

## Handout 1: Homework 1

**1 Can functions which have small ranges be One Way?**

Let's show that a range of one way function cannot be bounded by a polynomial in the security parameter. In other words, we want to show that if  $f$  is a OWF and  $R_k = \{f(x) | x \in \{0, 1\}^k\}$ , then there is no polynomial  $p(k)$ , s.t.  $|R_k| \leq p(k)$  for all sufficiently large  $k$ .

**1.1**

Note that if  $f$  on domain  $\{0, 1\}^k$  has range of size  $|R_k| \leq p(k)$  then the average size of a preimage  $N_y = f^{-1}(y) = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^k | f(x) = y\}$  of any element  $y \in R_k$ , is at least  $2^k/p(k)$ . (We are averaging over  $y$ 's in  $R_k$ .)

Therefore, consider first a OWF candidate function  $f$  which spreads its outputs evenly, in the sense that for every  $y \in R_k$  we have  $|N_y| \geq \lfloor 2^k/p(k) \rfloor$ .

Argue that such  $f$  cannot be a OWF by constructing a PPT algorithm  $A$  which takes time about  $S_k + E_k$ , where  $S_k$  is the time to sample an element in  $\{0, 1\}^k$  and  $E_k$  is the time to evaluate function  $f$  on an input in  $\{0, 1\}^k$ , s.t.  $A$ 's advantage in inverting  $f$  is about  $1/(p(k))$ .

**1.2**

Now consider any function  $f$  with a polynomially bounded range. Take any  $k$  big enough so that  $|R_k| \leq p(k)$ . Note that sets  $N_1, N_2, \dots, N_{|R_k|}$  partition the whole domain  $\{0, 1\}^k$ . Note that there must exist  $i$  s.t.  $N_i > 2^k/p(k)$ . Show a PPT algorithm running in time about  $S_k + E_k$ , whose advantage in inverting  $f$  is at least  $1/(p(k))^2$ .

**1.3**

Show how to boost this advantage: Construct a PPT algorithm running in time  $p(k) * (S_k + E_k)$  whose advantage in inverting  $f$  is about  $1/e * 1/p(k)$ . (Use the fact that  $(1 - 1/k)^k \approx 1/e$ .)

*Note:* Our ability to boost the adversarial advantage by increasing the adversary's running time leads to the realization that a quality of an attack algorithm can be measured as  $s_A(k) = \text{Time}_A(k) * \text{Adv}_A(k)$ . Note that for the two attack algorithms, for  $A$  of sections 1.2 and  $A'$  of section 1.3, we have  $s_A(k) = \Theta(s_{A'}(k))$ .

**1.4**

Show that the same algorithm as in (1.2) in fact already has a much higher success probability, namely  $\text{Adv}_A(k) \geq 1/(2p(k))$ . It might help to divide sets  $N_i$  into "small" and "large"

by considering  $N_i$  small if  $|N_i| < 2^k / (2p(k))$ , and large otherwise, and showing that at least half the points in the domain are in large  $N_i$ 's.

## 2 Consequences of Indistinguishability for an Encryption Scheme

Let's see if the definition of security of a (symmetric) encryption scheme  $(KGen, Enc, Dec)$  in terms of *indistinguishability of ciphertexts*, which is the definition we discussed in class, is powerful enough to imply other natural security properties of encryption.

First let's recall the definition we had in class:

**Definition 1** *Encryption scheme  $(KGen, Enc, Dec)$  is indistinguishable if for every probabilistic polynomial time algorithm  $A$  and every polynomial  $l(n)$ , there is a negligible function  $\epsilon(n)$  s.t. for all  $n$ , and all  $m_0, m_1 \in \{0, 1\}^{l(n)}$ , we have*

$$\begin{aligned} Adv_A(n) = & |Pr[A(m_0, m_1, c) = 1 \mid k \leftarrow KGen(1^n); c \leftarrow Enc(k, m_1)] - \\ & - Pr[A(m_0, m_1, c) = 1 \mid k \leftarrow KGen(1^n); c \leftarrow Enc(k, m_0)]| \leq \epsilon(n) \end{aligned}$$

In other words,  $A$  cannot tell between an encryption of  $m_0$  and an encryption of  $m_1$ , for any two polynomially-long messages  $m_0$  and  $m_1$ .

### 2.1 Hardness of decrypting a random ciphertext

If an encryption scheme  $(KGen, Enc, Dec)$  is secure in the sense of indistinguishability of ciphertexts, is it also secure in the sense that a ciphertext of a random message is hard to decrypt without a key? First propose a formal definition of an encryption scheme for which it is infeasible for an efficient adversary (who does not have an encryption key) to decrypt a ciphertext of a random message.

Then either prove that an indistinguishable encryption scheme must be secure in the sense of resistance to decryption, or give a counterexample which shows that this new security property is strictly stronger.

### 2.2 Hardness of decryption (cont.)

Consider also the opposite question: If a cipher is secure in the new sense, then must it be secure in the sense of indistinguishability? Either prove that it must be or show a counterexample.

### 2.3 Hardness of telling any bit information on a message

If an encryption scheme  $(KGen, Enc, Dec)$  is secure in the sense of indistinguishability of ciphertexts, is it also secure in the following sense: Given a ciphertext of a random message  $m \in \{0, 1\}^k$  where  $k$  is the security parameter, is it infeasible for an adversary to decide with a probability which is significantly (i.e. non-negligibly) higher than  $1/2$ , on the input of the ciphertext only, if some one-bit information function  $B(m)$  is 0 or 1, for a random  $m$ ?

A one-bit information function is a function  $B : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$  s.t. for every  $k$ , for a random  $m$  in  $\{0, 1\}^k$ , the probability  $Pr[B(m) = 0] = Pr[B(m) = 1] = 1/2$ . For example,

any function  $B_i(m) = \text{"}i\text{-th bit of } m\text{"}$  is a one-bit information function. But there are many others, for example,  $B(m)$  could be defined as an xor of all bits of  $m$ , or a majority of all bits of  $m$ , etc.

Again, propose a formal definition of an encryption scheme which is secure in the sense of infeasibility of deciding significantly better than at random any one-bit information function on  $m$ , given only an encryption of  $m$ , for a random  $m$ .

Then either prove that every indistinguishable encryption scheme is secure in this new sense, or give a counterexample.

## 2.4 Conclusion

Which of the three security properties seems strongest? Which one seems weaker? Which one seems weakest?

## 3 Computations in $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ : Generating instances of a discrete-log-based OWF collection.

We'll construct a PPT algorithm which on input  $(p, q)$ , where  $p$  is prime and  $q$  is a prime factor of  $p - 1$  whose length is polynomially related to the length of  $p$  (for simplicity of an argument, consider for example only  $q$ 's s.t.  $|q| \geq |p|/2$ ), outputs an element  $g$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  whose order is at least  $q$ , with a significant probability.

Recall that an order  $ord_p(x)$  of an element  $x$  of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is defined as the smallest integer  $i$  s.t.  $x^i = 1 \pmod p$ .

### 3.1

Recall the Euler's theorem that  $x^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$  for all  $x$ . Show that for every  $x$ ,  $ord_p(x)$  divides  $p - 1$ .

### 3.2

Prove that if  $z^{(p-1)/q} \neq 1 \pmod p$  then  $ord_p(z)$  is at least  $q$ . (Consider all prime factors  $q_0, q_1, \dots, q_e$  of  $p - 1$  where  $q_0 = q$ . Note that  $p - 1/q$  is a multiple of  $q_i$  for all  $i \neq 0$ .)

### 3.3

Recall that if  $p$  is prime then  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a cyclic group and hence has a generator  $g$ . Therefore for every  $z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  there is a unique index  $i_z \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$  s.t.  $g^{i_z} = z \pmod p$ . Show that  $ord_p(z) = r$  if and only if  $i_z * ord_p(z) = 0 \pmod{p-1}$ .

### 3.4

Show that for every  $r$ , there are at most  $r$  elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  whose order is  $r$ .

### 3.5

Show that there can be at most  $|p|$  different prime factors of  $p - 1$ .

### 3.6

Consider an algorithm  $A$  which picks a random element  $z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , and outputs  $z$  if  $z^{(p-1)/q} \neq 1 \pmod p$  (and fails otherwise). By subsection 3.2, if this algorithm succeeds, it outputs an element of an order at least  $q$ .

Now use the results of subsections 3.4 and 3.5 to show that  $A$  has a significant probability of success.

### 3.7

A random  $k$ -bit number is prime with probability about  $1/k$ . Moreover, for a random  $k/2$ -bit prime  $q$ , the probability that  $p = iq + 1$  for a random  $k/2$ -bit  $i$  is prime as well, is again about  $1/k$ . Show that this immediately implies a simple PPT algorithm to generate a pair of primes  $p, q$  s.t.  $|p| = k$  and  $|q| = k/2$  and  $q$  divides  $p - 1$ .

### 3.8 Conclusion

Since the discrete logarithm problem of finding  $x$  on input a random  $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  s.t.  $g^x = y \pmod p$ , is believed hard if the order of  $g$  is divisible by a large prime  $q$  (e.g.  $|q| = k/2$ ), the combined procedure of subsections 3.6 and 3.5 creates a PPT algorithm which generates (with significant probability) an instance of a one-way function collection based on the discrete logarithm problem: The instance of this OWF collection for a security parameter  $k$  is a function  $f_{(g,p)}$  (for  $g, p$  as above) defined on  $\mathbb{Z}_{p-1}$  as  $f_{(g,p)}(x) = g^x \pmod p$ .