

## Chapter 4.

# ***Number Theory and Cryptography***

## **Part I: The Integers and Division**



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- Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic
- Integer Representations and Algorithms

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## 4.1 Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic

# Introduction

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- Of course you already know what the integers are, and what division is...
- **But:** There are some specific notations, terminology, and theorems associated with these concepts which you *may not* know.
- These form the basics of *number theory*.
  - Vital in many important algorithms today (hash functions, cryptography, digital signatures).

# Division; Factor and Multiple

- Let  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$  with  $a \neq 0$ .
- $a \mid b \equiv$  “ $a$  divides  $b$ ”  $:=$  “ $\exists c \in \mathbf{Z}: b = ac$ ”  
“There is an integer  $c$  such that  $c$  times  $a$  equals  $b$ .”
- Otherwise  $a \nmid b$ 
  - Example:  $3 \mid 12 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{True}$ , but  $3 \nmid 7 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{False}$ .  $3 \nmid 7$
- If  $a$  divides  $b$ , then we say  $a$  is a *factor* or a *divisor* of  $b$ , and  $b$  is a *multiple* of  $a$ .
- “ $b$  is even”  $:= 2 \mid b$ .

# Division : Properties of Divisibility

- $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

1.  $a|0$

$(2|0, 3|0, \dots)$

2.  $(a|b \wedge a|c) \rightarrow a|(b+c)$

$(2|4 \wedge 2|6 \rightarrow 2|10)$

3.  $a|b \rightarrow a|bc$

$(2|4 \rightarrow 2|4 \cdot 3)$

4.  $(a|b \wedge b|c) \rightarrow a|c$

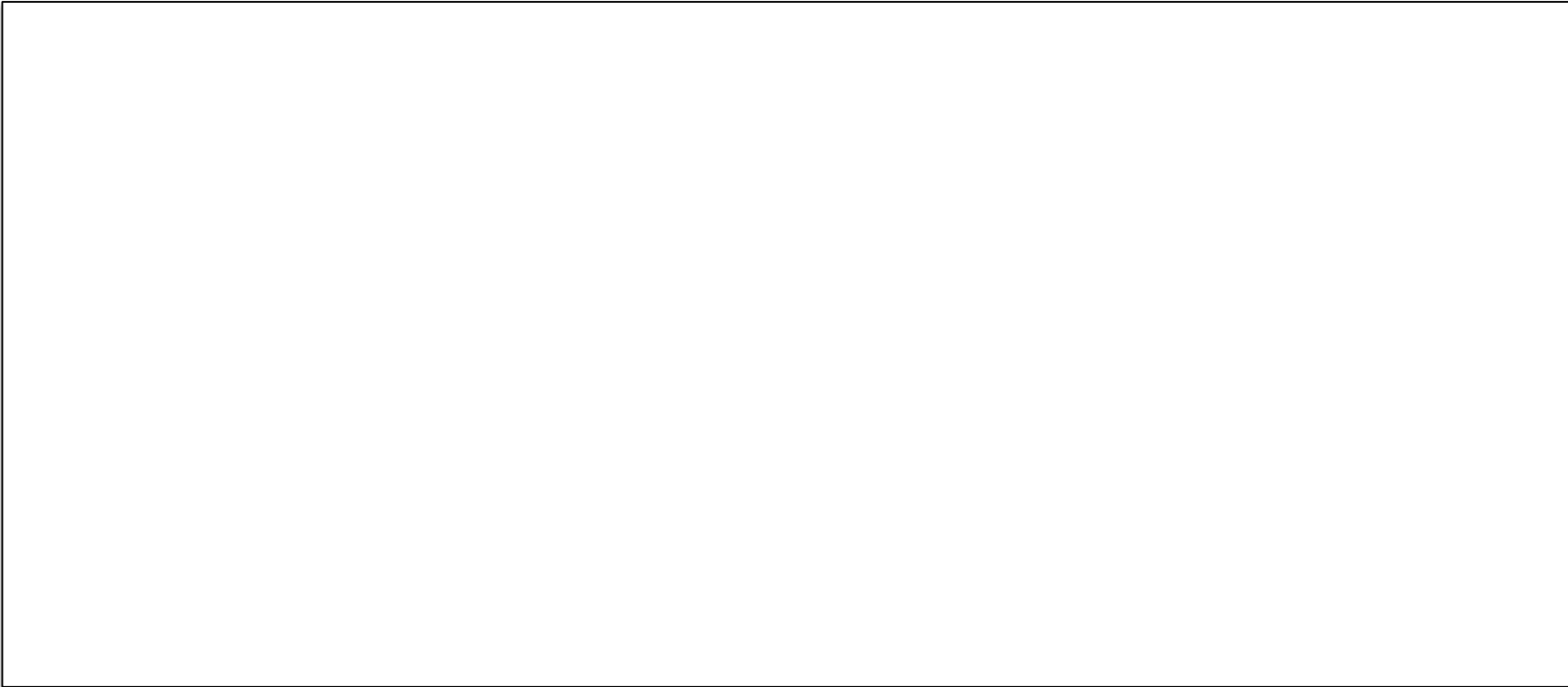
$(2|4 \wedge 4|8 \rightarrow 2|8)$

- **Proof** of (2) : next page

# Cont.

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- Show  $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbf{Z}: (a \mid b \wedge a \mid c) \rightarrow a \mid (b + c)$ .



# Division “Algorithm”

※ Really just a *theorem*,  
not an algorithm...

- $\forall a, d \in \mathbf{Z}, d > 0: \exists! q, r \in \mathbf{Z}: 0 \leq r < |d|, a = dq + r.$  ( $\exists!$  means “unique”)
- Let  $a$  be an integer and  $d$  a positive integer
- Then there are unique integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that  $a = dq + r$  where  $0 \leq r < d$ 
  - $d$  is the divisor (“제수”)
  - $a$  is the dividend (“피제수”)
  - $q$  is the quotient (“몫”)
  - $r$  is the remainder (“나머지”)

- $q = a \text{ div } d$
- $r = a \text{ mod } d$

– We can find  $q$  and  $r$  by:  $q = \lfloor a/d \rfloor, r = a - qd.$   
(e.g., if  $a = 14$  and  $d = 3$ , then  $q = \lfloor 14/3 \rfloor = 4$  and  $r = 14 - 3 \cdot 4 = 2.$

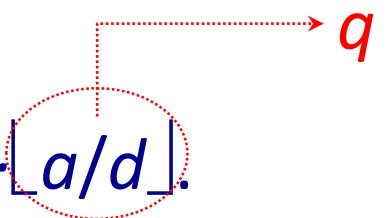


# Question

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- In C programming, how to implement the following condition ?
  - Write a C program that reads **an integer N** and do the following:
    - If N is positive, print “positive integer”
    - If N is positive and **even**, print “even integer”
    - Otherwise “integer”

# Modular Arithmetic : **mod** Operator

- An integer “division remainder” operator.
- Let  $a, d \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $d > 1$ , then
  - $a \bmod d$  denotes the remainder  $r$ , i.e., the remainder when  $a$  is divided by  $d$ .
    - $r = a \bmod d$
- We can compute  $(a \bmod d)$  by:  $a - d \cdot \lfloor a/d \rfloor$ .
- In C programming language, “%” = mod.

# Modular Arithmetic: Congruence Relation $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

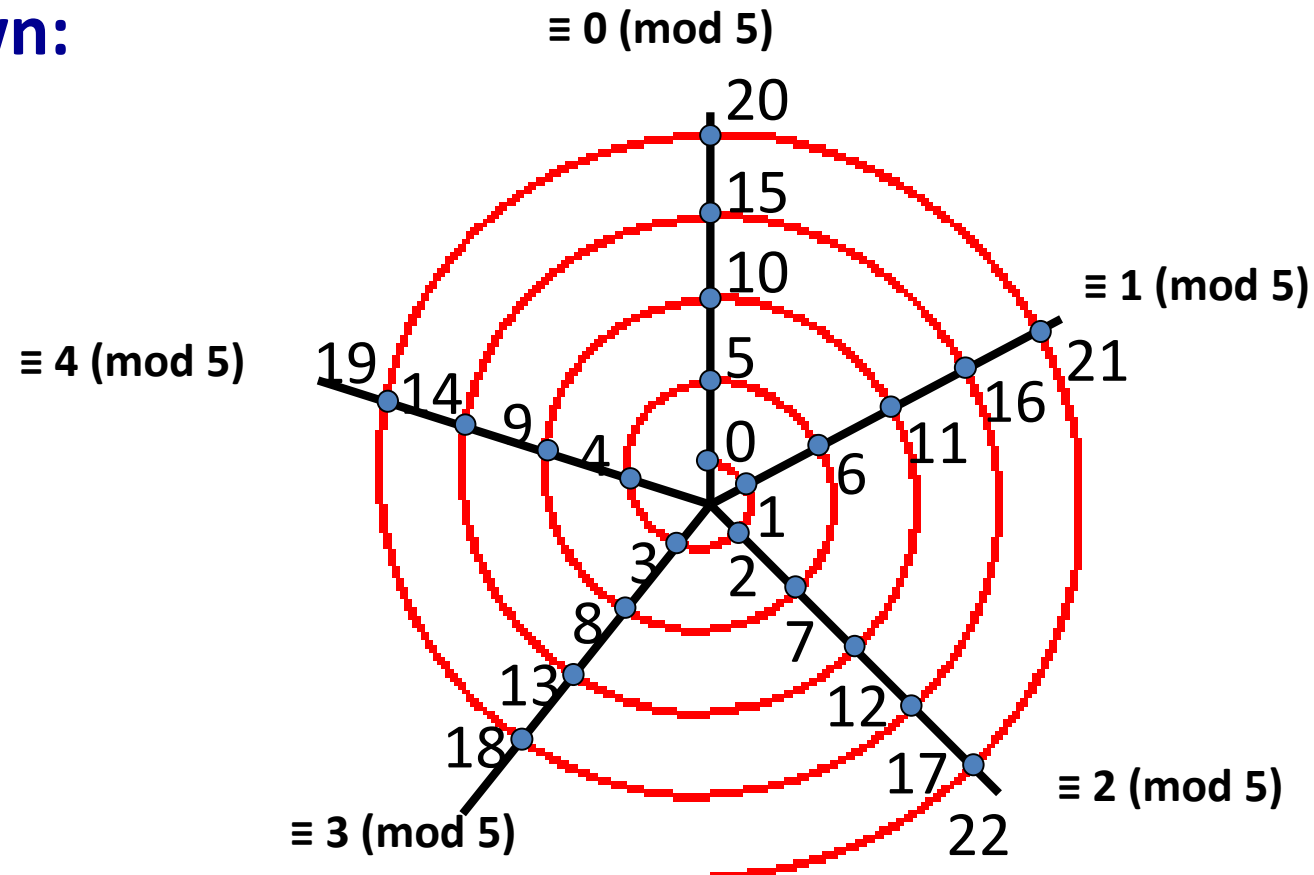
- Let  $\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{n \in \mathbf{Z} \mid n > 0\}$ , the positive integers. Let  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$ ,  $m \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ .

## DEFINITION:

- $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ 
  - $a$  is congruent to  $b$  modulo  $m$  iff  $m \mid a - b$ .
- Also equivalent to:  $(a - b) \bmod m = 0$ .
- Example
  - $17 \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$
  - $24 \not\equiv 14 \pmod{6}$
- Example problem :
  - What time it will be (on a 24-hour clock) 50 hours from now ?

# Spiral Visualization of **mod**

- Example shown:  
modulo-5  
arithmetic



# Modular Arithmetic – Useful Theorems

- (Theorem 4) Let  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$ ,  $m \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . Then:  
$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbf{Z} \ a = b + km.$$
- (Theorem 5) Let  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbf{Z}$ ,  $m \in \mathbf{Z}^+$ . If  
 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ , then:  
$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}, \text{ and}$$
$$ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$$

# Applications of Modular Arithmetic (참조만)

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- The **mod** operator is widely used in *hash functions*.
  - $h(key) = key \bmod m$
- *Linear congruential methods* is used to generate *pseudo random numbers*.
  - $x[n+1] = (a \cdot x[n] + c) \bmod m$
- Also, in cryptography, encryption, ...

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## 4.2 Integer Representations and Algorithms

# Representations of Integers

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- In the modern world, we use *decimal*, or *base 10 notation* to represent integers. For example when we write 965, we mean  $9 \cdot 10^2 + 6 \cdot 10^1 + 5 \cdot 10^0$ .
- We can represent numbers using any base  $b$ , where  $b$  is a positive integer greater than 1.



# Representations of Integers

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- Base- $b$  representations of integers.
  - Especially: **binary (b=2)**, **hexadecimal (b=16)** , **octal (b=8)**.
  - Also, two's complement representation
- Algorithms for computer arithmetic:
  - Binary addition, multiplication, division.
- Euclidean algorithm for finding GCD's.

# Base-b Representations of Integers

- If  $b$  is a positive integer greater than 1, then a given positive integer  $n$  can be uniquely represented as follows:

$$n = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 b^1 + a_0 b^0$$

where

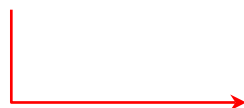
- $k$  is a natural number.
  - and  $a_0, a_1, \dots$ , and  $a_k$  are a natural number less than  $b$ .
  - $a_k \neq 0$ .
- Example:
    - $165 = 1 \cdot 10^2 + 6 \cdot 10^1 + 5 \cdot 10^0 = (165)_{10}$
    - $165 = 2 \cdot 8^2 + 4 \cdot 8^1 + 5 \cdot 8^0 = (245)_8$

# Base-b Number Systems

- Ordinarily we write *base*-10 representations of numbers (using digits 0-9).
- However, 10 **isn't** special; any base  $b > 1$  will work.
- For any positive integers  $n, b$ , there is a unique sequence

$a_k a_{k-1} \dots a_1 a_0$  of digits  $a_i < b$  such that





The "*base  $b$  expansion of  $n$* "

# Particular Bases of Interest

- Base  $b=10$  (decimal):

10 digits: 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9.

Used only because we have 10 fingers

- Base  $b=2$  (binary):

2 digits: 0,1. (“Bits”=“binary digits.”)

Used internally in all modern computers

- Base  $b=8$  (octal):

8 digits: 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7.

Octal digits correspond to groups of 3 bits

- Base  $b=16$  (hexadecimal):

16 digits: 0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,A,B,C,D,E,F

Hex digits give groups of 4 bits

# Binary Expansions

- Most computers represent integers and do arithmetic with binary (base 2) expansions of integers. In these expansions, the only digits used are 0 and 1.
- **Example:** What is the decimal expansion of the integer that has  $(1\ 0101\ 1111)_2$  as its binary expansion?
  - **Solution:**
  - $(1\ 0101\ 1111)_2 = 1 \cdot 2^8 + 0 \cdot 2^7 + 1 \cdot 2^6 + 0 \cdot 2^5 + 1 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 351.$
- **Example:** What is the decimal expansion of the integer that has  $(11011)_2$  as its binary expansion?
  - **Solution:**
  - $(11011)_2 = 1 \cdot 2^4 + 1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0 = 27.$

# Converting to Base $b$ (1/2)

- Informal Algorithm (the base  $b$  expansion of an integer  $n$ )
  - To convert any integer  $n$  to any base  $b$  ( $b > 1$ ):
  - To find the value of the *rightmost* (lowest-order) digit, simply compute  $n \bmod b$ .
  - Now replace  $n$  with the quotient  $\lfloor n/b \rfloor$ .
  - Repeat above two steps to find subsequent digits, until  $n$  is gone ( $=0$ ).

- $(177130)_{10} = (?)_{16}$ 
  - $177130 = 16 \cdot 11070 + \mathbf{10}$
  - $11070 = 16 \cdot 691 + \mathbf{14}$
  - $691 = 16 \cdot 43 + \mathbf{3}$
  - $43 = 16 \cdot 2 + \mathbf{11}$
  - $2 = 16 \cdot 0 + \mathbf{2}$
  - $\rightarrow (177130)_{10} = (2B3EA)_{16}$

- $(241)_{10} = (?)_2$ 
  - $241 = 2 \cdot 120 + \mathbf{1}, \quad 120 = 2 \cdot 60 + \mathbf{0}$
  - $60 = 2 \cdot 30 + \mathbf{0}, \quad 30 = 2 \cdot 15 + \mathbf{0}$
  - $15 = 2 \cdot 7 + \mathbf{1}, \quad 7 = 2 \cdot 3 + \mathbf{1}$
  - $3 = 2 \cdot 1 + \mathbf{1}, \quad 1 = 2 \cdot 0 + \mathbf{1}$
  - $\rightarrow (241)_{10} = (11110001)_2$

# Converting to Base $b$ (2/2)

- Formal Algorithm

```
procedure base b expansion ( $n$ : positive integer)
     $q := n$ 
     $k := 0$ 
    while  $q \neq 0$ 
    begin
         $a_k := q \bmod b$     {remainder}
         $q := \lfloor q/b \rfloor$     {quotient}
         $k := k + 1$ 
    end {the base  $b$  expansion of  $n$  is  $(a_k a_{k-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_b$ }
```

- $q$  represents the quotient obtained by successive divisions by  $b$ , starting with  $q = n$ .
- The digits in the base  $b$  expansion are the remainders of the division given by  $q \bmod b$ .
- The algorithm terminates when  $q = 0$  is reached.

# Exercise

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- **Example:** Find the octal expansion of  $(12345)_{10}$

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# Conversion Between Binary, Octal, and Hexadecimal Expansions

- **Example:** Find the octal and hexadecimal expansions of  $(11\ 1110\ 1011\ 1100)_2$ .
- **Solution:**
  - To convert to octal, we group the digits into blocks of three  $(011\ 111\ 010\ 111\ 100)_2$ , adding initial 0s as needed. The blocks from left to right correspond to the digits 3, 7, 2, 7, and 4. Hence, the solution is  $(37274)_8$ .
  - To convert to hexadecimal, we group the digits into blocks of four  $(0011\ 1110\ 1011\ 1100)_2$ , adding initial 0s as needed. The blocks from left to right correspond to the digits 3, E, B, and C. Hence, the solution is  $(3EBC)_{16}$ .

# Cont.

**TABLE 1** Hexadecimal, Octal, and Binary Representation of the Integers 0 through 15.

Decimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Hexadecimal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F
Octal	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Binary	0	1	10	11	100	101	110	111	1000	1001	1010	1011	1100	1101	1110	1111

- Each octal digit corresponds to a block of 3 binary digits.
- Each hexadecimal digit corresponds to a block of 4 binary digits.
- So, conversion between binary, octal, and hexadecimal is easy.

# Binary to Octal or Hexadecimal

- Binary to Octal

Binary: 11100101 = 011 100 101

Binary:	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
Octal:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Binary = 011 100 101

Octal = 3 4 5

- Binary to Hexadecimal

Binary: 11100101 = 1110 0101

Binary:	0000	0001	0010	0011	0100	0101	0110	0111
Hexadecimal:	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Binary:	1000	1001	1010	1011	1100	1101	1110	1111
Hexadecimal:	8	9	A	B	C	D	E	F

Binary = 1110 0101

Hexadecimal = E 5

# Addition of Binary Numbers

- Intuition (let  $a = (a_{n-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_2$ ,  $b = (b_{n-1} \dots b_1 b_0)_2$ )

$$\begin{array}{rcccccc}
 & c_{n-1} & c_{n-2} & \dots & c_1 & c_0 & \\
 a & = & a_{n-1} & a_{n-2} & \dots & a_2 & a_1 & a_0 \\
 b & = & b_{n-1} & b_{n-2} & \dots & b_2 & b_1 & b_0 \\
 \hline
 a+b & = & s_n & s_{n-1} & s_{n-2} & \dots & s_2 & s_1 & s_0
 \end{array}$$

$\bullet \longrightarrow c_i = \lfloor (a_{i-1} + b_{i-1} + c_{i-1}) / 2 \rfloor$   
 $\bullet \longrightarrow s_i = (a_i + b_i + c_i) \% 2$

- Algorithm

```

procedure add( $a_{n-1} \dots a_0$ ,  $b_{n-1} \dots b_0$ : binary expressions of  $a, b$ )
   $c := 0$                                 {c mean a carry}
  for  $i := 0$  to  $n-1$                     {i means a bit index}
  begin
     $sum := a_i + b_i + c$                 {2-bit sum}
     $s_i := sum \bmod 2$                     {low bit of sum}
     $c := \lfloor sum / 2 \rfloor$               {high bit of sum}
  end
   $s_n := c$ 
  {the binary expression of the sum is  $(s_n s_{n-1} \dots s_1 s_0)_2$ }
  
```

$O(n)$

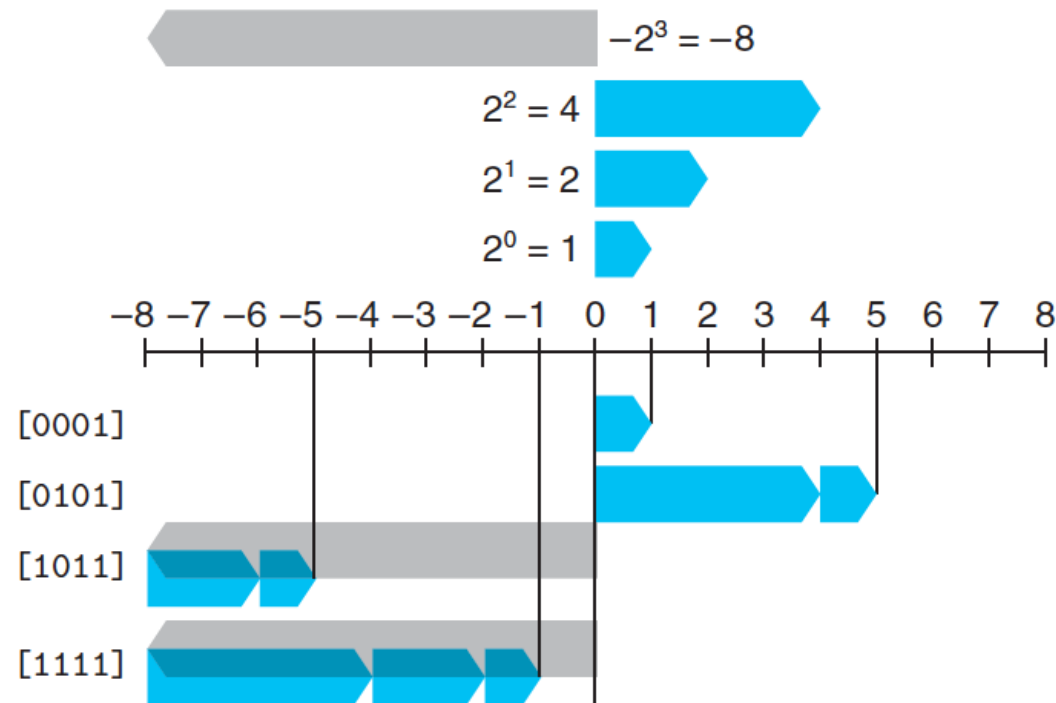
- 
- $n = a_k 2^k + a_{k-1} 2^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 2^1 + a_0 2^0$
  - $n_1 := a_k = 1, a_{k-1} = a_{k-2} \dots = a_1 = 0$   
vs.
  - $n_2 := a_k = 0, a_{k-1} = a_{k-2} \dots = a_1 = 1$

# Unsigned vs. Signed numbers

- Two's-Complement Encodings

$$B2T_w(\vec{x}) \doteq -x_{w-1}2^{w-1} + \sum_{i=0}^{w-2} x_i 2^i$$

$B2T_4([0001])$	$= -0 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0$	$= 0 + 0 + 0 + 1$	$= 1$
$B2T_4([0101])$	$= -0 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0$	$= 0 + 4 + 0 + 1$	$= 5$
$B2T_4([1011])$	$= -1 \cdot 2^3 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0$	$= -8 + 0 + 2 + 1$	$= -5$
$B2T_4([1111])$	$= -1 \cdot 2^3 + 1 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^0$	$= -8 + 4 + 2 + 1$	$= -1$



# 2's Complement (1/2)

- In binary, negative numbers can be conveniently represented using *2's complement notation*.
- In this scheme, a string of  $n$  bits can represent integers  $-2^{n-1} \sim (2^{n-1}-1)$ .
  - Unsigned integer ...  $0 \sim 2^n-1$  (e.g., unsigned int  $n$ )
  - Integer ...  $-2^{n-1} \sim 2^{n-1}-1$  (e.g., int  $n$ )
- The bit in the highest-order bit-position ( $n-1$ ) (leftmost bit) represents a coefficient multiplying  $-2^{n-1}$ ;
  - The other positions  $i < n-1$  just represent  $2^i$ , as before.

# 2's Complement (2/2)

- The negation of any  $n$ -bit 2's complement number  $a(= a_{n-1}...a_0)$  is given by  $\overline{a_{n-1}...a_0} + 1$ .



Bitwise logical complement of  $a$

- Examples
  - $1011 = -(0100 + 1) = -(0101) = -(5)_{10}$
  - $0100 = +0100 = (4)_{10}$



# Subtraction of Binary Numbers

- **Theorem:** For an integer  $a$  represented in 2's complement notation,  $-a = \bar{a} + 1$ .


**Proof:** Just try it by yourself!

- **Algorithm**

```
procedure subtract ( $a_{n-1}...a_0, b_{n-1}...b_0$ :  
    binary 2's complement expressions of  $a, b$ )  
return  $add(a, add(\bar{b}, 1))$  {  $a + (-b)$  }
```

# Binary Multiplication of Integers (1/2)

- Intuition (let  $a = (a_{n-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_2$ ,  $b = (b_{n-1} \dots b_1 b_0)_2$ )

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 a & = & a_{n-1} \ a_{n-2} \ \dots \ a_2 \ a_1 \ a_0 \\
 b & = & b_{n-1} \ b_{n-2} \ \dots \ b_2 \ b_1 \ b_0 \\
 \hline
 c_0 & = & s_{(n-1,0)} s_{(n-2,0)} \cdot \dots \cdot s_{(2,0)} \ s_{(1,0)} \ s_{(0,0)} \\
 c_1 & = & s_{(n-1,1)} s_{(n-2,1)} \cdot \dots \cdot s_{(2,1)} \ s_{(1,1)} \ s_{(0,1)} \ 0 \\
 c_2 & = & s_{(n-1,2)} s_{(n-2,2)} \cdot \dots \cdot s_{(2,2)} \ s_{(1,2)} \ s_{(0,2)} \ 0 \ 0 \\
 & & \dots \dots \dots \\
 +) & & \\
 \hline
 a \cdot b & = & c_{n-1} + c_{n-2} + \dots + c_2 + c_1 + c_0
 \end{array}$$


$$\begin{aligned}
 s_{(i,j)} &= (\text{if } b_j = 1 \text{ then } a_i \text{ else } 0) \\
 c_j &= (\text{if } b_j = 1 \text{ then } a \ll j \text{ else } 0)
 \end{aligned}$$

# Binary Multiplication of Integers (2/2)

## ALGORITHM 3 Multiplication of Integers.

```
procedure multiply( $a, b$ : positive integers)
{the binary expansions of  $a$  and  $b$  are  $(a_{n-1}a_{n-2} \dots a_1a_0)_2$ 
  and  $(b_{n-1}b_{n-2} \dots b_1b_0)_2$ , respectively}
for  $j := 0$  to  $n - 1$ 
    if  $b_j = 1$  then  $c_j := a$  shifted  $j$  places
    else  $c_j := 0$ 
{ $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}$  are the partial products}
 $p := 0$ 
for  $j := 0$  to  $n - 1$ 
     $p := p + c_j$ 
return  $p$  { $p$  is the value of  $ab$ }
```

- Ex 10. Find the product of  $a = (110)_2$  and  $b = (101)_2$ .

# Division Algorithm

- Example: 23/4?

	$r$	$q$
$23 - 4 =$	19	1
$19 - 4 =$	15	2
$15 - 4 =$	11	3
$11 - 4 =$	7	4
$7 - 4 =$	3	5

$q$ : the number of times  
we perform this  
subtraction

- Algorithm

## ALGORITHM 4 Computing div and mod.

**procedure** *division algorithm*( $a$ : integer,  $d$ : positive integer)

$q := 0$

$r := |a|$

**while**  $r \geq d$

$r := r - d$

$q := q + 1$

**if**  $a < 0$  and  $r > 0$  **then**

$r := d - r$

$q := -(q + 1)$

**return**  $(q, r)$  { $q = a \text{ div } d$  is the quotient,  $r = a \text{ mod } d$  is the remainder}

# Section Summary

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- Integer Representations
  - Base  $b$  Expansions
  - Binary Expansions
  - Octal Expansions
  - Hexadecimal Expansions
- Base Conversion Algorithm
- Algorithms for Integer Operations