



CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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Linear Congruences

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Systems of linear congruences have been studied since ancient times.

今有物不知其数 三三数之剩二 五五数之剩三 七七数之剩二 问物几何

About 1500 years ago, the Chinese mathematician Sun-Tsu asked: “There are certain things whose number is unknown. When divided by 3, the remainder is 2; when divided by 5, the remainder is 3; when divided by 7, the remainder is 2. What will be the number of things?”

Modular Inverse

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One method of solving linear congruences makes use of an inverse \bar{a} if it exists. From $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, it follows that $\bar{a}ax \equiv \bar{a}b \pmod{m}$ and then $x \equiv \bar{a}b \pmod{m}$.



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When does an inverse of a modulo m exist?



Inverse of a modulo m

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How to prove the uniqueness of the inverse?



How to find inverses?

- Using *extended Euclidean algorithm*



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Example. Find an inverse of 101 modulo 4620.



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Example. Find an inverse of 101 modulo 4620.

$$4620 = 45 \cdot 101 + 75$$

$$101 = 1 \cdot 75 + 26$$

$$75 = 2 \cdot 26 + 23$$

$$26 = 1 \cdot 23 + 3$$

$$23 = 7 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1$$



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$$101 = 1 \cdot 75 + 26$$

$$75 = 2 \cdot 26 + 23$$

$$26 = 1 \cdot 23 + 3$$

$$23 = 7 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot (23 - 7 \cdot 3) = -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot 3$$

$$1 = -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot (26 - 1 \cdot 23) = 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 23$$

$$1 = 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot (75 - 2 \cdot 26) = 26 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 75$$

$$1 = 26 \cdot (101 - 1 \cdot 75) - 9 \cdot 75$$

$$= 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot 75$$

$$1 = 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot (4620 - 45 \cdot 101)$$

$$= -35 \cdot 4620 + 1601 \cdot 101$$



Using Inverses to Solve Congruences

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Solution: We found that -2 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7 . Multiply both sides of the congruence by -2 , we have $x \equiv -8 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$.



Number of Solutions to Congruences *

- **Theorem*** Let $d = \gcd(a, m)$ and $m' = m/d$. The congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ has solutions if and only if $d|b$. If $d|b$, then there are exactly d solutions. If x_0 is a solution, then the other solutions are given by $x_0 + m', x_0 + 2m', \dots, x_0 + (d - 1)m'$.

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Proof.

- 1) “only if”: If x_0 is a solution, then $ax_0 - b = km$. Thus, $ax_0 - km = b$. Since d divides $ax_0 - km$, we must have $d|b$.
- 2) “if”: Suppose that $d|b$. Let $b = kd$. There exist integers s, t such that $d = as + mt$. Multiply both sides by k . Then $b = ask + mtk$. Let $x_0 = sk$. Then $ax_0 \equiv b \pmod{m}$.
- 3) “ $\# = d$ ”: $ax_0 \equiv b \pmod{m}$ $ax_1 \equiv b \pmod{m}$ imply that $m|a(x_1 - x_0)$ and $m'|a'(x_1 - x_0)$. This implies further that $x_1 = x_0 + km'$, where $k = 0, 1, \dots, d-1$.

The Chinese Remainder Theorem

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The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- **Theorem** (*The Chinese Remainder Theorem*) Let m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n be pairwise relatively prime positive integers greater than 1 and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n arbitrary integers. Then the system

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

...

$$x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution modulo $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n$.



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- **Proof** Let $M_k = m/m_k$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n$. Since $\gcd(m_k, M_k) = 1$, there is an integer y_k , an inverse of M_k modulo m_k such that $M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}$. Let

$$x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + \cdots a_n M_n y_n.$$

It is checked that x is a solution to the n congruences.



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How to prove the **uniqueness** of the solution modulo m ?



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Let $m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$, $M_1 = m/3 = 35$, $M_2 = m/5 = 21$,
 $M_3 = m/7 = 15$.

$$35 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

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七子团圆正月半，除百零五便得知。
-- 程大位 《算法统要》 (1593年)

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Fermat's Little Theorem

- **Theorem (Fermat's little theorem)** : Let p be a prime, and let x be an integer such that $x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then

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$$\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\} = \{x, 2x, \dots, x(p-1) \pmod{p}\}$$



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the number of positive integers coprime to n in \mathbb{Z}_n



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Primitive Roots

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Theorem * There is a primitive root modulo n **if and only if** $n = 2, 4, p^e$ or $2p^e$, where p is an odd prime.

Q : proof? The number of primitive roots? *



Number Theory and Cryptography

- Division, Primes
- Congruence
- Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)
- Euler's Theorem / Fermat's Little Theorem



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$$a = dq + r$$

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Number Theory and Cryptography

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■ Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

$$\gcd(503, 286) \quad 503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$$

$$= \gcd(286, 217) \quad 286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$$

$$= \gcd(217, 69) \quad 217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10$$

$$= \gcd(69, 10) \quad 69 = 6 \cdot 10 + 9$$

$$= \gcd(10, 9) \quad 10 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1$$

$$= 1 \quad 9 = 9 \cdot 1$$

$$1 = 10 - 1 \cdot 9$$

$$1 = 7 \cdot 10 - 1 \cdot 69$$

$$1 = 7 \cdot 217 - 22 \cdot 69$$

$$1 = 29 \cdot 217 - 22 \cdot 286$$

$$1 = 29 \cdot 503 - 51 \cdot 286$$

■ E



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(extended) Euclidean algorithm

find the modular inverse

solve linear congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ ($\gcd(a, m) = 1$)

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Number Theory Summary

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$$x^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \text{ if } \gcd(x, n) = 1$$

$$x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \text{ if } x \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$



Modular Arithmetic in CS

- Modular arithmetic and congruencies are used in CS:
 - ◇ Pseudorandom number generators
 - ◇ Hash functions
 - ◇ Cryptography



Pseudorandom Number Generators

■ *Linear congruential method*

We choose four numbers:

- ◇ the modulus m
- ◇ multiplier a
- ◇ increment c
- ◇ seed x_0



Pseudorandom Number Generators

■ *Linear congruential method*

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- ◇ the modulus m
- ◇ multiplier a
- ◇ increment c
- ◇ seed x_0

We generate a sequence of numbers $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots$ with $0 \leq x_i < m$ by using the congruence

$$x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \pmod{m}$$



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Pseudorandom Number Generators

■ *Linear congruential method*

$$x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \pmod{m}$$

Example:

- Assume : $m=9, a=7, c=4, x_0 = 3$
- $x_1 = 7*3+4 \pmod{9} = 25 \pmod{9} = 7$
- $x_2 = 53 \pmod{9} = 8$
- $x_3 = 60 \pmod{9} = 6$
- $x_4 = 46 \pmod{9} = 1$
- $x_5 = 11 \pmod{9} = 2$
- $x_6 = 18 \pmod{9} = 0$
-



Hash Functions

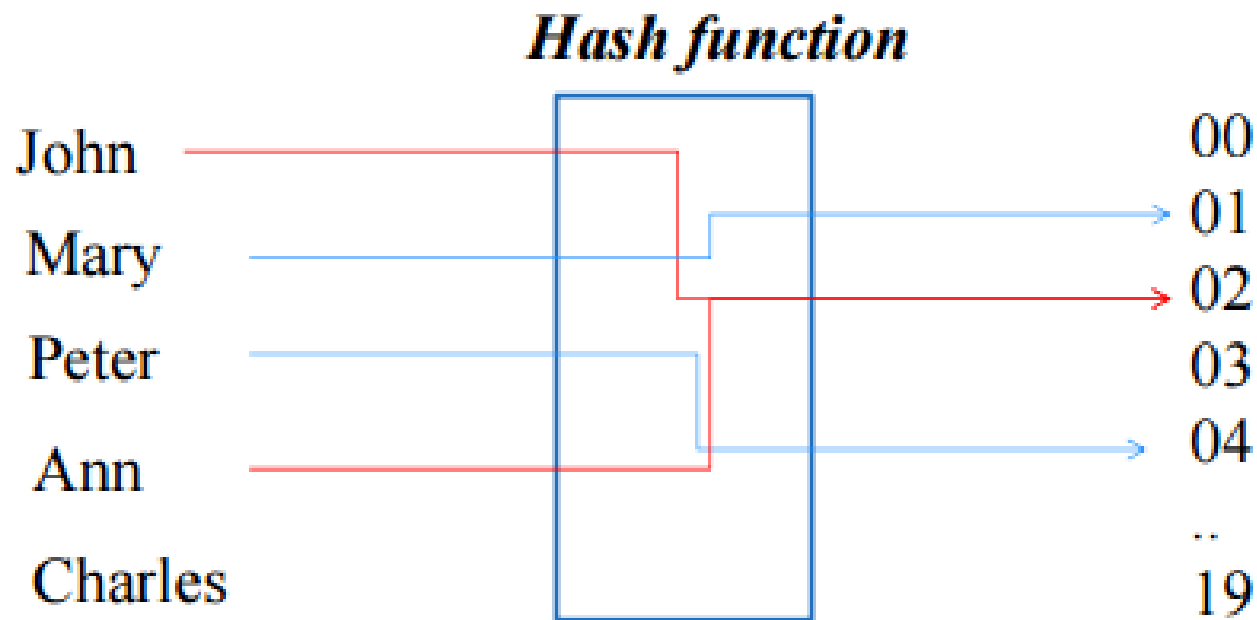
- A *hash function* is an algorithm that maps data of arbitrary length to *data of a fixed length*. The values returned by a hash function are called *hash values* or *hash codes*.



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Example:



Hash Functions

- **Problem:** Given a large collection of records, how can we store and find a record quickly?



Hash Functions

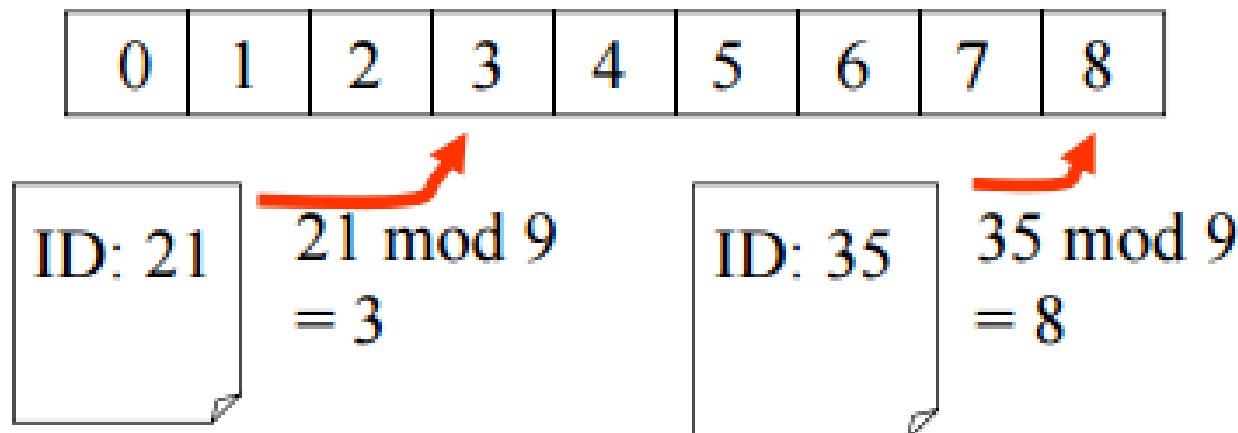
- **Problem:** Given a large collection of records, how can we store and find a record quickly?

Solution: Use a hash function, calculate the location of the record based on the record's ID.

Example: A common hash function is

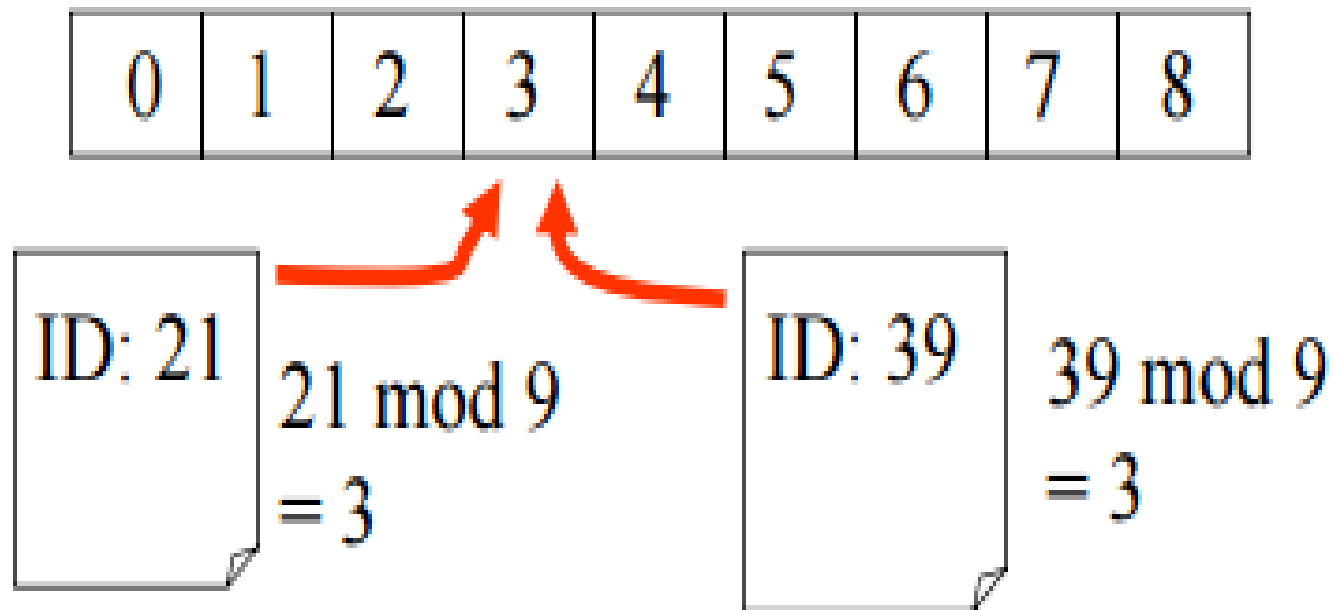
- $h(k) = k \bmod n$,

where n is the number of available storage locations.



Hash Functions

- Two records mapped to the same location



Hash Functions

- **Solution 1:** move to the next available location

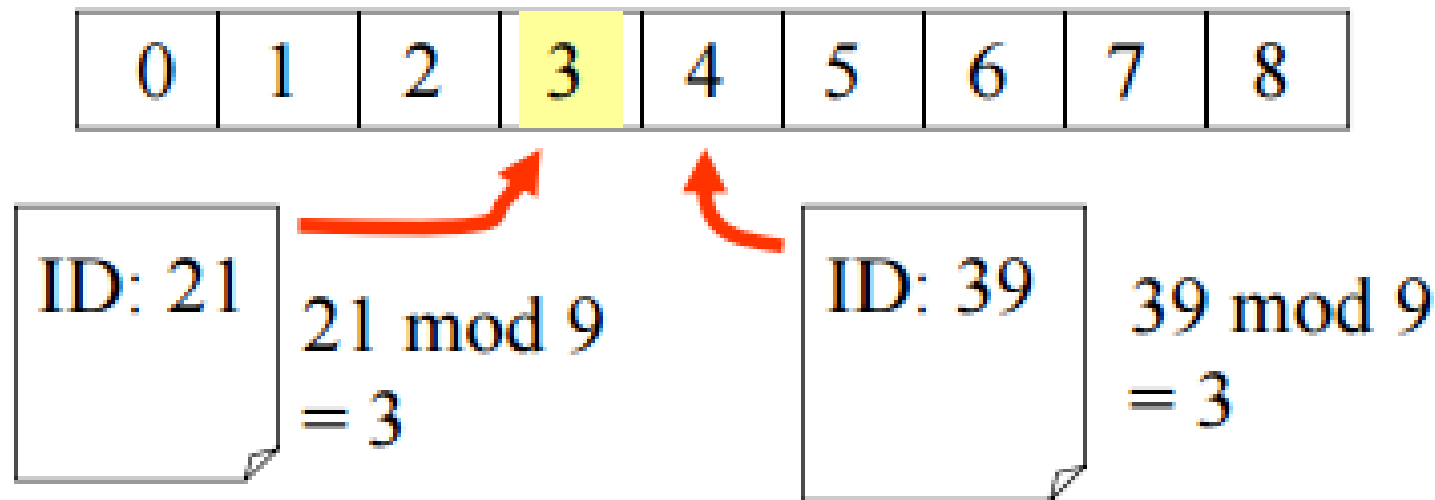
try

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod n$$

$$h_1(k) = (k+1) \bmod n$$

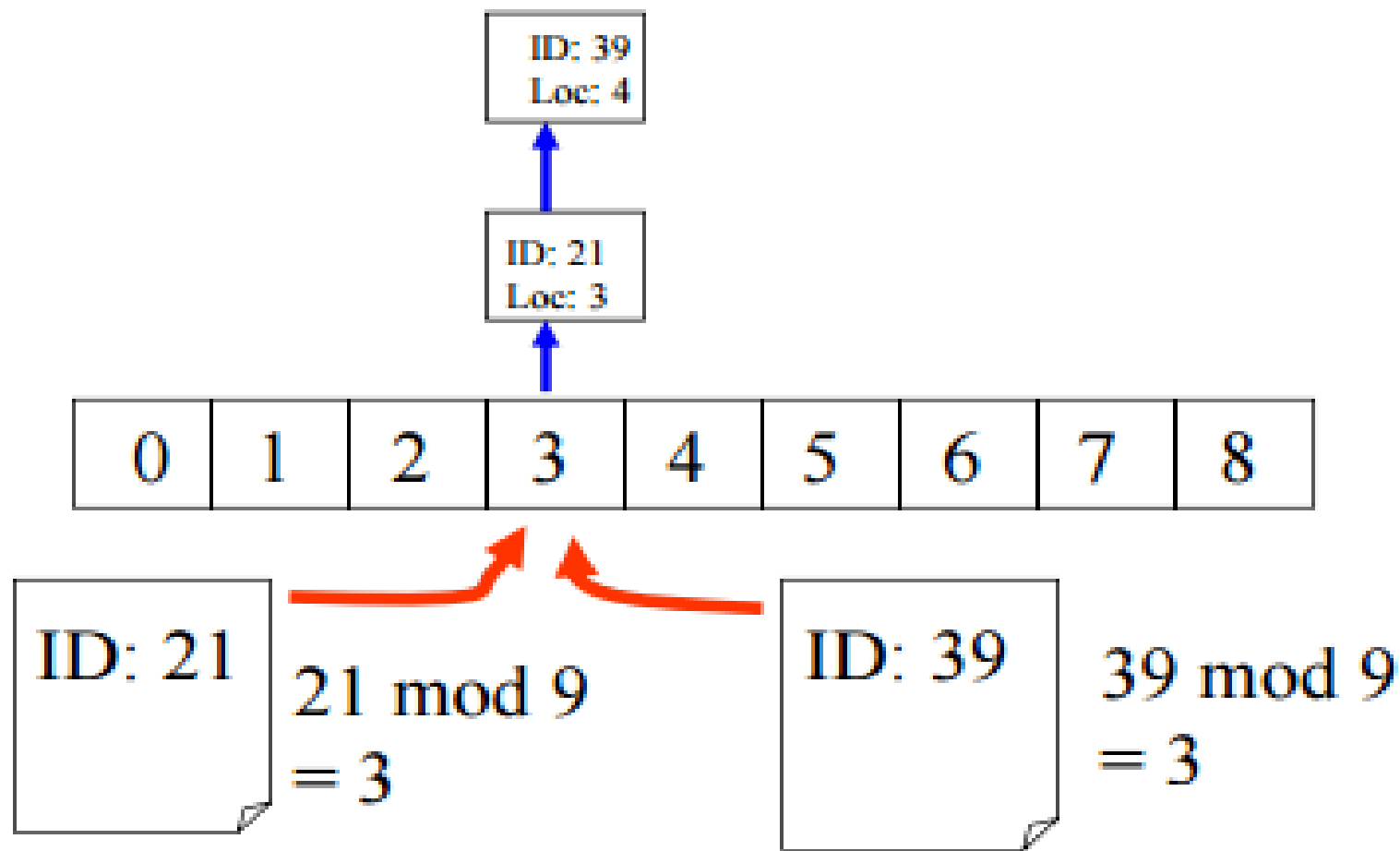
...

$$h_m(k) = (k+m) \bmod n$$



Hash Functions

- **Solution 2:** remember the exact location in a secondary structure that is searched sequentially



Applications of Number Theory in Cryptography

- Introduction
- Symmetric cryptography
- Asymmetric cryptography
- RSA Cryptosystem
- DLP and El Gamal cryptography
- Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol
- Cryptocurrency, e.g., bitcoin



Cryptography

- History of almost 4000 years (from 1900 B.C.)

Cryptography = kryptos + graphos



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Cryptography = kryptos + graphos
(secret) (writing)

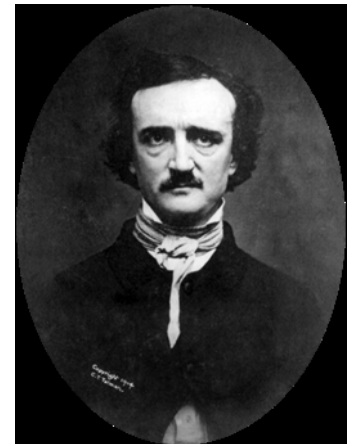


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The term was first used in *The Gold-Bug*, by Edgar Allan Poe (1809 - 1849).



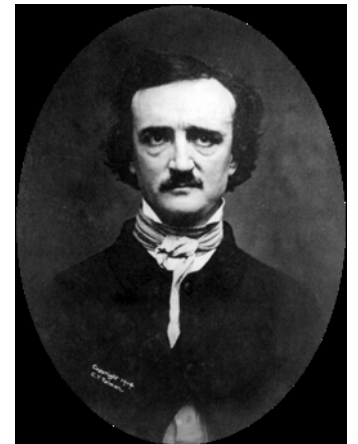
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Cryptography = kryptos + graphos
(secret) (writing)

The term was first used in *The Gold-Bug*, by Edgar Allan Poe (1809 - 1849).

“Human ingenuity cannot concoct a cipher which human ingenuity cannot resolve.” – 1941



Cryptography

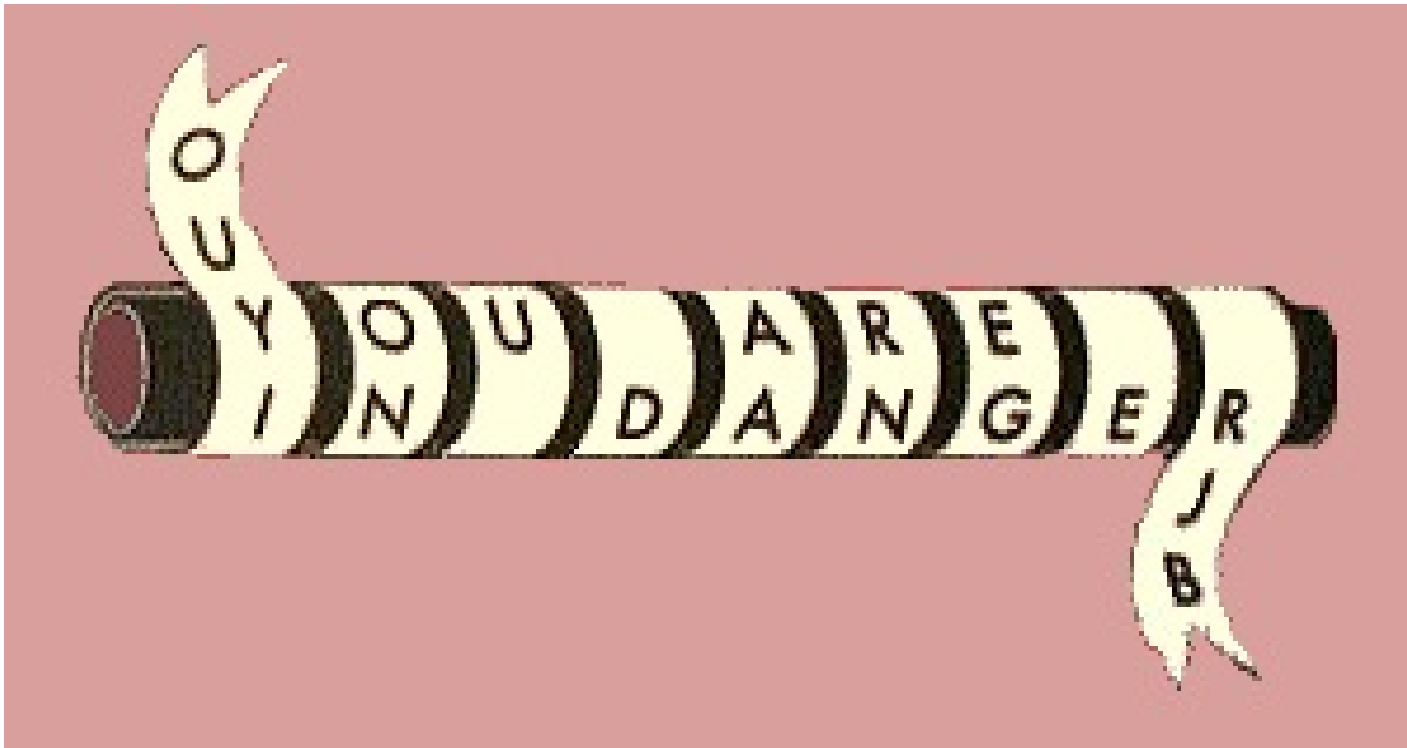
- One-sentence definition:

“Cryptography is the practice and study of techniques for secure communication in the presence of third parties called *adversaries*.” – Ronald L. Rivest



Some Examples

- In 405 BC, the Greek general LYSANDER OF SPARTA was sent a coded message written on the inside of a servant's belt.



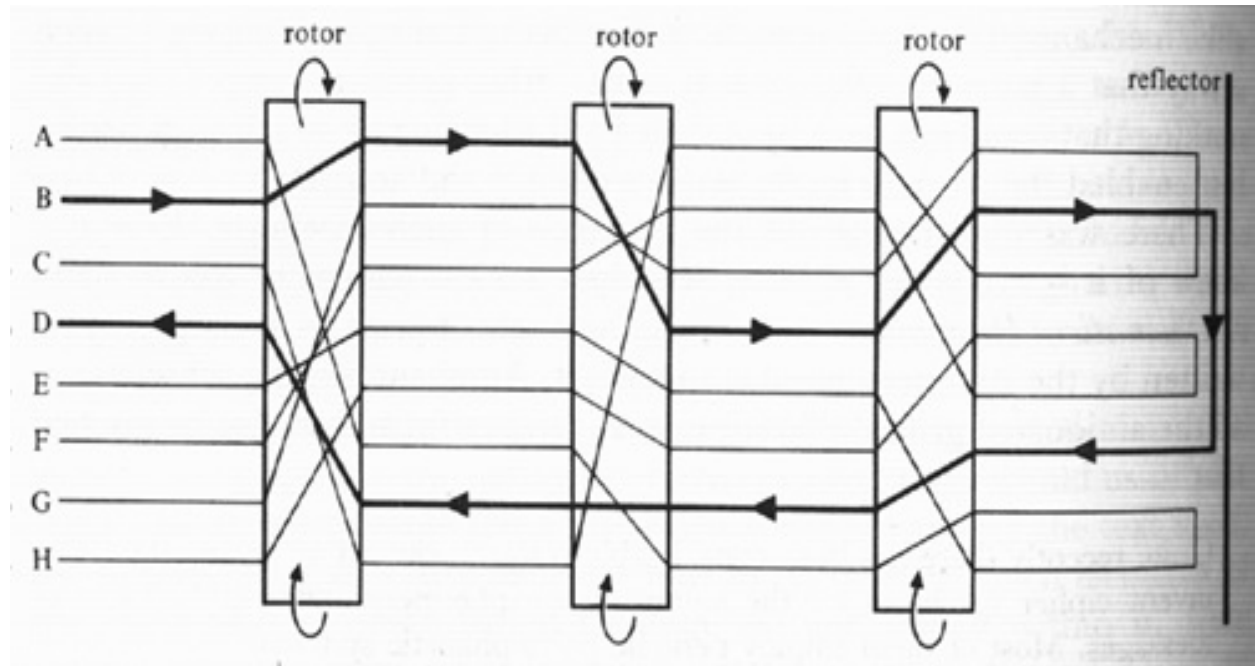
Some Examples

- The Greeks also invented a cipher which changed **letters** to **numbers**. A form of this code was still being used during *World War I*.

	1	2	3	4	5
1	A	B	C	D	E
2	F	G	H	I/J	K
3	L	M	N	O	P
4	Q	R	S	T	U
5	V	W	X	Y	Z

Some Examples

- Enigma, Germany coding machine in *World War II*.



Cryptography History

- History (until 1970's)
 - “*Symmetric*” cryptography



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They need agree in advance on the **secret key k** .

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Q: How can they do this?

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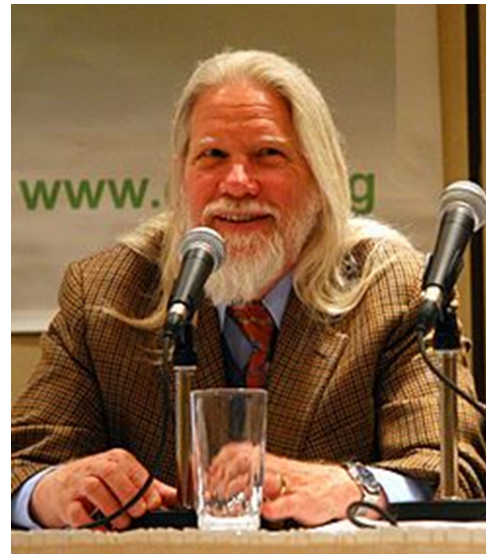
Q: What if Bob could send Alice a “special key” useful only for **encryption** but no help for **decryption**?

Cryptography History

- History (from 1976)

- ◇ W. Diffie, M. Hellman, “New direction in cryptography”, *IEEE Transactions on Information Theory*, vol. 22, pp. 644-654, 1976.

“We stand today on the brink of a revolution in cryptography.”



Bailey W. Diffie



Martin E. Hellman

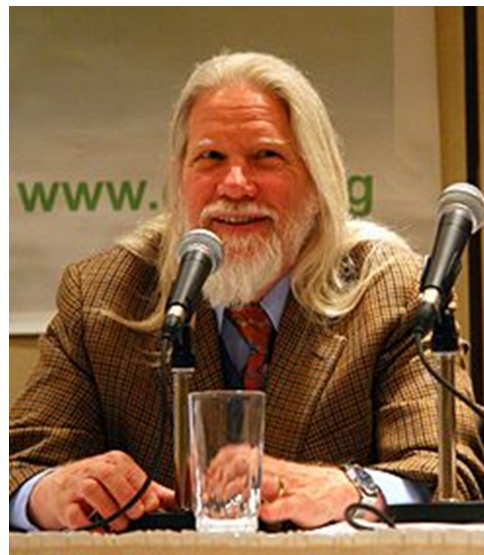
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2015 **Turing Award**



Bailey W. Diffie



Martin E. Hellman

2015	Martin E. Hellman Whitfield Diffie	For fundamental contributions to modern cryptography . Diffie and Hellman's groundbreaking 1976 paper, "New Directions in Cryptography," ^[39] introduced the ideas of public-key cryptography and digital signatures, which are the foundation for most regularly-used security protocols on the internet today. ^[40]
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Public Key Cryptography

- Alice wants to send a message to Bob



Public Key Cryptography

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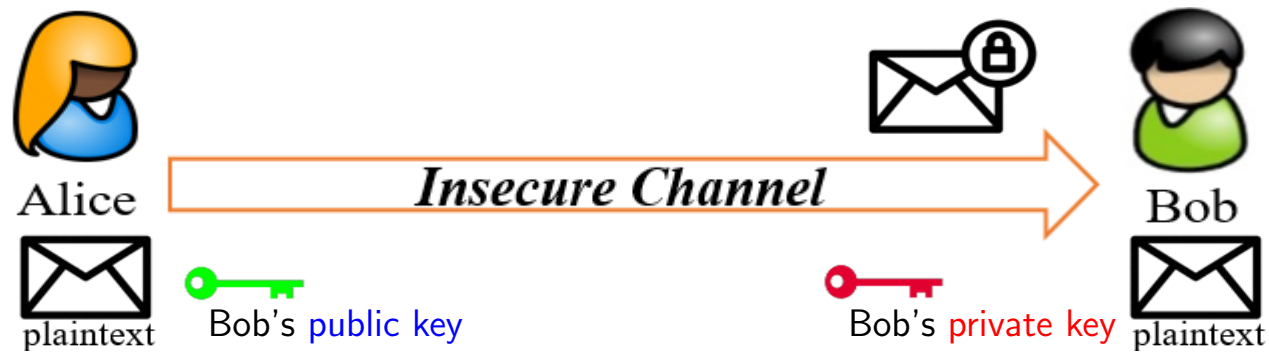
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Public Key Cryptography

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Ronald L. Rivest



Adi Shamir



Leonard M. Adleman

R. Rivest, A. Shamir, L. Adleman, "A method for obtaining digital signatures and public-key cryptosystems",
Communications of the ACM, vol. 21-2, pages 120-126, 1978.



RSA Public Key Cryptosystem

- Rivest-Shamir-Adleman 2002 **Turing Award**

2002	Ronald L. Rivest , Adi Shamir and Leonard M. Adleman	For their ingenious contribution for making public-key cryptography useful in practice.
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Pick two **large** primes, p and q . Let $n = pq$, then $\phi(n) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$. Encryption and decryption keys e and d are selected such that

- $\gcd(e, \phi(n)) = 1$
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RSA Public Key Cryptosystem

- $C = M^e \bmod n$ (RSA **encryption**)

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Theorem (*Correctness*) : Let p and q be two odd primes, and define $n = pq$. Let e be relatively prime to $\phi(n)$ and let d be the multiplicative inverse of e modulo $\phi(n)$. For each integer x such that $0 \leq x < n$,

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Q : How to prove this?



RSA Public Key Cryptosystem: Example

Parameters:	p	q	n	$\phi(n)$	e	d
	5	11	55	40	7	23



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p	q	n	$\phi(n)$	e	d
5	11	55	40	7	23

Public key: (7, 55)

Private key: 23

Encryption: $M = 28, C = M^7 \bmod 55 = 52$

Decryption: $M = C^{23} \bmod 55 = 28$



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Parameters: p q n $\phi(n)$ e d

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$p, q, \phi(n)$ must be kept **secret**!



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CS 208 – Algorithm Design and Analysis



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Q : Consider the RSA system, where $n = pq$ is the modulus. Let (e, d) be a key pair for the RSA. Define

$$\lambda(n) = \text{lcm}(p - 1, q - 1)$$

and compute $d' = e^{-1} \bmod \lambda(n)$. Will decryption using d' instead of d still work?



Applications of RSA

- SSL/TLS protocol



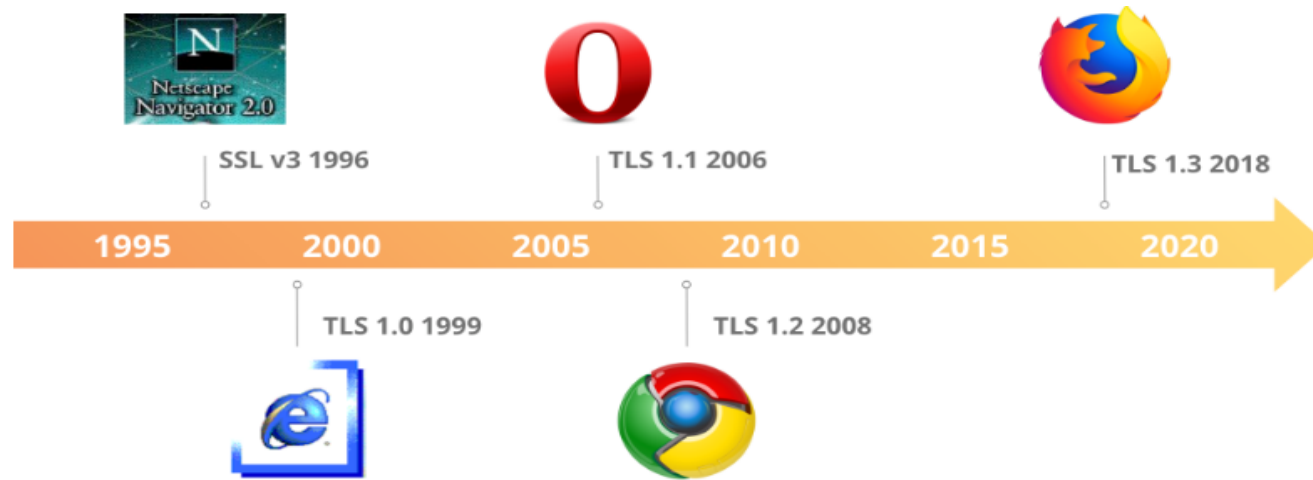
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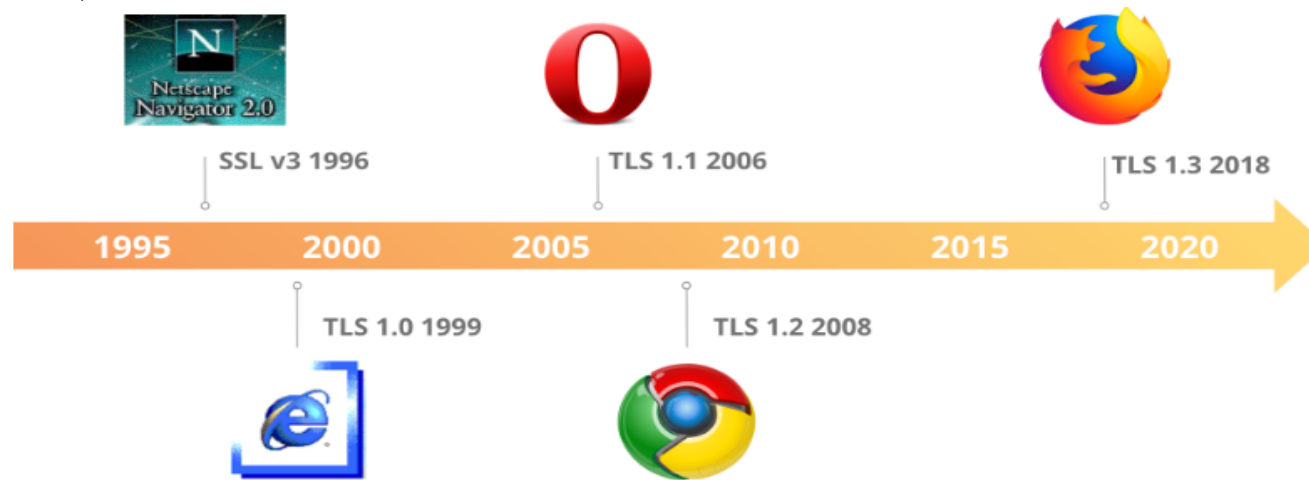
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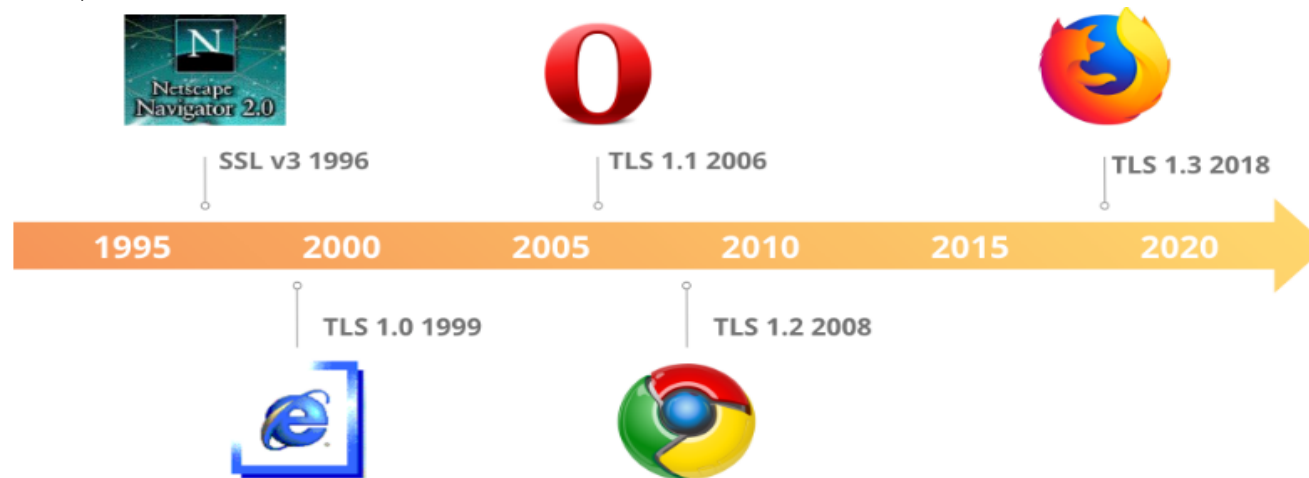


Key exchange/agreement and authentication

Algorithm	SSL 2.0	SSL 3.0	TLS 1.0	TLS 1.1	TLS 1.2	TLS 1.3
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DH-RSA	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
DHE-RSA (forward secrecy)	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
ECDH-RSA	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
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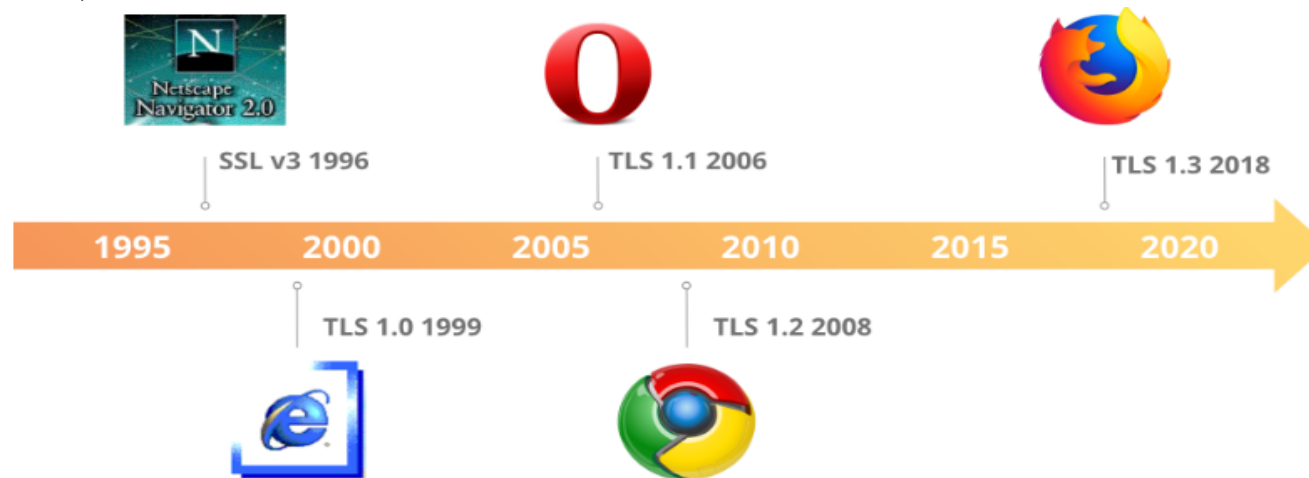
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CS 305 – Computer Networks

Applications of RSA

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CS 305 – Computer Networks

CS 403 – Cryptography and Network Security



Using RSA for Digital Signature

$$S = M^d \bmod n \text{ (RSA signature)}$$

$$M = S^e \bmod n \text{ (RSA verification)}$$

Why?



The Discrete Logarithm

- **The discrete logarithm** of an integer y to the base b is an integer x , such that

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Given n , b and y , find x .

This is very hard!



El Gamal Encryption

- **Setup** Let p be a prime, and g be a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p . The **private key** x is an integer with $1 < x < p - 2$. Let $y = g^x \bmod p$. The **public key** for *El Gamal encryption* is (p, g, y) .



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El Gamal Encryption: Pick a **random** integer k from \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} ,

$$a = g^k \bmod p$$

$$b = My^k \bmod p$$

The ciphertext C consists of the pair (a, b) .

El Gamal Decryption:

$$M = b(a^x)^{-1} \bmod p$$



Using El Gamal for Digital Signature

$$\begin{aligned}a &= g^k \bmod p \\b &= k^{-1}(M - xa) \bmod (p - 1)\end{aligned}$$

(El Gamal **signature**)

$$y^a a^b \equiv g^M \pmod{p}$$

(El Gamal **verification**)



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Q : How to verify it?



An Example

Choose $p = 2579$, $g = 2$, and $x = 765$. Hence
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► (Public key) $k_e = (p, g, y) = (2579, 2, 949)$

► (Private key) $k_d = x = 765$

Encryption: Let $M = 1299$ and choose a random $k = 853$,

$$\begin{aligned}(a, b) &= (g^k \bmod p, My^k \bmod p) \\ &= (2^{853} \bmod 2579, 1299 \cdot 949^{853} \bmod 2579) \\ &= (435, 2396).\end{aligned}$$

Decryption:

$$M = b(a^x)^{-1} \bmod p = 2396 \times (435^{765})^{-1} \bmod 2579 = 1299.$$



Security of the El Gamal Cryptosystem

Question 1: Is it feasible to derive x from (p, g, y) ?



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It is equivalent to solving the DLP. It is **believed** that there is **NO** polynomial-time algorithm. p should be large enough, typically 160 bits.



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Question 2: Given a ciphertext (a, b) , is it feasible to derive the plaintext M ?

Attack 1: Use $M = by^{-k}$. However, k is **randomly** picked.

Attack 2: Use $M = b(a^x)^{-1} \bmod p$, but x is **secret**.



Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange Protocol

User A

User B

Generate random

$$X_A < p$$

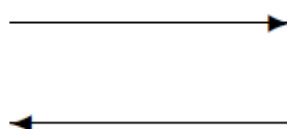
calculate

$$Y_A = \alpha^{X_A} \bmod p$$

Calculate

$$k = (Y_B)^{X_A} \bmod p$$

Y_A



Y_B

Generate random

$$X_B < p$$

Calculate

$$Y_B = \alpha^{X_B} \bmod p$$

Calculate

$$k = (Y_A)^{X_B} \bmod p$$



Next Lecture

- induction ...

