
CT255
Introduction to Cyber-Security

Lecture 8
Block Ciphers and Stream Ciphers

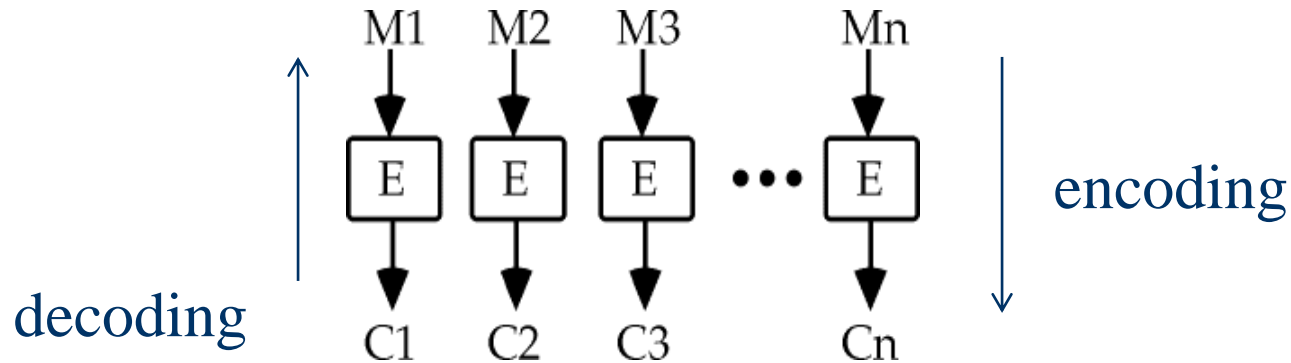
Dr. Michael Schukat, 2019-2022

BLOCK CIPHERS



Encryption Algorithms based on Block Ciphers

- ◆ In a block cipher the message is broken into blocks M_1, M_2 , etc. of K bits length, each of which is then encrypted

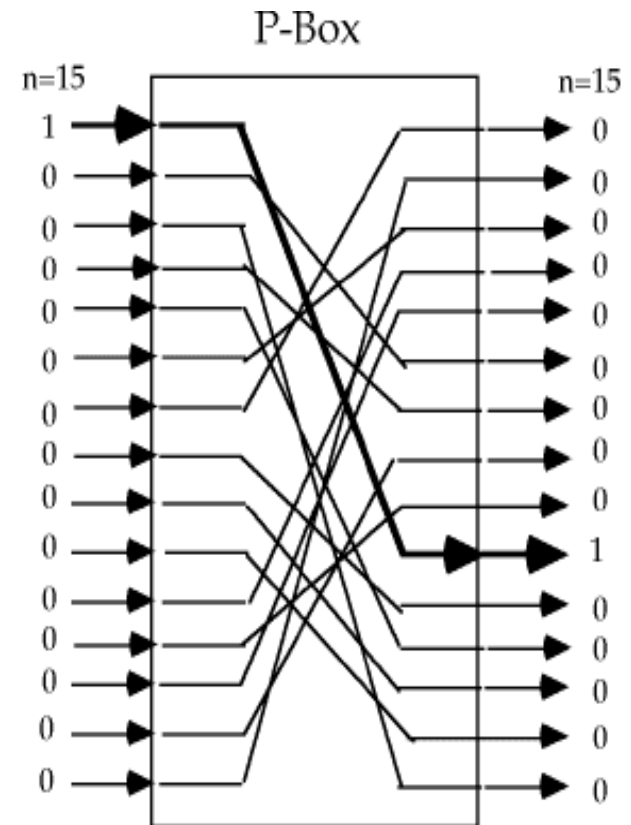


- Most ciphers we saw before process blocks of just one character
- ◆ Claude Shannon suggested to use the two primitive cryptographic operations as building blocks for such ciphers:
 - substitution
 - permutation



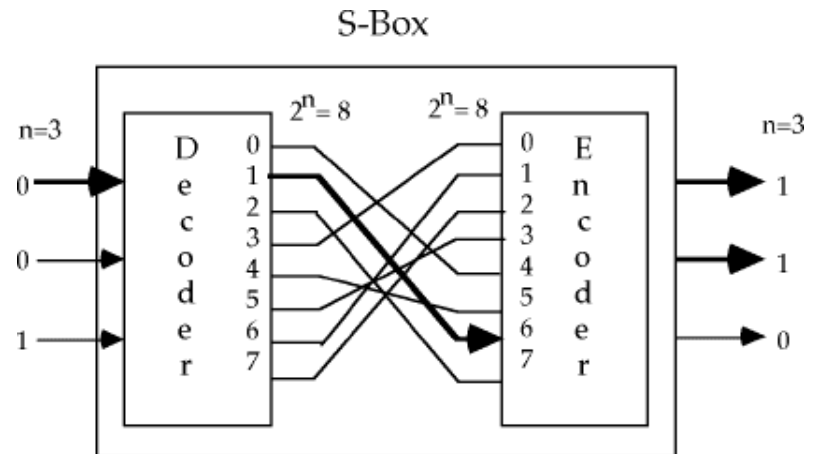
The Permutation Operation

- ◆ A binary word (i.e. block) has its bits reordered (permuted)
- ◆ The re-ordering forms the key
- ◆ Operation represented by a **P-box**
- ◆ The example allows for $15! = 1,307,674,368,000$ combinations
- ◆ The key describes the combination used

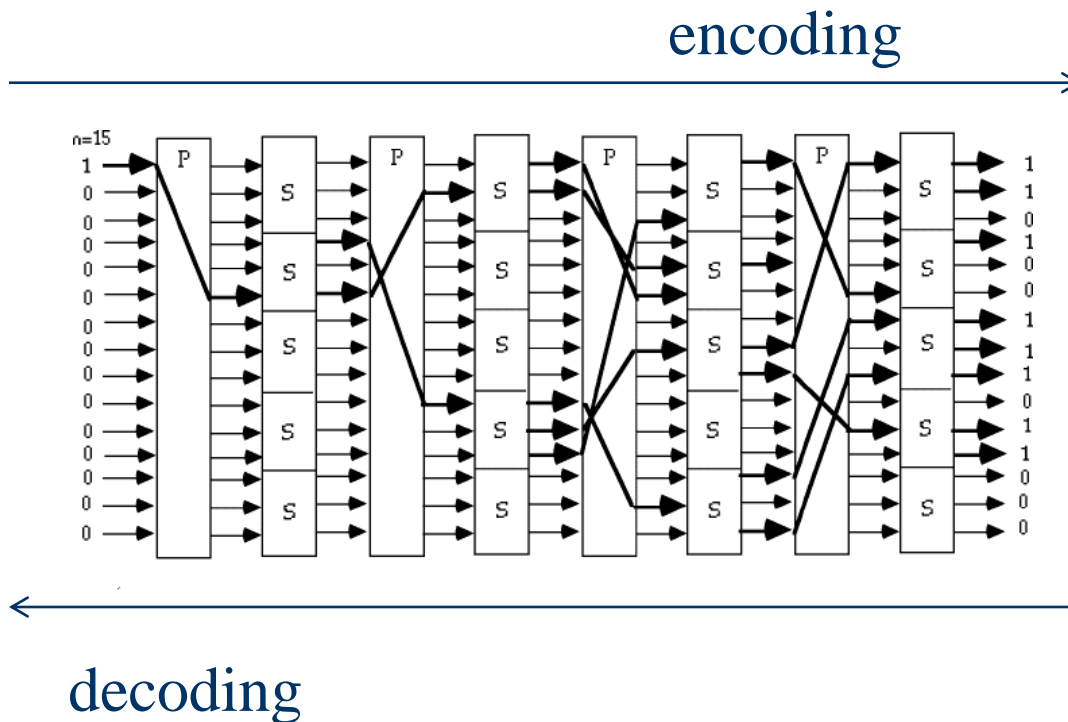


The Substitution Operation

- ◆ A binary word is replaced by some other binary word
- ◆ The whole substitution function forms the key
- ◆ Operation represented by an **S-box**
- ◆ The box below allows for $8! = 40320$ combinations
- ◆ The key describes the combination used



Substitution-Permutation Network



- ◆ The key describes the internal wiring of all S-boxes and P-boxes
- ◆ The same key can be used for encoding and decoding, hence it is a **private key encryption algorithm**
- ◆ The direction of the process determines encoding / decoding

Confusion and Diffusion

- ◆ A cipher needs for obvious reasons to completely obscure statistical properties of original message
- ◆ Shannon introduced two terms to describe this:
 - **Diffusion** seeks to make the statistical relationship between the plaintext and ciphertext as complex as possible
 - **Confusion** seeks to make the relationship between the statistics of the ciphertext and the value of the encryption key as complex as possible
- ◆ Both thwart attempts to deduce the key used via a cryptanalysis (as seen before)



Confusion and Diffusion in Practice

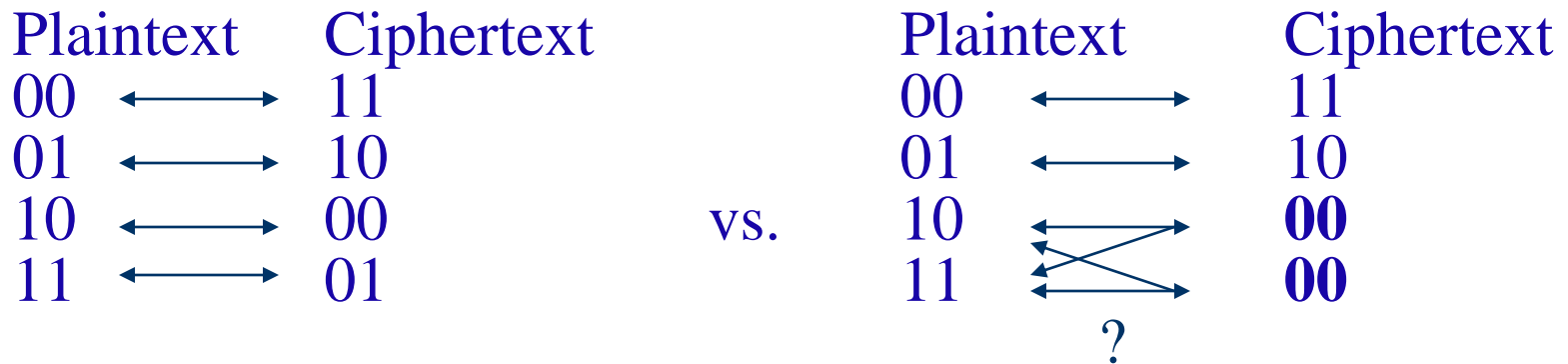
- ◆ Example DES (→later):
A swap of a single bit either in the key or in the plaintext result in a significant change in the ciphertext
- ◆ Note that DES encrypts a message over 16 iterations (rounds)

(a) Change in Plaintext		(b) Change in Key	
Round	Number of bits that differ	Round	Number of bits that differ
0	1	0	0
1	6	1	2
2	21	2	14
3	35	3	28
4	39	4	32
5	34	5	30
6	32	6	32
7	31	7	35
8	29	8	34
9	42	9	40
10	44	10	38
11	32	11	31
12	30	12	33
13	30	13	28
14	26	14	26
15	29	15	34
16	34	16	35



Important Block Cipher Principle: Reversible Transformation

- ◆ Transformations must be reversible or non-singular, e.g.



- ◆ There must be a 1:1 association between a n-bit plaintext and an-bit ciphertext, otherwise mapping (encryption) is irreversible

Features of Private-Key Cryptography / Ciphers

- ◆ Traditional private/secret/single key cryptography uses one key, shared by only sender and receiver
- ◆ The algorithm / cipher itself is public, i.e. not a secret
- ◆ If the key is disclosed, communications are compromised
- ◆ The key is also **symmetric**, parties are equal
- ◆ Hence methods does not protect sender from receiver forging a message & claiming is sent by sender
- ◆ Examples include DES (Data Encryption Standard) and AES (Advanced Encryption Standard)

Examples AES

- ◆ Advanced Encryption Standard, successor of DES
- ◆ Modern block cipher with 128 bits block length
- ◆ Uses 128, 192 or 256 bit long keys
- ◆ The de-facto standard for secure encryption
- ◆ Widely used for
 - File / data encryption
 - Secure network (e.g. Internet) Communication



Why does Block and Key Length matter?

- ◆ Cryptographic algorithms with short block length can be tackled as seen with substitution cipher
- ◆ Large keys and long blocks prevent **brute-force attacks / searches**
 - Take the ciphertext and try all possible key combinations (or block permutations), until the decoded text makes sense

Brute Force Search / Attacks

- ◆ A 56-bit key has a key space that contains 2^{56} keys
 - A prominent early day symmetric cipher called DES (Data Encryption Standard) used 56 bit keys... it is deemed unsafe since the 1990s
- ◆ A 128-bit key has $3.4E38$ possible combinations
 - Generally accepted minimum key length today

Brute Force Search

- ◆ Always possible to simply try every key
- ◆ Most basic attack, effort proportional to key size
- ◆ Assume that you either know or recognise plaintext

Key Size (bits)	Number of Alternative Keys	Time required at 1 decryption/ μ s	Time required at 10^6 decryptions/ μ s
32	$2^{32} = 4.3 \times 10^9$	$2^{31} \mu$ s = 35.8 minutes	2.15 milliseconds
56	$2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$	$2^{55} \mu$ s = 1142 years	10.01 hours
128	$2^{128} = 3.4 \times 10^{38}$	$2^{127} \mu$ s = 5.4×10^{24} years	5.4×10^{18} years
168	$2^{168} = 3.7 \times 10^{50}$	$2^{167} \mu$ s = 5.9×10^{36} years	5.9×10^{30} years
26 characters (permutation)	$26! = 4 \times 10^{26}$	$2 \times 10^{26} \mu$ s = 6.4×10^{12} years	6.4×10^6 years



The Feistel Cipher

- ◆ In practice we need to be able to decrypt messages, as well as to encrypt them, hence either:
 - have to define inverses for each of the S & P-boxes, but this doubles the code/hardware needed, or
 - define a structure that is easy to reverse, so can use basically the same code or hardware for both encryption and decryption
- ◆ A **Feistel cipher** is such a structure
 - It is based on concept of the **invertible product cipher**
 - Most symmetric block ciphers are based on a Feistel Cipher structure

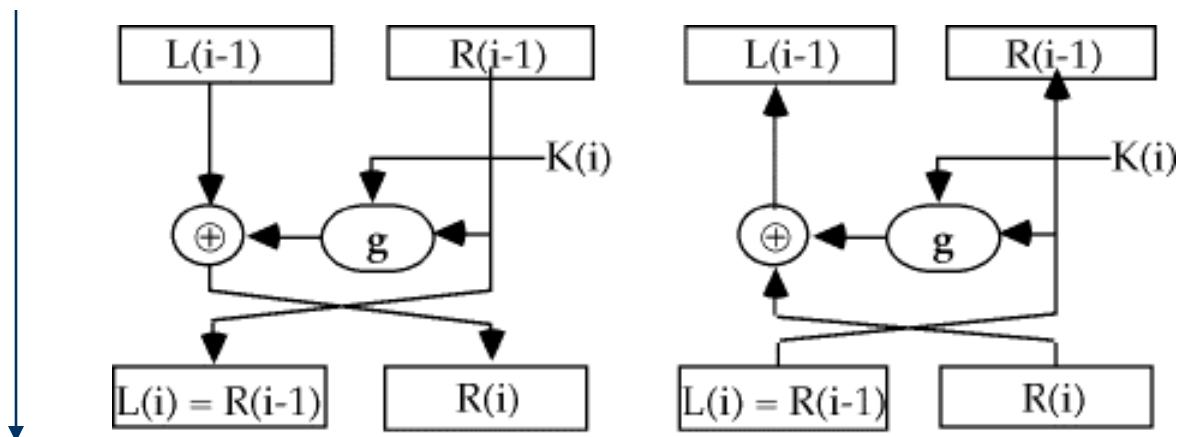
The Feistel Cipher

- ◆ Horst Feistel, working at IBM Thomas J Watson Research Labs, devised a suitable invertible cipher structure in early 70's
- ◆ One of Feistel's main contributions was the invention of a suitable structure which adapted Shannon's S-P network in an easily invertible structure
- ◆ Essentially the same hardware or software is used for both encryption and decryption, with just a slight change in how the keys are used



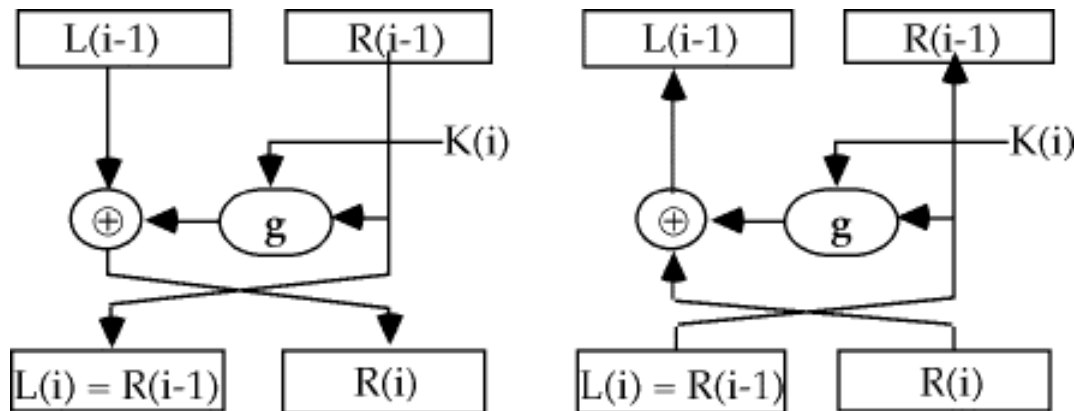
The Feistel Cipher – A Single Round

- ◆ The idea is to partition the input block into two halves, $L(i-1)$ and $R(i-1)$, and use only $R(i-1)$ in the i^{th} round (part) of the cipher
- ◆ The function g incorporates one stage of the S-P network, controlled by part of the key $K(i)$ known as the i^{th} subkey



The Feistel Cipher – A single Round

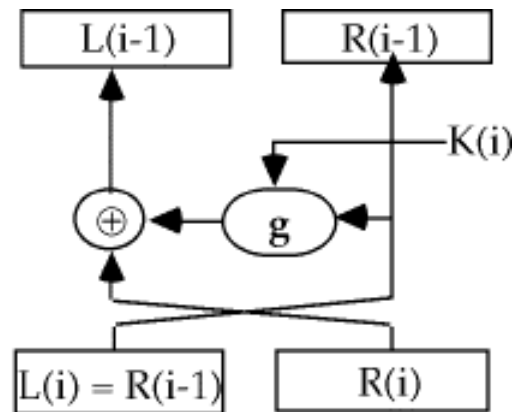
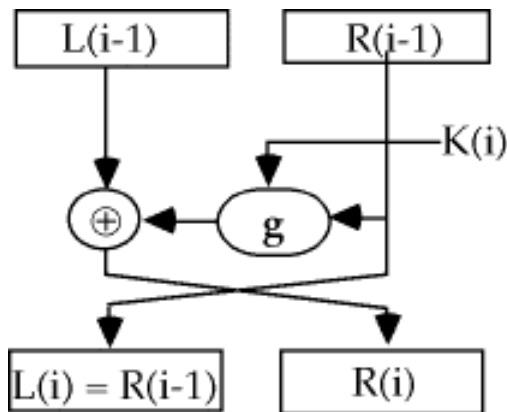
- ◆ A round of a Feistel cipher can be described functionally as:
 - $L(i) = R(i-1)$
 - $R(i) = L(i-1) \text{ EXOR } g(K(i), R(i-1))$



Symmetry of Bitwise EXOR

- ◆ $A \text{ EXOR } B = C$
- $A \text{ EXOR } C = B$
- $C \text{ EXOR } B = A$

	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0



Example

◆ Encoding of 01011110:

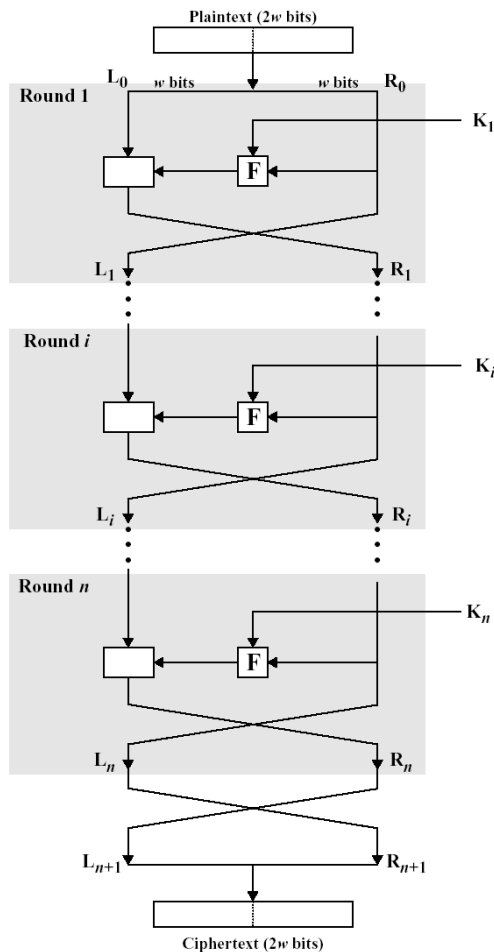
- $L(i - 1) = 0101$ $R(i - 1) = 1110$
- $g(K(i), R(i-1)) = 1001$ $L(i) = 1110$
- $R(i) = 0101 \text{ XOR } 1001 = 1100$
- Therefore 01011110 becomes 11101100

◆ Decoding of 11101100:

- $L(i) = 1110$ $R(i) = 1100$
- $g(K(i), R(i-1)) = 1001$ $R(i - 1) = 1110$
- $L(i - 1) = 1100 \text{ XOR } 1001 = \underline{0101}$
- Therefore 1110 1100 becomes 01011110



A Feistel Network



- ◆ Perform multiple transformations (single rounds) sequentially, whereby output of i^{th} round becomes the input of the $(i+1)^{\text{th}}$ round
- ◆ Every round gets its own subkey, which is derived from master key
- ◆ Decryption process goes from bottom to top



Feistel Cipher Design Elements

- ◆ Block size
- ◆ Key size
- ◆ Number of rounds
- ◆ Subkey generation algorithm
- ◆ Round function
- ◆ Fast software encryption/decryption



Simple Methods for Subkey Generation

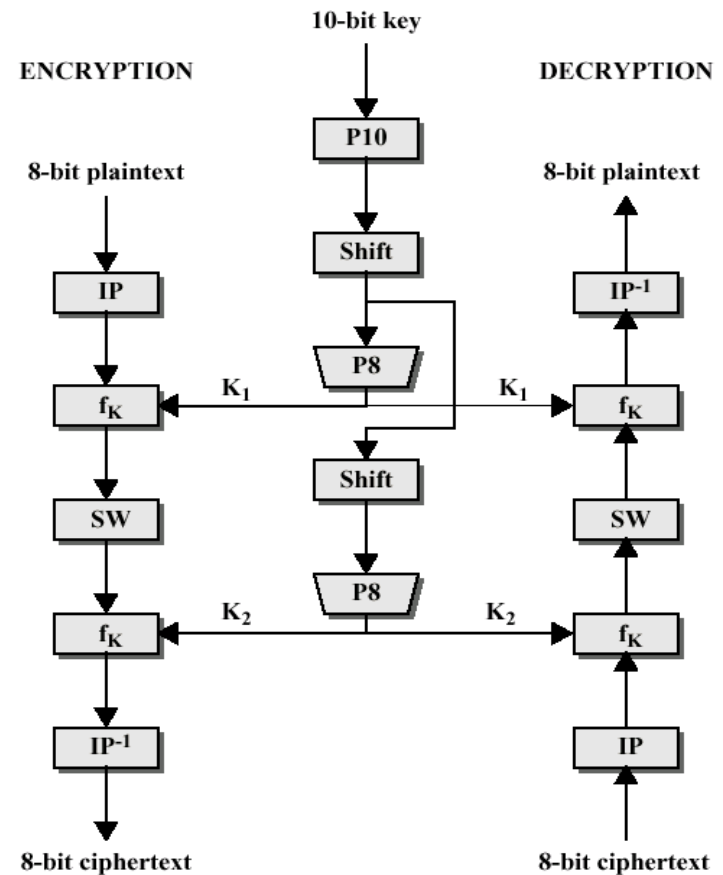
- ◆ Multiple subkeys are based on a bigger master key
- ◆ Method 1:
 - MK: 010100010100011110101001
 - SKs: 010100010100011110101001
- ◆ Method 2:
 - MK: 0101000101000111
 - SKs: 0101000101000111



Example for private Key Block Cipher: Simple DES

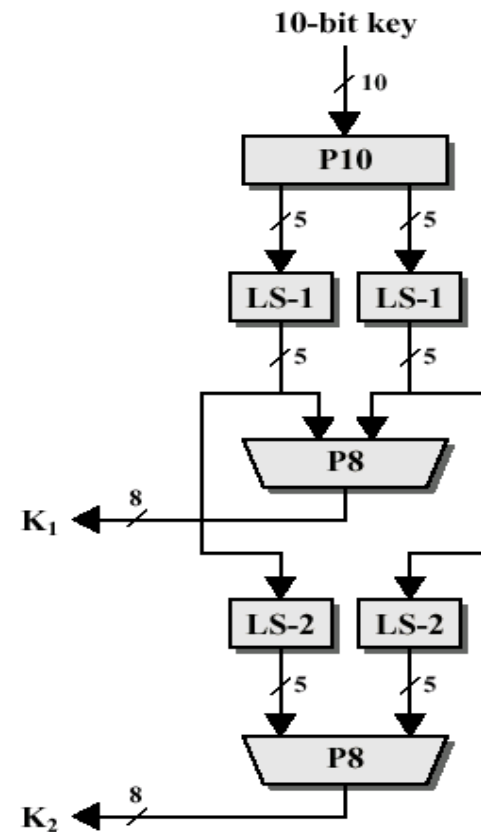
◆ An educational version of DES (Data Encryption Standard), the first widely used private key encryption algorithm:

- 8 bit blocks and 10 bit keys
- IP, IP^{-1} = (initial) permutation
- P_{10} = 10 bit permutation
- P_8 = 8 bit permutation and selection.
- SW = swap 2 halves



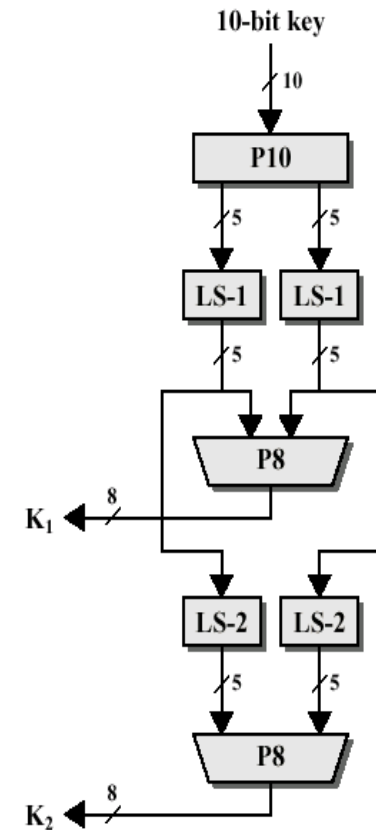
FYI: Simple DES – Key Generation

- ◆ P10: Permutation
3 5 2 7 4 10 1 9 8 6
- ◆ LS-1: Left-shift 1
Circular shift by 1 bit.
- ◆ P8: Permutation
6 3 7 4 8 5 10 9
- ◆ LS-2: Left Shift 2
Circular shift by 1 bit.
- ◆ P8: Permutation
6 3 7 4 8 5 10 9



FYI: Example for Sub-Key Generation

- ◆ 10-bit key: 0110010110
- ◆ P10 permutation: 3 | 5 | 2 | 7 | 4 | 10 | 1 | 9 | 8 | 6
10100 00111
- ◆ Circular left shift: 01001 01110
- ◆ P8 Permutation: 6 | 3 | 7 | 4 | 8 | 5 | 10 | 9
K1: 00101101
- ◆ Circular left shift: 10010 11100
- ◆ P8 Permutation: 6 | 3 | 7 | 4 | 8 | 5 | 10 | 9
K2: 10111000



FYI: Structure of f_K

- ◆ E/P expansion permutation

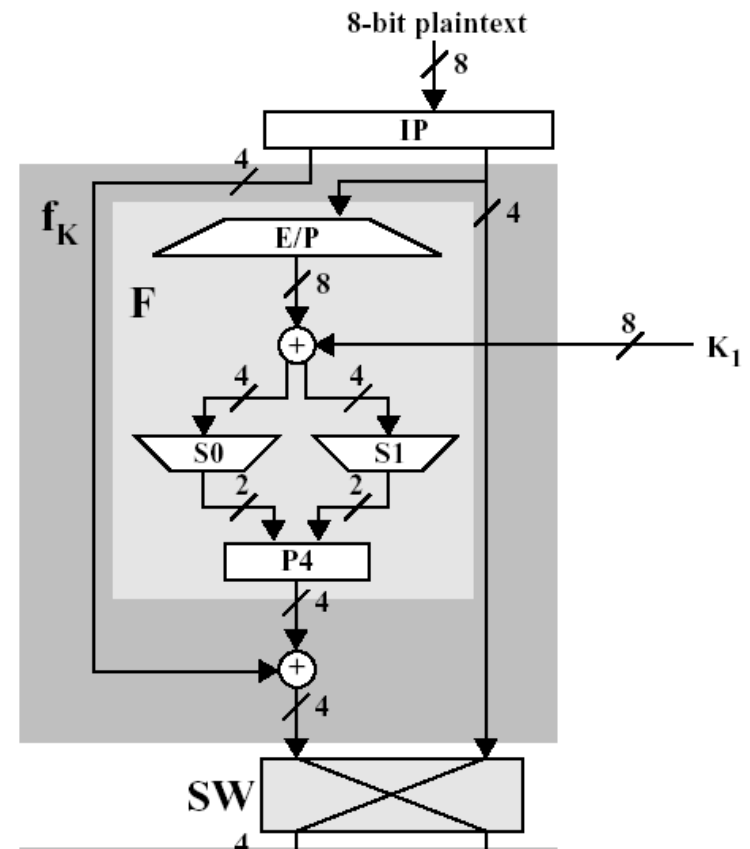
4 1 2 3 2 3 4 1

- ◆ 2 S-boxes S0 and S1

0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3		
0	1	0	3	2	0	0	1	2	3
1	3	2	1	0	1	2	0	1	3
2	0	2	1	3	2	3	0	1	2
3	3	1	3	2	3	2	1	0	3

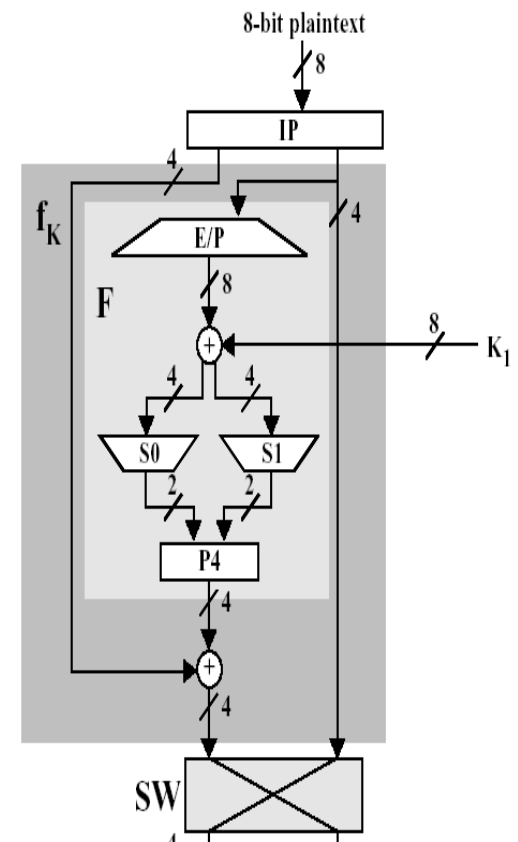
The 1st and 4th input bits specify a row, the 2nd and 3rd input bits represent a column. The corresponding entry in a table represents the output

- ◆ P4 permutation 2 4 3 1



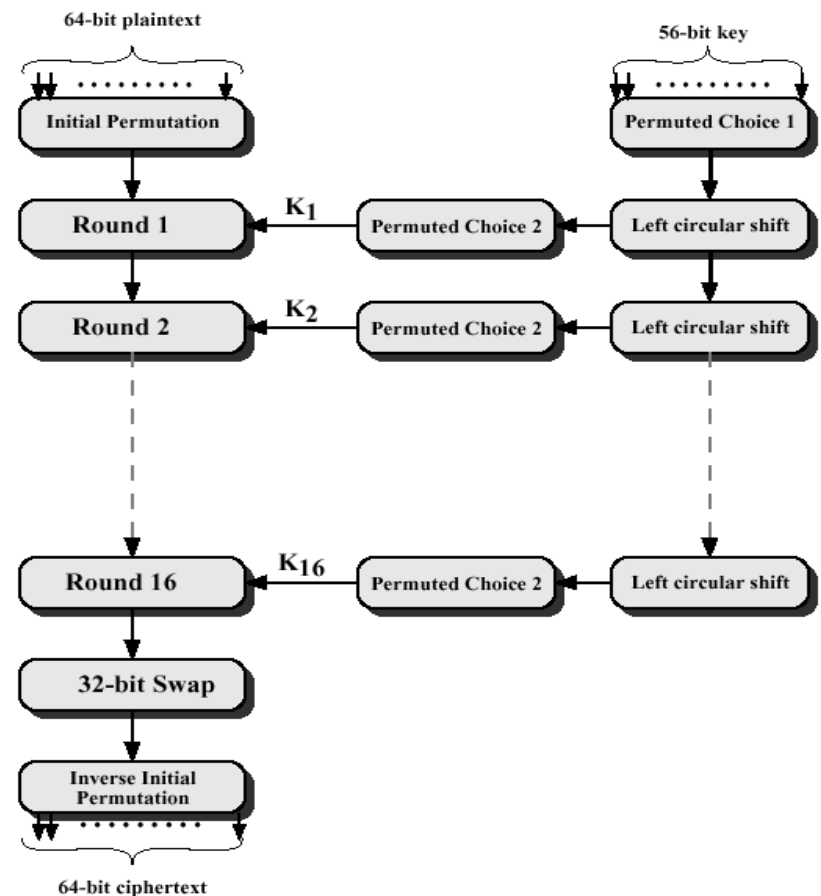
FYI: Example for f_K

- ◆ Input after IP: 01001101
- ◆ Left part: 0100
- ◆ E/P: 4|1|2|3|2|3|4|1
11101011
- ◆ EX-OR K_1 : 00101101
11000110
- ◆ S0 and S1: See previous page
1011
- ◆ P4 permutation: 2|4|3|1
0111
- ◆ EX-OR left part: 0100 0011
- ◆ Concatenate right block: 00111101 1101
- ◆ Swap: 11010011



DES

- 64 bit plain text
- 56 bit key and 48 bit sub-keys
- 16 rounds



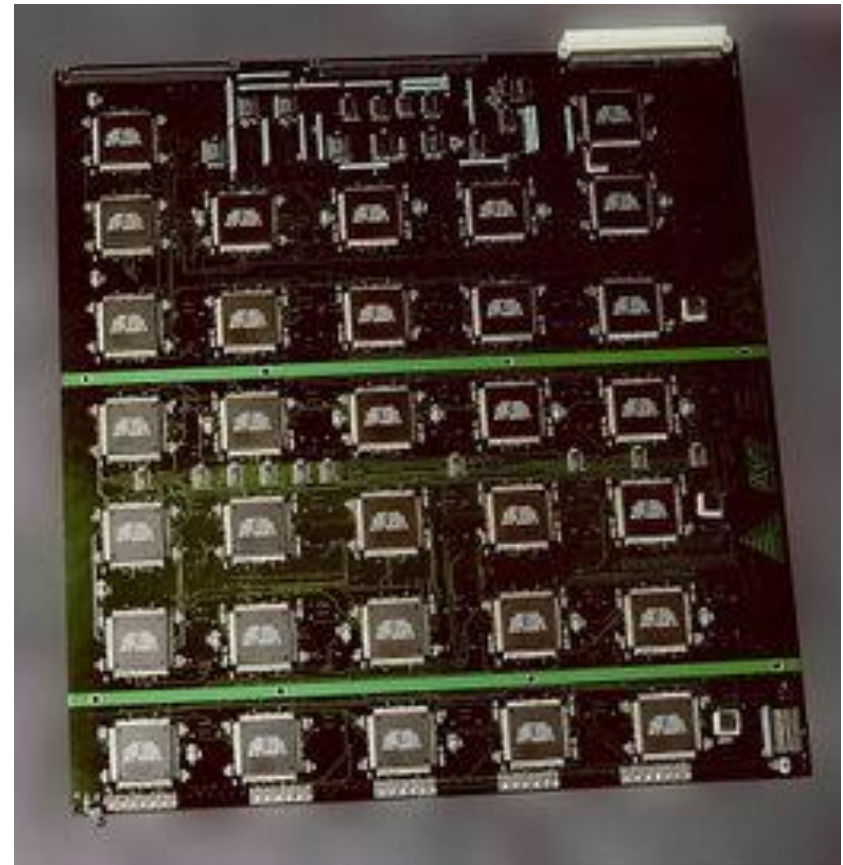
Strength of DES – Key Length?

- ◆ 56-bit keys have $2^{56} = 7.2 \times 10^{16}$ possible values
- ◆ Brute force search looks hard ...
- ◆ But advances in 1990s have shown that it is possible:
 - In 1997 on Internet in a few months (using a PC cluster)
 - In 1998 on dedicated hardware in a few days
 - In 1999 above combined in 22 hrs!
- ◆ As a result, alternatives to DES had to be considered



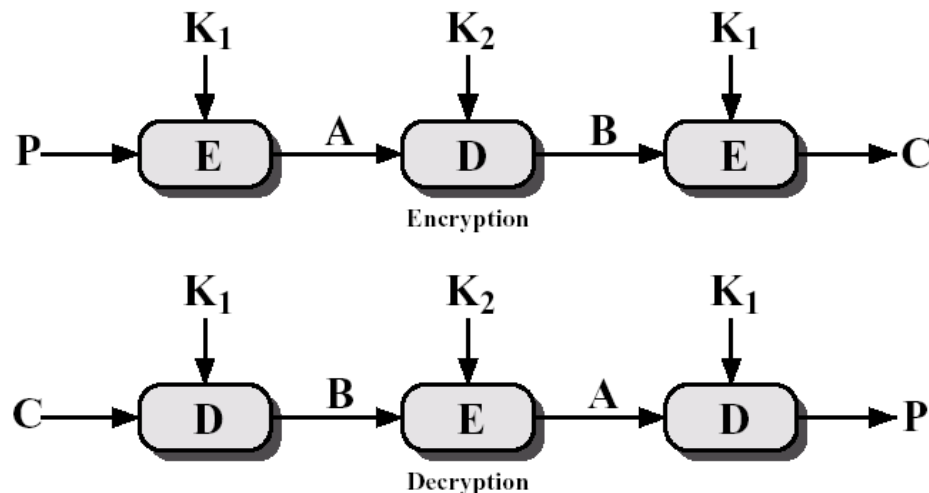
The DES Cracking Machine

- ◆ Developed by Electronic Frontier Foundation (EFF)
- ◆ Image shows a single circuit board.
- ◆ The entire machine consisted of 1,536 custom chips

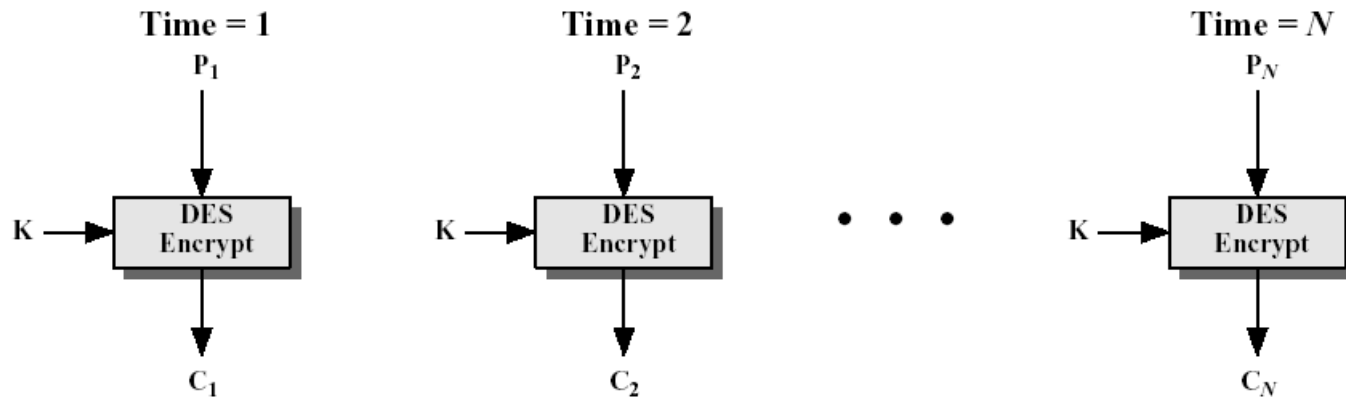


Triple DES

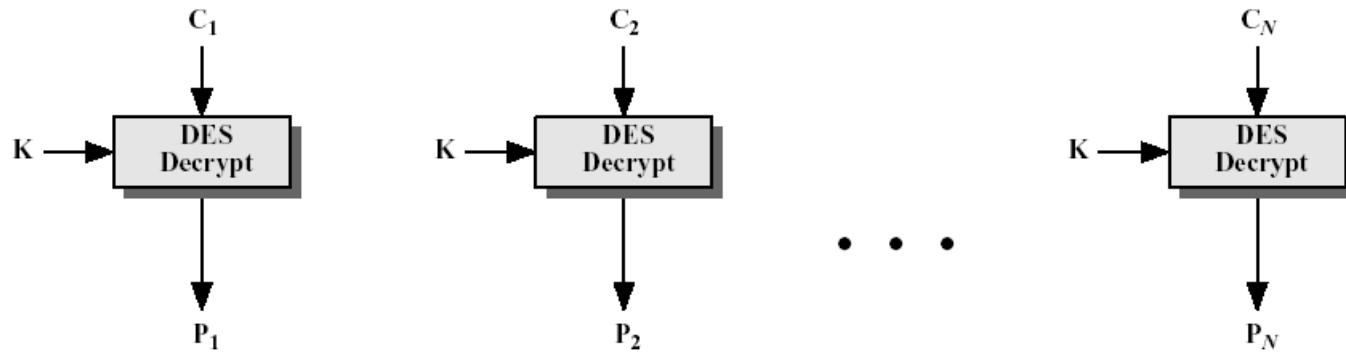
- ◆ Based on 2 (56-bit each) keys and three stages
- ◆ Symmetry preserved, therefore same concatenation is used for encoding and decoding



Modes of Operation: Electronic Codebook (ECB) Mode

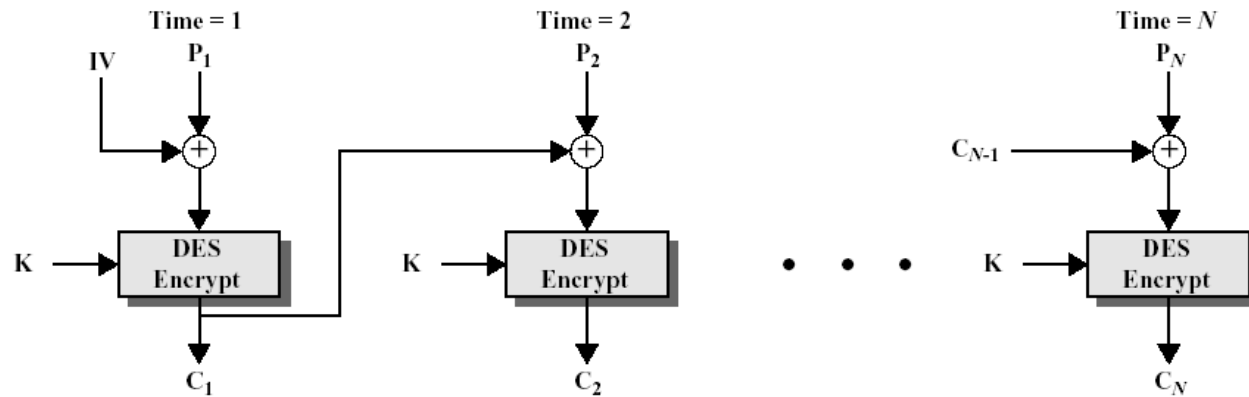


(a) Encryption

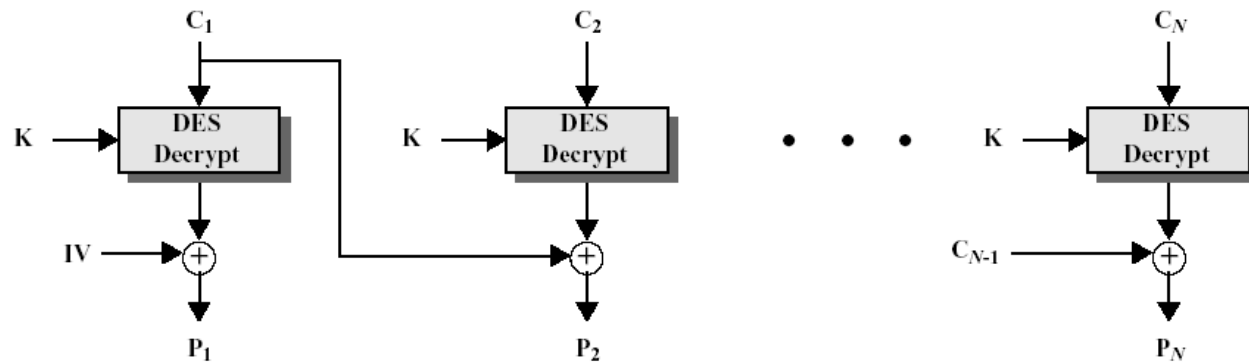


(b) Decryption

Modes of Operation: Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) Mode



(a) Encryption



(b) Decryption



STREAM CIPHERS



Stream Ciphers

- ◆ So far we have examined block ciphers that process n-bytes at a time
- ◆ Stream ciphers in contrast process the message bit by bit (as a stream)
- ◆ They require a stream key K that is a pseudo-random sequence of 0s and 1s
- ◆ This bit-stream K is combined (EXORed) with the plaintext M bit by bit to generate the cipher text C :

$$C_i = M_i \text{ EXOR } K_i$$

- ◆ The randomness of the stream key completely destroys any statistically properties in the message
- ◆ The receiver generates the identical bit stream K and decodes the message C :

$$M_i = C_i \text{ EXOR } K_i$$

- ◆ Vernam Cipher or One-Time Pad is a famous stream cipher



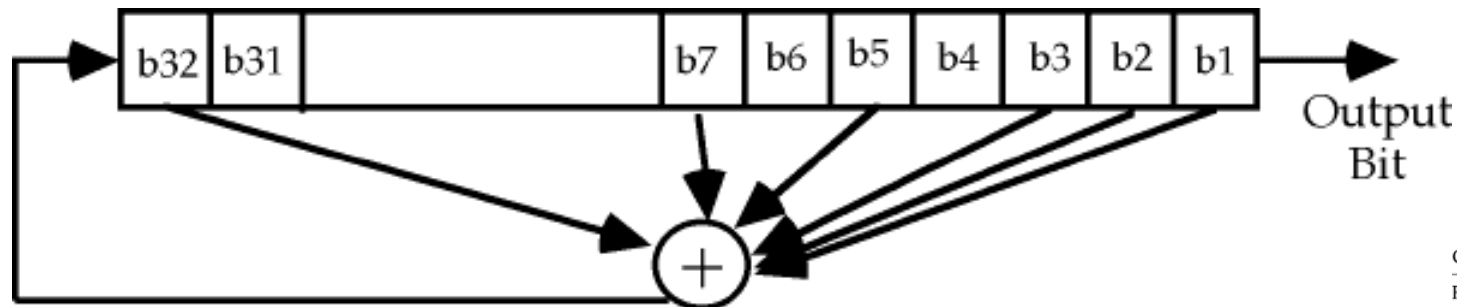
Vernam Cipher

- ◆ Vernam cipher requires as many (random) key bits as message is long
 - Every message requires a new key, as reusing a stream key may allow an attacker to recover it!
- ◆ Such keys must be distributed securely between endpoints
 - Very complicated, tedious and uneconomic, as a single stream key may consist of millions of bits
- ◆ For practical reasons stream ciphers based on pseudo-random generators (PRG) are used
 - PRGs are often based on Linear Feedback Shift Registers (LFSRs)
 - Only a seed value to initialise the PRG must be shared



Linear Feedback Shift Registers (LFSR)

- ◆ Consist a binary shift register of some length along with a linear feedback function that operates on some of those bits
- ◆ Each time a bit is needed, all bits are shifted right by one position
- ◆ The bit bumped out is the bit used as (pseudo-random) output from the LFSR
- ◆ A new bit is formed from the linear feedback function of some bits
- ◆ Correctly designed LFSRs generate a very long pseudo-random sequence before repeating
- ◆ LFSRs require an initialisation vector (i.e., seed) for their shift register



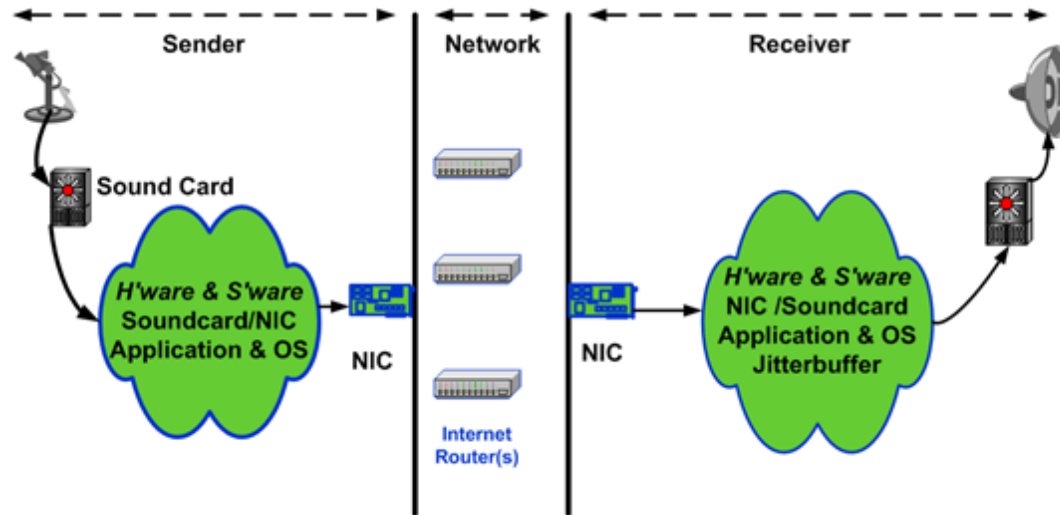
Example for an 8-Bit LFSR

- ◆ Initialisation vector: 10100110 ($B_7 \dots B_0$)
- ◆ Feedback Function: $B_7 \text{ EXOR } B_4 \text{ EXOR } B_1$
- ◆ Right shift after each cycle (B_0 shifted out)
- ◆ Iteration 0: 10100110
- ◆ Iteration 1: 01010011 \gg 0
- ◆ Iteration 2: 00101001 \gg 1
- ◆ Iteration 3: 00010100 \gg 1
- ◆ Iteration 4: 10001010 \gg 0
- ◆ ...

The feedback function returns a “1”, if an odd number of inputs is set to “1”



Example VoIP (Voice over the Internet Protocol)



- ◆ The sender's voice is digitised and the resulting bit stream is encrypted using a stream cipher before being sent to the receiver over a network link
- ◆ Sender and receiver share the same seed value for their PRG



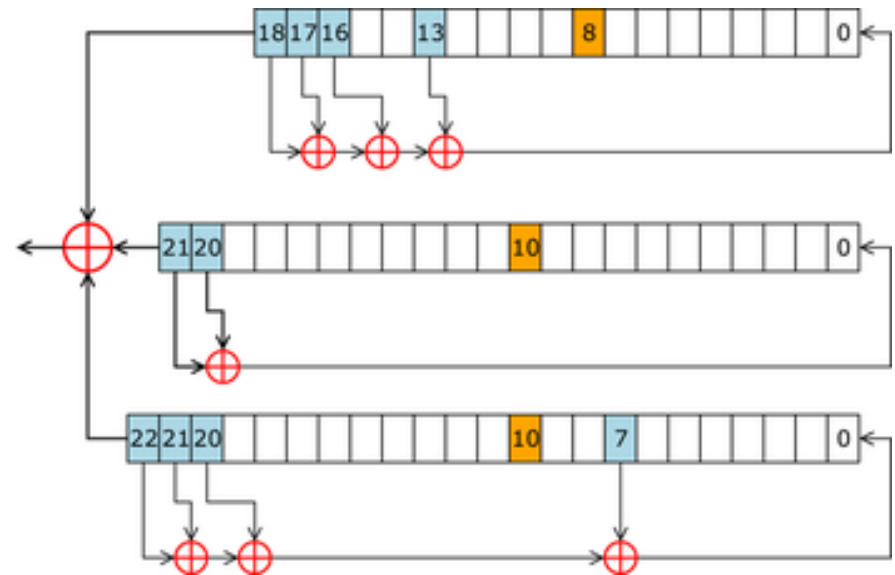
Stream Ciphers in Mobile Communication (early 2000s)

- ◆ Mobile phone conversations are sent as sequences of frames between both end points
 - Voice samples are collected and digitised by the mobile phone
- ◆ Every 4.6 milliseconds a 228-bits long frame consisting of digitised voice is processed and send out
- ◆ A5/1 is an LFSR-based algorithm that was used to produce 228 bits of key stream which is EXORed with the frame
- ◆ A5/1 is initialised using a 64-bit key



A5/1

- ◆ 3 independent LFSRs:
 - 19 bits
 - 22 bits
 - 23 bits
- ◆ The **majority bit** is the XORed output of all 3 LFSRs
- ◆ Each register is only shifted to the left, if their clocking bits (B8, B10, and B10 respectively) match the majority bit



A5/1

- ◆ A5/1 was originally introduced in 1987
- ◆ It was protected as a "trade secret", but has subsequently been reverse engineered during the 90s
- ◆ As a result A5/2 was introduced, which has been broken as well
- ◆ A5/3 (KASUMI) was released in late 2002
 - Block-cipher based on Feistel network



RC4

- ◆ RC4 is a PRG designed by Ron Rivest of RSA Security in 1987
- ◆ RC4 was initially a trade secret, but in 1994 a description of it was anonymously posted in the Internet
- ◆ It consists of a
 - key-scheduling algorithm (KSA) and a
 - pseudo-random generation algorithm (PRGA)



RC4: The Key-Scheduling Algorithm (KSA)

- ◆ Requires a keyword (stored in `key[]`) with a specific `keylength`
- ◆ An 256 byte long permutation vector `S[]` is generated:

```
for i from 0 to 255
    S[i] := i;
j := 0;
for i from 0 to 255
    j := (j + S[i] + key[i mod keylength])
        mod 256;
    swap(S[i], S[j]);
```



RC4: The Pseudo-Random Generation Algorithm (PRGA)

- ◆ PRGA returns one byte at a time:

```
i := 0;
```

```
j := 0;
```

```
while GeneratingOutput:
```

```
    i := (i + 1) mod 256;
```

```
    j := (j + S[i]) mod 256;
```

```
    swap(S[i], S[j]);
```

```
    output S[(S[i] + S[j]) mod 256];
```



RC4

- ◆ Not an LFSR-based design, but rather a more general pseudo-random number generator design
- ◆ Can be efficiently implemented in software
- ◆ Broken and not used any more!

3 Security

- 3.1 Roos's biases and key reconstruction from permutation
- 3.2 Biased outputs of the RC4
- 3.3 Fluhrer, Mantin and Shamir attack
- 3.4 Klein's attack
- 3.5 Combinatorial problem
- 3.6 Royal Holloway attack
- 3.7 Bar-mitzvah attack
- 3.8 NOMORE attack

