

# Computer Science COMP-547A Cryptography and Data Security

Claude Crépeau

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## 6 Information theory

The security of most modern cryptographic system is based on a computational assumption. In large, a system that is computationally secure relies on the fact that an attacker does not have enough **time** to break the system, while on the other hand a system that is unconditionally secure relies on the fact that an attacker will never have enough **information**. Computational security uses results from *complexity theory*, unconditional security uses *information theory* which we present in this chapter.

### 6.1 Notations and probability theory

Let  $X, Y$  be distributions on finite sets of events (we will only consider finite sets of probabilities), we denote  $\Pr_X(x)$  as the probability of  $x$  occurring, following the distribution  $X$  (when the situation is clear, we will not explicitly write the distribution on the index).

$\Pr_{X,Y}(x, y)$  is the **mutual probability**, it is the probability that both  $x$  and  $y$  occur.

$\Pr_{X,Y}(x|y)$  is the **conditional probability**, it is the probability that  $x$  occurs knowing that  $y$  has occurred.

**Definition 6.1**  $X$  and  $Y$  are two **independent distributions** if

$$\forall_{x \in X, y \in Y} \Pr(x, y) = \Pr(x) \Pr(y)$$

By definition, we have that  $\Pr(x, y) = \Pr(x|y) \Pr(y) = \Pr(y|x) \Pr(x)$ . We can now deduce the following theorem

**Theorem 6.2** (*Bayes*)

$$\text{If } \Pr(y) > 0 \text{ then } \Pr(x|y) = \frac{\Pr(y|x) \Pr(x)}{\Pr(y)}$$

We can easily convince ourselves of the following corollary

**Corollary 6.3**  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent variables iff  $\forall_{x \in X, y \in Y}$

$$\Pr(x|y) = \Pr(x)$$

## 6.2 Shannon's information theory and entropy

Consider a random source  $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow 100110100111011\dots$ . We would like to characterize its output.  $\mathcal{S}$  outputs symbols with probabilities  $\Pr(0), \Pr(1)$ . How much uncertainty do we have about the output of this source (what is the entropy  $\mathbf{H}[\mathcal{S}]$  of  $\mathcal{S}$ )?

**Example 6.1**  $\mathcal{S}_0 \rightarrow 00000000\dots$  (always outputs 0), then  $\mathbf{H}[\mathcal{S}_0] = 0$ .

$\mathcal{S}_1 \rightarrow 11111111\dots$  (always outputs 1), then  $\mathbf{H}[\mathcal{S}_1] = 0$ .

$\mathcal{S}_U \rightarrow 100110100111011\dots$  (Independent and Uniform), then  $\mathbf{H}[\mathcal{S}_U] = 1$ .

In a more general case, how do we define  $\mathbf{H}[\mathcal{S}]$ ?

### 6.2.1 Entropy

The entropy of a source  $\mathcal{S}$  can be considered as the average length, in bits, needed to represent the output of  $\mathcal{S}$  (this was introduced in [?]).

**Example 6.2** Consider a random source  $\mathcal{S} \rightarrow a, b, c$ , where

$$\Pr(a) = 1/2, \Pr(b) = 1/4 = \Pr(c) = 1/4$$

and the coding  $a \rightarrow 0, b \rightarrow 10, c \rightarrow 11$  (a prefix coding), then the average length needed to represent the output of  $\mathcal{S}$  is

$$1/2 \cdot 1 \text{ bit} + 1/4 \cdot 2 \text{ bits} + 1/4 \cdot 2 \text{ bits} = 3/2 \text{ bits}.$$

More formally, we state the following definition of the entropy of a source  $\mathcal{S}$ , where the probabilities of the outputs are  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ ,

**Definition 6.4 (Entropy)**

$$\mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n] = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \lg \frac{1}{p_i} = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \lg p_i$$

where  $\lg$  represents the logarithm base 2. We assume in this definition that  $0 \lg 0 = 0$  (the real fact is that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \lg x = 0$ ).

Another way of defining the entropy is through the following set of properties

### 6.2.2 Properties of entropy

$\mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n]$ , where  $\sum_{i=1}^n p_i = 1$ , satisfies the following:

1.  $\mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n]$  is maximum when  $p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_n = 1/n$  (*the uniform distribution should have the greatest entropy...*).
2.  $\mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n] = \mathbf{H}[p_{\pi(1)}, p_{\pi(2)}, \dots, p_{\pi(n)}]$  for any permutation  $\pi$ .
3.  $\mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n] \geq 0$ , with  $= 0$  exactly if one  $p_i = 1$ .
4.  $\mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n, 0] = \mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n]$
5.  $\mathbf{H}\left[\underbrace{\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}}_n\right] \leq \mathbf{H}\left[\underbrace{\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n+1}, \dots, \frac{1}{n+1}}_{n+1}\right]$
6.  $\mathbf{H}[*]$  is continuous

**Theorem 6.5** *Let  $H'(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n)$  satisfy the above properties. There exists a constant  $\lambda$  such that*

$$H'(p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n) = \lambda \mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n].$$

### 6.2.3 Entropy of random variables

For a random variable  $X$  such that  $\Pr_X(x_1) = p_1, \dots, \Pr_X(x_n) = p_n$  we abuse notation and write  $\mathbf{H}[X]$  instead of  $\mathbf{H}[p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n]$ .

*Look ahead:* For a cryptosystem  $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$ , we will be interested in random variables  $P, K, C$  describing the uncertainty about the plaintext, ciphertext and key, and in  $\mathbf{H}[P|C]$  (uncertainty of the message given the ciphertext) and  $\mathbf{H}[K|C]$  (uncertainty of the encryption key given the ciphertext).

Now, a couple more theorems and definitions...

**Theorem 6.6**

$$\mathbf{H}[X, Y] \leq \mathbf{H}[X] + \mathbf{H}[Y]$$

(equal iff  $X$  and  $Y$  are mutually independent)

**Theorem 6.7**

$$\mathbf{H}[X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n] \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{H}[X_i]$$

(equal iff  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  are mutually independent)

### 6.3 Conditional Entropy

**Definition 6.8 (Conditional entropy)**

$$\mathbf{H}[X|Y = y] = - \sum_{x \in X} \Pr_{X|Y=y}(x) \lg \Pr_{X|Y=y}(x)$$

$$\mathbf{H}[X|Y] = \sum_{y \in Y} \Pr_Y(y) \mathbf{H}[X|Y = y]$$

$$= - \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} \Pr_Y(y) \Pr_{X|Y=y}(x) \lg \Pr_{X|Y=y}(x)$$

**Theorem 6.9**  $\mathbf{H}[X|Y] = 0$  exactly if  $X = f(Y)$  for some function  $f$ .

**Theorem 6.10**  $\mathbf{H}[X|Y] = \mathbf{H}[X]$  exactly if  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent.

**Theorem 6.11**

$$\mathbf{H}[X, Y] = \mathbf{H}[Y] + \mathbf{H}[X|Y]$$

and thus,  $\mathbf{H}[X|Y] \leq \mathbf{H}[X]$  (using Theorem 6.6), with equality iff  $X, Y$  are independent.

### 6.4 Mutual Information

**Definition 6.12**

$$\mathbf{I}[X; Y] = \mathbf{H}[X] - \mathbf{H}[X|Y]$$

**Theorem 6.13**

$$\mathbf{I}[X; Y] = \mathbf{I}[Y; X]$$

option vs vote	OUI	NON	und.
separation	30%	60%	10%
offer of partnership	39%	46%	15%
certainty of partnership	54%	35%	11%

## 6.5 Example:

$$\Pr[OPTION = \text{“separation”}] = 1/4$$

$$\Pr[OPTION = \text{“offer of partnership”}] = 1/2$$

$$\Pr[OPTION = \text{“certainty of partnership”}] = 1/4$$

$$\Pr[VOTE = \text{“OUI”}] = 40.5\%$$

$$\Pr[VOTE = \text{“NON”}] = 46.75\%$$

$$\Pr[VOTE = \text{“undec.”}] = 12.75\%$$

$$\mathbf{H}[VOTE] = -.405 \lg .405 - .4675 \lg .4675 - .1275 \lg .1275 = 1.4198$$

$$\mathbf{H}[OPTION] = -.25 \lg .25 - .5 \lg .5 - .25 \lg .25 = 1.5$$

$$\mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION = \text{“separation”}]$$

$$= -.3 \lg .3 - .6 \lg .6 - .1 \lg .1 = 1.2955$$

$$\mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION = \text{“offer of partnership”}]$$

$$= -.39 \lg .39 - .46 \lg .46 - .15 \lg .15 = 1.4557$$

$$\mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION = \text{“certainty of partnership”}]$$

$$= -.54 \lg .54 - .35 \lg .35 - .11 \lg .11 = 1.3604$$

$$\mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION] =$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION = \text{“separation”}]}{4} +$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION = \text{“offer of partnership”}]}{2} +$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION = \text{“certainty of partnership”}]}{4} =$$

$$\frac{1.2955}{4} + \frac{1.4557}{2} + \frac{1.3604}{4} = 1.3918$$

$$\mathbf{I}[VOTE; OPTION] = \mathbf{H}[VOTE] - \mathbf{H}[VOTE|OPTION]$$

$$= 1.4198 - 1.3918 = 0.0280$$

## 6.6 Jensens Lemma

The following theorem will be used to prove some more interesting statements about entropy functions. First, a preliminary definition.

**Definition 6.14** A real function  $f$  is said to be concave on an interval  $I$  if  $\forall x, y \in I$

$$f\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \geq \frac{f(x)+f(y)}{2}$$

**Theorem 6.15 (Jensens inequality)** If  $f$  is continuous and strictly concave on  $I$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i = 1$ ,  $a_i \geq 0$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , then,  $\forall x_i \in I$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i f(x_i) \leq f\left(\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x_i\right)$$

with equality iff  $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_n$

### 6.6.1 Application

**Theorem 6.16** if  $X$  takes values  $x_1$  with probability  $p_1$ ,  $x_2$  with probability  $p_2$ , ...,  $x_n$  with probability  $p_n$ , then

$$\mathbf{H}[X] \leq \lg n$$

(with equality when  $p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_n = 1/n$ )

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}[X] &= -\sum_{i=1}^n p_i \lg p_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \lg 1/p_i \\ &\leq \lg \sum_{i=1}^n p_i 1/p_i \\ &= \lg n \text{ (eq. when } p_1 = p_2 = \dots = p_n = 1/n) \end{aligned}$$

## 6.7 Perfect Secrecy, Key Equivocation, Unicity Distance

**Definition 6.17 (Perfect Secrecy)** Let  $P, K, C$  be random variables describing the uncertainty about the plaintext, ciphertext and key of a cryptosystem  $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$ . We say that a cryptosystem has perfect secrecy if  $\forall_{p \in \mathcal{P}, c \in \mathcal{C}} \Pr_{P,C}(p|c) = \Pr_P(p)$

**Example 6.3** Vernam's one-time pad has perfect secrecy. Here,  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{K} = \mathcal{C} = \{0, 1\}^n$ , with  $K$  the uniform distribution on  $\mathcal{K}$  (no distribution condition necessary on  $\mathcal{P}$ ). Encryption and decryption are given by  $e_k(p) = p \oplus k$ ,  $d_k(c) = c \oplus k$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{P,C}(p|c) &= \Pr_{P,C}(p|p \oplus k) \\ &= \Pr_P(p) \Pr_{P,C}(p \oplus k|p) / \Pr_C(p \oplus k) \text{ (Bayes)} \end{aligned}$$

for any fixed  $p$ ,  $p \oplus K$  is the uniform distribution, so  $\Pr_{P,C}(p \oplus k|p) = 1/2^n = \Pr_C(p \oplus k)$  and so

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr_{P,C}(p|c) &= \Pr_P(p) \frac{1}{2^n} / \frac{1}{2^n} \\ &= \Pr_P(p) \end{aligned}$$

An equivalent definition is the following

**Definition 6.18** Cryptosystem  $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  has perfect secrecy iff

$$\mathbf{H}[P|C] = \mathbf{H}[P]$$

**Theorem 6.19**

$$\mathbf{H}[C] \geq \mathbf{H}[P]$$

when  $K$  and  $P$  are independent.

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}[C] &\geq \mathbf{H}[C|K] \\ &= \mathbf{H}[C, K] - \mathbf{H}[K] \\ &= \mathbf{H}[P, K] - \mathbf{H}[K] \text{ (encryption function is bijective)} \\ &= \mathbf{H}[P] + \mathbf{H}[K|P] - \mathbf{H}[K] \text{ (Thm 6.11)} \\ &= \mathbf{H}[P] + \mathbf{H}[K] - \mathbf{H}[K] \text{ (we suppose } P, K \text{ independent)} \\ &= \mathbf{H}[P] \end{aligned}$$



We could also show the following

**Theorem 6.20** (*when we know the key...*)

$$\mathbf{H}[C|K] = \mathbf{H}[P|K]$$

**Theorem 6.21**

$$\mathbf{H}[P|C] \leq \mathbf{H}[K]$$

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H}[P|C] &\leq \mathbf{H}[P, K|C] \\ &= \underbrace{\mathbf{H}[P|K, C]}_0 + \mathbf{H}[K|C] \quad (\text{Bayes}) \\ &= \mathbf{H}[K|C] \\ &\leq \mathbf{H}[K] \end{aligned}$$

This shows that if there is not much doubt about the key, there can't be much doubt about the plaintext knowing the ciphertext.

**Definition 6.22 (key equivocation)**  $\mathbf{H}[K|C]$  is called the key equivocation, it is a measure of how much we know about the key, knowing the ciphertext.

**Theorem 6.23**

$$\mathbf{H}[K|C] = \mathbf{H}[K] + \mathbf{H}[P] - \mathbf{H}[C]$$

**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \mathbf{H}[K, P, C] &= \underbrace{\mathbf{H}[C|K, P]}_0 + \mathbf{H}[K, P] \\ &= \mathbf{H}[K, P] \\ &= \mathbf{H}[K] + \mathbf{H}[P] \quad (\text{by independence}) \\ (2) \mathbf{H}[K, P, C] &= \mathbf{H}[K, C] \quad (\text{because from } K \text{ and } C, \text{ we can induce } P) \end{aligned}$$

we conclude

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{H}[K|C] &= \mathbf{H}[K, C] - \mathbf{H}[C] \\
&= \mathbf{H}[K, P, C] - \mathbf{H}[C] \\
&= \mathbf{H}[K] + \mathbf{H}[P] - \mathbf{H}[C]
\end{aligned}$$

Let  $P^n = (P_1, \dots, P_n)$  be a distribution on  $n$ -grams of  $\mathcal{P}$ , and  $C^n = (C_1, \dots, C_n)$  be a distribution on  $n$ -grams of  $\mathcal{C}$ . Suppose that we are working in a cryptographic system  $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  where a plaintext  $x_1x_2 \dots x_n$  is encrypted into a ciphertext  $y_1y_2 \dots y_n$  by some permutation function. We want to know how much ciphered letters we have to see to know what the key is. The distribution depends on the language in use.

**Definition 6.24** *Rate of a Language  $L$*

$$H_L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbf{H}[P^n]}{n}$$

For english we have  $1 \leq H_L \leq 1.5$

**Definition 6.25** *Redondancy of language  $L$*

$$R_L = 1 - \frac{H_L}{\lg |\mathcal{P}|}$$

If we take 1,25 as an estimation of  $H_L$  in english, we have a redondancy of 0.75.

For a  $c \in \mathcal{C}$ , it is possible that many keys can be found such that there exists plaintexts that encrypt to  $c$ .

**Definition 6.26 (Spurious Keys)** *Given some  $c \in C^n$ , we define*

$$K(c) = \{k \in \mathcal{K} | \exists_x \in \mathcal{P}^n, \Pr_{P^n}(x) > 0 \text{ and } c = e_k(x)\}$$

Finally we can define the notion of unicity distance, which is a measure of the amount of ciphered letters we have to see to know, without doubt, the unique key that was used.

**Definition 6.27** (*Unicity Distance*)

$$\overline{S}_n = \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}^n} \Pr(c)(|K(c)| - 1)$$

We are interested in knowing for what value of  $n$  will  $\overline{S}_n = 0$ .

**Theorem 6.28** ([?]) *For large  $n$ ,*

$$\overline{S}_n \geq \frac{|\mathcal{K}|}{|\mathcal{P}|^{nR_L}} - 1$$

If we take  $\overline{S}_n = 0$  and solve for  $n$  we get

$$n \geq \frac{\lg |\mathcal{K}|}{R_L \lg |\mathcal{P}|}$$

**Example 6.4** • *Shift Cipher*

$$|\mathcal{P}| = 26, |\mathcal{K}| = 26, R_L = 0.75, n \geq 1/R_L = 4/3$$

• *Substitution Cipher*

$$|\mathcal{K}| = 26!, \lg 26! \approx 88.4, n \geq \frac{88.4}{0.75 \cdot 4.7} \approx 25$$

• *One-Time Pad*

$$|\mathcal{K}| = 26^n, \lg 26^n = n \lg 26, n \geq \frac{n \lg 26}{0.75 \lg 26} = n/0.75 \text{ (} n = 0 \text{ is the only solution!).}$$