

CMSC/Math 456: Cryptography (Fall 2022)

Lecture 28

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Administrative

Problem set #9 due tonight at midnight.

Final exam: Monday, Dec. 19, 1:30-3:30 PM, here (IRB 0318)

- Will be **open book** again (textbook, lecture notes)
- Students taking the final at ADS: Remember to book with them soon.
- Today (last lecture): Review for final
- Topics covered: Everything up to (and including) post-quantum cryptography

Course evaluations are now available to fill out.

The last 15 minutes of class will be reserved for course evaluations.

Office hours: I will hold an extended office hour next week, from **10:30 AM-12:30 AM Tuesday Dec. 13.**

A list of **topics covered in the course** is available on the course website.

Modular Arithmetic Summary

- Elements of \mathbb{Z}_N^*
- Euclid's algorithm
- Groups
- Modular exponentiation and order
- Chinese remainder theorem

Elements of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

Let us work through the structure of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* in detail.

First: What are the elements of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* ?

Recall: the $*$ indicates that we are talking only about the elements that have a **multiplicative inverse** — those that are **relatively prime** to 21.

$$\mathbb{Z}_{21}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20\}$$

The number of elements of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* is $\varphi(21) = 12$.

Recall: $\varphi(N)$ is the number of numbers that are relatively prime to N . When p is prime, $\varphi(p) = p - 1$. When $N = pq$ with p and q prime, $\varphi(N) = (p - 1)(q - 1)$.

Non-Elements of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

What are *not* elements of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* ?

Multiples of 3 and 7, specifically 0, 3, 6, 7, 9, 12, 14, 15, 18.

Why not?

These have no multiplicative inverses. For instance, consider $6i \pmod{21}$:

i	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
6i	0	6	12	18	3	9	15	0	6	12	18	3	9	15	0	6	12	18	3	9	15

Nothing can be multiplied by 6 to give 1: 6 has no multiplicative inverse. This also means that division by 6 doesn't make sense in general $\pmod{21}$.

Multiplicative Inverses

The elements of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* *do* have multiplicative inverses mod 21.

Example: The multiplicative inverse of 8 mod 21 is 8:

$$8 \cdot 8 = 64 = 1 \pmod{21}$$

But note that if we are working mod 15, then the inverse of 8 is 2:

$$8 \cdot 2 = 16 = 1 \pmod{15}$$

and 8 doesn't have a multiplicative inverse mod 10.

Dividing by 8 is equivalent to multiplying by its inverse:

$$11/8 = 11 \cdot 8 = 4 \pmod{21}$$

$$11/8 = 11 \cdot 2 = 7 \pmod{15}$$

We can find inverses using Euclid's algorithm.

Euclid's Algorithm Summary

Euclid's algorithm finds the **GCD** (greatest common divisor) of two numbers. An extension (sometimes called the **extended Euclidean algorithm**) finds coefficients **X** and **Y** such that

$$Xa + Yb = \text{gcd}(a, b)$$

It works by subtracting multiples of the smaller number from the larger number and then continually updating and repeating the process.

It has many uses, including finding the **GCD** of two numbers or finding multiplicative inverses.

Euclid's Algorithm

Let $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$. Assume $a > b$.
 $i = 1, X_0 = 1, Y_0 = 0, X_1 = 0, Y_1 = 1$

Repeat:

$$r_{i+1} = r_{i-1} \bmod r_i$$

$$m_i = \lfloor r_{i-1}/r_i \rfloor$$

$$X_{i+1} = X_{i-1} - m_i X_i$$

$$Y_{i+1} = Y_{i-1} - m_i Y_i$$

$$i = i + 1$$

Until $r_i = 0$

Output:

$$\gcd(a, b) = r_{i-1}$$

$$X = X_{i-1}, Y = Y_{i-1}$$

Example:

$$r_0 = 21, r_1 = 8$$

$$r_2 = 5,$$

$$X_2 = 1, Y_2 = -2$$

$$r_3 = 3,$$

$$X_3 = -1, Y_3 = 3$$

$$r_4 = 2,$$

$$X_4 = 2, Y_4 = -5$$

$$r_5 = 1,$$

$$X_5 = -3, Y_5 = 8$$

$$r_6 = 0$$

$$\gcd(21, 8) = 1,$$
$$1 = -3 \cdot 21 + 8 \cdot 8$$

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Until $r_i = 0$

Output:

$$\gcd(a, b) = r_{i-1}$$

$$X = X_{i-1}, Y = Y_{i-1}$$

Example:

$$r_0 = 21, r_1 = 8$$

$$\begin{array}{|l} r_2 = 5, \\ X_2 = 1, Y_2 = -2 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|l} r_3 = 3, \\ X_3 = -1, Y_3 = 3 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|l} r_4 = 2, \\ X_4 = 2, Y_4 = -5 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|l} r_5 = 1, \\ X_5 = -3, Y_5 = 8 \end{array}$$

$$r_6 = 0$$

$$\gcd(21, 8) = 1, \\ 1 = -3 \cdot 21 + 8 \cdot 8$$

$8^{-1} \bmod 21$

Group Theory Summary

Definition: A **group** $(G, *)$ is a set G of elements along with a binary operation $* : G \times G \rightarrow G$ with the following properties:

1. **Closure:** $g * h \in G$ when $g, h \in G$.
2. **Associativity:** $\forall g, h, k \in G, (g * h) * k = g * (h * k)$.
3. **Identity:** $\exists e \in G$ such that $\forall g \in G, e * g = g * e = g$.
4. **Inverses:** $\forall g \in G, \exists g^{-1} \in G$ such that $g * g^{-1} = g^{-1} * g = e$.

A **subgroup** H of G , written $H \leq G$ is a subset of G which is also a group. The **order** $|G|$ of a finite group G is the number of elements.

A set S **generates** a group G if all elements of G can be written as products of elements of S . A group that can be generated by just one element is **cyclic**.

Lagrange's Theorem: If H and G are finite groups with $H \leq G$, then $|H|$ divides $|G|$.

\mathbb{Z}_{21}^* as a Group

\mathbb{Z}_{21}^* (or any \mathbb{Z}_N^*) is a group with multiplication as the group operation:

- Multiplication is **closed**: $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{21} \Rightarrow ab \bmod 21 \in \mathbb{Z}_{21}$.
- **Associative**: $(ab)c = a(bc) \bmod 21$.
- **Identity** is **1**: $a \cdot 1 = 1 \cdot a = a$.
- **Inverses**: This is why we used \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* instead of \mathbb{Z}_{21} .

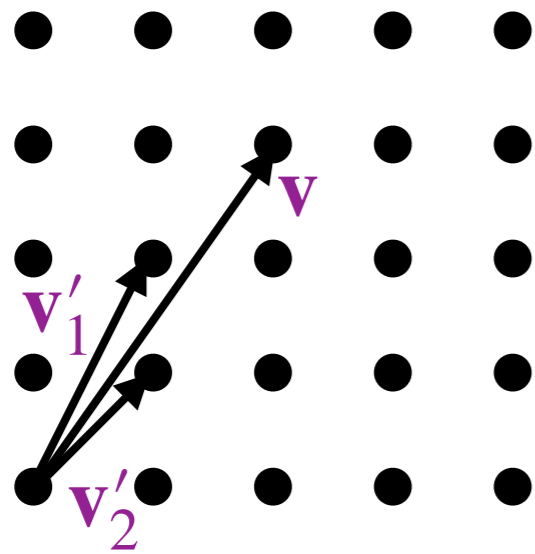
Note that \mathbb{Z}_{21} under multiplication would satisfy all conditions but the last one.

\mathbb{Z}_{21} is a group as well, but only when the group operation is addition rather than multiplication.

Lattice as a Group

A lattice is a group under **addition** of vectors.

$$L = \left\{ \sum_i s_i \mathbf{v}_i \mid s_i \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$$

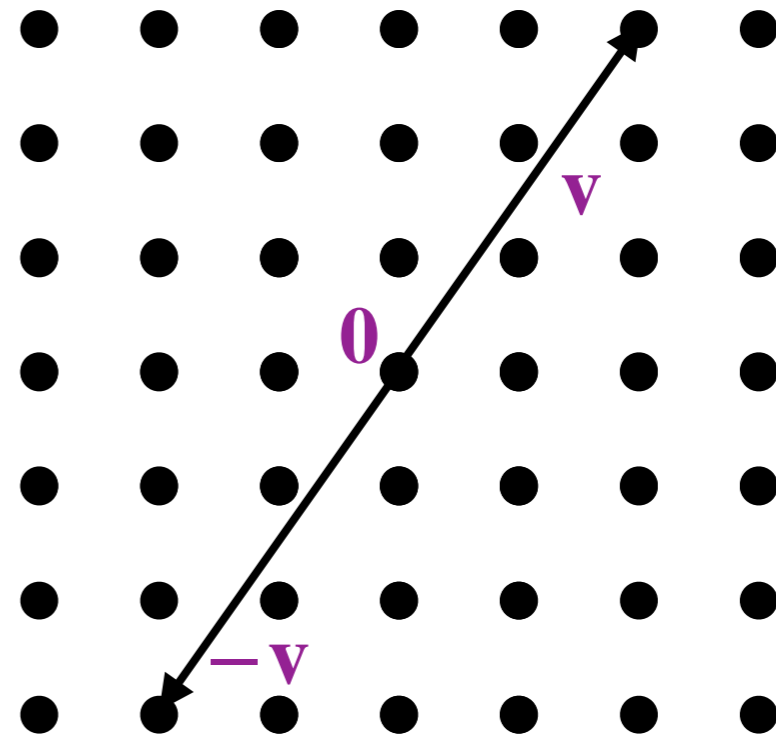


Closure: If \mathbf{v}'_1 and \mathbf{v}'_2 are in the lattice, then $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}'_1 + \mathbf{v}'_2$ is also in the lattice.

Associativity: Addition is associative:
 $(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) + \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} + (\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{x})$.

Identity: The origin, $\mathbf{0}$ vector is in the lattice, and $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$.

Inverse: If \mathbf{v} is in the lattice, $-\mathbf{v}$ is in the lattice, and $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$.



Modular Exponentiation

$x^a \bmod N$ can be computed efficiently (i.e., in a time polynomial in $\log x$, $\log a$, and $\log N$) using repeated squaring.

Modular exponentials satisfy all the usual properties of exponentials. For instance:

$$x^a x^b = x^{a+b} \bmod N$$

$$(x^a)^b = x^{ab} \bmod N$$

$$x^a y^a = (xy)^a \bmod N$$

$$x^{-a} = 1/(x^a) \bmod N$$

Let us calculate the order of elements in \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* under modular exponentiation. **Lagrange's Theorem** tells us all orders must be factors of $|\mathbb{Z}_{21}^*| = \varphi(21) = 12$.

Recall: The **order** of $x \bmod N$ is the smallest integer $r > 0$ such that $x^r = 1 \bmod N$.

Orders in \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

This class is being recorded

Orders in \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

$1^1 = 1 \pmod{21}$ Order of 1 is 1.

Orders in \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

$1^1 = 1 \pmod{21}$ Order of 1 is 1 .

$2^1 = 2, 2^2 = 4, 2^3 = 8, 2^4 = 16, 2^5 = 11, 2^6 = 1 \pmod{21}$

Order of 2 is 6 .

Orders in \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

$1^1 = 1 \pmod{21}$ Order of 1 is 1.

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Order of 2 is 6.

$4^1 = 4, 4^2 = 16, 4^3 = 1 \pmod{21}$ Order of 4 is 3.

Orders in \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

$1^1 = 1 \pmod{21}$ Order of 1 is 1.

$2^1 = 2, 2^2 = 4, 2^3 = 8, 2^4 = 16, 2^5 = 11, 2^6 = 1 \pmod{21}$

Order of 2 is 6.

$4^1 = 4, 4^2 = 16, 4^3 = 1 \pmod{21}$ Order of 4 is 3.

But note: $2^2 = 4 \pmod{21}$ and 2 has order 6.

Therefore, $4^3 = (2^2)^3 = 2^6 \pmod{21}$.

We can deduce the order of 4 by looking at the powers of 2.

Orders in \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

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More generally,

$$\text{ord}(g^j) = \text{ord}(g) / \gcd(j, \text{ord}(g))$$

E.g., if j and $\text{ord}(g)$ are relatively prime, then $\text{ord}(g^j) = \text{ord}(g)$.

Orders Continued

$$5^1 = 5, 5^2 = 4, 5^3 = 20, 5^4 = 16, 5^5 = 17, 5^6 = 1 \pmod{21}$$

Order of **5** is **6**.

We can also conclude that the order of **17** is **6** as well, and the order of **20** is **2**.

$$10^1 = 10, 10^2 = 16, 10^3 = 13, 10^4 = 4, 10^5 = 19, 10^6 = 1 \pmod{21}$$

Order of **10** is **6**.

From this and the previous slide, we conclude that **11** and **19** also have order **6**, that **8** and **13** have order **2**, and that **16** has order **3**.

Cyclic Subgroups of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^*

The results of the previous page also tell us the subgroup structure of \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* :

3 cyclic subgroups of order 6:

$$\{1,2,4,8,11,16\} \quad \{1,4,5,16,17,20\} \quad \{1,4,10,13,16,19\}$$

1 cyclic subgroup of order 3:

$$\{1,4,16\}$$

3 cyclic subgroups of order 2:

$$\{1,8\} \quad \{1,13\} \quad \{1,20\}$$

1 cyclic subgroup of order 1:

$$\{1\}$$

Note that \mathbb{Z}_{21}^* is not cyclic; it doesn't have to be since 21 is not prime. But when p is prime, \mathbb{Z}_p^* is cyclic.

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Chinese remainder theorem: When a, b relatively prime,

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

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

have unique solution $x \pmod{ab}$.

Algorithm:

Run Euclid's algorithm to find X and Y such that

$$aX + bY = 1$$

Then

$$x = x_b aX + x_a bY$$

Example: $a = 3, b = 7, x_a = 2,$
 $x_b = 1$

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

$$x = 1 \pmod{7}$$

Euclid's algorithm:

$$3 * (-2) + 7 * 1 = 1$$

$$X = -2, Y = 1$$

Then

$$x = 1 * 3 * (-2) + 2 * 7 * 1$$

$$= -6 + 14 = 8 \pmod{21}$$

