

# Cryptography and Network Security

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# Number Theory Outline

- Basic Number theory
- Congruence
- Chinese Remainder Theorem
- Modular Exponentiation
- Fermat and Euler's theorem
- Finite Fields

# Basic Number Theory

- Division Algorithm

$$A = QN + R$$

$$11 = 1 \times 7 + 4$$

Q = quotient

R = Remainder

# Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- a common problem in number theory
- $\text{GCD}(a,b)$  of  $a$  and  $b$  is the largest integer that divides evenly into both  $a$  and  $b$ 
  - eg  $\text{GCD}(60,24) = 12$
- define  $\text{gcd}(0, 0) = 0$
- often want **no common factors** (except 1)  
define such numbers as **relatively prime**
  - eg  $\text{GCD}(8,15) = 1$
  - hence 8 & 15 are relatively prime

# Example GCD(1970,1066)

$$1970 = 1 \times 1066 + 904$$

$$1066 = 1 \times 904 + 162$$

$$904 = 5 \times 162 + 94$$

$$162 = 1 \times 94 + 68$$

$$94 = 1 \times 68 + 26$$

$$68 = 2 \times 26 + 16$$

$$26 = 1 \times 16 + 10$$

$$16 = 1 \times 10 + 6$$

$$10 = 1 \times 6 + 4$$

$$6 = 1 \times 4 + 2$$

$$4 = 2 \times 2 + 0$$

$$\text{gcd}(1066, 904)$$

$$\text{gcd}(904, 162)$$

$$\text{gcd}(162, 94)$$

$$\text{gcd}(94, 68)$$

$$\text{gcd}(68, 26)$$

$$\text{gcd}(26, 16)$$

$$\text{gcd}(16, 10)$$

$$\text{gcd}(10, 6)$$

$$\text{gcd}(6, 4)$$

$$\text{gcd}(4, 2)$$

$$\text{gcd}(2, 0)$$

# Example GCD

To find $d = \gcd(a,b) = \gcd(1160718174, 316258250)$		
$a = q_1b + r_1$	$1160718174 = 3 \times 316258250 + 211943424$	$d = \gcd(316258250, 211943424)$
$b = q_2r_1 + r_2$	$316258250 = 1 \times 211943424 + 104314826$	$d = \gcd(211943424, 104314826)$
$r_1 = q_3r_2 + r_3$	$211943424 = 2 \times 104314826 + 3313772$	$d = \gcd(104314826, 3313772)$
$r_2 = q_4r_3 + r_4$	$104314826 = 31 \times 3313772 + 1587894$	$d = \gcd(3313772, 1587894)$
$r_3 = q_5r_4 + r_5$	$3313772 = 2 \times 1587894 + 137984$	$d = \gcd(1587894, 137984)$
$r_4 = q_6r_5 + r_6$	$1587894 = 11 \times 137984 + 70070$	$d = \gcd(137984, 70070)$
$r_5 = q_7r_6 + r_7$	$137984 = 1 \times 70070 + 67914$	$d = \gcd(70070, 67914)$
$r_6 = q_8r_7 + r_8$	$70070 = 1 \times 67914 + 2156$	$d = \gcd(67914, 2156)$
$r_7 = q_9r_8 + r_9$	$67914 = 31 \times 2156 + 1078$	$d = \gcd(2156, 1078)$
$r_8 = q_{10}r_9 + r_{10}$	$2156 = 2 \times 1078 + 0$	$d = \gcd(1078, 0) = 1078$
Therefore, $d = \gcd(1160718174, 316258250) = 1078$		

# Inverse Mod

$$26 = 1 * 23 + 3$$

$$23 = 7 * 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 * 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 * 1 + 0.$$

Back-substitutions yield:

$$1 = 3 - 2$$

$$= 3 - (23 - 7*3)$$

$$= 8*3 - 23$$

$$= 8*(26-23) - 23$$

$$= 8*26 - 9*23$$

# Modular Arithmetic

- define **modulo operator** “ $a \bmod n$ ” to be remainder when  $a$  is divided by  $n$ 
  - where integer  $n$  is called the **modulus**
- $b$  is called a **residue** of  $a \bmod n$ 
  - since with integers can always write:  $a = qn + b$
  - usually chose smallest positive remainder as residue
    - ie.  $0 \leq b \leq n-1$
  - process is known as **modulo reduction**
    - eg.  $-12 \bmod 7 = -5 \bmod 7 = 2 \bmod 7 = 9 \bmod 7$



# Modular Arithmetic

- $a$  &  $b$  are **congruent** if:  $a \bmod n = b \bmod n$ 
  - when divided by  $n$ ,  $a$  &  $b$  have same remainder
  - eg.  $100 \bmod 11 = 34 \bmod 11$   
so 100 is congruent to 34 mod 11

Two integers  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be **congruent modulo  $n$** , if  $(a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n)$ . This is written as  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ .<sup>2</sup>

$$73 \equiv 4 \pmod{23};$$

$$21 \equiv -9 \pmod{10}$$

# Modular Arithmetic

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  $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$ .

To demonstrate the first point, if  $n|(a - b)$ , 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	$23 - 8 = 15 = 5 \times 3$
$-11 \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$	because	$-11 - 5 = -16 = 8 \times (-2)$
$81 \equiv 0 \pmod{27}$	because	$81 - 0 = 81 = 27 \times 3$

# Modular Arithmetic Operations

- can perform arithmetic with residues
- uses a finite number of values, and loops back from either end

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, (n-1)\}$$

- modular arithmetic is when do addition & multiplication and modulo reduce answer
- can do reduction at any point, ie
  - $a+b \bmod n = [a \bmod n + b \bmod n] \bmod n$

# Modular Arithmetic Operations

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.  $[(a \bmod n) \times (b \bmod n)] \bmod n = (a \times b) \bmod n$

e.g.

$$[(11 \bmod 8) + (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = 10 \bmod 8 = 2 \quad (11 + 15) \bmod 8 = 26 \bmod 8 = 2$$

$$[(11 \bmod 8) - (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = -4 \bmod 8 = 4 \quad (11 - 15) \bmod 8 = -4 \bmod 8 = 4$$

$$[(11 \bmod 8) \times (15 \bmod 8)] \bmod 8 = 21 \bmod 8 = 5 \quad (11 \times 15) \bmod 8 = 165 \bmod 8 = 5$$

# Modulo 8 Addition Example

+	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

# Modulo 8 Multiplication

+	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

# Modular Arithmetic Properties

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 $w \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , there exists a $z$ such that $w + z = 0 \bmod n$

# Euclidean Algorithm

- an efficient way to find the  $\text{GCD}(a,b)$
- uses theorem that:
  - $\text{GCD}(a,b) = \text{GCD}(b, a \bmod b)$
- Euclidean Algorithm to compute  $\text{GCD}(a,b)$  is:  
Euclid(a,b)  
    if (b=0) then return a;  
    else return Euclid(b, a mod b);



# Euclidean Algorithm

Table 4.1 Euclidean Algorithm Example

Dividend	Divisor	Quotient	Remainder
$a = 1160718174$	$b = 316258250$	$q_1 = 3$	$r_1 = 211943424$
$b = 316258250$	$r_1 = 211943434$	$q_2 = 1$	$r_2 = 104314826$
$r_1 = 211943424$	$r_2 = 104314826$	$q_3 = 2$	$r_3 = 3313772$
$r_2 = 104314826$	$r_3 = 3313772$	$q_4 = 31$	$r_4 = 1587894$
$r_3 = 3313772$	$r_4 = 1587894$	$q_5 = 2$	$r_5 = 137984$
$r_4 = 1587894$	$r_5 = 137984$	$q_6 = 11$	$r_6 = 70070$
$r_5 = 137984$	$r_6 = 70070$	$q_7 = 1$	$r_7 = 67914$
$r_6 = 70070$	$r_7 = 67914$	$q_8 = 1$	$r_8 = 2156$
$r_7 = 67914$	$r_8 = 2156$	$q_9 = 31$	$r_9 = 1078$
$r_8 = 2156$	$r_9 = 1078$	$q_{10} = 2$	$r_{10} = 0$

# Finite (Galois) Fields

- finite fields play a key role in cryptography
- can show number of elements in a finite field **must** be a power of a prime  $p^n$
- known as Galois fields
- denoted  $GF(p^n)$
- in particular often use the fields:
  - $GF(p)$
  - $GF(2^n)$

# Galois Fields $\text{GF}(p)$

- $\text{GF}(p)$  is the set of integers  $\{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$  with arithmetic operations modulo prime  $p$
- these form a finite field
  - since have multiplicative inverses
  - find inverse with Extended Euclidean algorithm
- hence arithmetic is “well-behaved” and can do addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division without leaving the field  $\text{GF}(p)$

# GF(7) Multiplication Example

$\times$	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

# Relatively Prime Numbers & GCD

- two numbers  $a$ ,  $b$  are **relatively prime** if have **no common divisors** apart from 1
  - eg. 8 & 15 are relatively prime since factors of 8 are 1,2,4,8 and of 15 are 1,3,5,15 and 1 is the only common factor
- conversely can determine the greatest common divisor by comparing their prime factorizations and using least powers
  - eg.  $300 = 2^1 \times 3^1 \times 5^2$   $18 = 2^1 \times 3^2$  hence  
 $\text{GCD}(18, 300) = 2^1 \times 3^1 \times 5^0 = 6$

# Fermat's Theorem

- $a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$ 
  - where  $p$  is prime and  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$
- also known as Fermat's Little Theorem
- also have:  $a^p = a \pmod{p}$
- useful in public key and primality testing

# Fermat's Theorem

$$a = 7, p = 19$$

$$7^2 = 49 \equiv 11 \pmod{19}$$

$$7^4 \equiv 121 \equiv 7 \pmod{19}$$

$$7^8 \equiv 49 \equiv 11 \pmod{19}$$

$$7^{16} \equiv 121 \equiv 7 \pmod{19}$$

$$a^{p-1} = 7^{18} = 7^{16} \times 7^2 \equiv 7 \times 11 \equiv 1 \pmod{19}$$

An alternative form of Fermat's theorem is also useful: If  $p$  is prime and  $a$  is a positive integer, then

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p} \tag{8.3}$$

# Euler Totient Function $\phi(n)$

- when doing arithmetic modulo  $n$
- **complete set of residues** is:  $0 \dots n-1$
- **reduced set of residues** is those numbers (residues) which are relatively prime to  $n$ 
  - eg for  $n=10$ ,
  - complete set of residues is  $\{0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9\}$
  - reduced set of residues is  $\{1,3,7,9\}$
- number of elements in reduced set of residues is called the **Euler Totient Function  $\phi(n)$**



# Euler Totient Function $\phi(n)$

- to compute  $\phi(n)$  need to count number of residues to be excluded
- in general need prime factorization, but
  - for  $p$  ( $p$  prime)  $\phi(p) = p - 1$
  - for  $p \cdot q$  ( $p, q$  prime)  $\phi(p \cdot q) = (p - 1) \times (q - 1)$
- eg.
  - $\phi(37) = 36$
  - $\phi(21) = (3 - 1) \times (7 - 1) = 2 \times 6 = 12$

# Euler's Theorem

- a generalisation of Fermat's Theorem
- $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ 
  - for any  $a, n$  where  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$
- eg.
  - $a=3; n=10; \phi(10)=4;$   
hence  $3^4 = 81 \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$
  - $a=2; n=11; \phi(11)=10;$   
hence  $2^{10} = 1024 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$
- also have:  $a^{\phi(n)+1} \equiv a \pmod{n}$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

- used to speed up modulo computations
- if working modulo a product of numbers
  - eg.  $\text{mod } M = m_1 m_2 \dots m_k$
- Chinese Remainder theorem lets us work in each moduli  $m_i$  separately
- since computational cost is proportional to size, this is faster than working in the full modulus  $M$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

- can implement CRT in several ways
- to compute  $A \pmod{M}$ 
  - first compute all  $a_i = A \pmod{m_i}$  separately
  - determine constants  $c_i$  below, where  $M_i = M/m_i$
  - then combine results to get answer using:

$$A \equiv \left( \sum_{i=1}^k a_i c_i \right) \pmod{M}$$

$$c_i = M_i \times (M_i^{-1} \pmod{m_i}) \quad \text{for } 1 \leq i \leq k$$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

- Let  $p$  and  $q$  be co-prime. Then the system of equations:

$$x = a \pmod{p}$$

$$x = b \pmod{q}$$

- Has a unique solution for  $x$  (**modulo  $pq$** )

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

Problem: Find  $x$

$$x = 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x = 3 \pmod{5}$$

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

Solution:

$$M =$$

$$3 \times 5 \times 7 = 105; M_1 = \frac{105}{3} = 35; M_2 = \frac{105}{5} = 21; M_3 = \frac{105}{7} = 15;$$

# Chinese Remainder Theorem

- $M1^{-1} \pmod{3} = 35^{-1} \pmod{3} = 35^{3-2} \pmod{3} = 2$
- $M2^{-1} \pmod{5} = 21^{-1} \pmod{5} = 21^{5-3} \pmod{5} = 1$
- $M3^{-1} \pmod{7} = 15^{-1} \pmod{7} = 15^{7-2} \pmod{7} = 1$
- $x = [2 \times 35 \times 2 + 3 \times 21 \times 1 + 2 \times 15 \times 1] \pmod{105} = 233 \pmod{105} = 23$