

Euclidean Algorithm

Fact 01 : $\gcd(a, 0) = a$

Fact 02 : $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r) \quad [r = a \% b]$

Ex: $\gcd(36, 10) = \gcd(10, 6) = \gcd(6, 4) = \gcd(4, 2)$
 $= \gcd(2, 0) = 2$

Algorithm :

```
r1 ← a, r2 ← b
while (r2 > 0)
{
    q ← r1 / r2
    r ← r1 - q × r2
    r1 ← r2
    r2 ← r
}
gcd(a, b) ← r1
```

When $\gcd(a, b) = 1$
we say that a & b
are relatively prime.

Ex 01: $\text{GCD}(2740, 1760) = ?$

q	r_1	r_2	r
1	2740	1760	980
1	1760	980	780
1	980	780	200
3	780	200	180
1	200	180	20
9	180	20	0
	20	0	

$\therefore \text{GCD}(2740, 1760) = 20$

Ex 02: $\text{GCD}(25, 60) = ?$

q	r_1	r_2	r
0	25	60	25
2	60	25	10
2	25	10	5
2	10	5	0
	5	0	

$\text{GCD}(25, 60) = 5$

Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Given two integers a and b

we often need to find other two integers

s k t such that

$$s \times a + t \times b = \gcd(a, b)$$

Algorithm :

$$r_1 \leftarrow a, r_2 \leftarrow b$$

$$s_1 \leftarrow 1, s_2 \leftarrow 0$$

$$t_1 \leftarrow 0, t_2 \leftarrow 1$$

while ($r_2 > 0$)

{

$$q \leftarrow r_1 / r_2$$

$$r \leftarrow r_1 - q \times r_2$$

$$r_1 \leftarrow r_2$$

$$r_2 \leftarrow r$$

$$s \leftarrow s_1 - q \times s_2$$

$$s_1 \leftarrow s_2$$

$$s_2 \leftarrow s$$

$$t \leftarrow t_1 - q \times t_2$$

$$t_1 \leftarrow t_2$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 t_2 \leftarrow t \\
 \} \\
 \text{gcd}(a, b) \leftarrow r_1 \\
 s \leftarrow s_1 \\
 t \leftarrow t_1
 \end{array}$$

Ex 03 : $\text{gcd}(161, 28) = ?$ $s = ?$ $t = ?$

q	r_1	r_2	r	s_1	s_2	s	t_1	t_2	t
5	161	28	21	1	0	1	0	1	-5
1	28	21	7	0	1	-1	1	-5	6
3	21	7	0	1	-1	4	-5	6	-23
	7	0		-1	4		6	-23	

$$\therefore \text{gcd}(161, 28) = 7$$

$$s = -1$$

$$t = 6$$

$$-1 \times 161 + 6 \times 28 = 7$$

Given $a = 0$ and $b = 45$, find $\text{gcd}(a, b)$ and the values of s and t .

Solution

We use a table to follow the algorithm.

q	r_1	r_2	r	s_1	s_2	s	t_1	t_2	t
0	0	45	0	1	0	1	0	1	0
	45	0		0	1		1	0	

We get $\text{gcd}(0, 45) = 45$, $s = 0$, and $t = 1$. This indicates why we should initialize s_2 to 0 and t_2 to 1.

Given $a = 17$ and $b = 0$, find $\gcd(a, b)$ and the values of s and t .

Solution

We use a table to follow the algorithm.

q	r_1	r_2	r	s_1	s_2	s	t_1	t_2	t
	17	0		1	0		0	1	

Note that we need no calculation for q , r , and s . The first value of r_2 meets our termination condition. We get $\gcd(17, 0) = 17$, $s = 1$, and $t = 0$. This indicates why we should initialize s_1 to 1 and t_1 to 0. The answers can be tested as shown below:

Multiplicative Inverse

In \mathbb{Z}_n , two numbers a and b are the multiplicative inverse of each other if

$$a \times b \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Ex: $3 \times 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$

If the modulus is 10, then the multiplicative inverse of 3 is 7.

' a ' has a multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z}_n if and only if $\gcd(n, a) = 1$

Ex: There is no multiplicative inverse of 8 in \mathbb{Z}_{10} because $\gcd(10, 8) = 2 \neq 1$.

The extended euclidean algo finds the multiplicative inverse of b in \mathbb{Z}_n when n and b are given and $\gcd(n, b) = 1$.

The multiplicative inverse of b is the value of t after being mapped to \mathbb{Z}_n .

Algorithm :

$$r_1 \leftarrow n, r_2 \leftarrow b$$

$$t_1 \leftarrow 0, t_2 \leftarrow 1$$

while ($r_2 > 0$)

```
{  
     $q \leftarrow r_1 / r_2$   
     $r \leftarrow r_1 - q \times r_2$   
     $r_1 \leftarrow r_2$   
     $r_2 \leftarrow r$   
  
     $t \leftarrow t_1 - q \times t_2$   
     $t_1 \leftarrow t_2$   
     $t_2 \leftarrow t$   
}
```

if ($r_1 == 1$) then $b^{-1} \leftarrow t_1$

Ex 04: Find the multiplicative inverse of 11 in \mathbb{Z}_{26} .

q	r_1	r_2	r	t_1	t_2	t
2	26	11	4	0	1	-2
2	11	4	3	1	-2	5
1	4	3	1	-2	5	-7
3	3	1	0	5	-7	26
	1	0		-7	26	

$\gcd(26, 11) = 1 \rightarrow \text{M.I. exists}$

$$t_1 = -7$$

$$\therefore \text{M.I.} = (-7) \bmod 26 = 19$$

$\therefore 11$ and 19 are multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z}_{26} .

$$(11 \times 19) \bmod 26 = 1$$

Euler's Totient Function

$\phi(n) \rightarrow$ Finds the number of integers that are both smaller than n and relatively prime to n .

Rule 01: $\phi(1) = 0$

Rule 02: $\phi(p) = p-1$ if p is prime

Rule 03: $\phi(mn) = \phi(m) \times \phi(n)$

if m and n are relatively prime

Rule 04: $\phi(p^e) = p^e - p^{e-1}$ if p is prime.

If $n = p_1^{e_1} \times p_2^{e_2} \times p_3^{e_3} \times \dots \times p_k^{e_k}$

$$\phi(n) = (p_1^{e_1} - p_1^{e_1-1}) \cdot (p_2^{e_2} - p_2^{e_2-1}) \cdot \dots \cdot (p_k^{e_k} - p_k^{e_k-1})$$

Ex 05: $\phi(13) = 13-1 = 12$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(10) &= \phi(2 \times 5) = \phi(2) \times \phi(5) \\ &= 1 \times 4 = 4\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(240) &= \phi(2^4 \times 3^1 \times 5^1) \\ &= (2^4 - 2^3) \cdot (3^1 - 3^0) \cdot (5^1 - 5^0) \\ &= 8 \times 2 \times 4 = 64\end{aligned}$$

Fermat's Little Theorem

First version:

If p is a prime and a is an integer such that p does not divide a then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

Second version:

If p is a prime and a is an integer then

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

Ex 06:

$$6^{10} \pmod{11} = 6^{11-1} \pmod{11} = 1$$

$$3^{12} \pmod{11} = (3^{11} \times 3) \pmod{11}$$

$$= (3^{11} \pmod{11}) (3 \pmod{11})$$

$$= (3 \times 3) \pmod{11}$$

$$= 9$$

Multiplicative Inverse using F.L.T

If p is a prime and a is an integer such that p does not divide a then

$$a^{-1} \bmod p = a^{p-2} \bmod p$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ex 07: } 8^{-1} \bmod 17 &= 8^{17-2} \bmod 17 \\ &= 8^{15} \bmod 17 \\ &= 15 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 5^{-1} \bmod 23 &= 5^{23-2} \bmod 23 \\ &= 5^{21} \bmod 23 \\ &= 14 \end{aligned}$$

Euler's Theorem

First version :

If a and n are coprime, then

$$a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

Second Version:

If $n = p \times q$, $a < n$, k is an integer

then $a^{k\phi(n)+1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$

Ex 08: $6^{24} \pmod{35} = 6^{\phi(35)} \pmod{35}$
 $= 1$

$$\begin{aligned} 20^{62} \pmod{77} &= (20 \pmod{77}) (20^{\phi(77)+1} \pmod{77}) \\ &= (20 \times 20) \pmod{77} \\ &= 15 \end{aligned}$$

Multiplicative Inverse Using Euler's Theorem

If n and a are coprime then,

$$a^{-1} \pmod{n} = a^{\phi(n)-1} \pmod{n}$$

Ex 09: $8^{-1} \pmod{77} = 8^{\phi(77)-1} \pmod{77} = 8^{59} \pmod{77}$
 $= 29 \pmod{77}$

$$\begin{aligned} 71^{-1} \pmod{100} &= 71^{\phi(100)-1} \pmod{100} = 71^{39} \pmod{100} \\ &= 31 \pmod{100} \end{aligned}$$

$$ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

If $\gcd(a, n) = d$

↳ if d does not divide b , there is no solution.

→ if d divides b , there are d solutions.

Let us see how we can solve equations involving a single variable—that is, equations of the form $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$. An equation of this type might have no solution or a limited number of solutions. Assume that the $\gcd(a, n) = d$. If $d \nmid b$, there is no solution. If $d \mid b$, there are d solutions.

If $d \mid b$, we use the following strategy to find the solutions:

1. Reduce the equation by dividing both sides of the equation (including the modulus) by d .
2. Multiply both sides of the reduced equation by the multiplicative inverse of a to find the particular solution x_0 .
3. The general solutions are $x = x_0 + k(n/d)$ for $k = 0, 1, \dots, (d-1)$.

Ex-01: $10x \equiv 2 \pmod{15}$

Solⁿ: $\gcd(10, 15) = 5$ and 5 does not divide 2

∴ There is no solution.

Ex-02: $14x \equiv 12 \pmod{18}$

Solⁿ: $\gcd(14, 18) = 2$ and 2 divides 12.

∴ We have exactly 2 solutions.

Now, $14x \equiv 12 \pmod{18}$

$$\Rightarrow 7x \equiv 6 \pmod{9}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 6(7^{-1}) \pmod{9}$$

$$x_0 = (6 \times 7^{-1}) \pmod{9} = (6 \times 4) \pmod{9} = 6$$

$$x_1 = x_0 + 1 \times (18/2) = 6 + 9 = 15$$

Ans: 6, 15

Ex-03: $3x + 4 \equiv 6 \pmod{13}$

$$\Rightarrow 3x \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$$

$\gcd(3, 13) = 1$ and 1 divides 2.

We have exactly 1 solution.

Now,

$$3x \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = (2 \times 3^{-1}) \pmod{13}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = (2 \times 9) \pmod{13}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 5$$

(Ans)

Ex 04:

$$12x \equiv 17 \pmod{19}$$

$\gcd(12, 19) = 1$ and 1 divides 17.

We have exactly 1 solution.

Now,

$$12x \equiv 17 \pmod{19}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = (17 \times 12^{-1}) \pmod{19}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = (17 \times 8) \pmod{19}$$

$$\therefore x = 3$$

⊕ Time complexity
of Euclidean &
Extended Euclidean
Algorithm $= O(\log(\min(a, b)))$

BINARY GCD

```
function binaryGCD(int u, int v) {  
    //simple termination cases  
    if v equals 0 : return u;  
    if u equals 0 : return v;  
  
    // If u and v are both even, then gcd(u, v) = 2·gcd(u/2, v/2), because 2 is a common divisor  
    if ((u is even) and (v is even)){  
        return binaryGCD(u >> 1, v >> 1) << 1;  
    }  
  
    // If u is even and v is odd, then gcd(u, v) = gcd(u/2, v), because 2 is not a common divisor  
    else if (u is even){  
        return binaryGCD(u >> 1, v);  
    }  
  
    // If u is odd and v is even, then gcd(u, v) = gcd(u, v/2)  
    else if (v is even){  
        return binaryGCD(u, v >> 1);  
    }  
  
    // If u and v are both odd, and u ≥ v, then gcd(u, v) = gcd((u - v)/2, v)  
    else if (u >= v){  
        return binaryGCD((u-v) >> 1, v);  
    }  
  
    // If both are odd and u < v, then gcd(u, v) = gcd((v - u)/2, u)  
    else{  
        return binaryGCD(u, (v-u) >> 1);  
    }  
}
```

ANY 2 CONSECUTIVE FIBONACCI NUMBERS ARE RELATIVELY PRIME :-

Proof: In order to prove that
 $\gcd(F_n, F_{n+1}) = 1$

We must first know that $\gcd(a, a+b) = \gcd(a, b)$

Suppose d is a divisor of both a and $a+b$.

$$\therefore a = dk, \quad a+b = dj$$

$$\Rightarrow b = dj - a$$

$$\Rightarrow b = dj - dk$$

$$\Rightarrow b = d(j-k)$$

$\therefore d$ is also a divisor of b .

It means that

$$d|a \text{ and } d|a+b \Rightarrow d|a \text{ and } d|b$$

$$d|a \text{ and } d|b \Rightarrow d|a \text{ and } d|a+b$$

for any divisor d .

$$\therefore \gcd(a, a+b) = \gcd(a, b)$$

Now the real proof:

Base Case: $\gcd(F_0, F_1) = \gcd(0, 1) = 1$

$\therefore F_0$ and F_1 are relatively prime.

Inductive Step:

For the inductive hypothesis, we assume that

$$\gcd(F_k, F_{k+1}) = 1$$

We have to prove that $\gcd(F_{k+1}, F_{k+2}) = 1$.

Now,

$$\gcd(F_{k+1}, F_{k+2}) = \gcd(F_{k+1}, F_{k+1} + F_k)$$

$$= \gcd(F_{k+1}, F_k)$$

$$= \gcd(F_k, F_{k+1})$$

$$= 1$$

[Voila]

Q What does Extended Euclid (F_k, F_{k+1}) return?

Solⁿ:

Proposition $P(n)$: For all $n \geq 2$,

$$\gcd(F_n, F_{n+1}) = \underbrace{\left[(-1)^n F_{n-1}\right] F_n}_{\text{Extended Euclid will return these two.}} + \underbrace{\left[(-1)^{n+1} F_{n-2}\right] F_{n+1}}_{\text{Extended Euclid will return these two.}} = 1$$

Extended Euclid will return these two.

Base Case:

$$\text{For } n=2, \gcd(F_2, F_3) = \left[(-1)^2 F_{2-1}\right] F_2 + \left[(-1)^{2+1} F_{2-2}\right] F_{2+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \gcd(1, 2) = F_1 F_2 + (-1) F_0 F_3$$

$$\Rightarrow \gcd(1, 2) = 1 \times 1 - 1 \times 0 \times 2$$

$$\Rightarrow \gcd(1, 2) = 1$$

\therefore Base Case holds.

Inductive Hypothesis:

Let $P(k)$ is true, that is,

$$1 = \gcd(F_k, F_{k+1}) = \left[(-1)^k F_{k-1}\right] F_k + \left[(-1)^{k+1} F_{k-2}\right] F_{k+1} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

and we have to prove that $P(k+1)$ is also true.

That is, we need prove,

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(F_{k+1}, F_{k+2}) &= \left[(-1)^{k+1} F_k\right] F_{k+1} + \left[(-1)^{k+2} F_{k-1}\right] F_{k+2} \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

We know that, $F_{k+2} = F_{k+1} + F_k$

From ① \Rightarrow

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= [(-1)^k F_{k-1}] (F_{k+2} - F_{k+1}) + [(-1)^{k+1} F_{k-2}] F_{k+1} \\ &= F_{k+1} ((-1)^{k+1} F_{k-2} + (-1)^{k+1} F_{k-1}) + F_{k+2} ((-1)^k F_{k-1}) \\ &= F_{k+1} (-1)^{k+1} (F_{k-2} + F_{k-1}) + F_{k+2} ((-1)^k F_{k-1}) \\ &= F_{k+1} (-1)^{k+1} F_k + F_{k+2} ((-1)^k F_{k-1}) \\ &= [(-1)^{k+1} F_k] F_{k+1} + [(-1)(-1)(-1)^k F_{k-1}] F_{k+2} \\ &= [(-1)^{k+1} F_k] F_{k+1} + [(-1)^{k+2} F_{k-1}] F_{k+2} \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore P(k+1)$ also holds.

[Proved]

[All CREDIT GOES TO MAHADI HASAN]

RSA

RSA-Key-Generation

```
{  
  Select two large primes  $p$  and  $q$  [ $p \neq q$ ]  
   $n \leftarrow p \times q$   
   $\phi(n) \leftarrow (p-1)(q-1)$   
  Select  $e$  such that  $1 < e < \phi(n)$  and  
     $e$  is coprime to  $\phi(n)$   
   $d \leftarrow e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$   
  Public key  $\leftarrow (e, n)$   
  Private key  $\leftarrow d$   
}
```

RSA-Encryption (P, e, n)

```
{  
   $C \leftarrow P^e \bmod n$   
}
```

RSA-Decryption (C, d, n)

```
{  
   $P \leftarrow C^d \bmod n$   
}
```

□ RSA would be trivial to crack knowing the factorization into two primes of n in the public key, explain why RSA would be trivial to crack knowing $\phi(n)$.

Solⁿ:

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(n) &= (p-1)(q-1) = pq - q - p + 1 \\ &= (n+1) - (p+q)\end{aligned}$$

$$(n+1) - \phi(n) - p = q \quad \text{--- ①}$$

$$\text{Now, } n = pq \Rightarrow n = p(n+1 - \phi(n) - p) \quad [\text{from ①}]$$

$$\Rightarrow n = -p^2 + (n+1 - \phi(n))p$$

$$\Rightarrow p^2 - (n+1 - \phi(n))p + n = 0$$

$$\therefore p = \frac{n+1 - \phi(n) \pm \sqrt{(n+1 - \phi(n))^2 - 4n}}{2}$$

because of symmetry, the two solutions for p will be the two prime factors of n .

Here is a short example:

$$\text{Let } n = 13 \times 29 = 377$$

$$\phi(n) = (13-1)(29-1) = 336$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore p &= \frac{377+1-336 \pm \sqrt{(377+1-336)^2 - 4 \times 377}}{2} \\ &= \frac{42 \pm 16}{2} = 13, 29 \end{aligned}$$

In conclusion, knowledge of $\phi(n)$ allows one to factor n in time $O(1)$.

▣ Consider an RSA key set with $p=11$, $q=29$, $n=319$ and $e=3$. What value of d should be used in the secret key? What is the encryption of the message $M=100$?

Solⁿ:

$$d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n)$$

$$= e^{-1} \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$$

$$= 3^{-1} \bmod 280$$

$$\therefore d = 187 \quad [\text{use Extended Euclid}]$$

Now, message $M = 100$

$$C = M^e \bmod n = 100^3 \bmod 319 \\ = 254$$

Q In an RSA cryptosystem, a particular user uses two prime numbers $p=13$ and $q=17$ to generate his public and private keys. If the public key is 35, then the private key is = ?

solⁿ: $e = 35$

$$d = e^{-1} \bmod \phi(n) = 35^{-1} \bmod (13-1)(17-1) \\ = 35^{-1} \bmod 192$$

a	r_1	r_2	r	t_1	t_2	t
5	192	35	17	0	1	-5
2	35	17	1	1	-5	11
17	17	1	0	-5	11	-192
	1	0		11	-192	

$$\therefore d = 35^{-1} \bmod 192 = 11$$

(Ans)