# Introduction to Cryptology 

Lecture 21

## Announcements

- HW 9 up on Canvas, due $4 / 28$
- **Deadline extended


## Agenda

- Last time:
- Number theory background (8.2)
- This time:
- Number theory background
- Hard problems


## Cyclic Groups

For a finite group $G$ of order $m$ and $g \in G$, consider:

$$
\langle g\rangle=\left\{g^{0}, g^{1}, \ldots, g^{m-1}\right\}
$$

$\langle g\rangle$ always forms a cyclic subgroup of $G$. However, it is possible that there are repeats in the above list.
Thus $\langle g\rangle$ may be a subgroup of order smaller than $m$.
If $\langle g\rangle=G$, then we say that $G$ is a cyclic group and that $g$ is a generator of $G$.

## Examples

## Consider $Z^{*}{ }_{13}$ :

2 is a generator of $Z^{*}{ }_{13}$ :

| $2^{0}$ | 1 |
| :---: | :---: |
| $2^{1}$ | 2 |
| $2^{2}$ | 4 |
| $2^{3}$ | 8 |
| $2^{4}$ | $16 \rightarrow 3$ |
| $2^{5}$ | 6 |
| $2^{6}$ | 12 |
| $2^{7}$ | $24 \rightarrow 11$ |
| $2^{8}$ | $22 \rightarrow 9$ |
| $2^{9}$ | $18 \rightarrow 5$ |
| $2^{10}$ | 10 |
| $2^{11}$ | $20 \rightarrow 7$ |
| $2^{12}$ | $14 \rightarrow 1$ |

3 is not a generator of $Z^{*}{ }_{13}$ :

| $3^{0}$ | 1 |
| :---: | :---: |
| $3^{1}$ | 3 |
| $3^{2}$ | 9 |
| $3^{3}$ | $27 \rightarrow 1$ |
| $3^{4}$ | 3 |
| $3^{5}$ | 9 |
| $3^{6}$ | $27 \rightarrow 1$ |
| $3^{7}$ | 3 |
| $3^{8}$ | 9 |
| $3^{9}$ | $27 \rightarrow 1$ |
| $3^{10}$ | 3 |
| $3^{11}$ | 9 |
| $3^{12}$ | $27 \rightarrow 1$ |

## Definitions and Theorems

Definition: Let $G$ be a finite group and $g \in G$. The order of $g$ is the smallest positive integer $i$ such that $g^{i}=1$.

Ex: Consider $Z_{13}^{*}$. The order of 2 is 12 . The order of 3 is 3 .

Proposition 1: Let $G$ be a finite group and $g \in G$ an element of order $i$. Then for any integer $x$, we have $g^{x}=g^{x \bmod i}$.

Proposition 2: Let $G$ be a finite group and $g \in G$ an element of order $i$. Then $g^{x}=g^{y}$ iff $x \equiv y \bmod i$.

## More Theorems

Proposition 3: Let $G$ be a finite group of order $m$ and $g \in G$ an element of order $i$. Then $i \mid m$.

Proof:

- We know by the generalized theorem of last class that $g^{m}=1=g^{0}$.
- By Proposition 1, we have that $g^{m}=g^{m \bmod i}=g^{0}$.
- By the $\leftarrow$ direction of Proposition 2 , we have that $0 \equiv \operatorname{mmod} i$.
- By definition of modulus, this means that $i \mid m$.

Corollary: if $G$ is a group of prime order $p$, then $G$ is cyclic and all elements of $G$ except the identity are generators of $G$.

Why does this follow from Proposition 3?
Theorem: If $p$ is prime then $Z^{*}$ is a cyclic group of order $p-1$.

## Prime-Order Cyclic Groups

Consider $Z^{*}{ }_{p}$, where $p$ is a strong prime.

- Strong prime: $p=2 q+1$, where $q$ is also prime.
- Recall that $Z^{*}{ }_{p}$ is a cyclic group of order

$$
p-1=2 q .
$$

The subgroup of quadratic residues in $Z^{*}{ }_{p}$ is a cyclic group of prime order $q$.

## Example of Prime-Order Cyclic Group

Consider $Z^{*}{ }_{11}$.
Note that 11 is a strong prime, since $11=2 \cdot 5+1$.
$g=2$ is a generator of $Z^{*}{ }_{11}$ :

| $2^{0}$ | 1 |
| :---: | :---: |
| $2^{1}$ | 2 |
| $2^{2}$ | 4 |
| $2^{3}$ | 8 |
| $2^{4}$ | $16 \rightarrow 5$ |
| $2^{5}$ | 10 |
| $2^{6}$ | $20 \rightarrow 9$ |
| $2^{7}$ | $18 \rightarrow 7$ |
| $2^{8}$ | $14 \rightarrow 3$ |
| $2^{9}$ | 6 |

The even powers of $g$ are the "quadratic residues" (i.e. the perfect squares). Exactly half the elements of $Z^{*} p$ are quadratic residues.

Note that the even powers of $g$ form a cyclic subgroup of order $\frac{p-1}{2}=q$.

Verify:

- closure (Multiplication translates into addition in the exponent. Addition of two even numbers $\bmod p-2$ gives an even number $\bmod p-1$, since for prime $p>3, p-1$ is even.)
- Cyclic -any element is a generator. E.g. it is easy to see that all even powers of $g$ can be generated by $g^{2}$.


## The Discrete Logarithm Problem

The discrete-log experiment $D \log _{A, \boldsymbol{G}}(n)$

1. Run $\boldsymbol{G}\left(1^{n}\right)$ to obtain $(G, q, g)$ where $G$ is a cyclic group of order $q$ (with $|\mid q \|=n$ ) and $g$ is a generator of $G$.
2. Choose a uniform $h \in G$
3. $A$ is given $G, q, g, h$ and outputs $x \in Z_{q}$
4. The output of the experiment is defined to be 1 if $g^{x}=h$ and 0 otherwise.

Definition: We say that the DL problem is hard relative to $\boldsymbol{G}$ if for all ppt algorithms $A$ there exists a negligible function neg such that

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[D \log _{A, G}(n)=1\right] \leq \operatorname{neg}(n)
$$

## The Diffie-Hellman Problems

## The CDH Problem

Given $(G, q, g)$ and uniform $h_{1}=g^{x_{1}}, h_{2}=g^{x_{2}}$, compute $g^{x_{1} \cdot x_{2}}$.

## The DDH Problem

We say that the DDH problem is hard relative to $\boldsymbol{G}$ if for all ppt algorithms $A$, there exists a negligible function neg such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mid \operatorname{Pr}\left[A\left(G, q, g, g^{x}, g^{y}, g^{z}\right)=1\right] \\
& \quad-\operatorname{Pr}\left[A\left(G, q, g, g^{x}, g^{y}, g^{x y}\right)=1\right] \mid \leq n e g(n) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Relative Hardness of the Assumptions

## Breaking DLog $\rightarrow$ Breaking CDH $\rightarrow$ Breaking DDH

DDH Assumption $\rightarrow$ CDH Assumption $\rightarrow$ DLog Assumption

