

Summary last week

- A **countably** infinite if enumeration $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$; **countable** if finite or countably infinite.
- countability preserved by **subset, image, union, cartesian product**
- **non-countability** of **infinite** sequences, $2^{\mathbb{N}}$, $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{N})$, \mathbb{R} by **diagonalisation** (Cantor)
- **injections** $f : A \rightarrow B$, $g : B \rightarrow A$, then exists **bijection** $A \rightarrow B$ (Schröder–Bernstein)
- collections $|_|$ of equinumerous sets **partially ordered** by injections; $\mathbb{N} < \mathbb{R}$.

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- collections $|_|$ of equinumerous sets **partially ordered** by injections; $\mathbb{N} < \mathbb{R}$.
- **equivalence** relation if reflexive, transitive, and symmetric
- if \sim equivalence on A , then $[a] = \{b \mid a \sim b\}$ is equivalence **class** of $a \in A$
- **b representative** of $[a]$ if $b \in [a]$
- **B system** of representatives if for all $a \in A$, **unique** representative b of $[a]$ in B
- **bijection** between **partitionings** P and **equivalences** $a \sim b$ if $\exists B \in P, a, b \in B$.
- reflexive, transitive relation \leq **induces** equivalence relation $\leq \cap \geq$

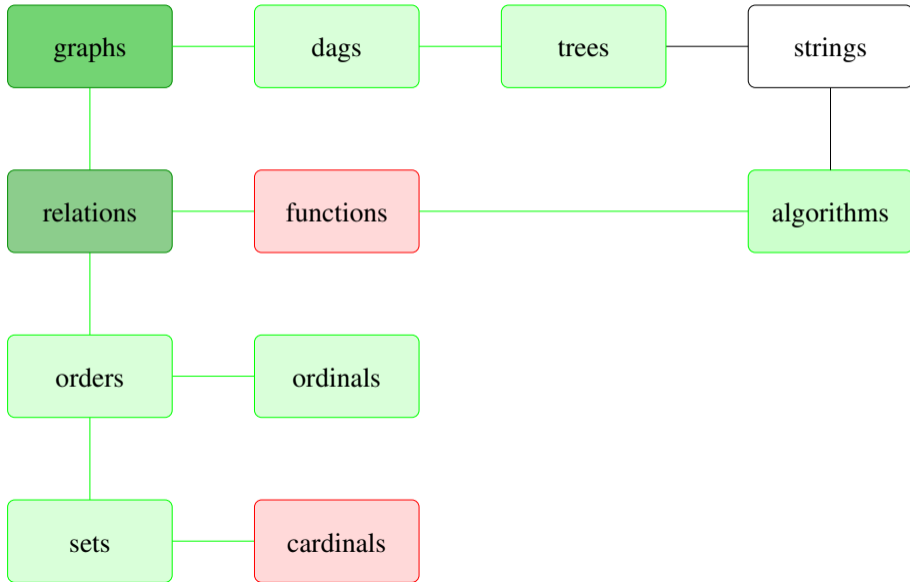
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- algorithm for **gcd**(x, y) with $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ by **subtraction**, **division modulo** (Euclid)
- extended algorithm for u, v with $\text{gcd}(x, y) = u \cdot x + v \cdot y$ (Bézout); $\text{lcm}(x, y) = \frac{x \cdot y}{\text{gcd}(x, y)}$

Course themes

- directed and undirected graphs
- relations and functions
- orders and induction
- trees and dags
- finite and infinite counting
- elementary number theory
- Turing machines, algorithms, and complexity
- decidable and undecidable problem

Discrete structures



Theorem (Bézout's lemma)

for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ not zero, there exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $\gcd(a, b) = u \cdot a + v \cdot b$

Example ($1 = \gcd(77, 30)$)

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$$(3) \quad 77 - 30 = (1 - 0) \cdot 77 + (0 - 1) \cdot 30 \quad (1) - (2)$$

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may stop at 1 since 1 is least possible divisor, it's trivial. $u = -7$ and $v = 18$

indeed $1 = \gcd(77, 30) = (-7) \cdot 77 + 18 \cdot 30 = -539 + 540$

The divisibility order $|$ (**recall** from weeks 4 and 5)

Lemma

divisibility $|$ is a well-founded partial order on the positive natural numbers $\mathbb{N}_{>0}$

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Proof.

note: if $x | y$ then $x + \dots + x = y$ hence $x \leq y$ (for y positive)

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- **anti-symmetry**: if $x | y$ and $y | x$, then $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$, hence $x = y$ by anti-symmetry of \leq

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\Rightarrow **proofs by well-founded induction on |** for statements on $\mathbb{N}_{>0}$ and $\mathbb{N}_{>1} = \mathbb{N} - \{0, 1\}$

Definition

- p is **prime** if $p \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ and for all x, y , if $p \mid x \cdot y$ then $p \mid x$ or $p \mid y$
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- Assume p **prime** and suppose $p = x \cdot y$. By p being prime $p \mid x$ or $p \mid y$, say w.l.o.g. $p \mid x$. By $x \mid p$, then $x = p$ and $y = 1$, so both are trivial hence p is **indecomposable**

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- Assume p **indecomposable** and suppose $x \mid p$ with $x \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$, i.e. $x \cdot y = p$ for some y . By p being indecomposable, then x, y are trivial, so $p = x$ and p is **\mid -minimal**

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- Assume p **$|\cdot$ -minimal** and suppose $p \mid x \cdot y$, i.e. $p \cdot d = x \cdot y$ for some d . Either $p \mid x$ or else $\gcd(p, x) = 1$ by p being $|\cdot$ -minimal. Then $1 = u \cdot p + v \cdot x$ for some u, v (Bézout):
 $y = y \cdot 1 = y \cdot (u \cdot p + v \cdot x) = y \cdot u \cdot p + y \cdot v \cdot x = y \cdot u \cdot p + v \cdot p \cdot d = (y \cdot u + v \cdot d) \cdot p$
hence $p \mid y$. That is, either $p \mid x$ or $p \mid y$, so p is **prime**

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Proof.

- we first show that $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}_{>1}$ there exists a collection of prime numbers p_i such that $x = \prod p_i$, by **induction on x well-foundedly ordered by $|$** .
recall from week 5.

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If x is not prime itself, then $x = y \cdot z$ for y, z non-trivial (by the lemma), hence $y = \prod q_J$ and $z = \prod r_K$ for collections of primes q_J and r_K by the IH twice.
Combining both, $x = \prod q_J \cdot \prod r_K$, i.e. we may take the concatenation of q_J and r_K .

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- next we show **uniqueness**, i.e. if $\prod p_i = \prod q_j$ then the collections of prime numbers p_i and q_j are the same up to order, by **mathematical induction on $\#I$** .

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- next we show uniqueness, i.e. if $\prod p_i = \prod q_j$ then the collections of prime numbers p_i and q_j are the same up to order, by mathematical induction on $\#I$.
Suppose $i \in I$. Then $p_i \mid \prod p_i = \prod q_j$, so $\exists j \in J$ such that $p_i \mid q_j$ hence $p_i = q_j$ (by the lemma twice). Therefore, $\prod p_{I-\{i\}} = \frac{\prod p_i}{p_i} = \frac{\prod q_j}{q_j} = \prod q_{J-\{j\}}$, and by the IH $p_{I-\{i\}}$ and $q_{J-\{j\}}$ are the same up to order, hence so are p_i and q_j . ■

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Remark

FTA links numbers wrt **addition** $(+, -)$ to numbers wrt **multiplication** (\cdot, \div) . Connections between both hard in general, cf. Goldbach's conjecture: if $n > 2$, then $n = p_i + p_j$.

Operations on numbers via exponents of prime factors

Corollary (to FTA)

*any $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ can be uniquely written as $p_k^e := \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{e_i}$ given a long enough initial segment p_k of the prime numbers in ascending order, and collection e_k of **exponents***

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Example

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$p_n^e \cdot p_n^f = p_n^{e+f}$, $p_n^e \div p_n^f = p_n^{e-f}$, **gcd**(p_n^e, p_n^f) = $p_n^{\min(e,f)}$, and **lcm**(p_n^e, p_n^f) = $p_n^{\max(e,f)}$

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Proof.

writing $|a| = p_n^e$ and $|b| = p_n^f$ for n large enough, by the previous corollary:

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = \text{lcm}(p_n^e, p_n^f) = p_n^{\max(e,f)} = p_n^{e+f-\min(e,f)} = \frac{(p_n^e) \cdot (p_n^f)}{\gcd(p_n^e, p_n^f)} = \frac{|a| \cdot |b|}{\gcd(a, b)}$$

using **$\max(x, y) = x + y - \min(x, y)$** for natural numbers x, y .

Number theory (factorisation, modulo) application: RSA

Cryptography

may be based on **one-way** functions f , **easy** to compute f , **hard** to compute f^{-1} .

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caveat: not known whether one-way functions exist

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RSA outline, omitting some conditions

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RSA ingredients developed on following slides:

modulo, Euler (RSA case), fast exponentiation, Chinese remainder (speed-up)

Modulo

Definition (modulo some positive natural number n)

- integers a, b are congruent modulo n , denoted by $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if remainders $a \bmod n$ and $b \bmod n$ after division by n are the same

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Remark

As system of representatives we usually employ the **smallest non-negative** remainders $\{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ or the **absolutely-smallest** remainders

$$\begin{cases} \{-n/2 + 1, \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, n/2\} & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ \{-(n-1)/2, \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots, (n-1)/2\} & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Modulo (continued)

Example

We have $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \bar{3}, \bar{4}\} = \{\bar{-2}, \bar{-1}, \bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}\}$; moreover $\bar{0} = \{0, 5, 10, 15, \dots\} = \bar{5}$, and $\bar{2} + \bar{4} = \bar{6} = \bar{1}$ and $\bar{4} \cdot \bar{4} \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{4} \cdot \bar{4} \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{1} \cdot \bar{3} = \bar{3}$.

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Lemma

The functions

$$+: \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z}, (\bar{a}, \bar{b}) \mapsto \bar{a} + \bar{b} := \overline{a + b},$$

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Example

In many programming languages there is a data type for integers corresponding to $\mathbb{Z}/2^{2^n}\mathbb{Z}$ for some $n \geq 3$. For example `unsigned int` in C corresponds to $n = 5$ resp. $n = 6$. For $n = 5$, i.e. a 32-bits architecture, the sum of $2^{2^5} - 1 = 2^{32} - 1$ and 1 is **0**.¹²

Inverses modulo

Definition

A congruence class \bar{a} modulo n is **invertible**, if there is a congruence class \bar{b} modulo n such that $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} \equiv \bar{1} \pmod{n}$, i.e. if $a \cdot b - 1 = k \cdot n$ for some k .

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\bar{a} modulo n is invertible for non-zero a iff $\gcd(a, n) = 1$; in that case, we can compute using Bézout's lemma, integers u, v such that $u \cdot a + v \cdot n = 1$ and $\bar{a}^{-1} = \bar{u}$

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if $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ and $u \cdot a + v \cdot n = 1$, then $\bar{1} = \bar{u} \cdot \bar{a} + \bar{v} \cdot \bar{n} = \bar{u} \cdot \bar{a}$. vice versa, if \bar{a} invertible, then $\bar{a} \cdot \bar{b} = \bar{1}$ for some b , hence $\overline{a \cdot b - 1} = \bar{0}$; and therefore $n \mid (a \cdot b - 1)$. thus $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, as $\gcd(a, n)$ divides n hence $a \cdot b - 1$, and a hence $a \cdot b$ ■

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Corollary (cancellation by multiplication with \bar{a}^{-1})

if $0 < a < p$ and $a \cdot b \equiv a \cdot c \pmod{p}$ with p prime, then $b \equiv c \pmod{p}$

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by **cancellation** of $\overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)}$ from

$$\overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)} \cdot \overline{a^{p-1}} = \overline{1 \cdot a} \cdot \overline{2 \cdot a} \cdots \overline{(p-1) \cdot a} = \overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)} \cdot \overline{1}$$

where we use cancellation again to show $\overline{1 \cdot a}, \overline{2 \cdot a}, \dots, \overline{(p-1) \cdot a}$ are all distinct and also from $\overline{0}$, so that they must be a **permutation** of the congruence classes $\overline{1}, \overline{2}, \dots, \overline{(p-1)}$, to conclude their products are the same (**double** counting). ■

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Proof.

by cancellation of $\overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)}$ from

$$\overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)} \cdot \overline{a^{p-1}} = \overline{1 \cdot a} \cdot \overline{2 \cdot a} \cdots \overline{(p-1) \cdot a} = \overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)} \cdot \overline{1}$$

where we use cancellation again to show $\overline{1 \cdot a}, \overline{2 \cdot a}, \dots, \overline{(p-1) \cdot a}$ are all distinct and also from $\overline{0}$, so that they must be a permutation of the congruence classes $\overline{1}, \overline{2}, \dots, \overline{(p-1)}$, to conclude their products are the same (double counting). ■

Corollary (Euler's theorem, RSA case)

for all primes p, q , and integers a with $\gcd(a, p \cdot q) = 1$, $a^{(p-1) \cdot (q-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p \cdot q}$

Theorem (Fermat's little theorem, FLT)

for prime p , and integer a with $p \nmid a$, we have $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Proof.

by cancellation of $\overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)}$ from

$$\overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)} \cdot \overline{a^{p-1}} = \overline{1 \cdot a} \cdot \overline{2 \cdot a} \cdots \overline{(p-1) \cdot a} = \overline{1 \cdot 2 \cdots (p-1)} \cdot \overline{1}$$

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Corollary (Euler's theorem, RSA case)

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Proof.

By FTA and $p, q \mid a^{(p-1) \cdot (q-1)} - 1$, from FLT twice, with a^{p-1}, q resp. a^{q-1}, p . ■

Fast exponentiation

Example

We compute: $3^9 = 3^{(1001)_2} = 3^{2^3} \cdot 3^{2^0} = 3^8 \cdot 3^1 = ((3^2)^2)^2 \cdot 3 = 19683$. The computation uses 4 multiplications, of which 3 are for squaring.

Fast exponentiation

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Theorem (exponentiation by squaring)

Let a be an integer and let n be a positive integer with **binary** representation $b_k b_{k-1} \cdots b_0$ where $b_k = 1$; in symbols $(b_k b_{k-1} \cdots b_0)_2 = n$. We can then compute the power a^n by squaring (and possibly multiplying) k -times:

Set $x = a$.

For i from $k - 1$ down to 0 repeat:

Set $x = x^2$.

If $b_i = 1$, set $x = x * a$.

Fast exponentiation (continued)

Proof.

- By mathematical induction on k ; for $k = 0$ $n = 1$ and the algorithm yields $a^1 = a$
- For $k > 0$ we write

$$n = \sum_{i=0}^k b_i 2^i = m \cdot 2 + b_0 \quad \text{with} \quad m = \sum_{i=1}^k b_i 2^{i-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} b_{i+1} 2^i$$

By the induction hypothesis, the first $k - 1$ loops yield the value a^m ; therefore, the last time ($i = 0$) yields

$$(a^m)^2 \cdot a^{b_0} = a^n$$

Fast exponentiation (continued)

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$$(a^m)^2 \cdot a^{b_0} = a^n$$

Remark

during exponentiation modulo some number n , no numbers $\geq n$ need to be used.

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function **crt** from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a **bijection**:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

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$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0				
1					
2					

$$0 \mapsto (0, 0)$$

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Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

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0	0				
1		1			
2					

$$1 \mapsto (1, 1)$$

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Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0				
1		1			
2			2		

$$2 \mapsto (2, 2)$$

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$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0			3	
1		1			
2			2		

$$3 \mapsto (0, 3)$$

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$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0			3	
1		1			4
2			2		

$$4 \mapsto (1, 4)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0			3	
1		1			4
2	5		2		

$$5 \mapsto (2, 0)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

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$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6		3	
1		1			4
2	5		2		

$$6 \mapsto (0, 1)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

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$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6		3	
1		1	7		4
2	5		2		

$$7 \mapsto (1, 2)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

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Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6		3	
1		1	7		4
2	5		2	8	

$$8 \mapsto (2, 3)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

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$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6		3	9
1		1	7		4
2	5		2	8	

$$9 \mapsto (0, 4)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6		3	9
1	10	1	7		4
2	5		2	8	

$$10 \mapsto (1, 0)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

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Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6		3	9
1	10	1	7		4
2	5	11	2	8	

$$11 \mapsto (2, 1)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6	12	3	9
1	10	1	7		4
2	5	11	2	8	

$$12 \mapsto (0, 2)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6	12	3	9
1	10	1	7	13	4
2	5	11	2	8	

$$13 \mapsto (1, 3)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

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Example ($p = 3, q = 5$)

a \ b	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	6	12	3	9
1	10	1	7	13	4
2	5	11	2	8	14

$$14 \mapsto (2, 4)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 3$)

a \ b	0	1	2
0	0		
1			
2			

$$0 \mapsto (0, 0)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 3$)

a \ b	0	1	2
0	0		
1		1	
2			

$$1 \mapsto (1, 1)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

$$x \mapsto (x \bmod p, x \bmod q)$$

Example ($p = 3, q = 3$)

a \ b	0	1	2
0	0		
1		1	
2			2

$$2 \mapsto (2, 2)$$

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

if $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then the following function crt from numbers $0 \leq x < p \cdot q$ to pairs (a, b) with $0 \leq a < p$ and $0 \leq b < q$, is a bijection:

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Example ($p = 3, q = 3$)

a \ b	0	1	2
0	0		
1		1	
2			2

$3 \mapsto (0, 0)$ $\gcd(p, q) = 3 \neq 1$, crt **not** a bijection

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

Theorem (Chinese Remainder, bijection)

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Proof.

sufficient to prove **injectivity**.

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

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Proof.

sufficient to prove **injectivity**. suppose $0 \leq x, x' < p \cdot q$. if $\text{crt}(x) = \text{crt}(x')$, then $x \equiv x' \pmod{p}$ and $x \equiv x' \pmod{q}$, hence $p, q \mid x - x'$. Thus

$$p \cdot q = \frac{p \cdot q}{1} = \frac{p \cdot q}{\gcd(p, q)} = \text{lcm}(p, q) \mid x - x'$$

that is, solutions are $p \cdot q$ apart, so $x - x' = 0$ and $x = x'$.

Chinese remainder theorem, bijection

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that is, solutions are $p \cdot q$ apart, so $x - x' = 0$ and $x = x'$. ■

Theorem (Chinese remainder theorem, Bézout)

Let p and q be positive integers such that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, and let a and b be arbitrary integers. The congruence system

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

$$x \equiv b \pmod{q}$$

then has the unique solution $x \equiv vqa + upb \pmod{pq}$ where the integers u and v such that $up + vq = 1$ can be computed using Bézout's lemma.

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Proof.

- (existence) we show $x = v \cdot q \cdot a + u \cdot p \cdot b$ for $up + vq = 1$ satisfies equations:
 $x \equiv v \cdot q \cdot a + u \cdot p \cdot b \equiv v \cdot q \cdot a \equiv (1 - u \cdot p) \cdot a \equiv a - u \cdot p \cdot a \equiv a \pmod{p}$ and similarly for $x \equiv b \pmod{q}$
- (uniqueness)

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- (**uniqueness**) as before: if both x, x' are solutions to the two equations, then $p, q \mid (x - x')$, hence $\text{lcm}(p, q) = \frac{p \cdot q}{\gcd(p, q)} = p \cdot q \mid (x - x')$. That is, solutions are $p \cdot q$ apart, hence unique in $\{0, \dots, p \cdot q - 1\}$.

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Example

The following congruence system has the unique solution $x \equiv 16 \pmod{35}$

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

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

Example

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

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

We compute integers u and v , such that $u \cdot 5 + v \cdot 7 = \gcd(5, 7)$.

$$A = (5, 1, 0) \quad B = (7, 0, 1) \quad q = 0$$

$$A = (7, 0, 1) \quad B = (5, 1, 0) \quad q = 1$$

$$A = (5, 1, 0) \quad B = (2, -1, 1) \quad q = 2$$

$$A = (2, -1, -1) \quad B = (1, 3, -2) \quad q = 2$$

Hence $u = 3$, $v = -2$ and $\gcd(5, 7) = 3 \cdot 5 - 2 \cdot 7 = 1$, and therefore

$$\underbrace{-2}_{v} \cdot \underbrace{7}_{q} \cdot \underbrace{1}_{a} + \underbrace{3}_{u} \cdot \underbrace{5}_{p} \cdot \underbrace{2}_{b} = 16$$

By the theorem, the solution $x \equiv 16 \pmod{35}$ is unique

Chinese remainder, RSA

Theorem (Chinese remainder, RSA)

Let $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ and let p' be *inverse* of p modulo q , i.e. $p \cdot p' \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. Then

$$\begin{array}{l} x \equiv a \pmod{p} \\ x \equiv b \pmod{q} \end{array} \iff x \equiv a + p \cdot ((p' \cdot (b - a)) \pmod{q}) \pmod{p \cdot q}$$

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Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \Leftarrow x &\equiv a + p \cdot ((p' \cdot (b - a)) \bmod q) + k \cdot p \cdot q \equiv a \pmod{p} \\ x &\equiv a + p \cdot p' \cdot (b - a) + k \cdot p \cdot q \equiv a + b - a \equiv b \pmod{q} \end{aligned}$$

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Proof.

$$\Leftarrow x \equiv a + p \cdot ((p' \cdot (b - a)) \bmod q) + k \cdot p \cdot q \equiv a \pmod{p}$$

$$x \equiv a + p \cdot p' \cdot (b - a) + k \cdot p \cdot q \equiv a + b - a \equiv b \pmod{q}$$

\Rightarrow previous item shows rhs is a solution. now show it is **unique** modulo $p \cdot q$.

$0 \leq x, x' < p \cdot q$ being solutions entails $x \equiv x' \pmod{p}$ and $x \equiv x' \pmod{q}$, hence $p, q \mid x - x'$. Thus, $p \cdot q = \frac{p \cdot q}{\gcd(p, q)} = \text{lcm}(p, q) \mid x - x'$, so $x - x' = 0$ and $x = x'$. ■

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Example

Let $p = 3$, $q = 5$ (see above). Then $p' = 2$ ($3 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$). E.g. for $a = 1$ and $b = 2$, we obtain $x = 1 + 3 \cdot (2 \cdot (2 - 1) \bmod 5) = 7$, and 7 is indeed the number we find at coordinates $(a, b) = (1, 2)$ in the table on slide 17. For another example, at coordinate $(2, 1)$ in the table $x = 2 + 3 \cdot (2 \cdot (1 - 2) \bmod 5) = 2 + 3 \cdot (-2 \bmod 5) = 2 + 3 \cdot 3 = 11$.

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Application to RSA

Speed up computation of $c^d \pmod{p \cdot q}$ for $\gcd(p, q) = 1$?

Chinese remainder, RSA

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Application to RSA

Speed up computation of $c^d \pmod{p \cdot q}$ for $\gcd(p, q) = 1$?

- 1 compute $a := c^d \pmod{p}$; by FLT $c^d \equiv a \pmod{p}$

Chinese remainder, RSA

Theorem (Chinese remainder, RSA)

Let $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ and let p' be inverse of p modulo q , i.e. $p \cdot p' \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x &\equiv a \pmod{p} \\ x &\equiv b \pmod{q} \end{aligned} \iff x \equiv a + p \cdot ((p' \cdot (b - a)) \pmod{q}) \pmod{p \cdot q}$$

Application to RSA

Speed up computation of $c^d \pmod{p \cdot q}$ for $\gcd(p, q) = 1$?

- 1 compute $a := c^{d \bmod (p-1)} \pmod{p}$; by FLT $c^d \equiv a \pmod{p}$
- 2 compute $b := c^{d \bmod (q-1)} \pmod{q}$; by FLT $c^d \equiv b \pmod{q}$

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- 2 compute $b := c^{d \bmod (q-1)} \bmod q$; by FLT $c^d \equiv b \pmod{q}$
- 3 compute $m := a + p \cdot ((p' \cdot (b - a)) \bmod q) \bmod (p \cdot q)$; by CRT $m \equiv c^d \pmod{p \cdot q}$.