

Number Theory

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(Slides partially prepared by Jens Groth)

Why probability theory?

Security definitions

– What is the probability an attacker breaks a cryptographic scheme?

Mathematical tools

Use mathematical reasoning about cryptographic schemes

Probability theory in this module

- Elementary but extensively used
- If you don't have much probability background, you're expected to catch up this week!

Finite sets

- Sets $A = \{1,2\}$ $B = \{1,2,3,4\}$ $C = \{4\}$
- Empty set $\emptyset = \{\}$
- Subsets/supersets A ⊆ B
- Intersection $A \cap B = \{1,2\}$
- Disjoint sets A∩C = ∅
- Union $A \cup C = \{1,2,4\}$
- Relative complement B\A = {3,4}
- Cartesian product $A \times C = \{(1,4),(2,4)\}$
- Cardinality |A| = 2, $|\emptyset| = 0$
- Rules |A∪B| = |A|+|B|-|A∩B|

Probability mass

- Sample space $\Omega = \{a,b,...,z\}$
- Probability mass function
 - $Pr: \Omega \rightarrow [0;1]$
 - -Pr(a) + Pr(b) + ... + Pr(z) = 1
- Uniform distribution
 - All samples have equal probability massPr(a) = Pr(b) = ... = Pr(z)
- Example
 - A die should have roughly 1/6 chance of landing on either side

Events

- Event A⊆Ω
- Define $Pr[A] = \sum_{x \in A} Pr(x)$
- Immediate consequences
 - $-\Pr[\varnothing]=0$
 - $-\Pr[\Omega] = 1$
 - $-0 \le \Pr[A] \le 1$
- Define A and B independent events if Pr[A∩B] = Pr[A] Pr[B]

Various rules

- If A⊆B then Pr[A] ≤ Pr[B]
- $Pr[A \cap B] \leq min(Pr[A], Pr[B])$
- $max(Pr[A],Pr[B]) \le Pr[A \cup B] \le Pr[A] + Pr[B]$
- $Pr[A \cup B] = Pr[A] + Pr[B] Pr[A \cap B]$
- $Pr[A]-Pr[B] \le Pr[A \setminus B] \le Pr[A]$

- Homework for next week:
 - Prove them

Conditional probability

For B with Pr[B] > 0 define

$$Pr[A|B] = Pr[A \cap B] / Pr[B]$$

 Theorem: A and B are independent if and only if Pr[A|B] = Pr[A]

Bayes theorem:

| Distribution | Distribution

$$Pr[A|B] = Pr[B|A] Pr[A] / Pr[B]$$

Stochastic variables

- Random variable X: Ω → R
- Define

$$Pr[X = y] = Pr[X^{-1}(y)]$$

Random variables

$$X: \Omega \to R, Y: \Omega \to S$$
 give the natural joint random variable $(X,Y): \Omega \to R \times S$

Independent random variables if for all x,y
 Pr[(X,Y)=(x,y)] = Pr[X=x] Pr[Y=y]

Dependent stochastic variables

X: Ω→R, Y: Ω→S

Properties

- $-\Pr[X=x|Y=y] = \Pr[(X,Y)=(x,y)] / \Pr[Y=y]$
- $-\Pr[X=x,Y=y] = \Pr[X=x|Y=y] \Pr[Y=y]$
- Useful observation
 - $-\Pr[X=x|Y=y]\Pr[Y=y]+\Pr[X=x|Y\neq y]\Pr[Y\neq y]=\Pr[X=x]$
- Union bound
 - $-\Pr[X=x \text{ or } Y=y] \leq \Pr[X=x] + \Pr[Y=y]$

Why number theory?

- Public key crypto builds on number theory!
- Number theory in this module
 - Elementary but extensively used, will be in the exam
 - You're expected to catch up on number theory by next week!

Prime numbers

- We write a|b if b = ax for some $x \in \mathbf{Z}$
- A natural number N is prime if:
 - Only divisors are 1 and N
 - Examples: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, ...
- If p is a prime and p|ab then p|a or p|b
- Any natural number N has unique prime factorization $N = p_1^{r_1}p_2^{r_2}...p_s^{r_s}$

Modular reduction

 Given integers x,y we can find unique r,s such that

$$y = sx+r$$

with
$$r \in \{0, 1, ..., x-1\}$$

We write

$$z \equiv y \mod x$$

when

$$z-y = sx$$

• If y = sx+r then $y = r \mod x$

Greatest common divisor

- Greatest common divisor of a and b is the largest number that divides both a and b
- We define gcd(a,b) = max{d : d|a and d|b}
- Note, $gcd(p,a) \in \{1,p\}$ when p is prime
- Theorem:
 - For all a,b there are r,s so that gcd(a,b)=ra+sb
 - If c|ab and gcd(a,c)=1 then c|b
 - If a|N and b|N and gcd(a,b)=1 then ab|N

Theorem:

For all a,b there are r,s so gcd(a,b)=ra+sb

- Proof:
 - Define min = $min({ra+sb|ra+sb>0})$
 - gcd ≤ min
 - gcd|a and gcd|b so gcd|ra+sb so gcd|min
 - min ≤ gcd
 - If min|a and min|b then clear min≤gcd
 - True unless [a mod min] or [b mod min] non-zero
 - Assume wlog a = k·min + t for 0<t<min
 - Then t = a k·min = a-k(ra+sb) = (1-kr)a-(ks)b
 - But then by definition min ≤ t giving a contradiction₁₄

Theorem:

If c|ab and gcd(a,c)=1 then c|b

Proof:

- Since gcd(a,c)=1 there are r,s such that 1 = ra+sc
- Multiply by b to getb = rab+scb
- This gives b = (r(ab/c) + sb)c
- So c|b

Theorem: If a|N and b|N and gcd(a,b)=1 then ab|N

Proof:

- Since a|N we can write N=ra
- Since b|ra and gcd(a,b)=1 we get from the previous theorem b|r
- Write r=sb and we now have N=sba

End of material covered on September 30 -

Euclidean algorithm

• Theorem:

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If a|b then gcd(a,b) = a
else gcd(a,b) = gcd(a, b \mod a)
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- Proof:
 - Suppose d|a and d|b, then d|a and d|b-xa
 - Suppose d|a and d|b-xa, then d|a and d|b
 - Can compute gcd(a,b) with b>a as follows:

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gcd(a,c) = gcd(a,c) where c = b \mod a
gcd(a,c) = gcd(d,c) where d = a \mod c
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. . .

Extended Euclidian example

- gcd(13,18) = 1 so $1 = x \cdot 13 + y \cdot 18$
 - Write z = (a,b) for z = a13+b18
 - -18 = (0,1) and 13 = (1,0)
 - $-18 \mod 13$ = 5 = 18 - 13 = (0,1) - (1,0) = (-1,1)
 - $-13 \mod 5$ = 3 = 13 - 2.5 = (1,0) - 2(-1,1) = (3,-2)
 - $-5 \mod 3$ = 2 = 5 - 3 = (-1,1) - (3,-2) = (-4,3)
 - $-3 \mod 2$ = 1 = 3 - 2 = (3,-2) - (-4,3) = (7,-5)
- So 1 = 7.13 5.18

Modular arithmetic

- Many of the usual laws of the integers apply also when computing modulo N
- Associativity:
- (a+b mod N)+c mod N
 - = a+(b+c mod N) mod N
 - = a+b+c mod N
- (ab mod N)c mod N
 - = a(bc mod N) mod N
 - = abc mod N

Commutative ring Z_N

- $(a+b)+c = a+(b+c) \mod N$
- $a+0 = 0+a = a \mod N$
- $a+(-a) = (-a)+a = 0 \mod N$
- a+b = b+a mod N
- $(ab)c = a(bc) \mod N$
- 1a=a1=a mod N
- ab = ba mod N
- a(b+c) = ab+ac mod N
- (a+b)c = ac+bc mod N

Multiplicative inverses?

- Some numbers have inverses
 - Take 3 mod 10
 - $-3 \cdot 7 = 21 = 1 + 20 = 1 \mod 10$
 - So 3 has an inverse
- But not all numbers have inverses
 - Look at 2 mod 10
 - There is no number b so 2b = 1 mod 10
- We define \mathbf{Z}_{N}^{*} = invertible elements in \mathbf{Z}_{N}

Multiplicative inverses

- Element a has multiplicative inverse modulo N if and only if gcd(a,N) = 1
- Proof:
 - If gcd(a,N) = 1 we can write ra+sN=1 so ra = 1 mod N, i.e., r is an inverse to a
 - If on the other hand a has an inverse r, then ra=1 mod N, which means ra+sN=1 and therefore gcd(a,N)=1
- We write a⁻¹ for the inverse of a
- The inverse is unique modulo N

Exercise

- What is **Z**₁₂?
- What is **Z**₁₂*?
- For each element in \mathbf{Z}_{12}^* , find its inverse
- Answers:
 - $-\mathbf{Z}_{12} = \{0,1,2,3,\ldots,11\}$
 - $-\mathbf{Z}_{12}^* = \{1,5,7,11\}$

 $(\gcd(a,12)=1)$

- Inverses: 1,5,7,11
- Trick:
 - $-11 = -1 \mod 12$, $7 = -5 \mod 12$

Exercise II

- What is **Z**₂₃?
- What is **Z**₂₃*?
- For each element in Z₂₃* find its inverse
- Answers:
 - $-\mathbf{Z}_{23} = \{0,1,2,3,\ldots,22\}$
 - $-\mathbf{Z}_{23}^* = \{1,2,3,4,...,22\}$ (gcd(a,23)=1)
 - Element: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, -11, -10, ...
 - Inverse: 1,12,8,6,-9,4,10,3,-5, 7,-5, 5, -7,...

The finite field **Z**_p

- What is Z_p* when p is a prime?
- The elements that have gcd(a,p)=1
- We have gcd(a,p) = 1 for all a not divisible by p
- So $\mathbf{Z}_{p}^{*} = \{1,2,3,...,p-1\}$
- A field is a commutative ring where all non-zero elements are invertible
- Z_p is a field with p elements

Group

- A group G is a set of elements with a binary operation • : G × G → G obeying the following laws:
- Associativity: (a•b)•c = a•(b•c)
- Neutral element: e•a = a•e = a
- Inverse: $a \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} \cdot a = e$
- The group is said to be abelian if it is
 Commutative: a•b = b•a

Example

- $\mathbf{Z}_{N} = \{0,1,...,N-1\}$ is a finite abelian group
- The binary operation is addition mod N
- Associative: (a+b)+c = a+(b+c) mod N
- Neutral element: 0+a=a+0=a mod N
- Inverse: $a+(-a) = (-a)+a = 0 \mod N$
- Commutative: a+b = b+a mod N

Example

- Z_N* is a finite abelian group
- Binary operation is multiplication modulo N
- Associative: (ab)c = a(bc) mod N
- Neutral element: 1a = a1 = a mod N
- Inverse: $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1 \mod N$
- Commutative: ab = ba mod N

Subgroups

- H is called a subgroup of G, and we write H≤G, if H is a subset of G and is a group with the same binary operation
- Example: $\{0,2,4,6\} \le \mathbf{Z}_8$
- Example: $\{1,4\} \le \mathbf{Z}_5^*$
- Lagrange's theorem:
 If H≤G then |H| divides |G|

Lagrange's Theorem

Theorem:

If H ≤ G then |H| divides |G|

Proof:

- •For all g: |H|=|gH|
 - Bijection: h ⇔ gh
- •For all g,g': gH=g' H or gH∩g' H=Ø
 - If gh=g'h' then g=g'h'h-1 so gH=g'h'h-1H=g'H
- •Write $G = g_1H \cup ... \cup g_kH$ with disjoint sets to see |G|=k|H|

Cyclic groups

Definition:

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g^{i} = g \cdot g \cdot ... \cdot g (i times)

g^{0}=1 and g^{-i}=(g^{-1})^{i}
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- Theorem: H={...g⁻²,g⁻¹,1,g,g²,...} is an abelian subgroup of G
- Proof:
 - Closure: gⁱg^j=g^{i+j}
 - Associativity: (gⁱg^j)g^k=g^{i+j+k}=gⁱ(g^jg^k)
 - Neutral element: 1g=g1=g
 - Inverses: gⁱg⁻ⁱ=g⁻ⁱgⁱ=1
 - Commutativity: gⁱg^j=g^{i+j}=g^jgⁱ

Order of finite group

- Definition:
 - The order of a group is the number of elements, i.e., ord(G)=|G|
- Theorem: For all g∈G we have g^{|G|} = 1
- Proof:
 - Let $H = \{...g^{-2},g^{-1},1,g,g^2,...\}$ and let k be the smallest k so $g^i=g^{i+k}$ for some i.
 - Then $g^k=1$ and hence $H = \{1,g,...,g^{k-1}\}$.
 - Since it is a subgroup of G we have k|ord(G) so g|G|=1

Examples

Examples:

- In \mathbb{Z}_6 we have $|\mathbb{Z}_6|$ =6 and for g=2 2+2+2+2+2 = 2·6 = 0 mod 6
- In \mathbb{Z}_7^* we have $|\mathbb{Z}_7^*|=6$ and for g=2 that $2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 = 2^6 = 64 = 1 \mod 7$
- Fermat's Little Theorem:
 If p prime then gp-g=0 mod p
- Proof:
 - Clear if g=0 mod p
 - And else g^{p-1}=1 mod p (previous theorem)

Finite cyclic groups

- A finite group G is cyclic if there is an element g such that G = {1,g,g²,...}
- We say g is a generator of G and write G = <g>
- \mathbf{Z}_{12} is cyclic with generator 1, i.e., we can write all $x = 1+1+...+1 = 1 \cdot x \mod 12$
- $\mathbf{Z}_5^* = \{1,2,2^2,2^3\}$ (all mod 5) is cyclic
- Theorem (without proof): If p is prime then \mathbf{Z}_{p}^{*} is cyclic

Exercise II from earlier

- Is $\mathbf{Z}_{23}^* = \{1, 2, ..., 22\}$ cyclic?
- Yes, p=23 is a prime, so it is cyclic
 - There is a generator g such that $\mathbf{Z}_{23}^* = \langle g \rangle$
- Is g = 2 a generator?
 - No, g=2 gives <2>={2,4,8,16,9,18,13,3,6,12,1}
- Is g = 20 a generator?
 - Simplification: 20 = -3 mod 23
 - Yes, g=-3 gives us (modulo 23) $(-3)^1$ =-3, $(-3)^2$ =9, $(-3)^3$ =-4, $(-3)^4$ =11, $(-3)^5$ =-10, $(-3)^6$ =7, $(-3)^7$ =-2, $(-3)^8$ =6, $(-3)^9$ =5, $(-3)^{10}$ =8, $(-3)^1$ 1=-1, ..., $(-3)^{22}$ =12

Simpler method

- $\mathbf{Z}_{23}^* = \{1, 2, ..., 22\}$ is a cyclic group
- Is g = -3 a generator?
 - Yes, g=-3 gives us (modulo 23) $(-3)^1$ =-3, $(-3)^2$ =9, $(-3)^3$ =-4, $(-3)^4$ =11, $(-3)^5$ =-10, $(-3)^6$ =7, $(-3)^7$ =-2, $(-3)^8$ =6, $(-3)^9$ =5, $(-3)^{10}$ =8, $(-3)^1$ =-1, ..., $(-3)^{22}$ =1
- Observe, <-3> is a subgroup of Z₂₃*
- This means |<-3>| divides $|\mathbf{Z}_{23}^*|=22$
- Four options: |<-3>|∈{1,2,11,22}
- If $(-3)^1 \neq 1$, $(-3)^2 \neq 1$, $(-3)^{11} \neq 1$ then $|<-3>|=|\mathbf{Z}_{23}^*|_{7}$

Probability - Further reading

KL: Appendix A

- Trevisan's Discrete Prob. (first 7 pages)
 - See Moodle, optional

Algebra & Number Theory

Further reading:

- Tsudik's algebra review (slides)
- Boneh's intro to number theory (slides)
- KL Appendix B, 7.1, 7.2

More:

- Shoup's intro to number theory and algebra
- Stallings 8.1, 8.2, 8.3, 8.4