

Discrete Exponent Function - DEF (1/14)

The Discrete Exponent Function (**DEF**) used in cryptography firstly was introduced in the cyclic multiplicative group $Z_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$, with binary multiplication operation $*$ **mod** p , where p is prime number. Further the generalizations were made especially in *Elliptic Curve Groups* laying a foundation of *Elliptic Curve CryptoSystems* (ECCS) in general and in *Elliptic Curve Digital Signature Algorithm* (ECDSA) in particular.

Let g be a generator of Z_p^* then **DEF** is defined in the following way:

$$\mathbf{DEF}_g(x) = g^x \bmod p = a;$$

DEF argument x is associated with the private key – **PrK** (or other secret parameters) and therefore we will label it in red and value a is associated with public key – **PuK** (or other secret parameters) and therefore we will label it in green.

In order to ensure the security of cryptographic protocols, a large prime number p is chosen. This prime number has a length of 2048 bits, which means it is represented in decimal as being on the order of 2^{2048} , or approximately $p \sim 2^{2048}$.

In our modeling with Octave, we will use p of length having only 28 bits for convenience. We will deal also with a strong prime numbers.

T2. Fermat (little)Theorem. If p is prime, then [Sakalauskas, at al.]

$$z^{p-1} = 1 \bmod p$$

Discrete Exponent Function (2/14)

Definition. Binary operation $*$ **mod** p in Z_p^* is an arithmetic multiplication of two integers called operands and taking the result as a residue by dividing by p .

For example, let $p = 11$, then $Z_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$, then $5 * 8 \bmod 11 = 40 \bmod 11 = 7$, where $7 \in Z_p^*$.

In our example the residue of 40 by dividing by 11 is equal to 7, i.e., $40 = 3 * 11 + 7$.
Then $40 \bmod 11 = (33 + 7) \bmod 11 = (33 \bmod 11 + 7 \bmod 11) \bmod 11 = (0 + 7) \bmod 11 = 7$.
Notice that $33 \bmod 11 = 0$ and $7 \bmod 11 = 7$.

Definition: The integer g is a generator in Z_p^* if powering it by integer exponent values x all obtained numbers that are computed **mod** p generates all elements in in Z_p^* .

So, it is needed to have at least $p-1$ exponents x to generate all $p-1$ elements of Z_p^* . You will see that exactly $p-1$ exponents x is enough.

Discrete Exponent Function (3/14)

Let Γ be the set of generators in Z_p^* . How to find a generator in Z_p^* ?

In general, it is a hard problem, but using strong prime p and *Lagrange theorem in group theory* the generator in Z_p^* can be found by random search satisfying two following conditions if p is strongprime.

For all $g \in \Gamma$

$$g^q \neq 1 \pmod{p}; \text{ and } g^2 \neq 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Fermat little theorem: If p is prime then for all integers i :

$$i^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Corollaries: 1. The exponent $p-1$ is equivalent to the exponent 0, since $i^0 = i^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$.

2. Any exponent e can be reduced $\pmod{p-1}$, i.e.

$$i^e \pmod{p} = i^{e \pmod{p-1}} \pmod{p}.$$

3. All non-equivalent exponents x are in the set $Z_{p-1} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-2\}$; +, -, * $\pmod{p-1}$ and \pmod{p} with exception.

4. Sets Z_{p-1} and Z_p^* have the same number of elements.

Discrete Exponent Function (4/14)

In Z_{p-1} addition +, multiplication * and subtraction - operations are realized $\pmod{p-1}$.

Subtraction operation $(h-d) \pmod{p-1}$ is replaced by the following addition operation $(h + (-d)) \pmod{p-1}$.

Therefore, it is needed to find $-d \pmod{p-1}$ such that $d + (-d) = 0 \pmod{p-1}$, then assume that

$$-d \pmod{p-1} = (p-1-d).$$

Indeed, according to the distributivity property of modular operation

$$(d + (-d)) \pmod{p-1} = (d + (p-1-d)) \pmod{p-1} = (p-1) \pmod{p-1} = 0.$$

Then

$$(h-d) \pmod{p-1} = (h + (p-1-d)) \pmod{p-1}$$

Discrete Exponent Function (5/14)

Statement: If greatest common divider between $p-1$ and i is equal to 1, i.e., $\gcd(p-1, i) = 1$, then there exists unique inverse element $i^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$ such that $i * i^{-1} \pmod{p-1} = 1$. This element can be found by *Extended Euclide algorithm* or using *Fermat little theorem*. We do not fall into details how to find $i^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$ since we will use the ready-made computer code instead in our modeling.

Division operation $i \pmod{p-1}$ of any element in Z_{p-1} by some element i is replaced by multiplication * operation with $i^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$ if $\gcd(i, p-1) = 1$ according to the *Statement* above.

To compute $u/i \pmod{p-1}$ it is replaced by the following relation $u * i^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$ since

$$u / i \pmod{p-1} = u * i^{-1} \pmod{p-1}.$$

Discrete Exponent Function (6/14)

Example 1: Let for given integers u, x and h in Z_{p-1} we compute exponent s of generator g by the expression

Then

$$s = u + xh.$$

$$g^s \pmod{p} = g^{s \pmod{p-1}} \pmod{p}.$$

Therefore, s can be computed $\bmod (p-1)$ in advance, to save a multiplication operations, i.e.

$$s = u + xh \bmod (p-1).$$

Example 2: Exponent s computation including subtraction by $xr \bmod (p-1)$ and division by i in Z_{p-1} when $\gcd(i, p-1) = 1$.

$$s = (h - xr)i^{-1} \bmod (p-1).$$

Firstly $d = xr \bmod (p-1)$ is computed:

Secondly $-d = -xr \bmod (p-1) = (p-1-d)$ is found.

Thirdly $i^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ is found.

And finally exponent $s = (h + (p-1-d))i^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ is computed.

Discrete Exponent Function (7/14)

Referencing to Fermat little theorem and its corollaries, formulated above, the following theorem can be proved.

Theorem. If g is a generator in Z_p^* then **DEF** provides the following 1-to-1 mapping

$$\text{DEF: } Z_{p-1} \rightarrow Z_p^*.$$

Parameters p and g for **DEF** definition we name as Public Parameters and denote by **PP** = (p, g) .

Example: Strong prime $p = 11$, $p = 2 * 5 + 1$, then $q = 5$ and q is prime. Then $p-1 = 10$.

$$Z_{11}^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$$

$$Z_{10} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, 9\}$$

Discrete Exponent Function (8/14)

The results of any binary operation (multiplication, addition, etc.) defined in any finite group is named *Cayley table* including multiplication table, addition table etc.

Multiplication table of multiplicative group Z_{11}^* is represented below.

Multiplication tab. mod 11	Z_{11}^*										
	*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
2	2	4	6	8	10	1	3	5	7	9	
3	3	6	9	1	4	7	10	2	5	8	
4	4	8	1	5	9	2	6	10	3	7	
5	5	10	4	9	3	8	2	7	1	6	
6	6	1	7	2	8	3	9	4	10	5	
7	7	3	10	6	2	9	5	1	8	4	
8	8	5	2	10	7	4	1	9	6	3	
9	9	7	5	3	1	10	8	6	4	2	
10	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	

Values of inverse elements in Z_{11}^*

$1^{-1} = 1 \bmod 11$
$2^{-1} = 6 \bmod 11$
$3^{-1} = 4 \bmod 11$
$4^{-1} = 3 \bmod 11$
$5^{-1} = 9 \bmod 11$
$6^{-1} = 2 \bmod 11$
$7^{-1} = 8 \bmod 11$
$8^{-1} = 7 \bmod 11$
$9^{-1} = 5 \bmod 11$
$10^{-1} = 10 \bmod 11$

Discrete Exponent Function (9/14)

The table of exponent values for $p = 11$ in Z_{11}^* computed $\bmod 11$ and is presented in table below. Notice that according to Fermat little theorem for all $z \in Z_{11}^*$, $z^{p-1} = z^{10} = z^0 = 1 \bmod 11$.

Exponent tab. mod 11	Z_{11}^*											
\wedge	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	2	4	8	5	10	9	7	3	6	1	
3	1	3	9	5	4	1	3	9	5	4	1	
4	1	4	5	9	3	1	4	5	9	3	1	
5	1	5	3	4	9	1	5	3	4	9	1	
6	1	6	3	7	9	10	5	8	4	2	1	
7	1	7	5	2	3	10	4	6	9	8	1	
8	1	8	9	6	4	10	3	2	5	7	1	
9	1	9	4	3	5	1	9	4	3	5	1	
10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	

$2^2 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$ & $2^5 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$
$6^2 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$ & $6^5 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$
$7^2 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$ & $7^5 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$
$8^2 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$ & $8^5 \neq 1 \pmod{11}$

Discrete Exponent Function (10/14)

Notice that there are elements satisfying the following different relations, for example:

$$3^5 = 1 \pmod{11} \text{ and } 3^2 \neq 1 \pmod{11}.$$

The set of such elements forms a subgroup of prime order $q = 5$ if we add to these elements the *neutral group element* 1.

This subgroup has a great importance in cryptography we denote by

$$G_5 = \{1, 3, 4, 5, 9\}.$$

The multiplication table of G_5 elements extracted from multiplication table of Z_{11}^* is presented below.

Multiplication tab. mod 11	G_5					
$*$	1	3	4	5	9	
1	1	3	4	5	9	
3	3	9	1	4	5	
4	4	1	5	9	3	
5	5	4	9	3	1	
9	9	5	3	1	4	

Values of inverse
elements in G_5

$1^{-1} = 1 \pmod{11}$
$3^{-1} = 4 \pmod{11}$
$4^{-1} = 3 \pmod{11}$
$5^{-1} = 9 \pmod{11}$
$9^{-1} = 5 \pmod{11}$

Exponent tab. mod 11	G_5						
\wedge	0	1	2	3	4	5	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
3	1	3	9	5	4	1	
4	1	4	5	9	3	1	
5	1	5	3	4	9	1	
9	1	9	4	3	5	1	

Discrete Exponent Function (11/14)

Notice that since G_5 is a subgroup of Z_{11}^* the multiplication operations in it are performed **mod 11**.

The exponent table shows that all elements $\{3, 4, 5, 9\}$ are the generators in G_5 .

Notice also that for all $\gamma \in \{3, 4, 5, 9\}$ their exponents 0 and 5 yields the same result, i.e.

$$\gamma^0 = \gamma^5 = 1 \pmod{11}.$$

This means that exponents of generators γ are computed **mod 5**.

This property makes the usage of modular groups of prime order q valuable in cryptography since they provide a higher-level security based on the stronger assumptions we will mention later.

Therefore, in many cases instead the group Z_p^* defined by the prime (not necessarily strong prime) number p the subgroup of prime order G_q in Z_p^* is used.

In this case if p is strong prime, then generator γ in G_q can be found by random search satisfying the following conditions

$$\gamma^q = 1 \pmod p \text{ and } \gamma^2 \neq 1 \pmod p.$$

Analogously in this generalized case this means that exponents of generators γ are computed **mod** q . In our modeling we will use group \mathbf{Z}_p^* instead of \mathbf{G}_q for simplicity.

Discrete Exponent Function (12/14)

Let as above $p=11$ and is strong prime and generator we choose $g = 7$ from the set $\Gamma=\{2, 6, 7, 8\}$.

Public Parameters are $\mathbf{PP}=(11,7)$, Then $\mathbf{DEF}_g(x) = \mathbf{DEF}_7(x)$ is defined in the following way:

$$\mathbf{DEF}_7(x) = 7^x \pmod{11} = a;$$

$\mathbf{DEF}_7(x)$ provides the following 1-to-1 mapping, displayed in the table below.

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
$7^x \pmod p = a$	1	7	5	2	3	10	4	6	9	8	1	7	5	2	3

You can see that a values are repeating when $x = 10, 11, 12, 13, 14$, etc. since exponents are reduced **mod** 10 due to *Fermat little theorem*.

The illustration why $7^x \pmod p$ values are repeating when $x = 10, 11, 12, 13, 14$, etc. is presented in computations below:

$10 \pmod{10} = 0; 7^{10} = 7^0 = 1 \pmod{11} = 1.$
 $11 \pmod{10} = 1; 7^{11} = 7^1 = 7 \pmod{11} = 7.$
 $12 \pmod{10} = 2; 7^{12} = 7^2 = 49 \pmod{11} = 5.$
 $13 \pmod{10} = 3; 7^{13} = 7^3 = 343 \pmod{11} = 2.$
 $14 \pmod{10} = 4; 7^{14} = 7^4 = 2401 \pmod{11} = 3.$
 etc.

Discrete Exponent Function (13/14)

For illustration of 1-to-1 mapping of $\mathbf{DEF}_7(x)$ we perform the following step-by-step computations.

	$x \in \mathbf{Z}_{10}$	$a \in \mathbf{Z}_{11}^*$
$7^0 = 1 \pmod{11}$	0	1
$7^1 = 7 \pmod{11}$	1	2
$7^2 = 5 \pmod{11}$	2	3
$7^3 = 2 \pmod{11}$	3	4
$7^4 = 3 \pmod{11}$	4	5
$7^5 = 10 \pmod{11}$	5	6
$7^6 = 4 \pmod{11}$	6	7
$7^7 = 6 \pmod{11}$	7	8
$7^8 = 9 \pmod{11}$	8	9
$7^9 = 8 \pmod{11}$	9	10

It is seen that one value of x is mapped to one value of a .

Discrete Exponent Function (14/14)

But the most interesting thing is that \mathbf{DEF} is behaving like a *pseudorandom function*.

It is a main reason why this function is used in cryptography - classical cryptography.

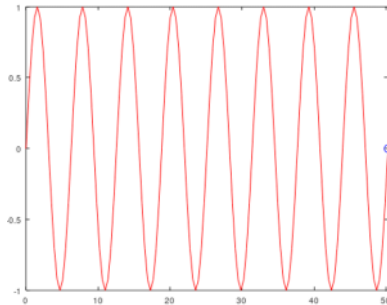
To better understand the pseudorandom behaviour of \mathbf{DEF} we compare the graph of "regular" **sine** function with "pseudorandom" \mathbf{DEF} using Octave software.

```
>> p128sin
```

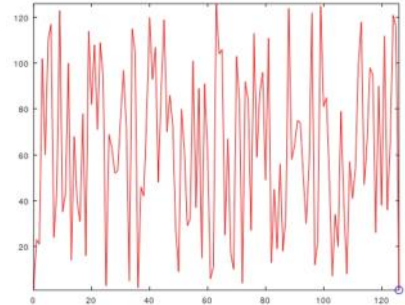
```
>> p128def
```

function with "pseudorandom" **DEF** using Octave software.

```
>> p128sin
xrange = 16 * pi;
step = xrange/128;
x = 0:step:xrange;
y = sin(x);
comet(x, y)
```



```
>> p128def
p = 127;
g = 23;
x = 0:p-1;
a = mod_expv(g, x, p);
comet(x, a)
```



Example 1: Let for given integers u , x and h in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} we compute exponent s of generator g by the expression

$$s = u + xh.$$

Then

$$g^s \bmod p = g^{s \bmod (p-1)} \bmod p.$$

Therefore, s can be computed **mod** $(p-1)$ in advance, to save a multiplication operations, i.e.

$$s = u + xh \bmod (p-1).$$

```
>> p=genstrongprime(28)
p = 242502683
>> q=(p-1)/2
q = 121251341
>> g=2
g = 2
>> mod_exp(g,q,p)
ans = 242502682
>> x=randi(p-1)
x = 4.8906e+07
>> x=int64(randi(p-1))
x = 165532552
```

```
>> u=int64(randi(p-1))
u = 74661797
>> h=int64(randi(p-1))
h = 194373549
>> xh=mod(x*h,p-1)
xh = 218184446
>> upxh=mod(u+xh,p-1)
upxh = 50343561
>> s=upxh
s = 50343561
```

```
>> snr=int64(u+x*h)
snr = 32175149681928845
>> mod(snr,p-1)
ans = 50343561
```

Example 2: Exponent s computation including subtraction by $xr \bmod (p-1)$ and division by i in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} when $\gcd(i, p-1) = 1$.

$$s = (h - xr)i^{-1} \bmod (p-1).$$

Firstly $d = xr \bmod (p-1)$ is computed:

Secondly $-d = -xr \bmod (p-1) = (p-1-d)$ is found.

Thirdly $i^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ is found.

And finally exponent $s = (h + (p-1-d))i^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ is computed.

```
>> r=int64(randi(p-1))
r = 212560238
```

```
>> i_m1=mulinv(i,p-1)
i_m1 = 196196855
```

```

>> r=int64(randi(p-1))
r = 212560238
>> i=int64(randi(p-1))
i = 64538497
>> xr=mod(x*r,p-1)
xr = 98263592
>> mxr=mod(-xr,p-1)
mxr = 144239090
>> xrpmr=mod(xr+mxr,p-1)
xrpmr = 0
>> hpmxr=mod(h+mxr,p-1)
hpmxr = 96109957

>> i_m1=mulinv(i,p-1)
i_m1 = 196196855
>> gcd(i,i_m1)
ans = 1
>> mod(i*i_m1,p-1)
ans = 1
>> s=mod(hpmxr*i_m1,p-1)
s = 131208547

```

$$s = (h - xr)i^{-1} \bmod (p-1).$$

$$g^s \bmod p = \dots$$

Firstly $d = xr \bmod (p-1)$ is computed:

Secondly $-d = -xr \bmod (p-1) = (p-1-d)$ is found.

Thirdly $i^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ is found.

And finally exponent $s = (h + (p-1-d))i^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$ is computed.