Cryptographic Protocols(I)

□ 1976 : Birth of concepts of PKC

□ 1978 : Birth of RSA

- New applications compared to traditional concepts
 - Digital Signature
 - Coin Flipping
 - Mental Poker
 - Contract Signing
 - Electronic Voting
 - Comparison of Richness

Cryptographic Protocols(II)

□ 1978 - 1984

- A variety of PKCs
- Research on various cryptographic protocols
- □ 1985
 - ZKIP (Zero Knowledge Interactive Proof)
 - Authentication
 - Multiparty Protocol
 - Proof of NP-complete problem



Cryptographic Protocols(IV)

- □ 1987 NIZK(Non-interactive ZK) – RSA
 - ✓ Strong against direct attack
 - But weak in chosen ciphertext attack
- □ Application of NIZK
 - Strong PKC against CCA
 - Digital signature against CPA



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Complexity Class(I)

Language L={0,1}*: infinite set of elements with various input size Uniform Model : Turing Machine (computer algorithm) Non-uniform Model : Circuit model (VLSI)

P : Deterministic poly, NP : Non deterministic Poly





Computation & Proof(I)





BPP(I)



$$\operatorname{Prob}(\mathsf{M}(\mathsf{x}) = 1) = \mathsf{k}/2^{\mathsf{n}} \begin{cases} > 1 - \varepsilon & \text{if } \mathsf{x} \in \mathsf{L} \\ < \varepsilon & \text{if } \mathsf{x} \notin \mathsf{L} \end{cases}$$

 $Prob(M(x)=0) = (2^{n} - k) / 2^{n}$

M(x) : random variable

BPP(II)

□ Example of BPP

L = { *p* | *p* = prime }

Probabilistic prime test by Solovay-Strassen

✓ gcd
$$(a,p) = 1$$
 (1)

$$\checkmark (a/p) = a^{(p-1/2)} \mod p$$
 (2)

If $p \in L$, eqs (1) and (2) are always true.

If $p \notin L$, eq.(1) or eq.(2) is false with over pr. 1/2

Check on $a_1, ..., a_k$:

If eqs (1) and (2) are true for all a_i ,

then p is prime greater than with pr. (1 - $1/2^{k}$)



IPS

□ Protocol : a pair of algorithm (A,B)

Interactive Proof System : Protocol (A,B) satisfying completeness and soundness

□ If L ∈ IP (Interactive Poly-time), L has an IPS (Interactive Proof System).

ZKIP

GMR(Goldwasser, Micali, Rackoff) ; Proposed at first in 1985

ZKIP (Zero Knowledge Interactive Proof) : Between P and V,

- Completeness : Only true P can prove V.
- Soundness : False P' can't prove V.
- 0-Knowledge : No knowledge transfer to V.

Concepts of ZKIP

By Quisquater and Guillou

P knows the secret, but he doesn't want to reveal his secret.

1. V stands at point A.

2. P walks all the way into the cave, either C or D.

3. After P disappeared into the cave, V walks to point B.

- 4. V shouts to P asking him either to:
 - (a) come out of the left passage or (b) come out of the right passage

5. P complies, using the magic words to open secret door if he has to.

6. P and V repeat step (1) -(5) t times

* P knows the magic words (secret) to open the secret door between C and D.

0-knowledge cave

Classification of ZKPS

Indistinguishability (I)

- Family of r.v., U ={U(x)} where x is from L, a particular set of {0,1}*, all r.v. are taken from {0,1}*, U and V are r.v.
- Verdict who can tell a bit from U or V is limited to
 - infinite time and space : perfect
 - infinite time and polysize space : statistical
 - polysize time and space : computational

Indistinguishability (II)

- L : Language
- {U(x)}, {V(x)} : family of random variable
- □ (Perfect) If for all x ∈ L, U(x) = V(x) (where "= " means "equal as random variables"), {U(x)} and {V(x)} are <u>perfectly indistinguishable</u> for L.
- □ (Statistical) If $\Sigma_{\alpha \in \{0,1\}^*}$ [Pr[U(x)= α] Pr[V(x)= α]] < ε (|x|), {U(x)} and {V(x)} are statistically indistinguishable for L.
- (Computational) For all circuit C (distinguisher) with polynomial size of |x|, if |Pr[C(U(x))=1] Pr[C(V(x))=1]| < ε, {U(x)} and {V(x)} are computational indistinguishable for L.

Way of proofing

- There are many ways to prove the truth of a proposition like "I know the modular square root of V" (or any other PSPACE problem):
- 1. To give the proof (i.e., to tell the square root to the verifier)
- 2. Zero-knowledge proof : to convince the verifier that the claim holds without giving him any information on the proof (and thus he cannot compute the square root).
- ZKIPs are used in identification scheme, in which a user (called the prover) proves to the verifier that he knows a certain secret, without revealing the secret, or any information on the secret.

F-S Identification(I)

□ (Preparation)

- (1) Unlike in RSA, a trusted center can generate a universal *n*, used by everyone as long as none knows the factorization.
- (2) P has an RSA modulo *n=pq* whose factorization is secret.
- (3) secret key : P chooses random value S, s.t. gcd(S,n)=1.(1 < S < n)</pre>
- public key : P computes *I*=S² mod *n*, and publishes (*I*,*n*) as public

F-S Identification(II)

(Goal)

P has to convince V that he knows secret key S corresponding public key (*I,n*) (i.e., to prove that he knows a modular square root of *I* mod *n*), without revealing **S**.

F-S Identification(III)

- P chooses random value r (1<r<n) and computes x=r²mod n. then sends x to V.
- 2. V requests from P one of the following request at random(a) r or (b) rS mod n
- 3. P sends the requested information to V.
- 4. V verifies that he received the right answer by checking whether

(a) $r^2 = x \mod n \text{ or } (b) (rS)^2 = xI \mod n$

- 5. If verification fails, V concludes that P does not know S, and thus he is not the claimed party.
- 6. This protocol is repeated t (usually 20 or 30) times, and if in all of them the verification succeeds, V concludes that P is the claimed party.

Security of F-S scheme

(1) It is assumed that computing S is difficult, actually the difficulty is equivalent to that of factoring n.

(2) Since P doesn't know in advance (when he chooses r or rS mod n) which question V will ask, he can't choose the required choice. He can succeed in guessing V's question with prob. 1/2 for each question, and thus V can catch him in half of the times, and fails to catch him in half of the times. The protocol is repeated t times, and thus the prob. that V fails to catch P in all the times is only 2^{-t}, which is exponentially reducing with t. (t=20 or 30)

F-S scheme is ZKIP

The F-S protocol convinces V that P knows the square root of *I*, without revealing any information on *S*.
 However, V gets <u>one bit</u> of information : <u>he learns that *I* is a quadratic residue</u>

Bit Commitment(I)

- Basic component of many cryptographic protocols
 - Commit stage : A commits B to a bit b, that B has no idea what b is.
 - Revealing stage : B can verify that committed bit is from A.

Bit Commitment(II)

Def) S,V : probabilistic poly time TM

- Commit Phase : S selects $b \in_U \{0, 1\}$ and sends it to V.
- Reveal Phase : S reveals b to V and V finally accept or rejects.
- (1) At commit phase, an adversary A tries to compute b like V, probability to derive b is negligible small.
- (2) After A did commit phase like S, then revealing b=0 or b=1 at the reveal phase is negligible small even if he has an unlimited power.

(Theorem) We can construct BC for a given 1 –way ft.

GI(Graph Isomorphism)

- □ (Def) G={V,E}=((1,...,n),({(i,j)})), n vertex
- □ \exists a 1-1 and onto mapping ϕ keeping the incidence relation of Graph G₁ and G₂.

ZKIP using GI(II)

- □ (Completeness) : If G_0 and G_1 are isomorphism, there exists π and V accepts P with prob. 1.
- □ (Soundness) : If G_0 and G_1 are not isomorphism, H is not isomorphic to G_0 nor G_1 at step 1. Thus, V selects b at random, the prob. of passing validation step 4 is 1/2. If repeats k times. Prob. of acceptance is $1/2^k$ (< $\epsilon |x|$).
- □ (0-Kness) : Done by Simulator

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