



Chapter 4

Basic Concepts in Number Theory and Finite Fields

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Divisibility



- We say that a nonzero b **divides** a if $a = mb$ for some m , where a , b , and m are integers
- b divides a if there is no remainder on division
- The notation $b \mid a$ is commonly used to mean b divides a
- If $b \mid a$ we say that b is a **divisor** of a

The positive divisors of 24 are 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, and 24
 $13 \nmid 182$; $-5 \nmid 30$; $17 \nmid 289$; $-3 \nmid 33$; $17 \mid 0$

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Properties of Divisibility



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

$$11 \mid 66 \text{ and } 66 \mid 198 = 11 \mid 198$$



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Properties of Divisibility



- To see this last point, note that:
 - If $b \mid g$, then g is of the form $g = b * g_1$ for some integer g_1
 - If $b \mid h$, then h is of the form $h = b * h_1$ for some integer h_1
- So:
 - $mg + nh = mbg_1 + nbh_1 = b * (mg_1 + nh_1)$
and therefore b divides $mg + nh$

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

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

$$\text{To show } 7 \mid (3 * 14 + 2 * 63),$$

$$\text{we have } (3 * 14 + 2 * 63) = 7(3 * 2 + 2 * 9),$$

$$\text{and it is obvious that } 7 \mid (7(3 * 2 + 2 * 9)).$$



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Division Algorithm



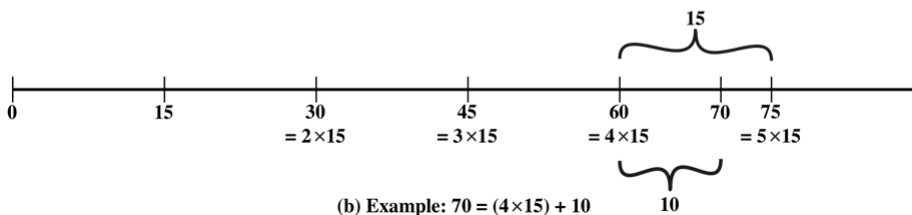
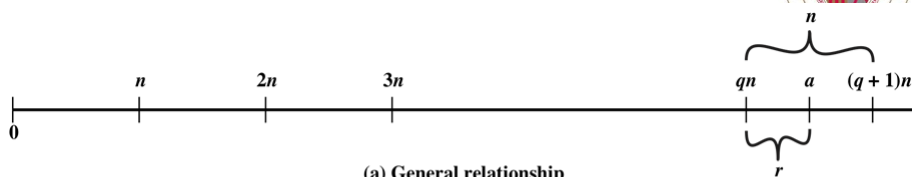
- Given any positive integer n and any nonnegative integer a , if we divide a by n we get an integer quotient q and an integer remainder r that obey the following relationship:

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



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Euclidean Algorithm



- One of the basic techniques of number theory
- Procedure for determining the greatest common divisor of two positive integers (see example below)
- Two integers are **relatively prime** if their only common positive integer factor is 1



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Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)



- The greatest common divisor of a and b is the largest integer that divides both a and b
- We can use the notation $\gcd(a,b)$ to mean the **greatest common divisor** of a and b
- We also define $\gcd(0,0) = 0$
- Positive integer c is said to be the gcd of a and b if:
 - c is a divisor of a and b
 - Any divisor of a and b is a divisor of c
- An equivalent definition is:

$$\gcd(a,b) = \max[k, \text{ such that } k \mid a \text{ and } k \mid b]$$



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GCD



- Because we require that the greatest common divisor be positive, $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(a,-b) = \gcd(-a,b) = \gcd(-a,-b)$
- In general, $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(|a|, |b|)$
 $\gcd(60, 24) = \gcd(60, -24) = 12$
- Also, because all nonzero integers divide 0, we have $\gcd(a,0) = |a|$
- We stated that two integers a and b are relatively prime if their only common positive integer factor is 1; this is equivalent to saying that a and b are relatively prime if $\gcd(a,b) = 1$

8 and 15 are relatively prime because the positive divisors of 8 are 1, 2, 4, and 8, and the positive divisors of 15 are 1, 3, 5, and 15. So 1 is the only integer on both lists.

Euclidean Algorithm Example



Dividend	Divisor	Quotient	Remainder
$a = 1160718174$	$b = 316258250$	$q_1 = 3$	$r_1 = 211943424$
$b = 316258250$	$r_1 = 211943424$	$q_2 = 1$	$r_2 = 104314826$
$r_1 = 211943424$	$r_2 = 104314826$	$q_3 = 2$	$r_3 = 3313772$
$r_2 = 104314826$	$r_3 = 3313772$	$q_4 = 31$	$r_4 = 1587894$
$r_3 = 3313772$	$r_4 = 1587894$	$q_5 = 2$	$r_5 = 137984$
$r_4 = 1587894$	$r_5 = 137984$	$q_6 = 11$	$r_6 = 70070$
$r_5 = 137984$	$r_6 = 70070$	$q_7 = 1$	$r_7 = 67914$
$r_6 = 70070$	$r_7 = 67914$	$q_8 = 1$	$r_8 = 2156$
$r_7 = 67914$	$r_8 = 2156$	$q_9 = 31$	$r_9 = 1078$
$r_8 = 2156$	$r_9 = 1078$	$q_{10} = 2$	$r_{10} = 0$

$\text{GCD}(1160718174, 316258250) = 1078$

Modular Arithmetic



- 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**

- thus, for any integer a :

$$a = qn + r \quad 0 \leq r < n; \quad q = [a/n]$$

$$a = [a/n] * n + (a \bmod n)$$

$$11 \bmod 7 = 4; \quad -11 \bmod 7 = 3$$

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Modular Arithmetic



- Congruent modulo n

- Two integers a and b are said to be **congruent modulo n** if $(a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n)$
- This is written as $a = b(\bmod n)$
- Note that if $a = 0(\bmod n)$, then $n \mid a$

$$73 = 4(\bmod 23); \quad 21 = -9(\bmod 10)$$

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Properties of Congruences



- Congruences have the following properties:
 1. $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if $n \mid (a - b)$
 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 $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$
- To demonstrate the first point, if $n \mid (a - b)$, then $(a - b) = kn$ for some k
 - So we can write $a = b + kn$
 - Therefore, $(a \bmod n) = (\text{remainder when } b + kn \text{ is divided by } n) = (\text{remainder when } b \text{ is divided by } n) = (b \bmod n)$

$23 \equiv 8 \pmod{5}$ because $23 - 8 = 15 = 5 * 3$
 $-11 \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ because $-11 - 5 = -16 = 8 * (-2)$
 $81 \equiv 0 \pmod{27}$ because $81 - 0 = 81 = 27 * 3$



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Modular Arithmetic



- Modular arithmetic exhibits the following properties:
 1. $[(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a + b) \bmod n$
 2. $[(a \bmod n) - (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a - b) \bmod n$
 3. $[(a \bmod n) * (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a * b) \bmod n$
- We demonstrate the first property:
 - Define $(a \bmod n) = r_a$ and $(b \bmod n) = r_b$. Then we can write $a = r_a + jn$ for some integer j and $b = r_b + kn$ for some integer k
 - Then:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (a + b) \bmod n &= (r_a + jn + r_b + kn) \bmod n \\
 &= (r_a + r_b + (k + j)n) \bmod n \\
 &= (r_a + r_b) \bmod n \\
 &= [(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)] \bmod n
 \end{aligned}$$



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Remaining Properties:



- Examples of the three remaining properties:

$11 \bmod 8 = 3$; $15 \bmod 8 = 7$
 $[(11 \bmod 8) + (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = 10 \bmod 8 = 2$
 $(11 + 15) \bmod 8 = 26 \bmod 8 = 2$
 $[(11 \bmod 8) - (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = -4 \bmod 8 = 4$
 $(11 - 15) \bmod 8 = -4 \bmod 8 = 4$
 $[(11 \bmod 8) * (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = 21 \bmod 8 = 5$
 $(11 * 15) \bmod 8 = 165 \bmod 8 = 5$



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Table 4.2(a)
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

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Table 4.2(b)

Multiplication Modulo 8

\times	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

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Additive/Multiplicative Inverses 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

$$W + (-w) = 0 \pmod{8}$$

$$W * W^{-1} = 1 \pmod{8}$$

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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 $w + z \equiv 0 \bmod n$

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Extended Euclidean Algorithm Example

i	r_i	q_i	x_i	Y_i
-1	1759		1	0
0	550		0	1
1	109	3	1	-3
2	5	5	-5	16
3	4	21	106	-339
4	1	1	-111	355
5	0	4		

Result: $d = 1$; $x = -111$; $y = 355$

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Groups



- A set of elements with a binary operation denoted by \bullet that associates to each ordered pair (a,b) of elements in G an element $(a \bullet b)$ in G , such that the following axioms are obeyed:
 - (A1) Closure:
 - If a and b belong to G , then $a \bullet b$ is also in G
 - (A2) Associative:
 - $a \bullet (b \bullet c) = (a \bullet b) \bullet c$ for all a, b, c in G
 - (A3) Identity element:
 - There is an element e in G such that $a \bullet e = e \bullet a = a$ for all a in G
 - (A4) Inverse element:
 - For each a in G , there is an element a' in G such that $a \bullet a' = a' \bullet a = e$
 - (A5) Commutative:
 - $a \bullet b = b \bullet a$ for all a, b in G



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Cyclic Group



- Exponentiation is defined within a group as a repeated application of the group operator, so that $a^3 = a \bullet a \bullet a$
- We define $a^0 = e$ as the identity element, and $a^{-n} = (a')^n$, where a' is the inverse element of a within the group
- A group G is **cyclic** if every element of G is a power a^k (k is an integer) of a fixed element
- The element a is said to **generate** the group G or to be a **generator** of G
- A cyclic group is always abelian and may be finite or infinite



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Rings



- A **ring** R , sometimes denoted by $\{R, +, *\}$, is a set of elements with two binary operations, called *addition* and *multiplication*, such that for all a, b, c in R the following axioms are obeyed: **(A1-A5)**

R is an abelian group with respect to addition; that is, R satisfies axioms A1 through A5. For the case of an additive group, we denote the identity element as 0 and the inverse of a as $-a$

(M1) Closure under multiplication:

If a and b belong to R , then ab is also in R

(M2) Associativity of multiplication:

$a(bc) = (ab)c$ for all a, b, c in R

(M3) Distributive laws:

$a(b + c) = ab + ac$ for all a, b, c in R

$(a + b)c = ac + bc$ for all a, b, c in R

- In essence, a ring is a set in which we can do addition, subtraction $[a - b = a + (-b)]$, and multiplication without leaving the set



Rings (cont.)



- A ring is said to be commutative if it satisfies the following additional condition:

(M4) Commutativity of multiplication:

$ab = ba$ for all a, b in R

- An *integral domain* is a commutative ring that obeys the following axioms.

(M5) Multiplicative identity:

There is an element 1 in R such that $a1 = 1a = a$ for all a in R

(M6) No zero divisors:

If a, b in R and $ab = 0$, then either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$



Fields



- A field F , sometimes denoted by $\{F, +, *\}$, is a set of elements with two binary operations, called *addition* and *multiplication*, such that for all a, b, c in F the following axioms are obeyed:

(A1-M6)

F is an integral domain; that is, F satisfies axioms A1 through A5 and M1 through M6

(M7) **Multiplicative inverse:**

For each a in F , except 0, there is an element a^{-1} in F such that $aa^{-1} = (a^{-1})a = 1$

- In essence, a field is a set in which we can do addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division without leaving the set. Division is defined with the following rule: $a/b = a(b^{-1})$

Familiar examples of fields are the rational numbers, the real numbers, and the complex numbers. Note that the set of all integers is not a field, because not every element of the set has a multiplicative inverse.



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Group, Ring, and Field



FIELD

- (A1) Closure under addition: If a and b belong to S , then $a + b$ is also in S
 (A2) Associativity of addition: $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$ for all a, b, c in S
 (A3) Additive identity: There is an element 0 in R such that $a + 0 = 0 + a = a$ for all a in S
 (A4) Additive inverse: For each a in S there is an element $-a$ in S such that $a + (-a) = (-a) + a = 0$

Integral Domain

- (A5) Commutativity of addition: $a + b = b + a$ for all a, b in S

Commutative Ring

- (M1) Closure under multiplication: If a and b belong to S , then ab is also in S
 (M2) Associativity of multiplication: $a(bc) = (ab)c$ for all a, b, c in S
 (M3) Distributive laws: $a(b + c) = ab + ac$ for all a, b, c in S
 $(a + b)c = ac + bc$ for all a, b, c in S

Ring

- (M4) Commutativity of multiplication: $ab = ba$ for all a, b in S

Abelian Group

- (M5) Multiplicative identity: There is an element 1 in S such that $a1 = 1a = a$ for all a in S
 (M6) No zero divisors: If a, b in S and $ab = 0$, then either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$

Group

- (M7) Multiplicative inverse: If a belongs to S and $a \neq 0$, there is an element a^{-1} in S such that $aa^{-1} = a^{-1}a = 1$



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Finite Fields of the Form $GF(p)$



- Finite fields play a crucial role in many cryptographic algorithms
- It can be shown that the order of a finite field must be a power of a prime p^n , where n is a positive integer
 - The only positive integers that are divisors of p are p and 1
- The finite field of order p^n is generally written $GF(p^n)$
 - GF stands for Galois field, in honor of the mathematician who first studied finite fields



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Arithmetic in $GF(7)$



+	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



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(a) Addition modulo 7

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Arithmetic in $GF(7)$



\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

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(b) Multiplication modulo 7

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Arithmetic in $GF(7)$



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

(c) Additive and multiplicative inverses modulo 7

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GF(p)



1. $GF(p)$ consists of p elements
2. 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
3. We have shown that the elements of $GF(p)$ are the integers $\{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ and that the arithmetic operations are addition and multiplication mod p



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Polynomial Arithmetic



- We can distinguish three classes of polynomial arithmetic:

- Ordinary polynomial arithmetic, using the basic rules of algebra

- Polynomial arithmetic in which the arithmetic on the coefficients is performed modulo p ; that is, the coefficients are in $GF(p)$

- Polynomial arithmetic in which the coefficients are in $GF(p)$, and the polynomials are defined modulo a polynomial $m(x)$ whose highest power is some integer n



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Ordinary Polynomial Arithmetic Example



As an example:

let $f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 2$ and $g(x) = x^2 - x + 1$,
where S is the set of integers

Then:

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

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

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



Figures 4.3a through 4.3c show the manual calculations

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$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 + x^2 + 2 \\ + (x^2 - x + 1) \\ \hline x^3 + 2x^2 - x + 3 \end{array}$$

(a) Addition

$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 + x^2 + 2 \\ - (x^2 - x + 1) \\ \hline x^3 + x + 1 \end{array}$$

(b) Subtraction

$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 + x^2 + 2 \\ \times (x^2 - x + 1) \\ \hline x^3 + x^2 + 2 \\ - x^4 - x^3 - 2x \\ \hline x^5 + x^4 + 2x^2 \\ \hline x^5 + 3x^2 - 2x + 2 \end{array}$$

(c) Multiplication

$$\begin{array}{r} x^2 - x + 1 \overline{) x^3 + x^2 + 2} \\ \underline{x^3 - x^2 + x} \\ 2x^2 - x + 2 \\ \underline{2x^2 - 2x + 2} \\ x \end{array}$$

(d) Division

Figure 4.3 Examples of Polynomial Arithmetic



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Polynomial Arithmetic With Coefficients in Z_p



- If each distinct polynomial is considered to be an element of the set, then that set is a ring
- When polynomial arithmetic is performed on polynomials over a field, then division is possible
 - Note: this does not mean that *exact division* is possible
- If we attempt to perform polynomial division over a coefficient set that is not a field, we find that division is not always defined
 - Even if the coefficient set is a field, polynomial division is not necessarily exact
 - With the understanding that remainders are allowed, we can say that polynomial division is possible if the coefficient set is a field



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Polynomial Division



- We can write any polynomial in the form:

$$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$$
 - $r(x)$ can be interpreted as being a remainder
 - So $r(x) = f(x) \bmod g(x)$
- If there is no remainder we can say $g(x)$ **divides** $f(x)$
 - Written as $g(x) \mid f(x)$
 - We can say that $g(x)$ is a **factor** of $f(x)$
 - Or $g(x)$ is a **divisor** of $f(x)$
- A polynomial $f(x)$ over a field F is called **irreducible** if and only if $f(x)$ cannot be expressed as a product of two polynomials, both over F , and both of degree lower than that of $f(x)$
 - An irreducible polynomial is also called a **prime polynomial**



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Example of Polynomial Arithmetic Over GF(2)

$$\begin{array}{r} x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \\ + (x^3 + x + 1) \\ \hline x^7 + x^5 + x^4 \end{array}$$

(a) Addition

$$\begin{array}{r} x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \\ - (x^3 + x + 1) \\ \hline x^7 + x^5 + x^4 \end{array}$$

(b) Subtraction

$$\begin{array}{r} x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \\ \times (x^3 + x + 1) \\ \hline x^7 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \\ x^8 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^2 + x \\ x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^4 + x^3 \\ \hline x^{10} + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + 1 \end{array}$$

(c) Multiplication

$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 + x + 1 \overline{) x^4 + 1} \\ \underline{x^3 + x + 1} \\ x^4 + 1 \\ \underline{x^3 + x + 1} \\ x^4 + 1 \\ \underline{x^3 + x + 1} \\ x^4 + 1 \\ \underline{x^3 + x + 1} \\ x^4 + 1 \end{array}$$

(d) Division



Polynomial GCD

- The polynomial $c(x)$ is said to be the greatest common divisor of $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ if the following are true:
 - $c(x)$ divides both $a(x)$ and $b(x)$
 - Any divisor of $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ is a divisor of $c(x)$
- An equivalent definition is:
 - $\gcd[a(x), b(x)]$ is the polynomial of maximum degree that divides both $a(x)$ and $b(x)$
- The Euclidean algorithm can be extended to find the greatest common divisor of two polynomials whose coefficients are elements of a field



Arithmetic in $GF(2^3)$



		000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
	+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
000	0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
001	1	1	0	3	2	5	4	7	6
010	2	2	3	0	1	6	7	4	5
011	3	3	2	1	0	7	6	5	4
100	4	4	5	6	7	0	1	2	3
101	5	5	4	7	6	1	0	3	2
110	6	6	7	4	5	2	3	0	1
111	7	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0

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(a) Addition

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Arithmetic in $GF(2^3)$



		000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
	×	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
001	1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
010	2	0	2	4	6	3	1	7	5
011	3	0	3	6	5	7	4	1	2
100	4	0	4	3	7	6	2	5	1
101	5	0	5	1	4	2	7	3	6
110	6	0	6	7	1	5	3	2	4
111	7	0	7	5	2	1	6	4	3

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(b) Multiplication

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Arithmetic in $GF(2^3)$



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

(c) Additive and multiplicative inverses



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Polynomial Arithmetic Modulo $(x^3 + x + 1)$



	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
+	0	1	x	$x+1$	x^2	x^2+1	x^2+x	x^2+x+1
000 0	0	1	x	$x+1$	x^2	x^2+1	x^2+x	x^2+x+1
001 1	1	0	$x+1$	x	x^2+1	x^2	x^2+x+1	x^2+x
010 x	x	$x+1$	0	1	x^2+x	x^2+x+1	x^2	x^2+1
011 $x+1$	$x+1$	x	1	0	x^2+x+1	x^2+x	x^2+1	x^2
100 x^2	x^2	x^2+1	x^2+x	x^2+x+1	0	1	x	$x+1$
101 x^2+1	x^2+1	x^2	x^2+x+1	x^2+x	1	0	$x+1$	x
110 x^2+x	x^2+x	x^2+x+1	x^2	x^2+1	x	$x+1$	0	1
111 x^2+x+1	x^2+x+1	x^2+x	x^2+1	x^2	$x+1$	x	1	0

(a) Addition

	000	001	010	011	100	101	110	111
\times	0	1	x	$x+1$	x^2	x^2+1	x^2+x	x^2+x+1
000 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
001 1	0	1	x	$x+1$	x^2	x^2+1	x^2+x	x^2+x+1
010 x	0	x	x^2	x^2+x	$x+1$	1	x^2+x+1	x^2+1
011 $x+1$	0	$x+1$	x^2+x	x^2+1	x^2+x+1	x^2	1	x
100 x^2	0	x^2	$x+1$	x^2+x+1	x^2+x	x	x^2+1	1
101 x^2+1	0	x^2+1	1	x^2	x	x^2+x+1	$x+1$	x^2+x
110 x^2+x	0	x^2+x	x^2+x+1	1	x^2+1	$x+1$	x	x^2
111 x^2+x+1	0	x^2+x+1	x^2+1	x	1	x^2+x	x^2	$x+1$

(b) Multiplication

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Extended Euclid $[(x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1), (x^7 + x + 1)]$

Initialization	$a(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1; v_{-1}(x) = 1; w_{-1}(x) = 0$ $b(x) = x^7 + x + 1; v_0(x) = 0; w_0(x) = 1$
Iteration 1	$q_1(x) = x; r_1(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + 1$ $v_1(x) = 1; w_1(x) = x$
Iteration 2	$q_2(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1; r_2(x) = x$ $v_2(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1; w_2(x) = x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$
Iteration 3	$q_3(x) = x^3 + x^2 + x; r_3(x) = 1$ $v_3(x) = x^6 + x^2 + x + 1; w_3(x) = x^7$
Iteration 4	$q_4(x) = x; r_4(x) = 0$ $v_4(x) = x^7 + x + 1; w_4(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$
Result	$d(x) = r_3(x) = \gcd(a(x), b(x)) = 1$ $w(x) = w_3(x) = (x^7 + x + 1)^{-1} \bmod (x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1) = x^7$



Computational Considerations



- Since coefficients are 0 or 1, they can represent any such polynomial as a bit string
- Addition becomes XOR of these bit strings
- Multiplication is shift and XOR
 - cf long-hand multiplication
- Modulo reduction is done by repeatedly substituting highest power with remainder of irreducible polynomial (also shift and XOR)



Using a Generator



- A **generator** g of a finite field F of order q (contains q elements) is an element whose first $q-1$ powers generate all the nonzero elements of F
 - The elements of F consist of $0, g^0, g^1, \dots, g^{q-2}$
- Consider a field F defined by a polynomial fx
 - An element b contained in F is called a **root** of the polynomial if $f(b) = 0$
- Finally, it can be shown that a root g of an irreducible polynomial is a generator of the finite field defined on that polynomial



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Generator for $GF(2^3)$ using x^3+x+1

Power Representation	Polynomial Representation	Binary Representation	Decimal (Hex) Representation
0	0	000	0
$g^0 (= g^7)$	1	001	1
g^1	g	010	2
g^2	g^2	100	4
g^3	$g + 1$	011	3
g^4	$g^2 + g$	110	6
g^5	$g^2 + g + 1$	111	7
g^6	$g^2 + 1$	101	5



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GF(2³) Arithmetic Using Generator for the Polynomial (x³ + x + 1)



		000	001	010	100	011	110	111	101
+		0	1	G	g ²	g ³	g ⁴	g ⁵	g ⁶
000	0	0	1	G	g ²	g + 1	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1	g ² + 1
001	1	1	0	g + 1	g ² + 1	g	g ² + g + 1	g ² + g	g ²
010	g	g	g + 1	0	g ² + g	1	g ²	g ² + 1	g ² + g + 1
100	g ²	g ²	g ² + 1	g ² + g	0	g ² + g + 1	g	g + 1	1
011	g ³	g + 1	g	1	g ² + g + 1	0	g ² + 1	g ²	g ² + g
110	g ⁴	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1	g ²	g	g ² + 1	0	1	g + 1
111	g ⁵	g ² + g + 1	g ² + g	g ² + 1	g + 1	g ²	1	0	g
101	g ⁶	g ² + 1	g ²	g ² + g + 1	1	g ² + g	g + 1	g	0

(a) Addition

		000	001	010	100	011	110	111	101
×		0	1	G	g ²	g ³	g ⁴	g ⁵	g ⁶
000	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
001	1	0	1	G	g ²	g + 1	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1	g ² + 1
010	g	0	g	g ²	g + 1	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1	g ² + 1	1
100	g ²	0	g ²	g + 1	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1	g ² + 1	1	g
011	g ³	0	g + 1	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1	g ² + 1	1	g	g ²
110	g ⁴	0	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1	g ² + 1	1	g	g ²	g + 1
111	g ⁵	0	g ² + g + 1	g ² + 1	1	g	g ²	g + 1	g ² + g
101	g ⁶	0	g ² + 1	1	g	g ²	g + 1	g ² + g	g ² + g + 1

(b) Multiplication

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Summary



- Divisibility and the division algorithm
- The Euclidean algorithm
- Modular arithmetic
- Groups, rings, and fields
- Finite fields of the form GF(p)
- Polynomial arithmetic
- Finite fields of the form GF(2ⁿ)

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