

# Number Theory & Cryptographic Hardness Assumptions

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# Outline

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- One-way functions
- Prime numbers
- Modular Arithmetic

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- The Discrete Logarithm
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# Introduction

## One-way functions

*“One goal of this chapter is to introduce various problems believed to be hard, and to present conjectured one-way functions based on those problems.”*

*“[I]n the public-key setting all known constructions rely on hard number-theoretic problems.”*

# Introduction

## One-way functions

The inverting experiment  $\text{Invert}_{\mathcal{A},f}(n)$

1. Choose uniform  $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ , and compute  $y := f(x)$ .
2.  $\mathcal{A}$  is given  $1^n$  and  $y$  as input, and outputs  $x'$ .
3. The output of the experiment is defined to be 1 if  $f(x') = y$ , and 0 otherwise.

# Introduction

## One-way functions

### Definition 7.1

A function  $f : \{0, 1\}^* \leftarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  is one-way if the following two conditions hold:

1. **(Easy to compute):** There exists a polynomial-time algorithm  $M_f$  computing  $f$ ; that is,  $M_f(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$ .
2. **(Hard to compute):** For every probabilistic polynomial-time algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$ , there is a negligible function  $negl$  such that

$$\Pr [Invert_{\mathcal{A}, f}(n) = 1] \leq negl(n)$$

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# Introduction

## Divisibility

For two integers  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a$  divides  $b$ , written as  $a \mid b$ , if there exists an integer  $c$  such that  $ac = b$ .

The *greatest common divisor* of two integers  $a, b$ , written  $\gcd(a, b)$ , is the largest integer  $c$  such that  $c \mid a$  and  $c \mid b$ . We say that  $a$  and  $b$  are relatively prime if  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ .



# Introduction

## Primes

A positive integer  $p > 1$  is *prime* if it has no factors; that is, it has only two divisors: 1 and itself.

A positive integer greater than 1 that is not a prime is called a *composite*. That is because all composites can be uniquely expressed as a product of primes.

$$N = \prod p_i^{e_i}$$

where  $p_i$  are distinct primes and  $e_i \geq 1$  for all  $i$ .

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# Modular Arithmetic

## Division with remainders

### Proposition 8.1

Let  $a$  be an integer and let  $b$  be a positive integer. Then there exist unique integers  $q, r$  for which  $a = qb + r$  and  $0 \leq r < b$ .

### Modulo Reduction

We define  $[a \bmod N]$  to be equal to this  $r$ . Note that  $0 \leq [a \bmod N] < N$ .

# Modular Arithmetic

## congruence Modulo

We say that  $a$  and  $b$  are *congruent modulo*  $N$ , written as  $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$ , if  $[a \pmod{N}] = [b \pmod{N}]$ . Note that  $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$  if and only if  $N \mid (a - b)$ .

### Example

$$36 \equiv 21 \pmod{15} \text{ as } 15 \mid (36 - 21).$$

Congruence modulo is an equivalence functions as it is reflexive ( $\forall a, a \equiv a \pmod{N}$ ), symmetric ( $a \equiv b \pmod{N} \Rightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{N}$ ), and transitive ( $a \equiv b \pmod{N} \wedge b \equiv c \pmod{N} \Rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{N}$ ).

# Modular Arithmetic

congruence Modulo

Congruence module respects addition and multiplication

Example

$$[25 \cdot 2 \bmod 5] = [25 \bmod 5] \cdot [2 \bmod 5] = 25 \cdot 2 \equiv 50 \bmod 5$$

# Modular Arithmetic

## congruence Modulo

Congruence module does not (in general) respect division.

### Example

$$3 \cdot 2 \equiv 6 \equiv 15 \cdot 2 \pmod{24}, \text{ but } 3 \not\equiv 15 \pmod{24}.$$

However; If for a given integer  $b$  there exists an integer  $c$  such that  $bc = 1 \pmod{N}$ , then we say that  $b$  is *invertible* modulo  $N$ , and call  $c$  a inverse of  $b$ . When  $b$  is invertible then we define the inverse as  $b^{-1}$  and define division as

$$[a/b \pmod{N}] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} [ab^{-1} \pmod{N}]$$

# Modular Arithmetic

congruence Modulo

## Proposition 8.7

Let  $b, N$  be integers, with  $b \geq 1$  and  $N > 1$ . Then  $b$  is invertible modulo  $N$  if and only if  $\gcd(b, N) = 1$ .

# Groups

## Abelian groups

### Definition 8.9

An abelian group is a finite set  $\mathbb{G}$ , with  $|\mathbb{G}|$  denoting the order of the set, along with a binary operator  $\circ$  for which the following conditions hold:

- ▶ **(Closure:)** For all  $g, h \in \mathbb{G}$ ,  $g \circ h \in \mathbb{G}$ .
- ▶ **(Existence of inverses:)** There exists an identity  $e \in \mathbb{G}$  such that for all  $g \in \mathbb{G}$ ,  $e \circ g = g = g \circ e$ .
- ▶ **(Associativity:)** For all  $g, h, j \in \mathbb{G}$ ,  $(g \circ h) \circ j = g \circ (h \circ j)$ .
- ▶ **(Commutativity:)** for all  $g, h \in \mathbb{G}$ ,  $g \circ h = h \circ g$ .



# Groups

## Additive groups

### Example

Let  $N > 1$  be an integer. The set  $0, \dots, N - 1$  with respect to addition modulo  $N$  is an abelian group of order  $N$ , where the identity of the group is  $0$ . We denote this group  $\mathbb{Z}_N$ .

# Groups

## Group exponentiation

It is often useful to describe the group operation applied  $m$  times to a fixed element  $g$ , where  $m$  is a positive integer. When using additive notation we express this  $m \cdot g$ ; that is

$$m \cdot g \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{g + \cdots + g}_{m \text{ times}}$$

Thankfully, the notation adheres to familiar arithmetic rules such as:

$$(mg) + (m'g) = g \cdot (m + m')$$

$$m \cdot (m'g) = g \cdot (mm')$$

$$1 \cdot g = g$$

# Groups

## Group exponentiation

When using multiplicative notation we express this  $g^m$ ; that is

$$g^m \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \underbrace{g \cdots g}_{m \text{ times}}$$

Thankfully, the notation adheres to familiar arithmetic rules such as:

$$g^m \cdot g^{m'} = g^{m+m'}$$

$$(g^m)^{m'} = g^{mm'}$$

$$g^m \cdot h^m = (gh)^m$$

$$g^1 = g$$

# Groups

## Inverses

### Lemma 8.13

Let  $\mathbb{G}$  be a group and  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{G}$ . If  $ac = bc$ , then  $a = b$ .

### Proof.

We know that  $ac = bc$ . Multiplying both sides with the unique inverse  $c^{-1}$  of  $c$ , we obtain  $a = b$ . In detail:

$$(ac)c^{-1} = (bc)c^{-1} \Rightarrow a(cc^{-1}) = b(cc^{-1}) \Rightarrow a = b$$



# Groups

## Group exponentiation

### Theorem 8.14

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

### Proof.

Fix an arbitrary  $g \in \mathbb{G}$ , and let  $g_1, \dots, g_m$  be the elements of  $\mathbb{G}$ . We claim that

$$g_1 \cdots g_m = (gg_1) \cdots (gg_m)$$

Remember that  $gg_i = gg_j \Rightarrow g_i = g_j$ . Following arithmetic rules we can 'pull out' all occurrences of  $g$  and obtain

$$g_1 \cdots g_m = (gg_1) \cdots (gg_m) = g^m \cdot (g_1 \cdots g_m)$$



# Groups

## Group exponentiation

### Corollary 8.17

Let  $\mathbb{G}$  be a finite group with  $m = |\mathbb{G}|$ . Let  $e > 0$  be an integer, and define the function  $f_e : \mathbb{G} \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$  by  $f_e(g) = g^e$ . If  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$ , then  $f_e$  is a permutation. Moreover, if  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{m}$ , then  $f_d$  is the inverse of  $f_e$ . (Recall proposition 8.7:  $\gcd(e, m) = 1$  implies that  $e$  is invertible modulo  $m$ ).

### Proof.

Since  $\mathbb{G}$  is finite, the second part of the claim implies the first; this, we need only show that  $f_d$  is the inverse of  $f_e$ . This is true because for any  $g \in \mathbb{G}$  we have

$$f_d(f_e(g)) = f_d(g^e) = (g^e)^d = g^{ed} = g$$



# Groups

## Multiplicative groups

As discussed, the set  $Z_N = \{0, \dots, N - 1\}$  is a group under addition modulo  $N$ . Now we define the group under multiplication under modulo  $N$ , for any  $N > 1$ , to be given as

$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{b \in \{1, \dots, N - 1\} \mid \gcd(b, N) = 1\}$$

### Proposition 8.18

Let  $N > 1$  be an integer. Then  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is an abelian group under multiplication modulo  $N$ .

# Groups

## Multiplicative groups

We define  $\phi(N) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$  to be the order of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$ . Lets first consider the case where  $N = p$  is prime. Then all elements in  $\{1, \dots, p - 1\}$  are relatively prime to  $p$ , and so the order of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is given as  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ .

In the case where  $N$  is a composite of two primes  $N = pq$ , then the order of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_N^*$  is given as  $\phi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$  (proof is omitted for brevity).

### Example

Take  $N = 15 = 5 \cdot 3$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$ , and  $\phi(15) = (5 - 1)(3 - 1) = 8$ .



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# Cyclic Groups

Cyclic Groups and Generators p.316-319

Let  $\mathbb{G}$  be a finite group of order  $m$ , for any  $g \in \mathbb{G}$  we say:

$\langle g \rangle = \{g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{i-1}\}$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{G}$  with order  $i$  and  $i|m$

where  $i \leq m$  is the smallest positive integer with  $g^i = 1$ .

## Properties

- ▶ if  $i = m$  then  $\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle$  is a cyclic group.
- ▶ if  $\mathbb{G}$  is cyclic and  $m$  is prime, then all elements of  $\mathbb{G}$ , except 1, are generators.

# Cyclic Groups

Examples p.316-319

## Theorem 8.56

If  $p$  is prime then  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is a cyclic multiplicative group of order  $p - 1$ .

## Example 8.60

Consider the (multiplicative) group  $\mathbb{Z}_7^*$ , which is cyclic by Theorem 8.56. We have  $\langle 2 \rangle = \{1, 2, 4\}$ , and so 2 is not a generator.

However,

$$\langle 3 \rangle = \{1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5\} = \mathbb{Z}_7^*$$

and so 3 is a generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_7^*$ .

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# Cyclic Groups

The Discrete Logarithm p.319-320

The general notation of a cyclic group:

$$\mathbb{G} = \langle g \rangle = \{g^x, \text{ for each } x \in \mathbb{Z}_q\}$$

For a random sample  $h \in \mathbb{G}$ , we call  $x = \log_g h$  the discrete logarithm of  $h$  with respect to  $g$  from the context of  $\mathbb{G}$ .

# Cyclic Groups

## The Discrete Logarithm

The discrete logarithm experiment p.319-320

- ▶ Run  $\mathcal{G}(1^n) \rightarrow (\mathbb{G}, q, g)$
- ▶ Choose  $h \in_R \mathbb{G}$
- ▶  $\mathcal{A}$  is given  $(\mathbb{G}, q, g, h)$  and returns  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_q$
- ▶ Experiment outputs 1 if  $g^x = h$ , 0 otherwise

The discrete logarithm problem is hard relative to  $\mathcal{G}$  if for all probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms  $\mathcal{A}$

$$\Pr[DLog_{\mathcal{A}, \mathcal{G}}(n) = 1] \leq \text{negl}(n)$$

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Diffie-Hellman Assumptions p.320-321

## Computational Diffie-Hellman

Given  $(\mathbb{G}, q, g)$  and  $h_1, h_2 \in \mathbb{G}$ , that means  $h_1 = g^{x_1}$ ,  $h_2 = g^{x_2}$ , it is hard to compute:

$$DH_g(h_1, h_2) = g^{x_1 \cdot x_2} = h_1^{x_2} = h_2^{x_1}$$

## Decisional Diffie-Hellmann

Given  $(\mathbb{G}, q, g)$  and  $h_1, h_2, h' \in \mathbb{G}$ , it is hard to distinguish whether

$$h' \stackrel{?}{=} DH_g(h_1, h_2)$$



# Cyclic Groups

Diffie-Hellman Assumptions p.320-321

## Definition 8.63

We say that the DDH problem is hard relative to  $\mathcal{G}$  if for all probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms  $\mathcal{A}$

$$|\Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{G}, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^z) = 1] - \Pr[\mathcal{A}(\mathbb{G}, q, g, g^x, g^y, g^{x \cdot y}) = 1]| \leq \text{negl}(n)$$

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# Cyclic Group

Subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  p.322-324

## Theorem 8.64

Let  $p - 1 = r \cdot q$ , with  $p$  and  $q$  primes. Define

$$\mathbb{G} = \{[h^r \pmod p] \mid h \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*\}$$

Then  $\mathbb{G}$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  of order  $q$ .

## Proof

- ▶  $\mathbb{G}$  is a subgroup of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$
- ▶ order of  $\mathbb{G}$  is  $q$  if  $\exists f_r : \mathbb{Z}_p^* \rightarrow \mathbb{G}$  and  $f_r$  is a  $r - to - 1$  function

# Cyclic Group

Subgroups of  $\mathbb{Z}_p^*$  p.322-324

## Properties

- ▶ because  $q$  is prime, all elements of  $\mathbb{G}$  except 1 are generators
- ▶ to choose uniform element from  $\mathbb{G}$ :

pick  $h \in_{\mathbb{R}} \mathbb{Z}_p^*$ , output  $[h^r \pmod p]$

- ▶ to check if any element  $h \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$  is also in  $\mathbb{G}$ , check

$$h^q \stackrel{?}{=} 1 \pmod p$$

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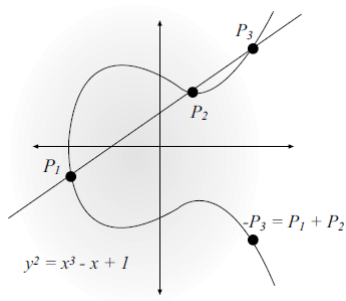
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# Cyclic Group

Elliptic Curves p.325-332



▶  $P + \mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O} + P = P$

▶ if  $P = (x, y)$  then  
 $-P = (x, -y)$

▶  $P - P = \mathcal{O}$

$$4A^3 + 27B^2 \neq 0 \pmod{p}$$

## Definition

$$E(\mathbb{Z}_p) = \{(x, y) | x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_p \text{ and } y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B \pmod{p}\} \cup \{\mathcal{O}\}$$

# Cyclic Group

Elliptic Curves p.325-332

## Calculations

To compute the addition of  $P_1 = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $P_2 = (x_2, y_2)$ , we calculate  $P_1 + P_2 = P_3(x_3, y_3)$ :

1. calculate the slope  $m = \left[ \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1} \pmod{p} \right]$
2. the line  $P_1P_2$  is  $y = m \cdot (x - x_1) + y_1 \pmod{p}$
3. coordinates of  $P_3$  are  
 $x_3 = [m^2 - x_1 - x_2 \pmod{p}]$  &  $y_3 = [m(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 \pmod{p}]$

When  $P_1 = P_2$  then  $2P_1 = P_3(x_3, y_3)$  where:

- ▶  $x_3 = [m^2 - 2x_1 \pmod{p}]$  &  $y_3 = [m(x_1 - x_3) - y_1 \pmod{p}]$
- ▶  $m = \left[ \frac{3x_1^2 + A}{2y_1} \right]$

# Cyclic Group

## Elliptic Curves Efficiency

### Affine Coordinates vs. Projective coordinates

- ▶ affine coordinates:  $P = (x, y) = (X/Z \bmod p, Y/Z \bmod p)$
- ▶ projective coordinates:  $P = (X, Y, Z)$

Addition of  $P_1 + P_2 =$

$$P_3 = \left( m^2 - \frac{X_1}{Z_1} - \frac{X_2}{Z_2}, m \left( \frac{X_1}{Z_1} - m^2 + \frac{X_1}{Z_1} + \frac{X_2}{Z_2} \right) - \frac{Y_1}{Z_1}, 1 \right)$$

$$m = \frac{\frac{Y_2}{Z_2} - \frac{Y_1}{Z_1}}{\frac{X_2}{Z_2} - \frac{X_1}{Z_1}} = \frac{Y_2 Z_1 - Y_1 Z_2}{X_2 Z_1 - X_1 Z_2}$$



# Cyclic Group

Elliptic Curves Efficiency p.325-332

## Projective Coordinates

$$P_3 = (vw, u(v^2X_1Z_2 - w) - v^3Y_1Z_2, Z_1Z_2v^3)$$

$$u = Y_2Z_1 - Y_1Z_2$$

$$v = X_2Z_1 - X_1Z_2$$

$$w = u^2Z_1Z_2 - v^3 - 2v^2X_1Z_2$$

## Point compression

- ▶ only coordinate  $x$  is needed
- ▶  $y$  is computable from the elliptic curve  $E : y^2 = f(x) \pmod{p}$
- ▶ one extra bit  $b$  needed for deciding what value  $y_b$  to use