

# MAS114: Lecture 18

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*Cryptography* is the study of how to send messages in a form which cannot be read except by the intended recipients. To *encrypt* the messages is to put them in a form which cannot be read easily; to *decrypt* the messages is to take such messages and recover them in readable form.

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Alice and Bob are of course named so that the message goes from *A* to *B*. Eve is so named because she is an *eavesdropper*, or perhaps because she is *evil*.

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The problem with this old-time approach is that the same secret is used to encrypt and decrypt the message, so needs exchanging.

# Public-key cryptography

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5. Alice sends Bob the encrypted message.
6. Bob uses his private key to decrypt it, and read Alice's message.

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# Fermat-Euler for $pq$



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## Proposition

*Let  $p$  and  $q$  be different primes. Then the number  $\varphi(pq)$ , of integers from 1 to  $pq$  coprime to  $pq$ , is given by*

$$\varphi(pq) = (p - 1)(q - 1).$$

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Hence  $q + p - 1$  are not coprime to  $pq$ , and so

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### Remark

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

for all  $k$ .

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$$m^e \pmod{pq}$$

and sends it on to Bob.

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Hence, using his private key, Bob can recover what  $m$  was from being told  $m^e$ .

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Suppose Alice decides she needs to send Bob message 1245, which they've agreed in advance should mean "please meet me after this lecture".



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So she sends Bob 8763.

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Bob receives this, and his task then is to calculate  $8763^{431}$  modulo 10403.

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So she sends Bob 8763.

Bob receives this, and his task then is to calculate  $8763^{431}$  modulo 10403. A similar strategy makes this possible, too, and he finds that

$$8763^{431} \equiv 1245 \pmod{10403},$$

so he has reconstructed Alice's message.

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The result that set the ancient Greeks thinking was this:

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## Theorem

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*There is no rational number  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $x^2 = 2$ .*

## Proof.

We'll prove this by contradiction; suppose there is such a number  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Because it's in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , it takes the form  $x = p/q$  for some integers  $p$  and  $q$  with  $q \neq 0$ .

We may as well take  $p$  and  $q$  to be coprime ("in lowest terms"). Then we have  $p^2/q^2 = x^2 = 2$ , so  $p^2 = 2q^2$  with  $p$  and  $q$  coprime. Now, the right-hand side is even (it's given as a multiple of 2, so the left-hand side,  $p^2$  must be even too. That means that  $p$  itself must be even: so we can write  $p = 2r$ .

Then we have  $(2r)^2 = 2q^2$ , which simplifies to  $4r^2 = 2q^2$ , or  $2r^2 = q^2$ . Here the left-hand side is even, so  $q^2$  must be even. Hence  $q$  itself must be even.

This is a contradiction:  $p$  and  $q$  can't both be even. So our initial assumption is absurd, and there is no rational  $x$  with  $x^2 = 2$ . □

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But I want to flag that up as being possibly inappropriate: our aim in this section is to define the reals. We shouldn't even be confident that  $\sqrt{2}$  exists yet.

However, thanks to this theorem, we can be confident at least that there's no number *inside*  $\mathbb{Q}$  which deserves to be called  $\sqrt{2}$ .

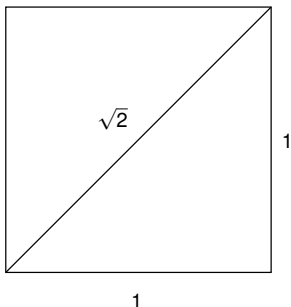
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This, to the Greeks, was evidence that there was a world beyond  $\mathbb{Q}$ ; a world of *irrational numbers* (numbers not in  $\mathbb{Q}$ ). They needed a number called  $\sqrt{2}$ , so they could talk about the diagonal of a unit square:





# Irrational numbers today

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