



SECURITY (COMP0141): MATHEMATICAL BACKGROUND



BASIC MATHEMATICAL NOTATION

Sets: $A = \{1, 2\}$, $B = \{a, b, c\}$

Cardinality: $|A| = 2$, $|B| = 3$

Set inclusion: $x \in A$ means x belongs to A ($1 \in A$, $3 \notin A$)

Integers: whole numbers (positive or negative)

Division: $x \mid y$ means x (evenly) divides y ($y = ax$ for some integer a)

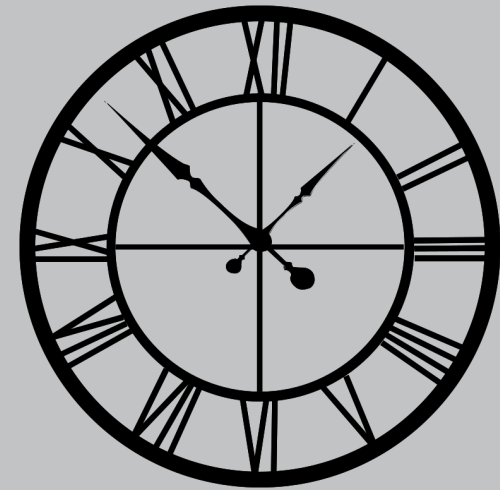
Set conditions: $\{x : 2 \mid x\}$ means all x that are even

MODULAR (“CLOCK”) ARITHMETIC

$$6 = 6 \bmod 12$$

$$12 = 0 \bmod 12$$

$$14 = 2 \bmod 12$$



We technically should use \equiv to denote **equivalence** but will use $=$ instead

True or false?

$$14 = 2 \bmod 12$$

$$37 = 26 \bmod 7$$

$$5 = -10 \bmod 3$$

MODULAR ARITHMETIC

Given integers $x > 0$, y , z we write $z \equiv y \pmod{x}$ when $x \mid (z-y)$

More examples: $5 = 1 \pmod{2}$, $18 = 3 \pmod{5}$

Given $x > 0$ and z , we can find unique a and $y \in \{0, 1, \dots, x-1\}$ such that

$$z = ax + y$$

Diagram illustrating the equation $z = ax + y$. A red arrow points from the word "quotient" to the variable a . Another red arrow points from the word "remainder" to the variable y .

More examples: $5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1$, $18 = 3 \cdot 5 + 3$

If $z = ax + y$ then $z = y \pmod{x}$ (because $z - y = ax$ and $x \mid ax$)

GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR

Greatest common divisor of a and b is the largest number that divides both a and b ; i.e., $\gcd(a, b) = \max\{d : d \mid a \text{ and } d \mid b\}$

Bézout's identity: for all a, b there are r, s such that $\gcd(a, b) = ra + sb$

PROOF OF BEZOUT'S IDENTITY

Bézout's identity: for all a, b there are r, s such that $\gcd(a, b) = ra + sb$

Proof:

(1) Define $d = \min\{ra + sb \mid ra + sb > 0\}$

(2) Want to show that $\gcd(a, b) = d$, which we can do by showing that

(a) $\gcd(a, b) \leq d$ and that (b) $d \leq \gcd(a, b)$

(2a) Write $d = ra + sb$. Since $\gcd(a, b) \mid a$ and $\gcd(a, b) \mid b$ we have $\gcd(a, b) \mid ra + sb$ so $\gcd(a, b) \mid d$

(2b) If $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ then $d \leq \gcd(a, b)$, so we show this instead.

Assume $a = kd + t$ for $0 < t < d$ (meaning $d \nmid a$). Then $t = a - kd = a - k(ra + sb) = (1 - kr)a - ksb$. But this implies that $0 < t = Ra + Sb < d$ (for $R = 1 - kr$ and $S = -ks$) which contradicts the fact that d is minimal

EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Euclidean algorithm: used to efficiently compute $\gcd(a,b)$ for $a > b$

- start by finding r_0 such that $a = q_0b + r_0$ (so $r_0 = b \bmod a$)
- then r_1 such that $b = q_1r_0 + r_1$ (so $r_1 = b \bmod r_0$)
- eventually, get to $r_{n-2} = q_nr_{n-1} + 0$
- this final non-zero remainder r_{n-1} is the gcd of a and b

EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Euclidean algorithm: used to efficiently compute $\gcd(a,b)$ for $a > b$

Example: find $\gcd(270,192)$

$$-270 = 1*192 + 78$$

$$-192 = 2*78 + 36$$

$$-78 = 2*36 + 6$$

$$-36 = 6*6 + 0$$

-so $\gcd(270,192) = 6$

EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Why does the algorithm work?

-There are finitely many numbers between a and 0 so it terminates

-Bottom up (r_{n-1} divides a and b):

$$r_{n-2} = q_n r_{n-1} + 0 \Rightarrow r_{n-1} = 0 \bmod r_{n-2}$$

$$r_{n-3} = q_{n-1} r_{n-2} + r_{n-1} \Rightarrow r_{n-1} = 0 \bmod r_{n-3}$$

... $\Rightarrow r_{n-1} = 0 \bmod a$ and $0 \bmod b$ (so r_{n-1} is a common divisor)

-Top down (any other divisor divides r_{n-1}):

$$a = q_0 b + r_0 \Rightarrow c \text{ dividing } a \text{ and } b \text{ divides } r_0$$

$$b = q_1 r_0 + r_1 \Rightarrow c \text{ divides } r_1$$

... $\Rightarrow c$ divides r_{n-1} (so r_{n-1} is the greatest common divisor)

EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Extended Euclidean algorithm: used to calculate r, s such that $\gcd(a, b) = ra + sb$

In the Euclidean algorithm, focused just on remainders and ignored quotients: equations of the form $r_{i-2} = q_{i-1}r_{i-1} + r_i$, or $r_i = r_{i-2} - q_{i-1}r_{i-1}$

In the extended algorithm, add in two extra variables with the same quotient: $s_i = s_{i-2} - q_{i-1}s_{i-1}$ and $t_i = t_{i-2} - q_{i-1}t_{i-1}$, start with $s_0 = 1, s_1 = 0, t_0 = 0$, and $t_1 = 1$ (because $a = 1*a + 0*b$ and $b = 0*a + 1*b$)

EXTENDED EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

Example: find s and t such that $\gcd(18,13) = s*18 + t*13$

$18 \bmod 13$

$$-(r) \ 5 = 18 - 1*13, (s) \ 1 - 0 = 1, (t) \ 0 - 1 = -1$$

$13 \bmod 5$

$$-(r) \ 3 = 13 - 2*5, (s) \ 0 - 2*1 = -2, (t) \ 1 - 2*(-1) = 3$$

$5 \bmod 3$

$$-(r) \ 2 = 5 - 1*3, (s) \ 1 - 1*(-2) = 3, (t) \ -1 - 1*(3) = -4$$

$3 \bmod 2$

$$-(r) \ 1 = 3 - 1*2, (s) \ -2 - 1*(3) = -5, (t) \ 3 - 1*(-4) = 7$$

$2 \bmod 1$

$$-(r) \ 0 = 2 - 2*1$$

$$\text{So } 1 = -5*18 + 7*13$$

MODULAR ARITHMETIC

Many of the usual laws of the integers also apply when computing modulo N

Associativity (both for $+$ and $*$):

$$\begin{aligned} &-(a + b \bmod N) + c \bmod N \\ &= a + (b + c \bmod N) \bmod N \\ &= a + b + c \bmod N \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &-(ab \bmod N)c \bmod N \\ &= a(bc \bmod N) \bmod N \\ &= abc \bmod N \end{aligned}$$

MODULAR EXPONENTIATION

We often use modular exponentiations $g^x \bmod p$ ($\underbrace{g * g * \dots * g}_{x \text{ times}} \bmod p$)

Again, usual exponentiation rules apply

$$-g^x g^y = g^{x+y} \bmod p$$

$$-(g^x)^y = g^{xy} \bmod p$$

COMMUTATIVE RING $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$

Associative: $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c) \pmod{N}$

$$(ab)c = a(bc) \pmod{N}$$

Distributive: $a(b+c) = ab + ac \pmod{N}$

$$(a+b)c = ac + bc \pmod{N}$$

Commutative: $a + b = b + a \pmod{N}$

$$ab = ba \pmod{N}$$

Additive identity: $a + 0 = 0 + a = a \pmod{N}$

Multiplicative identity: $1a = a1 = a \pmod{N}$

Additive inverse: $a + (-a) + (-a) + a = 0 \pmod{N}$

Multiplicative inverse?

MULTIPLICATIVE INVERSES

In general, some numbers have inverses but not all

Example: 3 mod 10

$$-3 * 7 = 21 = 1 + 20 = 1 + 2*10 = 1 \bmod 10$$

$$-so\ 3 = 7^{-1} \bmod 10$$

Example: 2 mod 10

-there is no number b such that $2b = 1 \bmod 10$

We define $(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^*$ to be all invertible elements in $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$

When does a number have an inverse?

MULTIPLICATIVE INVERSES

Element a has multiplicative inverse mod N if and only if $\gcd(a, N) = 1$

Proof:

- if $\gcd(a, N) = 1$ we can write $ra + sN = 1$ (by Bézout's identity) so $ra = 1 \pmod N$, meaning $r = a^{-1}$
- if a has an inverse r , then $ra = 1 \pmod N$, which means $ra + sN = 1$ for some s , which means $\gcd(a, N) = 1$

The inverse a^{-1} is unique modulo N and can be efficiently computed using the Extended Euclidean algorithm

EXERCISE

What is $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z}$?

What is $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^*$?

For each element in $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^*$, find its inverse.

ANSWERS

What is $\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z}$? $\{0,1,2,3,\dots,11\}$

What is $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^*$? $\{1,5,7,11\}$

For each element in $(\mathbb{Z}/12\mathbb{Z})^*$, find its inverse.

$$-1^{-1} = 1$$

$$-5^{-1} = 5 \quad (5*5 = 25 = 2*12 + 1 = 1 \bmod 12)$$

$$-7^{-1} = 7 \quad (7*7 = 49 = 4*12 + 1 = 1 \bmod 12)$$

$$-11^{-1} = 11 \quad (11*11 = 121 = 10*12 + 1 = 1 \bmod 12)$$

MULTIPLICATIVE INVERSES

Element a has multiplicative inverse mod N if and only if $\gcd(a, N) = 1$

When could we guarantee this to be the case?

PRIME NUMBERS

A natural number N is **prime** if its only divisors are 1 and N

Examples: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, ...

If p is a prime and $p \mid ab$ then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$

Any natural number N has unique factorisation $N = p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \dots p_s^{r_s}$

This means $\gcd(a, p) \in \{1, p\}$ when p is prime

Corollary of Bézout's identity: if p is prime then for any $a \in \{1, \dots, p-1\}$ there is an inverse r such that $1 = ra \pmod{p}$

FINITE FIELDS

What is $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ when p is a prime?

The elements that have $\gcd(x,p) = 1$, but for a prime this is all x not divisible by p , so $F_p^* = \{1,2,3,\dots,p-1\}$

A **field** is a commutative ring where all non-zero elements are (multiplicatively) invertible

F_p is a field with p elements (or **order** p) so is called a **finite field**

PRIME-ORDER FINITE FIELDS

Associative: $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c) \bmod N$

$$(ab)c = a(bc) \bmod N$$

Distributive: $a(b+c) = ab + ac \bmod N$

$$(a+b)c = ac + bc \bmod N$$

Commutative: $a + b = b + a \bmod N$

$$ab = ba \bmod N$$

Additive identity: $a + 0 = 0 + a = a \bmod N$

Multiplicative identity: $1a = a1 = a \bmod N$

Additive inverse: $a + (-a) + (-a) + a = 0 \bmod N$

Multiplicative inverse: $a * a^{-1} = 1 \bmod N$