# Introduction to Cryptology 

Lecture 21

## Announcements

- HW7 due Tuesday 4/25


## Agenda

- Last time:
- Repeated Squaring Algorithm
- Extended Euclidean Algorithm
- Chinese Remainder Theorem
- This time:
- More Number theory background
- Hard problems


## Generalized Theorem

Theorem: Let $G$ be a finite group with $m=|G|$, the order of the group. Then for any element $g \in G, g^{m}=1$.

Corollary of Fermat's Little Theorem is a special case of the above when $G$ is the multiplicative group $Z^{*}{ }_{p}$ and $p$ is prime.

## Multiplicative Groups Mod N

- What about multiplicative groups modulo $N$, where $N$ is composite?
- Which numbers $\{1, \ldots, N-1\}$ have multiplicative inverses mod $N$ ?
$-a$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)=1$ has multiplicative inverse by Extended Euclidean Algorithm.
$-a$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)>1$ does not, since $\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)$ is the smallest positive integer that can be written in the form $X a+Y N$ for integer $X, Y$.
- Define $Z^{*}{ }_{N}:=\{a \in\{1, \ldots, N-1\} \mid \operatorname{gcd}(a, N)=1\}$.
- $Z^{*}{ }_{N}$ is an abelian, multiplicative group.
- Why does closure hold?


## Order of Multiplicative Groups Mod N

- What is the order of $Z^{*}{ }_{N}$ ?
- This has a name. The order of $Z^{*}{ }_{N}$ is the quantity $\phi(N)$, where $\phi$ is known as the Euler totient function or Euler phi function.
- Assume $N=p \cdot q$, where $p, q$ are distinct primes.
$-\phi(N)=N-p-q+1=p \cdot q-p-1+1=$ $(p-1)(q-1)$.
- Why?


## Order of Multiplicative Groups Mod N

General Formula:
Theorem: Let $N=\prod_{i} p_{i}{ }^{e_{i}}$ where the $\left\{p_{i}\right\}$ are distinct primes and $e_{i} \geq 1$. Then

$$
\phi(N)=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{e_{i}-1}\left(p_{i}-1\right)
$$

## Another Special Case of Generalized Theorem

Corollary of generalized theorem:
For $a$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, N)=1$ :

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

## Another Useful Theorem

Theorem: Let $G$ be a finite group with $m=|G|>$ 1. Then for any $g \in G$ and any integer $x$, we have

$$
g^{x}=g^{x \bmod m}
$$

Proof: We write $x=a \cdot m+b$, where $a$ is an integer and $b \equiv x \bmod m$.

- $g^{x}=g^{a \cdot m+b}=\left(g^{m}\right)^{a} \cdot g^{b}$
- By "generalized theorem" we have that

$$
\left(g^{m}\right)^{a} \cdot g^{b}=1^{a} \cdot g^{b}=g^{b}=g^{x \bmod m}
$$

## An Example:

Compute $3^{25} \bmod 35$ by hand.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\phi(35)=\phi(5 \cdot 7)=(5-1)(7-1)=24 \\
3^{25} \equiv 3^{25} \bmod 24 \bmod 35 \equiv 3^{1} \bmod 35 \\
\equiv 3 \bmod 35 .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Background for RSA

Recall that we saw last time that

$$
a^{m} \equiv a^{m \bmod \phi(N)} \bmod N
$$

For $e \in Z^{*}{ }_{N}$, let $f_{e}: Z_{N}^{*} \rightarrow Z_{N}^{*}$ be defined as $f_{e}(x):=x^{e} \bmod N$.
Theorem: $f_{e}(x)$ is a permutation.
Proof: To prove the theorem, we show that $f_{e}(x)$ is invertible.
Let $d$ be the multiplicative inverse of $e \bmod \phi(N)$.
Then for $y \in Z_{N}^{*}, f_{d}(y):=y^{d} \bmod N$ is the inverse of $f_{e}$.
To see this, we show that $f_{d}\left(f_{e}(x)\right)=x$.
$f_{d}\left(f_{e}(x)\right)=\left(x^{e}\right)^{d} \bmod N=x^{e \cdot d} \bmod N=x^{e \cdot d \bmod \phi(N)} \bmod N=x^{1} \bmod N=$ $x \bmod N$.

Note: Given $d$, it is easy to compute the inverse of $f_{e}$
However, we saw in the homework that given only $e, N$, it is hard to find $d$, since finding $d$ implies that we can factor $N=p \cdot q$.
This will be important for cryptographic applications.

## Toolbox for Cryptographic Multiplicative Groups

| Can be done efficiently | No efficient algorithm believed to exist |
| :---: | :---: |
| Modular multiplication | Factoring |
| Finding multiplicative inverses (extended | RSA problem |
| Euclidean algorithm) |  |
| Modular exponentiation (via repeated <br> squaring) | Discrete logarithm problem |
|  | Diffie Hellman problems |

We have seen the efficient algorithms in the left column. We will now start talking about the "hard problems" in the right column.

## 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 |
| $3^{12}$ | $27 \rightarrow 1$ |

