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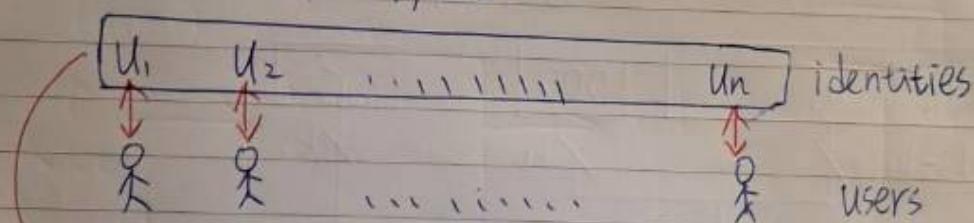
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合法性

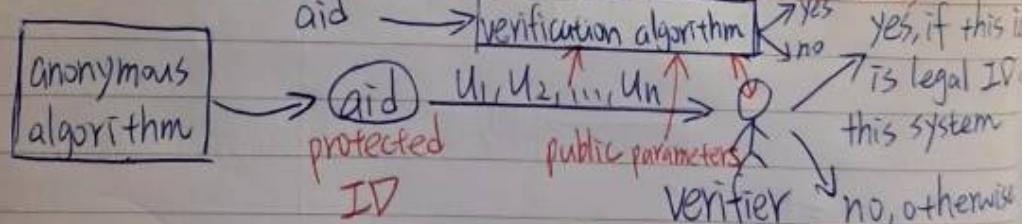
Identity Anonymity: A scheme achieves identity anonymity can prove the (legitimacy) of a protected (anonymous) identity submitted without exposing the real identity information of this protected ones, where the protected identity is produced from one of any two selected real identities and anonymity means no adversary can obtain non-negligible advantage to link the protected ones to one of the two real IDs.

The temporal identity encoded together with certain verifiable information by digital signature or cryptography algorithm

a system

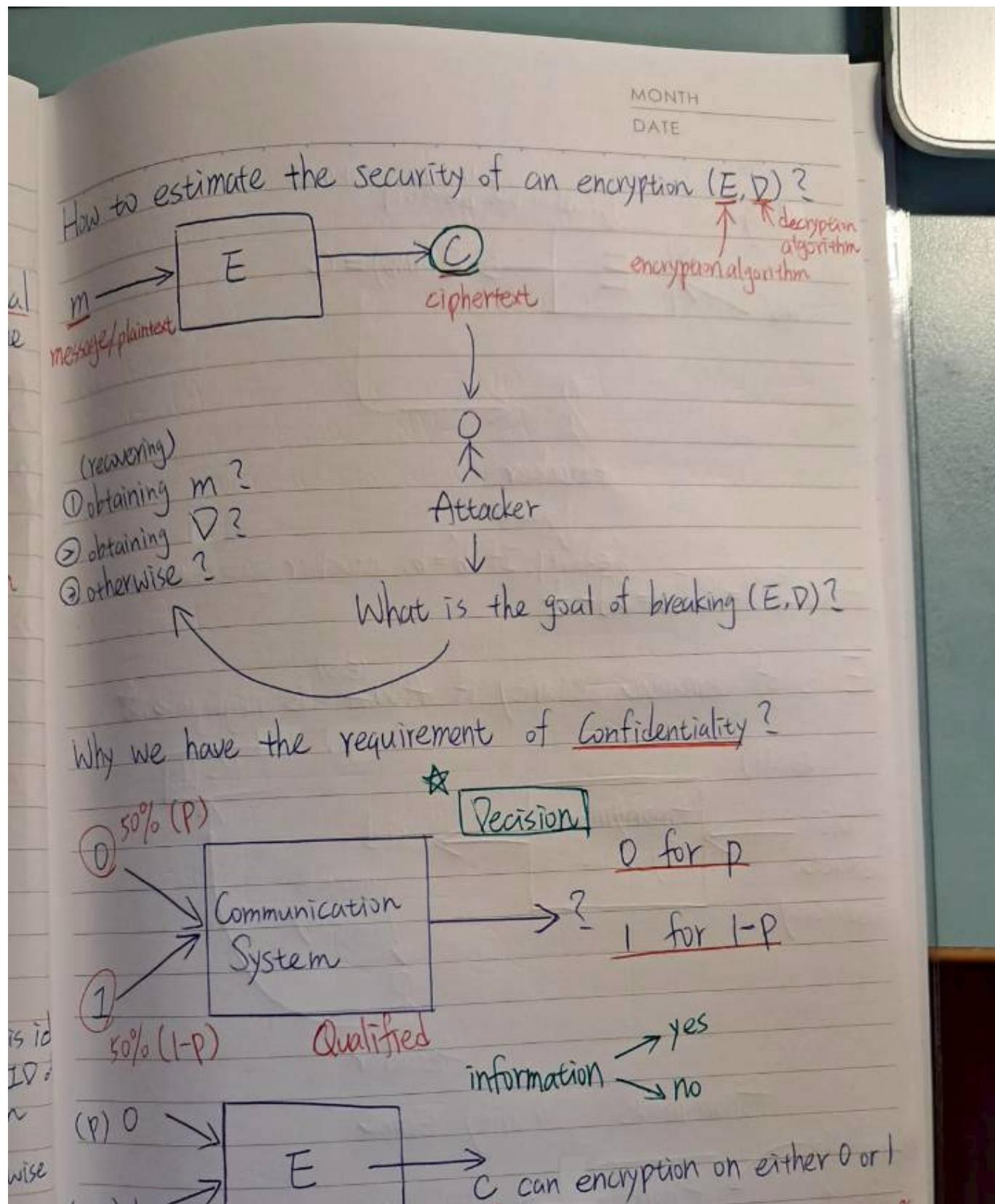


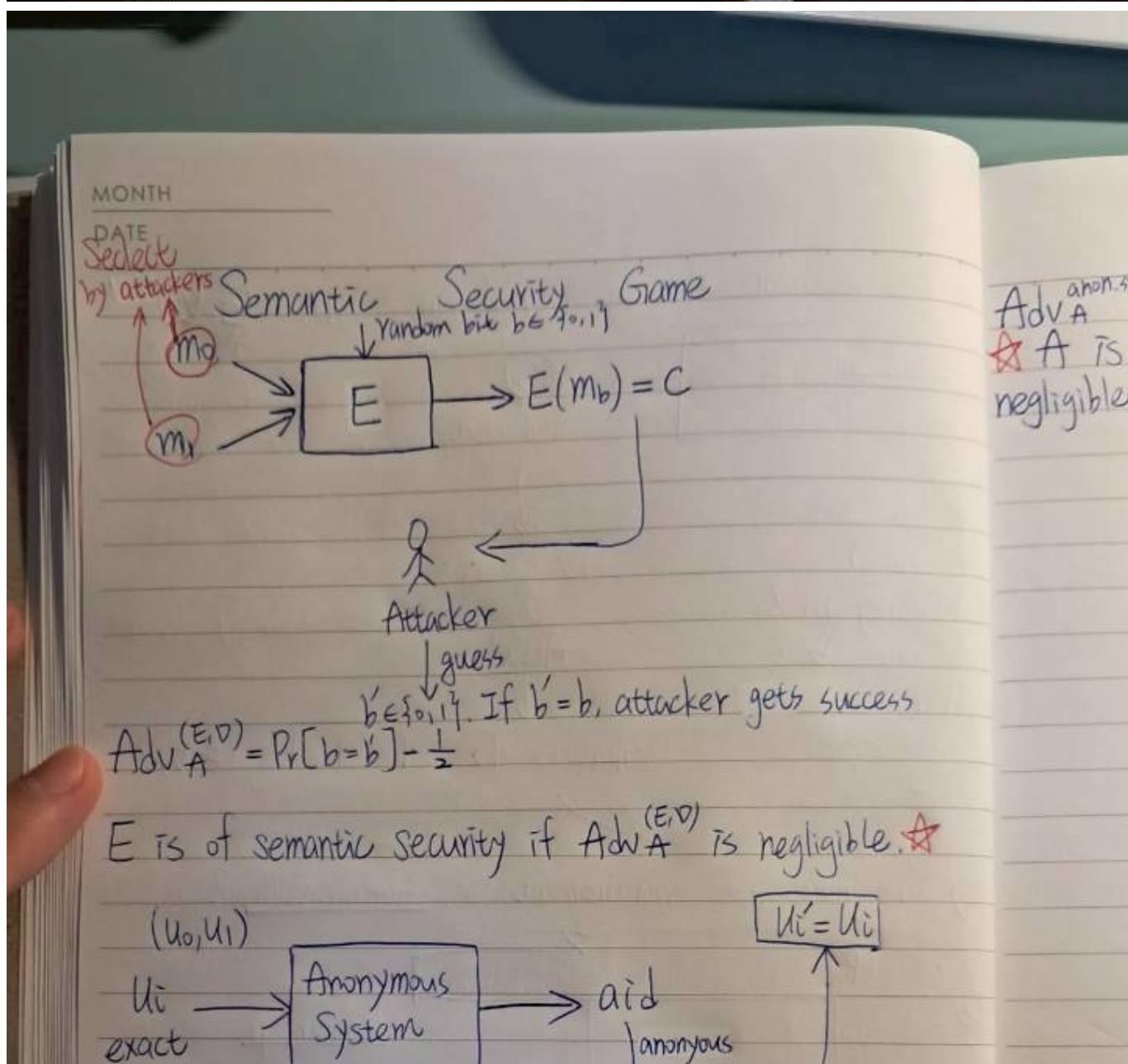
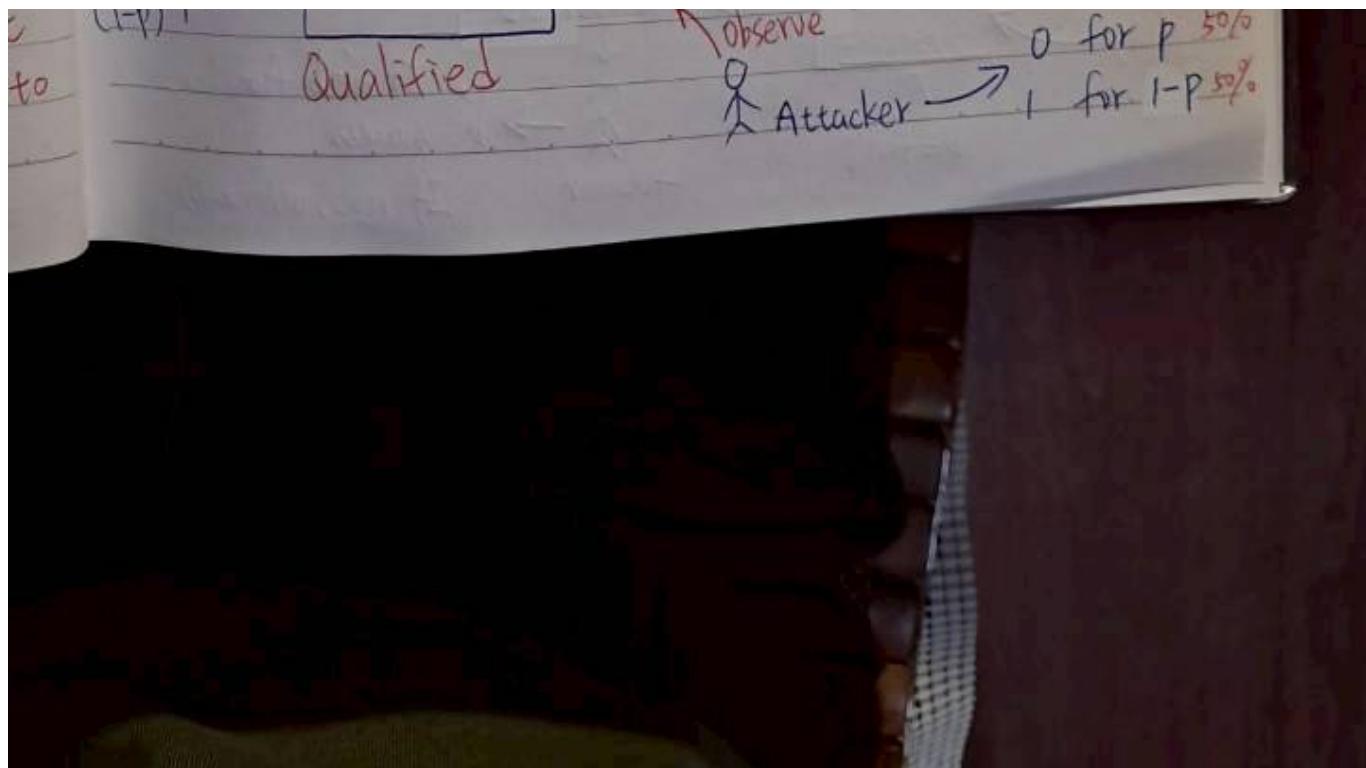
Select one id (i.e. i_d for anonymous id aid)

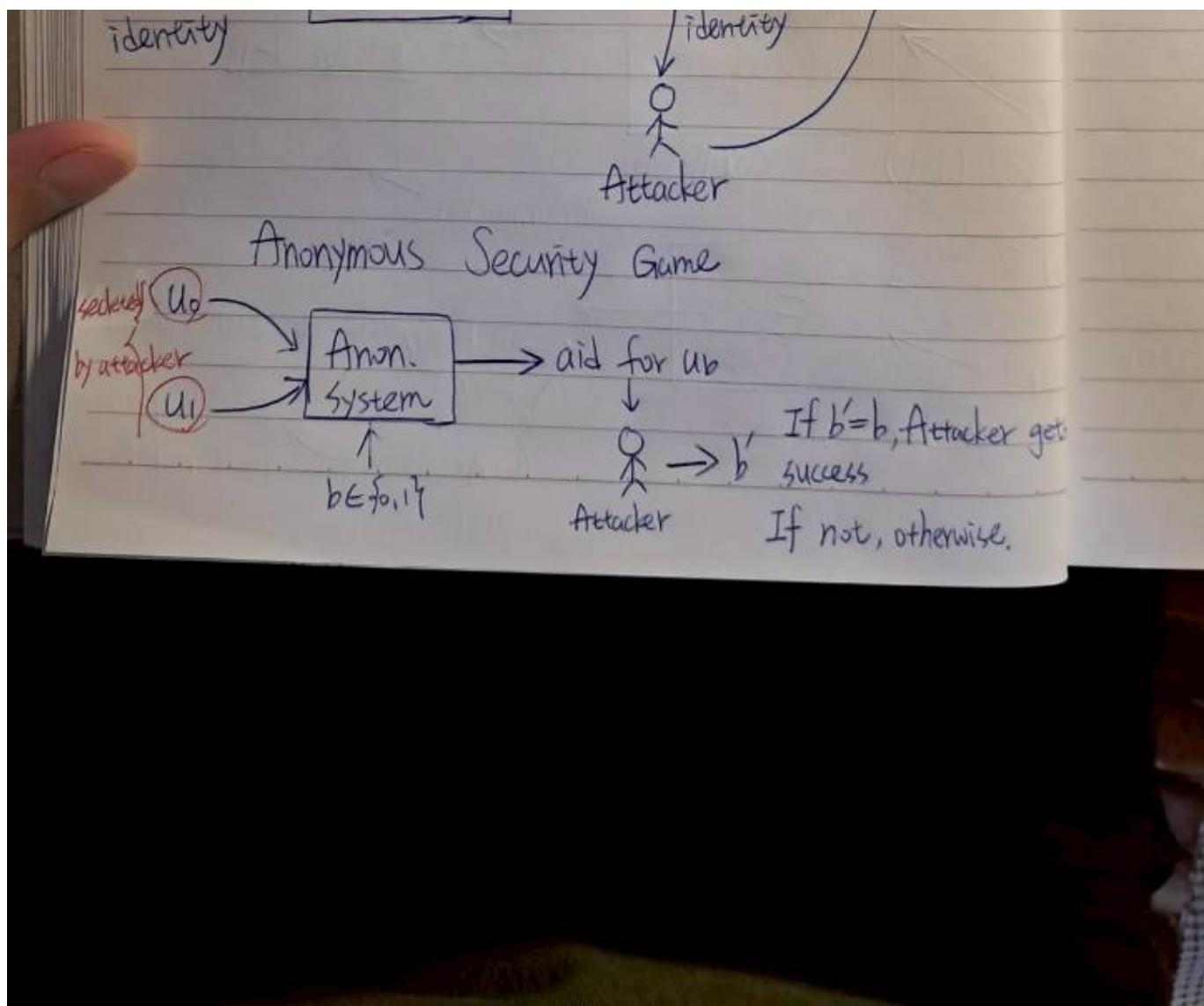


But the verifier cannot $(1-p)$ tell you aid is linked to which U_i .

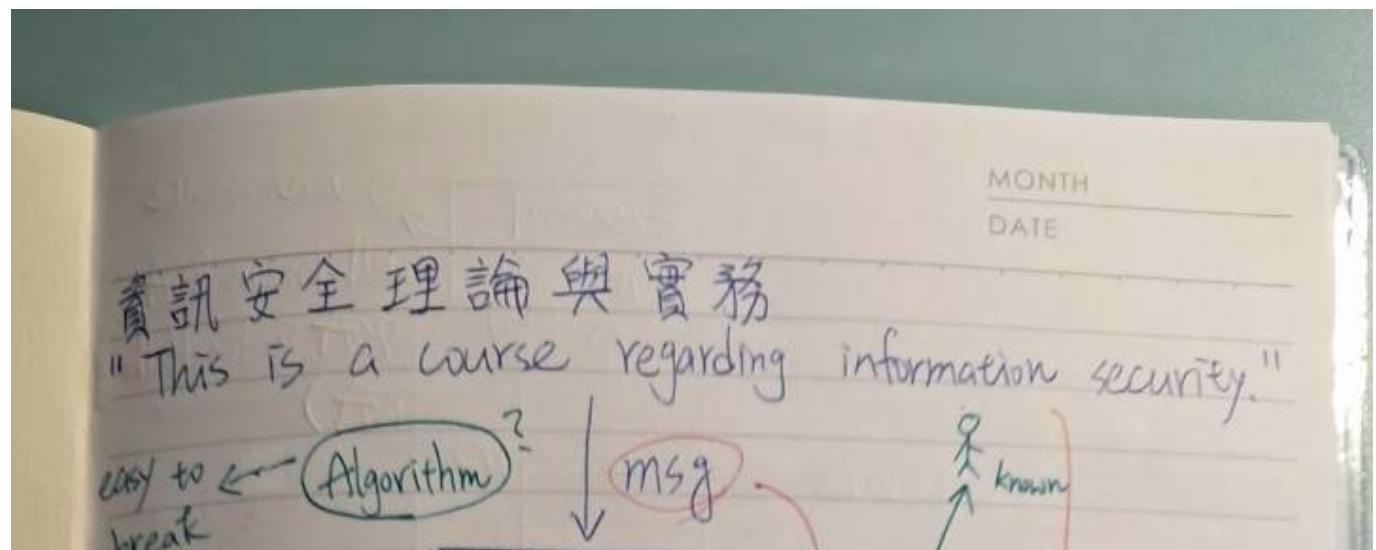
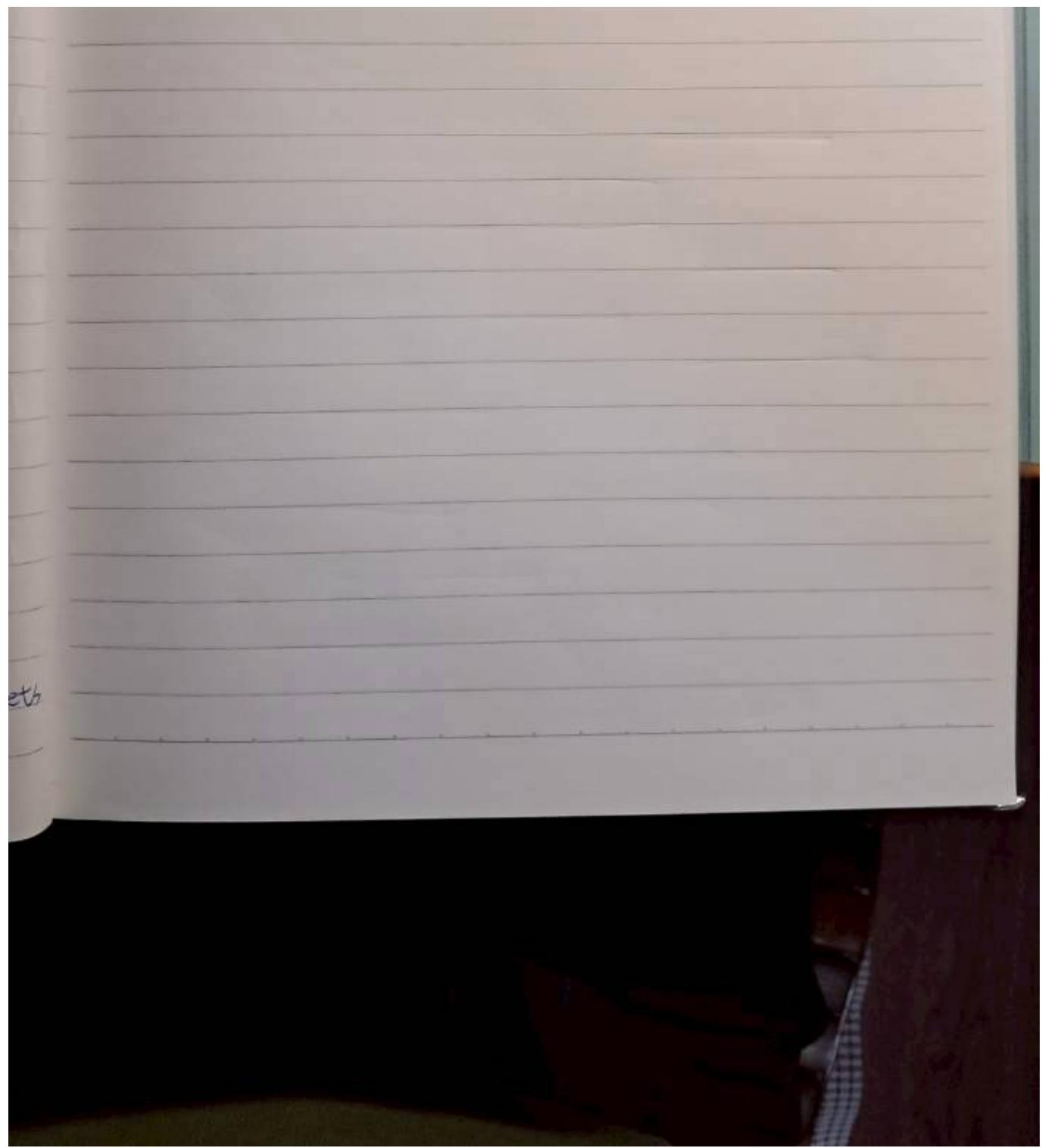
Big Question: How to estimate the security of an anonymity id system?

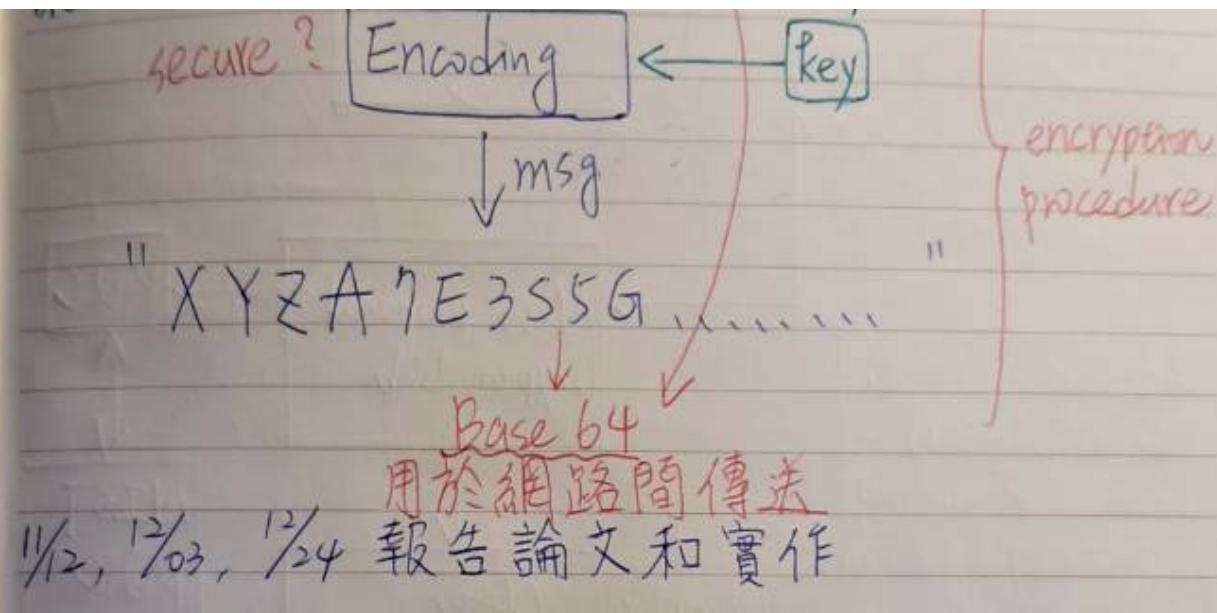






$\text{Adv}_A^{\text{anon-sys}} = \Pr[b = b'] - \frac{1}{2}$ ★ A is said to be anonymous secure, if $\text{Adv}_A^{\text{anon-sys}}$ is negligible.	MONTH _____ DATE _____
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Diffie - Hellman 1976
(Key Agreement)

RSA by 1978
(public-key encryption)

① Introduction to Cryptography

How to define the security of a function (to protect "something")?

an encoding message C

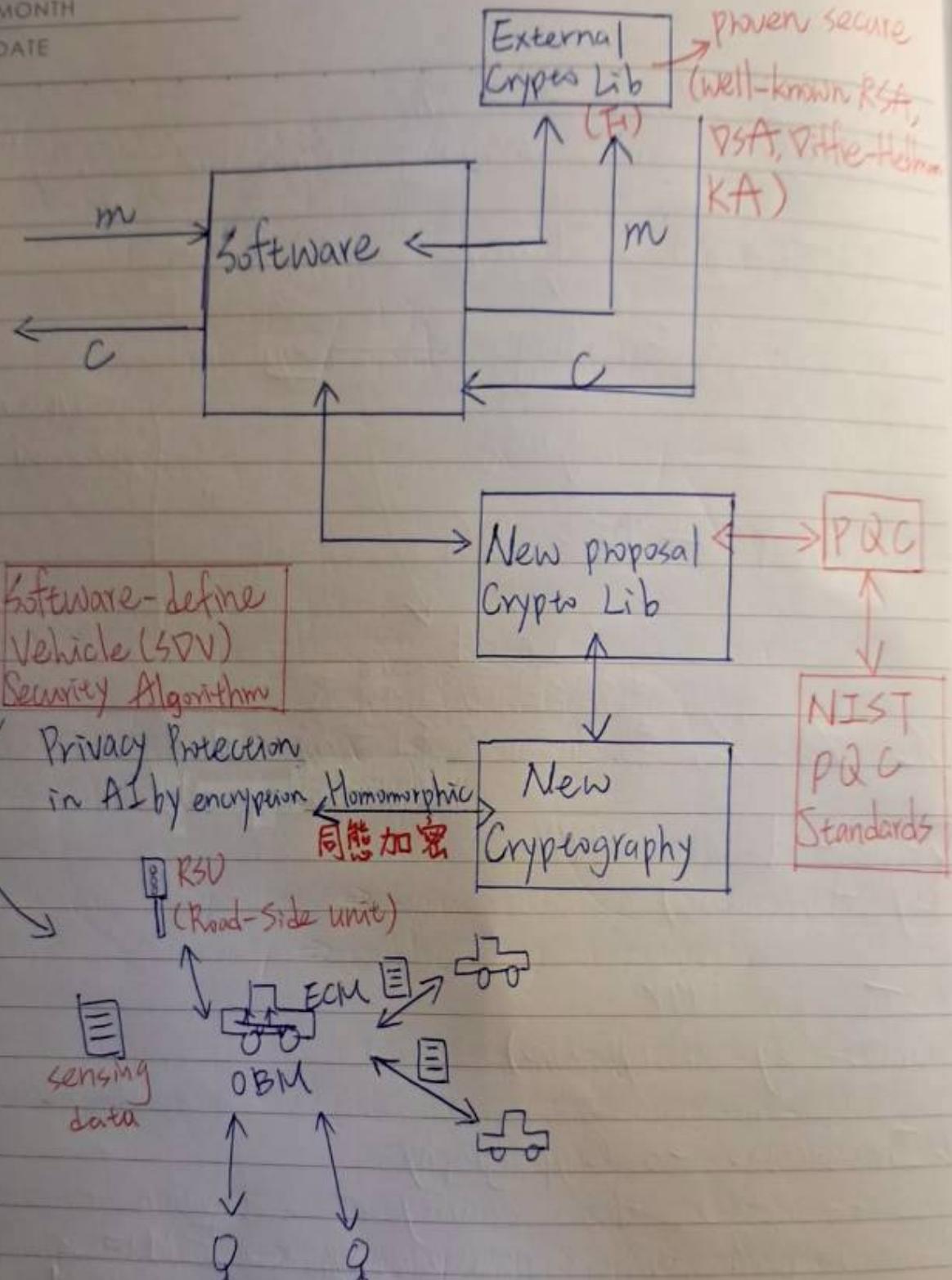
a security function $E(M)=C$

a message M as input

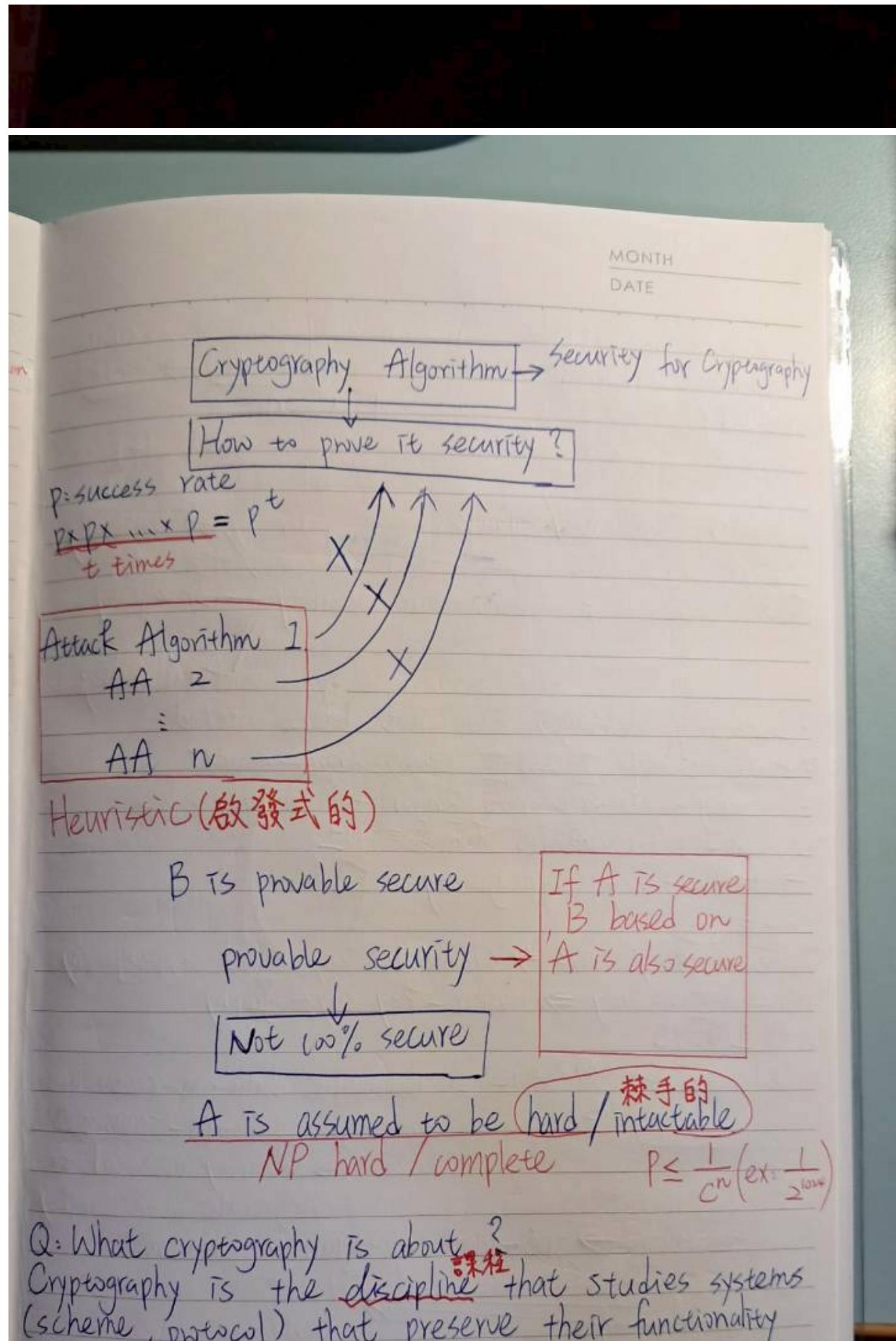
A security function is to protect an "information", but not saw message / data.

we need to define the format of M

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Significant amount of requirements for new cryptography scheme / protocols



(their goal)', even under the presence of an active disrupter

Passive Attacker Eavesdropping Man-in-the-middle

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Man-in-the-middle

intercept message

modify
delete

=

active attacker

=

⑥ Classic Problems / Goals

The principles of information security

Confidentiality

Integrity

Availability

- Integrity: Messages have not been altered
- Authenticity: Message comes from sender
- Secrecy: Message not known to anybody else
- Non-repudiation 不可否認性
- Public-key cryptography

互動地

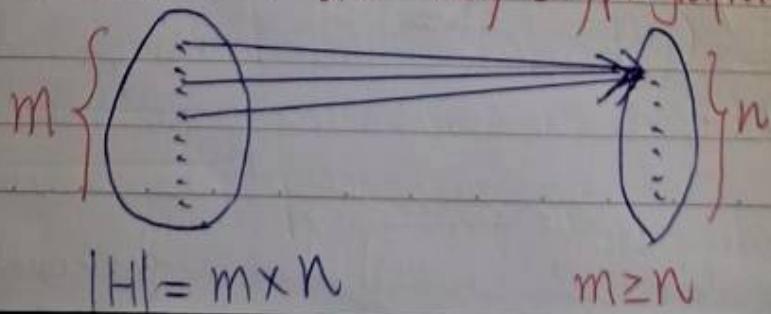
Interactively prove → symmetric key based cryptography

non-interactively ⇒ public-key cryptography

非互動地

We want to ① Store a document data-at-rest

② Send a message data-in-transit (過境) → security protocol to negotiate a session key
hash function → one-way cryptographic function



(ex.: 128-bits, 1024 bits)
fixed length Digital Signatures
 M : message, pk : public key, sk : secret key
pair

Sig(sk, M) = τ Ver(pk, τ, M) = {true, false}
sign function signature Verify function

D: data of large size, how to sign it?

Hash function $H: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{\text{fixed}}$

$H(D) = M$, $\text{Sig}(sk, H(D)) = \tau$, $\text{Ver}(pk, \tau, H(D)) = \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$

100 dollars check

$H(D)$

100 dollars check $\rightarrow M$

$H(\sigma')$

collision

② Provable security

③ The need for provable security

Cryptanalysis driven confidentiality secrecy integrity

The Recipe → security goal → system model

① Define goal of scheme (or adversary) ↓ potential Attackers

② Define attack model

③ Give a protocol

④ Define complexity assumptions (or assumptions on the primitive)

⑤ Provide a proof by reduction

⑥ Verify proof

⑦ Interpret proof

what attackers can do

An attacker model

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Definition to "security"

① Generalization: One-way function input output
 (One-way function: The function $f: \text{Dom}(f) \rightarrow \text{Ran}(f)$)
 $\text{Dom}(f) = \{x\} \rightarrow \text{Ran}(f) = \{y\}$ (easy, polynomial-time) n^2, n^3, n^{10}, \dots , only
 $y = f(x) \rightarrow x$ (difficult for random $x \in \text{Dom}(f)$, at least super-polynomial) $2, 3, 4, 5, \dots$

The advantage of an inverting adversary A is thus $\text{Adv}_{f,A}^{\text{inv}}(A) = \Pr[x \in \text{Dom}(f), y = f(x) : A(y) = x]$

Resource of A :

- ② Running time t (number of operations)
- ③ Number & length of queries (if in random oracle model)

$X \xrightarrow{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n} f: X \rightarrow Y \xrightarrow{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m}$

$f(x_i) = y_i$ if knowing y_i , can we determine $f(x_i) = y'_i$ (easy) it is calculate from x_i or x_i ? (impossible)
 the probability of collision is negligible

Definition (Negligible Probability): If a probability $p \leq \text{Sup-poly}(n)$, then p is negligible.

super-polynomial function ($C^n, n!, 2^n, \dots$)

X Ideal Assumptions (Perfect Security)

④ The need of computational assumptions
 Consider asymmetric cryptography, an encryption schemes AS = (K, E, D) is composed by three algorithm:

- K: Key generation $R \rightarrow K \rightarrow (k_e, k_d)$
- E: Encryption $M \xrightarrow{r, k_e} C$ randomness public-key message-key corresponding
- D: Decryption $C \xrightarrow{k_d} M$ or $C \xrightarrow{k_d} F(F(M)) = M$

Diagram of Diffie-Hellman Key Agreement:

Bob: $I = g^x$
 Alice: $S = g^{xy} = I^y$

Diffie-Hellman Key Agreement

$E(m_1) = C_1$ if $m_1 \neq m_2$, then $C_1 \neq C_2$
 $E(m_2) = C_2$ but $m_1 = m_2$, then $C_1 = C_2$
 $E(m_1) = C_1$ $C_1 \neq C_2$, even if $m_1 = m_2$ (100% 成立)
 $E(m_2) = C_2$
 $r \neq r'$

RSA: 1000 bits, 2048, ..., 4096 bits
 to private key or message
 r , and r' secret key

⑤ Unconditional secrecy is not possible at symmetric encryption.
 The ciphertext $C = E_{k_e}(m, r)$ is uniquely determined by (m, r)
 ⑥ The public encryption key $k_e \leftarrow f_{0,1} \xrightarrow{2 \times 2}$
 ⑦ The message $m \leftarrow f_{0,1} \xrightarrow{2 \times 2}$ so, at least exhaustive search
 ⑧ The random coins $r \leftarrow f_{0,1} \xrightarrow{2 \times 2}$ is possible!

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So, at least exhaustive search is possible!
 \Rightarrow unconditional secrecy is impossible

We need complexity (algorithm) assumption.

① Integer Factoring and RSA

Multiplication vs. Factorization $\rightarrow O(n^2)$
 $p, q \rightarrow n = p \cdot q$ is easy (quadratic) defining one-way function
 $n = p \cdot q \rightarrow p, q$ is hard (super-polynomial)

RSA Function

The function $f: \mathbb{Z}_n \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_n$, where $n = p \cdot q$, for a fixed exponent e :
 $\text{public-key } C = X^e \pmod{n} \rightarrow X$ (difficult without p, q)
 $\text{private-key } X = C^d \pmod{n} \rightarrow C$ (easy, trapdoor function)
 but easy $X = y^d \pmod{n}$ if trapdoor $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$ is known.

We measure the advantage of any inverting adversary A
 $\text{Adv}_{f,A}^{\text{inv}}(A) = \Pr[X \in \mathbb{Z}_n, C = X^e \pmod{n} : A(C) = X]$

Fermat's theorem randomly select an element from \mathbb{Z}_n^*
 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
 $a^p \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
 $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
 & if $n = p \cdot q$, then $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Note: Advantage \neq Probability of A 's goal, but here they are equal.

Operation of G with elements

② The Discrete Logarithm
 Let $G = \langle g, X \rangle$ be any finite cyclic group.
 a set of elements

For any $y \in G$, we define $\text{DLog}_g(y) = \min\{x \geq 0 | y = g^x\}$
 generator $\{g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{n-1}\}$

Exponentiation Function
 $\text{Exp}: \mathbb{Z}_q \rightarrow G$, where $\mathbb{Z}_q = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, q-1\}$
 $X \rightarrow C = g^X$ (easy, Euclid's algorithm)
 $C \rightarrow X$ (difficult, super-polynomial)
 $\text{Adv}_{f,A}^{\text{inv}}(A) = \Pr[X \in \mathbb{Z}_q, C = g^X, A(C) = X]$

Note: n is the size of input $\Rightarrow X$ is n -bit

③ Reduction (A, B)

$P \xrightarrow{\text{Transform}} P'$
 difficult \downarrow easy \rightarrow reduction
 $\text{Sol}(P) \xrightarrow{\text{Convert}} \text{Sol}(P')$

④ Algorithmic assumptions are necessary
 Recall that for RSA:
 $n = p \cdot q$, public modulus $E_{k_e}(m) = m^e \pmod{n}$
 e : public exponent and $\text{Prv}(c) = c^d \pmod{n}$ hard problem
 $d = e^{-1} \pmod{\phi(n)}$: private exponent
 Underlying hard problem:
 Computing m from $c = E_{k_e}(m)$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$
 finite field \mathbb{Z}_n^* ($\mathbb{Z}_n \setminus \{0\} = \mathbb{Z}_n^*$)

Easy fact: If the RSA problem is easy, secrecy does not hold: anybody (not only the owner of the trapdoor) can remove m from c .

Problem reduction

assumption \leftarrow security goal

But are algorithm assumptions sufficient? We want the guarantee that an assumption is enough for security.

For example, in the case of encryption.

$\Pr[A] \leq \Pr[B]$

If an adversary can break the secrecy More difficult \rightarrow Then we can break the assumption P

$A \rightarrow B$ holds then holds

(B) A Attacker Ability

Hard problem P $\Pr[P] \leq \Pr[P']$ Security Algorithm P'

也趨近於 0 趨近於 0

This is a reductionist proof!

② Proof by reduction

Let P be a problem.

Let A be an adversary that breaks (schemes) . Then A can be used to solve (P) .

$P \rightarrow \text{the scheme } P'$ We want to solve

(Homework) \downarrow $\text{A} \text{ can solve}$
 $\text{(power and smart guy)}$

$\text{sol}(P) \leftarrow \text{sol}(P')$

Instance I of P \rightarrow **New Algorithm for P** \rightarrow **Solution of I**

$\text{Adversary } A$ \rightarrow **A machine created to solve problem P**

$X = 112, 2, 18, 3, 5, 11$

If so, we say solving P reduces to breaking the scheme. Conclusion: If P unbreakable then scheme is unbreakable.

③ Provable Security?

A misleading name?

Not really proving a scheme secure but showing a reduction from security of scheme to the security of the underlying assumption (or primitive) \Rightarrow Reduction Security

assumption \rightarrow primitives Security Algorithm

hard problem (P) Scheme to be proven

Cryptographic scheme (P')

$P \rightarrow P'$
 $|A(P') \downarrow$
 $\text{sol}(P) \leftarrow \text{sol}(P')$

Provable security scheme

Before calling a scheme provably secure, we need

- To make precise the algorithmic assumptions (some given)
- To define the security notions to be guaranteed (next)
- A reduction!

④ Complexity - theory vs. Exact security vs. Practical

The interpretation of the reduction matters!

Given A within time t , success probability ϵ \Rightarrow Build Algorithm against P that runs in time $t' = T(t)$ with success probability $\epsilon' = R(\epsilon)$

The reduction requires showing T (for simplicity, suppose R depends only linearly in ϵ)

- Complexity theory: T polynomial
- Exact security: T explicit
- Practical security: T small (linear)

Each gives us a way to interpret reduction results.

Given A within time t and success probability ϵ \Rightarrow Build Algorithm against P that runs in time $t' = T(t, \epsilon)$ non-polynomial

Assumption: P is hard = "no polynomial time algorithm"

Reduction: T is polynomial in t and ϵ

Security result: There is no polynomial time adversary... which really means that there is no attack if the parameters are t tuning machine \Rightarrow probabilistic polynomial-time machine (PPT)

Not always meaningful, as when analyzing block ciphers.

Measuring the Quality of the Reduction

$t' \approx t$ and $\epsilon' \approx \epsilon$ \rightarrow tight reduction

100-bit \rightarrow 1000-bit $\times 10^3$ \rightarrow inefficient

How much is lost in the reduction? How much of the power of adversary A breaking the scheme remains in the algorithm breaking the problem P .

Tightness: A reduction is tight if $t' \approx t$ and $\epsilon' \approx \epsilon$. Otherwise, if $t' \gg t$ or $\epsilon' \ll \epsilon$, the reduction is not tight.

The tightness gap is $(t/\epsilon)/(t'/\epsilon') = (t/\epsilon)(\epsilon'/t')$

We want tight reduction, or at least reductions with small tightness gap.

⑤ Complexity - theorem Security: Results

General Results: Under polynomial reductions, against polynomial-time adversaries

- Trapdoor one-way permutations are enough for secure encryption
- One-way functions are enough for secure signatures

If only care about feasibility, these results close the chapter (no more problems left)... but

- the schemes for which these results were originally obtained are rather inefficient,
- looking into the complexity of the reduction may give us some insight,

④ Security Notions

Security Notions: Example 不可查認性

Problem: Authentication and (no-repudiation) (i.e. signature)

How do we come up with a security notion?

A $\xrightarrow{\text{msg}}$ B
 contain a knowledge X
 that can prove msg
 is sent by A

msg = {ID, msg-content}
 ↓
 identity of A

msg = {enct-ID, msg, msg-content}
 every time is different
 (unforgeable 不可偽造)

We need to think and define

① Security goal of the scheme (= Opposite to Adversary's goal)
 → Property that needs to be guaranteed

② Attack mode → unique

→ Attack venues, what the adversary can and cannot do
 → Leaked information, what the adversary can know from honest users (often modeled by oracles)

★③ Signature Schemes (Authentication)

Goal: Existential Forgery condition of success by Adversary
 The adversary wins if it forges a valid message-signature pair without private key) Informal description

Adversary does a good job (or the scheme is insecure) if
 • given the verification key $kv \rightarrow$ public key
 • outputs a pair m, σ of message and its signature such that the following probability is large: $Pr[Vf(k, m, \sigma)] = 1]$

⑤ Possible Attack Models

① No-Message Attack (NKA): adversary only knows the verification key

② Known-Message Attack (KMA): adversary also can access list of message / signature pairs.

③ Chosen-Message Attack (CMA): adversary can choose the messages for which he can see the message/signature pairs. (Strongest attack)

⑥ Security Notion for Signature Scheme: EUF-CMA

Given signature scheme $\Sigma = (K, \text{Sign}, Vf)$

(keys)	$K(\cdot)$	Security game	
kv	chosen by adversary	m	Signing Oracle
adversary	↓	τ	$\Sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(k, m)$
	↓		produced by Signing Oracle CMA
	(m', σ')	↓	\exists
Adversary	$(A) = Pr[Vf(k, m', \sigma') = 1, \text{ for new } m']$	The advantage by Adversary against Σ under security goal euf-cma security game	

Security Definition (EUF-CMA security)
 If for any attackers, $\text{Adv}_{\Sigma}^{\text{EUF-CMA}}$ is negligible, Σ is said to be EUF-CMA secure.

② Security Models
 Sometimes it is helpful to consider models where some tools (primitives) used by cryptographic schemes such as:

- ① Hash functions
- ② Block ciphers
- ③ Finite groups

are considered to be ideal, that is, the adversary can only use (attack) them in a certain way.

⇒ Idealized Security Models:

- ① Hash function → Random oracle
- ② Block ciphers → Ideal cipher
- ③ Finite groups → Generic group

Standard model: no idealized primitives (sort of) ★

• Random Oracle
 Arguably the most used idealized model to prove security of practical schemes. pseudorandom
 (Hash function $H: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \text{Rec}(H)$) is analyzed as if it were a perfectly random function.

- Each new query receives a random answer in $\text{Rec}(H)$
- The same query asked twice receives the same answer twice

But for actual scheme, H is replaced by cryptographic hash function (SHA-1, RIPEMD-160, ...)

$x_1 \rightarrow y_1$	$x_1 \xrightarrow{\quad ? \quad} y_1$	$H(x_1) = y_1$	SHA-1
$x_2 \rightarrow y_2$	$x_2 \xrightarrow{\quad ? \quad} y_2$	$H(x_2) = y_2$	SHA-2
$x_i \rightarrow ?$	$x_i \xrightarrow{\quad ? \quad} ?$	$H(x_i) = y_i$	

Examples of use:

- ① Signature Schemes: Full-Domain Hash, Schnorr
- ② Encryption schemes: OAEP-based constructions

Somewhat controversial: not really prov, only heuristic

② Full-Domain Hash Signatures

Scheme FDH is (K, S, V) as follows

- K : Key Generation returns (f, f') where
 - ① Public key $f: X \rightarrow X$, a trapdoor one-way permutation onto X (efficient algorithm of f^{-1} (64-bit file, 160-bit message))
 - ② Private key f' (cryptograph on one-way function) (everyone can do with f')
- S : Signature of m , returns $\sigma \leftarrow f'(H(m))$ (f' can change σ on $H(m)$)
- V : Verification of (m, σ) , returns true if $f(f'(H(m))) = H(m)$

Existential Unforgeability - chosen message attack

Theorem (FDH is EUF-CMA in the Random Oracle model) by owner of sk

Let FDH be the FDH signature scheme using one-way permutation f (ex: $f = \text{RSA}$) the approach to prove the scheme
 For each adversary A there exist an adversary B such that $\text{Adv}_{\text{FDH}}^{\text{euf-cma}}(A) \leq (\beta_m + \beta_s + 1) \cdot \text{Adv}_{\text{EUF-CMA}}^{\text{oracle}}(B)$, where

- ① A runs in time t , makes β_m queries to hash function (R0), and β_s signature queries. polynomial variable
- ② T_f is the time to compute f (in the forward direction) permutation function for FDH
- ③ B runs in time $t + T_f + (\beta_m + \beta_s)$. If B simulates time to proof: We use a game-based proof's technique. interact with A by B
- ④ Define sequence of games G_0, G_1, \dots, G_s of games or experiments
- ⑤ All games in the same probability space No additional source of randomness
- ⑥ Rules on how the view of the game is computed differs ideal vs real
- ⑦ Successive games are very similar, typically with slightly different

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distribution probabilities

⑤ G_0 is the actual security game (EUF-CMA)

⑥ G_S is the game for the underlying assumption (ow)

⑦ We relate the probabilities of the events that define the advantages in G_0 and G_S , via all the intermediate games.

Game G_0 : the real euf-cma game with signing oracle and a random oracle, but we also provide a verification oracle Vf .

Verification oracle $Vf(m, \tau)$: Return true if $H(m) = f(\tau)$. The game ends when adversary sends (m, τ) here.

Let S_0 be the event: "A outputs a pair (m, τ) for which Vf returns true".

Clearly, $\text{Adv}_{\text{EUF-CMA}}^{\text{FRT}}(A) = \Pr[S_0]$

Game G_1 : as G_0 but oracles are simulated as below.

Hashing oracle $H(\tau)$: Create an initially empty list called $H\text{-List}$.
 $\xrightarrow{\tau} (\tau, \tau) \rightarrow r$
 \rightarrow If $(\tau, \star, r) \in H\text{-List}$, return r .
 $\xrightarrow{\tau} (\tau, \star, r) \rightarrow r$
 \rightarrow Otherwise reply using Rule $H^{(1)}$: $r \leftarrow X$, and add record (τ, \star, r) to $H\text{-List}$.

(Ideal)
Signing oracle $S(m)$: $r \leftarrow H(m)$. Reply using Rule $S^{(1)}$:
 $\tau \leftarrow f(r)$.

(Ideal)
Verification oracle $Vf(m, \tau)$: $r \leftarrow H(m)$.
 Return true if $r = f(\tau)$

Game ends when oracle called.

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Let S_1 be the event: " Vf returns true in G_1 ". The number of querying oracle calls.

Clearly $\Pr[S_1] = \Pr[S_0]$.

Game G_2 : as G_1 but where
 ① Let $C = \text{index of first query where message } m' \text{ (the one for which A outputs a forgery) was sent to the hashing oracle by A.}$
 ② If $C \neq C'$, then abort. (target $C = C'$)

Success verification is within the game \Rightarrow the adversary must query his output message m' .

$\Pr[S_1] \geq \Pr[S_1 | \text{GoodGuess}] \geq \Pr[S_1 | \text{GoodGuess}] \times \Pr[\text{GoodGuess}]$

$\Pr[S_1] \geq \Pr[S_1] \times \frac{1}{2^{t+1}}$

Game G_3 : as G_2 but now use the following rule in the hashing oracle.
 ① Let y be the challenge from which we want to extract a preimage x by f .
 Rule $H^{(2)}$: If this is the c -th query, set $r \leftarrow x$.
 Else $\xrightarrow{(r, l, y)} r$. Otherwise, choose random. Add record (r, l, y) to $H\text{-List}$.
 $\rightarrow r \leftarrow H(m)$

Since position y is chosen uniformly at random, $\Pr[S_1] = \Pr[S_2]$
 $(\tau, l) = H(m) \bmod N = y \bmod N$, $f(x) = (y^q)^p \bmod N = \tau$

Game G_4 : as G_3 but modify simulation of hashing oracle (which may be used in signing queries).

Rule $H^{(3)}$: If this is the c -th query, set $r \leftarrow y$ and $s \leftarrow l$.
 Otherwise, choose random $\xrightarrow{(r, s, l, y)} r$, compute $t \leftarrow f(s)$.
 Add record (r, s, l, y) to $H\text{-List}$.
 Since position y is random, f is permutation, and S is random:
 $\Pr[S_1] = \Pr[S_3]$ ($\Pr[\tau = H(m)] = \Pr[\tau = H(m)]$) Note: $(H(m))^p = H(m)$

Normal Procedure of FPH Signature Scheme

Game G₅: except for the C-th query, all preimage are known. Then, we can simulate signing oracle without f^{-1} . Rule S^(t): Lookup (m, \square) in H-List, and set $\square \leftarrow s$. Since C-th query cannot be asked to hash oracle, then $\Pr[S_5] = \Pr[S_4]$ $\otimes_{S \leftarrow X} \otimes_{H \leftarrow \square} = 1$ $\otimes_{(m, s)} = 1$. Moreover, simulation can be done computing $(f^{-1} + f^{-1})$ evaluations if $\#(f^{-1}) = 1$.

Signature forgery for y gives preimage for y : $\Pr[S_5] = \text{Adv}_{\text{FPH}}^{\text{forg}}(B)$, where $B = G$ runs in time $t + (g_1 + g_2)T_f$. $\Pr[S_4] = \text{Adv}_{\text{FPH}}^{\text{forg}}(A)$ runs in time $t + (g_1 + g_2)T_f$.

Combining the relations from previous games.

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{FPH}}^{\text{forg}}(B) = \Pr[S_5] = \Pr[S_4] = \Pr[S_3] = \Pr[S_2] = \Pr[S_1]$$

$$(\rightarrow 0) \geq \frac{1}{8t + 8s + 1} \times \Pr[S_1]$$

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{FPH}}^{\text{forg}}(B) \geq \frac{1}{8t + 8s + 1}$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{8t + 8s + 1} \times \Pr[S_2]$$

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{FPH}}^{\text{forg}}(B) \times (\Pr[S_1] + \Pr[S_2]) \geq \frac{1}{8t + 8s + 1} \times \Pr[S_1] + \Pr[S_2]$$

$$= \frac{1}{8t + 8s + 1} \times \text{Adv}_{\text{FPH}}^{\text{ent-con}}(A) \rightarrow 0$$

Game-playing profits: In general, games can have different distributions, and this gaps are included in the concrete security relation.

Full-Domain Hash: Interpreting the result

Suppose feasible security bounds for any adversary are:

- at most 2^{25} operations (t).
- at most 2^{25} hash queries (g_1), and
- at most 2^{20} signing queries (g_2)

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{FPH}}^{\text{forg}}(A) \leq (8t + 8s + 1) \cdot \text{Adv}_{\text{FDH}}^{\text{forg}}(B)$$

B runs in time $t + (g_1 + g_2)T_f$.

Interpreting the result: If one can break the scheme with time t , then one can invert f within time $t' \leq (8t + 8s + 1)(t + (g_1 + g_2)T_f) \leq 2^{10} + 2^{10}T_f$. If this, inverting f can be done in time $t' \leq 2^{10} + 2^{10}T_f$. Recall that $T_f = O(k^2)$ operations, if $k = |\mathcal{N}|$. Key is of k -bit and e small.

We compare it with known bounds on f : calculating f is $O(1)$ inverting RSA (namely, factoring using the $k = 1024 = 2^{10}, k = 2^{10}$ best known inverting algorithm, the Number Field Sieve (NFS)) for f -RSA

- 1024 bits $\rightarrow t' \leq 2^{10}$... but NFS takes 2^{10} \rightarrow insecure
- 1024 bits $\rightarrow t' \leq 2^{10}$... but NFS takes 2^{10} \rightarrow secure for keys
- 1024 bits $\rightarrow t' \leq 2^{10}$... but NFS takes 2^{10} \rightarrow secure at least fail

④ Security Notions: Encryption Schemes
Problem: Secrecy (i.e. encryption). Goal: cannot be too strong
Perfect Secrecy: not possible, ciphertext (info-theoretically) reveals information about the plaintext

不可區分混淆
Goal: Indistinguishability (Semantic Security). Informal Given the ciphertext and the encryption key, the adversary cannot tell apart two same-length but different messages encrypted under the scheme, even if chose the message itself. (semantic security game)

A

m_0, m_1	Encryption	$C = E(m_b)$
(m_0, m_1)		b
$m'_0 \equiv m_0$		A guesses b' is a ciphertext of m_0 or m_1
$E(m_0) \neq E(m_1)$		$b' \in \{0, 1\}$
$E_{k_0}(m_0) = C$		$Adv(A) = Pr[b' = b] - \frac{1}{2}$

⑤ Attack model

- Chosen-Plaintext Attack (CPA): adversary can get the encryption of any plaintext of his choice.
- Chosen-Ciphertext Attack (CCA or CCA2): adversary also has access to a decryption oracle which (adaptively) decryps any ciphertext of his choice except one specific ciphertext (called the challenge).

Strongest attack

⑥ Security Notion for (Asymmetric) Encryption: IND-CCA
Given (asymmetric) encryption scheme AS = (K, E, D)

⑦ Adversary A :
 1. $K \leftarrow K()$
 2. $m_0, m_1 \leftarrow \text{random bits}$
 3. $c \leftarrow E_{k_0}(m_b)$
 4. $c^* \leftarrow A(k_0, c)$
 5. $m' \leftarrow D_{k_0}(c^*)$

Challenge ciphertext: c^*

Adversary A : $Pr[(m_0, m_1) \leftarrow A(k_0), c^* \leftarrow E_{k_0}(m_b); b' = b]$

Note: IND-CCA (Indistinguishability against chosen-ciphertext attacks)

⑧ A Weaker Security Notion: OW-CPA
It may be helpful to consider a weaker security goal too. Consider the game. ① Let m_0 be a random message chosen from message space M .
 ② From ciphertext $c = E_{k_0}(m_0)$, adversary A must recover m_0 .

If no feasible adversary A can win the above game with reasonable probability, accordingly, we measure the advantage of A as $Adv_{AS}(A) = Pr[m_0 \neq M, c \leftarrow E_{k_0}(m_0) | A(k_0, c) = m_0]$

⑨ Goals Achieved by Practical Encryption Scheme

- Integer Factoring-based: RSA
 \rightarrow OW-CPA = RSA (modular e -th roots)
- It's not IND-CPA nor IND-CCA since PPs determine $m^e \equiv C \pmod{N}$, $C^d \equiv m \pmod{N}$

• Discrete-Log-based: ElGamal
 \rightarrow OW-CPA = CDH (computational Diffie-Hellman)
 \rightarrow IND-CPA = DDH (decisional Diffie-Hellman)
 \rightarrow It's not IND-CCA because of multiplicativity
 Obs: CDH and DDH are weaker problem than Dlog
 (DDH reduces to CDH which reduces to Dlog)
 Thm: CDH problem: Given g^x, g^y , find g^{xy}
 DDH problem: Given g^x, g^y, g^z
 Encryption security by Semantic security
 $\rightarrow z$ is random 0
 $\rightarrow z$ is $xz + 1$

(g^x, y)
 public key private key

$C_0 = m \cdot (g^x)^r \rightarrow c = ((g^x)^r)^{-1} \cdot c_0$
 $C_1 = g^y \rightarrow = m$
 $C = (C_0, C_1)$

Decryption: knowing y
 Encryption: Only knowing y

⑩ Achieving Stronger Goals
 We would like to obtain IND-CCA.
 What we know at this point:
 (1) Any trapdoor one-way function may yield a OW-CPA encryption scheme.
 (2) OW-CPA not enough to IND-CPA nor IND-CCA?
 So, how do we obtain IND-CCA?
 A: Generic conversion from weakly secure to strongly secure schemes.

⑪ f-OAEP

Let f be a trapdoor one-way permutation, n, k_0, k_1 integers such that $n > k_0 + k_1$, with $G: \{0, 1\}^{k_0} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{k_1}$
 $H: \{0, 1\}^{k_0} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^n$

$m \rightarrow m_0, m_1$
 $m_0 \rightarrow H$
 $m_1 \rightarrow H$
 $H \rightarrow f_{k_0}$
 $m_0 \oplus f_{k_0} \rightarrow H$
 $m_1 \oplus f_{k_1} \rightarrow H$
 $H \oplus f_{k_1} \rightarrow y$

$E(m|x)$: Compute $x \parallel y$ then return $c = f(x \parallel y)$
 $D(c)$: Compute $x \parallel y = f^{-1}(c)$, invert OAEP, then check redundancy.