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S 6160 Cryptology Lecture Introduction & Logistics

Maria Francis

July 28 2025

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Welcome to Cryptology

Introductory course on Cryptography and Cryptanalysis

It is a theoretical course with a few practical assignments

We will cover the basics of modern cryptography

functions, provable security, reductionist arguments

key cryptography and public key cryptography (PKC)

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Prerequisites

No prerequisites other than discrete mathematics required.

But it is good to know basics of probability (e.g: variable, discrete probability distributions) and complexity (e.g: NP, NP completeness, polynomial reductions)

The number theory required will be covered in class
a good basic resource: [http://www.hyperelliptic.org/tanja/teaching/crypto 13/nt.pdf](http://www.hyperelliptic.org/tanja/teaching/crypto%2013/nt.pdf)

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Syllabus

Classic cryptosystems, perfect secrecy, one-way functions, random generators, private and public key cryptography, collision resistant hashing, PKI, digital signatures.

Introduction to Cryptanalysis, attacks on block ciphers, exhaustive search, time-space tradeoffs, differential & linear cryptanalysis, meet in the middle.

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References

Introduction to Modern Cryptography - J. K. Lindell. **new textbook with a very modern take**
Graduate Course in Applied Cryptography - D. Shoup. **More practical engineering!**

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Other References

Lecture notes by

Shafi Goldwasser and Mihir Bellare (collected in a document but slightly old),
Rafael Pass and Shih-Wei Shalat (collected into a similar document), and many many more.

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Explore and utilize all resources -

lecture notes from reputed universities and professional video lectures (from reputed sources like universities, Simons Institute, Institute for Advanced Study, etc.)

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Classes

We meet during B slot, Mon (10 : 00 – 10 : 55),
(9 : 00 – 9 : 55) and Thurs (11 : 00 – 11 : 55).

T's for this course: Reisha Ali, Supreet Shukla, S
and Kanchan Bisht

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Evaluation!!

Exams - 50 (Previously announced, 2 of them)

Programming assignments - 30

Tutorial Exams – 20

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Tutorial Exams – 20

Plagiarism or any form of cheating will be an automatic failure and will be reported to the dept.

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bout 3 4 programming assignments

With all written exams, assignments have become
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We will eliminate the lowest 3 tutorial marks in the

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The need for cryptography



lice

Insecure Channel



Bob

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The need for cryptography



Alice

Insecure Channel



Bob



Passive eavesdropper (Eve)

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The need for cryptography



Alice



Bob



Active adversary (Mallory)

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The need for cryptography

Communicating or computing over a channel where there are adversaries.

There are **information systems** (PCs, cellphones, smart TVs, cars, smart grids, etc.)

Our aim is to **control access** to the information — looking to see if we can control who **sees** and **modifies** information.

Some examples of such rules :

- Only XX can read the contents of the file

- The contents of this file has not been changed at all

- The recipient of this email can authenticate the sender

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Our aims and the Tools at Hand

What we aim to achieve:

Data Confidentiality

Data Integrity

Authentication –

Non-repudiation – the sender cannot claim that not send it

How do we achieve them? Tools such as:

Encryption

Hash Functions

Digital Signatures

Zero knowledge Proofs

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What about the adversary?

Could be anybody – insider/outsider

Assume he knows system design including implementation details

Resources – powerful computers, ability to interact, ability to collude with some participants

Generally **generous** assumptions about adversary's capabilities
we assume a **computationally bounded** adversary.

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Simple Solution



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Key k
Encryption Algorithm Enc
Decryption Algorithm Dec

Il previously agreed upon

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Simple Solution



lice

$$c = Enc_k(m)$$



Bob

Retrieving the mes

$$m = Dec_k(c)$$

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Simple Solution



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Questions: Which of these are secret here?

How are the secrets agreed upon? Parties may not even meet before?

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Formalizing the Solution

Symmetric key encryption (SKE) scheme consists of:

\mathcal{M} : a set of possible plaintexts

\mathcal{C} : a set of possible ciphertexts

\mathcal{K} : a set of possible keys.

Gen (called the **key generation algorithm**) is a **randomized algorithm** that returns a key k such that $k \in \mathcal{K}$.

family of encryption functions, $Enc_k : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathcal{C}$,

family of decryption functions, $Dec_k : \mathcal{C} \rightarrow \mathcal{M}$,

such that $Dec_k(Enc_k(m)) = m$ for all $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and $k \in \mathcal{K}$.

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Timeline of Cryptography as a field

0

ancient times to 1900s:
Classical
Ciphers

1900s :
Mechanical
Ciphers

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Classical Ciphers

The first idea that comes up when you need secret communication
Popular upto 1900s :

Shift/Ceaser cipher

Substitution cipher

Vigenère cipher, etc

S	E	N	D	R	E	I	N	F	O	R	C	E	M	E	N
V	I	G	E	N	E	R	E	V	I	G	E	N	E	R	E
N	M	T	H	E	I	Z	R	A	W	X	G	R	Q	V	R

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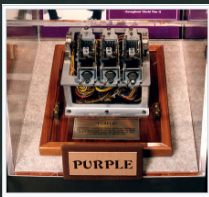
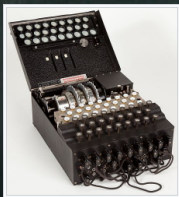
Mechanical Ciphers - Enigma, Purple

Motor devices

Electromechanical devices

Cryptography performed by (typically, rotor) machines

Ian Turing and others at Bletchley Park, William Friedman and others in the US – all helped break these ciphers



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Classical Cryptosystems

As time proceeds the cryptosystems get more sophisticated
but they are all broken!

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The main idea was **security by obscurity**.

Gen, *Enc*, *Dec* and the generated key k were secret.

Less information we give to the adversary, the harder they can break the scheme, right??

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Gen, *Enc*, *Dec* and the generated key k were secret.

Less information we give to the adversary, the harder they can break the scheme, right??

Not really! – Kerchoff's principle (1884)



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The only thing that should be private is the key
Dec should be assumed to be public.

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Conservative approach – guarantees that security
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First step to formally defining the security of encryption
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First step to formally defining the security of encryption schemes.

Immediate consequence – all of the algorithms (Enc , Dec) **cannot be deterministic**.

If so, then Eve would be able to compute everything that Bob can encrypt and Bob could compute and would thus be able to compute anything that Bob can decrypt.

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To prevent this we require Gen to be randomized.

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Perfect Secrecy (C. Shannon (1916



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Yes!

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Can we **perfect secrecy** (information theoretic security) if an adversary has infinite computational resources and is able to break it?

Yes!

- Key is perfectly random

- Key is at least as long as the message

- Key is never re-used!

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One Time Pad/ Vernam Cipher - unbreakable!

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One Time Pad - n Overview

$Enc_{k=k_1 k_2 \dots k_n}(m_1 m_2 \dots m_n) = c_1 c_2 \dots c_n$, where $c_i =$

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This is not practical!

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This is not practical! Why?

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Computationally Bounded Diversification

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So we make a reasonable assumption – Eve has only probabilistic polynomial time (PPT) computing power.

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Computationally Bounded Adversary

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Key thing is assumption! **Eve has unbounded computing power - too strong!**

So we make a reasonable assumption – Eve has probabilistic polynomial time (PPT) computing power.
If that's fair, we restrict Alice and Bob to PPT as well.

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Computational Complexity Theory

systematic study of what computationally bound
can and cannot do

Started with Alan Turing but formal study with Cook
(ward '82), Karp (Turing ward '85) and Blum ('95)

Notions that are critical in this area – polynomial
reductions, NP-completeness

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Many ideas are still “conjectured” or believed!

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The foundation of modern cryptography.



Blum

Cook

Karp

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Big-O Notation

Definition

Let $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two functions on \mathbb{N} .

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Let $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two functions on \mathbb{N} . Then we say f is an **asymptotic upper bound** for g if there exists a real number $c > 0$ and an integer $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

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Let $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two functions on \mathbb{N} . Then we say f is an **asymptotic upper bound** for g if there exists a real number M and an integer $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|f(n)| \leq M |g(n)| \text{ for all } n \geq n_0,$$

and one writes $f = \mathcal{O}(g)$ or $f \in \mathcal{O}(g)$.

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Big-O Notation

We say that f has **linear, quadratic, cubic or polynomial growth in n** if $f = \mathcal{O}(n)$, $f = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$, $f = \mathcal{O}(n^3)$ or $f = \mathcal{O}(n^k)$, for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, respectively.

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Let $f(n) = 100 + \frac{20}{n}$. Set $n_0 = 101$ and $n_0 = 1$. $\frac{20}{n} \leq 1$ for $n \geq 19$ we have $f = \mathcal{O}(1)$.

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Let $f(n) = 5\sqrt{2^{n-3} + n^2} - 2n$ then $f = \mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$.

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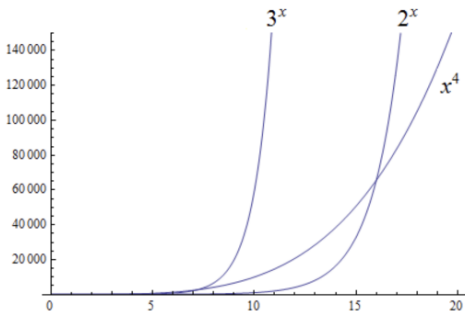
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Let $f(n) = 5\sqrt{2^n - 3} + n^2 - 2n$ then $f = \mathcal{O}(2^{n/2})$ **exponentially in n** .

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Growth of Functions

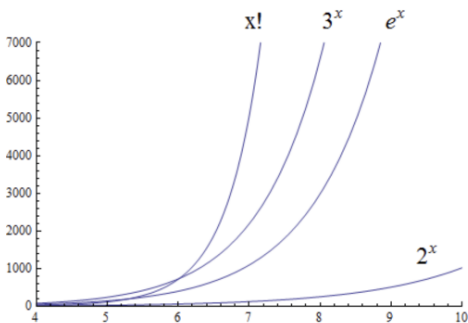
Exponential growth is larger than polynomial growth:



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Growth of Functions

Factorial growth is larger than exponential growth:



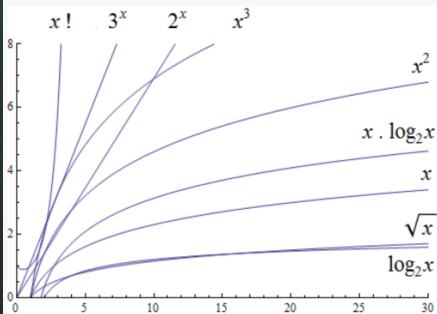
Pic courtesy – https://ggc-discrete-math.github.io/growth_functions/

[//ggc-discrete-math.github.io/growth_functions/](https://ggc-discrete-math.github.io/growth_functions/)

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Growth of Functions

1, $\log n$, $\sqrt[3]{n}$, \sqrt{n} , n , n^2 , n^3 , 2^n , 3^n , $n!$, n^n



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Efficient Vs Not so efficient algorithms

We have a notation now to assess the running time of algorithms in the **worst case**.

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An algorithm that loops over every instance of a problem with n elements is **exponential in n** .

A problem is said to be **hard** if no efficient, i.e. polynomial-time algorithm exists to solve such a problem.

That is **every algorithm solving the problem will have super-polynomial running time in the worst case**.

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P vs NP

Problems for which there is a polynomial time algorithm are said to belong to the **complexity class P**.

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The class **NP** (nondeterministic polynomial) is the class of decision problems which can be *verified* in polynomial time.

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The class **NP (nondeterministic polynomial)** is the class of decision problems which can be *verified* in polynomial time.

Checking the correctness of the proof looks like solving a problem. It is conjectured that NP is strictly larger than P, though it remains unresolved.

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The class **NP (nondeterministic polynomial)** is the class of decision problems which can be *verified* in polynomial time.

Checking the correctness of the proof looks like solving a problem. It is conjectured that NP is strictly larger than P, though it remains unresolved.

We assume that our adversaries are efficient adversaries.

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P vs NP

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Actually we assume they are **probabilistic polynomial time adversaries**. More on that later!

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Crypto Vs Computational Complexity World

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For a cryptosystem is insecure if attacks are inefficient in certain bad cases but efficient in **most other cases**.

So it requires average complexity of algorithms to be high so that breaking the scheme will be hard for most of the instances.
i.e. for **randomly picked instances**.

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Eve cannot break the system with **significant** prob
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$$\forall c > 0, \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(k)k^c = 0$$

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Exercises/Tutorials

Is $2^n = \mathcal{O}(2^n)$? Is $2^{2n} = \mathcal{O}(2^n)$?

Show that $2^k, k^{\log k}$ are $n \text{ gl}$ but $1/k^{000}$ is not.

Let $n \text{ gl}$ and $n \text{ gl}_2$ be two negligible functions. Prove that $n \text{ gl} + n \text{ gl}_2$ is negligible.

Negligible function stays negligible even after polynomial multiplication: $\text{poly}(k) \cdot n \text{ gl}(k) = n \text{ gl}(k)$.

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Alice and Bob and the adversary are assumed to have time 2^k polynomial in k and the adversary can break the system with probability negligible in k .

Increasing k we get higher security but a degraded performance. What is the correct value of k ?

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What changes when we weaken assumptions?

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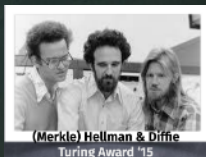
The small key is reused for all messages and encryption scheme is not perfectly secret. Why is this a viable

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1970s - Public Key Revolution

Merkle, and independently Hellman and Diffie, introduced the notion of public-key cryptography.

In November 1976, Diffie and Hellman published *Directions in Cryptography*, proclaiming *We are a revolution in cryptography.*



(Merkle) Hellman & Diffie
Turing Award '15

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PKE - Diffie/Hellman Ideas

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Anybody who wants to send a message m to the user will **encrypt**:

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Digital Signatures – sign with SK and verify with PK .

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Public Key Encryption



Alice



Bob

Encrypting
using Bob's public key:

$$c = \text{Enc}_{PK_B}(m)$$

Decrypting
using Bob's private key:

$$m = \text{Dec}_{SK_B}(c)$$

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Digital Signatures using Public Key



Bob

(m, s)



Signing
using Bob's private key:
 $s = \text{Sign}_{SK_B}(m)$

Verifying
using Bob's public key:
 $\text{Verify}_{PK_B}(m, s)$

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Public Key Encryption – RS

How to implement Diffie/Hellman ideas? – Rivest, Shamir & Adleman in 1977 came with the RS algorithm.



Shamir, Rivest & Adleman

Turing Award '02

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Note: In 1999, it was revealed that Ellis, Cocks and Williamson invented PKC in the British secret service, before their colleagues.

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Idea : **reduce** the problem of finding the secret key to a known **hard** mathematical problem.

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What we look for in any PKC are **one-way functions** with a **trapdoor**:

Function f must be **invertible** so as to decrypt encrypted messages.

Efficient to encrypt

Difficult to invert so that Eve cannot compute m from $f(m)$.

Has a **trapdoor**: given some information (SK) it is easy given $f(m)$ to compute m .

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Huge implications - exponential rise in study and cryptography.

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More interesting ideas like for e.g:

secret sharing : collaboration between distrustin

zero knowledge proofs (ZKPs) : revealing nothing
validity of the statement

fully homomorphic encryption : computation on

I CR - Intl. ssn. for Crypto Research. Sponsors
crypto conferences – Crypto, Eurocrypt and sia

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Principles of Modern Cryptography

The aim is to move away from **art of solving code**
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Principle 1 - Formal Definitions

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Principle 1 - **Formal Definitions**

Clear description of threat model and security goals **before the design process begins**.

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You do not want to work with intuitive ideas.

It helps analyze and evaluate the scheme and sometimes even find security too!

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Formal Definitions - an example

Example : What does one mean by secure encryption?
It should be impossible for an attacker to recover

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It should be impossible for an attacker to recover the plaintext from the ciphertext. Not good enough!

It should be impossible for an attacker to recover any non-trivial information about the plaintext from the ciphertext. What are some relations?

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Formal Definitions - an example

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t should be impossible for an attacker to recover m from c .
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What is prior knowledge? What is leak?

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Assumptions give us a way of comparing two schemes on two different assumptions.

If an assumption is broken (like factoring on a quantum computer) the schemes built on the assumption (ECDSA) will break!

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Pegasus shows us that well-resourced targeted attacks are impossible to prevent! Read :

<https://blog.cryptographyengineering.com/2014/04/20/a-case-against-security-nihilism/>.

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The future of the field

Post Quantum Cryptography – In 1994, Peter Shor discovered a fast factorization algorithm that runs in polynomial time on a (hypothetical) quantum computer.

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Attacks on different cryptographic primitives like hash functions.

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But all in all, cryptography is an interesting field that takes abstract ideas from mathematics and builds secure systems using the tools of hardware and software engineering.
And of course, there is **cryptanalysis!**

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Question for Tutorial

If $f(n)$ is non-negligible and $g(n)$ is negligible, then $h(n) = f(n) \cdot g(n)$ is non-negligible.