

EE309 Advanced Programming Techniques for EE

Lecture 18: Pseudorandomness

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Core principles of modern crypto

- Formal definitions
 - Precise, mathematical model and definition of what security means
- Assumptions
 - Clearly stated and unambiguous
- Proofs of security
 - Move away from design-break-patch

Defining secure encryption

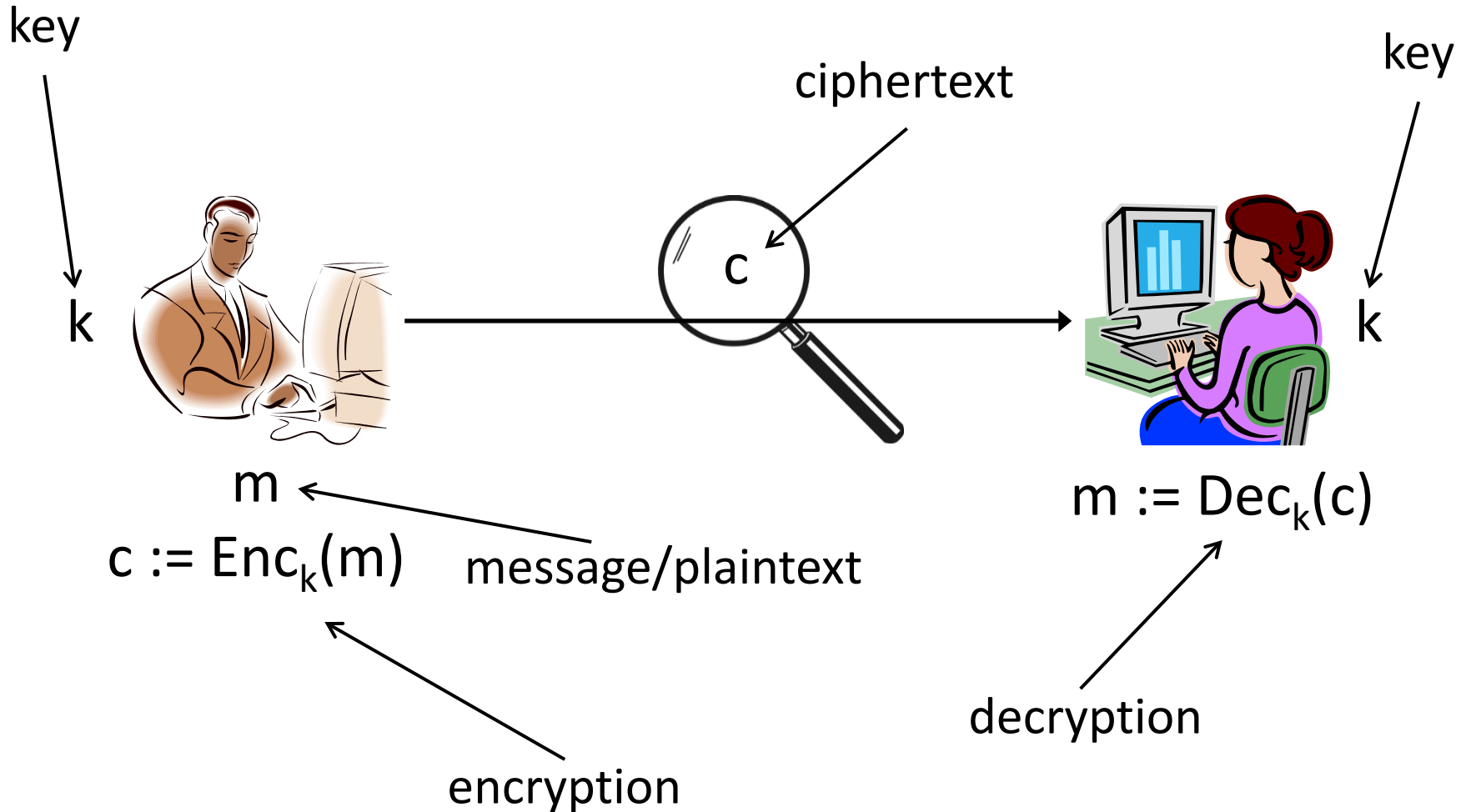
Crypto definitions (generally)

- Security guarantee/goal
 - What we want to achieve (or what we want to prevent the attacker from achieving)
- Threat model
 - What (real-world) capabilities the attacker is assumed to have

Recall

- A *private-key encryption scheme* is defined by a message space \mathcal{M} and algorithms (Gen, Enc, Dec):
 - Gen (key-generation algorithm): generates k
 - Enc (encryption algorithm): takes key k and message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ as input; outputs ciphertext c
$$c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_k(m)$$
 - Dec (decryption algorithm): takes key k and ciphertext c as input; outputs m .
$$m := \text{Dec}_k(c)$$

Private-key encryption



Goal of secure encryption?

- How would you define what it means for encryption scheme (Gen, Enc, Dec) over message space \mathcal{M} to be secure?
 - Against a (single) ciphertext-only attack

Secure encryption?

- “Impossible for the attacker to learn the key”
 - The key is a *means to an end*, not the end itself
 - Necessary (to some extent) but not sufficient
 - Easy to design an encryption scheme that hides the key completely, but is insecure
 - Can design schemes where most of the key is leaked, but the scheme is still secure

Secure encryption?

- “Impossible for the attacker to learn the plaintext from the ciphertext”
 - What if the attacker learns 90% of the plaintext?

The right definition

- “Regardless of any *prior* information the attacker has about the plaintext, the ciphertext should leak no *additional* information about the plaintext”
 - How to formalize?

Perfect secrecy

Probability review

- *Random variable (r.v.):* variable that takes on (discrete) values with certain probabilities
- Probability distribution for a r.v. specifies the probabilities with which the variable takes on each possible value
 - Each probability must be between 0 and 1
 - The probabilities must sum to 1

Probability review

- *Event*: a particular occurrence in some experiment
 - $\Pr[E]$: probability of event E
- Conditional probability: probability that one event occurs, *given that* some other event occurred
 - $\Pr[A \mid B] = \Pr[A \text{ and } B] / \Pr[B]$
- Two random variables X, Y are *independent* if for all x, y : $\Pr[X=x \mid Y=y] = \Pr[X=x]$

Probability review

- Law of total probability: say E_1, \dots, E_n are a *partition* of all possibilities. Then for any A:

$$\Pr[A] = \sum_i \Pr[A \text{ and } E_i] = \sum_i \Pr[A \mid E_i] \cdot \Pr[E_i]$$

- Bayes's theorem

$$\Pr[A \mid B] = \Pr[B \mid A] \cdot \Pr[A] / \Pr[B]$$

Probability distributions

- Let M be the random variable denoting the value of the message
 - M ranges over \mathcal{M}
 - Context dependent!
 - Reflects the likelihood of different messages being sent, given the attacker's prior knowledge
 - E.g.,
 - $\Pr[M = \text{"attack today"}] = 0.7$
 - $\Pr[M = \text{"don't attack"}] = 0.3$

Probability distributions

- Fix some encryption scheme (Gen, Enc, Dec), and some distribution for M
- Consider the following (randomized) experiment:
 1. Generate a key k using Gen
 2. Choose a message m , according to the given distribution
 3. Compute $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_k(m)$
- Let C be a random variable denoting the value of the ciphertext in this experiment
- This defines a distribution on the ciphertext!

Perfect secrecy (informal)

- “Regardless of any *prior* information the attacker has about the plaintext, the ciphertext should leak no *additional* information about the plaintext”

Perfect secrecy (formal)

- Encryption scheme (Gen, Enc, Dec) with message space \mathcal{M} and ciphertext space C is *perfectly secret* if for every distribution over \mathcal{M} , every $m \in \mathcal{M}$, and every $c \in C$ with $\Pr[C=c] > 0$, it holds that

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

- I.e., the distribution of M does not change conditioned on observing the ciphertext

Example 3

- Consider the shift cipher, and the distribution $\Pr[M = \text{'one'}] = \frac{1}{2}$, $\Pr[M = \text{'ten'}] = \frac{1}{2}$
- Take $m = \text{'ten'}$ and $c = \text{'rqh'}$
- $\Pr[M = \text{'ten'} \mid C = \text{'rqh'}] = ?$
= 0
 $\neq \Pr[M = \text{'ten'}]$

Conclusion

- The shift cipher is not perfectly secret!
 - At least not for 2-character messages
- How to construct a perfectly secret scheme?
 - One-time pad (proven by Shannon in 1949)

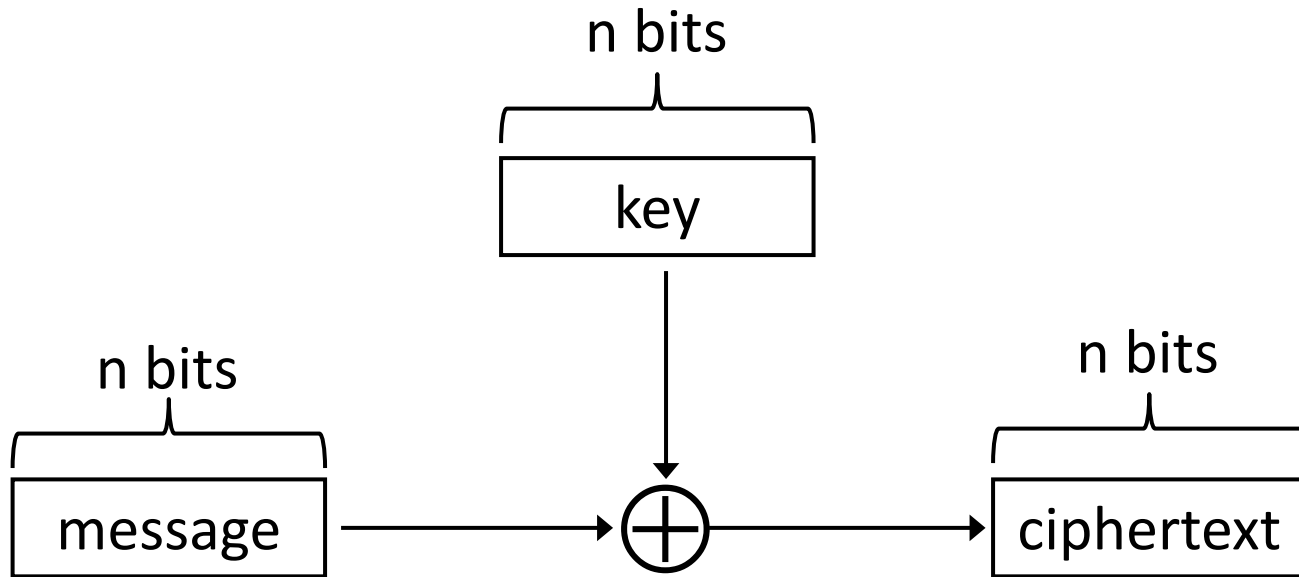
One-time pad

- Let $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^n$
- Gen: choose a uniform key $k \in \{0,1\}^n$
- $\text{Enc}_k(m) = k \oplus m$
- $\text{Dec}_k(c) = k \oplus c$

- Correctness:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Dec}_k(\text{Enc}_k(m)) &= k \oplus (k \oplus m) \\ &= (k \oplus k) \oplus m = m\end{aligned}$$

One-time pad



Perfect secrecy of one-time pad

- Fix arbitrary distribution over $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^n$, and arbitrary $m, c \in \{0,1\}^n$
- $\Pr[M = m \mid C = c] = ?$
 $= \Pr[C = c \mid M = m] \cdot \Pr[M = m] / \Pr[C = c]$
- $\Pr[C = c]$
 $= \sum_{m'} \Pr[C = c \mid M = m'] \cdot \Pr[M = m']$
 $= \sum_{m'} \Pr[K = m' \oplus c \mid M = m'] \cdot \Pr[M = m']$
 $= \sum_{m'} 2^{-n} \cdot \Pr[M = m']$
 $= 2^{-n}$

Perfect secrecy of one-time pad

- Fix arbitrary distribution over $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^n$, and arbitrary $m, c \in \{0,1\}^n$
- $\Pr[M = m \mid C = c] = ?$
 - = $\Pr[C = c \mid M = m] \cdot \Pr[M = m] / \Pr[C = c]$
 - = $\Pr[K = m \oplus c \mid M = m] \cdot \Pr[M = m] / 2^{-n}$
 - = $2^{-n} \cdot \Pr[M = m] / 2^{-n}$
 - = $\Pr[M = m]$

One-time pad

- The one-time pad achieves perfect secrecy!
- One-time pad has historically been used in the real world
 - E.g., “red phone” between DC and Moscow
- Not currently used!
 - Why not?

One-time pad

- Several limitations
 - The key is as long as the message
 - Only secure if each key is used to encrypt a *single* message
 - (Trivially broken by a known-plaintext attack)
- ⇒ Parties must share keys of (total) length equal to the (total) length of all the messages they might ever send

Optimality of the one-time pad

- Theorem: if $(\text{Gen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ with message space \mathcal{M} is perfectly secret, then $|\mathcal{K}| \geq |\mathcal{M}|$.

Where do we stand?

- We defined the notion of perfect secrecy
- We proved that the one-time pad achieves it!
- We proved that the one-time pad is optimal!
 - I.e., we cannot improve the key length
- Are we done?

- Do better *by relaxing the definition*
 - But in a meaningful way...

Perfect secrecy

- Requires that *absolutely no information* about the plaintext is leaked, even to eavesdroppers *with unlimited computational power*
 - Has some inherent drawbacks
 - Seems unnecessarily strong

Computational secrecy

- Would be ok if a scheme leaked information *with tiny probability* to eavesdroppers *with bounded computational resources*
- I.e., we can relax perfect secrecy by
 - Allowing security to “fail” with tiny probability
 - Restricting attention to “efficient” attackers

Bounded attackers?

- Consider brute-force search of key space; assume one key can be tested per clock cycle
- Desktop computer $\approx 2^{57}$ keys/year
- Supercomputer $\approx 2^{80}$ keys/year
- Supercomputer since Big Bang $\approx 2^{112}$ keys
 - Restricting attention to attackers who can try 2^{112} keys is fine!
- Modern key space: 2^{128} keys or more...

Roadmap

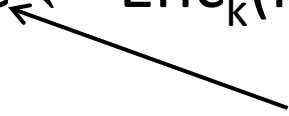
- We will give an alternate (but equivalent) definition of perfect secrecy
 - Using a randomized experiment
- That definition has a natural relaxation
- **Warning:** the material gets much more difficult now

Perfect indistinguishability

- Let $\Pi=(\text{Gen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be an encryption scheme with message space \mathcal{M} , and A an adversary
- Define a randomized exp't $\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}$:
 1. A outputs $m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}$
 2. $k \leftarrow \text{Gen}, b \leftarrow \{0,1\}, c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_k(m_b)$
 3. $b' \leftarrow A(c)$

Adversary A *succeeds* if $b = b'$, and we say the experiment evaluates to 1 in this case

Challenge ciphertext



Perfect indistinguishability

- Easy to succeed with probability $\frac{1}{2}$...
- Π is *perfectly indistinguishable* if for all attackers (algorithms) A , it holds that

$$\Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi} = 1] = \frac{1}{2}$$

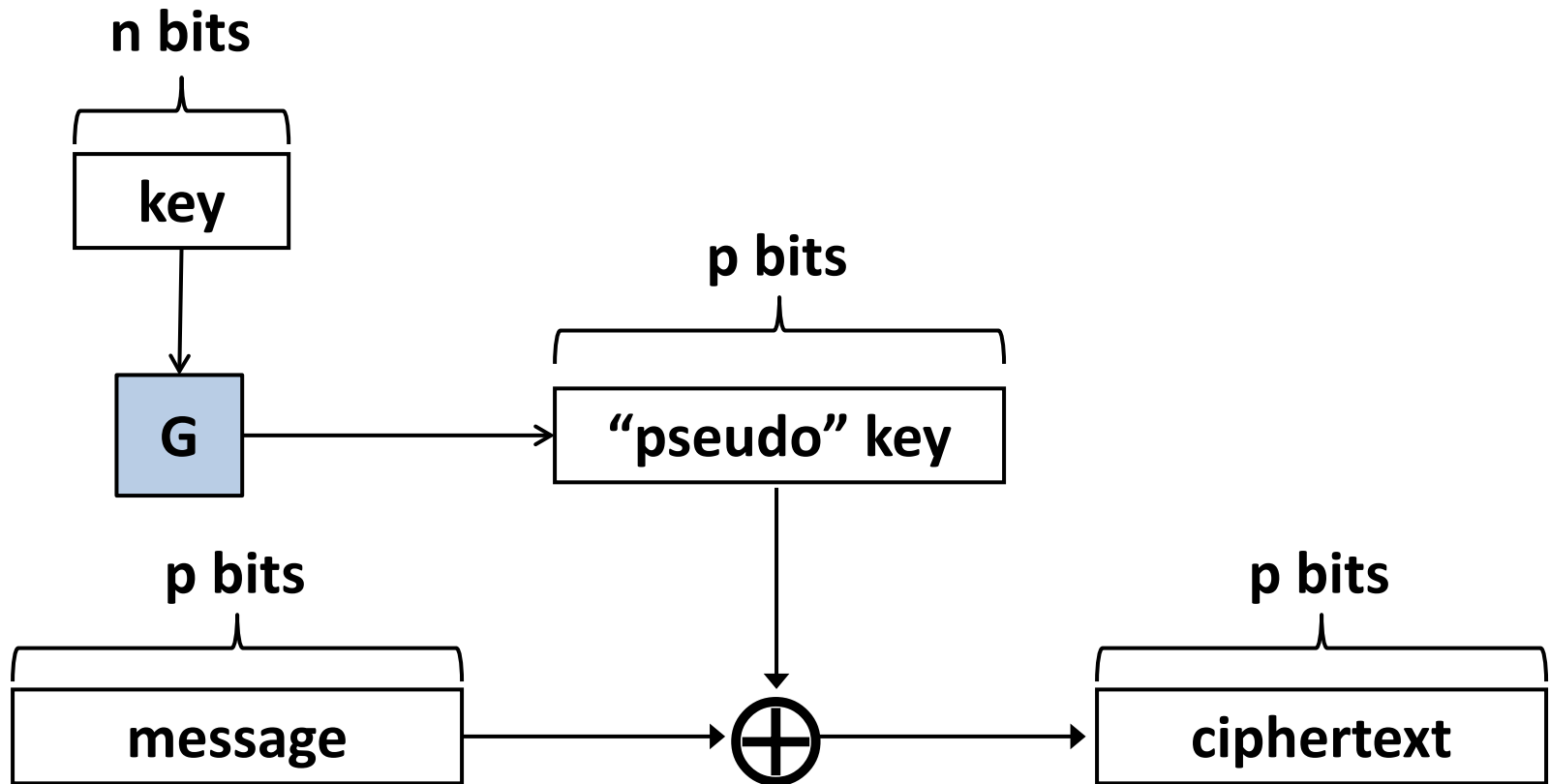
Computational indistinguishability (concrete version)

- Π is (t, ε) -*indistinguishable* if for all attackers A running in time at most t , it holds that

$$\Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi} = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$$

- Note: $(\infty, 0)$ -indistinguishable = perfect indistinguishability
 - Relax definition by taking $t < \infty$ and $\varepsilon > 0$

“Pseudo” one-time pad (i.e., Stream cipher)



Pseudorandomness

Pseudorandomness

- Important building block for computationally secure encryption
- Important concept in cryptography

What does “random” mean?

- What does “uniform” mean?
- Which of the following is a uniform string?
 - 0101010101010101
 - 0010111011100110
 - 0000000000000000
- If we generate a uniform 16-bit string, each of the above occurs with probability 2^{-16}

What does “uniform” mean?

- “Uniformity” is not a property of a *string*, but a property of a *distribution*
- A distribution on n -bit strings is a function $D: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow [0,1]$ such that $\sum_x D(x) = 1$
 - The *uniform* distribution on n -bit strings, denoted U_n , assigns probability 2^{-n} to every $x \in \{0,1\}^n$

What does “pseudorandom” mean?

- Informal: cannot be distinguished from uniform (i.e., random)
- Which of the following is pseudorandom?
 - 0101010101010101
 - 0010111011100110
 - 0000000000000000
- Pseudorandomness is a property of a *distribution*, not a *string*

Pseudorandomness (take 1)

- Fix some distribution D on n -bit strings
 - $x \leftarrow D$ means “sample x according to D ”
- Historically, D was considered pseudorandom if it “passed a bunch of statistical tests”
 - $\Pr_{x \leftarrow D}[\text{1st bit of } x \text{ is } 1] \approx \frac{1}{2}$
 - $\Pr_{x \leftarrow D}[\text{parity of } x \text{ is } 1] \approx \frac{1}{2}$
 - $\Pr_{x \leftarrow D}[\text{Test}_i(x)=1] \approx \Pr_{x \leftarrow U_n}[\text{Test}_i(x)=1]$ for $i = 1, \dots$

Pseudorandomness (take 2)

- This is not sufficient in an adversarial setting!
 - Who knows what statistical test an attacker will use?
- Cryptographic def'n of pseudorandomness:
 - D is pseudorandom if it passes all *efficient* statistical tests

Pseudorandomness (concrete)

- Let D be a distribution on p -bit strings
- D is (t, ε) -pseudorandom if for all A running in time at most t ,

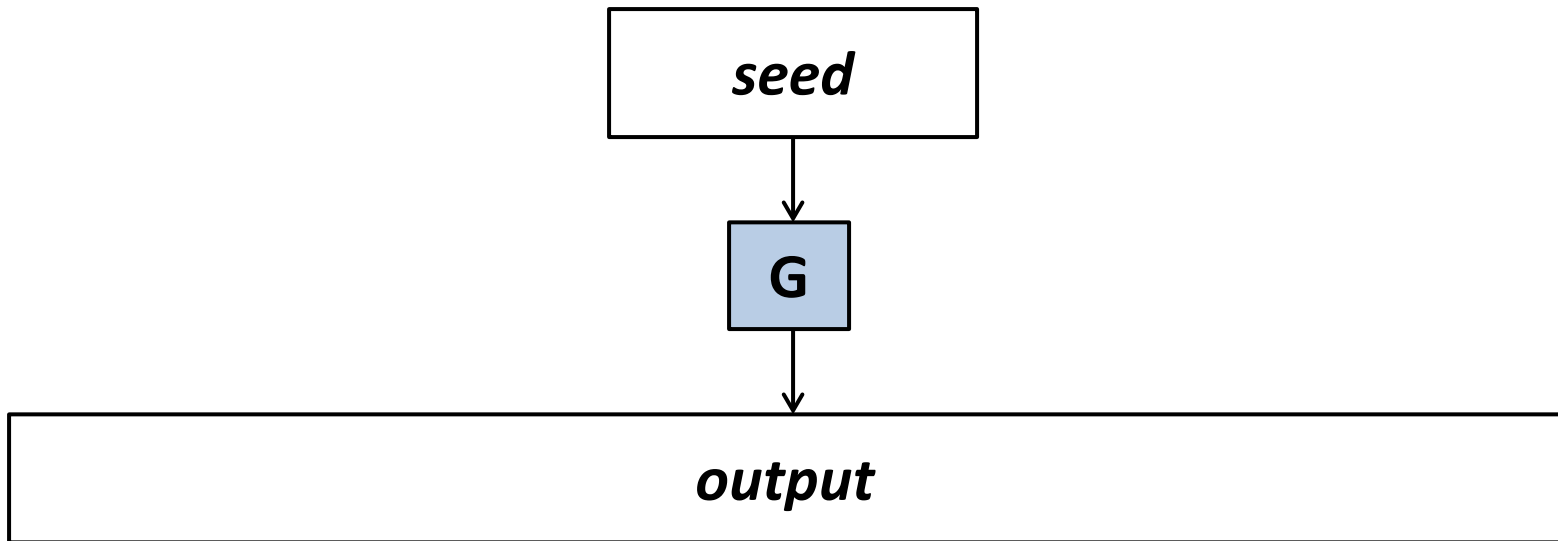
$$| \Pr_{x \leftarrow D}[A(x)=1] - \Pr_{x \leftarrow U_p}[A(x)=1] | \leq \varepsilon$$

Pseudorandom generators (PRGs)

- A PRG is an efficient, deterministic algorithm that expands a *short, uniform seed* into a *longer, pseudorandom* output
 - Useful whenever you have a “small” number of true random bits, and want lots of “random-looking” bits

PRGs

- Let G be a deterministic, poly-time algorithm that is *expanding*, i.e., $|G(x)| = p(|x|) > |x|$



PRGs

- G is a PRG iff $\{D_n\}$ is pseudorandom
 - D_n = the distribution on $p(n)$ -bit strings defined by choosing $x \leftarrow U_n$ and outputting $G(x)$
- I.e., for all efficient distinguishers A , there is a negligible function ε such that
$$\left| \Pr_{x \leftarrow U_n}[A(G(x))=1] - \Pr_{y \leftarrow U_{p(n)}}[A(y)=1] \right| \leq \varepsilon(n)$$
- I.e., no efficient A can distinguish whether it is given $G(x)$ (for uniform x) or a uniform string y !

Example (insecure PRG)

- Let $G(x) = 0\dots 0$
 - Distinguisher?
 - Analysis?

Example (insecure PRG)

- Let $G(x) = x \parallel \text{OR}(\text{bits of } x)$
 - Distinguisher?
 - Analysis?

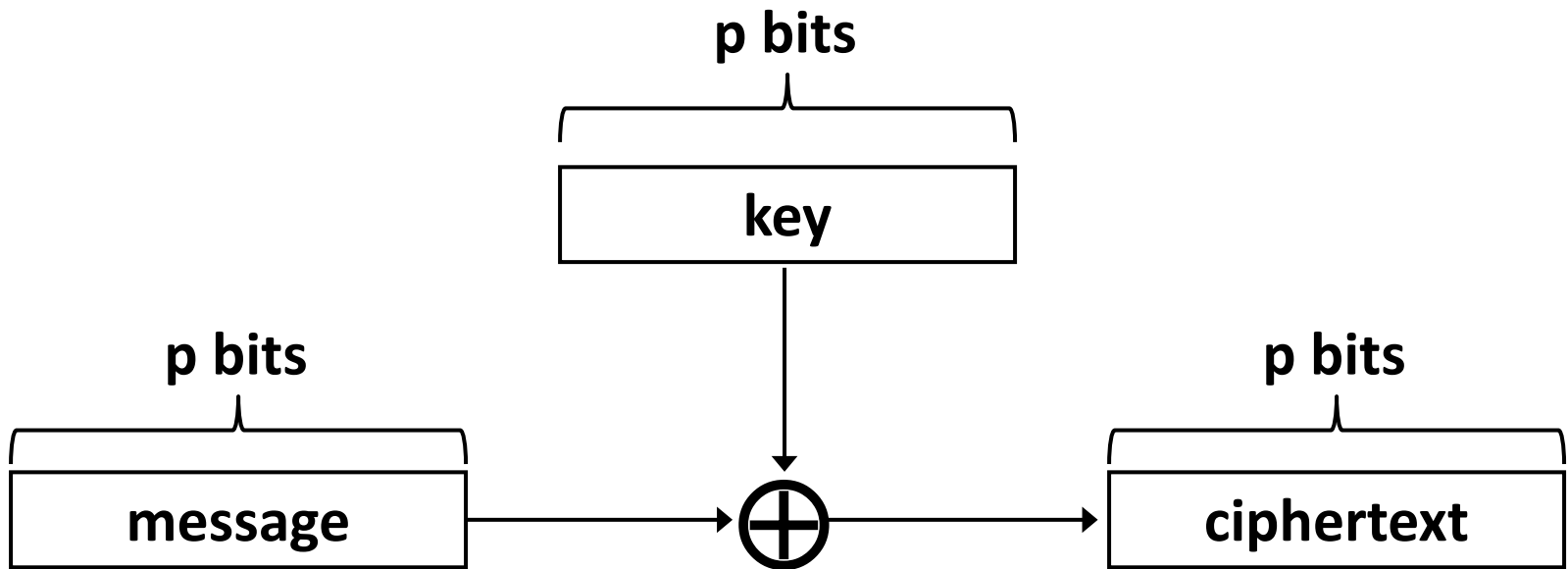
Do PRGs exist?

- We don't know...
 - Would imply $P \neq NP$
- We will *assume* certain algorithms are PRGs
 - Recall the 3 principles of modern crypto...
 - This is what is done in practice

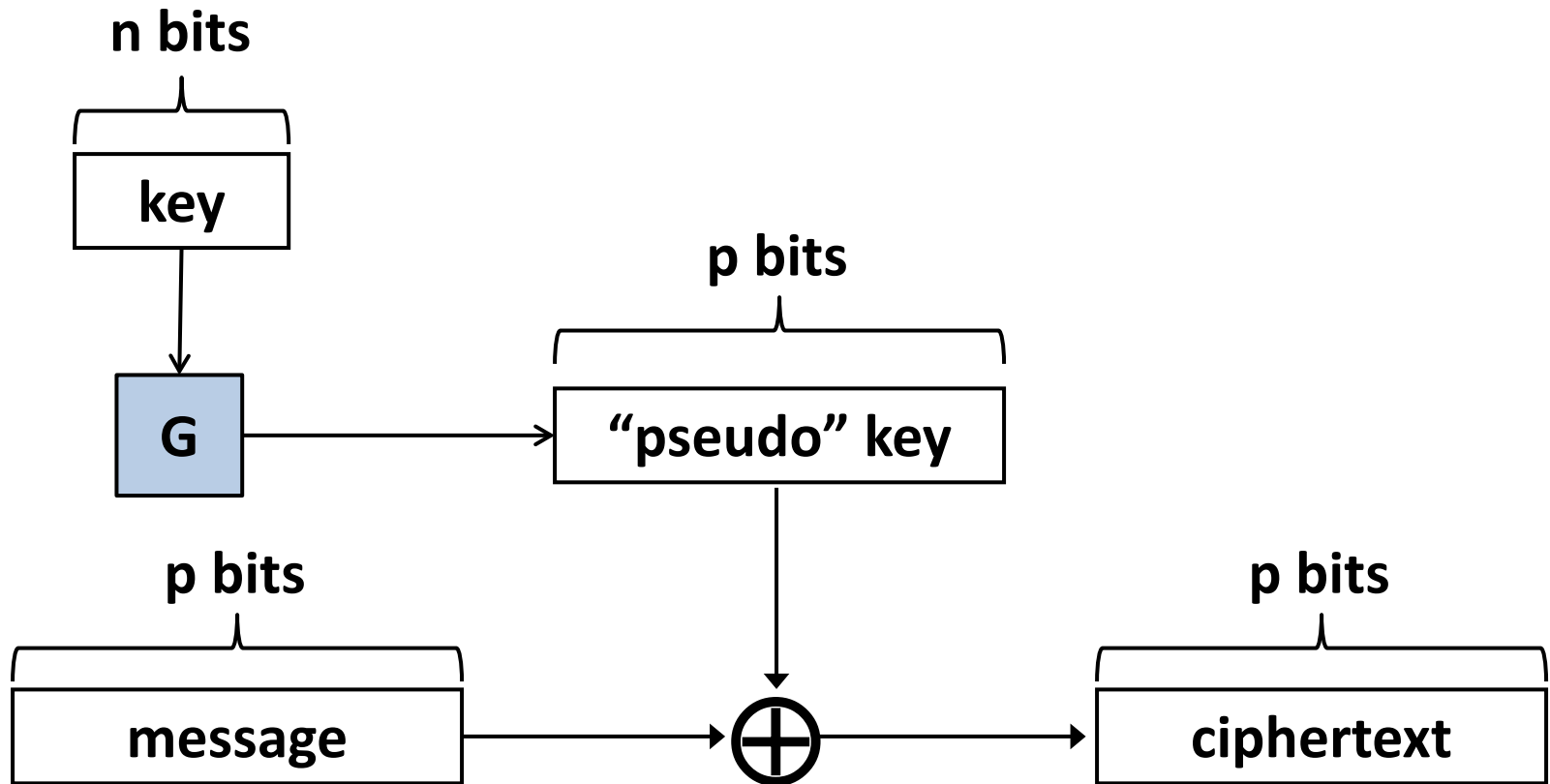
Where things stand

- We saw that there are some inherent limitations if we want perfect secrecy
 - In particular, key must be as long as the message
- We defined computational secrecy, a relaxed notion of security
- Can we overcome prior limitations?

Recall: one-time pad



“Pseudo” one-time pad



Pseudo one-time pad

- Let G be a deterministic algorithm, with $|G(k)| = p(|k|)$
- $\text{Gen}(1^n)$: output uniform n -bit key k
 - Security parameter $n \Rightarrow$ message space $\{0,1\}^{p(n)}$
- $\text{Enc}_k(m)$: output $G(k) \oplus m$
- $\text{Dec}_k(c)$: output $G(k) \oplus c$
- Correctness is obvious...

Security of pseudo-OTP?

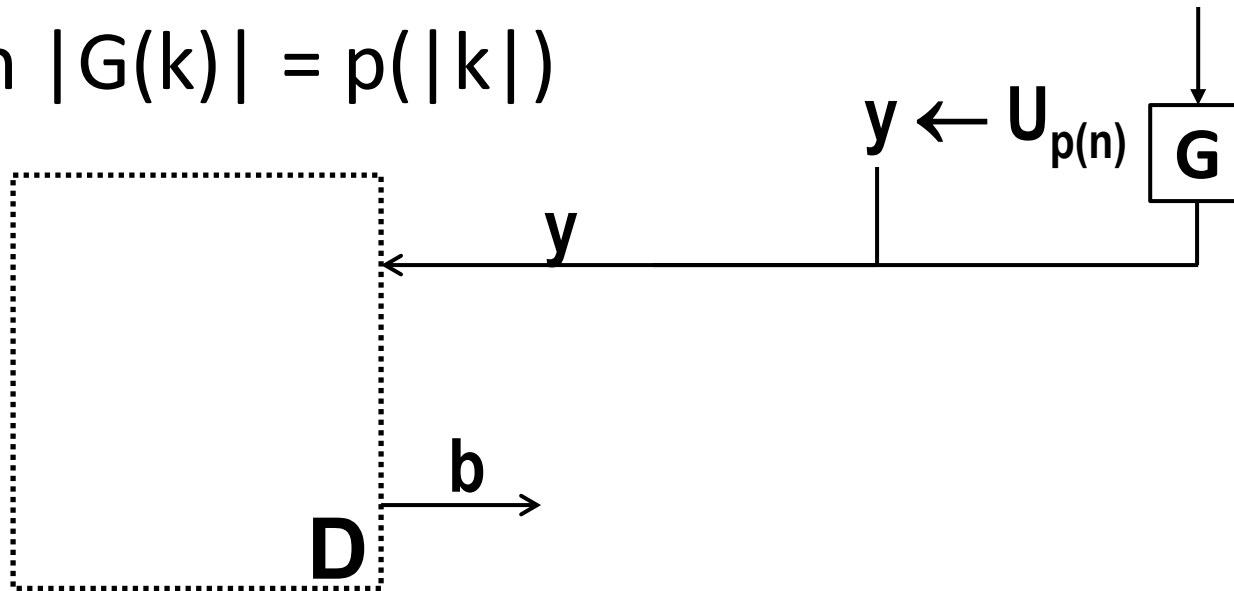
- Would like to be able to *prove* security
 - Based on the *assumption* that G is a PRG

Definitions, proofs, and assumptions

- *We've defined* computational secrecy
- Our goal is to *prove* that the pseudo OTP meets that definition
- We cannot prove this unconditionally
 - Beyond our current techniques...
 - Anyway, security clearly depends on G
- *Can* prove security based on *the assumption* that G is a pseudorandom generator

PRGs, revisited

- Let G be an efficient, deterministic function $k \in \mathcal{K}_n$ with $|G(k)| = p(|k|)$



For any efficient D , the probabilities that D outputs 1 in each case must be “close”

Proof by reduction

1. Assume G is a pseudorandom generator
2. Assume toward a contradiction that there is an efficient attacker A who “breaks” the pseudo-OTP scheme (as per the definition)
3. Use A as a subroutine to build an efficient D that “breaks” pseudorandomness of G
 - By assumption, no such D exists!

\Rightarrow No such A can exist

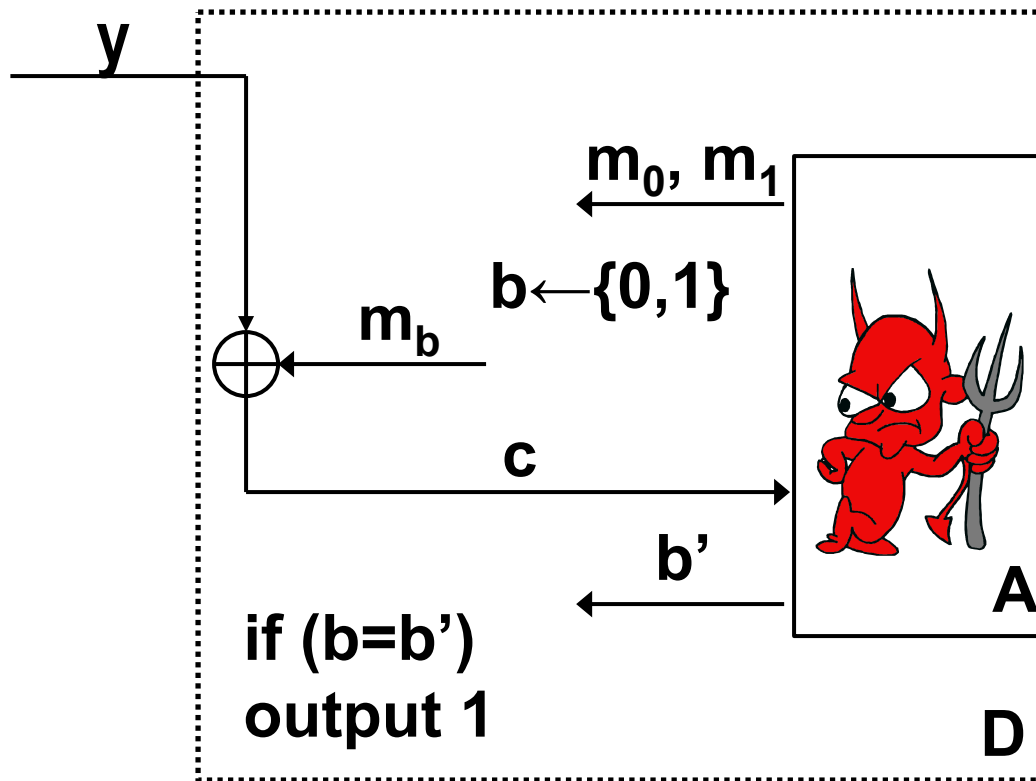
Alternately...

1. Assume G is a pseudorandom generator
2. Fix some arbitrary, efficient A attacking the pseudo-OTP scheme
3. Use A as a subroutine to build an efficient D attacking G
 - Relate the distinguishing gap of D to the success probability of A
4. By assumption, the distinguishing gap of D must be negligible
 - \Rightarrow Use this to bound the success probability of A

Security theorem

- If G is a pseudorandom generator, then the pseudo one-time pad Π is EAV-secure (i.e., computationally indistinguishable)

The reduction



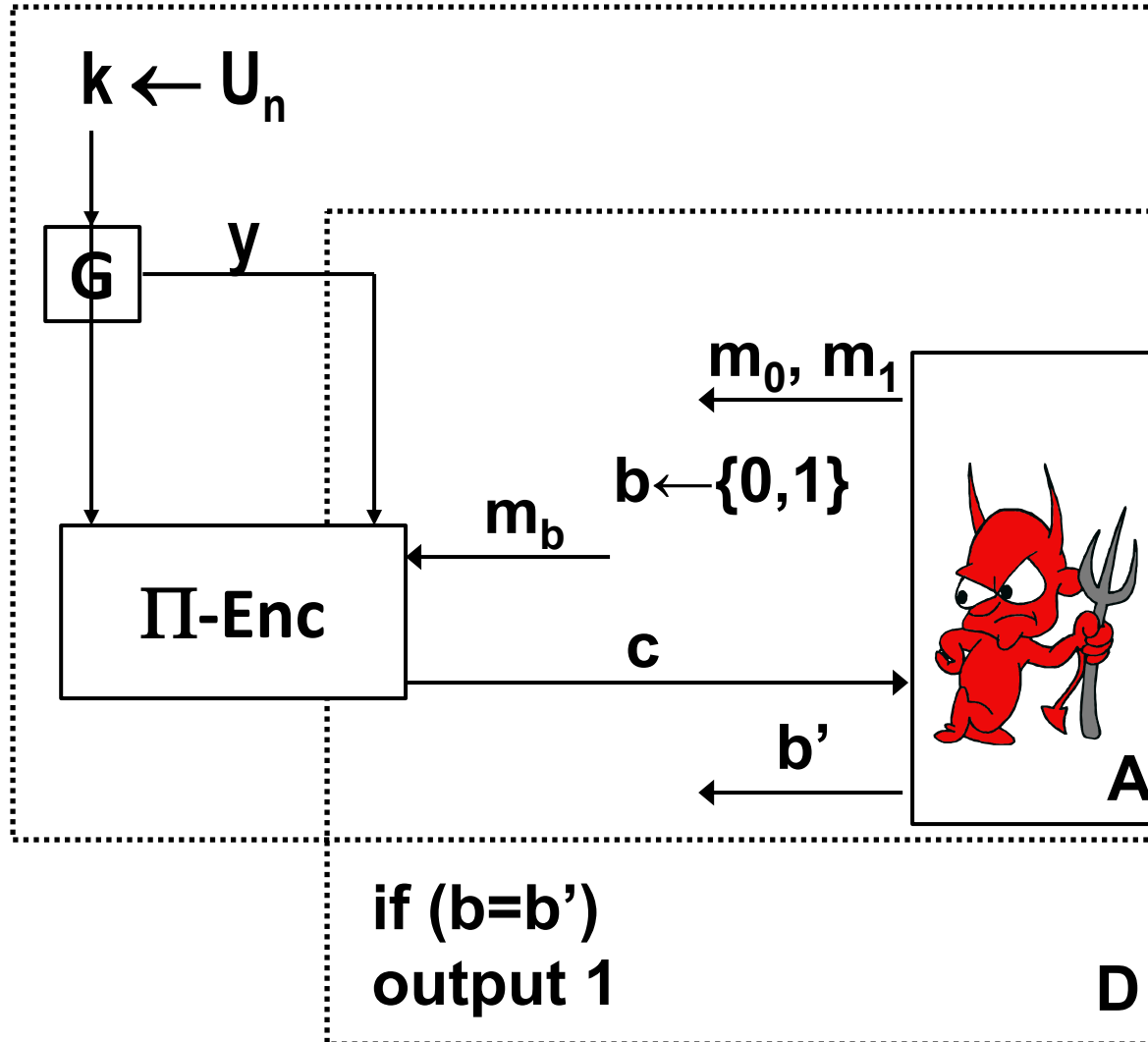
Analysis

- If A runs in polynomial time, then so does D

Analysis

- Let $\mu(n) = \Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1]$
- Claim: when $y=G(x)$ for uniform x , then the view of A is *exactly* as in $\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n)$
 $\Rightarrow \Pr_{x \leftarrow U_n}[D(G(x))=1] = \mu(n)$

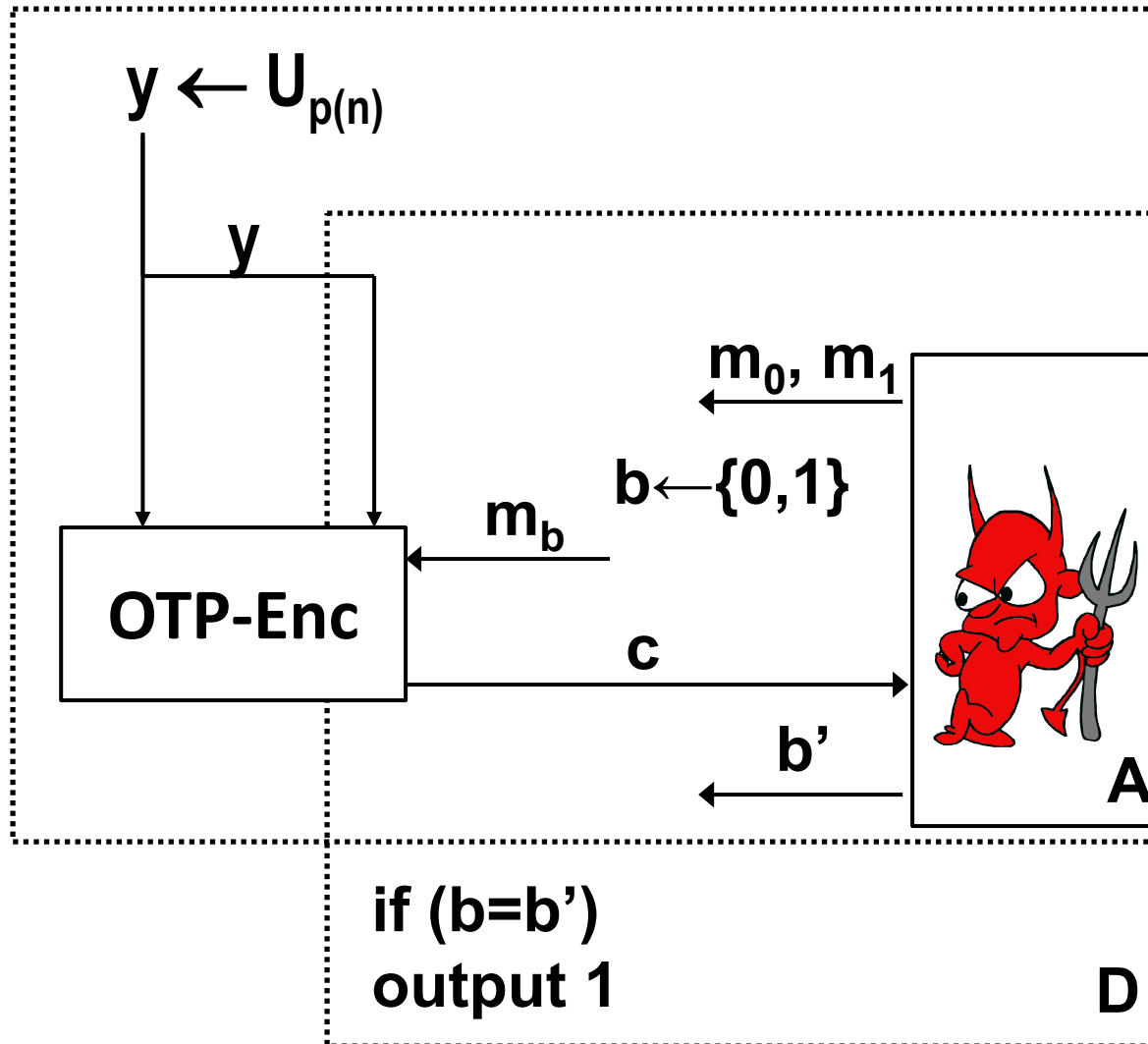
The reduction



Analysis

- Let $\mu(n) = \Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1]$
- If $y=G(x)$ for uniform x , then the view of A is *exactly* as in $\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n)$
 $\Rightarrow \Pr_{x \leftarrow U_n}[D(G(x))=1] = \mu(n)$
- If distribution of y is uniform, then A succeeds with probability exactly $\frac{1}{2}$
 $\Rightarrow \Pr_{y \leftarrow U_{p(n)}}[D(y)=1] = \frac{1}{2}$

The reduction



Analysis

- Let $\mu(n) = \Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1]$
- If $y=G(x)$ for uniform x , then the view of A is *exactly* as in $\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n)$
 - $\Rightarrow \Pr_{x \leftarrow U_n}[D(G(x))=1] = \mu(n)$
- If distribution of y is uniform, then A succeeds with probability exactly $\frac{1}{2}$
 - $\Rightarrow \Pr_{y \leftarrow U_{p(n)}}[D(y)=1] = \frac{1}{2}$
- Since G is pseudorandom:
 - $|\mu(n) - \frac{1}{2}| \leq \text{negl}(n)$
 - $\Rightarrow \Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}(n)$

Have we gained anything?

- YES: the pseudo-OTP has a key shorter than the message
 - n bits vs. $p(n)$ bits
- The fact that the parties *internally* generate a $p(n)$ -bit temporary string to encrypt/decrypt is **irrelevant**
 - The *key* is what the parties share *in advance*
 - Parties do not store the $p(n)$ -bit temporary value

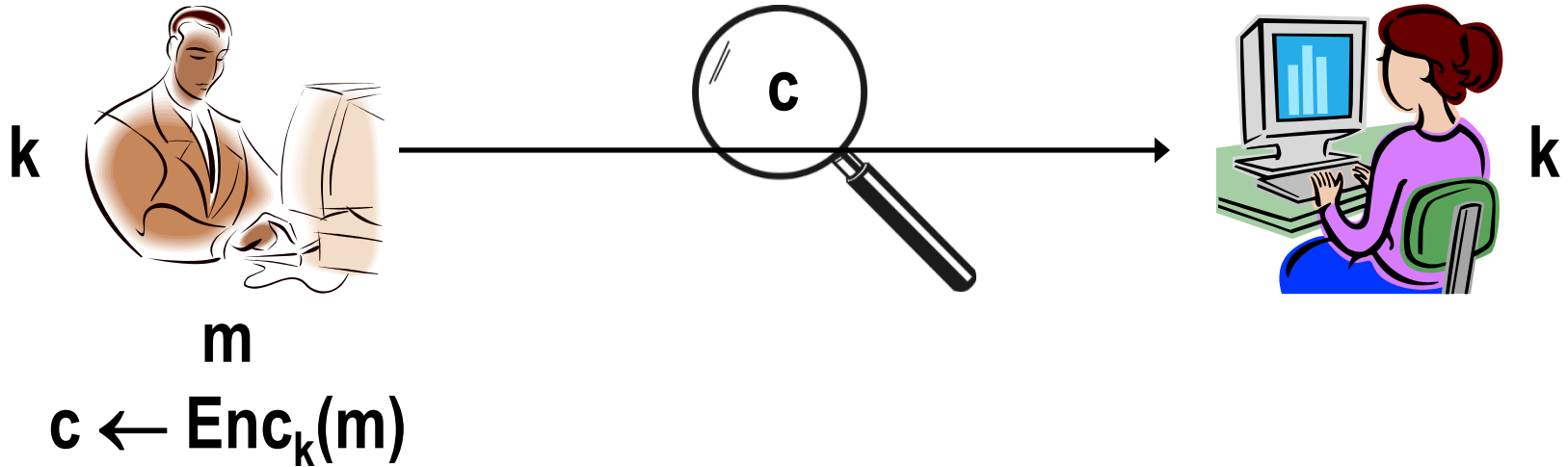
Recall...

- Perfect secrecy has two limitations/drawbacks
 - Key as long as the message
 - Key can only be used once
- We have seen how to circumvent the first
- Does the pseudo OTP have the second limitation?
- How can we circumvent the second?

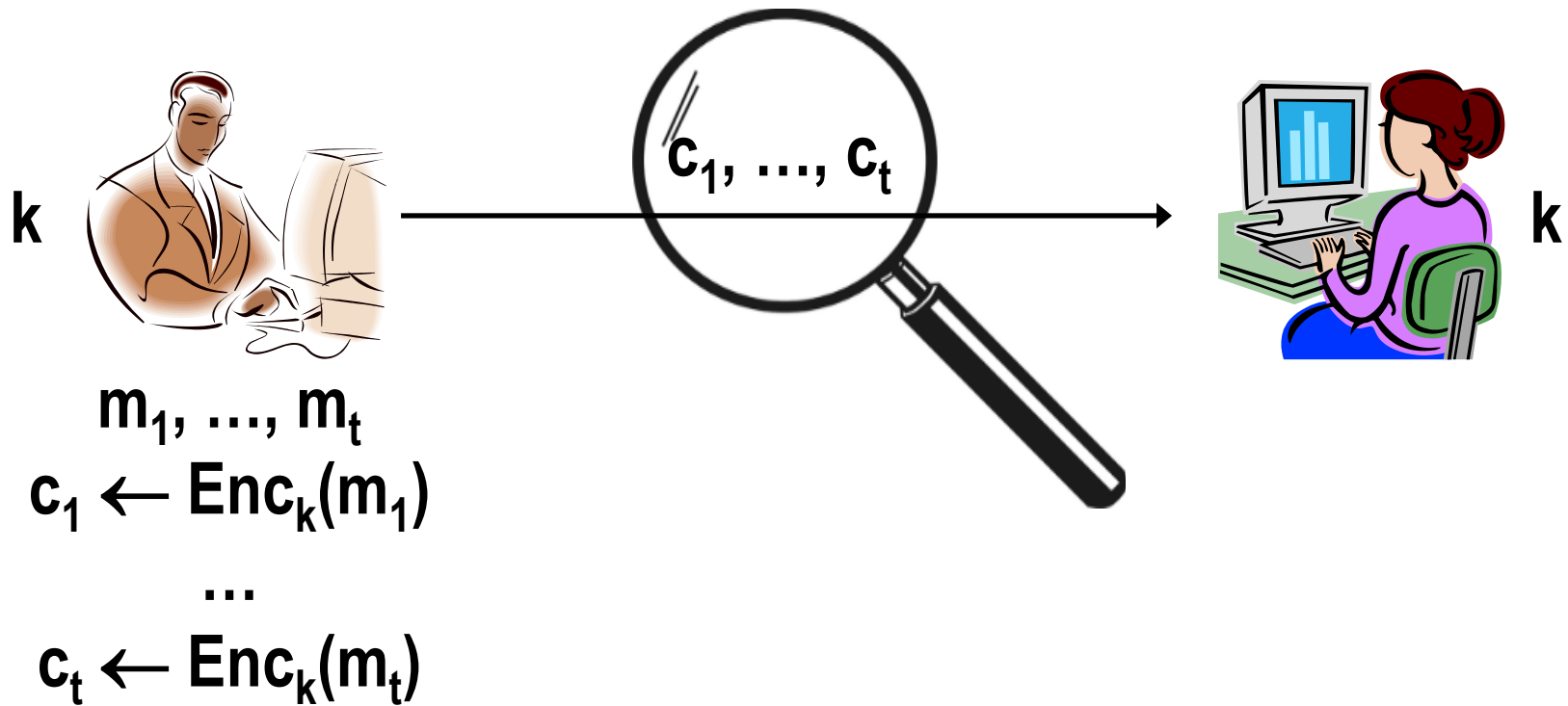
But first...

- Develop an appropriate security definition
- Recall that security definitions have two parts
 - Security goal
 - Threat model
- We will keep the security goal the same, but strengthen the threat model

Single-message secrecy



Multiple-message secrecy



A formal definition

- Fix Π, A
- Define a randomized exp't $\text{PrivK}^{\text{mult}}_{A,\Pi}(n)$:
 1. $A(1^n)$ outputs two **vectors** $(m_{0,1}, \dots, m_{0,t})$ and $(m_{1,1}, \dots, m_{1,t})$
 - Require that $|m_{0,i}| = |m_{1,i}|$ for all i
 2. $k \leftarrow \text{Gen}(1^n)$, $b \leftarrow \{0,1\}$, for all i : $c_i \leftarrow \text{Enc}_k(m_{b,i})$
 3. $b' \leftarrow A(c_1, \dots, c_t)$; A *succeeds* if $b = b'$, and experiment evaluates to 1 in this case

A formal definition

- Π is *multiple-message indistinguishable* if for all PPT attackers A , there is a negligible function ε such that

$$\Pr[\text{PrivK}_{A,\Pi}^{\text{mult}}(n) = 1] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon(n)$$

- Exercise: show that the pseudo-OTP is *not* multiple-message indistinguishable