

## Fermat and Euler's Theorems

### **theorem**

Fermat's Theorem (often called Fermat's "little" Theorem to distinguish it from his "last" theorem) says that for any prime number  $p$  and any integer  $1 < a < p$

$$a^p \bmod p = a$$

An equivalent statement is

$$a^{p-1} \bmod p = 1$$

Examples:

$$2^3 \bmod 3 = 2$$

$$2^5 \bmod 5 = 32 \bmod 5 = 2$$

$$3^5 \bmod 5 = 243 \bmod 5 = 3$$

Consider  $p = 7$

$$1^6 \bmod 7 = 1$$

$$2^6 \bmod 7 = 64 \bmod 7 = 1$$

$$3^6 \bmod 7 = 729 \bmod 7 = 1$$

$$4^6 \bmod 7 = 4096 \bmod 7 = 1$$

$$5^6 \bmod 7 = 15625 \bmod 7 = 1$$

$$6^6 \bmod 7 = 46656 \bmod 7 = 1$$

Here is a table from Laws of Cryptography for  $p = 13$ , which computes such powers more efficiently (computing mod  $p$  at each step).

<b>p</b>	<b>a</b>	$a^1$	$a^2$	$a^3$	$a^4$	$a^5$	$a^6$	$a^7$	$a^8$	$a^9$	$a^{10}$	$a^{11}$	$a^{12}$
13	2	<b>2</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>1</b>
13	3	<b>3</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>1</b>	3	9	1	3	9	1	3	9	1
13	4	<b>4</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>1</b>	4	3	12	9	10	1
13	5	<b>5</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>1</b>	5	12	8	1	5	12	8	1
13	6	<b>6</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>1</b>
13	7	<b>7</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>1</b>
13	8	<b>8</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>1</b>	8	12	5	1	8	12	5	1
13	9	<b>9</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	9	3	1	9	3	1	9	3	1
13	10	<b>10</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>1</b>	10	9	12	3	4	1
13	11	<b>11</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1</b>
13	12	<b>12</b>	<b>1</b>	12	1	12	1	12	1	12	1	12	1

**Table 1.4 Fermat's Theorem for  $p = 13$ .**

[www.cs.utsa.edu/~wagner/lawsbookcolor/laws.pdf](http://www.cs.utsa.edu/~wagner/lawsbookcolor/laws.pdf)

Let's do the calculation for  $a = 7, p = 13$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
 7^{**1} &= 7 \\
 7^{**2} &= 49 - 3(13) = 10 \\
 7^{**3} &= 70 - 5(13) = 5 \\
 7^{**4} &= 35 - 2(13) = 9 \\
 7^{**5} &= 63 - 4(13) = 11 \\
 7^{**6} &= 77 - 5(13) = 12 \\
 7^{**7} &= 84 - 6(13) = 6 \\
 7^{**8} &= 42 - 3(13) = 3 \\
 7^{**9} &= 21 - 1(13) = 8 \\
 7^{**10} &= 56 - 4(13) = 4
 \end{aligned}$$

$$7^{**11} = 28 - 2(13) = 2$$

$$7^{**12} = 14 - 1(13) = 1$$

As the theorem says, we cycle around to  $7^{12} \bmod 13 = 1$ . The number 7 is called a *generator* because its powers generate all the values in the field  $Z_{13}$ .

2, 6 and 11 are also generators for  $Z_{13}$ .

Other values for  $a$  have shorter repeats. The lengths of such runs are divisors of 12.

As the source says:

**Because  $a$  to a power  $x \bmod p$  always starts repeating after the power reaches  $p - 1$ , one can reduce the power  $\bmod p - 1$  and still get the same answer."**

Thus no matter how big the power  $x$ , let  $y = x \bmod (p - 1)$  and then

$$a^x \bmod p = a^y \bmod p$$

For example,  $\bmod 13$ :

$$a^{29} \bmod 13 = a^{29 \bmod 12} \bmod 13 = a^5 \bmod 13$$

### **proof of Fermat's Theorem**

Note that Fermat didn't actually prove his theorem. Euler did. There is a beautiful combinatorial proof in wikipedia called the "necklace proof". Here is another write-up:

<https://tinyurl.com/yblp24u2>

### consequence

A consequence of this theorem is that the sequence  $a^1, a^2, a^3 \dots a^{p-1}$  repeats, so the sequence  $a^p, a^{p+1} \dots a^{2p-1}$  gives exactly the same values.

### Euler

Euler's totient function  $\phi(n)$  is defined like so:

$$\phi(n) = n \prod (1 - \frac{1}{p_i})$$

(with  $p_i$  being the prime factors of  $n$ ). In number theory,  $\phi$  gives the count of the positive integers up to a given integer  $n$  that are relatively prime to  $n$  (are not divisors of  $n$ ).

### theorem

Relevant to our study of cryptography, Euler's Theorem says that for an integer  $a < p$  (not equal to 1):

$$a^{\phi(n)} \bmod n = 1$$

If  $n$  is prime this reduces to

$$\phi(n) = n \prod (1 - \frac{1}{n}) = n(1 - \frac{1}{n}) = n - 1$$

and then

$$a^{n-1} \bmod n = 1$$

showing that Fermat's Theorem is a special case of Euler's Theorem.

Here we are most interested in the situation where  $n$  has two large prime factors  $p$  and  $q$  and then:

$$\phi(n) = pq (1 - \frac{1}{p})(1 - \frac{1}{q}) = (p-1)(q-1)$$

Furthermore, we have that encryption followed by decryption is  $m^{ed} \bmod n = m$ . We would like to show that this follows as a consequence of our definitions.

From now on, I will write  $\phi$  for  $\phi(n)$ . Recall that we set  $d$  to be the multiplicative inverse of  $e \bmod \phi$ .

Write out what's given:

$$\phi = (p - 1)(q - 1)$$

$$m^\phi \bmod n = 1$$

$$ed \bmod \phi = 1$$

Our chained encryption/decryption is  $(m^e)^d \bmod n$  or:

$$m^{ed} \bmod n$$

My source says: "similar to Fermat's Theorem, arithmetic in the exponent is taken mod  $\phi$ ."

The idea is that since

$$m^\phi \bmod n = 1$$

if we are computing any *other* power of  $m$ , say  $ed$ , we need only compute to the power of  $ed \bmod \phi$ , because beyond that, the sequence just repeats. (Note: we saw the repetition for Fermat's Theorem, but didn't prove it. We are accepting the source that says it happens here as well, even though  $n$  is not prime).

Here we have  $m$  to the power  $ed$  and then mod  $pq$ , and we reduce the power  $ed \bmod \phi$  since  $\phi = (p - 1)(q - 1)$ .

(Assuming  $m$  has no common divisors with  $n$ ):

$$m^{ed} \bmod n$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= m^{ed} \bmod pq \\
&= m^{ed \bmod \phi} \bmod pq \\
&= m^{ed \bmod \phi}
\end{aligned}$$

But of course  $ed \bmod \phi = 1$  so this is just  $m$ .

Furthermore,  $m^{ed} = m^{de}$ , hence the ability to encrypt first with the private key and then decrypt with the public one.