

**Lecture 4.1 - Introduction to modern cryptography**

1. Precise assumptions
  - describe all relevant problem components
  - adversary/attacker
    - Type of attacks: threat models
    - capabilities
    - limitations
  - computational assumptions
  - computing settings
2. Why precise assumptions are important?
  - basis for proofs of security
  - comparison among possible solutions
  - flexibility (in design & analysis)
3. Provable security
  - Security
    - Subject to certain assumptions, a scheme is proved to be secure according to a specific definition, against a specific adversary
  - Insecurity
    - A scheme is proved to be insecure with respect to a specific definition
      - \* Finding a counterattack example
4. Why is provable security important?
  - In CS: formal proofs may not be necessary
    - Typical/Average case happens often
  - In cryptography: formal proofs are essential
    - Worst case will typically happen

**Lecture 4.2 - Computational Security**

1. OTP is perfect but impractical
  - 2 drawbacks: very large key and key can only be used once
    - Only once because if you take the two messages, then you can get the key
    - unavoidable so OTP is not practical
      - \* Because they can communicate the key secretly, why not put the message across that channel too?
2. Relax “perfectness”
  - Perfect secrecy requires that
    - leaks absolutely no extra info
    - unlimited computational power
  - Refined model
    - relaxed notion of security called computational security requires that
      - \* only leaks tiny amount of extra info
      - \* bounded with computational power
    - very small probability that we will be broken
3. Definition - Asymptotic
  - A scheme is secure if any efficient attacker  $A$  succeeds in breaking the scheme with at most negligible probability
4. Example
  - Almost optimal security guarantees
    - if key length  $n$ , the number of possible keys is  $2^n$
    - attacker running for time  $t$  succeeds with probability at most  $\sim \frac{t}{2^n}$  (brute-force attack)
  - If  $n = 60$ , security is enough for attackers running a desktop computer
    - 4 GHz ( $4 * 10^9$  cycles/sec), checking all  $2^{60}$  keys require about 9 years

- if  $n = 80$ , a supercomputer would still need  $\sim 2$  years
- today's recommended security parameter is at least  $n = 128$ 
  - large difference between  $2^{80}$  and  $2^{128}$
  - if within 1 year of computation attack is successful w/ prob  $\frac{1}{2^{60}}$  then it is more likely that Alice and Bob are hit by lightning
- 5. Security Relaxation
  - no extra info is leaked out but a tiny amount
  - to computationally bounded attackers
  - attackers best strategy is still ineffective (random guess)

### Lecture 4.3

1. Alice and Bob and Eve
  - if eve doesn't know whether it's probabilistic or deterministic, she can just send two of the same messages and see if she gets the same ciphertexts back
  - if she does, then she can say with confidence that the encryption being used is deterministic

### Lecture 4.4 - Symmetric encryption, revisited: OTP with pseudorandomness

1. Perfect Secrecy & Randomness
  - Replace randomness with pseudorandomness
  - Ciphertext cannot be efficiently distinguished from pseudorandom
2. Stream Cipher vs Block Cipher
  - Stream:
    - Uses short key for long symbol streams into pseudorandom ciphertext
    - based on PRG
  - Block:
    - Uses short key for block of symbols into pseudorandom ciphertext blocks
    - based on PRF
3. Pseudorandom generators (PRGs)
  - Deterministic algorithm  $G$  that on input a seed  $s \in \{0,1\}^t$ , outputs  $G(s) \in \{0,1\}^{l(t)}$
  - $G$  is a PRG if:
    - expansion
      - \* for polynomial  $l$ , it holds that for any  $n$ ,  $l(n) > n$
      - \* models the process of extracting randomness from a short random string
    - pseudorandomness
      - \* no efficient statistical test can tell apart  $G(s)$  from a truly random string