

## Summary on Lecture 15, May 2nd, 2016

**The Chinese remainder theorem, again**

Here is the main result:

**Theorem.** (Chinese Remainder Theorem) Let  $m_1, \dots, m_k$  be a collection of relatively prime numbers, and  $a_1, \dots, a_k$  be arbitrary integers. Then the system of congruences

$$(1) \quad \begin{cases} x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1} \\ \dots\dots\dots \\ x \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k} \end{cases}$$

has a solution  $x = c$ . If  $x = c$  and  $x = c'$  are both solutions of (1), then  $c \equiv c' \pmod{m_1 \cdots m_k}$ .

**Proof.** Assume that we already found a solution  $x = c_i$  of the congruences

$$(2) \quad \begin{cases} x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1} \\ \dots\dots\dots \\ x \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i} \end{cases}$$

where  $i < k$ . Then we look for a solution of the congruence  $x \equiv a_{i+1} \pmod{m_{i+1}}$  of the form  $x = c_i + m_1 \cdots m_i \cdot y$ . Then we have to solve the congruence

$$c_i + m_1 \cdots m_i \cdot y \equiv a_{i+1} \pmod{m_{i+1}}$$

Since  $\gcd(m_{i+1}, m_1 \cdots m_i) = 1$ , we can find  $\ell$  such that

$$\ell \cdot (m_1 \cdots m_i) \equiv 1 \pmod{m_{i+1}}$$

We have that

$$\ell \cdot c_i + \ell \cdot (m_1 \cdots m_i) \cdot y \equiv \ell \cdot a_{i+1} \pmod{m_{i+1}} \quad \text{or} \quad y \equiv \ell \cdot (a_{i+1} - c_i).$$

Then we find  $x$  as  $x \equiv c_i + m_1 \cdots m_i \cdot y \pmod{m_{i+1}}$ . □

**Example.** We solve the system of congruences:

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\ x \equiv 3 \pmod{7} \\ x \equiv 4 \pmod{16} \end{cases}$$

We solve  $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ :  $x = 2 + 3y$ . We write  $2 + 3y \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ . We have the equation  $3y \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ . Since  $3^{-1} = 5 \pmod{7}$ , we have:

$$5 \cdot 3 \cdot y \equiv 5 \pmod{7}, \quad \text{or} \quad y \equiv 5 \pmod{7}.$$

We have that  $y = 5 + 7z$ . We obtain  $x = 2 + 3(5 + 7z) = 17 + 21z$ . Then we write  $17 + 21z \equiv 4 \pmod{16}$ . This is the same as  $1 + 5z \equiv 4 \pmod{16}$ , or we get the congruence

$$5z \equiv 3 \pmod{16}.$$

We find that  $5^{-1} = 13 \pmod{16}$  (indeed,  $5 \cdot 13 = 65 \equiv 1 \pmod{16}$ ). Then we obtain:

$$z \equiv 13 \cdot 3 \equiv 7 \pmod{16}, \quad \text{or} \quad z = 7 + 16w.$$

We obtain:

$$x = 17 + 21z = 17 + 21 \cdot (7 + 16w) = 17 + 147 + 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 16w = 164 + 3 \cdot 7 \cdot 16w,$$

where  $w$  is an arbitrary integer. A minimal positive solution is  $x = 164$ .

**Generalization of the Fermat's Little Theorem.**

According to the Fermat's Little Theorem, for given prime  $p$  and any integer  $a$ ,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1$  unless  $a$  is divisible by  $p$ . We would like to investigate what happens with the powers mod  $n = p_1 \cdot p_2$  (product of two primes).

**Example.** Let  $n = 15 = 3 \cdot 5$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} a^4 &\equiv 1 \pmod{15} && \text{if } a = 1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 11, 13, 14, \\ a^4 &\not\equiv 1 \pmod{15} && \text{if } a = 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12. \end{aligned}$$

Check it. Why do we have  $a^4 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{15}$  for particular values  $a = 3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12$ ? We can notice that all these numbers have common factors with 15. This suggests that some version of the Fermat's Little Theorem should hold for a product of two primes. Here is the result which plays a fundamental role for the RSA public key cryptosystem. This theorem is also known as the Euler formula for the product of two primes.

**Theorem 2.** Let  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  be distinct primes, and let  $d = \gcd(p_1 - 1, p_2 - 1)$ . Assume an integer  $a$  is such that  $\gcd(a, p_1 p_2) = 1$ . Then  $a^{\frac{(p_1-1)(p_2-1)}{d}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_1 p_2}$ .

**Proof.** By assumption,  $d$  has to divide  $p_2 - 1$ , and  $\gcd(a, p_1) = 1$ . In particular, we have that  $a^{(p_1-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_1}$  by the Fermat's Little Theorem. Then we have:

$$\begin{aligned} a^{\frac{(p_1-1)(p_2-1)}{d}} &= \left( a^{(p_1-1)} \right)^{\frac{(p_2-1)}{d}} \\ &\equiv 1^{\frac{(p_2-1)}{d}} \pmod{p_1} \\ &\equiv 1 \pmod{p_1}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly we prove that  $a^{\frac{(p_1-1)(p_2-1)}{d}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p_2}$ . It means that the difference

$$a^{\frac{(p_1-1)(p_2-1)}{d}} - 1$$

is divisible by both  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ . Hence it is divisible by  $p_1 p_2$ , or  $a^{\frac{(p_1-1)(p_2-1)}{d}} - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p_1 p_2}$ .  $\square$

Now we are almost ready to describe the RSA public key cryptosystem. Two more theoretical exercises to go.

First, let us try to solve an equation of the form  $x^e \equiv c \pmod{p}$ , where  $x$  is an unknown,  $e, c$  are known integers, and  $p$  is a prime. We recall that if  $e$  is such number that  $\gcd(e, p-1) = 1$ , then there exists  $d$  such that

$$de \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}.$$

**Lemma 1.** Let  $p$  be a prime, and  $e$  be such that  $\gcd(e, p-1) = 1$ , giving us  $d$  be such that  $de \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}$ . Then the congruence  $x^e \equiv c \pmod{p}$  has a unique solution  $x \equiv c^d \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof.** First, assume that  $c \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Then  $x \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$  is the unique solution. Assume that  $c \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . The congruence  $de \equiv 1 \pmod{p-1}$  means that there exists  $k$  such that  $de = 1 + k(p-1)$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} (c^d)^e &= c^{de} \\ &= c^{1+k(p-1)} \\ &= c \cdot (c^{p-1})^k \\ &\equiv c \cdot 1^k \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv c \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

We see that  $x = c^d$  solves the congruence  $x^e \equiv c$ .  $\square$

**Exercise.** Prove that the solution  $x \equiv c^d \pmod{p}$  is unique.

**Example.** We solve  $x^{1583} \equiv 4714 \pmod{7919}$ , where 7919 is prime. For this, we solve the congruence  $d \cdot 1583 \equiv 1 \pmod{7918}$ . We find  $d \equiv 5277 \pmod{7918}$ . Then we use Lemma 1 to find  $x \equiv 4714^{5277} \pmod{7919}$ . We find  $x \equiv 6059 \pmod{7919}$ .