

Modular Exponentiation

- (a). 8
- (b). $160 = 32 + 128, 16$
- (c). $218^3 = (200 + 10 + 8)^3 = 8 \pmod{9}$
- (d). $998^{156} = (998^{12})^{13} = 1 \pmod{13}$

Sparsity of Primes

Provement equals to find a x that $x+1, x+2, \dots, x+k$ are all not powers of primes. If a number can be divided by two distinct prime, then this number is not a prime power. This property can also apply to $x+1, \dots, x+k$ these k integers. So we can select $2k$ distinct primes $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_{2k-1}, p_{2k}$ and enforce the following constraints:

$$\begin{aligned} x + 1 &\equiv 0 \pmod{p_1 p_2} \\ x + 2 &\equiv 0 \pmod{p_3 p_4} \\ &\dots \\ x + k &\equiv 0 \pmod{p_{2k-1} p_{2k}} \end{aligned}$$

By Chinese Remainder Theorem, we can calculate the value of x so this x must exists, and thus $x + 1$ through $x + k$ are all not prime powers.

LOTUS but for CRT

Since p and q are primes, so $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ and $\gcd(a, q) = 1$. By FLT,

$$\begin{aligned} a^{(p-1)(q-1)+1} &= (a^{p-1})^{q-1} \cdot a \equiv 1^{q-1} \cdot a \equiv a \pmod{p} \\ a^{(p-1)(q-1)+1} &= (a^{q-1})^{p-1} \cdot a \equiv 1^{p-1} \cdot a \equiv a \pmod{q} \end{aligned}$$

Consider the system of congruences,

$$\begin{aligned} x &\equiv a \pmod{p} \\ x &\equiv a \pmod{q} \end{aligned}$$

By CRT, we can calculate a value of x ,

$$x = a \cdot q^{-1}(\pmod{p}) \cdot q + a \cdot p^{-1}(\pmod{q}) \cdot p(\pmod{pq})$$

$$x = a(q^{-1} \pmod{p} \cdot q + p^{-1} \pmod{q} \cdot p) \pmod{pq}$$

Since p and q are co-prime, by Bezout's lemma,

$$g \cdot p + h \cdot q = 1$$

where g and h are respectively $p^{-1} \pmod{q}$ and $q^{-1} \pmod{p}$. Hence,

$$x = a(g \cdot p + h \cdot q) \equiv a \cdot 1 \pmod{pq}$$

Therefore, let $x = a^{(p-1)(q-1)+1}$, $x \equiv a \pmod{p}$ and $x \equiv a \pmod{q}$, then $x \equiv a \pmod{pq}$. We conclude that $a^{(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv a \pmod{pq}$.

Squared RSA

(a). Prove the identity $a^{p(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$ where a is coprime to p and p is a prime.

Let

$$S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p^2 - 1\}$$

where each element is coprime to p.

and

$$T = \{a, 2a, 3a, \dots, a \cdot p^2 - 1\}$$

Exclude $\{p^2 - p, p^2 - 2p, \dots, p^2 - (p-1)p\}$ from 1 to $p^2 - 1$, we know that $|S| = p^2 - 1 - (p-1)p = p(p-1)$.

Let prove $S = T$:

- $S \subseteq T$: Since $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, $a^{-1} \pmod{p^2}$ exists, and also $\gcd(a^{-1}, p) = 1$. Let $x \in S$, and $\gcd(x, p) = 1$, so $\gcd(a^{-1}x, p) = 1$, so $a^{-1}x \in S$. $a(a^{-1}x) = x \in T$. Hence $S \subseteq T$.
- $T \subseteq S$: Let $ax \in T$ where $x \in S$, we know that $\gcd(x, p) = 1$, $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, and ax is also coprime to p as well. Since S include all distinct numbers from 1 to $p^2 - 1$ where each number is coprime to p. So $ax \in S$. We conclude.

Since $S = T$, we know that,

$$\prod_{s_i \in S} s_i = \prod_{t_i \in T} t_i \pmod{p^2}$$

$$\prod_{t_i \in T} t_i = \prod_{s_i \in S} s_i \cdot a = a^{|S|} \cdot \prod_{s_i \in S} s_i = \prod_{s_i \in S} s_i \pmod{p^2}$$

Since each $s_i \in S$ is coprime to p, $\prod_{s_i \in S} s_i$ is also coprime to p^2 . Hence we can multiply both sides of our equivalence with the inverse of $\prod_{s_i \in S} s_i \pmod{p^2}$ to obtain $a^{p(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^2}$. Thus we conclude.

(b). Prove $(x^e)^d \equiv x \pmod{p^2q^2}$.

We know that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{p(p-1)q(q-1)}$, thus $ed = 1 + kpq(p-1)(q-1)$.

Our claim is that $x^{ed} - x \equiv 1 \pmod{pq(p-1)(q-1)}$.

$$x^{ed} - x = x(x^{kpq(p-1)(q-1)} - 1)$$

Now we claim that the expression $x(x^{kpq(p-1)(q-1)} - 1)$ is divisible by p^2 .

To see this, we consider two case:

- *Case 1:* x is divisible by p^2 , the expression is clearly divisible by p^2 .
- *Case 2:* x is not divisible by p^2 , by FLT and part a, the expression $\equiv x(1^{kpq(p-1)(q-1)} - 1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p^2}$.

By an entirely symmetrical argument, the expression is also divisible by q^2 . Since p and q are primes, the expression must be divisible by p^2q^2 . Thus, we conclude.

Polynomials over Galois Fields

(a).

$$q(x) = x^p - x \pmod{p}$$

$$q(x) = x(x^{p-1} - 1) \pmod{p}$$

$$q(x) = 0 \pmod{p}$$

$$q(x) = \prod_{k=0}^{p-1} (x - k)$$

(b). By Lagrange interpolation, passing through p points $(0, f(0)), (1, f(1)), \dots, (p-1, f(p-1))$ there is a unique polynomial of at most $p-1$ degree $\tilde{f}(x)$.

Alternatively, by FLT, let $d \geq p$, we know that,

$$x^d = x^{d-(p-1)+(p-1)}$$

$$\equiv x^{d-(p-1)} \pmod{p}$$

$$\equiv x^{d-2(p-1)} \pmod{p}$$

...

So there must be a integer k to let $d - k(p-1) < p$, and $x^d \equiv x^{d-k(p-1)} \pmod{p}$ by this k . We can apply this property to each x^n in $f(x)$ where $n \geq p$ and obtain a polynomial with at most $p-1$ degree.

- (c). Lemma: *The roots of $R(x)=P(x)Q(x)$ are the union of the roots of P and Q , the above claim clearly holds.*

Let U be the union of the roots of P and Q , $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$, there are two cases below:

- $x \in U$: Hence $P(x) = 0 \vee Q(x) = 0$, then $R(x) = 0$.
- $x \notin U$: Hence $P(x) \neq 0 \wedge Q(x) \neq 0$, then $R(x) \neq 0$.

Therefore, the lemma holds.

Suppose that $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ are both non-zero polynomials and only have limited number of roots, hence $R(x)$ also has limited roots. By contrapositive, since $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there must exist a x_{nozero} with which $P(x_{nozero}) \neq 0$ and $Q(x_{nozero}) \neq 0$, then $P(x_{nozero})Q(x_{nozero}) \neq 0$.

- (d). In $\text{GF}(p)$, $x^{p-1} - 1$ and x are both non zero polynomials, but their product $x^p - x \equiv 0 \pmod p$ by FLT.

Packet Requirements

- (a). Suppose Bob get $n+2k-1$ packets, where exists k corrupted packets.

If Bob select n uncorrupted packets, and get the interpolated polynomial f . Then f will pass through $k-1$ packets additionally.

If Bob select n packets consist of c corrupted packets and $n-c$ uncorrupted packets. The remaining $2k-1$ packets contains $k-1+c$ uncorrupted packets and $k-c$ corrupted. Note that the interpolated polynomial can pass through at most $n-1$ corrupted packets. So the polynomial can additionally pass through $(n-1)-(n-c)=c-1$ uncorrupted packets, and $k-c$ corrupted packets, that is additional $c-1 + k-c = k-1$ packets, which is the same as the correct case above. Hence Bob cannot distinguish.

- (b). Suppose Bob get $n+2k$ packets, where exists k corrupted packets.

If Bob select n uncorrupted packets and get the corrected polynomial. Then polynomial will pass through k packets additionally.

If Bob select n packets consist of c corrupted packets and $n-c$ uncorrupted packets. The remaining $2k$ packets contains $k+c$ uncorrupted packets and $k-c$ corrupted. Note that the interpolated polynomial can pass through at most $n-1$ corrupted packets. So the polynomial can additionally pass through $(n-1)-(n-c)=c-1$ uncorrupted packets, and $k-c$ corrupted packets, that is additional $c-1 + k-c = k-1$ packets, which is different from k in the correct case. Hence Bob can distinguish.

Alice and Bob

- (a). He can recover the origin message. $Q(x) = x^3 + 5x^2 + 5x + 4$, $E(x) = x^3$. Hence the $P(x) = x^2 + x + 1$, the x-value of the packet Eve changed is 3.
- (b). Since Bob know that there still remains 3 points uncorrupted and 2 points are corrupted. So the remaining 3 corrected points are always on the degree 1 polynomial that Alice encoded her message on. If Bob find multiple degree 1 polynomial across 3 points, then he will not be able to determine Alice's message, but if only one is found, he can.

In this case, if $x = 5, 6, 10$, Bob cannot do well.

- (c). Alice can compile message 1 to 6 to a degree 5 polynomial and send 10 points about the polynomial to channel A. Then compile message 7 to 9 to a degree 2 polynomial and send 10 points about the polynomial to channel B. Bob can decode the degree 5 polynomial from 6 points from channel A and the degree 2 polynomial from 5 uncorrupted points and 1 corrupted point from channel B. For channel b, it can effectively pass a degree 3 polynomial with 5 uncorrupted points and one corrupted. So, there is even some redundancy.