

Cryptography and Security

Lecture 4

Basic Concepts in Number Theory and Finite Fields

Greatest Common Divisor

- A positive integer c is the greatest common divisor of a and b if
 - c is a divisor of a and b .
 - Any divisor of a and b is a divisor of c .
 - $\gcd(a, b) = \max[k, \text{such that } k|a \text{ and } k|b]$
- $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(|a|, |b|)$
- $\gcd(a, 0) = |a|$.
- Two integers are relatively prime if their only common positive integer factor is 1. i.e, a and b are relatively prime if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

The Euclidean Algorithm

$$\left. \begin{array}{ll}
 a = q_1 b + r_1 & 0 < r_1 < b \\
 b = q_2 r_1 + r_2 & 0 < r_2 < r_1 \\
 r_1 = q_3 r_2 + r_3 & 0 < r_3 < r_2 \\
 \vdots & \vdots \\
 \vdots & \vdots \\
 \vdots & \vdots \\
 r_{n-2} = q_n r_{n-1} + r_n & 0 < r_n < r_{n-1} \\
 r_{n-1} = q_{n+1} r_n + 0 & \\
 d = \gcd(a, b) = r_n &
 \end{array} \right\}$$

- $\gcd(10, 63)$:

$$63 = 10 \cdot 6 + 3$$

$$10 = 3 \cdot 3 + 1$$

$$3 = 3 \cdot 1 + 0$$

- $\gcd(1701, 3768)$:

$$3768 = 1701 \cdot 2 + 366$$

$$1701 = 366 \cdot 4 + 237$$

$$366 = 237 \cdot 1 + 129$$

$$237 = 129 \cdot 1 + 108$$

$$129 = 108 \cdot 1 + 21$$

$$108 = 21 \cdot 5 + 3 \rightarrow \gcd(1701, 3768)$$

$$21 = 3 \cdot 7 + 0$$

Modular Arithmetic

- For an integer a and n is a positive integer, $a \bmod n$ is the remainder when a is divided by n . The integer n is called the modulus.

$$a = qn + r \Rightarrow a = \text{floor}(a/n) \times n + a \bmod n$$

- Two integer a and b are said to be congruent modulo n , if $(a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n) \rightarrow a \equiv b \pmod{n}$

Modular Arithmetic Operations

- Arithmetic operation on the set of integers $[0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, (n-1)]$.

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

$$11 \bmod 8 = 3; 15 \bmod 8 = 7$$

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

$$(11 + 15) \bmod 8 = 26 \bmod 8 = 2$$

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

$$(11 - 15) \bmod 8 = -4 \bmod 8 = 4$$

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

$$(11 \times 15) \bmod 8 = 165 \bmod 8 = 5$$

Modular Arithmetic Operations

To find $11^7 \bmod 13$, we can proceed as follows:

$$11^2 = 121 \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$$

$$11^4 = (11^2)^2 \equiv 4^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$$

$$11^7 \equiv 11 \times 4 \times 3 \equiv 132 \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$$

Modulo 8 Addition

+	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

Properties of Modular Arithmetic

- \mathbb{Z} = Set of all integers = $\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- \mathbb{Z}_n = Set of all non-negative integers less than $n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, (n-1)\}$
- $\mathbb{Z}_2 = \{0, 1\}$
- $\mathbb{Z}_8 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$
- \mathbb{Z}_n = set of residues or residue classes (mod n)
- ***Residue class $[r] = \{a : a \text{ is an integer, } a \equiv r \pmod{n}\}$***

The residue classes (mod 4) are

$$[0] = \{\dots, -16, -12, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, 12, 16, \dots\}$$

$$[1] = \{\dots, -15, -11, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, \dots\}$$

$$[2] = \{\dots, -14, -10, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, \dots\}$$

$$[3] = \{\dots, -13, -9, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, \dots\}$$

Properties of Modular Arithmetic 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 $w + z = 0 \bmod n$

Properties of Modular Arithmetic

- Additive Inverse

if $(a + b) \equiv (a + c) \pmod{n}$ then $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$

$$(5 + 23) \equiv (5 + 7) \pmod{8}; 23 \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$$

$$\begin{aligned} ((-a) + a + b) &\equiv ((-a) + a + c) \pmod{n} \\ b &\equiv c \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

- Multiplicative Inverse

if $(a \times b) \equiv (a \times c) \pmod{n}$ then $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ if a is relatively prime to n

$$6 \times 3 = 18 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$$

$$6 \times 7 = 42 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$$

Yet $3 \not\equiv 7 \pmod{8}$.

If a and n have common factor, for a modulus n and a multiplier a fails to produce a complete set of residues.

Properties of Modular Arithmetic

With $a = 6$ and $n = 8$,

Z_8	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Multiply by 6	0	6	12	18	24	30	36	42
Residues	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2

Because we do not have a complete set of residues when multiplying by 6, more than one integer in Z_8 maps into the same residue. Specifically, $6 \times 0 \bmod 8 = 6 \times 4 \bmod 8$; $6 \times 1 \bmod 8 = 6 \times 5 \bmod 8$; and so on. Because this is a many-to-one mapping, there is not a unique inverse to the multiply operation.

However, if we take $a = 5$ and $n = 8$, whose only common factor is 1,

Z_8	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Multiply by 5	0	5	10	15	20	25	30	35
Residues	0	5	2	7	4	1	6	3

The line of residues contains all the integers in Z_8 , in a different order.

Euclidean Algorithm Revisited

- For any integer $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$
- $\gcd(55, 22) = \gcd(22, 55 \bmod 22) = \gcd(22, 11) = 11$.
- $\gcd(18, 12) = \gcd(12, 6) = \gcd(6, 0) = 6$.

- $\gcd(1701, 3768)$:

$$3768 = 1701 \cdot 2 + 366 \quad \gcd(1701, 366)$$

$$1701 = 366 \cdot 4 + 237 \quad \gcd(366, 237)$$

$$366 = 237 \cdot 1 + 129 \quad \gcd(237, 129)$$

$$237 = 129 \cdot 1 + 108 \quad \gcd(129, 108)$$

$$129 = 108 \cdot 1 + 21 \quad \gcd(108, 21)$$

$$108 = 21 \cdot 5 + 3 \quad \gcd(21, 3)$$

$$21 = 3 \cdot 7 + 0 \quad \gcd(3, 0) \rightarrow \gcd(1701, 3768)$$

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm

- Get not only GCD but x and y such that $ax + by = d = \text{GCD}(a,b)$
- useful for latter crypto computations
- follow sequence of divisions for GCD but at each step i , keep track of x and y such that $r = ax + by$
- at the end find GCD value and also x and y

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm--Example

- $\gcd(888, 54) = 6 \quad \rightarrow 6 = 54 \cdot (33) + 888 \cdot (-2)$
 $888 = 54 \cdot 16 + 24 \quad \rightarrow 6 = 54 + (888 + 54 \cdot (-16)) \cdot (-2)$
 $54 = 24 \cdot 2 + 6 \quad \rightarrow 6 = 54 + 24 \cdot (-2)$
 $24 = 6 \cdot 4 + 0$
- $\gcd(888, 54) = 6 = 888x + 54y$ where $x = -2$ and $y = 33$
- Try $\gcd(56, 15)$ in class; result $15 \cdot 15 + 56 \cdot (-4) = 1$

Multiplicative Inverse using Extended Euclidean Algorithm

- Used to find a multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z}_n for any n .
- If extended euclidean algorithm is applied to $nx+by=d$ and the algorithm yields $d=1$, then $y=b^{-1}$ in \mathbb{Z}_n .

- **Example:**

$$\text{Gcd}(56,15) = 1 \rightarrow 15 \cdot 15 + 56 \cdot (-4) = 1$$

i.e, $a=56$, $x=-4$, $b=15$ and $y=15$.

$$b^{-1}=y=15 \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{56} \rightarrow 15 \times 15 \bmod 56 = 1.$$

Group

- **Group:**

A set of elements that is closed with respect to a binary operation denoted by $\{G, \bullet\}$.

- Closed \Rightarrow The result of the operation is also in the set.
- The operation obeys:
 - Closure: if \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} belong to G , then $\mathbf{a.b}$ is also in G .
 - Associative law: $\mathbf{(a.b).c = a.(b.c)}$
 - Identity element: Has identity \mathbf{e} : $\mathbf{e.a = a.e = a}$
 - Inverse element: Has inverses $\mathbf{a^{-1}}$: $\mathbf{a.a^{-1} = e}$

- **Abelian Group:**

- commutative $\mathbf{a.b = b.a}$
- Example: $\mathbf{Z_g}$, + modular addition, identity = 0
- Order of a finite group is the number of elements in that group.

Cyclic Group

- **Exponentiation:**

Repeated application of operator

example: $a^3 = a.a.a$

- **Cyclic Group:**

- Every element is a power of some fixed element, i.e, $b = a^k$ for some a and every b in group.
- a is said to be a generator of the group
- Example: $\{1, 2, 4, 8\}$ with mod 12 multiplication, the generator is 2.
- $2^0=1, 2^1=2, 2^2=4, 2^3=8, 2^4=4, 2^5=8$
- A cyclic group is always abelian and may be finite or infinite.
- The additive group of integers is an infinite cyclic group generated by 1.

Ring

- **Ring:**

- A set with two operations: addition and multiplication, denoted by $\{R, +, \times\}$
- Abelian group with respect to addition: $a+b = b+a$
- Closed under multiplication. \rightarrow for $a, b \in R$, $a.b$ is also in R .
- Associativity of multiplication. $\rightarrow a.(b.c)=(a.b).c$
- Multiplication distributes over addition $\rightarrow a.(b+c)=a.b+a.c$ and $(a+b).c = a.c + b.c$

- **Commutative Ring:**

Multiplication is commutative $\rightarrow a.b = b.a$

- **Example:**

$\mathbb{Z}_8, +, \times$ is a commutative ring.

Ring

- **Integral Domain:**

multiplication operation has an identity and no zero divisors

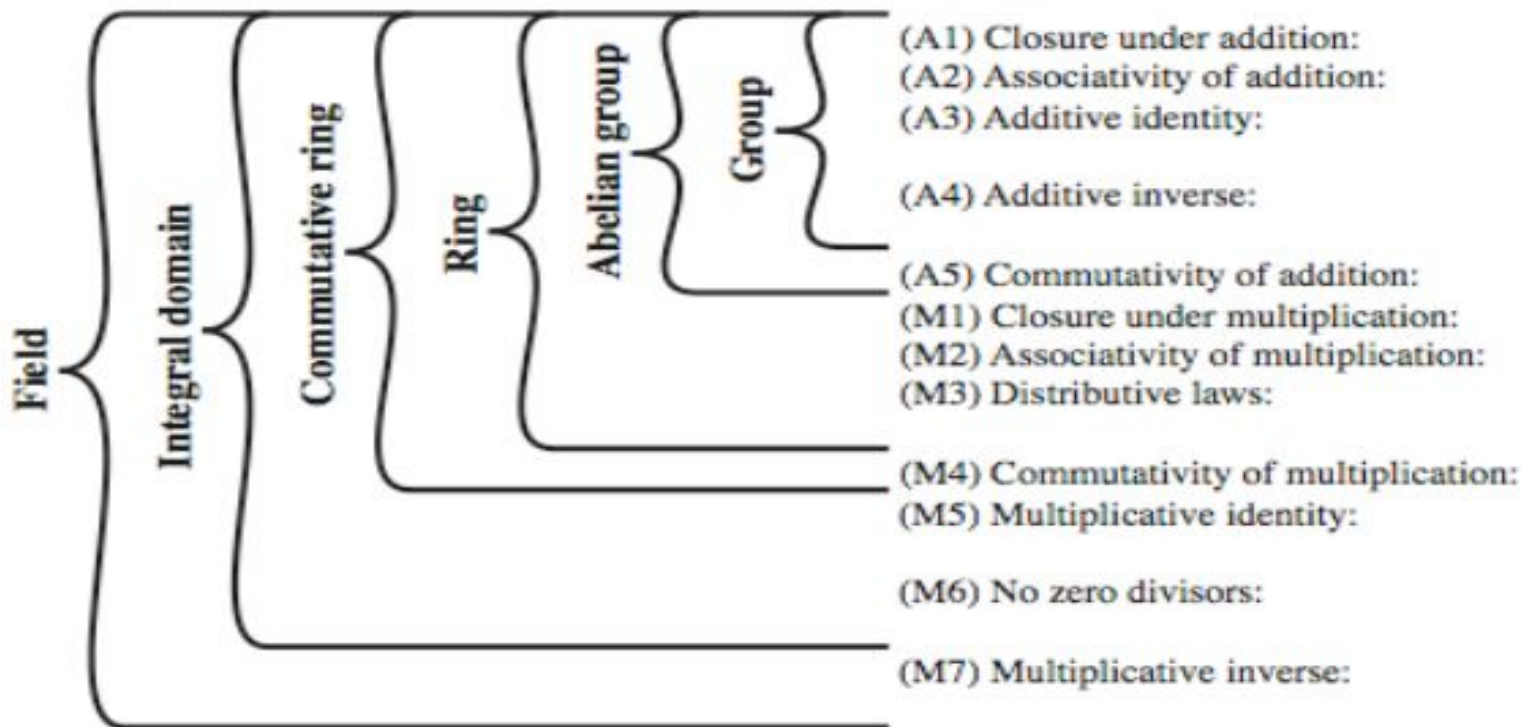
- There is an element 1 such that $a1 = 1a = a$ for all $a \in R$.
- If $a, b \in R$ and $ab=0$, then either $a=0$ or $b=0$.

- **Example:**

The set of integers (positive, negative and 0) under the usual operation of addition and multiplication.

Field

- An integral domain in which each element has a multiplicative inverse.



- The set of all real numbers under the operation of addition and multiplication is an example of field.
- In field we can do addition, subtraction, multiplication and division $\rightarrow a/b = a(b^{-1})$

Finite Field or Galois Field

- **Finite Field:**

- A field with finite number of elements.
- Also known as Galois Field.
- The number of elements is always a power (positive integer) of a prime number. Hence, denoted as **$GF(p^n)$**
- **$GF(p)$** is the set of integers, $Z_p = \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$ with arithmetic operations modulo prime p .
- Can do addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division without leaving the field **$GF(p)$**

Finite Field or Galois Field

- Any integer in \mathbf{Z}_n has a multiplicative inverse if and only if that integer is relatively prime to n .
- There exists a multiplicative inverse for all of the nonzero integers in \mathbf{Z}_p .
- \mathbf{Z}_p is a field

Multiplicative inverse (w^{-1})	For each $w \in \mathbf{Z}_p$, $w \neq 0$, there exists a $z \in \mathbf{Z}_p$ such that $w \times z \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
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- For \mathbf{Z}_p the following equation holds.

$$\text{if } (a \times b) \equiv (a \times c) \pmod{p} \text{ then } b \equiv c \pmod{p}$$

When a is a relatively prime to p .

GF(2)

The simplest finite field is GF(2). Its arithmetic operations are easily summarized:

+	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

Addition

\times	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Multiplication

w	$-w$	w^{-1}
0	0	—
1	1	1

Inverses

In this case, addition is equivalent to the exclusive-OR (XOR) operation, and multiplication is equivalent to the logical AND operation.

GF(7)

Table 4.5 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

(a) Addition modulo 7

×	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

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

(c) Additive and multiplicative inverses modulo 7

Ordinary Polynomial Arithmetic

- A polynomial of degree n ($n \geq 0$) is an expression

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 = \sum a_i x^i$$

where, S = a set of coefficients and $a_n \neq 0$

- Ordinary polynomial arithmetic includes addition, subtraction and multiplication.
- Division operation requires S to be a **field**.

- Example:

$$\text{let } f(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 2 \text{ and } g(x) = x^2 - x + 1$$

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

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

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

Ordinary Polynomial Arithmetic

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

(a) Addition

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

(b) Subtraction

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

(c) Multiplication

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

(d) Division

Polynomial Arithmetic with Coefficients in

$$\mathbb{Z}_p$$

- When polynomial arithmetic is performed on polynomials over a field, then division is possible.
- Example:
 - If coefficients are integers, then $(5x^2/3x) \rightarrow$ does not have solution.
 - If coefficients are from \mathbb{Z}_7 , then $(5x^2/3x) \rightarrow 4x$.
- Given polynomials $f(x)$ of degree n and $g(x)$ of m ($n \geq m$), we can write $f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$

where

$$\deg(f(x)) = n$$

$$\deg(g(x)) = m$$

$$\deg(q(x)) = n - m$$

$$\deg(r(x)) \leq m - 1$$

Polynomial Arithmetic with Coefficients in \mathbb{Z}_p

- A polynomial $f(x)$ over a field F is 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 $f(x)$.
- Example: [$F=GF(2)$]
 $f(x) = x^3+x+1$ is a irreducible polynomial.

Polynomial Arithmetic over GF(2)

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

(a) Addition

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

(b) Subtraction

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

(c) Multiplication

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \begin{array}{r}
 x^4 + 1 \\
 x^3 + x + 1 \overline{) x^7 \quad + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 \quad + x + 1} \\
 \underline{x^7 \quad + x^5 + x^4} \\
 x^3 \quad + x + 1 \\
 \underline{x^3 \quad + x + 1} \\
 0
 \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

Polynomial GCD

- Polynomial $c(x)$ is the greatest common divisor of $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ if :
 - $c(x)$ divides both $a(x)$ and $b(x)$
 - Any divisor of $a(x)$ and $b(x)$ is a divisor of $c(x)$
 - $c(x)$ is the polynomial of maximum degree that divides both $a(x)$ and $b(x)$.

Find $\gcd[a(x), b(x)]$ for $a(x) = x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1$ and $b(x) = x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$. First, we divide $a(x)$ by $b(x)$:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x^2 + x \\
 x^4 + x^2 + x + 1 \overline{) x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1} \\
 \underline{x^6 + x^4 + x^3 + x^2} \\
 x^5 + x + 1 \\
 \underline{x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x} \\
 x^3 + x^2 + 1
 \end{array}$$

This yields $r_1(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$ and $q_1(x) = x^2 + x$.
Then, we divide $b(x)$ by $r_1(x)$.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x + 1 \\
 x^3 + x^2 + 1 \overline{) x^4 + x^2 + x + 1} \\
 \underline{x^4 + x^3 + x} \\
 x^3 + x^2 + 1 \\
 \underline{x^3 + x^2 + 1} \\
 0
 \end{array}$$

This yields $r_2(x) = 0$ and $q_2(x) = x + 1$.
Therefore, $\gcd[a(x), b(x)] = r_1(x) = x^3 + x^2 + 1$.

Motivation for Finite Field of Form $\text{GF}(2^n)$

- All encryption algorithm requires arithmetic operations on integers.
- Need integers in the range **0** through **2^n-1** , which fit into an **n** -bit word with no wasted bit patterns.

Suppose we wish to define a conventional encryption algorithm that operates on data 8 bits at a time, and we wish to perform division. With 8 bits, we can represent integers in the range 0 through 255. However, 256 is not a prime number, so that if arithmetic is performed in \mathbb{Z}_{256} (arithmetic modulo 256), this set of integers will not be a field. The closest prime number less than 256 is 251. Thus, the set \mathbb{Z}_{251} , using arithmetic modulo 251, is a field. However, in this case the 8-bit patterns representing the integers 251 through 255 would not be used, resulting in inefficient use of storage.

- The set of integers modulo **2^n** is not a field. Even if only addition and multiplication are required, the use of \mathbb{Z}_{2^n} is not good choice.

Motivation for Finite Field of Form $GF(2^n)$

		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

(a) Addition

		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

(b) Multiplication

	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

Integer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Occurrences in Z_8	4	8	4	12	4	8	4
Occurrences in $GF(2^3)$	7	7	7	7	7	7	7

Modular Polynomial Arithmetic

- S = set of all polynomials of degree $n-1$ or less over \mathbb{Z}_p where coefficients are taken from $\{0,1,\dots,p-1\}$. There are a total of p^n polynomials in S .

For $p = 3$ and $n = 2$, the $3^2 = 9$ polynomials in the set are

0	x	$2x$
1	$x + 1$	$2x + 1$
2	$x + 2$	$2x + 2$

For $p = 2$ and $n = 3$, the $2^3 = 8$ polynomials in the set are

0	$x + 1$	$x^2 + x$
1	x^2	$x^2 + x + 1$
x	$x^2 + 1$	

- S is a finite field, where
 - Arithmetic follows the ordinary rules of polynomial arithmetic.
 - Arithmetic on coefficients is performed modulo p .
 - If a polynomial of degree greater than $n-1$ is generated from multiplication, then the polynomial is reduced modulo some irreducible $m(x)$ of degree n .

Modular Polynomial Arithmetic

The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) uses arithmetic in the finite field $GF(2^8)$, with the irreducible polynomial $m(x) = x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1$. Consider the two polynomials $f(x) = x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1$ and $g(x) = x^7 + x + 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) + g(x) &= x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1 + x^7 + x + 1 \\ &= x^7 + x^6 + x^4 + x^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) \times g(x) &= x^{13} + x^{11} + x^9 + x^8 + x^7 \\ &\quad + x^7 + x^5 + x^3 + x^2 + x \\ &\quad + x^6 + x^4 + x^2 + x + 1 \\ &= x^{13} + x^{11} + x^9 + x^8 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^5 + x^3 \\ x^8 + x^4 + x^3 + x + 1 \overline{) x^{13} + x^{11} + x^9 + x^8 + x^7 + x^6 + x^5 + x^4 + x^3 + 1} \\ \underline{x^{13} \phantom{+ x^{11}} + x^9 + x^8 + x^6 + x^5} \\ x^{11} + x^4 + x^3 \\ \underline{x^{11} + x^7 + x^6 + x^3} \\ x^7 + x^6 + 1 \end{array}$$

Therefore, $f(x) \times g(x) \bmod m(x) = x^7 + x^6 + 1$.

Modular Polynomial Arithmetic

- The set of residues modulo $m(x)$, an n th degree polynomial, consists of p^n elements where each of the elements is represented by one of the p^n polynomials of degree $m < n = S$.
- Example $GF(2^3)$

Table 4.6 Polynomial Arithmetic Modulo $(x^3 + x + 1)$

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

Computational Considerations

- since coefficients are 0 or 1, can represent any such polynomial as a bit string
- addition becomes XOR of these bit strings
- multiplication is shift and XOR
- modulo reduction done by repeatedly substituting highest power with remainder of irreducible poly (also shift and XOR)
- eg. irreducible poly = $x^3 + x + 1$ **means** $x^3 = x + 1$ in the polynomial field

Computational Example

- in $GF(2^3)$ have (x^2+1) is 101_2 & (x^2+x+1) is 111_2
- so addition is
 - $(x^2+1) + (x^2+x+1) = x$
 - $101 \text{ XOR } 111 = 010_2$
- and multiplication is
 - $(x+1).(x^2+1) = x.(x^2+1) + 1.(x^2+1)$
 $= x^3+x + x^2+1 = x^3+x^2+x+1$
 - $011.101 = (101) \ll 1 \text{ XOR } (101) \ll 0 =$
 $1010 \text{ XOR } 0101 = 1111_2$
- polynomial modulo reduction (to get $q(x)$ & $r(x)$)
 - $(x^3+x^2+x+1) \bmod (x^3+x+1) = 1.(x^3+x+1) + (x^2) = x^2$
 - $1111 \bmod 1011 = 1111 \text{ XOR } 1011 = 0100_2$

- Basic concepts in number theory and finite fields from the book of William Stallings (Chapter 2 and Chapter 5).
- Also refer to various youtube clips on the discussed topic.