with Enc $(-,-, b)$
Let $X, Y$ be any two different plaintexts
$\mathrm{C}_{1} \leftarrow \operatorname{Enc}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{X}, \mathrm{b}) ; \quad \mathrm{C}_{2} \leftarrow \operatorname{Enc}(\mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}, \mathrm{b}) ;$
If $C_{1}=C_{2}$ then $b=0$ else $b=1$

- The advantage of this attacker A is 1
$\operatorname{Prob}(A$ outputs 1 if $b=0)=0 \quad \operatorname{Prob}(A$ outputs 1 if $b=1)=1$


## Encrypt + MAC

Goal: confidentiality + integrity + authentication


MAC is deterministic: messages are equal $\Rightarrow$ their MACs are equal
Solution: Encrypt, then MAC (or MAC, then encrypt)

