

Modular arithmetic

For integer x ,

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

for integer $N \geq 1$,

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

For example, mod 3 has 3 equivalence classes:

$$\dots, -9, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, 9, \dots$$

$$\dots, -8, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, 10, \dots$$

$$\dots, -7, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, 11, \dots$$

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

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

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

Example: what's $2^{345} \pmod{31}$? hint: $345 = 5 \times 69$

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

~~For~~ \in

For n-bit x, y, N ,

To compute $x + y \pmod{N}$:

- add $x + y$ then if $x + y \geq N$ output $(x + y - N)$
else output $(x + y)$

$\Rightarrow O(n)$ time.

To compute $xy \pmod{N}$:

- compute xy ($O(n^2)$ bits long)

- compute xy divided by N & output remainder

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

To compute $x^y \pmod{N}$?

Easy idea: compute

- $x \pmod{N}$
- $x^2 \pmod{N}$
- $x^3 \pmod{N}$
- \vdots
- $x^y \pmod{N}$

} $\approx y$ rounds
& $y \approx 2^n$

so exponential time.

Better: Powers of 2.

(3)

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

then $x^{25} \equiv x^{16} x^8 x \pmod{N}$

So compute $x \pmod{N}, x^2 \pmod{N}, x^4 \pmod{N}, \dots, x^{2^n} \pmod{N}$
n rounds

Repeated squaring:

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

for odd y , $x^y = (x)(x^{y/2})^2$

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

Inverses (Multiplicative inverses):

For real numbers $a \times \frac{1}{a} = 1$

Now what's $\frac{1}{a} \pmod{N}$?

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

Can be at most one such z

denote as $z \equiv a^{-1} \pmod{N}$.

Example: $N=14$

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

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

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

$$9^{-1} \equiv 11 \pmod{14} \quad 11^{-1} \equiv 9 \pmod{14}$$

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

$2^{-1}, 4^{-1}, 6^{-1}, 7^{-1}, 8^{-1}, 10^{-1}, 12^{-1} \pmod{14}$ does not exist.

→ When does the inverse exist?

Theorem: $a^{-1} \pmod{N}$ exists iff $\underbrace{\gcd(a, N) = 1}$,
 a & N are relatively prime.

How to get it?

Use the Extended-Euclid algorithm.

Euclid's rule: for integers x, y where $x \geq y > 0$,
 $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(x \pmod{y}, y)$.
 $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(x - y, y)$

Euclid(x, y):

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

output: $\gcd(x, y)$

if $y=0$, return(x)

else return(Euclid($y, x \pmod{y}$))

Observation: if $x \geq y$ then $x \bmod y < x/2$

Why? if $y \leq x/2$ then $x \bmod y < y \leq x/2$.

if $y > x/2$ then $x \bmod y = x - y < x/2$.

Thus, Euclid's alg. has $\leq 2n$ rounds & $O(n^2)$ time/round
 $\Rightarrow O(n^3)$ total time.

Extended-Euclid(x, y):

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

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

if $y = 0$, return ~~(x, 0, 1)~~ ^{Typo: (x, 1, 0)}

~~(d, \alpha', \beta')~~ = Extended-Euclid($y, x \bmod y$)

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

Why do we care?

if $d = 1 = \gcd(x, y)$ then $1 = x\alpha + y\beta$

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

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

gives a way to get $x^{-1} \pmod{N}$ when $\gcd(x, N) = 1$

Fermat's little theorem:

if p is prime then for all $a \neq 0 \pmod{p}$,

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

⇒ Will use for testing if a given number z is prime
& for RSA cryptosystem.

Proof:

Let $S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$

Look at $S' = aS \pmod{p} = \{a \pmod{p}, 2a \pmod{p}, \dots, (p-1)a \pmod{p}\}$

Example: $p=7, a=3$

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}, S' = \{3, 6, 2, 5, 1, 4\}$$

Claim: $S = S'$

Proof: elements of S' are distinct:

Suppose for $i \neq j$, $a_i \equiv a_j \pmod{p}$

since p is prime, $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ so $a^{-1} \pmod{p}$ exists.

$$a_i a^{-1} \equiv a_j a^{-1} \pmod{p}$$

$$i \equiv j \pmod{p}$$

Similarly, if $a_i \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ then $i \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$.
So S' has $p-1$ non-zero elements. ■

Since $S \equiv S' \pmod{p}$ (just different order)

$$\prod_{z \in S} z \equiv \prod_{z' \in S'} z' \pmod{p}$$

$$(1)(2)(3) \dots (p-1) \equiv (a)(2a)(3a) \dots ((p-1)a) \pmod{p}$$

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

since p is prime, $i^{-1} \pmod{p}$ exists for $1 \leq i \leq p-1$. ~~z~~

Euler's theorem: for any N, a , if $\gcd(a, N) = 1$

then $a^{\phi(N)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$,

where $\phi(N) = \#$ integers $b \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$
where $\gcd(b, N) = 1$

For $N = p$ where p is prime then $\phi(p) = p-1$

so this gives Fermat's little theorem.

For primes p, q let $N = pq$.

Then $\phi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$

so for a rel. prime to N , $a^{(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$.

Back to Fermat's little theorem:

8

Take b, c where $bc \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}$

So $b \equiv c^{-1} \pmod{p-1}$

thus, $bc = 1 + k(p-1)$ for integer k .

Therefore, $a^{bc} \equiv (a)(a^{p-1})^{k+1} \equiv a \pmod{p}$ by

Looking at Euler's theorem:

For primes p, q , let $N = pq$,

Take d, e where $de \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$.

So $de = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$

for a rel. prime to N ,

$a^{de} \equiv (a)(a^{(p-1)(q-1)})^k \equiv a \pmod{N}$.