



# CSE5014 CRYPTOGRAPHY AND NETWORK SECURITY

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# Perfect security

- **Definition 1.6** *Perfect secrecy*. An encryption scheme  $(Gen, Enc, Dec)$  with message space  $\mathcal{M}$  and ciphertext space  $\mathcal{C}$  is *perfectly secure* if and only if for every two distinct plaintexts  $\{x_0, x_1\} \in \mathcal{M}$ , and for every strategy used by Eve, if we choose at random  $b \in \{0, 1\}$  and a random key  $k \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , then the probability that Eve guesses  $x_b$  after seeing the ciphertext  $c = Enc_k(x_b)$  is at most  $1/2$ .



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**Theorem 1.10** (*Limitations of perfect secrecy*) There is no *perfectly secure* encryption schemes  $(Gen, Enc, Dec)$  with  $n$ -bit plaintexts and  $(n - 1)$ -bit keys.

- The key is as long as the message
- Only secure if each key is used to encrypt a single message
- Trivially broken by a known-plaintext attack



# $\epsilon$ -Statistical Security

- **Definition 2.1** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two distributions over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ . The *statistical distance* of  $X$  and  $Y$ , denoted by  $\Delta(X, Y)$  is defined to be
$$\max_{T \subseteq \{0, 1\}^n} |\Pr[X \in T] - \Pr[Y \in T]|.$$
If  $\Delta(X, Y) \leq \epsilon$ , we say that  $X \equiv_{\epsilon} Y$ .



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**Definition 2.2**  *$\epsilon$ -Statistical Security*. An encryption scheme  $(Gen, Enc, Dec)$  is  *$\epsilon$ -statistically secure* if for every pair of plaintexts  $m, m'$ , we have  $Enc_{U_n}(m) \equiv_{\epsilon} Enc_{U_n}(m')$ .



## ■ Lemma 2.3

$$\Delta(X, Y) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{w \in \text{Supp}(X) \cup \text{Supp}(Y)} |Pr[X = w] - Pr[Y = w]|$$



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**Observations:**

$$0 \leq \Delta(X, Y) \leq 1$$

$$\Delta(X, Y) = 0 \text{ if } X = Y$$

$$0 \leq \Delta(X, Y) \leq \Delta(X, Z) + \Delta(Z, Y)$$



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$\Delta$  is a *metric*.



# $\epsilon$ -Statistical Security

- **Lemma 2.4** Eve has at most  $1/2 + \epsilon$  success probability if and only if for every pair of  $m_1, m_2$ ,  
$$\Delta(\text{Enc}_{U_n}(m_1), \text{Enc}_{U_n}(m_2)) \leq 2\epsilon.$$



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## Proof.

Suppose that Eve has  $1/2 + \epsilon$  success probability with  $m_1, m_2$ . Let  $p_{i,j} = \Pr[\text{Eve}(\text{Enc}_{U_n}(m_i)) = j]$ . Then we have

$$p_{1,1} + p_{1,2} = 1$$

$$p_{2,1} + p_{2,2} = 1$$

$$(1/2)p_{1,1} + (1/2)p_{2,2} \leq 1/2 + \epsilon.$$

The last two together imply that

$$p_{1,1} - p_{2,1} \leq 2\epsilon,$$

which means that if we let  $T$  be the set  $\{c : \text{Eve}(c) = 1\}$ , then  $T$  demonstrates that  $\Delta(\text{Enc}_{U_n}(m_1), \text{Enc}_{U_n}(m_2)) \leq 2\epsilon$ .

Similarly, if we have such a set  $T$ , we can define an attacker from it that succeeds with probability  $1/2 + \epsilon$ .



# Limitation of $\epsilon$ -Statistical Security

- **Theorem 2.5** Let  $(Gen, Enc, Dec)$  be a valid encryption with  $Enc : \{0, 1\}^n \times \{0, 1\}^{n+1} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ . Then there exist plaintexts  $m_1, m_2$  with  $\Delta(Enc_{U_n}(m_1), Enc_{U_n}(m_2)) > 1/2$ .



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**Proof.** See blackboard.

**Fact.** For a random variable  $Y$ , if  $E[Y] \leq \mu$  the  $\Pr[Y \leq \mu] > 0$ .

Let  $m_1 = 0^{n+1}$ , and let  $S = \text{Supp}(Enc_{U_n}(m_1))$ , then  $|S| \leq 2^n$ .

We choose a random message  $m \leftarrow_R \{0, 1\}^{n+1}$  and define the following  $2^n$  random variables for every  $k$ :

$$T_k(m) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } Enc_k(m) \in S \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Since for every  $k$ ,  $Enc_k(\cdot)$  is one-to-one, we have  $\Pr[T_k = 1] \leq 1/2$ . Define  $T = \sum_{k \in \{0,1\}^n} T_k$ , then

$$E[T] = E[\sum_k T_k] = \sum_k E[T_k] \leq 2^n/2.$$

This means the probability  $\Pr[T \leq 2^n/2] > 0$ . In other words, there exists an  $m$  s.t.  $\sum_k T_k(m) \leq 2^n/2$ . For such  $m$ , **at most** half of the keys  $k$  satisfy  $Enc_k(m) \in S$ , i.e.,

$$\Pr[Enc_{U_n}(m) \in S] \leq 1/2.$$

Since  $\Pr[Enc_{U_n}(0^{n+1}) \in S] = 1$ , we have

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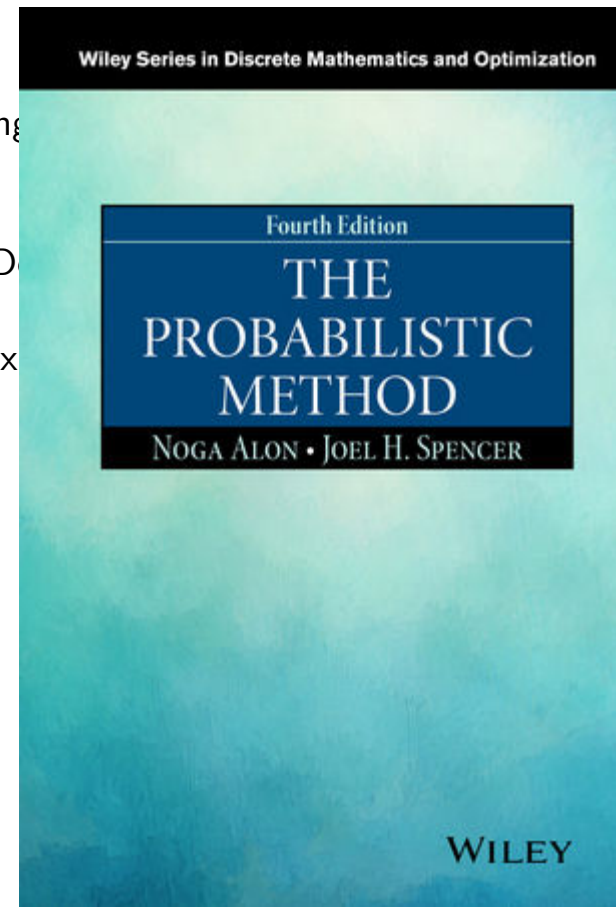
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- **Idea:** Would be OK if a scheme leaked information with *tiny probability* to eavesdroppers with *bounded computational resources*
  - Allowing security to “**fail**” with tiny probability
  - Restricting attention to “**efficient**” attackers



# Tiny probability of failure?

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# Tiny probability of failure?

- Say security fails with probability  $2^{-60}$ 
  - Should we be concerned about this?
  - With probability  $> 2^{-60}$ , the sender and receiver will both be struck by lightning in the next year ...
  - Something that occurs with probability  $2^{-60}/\text{sec}$  is expected to occur once every **100 billion** years



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Modern key space:  $2^{128}$  keys or more ...



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“Breaking  $E$  is very hard”?

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**Q:** How do we **model** the resources of Eve (the adversary)?



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**Claim:**  $\Pi$  is *perfectly indistinguishable*  $\Leftrightarrow$   $\Pi$  is *perfectly secure*



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Two approaches

- *Concrete* security
- *Asymptotic* security



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- $(t, \epsilon)$ -indistinguishability (concrete)
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Does **not** lead to a clean theory ...

- Sensitive to exact computational model
- $\Pi$  can be  $(t, \epsilon)$ -secure for many choices of  $t, \epsilon$



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*Computational indistinguishability:*

- Security may fail with probability *negligible* in  $n$
- Restrict attention to attackers running in time (at most) *polynomial in  $n$*



# Definitions

- A function  $f : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}^+$  is (at most) *polynomial* if **there exists**  $c$  s.t.  $f(n) < n^c$  for large enough  $n$ .

A function  $f : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is *negligible* if **every** polynomial  $p$  it holds that  $f(n) < 1/p(n)$  for large enough  $n$ .

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- “**Efficient**” = “(probabilistic) polynomial-time (**PPT**)” borrowed from *complexity theory*
- Convenient closure properties
  - $\text{poly} * \text{poly} = \text{poly}$ 
    - Poly-many calls to PPT subroutine (with poly-size input) is still PPT
  - $\text{poly} * \text{negl} = \text{negl}$ 
    - Poly-many calls to subroutine that fails with *negligible* probability fails with *negligible* probability overall





# (Re)defining encryption

- A *private-key encryption scheme* is defined by three PPT algorithms (Gen, Enc, Dec):
  - Gen: takes as input  $1^n$ ; outputs  $k$
  - Enc: takes as input a key  $k$  and message  $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$ ; outputs ciphertext  $c$ :  $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_k(m)$
  - Dec: takes key  $k$  and ciphertext  $c$  as input; outputs a message  $m$  or “error” ( $\perp$ )



# Computational indistinguishability (asymptotic)

## ■ Fix $\Pi$ , $A$

Define a randomized experiment  $\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n)$ :

1.  $A(1^n)$  outputs  $m_0, m_1 \in \{0, 1\}^*$  of equal length
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Adversary  $A$  *succeeds* if  $b = b'$ , and we say the experiment evaluates to 1 in this case.

**Definition 3.1**  $\Pi$  is *computationally indistinguishable* (aka *EAV-secure*) if for *all PPT* attackers (algorithms)  $A$ , there is a *negligible* function  $\epsilon$  such that

$$\Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(n)$$



# Example

- Consider a scheme where the **best** attack is *brute-force search* over the key space, and  $Gen(1^n)$  generates a uniform  $n$ -bit key
  - So if  $A$  runs in time  $t(n)$ , then
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$$\Pr[PrivK_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1] < 1/2 + O(t(n)/2^n)$$
  - The scheme is **EAV-secure**: for any polynomial  $t$ , the function  $t(n)/2^n$  is **negligible**.



# Example

- Consider a scheme and a particular attacker  $A$  that runs for  $n^3$  minutes and breaks the scheme with probability  $2^{40}2^{-n}$ 
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  - This does **not** contradict asymptotic security
  - What about real-world security (against this attacker)?
    - $n = 40$ :  $A$  breaks with prob. 1 in 6 weeks
    - $n = 50$ :  $A$  breaks with prob. 1/1000 in 3 months
    - $n = 500$ :  $A$  breaks with prob.  $2^{-500}$  in 200 years



# Example

- What happens when computers get faster?
  - Consider a scheme that takes time  $n^2$  to run but time  $2^n$  to break with prob. 1





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What if computers get  $4\times$  faster?

- Users double  $n$ ; maintain same running time
- Attacker's work is (roughly) squared!



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- In general, encryption does **not** hide the plaintext length
  - The definition takes this into account by requiring  $m_0$ ,  $m_1$  to have the **same** length.
- But leaking plaintext length can **often** lead to problems in the real world!
  - Databases searches
  - Encrypting compressed data



# Micali & Goldwasser



Silvio Micali



Shafi Goldwasser

1984: semantic security, indistinguishability  
(Turing Award 2012)

# Micali & Blum



Silvio Micali



Manuel Blum

1984: defined notion of pseudo-random generator  
(Turing Award 1995)

# Pseudorandomness

- Important building block for computationally secure encryption



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- Important **building block** for **computationally secure encryption**
- What does “**random**” mean?
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  - 0101010101010101
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- What does “**random**” mean?
- Which of the following is a **uniform** string?
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- If we generate a uniform 16-bit string, each of the above occurs with probability  $2^{-16}$



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# What does “pseudorandom” mean?

- Informal: **Cannot** be distinguished from **uniform** (“random”)
- Which of the following is **pseudorandom**?
  - 0101010101010101
  - 0010111011100110
  - 0000000000000000
- *Pseudorandomness* is a property of a *distribution*, **not** a string.



# Pseudorandomness

- Fix some distribution  $D$  on  $n$ -bit strings
  - $x \leftarrow D$  means “sample  $x$  according to  $D$ ”



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This is **not** sufficient, since it is **not** possible to know what statistical test an attacker will use.





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(Concrete) Let  $D$  be a distribution on  $p$ -bit strings.  $D$  is  $(t, \epsilon)$ -*pseudorandom* if for all  $A$  running in time **at most**  $t$ ,

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(Asymptotic) *Security parameter*  $n$ , polynomial  $p$

**Definiton 3.2** Let  $D_n$  be a distribution over  $p(n)$ -bit strings.  $\{D_n\}$  is *pseudorandom* if for all probabilistic, polynomial-time (PPT) distinguishers  $A$ , there is a **negligible** function  $\epsilon$  such that

$$|\Pr_{x \leftarrow D_n}[A(x) = 1] - \Pr_{x \leftarrow U_{p(n)}}[A(x) = 1]| \leq \epsilon(n)$$



# Pseudorandom generators (PRGs)

- A *PRG* is an *efficient*, *deterministic* algorithm that expands a *short, uniform seed* into a *longer, pseudorandom* output



# Pseudorandom generators (PRGs)

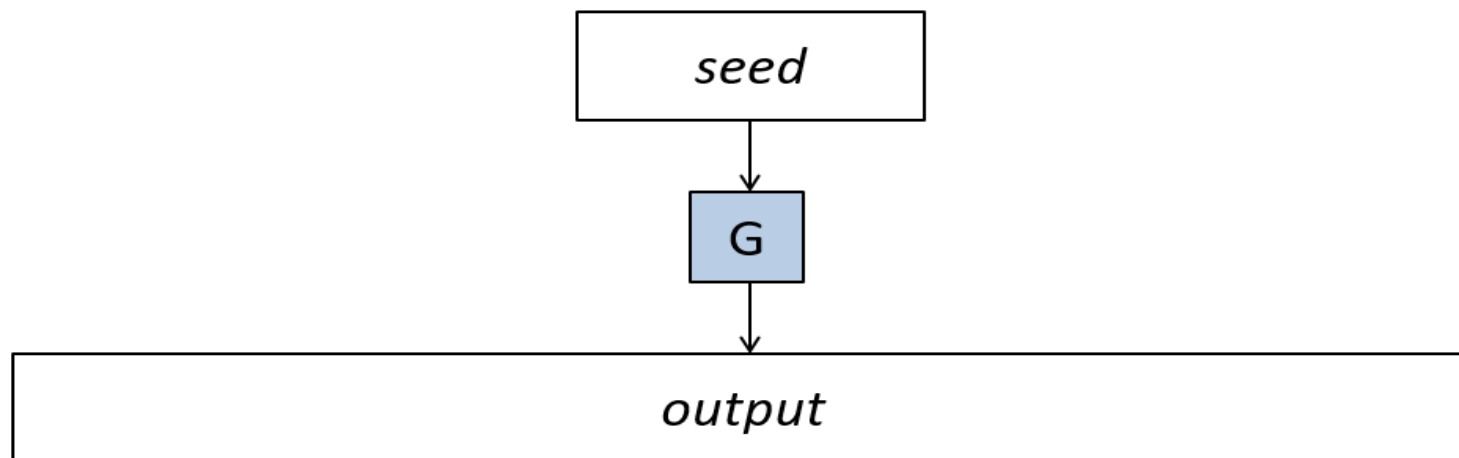
- A *PRG* is an *efficient*, *deterministic* algorithm that expands a *short, uniform seed* into a *longer, pseudorandom* output
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$G$  defines a sequence of distributions.

- $D_n$  = the distribution on  $p(n)$ -bit strings defined by choosing  $x \leftarrow U_n$  and outputting  $G(x)$
- $\Pr_{D_n}[y] = \Pr_{U_n}[G(x) = y] = \sum_{x: G(x)=y} \Pr_{U_n}[x]$ 
$$= \sum_{x: G(x)=y} 2^{-n}$$
$$= |\{x : G(x) = y\}| / 2^n$$



- For all **efficient** distinguishers  $A$ , there is a **negligible** function  $\epsilon$  such that

$$|\Pr_{x \leftarrow U_n}[A(G(x)) = 1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow U_{p(n)}}[A(y) = 1]| \leq \epsilon(n)$$



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- PRGs are **limited**
  - They have **fixed-length** output
  - They produce the entire output in “**one shot**”
  - In practice, PRGs are based on **stream ciphers**
  - Can be viewed as producing an “**unbounded**” stream of pseudorandom bits, on demand
  - Will revisit later

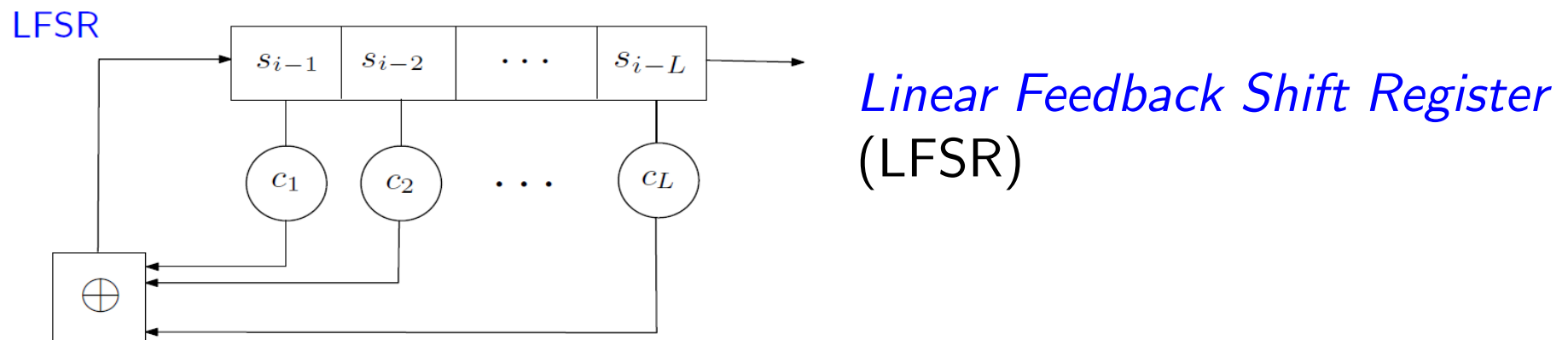
# Do PRGs/stream ciphers exist?

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  - Would imply  $P \neq NP$
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  - Can construct PRGs from **weaker** assumptions (later)



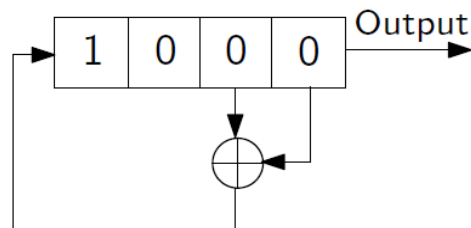
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## Example

$s = (000100110101111)^{15}$



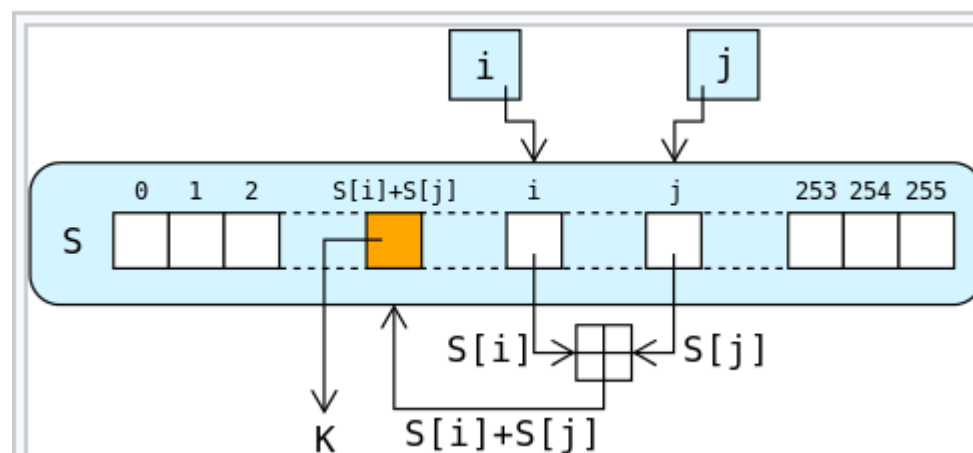
$$LC(s) = 4$$

$$P_s(x) = x^4 + x + 1$$

# Practical “PRGs”

## ■ RC4

```
i := 0
j := 0
while GeneratingOutput:
  i := (i + 1) mod 256
  j := (j + S[i]) mod 256
  swap values of S[i] and S[j]
  K := S[(S[i] + S[j]) mod 256]
  output K
endwhile
```



## Blum-Blum-Shub

```
num_outputted = 0;
while num_outputted < m:
  X := X*X mod N
  num_outputted := num_outputted + 1
  output least-significant-bit(X)
```

SIAM J. COMPUT.  
Vol. 15, No. 2, May 1986

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003

### A SIMPLE UNPREDICTABLE PSEUDO-RANDOM NUMBER GENERATOR\*

L. BLUM†, M. BLUM‡ AND M. SHUB§

**Abstract.** Two closely-related pseudo-random sequence generators are presented: The  $1/P$  generator, with input  $P$  a prime, outputs the quotient digits obtained on dividing 1 by  $P$ . The  $x^2 \bmod N$  generator with inputs  $N, x_0$  (where  $N = P \cdot Q$  is a product of distinct primes, each congruent to 3 mod 4, and  $x_0$  is a quadratic residue mod  $N$ ), outputs  $b_0 b_1 b_2 \dots$  where  $b_i = \text{parity}(x_i)$  and  $x_{i+1} = x_i^2 \bmod N$ .

From short seeds each generator efficiently produces long well-distributed sequences. Moreover, both generators have computationally hard problems at their core. The first generator's sequences, however, are *completely predictable* (from any small segment of  $2|P|+1$  consecutive digits one can infer the “seed,”  $P$ , and continue the sequence backwards and forwards), whereas the second, under a certain intractability assumption, is *unpredictable* in a precise sense. The second generator has additional interesting properties: from knowledge of  $x_0$  and  $N$  but *not*  $P$  or  $Q$ , one can generate the sequence forwards, but, under the above-mentioned intractability assumption, one can *not* generate the sequence backwards. From the additional knowledge of  $P$  and  $Q$ , one *can* generate the sequence backwards; one can even “jump” about from any point in the sequence to any other. Because of these properties, the  $x^2 \bmod N$  generator promises many interesting applications, e.g., to public-key cryptography. To use these generators in practice, an analysis is needed of various properties of these sequences such as their periods. This analysis is begun here.

**Key words.** random, pseudo-random, Monte Carlo, computational complexity, secure transactions, public-key encryption, cryptography, one-time pad, Jacobi symbol, quadratic residuacity

# Where things stand

- We saw that there are some inherent **limitations** if we want *perfect security*
  - In particular, key must be as **long** as the message



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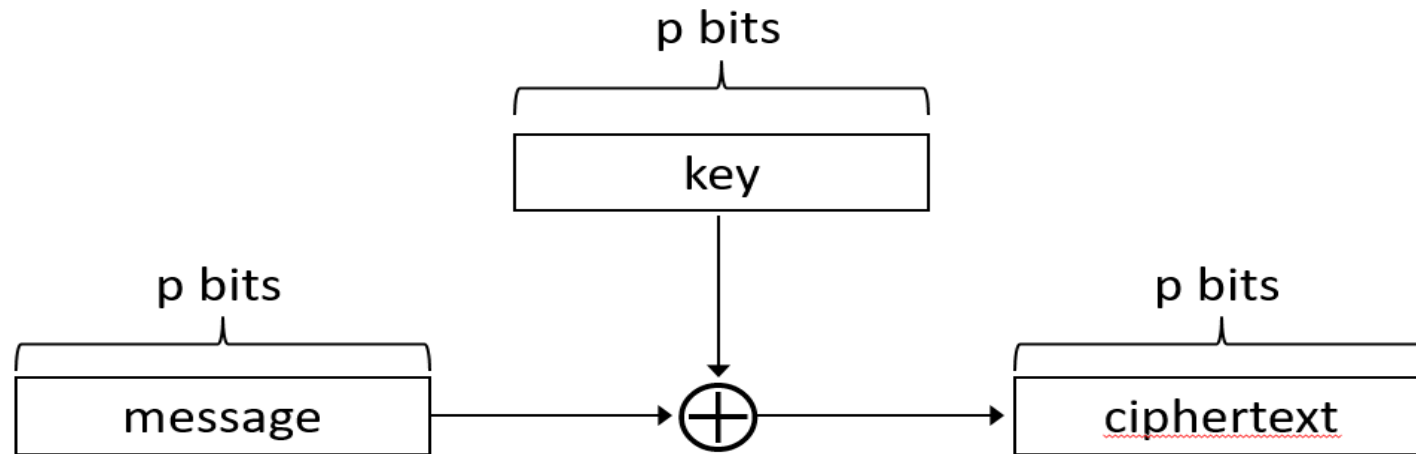
- We saw that there are some inherent **limitations** if we want *perfect security*
  - In particular, key must be as **long** as the message

We defined *computational security*, a **relaxed** notion of security

**Q**: Can we overcome prior limitations?

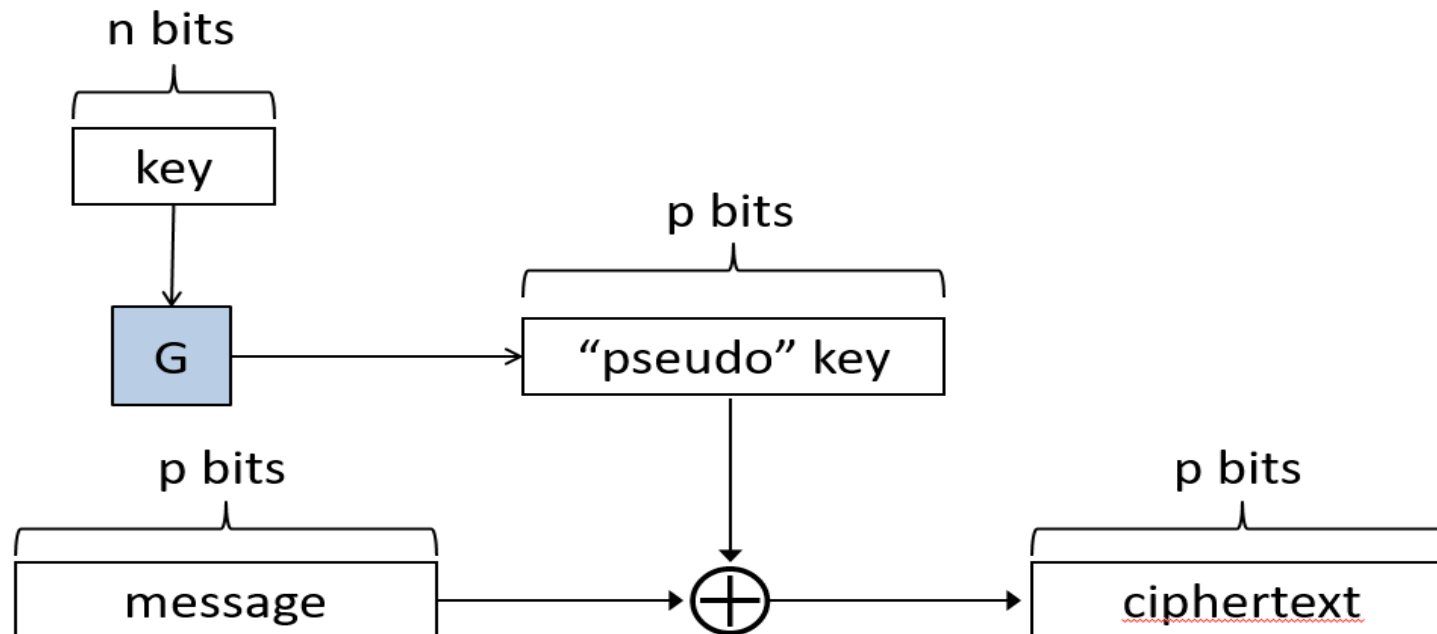
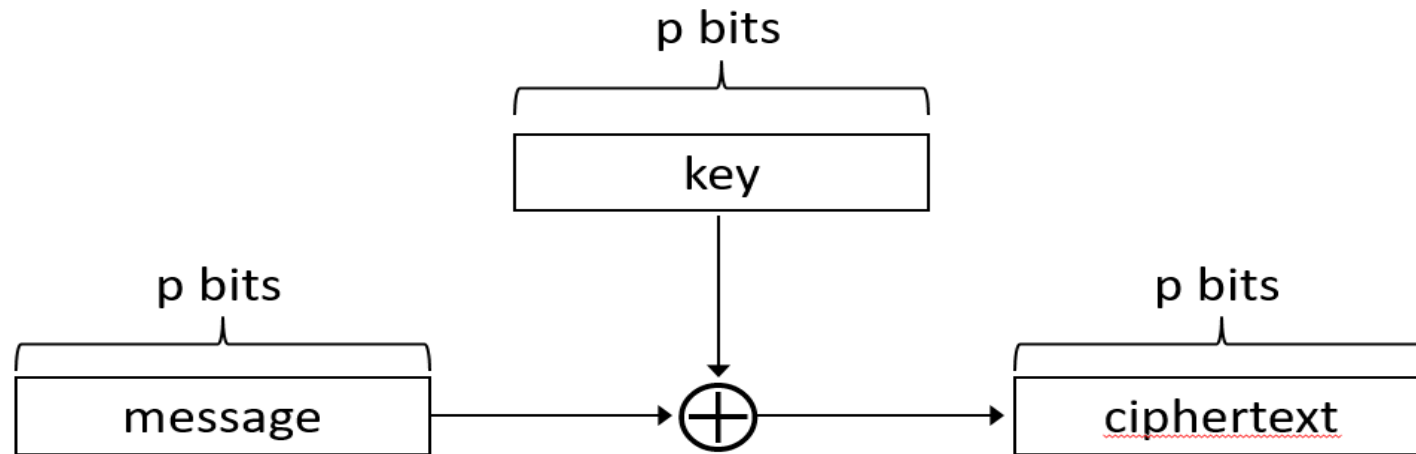


# Recall: one-time pad





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# Pseudo one-time pad

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$Gen(1^n)$ : output uniform  $n$ -bit key  $k$

– Security parameter  $n \Rightarrow$  message space  $\{0, 1\}^{p(n)}$

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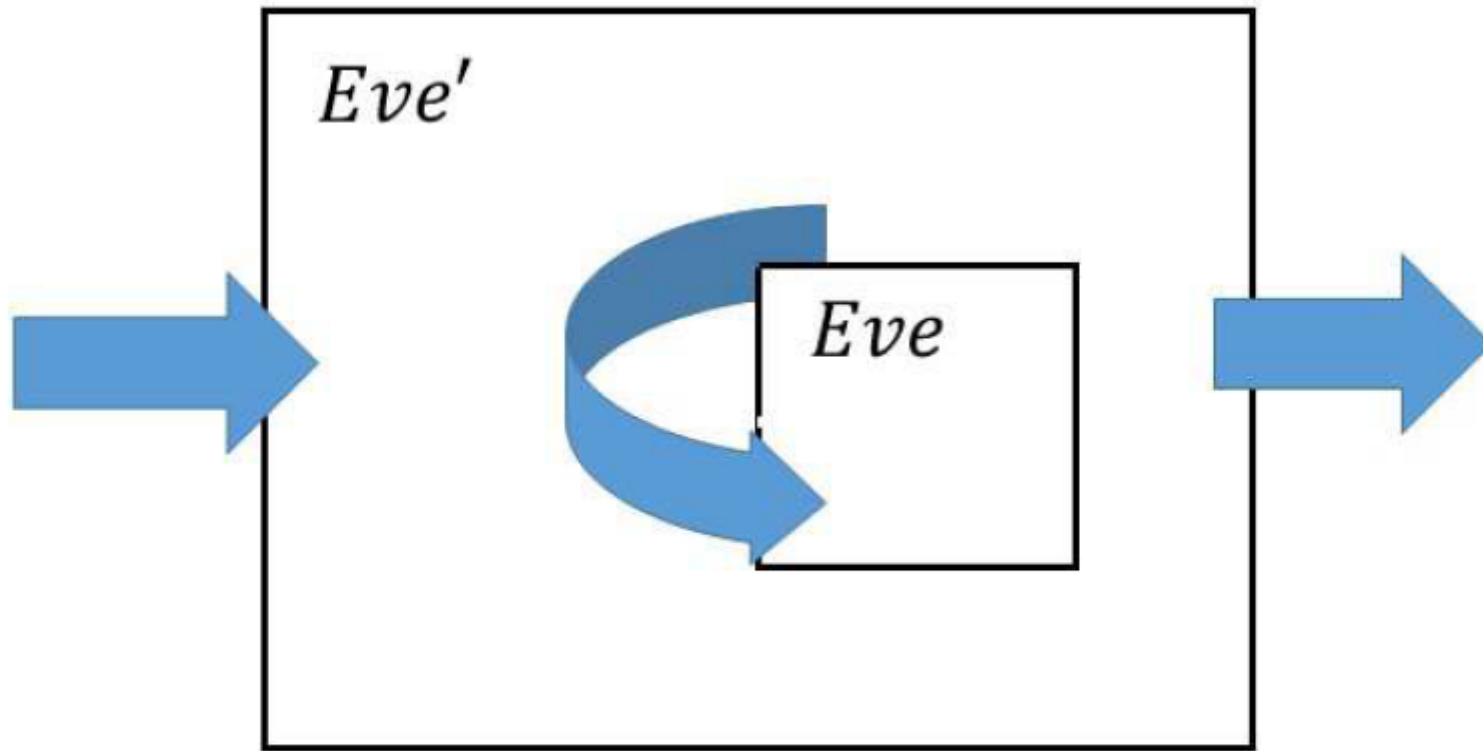
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- Would like to be able to prove *computational security*
  - Based on the **assumption** that  $G$  is a PRG



# Proof by reduction



**Figure 2.1:** We show that the security of  $S'$  implies the security of  $S$  by transforming an adversary  $Eve$  breaking  $S$  into an adversary  $Eve'$  breaking  $S'$

$Eve$  breaks  $S \rightarrow Eve'$  breaks  $S'$   
 $S'$  is secure  $\rightarrow S$  is secure

# Proof by reduction

- 1. Assume that  $G$  is a *PRG*
- 2. Assume toward a **contradiction** that there is an **efficient attacker**  $A$  who “breaks” the pseudo-OTP scheme
- 3. Use  $A$  as a **subroutine** to build an efficient  $D$  that “breaks” *pseudorandomness* of  $G$

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**Theorem 3.3** If  $G$  is a pseudorandom generator (PRG), then the pseudo one-time pad (pseudo-OTP)  $\Pi$  is *EAV-secure* (i.e., *computationally secure*)



# Next Lecture

- Pseudorandom functions, block ciphers ...

