



# Perfect Cipher

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



1

## 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

feb-24

Perfect cipher

2

2

## 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
- $\text{Gen}()$  defines a probability distribution over  $\mathbf{K}$ 
  - $\Pr[K = k] = \Pr[k \leftarrow \text{Gen}()]$
- Random variables  $M$  and  $K$  are independent

feb-24

Perfect cipher

3

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  $\mathbf{C}$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

4

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

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  $\Pr[M = m \mid C = c] = \Pr[M = m]$
- 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

feb-24

Perfect cipher

6

6

## Shannon's Theorem

- Shannon's Theorem – In a perfect cipher,  $|K| \geq |M|$ 
  - i.e., the number of keys cannot be smaller than the number of messages
  - Proof. By contradiction.
    - a) Let  $|K| < |M|$
    - 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  $\Pr[M = m]$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

7

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
  1. Every  $k \in \mathcal{K}$  is chosen with equal probability  $1/|\mathcal{K}|$  by Gen
  2. 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

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)

feb-24

Perfect cipher

9

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** –  $\Pi$  has perfectly indistinguishability iff it is perfectly secure

feb-24

Perfect cipher

10

10

Perfect Cipher

ONE-TIME PAD

feb-24

Perfect cipher

11

11

One Time Pad

- 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  $[1,...,t]$ ,  $y_i = m_i \oplus k_i$  i.e.,  $y_i = m_i + k_i \bmod 2$
- Decryption
  - For all  $i$  in  $[1,..., t]$ ,  $x_i = c_i \oplus k_i$ , i.e.,  $x_i = y_i + k_i \bmod 2$
- Consistency property can be easily proven


feb-24

Perfect cipher

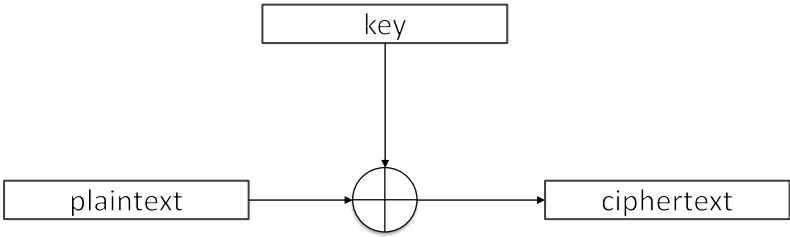
14

14

# One-Time Pad



UNIVERSITÀ DI PISA



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  $\Pr[X = 0] = x_0$ ,  $\Pr[X = 1] = x_1$ ,  $x_0 + x_1 = 1$
    - $\Pr[Y = 0] =$   
 $= \Pr[(X = 0) \wedge (K = 0)] + \Pr[(X = 1) \wedge (K = 1)] =$   
 $= \Pr[X = 0] \times \Pr[K = 0] + \Pr[X = 1] \times \Pr[K = 1] =$   
 $= x_0 \times 0.5 + x_1 \times 0.5 = 0.5 \times (x_0 + x_1) =$   
 $= 0.5$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

16

16



# OTP has perfect secrecy

- Theorem – OTP has perfect secrecy

– Proof

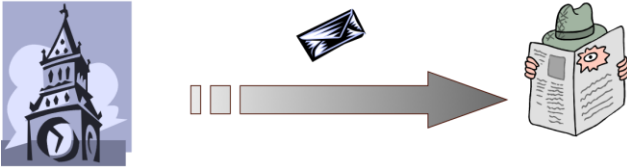
- a)  $\Pr[M = m \mid C = c] = (\text{Bayes law})$   
 $= \Pr[C = c \mid M = m] \times \Pr[M = m] / \Pr[C = c]$
- b)  $\Pr[C = c] = (\text{Total probability law})$   
 $= \sum_i \Pr[C = c \mid M = m_i] \times \Pr[M = m_i] =$   
 $= \sum_i \Pr[K = c \oplus m_i] \times \Pr[M = m_i] =$   
 $= \sum_i 2^{-k}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

17

# OTP has perfect secrecy: intuition

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

$m$	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

19

# 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
    - $|M| = |K| = |C|$
- Very fast enc/dec

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  $C2 = M2 \text{ xor } K \rightarrow$
    - $C1 \text{ xor } C2 = M1 \text{ xor } M2$

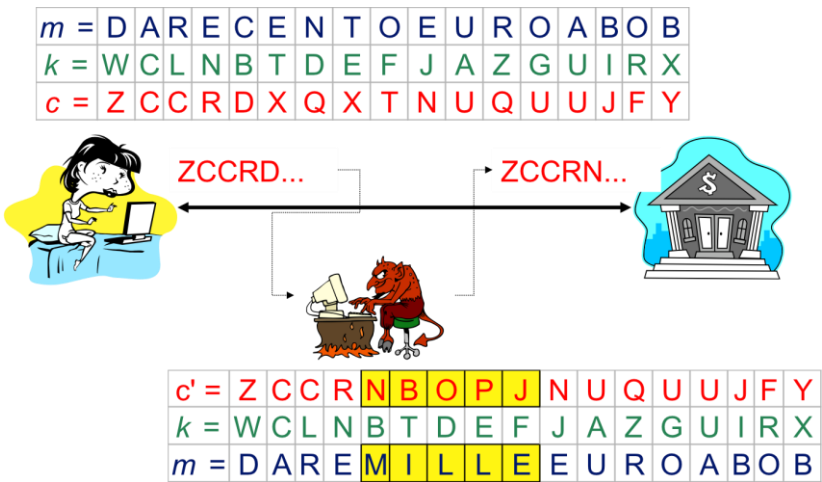
21

## Pros and Cons

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

22

## OTP is malleable



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

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

## 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:
- $X = [‘B’ ‘o’ ‘b’] \text{ xor } [‘E’ ‘v’ ‘e’]$  (byte-wise xor)
- If we consider the Ascii codes
  - B o b  $\rightarrow$  42 6F 62, E v e  $\rightarrow$  45 76 65
- $X = \text{Bob xor Eve (byte-wise xor)} = 07\ 19\ 07$

## Remainder of probability theory

- Random variable, probability distribution
- Conditional probability
  - $\Pr[A | B] = \Pr[A \wedge B] / \Pr[B]$
- Bayes’ Theorem
  - $\Pr[A | B] = \Pr[B | A] \times \Pr[A] / \Pr[B]$
- 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  $A, \Pr[A] = \sum_i \Pr[A \wedge E_i] = \sum_i \Pr[A | E_i] \times \Pr[E_i]$

## 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 =  $1/26$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

28

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 =  $1/52$

feb-24

Perfect cipher

29

29

### Example 3

- 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  $\Pr[M = \text{«TEN»} \mid C = \text{«RQH»}]$ 
    - Result = 0 that is different of  $\Pr[M = \text{«TEN»}] \rightarrow$
  - Shift cipher is not perfect

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