<u>(S 6501 Week 1: Definitions and Foundations</u>

Instructor: David Un (dwn4 Qvirginia.edu) TA: Suya (fs5xz@virginia.edu)

What this course is all about:

Zero-knowledge privots: How do you convince someone that a statement is true but not reveal anything more about the statement? What does it even mean to "know" something?

Fully homomorphic encryption: Can we compute on <u>encrypted</u> data (e.g., presure full confidentiality of the data and yet, perform arbitrary computations over the hidden data?

discrete log pairings lattices 

factoring 1976 1986 1988 2001 2005 2009 (ZKP) (MPC) (FHE) "New directions in

Cryptography" by Diffie and Hellman

Multiparty computation: "Anything that can be computed with the help of a trusted party can be Public-key cryptogrophy: computed without one!" How can two users who have never

met communicate securely over a public and untrusted network?

Cryptography started as a means of protecting <u>communication</u>. Has now evolved to also protect <u>computation</u>.

We are at an "inflection point in the development of cryptography

1. Real, large-scale deployment of "fancy" cryptography (i.e. beyond public-key cryptography)

H> Systems like Zoosh (relies on pairings-based cryptography and zero-knowledge proof systems) 2. Potential threat of quantum computers requires re-thinking much of the existing public-key cryptography

- Google recently ran pilot project implementing ring-LWE based key-exchange into Chrome (abruside traditional Diffic-Hellmu) - Ongoing NIST competition to standardize new post-quantum cryptography (expect 5-7 years to converge on new standards)

ns) so we will be starting with foundations

Course objectives: 1. Provide broad survey of modern cryptography (from a theory-focused kins) 2. Prepare you for research in cryptography L> Will likely offer an introduction to applied cryptography course next year

-> Course will be fast-paced at the beginning, but should be self-contained.

More thorough treatment of symmetric crypto and public-key crypto (especially how to use them properly in systems) will be covered in the applied crypto course.

Logistics and administrivia: Course sebsite: https://www.cs.virginia.edu/dww.4/courses/sp19 <- refer here for late day policy, homework See Piazza for announcements, Gradescope for homework submission submission instructions, office hours, notes ... Anonymous feedback form also available <- please provide feedback! Course consists of 5 problem sets, weighted equally; no exams or projects Course TA: Suya [see website for contact information]

Foundations of Modern Cryptography

Modern cryptography is study of hardness: some task should be "easy" for an honest user, but "difficult" for an adversary

e.g., if Alice encrypts a message to Bob, it should be easy for Alice to encrypt the message and for Bob to dearypt; however, should be difficult for eavesdropper who intercepts the message to decrypt

Do PRGs exist? We don't know! More difficult than resolving P vs. NP!

However, it is not hard to see that if PRGs exist, then P = NP. [Try proving this yourself]

What we can say is that if one-way functions (OWF) exist, then there exists a PRG where  $L(\lambda) = \lambda + 1$  (i.e., a PRG with a t-bit stretch) [We will explore this more thoroughly on HW1]

But what if we want PRGs with longer stretch? For example, can we build PRGs with stretch l(2) = poly(2) for arbitrary polynomials?

Blum-Micali PRG: Suppose G:  $f_{0,13}^{\lambda} \rightarrow f_{0,13}^{\lambda+1}$  is a secure PRG. We build a PRG with stretch  $l(\lambda) = p_{0}l_{y}(\lambda)$  as follows:

Why is this constructing a secure PRG?

Los Intuitively, if so is uniformly random, then G(so) = (b1, S1) is uniformly random so we can feed S1 into the PRG and take b1 as the first output bits of the PRG => iterate until we have I output bits

Theorem. If  $G: \{0_1 | 3^{\lambda} \rightarrow \{0_1 | 3^{\lambda+1}\}$  is a secure PRG, then the Blum-Micoli generator  $G^{(\ell)}: \{0_1 | 3^{\lambda} \rightarrow \{0_1 | 3^{(\lambda)}\}$  is also a secure PRG for all  $\ell = poly(\lambda)$ . <u>Proof.</u> Our goal is to show that the following distributions are computationally indistinguishable:  $D_0 = \{s_0 \in \{0_1 | 3^{\lambda} : G^{(\ell)}(s_0)\}$  $D_1 = \{t \in \{0_1 | 3^{(\lambda)} : t\}$ 

We will use a "hybrid" argument. Specifically, we first define a sequence of intermediate distributions:

Let A be an efficient distinguisher. Define  $p_i = P_r \left[ x \stackrel{\text{R}}{\leftarrow} D_{o,i} : A(x) = 1 \right]$ .

Our objective is to show that PRGAdV (A,G) = |p\_0 - pe| = negl (2).

Proof (cont.). We use the triangle inequality:

$$PRGAdu[A,G] = |p_0-p_l| = |p_0-p_1+p_1-p_2+\dots+p_{l-1}-p_l| \leq |p_0-p_1|+|p_1-p_2|+\dots+|p_{l-1}-p_l|$$

Claim. If G is a secone PRG, then for all efficient adversaries A,  $|p_i - p_{i+1}| = \text{negl}(\lambda)$ .

<u>Proof</u>. We will show the <u>contrapositive</u>: if A can distinguish distributions Do,i and Do,in, then A can break pseudorandomness of G. Suppose  $|p_i - p_{i+1}| = E$ . We use A to build a distinguisher B for G. Algorithm B overks as follows:

- 1. On input a string Z & foils 2+1, algorithm B parses Z as (bir1, Siti) where bir & foil 3 and Siti & foil 32
- 2. Sample b1, ..., bi 2 20,13.

b, = 20,13

3. Compute bi+2,..., be using Blum-Mical with seed Site. Give b, ... be to A and output whatever A outputs.

In pictures:

Two possibilities: 1. Suppose  $Z = G(s_i)$  for some  $s_i \in \{0,1\}^2$ . Then, above picture books like this:

2. Suppose z el [0,13<sup>2</sup>.<sup>1</sup> Then above picture looks like this: Si+1 el {0,13<sup>2</sup>.<sup>1</sup> Then above picture looks like this: Si+1 el {0,13<sup>2</sup>.<sup>1</sup> In this case, b1,..., be is distributed exactly

$$S_{i+1} \rightarrow G \rightarrow S_{i+2} \rightarrow G \rightarrow \cdots$$
as in distribution  $D_{0,i+1}$  and so A outputs 1  

$$b_1 \in \{0, i\} \rightarrow b_1 \in \{0, i\}$$

$$b_{i+1} \in \{0, i\}$$

$$b_{i+2} \rightarrow b_{i+3}$$
with prob.  $P_{i+1}$ 

Thus, 
$$PRGAd_{ij}[B,G] = |Pr[s \notin i_{0,i}s^{\lambda} : B(G(s))] - Pr[z \notin i_{0,i}s^{\lambda+1} : B(z) = 1]|$$
  
=  $|P_{i} - P_{i+1}|$  since B outputs whether A outputs  
=  $g$ 

Since B is efficient (assuming A is efficient), by recurity of G, PRGAdu [B,G] = negl(2). Thus, E = |p\_1-p\_{1+1}| = negl(2), and the claim follows. 🔳

To complete the proof of the main theorem, we have that

Proof Strategy recap: 1. Hybrid arguments: to argue indictinguishability of a pair of distributions, begin by identifying a simple set of intermediate distributions, and argue that each pair of adjacent distributions is indistinguishable

2 Security reduction (proof by contrapositive): To show a statement of the form "If X is secure, then Y is secure," show instead the

the statement "If Y is not secure, then X is not secure." In the proof, show that it

there exists an adversary for Y (i.e. Y is not secone), then there exists an adversary for X.

<u>Pseudorandom functions (PRFs)</u> — the "workhorse" of symmetric cryptography (will see applications next week) → PRG "compresses" a long random string into a short oeed → PRF "compresses" a random <u>function</u> into a short key

Definition. A pseudorandom function (PRF) with ky-space  $K = \{K_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ , domain  $X = \{X_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$ , and range  $Y = \{Y_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a family of efficiently-computable functions  $F = \{F_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda \in \mathbb{N}}$  where  $F_{\lambda} : K_{\lambda} \times X_{\lambda} \rightarrow Y_{\lambda}$ . We say that F is secure if for all efficient adversaries A,  $PRFAdv[A, F] = |Pr[W_{0} = 1] - Pr[W_{1} = 1] = negl(\lambda)$ , where for  $b \in \{0, 13\}$ , we define  $W_{0}$  to be the output of A in the following experiment: <u>adversary</u> <u>challenger</u> the set of all functions  $X_{\lambda}$ 

$$\frac{x \in \chi_2}{y \in y_2} \xrightarrow{f \ b = 0: \ k \stackrel{e}{\leftarrow} \chi_2 \ f_2 \ f_3 = 1: \ f \stackrel{e}{\leftarrow} Fune [\chi_2 \ f_2] \ from \ \chi_2 \rightarrow y_2 \ (this set has size |y_2|^{\chi_2}] - expanential size if b = 0: y \leftarrow F_2(k, x) \ if b = 0: y \leftarrow F_2(k, x) \ if b = 0: y \leftarrow f(k, x) \ if b = 1: y \leftarrow f(x) \ \leftarrow for notational convenience, we will often drop the security b \in \{0, 1\} \ parameter in the future (and leave it as implicitly dufined)$$

Intuitively: A PRF is secure if no efficient adversory can distinguish the input/output behavior of the PRF (with a roandom and secret) key from the outputs of a truly random function (on the same domain and range).

> Very surprising: truly random functions do not have efficient representations, and yet use can mimic the behavior of such a function using a very short seed

L> Will see many applications next week.

 $\frac{PRF \Longrightarrow PRG}{L} = \sum PRG. Suppose we have a PRF F: \frac{1}{2}0,13^{\lambda} \times \frac{1}{2}0,13^{\lambda} \longrightarrow \frac{1}{2}0,13^{\lambda$ 

(known as "counter mode")

f(1) || f(2) || ··· || f(l) is uniformly random string.

Formally, should set up a <u>reduction</u>.

<u>PRG => PRF</u>. (Goldreich-Goldwasser-Miceli). Suppose we have a <u>length-doubling</u> PRG G: {0,13<sup>2</sup> -> {0,13<sup>2</sup>}.

		3	< key	for PRF
		<b>7</b>		
	S₀	S,		
	G	G	••••••••••	
Soo	Sol	5,0	รแ	
F(s, 00)	F(s,01)	F(s,10)	F(s,11)	
2-bit PRF				

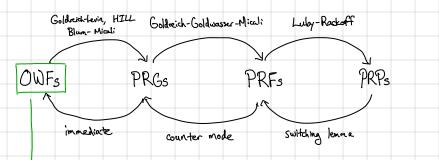
 $\rightarrow$  repeat this step n times to obtain a PRF on <u>n-bit</u> domains

Security proof: naive approach is to replace all the leaf nodes with uniformly random values

exponentially many leaf nodes, so this requires exponentially many hybrids, which is problematic

## The story so for: Symmetric primitives: OWFs, PRGs, PRFs, PRPs

All of these primitives are closely related:



" simplest " notion that captures cryptographic hardness (often considered the fundamental primitive in) Symmetric cryptography