

Euler's Theorem and Public-Key Encryption



Lecture 16, CS 284, Autumn 2021

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Outline

- ① Recall groups and prove Euler's Theorem
- ② The groups \mathbb{Z}_N and \mathbb{Z}_N^*
- ③ Public Key Encryption Definitions
- ④ RSA Encryption

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Definition of a Group (Recall)

Def A non-empty set G with binary operation \circ is called a group if the following hold:

(Identity) ① There exists $e \in G$ such that $e \circ g = g \circ e = g$ for all $g \in G$.

(Inverses) ② For all $g \in G$ there is $h \in G$ such that $g \circ h = h \circ g = e$.

(Associativity) ③ For all $g_1, g_2, g_3 \in G$, $(g_1 \circ g_2) \circ g_3 = g_1 \circ (g_2 \circ g_3)$.

G is called an abelian group if it also satisfies

(Commutativity) ④ For all $g, h \in G$, $g \circ h = h \circ g$.

Notation

$$\cdot g^a = \underbrace{g \circ g \circ \dots \circ g}_{a \text{ times}}$$

$\cdot g^{-1}$ is the inverse of g

$$\cdot g^{-a} = \underbrace{g^{-1} \circ g^{-1} \circ \dots \circ g^{-1}}_{a \text{ times}}$$

$$\underline{\text{Claim}} \quad g^a \circ g^b = g^{a+b}$$

$$\underline{\text{Claim}} \quad (g^a)^b = g^{ab}$$

Example

$G = \{0, 1\}^n$, operation bitwise XOR. $x \oplus y$

ID: 0^n $x \oplus 0^n = 0^n \oplus x = x$

Inverse: $x^{-1} = x$ $\therefore x \oplus x^{-1} = x \oplus x = 0^n$ (identity)

Assoc: $(x \oplus y) \oplus z = x \oplus (y \oplus z)$

Comm: $x \oplus y = y \oplus x$

Identity is Unique in a Group.

Claim Let G be a group. If $e_1, e_2 \in G$ both satisfy the condition for being an identity, then $e_1 = e_2$.

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Proof We are given that

$$e_1 \circ g = g \circ e_1 = g \text{ for all } g \in G, \quad (*)$$

and

$$e_2 \circ g = g \circ e_2 = g \text{ for all } g \in G. \quad (**)$$

Apply $(*)$ with $g = e_2$: $e_1 \circ e_2 = e_2$. Next apply $(**)$ with $g = e_1$,

to get $e_1 \circ e_2 = e_1$. Since $e_1 \circ e_2 = e_2$ and $e_1 \circ e_2 = e_1$, $e_1 = e_2$.

Inverses are Unique in a Group

Claim Let G be a group and $g \in G$. If $h_1, h_2 \in G$ both satisfy the condition for being an inverse of g , then $h_1 = h_2$.

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Proof We are given that $g \circ h_1 = h_1 \circ g = e$, and $g \circ h_2 = h_2 \circ g = e$.

Consider $h_2 \circ g \circ h_1$. Since h_1 is an inverse of g ,

$$h_2 \circ g \circ h_1 = h_2 \circ (g \circ h_1) = h_2 \circ e = h_2.$$

But h_2 is also an inverse of g , so

$$h_2 \circ g \circ h_1 = (h_2 \circ g) \circ h_1 = e \circ h_1 = h_1.$$

Thus $h_2 \circ g \circ h_1 = h_2$ and $= h_1$, so $h_1 = h_2$.

Cancellation in Groups

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Proof The following are equivalent:

- existence of inverses \curvearrowright
- Associativity \curvearrowright
- Def of Inv. \curvearrowright
- Def of Ident. \curvearrowright
- ① $gh = kh$
 - ② $(gh)h^{-1} = (kh)h^{-1}$
 - ③ $g(hh^{-1}) = k(hh^{-1})$
 - ④ $ge = ke$
 - ⑤ $g = k$

Order of a Group + An Interesting Theorem

Def The **order of group G** is simply $|G|$, the size of G as a set when G is finite.

Theorem Let G be an abelian group of (finite) order m . Then for every $g \in G$,

$$g^m = e.$$

$$G = \{0, 1\}^n$$

$$|G| = 2^n$$

$$g \in G$$

$$\underbrace{g \oplus g \oplus \dots \oplus g}_{2^n} = 0^n$$

A Lemma used to Prove Theorem

Lemma Let G be an abelian group of order m , and let g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m be the elements of G written in some order. Let $g \in G$ and define $h_1 = gg_1, h_2 = gg_2, \dots, h_m = gg_m$. Then h_1, h_2, \dots, h_m are all distinct. Thus h_1, \dots, h_m is just all of the elements of G , possibly in a different order.

Proof: If $h_i = h_j$ then $gg_i = gg_j$. By Cancellation, $g_i = g_j$. But we assumed these were distinct, so this is a contradiction.

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Proof We claim that $g \circ g \circ \dots \circ g_m = (g \circ g_1) \circ (g \circ g_2) \circ \dots \circ (g \circ g_m)$.

By the lemma, both sides are products of all elements of G , possibly in a different order. But since G is abelian, order does not change the product.

Next, the right hand side equals $g^m (g_1 \circ g_2 \circ \dots \circ g_m)$, so

$$g \circ g \circ \dots \circ g_m = g^m (g_1 \circ g_2 \circ \dots \circ g_m).$$

How to finish? Cancel $g_1 \circ g_2 \circ \dots \circ g_m$ on both sides: $e = g^m$.

Theorem Let G be an abelian group of (finite) order m . Then for every $g \in G$,

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Corollary Let G be a finite abelian group of order $m > 1$. Then for any $g \in G$ and any ^{integer} i , $g^i = g^{[i \bmod m]}$.

Corollary Let G be a finite abelian group of order $m > 1$. Then for any $g \in G$ and any i , $g^i = g^{[i \bmod m]}$.

Proof Use division with remainder to find q, r such that

$$i = qm + r, \quad 0 \leq r < m.$$

Then $r = [i \bmod m]$. We set

$$g^i = g^{qm+r} = g^{qm} \cdot g^r = (g^m)^q \cdot g^r = e^q \cdot g^r = g^r$$

which is $g^{[i \bmod m]}$.

Corollary Let G be a finite abelian group of order $m > 1$. Let $e > 0$ be an integer relatively prime to m . Then the function f_e ,

$$f_e: G \rightarrow G, \\ g \mapsto g^e$$

$$\underline{f_e(g) = g^e}$$

is a permutation. Moreover, if d is an inverse of e modulo m , then

$$f_d: G \rightarrow G \\ g \mapsto g^d$$

$$f_d(s) = s^d$$

is the inverse of f_e .

$$\text{For all } g \\ f_d(f_e(s)) = g \\ = f_e(f_d(s))$$

Proof For any $g \in G$

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

Since we can mod down the exponent by the group order,

$$g^{ed} = g^{[ed \bmod m]} = g^1 = g$$

Since d is an inverse of e modulo m , $[ed \bmod m] = 1$, and we set

$$f_d(f_e(s)) = s.$$

This shows f_d is the inverse of f_e , and that f_e must be a perm!

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\mathbb{Z}_N : Groups with Modular Addition

$\mathbb{Z} / N\mathbb{Z}$ math notation

Def For a positive integer N , define $\mathbb{Z}_N = \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$.

Claim For each positive integer N , \mathbb{Z}_N with operation $| \mathbb{Z}_N | = N$

$$x \circ y = [x + y \text{ mod } N]$$

is a group.

Proof:

ID: \emptyset

INV: inverse of $x = N - x$ if $x \notin \emptyset$, else \emptyset

Assoc: \checkmark

$$\begin{aligned} x \circ (N-x) &= [x + (N-x) \text{ mod } N] \\ &= [N \text{ mod } N] \\ &= \emptyset \in \mathbb{Z}_N \end{aligned}$$

Groups with Modular Multiplication

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What if we toss out 0? $\mathbb{Z}_N \setminus \{0\}$

Groups with Modular Multiplication

Is \mathbb{Z}_N also a group with operation $x \circ y = [xy \bmod N]$?

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What if we toss out 0?

↳ No, see example.

Example $\mathbb{Z}_4 \setminus \{0\} = \{1, 2, 3\}$ is still not a group with $x \circ y = [xy \bmod 4]$.

The group operation isn't even valid! $2 \in \mathbb{Z}_4$, but $2 \circ 2 = [2 \cdot 2 \bmod 4] = 0 \notin \mathbb{Z}_4$.

The Group \mathbb{Z}_N^*

Intuition: Need to throw out not just $0 \in \mathbb{Z}_N$, but everything that does not have an inverse modular.

Def For a positive integer N , define

$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{ x \mid 1 \leq x < N, \gcd(x, N) = 1 \}.$$

Claim For each positive integer N , \mathbb{Z}_N^* with operation $x \circ y = [xy \text{ mod } N]$ is a group.

Proof Sketch: ID 1 ✓

INV x^{-1} is modular
inverse of $x \text{ mod } N$

ASSOC: ✓

The Order of \mathbb{Z}_n^*

Examples

$$\mathbb{Z}_4^* =$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_5^* =$$

$$\mathbb{Z}_{15}^* =$$

ON BOARD

Def The "Euler-phi function" ϕ is defined to be $\phi(N) = |\mathbb{Z}_N^*|$.

varphi
not phi

Two Special Cases of $\phi(n)$

Claim If p is prime, then $\phi(p) = p - 1$.

Example $\phi(5) = 5 - 1 = 4$

Claim If $p \neq q$ are both prime, then $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1) = pq - p - q + 1$

Proof $\mathbb{Z}_{pq} = \{0, 1, \dots, p, \dots, q, \dots, 2p, \dots, 2q, \dots$



$\dots pq - 1 \}$

$\rightarrow q$ multiplies \mathbb{Z}_p

$\rightarrow p$ multiplies \mathbb{Z}_q

Euler's Theorem (!)


Theorem For any positive integer N , and integer a relatively prime to N ,

$$a^{\varphi(N)} = 1 \pmod{N}.$$

Proof

In \mathbb{Z}_N^* , $\sum_{g \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*} g = 1$ for any $g \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$.

$\varphi(N)$



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Public-Key Encryption Syntax

Def A **public-key encryption scheme** Π consists of three algorithms

$\Pi = (\text{Keygen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$, where

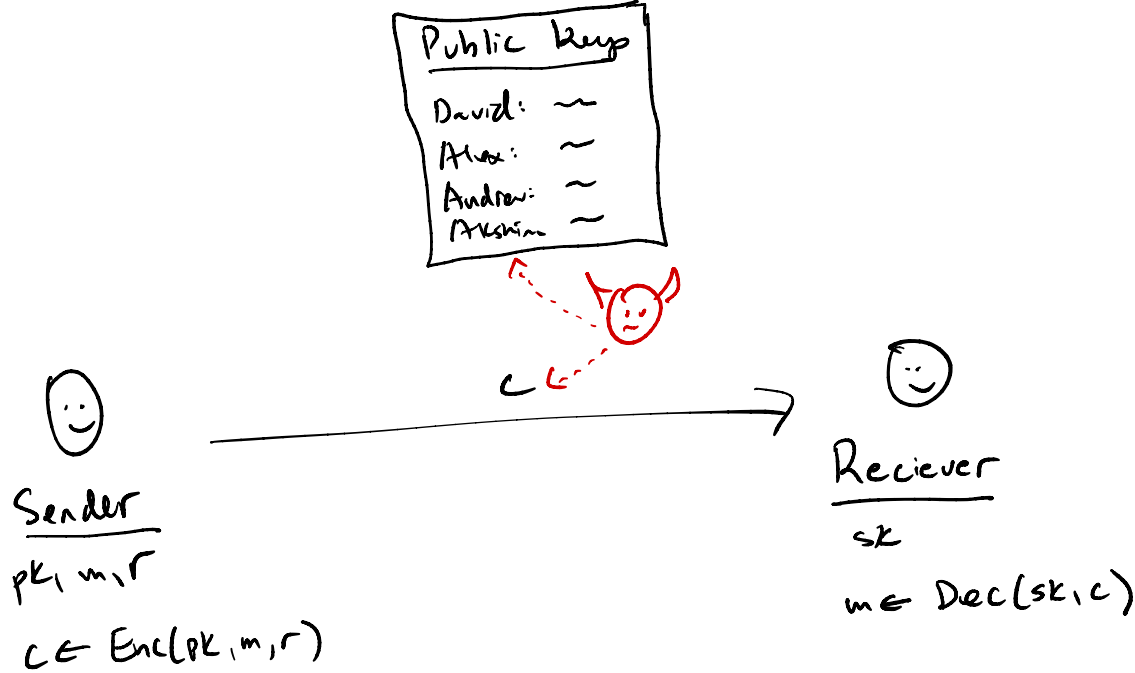
- Keygen is randomized, takes no input besides random bits, and outputs two keys (pk, sk) .
- Enc is randomized (with input r written explicitly), takes ^{two} ~~more~~ inputs pk, m , and outputs a ciphertext.
- Dec is deterministic, takes inputs sk, c and outputs m .

Correctness of Public-key Encryption

Π is **correct** if for all (pk, sk) output by Keygen , and all messages m ,
and all r ,

$$\text{Dec}(sk, \text{Enc}(pk, m, r)) = m.$$

Chosen-Plain Text Attack Security: Motivation



- has pk and c , but not sk or r
- wants info about m ; can influence what sender encrypts

Chosen-Plaintext Attack Security: Definition

Def Let $\Pi = (\text{Keygen}, \text{Enc}, \text{Dec})$ be a public-key encryption scheme, and let \mathcal{A} be an adversary. Define $\text{Expt}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A})$ by

$$\underline{\text{Expt}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A})}$$

1. Run $(pk, sk) \leftarrow \text{Keygen}()$
2. Give pk to \mathcal{A} . It chooses two messages m_0, m_1 .
3. Pick $b \in \{0, 1\}$, random r , compute $c \leftarrow \text{Enc}(pk, m_b, r)$.
4. Give c to \mathcal{A} . It outputs \hat{b} .
5. If $\hat{b} = b$ output 1. Else output 0.

$$\text{Define } \text{Adv}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A}) = \left| \Pr[\text{Expt}_{\Pi}^{\text{cpa}}(\mathcal{A}) = 1] - \frac{1}{2} \right|.$$

Chosen-Plaintext Attack Security: Discussion

* No oracle for Enc; Just "one shot" for \mathcal{A} .

↳ But giving an oracle actually does not change definition much.

* Deterministic Enc algorithm \Rightarrow can't have good CPA security

The End

