

One-Time Pad or Vernam Cipher

- The one-time pad, which is a provably secure cryptosystem, was developed by Gilbert Vernam in 1918.
- The message is represented as a binary string (a sequence of 0's and 1's using a coding mechanism such as ASCII coding).
- The key is a truly random sequence of 0's and 1's of the same length as the message.
- The encryption is done by adding the key to the message modulo 2, bit by bit. This process is often called *exclusive or*, and is denoted by *XOR*. The symbol \oplus is used.

a	b	$c = a \oplus b$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

One-Time Pad or Vernam Cipher

Example: Let the message be IF then its ASCII code be (1001001 1000110) and the key be (1010110 0110001). The ciphertext can be found XORing message and key bits

Encryption:

1001001 1000110	plaintext	
1010110 0110001	key	
<hr/>		
0011111 1110110	ciphertext	= (v)

Decryption:

0011111 1110110	ciphertext	
1010110 0110001	key	
<hr/>		
1001001 1000110	plaintext	

Why One-Time Pad is provably secure?

Or how can we prove it is unbreakable?

- The security depends on the randomness of the key.
- It is hard to define randomness.
- In cryptographic context, we seek two fundamental properties in a binary random key sequence:
 1. *Unpredictability*: Independent of the number of the bits of a sequence observed, the probability of guessing the next bit is not better than $\frac{1}{2}$. Therefore, the probability of a certain bit being 1 or 0 is exactly equal to $\frac{1}{2}$.
 2. *Balanced (Equal Distribution)*: The number of 1's and 0's should be equal.

Mathematical Proof

- the probability of a key bit being 1 or 0 is exactly equal to $\frac{1}{2}$.
- The plaintext bits are not balanced. Let the probability of 0 be x and then the probability of 1 turns out to be $1-x$.
- Let us calculate the probability of ciphertext bits.

m_i	prob.	k_i	prob.	c_i	prob.
0	x	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}x$
0	x	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$\frac{1}{2}x$
1	$1-x$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$\frac{1}{2}(1-x)$
1	$1-x$	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}(1-x)$

- We find out the probability of a ciphertext bit being 1 or 0 is equal to $(\frac{1}{2})x + (\frac{1}{2})(1-x) = \frac{1}{2}$. Ciphertext looks like a random sequence.

A Practical One-Time Pad

- A satellite produces and broadcasts several random sequences of bit at a rate fast enough such that no computer can store more than a very small fraction of them.
- Alice & Bob use a PKC to agree on a method of sampling bits from these random sequences.
- They use these bits to form a key for one-time pad.
- Eve, in theory, can break the PKC they used even though doing so is difficult.
- But by the time she breaks it, random bits Alice & Bob collected disappeared and Eve can not decrypt the message since she hasn't got the resources to store all the random bits that have been broadcast.

- Symmetric-key ciphers
- Encrypt individual characters at a time,
- Faster and less complex in hardware,
- They are desirable in some applications in which
 - buffering is limited
 - bits must be individually processed as they are received.
 - Transmission errors are highly probable.
- Vast amount of theoretical knowledge.
- Various design principles.
- Widely being used at present, will probably be used in the future.

Basic Idea comes from **One-Time-Pad** cipher,

Encryption : $c_i = m_i \oplus k_i$ $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

m_i : plain-text bits.

k_i : key (key-stream) bits

c_i : cipher-text bits.

Decryption : $m_i = c_i \oplus k_i$ $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

- Provably Secure.

Drawback : Key-stream should be as long as plain-text.

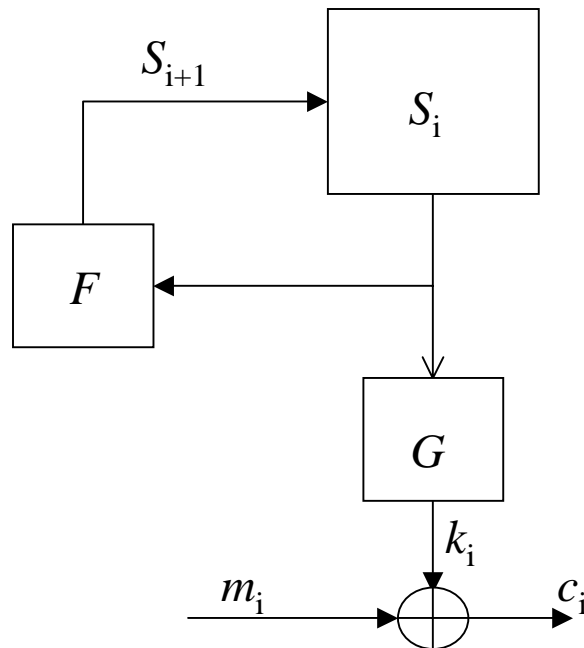
Key distribution & Management difficult.

Solution : Stream Ciphers (in which key-stream is generated in pseudo-random fashion from relatively short *secret key*).

Randomness : Closely related to *unpredictability*.

Pseudo-randomness : PR sequences appears random to a computationally bounded adversary.

- Stream Ciphers can be modeled as Finite-state machine.



S_i : state of the cipher
at time $t = i$.

F : state function.

G : output function.

Initial state, output and state
functions are controlled by the
secret key.

1. Synchronous Stream Ciphers

- Key-stream is independent of plain and cipher-text.
- Both sender & receiver must be synchronized.
- Resynchronization can be needed.
- No error propagation.
- Active attacks can easily be detected.

2. Self-Synchronizing Stream Ciphers

- Key-stream is a function of fixed number t of cipher-text bits.
- Limited error propagation (up to t bits).
- Active attacks cannot be detected.
- At most t bits later, it resynchronizes itself when synchronization is lost.
- It helps to diffuse plain-text statistics.

Analysis

- Efforts to evaluate the security of stream ciphers.
 1. Mathematical Analysis
 - Period and Linear Complexity,
 - Security against Correlation Attacks.
 2. Pseudo-randomness Testing
 - Statistical Tests,
 - Linear Complexity,
 - Ziv-Lempel Complexity
 - Maximum Order Complexity,
 - Maurer's Universal Test.
- In testing, all the tests are applied to as many key-streams of different lengths as possible.

Linear Feedback Shift Register - LFSR



$C(x) = 1 + c_1x + c_2x^2 + \Lambda + c_Lx^L$: Connection Polynomial

- If $C(x)$ is primitive, LFSR is called *maximum-length*, and the output sequence is called *m-sequence* and its period is

$$T = 2^L - 1.$$

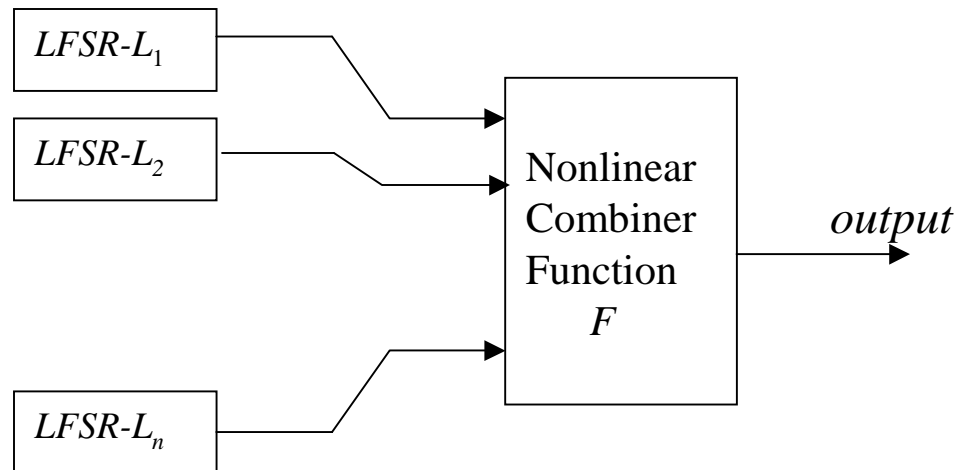
- *m-sequences* have good statistical properties.
- However, they are predictable.

- If $2L$ successive bits of an m -sequence are known, the shortest LFSR which produces the rest of the sequence can be found using Berlekamp-Massey (BM) algorithm.
- Generally, the length of the shortest LFSR which generates a sequence is called linear complexity.

Stream Cipher Designs Based on LFSRs

- LFSRs generate m -sequence.
- However, “Linearity is the curse of cryptographer.”
- The methods of utilizing LFSRs as *building blocks* in the stream cipher design.
- The design principle :
 - Use other blocks which introduce non-linearity while preserving the statistical properties of m -sequences.

Nonlinear combination Generators



The Combiner Function should be,

1. Balanced,
2. Highly nonlinear,
3. Correlation Immune.

- Utilizing the *algebraic normal form* of the combiner function we can compute the linear complexity of the output sequence.

Example (Geffe Generator) :

$$F(x_1, x_2, x_3) = x_1x_2 \oplus x_2x_3 \oplus x_3$$

If the lengths of the LFSRs are relatively prime and all connection polynomials are primitive, then

$$L = L_1L_2 + L_2L_3 + L_3$$

$$T = (2^{L_1} - 1) \cdot (2^{L_2} - 1) \cdot (2^{L_3} - 1)$$

When we inspect the truth table of the combiner function we gain more insight about the security of Geffe generator.

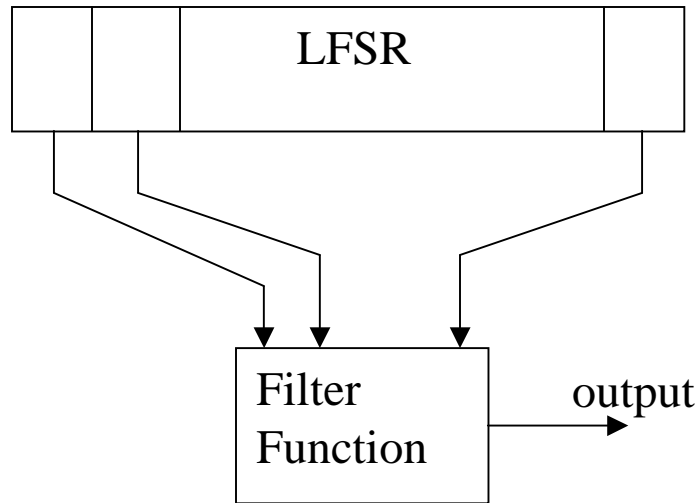
x_1	x_2	x_3	$z = F(x_1, x_2, x_3)$
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	1
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

- The combiner function is balanced.
- However, the correlation probability,

$$P(z = x_1) = 3/4.$$

- Geffe generator is not secure.

Nonlinear Filter Generator



- Upper bound for linear complexity,

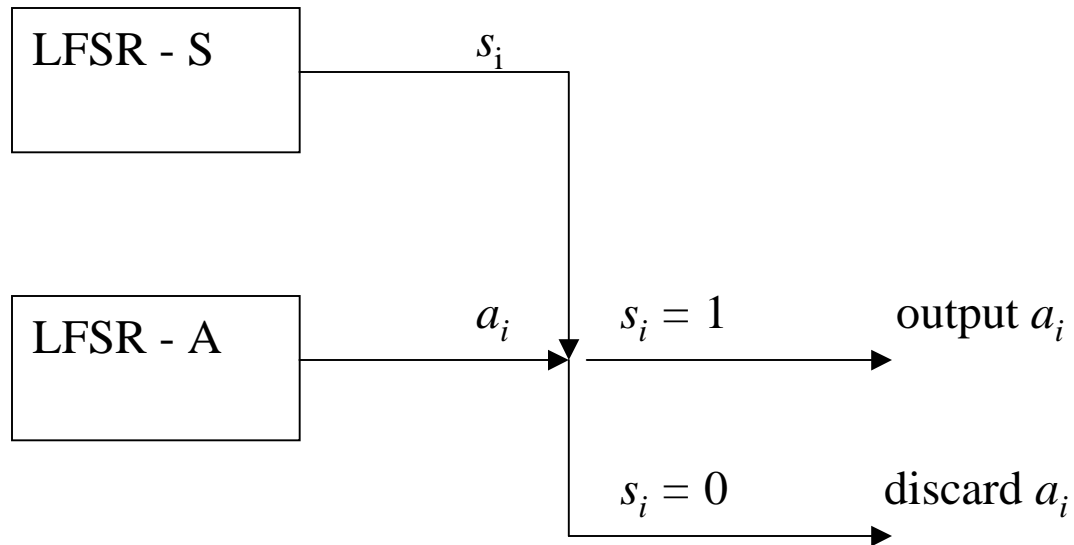
$$L_m = \sum_{i=1}^m \binom{L}{i} \quad m : \text{nonlinear order of the filter function.}$$

- When L and m are big enough, the linear complexity will become large.

Clock-controlled Generators

- An LFSR can be clocked by the output of another LFSR.
- This introduces an irregularity in clocking of the first LFSR, hence increase the linear complexity of its output.

Example : Shrinking Generator



- Relatively new design.
- However, it is analyzed and it seems secure under certain circumstances.

$$\text{if } \gcd(L_s, L_A) = 1 \Rightarrow$$

$$T = (2^{L_A} - 1) \cdot 2^{L_s - 1}$$

$$L_A \cdot 2^{L_s - 2} < L < L_A \cdot 2^{L_s - 1}$$

Different Designs

- SEAL, RC4.
 - They use expanded key tables,
 - Fast in software,
 - Look secure,
 - They have not been fully analyzed yet,
 - Efficient analysis tools are not developed.