CS-4920: Lecture 7 Secret key cryptography

Reading

- Chapter 3 (pp. 59-75, 92-93)
- Today's Outcomes
 - Discuss block and key length issues related to secret key cryptography
 - Define several terms related to secret key cryptography
 - Describe and evaluate DES, focusing on both design and implementation issues
 - Explain some uses of one-time pads with RC4 as a representative example

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Block encryption

Block algorithms

- Take a fixed-length message block... size?
 Short block problem (*e.g.*, monoalphabetic cipher)
 Too easy to make <plaintext, ciphertext> table
 - 64-bit blocks are commonly used
 - Longer is merely inconvenient, once security is established
- Take a fixed-length key
 - 56 bits for DES, 128 for IDEA, typically \geq 64 bits
- Generate a ciphertext block equal in length to the input block

Determining the plaintext→ciphertext mapping

- Want a random-looking mapping
 - So a few <pt, ct> pairs cannot be used to infer the key without exhaustive search
 - Consider Caesar cipher vs. monoalphabetic
- For 64 bits, there are 2⁶⁴! 1-to-1 random mappings
 Nearly 2⁷⁰ bits needed this key is too long
- Random-looking vs. random, various tests...
 - Single bit input change results in an apparently unrelated output
 - Roughly half of the bits are different
- We can get random-looking output with much **shorter**, **practical** keys...

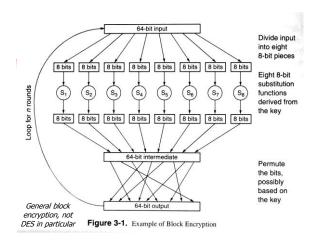
Evading cryptanalysis by spreading input effects

Substitution

- A separate output for each input
- Random tables reasonable for 8 bits (2⁸ entries)
- But not 64 bits (2⁶⁴ entries)
 Takes (nearly) k·2^k bits
- Bits per entry × entries
- Permutation
 - Spreads the influence of bits throughout the block
 - Let LSBs affect any bits, not just other LSBs
 Random, reversible, reordering
 - Takes (nearly) k·log₂k bits
 - Entries × cost to encode a position



- Choose a reasonable number of rounds
 - Too few: can see patterns and attack
 - Too many: inefficient
- Reversible
 - Everything done can be undone
 - If we know the permutations and substitutions



DES (Data Encryption Standard)

- 1977 National Bureau of Standards (now NIST)
- 56-bit key, 64-bit I/O blocks
- Key appears as 64 bits
 - But LSB of each byte is an odd-parity bit
- Consensus is no practical value to this use of parity Reasonable encryption speeds on standard CPUs
- Roughly 60 kB/s per 1000 MIP, varying with architecture and implementation

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- Much more efficient with custom hardware
 - Some features of DES do not add to security, but make software implementations inefficient

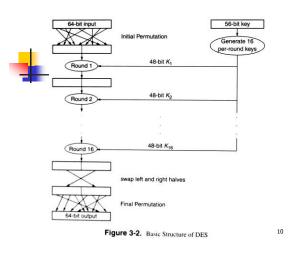
Breaking DES

- 1977
- ~\$20M hardware to find a key in 12 hours 1998
- <\$250k to find a key in 4.5 days
- Triple DES (Chapter 4)
- $E \rightarrow EDE, D \rightarrow DED$
- "Keying option 2," K1=K3
 Believed to be 2⁵⁶ times harder to break
 Prevents "meet-in-the-middle" attack

 - Secure for foreseeable future
- 2010
 - $112 \rightarrow 80$ -bit chosen plaintext attack per NIST

DES Overview

- 64-bit input through fixed permutation
- 56-bit key generates 16, 48-bit keys for 16 rounds
- Round processing × 16
- 64-bit input and output, 48-bit key
- Swap halves
- Final permutation (inverse of initial)
- Decryption: just reverse the steps





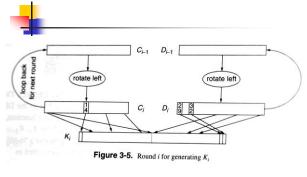
Initial and final permutations

- 64-bit to 64-bit
- See book, pages 66-67
- Do not add security value
 - Since they are fixed and occur at the very beginning and end
 - Just to make software implementation on a general CPU less efficient?

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Generating the per-round keys

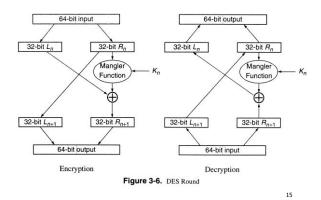
- 56-bit key is passed through a fixed permutation
 Again, no security value
 - The two 28-bit halves are called C_{0} and D_{0}
- Rounds 1-16
 - Left rotate C and D each by 1 (round 1, 2, 9, 16) or 2 bits
 The rotations go full circle (1·4 + 2(16-4) = 28)
 - C and D are permuted (with 4 bits discarded) to generate the 2 halves of the 48-bit round key
 - These permutations are believed to have security value
 Less locality in the round keys

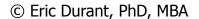


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DES round (see Figure)

- Block divided into 2, 32-bit halves
 L_n and R_n
- $L_{n+1} = R_n$
- $R_{n+1} = L_n \oplus mangler(R_n, K_n)$
- Decryption: reverse process
- Need L_n. Reverse mangler? No (elegant design)...
 - Use, $A \oplus B \oplus B = A$
 - $L_n = R_{n+1} \oplus mangler(R_n, K_n)$
 - R_n and K_n are known





The mangler

- Purpose: scramble the data based on the round key
- Also called the Feistel function
- Inputs: R_n (32-bit data block), K_n (48-bit round key) Output: Mangled 32-bit block
- Processing
 Expand R_n to 48 bits
- Expand R_n (0 40 bits)
 Take 8, 6-bit chunks that overlap by 2 bits
 bits -1 through 4, 3 through 8, ...
 (Expanded R_n) ⊕ K_n
 Map each 6-bit chunk to a 4-bit chunk

- Separate table for each of the 8 chunks (S-boxes) Center 4 bits are based on the data 2 edge bits select 1 of 4 subtables for each chunk
- Permute the final 32-bit quantity Security value: bit spreading for next round, good randomness property

Weak and semi-weak keys

- 4 of the 2⁵⁶ keys are weak
 - All 0s or 1s in C₀ and D₀
 - They are their own inverses
 - Encrypting with a key is the same as decrypting with its inverse
- 12 more are semi-weak
 - Alternating 1010 or 0101 in C₀ and/or D₀
 - The inverse of each is in the set of 12

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16

DES Issues

- Design process was secret
- Were the S-boxes chosen to be weak?
- 1991: Swapping box 3 with 7 makes DES about an order of magnitude less secure Admittedly specific, unlikely attack
- To address this "secret weakness" concern
 - Many cryptographic algorithms choose their "random" numbers based on demonstrable methods
 - E.g., digits of п

RC4

- One-time pad a long (pseudo)random string used to encrypt a message
- Use one time theoretically very secure But, how do we generate?Pseudorandom
- Pseudorandom
 Passes many/all tests for randomness

 Distribution, correlation with previous samples (overall or of particular bits).....
 Generated by algorithm predictable if you know algorithm/key

 Stream cipher apply one-time pad to a stream of plaintext
- Stream upper end of a stream of prime and of a stream of prime at a stream of prime at a stream of prime at a stream of a stream