

Crypto Engineering '20



Block ciphers

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The “symmetric” part of this course (with me)

- ▶ 6 CM; 2 TD; $2*(2*2) = 8$ TP
- ▶ About symmetric encryption, authentication, hashing
- ▶ Goal 1: understanding the models \rightsquigarrow What can we/do we try to achieve?
- ▶ Goal 2: looking a bit at some design(s): the why and hows
- ▶ Goal 3: getting a few ideas of what can go terribly wrong :(

Part of the “asymmetric” part of this course (with me)

- ▶ 2 CM; 1 TD; $1*(2*2) = 4$ TP
- ▶ A quick introduction to elliptic curve cryptography and kangaroos for discrete logarithms computation

~Today

BC: First definitions

Symmetric encryption schemes

BC: Evolutions

But first...

- ▶ Cryptography: we want to hide stuff (e.g., messages to be sent over an insecure channel)
- ▶ Symmetric: we only do that assuming a preexisting shared secret
- ▶ A major question: when is the hiding “good enough”?
 - ▶ “HELLO” \mapsto “HULLO”: not great
 - ▶ “HELLO” \mapsto “ZNPQE”: maybe better
 - ▶ “HELLO” \mapsto “ZNPQE”; “HELLO” \mapsto “ZNPQE”; “HELLO” \mapsto “ZNPQE” ...: (Okay, those same 5 letters at the start of your messages probably always mean “hello”)

The problem with deterministic encryption



Figure: XKCD #257

So...

- ▶ Encryption MUST be non-deterministic
- ▶ Also (a bit harder to see): messages MUST *always* be authenticated to prevent tampering (even if only “confidentiality” is a concern)

Now our main concerns:

- ▶ How do we formalise what we want to achieve?
- ▶ How do we actually build schemes that work?

BC: First definitions

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Block ciphers: for what?

Ultimate goal: symmetric encryption (and more!)

- ▶ plaintext + key \mapsto ciphertext
- ▶ ciphertext + key \mapsto plaintext
- ▶ ciphertexts \mapsto ???

With *arbitrary* plaintexts $\in \{0, 1\}^*$

Block ciphers: do that *one-to-one* (for a fixed key) for plaintexts $\in \{0, 1\}^n$

- ▶ (Very) small example: 32 randomly shuffled cards = 5-bit block cipher
- ▶ Typical block sizes = “what’s easy to implement”
- ▶ Mostly useless in isolation (e.g. they’re deterministic) but very useful when plugged into suitable higher-level schemes

Block ciphers as a figure

~> on the board

Block ciphers: “simple” binary mappings

Block cipher

A block cipher is a mapping $\mathcal{E} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}'$ s.t. $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$, $\mathcal{E}(k, \cdot)$ is invertible

In practice, most of the time:

- Keys $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, with $\kappa \in \{~~64~~, ~~80~~, ~~96~~, 112, 128, 192, 256\}$
- Plaintexts/ciphertexts $\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{M}' = \{0, 1\}^n$, with $n \in \{64, 128, 256\}$

⇒ BCs are *families of permutations* over binary domains

- Exception: *Format Preserving Encryption* (FPE)

What's a good block cipher?

One that's:

- ▶ “Efficient”
 - ▶ Fast (e.g. a few *cycles per byte* on modern high-end CPUs)
 - ▶ \wedge/\vee Compact (small code, circuit size)
 - ▶ \wedge/\vee Easy to implement “securely” (e.g. to prevent side-channel attacks)
 - ▶ Etc.
- ▶ “Secure”
 - ▶ Large security parameters (key, block size)
 - ▶ \wedge No (known) dedicated (= that only works for this particular block cipher) attacks.

What's a secure block cipher?

What do you think?

What's a secure block cipher?

Expected behaviour:

- ▶ Given *oracle access* to $\mathcal{E}(k, \cdot)$, with a secret $k \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{K}$, it is “hard” to find k
- ▶ (Same with oracle access to $\mathcal{E}^{\pm}(k, \cdot) := \{\mathcal{E}(k, \cdot), \mathcal{E}^{-1}(k, \cdot)\}$)
- ▶ Given $c = \mathcal{E}(k, m)$, it is “hard” to find m (when k 's unknown)
- ▶ Given m , it is “hard” to find $c = \mathcal{E}(k, m)$ (idem)

But that's not enough!

We need more

Define $\mathcal{E}_k : X_L \parallel X_R \mapsto X_L \parallel \mathcal{E}'_k(X_R)$ for some \mathcal{E}'

- ▶ If \mathcal{E}' verifies all props. from the previous slide, then so does \mathcal{E}
- ▶ But \mathcal{E} is obviously not so nice

⇒ need a better way to formulate expectations

Ideal block cipher

Let $\text{Perm}(\mathcal{M})$ be the set of the $(\#\mathcal{M})!$ permutations of \mathcal{M} ; an *ideal block cipher* $\mathcal{E} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$ is s.t. $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}$, $\mathcal{E}(k, \cdot) \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \text{Perm}(\mathcal{M})$

- ▶ “Maximally random”
 - ▶ All keys yield truly random and independent permutations
 - ▶ Quite costly to implement
 - ▶ Say $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^{32} \rightsquigarrow (2^{32})^{2^{31}} < 2^{32!} < (2^{32})^{2^{32}}$ permutations
 - ▶ So about $32 \times 2^{32} = 2^{37}$ bits to describe one (\leftarrow key size)
- \Rightarrow Not very practical

(S)PRP security

Most of the time, good enough if \mathcal{E} is a “good” *pseudo-random permutation* (PRP):

- ▶ An adversary has access to an oracle \mathbb{O}
- ▶ In one world, $\mathbb{O} \stackrel{s}{\leftarrow} \text{Perm}(\mathcal{M})$
- ▶ In another, $k \stackrel{s}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$, $\mathbb{O} = \mathcal{E}(k, \cdot)$
- ▶ It is “hard” for the adversary to tell in which world he lives
- ▶ (“Strong/Super” variant: give oracle access to \mathbb{O}^{\pm})

\Rightarrow *Stronger* requirement than key recovery (is implied by it, converse is not true)

(S)PRP security: why it makes sense

It's easy to distinguish the two worlds if:

- ▶ It's easy to recover the key of $\mathcal{E}(k, \cdot)$ (try and see)
- ▶ It's easy to predict what $\mathcal{E}(k, m)$ will be (ditto)
- ▶ $\mathcal{E}_k : x_L || x_R \mapsto x_L || \mathcal{E}'_k(x_R)$ (random permutations usually don't do that)
- ▶ \mathcal{E} is \mathbb{F}_2 -linear (say), or even “close to”
- ▶ Etc.

⇒ Don't have to explicitly define all the “bad cases”

Plus:

- ▶ Can't do better than a random permutation anyways
- ▶ If it looks like one, either it's fine, or BCs are useless

(S)PRP: it's not everything

- ▶ Sometimes a PRP is not enough and one needs the (much) stronger *ideal block cipher* model
- ▶ For instance when the adversary has access to the key (\rightsquigarrow considering a uniform choice doesn't make sense anymore)
- ▶ Example: when using block ciphers to build compression functions (cf. the hash function lecture)

Complexity issues

We still need to define what means “hard” \Rightarrow complexity measures:

- ▶ Time (T) (“how much computation”)
- ▶ Memory (M) (“how much storage”)
 - ▶ Memory type (sequential access (cheap tape), RAM (costly))
- ▶ Data (D) (“how many oracle queries”)
 - ▶ Query type (to \mathcal{E} , to \mathcal{E}^{-1} , *adaptive* or not, etc.)
- ▶ Success probability (p)

Generic attack examples

Take $\mathcal{E} : \{0, 1\}^\kappa \times \{0, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$

- ▶ Can guess an unknown key with $T = 2^\kappa$, $M = O(1)$, $D = O(1)$, $p = 1$
- ▶ Can guess an unknown key with $T = 1$, $M = O(1)$, $D = 0$, $p = 2^{-\kappa}$
- ▶ Given $\mathcal{E}(k, m)$, can guess m with $T = 1$; $M = O(1)$, $D = 0$, $p \geq 2^{-\kappa}$
- ▶ Given $\mathcal{E}(k, m)$, can guess m with $T = 1$; $M = O(1)$, $D = 0$, $p \geq 2^{-n}$
- ▶ Given $\mathcal{E}(k, m)$, can guess m with $T = 2^\kappa$; $M = O(1)$, $D = O(1)$, $p = 1$

We have “small” secrets \Rightarrow attacks always possible =
computational security

A “single” measure

Define *advantage* functions associated w/ the security properties.
For instance:

Adv^{PRP}

Adv _{\mathcal{E}} ^{PRP}(q, t) =

$$\max_{A_{q,t}} |\Pr[A_{q,t}^{\textcircled{O}}() = 1 : \textcircled{O} \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \text{Perm}(\mathcal{M})] \\ - \Pr[A_{q,t}^{\textcircled{O}}() = 1 : \textcircled{O} = \mathcal{E}(k, \cdot), k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}]|$$

$A_{q,t}^{\textcircled{O}}$: An algorithm running in time $\leq t$, making $\leq q$ queries to \textcircled{O}

“Good PRPs”

There is no formal definition of what a “good” PRP \mathcal{E} is, but one can expect in that case that:

$$\mathbf{Adv}_{\mathcal{E}}^{\text{PRP}}(q, t) \approx t/2^{\kappa}$$

(As long as $q \geq D \approx \lceil \kappa/n \rceil$)

- ▶ Matched by a generic attack (i.e. key guessing)
- ▶ “Equality” if \mathcal{E} is ideal
- ▶ Anything that’s (sensibly) better is a *dedicated* attack

Parameters choice

Even a good PRP is useless if its key space is too small

- ▶ If $\kappa = 32$, $t = 2^\kappa = 2^{32}$ is small
- ▶ But when do you know κ 's large enough?
- ▶ Look at the time/energy/infrastructure to count up to 2^κ

Some examples

- ▶ $\approx 40 \rightsquigarrow$ breakable w/ a small Raspberry Pi cluster
- ▶ $\approx 60 \rightsquigarrow$ breakable w/ a large CPU/GPU cluster
 - ▶ Already done (equivalently) several times in the academia:
 - ▶ Ex. RSA-768 (Kleinjung et al., 2010), 2000 core-years ($\equiv 2^{67}$ bit operations)
 - ▶ Ex. DL-768 (Kleinjung et al., 2016), 5300 core-years
 - ▶ Ex. SHA-1 collision (Stevens et al., and me!, 2017), 6500 core-years + 100 GPU-year ($\equiv 2^{63}$ hash computations)
- ▶ $\approx 80 \rightsquigarrow$ breakable w/ an ASIC cluster (cf. Bitcoin mining)

Parameters choice (cont.)

What about 128?

Objective: run a function 2^{128} times within 34 years ($\approx 2^{30}$ seconds), assuming:

- ▶ Hardware at 2^{50} iterations/s (that's pretty good)
- ▶ Trivially parallelizable
- ▶ 1000 W per device, no overhead (that's pretty good)

⇒

- ▶ $2^{128-50-30} \approx 2^{48}$ machines needed
- ▶ $\approx 280\,000\,000$ GW 'round the clock
 - ▶ $\approx 170\,000\,000$ EPR nuclear power plants

Looks hard enough

Parameters choice (cont.)

Two caveats:

1 Careful about multiuser security

- ▶ If a single user changes keys *a lot* and breaking one is enough
- ▶ If targeting one random user among many
- ▶ A mix of the two (best!)
- ▶ \leadsto have to account for that

2 Should we care about quantum computers??

- ▶ Would gain a $\sqrt{\cdot}$ factor
- ▶ “128-bit classical” \Rightarrow “64-bit quantum”
- ▶ (But a direct comparison is not so meaningful, actually)

In case of doubt, 256 bits?

Parameters choice (cont.)

What about the *block* size?

- Security not (directly) related to computational power
- Dictated by the volume encrypted with a single key (cf. next)

In the end, it's always a cost/security tradeoff

(If you need a conventional BC with ridiculously large params, SHACAL-2, w/ $n = 256$, $\kappa = 512$ is a good choice!)



BC: First definitions

Symmetric encryption schemes

BC: Evolutions

Block ciphers are not enough

What block ciphers do:

- ▶ One-to-one encryption of fixed-size messages

What do we want:

- ▶ One-to-many encryption of variable-size messages
- ▶ Why?
 - ▶ Variable-size → kind of obvious?
 - ▶ One-to-many → necessary for *semantic security* → cannot tell if two ciphertexts are of the same message or not

Enter modes of operation

- ▶ A *mode of operation* transforms a block cipher into a *symmetric encryption scheme*
- ▶ $\approx \mathcal{E} \rightsquigarrow \text{Enc} : \{0, 1\}^\kappa \times \{0, 1\}^r \times \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$
- ▶ For all $k \in \{0, 1\}^\kappa$, $r \in \{0, 1\}^r$, $\text{Enc}(k, r, \cdot)$ is invertible
- ▶ $\{0, 1\}^r$, $r \geq 0$ is used to make encryption non-deterministic
- ▶ A mode is “good” if it gives “good encryption schemes” when used with “good BCs”
- ▶ So what’s a good encryption scheme?

IND-CPA for Symmetric encryption

IND-CPA for Enc: An adversary cannot distinguish $\text{Enc}(k, m_0)$ from $\text{Enc}(k, m_1)$ for an unknown key k and equal-length messages m_0, m_1 when given oracle access to an $\text{Enc}(k, \cdot)$ oracle:

- 1 The Challenger chooses a key $k \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^\kappa$
- 2 The Adversary may repeatedly submit queries x_i to the Challenger
- 3 The Challenger answers a query with $\text{Enc}(k, r_i, x_i)$
- 4 The Adversary now submits m_0, m_1 of equal length
- 5 The Challenger draws $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$, answers with $\text{Enc}(k, r', m_b)$
- 6 The Adversary tries to guess b
 - The choice of r_i, r' is defined by the mode (made explicit here, may be omitted)

- ▶ A random adversary succeeds w/ prob. $1/2 \rightarrow$ the correct success measure is the *advantage* over this
 - ▶ Advantage (one possible definition): $|\Pr[\text{Adversary answers } 1 : b = 0] - \Pr[\text{Adversary answers } 1 : b = 1]|$
 - ▶ (Same as for PRP security)
- ▶ An adversary may always succeed w/ advantage 1 given enough resources \leadsto only computational security (again)
 - ▶ Find the key spending time $t \leq 2^k$ and a few oracle queries
- ▶ What matters is the “best possible” advantage in function of the attack complexity

First (non-) mode example: ECB

- ▶ ECB: just concatenate independent calls to \mathcal{E}

Electronic Code Book mode

$m_0 || m_1 || \dots \mapsto \mathcal{E}(k, m_0) || \mathcal{E}(k, m_1) || \dots$

- ▶ No security
 - ▶ Exercise: give a simple attack on ECB for the IND-CPA security notion w/ advantage 1, low complexity

Second (actual) mode example: CBC

- ▶ Cipher Block Chaining: Chain blocks together (duh)

Cipher Block Chaining mode

$$r \times m_0 \| m_1 \| \dots \mapsto c_0 := \mathcal{E}(k, m_0 \oplus r) \| c_1 := \mathcal{E}(k, m_1 \oplus c_0) \| \dots$$

- ▶ Output block i (ciphertext) added (XORed) w/ input block $i + 1$ (plaintext)
- ▶ For first (m_0) block: use random IV r
- ▶ Okay security in theory \rightsquigarrow okay security in practice *if used properly*

CBC has bad IND-CPA security if the IVs are not random

- ▶ Consider an IND-CPA adversary who asks an oracle query $\text{CBC-ENC}(m)$, gets $r, c = \mathcal{E}(k, m \oplus r)$ (where \mathcal{E} is the cipher used in CBC-ENC)
- ▶ Assume the adversary knows that for the next IV r' , $\Pr[r' = x]$ is “large”
- ▶ Sends two challenges $m_0 = m \oplus r \oplus x$, $m_1 = m_0 \oplus 1$
- ▶ Gets $c_b = \text{CBC-ENC}(m_b)$, $b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}$
- ▶ If $c_b = c$, guess $b = 0$, else $b = 1$

Generic CBC collision attack

Even with random IVs, CBC has some drawbacks

An observation:

- ▶ In CBC, inputs to \mathcal{E} are of the form $x \oplus y$ where x is a message block and y an IV or a ciphertext block
- ▶ If $x \oplus y = x' \oplus y'$, then $\mathcal{E}(k, x \oplus y) = \mathcal{E}(k, x' \oplus y')$

A consequence:

- ▶ If $c_i = \mathcal{E}(k, m_i \oplus c_{i-1}) = c'_j = \mathcal{E}(k, m'_j \oplus c'_{j-1})$, then $c_{i-1} \oplus c'_{j-1} = m_i \oplus m'_j$
- ▶ \leadsto knowing identical ciphertext blocks reveals information about the message blocks
- ▶ \Rightarrow breaks IND-CPA security
- ▶ Regardless of the security of \mathcal{E} (i.e. even if it is ideal)!

CBC collisions: how likely?

How soon does a collision happen?

- ▶ Assumption: the distribution of the $(x \oplus y)$ is \approx uniform
 - ▶ If y is an IV it has to be (close to) uniformly random, otherwise we have an attack (two slides ago)
 - ▶ If $y = \mathcal{E}(k, z)$ is a ciphertext block, ditto for y knowing z , otherwise we have an attack on \mathcal{E}
- ▶ \Rightarrow A collision occurs w.h.p. after $\sqrt{\#\{0, 1\}^n} = 2^{n/2}$ blocks are observed (with identical key k) \leftarrow *The birthday bound*
- ▶ (Slightly more precisely, w/ prob. $\approx q^2/2^n, q \leq 2^{n/2}$ after q blocks)

Some CBC recap

A decent mode, but

- ▶ Must use uniformly random IVs
- ▶ Must change key *much* before encrypting $2^{n/2}$ blocks when using an n -bit block cipher
- ▶ And this *regardless of the key size κ*
- ▶ Only “birthday bound” security: this is a common restriction for modes of operation (cf. next slide)

Another classical mode: CTR

Counter mode

$$m_0 \| m_1 \| \dots \mapsto \mathcal{E}(k, s++) \oplus m_0 \| \mathcal{E}(k, s++) \oplus m_1 \| \dots$$

- ▶ This uses a global state s for the *counter*, with C-like semantics for $s++$
- ▶ Encrypts a public counter \rightsquigarrow pseudo-random keystream \rightsquigarrow (perfect) one-time-pad approximation (i.e. a *stream cipher*)
- ▶ Like CBC, must change key *much* before encrypting $2^{n/2}$ blocks when using an n -bit block cipher

Security reduction

- ▶ For good modes such as CBC, CTR, one can prove statements of the form: “if [the mode] is instantiated with a ‘good PRP’, then this gives a ‘good IND-CPA encryption scheme’ ”
- ▶ This is an example of *security reduction* (here of the encryption scheme to the block cipher)
- ▶ Quite common & useful in crypto \leadsto modular designs are nice

BC: First definitions

Symmetric encryption schemes

BC: Evolutions

Block cipher evolutions

Block ciphers are very versatile, \leadsto

- ▶ Symmetric encryption
- ▶ Authentication
- ▶ Hashing
- ▶ (More exotic constructions)

But not the only candidate primitives for the above

Two possible variations:

- ▶ Add one parameter (*tweakable* block ciphers)
- ▶ Remove one parameter (*permutations*)

Tweakable block ciphers

Tweakable block cipher

A tweakable block cipher is a mapping $\tilde{\mathcal{E}} : \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{T} \times \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}'$ s.t.
 $\forall k \in \mathcal{K}, t \in \mathcal{T}, \tilde{\mathcal{E}}(k, t, \cdot)$ is invertible

The *tweak* t :

- ▶ Acts like a key in how it parameterizes a permutation
- ▶ Is *public* (known to any adversary)
- ▶ Could even be chosen by anyone

Why TBCs?

Tweakable block ciphers are nice:

- ▶ Simplify the design/proofs of higher-level constructions
- ▶ Typically authenticated-encryption modes (e.g. Θ CB)
- ▶ Help a lot in getting beyond-birthday-bound (BBB) security

An intuition of usefulness:

- ▶ Never reuse a tweak \Rightarrow always use independent permutations
- ▶ Becomes quite harder to attack/distinguish

Tweakable block ciphers may be built either:

- ▶ As high-level constructions, typically from a regular BC
 - ▶ Example: $\tilde{\mathcal{E}}(k, t, \cdot) = \mathcal{E}(k \oplus t, \cdot)$ (adequate if \mathcal{E} is secure against XOR related-key attacks)
- ▶ As dedicated designs (like a regular BC)
 - ▶ Example: KIASU-BC

Permutations

Permutation

A permutation is an invertible mapping $\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$

- ▶ No key anymore!
 - ▶ One consequence: no notion similar to PRP to formalize sec.
- ▶ Easy to build as $\mathcal{E}(0, \cdot)$

Rationale:

- ▶ In BCs, it is wasteful to process the key and plaintext separately
- ▶ Inverting a permutation is often not necessary in constructions; usages like $\mathcal{P}(k||m)$ are okay

Hash functions:

- ▶ SHA-3 (Keccak)
- ▶ JH
- ▶ Grøstl
- ▶ Etc.

Authenticated encryption:

- ▶ River/Lake/Sea/Ocean/Lunar Keyak
- ▶ Ascon
- ▶ Etc.