

# EECS 475: Introduction to Cryptography Notes

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## **Abstract**

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# Chapter 4

## Introduction

### Lecture 19: Number Theory

#### 4.1 Modular Arithmetic and Euclid's Algorithm

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We define the set of integers,  $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ , and natural numbers,  $\mathbb{N} = \mathbb{Z}^+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ .

**Theorem 4.1.1** (Product of primes). Every integer  $N > 1$  can be written *uniquely* as a product of (power of) primes.

**Lemma 4.1.1** (Division with remainder). Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .  $\exists$  unique integers  $q, r$  such that  $a = q.b + r$  where  $0 \leq r < b$ , and they can be efficiently computed in *polynomial time* relative to the *bit length*: i.e.  $\log_2 a + \log_2 b + O(1)$

With the ability to perform division in polynomial time, we are able to find the **greatest common divisor** of two integers  $a, b$ :

**Definition 4.1.1** (Greatest common divisor). Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then, there exists  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\gcd(a, b) = a.x + b.y$ . Further,  $\gcd(a, b)$  is the *smallest* positive integer that can be written this way.

We claim there is an efficient algorithm, the **Extended Euclidean Algorithm**, that computes not only  $\gcd(a, b)$ , but also the  $x, y$  coefficients above:

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**Algorithm 4.1:** Extended Euclidean Algorithm

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**Data:**  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $a \geq b > 0$

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1 if  $b|a$  then
2   return  $x = 0, y = 1$ 
3 else
4   write  $a = q.b + r$  where  $0 < r < b$ 
5    $x', y' \leftarrow \text{ExtEuclid}(b, r)$ 
6   return  $x = y', y = x' - y'.q$ 
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**Verification of Extended Euclidean Algorithm.** Assuming the recursive call is successful (by induction, we can), we will get back  $x', y'$  that are the gcd of  $b$  and  $r$ :

$$\begin{aligned} b.x' + r.y' &= \gcd(b, r) = \gcd(a, b) \\ b.x' + (a - q.b).y' &= a.y' + b(x' - q.y') \end{aligned}$$

We note that  $y' = x$  and  $x' - q.y' = y$  and so we are done. ■

We claim that the **Extended Euclidean Algorithm** makes  $O(n)$  recursive calls.

## 4.2 Group Theoretic View of Numbers

**Definition 4.2.1.** Let  $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$ , indicating the set of all possible remainders of division by  $N$ , further:  $\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N : \gcd(x, N) = 1\}$ .

**Remark.** For example,  $\mathbb{Z}_6^* = \{1, 5\}$ . Alternatively,  $\mathbb{Z}_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ , showing how  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$ , where  $p$  is any prime number.

## Lecture 20: Group Theory

We continue our review of modular arithmetic. Modular addition, subtraction, and multiplication are all closed in modular arithmetic. We have the property  $a \equiv b \pmod{N} \Leftrightarrow N \mid a - b$  and further, if  $a \equiv a' \pmod{N}$  and  $b \equiv b' \pmod{N}$ , we have:

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- $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{N}$
- $a - b \equiv a' - b' \pmod{N}$
- $a \cdot b \equiv a' \cdot b' \pmod{N}$

However, division is not always possible:

$$3 \cdot 2 \equiv 15 \cdot 2 \pmod{24} \not\equiv 3 \equiv 15 \pmod{24}$$

**Definition 4.2.2 (Invertability).** An integer  $b$  is **invertible** if  $\exists c$  where  $b \cdot c \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ .

**Lemma 4.2.1.** If  $b \geq 1, N > 1$ ,  $b$  is invertible mod  $N \Leftrightarrow \gcd(b, N) = 1$ .

**Proof.** Let  $b \cdot c \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &\Rightarrow b \cdot c - 1 = N \cdot q \\ &\Rightarrow b \cdot c - N \cdot q = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$  since  $\gcd$  is the smallest positive integer that is expressible in this way. ■

Using the [Extended Euclidean Algorithm](#), we can compute inverse mod  $N$  efficiently.

**Definition 4.2.3 (Group).**  $(G, \circ)$ , where  $\circ : G \times G \rightarrow G$  and  $\circ(g, h)$  is denoted as  $g \circ h$ , is a **group** if it satisfies the properties of:

- identity:  $\exists e \in G$  such that  $\forall g \in G: e \circ g = g \circ e = g$
- invertability:  $\forall g \in G, \exists g^{-1}$  (or  $-g$ ) such that  $g \circ g^{-1} = e$
- associativity:  $\forall g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G: (g_1 \circ g_2) \circ g_3 = g_1 \circ (g_2 \circ g_3)$
- (abelian groups):  $\forall g, h \in G, g \circ h = h \circ g$  (i.e commutativity)

**Example.** For  $(\mathbb{Z}_N, + \pmod{N})$  we have:

- identity:  $a + 0 \equiv 0 + a \equiv a \pmod{N}$
- invertability:  $a + (-a) \equiv 0 \pmod{N}$
- associativity:  $a + (b + c) \equiv (a + b) + c \pmod{N}$

**Example.** For  $(\mathbb{Z}_N^*, \cdot \bmod N)$  we have:

- identity:  $a \cdot 1 \equiv 1 \cdot a \equiv a \bmod N$
- invertability:  $a \cdot (a^{-1}) \equiv 1 \bmod N$
- associativity:  $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c \bmod N$

The size of a group, called the **group order**, is denoted as  $|G|$ . For example,  $(\mathbb{Z}_N, +)$  has order  $N$ , and  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot$  has order  $p - 1$

**Theorem 4.2.1.** For a group,  $G$ , where  $m = |G|$ , we have that  $\forall g \in G: g^m = 1$  (where  $g^m = ((g \circ g) \circ g) \circ g \dots$ ).

**Proof.** For simplicity, assume  $G$  is abelian and suppose  $G = \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m\}$  and let  $g \in G$  be arbitrary. Note that

$$g \circ g_i = g \circ g_j \Rightarrow g_i = g_j$$

and so the set  $\{g \circ g_i : i \in \{1, m\}\}$  covers all elements of  $G$  exactly once. Therefore:

$$g_1 \circ \dots \circ g_m = g^m(g_1 \circ \dots \circ g_m) \Rightarrow 1 = g^m.$$

■

**Corollary 4.2.1 (Fermat's Little Theorem).**  $\forall$  prime  $p$ ,  $\gcd(a, p) = 1 \Rightarrow a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p$

**Theorem 4.2.2 (Euler's Theorem).** For  $\Phi(N) = |\{a | 1 \leq a \leq N, \gcd(a, N) = 1\}|$ ,  $|\mathbb{Z}_N^*| = \Phi(N)$  we have:

$$\text{if } \gcd(g, N) = 1 \Rightarrow g^{\Phi(N)} \equiv 1 \bmod N$$

**Corollary 4.2.2.** For  $m = |G| > 1, e \in \mathbb{Z}, \gcd(e, m) = 1$ , define  $d = e^{-1} \bmod m$  and function  $f_e: G \rightarrow G$  as  $f_e(g) = g^e$ . Then,  $f_e$  is a bijection whose inverse is  $f_d$ .

**Definition 4.2.4 (Cyclic Groups).** A group,  $G$ , is considered **cyclic** if  $\exists g \in G$  such that  $G = \{1 = g^0, g^1, g^2, \dots, g^{m-1}\}$ . If this is the case, we say that  $g$  generates  $G$ .

**Example.** For  $\mathbb{Z}_7^* = \{1, \dots, 6\}$ :

$$\text{powers of 3: } \{3^0 \equiv 1, 3^1 \equiv 3, 3^2 \equiv 2, 3^3 \equiv 6, 3^4 \equiv 4, 3^5 \equiv 5\}$$

$$\text{powers of 2: } \{2^0 \equiv 1, 2^1 \equiv 2, 2^2 \equiv 4, 2^3 \equiv 1, 2^4 \equiv 2, \dots\}$$

and so 3 is a generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_7^*$ , but 2 is not.

If there is no  $g \in G$  that generates  $G$ , then  $G$  is not cyclic. Furthermore, when  $g$  does not generate  $G$ , it generates a **subgroup**:

**Definition 4.2.5.**  $G' \subseteq G$ , is a subgroup if  $(G', \circ)$  is a group.

**Theorem 4.2.3 (Lagrange's Theorem).** If  $G' \subseteq G$  is a subgroup, then  $|G'|$  divides  $|G|$ .

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## 4.3 Fast Exponentiation

Suppose we have an element  $g$  and we want to compute  $g^M$ . Instead of naively multiplying  $g$   $M$  times, we can observe that if  $M = 2^m$ :

$$g^M = g^{2^m} = g^{2^{m-1}} \cdot g^{2^{m-1}} = (g^{2^{m-1}})^2.$$

So for any  $M$  we can rewrite it as

$$M = \sum_{i=0}^l m_i \cdot 2^i,$$

allowing us to calculate  $g^m$ :

$$g^m = \prod_{i=0}^l g^{2^i},$$

where each  $g^{2^i}$  can be calculated using the above trick. This results in  $O(l^2)$  multiplications altogether if  $|M| = l$ .

**Corollary 4.3.1.** Fast exponentiation allows us to compute inverses efficiently because  $g^{-1} = g^{|G|-1}$  since  $g^{|G|} = 1$ .

We've shown we can compute  $g^m$  efficiently given  $g$  and  $m$ . But, can we efficiently compute  $m$  from  $g^m$ ? It's unknown, but conjectured to be extremely difficult to do so.

# Appendix



# Appendix A

## Additional Proofs

### A.1 Proof of ??

We can now prove ??.

**Proof of ??.** See [here](#).

