

# CSE 484/M584: Computer Security (and Privacy)

Spring 2025

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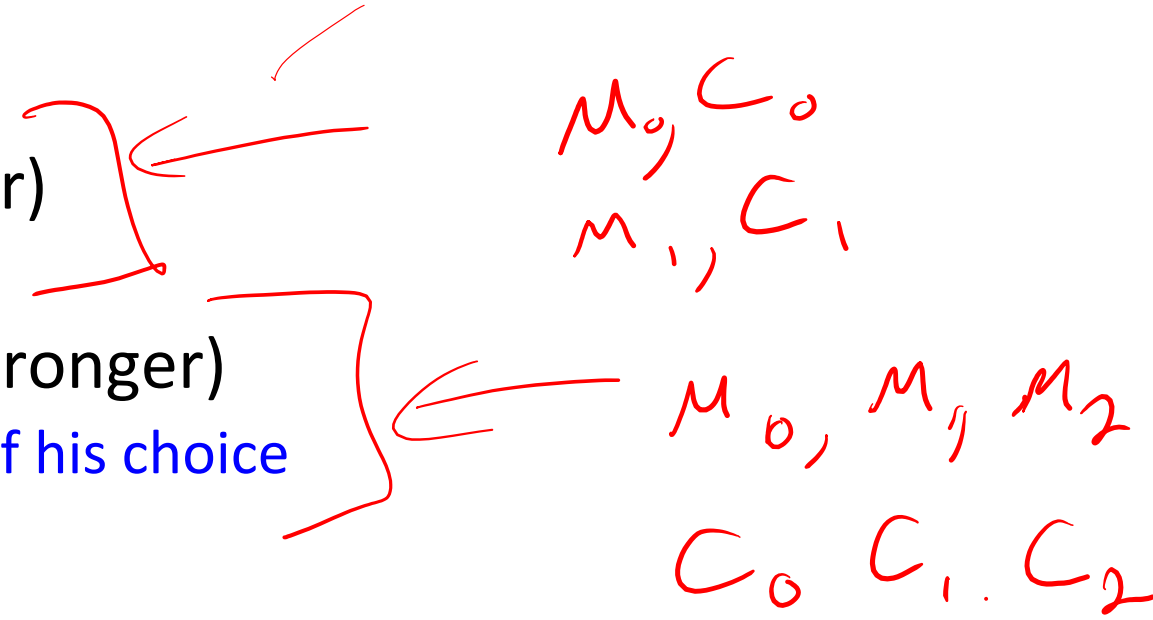
UW Instruction Team: David Kohlbrenner, Yoshi Kohno, Franziska Roesner, Nirvan Tyagi. Thanks to Dan Boneh, Dieter Gollmann, Dan Halperin, John Manferdelli, John Mitchell, Vitaly Shmatikov, Bennet Yee, and many others for sample slides and materials

# Admin

- HW1 due Wednesday
- Lab 2 (Cryptolab) next Wednesday
  - Note there was an update to the short answer CTR question (there is an oracle you can interact with now!)
  - Start now if you haven't!
- Lab 1a/b Exploits
  - Check partner handin status ASAP!
  - We will file CSSC cases shortly

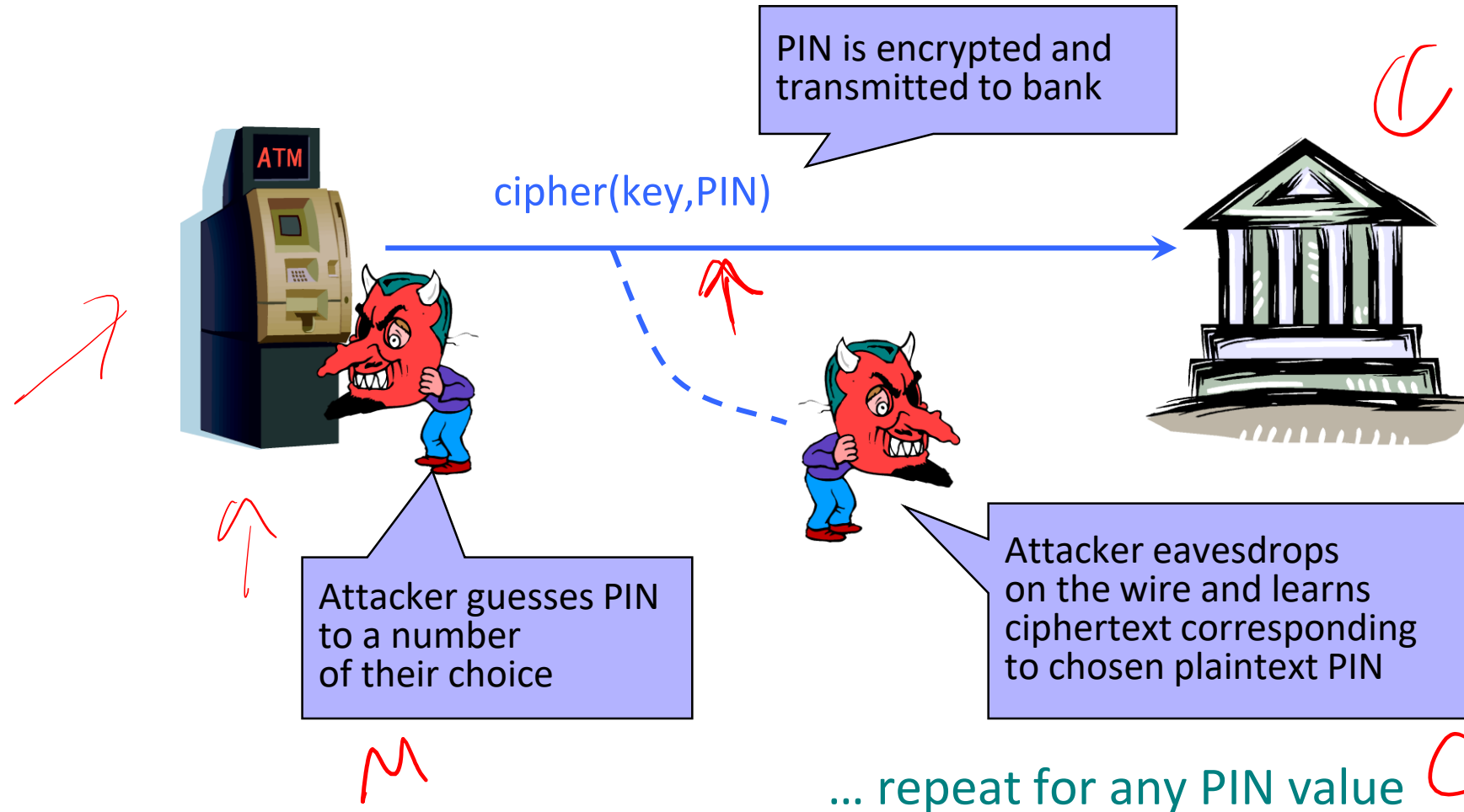
# How Can a Cipher Be Attacked?

- Attackers knows ciphertext and encryption algorithm
  - What else does the attacker know? Depends on the application in which the cipher is used!
- Ciphertext-only attack
- KPA: Known-plaintext attack (stronger)
  - Knows some plaintext-ciphertext pairs
- CPA: Chosen-plaintext attack (even stronger)
  - Can obtain ciphertext for any plaintext of his choice



# Chosen Plaintext Attack

C P A



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  - Knows some plaintext-ciphertext pairs
- CPA: Chosen-plaintext attack (even stronger) ✓
  - Can obtain ciphertext for any plaintext of his choice
- CCA: Chosen-ciphertext attack (very strong) ✓
  - Can decrypt any ciphertext except the target

$C_x$

$C_0 C_1$

$C_0 C_1 C_2$   
 $M_0 M_1 M_2$

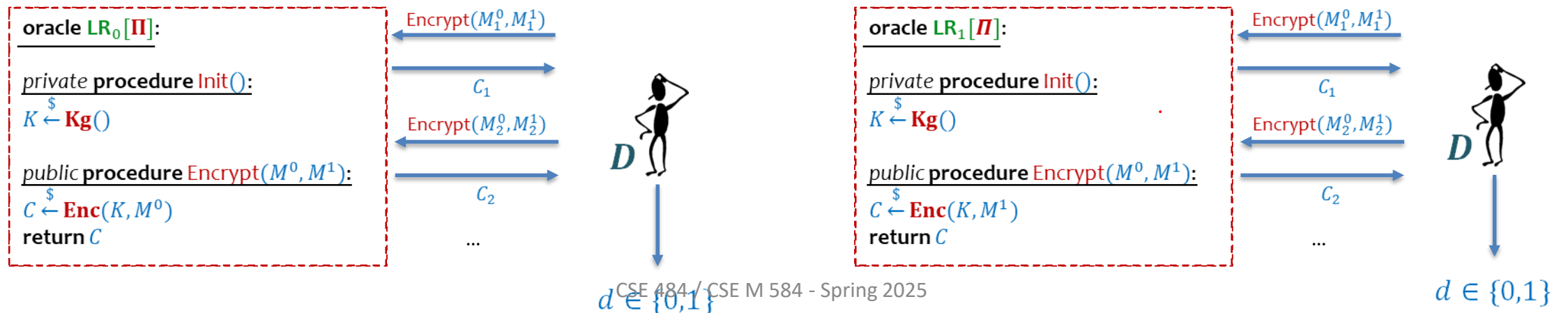
# Very Informal Intuition

Minimum security  
requirement for a  
modern encryption scheme

- Security against chosen-plaintext attack (CPA)
  - Ciphertext leaks no information about the plaintext ←
  - Even if the attacker correctly guesses the plaintext, they cannot verify their guess ↯
  - Every ciphertext is unique, encrypting same message twice produces completely different ciphertexts
    - Implication: encryption must be randomized or stateful



# The Shape of the Formal Approach

- INDistinguishability under Chosen Plaintext Attack (“IND-CPA”)
- Formalized cryptographic game
  - Adversary submits pairs of plaintexts ( $M_0, M_1$ )
  - Gets back ONE of the ciphertexts ( $C_b$ )
  - Adversary must **guess** which ciphertext this is ( $C_0$  or  $C_1$ )
  - If they can do better than 50/50, they win







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- Security against chosen-ciphertext attack (CCA) 
  - Integrity protection – it is not possible to change the plaintext by modifying the ciphertext 

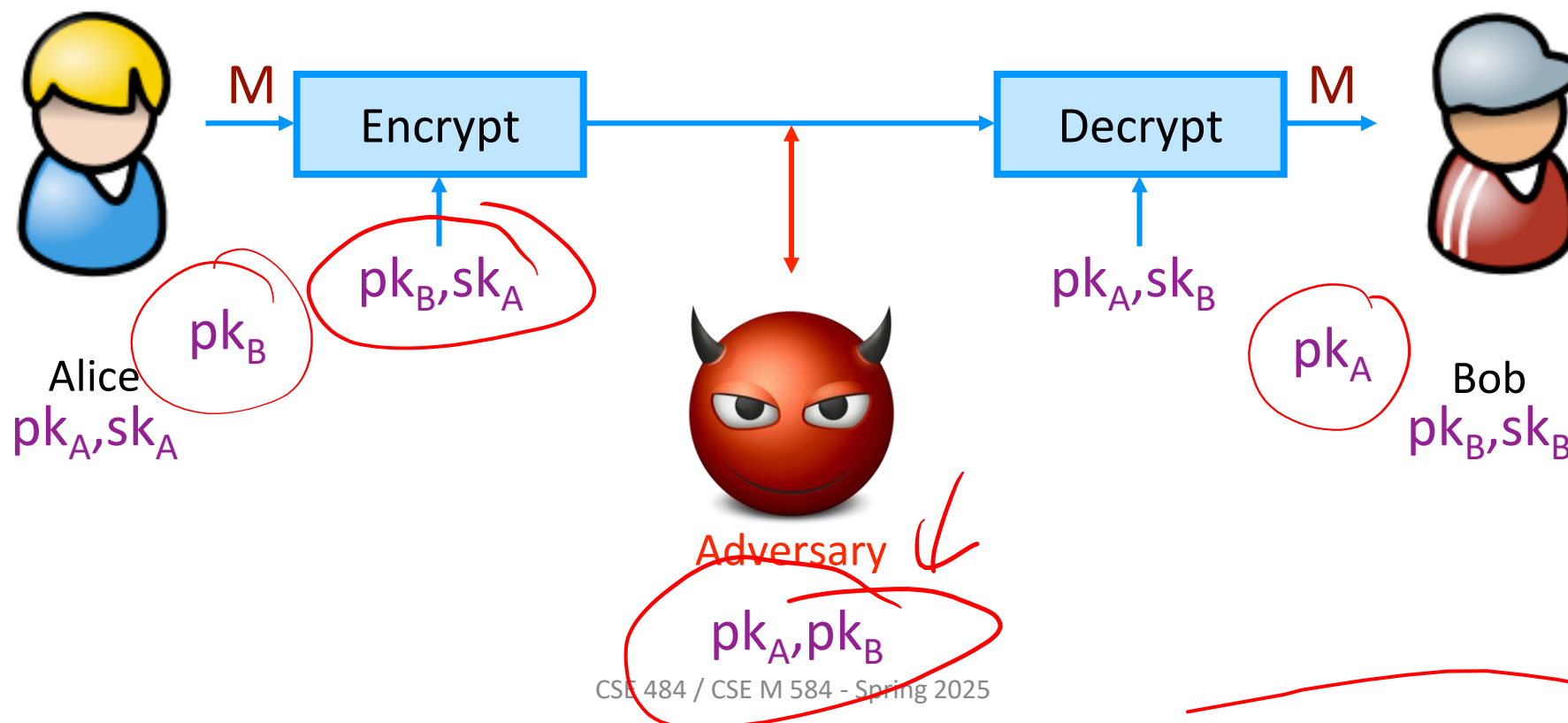


# Flavors of Cryptography

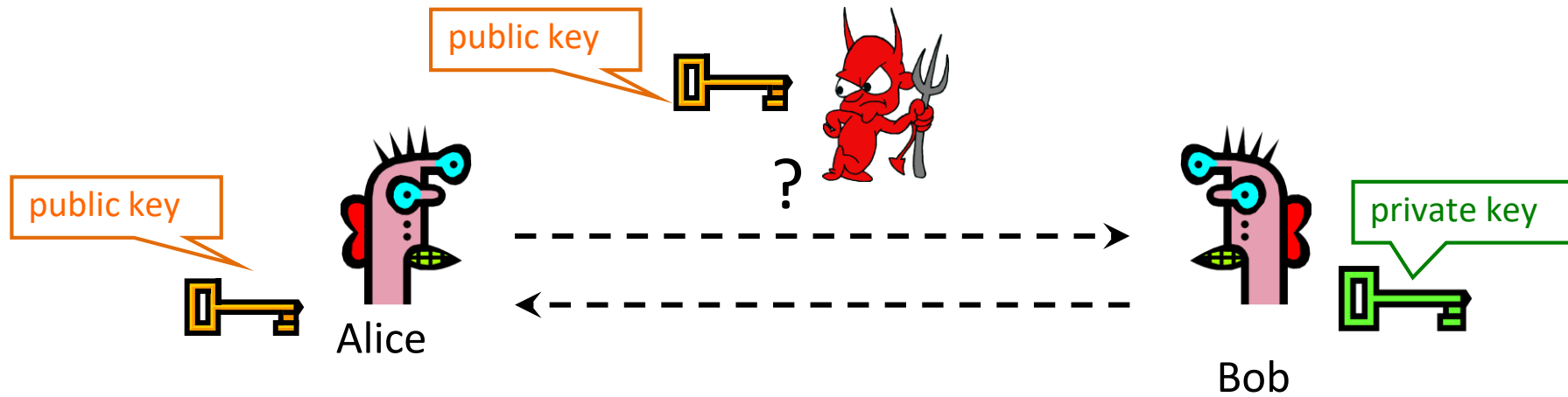
- Symmetric cryptography 
  - Both communicating parties have access to a **shared random string**  $K$ , called the **key**.
- Asymmetric cryptography 
  - Each party creates a public key  $pk$  and a secret key  $sk$ .  
 

# Asymmetric Setting for Encryption

Each party creates a public key  $pk$  and a secret key  $sk$



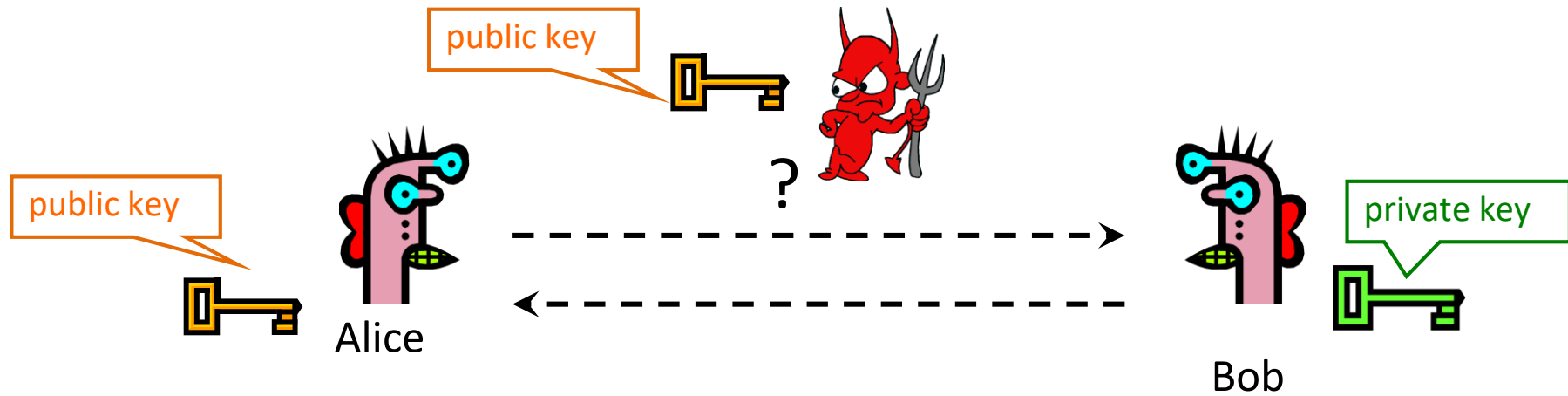
# Public Key Crypto: Basic Problem



Given: Everybody knows Bob's **public key**  
Only Bob knows the corresponding **private key**

Goals: 1. Alice wants to send a secret message to Bob  
2. Bob wants to authenticate a message

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Given: Everybody knows Bob's **public key**  
Only Bob knows the corresponding **private key**

Ignore for now: How do we know it's REALLY Bob's??

Goals: 1. Alice wants to send a secret message to Bob  
2. Bob wants to authenticate a message

# Applications of Public Key Crypto

- Encryption for confidentiality
  - Anyone can encrypt a message
    - With symmetric crypto, must know secret key to encrypt
  - Only someone who knows private key can decrypt
  - Key management is simpler (or at least different)
    - Secret is stored only at one site: good for open environments
- Digital signatures for integrity
  - Can “sign” a message with your private key

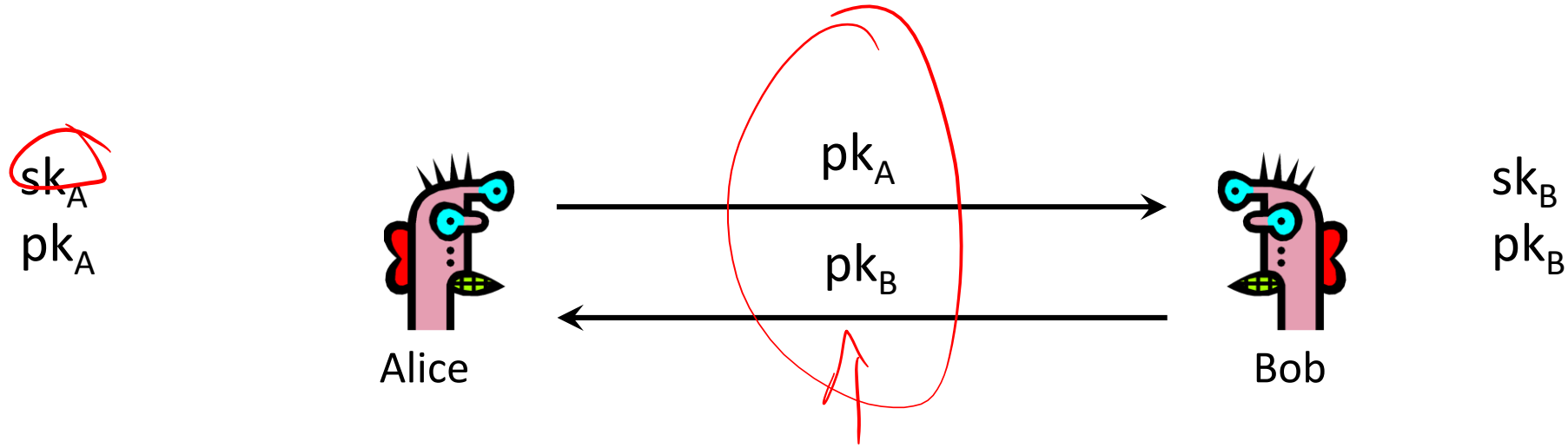
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- Session key establishment / “Key exchange”
  - Exchange messages to create a secret session key
  - Then switch to symmetric cryptography (why?)



K

# Key Exchange



Compute shared secret  $k = \text{KEx}(sk_A, pk_B)$

Compute shared secret  $k = \text{KEx}(sk_B, pk_A)$

# Groups

- Group: A set  $G$  of elements and an operation  $\oplus$  such that:

- Associative:  $(a \oplus b) \oplus c = a \oplus (b \oplus c)$

- Identity:  $a \oplus I = a$

- Inverse:  $a \oplus a^{-1} = I$

Notation:  $a^2 = \underbrace{a \oplus a}$ ,  $a^3 = a \oplus a \oplus a$ , ...



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- Order: Number of elements in group

- Optional useful property: Cyclic:  $\{g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{\text{order}}\} = G$  for “generator”  $g$

Notation:  $a^2 = a \oplus a$ ,  $a^3 = a \oplus a \oplus a$ , ...

$g, g \oplus g, g \oplus g \oplus g$

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- Example Group 1: Additive Group of Integers Modulo  $n$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_n$  or  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ )
  - Special case:  $n = p$  where  $p$  is a prime ( $\mathbb{Z}_p$ )
  - $G = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$
  - $\oplus = + \bmod p$

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$p \bmod p$

$\mathbb{Z}_n$

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- Example Group 2: Multiplicative Group of Integers Modulo  $n$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  or  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^*$ )
  - Special case:  $n = p$  where  $p$  is a prime
  - $G = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$
  - $\oplus = * \bmod p$

Notation:  $a^2 = a \oplus a$ ,  $a^3 = a \oplus a \oplus a$ , ...

$\mathbb{Z}_p^*$   
↑  
 $\mathbb{Z}$

# Common Groups Under Modular Arithmetic

- Additive Group of Integers Modulo prime  $p$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_p$ )
  - Example:  $p=11$
  - Can we find a generator?

+ mod 11

$$g = 10$$

$$10 \bmod 11 = 10$$

$$g^2 (10+10) \bmod 11 = 9$$

$$g^3 (10+10+10) \bmod 11 = 8$$

$$g^4 \quad 7$$
$$g^5$$

# Common Groups Under Modular Arithmetic

- Additive Group of Integers Modulo prime  $p$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_p$ )
  - Example:  $p=11$
  - Can we find a generator?
  - ALL non-identity elements are generators for prime-order groups!

# Common Groups Under Modular Arithmetic

$$G = \{1, \dots, p-1\}$$

- Multiplicative Group of Integers Modulo prime  $p$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ )
  - Example:  $p=11$
  - Can we find a generator?

$$2, 4, 8, 16,$$

$$2, 4, 8, 5, 10, 9, 7, 3, 6$$

$$7, 5, 2, 3, 10, 4, 6, 8, 1$$

$$7, 9, 9$$

✓

$$g^{??}$$

$$g^1$$

$$g^2$$

$$g^3$$

$$\dots$$

$$a \oplus b =$$

$$a * b \bmod p$$

$$7, 10$$

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gradescope!

# Hardness Assumptions Over Groups



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- Discrete Logarithm (DL) problem over  $G$  for random generator  $g$ :
  - Pick random  $x \leftarrow \{1, 2, \dots, \text{order}\}$
  - Compute  $X = g^x$
  - Problem: Given  $g$  and  $X$ , compute  $x$

$$X = 9$$
$$g = 7$$

$$g^x = 9 \pmod{11}$$

$$X = g^x$$

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- **Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH)** problem:
  - Pick random  $x, y \leftarrow \{1, 2, \dots, \text{order}\}$  ←
  - Compute  $X = g^x$  and  $Y = g^y$
  - Problem: Given  $g, X$ , and  $Y$ , compute  $g^{xy}$  ←

x

y

g

# Key Generation

$\mathbb{Z}_p^*$

- Public info on group  $G$ : order  $p$  and generator  $g$



Alice

Pick secret key  $sk \leftarrow \{1, 2, \dots, p\}$

Set public key  $pk \leftarrow g^{sk}$

# Diffie-Hellman Protocol

- Alice and Bob never met and share no secrets
- Public info on group  $G$ : order  $p$  and generator  $g$



$$\begin{aligned} sk_A &\leftarrow x \\ pk_A &\leftarrow g^x \end{aligned}$$



Alice



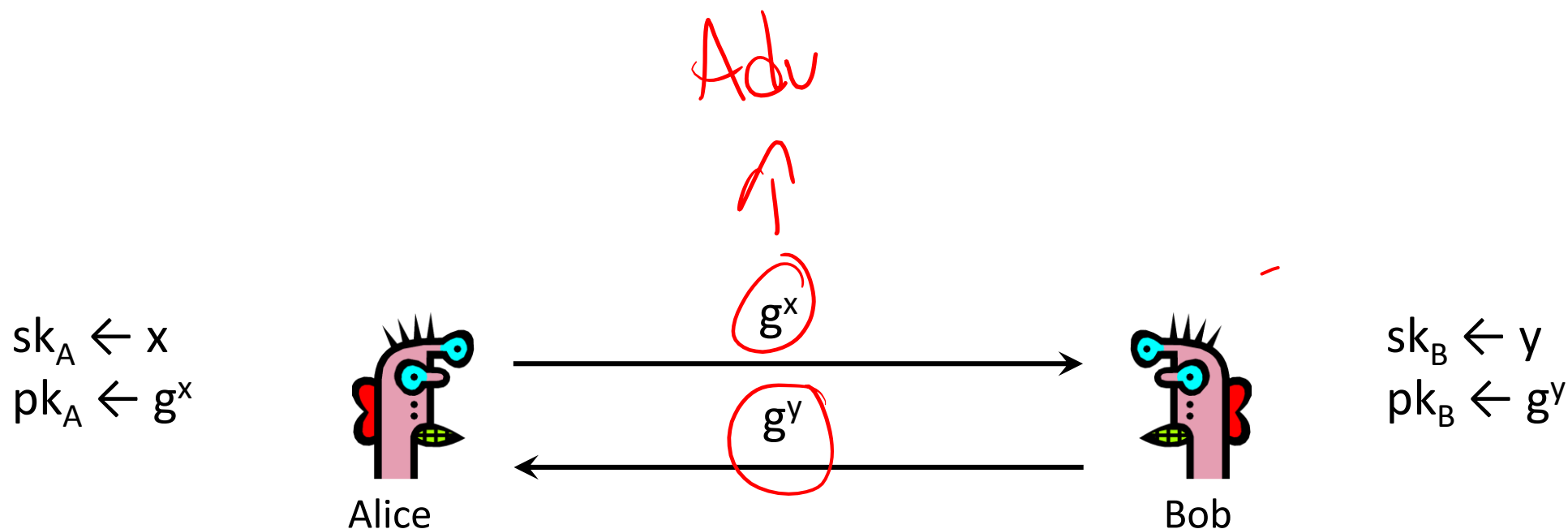
Bob

$$\begin{aligned} sk_B &\leftarrow y \\ pk_B &\leftarrow g^y \end{aligned}$$



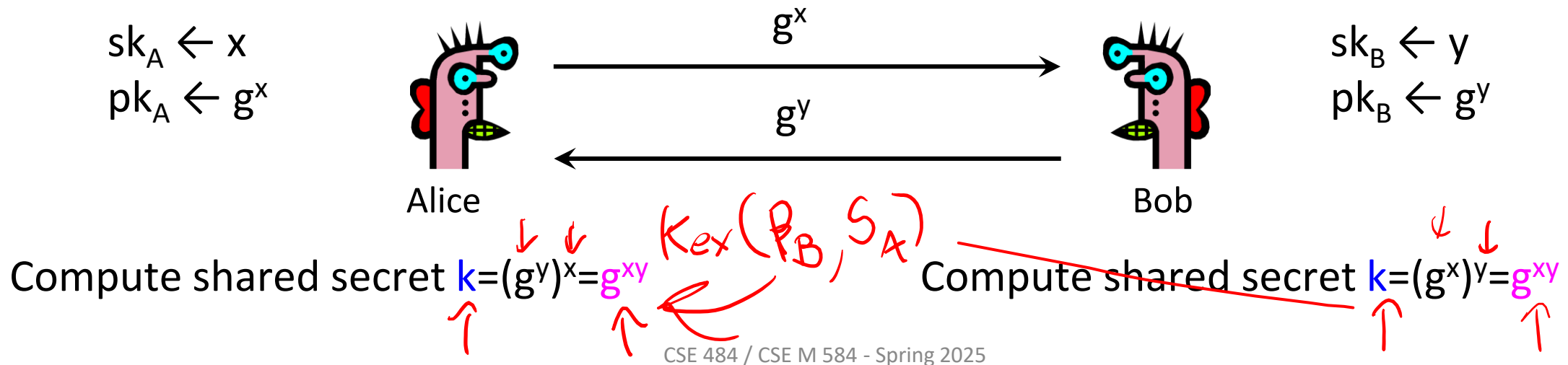
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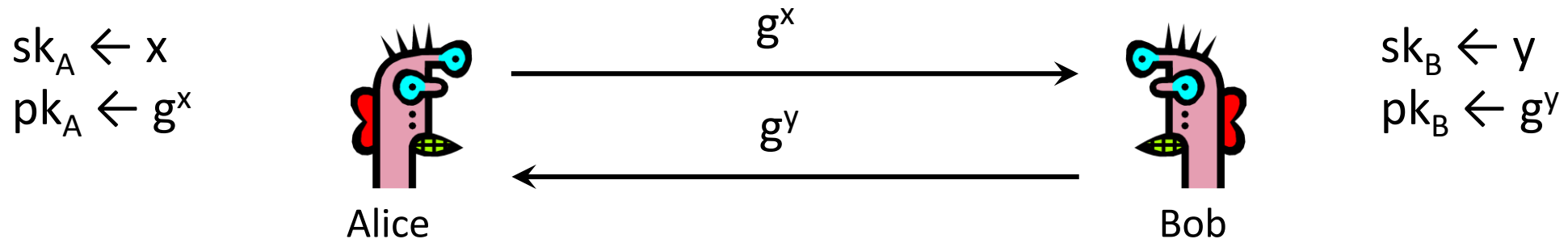
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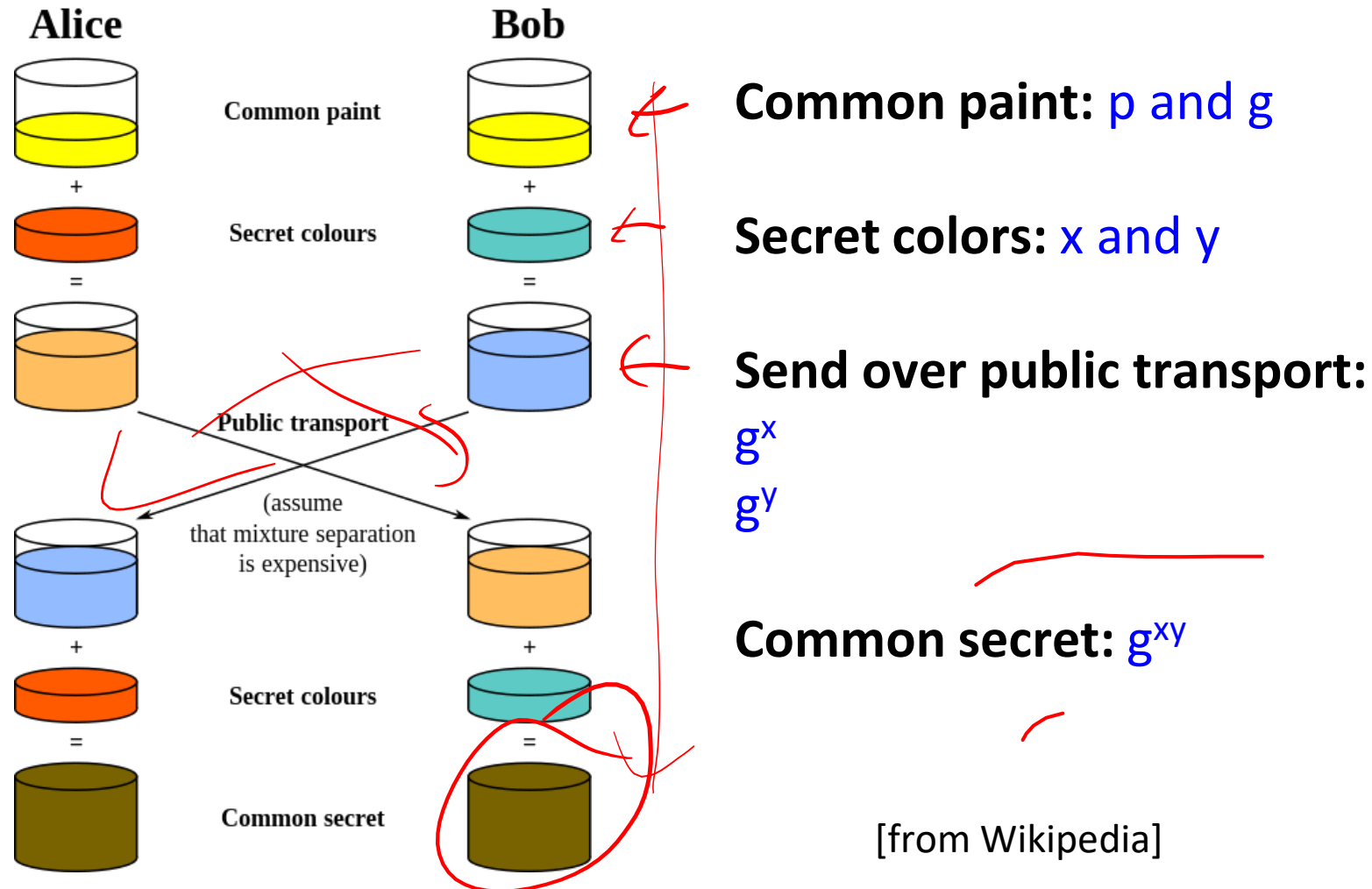
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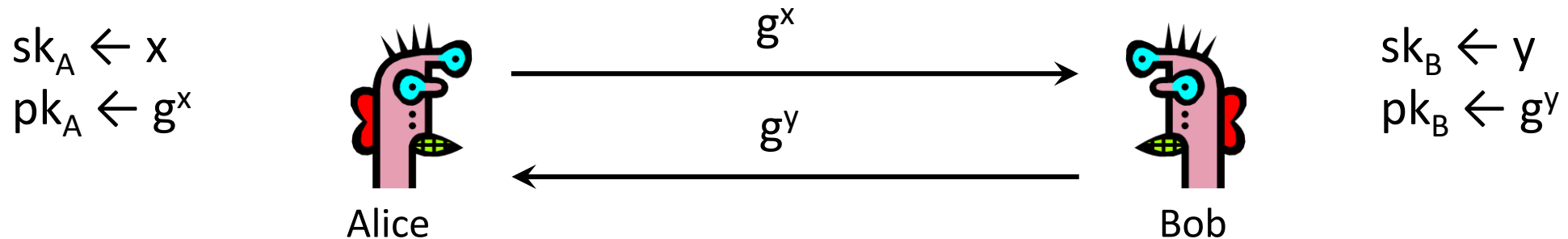
# Diffie-Hellman: Conceptually





# Why is Diffie-Hellman Secure?

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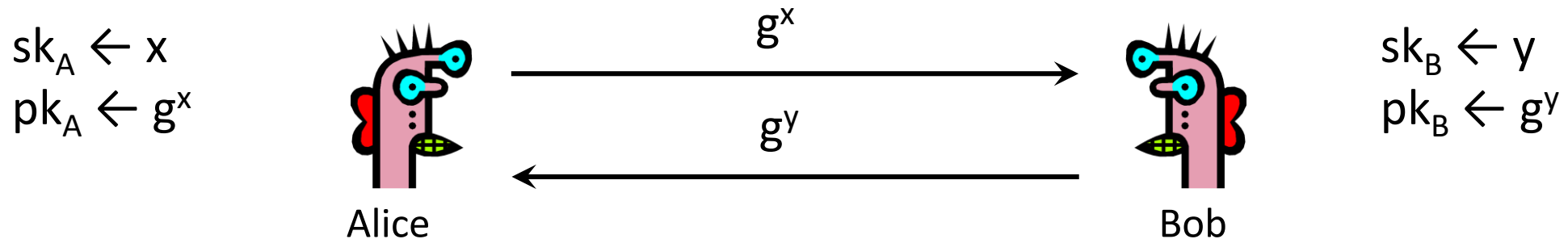
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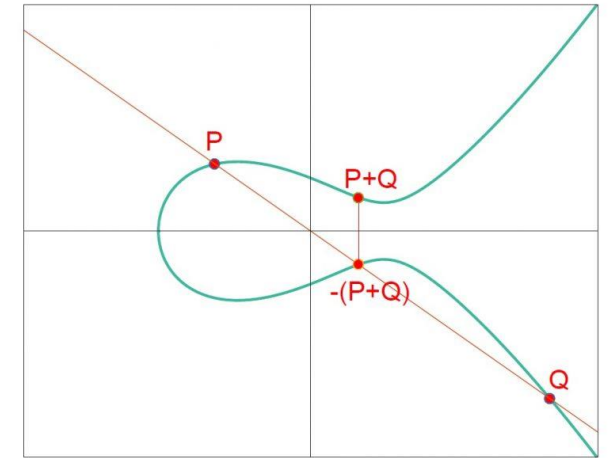
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- Caveat: Assumption doesn't hold or holds differently for different groups!
  - For  $\sim 128$  bits of security:
  - $\mathbb{Z}_p$ : Not secure! Discrete log just corresponds to modular division!
  - $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ : 2048-4096 bit prime SAFE  $p = 2q+1$  for prime  $q$ , use generator for subgroup of size  $q$

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  - Elliptic curves:  $(x,y)$  coordinates in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  for 256 bit prime  $p$



# Person-in-the-Middle Attacks

- Diffie-Hellman protocol (by itself) does not provide integrity (against active attackers)



# Stepping Back: Asymmetric Crypto

- We've just seen session key establishment
  - Can then use shared key for symmetric crypto
- Next: public key encryption
  - For confidentiality
- Then: digital signatures
  - For integrity