CSI 2101 Lecture Notes

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Definitions, Theorems, Lemmas, and Corollaries

Definition 4.1.1. Let a and b be two integers such that $a \neq 0$. We say that a divides b if there exists c such that b = ac. If a divides be we say a is a factor or divisor of b. We also can say b is a multiple of a.

Theorem 4.1.1. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$.

- 1. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (b+c)$
- 2. If $a \mid b$, then $a \mid bc$ for every integer
- 3. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$

Corollary 4.1.1. Let $a,b,c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, $a \mid (mb+nc)$ for all integers m and n

Theorem 4.1.2 (The Division Algorithm). Let $a, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ with d > 0. There exists a unique q and r such that

$$0 \le r \le d$$

and

$$a = dq + r$$

We write

$$q = a \ div \ d$$

$$r = a \mod a$$

Definition 4.1.2. Let $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$. We say a is congruent to b modulo m if $m \mid (a - b)$. We write $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

Theorem 4.1.3. Let $a,b,c,d,m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then

- 1. $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$
- 2. $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

Definition 5.1.1. A positive integer p is prime if it admits exactly two divisors.

Theorem 5.1.1 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic). All integers greater than 1 can be written as a product of prime numbers. This representation is unique if we write the prime numbers in non-decreasing order.

Theorem 5.1.2. Let n > 1 be an integer. If n is not prime, then n has a prime divisor p such that $p \le \sqrt{n}$.

Corollary 6.0.1. Let

$$a = p_1^{a_1} \cdot p_2^{a_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{a_k}$$
$$a = p_1^{b_1} \cdot p_2^{b_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{b_k}$$

Where p_i is prime, $a_i \ge 0$ and $b_i \ge 0$, $1 \le i \le k$. Then

$$gcd(a,b) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} \cdot p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{\min(a_k,b_k)}$$
$$lcm(a,b) = p_1^{\max(a_1,b_1)} \cdot p_2^{\max(a_2,b_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{\max(a_k,b_k)}$$
$$gcd(a,b) \cdot lcm(a,b) = ab$$

Lemma 6.0.1. Let a, b, q, r be integers such that

$$a = b \cdot q + r$$

Then

$$gcd(a,b) = gcd(b,r)$$

Definition 6.0.1 (Euclidean Algorithm).

$$x = a$$
$$y = b$$

while $y \neq 0$

$$r = x \mod y$$

$$x = y$$

$$y = r$$

return x

Theorem 6.0.1 (Bézout). Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ be positive integers. There exists $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$s \cdot a + t \cdot b = \gcd(a, b)$$

Lemma 6.0.1. Let $a,b,c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. If gcd(a,b) = 1 and $a \mid (bc)$, then $a \mid c$.

Lemma 8.0.1. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $a \neq 0$. If gcd(a, b) = 1, and $a \mid (bc)$, then $a \mid c$.

Theorem 8.0.1. Let $a, b, c, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $m \ge 2$. Assume $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and gcd(c, m) = 1. Then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Lemma 8.0.2. Let p be a prime number and $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $p \mid (a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot a_n)$, then there exists $1 \leq i \leq n$ such that $p \mid a_i$.

Theorem 8.0.2. Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$ and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$. The multiplicative inverse of a (mod n) exists if and only if gcd(a, m) = 1. When it exists, the inverse of a (mod n) is unique.

Logic and Proof Techniques

TBC.

Proof Examples

TBC.

Proof by Induction and More Examples

Intro to Number Theory

4.1 Divisibility

Definition 4.1.1. Let a and b be two integers such that $a \neq 0$. We say that a divides b if there exists c such that b = ac. If a divides be we say a is a factor or divisor of b. We also can say b is a multiple of a.

Theorem 4.1.1. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$.

- 1. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (b+c)$
- 2. If $a \mid b$, then $a \mid bc$ for every integer
- 3. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$

Proof. 1. We have to prove if $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (b+c)$ Let $a,b,c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. Assume that $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then for some $k,l \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$b = k \cdot a$$

$$c = l \cdot a$$

Thus, we have

$$b + c = k \cdot a + l \cdot a = a(k+l)$$

So
$$a \mid (b+c)$$

2. We have to prove if $a \mid b$, $a \mid bc$ for every c. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. Assume that $a \mid b$. Then for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$b = k \cdot a$$

Let $c \in \mathbb{Z}$, so

$$bc = k \cdot a \cdot c = a \cdot (kc)$$

Therefore, $a \mid bc$

3. We have to prove if $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. Assume $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$. Then we have for some $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$b = k \cdot a$$

$$c = l \cdot b$$

So,

$$c = l \cdot b = l \cdot (k \cdot a) = (lk)a$$

Therefore $a \mid c$

Corollary 4.1.1. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, $a \mid (mb + nc)$ for all integers m and n

Proof. Let $a, bc \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. Assume $a \mid b \mid a \mid c$. By the previous theorem (part 2), we have $a \mid mb$ and $a \mid nc$. Therefore, by the previous theorem (part 1), $a \mid (mb + nc)$

Theorem 4.1.2 (The Division Algorithm). Let $a, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ with d > 0. There exists a unique q and r such that

$$0 \leq r \leq d$$

and

$$a = dq + r$$

We write

$$q = a \ div \ d$$

$$r = a \mod a$$

Definition 4.1.2. Let $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$. We say a is congruent to b modulo m if $m \mid (a - b)$. We write $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

Example: Prove or disprove. We have $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

$$\iff m \mid (a - b) \qquad \text{(by definition)}$$

$$\iff a - b = km \qquad (k \in \mathbb{Z})$$

$$\iff b - a = -km$$

$$\iff m \mid (b - a)$$

$$\iff b \equiv a \pmod{b} \qquad \text{(by definition)}$$

Theorem 4.1.3. Let $a,b,c,d,m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then

1.
$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$$

2. $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

Proof. 1. We have to prove $a+c\equiv b+d \pmod m$. Since $a\equiv b$ and $c\equiv d$, we have

$$m \mid (a-b)$$

$$m \mid (c - c)$$

By theorem 4.1.1 (part 1), we have

$$m \mid ((a-b) + (c-d)$$

$$m \mid ((a+c) - (b+d))$$

Therefore,

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$$

2. We have to prove $ac \equiv cd \pmod{m}$

Since $a \equiv b$ and $c \equiv d$, we have $m \mid (a - b)$ and $m \mid (c - d)$. By Corollary 4.1.1, we have

$$m \mid (c(a-b) + b(c-d))$$

$$m \mid (ac - bc + bc - bd)$$

$$m \mid (ac - bd)$$

Therefore $ac \equiv bd$.

4.2 Arithmetic Modulo m

Let $m \geq 2$ be an integer and

$$\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1\}$$

We define

$$a +_m b = (a+b) \pmod{m}$$

$$a \cdot_m b = (a \cdot b) \pmod{m}$$

in \mathbb{Z}_m , this is arithmetic modulo m. TBC

Prime Numbers and GCD

5.1 Prime Numbers

Definition 5.1.1. A positive integer p is prime if it admits exactly two divisors.

Theorem 5.1.1 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic). All integers greater than 1 can be written as a product of prime numbers. This representation is unique if we write the prime numbers in non-decreasing order.

Proof. (Existence) By induction,

- Base Case: Take n = 2. We have 2 = 2, the product of 1 prime number.
- Induction Hypothesis: Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer. Suppose that all numbers $2, 3, 4, \ldots, k-1, k$ can be written as a product of primes.
- **Induction Step:** Consider k+1. If k+1 is prime, then we're done. If not, then $K+1=d\cdot e$ for integers 1< d< k+1 and 1< e< k+1 By the induction hypothesis, d and e can be written as products of prime. So $k+1=d\cdot e$ can be written as a product of primes.

(Uniqueness) to be seen later.

Theorem 5.1.2. Let n > 1 be an integer. If n is not prime, then n has a prime divisor p such that $p \le \sqrt{n}$.

Proof. Let n > 1, if n is not prime, then $n = a \cdot b$ for two integers 1 < a < n and 1 < b < n. We will show that $a \le \sqrt{n}$ or $b \le \sqrt{n}$ by contradiction. Assume $a > \sqrt{n}$ and $b > \sqrt{n}$. Then $n = a \cdot b > \sqrt{n} \cdot \sqrt{n} = n$. This is a contradiction so $a \le \sqrt{n}$.

Assume without loss of generality that $a \leq \sqrt{n}$. If a is prime, we're done. If not, then by the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, a is divisible by a prime number p

Theorem 5.1.3. There exists an infinite number of prime numbers.

Proof. By contradiction, suppose there exists a finite number of prime numbers, say k prime numbers, and we order them

$$p_1 < p_2 < p_3 < \dots < p_k$$

Consider the number

$$Q = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot p_k + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Since $Q > p_k$, then Q is not prime by our assumption. By Theorem 5.1.2, Q is divisible by a prime number. So $p_i \mid Q$ for some $1 \le i \le k$. We also have that

$$p_i \mid (p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot p_i \cdot \ldots \cdot p_k)$$

By Corollary 4.1.1, we get

$$p_i \mid (Q - p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot p_k)$$

 $p_i \mid 1$ Therefore $p_i = 1$, this is a contradiction since we assumed p_k is the largest prime but $Q > p_k$ is prime.

Euclidean Algoirthm and Bézout's Theorem

Corollary 6.0.1. Let

$$a = p_1^{a_1} \cdot p_2^{a_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{a_k}$$
$$a = p_1^{b_1} \cdot p_2^{b_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{b_k}$$

Where p_i is prime, $a_i \ge 0$ and $b_i \ge 0$, $1 \le i \le k$. Then

$$gcd(a,b) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} \cdot p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{\min(a_k,b_k)}$$
$$lcm(a,b) = p_1^{\max(a_1,b_1)} \cdot p_2^{\max(a_2,b_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_k^{\max(a_k,b_k)}$$
$$gcd(a,b) \cdot lcm(a,b) = ab$$

Example:

$$24 = 2^{3} \cdot 3$$
$$36 = 2^{2} \cdot 3^{2}$$
$$gcd(24, 36) = 2^{2} \cdot 3^{1} = 12$$
$$lcm(24, 36) = 2^{3} \cdot 3^{2} = 72$$
$$12 \cdot 72 = 864 = 24 \cdot 36$$

Lemma 6.0.1. Let a, b, q, r be integers such that

$$a = b \cdot q + r$$

Then

$$gcd(a,b) = gcd(b,r)$$

Proof. Let a, b, q, r be integers such that

$$a = bq + r$$

Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$. We will prove that

$$d \mid a \wedge d \mid b \iff d \mid b \wedge d \mid r$$

 (\Longrightarrow) Let $d\in\mathbb{Z}$. Assume $d\mid a$ and $d\mid b$. Then $d\mid (1\cdot a+(-q)\cdot b)$, by Corollary 4.1.1. Then $a=bq+r\implies r=a-bq$, so $d\mid (1\cdot a+(-q)\cdot b)\implies d\mid r$.

(\Leftarrow) Let $d \in \mathbb{Z}$. Assume $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$. Then $d \mid (q \cdot b + 1 \cdot r)$ by Corollary 4.1.1. Then $d \mid a$, therefore $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$

Example: $gcd(414,662), 662 = 1 \cdot 414 + 248$

$$662 = 1 \cdot 414 + 248$$

$$414 = 1 \cdot 248 + 166$$

$$248 = 1 \cdot 166 + 82$$

$$166 = 2 \cdot 82 + 2$$

$$82 = 41 \cdot 2 + 0$$

The last none-zero remainder of this sequence is the *gcd* of 414 and 662 by the previous lemma. (can someone find which lemma this is!)

Definition 6.0.1 (Euclidean Algorithm).

$$x = a$$

$$y = b$$

while $y \neq 0$

$$r = x \mod y$$

$$x = y$$

$$y = r$$

return x

This algorithm returns the gcd of a and b.

Example: gcd(465, 144)

$$465 = 3 \cdot 144 + 33$$

$$144 = 4 \cdot 33 + 12$$

$$33 = 2 \cdot 12 + 9$$

$$12 = 1 \cdot 9 + 3$$

$$9 = 3 \cdot 3 + 0$$

Therefore gcd(465, 144) = 3.

Note: When you show the trace of Euclid's algorithm, you must include the last line with a remainder of 0.

Theorem 6.0.1 (Bézout). Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ be positive integers. There exists $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$s \cdot a + t \cdot b = \gcd(a, b)$$

Proof. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$. Run Euclidian algorithm, and assume without loss of generality b < a.

$$\begin{aligned} a &= q \cdot b + r \\ r_0 &= q_1 \cdot r_1 + r_2 \\ r_1 &= q_2 \cdot r^2 + r_3 \\ r_2 &= q_3 \cdot r_3 + r_4 \\ &\vdots \\ r_{n-3} &= q_{n-2} \cdot r_{n-2} + r_{n-1} \\ r_{n-2} &= q_{n-1} \cdot r_{n-1} + r_n \\ r_{n-1} &= q_n \cdot r_n + 0 \end{aligned}$$

Then, we have

$$\begin{split} gcd(a,b) &= r_n \\ &= r_{n-2} - q_{n-1} \cdot r_{n-1} \\ &= r_{n-2} - q_{n-1}(r_{n-3} - q_{n-2}r_{n-2}) \\ &= r_{n-2} - q_{n-1}(r_{n-3} - q_{n-2}r_{n-2}) \\ &= -q_{n-1} \cdot + (1 + q_{n-2}q_{n-1}) \cdot r_{n-2} \\ &\vdots \\ &= s \cdot r_0 + t \cdot r_1 \\ &= s \cdot a + t \cdot tb \end{split}$$

So we read the trace of Euclid's algorithm backward while keeping gcd(a,b) on the same side of the equality.

TBC.

Lemma 6.0.2. Let $a,b,c \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. If gcd(a,b) = 1 and $a \mid (bc)$, then $a \mid c$.

Proof. Assume gcd(a,b)=1 and $a\mid (bc)$. By Bézout, there exist $s,t\in\mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$s \cdot a + t \cdot b = \gcd(a, b) = 1$$

$$s \cdot a \cdot c + t \cdot b \cdot c = c \tag{*}$$

Since $a \mid a$ and $a \mid (bc)$, we have

$$a \mid (s \cdot c \cdot a + t \cdot b \cdot c)$$

By Corollary 4.1.1. Then from (*), this means

 $a \mid c$

Applications of Bézout's Theorem

TBC.

GCD and Modulo n, Multiplicative Inverses in Modulo n

Lemma 8.0.1. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $a \neq 0$. If gcd(a, b) = 1, and $a \mid (bc)$, then $a \mid c$.

Proof. Seen last week.

Theorem 8.0.1. Let $a, b, c, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $m \ge 2$. Assume $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and gcd(c, m) = 1. Then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Proof. Let $a, b, c, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$. Assume $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and gcd(c, m) = 1.

$$\begin{array}{c} m \mid (ac-bc) & \text{(def of mod)} \\ m \mid (c(a-b)) & \\ m \mid (a-b) & \text{(by previous lemma)} \\ a \equiv b \pmod{m} & \text{(def of mod)} \end{array}$$

Lemma 8.0.2. Let p be a prime number and $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $p \mid (a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot a_n)$, then there exists $1 \leq i \leq n$ such that $p \mid a_i$.

Proof. By induction on n.

- Base Case: n = 1. Let p be a prime number, if $p \mid a_1$, then $p \mid a_1$
- Induction Hypothesis: Let $k \ge 1$ be an integer. Suppose that for all integers a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k

$$p \mid (a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_k) \implies \exists 1 \le i \le k \ s.t \ p \mid a_i$$

If $p \mid a_{k+1}$, then we're done. If not, then

$$gcd(p, a_{k+1}) = 1$$

So $p \mid (a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_k)$ by the previous lemma. By the induction hypthesis, ther exists $1 \leq i \leq k$ such that $p \mid a_i$.

Induction Step: Suppose

$$p \mid (a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_k \cdot a_{k+1})$$

Theorem 8.0.2. Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$ and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$. The multiplicative inverse of a $(mod\ n)$ exists if and only if gcd(a, m) = 1. When it exists, the inverse of a $(mod\ n)$ is unique.

Proof. Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 2$ and $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$

(\Longrightarrow): Assume the multiplicative inverse of $a \pmod n$ exists. Let \bar{a} be this inverse. By definition,

$$a \cdot \bar{a} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

$$m \mid (a \cdot \bar{a} - 1)$$
 (def. of modulo)

Then, $a \cdot \bar{a} - 1 = k \cdot m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let d = gcd(a, m) Then d|a and d|m. By a result seen in class,

$$d \mid (\bar{a} \cdot a + (-k)m)$$
$$d \mid 1$$

So, d=1

(\Leftarrow): Assume gcd(a, m) = 1. By Bézout, there exists $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$s \cdot a + t \cdot m = qcd(a, m) = 1$$

$$s \cdot a + t \cdot m \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$
$$s \cdot a + t \cdot 0 \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$
$$s \cdot a \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$

So, we can take $\bar{a} \equiv s \pmod{m}$

(Uniqueness): Consider two arbitrary multiplicative inverses of $a \pmod{m}$. Denote them by, $s, s' \in \mathbb{Z}_m$. So by definition

$$sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$$
 and $s'a \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

Then gcd(a, m) = 1 by the previous proof, also we have

$$\begin{array}{lll} sa \equiv s'a \pmod{m} \\ m \mid (sa-s'a) & \text{(def. of modulo)} \\ m \mid (a(s-s')) & \\ m \mid (s-s') & \text{(since } \gcd(a,m)=1) \\ s \equiv s' \pmod{m} & \text{(def. of modulo)} \end{array}$$

Therefore, s and s' are the same in \mathbb{Z}_m .

Example: Find the multiplicative inverse of 101 (mod 4620).

Euclid:

$$4620 = 45 \cdot 101 + 75$$

$$101 = 1 \cdot 75 + 26$$

$$75 = 2 \cdot 26 + 23$$

$$26 = 1 \cdot 23 + 3$$

$$23 = 7 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

Bézout:

$$\begin{split} 1 &= 3 - 1 \cdot 2 \\ 1 &= 3 - 1 \cdot (23 - 7 \cdot 3) \\ 1 &= 3 - 1 \cdot 23 + 7 \cdot 3 \\ 1 &= 8 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 23 \\ 1 &= -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot 3 \\ 1 &= -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot (26 - 1 \cdot 23) \\ 1 &= -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot 26 - 8 \cdot 23 \\ 1 &= -9 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot 26 \\ 1 &= 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 23 \\ 1 &= 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot (75 - 2 \cdot 26) \\ 1 &= 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 75 + 18 \cdot 26 \\ 1 &= -9 \cdot 75 + 26 \cdot 26 \\ 1 &= -9 \cdot 75 + 26 \cdot (101 - 1 \cdot 75) \\ 1 &= -9 \cdot 75 + 26 \cdot 101 - 26 \cdot 75 \\ 1 &= 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot (4620 - 45 \cdot 101) \\ 1 &= 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot 4620 + 1575 \cdot 21 \\ 1 &= -35 \cdot 4620 + 1601 \cdot 101 \\ \end{split}$$

So,

```
-35 \cdot 4620 + 1601 \cdot 101 \equiv 1 \pmod{4620}-35 \cdot 0 + 1601 \cdot 101 \equiv 1 \pmod{4620}1601 \cdot 101 \equiv 1 \pmod{4620}101 \equiv 1601 \pmod{4620}
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Therefore, the inverse of 101 in \mathbb{Z}_{4620} is 1601.

Example: Find the multiplicative inverses in \mathbb{Z}_{10} .

- $\bar{0}$ does not exist since $gcd(0, 10) = 10 \neq 1$
- $\bar{1} \equiv 1 \pmod{10}$
- $\bar{2}$ does not exist since $gcd(2,10)=2\neq 1$
- $\bar{3} \equiv 7 \pmod{10}$
- $\bar{4}$ does not exist since $gcd(4,10) = 2 \neq 1$
- $\bar{5}$ does not exist since $gcd(5,10) = 5 \neq 1$
- $\bar{6}$ does not exist since $gcd(6,10)=2\neq 1$
- $\bar{7} \equiv 3 \pmod{10}$
- $\bar{8}$ does not exist since $gcd(8,10) = 2 \neq 1$
- $\bar{9} \equiv 9 \pmod{10}$

This concludes the material for midterm 1.

Solving Congruences

Definition 9.0.1 (Linear Congruence). $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$

Example:

$$3x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

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

$$x - 0 = 7k$$

Question: What is the multiplicative inverse of 3 (mod 7) So we have $3x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$.

$$15x \equiv 25 \pmod{7}$$

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$3 \cdot 4 = 12 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

9.1 Linear Congruence System

Find x such that

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

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

:

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

Example:

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

Try x = 68

$$68 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$68 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$68 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

So, x = 68 is a solution to the system.

9.1.1 Substitution Method

$$x\equiv 2\ (mod\ 3)$$

$$x = 3 \cdot t + 2$$

For some $t \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$x \equiv \pmod{5}$$

$$3t + 2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$3t \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

Multiply 3x by the multiplicative inverse of 3 in \mathbb{Z}_5 .

$$2 \cdot 3t \equiv 2 \cdot 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$t \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$t = 5u + 2 \pmod{5}$$

For an $u \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$x = 3t + 2$$
$$t = 5u + 2$$

$$\implies x = ?$$

$$x = 3(5u + 2) + 2 = 15u + 8$$

$$15u + 8 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

$$15u \equiv -3 \pmod{7}$$

$$15u \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$15u - 14u \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

$$u \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$$

So u = 7v + 4 for some $v \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus,

$$x = 15u + 8$$

$$= 15(7v + 4) + 8$$

$$= 105v + 68$$

So,

$$105v + 68 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

 $105v + 68 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$
 $105v + 68 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$

Example:

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$
$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

Then x = 4t + 1 for some $t \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then from the second equation, we get

$$4t + 1 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$4t + 1 - 1 \equiv 3 - 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$4t \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$4 \cdot 4t \equiv 4 \cdot 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$16t \equiv 8 \pmod{5}$$

$$16t \equiv 8 \pmod{5}$$

$$16t - 15t \equiv 8 - 5 \pmod{5}$$

$$t \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

Thus, t = 5u + 3 for some $u \in \mathbb{Z}$. So x = 20u + 13 is a solution to the system.

$$20u + 13 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

 $20u + 13 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$

Question: Are there systems that admit no solution? Consider

$$x \equiv 2 \; (mod \; 4)$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$$

So x = 4t + 2 for some $t \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$4t + 2 \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$$

$$4t \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$$

But, 4 does not have a multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z}_6 since $gcd(4,6) \neq 1$.

Theorem 9.1.1 (Chinese Remainder Theorem). Let $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_r \in \mathbb{Z}$ be pairwise co-prime integers such that $m_i \geq 2$ for $1 \leq i \leq r$

Definition 9.1.1 (Pairwise Co-prime). $gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$

Let $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_r \in \mathbb{Z}$, then the system

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x \equiv a_r \pmod{m_r}$$

admits a unique solution ($mod\ m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdots m_r$). In other words, the solution exists and is unique in $\mathbb{Z}_{m_1 \cdot m_2 \cdots m_r}$

Consider the system

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$
$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$
$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

So we have $\mathbb{Z}_{3.5.7} = \mathbb{Z}_{105}$, $68 \in \mathbb{Z}_{105}$ and x = 105u + 68.

Fermat's Theorem

Theorem 10.0.1 (Fermat's Theorem). Let $p, a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that p is prime, then

1.

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

2. If gcd(a, p) = 1, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Example:

$$1534^{2016} \ (mod\ 2017)$$

2017 is prime and 1534 < 2017, so $\gcd(1534,2017)=1$ and $1534^2016\equiv 1 \pmod{2017}$

Proof. For (2) $1 \cdot a, 2 \cdot a, 3 \cdot a, \dots, (p-1) \cdot a$ are all different $(mod\ p)$.

- a = 12 and p = 7
- $1 \cdot a \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$
- $2 \cdot a \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$
- $3 \cdot a \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$
- $4 \cdot a \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$
- $5 \cdot a \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$
- $6 \cdot a \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$

- a = 9 and p = 5
- $1 \cdot a \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$
- $2 \cdot a \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$
- $3 \cdot a \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$
- $4 \cdot a \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$

Intro to Cryptography

Asympotic Notation

13.1 Big-O Notation

The *O-notation* describes an asymptoic upper bound.

Definition 13.1.1. Let

$$f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$$
$$q: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$$

be two functions. We say that f is O(g) if there exists a real number c > 0 and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq k$,

$$f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$

Notation:

$$f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$

$$f = O(g)$$

$$\exists c \exists k \forall n (n \ge k \implies f(n) \le c \cdot g(n))$$

Domain: $k, n \in \mathbb{N}, c \in \mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{0\}$

Example: $13x^3 + 12x^2 + 5 = O(x^3)$. We have

$$13x^3 + 12x^2 + 5 \le 13x^3 + 12x^3 + 5x^2 = 30x^3$$

Take c = 30 and k = 1. So

$$13x^3 + 12x^2 + 5 < 30 \cdot x^3$$

for all $x \ge 1$. Therefore $13x^3 + 12x^2 + 5 = O(x^3)$.

Example: $x^2 = O\left(\frac{1}{2}x^2 - 10x\right)$. We have

$$x^2 \le 2\left(\frac{1}{2}x^2 - 10x\right)$$

Now we want

$$x^2 \ge 40x$$

so that that $x^2 - 40x$ is positive. So

Then,

$$x^{2} = 2x^{2} - x^{2}$$

$$\leq 2x^{2} - 40x$$

$$= 4\left(\frac{1}{2}x^{2} - 10x\right)$$

So take c=4 and k=40. Then $x^2=O\left(\frac{1}{2}x^2-10x\right)$ for all $x\geq 40$.

Proposition 13.1.1. Let a > 0 and b > 0. be two rael numbers. We have

$$log^a(x) = O(x^b)$$

Proof. Let a > 0 and b > 0 be two real numbers. We'll use that fact that $\forall x \geq 0$, we have $x \leq e^x$. From which, we have $\log(x) \leq x$. Let x be an integer. We have, by the previous property,

$$\log(x^{\frac{b}{a}}) \le x^{\frac{b}{a}}$$

$$\frac{b}{a}\log(x) \le x^{\frac{b}{a}}$$

$$\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{a}\log^{a}(x) \le x^{b}$$

$$\log^{a}(x) \le \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^{a}x^{b}$$

So we take $c = \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^a$ and k = 1.

13.2 Big-Omega Notation

The Ω -notation describes an asymptotic lower bound.

Definition 13.2.1. Let

$$f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$$
$$g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$$

be two functions. We say that f is $\Omega(g)$ if there exists a real number c > 0 and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq k$,

$$f(n) \ge c \cdot g(n)$$

Notation:

$$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$

$$f = \Omega(g)$$

$$\exists c \exists k \forall n (n \ge k \implies f(n) \ge c \cdot g(n))$$

Domain: $k, n \in \mathbb{N}, c \in \mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{0\}$

Example: $13x^3 + 12x^2 + 5 = \Omega(x^3)$.

$$13x^3 + 12x^2 + 5 > 13x^3$$

Take c = 13 and k = 0. So $13x^3 + 12x^2 + 5 = \Omega(x^3)$.

Example: $x^2 = \Omega(\frac{1}{2}x^2 - 10x)$.

$$x^{2} \ge \frac{1}{2}x^{2}$$

$$\ge \frac{1}{2}x^{2} - 10x$$

$$= 1 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}x^{2} - 10x\right)$$

Take c = 1 and k = 0. So $x^2 = \Omega\left(\frac{1}{2}x^2 - 10x\right) \forall x \ge k$.

Proposition 13.2.1. Let f(n) and g(n) be two functions.

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \iff g(n) - \Omega(f(n))$$

Proof. (\Longrightarrow) Let f(n) and g(n) be two functions. Assume f(n) = O(g(n)). Then there exists c > 0 and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \ge k$, we have $f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$. So,

$$f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$

given that $n \geq g(n)$, then

$$g(n) \ge \frac{1}{c}f(n)$$

 (\longleftarrow) The proof follows the same.

13.3 Big-Theta Notation

The Θ -notation describes an asymptoic upper and lower bound.

Definition 13.3.1. Let

$$f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$$
$$g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}^+$$

be two functions. We say that f is $\Theta(g)$ if there exists a real number $c_1 > 0$, $c_2 > 0$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \geq k$. In otherwords,

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$
 and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

Notation:

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$
$$f = \Theta(g)$$

Proposition 13.3.1. Let f(n) and g(n) be two functions. $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if f(n) = O(g(n)) and $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$.

Proof.

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \iff f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$

By the definition of theta, so

$$g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$$
 and $g(n) = O(f(n))$

From the previous proposition, then

$$g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$