

Modular arithmetic

AiC FME, UPC

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On \mathbb{Z}_n , we define operators $+_n, \cdot_n$ as $+, \cdot \pmod{n}$.

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In fact $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \cdot_n)$ form a commutative ring, therefore:

- 1 $a + (b + c) \equiv (a + b) + c \pmod{n}$ (associativity)
- 2 $ab \equiv ba \pmod{n}$ (commutativity)
- 3 $a(b + c) \equiv ab + ac \pmod{n}$ (distributivity)

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These operations can help in simplifying big calculations.

For example to **compute** $2^{285} \pmod{31}$:

$$2^{285} \equiv (2^5)^{57} \equiv 32^{57} \equiv 1^{57} \equiv 1 \pmod{31}$$

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- We first perform the product $x y$ and then take modulo n which take $O(M^2)$ where $M = \max\{\lg x, \lg y, \log n\}$.
- If $x, y \leq n$, and $N = \lg N$, the cost is $O(N^2)$.

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- The algorithm is tuned to reduce modulo n at each operation, in particular it relies in 2 facts:
 - 1 $a \cdot b \pmod n = (a \pmod n) \cdot (b \pmod n)$,
 - 2 $a^{2^c} = (a^c)^2$.

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 - 1 $a \cdot b \pmod n = (a \pmod n) \cdot (b \pmod n)$,
 - 2 $a^{2^c} = (a^c)^2$.
- For example, to compute a^{1101} :
 $a^1 \rightarrow a^{10} \rightarrow a^{11} \rightarrow a^{110} \rightarrow a^{1100} \rightarrow a^{1101}$.
i.e. $a \rightarrow a^2 \rightarrow a^3 \rightarrow a^6 \rightarrow a^{12} \rightarrow a^{13}$.

Algorithm for $d = a^b \pmod N$.

Let $N = \lg b$ and assume $N \geq \max\{\lg a, \lg n\}$,

```
Expo( $a, b[N - 1, \dots, 0], n$ )
```

```
 $d = 1$ 
```

```
for  $i = N - 1$  down to  $0$ 
```

```
do
```

```
     $d = (d \cdot d) \pmod n$ 
```

```
    if  $b[i] == 1$  then
```

```
         $d = (d \cdot a) \pmod n$ 
```

```
    end if
```

```
end for
```

```
return  $d$ 
```


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do  
   $d = (d \cdot d) \pmod n$   
  if  $b[i] == 1$  then  
     $d = (d \cdot a) \pmod n$   
  end if  
end for  
return  $d$ 
```

Complexity: The number of loops is $N = \lg b$. At each loop, the algorithm does a constant number of multiplications and may be a shifting.

The bit complexity is $O(N(\lg n)^2) = O(N^3)$.

Example

Wish to compute $3^{13} \pmod{5}$

$$b = 13, a = 3, N = 5,$$

$$b = 13 \Rightarrow b = (1101)_2 \Rightarrow 13 = 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } 3^{13} \pmod{5} &= 3^{2^3+2^2+2^0} \pmod{5} \\ &= (((3^2)^3 \pmod{5}) \cdot ((3^2)^2 \pmod{5}) \cdot ((3^2)^0 \pmod{5}) \pmod{5}) \end{aligned}$$

i	$b[i]$		d
3	1	$1 \pmod{5} = 1; 3 \pmod{5} = 3$	3
2	1	$9 \pmod{5} = 4; 12 \pmod{5} = 2$	2
1	0	$4 \pmod{5} = 4$	4
0	1	$16 \pmod{5} = 1; 3 \pmod{5} = 3$	3

The Discrete LOG

Consider the following *backwards* version of modular exponentiation:

Discrete Log: given $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, exists $y \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ such that $a = b^y \pmod n$?

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- **Difficult problem!** it is not known to be in P neither NP-hard.
- Given $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ to compute $x = a^b \pmod n$ can be done in $O(N^3)$ steps ($N = |b|$).
- Given $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ to compute y s.t. $a = b^y \pmod n$ is difficult.

Modular inverse

Modular inverse: Given $x, n \in \mathbb{N}$, compute y such that $x/y \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

- $x/y \pmod{n}$ does not always exist.
- For ex. In Z_{15} , 3 does not have inverse in Z_{15} . For $a \in Z_n$, a^{-1} exists in Z_n if $\gcd(a, n) = 1$.

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Define, $Z_n^* = \{a \mid a \in \{1, 2, \dots, n-1\} \wedge \gcd(a, n) = 1\}$.

- Z_n^* is the set of relative primes with n .
- **Example:** $Z_{15}^* = \{1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14\}$
- (Z_n^*, \cdot_n) is an abelian group.

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To solve the problem we need to check if the inverse exists and then compute the inverse efficiently.

Greatest common divisor

GCD: given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, compute $\gcd(a, b)$

Recall that given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, the $\gcd(a, b)$ is the largest integer which divides a and b .

We can compute \gcd using Euclid's algorithm.

Euclid's algorithm for GCD.

Theorem (Euclid)

For any $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$.

```
EUCLID( $a, b$ )  
if  $b = 0$  then  
  return  $a$   
else if  $b = 1$  then  
  return 1  
else  
  EUCLID( $b, a \bmod b$ )  
end if
```

Each recursive call reduces a at least for $1/2$.

Now if a and b have N bits, the division takes $O(N^2)$ steps. So, the cost is $O(N^3)$.

$\text{EUCLID}(30,21) \rightarrow \text{EUCLID}(21,9) \rightarrow \text{EUCLID}(9,3) \rightarrow \text{EUCLID}(3,0) = 3$

Extended Euclid algorithm

Recall Bezout Identity:

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $\gcd(a, b) = d = ax + by$.

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The extended algorithm takes as input $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and returns $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $d = \gcd(a, b)$, and $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $d = ax + by$.

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EXT-EUCLID(a, b)

if $b = 0$ **then**

return $(a, 1, 0)$

else

$(d, x', y') :=$ **EXT-EUCLID** $(b, a \bmod b)$

return $(d, y', x' - \lfloor a/b \rfloor y')$

end if

EXT-EUCLID: example

Example: EXT-EUCLID(99,78)

$$(d, x_1, y_1) := \mathbf{EXT-EUCLID} (99, 78) = (3, -11, 14)$$

$$(d, x_2, y_2) := \mathbf{EXT-EUCLID} (78, 21) = (3, 3, -11)$$

$$(d, x_3, y_3) := \mathbf{EXT-EUCLID} (21, 15) = (3, -2, 3)$$

$$(d, x_4, y_4) := \mathbf{EXT-EUCLID} (15, 6) = (3, 1, -2)$$

$$(d, x_5, y_5) := \mathbf{EXT-EUCLID} (6, 3) = (3, 0, 1)$$

$$(d, x_6, y_6) := \mathbf{EXT-EUCLID} (3, 0) = (3, 1, 0)$$

Therefore $\gcd(99, 78) = 3 = 99 \cdot 11 - 78 \cdot 14$.

EXT-EUCLID: correctness

Theorem

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- Assume that $d = \gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$ and that $d = b \cdot x' + (a \bmod b) \cdot y'$

$$d = bx' + (a - b\lfloor a/b \rfloor y') = ay' + b(x' - \lfloor a/b \rfloor y')$$

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- The cost of the algorithm is the same as EUCLID.

Modular linear equations: $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

Recall:

- $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$ is solvable for x iff $\gcd(a, n) \mid b$.
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To find, if any, a solution to if $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$, we use the following

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$$x_0 = x'(b/d) \pmod{n}.$$

- If $ax \equiv b \pmod{n}$ is solvable and has x_0 as first solution, then the equation has d distinct solutions (mod n) given by

$$x_i = x_0 + i(n/d) \text{ for } 0 \leq i \leq d - 1$$

Solution of $ax \equiv b \pmod n$

The next algorithm takes as input $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and returns all solutions of the equation $ax \equiv b \pmod n$.

```
SOLVE ( $a, b, n$ )  
( $d, x', y'$ ) = EXT-EUCLID ( $a, n$ )  
if  $d|b$  then  
   $x_0 = x'(b/d) \pmod n$   
  for  $i = 1$  to  $d - 1$  do  
    return  $(x_0 + i(n/d)) \pmod n$   
  end for  
else  
  return no solution  
end if
```

Complexity: If $N = \max\{\log n, \log a, \log b\}$, then $T(n) = O(N^3)$.

Example

Solve $14x \equiv 30 \pmod{100}$

SOLVE(14, 30, 100)

as $d = 2|30$:

- $(d, x', y') = (2, -7, 1)$
- $x_0 = (-7)(15) \pmod{100} = 95$
- $x_1 = 95 + 50 \pmod{100} = 45$
- *Solutions: 45, 95*

Finding the multiplicative inverse of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$

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- To compute the multiplicative inverse of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$: use **EXT-EUCLID**(a, n) to get $ax + ny = 1$ or $ax \equiv 1 \pmod n$

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- To compute the multiplicative inverse of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$: use **EXT-EUCLID**(a, n) to get $ax + ny = 1$ or $ax \equiv 1 \pmod n$
- Therefore, $x = a^{-1}$ and it can be computed in time $O(N^3)$.

Find the multiplicative inverse of 5 mod 11:

EXT-EUCLID $(5, 11) = (1, -2, 1) \Rightarrow 5 \cdot (-2) \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$,
and -2 is the multiplicative inverse of 5 mod 11. ($-2 = 9$ in \mathbb{Z}_{11}^*)

Find the multiplicative inverse of 21 mod 91

Notice $91 = 13 \cdot 7$ and $21 = 3 \cdot 7$ therefore $\gcd(91, 21) = 7 \Rightarrow 21$ doesn't have inverse mod 91.

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 $G_1 \times G_2 = \{(a_1, a_2) | a_1 \in G_1, a_2 \in G_2\}$.

Multiplication: $(a_1, a_2) \cdot (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 \cdot b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)$

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Multiplication: $(a_1, a_2) \cdot (b_1, b_2) = (a_1 \cdot b_1, a_2 \cdot b_2)$

- If $n = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_k$, with $\gcd(q_i, q_j) = 1$, the CRT describes the structure of $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \cdot_n)$ as identical to $\mathbb{Z}_{q_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_2} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_k}$, each with $+_{q_i}, \cdot_{q_i}$.

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- If $n = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_k$, with $\gcd(q_i, q_j) = 1$, the CRT describes the structure of $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \cdot_n)$ as identical to $\mathbb{Z}_{q_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_2} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_k}$, each with $+_{q_i}, \cdot_{q_i}$.
- It has a many applications into algorithmics and cryptography, as working in $(\mathbb{Z}_{q_i}, +_{q_i}, \cdot_{q_i})$ could be more efficient than working in $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +_n, \cdot_n)$

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Lemma

If $\gcd(q_1, q_2) = 1$, then $\mathbb{Z}_{q_1 q_2} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{q_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_2}$.

Sketch Proof Define $f : \mathbb{Z}_{q_1 q_2} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_{q_1} \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_2}$ by $f(a) = (a \bmod q_1, a \bmod q_2)$ and prove that f is a bijection. □

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By using inductively the previous lemma:

Theorem (CRT, Sun Tzi Suan Ching, III), Euler XVIII)

Let $n = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdot \dots \cdot q_k$ with $\gcd(q_i, q_j) = 1$. Then,

$$\mathbb{Z}_n \cong \mathbb{Z}_{q_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{q_k}.$$

Notice we must have $q_i = p_i^c$ for prime p_i and constant c .

Chinese Remainder Theorem

Corollary

Let $n = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdot \dots \cdot q_k$ with $\gcd(q_i, q_j) = 1$, let r_1, \dots, r_n be integers s.t. $0 \leq r_i < q_i$, for $1 \leq i \leq k$. Then, the system of simultaneous k equations: $\{x \equiv r_i \pmod{q_i}\}_{i=1}^k$, has a unique solution.

CRT: Example-1

The procedure to apply CRT:

- 1 For all i , $1 \leq i \leq k$:
 - $m_i = n/q_i$,
 - $c_i = m_i(m_i^{-1} \pmod{q_i})$,
- 2 $x \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n r_i c_i \pmod{n}$.

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Sun Tzi Suan Ching's problem: *We have a number of things, but we do not know exactly how many. If we count them by threes we have two left over. If we count them by fives we have three left over. If we count them by sevens we have two left over. How many things are there?*

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

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

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

which yields $x \equiv 23 \pmod{105}$

CRT: Example-2

We want to do arithmetic on integers modulo $n = 8633$.
 $n = 8633 = 89 \times 97 = q_1 q_2 \Rightarrow m_1 = 97, m_2 = 89$