

Number Theory and its Applications

- Modular Exponentiation
- Euclidean Algorithm for GCD
- Solving Linear Congruences
- Chinese Remainder Theorem and Application to Arithmetic with large numbers
- Covered in Sections 3.6 and 3.7

Based on Rosen and slides by K. Busch 1

Modular Arithmetic Recap

$$a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \qquad m \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

" a is congruent to b modulo m "

$$a \bmod m = b \bmod m$$

Examples: $1 \equiv 13 \pmod{12}$ $0 \equiv m \pmod{m}$

$$11 \equiv 5 \pmod{6} \qquad k \cdot m \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$$

Equivalent statements

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$



$$a \bmod m = b \bmod m$$



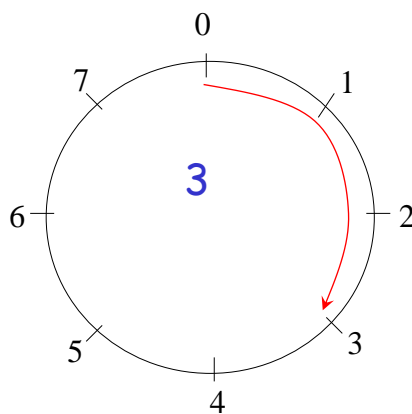
$$m \mid a - b$$



$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad a = b + km$$

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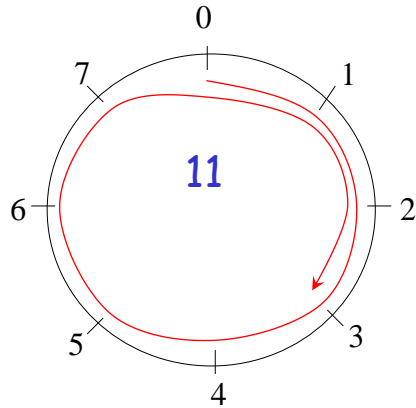
$$3 \bmod 8 = 3$$



Length of line represents number

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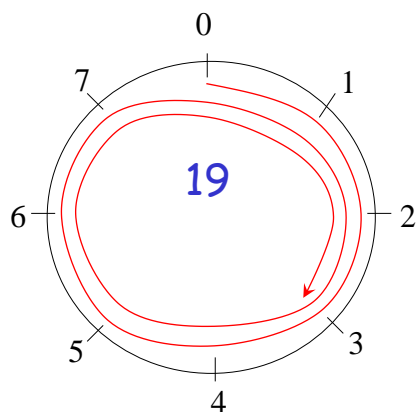
$$11 \bmod 8 = 3$$



Length of line represents number

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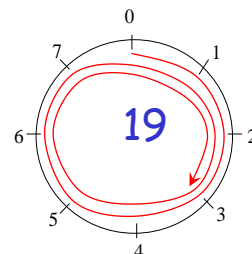
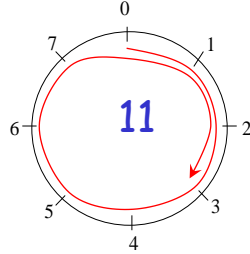
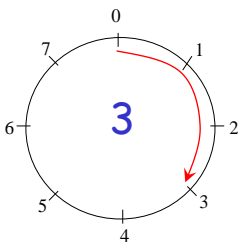
$$19 \bmod 8 = 3$$



Length of line represents number

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$$3 \equiv 11 \equiv 19 \pmod{8}$$



All lines terminate in same number

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"Congruence class" of a modulo m :

$$S_a = \{b \mid a \equiv b \pmod{m}\}$$

There are m congruence classes:

$$S_0, S_1, \dots, S_{m-1}$$

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Closure under addition:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \equiv b \pmod{m} \\ c \equiv d \pmod{m} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$$

Proof sketch:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a = b + sm \\ c \equiv d \pmod{m} \Rightarrow c = d + tm \end{array} \right\} a + c = d + b + (s + t)m$$

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Closure under multiplication:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \equiv b \pmod{m} \\ c \equiv d \pmod{m} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow a \cdot c \equiv b \cdot d \pmod{m}$$

Proof sketch:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a = b + sm \\ c \equiv d \pmod{m} \Rightarrow c = d + tm \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} a \cdot c = (b + sm)(d + tm) \\ = bd + m(bt + ds + stm) \end{array}$$

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Closure under mod:

$$a \bmod m = (a \bmod m) \bmod m$$

(Follows from definition of mod)

$$(7 \bmod 5) = 2$$

$$(7 \bmod 5) \bmod 5 = 2 \bmod 5 = 2$$

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Useful results for arithmetic with large numbers:

$$(a + b) \bmod m = ((a \bmod m) + (b \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

$$ab \bmod m = ((a \bmod m)(b \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

(Follows from previous slides)

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} 57 \cdot 55 \bmod 50 &= ((57 \bmod 50)(55 \bmod 50)) \bmod 50 \\ &= 7 \cdot 5 \bmod 50 \\ &= 35 \end{aligned}$$

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Modular exponentiation

Compute $b^n \bmod m$ efficiently using small numbers

Binary expansion of n

$$b^n = b^{\overbrace{a_{k-1}2^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 2 + a_0}} = b^{a_{k-1}2^{k-1}} \dots b^{a_1 2} b^{a_0}$$

$$b^n \bmod m$$

$$= b^{a_{k-1}2^{k-1}} \dots b^{a_1 2} b^{a_0} \bmod m$$

$$= ((b^{a_{k-1}2^{k-1}} \bmod m) \dots (b^{a_1 2} \bmod m) \cdot (b^{a_0} \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

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Example: $3^{644} \bmod 645 = 36$

$$644 = 1010000100 = 2^9 + 2^7 + 2^2$$

$$3^{644} = 3^{2^9+2^7+2^2} = 3^{2^9} 3^{2^7} 3^{2^2}$$

$$3^{644} \bmod 645$$

$$= (3^{2^9} 3^{2^7} 3^{2^2}) \bmod 645$$

$$= ((3^{2^9} \bmod 645)(3^{2^7} \bmod 645)(3^{2^2} \bmod 645) \bmod 645)$$

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Compute the powers of 3 efficiently

$$3^2 \bmod 645 = 9 \bmod 645 = 9$$

$$3^{2^2} \bmod 645 = (3^2)^2 \bmod 645 = ((3^2 \bmod 645)(3^2 \bmod 645)) \bmod 645 = (9 \cdot 9 \bmod 645) = 81$$

$$3^{2^3} \bmod 645 = (3^{2^2})^2 \bmod 645 = ((3^{2^2} \bmod 645)(3^{2^2} \bmod 645)) \bmod 645 = 81 \cdot 81 \bmod 645 = 111$$

⋮

Use the powers of 3 to get result efficiently

$$3^{644}$$

$$= (3^{2^9} 3^{2^7} 3^{2^2} \bmod 645)$$

$$= (3^{2^9} 3^{2^7} (3^{2^2} \bmod 645) \bmod 645) = (3^{2^9} 3^{2^7} 81 \bmod 645)$$

$$= (3^{2^9} (((3^{2^7} \bmod 645) 81) \bmod 645) \bmod 645) = (3^{2^9} ((396 \cdot 81) \bmod 645) \bmod 645) = (3^{2^9} \cdot 471 \bmod 645)$$

$$= (((3^{2^9} \bmod 645) \cdot 471) \bmod 645) = 111 \cdot 471 \bmod 645 = 36$$

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Modular_Exponentiation(b, n, m) {

$$n = (a_{n-1} a_{n-2} \cdots a_1 a_0)_2$$

$$x \leftarrow 1$$

$$power \leftarrow b \bmod m$$

for $i = 0$ to $k - 1$ {

$$\text{if } (a_i = 1) \text{ } x \leftarrow (x \cdot power) \bmod m$$

$$power \leftarrow (power \cdot power) \bmod m$$

}

return $x \quad (b^n \bmod m)$

}

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Recall: Greatest Common Divisor

$\gcd(a, b) =$ largest integer d
such that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$

$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$

$|a| + |b| \neq 0$

Examples: $\gcd(24, 36) = 12$

Common divisors of 24, 36: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12

$\gcd(17, 22) = 1$

Common divisors of 17, 22: 1

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Trivial cases:

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

$$\gcd(m, 0) = m \quad m \neq 0$$

If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ then a, b are relatively prime

a and b have no common factors

Example: 21, 22 are relatively prime

$$\gcd(21, 22) = 1$$

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How do we compute GCD
efficiently?

(Finding prime factorization is slow)

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Theorem: If $a = b \cdot q + r$ $0 \leq r < b$
then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$

Proof:

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} d \mid a & & a = ds & & r = d(s - tq) & & d \mid r \\ d \mid b & \xrightarrow{\text{yellow}} & b = dt & \xrightarrow{\text{yellow}} & b = dt & \xrightarrow{\text{yellow}} & d \mid b \end{array}$$

Thus, (a, b) and (b, r) have
the same set of common divisors

End of proof

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divisions	$a = r_0$	$b = r_1$	remainder
r_0 / r_1	$r_0 =$	$r_1 q_1 + r_2$	$0 < r_2 < r_1$
r_1 / r_2	$r_1 =$	$r_2 q_2 + r_3$	$0 < r_3 < r_2$
\vdots	\vdots		\vdots
r_{n-2} / r_{n-1}	$r_{n-2} =$	$r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n$	$0 < r_n < r_{n-1}$
r_{n-1} / r_n	$r_{n-1} =$	$r_n q_n + 0$	

first zero
result

$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_2) = \gcd(r_2, r_3) \cdots$
 $\cdots = \gcd(r_{n-2}, r_{n-1}) = \gcd(r_{n-1}, r_n) = \gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n$

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$a = 662$	$b = 414$	
$662 =$	$414 \cdot 1 + 248$	$r_2 = 248 < 414 = r_1$
$414 =$	$248 \cdot 1 + 166$	$r_3 = 166 < 248 = r_2$
$248 =$	$166 \cdot 1 + 82$	$r_4 = 82 < 166 = r_3$
$166 =$	$82 \cdot 2 + 2$	$r_5 = 2 < 82 = r_4$
$82 =$	$2 \cdot 41 + 0$	

result

$\gcd(662, 414) = \gcd(414, 248) = \gcd(248, 166)$
 $= \gcd(166, 82) = \gcd(82, 2) = \gcd(2, 0) = 2$

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Euclidean Algorithm for GCD

```
gcd(a,b) {  
  x ← a  
  y ← b  
  while (y ≠ 0) {  
    r ← x mod y  
    x ← y  
    y ← r  
  }  
  return x  
}
```

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Useful Result regarding GCDs

if $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ then there are $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$$

(i.e., gcd is a linear combination of a and b)

Example: $\gcd(6, 14) = 2 = (-2) \cdot 6 + 1 \cdot 14$

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The linear combination can be found by reversing the Euclidian algorithm steps

$$\gcd(252,198) = 18 = 4 \cdot 252 - 5 \cdot 198$$

$$252 = 1 \cdot 198 + 54$$

$$198 = 3 \cdot 54 + 36$$

$$54 = 1 \cdot 36 + 18$$

$$36 = 2 \cdot 18 + 0$$

$$\gcd(252,198) = 18$$

$$= 54 - 1 \cdot 36 = 54 - 1 \cdot (198 - 3 \cdot 54)$$

$$= 4 \cdot 54 - 1 \cdot 198 = 4 \cdot (252 - 1 \cdot 198) - 1 \cdot 198$$

$$= 4 \cdot 252 - 5 \cdot 198$$

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Linear congruences

We want to solve this equation for x

$$a \cdot x \equiv b \pmod{m}$$



$$x \equiv ? \pmod{m}$$

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Inverse of a : $\bar{a}a \equiv 1(\text{mod } m)$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \cdot x \equiv b(\text{mod } m) \\ \bar{a} \equiv \bar{a} \text{ mod } m \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \bar{a}a \cdot x \equiv \bar{a}b(\text{mod } m)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \bar{a}a \equiv 1(\text{mod } m) \\ x \equiv x(\text{mod } m) \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \bar{a}a \cdot x \equiv 1 \cdot x(\text{mod } m)$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$x \equiv \bar{a}b(\text{mod } m)$$

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Theorem: If a and m are relatively prime then the inverse \bar{a} modulo m exists

Proof: $\text{gcd}(a, m) = 1 = sa + tm$ (linear combo theorem)

$$\downarrow$$

$$sa \equiv 1(\text{mod } m) \quad (\text{Def. of mod})$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\bar{a} = s \quad (\text{Def. of inverse mod } m)$$

End of proof

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Sun-Tzu's Puzzle

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

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

What is x ?

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Chinese remainder theorem (CRT)

m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n : pairwise relatively prime

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

\vdots

$$x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$$

Has unique solution for x modulo $m = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdots m_n$

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Unique solution modulo $m = m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdots m_n$:

$$x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + \cdots + a_n M_n y_n$$

where $M_k = \frac{m}{m_k}$

y_k : inverse of M_k modulo m_k

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Explanation:

y_k : inverse of M_k modulo m_k

$$M_k = \frac{m}{m_k}$$

$$M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}$$

$k = 1$: $M_1 y_1 \equiv 1 \pmod{m_1}$

$$x = a_1 \overset{0 \pmod{m_1}}{M_1} y_1 + a_2 \overset{0 \pmod{m_1}}{M_2} y_2 + \cdots + a_n \overset{0 \pmod{m_1}}{M_n} y_n$$

$$x \equiv a_1 M_1 y_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$M_{k \neq 1} \equiv 0 \pmod{m_1}$$

$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$ i.e., x satisfies 1st equation

Similar for any m_j

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Example: $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

$$m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105 \quad M_1 = m/3 = 105/3 = 35 \quad y_1 = 2$$

$$M_2 = m/5 = 105/5 = 21 \quad y_2 = 1$$

$$M_3 = m/7 = 105/7 = 15 \quad y_3 = 1$$

$$x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + a_3 M_3 y_3$$

$$= 2 \cdot 35 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 21 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 15 \cdot 1$$

$$= 233 \equiv 23 \pmod{3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7} \equiv 23 \pmod{105}$$

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An Application of CRT

Perform arithmetic with large numbers
using arithmetic modulo small numbers

Example: Suppose your CPU can only perform fast arithmetic for positive integers < 100 , but your input numbers are huge.

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An Application of CRT

Idea: Convert your large numbers to small numbers < 100 using mod, perform modular arithmetic, convert back using CRT.

Choose relatively prime numbers < 100

$$m_1 = 99, \quad m_2 = 98, \quad m_3 = 97, \quad m_4 = 95$$

$$m = 99 \cdot 98 \cdot 97 \cdot 95 = 89,403,930$$

Any number smaller than m has unique Representation (CRT)

$$123,684 \bmod 99 = 33$$

$$123,684 \bmod 98 = 8$$

$$123,684 \bmod 97 = 9$$

$$123,684 = (33, 8, 9, 89)$$

$$123,684 \bmod 95 = 89$$

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Decimal Mod representation

$$123,684 = (33, 8, 9, 89)$$

$$+ 413,456 = (32, 92, 42, 16)$$

$$(65 \bmod 99, 100 \bmod 98, 51 \bmod 97, 105 \bmod 95)$$

$$537,140 = (65, 2, 51, 10)$$

Obtain answer x from 65, 2, 51, 10 using the Chinese remainder theorem

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