

T-79.5501

Cryptology

Notes from Lecture 2:

- Entropy of key
- Unicity Distance
- Design principles for symmetric ciphers
- Modular arithmetic

Key length

key length in bits = key entropy

if and only if the keys are chosen equiprobably

Example. Bluetooth PIN

Maximum length 128 bits.

Maximum entropy = 128 bits never achieved in practise.

Two reasons:

- 1) User selects PIN (in a hurry, to set up a connection)
- 2) Encoding of keypad characters. Each character takes 8 bits => PIN has at most 16 characters.

Numeric PIN: max entropy $\sim 16 \log_2 10 \sim 53$

Alphanumeric PIN: max entropy = $16 \log_2 36 \sim 83$

Ciphertext only attack

How much ciphertext is needed to determine the key from ciphertext only? (assuming no bounds on the computations adversary needs to make)

Example: Exhaustive key search given a ciphertext. With each possible key candidate perform decryption, and see if the result makes sense. Works only if plaintext not completely random.

Shift cipher, ciphertext: WNAJW

$d_5(\text{WNAJW}) = \text{river}$; $d_{22}(\text{WNAJW}) = \text{arena}$

Key is not uniquely determined.

Using statistical characteristics of plaintext language we can determine how long plaintext must be, on the average, to determine the key uniquely.

Theorem 2.10

Let $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$ be a cryptosystem. Then

$$H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{K}) + H(\mathbf{P}) - H(\mathbf{C}).$$

Proof: \mathbf{K} and \mathbf{P} independent \Rightarrow

$$H(\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{P}, \mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{P}) = H(\mathbf{K}) + H(\mathbf{P}).$$

On the other hand,

$$H(\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{P}, \mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{C}) + H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}). \quad \square$$

Example 2.3 Continued

$$H(\mathbf{P}) \approx 0.81$$

$$H(\mathbf{K}) \approx 1.5$$

$$H(\mathbf{C}) \approx 1.85$$

Thm 2.10 tells $H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}) = 0.81 + 1.5 - 1.85 = 0.46$.

Can be computed also directly:

$$H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}) = \sum_y \Pr[y] H(\mathbf{K}|y) =$$

$$1/8 \cdot H(\mathbf{K}|1) + 7/16 \cdot H(\mathbf{K}|2) + 1/4 \cdot H(\mathbf{K}|3) + 3/16 \cdot H(\mathbf{K}|4)$$

where, e.g. $H(\mathbf{K}|3) = -\frac{3}{4} \log_2(\frac{3}{4}) - \frac{1}{4} \log_2(\frac{1}{4}) \approx 0.8$,

since $\Pr[K_1|3] = 0$, $\Pr[K_2|3] = \frac{3}{4}$ and $\Pr[K_3|3] = \frac{1}{4}$

Conclusion: The average uncertainty about the key is 0.46 bits if one ciphertext character is given.

Entropy of language

Definition 2.7: Suppose L is a language. The entropy of L is defined as

$$H_L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} H(\mathbf{P}^n)/n.$$

Here \mathbf{P} denotes the random variable of one character, \mathbf{P}^2 the random variable of two characters, ..., \mathbf{P}^n a word of n characters. Let \mathcal{P} be the set of possible characters. Then it follows from Thm 2.6 and Cor 2.9 that

$$H(\mathbf{P}^n) \leq n H(\mathbf{P}) \leq n \log_2 |\mathcal{P}|, \text{ for all } n,$$

with equalities if and only if the language is purely random. It follows that $H_L \leq \log_2 |\mathcal{P}|$.

Redundancy of language

Redundancy R_L of L is defined as

$$R_L = 1 - H_L / \log_2 |\mathcal{P}|.$$

Example. L English, \mathcal{P} alphabet of 26 characters,

$$\log_2 |\mathcal{P}| \approx 4,7$$

$$H(\mathbf{P}) \approx 4,15$$

$$H(\mathbf{P}^2)/2 \approx 3,62$$

$$H(\mathbf{P}^3)/3 \approx 3.22 \dots$$

$$H_L \approx 1,5 \text{ (one estimate)}$$

Unicity distance (Def 2.8)

Assume $|\mathcal{P}| = |\mathcal{C}|$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathbf{C}^n) - H(\mathbf{P}^n) &\approx n \log_2 |\mathcal{C}| - n H_L \\ &\approx n \log_2 |\mathcal{C}| - (n \log_2 |\mathcal{P}| - n R_L \log_2 |\mathcal{P}|) = n R_L \log_2 |\mathcal{P}|. \end{aligned}$$

From Thm 2.10 we get

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}^n) &\approx H(\mathbf{K}) - n R_L \log_2 |\mathcal{P}| \\ &= \log_2 |\mathcal{K}| - n R_L \log_2 |\mathcal{P}|, \end{aligned}$$

which gives an estimate of the entropy of the key given n characters of ciphertext. The key is uniquely determined exactly if $H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}^n) = 0$. This happens approximately for $n = n_0$, where

$$n_0 = \log_2 |\mathcal{K}| / R_L \log_2 |\mathcal{P}|$$

Example: see separate note.

Stream ciphers

Let $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{L}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D}, g)$ be a synchronous stream cipher (Definition 1.6)

$g(K, i) = z_i$ key-stream generation

$y_i = e_{z_i}(x_i)$ encryption

$x_i = d_{z_i}(y_i)$ decryption

Requirement:

Key-stream $\{z_i\}$ should be indistinguishable from one-time-pad

Block Ciphers

A block cipher is a cryptosystem $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$, for which it is typical that the same encryption operation e_K is applied to a number of consequent data blocks.

Even if $H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}^n)=0$ it should be computationally infeasible to solve for the key given ciphertext and any known plaintext features.

Shannon: Design the encryption operation for a block cipher as a composition of different transformations which produce diffusion and confusion.

Modular arithmetic

Given a positive integer m and any two integers a and b , we say that a is congruent to b modulo m , if m divides $b - a$. We then denote $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

When a is divided by m , there is a unique remainder, that is, an integer r , $0 \leq r < m$, such that $a = km + r$, or what is equivalent, $a \equiv r \pmod{m}$. We also denote $r = a \bmod m$. We identify a with its remainder modulo m and compute with remainders modulo m .

Solving an equation mod m

Assume $\gcd(a,m) = 1$. If $ax \equiv ay \pmod{m}$, then $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$. It follows that

$$\{ax \bmod m \mid x = 0, 1, \dots, m-1\} = \{0, 1, \dots, m-1\} = \mathbf{Z}_m,$$

which means that for all b in \mathbf{Z}_m , the equation

$$ax \equiv b \pmod{m} \quad (1)$$

has a unique solution.

If $\gcd(a,m) = d$, then the equation (1) has a solution if and only if d divides b . Then the number of solutions is d . To solve the equation (1), divide it first by d to get:

$$(a/d)x \equiv b/d \pmod{m/d}. \quad (2)$$

Then $\gcd(a/d, m/d) = 1$, and (2) has a unique solution x_0 modulo m/d . This gives d solutions mod m . They are:

$$x_0, x_1 = x_0 + m/d, x_2 = x_0 + 2m/d, \dots, x_{d-1} = x_0 + (d-1)m/d.$$

Inverse mod m

It follows that equation

$$ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

has a solution if and only if $\gcd(a, m) = 1$. If a solution exists it is unique, and we denote it by $x = a^{-1} \pmod{m}$. It is the multiplicative inverse of element a modulo m .

Euclidean algorithm

see text-book 5.2.1

The Chinese Remainder Theorem

see text-book 5.2.2