### **Announcements**

- Complete Homework 0 if you haven't
- Teaching feedback welcome

### Last Time: Introduction and Security Principles

- Course Logistics
- Security Principles

## Today's Cunning Plan: Cryptography

#### ITIS 6200 / 8200

## Introduction to Cryptography

- What is cryptography?
- Definitions of key properties
- IND-CPA security
- A brief history of cryptography
- Symmetric-key crypto
  - One-time pads

# What is cryptography?

### What is Cryptography?

- Older definition: The study of secure communication over insecure channels
- Newer definition: Provide rigorous guarantees on the security of data and computation in the presence of an attacker
  - Not just confidentiality but also integrity and authenticity (we'll see these definitions today)
- Modern cryptography is heavily based on math
  - The math is hard
  - We won't cover the details. Wikipedia is a great resource
  - Some system / algorithms are provably secure

# Definitions of Key Properties

### Meet Alice, Bob, Eve, and Mallory

- Alice and Bob: The main characters trying to send messages to each other over an insecure communication channel
- Eve: An eavesdropper who can read any data sent over the channel
- Mallory: A manipulator who can read and modify any data sent over the channel

### Meet Alice, Bob, Eve, and Mallory

#### ITIS 6200 / 8200

 We often describe cryptographic problems using a common cast of characters

### One scenario:

- Alice wants to send a message to Bob.
- However, Eve is going to eavesdrop on the communication channel.
- How does Alice send the message to Bob without Eve learning about the message?

### Another scenario:

- Bob wants to send a message to Alice.
- However, Mallory is going to tamper with the communication channel.
- How does Bob send the message to Alice without Mallory changing the message?

### Three Goals of Cryptography

- In cryptography, there are three main properties that we want on our information
- Confidentiality: An adversary cannot read our messages.
- Integrity: An adversary cannot change our messages without being detected.
- Authenticity: I can prove that this message came from the person who claims to have written it.
  - Integrity and authenticity are closely related properties...
    - Before I can prove that a message came from a certain person, I have to prove that the message wasn't changed!

### Keys

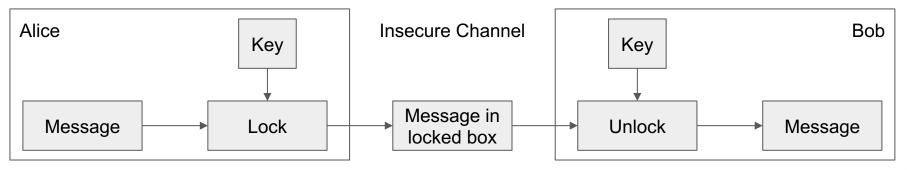
- The most basic building block of any cryptographic scheme:
   The key
- We use the key in our algorithms to secure messages
- Two models of keys:
  - Symmetric key model: Alice and Bob both know the value of the same secret key.
    - Example: One-time pad, AES encryption
  - Asymmetric key model: Everybody has two keys, a secret key and a public key.
    - Example: RSA encryption

### Security Principle: Kerckhoff's Principle

- This principle is closely related to Shannon's Maxim
  - Don't use security through obscurity. Assume the attacker knows the system.
- Kerckhoff's principle says:
  - Cryptosystems should remain secure even when the attacker knows all internal details of the system
  - The key should be the only thing that must be kept secret
  - The system should be designed to make it easy to change keys that are leaked (or suspected to be leaked)
    - If your secrets are leaked, it is usually a lot easier to change the key than to replace every instance of the running software
- Our assumption: The attacker knows all the algorithms we use. The only information the attacker is missing is the secret key(s).

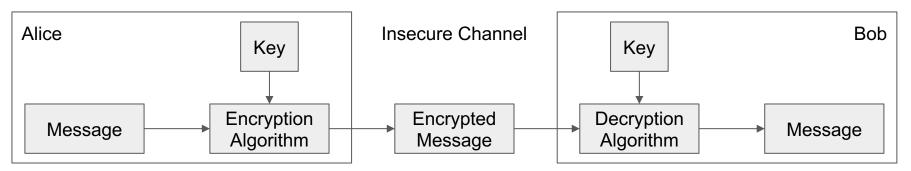
### Confidentiality

- Confidentiality: An adversary cannot read our messages.
- Analogy: Locking and unlocking the message
  - Alice uses the key to lock the message in a box
  - Alice sends the message (locked in the box) over the insecure channel
  - Eve sees the locked box, but cannot access the message without the key
  - Bob receives the message (locked in the box) and uses the key to unlock the message



### Confidentiality

- Schemes provide confidentiality by encrypting messages
  - Alice uses the key to **encrypt** the message: Change the message into a scrambled form
  - Alice sends the encrypted message over the insecure channel
  - Eve sees the encrypted message, but cannot figure out the original message without the key
  - Bob receives the encrypted message and uses the key to decrypt the message back into its original form

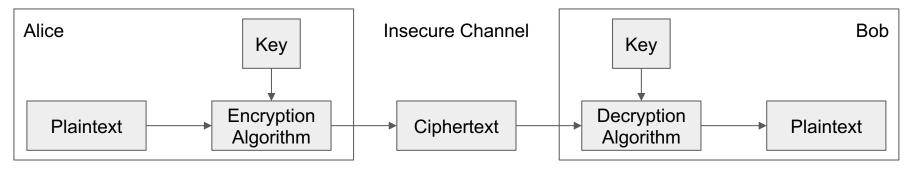


### Confidentiality

#### ITIS 6200 / 8200

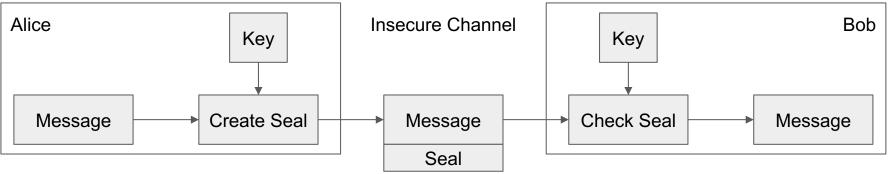
Plaintext: The original message

• Ciphertext: The encrypted message



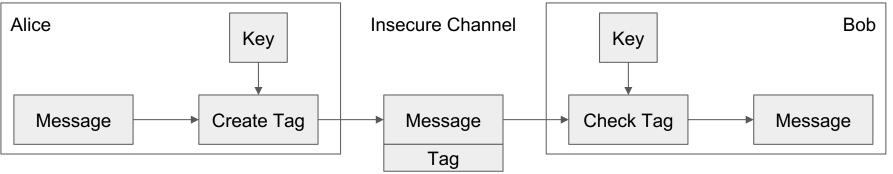
## Integrity (and Authenticity)

- Integrity: An adversary cannot change our messages without being detected.
- Analogy: Adding a seal on the message
  - Alice uses the key to add a special seal on the message (e.g. puts tape on the envelope)
  - Alice sends the message and the seal over the insecure channel
  - o If Mallory tampers with the message, she'll break the seal (e.g. break the tape on the envelope)
  - Without the key, Mallory cannot create her own seal
  - Bob receives the message and the seal and checks that the seal has not been broken



### Integrity (and Authenticity)

- Schemes provide integrity by adding a tag or signature on messages
  - Alice uses the key to generate a special tag for the message
  - Alice sends the message and the tag over the insecure channel
  - If Mallory tampers with the message, the tag will no longer be valid
  - Bob receives the message and the tag and checks that the tag is still valid



### Threat Models (Types of Cryptanalysis)

- Ciphertext only
  - Attackers only have ciphertext, need to decrypt it
- Known-plaintext
  - Attackers know some ciphertext and its corresponding plaintext, needs to decrypt some other cyphertext
- Chosen-plaintext
  - Attackers can get any ciphertext they want encrypted, and need to decrypt some specific cyphertext
  - e.g., Eve can trick Alice into encrypting arbitrary messages of Eve's choice
- In this class, we often use the chosen plaintext attack (CPA) model

### Cryptography Roadmap

	Symmetric-key	Asymmetric-key
Confidentiality	<ul> <li>One-time pads</li> <li>Block ciphers with chaining modes (e.g. AES-CBC)</li> <li>Stream ciphers</li> </ul>	<ul><li>RSA encryption</li><li>ElGamal encryption</li></ul>
Integrity, Authentication	MACs (e.g. HMAC)	<ul> <li>Digital signatures (e.g. RSA signatures)</li> </ul>

- Hash functions
- Pseudorandom number generators
- Public key exchange (e.g. Diffie-Hellman)

- Key management (certificates)
- Password management

# Symmetric-Key Encryption

### Cryptography Roadmap

	Symmetric-key	Asymmetric-key
Confidentiality	<ul> <li>One-time pads</li> <li>Block ciphers with chaining modes (e.g. AES-CBC)</li> <li>Stream ciphers</li> </ul>	<ul><li>RSA encryption</li><li>ElGamal encryption</li></ul>
Integrity, Authentication	MACs (e.g. HMAC)	Digital signatures (e.g. RSA signatures)

- Hash functions
- Pseudorandom number generators
- Public key exchange (e.g. Diffie-Hellman)

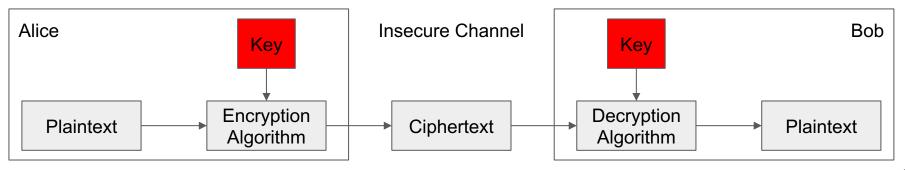
- Key management (certificates)
- Password management

### Symmetric-Key Encryption

- The next few schemes are symmetric-key encryption schemes
  - **Encryption schemes** aim to provide *confidentiality* (but not integrity or authentication)
  - Symmetric-key means Alice and Bob share the same secret key that the attacker doesn't know
    - Don't worry about how Alice and Bob share the key for now
- For modern schemes, we're going to assume that messages are bitstrings
  - Bitstring: A sequence of bits (0 or 1), e.g. 11010101001001010
  - Text, images, etc. can usually be converted into bitstrings before encryption, so bitstrings are a useful abstraction. After all, everything in a computer is just a sequence of bits!

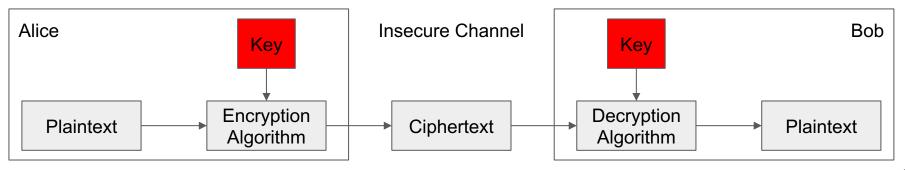
### Symmetric-Key Encryption: Definition

- A symmetric-key encryption scheme has three algorithms:
  - KeyGen() → K: Generate a key K
  - Enc(K, M)  $\rightarrow$  C: Encrypt a **plaintext** M using the key K to produce **ciphertext** C
  - $Dec(K, C) \rightarrow M$ : Decrypt a ciphertext C using the key K



### Symmetric-Key Encryption: Definition

- What properties do we want from a symmetric encryption scheme?
  - Correctness: Decrypting a ciphertext should result in the message that was originally encrypted
    - Dec(K, Enc(K, M)) = M for all  $K \leftarrow KeyGen()$  and M
  - Efficiency: Encryption/decryption algorithms should be fast: >1 Gbps on a standard computer
  - Security: Confidentiality



## **Defining Confidentiality**

- Recall our definition of confidentiality from earlier: "An adversary cannot read our messages"
  - This definition isn't very specific
    - What if Eve can read the first half of Alice's message, but not the second half?
    - What if Eve figures out that Alice's message starts with "Dear Bob"?
  - This definition doesn't account for prior knowledge
    - What if Eve already knew that Alice's message ends in "Sincerely, Alice"?
    - What if Eve knows that Alice's message is "BUY!" or "SELL" but doesn't know which?



### **Defining Confidentiality**

#### ITIS 6200 / 8200

- A better definition of confidentiality: The ciphertext should not give the attacker any additional information about the plaintext.
- Let's design an experiment/security game to test our definition:
  - Eve chooses two messages  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  of the same length
  - $\circ$  Alice chooses one message at random  $M_b$ , encrypts it, and sends the ciphertext
  - Eve knows either  $M_0$  or  $M_1$  was sent, but doesn't know which
  - Eve reads the ciphertext and tries to guess which message was sent
  - If the probability that Eve correctly guesses which message was sent is 1/2, then the encryption scheme is confidential

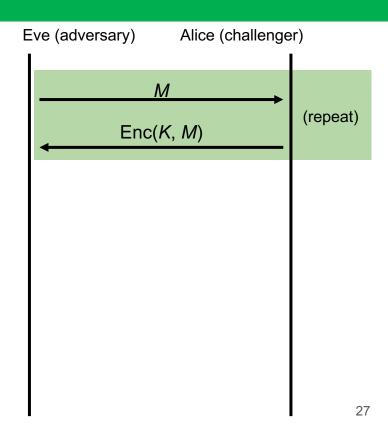
### Intuition

- If the scheme is confidential, Eve can only guess with probability 1/2, which is no different than
  if Eve hadn't sent the ciphertext at all
- In other words: the ciphertext gave Eve no additional information about which plaintext was sent!

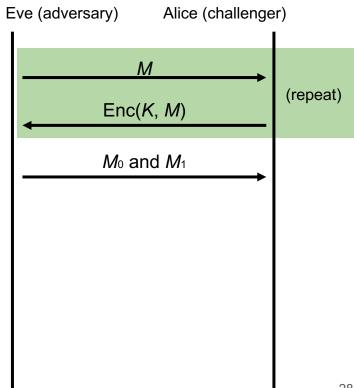
- Recall our threat model: Eve can also perform a chosen plaintext attack (CPA)
  - It means, Eve can trick Alice into encrypting arbitrary messages of Eve's choice
  - We can adapt our experiment to account for this threat model
- A better definition of confidentiality: Even if Eve is able to trick Alice into encrypting messages, Eve can still only guess what message Alice sent with probability 1/2.
  - This definition is called **IND-CPA** (indistinguishability under chosen plaintext attack)
- Cryptographic properties are often defined in terms of "games" that an adversary can either "win" or "lose"

#### ITIS 6200 / 8200

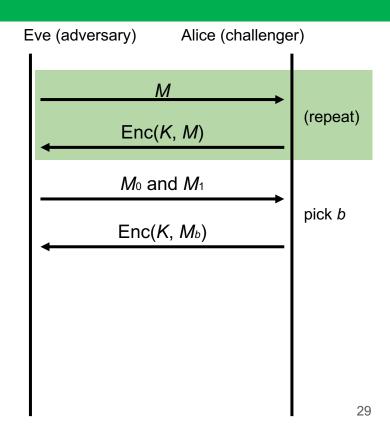
1. Eve may choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts



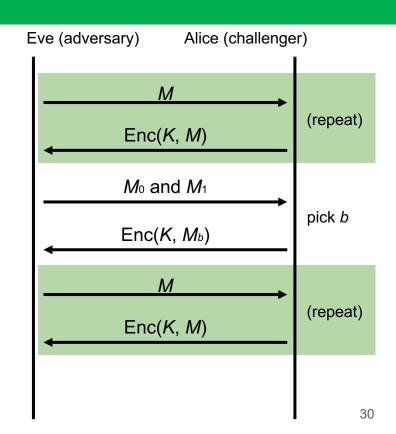
- 1. Eve may choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts
- 2. Eve issues a pair of plaintexts  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  to Alice



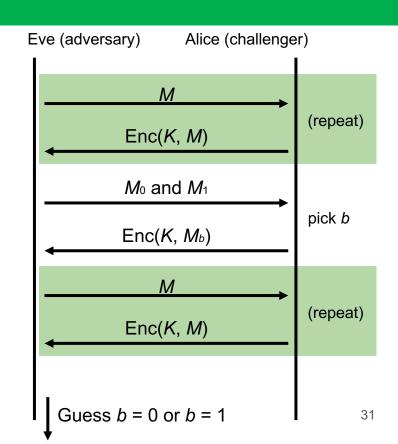
- 1. Eve may choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts
- 2. Eve issues a pair of plaintexts  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  to Alice
- 3. Alice randomly chooses either  $M_0$  or  $M_1$  to encrypt and sends the encryption back
  - a. Alice does not tell Eve which one was encrypted!



- 1. Eve may choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts
- 2. Eve issues a pair of plaintexts  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  to Alice
- 3. Alice randomly chooses either  $M_0$  or  $M_1$  to encrypt and sends the encryption back
  - a. Alice does not tell Eve which one was encrypted!
- 4. Eve may again choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts



- 1. Eve may choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts
- 2. Eve issues a pair of plaintexts  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  to Alice
- 3. Alice randomly chooses either  $M_0$  or  $M_1$  to encrypt and sends the encryption back
  - a. Alice does not tell Eve which one was encrypted!
- 4. Eve may again choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts
- 5. Eventually, Eve outputs a guess as to whether Alice encrypted *M*<sub>0</sub> or *M*<sub>1</sub>



- If Eve correctly guesses which message Alice encrypted, then Eve wins.
   Otherwise, she loses.
- How does Eve guess whether M₀ or M₁ was encrypted? What strategy does she use?
  - We don't assume she uses a particular strategy; Eve represents all possible strategies
- Proving insecurity: There exists at least one strategy that can win the IND-CPA game with probability > 1/2
  - 1/2 is the probability of winning by random guessing
  - If you can be better than random, then the ciphertext has leaked information, and Eve is able to learn it and use it to gain an advantage!
- Proving security: For all attackers/Eve-s, the probability of winning the IND-CPA game is at most 1/2

### **Edge Cases: Length**

- Cryptographic schemes are (usually) allowed to leak the length of the message
  - o To hide length: All messages must always be the same length
    - 16-byte messages: We can't encrypt large messages (images, videos, etc.)!
    - 1-GB messages: Sending small messages (text, Tweets, etc.) needs 1 GB of bandwidth!
    - This is unpractical
- In the IND-CPA game: M₀ and M₁ must be the same length
  - To break IND-CPA, Eve must learn something other than message length



### Edge Cases: Attacker Runtime

#### ITIS 6200 / 8200

- Some schemes are theoretically vulnerable, but secure in any realworld setting
  - o If an attack takes longer than the life of the solar system to complete, it probably won't happen!
  - o Or if it would require a computer made out of a literal galaxy worth of science-fiction nanotech
- In the IND-CPA game: Eve is limited to a practical runtime

One common practical limit: Eve is limited to polynomial runtime algorithms (no exponential-time algorithms)

### Edge Cases: Negligible Advantage

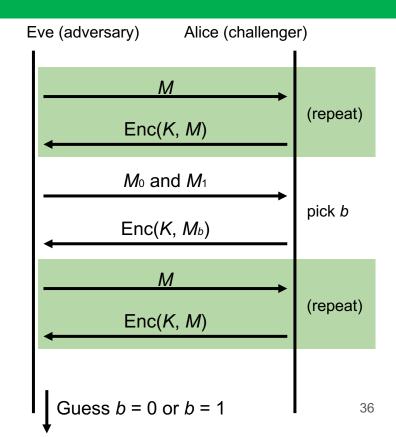
- Sometimes it's possible for Eve to win with probability 1/2 + 1/2<sup>128</sup>
  - This probability is greater than 1/2, but it's so close to 1/2 that it's as good as 1/2.
  - Eve's advantage is so small that she can't use it for any practical attacks
- In the IND-CPA game: The scheme is secure even if Eve can win with probability ≤ 1/2 + €, where ℰ is negligible
  - The actual mathematical definition of negligible is out of scope
  - Example: 1/2 + 1/2<sup>128</sup>: Negligible advantage
  - Example: 2/3: Non-negligible advantage



### IND-CPA: Putting it together

- 1. Eve may choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts
- 2. Eve issues a pair of plaintexts  $M_0$  and  $M_1$  to Alice
- 3. Alice randomly chooses either  $M_0$  or  $M_1$  to encrypt and sends the encryption back
  - Alice does not tell Eve which one was encrypted!
- 4. Eve may again choose plaintexts to send to Alice and receives their ciphertexts
- 5. Eventually, Eve outputs a guess as to whethe encrypted *M*<sub>0</sub> or *M*<sub>1</sub>

- An encryption scheme is IND-CPA secure if for all polynomial time attackers Eve:
  - Eve can win with probability  $\leq 1/2 + \mathcal{E}$ , where  $\mathcal{E}$  is *negligible*.



# A Brief History of Cryptography

# Cryptography by Hand: Caesar Cipher

- One of the earliest cryptographic schemes was the Caesar cipher
  - Used by Julius Caesar over 2,000 years ago
- KeyGen():
  - Choose a key K randomly between 0 and 25
- Enc(K, M):
  - Replace each letter in M with the letter K positions later in the alphabet
  - If *K* = 3, plaintext DOG becomes GRJ
- Dec(K, C):
  - Replace each letter in C with the letter K positions earlier in the alphabet
  - $\circ$  If K = 3, ciphertext GRJ becomes DOG

K = 3				
М	С	М	С	
Α	D	N	Q	
В	E	0	R	
С	F	Р	S	
D	G	Q	Т	
Е	Н	R	U	
F	I	S	V	
G	J	Т	W	
Н	K	U	Х	
I	L	V	Υ	
J	М	W	Z	
K	N	X	Α	
L	0	Υ	В	
М	Р	Z	С	

# Cryptography by Hand: Attacks on the Caesar Cipher

- Eve sees the ciphertext JCKN ECGUCT, but doesn't know the key K
- If you were Eve, how would you try to break this algorithm?
- Brute-force attack: Try all 26 possible keys!
- Use existing knowledge: Assume that the message is in English

+	1	IBJM	DBFTBS	Н	⊦9	ATBE	VTXLTK	+17	SLTW	NLPDLC
+	-2	HAIL	CAESAR	+	⊦10	ZSAD	USWKSJ	+18	RKSV	MKOCKB
+	.3	GZHK	BZDRZQ	Н	⊦11	YRZC	TRVJRI	+19	QJRU	LJNBJA
+	4	FYGJ	AYCQYP	Н	<b>⊦</b> 12	XQYB	SQUIQH	+20	PIQT	KIMAIZ
+	.5	EXFI	ZXBPXO	+	<b>⊦</b> 13	WPXA	RPTHPG	+21	OHPS	JHLZHY
+	6	DWEH	YWAOWN	+	⊦14	VOWZ	QOSGOF	+22	NGOR	IGKYGX
+	.7	CVDG	XVZNVM	Н	⊦15	UNVY	PNRFNE	+23	MFNQ	HFJXFW
+	8	BUCF	WUYMUL	+	⊦16	TMUX	OMQEMD	+24	LEMP	GEIWEV
								+25	KDLO	FDHVDU

# Cryptography by Hand: Attacks on the Caesar Cipher

- Eve sees the ciphertext JCKN ECGUCT, but doesn't know the key K
- Chosen-plaintext attack: Eve tricks Alice into encrypting plaintext of her choice
  - Eve sends a message M = AAA and receives C = CCC
  - $\circ$  Eve can deduce the key: C is 2 letters after A, so K = 2
  - Eve has the key, so she can decrypt the ciphertext

# Cryptography by Hand: Substitution Cipher

- A better cipher: create a mapping of each character to another character.
  - Example: A = N, B = Q, C = L, D = Z, etc.
  - Unlike the Caesar cipher, the shift is no longer constant!
- KeyGen():
  - Generate a random, one-to-one mapping of characters
- Enc(K, M):
  - Map each letter in M to the output according to the mapping K
- Dec(K, C):
  - Map each letter in C to the output according to the reverse of the mapping K

К				
М	С	М	С	
Α	N	N	G	
В	Q	0	Р	
С	L	Р	Т	
D	Z	Q	Α	
Е	K	R	J	
F	R	S	0	
G	V	Т	D	
Н	U	U	1	
I	Е	V	С	
J	S	W	F	
K	В	X	М	
L	W	Υ	X	
М	Υ	Z	Н	

# Cryptography by Hand: Attacks on Substitution Ciphers

- Does the brute-force attack still work?
  - There are 26! ≈ 2<sup>88</sup> possible mappings to try
    - Too much for most modern computers... for now
- How about the chosen-plaintext attack?
  - Trick Alice into encrypting ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ, and you'll get the whole mapping!
- Another strategy: cryptanalysis
  - The most common English letters in text are
     E, T, A, O, I, N

К				
М	С	М	С	
Α	N	N	G	
В	Q	0	Р	
С	L	Р	Т	
D	Z	Q	Α	
Е	K	R	J	
F	R	S	0	
G	V	Т	D	
Н	U	U	I	
I	Е	V	С	
J	S	W	F	
K	В	X	М	
L	W	Υ	X	
М	Υ	Z	Н	

# Takeaways

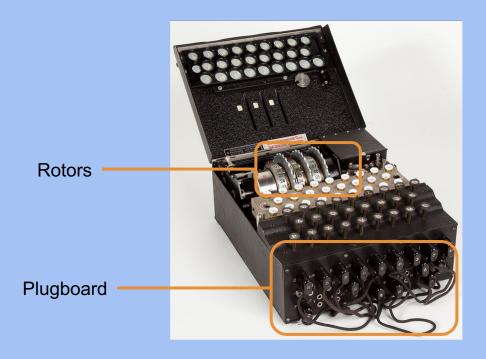
- Cryptography started with paper-and-pencil algorithms (Caesar cipher)
- Then cryptography moved to machines (Enigma)
- Finally, cryptography moved to computers (which we're about to study)
- Hopefully you gained some intuition for some of the cryptographic definitions



# Cryptography by Machines: Enigma

## ITIS 6200 / 8200

A mechanical encryption machine used by the Germans in WWII





# Enigma Operating Principle: Rotor Machine

- The encryption core was composed of 3 or 4 rotors
  - Each rotor was a fixed permutation (e.g. A maps to F, B maps to Q...)
  - And the end was a "reflector", a rotor that sent things backwards
  - Plus a fixed-permutation plugboard
- A series of rotors were arranged in a sequence
  - Each keypress would generate a current from the input to one light for the output
  - Each keypress also advanced the first rotor
    - When the first rotor makes a full rotation, the second rotor advances one step
    - When the second rotor makes a full rotation, the third rotor advances once step

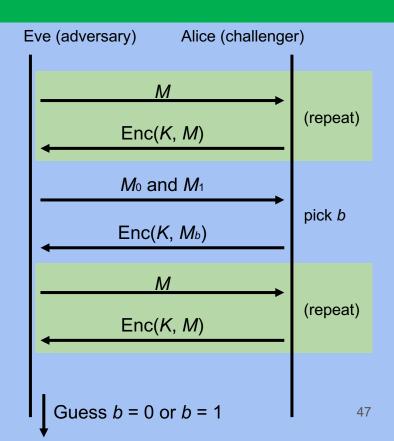
# Cryptography by Machines: Enigma

- KeyGen():
  - Choose rotors, rotor orders, rotor positions, and plugboard settings
  - o 158,962,555,217,826,360,000 possible keys
- Enc(K, M) and Dec(K, C):
  - Input the rotor settings *K* into the Enigma machine
  - Press each letter in the input, and the lampboard will light up the corresponding output letter
  - Encryption and decryption are the same algorithm!
- Germans believed that Enigma was an "unbreakable code"



# Cryptography by Machines: Enigma

- Enigma has a significant weakness: a letter never maps to itself!
  - No rotor maps a letter to itself
  - The reflector never maps a letter to itself
  - This property is necessary for Enigma's mechanical system to work
- What pair of messages should Eve send to Alice in the challenge phase?
  - $\circ$  Send  $M_0 = A^k$ ,  $M_1 = B^k$
  - M₀ is a string of k 'A' characters, M₁ is a string of k 'B' characters
- How can Eve probably know which message Alice encrypted?
  - If there are no 'A' characters, it was *M*<sub>0</sub>
  - If there are no 'B' characters, it was M<sub>1</sub>



# Cryptography by Machines: Attack on Enigma

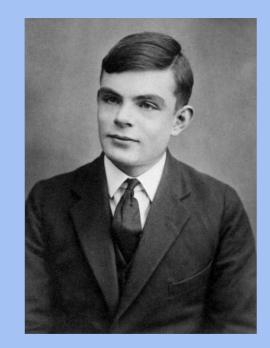
- Polish and British cryptographers built BOMBE, a machine to brute-force Enigma keys
- Why was Enigma breakable?
  - Kerckhoff's principle: The Allies stole Enigma machines, so they knew the algorithm
  - Known plaintext attacks: the Germans often sent predictable messages (e.g. the weather report every morning)
  - Chosen plaintext attacks: the Allies could trick the Germans into sending a message (e.g. "newly deployed minefield")
  - Brute-force: BOMBE would try many keys until the correct one was found
    - Plus a weakness: You'd be able to try multiple keys with the same hardware configuration



**BOMBE** machine

# Cryptography by Machines: Legacy of Enigma

- Alan Turing, one of the cryptographers who broke Enigma, would go on to become one of the founding fathers of computer science
- Most experts agree that the Allies breaking Enigma shortened the war in Europe by about a year



Alan Turing

# Cryptography by Computers

- The modern era of cryptography started after WWII, with the work of Claude Shannon
- "New Directions in Cryptography" (1976) showed how number theory can be used in cryptography
  - o Its authors, Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman, won the Turing Award in 2015 for this paper
- This is the era of cryptography we'll be focusing on



One of these is Diffie, and the other one is Hellman.



# **One-Time Pads**

# Cryptography Roadmap

	Symmetric-key	Asymmetric-key		
Confidentiality	<ul><li>One-time pads</li><li>Block ciphers</li><li>Stream ciphers</li></ul>	RSA encryption		
Integrity, Authentication	• MACs	Digital signatures		

- Hash functions
- Pseudorandom number generators
- Public key exchange (e.g. Diffie-Hellman)

- Key management (certificates)
- Password management

## Review: XOR

## ITIS 6200 / 8200

# The XOR operator takes two bits and outputs one bit:

$$0 \oplus 0 = 0$$

$$0 \oplus 1 = 1$$

$$1 \oplus 0 = 1$$

$$1 \oplus 1 = 0$$

## Useful properties of XOR:

$$x \oplus x = 0$$

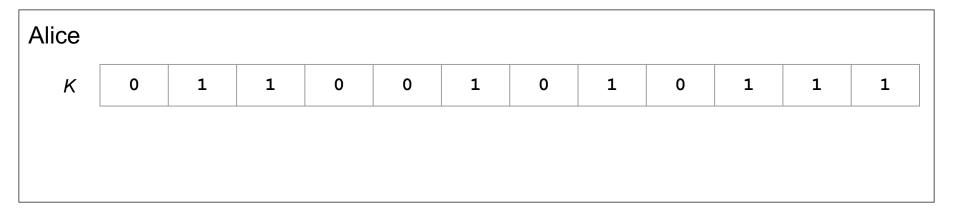
$$x \oplus y = y \oplus x$$

$$(x \oplus y) \oplus z = x \oplus (y \oplus z)$$

$$(x \oplus y) \oplus x = y$$

# One-Time Pads: Key Generation

## ITIS 6200 / 8200

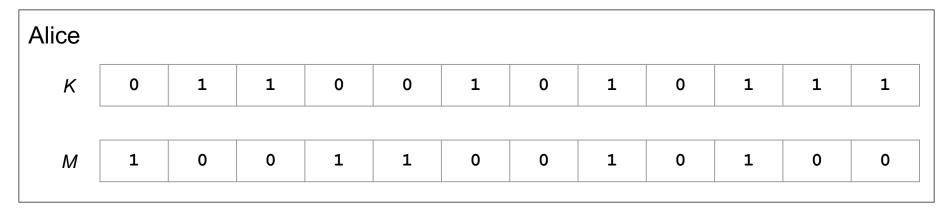


The key *K* is a randomly-chosen bitstring.

Recall: We are in the symmetric-key setting, so we'll assume Alice and Bob both know this key.

# One-Time Pads: Encryption

## ITIS 6200 / 8200

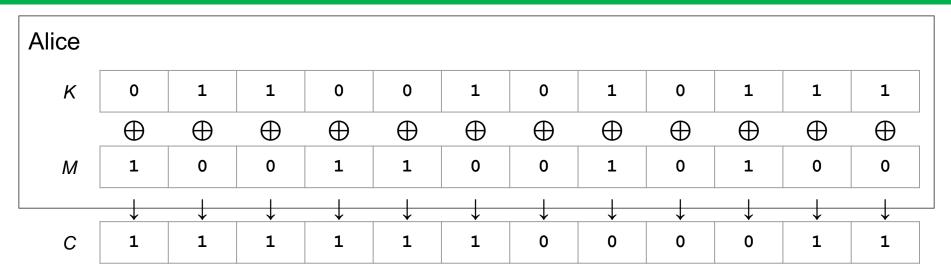


The plaintext *M* is the bitstring that Alice wants to encrypt.

Idea: Use XOR to scramble up *M* with the bits of *K*.

# One-Time Pads: Encryption

## ITIS 6200 / 8200



Encryption algorithm: XOR each bit of *K* with the matching bit in *M*.

The ciphertext *C* is the encrypted bitstring that Alice sends to Bob over the insecure channel.

# One-Time Pads: Decryption

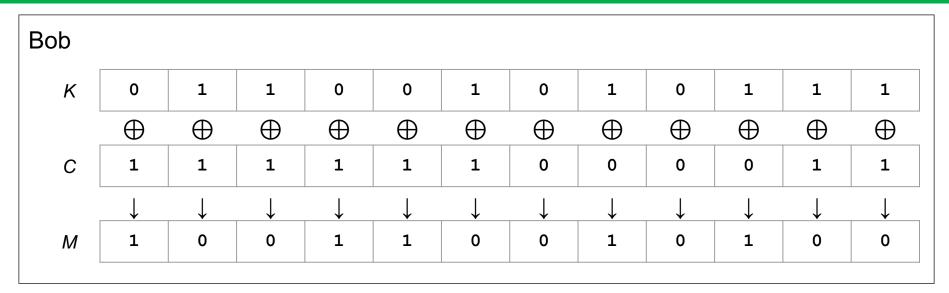
## ITIS 6200 / 8200



Bob receives the ciphertext *C*. Bob knows the key *K*. How does Bob recover *M*?

# One-Time Pads: Decryption

## ITIS 6200 / 8200



Decryption algorithm: XOR each bit of *K* with the matching bit in *C*.

## One-Time Pad

- KeyGen()
  - Randomly generate an *n*-bit key, where *n* is the length of your message
    - Recall: For today, we assume that Alice and Bob can securely share this key
    - For one-time pads, we generate a *new* key for every message
- Enc(K, M) =  $K \oplus M$ 
  - Bitwise XOR M and K to produce C
    - In other words: XOR the *i*th bit of the plaintext with the *i*th bit of the key.
    - $\blacksquare$   $C_i = K_i \oplus M_i$
  - Alice and Bob use a different key for each encryption (this is the "one-time" in one-time pad).
- $Dec(K, C) = K \oplus C$ 
  - Bitwise XOR C and K to produce M
    - $\blacksquare$   $Mi = Ki \oplus Ci$

## One-Time Pad: Correctness

## ITIS 6200 / 8200

 Correctness: If we encrypt and then decrypt, we should get the original message back

$$\operatorname{Enc}(K, M) = K \oplus M$$
 Definition of encryption
$$\operatorname{Dec}(K, \operatorname{Enc}(K, M)) = \operatorname{Dec}(K, K \oplus M)$$
 Decrypting the ciphertext
$$= K \oplus (K \oplus M)$$
 Definition of decryption
$$= M$$
 XOR property

## One-Time Pad: Security

- Recall our definition of confidentiality: The ciphertext should not give the attacker any additional information about the plaintext
- Recall our experiment to test confidentiality from earlier:
  - Alice has encrypted and sent either *M*<sub>0</sub> or *M*<sub>1</sub>
  - Eve knows either  $M_0$  or  $M_1$  was sent, but doesn't know which
  - Eve reads the ciphertext and tries to guess which message was sent
  - If the probability that Eve correctly guesses which message was sent is 1/2, then the encryption scheme is confidential

# One-Time Pad: Security

## ITIS 6200 / 8200

Possibility 0: Alice sends  $Enc(K, M_0)$ 

The ciphertext is  $C = K \oplus M_0$ 

Therefore,  $K = C \oplus M_0$ 

K was chosen randomly, so both possibilities are equally possible

Eve has learned no new information, so the scheme is *perfectly secure* 

Possibility 1: Alice sends  $Enc(K, M_1)$ 

The ciphertext is  $C = K \oplus M_1$ 

Therefore,  $K = C \oplus M_1$ 

# Impracticality of One-Time Pads

### ITIS 6200 / 8200

## Problem #1: Key generation

- For security to hold, keys must be randomly generated for every message, and never reused
- Randomness is expensive, as we'll see later

## Problem #2: Key distribution

- To communicate an n-bit message, we need to securely communicate an n-bit key first
- But if we have a way to securely communicate an n-bit key, we could have communicated the message directly!

## Only practical application: Communicate keys in advance

- You have a secure channel now, but you won't have it later
- Use the secure channel now to communicate keys in advance
- Use one-time pad later to communicate over the insecure channel
- And people can compute this by hand without computers!

# Summary

- What is cryptography?
- Definitions of key properties
- A better definition of confidentiality: IND-CPA security
- A brief history of cryptography
- Symmetric-key crypto