

**UNIT - 3**

Unit-3: Advanced Encryption Standard:

Finite Field Arithmetic – AES Structure – AES Transformation Functions – AES Key Expansion – An AES Example – AES Implementation Public Key Cryptography and RSA: Principles of Public Key Cryptosystems – The RSA Algorithm

# Origins

- > clear a replacement for DES was needed
	- have theoretical attacks that can break it
	- have demonstrated exhaustive key search attacks
- > can use Triple-DES but slow, has small blocks
- > US NIST issued call for ciphers in 1997
- > 15 candidates accepted in Jun 98
- > 5 were shortlisted in Aug-99
- > Rijndael was selected as the AES in Oct-2000 > issued as FIPS PUB 197 standard in Nov-2001

# The AES Cipher - Rijndael

> designed by Rijmen-Daemen in Belgium > has 128/192/256 bit keys, 128 bit data  $\triangleright$  an iterative rather than feistel cipher

- processes data as block of 4 columns of 4 bytes
- operates on entire data block in every round

#### b designed to be:

- resistant against known attacks
- speed and code compactness on many CPUs
- design simplicity

# **AES** Encryption<br>Process



### **AES Structure**

 $\ge$  data block of 4 columns of 4 bytes is state

 $\triangleright$  key is expanded to array of words

 $\ge$  has 9/11/13 rounds in which state undergoes:

• byte substitution (1 S-box used on every byte)

- · shift rows (permute bytes between groups/columns)
- mix columns (subs using matrix multiply of groups)
- add round key (XOR state with key material)

• view as alternating XOR key & scramble data bytes

> initial XOR key material & incomplete last round > with fast XOR & table lookup implementation

#### **AES Structure**





### **Some Comments on AES**

- an iterative rather than feistel cipher  $1.$
- 2. key expanded into array of 32-bit words
	- four words form round key in each round
- 4 different stages are used as shown  $3<sub>1</sub>$
- has a simple structure  $4.$
- only AddRoundKey uses key  $5.$
- AddRoundKey a form of Vernam cipher  $6.$
- each stage is easily reversible 7.
- decryption uses keys in reverse order 8.
- decryption does recover plaintext 9.
- 10. final round has only 3 stages

# *AES Transformation Functions*

# **Substitute Bytes**

- > a simple substitution of each byte
- > uses one table of 16x16 bytes containing a permutation of all 256 8-bit values
- leach byte of state is replaced by byte indexed by row (left 4-bits) & column (right 4-bits)
	- eg. byte {95} is replaced by byte in row 9 column 5
	- which has value  $\{2A\}$
- > S-box constructed using defined transformation of values in  $GF(2<sup>8</sup>)$
- > designed to be resistant to all known attacks

# Substitute Bytes



# **Substitute Bytes Example**





#### **Shift Rows**

 $\geq$  a circular byte shift in each each

- $\bullet$  1<sup>st</sup> row is unchanged
- 2<sup>nd</sup> row does 1 byte circular shift to left
- 3rd row does 2 byte circular shift to left
- 4th row does 3 byte circular shift to left

> decrypt inverts using shifts to right > since state is processed by columns, this step permutes bytes between the columns

#### **Shift Rows**





# **Mix Columns**

- > each column is processed separately
- > each byte is replaced by a value dependent on all 4 bytes in the column
- $\triangleright$  effectively a matrix multiplication in GF(2<sup>8</sup>) using prime poly  $m(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$



#### **Mix Columns**



# **Mix Columns Example**





# **AES Arithmetic**

- $\triangleright$  uses arithmetic in the finite field GF(2<sup>8</sup>) > with irreducible polynomial  $m(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$ which is (100011011) or {11b}
- $\ge$  e.g.  ${02} \cdot {87} \mod {11b} = (1 0000 1110) \mod {11b}$  $= (1 0000 1110)$  xor  $(1 0001 1011) = (0001 0101)$

# **Mix Columns**

- $\ge$  can express each col as 4 equations
	- to derive each new byte in col
- > decryption requires use of inverse matrix
	- with larger coefficients, hence a little harder
- $\triangleright$  have an alternate characterisation
	- each column a 4-term polynomial
	- with coefficients in  $GF(2^8)$
	- and polynomials multiplied modulo  $(x^4+1)$

> coefficients based on linear code with maximal distance between codewords

# **Add Round Key**

► XOR state with 128-bits of the round key > again processed by column (though effectively a series of byte operations) > inverse for decryption identical · since XOR own inverse, with reversed keys > designed to be as simple as possible • a form of Vernam cipher on expanded key • requires other stages for complexity / security

# **Add Round Key**



# **AES Round**



# **AES Key Expansion**

> takes 128-bit (16-byte) key and expands into array of 44/52/60 32-bit words > start by copying key into first 4 words > then loop creating words that depend on values in previous & 4 places back • in 3 of 4 cases just XOR these together • 1<sup>st</sup> word in 4 has rotate + S-box + XOR round constant on previous, before XOR 4th back

# **AES Key Expansion**





# **Key Expansion Rationale**

> designed to resist known attacks

> design criteria included

- knowing part key insufficient to find many more
- invertible transformation
- fast on wide range of CPU's
- use round constants to break symmetry
- · diffuse key bits into round keys
- enough non-linearity to hinder analysis
- · simplicity of description



# **AES Example** Key Expansion



# **AES Example** Encryption



# **AES Example Avalanche**

# **AES Decryption**

> AES decryption is not identical to encryption since steps done in reverse > but can define an equivalent inverse cipher with steps as for encryption • but using inverses of each step • with a different key schedule > works since result is unchanged when • swap byte substitution & shift rows · swap mix columns & add (tweaked) round key

# **AES Decryption**





# **Implementation Aspects**

> can efficiently implement on 8-bit CPU

- byte substitution works on bytes using a table of 256 entries
- shift rows is simple byte shift
- add round key works on byte XOR's
- mix columns requires matrix multiply in  $GF(2^8)$ which works on byte values, can be simplified to use table lookups & byte XOR's

# **Implementation Aspects**

> can efficiently implement on 32-bit CPU

- redefine steps to use 32-bit words
- can precompute 4 tables of 256-words
- then each column in each round can be computed using 4 table lookups + 4 XORs · at a cost of 4Kb to store tables

> designers believe this very efficient implementation was a key factor in its selection as the AES cipher

# Private-Key Cryptography

- $\triangleright$  traditional private/secret/single key cryptography uses one key
- ≻shared by both sender and receiver
- $\triangleright$  if this key is disclosed communications are compromised
- > also is symmetric, parties are equal
- ≻hence does not protect sender from receiver forging a message & claiming is sent by sender

# Public-Key Cryptography

- probably most significant advance in the 3000 year history of cryptography
- uses two keys a public & a private key
- asymmetric since parties are not equal
- uses clever application of number theoretic concepts to function
- complements rather than replaces private key crypto

# Why Public-Key Cryptography?

- developed to address two key issues:
	- $-$  key distribution  $-$  how to have secure communications in general without having to trust a KDC with your key
	- digital signatures how to verify a message comes intact from the claimed sender
- public invention due to Whitfield Diffie & Martin Hellman at Stanford Uni in 1976
	- known earlier in classified community

# Public-Key Cryptography

- public-key/two-key/asymmetric cryptography involves the use of two keys:
	- a **public-key**, which may be known by anybody, and can be used to encrypt messages, and verify signatures
	- a related **private-key**, known only to the recipient, used to decrypt messages, and sign (create) signatures
- infeasible to determine private key from public
- is asymmetric because
	- those who encrypt messages or verify signatures cannot decrypt messages or create signatures

#### Public-Key Cryptography



# Symmetric vs Public-Key



#### **Public-Key Cryptosystems**



# **Public-Key Applications**

- can classify uses into 3 categories:
	- encryption/decryption (provide secrecy)
	- digital signatures (provide authentication)
	- key exchange (of session keys)
- some algorithms are suitable for all uses, others are specific to one



# **Public-Key Requirements**

- Public-Key algorithms rely on two keys where:
	- it is computationally infeasible to find decryption key knowing only algorithm & encryption key
	- it is computationally easy to en/decrypt messages when the relevant (en/decrypt) key is known
	- either of the two related keys can be used for encryption, with the other used for decryption (for some algorithms)
- these are formidable requirements which only a few algorithms have satisfied

# Public-Key Requirements

- need a trapdoor one-way function
- one-way function has
	- $Y = f(X)$  easy
	- $X = f^{-1}(Y)$  infeasible
- a trap-door one-way function has
	- $Y = f_k(X)$  easy, if k and X are known
	- $X = f_k^{-1}(Y)$  easy, if k and Y are known
	- $X = f_k^{-1}(Y)$  infeasible, if Y known but k not known
- a practical public-key scheme depends on a suitable trap-door one-way function

# Security of Public Key Schemes

- $\triangleright$  like private key schemes brute force exhaustive search attack is always theoretically possible
- $\triangleright$  but keys used are too large (>512bits)
- $\triangleright$  security relies on a **large enough** difference in difficulty between easy (en/decrypt) and hard (cryptanalyse) problems
- $\triangleright$  more generally the **hard** problem is known, but is made hard enough to be impractical to break
- $\triangleright$  requires the use of very large numbers
- $\triangleright$  hence is slow compared to private key schemes

#### **RSA**

- ≻ by Rivest, Shamir & Adleman of MIT in 1977
- ≻ best known & widely used public-key scheme
- $\triangleright$  based on exponentiation in a finite (Galois) field over integers modulo a prime
	- $\bullet$  nb. exponentiation takes O((log n)<sup>3</sup>) operations (easy)
- $\triangleright$  uses large integers (eg. 1024 bits)
- $\triangleright$  security due to cost of factoring large numbers
	- $\bullet$  nb. factorization takes O(e  $log n log log n$ ) operations (hard)

# **RSA En/decryption**

- to encrypt a message M the sender:
	- obtains public key of recipient  $PU = \{e, n\}$
	- **computes:**  $C = M^e \mod n$ , where  $0 \le M < n$
- to decrypt the ciphertext C the owner:
	- uses their private key  $PR = \{d, n\}$
	- **computes:**  $M = C<sup>d</sup>$  mod n
- note that the message M must be smaller than the modulus n (block if needed)

# RSA Key Setup

- each user generates a public/private key pair by:
- selecting two large primes at random:  $p_{\ell}$  q
- computing their system modulus  $n=p \cdot q$

 $-$  note  $\varnothing$  (n) = (p-1) (q-1)

• selecting at random the encryption key  $e$ 

- where  $1 \leq e \leq \varnothing$  (n),  $\gcd(e, \varnothing(n)) = 1$ 

- solve following equation to find decryption key  $d$  $-e.d=1 \mod \emptyset(n)$  and  $0\leq d\leq n$
- publish their public encryption key:  $PU = \{e, n\}$
- keep secret private decryption key: PR={d,n}

# Why RSA Works

• because of Euler's Theorem:

 $-$  a<sup> $\alpha(n)$ </sup> mod n = 1 where gcd(a, n)=1

• in RSA have:

 $-$  n=p.q

- $-\varnothing(n)=(p-1)(q-1)$
- carefully chose  $e \& d$  to be inverses mod  $\varnothing$  (n)
- $-$  hence  $e$ . d=1+k.  $\varnothing$  (n) for some k
- hence:

$$
C^{d} = M^{e.d} = M^{1+k.\emptyset(n)} = M^{1} \cdot (M^{\emptyset(n)})^{k}
$$
  
=  $M^{1} \cdot (1)^{k} = M^{1} = M \text{ mod } n$ 

#### RSA Example - Key Setup

- **Select primes:**  $p=17$  &  $q=11$ 1.
- 2. Calculate  $n = pq = 17 \times 11 = 187$
- 3. Calculate  $\varnothing(n) = (p-1)(q-1) = 16 \times 10 = 160$
- Select e:  $gcd(e, 160) = 1$ ; choose  $e=7$ 4.
- 5. Determine d:  $de=1 \mod 160$  and  $d < 160$ Value is  $d=23$  since  $23x7=161= 10x160+1$
- 6. Publish public key  $PU = \{7, 187\}$
- 7. Keep secret private key  $PR = \{23, 187\}$

# RSA Example - En/Decryption

 $\triangleright$  sample RSA encryption/decryption is:

 $\triangleright$  given message M = 88 (nb. 88<187)

#### $\blacktriangleright$  encryption:

 $C = 88<sup>7</sup> \mod 187 = 11$ 

#### $\triangleright$  decryption:

 $M = 11^{23} \text{ mod } 187 = 88$ 

#### Exponentiation

- can use the Square and Multiply Algorithm
- a fast, efficient algorithm for exponentiation
- concept is based on repeatedly squaring base
- and multiplying in the ones that are needed to compute the result
- look at binary representation of exponent
- only takes  $O(log_2 n)$  multiples for number n

 $-$  eg. 7<sup>5</sup> = 7<sup>4</sup>. 7<sup>1</sup> = 3.7 = 10 mod 11

 $-$  eg.  $3^{129} = 3^{128} \cdot 3^1 = 5 \cdot 3 = 4$  mod 11

#### Exponentiation

$$
c = 0; f = 1
$$
  
for i = k downto 0  
do c = 2 x c  

$$
f = (f x f) \text{ mod } n
$$
  
if b<sub>i</sub> == 1 then  

$$
c = c + 1
$$

$$
f = (f x a) \text{ mod } n
$$
  
return f

# **Efficient Encryption**

- encryption uses exponentiation to power e
- hence if e small, this will be faster - often choose e=65537 ( $2^{16}$ -1)
	- $-$  also see choices of e=3 or e=17
- but if e too small (eg e=3) can attack
	- using Chinese remainder theorem & 3 messages with different modulii
- if e fixed must ensure  $\text{gcd}(e, \varnothing(n)) = 1$ 
	- ie reject any p or q not relatively prime to e

# **Efficient Decryption**

- decryption uses exponentiation to power d - this is likely large, insecure if not
- can use the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) to compute mod p & q separately. then combine to get desired answer

- approx 4 times faster than doing directly

• only owner of private key who knows values of p & q can use this technique

# **RSA Key Generation**

- users of RSA must:
	- determine two primes at random  $p$ , q
	- $-$  select either  $\in$  or  $d$  and compute the other
- primes  $p$ , q must not be easily derived from modulus  $n=p \cdot q$ 
	- means must be sufficiently large
	- typically guess and use probabilistic test
- exponents  $e$ ,  $d$  are inverses, so use Inverse algorithm to compute the other

# **RSA Security**

- possible approaches to attacking RSA are:
	- brute force key search infeasible given size of numbers
	- mathematical attacks based on difficulty of computing  $\phi(n)$ , by factoring modulus n
	- timing attacks on running of decryption
	- chosen ciphertext attacks given properties of RSA

# **Factoring Problem**

- mathematical approach takes 3 forms:
	- factor  $n=p \cdot q$ , hence compute  $\emptyset(n)$  and then d
	- determine  $\varnothing$  (n) directly and compute d
	- find d directly
- currently believe all equivalent to factoring
	- have seen slow improvements over the years
		- as of May-05 best is 200 decimal digits (663) bit with LS
	- biggest improvement comes from improved algorithm
		- cf QS to GHFS to LS
	- currently assume 1024-2048 bit RSA is secure
		- ensure p, q of similar size and matching other constraints

#### **Progress in Factoring**



# Progress in Factoring



# **Timing Attacks**

- developed by Paul Kocher in mid-1990's
- exploit timing variations in operations
	- eg. multiplying by small vs large number
	- or IF's varying which instructions executed
- infer operand size based on time taken
- RSA exploits time taken in exponentiation
- countermeasures
	- use constant exponentiation time
	- add random delays
	- blind values used in calculations

# **Chosen Ciphertext Attacks**

RSA is vulnerable to a Chosen Ciphertext Attack (CCA) attackers chooses ciphertexts & gets decrypted plaintext back choose ciphertext to exploit properties of RSA to provide info to help cryptanalysis can counter with random pad of plaintext or use Optimal Asymmetric Encryption Padding (OASP)



 $P = encoding parameters$  $M = message$  to be encoded  $H =$  hash function

 $DB = data block$  $MGF = mask$  generating function  $EM = encoded message$