

Key Terms

one to one

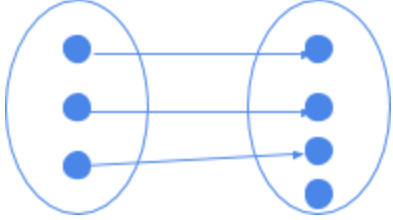
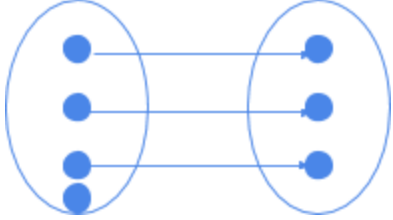
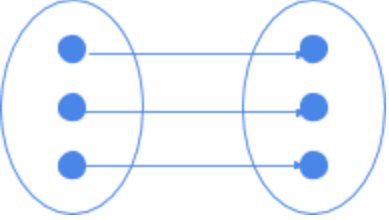
onto

bijection

Fermat's Little Theorem

Secret Sharing

I. Bijections

		
One to one AND NOT onto	Onto AND NOT one to one	One to one AND onto (bijection)

Describe a function that is injective but not surjective. How about a function that is surjective but not injective?

$e^x: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is injective (one to one) but not surjective (onto) because while all real numbers map to something, nothing will map to 0 and negative numbers.

$x^2: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is surjective (onto) but not injective (one to one) because while all positive real numbers have something mapping to them, 4 has -2 and 2 mapping to it.

Note 1: \mathbb{Z}_n denotes the integers mod n : $\{0, \dots, n-1\}$

Note 2: in the following questions, the appropriate modulus is taken after applying the function

Are the following functions bijections from \mathbb{Z}_{12} to \mathbb{Z}_{12} ?

$f(x) = 7x$ Yes: the mapping works

$$f(x) = 3x \quad \text{No: } f(0) = f(4) = 0$$

$$f(x) = x - 6 \quad \text{Yes: can see it's just } f(x) = x, \text{ shifted by } 6$$

Are the following functions are injections from \mathbb{Z}_{12} to \mathbb{Z}_{24} ?

$$f(x) = 2x \quad \text{Yes: any two } x_1 \text{ and } x_2 \text{ will not equal each other as long as } x_1 \neq x_2$$

$$f(x) = 6x \quad \text{No: } 0 \text{ and } 4 \text{ both map to } 0$$

$$f(x) = 2x + 4 \quad \text{Yes: same as } 2x, \text{ except shifted}$$

Which of the following functions are surjections from \mathbb{Z}_{12} to \mathbb{Z}_6 ?

$$f(x) = \lfloor x/2 \rfloor \quad \text{Yes: plug in every even number } 0$$

$$f(x) = x \quad \text{Yes: plug in } 0 \text{ through } 5$$

$$f(x) = \lfloor x/4 \rfloor \quad \text{No: the largest value we can get is } f(12) \text{ which equals } 3$$

Why can we not have a surjection from \mathbb{Z}_{12} to \mathbb{Z}_{24} or an injection from \mathbb{Z}_{12} to \mathbb{Z}_6 ?

Because there are more values in \mathbb{Z}_{24} than \mathbb{Z}_{12} , it is impossible for the values in \mathbb{Z}_{12} to map to every value in \mathbb{Z}_{24} . Similarly, because there are more values in \mathbb{Z}_{12} than \mathbb{Z}_6 , we cannot have all values map to unique values.

II. FLT

Fermat's Little Theorem: For any prime p and any $a \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$, we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Proof from notes:

Claim: The function $ax \pmod{p}$ is a bijection where $x \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$

The domain and range of the function are the same set, so it is enough to show that if $x \neq x'$ then $ax \pmod{p} \neq ax' \pmod{p}$.

Assume that $ax \pmod{p} \equiv ax' \pmod{p}$.

Since $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, a must have an inverse: $a^{-1} \pmod{p}$

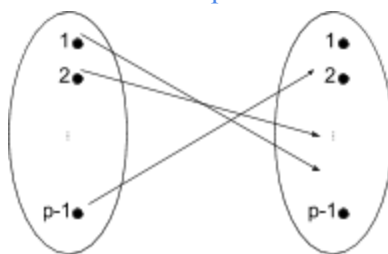
$$ax \pmod{p} \equiv ax' \pmod{p}$$

$$a^{-1}ax \pmod{p} \equiv a^{-1}ax' \pmod{p}$$

$$x \pmod{p} \equiv x' \pmod{p}$$

This contradicts our assumption that $x \neq x' \pmod{p}$. Therefore f is a bijection.

We want to use the above claim to show that $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p$. Note that now we have the following picture:



So if we multiply all elements in the domain together this should equal the product of all the elements in the image:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 * 2 * \dots * (p-1) &\equiv (1a) * (2a) * \dots * ((p-1)a) \pmod p \\ (p-1)! &\equiv a^{p-1} * (p-1)! \pmod p \\ 1 &\equiv a^{p-1} \pmod p \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Exercises:

- 1) Find $3^{5000} \pmod{11}$

$$(3^{10})^{500} \pmod{11} = 1^{500} \pmod{11} = 1$$

- 2) Find $2^{20} + 3^{30} + 4^{40} + 5^{50} + 6^{60} \pmod{7}$

By FLT:

$$2^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$3^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$4^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$5^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$6^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Apply the above facts to simplify each portion of the equation:

$$2^{20} = 2^2 * (2^6)^3 \rightarrow 2^{20} \pmod{7} \equiv 2^2 \pmod{7} \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$3^{30} = (3^6)^5 \rightarrow 3^{30} \pmod{7} \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$4^{40} = 4^4 * (4^6)^6 \rightarrow 4^{40} \pmod{7} \equiv 4^4 \pmod{7} \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$5^{50} = 5^2 * (5^6)^8 \rightarrow 5^{50} \pmod{7} \equiv 5^2 \pmod{7} \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$6^{60} = (6^6)^{10} \rightarrow 6^{60} \pmod{7} \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$2^{20} + 3^{30} + 4^{40} + 5^{50} + 6^{60} \pmod{7} \equiv 4 + 1 + 4 + 4 + 1 \pmod{7}$$

$$\equiv 14 \pmod{7} \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$$

- 3) Show that $n^7 - n$ is divisible by 42 for any integer n

$42 = 7 * 3 * 2 \leftarrow$ these factors are prime so let's apply FLT!!

$$n^7 \equiv n \pmod{7}$$

$$n^3 \equiv n \pmod{3}$$

$$n^2 \equiv n \pmod{2}$$

We're interested in n^7 so let's modify the bottom two equations to write n^7 in mod 3 and mod 2

$$n^7 \equiv n^3 * n^3 * n \equiv n * n * n \equiv n^3 \equiv n \pmod{3}$$

$$n^7 \equiv n \pmod{3}$$

$$n^7 \equiv n^2 * n^2 * n^2 * n \equiv n * n * n * n \equiv n^2 * n^2 \equiv n * n \equiv n^2 \equiv n \pmod{2}$$

$$n^7 \equiv n \pmod{2}$$

$$n^7 \equiv n \pmod{7}$$

$$n^7 \equiv n \pmod{3}$$

$$n^7 \equiv n \pmod{2}$$

Wouldn't it be great if the above equations implied that $n^7 \equiv n \pmod{7 * 3 * 2}$?

Let's try to prove that

Claim: If

$$x \equiv y \pmod{a_1}$$

$$x \equiv y \pmod{a_2}$$

...

$$x \equiv y \pmod{a_n}$$

are true and a_1, \dots, a_n are coprime then $x \equiv y \pmod{a_1 a_2 \dots a_n}$

$$x \equiv y \pmod{a_i} \Rightarrow x = y + c_i a_i \text{ for some constant } c_i$$

$$x = y + c_1 a_1$$

$$x = y + c_2 a_2$$

...

$$x = y + c_n a_n$$

But this implies that $x = c * \text{lcm}(a_1, \dots, a_n) + y$

Since a_1, \dots, a_n are coprime, $\text{lcm}(a_1, \dots, a_n) = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$

So we get $x = c * a_1 a_2 \dots a_n + y$

Therefore $x \equiv y \pmod{a_1 a_2 \dots a_n}$

We can now say that $n^7 \equiv n \pmod{7*3*2} \equiv n \pmod{42}$.

III. CRT

Find an integer x such that x is congruent to 3 mod 4 and 5 mod 9.

One way is to find a number that is 1 mod 4 and 0 mod 9. To do that, we need to have $9x = 1 \pmod{4}$, which works when $x = 1$, so the number is 9. We do the same with 0 mod 4 and 1 mod 9, so $4x = 1 \pmod{9}$. This yields $x = 7$, or 28. Our answer is then $3 * 9 + 5 * 28 \pmod{36}$.

Prove the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Find x such that:

$$x = 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$x = 3 \pmod{7}$$

Chinese Remainder Theorem tells us that there is always a unique solution up to a certain modulus.

Theorem: Let p and q be coprime. Then the following system of equations has a unique solution for x modulo pq

$$x = a \pmod{p} \quad (1)$$

$$x = b \pmod{q} \quad (2)$$

Proof:

Let $p_1 = p^{-1} \pmod{q}$ and $q_1 = q^{-1} \pmod{p}$

We know that such p_1 and q_1 exist since p and q are coprime.

Let $y = aqq_1 + bpp_1 \pmod{pq}$.

If such a y exists then it satisfies equations (1) and (2).

$$y \pmod{p} = aqq_1 + bpp_1 \pmod{p} = aqq_1 \pmod{p} = a \pmod{p}$$

$$y \pmod{q} = aqq_1 + bpp_1 \pmod{q} = bpp_1 \pmod{q} = b \pmod{q}$$

Therefore y is a valid solution for x .

Now we must show that no other solutions exist for equations (1) and (2)

If $z = a \pmod{p}$ then $z - y$ is a multiple of p .

If $z = b \pmod{q}$ then $z - y$ is also a multiple of q .

p and q are coprime so $z - y$ is a multiple of pq and $z = y \pmod{pq}$.

Exercises

1) How many eggs?

The supermarket has a lot of eggs, but the manager is not sure exactly how many he has. When he splits the eggs into groups of 5, there are exactly 3 left. When he splits the eggs into groups of 11, there are 6 left. What is the minimum number of eggs at the supermarket?

$$y_1 = 1 \pmod{5}, \quad y_2 = 0 \pmod{5}$$

$$y_1 = 0 \pmod{11}, \quad y_2 = 1 \pmod{11}$$

$$y_1 = 11p' \pmod{55}, \quad y_2 = 5q' \pmod{55}$$

$$p' = 11^{-1} \pmod{5}, \quad y_2 = 5^{-1} \pmod{11}$$

$$p' = 1 \pmod{5}, \quad y_2 = 9 \pmod{11}$$

$$x = 3 * 1 + 9 * 11 = 102 \pmod{55}$$

IV. Polynomials

Fundamental properties of polynomials:

Property 1: A non-zero polynomial of degree d has at most d roots

Property 2: Given $d + 1$ pairs $(x_1, y_1) \dots (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$ where all x 's are distinct there is a unique polynomial $p(x)$ of degree at most d such that $p(x_i) = y_i$ for i between 1 and $d + 1$

How many points does it take to uniquely determine a line? 2

Lagrange Interpolation:

We want to build a polynomial that passes through some given points.

Say we are given points $(x_1, y_1) \dots (x_{d+1}, y_{d+1})$ and want to find a degree d polynomial that goes through those points.

$$\Delta_1 = y_1 * \frac{(x - x_2) \dots (x - x_{d+1})}{(x_1 - x_2) \dots (x_1 - x_{d+1})}, \dots, \quad \Delta_{d+1} = y_{d+1} * \frac{(x - x_1) \dots (x - x_d)}{(x_{d+1} - x_1) \dots (x_{d+1} - x_d)}$$

So the polynomial we are looking for must be the sum of the above delta's.

Let's do a simple example: What degree 1 polynomial goes through (1, 2) and (4, 10)? Just write out the deltas:

$$\Delta_1 = 2 * (x - 4) / (1 - 4)$$

$$\Delta_2 = 10 * (x - 1) / (4 - 1)$$

Prove that the polynomial produced by Lagrange interpolation of $d+1$ points is the unique degree d polynomial through those points.

Assume that p is the polynomial produced by Lagrange interpolation and q is another polynomial that goes through the same points. We have that $p(x_i) = q(x_i) = y_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq d+1$. Then $r(x) = p(x) - q(x)$ is a polynomial of at most degree d with $d+1$ roots. This contradicts Property 1, so our assumption must have been incorrect and $q(x)$ cannot exist.

How Many Polynomials?

What is a Galois Field? [numbers modulo a prime](#)

If you are working in $GF(m)$ where m is a prime, how many polynomials of at most degree 3 are there?

There are two ways to uniquely define a polynomial:

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 \text{ OR } p(x) = (x - a_0)(x - a_1)(x - a_2)(x - a_3) = 0$$

a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3 can take on any of the m values in $GF(m)$. So there are m^4 polynomials.

Now suppose you are given three out of the four points. How many degree 3 polynomials go through these three points?

How many options are there for the fourth point? m

Secret Sharing

Scheme Conditions:

- (1) Any group of k officials can pool their information to figure out the secret
- (2) No group of $k-1$ or fewer officials have any information about the secret

If you have a group of n officials, choose a polynomial $P(x)$ of degree $k-1$ such that $P(0) = s$ and give out $P(1), \dots, P(n)$ to the officials.

Exercises

- 1) How many different polynomials of degree d over $GF(p)$ are there if we know k values, where $k \leq d$?

p^{d+1-k} . We need $d+1$ points to make the polynomial, and if we know 0 points, then every point can be anything in the span of p . As soon as we start finding more points, the amount of non-fixed points becomes less and less, until $k = d+1$, where we are left with one polynomial.

- 2) Your points are $(2, 5), (1, 6), (4, 0)$. First, set up a linear equation that you could solve in order to find the unique _____ degree polynomial which goes through these points. After, solve and find the polynomial that passes through the points. $GF(7)$

$$\Delta_2 = (x-1)(x-4) / (2-1)(2-4) = x^2 - 5x + 4 / (1)(-2) = 3(x^2 - 5x + 4) = 3x^2 + 6x + 5$$

$$\Delta_1 = (x-4)(x-2) / (1-4)(1-2) = x^2 - 6x + 8 / (-3)(-1) = 5(x^2 - 6x + 8) = 5x^2 + 5x + 5$$

$$\Delta_4 = (x-2)(x-1) / (4-2)(4-1) = x^2 - 3x + 2 / (2)(3) = 6(x^2 - 3x + 2) = 6x^2 + 6x + 4$$

$$5\Delta_2 + 6\Delta_1 + 0\Delta_4 = 4(3x^2 + 4x + 1) + (3x^2 + 3x) + 2(4x^2 + 3x)$$

- 3) Secret sharing is a crucial application of Polynomials. We have 20 TAs and 35 readers, and we want to share a secret among them such that either 2 or more TAs, at least 1 TA and at least 3 readers, or at least 6 readers can reconstruct the secret. Describe such a scheme.

A TA is essentially 3 readers, so if we make a polynomial of degree 5 such that $P(0)$ is the secret, each reader gets one point while each TA gets 3 points.