

Notes - Secret Key Cryptography

- I. Introduction
 - a. Take some fixed-size block (broken off the message, maybe 128 bits worth) and a fixed-size key, and turn it into another block.
 - b. A longer key means more secure
 - c. Generic Block Encryption
 - i. One-to-one, so block sizes are the same (can reliably encrypt / decrypt)
 - ii. Keys need to be long enough to discourage a known-plaintext attack (needs to be longer by about 2 bits every year)
 - iii. Done with substitutions, permutations
 - 1. Substitute: Swap any value with any other
 - 2. Permute: Swap individual bits in the message
 - 3. Combine
 - iv. Want the probability of possible outputs to be distributed randomly: if the opponent doesn't know the key there's no direct way to learn it.
 - v. Bit Spreading: A 1 in position 23 may result in a 1 in any position of the output
- II. DES: Data Encryption Standard
 - a. Used 56-bit keys originally, *perhaps* because the government could break that level of encryption
 - b. Keys are just eight ASCII characters
 - c. Blocks are 64 bits
 - d. Designed to be hard to attack with software, but easier to break with specialized hardware
 - e. It's not a big deal if it's slow in software, since legitimate users only need to do one encryption / decryption (instead of 2⁵⁶ of them)
 - f. Algorithm
 - i. Initial Permutation
 - 1. Swap the bits in a fixed (publicly known) way
 - 2. Adds nothing to security
 - 3. The point: it's easy to do in hardware but harder in software.
 - ii. Break the message into two 32-bit pieces
 - iii. To each piece, apply a key
 - iv. Will do 16 rounds, applying a 48-bit key to each (generated from the original 56-bit key)
 - v. Then perform a final permutation that's the inverse of the initial permutation
 - g. How to Generate Keys
 - i. Keys are originally 64 bits with 1/8 of those for parity
 - ii. We just discard the parity bits for the encryption
 - iii. Generate C_0 , D_0 by permutations of the 56-bit key (each will be 28 bits)
 - iv. Will rotate left by 1 bit for round 1, 2, 9, 16 and by 2 bits for all other rounds. That way we end up using all 28 bits of each key
 - v. So we have 28 + 28 bits; we only need 24 + 24.
 - vi. Take a permutation of C_i for the left half of K_i and a permutation of D_i for the right half of K_i .
 - vii. Thus we've constructed a key for round i.
 - h. Rounds
 - i. Move the right half to the left half $(L_{n+1} = R_n)$
 - ii. $R_{n+1} = L_n \oplus m(R_n, K_n)$ where m() is the "mangler function" (more later)
 - iii. $L_{n+1} = R_n$
 - i. Decryption
 - i. $R_{n+1} = L_n \oplus m(L_{n+1}, K_n)$
 - ii. $R_{n+1} \oplus m(L_{n+1}, K_n) = L_n \oplus \underline{m(L_{n+1}, K_n) \oplus m(L_{n+1}, K_n)}$
 - iii. The underlined part is all zeros, so $R_{n+1} \oplus m(L_{n+1}, K_n) = L_n$
 - iv. $L_n = R_{n+1} \oplus m(L_{n+1}, K_n)$

- $V. R_n = L_{n+1}$
- vi. Decryption is the same as encryption, but swapped
- j. Mangler Function
 - i. Takes the 32-bit R_n, 48-bit key
 - ii. Doesn't affect the ability to encrypt/decrypt. This function just adds security
 - iii. Need to expand R_n to 48 bits by expanding each 4 bits into 6.
 - iv. Each 4 bits borrows a bit from either side (shifting around the ends),
 - 1. Have, say, 0100 1110 1000 1101 ... to start
 - 2. Becomes: 101001 011101 010001 011010
 - v. Now we have the input and key the same length (each 48 bits)
 - vi. Have 8 chunks of 6 bits in each
 - vii. xor together for each chunk, then treat them separately
 - 1. R_n 101001 011101 010001 011010
 - 2. K_n 111111 111111 111111 111111
 - 3. $101001 \oplus 111111 = 010110$
 - viii. Turn each six-bit chunk back into 4 using an S-box
 - 1. Take 010110, output 1100
 - 2. Basically a conversion "function" from 6-bit inputs into 4-bit outputs
 - ix. That yields a 32-bit output (eight chunks of 4 bits)
 - x. Then apply a permutation to the result, that's the final mangler function result
- k. Weak Keys
 - i. Some keys should be avoided (for C₀, D₀)
 - ii. 0000...0000
 - iii. 1111...1111
 - iv. 0101...
 - v. 1010...
- III. IDEA: International Data Encryption Algorithm
 - a. 64-bit blocks, 128-bit keys (more secure)
 - b. All primitive operations map two 16-bit things into one 16-bit thing. In examples here we'll use four-bit values to make it easier to write.
 - c. Three Operations
 - i. $a \oplus b = c (xor)$
 - 1. If you know any two, you can compute the third.
 - 2. $b = c \oplus a$
 - 3. $a = b \oplus c$
 - 4. $1100 \oplus 0100 = 1001$
 - 5. $0110 \oplus 0110 = 0000$
 - 6. With ⊕, any value is its own additive inverse
 - ii. a+b=c
 - 1. But mod 2¹⁶ at the end (ignore the carrying bit)
 - 2. $(a + b) \mod 2^{16} = a + b$
 - 3. If a + b = c, $b = c a \pmod{2^{16}}$
 - 4. May get a negative difference, but will always have a positive remainder
 - 5. 10 + 1 = 11
 - 6. 9 + 8 = 1
 - iii. $a \otimes b = a \times b \mod (2^{16} + 1)$
 - 1. Re-encode using the values 1 to 2¹⁶ since 0 is boring in multiplication
 - 2. $9 \otimes 12 = 6$ (multiply 9 and 12, divide by 17, take the remainder)
 - 3. $7 \otimes 14 = 13$
 - 4. Zero is boring, so eliminate it, then encode 16 as 0 since it won't fit into the 4 bits available anyway.
 - 5. $a \otimes 5 = 11, a \otimes 5 \otimes 7 = 11 \otimes 7, a = 9$
 - 6. Given any number a, there's a unique inverse b such that $a \otimes b = 1$
 - d. Per-Round Keys
 - i. 17 rounds, with nine of them odd and eight even

- ii. Need a total of 52 keys (generated from the 128-bit key)
- iii. Get eight keys just by breaking K into eight 16-bit pieces
- iv. Now shift K by 25 bits (rotating around as you do)
- v. Break that into 8 more 16-bit keys.
- vi. Shift by 25 again and repeat until all 52 keys are generated
- vii. There will be four extra keys on the last set; just ignore them
- e. Odd Rounds
 - i. Take four per-round keys K_a , K_b , K_c , K_d
 - ii. Split the 64-bit message into X_a, X_b, X_c, X_d
 - iii. $X_a' = X_a \otimes K_a$
 - iv. $X_b' = X_c + K_c$
 - $V. \quad X_c' = X_b + K_b$
 - vi. $X_d' = X_d \otimes K_d$
 - vii. Can decrypt; just use the multiplicative / additive inverses
- f. Even Rounds
 - i. Take two per-round keys K_e, K_f
 - ii. Compute $Y_{IN} = X_A \oplus X_B$, $Z_{IN} = X_C \oplus X_D$
 - iii. Send Y_{IN}, Z_{IN}, K_e, K_f into the mangler function
 - iv. $X_a' = X_a \oplus Y_{OUT}$
 - v. $X_b' = X_b \oplus Y_{OUT}$
 - vi. $X_c = X_c \oplus Z_{OUT}$
 - vii. $X_d = X_d \oplus Z_{OUT}$
- g. Mangler Functions
 - i. $Y_{OUT} = ((K_e \otimes Y_{IN}) + Z_{IN}) \otimes K_f$
 - ii. $Z_{OUT} = (K_e \otimes Y_{IN}) + Y_{OUT}$

IV. AES

- a. History
 - i. Key length of 56 bits in DES doesn't seem secure enough for current technology
 - ii. Triple DES
 - 1. Given a 112-bit key (2 keys, still 56 bits each)
 - 2. Encrypt with K1, decrypt with K2, encrypt with K1
 - 3. If you use double DES there's a fairly easy attack against it. Details later
 - 4. Triple DES is much more secure, but is also much too slow.
 - iii. IDEA
 - 1. Good, secure, efficient
 - 2. Patented! Nobody wants to pay royalties
 - 3. Want a royalty-free standard
 - iv. AES
 - 1. NISI proposes something to replace DES
 - 2. Makes a public call on 12 September 1997 to create a publicly-designed cryptosystem
 - 3. People need to believe it's secure, so it should be done in public
 - 4. Want a block length of 128 bits
 - 5. Want key length to be variable: 128, 192, 256 bits
 - 6. Want world-wide availability without royalties
 - 7. 21 proposals submitted, 15 met the criteria 5 chosen as finalists
 - 8. MARS, RC6, Rijndael, Serpent, Twofish
 - Rijndael became AES based on efficiencies, memory use, politics, et cetera
 - 10. All five finalists were secure
- b. Description
 - i. Both block length and key length are variable (128, ..., 256)
 - ii. More general than the requirements demanded
 - iii. The number of rounds N_R depends on the key length
 - iv. Given plaintext X (128 bits), create a state (4 x 4 array), put 1 byte in each cell

- v. All operations happen on this state. For example: Round Key ⊕ State (ADDROUNDKEY)
- vi. For the first $N_R 1$ rounds, do:
 - 1. SUBBYTES substitution
 - 2. SHIFTROWS permutation
 - 3. MIXCOLUMNS
 - ADDROUNDKEY
- vii. On the last round, don't do MIXCOLUMNS
- viii. Then the ciphertext is just what's left in the state.
- c. Algorithm
 - i. Initialize state
 - ii. SUBBYTES: Use an S-box (specifically chosen for security)
 - iii. SHIFTROW: Shift the ith row left by i bytes (not bits!)
 - iv. MIXCOLUMN
 - 1. Applied independently to each column
 - 2. Lookup column of four bytes for each element in the original column
 - 3. $\operatorname{result}_1 = a_1 \oplus b_4 \oplus c_3 \oplus d_2$
 - 4. $\operatorname{result}_2 = a_2 \oplus b_1 \oplus c_4 \oplus d_3$
 - 5. $\operatorname{result}_3 = a_3 \oplus b_2 \oplus c_1 \oplus d_4$

 - 6. result₄ = a₄ ⊕ b₃ ⊕ c₂ ⊕ d₁
 7. Now you have a new column

٧. Modes of Operation

- a. These algorithms only describe how to encrypt really short messages (we've been measuring in bits)
- We need a way to break a large message up into pieces, encrypt the pieces, and put it back together to get the final ciphertext
- c. Electronic Code Book (ECB)
 - i. Break the message into 64-bit or 128-bit chunks (depending on which algorithm you're using)
 - ii. Encrypt each chunk individually
 - iii. Encryption: $c_i = E_k(m_i)$ for all i
 - iv. Decryption: $m_i = D_k(c_i)$ for all i
 - v. So a given block of ciphertext is obtained by just encrypting the corresponding block of the message
 - vi. Very simple!
 - vii. The Rub: It's easy to change the message
 - 1. Could swap two blocks and change the meaning, undetected by the recipient
 - 2. In salary data, for example, could swap two salaries to your own benefit, and you wouldn't have to know the key to do it.
 - viii. Due to this problem, this scheme is rarely used.
 - ix. The benefit: Changing one bit only affects one block of the message (each is independent)
- d. Cipher Block Chaining
 - i. Generate some r₁r₂...r_k
 - ii. Encryption: $c_i = E_k(m_i \oplus r_i)$
 - iii. Decryption: $D_k(c_i) \oplus r_i = m_i$
 - iv. So we need to have access to these random r_i 's in both steps.
 - v. This doubles the message length if r_i is generated randomly
 - vi. Let's generate r_i from the message:
 - 1. $r_{i+1} = c_i$
 - 2. Now there's no need to send r_i AND nobody can rearrange the blocks
 - 3. Choose r_i= IV (some initialization vector). You'll still need to send that much, but that's tiny compared to a long message.
 - vii. Set $c_0 = r_1$ for notation purposes.

- viii. Encryption: $c_i = E_k(m_i \oplus c_{i-1})$
- ix. Decryption: $m_i = D_k(c_i) \oplus c_{i-1}$
- x. If one block is altered, the following block is affected too, but that effect does not propagate further since each block depends only on one other block.
- xi. Since the IV is random, the encrypted message will be different each time. One cannot detect if the message has changed if it's sent twice.
- xii. A Problem: Say you want to change m₇ from 5 to 7. You can't change c₇ without knowing the key. You CAN change c₆ by ⊕ing it with something (000000010) to turn what was 101₂ to 111₂. This would screw up m₆ in an unpredictable way though.
- e. One-Time Pad
 - i. Genreate r_i randomly
 - ii. $c_i = m_i \oplus r_i$
 - iii. Note that there's no encryption function here; it's just ⊕ing.
 - iv. This is completely secure, though it's very hard to generate truly random numbers.
- Output Feedback Mode
 - i. Generate IV = b_0
 - ii. Generate $b_1 = E_k(b_0)$ using a shared key
 - iii. Then $c_i = m_i \oplus b_i$
 - iv. Decryption:
 - 1. Receive c plus b₀
 - 2. Generate all b_i using the same encryption

 - Then m_i = c_i ⊕ b_i
 No decryption function is needed
 - 5. Since you don't need decryption, you could use a hash function.
 - v. A problem: If a bad quy knows both m_i and c_i s/he can compute b_i easily without ever knowing the key (and then can create a new message)
 - vi. A benefit: Changing one bit in c_i affects only one bit of m_i
- g. Cipher Feedback Mode
 - i. Want to generate b_i so we can do $c_i = m_i \oplus b_i$ again
 - ii. $b_{i+1} = E_k(C_i)$, with b_1 random
 - iii. $c_i = m_i \oplus b_i = m_i \oplus E_k(c_{i-1})$
 - iv. $m_i = c_i \oplus E_k(c_{i-1})$
- h. Why is this strategy secure?
 - i. Assume b_i is generated randomly
 - ii. We want to know the probability of m_i being some message given c_i . $P(m_i \mid c_i)$
 - iii. Each b_i you choose leads to a different m_i
 - iv. $P(m_i \mid c_i) = P(b_i) = {1 \choose 2}^{6}$
 - v. As long as you don't know b_i, this is perfectly secure
 - vi. We want $P(m_i = 000) = P(m_i = 0001) = ... = P(m_i = 1111)$
- VI. Preserving Integrity
 - a. Want to compute something like a checksum from a message such that it can't be altered without knowing the key
 - b. Send only the last block of CBC (called CBC Residue)
 - c. Security and Integrity
 - i. Want to use CBC to encrypt and to generate a hash, since it requires a total of one pass
 - ii. Compute hash: one pass
 - iii. Then compute CBC (message | hash) and transmit it
 - iv. Using a hash function is more efficient than encrypting
- VII. Multiple Encryption DES
 - a. Could be used for other cryptosystems
 - b. Have two kevs
 - c. $c = E_{k1}(D_{k2}(E_{k1}(m)))$

- d. Why two keys? If we used the same key you'd just end up encrypting once in the end because of \oplus .
- e. Why not encrypt with the same key twice? Because finding the key by brute force is just as hard that way as if you'd only done it once.
- f. Why not just encrypt with k₁, then with k₂
 - i. Suppose the bad guy knows (m_1, c_2) , (m_2, c_2) , and (m_3, c_3)
 - ii. For each possible key, encrypt m₁ and decrypt c₁
 - iii. Find cases where the results are the same: those are potential matches.
 - iv. There are 2^{48} possible (k_1, k_2) pairs that encrypt this way, and even though it's not really feasible to brute force that it's still less secure than single DES
 - v. If there are two intermediate steps (by encrypting, decrypting, and encrypting again), this attack isn't possible
- g. CBC
 - i. Could treat Triple DES as a single algorithm and do CBC at the end
 - ii. Could take the intermediate result and xor, but this means it's no longer protected from transmission errors the way it was before.