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# **Introduction to Information Security**

## **Lecture 8: Cryptographic Protocols**

**2007. 6.**

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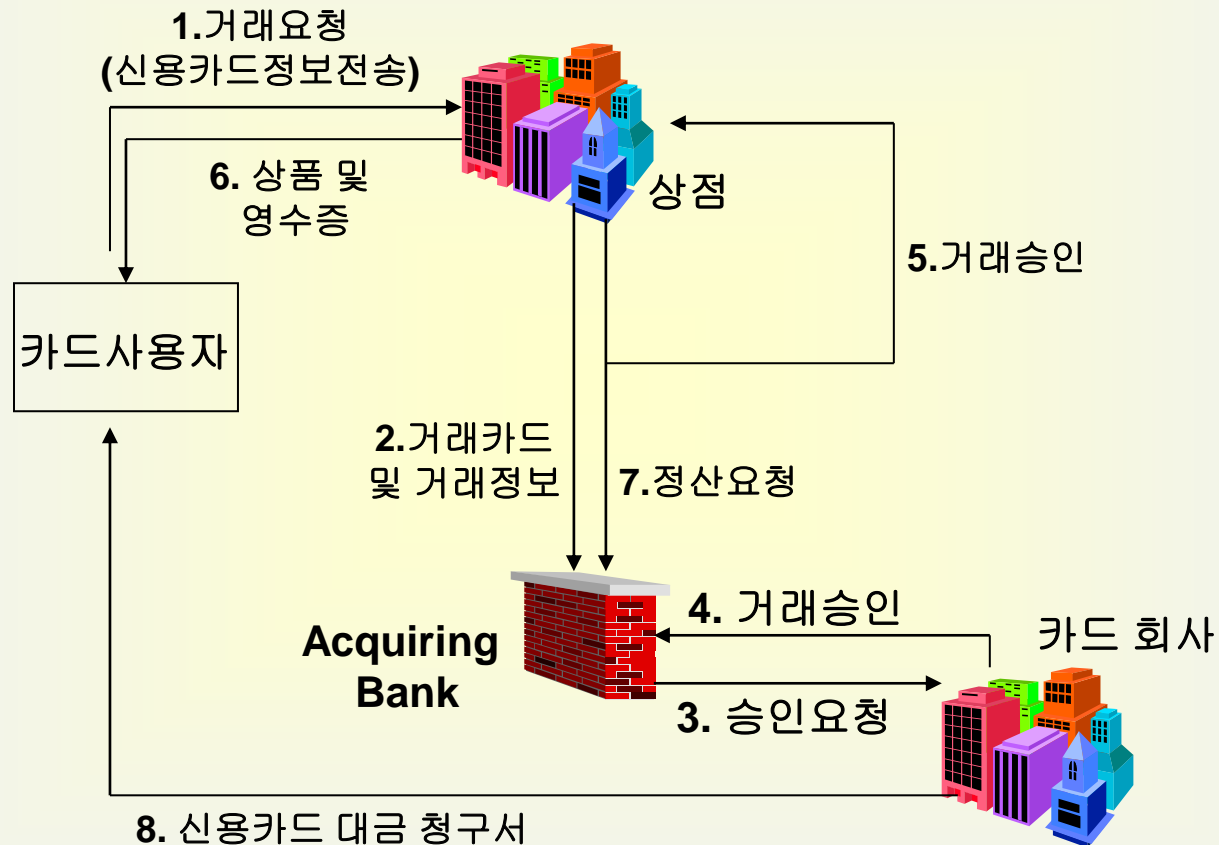
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4. **Secret Sharing and Threshold Cryptography**
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# **1. Cryptographic Protocols**

# Typical E-commerce Scenario



- Combination of lots of computation / communication.
- Must be fare to all participating entities

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# Cryptographic Protocols

## ➤ Cryptographic algorithms

- ✓ Algorithm executed by a single entity
- ✓ Algorithms performing cryptographic functions
- ✓ Encryption, Hash, digital signature, etc...

## ➤ Cryptographic protocols

- ✓ Protocols executed between multiple entities through pre-defined steps of communication performing security-related functions
- ✓ Perform more complicated functions than what the primitive algorithms can provide
- ✓ Primitives: Key agreement, secret sharing, blind signature, coin toss, secure multiparty computations, etc ...
- ✓ Complex application protocols: e-commerce, e-voting, e-auction, etc ...

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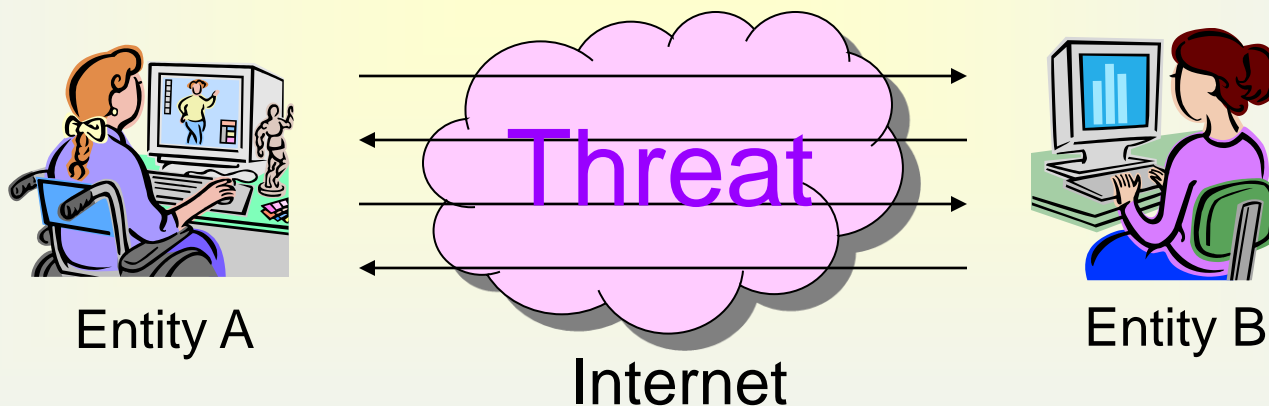
# Cryptographic Protocols

## ➤ Protocols

- ✓ Designed to accomplish a task through a series of communication steps, involving two or more entities

## ➤ Cryptographic Protocols

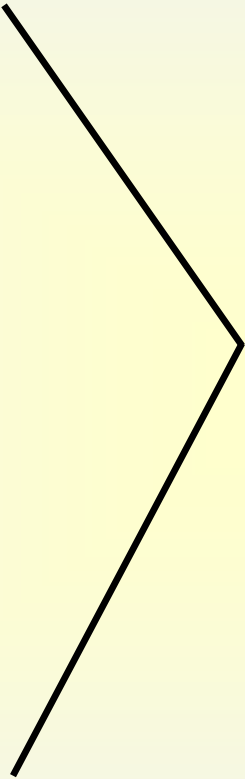
- ✓ Protocols that use cryptography
- ✓ Non-face-to-face interaction over an open network
- ✓ Cannot trust other entities



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# Security Requirements in Protocols

- ✓ Confidentiality
- ✓ Integrity
- ✓ Authentication
- ✓ Non-repudiation
- ✓ Correctness
- ✓ Verifiability
- ✓ Fairness
- ✓ Anonymity
- ✓ Privacy
- ✓ Robustness
- ✓ Efficiency
- ✓ Etc.....



**Combinations of  
these requirements  
according to applications**

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# Protocol Primitives

## ➤ Coin Toss game over Communication Network

- ✓ Two parties play coin toss game over the communication network
- ✓ Can it be made fair?

## ➤ Blind Signatures

- ✓ Signer signs a document without knowledge of the document and the resulting signature
- ✓ Message and the resulting signature are hidden from the signer
- ✓ Many applications which require anonymity or privacy
- ✓ Digital cash, e-voting

## ➤ Key Agreements

- ✓ Two or more parties agree on a secret key over communication network in such a way that both influence the outcome.
- ✓ Do not require any trusted third party (TTP)



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# Protocol Primitives

## ➤ Secret Sharing

- ✓ Distribute a secret amongst a group of participants
- ✓ Each participant is allocated a share of the secret
- ✓ Secret can be reconstructed only when the shares are combined together
- ✓ Individual shares are of no use on their own.

## ➤ Threshold Cryptography

- ✓ A message is encrypted using a public key and the corresponding private key is shared among multiple parties.
- ✓ In order to decrypt a ciphertext, a number of parties exceeding a threshold is required to cooperate in the decryption protocol.

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# Protocol Primitives

## ➤ Zero-knowledge Proofs

- ✓ An interactive method for one party to prove to another that a (usually mathematical) statement is true, without revealing anything other than the validity of the statement.

## ➤ Identification, Authentication

- ✓ Over the communication network, one party, Alice, shows to another party, Bob, that she is the real Alice.
- ✓ Allows one party, Alice, to prove to another party, Bob, that she possesses secret information without revealing to Bob what that secret information is.

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# Protocol Primitives

## ➤ Private Information Retrieval (PIR)

- ✓ allow a client to query a database without the server learning what the query is.

## ➤ Secure Multiparty Computation (SMC)

- ✓ A set of parties with private inputs wish to compute some joint function of their inputs.
- ✓ Parties wish to preserve some security properties. E.g., privacy and correctness.

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# Application Protocols

## ➤ Electronic Commerce

- ✓ SET (Secure Electronic Transaction) – Credit card transaction
- ✓ Digital cash, micropayment, e-check, e-money
- ✓ e-auction
- ✓ e-banking

## ➤ e-government

## ➤ e-voting

## ➤ Fair exchange of digital signature (for contract signing)

## ➤ Application Scenarios

- Traditional applications transfer to electronic versions
- New applications appear with the help of crypto

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## **2. Flipping Coins over the Telephone**

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# Coin Toss Game

## ➤ Scenario

Alice and Bob are getting a divorce and have to discuss who gets what. . .

. . . and they can't stand facing each other. . .

. . . they don't seem to agree about one thing: who gets the car?

Finally they decide to flip a coin. . .

## ➤ The problem:

If they don't trust each other, how can they flip a coin over the telephone?



Head, Alice



Tail, Bob

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# Bit Commitment (BC)

## ➤ Scenario

Alice makes a commitment simply by picking a value from a finite set and committing to her choice in a way such that she cannot change her mind later. Later she can, if she wants, reveal her choice.

## ➤ Protocol

1. Alice writes down a bit  $b$  on a piece of paper, puts it inside a box and locks the box;
2. Alice gives the box to Bob;
3. If Alice wants, she can reveal her commitment by opening the box in front of Bob.

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# Bit Commitment (BC)

- Required properties of bit commitment (From Alice to Bob)
  1. **Binding property**: Alice can't change her mind;
  2. **Hiding property**: Bob can't open the box, unless Alice unlocks it.
  
- Construction of BC
  - ✓ Using one-way function : Hash functions, Public key encryptions



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# Flipping Coins using BC

- **Set up (Bit commitment using Hash function)**  
Alice and Bob agree that Alice will flip a coin and Bob will try to guess. They agree on a hash function  $h( )$ .
- **The Coin Flipping Protocol is as follows:**
  1. **(Coin Flip by Alice)** Alice randomly chooses  $x$  and computes  $y=h(x)$ . Alice commits to  $x$  by sending  $y$  to Bob;
  2. **(Call head or tail by Bob)** Bob guesses and calls whether  $x$  is even or odd number;
  3. **(Find the result)** Alice reveals  $x$ , then Bob checks  $y=h(x)$  holds. If Bob's guess is correct, Bob wins, otherwise Alice wins.

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# Play Further Games?

- ❖ **Millionaire Problem (by Andrew Yao in 1982)**
  - ✓ Two millionaires, Alice and Bob, want to know who is richer, without revealing their actual wealth.
- ❖ **Mental Poker**
  - ✓ Play a fair game (poker) over distance without the need for a trusted third party
- ❖ **Secure multi-party computation**
  - ✓ We have a given number of participants ( $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_N$ ), each having a private data, respectively ( $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_N$ ).
  - ✓ The participants want to compute the value of a public function  $F$  on  $N$  variables at the point ( $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_N$ ).
  - ✓ No participant can learn more from the description of the public function and the result of the global calculation.

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### **3. Special Signatures**

- Blind Signature**
- Proxy Signature**

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# Special Signatures

## ❖ Special Signatures

- ✓ Digital signatures with additional features (anonymity, privacy, efficiency, delegation,...)
- ✓ Digital signature variants considering various business application scenarios

## ❖ Blind signature

- ✓ A user can receive a signature of a signer without revealing the message and the resulting signature to the signer

## ❖ Proxy signature

- ✓ An original signer delegate his/her signing capability to a proxy signer, and then the proxy signer signs documents on behalf of the original signer

## ❖ Self-certified signature

- ✓ Signature verification and certificate verification are done efficiently in a single logical step.

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# Special Signatures

## ❖ Undeniable signature

- ✓ A recipient of a signature cannot check the validity by himself
- ✓ The recipient has to interact with the signer in order to be convinced of the validity of signature

## ❖ Designated confirmer signature

- ✓ The recipient has to interact with an entity called the confirmer who has been designated by the signer

## ❖ Nominative signature

- ✓ a nominator (signer) and a nominee (verifier) to jointly generate and publish a signature in such a way that only the nominee can verify the signature and if necessary, only the nominee can prove to a third party that the signature is valid.

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# Special Signatures

## ❖ Designated-verifier signature

- ✓ the designated-verifier can be convinced of the validity of the signature, but he/she is unable to transfer the conviction to other entity.

## ❖ Limited-verifier signature

- ✓ The limited verifier is able to transfer the proof to convince another entity (perhaps a judge). However, such a proof given to the judge is not transferrable to another third entities

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# Special Signatures

## ❖ Group signature

- ✓ a signature scheme which allows a member of a group to anonymously sign a message on behalf of the group.
- ✓ A group manager can reveal the identity of the real signer

## ❖ Ring signature

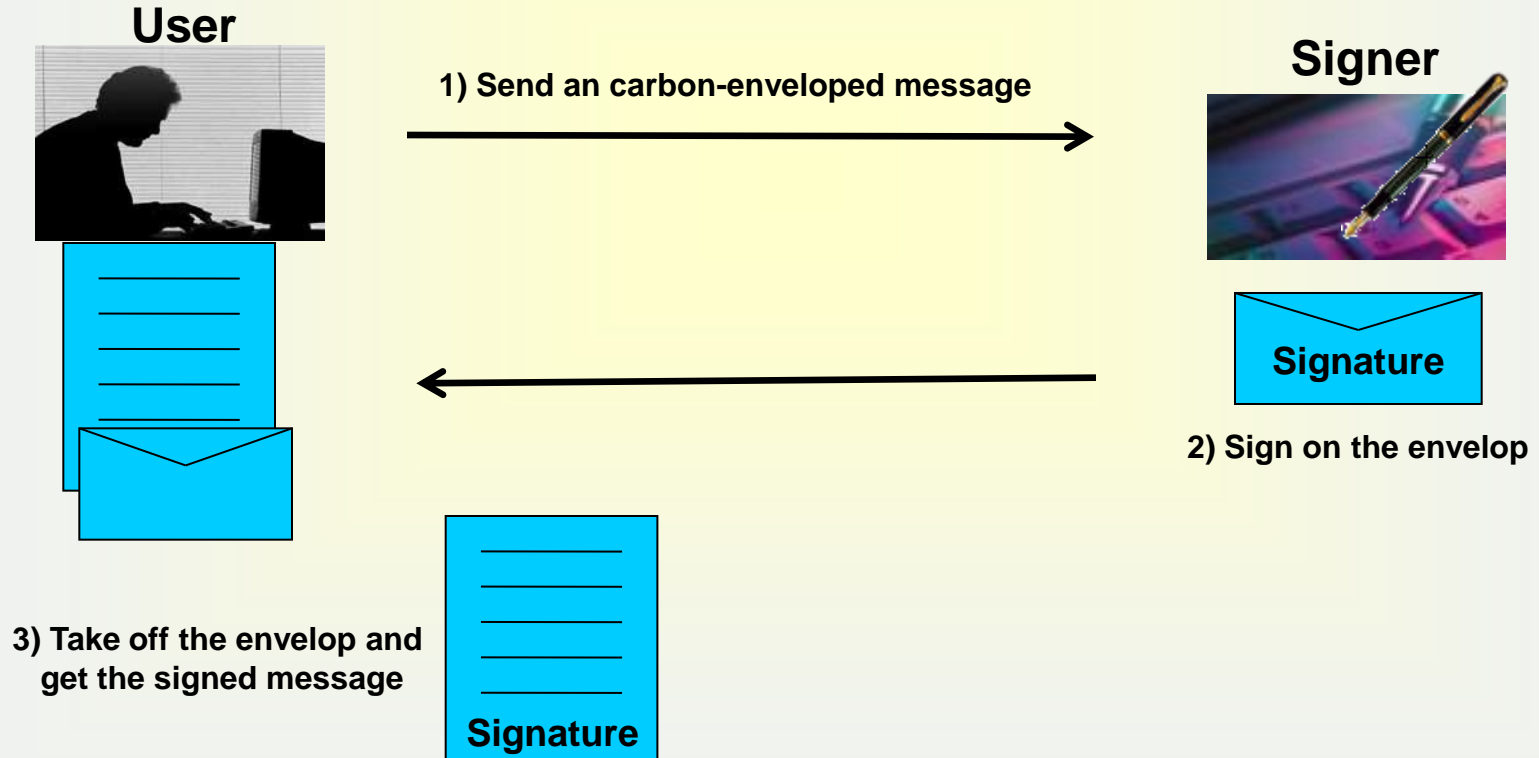
- ✓ A type of digital signature that can be performed by any member of a group of users. Therefore, a message signed with a ring signature is endorsed by someone in a particular group of people.
- ✓ One of the security properties of a ring signature is that it should be difficult to determine *which* of the group members' keys was used to produce the signature.

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# Blind Signature

## Signing without seeing the message

- We should not reveal the content of the letter to the signer.
- For example, using a carbon-enveloped message



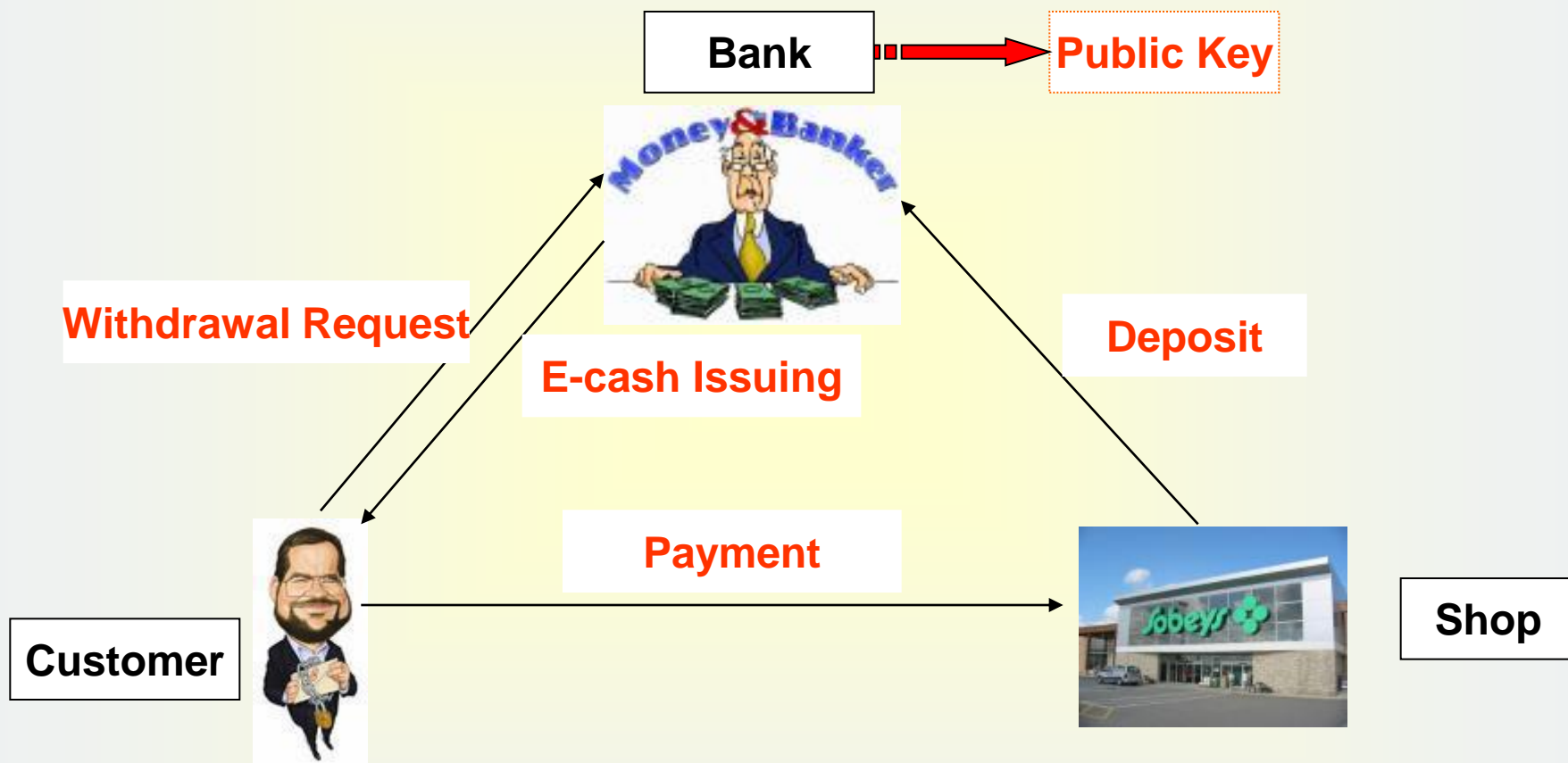


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# Motivation of Blind Signature

- ❖ One interesting question of public key cryptosystem is whether we can use digital signature to create some form of **digital currency**. The scenario is described as follows:
  - 1) A bank published his public key.
  - 2) When one of his customer makes a withdrawal from his account, the bank provides it with a digitally signed note that specifies the amount withdrawn.
  - 3) The customer can present it to a merchant, who can then verify the bank's signature.
  - 4) Upon completing a transaction, the vender can then remit the note to the bank, which will then credit the vendor the amount specified in the note.
  - 5) This note is, in effect, a digital monetary instrument, we called it as "**Electronic Cash or E-Cash**".
- ❖ Privacy issue of digital cash???
  - ✓ The bank can easily trace a cash to a specific user.

# E-Cash Scenario



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# David Chaum's Blind Signature

- ❖ David Chaum proposed a very elegant solution to this problem, known as **blind signature**.



*He is also named as the “father of E-cash”*

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# Blind Signature

Blind signature scheme is a protocol that allows the provider to obtain a valid signature for a message  $m$  from the signer without him seeing **the message** and **its signature**.

If the signer sees message  $m$  and its signature later, he can verify that the signature is genuine, but he is unable to link the message-signature pair to the particular instance of the signing protocol which has led to this pair.

## Many applications

- ✓ Useful when values need to be certified, yet anonymity should be preserved
- ✓ e-cash, e-voting

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# Blind Signature

## Protocol Steps

- 1) Alice takes the document and uses a “blinding factor” to blind the document. (**Blinding Phase**)
- 2) Alice sends the blinded document to Bob and Bob signs the blinded document. (**Signing Phase**)
- 3) Alice can remove the blinding factor and obtain the signature on the original document. (**Unblinding Phase**)

# RSA-based Blind Signature

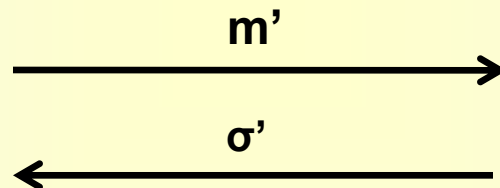
User

Get a signature for a message  $m$ .

Signer

## (1) Blinding

$$r \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$$
$$m' = H(m) r^e \bmod N$$



## (2) Signing

$$\sigma' = m'^d \bmod N$$

## (3) Unblinding

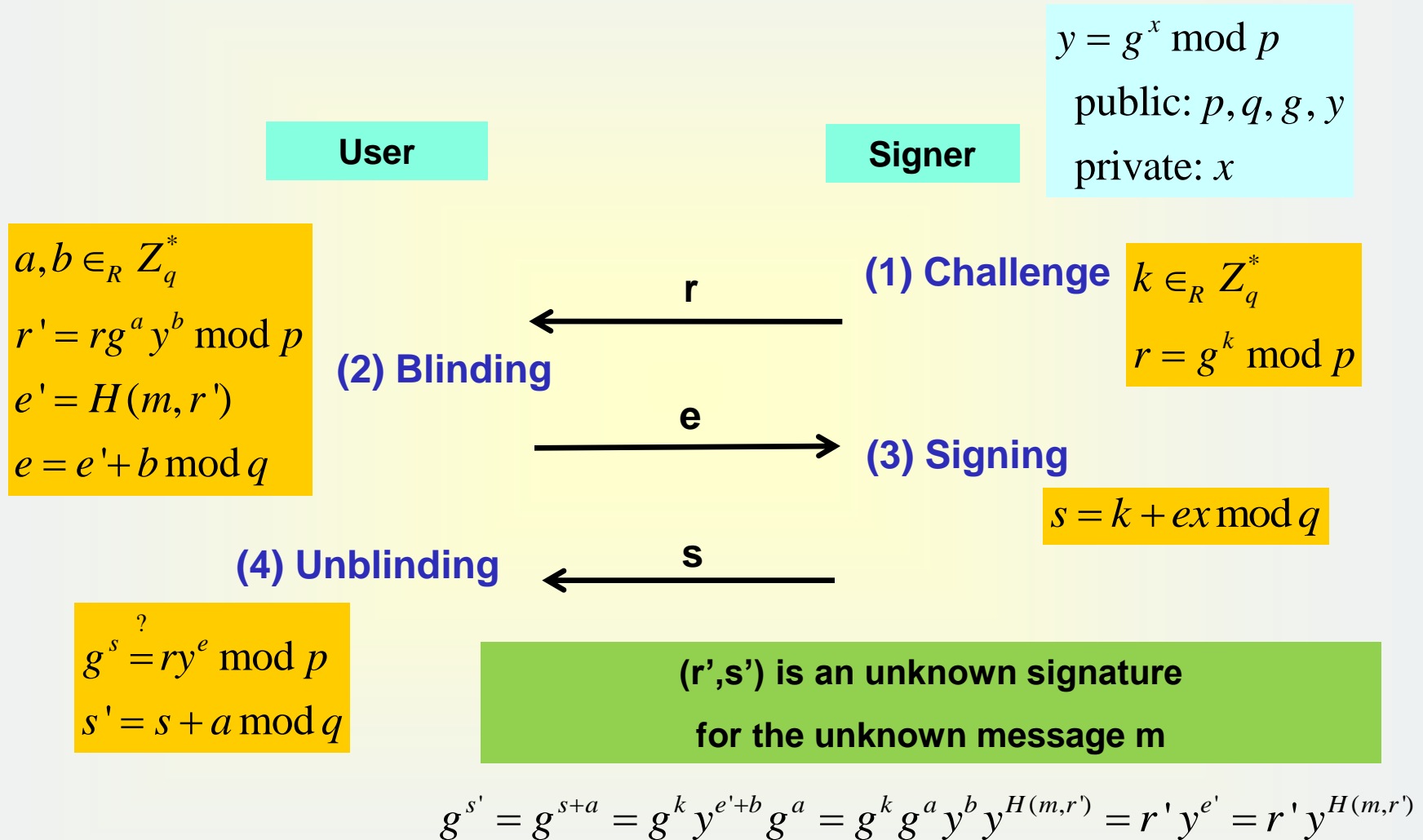
$$\sigma = \sigma' r^{-1} \bmod N$$

$$\sigma = \sigma' r^{-1} \bmod N = (H(m) r^e)^d r^{-1} \bmod N = H(m)^d \bmod N$$

$\sigma$  is a valid signature of the signer

The signer cannot have any information on  $m$  and  $\sigma$ .

# Schnorr-based Blind Signature



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# Proxy Signature

- ❖ **A scenario in the real world**
  - ✓ Each student's transcript of academic record should be signed by the department head.
  - ✓ The department head is too busy to sign all the transcripts , so he assigns a clerk to sign them.
  - ✓ How to delegate the right of signing transcripts to the clerk?
  - ✓ The department head gives a department chop(seal) to the clerk. The clerk signs the transcripts on behalf of the department head.
- ❖ **Problems in handwritten proxy signature**
  - ✓ It is difficult to prevent the proxy from signing documents unfavorable to the original signer.
  - ✓ It is also difficult to prevent the proxy signer from passing the chop to another person.
- ❖ **Proxy signature: In digital case, these problems can be solved by using cryptographic means.**

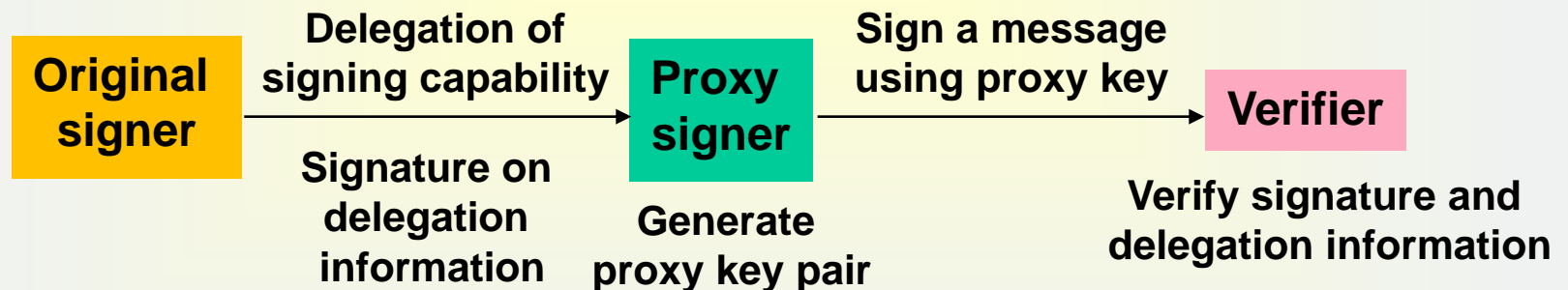


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# Proxy Signature

## ❖ Overview of proxy signature

- ✓ An original signer delegates his/her signing capability to a proxy signer (issues a proxy key pair to proxy signer)
- ✓ Proxy signer signs a message on behalf of the original signer using the proxy key pair
- ✓ A receiver verifies the signature itself and original signer's delegation together



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# Classification of Proxy Signature

- ❖ **Full delegation** : gives the original signer's private key to proxy signer
- ❖ **Partial delegation** : generates a new proxy key pair
  - ✓ **Proxy unprotected** : original signer knows the proxy key pair
  - ✓ **Proxy protected** : proxy key pair is hidden from the original signer
  - ✓ **Partial delegation with warrant** : contains warrant information
- ❖ **Delegation by warrant** : the original signer gives a signed warrant to the proxy signer.

# Proxy Signature by MUO

❖ Proposal by Mambo, Usuda, Okamoto in 1996

**Alice**  
(Original signer)

$$\begin{aligned} k &\in_R Z_q^* \\ K &= g^k \\ s_A &= x_A + kK \end{aligned}$$

**Bob**  
(Proxy signer)

$$g^{s_A} \stackrel{?}{=} y_A K^K$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_P &= s_A + x_B y_B \\ y_P &\equiv g^{x_P} = y_A K^K y_B^{y_B} \end{aligned}$$

- Use proxy signer's key pair
- Non-interactive proxy key issuing

Signature creation:  $m, S(x_P, m), K, y_B$

Verification of delegation:  $y_P = y_A K^K y_B^{y_B}$   
?

Verification of signature:  $V(y_P, m, S(x_P, m)) = true$

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## **4. Secret Sharing and Threshold Cryptography**

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# Secret Sharing

## ➤ Background

- ✓ Some secrets are too important to be kept by one person.
- ✓ “*It is easier to trust the many than the few*”
- ✓ Secrecy (trust) and robustness

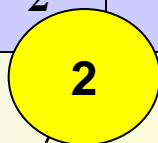
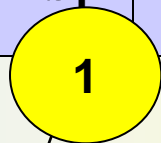
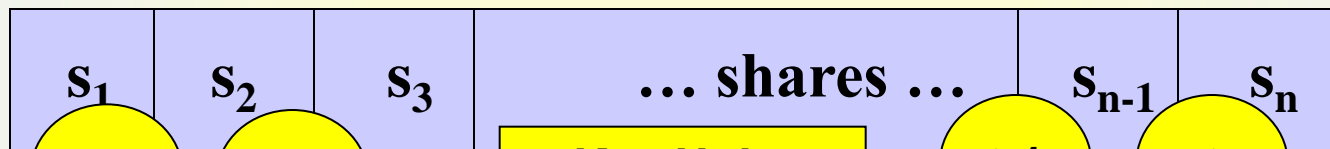
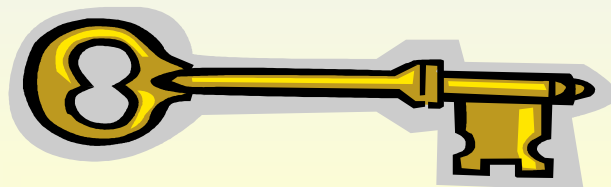
## ➤ Example:

- ✓ Purported by Time Magazine in 1992 that the Russian nuclear weapon systems were protected by a two-out-of-three access mechanism – President, Defense Minister and Defense Ministry

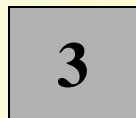
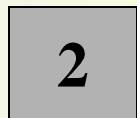
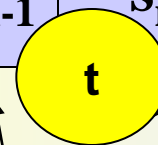
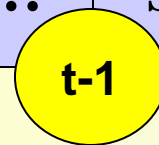
## ➤ Secret Sharing

- ✓ Distribute a secret amongst a group of participants
- ✓ Each participant is allocated a share of the secret
- ✓ Secret can be reconstructed only when the shares are combined together
- ✓ Individual shares are of no use on their own.

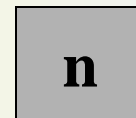
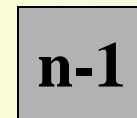
# Secret Sharing



**... Key Holes...**



**... parties ...**



# Secret Sharing

## ➤ Flawed secret sharing

password → pa ss wo rd



## ➤ Trivial secret sharing

A secret  $s$  is distributed as  $s = b_1 \oplus b_2 \oplus \dots \oplus b_{n-1} \oplus b_n$

1) Choose random numbers  $b_1, \dots, b_{n-1}$

2) Compute  $b_n = b_1 \oplus b_2 \oplus \dots \oplus b_{n-1} \oplus s$

All  $n$  shares should be present to recover the secret  $s$   
(Not robust)

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# Threshold Secret Sharing

## ➤ Scenario

For example, imagine that the Board of Directors of Coca-Cola would like to protect **Coke's secret formula**. The president of the company should be able to access the formula when needed, but in an emergency any 3 of the 12 board members would be able to unlock the secret formula together.

This can be accomplished by a secret sharing scheme with  $t = 3$  and  $n = 15$ , where 3 shares are given to the president, and 1 is given to each board member.

## ➤ Security Issues

➤ **Secrecy**: resistance against any misbehavior

➤ **Robustness**: reliability against any possible error



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# Threshold Secret Sharing

- **(t, n) Secret Sharing with  $t < n$** 
  - ✓ A secret  $K$  is shared among  $n$  shares
  - ✓ Among  $n$  shares  $t$  shares have to cooperate to recover the secret  $K$
  - ✓ Robust against partial error
  - ✓ Shamir's secret sharing, Blakley's secret sharing
  
- The goal is to **divide a secret  $K$  into  $n$  pieces**  $s_1, \dots, s_n$  in such a way that:
  - ✓ Any group of  $t$  or more users can jointly obtain the secret; knowledge of any  $t$  or more  $s_i$  pieces makes  $K$  easily computable.
  - ✓ Any group of  $t-1$  or less users cannot jointly obtain any information about the secret. Knowledge of any  $t-1$  or fewer  $s_i$  pieces leaves  $K$  completely undetermined.
  
- Provides tradeoff between **security** and **reliability** according to the choice of  $t$  and  $n$ .
  - ✓ Higher  $t$  gives higher security, lower reliability
  - ✓ Lower  $t$  gives lower security, higher reliability

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# Shamir's Secret Sharing

## ➤ (t, n) Secret Sharing

- ✓ Secret information **K**
- ✓  $n$  share holders ( $P_1, \dots, P_n$ )
- ✓ Using  $t-1$  degree random polynomial with random coefficient

(Step 1. Polynomial construction) A dealer selects a secret, **K** ( $< p$  : prime) as a constant term and  $t-1$  degree random polynomial with arbitrary coefficients as :

$$F(x) = \mathbf{K} + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{t-1}x^{t-1} \bmod p$$

(Step 2. Share distribution) Distributes  $F(i)$  ( $i=1, \dots, n$ ) securely to share holders  $P_i$ .

(Step 3. Secret recovery) When  $t$  shares  $\Lambda = (K_1, K_2, \dots, K_t)$  among  $n$  are given, recover **K** by using the Lagrange Interpolation

$$K = \sum_{j \in \Lambda} K_j \lambda_{j, \Lambda} \bmod p, \quad \text{where } \lambda_{j, \Lambda} = \prod_{l \in \Lambda \setminus \{j\}} \frac{l}{l - j}$$

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# Shamir's Secret Sharing

## ➤ Example

✓ (3,5) secret sharing

✓  $K=11$ ,  $p=17$

✓ Construct a degree 2 random polynomial

$$F(x) = K + a_1x + a_2x^2 \bmod p$$

✓ For a random choice  $a_1=8$ ,  $a_2=7$

$$F(x) = 11 + 8x + 7x^2 \bmod 17$$

✓ Share distribution

$$K_1 = F(1) = 7 \times 1^2 + 8 \times 1 + 11 \equiv 9 \bmod 17$$

$$K_2 = F(2) = 7 \times 2^2 + 8 \times 2 + 11 \equiv 4 \bmod 17$$

$$K_3 = F(3) = 7 \times 3^2 + 8 \times 3 + 11 \equiv 13 \bmod 17$$

$$K_4 = F(4) = 7 \times 4^2 + 8 \times 4 + 11 \equiv 2 \bmod 17$$

$$K_5 = F(5) = 7 \times 5^2 + 8 \times 5 + 11 \equiv 5 \bmod 17$$

$K_1, K_2, K_3, K_4, K_5$  : shares given to  $(P_1, \dots, P_5)$

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# Shamir's Secret Sharing

## ➤ Example

### ➤ Secret recovery by equation solving

From  $K_2, K_3, K_4$ , we can recover  $K = 11$

$$a \times 2^2 + b \times 2 + K \equiv 4 \pmod{17}$$

$$a \times 3^2 + b \times 3 + K \equiv 13 \pmod{17}$$

$$a \times 4^2 + b \times 4 + K \equiv 2 \pmod{17}$$

Solve the 3 polynomial equations with 3 variables to get  $K$ .

### ➤ Using the Lagrange interpolation

For  $\Lambda = (K_1, K_2, K_3)$

$$\begin{aligned} K &= K_1 \left( \frac{2}{2-1} \frac{3}{3-1} \right) + K_2 \left( \frac{1}{1-2} \frac{3}{3-2} \right) + K_3 \left( \frac{1}{1-3} \frac{2}{2-3} \right) \\ &= 9 \cdot 3 + 4 \cdot (-3) + 13 \cdot 1 \pmod{17} = 11 \end{aligned}$$

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# Shamir's Secret Sharing

- **Exercise.** Construct a Shamir's secret sharing scheme in the following setting --- (5,7) secret sharing with  $p=23$ ,  $K=19$
1. Construct a random polynomial
  2. Share distribution
  3. Secret recovery

# Verifiable Secret Sharing

- How to have a confidence that your share is a correct one?
- Feldman's Verifiable Secret Sharing (VSS)

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Secret } S \\ f(x) = s + a_1x + a_2x^2 \end{array}$$

$$S \longrightarrow (f(i), i)$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Public} \\ g^s, g^{a_1}, g^{a_2} \end{array}$$

**Publish commitments  
to the coefficients**

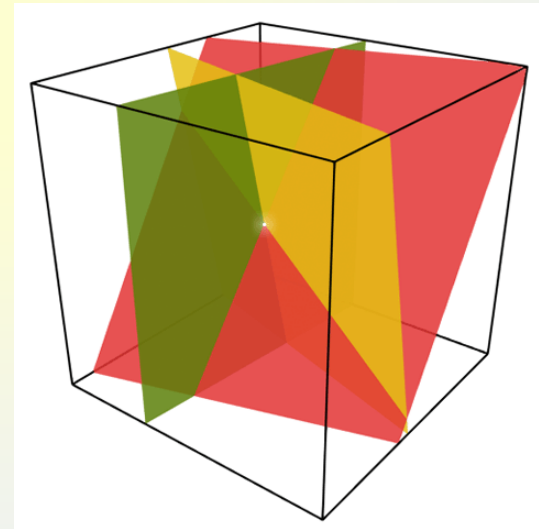
$$\begin{array}{c} \text{Verify} \\ g^{f(i)} = g^s \cdot (g^{a_1})^i \cdot (g^{a_2})^{i^2} \\ = g^{s + a_1i + a_2i^2} \end{array}$$

**Verify the correctness of his share  $f(i)$**

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# Blakley's Secret Sharing Scheme

- Two nonparallel lines in the same plane intersect at exactly one point.
- Three "nonparallel" planes in space intersect at exactly one point.
- More generally, any  $n$ -dimensional *hyperplanes* intersect at a specific point.
- The secret may be encoded as any single coordinate of the point of intersection.



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# Threshold Cryptography

**A public key is published, but the corresponding private key is shared among multiple parties.**

## ➤ Threshold Encryption Scheme

- ✓ A message is encrypted using the public key
- ✓ In order to decrypt a ciphertext, a number of parties exceeding a threshold is required to cooperate in the decryption protocol.

## ➤ Threshold Signature Scheme

- ✓ To sign a message, a number of parties exceeding a threshold is required to cooperate in the signing protocol.
- ✓ A signature can be verified using the public key.



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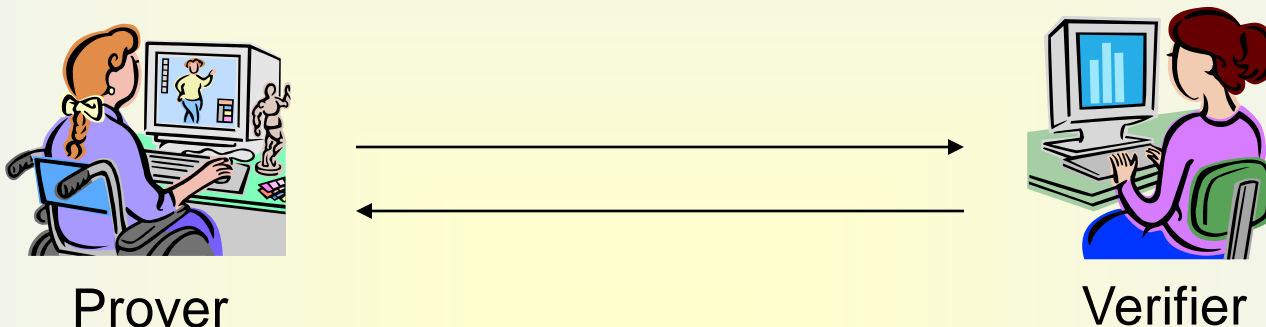
## **5. Zero-Knowledge Proofs**

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# What does one learn from a proof?

- The validity of the assertion being proven (by definition).  
Anything else?
- **Classical (NP) proofs:** Upon receiving a proof of statement  $x$ , one gains the ability to prove  $x$  to others.
  - Theorem and proof in math textbook
  - You learn to get Knowledge.
- **Interactive proofs:** Can be “zero-knowledge”, i.e. reveal nothing other than the validity of the assertion being proven.  $\Rightarrow$  verifier does not gain ability to prove same assertion to others!
  - The assertion is a precious information (your password)
  - Your protocol is designed to achieve Zero-Knowledge
  - Proofs can be used again

# Interactive Proof Systems



- Prover knows a secret (precious) information.
- Wants to prove that he knows it, but do not want to reveal it.
- Verifier is curious about prover's knowledge.
- He will query difficult questions, s.t. the secret should be used to answer.
- Should be random questions

The verifier's strategy is a **probabilistic polynomial-time (PPT)** procedure.

---

# Interactive Proof Systems

- An Interactive Proof System for a language  $L$  is a two-party game between a prover and a verifier that interact on a common input in a way satisfying the following properties:
  - **Completeness:** There exists a prover strategy  $P$ , such that for every  $x \in L$ , when interacting on a common input  $x$ , the prover  $P$  convinces the verifier with probability at least  $2/3$ .
  - **Soundness:** For every  $x \notin L$ , when interacting on the common input  $x$ , any prover strategy  $P^*$  convinces the verifier with probability at most  $1/3$ .

---

# Zero-Knowledge Proofs

- **Interactive proofs that reveal nothing other than the validity of assertion being proven**
- **A zero-knowledge proof is a way that a “prover” can prove possession of a certain piece of information to a “verifier” without revealing it.**
- **This is done by manipulating data provided by the verifier in a way that would be impossible without the secret information in question.**
- **Central tool in study of cryptographic protocols**

---

# Complexity Theory

- A **complexity class** is the set of all of the computational problems which can be solved using a certain amount of a certain computational resource.
- The complexity class  **$P$**  is the set of decision problems that can be solved by a **deterministic machine** in **polynomial time**.
- The complexity class  **$NP$**  is the set of decision problems that can be solved by a **non-deterministic machine** in **polynomial time**.

---

# Complexity Class NP

- **NP ("Non-deterministic Polynomial time")** is the set of decision problems solvable in polynomial time on a non-deterministic Turing machine.
  - It is the set of problems whose solutions can be "verified" by a deterministic Turing machine in polynomial time.
  - It takes **exponential time to prove/find a solution**, but it takes **polynomial time to verify the correctness of a candidate solution**.

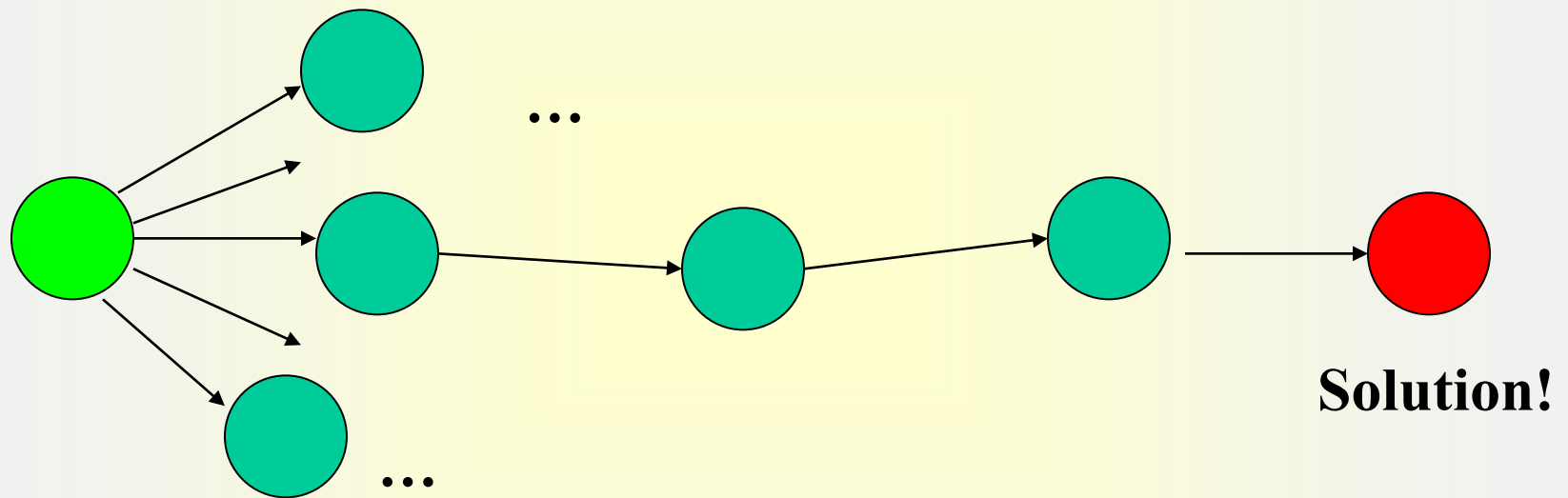
## Examples of NP problems

Boolean satisfiability problem,  
Hamilton cycle for a large graph  
Graph coloring  
Quadratic nonresidue  
Circuit satisfiability  
Vertex-cover  
Knapsack  
Subset-sum  
**Integer Factorization Problem (IFP)**  
**Discrete Logarithm Problem (DLP)**

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# Complexity Class NP

NP “search tree”



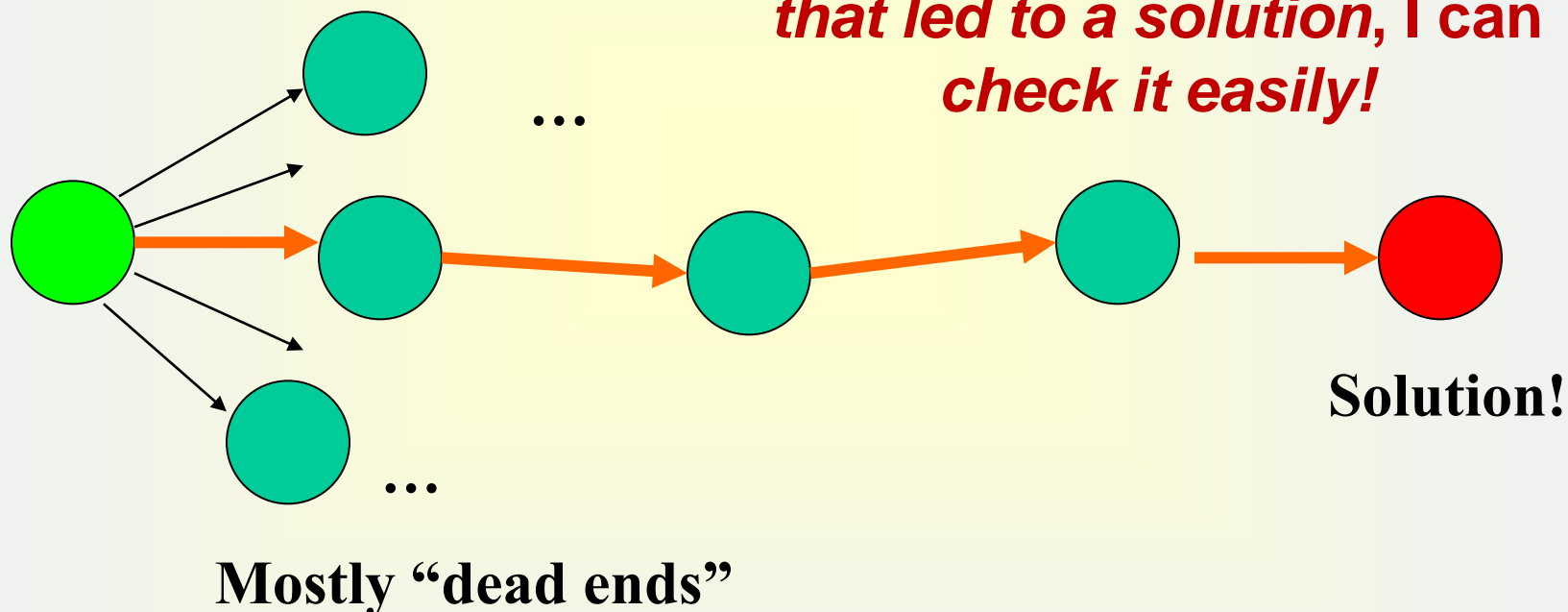
Mostly “dead ends”

**Hard to find a solution by just searching the tree!**



# Complexity Class NP

NP “search tree”



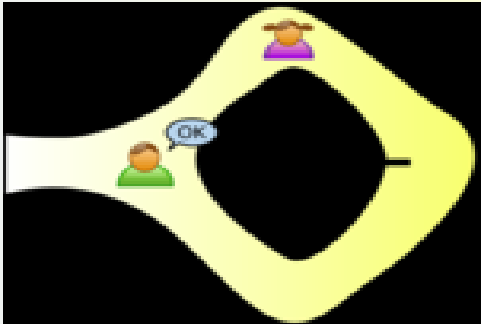
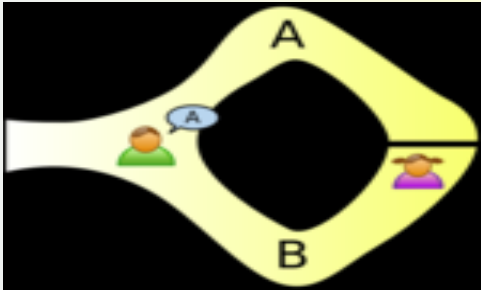
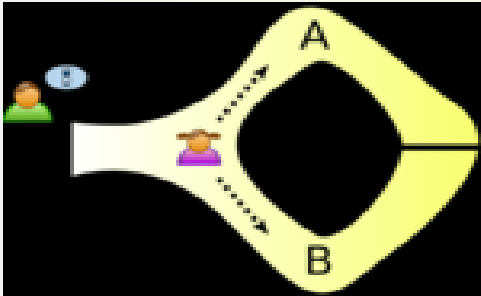
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# New Ingredients for Interactive Proofs

- Classical NP proofs inherently non-zero-knowledge. Verifier gains ability to prove the assertion to others.
- **Randomization:** verifier can “toss coins”  
Allow verifier to error with small probability
- **Interaction:** replace static *proof* with dynamic, interactive *proof* with all-powerful *prover*
  - Will “interact” with verifier and try to “convince” it that assertion is true.
  - Answer correctly for any question of the verifier (unpredictable questions)



# Ali Baba's Cave



- Alice wants to prove to Bob that she knows how to open the secret door between A and B, but will not reveal the secret itself.
- Procedure
  - Alice and Bob go to cave
  - Alice goes to A or B randomly (Bob cannot see)
  - Bob tells Alice to come from A or B
  - If Alice knows the secret, she can appear from the correct side of the cave every time
- Bob repeats as many times until he believe Alice knows the secret to open the secret door
- How about Trudy? Can he convince Bob without knowing the secret?

# Interactive Proof Protocol



- Prover and verifier share *common inputs* (functions or values)
- The protocol yields **Accept** if every **Response** is accepted by the Verifier
- Otherwise, the protocol yields **Reject**

---

# Requirements of Interactive Proofs

- ***Completeness***

- If the statement is true, the honest verifier will be convinced of this fact by an honest prover.
- $\text{Prob}[(P, V)(x) = \text{Accept} \mid x \in L] \geq \epsilon$  where  $\epsilon \in (1/2, 1]$

- ***Soundness***

- If the statement is false, no cheating prover can convince the honest verifier that it is true, except with some small probability.
- $\text{Prob}[(\neg P, V)(x) = \text{Accept} \mid x \notin L] \leq \delta$  where  $\delta \in [0, 1/2)$

---

# Zero-Knowledge Proofs

- Instances of interactive proofs with the following properties:
  - Completeness – true theorems are provable
  - Soundness – false theorems are not provable
  - **Zero-Knowledge** – No information about the prover's private input (secret) is revealed to the verifier
- GMR(Goldwasser, Micali, Rackoff)
  1. “The knowledge complexity of interactive-proof systems”, Proc. of 17<sup>th</sup> ACM Sym. on Theory of Computation, pp.291-304, 1985
  2. “The knowledge complexity of interactive-proof systems”, Siam J. on Computation, Vol. 18, pp.186-208, 1989 (revised version)

Fundamental Theorem [GMR]:

**“Zero-knowledge proofs exist for all languages in NP”**

---

# Flavors of Zero-Knowledge Proofs

- **Quality of ZK/Simulation:**
  - Perfect (PZK)
  - Statistical (SZK)
  - Computational (ZK)
- **Verifier strategies considered:**
  - Honest-verifier zero knowledge (HVZK)
  - General zero knowledge (ZK)
- **Soundness:**
  - Proof systems: unbounded provers
  - Arguments: poly-time provers

---

# Defining Zero-Knowledge

- How to formalize “Verifier learns nothing”?

## **Simulation Paradigm** (informally):

- Require: anything that can be computed in poly-time by interacting with prover can also be computed in poly-time without interacting with prover.
- That is, for every poly-time verifier  $V^*$ , there exists a poly-time simulator  $S$  s.t.  
[output of  $S(x)$ ]  $\approx$  [output of  $V^*$  after interacting with  $P$  on  $x$ ].



---

# Proof of Knowledge (of discrete logarithm)

- A prover tries to prove that he knows a discrete logarithm  $x$

$$x = \log_g Y \bmod p, \quad (Y = g^x \bmod p)$$

**Prover**

**Verifier**

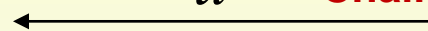
$$t \in_R Z_q^*$$

$$R = g^t \bmod p$$

$R$  **Commitment**



$u$  **Challenge**



$$u \in_R Z_q^*$$

$$w = t - ux \bmod q$$

$w$  **Response**



$?$   
 $R = g^w Y^u \bmod p$

g

x

^		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
	2	4	9	16	2	13	3	18	12	8	6	6	8	12	18	3	13	2	16	9	4	1
	3	8	4	18	10	9	21	6	16	11	20	3	12	7	17	2	14	13	5	19	15	22
	4	16	12	3	4	8	9	2	6	18	13	13	18	6	2	9	8	4	3	12	16	1
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	19	3	6	9	7	18	11	4	13	21	15	8	2	10	19	12	5	16	14	17	20	22
	20	6	18	13	12	16	8	9	2	3	4	4	3	2	9	8	16	12	13	18	6	1
	21	12	8	6	14	4	10	3	18	7	21	2	16	5	20	13	19	9	17	15	11	22
	22	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

g<sup>x</sup> mod 23

---

# Proof of Knowledge (of discrete logarithm)

- Example:  $p=23$ ,  $g=7$ ,  $q=22$
- Key generation  $x=13$ ,  $y=20$
- Prover proves that he knows  $x=13$  corresponding to  $y=20$  without revealing  $x$

**Prover**

**Verifier**

$$t = 5$$

$$R = 7^5 \bmod 23 = 17$$

$$\xrightarrow{R=17 \text{ Commitment}} u=8$$

$$w = t - ux \bmod q$$

$$= 5 - 8 \times 13 \bmod 22 = 11$$

$$\xleftarrow{u=8 \text{ Challenge}}$$

$$\xrightarrow{w=11 \text{ Response}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &? \\ R &= g^w Y^u \bmod p \\ 17 &= 7^{11} \times 20^8 \bmod 23 \\ &= 22 \times 6 \bmod 23 = 17 \end{aligned}$$

# Proof of Equality of two discrete logarithms

- Prover tries to prove that two discrete logarithms are equal without revealing  $x$

$$\begin{array}{l} Y = g^x, Z = c^x \\ \log_g Y = \log_c Z \end{array}$$

**Prover**

**Verifier**

$$t \in_R Z_q^*$$

$$R_1 = g^t \bmod p$$

$$R_2 = c^t \bmod p$$

$$w = t - ux \bmod q$$

$R_1, R_2$  **Commitment**

$u$  **Challenge**

$w$  **Response**

$$u \in_R Z_q^*$$

$$R_1 \stackrel{?}{=} g^w Y^u \bmod p$$

$$R_2 \stackrel{?}{=} c^w Z^u \bmod p$$

# Proof of Equality of two discrete logarithms

$$Y = g^x, Z = c^x \quad 7^5 = 17, 11^5 = 5$$

$$\log_g Y = \log_c Z \quad \log_7 17 = \log_{11} 5$$

**Prover**

**Verifier**

$$t = 3$$

$$R_1 = g^t \bmod p = 7^3 = 21$$

$$R_2 = c^t \bmod p = 11^3 = 20$$

$$R_1 = 21, R_2 = 20 \quad \text{Commitment}$$

$$u = 6$$

$$w = t - ux \bmod q$$

$$= 3 - 6 \times 5 \bmod 22 = 17$$

$$u = 6 \quad \text{Challenge}$$

$$w = 17 \quad \text{Response}$$

$$R_1 = g^w Y^u \bmod p$$

$$= 7^{17} \times 17^6 \bmod 23 = 19 \times 12 = 21$$

$$R_2 = c^w Z^u \bmod p$$

$$= 11^{17} \times 5^6 = 14 \times 8 = 20$$

---

# Proving the Correctness of ElGamal Decryption

- The prover tries to prove that his decryption is correct and the plaintext is  $m$  without revealing his private key  $x$
- Prover's key  $Y = g^x \bmod p$
- ElGamal Encryption:  $m \rightarrow (U, V)$   
 $U = g^r \bmod p$   
 $V = mY^r \bmod p$
- ElGamal Decryption  $V / U^x \rightarrow m$

---

# Proving the Correctness of ElGamal Decryption

- Prover proves that the following two discrete logarithm is equal using the previous proof

$$Y = g^x, \frac{V}{m} = U^x$$
$$\log_g Y = \log_U \frac{V}{m}$$

---

# Non-Interactive Zero-Knowledge Proof

- Non-interactive Zero-knowledge (NIZK) proofs using Fiat-Shamir Heuristic

$$x = \log_g Y \bmod p, \quad (Y = g^x \bmod p)$$

**Prover**

$$t \in_R Z_q^*$$

$$R = g^t \bmod p$$

$$u = H(Y, R)$$

$$w = t - ux \bmod q$$

**Verifier**

$$\xrightarrow{(R, w)}$$

$$u = H(Y, R)$$

$$R \stackrel{?}{=} g^w Y^u \bmod p$$



---

## **6. Identification, Authentication**

---

# Authentication

## ❖ Entity Authentication (Identification)

- Over the communication network, one party, Alice, shows to another party, Bob, that she is the real Alice.
- Authenticate an entity by presenting some identification information
- Should be secure against various attacks
- Through an interactive protocols using secret information

## ❖ Message Authentication

- Show that a message was generated by an entity
- Using digital signature or MAC

---

# Approach for Identification

- ❖ **Using Something Known**
  - Password, PIN
- ❖ **Using Something Possessed**
  - IC card, Hardware token
- ❖ **Using Something Inherent**
  - Biometrics

---

# Approach for Identification

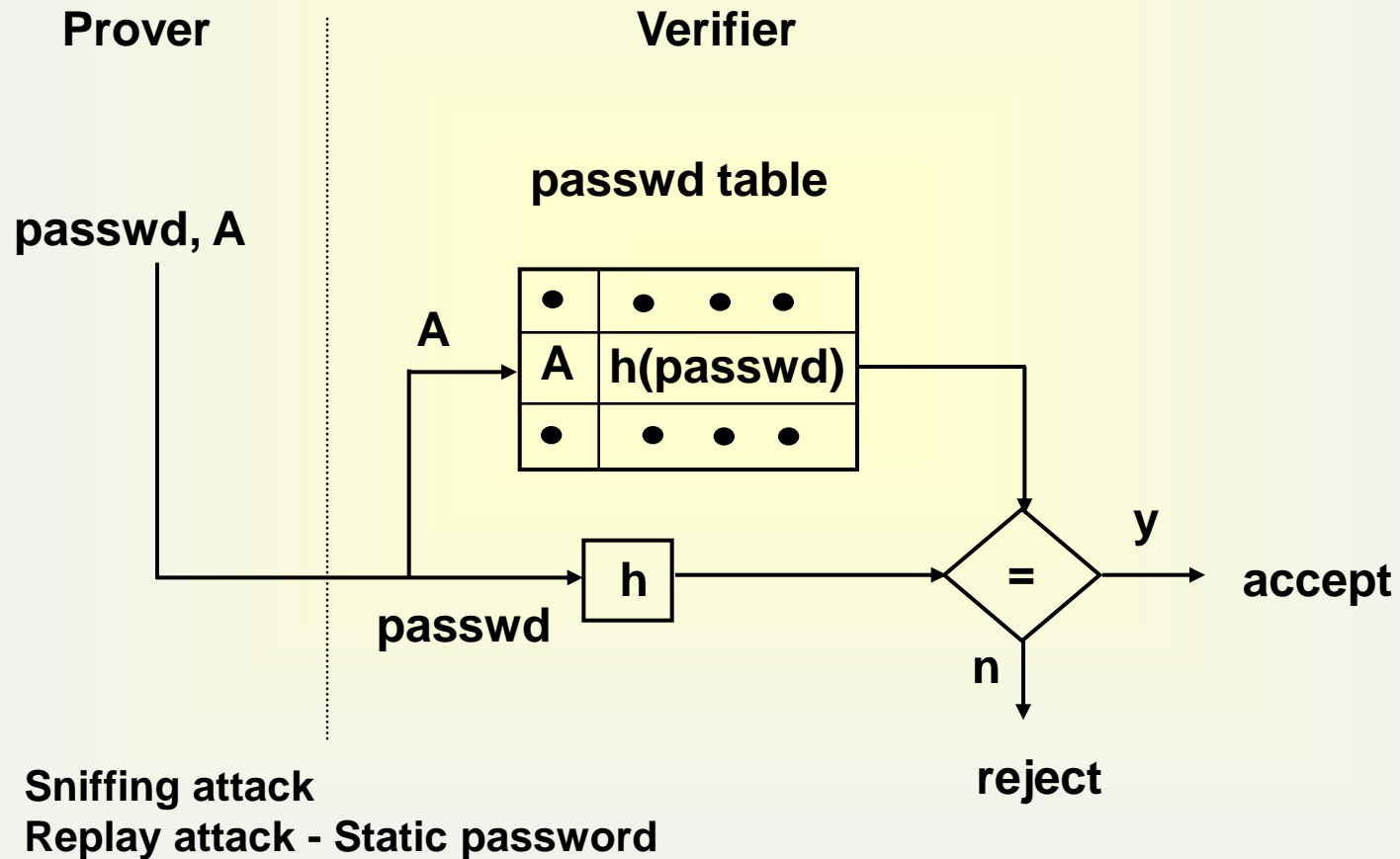
Method	Examples	Reliability	Security	Cost
<i>What you Remember (know)</i>	Password Telephone # Reg. #	M/L	M (theft) L (impersonation)	Cheap
<i>What you have</i>	Registered Seal Magnetic Card IC Card	M	L (theft) M (impersonation)	Reasonable
<i>What you are</i>	Bio-metric (Fingerprint, Eye, DNA, face, Voice, etc)	H	H (theft) H (Impersonation)	Expensive

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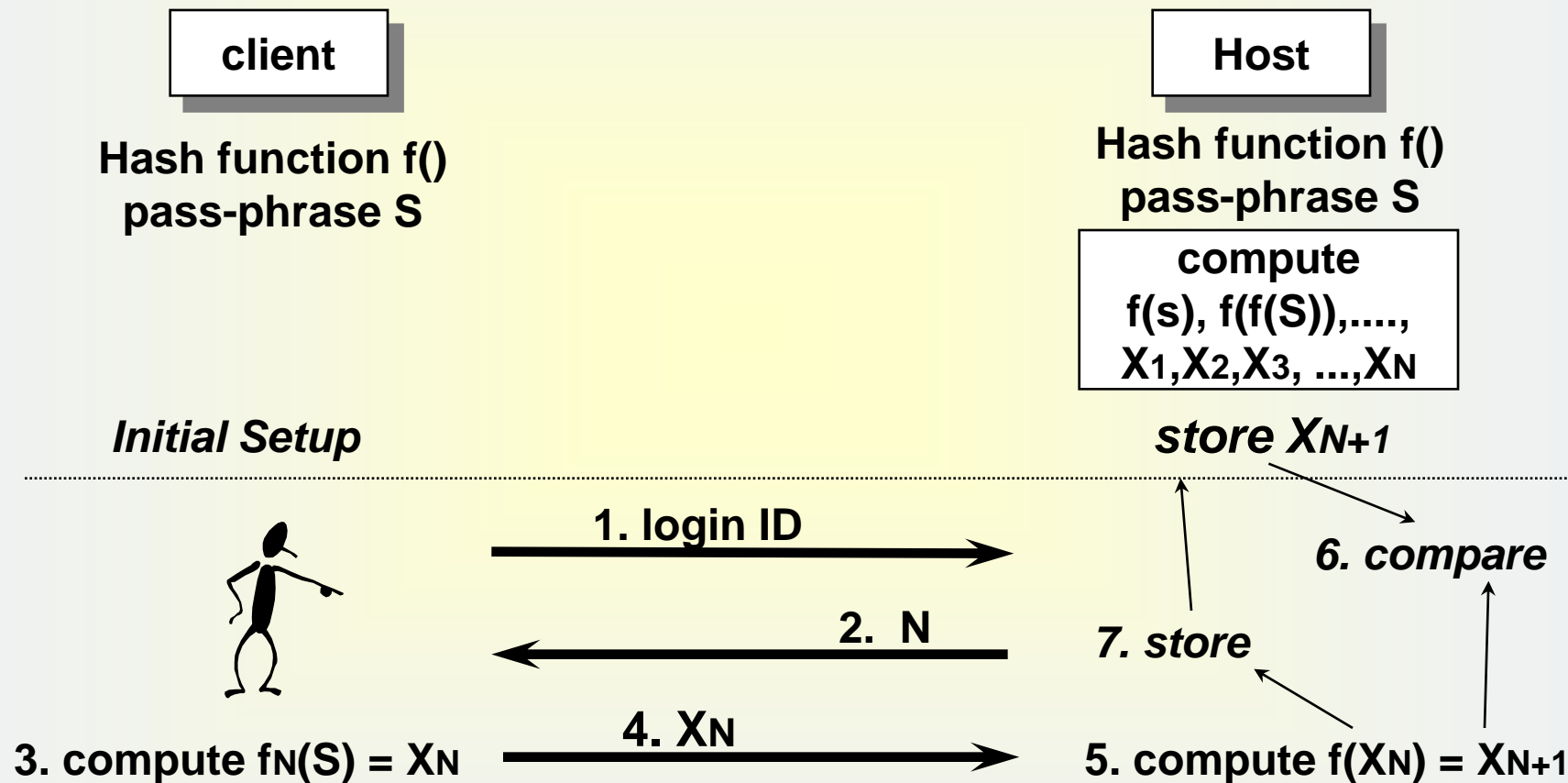
# Approach for Identification

- ❖ Password-based scheme (weak authentication)
  - crypt *passwd* under UNIX
  - one-time password
- ❖ Challenge-Response scheme (strong authentication)
  - Symmetric cryptosystem
  - MAC (keyed-hash) function
  - Asymmetric cryptosystem
- ❖ Using Cryptographic Protocols
  - Fiat-Shamir identification protocol
  - Schnorr identification protocol, *etc*

# Identification by Password



# S/Key (One-Time Password System)



---

# Schnorr Identification

$$x = \log_g Y \bmod p, \quad (Y = g^x \bmod p)$$

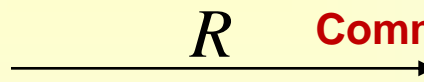
**Prover**

**Verifier**

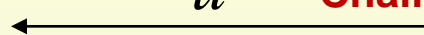
$$t \in_R Z_q^*$$

$$R = g^t \bmod p$$

$R$  **Commitment**



$u$  **Challenge**



$$u \in_R Z_q^*$$

$$w = t - ux \bmod q$$

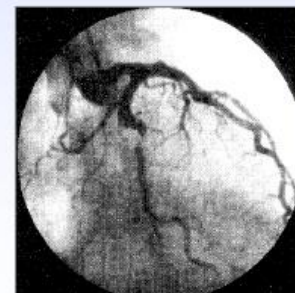
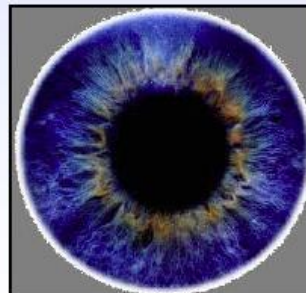
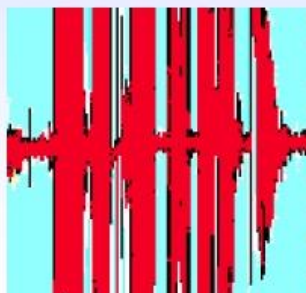
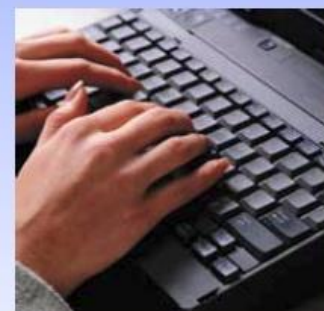
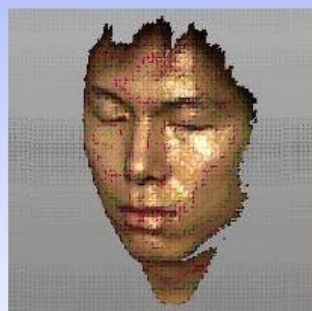
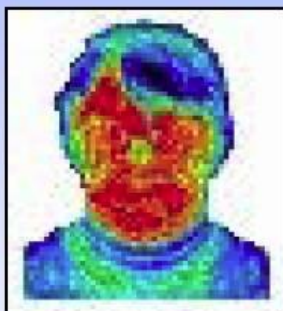
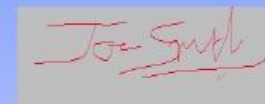
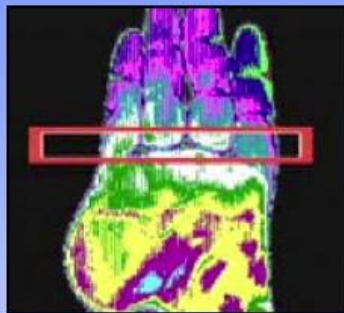
$w$  **Response**



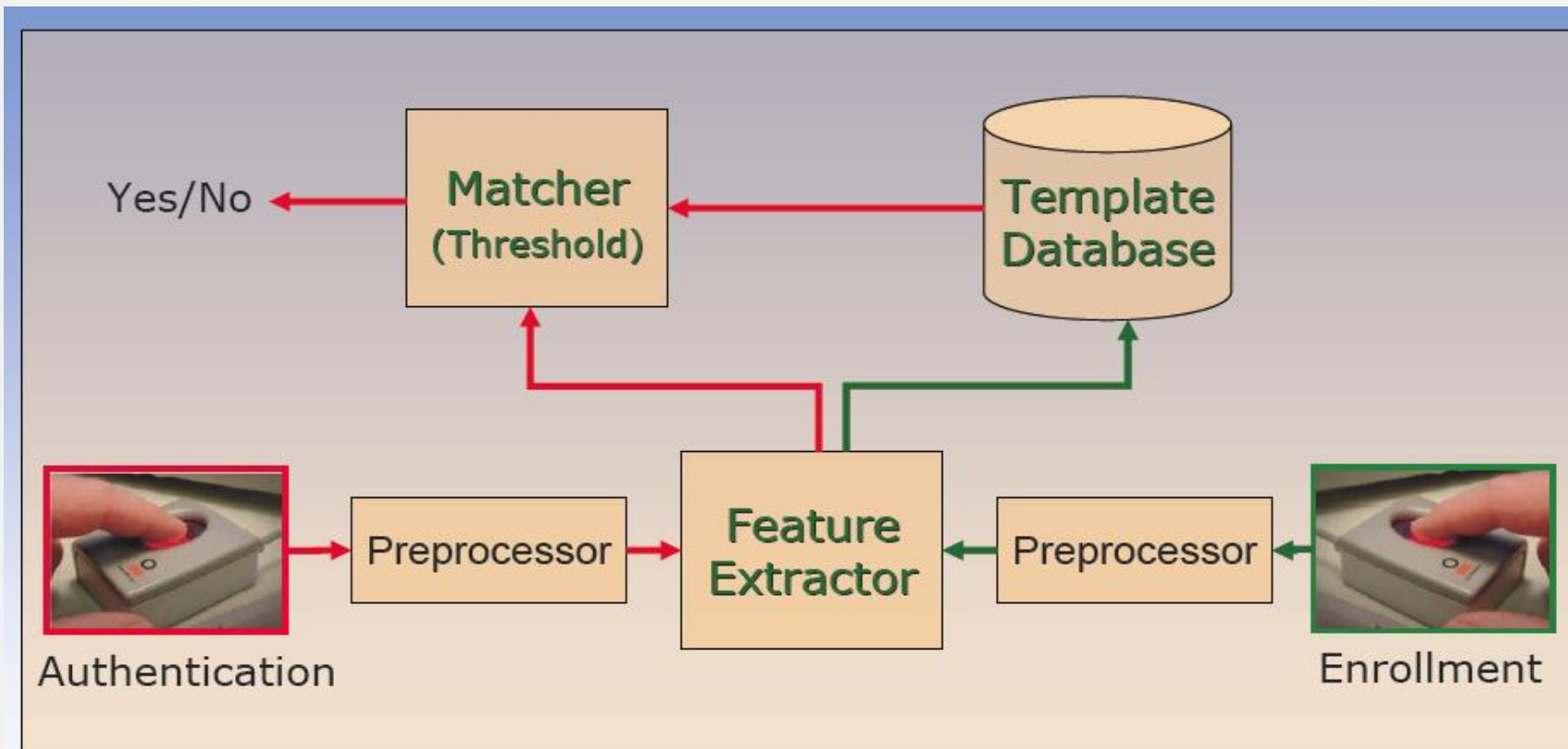
$?$   
 $R = g^w Y^u \bmod p$



# Identification using Biometric Trails

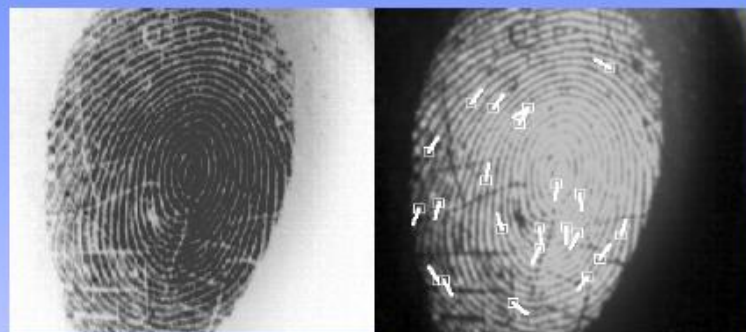


# Biometric Recognition System

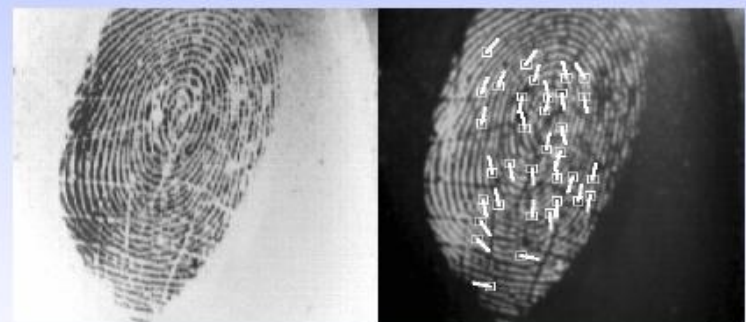


- False accept rate (**FAR**): Proportion of imposters accepted
- False reject rate (**FRR**): Proportion of genuine users rejected
- Failure to enroll rate (**FTE**): portion of population that cannot be enrolled
- Failure to acquire rate (**FTA**): portion of population that cannot be verified

# Fake Fingerprint



Live finger



Gummy finger

Access was granted 75% of the time using gummy fingers



# Applications

**Goal:** Automatic & reliable person identification in unattended mode, often remotely



Iris matching:  
Heathrow Airport



US-VISIT  
Program



Cellular phone:  
Siemens



Grocery store  
payment: Indivos



Automobile: Audi A8



Disney World