# INT202 Complexity of Algorithms Number Theory and Cryptography

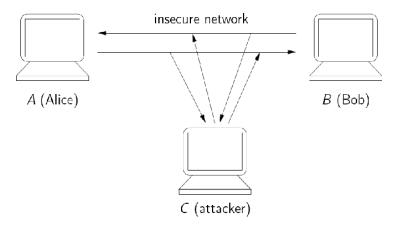
2020-2021

#### These Lectures

- 1. Review of math basics
- 2. Fundamentals of number theory
- 3. Encryption/decryption schemes

# Security of Communications

Alice talks to Bob on an insecure network.



⇒ Use cryptography to make communications secure; for example, encrypt messages to preserve secrets.

# Security of Communications (cont.)

To protect sensitive information, we must ensure the following goals are met:

- Data Integrity: Information should not be altered without detection.
- Authentication: Agents involved in the communication must be identified.
- Authorization: Agents operating onsensitive information must be authorised to perform those operations.
- Nonrepudiation: If binded by contracts, agents cannot drop out of their obligations without being detected.
- Confidentiality: Sensitive information must be kept secret from agents that are not authorised to access it.

# Security of Communications (cont.)

- To protect sensitive information, techniques based on algorithms and communication protocols have been developed.
- Many of these techniques use number theory, e.g., the popular RSA (Rivest Shamir Adleman) scheme.
- It is not only about number theory! Security protocols need be proven correct; this uses formal methods (another area of computer science that will not be addressed here).

# **REVIEW OF MATH BASICS**

#### 1 INTEGER ARITHMETIC

In integer arithmetic, we use a set and a few operations. You are familiar with this set and the corresponding operations, but they are reviewed here to create a background for modular arithmetic.

# Topics discussed in this section:

- 1.1 Set of Integers
- 1.2 Binary Operations
- 1.3 Integer Division
- 1.4 Divisibility

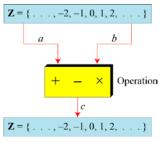
# 1.1 Set of Integers

The set of integers, denoted by Z, contains all integral numbers (with no fraction) from negative infinity to positive infinity.

$$\mathbf{Z} = \{\ldots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$$

In cryptography, we are interested in three binary operations applied to the set of integers. A binary operation takes two inputs and creates one output.

Figure Three binary operations for the set of integers



Example

The following shows the results of the three binary operations on two integers. Because each input can be either positive or negative, we can have four cases for each operation.

Add:	5 + 9 = 14	(-5) + 9 = 4	5 + (-9) = -4	(-5) + (-9) = -14
Subtract:	5 - 9 = -4	(-5) - 9 = -14	5 - (-9) = 14	(-5) $-(-9) = +4$
Multiply:	$5 \times 9 = 45$	$(-5) \times 9 = -45$	$5 \times (-9) = -45$	$(-5) \times (-9) = 45$

What about in their inverse operations?

Example

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What about in their inverse operations?

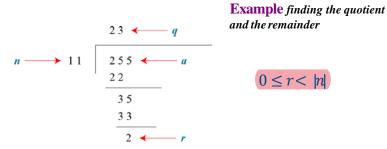
What about division?

 $3 \div 2 = ?$  not an integer!

# 1.3 Integer Division

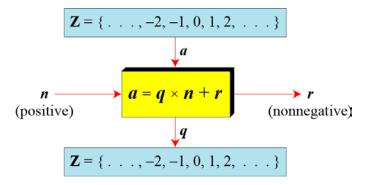
$$a = q \times n + r$$

In integer arithmetic, if we divide a by n, we can get q and r.



Assume that a = 255 and n = 11. We can find q = 23 and r = 2 using the division algorithm.

Figure Division algorithm for integers



**Example** 

r and q are negative when a is negative.

How can we apply the restriction that r needs to be positive? The value of  $q - 1 \leftrightarrow r + n$ , to make r positive.



$$-255 = (-23 \times 11) + (-2)$$
  $\leftrightarrow$   $-255 = (-24 \times 11) + 9$ 

# 1.4 Divisbility

If a is not zero and we let r = 0 in the division relation, we get

$$a = q \times n$$

If the remainder is zero,  $n \mid a$  The divisibility of a by n is denoted by the symbol

If the remainder is not zero,  $n \nmid a$ 

Example

a. The integer 4 divides the integer 32 because  $32 = 8 \times 4$ . We show this as

4|32

b. The number 8 does not divide the number 42 because  $42 = 5 \times 8 + 2$ . There is a remainder, the number 2, in the equation. We show this as

- a. We have 13|78, 7|98, -6|24, 4|44, and 11|(-33).
- b. We have 13 + 27, 7 + 50, -6 + 23, 4 + 41, and 11 + (-32).

**Properties** 

Property 1: if a/1, then  $a = \pm 1$ .

Property 2: if b|a and a|b, then  $a = \pm b$ .

Property 3: if b|a and c|b, then c|a.

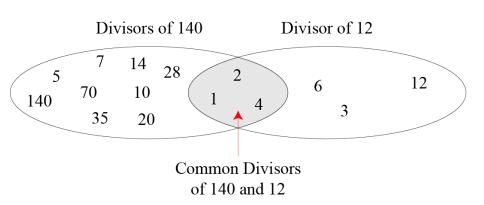
Property 4: if a|b and a|c, then  $a|(m \times b + n \times c)$ , where m and n are arbitrary integers

# 1.4 Continued Example

a. Since 3|15 and 15|45,according to the third property, 3|45.

b. Since 3|15 and 3|9,
according to the fourth property,
3|(15 × 2 + 9 × 4), which means 3|66.

Common divisors of twointegers



Note

**Greatest Common Divisor** 

The greatest common divisor of two positive integers is the largest integer that can divide both integers.

Note

**Euclidean Algorithm** 

Fact: gcd(a, 0) = a



Lemma: Let a, b, q, and r be integer such that a = bq + r and  $b \ne 0$ . Then gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r).



#### **Euclidean Algorithm**

Lemma: Let a, b, q, and r be integer such that a = bq + r and  $b \ne 0$ . Then gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r).

Proof. Let d = gcd(a, b) and e = gcd(b, r). We need to show that d = e.

Since  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ , d divides a - bq = r.

So d is a common divisor of b and r. Hence  $d \le e$ .

Similarly, as  $e \mid b$  and  $e \mid r$ , e divides bq + r = a.

Thus, e is a common divisor of both a and b, so  $e \le d$ .

This proves that d = e.



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

#### **Example**

1. Given  $26 = 6 \times 4 + 2$ , find the gcd (26,6) and gcd(6,2).

#### Solution

```
a=26, b=6, r=2
common divisors of 26 and 6: (1,2)
common divisors of 6 and 2: (1,2)
gcd(a,b)=2, gcd(b,r)=2
```

2. Given  $60 = 24 \times 2 + 12$  Find the gcd (60,24) and gcd (24,12).

#### Solution

```
a=60 , b=24, r=12 common divisors of 60 and 24: (1,2,3,4,6,12) common divisors of 24 and 12: (1,2,3,4,6,12) gcd(a,b)=12, gcd(b,r)=12
```

#### Basic Euclidean algorithms

```
def gcd(a,b)
  assert a>=b and b>=0 and a+b>0
  return gcd(b, a%b) if b>0 else a
```

modulo

#### Example

Find the greatest common divisor of 25 and 60.

#### Solution

$$r1 = 60, r2 = 25, q = 2, r = 10$$
  
 $r1 = 25, r2 = 10, q = 2, r = 5$   
 $r1 = 10, r2 = 5, q = 2, r = 0$   
 $r1 = 5, r2 = 0$   
We have gcd (25, 60) = 5.

#### Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Given two integers a and b, we often need to find other two integers, s and t, such that

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

The extended Euclidean algorithm can calculate the gcd (a, b) and at the same time calculate the value of s and t.

#### **Extended Euclidean Algorithm**

```
s \times a + t \times b = \gcd(a, b)
 r_1 \leftarrow a; \qquad r_2 \leftarrow b;
 s_1 \leftarrow 1; \qquad s_2 \leftarrow 0;
                                          (Initialization)
t_1 \leftarrow 0; \qquad t_2 \leftarrow 1;
while (r_2 > 0)
  q \leftarrow r_1 / r_2;
    r \leftarrow r_1 - q \times r_2;
                                                  (Updating r's)
    r_1 \leftarrow r_2; r_2 \leftarrow r;
    s \leftarrow s_1 - q \times s_2;
                                                  (Updating s's)
    s_1 \leftarrow s_2; s_2 \leftarrow s;
    t \leftarrow t_1 - q \times t_2;
                                                  (Updating t's)
    t_1 \leftarrow t_2; t_2 \leftarrow t;
   \gcd(a,b) \leftarrow r_1; \ s \leftarrow s_1; \ t \leftarrow t_1
```

#### **Example**

1. Given a = 161 and b = 28, find gcd (a, b) and the values of s and t.

#### Solution

We get gcd (161, 28) = 7, s = -1 and t = 6.

2. Given a = 391 and b = 299, find gcd (a, b) and the values of s and t.

#### Solution

We get gcd (391, 299) = 23, s = -3, and t = 4.

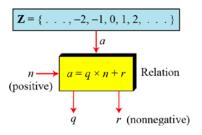
#### 2 MODULAR ARITHMETIC

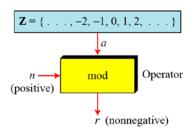
The division relationship ( $a = q \times n + r$ ) discussed in the previous section has two inputs (a and n) and two outputs (q and r). In modular arithmetic, we are interested in only one of the outputs, the remainder r.

# 2.1 Modulo Operator

The modulo operator is shown as mod (or % in some languages). The second input (n) is called the modulus. The output r is called the residue.

#### Division algorithm and modulo operator





# 2.2 Set of Residues

The modulo operation creates a set, which in modular arithmetic is referred to as the set of least residues modulo n, or Z<sub>n</sub>.

#### Some $Z_n$ sets

$$\mathbf{Z}_n = \{ 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, (n-1) \}$$

$$\mathbf{Z}_2 = \{ 0, 1 \}$$

$$\mathbf{Z}_6 = \{ 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 \}$$

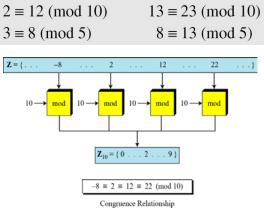
$$\mathbf{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\} \mid \mathbf{Z}_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \mid \mathbf{Z}_{11} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10\}$$

# 2.3 Congruence

To show that two integers are congruent, we use the congruence operator ( $\equiv$ ):  $a\equiv b \pmod{m}$ 

A is congruent to B modulo m

For example, wewrite:



**Residue Classes** 

A residue class [a] or  $[a]_n$  is the set of integers congruent modulo n:

$$\{..., a-3n, a-2n, a-n, a, a+n, a+2n, a+3n, ...\}$$

$$[0] = \{..., -15, -10, -5, 0, 5, 10, 15, ...\}$$

$$[1] = \{..., -14, -9, -4, 1, 6, 11, 16, ...\}$$

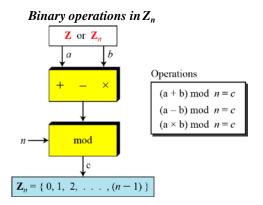
$$[2] = \{..., -13, -8, -3, 2, 7, 12, 17, ...\}$$

$$[3] = \{..., -12, -7, -5, 3, 8, 13, 18, ...\}$$

$$[4] = \{..., -11, -6, -1, 4, 9, 14, 19, ...\}$$

# 2.4 Operation in $\mathbb{Z}_n$

The three binary operations that we discussed for the set Z can also be defined for the set  $Z_n$ . The result may need to be mapped to  $Z_n$  using the mod operator



#### Properties of mod operator

**First Property:**  $(a+b) \mod n = [(a \mod n) + (b \mod n)] \mod n$  **Second Property:**  $(a-b) \mod n = [(a \mod n) - (b \mod n)] \mod n$ **Third Property:**  $(a \times b) \mod n = [(a \mod n) \times (b \mod n)] \mod n$ 

#### **Example**

The following shows the application of the above properties:

$$(37 + 99) \mod 6 = 136 \mod 6 = 4$$
 [(37 mod 6) + (99 mod 6)] mod 6 = (1+3) mod 6 = 4

Example

In arithmetic, we often need to find the remainder of powers of 10 when divided by an integer.



 $10^n \mod x = (10 \mod x)^n$  Applying the third property *n* times.

10 mod 3 = 1 
$$\rightarrow$$
 10<sup>n</sup> mod 3 = (10 mod 3)<sup>n</sup> = 1  
10 mod 9 = 1  $\rightarrow$  10<sup>n</sup> mod 9 = (10 mod 9)<sup>n</sup> = 1  
10 mod 7 = 3  $\rightarrow$  10<sup>n</sup> mod 7 = (10 mod 7)<sup>n</sup> = 3<sup>n</sup> mod 7

#### Example

We have been told in arithmetic that the remainder of an integer divided by 3 is the same as the remainder of the sum of its decimal digits. We write an integer as the sum of its digits multiplied by the powers of 10.

$$a = a_n \times 10^n + \dots + a_1 \times 10^1 + a_0 \times 10^0$$
  
For example:  $6371 = 6 \times 10^3 + 3 \times 10^2 + 7 \times 10^1 + 1 \times 10^0$ 

$$a \bmod 3 = (a_n \times 10^n + \dots + a_1 \times 10^1 + a_0 \times 10^0) \bmod 3$$

$$= (a_n \times 10^n) \bmod 3 + \dots + (a_1 \times 10^1) \bmod 3 + (a_0 \times 10^0) \bmod 3$$

$$= (a_n \bmod 3) \times (10^n \bmod 3) + \dots + (a_1 \bmod 3) \times (10^1 \bmod 3) + \dots$$

$$= (a_0 \bmod 3) \times (10^0 \bmod 3)$$

$$= a_n \bmod 3 + \dots + a_1 \bmod 3$$

$$= (a_n + \dots + a_1 + a_0) \bmod 3$$

#### 2.5 Inverse

#### **Additive Inverse**

In Z<sub>n</sub>, two numbers a and b are additive inverses of each other if

$$a + b \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$



#### Note

In modular arithmetic, each integer has an additive inverse. The sum of an integer and its additive inverse is congruent to 0 modulon.

#### 2.5 Inverse

#### **Multiplicative Inverse**

In  $Z_n$ , two numbers a and b are the multiplicative inverse of each other if

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



# Note

In modular arithmetic, an integer may or may not have a multiplicative inverse. When it does, the product of the integer and its multiplicative inverse is congruent to 1 modulo n.

## 2.5 Inverse

## **Example**

Example 1

Find the multiplicative inverse of 8 in  $Z_{10}$ .

Solution
 There is no multiplicative inverse because gcd (10, 8) = 2 ≠ 1.

Example 2

Find all multiplicative inverses in Z<sub>10</sub>

Solution

(1, 1), (3, 7) and (9, 9).

## 2.5 Inverse

## Note

The extended Euclidean algorithm finds the multiplicative inverses of b in  $Z_n$  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  $Z_n$ .

Denote the multiplicative inverse of an element b by  $b^{-1} (mod n)$ 

## 2.5.1 Inverse - extended Euclidean algorithm

# Using extended Euclidean algorithm to find multiplicative inverse

```
while (r_2 > 0)
   if (r_1 = 1) then b^{-1} \leftarrow t_1
```

## 2.5.1 Continued

## **Example**

### Find the multiplicative inverse of 11 in $Z_{26}$ .

#### Answer:

So b=11 and n=26. Now we use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm with a=n=26 and b=11.

Column b on the last row has the value 1, so

gcd(n, b) = 1.

So we need the value of columnt2 on the last RO row. This is -7.

 $t_2 \mod n = (-7) \mod 26 = 19.$ 

The multiplicative inverse of Honoral 26 is 19

	n	b	q	r	t1	t2			
Row 1		11	2 🛕	4	0	1	<b>←</b>		
Row 2	11	4	2	3	1	-2			
Row 3	4	3	1	1	-2	5			
Row 4	3	1	3	0	5	<mark>-7</mark>			
19.		$t_2 \leftarrow t_2 \leftarrow$		$\mathbb{H}$					
,									
$t \leftarrow t_1 - q \times t_2;$ $t_1 \leftarrow t_2; \qquad t_2 \leftarrow t;$									
	$\inf (r_1 =$	1) then <i>b</i>	-1 ←	/ <sub>1</sub>					

## 2.5.1 Continued

## Example

### Find the multiplicative inverse of 11 in $Z_{26}$ .

#### Answer:

So b=11 and n=26. Now we use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm with a=n=26 and b=11.

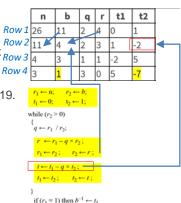
Column b on the last row has the value 1, so

gcd(n, b) = 1.

So we need the value of columnt2 on the last Row 3 4 row. This is -7.

 $t_2 \mod n = (-7) \mod 26 = 19.$ 

The multiplicative inverse of 11 modulo 26 is 19.



## 2.5.1 Continued

## Example

### Find the multiplicative inverse of 11 in $Z_{26}$ .

#### Answer:

So b=11 and n=26. Now we use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm with a=n=26 and b=11.

Ro

Column b on the last row has the value 1, so qcd(n, b) = 1.

So we need the value of columnt2 on the last *Roy* row. This is -7.

 $t_2 \mod n = (-7) \mod 26 = 19.$ 

The multiplicative inverse of 11 modulo 26 is 19.

	n	b	q	r	t1	t2
w 1		11	2	4	0	1
w 2	11	4	2	3	1	-2
<i>N</i> 3	4	3	1	1	-2	5
v 4	3	1	3	0	5	<del>-</del> 7
	1	0	_	_	-7 K	_

$$r_1 \leftarrow n; \quad r_2 \leftarrow b; \\ r_1 \leftarrow 0; \quad t_2 \leftarrow 1; \\ while (r_2 > 0) \\ q \leftarrow r_1 / r_2; \\ r \leftarrow r_1 - q \times r_2; \\ r_1 \leftarrow r_2; \quad r_2 \leftarrow r; \\ t \leftarrow b - q \times b;$$

$$t_1 \leftarrow t_2; \qquad t_2 \leftarrow t;$$
  
if  $(r_1 = 1)$  then  $b^{-1} \leftarrow t_1$ 

## 2.6 Different Sets

Some  $Z_n$  and  $Z_{n*}$  sets

$$\mathbb{Z}_n^* = \{ [a]_n \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \gcd(a, n) = 1 \}$$

$${\bf Z_6}^* = \{1, 5\}$$



$$\mathbf{Z}_7 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

 $\mathbf{Z}_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$ 

$$\mathbf{Z}_7^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$$

$$\mathbf{Z}_{10} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$$

$$\mathbf{Z}_{10}^* = \{1, 3, 7, 9\}$$

We need to use Zn when additive inverses are needed; we need to use Zn\* when multiplicative inverses are needed.

Cryptography often uses two more sets:  $Z_p$  and  $Z_p$ \*. The modulus in these two sets is a prime number.

$$Z_{13} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$$
  
 $Z_{13} * = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12\}$ 

## 3 MATRICES

In cryptography we need to handle matrices. This topic belongs to a special branch of algebra called linear algebra.

## 3.1 Definition

#### A matrix of size $l \times m$

#### m columns

### Examples of matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & 5 & 11 \\ Row matrix \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 12 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 23 & 14 & 56 \\ 12 & 21 & 18 \\ 10 & 8 & 31 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ I \end{bmatrix}$$
Column matrix Square matrix

## 3.2 Operations and Relations

Example

The following figure shows an example of addition and subtraction.

#### Addition and subtraction of matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 12 & 4 & 4 \\ 11 & 12 & 30 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 & 3 \\ 8 & 10 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 & 0 & -2 \\ -5 & -8 & 10 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 & 3 \\ 8 & 10 & 20 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}$$

## 3.2 Continued

**Example** 

The following figure shows the product of a row matrix  $(1 \times 3)$  by a column matrix  $(3 \times 1)$ . The result is a matrix of size  $1 \times 1$ .

Figure Multiplication of a row matrix by a columnmatrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ 53 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 8 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

In which: 
$$53 = 5 \times 7 + 2 \times 8 + 1 \times 2$$

## 3.2 Continued

Example

The following figure shows the product of a  $2 \times 3$  matrix by a  $3 \times 4$  matrix. The result is a  $2 \times 4$  matrix.

**Figure** Multiplication of a  $2 \times 3$  matrix by a  $3 \times 4$  matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 52 & 18 & 14 & 9 \\ 41 & 21 & 22 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 8 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

## 3.2 Continued

Example

The following figure shows an example of scalar multiplication.

## Figure Scalar multiplication

$$\begin{bmatrix} 15 & 6 & 3 \\ 9 & 6 & 12 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \times \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

## 3.3 Determinant

The determinant of a square matrix A of size  $m \times m$  denoted as det (A) is a scalar calculated recursively as shown below:

- 1. If m = 1, det  $(\mathbf{A}) = a_{11}$
- 2. If m > 1, det  $(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1...m} (-1)^{i+j} \times a_{ij} \times \det(\mathbf{A}_{ij})$

where A<sub>ij</sub> is a matrix obtained from A by deleting the i-th row and j-th column.



The determinant is defined only for a square matrix.

## 3.4 Residue Matrices

Cryptography uses residue matrices:

In Zn, all operations on residue matrices are performed the same as for the integer matrices except that the operations are done in modular arithmetic.

A residue matrix has a multiplicative inverse if the determinant of the matrix has a multiplicative inverse in Zn => gcd(det(A), n) = 1.

## 4 LINEAR CONGRUENCE

Cryptography often involves solving an equation or a set of equations of one or more variables with coefficient in  $Z_n$ .

How to solve linear equation?

## 4.1 Single-Variable Linear Equations

Equations of the form  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$  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|b, there are d solutions.

## 4.1 Continued

### **Example**

Solve the equation  $10 x \equiv 2 \pmod{15}$ .

### Solution

First we find the gcd (10, 15) = 5. Since 5 does not divide 2, we have no solution.

## **Example**

Solve the equation  $14 x \equiv 12 \pmod{18}$ .

### Solution

Division in  $\mathbb{Z}_n^*$  is defined by the equation  $a/b \equiv ab^{-1} \pmod{n}$ .

$$14x \equiv 12 \pmod{18} \to 7x \equiv 6 \pmod{9} \to x \equiv 6 \pmod{9}$$

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

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

## 4.1 Continued

Example

Solve the equation  $3x + 4 \equiv 6 \pmod{13}$ .

#### Solution

First we change the equation to the form  $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$ . We add -4 (the additive inverse of 4) to both sides, which give  $3x \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$ . Because gcd (3, 13) = 1, the equation has only one solution, which is  $x_0 = (2 \times 3^{-1}) \pmod{13} = (2 \times 9) \pmod{13} = 5$ . We can see that the answer satisfies the original equation:  $3 \times 5 + 4 \equiv 6 \pmod{13}$ .