### Mathematics for Informatics General Algebra 3

(lecture 6 of 12)

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## Outline



Motivation

• Definition and properties

Application of group theory in cryptographyDiffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Homomorphism

Motivation

## The same groups and distinct elements (1/5)

$\mathbb{Z}_5^{\times}$	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

$\mathbb{Z}_4^+$	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
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Homomorphism

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 $\mathbb{Z}^+_{\Lambda}$ 

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subgroups:  $\{1\}$ ,  $\{1,4\}$ ,  $\{1,2,3,4\}$ neutral element: 1



order: 4

subgroups:  $\{0\}$ ,  $\{0,2\}$ ,  $\{0,1,2,3\}$ neutral element: 0



order: 4

subgroups:  $\{1\}$ ,  $\{1,4\}$ ,  $\{1,2,3,4\}$ neutral element: 1

inverse elements:

$$1^{-1} = 1, 2^{-1} = 3, 3^{-1} = 2, 4^{-1} = 4.$$

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Aren't these two groups in fact the same group differing only in the "names" of their elements?



Motivation

## The same groups and distinct elements (2/5)





Let us try to rename the elements of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_5^{\times}$  so to get  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$ :







• The neutral element has very special and unique properties: we rename 1 to 0.







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- If the complete structure should be preserved, then the only two-elements subgroup  $\{1,4\}$  (in  $\mathbb{Z}_5^{\times}$ ) must correspond to the subgroup  $\{0,2\}$  (in  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$ ): we map  $4 \leftrightarrow 2$ .







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- Now, it remains to rename only 2 and 3; we can check that both remaining possibilities work; we choose  $3 \leftrightarrow 1$  and  $2 \leftrightarrow 3$ .





![](_page_12_Figure_2.jpeg)

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- Now, it remains to rename only 2 and 3; we can check that both remaining possibilities work; we choose 3 ↔ 1 and 2 ↔ 3.
- It suffices to reorder the rows... and we have the Cayley table of  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$ .

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- This renaming is actually an injective mapping of the set {1, 2, 3, 4} onto the set {0, 1, 2, 3}; let us denote it φ<sub>1</sub>:

 $\varphi_1(1) = 0, \quad \varphi_1(2) = 3, \quad \varphi_1(3) = 1, \quad \varphi_1(4) = 2.$ 

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• We have pointed out that the mapping  $\varphi_2$  works as well:

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Would all bijections do the same job? And if not, what makes these two so special?

Let us rename the elements of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_5^{\times}$  according to the bijection  $\varphi_3$ :

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![](_page_18_Figure_5.jpeg)

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![](_page_19_Figure_5.jpeg)

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- The resulting table is not the Cayley table of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$ , because, e.g.,  $3+3 \pmod{4} \neq 1$ .
- The bijection φ<sub>3</sub> does not give rise to the same structure of the group Z<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub>; only φ<sub>1</sub> and φ<sub>2</sub> have this property.

The desired property, which only the bijections  $\varphi_1$  and  $\varphi_2$  have, is this:

for all  $n, m \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ , we have  $\varphi(n \times_{{}^{5}} m) = \varphi(n) +_{{}^{4}} \varphi(m)$ ,

where  $\times_5$  denotes the operation in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_5^{\times}$ , and  $+_4$  the one in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$ .

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where  $\times_5$  denotes the operation in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_5^{\times}$ , and  $+_4$  the one in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$ .

In words: If we apply the operation  $\times_5$  to two arbitrary elements of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_5^{\times}$  and then we send the result to  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$  by  $\varphi$ , we obtain the same result as when we first transform by  $\varphi$  the elements to  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$  and **then** apply the operation  $+_4$ .

![](_page_21_Figure_7.jpeg)

### Homomorphism and isomorphism

### Definition

Let  $G = (M, \circ_G)$  and  $H = (N, \circ_H)$  be two groupoids. The mapping  $\varphi : M \to N$  is a homomorphism from G to H if

for all  $x, y \in M$ , we have  $\varphi(x \circ_{G} y) = \varphi(x) \circ_{H} \varphi(y)$ .

If, moreover,  $\varphi$  is injective (resp. surjective, resp. bijective) we say that  $\varphi$  is a monomorphism (resp. epimorphism, resp. isomorphism).

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- A homomorphism preserves the structure given by the binary operation: the result is the same if we first apply the operation and then the homomorphism than if we proceed inversely.
- The only thing needed to define a homomorphism is that the set is closed under the binary operation; this is why we have defined homomorphism for the most general structures, i.e., groupoids.

### Isomorphic groups

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Isomorphic groups have the same order.

#### Theorem

Let  $\varphi$  be a homomorphism from a group  $G = (M, \circ_G)$  to  $H = (N, \circ_H)$ . The group  $\varphi(G) = (\varphi(M), \circ_H)$  is a subgroup of H.

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• For all  $x, y, z \in M$  we have that

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• Denote by  $e_{G}$  the neutral element in G. Then  $\varphi(e_{G})$  is the neutral element in  $\varphi(G)$  because, for all  $x \in M$ , we have  $\varphi(e_{G}) \circ_{H} \varphi(x) = \varphi(e_{G} \circ_{G} x) = \varphi(x)$ .

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• It can be shown similarly that the inverse of  $\varphi(x)$  is  $\varphi(x^{-1})$ .

### Consequences of the previous theorem and its proof:

• A homomorphism always maps the neutral element of one group to the neutral element of the other group.

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#### Example

$$\begin{aligned}
\varphi : \mathbb{Z}_4^+ &\to \mathbb{Z}_8^+ \\
& n &\mapsto 2n
\end{aligned}$$

is a homomorphism and  $\varphi(\mathbb{Z}_4^+)$  is the subgroup  $\{0, 2, 4, 6\}$ .

Isomorphic groups are in fact identical, they differ only in the names of their elements (as we have seen in the case of groups  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_5^\times$ ). If we say that there exists one group with a certain property up to isomorphism, it means that all groups with this property are isomorphic to each other. We prove three well-known statements of this kind.

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Any two infinite cyclic groups are isomorphic. For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , any two cyclic groups of order n are isomorphic.

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Let  $G = \langle a \rangle$  be a cyclic group with generator a. We show that an arbitrary infinite cyclic group is isomorphic to the group  $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$ , and that an arbitrary cyclic group of order n is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_n^+$ . The rest follows from the transitivity of the relation "to be isomorphic".

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 $(\mathbb{Z}, +)$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_n^+$  are the only cyclic groups up to isomorphism.

The Klein group is the group  $(\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2, \circ)$ , where

 $\mathbb{Z}_2\times\mathbb{Z}_2=\{(0,0),(0,1),(1,0),(1,1)\}$ 

and  $\circ$  is the component-wise addition modulo 2: e.g.,  $(1,0) \circ (1,1) = (0,1)$ .

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The Klein group is not cyclic and thus cannot be isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$ ! It is possible to show this (try it, it is easy):

#### Theorem

There exists only two groups of order 4 which are not isomorphic.

 $\mathbb{Z}_4^+$  and the Klein group are the only two groups of order 4 up to isomorphism.

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- Each permutation  $\pi \in S_n$  can be defined by listing its values:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & \cdots & n \\ \pi(1) & \pi(2) & \pi(3) & \cdots & \pi(n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

The first row could by deleted, and so, e.g.,  $(1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5) \in S_5$  is the permutation swapping elements 3 and 4.

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- Composition of permutations:  $(1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5) \circ (2 \ 1 \ 3 \ 5 \ 4) = (2 \ 1 \ 4 \ 5 \ 3).$
- The composition of permutations is associative, the permutation  $(1 \ 2 \ 3 \ \cdots n)$  is the neutral element, and the inverse element is the inverse permutation. Hence,  $S_n$  is a group of order n!.

Subgroups of the symmetric group  $S_n$  are called groups of permutations.

#### Example

The permutation  $(1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5) \in S_5$  swapping the elements 3 and 4 generates a subgroup of  $S_5$  containing two elements:  $(1 \ 2 \ 4 \ 3 \ 5)$  and  $(1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ 5)$ .

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The structure of the subgroups of  $S_n$  is very (in some sense maximally) rich:

### Theorem (Cayley)

Each finite group is isomorphic to some group of permutations.

### Proof: hint only for interested.

Let *a* be an element of a group *G* of order *n* with a binary operation  $\circ$ . Put  $\pi_a(x) = a \circ x$ . Since in any group we can divide uniquely,  $\pi_a$  is a bijection and thus a permutation! The desired monomorphism is the mapping defined for each element *a* in this way:  $\varphi(a) = \pi_a \dots$ 

### Outline

### Homomorphism

Motivation

• Definition and properties

### 2 Application of group theory in cryptography

• Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

#### Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

### Discrete logarithm problem

The standard logarithm (in base a) of the number b is the solution of the equation

 $a^{\times} = b$  in the group  $(\mathbb{R}, \cdot)$ .

### Definition (Discrete logarithm problem in

Let us consider the group  $\mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$ ,  $\alpha$  one of its generator and  $\beta$  one of its element. To solve the discrete logarithm problem means to find the integer  $1 \le x \le p-1$  such that

 $\alpha^{\mathsf{x}} \equiv \beta \; (\textit{mod } p)$ 

### The discrete logarithm?

No reasonably fast algorithm solving the discrete logarithm problem is known. But rising to the power in  $\mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$  can be done effectively.

The speed of the best known algorithms is roughly proportional to  $\sqrt{p}$ , i.e., for *p* having its binary representation 1024 bits long, such algorithm makes approximately 2<sup>512</sup> operations.

Thus we obtain a one-way function that can be used for asymmetric cipher:

- Find  $\beta \equiv \alpha^{x} \pmod{p}$  is easy, knowing x,  $\alpha$  and p;
- Find x, knowing  $\beta$ ,  $\alpha$  and p is very difficult

In RSA (**R**ivest-**S**hamir-**A**dleman) cryptosystem, the one way function "multiplying of primes" is used:

• Multiplication of primes is easy and fast, while prime factorization of the result is very difficult.

## RSA

### Alice

Initialization: she finds two large prime numbers p and q, she computes  $n = p \cdot q$  and  $\varphi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ , she chooses  $e \in \{1, 2, \dots, \varphi(n) - 1\}$  so that  $gcd(e, \varphi(n)) = 1$ , she computes the private key d so that  $d \cdot e = 1 \mod \varphi(n)$ . She sends the public key  $k_{pub} = (n, e)$  to Bob.

### Bob

Bob wants to send the message x.

He encrypts the message  $y = x^e \mod n$  and sends y to Alice.

#### Alice

Alice decrypts the message by  $x = y^d \mod n$ .

### Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Initialization: Alice finds some large prime number p and some generator  $\alpha$  of the group  $\mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$ . **She publishes p and**  $\alpha$ . (Finding a large prime and a generator are not easy

Bob

She publishes p and  $\alpha$ . (Finding a large prime and a generator are not easy tasks!)

### Alice

### chooses private key $a \in \{2, ..., p-2\}$ computes public key $A \equiv \alpha^{a} \mod p$

chooses private key  $b \in \{2, ..., p-2\}$ computes public key  $B \equiv \alpha^b \mod p$ 

exchange of public keys 
$$A$$
 and  $B$ 

computes  $k_{AB} \equiv B^a \mod p$  comp

computes 
$$k_{AB} \equiv A^b \mod p$$

## Principle

Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange is built on the following facts:

Rising to the power in Z<sup>×</sup><sub>p</sub> is commutative, and so the value of k<sub>AB</sub> is the same for both Alice and Bob:

$$k_{AB} \equiv (\alpha^b)^a \equiv \alpha^{ab} \mod p$$
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- Rising to the power is not computationally complex (square & multiply algorithm).
- The inverse operation to rising to the power (the discrete logarithm) is computationally exhausting.

### Discrete logarithm in general

The discrete logarithm problem can be defined in an arbitrary cyclic group.

Definition (problem of discrete logarithm in group  $G = (M, \cdot)$ )

Let  $G = (M, \cdot)$  be a cyclic group of order n,  $\alpha$  one of its generators and  $\beta$  one of its an element.

To solve the discrete logarithm problem means to find the integer  $1 \le x \le n$  s.t.

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If we use additive notation:

Definition (problem of discrete logarithm in group G = (M, +))

Let G = (M, +) be a cyclic group of order n,  $\alpha$  one of its generators and  $\beta$  one of its element.

To solve the discrete logarithm problem means to find the integer  $1 \le k \le n$  s.t.

$$\mathbf{k} \times \alpha = \beta.$$

Consider the group  $\mathbb{Z}_p^+$ .

It is a cyclic group of prime order p, and each positive  $\alpha is its generator.$ The problem of discrete logarithm in this group has the form of the equation

 $k\alpha \equiv \beta \pmod{p}$ .

We can solve it easily: we find the inverse of  $\alpha$  in the group  $\mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$  (by polynomial EEA, see the following lectures), and the solution is  $k = \beta \alpha^{-1} \pmod{p}$ .

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#### Example

Let p = 11,  $\alpha = 3$  and  $\beta = 5$ . We want to find k such that  $k \cdot 3 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$ .

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#### Question

We know that groups  $\mathbb{Z}_p^{\times}$  and  $\mathbb{Z}_{p-1}^+$  are isomorphic and in fact the same. Is this a problem for the Diffie-Hellman algorithm?

#### Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

### Calculation on elliptic curves

On elliptic curves, we use points (x, y) with x and y being the residue classes modulo some prime number p.

The operation, which is usually denoted by +, is defined as follows:

#### Definition

For two points  $\mathcal{P} = (x_1, y_1)$  and  $\mathcal{Q} = (x_2, y_2)$ , we define  $\mathcal{P} + \mathcal{Q} = (x_3, y_3)$  as:

$$x_{3} \equiv s^{2} - x_{1} - x_{2} \pmod{p}$$

$$y_{3} \equiv s(x_{1} - x_{3}) - y_{1} \pmod{p}$$

$$s = \begin{cases} \frac{y_{2} - y_{1}}{x_{2} - x_{1}} \pmod{p} & \text{if } \mathcal{P} \neq \mathcal{Q} \\ \frac{3x_{1}^{2} + a}{2y_{1}} \pmod{p} & \text{if } \mathcal{P} = \mathcal{Q}. \end{cases}$$

where

The parameter a is taken from the equation of a given elliptic curve  $y^2 \equiv x^3 + ax + b \pmod{p}$ , with  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , which must by fulfilled by all points. The neutral element  $\mathcal{O}$  is "artificially" defined such that it has the properties of the neutral element.