

Perfect Cipher

Gianluca Dini
Dept. of Ingegneria dell'Informazione
University of Pisa
gianluca.dini@unipi.it
Version: 2024-02-26

¹ The informal properties talk about "difficult". It would be nice to have "impossible" instead of "difficult". Is this possible?

Towards a secure cipher

- Attacker's ability: (one) **cipher-text only attack**
- Security requirements
 - Attacker **cannot recover the secret key**
 - **Attacker cannot recover the plaintext**
- **Intuition of perfectly secure cipher**
 - **Regardless of any prior information** the **attacker has about the plaintext**, the **cyphertext should leak no additional information about the plaintext**

EX: Alice and Bob want to issue an appointment (prior information). Maybe the attacker has some probability distribution info. Alice and Bob exchange communication. But they are not able to extract any additional information.

A probabilistic approach

- Message M is a random variable
 - Plaintext distribution
 - Example
 - $\Pr[M = \text{"attack today"}] = 0.7$
 - $\Pr[M = \text{"don't attack"}] = 0.3$
 - Prior knowledge of the attacker *Attacker knows this distribution.*
- Gen() defines a probability distribution over K
 - $\Pr[K = k] = \Pr[k \leftarrow \text{Gen}()]$
- Random variables M and K are independent

3

A probabilistic approach

- Ciphertext generation process
 - Choose a message m
 - Generate a key $k, k \leftarrow \text{Gen}()$
 - Compute $c \leftarrow E_k(m)$
- The ciphertext is a random variable C
- Encryption defines a distribution over the ciphertext C

4

Perfect secrecy (informal)

- We formalize «information about the plaintext» in terms of probability distribution
- The adversary's *a-priori* knowledge of the plaintext distribution, i.e. before observing a ciphertext, and the adversary's *a-posteriori* knowledge of the plaintext distribution, i.e. after observing the ciphertext, must be equal

① What they know before observing c

② Distribution composed after computing c .

feb-24

Perfect cipher

5

5

Perfect secrecy (Shannon, 1949)

- Definition of Perfect secrecy – For every every m in M , every c in C , with $\Pr[C = c] > 0$, it holds $\Pr[M = m | C = c] = \Pr[M = m]$
- An equivalent formulation
 - $\forall m, m' \in M, \forall c \in C, \Pr[E_k(m) = c] = \Pr[E_k(m') = c]$
 - The distribution of the ciphertext does not depend on the plaintext

$\xrightarrow{m \in M}$

A-priori probability = A-posteriori probability.

If I have a ciphertext I cannot say which m gave me the c . The ciphertext gives no additional information.

feb-24

Perfect cipher

6

6

OFTEN ASKED

Shannon's Theorem

Hp. perfect cypher, implication is number of keys.

- Shannon's Theorem – In a perfect cipher, $|K| \geq |M|$ *This is a necessary condition, not a sufficient one.*
 - i.e., the number of keys cannot be smaller than the number of messages *COROLLARY*
 - Proof. By contradiction.
 - a) Let $|K| < |M|$ *I won't be able to decrypt anymore*
 - b) It must be $|C| \geq |M|$ or, otherwise, the cipher is not invertible
 - c) Therefore, $|C| > |K|$
 - d) Select m in M , s.t., $\Pr[M = m] \neq 0$; $c_i \leftarrow E(k_i, m)$ for all k_i in K
 - e) Because of c), there exists at least one c s.t. $c \neq c_i$, for all i
 - f) Therefore $\Pr[M = m | C = c] = 0$, that is different of $\Pr[M = m]$ *GIVEN THAT/CONSTRAINED TO*

d) I select 1 message whose prob. is different from 0. Then I start encrypting by means of all possible keys. But $|C| > |K|$, so, there must exist another ciphertext c which is not the image of m by any key.

feb-24

7

Shannon's Theorem

- FACT.** Let $\Pi = (\text{Gen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ an encryption scheme with $|\mathcal{M}| = |\mathcal{K}| = |\mathcal{C}|$. The scheme is perfectly secret iff
 - Every $k \in \mathcal{K}$ is chosen with equal probability $1/|\mathcal{K}|$ by Gen
 - For every $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and every $c \in \mathcal{C}$ there exists a unique key $k \in \mathcal{K}$ such that $E_k(m) = c$
- Useful for deciding whether a given scheme is perfectly secure
 - Condition 1 is easy to check
 - Condition 2 does not require computing any probabilities

feb-24

Perfect cipher

8

Unconditional security

- Perfect secrecy is equivalent to unconditional security
 - An adversary is assumed to have infinite computing resources
 - Observation of the CT provides the adversary no information whatsoever
- Necessary conditions
 - Key bits are truly randomly chosen
 - Key len \geq msg len (Shannon theorem)
Size of the set of the keys.

9

Perfect indistinguishability

- Yet another definition of perfect secrecy
- **Definition** – An encryption scheme $\Pi = (G, E, D)$ over $(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{M}, \mathcal{C})$ has perfect indistinguishability iff
 - For all $m_1, m_2 \in \mathcal{M}$, $|m_1| = |m_2|$
 - with $k \leftarrow \text{Gen}()$ (uniform)
 - For all $c \in \mathcal{C}$, $\Pr[E(k, m_1) = c] = \Pr[E(k, m_2) = c]$
- **Fact** – Π has perfectly indistinguishability iff it is perfectly secure

10

Perfect Cipher

ONE-TIME PAD

feb-24

Perfect cipher

11

11

One Time Pad PERFECT CIPHER

- Patented in 1917 by Vernam
 - Known 35 years earlier
- Proven perfect by Shannon in 1949
- Moscow-Washington “red telephone”
 - In reality a secure direct communication link
 - Teletype, fax machine, secure computer link (email)
 - Never a telephone (not even red)

feb-24

Perfect cipher

12

12

Preliminary

- Or-exclusive (xor)
 - Truth table

x	y	$z = x \oplus y$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0
 - Mathematically
 - $z = x \oplus y = (x + y) \bmod 2$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

13

13

One Time Pad

- Assumptions
 - Let x be a t -bit message, i.e., $x \in \{0,1\}^t$
 - Let k be a t -bit key stream, $k \in \{0,1\}^t$, where each bit is truly random chosen
- Encryption
 - For all i in $[1, \dots, t]$, $y_i = m_i \oplus k_i$ i.e., $y_i = m_i + k_i \bmod 2$
- Decryption
 - For all i in $[1, \dots, t]$, $x_i = c_i \oplus k_i$ i.e., $x_i = y_i + k_i \bmod 2$
- Consistency property can be easily proven

feb-24

Perfect cipher

14

14

One-Time Pad

```
graph LR; key[key] --> XOR((XOR)); plaintext[plaintext] --> XOR; XOR --> ciphertext[ciphertext]
```

The diagram illustrates the One-Time Pad encryption process. A box labeled 'key' is at the top, with an arrow pointing down to a circle containing a cross, representing the XOR operation. A box labeled 'plaintext' is on the left, with an arrow pointing right to the same XOR circle. An arrow points from the XOR circle to a box labeled 'ciphertext' on the right.

feb-24

Perfect cipher

15

15

Xor is a good encryption function

- Theorem – Let X be a random variable over $\{0, 1\}^n$, and K an independent uniform variable over $\{0, 1\}^n$. Then, $Y = X \oplus K$ is uniform over $\{0, 1\}^n$.
 - Proof (for $n = 1$).
 - Let $\Pr[X = 0] = x_0$, $\Pr[X = 1] = x_1$, $x_0 + x_1 = 1$
 - $\Pr[Y = 0] =$
$$\begin{aligned} &= \Pr[(X = 0) \wedge (K = 0)] + \Pr[(X = 1) \wedge (K = 1)] = \\ &= \Pr[X = 0] \times \Pr[K = 0] + \Pr[X = 1] \times \Pr[K = 1] = \\ &= x_0 \times 0.5 + x_1 \times 0.5 = 0.5 \times (x_0 + x_1) = \\ &= 0.5 \end{aligned}$$

↳ ciphertext appears as a uniform variable regardless of the input probability.

feb-24

Perfect cipher

16

16 This is because the # of 0s and 1s in XOR is balanced. Key has to be perfectly random.

OTP has perfect secrecy

- Theorem – OTP has perfect secrecy
 - Proof
 - a) $\Pr[M = m \mid C = c] = (\text{Bayes law})$
 $= \Pr[C = c \mid M = m] \times \Pr[M = m] / \Pr[C = c]$
 - b) $\Pr[C = c] = (\text{Total probability law})$
 $= \sum_i \Pr[C = c \mid M = m_i] \times \Pr[M = m_i] =$
 $= \sum_i \Pr[K = c \oplus m_i] \times \Pr[M = m_i] =$
 $= \sum_i 2^{-k} \times \Pr[M = m_i] = 2^{-k}$
 - c) Put b) into a)
 $\Pr[M = m \mid C = c] =$
 $= \Pr[K = c \oplus m] \times \Pr[M = m] / 2^{-k} =$
 $= 2^{-k} \times \Pr[M = m] / 2^{-k} =$
 $\Pr[M = m]$

$$\Pr(A|B) = \frac{\Pr(B|A) \Pr(A)}{\Pr(B)}$$

$$\Pr(B) = \Pr\left(\frac{B}{A_1}\right) \times \Pr(A_1) + \Pr\left(\frac{B}{A_2}\right) \times \Pr(A_2) + \dots + \Pr\left(\frac{B}{A_K}\right) \times \Pr(A_K)$$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

17

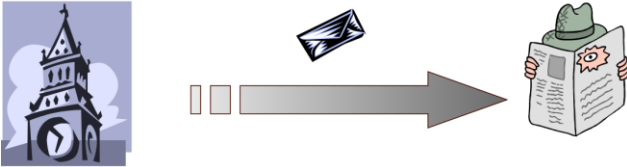
17

OTP has perfect secrecy: intuition

→ exclusive OR in base 26; addition base 26.

- $c[i] = m[i] + k[i] \bmod 26$
- $m = \text{"SUPPORT JAMES BOND"}$

m	S	U	P	P	O	R	T	J	A	M	E	S	B	O	N	D
k	W	C	L	N	B	T	D	E	F	J	A	Z	G	U	I	R
c	O	W	A	C	P	K	W	N	F	V	E	R	H	I	V	U



c	O	W	A	C	P	K	W	N	F	V	E	R	H	I	V	U
k'	M	W	L	J	V	T	S	E	F	J	A	Z	G	U	I	R
m	C	A	P	T	U	R	E	J	A	M	E	S	B	O	N	D

feb-24

Perfect cipher

19

19

Spektr knows just $C=16$, so key is 16 chars and m is 16 chars.
By brute force, Spektr generates all the possible configurations of 16 characters
and they don't know which one is more likely because the keys
are all equally alike.

Foundations of Cybersecurity

9

Pros and Cons

- Pros
 - Unconditionally secure
 - A cryptosystem is unconditionally or information-theoretically secure if it cannot be broken even with infinite computational resources
 - OTP is optimal
 - Only one key maps m into c
 - $|M| = |K| = |C|$ ← I use the minimum number of bits
- Very fast enc/dec
 - ↳ XOR is very fast

feb-24

Perfect cipher

20

20

Pros and Cons

- Cons
 - Long keys: unpractical!
 - Key len == msg len
 - In general, $|K| \geq |M|$
 - Keys must be used once: avoid two-time pad!
 - Let $C1 = M1 \text{ xor } K$ and $C2 = M2 \text{ xor } K \rightarrow$
 - $C1 \text{ xor } C2 = M1 \text{ xor } M2$

Consider an email

M1

M2

Certain emails are similar. Headers and trailers are similar.

So the areas in which the two messages are equal produce bits = 0. But $M1 \oplus M2 = C1 \oplus C2$.

By reasoning on ciphertext I get info on the plaintext.

feb-24

Perfect cipher

21

21

We are revealing info, so cypher is not perfect anymore.

Foundations of Cybersecurity

10

Pros and Cons

- Cons
 - A Known-PlainText attack breaks OTP
 - Given (m, c) => $k = m \oplus c$
 - OTP is malleable
 - Modifications to cipher-text are undetected and have predictable impact on plain-text

22

OTP is malleable

m	=	D	A	R	E	C	E	N	T	O	E	U	R	O	A	B	O	B
k	=	W	C	L	N	B	T	D	E	F	J	A	Z	G	U	I	R	X
c	=	Z	C	C	R	D	X	Q	X	T	N	U	Q	U	U	J	F	Y

Active adversary modifying message

c'	=	Z	C	C	R	N	B	O	P	J	N	U	Q	U	U	J	F	Y
k	=	W	C	L	N	B	T	D	E	F	J	A	Z	G	U	I	R	X
m	=	D	A	R	E	M	I	L	L	E	E	U	R	O	A	B	O	B

23

Malleability

- Malleability
 - A crypto scheme is said to be *malleable* if the attacker is capable of transforming the ciphertext into another ciphertext which leads to a *known* transformation of the plaintext
 - The attacker does not decrypt the ciphertext, but (s)he is able to manipulate the plaintext in a predictable manner

Malleability is different for this; manipulation is done in a PREDICTABLE manner, leading to a known transformation

feb-24

Perfect cipher

24

24

On OTP malleability

- Attack against integrity
 - Alice sends Bob: $c = p \oplus k$
 - The adversary
 - intercepts c and
 - transmits Bob $c' = c \oplus r$, with r called *perturbation*
 - Bob
 - receives c'
 - Computes $p' = c' \oplus k = c \oplus r \oplus k = p \oplus k \oplus r \oplus k$ so obtaining $p' = p \oplus r$
 - The perturbation goes undetected and
 - The perturbation has a predictable impact on the plaintext

feb-24

Perfect cipher

25

25

But strongest disadvantage is long keys and keys not reusable
Malleability is an integrity problem you can solve with hash functions

OTP Malleability: example

- Assume the adversary intercepts an encrypted email. The adversary does not know anything about the email, but Bob is the sender. Furthermore, since the message comes from Bob, then the adversary knows that the first line of the message is "from: Bob". The adversary wants to make the message to appear as coming from Eve.
- The adversary has only to apply a change to bytes 7-9 and transform the from 'B' 'o' 'b' to 'E' 'v' 'e'. This is quite simple:
- $$P = ['B' 'o' 'b'] \text{ xor } ['E' 'v' 'e'] \quad (\text{byte-wise xor})$$
- If we consider the Ascii codes
 - B o b \rightarrow 42 6F 62, E v e \rightarrow 45 76 65
- $$P = \text{Bob xor Eve (byte-wise xor)} = 07 19 07$$

PERTURBATION

26

Not today, not tomorrow!
Not today, maybe tomorrow

Remainder of probability theory

- Random variable, probability distribution
- Conditional probability
 - $\text{Pr}[A | B] = \text{Pr}[A \wedge B] / \text{Pr}[B]$
- Bayes' Theorem
 - $\text{Pr}[A | B] = \text{Pr}[B | A] \times \text{Pr}[A] / \text{Pr}[B]$
 - $$P(A|B) = \frac{P(B|A) P(A)}{P(B)}$$
- Law of total probability
 - $\{E_i\}$ are a partition of all possible events
 - For all $i, j, i \neq j$, E_i and E_j are pairwise impossible ($E_i \cap E_j = \emptyset$)
 - At least some E_i occurs
 - For any event A, $\text{Pr}[A] = \sum_i \text{Pr}[A \wedge E_i] = \sum_i \text{Pr}[A | E_i] \times \text{Pr}[E_i]$

27

$$P_2[C = 'b'] = P_2[C = 'b']$$

Example 1

- Shift cipher
 - $K = \{0, \dots, 26\}$, $\Pr[K = k] = 1/26$ (random)
 - $\Pr[M = 'a'] = 0.7$; $\Pr[M = 'z'] = 0.3$ (a-priori distribution)
 - Compute $\Pr[C = 'b']$
 - Result = $1/26$

$$\Pr[C=b] = \underbrace{\Pr[C=b|M=a]}_{\Pr[k=1]} \cdot \Pr[M=a] + \underbrace{\Pr[C=b|M=z]}_{\Pr[k=2]} \cdot \Pr[M=z]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[C='b'] &= \Pr[M='a'] \cdot \Pr[k='1'] + \\ &\Pr[M='z'] \cdot \Pr[k='2'] = \\ &= \frac{1}{26} \cdot 0.7 + \frac{1}{26} \cdot 0.3 = \frac{1}{26} \end{aligned}$$

28

Example 2

- Shift cipher
 - $K = \{0, \dots, 26\}$, $\Pr[K = k] = 1/26$ (random)
 - $m1 = \text{«ONE»}$, $m2 = \text{«TEN»}$
 - $\Pr[M = m1] = \Pr[M = m2] = 0.5$ (a-priori distribution)
 - Compute $\Pr[C = \text{«RQH»}]$
 - Result = $1/52$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[C=RQH] &= \underbrace{\Pr[C=RQH|M=m_1]}_{\Pr[k=K_0] \cdot 0.5} + \underbrace{\Pr[C=RQH|M=m_2]}_{0 \cdot 0.5} \cdot \Pr[M=m_2] = \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{26} = \frac{1}{52} \end{aligned}$$

There is no key that shifts message that way.

29

Example 3

- Shift cipher
 - $K = \{0, \dots, 26\}$, $\Pr[K = k] = 1/26$ (random)
 - $m_1 = \text{«ONE»}$, $m_2 = \text{«TEN»}$
 - $\Pr[M = m_1] = \Pr[M = m_2] = 0.5$ (a-priori distribution)
 - Compute $\Pr[M = \text{«TEN»} \mid C = \text{«RQH»}]$
 - Result = 0 that is different of $\Pr[M = \text{«TEN»}] \rightarrow$
 - Shift cipher is not perfect

The cipher is not perfect because $\Pr[M = m_2 \mid C = \text{«RQH»}] \neq \Pr[M = m_2]$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

30

30

Example 4

- Shift cipher
- Message distribution
 - $\Pr[M = \text{«HI»}] = 0.3$
 - $\Pr[M = \text{«NO»}] = 0.2$
 - $\Pr[M = \text{«IN»}] = 0.5$
- Compute $\Pr[M = \text{«HI»} \mid C = \text{«XY»}]$
 - $\Pr[M = \text{«HI»} \mid C = \text{«XY»}] = (\text{Bayes' law}) =$
 $= \Pr[C = \text{«XY»} \mid M = \text{«HI»}] \cdot \Pr[M = \text{«HI»}] / \Pr[C = \text{«XY»}]$
 - $\Pr[C = \text{«XY»} \mid M = \text{«HI»}] = \Pr[K = 16] = 1/26$ (continue)

feb-24

Perfect cipher

31

31

Example 4 continued

- Compute $\Pr[M = \text{«HI»} \mid C = \text{«XY»}]$
 - $\Pr[C = \text{«XY»}] = (\text{law of total probability})$
 $\Pr[C = \text{«XY»} \mid M = \text{«HI»}] \cdot \Pr[M = \text{«HI»}] +$
 $\Pr[C = \text{«XY»} \mid M = \text{«NO»}] \cdot \Pr[M = \text{«NO»}] +$
 $\Pr[C = \text{«XY»} \mid M = \text{«IN»}] \cdot \Pr[M = \text{«IN»}] =$
 $= (1/26) \cdot 0.3 + (1/26) \cdot 0.2 + 0 \cdot 0.5 =$
 $= 1/52$
 - $\Pr[M = \text{«HI»} \mid C = \text{«XY»}] = (1/26) \cdot 0.3 / (1/52) = 0.6$
 $\neq \Pr[M = \text{«HI»}] \rightarrow$
- Shift cipher is not perfect

feb-24

Perfect cipher

32

32