

# Symmetric Encryption

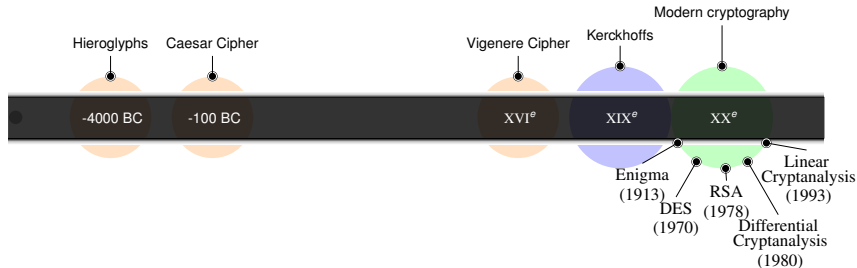
Vincent Migliore

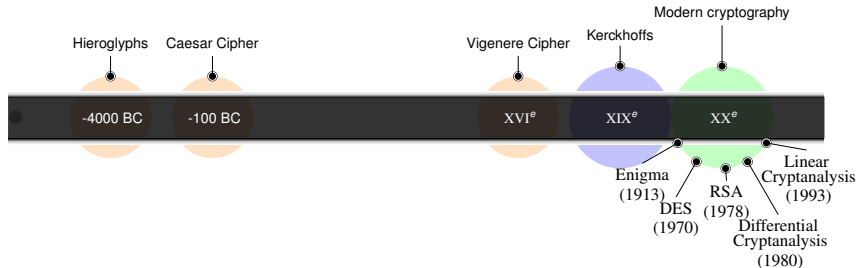
`vincent.migliore@insa-toulouse.fr`

INSA-TOULOUSE / LAAS-CNRS

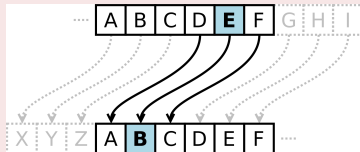
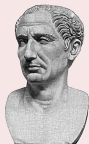
# Summary of previous lesson

# Brief History of Cryptography





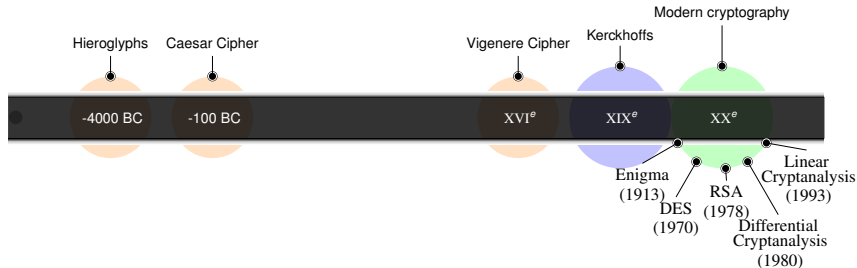
## Caesar Cipher



$$\text{Enc}(k, m_i) = m_i + k [26]$$

$$\text{Dec}(k, c_i) = c_i - k [26]$$

Vulnerable to frequency analysis.



## (Blaise de) Vigenère Cipher



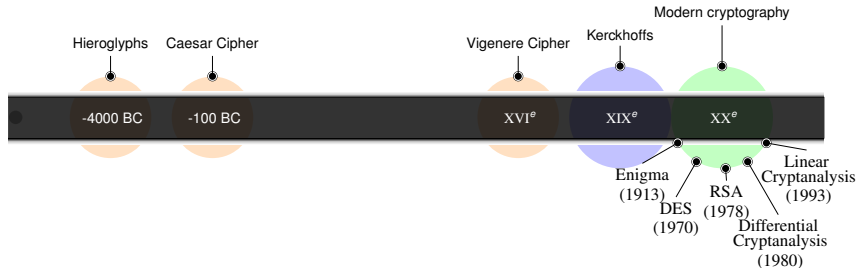
```

|A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
|A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
|B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A
|C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B
|D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C
|E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D
|F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E
|G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F
|H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G
|I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H
|J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I
|K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J
|L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K
|M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L
|N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M
|O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N
|P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O
|Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P
|R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q
|S T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R
|T U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S
|U V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T
|V W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U
|W X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V
|X Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W
|Y Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X
|Z A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y
    
```

$$\text{Enc}(k_i, m_j) = m_j + k_i [26]$$

$$\text{Dec}(k_i, c_i) = c_i - k_i [26]$$

Still vulnerable to frequency analysis when  $|K| < |M|$

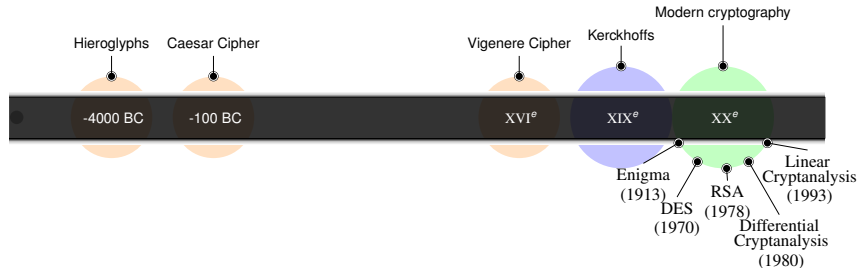


## (Auguste) Kerckhoffs principle



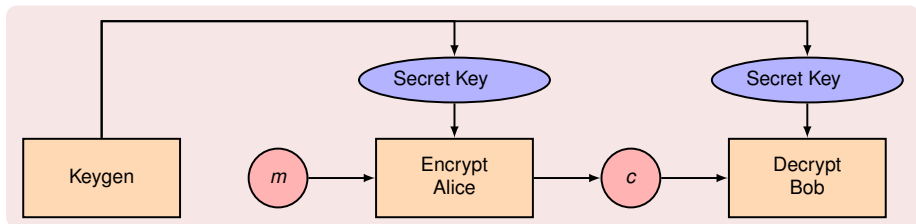
Military cryptographer. Provided several principles that influenced modern cryptography:

- The system should be, if not theoretically unbreakable, unbreakable in practice.
- The design of a system should not require secrecy, and compromise of the system should not break security.



## Modern cryptography

- Major improvements in terms of mathematical background.
- Industrialization of calculators  $\implies$  security based on computational complexity.
- Highly standardized (mostly by Americans): NIST, IETF, ISO.



## Symmetric Encryption

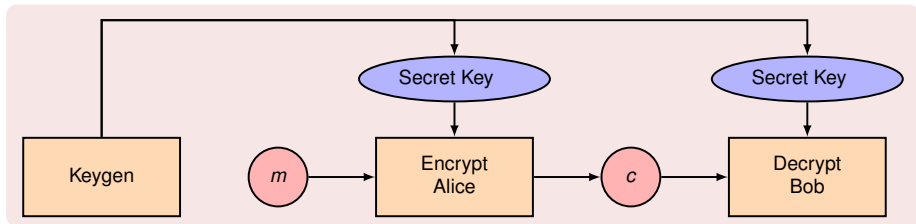
Privacy

Integrity

Authentication

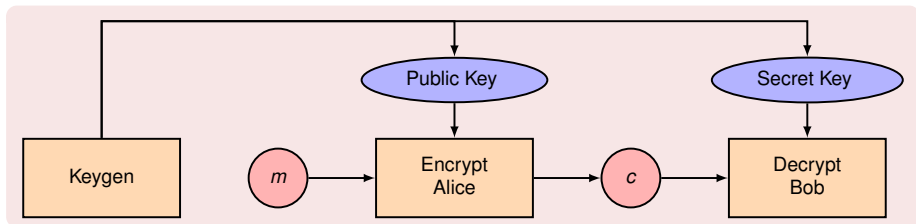
Non-repudiation





## Symmetric Encryption

- ✓ Privacy
- ✗ Integrity
- ✓ Authentication
- ✗ Non-repudiation (both Alice and Bob can Encrypt)



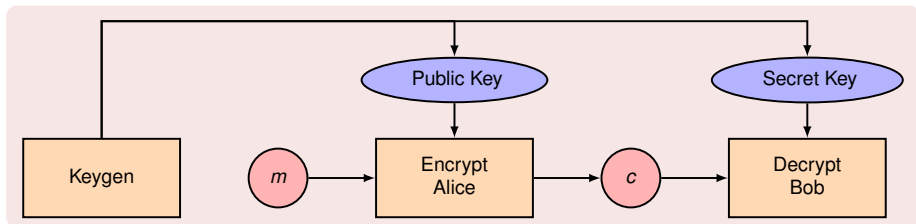
## Asymmetric Encryption

Privacy

Integrity

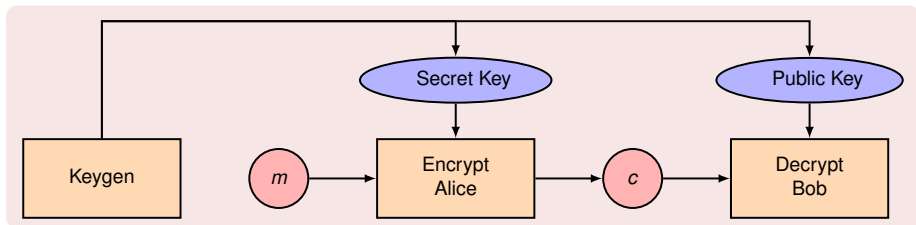
Authentication

Non-repudiation



## Asymmetric Encryption

- ✓ Privacy
- ✗ Integrity
- ✗ Authentication
- ✗ Non-repudiation



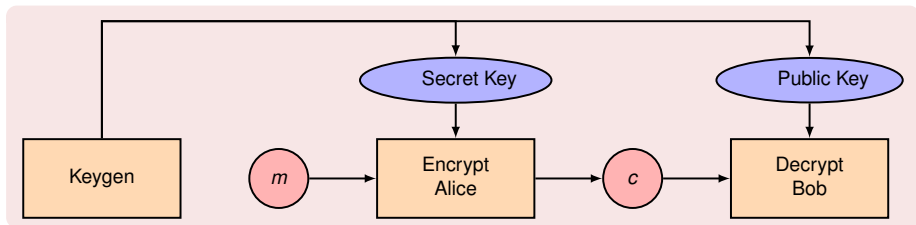
## Signature

Privacy

Integrity

Authentication

Non-repudiation



## Signature

- ~~×~~ Privacy
- ~~×~~ Integrity
- ~~×~~ Authentication
- ~~×~~ Non-repudiation

## Perfect secrecy definition

Perfect Secrecy (or information-theoretic secure) means that the ciphertext conveys no information about the content of the plaintext.

## One Time Pad (Vernam, 1917)

message  $\oplus$  key = cipher

cipher  $\oplus$  key = message

message : 0 1 0 1 1 1 1 0 0 0 0 1 0 0 1

clé : 1 1 0 0 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 0

=====

chiffré : 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1

## Highly secure

Uniform output + for a given ciphertext, any plaintext is possible.

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=====

chiffré : 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1

## But limited

- Shannon:  $|K| \geq |M| \implies$  unpracticable (+ key must not be used twice)
- Maleable: Any partial knowledge on the plaintext leads to devastating attack.

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=====

chiffré : 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1

## Remark

OTP can be viewed as a Vigenère cipher with 1-bit symbols with key as long as the message.



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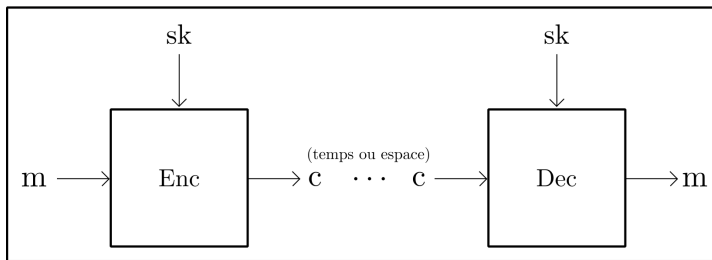
chiffré : 1 0 0 1 1 0 1 1 0 0 0 1 1 1 1

## Remark [2]

In one specific case, OTP may be practical:

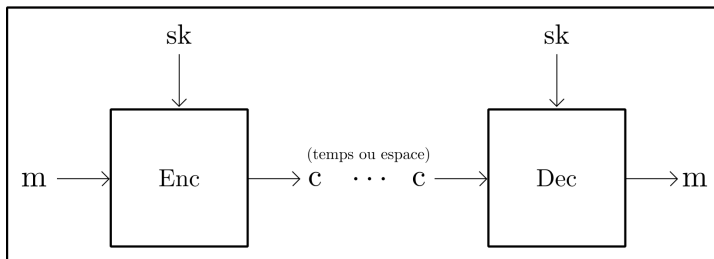
- We generate offline an incredible amount of random bits.
- We physically store these bits into at least 2 mass storages.
- We distribute to some recipients a mass storage.
- Afterword, OTP communication can be started using random bits

# Practical symmetric encryption



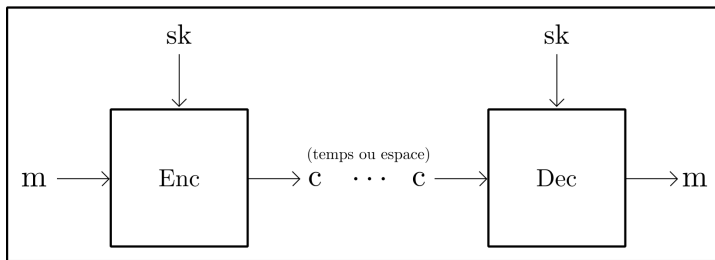
## Limitations of OTP

- Key length equals to message length;
- maleable;
- Cannot use key twice.



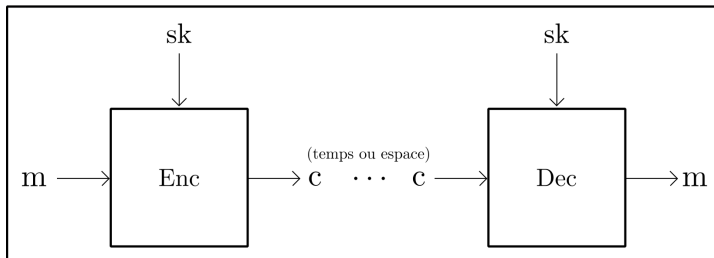
## Desirable property and consequences

- We would like to use a bounded key for large messages;
- At some point, we must reduce security on perfect secrecy to allow such property;
- Now, we consider that attacker may break cryptosystem, but we want that such attack demands unpractical power.



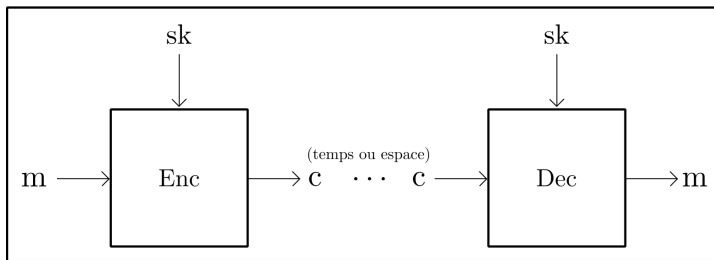
## Definition of a block cipher

- Message is split into blocks of size  $n$ ;
- Key is selected as random string of size  $k$ ;
- Each block of message is encrypted with the key and produces ciphertext of size  $n$ ;
- decryption is the invert operation of encryption, using the same key and the same blocksize.



## Construction of a block cipher

- **Assumption:** Block ciphers are secured if they can be modeled as pseudo-random permutations (PRPs).
- **Formally:** an  $n$ -bit blockcipher under a randomly-chosen key is computationally indistinguishable from a randomly-chosen  $n$ -bit permutation.
- **Challenge:** Find a computationally efficient algorithm that meet the assumption.

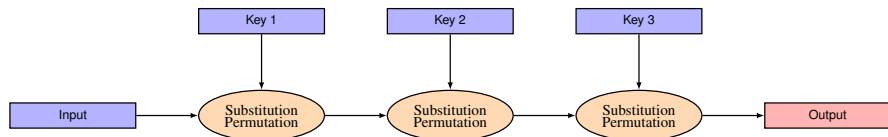


## Practical block cipher - Shannon properties (1949)

Two main properties for block ciphers:

- Diffusion: If 1 bit of plaintext is changed, statistically half of output bits must be changed (avalanch effect).
- Confusion: 1 bit of ciphertext must be linked with several bits of the key.

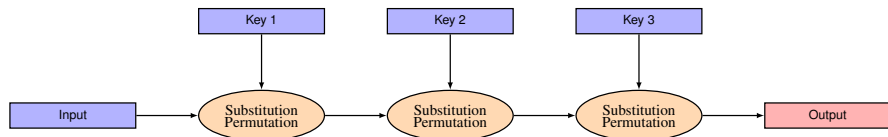
Question: Does it apply to OTP?



## Construction

- SP-network is a succession of Substitution/permutation functions parametrized with a **key**.
- Substitution/permutation functions must be **invertible**.
- Each iteration of Substitution/permutation function is called a **round**.
- The **more rounds** implemented, the **more outputs looks uniform** and independant from message/key (if properly implemented).
- Security: finding information about plaintext must be **as hard as an exhaustive search on the key**  $\implies$  security level  $\approx 2^{\text{key length}}$ .

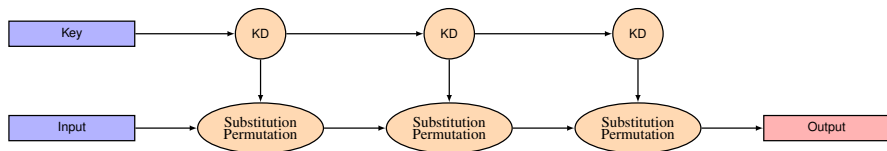




## Design considerations

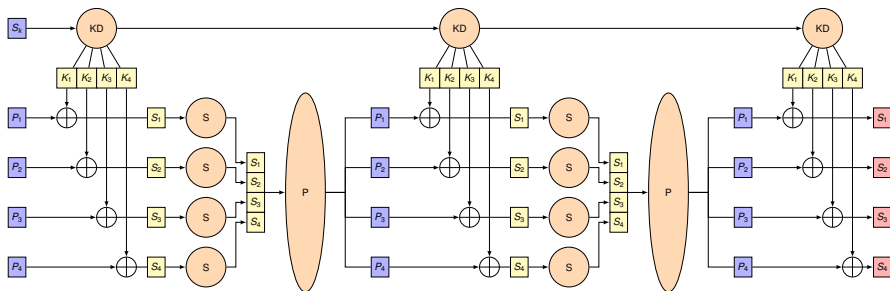
Two main approaches exist:

- Making Substitution/permutation pseudo-random with a unique key:
  - Requires the implementation of many Substitution/permutation functions.
- Making Key pseudo-random with a fixed Substitution/permutation function:
  - Requires the generation of many keys, as many as the number of rounds.



## Most practical approach

- Second choice: Key is pseudo-random with a fixed Substitution/permutation.
- Round keys are generated with a Key Derivation function.



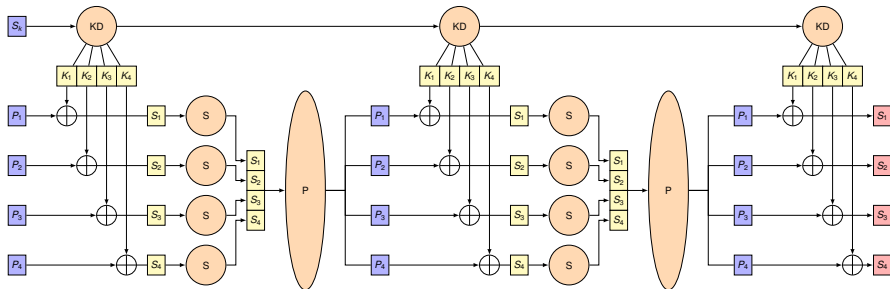
## Definitions

Let:

- $n$  be the length in bits of a block.
- $k$  be the length in bits of the key.

## Construction

A SP-Network is constructed with the execution of a given number  $N$  of rounds. A round consists in 1 round key addition, 1 Substitution and 1 Permutation. Each function is invertible to provide symmetric encryption.

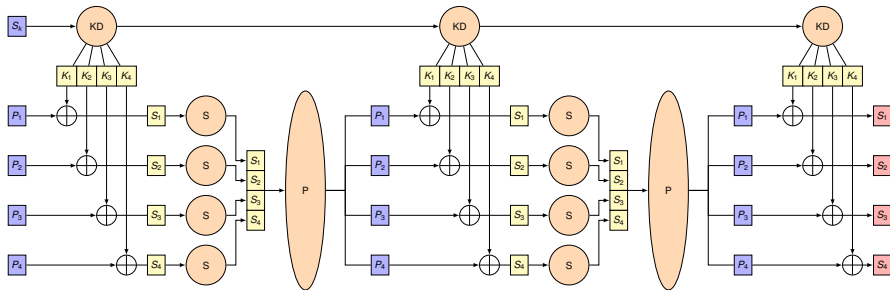


## Substitution $\rightarrow$ S-BOX

Substitutes 1 symbol to another. It contributes to confusion because it makes output non-intelligible. It also contributes to non-linearity, i.e.:  
 $S\text{-BOX}(v_1 \oplus v_2) \neq S\text{-BOX}(v_1) \oplus S\text{-BOX}(v_2)$ .

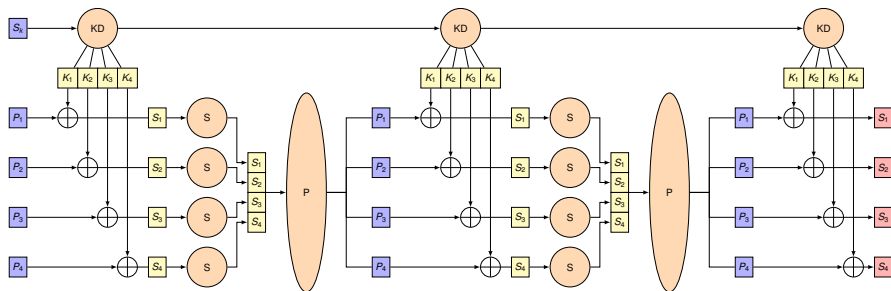
## Permutation $\rightarrow$ P-BOX

Switch symbols. It contributes to diffusion because it dispatches bits all over the internal state. By construction, it is linear, i.e.:  
 $P\text{-BOX}(v_1 \oplus v_2) = P\text{-BOX}(v_1) \oplus P\text{-BOX}(v_2)$ .



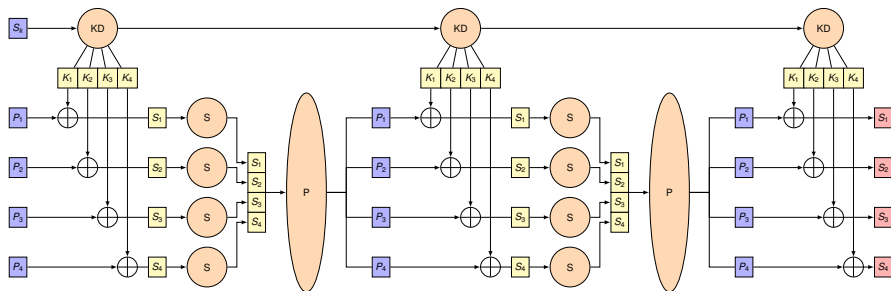
## Important note

S-BOX and P-BOX are basically permutations, that is why sometimes we prefer define S-BOX and D-BOX (*Diffusion-BOX*), where both are permutations but first one is non-linear.



## KD

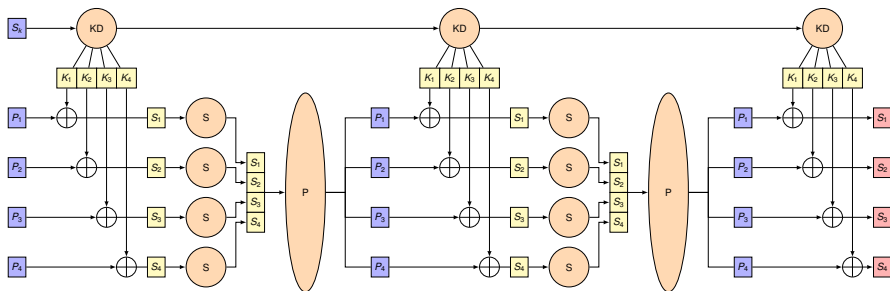
- Key derivation function. For  $N$  rounds and a  $k$ -bit key, generates  $(N + 1)$   $n$ -bit subkeys.
- Like OTP, make input uniform before each round.



## Why non-linearity so important? Application

We note  $(X_1, X_2)$  two messages and  $(Y_1, Y_2)$  associated ciphertexts encrypted with same key.

We consider a P-Network (i.e. SP-Network without S-BOX), and  $N = 2$  rounds. Evaluates  $(\Delta Y = Y_1 \oplus Y_2)$



## Why non-linearity so important? Application

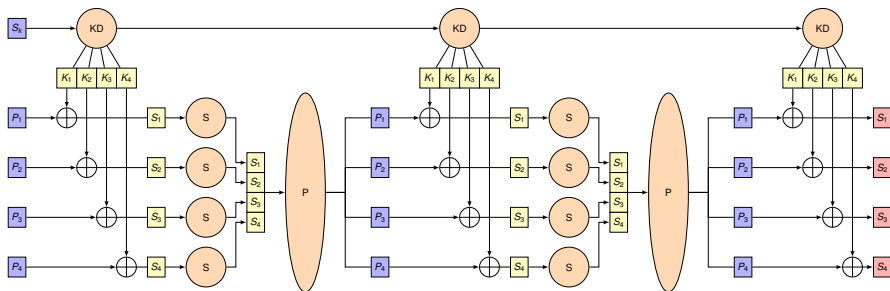
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## Answer

Due to linearity,  $\Delta Y = P\text{-BOX}(P\text{-BOX}(X_1 \oplus X_2))$  independent from the key  
 $\implies$  differential attack.





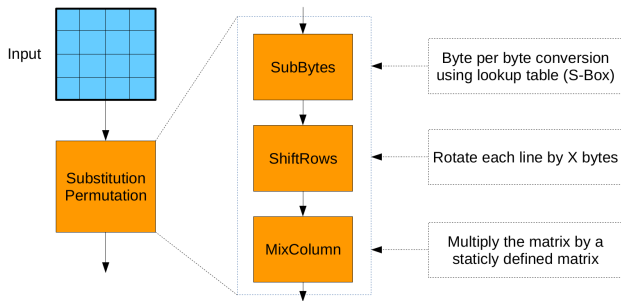
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## Note

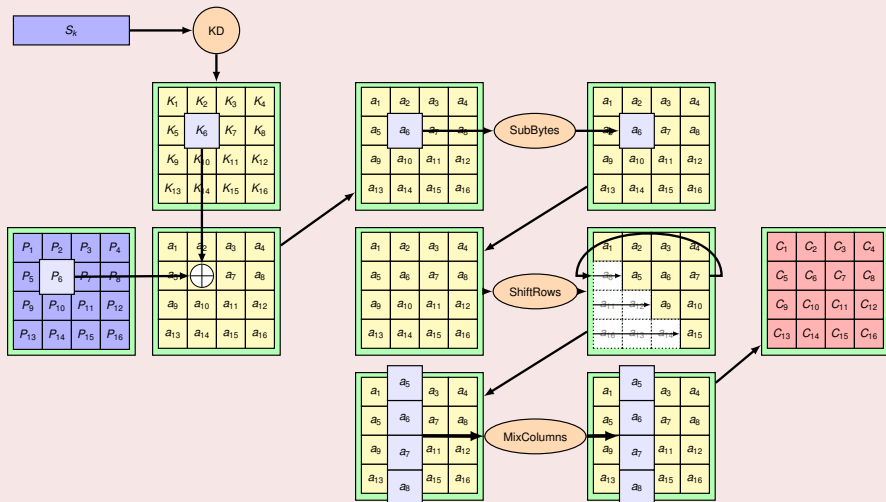
More advanced attack tries to find some linearity inside S-BOX, in order to partially remove key bits. It is so called linear cryptanalysis.

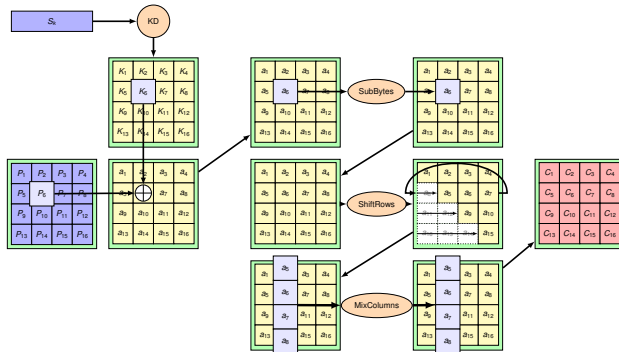


## History

- Designed by Joan Daemen et Vincent Rijmen (Belgium).
- Winner in 2000 of the NIST "AES" competition.
- Based on SP-NETWORK.
- Interesting construction: Both security AND implementation have been studied during design process.

## Description of 1 round of AES:

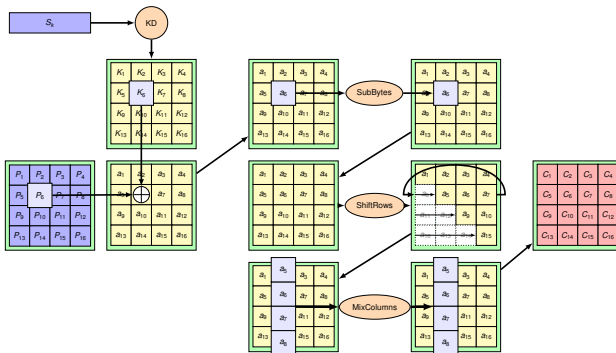




## Structure

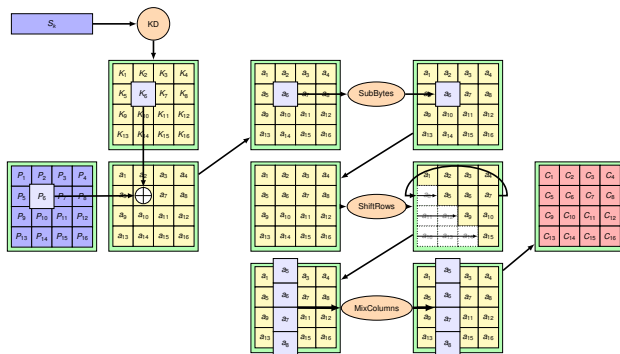
Internal state is composed of a 4x4 matrix of bytes. 4 operations are executed over internal state each round:

1. AddRoundKey
2. SubBytes (S-BOX)
3. ShiftRows (D-BOX)
4. MixColumns (D-BOX)



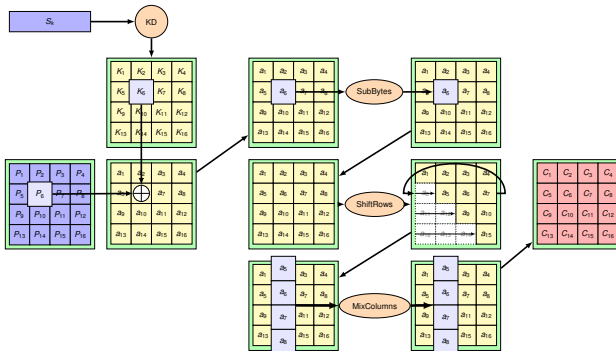
## 1 - AddRoundKey

- xor between state and round-key.
- if message independent from key, and key uniform, then the new state looks uniform.



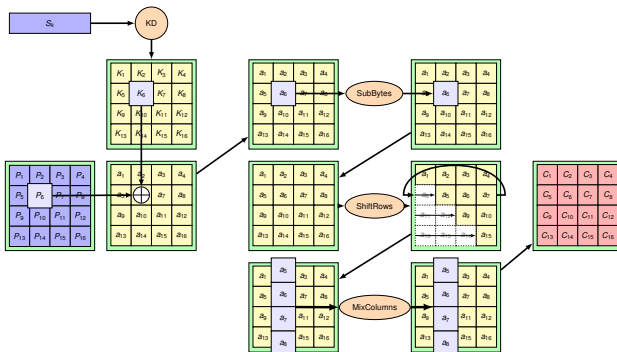
## 2 - SubBytes

- Non-linearity: Minimization of input-output correlation.
- Complexity: Complex expression in  $GF(2^8)$ .
- Simple implementation: Look-up table (and must be since literal expression complex).



## 3 - ShiftRows

- Variable byte rotation of each line depending on line index.
- First line: no rotation.
- Second row: 1 byte rotation.
- Third row: 2 bytes rotation.
- Fourth row: 3 bytes rotation.

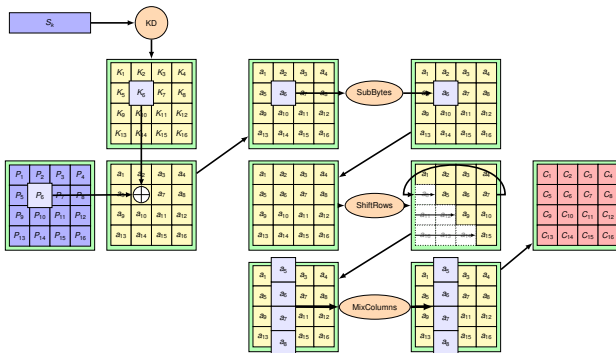


## 4 - MixColumns

Column per column scrambling of coefficients. Equivalent to multiplying each column by following matrix:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

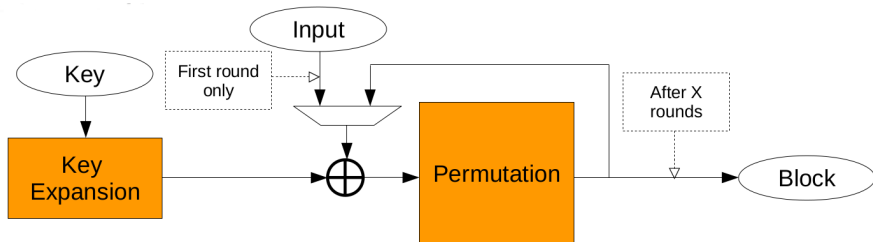




## High level consideration

MixColumns of last round is skipped to make Encryption/decryption symmetric, i.e.:

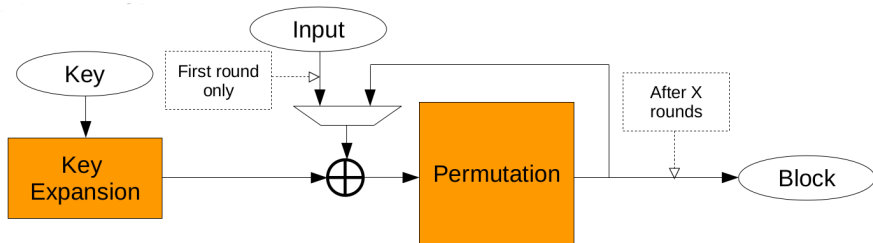
- Encryption:  $\oplus \rightarrow \text{S-BOX} \rightarrow \text{D-BOX} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \oplus \rightarrow \text{S-BOX} \rightarrow \oplus$
- Decryption:  $\oplus \rightarrow \text{S-BOX} \rightarrow \text{D-BOX} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \oplus \rightarrow \text{S-BOX} \rightarrow \oplus$



## Security

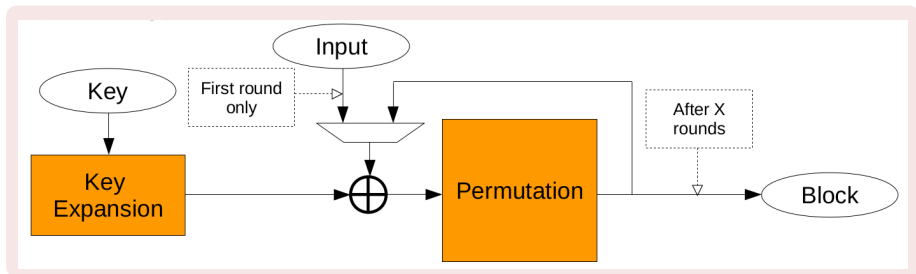
- AES is considered as a good PRP if implemented properly.
- Security depends on the number of rounds executed:

Name	Key length (bits)	Security	rounds
AES-128	128	128	10
AES-196	196	192	12
AES-256	256	256	14



## Security

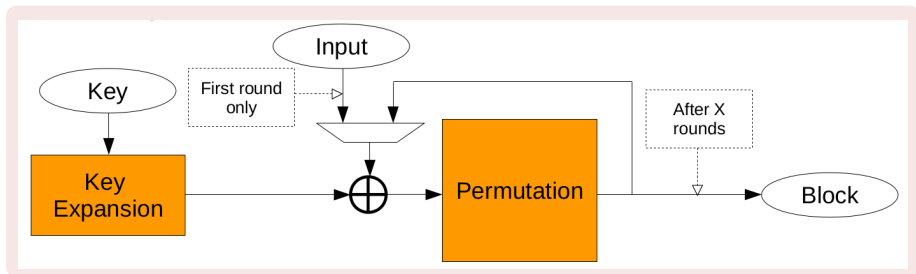
- Best known attack: biclique attack on full AES-128 reducing security by 2 bits (i.e. 4 times faster than exhaustive search).
- Variant of Meet-In-The-Middle (MITM) attack (Diffie and Hellman 1977)



## Question

We consider AES-256 (i.e. blocks of 4x4 bytes, 12 rounds). I can encrypt:

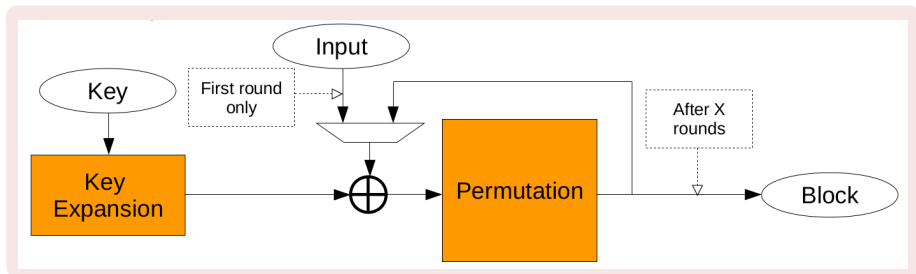
- 16 bytes of data.
- 12x16 bytes of data.
- No limitation.



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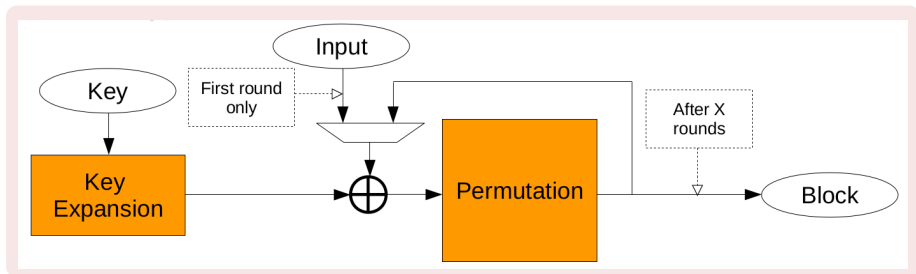
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We consider AES-256 (i.e. blocks of 4x4 bytes, 12 rounds). Compared to OTP:

- I have a smaller secret key.
- I have a larger secret key.
- I have a comparable key length.

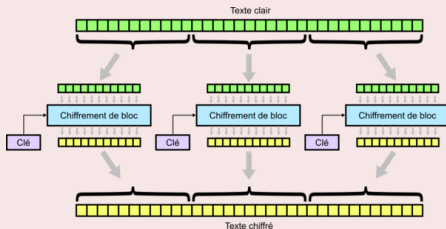


## Question

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- I have a smaller secret key.
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## Electronic Code Book (ECB)



## Construction

The message is split into blocks matching the size of Block-Cipher's block length. Each block is encrypted with the same key.

Pros:

- Simplest construction.
- Destination can decrypt a specific block without extra computations.
- Vulnerabilities?



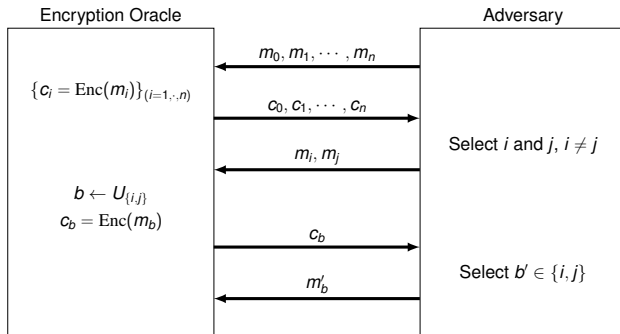
## Security property: Semantic security

Without information about the key, ciphertext does not leak information about the message.

## Adversary capability

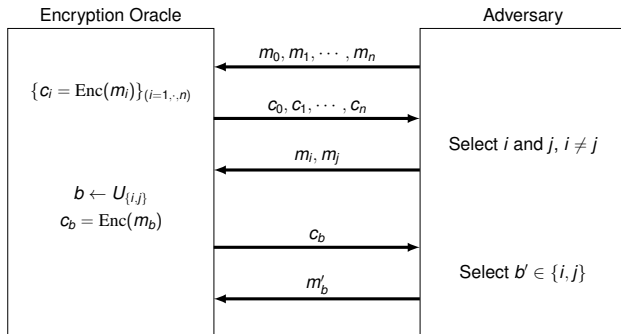
Adversary capabilities are defined as indistinguishability games:

- IND-KPA (known plaintext-attack): adversary sees pairs  $(m_i, Enc(m_i))$ .
- IND-CPA (chosen plaintext-attack): adversary SELECTS messages  $m_i$  and ASKS an entity to encrypt  $m_i$ .
- IND-CCA: More information during asymmetric encryption lesson.



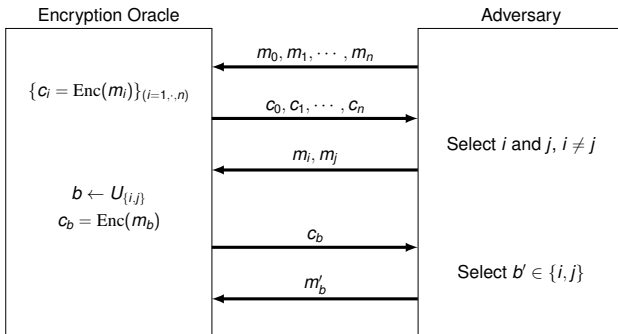
## Win condition

- Adversary wins the game if:  $\Pr[b = b'] > 1/2$ .
- If  $\Pr[b = b'] = 1/2$ , then adversary can only guess randomly which message has been encrypted.
- Advantage:  $\mathcal{A}_{CPA} = |\Pr[b = b'] - 1/2| = \epsilon$



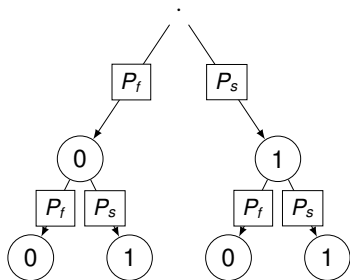
## Notion of negligible advantage

- For key length  $k$ ;
- For Advantage  $\mathcal{A}_{CPA} = |\Pr[b = b'] - 1/2| = \epsilon(k)$ ;
- Adversary has negligible advantage if  $\epsilon(k) < \frac{1}{2^k}$  for all  $k$  after given  $k_0$ .



## Question

If I have an algorithm that provides a very small (say 1/10000) advantage, does this lead to a real distinguishability?



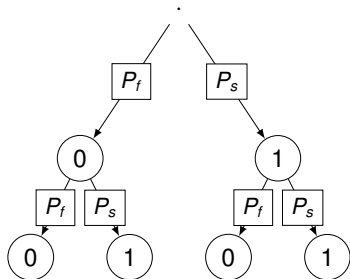
## Success probability

$P_s$  = probability of success,  $P_f$  = probability of a fail.

## Algorithm

If algorithm output the same value twice, I select this value. If values are different, I flip a coin to select one.

By doing so, I can double my success rate. True?

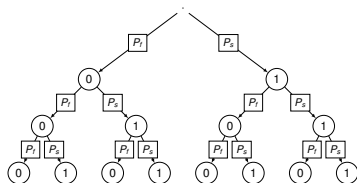


### Success probability

$$P_s = 0.5 + \epsilon, P_f = 0.5 - \epsilon.$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{success}} &= P_s^2 + 0.5 \times P_s P_e + 0.5 \times P_e P_s = (0.5 + \epsilon)^2 + (0.5 + \epsilon)(0.5 - \epsilon) \\ &= 0.5 + \epsilon \text{ (fail...)} \end{aligned}$$

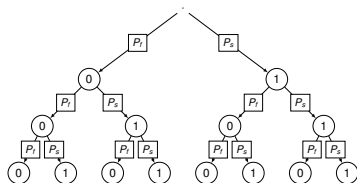
# Second try - I run my algorithm three times and take the majority vote



Success probability

Better advantage this time?

# Second try - I run my algorithm three times and I have a vote

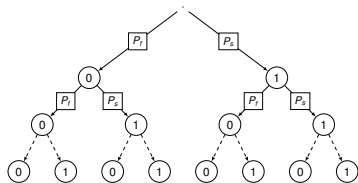


## Success probability

$$P_s = 0.5 + \epsilon, P_f = 0.5 - \epsilon.$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_{\text{success}} &= P_s^3 + 3 \times P_s^2 P_e = P_s^2 \times (P_s + 3P_e) \\ &= (0.5 + \epsilon)^2 \times (0.5 + \epsilon + 1.5 - 3\epsilon) \\ &= (0.5 + 2\epsilon + 2\epsilon^2) \times (1 - \epsilon) \\ &= 0.5 + 1.5\epsilon - 2\epsilon^3 \quad (\text{ouf...}) \end{aligned}$$





## Success probability

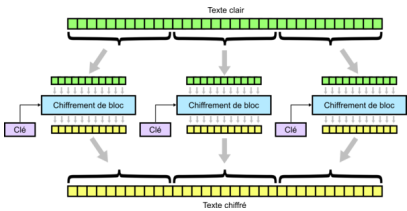
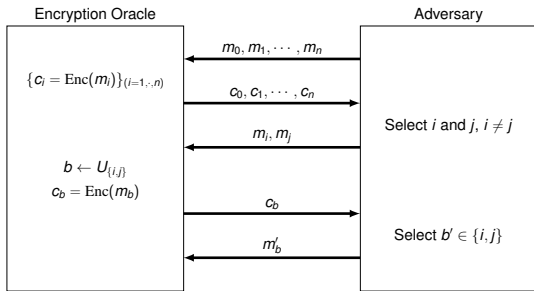
$$P_s = 0.5 + \epsilon, P_f = 0.5 - \epsilon.$$

$$P_{\text{success}} = \sum_{i=0}^{N/2} \binom{N}{i} P_s^{N-i} P_e^i = P_s^N \times \sum_{i=0}^{N/2} \binom{N}{i} \left(\frac{P_e}{P_s}\right)^i > P_s^N$$

$$P_{\text{success}} > (0.5 + \epsilon)^N \sim 0.5 + N\epsilon$$

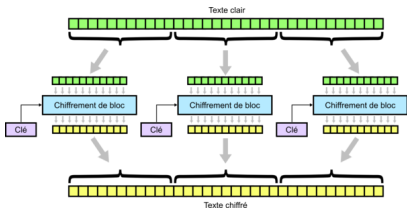
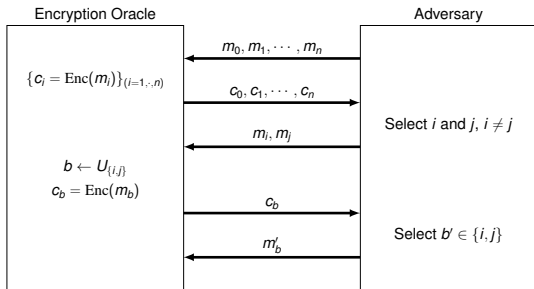
Conclusion: If I run my algorithm  $1/(\epsilon)$ , I can distinguish with probability close to 1.

# Go back to ECB mode of operation



**How to win the game?**  
Which  $m_i$  and  $m_j$  adversary can select to win?

# Go back to ECB mode of operation

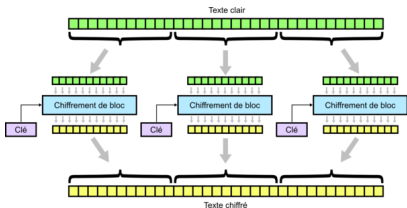
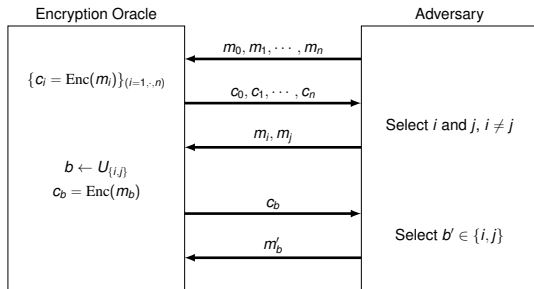


## How to win the game?

- $m_i = [\text{Hello }][\text{World }]$
- $m_j = [\text{Hello }][\text{Hello }]$
- $\text{Enc}(m_i) = [c_0][c_1], \text{Enc}(m_j) = [c_0][c_0]$

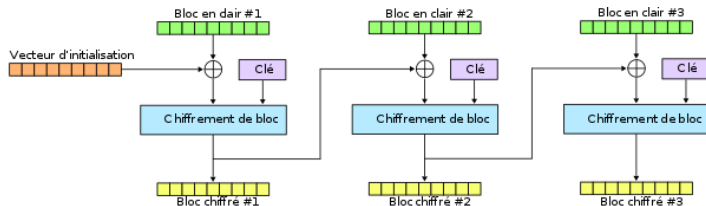
If encrypted block 0 = encrypted block 1, return  $j$  else  $i$ .

# Go back to ECB mode of operation



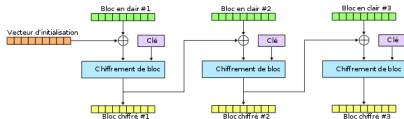
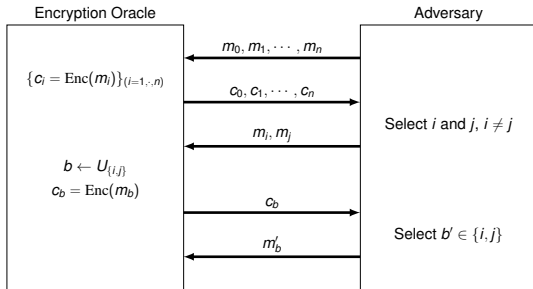
## Conclusion

$\mathcal{A}_{CPA} = 1/2$ , i.e. adversary always wins!  
 $\implies$  ECB mode is trivially insecure under IND-CPA game and should not be used in practice.



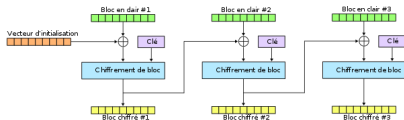
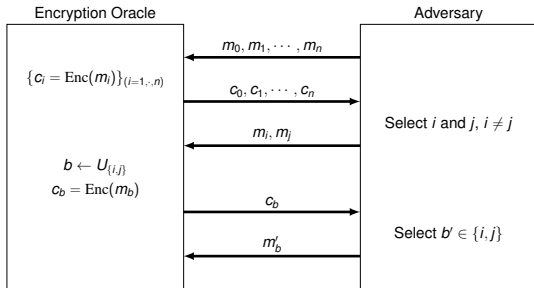
## Construction

- Also called nonce-based encryption;
- Initialization Vector (IV = nonce) is XORed with input message block, and chained with next input message block;
- How I select a secure nonce?



Under free nonce, how to win the game?

Which  $m_i$  and  $m_j$  adversary can select to win?

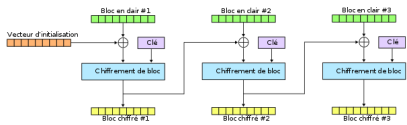
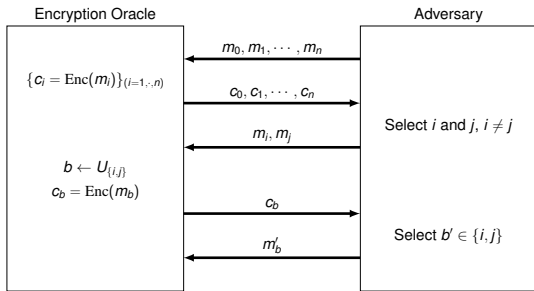


Under free nonce, how to win the game?

Adversary ask for encryption of two plaintexts different, say:

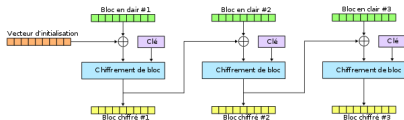
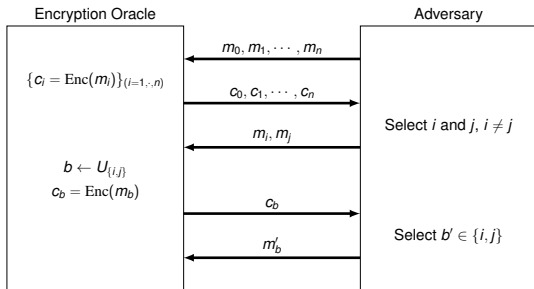
- $m_i = [\text{Hello}]$ ,  $m_j = [\text{World}]$
- $\text{Enc}(m_i) = [c_i]$ ,  $\text{Enc}(m_j) = [c_j]$

then choose  $[\text{Hello}]$  and  $[\text{World}]$  as challenges.



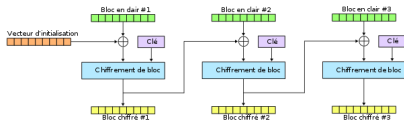
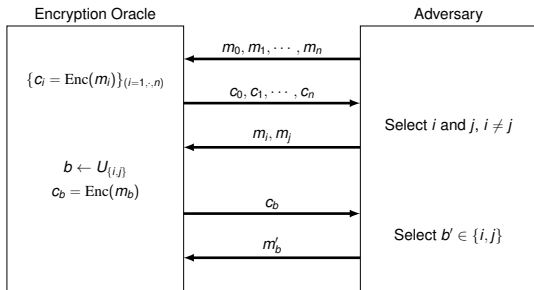
**Conclusion**  
Which nonce may I choose?





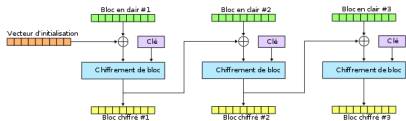
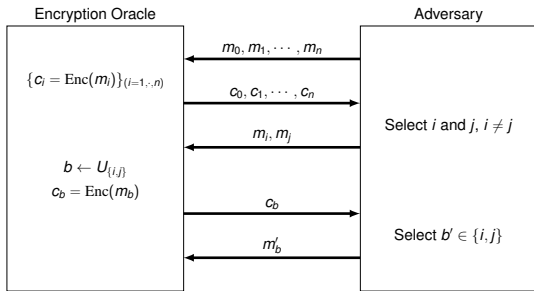
**Case 1 - random, secret but repeated nonce**

Nonce is selected at random at the start of communication and kept secret from adversary. Secure?

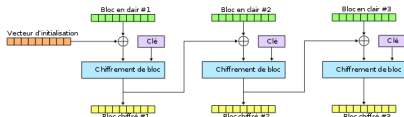
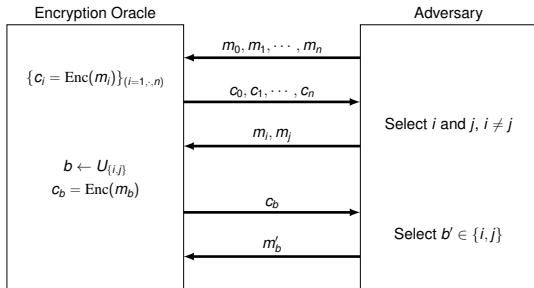


## Case 1 - random, secret but repeated nonce

Still not CPA secure since adversary can select  $m_i$  and  $m_j$  before challenge and requests  $c_i = \text{Enc}(m_i)$  and  $c_j = \text{Enc}(m_j)$ .

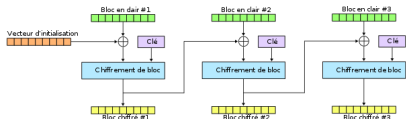
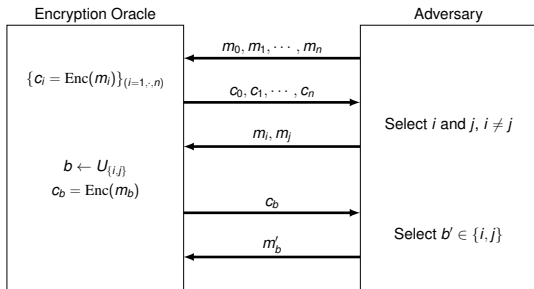


**Case 1 - Conclusion**  
 Nonce should not be used twice.



## Case 2 - randomized, public but predictable

- Nonce is firstly selected at random.
- For next message, we just continue the chaining, i.e. last cipher block is taken as the new nonce. Secure? (case of TLSv1.0).

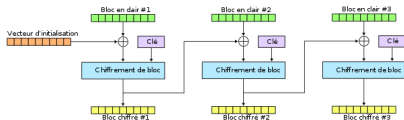
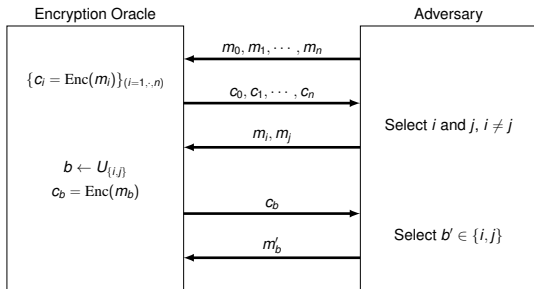


## Case 2 - randomized, public but predictable

Select  $m_j$  such as  $m_j = IV_{n-1} =$  last encrypted block

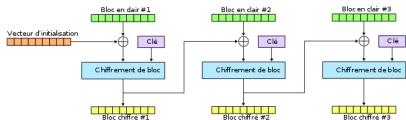
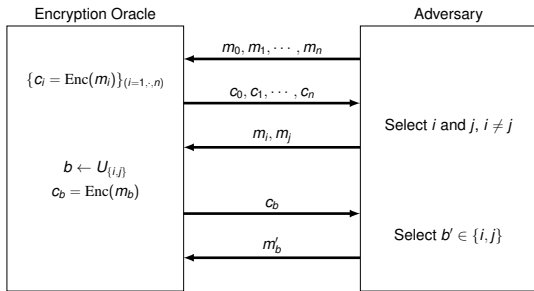
$\implies$  first block is the encryption of 0 under a free nonce.

$\implies$  deterministic.

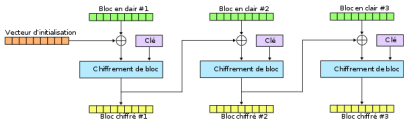
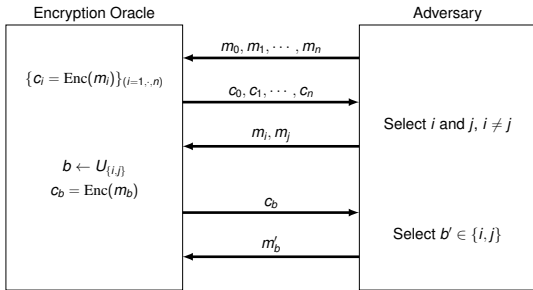


## Case 2 - Conclusion

Nonce must not be predictable by adversary.



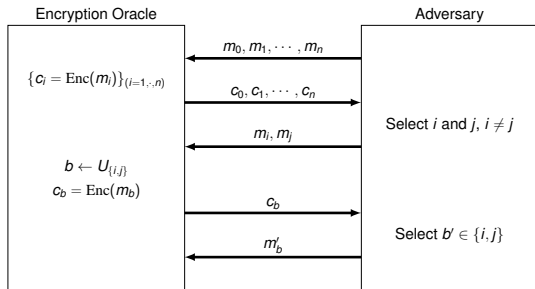
**Case 3 - Random and unpredictable**  
Secure?



## Case 3 - Random and unpredictable

Secure, but be carefull, you must send **secretly** to your corresponding the nonce used for next encryption and ensure **integrity**.





## CBC - theorem

For any length  $L > 0$ :

If PRP  $E$  is semantically secure over  $(K, X)$ , then  $E$  used in CBC mode ( $E_{CBC}$ ) is semantically secure under CPA over  $(K, X^L, X^{L+1})$ .

For adversary making  $q$ -query, then:

$$\mathcal{A}(E_{CBC}) \leq 2\mathcal{A}(E) + q^2 L^2 / |X|$$

Where  $|X|$  is the number of outputs possible for the permutation and  $L$  the

## Case of AES

- size of AES output: 128 bits;
- Target advantage:  $2^{-80}$ .

Upper bound of encrypted blocks?

## Case of AES

- size of AES output = 128 bits  $\implies |X| = 2^{128}$ ;
- Target advantage =  $2^{-80} \implies q^2 L^2 / |X| = 2^{-80}$ ;
- $qL = \sqrt{2^{-80+128}} = 2^{24}$  encrypted blocks.

Conclusion: We must renew the key before reaching  $2^{28}$  bytes of encrypted data, i.e. 256 MB.

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How to ensure integrity?