Chinese Remainder Theorem

Discrete Mathematic Andrei Bulato Discrete Mathematics - Chinese Remainder Theorem

Previous Lecture

- Residues and arithmetic operations
- Caesar cipher
- Pseudorandom generators

Discrete Mathematics - Modular Arithmetic II

Divisors of Zero

- It is not hard to see that the operation tables of addition looks similar
- It is not the case for multiplication. Consider

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| 3 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

 A proper divisor of 0 modulo m is a residue a such that there is $b \not\equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ with $a \cdot b \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$. \mathbb{Z}_4 has a proper divisor of zero. \mathbb{Z}_5 does not.

Discrete Mathematics - Modular Arithmetic II

Inverse

- A residue b modulo m is called an inverse of a residue a if $a\cdot b\equiv 1 \;(mod\; m),\; denoted \;\; a^{-1}$
- 3 is the inverse of 2 modulo 5
- 2 does not have an inverse modulo 4



Let a be residue modulo m. The following conditions are equivalent:

- (i) a has an inverse;
- (ii) a is not a proper divisor of 0;
- (iii) a is relatively prime with m.

Discrete Mathematics - Modular Arithmetic II



Inverse (cntd)

(i) \Rightarrow (ii) By contraposition.

Suppose $a \cdot b \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ for some b.

Then $a^{-1} \cdot a \cdot b \equiv a^{-1} \cdot 0 \pmod{m}$

 $b \equiv 1 \cdot b \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$

(ii) ⇒ (iii) By contraposition.

Suppose gcd(a,m) = d and a = Id, m = kd. Note that $k \not\equiv 0 \pmod{m}$

Then $ak \equiv kld \equiv lm \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$. Thus a is a proper divisor of 0.

Suppose gcd(a,m) = 1. Then there are u,v with au + mv = 1.

Thus $au \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$; a has an inverse.

Discrete Mathematics - Modular Arithmetic II

Linear Congruences

A congruence of the form

 $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$

where m is a positive integer, a and b are integers, and x is a variable, is called a linear congruence.

- We will solve linear congruences
- If a is relatively prime with m, then it has the inverse a^{-1} . Then a^{-1} ax $\equiv a^{-1}$ b (mod m)

 $x \equiv a^{-1} b \pmod{m}$

- Find the inverse of 3 modulo 7
- Solve the linear congruence $3x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$

Discrete Mathematics - Chinese Remainder Theorem

The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- A linear congruence is similar to a single linear equation. What about systems of equations
- (Sun Tzu's puzzle, 400 460 BC):

"There are certain things whose number is unknown. When divided by 3, the remainder is 2; when divided by 5, the remainder is 3; and when divided by 7, the remainder is 2. What will be the number of

• This can be translated into the following question: What are the solutions of the system of congruences

 $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$

 $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$

 $x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$

The Chinese Remainder Theorem (cntd)

Theorem

Let $\ m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_k$ be pairwise relatively prime positive integers and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k arbitrary integers. Then the system

$$x \equiv a_1 \, (\text{mod} \, m_1)$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \, (\text{mod} \, m_2)$$

$$\vdots$$

 $x \equiv \dot{a_k} \pmod{m_k}$

has a unique solution modulo $\ m=m_1\cdot m_2\cdot\ldots\cdot m_k.$ (That is, there is a solution x with $0 \le x < m$, and all other solutions are congruent modulo m to this solution.)

Discrete Mathematics - Chinese Remainder Theorem

The Chinese Remainder Theorem (cntd)

Proof.

We construct a solution to this system

Set $M_i = \frac{m}{i}$ for i = 1, 2, ..., k. Thus M_i is the product of all the moduli except for m

Since m_i and m_i are relatively prime when $i \neq j$, $gcd(M_i, m_i) = 1$ Therefore M_i has the inverse modulo m_i , that is y_i such that

$$M_i y_i \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$$

Let us set $x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + \cdots + a_k M_k y_k$

Note that $\,M_{\,i} \equiv 0 \, (\text{mod} \, m_{i}) \,$ whenever $\, i \neq j, \,$ all terms except for the ith term in this sum are congruent to 0 modulo m_i . As $M_i y_i \equiv 1 (\text{mod } m_i)$

 $x \equiv a_i M_i y_i \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$

Discrete Mathematics - Chinese Remainder Theorem

Sun Tzu's Puzzle

 $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$

 $x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ $x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$ $x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$

Fermat's Theorem

- Fermat's Great (Last) Theorem. For any n > 2, the equation $x^n + y^n = z^n$ does not have integer solutions x,y,z > 0
- It had remained unproven for 358 years (posed in 1637, proved in 1995)
- Andrew Wiles proved it in 1995





Discrete Mathematics - Chinese Remainder Theorem

Fermat's Little Theorem

Fermat's Little Theorem.

If p is prime and a is an integer not divisible by p, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Clearly, it suffices to consider only residues modulo p.

| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 3 |
| 3 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 2 |
| 4 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 |

Fermat's Little Theorem (cntd)

- Fermat's Little Theorem was improved by Euler
- Fermat's Little Theorem improved

For any integers $\,m\,$ and $\,a\,$ such that they are relatively prime $\,a^{\varphi(m)}\equiv 1\,$ (mod $\,m)$

where $\varphi(m)$ denotes the Euler totient function, the number of numbers 0 < k < m relatively prime with m

Example: Z₈

Public Key Cryptography

- Earlier we considered Caesar cipher. To encrypt and decrypt messages using this cipher one needs to know the key
- Caesar cipher uses the same key for encryption and decryption; it is secret, and if one knows the key he knows everything.
- Public key cryptosystems use a different approach
- Such a system uses different keys for encryption and decryption:
 Every person has a key for encryption, and can write an encrypted message

But this does not help to decrypt the message

Discrete Mathematics - Public Key Cryptography

35-15

Discrete Mathematics - Public Key Cryptography

35-1

RSA Cryptosystem

RSA stands for the names of the inventors: Rivest, Shamir, Adleman



From left to right: Ron Rivest Adi Shamir Len Adleman

 RSA key: a modulus n = pq, where p and q are large prime numbers (current standards are 128, 256, or 512 digits each), n is public while p and q are secret, and an exponent e relatively prime with (p - 1)(q - 1) **RSA Encryption**

- In the RSA method, messages are translated into an integer (a short message) or a sequence of integers
- Let M be the plaintext (the original message). Then the ciphertext is the residue

 $C \equiv M^e \pmod{n}$

• Example. Encrypt the message STOP using the RSA cryptosystem with p = 43 and q = 59, so that $n = 43 \cdot 59 = 2537$, and with e = 13.

Note that $gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = gcd(13, 42 \cdot 58) = 1$

■ Solution. Translate the letters of STOP into their numerical equivalents and group them into groups of four: 1819 1415 Encrypt them using $C \equiv M^{13} \pmod{2537}$. We get $1819^{13} \equiv 2081 \pmod{2537}$ and $1415^{13} \equiv 2182 \pmod{2537}$ Thus, the encrypted message is 2081 2182

Discrete Mathematics – Public Key Cryptography

25

Discrete Mathematics – Public Rey Cryptography

RSA Decryption

 The decryption key d is the inverse of e modulo (p - 1)(q - 1). It is secret!

Since gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1, the inverse exists.

■ Indeed, de \equiv 1 (mod (p - 1)(q - 1)), therefore there is k such that de = 1 + k(p - 1)(q - 1). Hence

where the de = 1 + k(p - 1)(q - 1). Hence
$$C^d = (M^e)^d = M^{de} = M^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n}$$
 Note that $\phi(n) = n \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{q}\right) = (p-1)(q-1)$

By Fermat's Little Theorem, $M^{k(p-1)(q-1)} = (M^{\varphi(n)})^k \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Hence, $C^d \equiv M \cdot M^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv M \pmod{n}$

Thus $C^d \equiv M \pmod{n}$

Discrete Mathematics - Public Key Cryptography

25.10

Example

- We receive the encrypted message 0981 0461. What is the plaintext if it was encrypted using the RSA cipher from the previous example.
- Solution

The encryption keys were n = $43 \cdot 59$ and e = 13. It is not hard to see that d = 937 is the inverse of 13 modulo $42 \cdot 58 = 2436$.

Therefore to decrypt a cipher block $\,C$, we compute $\,P \equiv C^{937} \,$ (mod $\,n$)

In our case we have

 $0981^{937} \equiv 0704 \pmod{2537}$ and $0461^{937} \equiv 1115 \pmod{2537}$

Thus the plaintext is 0704 1115, that is HELP

Discrete Mathematics - Public Key Cryptography

35-19

Why RSA Works

- The secrecy comes from the fact that it is incredibly difficult to find an inverse modulo a big number if we do not know it. And we do not know (p - 1)(q - 1), as we do not know the prime decomposition of n = pq.
- However, it is also very difficult to find a prime decomposition of a number if its prime factors are big. The most efficient factorization method known requires billions of years of work of the fastest computers to factorize a 400-digit number.
- We need n to be the product of 2 prime numbers, because the method works only if the message is relatively prime with n. Thus n needs to have very few divisors.

Discrete Mathematics - Chinese Remainder Theorem

Homework

Exercises from the Book: No. 1, 5, 9, 12, 20, 23 (page 696)

4