# Secret Key Cryptography <br> Cryptography (lecture portion) 

## Andreas Unterweger

School of ITS<br>Salzburg UAS

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## Recap

- Traditional naming of actors
- Alice
- Bob
- Eve
- Terms
- Plaintext (further: chosen-plaintext attack)
- Ciphertext (further: chosen-ciphertext attack)
- Key
- Encryption (function)
- Decryption (function)
- Types of ciphers
- Symmetric vs. asymmetric cryptography
- Stream vs. block ciphers


## Overview of secret key cryptography

- Symmetric cryptography: Key is kept secret/private
- Perfect security (Vernam) requires keys as long as the message
$\rightarrow$ Impractical (shorter keys desired)
$\rightarrow$ Practical solution: Approaches which are not perfectly secure, but only computationally secure (weaker security guarantee)
- Computational security example: Cipher can be broken with a probability of $<10^{-30}$ in 200 years using the fastest available computer
- Computationally secure schemes rely on (difficulty) assumptions
- Focus topics:
- Example of a symmetric cipher: The Advanced Encryption Standard
- Key exchange
- Cryptographic hashes (for integrity)


## Overview of AES

- The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES)
- Standardized as winner of a competition (2001)
- Widely used and supported
- Block cipher (128 bits) with a substitution-permutation network
- Supports 128-, 192- or 256-bit keys
- Known attacks on simplified variations of AES, but no better way known to break full AES than exhaustive/brute-force key search
- Recall: $2^{128} \approx 10^{38}$ possible keys is a lot
- Optimistic $10^{10}$ decryptions/s on a desktop computer: $10^{28} \mathrm{~s} \approx 10^{20}$ a!
- Optimistic $10^{20}$ decryptions/s on a computer cluster: $10^{18} \mathrm{~s} \approx 10^{10} \mathrm{a}$ !


## The AES algorithm I

- High-level overview of encryption:
- 4.4 byte state array initially equal to the input (block)
- Multiple rounds which change the state array
- Number of rounds depends on the key length (e.g., 14 for 256 bits)
- Each round: 4 stages (substitution-permutation network)
- Key influences state array in each round (without details)
- Final round has slightly different stages (without details)
- Decryption inverts encryption steps (simplified)
- Messages which are not a multiple of the block size long need to be padded (without details)

The AES algorithm II

- Stage 1: AddRoundKey
- Derive 128 -bit round key from key
- XOR state array with round key


Source: Matt Crypto: AddRoundKey operation for AES.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:AES-AddRoundKey.svg\#/media/File:AES-AddRoundKey.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2006.

## The AES algorithm III

- Stage 2: SubBytes
- Replace bytes based on a lookup table
- Lookup table is fixed for all bytes and rounds


Source: Matt Crypto: SubBytes operation for AES.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:AES-SubBytes.svg\#/media/File:AES-SubBytes.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2006.

## The AES algorithm IV

- Stage 3: ShiftRows
- Cyclical shift of bytes in rows of state array
- Different shift for each row


Source: Matt Crypto: ShiftRows operation for AES.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:AES-ShiftRows.svg\#/media/File:AES-ShiftRows.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2006.

## The AES algorithm V

- Stage 4: MixColumns
- Column-wise transformation (without details)
- Achieves diffusion together with stage 3


Source: Matt Crypto: MixColumns operation for AES.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:AES-MixColumns.svg\#/media/File:AES-MixColumns.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2006.

## Plug-in: Substitution-permutation networks I

- Multiple rounds of invertible substitution and permutation
- Implement the confusion-diffusion paradigm


Source: Ebrary.net: DES. https://ebrary.net/134519/computer_science/ (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2022.

## Plug-in: Substitution-permutation networks II

- Confusion-diffusion paradigm
- Confusion: Permute all parts/bytes of a block separately
- Diffusion: Reorder bits to propagate changes to all parts of the output
- Repeated use of confusion and diffusion result in random-looking permutation overall (without details)
$\rightarrow$ Avalanche effect: Small changes to the input result in large changes to the output (a single input bit should affect all output bits)
$\rightarrow$ Changing one input bit is expected to flip $50 \%$ of the output bits
- Security depend on choices of substitutions and permutations as well as the number of rounds
- Networks/block ciphers by themselves are not secure against chosen-plaintext attacks (details in chapter 3 of Katz (2008))


## Modes of operation: ECB

- ECB: Electronic code book mode
- Same plaintext always yields same ciphertext under same key $\rightarrow$ identical plaintext blocks repeat in ciphertext $\rightarrow$ not secure!


Ciphertext



Electronic Codebook (ECB) mode encryption
Source: WhiteTimberwolf: Encryption using the Electronic Code Block (ECB) mode.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:ECB_encryption.svg\#/media/Datei:ECB_encryption.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2013.

## Modes of operation: CBC I

- CBC: Cipher block chaining mode
- Ciphertexts from previous blocks affect ciphertext of current block
- Initialization vector (IV) must be chosen for first block



## Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode encryption

Source: WhiteTimberwolf: Encryption using the Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode. https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:CBC_encryption.svg\#/media/File:CBC_encryption.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2013.

## Modes of operation: CBC II

- IV should be random and not be reused
- IV must be sent with the ciphertext for decryption
- Encryption and decryption cannot be parallelized


Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode decryption
Source: WhiteTimberwolf: Decryption using the Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode. https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:CBC_decryption.svg\#/media/File:CBC_decryption.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2013.

## Modes of operation: OFB

- OFB: Output feedback mode
- Only IV is input repeatedly into the block cipher, not the plaintext $\rightarrow$ Plaintext is XOR-ed with the encrypted byte stream



## Output Feedback (OFB) mode encryption

Source: WhiteTimberwolf: Encryption using the Output Feedback (OFB) mode.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:0FB_encryption.svg\#/media/File:OFB_encryption.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2013.

## Modes of operation: CTR

- CTR: Counter mode (different variations)
- Like OFB, but with incrementing counter (starts at random number)
- Parallelizable (like OFB) and secure against chosen-plaintext attack


Counter (CTR) mode encryption

Source: WhiteTimberwolf: Encryption using the Counter (CTR) mode.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:CTR_encryption_2.svg\#/media/File:CTR_encryption_2.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2013.

## Practical concerns

- Which key length is sufficient?
- Depends until when the ciphertext should be secure
- Depends on who you ask (professional recommendations)
- Comparison at https://www.keylength.com/en/compare/
- AES and the presented modes do not provide
- Integrity/authentication: Eve can change bits of the ciphertext without Bob noticing $\rightarrow$ GCM (Galois/counter mode, without details) or additional integrity checks $\rightarrow$ cryptographic hashes
- Security against chosen-ciphertext attacks without additional measures
- Security if they are used improperly, e.g., when IVs are reused


## Key exchange

- Secret key cryptography requires a pre-shared key
$\rightarrow$ How do Alice and Bob share a secret key?
- Physically (meeting, mailing etc.)
- Key distribution centers (requires trust)
... (other solutions which are impractical for transient communication)
- For multiple communicating parties
- Each pair of communicating parties needs their own key
$\rightarrow$ Quadratic complexity (impractical for storage and management)
- Alternative: Diffie-Hellman key exchange


## Plug-in: Modular arithmetic I

- For all $a, b, N \in \mathbb{N} \backslash\{0,1\}, a \equiv b(\bmod N)$ if $a \bmod N=b \bmod N$
- $a$ and $b$ are congruent modulo $N$ when their remainders upon division by $N$ are equal, e.g., $15 \equiv 3(\bmod 12) ; 123 \equiv 35 \equiv 2(\bmod 11)$


Source: Time Clock Experts.com: Pyramid 13" Analog STD 12/24-Hr Clock Battery Operated (For 915MHz). https://www.timeclockexperts.com/Pyramid-13-915MHz-9A13D-Battery-Operated-p/s9a3acgbxb.htm (accessed on August 25, 2022), 2006.

## Plug-in: Modular arithmetic II

- Adding in a modulus is like adding on a clock - examples: $11+3 \equiv 14 \equiv 2(\bmod 12) ; 123+35 \equiv 158 \equiv 4(\bmod 11)$
- Most standard rules of arithmetic still work in modular arithmetic:
- Addition: If $x \equiv x^{\prime}(\bmod N)$ and $y \equiv y^{\prime}(\bmod N)$, then

$$
x+y \equiv x^{\prime}+y^{\prime}(\bmod N)
$$

- Subtraction (analogously)
- Multiplication: If $x \equiv x^{\prime}(\bmod N)$ and $y \equiv y^{\prime}(\bmod N)$, then $x \cdot y \equiv x^{\prime} \cdot y^{\prime}(\bmod N)$
- Division does not work in general
- Invertibility (not always possible):
- Define $a^{-1}$ such that $a \cdot a^{-1} \equiv 1(\bmod N)$
- Example: $a=3, a^{-1}=4, N=11$; counter-example: $a=3, N=12$
- Requires that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)=1$ (details in Katz (2008))


## Plug-in: Multiplicative groups I

- A multiplicative group is a set $S$ which
- is closed under multiplication (multiplying yields an element of the set)
- has an identity (element) e such that $\forall s \in S: e \cdot s=s$
- has an inverse for every element
- Counter-examples:
- \{2\} does not fulfill any of the criteria
- $\mathbb{R}$ : Zero is not invertible
- $\{1, j,-j\}$ is not closed (e.g., $j \cdot j=-1$ )
- Simple example: $\mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$ is a multiplicative group
- $\mathbb{R} \backslash\{0\}$ is closed
- The identity element is 1
- Every element has an inverse: $e^{-1}=\frac{1}{e}$
- Multiplications may also be performed in a modulus


## Plug-in: Multiplicative groups II

Multiplication tables of the groups $\mathbb{Z}_{5}^{*}=\{1,2,3,4\}$ modulo 5 (left) and $\{3,6,9,12\}$ modulo 5 (right):

| $\times$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 3 |
| 3 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 2 |
| 4 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |


| $\times$ | 3 | 6 | 9 | 12 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 3 | 9 | 3 | 12 | 6 |
| 6 | 3 | 6 | 9 | 12 |
| 9 | 12 | 9 | 6 | 3 |
| 12 | 6 | 12 | 3 | 9 |

Sources: Purwanto, Hidayah, I. N., and Hasanah, D.: Results and Problems on Constructing Multiplicative Groups in Modular Arithmetic. http://fmipa.um.ac.id/wp-content/uploads/2019/10/MATEMATIKA_PURWANTO-Rev-14-23.pdf (accessed on August 25, 2022), 2019.
[1] Purwanto, Hidayah, I. N., and Hasanah, D.: Results and Problems on Constructing Multiplicative Groups in Modular Arithmetic. http://fmipa.um.ac.id/wp-content/uploads/2019/10/MATEMATIKA_PURWANTO-Rev-14-23.pdf (accessed on August 25, 2022), 2019.

## Plug-in: Multiplicative groups III

- Exponentiation for groups (analogous to "regular" exponentiation)
- Defined as repeated multiplication: $g^{m}:=\underbrace{g \cdot g \cdots \cdots g}_{m \text { times }}$
- $g^{0}:=1$ (where 1 needs to be an element of the group)
- Familiar rules apply, e.g., $\left(g^{a}\right)^{b}=g^{a \cdot b}$
- Special groups $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}:=\{1,2, \cdots, n-1\}$ with multiplication modulo $n \in \mathbb{P}$ (restricted for now, general definition later)
- $n$ must be prime (otherwise some elements are not invertible)
- Exponentiating to base $g \in \mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$ (cyclically) generates subsets/subgroups
- Example: $g=3$ for $\mathbb{Z}_{5}^{*}$ generates $\{1,3,4,2\}=\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$
- Smaller example: $g=4$ for $\mathbb{Z}_{5}^{*}$ generates the subgroup $\{1,4\}$

Note: For proofs of the above claims see Katz (2021)

## Diffie-Hellman key exchange I

- Discrete logarithm (analogous to "regular" logarithm)
- Inverse operation of exponentiation in a modulus
- Definition: $\log _{g}(h)=x$ if $g^{x} \equiv h \bmod n$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}$
- Example: $\log _{3}(4) \equiv 2 \bmod 5$
- For some $g$ in cyclic groups, $\log _{g}$ is easy to compute
- For some $g, \log _{g}$ is believed to be hard to compute
- Diffie-Hellman assumption (computational Diffie-Hellman problem):
- Task: Given $X:=g^{x}$ and $Y:=g^{y}$ with known generator $g$ and modulus $n$, determine $g^{x \cdot y}=\left(g^{x}\right)^{y}=\left(g^{y}\right)^{x}$
- If $\log _{g}$ is easy to compute for $g$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}, g^{x \cdot y}$ is easy to compute as $X^{\log _{g}(Y)}=\left(g^{x}\right)^{y}=g^{x \cdot y}$
- If $\log _{g}$ is hard to compute for $g$ in $\mathbb{Z}_{n}^{*}, g^{x \cdot y}$ is hard to compute
$\rightarrow$ Use this assumption to build a key exchange protocol


## Diffie-Hellman key exchange II



Source: Kosolov, P.: Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange via REST.
https://medium.com/@razumovsky_r/diffie-hellman-key-exchange-via-rest-b7a91c9df7b1 (accessed on August 25, 2022), 2022.

## Diffie-Hellman key exchange III

- Steps ( $G$ and $P$ are assumed to be publicly known):
(1) Alice generates a random group element a (out of scope)
(2) Alice sends $A=G^{a} \bmod P$ to Bob
(3) Bob generates a random group element $b$ (out of scope)
(9) Bob sends $B=G^{b} \bmod P$ to Alice
(5) Alice computes the shared secret/key $s=B^{a}=\left(G^{b}\right)^{a}=G^{a \cdot b}$
(0) Bob computes the shared secret/key $s=A^{b}=\left(G^{a}\right)^{b}=G^{a \cdot b}$
- Eve can see $A=G^{a}$ and $B=G^{b}$, but cannot compute $s=G^{a \cdot b}$ from this information alone (Diffie-Hellman assumption)
- There may be other ways to compute $s \rightarrow$ stronger security definition through decisional Diffie-Hellman problem (out of scope)
- A man in the middle could still intercept communication, so additional protections are needed (without details)


## Practical concerns

- Forward secrecy
- If an attacker finds the shared secret somehow, he can only read the current, but not previous or future conversations between Alice and Bob
- Requires that Alice and Bob generate/exchange new keys every time they communicate (also called Diffie-Hellman Ephemeral)
- How to choose good generators and groups
- For $\mathbb{Z}_{n \in \mathbb{P}}^{*}$, the discrete logarithm is easy to compute in some cases
$\rightarrow$ Use "safe" primes and certain large subgroups (out of scope)
- Additional checks for vulnerable $g$ and $n$ (out of scope)
- How to choose the size of the modulus $n$
- Symmetric key sizes cannot be compared to (sub)group sizes
- Recommendations at https://www.keylength.com/en/compare/
[2] IBM Corporation: Variants of Diffie-Hellman.
https://www.ibm.com/docs/en/zvse/6.2?topic=SSB27H_6.2.0/fa2ti_openssl_variants_of_diffie_hellman.html (accessed on August 25, 2022), 2021.


## Overview of cryptographic hashes I

- A hash function $H(m)$
- creates a fingerprint/digest/hash of a given message $m$
- maps a variable-sized input to a fixed-sized output
- is "one-way", i.e., computationally infeasible to invert
- Applications
- Message integrity: Detect tampering
- Digital signatures (later): Sign hash instead of full message
- Pseudo-random number generation (out of scope)
- Example hash function: Secure Hash Algorithm 2


## Overview of cryptographic hashes II

- The same input always gives the same output, i.e., $H\left(m_{1}\right)=H\left(m_{2}\right)$ if $m_{1}=m_{2}$
- Different inputs ideally give different outputs (more later)


Source: Manning Publications: Cryptographic Hashes and Bitcoin.
https://freecontent.manning.com/cryptographic-hashes-and-bitcoin/ (accessed on August 23, 2022), 2017.

## One-way functions

- A one-way function
- is easy to compute
- is hard to invert
- relies on the existence of a problem which is easy to compute one way, but hard to compute the other way around
- Example: Factoring as a one-way function
- Given arbitrary and large $p, q \in \mathbb{P}$, multiply and output $N=p \cdot q$
- Inverse problem: given an arbitrary and large $N$ which is the product of two primes, factor $p$ and $q$ such that $p \cdot q=N$
- Assumes the factoring assumption is true (multiplying is computationally "easy", but factoring is computationally "hard")
- One-way functions alone are insufficient to build robust hash functions
- Practical hash functions do not base their security on provable reduction to one-way functions, but on heuristics


## Secure Hash Algorithm 21

- Secure Hash Algorithm 2 (SHA-2)
- Standardized (2001) after SHA-1 weaknesses
- Widely used and supported
- Supports 224-, 256-, 384- and 512-bit digests (for recommended digest sizes see https://www.keylength.com/en/compare/)
- Known attacks on simplified variations of SHA-2, but no better way known to break full SHA-2 than generic attacks affecting all cryptographic hashes (later)
- Example: SHA-512 (SHA-2 with 512-bit digests)
- 80 rounds of updating 32 -bit internal state variables A-H with 64-bit words $W$ based on the input message (simplified)
- Automatic padding for messages whose length is not an integer multiple of 64 bits
[3] Khovratovich, D., Rechberger, C., Savelieva, A.: Bicliques for Preimages: Attacks on Skein-512 and the SHA-2 Family. In: FSE 2012: Fast Software Encryption, 2012.


## Secure Hash Algorithm 2 II

- Note: The red plus denotes 64-bit addition, the blue function blocks perform logical and bit-shift operations detailed in the image source


Source: kockmeyer: A schematic that shows the SHA-2 algorithm.
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:SHA-2.svg\#/media/File:SHA-2.svg (accessed on August 23, 2022 ), 2007.
[3] Khovratovich, D., Rechberger, C., Savelieva, A.: Bicliques for Preimages: Attacks on Skein-512 and the SHA-2 Family. In: FSE 2012: Fast Software Encryption, 2012.

## Attacks on cryptographic hashes - Introduction

- Basic definitions:
- Collision: Two inputs (messages) which give the same output (hash): $H\left(m_{1}\right)=H\left(m_{2}\right)$ if $m_{1} \neq m_{2}$
- Collision resistance: It is computationally infeasible to find collisions
- Collisions must happen when allowing arbitrarily-sized inputs with a fixed-sized output (pigeon-hole principle)
$\rightarrow$ Weaker security levels in practice:
- Second-preimage resistance: Given a message $m$, it is infeasible to find an $m^{\prime} \neq m$ such that $H\left(m^{\prime}\right)=H(m)$
- Preimage resistance: Given a hash $h=H(m)$, it is infeasible to find an $m^{\prime}$ such that $H\left(m^{\prime}\right)=h$


## Attacks on cryptographic hashes - Overview

- Brute-force attack ((second-)preimage attack)
- Try to find the preimage $m$ or another $m^{\prime}$ such that $H(m)=H\left(m^{\prime}\right)=: h$
- Generate messages $m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots$
- For $n$-bit hashes, the probability of any $m_{i}$ being hashed to $h$ is $\frac{1}{2^{n}}$
$\rightarrow 2^{n}$ attempts necessary
- Birthday attack (collision attack)
- Try to find two preimages $m \neq m^{\prime}$ such that $H(m)=H\left(m^{\prime}\right)$
- Generate distinct messages $m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots$ uniformly at random
- For $n$-bit hashes, the probability of any two $m_{i}$ and $m_{j}(i \neq j)$ being hashed to the same output is determined by the Birthday problem
$\rightarrow \approx 2^{\frac{n}{2}}$ attempts necessary
- Length extensions (out of scope)
- Partial-message attack (out of scope)


## Thank you for your attention!

## Questions?

