

# REVIEW OF LAST TIME

- Principle of provable security:
  - Define your model: syntax, adversary, goal
  - Design your protocol
  - Set your assumptions
  - Prove security
  
- Pseudorandom generators:
  - Obtain big randomness from small seed
  - Security: indistinguishability from random



# COURSE OBJECTIVES

## ➤ To understand:

- The principles of *security proofs*
- Typical *security models* for various primitives
- Basic security *reductions*
- Necessary and *sufficient assumptions* for proofs



## ➤ To become able to:

- Given a proof strategy, *compute success* of reduction
- Design a *proof strategy* from scratch
- Write *full basic proofs*
- *Assess the soundness* of a proof, spot irregularities
- *Draw conclusions* about impact of a proof

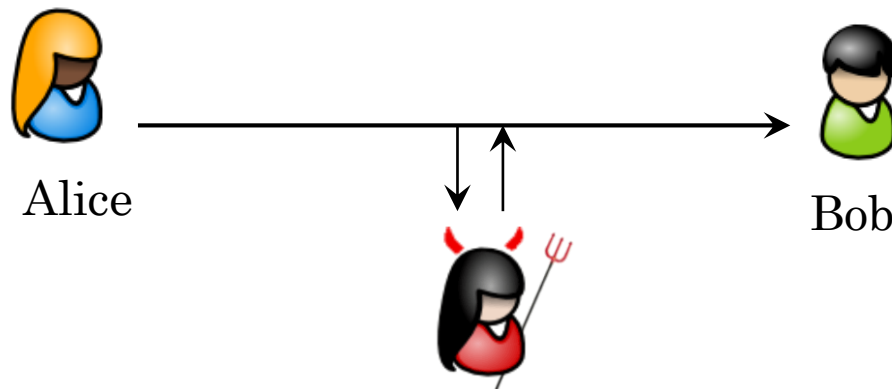


# SYMMETRIC CIPHERS AND PRGs

Symmetric Encryption, Perfect Ciphers,  
Definitions of PRGs and PRFs

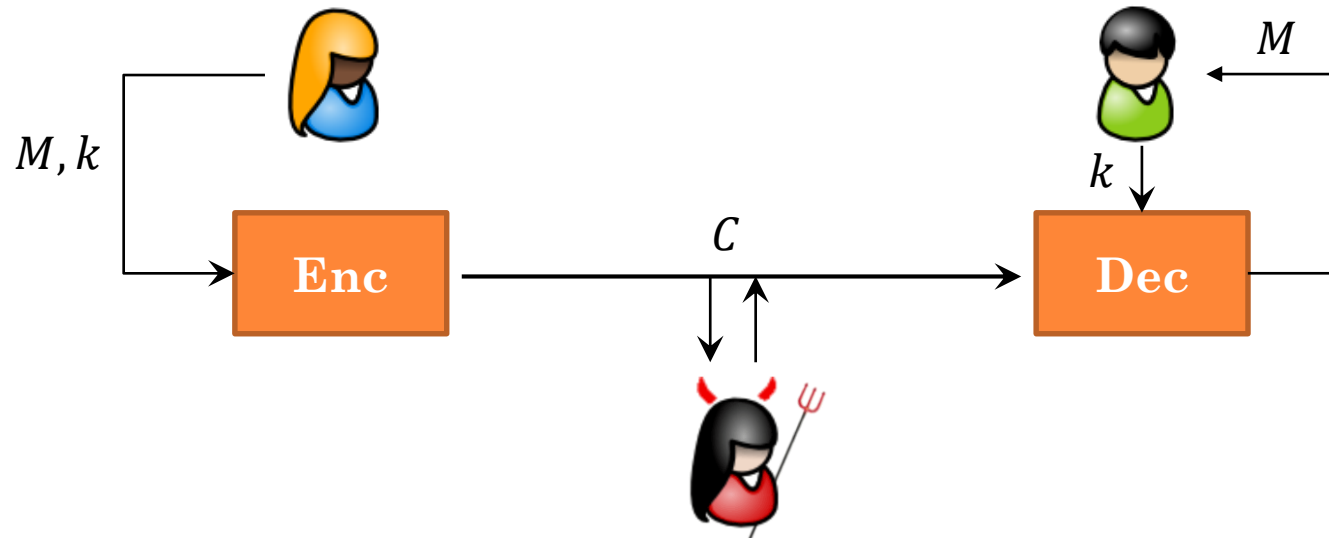
# ENCRYPTION SCHEMES

- Designed to protect message confidentiality
  - Usually 2 parties, called Alice and Bob; adversary is Eve
  - Plaintext  $M$  encrypted by Alice, becoming a ciphertext  $C$
  - Ciphertext  $C$  decrypted by Bob to some plaintext  $M'$
  - Necessary: Bob (and maybe Alice) must have a secret  $k$



# SECRETS AND NON-SECRETS

- Kerckhoff: Consider the algorithm public
  - If the algorithm is compromised, no problem
  - More eyes to look at the security of a public algorithm
- Symmetric-key encryption (block/stream ciphers)
  - Alice and Bob share secret key  $k$



# BASIC CIPHERS

## ➤ Caesar cipher and extensions

- Permutation cipher
- Key is the number of letters we permute by
- Caesar:  $k = 3$
- BLOCKCIPHER becomes EORFNFLSKHU

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | O | P | Q | R |
| D | E | F | G | H | I | J | K | L | M | N | O | P | Q | R | S | T | U |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| S | T | U | V | W | X | Y | Z |
| V | W | X | Y | Z | A | B | C |



# THE CAESAR CIPHER

- Kerckhoff: algorithm is public
- We need the key
  - Key space is too small : brute force works in one go with probability  $\frac{1}{26}$  and works for sure in 26 attempts
  - Attack works only if message is meaningful

Brute force is base line for attacks against ciphers



# ONE-TIME PAD

- Substitution cipher,  $C = M + K$  (e.g. mod 26)
- Key length equal to message length
- If  $M = \text{BLOCKCIPHER}$ , and  $K = \text{PRZANIBQTCS}$
- Say message is meaningful and key is meaningful
  - Can we do better than brute force?  
**Yes, look at language statistics**
- Say message is meaningful, but key is truly random
  - Key hides message information-theoretically

|   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| B | L | O | C | K | C | I | P | H | E | R |
| P | R | Z | A | N | I | B | Q | T | C | S |
| R | C | N | D | Y | L | K | F | A | H | J |





# SECURITY DETAILS

➤ What if same key used multiple times in  $N$  attempts?

- Case 1: Adversary knows it (described in protocol)

Passive eavesdropper learns  $M_1 \text{ XOR } M_2$

Equivalent to using meaningful key

- Case 2: Adversary does not know (accidental collision)

Even assuming this is problematic,

this happens rarely (w.p.  $\leq \binom{N}{2} 2^{-|sk|}$ )

➤ What does it mean that the key “hides” a message?

- BLOCKCIPHER + “PRZANIBQTCS” = RCNDYLKFAHJ  
UNIVERSALLY + “XOEHUUSEPWO” = RCNDYLKFAHJ  
YETIMONSTER + “TYUUVLXXNGCS” = RCNDYLKFAHJ
- Message is meaningful: probability bound by dictionary attack



# GUARANTEE OF ONE-TIME PAD

## ➤ Ingredients:

- Set  $\mathcal{F}$ , which is an alphabet (like A, B, ..., Z)
- Length of messages  $l$
- Subset  $\mathcal{M} \in \mathcal{F}^l$  of meaningful messages of length  $l$
- An (Abelian) group operation " + " on  $\mathcal{F}^l$ , inverse operation " − "

## ➤ Guarantee:

- The cipher consisting of:
  - Picking  $K$  randomly from  $\mathcal{F}^l$
  - Encrypting plaintext  $M \in \mathcal{M}$  to  $C := M + K$
  - Decrypting plaintext  $C$  to  $M = C - K$

guarantees that:

$$\text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M \mid \text{ctext} = C] = \text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M]$$

**Perfect cipher**



# PERFECT CIPHERS

## ➤ Perfect ciphers:

$$\text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M \mid \text{ctext} = C] = \text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M]$$

- Ciphertext gives no information on plaintext

## ➤ Theorem 1:

- Take a perfect cipher with plaintext alphabet  $\mathcal{M}$  (all messages occurring with non-zero probability) and key space  $\mathcal{K}$
- Then the size of  $\mathcal{K}$  is at least equal to the size of  $\mathcal{M}$

## ➤ Proof:

- First observation: take plaintexts  $M_1 \neq M_2$ . Then for all  $k \in \mathcal{K}$  it holds that  $\text{Enc}(k; M_1) \neq \text{Enc}(k; M_2)$ . **Why?**



# KEY-SIZE OF PERFECT CIPHERS

## ➤ Theorem 1:

- Take a perfect cipher with plaintext alphabet  $\mathcal{M}$  (all messages occurring with non-zero probability) and key space  $\mathcal{K}$
- Then the size of  $\mathcal{K}$  is at least equal to the size of  $\mathcal{M}$

## ➤ Proof:

- Reduction to absurd: Suppose  $|\mathcal{K}| \leq |\mathcal{M}| - 1$
- Look at mapping  $(M, k) \rightarrow C$  (through encryption)
  - Order  $\mathcal{M}$  in some way (lexicographically or just randomly)
  - Take the first message, denote it  $M_1$
  - Pick key  $k_1$ , compute  $C = \text{Enc}(k_1, M_1)$ . If  $C = \perp$  (invalid), pick again
  - Continue picking keys  $k \neq k_1$  and run  $\text{Dec}(C, k)$
- Even if all decryptions give a valid result, Obs 1 tells us there exists at least one  $M^*$  that  $C$  does not decrypt to.



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- Look at mapping  $(M, k) \rightarrow C$  (through encryption)
- Even if all decryptions give a valid result, Obs 1 tells us there exists at least one  $M^*$  that  $C$  does not decrypt to
- Then for this message it holds that:

$$\text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M^* \mid \text{ctext} = C] = 0 \neq \text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M_1 \mid \text{ctext} = C]$$

- This is impossible (perfect cipher)
- Hence  $|\mathcal{K}| \geq |\mathcal{M}|$



# INDISTINGUISHABILITY

- Consequence of Theorem 1:
  - OTP has optimal key size (and it's long!)
- Another way to phrase perfection property:
  - Indistinguishability:  
For any messages  $M_1 \neq M_2$  and any ciphertext  $C$  :  
$$\text{Prob}[\text{Enc}(*, M_1) = C] = \text{Prob}[\text{Enc}(*, M_2) = C]$$
- Theorem 2: A cipher is perfect if, and only if, it has the indistinguishability property  
Proof: in the TDs.



# SOME CONCLUSIONS

## ➤ Perfect ciphers:

- Ciphertext reveals nothing about the plaintext
- Equivalently phrased as: each ciphertext could correspond to any plaintext
- ... But they require  $|\mathcal{K}| \geq |\mathcal{M}|$

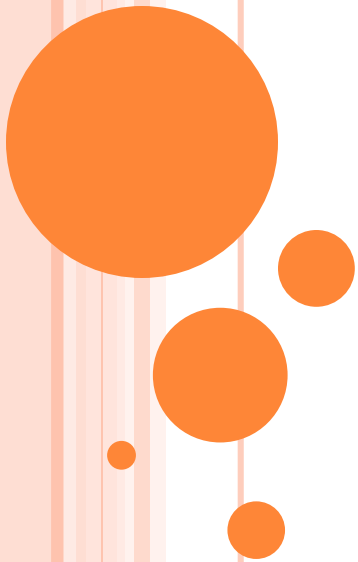
## ➤ One Time Pad (OTP):

- Is a perfect cipher
- Requires: changing key at each encryption
- Key length = message length
- Unfortunately, this key length is optimal



# PART II

## OTP WITH PRG





# PRGs

- Pseudorandom generator

PRG:  $\{0,1\}^m \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$ , for  $m \ll n$

- $s \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^m$

$b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}$

$d \leftarrow A^{Gen_b(\cdot)}(m, n)$

$A$  wins iff  $d = b$

$Gen_b()$

- If  $b = 1$ , return  $x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^n$
- Else, return  $x \leftarrow PRG(s)$

- $(k, \epsilon)$ -secure PRG:

A pseudorandom generator PRG is  $(k, \epsilon)$ -secure if, and only if, an adversary making at most  $k$  queries to  $Gen_b$  wins w.p. at most  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$



# A RELAXATION OF PERFECTION

- Security of perfect ciphers does not depend on the attacker's computational resources
  - Attacker with 200 years of computation time still learns nothing from ciphertext
- ... however, we need very large keys
- We want smaller keys, but sufficient security
  - Idea: bound the adversary's resources
  - Allow some (small) information leakage
  - Adversary can “win” with very small probability



# LESS-THAN-PERFECT CIPHERS

- Now assume that we take  $|\mathcal{K}| < |\mathcal{M}|$
- This introduces some attacks
- Meaningful message, random key:
  - Try to decrypt ciphertext with any possible key
  - This yields a list of “meaningful” possible plaintexts
- Compare to perfect security
  - PS: a ciphertext can hide any meaningful message
  - Imperfect security: ciphertext can “hide” at most  $|\mathcal{K}|$  messages, with  $|\mathcal{K}| < |\mathcal{M}|$
  - Key length determines security



# COMPUTATIONAL SECURITY BASICS

- Generic cipher family, depends on “sec. parameter”  $n$ 
  - Usually the length of the secret key
- Encryption and Decryption are generic algorithms
- Cipher is secure if any adversary  $A$  can “break” the encryption scheme with negligible probability
  - Smaller than  $1/\text{Poly}[n]$  for any polynomial  $\text{Poly}[n]$



# NEGLIGIBLE PROBABILITIES

- What is negligible in theory?
  - Our favourite:  $2^{-n}$
  - Second best:  $Poly[n] \cdot 2^{-n}$
  - Another possibility:  $2^{-\log[n]}$  is non-negligible, but  $2^{-\log^2[n]}$  is negligible
- What is negligible in practice?
  - Say the adversary wins with probability  $2^{-n}$  for a small value of  $n$
  - Trying again and again over a large amount of data, say 1GB, will eventually let  $\mathcal{A}$  succeed
  - In practice, we like a security of at least  $2^{-80}$



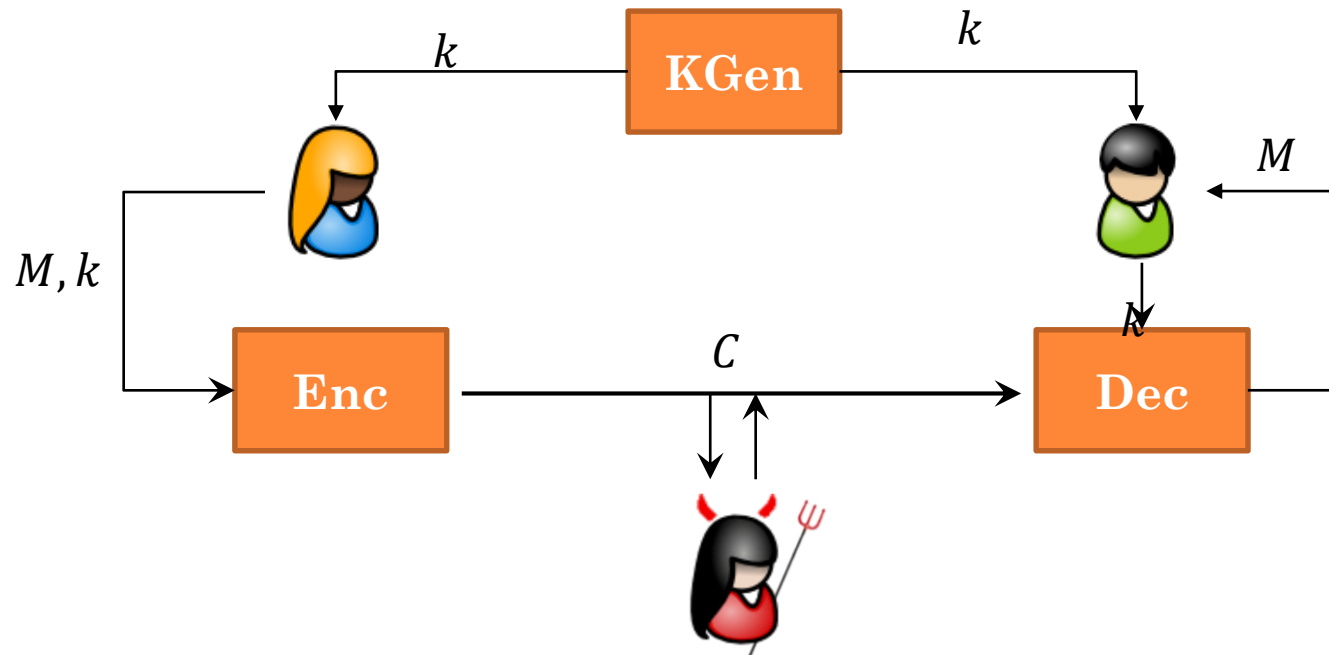
# COMPUTATIONAL CIPHER SECURITY

- Think of it in terms of a game
- The adversary plays this game against our cipher and the parties using it – encryptor, decryptor
- A can see ciphertexts (polynomially many of them)
- Security notion: indistinguishability (of ciphertexts) from random



# WHAT IS SYMMETRIC ENCRYPTION

- Tuple of algorithms (KGen, Enc, Dec) such that:
  - $\text{KGen}(1^Y)$  outputs symmetric key  $k$
  - $\text{Enc}(k, M)$  outputs cyphertext  $C$
  - $\text{Dec}(C, k)$  outputs plaintext  $M$



# SEMANTIC SECURITY (SYM. ENCRYPTION)

- Also called: IND-CPA – indistinguishability against chosen plaintext attacks
- Adversary plays against challenger
  - Challenger chooses key
  - Challenger chooses a bit  $b$
  - Adversary can query  $Enc(M)$  oracle, returns  $Enc(k, M)$
  - Test: A chooses messages  $m_0, m_1$  such that  $|m_0| = |m_1|$
  - Challenger returns  $Enc(k, m_b)$
  - A can go on querying Enc oracle
  - Finally, A outputs guess  $d$  of  $b$

**Exercise: try to write this def. in game form!**





# THE IND-CPA GAME

➤  $k \xleftarrow{\$} \text{KGen}(1^\gamma)$

$b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}$

$(m_0, m_1) \leftarrow A^{\text{Enc}(\cdot)}(\gamma)$  with  $|m_0| = |m_1|$

$c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(k, m_b)$

$d \leftarrow A^{\text{Enc}(\cdot)}(\gamma, c)$

---

A wins iff  $d = b$

➤  **$(q, \epsilon)$ -secure Symmetric Encryption:**

A symmetric-key encryption scheme  $\text{SEnc}$  is  $(q, \epsilon)$ -secure if, and only if, an adversary making at most  $q$  queries to  $\text{Enc}$  wins w.p. at most  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$



# LoR VERSUS RoR

- Previous version of game is Left-or-Right IND-CPA
- There are some more versions:
  - Real or Random
  - Ask then Guess
  - Etc.
- In TD you will discover some of these
- Essence of IND-CPA: the output of an encryption function gives no advantage to know plaintext
  - A type of pseudorandomness as well...



# ADVANTAGE & UNPREDICTABILITY

- In PRG game the adversary's winning probability should not be larger than  $\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$ 
  - We call  $\Pr[A \text{ wins}] - \frac{1}{2}$  the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$
- Unpredictability theorem:
  - If  $G: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  with  $m > n$  is a bounded-secure PRG, then for a randomly chosen  $s \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^n$ , no poly-runtime algorithm  $\mathcal{P}$  given the first  $j$  bits of  $G(s)$  can predict the  $(j + 1)$ -th bit w.p.  $\frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon$  for  $\varepsilon \notin \text{Negl}[n]$



# PERFECT TO IMPERFECT CIPHER

- Why would we want that?
  - Well, it's more efficient, since  $|\mathcal{K}| < |\mathcal{M}|$
- Recall the OTP
  - Traditional OTP for  $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^m$ 
    - Choose random  $k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$
    - Encrypt message  $m$  to  $c := k \oplus m$
    - Decrypt ciphertext  $c$  as:  $\hat{m} := c \oplus k$
  - Unconditionally secure...
  - ... But:
    - Key can only be used one time
    - Key is as long as message



# PERFECT TO IMPERFECT OTP USING PRG

## ➤ Recall the OTP

- Traditional OTP for  $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^m$ 
  - Choose random  $k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$
  - Encrypt message  $m$  to :  $c := k \oplus m$
  - Decrypt ciphertext  $c$  as:  $\hat{m} := c \oplus k$

## ➤ Now replace random key generation by PRG:

- OTP for  $\mathcal{M} = \{0,1\}^m$  with  $\mathcal{K} = \{0,1\}^n$  and  $n < m$
- Use a bounded-secure PRG  $G: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$ 
  - KeyGen: choose (once)  $k \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{K}$
  - Encrypt message  $m$  as  $c := G(k) \oplus m$
  - Decrypt message as:  $\hat{m} := c \oplus G(k)$



# PERFECT/IMPERFECT CIPHERS

## ➤ Perfect ciphers:

$$\text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M \mid \text{ctext} = C] = \text{Prob}[\text{ptext} = M]$$

### ▪ Alternatively:

For any messages  $M_1 \neq M_2$  and any ciphertext  $C$  :

$$\text{Prob}[\text{Enc}(*, M_1) = C] = \text{Prob}[\text{Enc}(*, M_2) = C]$$

## ➤ Semantic security of imperfect ciphers:

- For  $k \xleftarrow{\$} K$ ,  $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}$ , and for any two messages  $m_0, m_1$ , no polynomial-time adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  given  $\text{Enc}_k(m_b)$  can output  $d = b$  with probability  $1/2 + \varepsilon$  for  $\varepsilon \notin \text{Negl}[|\mathcal{K}|]$



# OUR IMPERFECT OTP WITH PRG WORKS!

## ➤ Theorem:

- The OTP + PRG cipher we considered is  $q$ -semantically secure as long as the PRG is  $q$ -bounded-secure
- Formally: for any adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  against the  $q$ -semantic security of OTP+PRG, there exists a  $q$ -bounded adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  against the PRG-security of  $G$  such that:

$$\Pr[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins}] \leq \Pr[\mathcal{B} \text{ wins}]$$

If OTP + PRG is insecure, then  $G$  is insecure

⇔

As long as  $G$  is secure, OTP + PRG is secure



# PROOFS BY GAME HOPPING

- Technique of game hopping (Shoup, 1999):
  - Start from original security game,  $G_0$
  - Modify it to “restricted” game  $G_1$
  - Argue that  $G_0 \approx G_1$
  - Continue till last game can only be won by trivial A
  
- Game hops:
  - Restrict use of an oracle
  - Return different output to that of oracle
  - Restrict number of (honest) participants
  - ...

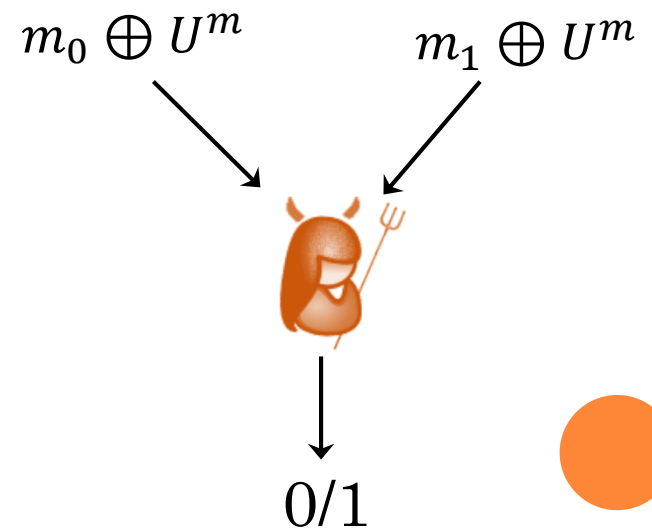
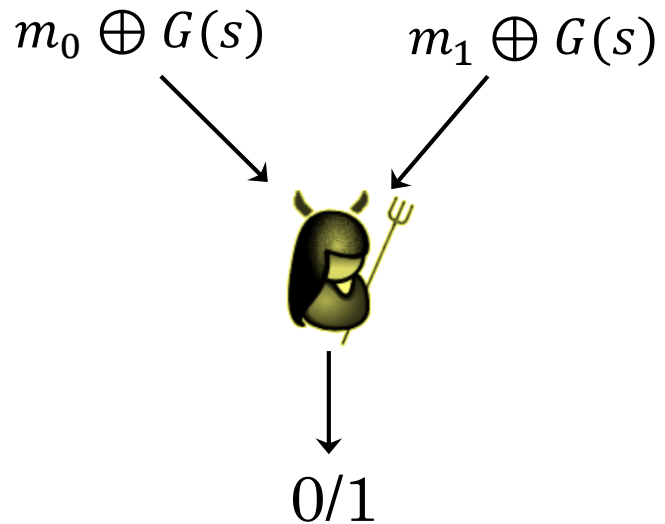




# LET'S PROVE THIS

## ➤ Proof:

- Game 0: original semantic security game
- Game 1: replace  $G(s)$  by  $U^m$  in encryption
- What kind of game equivalence do we need?



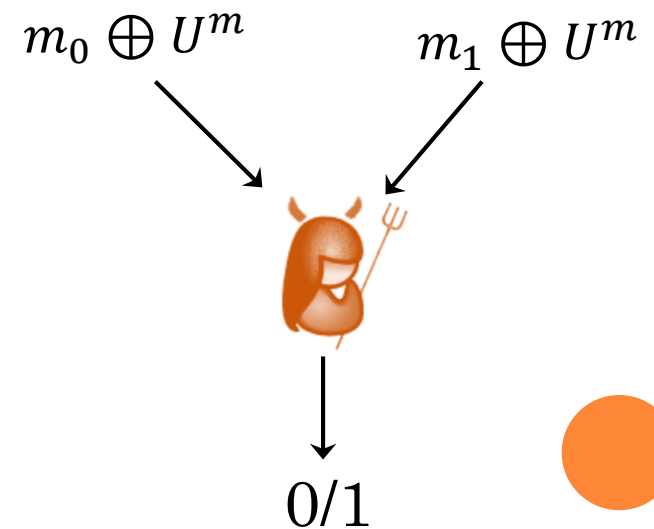
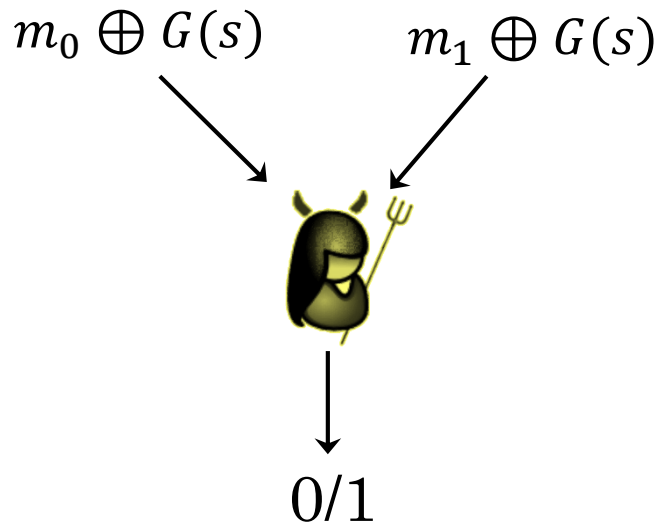
# GAME EQUIVALENCE

- Proving games equivalent:
  - A matter of deciding winning probability
  - Game hop should not alter A's winning probability
  - ... in fact, alteration exists, but with negl. probability
- Some ways of proving equivalence:
  - Prove that A can make a specific query only by accident
    - So, with the exception of an accident, A does not make query
  - Prove that reduction can simulate well some queries
    - Which means, challenger must only handle the rest
  - **Prove that the adversary cannot distinguish btw. outputs**



# BACK TO THE PROOF

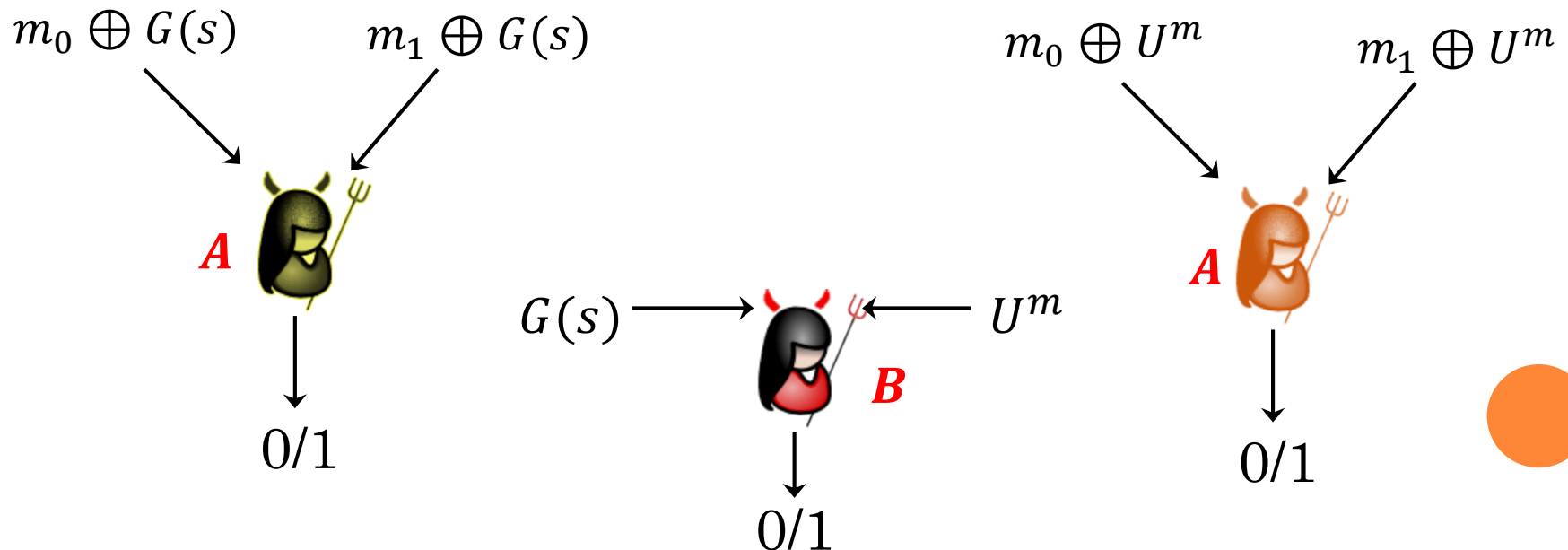
- Proving these games equivalent
  - A cannot distinguish between left and right output
  - Equivalent to proving: if  $\mathcal{A}$ 's game is altered, then there exists a distinguisher between  $G(s)$  and  $U^m$



# LET'S PROVE THIS

## ➤ Proof:

- Claim: if there exists a distinguisher  $\mathcal{D}$  between games, then we can construct PRG adversary  $\mathcal{B}$  from  $\mathcal{D}$
- What is a distinguisher?



# A DISTINGUISHING GAME

- In our case,  $G_0, G_1$  are equivalent except output
- Distinguisher plays against a challenger
  - Its goal is to **distinguish  $G_0$  from  $G_1$** , not to win them
  - Challenger first sets up games (choose seed, bit  $b$ )
  - Then challenger also picks additional bit  $b^*$
  - Adversary plays normally
  - For Encrypt queries: Chg returns output from  $G_{b^*}$
  - Finally A will need to output guess  $d^*$  of  $b^*$
- Constructing the reduction:
  - Show that if D can distinguish  $G_0$  from  $G_1$ , then we can construct B that distinguishes  $G(s)$  from  $U^m$



# WHO PLAYS WHAT GAME

➤ D plays distinguishing game:

- $k \xleftarrow{\$} \text{KGen}(1^\nu)$   
 $b, b^* \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}$   
 $(m_0, m_1) \leftarrow A^{\text{Enc}(\cdot)}(\gamma)$  with  $|m_0| = |m_1|$   
 $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(k, m_b)$   
 $d^* \leftarrow A^{\text{Enc}(\cdot)}(\gamma, c)$
- 
- A wins iff  $d^* = b^*$

➤ B plays PRG game:

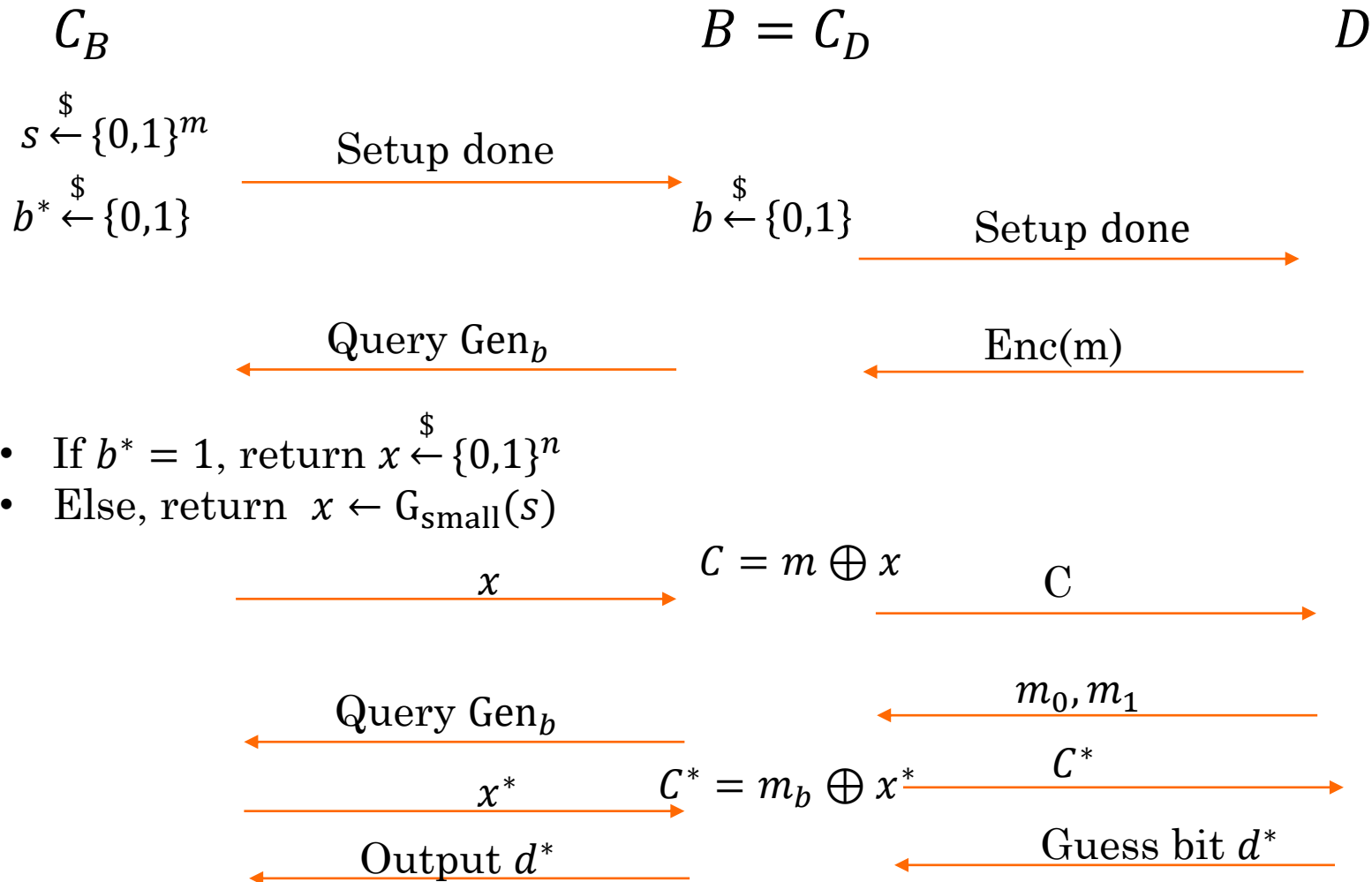
- $s \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}^m$   
 $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}$   
 $d \leftarrow A^{\text{Gen}_b(\cdot)}(m, n)$
- 
- A wins iff  $d = b$

$\text{Gen}_b()$

- If  $b = 1$ , return  $x \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}^n$
- Else, return  $x \leftarrow \text{PRG}(s)$



# CONSTRUCTING THE REDUCTION B

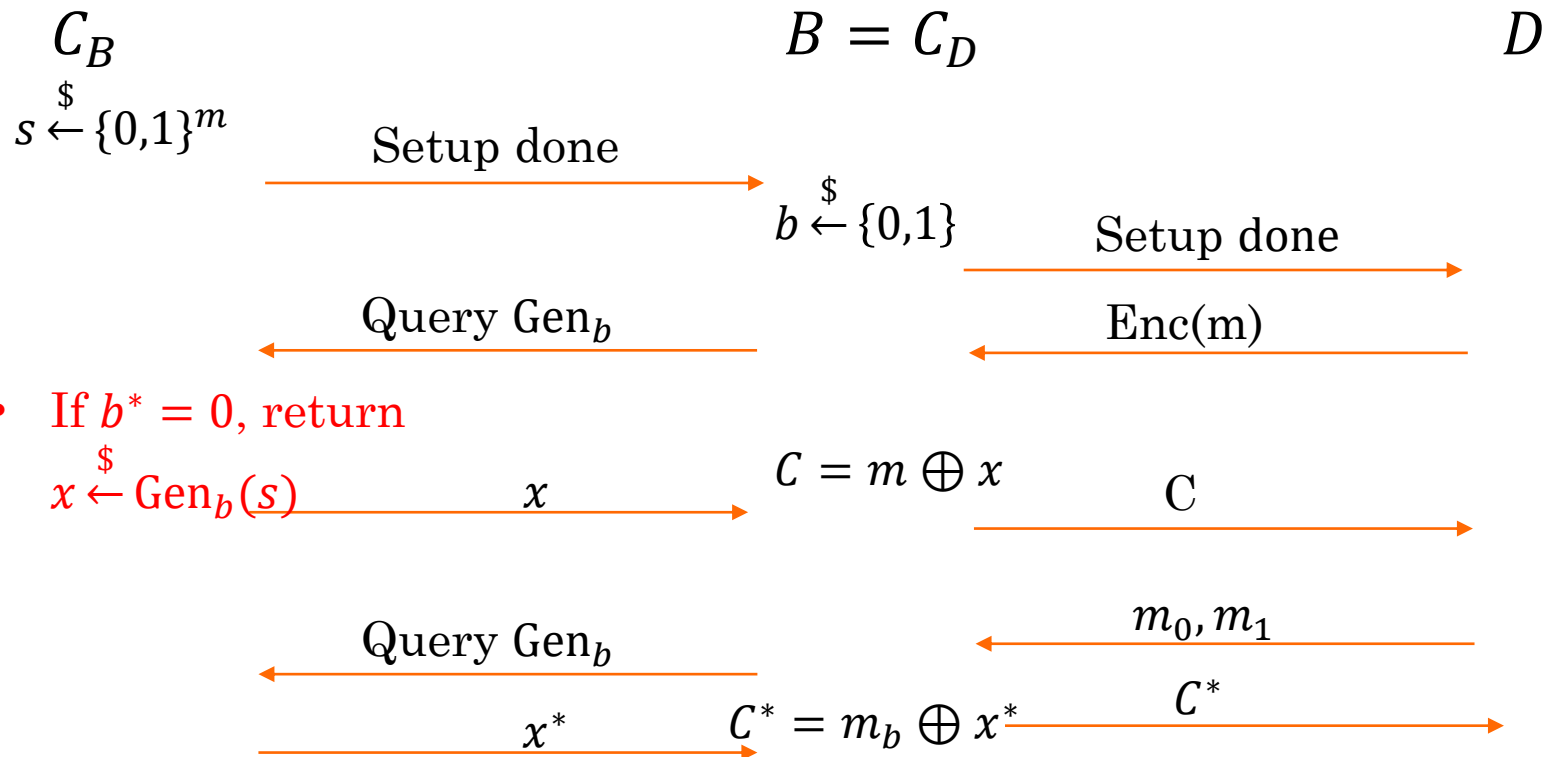






# ANALYSIS OF REDUCTION

- If  $C_B$  drew the bit  $b^* = 0$  then D sees:



This is the output of game  $G_0$

## CONCLUDING ANALYSIS

- Say that D wins w.p.  $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon_D$
- Then B wins with the same probability
- Conclusion for proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[A \text{ wins } G_0] &\leq \Pr[A \text{ wins } G_1] + \epsilon_D \\ &= \Pr[A \text{ wins } G_1] + \text{Adv}_{\text{PRG}}[B]\end{aligned}$$

- Winning  $G_1$ :
  - A has to distinguish between  $m_0 \oplus r_0$  and  $m_1 \oplus r_1$
  - But this time  $r_0, r_1$  truly random
  - Winning this game is equivalent to distinguishing between two truly random numbers
  - Thus,  $\Pr[A \text{ wins } G_1] = \frac{1}{2}$



# CONCLUSION OF PROOF

## ➤ Proof:

- Game 0: original semantic security game
- Game 1: replace  $G(s)$  by  $U^m$  in encryption
- Winning game 1: probability of  $\frac{1}{2}$

$$\Pr[A \text{ wins } G_0] \leq \Pr[A \text{ wins } G_1] + \epsilon_D$$

$$= \Pr[A \text{ wins } G_1] + (\Pr[D \text{ dist. } G_0 \text{ from } G_1] - \frac{1}{2})$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \left( \Pr[B \text{ wins}] - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \Pr[B \text{ wins}].$$



# IND-CPA ENCRYPTION IN PERSPECTIVE

- PRG + OTP construction is IND-CPA secure
- IND-CPA-secure encryption is also PRF-secure
- Pseudorandom functions:

$$F: Keys \times Input \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$$

- Security:

- Bounding output length to  $n$  bits

$$K \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} Keys$$

$$b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}$$

$$d \leftarrow A^{Gen_b(x)}(Keys, Input)$$

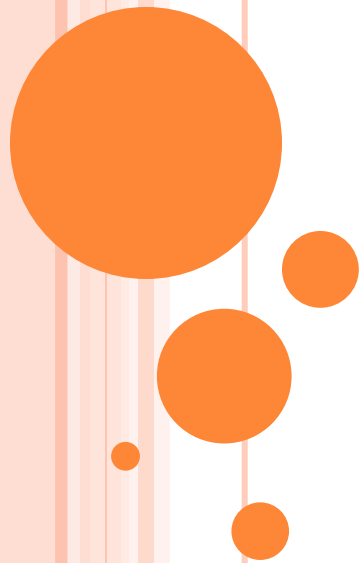
$A$  wins iff  $d = b$

$Gen_b(x)$

- If  $b = 1$ , return  $x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^n$
- Else, return  $x \leftarrow F_K(x)$



# CONCLUSION FOR TODAY

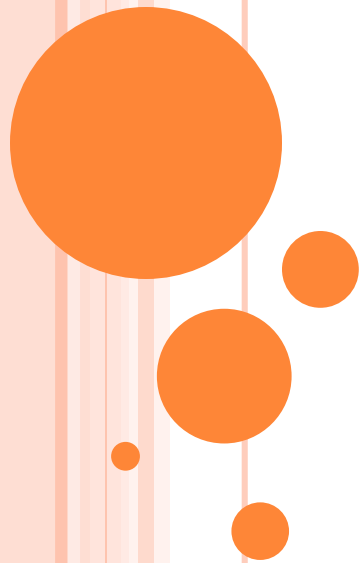


# MODELS AND PROOFS

- More security models:
  - IND-CPA security (left-or-right version)
  - Pseudorandom function (PRF)
- Construction:
  - IND-CPA/PRF from PRG (and OTP)
- Proofs:
  - Game hop technique
  - Distinguishing between games



**QUESTIONS?**



# PSEUDORANDOMNESS

- What is a “random” string?
  - Usually defined as a string for which the probability that any of the bits is 1 is exactly  $\frac{1}{2}$
- How does the attacker distinguish in practice?
  - Fixed bits
  - Fixed relationship between bits
  - Un-fixed, but biased relationship between bits (occurring with prob.  $p$ , such that  $|p - \frac{1}{2}|$  non-negligible)
  - **Theorem:** In a random string, the probability that there are less than  $\frac{|m|}{3}$  bits equal to 1 is negligible
    - Proof in TD





# STATISTICAL TESTS

## ➤ Theorem:

- Consider  $\mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  to be the poly-sized set of all statistical tests  $T_{m,k}$  which have poly-runtime, which take as input a sample of  $k$  bitstrings of length  $m$ , for a known, fixed  $k \in \text{Poly}[m]$  and which output 0 (if the string sample is not random) and 1 (if the string sample is random)
- Assume that we have a PRG  $G: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  for  $m = 2n$
- Then:  $G$  is a secure PRG against a  $k$ -bounded adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  if, and only if, for all  $T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  it holds that for  $s \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^n$ ,  $T_{m,k}$  run on randomly chosen  $k$ -sized samples of  $G(s)$  returns 0 w.p. at most  $\varepsilon \in \text{Negl}[m]$



# PROOF BY REDUCTION

## ➤ Theorem:

- Assume  $T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  with input a sample of  $k$  bitstrings of length  $m$ , outputting 0 (if not random) and 1 (if random)
- Assume  $G: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  for  $m = 2n$
- Then:  $G$  is  $k$ -bounded secure iff. for  $s \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}^n$ ,  $\forall T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  run on the output dist. of  $G$  returns 0 w.p.  $\varepsilon \in \text{Negl}[m]$

## ➤ Proof : $\Rightarrow$

- Say  $G$  is  $k$ -bounded secure PRG
- Assume  $\exists T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  which returns 0 w.p.  $\delta \notin \text{Negl}[m]$
- Claim:  $\delta \notin \text{Negl}[n]$  . Why is this true?
- Construct  $k$ -bounded  $\mathcal{A}$  against  $k$ -bounded sec. of  $G$  s.t.  $\mathcal{A}$  wins with probability  $p_{\mathcal{A}} \notin \text{Negl}[n]$



# PROOF BY REDUCTION

## ➤ Theorem:

- Assume  $T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  with input a sample of  $k$  bitstrings of length  $m$ , outputting 0 (if not random) and 1 (if random)
- Assume  $G: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  for  $m = 2n$
- Then:  $G$  is  $k$ -bounded secure iff. for  $s \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}^n$ ,  $\forall T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  run on the output dist. of  $G$  returns 0 w.p.  $\varepsilon \in \text{Negl}[m]$

## ➤ Proof : $\Rightarrow$

- $\mathcal{A}$  plays the PRG game. First the game picks:  $s \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}^n$  bit  $b$
- Query  $Gen_b$   $k$  times (ok,  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $k$ -bounded), get  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$
- Run  $T_{m,k}$  on  $X$ , get output  $d \in \{0,1\}$  (ok, test has poly-runtime)
  - If  $\mathcal{A}$  does not know which test is good, it can run all of them
- Return output  $d$  to PRF game
  - If  $\mathcal{A}$  tried all tests, return min of all  $d$  values



# PROOF BY REDUCTION

## ➤ Proof :

- $\mathcal{A}$  plays the PRG game. First the game picks:  $s \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}^n$  bit  $b$
- Query  $Gen_b()$   $k$  times (ok,  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $k$ -bounded), get  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$
- Run  $T_{m,k}$  on  $X$ , get output  $d \in \{0,1\}$  (ok, test has poly-runtime)
- Return output  $d$  to PRF game

## ➤ Analysis:

- Obs 1:  $T_{m,k}$  always returns 1 if bit  $b = 1$  ( $x_1, \dots, x_k$  random)
- Obs 2: if  $b = 0$  then  $X$  contains outputs of  $G$ . Then  $T_{m,k}$  returns 0 w.p.  $\delta \notin \text{Negl}[m]$  (by assumption)
- A wins w.p.  $\Pr[A \text{ wins} \mid b = 1] \cdot \Pr[b = 1] + \Pr[A \text{ wins} \mid b = 0] \cdot \Pr[b = 0] = 1/2 + 1/2 \delta$ , with  $\delta \notin \text{Negl}[n]$
- So  $G$  not a secure PRG. **Contradiction**



# FOOD FOR THOUGHT

- Some significant proof steps:
  - $\text{Negl}[m] \cong \text{Negl}[n]$ 
    - Requiring  $m \in \text{Poly}[n]$
  - $\mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  requires a sample of  $k$  elements
    - Requiring that our  $\mathcal{A}$  is at least  $k$ -bounded!
  - $\mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  runs in polynomial time
    - Else, a bounded adversary cannot run this test
  - Statement about test holds for randomly chosen seed
    - If it held only for some seeds, we would not be able to transfer winning probability (PRG game first picks seed at rnd.)
    - We could have said it held for ALL keys. But then, it would not be an iff. statement. Let's see why.



# NOW THE OTHER WAY

## ➤ Theorem:

- Assume  $T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  with input a sample of  $k$  bitstrings of length  $m$ , outputting 0 (if not random) and 1 (if random)
- Assume  $G: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m$  for  $m = 2n$
- Then:  $G$  is  $k$ -bounded secure iff. for  $s \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^n, \forall T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  run on the output dist. of  $G$  returns 0 w.p.  $\varepsilon \in \text{Negl}[m]$

## ➤ Proof : $\Leftarrow$

- Say  $\forall T_{m,k} \in \mathcal{J}_{m,k}$  returns 0 w.p. at most  $\delta \in \text{Negl}[m]$
- Say  $\exists k$ -bounded  $A$  winning w.p.  $1/2 + \varepsilon \notin \text{Negl}[n]$
- Again  $\varepsilon \notin \text{Negl}[m]$
- Construct poly-time test  $T_{m,k}$  that outputs 0 w.p.  $p_T \notin \text{Negl}[m]$ 
  - Claim:  $\mathcal{A}$  is that  $T_{m,k}$



# PSEUDORANDOMNESS

- Intuition:
  - If A can't tell ciphertexts from completely random strings of the same lengths, then:
    - A can't see a plaintext/ciphertext dependence
    - A can't see a key/ciphertext dependence
- Indistinguishability of real cryptographic systems from their idealizations is fundamental to provable security

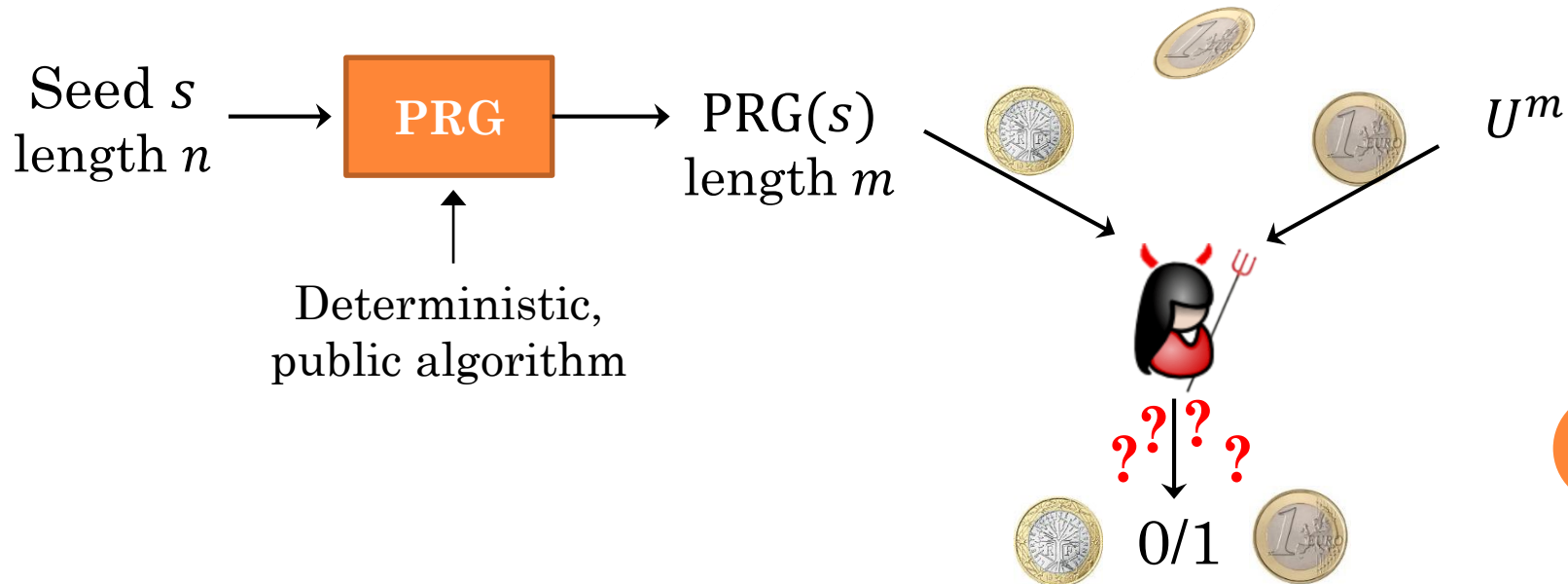


# PSEUDORANDOM GENERATORS (PRG)

- Principle: start from a small, random string (called a seed), get a larger string that looks random

$$\text{PRG} : \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^m \quad \text{for } m > n$$

- Security: a “good” PRG outputs strings that are indistinguishable from random (by an adversary)





# THE SECURE-PRG GAME

➤  $s \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}^n$

$b \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0,1\}$

$d \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{Gen_b(\cdot)}(m, n, PRG)$

---

$\mathcal{A}$  wins iff.  $b = d$

$Gen_b(\cdot)$ :

If  $b = 1$  then  $x \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} U^m$

Else  $x \leftarrow PRG(s)$

Return  $x$

➤ Unbounded vs. bounded  $\mathcal{A}$

- Unbounded: as many calls to  $Gen_b$  as  $\mathcal{A}$  wants
- Bounded: only polynomially many calls, poly-runtime
  - $k$ -bounded: only  $k$  calls, poly-runtime

➤  **$(k, \epsilon)$ -Secure PRG**:  $G$  is a  $k$ -bounded-secure PRG if, and only if, any  $k$ -bounded adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  wins w.p. at most  $1/2 + \epsilon$

- (asymptotically)  $k$ -secure:  $\epsilon \in \text{Negl}[n]$

