

Lec 10

Review

Euclidean algorithm

Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

$\gcd(503, 286)$	$503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$	$1 = 10 - 1 \cdot 9$
$= \gcd(286, 217)$	$286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$	$1 = 7 \cdot 10 - 1 \cdot 69$
$= \gcd(217, 69)$	$217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10$	$1 = 7 \cdot 217 - 22 \cdot 69$
$= \gcd(69, 10)$	$69 = 6 \cdot 10 + 9$	$1 = 29 \cdot 217 - 22 \cdot 286$
$= \gcd(10, 9)$	$10 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1$	$1 = 29 \cdot 503 - 51 \cdot 286$
$= 1$	$9 = 9 \cdot 1$	

solve linear congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ ($\gcd(a, m) = 1$)

Euler's Theorem / Fermat's Little Theorem

$$X^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \text{ if } \gcd(x, n) = 1$$

$$X^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \text{ if } X \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$$

RSA

$$\begin{aligned} p, q, n &= pq \\ \phi(n) &= (p-1)(q-1) \\ \text{public key} &: (e, n) \\ \text{private key} &: d \\ \gcd(e, \phi(n)) &= 1 \\ ed &\equiv 1 \pmod{\phi(n)} \end{aligned}$$

加、解密过程：

$$\text{Encryption} : M^e \pmod{n} = C$$

$$\text{Decryption} : C^d \pmod{n} = M$$

Proof

Q : Consider the RSA system. Let (e, d) be a key pair for the RSA. Define

$$\lambda(n) = \text{lcm}(p-1, q-1)$$

and compute $d' = e^{-1} \bmod \lambda(n)$. Will decryption using d' instead of d still work? (prove $C^{d'} \bmod n = M$)

Case I: $\gcd(M, n) = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{C^{d'} \bmod n} &= M^{ed'} \bmod n = M^{k\lambda(n)+1} \bmod n \\ &= (M^{k\lambda(n)} \bmod n) M \bmod n \\ &= \left(M^{(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} \bmod n \right)^k M \bmod n \end{aligned}$$

By Fermat's theorem, $M^{(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} \bmod p = (M^{(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)})^{p-1} \bmod p = 1$ and $M^{(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} \bmod q = 1$. Then by Chinese Remainder Theorem, we have $C^{d'} \bmod n = M$.

Case II: $\gcd(M, n) = p$

$M = tp$ for some integer $0 < t < q$. We have $\gcd(M, q) = 1$ and $ed' = k\lambda(n) + 1$ for some integer k . By Fermat's theorem, we have

$$(M^{k\lambda(n)} - 1) \bmod q = (M^{k(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} - 1) \bmod q = 0.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (M^{ed'} - M) \bmod n &= M(M^{ed'-1} - 1) \bmod n \\ &= tp(M^{k\lambda(n)} - 1) \bmod pq \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



Case III: $\gcd(M, n) = q$

Similar to Case II.

Case IV: $\gcd(M, n) = pq$

Trivial.

Mathematical Induction

Proof by smallest counterexample

- Use **proof by smallest counterexample** to show that, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$(*) \quad 0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

- ◇ Suppose that $(*)$ is not always true
- ◇ Then there must be a **smallest** $n \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $(*)$ does not hold for n
- ◇ For any nonnegative integer $i < n$,
$$1 + 2 + \cdots + i = \frac{i(i+1)}{2}$$
- ◇ Since $0 = 0 \cdot 1/2$, $(*)$ holds for $n = 0$
- ◇ The smallest counterexample n is larger than 0



- We now have
 - (i) smallest counterexample n is greater than 0, and
 - (ii) $(*)$ holds for $n - 1$

- ◇ Substituting $n - 1$ for i gives
$$1 + 2 + \cdots + n - 1 = \frac{(n-1)n}{2}$$

- ◇ Adding n to both sides gives

$$(\text{X}) \quad 1 + 2 + \cdots + n - 1 + n = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

- ◇ Thus, n is not a counterexample. **Contradiction!**

Steps:

Example 2

- Let $P(n) = 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$

We just showed that

- (a) $P(0)$ is true
- (b) if $n > 0$, then $P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$
 - ◇ Suppose there is some n for which $P(n)$ is false (*)
 - ◇ Let n be the smallest counterexample
 - ◇ Then, from (a) $n > 0$, so $P(n-1)$ is true
 - ◇ Therefore, from (b), using direct inference, $P(n)$ is true
 - ◇ This contradicts (*).
 - ◇ Thus, $P(n)$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



The week Principle of Mathematical Induction

验证开头正确性，之后假设 n 正确，去推导 $n+1$ 的正确性，最后得出结论

Proof by Induction

- $\forall n \geq 2, 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 3$

Let $P(n) = 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 3$ Base Step

(i) Note that for $n = 2, 2^{2+1} = 8 \geq 7 = 2^2 + 3 = P(2)$

(ii) Suppose that $n > 2$ and that $2^n \geq (n-1)^2 + 3$ (*)

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{n+1} &\geq 2(n-1)^2 + 6 && \text{Inductive Hypothesis} \\ &= n^2 + 3 + n^2 - 4n + 4 + 1 \\ &= n^2 + 3 + (n-2)^2 + 1 \\ &> n^2 + 3 \end{aligned}$$

Inductive Step

Hence, we've just prove that for $n > 2, P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$.

By mathematical induction, $\forall n > 2, 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 3$.

Inductive Conclusion



The **Strong** Principle of Mathematical Induction

Example:

- Prove that every positive integer is a power of a prime or the product of powers of primes.
 - ◇ **Base Step**: 1 is a power of a prime number, $1 = 2^0$
 - ◇ **Inductive Hypothesis**: Suppose that $P(1) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n-1)$ every number less than n is a power of a prime or a product of powers of primes.
 - ◇ Then, if n is not a prime power, it is a product of two smaller numbers, each of which is, by the **inductive hypothesis**, a power of a prime or a product of powers of primes.
 - ◇ Thus, by the **strong principle of mathematical induction**, every positive integer is a power of a prime or a product of powers of primes.

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Summary

- A *typical* proof by mathematical induction, showing that a statement $P(n)$ is true for all integers $n \geq b$ consists of three steps:
 1. We show that $P(b)$ is true. – **Base Step**
 2. We then, $\forall n > b$, show either
$$(*) \quad P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$$
or
$$(**) \quad P(b) \wedge P(b+1) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$$
We need to make the **inductive hypothesis** of either $P(n-1)$ or $P(b) \wedge P(b+1) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n-1)$. We then use $(*)$ or $(**)$ to derive $P(n)$.
 3. We conclude on the basis of the principle of **mathematical induction** that $P(n)$ is true for all $n \geq b$.

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Recursion

