

# Discrete Mathematics

## CS 2610

March 17, 2024

# Number Theory

- ◆ Temel sayı teorisi, genellikle tam sayılar ve bu sayıların özellikleri veya rasyonel sayılarla ilgilenir.
- ◆ Özellikle tam sayılar arasındaki bölünebilirlik konularını ele alır.  
Uygulama Alanları: Kriptografi, E-ticaret, Ödeme Sistemleri, Rastgele Sayı Üretimi, Kodlama Teorisi, Hash Fonksiyonları.
- ◆ Some Applications
  - Cryptography
    - ◆ E-commerce
    - ◆ Payment systems
    - ◆ ...
  - Random number generation
  - Coding theory
  - Hash functions (as opposed to stew functions ☺)

# Number Theory - Division

Let  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  be integers, st  $a \neq 0$ , we say that  
"a divides b" or  $a|b$  if there is an integer  $c$  where  
$$b = a \cdot c.$$

◆  $a$  and  $c$  are said to **divide  $b$**  (or are **factors**)

$$a | b \wedge c | b$$

◆  $b$  is a **multiple** of both  $a$  and  $c$

Example:

$$5 | 30 \text{ and } 5 | 55 \text{ but } 5 \nmid 27$$

# Number Theory - Division

**Theorem 3.4.1:** for all  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

1.  $a|0$
2.  $(a|b \wedge a|c) \rightarrow a|(b+c)$
3.  $a|b \rightarrow a|bc$  for all integers  $c$
4.  $(a|b \wedge b|c) \rightarrow a|c$

Proof: (2)  $a|b$  means  $b = ap$ , and  $a|c$  means  $c = aq$

$$b + c = ap + aq = a(p + q)$$

therefore,  $a|(b + c)$ , or  $(b + c) = ar$  where  $r = p+q$

Proof: (4)  $a|b$  means  $b = ap$ , and  $b|c$  means  $c = bq$

$$c = bq = apq$$

therefore,  $a|c$  or  $c = ar$  where  $r = pq$

# Division

Remember long division?

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 \\ 30 \overline{) 109} \\ \underline{90} \\ 19 \end{array}$$

$$109 = 30 \cdot 3 + 19$$

$$a = dq + r \text{ (dividend = divisor} \cdot \text{quotient} + \text{remainder)}$$

# The Division Algorithm

**Division Algorithm Theorem:** Let  $a$  be an integer, and  $d$  be a positive integer. There are unique integers  $q, r$  with  $r \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, d-1\}$  (ie,  $0 \leq r < d$ ) satisfying

$$a = dq + r$$

- ◆  $d$  is the divisor (bölen)
- ◆  $q$  is the quotient (bölüm)  
 $q = a \text{ div } d$
- ◆  $r$  is the remainder (kalan)  
 $r = a \text{ mod } d$

# Mod Operation

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $b > 1$ .

$$a = q \cdot b + r, \text{ where } 0 \leq r < b$$

Then  $a \bmod b$  denotes the remainder  $r$  from the division "algorithm" with dividend  $a$  and divisor  $b$

$$109 \bmod 30 = ?$$

$$\diamond 0 \leq a \bmod b \leq b - 1$$

# Modular Arithmetic

◆ Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Then  $a$  is congruent (denk) to  $b$  modulo  $m$  iff  $m \mid (a - b)$ .

◆ Notation:

- " $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ " reads  $a$  is congruent to  $b$  modulo  $m$
- " $a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$ " reads  $a$  is not congruent to  $b$  modulo  $m$ .

◆ Examples:

- $5 \equiv 25 \pmod{10}$
- $5 \not\equiv 25 \pmod{3}$



# Modular Arithmetic

⊕ **Theorem 3.4.3:** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then  
 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  iff  $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$

Proof: (1) given  $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$  we have

$$a = ms + r \text{ or } r = a - ms,$$

$$b = mp + r \text{ or } r = b - mp,$$

$$a - ms = b - mp$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{which means } a - b &= ms - mp \\ &= m(s - p) \end{aligned}$$

so  $m \mid (a - b)$  which means

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

# Modular Arithmetic

**Theorem 3.4.3:** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then  
 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  iff  $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$

Proof: (2) given  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  we have  $m \mid (a - b)$

let  $a = mq_a + r_a$  and  $b = mq_b + r_b$

so,  $m \mid ((mq_a + r_a) - (mq_b + r_b))$

or  $m \mid m(q_a - q_b) + (r_a - r_b)$

recall  $0 \leq r_a < m$  and  $0 \leq r_b < m$

therefore  $(r_a - r_b)$  must be 0

that is, the two remainders are the same

which is the same as saying

$a \bmod m = b \bmod m$

# Modular Arithmetic

**Theorem 3.4.4:** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then:  
 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  iff there exists a  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  st

$$a = b + km.$$

Proof:  $a = b + km$  means  
 $a - b = km$  which means  
 $m \mid (a - b)$  which is the same as saying  
 $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$   
(to complete the proof, reverse the steps)

Examples:

$$27 \equiv 12 \pmod{5}$$

$$27 = 12 + 5k \quad k = 3$$

$$105 \equiv -45 \pmod{10}$$

$$105 = -45 + 10k \quad k = 15$$

# Modular Arithmetic

**Theorem 3.4.5:** Let  $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Then if  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ , then:

1.  $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$ ,
2.  $a - c \equiv b - d \pmod{m}$ ,
3.  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

Proof:  $a = b + k_1m$  and  $c = d + k_2m$

$$a + c = b + d + k_1m + k_2m$$

$$\text{or } a + c = b + d + m(k_1 + k_2)$$

which is

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$$

others are similar

# Modular Arithmetic - examples

Hash Functions: record access scheme for finding a record very quickly based on some key value in the record. That is, there is a mapping between the key value and the memory location for the record.

Ex.  $h(k) = k \bmod m$  (an onto (örten) function, why?)

$k$  is the record's key value

$m$  is the number of memory locations

Collisions occur since  $h$  is not one-to-one (birebir).

What then? Typically, invoke a secondary hash function or some other scheme (sequential search).

$f(a)=3$  ve  $f(b)=3$  ise hash funct. Linked list ile bağılıyorsun genellikle

# Modular Arithmetic - examples

Pseudorandom numbers: generated using the linear congruential method (doğrusal eşlik metodu)

$m$  - modulus

$a$  - multiplier

$c$  - increment

$x_0$  - seed

$$2 \leq a < m, \quad 0 \leq c < m, \quad 0 \leq x_0 < m$$

Generate the set of PRNs  $\{x_n\}$ , asal sayı, with  $0 \leq x_n < m$  for all  $n$

$$X_{n+1} = (aX_n + c) \bmod m$$

(divide by  $m$  to get PRNs between 0 and 1)

# Pseudonumber

1. Bir başlangıç değeri (seed) seçiyoruz:

$$X_0$$

2. Formülü çalıştırıyoruz:

$$X_1 = (a \cdot X_0 + c) \bmod m$$

$$X_2 = (a \cdot X_1 + c) \bmod m$$

$$X_3 = (a \cdot X_2 + c) \bmod m$$

...

3. Her  $X_n$  bir psödo-random sayıdır.

4. Eğer  $0-1$  arasında istiyorsak:

$$rn = X_n / m$$

$m = 9, a = 2, c = 5$ , başlangıç  $X_0 = 1$  olsun:

$$X_1 = (2 \cdot 1 + 5) \bmod 9 = 7$$

$$X_2 = (2 \cdot 7 + 5) \bmod 9 = 1 \leftarrow \text{döngüye girdi}$$

$$X_{n+1} = (a \cdot X_n + c) \bmod m$$

Bu, bir sonraki "rastgele" sayıyı üretmek için kullanılan deterministik bir kuraldır.

- $X_n \rightarrow$  mevcut sayı
- $X_{n+1} \rightarrow$  bir sonraki sayı
- $a \rightarrow$  çarpan (multiplier)
- $c \rightarrow$  ek sabit (increment)
- $m \rightarrow$  modül (genelde büyük bir sayı veya asal sayı)

# Modular Arithmetic - examples

cryptology: secret codes, encryption/decryption

Caesar encryption (positional 3-offset scheme)

For our 26 letters, assign integers 0-25

$$f(p) = (p + 3) \bmod 26$$

"PARK" maps to integers 15, 0, 17, 10 which are then encrypted into 18, 3, 20, 13 or "SDUN"

use the inverse  $(p - 3) \bmod 26$  to decrypt back to "PARK"



# Number Theory – Primes (Asal)

A positive integer  $n > 1$  is called **prime** if it is only divisible by 1 and itself (i.e., only has 1 and itself as its positive factors).

Example: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 97

A number  $n \geq 2$  which isn't prime is called **composite**.  
(Iff there exists an  $a$  such that  $a|n$  and  $1 < a < n$ )

Example:

All even numbers  $> 2$  are composite.

By convention, 1 is neither **prime** or **composite** (birleşik sayı).

# Number Theory - Primes

## Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Tüm birleşik sayıları asal sayıların artan sıralı çarpımı cinsinden gösterebiliriz

Examples:

- ♦  $2 = 2$
- ♦  $4 = 2 \cdot 2$
- ♦  $100 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5$
- ♦  $200 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5$
- ♦  $999 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 37$

# Number Theory – Primality Testing

◆ How do you check whether a positive integer  $n$  is prime?

◆ Solution:

Start testing to see if prime  $p$  divides  $n$  ( $2|n$ ,  $3|n$ ,  $5|n$ , etc). When one is found, use the dividend and begin again. Repeat.

Find prime factorization for 7007.

2, 3, 5 don't divide 7007 but 7 does (1001)

Now, 7 also divides 1001 (143)

7 doesn't divide 143 but 11 does (13) and we're done.

# Number Theory - Primes

**Theorem 3.5.2** : If  $n$  is composite, then it has a prime factor (divisor) that is less than or equal to  $\sqrt{n}$

Proof: if  $n$  is composite, we know it has a factor  $a$  with  $1 < a < n$ . IOW  $n = ab$  for some  $b > 1$ . So, either  $a \leq \sqrt{n}$  or  $b \leq \sqrt{n}$  (note, if  $a > \sqrt{n}$  and  $b > \sqrt{n}$  then  $ab > n$ , nope). OK, both  $a$  and  $b$  are divisors of  $n$ , and  $n$  has a positive divisor not exceeding  $\sqrt{n}$ . Bu bölen ya asaldır ya da kendisinden küçük bir asal böleni vardır. Her iki durumda da  $n$ 'nin  $\leq \sqrt{n}$  asal böleni vardır.

\*\*\* Bir tamsayı, kareköküne eşit veya daha küçük herhangi bir asal sayıya bölünemiyorsa asaldır.

# Number Theory – Prime Numbers

**Theorem 3.5.4:** The number of primes not exceeding  $n$  is asymptotic to  $n/\log n$ .

i.e.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pi(n)/(n \log n) \rightarrow 1$ , doğal logaritma

$1000/\log(1000)$ .  $\Pi(n)$  gerçekte ilgili sayıya kadar olan asal sayı adedi

$\Pi(n)$ : number of prime numbers less than or equal to  $n$

$n$	$\Pi(n)$	$n/\log n$
1000	168	145
10000	1229	1086
100000	9592	8686
1000000	78498	72382
10000000	664579	620420
100000000	5761455	5428681

# Number Theory – Prime Numbers

There are still plenty of things we don't know about primes:

- \* no cool function gives us primes, not even

$$f(n) = n^2 - n + 41$$

- \* Goldbach's conjecture (varsayım) : every even integer  $n$  where  $n > 2$  is the sum of two primes  
( $18=13+5$  ;  $24= 19+5$ ;  $32=29+3$ )

- \* twin prime conjecture: there are infinitely many twin primes (ikiz asal) (pairs  $p$  and  $p+2$ , both prime 5 ve 7 gibi)

## Greatest Common Divisor (ortak bölenlerin en büyüğü, obeb)

Let  $a, b$  be integers,  $a \neq 0$ ,  $b \neq 0$ , not both zero.

The **greatest common divisor** of  $a$  and  $b$  is the biggest number  $d$  which divides both  $a$  and  $b$ .

Example:  $\gcd(42, 72)$

Positive divisors of 42: 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 14, 21

Positive divisors of 72: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9, 12, 24, 36

$$\gcd(42, 72) = 6$$

# Finding the GCD

◆ If the prime factorizations are written as

$$a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_n^{a_n} \quad \text{and} \quad b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_n^{b_n}$$

then the GCD is given by:

$$\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{\min(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2, b_2)} \dots p_n^{\min(a_n, b_n)}.$$

Example:

$$\bullet a = 42 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$$

$$= 2^1 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 7^1$$

$$\bullet b = 72 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3$$

$$= 2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 7^0$$

$$\bullet \gcd(42, 72)$$

$$= 2^1 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 7^0 = 2 \cdot 3 = 6$$



## Least Common Multiple (ortak katların en küçüğü, okek)

a ve b tarafından ortak bölünebilen en küçük sayıya ortak katların en küçüğü denir

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = p_1^{\max(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\max(a_2, b_2)} \dots p_n^{\max(a_n, b_n)}.$$

$$\text{Example: } \text{lcm}(2^3 3^5 7^2, 2^4 3^3) = 2^4 3^5 7^2$$

# Least Common Multiple

Let  $a$  and  $b$  be positive integers. Then

$$ab = \gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b)$$

# Modular Exponentiation

- ◆ Let  $b$  be base,  $n, m$  large integers,  $b < m$ .
- ◆ « $b$ » taban, « $n$ » ve « $m$ » büyük sayılar olsun,  $b < m$
- ◆ The modular exponentiation is computed as

$$b^n \bmod m$$

Fundamental in cryptography: RSA encryption

How can we compute the modular exponentiation ?

# Modular Exponentiation

For large  $b$ ,  $n$  and  $m$ , we can compute the modular exponentiation using the following property:

$$a \cdot b \bmod m = (a \bmod m) (b \bmod m) \bmod m$$

$$(\text{Mod}5)91 = 13 \cdot 7 = 3 \cdot 2 \pmod{5} = 1$$

$$\text{Therefore, } b^n \pmod{m} = (b \bmod m)^n \pmod{m}$$

In fact, we can take  $(\bmod m)$  after each multiplication to keep all values low.

# Example

◆ Find  $37^5 \pmod{5}$

$$37^5 \pmod{5} = (37 \pmod{5})^5 \pmod{5} = 2^5 \pmod{5}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2^5 \pmod{5} &= 2 * 2 * 2 * 2 * 2 \pmod{5} = 4 * 2 * 2 * 2 \pmod{5} = \\ &8 * 2 * 2 \pmod{5} = 3 * 2 * 2 \pmod{5} = 6 * 2 \pmod{5} = \\ &1 * 2 \pmod{5} = 2 \pmod{5} = 2 \end{aligned}$$

Can you see a way to shorten this process?

Use results you have already calculated

$$2^5 \pmod{5} = 4 * 4 * 2 \pmod{5} = 16 * 2 \pmod{5} = 2$$

For large exponents this can make a **big** difference!

# örnekler

◆  $3^{2000} \bmod 20 = ?$

◆  $33^{125} \bmod 7 = ?$

Fermat'nın Küçük Teoremi'ni uygulayalım: Fermat'nın Küçük Teoremi'ne göre, asal bir  $p$  sayısı ve  $a$  sayısı  $p$ 'ye tam bölünmüyorsa:

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

Burada  $p = 7$ ,  $a = 5$ , yani:

$$5^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

# Cryptography

- ◆ Cryptology is the study of secret (coded) messages.
- *Cryptography* - Methods for encrypting (şifreleme) and decrypting (şifre çözme) secret messages using **secret keys**.
  - ◆ *Encryption, şifreleme*, is the process of transforming a message to an unreadable form.
  - ◆ *Decryption, çözümleme*, is the process of transforming an encrypted message back to its original form.
  - ◆ Both **encryption** and **decryption** require the use of some secret knowledge known as the **secret key**.
- *Cryptoanalysis* - Methods for decrypting an encrypted message without knowing the secret keys.

# Cryptography - Caesar's shift cypher

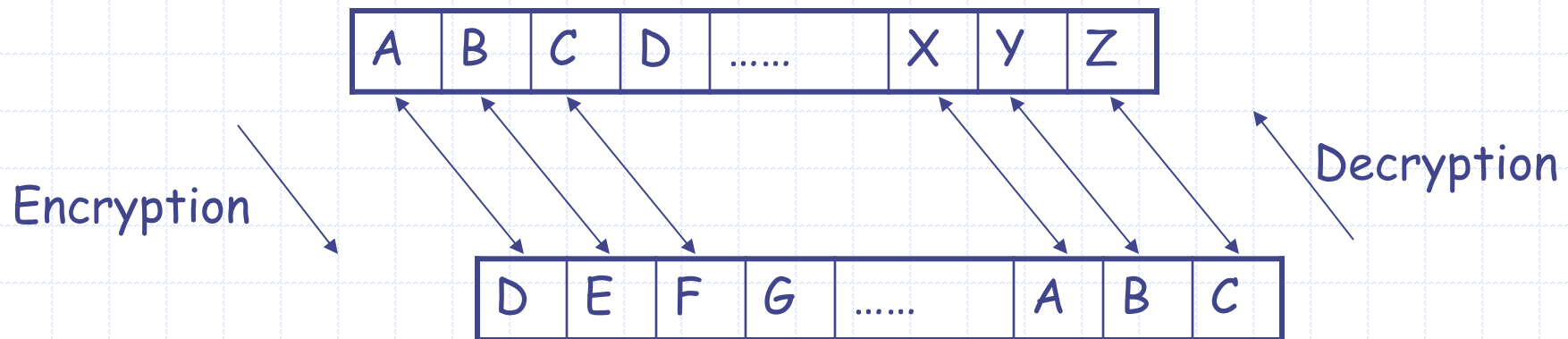
## Encryption

- Shift each letter in the message three letters forward in the alphabet.

## Decryption

- Shift each letter in the message three letters backward in the alphabet.

hello world → koor zruog





# Public Key Cryptography

## ◆ *Public key cryptosystems use two keys*

- **Public key** to encrypt the message
  - ◆ Known to everybody
- **Private Key** to decrypt the encrypted message (şifreyi çözmek için kullanılan ve sadece yetkili kişide olan gizli anahtar)
  - ◆ It is kept secret.
  - ◆ It is computationally infeasible to guess the Private Key

## ◆ RSA one of the most widely used *Public key cryptosystem*

Ronald Rivest, Adi Shamir, and Leonard Adleman

# RSA Basis

◆ Let  $p$  and  $q$  be two large primes, and  $e \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$

and  $d$  (the decryption key) is an integer such that  $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$

◆  $p$  and  $q$  are large primes, over 100 digits each.

## ◆ Public Key

- $n=pq$  (the modulus)
- $e$  (the public exponent)

- It is common to choose a small public exponent for the public key.

## ◆ Private Key

- $d$  (the private exponent)

# RSA

## ◆ Encryption

- Let  $M$  be a message such that  $M < n$
- Compute  $C = M^e \bmod n$ 
  - ◆ This can be done using *Binary Modular Exponentiation*

## ◆ Decryption

- Compute  $M = C^d \bmod pq$

# Why Does RSA Work?

- ◆ RSA yönteminin doğruluğu, ne  $p$  ne de  $q$ 'nin  $M$ 'yi bölmediği varsayımından (ki bu çoğu mesaj için doğru olacaktır) ve aşağıdaki iki teoremden kaynaklanmaktadır.

- ◆ 1. Fermat's Little Theorem

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

$$p=7, a=9, 9^6 \pmod{7} = 2^6 \pmod{7} = 1$$

- ◆ 2. The Chinese Remainder Theorem

Let  $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n$  be pairwise relatively prime positive integers. The system (aralarında asal)

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1} \quad x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2} \quad \dots \quad x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution modulo  $m_1 m_2 \dots m_n$  - i.e., there is only one  $x$  such that  $0 \leq x < m_1 m_2 \dots m_n$  that satisfies the above congruencies. (yukardaki eşitlikleri)

# Çinli Kalan Teoremi

## Çinlilerin kalan teoremi

**Çinlilerin kalan teoremi**, "3'e bölündüğünde 2, 5'e bölündüğünde 3, 7'ye bölündüğünde 4 kalanını veren sayıyı bulun" tipinden problemleri çözmek için kullanılan teorem. buna göre: 3'e bölündüğünde 2 kalanını veren sayılar  $3k+2$  şeklindedir. (2, 5, 8, ...) 5'e bölündüğünde 3 kalanını veren sayılar  $5l+3$  şeklindedir. (3, 8, 13, ...) bu durumda sayımız  $15m+8$  şeklindedir. (8, 23, 38, 53, ...) 7'ye bölündüğünde 4 kalanını veren sayılar  $7.n+4$  şeklindedir. (4, 11, 18, ..., 46, 53, ...) bu durumda da sayımız  $105.p+53$  şeklindedir.

$n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  pozitif, çiftli aralarında asal **Tamsayı** olsun. Bu durumda, Verilen herhangi  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k$  tamsayıları için bir  $x$  tamsayısı vardır ki sistemin eşzamanlı uygun bir çözümüdür.

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{n_2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv a_k \pmod{n_k}$$

Bundan başka, Tüm Çözümler  $x$  Bu sistem uyumlu olan modulo  $N = n_1 n_2 \dots n_k$ .

Böylece  $x \equiv y \pmod{n_i}$  tüm  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , ancak ve ancak  $x \equiv y \pmod{N}$ .

Sometimes, the simultaneous congruences can be solved even if the  $n_i$ 's are not pairwise coprime. A solution  $x$  exists if and only if:

$$a_i \equiv a_j \pmod{\gcd(n_i, n_j)} \quad \text{for all } i \text{ and } j.$$

All solutions  $x$  are then congruent modulo the least common multiple of the  $n_i$ .

Versions of the Chinese remainder theorem were also known to **Brahmagupta** (7th century), and appear in **Fibonacci's Liber Abaci** (1202).

# Çinli Kalan Teoremi

**İspat.**  $n = n_1 n_2 \cdots n_k$  olsun.

$1 \leq i \leq k$  için  $\left(\frac{n}{n_i}, n_i\right) = 1$  olduğundan  $\frac{n}{n_i} s_i \equiv r_i \pmod{n_i}$  denklik sistemini sağlayan  $s_i$  vardır.

$$x \equiv \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{n}{n_i} s_i \pmod{n}.$$

Aşağıdaki denklik sistemini çözünüz.

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

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{9}$$

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{10}.$$

**Çözüm.**  $n = 7 \cdot 9 \cdot 10 = 630$ ,  $\frac{n}{n_1} = 90$ ,  $\frac{n}{n_2} = 70$  ve  $\frac{n}{n_3} = 63$  olduğundan

$$90s_1 \equiv 2 \pmod{7} \Rightarrow 6s_1 \equiv 2 \pmod{7} \Rightarrow s_1 \equiv 6^{-1} \cdot 2 \equiv 6 \cdot 2 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

$$70s_2 \equiv 4 \pmod{9} \Rightarrow 7s_2 \equiv 4 \pmod{9} \Rightarrow s_2 \equiv 7^{-1} \cdot 4 \equiv 4 \cdot 4 \equiv 7 \pmod{9}$$

$$63s_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{10} \Rightarrow 3s_3 \equiv 1 \pmod{10} \Rightarrow s_3 \equiv 3^{-1} \cdot 1 \equiv 7 \pmod{10}$$

bulunur. Buradan  $x \equiv \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{n}{n_i} s_i = 90 \cdot 5 + 70 \cdot 7 + 63 \cdot 7 = 1381$  olur. Çözüm mod 630 da tek olduğundan  $x = 1381 \equiv 121 \pmod{630}$  elde edilir.

# Why Does RSA Work?

- ◆ Since  $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ , we can conclude that  $de = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$ .
- ◆ Therefore  $C^d \equiv (M^e)^d = M^{de} = M^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n}$ .
- ◆ Assuming  $\gcd(M, p) = \gcd(M, q) = 1$ , we can conclude (by Fermat's Little Theorem) that  $M$ ,  $p-1$ 'e tam bölünmüyor (1 kalıyor)
  - $C^d \equiv M \cdot (M^{p-1})^{k(q-1)} \equiv M \cdot 1 \equiv M \pmod{p}$
  - $C^d \equiv M \cdot (M^{q-1})^{k(p-1)} \equiv M \cdot 1 \equiv M \pmod{q}$
- ◆ By the Chinese Remainder Theorem, we can conclude that
  - $C^d \equiv M \pmod{pq}$ 
    - ◆ Recall that  $n = pq$

# RSA Example

- ◆ Let  $p = 61$  and  $q = 53$ 
  - Then  $n = pq = 3233$
- ◆ Let  $e = 17$  and  $d = 2753$ 
  - $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
  - Note  $17 * 2753 = 46801 = 1 + 15 * 60 * 52$
- ◆ Public keys:  $e, n$
- ◆ Private key:  $d$
- ◆ Encrypt 123
  - $123^{17} \pmod{3233} = 855$
- ◆ Decrypt 855
  - $855^{2753} \pmod{3233} = 123$  , tek bir  $d$  var bunu sağlayan
- ◆ We need clever exponentiation techniques!



# Breaking RSA

How to break the system

1. An attacker discovers the numbers  $p$  and  $q$ 
  - Find the prime factorization of  $n$
  - Computationally difficult when  $p$  and  $q$  are chosen properly.
  - The modulus  $n$  must be at least 2048 bits long
    - ◆ On May 10, 2005, **RSA-200**, a 200-digit number module was factored into two 100-digit primes by researchers in Germany
      - The effort started during Christmas 2003 using several computers in parallel.
      - Equivalent of 55 years on a single 2.2 GHz Opteron CPU

# RSA – In practice

◆ How to break the system

2. Find  $e$ -th roots mod  $n$ .

- The encrypted message  $C$  is obtained as

- $C = M^e \bmod n$

- No general methods are currently known to find the  $e$ -th roots mod  $n$ , except for special cases.

# Review of Secret Key (Symmetric) Cryptography

- ◆ Confidentiality (gizlilik)
  - stream ciphers (uses PRNG)
  - block ciphers with encryption modes
- ◆ Integrity (bütünlük)
  - Cryptographic hash functions
  - Message authentication code (keyed hash functions)
- ◆ Limitation: sender and receiver must share the same key
  - Needs secure channel for key distribution
  - Impossible for two parties having no prior relationship
  - Needs many keys for  $n$  parties to communicate

# RSA Algorithm

- ◆ Invented in **1978** by Ron Rivest, Adi Shamir and Leonard Adleman
  - Published as R L Rivest, A Shamir, L Adleman, "On Digital Signatures and Public Key Cryptosystems", Communications of the ACM, vol 21 no 2, pp120-126, Feb 1978
- ◆ Security relies on the difficulty of factoring large composite numbers
- ◆ Essentially the same algorithm was discovered in 1973 by Clifford Cocks, who works for the British intelligence

# RSA Public Key Crypto System

## Key generation:

1. Select 2 large prime numbers of about the same size,  $p$  and  $q$   
Typically each  $p, q$  has between 512 and 2048 bits
2. Compute  $n = pq$ , and  $\Phi(n) = (q-1)(p-1)$
3. Select  $e$ ,  $1 < e < \Phi(n)$ , s.t.  $\gcd(e, \Phi(n)) = 1$   
Typically  $e=3$  or  $e=65537$
4. Compute  $d$ ,  $1 < d < \Phi(n)$  s.t.  $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\Phi(n)}$   
Knowing  $\Phi(n)$ ,  $d$  easy to compute.

Public key:  $(e, n)$

Private key:  $d$

# RSA Description (cont.)

## Encryption

Given a message  $M$ ,  $0 < M < n$        $M \in \mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$

use public key  $(e, n)$

compute  $C = M^e \bmod n$        $C \in \mathbb{Z}_n - \{0\}$

## Decryption

Given a ciphertext  $C$ , use private key  $(d)$

Compute  $C^d \bmod n = (M^e \bmod n)^d \bmod n = M^{ed} \bmod n = M$

# RSA Example

- ◆  $p = 11, q = 7, n = 77, \Phi(n) = 60, ((q-1)(p-1))$
- ◆  $d = 13, e = 37$  ( $ed = 481; ed \bmod 60 = 1$ )
  - $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
- ◆ Let  $M = 15$ . Then  $C \equiv M^e \bmod n$ 
  - $C \equiv 15^{37} \pmod{77} = 71$
- ◆  $M \equiv C^d \bmod n$ 
  - $M \equiv 71^{13} \pmod{77} = 15$