

Discrete Mathematics: Lecture 12

- Last time:
 - Chap 3.3: Complexity of algorithms
 - Chap 4.1: Divisibility and modular arithmetic
- Today:
 - Chap 4.2: Integer representations and algorithms
 - Chap 4.3: Primes and greatest common divisors
- Assignment 4 due in two weeks
- Next time:
 - Chap 4.4: Solving congruences
 - Chap 4.6: Cryptography (a simple introduction)

Review of last time

- Worst-case complexity, average-case complexity
- Tractable problems, P, NP, NP-complete problems
- Divisibility and modular arithmetic

Primes(质数)

- Definition: A positive integer p greater than 1 is called prime if the only positive factors of p are 1 and p . A positive integer that is greater than 1 and is not prime is called composite.
- THE FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF ARITHMETIC: Every positive integer greater than 1 can be written uniquely as a prime or as the product of two or more primes where the prime factors are written in nondecreasing order.
- Example: $100 = 2^5 5^2$, $999 = 3^3 \cdot 37$
- Theorem: If n is a composite integer, then n has a prime divisor $\leq \sqrt{n}$.
- Example: show that 101 is prime.

Finding the prime factorization (质因数分解) of integers

```
procedure prime factorization( $n$  : integers)
 $p := 2$ 
while  $p \leq \sqrt{n}$  and  $p \nmid n$ 
     $p := \text{next prime}$ 
if  $p \leq \sqrt{n}$  prime factorization( $n/p$ )
```

Example: 7007

The infinitude of primes

- Theorem: There are infinitely many primes
- Express this theorem in logic
- Proof

Mersenne Primes

- There is an ongoing quest for finding larger and larger prime numbers
- The largest known prime has usually been a Mersenne prime, a prime of the form $2^p - 1$, where p is a prime
- The reason is that there is an extremely efficient test to determine if $2^p - 1$ is prime
- Examples: 3, 7, 31, but $2047 = 23 \cdot 89$ is not
- The Great Internet Mersenne Prime Search (GIMPS)

Conjectures and open problems about primes

- A false conjecture: Let $f(n) = n^2 - n + 41$. Then $f(n)$ is prime for all positive integers.
- Goldbach's conjecture: Every even integer n , $n > 2$, is the sum of two primes.
- There are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$.
- There are infinitely many twin primes, that is, primes that differ by 2.

Greatest common divisors (最大公约数)

- Definition: Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The largest integer d such that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ is called the greatest common divisor of a and b , denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.
- Definition: The integers a and b are relatively prime if their gcd is 1.
- Definition: The integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are pairwise relatively prime if $\gcd(a_i, a_j) = 1$ whenever $1 \leq i < j \leq n$.
- One way to find the gcd of two integers is to use the prime factorizations of them.
 - Let $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_n^{a_n}$, and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_n^{b_n}$.
Then $\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{\min(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2, b_2)} \dots p_n^{\min(a_n, b_n)}$

Least common multiples (最小公倍数)

- Definition: Let a and b be positive integers. The least common multiply of a and b , denoted by $lcm(a, b)$, is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b .
- $lcm(a, b) = p_1^{\max(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\max(a_2, b_2)} \dots p_n^{\max(a_n, b_n)}$
- Theorem: Let a and b be positive integers. Then $ab = gcd(a, b) \cdot lcm(a, b)$.

Computing div and mod

```
procedure division( $a$ : integer,  $d$ : positive integer)
 $q := 0$ 
 $r := |a|$ 
while  $r \geq d$ 
     $r := r - d$ 
     $q := q + 1$ 
if  $a < 0$  and  $r > 0$  then
     $r := d - r$ 
     $q := -(q + 1)$ 
```

Assuming $a > d$, the algorithm uses $O(q)$ subtractions

The Euclidean algorithm (欧几里德算法)

Lemma: Let $a = bq + r$, where a, b, q , and r are integers. Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

```
procedure gcd( $a, b$ : positive integers)
```

```
   $x := a$ 
```

```
   $y := b$ 
```

```
  while  $y \neq 0$ 
```

```
     $r := x \bmod y$ 
```

```
     $x := y$ 
```

```
     $y := r$ 
```

Complexity: $O(\log b)$ divisions, assuming $a > b$

Example: $\gcd(414, 662)$

Some useful results

- Theorem: If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$.
- Example: $\gcd(252, 198) = 18$
- Lemma 1: If a, b , and c are positive integers such that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and $a \mid bc$, then $a \mid c$.
- Lemma 2: If p is a prime and $p \mid a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$, where each a_i is an integer, then $p \mid a_i$ for some i .
- The uniqueness of prime factorization of integers
- Theorem: Let m be a positive integer and let a, b , and c be integers. If $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(c, m) = 1$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Representations of integers

- Decimal (base 10), binary, octal (base 8), hexadecimal (base 16) representations
- Theorem: Let b be an integer greater than 1. Then if n is a positive integer, it can be expressed uniquely in the form

$$n = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0,$$

where k is a nonnegative integer, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k are nonnegative integers less than b , and $a_k \neq 0$.

- Base b expansion of n , denoted by $(a_k \dots a_1 a_0)_b$
- e.g., $(7016)_8$, $(2AE0B)_{16}$, octal representation of 12345
1543, 192, 24, 3, $(30071)_8$

ALGORITHM 1 Constructing Base b Expansions.

procedure *base b expansion*(n, b : positive integers with $b > 1$)

$q := n$

$k := 0$

while $q \neq 0$

$a_k := q \bmod b$

$q := q \operatorname{div} b$

$k := k + 1$

return $(a_{k-1}, \dots, a_1, a_0)$ $\{(a_{k-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_b$ is the base b expansion of $n\}$

Conversion between binary, octal, and hexadecimal expansions

- Octal and hexadecimal expansions of $(11111010111100)_2$
- Binary expansions of $(765)_8$ and $(A8D)_{16}$

Addition of integers

ALGORITHM 2 Addition of Integers.

```
procedure add(a, b: positive integers)
{the binary expansions of a and b are  $(a_{n-1}a_{n-2} \dots a_1a_0)_2$ 
  and  $(b_{n-1}b_{n-2} \dots b_1b_0)_2$ , respectively}
c := 0
for j := 0 to n - 1
    d :=  $\lfloor (a_j + b_j + c)/2 \rfloor$ 
    sj :=  $a_j + b_j + c - 2d$ 
    c := d
sn := c
return (s0, s1, ..., sn) {the binary expansion of the sum is  $(s_ns_{n-1} \dots s_0)_2$ }
```

- e.g., add 1110 and 1011
- Complexity: $O(n)$ bit additions

Multiplication of integers

$$ab = a(b_02^0 + b_12^1 + \dots + b_{n-1}2^{n-1}) = \\ a(b_02^0) + a(b_12^1) + \dots + a(b_{n-1}2^{n-1})$$

ALGORITHM 3 Multiplication of Integers.

```
procedure multiply( $a, b$ : positive integers)
{the binary expansions of  $a$  and  $b$  are  $(a_{n-1}a_{n-2} \dots a_1a_0)_2$ 
 and  $(b_{n-1}b_{n-2} \dots b_1b_0)_2$ , respectively}
for  $j := 0$  to  $n - 1$ 
    if  $b_j = 1$  then  $c_j := a$  shifted  $j$  places
    else  $c_j := 0$ 
{ $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}$  are the partial products}
 $p := 0$ 
for  $j := 0$  to  $n - 1$ 
     $p := p + c_j$ 
return  $p$  { $p$  is the value of  $ab$ }
```

- e.g., multiply 110 and 101
- Complexity: $O(n^2)$ shifts and $O(n^2)$ bit additions

Modular exponentiation

In cryptography, it is important to find $b^n \bmod m$ efficiently, where b , n , and m are large integers

```
procedure modular_exponentiation( $b$ : integer,  
     $n = (a_{k-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_2$ ,  $m$ : positive integer)  
 $x := 1$   
 $power := b \bmod m$   
for  $i := 0$  to  $k - 1$   
    if  $a_i = 1$  then  $x := (x \cdot power) \bmod m$   
     $power := (power \cdot power) \bmod m$ 
```

Example: compute $3^{20} \bmod 645$

Modular exponentiation

In cryptography, it is important to find $b^n \bmod m$ efficiently, where b , n , and m are large integers

```
procedure modular_exponentiation( $b$ : integer,  
     $n = (a_{k-1} \dots a_1 a_0)_2$ ,  $m$ : positive integer)  
 $x := 1$   
 $power := b \bmod m$   
for  $i := 0$  to  $k - 1$   
    if  $a_i = 1$  then  $x := (x \cdot power) \bmod m$   
     $power := (power \cdot power) \bmod m$ 
```

Example: compute $3^{20} \bmod 645$

$81^2 \bmod 645 = 111$, $81 \cdot 111 \bmod 645 = 606$,

Complexity: $O(\log n)$ operations on $\log m$ -bit integers