

Applied Cryptography

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Lectures 4, 5 and 6

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Overview of Lectures 4, 5 and 6

- Motivation for modes of operation
- ECB mode
- CBC mode
- CTR mode
- Other modes
- IND-CPA security for symmetric encryption
- The PRP-PRF switching lemma
- (Proof of security for CTR mode)

Motivation for modes of operation

Motivation for modes of operation

- A block cipher encrypts a message of exactly n bits.
 - What if the message is not a multiple of n bits?
 - What if the message is not of a fixed length but actually a TCP-like stream?
- Modes of operation provide different ways of using a block cipher to encrypt flexible amounts of data.
 - Different performance characteristics.
 - Different error-propagation properties.
 - Different suitability for different applications .

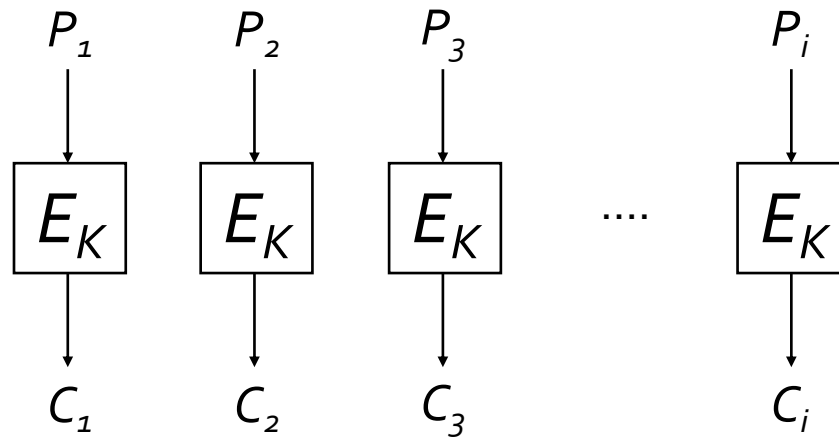
Main modes of operation

- NIST SP 800-38A specifies 5 modes
 - ECB - Electronic Code Book.
 - CBC - Cipher Block Chaining.
 - CFB - Cipher Feedback.
 - OFB - Output Feedback
 - CTR – Counter Mode.
- NIST SP 800-38C and NIST SP 800-38D
 - Authenticated Encryption modes: AES-CCM and AES-GCM.
- Most common modes now in use: CBC mode, CTR mode, AES-GCM.
- Details of all modes via: <https://csrc.nist.gov/projects/block-cipher-techniques/bcm/current-modes>

ECB mode

Electronic Code Book (ECB)

- ECB is the simplest way to use a block cipher to encrypt longer messages.



- Split message into blocks, may need to pad last block.
- Encryption can be parallelized.
- Any error in a ciphertext block affects the decryption of a single block.

ECB information leakage

- For a fixed key K , a given block of plaintext is always encrypted in the same way to produce the same ciphertext block.
- Encryption is *deterministic*.
- Leads to serious information leakage in many applications.
- ECB mode is *very rarely* the correct mode to use.
- Exceptions exists: e.g., searchable encryption for high entropy plaintext spaces.

ECB information leakage

HACKERS RECENTLY LEAKED **153 MILLION** ADOBE USER EMAILS, ENCRYPTED PASSWORDS, AND PASSWORD HINTS.

ADOBE ENCRYPTED THE PASSWORDS IMPROPERLY, MISUSING BLOCK-MODE 3DES. THE RESULT IS SOMETHING WONDERFUL:

USER	PASSWORD	HINT	
4e18acc1ab2762d6		WEATHER VANE SWORD	<input type="text"/>
4e18acc1ab2762d6			<input type="text"/>
4e18acc1ab2762d6	a0a2876eb1ea1fca	NAME1	<input type="text"/>
8babbb6299e06eb6d		DUH	
8babbb6299e06eb6d	a0a2876eb1ea1fca		<input type="text"/>
8babbb6299e06eb6d	85e9da81a8a78adc	57	
4e18acc1ab2762d6		FAVORITE OF 12 APOSTLES	
1ab29ae86da6e5ca	7a2d6a0a2876eb1e	WITH YOUR OWN HAND YOU HAVE DONE ALL THIS	
a1f9b2b6299e7a2b	ea0ec1e6ab797397	SEXY EARLOBES	<input type="text"/>
a1f9b2b6299e7a2b	617ab0277727ad85	BEST TOS EPISODE	<input type="text"/>
39738b7adb0b8af7	617ab0277727ad85	SUGARLAND	
1ab29ae86da6e5ca		NAME + JERSEY #	
877ab7889d3862b1		ALPHA	<input type="text"/>
877ab7889d3862b1			<input type="text"/>
877ab7889d3862b1			<input type="text"/>
877ab7889d3862b1		OBVIOUS	<input type="text"/>
877ab7889d3862b1		MICHAEL JACKSON	
38a7c9279codeb44	9dca1d79d4dec6d5		
38a7c9279codeb44	9dca1d79d4dec6d5	HE DID THE MASH, HE DID THE	<input type="text"/>
38a7c9279codeb44		PURLOINED	<input type="text"/>
a8ae5245a7b7af7a	9dca1d79d4dec6d5	FAV. LATER-3 POKEMON	<input type="text"/>

THE GREATEST CROSSWORD PUZZLE
IN THE HISTORY OF THE WORLD

ECB information leakage

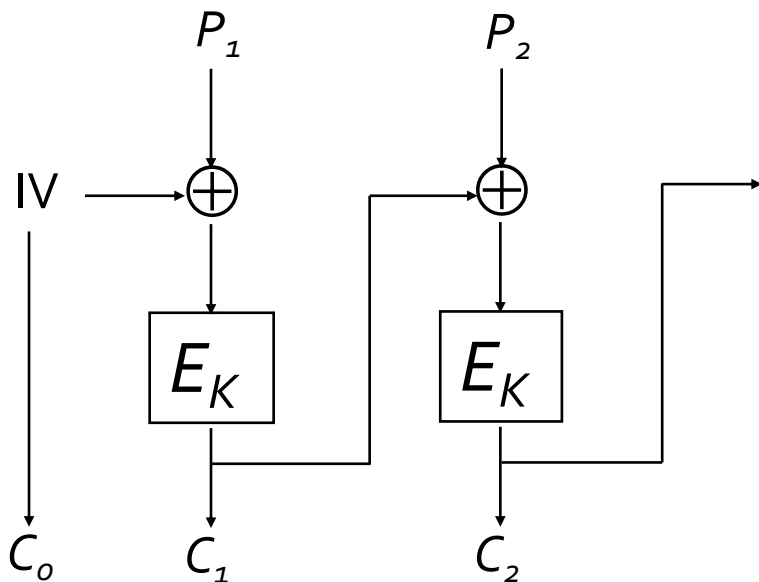


Tux the Penguin, the
Linux mascot. Created
in 1996 by Larry Ewing
with The GIMP.
lewing@isc.tamu.edu

CBC mode

Cipher Block Chaining (CBC) mode

- Randomized mode of encryption, aims to hinder information leakage of ECB mode.
- Uses previous ciphertext block (or IV for first block) to randomise the input to the block cipher at each application.
- Encryption not easily parallelisable.



Encryption equation:

$$C_0 = IV$$

$$C_i = E_K(P_i \oplus C_{i-1})$$

Decryption equation:

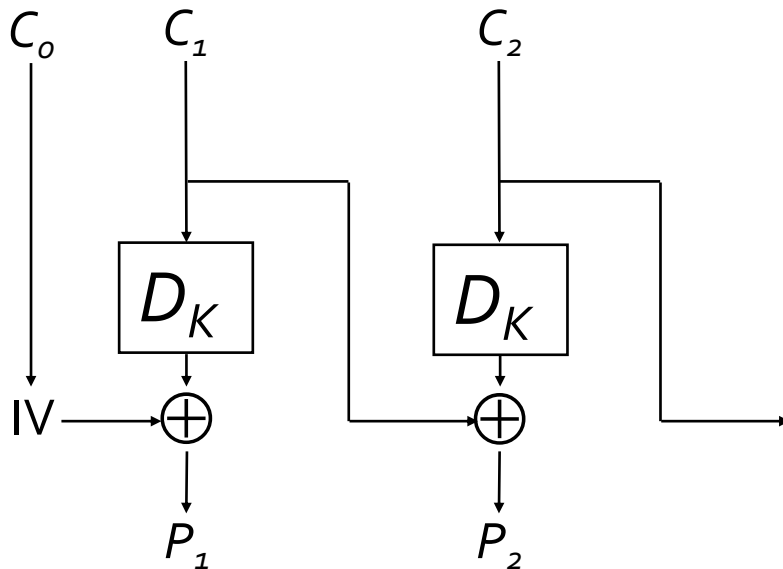
So:

$$D_K(C_i) = P_i \oplus C_{i-1}$$

and hence:

$$P_i = D_K(C_i) \oplus C_{i-1}$$

CBC mode decryption



Encryption equation:

$$C_0 = IV$$

$$C_i = E_K(P_i \oplus C_{i-1})$$

Decryption equation:

So:

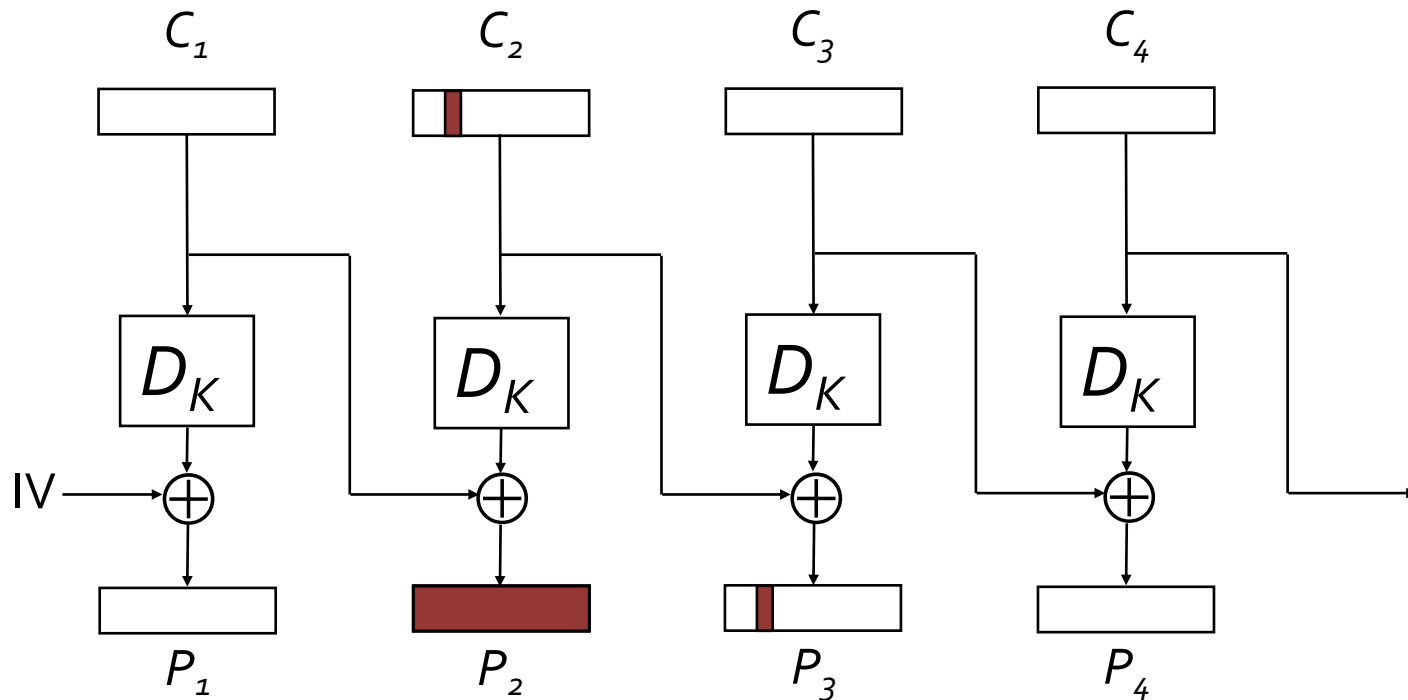
$$D_K(C_i) = P_i \oplus C_{i-1}$$

and hence:

$$P_i = D_K(C_i) \oplus C_{i-1}$$

Error propagation in CBC

- Suppose an error arises in ciphertext block C_2 : $C_2 \rightarrow C_2 \oplus \Delta$.



- Then the error propagates to P_3 , and P_2 becomes garbage.
- More formally: if we replace C_i with $C_i \oplus \Delta$, then after decryption, P_{i+1} is replaced by $P_{i+1} \oplus \Delta$, and P_i gets randomized.

Further remarks on CBC mode

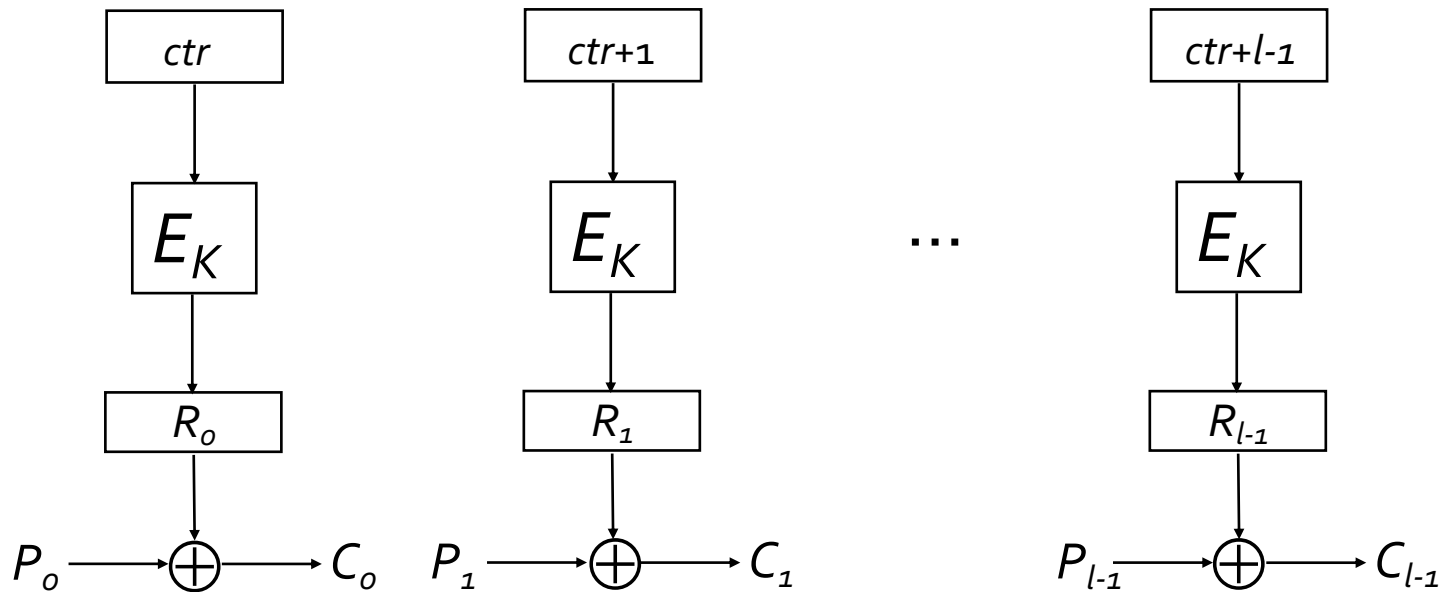
- IV is needed for decryption so must be included as part of ciphertext.
 - Often written as C_0 to emphasize this.
 - Leading to ciphertext expansion: ciphertext will be at least one block larger than plaintext.
- IV should be uniformly random for each message encrypted (requires a good source of randomness).
 - Use of non-random IVs leads to practical attacks.
- CBC mode processes complete blocks so padding is needed to make plaintext bit-length a multiple of the block size n .
 - Improper handling of padding during decryption leads to practical attacks.

Further remarks on CBC mode

- CBC mode is problematic if block size (n) is too small.
 - Many encryptions under same key leads to **ciphertext block collisions**.
 - These start to occur after approx. $2^{n/2}$ blocks are encrypted under one key, by a birthday bound analysis.
 - Recall: $C_i = E_K(P_i \oplus C_{i-1})$
 - Hence, if $C_i = C_j$, then $P_i \oplus C_{i-1} = P_j \oplus C_{j-1}$, so
$$P_i = P_j \oplus C_{j-1} \oplus C_{i-1}$$
 - For example, if P_j is known, now P_i can be recovered: a partially known plaintext attack, realistic for lots of network protocols, e.g. HTTP.
 - Sweet32 attack applies this idea to DES/3DES in TLS, requiring encryption of about 2^{34} blocks under the same key.
 - More at: <https://sweet32.info/>

CTR mode

Counter (CTR) mode encryption



- An incrementing counter is used to generate pseudo-random blocks of output (think of bit-string ctr as being an integer, do the addition mod 2^n).
- Parallelisable, can also pre-compute encryption masks R_i before plaintext is known.

Counter (CTR) mode encryption

- CTR is effectively a stream cipher mode.
 - It turns a block cipher into a stream cipher.
 - Encryption is just XORing plaintext P with keystream obtained from output of block cipher operating on an incrementing counter.
 - Block ciphers are usually slower than dedicated stream cipher designs in general, so there is still a place for stream ciphers in applications, e.g. A5, Snow in mobile telecoms.
- Error propagation: a bit-flip in the ciphertext leads to a bit-flip in the plaintext.
 - More generally, XOR of a mask Δ with the ciphertext leads to the same mask Δ being XORed onto the plaintext.
 - So CTR mode does not provide any integrity, as with any other stream cipher.
 - Did CBC mode provide integrity?

Counter (CTR) mode encryption: Practicalities

- No padding is needed since the last block of output (R_{l-1}) can be truncated to the exact length of P_{l-1} .
- Usually transmit ctr as part of the ciphertext:

$$C = ctr, C_0, C_1, \dots, C_{l-1}.$$

- We can omit ctr if the decryption process can recover it by other means, e.g. due to synchronization.
- Encryption uses E_K , so does decryption.
 - Hence no need to implement D_K .
 - In fact no need for E_K to even be invertible!
 - Technically, this means that CTR mode can be implemented using a pseudorandom *function* rather than a pseudorandom *permutation*.

Counter (CTR) mode encryption: Selecting counters

- Key security requirement: for a fixed key K , all counter values used (across all encryptions) must be distinct.
 - If a counter is repeated, then XOR of ciphertext blocks yields XOR of plaintext blocks.
 - Similar to reuse of one-time pad/keystream repeat issue for a stream cipher (recall from exercise sheet 1).

Counter (CTR) mode encryption: Selecting counters

- Can achieve distinctness by using one of the following methods:
 1. Start with $ctr = 0$ and change key for each plaintext (often impractical, key derivation can be expensive).
 2. Start with a fresh, random value for ctr for each plaintext (requires a good source of randomness, need to limit key use to prevent colliding counters arising by chance).
 3. Keep track of the last value of ctr used, start from $ctr+1$ in next plaintext (requires maintenance of state).
 4. Construct ctr by concatenating a fixed size *per plaintext nonce* N supplied by the calling application and an internal counter (starting from zero for each new plaintext), i.e.:

$$ctr = N \parallel 0\dots 00, \quad ctr+1 = N \parallel 0\dots 01, \quad ctr+2 = N \parallel 0\dots 10, \dots$$

(requires per plaintext nonce to not repeat, hence some kind of state needed in application; also requires limit on plaintext size to prevent internal counter wrap).

This approach is used in GCM (see later, in AE lectures).

Counter (CTR) mode encryption: Security

- Security of CTR mode relies on pseudo-randomness of block cipher.
 - CTR mode was initially viewed with suspicion by practitioners as demanding “too much” security from the block cipher, due to “closely related inputs”, i.e. counter values.
 - But pseudo-randomness is now generally accepted as a reasonable design target for a block cipher.
- Intuition for security analysis (to be formalized):
 - If the block cipher is a PRP, then we can replace its output with output from random permutation Π (no efficient adversary can tell the difference).
 - We can then replace the outputs from random permutation Π with outputs from a random **function** F .
 - Only difference here is that π has no repeating outputs, but F may; this will only become apparent after many calls to Π/F .
 - Finally, replace outputs of F with truly random strings – this is fine because outputs of F are independent random strings, assuming all of the *ctr* inputs to F are distinct.
 - But now we just have one-time pad encryption!

Other modes

Other modes

- CFB turns a block cipher into a stream cipher.
 - Not as efficient as a dedicated stream cipher.
 - CFB gives a *self-synchronising* stream cipher.
- OFB also turns a block cipher into a stream cipher.
 - OFB does not automatically resynchronise.
 - External markers are needed for synchronisation.
- These modes sometimes pop up in applications, but you're unlikely to see or need them.
- We'll see *authenticated* modes (GCM) later.
- Yet more esoteric modes exist, e.g. IGE in Telegram.

IND-CPA security for symmetric encryption

Formalising Symmetric Encryption

A symmetric encryption scheme consists of a triple of efficient algorithms: $SE = (KGen, Enc, Dec)$, with the following characteristics:

KGen: key generation, typically selects a key K uniformly at random from a set \mathcal{K} ; we assume $\mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^k$.

Enc: encryption, takes as input key K , plaintext $m \in \mathcal{M} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$ and produces output $c \in \mathcal{C} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$.

Dec: decryption, takes as input key K , ciphertext $c \in \mathcal{C} \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$ and produces output $m \in \mathcal{M}$ or an error, denoted \perp .

Correctness: we require that for all keys K , and for all plaintexts m ,

$$Dec_K(Enc_K(m)) = m.$$

Definitional notes

- \mathcal{K} is called the key space.
- \mathcal{M} is called the message space.
- \mathcal{C} is called the ciphertext space.
- Enc is typically randomised (cf. CBC mode, CTR mode); later Enc will have additional inputs allowing it to be made deterministic.
- Dec is assumed to be deterministic.
- In reality, there will be a maximum plaintext length L that can be encrypted by a given scheme, we might then set \mathcal{M} to $\{0, 1\}^{\leq L}$.
- Ciphertexts are typically (slightly) longer than plaintexts; we would like to minimize the expansion.

IND-CPA security for Symmetric Encryption: Intuition

- Recall the notion of **perfect security**: the ciphertext leaks nothing about the plaintext except what was previously known about it from the plaintext distribution.
- A computational version of this: we cannot efficiently compute anything useful about plaintexts from ciphertexts.
- This can be formalised via a simulation-based security notion called *semantic security*:

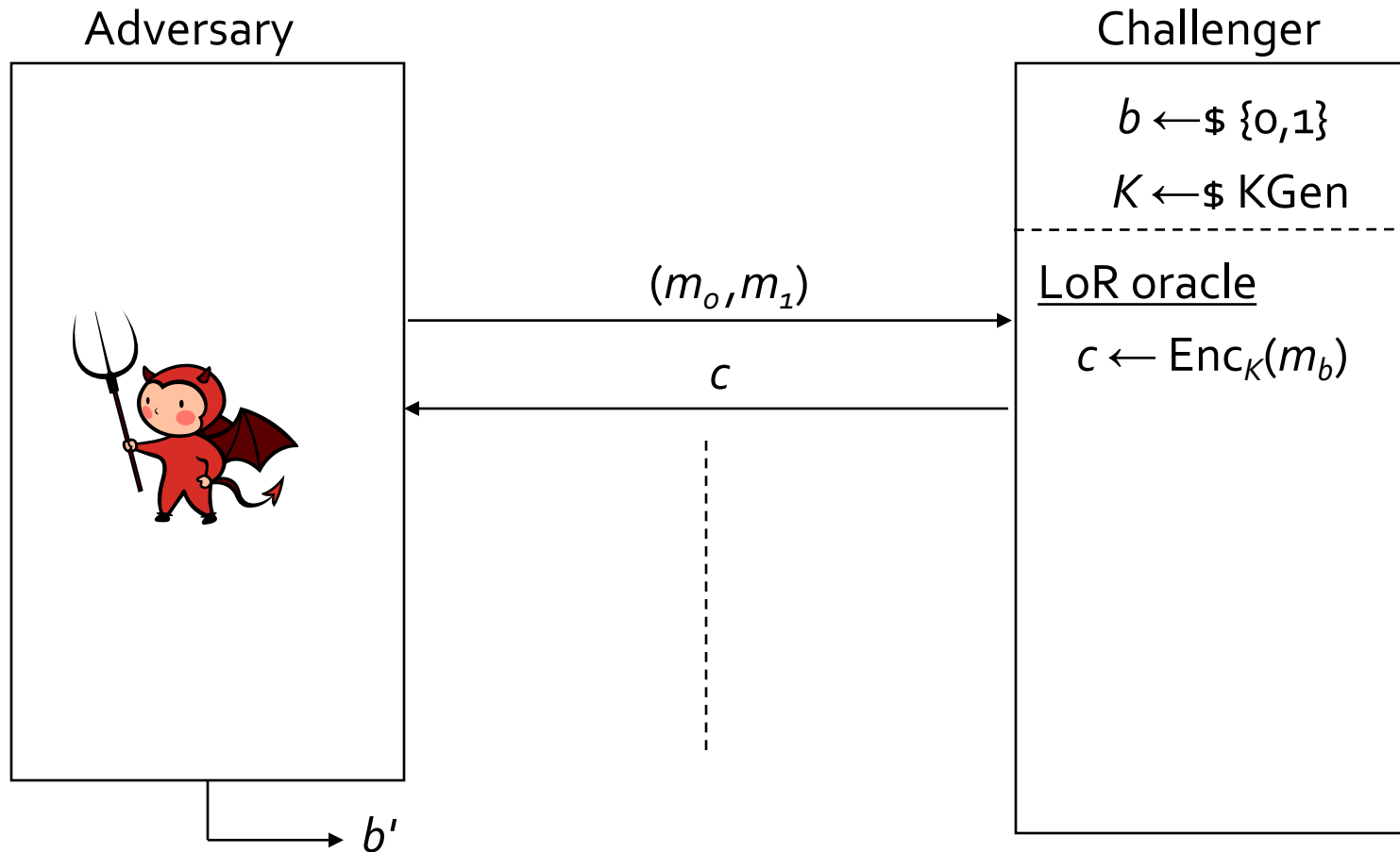
For any efficient adversary A given access to encryptions of plaintexts of its choice, whatever A can output can also be output by a simulator S that has access only to the code of A and the lengths of the ciphertexts (but not to the ciphertexts).

- We will use an equivalent but easier to work with game-based definition, IND-CPA security:

For any efficient adversary A , given the encryption of one of two equal-length messages of its choice, A is unable to distinguish which one of the two messages was encrypted.

- NB: Boneh-Shoup refers to both notions as *semantic security*.

IND-CPA security for Symmetric Encryption



$$\text{Adv}_{\text{SE}}^{\text{IND-CPA}}(A) := 2|\Pr[b'=b] - 1/2|.$$

IND-CPA security for Symmetric Encryption

- Challenger selects a key K by running $KGen$, and a random bit b .
- The adversary is given repeated access to *Left-or-Right (LoR) encryption oracle*.
- In each query, the adversary A submits pairs of **equal length** plaintexts (m_0, m_1) to the challenger.
 - A can set $m_0 = m_1$, so it gets an encryption oracle “for free”.
- The adversary A gets back $c \leftarrow Enc_K(m_b)$.
- After all queries are made, A outputs its estimate b' for bit b .
- A is successful if $b' = b$.

IND = Indistinguishability

- = under

CPA = Chosen Plaintext Attack

Formal definition of IND-CPA security

<u>Game IND-CPA(\mathcal{A}, SE)</u>	<u>Oracle LoR(m_0, m_1):</u>
1 $b \leftarrow \$ \{0, 1\}$	5 $c \leftarrow \$ \text{Enc}_K(m_b)$
2 $K \leftarrow \$ \text{KGen}$	6 Return c
3 $b' \leftarrow \$ \mathcal{A}^{\text{LoR}(\cdot, \cdot)}()$	
4 Return ($b' = b$)	

Figure 1: Game formalizing IND-CPA security of symmetric encryption scheme $\text{SE} = (\text{KGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ with key-space $\{0, 1\}^k$. By $\mathcal{A}^{\text{LoR}(\cdot, \cdot)}$ we mean that adversary \mathcal{A} can query the oracle **LoR** on (multiple) pairs of inputs of its choice. Each pair of inputs must consist of a pair of equal-length messages from the scheme's message space.

We define the advantage of an adversary \mathcal{A} in this game as follows:

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{SE}}^{\text{IND-CPA}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2 \cdot \left| \Pr [\text{Game } \text{IND-CPA}(\mathcal{A}, \text{SE}) \Rightarrow \text{true}] - \frac{1}{2} \right|.$$

IND-CPA security for Symmetric Encryption

Definition

A symmetric encryption scheme SE is said to be (t, q, ϵ) -secure if, for all adversaries A running in time at most t and making at most q encryption queries, the advantage $\text{Adv}_{\text{SE}}^{\text{IND-CPA}}(A)$ is at most ϵ .

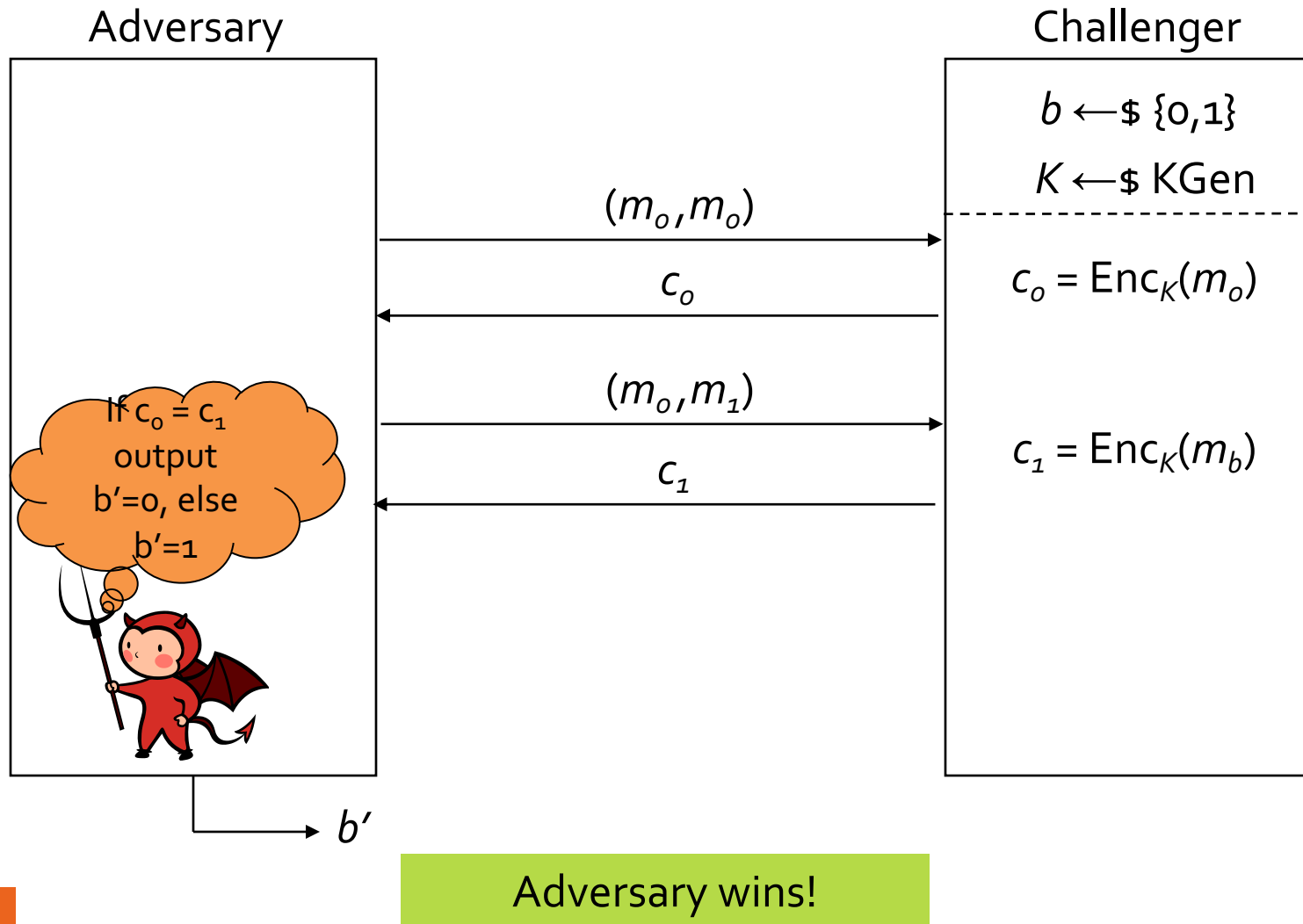
IND-CPA security for Symmetric Encryption: Properties

- IND-CPA security captures **message recovery attacks**: any attacker that can recover m from c can be converted into an attacker that break IND-CPA security.
- IND-CPA security captures **key recovery attacks**: any attacker that, given some pairs (m, c) can recover the key K , can be converted into an attacker that breaks IND-CPA security.
- IND-CPA security ensures that **every bit** of the plaintext is hidden.
- etc. ...
- It can be proved that schemes like CBC mode and CTR mode meet the IND-CPA security definition *if used properly and if they are built using a good block cipher*.
 - We will prove this for CTR mode next.

IND-CPA security for Symmetric Encryption: Limitations

- The IND-CPA definition says nothing about security when the messages in a pair do *not* have equal length.
 - Ciphertext length often leaks information about plaintext length – cf. CTR mode.
 - This leakage can be fatal in real-world applications.
 - Addressed if desired by various forms of padding, traffic shaping, etc.
- The definition says nothing about **integrity** – and we already know that modes like CBC and CTR do not offer it.
- The definition does not give the adversary access to any kind of **decryption capability**: no chosen ciphertext attacks are modelled.
- The definition says nothing about attacks based on **side-channel leakage, implementation vulnerabilities,...**

Deterministic schemes are not IND-CPA secure



The PRP-PRF Switching Lemma

Recall: Pictorial definition of PRP security

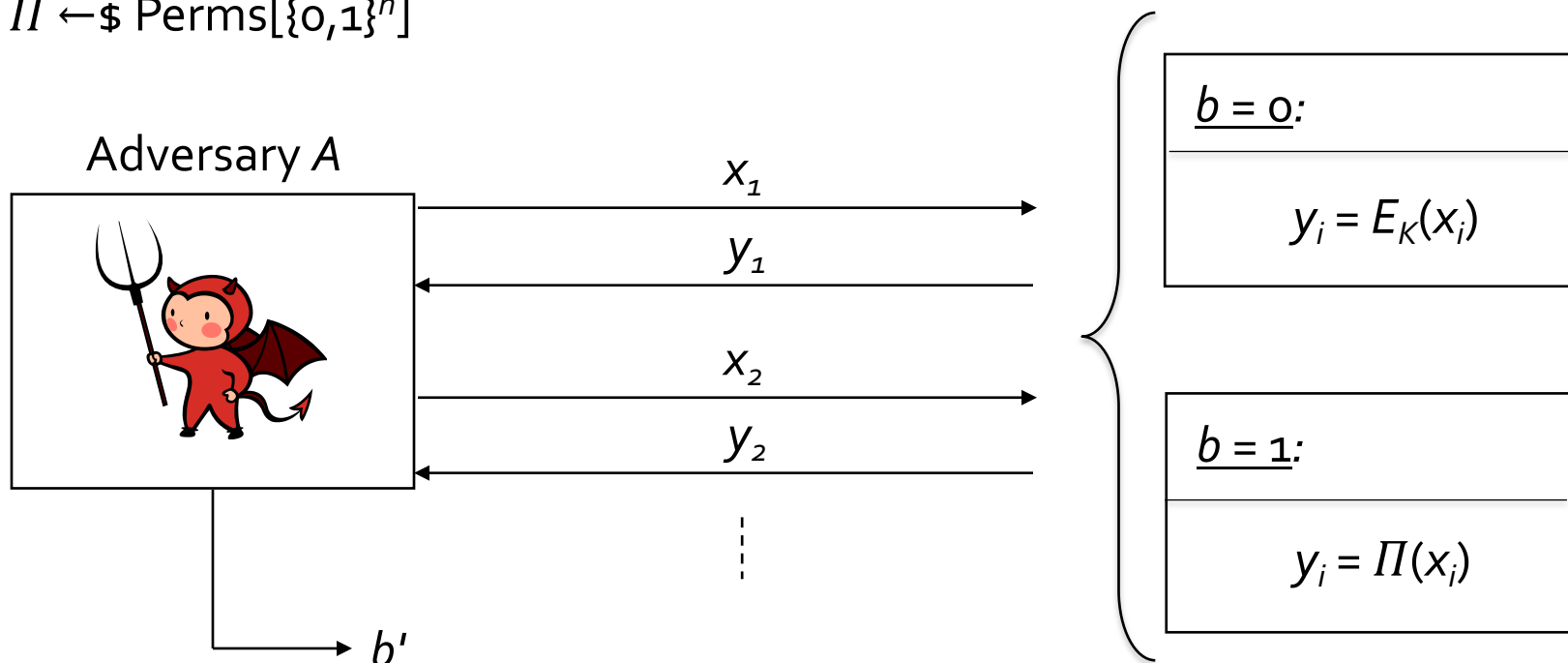
Setup:

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

$K \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^k$

$\Pi \leftarrow \$ \text{Perms}[\{0,1\}^n]$

(recall: $E_K: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$)



$$\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(A) := 2|\Pr[b'=b] - 1/2|.$$

Pictorial definition of PRF security

Setup:

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

$K \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^k$

$f \leftarrow \$ \text{Funcs}[\{0,1\}^n, \{0,1\}^n]$

(recall: $E_K: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$)

Adversary A



x_1

y_1

x_2

Upon receiving the i -th query x_i from A do:

If $x_i = x_j$ for some $j < i$
then $y_i \leftarrow y_j$

else

$y_i \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^n$

Return y_i .

$b = 0$:

$y_i = E_K(x_i)$

$b = 1$:

$y_i = f(x_i)$

PRF security and the PRP-PRF switching lemma

- Difference in definitions: sampling from random function f instead of random permutation Π .
- We have just defined PRF security for block ciphers:

$$E: \{0,1\}^k \times \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$$

- But it can more generally be defined for **any** keyed function:

$$F: \{0,1\}^k \times \{0,1\}^L \rightarrow \{0,1\}^L.$$

The PRP-PRF switching lemma essentially says that any PRP is also a PRF:

Lemma

Let E be a block cipher. Then for any adversary A making q queries:

$$|\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(A) - \text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRF}}(A)| \leq q^2/2^{n+1}.$$

The Advantage Rewriting Lemma

Let b be a uniformly random bit; let b' be the output of some algorithm. Then

$$2 | \Pr[b'=b] - 1/2 | = | \Pr[b'=1 | b=1] - \Pr[b'=1 | b=0] |.$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[b'=b] - 1/2 &= \Pr[b'=b | b=1] \cdot \Pr[b=1] + \Pr[b'=b | b=0] \cdot \Pr[b=0] - 1/2 \\ &= \Pr[b'=1 | b=1] \cdot 1/2 + \Pr[b'=0 | b=0] \cdot 1/2 - 1/2 \\ &= 1/2 (\Pr[b'=1 | b=1] + \Pr[b'=0 | b=0] - 1) \\ &= 1/2 (\Pr[b'=1 | b=1] - (1 - \Pr[b'=0 | b=0])) \\ &= 1/2 (\Pr[b'=1 | b=1] - \Pr[b'=1 | b=0]) \end{aligned}$$

NB1: This kind of rewriting can be done for any distinguishing-style game and advantage expression.

NB2: By a similar argument, we can also show:

$$2 | \Pr[b'=b] - 1/2 | = | \Pr[b'=0 | b=0] - \Pr[b'=0 | b=1] |.$$

The Difference Lemma

Let Z, W_1, W_2 be (any) events defined over some probability space. Suppose that:

$$\Pr[W_1 \wedge \neg Z] = \Pr[W_2 \wedge \neg Z].$$

(In typical uses, we have: $(W_1 \wedge \neg Z)$ occurs **if and only if** $(W_2 \wedge \neg Z)$ occurs.)

Then we have:

$$|\Pr[W_2] - \Pr[W_1]| \leq \Pr[Z].$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} |\Pr[W_2] - \Pr[W_1]| &= |\Pr[W_2 \wedge Z] + \Pr[W_2 \wedge \neg Z] - \Pr[W_1 \wedge Z] - \Pr[W_1 \wedge \neg Z]| \\ &= |\Pr[W_2 \wedge Z] - \Pr[W_1 \wedge Z]| \\ &\leq \Pr[Z]. \end{aligned}$$

(The last step follows on noting that both $\Pr[W_1 \wedge Z]$ and $\Pr[W_2 \wedge Z]$ lie between 0 and $\Pr[Z]$.)

Using the Difference Lemma

The Difference Lemma (restatement)

Let Z, W_1, W_2 be (any) events defined over some probability space. Suppose that:

$$\Pr[W_1 \wedge \neg Z] = \Pr[W_2 \wedge \neg Z].$$

Then we have:

$$|\Pr[W_2] - \Pr[W_1]| \leq \Pr[Z].$$

- In security proofs, we will often face the situation where Z is some “bad” event of bounded, low probability.
- W_1 might be A ’s success probability in game G_1 ; W_2 in some modified game G_2 .
- This lemma shows that if the lemma’s required condition holds and Z is “rare” then A ’s success probabilities in the two games are close.
- Then, in a security proof, we can move from G_1 to G_2 without introducing too much difference in success probabilities.
- This lemma is one the main tools that we will use in *game hopping* proofs.

Proof of the PRP-PRF switching lemma

Lemma

Let E be a block cipher. Then for any algorithm A making q queries:

$$|\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(A) - \text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRF}}(A)| \leq q^2/2^{n+1}.$$

Proof:

Let A be an (q, t, ϵ) adversary; we will run A in one of 3 different games:

- G_0 : choose $f := E_K(\cdot)$, where $K \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^k$, and uses this f to respond to A 's queries.
- G_1 : choose $f \leftarrow \$ \text{Perms}[\{0,1\}^n]$.
- G_2 : choose $f \leftarrow \$ \text{Funcs}[\{0,1\}^n, \{0,1\}^n]$.

Let W_i be the event that A outputs $b' = 1$ in game G_i ; set $p_i = \Pr[W_i]$. Now:

- G_0 corresponds to the case "b=0" in both the PRP and PRF security games, hence $p_0 = \Pr[b'=1 | b=0]$.
- G_1 corresponds to the case "b=1" in the PRP security game, hence $p_1 = \Pr[b'=1 | b=1]$.
- G_2 corresponds to the case "b=1" in the PRF security game, hence $p_2 = \Pr[b'=1 | b=1]$.

Proof of the PRP-PRF switching lemma

So:

$$|p_1 - p_o| = |\Pr[b'=1 \mid b=1] - \Pr[b'=1 \mid b=0]| = \text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(A). \text{ (Probs in } G_1 \text{ and } G_o)$$

and:

$$|p_2 - p_o| = |\Pr[b'=1 \mid b=1] - \Pr[b'=1 \mid b=0]| = \text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRF}}(A). \text{ (Probs in } G_2 \text{ and } G_o)$$

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(A) - \text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRF}}(A)| &= ||p_1 - p_o| - |p_2 - p_o|| \\ &\leq |p_2 - p_1|. \end{aligned} \quad (*)$$

Now consider games G_1 and G_2 :

In G_1 , adversary A interacts with a random permutation; in G_2 with a random function.

Games G_1 and G_2

$G_1: f \leftarrow \$ \text{Perms}[\{0,1\}^n]$

$G_2: f \leftarrow \$ \text{Funcs}[\{0,1\}^n, \{0,1\}^n]$

Adversary A



Upon receiving the i -th query x_i from A do:

If $x_i = x_j$ for some $j < i$

then $y_i \leftarrow y_j$

else

$y_i \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^n \setminus \{y_0, \dots, y_{i-1}\}$

Return y_i .

x_2

Upon receiving the i -th query x_i from A do:

If $x_i = x_j$ for some $j < i$

then $y_i \leftarrow y_j$

else

$y_i \leftarrow \$ \{0,1\}^n$

Return y_i .

G_1

$y_i = f(x_i)$

G_2

$y_i = f(x_i)$

Proof of the PRP-PRF switching lemma

G_1 and G_2 are identical unless a repeated value occurs amongst the y_i in G_2 .

Let Z denote this event.

A basic probability analysis shows that $\Pr[Z] \leq q^2/2^{n+1}$:

- Sample q values y_i uniformly at random from $\{0,1\}^n$.
- $\Pr[y_i = y_j] = 2^{-n}$ for each pair of indices (i,j) .
- There are $q(q-1)/2 \leq q^2/2$ pairs of indices.
- The events are not independent, but we can use the **union bound** to complete the argument:

$$\Pr[Z] = \Pr[y_i = y_j \text{ for some } i \neq j] \leq q^2/2 \cdot 2^{-n} = q^2/2^{n+1}.$$

- NB this analysis depends only on the number of queries made by A and is independent of A 's running time.

Back to Proof of the PRP-PRF switching lemma

Recall:

W_1 is the event that A outputs "1" in game G_1 , $\Pr[W_1] = p_1$.

W_2 is the event that A outputs "1" in game G_2 , $\Pr[W_2] = p_2$.

G_1 and G_2 are identical unless event Z (a collision amongst the y_i) occurs.

So we have: event $W_1 \wedge \neg Z$ occurs if and only if event $W_2 \wedge \neg Z$ occurs.

Now apply the difference lemma to obtain:

$$|p_2 - p_1| = |\Pr[W_2] - \Pr[W_1]| \leq \Pr[Z] \leq q^2/2^{n+1}.$$

Recall from (*):

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRP}}(A) - \text{Adv}_E^{\text{PRF}}(A)| &\leq |p_2 - p_1| \\ &\leq q^2/2^{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Homework

- **Action 1:** for more detail on the PRP-PRF switching lemma, read Boneh-Shoup, Theorem 4.4.
- **Action 2:** for more on the Difference Lemma (sometimes called the “Fundamental Lemma of Game Playing” read Boneh-Shoup, Theorem 4.7.
- **Action 3:** start exercise sheet 2 and prepare for lab 2.
- **Next week’s lectures:**
 - Proof that $\text{CTR}[E]$ is secure under the assumption that E is a PRP;
 - Attacks on CBC mode: padding oracles and the BEAST!