

CIS 6930/4930 Computer and Network Security

Topic 5.1 Basic Number Theory --
Foundation of Public Key Cryptography

Review of Modular Arithmetic

Remainders and Congruency

- For any integer a and any positive integer n , there are two unique integers q and r , such that $0 \leq r < n$ and $a = qn + r$
 - r is the *remainder* of a divided by n , written $r = a \bmod n$

Example: $12 = 2*5 + 2 \rightarrow 2 = 12 \bmod 5$

- a and b are *congruent* modulo n , written $a \equiv b \bmod n$, if $a \bmod n = b \bmod n$

Example: $7 \bmod 5 = 12 \bmod 5 \rightarrow 7 \equiv 12 \bmod 5$

Remainders (Cont'd)

- For any positive integer n , the integers can be divided into n equivalence classes according to their remainders modulo n
 - denote the set as \mathbb{Z}_n
- i.e., the $(\text{mod } n)$ operator maps all integers into the set of integers $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, (n-1)\}$

Modular Arithmetic

- Modular addition

- $[(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a+b) \bmod n$

Example: $[16 \bmod 12 + 8 \bmod 12] \bmod 12 = (16 + 8) \bmod 12 = 0$

- Modular subtraction

- $[(a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a - b) \bmod n$

Example: $[22 \bmod 12 - 8 \bmod 12] \bmod 12 = (22 - 8) \bmod 12 = 2$

- Modular multiplication

- $[(a \bmod n) \times (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a \times b) \bmod n$

Example: $[22 \bmod 12 \times 8 \bmod 12] \bmod 12 = (22 \times 8) \bmod 12 = 8$

Properties of Modular Arithmetic

- **Commutative** laws

- $(w + x) \bmod n = (x + w) \bmod n$

- $(w \times x) \bmod n = (x \times w) \bmod n$

- **Associative** laws

- $[(w + x) + y] \bmod n = [w + (x + y)] \bmod n$

- $[(w \times x) \times y] \bmod n = [w \times (x \times y)] \bmod n$

- **Distributive** law

- $[w \times (x + y)] \bmod n = [(w \times x) + (w \times y)] \bmod n$

Properties (Cont'd)

- Idempotent elements
 - $(0 + m) \bmod n = m \bmod n$
 - $(1 \times m) \bmod n = m \bmod n$
- **Additive** inverse ($-w$)
 - for each $m \in \mathcal{Z}_n$, **there exists** z such that $(m + z) \bmod n = 0$

Example: 3 and 4 are additive inverses mod 7, since $(3 + 4) \bmod 7 = 0$

- **Multiplicative** inverse
 - for each positive $m \in \mathcal{Z}_n$, is there a z s.t. $(m * z) \bmod n = 1$

Multiplicative Inverses

- Don't always exist!
 - Ex.: there is no z such that $6 \times z = 1 \pmod{8}$ ($m=6$ and $n=8$)

z	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	...
$6 \times z$	0	6	12	18	24	30	36	42	...
$6 \times z \pmod{8}$	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2	...

- An positive integer $m \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ has a multiplicative inverse $m^{-1} \pmod{n}$ iff $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, i.e., m and n are relatively prime
 - \Rightarrow If n is a prime number, then all positive elements in \mathbb{Z}_n have multiplicative inverses

Inverses (Cont'd)

z	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$5 \times z$	0	5	10	15	20	25	30	35
$5 \times z \bmod 8$	0	5	2	7	4	1	6	3

Finding the Multiplicative Inverse

- Given m and n , how do you find $m^{-1} \bmod n$?
- Extended Euclid's Algorithm
exteuclid(m, n):
 $m^{-1} \bmod n = v_{n-1}$
- if $\gcd(m, n) \neq 1$ there is **no** multiplicative inverse
 $m^{-1} \bmod n$

Example

x	q_x	r_x	u_x	v_x
0	-	35	1	0
1	-	12	0	1
2	2	11	1	-2
3	1	1	-1	3
4	11	0	12	-35

$$\gcd(35, 12) = 1 = -1 \cdot 35 + 3 \cdot 12$$

$$12^{-1} \bmod 35 = \mathbf{3} \text{ (i.e., } 12 \cdot 3 \bmod 35 = 1)$$

Modular Division

- If the inverse of $b \bmod n$ exists, then
$$(a \bmod n) / (b \bmod n) = (a * (b^{-1} \bmod n)) \bmod n$$

Example: $(13 \bmod 11) / (4 \bmod 11) = (13 * (4^{-1} \bmod 11)) \bmod 11 = (13 * 3) \bmod 11 = 6$

Example: $(8 \bmod 10) / (4 \bmod 10)$ not defined since 4 does not have a multiplicative inverse mod 10

Modular Exponentiation (Power)

Modular Powers

Example: show the powers of 3 **mod 7**

i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3^i	1	3	9	27	81	243	729	2187	6561
$3^i \bmod 7$	1	3	2	6	4	5	1	3	2

And the powers of 2 **mod 7**

i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2^i	1	2	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	512
$2^i \bmod 7$	1	2	4	1	2	4	1	2	4	1

Fermat's "Little" Theorem

- If p is prime
...and a is a positive integer not divisible by p ,
...then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Example: 11 is prime, 3 not divisible by 11,
so $3^{11-1} = 59049 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$

Example: 37 is prime, 51 not divisible by 37,
so $51^{37-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{37}$

Proof of Fermat's Theorem

- Observation: $\{a \bmod p, 2a \bmod p, \dots, (p-1)a \bmod p\} = \{1, 2, \dots, (p-1)\}$.
 $[(a \bmod p) \times (2a \bmod p) \times \dots \times ((p-1)a \bmod p)]$
 $= a \times 2a \times \dots \times (p-1)a \bmod p$
 $(p-1)! = (p-1)! \times a^{p-1} \bmod p$
- Thus, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p$.

The Totient Function

- $\phi(n) = |Z_n^*|$ = the **number** of integers less than n and relatively prime to n
 - a) if n is **prime**, then $\phi(n) = n-1$

Example: $\phi(7) = 6$

- b) if $n = p^\alpha$, where p is prime and $\alpha > 0$, then
 $\phi(n) = (p-1) * p^{\alpha-1}$

Example: $\phi(25) = \phi(5^2) = 4 * 5^1 = 20$

- c) if $n = p * q$, and p, q are relatively prime, then
 $\phi(n) = \phi(p) * \phi(q)$

Example: $\phi(15) = \phi(5 * 3) = \phi(5) * \phi(3) = 4 * 2 = 8$

Euler's Theorem

- For every a and n that are **relatively prime**,
 $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Example: For $a = 3$, $n = 10$, which are relatively prime:

$$\phi(10) = \phi(2 \cdot 5) = \phi(2) \cdot \phi(5) = 1 \cdot 4 = 4$$

$$3^{\phi(10)} = 3^4 = 81 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$$

Example: For $a = 2$, $n = 11$, which are relatively prime:

$$\phi(11) = 11 - 1 = 10$$

$$2^{\phi(11)} = 2^{10} = 1024 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

More Euler...

- Variant:
for all n , $a^{k\phi(n)+1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$ for all a in \mathbb{Z}_n^* , and all non-negative k

Example: for $n = 20$, $a = 7$, $\phi(n) = 8$, and $k = 3$:

$$7^{3 \cdot 8 + 1} \equiv 7 \pmod{20}$$

- Generalized Euler's Theorem:
for $n = pq$ (p and q distinct primes),
 $a^{k\phi(n)+1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$ for all a in \mathbb{Z}_n , and all non-negative k

Example: for $n = 15$, $a = 6$, $\phi(n) = 8$, and $k = 3$:

$$6^{3 \cdot 8 + 1} \equiv 6 \pmod{15}$$

Modular Exponentiation

- $x^y \bmod n = x^{y \bmod \phi(n)} \bmod n$

Example: $x = 5, y = 7, n = 6, \phi(6) = 2$

$$5^7 \bmod 6 = 5^{7 \bmod 2} \bmod 6 = 5 \bmod 6$$

- by this, if $y \equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)}$, then $x^y \bmod n = x \bmod n$

Example:

$x = 2, y = 101, n = 33, \phi(33) = 20, 101 \bmod 20 = 1$

$$2^{101} \bmod 33 = 2 \bmod 33$$

The Powers of An Integer, Modulo n

- Consider the expression $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- If a and n are relatively prime, then there is at least one integer m that satisfies the above equation
- Ex: for $a = 3$ and $n = 7$, what is m ?

i	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$3^i \pmod{7}$	3	2	6	4	5	1	3	2	6

The Power (Cont'd)

- The **smallest** positive exponent m for which the above equation holds is referred to as...
 - the *order of $a \pmod n$* , or
 - the *length of the period generated by a*

Understanding Order of $a \pmod{n}$

- Powers of some integers a modulo **19**

a	a^2	a^3	a^4	a^5	a^6	a^7	a^8	a^9	a^{10}	a^{11}	a^{12}	a^{13}	a^{14}	a^{15}	a^{16}	a^{17}	a^{18}	← order	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	4	8	16	13	7	14	9	18	17	15	11	3	6	12	5	10	1	18	
4	16	7	9	17	11	6	5	1	4	16	7	9	17	11	6	5	1	9	
7	11	1	7	11	1	7	11	1	7	11	1	7	11	1	7	11	1	3	
8	7	18	11	12	1	8	7	18	11	12	1	8	7	18	11	12	1	6	
9	5	7	6	16	11	4	17	1	9	5	7	6	16	11	4	17	1	9	
18	1	18	1	18	1	18	1	18	1	18	1	18	1	18	1	18	1	2	

Observations on The Previous Table

- The length of each period divides $18 = \phi(19)$
 - i.e., the lengths are 1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 18
- Some of the sequences are of length 18
 - e.g., the base **2** generates (via powers) all members of \mathbb{Z}_n^*
 - The base is called the **primitive root**
 - The base is also called the **generator** when n is prime

Reminder of Results

Totient function:

if n is **prime**, then $\phi(n) = n-1$

if $n = p^\alpha$, where p is prime and $\alpha > 0$, then $\phi(n) = (p-1)*p^{\alpha-1}$

if $n=p*q$, and p, q are relatively prime, then $\phi(n) = \phi(p)*\phi(q)$

$$\text{Example: } \phi(7) = 6$$

$$\text{Example: } \phi(25) = \phi(5^2) = 4*5^1 = 20$$

$$\text{Example: } \phi(15) = \phi(5*3) = \phi(5) * \phi(3) = 4 * 2 = 8$$

Reminder (Cont'd)

- Fermat: If p is prime and a is positive integer not divisible by p , then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Example: 11 is prime, 3 not divisible by 11, so $3^{11-1} = 59049 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$

Euler: For every a and n that are **relatively prime**, then $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Example: For $a = 3$, $n = 10$, which relatively prime: $\phi(10) = 4$, $3^{\phi(10)} = 3^4 = 81 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$

Variant: for all a in \mathbb{Z}_n^* , and all non-negative k , $a^{k\phi(n)+1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$

Example: for $n = 20$, $a = 7$, $\phi(n) = 8$, and $k = 3$: $7^{3 \cdot 8 + 1} \equiv 7 \pmod{20}$

Generalized Euler's Theorem: for $n = pq$ (p and q are distinct primes), all a in \mathbb{Z}_n , and all non-negative k , $a^{k\phi(n)+1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$

Example: for $n = 15$, $a = 6$, $\phi(n) = 8$, and $k = 3$: $6^{3 \cdot 8 + 1} \equiv 6 \pmod{15}$

$$x^y \pmod{n} = x^{y \bmod \phi(n)} \pmod{n}$$

Example: $x = 5$, $y = 7$, $n = 6$, $\phi(6) = 2$, $5^7 \pmod{6} = 5^{7 \bmod 2} \pmod{6} = 5 \pmod{6}$

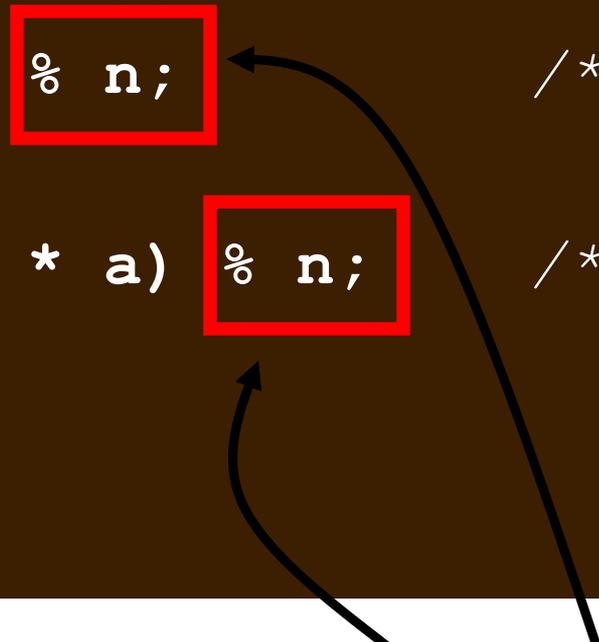
Computing Modular Powers Efficiently

- The **repeated squaring algorithm** for computing $a^b \pmod n$
- Let b_i represent the i^{th} bit of b (total of k bits)

Computing (Cont'd)

Algorithm `modexp (a, b, n)`

```
d = 1;
for i = k downto 1 do
    d = (d * d) % n;           /* square */
    if (bi == 1)
        d = (d * a) % n;     /* step 2 */
    endif
enddo
return d;
```



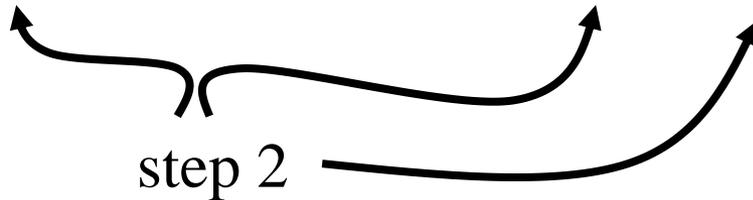
at each iteration, not just at end

Requires time $\propto k = \text{logarithmic in } b$

Example

- Compute $a^b \pmod{n} = 7^{560} \pmod{561} = 1 \pmod{561}$

i	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
b_i	1	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
d	1	7	49	157	526	160	241	298	166	67



Q: Can some other result be used to compute this particular example more easily? (Note: $561 = 3 \cdot 11 \cdot 17$.)

Exercise

- $\phi(7) = 7-1 = 6$
- $\phi(21) = \phi(3*7) = \phi(3)*\phi(7) = 2 * 6 = 12$
- $\phi(33) = \phi(3*11) = \phi(3)*\phi(11) = 2 * 10 = 20$
- $\phi(12) = \phi(3*4) = \phi(3)*\phi(2^2) = 2 * ((2-1)*2^{2-1}) = 4$
- $2^{100} \bmod 33 = 2^{100 \bmod \phi(33)} \bmod 33$
 $= 2^{100 \bmod 20} \bmod 33 = 2^0 \bmod 33 = 1$

Discrete Logarithms

Square Roots

- x is a *non-trivial square root of 1 mod n* if it satisfies the equation $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$, but x is neither 1 nor $-1 \pmod{n}$

Ex: 6 is a square root of 1 mod 35 since $6^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{35}$

- Theorem: if there exists a non-trivial square root of 1 mod n , then n is **not** a prime
 - i.e., prime numbers will not have non-trivial square roots

Roots (Cont'd)

- If $n = 2^{\alpha_0} p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$, where $p_1 \dots p_k$ are distinct primes > 2 , then the number of square roots (including trivial square roots) are:
 - 2^k if $\alpha_0 \leq 1$

Example: for $n = 70 = 2^1 * 5^1 * 7^1$, $\alpha_0 = 1$, $k = 2$, and
the number of square roots = $2^2 = 4$ (1,29,41,69)

- 2^{k+1} if $\alpha_0 = 2$

Example: for $n = 60 = 2^2 * 3^1 * 5^1$, $k = 2$,
the number of square roots = $2^3 = 8$ (1,11,19,29,31,41,49,59)

- 2^{k+2} if $\alpha_0 > 2$

Example: for $n = 24 = 2^3 * 3^1$, $k = 1$,
the number of square roots = $2^3 = 8$ (1,5,7,11,13,17,19,23)

Primitive Roots

- Reminder: the highest possible order of $a \pmod n$ is $\phi(n)$
- If the **order of $a \pmod n$ is $\phi(n)$** , then a is referred to as a ***primitive root of n***
 - for a prime number p , if a is a primitive root of p , then $a, a^2, \dots, a^{p-1} \pmod p$ are all distinct numbers
- No simple general formula to compute primitive roots modulo n
 - trying out all candidates

Discrete Logarithms

- For a primitive root a of a number p , where $a^i \equiv b \pmod{p}$, for some $0 \leq i \leq p-1$
 - the exponent i is referred to as *the index of b for the base $a \pmod{p}$* , denoted as $\text{ind}_{a,p}(b)$
 - i is also referred to as the *discrete logarithm of b to the base a, \pmod{p}*

Logarithms (Cont'd)

- Example: 2 is a primitive root of 19.
The powers of 2 mod 19 =

b	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$\text{ind}_{2,19}(b) =$ $\log(b) \text{ base } 2 \text{ mod } 19$	0	1	13	2	16	14	6	3	8

10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
17	12	15	5	7	11	4	10	9

Given a , i , and p , **computing $b = a^i \text{ mod } p$ is straightforward**

Computing Discrete Logarithms

- However, given a , b , and p , computing $i = \text{ind}_{a,p}(b)$ is difficult
 - Used as the basis of some public key cryptosystems

Computing (Cont'd)

- Some properties of discrete logarithms

- $\text{ind}_{a,p}(1) = 0$ because $a^0 \bmod p = 1$

$\phi(p)$, not p !

- $\text{ind}_{a,p}(a) = 1$ because $a^1 \bmod p = a$

- $\text{ind}_{a,p}(yz) = (\text{ind}_{a,p}(y) + \text{ind}_{a,p}(z)) \bmod \phi(p)$

Example: $\text{ind}_{2,19}(5*3) = (\text{ind}_{2,19}(5) + \text{ind}_{2,19}(3)) \bmod 18 = 11$

- $\text{ind}_{a,p}(y^r) = (r \text{ind}_{a,p}(y)) \bmod \phi(p)$

Example: $\text{ind}_{2,19}(3^3) = (3*\text{ind}_{2,19}(3)) \bmod 18 =$

More on Discrete Logarithms

- $x \equiv a^{\text{ind}_{a,p}(x)} \pmod{p}$, Ex: $3 = 2^{13} \pmod{19}$
 - 1) $a^{\text{ind}_{a,p}(xy)} \pmod{p} \equiv (a^{\text{ind}_{a,p}(x)} \pmod{p})(a^{\text{ind}_{a,p}(y)} \pmod{p})$
 - 2) $a^{\text{ind}_{a,p}(xy)} \pmod{p} \equiv (a^{\text{ind}_{a,p}(x)+\text{ind}_{a,p}(y)}) \pmod{p}$
 - 3) by Euler's theorem: $a^z \equiv a^q \pmod{p}$ iff $z \equiv q \pmod{\phi(p)}$

$$\text{Ex: } 2^{11} \pmod{19} = 2^{29} \pmod{19} \Leftrightarrow 11 \equiv 29 \pmod{18}$$