Coding and Cryptography Notes

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1 Theorem and Algorithms

1.1 Euclids's Algorithm

1.1.1 Statement

To find the GCD of two numbers, say a and b (b < a), do the following:

$$\begin{array}{l} a &= q_0 b \,+\, r_0 \\ b &= q_1 r_0 \,+\, r_1 \\ r_0 &= q_2 r_1 \,+\, r_2 \\ r_1 &= q_3 r_2 \,+\, r_3 \\ \cdot &\cdot \\ \cdot \end{array}$$

Since the remainder is decreasing with every step but cannot be negative, there will eventually be a remainder r_N which is equal to zero, at which point the algorithm stops. The remainder r_{N-1} is the GCD of a and b. If (a < b) swap a and b before beginning the algorithm.

1.1.2 Euclid's Algorithm for finding modular inverses

Assume we have two integers a and b which are co-prime. We want to find the inverse of $a \pmod{b}$, denoted \overline{a} . We know from the definition of the modular inverse that $a\overline{a} \equiv 1 \pmod{b}$. Hence our task is to solve the equation ax + by = 1 for x and y which will give us $x = \overline{a}$.

We do this by using Euclid's Algorithm and stopping when the remainder is equal to 1:

We know that $r_{N-1} = 1$ because a and b are co-prime and hence their GCD is 1. We now re-write the equations and subtitute back until we end with an equation of the form 1 = ax + by and we will have $\overline{a} \equiv x \pmod{b}$.

1.2 Chinese Remainder Theorem

1.2.1 Statement

The Chinese Remainder Theorem states that the system of congruences,

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv a_r \pmod{m_r}$$

where the modulo $m_1, m_2, ..., m_r$ are all pairwise coprime has a unique solution modulo M given by

$$x \equiv a_1(M_1\overline{M_1}) + a_2(M_2\overline{M_2}) + \dots + a_r(M_r\overline{M_r}) \pmod{M}$$

where

- $\bullet \ \ M=m_1m_2...m_r$
- $M_i = \frac{M}{m_i}$
- $M_i \overline{M_i} \equiv 1 \pmod{m_i}$

1.2.2 Example 1

Let

$$x \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$$
$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$
$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$$

Find $x \pmod{M}$

$$\bullet M = m_1 m_2 m_3 = (3)(4)(5) = 60$$

•
$$M_1 = \frac{M}{m_1} = \frac{60}{3} = 20$$

 $M_2 = \frac{M}{m_2} = \frac{60}{4} = 15$
 $M_3 = \frac{M}{m_3} = \frac{60}{5} = 12$

$$\begin{array}{c} \bullet & M_{1}\overline{M_{1}} \equiv 1 \; (mod \; m_{i}) \\ \Rightarrow 20\overline{M_{1}} \equiv 1 \; (mod \; 3) \\ Using \; Euclid's \; \underline{Algorithm} : \\ Solving \; 1 \; = \; 20\overline{M_{1}} \; - \; 3y \\ & 20 \; = \; 3(6) \; + \; 2 \\ & 3 \; = \; 2(1) \; + \; 1 \\ & Substituting \; back : \\ & 3 \; = \; (20 - 3(6))(1) \; + \; 1 \\ & 3 \; = \; 20(1) \; - \; 3(6) \; + \; 1 \\ & 1 \; = \; 3(7) \; + \; 20(-1) \\ \text{Hence} & \overline{M_{1}} \; \equiv \; -1 \; (mod \; 3) \\ & \Rightarrow \overline{M_{1}} \; \equiv \; 2 \; (mod \; 3) \\ \end{array}$$

1.3 Modular Exponentiation Algorithm

1.3.1 Statement

To find the least postive residue of $a^n \pmod{m}$ where n is a large number do the following:

- Express n in binary to get $n = (b_0)2^0 + (b_1)2^1 + (b_2)2^2 + ... + (b_k)2^k$ $(b_i \in [0, 1])$
- Calculate the least positive residues modulo n for $a^{2^0},\ a^{2^1},...,\ a^{2^k}$
- Multiply the least positive residues whose corresponding bit is 1 in the first step.
- Find the least positive residue of the result above.

1.3.2 Example

What is the least positive residue of $3^231 \mod 49$?

• 231 in binary: $231 = (1)2^7 + (1)2^6 + (1)2^5 + (0)2^4 + (0)2^3 + (1)2^2 + (1)2^1 + (1)2^0$ Hence 231 = $(11100111)_2$

• Least positive residues modulo 49 for
$$3^{2^0}$$
, 3^{2^1} ,..., 3^{2^7} :
 $b_0 = 1$ $3^{2^0} \equiv 3^1 \equiv 3 \pmod{49}$
 $b_1 = 1$ $3^{2^1} \equiv 3^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{49}$
 $b_2 = 1$ $3^{2^2} \equiv 3^4 \equiv 9^2 \equiv 32 \pmod{49}$

- Multiply results where $b_i = 1$: (3)(9)(32)(37)(46)(9) = 13234752
- Find least positive residue of above result: $3^{231} \equiv (3^{2^7})(3^{2^6})(3^{2^5})(3^{2^2})(3^{2^1})(3^{2^0}) \equiv 13234752 \equiv 48 \pmod{49}$

1.3.3 Explanation of Algorithm

We know from the definition of the mod function that:

$$a \equiv r_1 \pmod{m}$$

$$b \equiv r_2 \pmod{m}$$

$$\Rightarrow ab \equiv r_1r_2 \pmod{m}$$

This is what allows us to complete step 2 in the algorithm.

Furthermore, we know that $a^x a^y = a^{x+y}$ which is what allows us to split up the work in the algorithm and then recombine the results.

1.3.4 Fast-tracking the algorithm

Before applying the Modular Exponentiation Algorithm, we can eliminate a lot of the work by applying Euler's Theorem:

For any modulus n and integer a which are co-prime (ie GCD(a,n)=1) we have that:

$$a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

Hence, to aid in computing the least positive residue we can express the exponent in the original problem as $n = q\varphi(m) + r$. This helps us in that we can now write $a^{q\varphi(m)+r}$ and since we know that $a^{\varphi} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ the problem is reduced to finding the least positive residue of $a^r \pmod{m}$. This is because $a^n \equiv a^{q\varphi(m)+r} \equiv a^{q\varphi(m)}a^r \equiv a^r \pmod{m}$.

2 Fermat's Factorization

2.0.1 Statement

Fermat's Factorization allows us to factorize an odd integer using the difference of two squares. Given an odd integer n, and two factors c and d s.t. n = cd we know that:

$$n = \left(\frac{c+d}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{c-d}{2}\right)^2$$

The method is as follows:

- We start by choosing $a = \lceil \sqrt{n} \rceil$
- We then calculate $n a^2 = z$
- If z is a perfect square, we have found $b = \sqrt{z}$
- If z is not a perfect square, we increment a, and try again until we get a z which is a perfect square or we ascertain that n is a prime.
- ullet Once we have a and b, the factors of n are calculated as:

$$c=a+b$$

$$d = a - b$$