

Few remarks on OWFs:

- Work to compute in "forward" direction must be polynomial. ($\leq p(|x|)$ for some polynomial p)
 - Odds of a bounded adversary succeeding in inversion must be negligible in $|x|$.
(e.g. $2^{-|x|}$)
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More OWF candidates: Modular exponentiation / discrete logs.

Try $p=5$, $g=2$. Look at powers of $g \bmod p$:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} g^1 & = & 2 \\ g^2 & = & 4 \\ g^3 & = & 3 \\ g^4 & = & 1 \end{array} \pmod{5}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_5 = \{0, 1, \dots, 4\}$$

Observation: taking powers of $g=2$ gave us all values in $1, 2, \dots, 4 \bmod p=5$

So in this case, the function

$x \mapsto g^x \bmod p$ is a permutation of the integers $1, 2, \dots, p-1$.

Looking ahead: we'll see this was no accident: for any prime p , we can find g s.t.

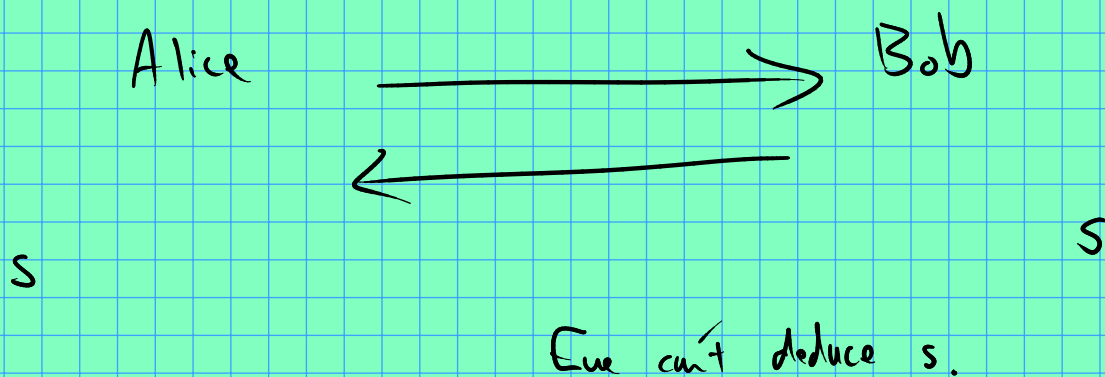
$$\{g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{p-1}\} = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$$

OWF candidate (actually a OW Permutation):

$$x \mapsto g^x \bmod p \text{ (on } \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\})$$

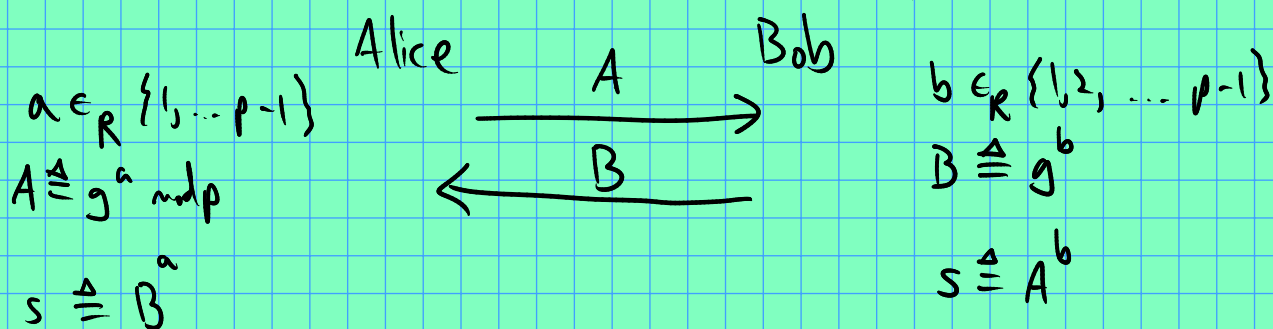
Application: Diffie Hellman Key Exchange

Goal: agree on a secret (random) value over a public channel.



Setup: p prime (say $p \approx 2^{1000}$).

$g \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ s.t. $\{g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{p-1}\} = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\} \pmod{p}$.



$$B^a = (g^b)^a = g^{ba} = g^{ab} = (g^a)^b = A^b \quad \checkmark$$

Note: if DLP is hard, then recovering a from $A = g^a$ is hard for Eve.

Similarly for getting b from $B = g^b$.

This doesn't necessarily preclude computing g^{ab} some other way (w/o knowing a, b directly), but there is no known efficient algo for this setting.

(Some caveats about bad choices of p however...)

Recovering g^{ab} from A, B is the "Diffie Hellman Problem"

Loose ends...

- Efficient computation of $g^a \bmod p$?

a, p are ≈ 1000 bits long!!

$A = 1$;

for ($i=0$; $i < a$; $i++$)
{ $A *= g$; $A \% = p$; }

No! Takes forever! ($\approx 2^{1000}$ steps)

Observation: there are some ^(very) large exponents of g
that we can compute.

E.g. g^{2^i} for "reasonable" values of i
(e.g. $i = 1000$).

repeat: $g *= g$ 1000 times!

⊗ $g \rightarrow g^2 \rightarrow g^4 \rightarrow g^8 \rightarrow g^{16} \rightarrow \dots g^{2^i}$

But this actually gives us what we want! For any exponent a , we can set $g^a \bmod p$ by multiplying the right subset of g^{2^i} 's:

Write a in binary:

$$a = \sum_{i=0}^l 2^i \cdot a_i \quad (\text{where } a_i \in \{0, 1\}.)$$

Then compute $\{g^{2^i}\}_{i=0}^l$.

Then observe that

$$g^a = g^{\sum_{i=0}^l 2^i a_i} = \prod_{i=0}^l g^{2^i a_i} \\ = \prod_{a_i=1} g^{2^i} \quad \checkmark$$

Time? (assume mult/squaring takes l^2 steps)

$$O(l^3)$$

How hard is it to generate parameters? E.g. how hard to find p a large prime? Knowing there are an ∞ of primes might not suffice:

2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, ... 92345997 $(2^{100000} - 1)$ $(2^{1000000000} - 1)$

(gaps could increase in an unreasonable way)

Good news: prime # theorem:

$$\# \text{ primes } < n \approx \frac{n}{\log n}$$

⊗ So if we take a random l bit value, odds that it is prime would be $\approx 1/l$

Not too bad ... provided we have an efficient test for primality. And indeed we do!

Easy version: Fermat test. To check if p

is prime: choose $a \in 1, \dots, p-1$

and make sure $a^p \bmod p = a$

Do this k times. If we always

? \rightarrow set $a^p \bmod p = a$, output "prime"
100% \rightarrow if ever $a^p \bmod p \neq a$, output "not prime".

Turns out there are classes of #'s that can fool this test every time (Carmichael #'s)

However, there is a similar test that does not have this flaw (Miller-Rabin). Really good error bounds!
(Very unlikely to get a false positive.)

And if you're willing to spend $\Theta(l^6)$ time, there's a deterministic test (discovered ≈ 2000 by A.K.S.)

— How to find g s.t. $\{g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{p-1}\} = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$?
(mod p)

When p is not prime, no such g exists.

Fact: such g always exists when p is prime.

Proof: Not now...

Related: when does $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ have a multiplicative inverse?

(i.e., $\exists y \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ s.t. $xy = 1 \bmod n$)

Turns out x is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \gcd(x, n) = 1$.

Reason: $\gcd(x, n) = ax + bn$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(Note: a, b efficiently computable via x gcd algo.)

Say $\gcd(x, n) = 1$. Then $1 = ax + bn$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. $\therefore a = x^{-1}$!

$$1 - bn = ax$$

Now reduce mod n : $1 = ax \pmod{n}$.

$$x = y \Rightarrow x \pmod{n} = y \pmod{n}$$

Want $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

could just reduce $a \pmod{n}$ if necessary to get the "least residue". Say $a > n$. Then define $a' = a \pmod{n}$.

$$a = \underbrace{k}_{a/n} n + \underbrace{a'}_{a \pmod{n}}, \quad a' < n.$$

$$ax = (kn + a')x \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \\ (= 1 + jn \quad \text{since } j \in \mathbb{Z})$$

$$\therefore knx + a'x = 1 + jn$$

$$\Rightarrow a'x = 1 + jn - knx \\ = 1 + \underbrace{(j - kx)n}_{\equiv 0 \pmod{n}}$$

Perfect. $a' = x^{-1} \pmod{n}$

Converse? $\text{gcd}(x, n) > 1 \Rightarrow$ no inverse for x .

Turns out that anything of the form

$$\{ax + bn \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\} \quad \text{is}$$

a multiple of $d = \text{gcd}(x, n)$.

So if $\exists a \in \mathbb{Z}$ st. $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Then $ax = 1 + bn$.

But then $ax - bn = 1$ ✖

(1 not a multiple of $d > 1$)

So indeed, x^{-1} exists $\iff \gcd(x, n) = 1$. ✓

Notation: define $\mathbb{Z}_n^* \triangleq \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n \mid \gcd(x, n) = 1\}$.

Examples: $\mathbb{Z}_6^* = \{1, 5\}$

$$\mathbb{Z}_5^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\} \quad \text{if } p \text{ is prime.}$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_8^* = \{1, 3, 5, 7\}$$

Question: what is $|\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$? (how many elements?)

Easier question: what is $|\mathbb{Z}_{p^k}^*|$? (p prime)

Hint: write elements of \mathbb{Z}_{p^k} in base p :

$$x = \square \cdot p^0 + \square \cdot p^1 + \square \cdot p^2 + \dots + \square \cdot p^{k-1}$$

($\square \in 0, \dots, p-1$)

How many ways to fill in \square 's w/ values in $0, \dots, p-1$
So as to not get a multiple of p ?

$$x = \boxed{p-1 \text{ choices}} \cdot p^0 + \boxed{p \text{ choices}} \cdot p^1 + \dots + \boxed{p \text{ choices}} \cdot p^{k-1}$$

$$\therefore |\mathbb{Z}_{p^k}^*| = p^{k-1} \cdot (p-1)$$

Fact: if $\gcd(n, m) = 1$,

$$\text{Then } |\mathbb{Z}_{nm}^*| = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*| \cdot |\mathbb{Z}_m^*|$$

This, combined w/ the above gives a formula for any integer (provided you know the factorization!)

Notation: $\phi(n) \triangleq |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$.



"Euler function"

(above, rephrased: $\gcd(n, m) = 1 \Rightarrow \phi(nm) = \phi(n) \phi(m)$)

Notation: $\langle g \rangle = \{g^1, g^2, g^3, \dots\}$

How to find $g \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ s.t. $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$?

Method: guess and check... :-

Not so bad if factorization of $p-1$ is known.

Good news: "easy" to choose p so that you know how $p-1$ factors into primes.

(We'll come back to this...)

Candidate OWF: RSA

Setup: let p, q be random ℓ -bit primes.

Set $n = pq$.

choose $e \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$

Public parameters: n, e .

Secret params.: p, q .

$(p-1)(q-1)$

RSA function: for $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, $x \mapsto x^e \bmod n$.

Cool feature: invertible if you know p, q !!