# Computer Security CS 526 Topic 4

Cryptography: Semantic Security, Block Ciphers and Encryption Modes

#### Readings for This Lecture

- Required reading from wikipedia
  - Block Cipher
  - Ciphertext
     Indistinguishability
  - Block cipher modes of operation



## Notation for Symmetric-key Encryption

 A symmetric-key encryption scheme is comprised of three algorithms

Gen the key generation algorithm

The algorithm must be probabilistic/randomized

Output: a key k

Enc the encryption algorithm

• Input: key k, plaintext m

• Output: ciphertext  $c := \mathbf{Enc}_k(m)$ 

Dec the decryption algorithm

Input: key k, ciphertext c

• Output: plaintext  $m := \mathbf{Dec}_k(m)$ 

Requirement:  $\forall k \ \forall m \ [ \mathbf{Dec}_k(\mathbf{Enc}_k(m)) = \mathbf{m} ]$ 

### Randomized vs. Deterministic Encryption

- Encryption can be randomized,
  - i.e., same message, same key, running the encryption algorithm twice results in two different ciphertexts
  - E.g, Enc<sub>k</sub>[m] = (r, PRNG[k||r]⊕m), i.e., the ciphertext includes two parts, a randomly generated r, and a second part
- Decryption is deterministic in the sense that
  - For the same ciphertext and same key, running decryption algorithm twice always results in the same plaintext
- Each key induces a one-to-many mapping from plaintext space to ciphertext space
  - Corollary: ciphertext space must be equal to or larger than plaintext space

#### **Towards Computational Security**

- Perfect secrecy is too difficult to achieve.
- Computational security uses two relaxations:
  - Security is preserved only against efficient (computationally bounded) adversaries
    - Adversary can only run in feasible amount of time
  - Adversaries can potentially succeed with some very small probability (that we can ignore the case it actually happens)
- Two approaches to formalize computational security: concrete and asymptotic

#### The Concrete Approach

- Quantifies the security by explicitly bounding the maximum success probability of adversary running with certain time:
  - "A scheme is  $(t,\epsilon)$ -secure if **every** adversary running for time at most t succeeds in breaking the scheme with probability at most  $\epsilon$ "
  - Example: a strong encryption scheme with n-bit keys may be expected to be (t, t/2<sup>n</sup>)-secure.
    - N=128, t=2<sup>60</sup>, then  $\varepsilon$ = 2<sup>-68</sup>. (# of seconds since big bang is 2<sup>58</sup>)
- Makes more sense with symmetric encryption schemes because they use fixed key lengths.

#### The Asymptotic Approach

- A cryptosystem has a security parameter
  - E.g., number of bits in the RSA algorithm (1024,2048,...)
- Typically, the key length depends on the security parameter
  - The bigger the security parameter, the longer the key, the more time it takes to use the cryptosystem, and the more difficult it is to break the scheme
- The crypto system must be efficient, i.e., runs in time polynomial in the security parameter
- "A scheme is secure if every Probabilistic Polynomial Time (PPT) algorithm succeeds in breaking the scheme with only negligible probability"
  - "negligible" roughly means goes to 0 exponentially fast as the security parameter increases

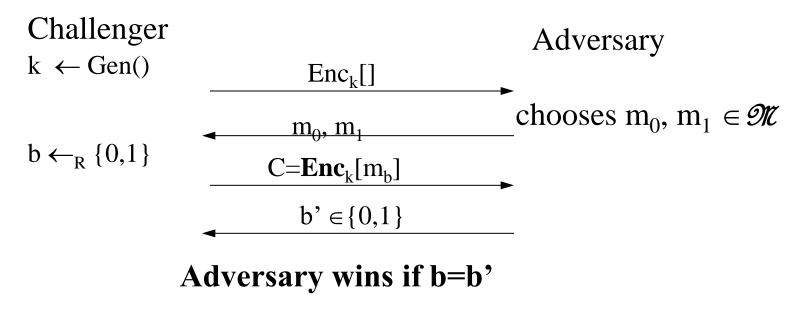
### **Defining Security**

- Desire "semantic security", i.e., having access to the ciphertext does not help adversary to compute any function of the plaintext.
  - Difficult to use

 Equivalent notion: Adversary cannot distinguish between the ciphertexts of two plaintexts

#### Towards IND-CPA Security:

- Ciphertext Indistinguishability under a Chosen-Plaintext Attack: Define the following IND-CPA experiment:
  - Involving an Adversary and a Challenger
  - Instantiated with an Adversary algorithm A, and an encryption scheme  $\Pi$  = (Gen, Enc, Dec)



### The IND-CPA Experiment Explained

- A k is generated by Gen()
- Adversary is given oracle access to Enc<sub>k</sub>(·),
  - Oracle access: one gets its question answered without knowing any additional information
- Adversary outputs a pair of equal-length messages m<sub>0</sub> and m<sub>1</sub>
- A random bit b is chosen, and adversary is given Enc<sub>k</sub>(m<sub>b</sub>)
  - Called the challenge ciphertext
- Adversary does any computation it wants, while still having oracle access to Enc<sub>k</sub>(·), and outputs b'
- Adversary wins if b=b'

### CPA-secure (aka IND-CPA security)

- A encryption scheme Π = (Gen, Enc, Dec) has indistinguishable encryption under a chosenplaintext attack (i.e., is IND-CPA secure) iff. for all PPT adversary A, there exists a negligible function negl such that
  - Pr[A wins in IND-CPA experiment] ≤ ½ + negl(n)
- No deterministic encryption scheme is CPAsecure. Why?

### Another (Equivalent) Explanation of IND-CPA Security

- Ciphertext indistinguishability under chosen plaintext attack (IND-CPA)
  - Challenger chooses a random key K
  - Adversary chooses a number of messages and obtains their ciphertexts under key K
  - Adversary chooses two equal-length messages m<sub>0</sub> and m<sub>1</sub>, sends them to a Challenger
  - Challenger generates C=E<sub>K</sub>[m<sub>b</sub>], where b is a uniformly randomly chosen bit, and sends C to the adversary
  - Adversary outputs b' and wins if b=b'
  - Adversary advantage is | Pr[Adv wins] ½ |
  - Adversary should not have a non-negligible advantage
    - E.g, Less than, e.g., 1/280 when the adversary is limited to certain amount of computation;
    - decreases exponentially with the security parameter (typically length of the key)

#### Intuition of IND-CPA security

- Perfect secrecy means that any plaintext is encrypted to a given ciphertext with the same probability, i.e., given any pair of M<sub>0</sub> and M<sub>1</sub>, the probabilities that they are encrypted into a ciphertext C are the same
  - Hence no adversary can tell whether C is ciphertext of M<sub>0</sub> or M<sub>1</sub>.
- IND-CPA means
  - With bounded computational resources, the adversary cannot tell which of M<sub>0</sub> and M<sub>1</sub> is encrypted in C
- Stream ciphers can be used to achieve IND-CPA security when the underlying PRNG is cryptographically strong
  - (i.e., generating sequences that cannot be distinguished from random, even when related seeds are used)

### Computational Security vs. Information Theoretic Security

- If a cipher has only computational security, then it can be broken by a brute force attack, e.g., enumerating all possible keys
  - Weak algorithms can be broken with much less time
- How to prove computational security?
  - Assume that some problems are hard (requires a lot of computational resources to solve), then show that breaking security means solving the problem
- Computational security is foundation of modern cryptography.

#### Why Block Ciphers?

- One thread of defeating frequency analysis
  - Use different keys in different locations
  - Example: one-time pad, stream ciphers

- Another way to defeat frequency analysis
  - Make the unit of transformation larger, rather than encrypting letter by letter, encrypting block by block
  - Example: block cipher

#### **Block Ciphers**

An n-bit plaintext is encrypted to an n-bit ciphertext

```
- P: \{0,1\}^n
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- 
$$C$$
:  $\{0,1\}^n$ 

$$- K: \{0,1\}^{s}$$

- E: 
$$K \times P \rightarrow C$$
: E<sub>k</sub>: a permutation on  $\{0,1\}$  n

- **D**: 
$$K \times C \rightarrow P$$
:  $D_k$  is  $E_k^{-1}$ 

- Block size: n
- Key size: s

#### Data Encryption Standard (DES)

- Designed by IBM, with modifications proposed by the National Security Agency
- US national standard from 1977 to 2001
- De facto standard
- Block size is 64 bits;
- Key size is 56 bits
- Has 16 rounds
- Designed mostly for hardware implementations
  - Software implementation is somewhat slow
- Considered insecure now
  - vulnerable to brute-force attacks
- Triple DES: E<sub>k3</sub>D<sub>k2</sub>E<sub>K1</sub>(M) has 112-bit strength, but slow

#### Attacking Block Ciphers

- Types of attacks to consider
  - known plaintext: given several pairs of plaintexts and ciphertexts, recover the key (or decrypt another block encrypted under the same key)
  - how would chosen plaintext and chosen ciphertext be defined?
- Standard attacks
  - exhaustive key search
  - dictionary attack
  - differential cryptanalysis, linear cryptanalysis
- Side channel attacks.

DES's main vulnerability is short key size.

### Chosen-Plaintext Dictionary Attacks Against Block Ciphers

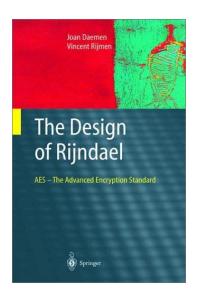
- Construct a table with the following entries
  - (K,  $E_{K}[0]$ ) for all possible key K
  - Sort based on the second field (ciphertext)
  - How much time does this take?
- To attack a new key K (under chosen message attacks)
  - Choose 0, obtain the ciphertext C, looks up in the table, and finds the corresponding key
  - How much time does this step take?
- Trade off space for time

#### Advanced Encryption Standard

- In 1997, NIST made a formal call for algorithms stipulating that the AES would specify an unclassified, publicly disclosed encryption algorithm, available royalty-free, worldwide.
- Goal: replace DES for both government and private-sector encryption.
- The algorithm must implement symmetric key cryptography as a block cipher and (at a minimum) support block sizes of 128-bits and key sizes of 128-, 192-, and 256-bits.
- In 1998, NIST selected 15 AES candidate algorithms.
- On October 2, 2000, NIST selected Rijndael (invented by Joan Daemen and Vincent Rijmen) to as the AES.

#### **AES** Features

- Designed to be efficient in both hardware and software across a variety of platforms.
- Block size: 128 bits
- Variable key size: 128, 192, or 256 bits.
- No known weaknesses



#### Need for Encryption Modes

- A block cipher encrypts only one block
- Needs a way to extend it to encrypt an arbitrarily long message
- Want to ensure that if the block cipher is secure, then the encryption is secure
- Aims at providing Semantic Security (IND-CPA)
  assuming that the underlying block ciphers are
  strong

#### Block Cipher Encryption Modes: ECB

- Message is broken into independent blocks;
- Electronic Code Book (ECB): each block encrypted separately.
- Encryption:  $c_i = E_k(x_i)$
- Decrytion:  $x_i = D_k(c_i)$

#### Properties of ECB

- Deterministic:
  - the same data block gets encrypted the same way,
    - reveals patterns of data when a data block repeats
  - when the same key is used, the same message is encrypted the same way
- Usage: not recommended to encrypt more than one block of data

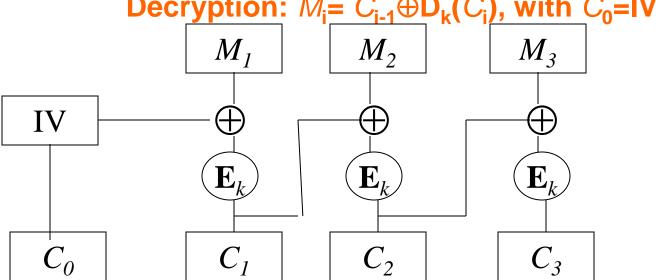
 How to break the semantic security (IND-CPA) of a block cipher with ECB?

#### DES Encryption Modes: CBC

- Cipher Block Chaining (CBC):
  - Uses a random Initial Vector (IV)
  - Next input depends upon previous output

Encryption:  $C_i = E_k (M_i \oplus C_{i-1})$ , with  $C_0 = IV$ 

Decryption:  $M_i = C_{i-1} \oplus D_k(C_i)$ , with  $C_0 = IV$ 

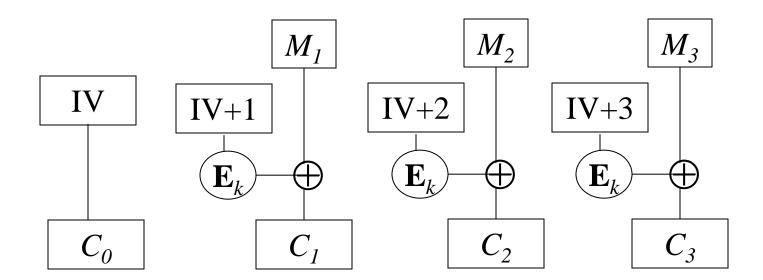


#### Properties of CBC

- Randomized encryption: repeated text gets mapped to different encrypted data.
  - can be proven to provide IND-CPA assuming that the block cipher is secure (i.e., it is a Pseudo Random Permutation (PRP)) and that IV's are randomly chosen and the IV space is large enough (at least 64 bits)
- Each ciphertext block depends on all preceding plaintext blocks.
- Usage: chooses random IV and protects the integrity of IV
  - The IV is not secret (it is part of ciphertext)
  - The adversary cannot control the IV

#### **Encryption Modes: CTR**

- Counter Mode (CTR): Defines a stream cipher using a block cipher
  - Uses a random IV, known as the counter
  - Encryption:  $C_0=IV$ ,  $C_i=M_i \oplus E_k[IV+i]$
  - Decryption:  $IV=C_0$ ,  $M_i=C_i \oplus E_k[IV+i]$



#### Properties of CTR

- Gives a stream cipher from a block cipher
- Randomized encryption:
  - when starting counter is chosen randomly
- Random Access: encryption and decryption of a block can be done in random order, very useful for hard-disk encryption.
  - E.g., when one block changes, re-encryption only needs to encrypt that block. In CBC, all later blocks also need to change

#### Coming Attractions ...

 Cryptography: Cryptographic Hash Functions and Message Authentication

