

# Crypto IX: Key Length

## *Cryptographic Hardware for Embedded Systems*

### *ECE 3170*

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# Reading Assignment

- Please read Chapter 7 of the course textbook by Schneier

# Notation from Katz and Lindell

- $\{X\}$  is a set of elements of type  $X$
- $m$  is a message in plaintext
  - $m$  is composed of smaller blocks  $m_i$  suitable for individual encryption steps
  - $m = \{m_i\}$
- $c_i$  is ciphertext corresponding to message block  $m_i$
- $c$  is ciphertext corresponding to message  $m$
- $Enc_k$  is encryption with key  $k$ 
  - $c \leftarrow Enc_k(m)$
- $Dec_k$  is decryption with key  $k$ 
  - $m \leftarrow Dec_k(c)$
- $MAC_k$  is generation of a message authentication code  $t$  with key  $k$ 
  - $t \leftarrow Mac_k(m)$  or, alternatively,  $t \leftarrow Mac_k(c)$
- $\langle a, b \rangle$  is a concatenation of  $a$  followed by  $b$

# Notation from Schneier

- $C_i$  is ciphertext message  $i$
- $P_i$  is plaintext message  $i$
- $E_k$  is encryption with key  $k$ 
  - Note that  $E$  could be symmetric or asymmetric
  - $E_k(P_i) = C_i$
- $D_k$  is decryption with key  $k$ 
  - Note that  $D$  could be symmetric or asymmetric
  - However, for asymmetric cryptographic, need distinct keys
    - $E_{k1}$  and  $D_{k2}$  where  $k1$  is the public “key” and  $k2$  is the private “key”
    - $E_{k1}(P_i) = C_i$
    - $D_{k2}(C_i) = P_i$
- $\{X\}$  is a set of elements of type  $X$
- $|$  is “such that”; e.g., integer  $i \mid 3 < i < 5$  implies that  $i = 4$

# Key Length

- Security depends on the *inability* of the adversary to decrypt without the secret
- The *secret* is the key
- The inability of the adversary to decrypt is based to a large extent on the *length* of the key

# Cryptanalysis

- Traditionally, the adversary is assumed to have complete access to communications
  - Cryptographic algorithm is known
  - Key is not known
- Non-academic approaches may also relay on not revealing the cryptographic algorithm, i.e., secrecy of the algorithm as well as the key
  - So-called “security by obscurity”
  - However, there are strong arguments against this
    - Auguste Kerckhoffs, born in the Netherlands, argued in the late 19<sup>th</sup> Century, “The cipher method must not be required to be secret, and it must be able to fall into the hands of the enemy without inconvenience.”

# Recall from Cryptography Part I Lecture

## 1) Ciphertext only attack

- Cryptanalyst has the ciphertext  $\{C_i\}$  of a number of messages
  - $C_1 = E_k(P_1), C_2 = E_k(P_2), \dots$

## 2) Known plaintext attack

- Cryptanalyst has a number of plaintext, ciphertext pairs
  - $(P_i, C_i) \mid C_i = E_k(P_i)$
- May also have additional ciphertext without associated plaintext

## 3) Chosen Plaintext Attack (CPA)

- Cryptanalyst can obtain ciphertext for chosen plaintext
- Given  $P_i$ ,  $C_i = E_k(P_i)$  can be found

## 4) Chosen Ciphertext Attack (CCA)

- Cryptanalyst can obtain plaintext for (some) chosen ciphertext
- Given  $C_i$ ,  $P_i \mid C_i = E_k(P_i)$  can be found for some (or all) cases

# Cryptanalysis (continued)

- Known plaintext attack capability more common than you might think
- May obtain plaintext by some other means and then intercept the ciphertext
  - A document file may have a standard header
  - A database may have a standard record format or directory beginning
  - Email messages may begin in a standard way
  - And many more...



# Cryptanalysis (continued some more!)

- Consider a symmetric encryption scheme and the known plaintext attack
  - If the “strength” of the cryptographic algorithm is “perfect,” then knowledge of the algorithm reveals nothing advantageous to the cryptanalyst
  - Therefore, since the key is not known, the only approach left open to the cryptanalyst is “brute force”
  - For a key of  $n$  bits, a brute force attack simply tries out each key one by one
    - After  $2^{n-1}$  tries, there is approximately a  $\frac{2^{n-1}}{2^n} = 50\%$  chance of discovering the key
- Consider a 56-bit key
  - Further consider a GHz machine able to make  $10^9$  comparisons per second
  - $2^{55} = 36,028,797,018,963,968$  comparisons  $\cong 36,028,797$  seconds  $\cong 1.15$  years
    - $\Rightarrow$  50% chance of discovering the key in 1.15 years
    - (if only  $10^6$  comparisons per second, e.g., as in 1995, then require 1150 years for a 50% chance)
  - However, 64 bits requires 589 years, and 128 bits requires  $10^{22}$  years
    - The universe is only  $10^{10}$  years old!

# How “Strong” is a Cryptographic Algorithm?

- Typically assume a known plaintext attack
  - Ability to withstand a chosen plaintext attack (CPA) is better
- DES and AES are considered to be strong against known attacks
  - However, due to its 56-bit key, DES is no longer considered to be safe against a cryptanalyst with sufficient compute power to carry out enough ( $2^{56}$ ) brute-force comparisons
  - AES has three key size options: 128 bits, 192 bits and 256 bits
  - Triple DES (3DES) uses three 56-bit keys  $k1$ ,  $k2$  and  $k3$ 
    - $C_i = E_{k3}(D_{k2}(E_{k1}(P_i)))$
    - $P_i = D_{k1}(E_{k2}(D_{k3}(C_i)))$
    - Due to some known ways to optimize the key search under the known plaintext attack, the number of comparisons required is not  $(2^{56})(2^{56})(2^{56})$  but rather is  $2^{2 \cdot 56} = 2^{112}$

# Symmetric versus Asymmetric Key Length

- Asymmetric cryptography using the RSA algorithm does not involve using all possible key bitstrings
  - Instead, RSA relies on the difficulty of trying to factor a very large number
- Can estimate that a 128-bit AES key has equivalent security (i.e., difficulty of discovering the key under a known plaintext attack) of a 2048-bit RSA private key