

CS 5602 Introduction to Cryptography

Lecture 09

Category Theory

Chinese Remainder Theorem

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Categories

- A category C is a triple $(\text{Obj}, \text{Morph}, \circ)$ where
- Obj are the objects of the category
- Morph are the morphisms between members of Obj
- If $A, B \in \text{Obj}$, $\text{hom}_C(A, B)$, or just $\text{hom}(A, B)$ if the category is clear, denotes the morphisms from A to B
- Some people call members of hom , homomorphisms, but morphisms is a bit more general
- If $f \in \text{hom}(A, B)$, we write $f: A \rightarrow B$
- \circ is an operator called composition

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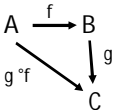
Moving 2/26 Class

- I need to be at a University of Missouri System event on Tuesday 2/26
- Consequently, I will not be here to give the lecture
- Instead I will give that lecture online, Friday 2/22 from 7:30 – 8:45 pm
- The lecture will be recorded and you will be able to access the recording in case you can't connect Friday evening
- More details later this week

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Categories

- A category C is a triple $(\text{Obj}, \text{Morph}, \circ)$ where
- \circ is an operator called composition and it seeks to put together morphisms
- In general if $f \in \text{hom}(A, B)$ and $g \in \text{hom}(B, C)$ then $g \circ f \in \text{hom}(A, C)$
- Note $\text{hom}(A, B)$ can be empty if $A \neq B$
- In general we get the following picture:



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Category Theory

- This is a very abstract theory, sometime referred to as the theory of “abstract nonsense”
- I have found it a useful way to think about entities of all sorts
- Will give a short introduction to the theory and motivate it with examples

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Categories

- Additional requirements
- \circ is associative, i.e., $h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$ where $h \in \text{hom}(C, D)$, $g \in \text{hom}(B, C)$ and $f \in \text{hom}(A, B)$
- For every $A \in \text{Obj}$, there is an *identity morphism* in $\text{hom}(A, A)$, often denoted by 1_A or id_A , that has the following properties
- For all $B \in \text{Obj}$, and $f \in \text{hom}(A, B)$ and $g \in \text{hom}(B, A)$, we have $f = f \circ \text{id}_A$ and $g = \text{id}_A \circ g$

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Diagram Chasing

- Diagrams play a big part in category theory

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Monomorphism

If we have the diagrams below

f is a monomorphism iff
f o g_1 = f o g_2 => g_1 = g_2

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More on Categories

- Sometimes people write fg instead of $f \circ g$ if there is no confusion
- Sometimes they will write $f(g)$ and use functional notation
- I will try to use \circ consistently at the beginning
- It turns out that the ideas that have been presented to you about injective, surjective and bijective can be generalized to categories
- We will often just write morphisms f , g and $g \circ f$ without always stating that $f \in \text{hom}(A, B)$, $g \in \text{hom}(B, C)$ and $g \circ f \in \text{hom}(A, C)$
- You are expected to supply the objects and homs so that everything makes sense
- Categories are all about the morphisms!

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Epimorphism

If we have the diagrams below

f is an epimorphism iff
g_1 o f = g_2 o f => g_1 = g_2

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Types of Morphisms

- An *endomorphism* is any morphism that belongs to $\text{hom}(A, A)$, i.e., it is a morphism from an object to itself
- A *monomorphism* (monic morphism) is a morphism f such that for all morphisms g_1 and g_2 if $f \circ g_1 = f \circ g_2$ then $g_1 = g_2$ (injection)
 - Equivalent to left cancellation
- An *epimorphism* (epic morphism) is a morphism f such that for all morphisms g_1 and g_2 if $g_1 \circ f = g_2 \circ f$ then $g_1 = g_2$ (surjection)
 - Equivalent to right cancellation
- A *bimorphism* is a morphism that is both a monomorphism and an epimorphism (bijection)
- An *automorphism* is a morphism that is both a bimorphism and a endomorphism, i.e., it is a member of $\text{hom}(A, A)$ that is a bimorphism

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Example: The Category of Sets

- What are the objects?
- All sets
- What are the morphisms?
- Functions between sets
- What is \circ ?
- Regular function composition
- Is it a category?
- Yes! Why?

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Sets Form A Category

- Function composition is associative
- There is an identity function for sets
- How about a theorem to prove?
- You might wonder how there is anything to prove since we apparently have not done much

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Theorems 2 and 3

- A function in the category of sets is an epimorphism iff it is surjective
- A function in the category of sets is a bimorphism iff it is bijective
- Proof: These will be on the next homework
- Notice that we have generalized the ideas of injective, surjective and bijective in a very general way that has no mention of elements
- Notice the similarity with groups and cancellation laws

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Theorem 1

- A function (morphism) in the category of sets is a monomorphism iff it is injective
- Proof: We break it into two parts (injective \rightarrow monomorphism) and (monomorphism \rightarrow injective)
- Suppose $f : A \rightarrow B$ is injective and suppose $g_1 : X \rightarrow A$ and $g_2 : X \rightarrow A$ are such that $f \circ g_1 = f \circ g_2$. This means that for all $x \in X$, $f(g_1(x)) = f(g_2(x))$
- Since f is injective, this means that $g_1(x) = g_2(x) \forall x$, so $g_1 = g_2$. Thus, f is a monomorphism
- Suppose that f is a monomorphism, but not injective

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The Category of Graphs

- The objects are graphs
- Graphs are pairs (V, E) where V is a set of vertices and E is a set of one or two element subsets of V called edges
- What would be the morphisms for this category?
- You would start out with functions between sets of vertices, but what would be helpful if you wanted to acknowledge the graph structures?
- Definition: if $G = (V_1, E_1)$ and $H = (V_2, E_2)$ are graphs, $f \in \text{hom}(G,H)$ means that $f: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ such that if $\{a,b\} \in E_1$, then $\{f(a), f(b)\} \in E_2$
- In other words, morphisms in the category of graphs preserve edges

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Theorem 1

- If f is not injective, $\exists x, y \in A$ such that $x \neq y$ and $f(x) = f(y)$
- Let $S = \{1\}$ and let $g_1: S \rightarrow A$ be given by $g_1(1) = x$
- Let $g_2: S \rightarrow A$ be given by $g_2(1) = y$
- Clearly $g_1 \neq g_2$
- Note that $f \circ g_1 = f \circ g_2$ but $g_1 \neq g_2$ which contradicts the assumption that f is a monomorphism

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The Category of Graphs

- Is this a category?
- Function composition is associative
- The identity function on vertices is the identity morphism in the category
- Proving that the identity function is the identity morphism will be a homework exercise

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- It is probably not surprising for you to learn that Directed Graphs are naturally a category
- The morphisms are maps between vertices that preserve arrows
- In other words, if $G = (V_1, A_1)$ and $H = (V_2, A_2)$ are digraphs, $f \in \text{hom}(G, H)$ means that $f: V_1 \rightarrow V_2$ such that if $(a, b) \in A_1$, then $(f(a), f(b)) \in A_2$
- Can we say that the Category of Graphs is somehow related to the Category of Digraphs?
- Hold onto that thought for a bit, while we ponder other categories or non-categories

Learn You a Haskell for Great Good!

A Beginner's Guide

Miran Lipowski

Hey yo! This is **Learn You a Haskell**, the funkoest way to learn Haskell, which is the best functional programming language around. You may have heard of it. This guide is meant for people who have programmed before, but have yet to try functional programming.

The whole thing is completely free to read online, but it's also available in print and I encourage you to buy as many copies as you can afford!

To contact me, shoot me an email by: [bonus at learnyouahaskell dot com](mailto:bonus@learnyouahaskell.com)! You can also find me idling on #haskell where I go by the name BONES.

<http://learnyouahaskell.com/>

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Get questions? READ THE FAQ

- The category of relations, $R_1(A)$, on a set A . $\text{hom}(R_1, R_2) = \{f : A \rightarrow A \mid aR_1b \rightarrow f(a)R_2(f(b))\}$
- The category of relations, $R_2(A)$, on a set A . $\text{hom}(R_1, R_2) = \{f : A \rightarrow A \mid aR_1b \text{ iff } f(a)R_2(f(b))\}$
- The preceding two categories are different
- It's all about the morphisms!
- Example, let $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$, $R_1 = \{(1, 3), (2, 3)\}$, $R_2 = \{(1, 1)\}$ and $f: A \rightarrow A$ be given by $f(1) = f(2) = f(3) = 1$. Note that $f \in \text{hom}_{R_1}(R_1, R_2)$, but $f \notin \text{hom}_{R_2}(R_1, R_2)$ because $f(1)R_2(f(2))$ but it is false that $1R_12$.

- Suppose in $R_2(A)$, $\text{hom}(R_1, R_2) \neq \emptyset$ and R_2 is an equivalence relation then R_1 is an equivalence relation
- Proof:
- Let $a \in A$. Since R_2 is an equivalence relation, $f(a)R_2f(a)$, so by the definition of $R_2(A)$, we see that aR_1a . Thus, R_1 is reflexive.
- Let $a, b \in A$ and suppose aR_1b . We know that $f(a)R_2f(b)$, but since R_2 is an equivalence relation, $f(b)R_2f(a)$ and therefore bR_2a . Thus, R_1 is symmetric.
- Let $a, b, c \in A$ and suppose aR_1b and bR_1c . It follows that $f(a)R_2f(b)$ and $f(b)R_2f(c)$. Since R_2 is an equivalence relation, $f(a)R_2f(c)$, whence aR_1c . thus, R_1 is transitive. We now see that R_1 is an equivalence relation

- The category of partially ordered sets with the morphisms being order preserving maps between them: $a \leq b \rightarrow f(a) \leq f(b)$
- Many other mathematical objects form categories!
- Groups, rings, fields, vector spaces, etc....
- The programming language Haskell borrows many ideas from Category Theory
- The chief category in Haskell is called `Hask`
- The objects of `Hask` are Haskell types and morphisms are Haskell functions – not enough time to present this further

- Before we noticed that we had two similar categories, Graphs and Digraphs
- It would be nice to have some notion of when categories are related
- This is the idea of a *functor*
- Let A and B be categories, $F: A \rightarrow B$ is called a functor if for each object X in A , $F(X)$ is an object in B
- For each morphism $f \in \text{hom}(X, Y)$, $F(f) \in \text{hom}(F(X), F(Y))$ such that
 - $F(\text{id}_X) = \text{id}_{F(X)}$ and
 - $F(g \circ f) = F(g) \circ F(f)$

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Functor from Graphs to Digraphs

- For each $G = (V, E)$ associate the digraph $D = (V, A)$ where $(a,b) \in A$ iff $\{a, b\} \in E$
- Note that this adds two arrows for each edge in G except for self-loops in G which give rise to just a self-loop in D
- You would have to show that the identity morphisms are preserved and composition is preserved, but this is pretty straightforward

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More Functors

- Let \mathbf{Group} be the category of groups where $\text{Hom}(G_1, G_2)$ consists of all group homomorphisms from $G_1 \rightarrow G_2$
- Note that $\text{Hom}(G_1, G_2) \neq \emptyset$ because you always have the trivial homomorphism where $f(g) = 1 \forall g \in G_1$
- Let \mathbf{Ring} be the category of rings with morphisms being ring homomorphisms
- Let \mathbf{Field} be the category of fields with morphisms being field homomorphisms
- We have all sorts of functors available, for example $\mathbf{RG}: \mathbf{Ring} \rightarrow \mathbf{Group}$ where $\mathbf{RG}(R)$ is the $(R, +)$ group
- Consider $\mathbf{FG}: \mathbf{Field} \rightarrow \mathbf{Group}$ where $\mathbf{FG}(F) = (F - \{0\}, *)$
- etc.

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Functor from Digraphs to Graphs

- For each digraph $D = (V, A)$ define a graph $G = (V, E)$ where $\{a,b\} \in E$ iff either $(a,b) \in A$ or $(b,a) \in A$
- Note that this basically takes the direction off the arrows
- If you have arrows (a,b) and (b,a) you still only get one edge $\{a, b\}$

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Applications to Computer Science

- Very important in understanding the semantics of programming languages
- People are very concerned about scaling up programs without errors
- Imperative languages have side-effects which lead to bugs and security holes
- Functional programming languages seek to secure as much of the code as possible
- Much of this work is very abstract and mathematical
- A key feature of the Haskell Programming Language

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Functor from Graphs to Digraphs

- What might this look like?
- I will ask you this question on the next homework

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Category Theory for Computing Science

Michael Barr
Charles Wells

<http://www.math.mcgill.ca/triples/Barr-Wells.ctcs.pdf>

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Category Theory

A Gentle Introduction

A Gentle Introduction to Category Theory

— the calculational approach —

Peter Smith

University of Cambridge

<http://www.logicmatters.net/resources/pdfs/GentleIntro>

Maarten M. Fokkinga

<https://ris.utwente.nl/ws/portafiles/porta/6141835>

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Equations

- $7x = 3 \pmod{143}$ has the unique solution $x = 123$
- Where did that come from?
- $2x = 3 \pmod{8}$ has no solution because $2x$ is always even and can never have a remainder of 3 mod 8
- $11x = 22 \pmod{143}$ has the following 11 solutions: 2, 15, 28, 41, 54, 67, 80, 93, 106, 119, and 132 (do you see a pattern?)
- Let's approach this systematically

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Studying \mathbb{Z}_n

- You have already gotten the notion that integers modulo n will be very important in cryptography
- We will now begin a deeper look at \mathbb{Z}_n and its very interesting properties
- We know that \mathbb{Z}_n is an additive abelian group, but $\mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$ is only a multiplicative group if n is a prime
- We know that the elements $q \in \mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$ that are relatively prime to n form an abelian, multiplicative group and that this is the largest subset of $\mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$ that is a multiplicative subgroup
- If p and q are integers such that $\text{GCD}(p,q) = 1$ we say that p and q are coprime or relatively prime

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Solving $ax = b \pmod{n}$

- Note that if $ax = b \pmod{n}$ this means that $\exists c$ such that $ax + cn = b$
- Note that if $g = \text{GCD}(a,n)$, then $(ax + cn) \% g = 0$
- In particular, there is no solution if $b \% g \neq 0$
- Recall the equations
- $7x = 3 \pmod{143}$, $\text{GCD}(7,143) = 1$ and $3 \% 1 = 0$
- $2x = 3 \pmod{8}$, $\text{GCD}(2,8) = 2$ and $3 \% 2 \neq 0$
- $11x = 22 \pmod{143}$, $\text{GCD}(11,143) = 11$ and $22 \% 11 = 0$
- Is $b \% g = 0$ sufficient for there to be a solution of $ax = b \pmod{n}$?

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Equations mod n

- Suppose we have equations of the form $a * x = b \pmod{n}$
- Here are some questions
- Can we always find at least one solution for the above equation?
- Can there be more than one solution for such an equation?
- If there can be more than one solution, how many solutions can there be?
- Try some equations
- $7x = 3 \pmod{143}$
- $2x = 3 \pmod{8}$
- $11x = 22 \pmod{143}$

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Solving $ax = b \pmod{n}$

- Suppose $b \% g = 0$, then $b = k * g$
- Note that from the extended GCD algorithm, $\exists s$ and t such that $g = s * a + t * n$, which means that $k * s * a + k * t * n = k * g \pmod{n}$ which means that $k * s * a = b \pmod{n}$
- Applying this to the equation $7x = 3 \pmod{143}$ we see that $\text{GCD}(7,143) = 1$, $7 * 41 - 2 * 143 = 287 - 286 = 1$
- Thus, the solution is $3 * 41 = 123$ and indeed $123 * 7 = 3 + 6 * 143$
- Similarly, for $11x = 22 \pmod{143}$ we see that $1 * 11 + 0 * 143 = 11$, and since $22 / 11 = 2$, we see that $x = 2$ is a solution of this equation

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Multiple Solutions of $ax = b \pmod n$

- Suppose $ax = b \pmod n$ and $ay = b \pmod n$, where x and y are $< n$
- Then $a(x-y) = 0 \pmod n$
- So $a(x-y) = kn$ for some k
- We know that $g = \text{GCD}(a,n)$ so $a = pg$ and $n = qg$ where $\text{GCD}(p,q) = 1$
- Write $pg(x-y) = kqg$ so $p(x-y) = kq$, since p and q are coprime, $(x-y) = dq$ and $k = dp$
- Thus we see that $x = y + dq$ for some d
- If $\text{GCD}(a,n) = 1$, $n = q$ and $(x-y) = 0 \pmod n$, i.e, the solution is unique

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The Chinese Remainder Theorem – Wikipedia (edited)

- The Chinese remainder theorem is a theorem of number theory, which states that if one knows the remainders of the division of an integer n by several integers, then one can determine uniquely the remainder of the division of n by the product of these integers, under the condition that the divisors are pairwise coprime.
- The earliest known statement of the theorem is by the Chinese mathematician Sunzi in the 3rd century AD (not quite 2000 years).
- The Chinese remainder theorem is widely used for computing with large integers, as it allows replacing a computation for which one knows a bound on the size of the result by several similar computations on small integers.
- The Chinese remainder theorem (expressed in terms of congruences) is true over every principal ideal domain. It has been generalized to any commutative ring, with a formulation involving ideals.

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Multiple Solutions of $ax = b \pmod n$

- If $\text{GCD}(a,n)$, given a solution y we can see that $y + q$ will be another solution
- You can generate all solutions by starting at any solution and adding $q = n/g$ repeatedly
- For $11x = 22$, we could start with the solution 2 and repeatedly add $143/11 = 13$ to get other solutions
- You can start at any solution and derive all the other solutions by adding n/g repeatedly
- You don't have to start with the smallest root since the repeated additions will just wrap around
- Note that the solutions form a subset of \mathbb{Z}_n that is closed under addition and subtraction, but it need not be a subgroup, since 0 might not be in it

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The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- The original statement was (Wikipedia)
- *There are certain things whose number is unknown. If we count them by threes, we have two left over; by fives, we have three left over; and by sevens, two are left over. How many things are there? (Sunzi, 3rd Century AD)*
- $x = 2 \pmod 3$, $x = 3 \pmod 5$, and $x = 2 \pmod 7$
- $x = 128$
- The first complete solution was published by a Chinese mathematician in 1247

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Systems of Linear Equations

- Consider the system of linear equations
 1. $x = b_1 \pmod{n_1}$
 2. $x = b_2 \pmod{n_2}$
 3. $x = b_3 \pmod{n_3}$
 4. ...
 5. $x = b_k \pmod{n_k}$
- Note that the coefficients are all 1 so we know each equation has a unique solution ($\text{GCD}(1,k) = 1 \forall k$)
- When can we find a solution to the entire system of equations
- This leads us to the Chinese Remainder Theorem

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The Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT)

- Theorem (CRT): Let s and t be coprimes, then the map $f : \mathbb{Z}_s \times \mathbb{Z}_t \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_s \times \mathbb{Z}_t$ given by $f(m) = (m \% s, m \% t)$ is a bijection.
- Proof: We first prove that f is an injection. Suppose $f(m) = f(n)$ for two distinct integers.
- This means that $m \% s = n \% s$ and $m \% t = n \% t$
- This means that $(m-n) = 0 \pmod s$ and $(m-n) = 0 \pmod t$
- This means that $(m-n)$ is divisible by s and by t
- Since s and t are coprime, $(m-n)$ is divisible by $s * t$, so $m = n \pmod{s * t}$
- Thus, f is an injection
- Note that $|\mathbb{Z}_{s * t}| = s * t = |\mathbb{Z}_s| * |\mathbb{Z}_t| = |\mathbb{Z}_s \times \mathbb{Z}_t|$ so f must be a bijection.

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Remarks on the CRT

- Note that the proof we gave was non-constructive in the sense that we know there is a unique solution for each set of equations, but we do not know how to find the solution for each set of equations
- We know that if $\text{GCD}(s,t) = 1$, then $\exists a, b$ such that $a*s + b*t = 1$
- Note that $1 = 1\%s = (a*s + b*t)\%s = (b*t)\%s$ and $1 = (a*s)\%t$
- Suppose we want to solve $x\%s = m$ and $x\%t = n$
- Consider the value $x = n*a*s + m*b*t$
- $x\%s = (n*a*s + m*b*t)\%s = (m*b*t)\%s = (m\%s)*(b*t)\%s = m\%s = m$
- Similarly, $x\%t = n\%t = n$

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Remarks on the CRT

- Note that this result is generally not true if $\text{GCD}(s,t) \neq 1$
- For example, let $s = 4$ and $t = 6$ then $(1\%4, 1\%6) = (13\%4, 13\%6)$ and in general $(x\%4, x\%6) = ((x+12)\%4, (x+12)\%6)$
- In general, we want $\text{LCM}(s,t) = s*t$ which happens iff s and t are coprime
- Note $\text{LCM}(s,t) = s*t/\text{GCD}(s,t)$

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