

# Today

Finish Euclid.

Bijection/CRT/Isomorphism.

Fermat's Little Theorem.

## Finding an inverse?

We showed how to efficiently tell if there is an inverse.

Extend euclid to find inverse.

## Euclid's GCD algorithm.

```
(define (euclid x y)
  (if (= y 0)
      x
      (euclid y (mod x y))))
```

Computes the  $\text{gcd}(x, y)$  in  $O(n)$  divisions. (Remember  $n = \log_2 x$ .)

For  $x$  and  $m$ , if  $\text{gcd}(x, m) = 1$  then  $x$  has an inverse modulo  $m$ .

# Multiplicative Inverse.

GCD algorithm used to tell **if** there is a multiplicative inverse.

How do we **find** a multiplicative inverse?

# Extended GCD

**Euclid's Extended GCD Theorem:** For any  $x, y$  there are integers  $a, b$  such that

$$ax + by = d \quad \text{where } d = \gcd(x, y).$$

“Make  $d$  out of sum of multiples of  $x$  and  $y$ .”

What is multiplicative inverse of  $x$  modulo  $m$ ?

By extended GCD theorem, when  $\gcd(x, m) = 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} ax + bm &= 1 \\ ax &\equiv 1 - bm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}. \end{aligned}$$

So  $a$  multiplicative inverse of  $x \pmod{m}$ !!

Example: For  $x = 12$  and  $y = 35$ ,  $\gcd(12, 35) = 1$ .

$$(3)12 + (-1)35 = 1.$$

$$a = 3 \text{ and } b = -1.$$

The multiplicative inverse of  $12 \pmod{35}$  is 3.

Check:  $3(12) = 36 = 1 \pmod{35}$ .

## Extended GCD Algorithm.

```
ext-gcd(x,y)
  if y = 0 then return(x, 1, 0)
  else
    (d, a, b) := ext-gcd(y, mod(x,y))
    return (d, b, a - floor(x/y) * b)
```

Claim: Returns  $(d, a, b)$ :  $d = \gcd(x, y)$  and  $d = ax + by$ .

Example:  $a - \lfloor x/y \rfloor \cdot b = 1 - \lfloor 35/12 \rfloor \cdot (-1) = 3$

```
ext-gcd(35,12)
  ext-gcd(12, 11)
    ext-gcd(11, 1)
      ext-gcd(1,0)
        return (1,1,0) ;; 1 = (1)1 + (0) 0
      return (1,0,1)  ;; 1 = (0)11 + (1)1
    return (1,1,-1)  ;; 1 = (1)12 + (-1)11
  return (1,-1, 3)  ;; 1 = (-1)35 + (3)12
```

## Extended GCD Algorithm.

```
ext-gcd(x, y)
  if y = 0 then return(x, 1, 0)
  else
    (d, a, b) := ext-gcd(y, mod(x, y))
    return (d, b, a - floor(x/y) * b)
```

**Theorem:** Returns  $(d, a, b)$ , where  $d = \gcd(x, y)$  and

$$d = ax + by.$$

## Correctness.

**Proof:** Strong Induction.<sup>1</sup>

**Base:**  $\text{ext-gcd}(x, 0)$  returns  $(d = x, 1, 0)$  with  $x = (1)x + (0)y$ .

**Induction Step:** Returns  $(d, A, B)$  with  $d = Ax + By$

Ind hyp:  $\text{ext-gcd}(y, \text{ mod}(x, y))$  returns  $(d, a, b)$  with

$$d = ay + b(\text{ mod}(x, y))$$

$\text{ext-gcd}(x, y)$  calls  $\text{ext-gcd}(y, \text{ mod}(x, y))$  so

$$\begin{aligned}d &= ay + b \cdot (\text{ mod}(x, y)) \\ &= ay + b \cdot (x - \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor y) \\ &= bx + (a - \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor \cdot b)y\end{aligned}$$

And  $\text{ext-gcd}$  returns  $(d, b, (a - \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor \cdot b))$  so theorem holds! □

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<sup>1</sup>Assume  $d$  is  $\text{gcd}(x, y)$  by previous proof.

## Review Proof: step.

```
ext-gcd(x, y)
  if y = 0 then return(x, 1, 0)
  else
    (d, a, b) := ext-gcd(y, mod(x, y))
    return (d, b, a - floor(x/y) * b)
```

Recursively:  $d = ay + b(x - \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor \cdot y) \implies d = bx - (a - \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor b)y$

Returns  $(d, b, (a - \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor \cdot b))$ .

# Hand Calculation Method for Inverses.

Example:  $\gcd(7, 60) = 1$ .  
egcd(7,60).

$$\begin{aligned}7(0) + 60(1) &= 60 \\7(1) + 60(0) &= 7 \\7(-8) + 60(1) &= 4 \\7(9) + 60(-1) &= 3 \\7(-17) + 60(2) &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Confirm:  $-119 + 120 = 1$



# More Number Theory Tools.

Chinese remainder theorem.

Fermat's Theorem.

# Bijections

**Bijection** is **one to one** and **onto**.

Bijection:

$$f : A \rightarrow B.$$

Domain:  $A$ , Co-Domain:  $B$ .

Versus Range.

E.g. **sin** ( $x$ ).

$$A = B = \text{reals.}$$

Range is  $[-1, 1]$ . Onto:  $[-1, 1]$ .

Not one-to-one. **sin** ( $\pi$ ) = **sin** ( $0$ ) = 0.

Range Definition always is onto.

Consider  $f(x) = ax \pmod{m}$ .

$$f : \{0, \dots, m-1\} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, m-1\}.$$

Domain/Co-Domain:  $\{0, \dots, m-1\}$ .

When is it a bijection?

When  $\gcd(a, m)$  is ....? ... 1.

Not Example:  $a = 2, m = 4, f(0) = f(2) = 0 \pmod{4}$ .

# Lots of Mods

$x = 5 \pmod{7}$  and  $x = 3 \pmod{5}$ .

What is  $x \pmod{35}$ ?

Let's try 5. Not  $3 \pmod{5}$ !

Let's try 3. Not  $5 \pmod{7}$ !

If  $x = 5 \pmod{7}$

then  $x$  is in  $\{5, 12, 19, 26, 33\}$ .

Oh, only 33 is  $3 \pmod{5}$ .

Hmmm... only one solution.

A bit slow for large values.

# Simple Chinese Remainder Theorem.

My love is won. Zero and One. Nothing and nothing done.

Find  $x = a \pmod{m}$  and  $x = b \pmod{n}$  where  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ .

**CRT Thm:** There is a unique solution  $x \pmod{mn}$ .

**Proof:**

Consider  $u = n(n^{-1} \pmod{m})$ .

$$u = 0 \pmod{n} \quad u = 1 \pmod{m}$$

Consider  $v = m(m^{-1} \pmod{n})$ .

$$v = 1 \pmod{n} \quad v = 0 \pmod{m}$$

Let  $x = au + bv$ .

$$x = au + bv = a \pmod{m} : bv = 0 \pmod{m} \text{ and } au = a \pmod{m}$$

$$x = au + bv = b \pmod{n} : au = 0 \pmod{n} \text{ and } bv = b \pmod{n}$$

Only solution? If not, two solutions,  $x$  and  $y$ .

$$(x - y) \equiv 0 \pmod{m} \text{ and } (x - y) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}.$$

$$\implies (x - y) \text{ is multiple of } m \text{ and } n \text{ since } \gcd(m, n) = 1.$$

$$\implies x - y \geq mn \implies x, y \notin \{0, \dots, mn - 1\}.$$

Thus, only one solution modulo  $mn$ .



# Fermat's Theorem: Reducing Exponents.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime  $p$ , and  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

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

**Proof:** Consider  $S = \{a \cdot 1, \dots, a \cdot (p-1)\}$ .

All different modulo  $p$  since  $a$  has an inverse modulo  $p$ .

$S$  contains representative of  $\{1, \dots, p-1\}$  modulo  $p$ .

$$(a \cdot 1) \cdot (a \cdot 2) \cdots (a \cdot (p-1)) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \pmod{p},$$

Since multiplication is commutative.

$$a^{(p-1)}(1 \cdots (p-1)) \equiv (1 \cdots (p-1)) \pmod{p}.$$

Each of  $2, \dots, (p-1)$  has an inverse modulo  $p$ , solve to get...

$$a^{(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$



# Fermat and Exponent reducing.

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime  $p$ , and  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

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

What is  $2^{101} \pmod{7}$ ?

**Wrong:**  $2^{101} = 2^{7 \cdot 14 + 3} = 2^3 \pmod{7}$

Fermat: 2 is relatively prime to 7.  $\implies 2^6 = 1 \pmod{7}$ .

**Correct:**  $2^{101} = 2^{6 \cdot 16 + 5} = 2^5 = 32 = 4 \pmod{7}$ .

For a prime modulus, we can reduce exponents modulo  $p - 1$ !

# Isomorphisms.

Bijection:

$$f(x) = ax \pmod{m} \text{ if } \gcd(a, m) = 1.$$

**Chinese Remainder Theorem:** For  $m, n$  with  $\gcd(n, m) = 1$ ,  
 $\implies$  unique  $x \pmod{mn}$  where  $x = a \pmod{m}$  and  $x = b \pmod{n}$ .

Bijection between  $(a \pmod{n}, b \pmod{m})$  and  $x \pmod{mn}$ .

Consider  $m = 5, n = 9$ , then if  $(a, b) = (3, 7)$  then  $x = 43 \pmod{45}$ .

Consider  $(a', b') = (2, 4)$ , then  $x = 22 \pmod{45}$ .

Now consider:  $(a, b) + (a', b') = (0, 2)$ .

What is  $x$  where  $x = 0 \pmod{5}$  and  $x = 2 \pmod{9}$ ?

Try  $43 + 22 = 65 = 20 \pmod{45}$ .

Is it  $0 \pmod{5}$ ? Yes! Is it  $2 \pmod{9}$ ? Yes!

Isomorphism:

the actions  $+, \times$  under  $(\pmod{5}), (\pmod{9})$   
correspond to  $+, \times$  actions in  $(\pmod{45})!$

# Public Key Cryptography.

1. Public Key Cryptography
2. RSA system
3. Warnings.

# Xor

Computer Science:

1 - True

0 - False

$$1 \vee 1 = 1$$

$$1 \vee 0 = 1$$

$$0 \vee 1 = 1$$

$$0 \vee 0 = 0$$

$A \oplus B$  - Exclusive or.

$$1 \oplus 1 = 0$$

$$1 \oplus 0 = 1$$

$$0 \oplus 1 = 1$$

$$0 \oplus 0 = 0$$

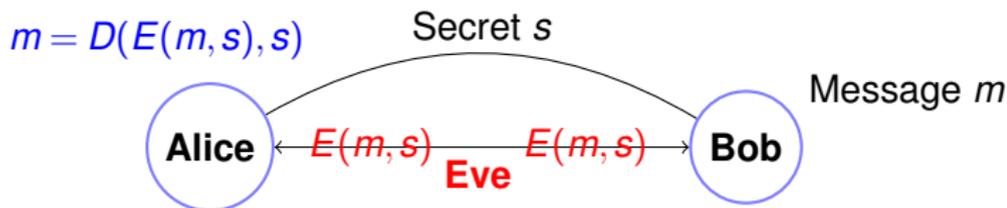
Note: Also modular addition modulo 2!

$\{0, 1\}$  is set. Take remainder for 2.

Property:  $A \oplus B \oplus B = A$ .

By cases:  $1 \oplus 1 \oplus 1 = 1$ . ...

# Cryptography ...



Example:

One-time Pad: secret  $s$  is string of length  $|m|$ .

$m = 10101011110101101$

$s = \dots\dots\dots$

$E(m, s)$  – bitwise  $m \oplus s$ .

$D(x, s)$  – bitwise  $x \oplus s$ .

Works because  $m \oplus s \oplus s = m!$

...and totally secure!

...given  $E(m, s)$  any message  $m$  is equally likely.

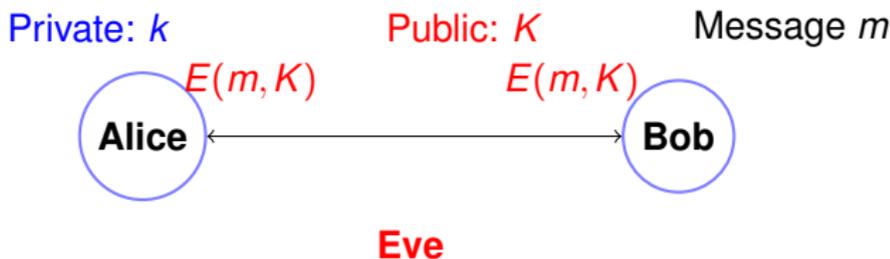
## Disadvantages:

Shared secret!

Uses up one time pad..or less and less secure.

# Public key cryptography.

$$m = D(E(m, K), k)$$



Everyone knows key  $K$ !

Bob (and Eve and me and you and ...) can encode.

Only Alice knows the secret key  $k$  for public key  $K$ .

(Only?) Alice can decode with  $k$ .

Is this even possible?

# Is public key crypto possible?

We don't really know.

...but we do it every day!!!

RSA (Rivest, Shamir, and Adleman)

Pick two large primes  $p$  and  $q$ . Let  $N = pq$ .

Choose  $e$  relatively prime to  $(p-1)(q-1)$ .<sup>2</sup>

Compute  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

Announce  $N(= p \cdot q)$  and  $e$ :  $K = (N, e)$  is my public key!

Encoding:  $\text{mod}(x^e, N)$ .

Decoding:  $\text{mod}(y^d, N)$ .

Does  $D(E(m)) = m^{ed} = m \pmod N$ ?

Yes!

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<sup>2</sup>Typically small, say  $e = 3$ .

## Iterative Extended GCD.

Example:  $p = 7$ ,  $q = 11$ .

$N = 77$ .

$(p - 1)(q - 1) = 60$

Choose  $e = 7$ , since  $\gcd(7, 60) = 1$ .

$e \gcd(7, 60)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}7(0) + 60(1) &= 60 \\7(1) + 60(0) &= 7 \\7(-8) + 60(1) &= 4 \\7(9) + 60(-1) &= 3 \\7(-17) + 60(2) &= 1\end{aligned}$$

Confirm:  $-119 + 120 = 1$

$d = e^{-1} = -17 = 43 = (\text{mod } 60)$

# Encryption/Decryption Techniques.

Public Key:  $(77, 7)$

Message Choices:  $\{0, \dots, 76\}$ .

Message: 2!

$$E(2) = 2^e = 2^7 \equiv 128 \pmod{77} = 51 \pmod{77}$$

$$D(51) = 51^{43} \pmod{77}$$

uh oh!

Obvious way: 43 multiplications. **Ouch.**

In general,  $O(N)$  or  $O(2^n)$  multiplications!

## Repeated squaring.

Notice:  $43 = 32 + 8 + 2 + 1$ .  $51^{43} = 51^{32+8+2+1} = 51^{32} \cdot 51^8 \cdot 51^2 \cdot 51^1$   
(mod 77).

4 multiplications sort of...

Need to compute  $51^{32} \dots 51^1$  .?

$$51^1 \equiv 51 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^2 = (51) * (51) = 2601 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^4 = (51^2) * (51^2) = 60 * 60 = 3600 \equiv 58 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^8 = (51^4) * (51^4) = 58 * 58 = 3364 \equiv 53 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{16} = (51^8) * (51^8) = 53 * 53 = 2809 \equiv 37 \pmod{77}$$

$$51^{32} = (51^{16}) * (51^{16}) = 37 * 37 = 1369 \equiv 60 \pmod{77}$$

5 more multiplications.

$$51^{32} \cdot 51^8 \cdot 51^2 \cdot 51^1 = (60) * (53) * (60) * (51) \equiv 2 \pmod{77}.$$

Decoding got the message back!

Repeated Squaring took 9 multiplications versus 43.

## Recursive version.

```
(define (power x y m)
  (if (= y 1)
      (mod x m)
      (let ((x-to-evened-y (power (square x) (/ y 2) m)))
        (if (evenp y)
            x-to-evened-y
            (mod (* x x-to-evened-y) m ))))))
```

Claim: Program correctly computes  $x^y$ .

Base:  $x^1 = x \pmod{m}$ .

$$x^y = x^{2(y/2) + \text{mod}(y,2)} = (x^2)^{y/2} x^{\text{mod} 2} \pmod{m}.$$

Last expression computed in recursive call with  $x^2$  and  $y/2$ .

Note:  $y/2$  is integer division.

# Repeated Squaring: $x^y$

Repeated squaring  $O(\log y)$  multiplications versus  $y!!!$

1.  $x^y$ : Compute  $x^1, x^2, x^4, \dots, x^{2^{\lfloor \log y \rfloor}}$ .
2. Multiply together  $x^i$  where the  $(\log(i))$ th bit of  $y$  (in binary) is 1.  
Example:  $43 = 101011$  in binary.  
$$x^{43} = x^{32} * x^8 * x^2 * x^1.$$

Modular Exponentiation:  $x^y \pmod N$ . All  $n$ -bit numbers.

Repeated Squaring:

$O(n)$  multiplications.

$O(n^2)$  time per multiplication.

$\implies O(n^3)$  time.

Conclusion:  $x^y \pmod N$  takes  $O(n^3)$  time.

# RSA is pretty fast.

Modular Exponentiation:  $x^y \pmod N$ . All  $n$ -bit numbers.  
 $O(n^3)$  time.

Remember RSA encoding/decoding!

$$E(m, (N, e)) = m^e \pmod N.$$

$$D(m, (N, d)) = m^d \pmod N.$$

For 512 bits, a few hundred million operations.  
Easy, peasey.

## Decoding.

$$E(m, (N, e)) = m^e \pmod{N}.$$

$$D(m, (N, d)) = m^d \pmod{N}.$$

$$N = pq \text{ and } d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.$$

$$\text{Want: } (m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m \pmod{N}.$$

## Always decode correctly?

$$E(m, (N, e)) = m^e \pmod{N}.$$

$$D(m, (N, d)) = m^d \pmod{N}.$$

$$N = pq \text{ and } d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}.$$

$$\text{Want: } (m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m \pmod{N}.$$

Another view:

$$d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)} \iff ed = k(p-1)(q-1) + 1.$$

Consider...

**Fermat's Little Theorem:** For prime  $p$ , and  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ ,

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

$$\implies a^{k(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \implies a^{k(p-1)+1} = a \pmod{p}$$

$$\text{versus } a^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} = a \pmod{pq}.$$

Similar, not same, but useful.

## ...decoding correctness...

CRT: Isomorphism between  $(a \bmod p, b \bmod q)$  and  $x \pmod{pq}$

$$e = d^{-1} \pmod{pq}.$$

$$x^{ed} = x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{pq}$$

Now  $x = a \bmod p$  and  $x = b \pmod{q}$ .

$$a^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} = a(a^{p-1})^{k(q-1)} = a \pmod{p}$$

$$\text{By Fermat. } a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$$

$$b^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} = b(b^{q-1})^{k(p-1)} = b \pmod{q}$$

$$\text{By Fermat. } b^{q-1} = 1 \pmod{q}$$

$x^{ed} = a \pmod{p}$  and  $x^{ed} = b \pmod{q}$ .

CRT  $\implies x^{ed} = x \pmod{pq}$ .

## Construction of keys.. ..

1. Find large (100 digit) primes  $p$  and  $q$ ?

**Prime Number Theorem:**  $\pi(N)$  number of primes less than  $N$ . For all  $N \geq 17$

$$\pi(N) \geq N/\ln N.$$

Choosing randomly gives approximately  $1/(\ln N)$  chance of number being a prime. (How do you tell if it is prime? ... cs170..Miller-Rabin test.. Primes in  $P$ ).

For 1024 bit number, 1 in 710 is prime.

2. Choose  $e$  with  $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .  
Use gcd algorithm to test.
3. Find inverse  $d$  of  $e$  modulo  $(p-1)(q-1)$ .  
Use extended gcd algorithm.

All steps are polynomial in  $O(\log N)$ , the number of bits.

# Security of RSA.

Security?

1. Alice knows  $p$  and  $q$ .
2. Bob only knows,  $N(= pq)$ , and  $e$ .  
Does not know, for example,  $d$  or factorization of  $N$ .
3. I don't know how to break this scheme without factoring  $N$ .

No one I know or have heard of admits to knowing how to factor  $N$ .  
Breaking in general sense  $\implies$  factoring algorithm.

## Much more to it.....

If Bob sends a message (Credit Card Number) to Alice,  
Eve sees it.

**Eve can send credit card again!!**

The protocols are built on RSA but more complicated;  
For example, several rounds of challenge/response.

One trick:

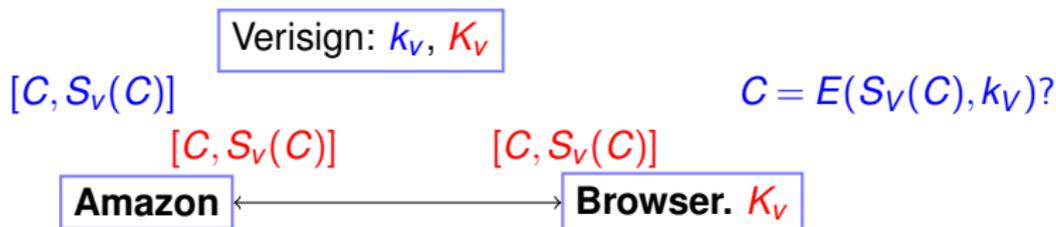
Bob encodes credit card number,  $c$ ,  
concatenated with random  $k$ -bit number  $r$ .

Never sends just  $c$ .

Again, more work to do to get entire system.

CS161...

# Signatures using RSA.



Certificate Authority: Verisign, GoDaddy, DigiNotar,...

Verisign's key:  $K_V = (N, e)$  and  $k_V = d$  ( $N = pq$ .)

Browser "knows" Verisign's public key:  $K_V$ .

Amazon Certificate:  $C =$  "I am Amazon. My public Key is  $K_A$ ."

Verisign signature of  $C$ :  $S_V(C)$ :  $D(C, k_V) = C^d \pmod N$ .

Browser receives:  $[C, y]$

Checks  $E(y, K_V) = C?$

$E(S_V(C), K_V) = (S_V(C))^e = (C^d)^e = C^{de} = C \pmod N$

Valid signature of Amazon certificate  $C!$

Security: Eve can't forge unless she "breaks" RSA scheme.

# RSA

Public Key Cryptography:

$$D(E(m, K), k) = (m^e)^d \bmod N = m.$$

Signature scheme:

$$E(D(C, k), K) = (C^d)^e \bmod N = C$$

## Other Eve.

Get CA to certify fake certificates: Microsoft Corporation.

2001..Doh.

... and August 28, 2011 announcement.

DigiNotar Certificate issued for Microsoft!!!

How does Microsoft get a CA to issue certificate to them ...

and only them?

# Summary.

Public-Key Encryption.

RSA Scheme:

$N = pq$  and  $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$ .

$$E(x) = x^e \pmod{N}.$$

$$D(y) = y^d \pmod{N}.$$

Repeated Squaring  $\implies$  efficiency.

Fermat's Theorem  $\implies$  correctness.

Good for Encryption and Signature Schemes.