

Introduction to
Cryptography
Lecture 16–18

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① Lecture 16 - 18 – OWF candidates, Construction of PRGs, HF

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One-way functions

Candidates for OWFs and OWPs

One-way functions from computationally secret encryption*

From one-way permutations to pseudorandom generators

Hash functions

- Informally, a function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is **one-way** if
 - it is “**easy**” to compute $f(x)$ for any $x \in X$, but
 - it is “**infeasible**” to compute $f^{-1}(y)$ for **most** $y \in Y$.
- In order to give a formal definition of “**one-way**” we need to make to precise what we mean by “**easy**”, “**infeasible**”, and “**most**”.
- Just as in the case of PRGs and PRFs/PRPs one has to use either **concrete** or **asymptotic** bounds.
- We only consider the asymptotic definition:
 - The (security) **parameter** becomes the problem length $n = |x|$ with $X_n := \{x \in X: |x| = n\}$.
 - “**easy**” becomes **DPT**-computable.
 - “**infeasible**” and “**most**” becomes that any **PPT**-adversary has only a **negligible** chance to compute any $x' \in f^{-1}(f(x))$ for $x \stackrel{u}{\in} X_n$.

- **Definition:** simple one-way function/permutation (OWF/OWP)

A DPT-computable function

$$f: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$$

is called a simple OWF if for any PPT-algorithm \mathcal{A}

$$\varepsilon(n) := \Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} [\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) \in f^{-1}(f(x))]$$

is negligible in n .

It is a simple OWP if $f(\{0,1\}^n) = \{0,1\}^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- **Theorem:** (w/o proof)

If (simple) OWF exist, then $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$.

▷ We can only conjecture that certain problems yield OWFs.

- As simple OWF map binary strings to binary strings, it is quite cumbersome to really paraphrase actual problems like

- Factorization of integers:

For a given $N \in \mathbb{N}$ find non-trivial x, y s.t. $N = xy$.

- Discrete logarithm:

For a cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$ and $y \in \mathbb{G}$ find x s.t. $g^x = y$.

as a **simple** OWF.

- ▷ For these problems, it is more convenient to use collections of OWFs.

- **Definition:** A PPT-function collection $\mathcal{F} = (\text{Gen}, f)$ consists of

Algorithm	Type	Input	Output
Gen	PPT	1^n	$I \in \mathcal{I}_n$ with $ I \geq n$
f	DPT	$I \in \mathcal{I}_n, x \in \text{Dom}_I$	$y \in \text{Rng}_I$

where

Gen generates function parameters $I \in \mathcal{I}_n$.

Every parameter I defines a domain Dom_I and range Rng_I , and the function $f_I: \text{Dom}_I \rightarrow \text{Rng}_I: x \mapsto f_I(x) := f(I, x)$

\mathcal{F} is a permutation collection if f_I is a permutation on $\text{Dom}_I = \text{Rng}_I$ for every $I \in \mathcal{I}_n$.

- **Definition:** A one-way function/permutation (collection) (OWF/OWP) $\mathcal{F} = (\text{Gen}, f, \text{Smpl})$ is a function/permutation collection (Gen, f) plus a sampling algorithm

Algorithm	Type	Input	Output
Smpl	PPT	$I \in \mathcal{I}_n$	some x where $x \stackrel{r}{\in} \text{Dom}_I$ except for negl. prob.

such that for any PPT-adversary $\Pr[\text{Win}_{n,\mathcal{F}}^{\text{OWF}}](\mathcal{A})$ is negl. in n :

- 1 Alice&Bob generate $I \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Gen}(1^n)$,
choose $x \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Smpl}(I)$, compute $y := f_I(x)$, and
pass (I, y) to Eve.
- 2 Eve runs $\mathcal{A}(I, y)$ to obtain x' .
▷ Let $\text{Win}_{n,\mathcal{F}}^{\text{OWF}}(\mathcal{A})$ be the event that $f_I(x') = y$.

Short: $\Pr_{I \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Gen}(1^n), x \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Smpl}(I)}[\mathcal{A}(I, f_I(x)) \in f_I^{-1}(f_I(x))]$ is negl. in n .

- Generic setup for factorization:
 - Gen is deterministic with $I_n := \text{Gen}(1^n)$
 - $\text{Dom}_{I_n} \subseteq [0, 2^{n/k} - 1]^k$ for some k determined by I_n
 - $\text{Rng}_{I_n} = [2^{n-1}, 2^n - 1]$
 - $f_{I_n}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k_n}) := x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdots x_{k_n}$ for $(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \text{Dom}_{I_n}$
 - Smpl_{I_n} chooses $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \stackrel{u}{\in} \text{Dom}_{I_n}$
- ▷ Crucial point: choice of Dom_{I_n} .

- Generic setup for discrete logarithm:
 - **Gen** outputs some **description** of a cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$
 - **Description**: algorithm which allows to compute in $\langle \mathbb{G}, \cdot, 1 \rangle$ efficiently.
 - E.g. for \mathbb{Z}_p^* knowledge of p suffices.
 - $\text{Dom}_{\mathbb{G}} = \mathbb{Z}_{|\mathbb{G}|}$
 - $\text{Rng}_{\mathbb{G}} = \mathbb{G}$
 - $f_{\mathbb{G}}(x) := g^x$ computed in \mathbb{G}
 - $\text{Smpl}_{\mathbb{G}}$ chooses $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \mathbb{Z}_{|\mathbb{G}|}$.
- ▷ Crucial point: choice of \mathbb{G}

- Obviously, every simple OWF/OWP is also a OWF/OWP collection.
- We can transform any OWF/OWP collection into a simple OWF.

Given $(\text{Gen}, \text{Smpl}, f)$, the single DPT-algorithm \tilde{f} treats its input $\{0, 1\}^n$ as random bit string which it uses to run Gen and Smpl .

- ▷ "' $\tilde{f}(x) := \text{deduce } n \text{ from } |x|; \text{ split } x = x_{\text{Gen}} || x_{\text{Smpl}};$
 $I := \text{Gen}(1^n, x_{\text{Gen}}); \text{ return } y := f_I(\text{Smpl}(I, x_{\text{Smpl}}))$ "'

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- **Notation:**

N positive integer ($N \in \mathbb{N}$), usually $N > 1$.

N is an n -bit integer if $2^{n-1} \leq N < 2^n$.

$d|N$ short for “ d divides N ”.

d is a nontrivial factor of N if $d|N$ and $d \notin \{1, N\}$.

- **Problem:** Integer factorization

Given a positive integer N , find any nontrivial factor d of N – if there is one.

- **Example:** On input $N = 12345678910111213$, find 113.
- **Ex:** Let \mathcal{A} be an algorithm which finds a nontrivial factor of a given N if there is one, and denote by $T_{\mathcal{A}}$ its running time.

Show how to compute the complete prime factorization of an n -bit integer N in time $n \cdot T_{\mathcal{A}}(n)$.

- Generic setup for factorization (reminder):
 - Gen is deterministic with $I_n := \text{Gen}(1^n)$
 - $\text{Dom}_{I_n} \subseteq [0, 2^{n/k} - 1]^k$ for some k determined by I_n
(i.e. a k -tuple of integers representable with n/k bits each)
 - $\text{Rng}_{I_n} = [0, 2^n - 1]$
 - $f_{I_n}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) := x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdots x_k$ for $(x_1, \dots, x_k) \in \text{Dom}_{I_n}$
 - Smpl_{I_n} chooses $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k) \stackrel{u}{\in} \text{Dom}_{I_n}$
- ▷ Crucial point: choice of Gen resp. Dom_{I_n}
- Product yields hard to factorize number.
 - Has to be efficiently samplable.
- ▷ **Def.:** We say that factorization is hard w.r.t. Gen if (we conjecture that) above is a OWF for this particular Gen .

- How difficult is it to find a factor?
 - ▷ For most N , it's trivial: assume we choose $N \stackrel{u}{\in} [0, 2^n - 1]$, then N is even with prob. $1/2$.
 - ▷ **Ex:** For $d < 2^n$, give a lower bound on the prob. that $d|N$ when $N \stackrel{u}{\in} [0, 2^n - 1]$.
- **Conjecture:** Standard conjecture for factorization

Factorization becomes an OWF if N is the product of two distinct random $n/2$ -bit primes.

- ▷ I.e. $\text{Dom}_{I_n} = \{(p, q) \in [2^{n/2-1}, 2^{n/2} - 1]^2 : p, q \text{ prime} \wedge p \neq q\}$
- ▷ **Ex:** Assume p, q are generated using rejection sampling.

Approximate the probability that $p = q$ using the prime number theorem.

- **Def:** We use GenP^2 to denote a PPT-algorithm that outputs a pair of distinct $n/2$ -bit primes chosen uniformly at random from the set of all pairs of distinct $n/2$ -bit primes **except for negligible probability w.r.t. n** (e.g. by means of rejection sampling using Miller-Rabin as primality test).
- ▷ Slightly imprecise the standard conjecture for factorization becomes **factorization is hard w.r.t. GenP^2**
(GenP^2 actually combines parameter generation and sampling.)
- **Remark:** Factorization is hard w.r.t. GenP^2 iff computing square roots of quadratic residues modulo $N = pq$ is hard. (See the appendix for details.)

- Best algorithms known (aka. published) today:

▷ Classical computers:

General number field sieve factorizes N in time $\mathcal{O}(e^{(\frac{64}{9}n)^{\frac{1}{3}}(\log n)^{\frac{2}{3}}})$.

For $n = 1024$, this is roughly $c \cdot 2^{89}$ in the worst case for some constant c .

▷ Quantum computers:

Shor's algorithm runs in time $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$ and requires $\mathcal{O}(n)$ qubits.

- Timeline of quantum computing

(D-Wave's systems are currently not considered to be universal quantum computers.)

- ▷ See [here](#) for a list of “factorization records”.
- ▷ So we essentially conjecture that $\text{Gen}\mathbb{P}^2$ only produces worst-case problem instances for integer factorization.

- **Problem:** Discrete logarithm problem (DLP)

Given a description of a finite cyclic group \mathbb{G} , a generator $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{G}$, and a group element $y \in \mathbb{G}$, find an $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $g^x = y$ in \mathbb{G} .

- **Example:** Let $(p, p-1, g)$ be a description of $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ for p prime.

Given $p = 1019$, $g = 7$, and $y = 65$,

find x with $7^x \equiv 65 \pmod{1019}$.

- Generic setup for discrete logarithm (reminder):
 - **Gen** outputs some description of a cyclic group $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$
 - $\text{Dom}_{\mathbb{G}} = \mathbb{Z}_{|\mathbb{G}|}$
 - $\text{Rng}_{\mathbb{G}} = \mathbb{G}$
 - $f_{\mathbb{G}}(x) := g^x$ computed in \mathbb{G}
 - **Smpl** $_{\mathbb{G}}$ chooses $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \mathbb{Z}_{|\mathbb{G}|}$.
- ▷ Crucial point: choice of **Gen** resp. \mathbb{G}
- Above needs to become an OWF.
 - Need to be able to efficiently compute in \mathbb{G} .
- **Def.:** We say that the **DLP is hard w.r.t. Gen**
if (we conjecture that) above is an OWF for this particular **Gen**.

- The parameters output by Gen is in the case of the DLP a description of a group.
- ▶ We could output a table of the group operation (Cayley table)
BUT as the adversary is given the parameter/descriptions this would make brute-force search feasible.
- ▶ The description has to include
 - the chosen generator g
 - the size/order of the group $|\mathbb{G}|$
 - enough information to efficiently compute in \mathbb{G}
- For instance, for \mathbb{Z}_p^* the prime p is a succinct, but efficient description.

- As in the case of integer factorization:

Want to use only groups for which the DLP is always hard.

- Computing the discrete logarithm is easy in $\mathbb{Z}_M \hat{=} \langle \mathbb{Z}_M, +, 0 \rangle$.
- As every cyclic group \mathbb{G} is isomorphic to $\langle \mathbb{Z}_{|\mathbb{G}|}, +, 0 \rangle$, we want “worst-case” representations of \mathbb{Z}_M which make computing the discrete logarithm hard.
- Let $M = |\mathbb{G}|$, and assume $M = p^r N$ with p prime and $\gcd(p, N) = 1$.

By the CRT: $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{G} \cong \mathbb{Z}_M \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^r} \times \mathbb{Z}_N \cong \langle g^{p^r} \rangle \times \langle g^N \rangle$

That is: we can remove small prime factors of M , and work in smaller subgroups of \mathbb{G} .

- ▷ For this reason, we want to use primes p such that $p - 1$ has one dominating prime factor, e.g. as in the case of a safe prime $p = 2q + 1$ (q also prime).

- Current **conjectures** which groups to use for a given n :
 - Pick a (safe) n -bit prime p and use \mathbb{Z}_p^* .
 - Pick a **safe** $n + 1$ -bit prime p and use \mathbb{QR}_p .

Note: \mathbb{QR}_p is of prime order q , i.e. we cannot use the CRT to move to smaller groups.

- More general: **strong primes**

A strong prime p is of the form $p = kq + 1$ with q an n -bit prime and k “small” so that we can efficiently determine k from $p - 1$.

Let g generate \mathbb{Z}_p^* , and use $\langle g^k \rangle$ for \mathbb{G} .

Ex: $\langle g^k \rangle$ is of prime order q , and a subgroup of \mathbb{QR}_p .

- Cyclic subgroups of certain **elliptic curves**.

For certain curves, only generic, i.e. exponential-time algorithms are known. Allows to resort to smaller groups which allow for more efficient computation.

- **Definition:**

Let $\text{Gen}\mathbb{Z}_{\text{safe}}^*$ be a PPT-algorithm which, on input 1^n , generates

(i) an n -bit Sophie-Germain prime q , so that $p = 2q + 1$ is a safe prime, and (ii) a generator g of \mathbb{Z}_p^* , and

outputs $I = (p, p - 1, g)$ as description of $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$.

▷ **Conjecture:** The DLP is hard w.r.t. $\text{Gen}\mathbb{Z}_{\text{safe}}^*$.

- **Definition:**

Let $\text{Gen}\mathbb{QR}_{\text{safe}}$ be a PPT-algorithm which, on input 1^n , generates

(i) an n -bit Sophie-Germain prime q , so that $p = 2q + 1$ is a safe prime, and (ii) a generator g of \mathbb{QR}_p , and

outputs $I = (p, q, g)$ as description of $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{QR}_p$.

▷ **Conjecture:** The DLP is hard w.r.t. $\text{Gen}\mathbb{QR}_{\text{safe}}$.

▷ **Remark:** W.r.t. to $\langle \mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot, 1 \rangle$ with p prime, the map

$$f_{(p,p-1,g)}: \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}: x \mapsto (g^x \bmod p) \bmod (p-1)$$

is a permutation on \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} .

The conjecture that DLP is hard w.r.t. $\text{Gen}\mathbb{Z}_{\text{safe}}^*$ therefore yields a collection of **one-way permutations (OWPs)**.

▷ **Ex:** Recall that

modulo a safe prime p , we have $(x^2)^{\frac{p+1}{4}} \equiv \pm x \pmod{p}$.

That is, we can efficiently map every $x^2 \in \mathbb{QR}_p$ to its positive square root in $\{1, \dots, q\}$,

thereby turning the DLP w.r.t. $\text{Gen}\mathbb{QR}_{\text{safe}}$ into a OWP over \mathbb{Z}_q .

- ▷ Recall: Except for negl. probability, based on the conjecture by Hardy-Littlewood, we can generate both a (random) n -bit safe prime, and a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* in time polynomial in n .
- In practice, the actual group (description) is sometimes simply chosen from a list of precomputed descriptions, in particular, when using subgroups of elliptic curves (see e.g. [\[here\]](#)).
- ▷ But see also this talk by Dan Bernstein why this is perhaps not the best way to use elliptic curves: [\[PDF\]](#)
- The main reason why **Gen** is a randomized algorithm is that this allows us to efficiently find by means of sampling the parameters for a group, e.g. some (random safe) n -bit prime and some (random) generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* resp. \mathbb{QR}_p .

- Best algorithms known today:
- ▷ Classical computers: Depends on \mathbb{G} .
 - If $\mathbb{G} \leq \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ modulo a prime p : **General number field sieve** can be adapted; super-polynomial, but subexponential running time in $|\mathbb{G}|$.
 - If $\mathbb{G} \leq \text{GF}(2^n)$: **Index calculus algorithm** takes also super-polynomial, but subexponential time $|\mathbb{G}|$.
 - For a general cyclic group \mathbb{G} : Several **generic** algorithms are known (see **here** for a list), all of which run in exponential time $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{|\mathbb{G}|})$ in the worst case.
 - **Remark**: A **generic** algorithm does not make use of the particular representation of \mathbb{G} or the implementation of the group operation, and essentially treats the group as a black box. Generic algorithms cannot do better than $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{|\mathbb{G}|})$ in the worst case [13].
- ▷ Quantum computers: **Shor's algorithm** can also be used.
- See **here** for a list of “DLP records”.

- **Reminder:** Let \mathbb{G} be a finite commutative group. Then:
 - ▷ Its **exponent** $\lambda_{\mathbb{G}}$ is the least positive integer λ s.t. $\forall a \in \mathbb{G}: a^{\lambda} = 1$.
 - ▷ If $\mathbb{G} = \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, then $\lambda(N) := \lambda_{\mathbb{Z}_N^*}$ is called the **Carmichael function**.
 - ▷ Let $N = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i^{e_i}$ be a prime factorization of N .

Then: $\lambda(N) = \text{lcm}(\lambda(p_1^{e_1}), \dots, \lambda(p_r^{e_r}))$

where $\lambda(2) = 1$, $\lambda(4) = 2$, $\lambda(2^k) = 2^{k-2}$,

and $\lambda(p^e) = (p-1)p^{e-1}$ for $p > 2$.

- ▷ The map $\exp_e: \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}: x \mapsto x^e$ is a permutation iff $\gcd(e, \lambda_{\mathbb{G}}) = 1$.

If $1 = \gcd(e, \lambda_{\mathbb{G}}) = ed + \lambda_{\mathbb{G}}f$, then $\exp_e^{-1} = \exp_d$.

- In fact, \exp_e is always a homomorphism. So for $\gcd(e, \lambda_{\mathbb{G}}) = 1$ it is also an isomorphism.
- Just as for $\varphi(N)$, we do not know how to efficiently compute $\lambda(N)$ if factorizing N is hard.

- **Reminder:** $\varphi(N)$ vs. $\lambda(N)$

▷ **Ex:** Let $N = pq$ with p, q distinct primes. Then:

- $\gcd(e, \lambda(N)) = 1$ iff $\gcd(e, \varphi(N)) = 1$.
- $e \in \mathbb{Z}_{\lambda(N)}^* \Rightarrow \{e, e + \lambda(N)\} \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$.

▷ So, \exp_e is also a bijection for $e \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$, but we always can find distinct $e, e' \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$ with $\exp_e = \exp_{e'}$.

▷ **Example:** Let $N = 11 \cdot 13$. Then $\varphi(N) = 120$ and $\lambda(N) = 60$.

Let $e = 61$. Then $\gcd(e, \varphi(N)) = 1$, but $\text{id} = \exp_1 = \exp_{61}$.

▷ **Ex:** $\exp_e \neq \exp_{e'}$ for distinct $e, e' \in \mathbb{Z}_{\lambda(N)}^*$.

▷ **Ex:** Let $N = 109 \cdot 163$.

For $e \in \mathbb{Z}_{\lambda(N)}^*$, how many $e' \in \mathbb{Z}_{\varphi(N)}^*$ are there with $\exp_e = \exp_{e'}$?

- The basic idea of the RSA problem is to use exp_e as a one-way function.
- ▷ In order to be able to compute exp_e we need to know
 - ① A (succinct) description of \mathbb{G} which enables us to compute efficiently within \mathbb{G} .
 - ② The exponent $e \in \mathbb{Z}$. Wlog. $e \in \mathbb{Z}_\lambda$.

▷ exp_e can then be computed efficiently by means of repeated squaring.
- **Necessary:** The description **must not** allow to efficiently compute $\lambda_{\mathbb{G}}$.
 - Otherwise, compute $\lambda_{\mathbb{G}}$, then use EEA.
- **Conjetured candidates for such groups:**

$\mathbb{G} = \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ with N a **hard-to-factorize composite**,
e.g. let N be the product of two distinct $n/2$ -bit primes,
i.e. $N = pq$ with $(p, q) \stackrel{r}{=} \text{Gen}\mathbb{P}^2(1^n)$.

- **Definition:** Let

Gen: on input 1^n , run $\text{GenP}^2(1^n)$ to obtain p, q , set $N := pq$, compute $\lambda := \lambda(N)$, choose any $e \in \mathbb{Z}_\lambda^* \setminus \{1\}$, and output $I = (N, e)$.

Smpl: on input $I = (N, e)$, output $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \mathbb{Z}_N^*$.

f : on input $I = (N, e)$ and $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, output $f_I(x) := x^e \bmod N$.

The RSA problem is hard w.r.t. GenP^2 if above is a OWP.

- **Conjecture:**

If factorization is hard w.r.t. GenP^2 , then RSA is hard w.r.t. GenP^2 .

- In fact, the RSA problem is a candidate for a **trapdoor one-way permutation**:

When the trapdoor $\lambda(N)$ (or $\varphi(N)$ or p, q) is known, we can compute d such that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\lambda}$, and, hence, $(x^e)^d \equiv x \pmod{N}$.

- **Definition:** A trapdoor one-way permutation (TDP) $\mathcal{F} = (\text{Gen}, f, \text{Smpl})$:

Algorithm	Type	Input	Output
Gen	PPT	1^n	$(I, \text{td}) \stackrel{r}{\in} \mathcal{I}_n \times \mathcal{T}_n$ with $ I \geq n$
f	DPT	$I \in \mathcal{I}_n, x \in \text{Dom}_I$	$y \in \text{Rng}_I$
Smpl	PPT	$I \in \mathcal{I}_n$	$x \stackrel{r}{\in} \text{Dom}_I$

such that (i) (I, td) allows to efficiently compute f_I^{-1} ,

but (ii) for any PPT-adversary $\Pr[\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{F}}^{\text{TDP}}(\mathcal{A})]$ is negl. in n :

- 1 Alice&Bob generate $(I, \text{td}) \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Gen}(1^n)$ and **destroy** td , choose $x \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Smpl}(I)$, compute $y := f_I(x)$, and pass (I, y) to Eve.
- 2 Eve runs $\mathcal{A}(I, y)$ to obtain x' .
 - ▷ Let $\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{F}}^{\text{TDP}}(\mathcal{A})$ be the event that $x = x'$.

- **Lemma:** If Eve, given (N, e) , can efficiently compute ...

- p, q , she can efficiently compute $\varphi(N)$, $\lambda(N)$, and d .
- $\varphi(N)$, she can efficiently compute p, q . (**Ex**)

Hint: Show that $q^2 + q(N + 1 - \varphi(N)) + N = 0$ has to hold.

- $\lambda(N)$, she can efficiently compute p, q . See, e.g., [6] p.232.
 - d , she can efficiently compute p, q . See, e.g., [5] p.143.
 - an $x \in \mathbb{Z}_N \setminus \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, she can efficiently compute p, q . (**Ex**)
- ▷ So, if the RSA problem is an OWP w.r.t the specific GenP^2 , none of the above can be done efficiently, in particular, factorizing N given (N, e) has to be hard.
- **But:** In general, it is not known, if solely the conjecture that factorizing N on input (N, e) is hard, suffices for the RSA problem to be an OWP. Only for the restricted setting of **generic** algorithms, this has been shown so far [1].

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- **Lemma:** Let $\mathcal{E} = (\text{Gen}_{\mathcal{E}}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a deterministic comp. secret ES with $\text{Gen}_{\mathcal{E}}(1^n) \overset{u}{\in} \mathcal{K}_n = \{0, 1\}^n$ and $\{0, 1\}^{2n} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_n$. Then the following $\mathcal{F} = (\text{Gen}_{\mathcal{F}}, \text{Smpl}, f)$ is a OWF:

$\text{Gen}_{\mathcal{F}}$: on input 1^n , output $I = m$ where $m \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$, $\text{Dom}_m = \mathcal{K}_n$, and $\text{Rng}_m = \mathcal{C}_n$.

Smpl : on input $I = m$, output $k \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$.

f : on input $I = m$ and $k \in \{0, 1\}^n$, output $f_m(k) := \text{Enc}_k(m)$.

- ▷ **Remark:** As for comp. secrecy we only have to encrypt a single message, we can make the coin tosses ρ by Enc external, and simply supply Enc instead with the extended key $k||\rho$.

For similar reasons, we can assume that $\text{Gen}_{\mathcal{E}}(1^n)$ always generates a random key chosen uniformly from $\{0, 1\}^n$.

Then above statement says that it is has to be hard to find $k||\rho$ even when m and $c = \text{Enc}_{k||\rho}(m)$ are known.

- **Proof:** Let \mathcal{B} be any PPT-algorithm which tries to invert \mathcal{F} , i.e.

on input $I = m$ and $c = \text{Enc}_k(m)$, \mathcal{B} tries to find some key in $f_I^{-1}(c) = \{k' \in \{0, 1\}^n \mid \text{Enc}_{k'}(m) = c\}$.

We construct from \mathcal{B} the following PPT-adversary \mathcal{A} for the game **INDED** vs. \mathcal{E} :

Alice&Bob	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{B}
run $\mathcal{A}(1^n)$	$m_0, m_1 \xleftarrow{u} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$ return m_0, m_1	
$b \xleftarrow{u} \{0, 1\}$		
$k \xleftarrow{u} \{0, 1\}^n$		
$c := \text{Enc}_k(m_b)$		
run $\mathcal{A}(1^n, \text{Enc}_k(m_b))$	run $\mathcal{B}(m_1, \text{Enc}_k(m_b))$ if $\text{Enc}_{k'}(m_1) = c$: return $r := 1$ else: return $r \xleftarrow{u} \{0, 1\}$	return k'

- Case $b = 1$:

Alice&Bob	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{B}
run $\mathcal{A}(1^n)$	$m_0, m_1 \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$ return m_0, m_1	
$b \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}$ $b := 1$ $k \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ $c := \text{Enc}_k(m_1)$ run $\mathcal{A}(1^n, c)$	run $\mathcal{B}(m_1, c)$ if $\text{Enc}_{k'}(m_1) = c$: return $r := 1$ else: return $r \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}$	return k'

- ▷ \mathcal{A} wins iff $r = 1$.
- ▷ m_0 can be removed.
- ▷ Rearrange interaction into the game OWF.

- Case $b = 1$: From \mathcal{B} 's point of view

Alice&Bob& \mathcal{A}	\mathcal{B}
$m_1 \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$ $k \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ $c := \text{Enc}_k(m_1)$ run $\mathcal{B}(m_1, c)$	
if $\text{Enc}_{k'}(m_1) = c$: $\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})$ else: $\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})$ with prob. $1/2$	return k'

▷ \mathcal{A} wins iff either

(i) \mathcal{B} wins the game OWF vs. \mathcal{F} or

(ii) \mathcal{B} loses the game OWF vs. \mathcal{F} but \mathcal{A} guesses b correctly:

$$\Pr_{b=1} [\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})] = \Pr [\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{F}}^{\text{OWF}}(\mathcal{B})] + (1 - \Pr [\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{F}}^{\text{OWF}}(\mathcal{B})]) \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

- Case $b = 0$:

Alice&Bob	\mathcal{A}	\mathcal{B}
run $\mathcal{A}(1^n)$	$m_0, m_1 \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$ return m_0, m_1	
$b \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}$ $b := 0$ $k \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ $c := \text{Enc}_k(m_0)$ run $\mathcal{A}(1^n, c)$	run $\mathcal{B}(m_1, c)$ if $\text{Enc}_{k'}(m_1) = c$: return $r := 1$ else: return $r \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}$	return k'

- ▷ \mathcal{A} wins iff $r = 0$.
- ▷ Again, collapse Alice&Bob and \mathcal{A} .

- Case $b = 0$: From \mathcal{B} 's perspective:

Alice&Bob& \mathcal{A}	\mathcal{B}
$m_0 \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$	
$k \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	
$c := \text{Enc}_k(m_0)$	
$m_1 \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$	
run $\mathcal{B}(m_1, c)$	
if $\text{Enc}_{k'}(m_1) = c$: $\neg \text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})$	return k'
else: $\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})$ with prob. $1/2$	

- \mathcal{A} wins iff \mathcal{B} , on input (m_1, c) does not find some $k' \in \{0, 1\}^n$ with $\text{Enc}_{k'}(m_1) = c$ where $c = \text{Enc}_k(m_0)$,
 - \mathcal{B} can only find such a k' if $m_1 \in D_c = \{\text{Dec}_{k''}(c) \mid k'' \in \{0, 1\}^n\}$.
 - As $m_1 \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^{2n}$ and independently of m_0 , the prob. for $m_1 \in D_c$ is $|D_c| 2^{-2n} \leq 2^{-n}$ for any ciphertext c .

and \mathcal{A} guesses correctly: $\Pr_{b=0}[\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})] \geq (1 - 2^{-n}) \cdot \frac{1}{2}$.

- In total:

$$4 \cdot \Pr[\text{Win}_{n,\mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})] \geq 2 \cdot \Pr[\text{Win}_{n,\mathcal{F}}^{\text{OWF}}(\mathcal{B})] + (1 - \Pr[\text{Win}_{n,\mathcal{F}}^{\text{OWF}}(\mathcal{B})]) + (1 - 2^{-n})$$

- ▷ Thus:

$$4 \cdot \left| \Pr[\text{Win}_{n,\mathcal{E}}^{\text{INDEd}}(\mathcal{A})] - \frac{1}{2} \right| + 2^{-n} \geq \Pr[\text{Win}_{n,\mathcal{F}}^{\text{OWF}}(\mathcal{B})].$$

- ▷ As \mathcal{E} is comp. secret, the advantage of \mathcal{A} is negl. in n , and, thus, any \mathcal{B} can only succeed with negl. prob.

① Lecture 16 - 18 – OWF candidates, Construction of PRGs, HF

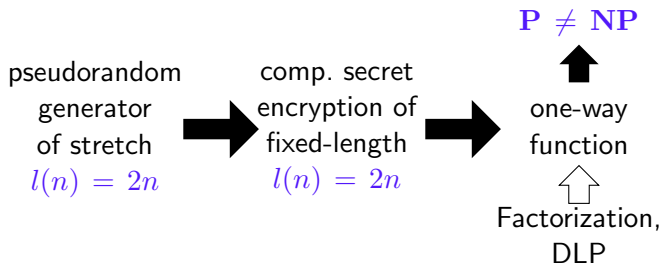
One-way functions

Candidates for OWFs and OWPs

One-way functions from computationally secret encryption*

From one-way permutations to pseudorandom generators

Hash functions



- What remains is to show that from OWFs we can also construct PRGs of stretch $l(n) = 2n$.
 - We only discuss how PRGs of arbitrary (polynomial) stretch can be constructed from OWPs based on the idea of the Blum-Micali PRG.
- ▷ See [8] for a general proof based on any OWF.

- Recall:

A DPT-computable function $G : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ which stretches inputs of length n to outputs of length $l(n) > n$ is a **pseudorandom generator (PRG)** if for every PPT-distinguisher \mathcal{D}

$$\left| \Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^n}^u [\mathcal{D}(G(x)) = 1] - \Pr_{y \in \{0,1\}^{l(n)}}^u [\mathcal{D}(y) = 1] \right| \text{ is negligible.}$$

- We follow the presentation of [2]:

- 1 **Yao's** characterization of PRGs via **unpredictability**: $G(\cdot)$ is a PRG iff given the first i bits of $G(x)$ the $i + 1$ -th bit cannot be predicted (=computed) reliably.
- 2 Hard-to-predict bits (**hard-core predicates**) hc_I for **one-way permutations** f_I allow to stretch a random string by one.
- 3 **Blum-Micali** construction for obtaining arbitrary polynomial stretch.
Repeat: output $hc_I(x)$ (with x the seed) and “reseed” $x := f_I(x)$.

- **Definition:** A DPT-computable function $G : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ with polynomial stretch $l(n) \geq n$, i.e., $|G(x)| = l(|x|) \geq |x|$ for all x , is **unpredictable** (from the left) if for every PPT-algorithm \mathcal{P} the prob.

$$\left| \Pr_{x, y=G(x), i} [\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 y_2 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i] - 1/2 \right| .$$

is negligible for $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ and $i \stackrel{u}{\in} [l(n)]$ (and the coin tosses of \mathcal{P}).

- **Ex:** If $G(\{0, 1\}^n) = \{0, 1\}^n$ for every n , then it is unpredictable.
- **Ex:** Every PRG is unpredictable.
- **Ex:** Reformulate above definition as a game between Alice&Bob (using G) and Eve (using \mathcal{P}).

- **Theorem** [15]: (see the appendix for a proof)

Let $G(\cdot)$ be as above. If G is **unpredictable**, then it is a **PRG**.

▷ **Proof idea**: Given a distinguisher \mathcal{D} for stretch $s(n)$, define $\mathcal{P}_{\mathcal{D}}$ by:

- Input: $y_1 y_2 \dots y_{i-1}$
- Set $y' := y_1 y_2 \dots y_{i-1} y'_i \dots y'_{s(n)}$ with $y'_j \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}$.
- Return y_i iff $\mathcal{D}(1^n, y') = 1$ else return $1 - y_i$.

That is, \mathcal{P} guesses the missing bits in order to run \mathcal{D} , and assumes:

$y_i = y'_i$ iff \mathcal{D} thinks that y' has been generated by G .

- First goal: obtain a PRG of stretch $l(n) = n + 1$.
- ▷ Recall: Any DPT-computable f with $f(\{0, 1\}^n) = \{0, 1\}^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is unpredictable.
- Ansatz: $G(x) = f(x) || \text{hc}(x)$
 - $\text{hc}(x)$ is the single additional bit output by G .
 - It has to depend on the input x , so it needs to be some DPT-computable function from x to $\{0, 1\}$.
- ▷ Yao's theorem: suffices to show that G is unpredictable.
- ▷ The first n bits from the left are unpredictable
as with $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ also $f(x) \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$.
- ▷ So, predicting $\text{hc}(x)$ when given $f(x)$ needs to be hard.
- ▷ If such an $\text{hc}(\cdot)$ exists, it is called a hard-core predicate of f .

- **Definition:**

A DPT-computable function hc is a **hard-core predicate** of a function $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ if for every PPT-algorithm \mathcal{A} the prob.

$$\left| \Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} [\mathcal{A}(f(x)) = hc(x)] - 1/2 \right| \text{ is negligible.}$$

Analogously, for a function collection: Then $I \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Gen}(1^n)$, $x \stackrel{r}{:=} \text{Smpl}(1^n)$, and both \mathcal{A} and hc are also given the parameter I .

- **Corollary:**

If f is a PPT-computable permutation on $\{0, 1\}^n$ (for every n) with hard-core predicate hc , then $G(x) := f(x) || hc(x)$ is PRG of stretch $l(n) = n + 1$.

▷ Which functions possess hard-core predicates?

Ex: f has to be OWP in order to possess a hard-core predicate.

- Any simple OWP can be transformed into a new simple OWP which has a hard-core predicate:
- **Theorem** [7]: (see the appendix for a proof)

Let $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ be a simple one-way permutation.

For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x, r \in \{0, 1\}^n$ set

$$g(x, r) := f(x) || r \text{ and } \text{gl}(x, r) := \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \cdot r_i \pmod{2}.$$

Then gl is a hard-core predicate of g .

- **Ex:** Show that $g(x, r)$ is also a OWP.
 - Note that the adversary is given $f(x) || r$, so he knows r .
- Basic idea: As $r \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$, to compute $\text{gl}(x, r)$ the adversary has to be able to compute at least the majority of the linear combinations of the bits, which then suffices to compute x itself.

- The Goldreich-Levin predicate is quite inefficient, as it requires n additional truly random bits.
- For the conjectured OWP collections we have seen so far specific, practical hard-core predicates are known:
- DLP w.r.t. \mathbb{Z}_p^* for p prime:

$$\text{hc}_{(p,p-1,g)}(x) = (x < \frac{p-1}{2} ? 1 : 0). \quad [4]$$

- RSA:

Any single bit of x , given $x^e \bmod N$, is as hard to compute as x itself. [10].

- **Theorem:**

Let $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ be a permutation on $\{0, 1\}^n$ for every n with hard-core predicate hc . For every $j \geq 0$ set

$$\text{BM}^j(x) := \text{hc}(f^{j-1}(x)) || \text{hc}(f^{j-2}(x)) || \dots || \text{hc}(f(x)) || \text{hc}(x).$$

Then $\text{BM}^{l(|x|)}(x)$ is a PRG for every polynomial $l(n) > n$.

- **Corollary:** (**Ex**)

$\text{MB}(x, 1^s) := \text{hc}(x) || \text{hc}(f(x)) || \dots || \text{hc}(f^{s-1}(x))$ is a vIPRG.

- In pseudocode:

- Input: $x \in^u \{0, 1\}^*$, $j \in \mathbb{N}$.
- for i from 1 to j :
 - output $\text{hc}(x)$
 - $x := f(x)$

- **Remark:** The result holds analogously for a permutation collection \mathcal{F} which has a hard-core predicate.

Simply replace $f(x)$ by $f_I(x)$ and $\text{hc}(x)$ by $\text{hc}_I(x) = \text{hc}(I, x)$ for $x \in \text{Dom}_I$.

- ▷ E.g. for the DLP-OWP (known as the Blum-Micali PRG):
 - Given n , compute an n -bit prime p , and a generator g of \mathbb{Z}_p^* .
 - ▷ Parameters: $I = (p, p-1, g)$.
 - ▷ Hard-core predicate: $\text{hc}_I(x) := (x < \frac{p-1}{2} ? 0 : 1)$.
 - ▷ Note: As p is prime, $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$ and $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ are equivalent.

- We want to show that the Blum-Micali construction is a PRG of variable stretch.
- ▷ We only need to show that $\text{BM}^{l(n)}(\cdot)$ is a PRG for any fixed polynomial stretch $l(n) > n$.
- ▷ By Yao's theorem, it is equivalent to show that $\text{BM}^{l(n)}(\cdot)$ is unpredictable (from the left).
- As before: We construct an algorithm \mathcal{A} which tries to compute $\text{hc}(x)$ given $f(x)$ using a given predictor \mathcal{P} as a black-box subprocedure, and show that this implies that \mathcal{P} can succeed only with negligible probability.

Wanted: $\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$	Given: $\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i$ for $y = \text{BM}^l(x')$
$x \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \overset{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$x' \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	$y_1 \dots y_i := h(f^{l-1}(x')) \dots h(f^{l-i+1}(x')) h(f^{l-i}(x'))$
	$\tilde{y}_i := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	\mathcal{P} wins iff $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{y}_i$

❶ Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;

Wanted: $\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$	Given: $\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i$ for $y = \text{BM}^l(x')$
$x \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \overset{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$x' \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	$y_1 \dots y_i := h(f^{l-1}(x')) \dots h(f^{l-i+1}(x')) h(f^{l-i}(x'))$
	$\tilde{y}_i := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	\mathcal{P} wins iff $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{y}_i$

- ① Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;
- ② I.e. would like to have $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{!}{=} h(x)$

Wanted: $\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$	Given: $\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i$ for $y = \text{BM}^l(x')$
$x \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \overset{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$x' \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	$y_1 \dots y_i := h(f^{l-1}(x')) \dots h(f^{l-i+1}(x')) h(f^{l-i}(x'))$
	$\tilde{y}_i := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	\mathcal{P} wins iff $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{y}_i$

- 1 Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;
- 2 I.e. would like to have $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{!}{=} h(x)$
- 3 Sufficient: $f^{l-i}(x') = x$ resp. $x' = f^{i-l}(x)$ (Note: $i - l \leq 0$)

Wanted: $\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$	Given: $\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i$ for $y = \text{BM}^l(x')$
$x \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \overset{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$x' \overset{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	$y_1 \dots y_i := h(f^{l-1}(x')) \parallel \dots \parallel h(f^{l-i+1}(x')) \parallel h(f^{l-i}(x'))$
	$\tilde{y}_i := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	\mathcal{P} wins iff $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{y}_i$

- ① Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;
- ② I.e. would like to have $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{!}{=} h(x)$
- ③ Sufficient: $f^{l-i}(x') = x$ resp. $x' = f^{i-l}(x)$ (Note: $i - l \leq 0$)
- ④ Substitute $f^{i-l}(x)$ for x' on the right-hand side and simplify.

Wanted: $\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$	Given: $\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i$ for $y = \text{BM}^l(x')$
$x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \stackrel{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$f^{i-l}(x) \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ (???)
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	$y_1 \dots y_i := h(f^{l-1}(f^{i-l}(x))) \dots h(f^{l-i}(f^{i-l}(x)))$
	$\tilde{y}_i := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	\mathcal{P} wins iff $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(f^{i-l}(x))) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{y}_i$

- 1 Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;
- 2 I.e. would like to have $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{!}{=} h(x)$
- 3 Sufficient: $f^{l-i}(x') = x$ resp. $x' = f^{i-l}(x)$ (Note: $i - l \leq 0$)
- 4 Substitute $f^{i-l}(x)$ for x' on the right-hand side and simplify.

Wanted: $\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$	Given: $\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i$ for $y = \text{BM}^l(x')$
$x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \stackrel{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$f^{i-l}(x) \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ (???)
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	$y_1 \dots y_i := h(f^{i-1}(x)) \dots h(f(x)) h(x)$
	$\tilde{y}_i := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	\mathcal{P} wins iff $y_i = h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{y}_i$

- 1 Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;
- 2 I.e. would like to have $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{!}{=} h(x)$
- 3 Sufficient: $f^{l-i}(x') = x$ resp. $x' = f^{i-l}(x)$ (Note: $i - l \leq 0$)
- 4 Substitute $f^{i-l}(x)$ for x' on the right-hand side and simplify.
- 5 Observe: \mathcal{P} only needs $y_1 \dots y_{i-1} = h(f^{i-1}(x)) || \dots || h(f(x))$
which \mathcal{A} can compute directly as it is given $z = f(x)$.

Wanted: $\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$	Given: $\mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1}) = y_i$ for $y = \text{BM}^l(x')$
$x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \stackrel{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$f^{i-l}(x) \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ (???)
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	$y_1 \dots y_i := h(f^{i-1}(x)) \dots h(f(x)) h(x)$
	$\tilde{y}_i := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	\mathcal{P} wins iff $y_i = h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{y}_i$

- 1 Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;
- 2 I.e. would like to have $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{!}{=} h(x)$
- 3 Sufficient: $f^{l-i}(x') = x$ resp. $x' = f^{i-l}(x)$ (Note: $i - l \leq 0$)
- 4 Substitute $f^{i-l}(x)$ for x' on the right-hand side and simplify.
- 5 Observe: \mathcal{P} only needs $y_1 \dots y_{i-1} = h(f^{i-1}(x)) || \dots || h(f(x))$
which \mathcal{A} can compute directly as it is given $z = f(x)$.
- 6 Finally: as f is a bijection, it does not matter if we choose
 $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ or $f^{i-1}(x) \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ or $f(x) = z \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$.

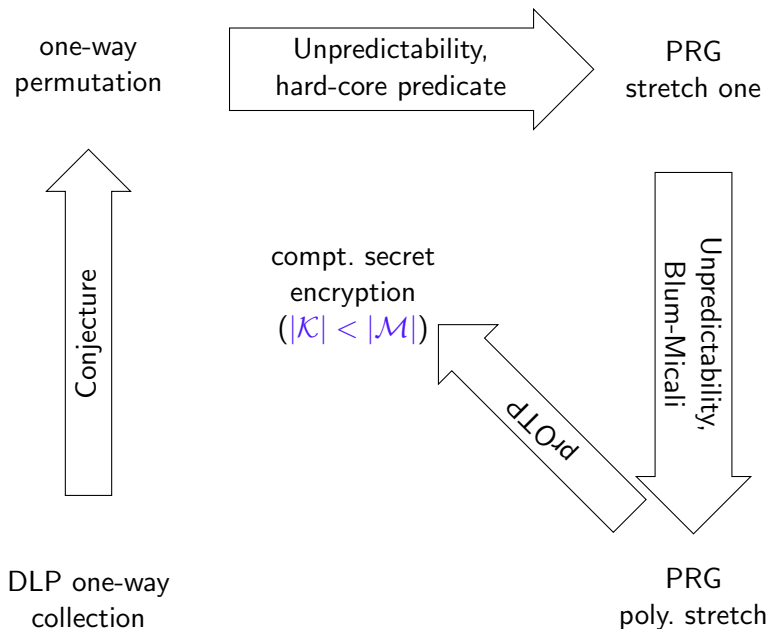
Alice&Bob	$\mathcal{A}(1^n, f(x)) = h(x)$ using \mathcal{P}
$x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$	$i \stackrel{u}{\in} [l]$
$z := f(x)$	$y_1 \dots y_{i-1} := h(f^{i-2}(z)) \dots h(z)$
$\tilde{h} := \mathcal{A}(1^n, z)$	return $\tilde{h} := \mathcal{P}(1^n, y_1 \dots y_{i-1})$
\mathcal{A} wins iff $h(x) \stackrel{?}{=} \tilde{h}$	

- 1 Idea: use \mathcal{P} to predict $h(x)$;
- 2 I.e. would like to have $y_i = h(f^{l-i}(x')) \stackrel{!}{=} h(x)$
- 3 Sufficient: $f^{l-i}(x') = x$ resp. $x' = f^{i-l}(x)$ (Note: $i - l \leq 0$)
- 4 Substitute $f^{i-l}(x)$ for x' on the right-hand side and simplify.
- 5 Observe: \mathcal{P} only needs $y_1 \dots y_{i-1} = h(f^{i-1}(x)) || \dots || h(f(x))$
which \mathcal{A} can compute directly as it is given $z = f(x)$.
- 6 Finally: as f is a bijection, it does not matter if we choose
 $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$ or $f^{i-1}(x) \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}$ or $f(x) = z \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0, 1\}^n$.
- 7 Yields above definition for \mathcal{A} .

- Note that the proof requires that $hc(x)$ is the right-most/last bit in the output of BM .

The reason for this is simply the definition of unpredictability which goes from left to right.

- **Ex:** Show that $G_l(x) := f^l(x) || BM^l(x)$ is a PRG of fixed stretch for every fixed l polynomial in n .
 - Discuss the advantages/disadvantages of outputting also $f^l(x)$.
 - In particular, consider the case when a TDP is used for f and the resulting PRG is used within the prOTP.



① Lecture 16 - 18 – OWF candidates, Construction of PRGs, HF

One-way functions

Candidates for OWFs and OWPs

One-way functions from computationally secret encryption*

From one-way permutations to pseudorandom generators

Hash functions

- Informally: (only interface)

Any easy to compute function from " $\{0, 1\}^*$ " to $\{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$

- Easy to compute: e.g. linear in the input length.
- Read " $\{0, 1\}^*$ " as "practically unbounded input",
e.g. all inputs up to 2^{1024} bits (= 2^{996} TB).

- **Definition:**

Let $l_{\text{out}} \in \mathbb{N}$ and $h: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$ a DPT-computable function.

h is a compression function if $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{in}}}$ for some $l_{\text{in}} > l_{\text{out}}$.

h is a hash function if $\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^{<2^l}$ for some $l > 0$.

- ▷ Ideally, computation of $h(m)$ takes $\mathcal{O}(|m|)$ time.

- In the design of efficient algorithms and data structures:
 - Given: Universe U of possible data, hash values $\{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$.
 - Goal: Find a hash function $h: U \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$ such that for any unknown selection $S \subseteq U$ the number of collisions is "small".
 - Collision: Any two x, x' such that $h(x) = h(x')$.
 - Ideally: " h distributes S uniformly over the hash values"

$$\forall y \in \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}: |h^{-1}(y) \cap S| \approx |S| / 2^{l_{\text{out}}}$$

- In general not possible; for a fixed h simply choose $S \subseteq h^{-1}(y)$ for some suitable $y \in \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$.
- Solution: randomly choose h from a parametrized family, see universal hashing.

- For cryptographic uses, a hash function $h: \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \{0,1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$ has to satisfy further requirements, e.g. (informally):

- Collision resistance:

It is computationally infeasible to find m_1, m_2 s.t. $h(m_1) = h(m_2)$ and $m_1 \neq m_2$.

- Second-preimage resistance:

Given m_1 , it is computationally infeasible to find m_2 with $h(m_1) = h(m_2)$ and $m_1 \neq m_2$.

- Preimage resistance:

Given $h(m_1)$, it is computationally infeasible to find any m_2 with $h(m_1) = h(m_2)$. (“one-wayness”)

- ▷ What means “computationally infeasible”?
 - ▷ Need to fix either asymptotic or concrete bounds on the resources and success probability of the adversary.
- ▷ Preimage and second-preimage resistance: How is m_1 chosen?
 - Second-preimage resistance is meaningless if we are allowed to choose m_1 **deterministically**.
 - ▷ Either let the adversary choose m_1 or $m_1 \stackrel{u}{\in} \{0,1\}^{L(n)} \subseteq \mathcal{M}$.
- ▷ Any function $h: A \rightarrow B$ with $|A| > |B|$ has **always a collision**, i.e. a pair $m_1 \neq m_2$ with $h(m_1) = h(m_2)$.
 - There **always exists** an efficient adversary which simply outputs m_1, m_2 **for a function**.
 - ▷ Thus, consider **collections (families)** of hash functions.

- **Definition:**

Let $\mathcal{H} = (\text{Gen}, h)$ be a function collection such that

$h_I: \mathcal{M}_n \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}(n)}$ for any I output by $\text{Gen}(1^n)$ where $l_{\text{out}}(n)$ is a polynomial.

▷ \mathcal{H} is a collection of compression functions (CCF) if

$\mathcal{M}_n = \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{in}}(n)}$ for some polynomial $l_{\text{in}}(n) > l_{\text{out}}(n)$.

▷ \mathcal{H} is a collection of hash functions (CHF) if

$\mathcal{M} = \{0, 1\}^{<2^{l(n)}}$ for some polynomial $l(n) > 0$.

- **Example:** DLP-CCF

Gen: on input 1^n , run $\text{GenQR}_{\text{safe}}(1^n)$ to obtain (p, q, g) , then choose $x \stackrel{u}{\in} \mathbb{Z}_q$, and set $r := g^x \bmod p$. Output $I = (p, q, g, r)$.

h : on input $I = (p, q, g, r)$ and $(u, v) \in \mathbb{Z}_q \times \mathbb{Z}_q$ output $h_{(p,q,g,r)}(u, v) := g^u \cdot r^v \bmod p$.

- Assume that $2^n \leq q \leq p \leq 2q + 1 \leq 2^{n+1} - 1$.

- ▷ Then any n -bit string u represents some element in \mathbb{Z}_q , and any $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^* \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_p$ can be represented as a $n + 1$ -bit string.
- ▷ I.e. h_I compresses $l_{\text{in}}(n) = 2n$ -bit strings to $l_{\text{out}}(n) = n + 1$ -bit strings.

- [11] discusses several formalizations of the preceding informal requirements, and studies their relation.
- In total, seven formalizations are obtained from the informal requirements depending on
 - ▷ whether the adversary chooses m_1 , or if m_1 is chosen uniformly at random from a finite subset of $m_1 \overset{u}{\in} \{0,1\}^{L(n)} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_n$. ($L(n) = l_{\text{in}}(n)$ for a collection of compression functions.)
 - ▷ whether the adversary may pick a function from the collection, or if the function is generated randomly by Gen .
- We consider only the four most important definitions where the concrete hash function h_I is generated via $I := \text{Gen}(1^n)$.

- **Definition:** Let $\mathcal{H} = (\text{Gen}, h)$ be a CCF or CHF, and $L(n)$ any polynomial such that $\{0, 1\}^{L(n)} \subseteq \mathcal{M}_n$.

Game COLL	Game UOWHF[$L(n)$]	Game SEC[$L(n)$]	Game PRE[$L(n)$]
$I \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \text{Gen}(1^n)$	$m_1 \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(1^n) \in \{0, 1\}^{L(n)}$	$m_1 \stackrel{u}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{L(n)}$	$m_1 \stackrel{u}{\leftarrow} \{0, 1\}^{L(n)}$
$(m_1, m_2) \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(I)$	$I \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \text{Gen}(1^n)$	$I \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \text{Gen}(1^n)$	$I \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \text{Gen}(1^n)$
$m_2 \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(I, m_1)$	$m_2 \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(I, m_1)$	$m_2 \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(I, m_1)$	$m_2 \stackrel{r}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{A}(I, h_I(m_1))$
$\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{H}}^{\text{COLL}}(\mathcal{A})$:	$\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{H}}^{\text{UOWHF}[L(n)]}(\mathcal{A})$:	$\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{H}}^{\text{SEC}[L(n)]}(\mathcal{A})$:	$\text{Win}_{n, \mathcal{H}}^{\text{PRE}[L(n)]}(\mathcal{A})$:
$h_I(m_1) = h_I(m_2)$	$h_I(m_1) = h_I(m_2)$	$h_I(m_1) = h_I(m_2)$	$h_I(m_1) = h_I(m_2)$
and $m_1 \neq m_2$	and $m_1 \neq m_2$	and $m_1 \neq m_2$	

If the respective winning probability is negligible w.r.t. n for any admissible PPT-adversary \mathcal{A} , then \mathcal{H} is

- COLL: collision resistant
- UOWHF[$L(n)$]: a universal one-way hash function w.r.t. inputs of length $L(n)$
- SEC[$L(n)$]: second-preimage resistant w.r.t. inputs of length $L(n)$
- PRE[$L(n)$]: preimage resistant (one-way) w.r.t. inputs of length $L(n)$

- **Theorem** [11]:

Let $\mathcal{H} = (\text{Gen}, h)$ be a CCF/CHF of output length $l_{\text{out}}(n)$.

If \mathcal{H} is collision resistant, then it is a UOWHF for any $L(n)$.

If \mathcal{H} is a UOWHF for $L(n)$, then it is second-pre. resistant for $L(n)$.

If \mathcal{H} is second-preimage resistant for $L(n)$, and $2^{l_{\text{out}}(n)-L(n)}$ is negligible, then it is also preimage resistant for $L(n)$.

▷ The term $2^{l_{\text{out}}(n)-L(n)}$ is essentially the prob. that $h_I(m_1)$ has a unique preimage within $\{0, 1\}^{L(n)}$.

- **Ex:** Assume that (Gen, g) is collision resistant with output length $l_{\text{out}}(n)$. Let $h_I(x) := 1x$ if $|x| = l_{\text{out}}(n)$; otherwise $h_I(x) := 0g_I(x)$.

Show that (Gen, h) is also collision resistant, but not preimage resistant for inputs of length $L(n) = l_{\text{out}}(n)$.

- **Theorem:** UOWHFs can be constructed from OWFs. [12]
- **Conjecture:** OWFs not enough for collision resistance. [14]

- **Lemma:**

Assume that the DLP is hard relative to $\text{GenQR}_{\text{safe}}$.

Then the DLP-CCF is collision resistant.

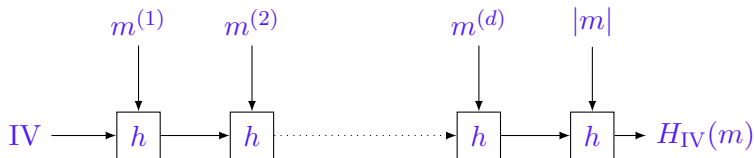
▷ **Proof:** Let \mathcal{A} be a PPT-collision attack on (Gen, h) .

Define \mathcal{B} as follows:

- Input: (p, q, g) and $r = g^x \bmod p$ for some secret $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$.
- If $r = 1$, output $x = 0$.
- Otherwise, pass (p, q, g, r) to \mathcal{A} to obtain $(a, b) \neq (u, v)$.
- If $h_I(a, b) \neq h_{I,r}(u, v)$, output any element in \mathbb{Z}_q .
- Otherwise return $(a - u) \cdot (v - b)^{-1} \bmod q$.

Ex: Determine the prob. that \mathcal{B} succeeds in computing a logarithm of r modulo p . (Why is it important that q is prime?)

- In practice, many hash functions are constructed from compression functions by means of the **Merkle-Damgård construction**. [9]
- ▷ E.g.: SHA-1, SHA-2, RIPEMD, Grøstl



- This construction was also used in NMAC and HMAC.
- Recall: For NMAC the compression functions are PRFs.
 - ▷ Many modern hash functions (in particular the SHA-3 candidates) have been designed with that in mind.
 - ▷ Grøstl's compression function is based on AES.

- **Definition:** Let $h : \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{in}}} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$ be a compression function with $\delta := l_{\text{in}} - l_{\text{out}} > 0$.

Let $\text{pad}_{\text{MD}}(m) := m || 0^p || \lfloor |m| \rfloor$ such that $|\text{pad}_{\text{MD}}(m)|$ is a minimal multiple of δ and $\lfloor |m| \rfloor$ is encoded using exactly δ bits.¹

For any $\text{IV} \in \{0, 1\}^{l_{\text{out}}}$, and $m \in \{0, 1\}^*$ with $|m| < 2^\delta$, define $H_{\text{IV}}(x) := z^{(t)}$ where:

$$z^{(0)} := \text{IV} \text{ and } z^{(i)} := h(z^{(i-1)} || m^{(i)}) \text{ for } \text{pad}_{\text{MD}}(m) = m^{(1)} || \dots || m^{(t)}.$$

For a CCF (Gen, h) apply the construction to each h_I yielding $H_{I, \text{IV}}$.

- **Ex:** Adapt the DLP-CCF so that the Merkle-Damgård construction can be applied to it.

¹This is not the only possible choice, but it suffices for us.



- **Theorem:** [9]

Let (Gen, h) be a collision-resistant CCF.

Construct (Gen, H) from (Gen, h) using the Merkle-Damgård construction.

Then (Gen, H) is a collision-resistant CHF for any fixed IV .

- The IV can be treated as a further function parameter of the CHF.

It is only important, that the IV is fixed by the function parameters I so that Alice and Bob uses the same IV .

Recall for F -NMAC we indeed need to be able to change the IV .

- Fix any IV . We show that any collision of $H_I := H_{I,IV}$ yields a collision of h_I .

To this end, assume that $H_I(x) = H_I(y)$ for some $x \neq y \in \{0, 1\}^*$.

- Let $\text{pad}_{\text{MD}}(x) = x^{(1)} \dots x^{(d)} x^{(d+1)}$ resp.
 $\text{pad}_{\text{MD}}(y) = y^{(1)} \dots y^{(t)} y^{(t+1)}$.
- Let $u^{(i)}$ be the intermediate values obtained from x , i.e.

$$u^{(0)} = IV \text{ and } u^{(i)} = h_I(u^{(i-1)} || x^{(i)})$$

Analogously for $v^{(i)}$ and $y^{(i)}$.

- Recall that by definition, $|x|, |y|$ fit into a single block, i.e.

$$x^{(d+1)} = y^{(t+1)} \Rightarrow |x| = |y| \text{ s.t. } d = t.$$

- Assume first $x^{(d+1)} \neq y^{(t+1)}$.

Then: $u^{(d)} || x^{(d+1)} \neq v^{(t)} || y^{(t+1)}$ is a collision of h_I .



- Assume thus $x^{(d+1)} = y^{(t+1)}$, i.e. $t = d$ and $|x| = |y|$.

As $x \neq y$, there is some $i \in [d + 1]$ s.t. $x^{(i)} \neq y^{(i)}$.

Hence, there is also some **maximal** index m s.t.

$$u^{(m-1)} || x^{(m)} \neq v^{(m-1)} || y^{(m)}.$$

- ▷ If $m = d + 1$, then $u^{(d)} || x^{(d+1)} \neq v^{(d)} || y^{(d+1)}$ and

$$h_I(u^{(d)} || x^{(d+1)}) = H_I(x) = H_I(y) = h_I(v^{(d)} || x^{(d+1)}).$$

- ▷ If $m \leq d$ and m is maximal, we need to have $u^{(m)} = v^{(m)}$.

$$\text{Thus, } h_I(u^{(m-1)} || x^{(m)}) = u^{(m)} = v^{(m)} = h_I(v^{(m-1)} || y^{(m)}).$$

- Similar to block ciphers, the output length l_{out} of a hash function needs to be large enough so that the prob. of a collision is negligible:
- ▷ Assume we have a compression function $h: \{0, 1\}^{2l} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^l$.

Let X_1, \dots, X_q be independent RV uniformly distributed on $\{0, 1\}^{2l}$.

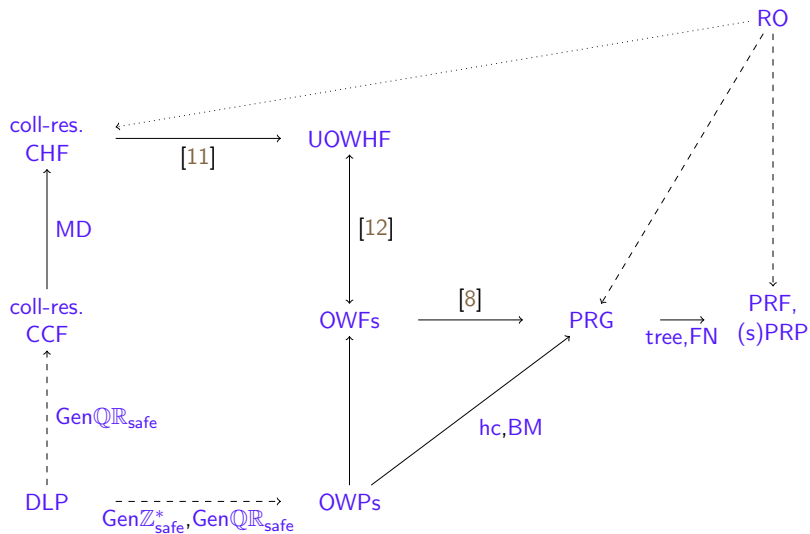
Intuitively, the best that h can do is to map $\frac{2^{2l}}{2^l}$ inputs on the same output, i.e. $|h^{-1}(y)| = 2^l$ for every y .

- If for some y the set of preimages is significantly larger than 2^l , the prob. of a collision only increases. [3]

Then, $h(X_i)$ is uniformly distributed on $\{0, 1\}^l$. Probability of a collision:

- $\Theta(\binom{q}{2} 2^{-l})$ within $\{h(X_1), \dots, h(X_q)\}$.
- $\Theta(\binom{q}{2} 2^{-2l})$ within $\{X_1, \dots, X_q\}$ (exponentially smaller).

That is, a collision $h(X_i) = h(X_j)$ results almost always from $X_i \neq X_j$.



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