

Wed Nov 20

HW 5 due Friday
NO CLASS NEXT WEEK.

Today: More about the Binomial Theorem.

Recall the definition of binomial coefficients:

$$(1+x)^n =: \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1}x + \binom{n}{2}x^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n}x^n$$

i.e. $\binom{n}{k} :=$ coefficient of x^k in $(1+x)^n$.

We also define

$$\binom{n}{k} = 0 \text{ for } k < 0 \text{ or } k > n.$$

★ Theorem: For all $n, k \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n \geq 0$, we have

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1}.$$

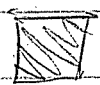
Proof Sketch: Observe that

$$(1+x)^n = (1+x)(1+x)^{n-1}$$

$$(1+x)^n = 1(1+x)^{n-1} + x(1+x)^{n-1}.$$

Then $\binom{n}{k}$ is the coeff of x^k on the left +

$\binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1}$ is the coeff of x^k on the right.



This allows us to compute $\binom{n}{k}$ recursively using Pascal's Triangle. The recurrence has initial conditions

$$\binom{0}{k} = \begin{cases} 1 & k=0 \\ 0 & k \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Example:

$$\begin{array}{cccccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ & & 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ & & & 0 & 1 & 3 & 3 & 1 & 0 \\ & & & & 1 & 4 & 6 & 4 & 1 \end{array}$$

\implies

$$(1+x)^4 = 1 + 4x + 6x^2 + 4x^3 + x^4.$$

But what if I just need to know $\binom{77}{18}$,
without computing the whole triangle?

We want a "formula" for $\binom{n}{k}$.

Def: Given $n \geq 1$, define the factorial

$$n! := n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

We also define $0! = 1$ (You'll see why.)

Then we have

Theorem: For $n \geq 0$ and $0 \leq k \leq n$ we have

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Proof: We will use induction on n (k is
just along for the ride). So let

$$P(n) := \left(\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \text{ for all } 0 \leq k \leq n \right)$$

We want to prove that $P(n) = \top \quad \forall n \geq 0$.

• Base Case: Note that $P(0) = T$ because

$$\binom{0}{0} = 1 = \frac{0!}{0!0!} \quad \checkmark$$

• Induction Step: Fix $N-1 \geq 1$ and assume for induction that $P(N-1) = T$. In this case we want to show that $P(N) = T$.

First note that

$$\binom{N}{0} = 1 = \frac{N!}{0!N!} \quad \checkmark$$

$$\binom{N}{N} = 1 = \frac{N!}{N!0!} \quad \checkmark$$

Now assume that $0 < k < N$.

Then we have

$$\binom{N}{k} = \binom{N-1}{k} + \binom{N-1}{k-1} \quad \text{by Theorem } \star$$

$$= \frac{(N-1)!}{k!(N-1-k)!} + \frac{(N-1)!}{(k-1)!(N-k)!} \quad \text{since } P(N-1) = T.$$

(Now we find a common denominator. Note that

$$k! = k(k-1)! \quad \text{and} \quad (N-k)! = (N-k)(N-1-k)!)$$

$$= \frac{(N-k)(N-1)!}{(N-k)k!(N-1-k)!} + \frac{k(N-1)!}{k(k-1)!(N-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{(N-k)(N-1)! + k(N-1)!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{(N-k+k)(N-1)!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{N(N-1)!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{N!}{k!(N-k)!}$$

Hence $P(N) = T$. ///

We conclude that $P(n) = T \quad \forall n \geq 0$.

Example: The coeff of x^7 in $(1+x)^{10}$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{10}{7} &= \frac{10!}{7!3!} = \frac{10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot \cancel{7} \cdot \cancel{6} \cdot \cancel{5} \cdot \cancel{4} \cdot \cancel{3} \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{\cancel{7} \cdot \cancel{6} \cdot \cancel{5} \cdot \cancel{4} \cdot \cancel{3} \cdot 2 \cdot 1} \\ &= \frac{10^{\cancel{3}} \cdot 9^{\cancel{4}}}{\cancel{3} \cdot \cancel{2} \cdot 1} \\ &= 10 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 = 120.\end{aligned}$$

That's nice but the proof is not enlightening.
Where does the formula

$$\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \text{ come from } \left. \begin{array}{c} ? \\ ? \end{array} \right\} \text{ I.O.U.}$$

We will use this to prove the

"Freshman's Dream":

For all $a, b, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with p prime we have

$$(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}.$$

Fri Nov 22

HW 5 due NOW

NO CLASS NEXT WEEK

HW 6 due Fri Dec 6

Exam 3 Mon Dec 9 in class

THE END.

Current Goal: Prove that $\forall a, p \in \mathbb{Z}$
with p prime we have

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

Recall: We proved last time that

$$(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} x^k$$

for all integers $n \geq 0$.

What about a general binomial?

Example:

$$\begin{aligned}(a+b)^3 &= (a+b)(a+b)^2 \\ &= (a+b)(a^2+2ab+b^2) \\ &= (a^3+2a^2b+ab^2) + (a^2b+2ab^2+b^3) \\ &= a^3+3a^2b+3ab^2+b^3\end{aligned}$$

★ The Binomial Theorem: For $n \geq 0$ we have

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} a^{n-k} b^k$$

Proof: If $a=0$ we get

$$(0+b)^n = \underbrace{\binom{n}{0} 0^n + \binom{n}{1} 0^{n-1} b + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} 0^1 b^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} 0^0 b^n}_{\text{all zeros}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} b^n &= \binom{n}{n} 0^0 b^n \\ &= b^n \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

[Convention: we will say $0^0 = 1$.]

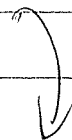
If $a \neq 0$ we substitute $x = \frac{b}{a}$ to get

$$\left(1 + \frac{b}{a}\right)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^k$$

$$\left(\frac{a+b}{a}\right)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{b^k}{a^k}$$

Multiply both sides by a^n to get

$$\frac{a^n (a+b)^n}{a^n} = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{a^n b^k}{a^k}$$



$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$



Now we can prove

★ Freshman's Dream: $\forall a, b, p \in \mathbb{Z}$
with p prime we have

$$(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}$$

Proof: By Binomial Theorem we have

$$(a+b)^p = a^p + \underbrace{\binom{p}{1} a^{p-1} b + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} a b^{p-1}}_{\text{claim: this is divisible by } p} + b^p$$

claim: this is divisible
by p .

We will show that for $0 < k < p$ we
have $p \mid \binom{p}{k}$. Indeed, we know
that

$$\binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

so the denominator divides the numerator.



Note that $p \mid p! = p(p-1)(p-2) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$.
But p does not divide the denominator

(Suppose $p \mid k!(p-k)!$

$$p \mid k(k-1) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 (p-k)(p-k-1) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

By Euclid's Lemma, p divides some number on the right. But since $0 < k < p$, all the numbers on the right are smaller than p .

We conclude that $p \mid \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!}$.

Hence

$$(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + 0 + b^p \pmod{p}.$$



Mon Dec 2

Welcome Back!

HW 6 due Fri Dec 6

Exam 3 Mon Dec 9

NO FINAL EXAM

Where were we?

Recall the Binomial Theorem:

$\forall a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $n \geq 0$ we have

$$(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} a^{n-k} b^k$$

This leads to the Freshman's Dream:

$\forall a, b, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with p prime we have

$$(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}$$

This leads to Fermat's little Theorem:

$\forall a, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with p prime we have

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

which can be restated as:

$\forall a, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ (i.e. $p \nmid a$)
we have

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

Finally, you will prove an HW 6 that

$\forall a, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ with p, q prime and
 $\gcd(a, pq) = 1$ (i.e. $p \nmid a$ and $q \nmid a$)
we have

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

This is the foundation of modern
(i.e. "public key") cryptography

★ The RSA Cryptosystem

Alice wants to be able to receive secret
messages from anyone in the world.

① Alice selects two large primes $p \neq q$
and computes $n = pq$.

She chooses random $1 < e < (p-1)(q-1)$
with $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$.

She uses Euclidean algorithm to find
 $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$ex + (p-1)(q-1)y = 1$$

She defines $d := x \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$
so that

$$ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$$

Proof: $ed \equiv ex \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
 $\equiv 1 - \cancel{(p-1)(q-1)}y \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
 $\equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$

Alice publishes (e, n) , the PUBLIC
ENCRYPTION KEY

and keeps secret (d, n) , the PRIVATE
DECRYPTION KEY.

(2) To send Alice a secret message:

Obtain her public key (e, n) .

Convert your message to an integer $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $0 \leq m < n$

Compute $c := m^e \pmod{n}$ with $0 \leq c < n$.

Send the integer c to Alice.

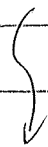
(3) Alice decrypts the message as follows:

Alice receives $0 \leq c < n$.

Using her private key (d, n) she computes

$$r := c^d \pmod{n} \text{ with } 0 \leq r < n.$$

Theorem: r equals the message m



Proof: Recall that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$
So we have

$$ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1) \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

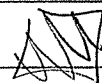
Then working mod $n = pq$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} r &\equiv c^d \\ &\equiv (m^e)^d \\ &\equiv m^{ed} \\ &\equiv m^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \\ &\equiv m \left(m^{(p-1)(q-1)} \right)^k \pmod{pq}. \end{aligned}$$

Assume now that $p \nmid m$ and $q \nmid m$.
Then by HW 6.4, we have

$$\begin{aligned} r &\equiv m \left(m^{(p-1)(q-1)} \right)^k \\ &\equiv m(1)^k \\ &\equiv m \pmod{pq}. \end{aligned}$$

In the (very unlikely) case that $p \mid m$
or $q \mid m$, the proof involves the
"Chinese Remainder Theorem" which
we didn't discuss.



Issues :

• Why is this secure?

Eve the eavesdropper has access to

e, n and c

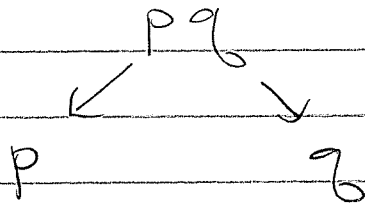
she wants to know m .

It's enough to know $(p-1)(q-1)$ since then she can compute

$$d \equiv e^{-1} \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$$

and $m \equiv c^d \pmod{n}$.

Idea: To get $(p-1)(q-1)$ from pq she must factor



But this is computationally HARD!