

Turing and the Growth of Cryptography

Ronald L. Rivest

Viterbi Professor of EECS
MIT, Cambridge, MA

BU Turing 100 Celebration
November 11, 2012

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

Pierre de Fermat (1601-1665)

Leonhard Euler (1707–1783)



Fermat's Little Theorem (1640):

For any prime p and any a , $1 \leq a < p$:

$$a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$$

Pierre de Fermat (1601-1665)

Leonhard Euler (1707–1783)



Fermat's Little Theorem (1640):

For any prime p and any a , $1 \leq a < p$:

$$a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$$

Euler's Theorem (1736):

If $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, then

$$a^{\phi(n)} = 1 \pmod{n},$$

where $\phi(n) = \#$ of $x < n$ such that $\gcd(x, n) = 1$.

Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777-1855)



Published *Disquisitiones Arithmeticae* at age 21

Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777-1855)



Published *Disquisitiones Arithmeticae* at age 21

“The problem of *distinguishing prime numbers from composite numbers and of resolving the latter into their prime factors* is known to be one of the most important and useful in arithmetic. . . . the dignity of the science itself seems to require solution of a problem so elegant and so celebrated.”

William Stanley Jevons (1835–1882)



Published *The Principles of Science* (1874)

William Stanley Jevons (1835–1882)



Published *The Principles of Science* (1874)

Gave world's first *factoring challenge*:

"What two numbers multiplied together will produce 8616460799 ? I think it unlikely that anyone but myself will ever know."

William Stanley Jevons (1835–1882)



Published *The Principles of Science* (1874)

Gave world's first *factoring challenge*:

"What two numbers multiplied together will produce 8616460799 ? I think it unlikely that anyone but myself will ever know."

Factored by Derrick Lehmer in 1903. ($89681 * 96079$)

World War I – Radio

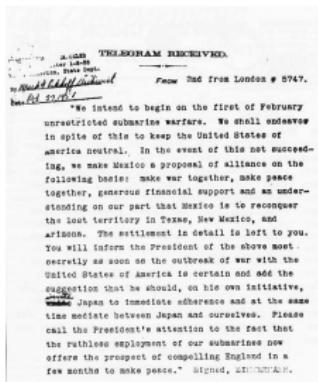
- ▶ A marvelous new communication technology—*radio* (Marconi, 1895)—enabled instantaneous communication with remote ships and forces, but also gave all transmitted messages to the enemy.

World War I – Radio

- ▶ A marvelous new communication technology—*radio* (Marconi, 1895)—enabled instantaneous communication with remote ships and forces, but also gave all transmitted messages to the enemy.
- ▶ Use of cryptography soars.

World War I – Radio

- ▶ A marvelous new communication technology—*radio* (Marconi, 1895)—enabled instantaneous communication with remote ships and forces, but also gave all transmitted messages to the enemy.
- ▶ Use of cryptography soars.



Decipherment of
Zimmermann Telegram by
British made American
involvement in World War I
inevitable.

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

Alan Turing (1912–1954)



Developed foundations of theory of computability (1936).

Church-Turing Thesis (model of computation doesn't matter).

World War II – Enigma, Purple, JN25, Naval Enigma



- ▶ Cryptography performed by (typically, rotor) *machines*.

World War II – Enigma, Purple, JN25, Naval Enigma



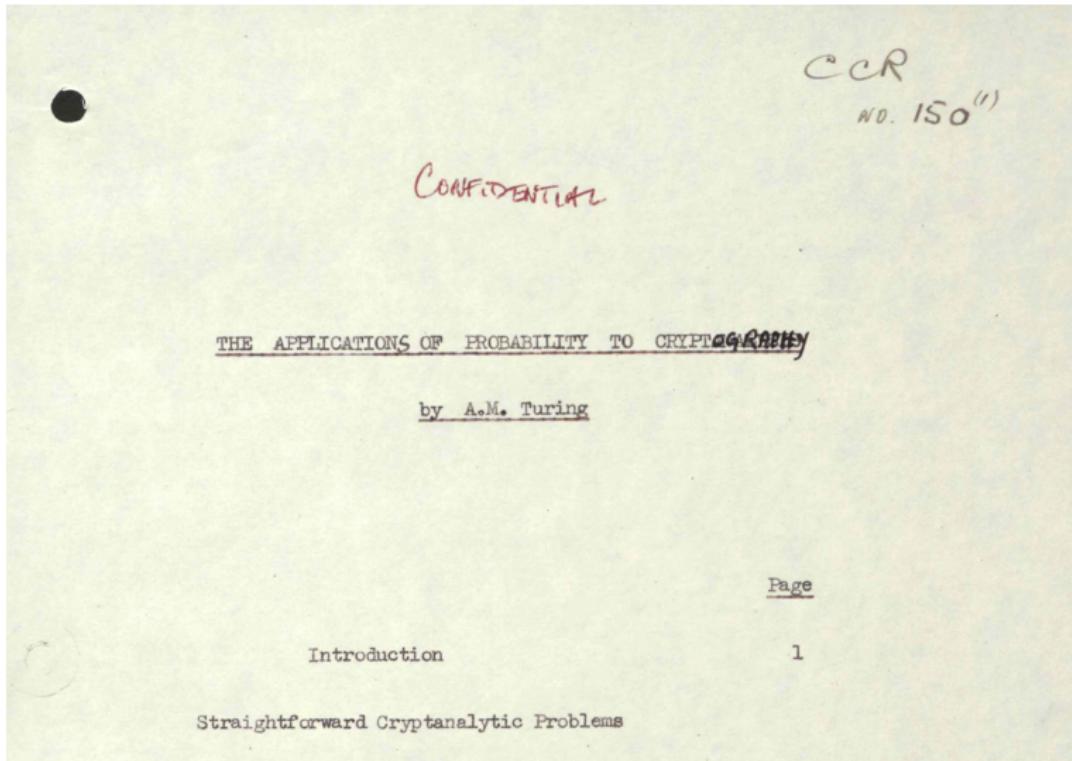
- ▶ Cryptography performed by (typically, rotor) *machines*.
- ▶ Work of Alan Turing and others at Bletchley Park, and William Friedman and others in the USA, on breaking of Axis ciphers had great success and immense impact.

World War II – Enigma, Purple, JN25, Naval Enigma



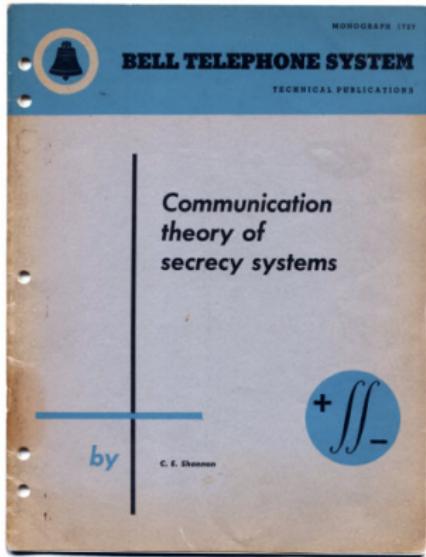
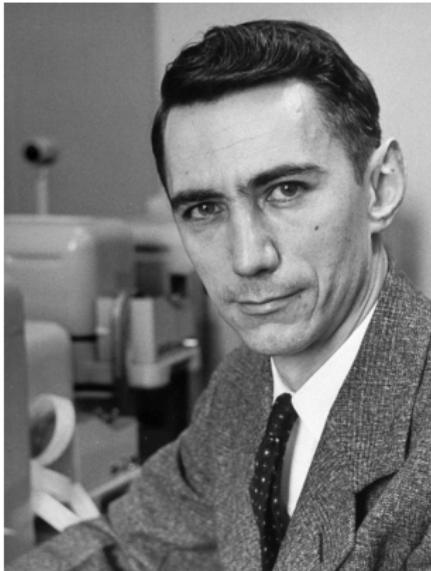
- ▶ Cryptography performed by (typically, rotor) *machines*.
- ▶ Work of Alan Turing and others at Bletchley Park, and William Friedman and others in the USA, on breaking of Axis ciphers had great success and immense impact.
- ▶ Cryptanalytic effort involved development and use of early computers (Colossus).

Still learning about Turing's contributions



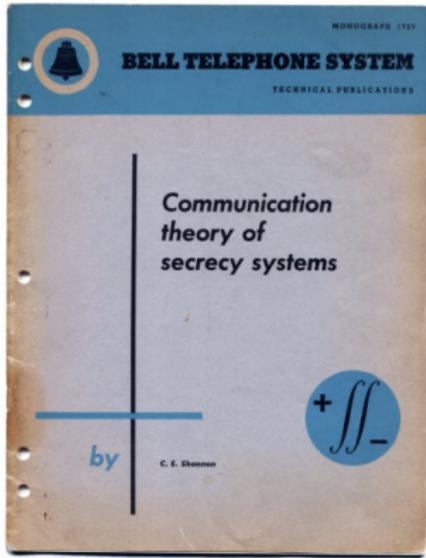
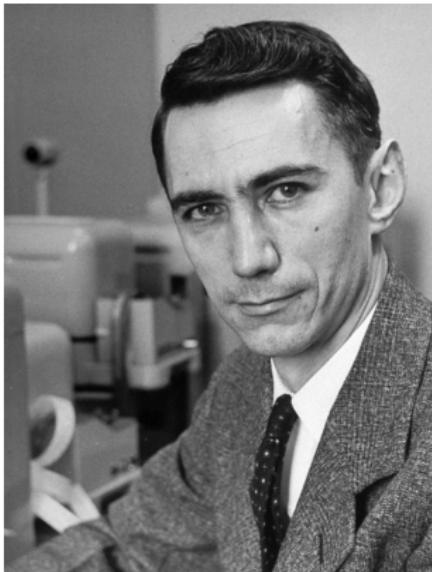
(Declassified May 2012.)

Claude Shannon (1916–2001)



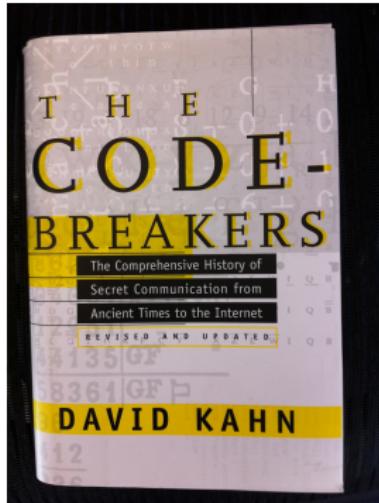
- ▶ “Communication Theory of Secrecy Systems” Sept 1945 (Bell Labs memo, classified).

Claude Shannon (1916–2001)



- ▶ “Communication Theory of Secrecy Systems” Sept 1945 (Bell Labs memo, classified).
- ▶ Information-theoretic in character—proves unbreakability of one-time pad. (Published 1949).

Kahn – The Codebreakers



In 1967 David Kahn published *The Codebreakers—The Story of Secret Writing*. A monumental history of cryptography. NSA attempted to suppress its publication.

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

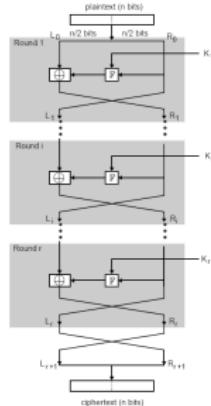
Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

DES – U.S. Data Encryption Standard (1976)



DES Designed at IBM; Horst Feistel supplied key elements of design, such as ladder structure. NSA helped, in return for keeping key size at 56 bits.(?)

Computational Complexity



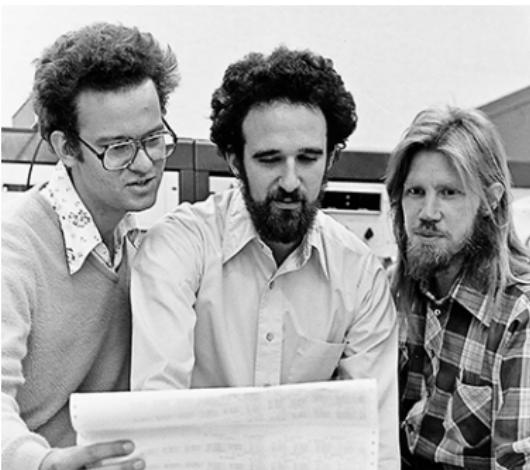
- ▶ Theory of Computational Complexity started in 1965 by Hartmanis and Stearns; expanded on by Blum, Cook, and Karp.
- ▶ Key notions: polynomial-time reductions; NP-completeness.

Invention of Public Key Cryptography



- ▶ Ralph Merkle, and independently Marty Hellman and Whit Diffie, invented the notion of *public-key cryptography*.

Invention of Public Key Cryptography



- ▶ Ralph Merkle, and independently Marty Hellman and Whit Diffie, invented the notion of *public-key cryptography*.
- ▶ In November 1976, Diffie and Hellman published *New Directions in Cryptography*, proclaiming

“We are at the brink of a revolution in cryptography.”

Public-key encryption (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Each party A has a *public key* PK_A others can use to encrypt messages to A :

$$C = PK_A(M)$$

Public-key encryption (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Each party A has a *public key* PK_A others can use to encrypt messages to A :

$$C = PK_A(M)$$

- ▶ Each party A also has a *secret key* SK_A for decrypting a received ciphertext C :

$$M = SK_A(C)$$

Public-key encryption (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Each party A has a *public key* PK_A others can use to encrypt messages to A :

$$C = PK_A(M)$$

- ▶ Each party A also has a *secret key* SK_A for decrypting a received ciphertext C :

$$M = SK_A(C)$$

- ▶ It is easy to compute matching public/secret key pairs.

Public-key encryption (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Each party A has a *public key* PK_A others can use to encrypt messages to A :

$$C = PK_A(M)$$

- ▶ Each party A also has a *secret key* SK_A for decrypting a received ciphertext C :

$$M = SK_A(C)$$

- ▶ It is easy to compute matching public/secret key pairs.
- ▶ Publishing PK_A does not compromise SK_A ! It is *computationally infeasible* to obtain SK_A from PK_A . Each public key can thus be safely listed in a public directory with the owner's name.

Digital Signatures (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Idea: sign with SK_A ; verify signature with PK_A .

Digital Signatures (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Idea: sign with SK_A ; verify signature with PK_A .
- ▶ A produces signature σ for message M

$$\sigma = SK_A(M)$$

Digital Signatures (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Idea: sign with SK_A ; verify signature with PK_A .
- ▶ A produces signature σ for message M

$$\sigma = SK_A(M)$$

- ▶ Given PK_A , M , and σ , anyone can verify validity of signature σ by checking:

$$M \stackrel{?}{=} PK_A(\sigma)$$

Digital Signatures (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Idea: sign with SK_A ; verify signature with PK_A .
- ▶ A produces signature σ for message M

$$\sigma = SK_A(M)$$

- ▶ Given PK_A , M , and σ , anyone can verify validity of signature σ by checking:

$$M \stackrel{?}{=} PK_A(\sigma)$$

- ▶ Amazing ideas!

Digital Signatures (as proposed by Diffie/Hellman)

- ▶ Idea: sign with SK_A ; verify signature with PK_A .
- ▶ A produces signature σ for message M

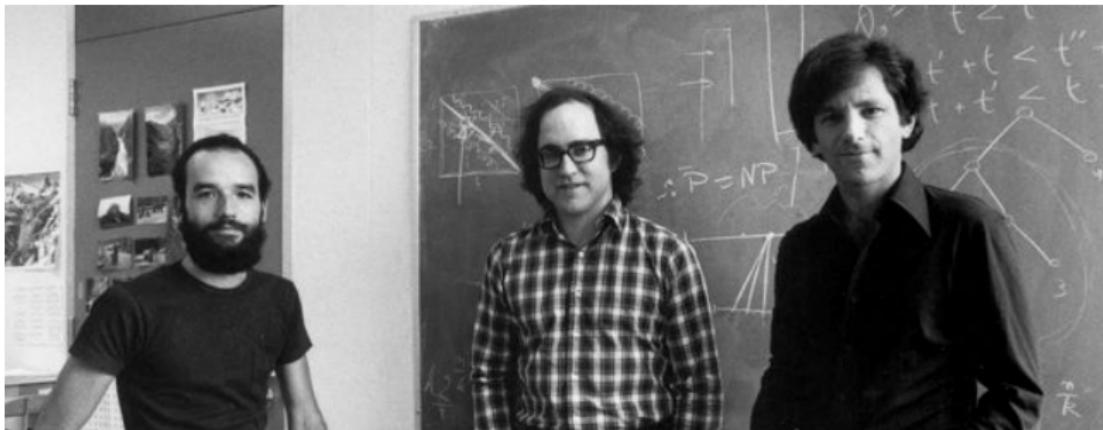
$$\sigma = SK_A(M)$$

- ▶ Given PK_A , M , and σ , anyone can verify validity of signature σ by checking:

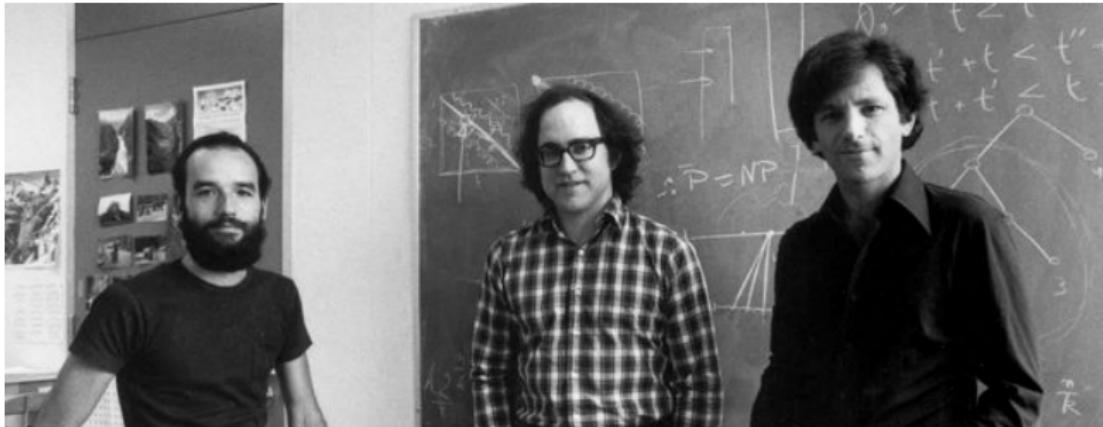
$$M \stackrel{?}{=} PK_A(\sigma)$$

- ▶ Amazing ideas!
- ▶ But they couldn't see how to implement them...

RSA (Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, Len Adleman, 1977)

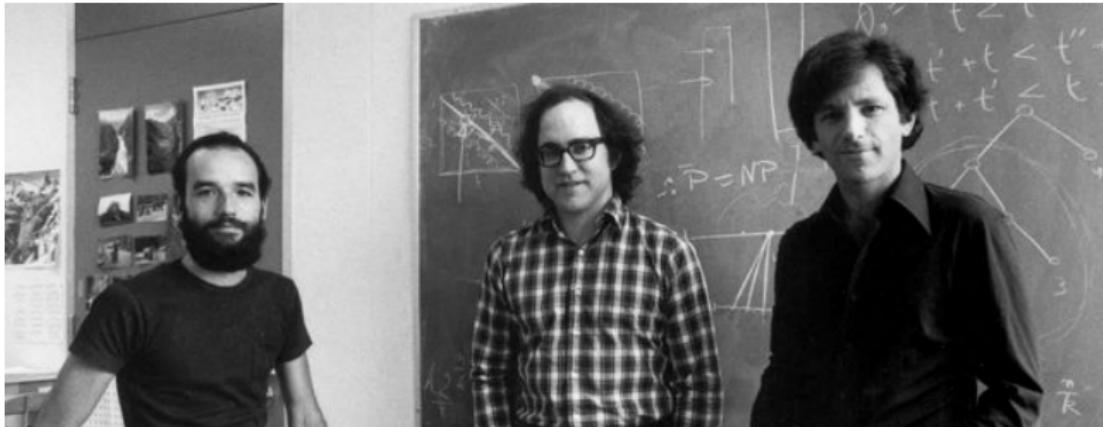


RSA (Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, Len Adleman, 1977)



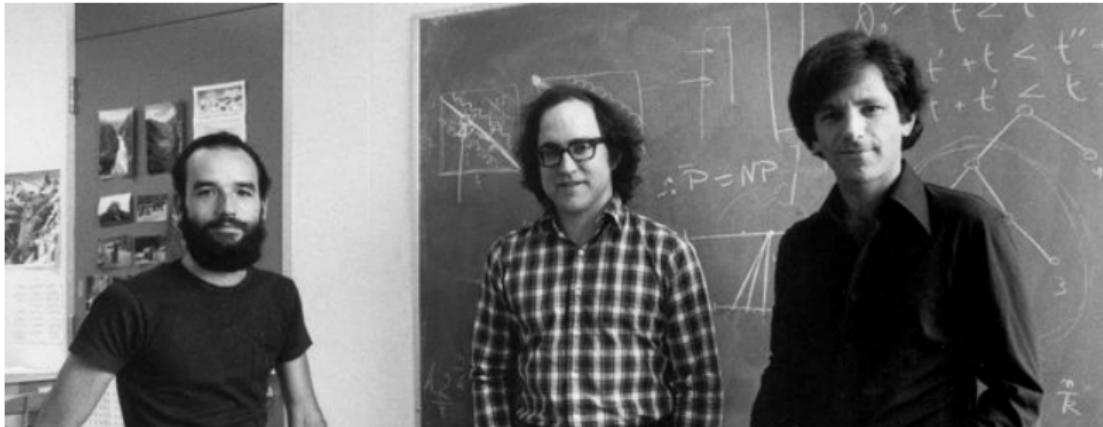
- ▶ Security relies (in part) on inability to factor product n of two large primes p, q .

RSA (Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, Len Adleman, 1977)



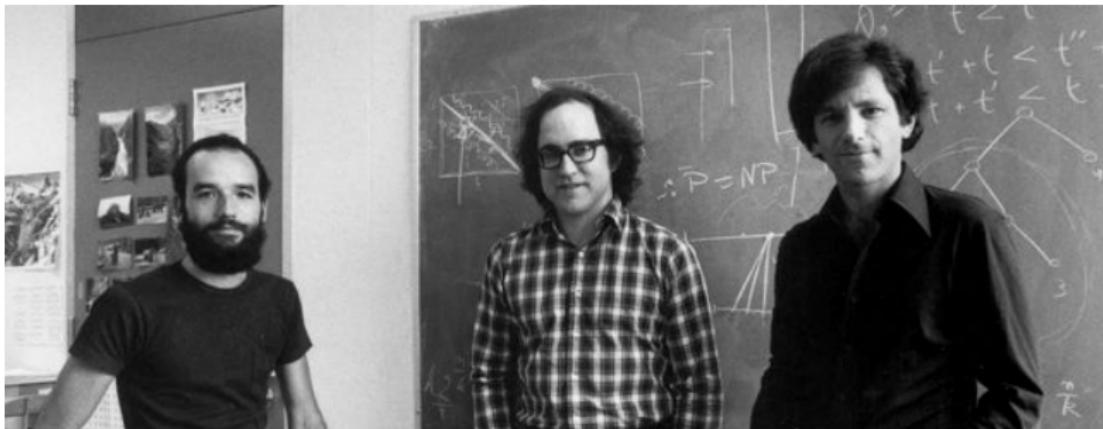
- ▶ Security relies (in part) on inability to factor product n of two large primes p, q .
- ▶ $PK = (n, e)$ where $n = pq$ and $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$

RSA (Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, Len Adleman, 1977)



- ▶ Security relies (in part) on inability to factor product n of two large primes p, q .
- ▶ $PK = (n, e)$ where $n = pq$ and $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
- ▶ $SK = d$ where $de = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$

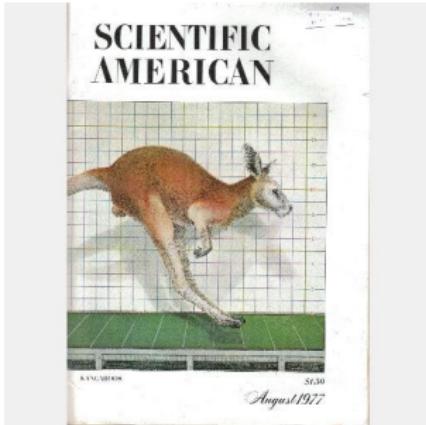
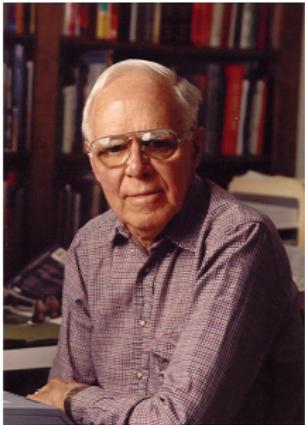
RSA (Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir, Len Adleman, 1977)



- ▶ Security relies (in part) on inability to factor product n of two large primes p, q .
- ▶ $PK = (n, e)$ where $n = pq$ and $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
- ▶ $SK = d$ where $de = 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$
- ▶ Encryption/decryption (or signing/verify) are simple:

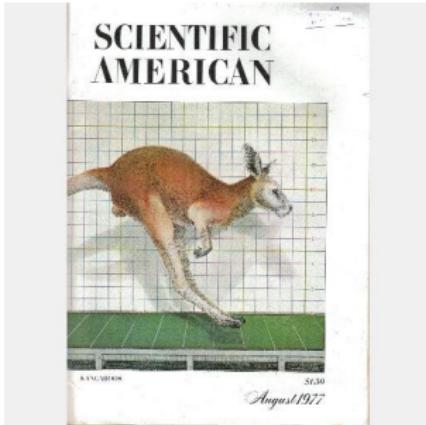
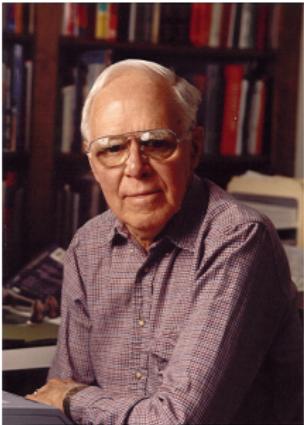
$$\begin{aligned} C &= PK(M) = M^e \pmod{n} \\ M &= SK(C) = C^d \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

Martin Gardner column and RSA-129 challenge



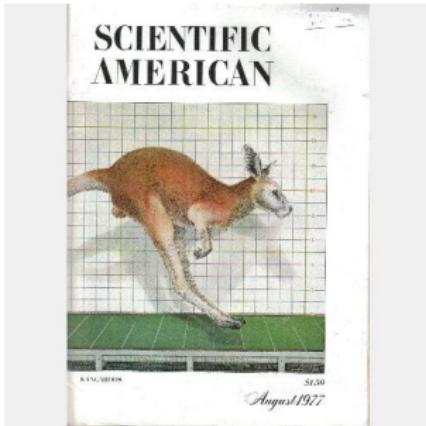
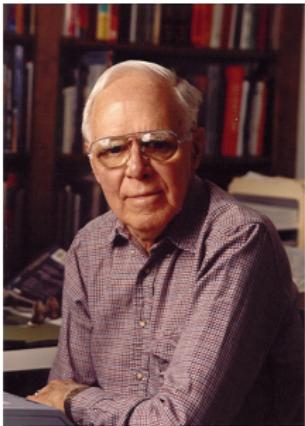
- ▶ Described public-key and RSA cryptosystem in his Scientific American column, *Mathematical Games*

Martin Gardner column and RSA-129 challenge



- ▶ Described public-key and RSA cryptosystem in his Scientific American column, *Mathematical Games*
- ▶ Offered copy of RSA technical memo.

Martin Gardner column and RSA-129 challenge



- ▶ Described public-key and RSA cryptosystem in his Scientific American column, *Mathematical Games*
- ▶ Offered copy of RSA technical memo.
- ▶ Offered \$100 to first person to break challenge ciphertext based on 129-digit product of primes.
(Our) estimated time to solution: 40 quadrillion years

Publication of RSA memo and paper

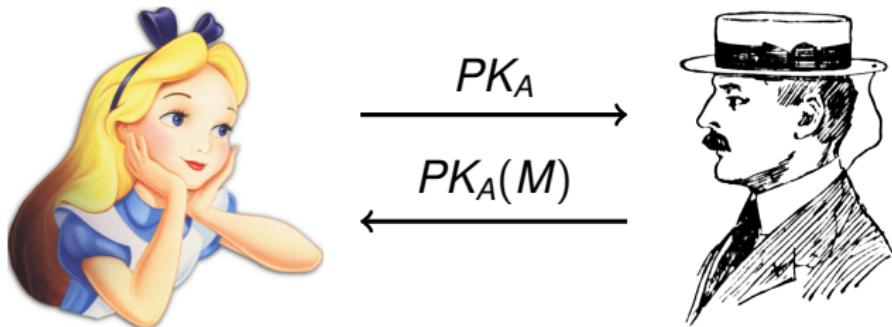


LCS-82 Technical Memo (April 1977)
CACM article (Feb 1978)

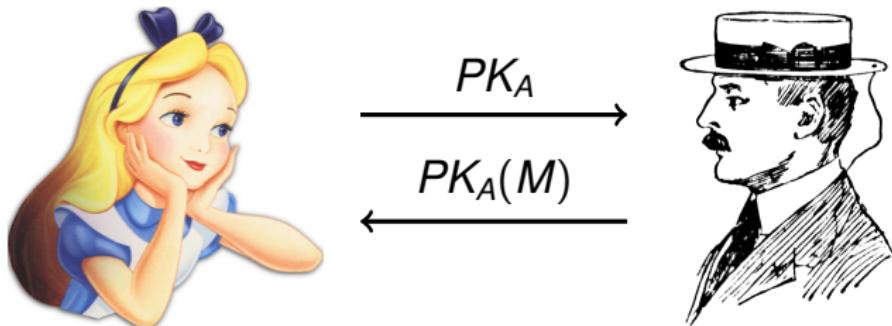
Alice and Bob (1977, in RSA paper)



Alice and Bob (1977, in RSA paper)



Alice and Bob (1977, in RSA paper)



Alice and Bob now have a life of their own—they appear in hundreds of crypto papers, in `xkcd`, and even have their own Wikipedia page:

WIKIPEDIA
The Free Encyclopedia

Main page
Contents
Featured content
Current events
Random article
Donate to Wikipedia

Article Discussion

Alice and Bob

From Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia

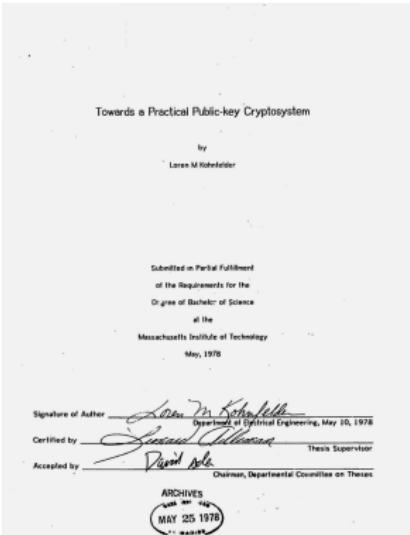
The names **Alice** and **Bob** are commonly used [placeholder](#) names are used for convenience; for example, "Alice sends a message to Party B encrypted by Party B's public key". Within these fields—helping technical topics to be explained. In [cryptography](#) and [computer security](#), there are a number of various [protocols](#). The names are conventional, somewhat arbitrary, and do not refer to any real persons.

Independent Invention of Public-Key Revealed



In 1999 GCHQ announced that James Ellis, Clifford Cocks, and Malcolm Williamson had invented public-key cryptography, the “RSA” algorithm, and “Diffie-Hellman key exchange” in the 1970’s, before their invention outside.

Loren Kohnfelder – Invention of Digital Certificates



- ▶ Loren Kohnfelder's B.S. thesis (MIT 1978, supervised by Len Adleman), proposed notion of *digital certificate*—a digitally signed message attesting to another party's public key.

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

Theoretical Foundations of Security



- ▶ “Probabilistic Encryption” Shafi Goldwasser, Silvio Micali (1982) (Encryption should be *randomized!*)

Theoretical Foundations of Security



- ▶ “Probabilistic Encryption” Shafi Goldwasser, Silvio Micali (1982) (Encryption should be *randomized*!)
- ▶ “A Digital Signature Scheme Secure Against Adaptive Chosen Message Attacks” Goldwasser, Micali, Rivest (1988) (Uses well-defined *game* to define security objective.)

The Impact of “The Turing Test” on Cryptography

- ▶ Turing (1950) asked, “Can Machines Think?”

The Impact of “The Turing Test” on Cryptography

- ▶ Turing (1950) asked, “Can Machines Think?”
- ▶ Proposed “indistinguishability test” as the answer:
If you can’t tell a machine from a human by
conversing with it, then the machine can think.

The Impact of “The Turing Test” on Cryptography

- ▶ Turing (1950) asked, “Can Machines Think?”
- ▶ Proposed “indistinguishability test” as the answer:
If you can’t tell a machine from a human by
conversing with it, then the machine can think.
- ▶ This model has become the paradigm for many
definitions of security in cryptography, usually under
the name “computational indistinguishability”.

The Impact of “The Turing Test” on Cryptography

- ▶ Turing (1950) asked, “Can Machines Think?”
- ▶ Proposed “indistinguishability test” as the answer:
If you can’t tell a machine from a human by
conversing with it, then the machine can think.
- ▶ This model has become the paradigm for many
definitions of security in cryptography, usually under
the name “computational indistinguishability”.
- ▶ Goldwasser/Micali (1984): ciphertext
indistinguishability.

The Impact of “The Turing Test” on Cryptography

- ▶ Turing (1950) asked, “Can Machines Think?”
- ▶ Proposed “indistinguishability test” as the answer:
If you can’t tell a machine from a human by
conversing with it, then the machine can think.
- ▶ This model has become the paradigm for many
definitions of security in cryptography, usually under
the name “computational indistinguishability”.
- ▶ Goldwasser/Micali (1984): ciphertext
indistinguishability.
- ▶ Blum/Micali (1982), Yao (1982): pseudorandom
generators.

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

World Wide Web (Sir Tim Berners-Lee, 1990)



- ▶ Just as radio did, this new communication medium, the World-Wide Web, drove demand for cryptography to new heights.
- ▶ Cemented transition of cryptography from primarily military to primarily commercial.

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

U.S. cryptography policy evolves

- ▶ U.S. government initially tried to control and limit public-sector research and use of cryptography
- ▶ Attempt to chill research via ITAR (1977)
- ▶ MIT “Changing Nature of Information” Committee (1981; Dertouzos, Low, Rosenblith, Deutch, Rivest,...)

MIT Committee Seeks Cryptography Policy

Questions of who should do research on cryptography and how results should be disseminated are the first order of business

Within the next 10 years, networks consisting of tens of thousands of computers will connect businesses, corporations,

and individuals. The consequences for individuals and for society if computers continue to be connected, as they are now, according to local deci-

easy to send computer programs between connected machines and to instruct a program to search for, select,

Science, 13 Mar 1981

U.S. cryptography policy evolves

- ▶ U.S. government tried to mandate availability of all encryption keys via “key escrow” and/or “Clipper Chip” (1993)

U.S. cryptography policy evolves

- ▶ U.S. government tried to mandate availability of all encryption keys via “key escrow” and/or “Clipper Chip” (1993)



U.S. cryptography policy evolves

- ▶ U.S. government tried to mandate availability of all encryption keys via “key escrow” and/or “Clipper Chip” (1993)



- ▶ Today, US policy leans toward strong cybersecurity, including strong cryptography, for all information systems as a matter of national security.

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

Factorization of RSA-129 (April 1994)

► RSA-129 =

11438162575788886766923577997614661201021829
67212423625625618429357069352457338978305971
23563958705058989075147599290026879543541

Factorization of RSA-129 (April 1994)

- ▶ RSA-129 =

11438162575788886766923577997614661201021829
67212423625625618429357069352457338978305971
23563958705058989075147599290026879543541

- ▶ Derek Atkins, Michael Graff, Arjen Lenstra,
Paul Leyland: RSA-129 =

34905295108476509491478496199038981334177646
38493387843990820577 x
32769132993266709549961988190834461413177642
967992942539798288533

Factorization of RSA-129 (April 1994)

- ▶ RSA-129 =

11438162575788886766923577997614661201021829
67212423625625618429357069352457338978305971
23563958705058989075147599290026879543541

- ▶ Derek Atkins, Michael Graff, Arjen Lenstra,
Paul Leyland: RSA-129 =

34905295108476509491478496199038981334177646
38493387843990820577 x
32769132993266709549961988190834461413177642
967992942539798288533

- ▶ 8 months work by about 600 volunteers from more
than 20 countries; 5000 MIPS-years.

Factorization of RSA-129 (April 1994)

- ▶ RSA-129 =

11438162575788886766923577997614661201021829
67212423625625618429357069352457338978305971
23563958705058989075147599290026879543541

- ▶ Derek Atkins, Michael Graff, Arjen Lenstra,
Paul Leyland: RSA-129 =

34905295108476509491478496199038981334177646
38493387843990820577 x
32769132993266709549961988190834461413177642
967992942539798288533

- ▶ 8 months work by about 600 volunteers from more than 20 countries; 5000 MIPS-years.
- ▶ secret message:

The Magic Words Are Squeamish Ossifrage



BayBank For Solving the Scientific American RSA Challenge

53-235
113

0254643

Official Bank Check

Date April 22, 1994

PAY The sum of 100~~00~~00 Octs

\$ ****100,00****

AMOUNTS IN EXCESS OF \$100,000.00
REQUIRE TWO SIGNATURES

To the **Derek Atkins or Michael Graff or Arjen Lenstra or Paul Leyland**
order of

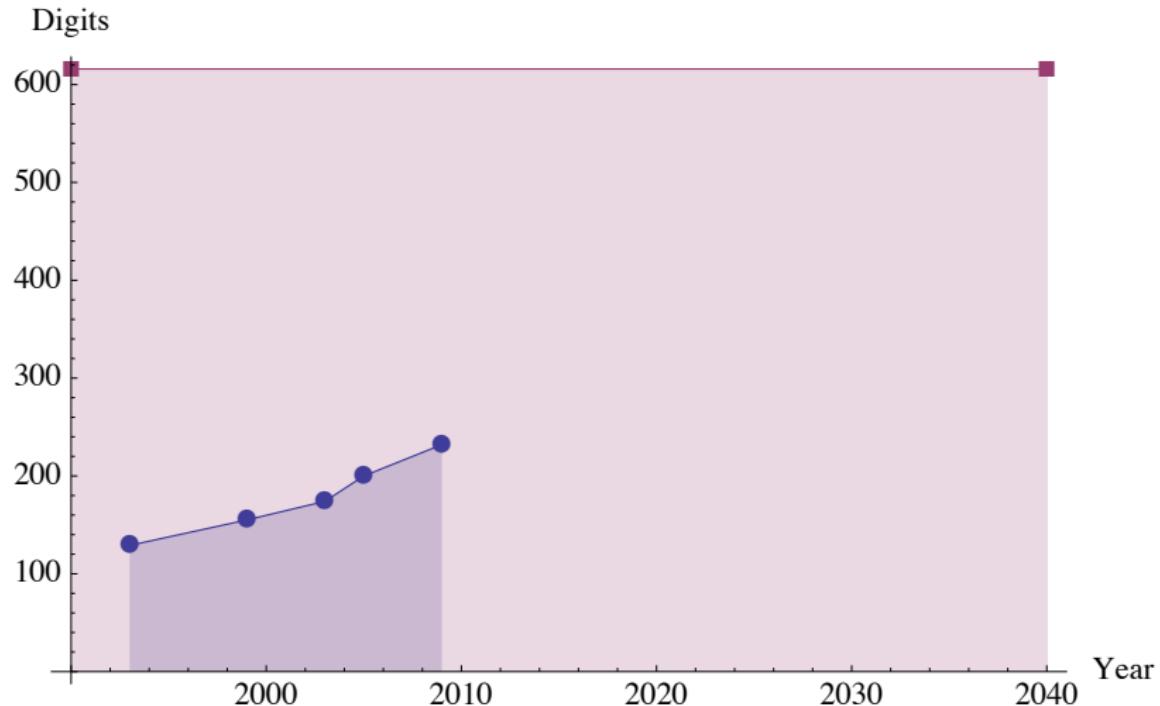
Authorized Signature

Signature

Authorized Signature

0254643 0113023574 317 83321#

Factoring Records



Factoring on a Quantum Computer?



$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$
$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$
$$\alpha|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \beta|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The diagram illustrates the concept of quantum superposition. On the left, a large circle represents the quantum state $|\psi\rangle$. An arrow points from this circle to the equation $|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$. Below this equation is the normalization condition $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$. To the right of the plus sign, there are two smaller circles. The top circle represents the state $\alpha|0\rangle$, with a vertical arrow pointing upwards through its center. The bottom circle represents the state $\beta|1\rangle$, with a vertical arrow pointing downwards through its center.

In 1994, Peter Shor invented a fast factorization algorithm that runs on a (hypothetical) *quantum computer* and works by determining multiplicative period of elements mod n .

Factoring on a Quantum Computer?



$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$
$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$
$$\alpha|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \beta|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The diagram illustrates the concept of quantum superposition. On the left, a large blue circle represents the quantum state $|\psi\rangle$. To its right is an equals sign. To the right of the equals sign are two smaller blue circles. The first circle, representing the state $|\alpha|0\rangle$, has a vertical arrow pointing upwards. The second circle, representing the state $\beta|1\rangle$, also has a vertical arrow pointing downwards. This visualizes how a single quantum state can be represented as a linear combination of two basis states, $|0\rangle$ and $|1\rangle$.

In 1994, Peter Shor invented a fast factorization algorithm that runs on a (hypothetical) *quantum computer* and works by determining multiplicative period of elements mod n .

- ▶ In 2001, researchers at IBM used this algorithm on a (real) quantum computer to factor $15 = 3 \times 5$.

Factoring on a Quantum Computer?



$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha|0\rangle + \beta|1\rangle$$
$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$
$$\alpha|0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \beta|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In 1994, Peter Shor invented a fast factorization algorithm that runs on a (hypothetical) *quantum computer* and works by determining multiplicative period of elements mod n .

- ▶ In 2001, researchers at IBM used this algorithm on a (real) quantum computer to factor $15 = 3 \times 5$.
- ▶ Dark clouds on horizon for RSA?

Outline

Early context

Turing and crypto

70's – PK Crypto

Crypto theory

Crypto business

Crypto policy

Attacks

More New Directions

Conclusions

Many new research problems and directions

- ▶ secret-sharing
- ▶ anonymity
- ▶ commitments
- ▶ multi-party protocols
- ▶ elliptic curves
- ▶ crypto hardware
- ▶ key leakage
- ▶ proxy encryption
- ▶ crypto for smart cards
- ▶ password-based keys
- ▶ random oracles
- ▶ oblivious transfer
- ▶ ...
- ▶ zero-knowledge proofs
- ▶ payment systems
- ▶ voting systems
- ▶ homomorphic encryption
- ▶ lattice-based crypto
- ▶ private information retrieval
- ▶ public-key infrastructure
- ▶ concurrent protocols
- ▶ randomness extractors
- ▶ tweakable encryption
- ▶ differential cryptanalysis
- ▶ identity-based encryption
- ▶ ...

Many new research problems and directions

- ▶ secret-sharing
- ▶ anonymity
- ▶ commitments
- ▶ multi-party protocols
- ▶ elliptic curves
- ▶ crypto hardware
- ▶ key leakage
- ▶ proxy encryption
- ▶ crypto for smart cards
- ▶ password-based keys
- ▶ random oracles
- ▶ oblivious transfer
- ▶ ...
- ▶ zero-knowledge proofs
- ▶ payment systems
- ▶ voting systems
- ▶ **homomorphic encryption**
- ▶ lattice-based crypto
- ▶ private information retrieval
- ▶ public-key infrastructure
- ▶ concurrent protocols
- ▶ randomness extractors
- ▶ tweakable encryption
- ▶ differential cryptanalysis
- ▶ identity-based encryption
- ▶ ...

Fully Homomorphic Encryption



- ▶ In 1978, Rivest, Adleman, and Dertouzos asked,
*“Can one compute on encrypted data,
while keeping it encrypted?”*

Fully Homomorphic Encryption



?



!

- ▶ In 1978, Rivest, Adleman, and Dertouzos asked,
*“Can one compute on encrypted data,
while keeping it encrypted?”*
- ▶ In 2009, Craig Gentry (Stanford, IBM) gave solution
based on use of lattices. If efficiency can be greatly
improved, could be huge implications (e.g. for cloud
computing).

Conclusions

- ▶ Cryptography is not the solution to all of our cybersecurity problems, but it is an essential component of any solution.

Conclusions

- ▶ Cryptography is not the solution to all of our cybersecurity problems, but it is an essential component of any solution.
- ▶ Research in cryptography is a fascinating blend of mathematics, statistics, theoretical computer science, electrical engineering, and psychology.

Conclusions

- ▶ Cryptography is not the solution to all of our cybersecurity problems, but it is an essential component of any solution.
- ▶ Research in cryptography is a fascinating blend of mathematics, statistics, theoretical computer science, electrical engineering, and psychology.
- ▶ While we have accomplished a lot in a few decades, much remains to be done.

Conclusions

- ▶ Cryptography is not the solution to all of our cybersecurity problems, but it is an essential component of any solution.
- ▶ Research in cryptography is a fascinating blend of mathematics, statistics, theoretical computer science, electrical engineering, and psychology.
- ▶ While we have accomplished a lot in a few decades, much remains to be done.
- ▶ Like Alice and Bob, cryptography is here to stay.

Conclusions

- ▶ Cryptography is not the solution to all of our cybersecurity problems, but it is an essential component of any solution.
- ▶ Research in cryptography is a fascinating blend of mathematics, statistics, theoretical computer science, electrical engineering, and psychology.
- ▶ While we have accomplished a lot in a few decades, much remains to be done.
- ▶ Like Alice and Bob, cryptography is here to stay.
- ▶ Turing's influence extends beyond the breaking of Enigma, to the proper formulation of adequate definitions of security.

Happy Birthday, Alan Turing!