



Cryptographic Algorithms

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1

Definitions

1970s


	data	entities
Confidentiality	encryption	anonymity
Integrity	data authentication	"identification"
Availability		

confidentiality
authentication

Don't use the word authentication without defining it

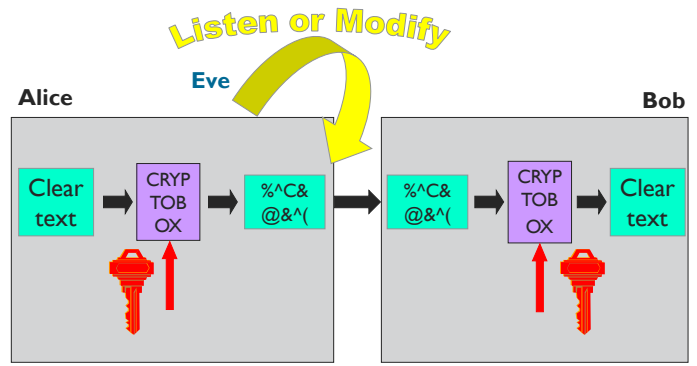
- Authorisation
- Non-repudiation of origin, receipt
- Contract signing
- Notarisation and Timestamping

2



2

Cryptology: principle




Alice: Clear text → CRYPT BOX → %^C& @&^

Eve: Listen or Modify

Bob: %^C& @&^ → CRYPT BOX → Clear text

3




3

Outline

- › Symmetric cryptology
 - › confidentiality
 - › data authentication
 - › authenticated encryption
- › Public key cryptology (asymmetric cryptology)
- › Hybrid cryptology
- › Applications


4



4

Symmetric cryptology: confidentiality

- › Old cipher systems:
 - » transposition, substitution
- › Opponent and her power
- › One time pad
- › Stream ciphers
- › Block ciphers
- › Authenticated encryption

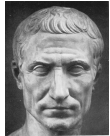
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Old cipher systems (pre 1900)

Caesar cipher: shift letters over k positions in the alphabet (k is the secret key)

THIS IS THE CAESAR CIPHER
WKLV LV WKH FDHVDU FLSKHU




Julius Caesar never changed his key ($k=3$)

6 

6

Cryptanalysis example:

<p>TIPGK RERCP JZJZJ WLE UJQHL SFSQD KAKAK XMF VKRIM TGTER LBLBL YNG WLSJN UHUFZ MCMCM ZOH XDTKO VOVGT NDNDN API YNULP WKWHU OEEOE BQJ ZOVMQ XKXIV PFPFP CRK APWNR YLYJW QGQGO DSL BQXOS ZMXXK RHRHR ETM <u>CRYPT ANALY SISIS FUN</u> DSZQU BOBMZ TJTJT GVO ETARV CPCAN UKUKU HWP FUBSW DQDOB VLVLV IXQ</p>	<p>GVCTX EREPC WMWMW JYR HWDUY FFSQD XNKNX KZS IXEVZ GTGRE YOYOY LAT JYFWA HUHSF ZPZPZ MBU KZGXB IVITG AQAQA NCV LAHYC JWJUH BRBRB ODW MBIZD KXKVI CSCSC PEX NCJAE LYLWJ DTDTD QFY ODKBF MZMXX EUEUE RGZ PELCG NANYL FVFVF SHA QFMDH OBOZM GWGWG TIB RGNEI PCPAN HXHXH UJC SHOFJ QDQBO IYIYI VKD</p>
---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------


Plaintext? 7 $k = 17$ 

7

Old cipher systems (pre 1900) (2)

- › Substitutions
 - ABCDEF GHIJ KLMNOP QRSTUV WXYZ
 - MZNIJS OAXF QGYK HLUCTD VWBIRPE
- › Transpositions
 - TRANS OIPSR
 - POSIT NOTNT
 - IONS OSAI

! Easy to break using statistical techniques

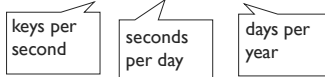
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8

Security

- › there are $n!$ different substitutions on an alphabet with n letters
- › there are $n!$ different transpositions of n letters
- › $n=26$: $n!=40329146112660563558400000 = 4 \cdot 10^{26}$ keys
- › trying all possibilities at 1 nanosecond per key requires....

$$4 \cdot 10^{26} / (10^9 \cdot 10^5 \cdot 4 \cdot 10^2) = 10^{10} \text{ years}$$



9

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Letter distributions



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Assumptions on Eve (the opponent)

- › A scheme is **broken** if Eve can deduce the key or obtain additional plaintext
- › Eve can always **try all keys** till “meaningful” plaintext appears: a **brute force** attack
 - ›› solution: large key space
- › Eve will try to find **shortcut attacks** (faster than brute force)
 - ›› history shows that designers are too optimistic about the security of their cryptosystems

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Assumptions on Eve (the opponent)

- › Cryptology = cryptography + cryptanalysis
- › Eve knows the algorithm, except for the key (Kerckhoffs’s principle)
- › increasing capability of Eve:
 - ›› knows some information about the plaintext (e.g., in English)
 - ›› knows part of the plaintext
 - ›› can choose (part of) the plaintext and look at the ciphertext
 - ›› can choose (part of) the ciphertext and look at the plaintext



12

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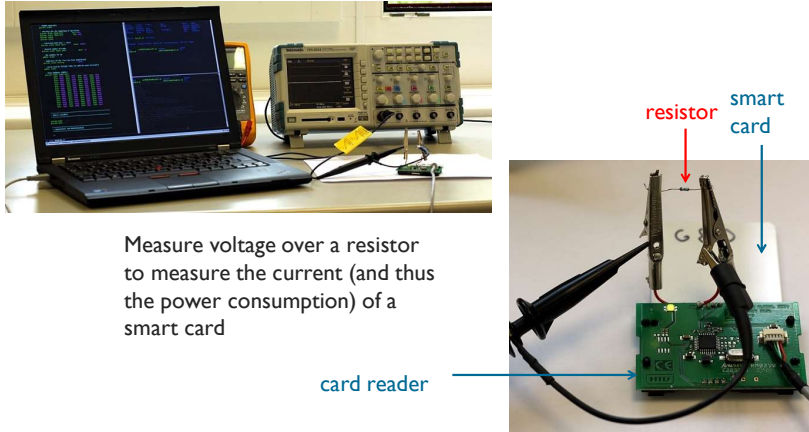
New assumptions on Eve

- › Eve may have access to **side channels**
 - › timing attacks
 - › simple power analysis
 - › differential power analysis
 - › acoustic attacks
 - › electromagnetic interference
 - › micro-architecture attacks
- › Eve may launch **(semi-)invasive attacks**
 - › differential fault analysis
 - › probing of memory or bus

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Side channel analysis: power setup

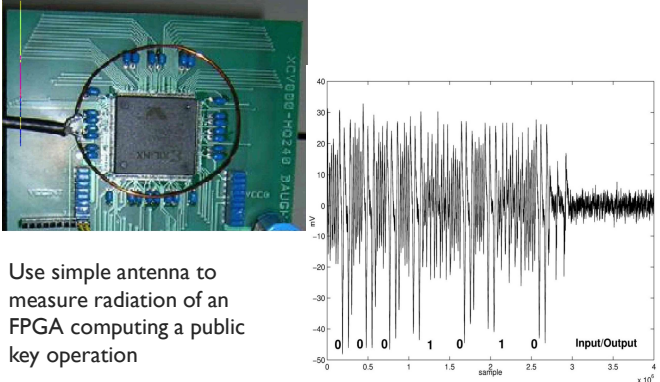


Measure voltage over a resistor to measure the current (and thus the power consumption) of a smart card

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Side channel analysis: electromagnetic setup

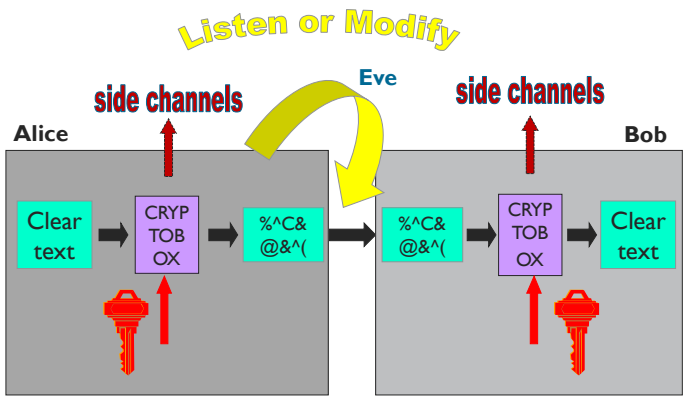


Use simple antenna to measure radiation of an FPGA computing a public key operation

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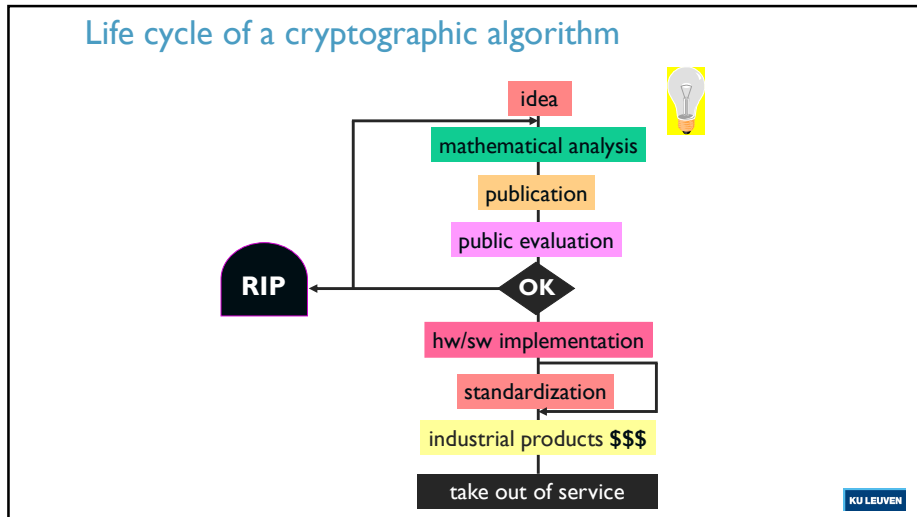
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Cryptology + side channels



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17

One time pad



Vernam scheme (1917)

Mauborgne: one time pad (1917+x)

Shannon (1948)

F. Miller (1882)

key is random string, as long as the plaintext
information theoretic proof of security

P

10010

⊕

11001

C

11001

⊕

10010

↑ key: 01011

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One time pad: properties

- › perfect secrecy: ciphertext gives opponent no additional information on the plaintext or $H(P|C)=H(P)$
- › impractical: key is as long as the plaintext
- › but this is optimal: for perfect secrecy one has always $H(K) \geq H(P)$

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One time pad: Venona Project (1942-1948)

$$c_1 = p_1 + k$$

$$c_2 = p_2 + k$$

$$\text{then } c_1 - c_2 = p_1 - p_2$$



Example:
 $c_1 \vee c_2$
(not +)

a skilled cryptanalyst can recover p_1 and p_2 from $p_1 - p_2$ using the redundancy in the language

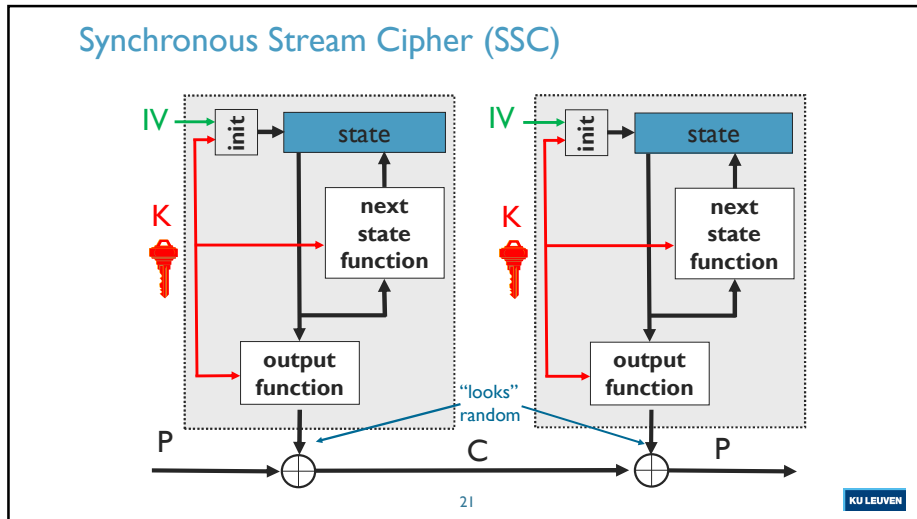
reuse of key material is also known as “transmission in depth”

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Venona_project

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21

Exhaustive key search

2024: 1 million machines with 16 cores @ 4 GHz can do 2^{56} instructions/sec or 2^{80} instructions/year

- » trying 1 key \approx 100 instructions

Bitcoin: 650 Exahashes/sec $\approx 2^{69}$ hashes/sec or 2^{24} hashes/year $\approx 2^{100}$ instructions/year

- » Electricity: 150 TWh/year (or \$15 B/year at US 10c/kWh)

Moore's "law": speed of computers doubles every 18 months: key lengths need to grow in time but adding 1 key bit doubles the work for the attacker

Key length recommendations 2024

- 1 year: 2^{40} (Easy)
- 20 years: 2^{60} (Some what hard)
- 50 years: 2^{80} (Hard)
- 1 year (not for NSA*): 2^{128} (Computationally infeasible)
- 50 years: 2^{256} (Computationally infeasible on a huge Quantum Computer)

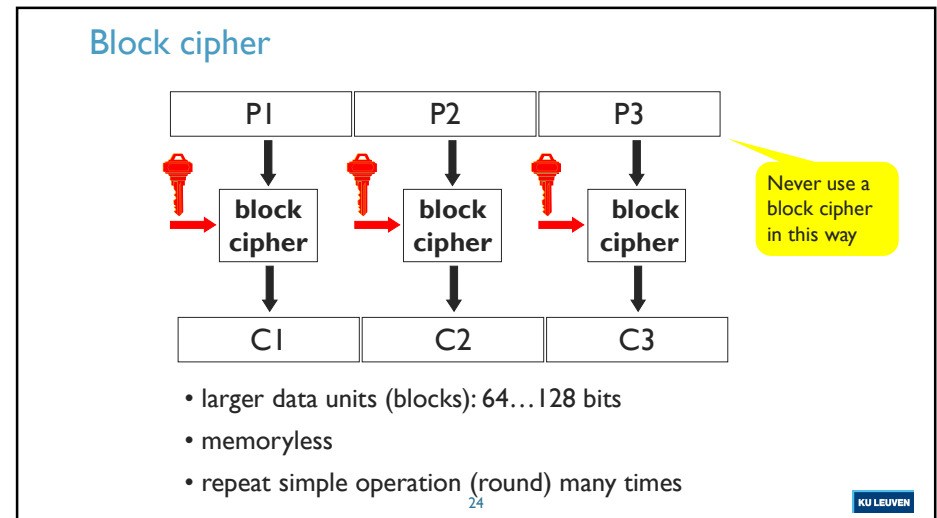
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- ### Widely used stream ciphers
- › A5/1 (GSM) (64 or 54)
 - › DECT (DCS) (64)
 - › TEA1 (Tetra) (80)
 - › E0 (Bluetooth) (128)
 - › RC4 (browser) (40-128)
 - › SNOW-3G (3GSM) (128)
 - › HC-128 (128)
 - › Trivium (80) and Kreyvium (128)
 - › ChaCha20 (128)
- insecure!**
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Block cipher

- › large table: list n-bit ciphertext for each n-bit plaintext
 - › if n is large: very secure (codebook)
 - › but for an n-bit block: 2^n values
 - › impractical if $n \geq 32$
- › alternative $n = 64$ or 128
 - › simplify the implementation
 - › repeat many simple operations

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Widely used block ciphers

- › DES: outdated
- › 3-DES: financial sector
- › AES
- › KASUMI (3G/4G)
- › Keeloq (remote control for cars, garage doors)

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AES variants (2001)

AES-128
10 rounds

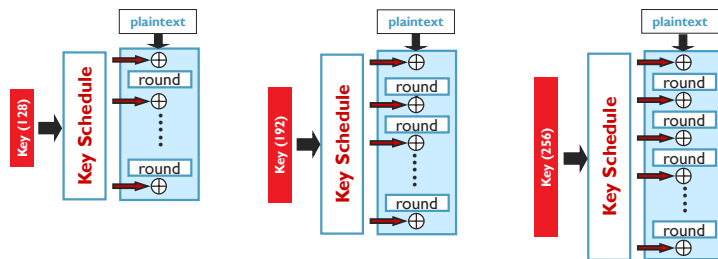
Sensitive/classified (SECRET)

AES-192
12 rounds

Classified (TOP SECRET)

AES-256
14 rounds

Classified (TOP SECRET)



27

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An example plaintext

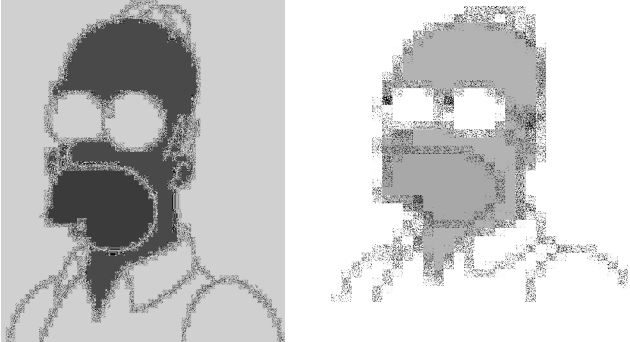


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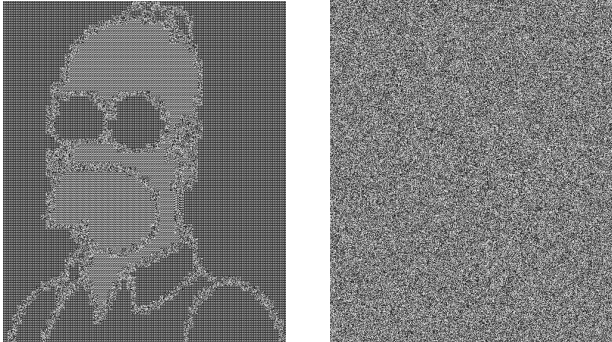
Encrypted with substitution and transposition cipher



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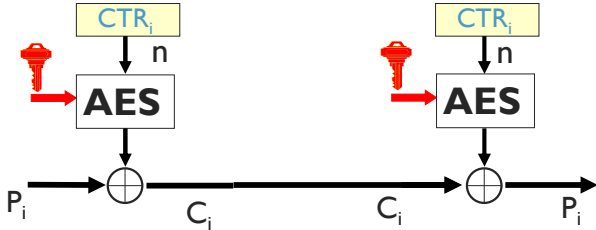
Encrypted with AES in ECB and CTR mode



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Counter Mode (CTR)

$$C_i = P_i \oplus E_k(CTR_i), CTR_i ++$$


state initialized $CTR_0 = IV$
all 0? or random? or nonce? or?

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CTR: properties

- › different IV necessary; otherwise insecure (Venona)
- › uses only encryption
- › key stream independent of plaintext: can be pre-computed
- › no error propagation: errors are only copied
- › random access on decryption
- › optimal for hardware:
 - ›› parallelism: one can process multiple counter values at the same time
 - ›› pipelining: no need to know the ciphertext block corresponding to the current plaintext block to start processing the next plaintext block
- › risk: what if counters are (accidentally) reset to same value?

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Encryption limitations

- › Typically does not hide the **length** of the plaintext (unless randomized padding but even then...)
- › Ciphertext becomes random string: “normal” crypto does not encrypt a credit card number into a (valid) credit card number
- › Does **not** hide existence of plaintext (requires steganography)
- › Does **not** hide that Alice is talking to Bob (e.g. Tor)
- › Does **not** hide traffic volume (requires dummy traffic)

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Symmetric cryptology: data authentication

- › the problem
- › hash functions without a key
 - ›› MDC: Manipulation Detection Codes
- › hash functions with a secret key
 - ›› MAC: Message Authentication Codes

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Data authentication: the problem

- › encryption provides confidentiality:
 - ›› prevents Eve from learning information on the cleartext/plaintext
 - ›› but does not protect against modifications (active eavesdropping)
- › Bob wants to know:
 - ›› the **source** of the information (data origin)
 - ›› that the information has not been **modified**
 - ›› (optionally) the **destination** of the information
 - ›› (optionally) **timeliness** and **sequence**

There are no applications that require encryption **without** data authentication (but this can still be found in legacy applications with as excuse performance)

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Data authentication: the problem

- › problem of replay of messages needs to be addressed at higher layer (e.g. transaction counter in financial systems)
- › specific challenges:
 - ›› very long streams
 - ›› versioning systems
 - ›› noisy data
 - ›› ,....

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Data authentication: hash function

- MDC (manipulation detection code)
- Protect short hash value rather than long text

(MD5)
(SHA-1), SHA-256,
SHA-512
RIPEMD-160
SHA-3 (Keccak)

This is an input to a cryptographic hash function. The input is a very long string, that is reduced by the hash function to a string of fixed length. There are additional security conditions: it should be very hard to find an input hashing to a given value (a preimage) or to find two colliding inputs (a collision).

Shift authenticity of file to authenticity of short hash value

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Hash function: security requirements (n-bit result)

preimage 2nd preimage collision

$h(x)$ $h(x) = h(x')$ $=$

2^n 2^n $2^{n/2}$

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Data authentication: hash function

- › preimage resistance: for given y , hard to find input x such that $h(x) = y$
(2^n operations)
- › 2nd preimage resistance: hard to find $x' \neq x$ such that $h(x') = h(x)$
(2^n operations)
- › collision resistance: hard to find (x, x') with $x' \neq x$ such that $h(x') = h(x)$
($2^{n/2}$ operations)

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Widely used hash functions

- › MD5
 - › (2nd) preimage 2^{128} steps (improved to 2^{123} steps)
 - › collisions 2^{64} steps
- › SHA-1:
 - › (2nd) preimage 2^{160} steps
 - › collisions 2^{80} steps
- › SHA-2 family (2002)
- › SHA-3 family (2013) – Keccak (Belgian design)
 - › (2nd) preimage $2^{256} \dots 2^{512}$ steps
 - › collisions $2^{128} \dots 2^{256}$ steps

0.15 M\$ for 1 year in 2023
shortcut: Aug. '04: 2^{39} steps; '09: 2^{20} steps
shortcut: Aug. '05: 2^{69} steps
Feb. '17: 2^{61} steps

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Data authentication: MAC algorithms

- Replace protection of authenticity of (long) message by protection of secrecy of (short) key
- Append MAC to the plaintext

CBC-MAC
(CMAC/LMAC)
HMAC
GMAC

This is an input to a MAC algorithm. The input is a very long string, that is reduced by the hash function to a string of fixed length. There are additional security conditions: it should be very hard for someone who does not know the secret key to compute the hash function on a new input.

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Data authentication: MAC algorithms

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Data authentication: MAC algorithms

- › typical MAC lengths: (32)..64..96 bits
 - ›› forgery attacks: 2^m steps with m the MAC length in bits
- › typical key lengths: (56)..112..160 bits
 - ›› exhaustive key search: 2^k steps with k the key length in bits
- › birthday attacks: security level smaller than expected

43

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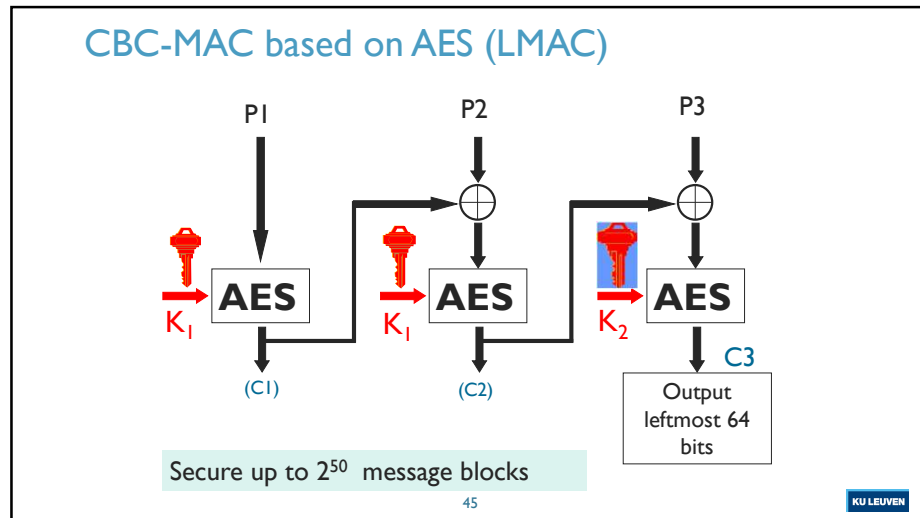
MAC algorithms

- › Banking: CBC-MAC based on triple-DES
- › Internet: HMAC and CBC-MAC based on AES
- › information theoretic secure MAC algorithms (authentication codes): GMAC/Poly1305
 - ›› rather efficient
 - ›› part of the key refreshed per message

44

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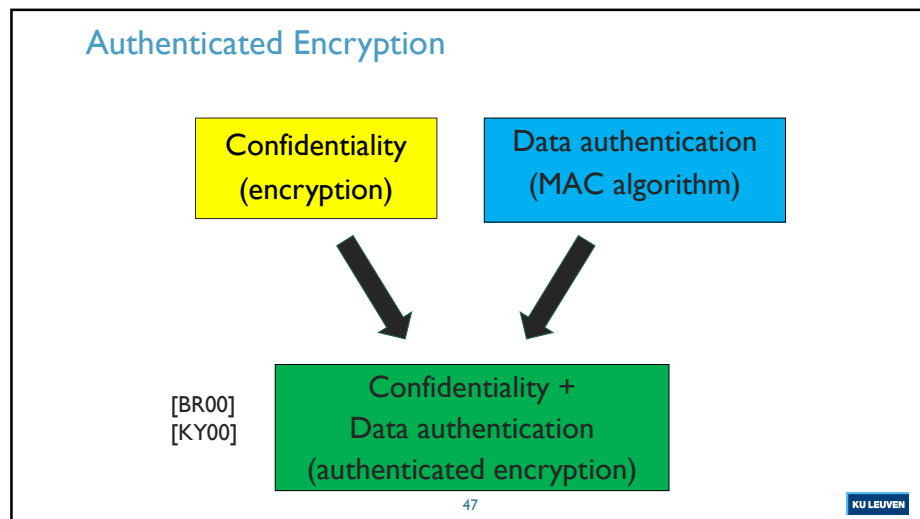


45

MAC based on a hash function

- › Insufficient: hash secret key with data
- › **HMAC**:
 - $h_K(X) = h(h(K_1 || x) || K_2)$
 - not secure with MD4/MD5
 - Ok with SHA-1/SHA-2/SHA-3

46



47

Authenticated Encryption

Generic composition [BN'00][NRS'14]

- › Encrypt-then-MAC with 2 independent keys
 - ›› IPsec, TLS 1.2
- › MAC-then-Encrypt with 2 independent keys
 - ›› TLS 1.1 and older, 802.11i WiFi
- › MAC-and-Encrypt with 2 independent keys

Design “from scratch”

- › Integrated authenticated encryption schemes: combined operation with 1 key: see next slide: TLS 1.3

48

Authenticated Encryption: properties wish list

- › Associated Data (AEAD)
- › Parallelizable
- › Online for encryption
- › Security reduction
- › Resistance to nonce reuse
- › Incremental tags
- › Fragmentation
- › No release of unverified plaintext
- › Committing encryption
- ›
- › Flexible implementation sizes
- › Performance: speed/size
- › Secure implementations: constant time/power analysis/EM analysis/fault attacks...

49



49

Most important authenticated encryption scheme

- › GCM: IV reuse problem
- › CCM: not parallel
- › GCM-SIV: more robust but slower
- › OCB2: faster than GCM
- › Aegis: fastest
- › Ascon: lightweight

50



50

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- › Symmetric cryptology
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 - ›› data authentication
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- › Public key cryptology (asymmetric cryptology)
- › Hybrid cryptology

51



51

Public-key cryptology


- › the problem
- › public-key encryption
- › digital signatures
- › Diffie-Hellman
- › RSA

52



52

Limitation of symmetric cryptology

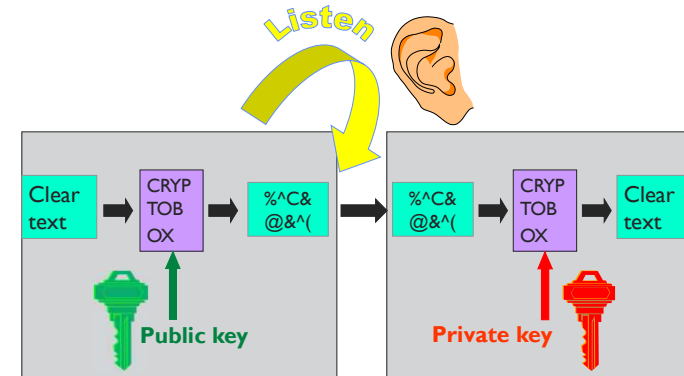
- › Reduce security of information to security of keys
- 
- › But: how to establish these secret keys?
 - ›› cumbersome and expensive
 - ›› or risky: all keys in 1 place
 - › Do we really need to establish secret keys?

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Public key cryptology: encryption

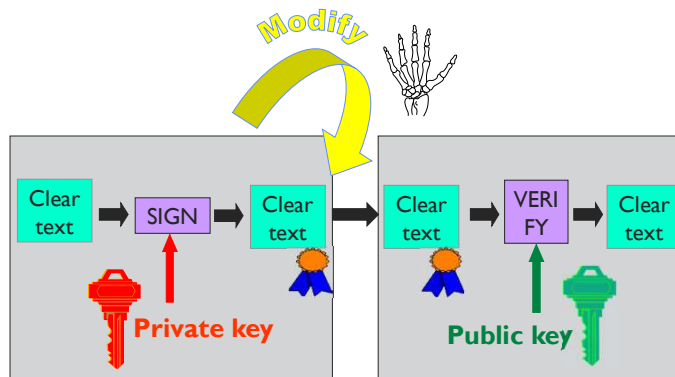


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Public key cryptology: digital signature



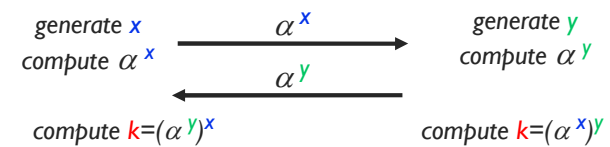
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A public-key agreement protocol: Diffie-Hellman

Before: Alice and Bob have never met and share no secrets; they know a public system parameter α



After: Alice and Bob share a short-term key k

Eve cannot compute k : in several mathematical structures it is hard to derive x from α^x (the discrete logarithm problem)

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RSA ('78)

- > choose 2 “large” prime numbers p and q
- > modulus $n = p \cdot q$
- > compute $\lambda(n) = \text{lcm}(p-1, q-1)$
- > choose e relatively prime w.r.t. $\lambda(n)$
- > compute $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\lambda(n)}$

The security of RSA is based on the “fact” that it is easy to generate two large primes, but that it is hard to factor their product

try to factor 2419

public key = (e, n)
private key = d of (p, q)

encryption: $c = m^e \pmod n$
decryption: $m = c^d \pmod n$

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Factorisation records

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/RSA_Factoring_Challenge

total computation time: 2700 core-years (Intel Xeon Gold 6130 2.1 GHz)

- sieving: 2450 physical core-years
- matrix: 250 physical core-years

Size (digits)

1964 1984 1996 2009 2020

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If a large quantum computer can be built


public-key cryptography algorithms have to be replaced [Shor'94]

RSA, Diffie-Hellman (including elliptic curves)

Breaking RSA-2048 requires 4096 ideal qubits or 20 million real qubits



symmetric crypto: key sizes: x2 [Grover'96]
but huge quantum devices needed



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How to continue?

- > Pre-Quantum era
 - » RSA / ECC
- > Hybrid era
 - » RSA / ECC + Post-Quantum
- > Post-Quantum Era
 - » Once confidence in post-quantum is high enough

New call for signature schemes: deadline 1 June 2023 – four more years

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Advantages of public key cryptology

- › Reduce protection of information to protection of authenticity of public keys
- › Confidentiality without establishing secret keys
 - › extremely useful in an **open** environment
- › Data authentication without shared secret keys: **digital signature**
 - › sender and receiver have different capability
 - › third party can resolve dispute between sender and receiver

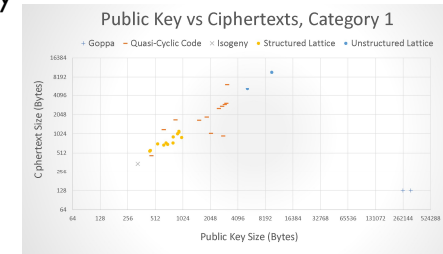
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Disadvantages of public key cryptology

- › Calculations in software or hardware **two to three orders of magnitude** slower than symmetric algorithms
- › Longer keys: 64-512 bytes rather than 10..32 bytes
- › What if factoring is easy or if a large quantum computer can be built?
- › Post-quantum cryptography



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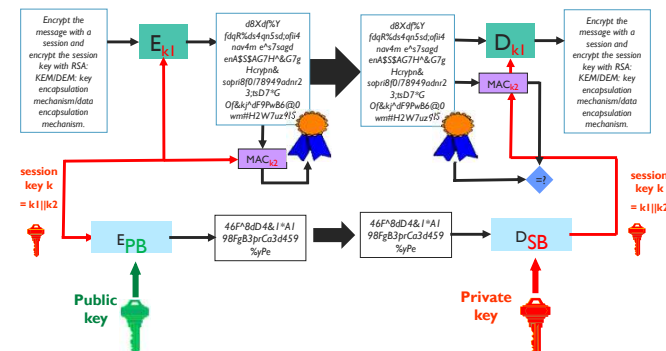
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RSA encryption for long messages (KEM/DEM)

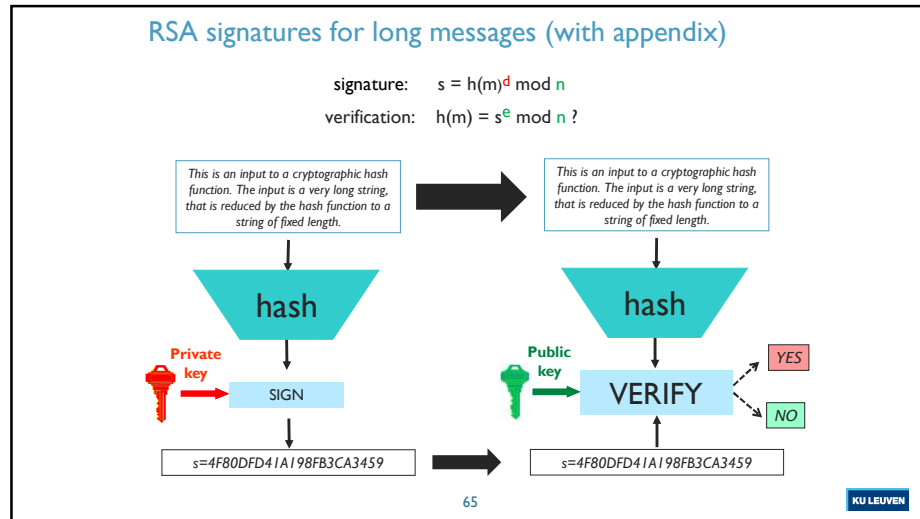
encryption: $c = m^e \text{ mod } n$
 decryption: $m = c^d \text{ mod } n$



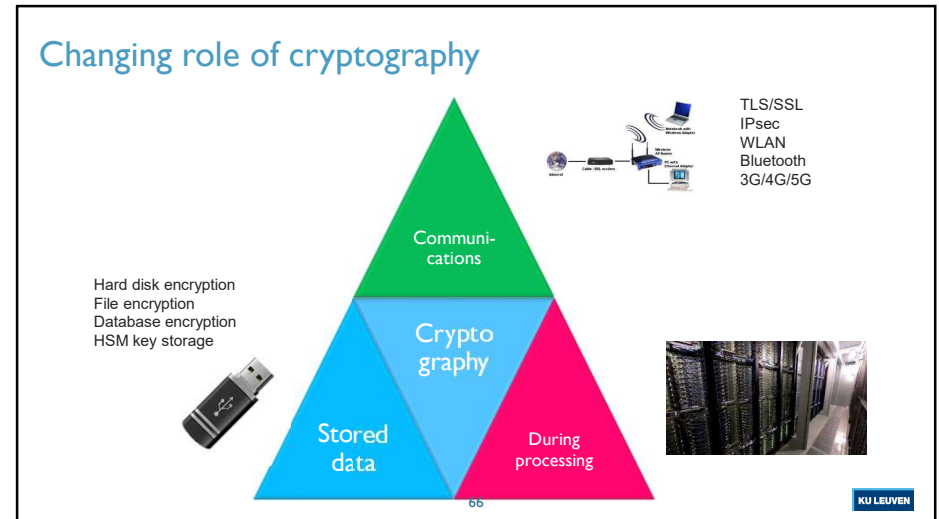
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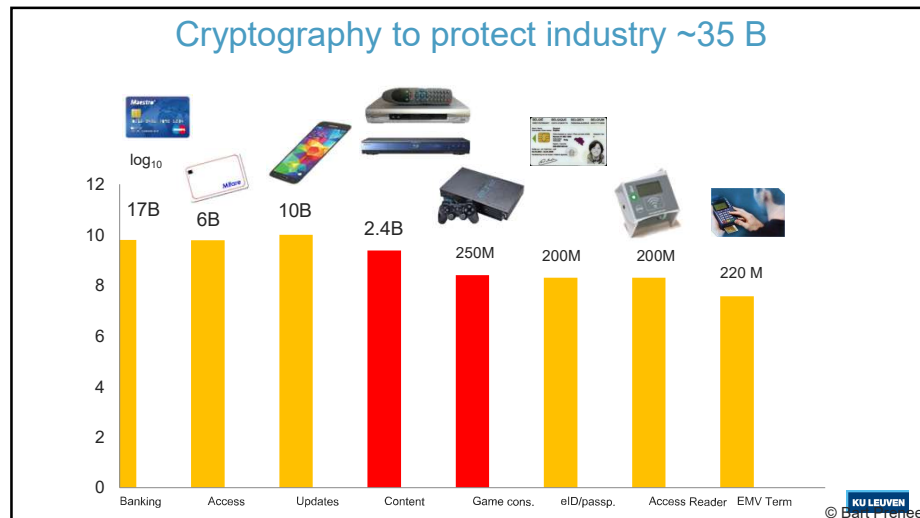
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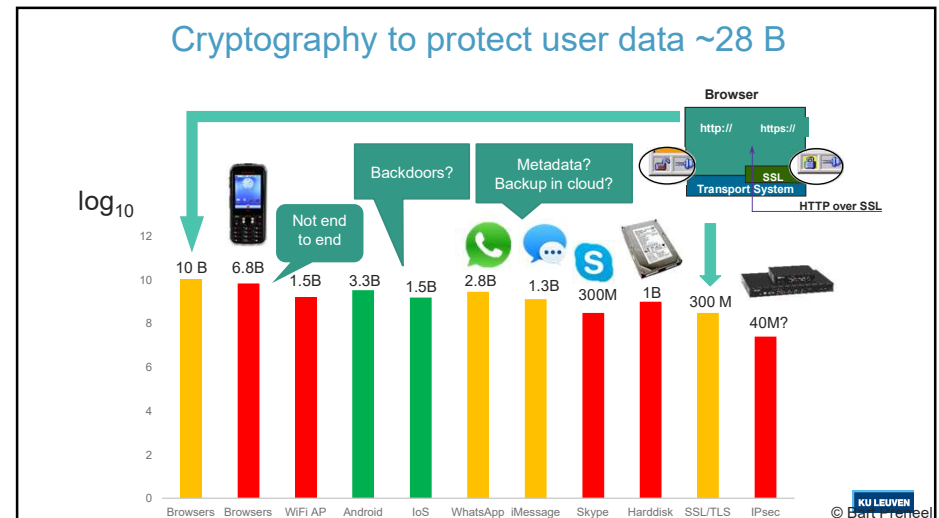
65



66



67



68

Applications of cryptography: protection of data at rest

- › Hard disk encryption (e.g. Bitlocker, Veracrypt, Ciphershed)
- › Database encryption
- › File encryption
- › Encryption in the cloud

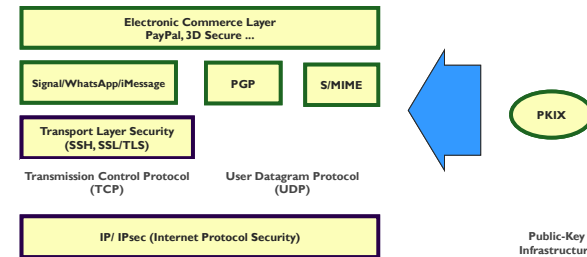
Main question: who manages the decryption keys?

69

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69

Applications of cryptography: network security



- › security services depend on the layer of integration:
 - ›› the mechanisms can only protect the payload and/or header information available at this layer
 - ›› header information of lower layers is **not protected!!**

70

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70

Applications of cryptography: network security (2)

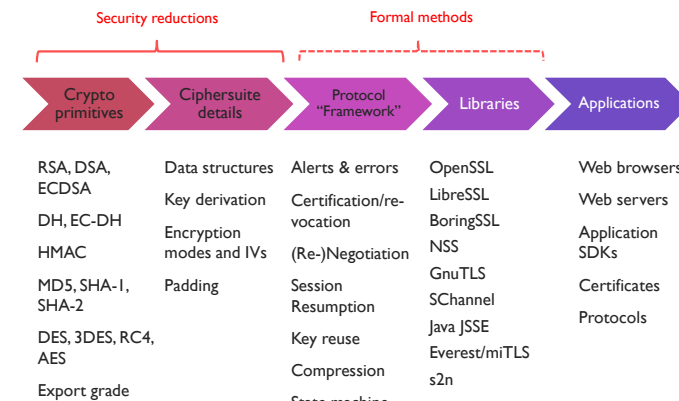
- › Data link layer
 - ›› 2G, 3G, 4G, 5G
 - ›› WLAN
 - ›› Bluetooth

71

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TLS overview [Stebila'19]



72

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72

