# Foundations of Applied Cryptography

Adam O'Neill

Based on http://cseweb.ucsd.edu/~mihir/cse207/



#### Course Logistics

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Graders: Dan Cline, Kunjal Panchal

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Took off in the 1970s and 1980s

#### Usage

0	Amazon.com Checkout Sign In - Firefox						
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- https invokes the TLS protocol
- TLS uses cryptography
- TLS is in ubiquitous use for secure communication: shopping, banking, Netflix, gmail, Facebook, ...

#### Other Uses

Other uses of cryptography:

- ATM machines
- Bitcoin
- Messaging apps: whatsapp, viber, line, telegraph, goldbug, chatsecure, ...
- Google authenticator
- ...

11,748 android apps use cryptography (encryption), and 10,327 get it wrong [EBFK13]



Adversary: clever person with powerful computer

#### Security goals:

- **Data privacy:** Ensure adversary does not see or obtain the data (message) *M*.
- **Data integrity and authenticity:** Ensure *M* really originates with Alice and has not been modified in transit.

#### Ideal World



Cryptonium pipe: Cannot see inside or alter content.

All our goals would be achieved!

# Cryptographic Schemes



 $\mathcal{E}$ : encryption algorithm  $K_e$ : encryption key  $\mathcal{D}$ : decryption algorithm  $K_d$ : decryption key

Algorithms: standardized, implemented, public! Ker Kornar

Ke = Kd symmetric encryption Ke = Kd publickey encryption

#### Settings



- $\mathcal{E}$ : encryption algorithm
- $\mathcal{D}$ : decryption algorithm
- $K_e$ : encryption key  $K_d$ : decryption key

Settings:

- public-key (assymmetric): K<sub>e</sub> public, K<sub>d</sub> secret
  private-key (symmetric): K<sub>e</sub> = K<sub>d</sub> secret

#### Key Distribution



- $\mathcal{E}$ : encryption algorithm  $\mathcal{D}$ : decryption algorithm
- *K<sub>e</sub>*: encryption key*K<sub>d</sub>*: decryption key

How do keys get distributed? Magic, for now!

#### Concerns



Our concerns:

- How to define security goals?
- How to design  $\mathcal{E}$ ,  $\mathcal{D}$ ?
- How to gain confidence that  $\mathcal{E}$ ,  $\mathcal{D}$  achieve our goals?

#### Why is this hard?

One cannot anticipate in advance what an adversary will do

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Different than other areas of computer science where heuristics on "typical inputs" apply

#### Early History

Substitution ciphers/Caesar ciphers:

 $K_e = K_d = \pi \colon \Sigma \to \Sigma$ , a secret permutation

e.g.,  $\Sigma = \{A, B, C, \ldots\}$  and  $\pi$  is as follows:

σ	A	В	С	D	•••
$\pi(\sigma)$	E	A	Z	U	• • •

$$\mathcal{E}_{\pi}(CAB) = \pi(C)\pi(A)\pi(B)$$
$$= Z E A$$
$$\mathcal{D}_{\pi}(ZEA) = \pi^{-1}(Z)\pi^{-1}(E)\pi^{-1}(A)$$
$$= C A B$$

Not very secure! (Common newspaper puzzle)

#### Shannon's Work

$$K_e = K_d = \underbrace{K \xleftarrow{\{0,1\}^k}}_{K \xleftarrow{(0,1)^k}}$$

 ${\color{black}{K}} \ chosen \ at \ random \ from \ \{0,1\}^k$ 

For any 
$$M \in \{0,1\}^k$$
  
 $- \mathcal{E}_K(M) = K \oplus M$   
 $- \mathcal{D}_K(C) = K \oplus C$ 



Theorem (Shannon): OTP is perfectly secure as long as only one message encrypted.

"Perfect" secrecy, a notion Shannon defines, captures mathematical impossibility of breaking an encryption scheme.  $C_1 = |\zeta | \mathcal{M} | C_2 = |\zeta | C_2 = |\zeta$ 

$$C_1 \oplus C_2 = M_1 \oplus M_2$$



Encryption  
(K, E, D) M msg space  

$$K \in K$$
 outputs a random kay.  
 $C \leq E(m)$  outputs an enc.  
 $o \in m$  under K  
 $m \neq D \geq Cc$ ) outputs a dec.  
 $o \in c$  under K  
Correctness:  $Ym \in M \ \forall K \in R$   
 $Pr[D \geq (E \leq Cm)) = m]$   
 $K = V \leq m$ 



# 

 $E_V(m_0)$   $E_V(m_1)$ 

**Definition 0.2.** A cryptosystem  $(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  is Shannon secure if for all messages  $m_0, m_1$  and ciphertexts c

$$\Pr\left[\mathcal{E}(K,m_0)=c\right] = \Pr\left[\mathcal{E}(K,m_1)=c\right]$$

 $Am_{0}, k \in \sqrt{2}$  $M_{1}$ 

"Simpler formulation"

where the probability is over  $K \leftarrow * \mathcal{K}$ .

#### An Equivalence

Theorem. A scheme is perfectly secure iff it is shamon secure. Theorem. proof. (Shavon ser perfect) Suppose Pr[Ek(mo)=c] = Pr [Ek(m,)=c]  $p_{v}[g=m]E_{k}(m)=c]$   $k_{i} = p_{v}[g=m]$ WTS

$$P_{r}\left[g=m\left(\frac{E_{k}(m)=c}{F_{r}\left[g=m\wedge E_{k}(m)=c\right]}\right) = P_{r}\left[\frac{g=m\wedge E_{k}(m)=c}{F_{r}\left[\frac{F_{r}(m)=c}{F_{r}\left[g=m\int -F_{r}\left(\frac{F_{r}(m)=c}{F_{r}\left[g=m\int -F_{r}\left(\frac{F_{r}(m)=c}{F_{r$$

Let Moim, be arbitrary Define  $D = \frac{51}{115} \frac{m_0}{m_1}$  $\Pr[m=m_0|E_k(m)=c]$ Y

- decryption error - Pr[Ex(m\_o)=c] rs close to pr[Ex(m\_i)=c] Shannon's Theorem Theorem. For Shannon security keys need to be as long as messayes  $\forall C \exists K D_k(C) = m$ Y m 

Statistical Industinguishability  $X = E_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{m}_{0})$   $Y = E_{\mathbf{k}}(\mathbf{m}_{1})$  $\Delta(X,Y) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x} [P_{r}[x=x]]$   $P_{r}[Y=x]$ Measure of closeness between two k.V.'s Statistical distance

→ indistinguishability mux.lp~[A(X)=>1]-Pr[A(Y)=>1] A = A(XiY) 410 X,Y are E-indistinguishal



# Modern Cryptography

Gets around Shannon's Theorem by developing a computational science

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Security of a practical scheme must rely not on impossibility but on computational intractability

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Not only of imminent practical value, cryptography is full of counter-intuitive solutions to cool problems!

#### Security Theorems

Rather than:

"It is impossible to break the scheme"

We might be able to say:

"'No attack using  $\leq 2^{160}$  time succeeds with probability  $\geq 2^{-20}$ "

I.e., Attacks can exist as long as cost to mount them is prohibitive, where Cost = computing time/memory,