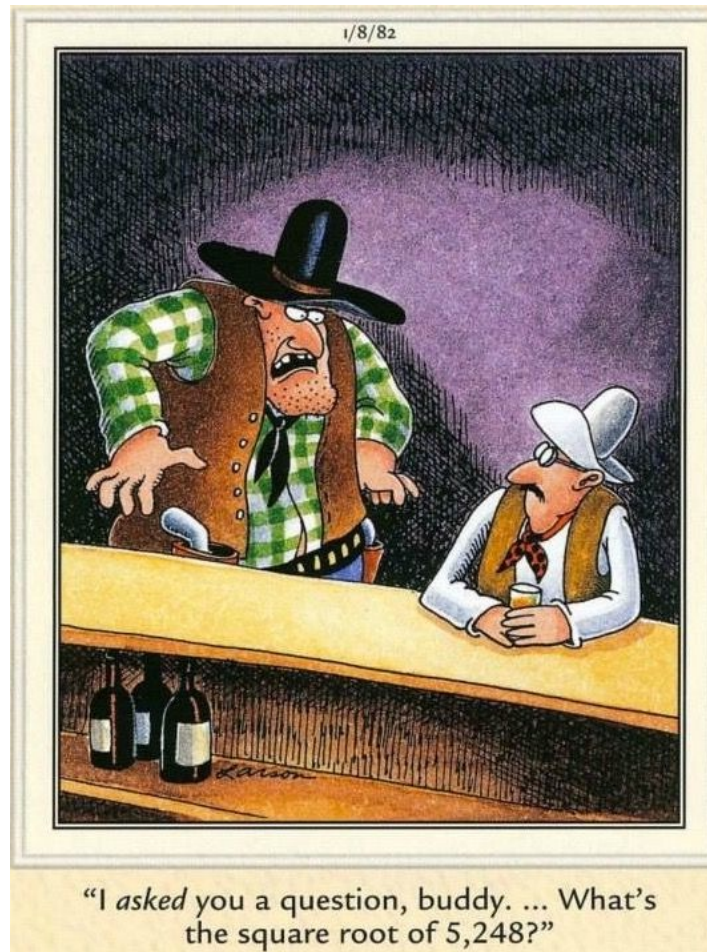


CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

Lecture 12: Modular Exponentiation, Set Theory



Last class: Euclid's Algorithm for GCD

Repeatedly use $\text{gcd}(a, b) = \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b)$ to reduce numbers until you get $\text{gcd}(a, 0) = a$.

Equations with recursive calls:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{gcd}(660, 126) &= \text{gcd}(126, 660 \bmod 126) = \text{gcd}(126, 30) \\ &= \text{gcd}(30, 126 \bmod 30) = \text{gcd}(30, 6) \\ &= \text{gcd}(6, 30 \bmod 6) = \text{gcd}(6, 0) \\ &= 6\end{aligned}$$

Tableau form (which is much easier to work with and will be more useful):

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 660 = 5 * 126 + 30 \\ 126 = 4 * 30 + 6 \\ 30 = 5 * 6 + 0 \end{array} \right\}$$

Each line computes both quotient and remainder of the shifted numbers

Last class: Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Can use Euclid's Algorithm to find s, t such that

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

Example: $a = 35, b = 27$

Compute $\gcd(35, 27)$:

$$35 = 1 * 27 + 8$$

$$27 = 3 * 8 + 3$$

$$8 = 2 * 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 * 2 + \textcircled{1}$$

$$2 = 2 * 1 + 0$$

$$8 = 35 - 1 * 27$$

$$3 = 27 - 3 * 8$$

$$2 = 8 - 2 * 3$$

$$\textcircled{1} = 3 - 1 * 2$$

Last class: Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Can use Euclid's Algorithm to find s, t such that

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

Bezout's theorem

Example: $a = 35, b = 27$

Use equations to substitute back

$$8 = 35 - 1 * 27$$

$$3 = 27 - 3 * 8$$

$$2 = 8 - 2 * 3$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 * 2$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 * 2$$

$$= 3 - 1 * (8 - 2 * 3)$$

$$= 3 - 8 + 2 * 3$$

$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * 3$$

$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * (27 - 3 * 8)$$

$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * 27 + (-9) * 8$$

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 8$$

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * (35 - 1 * 27)$$

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 35 + 10 * 27$$

$$= (-10) * 35 + 13 * 27$$

Optional Check:

$$(-10) * 35 = -350$$

$$13 * 27 = 351$$

Last class: Multiplicative inverse (mod m)

Let $0 \leq a, b < m$. Then, b is the *multiplicative inverse of a (modulo m)* iff $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

$$2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	0	2	4	6	1	3	5
3	0	3	6	2	5	1	4
4	0	4	1	5	2	6	3
5	0	5	3	1	6	4	2
6	0	6	5	4	3	2	1

mod 7

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	0	2	4	6	8	0	2	4	6	8
3	0	3	6	9	2	5	8	1	4	7
4	0	4	8	2	6	0	4	8	2	6
5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5
6	0	6	2	8	4	0	6	2	8	4
7	0	7	4	1	8	5	2	9	6	3
8	0	8	6	4	2	0	8	6	4	2
9	0	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

mod 10

Last class: Multiplicative inverse (mod m)

Let $0 \leq a, b < m$. Then, b is the *multiplicative inverse of a (modulo m)* iff $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

This can't exist if a and m have a common factor > 1 .

Idea: b is like $a^{-1} \pmod{m}$
so multiplying by b is
equivalent to dividing by a .

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	0	2	4	6	8	0	2	4	6	8
3	0	3	6	9	2	5	8	1	4	7
4	0	4	8	2	6	0	4	8	2	6
5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5	0	5
6	0	6	2	8	4	0	6	2	8	4
7	0	7	4	1	8	5	2	9	6	3
8	0	8	6	4	2	0	8	6	4	2
9	0	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

mod 10

Finding multiplicative inverse mod m

Suppose that $\gcd(a, m) = 1$.

Using Extended Euclidean Algorithm

find integers s and t such that $sa + tm = 1$.

Therefore $sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$.

The multiplicative inverse b of a modulo m must also satisfy $0 \leq b < m$ so we set $b = s \pmod{m}$.

It works since $ba \equiv sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

Example

Solve: $7x \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

Example

Solve: $7x \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

First compute and check that $\gcd(26, 7) = 1$

$$26 = 3 * 7 + 5$$

$$7 = 1 * 5 + 2$$

$$5 = 2 * 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 * 1 + 0$$

Example

Solve: $7x \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

Then rewrite equations in form for substitution

$$26 = 3 * 7 + 5 \qquad 5 = 26 - 3 * 7$$

$$7 = 1 * 5 + 2 \qquad 2 = 7 - 1 * 5$$

$$5 = 2 * 2 + 1 \qquad 1 = 5 - 2 * 2$$

$$2 = 2 * 1 + 0$$

Example

Solve: $7x \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

Apply substitutions from bottom to top.

$$26 = 3 * 7 + 5$$

$$5 = 26 - 3 * 7$$

$$7 = 1 * 5 + 2$$

$$2 = 7 - 1 * 5$$

$$5 = 2 * 2 + 1$$

$$1 = 5 - 2 * 2$$

$$2 = 2 * 1 + 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 5 - 2 * 2 \\ &= 5 - 2 * (7 - 1 * 5) \\ &= (-2) * 7 + 3 * 5 \\ &= (-2) * 7 + 3 * (26 - 3 * 7) \\ &= (-11) * 7 + 3 * 26 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &\equiv (-11) * 7 \pmod{26} \\ &\equiv 15 * 7 \pmod{26} \end{aligned}$$

Example

Solve: $7x \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

$$\cancel{(15 \cdot 7)x} \equiv 15 \cdot 1 \pmod{26}$$

$$x \equiv 15 \pmod{26}$$

Read off coefficient and reduce modulo 26.

$$26 = 3 * 7 + 5$$

$$5 = 26 - 3 * 7$$

$$7 = 1 * 5 + 2$$

$$2 = 7 - 1 * 5$$

$$5 = 2 * 2 + 1$$

$$1 = 5 - 2 * 2$$

$$2 = 2 * 1 + 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 5 - 2 * 2 \\ &= 5 - 2 * (7 - 1 * 5) \\ &= (-2) * 7 + 3 * 5 \\ &= (-2) * 7 + 3 * (26 - 3 * 7) \\ &= (-11) * 7 + 3 * 26 \end{aligned}$$

Multiplicative inverse of 7 modulo 26

Now $(-11) \pmod{26} = 15$. So, $x = 15 + 26k$ for integer k .

Example of a more general equation

Now solve: $7y \equiv 3 \pmod{26}$

We already computed that **15** is the multiplicative inverse of **7** modulo **26**. That is, $7 \cdot 15 \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

If y is a solution, then multiplying by **15** we have

$$\cancel{(15 \cdot 7)} \cdot y \equiv 15 \cdot 3 \pmod{26}$$

Substituting $15 \cdot 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$ on the left gives

$$y = 1 \cdot y \equiv 15 \cdot 3 \equiv 19 \pmod{26}$$

This shows that every solution y is congruent to **19**.

Example of a more general equation

Now solve: $7y \equiv 3 \pmod{26}$

Multiplying both sides of $y \equiv 19 \pmod{26}$ by 7 gives

$$7y \equiv 7 \cdot 19 \equiv 3 \pmod{26}$$

So, any $y \equiv 19 \pmod{26}$ is a solution.

Thus, the set of numbers of the form $y = 19 + 26k$, for any integer k , are exactly solutions of this equation.

$$\begin{array}{r} 19 \\ 7 \\ \hline 133 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 26 \quad 26 \quad 133 \\ 4 \quad 5 \quad 104 \\ \hline 104 \quad 130 \end{array}$$

Math mod a prime is especially nice

$\gcd(a, m) = 1$ if m is prime and $0 < a < m$ so
can always solve these equations mod a prime.

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	0	1	2	3	4	5

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	0	2	4	6	1	3	5
3	0	3	6	2	5	1	4
4	0	4	1	5	2	6	3
5	0	5	3	1	6	4	2
6	0	6	5	4	3	2	1

mod 7

Attack on RSA security with GCD

- RSA *public key* includes m that is the product of two large *randomly chosen* primes p, q
 - Everyone can see all the public keys (millions)
 - Security depends on keeping p and q secret
 - OK since factoring m seems very hard
- In 2012 a new attack using GCD broke a huge number of RSA public keys!
 - Weak keys: Algorithms/devices cut corners:
Skimped on random bits or size of primes

Attack on RSA security with GCD

Weak keys: few random bits

- Few enough that some public keys m_1 and m_2 happen to share just one of their two factors:

$$m_1 = pq \text{ and } m_2 = pr$$

- Then can break both since $p = \gcd(m_1, m_2)$

2012: 11 million RSA keys, 23,500 broken

2016: 1024-bit RSA keys available from Internet

- 26 million keys, 63,500 broken

2019: 750 million RSA keys, 250,000 broken

- IoT (Internet of Things) devices often the culprit

RSA Relies on Modular Exponentiation

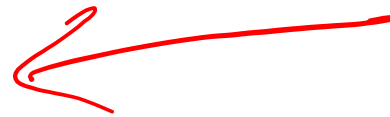
x	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	2	4	6	1	3	5
3	3	6	2	5	1	4
4	4	1	5	2	6	3
5	5	3	1	6	4	2
6	6	5	4	3	2	1

a	a ¹	a ²	a ³	a ⁴	a ⁵	a ⁶
1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	2	4	1	2	4	1
3	3	2	6	4	5	1
4	4	2	1	4	2	1
5	5	4	6	2	3	1
6	6	1	6	1	6	1

mod 7


Modular Exponentiation: (Essential for RSA)

- Compute 78365⁸⁰⁴²⁹



80k = 5 digits
400k digits

- Compute 78365⁸⁰⁴²⁹ mod 104729



↳ 6 digits

- Output is small

- need to keep intermediate results small

Small Multiplications

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

By the multiplicative property modulo m , if you want to compute $ab \pmod{m}$ then you can do the following:

1. Reduce a and b modulo m to get $a \pmod{m}$ and $b \pmod{m}$
2. Multiply to produce $c = \underbrace{(a \pmod{m})(b \pmod{m})}$
3. Output $c \pmod{m}$

Claim: $c \pmod{m} = ab \pmod{m}$

Proof: Just need to show that $c \equiv ab \pmod{m}$.

That follows from $(a \pmod{m}) \equiv a \pmod{m}$

$(b \pmod{m}) \equiv b \pmod{m}$

and the multiplicative property since c is the product of the left sides and ab is the product of the right sides. ■

$$a = qm + r$$

Repeated Squaring – small and fast

Then we have $ab \bmod m = ((a \bmod m)(b \bmod m)) \bmod m$

So $a^2 \bmod m = (a \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$

and $a^4 \bmod m = (a^2 \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$

and $a^8 \bmod m = (a^4 \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$

and $a^{16} \bmod m = (a^8 \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$

and $a^{32} \bmod m = (a^{16} \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$

Can compute $a^k \bmod m$ for $k = 2^i$ in only i steps

What if k is not a power of 2?

Fast Modular Exponentiation

Simple Example:

To compute $a^{10} \bmod m$:

$$\text{Compute } a^2 \bmod m = (a \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$$

$$a^4 \bmod m = (a^2 \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$$

$$a^8 \bmod m = (a^4 \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$$

$$\text{Then } a^{10} \bmod m = ((a^8 \bmod m)(a^2 \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

$$\text{Also } a^{11} \bmod m = ((a^{10} \bmod m)(a \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

Fast Exponentiation Algorithm

$$a^{x+y} = a^x a^y$$

80429 in binary is 10011101000101101

$$80429 = 2^{16} + 2^{13} + 2^{12} + 2^{11} + 2^9 + 2^5 + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^0$$

$$a^{80429} = a^{2^{16}+2^{13}+2^{12}+2^{11}+2^9+2^5+2^3+2^2+2^0}$$
$$= a^{2^{16}} \cdot a^{2^{13}} \cdot a^{2^{12}} \cdot a^{2^{11}} \cdot a^{2^9} \cdot a^{2^5} \cdot a^{2^3} \cdot a^{2^2} \cdot a^{2^0}$$

$$a^{80429} \bmod m = (a^{2^{16}} \cdot a^{2^{13}} \cdot a^{2^{12}} \cdot a^{2^{11}} \cdot a^{2^9} \cdot a^{2^5} \cdot a^{2^3} \cdot a^{2^2} \cdot a^{2^0}) \bmod m$$
$$= (\dots((((((a^{2^{16}} \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^{13}} \bmod m) \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^{12}} \bmod m) \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^{11}} \bmod m) \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^9} \bmod m) \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^5} \bmod m) \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^3} \bmod m) \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^2} \bmod m) \bmod m \cdot$$
$$a^{2^0} \bmod m) \bmod m$$

Uses only 16 + 8 = 24 multiplications

The fast exponentiation algorithm computes $a^k \bmod m$ using $\leq 2 \log k$ multiplications mod m

Fast Exponentiation: $a^k \bmod m$ for all k

Another way....

$$a^{2j} \bmod m = (a^j \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$$

$$a^{2j+1} \bmod m = ((a \bmod m) \cdot (a^{2j} \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

Recursive Fast Exponentiation

```
public static int FastModExp(int a, int k, int modulus) {  
    if (k == 0) {  
        return 1;  
    } else if ((k % 2) == 0) {  
        long temp = FastModExp(a, k/2, modulus);  
        return (temp * temp) % modulus;  
    } else {  
        long temp = FastModExp(a, k-1, modulus);  
        return (a * temp) % modulus;  
    }  
}
```

$$a^{2j} \bmod m = (a^j \bmod m)^2 \bmod m$$

$$a^{2j+1} \bmod m = ((a \bmod m) \cdot (a^{2j} \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

Using Fast Modular Exponentiation

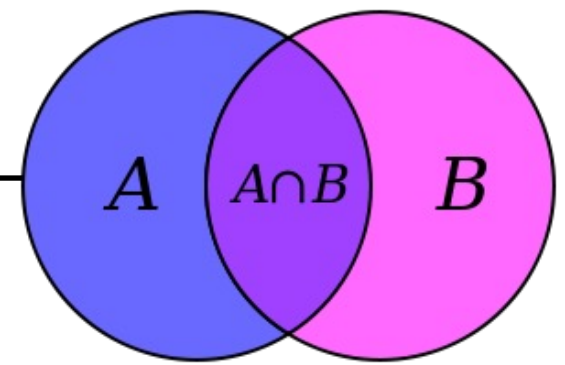
- Your e-commerce web transactions use SSL (Secure Socket Layer) based on RSA encryption
- RSA ...as of 2023
 - Vendor chooses random 1024-bit or ~~2048-bit~~ primes p, q and 1024/2048-bit exponent e . Computes $m = p \cdot q$
 - Vendor broadcasts (m, e)
 - To send a to vendor, you compute $C = a^e \bmod m$ using *fast modular exponentiation* and send C to the vendor.
 - Using secret p, q the vendor computes d that is the *multiplicative inverse* of $e \bmod (p - 1)(q - 1)$.
 - Vendor computes $C^d \bmod m$ using *fast modular exponentiation*.
 - **Fact:** $a = C^d \bmod m$ for $0 < a < m$ unless $p|a$ or $q|a$

Sets

Sets

\in

\neq



Sets are collections of objects called elements.

Write $a \in B$ to say that a is an element of set B ,
and $a \notin B$ to say that it is not.

\emptyset
 $\{3\}$

Some simple examples

$$A = \{1\}$$

$$B = \{1, 3, 2\}$$

$$C = \{\square, 1\}$$

$$D = \{\{17\}, 17\}$$

$$E = \{1, 2, 7, \text{cat}, \text{dog}, \emptyset, \alpha\}$$

17
 $\{\{17\}\}$

Some Common Sets

\mathbb{N} is the set of **Natural Numbers**; $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

\mathbb{Z} is the set of **Integers**; $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$

\mathbb{Q} is the set of **Rational Numbers**; e.g. $\frac{1}{2}$, -17 , $\frac{32}{48}$

\mathbb{R} is the set of **Real Numbers**; e.g. 1 , -17 , $\frac{32}{48}$, π , $\sqrt{2}$

$[n]$ is the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ when n is a natural number

$\emptyset = \{\}$ is the **empty set**; the *only* set with no elements

"blackboard bold"

\mathbb{Q}

\mathbb{R}

\mathbb{N}

~~\mathbb{N}~~

\mathbb{N}

\mathbb{Z}

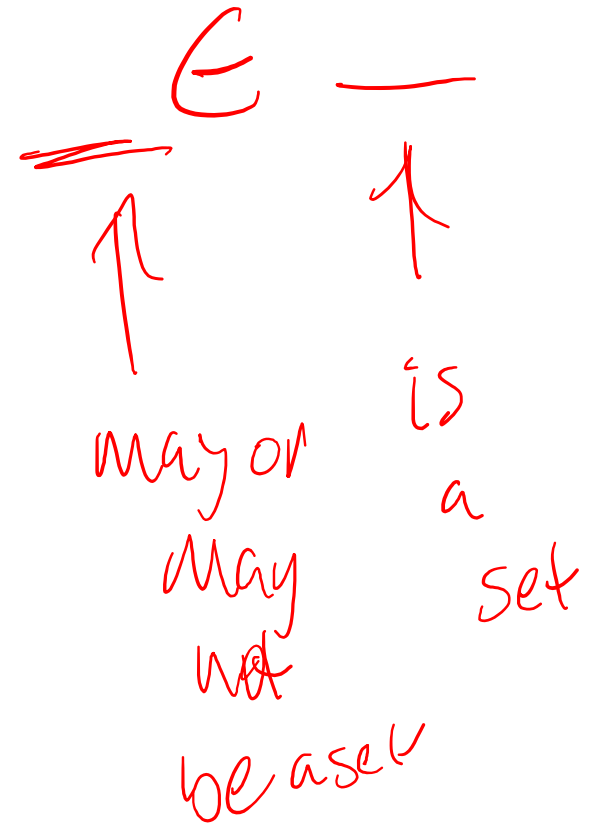
Sets can be elements of other sets

For example

$$A = \{\{1\}, \{2\}, \{1,2\}, \emptyset\}$$

$$B = \{1,2\}$$

Then $B \in A$.



Definitions

- **A and B are *equal* if they have the same elements**

$$A = B := \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$$

- **A is a *subset* of B if every element of A is also in B**

$$A \subseteq B := \forall x (x \in A \rightarrow x \in B)$$

- **Notes:** $(A = B) \equiv (A \subseteq B) \wedge (B \subseteq A)$

$$A \supseteq B \text{ means } B \subseteq A$$

$$A \subset B \text{ means } A \subseteq B \text{ but } A \neq B$$

Definition: Equality

A and B are *equal* if they have the same elements

$$A = B := \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$$

$$A = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$B = \{3, 4, 5\}$$

$$C = \{3, 4\}$$

$$D = \{4, 3, 3\}$$

$$E = \{3, 4, 3\}$$

$$F = \{4, \{3\}\}$$

Which sets are equal to each other?

3 \notin F