

Introduction to mathematical concepts

Cryptography summer course

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Introduction

Introduction to Cryptography

- Overview:
 - Cryptography is the practice and study of secure communication techniques.
 - It involves encryption, which converts plaintext into ciphertext, and decryption, the reverse process.
- Importance of Mathematics:
 - Mathematics forms the foundation of modern cryptography.
 - Complex mathematical problems are at the core of cryptographic algorithms.
- Secure Communication:
 - Cryptography enables secure communication over insecure channels.
 - Confidentiality, integrity, authentication, and non-repudiation are achieved through cryptographic protocols.

Introduction to Cryptography

- Data Protection:
 - Cryptography safeguards sensitive data from unauthorized access.
 - Applications include protecting passwords, financial information, and personal data.
- Future of Cryptography:
 - As technology evolves, cryptography must adapt to maintain security.
 - Quantum cryptography shows promise in providing unbreakable encryption.

Key concepts of modern cryptographic algorithms

- **Prime Numbers:** Prime numbers are fundamental for cryptography, as security depends on factoring large composites into primes.
- **Modular Arithmetic:** Modular arithmetic simplifies operations in encryption by handling remainders from integer divisions, preventing overflow.
- **One-Way Hash Functions:** One-way hash functions generate fixed-size outputs from any input, easy to compute but hard to reverse.
- **Randomness:** Crucial for strong cryptography, generates unpredictable keys and initialization vectors.

Prime Numbers and Factorization

- Factorization is a fundamental mathematical concept with applications in various fields.
- Expressing a number or mathematical object as a product of smaller, simpler factors of the same kind:
 - Simple Factoring: Finding 2 numbers that multiply to form another number - like $32 = 4 \times 8$.
 - Prime Factorization: Breaking numbers down to their prime components - e.g., $81 = 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3$.
 - Greatest Common Factor (GCF): Simplifying expressions by factoring out the common factor - as in $2x + 10 = 2(x + 5)$.
 - Exercises: Factoring complex expressions like $x^2 - 14x - 32$, $15x^2 - 26x + 11$, or $150x^3 + 350x^2 + 180x + 420$.

- A prime number is a natural number greater than 1 that has no positive divisors other than 1 and itself: {2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, ...}
- Primality Testing
 - Primality testing involves determining whether a given number is prime or composite.
 - Efficient algorithms like Miller-Rabin and AKS have been developed for accurate and low-computational primality testing.
- Prime Generation
 - Prime number generation methods include the Sieve of Eratosthenes for efficient generation up to a limit and randomized approaches like Baillie-PSW for generating random probable primes.
 - These techniques are essential in cryptography for generating secure encryption keys and prime-based algorithms.

Modular Arithmetic & Modular Exponentiation

Modular Arithmetic

- In modular arithmetic, we pick a number n as the 'modulus', and our numbers range from 0 to $n - 1$. Numbers wrap around after reaching n for sensible arithmetic.
- Example: With modulus 5, we work in $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$. We get $2 + 1 = 3$ and $2 + 2 = 4$. However, $2 + 3 = 5$ wraps to 0, and $2 + 4 = 6$ wraps to 1.
- Think of a clock: 1 o'clock to 12 o'clock, then back to 1 o'clock. This is like a modulus of 12, using $\{1, 2, \dots, 12\}$. Yet, $\{0, 1, \dots, 11\}$ is the same, as 0 and 12 wrap around similarly.
- Example: Assume the current time is 2 : 00 p.m. Write this as 14 : 00. Sixty five hours later, it would be 79 : 00. Since $79 = 24 \times 3 + 7$, it will be 7 : 00 or 7 a.m
- As you can see, the modulo n arithmetic maps all integers into the set $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, n-1\}$

Definition: Congruent modulo

Let $n \geq 2$ be a fixed integer. We say the two integers m_1 and m_2 are congruent modulo, denoted

$$m_1 \equiv m_2 \pmod{n}$$

if and only if $n|(m_1 - m_2)$. The integer n is called the modulus of the congruence.

Theorem

Let $n \geq 2$ be a fixed integer. For any two integers m_1 and m_2

$$m_1 \equiv m_2 \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow m_1 \pmod{n} = m_2 \pmod{n}.$$

Corollary

Let $n \geq 2$ be a fixed integer. Then

$$a \equiv 0 \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow n|a.$$

Theorem

Let $n \geq 2$ be a fixed integer. If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$, then

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$$

$$ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$$

Proof: Assume $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$. Then $n|(a - b)$ and $n|(c - d)$. We can write $a - b = ns$, and $c - d = nt$ for some integers s and t . Consequently,

$$(a + c) - (b + d) = (a - b) + (c - d) = ns + nt = n(s + t).$$

where $s + t$ is an integer. This proves that $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$. We also have

$$ac - bd = (b + ns)(d + nt) - bd = bnt + nsd + n^2st = n(bt + sd + nst).$$

where $bt + sd + nst$ is an integer. Thus, $n|(ac - bd)$, which means $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$.

Properties of addition in modular arithmetic:

- If $a + b = c$, then $a \bmod n + b \bmod n \equiv c \bmod n$
- If $a \equiv b \bmod n$, then $a + k \equiv b + k \bmod n$ for any integer k
- If $a \equiv b \bmod n$ and $c \equiv d \bmod n$, then $a + c \equiv b + d \bmod n$
- If $a \equiv b \bmod n$, then $-a \equiv -b \bmod n$

Properties of modular multiplication:

- If $a \cdot b = c$, then $(a \bmod n) \cdot (b \bmod n) \equiv c \bmod n$
- If $a \equiv b \bmod n$, then $k \cdot a \equiv k \cdot b \bmod n$ for any integer k
- If $a \equiv b \bmod n$ and $c \equiv d \bmod n$, then $a \cdot c \equiv b \cdot d \bmod n$

- **Modular exponentiation** is the process of repeatedly squaring and reducing a number modulo some integer, and then combining the results to find the required answer.

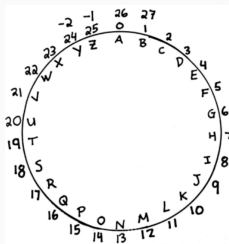
Theorem

If $a \equiv b \pmod n$, then $a^k \equiv b^k \pmod n$ for any positive integer k .

Example

How do Modular Arithmetic and Caesar Ciphers relate?

- Since there are 26 letters in the English alphabet, let's relate the letters a-z by numbers 0-25 as shown by the diagram below.



- Notice going from “a” to “D” was a shift of 3 letters over. Thus we can encrypt the word “pumpkin” by relating “p” with 15 on the wheel, adding 3 to get 18, and then we turn this back into a letter, which gives us “S”. Similarly “u” \rightarrow 20 \rightarrow 23 \rightarrow X.

Example

Greatest Common Divisor and Euclidean Algorithm

Greatest Common Divisor and Euclidean Algorithm

Divisor

A divisor b of an integer a , denoted by $b \mid a$, is an integer satisfying $a = bq$ where q is an integer.

Example: All divisors of 12 are $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \pm 6$, and ± 12 .

Common Divisor

An integer n is a common divisor of a and b iff $n \mid a$ and $n \mid b$.

Example: 3 is a common divisor of 12 and 18.

Greatest Common Divisor

An integer n is the greatest common divisor (GCD) of a and b iff there is no common divisor of a and b larger than n .

Then, n is denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.

Example: $\gcd(12, 18) = 6$.

Theorem (Bézout's Lemma)

Let a and b be integers with the integer $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then, there exists integers x and y such that $ax + by = d$. Moreover, d is a divisor of $ax + by$ for all integers x and y .

Example: $\gcd(12, 18) = 6 = 12 \times (-1) + 18 \times 1$.

Remarks

- The equation $ax + b = 0 \pmod{n}$ has a solution iff $\gcd(a, n) \mid b$. Therefore, if $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, the equation always has a solution.
- If a and n are coprime, i.e. $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, there exists an integer b satisfying $ab = 1 \pmod{n}$. Then, b is called a modular multiplicative inverse of a and denoted by a^{-1} .
- With the prime number p , all integers a satisfying $p \nmid a$ are coprime with p . That means we can design modular operations like addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and exponentiation.
→ The foundation of the cryptographic theory.

Theorem (Euclidean Algorithm)

Let a , b , and k be integers. Then, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a + bk, b)$.

Euclidean Algorithm

Let a and b be positive integers. Find $\gcd(a, b)$?

1. Loop until $b = 0$.

1.1. $r \leftarrow a \bmod b$.

Note: r is an integer satisfying $0 \leq r < b$ and $b \mid (a - r)$.

1.2. $(a, b) \leftarrow (b, r)$.

2. Return a .

Remark: By Euclidean Algorithm, we can find $\gcd(a, b)$, but how can we find integers x and y satisfying $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$?

Theorem (Extended Euclidean Algorithm)

Let $r_1 = ax_1 + by_1$, $r_2 = ax_2 + by_2$, and $r = r_1 + kr_2$. Then, $r = ax + by$ where $x = x_1 + kx_2$ and $y = y_1 + ky_2$.

Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Let a and b be positive integers. Find d , x , and y such that $d = \gcd(a, b) = ax + by$?

1. $(s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2) \leftarrow (1, 0, 0, 1)$.
2. Loop until $b = 0$.
 - 2.1. $r \leftarrow a \bmod b$ and $q \leftarrow (a - r)/b$.
Note: r is an integer satisfying $0 \leq r < b$ and $b \mid (a - r)$.
 - 2.2. $(a, b, s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2) \leftarrow (b, r, s_2, t_2, s_1 - qs_2, t_1 - qt_2)$.
3. Return (a, s_1, t_1) .

Greatest Common Divisor and Euclidean Algorithm

Example (Extended Euclidean Algorithm)

Let $a = 12$ and $b = 18$. Find d , x , and y such that $d = \gcd(x, y) = ax + by$?

The following table shows values of the variables after step 2.1 and before step 2.2:

a	b	s_1	t_1	s_2	t_2	q	r
12	18	1	0	0	1	0	12
18	12	0	1	1	0	1	6
12	6	1	0	-1	1	2	0

Therefore, $d = 6$, $x = -1$, and $y = 1$.

Remarks (Extended Euclidean Algorithm)

- The complexity of the algorithm is $O(\log(\min(a, b)))$. Thus, it is still considered efficient even with big integers.
- Bézout's Lemma shows the existence of modular multiplicative inverses, and Extended Euclidean Algorithm provides a method to find them. That is a crucial theoretical and practical basis to implement cryptosystems. This topic will be revisited in the RSA section.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT): Let n_1, \dots, n_k be positive integers which are pairwise coprime with $N = n_1 \dots n_k$, and a_1, \dots, a_k be integers. Then the following system of equations

$$\begin{cases} x = a_1 \pmod{n_1} \\ \vdots \\ x = a_k \pmod{n_k} \end{cases}$$

has a solution. Moreover, any two solutions x_1 and x_2 are congruent modulo N , i.e. $x_1 = x_2 \pmod{N}$.

Example (CRT)

Consider the following system of equations:

$$\begin{cases} x = 7 \pmod{11} \\ x = 2 \pmod{13} \end{cases}$$

$$\iff \begin{cases} x = 7 - 4 \times 11 \pmod{11} \\ x = 2 - 3 \times 13 \pmod{13} \end{cases}$$

$$\iff \begin{cases} x = -37 \pmod{11} \\ x = -37 \pmod{13} \end{cases}$$

$$\iff x = -37 \pmod{11 \times 13} \iff x = -37 \pmod{143}$$

Therefore, all solutions $x = -37 \pmod{143}$.

Remarks (CRT)

- A solution of the system of equations is $a_1p_1q_1 + \dots a_kp_kq_k$ where $p_i = \frac{N}{n_i}$ and $q_i = p_i^{-1} \pmod{n_i}$. Thus, if all n_i are unchanged, then we can precalculate all p_k and q_k , so as soon as all a_i is determined we can immediately find the solution.
- The performance of the operations can be improved by two ways:
 - Because all n_i are usually much smaller than N , the calculations for each n_i are much simpler and efficient. After that, we can instantly get the final result by precalculated p_i and q_i of CRT.
 - The calculations for each n_i are independent from each other. Therefore, parallel implementation is possible to utilize the full potential of hardware processing.

Applications (CRT)

- Speed up the signing process of certificates and the decryption process of cryptosystems. For example, CRT is applied in the standard implementation of public-key cryptography based on RSA ¹.
- Secret sharing: A secret is only recovered when at least any k people of a group join to decrypt together. For example, each person keep a piece of the secret which is a solution of a congruence equation, and to find the original secret, we need to solve a systems of equations. Therefore, CRT is essential to do that.

¹<https://www.rfc-editor.org/rfc/rfc8017.txt>

Review & Exercises
