

## 1 | Modular Arithmetic

For a positive integer  $m$  and integers  $a, b$  we say that  $a, b$  are congruent modulo  $m$  if they have the same remainder upon division by  $m$ . Equivalently,  $a, b$  are congruent modulo  $m$  if  $a - b$  is a multiple of  $m$ . This is denoted as  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

Example:  $2 \equiv 26 \pmod{8}$

Addition, subtraction, and multiplication are defined in modular arithmetic. For  $a \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$  and  $a \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$ :

- $a + b \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$
- $a - b \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$
- $ab \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$

Exponentiation and division are a bit more complex. 

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Fermat's Little Theorem

Let  $p$  be a prime.

1. If  $a$  is an integer, then  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .
2. If  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Proof:

- Consider the numbers  $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$ . None of these are divisible by  $p$ .
- Furthermore, we can claim no two are congruent mod  $p$ .
  - Suppose the contrary: that  $ra = sa \pmod{p}$ .
  - Then  $(r-s)a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , but neither factor is a multiple of  $p$  (as established earlier), and therefore this is impossible.
- Thus  $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, p-1 \pmod{p} = 1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1 \pmod{p}$  in some scrambled order.)
  - $a^{p-1}(p-1)! \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}$
  - $(a^{p-1} - 1)(p-1)! \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$
  - Therefore,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

## 2 | Totient functions

Let  $n$  be a positive integer. The totient of  $n$ , denoted  $\phi(n)$  (or  $\Phi(n)$ ), is the number of positive integers  $a \leq n$  such that  $a$  and  $n$  are relatively prime (share no common factors other than 1).

Suppose the prime factorization of  $n$  is  $n = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$ , where each  $p_i$  is a distinct prime and each  $e_i \geq 1$ . Then,  $\phi(n) = n(1 - \frac{1}{p_1})(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \cdots (1 - \frac{1}{p_r}) = (p_1^{e_1} - p_1^{e_1-1})(p_2^{e_2} - p_2^{e_2-1}) \cdots (p_r^{e_r} - p_r^{e_r-1})$ .

## 2.1 | Euler's Totient Theorem

If  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$  then  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

## 3 | Primitive Roots

If  $p$  is prime, then there is some integer  $g$ , depending on  $p$ , such that  $g, g^2, g^3, \dots, g^{p-1}$  are all distinct modulo  $p$ . Such an integer  $g$  is known as a primitive root.

## 4 | Euclidean Algorithm

$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a, b - a)$  If  $d$  is any factor of  $a, b$ , say  $a = kd$  and  $b = ld$ , then  $b - a = (l - k)d$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\gcd(301, 161) &= \gcd(161, 140) \\ &= \gcd(140, 21) \\ &= \gcd(21, 14) \\ &= \gcd(14, 7) \\ &= \gcd(7, 0) \\ &= 7\end{aligned}$$

**Bézout's Lemma** If  $a, b$  are integers, then  $\gcd(a, b)$  is the smallest positive integer  $d$  such that there exist integers  $x, y$  with  $ax + by = d$ .

## 5 | Diffie-Hellman Key Exchange

Alice and Bob select a prime  $p$  and a primitive root  $g \pmod{p}$ . Alice picks a random number  $a$ , and Bob a random number  $b$ .

Alice computes  $A = g^a \pmod{p}$  and sends it to Bob. Bob computes  $B = g^b \pmod{p}$  and sends it to Alice.

Alice computes  $k_1 = B^a \pmod{p}$  and Bob computes  $k_2 = A^b \pmod{p}$ .  $k_1 = k_2$ , so this is a shared piece of information between Alice and Bob.

**Discrete Logarithm Problem** Given a prime  $p$ , a primitive root  $g$ , and a nonzero residue class  $x \pmod{p}$ , find a number  $a$  s.t.  $g^a = x \pmod{p}$ .