



Aalto University  
School of Science

# CS-E4530 Computational Complexity Theory

Lecture 16: Cryptography

Aalto University  
School of Science  
Department of Computer Science

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# Agenda

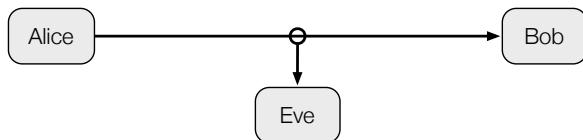
- Encryption schemes
- Computational security
- One-way functions
- Public-key encryption schemes

# Cryptography

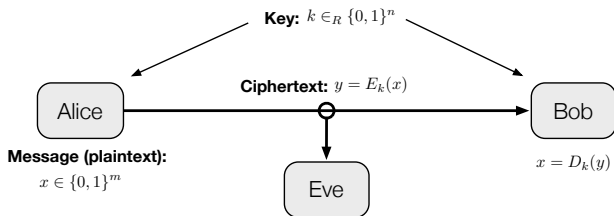
- ***Cryptography* is the study of secure communication**
  - ▶ Cryptography is *much* older than computer science
  - ▶ Traditionally, cryptography referred to the development of various ad-hoc encryption schemes
  - ▶ These schemes were usually broken sooner or later
  
- ***Modern cryptography* was born in the 1970s, when computational complexity theory was applied to cryptography**
  - ▶ Modern cryptography aims to develop *provably unbreakable* encryption schemes
  - ▶ Unbreakability is conditioned on complexity assumptions

# Encryption Schemes

- Two parties, *Alice* and *Bob*, wish to communicate in the presence of a malevolent eavesdropper *Eve*

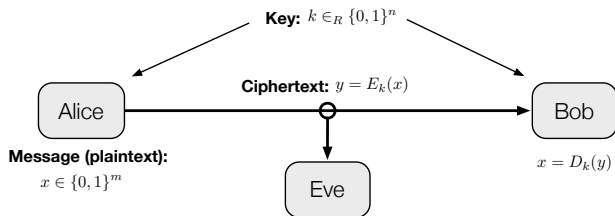


# Encryption Schemes



- **Encryption scheme** consists of two algorithms:
  - ▶ *Encryption* algorithm  $E$
  - ▶ *Decryption* algorithm  $D$
- Both algorithms are parameterised by a randomly selected **secret key**  $k \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , known to Alice and Bob
  - ▶ For all  $k \in \{0, 1\}^n$  and  $x \in \{0, 1\}^m$ , we have  $D_k(E_k(x)) = x$

# Encryption Schemes



- **Transmission of a secret message  $x$ :**
  - ▶ Alice computes ciphertext  $y = E_k(x)$
  - ▶ Alice sends  $y$  to Bob and Bob computes  $x = D_k(y)$
- **Requirements for encryption scheme  $(E, D)$ :**
  - ▶  $E$  and  $D$  are polynomial-time
  - ▶ Eve cannot obtain *any information* about  $x$  from  $y$ , even if Eve knows  $E$  and  $D$

# Perfect Secrecy

- What does

“Eve cannot obtain any information about  $x$  from  $y$ ”

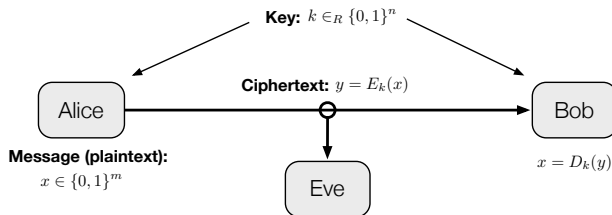
mean?

## Definition (Perfect secrecy)

Let  $(E, D)$  be an encryption scheme for messages of length  $m$  with key size  $n$ . We say that  $(E, D)$  is *perfectly secret* if for any pair of messages  $x, x' \in \{0, 1\}^m$ , the distributions  $E_{U_n}(x)$  and  $E_{U_n}(x')$  are the same, where  $U_n$  denotes the uniform distribution over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ .

- If the key is picked at random, Eve will see the same distribution of ciphertexts regardless of the actual message

# One-time Pad

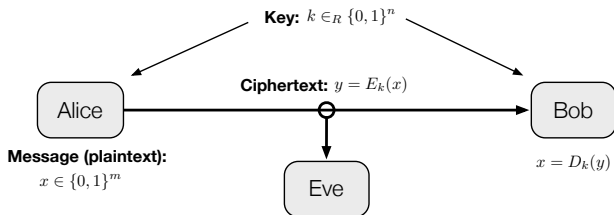


- A simple solution: *one-time pad*

- ▶ For message  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , select key  $k \in \{0, 1\}^n$  uniformly at random
- ▶ Let  $E_k(x) = x \oplus k$  and  $D_k(x) = x \oplus k$ , where  $\oplus$  is the bit-wise XOR
- ▶ Now  $D_k(E_k(x)) = (x \oplus k) \oplus k = x$



# One-time Pad



- **One-time pad satisfies perfect secrecy:**
  - ▶ If  $k$  is uniformly distributed over  $\{0, 1\}^n$ , then so is  $E_k(x)$
- **One-time pads are *one-time*:**
  - ▶ If same key  $k$  is used twice, then  $E_k(x) \oplus E_k(x') = x \oplus x'$ , which yields nontrivial information about the messages

# Computational Security

- **Perfect security means we can *fool* any adversary**
  - ▶ Perfect security requires that key length is at least message length
  - ▶ However, it is reasonable to assume that adversary has limited computational power
- ***Computational security*: aim is to fool any (randomised) polynomial-time adversary**
  - ▶ One can define various forms of computational security
  - ▶ Strength of the required security can depend on application
  - ▶ Real definitions are somewhat complicated and subtle

# Computational Security: Simple Definition

- A simple version of *computational security*:

- ▶ **Intuition:** adversary cannot guess any bit of the plaintext with probability significantly larger than  $1/2$
- ▶ **Formally:** we say that a scheme  $(E, D)$  for  $m$ -bit messages with  $n$ -bit keys is *computationally secure* if for any probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm  $A$ ,

$$\Pr_{\substack{k \in U_n \\ x \in U_m}} [A(E_k(x)) = (i, b) \text{ such that } x_i = b] \leq 1/2 + \epsilon(n),$$

where  $\epsilon(n) = n^{-\omega(1)}$ , that is,  $\epsilon(n) < n^{-c}$  for any  $c$  and for sufficiently large  $n$

# One-way Functions

- **One can show that if  $P = NP$ , then computationally secure encryption schemes do not exist**
  - ▶ Thus, modern cryptography requires  $P \neq NP$
  - ▶ Assuming  $P \neq NP$  is not quite enough, as far as we know
- **Standard assumption: *one-way functions* exist**

# One-way Functions

## Definition

A polynomial-time computable function  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  is a *one-way function* if for every probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm  $A$ ,

$$\Pr_{\substack{x \in U_n \\ y=f(x)}} [A(y) = x' \text{ such that } f(x') = y] < \varepsilon(n),$$

where  $\varepsilon(n) = n^{-\omega(1)}$ .

## Conjecture

There exists a one-way function.

# One-way Functions

- **Existence of one-way functions implies  $P \neq NP$** 
  - ▶ No one-way functions are known
- **Some candidates:**
  - ▶ *Integer multiplication*: the function  $(p, q) \mapsto pq$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are prime numbers (inverse: factoring)
  - ▶ *RSA function*:  $f_{\text{RSA}}(x, e, p, q, ) = (x^e \bmod pq, pq, e)$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are prime numbers,  $e$  is a relative prime to  $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$  and  $x < pq$  is an integer

# One-way Functions and Security

- **One-way functions are used as building block for encryption schemes**

## Theorem

*Assume one-way functions exist. Then for every  $c \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists a computationally secure encryption scheme  $(E, D)$  for  $n^c$ -bit messages with  $n$ -bit keys.*

# Pseudorandomness

- **Another application of one-way functions: *pseudorandom generators***
  - ▶ Basic idea: turn a small number of random bits into a larger number of “random-looking” bits
  - ▶ Specifically, we require that the *pseudorandom* bits cannot be distinguished from real random bits by polynomial-time algorithms
  - ▶ Lots of practical applications



# Pseudorandomness

## Definition

Let  $G: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  be a polynomial-time computable function, and let  $\ell: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  be a polynomial-time computable function with  $\ell(n) > n$ . We say that  $G$  is a *secure pseudorandom generator of stretch  $\ell(n)$*  if  $|G(x)| = \ell(|x|)$  for every  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$  and for every probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm  $A$ , we have that

$$\left| \Pr_{x \in U_n} [A(G(x)) = 1] - \Pr_{z \in U_{\ell(n)}} [A(z) = 1] \right| < \varepsilon(n),$$

where  $\varepsilon(n) = n^{-\omega(1)}$ .

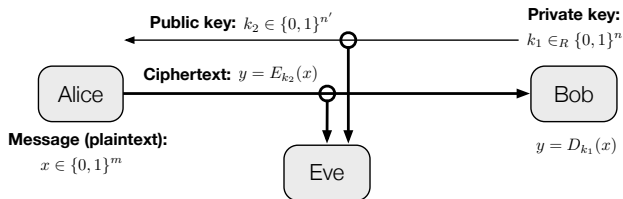
## Definition

If one-way functions exist, then there is a secure pseudorandom generator with stretch  $n^c$  for every  $c \in \mathbb{N}$ .

# Public-key Encryption

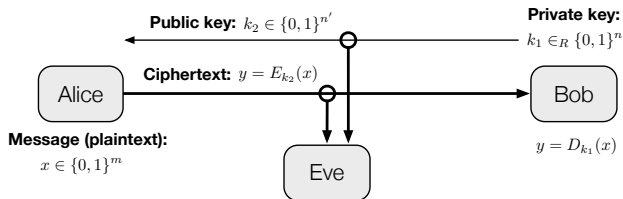
- The notion of encryption schemes we have been discussing so far is *private-key encryption*
  - ▶ Alice and Bob need to share a secret key  $k$
  - ▶ Impractical: this key needs to be shared somehow!
- Modern cryptography is based on *public-key encryption*
  - ▶ Both the algorithms  $(E, D)$  and the encryption key are known publicly

# Public-key Encryption



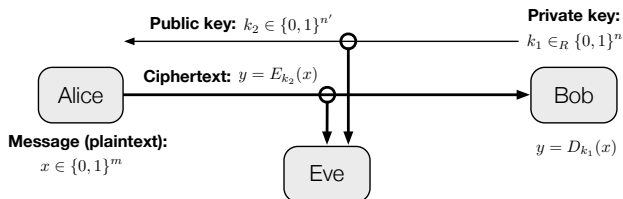
- **In public-key encryption, Bob generates two keys:**
  - ▶ A *private* key  $k_1$  and a *public* key  $k_2$
  - ▶ Bob sends the public key to Alice unencrypted
- **Alice can now send an encrypted message to Bob**
  - ▶ Alice encrypts the message as  $y = E_{k_2}(x)$
  - ▶ Bob decrypts the message as  $x = D_{k_1}(y)$

# Public-key Encryption



- **The security requirement is now:**
  - ▶ Public key should not reveal information about private key
  - ▶ Knowing public key should not reveal information about the message
- **This can be achieved using one-way functions**

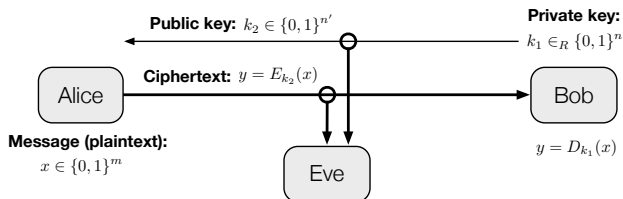
# RSA Encryption



- **Recall the definition of RSA function:**

- ▶  $f_{\text{RSA}}(x, e, p, q) = (x^e \bmod pq, pq, e)$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are prime numbers,  $e$  is a relative prime to  $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$  and  $x < pq$  is an integer
- ▶  $e$  can be selected to be a fixed prime number

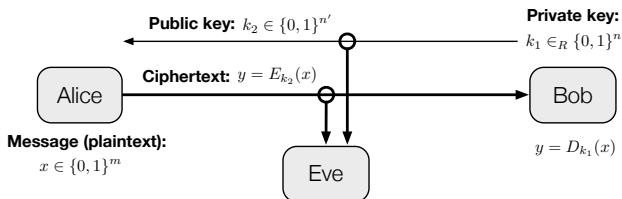
# RSA Encryption



- **The keys for the RSA system are now as follows:**

- ▶ Bob generates two large primes  $p$  and  $q$
- ▶ Bob's private key is  $k_1 = (p, q, d)$ , where  $d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(pq)$ , that is,  $ed = 1 + k\phi(pq)$  for some  $k$  (given  $p, q$  and  $e$ , one can compute  $d$  by extended Euclid's algorithm)
- ▶ Bob's public key is  $k_2 = (pq, e)$

# RSA Encryption



- Alice encrypts a message  $x$  as

$$y = x^e \bmod pq$$

- Bob decrypts a message  $y$  by

$$y^d = x^{ed} = x^{1+k\phi(pq)} = x(x^{\phi(pq)})^k = x \bmod pq,$$

where  $x^{\phi(pq)} = 1 \bmod pq$  by an extension of Fermat's theorem

# Lecture 16: Summary

- Encryption schemes
- Basic idea of computational security
- One-way functions
- Pseudorandom generators
- Public-key encryption