



Computer Security

Number Theory:
Divisibility, Prime Numbers,
Greatest Common Divisor,
Relative Primality
Groups, Rings and Fields

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Why?

- Modern cryptography is based on *Number Theory*, a branch of mathematics concerned with the properties of integers.
- In order to understand how modern cryptographic techniques work, and to estimate the extent to which they are secure, it is important to understand the basics of number theory.
 - We'll try to keep it as simple as possible!

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Sources

- *The Basics of Abstract Algebra*, Paul E. Bland, Freeman
- *Introduction to Cryptography with Java Applets*, David Bishop, Jones & Bartlett
- *Practical Cryptography*, Niels Ferguson and Bruce Schneier, Wiley
- *Concrete Mathematics*, Graham, Knuth, and Patashnik, Addison-Wesley
- *Network Security: Private Communications in a Public World, Second Edition* Charlie Kaufman, Radia Perlman, Mike Speciner, Prentice-Hall
- *Applied Cryptography: Protocols, Algorithms and Source Code in C, Second Edition*, Bruce Schneier, Wiley
- *Cryptography and Network Security: Principles and Practices*, William Stallings, Prentice-Hall
- and a number of web sites...

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Divisibility and Divisors

- We say that **m divides n** (or **n is divisible by m**) if:
 - $m > 0$
 - and:
 - the ratio $\frac{n}{m}$ is an integer.
- This property underlies all number theory, so we have a notation for it:

$$m \mid n$$

and we say that m is a *divisor* of n

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Divisibility and Divisors

- Here are some relations:
 - 1) If $a|1$, then $a = \pm 1$
 - 2) If $a|b$ and $b|a$, then $a = \pm b$
 - 3) Any $b \neq 0$ divides 0
 - 4) If $b|g$ and $b|h$, then $b|(mg + nh)$ for arbitrary integers m and n
 - 5) If $a|b$ and $b|c$, then $a|c$
 - 6) If n is a positive number > 1 , and d is the smallest divisor of n that is greater than 1, then d is prime.

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Prime Numbers

- A positive integer p is called **prime** if it has just two divisors: 1 and p
- A positive integer that has three or more divisors is known as a **composite**.
- Every integer > 1 is either prime or composite, but not both.
 - Note:
 - 2 is a prime
 - 1 is **not** a prime
- The sequence of primes starts:
 $2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, \dots$

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Prime Numbers

- Primes are important because they form the fundamental building blocks of all the positive integers:
 - Any positive integer n can be written as a **product of primes**:
$$n = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_m = \prod_{k=1}^m p_k \quad (p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \dots \leq p_m)$$
and **this expansion is unique** – there is only one way to write n as a product of primes in non-decreasing order.
- This is known as the **Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic**

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Prime Numbers

- There are **an infinite number of primes**
 - *Euclid's proof:
 - Assume that there are a finite number of primes
 - Call the list of primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k , where k is the number of primes
 - Define the number n , the product of all primes, plus 1:
$$n = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k + 1$$
 - Consider the smallest divisor of n , d , greater than 1 :
 - d must be prime, because if it had divisors, they would also divide n
 - But none of the primes in our finite list is a divisor of n (if you divide n by any of those primes, you will always get a remainder of 1)
 - So d is a prime not in our list
 - This is a contradiction, so there must be an infinite number of primes

*Euclid of Alexandria (325 B.C. - 265 B.C.)

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Prime Numbers

- The n th prime, P_n is about n times the natural logarithm of n :

$$P_n \approx n \ln n$$

- This allows us to estimate the density of primes within a range of integer values.
 - There are 25 primes between 0 and 100, so the density of primes is 1 in 4
 - For 10-digit numbers, the density of primes is only 1 in 23
 - For 100-digit numbers, the density is 1 in 230
 - The density of primes is inversely proportional to their length in digits

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Generating Small Prime Numbers

- One simple way of calculating primes is to use the *Sieve of Eratosthenes**:

- Write down all integers from 2 through x
- Circle 2, marking it prime, and cross out all other multiples of 2
- Repeatedly circle the smallest uncircled, uncrossed number and cross out all its other multiples
- When every number has been circled or crossed out, the circled numbers are the primes

[Try a Java applet to demonstrate this algorithm.](#)

***Eratosthenes (276 B.C. - 195 B.C.)**

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Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- The *greatest common divisor* of two integers m and n is the largest integer that divides them both:

$$\text{gcd}(m, n) = \max\{k \mid k \mid m \text{ and } k \mid n\}$$

- Euclid's algorithm to calculate $\text{gcd}(m, n)$, for given values $0 \leq m \leq n$ uses the recurrence:

$$\text{gcd}(0, n) = n;$$

$$\text{gcd}(m, n) = \text{gcd}(n \bmod m, m), \quad \text{for } m > 0$$

- So, for example, $\text{gcd}(12, 18) = \text{gcd}(6, 12) = \text{gcd}(0, 6) = 6$
 - Because any common divisor of m and n must also be a common divisor of both m and the number:

$$n \bmod m = n - \lfloor n/m \rfloor m$$

where $\lfloor a \rfloor$ is the *floor* function, the smallest integer less than or equal to a

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Euclid's Algorithm for GCD

```

package primes;

/**
 * Class to calculate the greatest common divisor (gcd)
 * of two integers using Euclid's algorithm
 */
public class GCD
{
    public static int calculate(int m, int n)
    {
        int g;
        if (m < 0)
            m = -m;
        if (n < 0)
            n = -n;
        if ((m + n) == 0)
            throw new java.lang.IllegalArgumentException(
                "m and n cannot add to zero");

        g = n;
        while (m > 0)
        {
            g = m;
            m = n % m;
            n = g;
        }
        return g;
    }
}

public static void main(String[] args)
{
    int m = 18;
    int n = 12;
    System.out.println("GCD of " + m + " and " +
        n + " is " + calculate(m, n));
}
    
```

An implementation in Java

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Euclid's Algorithm for GCD

- Euclid's algorithm can be generalized for an array of integer values:

```
/**
 * Calculates the gcd of an array of numbers
 */
public static int calculate(int[] v)
{
    int g = v[0];
    for (int i = 1; i < v.length; i++)
    {
        g = calculate(g, v[i]);
        if (g == 1)
            return 1;
    }
    return g;
}
```

This function is added to the previous Java class.

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Relative Primality

- Two integers m and n are **relatively prime** (also known as **coprimes**) when their $\text{gcd}(m,n) = 1$
 - That is, they have no common factor other than 1

For example:

- 14 and 15 are relatively prime, despite the fact that neither one is a prime
 - 6 and 35 are relatively prime
 - 6 and 27 are not relatively prime because they are both divisible by 3.
- This is an important concept, as we shall see later...

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Groups

- A **group**, G , is a set of elements with an associated binary operation, \bullet . It is sometimes denoted $\{G, \bullet\}$
 - For each ordered pair (a, b) of elements in G , there is an associated element $(a \bullet b)$, such that the following axioms hold:

- 1) **Closure**: If a and $b \in G$, then $a \bullet b \in G$
- 2) **Associative**: $a \bullet (b \bullet c) = (a \bullet b) \bullet c$ for all $a, b, c \in G$
- 3) **Identity element**: There is an element $e \in G$ such that $a \bullet e = e \bullet a = a$ for all $a \in G$
- 4) **Inverse element**: For each $a \in G$ there is an element $a' \in G$ such that $a \bullet a' = a' \bullet a = e$

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Groups

- A **finite group** is a group with a finite number of elements, otherwise, a group is an **infinite group**.
- A group is said to be an **abelian group** if it satisfies the following condition:

$$5) \text{ Commutative: } a \bullet b = b \bullet a \text{ for all } a, b \in G$$

–Examples of abelian groups:

- The set of integers (negative, zero, and positive), \mathbf{Z} , under addition. The identity element of \mathbf{Z} under addition is 0; the inverse of a is $-a$, for all a in \mathbf{Z} .
- The set of non-zero real numbers, \mathbf{R}^* , under multiplication. The identity element of \mathbf{R}^* under multiplication is 1; the inverse of a is $1/a$ for all a in \mathbf{R}^* .

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Exponentiation and Cyclic Groups

- **Exponentiation** within a group is repeated application of the group operator, such that:

$$a^0 = e, \text{ the identity element}$$

$$a^n = a \bullet a \bullet \dots \bullet a \text{ (i.e. } \bullet \text{ applied } n\text{-1 times)}$$

$$a^{-n} = (a')^n, \text{ where } a' \text{ is the inverse of } a$$

- A group G is **cyclic** if every element of G is a power g^k (k is an integer) of a fixed element $g \in G$. The element g is said to **generate the group**, or to be a **generator of the group**.
- A cyclic group is always abelian, and may be finite or infinite
 - Example of a cyclic group:
 - The group of positive integers, $\{N, +\}$, ($N = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$) under addition is an infinite cyclic group generated by the element 1. (i.e. $1 + 1 = 2$, $1 + 1 + 1 = 3$, etc.)

Rings

- A **ring**, R , denoted by $\{R, +, \times\}$, is a set of elements with two binary operations, called **addition** ($+$) and **multiplication** (\times), such that, for a, b, c in R :

addition and **multiplication** are abstract operations here

- 1)-5) R is an **abelian group with respect to addition**; for this case of an additive group, we denote the identity element as 0, and the inverse of a as $-a$.
- 6) **Closure under multiplication:**
If a and b belong to R , then $a \times b$ is also in R
- 7) **Associativity of multiplication:**
 $a \times (b \times c) = (a \times b) \times c$ for all a, b, c , in R
- 8) **Distributive Laws:**
 $a \times (b + c) = a \times b + a \times c$ for all a, b, c , in R
 $(a + b) \times c = a \times c + b \times c$ for all a, b, c , in R

Note that we often write $a \times b$ as simply ab

Commutative Rings

- A ring is **commutative** if it satisfies the following additional condition:

- 9) **Commutativity of multiplication:**

$$a \times b = b \times a \text{ for all } a, b, c, \text{ in } R$$

Example of a commutative ring:

The set of even integers, $\{\dots, -4, -2, 0, 2, 4, \dots\}$ under the normally defined integer operations of addition and multiplication.

Integral Domains

- An **integral domain** is a commutative ring that obeys the following:

- 10) **Multiplicative identity:**

There is an element 1 in R such that $a \times 1 = 1 \times a = a$ for all a in R

- 11) **No zero divisors:**

If a, b in R and $a \times b = 0$, then either $a = 0$ or $b = 0$

Example of an integral domain:

The set of all integers ($\mathbf{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$) under the normally defined integer operations of addition and multiplication, $\{\mathbf{Z}, +, \times\}$

Fields

- A **field**, F , denoted by $\{F, +, \times\}$, is a set of elements with two binary operations, called *addition* and *multiplication*, such that, for all a, b, c in F , the following apply:

Again, **addition** and **multiplication** are abstract operations

1)-11) F is an *integral domain*

11) **Multiplicative inverse:**

For each a in F , except 0, there is an element a^{-1} in F such that:

$$a \times a^{-1} = a^{-1} \times a = 1$$

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Fields

- A field is a set in which we can do addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division without leaving the set.
- Division is defined:

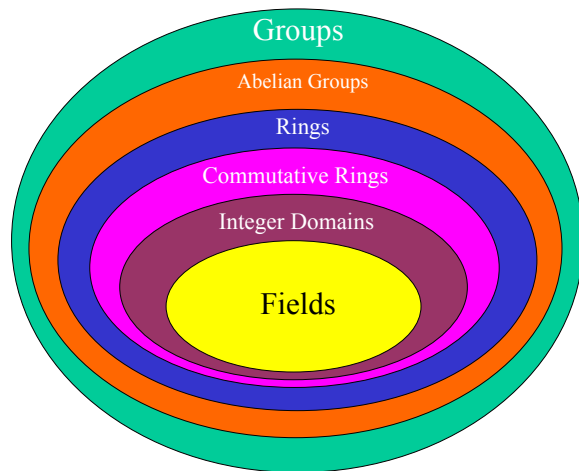
$$a/b = a(b^{-1})$$

Examples:

- The set of rational numbers, \mathcal{Q} ; the set of real numbers, \mathcal{R} , the set of complex numbers, \mathcal{C} .
- The set of all integers, \mathcal{Z} , is *not* a field, because only the elements 1 and -1 have multiplicative inverses in the integers.

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Groups, Rings, and Fields



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Summary

- Whew!
- I realize it's a quite a bit of new stuff, and much of it is fairly abstract.
- However, I think we need some mathematical background to understand modern cryptographic algorithms.
- There's more: Modular Arithmetic, which is a very important topic for modern cryptography.

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