

# Cryptography

## Lecture 17

Arkady Yerukhimovich

October 28, 2024

- 1 Lecture 16 Review
- 2 A Modern Cryptography Approach (Chapter 8.Intro)
- 3 A Brief Intro to Number Theory (Chapter 8.1)
- 4 A Brief Intro to Group Theory (Chapter 8.1)

# Lecture 16 Review

- AES review
- Feistel Networks and DES
- Davies-Meyer Transform

- 1 Lecture 16 Review
- 2 A Modern Cryptography Approach (Chapter 8.Intro)**
- 3 A Brief Intro to Number Theory (Chapter 8.1)
- 4 A Brief Intro to Group Theory (Chapter 8.1)

# Let's Look At Our Assumptions

How to instantiate private-key crypto, so far:

- ① Use primitives like PRGs, PRFs, PRPs to build encryption, MACs
- ② Instantiate PRPs using block-ciphers

# Let's Look At Our Assumptions

How to instantiate private-key crypto, so far:

- 1 Use primitives like PRGs, PRFs, PRPs to build encryption, MACs
- 2 Instantiate PRPs using block-ciphers

## What's The Problem?

# Let's Look At Our Assumptions

How to instantiate private-key crypto, so far:

- ① Use primitives like PRGs, PRFs, PRPs to build encryption, MACs
- ② Instantiate PRPs using block-ciphers

## What's The Problem?

- All block-cipher constructions rely on sequence of random-looking steps (e.g., random permutation, shift bits, taking subsets of bits,...)

# Let's Look At Our Assumptions

How to instantiate private-key crypto, so far:

- 1 Use primitives like PRGs, PRFs, PRPs to build encryption, MACs
- 2 Instantiate PRPs using block-ciphers

## What's The Problem?

- All block-cipher constructions rely on sequence of random-looking steps (e.g., random permutation, shift bits, taking subsets of bits,...)
- No way to formalize a clean (falsifiable) reason for why these are secure



# Let's Look At Our Assumptions

How to instantiate private-key crypto, so far:

- 1 Use primitives like PRGs, PRFs, PRPs to build encryption, MACs
- 2 Instantiate PRPs using block-ciphers

## What's The Problem?

- All block-cipher constructions rely on sequence of random-looking steps (e.g., random permutation, shift bits, taking subsets of bits,...)
- No way to formalize a clean (falsifiable) reason for why these are secure
- Just have to trust that block-ciphers (e.g., AES, DES) are secure

# Let's Look At Our Assumptions

How to instantiate private-key crypto, so far:

- 1 Use primitives like PRGs, PRFs, PRPs to build encryption, MACs
- 2 Instantiate PRPs using block-ciphers

## What's The Problem?

- All block-cipher constructions rely on sequence of random-looking steps (e.g., random permutation, shift bits, taking subsets of bits,...)
- No way to formalize a clean (falsifiable) reason for why these are secure
- Just have to trust that block-ciphers (e.g., AES, DES) are secure

## Key Question

How can we build crypto on clean mathematical foundations?

# Building Crypto from Mathematical Assumptions

Instead, modern crypto builds cryptographic primitives from clean, mathematical problems (e.g., factoring)

# Building Crypto from Mathematical Assumptions

Instead, modern crypto builds cryptographic primitives from clean, mathematical problems (e.g., factoring)

- Allows reducing security of primitives to solving (well studied) mathematical problem

# Building Crypto from Mathematical Assumptions

Instead, modern crypto builds cryptographic primitives from clean, mathematical problems (e.g., factoring)

- Allows reducing security of primitives to solving (well studied) mathematical problem
- Problems are (often) studied even outside of crypto

# Building Crypto from Mathematical Assumptions

Instead, modern crypto builds cryptographic primitives from clean, mathematical problems (e.g., factoring)

- Allows reducing security of primitives to solving (well studied) mathematical problem
- Problems are (often) studied even outside of crypto
- Assumptions are easy to state and understand

# Building Crypto from Mathematical Assumptions

Instead, modern crypto builds cryptographic primitives from clean, mathematical problems (e.g., factoring)

- Allows reducing security of primitives to solving (well studied) mathematical problem
- Problems are (often) studied even outside of crypto
- Assumptions are easy to state and understand
- Can be stated asymptotically, not relying on fixed input/output sizes

# Building Crypto from Mathematical Assumptions

Instead, modern crypto builds cryptographic primitives from clean, mathematical problems (e.g., factoring)

- Allows reducing security of primitives to solving (well studied) mathematical problem
- Problems are (often) studied even outside of crypto
- Assumptions are easy to state and understand
- Can be stated asymptotically, not relying on fixed input/output sizes

## Added Functionality

We will show next week, how this modern crypto approach leads to the development of *public-key* cryptography.



# Outline

- 1 Lecture 16 Review
- 2 A Modern Cryptography Approach (Chapter 8.Intro)
- 3 A Brief Intro to Number Theory (Chapter 8.1)**
- 4 A Brief Intro to Group Theory (Chapter 8.1)

# Preliminaries and Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}$  - set of Integers

# Preliminaries and Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}$  - set of Integers
- For integer  $n$ ,  $\|n\| = \lfloor \log n \rfloor + 1$  is the number of bits to represent  $n$ 
  - We require efficient algorithms to run in time  $\text{poly}(\|n\|)$

# Preliminaries and Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}$  - set of Integers
- For integer  $n$ ,  $\|n\| = \lfloor \log n \rfloor + 1$  is the number of bits to represent  $n$ 
  - We require efficient algorithms to run in time  $\text{poly}(\|n\|)$
- $a|b$  -  $a$  divides  $b$  ( $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $ac = b$ )

# Preliminaries and Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}$  - set of Integers
- For integer  $n$ ,  $\|n\| = \lfloor \log n \rfloor + 1$  is the number of bits to represent  $n$ 
  - We require efficient algorithms to run in time  $\text{poly}(\|n\|)$
- $a|b$  –  $a$  divides  $b$  ( $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $ac = b$ )
- If  $a|b$  and  $a > 0$ ,  $a \notin \{1, b\}$  then  $a$  is a *factor* of  $b$

# Preliminaries and Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}$  - set of Integers
- For integer  $n$ ,  $\|n\| = \lfloor \log n \rfloor + 1$  is the number of bits to represent  $n$ 
  - We require efficient algorithms to run in time  $\text{poly}(\|n\|)$
- $a|b$  –  $a$  divides  $b$  ( $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $ac = b$ )
- If  $a|b$  and  $a > 0$ ,  $a \notin \{1, b\}$  then  $a$  is a *factor* of  $b$
- Positive integer  $p > 1$  is *prime* if it has no factors

# Preliminaries and Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}$  - set of Integers
- For integer  $n$ ,  $\|n\| = \lfloor \log n \rfloor + 1$  is the number of bits to represent  $n$ 
  - We require efficient algorithms to run in time  $\text{poly}(\|n\|)$
- $a|b$  –  $a$  divides  $b$  ( $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $ac = b$ )
- If  $a|b$  and  $a > 0$ ,  $a \notin \{1, b\}$  then  $a$  is a *factor* of  $b$
- Positive integer  $p > 1$  is *prime* if it has no factors
- An integer  $p > 1$  that is not prime is *composite*

# Preliminaries and Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}$  - set of Integers
- For integer  $n$ ,  $\|n\| = \lfloor \log n \rfloor + 1$  is the number of bits to represent  $n$ 
  - We require efficient algorithms to run in time  $\text{poly}(\|n\|)$
- $a|b$  -  $a$  divides  $b$  ( $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $ac = b$ )
- If  $a|b$  and  $a > 0$ ,  $a \notin \{1, b\}$  then  $a$  is a *factor* of  $b$
- Positive integer  $p > 1$  is *prime* if it has no factors
- An integer  $p > 1$  that is not prime is *composite*

## Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

All positive integers  $n > 1$  can be expressed uniquely (up to ordering) as  $n = \prod p_i^{\ell_i}$  for primes  $p_i$



# Greatest Common Divisor (gcd)

## Definition

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b) = c$  s.t.  $c$  is the largest integer so that  $c|a$  and  $c|b$

Properties of gcd:

# Greatest Common Divisor (gcd)

## Definition

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b) = c$  s.t.  $c$  is the largest integer so that  $c|a$  and  $c|b$

Properties of gcd:

- ① If  $c|ab$  and  $\gcd(a, c) = 1$ , then  $c|b$ 
  - If  $p$  is prime, then  $p|ab$  implies that  $p|a$  or  $p|b$

# Greatest Common Divisor (gcd)

## Definition

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b) = c$  s.t.  $c$  is the largest integer so that  $c|a$  and  $c|b$

Properties of gcd:

- 1 If  $c|ab$  and  $\gcd(a, c) = 1$ , then  $c|b$ 
  - If  $p$  is prime, then  $p|ab$  implies that  $p|a$  or  $p|b$
- 2 If  $a|N$ ,  $b|N$ , and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  then  $ab|N$

$$\begin{aligned} a &= (p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdots) \\ b &= (p_1^{f_1} \cdot p_2^{f_2} \cdots) \end{aligned} \quad N$$

# Greatest Common Divisor (gcd)

## Definition

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b) = c$  s.t.  $c$  is the largest integer so that  $c|a$  and  $c|b$

Properties of gcd:

- 1 If  $c|ab$  and  $\gcd(a, c) = 1$ , then  $c|b$ 
  - If  $p$  is prime, then  $p|ab$  implies that  $p|a$  or  $p|b$
- 2 If  $a|N$ ,  $b|N$ , and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  then  $ab|N$
- 3 If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , there exist  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $Xa + Yb = \gcd(a, b)$ 
  - $\gcd(a, b)$  is the smallest positive integer that can be written like this

# Greatest Common Divisor (gcd)

## Definition

For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b) = c$  s.t.  $c$  is the largest integer so that  $c|a$  and  $c|b$

Properties of gcd:

- ① If  $c|ab$  and  $\gcd(a, c) = 1$ , then  $c|b$ 
  - If  $p$  is prime, then  $p|ab$  implies that  $p|a$  or  $p|b$
- ② If  $a|N$ ,  $b|N$ , and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  then  $ab|N$
- ③ If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , there exist  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $Xa + Yb = \gcd(a, b)$ 
  - $\gcd(a, b)$  is the smallest positive integer that can be written like this
- ④  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, [a \bmod b])$  if  $a, b > 1$  such that  $b \nmid a$

# Euclidean Algorithm

## Goal

Given Integers  $a, b$  find  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

$GCD(a, b)$ :

# Euclidean Algorithm

## Goal

Given Integers  $a, b$  find  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

$GCD(a, b)$ :

- 1 If  $b|a$ , return  $b$

# Euclidean Algorithm

## Goal

Given Integers  $a, b$  find  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

$GCD(a, b)$ :

- 1 If  $b|a$ , return  $b$
- 2 Else, return  $GCD(b, [a \bmod b])$



# Euclidean Algorithm

## Goal

Given Integers  $a, b$  find  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

$GCD(a, b)$ :

- 1 If  $b|a$ , return  $b$
- 2 Else, return  $GCD(b, [a \bmod b])$

Extended Euclidean Algorithm:

- Also lets you find  $X, Y$  such that  $Xa + Yb = \gcd(a, b)$

# Euclidean Algorithm

## Goal

Given Integers  $a, b$  find  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

$GCD(a, b)$ :

- 1 If  $b|a$ , return  $b$
- 2 Else, return  $GCD(b, [a \bmod b])$

Extended Euclidean Algorithm:

- Also lets you find  $X, Y$  such that  $Xa + Yb = \gcd(a, b)$

Both of these are poly-time in  $\|a\|$  and  $\|b\|$

# Modular Arithmetic

Notation: For Integers  $a, b, N$

- $[a \bmod N]$  -  $a$  modulo  $N$ , (e.g.  $[15 \bmod 7] = 1$ )

# Modular Arithmetic

Notation: For Integers  $a, b, N$

- $[a \bmod N]$  -  $a$  modulo  $N$ , (e.g.  $[15 \bmod 7] = 1$ )
- $a = b \bmod N$  if  $[a \bmod N] = [b \bmod N]$ 
  - We say,  $a$  is *congruent* to  $b \bmod N$

# Modular Arithmetic

Notation: For Integers  $a, b, N$

- $[a \bmod N]$  -  $a$  modulo  $N$ , (e.g.  $[15 \bmod 7] = 1$ )
- $a = b \bmod N$  if  $[a \bmod N] = [b \bmod N]$ 
  - We say,  $a$  is *congruent* to  $b \bmod N$
- Note that:

$$\begin{aligned} a = [b \bmod N] &\implies a = b \bmod N, \text{ but} \\ a = b \bmod N &\not\implies a = [b \bmod N] \end{aligned}$$

# Modular Arithmetic

Notation: For Integers  $a, b, N$

- $[a \bmod N]$  -  $a$  modulo  $N$ , (e.g.  $[15 \bmod 7] = 1$ )
- $a = b \bmod N$  if  $[a \bmod N] = [b \bmod N]$ 
  - We say,  $a$  is *congruent* to  $b \bmod N$
- Note that:

$$\begin{aligned} a = [b \bmod N] &\implies a = b \bmod N, \text{ but} \\ a = b \bmod N &\not\implies a = [b \bmod N] \end{aligned}$$

Example:  $8 \neq [3 \bmod 5]$ , but  $8 = 3 \bmod 5$

## Congruence Relation

Congruence  $\bmod N$  is an *equivalence relation* that obeys standard rules of arithmetic.

If  $a = a' \bmod N$ , and  $b = b' \bmod N$  then:

- $a + b = a' + b' \bmod N$
- $ab = a'b' \bmod N$

## Congruence Relation

Congruence  $\bmod N$  is an *equivalence relation* that obeys standard rules of arithmetic.

If  $a = a' \bmod N$ , and  $b = b' \bmod N$  then:

- $a + b = a' + b' \bmod N$
- $ab = a'b' \bmod N$

Example:  $[654321 \cdot 54301 \bmod 100] = [21 \cdot 1 \bmod 100] = 21$



## Congruence Relation

Congruence mod  $N$  is an *equivalence relation* that obeys standard rules of arithmetic.

If  $a = a' \bmod N$ , and  $b = b' \bmod N$  then:

- $a + b = a' + b' \bmod N$
- $ab = a'b' \bmod N$

Example:  $[654321 \cdot 54301 \bmod 100] = [21 \cdot 1 \bmod 100] = 21$

But, this congruence relation does not necessarily respect division

Example:  $3 \cdot 2 = 6 = 15 \cdot 2 \bmod 24$ , but  $3 \not\equiv 15 \bmod 24$

## Congruence Relation

Congruence mod  $N$  is an *equivalence relation* that obeys standard rules of arithmetic.

If  $a = a' \bmod N$ , and  $b = b' \bmod N$  then:

- $a + b = a' + b' \bmod N$
- $ab = a'b' \bmod N$

Example:  $[654321 \cdot 54301 \bmod 100] = [21 \cdot 1 \bmod 100] = 21$

But, this congruence relation does not necessarily respect division

Example:  $3 \cdot 2 = 6 = 15 \cdot 2 \bmod 24$ , but  $3 \not\equiv 15 \bmod 24$

## Division mod $N$

Let  $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $b \geq 1$ ,  $N > 1$ ,  $b$  is invertible mod  $N$  (i.e., can divide by  $b$ ) if and only if  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$

# Finding Multiplicative Inverse

## Goal

For  $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , find  $b^{-1} \bmod N$

# Finding Multiplicative Inverse

## Goal

For  $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , find  $b^{-1} \bmod N$

Idea: Use extended Euclidean algorithm

- Find  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $Xb + YN = \gcd(b, N)$

# Finding Multiplicative Inverse

## Goal

For  $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , find  $b^{-1} \bmod N$

Idea: Use extended Euclidean algorithm

- Find  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $Xb + YN = \gcd(b, N)$
- Recall that for  $b^{-1}$  to exist,  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$

# Finding Multiplicative Inverse

## Goal

For  $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , find  $b^{-1} \bmod N$

Idea: Use extended Euclidean algorithm

- Find  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $Xb + YN = \gcd(b, N)$
- Recall that for  $b^{-1}$  to exist,  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$
- $Xb + YN = 1 \implies Xb = 1 - YN \implies Xb = 1 \bmod N$

# Finding Multiplicative Inverse

## Goal

For  $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ , find  $b^{-1} \bmod N$

Idea: Use extended Euclidean algorithm

- Find  $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $Xb + YN = \gcd(b, N)$
- Recall that for  $b^{-1}$  to exist,  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$
- $Xb + YN = 1 \implies Xb = 1 - YN \implies Xb = 1 \bmod N$
- $X = b^{-1} \bmod N$

- 1 Lecture 16 Review
- 2 A Modern Cryptography Approach (Chapter 8.Intro)
- 3 A Brief Intro to Number Theory (Chapter 8.1)
- 4 A Brief Intro to Group Theory (Chapter 8.1)



## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h, \in G, g \cdot h \in G$

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h, \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h, \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h, \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h, \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

- $G$  is *abelian* if commutativity holds:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h = h \cdot g$

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

- $G$  is *abelian* if commutativity holds:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h = h \cdot g$
- $|G|$  - *order* of  $G$  (number of elements in  $G$ ) - For us  $|G| < \infty$



## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

- $G$  is *abelian* if commutativity holds:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h = h \cdot g$
- $|G|$  - *order* of  $G$  (number of elements in  $G$ ) - For us  $|G| < \infty$
- Exponentiation in  $G$ :  $g^x = g \cdot g \cdots g$  ( $x$  times)

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h, \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

- $G$  is *abelian* if commutativity holds:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h = h \cdot g$
- $|G|$  - *order* of  $G$  (number of elements in  $G$ ) - For us  $|G| < \infty$
- Exponentiation in  $G$ :  $g^x = g \cdot g \cdots g$  ( $x$  times)

Examples:

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

- $G$  is *abelian* if commutativity holds:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h = h \cdot g$
- $|G|$  - *order* of  $G$  (number of elements in  $G$ ) - For us  $|G| < \infty$
- Exponentiation in  $G$ :  $g^x = g \cdot g \cdots g$  ( $x$  times)

Examples:

- The integers,  $\mathbb{Z}$ , form an abelian group under addition

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

- $G$  is *abelian* if commutativity holds:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h = h \cdot g$
- $|G|$  - *order* of  $G$  (number of elements in  $G$ ) - For us  $|G| < \infty$
- Exponentiation in  $G$ :  $g^x = g \cdot g \cdots g$  ( $x$  times)

Examples:

- The integers,  $\mathbb{Z}$ , form an abelian group under addition
- The integers,  $\mathbb{Z}$ , are not a group under multiplication (no inverses)

## Definition of a Group

A group is a set  $G$  with a binary operation  $(\cdot)$  such that:

- Closure:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h \in G$
- Identity:  $\exists$  element  $1_G \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, 1_G \cdot g = g \cdot 1_G = g$
- Inverse:  $\forall g \in G, \exists h \in G$  s.t.  $g \cdot h = h \cdot g = 1_G$
- Associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \cdot g_2) \cdot g_3 = g_1 \cdot (g_2 \cdot g_3)$

Additional definitions:

- $G$  is *abelian* if commutativity holds:  $\forall g, h \in G, g \cdot h = h \cdot g$
- $|G|$  - *order* of  $G$  (number of elements in  $G$ ) - For us  $|G| < \infty$
- Exponentiation in  $G$ :  $g^x = g \cdot g \cdots g$  ( $x$  times)

Examples:

- The integers,  $\mathbb{Z}$ , form an abelian group under addition
- The integers,  $\mathbb{Z}$ , are not a group under multiplication (no inverses)
- $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{1, \dots, N-1\}$  is a group under addition mod  $N$

# Important Properties of Groups

①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$

# Important Properties of Groups

①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$

- Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} ac = bc &\implies (ac)c^{-1} = (bc)c^{-1} &\implies a(cc^{-1}) &= b(cc^{-1}) \\ & &\implies a \cdot 1_G &= b \cdot 1_G \implies a = b \end{aligned}$$

# Important Properties of Groups

- ①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$
- ② Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $\forall g \in G, g^m = 1$



# Important Properties of Groups

①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$

② Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $\forall g \in G, g^m = 1$

- Proof (for abelian groups):

Consider  $(gg_1), (gg_2), \dots, (gg_m)$  where  $g_1, \dots, g_m \in G$

Since  $(gg_i) = (gg_j)$  iff  $g_i = g_j$  (by [1]), each of the  $(gg_i)$  is distinct

Now, we have that

$$g_1 \cdot g_2 \cdots g_m = (gg_1) \cdot (gg_2) \cdots (gg_m) = g^m \cdot (g_1 \cdot g_2 \cdots g_m)$$

First equality holds because the  $(gg_i)$  are all possible values in  $G$ .

So,  $g^m = 1$

# Important Properties of Groups

- ①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$
- ② Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $\forall g \in G, g^m = 1$
- ③ Let  $|G| = m$ , then for any  $g \in G$  and any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $g^x = g^{[x \bmod m]}$

# Important Properties of Groups

- ①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$
- ② Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $\forall g \in G$ ,  $g^m = 1$
- ③ Let  $|G| = m$ , then for any  $g \in G$  and any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $g^x = g^{[x \bmod m]}$ 
  - Proof:  
Let  $x = qm + r$  where  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $r = [x \bmod m]$

$$g^x = g^{qm+r} = g^{qm} \cdot g^r = (g^m)^q \cdot g^r = 1_G^q \cdot g^r = g^r$$

# Important Properties of Groups

- ①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$
- ② Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $\forall g \in G$ ,  $g^m = 1$
- ③ Let  $|G| = m$ , then for any  $g \in G$  and any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $g^x = g^{[x \bmod m]}$
- ④ Let  $|G| = m$ , and let  $e > 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Define  $f_e : G \rightarrow G$  by  $f_e(g) = g^e$ .  
If  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$ , then  $f_e$  is a permutation over  $G$ .  
If  $d = e^{-1} \bmod m$ , then  $f_d = f_e^{-1}$ .

# Important Properties of Groups

- ①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$
- ② Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $\forall g \in G$ ,  $g^m = 1$
- ③ Let  $|G| = m$ , then for any  $g \in G$  and any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $g^x = g^{[x \bmod m]}$
- ④ Let  $|G| = m$ , and let  $e > 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Define  $f_e : G \rightarrow G$  by  $f_e(g) = g^e$ .  
If  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$ , then  $f_e$  is a permutation over  $G$ .  
If  $d = e^{-1} \bmod m$ , then  $f_d = f_e^{-1}$ .
  - Proof: Enough to prove that  $f_d$  is inverse of  $f_e$   
For any  $g \in G$ , we have:

$$f_d(f_e(g)) = f_d(g^e) = (g^e)^d = g^{ed} = g^{[ed \bmod m]} = g^1 = g$$

# Important Properties of Groups

- ①  $\forall a, b, c \in G$ , if  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$
- ② Let  $|G| = m$ ,  $\forall g \in G$ ,  $g^m = 1$
- ③ Let  $|G| = m$ , then for any  $g \in G$  and any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $g^x = g^{[x \bmod m]}$
- ④ Let  $|G| = m$ , and let  $e > 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Define  $f_e : G \rightarrow G$  by  $f_e(g) = g^e$ .  
If  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$ , then  $f_e$  is a permutation over  $G$ .  
If  $d = e^{-1} \bmod m$ , then  $f_d = f_e^{-1}$ .

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$



# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$
  - $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$
  - $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$

## Cyclic Group

A group  $G$  is *cyclic* if  $\exists g \in G$  s.t.  $\text{order}(g) = |G|$ . I.e.,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ .

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$
  - $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$

## Cyclic Group

A group  $G$  is *cyclic* if  $\exists g \in G$  s.t.  $\text{order}(g) = |G|$ . I.e.,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ .

- $g$  is called the *generator* of  $G$

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$
  - $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$

## Cyclic Group

A group  $G$  is *cyclic* if  $\exists g \in G$  s.t.  $\text{order}(g) = |G|$ . I.e.,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ .

- $g$  is called the *generator* of  $G$

Useful property: If  $|G|$  is prime, then  $G$  is cyclic. Moreover, all  $g \in G$  except 1 are generators

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$
  - $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$

## Cyclic Group

A group  $G$  is *cyclic* if  $\exists g \in G$  s.t.  $\text{order}(g) = |G|$ . I.e.,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ .

- $g$  is called the *generator* of  $G$

Useful property: If  $|G|$  is prime, then  $G$  is cyclic. Moreover, all  $g \in G$  except 1 are generators

Examples:



# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$
  - $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$

## Cyclic Group

A group  $G$  is *cyclic* if  $\exists g \in G$  s.t.  $\text{order}(g) = |G|$ . I.e.,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ .

- $g$  is called the *generator* of  $G$

Useful property: If  $|G|$  is prime, then  $G$  is cyclic. Moreover, all  $g \in G$  except 1 are generators

Examples:

- $\mathbb{Z}_N = \langle 1 \rangle$

# Cyclic Groups

Notation: Let  $G$  be a group such that  $|G| = m$

- For  $g \in G$ , define  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$  – the items generated by  $g$
- *order* of  $g \in G$  is smallest  $i \leq m$  such that  $g^i = 1$  (Note that  $i|m$ )
- $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ 
  - $g^x = g^{[x \bmod i]}$
  - $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$

## Cyclic Group

A group  $G$  is *cyclic* if  $\exists g \in G$  s.t.  $\text{order}(g) = |G|$ . I.e.,  $\langle g \rangle = G$ .

- $g$  is called the *generator* of  $G$

Useful property: If  $|G|$  is prime, then  $G$  is cyclic. Moreover, all  $g \in G$  except 1 are generators

Examples:

- $\mathbb{Z}_N = \langle 1 \rangle$
- $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  – Not all  $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  are generators:  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 4\} \neq \mathbb{Z}_7^*$   
but,  $\langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3, 9 = 2, 6, 4, 5\}$  is a generator