

Last class:  $(x+y)^p \equiv x^p + y^p \pmod{p}$  only if  $p$  is prime.

Theorem. Fermat's Little Theorem.

If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p$  prime then  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$ .

Further, if  $n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  then  $n^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

Proof.

First, prove 'further...'.  
If  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$  and  $n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  then  $\gcd(n, p) = 1$ .

So  $[n]$  invertible in  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ .

So there exists  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $nm \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

Then,

$$n^p m \equiv nm \pmod{p}$$

$$n^{p-1} nm \equiv 1$$

$$n^{p-1} \equiv 1$$

Note:  $p \geq 2$  so  $p-1 \geq 1$

Next, prove  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$  by induction on  $n$  for  $n \geq 0$ .

(i) For  $n=0$ ,  $0^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

(ii) Let  $n \geq 0$ . Assume  $n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$ .

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} (n+1)^p &\equiv n^p + 1^p \pmod{p} \quad (\text{by lemma}) \\ &\equiv n+1 \quad (n^p \equiv n \text{ by IA}). \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

Exercise. ◉

Complete proof by induction for  $n < 0$ . ( $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , must prove both)

Hint:  $n = -m$ ,  $m > 0$ . Use previous case.

### Application: Computing Large Powers mod p

ex. Compute  $25^{134} \pmod{11}$ .

11 prime, so  $x^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$ ,  $x \neq 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } 25^{134} &\equiv 3^{134} \quad (25 = 2 \cdot 11 + 3) \\ &\equiv (3^{10})^{13} 3^4 \\ &\equiv 1^{13} 3^4 \quad \text{by Fermat} \\ &\equiv 9^2 \quad (3^4 = (3^2)^2 = 9^2) \\ &\equiv (-2)^2 \quad (-2 = -1 \cdot 11 + 9) \\ &\equiv 4 \pmod{11} \end{aligned}$$

ex. Compute  $25^{134} \pmod{14}$ .

14 not prime. Can't use Fermat. Use **repeated squaring**.

First,  $25 \equiv -3$  (since  $25 \equiv 11$  and  $-3 = -1 \cdot 14 + 11$ )

$$(-3)^2 \equiv 9 \equiv -5$$

$$(-3)^4 \equiv ((-3)^2)^2 \equiv 9^2 \equiv (-5)^2 \equiv 25 \equiv -3$$

$$(-3)^8 \equiv ((-3)^4)^2 \equiv (-3)^2 \equiv -5$$

$$(-3)^{16} \equiv -3$$

$$(-3)^{32} \equiv -5$$

$$(-3)^{64} \equiv -3$$

$$(-3)^{128} \equiv -5$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } 25^{134} &\equiv (-3)^{128+4+2} \\ &\equiv (-3)^{128} (-3)^4 (-3)^2 \equiv (-5)(-3)(-5) \equiv (-3)^2 \equiv 9 \pmod{14}. \end{aligned}$$

## application: Fermat's Primality Test

Given  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , how to check if  $n$  is prime?

Simple test: Compute  $n/k$ ,  $k = 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots$

If get remainder 0, then  $k|n$  so  $n$  is not prime.

If all remainders  $\neq 0$ ,  $n$  prime.

You only need to check up to  $k = \lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor$  since  $n = ab$  then  $a \leq \sqrt{n}$  or  $b \leq \sqrt{n}$ . Very inefficient.

### Fermat's (Non-)Primality Test

Idea: If  $n$  prime, then  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  (for  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ ).

Hence if  $a^{n-1} \neq 1$ ,  $n$  is not prime.

Algorithm:

- (1) Choose at random  $2 \leq a < n$  (so  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{n}$ ).
- (2) Compute  $a^{n-1} \pmod{n}$ . Use repeated squaring.
- (3) If  $a^{n-1} \neq 1$ ,  $n$  not prime.
- (4) If  $a^{n-1} \equiv 1$ ,  $n$  might be prime.
- (5) If (4), repeat test.

If repeat with "n might be prime" many times,  $n$  has high probability of being prime.

ex. Test  $n=9$ . Choose  $a=2$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Compute } 2^8 &\equiv 4^4 \equiv 16^2 \pmod{9} \\ &\equiv (-2)^2 \equiv 4 \not\equiv 1 \end{aligned}$$

So 9 not prime.

ex. Test  $n=11$

$$a=2 : 2^{10} \equiv 4^5 \equiv (4^2)^5 \equiv 16^5 \equiv 5^2 \cdot 4 \equiv 100 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

$$a=3 : 3^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

So 11 (might be) prime.

ex. Try  $n=341$ . ( $341 = 11 \cdot 31$ )

$$a=2 : 2^{340} \equiv \dots \equiv 1 \pmod{341}$$

$$a=3 : 3^{340} \equiv 1$$

$$a=8 : 8^{340} \equiv 1$$

341 is called a Fermat pseudo-prime to bases 2, 3, 8.

## Cryptography & RSA

Problem.

Ann and Bert want to communicate over a public channel, such that if the messages are intercepted, they cannot be understood.

Define a message  $M$  as a binary string.

## Vernam One-Time Pad

- (1) Ann and Bert meet in person and generate a long sequence  $P$  of random bits.
- (2) Ann, Bert separate. Each take copy of  $P$ .
- (3) Bert wants to send message to Ann.  
Say  $M = 01101$ .

Bert looks up first 5 bits of  $P$ , add to  $M \bmod 2$ . Bitwise, no carries. Say  $P = 11010$ .

$$m = 01101$$

$$P = \underline{11010}$$

$$\bar{M} = \underline{10111} \leftarrow \text{encrypted message.}$$

Bert sends  $\bar{M}$  to Ann.

- (4) Ann receives  $\bar{M}$ . To decode, take first 5 bits of  $P$  and add.

$$\bar{M} = \underline{10111}$$

$$P = \underline{11010}$$

$$m = \underline{01101}$$

Ann will obtain  $M$  since  $P$  is added twice to  $M$ .

$$\bar{M} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} M = 01101 \\ P = \underline{11010} \\ P = \underline{11010} \\ m = \underline{01101} \end{array} \right\} P + P = 00000$$

- (5) To reply, Ann uses next bits in  $P$ . Bert uses some bits to decode.

Comments:

- (1) Perfectly secure if  $P$  not obtained.
- (2) NOT secure if you reuse any bits of  $P$ .
- (3) Once you run out of bits of  $P$ , need to meet again for new  $P$ .

## RSA Scheme

- (1) Ann creates two large primes  $p, q$  (100 or more digits).  
(How? Create a number of 100 digits at random; run a primality test. If not prime, repeat. For numbers of 100 digits, probability of being prime  $\approx 10\%$ ).

Then, find  $k$  (public key) such that  $\gcd(k, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ .

(How? Choose  $k$  at random, find  $\gcd$  via Euclid. If not 1, try again).

Find  $[k]^{-1} = [s]$  in  $\mathbb{Z}/(p-1)\mathbb{Z}$ .

(again, by Euclid).  $s$  called secret key.

- (2) Let  $n = pq$ . Ann makes  $n, k$  publicly known (wants to receive messages from anybody).

- (3) Bert wants to send message  $M$  (binary string). Think of  $m$  as an integer. (Restriction:  $m < n$ ).

Compute  $\bar{m} = m^k \pmod{n}$ , i.e.  $0 \leq \bar{m} < n$ .

Sends  $\bar{m}$  to Ann.

- (4) Ann receives  $\bar{m}$ . To decipher, compute  $\bar{m}^s \pmod{n}$ . This will be  $m$ .