

Blockchains

Created by Satoshi Nakamoto (pseudonym) - 2008. It is an "append-only", immutable, transparent ledger.

Genesis block B₀: "Chancellor on brink of second bailout for banks"

Mining: It is the process of determining the next block to be appended to the ledger.

A block B_i consists of h_{i-1} , I_i , pk , n_i , which satisfies
 $H(h_{i-1}, I_i, pk, n_i) = \underbrace{00 \dots 0}_{k} XXX \dots X$. k is known as difficulty parameter. The value of the hash becomes h_{i+1} . This is known as "proof of work", requiring a lot of compute.

Block header
Merkle root
Time

- By capturing >50% of compute, one can come up with a longer fork branching at a past state, this leads to "double spending". $B_i = (h_{i-1}, I_i, pk, n_i)$
- Larger cryptocurrencies' miners try to perform double spending attacks on smaller cryptocurrencies, called "infanticide".
- Proof of work is unsustainable in terms of energy.

Proof of Stake

Used by Bitcoin in 2012, Ethereum in 2023 (hard fork/system enforced).

- The next miner who proposes the block is chosen by a pseudo-random process that depends on the miner's amount of coins (stake)
- The miner with the highest score is chosen for the next block
 The score is proportional to $\lambda_{pk} \cdot c_{pk}$ [λ_{pk} → random value assoc. w/ pk , c_{pk} → amt. of coins miner has], c_{pk} → stake, $\lambda_{pk} \cdot c_{pk}$ → score
- Generation of λ_{pk} .

a. Miner chooses λ_{pk} : Obviously choose larger λ_{pk}

b. Miner uses deterministic hash function $H(\cdot)$ s.t. $\lambda_{pk, i+1} = H(B_i, pk, m)$
 Here, miner can decide which B_i to select to ensure $H(B_i, pk, m)$ is largest. Miner may also take control for B_{i-1} , etc. as they know B_i .
 (Unfair advantage on next block)

$$c. r_{pk,i+1} = H(i, pk)$$

Miner can compute a "predictable attack" i.e., compute hash values before system is run and choose the pk with best random values.

$$d. r_{pk,i+1} = H(r_{pk,i}^{winner}, pk). \text{ This is "semi-predictable" if } r_{pk,i+1}^{winner} \text{ is known.}$$

Then, further r -values for a pk can be computed, and money transferred to appropriate pk.

$$e. r_{pk,i+1} = H(\text{Sign}_{sk}(r_{pk,i}^{winner}), pk).$$

An issue with proof of stake is "double spending", where two chains can be mined from a block, but there is no idea which chain is legitimate.

Pairing-Based Cryptography

Issue w/ using \mathbb{Z}_p^* : General Number Field Sieve (GNFS) attacks \log in $\exp(O(\log p)^{1/3})$. However, on elliptic curves, $O(\sqrt{q})$ generic group attacks are known, where q is the order of the group.

An elliptic curve group uses a degree 3 curve such as $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$. Suppose $P, Q \in \mathbb{Q}^2$ lie on the curve. Denote by $-R$ the third intersection of PQ with the curve. Then, $P \oplus Q = R$, where \oplus is the group operation. $X = (x, y)$, $-X = (x, -y)$. This is known as the "chord technique".

Elliptic Curve: If $\text{char}(\mathbb{F}) \neq \{2, 3\}$, the curve can be described as the set of solutions (x, y) that satisfy $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$ s.t. $4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0$ (to avoid singularities/cusps) along with the special unique point called the "point at infinity". [Short Weierstrass Form]

Let E/\mathbb{F}_p be a curve over \mathbb{F}_p . We say that (x, y) is a point on E if (x, y) satisfies the curve equation. The set of points that lie on the curve is $E(\mathbb{F}_p) = \{O\} \cup \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{F}_p \times \mathbb{F}_p : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b, a, b \in \mathbb{F}\}$.

Example: $y^2 = x^3 + 4x + 4$. $E(\mathbb{Z}_5) = \{O, (0, 2), (0, 3), (1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 0), (4, 0), (4, 3)\}$

Hasse's Theorem: $|E(\mathbb{F}_{p^c})| = p^c + 1 - t$, where $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $|t| \leq 2\sqrt{p^c}$.
Asymptotically, $|E(\mathbb{F}_{p^c})| \approx p^c$.

The SEA algorithm counts the number of points in $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$ in $O(\log p^c)$ time.

Elliptic Curve Addition

Case 1: $P \neq Q, x_P \neq x_Q$

Suppose P, Q lie on $y = mx + c$.

Then, $m = \frac{y_P - y_Q}{x_P - x_Q}$

Thus, $(mx + c)^2 = x^3 + ax + b \Rightarrow x^3 - m^2x^2 + (a - 2mc)x + b - c^2 = 0$

But x_P, x_Q, x_R satisfy the above equation. Thus,

$$x_R = m^2 - x_P - x_Q, \quad y_R = m^3 - m(x_P + x_Q) + c.$$

Case 2, 3: $Q = -P, P = Q$ where $y_P = y_Q = 0$. Here, $P + Q = \mathcal{O}$

Case 4: $P = Q, y_P \neq 0$. Here, $m = \frac{3x_P^2 + a}{2y_P}$ [This is why char $\neq 2, 3$].

Here, $x_R = m^2 - 2x_P, y_R = m^3 - 2x_Pm + c.$

The pair $(E(\mathbb{F}), \oplus)$ is an elliptic curve group. It is finite and Abelian.

Discrete Logarithm in $E(\mathbb{F})$: If the order of the group is prime q ,

let P be a point of order q . Let $Q = \alpha P$ [$\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}_q$] for some α .

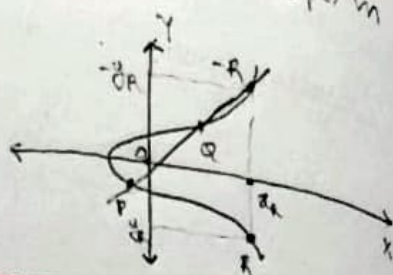
Given P and Q , computing α is hard.

Insecure Curves

1. If $|E(\mathbb{F}_p)| = p$, dlog is polynomial time in this group. Such curves are called "anomalous curves"
2. If $|E(\mathbb{F}_p)|$ is composite, dlog runs in $O(\sqrt{q_{\max}})$, where q_{\max} is the maximum prime factor of $|E(\mathbb{F}_p)|$.

Examples of secure curves:

1. secp256k1: used in internet protocols, $p = 2^{256} - 2^{224} + 2^{192} + 2^{96} - 1, y^2 = x^3 + 7$
2. secp256k1: $p = 2^{256} - 2^{32} - 2^9 - 2^8 - 2^7 - 2^6 - 2^4 - 1, y^2 = x^3 + 7$.



Pairings: Let G_0, G_1, G_T be three cyclic groups of prime order q where $G_0 = \langle g_0 \rangle$, $G_1 = \langle g_1 \rangle$ (we assume that G_0, G_1 are additive and G_T is multiplicative).

A pairing e is an efficiently computable map, $e: G_0 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_T$ satisfying the following two properties:

1. Bilinear: $\forall u, u' \in G_0, \forall v, v' \in G_1, e(u+u', v) = e(u, v) e(u', v)$ and $e(u, v+v') = e(u, v) e(u, v')$.

2. Nondegeneracy: All the outputs of e should not be the identity element of G_T . A consequence of this is that $e(g_0, g_1) = g_T$, where $\langle g_T \rangle = G_T$.

Due to bilinearity, $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_q, e(\alpha g_0, \beta g_1) = e(g_0, g_1)^{\alpha\beta} = e(\beta g_0, \alpha g_1)$.

$$e(\alpha g_0, \beta g_1) = e(\underbrace{g_0 + \dots + g_0}_{\alpha \text{ times}}, \beta g_1) = [e(g_0, \beta g_1)]^\alpha = e(g_0, g_1)^{\alpha\beta}.$$

We prove the iff in property 2.

(\Rightarrow) If the pairing is nondegenerate, $\exists (u, v) \text{ s.t. } e(u, v) \neq 1_{G_T}$.

Let $e(u, v) = g' \neq 1_{G_T}$. Since G_0, G_1 is cyclic, $u = \alpha g_0, v = \beta g_1$ and $e(g_0, g_1)^{\alpha\beta} \neq 1_{G_T}$. Thus, $e(g_0, g_1) \neq 1_{G_T}$. Since G_T has

prime order q , $\langle e(g_0, g_1) \rangle = G_T$.

Consequences of Pairings

1. 1st: If $G_0 \cong G_1$, the pairing is symmetric. Then, DDH is easy in G_0 .

This is because $e(\alpha g_0, \beta g_0) = e(g_0, \alpha\beta g_0)$. Thus, given a DH triple $(g_0, \beta g_0, \gamma g_0)$ check if $e(\alpha g_0, \beta g_0) \stackrel{?}{=} e(g_0, \gamma g_0)$.

2. Computing dlog in G_0 and G_1 is only as hard as computing the dlog in G_T . (Given $u = \alpha g_0$, find α)

We can compute $e(u, g_1) = e(\alpha g_0, g_1) = e(g_0, g_1)^\alpha = g_T^\alpha$.

Usually, for elliptic curves,

G_0 : order q subgroup of $E(\mathbb{F}_p)$.

G_1 : order q subgroup of $E(\mathbb{F}_{p^d})$, $d > 0$, $G_1 \cap G_0 = \{O\}$.

d is the embedding degree. For small representation, $d \leq 16$.

G_T : order q multiplicative subgroup of finite field \mathbb{F}_{p^d} .

BLS Signature Scheme [Aggregatable]

Consider groups G_0, G_1, G_T of prime order q , $e: G_0 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_T$ and a hash function $H: M \rightarrow G_0$ [$G_0 = EC(\mathbb{F}_p)$, $G_1 = EC(\mathbb{F}_p^\alpha)$, $G_T = \mathbb{F}_p^\beta$]

$\text{KeyGen}(): \alpha \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, u = \alpha g_1 \in G_1, pk := u, sk := \alpha.$

$\text{Sign}(m, sk), \sigma \leftarrow \alpha H(m) \in G_0$

$\text{Verify}(pk, m, \sigma): e(\sigma, g_1) \stackrel{?}{=} e(H(m), u)$

Attack Game for co-CDH (Computational Diffie Hellman)

1. Challenger computes

$$\alpha, \beta \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q, u_0 = \alpha g_0, v_0 = \beta g_0 \\ u_1 = \alpha g_1, z_0 = \alpha \beta g_0$$

and sends (u_0, u_1, v_0) to A .

2. Adversary A outputs $\hat{z}_0 \in G_0$

Adversary's advantage in solving co-CDH is defined as

$$\text{Adv}_{A, 1^n}^{\text{co-CDH}} \triangleq \Pr(\hat{z}_0 = z_0)$$

co-CDH Assumption: We say that co-CDH assumption holds for a pairing $e: G_0 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_T$ if $\text{Adv}_{A, 1^n}^{\text{co-CDH}}$ is negligible

Security of BLS Signatures

Theorem: Let $e: G_0 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_T$ be a pairing and $H: M \rightarrow G_0$ be a hash function. The BLS signature scheme S_{BLS} is a secure signature scheme if co-CDH holds for e and H is modeled as an RO. In particular, let A be a PPT adversary that attacks S_{BLS} using the standard signature forgery attack game. We assume

A makes Q_{ro} queries to the RO and Q_s queries to the signing oracle. Then, there exists a PPT adversary B which has

$$\text{Adv}_{A, S_{\text{BLS}}} \leq (Q_{\text{ro}} + 1) \text{Adv}_{B, e, 1^n}^{\text{co-CDH}}$$

An improvement: $\text{Adv}_{A, S_{\text{BLS}}} \leq 2.72(Q_s + 1) \text{Adv}_{B, e, 1^n}^{\text{co-CDH}}$ [usually, $Q_{\text{ro}} \gg Q_s$ so this is an improvement]

Proof 1. Adversary \mathcal{A} is given a tuple $(u_0 = \alpha g_0, u_1 = \alpha g_1, v_0 = \beta g_0)$ as in the co-CDH attack game and he has to compute $z_0 = \alpha \beta g_0$.

2. \mathcal{A} calls A with $pk = u_1 = \alpha g_1$.

3. A will make Q_1 queries to \mathcal{B} and Q_2 queries to \mathcal{B} .

4. \mathcal{B} sets $w \in \{1, 2, \dots, Q_2\}$.

5. For any $j \neq w$, for m_j , \mathcal{B} responds to $H(m_j) = \beta_j g_0$, where $\beta_j \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$.

For $j = w$, \mathcal{B} responds to $H(m_j) = v_0$.

6. When A makes a signing query on m_j , \mathcal{B} responds $\sigma(m_j, \alpha) = \alpha(\beta_j g_0) = \beta_j u_0$.

A comes up with forgery (m, σ) where $\sigma = \alpha H(m) = \alpha v_0 = \alpha \beta g_0$ if $m = m_w$.

$$\text{Thus, } \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}, e, 1^n}^{\text{co-CDH}} \geq \frac{\text{Adv}_{A, \mathcal{B}, e, 1^n}}{Q_2 + 1} \Rightarrow \text{Adv}_{A, \mathcal{B}, e, 1^n}^{\text{co-CDH}} \leq (Q_2 + 1) \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}, e, 1^n}^{\text{co-CDH}}$$

[Extra query to account for \mathcal{B} not knowing β]

Signature Aggregation

Definition: An aggregate signature scheme, SA is a signature scheme with two additional efficient algorithms.

1. $\text{SigAgg}/A(\vec{pk}, \vec{\sigma})$, where $\vec{pk} = (pk_1, \dots, pk_n)$, $\vec{\sigma} = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$, outputs σ_{ag} .

2. $\text{AggVer}/VA(\vec{pk}, \vec{m}, \sigma_{ag})$, where $\vec{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$, outputs accept or reject.

Correctness: SA is correct if $\forall \vec{pk} = (pk_1, \dots, pk_n)$, $\vec{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_n)$, $\vec{\sigma} = (\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$, $VA(\vec{pk}, \vec{m}, A(\vec{pk}, \vec{\sigma})) = 1 \iff \forall (pk_i, m_i, \sigma_i) = 1 \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$.

Attempt at Aggregating BLS

$e: G_0 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_T$, $G_0 = \langle g_0 \rangle$, $G_1 = \langle g_1 \rangle$, $G_T = \langle g_T \rangle$, all order q . $H: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow G_0$.

Keygen(λ): $\alpha \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$, $pk \leftarrow \alpha g_0$.

Sign(α, m): $\sigma \leftarrow \alpha H(m)$.

Verify(pk, m, σ): $e(H(m), pk) \stackrel{?}{=} e(\sigma, g_1)$.

$A(\vec{pk} \in G_0^n, \vec{\sigma} \in G_0^n)$: $\sigma_{ag} \leftarrow \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i H(m_i) \in G_0$.

$VA(\vec{pk} \in G_0^n, \vec{m} \in \mathcal{M}^n, \vec{\sigma} \in G_0^n)$: $e(\sigma_{ag}, g_1) \stackrel{?}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n e(H(m_i), pk_i)$.

LHS = $e(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i H(m_i), g_1) = \prod_{i=1}^n e(H(m_i), g_1)^{\alpha_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n e(H(m_i), pk_i) = \text{RHS}$.

For multisignatures $m_1 = m_2 = \dots = m$, VA eqⁿ is $e(\sigma_{ag}, g_1) = e(H(m), \sum_{i=1}^n pk_i)$.

Forge Public Key Attack

Consider Bob with public key $pk_B := u_B \in G_1$. Adversary A wants to make it seem as if Bob has signed on $m \in M$ which Bob did not use.

1. A chooses $a \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$, $u = ag_1$, and set $pk_A = u - u_B$
(Here, A doesn't know $sk_{A,B}$ since d_B is unknown.)
2. Aggregate public key for A and B is $(u - u_B) + u_B = u$.
 A can sign a multisignature $\sigma_{ag} = aH(m)$, and then claim A and B signed it.

To secure the scheme from such an attack,

1. Message Augmentation: $S(x, m) = aH(m, pk)$. This gets rid of multisignatures and the verification equation in VA becomes

$$e(\sigma_{ag}, g_1) \stackrel{?}{=} \prod_{i=1}^n e(H(m, pk_i), pk_i)$$
2. Show a ZKPoK of a corresponding to the public key.
This keeps the multisignature optimization, but computing ZKPoK is not easy.

Anonymous Credentials

Earnauth et al. (2004)

$e: G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_T$ (symmetric pairing)

$(g, G_1, G_T, g_1, g_T, e)$

KeyGen(): $x, y \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$, $sk \leftarrow (x, y)$, $pk \leftarrow (X = xg_1, Y = yg_1)$

Signature(sk, m): 1. $a \xleftarrow{\$} G_1$

attribute
practically,
com(m) and
ZKPoK of
correctness of
com(m)

2. Output $\sigma \leftarrow (a, \text{aff } a, (x + mxy)a)$
(credential)

Verify($pk = (X, Y), m, \sigma = (a, b, c)$)

1. $e(a, Y) \stackrel{?}{=} e(g_1, b)$

2. $e(X, a) e(X, b)^m \stackrel{?}{=} e(g_1, c)$

$$1. e(a, Y) = e(a, yg_1) = e(a, g_1)^d = e(ya, g_1) = e(Y, g_1)$$

$$2. e(X, a) \cdot e(X, b)^m = e(xg_1, a) \cdot e(xg_1, ya)^m \\ = e(g_1, a)^{x+mx y} = e(g_1, (x+mx y)a) = e(g_1, c)$$

claim: If $\sigma = (a, b, c)$ is a valid credential on m , then $\sigma' \triangleq (a', b', c')$ is also a valid credential for all $x \in G_1$.

This gives unlinkability of signatures

LRSW Assumption

Suppose $G = \langle g \rangle$ is a group chosen by the setup algorithm corresponding to pairing-friendly elliptic curve groups. Let $X, Y \in G$ s.t. $X = xg, Y = yg$. Let $\mathcal{O}_{X,Y}$ be an oracle that on input a message m on \mathbb{Z}_q outputs a tuple $(a, a^d, a^{x+mx y})$ for $a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$. Then \forall PPT adversaries \mathcal{A} , the probability that \mathcal{A} outputs $(m, (a, b, c))$ s.t. m was not queried to \mathcal{O} , $m \neq 0$, $a \in G$, $b = a^d$ and $c = a^{x+mx y}$ is negligible.

Security Proof

claim: Let $a = g^\alpha, b = g^\beta, c = g^\gamma$ and $(m, (a, b, c))$ satisfies the verification equations. Then, $\beta/\alpha = y, \gamma/\alpha = x + mx y$.

Proof: $e(a, Y) = e(g, b) \Rightarrow e(\alpha g, yg) = e(g^\beta g)$ $\Rightarrow \beta = \alpha y$ or $y = \beta/\alpha$

$$e(X, a) \cdot e(X, b)^m = e(g, g)^{x\alpha + m\alpha\beta} = e(g, c) = e(g, g)^\gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma = x\alpha + m\alpha(\alpha y) \text{ or } \frac{\gamma}{\alpha} = x + mx y.$$

Identity-Based Encryption

Definition: An identity-based encryption scheme $\mathcal{E}_{id} = (\text{Setup}, \text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ where:

1. $(\text{mpk}, \text{msk}) \leftarrow \text{Setup}()$ [Generates Trusty/trusted authority's keys]

2. $\text{sk}_{id} \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(\text{msk}, id)$ [Generates Bob's private key]

3. $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(\text{mpk}, id, m)$ [Done by Alice]

4. $m \leftarrow \text{Dec}(\text{sk}_{id}, c)$ [Done by Bob]

s.t. $\Pr[\text{Dec}(\underbrace{\text{KeyGen}(\text{msk}, id)}_{\text{secret key}}, \underbrace{\text{Enc}(\text{mpk}, id, m)}_{\text{public key}}) = m] = 1$

Semantic Security of IBE Scheme

An adversary A who obtains secret keys for a polynomial number of identities of his choice should not be able to break the semantic security of another identity.

Attack Game

$E_{id} = (\text{Setup}, \text{KeyGen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ is defined over identities $id \in ID$, message space M , ciphertext space C .

1. The challenger C will compute $(msk, mpk) \leftarrow \text{Setup}()$ and send mpk to A .
2. A will make N key queries for an identity $id_j \in ID$. C will return $sk_{id_j} \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}(msk, id_j)$.
3. A will come up with equal length messages m_0, m_1 and send it to C .
4. C will choose $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$ and compute $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(mpk, id, m_b)$ where $id \in \{id_1, \dots, id_N\}$, and send (c, id) .
5. A will return $b' \in \{0, 1\}$. If $b = b'$, then A wins.

We define $\text{Adv}_{A, 1^n}^{\text{IBE}} \triangleq \Pr[b = b']$. An IBE scheme is secure if $\text{Adv}_{A, 1^n}^{\text{IBE}} \leq \frac{1}{2} + \text{negl}()$.

Instantiation

1. $e: G_0 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_T$ be an asymmetric group.
2. A symmetric cipher $E_s = (\text{Enc}_s, \text{Dec}_s)$.
3. Hash function $H_0: ID \rightarrow G_0$
 $H_1: G_1 \times G_T \rightarrow K$

Setup():

$$\alpha \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$$

$$u_1 \leftarrow g_1^\alpha$$

$$msk := \alpha, mpk := u_1$$

KeyGen(msk, id)

$$sk_{id} := (H_0(id))^\alpha$$

Send sk_{id} to Bob.

Enc(mpk, id, m)

$$\beta \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$$

$$\omega_1 \leftarrow g_1^\beta$$

$$x \leftarrow e(H_0(id), u_1^\beta)$$

$$k \leftarrow H_1(\omega_1, z)$$

$$c \leftarrow \text{Enc}_s(m, k)$$

$$C \leftarrow (c, \omega_1)$$

Dec(ek_{id}, C)

$$(c, \omega_1) \leftarrow C$$

$$z \leftarrow e(sk_{id}, \omega_1)$$

$$k \leftarrow H_1(\omega_1, z)$$

$$m \leftarrow \text{Dec}_s(c, k)$$

For the scheme to be correct, the encryption and decryption keys must be equal. Since H_1 is deterministic, it should have same inputs. Thus, the z computed should be the same. But

$$z_{enc} = e(H_0(id), u_1^P) = e(H_0(id), g_1^{\alpha P}) = e((H_0(id))^{\alpha}, g_1^P) = e(sk_d, w_1) = z_{dec}.$$

Decision Bilinear Diffie-Hellman (Decision BDH) Assumption

Given random elements $g_0^{\alpha}, g_0^{\tau}, g_1^{\alpha}, g_1^{\beta}$, the quantity $e(g_0, g_1)^{\alpha\beta\tau}$ is indistinguishable from a random element in G_T .

Security of IBE Scheme

If decision BDH holds for e , H_0 is modeled as an RO, H_1 is a secure KDF and $E_s = (E, D)$ is semantically (CPA) secure, then E_{id} is secure.

Let A be an adversary attack the E_{id} scheme using the IBE Attack Game. Assume A issues at most Q_R key queries and Q_{ro} random oracle queries. Then, there exists a decision BDH

adversary B_e , a KDF adversary B_{KDF} , a symmetric key adversary B_s where B_e , B_{KDF} and B_s are elementary wrappers around A such that $Adv_{A, 1^n}^{IBE} \leq (Q_{ro} + 1) Adv_{B_e, 1^n}^{BDH}$.

Proof B_e receives a BDH instance $(u_0 = g_0^{\alpha}, u_1 = g_1^{\alpha}, v_0 = g_0^{\tau}, w_1 = g_1^{\beta}, Z)$

1. B_e calls A with $mpk = u_1$ ($msk = \alpha$).
2. When A queries $H_0(id^{(j)})$, B_e responds as follows:
 - a. If $j \neq 1$, B_e returns $H_0(id^{(j)}) \leftarrow g_0^{P_j}$, where $P_j \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_q$
 - b. If $j = 1$, B_e returns $H_0(id^{(j)}) \leftarrow v_0$
3. When A queries key for $id^{(j)}$, B_e responds as follows:
 - a. If $j \neq 1$, B_e returns $sk_{id^{(j)}} \leftarrow (H_0(id^{(j)}))^{\alpha} = g_0^{P_j \alpha} = u_1^{P_j}$
 - b. If $j = 1$, B_e aborts.

4. When A makes an encryption query (id, m_0, m_1) as in the IBE attack game, B_e chooses $b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0, 1\}$. If $id = id^{(1)}$, then B_e does $H_0(id) = v_0$, $K = H_1(w_1, Z)$, $C = E_s(K, m_b)$ and send (C, w_1) to A .

5. If $b = b'$, B_e outputs YES, else B_e outputs NO.

$\mathcal{B}_{\text{DEDH}}$'s success probability/advantage is at least $\frac{1}{2}$ of $A_{\text{IBE}}^{\text{adv}}$ advantage if $\text{id} = \text{id}^{(1)}$. Hence,

$$\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\text{DEDH}} \geq \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{Q_{\text{rot}} + 1} \text{Adv}_A^{\text{IBE}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Adv}_A^{\text{IBE}} \leq 2(Q_{\text{rot}} + 1) \text{Adv}_{\mathcal{B}}^{\text{DEDH}}$$

Lattice-Based Cryptography

In LWE, \mathbb{Z}_q is represented as integers in $(-\frac{q}{2}, \frac{q}{2})$.

L_∞ norm: The L_∞ norm of $[a_1 \dots a_n]^T$ is $L_\infty([a_1 \dots a_n]^T) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_i|$.

B-bounded Distribution: \mathcal{X}_B is a B-bounded distribution if

$\Pr[\|e\|_\infty \leq B] = 1$. For example, the uniform distribution on $\{-B, \dots, 0, \dots, B\}$.

$c \leftarrow \mathcal{X}_B$ # unknowns
LWE (n, m, q, \mathcal{X}_B) (search-LWE)
 # eq's

Let $A \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n}$, $s \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, $e \leftarrow \mathcal{X}_B^m$. Given $(A, A_s + e)$, find s' s.t. $\|A_s' - (A_s + e)\|_\infty \leq B$.

Decision LWE

It should be hard to distinguish vectors close to the image of A from random vectors in \mathbb{Z}_q^n . ($A_s + e$ and A_s)

Regev Encryption

Key Gen(): $A \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^{m \times n}$, $s \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^n$, $e \leftarrow \mathcal{X}_B^m$, choose $B = t \cdot \frac{q}{q_1} \gg mB$.
 $b := A_s + e$, $sk := s$, $pk := (A, b)$

Encrypt($pk, x \in \{0, 1\}$):
 $r \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^m$

$$G_0 = r^T A, \quad G_1 = r^T b + \lfloor \frac{q}{2} \rfloor x$$

$$c = (G_0, G_1)$$

Decrypt($sk, (G_0, G_1)$):

$$\tilde{x} = G_1 - G_0 s$$

if $\tilde{x} < \frac{q}{4}$, $x = 0$
 else, $x = 1$

Correctness [Security uses LWE and hybrid arguments]

$$c_1 - c_0 \triangleq$$

$$= \gamma^T \underline{b} + \left\lfloor \frac{\gamma}{2} \right\rfloor x - \gamma^T A \underline{z}$$

$$= \gamma^T \underline{z} + \left\lfloor \frac{\gamma}{2} \right\rfloor x \leq mB + \left\lfloor \frac{\gamma}{2} \right\rfloor x.$$

$$\text{Thus, } x = 0 \Rightarrow c_1 - c_0 \leq mB < \gamma/4$$

$$\text{and } x = 1 \Rightarrow c_1 - c_0 \geq \gamma^T \underline{z} + \left\lfloor \frac{\gamma}{2} \right\rfloor \geq \gamma/4$$

Lattices: A set of points in \mathbb{Z}^n that are integer linear combinations of basis elements.

Let $B = \{\underline{b}_1, \dots, \underline{b}_n\}$ be a linearly independent basis set. Then,

$$\mathcal{L}(B) \triangleq \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \underline{b}_i \mid a_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}.$$

1. SVP: Finding the shortest lattice vector in $\mathcal{L}(B)$ (SVP^{ex} is NP-hard)

2. CVP: Given $\underline{t} \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, find $\underline{v} \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ that minimized $\|\underline{t} - \underline{v}\|$

3. Approximate Versions: Setting γ as an approximation factor.

• γ -SVP: Find $\underline{t} \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ s.t. $\underline{t} = \gamma \underbrace{\lambda_1(\mathcal{L}(B))}_{\text{length of shortest vector in } \mathcal{L}(B)}$

• γ -CVP: Find $\underline{v} \in \mathcal{L}(B)$ s.t. $\|\underline{t} - \underline{v}\| \leq \gamma (\text{dist. b/w closest vector and } \underline{t})$.