

# CSE 20

# DISCRETE MATH

---

Fall 2020

<http://cseweb.ucsd.edu/classes/fa20/cse20-a/>

# Today's learning goals

- Use the equivalence relation of congruence modulo integers and apply its properties
- Trace the algorithms involved in Diffie-Helman key exchange

# Review: Relations

**Definition:** When  $A$  and  $B$  are sets, we say any subset of  $A \times B$  is a **binary relation**.

**Definition:** When  $A$  is a set, we say any subset of  $A \times A$  is a (binary) **relation** on  $A$ .

**Definition:** (*Rosen 9.1*) A relation  $R$  on a set  $A$  is called **reflexive** means  $(a, a) \in R$  for every element  $a \in A$ .

**Definition:** (*Rosen 9.1*) A relation  $R$  on a set  $A$  is called **symmetric** means  $(b, a) \in R$  whenever  $(a, b) \in R$ , for all  $a, b \in A$ .

**Definition:** (*Rosen 9.1*) A relation  $R$  on a set  $A$  is called **transitive** means whenever  $(a, b) \in R$  and  $(b, c) \in R$ , then  $(a, c) \in R$ , for all  $a, b, c \in A$ .

**Definition:** (*Rosen 9.5*) A relation is an **equivalence relation** if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

**Definition:** (*Rosen 9.5*) An **equivalence class** of an element  $a \in A$  for an equivalence relation  $R$  on the set  $A$  is the set  $\{s \in A \mid (a, s) \in R\}$ . We write this as  $[a]_R$ .

# Review: Congruence modulo $n$

**Definition:** Let  $R_{(\bmod n)}$  be the set of all pairs of integers  $(a, b)$  such that  $(a \bmod n = b \bmod n)$ . We say  $a$  is **congruent to  $b \bmod n$**  means  $(a, b) \in R_{(\bmod n)}$ . A common notation is to write this as  $a \equiv b(\bmod n)$ .

Which of the following are true?

A.  $(102 + 48) \bmod 10 = (102 \bmod 10) + (48 \bmod 10)$

B.  $(7 \cdot 10) \bmod 5 = (7 \bmod 5) \cdot (10 \bmod 5)$

C.  $(2^5) \bmod 3 = ( (2 \bmod 3)^{(5 \bmod 3)} ) \bmod 3$

D. More than one of the above

E. None of the above

# Modular arithmetic

**Lemma** (Section 4.1, page 241): For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and positive integer  $n$ ,  $(a, b) \in R_{(\bmod n)}$  if and only if  $n|a - b$ .

# Modular arithmetic

**Lemma** (Section 4.1 Theorem 5): For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and positive integer  $n$ , if  $(a, b) \in R_{(\bmod n)}$  and  $(c, d) \in R_{(\bmod n)}$  then  $(a + c, b + d) \in R_{(\bmod n)}$  and  $(ac, bd) \in R_{(\bmod n)}$ .

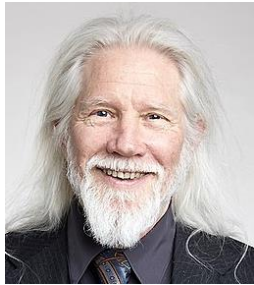
# Application: Cryptography

How do parties communicate private key securely across insecure channel?

- Caesar cipher: need to agree on shift
- AES: private key, needs to be generated for each session

# Application: Cryptography

Rosen, 4.6, p302



$k_1$ : secret

$a$ : public

$p$ : public



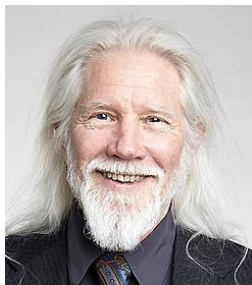
$k_2$ : secret

**Definition:** Let  $a$  be a positive integer and  $p$  be a large<sup>1</sup> prime number, both known to everyone. Let  $k_1$  be a secret large number known only to person  $P_1$  (Alice) and  $k_2$  be a secret large number known only to person  $P_2$  (Bob). Let the **Diffie-Helman shared key** for  $a, p, k_1, k_2$  be  $(a^{k_1 \cdot k_2} \bmod p)$ .



# Application: Cryptography

Rosen, 4.6, p302



$k_1$ : secret

$a$ : public

$p$ : public



$k_2$ : secret

Suppose that Alice and Bob want to share a common key. The protocol follows these steps, where the computations are done in  $\mathbf{Z}_p$ .

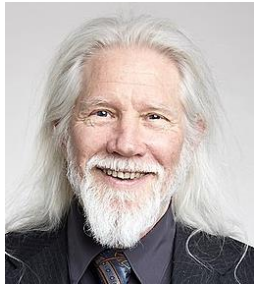
- (1) Alice and Bob agree to use a prime  $p$  and a primitive root  $a$  of  $p$ .
- (2) Alice chooses a secret integer  $k_1$  and sends  $a^{k_1} \bmod p$  to Bob.
- (3) Bob chooses a secret integer  $k_2$  and sends  $a^{k_2} \bmod p$  to Alice.
- (4) Alice computes  $(a^{k_2})^{k_1} \bmod p$ .
- (5) Bob computes  $(a^{k_1})^{k_2} \bmod p$ .

At the end of this protocol, Alice and Bob have computed their shared key, namely

$$(a^{k_2})^{k_1} \bmod p = (a^{k_1})^{k_2} \bmod p.$$

# Application: Cryptography

Rosen, 4.6, p302



$k_1$ : secret

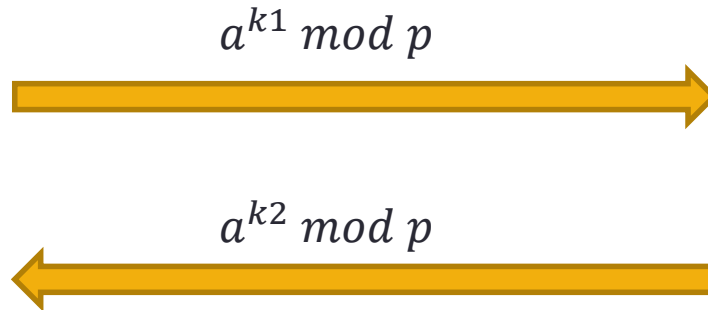
$a$ : public

$p$ : public



$k_2$ : secret

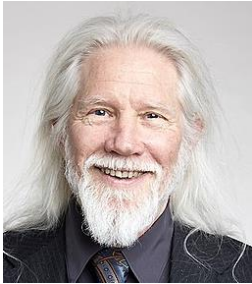
Computes  
 $(a^{k_2} \bmod p)^{k_1} \bmod p$   
 $= (a^{k_1 k_2}) \bmod p$



Computes  
 $(a^{k_1} \bmod p)^{k_2} \bmod p$   
 $= (a^{k_1 k_2}) \bmod p$

# Application: Cryptography

Rosen, 4.6, p302



$k_1$ : secret

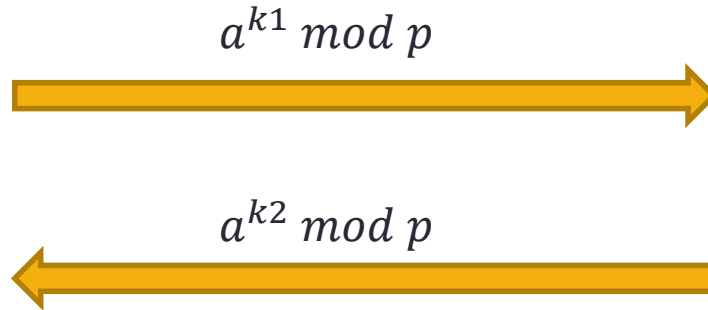
$a$ : public

$p$ : public



$k_2$ : secret

Computes  
 $(a^{k_2} \bmod p)^{k_1} \bmod p$   
 $= (a^{k_1 k_2}) \bmod p$



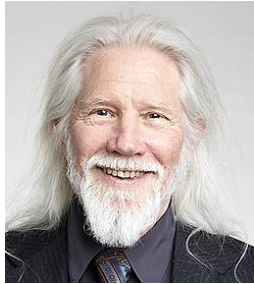
Computes  
 $(a^{k_1} \bmod p)^{k_2} \bmod p$   
 $= (a^{k_1 k_2}) \bmod p$

Public:  $a, p, a^{k_1} \bmod p, a^{k_2} \bmod p$

Common secret:  $a^{k_1 k_2} \bmod p$

# Application: Cryptography

Rosen, 4.6, p302



$k_1$ : secret

$a$ : public

$p$ : public



$k_2$ : secret

## *San Diego connection*

key cryptosystem they need to share a common key. The protocol we will describe is known as the **Diffie-Hellman key agreement protocol**, after Whitfield Diffie and Martin Hellman, who described it in 1976. However, this protocol was invented in 1974 by Malcolm Williamson in secret work at the British GCHQ. It was not until 1997 that his discovery was made public.



# Modular exponentiation

*Rosen p. 254*

Calculate  $3^8 \bmod 7$

*Approach 1: Directly*

$$3^1 \bmod 7 =$$

$$3^2 \bmod 7 =$$

$$3^3 \bmod 7 =$$

$$3^4 \bmod 7 =$$

$$3^5 \bmod 7 =$$

$$3^6 \bmod 7 =$$

$$3^7 \bmod 7 =$$

$$3^8 \bmod 7 =$$

# Modular exponentiation

Rosen p. 254

Calculate  $3^8 \bmod 7$

Modular Exponentiation; Algorithm 5 in Section 4.2 (page 254)

```
1 procedure modular_exponentiation(b: integer;  
2            $n = (a_{k-1}a_{k-2} \dots a_1a_0)_2$ , m: positive integers)  
3   x := 1  
4   power := b mod m  
5   for i:= 0 to k-1  
6     if  $a_i = 1$  then x:= (x · power) mod m  
7     power := (power · power) mod m  
8   return x {x equals  $b^n \bmod m$ }
```

---

---

Approach 2: Using Algorithm 5

$b = \underline{\quad}$ ,  $n = \underline{\quad}$ ,  $k = \underline{\quad}$ ,  $m = \underline{\quad}$

<i>i</i>	$a_i$	<i>x</i>	<i>power</i>
		1	$b \bmod m =$
0			
1			
2			
3			

# Application: Cryptography

**Multiplication is computationally cheap, but  
Factoring is computationally expensive**

Given a 400 digit number that is a product of two 200 digit primes, can't efficiently find these primes. *Basis of security of RSA*

**Modular exponentiation is computationally cheap, but  
Discrete logarithm is computationally expensive:**

Given a 300 digit prime and the result of exponentiation mod this prime, can't efficiently find the logarithm, i.e. find  $k$  when given  $a^k \bmod p$

*Basis of security of Diffie-Hellman*

Peter Shor 1994 <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/365700>