



# 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.

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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?”

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When does an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$  exist?



# Inverse of $a$ modulo $m$

- **Theorem** If  $a$  and  $m$  are relatively prime integers and  $m > 1$ , then an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$  exists. Furthermore, the inverse is unique modulo  $m$ .





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**Proof.** Since  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ , there are integers  $s$  and  $t$  such that  $sa + tm = 1$ . Hence  $sa + tm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . Since  $tm \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ , it follows that  $sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . This means that  $s$  is an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$ .



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How to prove the uniqueness of the inverse?



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

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

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

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

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



# Using Inverses to Solve Congruences

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**Example.** What are the solutions of the congruence  $3x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$ ?

**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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——程大位《算法统要》（1593年）

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$$x \equiv 8 \pmod{15}$$

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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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**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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# Number Theory and Cryptography

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$$a = dq + r \quad q = a \operatorname{div} d \quad r = a \operatorname{mod} d$$

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- Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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find the modular inverse

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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  $x_0$



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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

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### **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

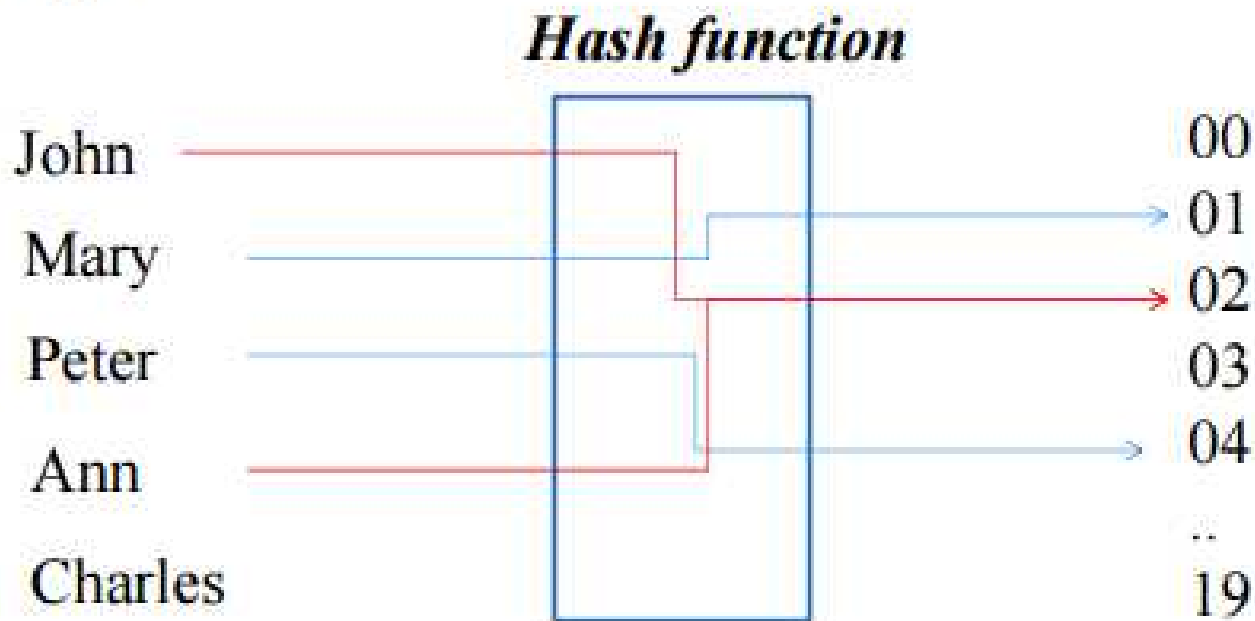
- A *hash function* is an algorithm that maps data of arbitrary length to *data of a fixed length*. The values returned by a hash function are called *hash values* or *hash codes*.



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## Example:



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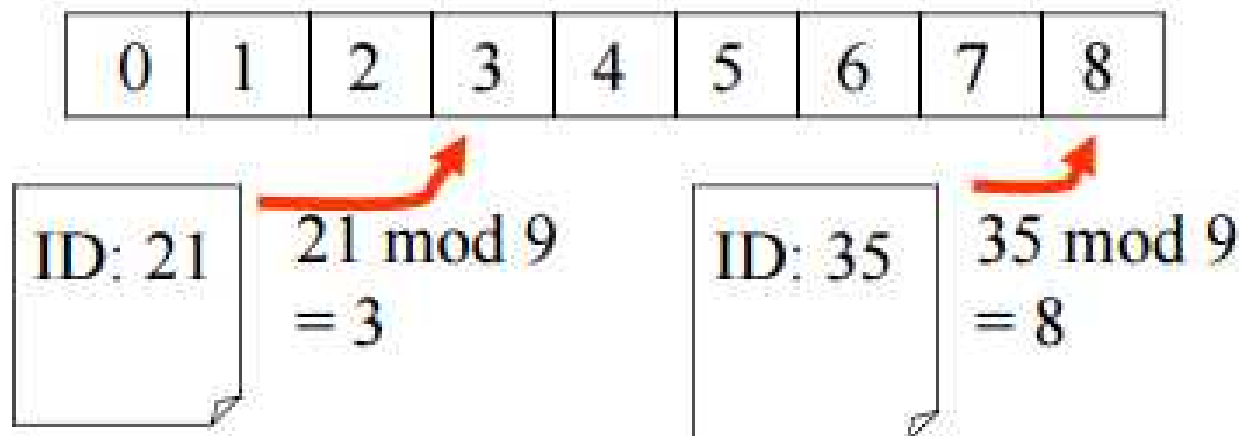
- **Problem:** Given a large collection of records, how can we store and find a record quickly?

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

**Example:** A common hash function is

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

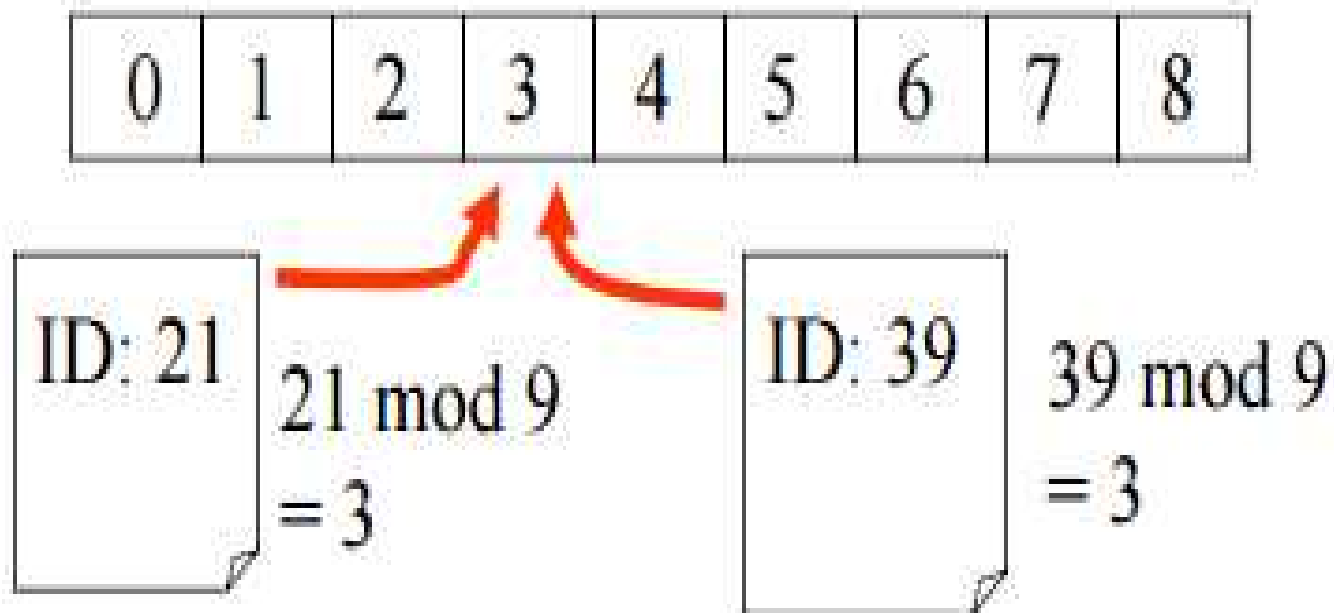
where  $n$  is the number of available storage locations.





# Hash Functions

- Two records mapped to the same location



# Hash Functions

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

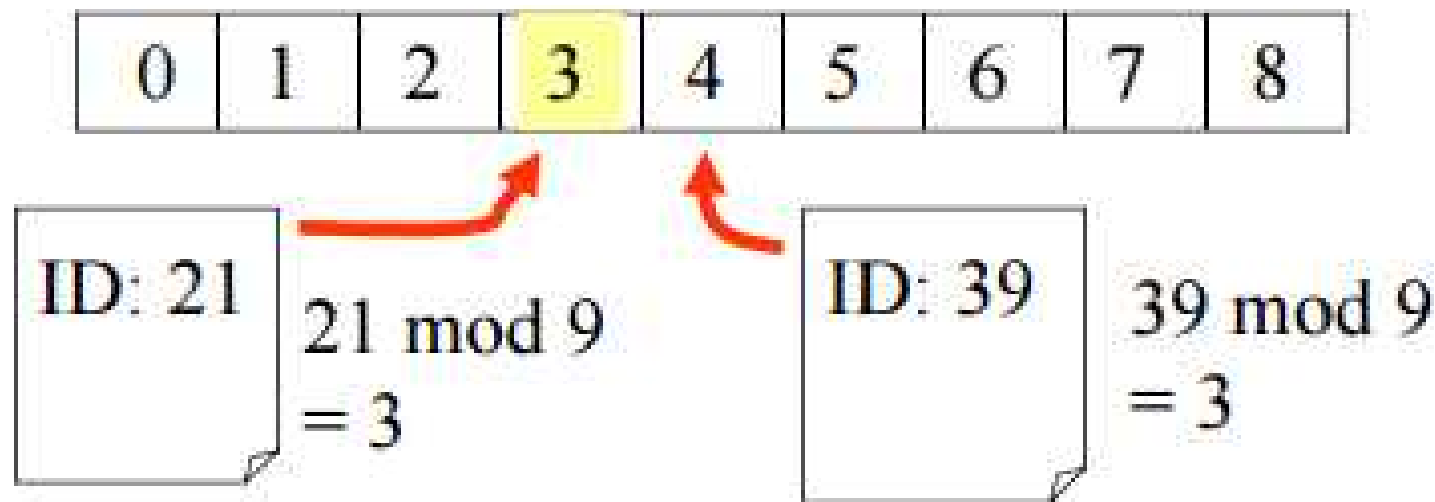
try

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

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

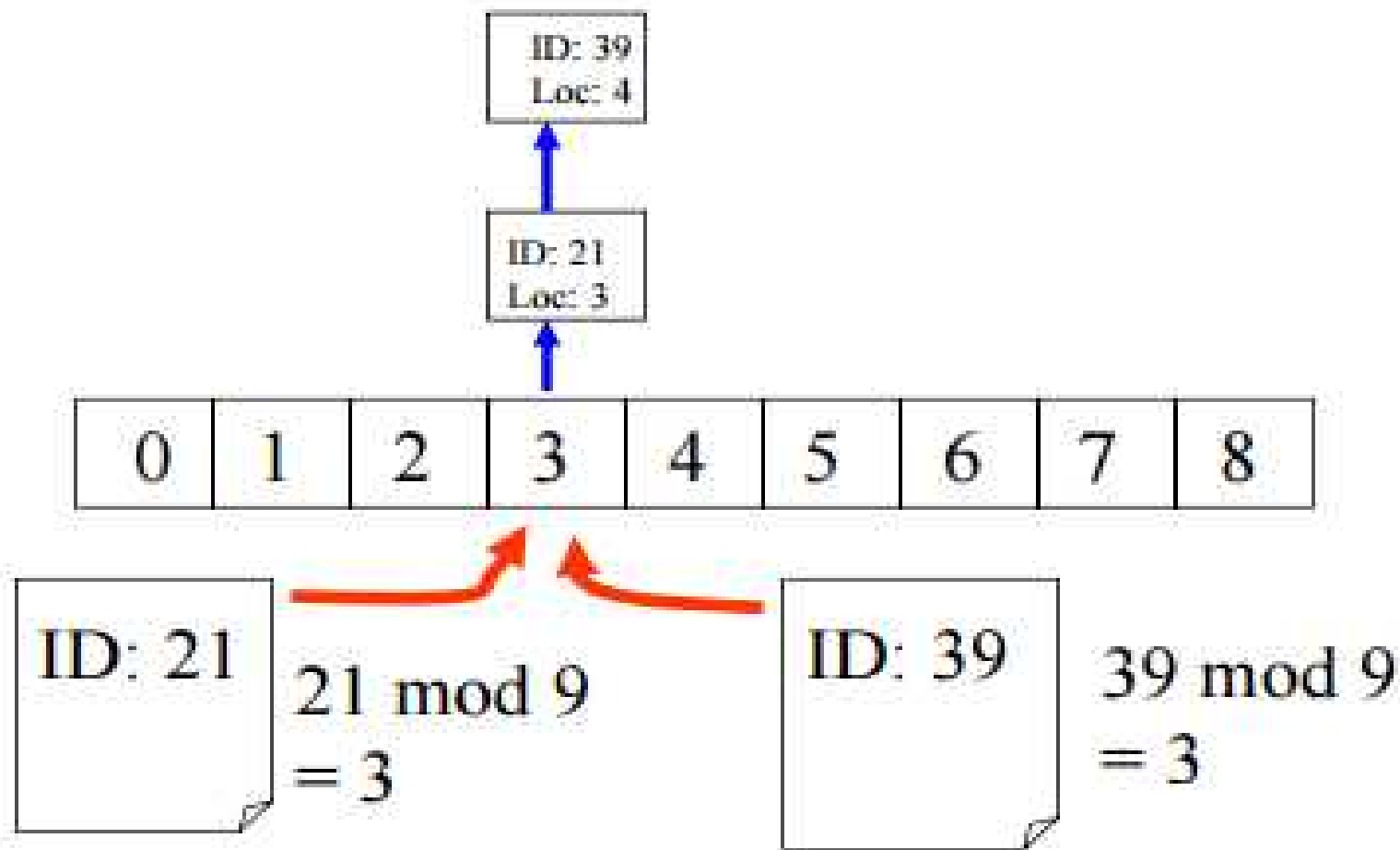
...

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



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



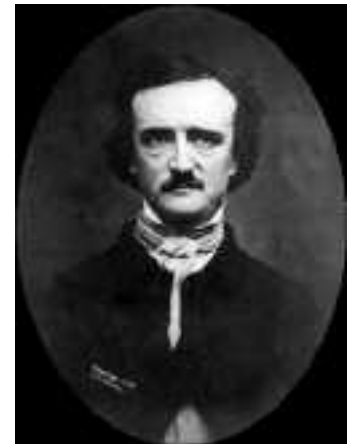
# Cryptography

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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

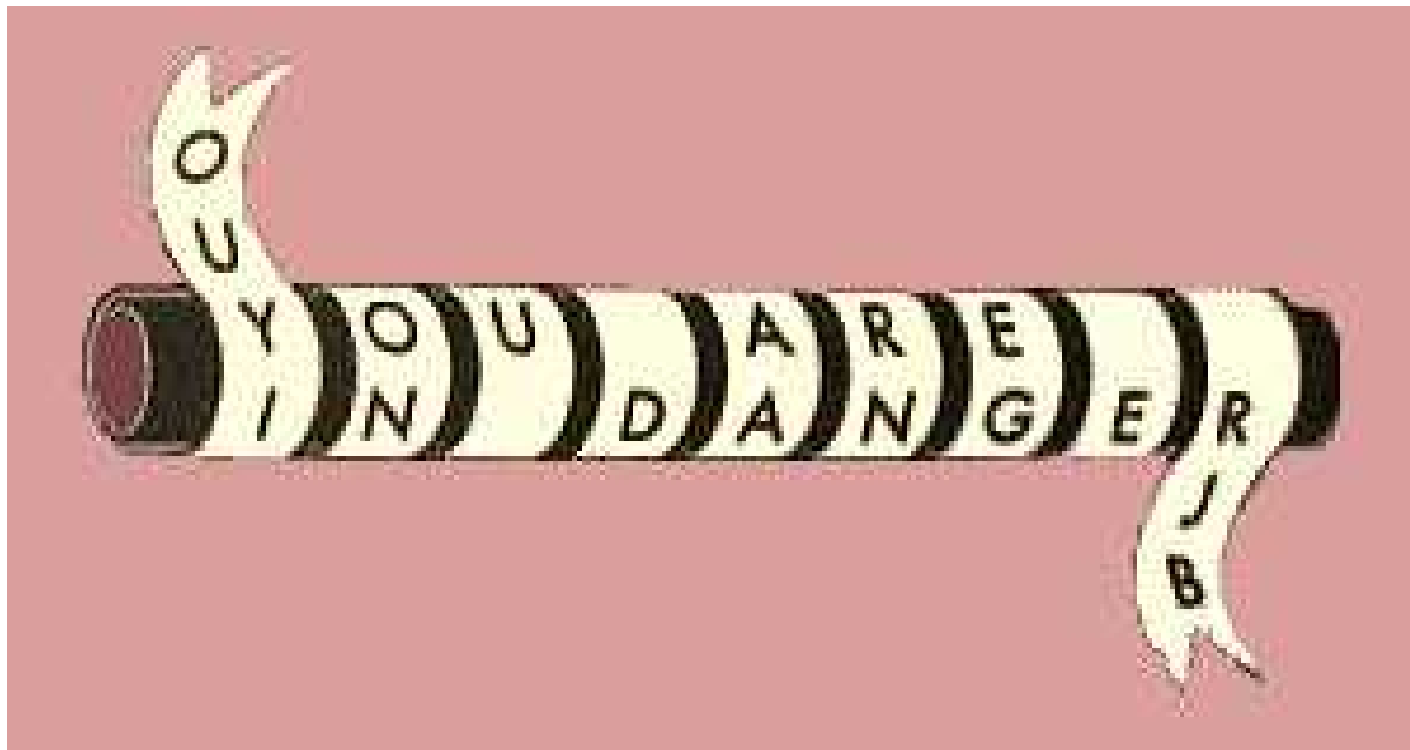
- One-sentence definition:

“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

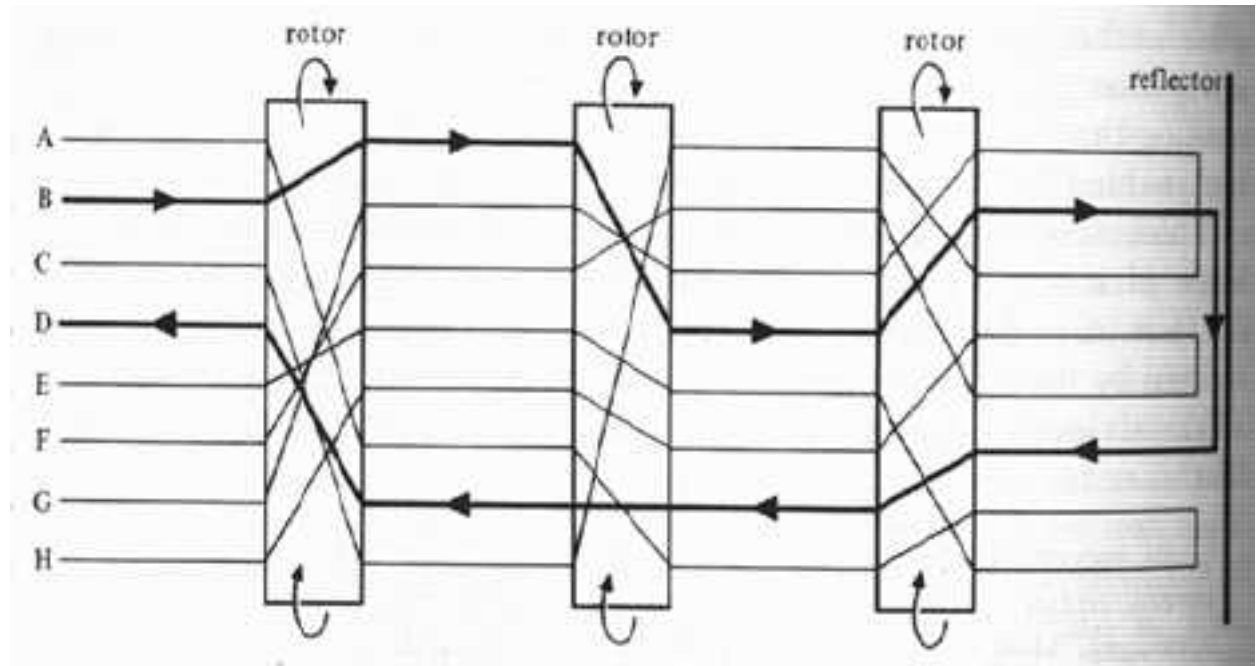
- The Greeks also invented a cipher which changed **letters** to **numbers**. A form of this code was still being used during *World War I*.

	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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**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.”



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2015 **Turing Award**



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

- Alice wants to send a message to Bob



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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	<a href="#">Ronald L. Rivest</a> , <a href="#">Adi Shamir</a> and <a href="#">Leonard M. Adleman</a>	For <a href="#">their ingenious contribution</a> for making <a href="#">public-key cryptography</a> 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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- $C = M^e \bmod n$  (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?





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



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5	11	55	40	7	23

**Public key:** (7, 55)

**Private key:** 23

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

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



# RSA Public Key Cryptosystem: Parameters

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

**Public key:**  $(e, n)$

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**Comment:** It is believed that determining  $\phi(n)$  is **equivalent** to factoring  $n$ . Meanwhile, determining  $d$  given  $e$  and  $n$ , appears to be at least as time-consuming as **the integer factoring problem**.



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CS 208 – Algorithm Design and Analysis



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**Remark:** There are some suggestions for choosing  $p$  and  $q$ .

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A. Salomaa, *Public-Key Cryptography*, 2nd Edition, Springer, 1996, pp. 134-136.

**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



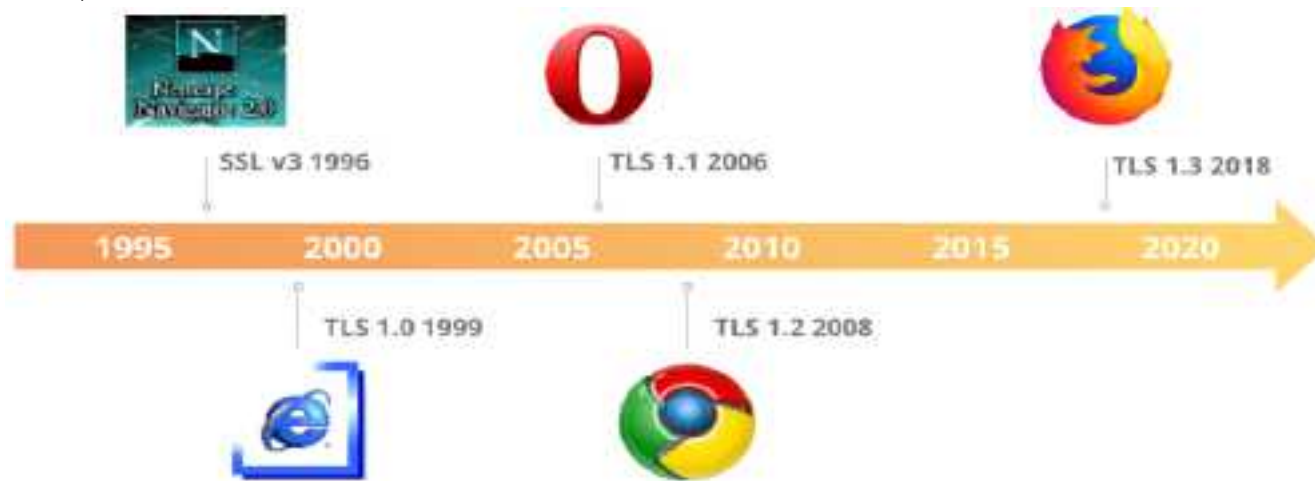
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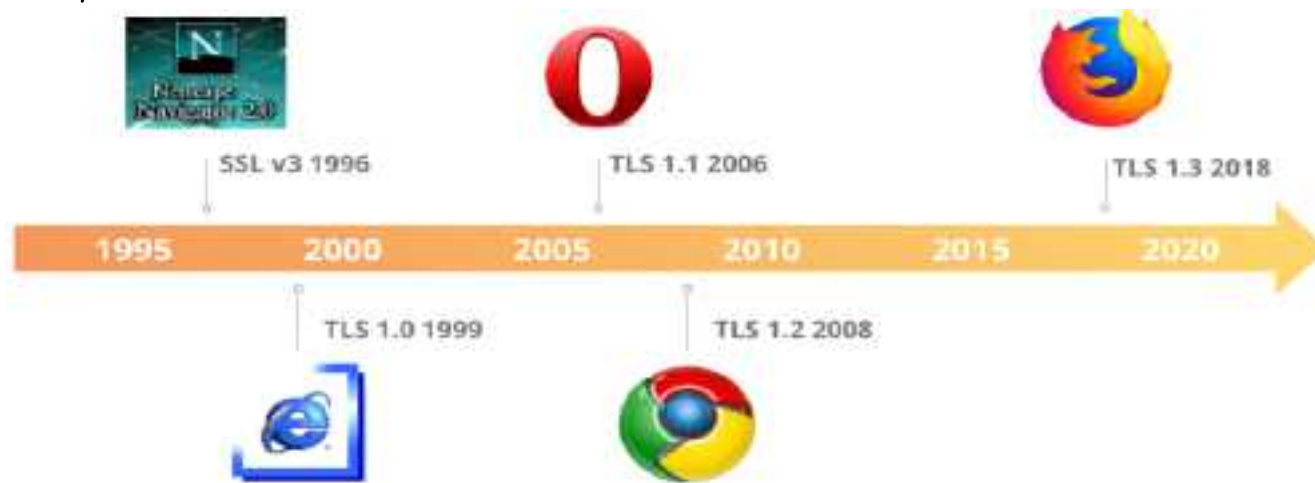
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# Applications of RSA

## ■ SSL/TLS protocol



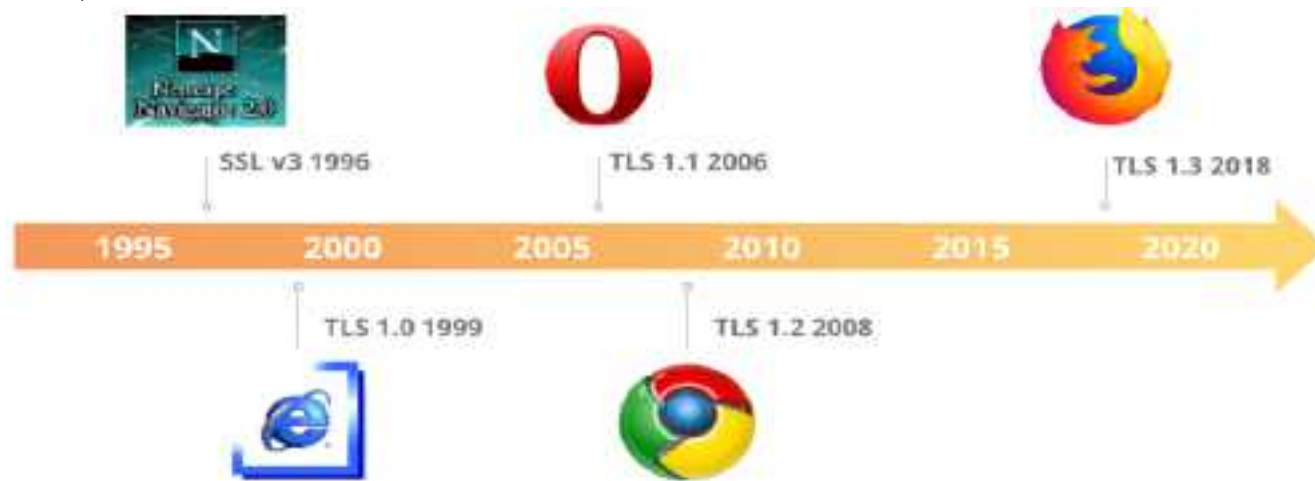
Key exchange/agreement and authentication

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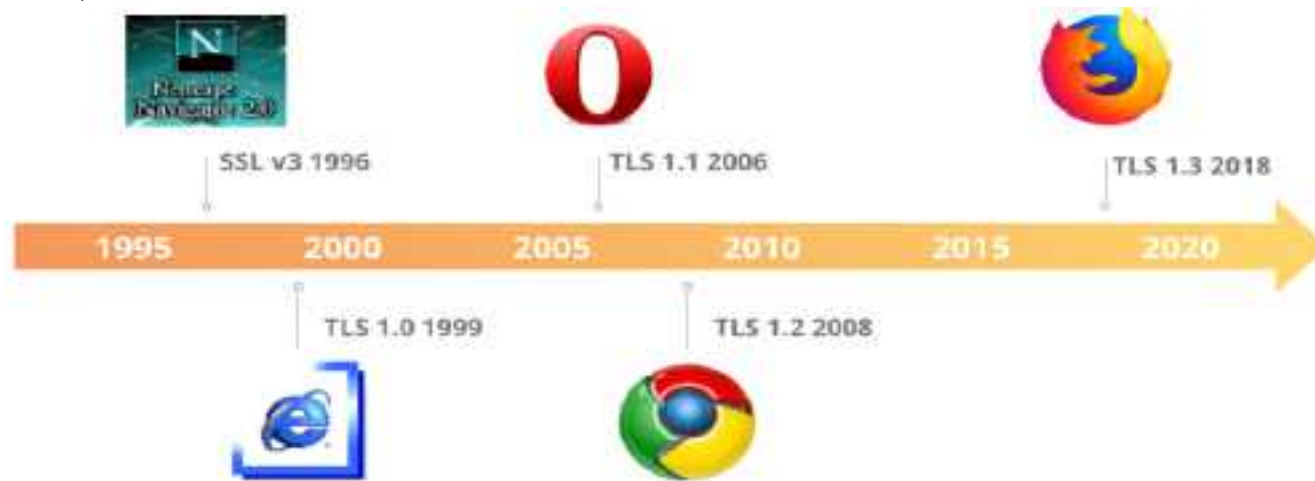
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CS 305 – Computer Networks



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



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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

$$X_A < p$$

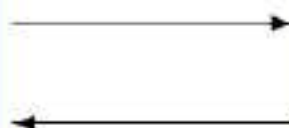
calculate

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

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 ...

