

# Trapdoor Permutation Polynomials of $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ and Public Key Cryptosystems

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(joint work with Guilhem Castagnos)

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# Public Key Cryptosystems

Alice sends a ciphertext to Bob  
Only Bob can recover the plaintext

confidentiality

- To recover the plaintext
  - to find the whole plaintext ?
  - to get some information about it ?
- Which means can be used ?
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# Why Proving Security?

Once a cryptosystem is described, how can we prove its security?

- by trying to exhibit an attack
  - attack found  $\Rightarrow$  **system insecure!**
  - attack not found  $\Rightarrow$  ?
- by proving that no attack exists under some assumptions
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# Security Notions

Depending on the context in which a given cryptosystem is used, one may formally define a security notion for this system,

- by telling what **goal** an adversary would attempt to reach,
- and what means or information are made available to her (the **model**).

A security notion (or level) is entirely defined by pairing an adversarial goal with an adversarial model.

**Examples:** OW-PCA, IND-CCA2, NM-CCA2.

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# Public-Key Encryption

An asymmetric encryption scheme is a triple of algorithms  $(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{D})$  where

- $\mathcal{K}$  is a probabilistic key generation algorithm which returns random pairs of secret and public keys  $(sk, pk)$  depending on the security parameter  $\kappa$ ,
- $\mathcal{E}$  is a probabilistic encryption algorithm which takes on input a public key  $pk$  and a plaintext  $m \in \mathcal{M}$ , runs on a random tape  $u \in \mathcal{U}$  and returns a ciphertext  $c$ ,
- $\mathcal{D}$  is a deterministic decryption algorithm which takes on input a secret key  $sk$ , a ciphertext  $c$  and returns the corresponding plaintext  $m$  or the symbol  $\perp$ . We require that if  $(sk, pk) \leftarrow \mathcal{K}$ , then  $\mathcal{D}_{sk}(\mathcal{E}_{pk}(m, u)) = m$  for all  $(m, u) \in \mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{U}$ .

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# History of Security Goals

- it shouldn't be feasible to compute the secret key  $sk$  from the public key  $pk$  (**unbreakability** or UBK). Implicitly appeared with public-key crypto.
- it shouldn't be feasible to invert the encryption function over any ciphertext under any given key  $pk$  (**one-wayness** or OW). Diffie and Hellman, late 70's.
- it shouldn't be feasible to recover even a *single bit of information* about a plaintext given its encryption under any given key  $pk$  (**indistinguishability of encryptions** or IND). Goldwasser and Micali, 1984.
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# History of Adversarial Models

Several types of computational resources an adversary has access to have been considered:

- **chosen-plaintext attacks (CPA)**, unavoidable scenario.
- **non-adaptive chosen-ciphertext attacks (CCA1)** (also known as lunchtime or midnight attacks), wherein the adversary gets, in addition, access to a decryption oracle before being given the challenge ciphertext. Naor and Yung, 1990.
- **adaptive chosen-ciphertext attacks (CCA2)** as a scenario in which the adversary queries the decryption oracle before and *after* being challenged; her only restriction here is that she may not feed the oracle with the challenge ciphertext itself. This is the strongest known attack scenario. Rackoff and Simon, 1991.

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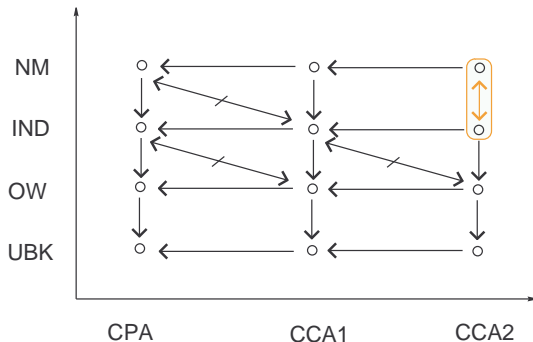
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# Relations Among Security Notions



## Chosen-Ciphertext Security

Because  $\text{IND-CCA2} \equiv \text{NM-CCA2}$  is the upper security level, it is desirable to prove security with respect to this notion. It is also denoted by IND-CCA and called **chosen ciphertext security**.

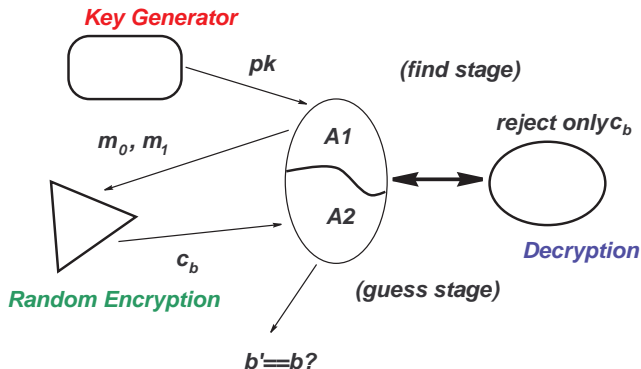
Formally, an asymmetric encryption scheme is said to be  $(\tau, \varepsilon)$ -IND-CCA if for any adversary  $\mathcal{A} = (\mathcal{A}_1, \mathcal{A}_2)$  with running time upper-bounded by  $\tau$ ,

$$\text{Adv}^{\text{ind}}(\mathcal{A}) = 2 \times \Pr \left[ \begin{array}{l} (sk, pk) \leftarrow \mathcal{K}(1^\kappa), (m_0, m_1, \sigma) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}_1(pk) \\ c \leftarrow \mathcal{E}_{pk}(m_b, u) : \mathcal{A}_2(c, \sigma) = b \end{array} \right] - 1 < \varepsilon ,$$

$b \xleftarrow{R} \{0,1\}$   
 $u \xleftarrow{R} \mathcal{U}$

where the probability is taken over the random choices of  $\mathcal{A}$ . The two plaintexts  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  chosen by the adversary have to be of identical length. Access to a decryption oracle is allowed throughout the game.

# IND-CCA: Playing the Game



# Trapdoor one-way functions

- A **trapdoor permutation** is a one-to-one function  $f$  that anyone can compute efficiently; however, inverting  $f$  is hard unless some “trapdoor” information is also given.
- Naively, a trapdoor permutation defines a simple public key encryption scheme: the description of  $f$  is the public key and the trapdoor is the secret key.
- Unfortunately, the naive public key system is deterministic and hence cannot achieve the *indistinguishability of ciphertexts* security notion.



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# Trapdoor one-way functions: RSA

- In 1978, Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman proposed the first candidate trapdoor permutation.
- The RSA setup consists of choosing two distinct large prime numbers  $p$  and  $q$ , and computing the RSA modulus  $n = pq$ .
- The public key is  $n$  together with an exponent  $e$  (relatively prime to  $\varphi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$ ).
- The secret key  $d$  is defined to be the multiplicative inverse of  $e$  modulo  $\varphi(n)$ .
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## RSA-like functions

- In 1993, Smith and Lennon have proposed a system which uses a special type of Lucas sequences and is an alternative to RSA: given  $a$  and  $b$  two integers such that  $a^2 - 4b$  is a non-square, the Lucas sequence  $V$  is given by a second-order linear recurrence relation:  
 $\forall k \geq 1,$

$$V_{k+1}(a, b) = aV_k(a, b) - bV_{k-1}(a, b), V_1(a, b) = a, V_0(a, b) = 2.$$

- The polynomial of degree  $e$ ,  $P(X) \equiv V_e(X, 1) \pmod{n}$  with  $e$  relatively prime to  $(p^2 - 1)(q^2 - 1)$  is a permutation of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  whose inverse is  $V_d(X, 1) \pmod{n}$  where  $d$  is the multiplicative inverse of  $e$  modulo  $(p^2 - 1)(q^2 - 1)$ .
- In 1993, Demytko has suggested to replace the polynomials  $X^e$  by division polynomials of elliptic curves defined over a ring.



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- These primitives do not provide an IND-CCA2 secure encryption scheme
- Under a slightly stronger assumption than the intractability of the integer factorization, they give a cryptosystem that is only one-way under chosen-plaintext attacks (a very weak level of security).
- The main purpose of this talk is to propose new combinations of these RSA-like problems giving rise to semantically secure public key cryptosystem.
- **Notations.**  $n$  will be an RSA modulus and  $P$  and  $Q$  will denote monic polynomials of  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}[X]$  of respective degree  $e_P$  and  $e_Q$ , such that the associate polynomial functions are one-way permutations of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ;  $R \in \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$  will denote a bivariate polynomial with  $e_R := \deg_X(R)$ .

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# Definitions

- In order to fix the notations, we define the problem of inverting the permutation induced by the polynomial  $P$ .

- **Punctual Inversion:**  $P^{-1}(n)$

Given:  $\alpha = P(a) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ;

Find:  $a \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ .

- We define a new family of algorithmic problems: the *computation polynomial Diffie-Hellman problems* that generalize together the punctual inversion problem and the dependent-RSA problem.

- **Computational Polynomial DH:** C-POL-DH( $n, P, Q, R$ )

Given:  $\alpha = P(a) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  and  $\beta = Q(b) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ;

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In this talk, we deal only with the following cases:

- $R(X, Y) = XY$  that we denote C-POL1( $n, P, Q$ )
- $R(X, Y) = P((XY)^k)$  that we denote C-POL2( $n, k, P, Q$ )
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  - **Decisional Polynomial DH:**  $\text{C-POL-DH}(n, P, Q, R)$

Given:  $\alpha = P(a) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ,  $\beta = Q(b) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  and  $\gamma \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ;

Decide whether:  $\gamma = R(a, b)$ .

We also define the decision problems  $\text{D-POL1}(n, P, Q)$ ,  $\text{D-POL2}(n, k, P, Q)$  and  $\text{D-DPOL}(n, P, Q)$  for the cases  $R(X, Y) = XY$ ,  $R(X, Y) = P((XY)^k)$  and  $R(X, Y) = Q(X)$ .

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Decide whether:  $\gamma = R(a, b)$ .

We also define the decision problems  $\text{D-POL1}(n, P, Q)$ ,  $\text{D-POL2}(n, k, P, Q)$  and  $\text{D-DPOL}(n, P, Q)$  for the cases  $R(X, Y) = XY$ ,  $R(X, Y) = P((XY)^k)$  and  $R(X, Y) = Q(X)$ .

# The C-POL1 problem

We define an extraction problem, E-POL-DH( $n, P, Q, R$ ):

Given  $P(a)$ ,  $Q(b)$  and  $R(a, b)$ , find  $a$  and  $b$ .

We denote as before E-POL1, E-POL2, E-DPOL the extraction problems for the special values of  $R$ .

For the C-POL1 problem, we have the straightforward theorem:

**Theorem:**

$$\text{D-POL1}(n, P, Q) \stackrel{\mathcal{P}}{\Longleftarrow} \text{C-POL1}(n, P, Q) \stackrel{\mathcal{P}}{\Longleftrightarrow} P^{-1}(n) \wedge Q^{-1}(n).$$



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## The C-POL2 problem

For the C-POL2 problem, we use the extraction problem to state a similar theorem.

**Theorem:**

For an RSA integer  $n$ , and two permutation polynomials  $P$  and  $Q$  of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ,

$$\text{C-POL2} \wedge \text{E-POL2} \xLeftrightarrow{\mathcal{P}} P^{-1} \wedge Q^{-1} \xRightarrow{\mathcal{P}} \begin{array}{c} \text{C-POL2} \\ \text{E-POL2} \end{array} \xRightarrow{\mathcal{P}} \text{D-POL2}.$$



## Difficulty of D-POL1 and D-POL2

- The best known way to solve these problems is to solve the corresponding extraction problem (*cf.* Coppersmith, Franklin, Patarin and Reiter 1996).
- We know the values of  $P(a)$ ,  $Q(b)$  and  $R(a, b)$  and we want to find the values of  $a$  and  $b$ . To do this, we compute the resultant with respect to the variable  $Y$ :

$$S(X) = \text{Res}_Y(R(X, Y) - R(a, b), Q(Y) - Q(b)).$$

- This gives a polynomial  $S(X)$  of degree  $e_R e_Q$  with  $S(a) = 0$ , so

$$(X - a) \mid \gcd(S(X), P(X) - P(a)).$$

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- The computation of the resultant can be done in  $\mathcal{O}(e_R^2 e_Q \log^2(e_R e_Q) \log \log(e_R e_Q))$  operations in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .

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- If  $e_Q$  and  $e_R$  are greater than, say  $2^{21}$ , this method will fail.
- The computation of the gcd can be done in  $\mathcal{O}(e \log^2 e \log \log e)$  operations in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ , where  $e = \max(e_R e_Q, e_P)$ .
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## Difficulty of D-POL1 and D-POL2

If the polynomial  $Q$  induces a morphism of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  (in particular, if  $Q$  is associated to the RSA function), it is possible to make another reduction from  $Q^{-1}(n)$  to C-POL2( $n, k, P, Q$ ) when  $k = 1$ .

### Theorem:

Let  $n$  be an RSA integer and  $P$  and  $Q$  two permutation polynomials of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  of respective degrees  $e_P$  and  $e_Q$ . Suppose that  $Q$  is a morphism and that  $\mathcal{I}$  is the support of  $P$ .

If the gcd of  $\mathcal{I}$  equals 1, then we can solve the  $Q^{-1}(n)$  problem with  $\#\mathcal{I}$  queries to an oracle for the C-POL2( $n, 1, P, Q$ ) problem with  $\mathcal{O}((e_P)^3)$  operations in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .



## Difficulty of D-POL1 and D-POL2

### Proof:

We denote by  $m$  the cardinal of  $\mathcal{I}$ . Note that if  $m = 1$ , and  $e_Q = e_P$ , the problem C-POL2( $n, 1, P, Q$ ) is trivial.

Given an element  $Q(b) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ , we want to recover  $b$ .

We start by choosing randomly  $m$  couples  $(s_j, t_j) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times \times (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ , with  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . We assume that all the  $s_j$  and the  $t_j$  with  $j = 1, \dots, m$  are distinct.

For each  $j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ , we give the values  $P(s_j)$  and  $Q(bt_j) = Q(b)Q(t_j)$  to an oracle for C-POL2( $n, 1, P, Q$ ) which give the value of  $P(s_j t_j b)$  in reply. Note that the  $m$  queries to the oracle are independent.

Now we got  $m$  equations:

$$\sum_{i \in \mathcal{I}} p_i(s_j t_j)^i b^i = P(s_j t_j b),$$

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### Proof (continued):

If we denote  $\mathcal{I} := \{i_1, i_2, \dots, i_m\}$ , with  $0 < i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_m = e_p$ , the system of equations is associated with the following matrix:

$$M := \begin{bmatrix} p_{i_1}(s_1 t_1)^{i_1} & p_{i_2}(s_1 t_1)^{i_2} & \cdots & p_{i_m}(s_1 t_1)^{i_m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ p_{i_1}(s_m t_m)^{i_1} & p_{i_2}(s_m t_m)^{i_2} & \cdots & p_{i_m}(s_m t_m)^{i_m} \end{bmatrix}$$

The method successes if  $\det(M) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ . We focus on the study of  $\det(M) \neq 0$ .

If  $m = 1$ , then  $M = ((s_1 t_1)^{e_p})$  so there is no problem, else, we have

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# Difficulty of D-POL1 and D-POL2

## Proof (continued):

This last determinant,  $D$ , is a generalized Vandermonde determinant. One can see that

$$D = \left( \prod_{1 \leq i < j \leq m} (c_j - c_i) \right) T(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m),$$

where  $T$  is a polynomial of degree  $i_m - i_1 - m + 1$  in  $c_m$ .

So, if all the  $(c_j)_{j=1,\dots,m}$  are distinct, once all the  $(s_j)_{j=1,\dots,m}$ , all the  $(t_j)_{j=1,\dots,m-1}$  have been chosen, less than  $(i_m - i_1 - m + 1)^2$  values of  $t_m$  can make the method fail.

So with standard Gauss elimination, we can recover the  $(b^i)_{i \in \mathcal{I}}$  with  $\mathcal{O}(e_p^3)$  operations in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$  and  $m$  independent queries to the oracle.

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# The C-DPOL problem

The C-DPOL can be rewritten as follows:

Given  $P(a)$ , find  $Q(a)$ ;

and the extraction problem, E-DPOL, can be rewritten:

Given  $P(a)$  and  $Q(a)$ , find  $a$ .

**Theorem:** For an RSA integer  $n$ , and two permutation polynomials  $P$  and  $Q$  of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ ,

$$\text{C-DPOL} \wedge \text{E-DPOL} \xLeftrightarrow{\mathcal{P}} P^{-1} \xRightarrow{\mathcal{P}} \begin{array}{c} \text{C-DPOL} \\ \text{E-DPOL} \end{array} \xRightarrow{\mathcal{P}} \text{D-DPOL}.$$



## The C-DPOL problem

Let's try to solve the E-DPOL problem. We know the values of  $P(a)$  and  $Q(a)$  and we want to compute the value of  $a$ . We have

$$(X - a) \mid \gcd(P(X) - P(a), Q(X) - Q(a)),$$

and again, in many cases, we will have an equality. The complexity of the computation of the gcd is  $\mathcal{O}(e \log^2 e \log \log e)$  operations in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ , where  $e = \max(e_Q, e_P)$ .

Again, suppose that the polynomial  $P$  induces a morphism of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ : we can also make another reduction from C-DPOL( $n, P, Q$ ) to  $P^{-1}(n)$ .

### Theorem:

Let  $n$  be an RSA integer and  $P$  and  $Q$  two permutation polynomials of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  of respective degrees  $e_P$  and  $e_Q$ . Suppose that  $P$  is a morphism and that  $\mathcal{I}$  is the support of  $Q$ .

If  $\gcd(\mathcal{I}) = 1$  then we can solve the  $P^{-1}(n)$  problem with  $\#\mathcal{I}$  queries to an oracle for the C-DPOL( $n, P, Q$ ) problem with  $\mathcal{O}((e_Q)^3)$  operations in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ .

## The C-DPOL problem

Let's try to solve the E-DPOL problem. We know the values of  $P(a)$  and  $Q(a)$  and we want to compute the value of  $a$ . We have

$$(X - a) \mid \gcd(P(X) - P(a), Q(X) - Q(a)),$$

and again, in many cases, we will have an equality. The complexity of the computation of the gcd is  $\mathcal{O}(e \log^2 e \log \log e)$  operations in  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}$ , where  $e = \max(e_Q, e_P)$ .

Again, suppose that the polynomial  $P$  induces a morphism of  $(\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ : we can also make another reduction from C-DPOL( $n, P, Q$ ) to  $P^{-1}(n)$ .

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# IND-CPA-secure public key cryptosystems

- Let  $f$  be a trapdoor permutation and  $g$  be another function with the following pseudo-randomness property:  
"The distribution of  $(f(k), g(k))$  induced by a random  $k$  cannot be distinguished (by a polynomially bounded adversary) from a randomly distributed  $(f(k), r)$ ."
- Then the encryption  $E(m) = (f(k), g(k) \oplus m)$  is semantically secure.
- We revisit this approach by using for the function  $g$  a trapdoor permutation.

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Following this paradigm, we define three new encryption schemes where the public key is  $(n, P, Q)$  or  $(n, P, Q, R)$  and the corresponding secret key is  $P^{-1}$  or  $(P^{-1}, Q^{-1})$ . To encrypt a message  $m \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ , a user picks at random  $r \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  (or  $(r_0, r_1) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times 2}$ ) and uses one of the three following encryption functions:

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To decrypt, a user uses his knowledge  $P^{-1}$  or  $(P^{-1}, Q^{-1})$  to recover  $r$  or  $(r_0, r_1)$  then  $m$ .



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# IND-CPA-secure public key cryptosystems

The previous schemes are one-way and semantically secure against Chosen Plaintext Attack relative to the following problems:

| Encryption function               | One-wayness            | Semantic security                  |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Function 1, $R(X, Y) = XY$        | C-POL1( $n, P, Q$ )    | D-POL1( $n, P, Q$ )                |
| Function 1, $R(X, Y) = P((XY)^k)$ | C-POL2( $n, k, P, Q$ ) | D-POL2( $n, k, P, Q$ )             |
| Function 2                        | C-DPOL( $n, P, Q$ )    | D-DPOL( $n, P, Q$ )                |
| Function 3                        | C-POL1( $n, P, Q$ )    | D-POL1( $n, P, Q$ ) <sup>(*)</sup> |

(\*) If  $P$  or  $Q$  is a morphism.

## Efficiency considerations

From the encryption functions above, we design five practical cryptosystems, three with Function 1; one with Function 2; and one with Function 3.

For the polynomial  $P$  we use the LUC polynomial  $V_e(X, 1)$  and for the polynomial  $Q$ , the RSA polynomial of the same degree, *i.e.*  $Q(X) = X^e$ .

In order to compare the efficiency of these schemes, we use an RSA modulus of 1024 bits and we adjust the parameter  $e$  (and  $k$ ) in order to achieve a  $2^{80}$  security (heuristic !!!)

| Scheme   | Ciphertext                             | Public keys                   |
|----------|--|-------------------------------|
| Scheme 1 | $V_e(r_o, 1), r_1^e, mr_0r_1$          | $e = 2^{67} + 3.$             |
| Scheme 2 | $V_e(r_o, 1), r_1^e, mV_e(r_0r_1)$     | $e = 2^{23} + 9.$             |
| Scheme 3 | $V_e(r_o, 1), r_1^e, mV_e((r_0r_1)^k)$ | $e = 5$ and $k = 2^{31} + 65$ |
| Scheme 4 | $V_e(r, 1), mr^e$                      | $e = 2^{67} + 3.$             |
| Scheme 5 | $V_e(mr, 1), r^{-e}$                   | $e = 2^{67} + 3.$             |

## Efficiency considerations

Now, we compare the concrete efficiency of our new schemes.

For the D-RSA scheme of Pointcheval we use  $e = 2^{67} + 3$  and for the scheme of Catalano, we use  $e = 2^{16} + 1$ . The unity of complexity is the cost of a multiplication modulo  $n$ .

We use the following estimations: a multiplication modulo  $n^2$  costs as much as three multiplications modulo  $n$ , an inversion costs 10 multiplications, a multiplication modulo  $p$  costs  $1/3$  multiplication modulo  $n$  and a multiplication modulo  $p^2$  costs one multiplication modulo  $n$ . We use the CRT for the decryption process of all schemes.

| Scheme     | D-RSA | Catalano | Scheme 1 | Scheme 2 | Scheme 3  | Scheme 4 | Scheme 5 |
|------------|-------|----------|----------|----------|-----------|----------|----------|
| Input      | 1024  |          |          |          |           |          |          |
| Output     | 2048  |          | 3072     |          |           | 2048     |          |
| Encryption | 139   | 52       | 205      | 119      | <b>44</b> | 204      | 214      |
| Decryption | 567   | 570      | 1204     | 1234     | 1228      | 736      | 1196     |

# IND-CCA2-secure public key cryptosystems in the ROM

In the random oracle model, we apply standard techniques to obtain chosen ciphertext security from these new primitives.

The public key is now  $(n, P, Q, h)$  or  $(n, P, Q, R, h)$  where  $h$  is a cryptographic hash function (seen like a random oracle) and the corresponding secret key is  $P^{-1}$  or  $(P^{-1}, Q^{-1})$ .

To encrypt a message  $m \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$ , a user picks at random  $r \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^\times$  (or  $(r_0, r_1) \in (\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z})^{\times 2}$ ) and uses one of the three following encryption functions:

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The decryption process is done as above except that the message is returned only if the hash value is correct.

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# IND-CCA2-secure public key cryptosystems in the ROM

The previous schemes are semantically secure against Adaptive Chosen Ciphertext Attack in the Random Oracle Model relative to the following problems:

| Encryption function               | Semantic security                  |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Function 1, $R(X, Y) = XY$        | D-POL1( $n, P, Q$ )                |
| Function 1, $R(X, Y) = P((XY)^k)$ | D-POL2( $n, k, P, Q$ )             |
| Function 2                        | D-DPOL( $n, P, Q$ )                |
| Function 3                        | D-POL1( $n, P, Q$ ) <sup>(*)</sup> |

(\*) If  $P$  or  $Q$  is a morphism.

## Security proof: Notion of plaintext awareness

- The intuitive idea behind plaintext awareness is that it's hard to construct a new ciphertext for which you can't easily guess the plaintext (or guess that the ciphertext is invalid).
- Such an idea would imply security against chosen ciphertext attack – since the adversary effectively knows the plaintext anyway, the decryption oracle is useless.
- The formalization introduces a *plaintext extractor* – an algorithm which, given a ciphertext and possibly the random oracle queries of the program which created it, returns the corresponding plaintext. □

# Conclusion

- We have defined new algorithmic problems, derived from the RSA assumption, and discuss their computational difficulty.
- We have applied them to design public key encryption protocols with IND-CPA-security and IND-CCA2-security in the random oracle model under the assumption of the intractability of their decisional variants.
- The ideas developed in this extended abstract can be used to design encryption schemes with higher security.
  - It is possible to modify our schemes in order to make them IND-CCA2 in the random oracle model relative to the corresponding computational problems.
  - It is possible to construct the most efficient known IND-CCA1-secure encryption scheme with security analysis in the standard security model.
  - In addition, by using the approach proposed by Cramer and Shoup in 2003, we have been able to design a concrete encryption scheme that is proven IND-CCA2-secure in the standard.

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