

Introduction to Cryptology

Lecture-02 Mathematical Background for Cryptography: Modular Arithmetic and gcd

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Mathematical Background Number Theory, Groups, Rings and Fields

Outlines

- Euclidean Algorithm, Remainder
Greatest Common Divisor (gcd) | [part 1](#)
- Group Theory, Rings, Finite Fields
Element's Order, Euler Theorem | [part 2](#)
- Prime Numbers
• Prime Number Generation | [part 3](#)
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Deepest thanks

To **James Massey** (ETH Zürich),
for allowing me to use his lecture slides in 1987.

Many slides, especially those on mathematical
fundamentals were inspired or used in modified forms in
whole or in part from Jim Massey's lecture slides.

I had the pleasure and luck to be first introduced to this topic
by Jim Massey at the ETH Zurich in 1985



1934-2013

*James Massey is a well known
coding theorist and cryptographer
Having outstanding and major
fundamental contributions in the
last 60 years in the theory and
technology of coding and
cryptography.*

Mathematical Background: in Number Theory

In many modern cryptographic systems, data blocks are represented as integers. Therefore
integer algebra need to be introduced in the form of number theory:

Number sets of interest in cryptography:

- Natural numbers $\mathbb{N} = 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ \dots$
- Integers set $\mathbb{Z} = \dots -3 \ -2 \ -1 \ 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ \dots$

- For any integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n > 1$:

$$n = \prod_{i=1}^r p_i \quad \text{where all } p_i \text{'s are prime factors of } n$$

r is the number of prime factors of n .

Modern cryptosystems deploy intensively the above two number sets \mathbb{N} and \mathbb{Z} in
representing data blocks.

Integer Algebra: Euclidean Division Theorem for Integers

For any Integers n and d with $d \neq 0$ there is q and r , such that:

$$\begin{aligned} n/d &= q + r/d \\ n &= qd + r \quad \text{where } 0 \leq r < |d| \end{aligned}$$

We say: $R_d(n) = r$, r is **Remainder** of n modulo d

Example: $13/5 = 2 + 3/5$
or $13 = 2 \cdot 5 + 3$

In the remainder algebra $R_5(13) = 3$

Integer Algebra: Some Rules in the Remainder Arithmetic

Superposition Property (in linear systems):

$$R_d(a + b) = R_d [R_d(a) + R_d(b)]$$

$$R_d(a \cdot b) = R_d [R_d(a) \cdot R_d(b)]$$

Examples:

$$R_5(7 + 14) = R_5 [R_5(7) + R_5(14)] \\ = R_5 [2 + 4] = R_5(6) = 1$$

$$R_5(9 \cdot 22) = R_5 [R_5(9) \cdot R_5(22)] \\ = R_5 [4 \cdot 2] = R_5(8) = 3$$

Equivalence Theorem: In the integer remainder system modulo d

$$R_d(n) = R_d(n + i \cdot d) \text{ where } n, i \text{ are any integers}$$

Example: Remainders modulo 5 (adding and subtracting multiples of 5):

$$R_5(7) = R_5[7 + 3 \times 5] = R_5[22] = 2$$

$$R_5(7) = R_5[7 + -2 \times 5] = R_5[-3] = 2$$

In this remainder algebra: $22 \equiv -3 \equiv 2$
(all are equivalent)

The Standard Array of remainders in Z:

Integers having the same remainder can be tabulated in the so called "Standard Array" or "Steinian Array". For $d=5$, the elements of Z can be ordered in a table having 5 cosets:

r
0	...	-10	-5	0	5	10	15	...	←	Remainder Class (coset)
1	...	-9	-4	1	6	11	16	...		
2	...	-8	-3	2	7	12	17	...		
3	...	-7	-2	3	8	13	18	...		
4	...	-6	-1	4	9	14	19	...		

Example this coset is equivalent to 3
We have a total of 5 such cosets modulo 5

Coset leader
smallest positive integer (Remainder)

gcd: the greatest common divisor of Integers

$gcd(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n)$ is the greatest positive integer which divides m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n without remainder.

Example: $gcd(15, 5) = 5$
 $gcd(15, 9, 27, 12) = 3$

If $gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$, then n_1, n_2 are called **relatively prime integers (coprimes)**

Example: $gcd(15, 28) = 1 \Rightarrow 15, 28$ are relatively prime or coprimes

Properties of gcd:

$gcd(n, 0) = n$ (for $n \neq 0$)
 $gcd(0, 0) = ?$, undefined (if $n = 0$)
 $gcd(n_1, n_2) = gcd(n_2, n_1)$
 $gcd(n_1, n_2) = gcd(\pm n_1, \pm n_2)$

The fundamental property of gcd:

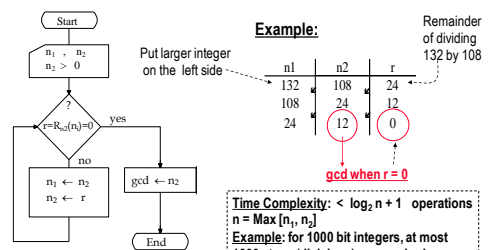
$gcd(n_1, n_2) = gcd(n_1 + i \cdot n_2, n_2)$
or $gcd(n_1, n_2) = gcd(R_{n_2}(n_1), n_2)$

Examples:

$gcd(15, 10) = gcd(15 + 10, 10) = gcd(25, 10)$
 $= gcd(15 - 2 \times 10, 10) = gcd(-5, 10)$

Or $gcd(15, 10) = gcd(R_{10}(15), 10) = gcd(5, 10) = gcd(5, R_5(10)) = gcd(5, 0) = 5$

Euclidean gcd Algorithm



Stein's improvement for the Euclidean gcd Algorithm

Karl Stein Prof. Univ LMU München (1913-2000). Mathematician, Cryptographer

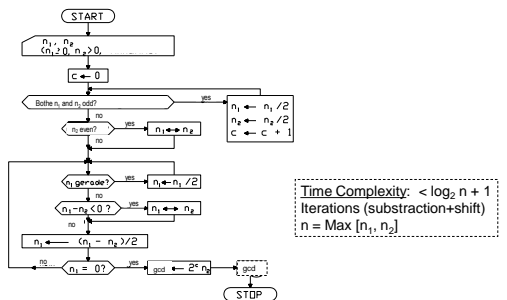
There are 4 cases for n_1 and n_2 being even or odd integers:

- n_1 and n_2 are even: $\rightarrow gcd(n_1, n_2) = 2 \cdot gcd(n_1/2, n_2/2)$
- n_1 even, n_2 odd: $\rightarrow gcd(n_1, n_2) = gcd(n_1/2, n_2)$
- n_1 odd, n_2 even: $\rightarrow gcd(n_1, n_2) = gcd(n_1, n_2/2)$
- n_1 and n_2 are odd: $\rightarrow gcd(n_1, n_2) = gcd[(n_1 - n_2)/2, n_2]$

This simplifies the Euclidean algorithm to avoid real division operations as dividing an even integer by 2 is just a single bit right-shift (skip LSB).

Example: $6/2=3$ in binary form $110/2 = 011$

Stein's Improvement for the Euclidean gcd Algorithm



Time Complexity: $< \log_2 n + 1$ iterations (subtraction+shift) $n = \text{Max}[n_1, n_2]$

Special gcd Properties

$$\gcd(t^{n-1}, t^{m-1}) = t \gcd(n, m) - 1$$

Examples:

$$\gcd(2^{15}-1, 2^{20}-1) = 2^{\gcd(15,20)} - 1 = 2^5 - 1 = 31$$

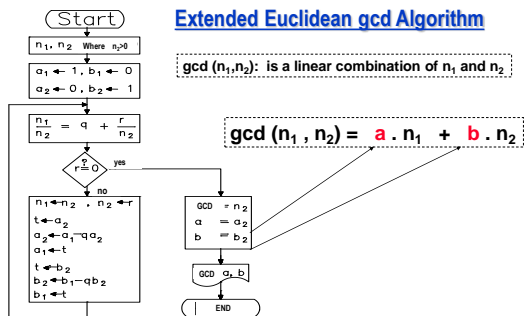
$$\gcd[(x+y)^{15}-1, (x+y)^{20}-1] = (x+y)^5 - 1$$

more general:

$$\gcd(x^d - x, x^q - x) = x^{\gcd(n,d)} - x$$

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Extended Euclidean gcd Algorithm



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Example 1 : Extended Euclidean gcd Algorithm

$$\gcd(n_1, n_2) = a \cdot n_1 + b \cdot n_2$$

$$\gcd(156, 117) = a \cdot 156 + b \cdot 117 \quad \text{find } a \text{ and } b$$

n_1	n_2	a_1	b_1	a_2	b_2	q	r	computation
156	117	1	0	0	-1	1	39	$156/117=1+39/117$
117	39	0	1	-1	-1	3	0	

gcd

$$a_1 \cdot q a_2 = 1 - 1 \cdot 39 = 0 = 1$$

$$b_1 \cdot q b_2 = 0 - 1 \cdot 39 = -39$$

$$\gcd(156, 117) = a \cdot 156 + b \cdot 117$$

$$= 1 \cdot 156 + (-1) \cdot 117 = 39$$

$$\Rightarrow a = 1, b = -1$$

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Example 2 : Extended Euclidean gcd Algorithm

$$\gcd(n_1, n_2) = a \cdot n_1 + b \cdot n_2$$

Compute $\gcd(38, 7) = a \cdot 38 + b \cdot 7$ find a and b

$a_1 \cdot q a_2 = 1 - 5 \cdot 0 = 1$
 $b_1 \cdot q b_2 = 0 - 5 \cdot 1 = -5$

n_1	n_2	a_1	b_1	a_2	b_2	q	r	computation
38	7	1	0	0	1	5	3	$38/7=5+3/38$
7	3	0	1	1	-5	2	1	$7/3=2+1/7$
3	1	-5	-5	0	-5	3	0	$3/1=3+0/3$

gcd

$$\gcd(38, 7) = a \cdot 38 + b \cdot 7$$

$$= -2 \cdot 38 + 11 \cdot 7 = 1$$

Check! $-76 + 77 = 1$

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Extended "gcd" and the Modular Multiplicative Inversion

Definition: If an integer is invertible under multiplication modulo m , then it is called a **unit**

Example: $2 \cdot 3 = 6 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$

says that: 3 is the multiplicative inverse of 2 modulo 5 ($2^{-1}=3$)

or 2 is the multiplicative inverse of 3 modulo 5 ($3^{-1}=2$)

Fundamental Theorem of units:

An integer u is a unit modulo m (or u has a multiplicative inverse modulo m) iff (if and only if):

$$\gcd(m, u) = 1$$

Computing the multiplicative inverse: If $\gcd(m, u) = 1$ then $a \cdot m + b \cdot u = 1$

Taking the remainder modulo m of both sides: $R_m(a \cdot m + b \cdot u) = R_m(1)$

$$R_m(b \cdot u) = 1$$

$$\text{or } R_m(b \cdot R_m(u)) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow u^{-1} = R_m(b)$$

$$\text{or } u^{-1} = b \pmod{m}$$

That is the multiplicative inverse of $u \pmod{m}$ is the parameter $b \pmod{m}$ in the extended Euclidean gcd Algorithm.

Example: $\gcd(7, 3) = 1 = 1 \cdot 7 - 2 \cdot 3$ (Extended Euclidean Algorithm)

$$R_7(1 \cdot 7 - 2 \cdot 3) = 1$$

$$R_7(-2 \cdot 3) = 1 \Rightarrow R_7(3^{-1}) = -2 \text{ or } -2 = -2 + 7 = 5 \pmod{7}$$

$$\text{That is } 3^{-1} = -2 = 5 \pmod{7} \quad \text{Check: } 3 \cdot -2 = -6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \text{ or } 3 \cdot 5 = 15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

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Example 3 : Extended gcd Algorithm and Multiplicative Inverse

$$\gcd(n_1, n_2) = a \cdot n_1 + b \cdot n_2$$

Question: Compute the multiplicative inverse of 9 modulo 11

Solution: Compute $\gcd(11, 9) = a \cdot 11 + b \cdot 9 = 1$
 if $\gcd=1$, then the inverse is b

$a_1 \cdot q a_2 = 1 - 0 \cdot 0 = 1$
 $b_1 \cdot q b_2 = 0 - 0 \cdot 1 = 0$

n_1	n_2	a_1	b_1	a_2	b_2	q	r	computation
11	9	1	0	0	-1	1	2	$11/9 = 1 + 2/11$
9	2	0	1	1	-1	4	1	$9/2 = 4 + 1/2$
2	1	-1	-1	0	-1	2	0	$2/1 = 2 + 0/1$

gcd

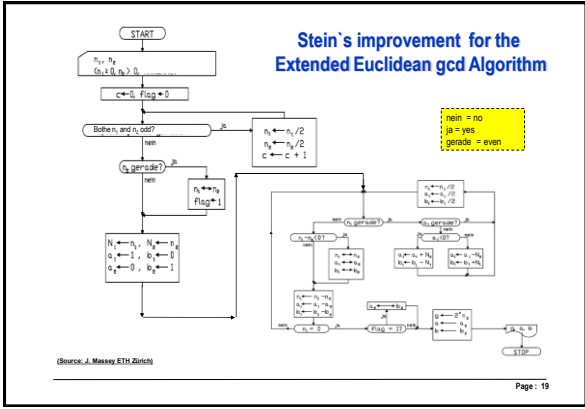
$$\gcd(11, 9) = a \cdot 11 + b \cdot 9$$

$$= -4 \cdot 11 + 5 \cdot 9 = 1 \pmod{11} \Rightarrow 5 \cdot 9 \pmod{11} = 1$$

Check! $-44 + 45 = 1$

That is $9^{-1} \pmod{11} = 5$

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Extended gcd Solution as Excel Sheet:

Solution: Compute $\text{gcd}(156, 17) = a \times 156 + b \times 17 = 1$
if $\text{gcd}=1$, then the inverse is **b**

m	u	a1	a2	b1	b2	q	r	INVERSE VALUE = B2	GCD
156	17	1	0	0	1	9	3		
17	3	0	1	1	-9	5	2		
3	2	1	-5	-9	46	1	1		
2	1	-5	6	46	-55	2	0	NVERSE=-55	GCD= 1

Check: $17 \times -55 = -935 = -155 \times 6 + 156 \times 1 \pmod{156}$
Or $17^{-1} = -55 = -55 + 156 = 101$

Check: $17 \times 101 = 1717 = 1 \pmod{156}$

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