

Admin:

Outline: Number theory & number-theoretic groups

- Divisors & GCD algorithm
- multiplicative inverses using extended gcd alg.
- orders of elements; Euler's theorem
- generators & discrete logarithms (DLP)
- finding generators
- public key crypto based on DLP
- number-theoretic groups

GCD

- d is a divisor of a if $d \geq 0$ & $d | a$
- $d | a \equiv a$ is a multiple of $d \equiv (\exists k) a = d \cdot k$ "d divides a"
- $(\forall d) d | 0$ $(\forall a) 1 | a$
- If d is a divisor of a & d is a divisor of b , then d is a common divisor of a & b .
- The greatest common divisor of a & b is the largest of their common divisors. [But $\text{gcd}(0,0) = 0$ by defn.]
- Ex: $\text{gcd}(24, 30) = 6$ $\text{gcd}(5, 0) = 5$
 $\text{gcd}(33, 12) = 3$
- Def: a & b are relatively prime if $\text{gcd}(a, b) = 1$
- Euclid's alg for $\text{gcd}(a, b)$ [$a, b \geq 0$]

$$\text{gcd}(a, b) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } b = 0 \\ \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

• Ex:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{gcd}(7, 5) &= \text{gcd}(5, 2) \\ &= \text{gcd}(2, 1) \\ &= \text{gcd}(1, 0) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

• Thm $(\forall a, b) (\exists x, y) ax + by = \text{gcd}(a, b)$

• Proof by example:

$$\begin{aligned} 7 &= 7 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 0 \\ 5 &= 7 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 1 \\ 2 &= 7 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot (-1) \\ 1 &= \frac{7 \cdot (-2) + 5 \cdot 3}{\frac{a}{a} \frac{x}{x} + \frac{b}{b} \frac{y}{y}} \end{aligned} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \text{initial values}$$

[Running time is polynomial; essentially $\lg(a) \cdot \lg(b)$ bit operations]

Example: mod 7

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	...	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	...	order(1) = 1
2	2	4	①	2	4	1	2	...	order(2) = 3
3	3	2	6	4	5	①	3	...	order(3) = 6
4	4	2	①	4	2	1	4	...	order(4) = 3
5	5	4	6	2	3	①	5	...	order(5) = 6
6	6	①	6	1	6	1			order(6) = 2

* Fermat

Def: $\langle a \rangle = \{a^i : i \geq 0\}$

Thm: $order(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$

subgroup generated by a
($\langle 2 \rangle = \{2, 4, 1\}$)

Thm: $order_p(a) \mid p-1$

p prime

Thm: $|\langle a \rangle| \mid |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$

general

$order_n(a) \quad \varphi(n)$

Def: If $order(g) = p-1$ then g is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* .
(i.e. $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$)

Thm: If g is a generator mod p, then

$$g^x = y \pmod{p}$$

has a unique soln x, $0 \leq x < p-1$, for each $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$.

x is the "discrete log" of y, base g, modulo p.

(i.e. \mathbb{Z}_n^* is cyclic)

Thm: \mathbb{Z}_n^* has a generator, iff
 n is ~~prime or a prime power~~
 $2, 4, p^m, \text{ or } 2p^m$ for prime p & $m \geq 1$.

Thm: If p is prime, #generators modulo p is $\phi(p-1)$

E.g. $p = 11$
 $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = \phi(11) = 10$ $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, \dots, 10\}$

how many generators?
 $\phi(10) = 4$
 generators are $2, 6, 7, 8$

How to find them?

In general, requires knowledge of factorization of $p-1$.

Def: p is a "safe prime" (Sophie Germain) if
 $p = 2q + 1$ (for q prime)

Ex: $p = 2 \cdot 5 + 1$ $p = 2 \cdot 29 + 1$
 $p = 2 \cdot 11 + 1$
 $p = 2 \cdot 23 + 1$

If p is a "safe prime" then $\text{order}_p(a) \in \{1, 2, q, 2q\}$
} divisors of $p-1$

g is a generator mod $p = 2q + 1$
 if $g^{p-1} = 1$ (✓ $\geq b$, Fermat's: no need to check)
 & $g^2 \neq 1$
 & $g^q \neq 1$ } check it

Thm: If p is prime, then

$$\varphi(p-1) = \# \text{generators mod } p \geq \frac{p-1}{6 \ln \ln(p-1)}$$

(i.e., they are dense, in general)

Thm: If p is ^{"safe"} prime, then

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(p-1) &= \# \text{generators mod } p \\ &= \frac{p-1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

(almost half of them!)

Generate & test works very well!

Common public-key setup:

- Public system parameters: p large prime (1024 bits)
 g generator mod p
- Alice chooses x $0 \leq x < p-1$ as her secret key
- Alice publishes $y = g^x \pmod{p}$ as her public key
- Secrecy of x protected by difficulty of computing discrete logs

~~the discrete log problem~~

$$\log_{g,p}(y) = x$$

- Commonly assumed that DLP (discrete log problem) is infeasible, for p large & random, or p s.t. $p-1$ has large prime factor (e.g. $p = \text{safe prime}$).
- About as hard as to factor $\#$ of same size as p .
(Empirical statement, not a theorem.)

Crypto groups:

- $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{a : 1 \leq a < p\}$ $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p-1$

often $p = 2r + 1$, r prime, $p =$ "safe prime"

always "cyclic": $(\exists g) \langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$
 $= (\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*) (\exists k) g^k = a$

- $Q_p =$ quadratic residues mod $p \subsetneq \mathbb{Z}_p^*$
 $= \{a^2 : 1 \leq a < p\}$

$$|Q_p| = \frac{1}{2} |\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = \frac{p-1}{2}$$

cyclic: if $\langle g \rangle = \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, then $\langle g^2 \rangle = Q_p$

$$Q_p = \{g^{2i} : 0 \leq i < (p-1)/2\}$$

If $p = 2r + 1$: $|Q_p| = r$ & any element in $Q_p \neq 1$ generates Q_p

- $\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{a : \gcd(a, n) = 1 \text{ \& } 1 \leq a < n\}$

$$|\mathbb{Z}_n^*| \triangleq \varphi(n)$$

if $n = p \cdot q$ & p, q distinct odd primes: \mathbb{Z}_n^* not cyclic

$$\mathbb{Z}_n^* \cong \mathbb{Z}_p^* \times \mathbb{Z}_q^* \quad (\text{CRT})$$

- $Q_n^* = \{a^2 : 1 \leq a < n \text{ \& } \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$

~~not~~ if $n = pg$ (distinct odd primes): $p = 2r + 1, q = 2s + 1$

$$|Q_n| = rs$$

Q_n is cyclic