

# **ENEE 459-C**

# **Computer Security**

## **Symmetric key encryption**



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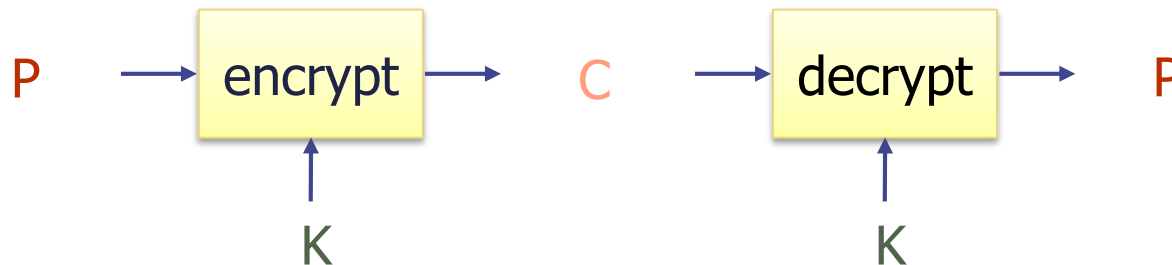
# Symmetric Cryptosystem

- Scenario

- Alice wants to send a message (plaintext P) to Bob
- The communication channel is insecure and can be eavesdropped
- If Alice and Bob have previously agreed on a symmetric encryption scheme and a secret key K, the message can be sent encrypted (ciphertext C)

- Issues

- What is a good symmetric encryption scheme?
- What is the complexity of encrypting/decrypting?
- What is the size of the ciphertext, relative to the plaintext?

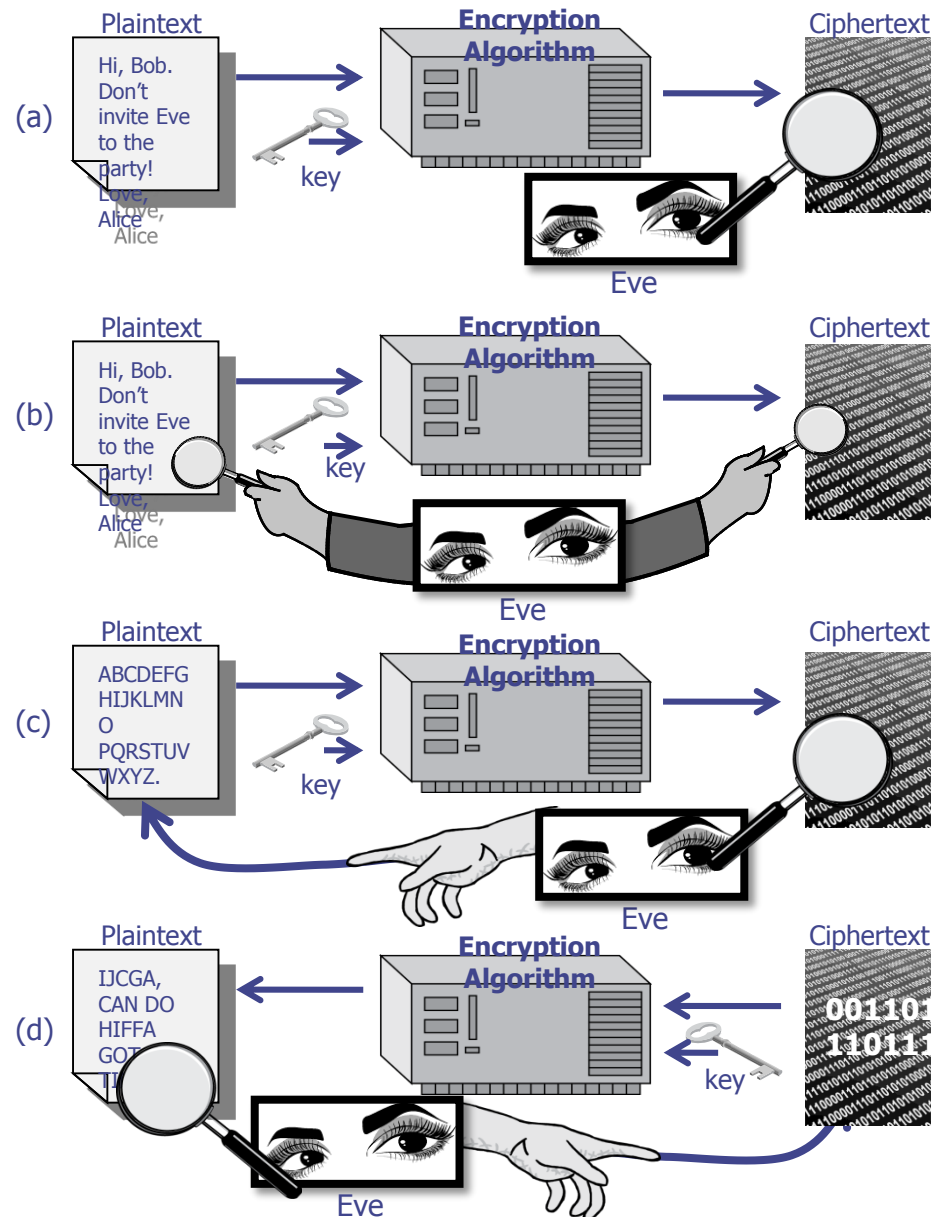


# Basics

- Notation
  - Secret key  $K$
  - Encryption function  $E_K(P)$
  - Decryption function  $D_K(C)$
  - Plaintext length typically the same as ciphertext length
  - Encryption and decryption are **permutation functions (bijections)** on the set of all  $n$ -bit arrays
- Efficiency
  - functions  $E_K$  and  $D_K$  should have efficient algorithms
- Consistency
  - Decrypting the ciphertext yields the plaintext
  - $D_K(E_K(P)) = P$

# Attacks

- Attacker may have
  - collection of ciphertexts (ciphertext only attack)
  - collection of plaintext/ciphertext pairs (known plaintext attack)
  - collection of plaintext/ciphertext pairs for plaintexts selected by the attacker (chosen plaintext attack)
  - collection of plaintext/ciphertext pairs for plaintexts and ciphertexts selected by the attacker (chosen ciphertext attack or lunchtime attack)



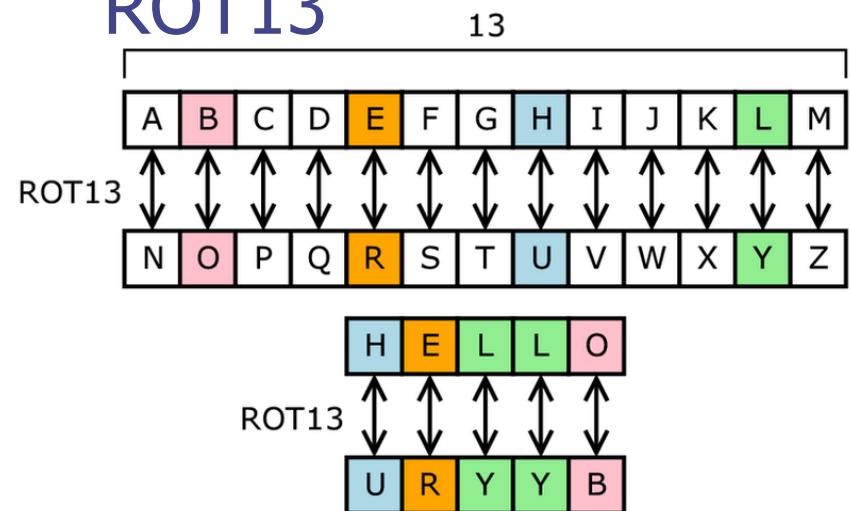
# Brute-Force Attack

- Try all possible keys  $K$  and determine if  $D_K(C)$  is a likely plaintext
  - Requires some knowledge of the structure of the plaintext (e.g., PDF file or email message)
- Key should be a sufficiently long random value to make exhaustive search attacks unfeasible



# Substitution Ciphers

- Each letter is uniquely replaced by another
- There are 26! possible substitution ciphers
- One popular substitution “cipher” for some Internet posts is ROT13



# Substitution Boxes

- Substitution can also be done on binary numbers.
- Such substitutions are usually described by substitution boxes, or S-boxes.

	00	01	10	11		0	1	2	3
00	0011	0100	1111	0001	0	3	8	15	1
01	1010	0110	0101	1011	1	10	6	5	11
10	1110	1101	0100	0010	2	14	13	4	2
11	0111	0000	1001	1100	3	7	0	9	12
		(a)					(b)		

**Figure 8.3:** A 4-bit S-box (a) An S-box in binary. (b) The same S-box in decimal.

# Frequency Analysis

- Letters in a natural language, like English, are not uniformly distributed
- Knowledge of letter frequencies, including pairs and triples can be used in cryptologic attacks against substitution ciphers

a: 8.05%	b: 1.67%	c: 2.23%	d: 5.10%
e: 12.22%	f: 2.14%	g: 2.30%	h: 6.62%
i: 6.28%	j: 0.19%	k: 0.95%	l: 4.08%
m: 2.33%	n: 6.95%	o: 7.63%	p: 1.66%
q: 0.06%	r: 5.29%	s: 6.02%	t: 9.67%
u: 2.92%	v: 0.82%	w: 2.60%	x: 0.11%
y: 2.04%	z: 0.06%		

Letter frequencies in the book *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*, by Twain.



# One-Time Pads

- There is one type of substitution cipher that is absolutely unbreakable
  - The **one-time pad** was invented in 1917 by Joseph Mauborgne and Gilbert Vernam
  - We use a block of shift keys,  $(k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n)$ , to encrypt a plaintext,  $M$ , of length  $n$ , with each shift key being chosen uniformly at random
- Since each shift is random, every ciphertext is equally likely for any plaintext

# Algorithms

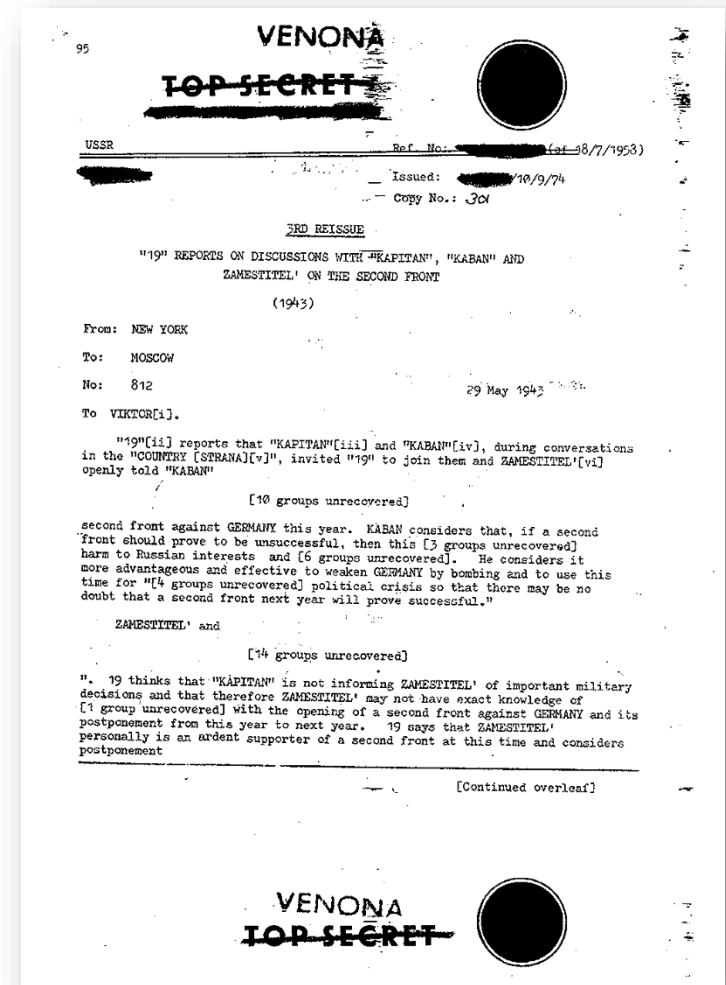
- $K \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(n)$ : Pick a random key  $K$  of  $n$  bits
- $E_K(A)$ : On input plaintext  $A$ , compute ciphertext  $B = A \text{ XOR } K$
- $D_K(B)$ : On input ciphertext  $B$ , compute plaintext  $A = B \text{ XOR } K$
- **Correctness**:  $B \text{ XOR } K = (A \text{ XOR } K) \text{ XOR } K = A \text{ XOR } 0 = A$
- **Security?**

# Perfect security

- For all messages  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  and for all ciphertexts  $c$
- $\Pr[K \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(n): E_K(m_1)=c] = \Pr[K \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(n): E_K(m_2)=c]$
- Proof
  - Note that  $\text{Enc}_K(m_1)=c$  is the event  $m_1 \text{ XOR } K = c$  which is the event  $K = m_1 \text{ XOR } c$
  - $K$  is chosen at random (irrespective of  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ , and therefore the probability is  $2^{-n}$ )
  - Namely ciphertext does not reveal anything about the plaintext

# But...

- In spite of their perfect security, one-time pads have some weaknesses
- The key has to be as long as the plaintext
- Keys can never be reused
  - Repeated use of one-time pads compromised communications during the cold war



# Semantic security

- I give you a symmetric encryption scheme  $(\text{Enc}, \text{Dec}, K)$
- What do you need to prove in order to say that it is secure?
- A strong notion used is “semantic security”
- We are going to define it as an interaction between the adversary **A** and a trusted party **T** that has the secret key.
- Informally:
  - **A** picks messages  $m_i$  and receives ciphertexts  $\text{Enc}_K(m_i)$  from **T**.
  - **A** picks message  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  and sends them to **T**.
  - **T** flips a coin  $b$  and computes  $t_b = \text{Enc}_K(m_b)$ .
  - **T** sends  $t_b$  to the **A**.
  - The scheme is secure if **A** has no better chance of finding whether  $t_b$  corresponds to  $m_0$  or  $m_1$  than just guessing!
- This should hold even if it is repeated many (polynomial) times

# Randomized encryption is important for semantic security

- Encryption should be randomized
  - For the same plaintext, it should output different ciphertexts
- How can we turn a deterministic encryption scheme into a randomized one?
  - Padding input with randomness
- Decryption should however always work