

1. Use the extended Euclidean algorithm to calculate the gcd and write it as a linear combination:

- (a)  $\gcd 4 = 4 \cdot 12 - 1 \cdot 44$
  - (b)  $\gcd 6 = -168 \cdot 20223 + 1681 \cdot 2022$
  - (c)  $\gcd 19 = 17 \cdot 12445 - 38 \cdot 5567$ ,
  - (d)  $\gcd 1 = -55 \cdot 233 + 89 \cdot 144$ .
- 

2. In general  $\bar{a}$  is a unit modulo  $m$  if and only if  $a$  is relatively prime to  $m$ . In this case use Euclid to write the gcd 1 as a linear combination  $1 = xa + ym$ : then  $xa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  so  $x = a^{-1}$ .

- (a) No, 10 and 25 not relatively prime.
  - (b) Yes, by Euclid, inverse is  $\overline{16}$ .
  - (c) Yes, by Euclid, inverse is  $\overline{23}$ .
  - (d) No, 30 and 42 not relatively prime.
  - (e) Yes, by Euclid, inverse is  $\overline{19}$ .
  - (f) No, 32 and 42 not relatively prime.
- 

3. Note that the order of any element modulo  $m$  divides  $\varphi(m)$ . We can then evaluate  $a^{\varphi(m)/p}$  for primes  $p$  dividing  $\varphi(m)$  to find the order. Also, if  $a$  has order  $n$ , then  $a^k$  has order  $n/\gcd(n, k)$ .

- (a) Note  $2^{12} \equiv 1$ , but  $2^6 \equiv -1$ ,  $2^4 \equiv 3$  so 2 has order 12. Also  $3^3 \equiv 1$  and  $3^1 \equiv 3$  so 3 has order 3.
  - (b) Note  $2^4 \equiv -1$  so  $2^8 \equiv 1$  so 2 has order 8. Then  $4 = 2^2$  has order  $8/\gcd(2, 8) = 4$  while  $8 = 2^3$  has order  $8/\gcd(3, 8) = 8$ .
  - (c) Note  $2^4 \equiv 1$  but  $2^2 \equiv 4$  so 2 has order 4. Then  $4 = 2^2$  has order 2, while  $8 = 2^3$  has order 4.
  - (d) Note  $3^4 \equiv 1$  but  $3^2 \equiv 9$  so 3 has order 4. Also  $5^2 \equiv 9$  so  $5^4 \equiv 1$  so 5 also has order 4. But  $15 \equiv -1$  has order 2.
  - (e) Use successive squaring: note  $5^2 \equiv 3$  so  $5^4 \equiv 9$  and thus  $5^5 \equiv 1$ , so 5 has order 5.
  - (f) Note  $2^2 \equiv 4$ ,  $2^4 \equiv 16$ ,  $2^8 \equiv -19$ ,  $2^{16} \equiv -24$ , so  $2^5 \equiv 32$ ,  $2^{10} \equiv -1$ , and  $2^{20} \equiv 1$ . Thus, 2 has order 20. Then  $4 = 2^2$  has order 10,  $8 = 2^3$  has order 20,  $16 = 2^4$  has order 5, and  $32 = 2^5$  has order 4.
- 

4. Here are answers with brief comments about the approach:

- (a) By Euclid,  $\gcd 8$ ,  $\text{lcm } 256 \cdot 520/8$ .
  - (b) By Euclid,  $\gcd 3$ ,  $\text{lcm } 921 \cdot 177/3$ .
  - (c) The gcd has the min power in each exponent while the lcm has the max:  $\gcd 2^3 3^2 5^4$ ,  $\text{lcm } 2^4 3^3 5^4 7 \cdot 11$ .
  - (d) We have  $\bar{4} + \bar{6} = \overline{10} = \bar{2}$ ,  $\bar{4} - \bar{6} = \overline{-2} = \bar{6}$ ,  $\bar{4} \cdot \bar{6} = \overline{24} = \bar{0}$ .
  - (e) By Euclid, we get  $\bar{4}^{-1} \equiv \overline{18}$ ,  $\bar{5}^{-1} \equiv \overline{57}$ ,  $\bar{6}^{-1} \equiv \overline{12}$ .
  - (f) Units are  $\{1, 3, 5, 9, 11, 13\}$ , zero divisors are  $\{2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12\}$ .
  - (g) Cancel 5 to get  $n \equiv 24 \pmod{38}$ .
  - (h) Cancel 2 to get  $3n \equiv 5 \pmod{50}$ , then multiply by  $3^{-1} \equiv 17$  to get  $n \equiv 35 \pmod{50}$ .
  - (i) Plug in  $n = 3 + 20a$  to  $n \equiv 4 \pmod{19}$  to get  $n \equiv 23 \pmod{380}$ .
  - (j) Plug in  $n = 7 + 14a$  to  $n \equiv 2 \pmod{9}$  to get  $n \equiv 119 \pmod{126}$ .
  - (k) Since 11 is prime, we have  $10! \equiv -1 \pmod{11}$  by Wilson's theorem.
  - (l) Since 47 is prime, we have  $2^{47} \equiv 2 \pmod{47}$  by Fermat's little theorem.
  - (m) Since  $\varphi(25) = 20$ , we have  $6^{20} \equiv 1 \pmod{25}$  by Euler's theorem.
  - (n)  $\varphi(121) = \varphi(11^2) = (11^2 - 11) = 110$  and  $\varphi(5^5 7^{10}) = (5^5 - 5^4)(7^{10} - 7^9)$ .
  - (o) 3 or 5, since they are the only elements with order 6 modulo 7.
  - (p) If  $x = 0.1\overline{25}$  then  $990x = 1000x - 10x = 125.\overline{25} - 1.\overline{25} = 124$ , so  $x = 124/990$ .
  - (q) 10 has order 2 mod 11, so  $7/11$  has period 2.
-

5. Here are brief responses:

- (a) The Caesar shift is insecure because it can be broken very easily by hand: it has only 26 possible decodings, which is easy to brute-force, and other methods like frequency analysis can break it even more efficiently.
  - (b) Finding the four decodings of a single Rabin ciphertext  $c$  does allow rapid factorization of the modulus: if the decodings are  $\pm m$  and  $\pm w$  then  $\gcd(m + w, N)$  will be one of the prime factors of  $N$ . If Eve is able to obtain the four decodings of any single ciphertext, she can factor  $N$ : for this reason Rabin encryption is not suitable for modern use.
  - (c) It is generally believed that RSA encryption is difficult to break on a general message. Finding a general decryption exponent is essentially equivalent in most cases to calculating  $\varphi(N)$  which as shown on the homework is equivalent to factoring  $N$ .
  - (d) Using a zero-knowledge protocol like the Rabin protocol described in class, where Peggy proves to an arbitrarily high probability that she knows the square root of a particular value  $s^2$  modulo  $N = pq$ , will allow Peggy to convince Victor that she knows the secret  $s$  without revealing any information that makes  $s$  easily calculable.
  - (e) Using primality/compositeness tests like the Fermat test, the Lucas primality criterion, or Miller-Rabin, allow for rapid and accurate testing of primality even for very large integers.
  - (f) Among the various factorization algorithms discussed in class like trial division, Pollard  $p - 1$ , Pollard  $\rho$ , and the sieving methods, none allows for extremely fast factorization of large integers (factoring integers more than 100 base-10 digits takes a huge amount of time and memory).
- 

6. Here are brief outlines of each proof:

- (a) Induct on  $n$  with base case  $n = 1$ . Inductive step: If  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^n}$ , then  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$  as required.
  - (b) Note  $p|a \cdot a$ , so since  $p$  is prime then  $p|a$  or  $p|a$ . Since the two conclusion statements are the same, we have  $p|a$ .
  - (c) If  $p$  is prime and  $p|k^2$  and  $p|(k + 1)^2$  then by (b) we have  $p|k$  and  $p|(k + 1)$  so that  $p|(k + 1) - k = 1$ , impossible.
  - (d) Suppose  $xy = 0$ . Then  $(ux)y = u(xy) = u0 = 0$ , and also  $ux \neq 0$  since multiplying by  $u^{-1}$  would give  $x = 0$  (impossible). So  $ux$  is also a zero divisor.
  - (e) Note  $\varphi(18) = 6$ . Then  $5^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{18}$  by Euler, but  $5^2 \equiv 7$  and  $5^3 \equiv -1 \pmod{18}$ , so order does not divide 2 or 3, hence must be 6.
  - (f) Induct on  $n$ . Base case  $n = 1$ . Inductive step: if  $b_n = 2^n + n$  then  $b_{n+1} = 2(2^n + n) - n + 1 = 2^{n+1} + (n + 1)$ .
  - (g) Induct on  $n$ . Base case  $n = 1$ :  $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ . Inductive step: if  $\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \dots + \frac{1}{n \cdot (n+1)} = \frac{n}{n+1}$  then  $\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \dots + \frac{1}{n \cdot (n+1)} + \frac{1}{(n+1) \cdot (n+2)} = \frac{n}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1) \cdot (n+2)} = \frac{n+1}{n+2}$  as required.
  - (h) Note  $4^{239} \equiv 4 \pmod{239}$  by Fermat, so  $4^{240} \equiv 4 \cdot 4 \equiv 16 \pmod{239}$ . Likewise, since  $\varphi(55) = 40$ ,  $4^{40} \equiv 1 \pmod{55}$  by Euler, so  $2^{240} \equiv (2^{40})^6 \equiv 1^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{55}$ .
  - (i) By Euler,  $a^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  for every unit, and  $0^4 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$ . Then the sum of three fourth powers is 0, 1, 2, or 3 mod 5, hence cannot be 2024 since 2024 is 4 mod 5.
  - (j) Note that  $a^3 \equiv a \pmod{3}$  by Fermat, and also  $a^2 \equiv a \pmod{2}$  so  $a^3 \equiv a^2 \equiv a \pmod{2}$  also by Fermat. So  $a^3 - a$  is divisible by both 2 and 3 hence by 6.
  - (k) Induct on  $n$  with base cases  $n = 1$  and  $n = 2$ . Inductive step: if  $d_n = 2^n$  and  $d_{n-1} = 2^{n-1}$  then  $d_{n+1} = 2^n + 2(2^{n-1}) = 2^n + 2^n = 2^{n+1}$  as required.
    - (l) If  $a = b$  then  $\gcd(a, a) = a = \text{lcm}(a, a)$ . Conversely if  $\gcd(a, b) = \text{lcm}(a, b)$  then every prime must appear to the same power in the prime factorizations of  $a$  and  $b$  (since otherwise the higher power would be the power in the lcm and the lower power would be the power in the gcd), hence  $a = b$ .
  - (m) Note  $3^1 \equiv 3$ ,  $3^2 \equiv 9$ ,  $3^4 \equiv 81 \equiv 20$ ,  $3^8 \equiv 400 \equiv 34$ . So  $3^{10} \equiv 3^8 \cdot 3^2 \equiv 34 \cdot 9 \equiv 1$  so the order divides 10. But  $3^5 \equiv 3^4 \cdot 3 \equiv 60$  and  $3^2 \equiv 9$ , so the order does not divide 2 or 5, so it is 10.
  - (n) If  $p \leq 100$  is prime then  $p|99!$  so  $p$  does not divide  $99! - 1$ . By Wilson's theorem,  $99! \equiv 100!/100 \equiv 100/100 \equiv 1 \pmod{101}$ , so 101 does divide  $99! - 1$ .
  - (o) Note  $\gcd(n, n + p) = \gcd(n, p)$  by gcd properties. Then  $\gcd(n, p)$  divides  $p$  so is either 1 or  $p$ , and it is equal to  $p$  if and only if  $p|n$  (by definition of gcd).
-