

Modular Arithmetic

"Clock math", numbers limited to predefined range
 $x \equiv r \pmod m \Rightarrow x = mq + r, 0 \leq r < m$
 m also divides $(x-y)$ iff q_1 in integer

$\pmod m$ universe produces m disjoint sets
 Theorem: If $a \equiv c \pmod m$ and $b \equiv d \pmod m$, then
 $a+b \equiv c+d \pmod m$ and $a \cdot b \equiv c \cdot d \pmod m$.

Proof: $a = mk + a, d = mj + b$
 $c+d = a+b + m(k+j)$ - addition
 $c \cdot d = ab + amj + bmk + m^2jk$
 $c \cdot d \equiv ab + m(aj + bk + mj) \pmod m$

Exponentiation (modular)

algorithm mod-exp(x, y, m)
 if $y = 0$ then return (1)
 else
 $z = \text{mod-exp}(x, y \text{ div } 2, m)$
 if $y \text{ mod } 2 = 0$ return ($z \cdot z \pmod m$)
 else return ($x \cdot z \pmod m$)

$O(\log)$ time in the number of bits
 Alternate: $x^n \pmod m$ where $n = k_1 2^r + \dots + k_r 2^0$
 $x^n = \prod_{k_i=1} x^{k_i 2^i}$

Inverses

Inverse is equivalent to multiplication by inverse
 An inverse for x only exists if $\text{gcd}(x, m) = 1$, in mod m

Theorem: let m, x be positive integers such that $\text{gcd}(m, x) = 1$. Then x has a multiplicative inverse modulo m , and it is unique (modulo m).

Proof: claim that in seq $0, x, 2x, \dots, (m-1)x$ that all are distinct modulo m , so only one $= 1 \pmod m$.
 Suppose we have $ax \equiv bx \pmod m$ for $0 \leq a < b < m$
 $(a-b)x \equiv 0 \pmod m = km$, meaning either:
 - divisible by x (no because they are coprime)
 - or divisible by $(a-b)$ - no bec it is smaller than m

Computing Multiplicative Inverses

Related to finding $d = \text{gcd}(x, y) = ax + by$
 If $1 = \text{gcd}(x, m) = am + bx, b$ is x^{-1}
 Theorem: Let x, y and q, r be natural numbers such that $x = yq + r$ and $r < y$. Then
 $\text{gcd}(x, y) = \text{gcd}(y, r)$
 Proof: Given $\text{gcd}(x, y) = d, x = dk, y = dm$
 $r = x - yq = dk - dmq = d(k - mq)$

algorithm gcd(x, y)
 if $y = 0$ then return (x)
 else return (gcd(y, x mod y))
 Theorem: This algorithm correctly computes gcd
 Proof: Strong induction on y , starting from 0.
 Base case: $\text{gcd}(x, 0) = x$, correct in this case
 Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that this works for all $z < y, \text{gcd}(x, z)$ computes the correct result.
 Inductive step: Given some $\text{gcd}(x, y)$, we know by the previous proof that $\text{gcd}(x, y) = \text{gcd}(y, x \text{ mod } y)$, which works because $x \text{ mod } y < y$.
 Runtime: Two cases - $y \leq \frac{x}{2}$ so after two calls, even smaller than $\frac{x}{2}$
 $x > \frac{x}{2}, y$ will be smaller than $\frac{x}{2}$ in two calls

Extended Euclid's Algorithm

algorithm extended-gcd(x, y)
 if $y = 0$ then return (x, 1, 0)
 else
 $(d, a, b) = \text{extended-gcd}(y, x \text{ mod } y)$
 return ($d, b, a - (x \text{ div } y) \cdot b$)

First, we know $d = ay + b(x \text{ mod } y)$ is valid.
 $d = ay + b(x - \lfloor x/y \rfloor y)$
 $= ay + b(x - \lfloor x/y \rfloor y)$
 $= bx + (a - \lfloor x/y \rfloor b)y$

Linear time algorithm with constant factors \rightarrow mult. inverse efficient!

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Given $x \equiv a \pmod p, x \equiv b \pmod q$
 and values p, q coprime:
 $x = a(q \cdot q^{-1} \pmod p) + b(p \cdot p^{-1} \pmod q)$
 Suppose $z \equiv a \pmod p, z \equiv b \pmod q$,
 we will claim that $z \equiv x \pmod pq$.

$(z-x) \equiv 0 \pmod p, (z-x) \equiv 0 \pmod q \Rightarrow z-x \equiv 0 \pmod pq$
 General: Suppose we have m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n all pairwise prime .
 $x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}, \dots, x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$

$x = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \cdot b_i \cdot b_i^{-1}$, Let $b_i = \prod_{j \neq i} m_j$
 $b_i^{-1} = b_i^{-1} \pmod{m_i}$

Public Key Cryptography

Bijections
 A function for which every $b \in B$ has a unique pre-image $a \in A$ such that $f(a) = b$
 so: f is onto: every $b \in B$ has preimage $a \in A$
 f is one-to-one: for all $a, a' \in A$, if $f(a) = f(a')$, then $a = a'$.
 Lemma: For a finite set $A, f: A \rightarrow A$ is a bijection if there is an inverse function $g: A \rightarrow A$ such that $\forall x: g(f(x)) = x$.
 Proof: If $f(x) = f(x')$, then $x = g(f(x)) = g(f(x')) = x'$
 so f must be one-to-one. Since f is one-to-one, there must be $|A|$ elements in the range of f , so f must also be onto.

RSA

$N = pq$ (p and q are large primes)
 $E(x) \equiv x^e \pmod N$ (e prime to $(p-1)(q-1)$)
 $E: \{0, \dots, N-1\} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N-1\}$
 $D(x) \equiv x^d \pmod N$ (d inverse of $e \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$)

Fermat's Little Theorem
 For any prime p and any $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, we have that $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p$.
 Proof: Define $f: S \rightarrow S$ such that $f(x) \equiv ax \pmod p$
 Any $a, i \pmod p$ must be distinct since if $a \cdot i \equiv a \cdot j \pmod p$, then $i \equiv j \pmod p$.
 Now, since f is a bijection, we can take the product of all: $(p-1)! = a^{p-1} (p-1)! \pmod p$
 Divide to obtain $1 \equiv a^{p-1} \pmod p$

Euler's Totient Theorem
 Given $\text{gcd}(a, m) = 1, a^{\phi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod m$,
 $\phi(n)$ - number of #'s coprime with m

Theorem: knowing E and D , we have $D(E(x)) \equiv x \pmod N$ for every possible $x \in \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$
 Proof: Show that $(x^e)^d \equiv x \pmod N \wedge x \in \{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$
 $x^e d - x = 0 \pmod N$ to prove the above
 $x(x^{ed-1} - 1) \equiv 0 \pmod N = x(x^{k(p-1)(q-1)} - 1)$
 Cases: $\text{gcd}(x, N) = 1$, so we're done.
 - x not mult of p , but $(x^{p-1}) \equiv 1 \pmod p$ by Fermat, and similarly with q . And so div by N .

RSA built on the following assumption:
 Given N, e and $x \in \mathbb{Z} \pmod N$, there is no efficient algorithm for determining x .

This is hard because:
 The factoring problem γ reduces to N , is NP-complete
 Trying all x requires $O(N)$, hard for large N
 Computing $(p-1)(q-1)$ essentially like factoring N
 Bob just needs to find p and q to use and him + Alice must compute modular exp, which is efficient.

Polynomials

Property 1: A non-zero polynomial of degree d has at most d roots.

Property 2: Given $d+1$ pairs $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$ with all the x_i distinct, there is a unique polynomial $p(x)$ of degree (at most) d such that $p(x_i) = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq d+1$.

$\textcircled{1} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$: Need to show at most one q , at least one
 Using Lagrange Interpolation, we know at least one.
 Consider $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ match at d points:
 Case 1: $P(x) - Q(x) = 0$ \rightarrow unique!
 Case 2: $P(x) - Q(x) \neq 0$, must have $d+1$ roots which is a contradiction.

Lagrange Interpolation
 Given x_i, y_i pairs construct $P(x)$
 $P(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{d+1} y_j \Delta_j(x_i)$ where

$$\Delta_j(x_i) = \frac{\prod_{i \neq j} (x - x_i)}{\prod_{i \neq j} (x_j - x_i)} \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Polynomial Division

Dividing $p(x)$ by $q(x)$: $p(x) = q(x)q(x) + r(x)$
 degree of $r(x)$ smaller than $p(x), q(x)$

Claim 1: If a is a root of a polynomial $p(x)$ with degree d , then $p(x) = (x-a)q(x)$ for a polynomial $q(x)$ of deg $d-1$.
 Claim 2: A polynomial with distinct roots a_1, \dots, a_d can be written as $p(x) = c(x-a_1) \dots (x-a_d)$

Proof of claim 1:
 Dividing $p(x)$ by $(x-a)$ yields the relation $p(x) = (x-a)q(x) + r(x)$. Deg of $r(x)$ smaller than $(x-a)$, so $r(x) = c$. Substituting in a , we get $p(a) = c$, but a is a root, so $c = 0$. Thus, $p(x) = (x-a)q(x)$.

Proof of claim 2:
 Base case: If polynomial of degree 1 can be written in the form $p(x) = c(x-a_1)$. By claim 1, $q(x) \Rightarrow \text{deg} = 0$, constant.

Inductive Hypothesis: Suppose that a polynomial of degree $d-1$ can be written in the form $p(x) = c(x-a_1) \dots (x-a_{d-1})$.
 Inductive Step: Let $p(x)$ be polynomial with distinct roots a_1, \dots, a_d . $p(x) = (x-a_d)q(x)$ by claim 1. We know $0 = p(a_i) = (a_i - a_d)q(a_i)$ for all $i \neq d$ and $a_i \neq a_d$ so $q(a_i)$ must be equal to 0. Then $q(x)$ can be written as $c(x-a_1) \dots (x-a_{d-1})$ bec deg $= d-1$. Substitute to obtain $p(x) = c(x-a_1) \dots (x-a_d)$.
 Using claim 2, we can show that $a \neq a_i$ for $i=1, \dots, d$ cannot be a root of $p(x)$, so it can only have at most d roots.

Finite Fields

A field is defined as a set of "numbers"

Operations add and multiply should exist,
subtraction and division are just inverses

Add/mult. commute and distribute

0 - additive identity, 1 - multiplicative identity

Smallest field must have ≥ 2 values, additive

and multiplicative inverses cannot be the same

Fields must be prime, or power of prime for GF

Counting Polynomials

Working in $\text{GF}(m)$, we find that there ~~are~~^{exists}
1 polynomial given $d+1$ points, m polynomials given d points,
... m^{d+1} polynomials given 0 points.

Mapping from $\mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$ yields p^p possible functions.
 $\Rightarrow p$ polynomials of deg 0, p^2 deg. 1 $\rightarrow p^{k!}$ of deg. k

Secret Sharing

We want to take a secret and split it into
 k shares such that all k people must come
together to reveal the secret, otherwise you
will learn nothing.

Give people evaluations of a polynomial at different
points, different number must come together dep.
on the degree.

Can use either value encoding or coefficient encoding.