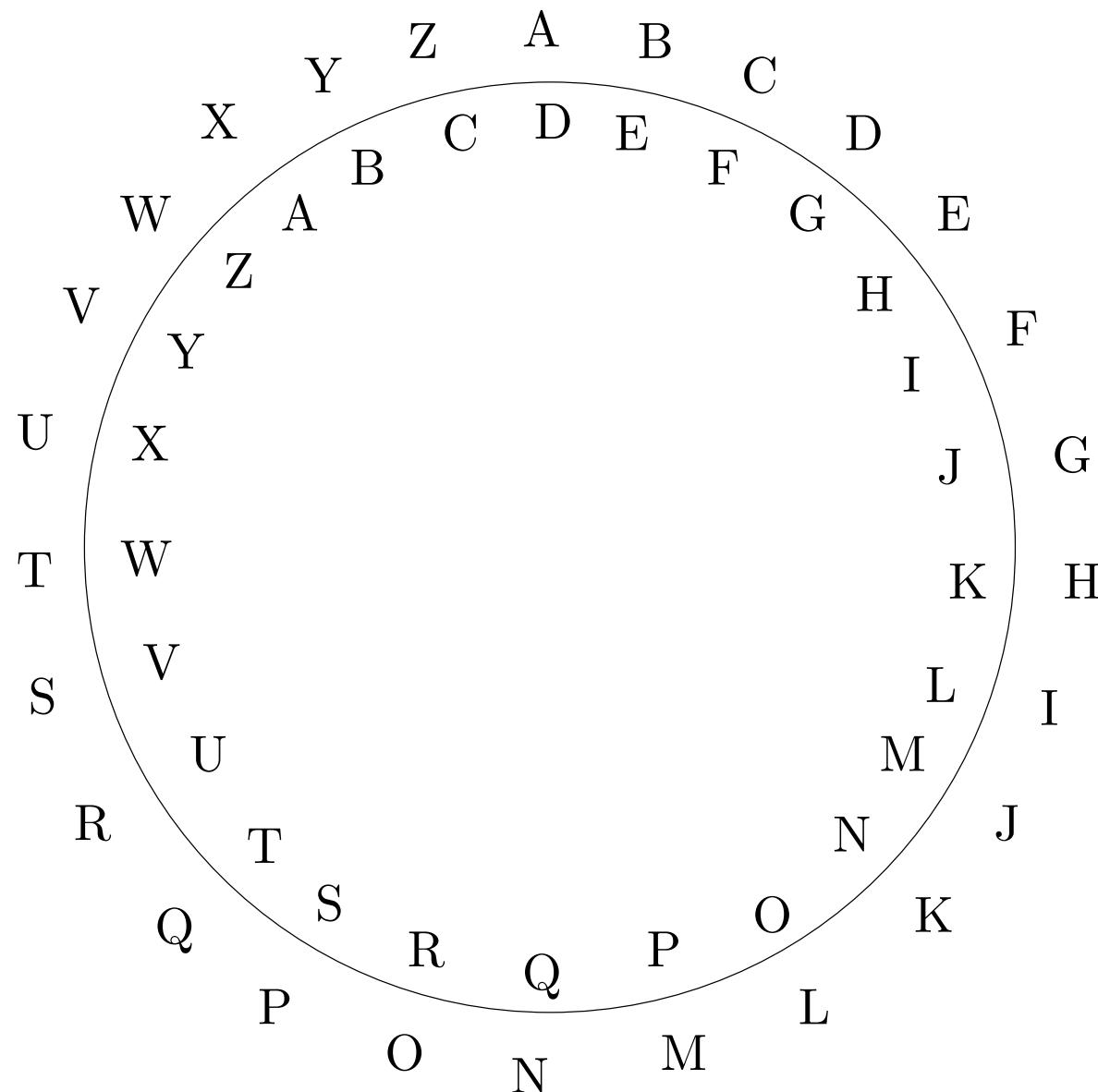
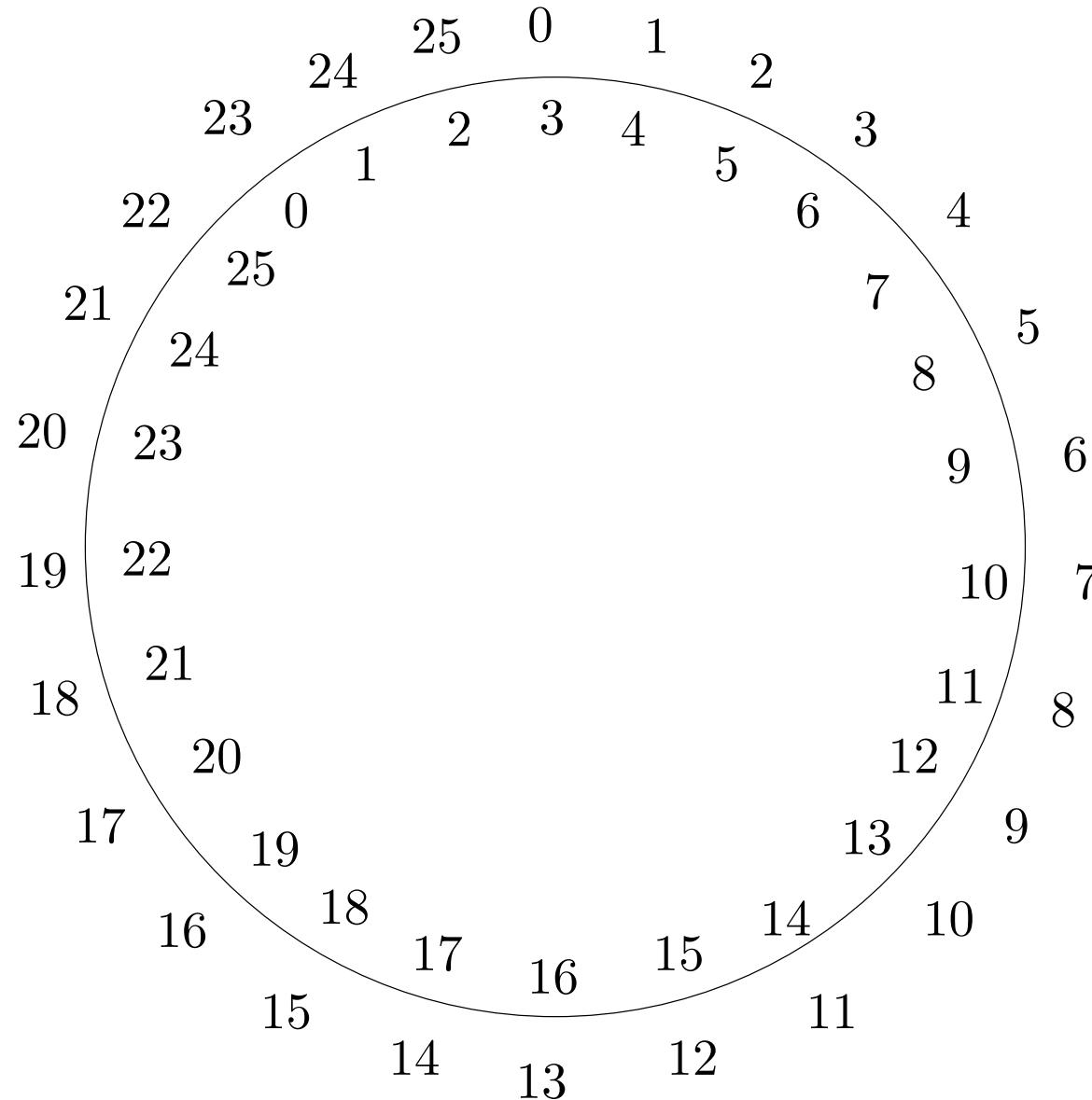


Caesari šiffer



Kuidas oleks seda šifrit mugav matemaatiliselt analüüsida?

Caesari šifri matemaatiline kuju



Asendame hulga $\{A, B, C, \dots, Y, Z\}$ hulgaga $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, 24, 25\}$.

Arvutused jääkidega: liitmine

Vaatleme nende jääkide hulka, mis võivad tekkida jagamisel arvuga n :

$$\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-2, n-1\} := \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

Definerime hulgal \mathbb{Z}_n liitmise: kui $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, siis

$$a \oplus b = a + b \bmod n.$$

Edaspidi kirjutame \oplus asemel lihtsalt $+$. Näiteks

$$13 + 8 = 21 \bmod 26,$$

$$13 + 8 = 3 \bmod 9.$$

Caesari šiffer avaldub siis kujul

$$\mathbb{Z}_{26} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{26} : x \mapsto x + 3 \bmod 26$$

ja üldine *nihkešiffer* kujul

$$\mathbb{Z}_{26} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{26} : x \mapsto x + a \bmod 26.$$

Liitmise omadused

1. *Leidub ühikelement:*

$$\exists o \in \mathbb{Z}_n \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad o + x = x + o = x \pmod{n}$$

Nihkešifri jaoks: leidub nihe, mis jätab kõik paigale. Ilmselt $o = 0$.

2. *Leiduvad pöördeelemendid:*

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \exists x' \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad x + x' = x' + x = o \pmod{n}$$

Nihkešifri jaoks: iga nihke jaouks leidub teine nihe, mis esimese annulleerib. Teisisõnu: iga kodeerimine nihkešifriga on dekodeeritav.

3. *Assotsiatiiivsus:*

$$\forall x, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad (x + a) + b = x + (a + b) \pmod{n}$$

Nihkešifri jaoks: me saame sama tulemuse, kui teeme järjest nihked a ja b võrra või kohe ühe nihke $a + b$ võrra.

Omaduste 1.–3. tõttu nimetatakse paari $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$ (*jäägiklassi*)rühmaks.

Arvutused jäälküdiga: korrutamine

Hulgas \mathbb{Z}_n saab ka korrutada:

$$a \odot b = a \cdot b \bmod n.$$

Edaspidi kirjutame \odot asemel lihtsalt \cdot . Näiteks

$$13 \cdot 8 = 0 \bmod 26,$$

$$13 \cdot 8 = 5 \bmod 9.$$

Siis saame defineerida *multiplikatiivse šifri*

$$\mathbb{Z}_{26} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{26} : x \mapsto k \cdot x \bmod 26$$

ja *afinse šifri*

$$\mathbb{Z}_{26} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{26} : x \mapsto k \cdot x + a \bmod 26.$$

Korrutamise omadused

1. Leidub ühikelement:

$$\exists e \in \mathbb{Z}_n \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad e \cdot x = x \cdot e = x \pmod{n}$$

Selleks elemendiks sobib (ainsana) $e = 1$.

2. Assotsiatiivsus:

$$\forall x, a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad (x \cdot a) \cdot b = x \cdot (a \cdot b) \pmod{n}$$

Korrutamise suhtes ei pruugi alati pöördelementi leiduda, nt

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \quad x \cdot 0 = 0,$$

järelikult ei leidu sellist elementi $0'$, et $0' \cdot 0 = 1$.

Seega ei ole multiplikatiivne ja afiinne šiffer alati pööratavad.

Aga millal on?

(\mathbb{Z}_{10}, \cdot) pööratavad elemendid

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	0	2	4	6	8	0	2	4	6	8
3	0	3	6	9	2	5	8	1	4	7
4	0	4	8	2	6	0	4	8	2	6
5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5
6	0	6	2	8	4	0	6	2	8	4
7	0	7	4	1	8	5	2	9	6	3
8	0	8	6	4	2	0	8	6	4	2
9	0	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Teoreem. Korrutamise suhtes on pööratavad parajasti need elemendid $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, mille korral $\gcd(x, n) = 1$.

Definitsioon. Ringi R element $x \neq 0$ on nullitegur, kui leidub $y \in R$, $y \neq 0$ nii, et $x \cdot y = 0$.

Fakt. $0 \in R$ ei ole R -s pööratav.

Lemma. Nullitegur $x \in R$ ei ole R -s pööratav.

Tõestus. Olgu $y \in R$, $y \neq 0$ selline, et $xy = 0$. Siis

$$y = 1 \cdot y = x^{-1}xy = x^{-1} \cdot 0 = 0 .$$

Fakt. $1 \in R$ on pööratav.

Olgu $R^* \subset R$ ringi R kõigi pööratavate elementide hulk.

Lemma. Lõplikus ringis R leidub ainult kolme sorti elemente — 0, nullitegurid ja pööratavad elemendid.

Tõestus. Näitame, et kui $x \in R$, $x \neq 0$ ja x ei ole nullitegur, siis $x \in R^*$.

Olgu $y, z \in R$ ja $y \neq z$. Siis $xy \neq xz$. Tõepoolest, muidu oleks $x(y - z) = 0$, kuid $y - z \neq 0$. S.t. x oleks nullitegur.

Vaatame kujutust $f_x : R \longrightarrow R : y \mapsto xy$.

Me just näitasime, et f_x on injektiivne. Kuna R on lõplik, siis on ta ka surjektiivne.

$\exists y : f_x(y) = 1$. See y ongi x^{-1} .

Märkus: lõplikkus on oluline. Näiteks ringis \mathbb{Z} nullitegureid ei ole, aga pööratavaid elemente on ainult kaks tükki.

Eukleidese algoritm $\gcd(a, b)$ leidmiseks, kus $a, b \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$:

Loeme, et $a \geq b$. Olgu $a_0 = a$ ja $a_1 = b$. Iga $n \geq 1$ jaoks olnu $a_{n+1} = a_{n-1} \bmod a_n$, kui $a_n \neq 0$. Siis $\gcd(a, b)$ on võrdne viimase 0-st erineva elemendiga järjendis (a_n) .

Lemma. Eukleidese algoritm on korrektne.

Tõestus. Induktsioon üle järjendi (a_n) pikkuse.

Baas: $a_2 = 0$. Siis $b \mid a$ ning $\gcd(a, b) = b = a_1$.

Samm: Näitame, et $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$.

I) Olgu $d \mid a$ ja $d \mid b$. Siis $a \bmod b = a - b \cdot \lfloor a/b \rfloor = d((a/d) - (b/d) \cdot \lfloor a/b \rfloor)$.

II) Olgu $d \mid b$ ja $d \mid (a \bmod b)$. Siis $a = b \cdot \lfloor a/b \rfloor + (a \bmod b) = d((b/d) \cdot \lfloor a/b \rfloor + (a \bmod b)/d)$.

Lemma. Olgu (a_n) järjend, mis tekib Eukleidese algoritmi kasutamisel $\gcd(a, b)$ leidmiseks. Siis iga n jaoks leiduvad $u_n, v_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ nii, et $u_n a + v_n b = a_n$.

Tõestus. $u_0 = 1, v_0 = 0, u_1 = 0, v_1 = 1$.

Järjendis (a_n) kehtib

$$a_{n+1} = a_{n-1} - a_n \cdot \lfloor a_{n-1}/a_n \rfloor .$$

Võtamegi siis

$$\begin{aligned} u_{n+1} &= u_{n-1} - u_n \cdot \lfloor a_{n-1}/a_n \rfloor \\ v_{n+1} &= v_{n-1} - v_n \cdot \lfloor a_{n-1}/a_n \rfloor . \end{aligned}$$

Teoreemi tõestus. Kui $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, siis leiduvad $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ nii, et $ua + vn = 1$ (ringis \mathbb{Z}). Ringis \mathbb{Z}_n siis $(u \bmod n)a = ua + vn = 1$.

Kui $\gcd(a, n) = d > 1$, siis $(n/d) \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ ning $a \cdot (n/d) = (a/d) \cdot n = 0$ ringis \mathbb{Z}_n . S.t. a on nullitegur.

Hulk \mathbb{Z}_n^*

... on struktuuri (\mathbb{Z}_n, \cdot) kõigi pööratavate elementide hulk:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{Z}_n^* &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \exists x' \in \mathbb{Z}_n, x \cdot x' = 1\} = \\ &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \gcd(x, n) = 1\}.\end{aligned}$$

Teoreem. Struktuur (\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot) on rühm.

Millised paarid (k, a) sobivad afiinse šifri

$$\mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n : x \mapsto k \cdot x + a \pmod{n}$$

võtmeteks, et see šiffer oleks pööratav? Ilmselt

$$(k, a) \in \mathbb{Z}_n^* \times \mathbb{Z}_n.$$

Kui suur on võtmeruum?

$$|\mathbb{Z}_n^* \times \mathbb{Z}_n| = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| \cdot |\mathbb{Z}_n| = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| \cdot n.$$

Euleri φ -funktsioon

... on defineeritud kui

$$\varphi(n) := |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| = |\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \gcd(x, n) = 1\}|.$$

Teoreem. Olgu $p \in \mathbb{P}$ ja $e \in \mathbb{N}$. Siis

$$\varphi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1}.$$

Kuidas avaldub $\varphi(n)$ suvalise $n \in \mathbb{N}$ jaoks? Teame, et n -i saab esitada algtegurite astmete korruitisena:

$$n = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_r^{e_r}.$$

Teoreem.

$$\varphi(n) = (p_1^{e_1} - p_1^{e_1-1}) \cdot \dots \cdot (p_r^{e_r} - p_r^{e_r-1}).$$

See teoreem järeltub järgmisest lemmast.

Lemma. Kui $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, siis

$$\varphi(m \cdot n) = \varphi(m) \cdot \varphi(n).$$

$$\varphi(m \cdot n) = \varphi(m) \cdot \varphi(n): \text{näide}$$

Vaatleme juhtu $n = 72$.

$$\begin{aligned}\varphi(72) &= \varphi(8 \cdot 9) = \varphi(8) \cdot \varphi(9) = \\ &= \varphi(2^3) \cdot \varphi(3^2) = (2^3 - 2^2) \cdot (3^2 - 3^1) = \\ &= (8 - 4) \cdot (9 - 3) = 4 \cdot 6 = 24.\end{aligned}$$

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
0	0	64	56	48	40	32	24	16	8
1	9	1	65	57	49	41	33	25	17
2	18	10	2	66	58	50	42	34	26
3	27	19	11	3	67	59	51	43	35
4	36	28	20	12	4	68	60	52	44
5	45	37	29	21	13	5	69	61	53
6	54	46	38	30	22	14	6	70	62
7	63	55	47	39	31	23	15	7	71

Tõestuse skeem (I)

Kui $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, siis on kujutus

$$CRT : \mathbb{Z}_{m \cdot n} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n : x \mapsto (x \bmod m, x \bmod n)$$

bijektsioon. See väide on samaväärne *Hiina jäätiteoreemiga*.

Teoreem. Kui $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, siis on kongruentside süsteemil

$$x \equiv a \pmod{m},$$

$$x \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

täpselt üks lahend modulo $m \cdot n$.

Hiina jäätiteoreem (üldkujul)

Teoreem. Olgu m_1, m_2, \dots, m_r paarikaupa ühistegurita naturaalarvud ja a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r mingid naturaalarvud. Siis on süsteemil

$$x = a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x = a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

...

$$x = a_r \pmod{m_r}$$

täpselt üks lahend modulo $m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot \dots \cdot m_r$.

Tõestus. x -i leiate järgmiselt. Olgu

- $M = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdot \dots \cdot m_r$.
- $M_i = M/m_i$, $1 \leq i \leq r$.
- $M'_i = M_i^{-1} \pmod{m_i}$.
- $x = (M_1 M'_1 a_1 + M_2 M'_2 a_2 + \dots + M_r M'_r a_r) \pmod{M}$.

Siis $x \equiv M_i M'_i a_i \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$, sest $M_j \equiv 0 \pmod{m_i}$, kui $i \neq j$.

Näitasime, et leidub vähemalt üks lahend. Seega on kujutus *CRT* surjektiivne. Injektiivsus järeltub määramis- ja muutumispiirkonna võimsuste võrdsusest ja lõplikusest.

Tõestuse skeem (II)

Väite

$$\varphi(m \cdot n) = \varphi(m) \cdot \varphi(n)$$

ehk

$$|\mathbb{Z}_{m \cdot n}^*| = |\mathbb{Z}_m^*| \cdot |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| (= |\mathbb{Z}_m^* \times \mathbb{Z}_n^*|)$$

tõestamiseks piisab tõestada, et

$$x \in \mathbb{Z}_{m \cdot n}^* \Leftrightarrow CRT(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_m^* \times \mathbb{Z}_n^*.$$

Olgut $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{m \cdot n}^*$. Olgut y selline, et $xy \equiv 1 \pmod{m \cdot n}$. Siis $xy \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ ja $xy \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

Olgut $y \in \mathbb{Z}_m^*$ ja $z \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$. Olgut $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{m \cdot n}$ selline, et $x \bmod m = y$ ja $x \bmod n = z$. Olgut y', z' sellised, et $yy' \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ ja $zz' \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Olgut $x' \in \mathbb{Z}_{m \cdot n}$ selline, et $x' \equiv y' \pmod{m}$ ja $x' \equiv z' \pmod{n}$. Siis $xx' \equiv yy' \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ ja $xx' \equiv zz' \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$. Seega $xx' \equiv 1 \pmod{m \cdot n}$.

Afinse šifri murdmīne (I)

Ülesanne

Knzilm qlzjw md f jv mgjm mgnf hjf qlxjtf1
gl gje utfm gje j qjmg, jwe mglw gl
mgdtzgm mgjm klygjkf gl hdtiew'm f jv
mgjm, jwe jf gl dklwle gnf pdtmg md f jv
fdplmgnwz lifl, Bjwzj finkkle mgl
plenxnwl fkddw nw, jwe mglw kjmmle gnp dw
mgl qjxb jwe mdie gnp mgjm nm hjf yljiiv
rtnml j wnxl mjfm̄l hglw vdt zdm tfle md
nm.

Afinse šifri murdmine (II)

Tekstis esineb täht M 33 korda, tähed J ja L 28 korda. Kolm kõige sagedasemat ingliskeelset tähte on E, T ja A. Vastavus

$$\begin{aligned} E &\rightarrow M, \\ T &\rightarrow J \end{aligned}$$

annab võrrandisüsteemi

$$\begin{aligned} k \cdot 4 + a &= 12 \pmod{26}, \\ k \cdot 19 + a &= 9 \pmod{26}. \end{aligned}$$

Süsteemi lahendiks on $k = 5$, $a = 18$ ja kujutuse

$$x \mapsto 5 \cdot x + 18$$

pöördkujutuseks

$$x \mapsto 21 \cdot x + 12.$$

Afinse šifri murdmine (III)

Lahendus 1.

Ozryje kjrtg ex ntl eite eizn dtn kjbtvnj
ij its qvne its t ktei, tgs eijg ij
eixvrie eite ojwiton ij dxvysg'e ntl
eite, tgs tn ij xojgjs izn pxvei ex ntl
nxpjeizgr jynj, Htgrt nyzoojs ej
pjpszbzgj noxxg zg, tgs eijg oteejs izp xg
eij ktbh tgs exys izp eite ze dtn wjtyyl
fvzej t gzbj etnej dijg lxv rxe vnjs ex
ze.

Afinse šifri murdmine (IV)

Vastavus

$$E \rightarrow L,$$

$$A \rightarrow J$$

annab võrrandisüsteemi

$$k \cdot 4 + a = 11 \pmod{26},$$

$$k \cdot 0 + a = 9 \pmod{26}$$

ja vastavus

$$E \rightarrow L,$$

$$T \rightarrow M$$

võrrandisüsteemi

$$k \cdot 4 + a = 11 \pmod{26},$$

$$k \cdot 19 + a = 12 \pmod{26}.$$

Afinse šifri murdmene (V)

Lahendus 2.

Piglet began to say that this was because he had just had a bath, and then he thought that perhaps he wouldn't say that, and as he opened his mouth to say something else, Kanga slipped the medicine spoon in, and then patted him on the back and told him that it was really quite a nice taste when you got used to it.

Ülesanne 2.15

Bmv za sompjx'v epaaf. Vza gona za vnqaj vo epaaf, vza gona za sompjx'v. Za vnqaj Somxvqxi Ezaaf, uzqsz qe eogavqgae k iooj ukc or iavvqxi vo epaaf, kxj, ke vzkv uke xo iooj, za vnqaj somxvqxi Zarrkpmgfe. Kxj vzkv uke uonea. Baskmea adanc Zarrkpmgf vzkv za somxvaj uke gkyqxi evnkqizv ron k fov or Fooz'e zoxac, kxj akvqxi qv kpp.

x	1	3	5	7	9	11	15	17	19	21	23	25
$x^{-1} \pmod{26}$	1	9	21	15	3	19	7	23	11	5	17	25

Ülesanne 2.16

H ejuv krlo mvvw oehwnhwb, jws H ejuv pztv oz j uvid htcziojwo svphlhzw. Oevlv jiv oev xizwb lzio zy mvvl.

Hill's cipher

- Key: a number m and an invertible square matrix $M \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}^{m \times m}$.
- Encoding: split the text to sequences of length m . The ciphertext corresponding to $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}^m$ is $x \cdot M$.
- Decoding: the plaintext corresponding to the ciphertext $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}^m$ is $y \cdot M^{-1}$.

Example: let $m = 3$ and

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 15 & 2 & 13 \\ 8 & 21 & 1 \\ 14 & 16 & 7 \end{pmatrix} .$$

Then $\det M \equiv 9 \pmod{26}$, i.e. M is invertible in $\mathbb{Z}_{26}^{3 \times 3}$ (because 9 is invertible in \mathbb{Z}_{26}).

Let the plaintext be CRYPTOGRAPHY or
 $(2, 17, 24), (15, 19, 14), (6, 17, 0), (15, 7, 24)$.

Multiplying all these four vectors with M (from the right) gives us the ciphertext $(8, 17, 3), (1, 3, 0), (18, 5, 17), (19, 15, 6)$ or
IRDBDASFRTPG.

To decode, let us find M^{-1} ...

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 15 & 2 & 13 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 8 & 21 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 14 & 16 & 7 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 14 & 13 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 8 & 21 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 14 & 16 & 7 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow$$

Multiplied the first row with $7 = 15^{-1}$.

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 14 & 13 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 13 & 1 & 22 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 & 6 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 14 & 13 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 11 & 12 & 1 & 20 \\ 0 & 2 & 7 & 6 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow$$

Added the right multiples of the first row to the second and third rows.
Then subtracted the sixfold third row from the second.

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 14 & 13 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 11 & 12 & 1 & 20 \\ 0 & 0 & 11 & 8 & 24 & 13 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 14 & 13 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 11 & 12 & 1 & 20 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 22 & 14 & 13 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow$$

Subtracted the twofold second row from the third. Then multiplied the third row with $19 = 11^{-1}$.

$$\left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 14 & 0 & 7 & 0 & 13 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 22 & 14 & 13 \end{array} \right) \rightarrow \left(\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 10 & 19 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 4 & 3 & 7 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 22 & 14 & 13 \end{array} \right)$$

Added the multiples of the third row to the first and second row. Then added the multiple of the second row to the first row. Hence

$$M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 10 & 19 \\ 4 & 3 & 7 \\ 22 & 14 & 13 \end{pmatrix}$$

To decode, the vectors making up the ciphertext must be multiplied with M^{-1} from the right.

$$(8, 17, 3) \cdot M^{-1} = (2, 17, 24), \text{ etc.}$$

Types of attacks against encryption systems

- ciphertext-only (*tuntud krüptotekstiga*)
 - Given a ciphertext, find the plaintext and/or the key.
- known-plaintext (*tuntud avatekstiga*)
 - The attacker knows a number of plaintext-ciphertext pairs. With their help, find the key or the plaintext corresponding to some other ciphertext.
- chosen-plaintext (*valitud avatekstiga*)
 - The attacker can invoke the encoding function. Find the key or the plaintext.
- chosen-ciphertext (*valitud krüptotekstiga*)
 - The attacker can invoke the decoding function. Find the key or the plaintext. The decoding function may not be invoked on the ciphertext that we have to decode.

Known-plaintext attack on Hill's cipher

Let m be known (if not, guess). let (x_i, y_i) be the pairs of known plaintext-ciphertext pairs corresponding to an unknown key. I.e. $y_i = x_i \cdot M$.

- Let x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_m} be linearly independent plaintexts.
- Let X be a matrix with the rows x_{i_1}, \dots, x_{i_m} .
- Let Y be the matrix with the rows y_{i_1}, \dots, y_{i_m} .
- $Y = X \cdot M$, hence $M = X^{-1} \cdot Y$.
- If m was unknown then we can use the other plaintext-ciphertext pairs to verify the correctness of M .

A cryptosystem is **unconditionally secure** (*absoluutselt turvaline*) (wrt. a class of attacks) if no adversary (no matter what resources it has) can break it with the help of these attacks.

Let \mathbf{X} be a random variable over the set X and \mathbf{Y} a random variable over the set Y .

$\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x]$ denotes the probability that \mathbf{X} gets the value $x \in X$.

$\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x, \mathbf{Y} = y]$ denotes the probability that \mathbf{X} gets the value $x \in X$ and simultaneously \mathbf{Y} gets the value $y \in Y$.

$\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x | \mathbf{Y} = y]$ denotes the probability that \mathbf{X} gets the value x , given that \mathbf{Y} got the value y .

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x, \mathbf{Y} = y] &= \Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y] \cdot \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x | \mathbf{Y} = y] \\ &= \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x] \cdot \Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y | \mathbf{X} = x]\end{aligned}$$

Bayes' theorem: if $\Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y] > 0$, then

$$\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x | \mathbf{Y} = y] = \frac{\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x] \cdot \Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y | \mathbf{X} = x]}{\Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y]} .$$

\mathbf{X} ja \mathbf{Y} are **independent**, if $\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x | \mathbf{Y} = y] = \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x]$ for all $x \in X, y \in Y$.

Let \mathbf{P} , \mathbf{K} ja \mathbf{C} be random variables over sets \mathcal{P} , \mathcal{K} ja \mathcal{C} , describing the distribution of plaintexts, keys and ciphertexts. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[\mathbf{C} = y] &= \sum_{\substack{x \in \mathcal{P} \\ k \in \mathcal{K} \\ e_k(x) = y}} \Pr[\mathbf{P} = x, \mathbf{K} = k] = \\ &\sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \Pr[\mathbf{P} = d_k(y), \mathbf{K} = k] = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \Pr[\mathbf{P} = d_k(y)] \cdot \Pr[\mathbf{K} = k] . \\ \Pr[\mathbf{C} = y | \mathbf{P} = x] &= \sum_{\substack{k \in \mathcal{K} \\ y = e_k(x)}} \Pr[\mathbf{K} = k] \\ &\Pr[\mathbf{P} = x] \cdot \sum_{\substack{k \in \mathcal{K} \\ y = e_k(x)}} \Pr[\mathbf{K} = k] \\ \Pr[\mathbf{P} = x | \mathbf{C} = y] &= \frac{\sum_{\substack{k \in \mathcal{K} \\ y = e_k(x)}} \Pr[\mathbf{K} = k]}{\sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \Pr[\mathbf{P} = d_k(y)] \cdot \Pr[\mathbf{K} = k]} \end{aligned}$$

An encryption system has perfect secrecy, if $\Pr[\mathbf{P} = x | \mathbf{C} = y] = \Pr[\mathbf{P} = x]$ for all $x \in \mathcal{P}$, $y \in \mathcal{C}$.

Equivalently: $\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y | \mathbf{P} = x] = \Pr[\mathbf{C} = y]$ for all $x \in \mathcal{P}$, $y \in \mathcal{C}$.

Perfect secrecy is unconditional security wrt. ciphertext-only attacks.

Theorem. Shift cipher has perfect secrecy if its key is chosen with uniform probability and a key is used to encrypt a single character.

Proof. $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$.

- $\Pr[\mathbf{K} = k] = 1/26$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}$.
- $\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y] = 1/26$ for all $y \in \mathbb{Z}_{26}$, because $y = x + k$, x and k are independent and k is uniformly distributed.
- $\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y | \mathbf{P} = x] = \Pr[\mathbf{K} = y - x] = 1/26$.

$$\Pr[\mathbf{P} = x | \mathbf{C} = y] = \frac{\Pr[\mathbf{P} = x] \cdot (1/26)}{1/26} = \Pr[\mathbf{P} = x] .$$

Assume that $\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y] > 0$ for all $y \in \mathcal{C}$. If not, then remove this y from \mathcal{C} .

Lemma. If a cryptosystem has perfect secrecy then for all $x \in \mathcal{P}$ and $y \in \mathcal{C}$ there exists $k \in \mathcal{K}$, such that $e_k(x) = y$.

Proof. Assume the contrary, i.e. there exist x and y , such that $e_k(x) = y$ for no k . Then $\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y | \mathbf{P} = x] = 0$, but $\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y] > 0$. Hence there is no perfect secrecy.

Theorem. Let $(\mathcal{P}, \mathcal{C}, \mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$ be an encryption system where $|\mathcal{P}| = |\mathcal{K}| = |\mathcal{C}|$. This encryption system has perfect secrecy iff the key is chosen uniformly and for all $x \in \mathcal{P}$, $y \in \mathcal{C}$ exists a unique $k \in \mathcal{K}$, such that $e_k(x) = y$.

Proof. \Rightarrow . Let the system have perfect secrecy. Then for all $x \in \mathcal{P}$ and $y \in \mathcal{C}$ there is at least one $k \in \mathcal{K}$, such that $e_k(x) = y$. Because the same key is usable for at most $|\mathcal{P}|$ pairs of (x, y) , there cannot be more than one.

Fix $y \in \mathcal{C}$. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. Denote the elements of \mathcal{K} in such a way: let $k_i \in \mathcal{K}$ be the key for which $e_{k_i}(x_i) = y$. From the perfect secrecy:

$$\Pr[\mathbf{P} = x_i] = \Pr[\mathbf{P} = x_i | \mathbf{C} = y] = \frac{\Pr[\mathbf{P} = x_i] \cdot \Pr[\mathbf{C} = y | \mathbf{P} = x_i]}{\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y]} = \frac{\Pr[\mathbf{P} = x_i] \cdot \Pr[\mathbf{K} = k_i]}{\Pr[\mathbf{C} = y]},$$

i.e. $\Pr[\mathbf{K} = k_i] = \Pr[\mathbf{C} = y]$ for all i , i.e. the probabilities of all keys must be equal.

\Leftarrow : like the proof of perfect secrecy for the shift cipher.

Vernam's cipher or one-time pad (*ühekordne šifriblokk*):

- $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K} = \{0, 1\}^n$;
- $e_{k_1 \dots k_n}(x_1 \dots x_n) = d_{k_1 \dots k_n}(x_1 \dots x_n) = (x_1 \oplus k_1) \dots (x_n \oplus k_n)$.
 - $k_i, x_i \in \{0, 1\}$.

Vernam's cipher has perfect secrecy (if the key is uniformly distributed and each key is used only once).

If we do not have perfect secrecy, then how much information about the key is leaked into the ciphertext? When can we determine the key (and the plaintext) with near-absolute certainty?

Let \mathbf{X} be a random variable over the (finite) set X . The [entropy](#) of \mathbf{X} is

$$H(\mathbf{X}) = - \sum_{x \in X} \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x] \cdot \log_2 \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x] .$$

Define $0 \cdot \log_2 0 = 0$, because $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \log x = 0$.

$H(\mathbf{X})$ (more or less) corresponds to the average number of bits necessary to encode the value of \mathbf{X} .

$H(\mathbf{X}) = 0$ if and only if \mathbf{X} always gets the same value. Then one of the probabilities is 1 and the rest are 0.

$$H(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = - \sum_{\substack{x \in X \\ y \in Y}} \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x, \mathbf{Y} = y] \cdot \log_2 \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x, \mathbf{Y} = y] .$$

[Conditional entropy](#) of \mathbf{X} wrt. \mathbf{Y} :

$$H(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}) = - \sum_{y \in Y} \sum_{x \in X} \Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y] \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x | \mathbf{Y} = y] \log_2 \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x | \mathbf{Y} = y] .$$

How many bits are necessary to encode \mathbf{X} if everybody knows \mathbf{Y} ?

A function f is **concave (kumer)** in an interval $[a, b]$ if for all $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$:

$$\lambda \cdot f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda) \cdot f(x_2) \leq f(\lambda \cdot x_1 + (1 - \lambda) \cdot x_2) .$$

I.e. the graph of the function (in the interval $[a, b]$) is above any straight line segment between two points of that graph.

Concavity is **strict (range)** if equality holds only for $\lambda \in \{0, 1\}$ (when-ever $x_1 \neq x_2$).

Logarithm is a strictly concave function in $[0, \infty)$...

Jensen's inequality: let f be strictly concave function in the interval I . Let $x_1, \dots, x_n \in I$ and let $a_1, \dots, a_n \in (0, 1]$, such that $a_1 + \dots + a_n = 1$. Then

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

and equality holds iff $x_1 = \dots = x_n$.

Proof: induction over n . $n = 2$ is the def. of concavity.

Theorem. The maximum value of $H(\mathbf{X})$ is $\log_2 |X|$. It is attained only if \mathbf{X} is uniformly distributed.

Proof. Let $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ and denote $p_i = \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x_i]$. Assume that $p_i > 0$ (otherwise remove x_i from X). Then $|X| = n$.

$$H(\mathbf{X}) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2 p_i = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2 \frac{1}{p_i} \leq \log_2 \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \cdot \frac{1}{p_i} = \log_2 n .$$

We used Jensen's inequality with $a_i = p_i$ and $x_i = 1/p_i$. The equality holds only if $1/p_1 = \dots = 1/p_n$, i.e. $p_1 = \dots = p_n$.

Theorem. $H(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \leq H(\mathbf{X}) + H(\mathbf{Y})$ with equality holding iff \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are independent.

Proof. Let $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$, $Y = \{y_1, \dots, y_m\}$ and denote

- $p_i = \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x_i];$
- $q_i = \Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y_i];$
- $r_{ij} = \Pr[\mathbf{X} = x_i, \mathbf{Y} = y_j].$ Then
 - $p_i = \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij},$
 - $q_j = \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ij}.$

\mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are independent iff $r_{ij} = p_i q_j$ for all i, j .

$$H(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 r_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 \frac{1}{r_{ij}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathbf{X}) + H(\mathbf{Y}) &= - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log_2 p_i - \sum_{j=1}^m q_j \log_2 q_j = \\ &- \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 p_i + \sum_{j=1}^m \sum_{i=1}^n r_{ij} \log_2 q_j \right) = \\ &- \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} (\log_2 p_i + \log_2 q_j) = - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2(p_i q_j) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
H(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) - H(\mathbf{X}) - H(\mathbf{Y}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 (p_i q_j) = \\
\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \left(\log_2 \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \log_2 (p_i q_j) \right) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 \frac{p_i q_j}{r_{ij}} \leq \\
\log_2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \cdot \frac{p_i q_j}{r_{ij}} &= \log_2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m p_i q_j = \log_2 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n p_i \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^m q_j \right) = \log_2 1 = 0
\end{aligned}$$

We used Jensen's inequality with $a_{ij} = r_{ij}$ and $x_{ij} = p_i q_j / r_{ij}$.

Equality holds only if $\exists c \forall i \forall j : p_i q_j / r_{ij} = c$. Then also $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m p_i q_j = c \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij}$. Both sums are equal to 1, hence $c = 1$, $p_i q_j = r_{ij}$, and \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are independent.

Theorem. $H(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) = H(\mathbf{Y}) + H(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}).$

Proof. Let p_i, q_j, r_{ij} have the same meaning as before. Then

$$\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x_i | \mathbf{Y} = y_j] = \frac{\Pr[\mathbf{X} = x_i, \mathbf{Y} = y_j]}{\Pr[\mathbf{Y} = y_j]} = \frac{r_{ij}}{q_j} .$$

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathbf{Y}) + H(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}) &= -\sum_{j=1}^m q_j \log_2 q_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m q_j \frac{r_{ij}}{q_j} \log_2 \frac{r_{ij}}{q_j} = \\ &- \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 q_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 \frac{r_{ij}}{q_j} \right) = \\ &- \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m r_{ij} \log_2 r_{ij} = H(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}) \end{aligned}$$

Corollary. $H(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}) \leq H(\mathbf{X})$ with equality iff \mathbf{X} and \mathbf{Y} are independent.

Theorem. In an encryption system, $H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{K}) + H(\mathbf{P}) - H(\mathbf{C})$.

Proof.

$$H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{C}) - H(\mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{C}) - H(\mathbf{P}|\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{C}) - H(\mathbf{C}) =^1$$

$$H(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{K}, \mathbf{C}) - H(\mathbf{C}) = H(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{K}) + H(\mathbf{C}|\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{K}) - H(\mathbf{C}) =^2$$

$$H(\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{K}) - H(\mathbf{C}) =^3 H(\mathbf{P}) + H(\mathbf{K}) - H(\mathbf{C})$$

1. Ciphertext and key uniquely determine the plaintext,
hence $H(\mathbf{P}|\mathbf{K}, \mathbf{C}) = 0$.
2. Similarly, $H(\mathbf{C}|\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{K}) = 0$.
3. Plaintext and key are independent — the key has been chosen beforehand and it should not influence the choice of the plaintext.

We know how to compute $H(\mathbf{K})$. But what is $H(\mathbf{P})$? How to estimate it? The possible values of \mathbf{P} are meaningful texts. \mathcal{P} is the set of strings over an alphabet (of, say, 26 letters).

The entropy of a random string of letters (uniformly chosen) is $\log_2 26 \approx 4.70$ per letter.

The entropy of a random string of letters (with probabilities of letters as in English) is ≈ 4.17 per letter.

But in a meaningful text, successive letters are not independent.

Let \mathbf{P}^n be a random variable that ranges over plaintexts of length n with probabilities of the natural language L .

If we have a large enough corpus of texts then we can compute $\Pr[\mathbf{P}^n = s]$ for all $s \in \Sigma^n$, and also compute $H(\mathbf{P}^n)$.

Let \mathbf{C}^n be the random variable ranging over n -letter ciphertexts.

The **entropy** H_L and the **redundancy** R_L of L (per letter) are

$$H_L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{H(\mathbf{P}^n)}{n} \quad R_L = 1 - \frac{H_L}{\log_2 |\Sigma|}$$

The limit exists because $(H(\mathbf{P}_n)/n)_n$ is a decreasing sequence bounded below by 0.

Various experiments estimate that $1.0 \leq H_{\text{English}} \leq 1.5$.

We have $H(\mathbf{P}^n) \geq nH_L = n(1 - R_L) \log_2 |\Sigma|$ and $H(\mathbf{C}^n) \leq n \log_2 |\Sigma|$. Hence

$$H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}^n) = H(\mathbf{K}) + H(\mathbf{P}^n) - H(\mathbf{C}^n) \geq H(\mathbf{K}) - nR_L \log_2 |\Sigma| .$$

If the encryption key is chosen uniformly then

$$H(\mathbf{K}|\mathbf{C}^n) \geq \log_2 |\mathcal{K}| - nR_L \log_2 |\Sigma| = \log_2 \frac{|\mathcal{K}|}{|\Sigma|^{nR_L}}$$

This inequality gives us some guarantees regarding the impossibility of completely determining the key from a ciphertexts. This guarantee vanishes if

$$\log_2 \frac{|\mathcal{K}|}{|\Sigma|^{nR_L}} \geq 0 \Leftrightarrow |\mathcal{K}| \leq |\Sigma|^{nR_L} \Leftrightarrow n \geq \frac{\log_2 |\mathcal{K}|}{R_L \log_2 |\Sigma|}$$

If we take $|\Sigma| = 26$, $|\mathcal{K}| = 26!$ (substitution cipher) and $R_L = 0.75$ (corresponding to $H_L \approx 1.18$) then the last fraction is ≈ 25.07 . I.e. a ciphertext created using the substitution cipher should be uniquely decryptable if its length is at least 25.