

Fermat's Little Theorem

Recall: Simplification problems.

$$11^{1002} \equiv (-1)^{1002} = 1 \pmod{12}$$

↓
simplify
base

Saw we cannot simplify exponent:

$$2^5 \not\equiv 2^1 \pmod{4}$$

But: There is a version of exponent simplification.

Fermat's Little Theorem: If p is prime
and $p \nmid a$ then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Ex: • $5^{20} = (5^2)^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$

• $3^{14} = 3^2 \cdot (3^2)^6 \equiv 3^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$

Lemma: If p and a are coprime, the
function $f: \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$
given by $f(x) = ax \pmod{p}$ is bijective.

Ex: $p=5$, $a=2$ $f(x) = 2x \bmod 5$

$$f(0) = 0 \quad f(3) = 1$$

$$f(1) = 2 \quad f(4) = 3$$

$$f(2) = 4$$

Proof: $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, so a has an inverse,

a^{-1} . Consider $g: \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$

given by $g(x) = a^{-1}x \bmod p$. We notice

$g(f(x)) = x$ and $f(g(x)) = x$, so $g = f^{-1}$.

Since f is invertible, it is bijective. \square

Proof of FLT: Say p is prime, $p \nmid a$.

Then, by lemma, $f: \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, p-1\}$

given by $f(x) = ax \bmod p$ is bijective. So,

$$\{0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1\} = \{f(0), f(1), f(2), \dots, f(p-1)\}$$

But we always have $f(0) = 0$, so

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\} = \{f(1), f(2), \dots, f(p-1)\}.$$

$$= \{a \bmod p, 2a \bmod p, \dots, (p-1)a \bmod p\} \quad \textcircled{2}$$

So, the product of elements in ① must equal the product of elements in ②.

$$\Rightarrow 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) = (a \bmod p) \cdots ((p-1)a \bmod p)$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \equiv a \cdot 2a \cdots (p-1)a \pmod{p}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1) \cdot a^{p-1} \pmod{p}$$

Since p is prime, all numbers $1, 2, \dots, p-1$ are coprime to p , so they have inverses mod p . So, we can cancel them!

$$\Rightarrow 1 \equiv a^{p-1} \pmod{p}. \quad \square$$

Alternate FLT: If p is prime, $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ for any a .

Proof: If $p \nmid a$ then $a^p \stackrel{\text{FLT}}{=} a \pmod{p}$.

If $p \mid a$, $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. \square

This version can be nice in proofs since it works for any a .

Now, a big application!

Encryption

Setup: Alice wants to send a message to Bob.

We can assume the message is an integer $x > 0$.

Why? text $\xrightarrow{\text{binary}}$ integer
hi $\xrightarrow{\text{ASCII}}$ 01101000 01101001 $\xrightarrow{\text{integer}}$ 26724

Challenge: Eve reads all communication from Alice to Bob. Want Bob to be able to conclude the message was x , but we can't let Eve do so!

General Idea: Pick a big N ($x < N$).

Encryption function: $E: \{0, \dots, N-1\} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

Decryption function: $D: \{0, \dots, N-1\} \rightarrow \{0, \dots, N-1\}$

Alice calculates $E(x)$, sends it to Bob.

Bob will use D to recover x .

2 Desired Properties:

① $D(E(x)) = x \rightarrow$ Bob can recover x

② Eve cannot find x from $E(x)$,
even if she knows how E works.

Two encryption types

1. Private-key encryption: Alice and Bob
meet up beforehand, share secret info
that they use to compute E and D .

Downside: Bob must meet with everyone
who wants to send him messages!

See CS 161 for examples.

2. Public-key encryption: Bob publicly
broadcasts information that lets anyone
find E , but keeps a secret so only he
can find D / undo E .

Seems impossible: If Eve has enough
info to find E herself, surely she
can find x from $E(x)$...

Turns out it is possible!

RSA Encryption

Rivest-Shamir-Adleman (1977)

- Bob's Setup:

a) Bob picks large primes p and q
(in practice, 300-600 digits)

b) Bob calculates $N = p \cdot q$

c) Bob picks e so $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$.
(in practice, e usually small, like 3)

d) Bob computes $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$.

e) Bob publicly shares (N, e) "public key"

Bob keeps d secret "private key"

- Encryption: Alice wants to send x to Bob

a) Alice makes sure $x < N$

b) Alice sends $E(x) = x^e \pmod{N}$

- Bob wants to read encrypted message y

Bob calculates $D(y) = y^d \pmod{N}$

Ex: RSA with small numbers

Setup: a) Take $p=3, q=11$

b) Get $N=33$

c) Pick e . $(p-1)(q-1)=20$.

So, $e=3$ works since $\gcd(3, 20)=1$.

d) Compute $d = e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
 $= 3^{-1} \pmod{20} = 7$

e) Public Key: $(N, e) = (33, 3)$

Private Key: $d = 7$

Encrypt 29 : $E(29) = 29^e \pmod{N}$

$$= 29^3 \pmod{33}$$

$$= (-4)^3 \pmod{33} = 2$$

Decrypt 2 : $D(2) = 2^d \pmod{N}$

$$= 2^7 \pmod{33}$$

$$= 128 \pmod{33} = 29$$

It worked! Let's prove it always does.

Theorem: If $0 < x < N$, then $D(E(x)) = x$.

Proof: By definition, $D(E(x)) = (x^e \bmod N)^d \bmod N$.

So, $0 < D(E(x)) < N$. Since $0 < x < N$, we just need to show $D(E(x)) \equiv x \pmod{N}$.

We can simplify after multiplying, so we just need to show $(x^e)^d \equiv x \pmod{N}$.

We know $d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$, so $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$.

$$\Rightarrow ed - 1 = k(p-1)(q-1), k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow (x^e)^d = x^{ed} = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1}$$

Also, $N = pq$, so need to show

$$x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv x \pmod{pq}$$

First, show $x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv x \pmod{p}$

If $p | x$, both sides are 0.

If $p \nmid x$, use FLT.

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

$$\text{So, } x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv x \pmod{p}$$

$$\text{Similarly, } x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv x \pmod{q}$$

Consider the system in terms of variable n

$$\begin{cases} n \equiv x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \pmod{p} \\ n \equiv x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \pmod{q} \end{cases}$$

It has solutions $n = x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1}$, $n = x$

But $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, so by CRT uniqueness,

$$x^{k(p-1)(q-1)+1} \equiv x \pmod{pq}.$$

□

So, encryption-decryption always works.

Next Q: Why can't Eve find x from $E(x)$?

Two sensible strategies for Eve:

1. Eve tries to find the private key d .

- If Eve finds d and knows $y = E(x)$,
she can do $D(y) = y^d \pmod{N}$.

- To find d , Eve must compute
 $e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$. Eve knows e ,

and knows $N=p \cdot q$, but to find $(p-1)(q-1)$ she must know p and q individually.

Security Point #1: When N is huge (300-600 digits) it cannot be easily factored (no fast algorithms!)

Even the world's fastest computers cannot do it in a human lifetime.

But: There is no proof factoring can't be fast! Just no one has found a way...

2. Eve could directly try to compute x from $E(x) = x^e \text{ mod } N$.

eth root is fast: $\sqrt[e]{E(x)} = x$? No!

$E(x)$ finds x^e then takes remainder mod N .

Security Point #2: When x is huge there is no fast way to undo $x^e \text{ mod } N$.

Note: If $x^e < N$, the mod N does nothing

and Eve can get x by taking $\sqrt[e]{E(x)}$.

Moral: RSA does work in practice, but it is brittle. If anything (even something subtle) is slightly wrong, it can break!

Final Q: Can Alice and Bob do things fast?

Mod powers: Repeated squares

Calculate d : Extended Euclid

Find p, q : Guess and check with big numbers.

Prime Number Theorem: About $1/\ln(n)$

numbers less than n are prime for big n .

For our size range, that's ~ 1 in 1000.