

COIN FLIPPING BY TELEPHONE

„A protocol for solving impossible problems“

Based on Manuel Blum's Paper from 1981

Proved useful for:

- Mental poker
- Certified Mail
- Exchange of Secrets

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Application scenario

- Alice and Bob have recently been divorced
- Who gets the car?
- How to decide over a distance?
- B doesn't want to guess, hear A flip coins, then lose => cheatproofing!



[1]

Applicability

- Two adversaries
- One of them generates RANDOM Bits
- It is in the interest of the picking side NOT to pick at random



[2]

Thus, a protocol is needed to ensure random picking

Goals

- Guarantee to B that A WILL pick a random sequence of Bits
=> Flip coins „to“ her
- Guarantee to A that B does not know the sequence himself
- Ensure and enforce that no cheating occurs
=> Judge's protocol

One-Way functions

- Two types: Completely and normally secure
- $x \Rightarrow f(x)$ is easily computable, $f(x) \Rightarrow x$ is not for the vast majority of values
- From knowing $f(x)$, you have a maximal chance of 50% to guess a non-trivial property of x
- Both functions share the first property, the second is exclusive to the completely secure variation

Protocol using a CS-OWF

- A and B agree on a function f
- A picks an integer x , computes $f(x)$ and sends it to B
- B guesses whether x is even or odd
- A reveals the result and sends x as confirmation
- End
- But: A CS-OWF is hard to come by, maybe it doesn't even exist [B'81]

2 – 1 function

- For the protocol, we'll use a normally secure one-way function with an additional property
- The 2 – 1 function maps two elements from its domain to each element of each range
- For x, y : $f(x) = f(y)$
- The values x and y shall be distinguished by a simple property \Rightarrow even and odd

Consequences

- If A computes $f(x)$ and sends it to B, he has no idea if x or y was used for the computation
- B then guesses whether the original number was even or odd
- A then reveals the result and sends the number she used, in this case x
- The sending must be automatized, or else A may just send y without anyone being the wiser

Needed properties

- No cheating => probability is 50-50, guaranteed
 - If one participant is caught cheating, it is provable to the judge
 - After B's coin tosses, A knows the results. Until she reveals it to him, he has no idea.
 - After the flips, A can verify to B how the coins fell
- => The protocol fulfills all goals while staying applicable

Additional properties

- Each adversary knows at each step if the other cheats => The court only provides justice, independent proof or force a participant to complete the protocol
- B can use his public key n , provided its correct construction, to flip coins
- B does not need new primes for each flip, for the needed computation time per flip is of the order of $\gcd(x,y)$

Assumptions

- We assume that no procedure can efficiently factor a number n comprised of two large primes (1)
- We assume both A and B possess their own true random number generators (2)
- Signed messages via the secure signature proposed by Diffie and Hellman [DH'79], implemented by Rivest, Shamir and Adleman [RSA'78] (3)

Assumption (1)

- In 1980s Technology, a 1000 CRAY-1's would need over 5 years to factorize a 160 digit prime [B'81]
- The interesting property for computational speed is FLOPS (Floating point operations per second)
- 1000 CRAY-1A's: 80 GFLOPS [3]
- 1 Nvidia Geforce GTX 1080 Ti: 11.5 TFLOPS (SP) [4]
- A difference in speed of a factor 143,75

Assumption (1)

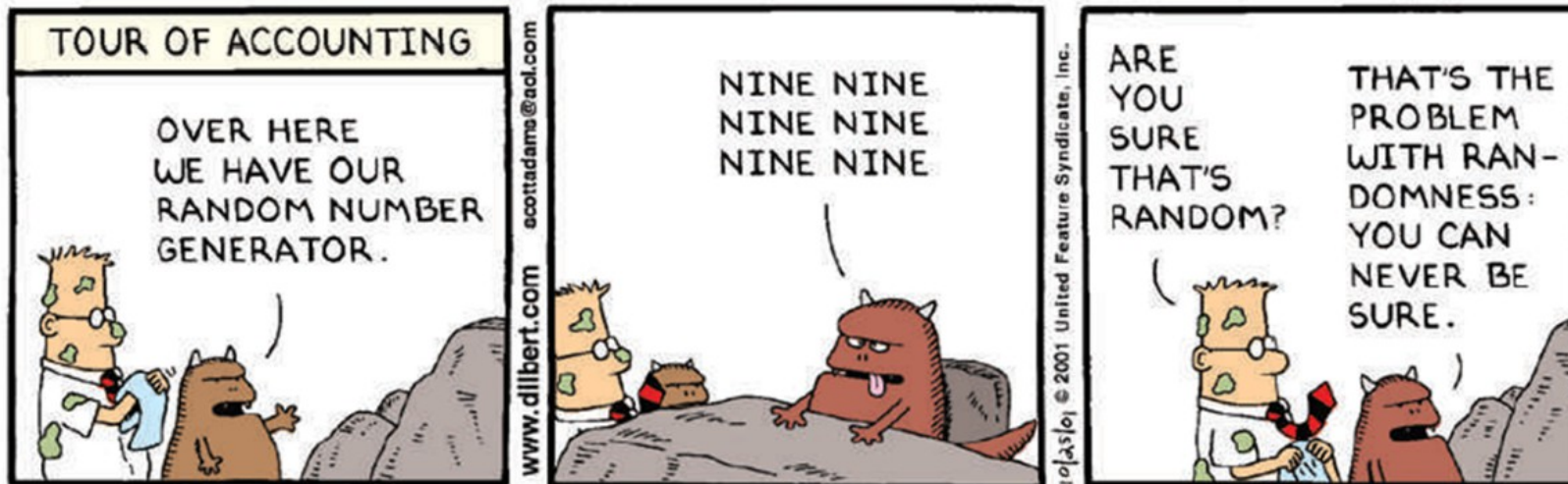
- If we assume the computation time of the CRAY-1's to be exactly 5 years, then the graphics card will take only about 12 and a half days to factorize the prime
=> In our time, the protocol has to be either completed in a much shorter timeframe, or the prime needs to be much larger
- If we use a modern supercomputer, the needed time can easily be pushed down into the hour range

Assumption (1)

- What about using a quantum computer instead of a regular one?
 - Classical factorization algorithms scale with an exponential order
 - Quantum factorization algorithms scale with a below exponential order (almost polynomial)
- => A quantum computer would be able to factorize the number in an even shorter timeframe

Assumption (2)

- A true random number generator may be impossible to construct [B'81]
- There are several decent generators [5]
- We assume that any modern random number generator will be sufficient for the application



Assumption (3)

- The basic idea of the encryption [DH'79]:
 - In advance, A and B agree on a shared secret
 - If need be, A and B mix their secret with the shared one and send it
 - When they mix the other's secret with their own, they both obtain the same, common secret
- => The method is set up this way! If there is a difference in outcome, the shared secret is not the same either

Jacobi-Symbol

$$(x/n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is quadratic residue to } a, \\ 0, & \text{if } x \text{ is factor of } n, \\ -1, & \text{if } x \text{ is no quadratic residue to } a. \end{cases}$$

- Quadratic residue:

$$x := a^2$$

$$x = a^2 + t * n$$

Definition by code

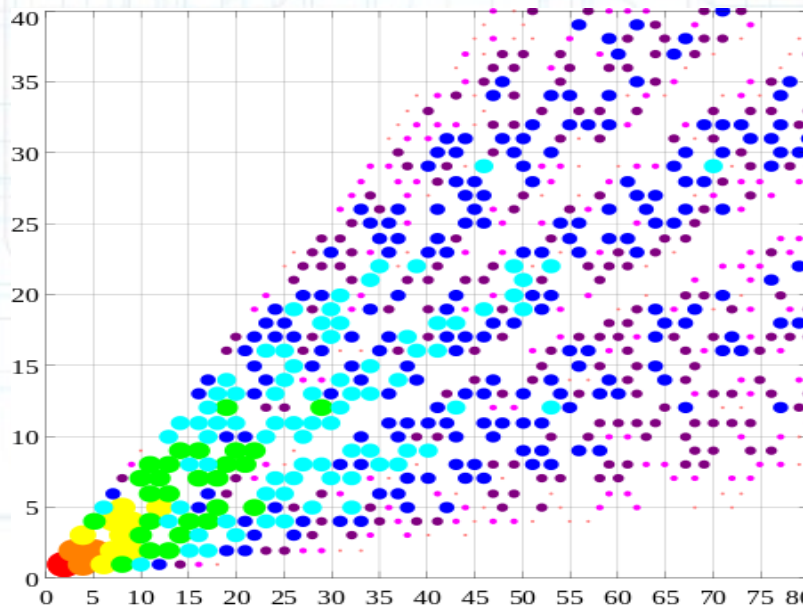
- x_i : arbitrary integers
- n_i : positive odd integers
- $(x/n) = 0$ if $\gcd(x,n) \neq 1$
- $(1/n) = 1$
- $((x_1 * x_2)/n) = (x_1/n) * (x_2/n)$
- $(x/(n_1 * n_2)) = (x/n_1) * (x/n_2)$
- $(x_1/n) = (x_2/n)$ if $x_1 = x_2 \pmod n$

Definition by code

- $(-1/n) = +1$ if $n = 1 \pmod{4}$, or
- $(-1/n) = -1$ if $n = 3 \pmod{4}$
- $(2/n) = +1$ if $n = 1$ or $7 \pmod{8}$, or
- $(2/n) = -1$ if $n = 3$ or $5 \pmod{8}$
- $(n_1/n_2) = (n_2/n_1)$ if $\gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$
and $[n_1 \text{ or } n_2 = 1 \pmod{4}]$, or
- $(n_1/n_2) = -(n_2/n_1)$ if $\gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$
and $[n_1 \text{ and } n_2 = 3 \pmod{4}]$

Z_n^*

- For an integer $n > 1$:
- $Z_n^* = \{0 < n_i < n; n_i \text{ coprime to } n\}$
- Coprime := No shared common positive factors except 1



[6]

Lemma

$$n = p_1^{e_1} * \dots * p_k^{e_k}$$

$$k := \text{integer} > 1$$

$p_i :=$ distinct odd primes

$e_i :=$ positive integers

$a \in \mathbb{Z}n^*$ is quadratic residue mod n

$$x^2 = a \pmod{n}$$

Lemma

$$x = [\pm (x_1 v_1 p_2^{e_2} * \dots * p_k^{e_k}) \pm (x_2 v_2 p_1^{e_1} * \dots * p_k^{e_k}) \pm \dots \pm (x_k v_k p_1^{e_1} * \dots * p_{k-1}^{e_{k-1}})] \pmod n$$

v_1 is any integer defined so $(v_1 p_2^{e_2} * \dots * p_k^{e_k}) \pmod{p_1^{e_1}} = 1$

- The other values of v are similarly defined
- Proof by LeVeque, Theorems 3.21 & 5.2 [L'77]

Theorem 1

- For any odd integer n which can be expressed in the way of the lemma, except that $k = 1$ is also permitted, then the following statements are equivalent:
- There are x, y in \mathbb{Z}_n^* with $x^2 = y^2 \pmod n$ and $(x/n) \neq (y/n)$
- $p_i^{e_i} = 3 \pmod 4$ for some i
- Let a from \mathbb{Z}_n^* be a quadratic residue to $\pmod n$; Then exactly half the roots in \mathbb{Z}_n^* of the equation $a = x^2 \pmod n$ have $(x/n) = 1$, the other half $(x/n) = -1$

Publication date of n

- At the beginning of the protocol, B sends n and the publication date of n to A – why?
- B cannot be sure that the factorization of n remains secret for longer than a fixed period of time
- It is unreasonable to expect indefinite contact between A and B

The protocol – Step 1

- Bob selects n :
 - He picks two random exactly 80-digit primes p_1 and p_2 , both congruent to $3 \pmod{4}$
 - Then $n = p_1 * p_2$

B => A: „ n , published YYYY-MM-DD“

The protocol – step 2

- A tests n (if A trusts B, skippable)
 - Check that n is 160 digits and $n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$
 $\Rightarrow n$ is odd and $(-1/n) = 1$
 - Check for some x that there exists a y so
 $x^2 \equiv y^2 \pmod{n}$ and $(x/n) \neq (y/n)$

The protocol – step 2

- Testing procedure:
 - B \Rightarrow A: Select 80 random numbers x_i from \mathbb{Z}_n^* and send $x_i^2 \bmod n$ to A
 - A \Rightarrow B: Send a sequence of 80 random bits b_i to B, where b_i is either 1 or -1
 - B \Rightarrow A: For each i , send back x_i if b_i is 1 or y_i if b_i is -1
- This convinces A that the first condition of Theorem 1 holds. It fails with a probability of $2^{-80} < 1/(N_A)$

The protocol – step 3

- B flips coins to A:
 - Mandatory signing of messages!
 - A checks the publication date
 - A \Rightarrow B: A selects 80 x_i from Z_n^* at random; then sends „n, publication date of n, $x_i^2 \bmod n$ – signed by A“
- Delicate point for A: B might not respond, then claim A did not want to continue. The judge is needed then (Termination or forced completion of the protocol)

The protocol – step 3

- B checks n and its publication date
 - B \Rightarrow A: „ $n, x_i^2 \bmod n, b_i$, signed by B“
- A computes the Jacobi symbols of x_i and saves the results as J_{s_i}
 - $J_{s_i} = b_i \Rightarrow r_i = 1$, else $r_i = -1$
- Now A knows what B flipped her, he has no idea

The protocol – step 3

- $A \Rightarrow B$: „ x_i , signed by A“
 - Signature is not needed if B is confident A does not know the factorization of n
- B now confirms his flips by computing (x_i/n) and matching it to his guesses $b_i \Rightarrow r_i$
- If more flips are needed, the first two steps may be skipped as long as the same n is used
- **END**

Judge's protocol

- May be programmed in an ironclad fashion
- In case of dispute:
 - Subpoena all signed messages; if the case has exceeded the statute of limitations, throw it out
 - If A produces a signed message relating to a signed message from B, he must present said message or be found guilty of cheating

Judge's protocol

- Test n as in step 2
 - If no messages have been provably exchanged during step 3, terminate the protocol by signed message (even if A send her first message and B did not care)
 - Otherwise, force completion of protocol
 - Check that $x_i^2 \pmod n$ in A's first signed message matches with quadratic residue mod n of x_i in the later A-signed message
- => if not, find A guilty of cheating

Judge's protocol

- Determine r_i
 - A and B are given a signed message showing the judge's findings
- **END**



[7]

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All sites last accessed on 23.7.18, 12:21

Thank you!



I'VE DISCOVERED A WAY TO GET COMPUTER SCIENTISTS TO LISTEN TO ANY BORING STORY.

Source:

www.xkcd.com