# Basic Number theory

Prof. Ashok K Bhateja, IIT Delhi

#### Algorithms Complexity

- **Polynomial-time algorithm** is an algorithm whose worst-case running time function is of the form  $O(n^k)$ , where n is the input size and k is a constant.
- **Subexponential-time algorithm** is an algorithm whose worst-case running time function is of the form  $e^{O(n)}$ , where n is the input size.
  - A subexponential-time algorithm is asymptotically faster than an algorithm whose running time is fully exponential in the input size, while it is asymptotically slower than a polynomial-time algorithm.
- Definition: **Decision problems**, i.e., problems which have either YES or NO as an answer.

### Algorithms Complexity

- The **complexity class NP** is the class of problems that can be verified by a polynomial-time algorithm.
- Definition The **complexity class NP** is the set of all decision problems for which a YES answer can be verified in polynomial time using some extra information, called a certificate.
- Example: COMPOSITES belongs to NP because if an integer n is composite, then this fact can be verified in polynomial time if one is given a divisor a of n, where 1 < a < n (the certificate in this case consists of the divisor a).

#### NP Complete

Definition Let  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  be two decision problems.  $L_1$  is said to polytime reduce to  $L_2$ , written  $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ , if there exists a polynomial-time computable function f such that  $f(L_1) = L_2$ .

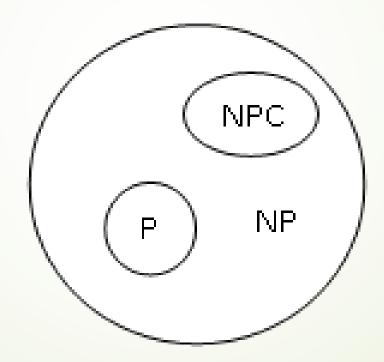
This function f is called the **reduction function**, and a polynomial-time algorithm that computes f is a **reduction algorithm**.

- Definition A decision problem L is said to be NP-complete if
  - 1.  $L \in NP$  and
  - 2.  $L_1 \leq_p L$  for every  $L_1 \in NP$ .

Example: Subset sum problem, clique problem, vertex cover problem

■ If a problem L satisfies property 2, but not necessarily property 1, we say that L is *NP-hard*.

Example (NP-hard problem): Given positive integers  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$  and a positive integer s, finding a subset of the  $a_i$  which sums to s, provided that such a subset exists. This problem is NP-hard.



#### **Greatest Common Divisor**

- Definition: An integer c is a **common divisor** of a and b if c/a and c/b.
- Definition A non-negative integer d is the greatest common divisor of integers a and b, denoted  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ , if
  - 1. d is a common divisor of a and b; and
  - 2. whenever c/a and c/b, then c/d.
- Example: The common divisors of 12 and 18 are  $\{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 6\}$ , and gcd (12, 18) = 6.
- ► Fact: For any integer  $k \neq 0$ , gcd  $(ka, kb) = |k| \gcd(a, b)$ .

# Euclidean algorithm or Euclid's algorithm

- It is an efficient method for computing GCD of two numbers, the largest number that divides both without leaving a remainder.
- It is named after the ancient Greek mathematician Euclid.

```
For two given numbers a and b, such that a \ge b
```

```
if b / a, then gcd(a, b) = b,
```

otherwise  $gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, a \mod b)$ .

#### Euclidean algorithm (Example)

$$138 = 1 \times 105 + 33$$

$$105 = 3 \times 33 + 6$$

$$33 = 5 \times 6 + 3$$

$$6 = 2 \times 3 + 0$$

Therefore gcd (138, 105) = 3

■ If gcd(a, b) = 1, then a and b are said to be coprime (or relatively prime) e.g., 6 and 35

Fact: If a and b are not both zero, then for any integers x and y gcd (a, b) | (ax + by).

(Bezout's Theorem): If a and b are integers, not both zero, then there are integers x and y such that  $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$ .

Use the Euclidean Algorithm to determine the GCD, then work backwards using substitution.

gcd (138, 105)
$$3 = 33 - 5 \times 6$$
 $138 = 1 \times 105 + 33$  $3 = 33 - 5 \times (105 - 3 \times 33)$  $105 = 3 \times 33 + 6$  $3 = 16 \times 33 - 5 \times 105$  $33 = 5 \times 6 + 3$  $3 = 16 \times (138 - 1 \times 105) - 5 \times 105$  $6 = 2 \times 3 + 0$  $3 = 16 \times 138 - 21 \times 105$ 

Lemma: If a and b are integers such that there are integers x and y with ax + by = 1, then gcd(a, b) = 1.

#### Congruences

- Given three integers a, b and n; a is congruent to b modulo n i.e., write  $a \equiv b \mod n$ , if the difference a b is divisible by n.
- $\blacksquare$  *n* is called the modulus of the congruence.
- Theorem: Let  $a, a', b, b', n \in \mathbb{Z}$  with n > 0. If  $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$  and  $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$ , then

$$a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{n}$$
 and  $a \cdot b \equiv a' \cdot b' \pmod{n}$ .

Theorem: Let  $a, x, y \in Z$  and  $n \in N$ . Then

$$a \ x \equiv a \ y \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow x \equiv y \pmod{n/\gcd(a, n)}.$$

If  $a x \equiv a y \pmod{n}$  and  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , then  $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ 

Proof. Observe first that when gcd(a, n) = 1, then

$$n \mid a (x - y) \Leftrightarrow n \mid (x - y).$$

i.e. whenever (a, n) = 1,

 $a x \equiv a y \pmod{n}$  implies  $x \equiv y \pmod{n}$ 

When gcd(a, n) > 1, on the other hand, one does at least have

$$\left(\frac{a}{\gcd(a,n)}, \frac{n}{\gcd(a,n)}\right) = 1$$
, so that

$$n \mid a(x-y) \Leftrightarrow \frac{n}{\gcd(a,n)} \mid \frac{a}{\gcd(a,n)} (x-y) \Leftrightarrow \frac{n}{\gcd(a,n)} \mid (x-y)$$

# Multiplicative Inverse of a modulo n

Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ . The **multiplicative inverse of** a **modulo** n is an integer  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ , s.t.,  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . If such an x exists, then it is unique, and a is said to be invertible, or a unit.

**Theorem:** If ax + by = 1 then  $x^{-1} \mod y \equiv a$ 

Proof: ax + by = 1

Taking mod y both sides

 $ax \mod y + by \mod y \equiv 1 \mod y$ 

 $\Rightarrow ax \mod y \equiv 1 \Rightarrow x^{-1} \mod y \equiv a$ 

# Multiplicative Inverse: Example

Find 35<sup>-1</sup> mod 51

$$51 = 1 \times 35 + 16$$
  
 $35 = 2 \times 16 + 3$   
 $16 = 5 \times 3 + 1$   
 $16 = 5 \times 3 + 1 \Rightarrow 1 = 16 - 5 \times 3$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 = 16 - 5 \times (35 - 2 \times 16)$  because  $3 = 35 - 2 \times 16$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 = 11 \times 16 + (-5) \times 35$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 = 11 \times (51 - 1 \times 35) + (-5) \times 35$   
 $\Rightarrow 1 = 11 \times 51 + (-16) \times 35$ 

Taking mod 51 both side  $(-16) \times 35 \equiv 1 \mod 51 \implies 35^{-1} \mod 51 \equiv -16$ or  $35^{-1} \mod 51 \equiv 35$  Theorem: If a and b are integers, m is a positive integer. Given the congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

- 1. If gcd(a, m) = 1, then the congruence has a unique solution.
- 2. If gcd(a, m) = d and  $d \mid b$ , then the congruence has d solutions.
- 3. If gcd(a, m) = d and  $d \nmid b$ , then the congruence has no solution.

Proof : Case 1: Let y be another solution to  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ 

$$ax \equiv ay \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow a (x - y) \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$$

then m divides a(x - y) and as m and a are relatively prime and have no factors in common, m divides x - y.

Hence  $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ .

As gcd (a, m) = 1,  $\exists$  integers x and y s.t.  $ax + my \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ 

i.e.,  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ . Hence x is a unique solution to  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

AK Bhateja IIT Delhi

Theorem: If a and b are integers, m is a positive integer. Given the congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

- 1. If gcd(a, m) = 1, then the congruence has a unique solution.
- 2. If gcd(a, m) = d and  $d \mid b$ , then the congruence has d solutions.
- 3. If gcd(a, m) = d and  $d \nmid b$ , then the congruence has no solution.

Case 2: gcd(a, m) = d and  $d \mid b$ .

Let m' = m/d and a' = a/d; gcd (a', m') = 1

Then  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m} \implies ax - b$  is divisible by m

 $\Rightarrow$  a'd x - dk is divisible by m'd. So, a'x - k is divisible by m'

or  $a'x \equiv k \pmod{m'}$  which has exactly one solution.

Let that solution be g. Any solution x must be so that  $x \equiv g \pmod{m'}$ 

 $\implies$  there are d such x, where x = g + jm';  $0 \le j < d$ 

Theorem: If a and b are integers, m is a positive integer. Given the congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

- 1. If gcd(a, m) = 1, then the congruence has a unique solution.
- 2. If gcd(a, m) = d and  $d \mid b$ , then the congruence has d solutions.
- 3. If gcd(a, m) = d and  $d \nmid b$ , then the congruence has no solution.

Proof : Case 3: Suppose that  $x_0$  is a solution of  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

 $\therefore ax_0 \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , hence,  $ax_0 - b = km$  for some integer k.

Since  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid m$  it follows that  $d \mid b$ .

By contraposition, if  $d \nmid b$ , then no solution exists to  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

#### Prime Number

An integer  $p \ge 2$  is said to be **prime** if its only positive divisors are 1 and p. Otherwise, p is called composite.

**Prime Number Theorem:** Let  $\pi(x)$  denotes the number of prime numbers  $\leq x$ . Then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{x/ln(x)} = 1$$

i.e., for large values of x,  $\pi(x)$  is closely approximated by the expression  $x/\ln(x)$ . e.g. for  $x = 10^{10}$ ,  $\pi(x) = 455,052,511$ .

#### Euler phi-function

Let n be a positive integer. The Euler phi-function  $\varphi(n)$  is defined as  $\varphi(n)$  = number of nonnegative integers less than n which are co-prime to n. Properties of Euler phi-function:

- 1.  $\varphi(1) = 1$
- 2. If p is a prime, then  $\varphi(p) = p 1$
- 3. If gcd (m, n) = 1, then  $\varphi(mn) = \varphi(m) \cdot \varphi(n)$  i.e., Euler phi function is multiplicative.
- 4. If  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdot p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$  is the prime factorization of n, then  $\phi(n) = \left(p_1^{\alpha_1} p_1^{\alpha_1 1}\right) \cdot \left(p_2^{\alpha_2} p_2^{\alpha_2 1}\right) \cdots \left(p_k^{\alpha_k} p_k^{\alpha_k 1}\right)$   $= n \left(1 1/p_1\right) \cdot \left(1 1/p_2\right) \cdots \left(1 1/p_k\right).$

#### Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT)

Let  $m_1, m_2 \dots m_r$  be relatively coprime. Then the system of equations

$$x \equiv a_1 \bmod m_1$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \mod m_2$$

$$x \equiv a_r \mod m_r$$

has a unique solution  $x \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{r} a_i N_i z_i \mod N$ 

where 
$$N = m_1 ... m_r$$
,  $N_i = \frac{N}{m_i}$  and  $z_i = N_i^{-1} \mod m_i$ 

#### CRT: Example

Example: Solve the system of congruences

$$x \equiv 1 \mod 3$$

$$x \equiv 4 \mod 5$$

$$x \equiv 6 \mod 7$$

Solution: Here 
$$N = 105$$
,  $N_1 = 35$ ,  $N_2 = 21$ ,  $N_3 = 15$ 

$$x \equiv \{(1 \cdot 35 \cdot 35^{-1} \mod 3) + (4 \cdot 21 \cdot 21^{-1} \mod 5) + (6 \cdot 15 \cdot 15^{-1} \mod 7)\} \mod 105$$

$$x \equiv \{(1 \cdot 35 \cdot 2) + (4 \cdot 21 \cdot 1) + (6 \cdot 15 \cdot 1)\} \bmod 105$$

$$\equiv 244 \ mod \ 105 \equiv 34 \ mod \ 105$$

Fact: If  $gcd(n_1, n_2) = 1$ , then the pair of congruences  $x \equiv a \pmod{n_1}$ ,  $x \equiv a \pmod{n_2}$ , has a unique solution  $x \equiv a \pmod{n_1 n_2}$ .

# Solution of linear congruences when moduli are not relatively prime

- CRT works only if pair of moduli are coprime.
- If a pair of congruences are not coprime, then we can split each of the congruences into two congruences so that the new moduli are relatively prime.
- If both  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are divisible by prime p, then split each of the congruences into two congruences where one of the new moduli is the factor having highest power of p.

### Splitting a single congruence

#### ► A single congruence

 $x \equiv a \mod (m_1 m_2)$  can be written as

 $x \equiv a \mod m_1$  and  $x \equiv a \mod m_2$ 

Example:  $x \equiv 3 \mod 63$  is equivalent to

 $x \equiv 3 \mod 7$  and  $x \equiv 3 \mod 9$ 

# Splitting of two congruences both divisible by a prime

Example:  $x \equiv 3 \mod 63$  and  $x \equiv 5 \mod 108$ 

Here 3 is a prime, both 63 (=  $3^2 \times 7$ ) and 108 (=  $3^3 \times 4$ ) are divisible by 3.

Split into four congruences:

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{9}$$

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{27}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$$

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{4}$$

- If both the congruences involve powers of a same prime p, then one of following will be true
  - The congruences are contradictory and so there are no solutions.

Example:  $x \equiv 3 \pmod{9}$ 

$$x \equiv 5 \pmod{27}; x = 5, 32, 59, \dots \not\equiv 3 \pmod{9}$$

Both congruences for powers of p are implied by the congruence with the higher power. So, the other congruence (with lower power of p) may be ignored.

Example:  $x \equiv 5 \pmod{9}$ 

$$x \equiv 23 \pmod{27}; x = 23, 50, \dots \equiv 5 \pmod{9}$$