

Algorithms for Numbers and Public-Key Cryptography

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- Algorithms for numbers
 - Describe basic algorithms for dealing with numbers
 - Implement them on a computer
- Public-key cryptography
 - Describe the basic public-key algorithms
 - Implement them on a computer

- Basics of C programming
 - This is to ensure that everybody has the same minimal background in programming.
 - However you can choose any other language.
 - Python, with the Sage Library.
- Number theory.
 - GCD
 - Euclid's algorithm
 - Euclid's extended algorithm
 - Modular arithmetic.

- Bases of C programming.
 - Structure of a C program.
 - Variables and types.
 - Printing.
 - Control structures: if and while.
 - For loop.
 - Arrays
 - `argc` and `argv`

Structure of a C program

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define A 10
int main()
{
    printf("Hello world \n");
    printf("A=%d\n",A);
}
```

- `#include`: include libraries
- `#define`: definition of constants.
- `int main()`: definition of main function.

- A program can store variables in memory.
- One must declare a variable before using it.
 - `int a;` declaration of variable `a` as integer.
- Integer variables
 - `short`: 16 bits ± 32767 .
 - `int`: 16 or 32 bits ± 32767 or $\pm 2 \cdot 10^9$.
 - `long`: 32 bits $\pm 2 \cdot 10^9$.
- `unsigned short`, `unsigned int`, `unsigned long` → non-negative integers.

- Encoding
 - Mantissa: m .
 - Exponent: e .
 - $m * 2^e$.
- float: 24+8 bits.
 - $< 10^{38}$.
- double: 53+11 bits.
 - $< 10^{308}$.
- long double: 64+16 bits.
 - $< 10^{4932}$.

- Assignation:

- $a = b$;
- the content of variable b is copied in variable a .

- Arithmetic operations:

- $a + b$: addition.
- $a - b$: subtraction.
- $a * b$: multiplication.
- a/b : division.
 - Euclidean division for integers :
- $a \% b$: remainder.

Example

- Incrementation of a variable :
 - `i=i+1;`
- Circumference of a circle with radius in variable `float r`:
 - `float c;`
`c=2*3.14*r;`
- Average of variables `x` and `y`:
 - `float x,y,m;`
`m=(x+y)/2;`

Initialization of variables

- When a variable has been declared, its value is arbitrary.
- One can initialize it simultaneously :

```
#include <stdio.h>
int u=3;
int main()
{
    int a=2;
    printf("a=%d,u=%d\n",a,u);
}
```

Printing variables

- `printf` can print text and variable value on the standard output.
 - `%d` for an `int` or `long`.
 - `%f` for an `float` or `double`.

```
float a=2.3;  
int b=4;  
printf("a=%f,b=%d\n",a,b);
```

Input

- `scanf` enables to read a variable value from keyboard.

```
float a;
int b;
printf("Give a float:");
scanf("%f",&a);
printf("Give an integer:");
scanf("%d",&b);
```

Example

- Computing the circumference and area of a disk :

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    float x;
    scanf("%f", &x);
    float pi=3.1415926;
    float c=2*pi*x;
    float a=pi*x*x;
    printf("circonference=%f\n", c);
    printf("aire=%f\n", a);
}
```

Conditions

- if then else

```
if (test)
{
    instructions if true
}
else
{
    instructions if false
}
```

- else {...} is optional.

- Possibles tests :
 - Equality: $a == b$
 - Non-equality: $a != b$
 - Comparison: $a < b$
 - Comparison: $a <= b$
- Operations on tests :
 - Negation: $! (\text{test})$.
 - And: $((\text{test1}) \And (\text{test2}))$
 - Or: $((\text{test1}) \Or (\text{test2}))$

Example

- Ask for two integers and print them in increasing order :

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
    int a,b;
    printf("entrez deux entiers:\n");
    scanf("%d%d",&a,&b);
    if(a<b)
    {
        printf("%d %d\n",a,b);
    }
    else
    {
        printf("%d %d\n",b,a);
    }
}
```

While

- Repeat instruction **while** test **is true**.

```
while (test)
{
    instruction
}
```

- Example: determine the bit-size of *a* :

```
unsigned int a; int t=0;
while(a>0)
{
    a=a/2;
    t=t+1;
}
```

For loop

- Repeat the same instruction many times with a counter.
- Syntax: `for(< init >;< test >;< counter >)`
- Example: print integers from 1 to 10.
 - `for (i=1;i<=10;i++) printf("%d\n",i);`
- $<$ init $>$: initialize counter.
- $<$ test $>$: test counter.
- $<$ counter $>$: increment counter.

Example

- Compute 2^n given n :

```
int c=1;
int i;
for(i=0;i<n;i++)
{
    c=c*2;
}
// c contains  $2^n$ .
```

Arrays in C

- Arrays can store a group of variables of the same type.
 - For example:

```
int notes[5]; // array of 5 integers
notes[0]=15; // first entry
notes[1]=8;
notes[2]=16;
notes[3]=17;
notes[4]=9; // 5th entry
```

- Arrays type:
 - float tabf[5]: array of 5 float.
 - double tabd[10]: array of 10 double.
 - int tabi[7]: array of 7 int.
- Index:
 - An array of n elements is indexed from 0 to $n - 1$:
 - int tabi[7].
 - From tab[0] to tab[6].

Constant size

- An array must be of constant size.
 - This size must be written in the program, for example `int tab[10]`
 - `#define`:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define N 10      // one defines N=10
int main()
{
    int tab[N];
    int autretab[5];
}
```

Characters

- Stored in a byte (8 bits).
 - ASCII encoding:
 - 'A' → 65, 'B' → 66, ...
 - '0' → 48, ...
- Printing a character:

```
char x;  
x='A';  
printf("%c",x);
```

- A string is an array of characters.
 - `char ch[10] = "hello";` creates an array of characters such that :
 - `ch[0] = 'h'`, `ch[1] = 'e'`, `ch[2] = 'l'`, `ch[3] = 'l'`,
`ch[4] = 'o'`
 - `ch[5] = '\0'` is the last character.
 - The others elements are not initialized.
- Printing a string :
 - `printf("%s", ch);`

Initialization of an array

- Using for:

```
#define N 10
int main()
{
    int tab[N];
    int i;
    for(i=0;i<N;i++)
    {
        tab[i]=0;
    }
}
```

Example

- Factorial using array :

- $n! = n \cdot (n - 1) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$

```
#define N 10
int main()
{
    int fac[N];
    int i;
    fac[0]=1;
    for(i=1;i<N;i++)
    {
        fac[i]=fac[i-1]*i;
    }
}
```

2-dimensional arrays

- One can declare arrays with two dimensions or more :
 - `int tab[4][3];` declares an array of size 4×3 .
- Initialization :

```
#define M 10
#define N 5
int main()
{
    int tab[M][N];
    int i, j;
    for(i=0; i<M; i++)
        for(j=0; j<N; j++)
            tab[i][j]=0;
}
```

Command-line arguments

- Obtaining command-line arguments :
 - One would like to be able to write :

```
$ fact 5
120
```
- Advantage :
 - No need to write `int n=5` in the code (then code needs to be recompiled each time `n` is changed).
 - Avoid a `scanf`.

argc and argv

- Command-line arguments are stored in array argv.
- argc contains the number of arguments (size of argv).

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int i;
    for(i=0;i<argc;i++)
    {
        printf("%s\n", argv[i]);
        // print each argv[i] word
    }
}
```

Using argc and argv

- If the previous program is named `affiche`, then :
 - \$ `affiche hello world 2`
affiche
hello
world
2
- Here `argc=4`.

Converting a string to an integer

- `int atoi()` enables to convert a string to an integer.
 - Example : print the square of an integer.

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include <stdlib.h>
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
{
    int a=atoi(argv[1]); // conversion
    printf("%d\n", a*a);
}
```

- \$ carre 3
9

Pointers

- A pointer is a memory address.
 - When a variable is declared, some memory is allocated to it.
 - The address is obtained using &

```
// allocated memory for a  
int a;
```

```
// prints the address of a  
// (for ex: 2678673).  
printf("%d\n", &a);
```

- Pointer declaration:
 - Integer pointer: `int *p;`
 - Char pointer: `char *pc;`
 - Float pointer: `float *pf;`
- Access to content:
 - `*p` is the value at address p .

Example

```
int a; // allocate memory for a
a=2;

int *p; //
p=&a; // p is now a pointer to a

printf("%d\n", *p);
// prints the content at address p
// 2.

*p=3; // now a=3
```

- Pointer declaration:
 - `int *p;`
 - Does not allocate memory at address `p`.
 - `*p=2;` can give an error.
- `p` can become a pointer to an existing variable:
 - `int a; int *p; p=&a;`
- Or one can allocate memory for `p`.
 - Using `malloc`.
 - `int *p;
p=malloc(sizeof(int));`

Dynamic arrays

- Dynamic array of size n:

- ```
int *t;
t=malloc(n*sizeof(int));
• t[0] to t[n-1]
```

- Dynamic size.

- Not necessarily known at compilation time.
  - Known at execution time.
  - As opposed to

```
int t[10];
```

# Example

```
#include <stdio.h>
int main()
{
 int n;
 n=2*10;
 // n is known only at execution time

 int *p;
 p=malloc(n*sizeof(int));

 int i;
 for(i=0;i<n;i++) p[i]=0;
}
```

- Function free.

- `int *t=malloc(n*sizeof(int)); free(t);`

- Syntax :

- ```
rtype fname(para1,para2,...)
{
    localvariables
    functioncode
}
```

- Example :

- ```
double max(double a,double b)
{
 double m;
 if(a>b) m=a; else m=b;
 return m;
}
```

# Using the function

- ```
#include <stdio.h>
double max(double a, double b)
{
    double m;
    if(a>b) m=a; else m=b;
    return m;
}
int main()
{
    double x=3.5;
    double y=3.2;
    double z=max(x, y);
}
```

void function

- A void function is a function that returns nothing.

```
#include <stdio.h>
void affiche(int a)
{
    printf("La valeur est:%d\n", a);
}

int main()
{
    int u=3;
    affiche(u);
}
```

Printing an array

```
#include <stdio.h>
void affiche(int tab[],int n)
{
    int i;
    for(i=0;i<n;i++) printf("%d ",tab[i]);
    printf("\n");
}

int main()
{
    int t[5]={1,3,6,5,1}
    affiche(t,5);
}
```

- Common divisor :
 - Let a, b be two integers. A common divisor of a and b is an integer m such that $m|a$ and $m|b$.
- GCD.
 - GCD of two integers a and b is the greatest common divisor of a and b .
 - If $d = \text{GCD}(a, b)$, then for all m such that $m|a$ and $m|b$, we have $m|d$.
- Example
 - $\text{GCD}(9, 6) = 3$
 - $\text{GCD}(7, 5) = 1$.

Euclid's algorithm

- Euclid's algorithm :
 - Input: a, b .
 - Let $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$.
 - For $i \geq 0$, one defines the sequence (r_i) and (q_i) such that :

$$r_i = q_i \cdot r_{i+1} + r_{i+2}$$

where q_i and r_{i+2} are the quotient and remainder of the division of r_i by r_{i+1}

- There exists $k > 0$ such that $r_k = 0$.
- Then $\text{GCD}(a, b) = r_{k-1}$.

- Let $a > 0$ and $b \geq 0$.
 - If $b = 0$, then $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(a, 0) = a$
 - Otherwise, let $a = b \cdot q + r$ with $0 \leq r < b$.
 - Then $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(b, r)$.
 - (b, r) is less than (a, b) .
- $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(b, r)$
 - If $d|a$ and $d|b$, then $d|r$, and then $d|\text{GCD}(b, r)$. Then $\text{GCD}(a, b)|\text{GCD}(b, r)$.
 - If $d'|b$ and $d'|r$, then $d'|a$, and then $d'|\text{GCD}(a, b)$. Then $\text{GCD}(b, r)|\text{GCD}(a, b)$.
 - Then $\text{GCD}(a, b) = \text{GCD}(b, r)$.

Basic Properties of Integers

Theorem (Fundamental theorem of arithmetic)

Every non-zero integer n can be expressed as

$$n = \pm p_i^{e_1} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$$

where the p_i 's are distinct primes and the e_i are positive integers. Moreover the decomposition is unique, up to reordering of the primes.

- Proof: existence is easy by recursion; unicity: see any standard textbook.

Theorem (Division with remainder property)

For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$, there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a = bq + r$ and $0 \leq r < b$.

- Definition

- Let $n > 0$, and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- a is *congruent* to b if $n|(a - b)$.
- $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.
- n is called the *modulus*.
- Should not be confused with the *mod* of Euclidean division.

Theorem

Let $n > 0$. For any integer a , there exists a unique integer b such that $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $0 \leq b < n$, namely $b := a \bmod n$.

- Examples :
 - $2 \equiv 8 \pmod{3}$ since $3|(8 - 2)$.
 - $12 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ since $5|(12 - 2)$.
- Properties :
 - $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, a = b + k \cdot n$.
 - $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$
 - $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Rightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{n}$
 - $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ implies $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$

Properties

- Addition and multiplication
 - If $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$, then
 - $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{n}$ and $a \cdot b \equiv a' \cdot b' \pmod{n}$.
- When computing modulo n , one can substitute to x a value x' congruent to x modulo n .
 - Computing a with $0 \leq a < 8$ such that $a \equiv 83 \cdot 72 \pmod{7}$.
 - First solution: $83 \cdot 72 = 5976$
 $a = 5976 \pmod{7} = 5$.
 - Second solution: $83 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$, $72 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$,
 $83 \cdot 72 \equiv 6 \cdot 2 \equiv 12 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$.

Multiplicative inverse

- Multiplicative inverse :
 - Let $n > 0$ and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. An integer a' is a *multiplicative inverse* of a modulo n if $a \cdot a' \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.
- Theorem :
 - Let $n, a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n > 0$. Then a has a multiplicative inverse modulo n iff $\text{PGCD}(a, n) = 1$.
 - Proof (\Rightarrow)
 - If a' is a multiplicative inverse of a modulo n , then $a \cdot a' \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.
 - Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \cdot a' = 1 + k \cdot n$.
 - If $d|a$ and $d|n$, then $d|1$. Therefore $\text{PGCD}(a, n) = 1$.

Example

- A multiplicative inverse of 5 modulo 7 is 3 because

$$3 \cdot 5 \equiv 15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

- 2 has no multiplicative inverse modulo 6 :

- $2 \cdot 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$
- $2 \cdot 2 \equiv 4 \pmod{6}$
- $2 \cdot 3 \equiv 0 \pmod{6}$
- $2 \cdot 4 \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$
- $2 \cdot 5 \equiv 4 \pmod{6}$

Euclid's extended algorithm

- Euclid's extended algorithm
 - Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $d = \text{PGCD}(a, b)$.
 - Computes $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \cdot s + b \cdot t = d$.
 - Multiplicative inverse.
 - Let a, n with $n > 0$ and $\text{PGCD}(a, n) = 1$.
 - With Euclid's extended algorithm, one computes s, t such that
- $$a \cdot s + n \cdot t = 1$$
- Then $a \cdot s \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
 - s is one multiplicative inverse of a modulo n .

Euclid's extended algorithm

- Euclid's extended algorithm, for $a > 0$ and $b \geq 0$.
 - Two additional sequences u_i and v_i .
 - $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$.
 - For $i \geq 0$, let $r_i = q_i \cdot r_{i+1} + r_{i+2}$
 - $u_0 := 1$, $v_0 := 0$, $u_1 := 0$, $v_1 := 1$ and for $i \geq 2$, one defines $u_i = u_{i-2} - q_{i-2} \cdot u_{i-1}$ and $v_i = v_{i-2} - q_{i-2} \cdot v_{i-1}$.
- There exists $k > 0$ such that $r_k = 0$.
 - Then $\text{PGCD}(a, b) = r_{k-1} = u_{k-1} \cdot a + v_{k-1} \cdot b$.

Proof

- We always have $r_i = u_i \cdot a + v_i \cdot b$.
 - True for $r_0 = a = 1 \cdot a + 0 \cdot b$.
 - True for $r_1 = b = 0 \cdot a + 1 \cdot b$.
 - If $r_{i-2} = u_{i-2} \cdot a + v_{i-2} \cdot b$ and $r_{i-1} = u_{i-1} \cdot a + v_{i-1} \cdot b$, then :

$$\begin{aligned} u_i \cdot a + v_i \cdot b &= (u_{i-2} - q_{i-2} \cdot u_{i-1}) \cdot a + \\ &\quad (v_{i-2} - q_{i-2} \cdot v_{i-1}) \cdot b \\ &= r_{i-2} - q_{i-2} \cdot r_{i-1} \\ &= r_i \end{aligned}$$

- Let an integer $n > 1$ called the modulus.
- Modular reduction
 - $r := a \bmod n$, remainder of the division of a by n .
 - $0 \leq r < n$
 - Ex: $11 \bmod 8 = 3, 15 \bmod 5 = 0$.
- Congruence:
 - $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if $n|(a - b)$.
 - $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if a and b have same remainder modulo n .
 - Ex: $11 \equiv 19 \pmod{8}$.
 - If $r := a \bmod n$, then $r \equiv a \pmod{n}$.

- If $a_0 \equiv b_0 \pmod{n}$ and $a_1 \equiv b_1 \pmod{n}$
 - $a_0 + a_1 \equiv b_0 + b_1 \pmod{n}$
 - $a_0 - a_1 \equiv b_0 - b_1 \pmod{n}$
 - $a_0 \cdot a_1 \equiv b_0 \cdot b_1 \pmod{n}$
- Integers modulo n
 - Integers modulo n are $\mathbb{Z}_n = \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$
 - Addition, subtraction or multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_n is done by first doing it in \mathbb{Z} and then reducing the result modulo n .
 - For example in \mathbb{Z}_7 :
 - $6 + 4 = 3, 3 - 4 = 6, 3 \cdot 6 = 4.$