# Lecture 14: Hardness Assumptions 

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## Today

- Some background
- Some hardness assumptions
- Discrete logarithm
- RSA
- LWE
- Scribe notes volunteers?


## Modular arithmetic

- $\mathbb{N}$ and $\mathbb{R}$ set of natural and real numbers respectively.
- $\mathbb{Z}=$ set of integers, $\mathbb{Z}^{+}, \mathbb{Z}^{-}$for + ve and -ve integers.
- For $n \in \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Z}_{N}$ denotes set of integers modulo $N$; i.e.:

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{N}:=\{0,1,2, \ldots, N-1\}
$$

- We can perform "arithmetic in $\mathbb{Z}_{N}$ ":
* if we divide integer $a$ by $N$, the remainder (say $r$ ) is in $\mathbb{Z}_{N}$; we write $r=a \bmod N$.
* Addition becomes $(a+b) \bmod N=(a \bmod N)+(b \bmod N) \bmod N$
* Multiply becomes $(a \times b) \bmod N=(a \bmod N) \times(b \bmod N) \bmod N$
- We say that " $a$ is congruent to $b$ modulo $N$ " if $a, b$ have the same remainder and write:

$$
a \equiv b \quad \bmod N
$$

- $a \equiv 0 \bmod N$ if and only $N \mid a$ (" $N$ divides $a$ ").


## Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- If $a, b$ are two integers, $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$ denotes their greatest common divisor.
- $a, b$ are relatively prime if they are non-zero and have no common factors, i.e., $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$
- gcd is easy to compute for any two integers $a, b$.
- Extended Euclidean: $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ there exist integers $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ (which are also easy to compute) s.t. $a x+b y=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$.
- If $a, b$ are relatively prime then $a x+b y=1 . \Longrightarrow a x \equiv 1 \bmod b$.
- $\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}=$ set of integers $\bmod N$ that are relatively prime to $N$ :

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}=\{1 \leqslant x \leqslant N-1: \operatorname{gcd}(x, N)=1\}
$$

$\Longrightarrow \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*} \exists x: a x=1 \bmod N$.

- Such an $x$ is called the inverse of $a$.


## Integers modulo a prime

- Of special interest is the case when $N$ is a prime number, say $p$.
- This defines:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{Z}_{p} & =\{0,1,2, \ldots, p-1\} \\
\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*} & =\{1 \leqslant x \leqslant p-1: \operatorname{gcd}(x, p)=1\} \\
& =\{1,2, \ldots, p-1\} \\
\left|\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}\right| & =p-1
\end{aligned}
$$

## Fermat's Little Theorem

If $p$ is a prime, then for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ :

$$
a^{p-1} \quad \bmod p=1
$$

## Euler's generalization

- Recall: $\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}=$ integers $\bmod N$ that are relatively prime to $N$

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}=\{1 \leqslant x \leqslant N-1: \operatorname{gcd}(x, N)=1\} .
$$

- Euler's theorem: for any $N \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}$ :

$$
a^{\phi(N)} \quad \bmod N=1 .
$$

where $\phi(N)$ is Euler's totient function: $\phi(N)=\left|\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}\right|$.

- Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: every integer $N$ can be written as

$$
N=\prod_{i=1}^{k} p_{i}^{e_{i}}
$$

for primes $p_{1}<p_{2}<\ldots<p_{k}$ (called factors) and positive integers $e_{i}>0$. This factorization is unique (with empty product taken to be 1 ).

$$
\phi(N)=N \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(1-\frac{1}{p_{i}}\right)
$$

- If $N=p q$ for distinct primes $p, q$, then $\phi(N)=(p-1) \cdot(q-1)$.


## Groups

- Groups: a set $G$ with a "group operation" $\vdots G \times G \rightarrow G$ satisfying:
- Closure: $\forall a, b \in G, a \odot b \in G$,
- Identity: $\exists e \in G$ (idenitity) s.t. $\forall a \in G: a \odot e=e \odot a=a$.
- Associativity: $\forall a, b, c \in G:(a \odot b) \odot c=a \odot(b \odot c)$.
- Inverse: $\forall a \in G \exists b \in G$ s.t. $a \odot b=b \odot a=e$ (identity).
- (Abelian group): a group with commutative property $-\forall a, b \in G$ : $a \odot b=b \odot a$.
- Examples: $\left(\mathbb{Z}_{N},+\right),\left(\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}, \times\right)$ are "additive" and "multiplicative" groups for all $N$.
- (Corollary of Lagrange's Theorem): $\quad \mathbf{x}^{|\mathbf{G}|}=\mathbf{e}$.
- (Generator): $g \in G$ is a generator of $G$ if the set $\left\{g, g^{2}, \ldots\right\}=G$. The set of of all generators of $G$ will be denoted by $\operatorname{Gen}_{G}$.


## Discrete Logarithm Problem

- Roughly speaking: given $(p, g, y)$ such that $p$ is a large prime, $g, y \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ find $x$ such that $y=g^{x} \bmod p$.
- Not hard for many cases, e.g., if $g=1$, or $p$ is a "special prime", e.g., if $p-1$ has small factors.
- However, if $g$ is a generator the problem is believed to be hard.
- Normally we want to work with a group such that $|G|=$ number of elements in $G$ is prime. ( $|G|$ is also called the order of the group)
- $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$ has $p-1$ elements which is not prime.
- However, suppose that $p=2 q+1$ and $q$ is also a prime. Such primes are called "safe primes"
- Now consider a subset $G_{q}=\left\{x^{2}: x \in \mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}\right\}$. It is easy to prove that $G_{q}$ is a group of prime order $q$.


## Discrete Logarithm Problem (continued)

- This means that you can cycle through all $q$ elements of $G$ by applying the group operation to the generator over and over again.
- There are other ways to construct prime order groups, e.g., group formed by points on an appropriate elliptic curve.
- Hard to compute discrete log in prime order groups...


## Assumption (Discrete Log Assumption)

If $G_{q}$ is a group of prime order $q$ then for every non-uniform PPT $\mathcal{A}$ there exists a negligible function $\mu$ s.t.:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[q \leftarrow \Pi_{n} ; g \leftarrow \operatorname{Gen}_{G_{q}} ; x \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q}: \mathcal{A}\left(1^{n}, g^{x}\right)=x\right] \leqslant \mu(n)
$$

- Note: not true for all groups, but there are groups where it is believed to be hard.


## Diffie-Hellman Problems

- The adversary gets $X=g^{x} \bmod p$, and $Y=g^{y} \bmod p$ and $(p, g)$.
- The Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH) problem is as follows:

Given $\left(g, q, g^{x}, g^{y}\right)$, compute $g^{x y} \in G_{q}$ where $x, y$ are random and all computations are in $G_{q}$.

- When working with a safe $p=2 q+1, g$ can be generator for order $q$ subgroup, and computations can be modulo $p$.
- CDH Assumption: $\forall$ non-uniform PPT $A, \exists$ negligible $\mu$ s.t. $\forall n$ : $A$ solves the CDH problem with probability at most $\mu(n)$.


## Diffie-Hellman Problems

- In fact, $g^{x y}$ "looks indistinguishable" from a random group element
- Roughly, the Decisional Diffie-Hellman problem is:

Distinguish $\left(g, p, g^{x}, g^{y}, g^{x y}\right)$ from $\left(g, p, g^{x}, g^{y}, g^{z}\right)$ where $(x, y, z)$ are random and all computations are in $G_{q}$.

- DDH Assumption: $\forall$ non-uniform PPT "distinguishers" $D, \exists$ negligible $\mu$ s.t. $\forall n$ : $D$ solves the DDH problem with probability at $\operatorname{most} \frac{1}{2}+\mu(n)$.


## RSA Function and RSA Assumption

- $\mathrm{RSA}=$ Rivest, Shamir, Adleman
- Let $p, q$ be large random primes of roughly the same size.
- Let $N=p q . N$ is called a RSA modulus.
- Recall that $\phi(N)=(p-1)(q-1)$
- Recall that: $\phi(N)=\left|\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}\right|$ where:

$$
\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*}=\left\{x \in \mathbb{Z}_{N}: \operatorname{gcd}(x, N)=1\right\}
$$

## RSA Function and RSA Assumption

- Let $e$ be an odd number between 1 and $\phi(N)$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(e, \phi(N))=1
$$

Therefore, $e \in \mathbb{Z}_{\phi(N)}^{*}$.

- Let $d$ be such that:

$$
e \cdot d=1 \quad \bmod \phi(N)
$$

- If $\phi(N)$ is known, you can compute $d$.
- If $\phi(N)$ is not known, $d$ seems hard to compute!
- Therefore, $\phi(N)$ must be kept secret.


## RSA Function and RSA Assumption

- Let $N, e, d$ be as before so that $e \cdot d=1 \bmod \phi(N)$.
- $d$ can be used to compute $e$-th root of numbers modulo $N$.

Suppose that $y=x^{e} \bmod N$, then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
y^{d} \bmod N & =x^{e d} \bmod N \\
& =x^{e d} \bmod \phi(N) \bmod N \\
& =x \bmod N
\end{aligned}
$$

- Without $d$, it seems hard to compute $e$-th roots $\bmod N$. (RSA Assumption)
- We can publish $(N, e)$, and it would be hard to compute $e$-th roots!
- Furthermore, we can use $d$ as a secret trapdoor!


## RSA Function and RSA Assumption

## Definition (RSA Assumption)

For every non-uniform PPT $A$ there exists a negligible function $\mu$ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left[\begin{array}{l}
p, q \leftarrow \Pi_{n} ; N \leftarrow p q ; \\
e \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{\phi(N ;}^{*} ; y \leftarrow \mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*} ; \quad: \quad x^{e}=y \quad \bmod N \\
x \leftarrow A(N, e, y)
\end{array}\right] \leqslant \mu(n)
$$

- RSA Function: for $N, e$ as above, the following is called the RSA function

$$
f_{N, e}(x)=x^{e} \quad \bmod N
$$

- The RSA Function actually yields a collection of trapdoor one-way permutations. (Later class)


## Learning With Errors (LWE)

- Let $s=\left(s_{1}, \ldots, s_{n}\right) \in Z_{q}^{n}$ some modulus $q$ and a parameter $n$.
- Suppose you are given many equations for known " $a$ " values:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1} \cdot s_{1}+a_{2} \cdot s_{2}+\ldots+a_{n} \cdot s_{n}=b_{1}(\bmod q) \\
& a_{1}^{\prime} \cdot s_{1}+a_{2}^{\prime} \cdot s_{2}+\ldots+a_{n}^{\prime} \cdot s_{n}=b_{2}(\bmod q) \\
& \text { etc. }
\end{aligned}
$$

- You can solve this by Gaussian elimination.
- However, if the equations contain errors, this may not work!


## Learning With Errors (LWE)

- In particular, if you add independent error to each equation distributed according to the Normal Distribution with standard deviation $\alpha q>\sqrt{n}$, the problem is believed to be hard.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a_{1} \cdot s_{1}+a_{2} \cdot s_{2}+\ldots+a_{n} \cdot s_{n} \approx b_{1}(\bmod q) \\
& a_{1}^{\prime} \cdot s_{1}+a_{2}^{\prime} \cdot s_{2}+\ldots+a_{n}^{\prime} \cdot s_{n} \approx b_{2}(\bmod q) \\
& \text { etc }
\end{aligned}
$$

