

Foundations of Cryptography

MIT-6.875/18.425 ,

UCB CS-276

Lecture 1

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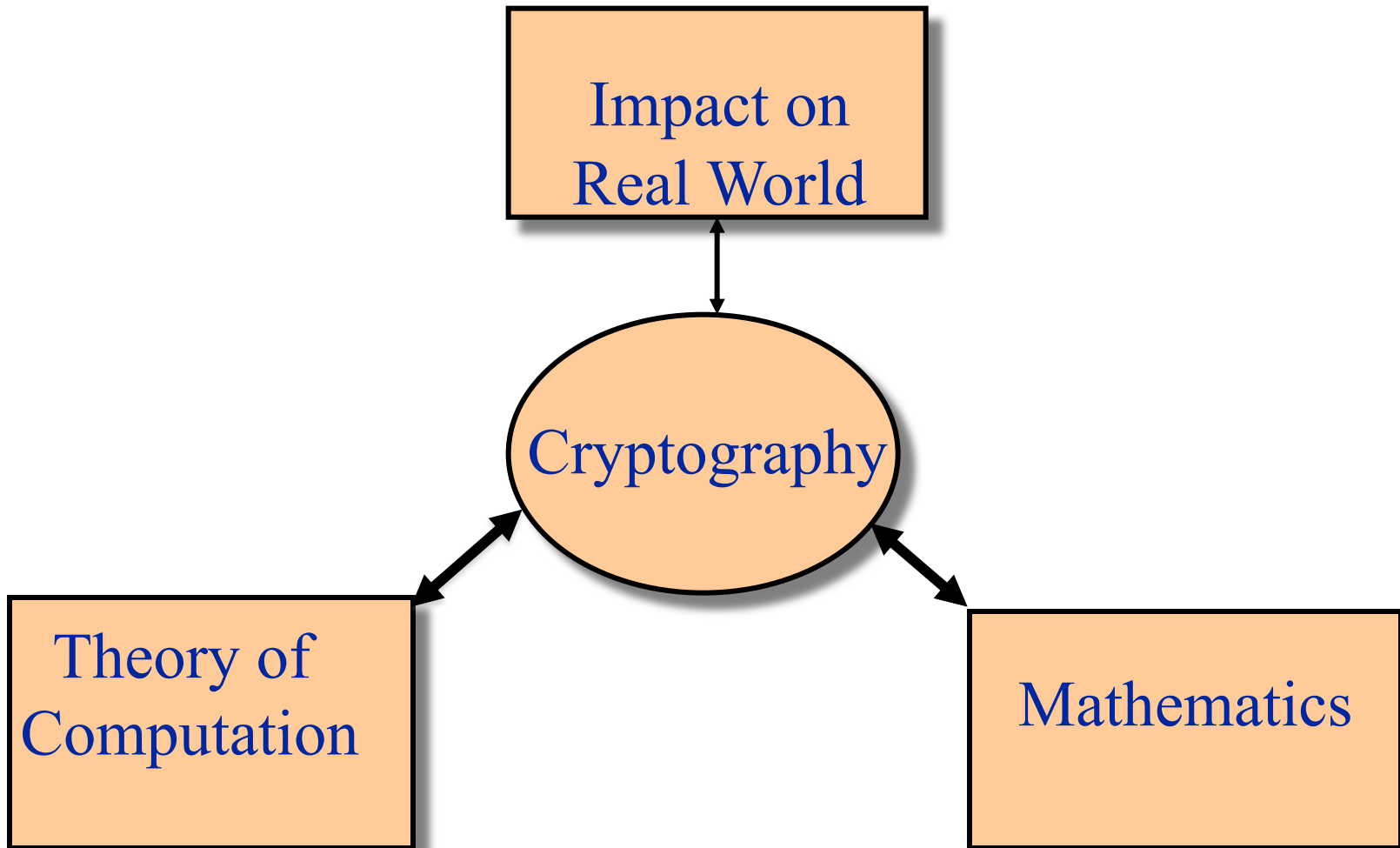
- Debbie Lehto

Website

Expectations

- Homework: 6 problem sets every 2 weeks, typed using latex for equations
- Attendance (with exception to those in different time zones) and Participation
- Knowledge: intro to algorithms, probability, mathematical maturity

Theory and Practice



Historically



Shannon

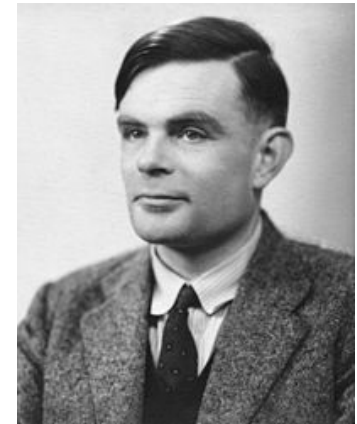
“A Mathematical Theory of Communication”(1948)

“A Communication Theory of Secrecy Systems”
(1945)

Turing

Inventor of the Universal computing
machine

Theory and Practice: Breaking the enigma



War Time Research

Modern Cryptography:

- **Classical** war time effort
- **Modern** with the rise of the internet to enable secure electronic commerce transactions (DiffieHellman 1976, RivestShamirAdleman 1977)
- **Current & Future** enable utilization of remote **computing** and availability of large amounts of data while maintaining our basic right to “be left alone”: privacy

Communication & Computation

Communication: Privacy, Integrity, Authenticity

Computation: Privacy & Correctness of

- Input Data
- Programs and Executions

Catalyst notions and techniques that led to a series of leaps in Complexity Theory

- Pseudo Randomness
- Interactive and Probabilistic Proof Verification
- Average Case vs. Worst Case Hardness

Theory Focus

1. Careful **Definitions** of Cryptographic Tasks and Adversary Models
2. **Critic** of Existing Systems in light of above
3. **Design** systems which can be **proved** secure with respect to definitions made
4. Often Security Proofs are: efficient reductions to explicit assumptions on the complexity of some computational hard problems (or simpler cryptographic primitives)

Design cryptographic systems so science wins either way

Methodology: Efficient Reductions

Given any adversary
Strategy to **break**
the system in time
 $T(k)$ with prob. a



Construct an algorithm
solving the hard problem
in time $T' = \text{poly}(T(k))$
with prob $a/\text{poly}(k)$

Which Hard Problems

NP-Hard? No. Worst Case hardness is not enough

Require: Problems which are Average Case Hard

Hard Problems

- Number Theory

Hardy, ‘A Mathematician’s Apology’ writes:
“Both Gauss and lesser mathematicians may be justified in rejoicing that there is one such science [number theory] at any rate, whose very remoteness from ordinary human activities should keep it gentle and clean”

No longer: Number theory is the basis of modern security systems

Most recent: Geometry and Coding are the basis of post-quantum systems

Topics: 1976-onward

- Public Key Encryption: Sending Secret Messages without ever Meeting
- Digital Signatures: Signing Contracts Remotely
- Pseudo Random Number Generation Indistinguishable from random Derandomization
- Zero Knowledge Proofs: Proofs that Reveal Nothing But the Truth (modern use: Block Chains)
- Two Party Secure Computation: coin flipping, oblivious transfer, secure function evaluation
- Multi Party Secure Protocols: Computing on Distributed Secret Data Revealing Nothing but the result without referees, Private Information Retrieval Byzantine Agreement
- Fully Homomorphic Encryption
- Private Machine Learning using all of the above

Unifying Theme: The Presence of a Worst Case Adversary

- Integral Part of the Definition of the Problem
- Determines the Quality of Acceptable Solutions

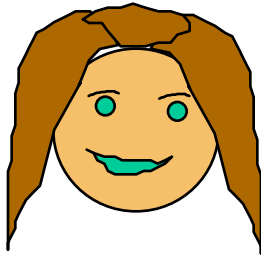


What Can you Get from This Course

- We are not going to be able to cover everything
- Main goals
 - Exposure to the “mindset” of security
 - Identify the Adversary
 - Identify the goal
 - Evaluate Security
 - In Depth: “Basic” cryptography & protocols
 - Exposure: current trends
- If nothing else, a healthy dosage of paranoia...

Secret Communication

Alice



message m

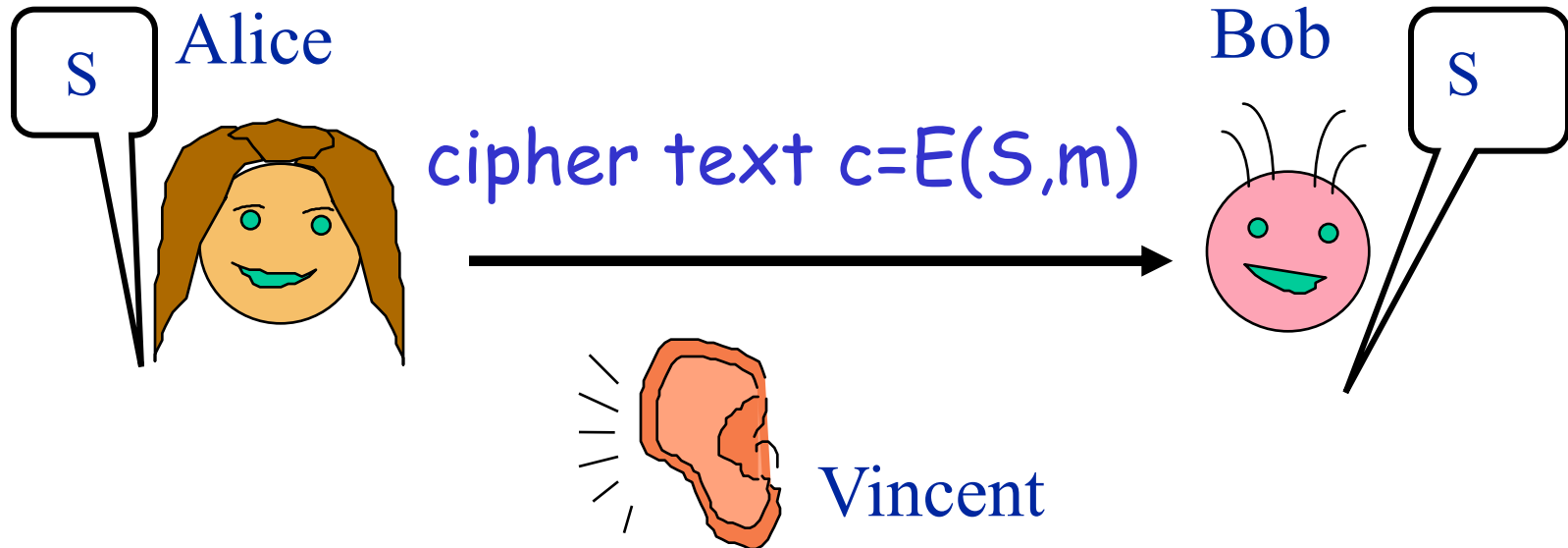


Bob



Vincent

Secret Communication



Alice and Bob met to agree on a secret key **S**

Define Encryption scheme

- An **encryption scheme** (G,E,D) is a triplet of (possibly probabilistic) algorithms where
 - **key generation** $G(1^n)$ outputs **secret key** sk of length n
[n is also called the security parameter]
 - **Encryption** algorithm $E(sk,m)$ outputs **ciphertext** c
 - **Decryption** algorithm $D(sk,c)$ outputs **plaintext** m

- Requirements:
 - **Correctness**: $D(sk,E(sk,m)) = m$ for all m in M .
 - **Security** Definition...with respect to **adversaries**

- K = key probability space, $\text{Prob}[K=sk]$
- M = message probability space, $\text{Prob}[M=m]$
- C = ciphertext probability space. $\text{Prob}[C=c] = \text{Prob}[E(K,M)=c]$

Ancient Codes

Secret Key:

A → T

B → U

...

S → L

...



“Pen and Paper
Cryptography”

`` MAX YTNEM, WXTK UKNMNL, EBXL GHM BG HNK
LMTKL UNM BG HNK LXSCXL''

ciphertext

`` THE FAULT, DEAR BRUTUS, LIES NOT IN OUR
STARS BUT IN OURSELVES''

plaintext

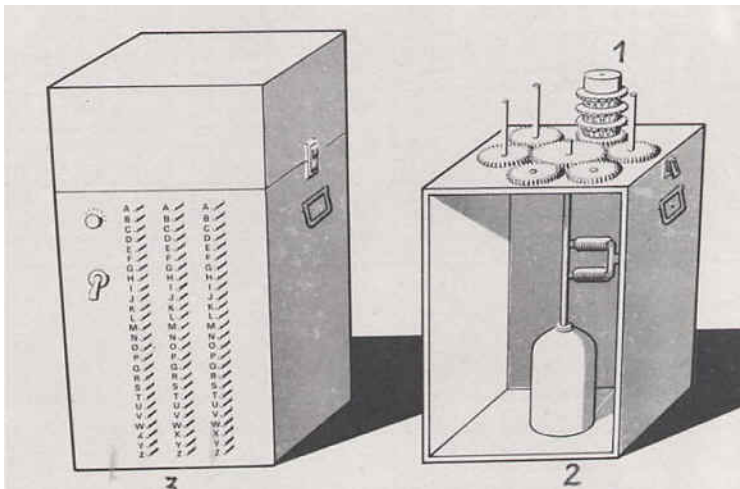
Security? Easy to break, by frequency analysis,

Enigma Machine

Electro-mechanical Devices
Automated Cryptography &
Cryptanalysis



Rejewski, Zygaliski, Rozycki



Mid Century: From Art to Science

Shannon '49: Perfect Secrecy Theory



Adversary: unbounded computationally,
security analysis is information theoretic

What Does the Adversary Know?

- **Kerckhoff Law:** A cryptographic system should be secure even if everything about the system (e.g. the algorithms G, E and D in the context of a secrecy system) is known to the adversary except for the key and the randomness of the legal users
- **Ciphertext Only:** Can see c transmitted over an insecure channel (but not request c for m of its choice)

What Security Guarantee Do We Want?

It should be impossible to

- compute plaintext from cipher text
- Compute the i -th bit of the plaintext
- compute any partial information about the plaintext from the cipher text.
- compute relations between plaintexts

For any message space, with high probability

How do we define that?

Shannon Secrecy Definition (aka perfect secrecy)

Let EVE be an unbounded adversary.

Note 1:
 $C=E(K,M)$

We say that (G,E,D) satisfies

Shannon-secrecy if and only if:

\forall probability distribution over M ,

$\forall c$ in C , $\forall m$ in M

$$\Pr [M=m] = \Pr[M=m | E(K,M)=c]$$

Note 2: When a r.v.
(random variable)
Appears in a context of
prob statement., the
prob is taken over the
choices of the r.v.

Slight Notational Abuse: All
capital letters denote r.v's
and prob distribution at the
same time

A-priori = A-posteriori

Perfect Indistinguishability Alternative Security Definition

Let EVE be an unbounded adversary.

We say that (G,E,D) satisfies

Perfect indistinguishability if :

\forall Probability distribution over \mathcal{M}

$\forall m, m'$ in \mathcal{M} ,

$\forall c$ in \mathcal{C}

$$\Pr [E(K,m)=c] = \Pr [E(K,m')=c]$$

Note : EVE is not used
In the definition but
Is implicitly there computing
probabilities...

The Definitions are Equivalent

Theorem:

(G, E, D) satisfies
perfect indistinguishability iff
 (G, E, D) satisfies Shannon secrecy.

Proof: Simple use of Bayes Theorem

Indistinguishability implies Shannon

For all m, m', c perfect indistinguishability guarantees that $\Pr[E(K, m)=c]=\Pr[E(K, m')=c] = [\text{call it } \alpha]$

$$\text{fact1 } \Pr[E(K, M)=c] = \sum_m \Pr[M=m] \Pr(E(K, m)=c) = \sum_m \Pr(M=m) \alpha = \alpha \sum_m \Pr(M=m) = \alpha$$

Bayes: $P[A|B] = \Pr[B|A] \Pr[A] / \Pr[B]$

For all m : A-posteriori

$$\Pr[M=m|E(K, M) = c] = \quad (\text{Bayes})$$

$$\Pr(E(K, M)=c|M=m) \Pr(M=m) / \Pr[E(K, M)=c] = (\text{fact1})$$

$$\Pr[E(K, m)=c] \Pr(M=m) / \alpha = (\text{def of indistinguishability})$$

$$\alpha \Pr(M=m) / \alpha = \Pr[M=m] = \text{A-priori} \quad \text{QED}$$

Shannon implies indistinguishability

Bayes: $P[A|B]=Pr[B|A] Pr[A]/Pr[B]$

For all m,c Shannon secrecy guarantees that

$Pr[M=m] = Pr[M=m | E(K,M)=c]$ for all m

For all m ,

$Pr[E(K,m)=c]=$ (rewrite)

$Pr[E(K,M)=c | M=m] =$ (Bayes)

$\frac{Pr[M=m|E(K,M)=c]Pr[E(K,M)=c]}{Pr[M=m]} =$ (def of Shannon)

$\frac{Pr[M=m] Pr[E(K,M)=c]}{Pr[M=m]} =$

$Pr(E(K,M)=c)$

This is also true for m' . Namely, $Pr[E(K,m')]=Pr[E(K,M)=c]$

Thus, for all m, m',c ; $Pr[C=c|M=m]=Pr[C=c | M=m']$ QED

Shannon Secrecy is Achievable

One Time Pad: G chooses sk at random in $\{0,1\}^n$

$$E(sk,m)=sk\oplus m, D(sk,c)=sk\oplus c$$

Claim: One Time Pad Achieves Shannon Security

Proof: Fix $m, c \in \{0,1\}^n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Prob}[E(K,m)=c] &= \text{Prob}[K\oplus m=c] = \\ & \text{Prob}[K=m\oplus c] = 1/2^n \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\forall c, m, m'$

$$\text{Prob}(E(K,m)=c) = \text{Prob}(E(K,m')=c)$$

And one-time pad (G,E,D) achieves perfect indistinguishability \Rightarrow Shannon secrecy.

How about using one-time pad to send more than one message?

Q: Would it preserve Shannon Secrecy?

A: No

Proof: Show **Perfect Indistinguishability** no longer holds.

Consider the case of two messages each of length n , each encrypted by “xoring” the message with the same sk .

Claim: there exists $m=(m_1, m_2)$ & $m'=(m_1', m_2')$ & ciphertext $c=(c_1, c_2)$ such that $\Pr[E(K, m)=c] \neq \Pr_{sk}[E(K, m')=c]$

Pf: Set $m_1=m_2$ and $m_1' \neq m_2'$ and $c=(c_1, c_1)$. Then,
 $m_1' \neq m_2' \Rightarrow$ there is no sk for which $sk \oplus m_1' = c_1 = sk \oplus m_2'$
 $\Rightarrow \Pr[E(K, m')=c]=0$

But there exist sk s.t. $sk \oplus m_1 = c_1$ and $sk \oplus m_2 = c_1$
 $\Rightarrow \Pr[E(K, m)=c] > 0$ QED.

#Keys \geq #Messages

Shannon Theorem: For perfect secrecy schemes, $|K| \geq |M|$

Proof: Suppose not and $|K| < |M|$.
Fix c s.t. $\Pr[E(K,M)=c] > 0$.

Note:

$|K|$ = number of distinct keys

$|M|$ = number of distinct messages

Let $M_c = \{m \text{ s.t. } \exists \text{ some } k \text{ for which } m = D(k, c)\}$.

Then $|M_c| \leq |K|$ (since there is at least 1 key per message)
 $< |M|$ (assumed for contradiction)

So, \exists some $m' \in M$ for which there is no k
that yields $m' = D(k, c)$. Namely, $\Pr(E(K, m') = c) = 0$

Whereas $\Pr(E(K, M) = c) > 0$, so there exists another m , s.t.
 $\Pr[E(K, m) = c] > 0$. Perfect Indistinguishability is violated.

Contradiction QED

$$|K| \geq |M| \Rightarrow$$

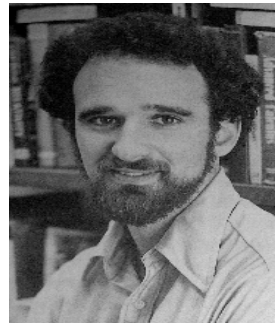
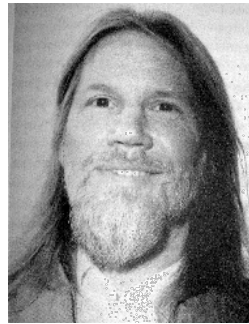
bits to specify Key \geq
bits to specify Message

Disadvantages of One Time Pads

- The size of the key is huge: as many key bits as message bits and need to know in advance how many message bits
- Receiver needs to know which key goes with which ciphertext (some synchronization or state)
- **Advantage**
 - By Shannon's Theorem, this is BEST POSSIBLE.

Modern Cryptography

1976, New Directions in Cryptography

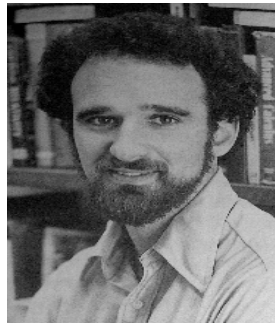
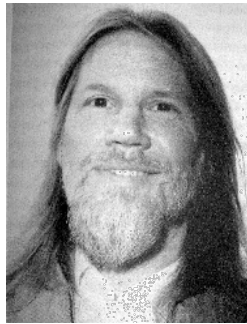


“ We stand today on the brink of a revolution in cryptography. The development of cheap digital hardware has freed it from the design limitations of mechanical computing and brought the cost of high grade cryptographic devices down to where they can be used in such commercial applications as remote cash dispensers and computer terminals. In turn, such applications create a need for new types of cryptographic systems ”

W. Diffie, M. Hellman, “New Directions in Cryptography”, 1976.

Modern Cryptography

1976, New Directions in Cryptography



The Adversary

Any probabilistic polynomial time algorithm:
 $O(n^c)$ for some $c > 0$ for $n = \text{security parameter}$.
Think of $n = \text{size of the secret key}$

Probabilistic Polynomial Time algorithms (PPT)

- A runs in polynomial time in its input length
- A is randomized: can flip fair coins
 - **Las Vegas:** \forall input, A is correct or with negligible probability A outputs \perp
 - **Monte Carlo:** \forall input, A is correct
With all but negligible probability

Can Now Ask New Questions

1. Can A and B agree on key sk in person and subsequently exchange $P(|sk|)$ messages where P is any polynomial?
2. Can A and B exchange messages without even meeting
3. Can B be assured that A's message was not modified: can A sign messages digitally so that B can verify that A signed the message, without A and B meeting

Possible for the new Adversary model and modified security definition

Conventions

- We say that a function $\varepsilon(n)$ is **negligible** if for every polynomial P , there exists n_0 s.t. for all $n > n_0$, $\varepsilon(n) < 1/P(n)$
- We say that a function $\varepsilon(n)$ is **non-negligible** if there exists a polynomial P , such that for infinitely many k , $\varepsilon(n) > 1/P(n)$
- Instead of "there exists a n_0 s.t. for all $n > n_0$ ", we often say "**for sufficiently large n** "
- $b \in_{\mathcal{R}} \{0,1\}$ means "sampled at random" (often omitted)

Notations

PPT: Probabilistic Polynomial Time Algorithms. They can toss coins; different outputs are possible for the same input; and on length n input, the running time is bounded by $O(n^c)$ for some constant $c > 0$.

Negligible $\text{neg}(n)$: $< 1/p(n)$ for all polynomials p

non-neg: There exists a polynomial p s.t. $\text{non-neg}(n) > 1/p(n)$

Security Parameter: is always presented in Unary

There Exists: \exists

For All: \forall

Such that: s.t.

$|n|$: number of bits in binary representation of n , e.g. $|8|=3$

Big O-notation:

$|S|$: Cardinality of Set S

Prob (E), $\Pr[E]$: probability that event E is true

iff: if and only if

o.w: other wise