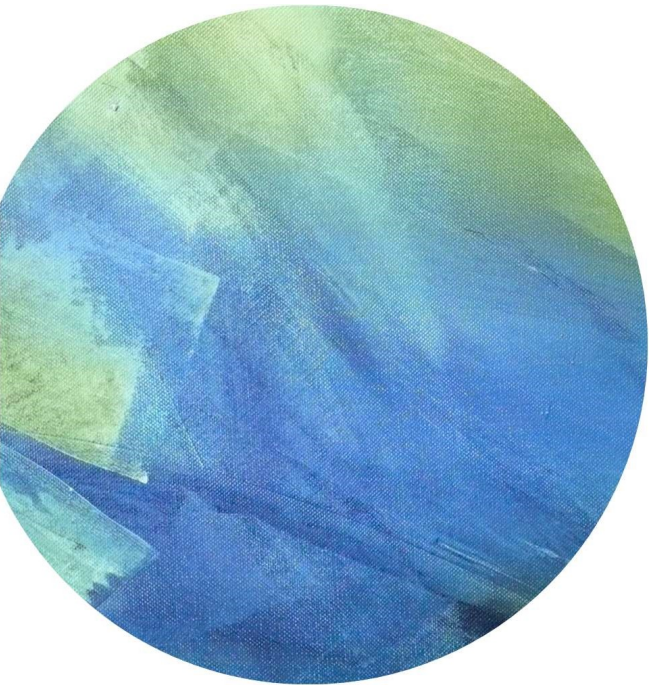


The background of the slide is an abstract painting featuring broad, expressive brushstrokes in various shades of green and blue. The colors transition from light, lime green at the top to deeper, more saturated blues and greens towards the bottom. The texture of the paint is visible, with some areas appearing more saturated than others.

Lecture 9



Outline




Number
Theory



Hard Problems



Key Exchange



Number Theory

Number theory: Recall

N denotes an n -bit positive integer. p denotes a prime.

$$\bullet \mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bullet (\mathbb{Z}_N)^* &= (\text{set of invertible elements in } \mathbb{Z}_N) = \\ &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z}_N : \gcd(x, N) = 1\} \end{aligned}$$

Can find inverses efficiently using Euclid algorithm: time = $O(n^2)$

\downarrow
 $\log_2 N$

Fermat's theorem (1640)

Thm: Let p be a prime

$$\forall x \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^* : x^{p-1} = 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_p^*$$

$\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$

Example: $p=5$. $3^4 = 81 = 1$ in \mathbb{Z}_5 $2^4 = 16 = 1$ in \mathbb{Z}_5

$$\text{So: } x \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^* \Rightarrow x \cdot x^{p-2} = 1 \Rightarrow x^{-1} = x^{p-2} \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_p$$

another way to compute inverses, but less efficient than Euclid

Application: generating random primes

Suppose we want to generate a large random prime

say, prime p of length 1024 bits (i.e. $p \approx 2^{1024}$)
 $n \uparrow$

Step 1: choose a random integer $p \in [2^{1024}, 2^{1025}-1]$

Step 2: test if $2^{p-1} = 1$ in Z_p

If so, output p and stop. If not, goto step 1.

Set $p =$
random sequence
of 1024 bits

Simple algorithm (not the best).

$\Pr[p \text{ not prime }] < 2^{-60}$

The structure of $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$

Thm (Euler): $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ is a **cyclic group**, that is

$$\exists g \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^* \text{ such that } \{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{p-2}\} = (\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$$

g is called a **generator** of $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ $\{1, g, g^2, \dots\}$ is exactly equal to \mathbb{Z}_p^* .

Example: $p=7$. $\{1, 3, 3^2, 3^3, 3^4, 3^5\} = \{1, 3, 2, 6, 4, 5\} = (\mathbb{Z}_7)^*$
 $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$

Not every element is a generator: $\{1, 2, 2^2, 2^3, 2^4, 2^5\} = \{1, 2, 4\}$
 $\neq \{1, 3, 2, \dots, 5\}$

How do you find a generator?

Order \mathbb{Z}_7^* , $g=2$. $\{1, 2, 4\}$ order of 2 = 3.
 $2^3 = 1 \pmod{7}$.

For $g \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ the set $\{1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots\}$ is called
 the **group generated by g** , denoted $\langle g \rangle$

g is a generator iff
 group generated by g
 is equal to \mathbb{Z}_p^*

Def: the **order** of $g \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ is the size of $\langle g \rangle$

$$\text{ord}_p(g) = |\langle g \rangle| = (\text{smallest } a > 0 \text{ s.t. } g^a = 1 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_p)$$

Examples: $\text{ord}_7(3) = 6$; $\text{ord}_7(2) = 3$; $\text{ord}_7(1) = 1$

Thm (Lagrange): $\forall g \in (\mathbb{Z}_p)^* : \text{ord}_p(g) \text{ divides } p-1$
 $\mathbb{Z}_p^* (p-1) = a_1 a_2$ for primes a_1, a_2
 \Rightarrow order of any g is $\boxed{1 \text{ or } a_1 \text{ or } a_2 \text{ or } a_1 a_2}$

To find generator, pick a random element and compute its order. Hit and trial works

in practice as long as $(p-1)$ is chosen wisely

* Pick prime p * Find generator
 s.t. $p-1 = a_1 a_2$

Euler's generalization of Fermat (1736)

Def: For an integer N define $\varphi(N) = |(Z_N)^*|$ (Euler's φ func.)

Examples: $\varphi(12) = |\{1, 5, 7, 11\}| = 4$; $\varphi(p) = p-1$

For $N=p \cdot q$: $\varphi(N) = N - p - q + 1 = \underline{(p-1)(q-1)}$
both primes

Thm (Euler): $\forall x \in (Z_N)^* : x^{\varphi(N)} = 1$ in Z_N

Example: 5 ^{$\varphi(12)$} = $5^4 = 625 = 1$ in Z_{12}

Generalization of Fermat. Basis of the RSA cryptosystem



Hard Problems

Easy problems

- Given composite N and x in Z_N find x^{-1} in Z_N

- Given prime p and polynomial $f(x)$ in $Z_p[x]$

find x in Z_p s.t. $f(x) = 0$ in Z_p (if one exists)

Running time is linear in $\deg(f)$.

* Solve systems of linear equations mod N .

... but many problems are difficult

For any member $a \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$, $a * a = a^2 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ is easy.

Intractable problems with primes

$$y, p=11, g=2.$$

Fix a prime $p > 2$ and g in $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ of order q .

Consider the function: $x \mapsto g^x$ in \mathbb{Z}_p $x \rightarrow g^x$ is easy.
integer

Now, consider the inverse function: $(g * g * g \dots)$ x times.

$$\text{Dlog}_g(g^x) = x \text{ where } x \text{ in } \{0, \dots, q-2\}$$

Given y , compute $x \leq q-2$ s.t. $g^x = y$.

Example:

y

in \mathbb{Z}_{11} : 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

$\text{Dlog}_2(\cdot)$: 0 2 ?

Compute x
s.t. $2^x = y$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 2^1 = 2 & 2^2 = 4 & 2^3 = 8 & 2^4 = 5 \\ 2^5 = 10 & 2^6 = 9 & \dots & \sqrt{q} \end{array}$$

Intractable problems with primes

Fix a prime $p > 2$ and g in $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ of order q .

Consider the function: $x \mapsto g^x$ in \mathbb{Z}_p

Now, consider the inverse function:

$$\mathbf{Dlog}_g(g^x) = x \quad \text{where } x \text{ in } \{0, \dots, q-2\}$$

Example:

in \mathbb{Z}_{11} :	1,	2,	3,	4,	5,	6,	7,	8,	9,	10
$\mathbf{Dlog}_2(\cdot)$:	0,	1,	8,	2,	4,	9,	7,	3,	6,	5

DLOG: more generally

Let \mathbf{G} be a finite cyclic group and \mathbf{g} a generator of G

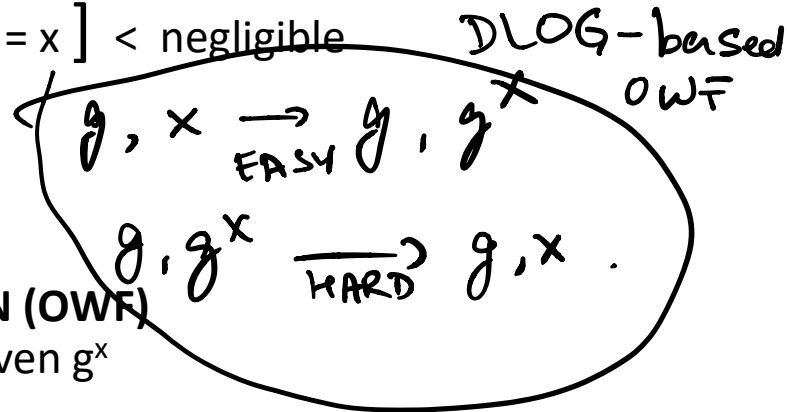
$$G = \{ 1, g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{q-1} \} \quad (q \text{ is called the order of } G)$$

Def: We say that **DLOG is hard in G** if for all efficient alg. A :

$$\Pr_{g \leftarrow G, x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_q} [A(G, q, g, g^x) = x] < \text{negligible}$$

Example: $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ for large p

This is a candidate **ONE-WAY FUNCTION (OWF)**
Easy to compute g^x but hard to find x given g^x



An application: collision resistance

Choose a group G where Dlog is hard (e.g. $(\mathbb{Z}_p)^*$ for large p)

Let $q = |G|$ be a prime. Choose generator g of G and set $h = g^s$ for secret s .

Hash key = (g, h) . For $x, y \in \{1, \dots, q\}$ define $H(x, y) = g^x \cdot h^y$ in G

Hard to find z s.t. $h = g^z$.

Lemma: finding collision for $H(.,.)$ is as hard as computing $\text{Dlog}_g(h)$

Proof: Suppose we are given a collision $H(x_0, y_0) = H(x_1, y_1)$ s.t. $(x_0, y_0) \neq (x_1, y_1)$

$$\text{then } g^{x_0} \cdot h^{y_0} = g^{x_1} \cdot h^{y_1} \Rightarrow g^{x_0 - x_1} = h^{y_1 - y_0} \Rightarrow h = g^{\underbrace{x_0 - x_1 / y_1 - y_0}_z}$$

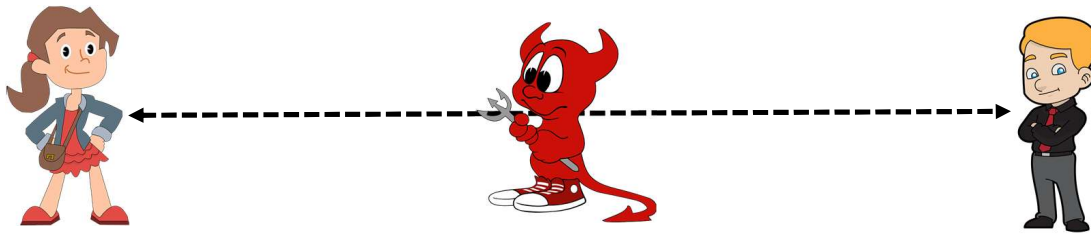
only works when
 $y_1 \neq y_0$

$$\text{s.t. } h = g^z.$$



Key Exchange

Setting up a shared key in the presence of an eavesdropper



→ Given (g, g^a, g^b) it should be hard to find g^{ab} .

Computational Diffie-Hellman Problem (CDH).

CDH is hard only if DLOG is hard.

Hardness of DLOG \Leftrightarrow Hardness of CDH

Space for Discussions - OWF + addnl properties?

Shared secret = g^{ab}



a
 $x = g^a$



(a, y)



b
 $y = g^b$

(b, x)

$y^a = (g^b)^a = g^{ab}$

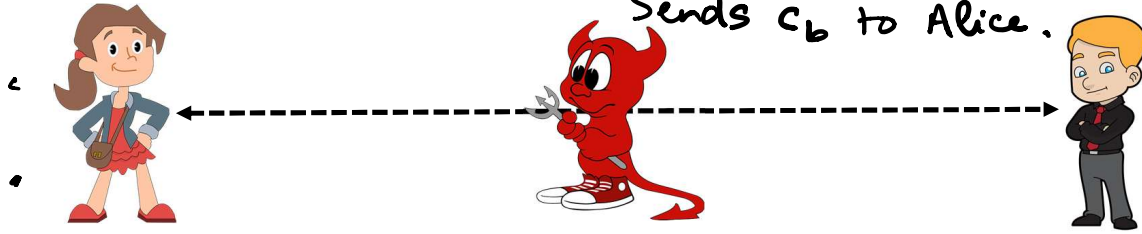
shouldn't be able to compute g^{ab} .

$x^b = (g^a)^b = g^{ab}$

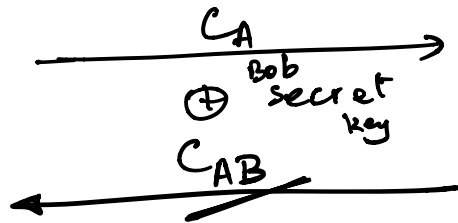
private secret key encryption + rerandomization \Rightarrow public key encryption

Space for Discussions – rerandomizable encryption?

Soln 2. Alice publishes $c_0 = E(k_A, 0)$, $c_1 = E(k_A, 1)$. Bob wants to send b . Picks c_b , rerandomizes $\rightarrow \tilde{c}_b$. Sends \tilde{c}_b to Alice.



Soln 1.
 $c_A = E(k_A, x)$

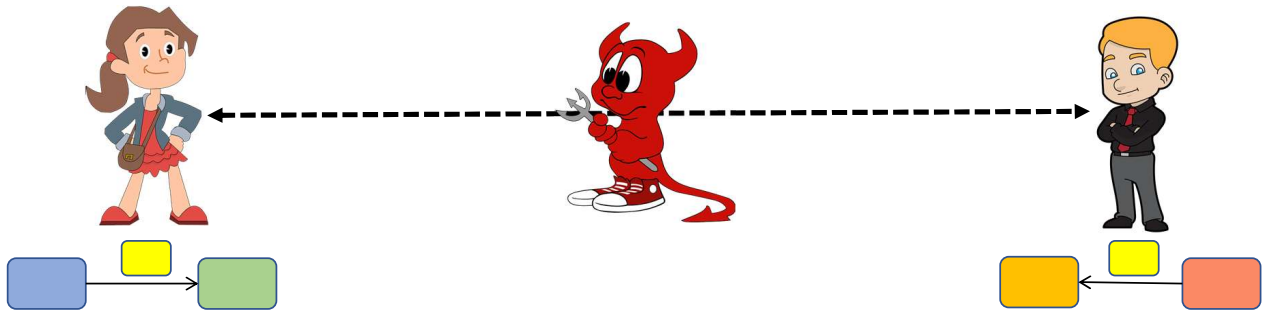


$$c_{AB} = E(k_B(E(k_A, x)))$$

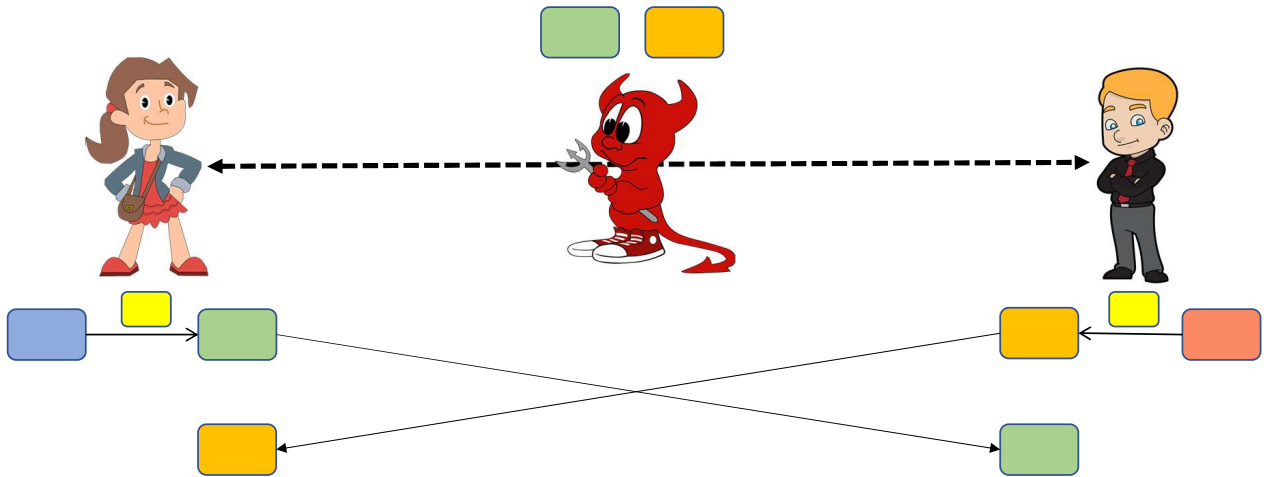
$$D(k_A(E(k_B(E(k_A, x))))$$

$$\xrightarrow{c_B \oplus \text{Bob secret key}} D(k_A(D(k_B(E(k_A, x))))$$

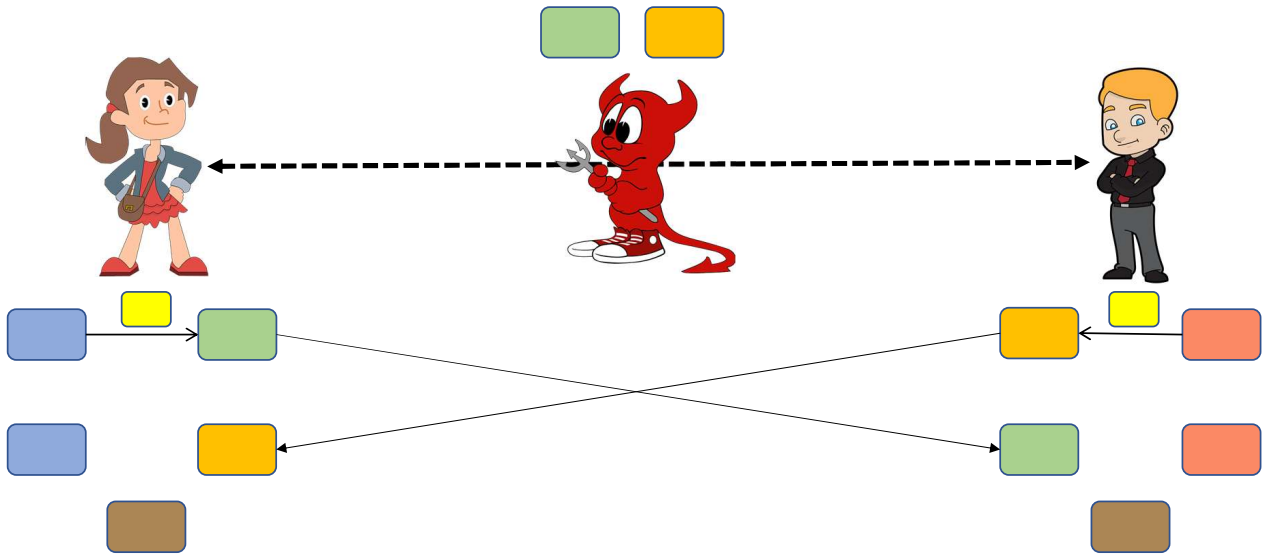
Setting up a shared key in the presence of an eavesdropper



Setting up a shared key in the presence of an eavesdropper



Setting up a shared key in the presence of an eavesdropper



The Diffie-Hellman protocol (informally)

Fix a large prime p (e.g. 600 digits)

Fix an integer g in $\{1, \dots, p-1\}$

CDH

Alice

Bob

choose random a in $\{1, \dots, p-1\}$

choose random b in $\{1, \dots, p-1\}$

"Alice", $A \leftarrow g^a \pmod{p}$

"Bob", $B \leftarrow g^b \pmod{p}$

$$B^a \pmod{p} = (g^b)^a = k_{AB} = g^{ab} \pmod{p} = (g^a)^b = A^b \pmod{p}$$

Security (much more on this later)

Eavesdropper sees: $p, g, A=g^a \pmod{p}$, and $B=g^b \pmod{p}$

Can she compute $g^{ab} \pmod{p}$??

More generally: define $DH_g(g^a, g^b) = g^{ab} \pmod{p}$

How hard is the DH function mod p ?

If DH is hard then DLOG is hard. If DLOG is hard then DH may or may not be hard.

Both believed to be hard in Z_p^* .



www.google.com

The identity of this website has been verified by Thawte SGC CA.

[Certificate Information](#)



Your connection to www.google.com is encrypted with 128-bit encryption.

The connection uses TLS 1.0.

The connection is encrypted using RC4_128, with SHA1 for message authentication and ECDHE_RSA as the key exchange mechanism.

Elliptic curve

Diffie-Hellman

\mathbb{Z}_p^* is replaced by a different group.

Insecure against man-in-the-middle

As described, the protocol is insecure against **active** attacks

Alice

MiTM

Bob

g^a

$g^{a'}$

$g^{b'}$

g^b

$(g^{ab'})$

$(g^{a'b'})$

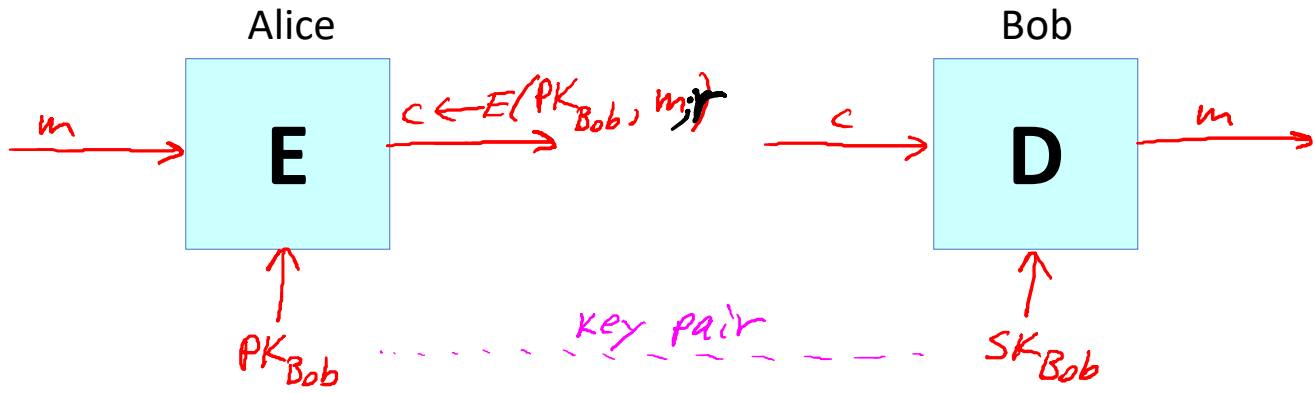
$g^{a'b}$

$g^{a'b}$

←

←

Public key encryption



PK: public key, SK: secret key

Public key encryption

Def: a public-key encryption system is a triple of algs. (G, E, D)

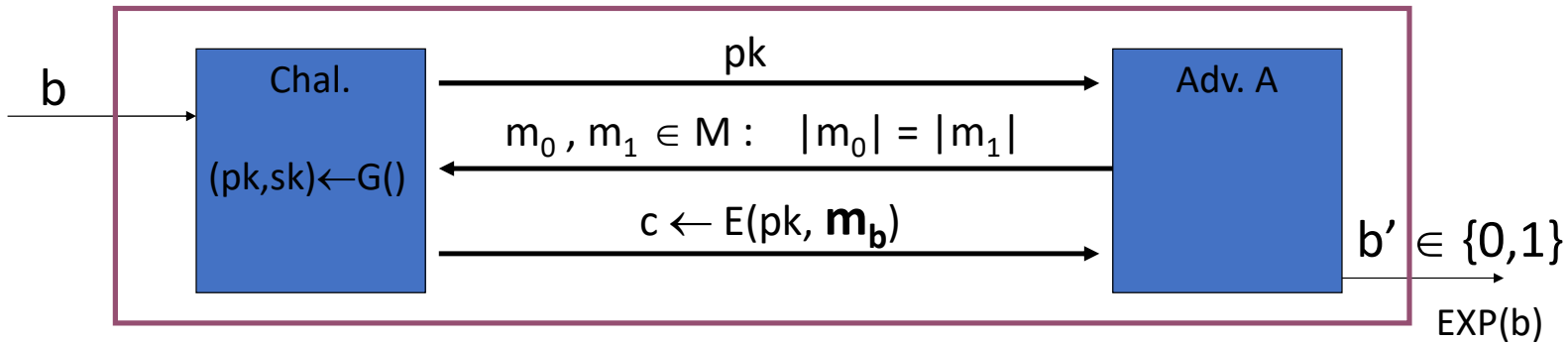
- $G()$: randomized alg. outputs a key pair (pk, sk)
- $E(pk, m)$: randomized alg. that takes $m \in M$ and outputs $c \in C$
- $D(sk, c)$: det. alg. that takes $c \in C$ and outputs $m \in M$ or \perp

Consistency: $\forall (pk, sk)$ output by G :

$$\forall m \in M: D(sk, E(pk, m)) = m$$

Semantic Security

For $b=0,1$ define experiments $\text{EXP}(0)$ and $\text{EXP}(1)$ as:



Def: $\mathbb{E} = (G, E, D)$ is sem. secure (a.k.a IND-CPA) if for all efficient A :

$$\text{Adv}_{\text{SS}} [A, \mathbb{E}] = \left| \Pr[\text{EXP}(0)=1] - \Pr[\text{EXP}(1)=1] \right| < \text{negligible}$$

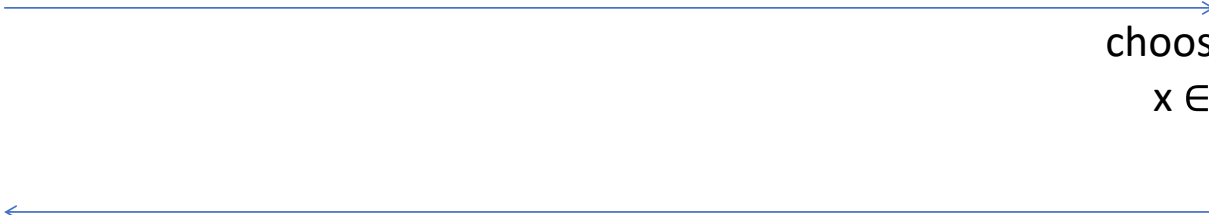
Establishing a shared secret

Alice

$(pk, sk) \leftarrow G()$

Bob

“Alice”, pk



choose random

$x \in \{0,1\}^{128}$

Security (eavesdropping)

Adversary sees $pk, E(pk, x)$ and wants $x \in M$

Semantic security \Rightarrow

adversary cannot distinguish

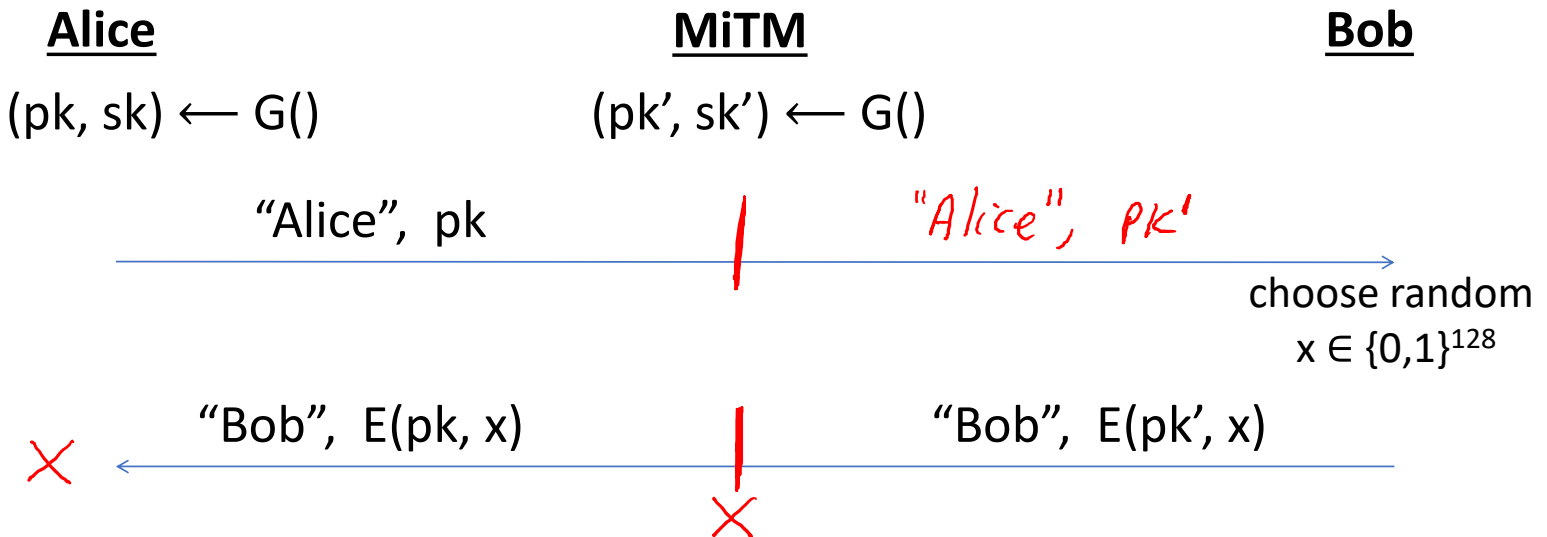
$$\{ pk, E(pk, x), x \} \text{ from } \{ pk, E(pk, x), \text{rand} \in M \}$$

\Rightarrow can derive session key from x .

Note: protocol is vulnerable to man-in-the-middle

Insecure against man in the middle

As described, the protocol is insecure against **active** attacks



Intractable problems with composites

Consider the set of integers: (e.g. for $n=1024$)

$$\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}(n) := \{ N = p \cdot q \text{ where } p, q \text{ are } n\text{-bit primes} \}$$

Problem 1: Factor a random N in $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}(n)$ (e.g. for $n=1024$)

Problem 2: Given a polynomial $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ where $\text{degree}(\mathbf{f}) > 1$

and a random N in $\mathbb{Z}_{(2)}(n)$

find x in \mathbb{Z}_N s.t. $\mathbf{f}(x) = 0$ in \mathbb{Z}_N

The factoring problem

Gauss (1805): *“The problem of distinguishing prime numbers from composite numbers and of resolving the latter into their prime factors is known to be one of the most important and useful in arithmetic.”*

Best known alg. (NFS): run time $\exp(\tilde{O}(\sqrt[3]{n}))$ for n-bit integer

Current world record: **RSA-768** (232 digits)

- Work: two years on hundreds of machines
- Factoring a 1024-bit integer: about 1000 times harder
⇒ likely possible this decade

Summary

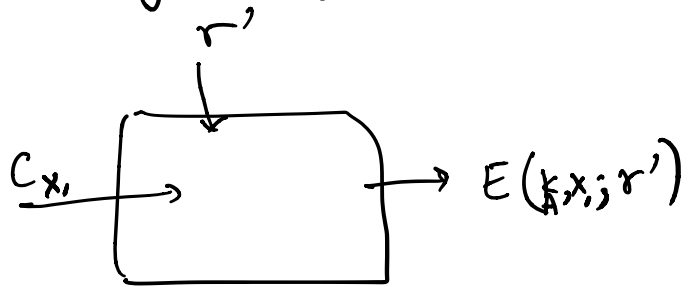
- Key concepts in number theory
- Hardness of discrete logarithm, factoring
- Diffie-Hellman key exchange from hardness of DDH
- Public key encryption => shared key derivation (called key exchange)

Rerandomizable Encryption

$$x = x_1 \dots x_n$$

$$\begin{cases} c_0 = E(k_A, 0; r_0) \text{ is encryption of } 0 \\ c_1 = E(k_A, 1; r_1) \text{ is encryption of } 1. \end{cases}$$

Rerandomization:



$$\text{Decryption: } D(k_A, E(k_A, x_i; r')) = x_i$$

$$\text{Homomorphic Encryption: } \frac{d_0}{= E(k, m_0; r_0)} \quad \frac{d_1}{= E(k, m_1; r_1)}$$

$$d = E(k, m_0 \oplus m_1; r_0 \oplus r_1)$$