

Cryptographic Protocols - Lecture Notes

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1 Lecture 1

1.1 Overview of what the course will cover

- Computing with encrypted data
- AuthN without giving away any secret
- E-voting / cryptographic voting protocols
- Blockchain is transparent, cannot keep secrets
- Generate a true random & unbiased value
- Sealed bid auction w/o trusted entity

1.2 Example: Generate a random bit (coin flip)

Needs cryptography to ensure that the output is not biased among two parties A and B, since the party that sends the last message can precompute/bias the output

Use cryptography: Simultaneous commitments

- hash the message, send it
- We add randomness as hashing bit
- hash functions are collision-free: No two inputs give the same output
- output gives no info about the input

Hash func H :

$$H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^k$$

SHA-2: $k = 256$ as a special case of a commitment scheme

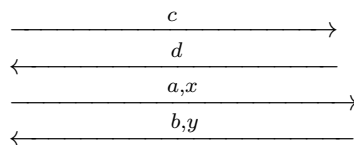
Protocol

A

$$\begin{aligned} a &\xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \{0, 1\} \\ x &\xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \{0, 1\}^k \\ c &\leftarrow H(a||x) \end{aligned}$$

B

$$\begin{aligned} b &\xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \{0, 1\} \\ y &\xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \{0, 1\}^k \\ d &\leftarrow H(b||y) \end{aligned}$$



verify $d \stackrel{?}{=} H(b||y)$

output $a \oplus b$

verify $c \stackrel{?}{=} H(a||x)$

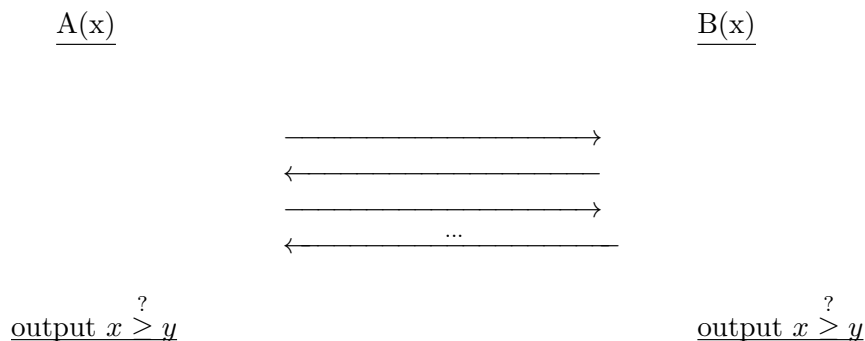
output $a \oplus b$

$\tilde{b}, \tilde{y} \Rightarrow$ not possible as this would violate collision-freeness

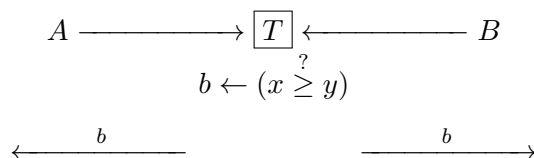
- c and d hide a & b , because this hash function hides its input.
- A & B cannot change their inputs because H is collision free

Ex: Millionaires' Problem

A and B want to find out who is richer without disclosing their wealth



This is easy with a trusted entity T :



We want to hide as much as we can

Important example for:

- Auctions
- Matchings
- Elections \longrightarrow solution comes later

Ex: Computing with encrypted data

<u>A(x)</u>	<u>B(f)</u>
user	cloud
input x (data)	function f
Encryption scheme (Enc, Dec) with keypair (pk, sk)	
$c_x \leftarrow \text{Enc}(pk, x)$	
Send $pk, c_x \longrightarrow$	
	$c_y \leftarrow \text{Eval}(pk, f, c_x)$
	Eval “runs” program f on data x
	encrypt inside c_x
$\longleftarrow c_y$	
$y \leftarrow \text{Dec}(sk, c_y)$	
s.t. $y = \text{Dec}(sk, \text{Eval}(pk, f, \text{Enc}(pk, x))) = f(x)$	

Why is computing on secret data difficult?

Layers

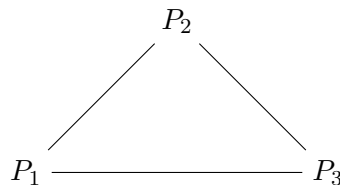
App	high: Trusted Platform Module (TPM)
VMs	
Containers	
OS	
Hypervisor	TCB Trusted Computer Base
Base OS	
Hardware	

lower levels can always see everythin that happens on higher levels/above them

TCB controls everything

1.3 Ex: Secret vote among threeParties p_1, p_2, p_3 Each has a binary vote v_i as input. Goal is to compute the sum s of the votes and not disclose any more information than that.**Protocol: Additive secret sharing**Primitive: $\text{split}(b) \rightarrow (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ to distribute or “share” b Use prime p $\text{split}(p)$: $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ $x_1 \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$ $x_2 \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$ $x_3 \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$ s.t. $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 \equiv b \pmod{p}$ return (x_1, x_2, x_3)

secure channel: confidential & authenticated

Party $p_i(v_i)$: $(x_{i1}, x_{i2}, x_{i3}) \leftarrow \text{split}(v_i)$ send x_{ij} to p_j for $j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ receive x_{ji} from p_j $y_i \leftarrow (x_{i1} + x_{i2} + x_{i3}) \pmod{p}$ send y_i to p_j for $j \neq i, \dots, 3$ receive y_j from p_j output $(y_1 + y_2 + y_3) \pmod{p}$ where $(y_1 + y_2 + y_3) = s$

Completeness

claim: $s \equiv v_1 + v_2 + v_3$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}
 s &= \sum_{i=1}^3 y_i \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^3 \left(\sum_{j=1}^3 x_{ji} \right) \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^3 \left(\sum_{i=1}^3 x_{ji} \right) && \text{(columns sum)} \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^3 (x_{j1} + x_{j2} + x_{j3}) && \text{(rows sum)} \\
 & && v_j \text{ to split()} \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^3 v_j \pmod{p}
 \end{aligned}$$

Security

$\text{split}(b) \rightarrow (x_1, x_2, x_3)$

No two values of x_i, x_j give information about b

(Generation of a one time pad)

Output s reveals nothing more than it should: nothing about v_j for $j \neq i$; only s .

Goals

Privacy: No party learns more than it should (the output)

Correctness: Every party receives the output as specified by the function they are evaluating

Input Independence: Inputs of corrupted or faulty parties do not depend on input of correct parties.

Fairness: All parties either receive an output or no party receives an output
 \rightarrow faulty parties receive outputs if and only if correct parties receive output

Faults

All faulty parties are modeled as controlled (or corrupted) by one adversary \mathcal{A} .

semi-honest behaviour

- Corrupted parties follow protocol
- Leak all data to \mathcal{A}
- “passive attack”, “passive adversary”, “read-only attack”

Malicious behaviour

- Faulty parties behave arbitrarily, controlled by \mathcal{A}

2 Lecture 2

Consider Programs formulated as circuits.

- Finite state automata (Turing machines)
- Circuits
- stack automata

What can be computed on one can be computed on all
 \implies For this course, consider circuits.

2.1 Basic technique

2.1.1 Programs as circuits

Every program on inputs x_1, \dots, x_n computes a function $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$, represented by a Turing machine or by a circuit.

Deterministic vs. Non-Deterministic Turing Machine:

TODO: add this

Polynomial-time: $O(n^k) \approx$ Polynomial time, so the run time depends on the input size in a polynomial relation.

Cook-Levin Theorem: $NP \stackrel{?}{=} P$

Every problem decided by a non-deterministic Turing Machine (= NP-problem) in Polynomial time can be formulated as the satisfiability problem (SAT) of a polynomial-size (boolean) circuit.

\implies One time use circuits, not circuits with clocks.

In every computer the CPU represents computations as stateful circuits.

Here we will represent any computation as a circuit and evaluate the circuit in “encrypted” form.

2.1.2 Circuit for testing if two numbers are equal

Given two numbers in binary.

$$(x)_2 = (x_{n-1}, \dots, x_0)$$

$$(y)_2 = (y_{n-1}, \dots, y_0)$$

To compute if $x \stackrel{?}{=} y$

```

i ← n
while i > 0 do
  i ← i - 1
  if  $x_i \neq y_i$  then
    return FALSE
return TRUE

```

In the circuit one has to unroll all loops and eliminate imperative operations.

Circuit:

```

i ← n
 $d_n \leftarrow 0$ 
while i > 0 do

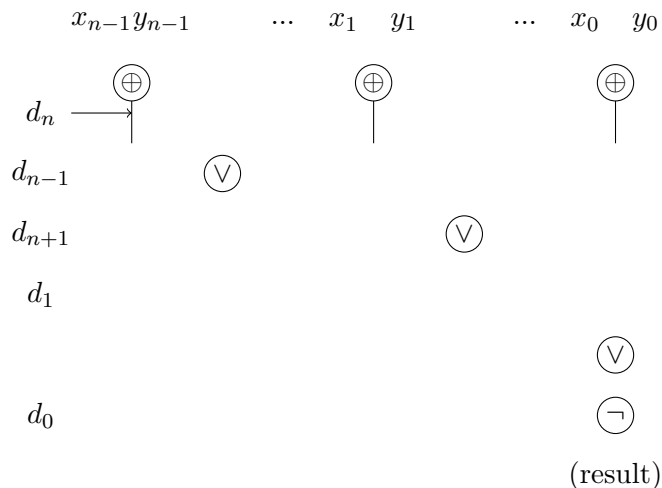
```

```

    i ← i - 1
    d_i ← d_{i+1} ∨ (x_i ⊕ y_i)
  return ¬d_0

```

Circuit: $O(n)$ complexity



2.2 Mathematics of public key Cryptography

Modular Arithmetic: “computing modulo m ”

$x \leftarrow a \bmod m$ (operation)

$x \equiv a \pmod{m}$ (Relation, can be true/false)

$\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0, \dots, m-1\}$ with addition modulo m

$\mathbb{Z}_m^* = \{1, \dots, m-1\}$ with multiplication modulo m , typically m is p , prime.

Cyclic groups

A cyclic group G has a generator $g \in G$ s.t. every element of G is obtained by computing g^i for $i = 0, 1, \dots$

$$g^0 = 1$$

G is finite and has $|G|$ elements: $G = \{1, g, g^2, \dots, g^{|G|-1}\}$

because $g^{|G|} = g^0 = 1$

write $\langle g \rangle = G$ (generator)

- \mathbb{Z}_m with addition operation is cyclic with $g = 1$
- \mathbb{Z}_p^* with multiplication is cyclic with $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p - 1$

Ex: \mathbb{Z}_{11}^*

$\langle 2 \rangle_{11} = \{1, 2, 4, 8, 5, 10, 9, 7, 3, 6\}$

$\langle 3 \rangle_{11} = \{1, 3, 9, 5, 4, \dots\}$ only a subgroup

if $q \mid p-1$ is also prime then there is a cyclic subgroup with q elements, defined by multiplication modulo $p \Rightarrow$ used in cryptography

with $|p|$ about 2000 bit
 and $|q|$ about 256 bit such that $p = nq + 1$
 or such that $p = 2q + 1$
 $(|q| = |p| - 1)$

Discrete logarithms

$G = \langle g \rangle$

the discrete log of $a \in G$ with respect to (w.r.t.) base g is the $l \in \mathbb{Z}_{|G|-1}$ s.t.

$$g^l = a$$

computing discrete logarithms is assumed to be hard (in some G) (computationally hard)

DLP: Discrete Logarithm Problem

Given y , where $\begin{cases} r \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \\ y \leftarrow g^r \end{cases}$ with public info or from key

Find r .

Related: Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem

Given x and y , where

$$a \xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_q \quad b \xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_q$$

$$x \leftarrow g^a \quad y \leftarrow g^b$$

Find $g^{ab} [\in G]$

DDHP: Decisional DH Problem

Given either

1. (x, y, z) , where

$$a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \quad y \leftarrow g^a$$

$$b \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \quad x \leftarrow g^b$$

$$c \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \quad z \leftarrow g^c$$

or

2. (x, y, z) , where

$$a \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \quad y \leftarrow g^a$$

$$b \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q \quad x \leftarrow g^b$$

$$z \leftarrow g^{ab}$$

Task is not compute z , but instead which Triplet ① or ② we have

2.3 Public Key Encryption

$\text{KeyGen}() \rightarrow (pk, sk)$

$\text{Enc}(pk, m) \rightarrow c$

$\text{Dec}(sk, c) \rightarrow m$

Completeness

$\forall m : (pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}()$

$\text{Dec}(sk, \text{Enc}(pk, m)) = m$

Security

- An encryption of some message m is indistinguishable from a random element of the ciphertext space.
- For two messages m_1 and m_2 , no efficient adversary can distinguish $\text{Enc}(pk, m_1)$ from $\text{Enc}(pk, m_2)$ except with negligible probability.

$\implies \text{Enc}(pk, m_1)$ is indistinguishable from $\text{Enc}(pk, m_2)$

Security parameter: λ

$f(\cdot)$ is negligible if

$$\exists \lambda_0 : \forall c > 0 : f(\lambda) < \frac{1}{\lambda^c} \text{ for } \lambda \geq \lambda_0$$

2.4 ElGamal public-key encryption

- Textbook version
- Cyclic Group: $G = \langle g \rangle$, $|G| = q$

KeyGen()

$x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q$

$y \leftarrow g^x$

return (y, x) $y : pk, x : sk$

Enc (y, m)

$m \in G$

$r \xleftarrow{R} \mathbb{Z}_q$

$R \leftarrow g^r$

$c \leftarrow y^r \cdot m$

return $(R, c) \in G \times G$

Dec $(x, (R, c))$

$\hat{m} \leftarrow c/R^x$

return \hat{m}

$$\hat{m} = c/R^x = (y^r \cdot m) \cdot (g^{-r})^x = g^{xr} \cdot m \cdot g^{-rx} = m$$

Security

Decide whether for some m , (y, R, c) is $(g^x, g^r, m \cdot g^{xr})$ (DH exponent, independent) or (y, R, c) is $(g^x, g^r, m \cdot g^z)$ for some $z \xleftarrow{\$} \mathbb{Z}_p$

This is equivalent to the DDHP

Digital Signature (DS) Scheme is pub key cryptography

3 Lecture 3

3.1 Digital Signatures

Provides:

- Integrity
- Authenticity
- Non-repudiation

3.1.1 Signature Scheme

- $\text{KeyGen}() \rightarrow (pk, sk)$
- $\text{Sign}(sk, m) \rightarrow \sigma$
- $\text{Verify}(pk, m, \sigma) \rightarrow 0/1$

Completeness:

$\forall m : (pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}()$
 $\text{Verify}(pk, m, \text{Sign}(sk, m)) = 1$ (TRUE)

Security:

- $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{KeyGen}()$
- Adversary \mathcal{A} obtains pk , can request repeatedly:
 - $\sigma \leftarrow \text{Sign}(sk, m)$ for m chosen by \mathcal{A}
- Let M be the set of m asked by \mathcal{A}
- \mathcal{A} cannot output (m^*, σ^*) such that $m^* \in M \wedge \text{Verify}(pk, m^*, \sigma^*) = 1$

3.1.2 Schnorr Signatures

Very Important Signature Scheme based on the hardness of the discrete logarithm problem & its associated assumptions.

Recall: $G = \langle g \rangle$

$|G| = q$

$G \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, where $p = nq + 1$

KeyGen()

$x \xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_q$

$y \leftarrow g^x$

return (y, x)

Sign (x, m)

$r \xleftarrow{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_q$

$t \leftarrow g^r$

$c \leftarrow H(m \| g^s \cdot y^c)$ (challenge)

$s \leftarrow r - c \cdot x$ (signature)

return (c, s)

Verify $(y, m, (c, s))$

return $c \stackrel{?}{=} H(m \| g^s \cdot y^c)$

Completeness

Ensure that argument to $H()$ is same:

$$g^s \cdot y^c = g^{r-c \cdot x} \cdot g^{xc} = g^r \cdot g^{-c} = g^r = t$$

Security

One can prove this is secure under the DL assumption, in Random Oracle Model

3.2 RSA Signatures

$N = pq$, two primes p and q

\mathbb{Z}_N compute modulo N

$|\mathbb{Z}_N^*| = \varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$

\hookrightarrow Euler function

Euler's theorem:

For all $m \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$: $m^{\varphi(N)} \bmod N = 1$. Without factoring N , inverting exponentiation modulo N seems difficult.

KeyGen()

$p, q \leftarrow$ random primes

$N \leftarrow pq$

e fixed prime, small, coprime to $p-1, q-1$

$d \leftarrow e^{-1} \bmod \varphi(N) \quad \exists l : d \cdot e = 1 + l \cdot$

$\varphi(N)$

return $((N, e), d)$

Sign(d, m)

$\sigma \leftarrow H(m)^d$ where $H : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_N$ (modeled as Random Oracle Model)

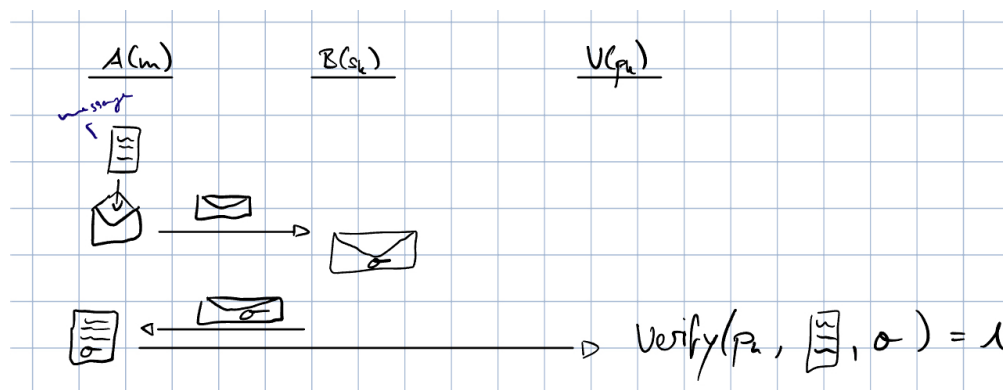
return σ

Verify($(N, e), m, \sigma$)

return $\sigma^e \stackrel{?}{=} H(m) \bmod N$

3.3 Blind Signatures

Protocol between user A and signer B to issue a digital Signature, A inputs message m , B signs m without learning m , Signature verifies as an ordinary signature.



- B must not learn any m it signs
- B learns how many times it signs
- Signature itself unforgeable

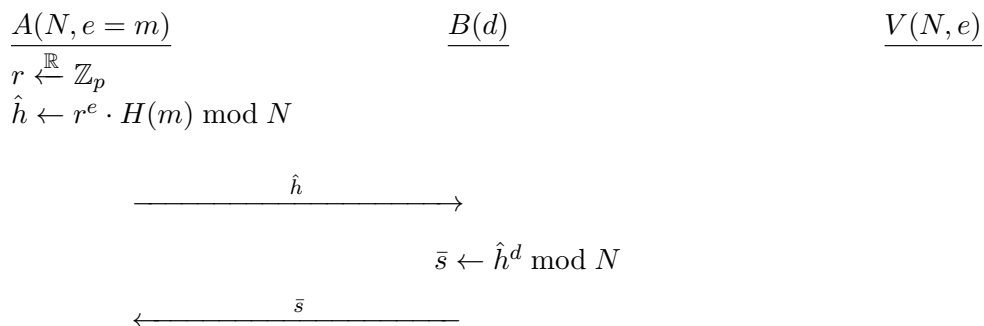
3.3.1 Blind RSA Signatures

Ordinary RSA Signatures do not hide m properly with $H(m)$ because adversary B could distinguish $H(m)$ from $H(m')$

This protocol hides m

- KeyGen() as before
- Verify() as before

Sign:



$s \leftarrow \bar{s}/r \bmod N$

s is a RSA signature on $H(m)$

$$\xrightarrow{(m, s)} s^e \stackrel{?}{\equiv} H(m) \pmod{N}$$

Completeness

$$\begin{aligned} s^e &= \bar{s}^e \cdot r^{-e} = \hat{h}^{de} \cdot r^{-e} \equiv \hat{h} \cdot r^e \\ &\equiv r^e \cdot H(m) \cdot r^{-e} \equiv H(m) \pmod{N} \end{aligned}$$

Blindness

- B signs a random value in \mathbb{Z}_N
- Signature allows no correlation with signing operation

Security

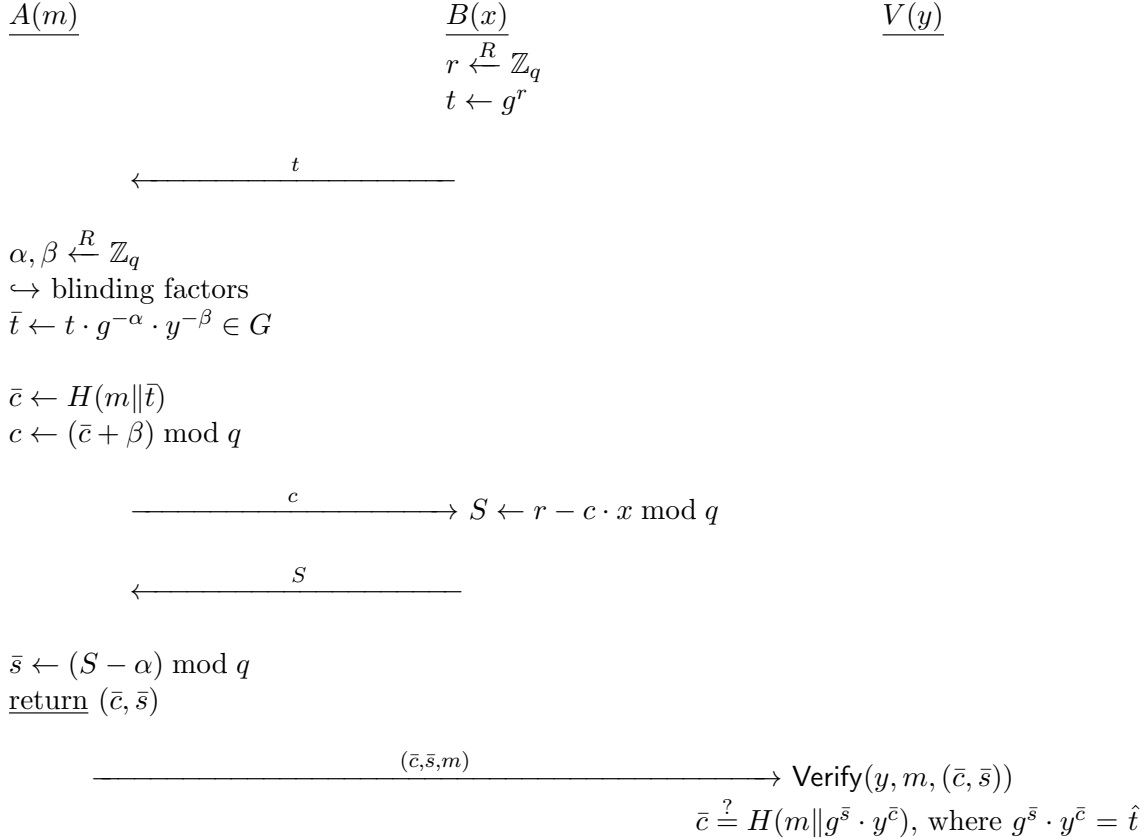
Same as ordinary RSA signature

3.4 Blind Schnorr Signatures

$$\text{Verify}(pk, m, \sigma) \rightarrow 0/1$$

- $\text{KeyGen}() \rightarrow (pk, sk)$ same as before

Signing Protocol:



Completeness

Show that $\hat{t} = \bar{t}$:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{t} &= g^{\bar{s}} \cdot y^{\bar{c}} = g^{s-\alpha} \cdot g^{x\bar{c}} = g^{r-cx-\alpha} \cdot g^{x(c-\beta)} \\
 &= g^{r-cx-\alpha+x \cdot c-x \cdot \beta} = g^{r-\alpha-x \cdot \beta} = g^{r-\alpha} \cdot y^{-\beta} \\
 &= g^r \cdot g^{-\alpha} \cdot y^{-\beta} = t \cdot g^{-\alpha} \cdot y^{-\beta} = \bar{t} \in \mathbb{Z}_q
 \end{aligned}$$

Blindness

- B sees only $H(m \parallel \hat{t})$ but F random
- B/V see signature (\bar{c}, \bar{s}) but during Protocol see only (c, s) , and (c, s) are, for random α, β :

$$\bar{c} = c - \beta$$

$$\bar{s} = s - \alpha$$

- This hides c, s as in a OTP (Oblivious Transfer Protocol)

Security

Same as for Schnorr

3.5 Anonymous Digital Cash Scheme

D. Chaum, 1985

- User Alice: wallet with coins
- Shop S : receives coins
- Bank B : creates coins
stores balance for A

Withdraw:

Denomination: u

User A
↓
Bank B

User A : $m \xleftarrow{R} \{0, 1\}^k$ coin identifier
send (m, u) to B

Bank B : - runs the blind-sig-protocol with B with A 's input being m
User A obtains blind Signature σ on m

Bank B : $\text{balance}_A \leftarrow \text{balance}_A - u$

Spend:

User A sends (m, σ) to S

Shop verifies that σ is a valid signature on m

Deposit:

- Shop goes to B , sends (m, σ)
- Verify that σ is a valid signature on m
- If B has not credited m before, then:
 - Bank credits u to account of S
 - $\text{bal}_S \leftarrow \text{bal}_S + u$
- Bank tells S that coin is valid
- Shop performs service

→ spending must be online