Computer Security — Part 3: Information Security and Cryptography Sections 3 and 5 (week 3)

Dusko Pavlovic

Oxford Michaelmas Term 2008 Security 3: Cryptography Dusko Pavlovic Channel security Encryption Cryptanalysis Modes Generating keys Lessons

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Information, channel security, noninterference

Encryption and decryption

Cryptanalysis and notions of secrecy

Cyphers and modes of operation

Key establishment

What did we learn?

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Cryptanalytic attacks

Symmetric key attacks

When $K_E = K_D = K$, the attacks are

cyphertext only (COA):

$$E(K, m_1), \ldots, E(K, m_\ell) \vdash K$$

known plaintext (KPA), chosen plaintext (CPA):

$$m_1, \ldots, m_\ell, \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K}, m_1), \ldots, \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K}, m_\ell) \vdash \mathsf{K}$$

chosen cyphertext (CCA):

$$c_1, \ldots, c_\ell, \mathsf{D}(\mathsf{K}, c_1), \ldots, \mathsf{D}(\mathsf{K}, c_\ell) \vdash \mathsf{K}$$

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Cryptanalytic attacks Asymmetric key attacks

When K_E is publicly known

cyphertext only (COA):

$$K_E, E(K_E, m_1), \ldots, E(K_E, m_\ell) \vdash K_D$$

known plaintext (KPA), chosen plaintext (CPA):

 $\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{E}}, m_1, \ldots, m_\ell, \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{E}}, m_1), \ldots, \mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{E}}, m_\ell) \vdash \mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{D}}$

chosen cyphertext (CCA):

$$\mathsf{K}_\mathsf{E}, c_1, \dots, c_\ell, \mathsf{D}(\mathsf{K}_\mathsf{D}, c_1), \dots, \mathsf{D}(\mathsf{K}_\mathsf{D}, c_\ell) \hspace{0.1 in} \vdash \hspace{0.1 in} \mathsf{K}_\mathsf{D}$$

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adaptive chosen cyphertext (CCA2): ... (later!)

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•
$$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$$

- $\mathcal{K} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$
- ▶ K_E = K_D = k
- $\blacktriangleright \mathsf{E}(k,m) = m + k \mod 26$
- $D(k, c) = c k \mod 26$

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•
$$\mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$$

- $\mathcal{K} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}$
- $K_E = K_D = k$
- $\blacktriangleright \mathsf{E}(k,m) = m + k \mod 26$

$$\blacktriangleright \mathsf{D}(k,c) = c - k \mod 26$$

Idea

Since there are just $\#\mathcal{K} = 26$ possible keys, simply try one after the other.

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CY:	Ν	Y	Ν	Х	Α	J	W	D	Н	Т	Q	I
Ċ	13	24	13	23	0	9	22	3	7	19	16	8
<i>k</i> ₁	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
<i>m</i> ₁	12	23	12	22	25	8	21	2	6	18	15	7
tx ₁ :	m	х	m	W	Z	i	v	С	g	S	р	h

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CY:	Ν	Y	Ν	Х	Α	J	W	D	Н	Т	Q	Ι
Ċ	13	24	13	23	0	9	22	3	7	19	16	8
<i>k</i> ₂	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
<i>m</i> ₂	11	22	11	21	24	7	20	1	5	17	14	6
tx ₂ :	Ι	W	Ι	v	у	h	u	b	f	r	0	g

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CY:	Ν	Y	Ν	Х	Α	J	W	D	Н	Т	Q	Ι	Cryptanalysis Guessing
Ċ	13	24	13	23	0	9	22	3	7	19	16	8	Elements of probability Probabilistic encryption
<i>k</i> ₅	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	Secrecy proofs Modes
<i>ൺ</i> ₅	8	19	8	18	21	4	17	24	2	14	11	3	Generating keys
tx ₅ :	i	t	i	S	v	е	r	у	С	0	I	d	Lessons

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•
$$\mathcal{M} = C = \Sigma = \{a, b, c, \dots, z\},$$

- $\mathcal{K} = S(\Sigma) =$ the permutations of Σ
- $K_E = K_D = \sigma$
- $\mathsf{E}(\sigma, m) = \sigma(m)$

•
$$\mathsf{D}(\sigma, \mathbf{c}) = \sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{c})$$

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•
$$\mathcal{M} = C = \Sigma = \{a, b, c, \dots, z\},$$

• $\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{S}(\Sigma) =$ the permutations of Σ

•
$$K_E = K_D = \sigma$$

•
$$\mathsf{E}(\sigma, m) = \sigma(m)$$

•
$$\mathsf{D}(\sigma, \mathbf{c}) = \sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{c})$$

Fact

Since $\#\mathcal{K} = 26! \approx 4 \cdot 10^{26}$, enumerating the keys and searching for a well-formed plaintext will not help.

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Idea

Align the letter frequencies of plaintext (e.g. English)...



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Idea

Align the letter frequencies of plaintext (e.g. English)...



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Idea

... with the letter frequencies of the cyphertext



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Summary

- the messages are drawn from a source X and coded along f : X → G ⊆ M*
- ► the frequency distribution Prob_X : X → [0, 1] induces the frequency distribution Prob_M : M → [0, 1]

$$\operatorname{Prob}_{\mathcal{M}}(\vec{m}) = \operatorname{Prob}_{\mathcal{X}}(f^{-1}(\vec{m}))$$

► the frequency distribution Prob_C : C → [0, 1] can be extracted if there is enough cyphertext Security 3: Cryptography

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The patterns



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The patterns are aligned to reconstruct



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KPA on the one-time-pad

$$\bullet \ \mathcal{M} = \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{K} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}^{N}$$

•
$$\mathsf{E}(\vec{k},\vec{m}) = \vec{m} + \vec{k}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \mathsf{D}(\vec{k},\vec{c}) = \vec{c} - \vec{k}$$

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KPA on the one-time-pad

•
$$\mathcal{M} = C = \mathcal{K} = \mathbb{Z}_{26}^N$$

• $\mathsf{E}(\vec{k}, \vec{m}) = \vec{m} + \vec{k}$

•
$$\mathsf{D}(\vec{k},\vec{c})=\vec{c}-\vec{k}$$

Attack

Given \vec{m} and $E(\vec{k}, \vec{m}) = \vec{m} + \vec{k}$ the cryptanalyst derives

$$\vec{k} = \mathsf{E}(\vec{k},\vec{m}) - \vec{m}$$

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Can we prove that there are no attacks?

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Can we prove that there are no attacks?

Proposition

If all keys are equally likely, then the one-time-pad is secure, in the sense that the cyphertext provides no information about the plaintext.

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Can we prove that there are no attacks?

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We need tools for such proofs!

Attack scenario: KPA, CPA

The cryptanalyst knows which crypto system is used. He wants to derive the key from the known or chosen plaintext, and its encryptions

$$m_1,\ldots,m_\ell,\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K},m_1),\ldots,\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K},m_\ell) \vdash \mathsf{K}$$

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Attack scenario: KPA, CPA

The cryptanalyst knows which crypto system is used. He wants to derive the key from the known or chosen plaintext, and its encryptions

$$m_1,\ldots,m_\ell,\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K},m_1),\ldots,\mathsf{E}(\mathsf{K},m_\ell) \vdash \mathsf{K}$$

In some cases, he

- may not know the plaintext, but
- can recognize well-formed messages.

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Terminology

A random variable is a function $X : X \longrightarrow V$ where

- X is a source and
- V is a set, representing values.

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Terminology

A random variable is a function $X : X \longrightarrow V$ where

- X is a source and
- V is a set, representing values.

Notation

We write

$$Prob(X = v) = Prob\{x \in X \mid X(x) = v\}$$
$$= \sum_{X(x)=v} Prob(x)$$

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Guessing process

Given a probability distribution over the key space \mathcal{K} , a guessing attack is a random variable $G : \mathcal{K}^* \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$, where

$$G(k_1,k_2,\ldots,k_n) = i$$

means that $k_i = K_D$.

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Guessing process

Given a probability distribution over the key space \mathcal{K} , a guessing attack is a random variable $G : \mathcal{K}^* \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$, where

 $G(k_1,k_2,\ldots,k_n) = i$

means that $k_i = K_D$.

Remark

The intuition is that we are given some cyphertext \vec{c} , and we test whether $D(k_i, \vec{c})$ is a well-formed message for one k_i after the other.

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Exercise

Suppose that there are $\ell = \# \mathcal{K}$ keys, and that they are all equally likely. What is the probability that

- G = 1, i.e. the key is guessed at once,
- G = n, i.e. the key is guessed after exactly *n* tries.
- $G \le n$, i.e. the key is guessed in at most *n* tries.

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Solution

- Since there are $\ell = \# \mathcal{K}$ equally likely keys,
 - the probability that the right key is drawn at once is $Prob(G = 1) = p_1 = \frac{1}{\ell};$

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Solution

- Since there are $\ell = \# \mathcal{K}$ equally likely keys,
 - the probability that the right key is drawn at once is $Prob(G = 1) = p_1 = \frac{1}{\ell};$
 - ▶ the probability that the right key is *not* drawn at once is $q_1 = \text{Prob}(G \neq 1) = 1 p_1 = \frac{\ell 1}{\ell}$.

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Solution

- Since there are $\ell = \# \mathcal{K}$ equally likely keys,
 - the probability that the right key is drawn at once is $Prob(G = 1) = p_1 = \frac{1}{\ell};$

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▶ the probability that the right key is *not* drawn at once is $q_1 = \text{Prob}(G \neq 1) = 1 - p_1 = \frac{\ell-1}{\ell}$. In this case, we draw again, from $\ell - 1$ untested keys.

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Solution

- Since there are $\ell = \# \mathcal{K}$ equally likely keys,
 - the probability that the right key is drawn at once is $Prob(G = 1) = p_1 = \frac{1}{\ell};$
 - ▶ the probability that the right key is *not* drawn at once is $q_1 = \text{Prob}(G \neq 1) = 1 p_1 = \frac{\ell-1}{\ell}$. In this case, we draw again, from $\ell 1$ untested keys. This time,
 - the probability that the right key is drawn immediately is now $p_2 = \frac{1}{\ell-1}$, and thus $Prob(G = 2) = q_1 \cdot p_2 = \frac{\ell-1}{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{\ell-1} = \frac{1}{\ell}$;

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Guessing

Solution

- Since there are $\ell = \# \mathcal{K}$ equally likely keys,
 - the probability that the right key is drawn at once is $Prob(G = 1) = p_1 = \frac{1}{7};$
 - ▶ the probability that the right key is *not* drawn at once is $q_1 = \text{Prob}(G \neq 1) = 1 p_1 = \frac{\ell 1}{\ell}$. In this case, we draw again, from $\ell 1$ untested keys. This time,
 - the probability that the right key is drawn immediately is now $p_2 = \frac{1}{\ell-1}$, and thus $Prob(G = 2) = q_1 \cdot p_2 = \frac{\ell-1}{\ell} \cdot \frac{1}{\ell-1} = \frac{1}{\ell}$;
 - whereas the probability that the right key is still not drawn is $q_2 = \frac{\ell-2}{\ell-1}$...

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In general, with $p_i = \frac{1}{\ell - i + 1}$ and $q_i = \frac{\ell - i}{\ell - i + 1}$, the probability that a particular key is drawn in the *n*-th draw is

$$Prob(G = n) = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_{n-1} \cdot p_n$$

= $\frac{\ell - 1}{\ell} \cdot \frac{\ell - 2}{\ell - 1} \cdots \frac{\ell - n + 1}{\ell - n + 2} \cdot \frac{1}{\ell - n + 1}$
= $\frac{1}{\ell}$

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Guessing

In general, with $p_i = \frac{1}{\ell - i + 1}$ and $q_i = \frac{\ell - i}{\ell - i + 1}$, the probability that a particular key is drawn in the *n*-th draw is

$$Prob(G = n) = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_{n-1} \cdot p_n$$

= $\frac{\ell - 1}{\ell} \cdot \frac{\ell - 2}{\ell - 1} \cdots \frac{\ell - n + 1}{\ell - n + 2} \cdot \frac{1}{\ell - n + 1}$
= $\frac{1}{\ell}$

The probability that a particular key is drawn in at most *n* tries is

$$\operatorname{Prob}(G \le n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \operatorname{Prob}(G = i) = \frac{n}{\ell}$$

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Notation

Given a source X and events $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \dots \subseteq X$, we write

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \alpha} \operatorname{Prob}(\mathbf{x})$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \cap \beta \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \end{bmatrix}}$$

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Remark

Traditionally, our $[\alpha \vdash \beta]$ is written Prob $(\beta \mid \alpha)$, and called conditional probability.

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Remark

Traditionally, our $[\alpha \vdash \beta]$ is written Prob $(\beta \mid \alpha)$, and called conditional probability.

While the traditional notations need to be respected, cryptography puts conditional probability to heavy use, and abuse. Security 3: Cryptography Dusko Pavlovic Channel security

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Remark

Traditionally, our $[\alpha \vdash \beta]$ is written Prob $(\beta \mid \alpha)$, and called conditional probability.

While the traditional notations need to be respected, cryptography puts conditional probability to heavy use, and abuse.

 $[\alpha \vdash \beta]$ tells how likely it is to guess β from α .

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Homework

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \neg \beta \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{1} - \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \neg \alpha \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \neg \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \cup \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \gamma \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \cap \gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

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Homework

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \neg \beta \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{1} - \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \neg \alpha \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \neg \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \cup \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \gamma \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \cap \gamma \end{bmatrix}$$

Moreover

$$\begin{bmatrix} \alpha \cap \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta \end{bmatrix} \iff \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\iff \begin{bmatrix} \beta \vdash \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

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Bayes theorem

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta \vdash \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \frac{[\alpha][\alpha \vdash \beta]}{[\alpha][\alpha \vdash \beta] + [\neg \alpha][\neg \alpha \vdash \beta]}$$

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Proposition

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \beta \vdash \alpha \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \gamma \vdash \alpha \end{bmatrix} \\ \downarrow \\ \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \beta \vdash \gamma \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \vdash \gamma \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \gamma \vdash \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

Proposition

Since

$$\left[\alpha \vdash \beta \cap \gamma\right] = \left[\alpha \vdash \beta\right] \cdot \left[\alpha \cap \beta \vdash \gamma\right]$$

it follows that

$$\left[\alpha \vdash \beta \right] \cdot \left[\alpha \cap \beta \vdash \gamma \right] \;\; \leq \;\; \left[\alpha \vdash \gamma \right]$$

with the equality when
$$[\alpha \cap \gamma \vdash \beta] = 1$$
, so that $[\alpha \vdash \gamma] = [\alpha \vdash \beta \cap \gamma]$.

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Problem with simple crypto systems

Leaking partial information

The trapdoor decryption condition

$$\forall m.A(E(K_E, m)) = m \implies \forall c.A(c) = D(K_D, c)$$

only talks about total decryptions.

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Problem with simple crypto systems

Leaking partial information

The trapdoor decryption condition

$$\forall m.A(E(K_E, m)) = m \implies \forall c.A(c) = D(K_D, c)$$

only talks about total decryptions.

A simple crypto system can leak partial information.

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Problem with simple crypto systems

Two kinds of leaks

The attacker may observe traffic and build

- a *partial* map $A : C \rightarrow M$
 - e.g., by recognizing
 E(K, "yes"), E(K, "no"), E(K, "buy")...
- a map $A : C \longrightarrow \Delta M$, extracting *partial information*
 - e.g., by comparing $E(K, m_0), E(K, m_1)...$

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Proposition

If the same one-time-pad key is used to encrypt more than one block, then a CPA attacker can extract partial information. Security 3: Cryptography Dusko Pavlovic

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Proposition

If the same one-time-pad key is used to encrypt more than one block, then a CPA attacker can extract partial information.

E.g., the attacker can form two messages such that, if she is given the encryption of one of them, then she can tell which one. (This is one bit of information extracted.) Security 3: Cryptography Dusko Pavlovic Channel security

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Proof

The CPA attacker forms two messages in the form:

 $\vec{m}_0 = \vec{m} @ \vec{m} \qquad \vec{m}_1 = \vec{m} @ \vec{\ell}$

where $\vec{x} @ \vec{y}$ is concatenation and $\vec{\ell} \neq \vec{m}$ are of length *N*.

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Proof

The CPA attacker forms two messages in the form:

$$\vec{m}_0 = \vec{m} @ \vec{m} \qquad \vec{m}_1 = \vec{m} @ \vec{\ell}$$

where $\vec{x}@\vec{y}$ is concatenation and $\vec{\ell} \neq \vec{m}$ are of length *N*. Encrypting with the key \vec{k} of length *N* gives

 $\mathsf{E}(\vec{k},\vec{m}_0) = \vec{c}@\vec{c} \qquad \qquad \mathsf{E}(\vec{k},\vec{m}_1) = \vec{c}@\vec{d}$

where $\vec{c} = \vec{m} + \vec{k}$ and $\vec{d} = \vec{m} + \vec{\ell}$.

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Probabilistic crypto system

Definition

Given the types

- M of messages (or plaintexts)
- C of cyphertexts
- K of keys
- R of random seeds

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- ... a probabilistic crypto-system is a triple of algorithms:
 - key generation $\langle K_E, K_D \rangle : \mathcal{R} \longrightarrow \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{K}$,
 - encryption $E : \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{K} \times \mathcal{M} \longrightarrow C$, and
 - decryption $D : \mathcal{K} \times C \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}$,

When no confusion seems likely, we abbreviate

- K(r) to 𝔣 and
- E(r, k, m) to $\mathbb{E}(k, m)$ and even $\mathbb{E}(m)$.



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- ... that together provide
 - unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

secrecy (Shannon: "unconditional security"):

$$[c \in \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}, m) \vdash m \in \mathcal{M}] = [m \in \mathcal{M}]$$
 (IT-SEC)

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- ... that together provide
 - unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

$$[c \in \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}, m) \vdash m \in \mathbb{A}(c)] = [m \in \mathbb{A}(0)]$$
 (COM-SEC)

for every feasible probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A} : C \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}$, (i.e. $\mathbb{A} : \mathcal{R} \times \mathcal{K} \times C \longrightarrow \mathcal{M}$)

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- ... that together provide
 - unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}, c \in \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}, m_b) \vdash b \in \{0, 1\} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M} \vdash b \in \{0, 1\} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \quad (\text{IT-IND})$$

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- ... that together provide
 - unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M}, c \in \mathbb{E}(m_b) \vdash b \in \mathbb{A}(m_0, m_1, c) \end{bmatrix} \leq \begin{bmatrix} m_0, m_1 \in \mathcal{M} \vdash b \in \mathbb{A}(m_0, m_1, 0) \end{bmatrix} \leq \frac{1}{2} \quad (\text{COM-IND})$$

for any feasible probabilistic \mathbb{A} : $\mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{C} \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}$ (with K_E and the seed implicit)

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- ... that together provide
 - unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

secrecy (Goldwasser-Micali: "semantic security")

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_0, m_1 \in \mathbb{A}_0, c \in \mathbb{E}(m_b) \vdash \\ b \in \mathbb{A}_1(m_0, m_1, c) \end{bmatrix} \le \frac{1}{2}$$
 (IND-CPA)

for any probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A}=\langle \mathbb{A}_0,\mathbb{A}_1\rangle .$.

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- ... that together provide
 - unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

secrecy (under chosen cyphertext attack):

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_0 \in \mathbb{A}_0, \ m \in \mathbb{D}(c_0), \\ m_0, m_1 \in \mathbb{A}_1(c_0, m), c \in \mathbb{E}(m_b) \end{bmatrix} \vdash b \in \mathbb{A}_2(c_0, m, m_0, m_1, c) \le \frac{1}{2} \quad (\text{IND-CCA})$$

for any probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A}=\langle \mathbb{A}_0,\mathbb{A}_1,\mathbb{A}_2\rangle .$. .

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- ... that together provide
 - unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

secrecy (under adaptive chosen cyphertext attack):

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_0 \in \mathbb{A}_0, \ m \in D(c_0), \\ m_0, m_1 \in \mathbb{A}_1(c_0, m), \ c \in \mathbb{E}(m_b) \\ c_1 \in \mathbb{A}_2(c_0, m, m_0, m_1), \ \widetilde{m} \in D(c_1 \neq c) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$b \in \mathbb{A}_3(c_0, m, m_0, m_1, c, c_1, \ \widetilde{m}) \le \frac{1}{2} \quad (IND-CCA2)$$

for any probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A}=\langle\mathbb{A}_0,\mathbb{A}_1,\mathbb{A}_2,\mathbb{A}_3\rangle$...

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Taxonomy of secrecy properties



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Example: El Gamal

Fix a finite field \mathbb{F} and $g \in \mathbb{F}^*$.

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{M} &= \mathcal{R} = \mathbb{F} & \mathsf{K}_\mathsf{E}(a) = g^a \\ \mathcal{C} &= \mathbb{F}^* \times \mathbb{F} & \mathsf{K}_\mathsf{D}(a) = a \\ \mathcal{K} &= \mathbb{F}^* \times \mathbb{F}^* & \mathsf{E}(r,k,m) = \left\langle g^r, k^r \cdot m \right\rangle \\ & \mathsf{D}\left(\overline{k}, \left\langle c_1, c_2 \right\rangle\right) = \frac{c_2}{c_1^{\overline{k}}} \end{split}$$

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Example: El Gamal

Fix a finite field \mathbb{F} and $g \in \mathbb{F}^*$.

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{M} &= \mathcal{R} = \mathbb{F} & \mathsf{K}_\mathsf{E}(a) = g^a \\ \mathcal{C} &= \mathbb{F}^* \times \mathbb{F} & \mathsf{K}_\mathsf{D}(a) = a \\ \mathcal{K} &= \mathbb{F}^* \times \mathbb{F}^* & \mathsf{E}(r,k,m) = \left\langle g^r, k^r \cdot m \right\rangle \\ & \mathsf{D}\left(\overline{k}, \langle c_1, c_2 \rangle\right) = \frac{c_2}{c_1^{\overline{k}}} \end{split}$$

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Unique decryption

$$D(\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{D}}(a), \mathsf{E}(r, \mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{E}}(a), m)) = D(a, \mathsf{E}(r, g^{a}, m))$$
$$= D(a, \langle g^{r}, (g^{a})^{r} \cdot m \rangle)$$
$$= \frac{g^{ar} \cdot m}{(g^{r})^{a}} = m$$

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Proposition

If all keys are equally likely, then the one-time-pad is unconditionally secure, i.e. it satisfies (IT-SEC). Security 3: Cryptography Dusko Pavlovic

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Proposition

If all keys are equally likely, then the one-time-pad is unconditionally secure, i.e. it satisfies (IT-SEC).

Proof

. . .

$$\begin{bmatrix} c \in C \vdash m \in \mathcal{M} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} m \in \mathcal{M} \end{bmatrix}$$
 follows from
 $\begin{bmatrix} m \in \mathcal{M} \vdash c \in C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c \in C \end{bmatrix}$ because

$$\left[c \in C \vdash m \in \mathcal{M}\right] = \frac{\left[m \in \mathcal{M}\right] \cdot \left[m \in \mathcal{M} \vdash c \in C\right]}{\left[c \in C\right]}$$

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Proof (continued)

On one hand, it is obvious that for all messages *m* and cyphertexts *c* holds

$$\left[m \in \mathcal{M} \vdash c \in \mathcal{C}\right] = \left[k = c - m \in \mathcal{K}\right] = \frac{1}{26^N}$$

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Proof (continued)

On the other hand, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{c} \in \boldsymbol{C} \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{m+k=c} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{m} \in \boldsymbol{\mathcal{M}} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{k} \in \boldsymbol{\mathcal{K}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{m} \in \boldsymbol{\mathcal{M}} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{c} - \boldsymbol{m} \in \boldsymbol{\mathcal{K}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{26^{N}} \sum_{m \in \mathcal{M}} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{m} \in \boldsymbol{\mathcal{M}} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{26^{N}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{26^{N}}$$

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Computational Diffie-Hellman Assumption (CDH)

There is no feasible probabilistic algorithm CDH : $\mathbb{F}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}$ such that for all $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ holds with a high probability

$$\mathsf{CDH}(g^a,g^b) = g^{ab}$$

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Computational Diffie-Hellman Assumption (CDH)

There is no feasible probabilistic algorithm CDH : $\mathbb{F}^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{F}$ such that for all $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ holds with a high probability

$$\mathsf{CDH}(g^a,g^b) = g^{ab}$$

Decision Diffie-Hellman Assumption (DDH)

There is no feasible prob. algorithm DDH : $\mathbb{F}^3 \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}$ such that for all $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ holds with a probability $> \frac{1}{2}$

$$\mathsf{DDH}(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \exists uv. \ x = g^u \land y = g^v \land z = g^{uv} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Proposition

El Gamal satisfies (IND-CPA) if and only if (DDH) holds. El Gamal does not safisty (IND-CCA). Security 3: Cryptography Dusko Pavlovic Channel security Encryption Cryptanalysis Guessing Elements of probability Probabilistic encryption

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Recall the definitions:

. . .

unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

secrecy (Goldwasser-Micali: "semantic security")

$$\begin{bmatrix} m_0, m_1 \in \mathbb{A}_0, c \in \mathbb{E}(m_b) \vdash \\ b \in \mathbb{A}_1(m_0, m_1, c) \end{bmatrix} \le \frac{1}{2}$$
 (IND-CPA)

for any probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A}=\langle \mathbb{A}_0,\mathbb{A}_1\rangle .$.

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Recall the definitions:

. . .

unique decryption:

$$\mathsf{D}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{D}},\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{K}_{\mathsf{E}},m)) = m$$

secrecy (under chosen cyphertext attack):

$$\begin{bmatrix} c_0 \in \mathbb{A}_0, & m \in \mathsf{D}(c_0), \\ m_0, & m_1 \in \mathbb{A}_1(c_0, m), & c \in \mathbb{E}(m_b) \end{bmatrix} \vdash \\ b \in \mathbb{A}_2(c_0, m, & m_0, m_1, c) \end{bmatrix} \leq \frac{1}{2} \quad (\mathsf{IND-CCA})$$

for any probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A}=\langle \mathbb{A}_0,\mathbb{A}_1,\mathbb{A}_2\rangle .$. .

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Security of El Gamal Proof of (DDH)⇒(IND-CPA)

Suppose ¬(IND-CPA).

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Security of El Gamal Proof of (DDH)⇒(IND-CPA)

Suppose ¬(IND-CPA).

This means that there is a feasible probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A}=\langle \mathbb{A}_0,\mathbb{A}_1\rangle$ which

- generates $m_0, m_1 \in \mathbb{A}_0(k)$, and then
- guesses $b \in \mathbb{A}_1(k, m_0, m_1, c_b)$ with a probability $> \frac{1}{2}$

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• where $c_b = E(s, k, m_b)$ for $b \in \{0, 1\}$.

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Security of El Gamal Proof of (DDH)⇒(IND-CPA)

Suppose ¬(IND-CPA).

This means that there is a feasible probabilistic algorithm $\mathbb{A}=\langle\mathbb{A}_0,\mathbb{A}_1\rangle$ which

- generates $m_0, m_1 \in \mathbb{A}_0(k)$, and then
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 - where $c_b = E(s, k, m_b)$ for $b \in \{0, 1\}$.

We construct the algorithm DDH : $\mathbb{F}^3 \longrightarrow \{0, 1\}$ to decide whether a triple $\langle x, y, z \rangle$ is in the form $\langle g^u, g^v, g^{uv} \rangle$ for some $u, v \in \mathbb{F}$.

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Security of El Gamal Proof (continued)

If the private key $K_D = u$, then EI Gamal encrypts

$$\mathsf{E}(v, g^u, m) = \langle g^v, g^{uv} \cdot m \rangle$$

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Security of El Gamal Proof (continued)

If the private key $K_D = u$, then El Gamal encrypts

$$\mathsf{E}(v, g^u, m) = \langle g^v, g^{uv} \cdot m \rangle$$

This means that

$$\mathsf{DDH}(x,y,z) = 1 \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \forall m.\mathbb{E}(x,m) = \langle y, z \cdot m \rangle$$

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Security of El Gamal Proof (continued)

If the private key $K_D = u$, then EI Gamal encrypts

$$\mathsf{E}(v, g^u, m) = \langle g^v, g^{uv} \cdot m \rangle$$

This means that

$$\mathsf{DDH}(x, y, z) = 1 \iff \forall m.\mathbb{E}(x, m) = \langle y, z \cdot m \rangle$$

But \neg (IND-CPA) says that $\mathbb{A} = \langle A_0, A_1 \rangle$ can decide the right-hand side, so that $m_0, m_1 \in A_0(x)$ gives

$$\mathsf{DDH}(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathsf{A}_1(x, m_0, m_1, \langle y, z \cdot m_0 \rangle) = 0 \\ & \text{and } \mathsf{A}_1(x, m_0, m_1, \langle y, z \cdot m_1 \rangle) = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Homework

Complete the proof of the Proposition, showing that

- ► (IND-CPA)⇒(DDH)
- (IND-CCA) does not hold.

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Outline

Information, channel security, noninterference

Encryption and decryption

Cryptanalysis and notions of secrecy

Cyphers and modes of operation

Key establishment

What did we learn?

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Information, channel security, noninterference

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Key establishment

"Programming Satan's computer" Diffie-Hellman Key Agreement Needham-Schroeder Public Key Protocol Security 3: Cryptography Dusko Pavlovic Channel security Encryption Cryptanalysis Modes Generating keys "Satan's computer" DHKA NSPK

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Key establishment



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NSPK

Where do the keys come from?

Key establishment

Traditionally, keys sent through a secure channel

messenger, direct handover, physical protection

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Key establishment

- Traditionally, keys sent through a secure channel
 - messenger, direct handover, physical protection

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- In cyberspace, there are no secure channels
 - only you and me and cryptography

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What is cyberspace?

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What is cyberspace?

- space of costless communication
 - instantaneous message delivery
 - any two nodes are neighbors: no notion of distance

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Lessons

What is cyberspace?

- space of costless communication
 - instantaneous message delivery
 - any two nodes are neighbors: no notion of distance
- end-to-end architecture (TCP, UDP)
 - simple network links
 - smart network nodes ("ends")

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What is cyberspace?

- space of costless communication
 - instantaneous message delivery
 - any two nodes are neighbors: no notion of distance
- end-to-end architecture (TCP, UDP)
 - simple network links
 - smart network nodes ("ends")
- "Satan's computer" (Ross Anderson)
 - network controlled by the adversaries: Eve, Satan
 - security only through crypto at the "ends"

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Lessons

Generate your own public key

- El Gamal: Alice generates $K = \langle g^a, a \rangle$
 - she picks K_D = a
 - computes $K_{\rm E} = g^a$ and
 - sends K_E to Bob

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Generate your own public key

- El Gamal: Alice generates $K = \langle g^a, a \rangle$
 - she picks K_D = a
 - computes $K_E = g^a$ and
 - sends K_E to Bob
- **RSA**: Alice generates $K = \langle \langle n, e \rangle, d \rangle$
 - she picks large primes p and q and sets n = pq
 - ▶ picks $e \in \mathbb{Z}^*_{(p-1)(q-1)}$
 - computes $K_D = d = e^{-1} \mod (p-1)(q-1)$
 - sends $K_E = \langle n, e \rangle$ to Bob

Problem

Eve can impersonate Alice

- Eve can generate K_E and K_D,
- send K_D to Bob
- and say "Hi, Alice here, this is my key".
 - Bob encrypts his messages to Alice by K_E
 - Eve decrypts them by K_D.

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Two party key agreement Attack on DHKA



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Bootstrapping key agreement Attack on NSPK



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Bootstrapping key agreement Attack on NSPK



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Bootstrapping key agreement Attack on NSPK



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Security 3:

NSPK was proposed by in a seminal paper in 1978.

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NSPK was proposed by in a seminal paper in 1978.

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It was often used and studied.



- NSPK was proposed by in a seminal paper in 1978.
- It was often used and studied.
- In 1996, Gavin Lowe found the attack
 - using the FDR (Failure Divergence Refinement) checker

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as a part of his project work at Comlab

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- It was often used and studied.
- In 1996, Gavin Lowe found the attack
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- as a part of his project work at Comlab
- Later he built Casper.
- More at practicals!

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Lessons about the bad information flows

- information leaks through interference of resources
 - covert channels are hard to eliminate
 - formal models help prevent Trojan intrusions

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Lessons about the bad information flows

- information leaks through interference of resources
 - covert channels are hard to eliminate
 - formal models help prevent Trojan intrusions
- secrecy is achieved in complicated ways
 - some of the "purest" maths became the most applied
 - public key crypto needed a public science of crypto

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Lessons about the bad information flows

- information leaks through interference of resources
 - covert channels are hard to eliminate
 - formal models help prevent Trojan intrusions
- secrecy is achieved in complicated ways
 - some of the "purest" maths became the most applied
 - public key crypto needed a public science of crypto
- but cryptanalysis is also hard
 - encryptions are not broken every day
 - most security failures arise from protocol failures

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- The simple insights that
 - some computations are hard to invert
 - e.g., getting p or q from pq, or a from g^a and g
 - some informations are hard to guess
 - if the source is large and unbiased

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- The simple insights that
 - some computations are hard to invert
 - e.g., getting p or q from pq, or a from g^a and g
 - some informations are hard to guess
 - if the source is large and unbiased
- point to the important lesson that
 - complexity and
 - randomness

are powerful computational resources.

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- The simple insights that
 - some computations are hard to invert
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 - some informations are hard to guess
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- point to the important lesson that
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are powerful computational resources.

The negative can be used as the positive.

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... are used to push good information flows

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- The absence of bad information flows
- is a fulcrum to move the good information flows.

... are used to push good information flows

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- The absence of bad information flows
 - "If noone can forge Alice's signature...
- ► is a fulcrum to move the good information flows.
 - ... then this message must be from Alice :)))"

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Every secret must be authenticated

- to prevent impersonation.
- Most protocol failures are authentication failures.

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Every secret must be authenticated

- to prevent impersonation.
- Most protocol failures are authentication failures.

Every authentication must be based on a secret

- (in cyberspace).
- The chicken and the egg.

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Every secret must be authenticated

- to prevent impersonation.
- Most protocol failures are authentication failures.

Every authentication must be based on a secret

- (in cyberspace).
- The chicken and the egg.

Security is always bootstrapped

- secrecy and authenticity are based on each other
- new secrets are derived from old secrets

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