

# A short proof of the unpredictability of cipher block chaining

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**Abstract.** Let  $u$  be a uniform random function from  $b$ -bit strings to  $b$ -bit strings. Fix  $m \geq 1$ . Define

$$u_m^+(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m) = u(u(\dots u(u(g_1) + g_2) + \dots) + g_m).$$

This paper presents a short proof that  $u_m^+$  is unpredictable: specifically, if  $A$  is an algorithm that performs at most  $q$  oracle queries, and  $v$  is a uniform random function from  $mb$ -bit strings to  $b$ -bit strings, then the  $A$ -distance from  $u_m^+$  to  $v$  is at most  $mq(mq - 1)/2^{b+1}$ . It was already known that  $u_m^+$  was unpredictable, but previous proofs were much more complicated.

**Keywords:** mode of operation, CBC, provable security

## 1 Introduction

Let  $u$  be a uniform random function from  $b$ -bit strings to  $b$ -bit strings; in other words, let  $u(0), u(1), u(2), \dots, u(2^b - 1)$  be independent uniform random  $b$ -bit strings. Define

$$u^+(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m) = u_m^+(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m) = u(u(\dots u(u(g_1) + g_2) + \dots) + g_m)$$

for each integer  $m \geq 0$  and each  $mb$ -bit string  $(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m)$ . For example,  $u^+(\cdot) = u_0^+(\cdot) = 0$ , and  $u^+(g_1, g_2) = u_2^+(g_1, g_2) = u(u(g_1) + g_2)$ .

This paper presents a short proof that  $u_m^+$  is unpredictable for  $m \geq 1$ —i.e.,  $u_m^+$  is indistinguishable from a uniform random function from  $mb$ -bit strings to

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$b$ -bit strings. More precisely, if  $A$  is an algorithm that performs at most  $q$  oracle queries, and  $v$  is a uniform random function from  $mb$ -bit strings to  $b$ -bit strings, then the  $A$ -distance from  $u_m^+$  to  $v$  is at most  $mq(mq - 1)/2^{b+1}$ . Here the  **$A$ -distance from  $u_m^+$  to  $v$**  is  $|\Pr[A(u_m^+) = 1] - \Pr[A(v) = 1]|$ , where  $A(f)$  means the output of  $A$  using an oracle for  $f$ .

The heart of the proof—see Section 2—is that  $u_m^+$  has large interpolation probabilities: if  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$  are distinct  $mb$ -bit strings, and  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k$  are  $b$ -bit strings, then  $(u_m^+(x_1), u_m^+(x_2), \dots, u_m^+(x_k)) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$  with probability at least  $(1 - \epsilon)/2^{bk}$  where  $\epsilon = mk(mk - 1)/2^{b+1}$ . The rest of the proof—see Section 3—is a broad principle having nothing to do with the details of  $u_m^+$ : any random function with large interpolation probabilities is unpredictable. Section 4 discusses a few standard consequences of the unpredictability of  $u_m^+$ .

## History

The construction of  $u_m^+$  is called “cipher block chaining.” The unpredictability of CBC is not a new result: Bellare, Kilian, and Rogaway proved in [2, Theorem 3.1] that the  $q$ -query distance from  $u_m^+$  to  $v$  is at most  $3m^2q^2/2^{b+1}$ . Their proof is vastly more complicated than the proof here.

In reaction to a draft of [2], I wrote [3], explaining a much simpler way to prove unpredictability. [3, Theorem 3.1] is the same as Theorem 3.1 in this paper. I illustrated the theorem with a construction different from CBC, but commented at the end of [3, Section 5] that the theorem would also allow an easy proof of unpredictability for CBC. This paper presents that proof.

A subsequent Bellare-Rogaway preprint “The Game-Playing Technique,” now at Draft 0.4 after the correction of some serious errors, presents (among other things) another proof of unpredictability for CBC. The authors describe their proof as “elementary”; I agree that it is an improvement over the proof in [2], but it is still much more complicated than necessary.

Bellare and Rogaway say that their approach “can lead to more easily verified, less error-prone proofs than those grounded in more conventional probabilistic language.” I see no justification for that claim. I see many cryptographic proofs that are unnecessarily complicated because the authors simply don’t *know* the standard language of probability theory,<sup>1</sup> let alone how to competently use it;<sup>2</sup> but the obvious solution is to educate people, not to reinvent the wheel.

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<sup>1</sup> There’s much more to the language than the simplified concepts of “event” (subset of a finite universe) and “probability” (subset size divided by universe size) that we teach to undergraduates. Most importantly, the concept of a “random variable” has had a standard mathematical definition for seventy years and is a tremendous time-saver in probabilistic definitions, theorems, and proofs. Warning to undergraduates: “random” does not imply “uniform” or “discrete” or “independent of everything else.” For definitions see, e.g., [3].

<sup>2</sup> For example, many cryptographers appear to believe that figuring out the success probability of a protocol requires separately analyzing the success probability of the first step, the conditional success probability of the second step, etc. See, e.g., the CBC proofs in [2] and [7].

## 2 CBC has large interpolation probabilities

**Theorem 2.1.** *Let  $G$  be a finite commutative group. Let  $u$  be a uniform random function from  $G$  to  $G$ . Define  $u^+(g_1, \dots, g_i) = u(u(\dots u(g_1) + \dots) + g_i)$  for all  $(g_1, \dots, g_i) \in G^0 \cup G^1 \cup G^2 \cup \dots$ . Let  $m$  and  $k$  be integers with  $m \geq 1$  and  $k \geq 0$ . Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$  be distinct elements of  $G^m$ . Let  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k$  be elements of  $G$ . Then  $(u^+(x_1), u^+(x_2), \dots, u^+(x_k)) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$  with probability at least  $(1 - \epsilon)/\#G^k$  where  $\epsilon = mk(mk - 1)/2\#G$ .*

In other words, every  $k$ -interpolation probability of  $u_n^+$  is at least  $(1 - \epsilon)/\#G^k$ .

*Proof.* Define  $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k\}$ . Define  $P \subseteq G^1 \cup \dots \cup G^m$  as the set of nonempty prefixes of  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$ . Note that  $\#P \leq mk$ .

Each element of  $P$  can be written uniquely as  $(q, g)$  with  $g \in G$  and  $q \in G^0 \cup P$ . Define  $\text{chop}(q, g) = q$  and  $\text{last}(q, g) = g$ .

Define a function  $f : G^0 \cup P \rightarrow G$  as **admissible** if  $f() = 0$ ,  $f(x_i) = y_i$  for all  $i$ , and the function  $p \mapsto f(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p$  from  $P$  to  $G$  is injective. Define  $f$  as being **compatible with  $u$**  if  $u(f(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p) = f(p)$  for every  $p \in P$ .

Observe that each admissible function  $f$  has probability  $1/\#G^{\#P}$  of being compatible with  $u$ . (Proof:  $p \mapsto u(f(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p)$  is a uniform random function from  $P$  to  $G$ , so it has probability  $1/\#G^{\#P}$  of matching  $f$ .) Furthermore, if an admissible function  $f$  is compatible with  $u$ , then  $(u^+(x_1), u^+(x_2), \dots, u^+(x_k)) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$ ; in fact,  $u^+(p) = f(p)$  for every  $p \in G^0 \cup P$ . (Proof:  $u^+() = 0 = f()$ . For  $p \in P$ , assume inductively that  $u^+(\text{chop } p) = f(\text{chop } p)$ . Then  $u^+(p) = u(u^+(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p) = u(f(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p) = f(p)$ .)

If two different admissible functions  $f, f'$  are compatible with  $u$  then  $f(p) = u^+(p) = f'(p)$  for every  $p \in G^0 \cup P$ , contradiction. I will show in a moment that there are at least  $(1 - \epsilon)\#G^{\#P-k}$  admissible functions  $f$ . Therefore, with probability at least  $(1 - \epsilon)\#G^{-k}$ , some admissible function  $f$  is compatible with  $u$ , and in particular  $(u^+(x_1), u^+(x_2), \dots, u^+(x_k)) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$  as claimed.

To count admissible functions, consider a uniform random function  $f : G^0 \cup P \rightarrow G$ . Each of the conditions  $f() = 0$ ,  $f(x_1) = y_1, \dots, f(x_k) = y_k$  is satisfied with probability  $1/\#G$ . These conditions are independent, since  $x_1, \dots, x_k$  are distinct and  $m \geq 1$ ; thus  $f$  satisfies all the conditions with probability  $\#G^{-1-k}$ .

If  $p, p'$  are distinct elements of  $P$  then  $f(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p = f(\text{chop } p') + \text{last } p'$  with conditional probability at most  $1/\#G$ . (If  $\text{chop } p = \text{chop } p'$  and  $\text{last } p = \text{last } p'$  then  $p = p'$ , contradiction. If  $\text{chop } p = \text{chop } p'$  and  $\text{last } p \neq \text{last } p'$  then  $f(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p$  cannot equal  $f(\text{chop } p') + \text{last } p'$ . If  $\text{chop } p \neq \text{chop } p'$  then at least one of  $\text{chop } p, \text{chop } p'$ , let's say  $\text{chop } p$ , is distinct from  $()$ ; thus  $f(\text{chop } p)$  is conditionally uniform, so it equals  $f(\text{chop } p') + \text{last } p' - \text{last } p$  with probability  $1/\#G$ . Note that requiring  $G$  to be a commutative group is overkill here.)

Hence the conditional probability of any collisions in  $p \mapsto f(\text{chop } p) + \text{last } p$  is at most  $\#P(\#P - 1)/2\#G \leq \epsilon$ ; i.e.,  $f$  is admissible with probability at least  $(1 - \epsilon)\#G^{-1-k}$ ; i.e., there are at least  $(1 - \epsilon)\#G^{-1-k}\#G^{\#P+1} = (1 - \epsilon)\#G^{\#P-k}$  admissible functions  $f$ .  $\square$

## Example

Say  $G = \mathbf{Z}/10^6$ ,  $m = 3$ ,  $k = 3$ ,  $x_1 = (1, 2, 3)$ ,  $x_2 = (1, 2, 4)$ , and  $x_3 = (3, 1, 4)$ . Then  $S = \{(1, 2, 3), (1, 2, 4), (3, 1, 4)\}$  and

$$P = \{(1), (3), (1, 2), (3, 1), (1, 2, 3), (1, 2, 4), (3, 1, 4)\}.$$

There are at most  $mk = 9$  elements of  $P$ : in fact, only 7, since  $(1, 2, 3)$  and  $(1, 2, 4)$  share some prefixes.

A function  $f : G^0 \cup P \rightarrow G$  is admissible if and only if  $f() = 0$ ,  $f(1, 2, 3) = y_1$ ,  $f(1, 2, 4) = y_2$ ,  $f(3, 1, 4) = y_3$ , and the seven quantities

$$f() + 1, f() + 3, f(1) + 2, f(3) + 1, f(1, 2) + 3, f(1, 2) + 4, f(3, 1) + 4$$

are distinct. There are  $\#G^4$  functions satisfying the equations (i.e.,  $\#G^4$  choices of  $f(1), f(3), f(1, 2), f(3, 1)$ ), and there are  $7(7 - 1)/2 = 21$  inequalities each eliminating at most  $\#G^3$  functions, so there are at least  $\#G^4 - 21\#G^3$  admissible functions.

An admissible function  $f$  is compatible with  $u$  if and only if  $u(f() + 1) = f(1)$ ,  $u(f() + 3) = f(3)$ ,  $u(f(1) + 2) = f(1, 2)$ ,  $u(f(3) + 1) = f(3, 1)$ ,  $u(f(1, 2) + 3) = f(1, 2, 3)$ ,  $u(f(1, 2) + 4) = f(1, 2, 4)$ , and  $u(f(3, 1) + 4) = f(3, 1, 4)$ . This occurs with probability exactly  $1/\#G^7$  for each  $f$ , and if it does occur then  $u^+(1, 2, 3) = y_1$ ,  $u^+(1, 2, 4) = y_2$ ,  $u^+(3, 1, 4) = y_3$ . It cannot occur for two  $f$ 's simultaneously, so it occurs with probability at least  $(\#G^4 - 21\#G^3)/\#G^7 = (1 - 21/\#G)/\#G^3$ .

## 3 Large interpolation probabilities imply unpredictability

**Theorem 3.1.** *Let  $\varphi$  be a random function from a set  $S$  to a finite set  $T$ . Let  $q$  be an integer with  $q \geq 0$ . Let  $A$  be an algorithm that performs at most  $q$  distinct oracle queries. Assume, for all  $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, q\}$ , all  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k \in T$ , and all distinct  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \in S$ , that  $(\varphi(x_1), \varphi(x_2), \dots, \varphi(x_k)) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$  with probability at least  $(1 - \epsilon)/\#T^k$ . Then the  $A$ -distance between  $\varphi$  and uniform is at most  $\epsilon$ .*

In other words, if every  $k$ -interpolation probability of  $\varphi$  is at least  $(1 - \epsilon)/\#T^k$  for all  $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, q\}$ , then  $\varphi$  cannot be predicted with probability larger than  $\epsilon$  by an algorithm that performs at most  $q$  oracle queries. Note that this is an information-theoretic statement: the run time of the algorithm is irrelevant.

Theorem 3.1 appears in my paper [3]. I have included a (slightly shorter) proof here for completeness.

*Proof.* For each  $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, q\}$ , each  $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) \in T^k$ , and each  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \in S^k$  with  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$  distinct, first define  $\alpha(x, y)$  as the conditional probability that  $A$ 's distinct oracle queries are exactly  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$  and  $A$ 's output is 1, given that the oracle responses are  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k$ .

In other words,  $\alpha(x, y)$  is the chance that  $A$  decides to issue oracle query  $x_1$ , then—given response  $y_1$ —to issue oracle query  $x_2$ , and so on.

Next define  $\beta_f(x, y)$  as the probability that  $(f(x_1), \dots, f(x_k)) = (y_1, \dots, y_k)$ . Then  $\alpha(x, y)\beta_f(x, y)$  is the probability that, when  $A$  uses  $f$  as an oracle, its distinct oracle queries are  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k$ , the oracle responses are  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k$ , and  $A$ 's output is 1. Sum over all  $x, y$  to obtain the overall probability that  $A$  prints 1: namely,  $\Pr[A(f) = 1] = \sum_{x, y} \alpha(x, y)\beta_f(x, y)$ .

By hypothesis  $\beta_\varphi(x, y) \geq (1 - \epsilon)/\#T^k = (1 - \epsilon)\beta_v(x, y)$  where  $v$  is a uniform random function from  $S$  to  $T$ . Hence  $\Pr[A(\varphi) = 1] = \sum_{x, y} \alpha(x, y)\beta_\varphi(x, y) \geq (1 - \epsilon) \sum_{x, y} \alpha(x, y)\beta_v(x, y) = (1 - \epsilon) \Pr[A(v) = 1] \geq \Pr[A(v) = 1] - \epsilon$ . Similarly  $\Pr[A(\varphi) \neq 1] \geq \Pr[A(v) \neq 1] - \epsilon$ . Thus the  $A$ -distance between  $\varphi$  and  $v$  is at most  $\epsilon$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.2.** *Let  $m$  and  $q$  be integers with  $m \geq 1$  and  $q \geq 0$ . Let  $G$  be a finite commutative group. Let  $u$  be a uniform random function from  $G$  to  $G$ . Define*

$$u_m^+(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m) = u(u(\dots u(u(g_1) + g_2) + \dots) + g_m)$$

for all  $(g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m) \in G^m$ . Let  $A$  be an algorithm that performs at most  $q$  distinct oracle queries. Then the  $A$ -distance between  $u_m^+$  and uniform is at most  $mq(mq - 1)/2\#G$ .

*Proof.* If  $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, q\}$  then  $(u_m^+(x_1), u_m^+(x_2), \dots, u_m^+(x_k)) = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k)$  with probability at least  $(1 - mq(mq - 1)/2\#G)/\#G^k$  by Theorem 2.1. Apply Theorem 3.1.  $\square$

## 4 Standard consequences

### From uniform to unpredictable

Say  $f$  is a uniform random permutation of the set of  $b$ -bit strings. It is difficult to distinguish  $f$  from  $u$ , so it is difficult to distinguish  $f_m^+$  from  $u_m^+$ . More precisely, the  $q$ -query distance from  $f_m^+$  to  $u_m^+$  is at most the  $mq$ -query distance from  $f$  to  $u$ , which is at most  $mq(mq - 1)/2^{b+1}$ . Hence  $f_m^+$  is unpredictable: the  $q$ -query distance from  $f_m^+$  to uniform is at most  $mq(mq - 1)/2^b$ .

More generally, if  $f$  is a random function from  $b$ -bit strings to  $b$ -bit strings, and if  $f$  is unpredictable to all fast algorithms, then  $f_m^+$  is unpredictable to all fast algorithms. For example, if  $k$  is a uniform random 128-bit string, then the random function  $\text{AES}_k$  from 128-bit strings to 128-bit strings is conjectured to be unpredictable, so the random function  $(\text{AES}_k)_{20}^+$  from 2560-bit strings to 128-bit strings is also conjectured to be unpredictable.

### Message authentication

One way to securely authenticate a message  $t$  is to transmit it as  $(t, v(t))$ , where  $v$  is a secret uniform random function shared by the sender and receiver. This protocol remains secure when  $v$  is replaced with any unpredictable random function—in particular,  $u_m^+$ , or more generally  $f_m^+$  when  $f$  is unpredictable.

Beware that it is not a good idea to use CBC to authenticate messages in practice:

- Old reason:  $f_m^+$  takes inputs of a fixed positive length, namely  $mb$  bits, whereas most applications send variable-length messages. Switching from  $f_m^+$  to  $f^+$  is not safe: observe that  $f^+(\cdot) = 0$ , for example, and  $f^+(0) = f^+(0, -f^+(0))$ . On the other hand, minor variants of  $f^+$  are unpredictable.
- New reason: Other message-authentication codes are much faster and provide much stronger security guarantees. See, e.g., [4].

CBC nevertheless remains—thanks to its simplicity—an interesting test case for security-proof methodologies.

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