



The Background Information for the Asymmetrical Cryptosystems

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AGENDA

1. The Mathematical Background
2. The Complexity Theory



Part 1: The Mathematical Background

- Groups - Generators - Finite Fields
- Modular math
- Euclides' greatest common divisor
- Fermat's little theorem
- Euler's totient function



Group

A group $\langle G, . \rangle$, closed under a binary operation ($.$), is a structure such that the following axioms are satisfied:

1. Binary operation ($.$) is associative:

$$(a . b) . c = a . (b . c)$$

2. There is an element e in $\langle G \rangle$ such that

$$e . x = x . e = x, \text{ for all } x \in G \text{ (} e \text{ is identity element).}$$

3. For each a in $\langle G \rangle$, there is an a^{-1} in $\langle G \rangle$ such that

$$a . a^{-1} = a^{-1} . a = e \text{ (inverse element).}$$



Some assumptions on group structures:

- A group (G, \cdot) is commutative.
- G is computable; which means that
 1. there is a way of coding it,
 2. the inverse element can be found,
 3. an element of G can be identified with the identity element,
 4. the size of group G is known,
 5. a random element in G can be selected.



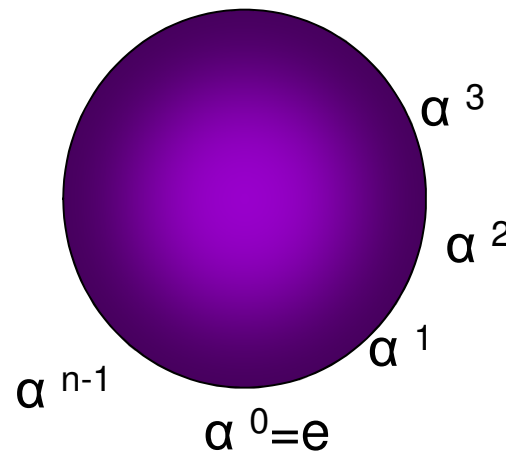
Cyclic Groups

1. Let G is a group and $a \in G$
2. If $G = \{ a^n \mid n \in \mathbb{Z} \}$, then a is a generator of G and the group $G = \langle a \rangle$ is *cyclic*.
3. If the cyclic group $\langle a \rangle$ of G is *finite*, then the order of a is the $|\langle a \rangle|$ of this cyclic subgroup. Otherwise, a is of *infinite* order.
4. If $a \in G$ is finite order m , then m is the *smallest positive integer* such that $a^m = e$.
5. Every cyclic group is abelian (commutative axiom).
6. A subgroup of a cyclic group is cyclic.



Cyclic Groups

1. If $\langle G \rangle$ has an **infinite** number of elements, then there is no two distinct exponents h and k which can point to the same element in the group: $a^h \neq a^k$.
2. But; no so, if $\langle G \rangle$ has **finite** order. Which means that for some $a^h = a^k$





Cyclic Groups: An example

$f(x) = 2^x \pmod{5}$ and $x \in \mathbb{Z}$;

$$2^0 = 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$2^1 = 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$2^2 = 4 \pmod{5}$$

$$2^3 = 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$2^4 = 1 \pmod{5}$$

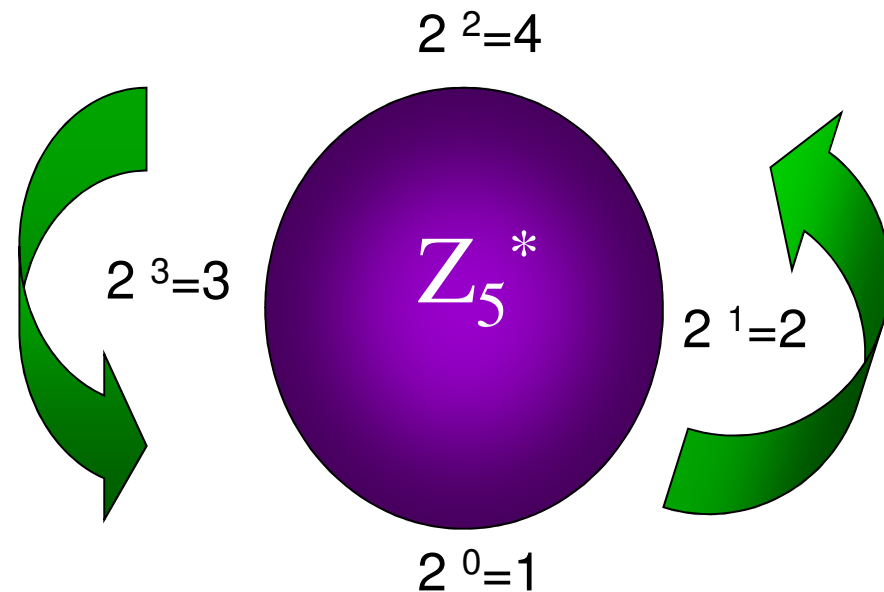
$$2^5 = 2 \pmod{5}$$

...

Even if $h \neq k$, still $a^h = a^k$

$h = 1$ and $k = 4$, and $a = 2$

$$2^1 \pmod{5} = 2^5 \pmod{5}$$



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



Generators: Definition

Let p be a prime, with an integer g such that $g < p$;
then g is a generator (mod p)
if for each integer b from 1 to $(p-1)$,
there exists some integer a where,

$$g^a \equiv b \pmod{p}.$$



Generators: Example

Let $p=11$, and $g=2$, so $(p-1)=10$, then a goes from 1 upto 10

Let's try to obtain all numbers from 1 to 10 in the form of $g^a \equiv b \pmod{p}$ to see if $g=2$ is indeed a generator.

2^1	\equiv	2	$\pmod{11}$
2^2	\equiv	4	$\pmod{11}$
2^3	\equiv	8	$\pmod{11}$
2^4	\equiv	5	$\pmod{11}$
2^5	\equiv	10	$\pmod{11}$
2^6	\equiv	9	$\pmod{11}$
2^7	\equiv	7	$\pmod{11}$
2^8	\equiv	3	$\pmod{11}$
2^9	\equiv	6	$\pmod{11}$
2^{10}	\equiv	1	$\pmod{11}$

Sort
it
out!

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 YES!
2 is a generator for $p=11$



Generators: How to Find the Generators?

- For $p=11$, the other generators are 2, 6, 7, and 8.

But 3 is not since there is no solution to

$$3^a \equiv 2 \pmod{11}$$

- Usually it is hard to test whether a given number is a generator or not.
- The easy way is to use the factorization of $(p-1)$.



Generators: How to Find the Generators?

- Let q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n be the prime factors of $(p-1)$,

Step #1

Find $g^{(p-1)/q} \pmod{p}$ for all values of $q=q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n$

Step #2

g is a generator if value does not equal to 1 for any values of g . Otherwise it is not.



Generators: Example #2

- Let $p=11$, prime factors of $(p-1)=10$ are 2 and 5.

Testing 2 whether
it is a generator:

$$2^{(11-1)/2} \pmod{11} = 10$$

$$2^{(11-1)/5} \pmod{11} = 4$$

Neither result is 1,
so 2 is a generator.

Testing 3 whether
it is a generator:

$$3^{(11-1)/2} \pmod{11} = 1$$

$$3^{(11-1)/5} \pmod{11} = 9$$

One result is 1,
so 3 is NOT a generator.



Finite Fields:

Consists of a finite set of elements for the operations of multiplication and addition which satisfy the below rules:

1. Associativity $a+(b+c) = (a+b)+c$
 $a.(b.c) = (a.b).c$
2. Commutativity $a+b = b+a$
 $a.b = b.a$
3. Distributive law
4. Additive Identity
5. Multiplicative Identity
6. Additive Inverse
7. Multiplicative Inverse

For Example; $\mathbb{Z}/\mathbb{Z}_p \Rightarrow$ The field of integers modulo a prime number p .



Finite Fields:

1. The order of finite field is the number of elements in the field.
2. There exists a finite field of order q if and only if q is a prime power. This field is denoted by F_q
3. If $q = p^m$ where p is a prime and m is a positive integer then
 p is called the characteristic of F_q and,
 m is called the extension degree of F_q



Greatest Common Divisor (gcd):

1. The gcd of the two numbers is the largest number that evenly divides into both of them.

$$\text{Example: } \gcd(15, 10) = 5$$

2. When two numbers have no common factors, their gcd will be 1, and the two numbers are said to be relatively prime (or coprime)

$$\text{Example: } \gcd(10, 21) = 1, \text{ thus } 10 \text{ and } 21 \text{ are relatively prime.}$$



Greatest Common Divisor (gcd): The algorithm

Without the recursion

```
gcd(int a, int b)
{
    int t;
    while(b != 0) {
        t = b;
        b = (a % b);
        a = t;
    }
    return a;
}
```

With the recursion

```
gcd(int a, int b)
{
    if (b = 0) return a;
    else return gcd(b, (a%b) );
}
```



Fermat's Little Theorem:

Let p be a prime,

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ be an integer with $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

Then,

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$



Euler's totient (phi) function:

Definition:

The number of integers between 0 and m that are relatively prime to m is known as the Euler's totient function.

$$\Phi(m) = \# \{a : 1 \leq a \leq m \text{ and } \gcd(a, m) = 1\}$$

The algorithm:

```
totient(int m)
{
    int i, phi;
    phi=1;
    for (i=2; i<m; i++) if (gcd(i, m)==1) phi++;
    return phi;
}
```



Part 2: The Complexity Theory

- Complexity Functions
- Complexity Classes



Complexity Theory:

1. Provides a methodology for analyzing the computational complexity of cryptographic algorithms.
2. Complexity Theory tells whether any given cryptosystem can be broken before the death of the universe regardless of the computing power.



Complexity of Algorithms:

- Strength of a cipher is determined by the computational powers to break it.
- Time complexity (required time) - T
- Space complexity (required memory) - S to break the cipher.
- Strength of a cipher is denoted by O .
- Big O notation : Order of magnitude of the computational complexity.



Complexity Function:

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-1) + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n$$

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \frac{1}{3}n^3 + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{6}n$$

Now, $\frac{1}{3}n^3$ term is much larger than the other terms when n is large.

Thus, $1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2$ is approximately equal to $\frac{1}{3}n^3$

and, the difference between $1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2$

and $\frac{1}{3}n^3$ is more or less a multiple of n^2



Complexity Function:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Complicated} \\ \text{function of } n \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Simple} \\ \text{function of } n \end{array} \right] + \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{A bound for the} \\ \text{size of the error} \\ \text{in terms of } n \end{array} \right]$$

$$\underbrace{1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2}_{\text{Complicated function of } n} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{3}n^3}_{\text{Simple function of } n} + \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{Error that is} \\ \text{not much} \\ \text{larger than } n^2 \end{array} \right]$$

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2 = \frac{1}{3}n^3 + O(n^2)$$



Complexity Function:

Definition: Big-Oh Notation

Suppose that $f(n)$, $g(n)$, and $h(n)$ are functions. The formula

$$f(n) = g(n) + O(h(n))$$

means that there is a constant C and a starting value n_0 so that

$$|f(n) - g(n)| \leq C|h(n)| \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Means that the difference between $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ is NO larger than a constant multiple of $h(n)$.



Complexity Function:

Definition: Big-Omega Notation (inequality sign of Big-O reverses)

Suppose that $f(n)$, $g(n)$, and $h(n)$ are functions. The formula

$$f(n) = g(n) + \Omega(h(n))$$

means that there is a constant C and a starting value n_0 so that

$$|f(n) - g(n)| \geq C|h(n)| \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

frequently $g=0$ in which case $f(n) = \Omega(h(n))$ means that $|f(n)| \geq C|h(n)|$ for all sufficiently large values of n .



Complexity Function:

Definition: Big-Theta Notation (combination of both big-O and big- Ω)

Suppose that $f(n)$, $g(n)$, and $h(n)$ are functions. If

$$f(n) = g(n) + O(h(n))$$

and

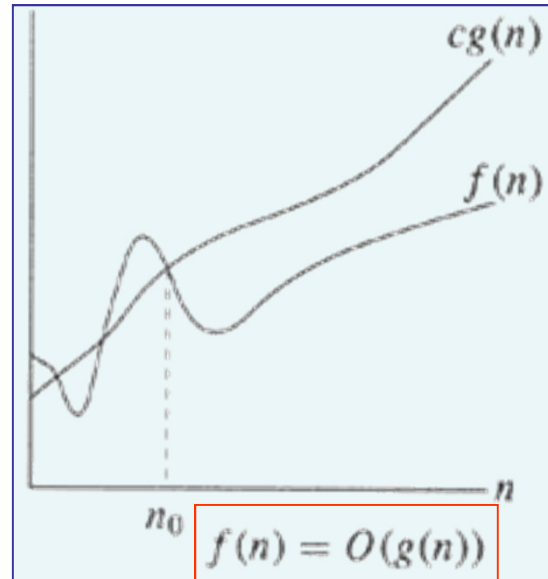
$$f(n) = g(n) + \Omega(h(n))$$

then

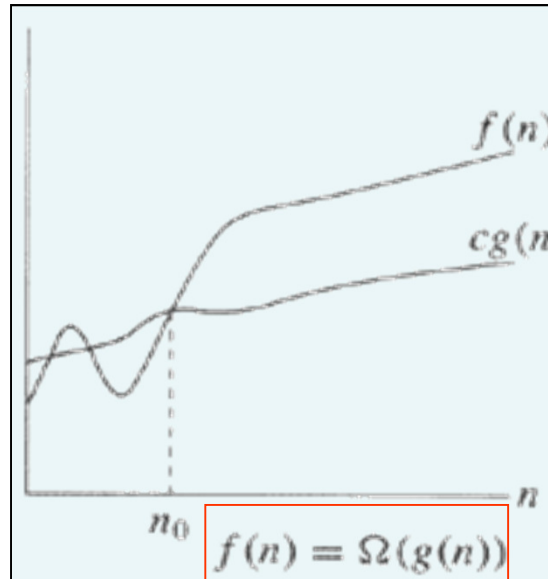
$$f(n) = g(n) + \Theta(h(n))$$



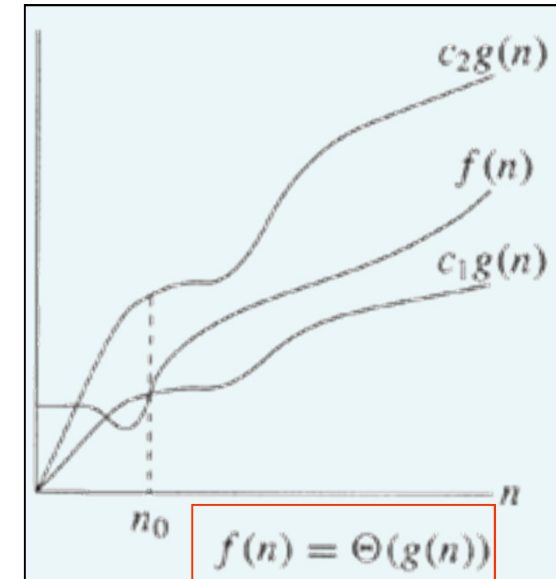
Complexity Function:



Upper Bound



Lower Bound



Same Order



Complexity Function:

If the TIME complexity of a given algorithm is
 $3n^3+5n+23$

then; the computational complexity is
 $O(n^3)$

This notation allows us to determine how the
TIME & SPACE
requirements are affected by the size of an input.



Complexity Function:

Here is an example :


$T=O(n)$  double the input double the time,

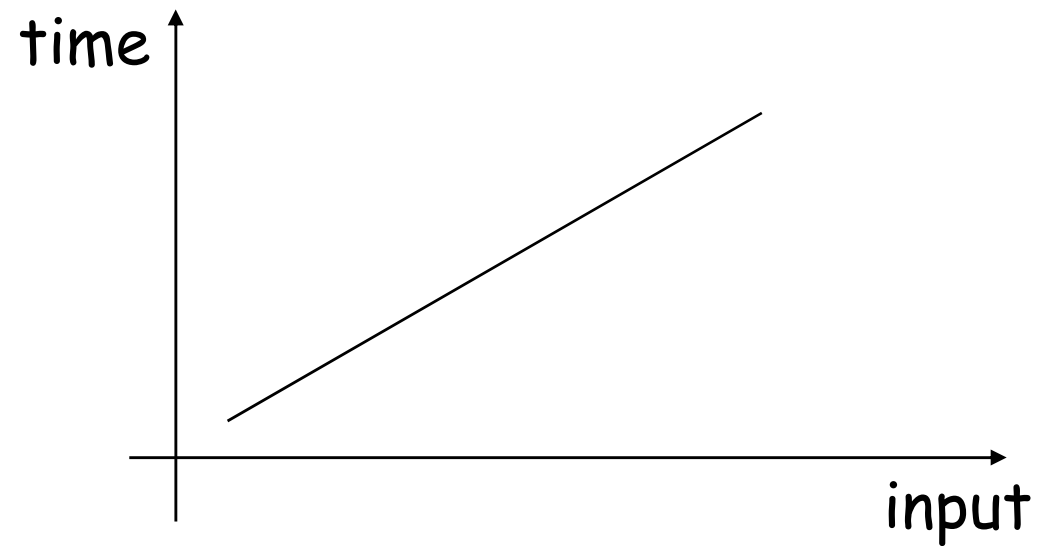
$T=O(n^2)$  adding 1 bit doubles the time,

$T=O(n^3)$  adding 1 bit triples the time.




Complexity Function:

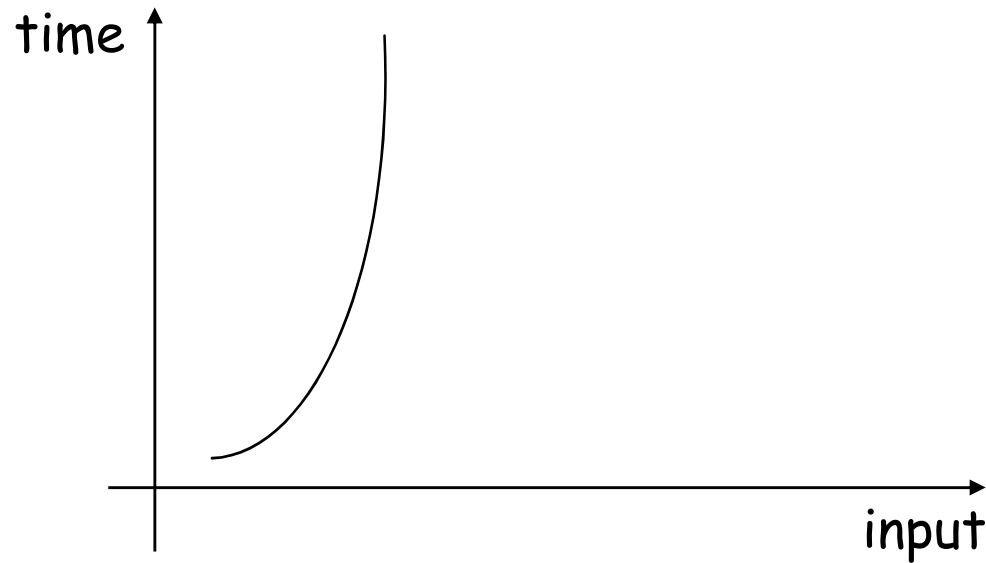
$O(n^+)$  polynomial





Complexity Function:

$O(t^{f(n)})$  exponential





Complexity Function:

Class	Complexity	# of Ops	Time
Constant	$O(1)$	1	1 microsec
Linear	$O(n)$	10^6	1 sec
Quadratic	$O(n^2)$	10^{12}	11.6 days
Cubic	$O(n^3)$	10^{18}	32.000 years
Exp	$O(2^n)$	$10^{301.030}$	$10^{301.006}$ times the age of the universe.

Big Numbers:



Age of the Planet	10^9 ($= 2^{30}$) years
Age of the Universe	10^{10} ($= 2^{34}$) years
Total Lifetime of Universe	10^{11} ($= 2^{37}$) years
Number of Atoms in the Planet	10^{51} ($= 2^{170}$)
Number of Atoms in the Sun	10^{57} ($= 2^{190}$)
Number of Atoms in the Galaxy	10^{67} ($= 2^{223}$)
Number of Atoms in the Universe	10^{77} ($= 2^{265}$)



Complexity of a Problem:

Problem Classes

1. Tractable : problems that can be solved with polynomial-time algorithm.
2. Intractable : problems that can not be solved within polynomial-time. HARD !



Complexity Classes:

1. Class P (Polynomial): A function is in class P if it can be computed by deterministic computer in a polynomial time.
2. Class NP (Non Deterministic but Polynomial): Computation by a non-deterministic computer in a polynomial time.



Complexity Classes:

Class NP - complete : If any of problems is in P then all NP are in P meaning that one solution will be equally valid for all...



Complexity Classes: Traveling Salesman

A traveling salesman has to visit n cities.
What is the shortest route that allows
him to visit each city exactly once?

Easy when $n=2, 3, 4$ even 5 . But, problem
starts when and if $n=25$ or more.



Complexity Classes: Factorization

Factoring a composite number to find its prime factors.

i.e. $60 = 2 \times 2 \times 3 \times 5$



Complexity Classes: Factorization

Prime	Prime	Product	Time
<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>	<hr/>
p	q	$n=p \times q$	
223	293	65339	10 sec.

Class : P



Complexity Classes: Factorization

Product	Prime	Prime	Time
$n=p \times q$	p	q	
65339	223	293	1 hour

Class: NP



Complexity Classes: Factorization

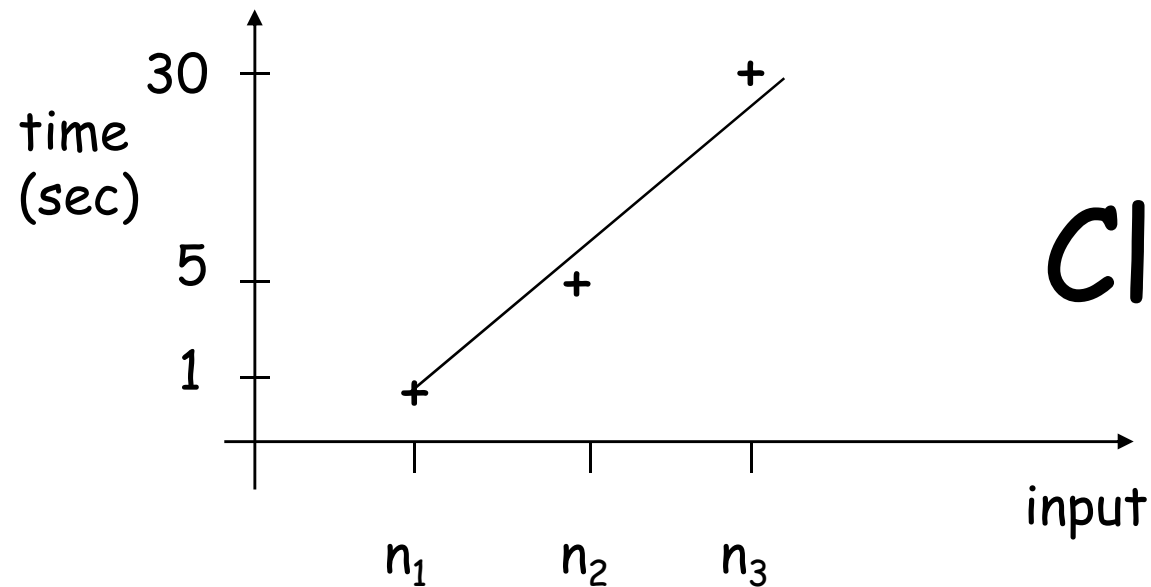
instance : $n=p \times q$

input	operation	time
$n_1=p_1 \times q_1$	$3 \times 5 = 15$	1 sec
$n_2=p_2 \times q_2$	$11 \times 17 = 187$	5 sec
$n_3=p_3 \times q_3$	$223 \times 293 = 65339$	30 sec



Complexity Classes: Factorization

instance : $n=p \times q$



Class: P



Complexity Classes: Factorization

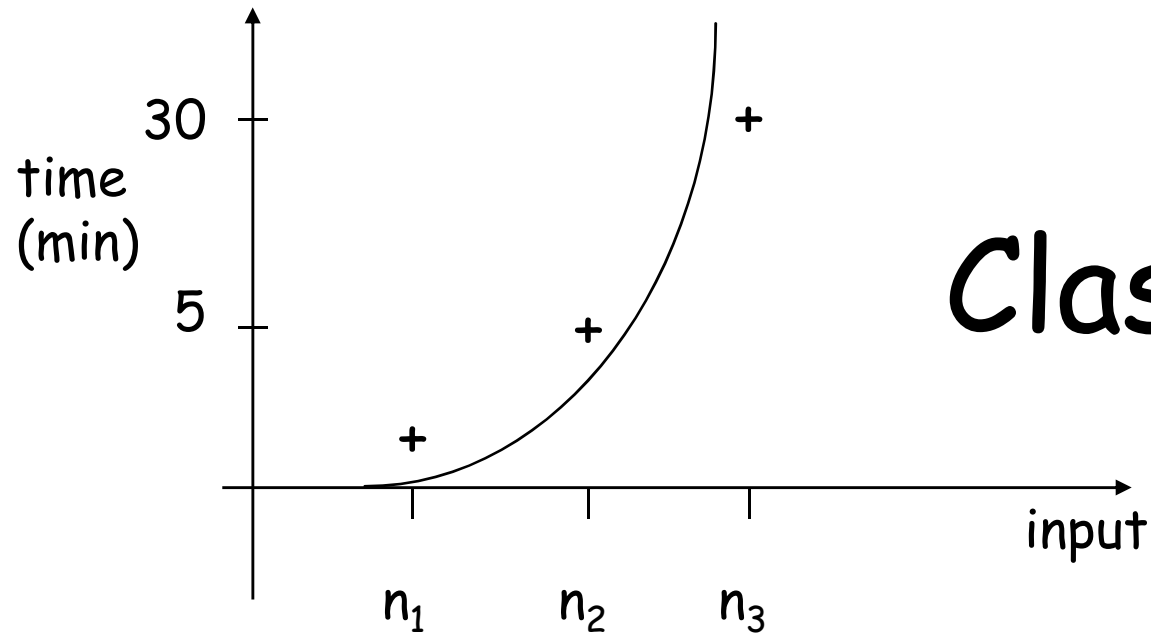
instance : given n , product of two primes, factor it.

input	operation	time
n_1	$15 = 3 \times 5$	1 sec
n_2	$187 = 11 \times 17$	5 min
n_3	$65339 = 223 \times 293$	1 hr

Complexity Classes: Factorization



instance : $n; p, q$



Class: NP