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# CS 6160 Cryptology Lecture 14 a: Introduction to Number Theory

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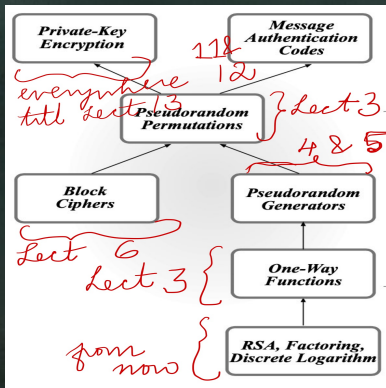
# Venturing into Public Key Cryptography

- We have seen that private/secret/symmetric key cryptography (**encryption schemes and MACs**) can be based on the assumption that **pseudorandom permutations/block ciphers exist**.
- I.e., **there exists some keyed permutation  $F$  for which it is hard to distinguish in polynomial time between interactions with  $F_k$  (for a uniform, unknown key  $k$ ) and interactions with a truly random permutation**.
- It looks like a strong assumption. But we saw some practical constructions resistant to attacks which gives *an indication that existence of PRPs is plausible*.
- But right now we do not know how to prove the pseudorandomness of any of the practical constructions relative to any *reasonable assumption*.

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# Back to OWFs

- It is possible to prove that PRPs exist based on the much milder assumption that one-way functions exist.
- But after Lecture 3 we have not really seen any OWFs.



A top down approach so far.

# Number Theory Recap

- The examples of OWFs we see will be number theoretic in nature and so it is important to have a recap of the theory.
- The study of number theory in cryptography will be **algorithmic** in nature.
- The set of integers are typically denoted as  $\mathbb{Z}$ .
- We say that  **$a$  divides  $b$ ,  $a \mid b$  if there exists an integer  $c$  s.t.  $ac = b$ .**
- If  $a$  does not divide  $b$  we write  $a \nmid b$ .
- **We look at cases when all these integers are positive but the definitions typically make sense for negative integers as well.**
- Exercise: if  $a \mid b$  and  $a \mid c$  then  $a \mid (xb + yc)$  for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
- If  $a \mid b$  and  $a$  is positive, then we call  **$a$  a divisor of  $b$  and if  $a \notin \{1, b\}$  then  $a$  is a nontrivial divisor or factor.**

# Basic Results

- Every integer greater than 1 can be expressed uniquely as product of primes (upto ordering). (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)
- Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then there exists **unique** integers  $q, r$  for which  $a = qb + r$  and  $0 \leq r < b$ . (Division Algorithm)
- The above  $q$  and  $r$  can be computed in polynomial time, **polynomial in the length of the input**.
- What is the length of an integer  $N$ ?  $\|N\| = \lfloor \log N \rfloor + 1$

# Basic Results

- The **greatest common divisor** of  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $\gcd(a, b)$  is the **largest integer  $c$  s.t.  $c \mid a$  and  $c \mid b$ .**
- With either  $a$  (or  $b$ ) zero we take  $\gcd$  as  $b$  (or  $a$ ) and if both are zeroes then  $\gcd$  is n.d.
- **If  $p$  is prime  $\gcd(a, p)$  is either equal to 1 or  $p$ .**
- **If  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  then we say  $a$  and  $b$  are relatively prime.**
- Computing  $\gcd$  in polynomial time : **Euclidean Algorithm!**
- Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then there exist integers  $u, v$  s.t.  
 $ua + vb = \gcd(a, b)$ . (**Extended Euclidean Algorithm**)

# Euclidean Algorithm

- How to compute the  $\gcd$ , greatest common divisor?
- We are used to factoring but for large numbers that may not be possible. **Euclid's algorithm** - more efficient.
- Idea -  $\gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_0 - r_1, r_1)$ .
- We can do this iteratively!

$$\gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_0 \bmod r_1, r_1)$$

$$\gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_0 \bmod r_1)$$



# Euclidean Algorithm

**Input** Two positive integers,  $a$  and  $b$ .

**Output**  $g := \gcd(a, b)$

**Algorithm:**  $\gcd(a, b)$

1. If  $a < b$ , exchange  $a$  and  $b$ . Assume w.l.o.g.  $a \geq b \geq 0$ .
2. If  $b = 0$  then output  $a$ .
3. Else  $\gcd(b, a \bmod b)$ .



# Euclid's Algorithm

$$\gcd(888, 54) =$$

$$888 = 54 * 16 + 24$$

$$54 = 24 * 2 + 6$$

$$24 = 6 * 4 + 0$$

Therefore gcd is 6.

# Basic Results

- Let  $a, b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $N > 1$ .
- $a \bmod N$  denotes the remainder of  $a$  upon division by  $N$ .
- By division algorithm we have  $a \bmod N = r$  where  $0 \leq r < N$ .
- The mapping of  $a$  to  $a \bmod N$  is called reduction modulo  $N$ .
- If  $a \bmod N = b \bmod N$  then we say  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent modulo  $N$ ,  $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$ .
- Note:  $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$  iff  $N \mid (a - b)$ .
- The textbook refers to  $[a \bmod N]$  as the remainder of  $a$  upon division by  $N$ .
- E.g:  $36 \equiv 21 \pmod{15}$  but  $36 \not\equiv [21 \bmod 15] = 6$ .

# Invertible Modulo $N$

- Congruence modulo  $N$  does not in general respect division. I.e., if  $a = a' \bmod N$  and  $b = b' \bmod N \not\Rightarrow a/b = a'/b' \bmod N$ .
- Take  $N = 24$ ,  $3 \cdot 2 = 6 = 15 \cdot 2 \bmod 24$  but  $3 \neq 15 \bmod 24$ .
- Sometimes it is meaningful to define division or **invertible modulo  $N$** .
- If for a given integer  $b$  there exists an integer  $c$  s.t.  $bc = 1 \bmod N$  then  $b$  is invertible modulo  $N$ .
- $c$  is a multiplicative inverse of  $b$  modulo  $N$ .
- $0$  is never invertible.
- If  $c, c'$  are multiplicative inverses of  $b$  modulo  $N$  then  $c \bmod N = c' \bmod N$ , so we can assume  $b^{-1}$  is the **unique multiplicative inverse of  $b$  that lies in  $\{1, \dots, N-1\}$** .

# Invertible Modulo $N$ & Groups

- Which integers are invertible modulo a given modulus  $N$ ?
- Let  $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $b \geq 1$  and  $N > 1$ . Then  $b$  is invertible modulo  $N$  iff  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$ .
- Addition, subtraction, multiplication and computation of inverses modulo  $N$  can all be carried out in polynomial time.
- We have also seen exponentiation can be carried out in polynomial time.
- What is a Group? A set  $G$  with a binary operation  $\circ$  for which the following properties hold:
  - ▶ **Closure:**  $\forall g, h \in G, g \circ h \in G$ .
  - ▶ **Existence of an identity:** There exists an identity  $e \in G$  s.t.  $\forall g \in G, e \circ g = g \circ e = g$ .
  - ▶ **Existence of inverses:**  $\forall g \in G$ , there exists an element  $h \in G$  s.t.  $g \circ h = e = h \circ g$ .  $h$  is called an inverse of  $g$ .
  - ▶ **Associativity:**  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G, (g_1 \circ g_2) \circ g_3 = g_1 \circ (g_2 \circ g_3)$ .

# Basics of Groups

- Commutative groups–
- Finite groups with  $|G|$  the **order of the group**.
- Subgroup of  $G$  : subset of  $G$  that is also a group.
- Usually omit the  $\circ$  notation and represent operations as addition or multiplication.
- $\mathbb{Z}$ : set of integers is a group w.r.t normal addition but not a group w.r.t. multiplication.
- What about  $\mathbb{R}$  the set of real numbers under multiplication?  
**Think about 0!**
- The group we will follow in crypto :  
 $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, \dots, N-1\}, + \bmod N$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*, \times \bmod N$ .
- What is  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ? **The set of all invertible elements modulo  $N$ .**

# Important Results from Groups

- Let  $G$  be a finite group with  $m = |G|$  the order of the group. Then for any element  $g$  in  $G$ ,  $g^m = 1$ .
- Let  $G$  be a finite group with  $m = |G|$  the order of the group. Then for any element  $g$  in  $G$ , and any  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$   $g^x = g^{x \bmod m}$ .
- Let  $G$  be a finite group with  $m = |G|$  the order of the group. Let  $e > 0$  be an integer and define

$$f_e : G \rightarrow G$$
$$f_e(g) = g^e.$$

If  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$  then  $f_e$  is a permutation.

- Also if  $d = e^{-1} \bmod m$ , then  $f_d$  is the inverse of  $f_e$ . Since  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$ ,  $e$  is invertible modulo  $m$ .

# Group $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$

- In the assignment we saw that taking nonzero elements in  $\mathbb{Z}_N$  it can fail to be a group.
- Which elements in  $\{1, \dots, N-1\}$  are invertible? Exactly those for which  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$ .

$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* := \{b \in \{1, \dots, N-1\} : \gcd(b, N) = 1\}.$$

- $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is an abelian group under multiplication modulo  $N$ .  $|\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$  is denoted as  $\varphi(N)$ , the Euler Totient Function.
- For example  $N = 6$ , there are two numbers relatively prime to 6 : 1 and 5 and  $\varphi(6) = 2$ .
- If  $N = pq$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are primes, then  $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$ .



# Computing Euler's Phi Function

## Theorem

*Given the factorization of  $N$ ,*

$$N = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_n^{e_n},$$

*where the  $p_i$ s are all distinct primes and  $e_i$  are positive integers, then*

$$\varphi(N) = \prod_{i=1}^n (p_i^{e_i} - p_i^{e_i-1}).$$

E.g :  $N = 240 = 2^4 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ . We have,

$$\varphi(240) = (2^4 - 2^3)(3^1 - 3^0)(5^1 - 5^0) = 64.$$

Computing  $\varphi(N)$  is as hard as factoring! If we know the factorization of  $N$  then it is easy to calculate  $\varphi(N)$ .

# Euler's Theorem

## Theorem

*Let  $a$  and  $N$  be integers with  $\gcd(a, N) = 1$  (i.e.  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ ) then:*

$$a^{\varphi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}.$$

# Proof of Euler's Theorem

- Let  $A = \{ax : x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*\}$ .  $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}_N^*$  (since  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is group)
- If  $|A| < |\mathbb{Z}_N^*| \Rightarrow \exists i, j \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ , s.t.  $i \neq j$ ,  $ai = aj$  (by pigeonhole principle).
- But  $a^{-1}$  exists, multiplying with it on both sides we get  $i = j$ . Thus  $A = \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ .
- Multiplying elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  and  $A$  we get,

$$\prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} x \bmod N = \prod_{y \in A} y \bmod N = \prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} ax \bmod N$$

$$\prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} x \bmod N = a^{\varphi(N)} \prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} x \bmod N$$

$$a^{\varphi(N)} \equiv 1 \bmod N.$$

# Fermat's Little Theorem - Corollary of Euler's Theorem

In  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$ ,  $\varphi(p) = (p^1 - p^0) = p - 1$ .

Theorem

*Let  $a$  be an integer in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  where  $p$  is a prime . Then,*

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \text{ mod } p.$$

# Cyclic Subgroups of $G$

- We consider a finite group  $G$  of order  $m$ .
- Take any  $g \in G$ , the subgroup generated by  $g$  is  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots\}$ .
- We know that  $g^m = 1$ . Can there be a smaller  $i$  for which  $g^i = 1$ ? Order of  $g$  or its multiples.
- Then  $g^i = 0, g^{i+1} = g^1$ , and so on..
- So  $\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$ .
- If  $i$  is the smallest integer for which  $g^i = 1$  then  $i$  is the order of the group generated by  $g$ .

# Basic Results

- Let  $G$  be a finite group and  $g \in G$  an element of order  $i$ .
  - ▶ for any integer  $x$ ,  $g^x = g^{x \bmod i}$
  - ▶ Something stronger:  $g^x = g^y$  iff  $x = y \bmod i$ .
- Identity element generates a group of order 1, the only one.
- If there exists  $g$  s.t. it has order  $m$  then  $G$  is a cyclic group and  $g$  is a generator, not necessarily the generator!
  - ▶ I.e. every element  $h \in G$  is of the form  $g^x$  for some  $x \in \{0, \dots, m-1\}$ .
- Let  $G$  be a finite group of order  $m$ , say  $g \in G$  has order  $i$ . Then  $i \mid m$ .
- If  $G$  is a group of prime order  $p$ , then  $G$  is cyclic. All the elements of  $G$  are generators except the identity.
- If  $p$  is prime then  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a cyclic group of order  $p-1$ . Is every element a generator?

# Examples

- Consider  $\mathbb{Z}_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$ . It has order  $(5 - 1)(3 - 1) = 8$ .
- $\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 4, 8\}$ . Order of 2 is 4.
- The order 4 divides the order of the group 8. Also 2 is not a generator.
- Should it be necessarily cyclic? In fact  $\mathbb{Z}_{15}^*$  is not cyclic.
- Consider  $\mathbb{Z}_7^*$ . It is cyclic by previous result.
- $\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 4\}$ , so 2 is not a generator.
- 3 is a generator. All elements need not be generators.