

Operation modulo n : $\text{mod } n$.

Prz. 2. $n=2$: $\forall a \in \mathcal{L} \rightarrow a \text{ mod } 2 = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } a \text{ even} & (e) \\ 1, & \text{if } a \text{ odd} & (o) \end{cases}$
 $a \text{ mod } 2 \in \{0, 1\}$

$\mathcal{L} \text{ mod } 2 = \{0, 1\}$; $f_2 = \text{mod } 2 \rightarrow f(\mathcal{L}) = \{0, 1\} = \mathcal{L}_2$

$f_2: \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{L}_2 = \{0, 1\}$

\mathcal{L}_2 arithmetics: $\langle \mathcal{L}_2, \oplus, \& \rangle$

+	e	o
e	e	o
o	o	e

$e \equiv 0$
 $o \equiv 1$

		B	B
\oplus		0	1
A	0	0	1
A	1	1	0

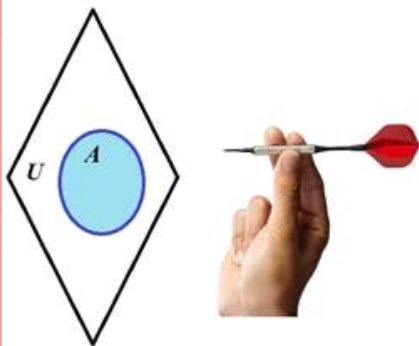
\oplus XOR
 Exclusive OR

.	e	o
e	e	e
o	e	o

$e \equiv 0$
 $o \equiv 1$

$\&$	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

$\&$ AND \cap And
 Conjunction



XOR and AND logical operations in Boolean algebra can be illustrated by dartboard game.

Single Boolean variable can be represented by the set of 2 values $\{0,1\}$ or $\{\text{Yes, No}\}$ or $\{\text{True, False}\}$.

Let U is some universal set containing all other sets (we do not take into account paradoxes related with U now).

Let A be a set in U . Then with the set A in U can be associated a Boolean variable $b_A=1$ if area A is hit by missile
 $b_A=0$ otherwise.

For this single variable b_A the negation operation $\bar{}$ is defined:

$b_A \bar{} = 0$ if $b_A = 1$,

$b_A \bar{} = 1$ if $b_A = 0$.

Boolean operations are named also as Boolean functions.

Since negation operation/function is performed with the single variable it is called a unary operation.

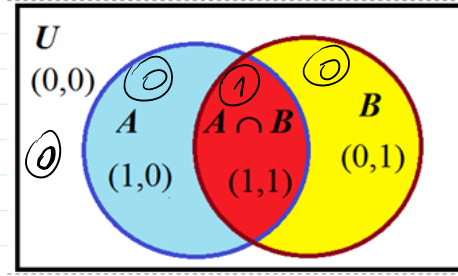
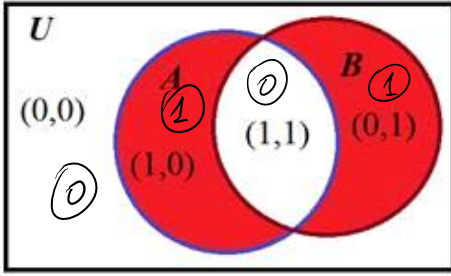
There are 16 Boolean functions defined for 2 variables and called binary functions.

Two of them XOR and AND are illustrated below.

$A \oplus B$

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$$A \oplus B$$



Venn diagram of $A \oplus B$ operation.

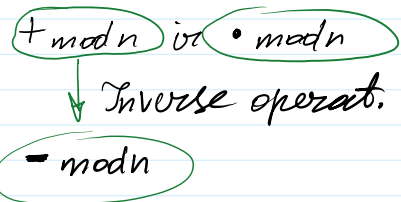
Venn diagram of $A \& B$ operation.

\mathcal{I}_n arithmetic ($n < \infty$): $\mathcal{I} \bmod n = \mathcal{I}_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$

\mathcal{I}_n is a ring with operations

$$\forall a, b \in \mathcal{I}_n : a +_{\bmod n} b = c \in \mathcal{I}_n$$

$$a \cdot_{\bmod n} b = d \in \mathcal{I}_n$$



$$a + b = c \bmod n$$

$$a \cdot b = d \bmod n$$

Operation properties:

$$(a + b) \bmod n = (a \bmod n + b \bmod n) \bmod n$$

$$(a \cdot b) \bmod n = (a \bmod n \cdot b \bmod n) \bmod n$$

$$(a - b) \bmod n = \begin{cases} a - b, & \text{if } a \geq b \\ a + n - b, & \text{if } a < b \end{cases}$$

For given $b \in \mathcal{I}_n$. Find: $-b \in \mathcal{I}_n : b + (-b) = 0 \in \mathcal{I}_n$

$$-b \bmod n = (0 - b) \bmod n = (n - b) \bmod n = n - b$$

Additively neutral element to b $-b \bmod n = n - b$ [octave]

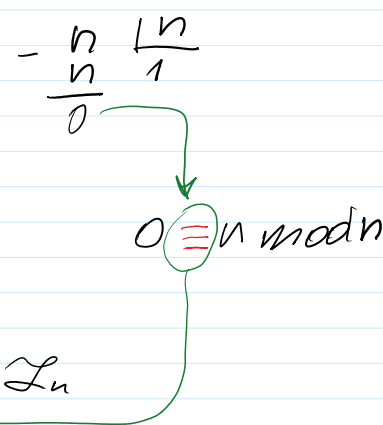
$$b + (-b) = b + n - b = \cancel{b} - \cancel{b} + n = n \bmod n = 0.$$

$$(a^r \cdot a^s) \bmod n = a^{r+s} \bmod n$$

$$(a^r)^s \bmod n = a^{r \cdot s} \bmod n$$

Depending of n the operations $r+s$ } in exponents will be } $r \cdot s$ } computed differently.

Let $n = p = 11$



Then $\mathcal{I}_n = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$

Let we have any set G (not necessary finite) consisting of the elements of any nature, i.e. $G = \{a, b, c, \dots, z, \dots\}$.

1. **Definition.** A set G is an algebraic group if it is equipped with a binary operation \bullet that satisfies four axioms:

1. Operation \bullet is closed in the set; for all a, b , there exists unique c in G such that $a \bullet b = c$.
2. Operation \bullet is associative; for all a, b, c in G : $(a \bullet b) \bullet c = a \bullet (b \bullet c)$.
3. Group G has an neutral element abstractly we denote by e such that $a \bullet e = e \bullet a$.
4. Any element a in G has its inverse a^{-1} with respect to \bullet operation such that $a \bullet a^{-1} = a^{-1} \bullet a = e$.
5. If $a \bullet b = b \bullet a$ then group G is commutative group.

Division operation is defined: $a : b = a \bullet b^{-1}$

To divide a by b^{-1} it is necessary to find multiplicatively inverse element b^{-1} to b such that $b^{-1} \bullet b = b \bullet b^{-1} = 1$.

We will deal with commutative groups.

For curiosity, can be said that group axioms seems very simple but groups and their mappings describes a very deep and fundamental phenomena in physics and other sciences. Among these mappings a special importance have mappings preserving operations from one group to another called **isomorphisms**, or **homomorphisms** and **morphisms** in general. Isomorphisms have a great importance in cryptography to realize a secure confidential **cloud computing**. It is named as **computation with encrypted data**. The systems having a homomorphic property are named as **homomorphic cryptographic systems**. They are under the development and are very useful in creation of secure e-voting systems, confidential transactions in blockchain and etc. There we present one very important isomorphism example later when consider so called discrete exponent function (DEF).

T1. Theorem. If p is prime, then $\mathcal{I}_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$ where operation is multiplication $\ast \text{ mod } p$ is a multiplicative group: $\langle \mathcal{I}_p^*, \ast \text{ mod } p \rangle$

Example: $p = 11 \Rightarrow \mathcal{I}_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$

Multiplication Tab.											
\mathbb{Z}_{11}^*											
*		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
2		2	4	6	8	10	1	3	5	7	9
3		3	6	9	1	4	7	10	2	5	8
4		4	8	1	5	9	2	6	10	3	7
5		5	10	4	9	3	8	2	7	1	6
6		6	1	7	2	8	3	9	4	10	5
7		7	2	10	6	3	4	5	1	8	9

$$3 \cdot 10 = 30 \begin{array}{r} | 11 \\ 22 \quad 2 \\ \hline 8 \end{array}$$

$$10 \cdot 10 = 100 \begin{array}{r} | 11 \\ 99 \quad 9 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 4 \cdot 3 \text{ mod } 11 = 12 \text{ mod } 11 = 1 \\ 4 \cdot 4^{-1} \text{ mod } 11 = \quad \quad \quad = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

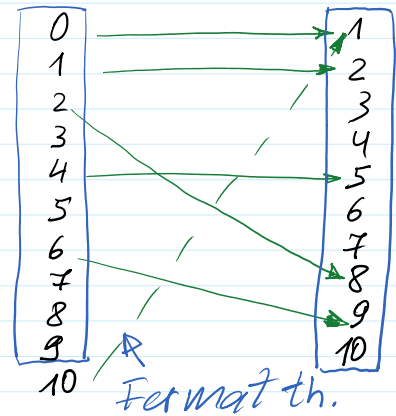
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...-1 ...

5	5	10	4	9	3	8	2	1	10	0
6	6	1	7	2	8	3	9	4	10	5
7	7	3	10	6	2	9	5	1	8	4
8	8	5	2	10	7	4	1	9	6	3
9	9	7	5	3	1	10	8	6	4	2
10	10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

4.4 mod 11 = 3
 $4^{-1} = 3 \pmod{11}$

Power Tab. Z_{11}^*	$x \in Z_{10}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	2	4	8	5	10	9	7	3	6	1	1
3	1	3	9	5	4	1	3	9	5	4	1	1
4	1	4	5	9	3	1	4	5	9	3	1	1
5	1	5	3	4	9	1	5	3	4	9	1	1
6	1	6	3	7	9	10	5	8	4	2	1	1
7	1	7	5	2	3	10	4	6	9	8	1	1
8	1	8	9	6	4	10	3	2	5	7	1	1
9	1	9	4	3	5	1	9	4	3	5	1	1
10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	1

$Z_{11}^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$
 $Z_{10} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$
 DEF: $Z_{10} \rightarrow Z_{11}^*$
 DEF₂(x) = $2^x \pmod{11}$



$\left. \begin{aligned} \text{card}(Z_{10}) &= |Z_{10}| = 10 \\ \text{card}(Z_{11}^*) &= |Z_{11}^*| = 10 \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow \text{card}(Z_{10}) = \text{card}(Z_{11}^*)$

It is proved that:
 if p is prime, then there exists such numbers g that
 $\text{DEF}_g(x)$ provides 1-to-1 or bijective mapping. Fermat little th.

Power Tab. Z_{11}^*	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
2	1	2	4	8	5	10	9	7	3	6	1
3	1	3	9	5	4	1	3	9	5	4	1
4	1	4	5	9	3	1	4	5	9	3	1
5	1	5	3	4	9	1	5	3	4	9	1

The set of numbers are generating all the numbers in the set Z_{11}^* is named as a set of generator $\Gamma = \{2, 6, 7, 8\}$

4	1	4	5	9	5	1	4	5	9	5	1
5	1	5	3	4	9	1	5	3	4	9	1
6	1	6	3	7	9	10	5	8	4	2	1
7	1	7	5	2	3	10	4	6	9	8	1
8	1	8	9	6	4	10	3	2	5	7	1
9	1	9	4	3	5	1	9	4	3	5	1
10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1

is named as a set of generator $\Gamma_n = \{2, 6, 7, 8\}$

Let G be a finite group with $\text{card}(G) = |G| = N$.

Def. 1. The element g is a generator if $g^i, i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1$, generates all N elements of G .

Def. 2. The group G which can be generated by generator g is a cyclic group and is denoted by $\langle g \rangle = G$.

$$\langle \mathbb{Z}_p^*, *_{\text{mod } p} \rangle; \mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}; p \sim 2^{2048} \approx 10^{670}$$

$$\text{If } g \text{ is a generator: } \mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{g^e \mid e = 0, 1, 2, \dots, p-2\}$$

$$e \in \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-2\}$$

T2. Fermat (little) Theorem. If p is prime, then [Sakalauskas et al.]

$$z^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$$

Using this theorem we can prove that if $z=g$ is a generator then DEF is 1-to-1 mapping:

$$\text{DEF: } \mathbb{Z}_{p-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^*;$$

$$\text{DEF}(x) = g \pmod{p} = a.$$

Computation of exponent values in \mathbb{Z}_p^*

$$a^{x \cdot y + z} \pmod{p}$$

$$a^{p-1} \pmod{p} = 1 = a^0 \pmod{p} \Rightarrow p-1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p-1}$$

The exponent relation $x \cdot y + z$ can be reduced $\pmod{p-1}$

$$\begin{array}{r|l} p-1 & p-1 \\ -p-1 & 1 \\ \hline 0 & \end{array}$$

$$(a^{x \cdot y + z}) \pmod{p} = a^{(x \cdot y + z) \pmod{p-1}} \pmod{p}$$

$$(a^{x+y+z}) \bmod p = a^{x+y+z} \bmod p$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{xmy}pz = \text{mod_exp}(a, x*y+z, p)$$

$$\Rightarrow xmypz = \text{mod}(x*y+z, p-1)$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{xmy}pz = \text{mod_exp}(a, xmypz, p)$$

C.5.3 Finding generators.

We have to look inside \mathbb{Z}_p^* and find a generator. How?

Even if we have a candidate, how do we test it?

The condition is that $\langle g \rangle = G$ which would take $|G|$ steps to check: $p \sim 2^{2048} \rightarrow |G| \sim 2^{2048}$.

In fact, finding a generator given p is in general a hard problem.

We can exploit the particular prime numbers names as **strong primes**.

If p is prime and $p=2q+1$ with q prime then p is a **strong prime**.

Note that the order of the group \mathbb{Z}_p^* is $p-1=2q$, i.e. $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = 2q$.

Fact C.23. Say $p=2q+1$ is **strong prime** where $q = (p-1)/2$ is prime, then g in \mathbb{Z}_p^* is a generator of \mathbb{Z}_p^* iff $g^2 \neq 1 \bmod p$ and $g^q \neq 1 \bmod p$.

Testing whether g is a generator is easy given strong prime p .

Now, given $p=2q+1$, the generator can be found by randomly generation numbers $g < p$ and verifying two relations. The probability to find a generator is ~ 0.4 .

How to find more generators when g one is found?

Fact C.24. If g is a generator and i is not divisible by q and 2 then g^i is a generator as well, i.e.

If g is a generator and $\gcd(i, q)=1$ and $\gcd(i, 2)=1$, then g^i is a generator as well.

How to find inverse element to $z \bmod n$?

`>> mulinv(z,n)`

Inverse elements in the Group of integers $\langle \mathbb{Z}_p^*, \cdot \bmod p \rangle$ can be found using either

Extended Euclidean algorithm or Fermat theorem, or ...

$z \in \mathbb{Z}_p^*$: to find z^{-1} such that $z \cdot z^{-1} = z^{-1} \cdot z = 1 \bmod p$

$$z^{p-1} = 1 \bmod p \quad | \cdot z^{-1} \Rightarrow z^{p-1} \cdot z^{-1} = z^{-1} \bmod p \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow z^{-1} = z^{p-1} \cdot z^{-1} \bmod p \Rightarrow z^{-1} = z^{p-2} \bmod p$$

$$z^{-1} = z^{p-2} \bmod p$$

$$\Rightarrow z_{-m1} = \text{mulinv}(z, p)$$

Operations in exponents.

$$a^r \cdot a^s \bmod p = a^{(r+s) \bmod (p-1)} \bmod p \quad \text{According to Fermat th.}$$

operations in exponents.

$$a^r \cdot a^s \pmod p = a^{(r+s) \pmod{p-1}} \pmod p \quad \text{According to Fermat th.}$$

$$(a^r)^s \pmod p = a^{(r \cdot s) \pmod{p-1}} \pmod p \quad \text{we have:}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} z^0 = 1 \pmod p \\ z^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow 0 \equiv p-1 \text{ in exponents } 0 \equiv p-1 \pmod{p-1}$$

Needed example: to compute $s = t + x \cdot h \pmod{p-1}$

when s is in exponent of the generator g :

$$g^s = g^{(t+x \cdot h) \pmod{p-1}} \pmod p = \underbrace{g^t}_r \cdot \underbrace{(g^x)^h}_a \pmod p.$$

$$\text{Sign}(Prk, h) = (r, s)$$

Public Parameters generation

$$PP = (p, g)$$

p - strong prime \Rightarrow it is easy to generate generator g by randomly choosing g values with probability ~ 0.4 .

```
>> p = 268 435 019; % 2^28 --> >> int64(2^28-1)
      % ans = 268 435 455
>> g=2; % testing g=2, g=3, .....
```

Private and Public Keys generation

$$Prk = x$$

$$Puk = a$$

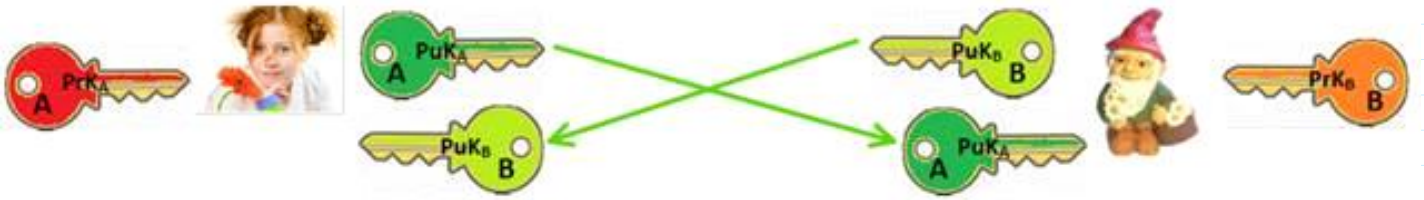
$$x \leftarrow \text{randi}(2^{28})$$

$$a = g^x \pmod p$$

Security of Prk is based on the difficulty of

Discrete Logarithm Problem - DLP.

When $p \sim 2^{2048}$, then DLP is infeasible for classical - non-quantum computers.



Google

Go :

Solidity

For Ethereum

1. PrK & PuK generation
2. Smart contract signing

malware
)))

?

Net

Secure PrK, PuK generation & signing

Computer ✗

(PrK, PuK) → Flash token
Go Trust (Taiwan)