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Next topic: RSA Public-key crypto system
[Rivest-Shamir-Adleman '77]

Today: Math behind RSA

Next lecture: RSA & primality testing.

Modular arithmetic,

For integer x ,
 $x \bmod 2 = \begin{cases} \text{least significant bit of } x &= 1 \text{ if } x \text{ is odd} \\ &= 0 \text{ if } x \text{ is even} \end{cases}$

In general, for integer $N \geq 1$

$x \bmod N = \begin{array}{l} \text{remainder when divide } x \text{ by } N \\ = r \text{ where } x = qN + r \text{ for integers } q, r. \end{array}$

which q ? Doesn't matter.

Example: $\bmod 3$ has 3 equivalence classes:

..., -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, ...

..., -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, ...

..., -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, 11, ...

(2)

Denote equivalence as \equiv

$$\text{So } 3 \equiv -6 \pmod{3}$$

$$\& -4 \equiv 11 \pmod{3}$$

$$51 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$$

Basic fact: if $x \equiv x' \pmod{N}$ & $y \equiv y' \pmod{N}$,

$$\text{then } x+y \equiv x'+y' \pmod{N}$$

$$\& xy \equiv x'y' \pmod{N}$$

(so can replace x by x' & y by $y' \pmod{N}$)

Example: What's $2^{345} \pmod{31}$?

$$\text{hint: } 345 = 5 \times 69.$$

$$2^{345} \equiv (2^5)^{69} \equiv (32)^{69} \equiv (1)^{69} \equiv 1 \pmod{31}$$

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We'll work with HUGE numbers, e.g., 1000 or 4000 bit numbers.

Let $n = \#$ of bits.

How long to compute $x+y$ or xy ?

\nearrow \uparrow

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

Similar to multiplication, $x \div y$ takes $O(n^2)$ time,
 \therefore hence $x \bmod N$ takes $O(n^2)$ time.

For modular arithmetic,

for n -bit x, y, N ,

To compute $x+y \bmod N$ (want result ~~in~~ in $0, \dots, N-1$)

1. add $x+y$
2. If $x+y \geq N$ then output $x+y-N$
 else output $x+y$.

$\Rightarrow O(n)$ time.

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To compute $xy \bmod N$:

1. Compute xy (note, $xy \leq 2^{2n}$ so $\leq 2n$ bits)
 2. Compute $xy \div N$ & output remainder
- $\Rightarrow O(n^2)$ time since $xy \& N$ are $O(n)$ bits.

To compute $x^y \bmod N$:

Naive approach:

Compute $x \bmod N$
 then $x^2 \bmod N$
 then $x^3 \bmod N$
 :
 $x^y \bmod N$

$\approx y$ rounds
 but $y \leq 2^n$
 so $O(n^2 2^n)$ time.

Better approach: Powers of 2.

Example: $y = 25 = (11001)_2$

$$\text{then } x^{25} = x^{16} \times x^8 \times x \bmod N$$

So compute $x \bmod N$,
 then $x^2 \equiv (\downarrow) \bmod N$
 then $x^4 \equiv (\checkmark) \bmod N$
 $x^8 \bmod N$
 $x^{16} \bmod N$

D&C View:

$$\text{for even } y, \quad x^y = (x^{y/2})^2$$

$$\text{for odd } y, \quad x^y = (x)(x^{\lfloor \frac{y-1}{2} \rfloor})^2$$

$\Rightarrow n$ rounds, $O(n^2)$ time/round so $O(n^3)$ total time.

Modexp(x, y, N):

input: n -bit integers x, y, N

output: $x^y \bmod N$

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if  $y=0$ , return(1)
z = Modexp( $x, \lfloor \frac{y}{2} \rfloor, N$ )
if  $y$  is even
    then return ( $z^2 \bmod N$ )
else return ( $xz^2 \bmod N$ )

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Inverses: (Multiplicative inverses)

For real numbers $a \times \frac{1}{a} = 1$ ($\frac{1}{a}$ is the inverse of a)

What's $\frac{1}{a} \bmod N$?

Definition: z is the multiplicative inverse of $a \bmod N$
if $az \equiv 1 \bmod N$.

(Note there can be at most one such z within $0, 1, \dots, N-1$)

Denote as $z \equiv a^{-1} \bmod N$.

Examples:

$$N=14$$

$$1^{-1} \equiv 1 \bmod 14$$

$$3^{-1} \equiv 5 \bmod 14$$

$$5^{-1} \equiv 3 \bmod 14$$

$$9^{-1} \equiv 11 \bmod 14$$

$$13^{-1} \equiv 13 \bmod 14$$

$$2^{-1}, 4^{-1}, 6^{-1}, 7^{-1}, 8^{-1}, 10^{-1}, 12^{-1} \bmod 14$$

do not exist

$$N=7$$

$$1^{-1} \equiv 1 \bmod 7$$

$$2^{-1} \equiv 4 \bmod 7$$

$$3^{-1} \equiv 5 \bmod 7$$

$$6^{-1} \equiv 6 \bmod 7.$$

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Theorem: $a^{-1} \bmod N$ exists iff $\gcd(a, N) = 1$

Say a & N are relatively prime.

How to get $a^{-1} \bmod N$, if it exists?

Use the Euclid algorithm to check $\gcd(a, N)$.

Then use the Extended Euclid alg. to find $a^{-1} \bmod N$.

Euclid's algorithm computes $\gcd(x, y)$.

Based on following property:

Euclid's rule: for integers x, y where $x \geq y > 0$,

$$\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(x-y, y)$$

Proof:

if Q divides x & y then it also divides $x-y$
 (say $x=\alpha Q$ & $y=\beta Q$ then $x-y=\delta Q(\alpha-\beta)$).

Thus, $\gcd(x, y) \leq \gcd(x-y, y)$.

if Q divides ~~x~~ $x-y$ & y then it also divides x
 so $\gcd(x-y, y) \leq \gcd(x, y)$. (8)

From Euclid's rule we have:

$$\text{gcd}(x, y) = \text{gcd}(x \bmod y, y)$$

Why? $x \bmod y = x - ky$ where $k = \left\lfloor \frac{x}{y} \right\rfloor$

So we just apply Euclid's rule k times & we get

Now we have our gcd algorithm via D&C:

Euclid(x, y):

input: integers x, y where $x \geq y \geq 0$

output: $\text{gcd}(x, y)$

if $y=0$, return(x)

else return(Euclid($y, x \bmod y$)).

The algorithm is correct because of

What's the running time?

Each round takes $O(n^2)$ time to compute $x \bmod y$.

But how many rounds?

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Observation: if $x \geq y$ then $x \bmod y < \frac{x}{2}$

Proof: if $y \leq \frac{x}{2}$ then $x \bmod y < y \leq \frac{x}{2}$ ✓
 if $y > \frac{x}{2}$ then $x \bmod y = x - y < \frac{x}{2}$ ✓



$(x, y) \rightarrow (y, x \bmod y), (x \bmod y, ?)$

$\leq \frac{1}{2}$

every 2 rounds goes down by factor 2

$S_0 \leq 2n$ rounds.

Since $O(n^2)$ time/round

$\Rightarrow O(n^3)$ total time.

Suppose $\gcd(a, N) = 1$, how do we get $a^{-1} \bmod N$?

Extended-Euclid is a generalization of Euclid's alg.
It returns the $\gcd(x, y)$ & it also
returns integers α & β where $x\alpha + y\beta = d$
for $d = \gcd(x, y)$.

Suppose $d = 1$ so $\gcd(x, y) = 1$.

$$\text{Then } x\alpha + y\beta = 1$$

$$\text{So } x\alpha + y\beta \equiv 1 \pmod{y}$$

$$\text{Since } y\beta \equiv 0 \pmod{y}$$

$$x\alpha \equiv 1 \pmod{y}$$

$$\text{So } \alpha \equiv x^{-1} \pmod{y}$$

Therefore, if we run $\text{Ext-Euclid}(a, N)$

& if $d = \gcd(a, N)$ is 1

then $\alpha \equiv a^{-1} \pmod{N}$ & $\beta \equiv N^{-1} \pmod{a}$.

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Extended-Euclid algorithm is fairly simple but it's unclear why it works until you see the Proof of correctness (by induction).

Ext-Euclid(x, y):

Input: integers x, y where $x \geq y \geq 0$

Output: integers d, α, β where $d = \gcd(x, y)$
 $\& d = x\alpha + y\beta.$

if $y=0$, return($x, 1, 0$)

$(d, \alpha, \beta) = \text{Ext-Euclid}(y, x \bmod y)$

return($d, \beta, \alpha - \lfloor \frac{x}{y} \rfloor \beta$)

Summary:

For n -bit numbers a, b, N

in $\text{poly}(n)$ time we can compute:

$$a^b \bmod N$$

$\& a^{-1} \bmod N$ if $\gcd(a, N) = 1$
(if not then $a^{-1} \bmod N$ does not exist)