

ENEE 457: Computer Systems Security

09/21/16

Lecture 7

Number Theory Essentials

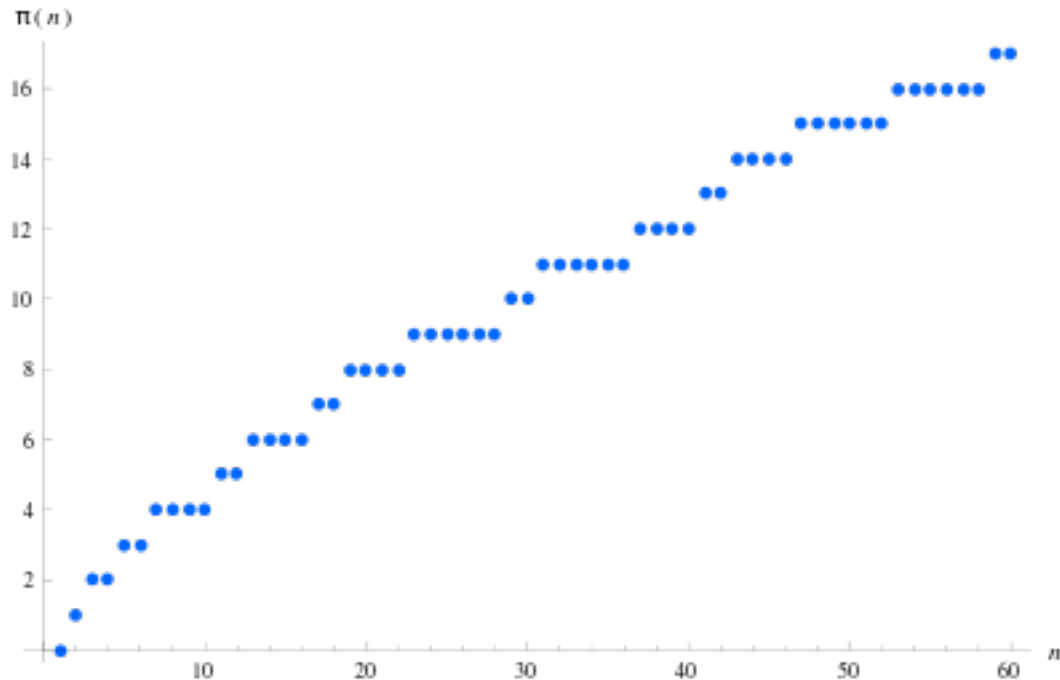
Charalampos (Babis) Papamanthou

Department of Electrical and Computer Engineering
University of Maryland, College Park



Prime numbers

- A number x is prime if its only divisors are x and 1
- There are approximately $n/\log n$ prime numbers less than n



Modulo N arithmetic

- We denote with $x \bmod N$ the remainder of division x/N
- E.g., $18 \bmod 4 = 2$, $16 \bmod 2 = 0$
- If $x \bmod N = y \bmod N$ we write $x = y \bmod N$
- For example $4 = 16 \bmod 3$
- You can add, subtract, multiply
- E.g., $6 = 18 \bmod 4$ gives (mult. by 4) $24 = 72 \bmod 4$
- But you cannot divide!

Beware of division modulo N

- Can you divide?
- $6 = 18 \pmod{4}$
- Try to divide by 2
- $3 = 9 \pmod{4} \rightarrow \text{WRONG!!}$
- What happened?
- **2 DOES NOT HAVE AN INVERSE MOD 4**

Greatest common divisor (gcd) of a and b

- Definition: $\gcd(a,b)$ is the greatest integer dividing both a and b
- Property: $\gcd(a,b)$ is the smallest positive integer d satisfying $d = i*a + j*b$ for some integers a,b
- Example: $\gcd(8,20)=4$. $4=(1)*20-2*8$
- No positive number smaller than 4 can be derived by taking linear combinations of 8 and 20.

Proof

- Suppose d is the smallest positive integer d satisfying $d = i*a + j*b$ for some i and j . Then we show that $d = \gcd(a,b)$
- Since $d = i*a + j*b$, any common divisor of a and b is a divisor of d as well. But a number is always greater or equal than its divisors, so $d \geq \gcd(a,b)$
- It is $a = h*d + (a \bmod d)$ so $a \bmod d = a - hd$
- But $d = i*a + j*b$
- So $a \bmod d = a - hd = a - h(i*a + j*b) = (1-hi)a + (-hj)b$
- But $a \bmod d < d$ and d is the smallest positive integer such that $d = i*a + j*b$ so it has to be the case that $a \bmod d = 0$ which means d divides a .
- By a similar argument we get that d divides b
- Thus d is a divisor of both a and b , so this implies $d \leq \gcd(a,b)$
- Therefore $d = \gcd(a,b)$

Computing the gcd

- Property:
 - $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$
- Why?
 - All common divisors of a,b are common divisors of b and $a \bmod b$: $a=dx, b=dt, a \bmod b =d L$
 - All common divisors of $b, a \bmod b$ are common divisors of a and b : $b = fx, a \bmod b=ft, a=f T$
- So a and b and b and $a \bmod b$ have exactly the same divisors, so gcd should also be the same
- Example
 - $(412,260) \rightarrow (260,152) \rightarrow (152,108) \rightarrow (108,44) \rightarrow (44,20) \rightarrow (20,4) \rightarrow (4,0)$

How much time do we need to compute the gcd?

- $O(\max(\log a, \log b))$

Inverses mod N

- An element x has an inverse mod N iff $\gcd(x, N) = 1$
- If x has an inverse mod N then there exists y such that
 - $x * y = 1 \pmod N$ which implies $x*y = k*N + 1$ which gives $x*y - k N = 1$. Therefore 1 needs to be the gcd of x and N
 - If $\gcd(x, N) = 1$ then $i*x + j*N = 1$ then $i*x = 1 \pmod N$

Great Common Divisor Algorithm

Algorithm *EuclidGCD(a, b)*

Input integers *a* and *b*

Output $\text{gcd}(a, b)$

if $b = 0$

 return *a*

else

 return *EuclidGCD(b, a mod b)*

- Proof: We need to prove that $\text{GCD}(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \text{GCD}(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b})$
- FACTS
 - Every divisor of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is a divisor of \mathbf{b} and $(\mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b})$: This is because $(\mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b})$ can be written as the sum of \mathbf{a} and a multiple of \mathbf{b} , i.e., $\mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} + k\mathbf{b}$, for some integer k .
 - Similarly, every divisor of \mathbf{b} and $(\mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b})$ is a divisor of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} : This is because \mathbf{a} can be written as the sum of $(\mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b})$ and a multiple of \mathbf{b} , i.e., $\mathbf{a} = k\mathbf{b} + (\mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b})$, for some integer k .
 - Therefore the set of all divisors of \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} is **the same** with the set of all divisors of \mathbf{b} and $(\mathbf{a} \bmod \mathbf{b})$. Thus the greatest should also be the same.

Groups in Mathematics

- A group is a set, G , together with an operation \bullet (called the group law of G) that combines any two elements a and b to form another element, denoted $a \bullet b$ or ab . To qualify as a group, the set and operation, (G, \bullet) , must satisfy four requirements known as the group axioms:
- **Closure:** For all a, b in G , the result of the operation, $a \bullet b$, is also in G .
- **Associativity:** For all a, b and c in G , $(a \bullet b) \bullet c = a \bullet (b \bullet c)$.
- **Identity element:** There exists an element e in G , such that for every element a in G , the equation $e \bullet a = a \bullet e$ holds. Such an element is unique, and thus one speaks of the identity element.
- **Inverse element:** For each a in G , there exists an element b in G , commonly denoted a^{-1} (or $-a$, if the operation is denoted "+"), such that $a \bullet b = b \bullet a = e$, where e is the identity element.
- If commutativity holds, the group is called abelian

Examples of groups

- The set of integers $\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ is a group under addition but not under multiplication (why?).
- The set of integers modulo N $\{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$ is a group under addition (this group is denoted Z_N)
- Is the set of reals a group under multiplication?
- The set of integers modulo N that have multiplicative inverses modulo N is a group under multiplication. We denote this group as Z^*_N
 - $Z^*_{15} = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$
 - $Z^*_7 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ (since 7 is a prime)

Order of a group

- Order of a group is the number of elements in a group.
- Can be infinite
- $\text{ORDER}(\mathbb{Z}_N) = \text{ORDER}(\{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}) = N$
- Let $(G, +)$ be a group of order m . Then for every element g of the group $g * m = 0$
- Or if $(G, *)$ is a group of order m . Then for every element g of the group $g^m = 1$
- Take all element g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m . Fix arbitrary g from the group. Then we claim
 - $(g_1 * g) * (g_2 * g) * \dots * (g_m * g) = g_1 * g_2 * \dots * g_m$
 - This gives $g^m = 1$
- $g^x = g^{\{x \bmod m\}}$
 - $g^x = g^{\{k * m + (x \bmod m)\}} = (g^m)^k * g^{\{x \bmod m\}} = g^{\{x \bmod m\}}$

What is the order of Z^*_N ?

- Assume $N = p * q$ where p and q are primes > 1
- Order of Z^*_N is $(p - 1) (q - 1)$
- Denoted $\phi(N)$
- What if N is itself a prime?
- Then order of Z^*_p is $p - 1$

Can we define a bijection (permutation)?

- Let G be a group of order m
- If $\gcd(e, m) = 1$ then g^e is a bijection
- Suppose not. Then $x^e = y^e$ for $x \neq y$ which implies $x = y$, contradiction
- So looks like number theory gives us permutations without tables!

Cyclic groups

- Let G be a group
- The order of an element x in the group is the smallest positive integer o such that
 - $x^o = 1$
- If there exists an element g in the group that whose order is equal to the order of the group then
 - The group is called cyclic
 - All elements of the group can be generated by g as g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{m-1}
- Example
 - Consider Z_{15} . Order is 15. It is cyclic because for $g = 1$ we have
 - $g^{15} = 1^{15} = 0$
 - For all other $i < 15$ it is $1^i \neq 0 \pmod{15}$
- If the order is prime, G is cyclic and all the elements (but the identity) can serve as generators
- Z^*_p is also cyclic. Example, Z^*_7 is cyclic with 3 but not 2 as a generator

Computational Assumption 1: DLog

- We will be using some assumptions about problems considered to be hard
- Discrete logarithm problem
- Let G be a cyclic group of order q and let g be a generator of G
- Output an element $h = g^x$. Keep x secret
- Then it is very difficult (exponential in the bitlength of q) to figure out x
- **What would be a naïve algorithm for that?**

Computational Assumption 2: RSA

- Given $N = pq$, where p and q are primes, it is difficult to figure out p and q
- This is known as factoring assumption
- We will see an encryption scheme whose security is based on RSA
- We will see a hash function whose security is based on DLog

Chinese remainder theorem

- Let $N=pq$. Let
 - $x \bmod p = a_1$
 - $x \bmod q = a_2$
- Then
 - $x \bmod N = a_1 * q * \text{inverse}(q \text{ in } Z_p) + a_2 * p * \text{inverse}(p \text{ in } Z_q) \bmod N$
 - **Let's prove it**
 - This can be used to compute $W^x \bmod N$, for big W^x , more efficiently
 - How?
- Use of theorem
 - Say you want to compute $18^{25} \bmod 35$ ($35 = 5*7$)
 - Compute $18^{25} \bmod 5 = 18^{(25 \bmod 4)} \bmod 5 = 18^1 \bmod 5 = 3 = a_1$
 - Compute $18^{25} \bmod 7 = 18^{(25 \bmod 6)} \bmod 7 = 18^1 \bmod 7 = 4 = a_2$
 - Note that $\text{inverse}(5 \text{ in } Z_7)=3$ and $\text{inverse}(7 \text{ in } Z_5)=3$
 - Therefore the solution we are looking for is $3*7*3+4*5*3 \bmod 35= 18$
- Used in the decryption procedure of RSA: Why cannot it be used in the encryption?