

Related concepts

CRYPTOGRAPHY AND COMPUTER SECURITY

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COSEC



OUTLINE

- 3. Related concepts
 - Information theory
 - Entropy
 - Conditional entropy
 - Randomness
 - Algorithmic Complexity

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INFORMATION THEORY

- Mathematical basis (Claude E.Shannon)
 - *A mathematical theory of communication*, Bell Syst. Tech. J., vol.23.1948
- Theoretical foundations of cryptography: Scientific Cryptology

INFORMATION THEORY

- It is a branch of applied mathematics involving the quantification of information
- It is based on the uncertainty that a cryptanalyst, who has intercepted a piece of ciphertext, has about plaintext
- A cipher is mathematically vulnerable:
 - If increasing C length we obtain additional information
 - It does not necessarily imply that it will be vulnerable in real life → Computational security
- Cipher unconditionally secure (perfect secrecy):
 - Independent of the length of C (Vernam)

AMOUNT OF INFORMATION

- Let $M=\{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n\}$ be a **source** of statistically independent messages, which respective occurrence probabilities are:

$$p(m_1), \dots, p(m_n) \text{ con } \sum p(m_i)=1$$

- The **amount of information** (c_i) in a **message** m_i is:

$$c_i = -\log_2 p(m_i) \text{ bits}$$

- When $p(m_i)$ increases, c_i decreases

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ENTROPY

- **Entropy** of a **source** M is the average amount of information a m_i belonging to that source conveys
- **Entropy** of source M :

$$H(M) = - \sum p(m_i) \log_2 p(m_i) \text{ bits}$$

- **Bit**: entropy of a source having 2 equiprobable messages
- $(1/2 \log_2 1/2 + 1/2 \log_2 1/2) = 1/2 \log_2 2 + 1/2 \log_2 2) = 1 \text{ bit}$

ENTROPY

- **Entropy** of source M is the expected amount of information provided by an observation of M
- The **entropy** of a source M measures the (a priori) uncertainty about the outcome before an observation of M
- For higher values of entropy, we expect higher values of uncertainty about the source M

Zero entropy = zero uncertainty = $p(m_i)=1$ for some i

ENTROPY

- Be $M=\{m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n\}$ with $\sum p(m_i)=1$
- Properties
 1. $0 \leq H(M) \leq \log_2 n$
 2. $H(M)=0$ if and only if $p(m_i)=1$ for some i
 3. $H(M)=\log_2 n$ if and only if $p(m_i)=1/n$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$

ENTROPY

- Ex. Consider a source with 2 elements $M = \{m_1, m_2\}$ with $p(m_1)=1/3$ and $p(m_2)=2/3$. Calculate the entropy of M

$$H(M) = - \sum p(m_i) \log_2 p(m_i) = 1/3 \log_2 3 - 2/3 \log_2 2/3 = 0.52 + 0.38 = 0.9$$

- Ex. Consider a source with 2 elements $M = \{m_1, m_2\}$ with $p(m_1)=0.4$ and $p(m_2)=0.6$. Calculate the entropy of M

$$H(M) = - \sum p(m_i) \log_2 p(m_i) = -0.4 \log_2 0.4 - 0.6 \log_2 0.6 = 0.52 + 0.44 = 0.96$$

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CONDITIONAL ENTROPY

- If there exists a bound between the appearances of two consecutive messages n_j (belonging to source N) and m_i (belonging to source M), the presence of the first message lowers the uncertainty for the second one.
- We define **entropy** of M **conditional** on N, $H(M|N)$, as the mean value of the amount of information of M, being N known

$$H(M|N) = - \sum_j p(n_j) \sum_i p(m_i|n_j) \log_2 p(m_i|n_j)$$

CONDITIONAL ENTROPY

- Ex. $M = \{m_1, m_2, m_3, m_4\}$, $p(m_1) = p(m_2) = p(m_3) = p(m_4) = 1/4$ y $N = \{n_1, n_2\}$, $p(n_1) = p(n_2) = 1/2$.
 $N = n_1 \Rightarrow M = m_1$ or m_2 (equiprobably)
 $N = n_2 \Rightarrow M = m_3$ or m_4 (equiprobably)
- $H(M) = 2$ and
- $H(M|N) = 1/2(1/2 \lg_2 2 + 1/2 \lg_2 2) + 1/2(1/2 \lg_2 2 + 1/2 \lg_2 2) = 1$
- As we have seen, if we have information about N , this will result in a reduction of the entropy of M

CONDITIONAL ENTROPY

- Cryptographic methods intend to maximize $H(M|N)$, being M the set of plaintexts and N the set of ciphertexts
- Every cipher (with the exception of Vernam) (unintentionally) 'leaks' some plaintext information to ciphertext
- The amount of information 'leaked' increases along with the ciphertext length

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RANDOM VARIABLE

- Let S be a sample space following some probability distribution P
- A random variable (stochastic) X is a function from S to the set of real numbers: $X : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- Example of random discrete variable
- $S = \{\text{heads, tails}\}$ $X(s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{si } s=\text{head} \\ 0 & \text{si } s=\text{tail} \end{cases}$
- If balanced coin: $P(X=1) = \frac{1}{2}$; $P(X=0) = \frac{1}{2}$

RANDOM SEQUENCE

- Multiple applications:
 - Key distribution
 - Mutual authentication protocols
 - Session key generation
 - RSA key generation
 - Bitstream generation for stream ciphers
- Randomness criteria:
 - **Uniform distribution**: Frequency of 1's and 0's must be aprox. the same
 - **Independence**: None of the subsequences can be inferred from others

RANDOM SEQUENCE

- Test batteries
 - There are some tests available to prove uniform distribution
 - There are **no** specific **tests** to prove **independence**
 - There **exist** some **tests** to prove **no independence**
 - **If a sequence does not pass the tests, we can state that randomness is discarded**
 - **If all tests are passed, there is no guarantee about randomness**
 - Maurer Universal Test is not definitive

RANDOMNESS

RANDOM SEQUENCE

- Cryptographic algorithms do usually use algorithms to generate “random” numbers...
- Although a truly random sequence can never be generated by an algorithm (it is deterministic by definition)
- Difference:
 - Pseudorandomness (PRNG)
 - Algorithm
 - Randomness (TRNG) [Use of nondeterministic sources]
 - Sources of entropy based on unpredictable natural processes
 - Reduction or elimination of bias (eg., with hash functions)

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 - **Algorithmic Complexity**

ALGORITHM COMPLEXITY

- Mathematical discipline focused on the analysis of algorithms, dealing with their difficulty of resolution
- It classifies algorithms in terms of their complexity

PROBLEMS AND ALGORITHMS

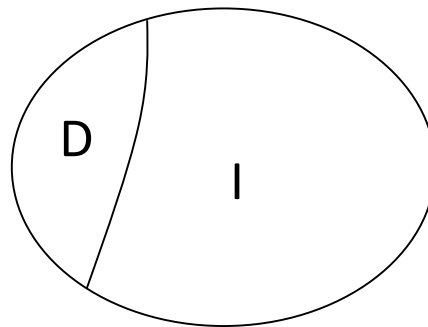
- Problem
 - A specific task in a determined context
- Algorithm
 - A finite set of operations, which carried out in a determined order, solves a problem
 - An algorithm handles particular cases of the problem (particular problem)
 - In case an algorithm solves all particular problems
⇒ the algorithm solves the generic problem

PROBLEMS AND ALGORITHMS

- Turing proved that not every problem has an algorithm capable of solving it
- **Not every problem has a solution!**

PROBLEMS AND ALGORITHMS

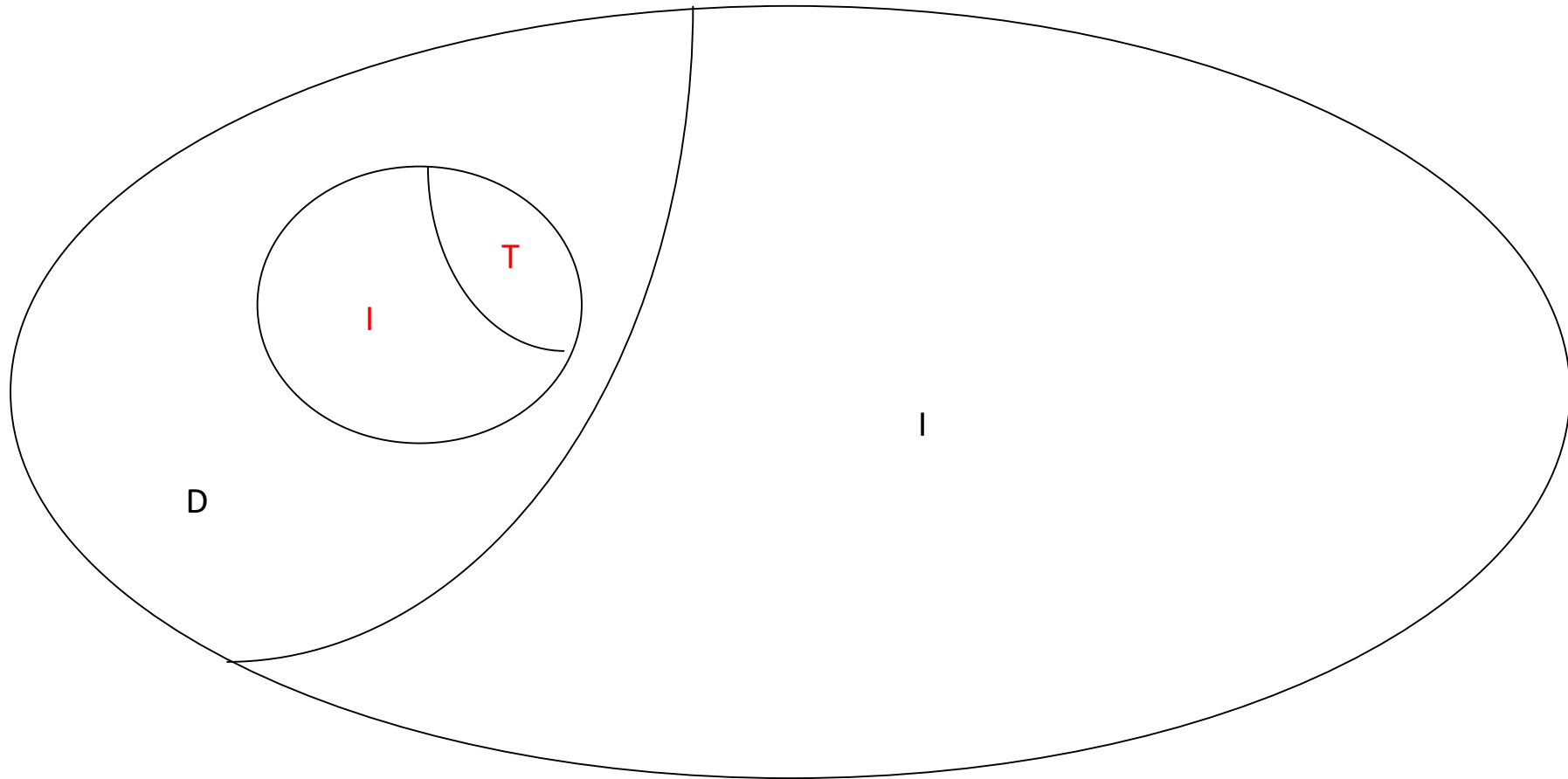
- First classification of problems
 - **Undecidables (U)**
 - Not solvable by means of an algorithm
 - **Decidables (D)**
 - There is, at least, an algorithm that solves them



TRACTABLE AND INTRACTABLE PROBLEMS

- There exist unapproachable problems, due to the high number of operations required to solve them
- Second classification of problems:
 - **Intractables (I)**
 - It is not feasible to reach a solution using state of the art computing power
 - **Tractables (T)**
 - There exists, at least, an algorithm that solves every particular problem in a reasonable timeframe

TRACTABLE AND INTRACTABLE PROBLEMS



TIME COMPLEXITY

- **Time complexity t** measures the amount of time taken by an algorithm to solve a problem
- It is a function of the size of the **input (n)**
- Asymptotic behaviour when **n** grows
 - **Polynomial time algorithm**
 - Asymptotic behaviour $O(n^c)$ [or smaller]
 - Eg polynomial order
 - Ex $t = 2n^3 + 6n$ $O(n^3)$ t :execution time
 - **Non Polynomial time algorithm**
 - Asymptotic behaviour $O(c^n)$ [or greater than polynomial]
 - Eg exponential order
 - Ex. $t = 3^n + 4n$ $O(3^n)$

TIME COMPLEXITY

- Using a computer able to execute 1 million operations per second

Size n	$\log_2 n$ (t)	n (t)	n^2 (t)	2^n (t)
10	$3 \cdot 10^{-6}$ s	10^{-5} s	10^{-4} s	10^{-3} s
10^2	$7 \cdot 10^{-6}$ s	10^{-4} s	10^{-2} s	10^{14} centuries
10^3	$10 \cdot 10^{-6}$ s	10^{-3} s	1 s	Very big
10^4	$13 \cdot 10^{-6}$ s	10^{-2} s	1,7 min	Very big
10^5	$17 \cdot 10^{-6}$ s	10^{-1} s	2,8 h	Very big

ALGORITHMIC COMPLEXITY CLASSES

- A problem can be solved using different algorithms
- Problems are divided into **complexity classes**:
 - **P Class** (Polynomial)
 - **NP Class** (Non deterministic Polynomial problems)
 - Other...

ALGORITHMIC COMPLEXITY CLASSES

- **P Class** (Polynomial)
 - Solve Tractable problems
 - By means of polynomial algorithms (good algorithms)
 - Uses deterministic algorithms
 - Each step is determined in a deterministic manner
 - The result of concatenating two P algorithms is another P algorithm

ALGORITHMIC COMPLEXITY CLASSES

- **NP Class (Non deterministic Polynomial problems)**
 - Solve Intractables problems (and tractable)
 - $P \subset NP?$
 - By means of non polynomial algorithms (like exponential algorithms (bad algorithms))
 - Uses non-deterministic algorithms
 - Need to select different alternatives before reaching a solution
 - Examples:
 - Discrete logarithm problem
 - Factoring problem

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