

# Advanced Cryptography — Midterm Exam

## Solution

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- duration: 3h
- any document allowed
- a pocket calculator is allowed
- communication devices are not allowed
- the exam invigilators will **not** answer any technical question during the exam
- readability and style of writing will be part of the grade

*The exam grade follows a linear scale in which each question has the same weight.*

### 1 Recovering a Secret RSA Modulus

Some people use RSA signature with exponent  $e = 2^{16} + 1$  but they use too small prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$  to be secure. So, to prevent  $n$  from being factored, they decide to keep  $n = pq$  secret. Only legitimate verifiers will receive  $n$ .

- Q.1** Given a message  $m \in \mathbf{Z}_n$  and a valid signature  $s$ , show that we can easily recover a multiple of  $n$ .

*Since  $s^e \bmod n = m$ , the integer  $s^e - m$  is a multiple of  $n$ . It is quite big though.*

- Q.2** What is the complexity?

*For  $i = 1$  to  $16$ , we have to iteratively square a number of size originally  $\log n$ . So, the complexity of the  $i$ th iteration is  $\mathcal{O}((2^i \log n)^2)$ . Hence, the final complexity is  $\mathcal{O}((e \log n)^2)$ .*

- Q.3** Given a prime number  $r$ , what is roughly the probability that  $r$  divides the multiple of  $n$  recovered in Q.1? (Assume that  $m$  is random.)

*We have a random multiple  $x$  of  $n$ . So,  $r$  is a factor of it if and only if  $x \bmod r = 0$ , so with probability  $\frac{1}{r}$ .*

- Q.4** With two message/signature  $(m_i, s_i)$  pairs, show that we can recover  $n$  with high probability.

*Given one pair, we recover a random multiple of  $n$ . We can easily remove the small prime factors of this multiple. Finding really small factors can be done by trial division. Other small factors can be found by the ECM method.*

*Then, we are left with hard-to-find random prime factors  $r$  which are different from  $p$  and  $q$ . The number of prime factor  $r$  which are at least  $B$  and divide both numbers is bounded by  $\sum r^{-2}$  when we sum over all prime numbers larger than  $B$ . So, this is bounded by  $\frac{1}{B}$ . This means that as  $B$  is large enough, we should have no prime factor  $r > B$  is common.*

*As the probability that the same big random prime factor appears in the two computations, the gcd of two recovered random multiples of  $n$  will yield  $n$  once the small factors are removed.*

## 2 Finding Four-Term Zero Sums

*The exercise is inspired by A Generalized Birthday Problem by Wagner. Published in the proceedings of Crypto'02 pp. 288–303, LNCS vol. 2442, Springer 2002.*

Looking for collisions is frequent in cryptography. A collision of bitstrings is nothing but a two-term zero sum, using the XOR (denoted by  $\oplus$ ) to define addition. A variant of this problem is to find four-term zero sums. For instance, if we define the signature of a pair of strings  $(x_1, x_2)$  of specific format to be the signature of  $x_1 \oplus x_2$ , we have a forgery attack by looking for a four-term zero sum  $x_1 \oplus x_2 \oplus x_3 \oplus x_4 = 0$  with strings  $x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4$  taken from lists of strings of a specific format.

In what follows, we call a *random list of  $\ell$ -bit strings* the sequence  $L = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  obtained by picking all  $x_i$  independently uniformly at random in  $\{0, 1\}^\ell$ . We call  $n$  the *length* of the list. We denote by  $\oplus$  the bitwise XOR operation between bitstrings.

**Q.1** Given two lists  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  of length  $n_1$  and  $n_2$ , respectively, in the following subquestions, we consider algorithms to find all  $(i, j)$  pairs such that the  $i$ th element of  $L_1$  and the  $j$ th element of  $L_2$  give a XOR of zero.

**Q.1a** Compute  $n_3$ , the expected number of such pairs  $(i, j)$ .

*The number of  $(i, j)$  pairs is  $n_1 n_2$ . Each pair is valid with probability  $2^{-\ell}$ . So, the expected number of pairs is  $n_1 n_2 2^{-\ell}$ . More precisely,*

$$E(n_3) = E(\#\{(i, j); x_i = y_j\}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} \Pr[x_i = y_j] = \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} \sum_{j=1}^{n_2} 2^{-\ell} = n_1 n_2 2^{-\ell}$$

**Q.1b** Give an algorithm with complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n_1 \ell + n_2 \ell + n_3 \log \max(n_1, n_2))$  to find these  $n_3$  pairs.

We first scan  $L_1 = (x_1, \dots, x_{n_1})$ . For each  $i = 1, \dots, n_1$ , we insert  $i$  in a hash table at position  $h(x_i)$ . This takes  $n_1$  iterations where we essentially have to read  $x_i$  and hash it. Assuming that hashing an  $\ell$ -bit string takes  $\mathcal{O}(\ell)$ , we obtain  $\mathcal{O}(n_1\ell)$ . Then, we scan  $L_2 = (y_1, \dots, y_{n_2})$ . For each  $j = 1, \dots, n_2$ , we look at position  $h(y_j)$ . Each  $i$  that we find produce the output  $(i, j)$ . This takes  $n_2$  iterations where we essentially have to read  $y_j$  and hash it, so  $\mathcal{O}(n_2\ell)$ . We further have to enumerate all matching  $i$ . This sums to  $n_3$  iterations for showing  $(i, j)$ . Assuming that printing  $(i, j)$  takes  $\mathcal{O}(\log \max(n_1, n_2))$  (the bit-size of  $i$  and  $j$ ), we obtain  $\mathcal{O}(n_3 \log \max(n_1, n_2))$ . Here, we neglected the cost of storing many  $i$ 's at the same place. These are collisions in the hash function. If collisions are rare, this approximation is valid.

An alternate approach is to sort  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  then scan both lists at the same time to see collisions and copy them in the final list. Sorting  $L_1$  takes  $\mathcal{O}(n_1 \log n_1)$  string comparison, so  $\mathcal{O}(n_1\ell \log n_1)$ . The same holds for sorting  $L_2$ . The complexity for scanning and comparing is  $\mathcal{O}(n_1\ell + n_2\ell)$  so absorbed by the complexity of sorting. The complexity of copying the result is  $\mathcal{O}(n_3 \log \max(n_1, n_2))$ .

In the following questions, we discard the  $\ell$  factors from the complexities for simplicity. I.e., the cost of copying or comparing  $\ell$ -bit strings is  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ . Similarly, copying an index  $i$  or  $j$  is assumed to take  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ .

**Q.1c** What is the optimal value for  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  to make  $n_3 = 1$  and minimize the complexity at the same time? What is the complexity with these parameters?

We let  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  be such that  $n_1 n_2 = 2^\ell$ . We want to minimize  $n_1 + n_2 = n_1 + \frac{2^\ell}{n_1}$ . The function  $x \mapsto x + \frac{2^\ell}{x}$  has a derivative which vanish on  $x = 2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}$ . It corresponds to the minimum of the function. So, the optimal value is  $n_1 = n_2 = 2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}$ . The complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}})$ .

**Q.2** We denote  $L_j = (x_{j,1}, \dots, x_{j,n})$ . Given four lists  $L_1, L_2, L_3, L_4$  of same length  $n$ , we want to find tuples  $(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4)$  such that  $x_{1,i_1} \oplus x_{2,i_2} \oplus x_{3,i_3} \oplus x_{4,i_4} = 0$ .

**Q.2a** What is the expected number of solutions?

Give an efficient algorithm to find them all and its complexity.

It is  $n^4 2^{-\ell}$ .

To find them, we can first enumerate all  $(i_1, i_2)$  pairs and store  $(i_1, i_2)$  at position  $h(x_{i_1} \oplus x_{i_2})$  for  $L_1 \times L_2$ . Then, for all  $(i_3, i_4)$  we can check the hash table at position  $h(x_{i_3} \oplus x_{i_4})$  and show  $(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4)$  for each  $(i_1, i_2)$  found. This works with complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n^2 + n^4 2^{-\ell})$ .

**Q.2b** We now want to find all tuples  $(i_1, i_2, i_3, i_4)$  such that  $x_{1,i_1} \oplus x_{2,i_2}$  and  $x_{3,i_3} \oplus x_{4,i_4}$  have both their  $b$  most significant bits equal to zero and  $x_{1,i_1} \oplus x_{2,i_2} = x_{3,i_3} \oplus x_{4,i_4}$ .

What is the expected number of solutions?

Give an algorithm to find them all with complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n + n^2 2^{-b} + n^4 2^{-\ell-b})$ .

The number of solutions is now  $n^4 2^{-\ell-b}$  as we have a constraint on  $b$  more bits.

We can first find all  $(i_1, i_2)$  pairs such that  $x_{1,i_1} \oplus x_{2,i_2}$  start with  $b$  zero bits in complexity  $\mathcal{O}(n + n^2 2^{-b})$ . For each of these pairs, we can store  $(i_1, i_2)$  in a hash table at position  $h(x_{1,i_1} \oplus x_{2,i_2})$ . We can do the same for  $(i_3, i_4)$ , then find all tuples.

**Q.2c** Give an optimal  $b$  and  $n$  such that we can find one expected tuple with zero XOR. Give the corresponding complexity.

NOTE: to simplify the computations, allow  $b$  to take any real value.

As we need one solution we can lower  $n$  so that  $n^4 2^{-\ell-b} = 1$ . The complexity is thus  $\mathcal{O}(n + n^2 2^{-b})$ . Since  $n = 2^{\frac{\ell}{4} + \frac{b}{4}}$ , the complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(2^{\frac{\ell}{4} + \frac{b}{4}} + 2^{\frac{\ell}{2} - \frac{b}{2}})$ . To minimize it, we must have  $\frac{\ell}{4} + \frac{b}{4} = \frac{\ell}{2} - \frac{b}{2}$  so  $b = \frac{\ell}{3}$  thus  $n = 2^{\frac{\ell}{3}}$ . The final complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(2^{\frac{\ell}{3}})$ .

**Q.2d** What is the complexity to obtain  $\alpha \leq n$  solutions instead of just one?

As an application, give  $n$ ,  $b$ , and the complexity for  $\alpha = n$ .

We redo the previous computation with  $n = \alpha^{\frac{1}{4}} 2^{\frac{\ell}{4} + \frac{b}{4}}$ , the complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\alpha^{\frac{1}{4}} 2^{\frac{\ell}{4} + \frac{b}{4}} + \alpha^{\frac{1}{2}} 2^{\frac{\ell}{2} - \frac{b}{2}} + \alpha)$ . To minimize it, we must have  $\frac{\ell}{4} + \frac{b}{4} + \frac{1}{4} \log_2 \alpha = \frac{\ell}{2} - \frac{b}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \alpha$  so  $b = \frac{\ell}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \log_2 \alpha$  thus  $n = \alpha^{\frac{1}{3}} 2^{\frac{\ell}{3}}$ . The final complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(\alpha^{\frac{1}{3}} 2^{\frac{\ell}{3}} + \alpha)$ .

For  $\alpha = n$ , we have  $\alpha = 2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}$  so  $n = 2^{\frac{\ell}{2}}$ ,  $b = \frac{\ell}{2}$ , and the complexity is  $\mathcal{O}(2^{\frac{\ell}{2}})$ .

### 3 Number of Samples to Distinguish Two Distributions

Given two distributions  $P_0$  and  $P_1$ , we recall that the statistical distance  $d(P_0, P_1)$  is defined by

$$d(P_0, P_1) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_z |P_0(z) - P_1(z)|$$

We define the Hellinger distance  $H(P_0, P_1)$  by

$$H(P_0, P_1) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \sum_z \left( \sqrt{P_0(z)} - \sqrt{P_1(z)} \right)^2}$$

If  $P$  is a distribution, we denote by  $P^{\otimes n}$  the distribution of the tuple  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  where all  $X_i$  are independent random variables following the distribution  $P$ .

**Q.1** Show that

$$H(P_0, P_1) = \sqrt{1 - \sum_z \sqrt{P_0(z)P_1(z)}}$$

*By expanding the square in the sum inside the square root, we have*

$$H(P_0, P_1) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \sum_z \left( P_0(z) + P_1(z) - 2\sqrt{P_0(z)P_1(z)} \right)}$$

*As  $\sum_z P_0(z) = \sum_z P_1(z) = 1$ , we obtain the result.*

**Q.2** We have a biased dice with faces numbered from 1 to 6. We consider the distribution  $P_0$  such that  $P_0(1) = \frac{1}{6} - \varepsilon$  and  $P_0(x) = \frac{1}{6} + \frac{\varepsilon}{5}$  for  $x = 2, \dots, 6$ . We consider the uniform distribution  $P_1$ .

Compute an asymptotic equivalent of  $d(P_0, P_1)$  and  $H(P_0, P_1)$  for  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ .

HINT:  $\sqrt{1+t} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}t - \frac{1}{8}t^2 + o(t^2)$  when  $t \rightarrow 0$ .

*We have  $d(P_0, P_1) = \varepsilon$  and  $1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2 = \frac{1}{6}\sqrt{1-6\varepsilon} + \frac{5}{6}\sqrt{1+\frac{6}{5}\varepsilon}$ . Since  $\sqrt{1+t} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}t - \frac{1}{8}t^2 + o(t^2)$ , we obtain that  $1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2 = 1 - \frac{9}{10}\varepsilon^2 + o(\varepsilon^2)$ . So,  $H(P_0, P_1) \sim \frac{3}{\sqrt{10}}\varepsilon$ .*

**Q.3** Using an upper bound for  $d(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n})$  in terms of  $d(P_0, P_1)$ , show that for  $n \leq n_{0.5}$ , the advantage of any distinguisher between  $P_0$  and  $P_1$  using  $n$  samples has an advantage lower than 0.5, where

$$n_{0.5} = \frac{0.5}{d(P_0, P_1)}$$

We have seen in the course that  $d(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n}) \leq nd(P_0, P_1)$ . So, for  $n \leq n_{0.5}$ , we have  $d(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n}) \leq 0.5$ . We have seen in the course that  $d(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n})$  is the largest advantage we can obtain to distinguish  $P_0$  from  $P_1$  using  $n$  samples. Hence, any distinguisher using  $n$  samples has an advantage limited to 0.5.

**Q.4** One problem with the previous approach is that we do not know what to say when  $n \geq n_{0.5}$ . Actually, the bound we obtain is very loose, as we will see.

In the following questions, we estimate  $d(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n})$  in terms of  $H(P_0, P_1)$ .

**Q.4a** Show that  $1 - H(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n})^2 = (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^n$ .

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 - H(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n})^2 &= \sum_{z_1, \dots, z_n} \sqrt{P_0(z_1, \dots, z_n) P_1(z_1, \dots, z_n)} \\
 &= \sum_{z_1, \dots, z_n} \sqrt{P_0(z_1) P_1(z_1) \cdots P_0(z_n) P_1(z_n)} \\
 &= \sum_{z_1} \sqrt{P_0(z_1) P_1(z_1)} \cdots \sum_{z_n} \sqrt{P_0(z_n) P_1(z_n)} \\
 &= \left( \sum_z \sqrt{P_0(z) P_1(z)} \right)^n \\
 &= (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^n
 \end{aligned}$$

So, as  $n$  grows, we can estimate  $H(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n})$  using  $H(P_0, P_1)$  with no loss at all.

**Q.4b** Show that

$$H(P_0, P_1)^2 \leq d(P_0, P_1) \leq \sqrt{1 - (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^2}$$

HINT:  $(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})^2 \leq |a - b| = |\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b}| \times (\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b})$

Using the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 d(P_0, P_1) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_z |\sqrt{P_0(z)} - \sqrt{P_1(z)}| \times (\sqrt{P_0(z)} + \sqrt{P_1(z)}) \\
 &\leq \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\sum_z (\sqrt{P_0(z)} - \sqrt{P_1(z)})^2} \sqrt{\sum_z (\sqrt{P_0(z)} + \sqrt{P_1(z)})^2} \\
 &\stackrel{(1)}{=} H(P_0, P_1) \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \sum_z (\sqrt{P_0(z)} + \sqrt{P_1(z)})^2} \\
 &\stackrel{(2)}{=} H(P_0, P_1) \sqrt{1 + \sum_z \sqrt{P_0(z)P_1(z)}} \\
 &\stackrel{(3)}{=} H(P_0, P_1) \sqrt{2 - H(P_0, P_1)^2} \\
 &= \sqrt{2H(P_0, P_1)^2 - H(P_0, P_1)^4} \\
 &= \sqrt{1 - (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

where (1) is by definition of  $H$ , (2) is by expanding the square, and (3) is by using Q.1.

For the other inequality, we have

$$d(P_0, P_1) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_z |P_0(z) - P_1(z)| \geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_z \left( \sqrt{P_0(z)} - \sqrt{P_1(z)} \right)^2 = H(P_0, P_1)^2$$

**Q.4c** Show that

$$1 - (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^n \leq d(P_0^{\otimes n}, P_1^{\otimes n}) \leq \sqrt{1 - (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^{2n}}$$

*This is a direct application of Q.4b with  $P_0^{\otimes n}$  and  $P_1^{\otimes n}$  followed by a direct application of Q.4a.*

**Q.4d** Consider that the advantage of the best distinguisher using  $n$  samples is an increasing function of  $n$  that we extend over the real numbers. Let  $n_{0.5}$  be the value of  $n$  for which the advantage is 0.5. Show that

$$\frac{0.20}{-\log_2(1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)} \leq n_{0.5} \leq \frac{1}{-\log_2(1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)}$$

HINT:  $\log_2 \frac{3}{4} \approx -0.4150$ .



We know that the best advantage is the statistical distance. So, by using Q.4c, we have

$$1 - (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^{n_{0.5}} \leq 0.5$$

So, by unrolling  $n_{0.5}$ , we obtain

$$n_{0.5} \leq \frac{\log(0.5)}{\log(1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)} = \frac{1}{-\log_2(1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)}$$

By using Q.4c, we have

$$0.5 \leq \sqrt{1 - (1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)^{2n_{0.5}}}$$

So, by unrolling  $n_{0.5}$ , we obtain

$$n_{0.5} \geq \frac{\log \frac{3}{4}}{2 \log(1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)} \geq \frac{0.20}{-\log_2(1 - H(P_0, P_1)^2)}$$

**Q.5** Compare  $n_{0.5}$  from Q.3 and Q.4d for the example of Q.2.

For Q.3, we have  $n_{0.5} \sim \frac{0.5}{\varepsilon}$  and no idea about what happens for  $n \geq n_{0.5}$ . For Q.4d, we have  $n_{0.5} \sim \frac{\lambda}{\varepsilon^2}$  with  $\frac{0.20 \ln 2}{\frac{9}{10}} \leq \lambda \leq \frac{\ln 2}{\frac{9}{10}}$ . So,  $0.1540 \leq \lambda \leq 0.7702$ . Clearly, we have a much more precise result.