

# COS433/Math 473: Cryptography

Mark Zhandry

Princeton University

Spring 2017

# Announcements

Homework 5 Up

- Due April 4

Today

Number Theory

# So Far...

Two ways to construct cryptographic schemes:

- Use others as building blocks
  - PRGs  $\rightarrow$  Stream ciphers
  - PRFs  $\rightarrow$  PRPs
  - PRFs/PRPs  $\rightarrow$  CPA-secure Encryption
  - ...
- From scratch
  - RC4, DES, AES, etc

In either case, ultimately scheme or some building block built from scratch

# Cryptographic Assumptions

Security of schemes built from scratch relies solely on our inability to break them

- No security proof
- Perhaps arguments for security

We gain confidence in security over time if we see that nobody can break scheme

# Number-theory Constructions

Goal: base security on hard problems of interest to mathematicians

- Wider set of people trying to solve problem
- Longer history

# Discrete Log

# Discrete Log

Let  $p$  be a large integer (maybe prime)

Given  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , easy to compute  $g^a \bmod p$

- Time  **$\text{poly}(\log a, \log p)$**

However, no known efficient ways to recover  $a$  from  $g$  and  $g^a \bmod p$



**Discrete Log Assumption:** Let  $p$  be a  $\lambda$ -bit integer.

Then the function  $(g, a) \rightarrow (g, g^a \bmod p)$  is one-way, where

- $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$
- $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{\Phi(p)}$

# Generalizing Discrete Log

Let  $\mathbf{G}_\lambda$  be multiplicative groups of size  $n_\lambda$

**Definition:** The discrete log assumption holds on  $\{\mathbf{G}_\lambda\}$  if the function  $\mathbf{F}:\mathbf{G}_\lambda \times \{0, \dots, n_\lambda - 1\} \rightarrow \mathbf{G}_\lambda^2$  is one-way, where

$$\mathbf{F}(g, a) = (g, g^a)$$

Plausible examples:

- $\mathbf{G} = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  for a prime  $p$ ,  $n = p-1$
- $\mathbf{G} =$  subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order  $q$ , where  $q \mid p-1$
- $\mathbf{G} =$  "elliptic curve groups"

# Non-example

**G** = additive group of integers mod **p**

- $g * h = g + h \pmod{p}$

- $g^{-1} = -g \pmod{p}$

- $g^a = g * g * g \dots * g \pmod{p} = ag \pmod{p}$

Discrete log?

# Generalizing Discrete Log

Often, the group  $\mathbf{G}$  will be:

- Cyclic:  $\mathbf{G} = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{|\mathbf{G}|-1}\}$ ,  $g$  is a “generator”
- Of prime size

This means that every element except for the identity is a generator of  $\mathbf{G}$

- $\mathbf{G} = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^p\}$

# Hardness of Discrete Log

Brute force search:  $O(n)$

Better generic algorithm:  $O(n^{1/2})$

- Known to be optimal for generic algorithms

Much better algorithms are known for  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$   
 $\exp( C (\log p)^{1/3} (\log \log p)^{2/3} )$   
(still super-polynomial)

For elliptic curves, best known attack is  $O(n^{1/2})$

# Applications of Discrete Log

One-way functions

Collision resistance

- Key space =  $\mathbf{G}^2$ ,  $\mathbf{G}$  has prime order  $\mathbf{p}$
- Domain:  $\mathbb{Z}_p^2$
- Range:  $\mathbf{G}$
- $\mathbf{H}((g,h), (x,y)) = g^x h^y$

# Collision Resistance from Discrete Log

$$H( (g,h), (x,y) ) = g^x h^y$$

**Theorem:** If the discrete log assumption holds on  $G$ , then  $H$  is collision resistant

Goal: show that from collision, can compute discrete log of  $g$  and  $h$ :  $a$  where  $h=g^a$

# Blum-Micali PRG

Let  $\mathbf{G} = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$

Let  $\mathbf{g}$  be a generator of  $\mathbf{G}$

Let  $\mathbf{h}: \mathbf{G} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  be  $\mathbf{h}(x) = 1$  if  $0 < x < (p-1)/2$

Seed space:  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$

Algorithm:

- Let  $\mathbf{x}_0$  be seed
- For  $\mathbf{i} = 0, \dots$ 
  - Let  $\mathbf{x}_{i+1} = \mathbf{g}^{\mathbf{x}_i} \bmod p$
  - Output  $\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}_i)$



**Theorem:** If the discrete log assumption holds on  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , then the Blum-Micali generator is a secure PRG

We will prove this next time

# Stronger Assumptions on Groups

Sometimes, the discrete log assumption is not enough

Instead, define stronger assumptions on groups

Computational Diffie-Hellman:

- Given  $(g, g^a, g^b)$ , compute  $g^{ab}$

Decisional Diffie-Hellman:

- Distinguish  $(g, g^a, g^b, g^c)$  from  $(g, g^a, g^b, g^{ab})$

# Hard Problems on Groups

Increasing Difficulty 

DLog:

- Given  $(g, g^a)$ , compute  $a$

CDH:

- Given  $(g, g^a, g^b)$ , compute  $g^{ab}$

DDH:

- Distinguish  $(g, g^a, g^b, g^c)$  from  $(g, g^a, g^b, g^{ab})$

Stronger Assumptions 

# Another PRG

Group  $\mathbf{G}$  of order  $\mathbf{p}$

Seed space:  $\mathbb{Z}_p^2$

Range:  $\mathbf{G}^3$

$\mathbf{PRG}(a,b) = (g^a, g^b, g^{ab})$

# Naor-Reingold PRF

Domain:  $\{0,1\}^n$

Key space:  $\mathbb{Z}_p^{n+1}$

Range:  $\mathbf{G}$

$$F( (a, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n), x ) = g^{a b_1^{x_1} b_2^{x_2} \dots b_n^{x_n}}$$

**Theorem:** If the discrete log assumption holds on  $\mathbf{G}$ , then the Naor-Reingold PRF is secure

# Proof by Hybrids

Hybrids **0**:  $H(x) = g^a b_1^{x_1} b_2^{x_2} \dots b_n^{x_n}$

Hybrid **i**:  $H(x) = H_i(x_{[1,i]}) b_{i+1}^{x_{i+1}} \dots b_n^{x_n}$

•  $H_i$  is a random function from  $\{0,1\}^i \rightarrow G$

Hybrid **n**:  $H(x)$  is truly random

# Proof

Suppose adversary can distinguish Hybrid  **$i-1$**  from Hybrid  **$i$**  for some  **$i$**

Easy to construct adversary that distinguishes:

$$\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}_i(\mathbf{x}) \text{ from } \mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{H}_{i-1}(\mathbf{x}_{[1,i-1]}) \mathbf{b}^{\mathbf{x}_i}$$

# Proof

Suppose adversary makes  **$2q$**  queries

- Assume wlog that queries are in pairs  **$x||0, x||1$**

What does the adversary see?

- **$H_i(x)$** :  **$2q$**  random elements in  **$G$**

- **$H_{i-1}(x_{[1,i-1]})^{b_i^{x_i}}$**  :  **$q$**  random elements in  **$G$** ,  **$h_1, \dots, h_q$**   
as well as  **$h_1^b, \dots, h_q^b$**



**Lemma:** Assuming the DDH assumption on  $\mathbf{G}$ , for any polynomial  $q$ , the following distributions are indistinguishable:

$$(g, g^{x_1}, g^{y_1}, \dots, g^{x_q}, g^{y_q}) \text{ and} \\ (g, g^{x_1}, g^{b \cdot x_1}, \dots, g^{x_q}, g^{b \cdot x_q})$$

Suffices to finish proof of NR-PRF

# Proof of Lemma

Hybrids **0**:  $(g, g^{x_1}, g^{b \cdot x_1}, \dots, g^{x_q}, g^{b \cdot x_q})$

Hybrid **i**:

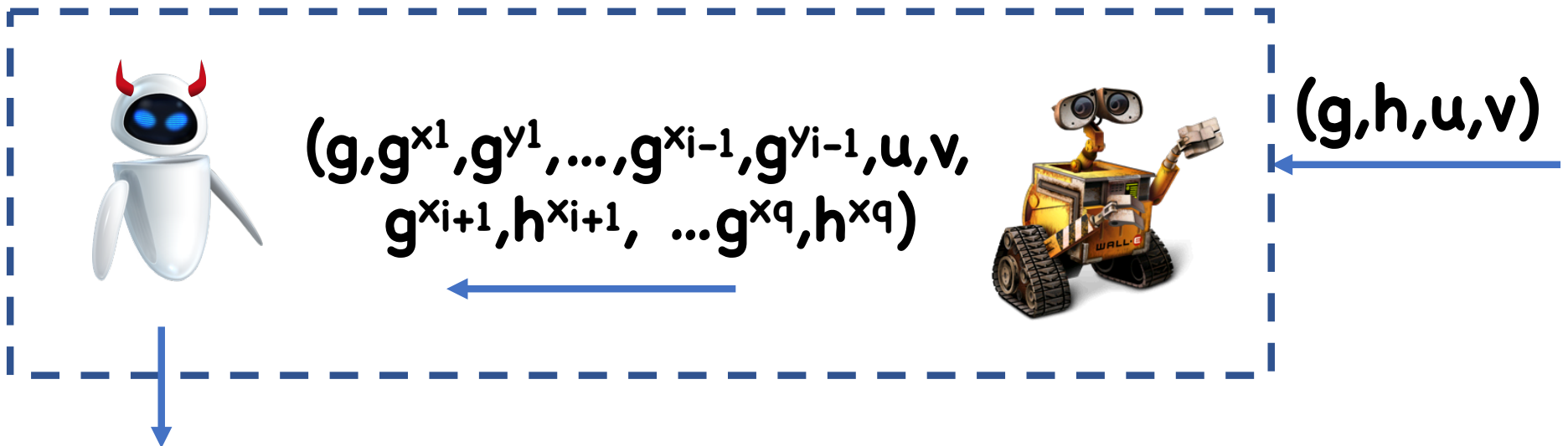
$(g, g^{x_1}, g^{y_1}, \dots, g^{x_i}, g^{y_i}, g^{x_{i+1}}, g^{b \cdot x_{i+1}}, \dots, g^{x_q}, g^{b \cdot x_q})$

Hybrid **q**:  $(g, g^{x_1}, g^{y_1}, \dots, g^{x_q}, g^{y_q})$

# Proof of Lemma

Suppose adversary distinguishes Hybrid  $i-1$  from Hybrid  $i$

Use adversary to break DDH:



# Proof of Lemma

$(g, g^{x_1}, g^{y_1}, \dots, g^{x_{i-1}}, g^{y_{i-1}}, u, v, g^{x_{i+1}}, h^{x_{i+1}}, \dots, g^{x_q}, h^{x_q})$

If  $(g, h, u, v) = (g, g^b, g^{x_i}, g^{b \cdot x_i})$ , then Hybrid  $i-1$

If  $(g, h, u, v) = (g, g^b, g^{x_i}, g^{y_i})$ , then Hybrid  $i$

Therefore, 's advantage is the same as 's

# Further Applications

From NR-PRF can construct:

- CPA-secure encryption
- Block Ciphers
- MACs
- Authenticated Encryption

# Parameter Size in Practice?

$\mathbf{G}$  = subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order  $\mathbf{q}$ , where  $\mathbf{q} \mid \mathbf{p}-1$

- In practice, best algorithms require  $\mathbf{p} \geq 2^{1024}$  or so

- $\mathbf{G}$  = "elliptic curve groups"

- Can set  $\mathbf{p} \approx 2^{256}$  to have security

  - $\Rightarrow$  best attacks run in time  $2^{128}$

Therefore, elliptic curve groups tend to be much more efficient  $\Rightarrow$  shift to using in practice

# Integer Factorization

# Integer Factorization

Given an integer **N**, factor **N** into its prime factors

Studied for centuries, presumed computationally difficult

- Grade school algorithm:  $O(N^{1/2})$
- Much better algorithms:  
 $\exp( C (\log N)^{1/3} (\log \log N)^{2/3} )$
- However, all require super-polynomial time



**Factoring Assumption:** Let  $\mathbf{p}$ ,  $\mathbf{q}$  be two random  $\lambda$ -bit primes, and  $\mathbf{N} = \mathbf{pq}$ . Then any PPT algorithm, given  $\mathbf{N}$ , has at best a negligible probability of recovering  $\mathbf{p}$  and  $\mathbf{q}$

# One-way Functions From Factoring

$$P_\lambda = \{\lambda\text{-bit primes}\}$$

$$F: P_\lambda^2 \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{2\lambda}$$

$$F(p,q) = p \times q$$

**Trivial Theorem:** If factoring assumption holds, then **F** is one-way

# Sampling Random Primes

**Prime Number Theorem:** A random  $\lambda$ -bit number is prime with probability  $\approx 1/\lambda$

**Primality Testing:** It is possible in polynomial time to decide if an integer is prime

Fermat Primality Test (randomized, some false positives):

- Choose a random integer  $\mathbf{a} \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$
- Test if  $\mathbf{a}^N = \mathbf{a} \bmod N$
- Repeat many times

# Another OWF

Fix a large integer  $N = pq$

- Primes  $p, q$  random, unknown

$$F_N(x) = x^2 \bmod N$$

**Theorem:** If the factoring assumption holds, then  $F$  is one-way: given  $y$ , computationally infeasible to compute an  $x$  such that  $x^2 = y \bmod N$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

Let  $N = pq$  for distinct prime  $p, q$

Let  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p, y \in \mathbb{Z}_q$

Then there exists a unique integer  $z \in \mathbb{Z}_N$  such that

- $x = z \bmod p$ , and
- $y = z \bmod q$

Proof:  $z = [py(p^{-1} \bmod q) + qx(q^{-1} \bmod p)] \bmod N$

# Quadratic Residues

**Definition:**  $y$  is a quadratic residue mod  $N$  if there exists an  $x$  such that  $y = x^2 \pmod{N}$ .  $x$  is called a “square root” of  $y$

Ex:

- Let  $p$  be a prime, and  $y \neq 0$  a quadratic residue mod  $p$ . How many square roots?
- Let  $N=pq$  be the product of two primes,  $y$  a quadratic residue mod  $N$ . Suppose  $y \neq 0 \pmod{p}$  and  $y \neq 0 \pmod{q}$ . How many square roots?

# Another OWF


Fix a large integer  $N = pq$

- Primes  $p, q$  random, unknown


$$F_N(x) = x^2 \bmod N$$

**Theorem:** If the factoring assumption holds, then  $F$  is one-way: given QR  $y$ , computationally infeasible to compute an  $x$  such that  $x^2 = y \bmod N$

# Proof

Let  be an adversary that, given a random quadratic residue  $y \bmod N$ , finds a square root  $x$ .

How to factor:

- Choose a random  $z \bmod N$
- Compute  $y = z^2 \bmod N$
- Run  on  $y$  to get a root  $x$
- Let  $p = \text{GCD}(z-x, N)$ ,  $q = N/p$



# Analysis

Let  $x$  be the output of .

Given a  $y$ ,  $z$  was equally likely to be each of the 4 quadratic residues:

- $x$
- $-x$
- $w$ :  $w = x \pmod p$ ,  $w = -x \pmod q$
- $-w$

With probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $z = \pm w$

# Analysis

Suppose  $z = w$

$$\Rightarrow z = x \pmod{p}, z = -x \pmod{q}$$

$$\Rightarrow z - x = 0 \pmod{p}, z + x = 0 \pmod{q}$$

Therefore,  $\mathbf{GCD}(z-x, N) = p$

- Algorithm succeeds

$z = -w$  case identical, except algorithm flips  $p$  and  $q$

# Collision Resistance from Factoring

Let  $N=pq$ ,  $y$  a QR mod  $N$

Suppose  $-1$  is not a QR mod  $N$

Hashing key:  $(N,y)$

Domain:  $\{1, \dots, (N-1)/2\} \times \{0, 1\}$

Range:  $\{1, \dots, (N-1)/2\}$

$H( (N,y), (x,b) )$ : Let  $z = y^b x^2 \pmod N$

- If  $z \in \{1, \dots, (N-1)/2\}$ , output  $z$
- Else, output  $-z \pmod N \in \{1, \dots, (N-1)/2\}$

**Theorem:** If the factoring assumption holds, **H** is collision resistant

Proof:

- Collision means  $(x_0, b_0) \neq (x_1, b_1)$  s.t.  
$$y^{b_0} x_0^2 = \pm y^{b_1} x_1^2 \pmod{N}$$
- If  $b_0 = b_1$ , then  $x_0 \neq x_1$ , but  $x_0^2 = \pm x_1^2 \pmod{N}$ 
  - $x_0^2 = \pm x_1^2 \pmod{N}$  not possible. Why?
  - $x_0 \neq -x_1$  since  $x_0, x_1 \in \{1, \dots, (N-1)/2\}$
  - $\text{GCD}(x_0 - x_1, N)$  will give factor
- If  $b_0 \neq b_1$ , then  $(x_0/x_1)^2 = \pm y^{\pm 1} \pmod{N}$ 
  - $(x_0/x_1)$  or  $(x_1/x_0)$  is a square root of  $\pm y$
  - $-y$  case not possible. Why?

# Choosing **N**

How to choose **N** so that **-1** is not a QR?

By CRT, need to choose **p, q** such that **-1** is not a QR mod **p** or mod **q**

Fact: if **p = 3 mod 4**, then **-1** is not a QR mod **p**

Fact: if **p = 1 mod 4**, then **-1** is a QR mod **p**

Is Composite **N** Necessary for SQ  
to be hard?

Let **p** be a prime, and suppose **p = 3 mod 4**

Given a QR **x mod p**, how to compute square root?

Hint: recall Fermat:  **$x^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$**  for all  **$x \neq 0$**

Hint: what is  **$x^{(p+1)/2} \pmod p$** ?

# Solving Quadratic Equations

In general, solving quadratic equations is:

- Easy over prime moduli
- As hard as factoring over composite moduli

# Other Powers?

What about  $x \rightarrow x^4 \pmod N$ ?  $x \rightarrow x^6 \pmod N$ ?

The function  $x \rightarrow x^3 \pmod N$  appears quite different

- Suppose **3** is relatively prime to **p-1** and **q-1**
- Then  $x \rightarrow x^3 \pmod p$  is injective for  $x \neq 0$ 
  - Let **a** be such that  $3a = 1 \pmod{p-1}$
  - $(x^3)^a = x^{1+k(p-1)} = x(x^{p-1})^k = x \pmod p$
- By CRT,  $x \rightarrow x^3 \pmod N$  is injective for  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$



# $x^3 \bmod N$

What does injectivity mean?

Cannot base of factoring:

Adapt alg for square roots:

- Choose a random  $z \bmod N$
- Compute  $y = z^3 \bmod N$
- Run inverter on  $y$  to get a cube root  $x$
- Let  $p = \text{GCD}(z-x, N)$ ,  $q = N/p$

# RSA Problem

Given

- $N = pq$ ,
- $e$  such that  $\text{GCD}(e, p-1) = \text{GCD}(e, q-1) = 1$ ,
- $y = x^e \pmod N$  for a random  $x$

Find  $x$

Injectivity means cannot base hardness on factoring,  
but still conjectured to be hard

Later, we will see why this version is useful

# Roadmap

Next week:

- OWF → almost everything we've seen so far

After that:

- Public key cryptography