

Perfect secrecy. One-time pad. PRGs.

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Course “Information and Network Security”

Lecture 2

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Some defs/conventions/notations

Polynomial time

An algorithm \mathcal{A} is called *polynomial-time*, if for any input n , the runtime of \mathcal{A} is $\mathcal{O}(n^k)$ for any fixed k .

Examples:

- multiplying two n -bit numbers: $\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$ – polynomial time
- factoring an n -bit number: $\exp(\mathcal{O}(n^{1/3} \cdot (\log n)^{2/3}))$ – subexponential time

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Probabilistic Polynomial time

An algorithm \mathcal{A} is called *probabilistic polynomial-time* (ppt), if it is polynomial time and uses randomness.

Some defs/conventions/notations

Negligible function

A function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called *negligible* if for all polynomials p there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ so that for any $n \geq N$

$$f(n) < \frac{1}{p(n)}.$$

Examples:

- negligible functions:

$$\frac{1}{2^n}, \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}}, \frac{1}{2^{\log^2(n)}}$$

- non-negligible functions:

$$\frac{1}{\log n}, \frac{1}{n^2}, \frac{1}{2^{\mathcal{O}(\log n)}}$$

Basic principles of modern cryptography

1. **Kerckhoffs' principle (1883):** A cryptosystem should remain secure if everything about it, except the key, is publicly known.
2. An adversary cannot derive any information about a plaintext from the corresponding ciphertext
3. The attack model (i.e., what an adversary is allowed to do) must be clearly specified.
Example: we restrict adversaries to be ppt algorithms
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Security statement:

Under the assumption X , the construction Π is secure in
the Y security model.

Symmetric Encryption

Let λ be a security parameter and $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{C}$ be resp. the plaintext, key, ciphertext spaces. A *Symmetric Encryption Scheme* $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ consists of three ppt algorithms:

- $\text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda) : k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}$
- $\text{Enc}(k, m \in \mathcal{M}) : c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(k, m)$
- $\text{Dec}k, c \in \mathcal{C} : m' \leftarrow \text{Dec}(k, c)$

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- $\text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda) : k \leftarrow \mathcal{K}$
- $\text{Enc}(k, m \in \mathcal{M}) : c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(k, m)$
- $\text{Deck}, c \in \mathcal{C} : m' \leftarrow \text{Dec}(k, c)$

The scheme Π is called *correct* if for all $k \in \mathcal{K}, m \in \mathcal{M}$:

$$\text{Dec}(k, \text{Enc}(k, m)) == m.$$

Perfect Secrecy

- Let $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{C}$ be resp. the plaintext, key, ciphertext spaces
- Let $M \in \mathcal{M}$ be a random variable distributed according to a distribution defined over \mathcal{M} : m is taken with probability $\Pr[M = m]$.
- Analogously for $K \in \mathcal{K}, C \in \mathcal{C}$.

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Perfect secrecy

An encryption scheme $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ is called *perfectly secure* if for any distribution over \mathcal{M}

$$\Pr [M = m | C = c] = \Pr [M = m] \quad \forall m \in \mathcal{M}, c \in \mathcal{C}.$$

Equivalent definition:

$$\Pr [\text{Enc}(k, m_0) = c] = \Pr [\text{Enc}(k, m_1) = c] \quad \forall m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}, c \in \mathcal{C}.$$

One-time pad (or Vernam cipher)

One-time pad

Let $\mathcal{M}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{C} = \{0, 1\}^n$ s.t. $n = \lambda$.

- $\text{KeyGen}(1^\lambda) : k \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^n$
- $\text{Enc}(k, m \in \{0, 1\}^n) : c = k \oplus m$
- $\text{Dec}(k, c \in \{0, 1\}^n) : m = k \oplus c$

Theorem

OTP is perfectly secure in the Ciphertext-only Attack (COA) model (i.e., an adversary sees only ciphertexts).

Price to pay for perfect secrecy

Size of \mathcal{K}

Let Π be perfectly secure. Then

$$|\mathcal{K}| \geq |\mathcal{M}|$$

Shannon's theorem

Let $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ satisfy $|\mathcal{K}| = |\mathcal{M}| = |\mathcal{C}|$. Then Π is perfectly secure iff

1. KeyGen chooses $k \leftarrow$ uniformly at random with prob. $\frac{1}{|\mathcal{K}|}$
2. For all $m \in \mathcal{M}$, $c \in \mathcal{C}$, $\exists! k \in \mathcal{K} : c = \text{Enc}(k, m)$.

See proofs in Katz&Lindell *Introduction to Modern Cryptography*

Computational Security

Perfect Secrecy

- Information-theoretic (strong) security against **unbounded** adversary
- Impractical key space size

Computational Security

- We usually use keys of sizes 128, 256 bits
- Security against **ppt** adversaries
- Unbounded adversary with access to plaintext-ciphertext pairs (m_i, c_i) can launch an exhaustive search for $k \in \mathcal{K}$ s.t.
 $\text{Enc}(k, m_i) == c_i \forall i.$

Pseudorandom Generators (PRGs)

Idea: ‘Stretch’ truly random ℓ -bits seed s into a longer L -bits ‘random looking’ string Define

$$\begin{aligned} G : \{0, 1\}^\ell &\rightarrow \{0, 1\}^L : \\ s &\mapsto G(s) \end{aligned}$$

Intuition: an ppt adversary cannot tell the difference between $G(s)$ and $r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^L$.

Statistical tests

A **Is** Π **statistical test** on $\{0, 1\}^n$ is an algorithm A s.t. $A(x)$ outputs 0 ("not random") or 1 ("random")

1. $A(x) = 1 \quad |\#0(x) - \#1(x)| \leq 10\sqrt{n}$
2. $A(x) = 1 \quad |\#00(x) - n/4| \leq 10\sqrt{n}$
3. $A(x) = 1 \quad \max \text{len}\{1\dots1(x)\} \leq 10 \log n$

Formal definition

A PRG G is an efficient deterministic algorithm that given a seed $s \in \mathcal{S} = \{0, 1\}^\ell$ outputs an $r \in \mathcal{R} = \{0, 1\}^L$

Attack game for PRG:

Experiment 0: The Challenger computes $r \in \mathcal{R}$ as

$$s \leftarrow \mathcal{S}$$

$$r \leftarrow G(s)$$

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Experiment 1: The Challenger computes $r \in \mathcal{R}$ as

$$r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^L$$

Let W_b be the event that \mathcal{A} outputs b .

\mathcal{A} 's advantage: $\text{PRGadv}[\mathcal{A}, G] = |\Pr[W_0] - \Pr[W_1]|$.

A PRG G is **secure** if PRGadv is negligible for all ppt \mathcal{A} .

Stream Cipher = OTP with keys output by a PRG

Let $G : \{0, 1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^L$

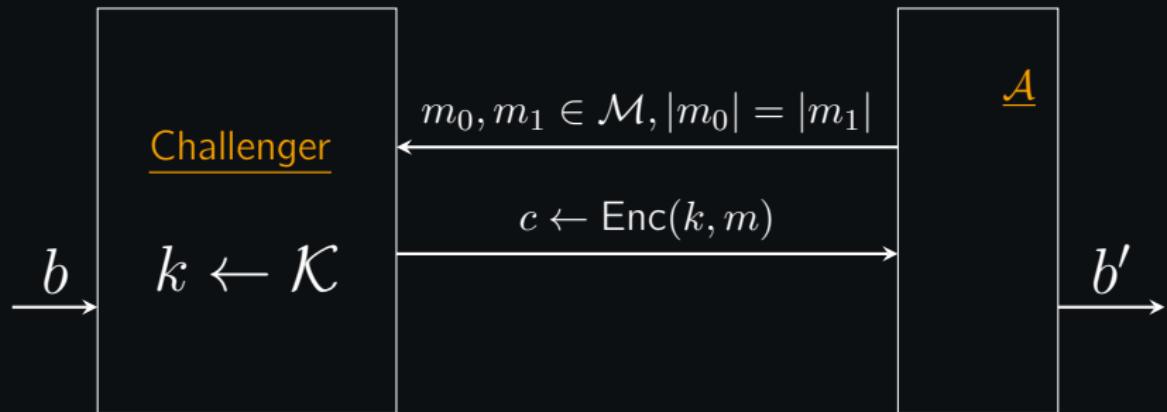
The **stream cipher** $\Pi = (\text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ is defined over

- $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^\ell$
- $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^L$
- $\mathcal{C} = \{0, 1\}^L$

For $s \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$

- $\text{Enc}(s, m \in \{0, 1\}^L) : c = G(s) \oplus m$
- $\text{Dec}(s, c \in \{0, 1\}^L) : m = G(s) \oplus c$

Semantic Security



Let W_b be the event that \mathcal{A} outputs b .

\mathcal{A} 's advantage: $\text{Adv}[\mathcal{A}, \text{Enc}] = |\Pr[W_0] - \Pr[W_1]|$.

II is **semantically secure** if $\text{PRGadv} = \text{negl}(\lambda)$ for all ppt \mathcal{A} .

Semantic Security of Π

Theorem

If G is a secure PRG, then the stream cipher Π constructed from G is semantically secure.

Proof strategy: for any adversary \mathcal{A} against semantic security, \exists an adversary \mathcal{B} against G .

QUESTION!

Let G be a PRG that the last bit of the output is always 0.

Let Π be a stream cipher constructed from G .

Is Π semantically secure?

Constrictions of a PRG: Salsa and ChaCha

- Salsa20,ChaCha20: proposed by D.Bernstein in 2005, 2008
- used in many TLS cipher suits
- Input: 256-bit seed and a parameter L
- Output: $(256 \cdot L)$ -bit pseudorandom string

Constrictions of a PRG: Salsa and ChaCha

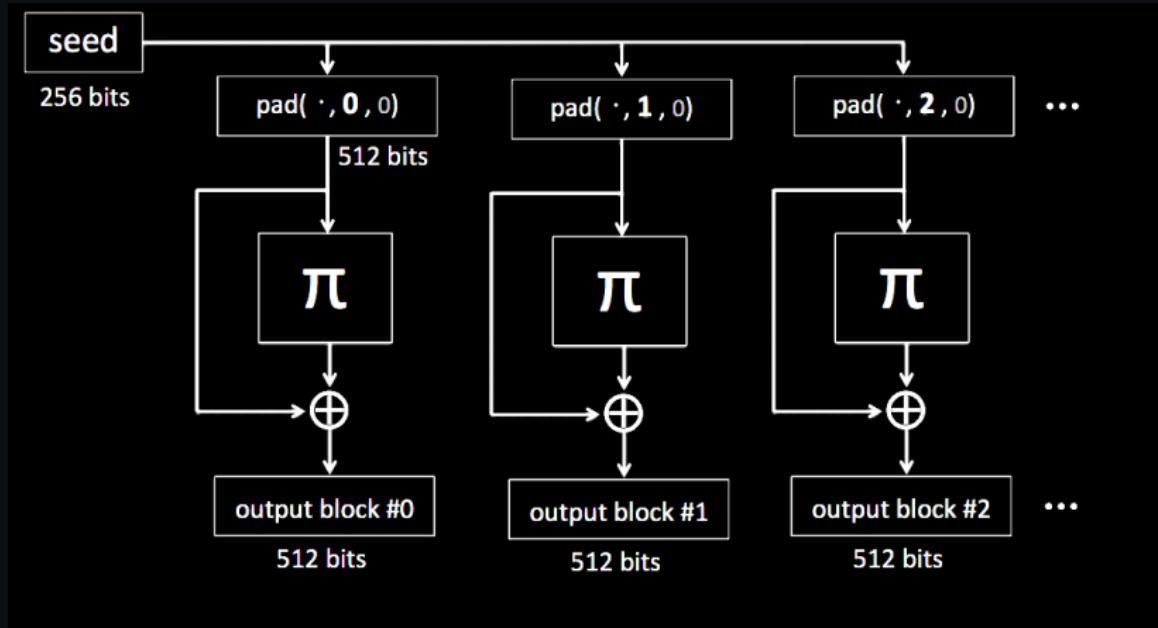
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- Output: $(256 \cdot L)$ -bit pseudorandom string

Two components

1. $\text{pad}(s, j, 0)$: takes a seed s , a 64-bit counter j and a 64-bit nonce
Output: 512-bit block
2. a fixed public permutation $\pi : \{0, 1\}^{512} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{512}$

See <https://cr.yp.to/chacha.html> for details

ChaCha PRG



Nonce – the third parameter of $\text{pad}(s, j, 0)$ is used to convert a PRG into a PRF (useful for encryption of multiple messages).

picture is taken from D.Boneh, V.Shoup A Graduate Course in Applied Cryptography

(Somewhat) Broken PRGs

1. linear congruential generators

- had been used in glibc, Microsoft Visual Basic, Java
- notorious for RANDU
- not cryptographically secure PRG!

2. RC4

- proposed by R.Rivest in 1987
- used to be a part of TLS, 802.11b WEP
- not cryptographically secure PRG!

3. Linear feedback shift registers

- used for protecting movies on DVD disks
- weakly security PRG (Trivium)

A Random Number Generator

- In practice, random bits are generated using a random number generator, RNG
- An RNG outputs a sequence of pseudorandom bits
- Unlike PRG, an RNG take additional input (entropy source)
- Example in Linux: `/dev/random`
- Entropy is usually taken from hardware (keyboard/mouse events, hardware interrupts, jitters).

Application: Coin flipping

Task: throw a fair coin over without interaction

$$G : \{0, 1\}^\ell \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^L$$

Bob



Flips a coin

$$b \in \{0, 1\}$$

$$s \in \{0, 1\}^\ell$$

Alice



$$\xleftarrow{r}$$

$$r \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^L$$

$$\text{commit}(b, r, s) = \begin{cases} G(s), & b = 0 \\ G(s) \oplus r, & b = 1 \end{cases}$$

$\xrightarrow{\text{commit}(b,r,s)}$