## Shannon's Theory

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Note that key is chosen before the plaintext knows, so that plaintext and key are independent r.v.'s.

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$$Pr[Y = y] = \sum_{\{k: y \in C(k)\}} Pr[K = k] Pr[X = D_k(y)]$$

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• For  $y \in \mathcal{C}$  and  $x \in \mathcal{P}$ , we have

$$Pr[Y = y | X = x] = \sum_{\{k: x = D_k(y)\}} Pr[K = k]$$

## Bayes' Theorem

$$Pr[X = x | Y = y] = \frac{Pr[X = x] \sum_{\{k: x = D_k(y)\}} Pr[K = k]}{\sum_{\{k: y \in C(k)\}} Pr[K = k] Pr[X = D_k(y)]}$$

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### Example

Let  $\mathcal{P} = \{a, b\}$  with Pr[a] = 1/4, Pr[b] = 3/4  $\mathcal{K} = \{k_1, k_2, k_3\}$  with  $Pr[k_1] = 1/2$ ,  $Pr[k_2] = Pr[k_3] = 1/4$ , and  $\mathcal{C} = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ . Suppose encryption rule is defined as

$E_k(x)$	а	b
<i>k</i> <sub>1</sub>	1	2
k <sub>2</sub>	2	3
<i>k</i> <sub>3</sub>	3	4

Find the probability Pr[X = x | Y = y]

### **Definition**

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We have,  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K} = Z_{26}$ , and define encryption rule as

$$y = E_k(x) = (x+k) \pmod{26}$$

where  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ .



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- ullet every key is used with equal probability  $1/|\mathcal{K}|$ , and
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For each  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

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That is, there do not exist two distinct keys  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  such that  $E_{k_1}(x) = E_{k_2}(x) = y$ .

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Hence, we have shown that for any  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $y \in \mathcal{C}$ , there is exactly one key k such that  $E_k(x) = y$ .

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Denote  $n = |\mathcal{K}|$ .

Let  $\mathcal{P} = \{x_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  and fix a ciphertext element  $y \in \mathcal{C}$ .

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Let  $\mathcal{P} = \{x_i : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$  and fix a ciphertext element  $y \in \mathcal{C}$ .

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Suppose the keys are  $k_1, k_2, ..., k_n$ , such that  $E_{k_i}(x_i) = y$ ,  $1 \le i \le n$ . Using Bayes' theorem, we have

$$Pr[x_i|y] = \frac{Pr[y|x_i]Pr[x_i]}{Pr[y]} = \frac{Pr[k_i]Pr[x_i]}{Pr[y]}$$

• Consider the perfect secrecy condition  $Pr[x_i|y] = Pr[x_i]$ .

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- This implies that,  $Pr[k_i] = Pr[y]$ , for  $1 \le i \le n$ .
- This says that all keys are used with equal probability (namely, Pr[y]).
- Since the number of keys are  $|\mathcal{K}|$ , we must have that  $Pr[k] = 1/|\mathcal{K}|$ , for  $k \in \mathcal{K}$ .

### Could you prove the converse of the theorem?

#### Continue.....

#### Given

- ullet every key is used with equal probability  $1/|\mathcal{K}|$ , and
- for every  $x \in \mathcal{P}$  and for every  $y \in \mathcal{C}$ , there is a unique key k such that  $E_k(x) = y$

Prove the cryptosystem provides perfect secrecy.

### Bayes' theorem:

$$Pr[X = x | Y = y] = \frac{Pr[X = x] \sum_{\{k: x = D_k(y)\}} Pr[K = k]}{\sum_{\{k: y \in C(k)\}} Pr[K = k] Pr[X = D_k(y)]}$$

## Latin Square

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An example of a Latin square of order 3 is as follows:

2	3
1	2
3	1
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Given any Latin square L of order n, we can define a related cryptosystem. Take  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K}$ . For  $1 \le i \le n$ , the encryption rule defined as

$$E_i(j) = L(i,j)$$

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(Hence each row of L gives rise to one encryption rule.) Give a complete proof that this Latin square cryptosystem achieves perfect secrecy provided that every key is used with equal probability.

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- One well-known realization of perfect secrecy is the Vernam One-time Pad.
- First described by Gilbert Vernam in 1917 for use in automatic encryption and decryption of telegraph messages.
- One-time Pad was thought for many years to be an "unbreakable" cryptosystem.
- But, there was no proof of this until Shannon developed the concept of perfect secrecy over 30 years later.

## Definition (One-Time Pad)

Let  $n \ge 1$  be an integer, and take  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K} = (Z_2)^n$ . If  $k = (k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n)$  in  $\mathcal{K}$ ,  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  in  $\mathcal{P}$ , and  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ , we define

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$$E_k(x) = (x_1 + k_1, x_2 + k_2, \dots, x_n + k_n) \pmod{2}$$

$$D_k(y) = (y_1 + k_1, y_2 + k_2, \dots, y_n + k_n) \pmod{2}$$

Decryption is also identical to the encryption.



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Note that  $\pmod{2}$  is equivalent to the exclusive-or  $(\oplus)$ .



plaintext (m)	а	b	С	d	е	f	g	h	i	j	k		m	n
Assigned No.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
plaintext (m)	0	р	(	7	r	S	t		u	٧	W	Х	У	Z
Assigned No.	14	15	15 10		17	18	1	9	20	21	22	23	24	25
plaintext (m)	,			. :		;	S	space		,				
Assigned No	. 26		27	27 2		29	3	30		31				

## **Assume 5-bit character representation**

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### **Assume 5-bit character representation**

## Example (One key for one encryption)

Generate a ciphertext with random key given by *I am good* for the message *it's true* using the above character encoding.

# One-Time Pad - Perfect Secrecy

### Definition

A cipher (E, D) over (K, P, C) has perfect secrecy if  $\forall x_0, x_1 \in P$ ,  $(|x_0| = |x_1|)$  and  $\forall y \in C$ 

$$Pr[E_k(x_0) = y] = Pr[E_k(x_1) = y]$$

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## Proof(One-time pad : perfect secrecy).

We have to show  $\forall x_0, x_1 \in \mathcal{P}$ ,  $(|x_0| = |x_1|)$  and  $\forall y \in \mathcal{C}$ 

$$Pr[E_k(x_0) = y] = Pr[E_k(x_1) = y]$$



- Vernam patented his idea in the hope that it would have widespread commercial use.
- The fact that  $|\mathcal{K}| \ge |\mathcal{P}|$ , means that the amount of key that must be communicated securely is at least as big as the amount of plaintext.
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- This would not be a major problem if the same key could be used to encrypt different messages; however, the security of unconditionally secure cryptosystems depends on the fact that each key is used for only one encryption.
- The One-time Pad is vulnerable to a known-plaintext attack