# Introduction to cryptography 

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## Terminology

- $P$ is a finite set of possible plaintexts
- $C$ is a finite set of possible cryptotexts
- $K$ is a finite set of possible keys (keyspace)
- For each $k \in K$ there is an encryption function $e_{k}: P \rightarrow C$, and a corresponding decryption function $d_{k}: C \rightarrow P$ such that $d_{k}\left(e_{k}(x)\right)=x$ for every plaintext $x \in P$


## Security characteristics

- Perfect Secrecy (or unconditional security):
- The system is unbreakable even with infinite computational resources
- Computational Security:
- The perceived level of computation required to break the security exceeds, by a comfortable margin, the computational resources of the adversary


## Perfect secrecy

- A cryptosystem has perfect secrecy if $p_{P}(x \mid y)=p_{P}(x)$ for all $x \in P$
- In other words: The a posteriori probability that the plaintext is $x$, given that the ciphertext $y$ is observed, is identical to the a priori probability that the plaintext is $x$
- It follows that not even exhaustive search through the entire keyspace will give any knowledge of the plaintext or the key
- Disadvantage: The amount of key needed is at least as big as the amount of plaintext


## One-time pad

- The one-time pad is the only known cryptoalgorithm that achieves perfect secrecy
- Let $P=C=K=\left(\mathbb{Z}_{2}\right)^{n}$,
- plaintext $x=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$,
- key $k=\left(k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{3}, \ldots, k_{n}\right)$, must be truly random!
- cryptotext $y=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$


## Encryption:

$$
e_{k}(x)=\left(x_{1} \oplus k_{1}, x_{2} \oplus k_{2}, x_{3} \oplus k_{3}, \ldots, x_{n} \oplus k_{n}\right)
$$

## Decryption:

$$
d_{k}(y)=\left(y_{1} \oplus k_{1}, y_{2} \oplus k_{2}, y_{3} \oplus k_{3}, \ldots, y_{n} \oplus k_{n}\right)
$$

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## Confusion and diffusion

- A good algorithm should ensure a high level of confusion and diffusion.


## Confusion:

- Relationship between key and ciphertext is as complex as possible.
- One bit change in the key should result in change in approximately half of the ciphertext bits.
Diffusion:
- Redundancy of the plaintext is spread out over the ciphertext.
- One bit change in the plaintext should result in change in approximately half of the ciphertext bits.


## Symmetric crypto algorithms



- The same key is used for encryption and decryption.
- The keys must be secret and shared in advance (off-line or by some key exchange mechanism)
- Symmetric cryptoalgorithms are used mainly to ensure
- Confidentiality (conceal contents of data)
- Integrity (protect data from change)


## Stream ciphers



plaintext $m_{i}$ ciphertext $c_{i}$ key $k$ keystream $z_{i}$

## Properties of a stream cipher:

- encrypts individual characters, one at a time
- the encryption transformation varies with time
- usually fast and simple in hardware
- no need for buffering plaintext or cryptotext
- limited or no error propagation
- much of the theory dates back to around World War II and is extensively analysed
- few algorithms published in the open literature
- widely used in telecommunications, radios and military communication equipment


# LFSR Linear Feedback Shift Register 

State polynomial: $a_{1} x^{9}+a_{2} x^{8}+a_{3} x^{7}+a_{4} x^{6+} a_{5} x^{5}+a_{6} x^{4}+a_{7} x^{3}+a_{8} x^{2}+a_{9} x+a_{10}$


- Corresponds to the connection polynomial

$$
x^{10}+x^{6}+1
$$

- If the polynomial is primitive, the LFSR will have its maximum possible period $2^{n}-1$, where $n$ is the length of the LFSR
- Stepping the LFSR once corresponds to multiplying the state polynomial with $x$ and reducing modulo the connection polynomial
- LFSRs are very often used as parts of a stream cipher

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## GSM cipher - A5/1

R1


R2


- A register is clocked if its clocking tap (marked grey) agrees with the majority of the three clocking taps.

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## Cryptanalysis of A5/1

- 64-bit keys, but in all implementations 10 bits are set to zero
- Anderson and Roe, 1994
- Guess R1 and R2 (41 bits) and derive R3 from the output, complexity about $O\left(2^{45}\right)$
Time/memory trade-off (Babbage 1995, Golic 1997)
- Complexity $O\left(2^{22}\right)$ with 64 TB diskspace, or - Complexity $O\left({ }^{28}\right)$ with $862 G B$ diskspace
- Best attack known : Alex Biryukov, Adi Shamir and David Wagner, 1999-2000
- Preparation: $2^{48}$ (carried out only once)
- 2 min known plaintext: key computed in 1 sec.
- 2 sec known plaintext: key computed in a few minutes
- Question: How to get hold of the plaintext?

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## Block ciphers


encryption function $E$ plaintext $m_{i}$ ciphertext $c_{i}$ key k

## Properties of a block cipher:

- maps $n$-bit plaintext blocks to $n$-bit ciphertext blocks
- pure block ciphers are memoryless
- many algorithms in the open literature that have been extensively analysed (DES, IDEA, AES, etc.)
- widely used in e-commerce and banking


## UMTS cipher - KASUMI



Fig.2: FO Function


Fig. 1: Modified MISTY1
Fig.4: FL Function

## S-boxes: S7

Input: ( $\left.\mathrm{x}_{6}, \mathrm{x}_{5}, \mathrm{x}_{4}, \mathrm{x}_{3}, \mathrm{x}_{2}, \mathrm{x}_{1}, \mathrm{x}_{0}\right)$
Output: $\quad\left(y_{6}, y_{5}, y_{4}, y_{3}, y_{2}, y_{1}, y_{0}\right)$

Gate Logic:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{0}=x_{1} x_{3}+x_{4}+x_{0} x_{1} x_{4}+x_{5}+x_{2} x_{5}+x_{3} x_{4}{ }_{4}{ }_{5}+x_{6}+x_{0} x_{6}+x_{1} x_{6}+x_{3} x_{6}+x_{2} x_{4} x_{6}+x_{1} x_{5} x_{6}+x_{4} x_{5} x_{6} \\
& y_{1}=x_{0} x_{1}+x_{0} x_{4}+x_{2}{ }_{2}{ }_{4}+x_{5}+x_{1} x_{2} x_{5}+x_{0} X_{3} X_{5}+x_{6}+x_{0} X_{2}{ }_{2}{ }_{6}+x_{3}{ }_{3}{ }_{6}+x_{4} x_{5}{ }_{5}{ }_{6}+1 \\
& y_{2}=x_{0}+x_{0} x_{3}+x_{2} x_{3}+x_{1} x_{2} x_{4}+x_{0} x_{3} x_{4}+x_{1} x_{5}+x_{0} x_{2} x_{5}+x_{0} x_{6}+x_{0} x_{1} x_{6}+x_{2} x_{6}+x_{4} x_{6}+1 \\
& y_{3}=x_{1}+x_{0} x_{1} X_{2}+x_{1} X_{4}+x_{3} X_{4}+x_{0} X_{5}+x_{0} X_{1} X_{5}+x_{2} X_{3} X_{5}+x_{1} X_{4} X_{5}+x_{2} X_{6}+x_{1} X_{3} X_{6} \\
& y_{4}=x_{0} X_{2}+x_{3}+x_{1} x_{3}+x_{1} X_{4}+x_{0} X_{1} X_{4}+x_{2} x_{3}{ }_{3}{ }_{4}+x_{0} X_{5}+x_{1} X_{3} X_{5}+x_{0} X_{4} X_{5}+x_{1} X_{6}+x_{3} X_{6}+x_{0}{ }_{0} X_{3} X_{6}+x_{5} x_{6}+1 \\
& y_{5}=x_{2}+x_{0} X_{2}+x_{0} X_{3}+x_{1}{ }_{1}{ }_{2}{ }_{3}+x_{0} X_{2}{ }_{2}{ }_{4}+x_{0} X_{5}+x_{2} X_{5}+x_{4} X_{5}+x_{1} X_{6}+x_{1} X_{2}{ }_{2}{ }_{6}+x_{0} X_{3}{ }_{3}{ }_{6}+x_{3}{ }_{3}{ }_{4} X_{6}+x_{2}{ }_{2}{ }_{5} X_{6}{ }_{6}+1 \\
& y_{6}=x_{1} x_{2}+x_{0} x_{1} x_{3}+x_{0} x_{4}+x_{1} x_{5}+x_{3} x_{5}+x_{6}+x_{0} x_{1} x_{6}+x_{2} x_{3} x_{6}+x_{1} x_{4}{ }_{4}{ }_{6}+x_{0} x_{5}{ }_{5} x_{6}
\end{aligned}
$$

Decimal Table:

| 54 | 50 | 62 | 56 | 22 | 34 | 94 | 96 | 38 | 6 | 63 | 93 | 2 | 18 | 123 | 33 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 55 | 113 | 39 | 114 | 21 | 67 | 65 | 12 | 47 | 73 | 46 | 27 | 25 | 111 | 124 | 81 |
| 53 | 9 | 121 | 79 | 52 | 60 | 58 | 48 | 101 | 127 | 40 | 120 | 104 | 70 | 71 | 43 |
| 20 | 122 | 72 | 61 | 23 | 109 | 13 | 100 | 77 | 1 | 16 | 7 | 82 | 10 | 105 | 98 |
| 117 | 116 | 76 | 11 | 89 | 106 | 0 | 125 | 118 | 99 | 86 | 69 | 30 | 57 | 126 | 87 |
| 112 | 51 | 17 | 5 | 95 | 14 | 90 | 84 | 91 | 8 | 35 | 103 | 32 | 97 | 28 | 66 |
| 102 | 31 | 26 | 45 | 75 | 4 | 85 | 92 | 37 | 74 | 80 | 49 | 68 | 29 | 115 | 44 |
| 64 | 107 | 108 | 24 | 110 | 83 | 36 | 78 | 42 | 19 | 15 | 41 | 88 | 119 | 59 | 3 |

## S9 is constructed similarly, but with $2^{9}=512$ entries in the table.

## Key schedule

Secret Key
K
128 bit
Subkey
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Ki }(1<=\mathrm{i}<=8) & 16 \mathrm{bit} \\ \text { Ki' }(1<=\mathrm{i}<=8) & 16 \text { bit }\end{array}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { K = K1 || K2 || K3 || ...... || K8 } \\
& \text { Ki' = Ki XOR Ci }
\end{aligned}
$$

Key Symbols

KLi ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 32 bit
KLij ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 16 bit ( $1<=\mathrm{j}<=2$ )

KOi ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 48 bit
KOij ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 16 bit ( $1<=\mathrm{j}<=3$ )

KIi ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 48 bit

KIi = KIi1 || KIi2 || KIi3
KIi $=$ KIij1 $|\mid$ KIij2
KLi $=$ KLi1 || KLi2

KOi = KOi1 || KOi2 || KOi3

KIij ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 16 bit ( $1<=\mathrm{j}<=3$ )
KIij1 ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 9 bit ( $1<=\mathrm{j}<=3$ )
KIij2 ( $1<=\mathrm{i}<=8$ ) 7 bit ( $1<=\mathrm{j}<=3$ )

Subkey - KeySymbol Relation

|  | $\mathrm{i}=1$ | $\mathrm{i}=2$ | $\mathrm{i}=3$ | $\mathrm{i}=4$ | $\mathrm{i}=5$ | $i=6$ | $\mathrm{i}=7$ | $\mathrm{i}=8$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| KLi1 | K1 $\lll 1$ | $\mathrm{K} 2 \lll 1$ | K3 $\lll 1$ | K4 $\lll 1$ | K5 $\lll 1$ | K6<<<1 | K7 $\lll 1$ | K8<<<1 |
| KLi2 | K3' | K4' | K5' | K6' | K7 ${ }^{\prime}$ | K8' | K1' | K2' |
| KOi1 | K2<<<5 | K3<<< 5 | K4<<< 5 | K5 $\lll 5$ | K6<<<5 | K7<<<5 | K8<<< 5 | K1<<<5 |
| KOi2 | K6<<<8 | K7<<<8 | K8<<<8 | K1 $\lll 8$ | K2 $\lll 8$ | K3 $\lll 8$ | K4<<<8 | K5 $\lll 8$ |
| KOi3 | K7 $\lll 13$ | K7<<<13 | K7<<<13 | K7<<<13 | K7 $\lll 13$ | K7<<<13 | K7<<<13 | K7<<<13 |
| KIi1 | K5' | K6' | K7 ${ }^{\prime}$ | K8' | K1 ${ }^{\prime}$ | K2' | K3' | K4' |
| KIi2 | K4' | K5' | K6' | K7' | K8' | K1' | K2' | K3' |
| KIi3 | K8' | K1 ${ }^{\prime}$ | K2' | K3' | K4' | K5' | K6' | K7' |

Constant Values
$\mathrm{C} 1=0 \times 0123$
$\mathrm{C} 2=0 \times 4567$
C3 $=0 \times 89 \mathrm{ab}$
C4 $=0 \mathrm{xcdef}$
C5 $=0 \mathrm{xfedc}$
C6 $=0 \times \mathrm{ba} 98$
$\mathrm{C} 7=0 \times 7654$
$\mathrm{C} 8=0 \times 3210$
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## Modes of use

- A block cipher is seldom used in its pure form ( $n$ bits plaintext in, $n$ bits plaintext out)
- Instead it is used in one of several possible modes depending on the objectives:
- Confidentiality protection
- Integrity protection
- Key generation
- Key exchange
- Challenge-response protocol
- etc.


## UMTS Confidentiality algorithm - f8

Parameters

| COUNT | 32 bits |
| :--- | :--- |
| BEARER | 5 bits |
| DIRECTION | 1 bit |
| BLKCTR | 64 bits |
| LENGTH | ? bits |
| CK | 128 bits |
| $\left\{\mathrm{PT}_{\mathrm{i}}\right\}_{\mathrm{i}=0,1,1, \ldots, \text { LENGTH-1 }}$ |  |
| $\left\{\mathrm{CT}_{\mathrm{i}}\right\}_{\mathrm{i}=0,1,1, \ldots, \text { LENGTH- }}$ |  |
| $\left\{\mathrm{KS}_{\mathrm{i}}\right\}_{\mathrm{i}=0,1,1, \ldots, \text { LENGTH-1 }}$ |  |

time dependent input bearer identity direction of transmission block counter
length of key stream cipher key
plaintext bit sequence
ciphertext bit sequence
output key stream

COUNT || BEARER || DIRECTION || 0... 0

$\mathrm{CT}[\mathrm{i}]=\mathrm{PT}[\mathrm{i}] \operatorname{XOR} \mathrm{KS}[\mathrm{i}]$

## Message Authentication Code (MAC)

- Used to ensure integrity of data
- Maps an arbitrary-length message onto a fixed-length output (MAC)
- Key dependent
- Often based on a block-cipher
- The MAC is attached to the cryptotext, and by verifying it, the receiver knows two things:
- the message was produced by the someone holding the secret integrity key
- the message has not been changed during transmission


## UMTS Integrity algorithm - f9

Parameters

| COUNT | 32 bits | time dependent input |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| FRESH | 32 bits | random number |
| DIRECTION | 1 bit | direction of transmission |
| IK | 128 bits | integrity key |
| $\{\text { MESSAGE }\}_{i=0,1,1, \ldots, \text { LENGTH-1 }}$ |  | plaintext bit sequence |
| MAC-I | 32 bits | message authentication code |



MAC-I (left 32 bits)

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## Asymmetric (public key) crypto algorithms



- Encrypt with receiver's public key
- Receiver decrypts with his private key
- $N$ public keys for $N$ parties (as opposed to $N(N-1)$ for symmetric cryptosystems)

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## Services

- Confidentiality
- Conceal contents of data
- Integrity
- Detect change of data
- Authentication
- Establish identity of communicating parties
- Establish identity of data origin
- Non-repudiation
- Convince third party that an action
- has been executed by a certain individual
- has been executed at a given point in time


## The integer factorisation problem

- Given a positive integer $n$, find its prime factorisation, i.e. write $n=p_{1}{ }^{e 1} p_{2}{ }^{e 2} \ldots p_{k}{ }^{e k}$ where the $p_{i}$ are pairwise distinct primes and each $e_{i} \geq 1$
- Factoring algorithms:
- Trial division
- Pollard rho method
- Pollard's p-1 method
- Quadratic sieve
- Lenstra's elliptic curve method
- Number field sieve


## Number theory

## Definition:

- Two positive integers $x$ and $y$ are relatively prime if they have no common factors, i.e. their greatest common divisor is 1 .
We write $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$.
- Euler phi function:
- Let $n$ be a positive integer. The Euler phi function $\varphi(n)$ is the number of positive integers not exceeding $n$ that are relatively prime to $n$
- Theorem:
- If $p$ is prime, then $\varphi(p)=p-1$
- Theorem:
- Let $m$ and $n$ be relatively prime positive integers. Then $\varphi(m n)=\varphi(m) \varphi(n)$


## Euler's theorem:

- If $m$ is a positive integer and $a$ is an integer with $\operatorname{gcd}(a, m)=1$, then $a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1(\bmod m)$
- Fermat's theorem:
- Special case of Euler's theorem: If $\operatorname{gcd}(a, p)=$ 1 , then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1(\bmod p)$


## RSA - key generation

- Each entity $A$ should do the following:
- Generate large primes $p$ and $q$
- Compute $n=p q$ and $\varphi=(p-1)(q-1)$
- Select random integer $e, 1<e<\varphi$, such that $\operatorname{gcd}(e, \varphi)=1$
- Compute the unique integer $d, 1<d<\varphi$, such that $e d \equiv 1(\bmod \varphi)$
- A's public key is $(n, e)$, A's private key is $d$
- (Note that $p, q$ and $\varphi$ must also be kept secret)
- Conjecture:
- Nobody can compute
- $p, q$ or $\varphi$ from knowledge of $n$, or
- $d$ from knowledge of $n$ and $e$


## RSA - encryption



- Encryption. $B$ should do the following:
- Obtain A's public key ( $n, e$ )
- Represent the message as an integer $m$ in the interval [0, $n-1$ ]
- Compute $c=m^{e} \bmod n$
- Send the ciphertext $c$ to $A$
- Decryption. $A$ should do the following
- Use the private key $d$ to recover $m=c^{d} \bmod n$


# RSA - proof that decryption works 

- $e d \equiv 1(\bmod \varphi) \Rightarrow$ there exists integer $k$ such that ed $=1+k \varphi$
- By Euler's theorem: $m^{\varphi} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$
- (This is true only if $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$. But if not, then we have found a factor of $n$, and the key is broken! The probability for this is extremely small.)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Rightarrow m^{k \varphi} \equiv 1(\bmod n) \\
& \Rightarrow m^{k \varphi+1} \equiv m(\bmod n) \\
& \Rightarrow m^{e d} \equiv m(\bmod n)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\Rightarrow c^{d}=\left(m^{e}\right)^{d}=m^{e d} \equiv m(\bmod n)
$$

## Hybrid method

Symmetric key

Receiver's public key



## Hashing

- One-way function:
- A function $f$ such that $f(x)$ is easy to compute for each $x$ in the domain of $f$; but it is computationally infeasible to find any $x$ such that $f(x)=y$, for essentially all $y$ in the range of $f$
- It is not known whether real one-way functions exist
- Hash function
- A one-way function where variable-length input is mapped to fixed-length output

I, Alice, hereby declare that I will pay Bob \$ 10.000 .000 when I have received the following: ...


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## Security properties for hash functions

- Let $h$ be a hash function with inputs $x, x^{\prime}$ and outputs $y, y^{\prime}$.
- Preimage resistance (or one-way):
- For essentially all pre-specified outputs $y$, it is computationally infeasible to find any preimage $x$ 'such that $h(x)=y$
2nd preimage resistance (or weak collision resistance):
- Given $x$, it is computationally infeasible to find any $x^{\prime} \neq x$ such that $h(x)=h(x)$
- Collision resistance (strong c.r.):
- It is computationally infeasible to find any two distinct inputs $x, x^{\prime}$ such that $h(x)=h(x)$

Digital signatures


- Sign with sender's private key
- Verify signature with public key

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## Digital signatures

- When the receiver has verified the signature he knows that:
- the document is really written by the person who owns the public key, i.e. the person who knows the corresponding private key (authentication of data origin)
- the document has not been changed after the sender signed it since the hashes match (integrity of data)
- And:
- The receiver can convince a third party that the contents of the document was really written by the sender (non-repudiation)


## RSA signature

- Key generation as for encryption
- Signature generation. $A$ should do the following:
- if $M$ is the message, compute $m=h(M)$, an integer in the range $[0, n-1]$
- compute $s=m^{d} \bmod n$
- $A$ 's signature for $M$ is $s$
- Verification. $B$ should:
- obtain A's public key ( $n, e$ )
- compute $m^{\prime}=s^{e} \bmod n$ and $h(M)$
- verify that $m^{\prime}=h(M)$
- $(h()$ is a hash function)


## Discrete logarithm problem (DLP)

- The generalised discrete logarithm problem is the following:
- Given a finite cyclic group $G$ of order $n$, a generator $\alpha$ of $G$, and an element $\beta \in \mathcal{G}$, find the integer $x, 0 \leq x \leq n-1$, such that $\alpha^{x}=\beta$
- Algorithms for solving the DLP:
- Exhaustive search
- Baby-step giant-step
- Pollard's rho algorithm
- Pohlig-Hellman algorithm
- Index calculus algorithms


## ElGamal - key generation

- Each entity $A$ should do the following:
- Generate a large random prime $p$ and a generator $\alpha$ of the multiplicative group $\mathbb{Z}_{p}^{*}$
- Select random integer a such that $1 \leq a \leq p-2$
- Compute $y=\alpha^{a} \bmod p$
- A's public key is ( $p, \alpha, y$ ), $A^{\prime}$ 's private key is a
- Conjecture:
- Nobody can compute a from knowledge of $y$ and $\alpha$


## ElGamal - signature

- Signature generation. $A$ should do the following:
- Select random secret integer $k, 1<k<p-2$ with $\operatorname{gcd}(k, p-1)=1$
- Compute $r=\alpha^{k} \bmod p$
- Compute $k^{-1} \bmod (p-1)$
- Compute $s=k^{-1}(h(m)-\operatorname{ar}) \bmod (p-1)$
- A's signature for $m$ is the pair $(r, s)$
- Verification. $B$ should:
- Obtain A's authentic public key ( $p, \alpha, y$ )
- Verify that $1 \leq r \leq p-1$; if not, reject signature
- Compute $v_{1}=y^{r} r^{r} \bmod p$
- Compute $h(m)$ and $v_{2}=a^{h(m)} \bmod p$
- Accept the signature if and only if $v_{1}=v_{2}$
$(h()$ is a hash function)


# ElGamal proof that signature verification works 

- Assume $(r, s)$ is a legitimate signature of entity $A$ on message $m$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Rightarrow s \equiv k^{-1}(h(m)-\operatorname{ar})(\bmod p-1) \\
& \Rightarrow h(m) \equiv a r+k s(\bmod p-1) \\
& \Rightarrow a^{h(m)} \equiv a^{a r+k s} \equiv\left(\alpha^{a}\right)^{r} r^{s}(\bmod p) \\
& \Rightarrow v_{2}=v_{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

- Between (2) and (3):
- Theorem: Let $a, n$ be relatively prime integers and $n>0$. Then $a^{i}=a^{i}(\bmod n)$ where $i$ and $j$ are positive integers, if and only if $i \equiv j(\bmod$ $\operatorname{ord}_{n}$ a).
- Here, ord ${ }_{n}$ a is the least positive integer $x$ such that $a^{x} \equiv 1(\bmod n)$, so if $a$ is a generator of $\mathbf{Z}_{p}{ }^{*}$ then $\operatorname{ord}_{n} a=p-1$

