

## Solution Sheet #3

*Advanced Cryptography 2021*

### Solution 1 The Goldwasser-Micali Cryptosystem

1. By construction, we have  $n = pq$ ,  $\left(\frac{z}{p}\right) = -1$ , and  $c \equiv r^2 z^b \pmod{n}$ . We have  $\left(\frac{c}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{r^2 z^b}{p}\right)$  since  $p$  divides  $n$ . Thus,

$$\left(\frac{c}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{r^2 z^b}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{z}{p}\right)^b = (-1)^b$$

So, the decryption of  $c$  produces  $b$ .

2. Key generation: to generate the primes  $p$  and  $q$  of bit size  $s$  requires  $\mathcal{O}(s^4)$  by using Miller-Rabin primality testing, square-and-multiply exponentiation, and schoolbook multiplication. The Legendre symbol requires  $\mathcal{O}(s^2)$  which is negligible, as well as computing  $n = pq$ . So, key generation works in  $\mathcal{O}(s^4)$ .

Encryption: this requires a constant number of multiplications which are  $\mathcal{O}(s^2)$ .

Decryption: this requires a Legendre symbol, so  $\mathcal{O}(s^2)$  as well.

3. (a) In the KR problem, an instance is a pair  $(n, z)$  such that  $n \in \mathcal{N}$  and  $\left(\frac{z}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{z}{q}\right) = -1$  where  $n = pq$  is the factoring of  $n$ . The solution to the problem is  $p$ . Or, equivalently,  $q$  which plays a symmetric role.
- (b) Clearly, factoring  $n$  solves the problem: by submitting  $n$  to an oracle solving **Fact**, we get  $p$  and  $q$  so we can yield  $p$ .

Conversely, with an oracle solving the KR problem, we can define an algorithm to factor  $n$ . For this, we just need to find one  $z$  satisfying  $\left(\frac{z}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{z}{q}\right) = -1$  and feed  $(n, z)$  to the oracle solving **KR**. By construction, we have

$$\left(\frac{z}{n}\right) = \left(\frac{z}{p}\right) \left(\frac{z}{q}\right) = 1$$

If we pick a random  $z$  satisfying  $\left(\frac{z}{n}\right) = 1$ , we have  $\left(\frac{z}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{z}{q}\right)$  but this can be 1 or  $-1$ . If this is  $-1$  (which happens with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ ), feeding  $(n, z)$  to the **KR** oracle yield  $p$ . We can check that  $p$  solve the **Fact** problem and stop. If it is  $+1$ , it is bad luck as we have a bad  $z$  and we don't know. Thus, feeding  $(n, z)$  to the **KR** oracle may give anything. However, if it gives something which solves the **Fact** oracle, we are happy anyway and we can stop. Otherwise, we can start again with a new  $z$ . Eventually, we find a good  $z$  and the solution to **Fact**.

So, **KR** and **Fact** are equivalent.

4. (a) In the DP problem, an instance is defined by a triplet  $(n, z, c)$  where  $n \in \mathcal{N}$  (let write  $n = pq$ ),  $z \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$  is a non-quadratic residue with  $\left(\frac{z}{n}\right) = 1$ , and  $c = r^2 z^b \bmod n$  for some  $r \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$  and a bit  $b$ . The problem is to find  $b$ .
- (b) Clearly, with an oracle solving QR, we can solve DP: we just submit  $(n, c)$  to the QR oracle and obtain  $b$ . Indeed,  $r^2 z^b \bmod n$  is a quadratic residue if and only if  $b = 0$ . To show the converse, we assume an oracle  $\mathcal{O}$  solving the DP problem and construct an algorithm to solve the QR one. Given a QR instance  $(n, c)$ , we pick  $z \in \mathbf{Z}_n^*$  such that  $\left(\frac{z}{n}\right) = 1$  and consider the function  $f_z : y \mapsto \mathcal{O}(n, z, y)$ . If  $z$  is a quadratic residue, we observe that for any  $b$ ,  $r^2 z^b \bmod n$  is uniformly distributed in the set of quadratic residues modulo  $n$ . So, this is independent from  $b$ . Thus,  $f_z(r^2 z^b \bmod n)$  is a random bit independent from  $b$ . If now  $z$  is a non-quadratic residue,  $f_z(r^2 z^b \bmod n) = b$ . By taking  $b$  uniformly distributed, we can easily identify in which case we are. We can thus iterate until we have a good  $z$  which is a non-quadratic residue. Then, we can compute  $f_z(c)$  and get the solution to the QR problem.
- So, DP and QR are equivalent.

## Solution 2 The CPA-secure PKC from the deterministic PKC (HW 1, 2019)

1. Consider the following adversary  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ .

<b>Adversary: <math>\mathcal{A}_1(pk)</math></b> $m_0 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{M}$ $m_1 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{M} \setminus \{m_0\}$ $s_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{C}.\text{Enc}(pk, m_0)$ <b>return</b> $m_0, m_1, s_1$	<b>Adversary: <math>\mathcal{A}_2(c, s_1)</math></b> <b>if</b> $c = s_1$ <b>then</b>   <b>return</b> 0 <b>else</b>   <b>return</b> 1 <b>end</b>
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If  $\mathcal{C}$  is deterministic,  $\mathcal{C}.\text{Enc}(pk, m) = \mathcal{C}.\text{Enc}(pk, m') \iff m = m'$ . Then, we have

$$\Pr [\text{IND-CPA}_{\mathcal{C}}^{\mathcal{A}}(0, \lambda) = 1] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr [\text{IND-CPA}_{\mathcal{C}}^{\mathcal{A}}(1, \lambda) = 1] = 1.$$

The advantage  $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{C}}^{\text{IND-CPA}}(\lambda) = 1$  for any  $\mathcal{C}$ . Hence, there is no IND-CPA-secure deterministic PKC.

2. Consider the following adversary  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$ .

<b>Adversary: <math>\mathcal{A}_1(pk)</math></b> $m_0 \leftarrow 0$ $m_1 \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{M}_2 \setminus \{0\}$ $s_1 \leftarrow \perp$ <b>return</b> $m_0, m_1, s_1$	<b>Adversary: <math>\mathcal{A}_2(c, s_1)</math></b> $c_1, c_2 \leftarrow c$ <b>if</b> $c_1 = c_2$ <b>then</b>   <b>return</b> 0 <b>else</b>   <b>return</b> 1 <b>end</b>
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If  $m$  is zero,  $\text{Enc}_1(pk, m \oplus r) = \text{Enc}_1(pk, r)$  because  $\text{Enc}_1$  is deterministic. Therefore,  $c_1 = c_2$  if  $c_1$  is the encryption of 0, which is  $m_0$ . So, we have

$$\Pr [\text{IND-CPA}_{\mathcal{C}_2}^{\mathcal{A}}(0, \lambda) = 1] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr [\text{IND-CPA}_{\mathcal{C}_2}^{\mathcal{A}}(1, \lambda) = 1] = 1.$$

Hence, we have  $\text{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{C}_2}^{\text{IND-CPA}}(\lambda) = 1$ , and  $\mathcal{C}_2$  is not IND-CPA-secure.

3. If  $\mathcal{C}_1$  is the plain RSA and  $\mathcal{M}_2$  is a multiplicative group, the ciphertext  $c = (c_1, c_2)$  can be written as follows:

$$(c_1, c_2) = ((mr)^e \bmod n, r^e \bmod n)$$

where  $(e, n)$  is a public key pair in the plain RSA. Then, we can deduce that

$$c_1 \equiv m^e c_2 \pmod{n}$$

Now, consider the following adversary  $\mathcal{A}$ :

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Adversary:  $\mathcal{A}_1(pk, m_0, m_1, c)$ 
 $e, n \leftarrow pk$ 
 $c_1, c_2 \leftarrow c$ 
if  $c_1 \equiv m_0^e c_2 \pmod{n}$  then
  | return 0
else
  | return 1
end

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Since  $c_1 \equiv m_0^e c_2 \pmod{n}$  always holds if  $c$  is an encryption of  $m_0$ , the guess of  $\mathcal{A}$  is always correct. Hence, the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is 1 and  $\mathcal{C}_2$  is not IND-KPA-secure.