

# Basics of Provable Security (II) & Computational Intractability

601.642/442: Modern Cryptography

Fall 2020

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- In other words, for a given  $m$ ,  $\Pr[c = \text{Enc}(k, m)] = 1/2^n$ .
- Hence, the ciphertexts are uniformly distributed.

# The Hybrid Technique

## Example (Double OTP)

Prove uniform ciphertext security of the following scheme:

- $\text{KeyGen}(1^n) : k_1 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n, k_2 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n$  and output  $(k_1, k_2)$
- $\text{Enc}((k_1, k_2), m) : c_1 = k_1 \oplus m, c_2 = k_2 \oplus c_1$  and output  $c_2$ .
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We need to show that for each  $m$ , the following distributions are identical:

- 1  $\{c_2 = k_2 \oplus c_1; k_1 \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n), k_2 \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n), c_1 = k_1 \oplus m\}$
- 2  $\{c_2 \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}^n\}$



# Proving Security using the Hybrid Technique

We consider the following set of distributions called **hybrids**.

$$\mathcal{H}_1: \{c_2 = k_2 \oplus c_1; k_1 \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n), k_2 \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n), c_1 = k_1 \oplus m\}$$

$$\mathcal{H}_2: \left\{c_2 \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^n; k_1 \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n), c_1 = k_1 \oplus m\right\}$$

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Our goal is to show that  $\mathcal{H}_1$  and  $\mathcal{H}_3$  are identical distributions. We will do this in two steps by using the “intermediate” hybrid  $\mathcal{H}_2$ .

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$\mathcal{H}_1$  is identical to  $\mathcal{H}_2$  because of the uniform ciphertext security of OTP.

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**The Hybrid Technique is very common in cryptographic proofs and we will see it again and again throughout the course.**

# Encryption: One-Time Perfect Security

Lets consider an alternate idea of security for encryption schemes.

- The secret key should be kept hidden from Eve.
- The key is only used to encrypt one plaintext.
- ~~The ciphertexts look like random values to Eve.~~
- Encryptions of  $m_0$  look like encryptions of  $m_1$  to Eve.

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An encryption scheme is a good one if encryptions of  $m_0$  look like encryptions of  $m_1$  to Eve, when each key is secret and used to encrypt only one plaintext, even when Eve chooses both  $m_0$  and  $m_1$ .

# Encryption: One-Time Perfect Security

## One-Time Perfect Security

We say that an encryption scheme is one-time perfectly secure if  $\forall m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}$  chosen by Eve, the following distributions are identical:

- ①  $\mathcal{D}_1 := \{c := \text{Enc}(k, m_0); k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n)\}$
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As earlier, from adversary's viewpoint, the ciphertext carries no information about the plaintext.

# Insecure Encryption

## Insecure Encryption Scheme

An encryption scheme does not satisfy one-time perfect security, if  $\exists m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ , such that the following distributions are not identical:

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Is the following encryption scheme secure?

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For  $m_0 = 0^n$ ,  $m_1 = 1^n$

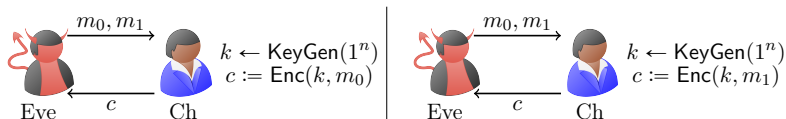
$$\Pr[c = 0^n | \mathcal{D}_1] = 1$$

$$\Pr[c = 0^n | \mathcal{D}_2] = 1/2^n$$

Clearly the two distributions are not identical in this case.

# Encryption: One-Time Perfect Security

Consider the following two interactions between Eve and a challenger.



- Interaction with a challenger helps us model what Eve can see during encryption, and what remains hidden.
- We say that an encryption scheme is secure if for any  $(m_0, m_1)$  chosen by Eve, the above two scenarios seem identical to Eve.

# Comparing Both Security Notions

## Theorem

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We are given that for each  $m \in \mathcal{M}$  (where  $\mathcal{M}$  is the message space), the following distributions are identical:

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We want to show that for each  $m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}$ , the following distributions are also identical:

- ①  $\mathcal{D}'_1 := \{c := \text{Enc}(k, m_0); k \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(1^n)\}$
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*Proof (Using hybrid technique):* Consider the following distributions:

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## Corollary

One-time pad satisfies one-time perfect security.

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Does it also satisfy one-time uniform ciphertext security? Why not?

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  - Key must be as long as plaintext (necessary for perfect security).  
*Think Why?*
  - A key cannot be used to encrypt more than one plaintext (see HW1).



## Computational Intractability

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Why?

It is like a knob that allows the user to tune the security to any desired level. Increasing  $n$  makes the difficulty of a brute force attack grow exponentially fast.



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$2^{128}$  already seems like a lot.

Must we use (say) a 500-bit key to encrypt 500-bit messages, as in one-time pad? Or can we somehow use a smaller (say 128-bit) key to encrypt long messages and still get meaningful security?

# Computational Infeasibility

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- “Modern” cryptography is based on this principle, where security is based on intractable computations.



# Computational Infeasibility

In 1955, Nobel laureate John Nash during his correspondence with the NSA said something to the effect of the following:

*“It doesn’t really matter whether attacks are **impossible**, only whether attacks are **computationally infeasible**.”*

- “Modern” cryptography is based on this principle, where security is based on intractable computations.
- If his letters hadn’t been kept classified until 2012, they might have accelerated the development of modern cryptography.

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- In order to make security definitions that say *only feasible attacks are ruled out*, we need a concrete way to draw the line between **feasible attacks** (which we want to protect against) and **infeasible attacks** (which we agreed we don't need to care about).

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- Nevertheless, the reason why polynomial time is very useful is because of **closure property**: *repeating a poly-time algorithm polynomial times is still polynomial time!*

# Some Examples

Efficient Algorithms known	Efficient Algorithms not known
Computing GCDs	Factoring Integers
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- In this class, we will mostly focus on algorithms on classical computers. Indeed, even in the second category, most problems, except last one are known to have efficient quantum algorithms.

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  - Attacks that are as expensive as a brute-force attack.
  - Attacks whose success probability is as low as a blind-guess attack.
- While an attack with success probability  $2^{-128}$  should not really count as an attack, one with success probability  $1/2$  should. Where should we draw the line?