#### Symmetric Encryption: Modes of Operation, Semantic Security

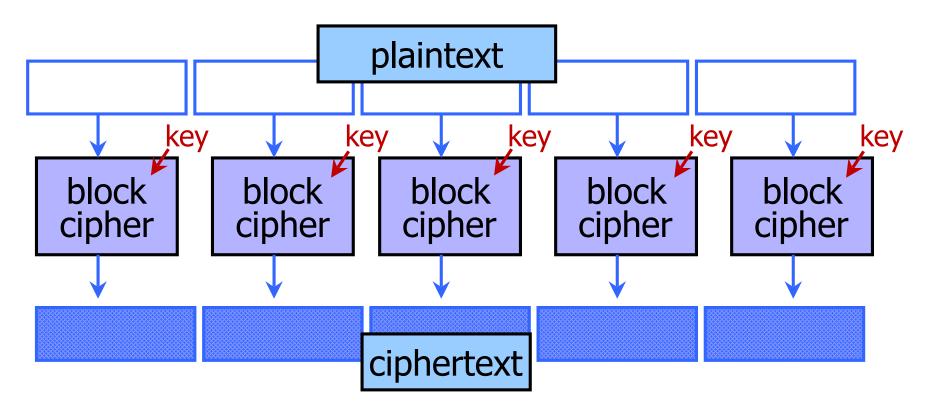
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Credits: Vitaly Shmatikov (Cornell Tech)

## Encrypting a Large Message

- So, we've got a good block cipher, but our plaintext is larger than 128-bit block size
- Modes of Operation
  - Electronic Code Book (ECB) mode
    - Split plaintext into blocks, encrypt each one separately using the block cipher
  - Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode
    - Split plaintext into blocks, XOR each block with the result of encrypting previous blocks
  - Also various counter modes, feedback modes, etc.

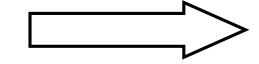
#### ECB Mode



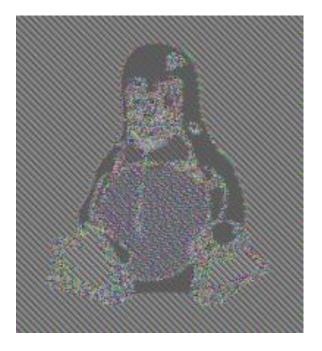
- Identical blocks of plaintext produce identical blocks of ciphertext
- No integrity checks: can mix and match blocks

#### Information Leakage in ECB Mode [Wikipedia]





Encrypt in ECB mode

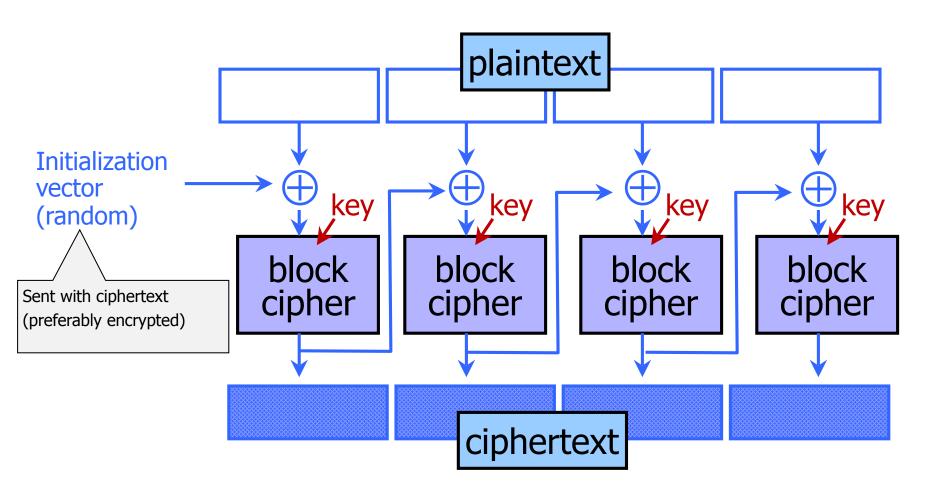


#### Adobe Passwords Stolen (2013)

- 153 million account passwords
  - 56 million of them unique
- Encrypted using 3DES in ECB mode rather than hashed

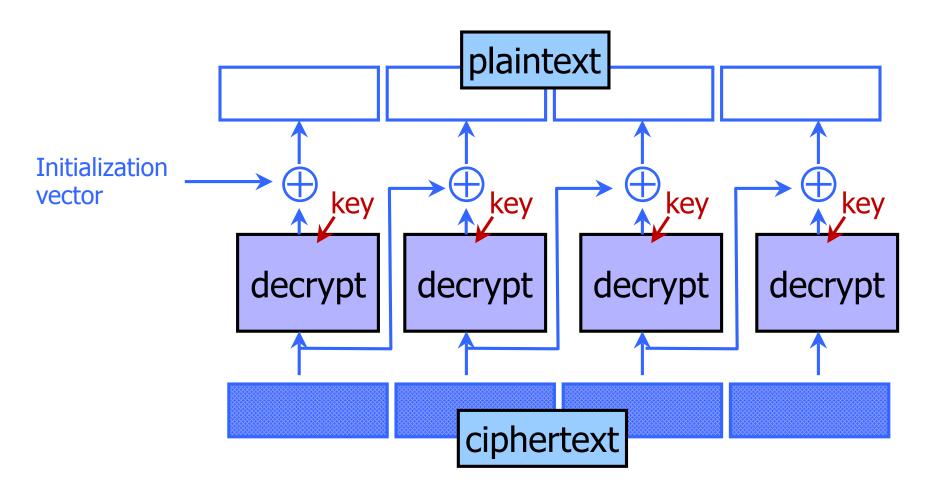


## **CBC Mode: Encryption**



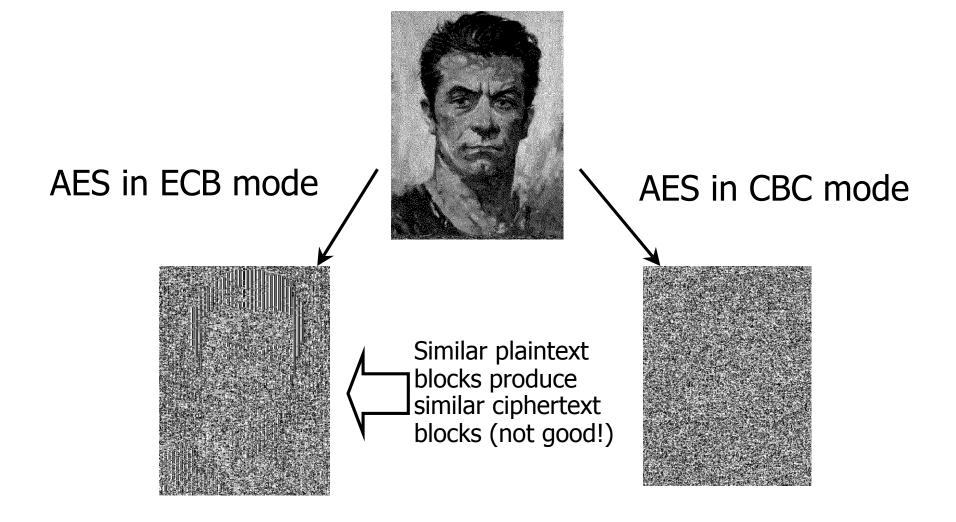
- Identical blocks of plaintext encrypted differently
- Last cipherblock depends on entire plaintext
  - Still does not guarantee integrity

#### **CBC Mode: Decryption**



#### ECB vs. CBC

#### [Picture due to Bart Preneel]

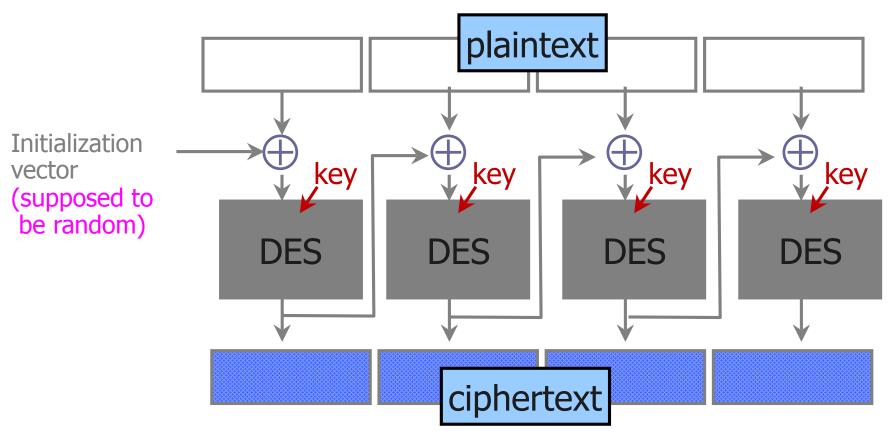


#### **Choosing the Initialization Vector**

- Key used only once
  - No IV needed (can use IV=0)
- Key used multiple times
  - Best: fresh, random IV for every message

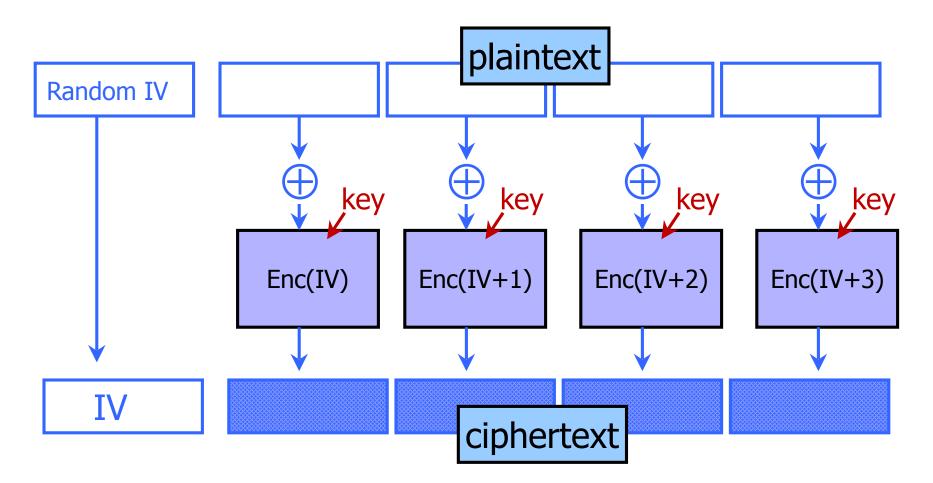
#### **CBC** and **Electronic** Voting

[Kohno, Stubblefield, Rubin, Wallach, IEEE S&P'04]



Found in the source code for Diebold voting machines:

## CTR (Counter Mode)



- Still does not guarantee integrity
- Fragile if counter repeats

#### When Is a Cipher "Secure"?

- Hard to recover plaintext from ciphertext?
  - What if attacker learns only some bits of the plaintext? Some function of the bits? Some partial information about the plaintext?
- Fixed mapping from plaintexts to ciphertexts?
  - What if attacker sees two identical ciphertexts and infers that the corresponding plaintexts are identical?
  - What if attacker guesses the plaintext can he verify his guess?
  - Implication: encryption must be randomized or stateful

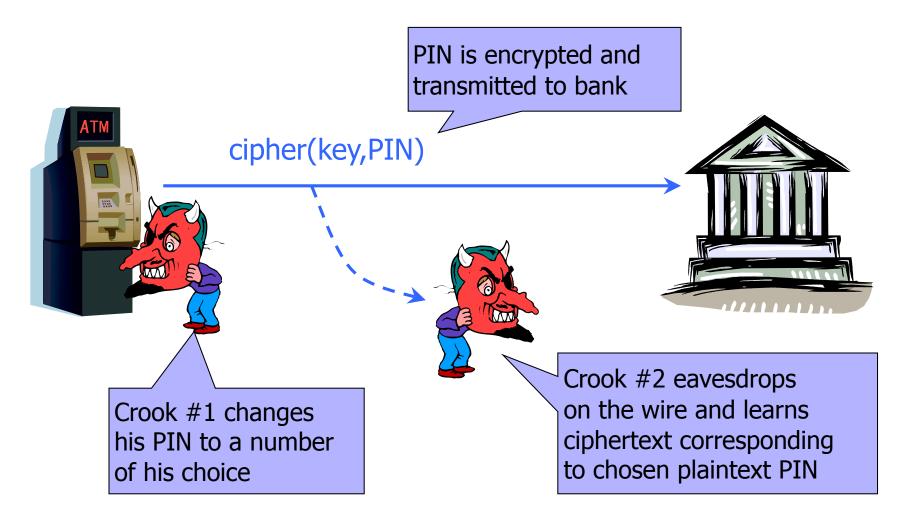
## How Can a Cipher Be Attacked?

- Attackers knows ciphertext and encryption algorithm
  - What else does the attacker know? Depends on the application in which the cipher is used!
- Known-plaintext attack (stronger)
  - Knows some plaintext-ciphertext pairs
- Chosen-plaintext attack (even stronger)
  - Can obtain ciphertext for any plaintext of his choice
- Chosen-ciphertext attack (very strong)
  - Can decrypt any ciphertext <u>except</u> the target
  - Sometimes very realistic





#### **Chosen-Plaintext Attack**



... repeat for any PIN value

## **Very Informal Intuition**

Minimum security requirement for a modern encryption scheme

- Security against Chosen-Plaintext attack
  - Ciphertext leaks no information about the plaintext
  - Even if the attacker correctly guesses the plaintext, he cannot verify his guess
  - Every ciphertext is unique, encrypting the same message twice produces completely different ciphertexts
- Security against chosen-ciphertext attack
  - Integrity protection it is not possible to change the plaintext by modifying the ciphertext

## How to formalize CPA-Security?

Can you recall Shanon's definition of perfect security?

#### Shannon's perfect secrecy

Let (E, D) be a cipher over  $(\mathcal{R}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C})$ 

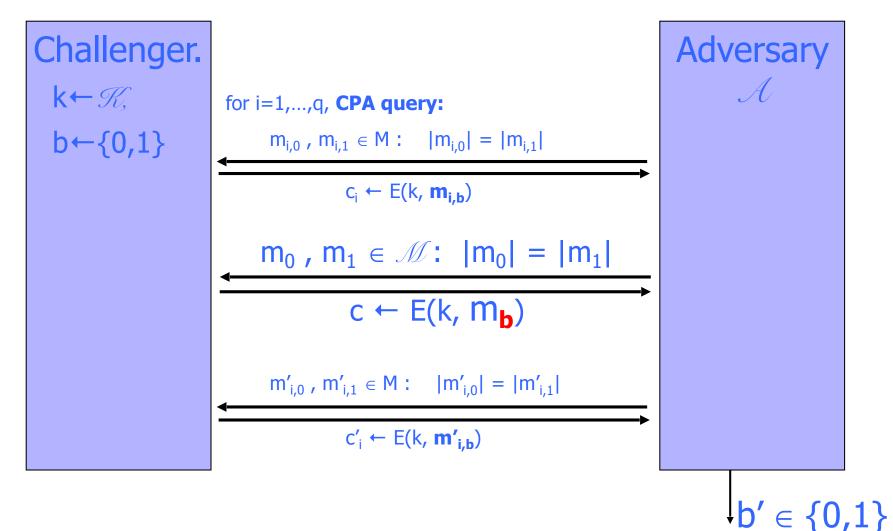
(E,D) has perfect secrecy if  $\forall m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}, |m_0| = |m_1|$ { E(k,m\_0) } = { E(k,m\_1) } where k←  $\mathcal{K}$ .

Does this help to define CPA-Security?

#### The Chosen-Plaintext Game

- 1.  $k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n)$ .  $b \leftarrow \{0,1\}$ . Give  $\text{Enc}(k, \cdot)$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ .
- 2.  $\mathcal{A}$  chooses as many plaintexts as he wants, and receives the corresponding ciphertexts via Enc(k,  $\cdot$ ).
- 3.  $\mathcal{A}$  picks two plaintexts  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  (Picking plaintexts for which A previously learned ciphertexts is allowed!)
- 4.  $\mathcal{A}$  receives the ciphertext of M<sub>b</sub>, and continues to have accesses to Enc(k,  $\cdot$ ).
- 5.  $\mathcal{A}$  outputs b'.
- $\mathcal{A}$  wins if b'=b.

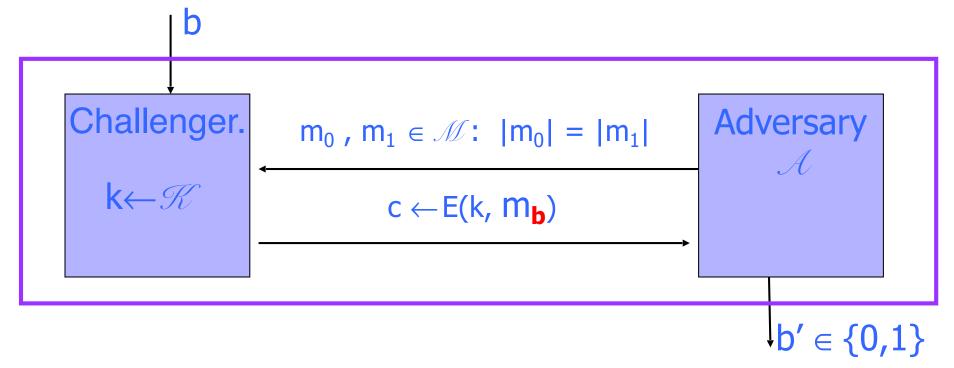
#### CPA Secure (one-time key)



For all efficient adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ , | Pr[ b=b' ] - 1/2 | is "negligible".

#### Alternative Definition of CPA-Security (one-time key)

For  $b \leftarrow \{0,1\}$ , define experiment EXP(b) as:



Define  $W_b := [$  event that EXP(b)=1 ].

Adv  $(\mathcal{M}, \mathbf{E}) := | \Pr[W_0] - \Pr[W_1] | \in [0, 1]$ 

Alternative Definition of CPA-Security (one-time key)

# E is **computational secure** if for all efficient adversary $\mathcal A$

Adv (A, E) is "negligible".

#### Negligible

- Concrete sense:
  e.g., < 2<sup>-40</sup>
- Asymptotic sense:
  negl(n) < any inverse polynomial of n, as long as n is sufficiently large.</li>

#### Defining Perfect Security (one-time key)

E is **perfectly secure** if for all adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ Adv ( $\mathcal{A}$ , E) is 0.

#### $\Leftrightarrow$ For all explicit $m_0, m_1 \in M$ :

 $\{ E(k,m_0) \} = \{ E(k,m_1) \}, where k \leftarrow \mathscr{K}.$ 

### A Simple Example

- Any deterministic, stateless symmetric encryption scheme is insecure
  - Attacker can easily distinguish encryptions of different plaintexts from encryptions of identical plaintexts
  - This includes ECB mode of common block ciphers! <u>Attacker A interacts with Enc(-)</u>

query Enc(0)

Let x=0, y=1 be any two different plaintexts Send x, y to the challenger If  $C_1$ =Enc(0) then b=0 else b=1

The advantage of this attacker A is 1