

Handout A

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1 Basic Divisibility

We denote a set of integers with \mathbb{Z} . If $a, b, q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$, the Euclidean division Theorem states that:

$$a = q \cdot b + r \text{ so that } 0 \leq r < b. \quad (1)$$

In this case, we write $a = r \bmod q$.

For $a, b, q \in \mathbb{Z}$, we say a *divides* b and write $a|b$ if there exists integer q so that $a \cdot q = b$. If $a, b, c, X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $a|b$ and $a|c$, then $a|(Xb + Yc)$ for any X, Y . If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a|b$ so that $a \neq 1$ and $a \neq b$, then a is called a *non-trivial factor* of b .

Prime numbers: An integer $p > 1$ is called a *prime number* if it does not have non-trivial factors. Note, the first prime number is 2.

Modular arithmetic: If $a, b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ we say that a, b are *congruent modulo* N if the remainder $(a \bmod N)$ equals the remainder $(b \bmod N)$. That is, a, b are congruent modulo N when:

$$a = q_a \cdot N + r, \quad b = q_b \cdot N + r. \quad (2)$$

If a is congruent to b modulo N , we write $a \equiv b \bmod N$.

Multiplicative inverse mod N : If $b, N \in \mathbb{Z}$, we define the multiplicative inverse of b the value b^{-1} so that $b \cdot b^{-1} = 1 \bmod N$.

2 The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

The fundamental theorem of arithmetic states that every integer greater than 1 can be expressed in *exactly one way* (apart from rearrangement) as a *product of one or more primes*. This is also known as the *unique factorization theorem*.

Greatest Common Divisor (GCD): If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$ but not both $a, b = 0$ at the same time, then $GCD(a, b)$ equals the largest integer c so that $c|a$ and $c|b$.

Remarks: If p is prime, $GCD(a, p)$ equals either 1 or p . If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $GCD(a, b) = 1$, then a, b are *relatively prime* (or co-prime or mutually prime). If $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $GCD(a, b) = 1$ and $a|c$ as well as $b|c$, then $ab|c$. If $a, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $N > 1$, then a has a *modular multiplicative inverse* if and only if $GCD(a, N) = 1$. The *GCD* can be efficiently computed using the *Euclidean Algorithm*.

Extended Euclidean Algorithm: If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a, b > 0$, then there exist $X, Y \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $GCD(a, b) = X \cdot a + Y \cdot b$. The value of X, Y and $GCD(a, b)$ can be efficiently computed using the *Extended Euclidean Algorithm*.

3 Basic Group Theory

A *Group* \mathbb{G} is a set of numbers along with a mathematical operation \diamond that has the following properties:

1. *Closure*: For any a, b in the group, then $a \diamond b$ is also in the group.
2. *Associativity*: For any a, b, c in the group, then $(a \diamond b) \diamond c = a \diamond (b \diamond c)$.
3. *Existence of unique identity*: The group has a unique element e so that $e \diamond a = a \diamond e = a$ for any a in the group.
4. *Existence of inverse for each element*: For any a in the group, there is always a unique element b in the group so that $a \diamond b = e$.

A Group \mathbb{G} is called an *Abelian* group if it also *commutative*, so that $a \diamond b = b \diamond a$. When the group operation is *additive* then \diamond resembles addition (+), while when the group operation is *multiplicative* then \diamond resembles multiplication (\cdot). In a multiplicative group, we can write $g^b = g \cdot g \cdot \dots \cdot g$, to indicate that g is multiplied b times.

Example: The set of integers is an Abelian Group under addition. However, the set of integers is not a group under multiplication as many integers do not have a multiplicative inverse (such as integer 2).

Order of a group: The order of a Group \mathbb{G} , denoted as $|\mathbb{G}|$, is the number of its elements (i.e., its *cardinality*).

3.1 Finite Groups

If \mathbb{G} is group and $n = |G|$ is the order of the group, we say that \mathbb{G} is a *finite group* if it contains a finite number of elements. In this case, for any element $g \in \mathbb{G}$, we have $g^n = 1$.

If \mathbb{G} is a finite group and $n = |G| > 1$ is the order of the group, then for any element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ and integer i , we have $g^i = g^{i \bmod n}$.

The Group \mathbb{Z}_N : If $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $N > 1$, then we define as \mathbb{Z}_N the *additive* Abelian group of order N , comprising the integers $\{0, 1, \dots, N-1\}$. The group operation is *addition modulo* N .

The Group \mathbb{Z}_N^* : If $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $N > 1$, then \mathbb{Z}_N^* is an Abelian group under *multiplication modulo* N and it is defined as:

$$\mathbb{Z}_N^* = \{a, \text{ so that } 0 < a < N \text{ and } GCD(a, N) = 1\} \quad (3)$$

That is, \mathbb{Z}_N^* is the group of integers less than N that *are invertible with respect to multiplication*. Invertibility is guaranteed for an integer a if and only if $GCD(a, N) = 1$. Note, not every integer less than N is invertible. In \mathbb{Z}_N^* the identity element is integer 1.

Euler's totient function $\varphi()$: Every integer N is either prime or can be factorized to a set of primes and prime powers. If $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ then N is factorized as:

$$N = \prod_i p_i^{e_i}, \quad (4)$$

where p_i are distinct prime numbers raised to power $e_i > 0$, and \prod_i denotes multiplication of i prime powers. Then, in the general case where we have prime powers (i.e., $e_i > 1$ for some i), Euler's totient function of N is denoted as $\varphi(N)$ and equals:

$$\varphi(N) = \prod_i p_i^{e_i-1} \cdot (p_i - 1). \quad (5)$$

If we do not have prime powers in the factorization of N (i.e., when $e_i = 1$ for every prime p_i), then $\varphi(N)$ equals:

$$\varphi(N) = \prod_i (p_i - 1). \quad (6)$$

Example: If $N = 15 = 3 \cdot 5$ then $\varphi(N) = (3 - 1) \cdot (5 - 1) = 8$. Also, if p is a prime, $\varphi(p) = p - 1$.

The order of \mathbb{Z}_N^* : The order of the group \mathbb{Z}_N^* is $|\mathbb{Z}_N^*| = \varphi(N)$.

3.2 Euler's Theorem

For any $N > 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$ it holds that:

$$a^{\varphi(N)} = 1 \pmod{N} \quad (\text{Euler's Theorem}). \quad (7)$$

Note, since $a \in \mathbb{Z}_N^*$, then a, N must be coprime (i.e., $\text{GCD}(a, N) = 1$).

Fermat's Little Theorem: If p is a prime integer and $a > 0 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ then it holds that:

$$a^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}. \quad (8)$$

4 Cyclic Groups

If \mathbb{G} is a finite group of order $m = |\mathbb{G}|$ and $g \in \mathbb{G}$ then $g^m = 1$. That is, any element of \mathbb{G} multiplied m times, where m is the order of the group, equals 1.

If $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $0 < i \leq m$, and if i is the smallest integer so that $g^i = 1$, then g can generate exactly i elements of \mathbb{G} (i.e., g defines a subgroup of \mathbb{G}). The integer i is called *the order of group element g* . Specifically, if \mathbb{G} is a finite group and $g \in \mathbb{G}$ is a group element, the *order of g* is the smallest integer $i > 0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $g^i = 1$. Note, the order of the group element g is not necessarily the same as the order of the group \mathbb{G} .

If \mathbb{G} is a finite group of order $m = |\mathbb{G}|$, and $g \in \mathbb{G}$ has order i , then $i|m$.

Group Generators: If \mathbb{G} is a finite group and there exists an element $g \in \mathbb{G}$ so that the order of g equals $m = |\mathbb{G}|$ (i.e., the order of g equals the order of \mathbb{G}), then \mathbb{G} is a *cyclic group* and g is a *generator* of \mathbb{G} . Specifically, the set of all possible values g^a for $a \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$ is exactly the set of all m elements of \mathbb{G} .

If \mathbb{G} is a *cyclic group* with order $m = |\mathbb{G}|$ then for each integer $d > 0$ that divides m there is exactly one subgroup of \mathbb{G} of order d that has exactly $\varphi(d)$ different generators; each generator of the subgroup has order d .

If the order of \mathbb{G} is a prime number p , then \mathbb{G} is a *cyclic group*. In this case, every element of \mathbb{G} , except its identity element e , is a generator of \mathbb{G} .

If p is a prime number, then the group \mathbb{Z}_p^* is cyclic. In this case, the order of the group is $|\mathbb{Z}_p^*| = p - 1$.