

Notes on Problem Set 4

3. Stinson, problem 6.17, p.250

We're given

$$y_1 = x^{b_1} \bmod n \quad (1)$$

$$y_2 = x^{b_2} \bmod n \quad (2)$$

$$c_1 = b_1^{-1} \bmod b_2 \quad (3)$$

$$c_2 = (c_1 b_1 - 1)/b_2 \quad (4)$$

$$x_1 = y_1^{c_1} (y_2^{c_2})^{-1} \bmod n \quad (5)$$

The fourth equation tells us that

$$c_1 b_1 - c_2 b_2 = 1$$

Now plug the definitions of y_1 and y_2 into (5), which gives us

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= x^{b_1 c_1} (x^{b_2 c_2})^{-1} \bmod n \\ &= x^{b_1 c_1 - b_2 c_2} \bmod n \\ &= x^1 \bmod n \\ &= x. \end{aligned}$$

[**Note:** Since

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 &= b_1^{-1} \bmod b_2 \\ y_1 &= x^{b_1} \bmod n, \end{aligned}$$

it is very tempting to conclude that

$$y_1^{c_1} \equiv (x^{b_1})^{b_1^{-1} \bmod b_2} \equiv x^1 \equiv x \pmod{n}.$$

However, the exponent for the second term here is $b_1 \cdot (b_1^{-1} \bmod b_2)$; and this is not the same as $(b_1 \cdot b_1^{-1}) \bmod b_2$. For example, $2^{-1} \bmod 5 = 3$. Therefore,

$$2 \cdot (2^{-1} \bmod 5) = 2 \cdot 3 = 6.$$

It would be OK if the exponent looked like this: $(b_1 \cdot (b_1^{-1} \bmod b_2)) \bmod b_2$. But this isn't what we have.]

4. Recall our discussion of partial information on RSA. We defined the functions,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{parity}(x^e \bmod n) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \bmod n \text{ is even} \\ 1 & \text{if } x \bmod n \text{ is odd} \end{cases} \\ \text{half}(x^e \bmod n) &= \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \bmod n < n/2 \\ 1 & \text{if } x \bmod n > n/2 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Here e and n are the usual RSA public key parameters. x is an RSA plaintext message, which means that it's an integer less than n .

Prove the following:

$$\text{if } \text{half}(x^e \bmod n) = 1, \text{ then } \text{parity}((2x)^e \bmod n) = 1.$$

Proof

We're given that $\text{half}(x^e \bmod n) = 1$. By definition of half , $x \bmod n > n/2$. Combining this with the fact that $x < n$ gives us that $n < 2x < 2n$. Therefore, $2x \bmod n = 2x - n$. Since $2x$ is even and n is odd, it follows that $2x \bmod n$ is odd. And this means, by the definition of parity , that $\text{parity}((2x)^e \bmod n) = 1$.

6. Suppose that p is prime, $r > 0$, $a^r \equiv 1 \bmod p$, and $\gcd(r, p-1) = d$. Prove that $a^d \equiv 1 \bmod p$.

Proof Since $\gcd(r, p-1) = d$, there exist integers x and y such that $d = rx + (p-1)y$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} a^d &\equiv a^{rx+(p-1)y} \\ &\equiv a^{rx} a^{(p-1)y} \\ &\equiv a^{(p-1)y} \bmod p \quad (\text{since } a^r \equiv 1 \bmod p) \end{aligned}$$

We'd like now to apply the FLT to $a^{(p-1)y} \bmod p$. But in order to justify applying the FLT here, we have to establish that p does not divide a . This *almost* follows just from the assumption that $a^r \equiv 1 \bmod p$: we'd like to say that if p did divide a , then $a^r \bmod p$ would be 0. However, this isn't quite right, since if r were 0, then $a^r \equiv 1 \bmod p$ even if p does divide a . This is why we need the assumption that $r > 0$; this assumption, together with the assumption that $a^r \equiv 1 \bmod p$, does imply that p does not divide a .

Therefore, we can apply the FLT to the last line of the above calculation to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} a^d &\equiv a^{(p-1)y} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv 1 \pmod{p} \quad (\text{since } a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}, \text{ by the FLT}) \end{aligned}$$

7. Prove that if p is prime and $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, then

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \text{ or } x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

Proof By basic fact (i), $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ implies that

$$p \mid (x^2 - 1).$$

In other words,

$$p \mid (x - 1)(x + 1).$$

Therefore, it follows by Theorem 2.2 in the number theory notes that $p \mid (x - 1)$ or $p \mid (x + 1)$ (if a prime divides a product, it must divide one of the terms in that product). In the first case, it follows from basic fact (i) that

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{p};$$

in the second case, it follows from basic fact (i) that

$$x \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

8. Prove that if $x \equiv y \pmod{\phi(m)}$, then for any $a \in Z_m^*$, $a^x \equiv a^y \pmod{m}$.

Proof By basic fact (i),

$$\phi(m) \mid (x - y).$$

Therefore, for some k , $x = y + k \cdot \phi(m)$. So we have

$$\begin{aligned} a^x &\equiv a^{y+k \cdot \phi(m)} \\ &\equiv a^y \cdot a^{k \cdot \phi(m)} \\ &\equiv a^y \cdot 1 \quad \text{by Euler's Theorem} \\ &\equiv a^y \pmod{m} \end{aligned}$$