

Shannon's Theory (contd.)

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Theorem

- Let (P, C, K, D, E) be an encryption algorithm.

Then

$$- H(K|C) = H(K) + H(P) - H(C)$$

- **Proof:** $H(P, K) = H(C, K)$ [why?]

$$\text{or, } H(P) + H(K) = H(K|C) + H(C)$$

$$\text{or, } H(K|C) = H(K) + H(P) - H(C)$$

*Equivocation (ambiguity)
of key given the ciphertext*

Perfect vs Ideal Ciphers

- **$H(P)=H(C)$, then we have $H(K|C)=H(K)$**
 - That is the uncertainty of the key given the cryptogram is the same as that of the key without the cryptogram.
- ***Such kinds of ciphers are called “ideal ciphers”***
 - For perfect ciphers, we had $H(P)=H(P|C)$ or, equivalently $H(C)=H(C|P)$

Perfect vs Ideal Ciphers

- For perfect ciphers, the key size is infinite if the message size is infinite.
 - however if a shorter key size is used then the cipher can be attacked by someone with infinite computational power.
- Thus, $H(K|C)$ gives us this idea of security (or, insecurity)...

Unicity and Brute Force Attack

- Q: How to protect data against a brute force attacker with infinite computation power?
 - Shannon defined “**unicity distance**” (we shall call it unicity), as the least amount of plaintext which can be deciphered uniquely from the corresponding ciphertext: given unbounded resources by the attacker.
 - Often measured in units of bytes, letters, symbols.

An Important Point

- A common misconception: “any cipher can be attacked by exhaustively trying all possible keys”:
- Thus DES which has a 56 bit key can also be broken by brute force.
 - But if the cipher is used within its unicity then even DES is theoretically secured, like the One Time Pad (OTP).

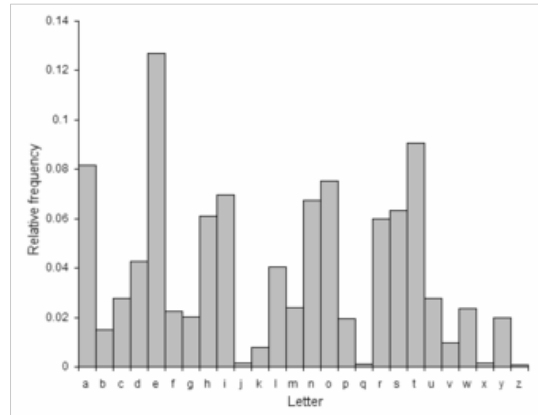
Spurious Keys

- Thus, $H(K|C)$ is the amount of uncertainty that remains of the key after the cipher text is revealed.
 - We know, it is called the key equivocation
- Attacker to guess the key from the ciphertext shall guess the key and decrypt the cipher.
- He checks whether the plaintext obtained is “meaningful” English. If not, he rules out the key.
- But due to the redundancy of language more than one key will pass this test.
- Those keys, apart from the correct key, are called spurious.

Entropy of Plain Text

- H_L : measure of the amount of information per letter of “meaningful” strings of plaintext.
- A random string of plaintext formed using English letter has an entropy of $\log_2|26| \approx 4.76$
- But English letters have a probability distribution.

Frequency of English letters



A first order entropy of the English text is $H(P) \approx 4.19$

Higher Order Approximations

- A large number of digrams are tabulated and $H(P^2)$ is computed.
- The value is divided by 2 to obtain a second order approximation, $H(P^2)/2 \approx 3.90$
- One could continue obtain trigrams, etc and compute higher order approximations for the entropy.

In general...

- Successive letters have correlation, which reduces the entropy.
- Define P_n to be the random variable that has a probability distribution of n-grams of plaintext
- Define H_L as the **entropy of a natural language** L:

$$H_L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{H(P_n)}{n}$$

Redundancy

Fraction of
"excess
letters"

$$R_L = 1 - \frac{H_L}{\log_2 |P|}$$

Entropy of the
language

Entropy of the
random
language

**For English Language, $1 \leq H_L \leq 1.5$.
Considering $H_L = 1.25$, and $|P| = 26$,
 $R_L \approx 0.75$.**

**English Language is 75%
redundant.**

A lower Bound of equivocation of key

- P^n : r.v representing n-gram plaintext
- C^n : r.v representing n-gram ciphertext
- $H(K|C^n) = H(K) + H(P^n) - H(C^n)$
 - $H(P^n) \approx nH_L$ (assuming large n)
 - $= n(1 - R_L) \log_2 |P|$
 - $H(C^n) \leq n \log_2 |C|$
- If $|P| = |C|$,
 - $H(K|C^n) \geq H(K) - nR_L \log_2 |P|$

Possible Keys

- Define, $K(y) = \{\text{possible keys given that } y \text{ is the ciphertext}\}$
 - that is $K(y)$ is the set of those keys for which y is the ciphertext for meaningful plaintexts
- When y is the ciphertext, number of keys is $|K(y)|$
- Out of them, only one is correct. Rest are spurious.
- So, number of spurious keys $= |K(y)| - 1$

Expected number of spurious keys

- Expected number of spurious keys=average number of spurious keys over all possible ciphertexts is denoted by s_n .

$$\begin{aligned} s_n &= \sum_{y \in C^n} p(y)(|K(y)| - 1) \\ &= \left(\sum_{y \in C^n} p(y) |K(y)| \right) - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Computing the upper bound of equivocation of key

$$\begin{aligned} H(K | C^n) &= \sum_{y \in C^n} p(y) H(K | y) \\ &\leq \sum_{y \in C^n} p(y) H(K(y)) \\ &\leq \sum_{y \in C^n} p(y) \log_2(|K(y)|) \\ &\leq \log_2 \left(\sum_{y \in C^n} p(y) |K(y)| \right) = \log_2(s_n + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Lower Bound of spurious keys

- Combining the previous results:

$$\begin{aligned} H(K) - nR_L \log_2 |P| &\leq \log_2(s_n + 1) \\ \therefore \log_2(s_n + 1) &\geq H(K) - nR_L \log_2 |P| \end{aligned}$$

- If the keys are chosen equi-probably:

$H(K) = \log_2 |K|$. Hence, we have:

$$s_n \geq \frac{|K|}{|P|^{nR_L}} - 1$$

Unicity Distance

- Thus increasing n , reduces the number of spurious keys.
- Unicity Distance** is the number of ciphertexts, n_0 for which the number of spurious keys is reduced to zero.

$$n \geq n_0 = \frac{\log_2 |K|}{R_L \log_2 |P|}$$

This calculation may not be accurate for small values of n

Unicity Distance for Substitution Ciphers

- $|P|=26$
- $|K|=26! \approx 4 \times 10^{26}$, $R_L=0.75$
- $n_0=25$ (approx)
- Given a ciphertext string of length 25, it is possible to predict the correct key uniquely
 - Thus key size alone does not guarantee security, if brute force is possible to an attacker with infinite computational power.

Idea of Product Ciphers

- Another innovation introduced by Shannon in 1949 was the idea of forming “product”
- The idea is of fundamental importance and is used even for the present day standard, Advanced Encryption Standard.

Endomorphic Ciphers

- If $P=C$, then we have an endomorphic cipher.
- Thus the shift cipher on English alphabets is an endomorphic cipher.

What we have learnt from history?

- **Observation:** If we have an endomorphic cipher $C_1=(P,P,K1,e1,d1)$ and a cipher $C_2(P,P,K2,e2,d2)$.
- We define the product cipher as $C_1 \times C_2$ by the process of first applying C_1 and then C_2
- Thus $C_1 \times C_2=(P,P,K1 \times K2,e,d)$
- Any key is of the form: $(k1,k2)$
and $e=e_2(e_1(x,k1),k2)$. Likewise d is defined.

Note that the product rule is always associative

Question:

- Thus if we compute product of ciphers, does the cipher become stronger?
 - The key space become larger
 - 2nd Thought: Does it really become larger.
- Let us consider the product of a
 1. multiplicative cipher (M): $y=ax$, where a is co-prime to 26 //Plain Texts are characters
 2. shift cipher (S) : $y=x + k$

Is $M \times S = S \times M$?

- $M \times S$: $y=ax+k$: key=(a,k). This is an affine cipher, as total size of key space is 312.
- $S \times M$: $y=a(x+k)=ax+ak$
 - Now, since $\gcd(a,26)=1$, this is also an affine cipher.
 - key = (a,ak)
 - As $\gcd(a,26)=1$, a^{-1} exists. There is a one-one relation between ak and k . Thus the total size of the key space in $S \times M$ is still 312. Thus this is also the affine cipher
- Thus S and M are commutative.

Idempotent Cipher

- M is a permutation cipher.
- S is a substitution cipher.
- Composed cipher has a larger key but no extra security.
- If we had computed $M \times M$ or $S \times S$, would that have lead to the increase of key space?
No.
 - This is because $S \times S = S$ and $M \times M = M$
 - These are called idempotent ciphers

Inference

- Thus there is no point of obtaining products of idempotent functions.
- Rather we would get “product ciphers” from non-idempotent ciphers
 - That is by iterating them (rounds)
- How to make non-idempotent functions?
 - Compose two small different cryptosystems which do not commute

Why?

- If there are two cryptosystems which are idempotent and also commute then their product is also idempotent.
- $(S_1 \times S_2) \times (S_1 \times S_2) = S_1 \times (S_2 \times S_1) \times S_2$
 $= S_1 \times (S_1 \times S_2) \times S_2$
 $= (S_1 \times S_1) \times (S_2 \times S_2)$
 $= S_1 \times S_2$

Thus, $M \times S$ is also idempotent. Why?

Thus, composing $M \times S$ does not help.

Concept of Rounds

- Consider : $S=f(x)$ and $P=x+k$
- What is $S \times P$? $f(x)+k$
- What is $(S \times P) \times (S \times P)$? $f(f(x)+k)+k$
 - For this multiplication to increase the key length, thus $S \times P$ should not be idempotent.
 - that is $f(f(x)+k)+k \neq f^2(x)+k'$
 - This happens if f is non-linear wrt. $+$
 - **Hence we compose linear and non-linear functions to increase the security of a cipher**

Assignment

- Show that the unicity distance of the Hill Cipher (with an $m \times m$ encryption matrix) is less than m/R_L .

Further Reading

- C. E. Shannon, *Communication Theory of Secrecy Systems*. Bell Systems Technical Journal, 28(1949), 656-715
- Douglas Stinson, *Cryptography Theory and Practice, 2nd Edition*, Chapman & Hall/CRC

Next Day's Topic

- Symmetric Key Ciphers:
 - Block Ciphers
 - Stream Ciphers