

Number Theory

Computer Security

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- Divisibility and Division Algorithm
- Euclidean Algorithm
- Modular Arithmetic
- Groups, Rings and Fields
- Finite Fields of Form $GF(p)$
- Polynomial Arithmetic
- Finite Fields of Form $GF(2^n)$

Divisibility

b divides a ($b|a$)

$$a = m * b \quad a, b, m \rightarrow \text{integers}$$

Example: $8|40, 5|25$

- If $a|1$, then $a = \pm 1$.
- If $a|b$ and $b|a$, then $a = \pm b$
- Any $b \neq 0$ divides 0.
- if $a|b$ and $b|c$, then $a|c$.
- If $b|g$ and $b|h$, then $b|(mg + nh)$ for arbitrary integers m, n .

$$b = 7; g = 14; h = 63; m = 3; n = 2$$

$$7|14 \text{ and } 7|63.$$

To show $7|(3 * 14 + 2 * 63)$,
we have $(3 * 14 + 2 * 63) = 7(3 * 2 + 2 * 9)$,
and it is obvious that $7|(7(3 * 2 + 2 * 9))$.

The Division Algorithm

Division Algorithm

$$a = qn + r \qquad 0 \leq r < n; \quad q = \lfloor a/n \rfloor$$

$$a = 11; \quad n = 7; \quad 11 = 1 * 7 + 4; \quad r = 4 \quad q = 1$$

$$a = -11; \quad n = 7; \quad -11 = (-2) * 7 + 3; \quad r = 3 \quad q = -2$$

The Euclidean Algorithm

- Finds the **Greatest Common Divisor - GCD** of two integers.
- GCD should be positive

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a, -b) = \gcd(-a, b) = \gcd(-a, -b)$$
$$\gcd(60, 24) = \gcd(60, -24) = 12$$

- Two integers are **relatively prime** if their only common positive integer factor (**GCD**) is 1. Ex: $\gcd(8, 15) = 1$

$$\gcd(x, 1) = 1$$

$$\gcd(x, 0) = x$$

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$$

Q: Find $\gcd(324, 266)$?

Q: Find $\gcd(1973, 539)$? → **Co-prime**

The Modulus

If a is an integer and n is a positive integer, we define $a \bmod n$ to be the remainder when a is divided by n . The integer n is called the modulus.

$$a = qn + r \quad 0 \leq r < n; \quad q = \lfloor a/n \rfloor$$
$$a = \lfloor a/n \rfloor * n + (a \bmod n)$$

$$\begin{aligned} 11 \bmod 7 &= 4; \\ -11 \bmod 7 &= 7 - (11 \bmod 7) = 7 - 4 = 3 \\ 11 \bmod -7 &= 4 \quad \quad -11 \bmod -7 = 3 \end{aligned}$$

Congruent Modulo

Two integers a and b are said to be **congruent modulo** n , if $(a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n)$. This is written as $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

Ex: $73 \equiv 4 \pmod{23}$ if $a \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$, then $n|a$

Congruences have the following properties:

- 1 $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if $n|(a - b)$.
- 2 $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ implies $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$.
- 3 $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ imply $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$.

Modular Arithmetic Operations

The $(\text{mod } n)$ operator maps all integers into the set of integers $\{0, 1, \dots, (n - 1)\}$

- $((a \text{ mod } n) + (b \text{ mod } n)) \text{ mod } n = (a + b) \text{ mod } n$
- $((a \text{ mod } n) - (b \text{ mod } n)) \text{ mod } n = (a - b) \text{ mod } n$
- $((a \text{ mod } n) * (b \text{ mod } n)) \text{ mod } n = (a * b) \text{ mod } n$

What about division?? \rightarrow Modular Inverse (**Extended Euclidean Algorithm**)

The extended Euclidean algorithm not only calculate the greatest common divisor d but also two additional integers x and y that satisfy the following equation. $ax + by = d = \text{gcd}(a, b)$

Note: x and y will have opposite signs

Note: Numbers should be coprime to get multiplicative inverse.

Q: Find multiplicative inverse of $24140 \text{ mod } 40902$?

Arithmetic Modulo 8

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

(a) Addition modulo 8

×	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	0	2	4	6	0	2	4	6
3	0	3	6	1	4	7	2	5
4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
5	0	5	2	7	4	1	6	3
6	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2
7	0	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

(b) Multiplication modulo 8

w	$-w$	w^{-1}
0	0	—
1	7	1
2	6	—
3	5	3
4	4	—
5	3	5
6	2	—
7	1	7

(c) Additive and multiplicative inverses modulo 8

Modular Arithmetic Properties

Define the set Z_n as the set of nonnegative integers less than n :
 $Z_n = \{0, 1, \dots, (n - 1)\}$ This is referred to as the set of residues, or residue classes (mod n). To be more precise, each integer in Z_n represents a residue class.

Table 4.3 Properties of Modular Arithmetic for Integers in Z_n

Property	Expression
Commutative Laws	$(w + x) \bmod n = (x + w) \bmod n$ $(w \times x) \bmod n = (x \times w) \bmod n$
Associative Laws	$[(w + x) + y] \bmod n = [w + (x + y)] \bmod n$ $[(w \times x) \times y] \bmod n = [w \times (x \times y)] \bmod n$
Distributive Law	$[w \times (x + y)] \bmod n = [(w \times x) + (w \times y)] \bmod n$
Identities	$(0 + w) \bmod n = w \bmod n$ $(1 \times w) \bmod n = w \bmod n$
Additive Inverse ($-w$)	For each $w \in Z_n$, there exists a z such that $w + z \equiv 0 \bmod n$

Group, Ring and Field

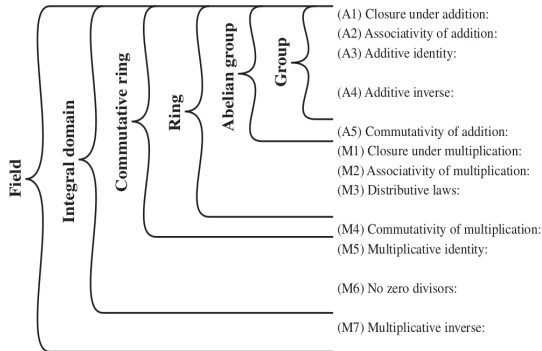


Figure 4.2 Groups, Ring, and Field

If a and b belong to S , then $a + b$ is also in S
 $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$ for all a, b, c in S
There is an element 0 in R such that
 $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$ for all a in S
For each a in S there is an element $-a$ in S
such that $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$
 $a + b = b + a$ for all a, b in S
If a and b belong to S , then ab is also in S
 $a(bc) = (ab)c$ for all a, b, c in S
 $a(b + c) = ab + ac$ for all a, b, c in S
 $(a + b)c = ac + bc$ for all a, b, c in S
 $ab = ba$ for all a, b in S
There is an element 1 in S such that
 $a1 = 1a = a$ for all a in S
If a, b in S and $ab = 0$, then either
 $a = 0$ or $b = 0$
If a belongs to S and $a \neq 0$, there is an
element a^{-1} in S such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$

Set of natural numbers $N \rightarrow$ Not a groups
Set of integers $Z \rightarrow$ Integral Domain
Set of integers modulo a prime?

Finite Galois Fields $GF(p)$

- Set of integers $\{0, 1, \dots, p - 1\}$ with arithmetic operations modulo prime p .
- The binary operations $+$ and $*$ are defined over the set. The operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division can be performed without leaving the set.
- Each element of the set other than 0 has a multiplicative inverse.

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	0	1	2	3	4	5

(a) Addition modulo 7

\times	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	0	2	4	6	1	3	5
3	0	3	6	2	5	1	4
4	0	4	1	5	2	6	3
5	0	5	3	1	6	4	2
6	0	6	5	4	3	2	1

(b) Multiplication modulo 7

Polynomial Arithmetic

let $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 2$ and $g(x) = x^2 - x + 1$

- 1 Ordinary polynomial arithmetic

$$f(x) + g(x) = x^3 + 2x^2 - x + 3$$

$$f(x) - g(x) = x^3 + x + 1$$

$$f(x) * g(x) = x^5 + 3x^2 - 2x + 2$$

- 2 Poly arithmetic with coefficients mod p (in $GF(P)$)

Could be modulo any prime, but we are interested in mod 2

$$f(x) + g(x) = x^3 + x + 1$$

$$f(x) - g(x) = x^3 + x + 1$$

$$f(x) * g(x) = x^5 + x^2$$

- 3 Poly arithmetic with coefficients mod p and polynomials mod $m(x)$

Polynomial Division & GCD

- Any polynomial can be written in the form:
$$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$$
- $r(x)$ can be interpreted as being a remainder
$$r(x) = f(x) \bmod g(x)$$
- If have no remainder say $g(x)$ divides $f(x)$
- If $g(x)$ has no divisors other than itself & 1 say it is **irreducible** (or prime) polynomial
- Arithmetic modulo an irreducible polynomial forms a field
- Can find greatest common divisor for polys
$$c(x) = \text{GCD}(a(x), b(x))$$
 if $c(x)$ is the poly of greatest degree which divides both $a(x)$, $b(x)$

Finite Fields of the form $GF(2^n)$

- Polynomials with coefficients modulo 2 whose degree is less than n
- Must reduce modulo an irreducible poly of degree n (for multiplication only)
- Forms a finite field
- Can always find an inverse
- Can extend Euclid's Inverse algorithm to find