# COMP170 Discrete Mathematical Tools for Computer Science

Intro to Crypto and Mod

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Discrete Math for Computer Science K. Bogart, C. Stein and R.L. Drysdale Section 2.1, pp. 43-54

from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/G.\_H.\_Hardy

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and

"... then the great bulk of higher mathematics is useless. Modern Geometry and algebra, the theory of numbers, the theory of aggregates and functions, relativity, quantum mechanics — no one of them stands 2-the test much better than another, . . ."

If he could see the world now, G.H. Hardy would be spinning in his grave.

**Number theory**, introduced in this lecture, is the basis of modern coding theory. Computer security and e-commerce would be *impossible* without it.

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At one point, not long ago, the largest employer of mathematicians in the United States, and therefore probably the world, was the National Security Agency (NSA). The NSA is the largest spy agency in the US – bigger than the CIA – and has the responsibility for code design and breaking.

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Let n be a positive integer. Then for every integer m, there exist unique integers q and r such that m = nq + r and  $0 \le r < n$ .

This will be proven in next lecture. It says that  $m \mod n$  is *uniquely* defined.

- Arithmetic Modulo n
- Introduction to Cryptography

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$$a+b=b+a; \quad ab=ba$$

Ex: 
$$3 + 7.2 = 7.2 + 3$$
;  $3 \cdot 5 = 5 \cdot 3$ .

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  $a(bc) = (ab)c$   
Ex:  $5 + (3 + 7) = (5 + 3) + 7;$   $5 \cdot (3 \cdot 7) = (5 \cdot 3) \cdot 7$ 

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$$(a+b)c = ac + bc$$
  
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- Every number a has an additive inverse -a such that a+(-a)=0. Ex: 5+(-5)=0.
- Every number  $a \neq 0$  has a multiplicative inverse  $a^{-1}$  s.t.  $aa^{-1} = 1$ . Ex:  $5 \cdot \frac{1}{5} = 1$ .

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 $25 \mod 4 = 1$  because  $25 = 4 \cdot 6 + 1$  and any other way of writing  $25 = 4 \cdot q + r$  would have an r bigger than 1.

 $-25 \mod 4 = 3$  because  $-25 = 4 \cdot (-7) + 3$  and any other way of writing  $-25 = 4 \cdot q + r$  would have an r bigger than 3. (why?)

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Note: In general, except if 
$$[m \mod n] = 0$$
, 
$$[(-m) \mod n] = n - [m \mod n] \quad \text{so}$$
 
$$[(-m) \mod n] \neq [m \mod n] \quad \text{unless}$$
 
$$[m \mod n] = n/2.$$

```
Compute
21 mod 9
38 mod 9
(21 · 38) mod 9
(21 mod 9) · (38 mod 9)
(21 + 38) mod 9
(21 mod 9) + (38 mod 9)
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```
Compute 21 \mod 9 38 \mod 9 (21 \cdot 38) \mod 9 (21 \mod 9) \cdot (38 \mod 9) (21 + 38) \mod 9 (21 \mod 9) + (38 \mod 9)
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Compute 21 \mod 9 3 \pmod 9 2 \pmod 9 2 \pmod 9 2 \pmod 9 \pmod 9
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Compute 21 \mod 9 3 38 \mod 9 2 (21 \cdot 38) \mod 9 6, since 21 \cdot 38 = 88 \cdot 9 + 6 (21 \mod 9) \cdot (38 \mod 9) (21 + 38) \mod 9 (21 \mod 9) + (38 \mod 9)
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# Compute 21 mod 9

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$$(21 \bmod 9) \cdot (38 \bmod 9)$$

$$(21 + 38) \mod 9$$

$$(21 \bmod 9) + (38 \bmod 9)$$

3

2

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It looks as if 
$$[(ab) \bmod n] = [(a \bmod n) \cdot (b \bmod n)]$$
 and  $[(a+b) \bmod n] = [(a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)]$ 

Is this true?

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Is this true? No! Try a = 2, b = 8, n = 9.

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So what is happening here?

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#### Lemma 2.2

 $i \bmod n = (i + kn) \bmod n$  for all integers k.

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#### Lemma 2.2

 $i \bmod n = (i + kn) \bmod n$  for all integers k.

#### **Proof:**

- By Euclid's Division Theorem, i = nq + r (\*), for *unique* integers q and r, with  $0 \le r < n$ .
- By (\*) and definition of mod,  $r = i \mod n$ .
- Adding kn to both sides, i + kn = n(q + k) + r (\*\*).
- From (\*\*), Eucid's div thm and definition of mod,  $r = (i + kn) \mod n$ , and we are done.

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(i+j) \mod n = (i+(j \mod n)) \mod n= ((i \mod n) + j) \mod n= ((i \mod n) + (j \mod n)) \mod n,
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$$(i \cdot j) \mod n = (i \cdot (j \mod n)) \mod n$$
  
=  $((i \mod n) \cdot j) \mod n$   
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#### **Proof:**

We prove that item on left is equal to bottom item on right. Proofs of all other equalities are very similar.

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We prove that item on left is equal to bottom item on right. Proofs of all other equalities are very similar.

By Euclid's Division Theorem, for unique  $q_1$  and  $q_2$ ,  $i = (i \mod n) + q_1 n$  and  $j = (j \mod n) + q_2 n$ .

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Adding these 2 equations together mod n and using Lemma 2.2,

$$(i + j) \mod n = ((i \mod n) + q_1 n + (j \mod n) + q_2 n) \mod n$$
  
=  $((i \mod n) + (j \mod n) + n(q_1 + q_2)) \mod n$   
=  $((i \mod n) + (j \mod n)) \mod n$ .

 $Z_n$  is the set of integers  $\{0, 1, \ldots, n-1\}$  with addition mod n

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- $\bullet$  If  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , then x is a variable with possible integral values between 0 and n-1.
- If  $x, y \in Z_n$ , we use  $x +_n y$  and  $x \cdot_n y$  to perform algebraic operations on x, y.

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- If  $x, y \in Z_n$ , we use  $x +_n y$  and  $x \cdot_n y$  to perform algebraic operations on x, y.
- Additive identity property:  $0 +_n i = i$ . Multiplicative identity property:  $1 \cdot_n i = i$ .

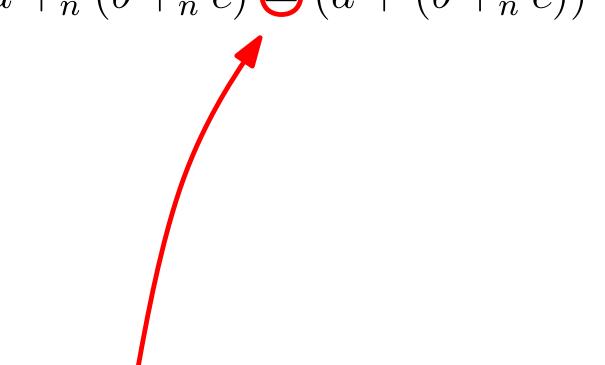
 $Z_n$  is the set of integers  $\{0,1,\ldots,n-1\}$  with addition  $\operatorname{mod} n$   $i+_n j=(i+j) \operatorname{mod} n$  and multiplication  $\operatorname{mod} n$   $i\cdot_n j=(i\cdot j) \operatorname{mod} n$ 

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- Additive identity property:  $0 +_n i = i$ . Multiplicative identity property:  $1 \cdot_n i = i$ .
- $a -_n b$  denotes  $a +_n (-b)$ .

Addition and multiplication mod n satisfy the **commutative**, **associative** and **distributive** laws.

**Proof:** Commutativity of  $+_n$  and  $\cdot_n$  follows immediately from commutativity of ordinary addition and multiplication. We prove the associative law for addition in the following equations; the other laws follow similarly.

$$a +_n (b +_n c) \bigoplus (a + (b +_n c)) \mod n$$



$$i +_n j = (i + j) \mod n$$
 and  $i \cdot_n j = (i \cdot j) \mod n$ .

$$a +_n (b +_n c) = (a + (b +_n c)) \mod n$$

$$\Rightarrow (a + ((b + c) \mod n)) \mod n$$

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$$\bigoplus ((a + b) + c) \mod n$$

Associative law for ordinary sums.

Addition and multiplication mod n satisfy the **commutative**, **associative** and **distributive** laws.

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$$\bigoplus ((a + b) \mod n + c) \mod n$$

Lemma 2.3

$$a +_n (b +_n c) = (a + (b +_n c)) \mod n$$

$$= (a + ((b + c) \mod n)) \mod n$$

$$= (a + (b + c)) \mod n$$

$$= ((a + b) + c) \mod n$$

$$= ((a + b) \mod n + c) \mod n$$

$$\Rightarrow ((a +_n b) + c) \mod n$$

$$i +_n j = (i + j) \mod n$$
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Addition and multiplication mod n satisfy the commutative, associative and distributive laws.

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22-1

### 2.1 Cryptography and Modular Arithmetic

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A difficult goal!

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This cipher is named after the Roman emperor **Julius Caesar** (b. 100BC, d. 44BC). Caesar supposedly used this type of cipher (with a shift of 3) to communicate with his generals.

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A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z
E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z A B C D
Plaintext message: ONE IF BY LAND AND TWO IF BY SEA.

Sender and receiver agree in advance on a secret code and then send messages using that code.

Caesar cipher: A private-key cryptosystem in which letters of the alphabet are shifted (circularly) by some fixed amount.

Original message is called plaintext and the encoded text is called ciphertext.

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Easy to implement using arithmetic mod 26.

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A Caesar cipher with shift s can easily be implemented on most computers by replacing each "letter" n with  $(n+s) \mod 26$ . Most computer languages can easily convert between text and numbers, and provide predefined  $\mod$  functions.

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- E.G. If s = 2, then a received 20 6 2 becomes  $18 \ 4 \ 0$  which is SEA.
- So, we've just seen how  $+_n$  on  $Z_n$  (for n=26) can be used to implement **encrypting** and **decrypting** Caesar ciphers.

- A Caesar cipher has a private-key k
- To encode x, use the function  $f_k(x) = x +_{26} k$
- To decode y, use the function  $g_k(y) = y 26 k$
- Note that  $g_k(y) = f_k^{-1}(y)$ , i.e., g(f(x)) = x and f(g(y)) = y

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Alice

Bob

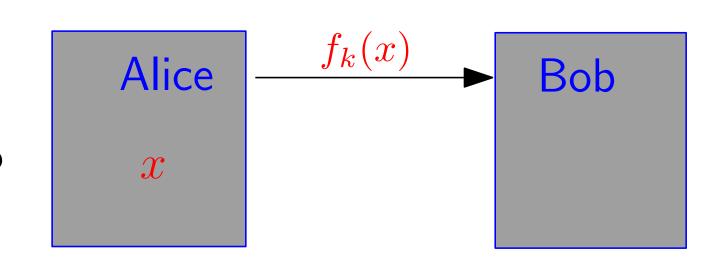
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 $\mathcal{X}$ 

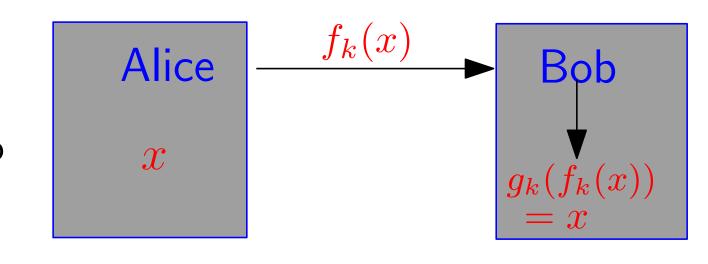
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- iii) Bob calculates

$$x = g_k(f_k(x))$$



### 2.1 Cryptography and Modular Arithmetic

- Arithmetic Modulo n
- Introduction to Cryptography
- Private-Key Cryptography
  - ullet Caesar Ciphers: Cryptography Using Addition  $\bmod n$
  - ullet Cryptography Using Multiplication  $\bmod n$
- Public-Key Cryptography

• We just saw how to use modular addition/subtraction to encrypt/decrypt. Now we'll discuss how to use modular multiplication. We assume that message is a *number*, M.

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- (a) (a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12),
- (b) (a, x, n) = (3, 6, 12),
- (c) (a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)

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$$(a, x, n) = (4, 3, 12)$$
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You send the message  $f(x) = 4 \cdot_{12} 3 = 0$ .

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Recipient receives 0.

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## **Problem:**

There are 4 values of x, (0, 3, 6, 9), s. t.  $a \cdot_{12} x = 0$ .

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 $\mathcal{X}$ 

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

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:

 $\mathcal{X}$ 

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$

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:

You send the message

$$f(x) = 3 \cdot_{12} 6 = 6$$
.

$$\mathcal{X}$$

$Z_{12}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
$\imath$ 3 $ $	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
•												

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$$f(x) = 3 \cdot_{12} 6 = 6$$
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Recipient receives 6.

$$\mathcal{X}$$

$Z_{12}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
$a$ 3 $\mid$	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
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1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
2	0	2	4	6	8	10	0	2	4	6	8	10
3	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9	0	3	6	9
4	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8	0	4	8
a 5	0	5	10	3	8	1	6	11	4	9	2	7
6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0	6
7	0	7	2	9	4	11	6	1	8	3	10	5
8	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4	0	8	4
9	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3	0	9	6	3
10	0	10	8	6	4	2	0	10	8	6	4	2
11	0	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
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$$\begin{array}{ll} \frac{11}{0} & f(x) = a \cdot_n x \\ \frac{11}{0} & \text{(c)} \ (a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12) \\ \end{array}$$

 $\mathcal{X}$ 

$$f(x) = a \cdot_n x$$
  
(c)  $(a, x, n) = (5, 7, 12)$ :

You send the message  $f(x) = 5 \cdot_{12} 7 = 11$ .

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Recipient receives 11.

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In fact,

7 is unique solution to

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⇒ Recepient could decrypt this messsage!

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  - f(x) can be used as an encoding function when f(x) has an inverse!

When does  $f_{a,n}(x) = a \cdot_n x$  have an inverse?

 $f_{a,n}(x) = a \cdot_n x$  has an inverse if and only if a and n are relatively prime, i.e., they have no common factors greater than 1.

In the next lecture we will see what this means and how to use it to define divsion in  $Z_n$ .

# 2.1 Cryptography and Modular Arithmetic

- Arithmetic Modulo n
- Introduction to Cryptography
- Private-Key Cryptography
  - ullet Caesar Ciphers: Cryptography Using Addition  $\bmod n$
  - Cryptography Using Multiplication mod n
- Public-Key Cryptography

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   No good answer to this
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- Motivation for Public-Key Cryptography

# Public-Key Cryptosystems

• In **private-key cryptosystems** the sender and receiver *share* a private-key or codebook.

The same key is used for encypting and decrypting. Implicit assumption: knowing how a message is encypted implies knowing how to decrypt it

- In public-key cryptography this is no longer true. Everybody has two keys; a public key and a secret key.
- My public key: Known by all. Used to send me a message My secret key: Known only by me.
   Used to decrypt messages sent to me that were encrypted using my public key.
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i) Alice wants to send M to Bob

The Black Pages
Public Key Directory



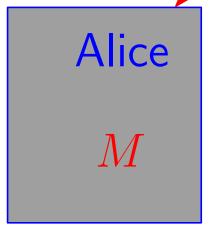


Bob

- i) Alice wants to send M to Bob
- ii) In public directory, Alice looks up Bob's Public Key,  $P_B$

The Black Pages
Public Key Directory





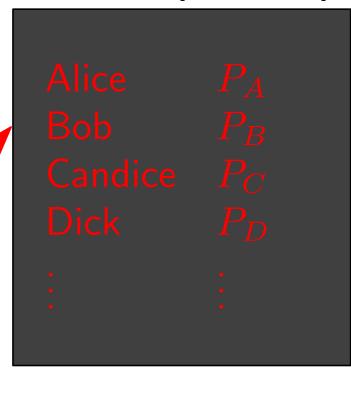
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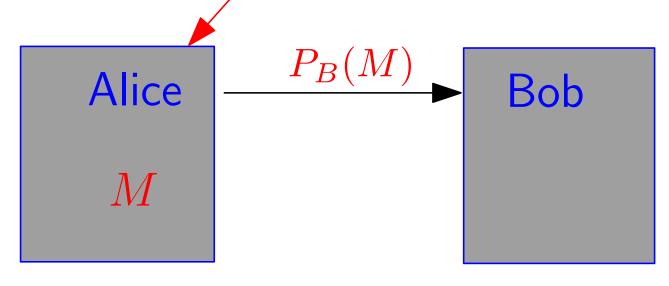
i) Alice wants to send M to Bob

ii) In public directory, Alice looks up Bob's Public Key,  $P_B$ 

iii) Alice sends  $P_B(M)$  to Bob

The Black Pages
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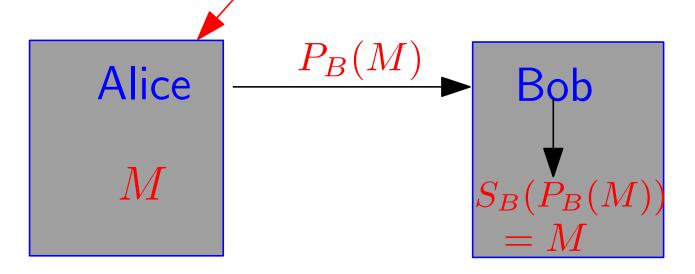




- i) Alice wants to send M to Bob
- ii) In public directory, Alice looks up Bob's Public Key,  $P_B$
- iii) Alice sends  $P_B(M)$  to Bob
- iv) Bob uses his Secret Key,  $S_B$  to decrypt  $M = S_B(P_B(M))$

The Black Pages
Public Key Directory





• No agreement in advance on a secret code.

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- Functions associated with  $KS_A$ ,  $KP_A$ ,  $KS_B$ ,  $KP_B$  are  $S_A$ ,  $P_A$ ,  $S_B$ , and  $P_B$ .  $S_A$  and  $P_A$  are inverses;  $S_B$  and  $S_B$  are inverses; So, for any message M

$$M = S_A(P_A(M)) = P_A(S_A(M)),$$
  
 $M = S_B(P_B(M)) = P_B(S_B(M)).$ 

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- Problem: this is *Not* secure, because *anyone* who knows public key,  $P_B$ , can figure out secret key  $S_B$ .

Challenge: In order for a public-key cryptosystem to work we must be able to find public/secret key pairs such that

- Receiver Bob can easily calculate  $S_B(X)$
- No one else knowing **public key**,  $P_B$ , will easily be able to figure out our **secret key**,  $S_B$ .

Constructing such **pubic/secret key pairs** sounds almost impossible. Surprisingly, in the mid 1970s, Rivest, Shamir and Adelman, figured out how to do this using simple modular arithmetic.

The result is the **RSA Public Key Cryptosystem**, which is the basis for most e-commerce. We will learn its details in the lecture following the next one.