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## Final Exam

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1. Let  $(E, D)$  be an authenticated encryption system built by combining

1 / 1 point

a CPA-secure symmetric cipher and a MAC. The system is combined with an error-correction code to correct random transmission errors.

In what order should encryption and error correction be applied?

- ☒ Encrypt and then apply the error correction code.
- ☐ The order does not matter -- neither one can correct errors.
- ☐ Apply the error correction code and then encrypt the result.
- ☐ The order does not matter -- either one is fine.

✓ Correct

That is correct. The error correction code will do its best to correct random errors after which the MAC in the ciphertext will be checked to ensure no other errors remains.

2. Let  $X$  be a uniform random variable over the set  $\{0, 1\}^n$ .

1 / 1 point

Let  $Y$  be an arbitrary random variable over the set  $\{0, 1\}^n$  (not necessarily uniform) that is independent of  $X$ .

Define the random variable  $Z = X \oplus Y$ . What is the probability that  $Z$  equals  $0^n$ ?

- ☐ 0.5
- ☐  $2/2^n$
- ☒  $1/2^n$
- ☐ 0

✓ Correct

The probability is  $1/2^n$ . To see why, observe that whatever  $Y$  is, the probability that  $Z = X \oplus Y = 0^n$  is the same as the probability that  $X = Y$  which is exactly  $1/2^n$  because  $X$  is uniform.

3. Suppose  $(E_1, D_1)$  is a symmetric cipher that uses 128 bit keys to

1 / 1 point

encrypt 1024 bit messages. Suppose  $(E_2, D_2)$  is a symmetric cipher that uses 128 bit keys to encrypt 128 bit messages.

The encryption algorithms  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  are deterministic and do not use nonces. Which of the following statements is true?

- ☒  $(E_1, D_1)$  can be one-time semantically secure.

✓ Correct

Yes, for example  $(E_1, D_1)$  can be a secure stream cipher.

- ☒  $(E_1, D_1)$  can be one-time semantically secure, but cannot be perfectly secure.

✓ Correct

Yes, for example  $(E_1, D_1)$  can be a secure stream cipher.

Let  $(E, D)$  be a secure symmetric encryption system.

- ☐  $(E_2, D_2)$  can be semantically secure under a chosen plaintext attack.
- ☐  $(E_1, D_1)$  can be perfectly secure.

4. Which of the following statements regarding CBC and counter mode is correct?

1 / 1 point

- ☐ counter mode encryption requires a block cipher (PRP), but CBC mode encryption only needs a PRF.
- ☐ Both counter mode and CBC mode require a block cipher (PRP).
- ☐ Both counter mode and CBC mode can operate just using a PRF.
- ☒ CBC mode encryption requires a block cipher (PRP), but counter mode encryption only needs a PRF.

✓ Correct

Yes, CBC needs to invert the PRP for decryption, while counter mode only needs to evaluate the PRF in the forward direction for both encryption and decryption. Therefore, a PRF is sufficient for counter mode.

5. Let  $G : X \rightarrow X^2$  be a secure PRG where  $X = \{0, 1\}^{256}$ .

1 / 1 point

We let  $G(k)[0]$  denote

the left half of the output and  $G(k)[1]$  denote the right half.

Which of the following statements is true?

- ☐  $F(k, m) = m \oplus k$  is a secure PRF with key space and message space  $X$ .
- ☒  $F(k, m) = G(k)[m]$  is a secure PRF with key space  $X$  and message space  $m \in \{0, 1\}$ .
- ☐  $F(k, m) = G(m)[0] \oplus k$  is a secure PRF with key space and message space  $X$ .
- ☐  $F(k, m) = G(k)[0] \oplus m$  is a secure PRF with key space and message space  $X$ .

✓ Correct

Yes, since the output of  $G(k)$  is indistinguishable from random, the left and right halves are indistinguishable from random independent values.

6. Let  $(E, D)$  be a nonce-based symmetric encryption system (i.e. algorithm

1 / 1 point

$E$  takes as input a key, a message, and a nonce, and similarly the decryption algorithm takes a nonce as one of its inputs). The system provides chosen plaintext security (CPA-security) as long as the nonce never repeats. Suppose a single encryption key is used to encrypt  $2^{32}$  messages and the nonces are generated independently at random for each encryption, how long should the nonce be to ensure that it never repeats with high probability?

- ☐ 16 bits
- ☒ 128 bits
- ☐ 48 bits
- ☐ 64 bits

✓ Correct

Yes, the probability of repetition after  $2^{32}$  samples is negligible.

7. Same as question 6 except that now the nonce is generated using a counter. The counter resets to 0 when a new key is chosen and is incremented by 1 after every encryption. What is the shortest nonce possible to ensure that the nonce does not repeat when encrypting  $2^{32}$  messages using a single key?

1 / 1 point

- ☐ 48 bits
- ☐ the nonce must be chosen at random, otherwise the system cannot be CPA secure.
- ☐ 128 bits
- ☒ 32 bits

✓ Correct

Yes, with 32 bits there are  $2^{32}$  nonces and each message will use a different nonce.

8. Let  $(S, V)$  be a deterministic MAC system with message space  $M$  and key space  $K$ . Which of the following properties is implied by the standard MAC security definition?

1 / 1 point

- ☒ For any two distinct messages  $m_0$  and  $m_1$ , given  $m_0, m_1$  and  $S(k, m_0)$  it is difficult to compute  $S(k, m_1)$ .
- ☐  $S(k, m)$  preserves semantic security of  $m$ .  
That is, the adversary learns nothing about  $m$  given  $S(k, m)$ .
- ☐ Given a key  $k$  in  $K$  it is difficult to find distinct messages  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  such that  $S(k, m_0) = S(k, m_1)$ .
- ☐ The function  $S(k, m)$  is a secure PRF.

✓ Correct

yes, this is implied by existential unforgeability under a chosen message attack.

9. Let  $H : M \rightarrow T$  be a collision resistant hash function where  $|T|$  is smaller than  $|M|$ .

1 / 1 point

Which of the following properties is implied by collision resistance?

- ☐ it is difficult to find  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  such that  $H(m_0) = H(m_1) + 1$ . (here we treat the outputs of  $H$  as integers)
- ☒ Given a tag  $t \in T$  it is difficult to construct  $m \in M$  such that  $H(m) = t$ .
- ☐  $H(m)$  preserves semantic security of  $m$  (that is, given  $H(m)$  the attacker learns nothing about  $m$ ).
- ☐ For all  $m$  in  $M$ ,  $H(m)$  must be shorter than  $m$ .

✓ Correct

yes, if these were easy then the attacker could easily find collisions.

10. Recall that when encrypting data you should typically use a symmetric encryption system that provides authenticated encryption. Let  $(E, D)$  be a symmetric encryption system providing authenticated encryption. Which of the following statements is implied by authenticated encryption?

1 / 1 point

- ☒ Given  $m$  and  $E(k, m)$  it is difficult to find  $k$ .

✓ Correct

yes, otherwise the system would not even be chosen plaintext secure.

- ☐ Given  $c = E(k, m)$  for some secret  $k, m$ ,  
the attacker cannot find  $k', m'$  such that  $c = E(k', m')$ .
- ☐ Given  $k, m$  and  $E(k, m)$  the attacker  
cannot create a valid encryption of  $m + 1$  under key  $k$ .  
(here we treat plaintexts as integers)
- ☒  $(E, D)$  provides chosen-ciphertext security.

✓ **Correct**  
yes, we showed this in class.

11. Which of the following statements is true about the basic Diffie-Hellman

1 / 1 point

key-exchange protocol.

- ☐ The basic protocol provides key exchange secure against  
active adversaries that can inject and modify messages.
- ☐ As with RSA, the protocol only provides  
eavesdropping security in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  where  $N$  is an  
RSA modulus.
- ☒ The protocol can be converted to a public-key  
encryption system called the ElGamal public-key system.

✓ **Correct**  
yes, that is correct.

- ☒ The protocol provides security against eavesdropping  
in any finite group in which the Hash Diffie-Hellman (HDH) assumption holds.

✓ **Correct**  
yes, in any such group the hash of the Diffie-Hellman  
secret  $g^{ab}$  can be used as a shared secret.

12. Suppose  $n + 1$  parties, call them  $B, A_1, \dots, A_n$ , wish to setup

1 / 1 point

a shared group key. They want a protocol so that at the end  
of the protocol they all have a common secret key  $k$ , but an eavesdropper  
who sees the entire conversation cannot determine  $k$ . The parties  
agree on the following protocol that runs in a group  $G$  of prime order  $q$   
with generator  $g$ :

- for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  party  $A_i$  chooses a random  $a_i$  in  $\{1, \dots, q\}$  and sends to Party  $B$  the quantity  $X_i \leftarrow g^{a_i}$ .
- Party  $B$  generates a random  $b$  in  $\{1, \dots, q\}$  and for  $i = 1, \dots, n$  responds to Party  $A_i$  with the messages  $Y_i \leftarrow X_i^b$ .

The final group key should be  $g^b$ . Clearly Party  $B$  can compute  
this group key. How would each Party  $A_i$  compute this group key?

- ☐ Party  $A_i$  computes  $g^b$  as  $Y_i^{-a_i}$
- ☐ Party  $A_i$  computes  $g^b$  as  $Y_i^{a_i}$
- ☐ Party  $A_i$  computes  $g^b$  as  $Y_i^{-1/a_i}$
- ☒ Party  $A_i$  computes  $g^b$  as  $Y_i^{1/a_i}$

✓ **Correct**  
Yes,  $Y_i^{1/a_i} = g^{(ba_i)/a_i} = g^b$ .

13. Recall that the RSA trapdoor permutation is defined in the group

1 / 1 point

$\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  where  $N$  is a product of two large  
primes. The public key is  $(N, e)$  and the private key is  $(N, d)$

where  $d$  is the inverse of  $e$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$ .

Suppose RSA was defined modulo a prime  $p$  instead of an RSA

composite  $N$ . Show that in that case anyone can compute the private

key  $(N, d)$  from the public key  $(N, e)$  by computing:

☒  $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \pmod{p-1}.$

☐  $d \leftarrow -e \pmod{p}.$

☐  $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \pmod{p^2}.$

☐  $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \pmod{p+1}.$



Correct

yes, that is correct.