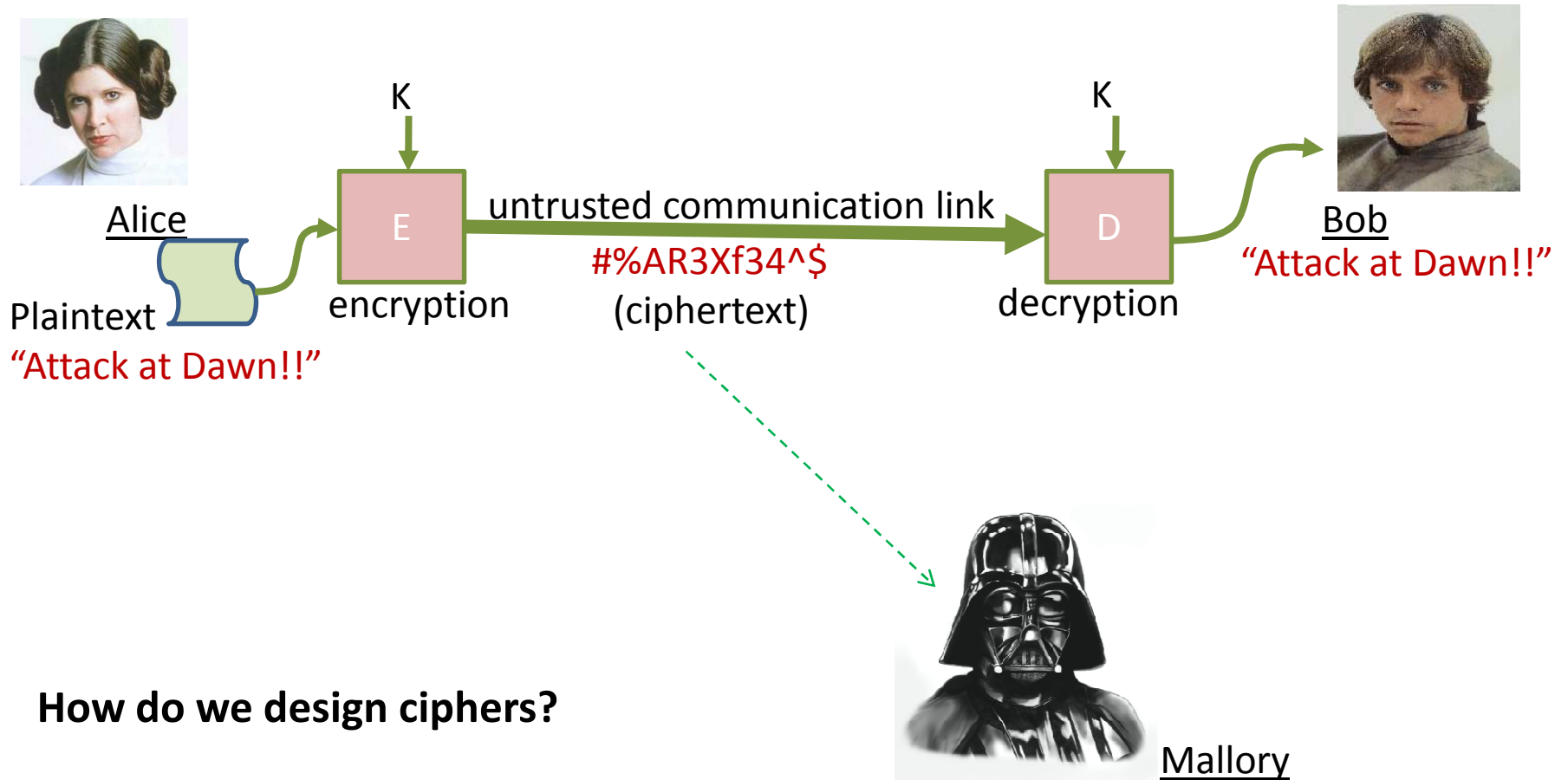


# Perfect Secrecy

Chester Rebeiro  
IIT Madras

# Encryption



How do we design ciphers?

# Cipher Models

## (What are the goals of the design?)

### Computation Security



My cipher can withstand all attacks with complexity less than  $2^{2048}$

The best attacker with the best computation resources would take 3 centuries to attack my cipher

### Provable Security (Hardness relative to a tough problem)



If my cipher can be broken then large numbers can be factored easily

### Unconditional Security



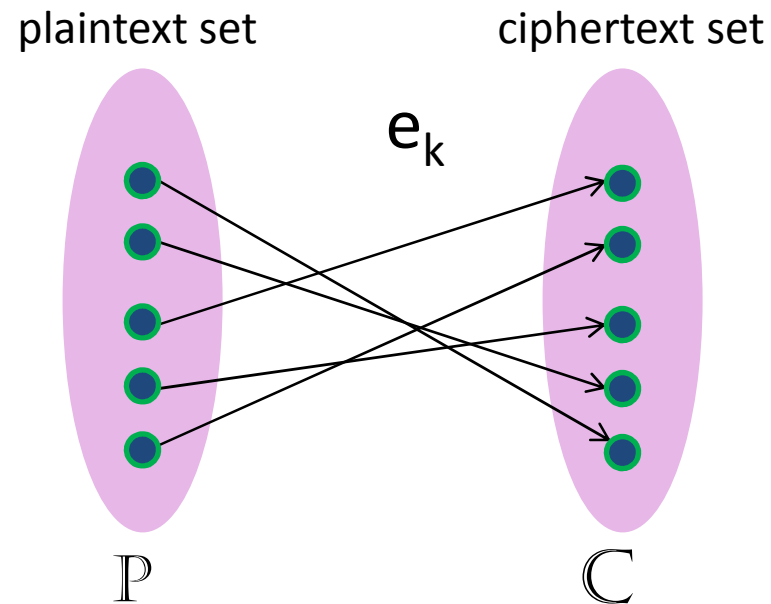
My cipher is secure against all attacks irrespective of the attacker's power. **I can prove this!!**

This model is also known as **Perfect Secrecy**.  
Can such a cryptosystem be built?  
We shall investigate this.

# Analyzing Unconditional Security

- Assumptions
  - Ciphertext only attack model
    - The attacker only has information about the ciphertext. The key and plaintext are secret.
- We first analyze a single encryption then relax this assumption by analyzing multiple encryptions with the same key

# Encryption

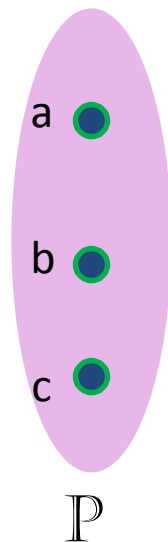


- For a given key, the encryption ( $e_k$ ) defines an injective mapping between the plaintext set ( $P$ ) and ciphertext set ( $C$ )
- We assume that the key and plaintext are independent
- Alice picks a plaintext  $x \in P$  and encrypts it to obtain a ciphertext  $y \in C$

# Plaintext Distribution

## Plaintext Distribution

- Let  $\mathbf{X}$  be a discrete random variable over the set  $\mathbb{P}$
- Alice chooses  $x$  from  $\mathbb{P}$  based on some probability distribution
  - Let  $\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x]$  be the probability that  $x$  is chosen
  - This probability may depend on the language



Plaintext set

$$\Pr[\mathbf{X}=a] = 1/2$$

$$\Pr[\mathbf{X}=b] = 1/3$$

$$\Pr[\mathbf{X}=c] = 1/6$$

Note :  $\Pr[a] + \Pr[b] + \Pr[c] = 1$

# Key Distribution

## Key Distribution

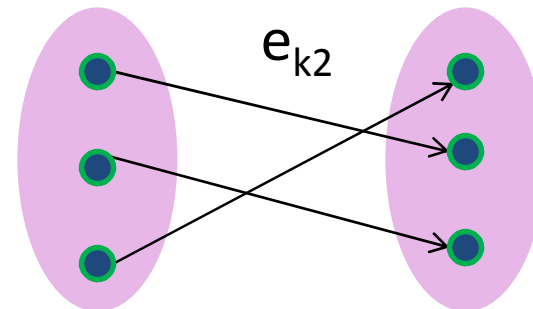
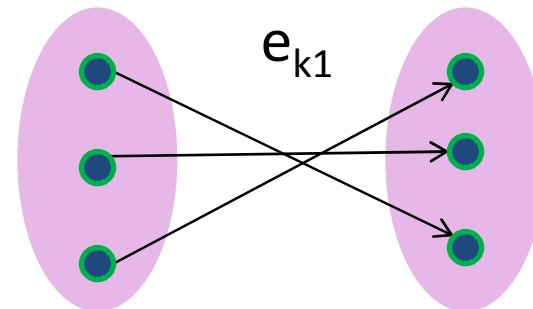
- Alice & Bob agree upon a key  $k$  chosen from a key set  $\mathbb{K}$
- Let  $K$  be a random variable denoting this choice

keyspace

$$\Pr[K=k_1] = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\Pr[K=k_2] = \frac{1}{4}$$

There are two keys in the keyset  
thus there are two possible encryption  
mappings



# Ciphertext Distribution

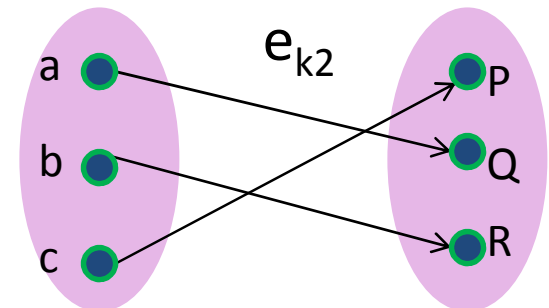
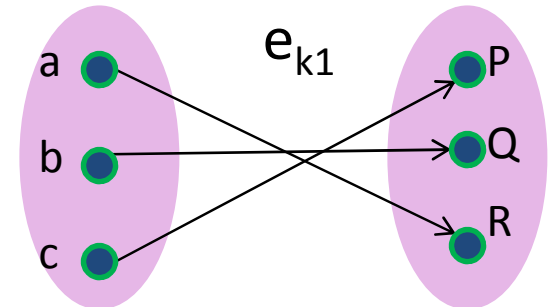
- Let  $\mathbf{Y}$  be a discrete random variable over the set  $\mathbb{C}$
- The probability of obtaining a particular ciphertext  $y$  depends on the plaintext and key probabilities

$$\Pr[Y = y] = \sum_k \Pr(k) \Pr(d_k(y))$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Y = P] &= \Pr(k_1) * \Pr(c) + \Pr(k_2) * \Pr(c) \\ &= (3/4 * 1/6) + (1/4 * 1/6) = \mathbf{1/6} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Y = Q] &= \Pr(k_1) * \Pr(b) + \Pr(k_2) * \Pr(a) \\ &= (3/4 * 1/3) + (1/4 * 1/2) = \mathbf{3/8} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Y = R] &= \Pr(k_1) * \Pr(a) + \Pr(k_2) * \Pr(b) \\ &= (3/4 * 1/2) + (1/4 * 1/3) = \mathbf{11/24} \end{aligned}$$



**plaintext**

$$\Pr[X=a] = 1/2$$

$$\Pr[X=b] = 1/3$$

$$\Pr[X=c] = 1/6$$

**keyspace**

$$\Pr[K=k_1] = 3/4$$

$$\Pr[K=k_2] = 1/4$$

Note:  $\Pr[Y=P] + \Pr[Y=Q] + \Pr[Y=R] = 1$



# Attacker's Probabilities

- The attacker wants to determine the plaintext  $x$
- Two scenarios
  - Attacker does not have  $y$  (a priori Probability)
    - Probability of determining  $x$  is simply  $Pr[x]$
    - Depends on plaintext distribution (eg. Language characteristics)
  - Attacker has  $y$  (a posteriori probability)
    - Probability of determining  $x$  is simply  $Pr[x|y]$

# A posteriori Probabilities

- How to compute the attacker's a posteriori probabilities?  $\Pr[X = x | Y = y]$ 
  - Bayes' Theorem

$$\Pr[x | y] = \frac{\Pr[x] \times \Pr[y | x]}{\Pr[y]}$$

probability of the plaintext

probability of this ciphertext

?

The probability that  $y$  is obtained given  $x$  depends on the keys which provide such a mapping

$$\Pr[y | x] = \sum_{\{k : d_k(y)=x\}} \Pr[k]$$

# Pr[y | x]

$$\Pr[P | a] = 0$$

$$\Pr[P | b] = 0$$

$$\Pr[P | c] = 1$$

---

$$\Pr[Q | a] = \Pr[k_2] = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Pr[Q | b] = \Pr[k_1] = \frac{3}{4}$$

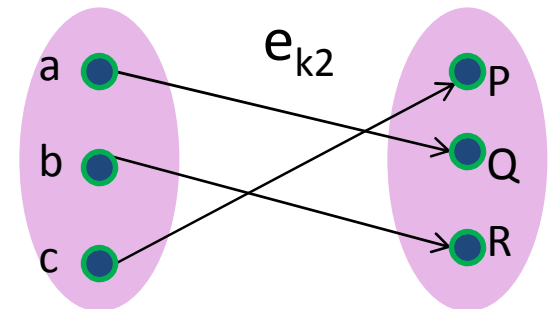
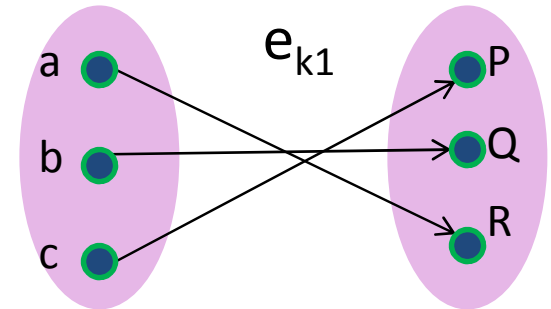
$$\Pr[Q | c] = 0$$

---

$$\Pr[R | a] = \Pr[k_1] = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\Pr[R | b] = \Pr[k_2] = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Pr[R | c] = 0$$



**keyspace**

$$\Pr[K=k_1] = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\Pr[K=k_2] = \frac{1}{4}$$

# Computing A Posteriori Probabilities

$$\Pr[x | y] = \frac{\Pr[x] \times \Pr[y | x]}{\Pr[y]}$$

plaintext	ciphertext	$\Pr[y   x]$
$\Pr[X=a] = 1/2$	$\Pr[Y=P] = 1/6$	$\Pr[P   a] = 0$
$\Pr[X=b] = 1/3$	$\Pr[Y=Q] = 3/8$	$\Pr[P   b] = 0$
$\Pr[X=c] = 1/6$	$\Pr[Y=R] = 11/24$	$\Pr[P   c] = 1$
		$\Pr[Q   a] = 1/4$
		$\Pr[Q   b] = 3/4$
		$\Pr[Q   c] = 0$
		$\Pr[R   a] = 3/4$
		$\Pr[R   b] = 1/4$
		$\Pr[R   c] = 0$

$$\begin{array}{lll} \Pr[a | P] = 0 & \Pr[b | P] = 0 & \Pr[c | P] = 1 \\ \Pr[a | Q] = 1/3 & \Pr[b | Q] = 2/3 & \Pr[c | Q] = 0 \\ \Pr[a | R] = 9/11 & \Pr[b | R] = 2/11 & \Pr[c | R] = 0 \end{array}$$

If the attacker sees ciphertext **P** then she would know the plaintext was **c**

If the attacker sees ciphertext **R** then she would know **a** is the most likely plaintext

**Not a good encryption mechanism!!**

# Perfect Secrecy

- Perfect secrecy achieved when

**a posteriori probabilities = a priori probabilities**

$$\Pr[x | y] = \Pr[x]$$

**i.e** the attacker learns nothing from the ciphertext

# Perfect Secrecy Example

- Find the a posteriori probabilities for the following scheme
- Verify that it is perfectly secret.

## plaintext

$$\Pr[X=a] = 1/2$$

$$\Pr[X=b] = 1/3$$

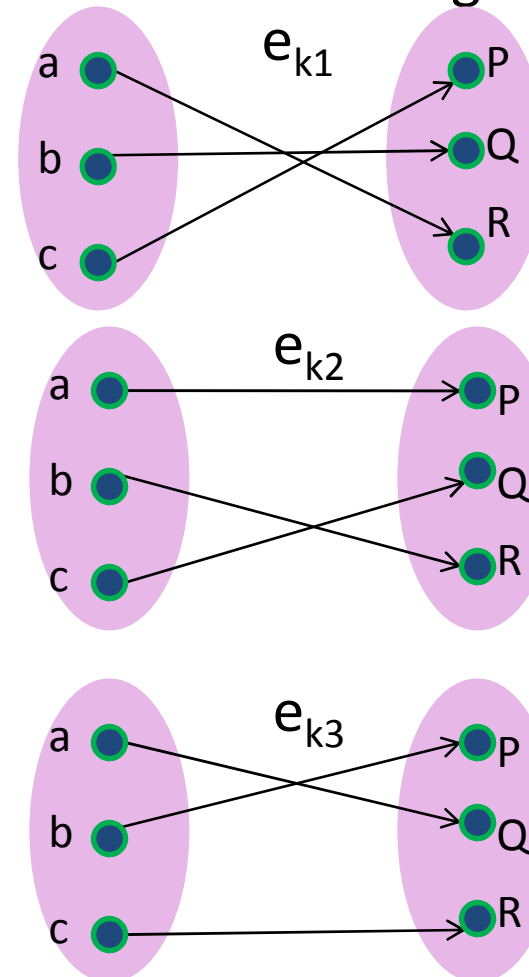
$$\Pr[X=c] = 1/6$$

## keyspace

$$\Pr[K=k_1] = 1/3$$

$$\Pr[K=k_2] = 1/3$$

$$\Pr[K=k_3] = 1/3$$



# Observations on Perfect Secrecy

**Perfect Secrecy iff**

Follows from  
Baye's theorem

$$\Pr[Y = y \mid X = x] = \Pr[Y = y]$$

---

**Perfect Indistinguishability**

$\forall x_1, x_2 \in P$

$$\Pr[Y = y \mid X = x_1] = \Pr[Y = y \mid X = x_2]$$

---

Perfect secrecy has nothing to do with plaintext distribution.  
Thus a crypto-scheme will achieve perfect secrecy irrespective of  
the language used in the plaintext.

# Shift Cipher with a Twist

- Plaintext set :  $\mathbb{P} = \{0,1,2,3 \dots, 25\}$
- Ciphertext set :  $\mathbb{C} = \{0,1,2,3 \dots, 25\}$
- Keyspace :  $\mathbb{K} = \{0,1,2,3 \dots, 25\}$
- Encryption Rule :  $e_K(x) = (x + K) \bmod 26,$
- Decryption Rule :  $d_K(x) = (x - K) \bmod 26$

where  $K \in \mathbb{K}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{P}$

**The Twist** : the key changes after every encryption



# The Twisted Shift Cipher is Perfectly Secure

$$\Pr[y = y] = \sum_{K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}} \Pr[K = K] \Pr[x = d_K(y)]$$

Keys chosen with uniform probability

$$= \sum_{K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}} \frac{1}{26} \Pr[x = y - K]$$

This is 1 because the sum is over all values of x

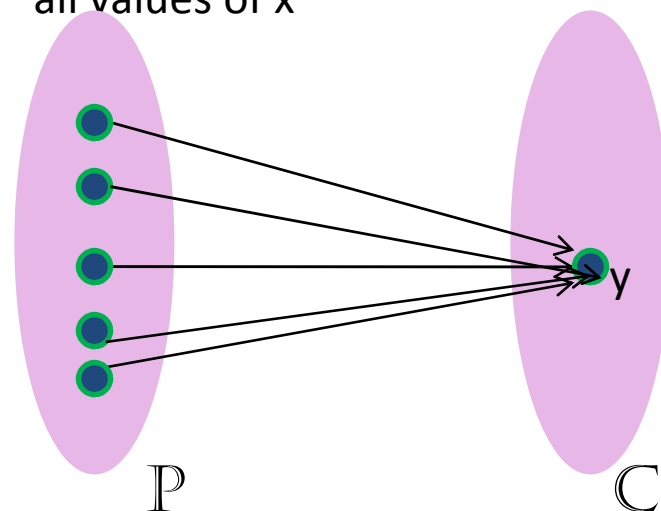
$$= \frac{1}{26} \sum_{K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}} \Pr[x = y - K].$$

$$= \frac{1}{26}$$

$$\Pr[y|x] = \Pr[K = (y - x) \bmod 26]$$

$$= \frac{1}{26}$$

For every pair of y and x, there is exactly one key. Probability of that key is 1/26



# The Twisted Shift Cipher is Perfectly Secure

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[\mathbf{y} = y] &= \sum_{K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}} \Pr[\mathbf{K} = K] \Pr[\mathbf{x} = d_K(y)] \\ &= \sum_{K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}} \frac{1}{26} \Pr[\mathbf{x} = y - K] \\ &= \frac{1}{26} \sum_{K \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}} \Pr[\mathbf{x} = y - K]. \\ &= \frac{1}{26}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[x|y] &= \frac{\Pr[x] \Pr[y|x]}{\Pr[y]} \\ &= \frac{\Pr[x] \frac{1}{26}}{\frac{1}{26}} \\ &= \Pr[x],\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[y|x] &= \Pr[\mathbf{K} = (y - x) \bmod 26] \\ &= \frac{1}{26}\end{aligned}$$

# Shannon's Theorem

If  $|\mathbb{K}| = |\mathbb{C}| = |\mathbb{P}|$  then the system provides perfect secrecy iff

(1) every key is used with equal probability  $1/|\mathbb{K}|$ , and

(2) for every  $x \in \mathbb{P}$  and  $y \in \mathbb{C}$ , there exists a unique key  $k \in \mathbb{K}$  such that  $e_k(x) = y$

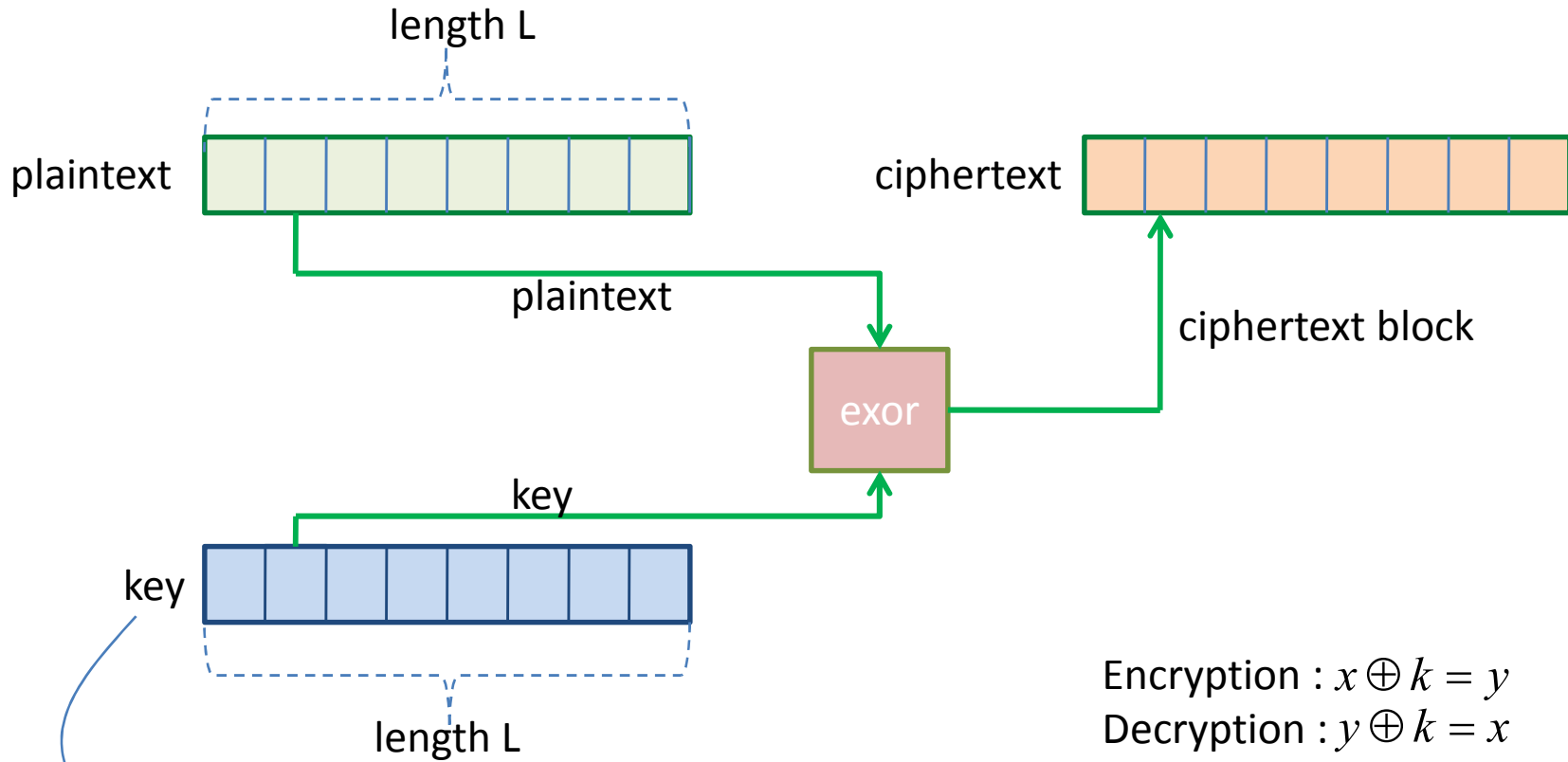
## Intuition :

Every  $y \in \mathbb{C}$  can result from any of the possible plaintexts  $x$

Since  $|\mathbb{K}| = |\mathbb{P}|$  there is exactly one mapping from each plaintext to  $y$

Since each key is equi-probable, each of these mappings is equally probable

# One Time Pad (Vernan's Cipher)



chosen uniformly from keyspace of size  $2^L$   
 $\Pr[\mathbf{K} = k] = 1/2^L$

# One Time Pad (Example)

e=000 h=001 i=010 k=011 l=100 r=101 s=110 t=111

**Encryption:** Plaintext  $\oplus$  Key = Ciphertext

	h	e	i	l	h	i	t	l	e	r
Plaintext:	001	000	010	100	001	010	111	100	000	101
Key:	111	101	110	101	111	100	000	101	110	000
Ciphertext:	110	101	100	001	110	110	111	001	110	101
	s	r	l	h	s	s	t	h	s	r

# One Time Pad is Perfectly Secure

- Proof using indistinguishability

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[Y = y | X = x] &= \Pr[X = x, K = k | X = x] \quad \text{from } x \oplus k = y \\ &= \Pr[K = k] = \frac{1}{2^L}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[Y = y | X = x_1] &= \frac{1}{2^L} = \Pr[Y = y | X = x_2] \\ &\quad \forall x_1, x_2 \in X\end{aligned}$$

**This implies perfect Indistinguishability  
that is independent of the plaintext distribution**

# Limitations of Perfect Secrecy

- Key must be at least as long as the message
  - Limits applicability if messages are long
- Key must be changed for every encryption
  - If the same key is used twice, then an adversary can compute the ex-or of the messages

$$x_1 \oplus k = y_1$$

$$x_2 \oplus k = y_2$$

$$x_1 \oplus x_2 = y_1 \oplus y_2$$

The attacker can then do language analysis to determine  $y_1$  and  $y_2$

# Computational Security

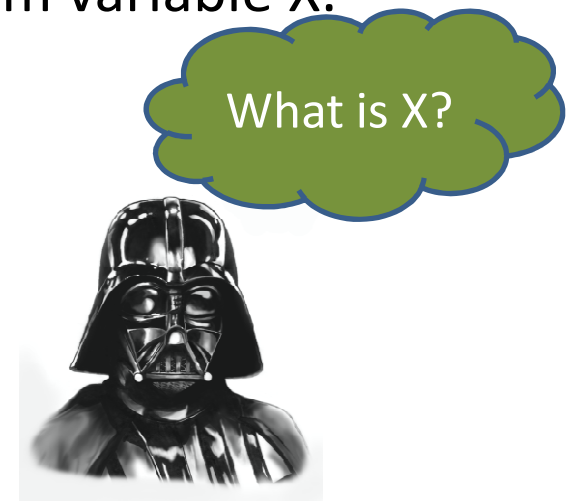
- Perfect secrecy is difficult to achieve in practice
- Instead we use a crypto-scheme that cannot be *broken in reasonable time* with *reasonable success*
- This means,
  - Security is only achieved against adversaries that run in polynomial time
  - Attackers can potentially succeed with a very small probability (attackers need to be very lucky to succeed)



# Quantifying Information

# Quantifying Information

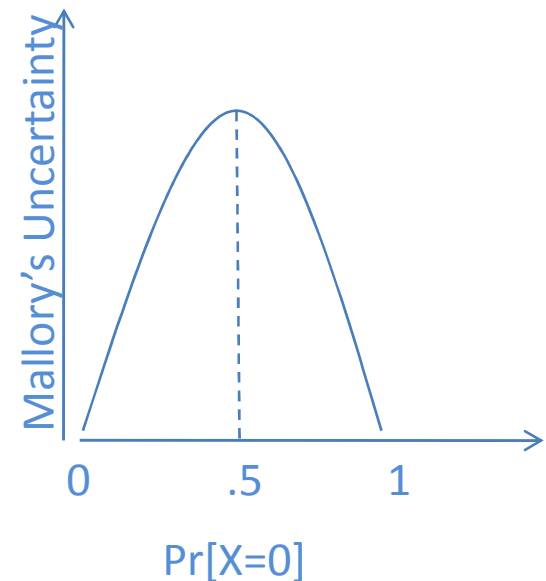
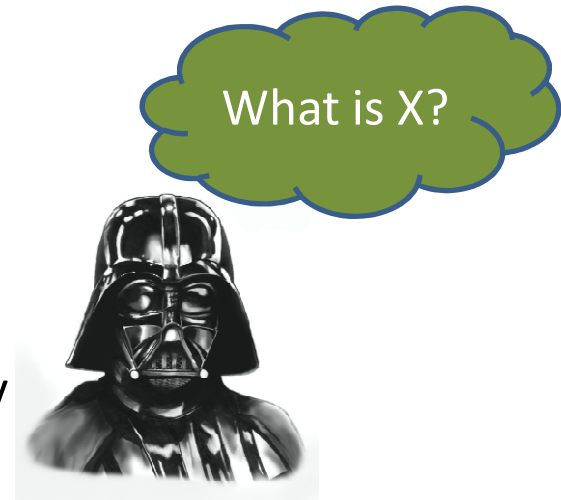
- Alice thinks of a number (0 or 1)
- The choice is denoted by a discrete random variable  $X$ .



- What is the information in  $X$ ?
- What is Mallory's uncertainty about  $X$ ?
  - Depends on the probability distribution of  $X$

# Uncertainty

- Lets assume Mallory know this probability distribution.
- If  $\Pr[X = 1] = 1$  and  $\Pr[X = 0] = 0$ 
  - Then Mallory can determine with 100% accuracy
- If  $\Pr[X = 0] = .75$  and  $\Pr[X = 1] = .25$ 
  - Mallory will guess X as 0, and gets it right 75% of the time
- If  $\Pr[X=0] = \Pr[X = 1] = 0.5$ 
  - Mallory's guess would be similar to a uniformly random guess. Gets it right  $\frac{1}{2}$  the time.



# Entropy

## (Quantifying Information)

- Suppose we consider a discrete R.V.  $X$  taking values from the set  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$ , each symbol occurring with probability  $\{p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n\}$
- Entropy is defined as the minimum number of bits (on average) that is required to represent a string from this set?

$$H(X) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{p_i} \right)$$

Entropy of  $X$

Bits to encode the  $i$ th symbol

Probability that the  $i$ th symbol occurs

# What is the Entropy of X?

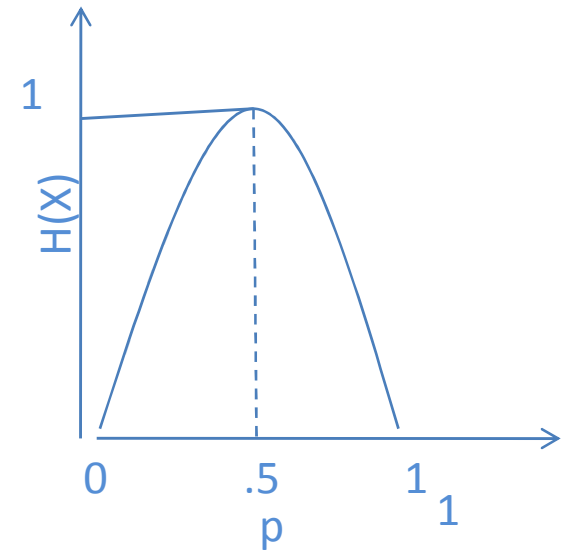


$\Pr[X=0] = p$  and  $\Pr[X=1] = 1 - p$

$H(X) = -p \log_2 p - (1-p) \log_2 (1-p)$

$H(X)_{p=0} = 0$ ,  $H(X)_{p=1} = 0$ ,  $H(X)_{p=.5} = 1$

using  $\lim_{p \rightarrow 0} (p \log p) = 0$



# Properties of $H(X)$

- If  $X$  is a random variable, which takes on values  $\{1,2,3,\dots,n\}$  with probabilities  $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$ , then

1.  $H(X) \leq \log_2 n$

2. When  $p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = \dots = p_n = 1/n$  then  $H(X) = \log_2 n$

Example an 8 face dice.

If the dice is fair, then we obtain the maximum entropy of 3 bits

If the dice is unfair, then the entropy is  $< 3$  bits

# Entropy and Coding

- Entropy quantifies Information content
  - “Can we encode a message  $M$  in such a way that the average length is as short as possible and hopefully equal to  $H(M)$ ?”

Huffman Codes :

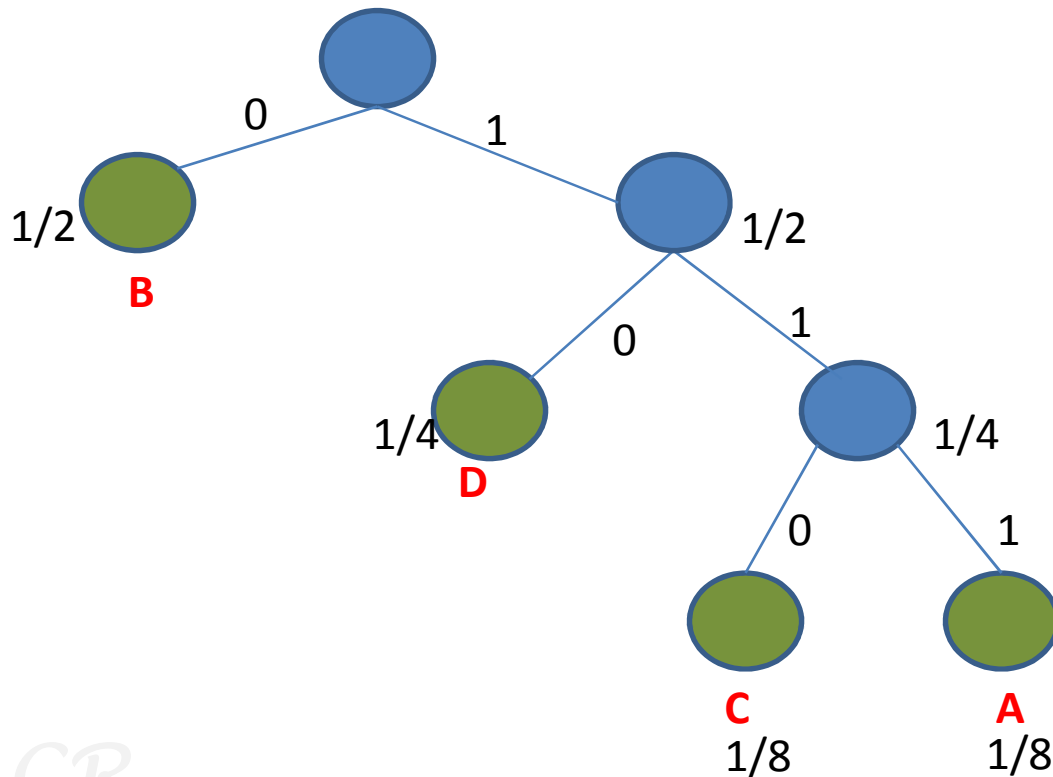
allocate more bits to least probable events

allocate less bits to popular events

# Example

- $S = \{A, B, C, D\}$  are 4 symbols
- Probability of Occurrence is :  
 $P(A) = 1/8, P(B) = 1/2, P(C) = 1/8, P(D) = 1/4$

Encoding  
A : 111  
B : 0  
C : 110  
D : 10



To decode, with each bit  
traverse the tree from  
root until you reach a  
leaf.

Decode this?  
1101010111



# Example :

## Average Length and Entropy

- $S = \{A, B, C, D\}$  are 4 symbols
- Probability of Occurrence is :  
 $p(A) = 1/8, p(B) = 1/2, p(C) = 1/8, p(D) = 1/4$
- Average Length of Huffman code :  
 $3 * p(A) + 1 * p(B) + 3 * p(C) + 2 * p(D) = 1.75$
- Entropy  $H(S) =$   
 $-1/8 \log_2(8) - 1/2 \log_2(2) - 1/8 \log_2(8) - 1/4 \log_2(4)$   
 $= 1.75$

Encoding
A : 111
B : 0
C : 110
D : 10

# Measuring the Redundancy in a Language

- Let  $S$  be letter in a language (eg.  $S = \{A,B,C,D\}$ )
- $\mathbf{S} = S \times S \times S \times S \times S \times S$  ( $k$  times) is a set representing messages of length  $k$
- Let  $S^{(k)}$  be a random variable in  $\mathbf{S}$
- The average information in each letter is given by the **rate of  $S^{(k)}$** .

$$r_k = \frac{H(S^{(k)})}{k}$$

- $r_k$  for English is between 1.0 and 1.5 bits/letter

# Measuring the Redundancy in a Language

- **Absolute Rate** : The maximum amount of information per character in a language
  - the absolute rate of language  $S$  is  $R = \log_2 |S|$
  - For English,  $|S| = 26$ , therefore  $R = 4.7$  bits / letter
- **Redundancy of a language is**  
$$D = R - r_k$$
  - For English when  $r_k = 1$ , then  $D = 3.7 \rightarrow$  around 79% redundant

# Example (One letter analysis)

- Consider a language with 26 letters of the set  $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_{26}\}$ . Suppose the language is characterized by the following probabilities. **What is the language redundancy?**

$$P(s_1) = \frac{1}{2}, P(s_2) = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(s_i) = \frac{1}{64} \quad \text{for } i = 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10$$

$$P(s_i) = \frac{1}{128} \quad \text{for } i = 11, 12, \dots, 26$$

**Absolute Rate**

$$R = \log 26 = 4.7$$

**Rate of the Language for 1 letter analysis**

$$\begin{aligned} r_1 &= H(S^{(1)}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{26} P(s_i) \log \frac{1}{P(s_i)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \log 2 + \frac{1}{4} \log 4 + 8 \left( \frac{1}{64} \log 64 \right) + 16 \left( \frac{1}{128} \log 128 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{6}{8} + \frac{7}{8} = 2.625 \end{aligned}$$

**Language Redundancy**

$$D = R - r_1 = 4.7 - 2.625 = 2.075$$

Language is ~70% redundant

# Example (Two letter analysis)

- In the set  $S = \{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots, s_{26}\}$ , suppose the diagram probabilities is as below. **What is the language redundancy?**

$$P(s_{i+1} | s_i) = P(s_{i+2} | s_i) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } 24$$

$$P(s_{26} | s_{25}) = P(s_1 | s_{25}) = P(s_1 | s_{26}) = P(s_2 | s_{26}) = \frac{1}{2}$$

all other probabilities are 0

$$P(s_1, s_2) = P(s_2 | s_1) \times P(s_1) = 1/4; \quad P(s_1, s_3) = P(s_3 | s_1) \times P(s_1) = 1/4$$

$$P(s_2, s_3) = P(s_3 | s_2) \times P(s_2) = 1/8; \quad P(s_2, s_4) = P(s_4 | s_2) \times P(s_2) = 1/8$$

$$P(s_i, s_{i+1}) = P(s_{i+1} | s_i) P(s_i) = 1/128 \quad \text{for } i = 3, 4, \dots, 10$$

$$P(s_i, s_{i+2}) = P(s_{i+2} | s_i) P(s_i) = 1/128 \quad \text{for } i = 3, 4, \dots, 10$$

$$P(s_i, s_{i+1}) = P(s_{i+1} | s_i) P(s_i) = 1/256 \quad \text{for } i = 11, 12, \dots, 24$$

$$P(s_i, s_{i+2}) = P(s_{i+2} | s_i) P(s_i) = 1/256 \quad \text{for } i = 11, 12, \dots, 24$$

$$P(s_{25}, s_{26}) = P(s_{25}, s_1) = P(s_{26}, s_1) = P(s_{26}, s_2) = 1/256$$

## Rate of the Language for 2 letter analysis

$$\begin{aligned} r_2 &= H(S^{(2)})/2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{26} P(s_i, s_j) \log \frac{1}{P(s_i, s_j)} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ 2 \left( \frac{1}{4} \log 4 \right) + 2 \left( \frac{1}{8} \log 8 \right) + 16 \left( \frac{1}{128} \log 128 \right) + 32 \left( \frac{1}{256} \log 256 \right) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{8} + 1 \right] = \frac{3.625}{2} = 1.8125 \end{aligned}$$

## Language Redundancy

$$D = R - r_2 = 4.7 - 1.8125 = 2.9$$

Language is ~60% redundant

# Observations

*Single letter analysis* :  $r_1 = H(S^{(1)}) = 2.625$ ;  $D = 2.075$

*Two letter analysis* :  $H(S^{(2)}) = 3.625$ ;  $r_2 = 1.8125$ ;  $D = 2.9$

- $H(S(2)) - H(S(1)) = 1$  bit
  - why?
- As we increase the message size
  - Rate reduces; inferring less information per letter
  - Redundancy increases

# Conditional Entropy

- Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are two discrete random variables, then conditional entropy is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} H(X | Y) &= \sum_y p(y) \sum_x p(x | y) \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{p(x | y)} \right) \\ &= \sum_x \sum_y p(y) \cdot p(x | y) \log_2 \left( \frac{p(x)}{p(x, y)} \right) \end{aligned}$$

- Conditional entropy means ....
  - What is the remaining uncertainty about  $X$  given  $Y$
  - $H(X | Y) \leq H(X)$  with equality when  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent

# Joint Entropy

- Suppose  $X$  and  $Y$  are two discrete random variables, and  $p(x,y)$  the value of the joint probability distribution when  $X=x$  and  $Y=y$
- Then the joint entropy is given by

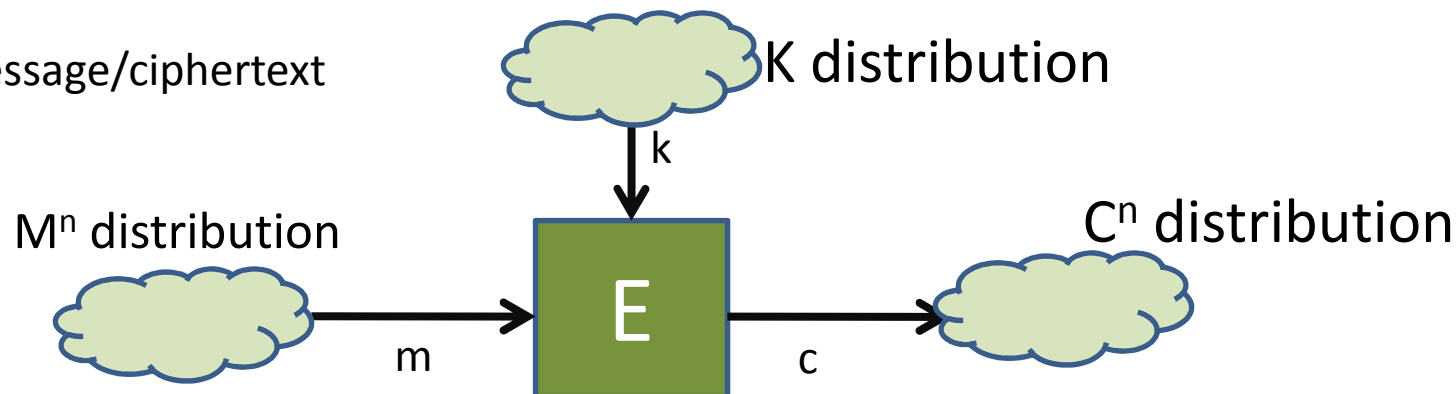
$$H(X,Y) = \sum_y \sum_x p(x,y) \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{p(x,y)} \right)$$

- The joint entropy is the average uncertainty of 2 random variables



# Entropy and Encryption

n: length of message/ciphertext

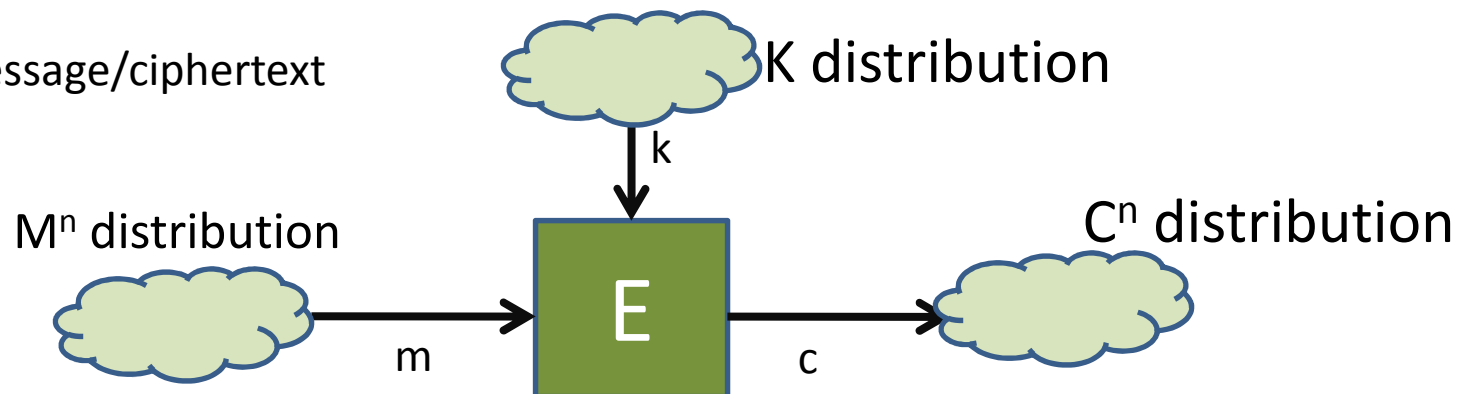


- There are three entropies:  $H(P^{(n)})$ ,  $H(K)$ ,  $H(C^{(n)})$
- **Message Equivocation :**  
If the attacker can view n ciphertexts, what is his uncertainty about the message

$$H(M^{(n)} | C^{(n)}) = \sum_{c \in C^n} p(c) \sum_{m \in M^n} p(m | c) \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{p(m | c)} \right)$$

# Entropy and Encryption

n: length of message/ciphertext



- **Key Equivocation :**

If the attacker can view  $n$  ciphertexts, what is his uncertainty about the key

$$H(K | C^{(n)}) = \sum_{c \in C^n} p(c) \sum_{m \in M^n} p(k | c) \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{p(k | c)} \right)$$

# Unicity Distance

$$H(K | C^{(n)}) = \sum_{c \in C^n} p(c) \sum_{m \in M^n} p(k | c) \log_2 \left( \frac{1}{p(k | c)} \right)$$

- As  $n$  increases,  $H(K | C^{(n)})$  reduces...
  - This means that the uncertainty of the key reduces as the attacker observes more ciphertexts
- **Unicity distance** is the value of  $n$  for which  $H(K | C^{(n)}) \approx 0$ 
  - This means, the entire key can be determined in this case

# Unicity Distance and Classical Ciphers

Cipher	Unicity Distance (for English)
Caesar's Cipher	1.5 letters
Affine Cipher	2.6 letters
Simple Substitution Cipher	27.6 letters
Permutation Cipher	0.12 (block size = 3) 0.66 (block size = 4) 1.32 (block size = 5) 2.05 (block size = 6)
Vigenere Cipher	1.47d (d is the key length)

# Product Ciphers

- Consider a cryptosystem where  $P=C$  (this is an endomorphic system)
  - Thus the ciphertext and the plaintext set is the same
- Combine two ciphering schemes to build a **product cipher**

Given two endomorphic crypto-systems

$$S_1 : x = d_{K_1}(e_{K_1}(x))$$

$$S_2 : x = d_{K_2}(e_{K_2}(x))$$

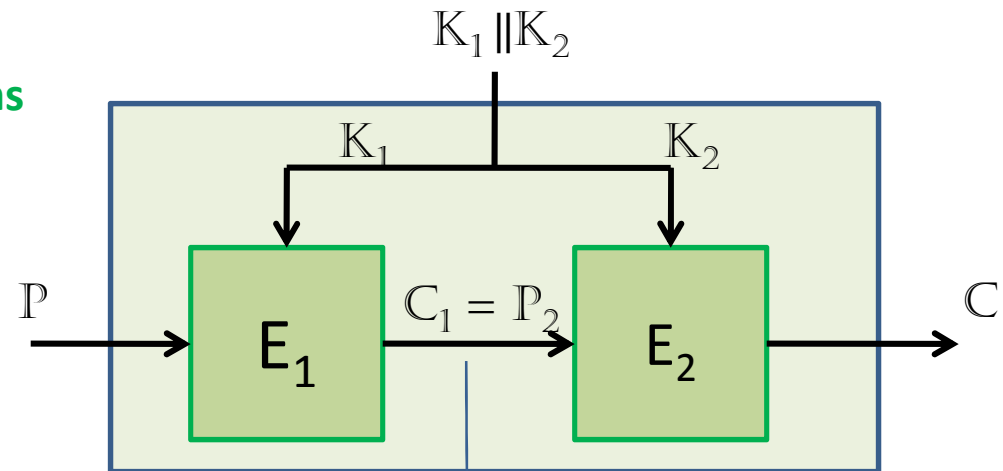
Resultant Product Cipher

$$S_1 \times S_2$$

$$e_{(K_1, K_2)}(x) = e_{K_2}(e_{K_1}(x))$$

$$d_{(K_1, K_2)}(x) = d_{K_1}(d_{K_2}(x))$$

Resultant Key Space  $K_1 \times K_2$



Ciphertext of first cipher fed as input to the second cipher

# Product Ciphers

- Consider a cryptosystem where  $P=C$  (this is an endomorphic system)
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**Given two endomorphic crypto-systems**

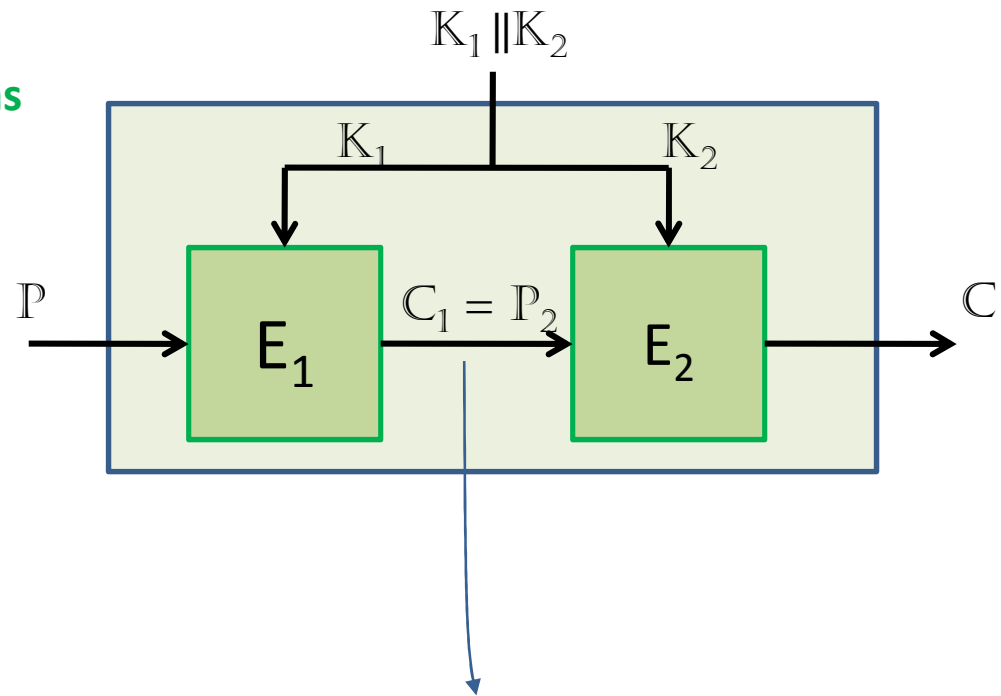
$$S_1 : (P, P, K_1, E_1, D_1)$$

$$S_2 : (P, P, K_2, E_2, D_2)$$

**Resultant Product Cipher**

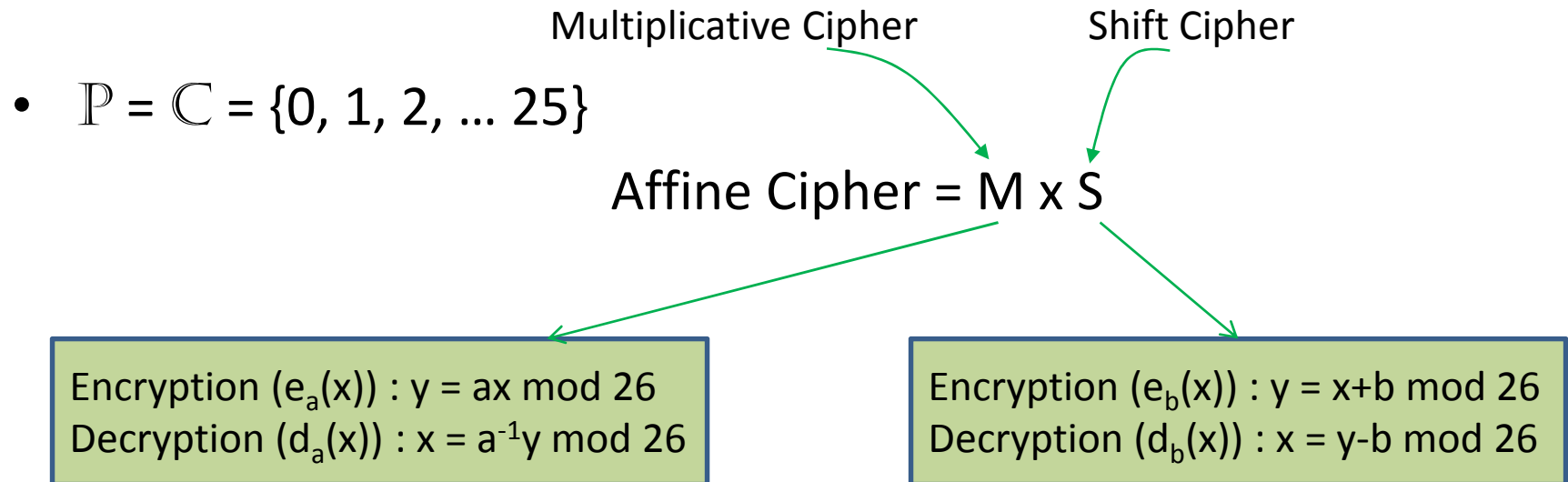
$$S_1 \times S_2 : (P, P, K_1 \times K_2, E, D)$$

**Resultant Key Space**  $K_1 \times K_2$



Ciphertext of first cipher fed as input to the second cipher

# Affine Cipher is a Product Cipher



- Affine cipher :  $y = ax + b \pmod{26}$
- Size of Key space is
  - Size of key space for Multiplicative cipher \* Size of keyspace for shift cipher
  - $12 * 26 = 312$

# Is S x M same as the Affine Cipher

- $S \times M : y = a(x + b) \pmod{26}$   
 $= ax + ba \pmod{26}$
- Key is  $(b, a)$
- $ba \pmod{26}$  is some  $b'$  such that  
 $a^{-1}b' = b \pmod{26}$
- This can be represented as an Affine cipher,  
 $y = ax + b' \pmod{26}$

Thus affine ciphers are commutable (i.e.  $S \times M = M \times S$ )

Create a non-commutable product ciphers



# Idempotent Ciphers

- If  $S_1 : (P, P, K, E_1, D_1)$  is an endomorphic cipher
- then it is possible to construct product ciphers of the form  $S_1 \times S_1$ , denoted  $S^2 : (P, P, K \times K, E, D)$
- If  $S^2 = S$  then the cipher is called idempotent cipher

Show that the simple substitution cipher is idempotent

Does the security of the newly formed cipher increase?

In a non-idempotent cipher, however the security may increase.

# Iterative Cipher

- An n-fold product of this is  $S \times S \times S \dots$  (n times) =  $S^n$  is an iterative cipher

All modern block ciphers like DES, 3-DES, AES, etc. are iterative, non-idempotent, product ciphers.

We will see more about these ciphers next!!