## **MATH/CMSC 456 :: UPDATED COURSE INFO**

Instructor: Gorjan Alagic (galagic@umd.edu) Guest instructor: Carl Miller (camiller@umd.edu), ATL 3100K Textbook: Introduction to Modern Cryptography, Katz and Lindell;

Webpage: <a href="mailto:alagic.org/cmsc-456-cryptography-spring-2020/">alagic.org/cmsc-456-cryptography-spring-2020/</a>

Piazza: piazza.com/umd/spring2020/cmsc456

**ELMS:** active, slides and reading posted there, **homework 3 due midnight Thursday.** 

Gradescope: active, access through ELMS.

TAs (Our spot: shared open area across from AVW 4166)

- Elijah Grubb (egrubb@cs.umd.edu) 11am-12pm TuTh (AVW);
- Justin Hontz (jhontz@terpmail.umd.edu) 1pm-2pm MW (AVW);

#### Additional help:

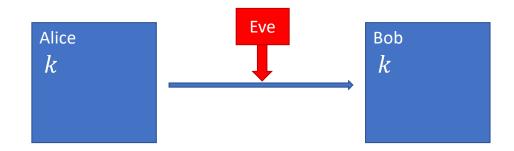
- Chen Bai (cbai1@terpmail.umd.edu) 3:30-5:30pm Tu (2115 ATL inside JQI)
- Bibhusa Rawal (bibhusa@terpmail.umd.edu) 3:30-5:30pm Th (2115 ATL inside JQI)

Current readings: **Feb 25:** pp. 285-297

**Feb 27:** pp. 302-324 (skip subsections 8.2.2 and 8.2.5)

## **RECAP: Secret-key vs. Public-key cryptography**

A MAC (Message Authentication Code) is an example of **secret-key cryptography**.



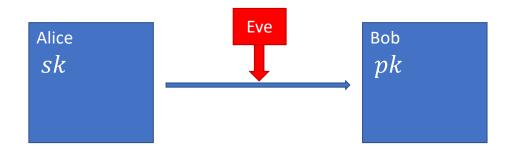
Alice uses the secret key **k** to authenticate a message, which is then verified by Bob.

#### Limitations:

- Alice & Bob have to find a way to exchange the key **k** secretly.
- Any party that can verify an authentication code can also forge one!

## **RECAP: Secret-key vs. Public-key cryptography**

In **public-key cryptography**, Alice creates a public key (*pk*) and a secret key (*sk*).



The public key is broadcast - anyone can know it.

#### **Desired properties:**

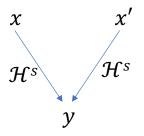
- Alice can sign a message in such way that her signature can be verified, **but not forged,** using *pk*.
- Anyone who has *pk* can encrypt, **but not decrypt**, a message to Alice.

We always want to make our protocol computationally easy to carry out, and computationally difficult for an adversary to break.

## **COMPUTATIONALLY DIFFICULT PROBLEMS**

Classical (non-quantum) cryptography relies on the assumption that certain computational problems are hard.

Example from February 13<sup>th</sup>: **Collision-resistance for keyed hash-function.** 



We assume that, given randomly chosen s, it is hard to find a collision for  $\mathcal{H}^s$ .

Properties of this problem:

- It is easy to **describe**. (Just specify the hash function e.g., SHA3.)
- It is easy to **check** a valid answer.
- We believe that it is hard to **find** a valid answer.

## **COMPUTATIONALLY DIFFICULT PROBLEMS**

How about factoring numbers?

**Problem:** Suppose that n is a positive integer (expressed as a string of bits). Express n as

 $n = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \dots \cdot p_r,$ 

where each  $p_i$  is prime (i.e., has no factors other than 1 and itself).

It is easy to check a factorization (in time less than a polynomial function of the number of bits). However, no polynomial-time, non-quantum algorithm for factoring numbers is currently known.

#### The Plan:

- 1. Do a detailed study of some basic number theory.
- 2. Build a public-key cryptosystem based on the hardness of factoring.

# **MODULAR ARITHMETIC: Notation & Examples**

## **ARITHMETIC: THE BEGINNING**

Let  $\ensuremath{\mathbb{Z}}$  denote the set of all integers.

 $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ 

For any  $n, q \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $q \neq 0$ , the expression

 $[n \mod q]$ 

denotes the remainder of n after division by q. (Always,  $0 \le [n \mod q] < q$ .)

**Examples:**  $[2459 \mod 100] = 59.$  $[(-4) \mod 7] = 3.$  "Consider thyself to be dead, and to have completed thy life up to the present time; and live according to nature the **remainder** which is allowed thee." - Marcus Aurelius

### **ARITHMETIC: THE BEGINNING**

Let  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  denote the set.

$$\mathbb{Z}_q = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, q-1\}$$

For any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_q$ , the elements

 $[(a+b) \mod q]$  $[(a \cdot b) \mod q]$ 

are also elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .

**Example:**  $[(31 \cdot 8) \mod 100] = [248 \mod 100] = 48.$ 

Alternative notation: If n, m are integers, then  $n = m \mod q$ means  $[n \mod q] = [m \mod q].$ 

## **ARITHMETIC: THE BEGINNING**

Also, for any  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  and n > 0, the integer  $[a^n \mod q]$ is an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .

**Trick:** When carrying out multiple operations, you can mod out as you go.

$$[(2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 4) \mod 5] = [(6 \cdot 16) \mod 5] = [(1 \cdot 1) \mod 5] = \mathbf{1}$$

### **TWO EXERCISES (no calculators!)**

**#1:** Compute [(21 · 33 · 495 · 433) mod 10].

 $[(21 \cdot 33 \cdot 495 \cdot 433) \mod 10]$ = [(1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 3) \mod 10] =[(45) \mod 10] = **5**.

**#2:** Compute [(2<sup>101</sup>) mod 7].

 $([2^i \mod 7]) = (2,4,1,2,4,1,2,4,1...)$ The 101st term in this sequence is **4**.

To show this answer more formally:  $[2^{101} \mod 7] = [2^{99} \cdot 2^2 \mod 7] = [2^{3 \cdot 33} \cdot 2^2 \mod 7]$  $= [(8)^{33} \cdot 4 \mod 7] = [1^{33} \cdot 4 \mod 7] = 4.$ 

Let  $f: \mathbb{Z}_9 \to \mathbb{Z}_9$  be the function defined by  $f(a) = [(a + 4) \mod 9]$ .

f(0) = 4 f(1) = 5 f(2) = 6 f(3) = 7 f(4) = 8 f(5) = 0 f(6) = 1 f(7) = 2f(8) = 3

Let  $f: \mathbb{Z}_9 \to \mathbb{Z}_9$  be the function defined by  $f(a) = [(a + 5) \mod 9]$ .

f(0) = 5 f(1) = 6 f(2) = 7 f(3) = 8 f(4) = 0 f(5) = 1 f(6) = 2 f(6) = 2 f(7) = 3f(8) = 4

Let  $f: \mathbb{Z}_9 \to \mathbb{Z}_9$  be the function defined by  $f(a) = [(4a) \mod 9]$ .

f(0) = 0 f(1) = 4 f(2) = 8 f(3) = 3 f(4) = 7 f(5) = 2 f(6) = 6 f(7) = 1f(8) = 5

Let  $f: \mathbb{Z}_9 \to \mathbb{Z}_9$  be the function defined by  $f(a) = [(5a) \mod 9]$ .

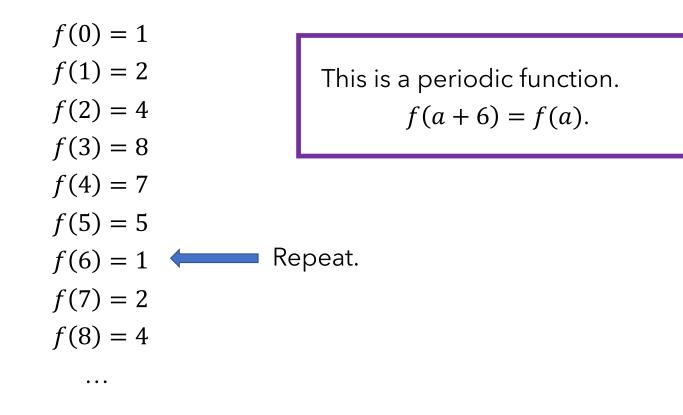
f(0) = 0	Note: No repeats! Why?
f(1) = 5	
f(2) = 1	The map g: $\mathbb{Z}_9 \to \mathbb{Z}_9$ defined by g(a) = [(2a) mod 9]
f(3) = 6	satisfies
f(4) = 2	$g(f(a)) = [2 \cdot 5 \cdot a \mod 9]$
f(5) = 7	$= [1 \cdot a \mod 9]$ $= a.$
f(6) = 3	That means f is a <b>one-to-one function</b> .
f(7) = 8	Since $[2 \cdot 5 \mod 9] = 1$ , we say that 2 is the
f(8) = 4	<b>multiplicative inverse</b> of 5 mod 9. We write: $2 = 5^{-1} \mod 9$ .

Let  $f: \mathbb{Z}_9 \to \mathbb{Z}_9$  be the function defined by  $f(a) = [(3a) \mod 9]$ .

f(0) = 0	
f(1) = 3 f(2) = 6	This is <u>not</u> a one-to-one function.
f(3) = 0	
f(4) = 3	<b>Q:</b> When is multiplication one-to-one?
f(5) = 6	
f(6) = 0	
f(7) = 3	
f(8) = 6	

## **EXPONENTIATION IN** $\mathbb{Z}_q$

Let  $f: \{0,1,2,...\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_9$  be the function defined by  $f(a) = [2^a \mod 9]$ .



## **EXPONENTIATION IN** $\mathbb{Z}_q$

Let  $f: \{0,1,2,...\} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_9$  be the function defined by  $f(a) = [6^a \mod 9]$ .

f(0) = 1
f(1) = 6
f(2) = 0
f(3) = 0
f(4) = 0
f(5) = 0
f(6) = 0
f(7) = 0
f(8) = 0

. . .

This is **not** a periodic function.

Why is exponentiation periodic for some bases and not for others?

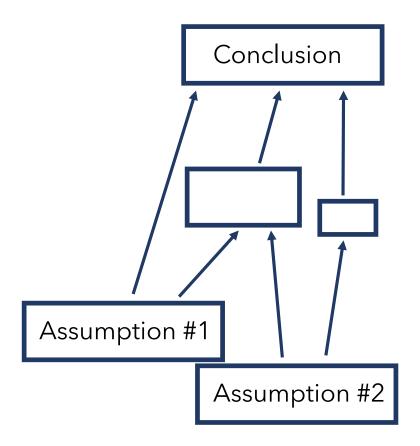
## **MODULAR ARITHMETIC: Proofs**

## **COMMENTS ABOUT PROOFS**

A proof is a series of **deductions** based on clearly stated **assumptions**.

Everything must be justified, unless it's an assumption, or it's obvious.

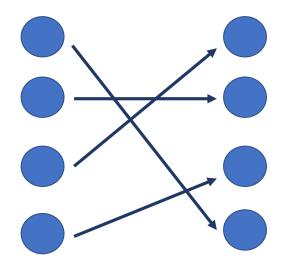
What's obvious? If in doubt, ask.



## A PROPOSITION ABOUT MULTIPLICATIVE INVERSES

**Proposition:** Let q be a positive integer. Let a be an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ , and suppose that a has a multiplicative inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . Then, the function  $f: \mathbb{Z}_q \to \mathbb{Z}_q$  defined by  $f(x) = [ax \mod q]$ 

is a one-to-one function.



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is a one-to-one function.

**Proof:** Let x, y be elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  such that f(x) = f(y). Then,  $[ax \mod q] = [ay \mod q],$ 

 $[a^{-1}ax \bmod q] = [a^{-1}ay \bmod q],$ 

which implies (by the definition of multiplicative inverse) that x = y.

Thus, the only way that the equation f(x) = f(y) can occur is if x and y are equal. We conclude that f is a one-to-one function.

## **ANOTHER PROPOSITION ABOUT MULTIPLICATIVE INVERSES**

**Proposition:** Let q be a positive integer. Let a be an element of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  such that the function  $f: \mathbb{Z}_q \to \mathbb{Z}_q$  defined by

$$f(x) = [ax \bmod q]$$

is a one-to-one function. Then, a has a multiplicative inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .

**Proof:** Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that *a* does **not** have a multiplicative inverse.

Then, there is no x such that f(x) = 1. But, this means that the function f maps  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  (which has q elements) into the set

$$\{0,2,3,4,5,6,\dots q-1\},\$$

which has only (q - 1) elements.

Since f is a one-to-one function, this is a contradiction. We conclude that a must have a multiplicative inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .

## **A FUNDAMENTAL PROPOSITION**

**Question:** Which elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$  have multiplicative inverses?

The next proposition will eventually help us to answer that question.

#### More terminology:

We say that one integer n **divides** another integer m if there exists an integer c such that m = nc.

If a, b are positive integers, then the **greatest common divisor** of a, b (denoted "gcd(a, b)") is the largest integer that divides both.

## **A FUNDAMENTAL PROPOSITION**

**Proposition:** Let *a*, *b* be positive integers. Then, there exist integers *x*, *y* such that ax + by = gcd(a, b).

**Proof:** Let *d* be the smallest positive integer in the set  $S = \{ax + by \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ . Let  $r = [a \mod d]$ . Then, a = nd + r for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Since d = ax + by, we have

$$r = a - n(ax + by) = a(1 - nx) - b(ny),$$

which means that r is in S.

Since  $0 \le r < d$  and we assumed that *d* is the smallest positive element of S, we conclude that r = 0 and thus *d* divides *a*. Similar reasoning shows that *d* divides *b*.

Therefore, d is a common divisor of a, b.

On the other hand, d must be divisible by gcd(a, b) (since gcd(a, b) divides every element of S), and so  $d \ge gcd(a, b)$ . We conclude that d is itself the greatest common divisor of a, b. This completes the proof.

## A CRITERION FOR MULTIPLICATIVE INVERSES

**Corollary:** Let q be a positive integer. Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_q$  be such that gcd(a,q) = 1. Then, a has a multiplicative inverse in  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ . **Proof:** By the previous proposition, find  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that ax + qy = 1. Then,

 $ax = 1 \mod q$ .

(Exercise: Prove the converse of this statement.)

## **COMMENTS ABOUT COMPUTATION**

We consider an operation to be efficient if it takes time that is polynomial in the **length** of its input.

(If the input is a sequence of integers, then its length is, approximately, the number of bits needed to represent those integers in base 2.)

So, addition is efficient:

 $\begin{array}{c}1\;1\;1\;0\;1\;1\;0\;0\;0\;1\\+\;1\;0\;0\;0\;0\;1\;0\;1\;1\;0\end{array}$ 

### $1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 1$

So are multiplication and mod.

Can multiplicative inverses be computed efficiently?

**Yes** – Euclid's algorithm. See appendix B.1.2.

## **SUMMING UP**

We reviewed the concept of **public-key cryptography.** 

We did experiments with **modular arithmetic** ( $\mathbb{Z}_q$ ) and noted patterns.

We did some model proofs dealing with the **multiplicative structure** of  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .

Coming up: We'll look more at the exponential function for  $\mathbb{Z}_q$ .