



DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

Dr. QI WANG

Department of Computer Science and Engineering

Office: Room903, Nanshan iPark A7 Building

Email: wangqi@sustc.edu.cn

Primes

- A positive integer p that is greater than 1 and is divisible only by 1 and by itself is called a *prime*.



Primes

- A positive integer p that is greater than 1 and is **divisible only by 1 and by itself** is called a *prime*.
- A positive integer p that is greater than 1 and is **not a prime** is called a *composite*.



Primes

- A positive integer p that is greater than 1 and is **divisible only by 1 and by itself** is called a *prime*.
- A positive integer p that is greater than 1 and is **not a prime** is called a *composite*.
- **Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic** Every 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 order of nondecreasing size.



Primes and Composites

- How to determine whether a number is a prime or a composite?



Primes and Composites

- How to determine whether a number is a prime or a composite?

Approach 1: test if **each number** $x < n$ divides n .



Primes and Composites

- How to determine whether a number is a prime or a composite?

Approach 1: test if **each number** $x < n$ divides n .

Approach 2: test if each **prime** number $x < n$ divides n .



Primes and Composites

- How to determine whether a number is a prime or a composite?

Approach 1: test if **each number** $x < n$ divides n .

Approach 2: test if each **prime** number $x < n$ divides n .

Approach 3: test if each **prime** number $x < \sqrt{n}$ divides n .



Primes and Composites

- If n is composite, then n has a prime divisor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .



Primes and Composites

- If n is composite, then n has a prime divisor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

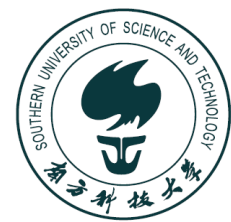
Proof.

◇ if n is composite, then it has a positive integer factor a such that $1 < a < n$ by definition. This means that $n = ab$, where b is an integer greater than 1.

◇ assume that $a > \sqrt{n}$ and $b > \sqrt{n}$. Then $ab > n$, contradiction. So either $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$.

◇ Thus, n has a divisor less than \sqrt{n} .

◇ By the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, this divisor is either prime, or is a product of primes. In either case, n has a prime divisor less than \sqrt{n} .



Primes

- There are infinitely many primes.

Proof (by contradiction)



Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- Let a and b be integers, not both 0. The largest integer d such that $d|a$ and $d|b$ is called the *greatest common divisor* of a and b , denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.



Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- Let a and b be integers, not both 0. The largest integer d such that $d|a$ and $d|b$ is called the *greatest common divisor* of a and b , denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.

The integers a and b are *relatively prime* if their greatest common divisor is 1.



Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- Let a and b be integers, not both 0. The largest integer d such that $d|a$ and $d|b$ is called the *greatest common divisor* of a and b , denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.

The integers a and b are *relatively prime* if their greatest common divisor is 1.

A systematic way to find the gcd is **factorization**. Let

$a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n}$. Then

$$\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{\min(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2, b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\min(a_n, b_n)}$$



Least Common Multiple (LCM)

- Let a and b be integers. The *least common multiple* of a and b is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b , denoted by $\text{lcm}(a, b)$.



Least Common Multiple (LCM)

- Let a and b be integers. The *least common multiple* of a and b is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b , denoted by $\text{lcm}(a, b)$.

We can also use **factorization** to find the lcm. Let $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n}$. Then

$$\text{gcd}(a, b) = p_1^{\min(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2, b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\min(a_n, b_n)}$$


Euclidean Algorithm

- Factorization can be **cumbersome** and **time consuming** since we need to find all factors of the two integers.



Euclidean Algorithm

- Factorization can be **cumbersome** and **time consuming** since we need to find all factors of the two integers.
- Luckily, we have an efficient algorithm, called **Euclidean algorithm**. This algorithm has been known since ancient times and named after the ancient Greek mathematician Euclid.



Euclidean Algorithm

- For two integers 287 and 91, we want to find $\gcd(287, 91)$.



Euclidean Algorithm

- For two integers 287 and 91, we want to find $\gcd(287, 91)$.

Step 1: $287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14$



Euclidean Algorithm

- For two integers 287 and 91, we want to find $\gcd(287, 91)$.

Step 1: $287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14$

Step 2: $91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7$



Euclidean Algorithm

- For two integers 287 and 91, we want to find $\gcd(287, 91)$.

Step 1: $287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14$

Step 2: $91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7$

Step 3: $14 = 7 \cdot 2 + 0$



Euclidean Algorithm

- For two integers 287 and 91, we want to find $\gcd(287, 91)$.

$$\text{Step 1: } 287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14$$

$$\text{Step 2: } 91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7$$

$$\text{Step 3: } 14 = 7 \cdot 2 + 0$$

$$\gcd(287, 91) = \gcd(91, 14) = \gcd(14, 7) = 7$$



Euclidean Algorithm

- The Euclidean algorithm in pseudocode

ALGORITHM 1 The Euclidean Algorithm.

procedure $\text{gcd}(a, b$: positive integers)

$x := a$

$y := b$

while $y \neq 0$

$r := x \bmod y$

$x := y$

$y := r$

return x {gcd(a, b) is x }



Euclidean Algorithm

- The Euclidean algorithm in pseudocode

ALGORITHM 1 The Euclidean Algorithm.

```
procedure gcd(a, b: positive integers)
  x := a
  y := b
  while y ≠ 0
    r := x mod y
    x := y
    y := r
  return x{gcd(a, b) is x}
```

The number of **divisions** required to find $\text{gcd}(a, b)$ is $O(\log b)$, where $a \geq b$. (this will be proved later.)



Correctness of Euclidean Algorithm

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

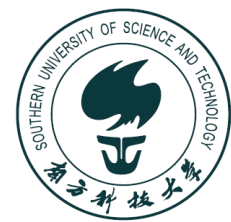


Correctness of Euclidean Algorithm

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

Proof.

- ◇ suppose that $d|a$ and $d|b$. Then d also divides $a - bq = r$. Hence, any common divisor of a and b must also be any common divisor of b and r .
- ◇ suppose that $d|b$ and $d|r$. Then d also divides $bq + r = a$. Hence, any common divisor of a and b must also be a common divisor of b and r .
- ◇ Therefore, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.



Correctness of Euclidean Algorithm

- Suppose that a and b are positive integers with $a \geq b$. Let $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$.



Correctness of Euclidean Algorithm

- Suppose that a and b are positive integers with $a \geq b$. Let $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$.

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1,$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2,$$

.

.

.

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1},$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_n.$$



Correctness of Euclidean Algorithm

- Suppose that a and b are positive integers with $a \geq b$. Let $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$.

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1,$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2,$$

.

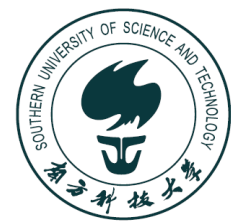
.

.

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1},$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_n.$$

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r_0, r_1) = \cdots = \gcd(r_{n-1}, r_n) = \gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n$$



Euclidean Algorithm

- **Example:** Find the GCD of 286 and 503.



Euclidean Algorithm

- **Example:** Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

$$\gcd(503, 286)$$

$$= \gcd(286, 217)$$

$$503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$$



Euclidean Algorithm

- **Example:** Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

$$\gcd(503, 286)$$

$$= \gcd(286, 217)$$

$$= \gcd(217, 69)$$

$$503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$$

$$286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$$



Euclidean Algorithm

- **Example:** Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

$$\gcd(503, 286)$$

$$= \gcd(286, 217)$$

$$= \gcd(217, 69)$$

$$= \gcd(69, 10)$$

$$503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$$

$$286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$$

$$217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10$$



Euclidean Algorithm

- **Example:** Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

$$\gcd(503, 286)$$

$$= \gcd(286, 217)$$

$$= \gcd(217, 69)$$

$$= \gcd(69, 10)$$

$$= \gcd(10, 9)$$

$$= 1$$

$$503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$$

$$286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$$

$$217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10$$

$$69 = 6 \cdot 10 + 9$$

$$10 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1$$

$$9 = 9 \cdot 1$$



GCD as Linear Combinations

- **Bezout's Theorem** If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$. This is called *Bezout's identity*.



GCD as Linear Combinations

- **Bezout's Theorem** If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$. This is called *Bezout's identity*.

We may use *extended Euclidean algorithm* to find Bezout's identity.

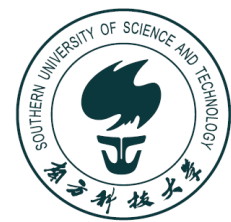


GCD as Linear Combinations

- **Bezout's Theorem** If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$. This is called *Bezout's identity*.

We may use *extended Euclidean algorithm* to find Bezout's identity.

Example: Express 1 as the linear combination of 503 and 286.



GCD as Linear Combinations

- **Bezout's Theorem** If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$. This is called *Bezout's identity*.

We may use *extended Euclidean algorithm* to find Bezout's identity.

Example: Express 1 as the linear combination of 503 and 286.

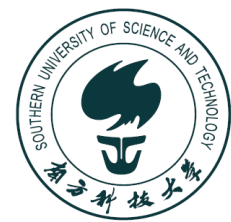
$$503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$$

$$286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$$

$$217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10$$

$$69 = 6 \cdot 10 + 9$$

$$10 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1$$



GCD as Linear Combinations

- **Bezout's Theorem** If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$. This is called *Bezout's identity*.

We may use *extended Euclidean algorithm* to find Bezout's identity.

Example: Express 1 as the linear combination of 503 and 286.

$$503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$$

$$286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$$

$$217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10$$

$$69 = 6 \cdot 10 + 9$$

$$10 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1$$

$$1 = 10 - 1 \cdot 9$$

$$= 7 \cdot 10 - 1 \cdot 69$$

$$= 7 \cdot 217 - 22 \cdot 69$$

$$= 29 \cdot 217 - 22 \cdot 286$$

$$= 29 \cdot 503 - 51 \cdot 286$$



Corollaries of Bezout's Theorem

- If a, b, c are positive integers such that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and $a|bc$, then $a|c$.



Corollaries of Bezout's Theorem

- If a, b, c are positive integers such that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and $a|bc$, then $a|c$.

Proof. Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, by Bezout's Theorem there exist s and t such that $1 = sa + tb$. This yields $c = sac + tbc$. Since $a|bc$, we have $a|tbc$, and then $a|(sac + tbc) = c$.

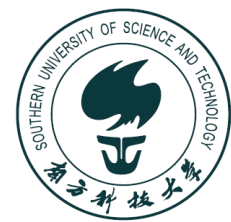


Corollaries of Bezout's Theorem

- If a, b, c are positive integers such that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and $a|bc$, then $a|c$.

Proof. Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, by Bezout's Theorem there exist s and t such that $1 = sa + tb$. This yields $c = sac + tbc$. Since $a|bc$, we have $a|tbc$, and then $a|(sac + tbc) = c$.

- If p is prime and $p|a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, then $p|a_i$ for some i .



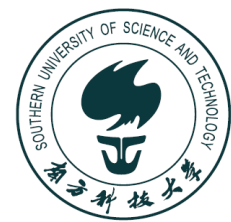
Corollaries of Bezout's Theorem

- If a, b, c are positive integers such that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and $a|bc$, then $a|c$.

Proof. Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, by Bezout's Theorem there exist s and t such that $1 = sa + tb$. This yields $c = sac + tbc$. Since $a|bc$, we have $a|tbc$, and then $a|(sac + tbc) = c$.

- If p is prime and $p|a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, then $p|a_i$ for some i .

Proof. by induction



Uniqueness of Prime Factorization

- We prove that a prime factorization of a positive integer where the primes are in nondecreasing order is **unique**.



Uniqueness of Prime Factorization

- We prove that a prime factorization of a positive integer where the primes are in nondecreasing order is **unique**.

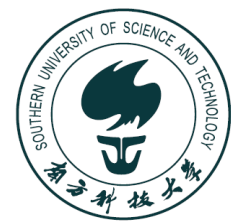
Proof. (by contradiction) Suppose that the positive integer n can be written as a product of primes in two distinct ways:

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_s \text{ and } n = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_t$$

Remove all common primes from the factorizations to get

$$p_{i_1} p_{i_2} \cdots p_{i_u} = q_{j_1} q_{j_2} \cdots q_{j_v}$$

It then follows that p_{i_1} divides q_{j_k} for some k , **contradicting** the assumption that p_{i_1} and q_{j_k} are distinct primes.



Dividing Congruences by an Integer

- **Theorem** Let m be a positive integer and let a, b, c be integers. If $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(c, m) = 1$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.



Dividing Congruences by an Integer

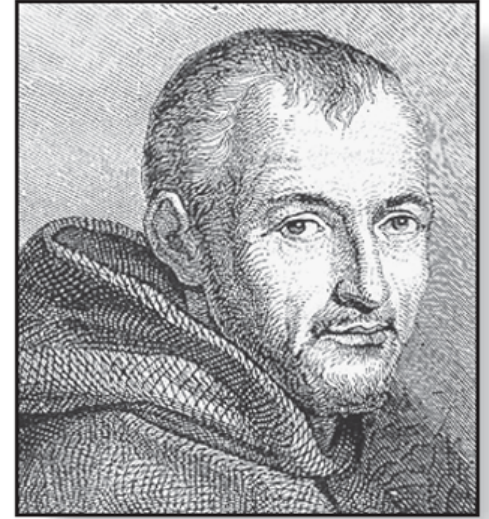
- **Theorem** Let m be a positive integer and let a, b, c be integers. If $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(c, m) = 1$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Proof. Since $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$, we have $m \mid ac - bc = c(a - b)$. Because $\gcd(c, m) = 1$, it follows that $m \mid a - b$.



Mersenne Primes

- Prime numbers of the form $2^p - 1$, where p is a prime.



Marin Mersenne

Mersenne Primes

- Prime numbers of the form $2^p - 1$, where p is a prime.

◇ $2^2 - 1 = 3$, $2^3 - 1 = 7$, $2^5 - 1 = 37$,
 $2^7 - 1 = 127$ are Mersenne primes.

◇ $2^{11} - 1 = 2047 = 23 \cdot 89$ is not a Mersenne prime.



Marin Mersenne

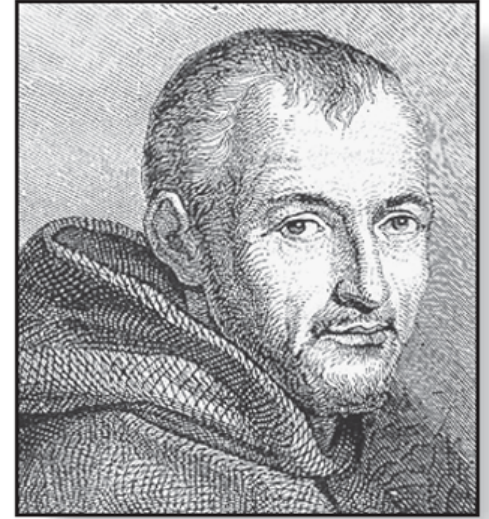
Mersenne Primes

- Prime numbers of the form $2^p - 1$, where p is a prime.

◇ $2^2 - 1 = 3$, $2^3 - 1 = 7$, $2^5 - 1 = 37$,
 $2^7 - 1 = 127$ are Mersenne primes.

◇ $2^{11} - 1 = 2047 = 23 \cdot 89$ is not a Mersenne prime.

◇ The largest known prime numbers are Mersenne primes.



Marin Mersenne

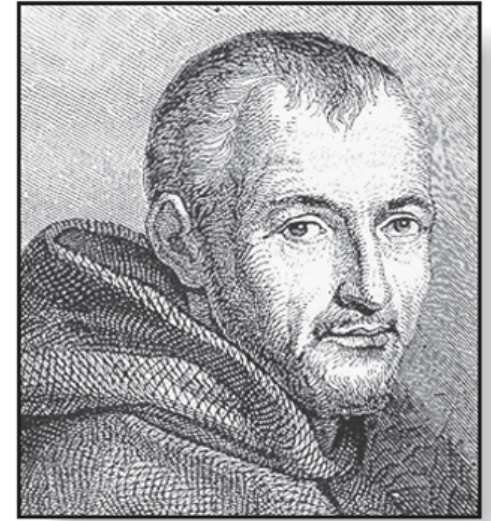
Mersenne Primes

- Prime numbers of the form $2^p - 1$, where p is a prime.

◇ $2^2 - 1 = 3$, $2^3 - 1 = 7$, $2^5 - 1 = 37$,
 $2^7 - 1 = 127$ are Mersenne primes.

◇ $2^{11} - 1 = 2047 = 23 \cdot 89$ is not a Mersenne prime.

◇ The largest known prime numbers are Mersenne primes.



Marin Mersenne

Largest Known Prime, 49th Known Mersenne Prime Found!

January 7, 2016 — GIMPS celebrated its 20th anniversary with the discovery of the largest known prime number, $2^{74,207,281} - 1$.

<http://www.mersenne.org/>



Conjectures about Primes

- *Goldbach's Conjecture* ($1 + 1$): Every even integer $n > 2$, is the sum of two primes.



Conjectures about Primes

- *Goldbach's Conjecture* ($1 + 1$): Every even integer $n > 2$, is the sum of two primes.

“ $3 + 4$ ”, “ $3 + 3$ ”, “ $2 + 3$ ” – Y. Wang, 1956

“ $1 + 5$ ” – C. Pan, 1962

“ $1 + 4$ ” – Y. Wang, 1962

“ $1 + 2$ ” – J. Chen, 1973



Conjectures about Primes

- *Goldbach's Conjecture* ($1 + 1$): Every even integer $n > 2$, is the sum of two primes.

" $3 + 4$ ", " $3 + 3$ ", " $2 + 3$ " – Y. Wang, 1956

" $1 + 5$ " – C. Pan, 1962

" $1 + 4$ " – Y. Wang, 1962

" $1 + 2$ " – J. Chen, 1973

- *Twin-prime Conjecture*: There are infinitely many twin primes.



Linear Congruences

- A congruence of the form $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, where m is a positive integer, a and b are integers, and x is a variable, is called a *linear congruence*.



Linear Congruences

- A congruence of the form $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, where m is a positive integer, a and b are integers, and x is a variable, is called a *linear congruence*.

The solutions to a linear congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ are all integers x that satisfy the congruence.



Linear Congruences

- A congruence of the form $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, where m is a positive integer, a and b are integers, and x is a variable, is called a *linear congruence*.

The solutions to a linear congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ are all integers x that satisfy the congruence.

Systems of linear congruences have been studied since ancient times.

今有物不知其数 三三数之剩二 五五数之剩三 七七数之剩二 问物几何



Modular Inverse

- An integer \bar{a} such that $\bar{a}a \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ is said to be an *inverse* of a modulo m .



Modular Inverse

- An integer \bar{a} such that $\bar{a}a \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ is said to be an *inverse* of a modulo m .

One method of solving linear congruences makes use of an inverse \bar{a} if it exists. From $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, it follows that $\bar{a}ax \equiv \bar{a}b \pmod{m}$ and then $x \equiv \bar{a}b \pmod{m}$.



Modular Inverse

- An integer \bar{a} such that $\bar{a}a \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ is said to be an *inverse* of a modulo m .

One method of solving linear congruences makes use of an inverse \bar{a} if it exists. From $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$, it follows that $\bar{a}ax \equiv \bar{a}b \pmod{m}$ and then $x \equiv \bar{a}b \pmod{m}$.

When does an inverse of a modulo m exist?



Inverse of a modulo m

- **Theorem** If a and m are relatively prime integers and $m > 1$, then an inverse of a modulo m exists. Furthermore, the inverse is unique modulo m .



Inverse of a modulo m

- **Theorem** If a and m are relatively prime integers and $m > 1$, then an inverse of a modulo m exists. Furthermore, the inverse is unique modulo m .

Proof. Since $\gcd(a, m) = 1$, there are integers s and t such that $sa + tm = 1$. Hence $sa + tm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. Since $tm \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$, it follows that $sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. This means that s is an inverse of a modulo m .



Inverse of a modulo m

- **Theorem** If a and m are relatively prime integers and $m > 1$, then an inverse of a modulo m exists. Furthermore, the inverse is unique modulo m .

Proof. Since $\gcd(a, m) = 1$, there are integers s and t such that $sa + tm = 1$. Hence $sa + tm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. Since $tm \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$, it follows that $sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$. This means that s is an inverse of a modulo m .

How to prove the uniqueness of the inverse?



How to find inverses?

- Using *extended Euclidean algorithm*



How to find inverses?

- Using *extended Euclidean algorithm*

Example. Find an inverse of 101 modulo 4620.



How to find inverses?

- Using *extended Euclidean algorithm*

Example. Find an inverse of 101 modulo 4620.

$$4620 = 45 \cdot 101 + 75$$

$$101 = 1 \cdot 75 + 26$$

$$75 = 2 \cdot 26 + 23$$

$$26 = 1 \cdot 23 + 3$$

$$23 = 7 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1$$



How to find inverses?

- Using *extended Euclidean algorithm*

Example. Find an inverse of 101 modulo 4620.

$$4620 = 45 \cdot 101 + 75$$

$$101 = 1 \cdot 75 + 26$$

$$75 = 2 \cdot 26 + 23$$

$$26 = 1 \cdot 23 + 3$$

$$23 = 7 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot (23 - 7 \cdot 3) = -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot 3$$

$$1 = -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot (26 - 1 \cdot 23) = 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 23$$

$$1 = 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot (75 - 2 \cdot 26) = 26 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 75$$

$$1 = 26 \cdot (101 - 1 \cdot 75) - 9 \cdot 75$$

$$= 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot 75$$

$$1 = 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot (4620 - 45 \cdot 101)$$

$$= -35 \cdot 4620 + 1601 \cdot 101$$



Using Inverses to Solve Congruences

- Solve the congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ by multiplying both sides by \bar{a} .



Using Inverses to Solve Congruences

- Solve the congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ by multiplying both sides by \bar{a} .

Example. What are the solutions of the congruence $3x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$?

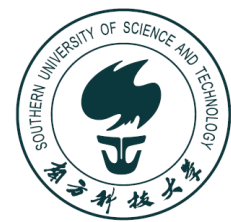


Using Inverses to Solve Congruences

- Solve the congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ by multiplying both sides by \bar{a} .

Example. What are the solutions of the congruence $3x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$?

Solution: We found that -2 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7 . Multiply both sides of the congruence by -2 , we have $x \equiv -8 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$.



Number of Solutions to Congruences *

- **Theorem** Let $d = \gcd(a, m)$ and $m' = m/d$. The congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ has solutions if and only if $d|b$. If $d|b$, then there are exactly d solutions. If x_0 is a solution, then the other solutions are given by $x_0 + m', x_0 + 2m', \dots, x_0 + (d-1)m'$.

Number of Solutions to Congruences *

- **Theorem** Let $d = \gcd(a, m)$ and $m' = m/d$. The congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ has solutions if and only if $d|b$. If $d|b$, then there are exactly d solutions. If x_0 is a solution, then the other solutions are given by $x_0 + m', x_0 + 2m', \dots, x_0 + (d-1)m'$.

Proof.

1) “only if”: If x_0 is a solution, then $ax_0 - b = km$. Thus, $ax_0 - km = b$. Since d divides $ax_0 - km$, we must have $d|b$.

Number of Solutions to Congruences *

- **Theorem** Let $d = \gcd(a, m)$ and $m' = m/d$. The congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ has solutions if and only if $d|b$. If $d|b$, then there are exactly d solutions. If x_0 is a solution, then the other solutions are given by $x_0 + m', x_0 + 2m', \dots, x_0 + (d-1)m'$.

Proof.

- 1) “only if”: If x_0 is a solution, then $ax_0 - b = km$. Thus, $ax_0 - km = b$. Since d divides $ax_0 - km$, we must have $d|b$.
- 2) “if”: Suppose that $d|b$. Let $b = kd$. There exist integers s, t such that $d = as + mt$. Multiply both sides by k . Then $b = ask + mtk$. Let $x_0 = sk$. Then $ax_0 \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Number of Solutions to Congruences *

- **Theorem** Let $d = \gcd(a, m)$ and $m' = m/d$. The congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ has solutions if and only if $d|b$. If $d|b$, then there are exactly d solutions. If x_0 is a solution, then the other solutions are given by $x_0 + m', x_0 + 2m', \dots, x_0 + (d-1)m'$.

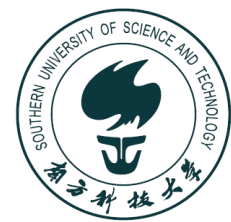
Proof.

- 1) “only if”: If x_0 is a solution, then $ax_0 - b = km$. Thus, $ax_0 - km = b$. Since d divides $ax_0 - km$, we must have $d|b$.
- 2) “if”: Suppose that $d|b$. Let $b = kd$. There exist integers s, t such that $d = as + mt$. Multiply both sides by k . Then $b = ask + mtk$. Let $x_0 = sk$. Then $ax_0 \equiv b \pmod{m}$.
- 3) “ $\# = d$ ”: $ax_0 \equiv b \pmod{m}$ $ax_1 \equiv b \pmod{m}$ imply that $m|a(x_1 - x_0)$ and $m'|a'(x_1 - x_0)$. This implies further that $x_1 = x_0 + km'$, where $k = 0, 1, \dots, d-1$.

The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- In the first century, the Chinese mathematician Sun-Tsu asked:
“There are certain things whose number is unknown. When divided by 3, the remainder is 2; when divided by 5, the remainder is 3; when divided by 7, the remainder is 2. What will be the number of things?”

今有物不知其数 三三数之剩二 五五数之剩三 七七数之剩二 问物几何



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- In the first century, the Chinese mathematician Sun-Tsu asked:
“There are certain things whose number is unknown. When divided by 3, the remainder is 2; when divided by 5, the remainder is 3; when divided by 7, the remainder is 2. What will be the number of things?”

今有物不知其数 三三数之剩二 五五数之剩三 七七数之剩二 问物几何

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- **Theorem** (*The Chinese Remainder Theorem*) Let m_1, m_2, \dots, m_n be pairwise relatively prime positive integers greater than 1 and a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n arbitrary integers. Then the system

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

...

$$x \equiv a_n \pmod{m_n}$$

has a unique solution modulo $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n$.



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- **Proof** Let $M_k = m/m_k$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n$. Since $\gcd(m_k, M_k) = 1$, there is an integer y_k , an inverse of M_k modulo m_k such that $M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}$. Let

$$x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + \cdots a_n M_n y_n.$$

It is checked that x is a solution to the n congruences.



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

- **Proof** Let $M_k = m/m_k$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n$. Since $\gcd(m_k, M_k) = 1$, there is an integer y_k , an inverse of M_k modulo m_k such that $M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}$. Let

$$x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + \cdots a_n M_n y_n.$$

It is checked that x is a solution to the n congruences.

How to prove the **uniqueness** of the solution modulo m ?



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

■ Example

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

■ Example

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

Let $m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$, $M_1 = m/3 = 35$, $M_2 = m/5 = 21$,
 $M_3 = m/7 = 15$.

$$35 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$21 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$$

$$15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

■ Example

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

Let $m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$, $M_1 = m/3 = 35$, $M_2 = m/5 = 21$,
 $M_3 = m/7 = 15$.

$$35 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \quad y_1 = 2$$

$$21 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \quad y_2 = 1$$

$$15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \quad y_3 = 1$$



The Chinese Remainder Theorem

■ Example

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

Let $m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$, $M_1 = m/3 = 35$, $M_2 = m/5 = 21$,
 $M_3 = m/7 = 15$.

$$35 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \quad y_1 = 2$$

$$21 \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \quad y_2 = 1$$

$$15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \quad y_3 = 1$$

$$x = 2 \cdot 35 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 21 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 15 \cdot 1 \equiv 233 \equiv 23 \pmod{105}$$



Back Substitution

- We may also solve systems of linear congruences with pairwise relatively prime moduli by *back substitution*.



Back Substitution

- We may also solve systems of linear congruences with pairwise relatively prime moduli by *back substitution*.

Example

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$



Back Substitution

- We may also solve systems of linear congruences with pairwise relatively prime moduli by *back substitution*.

Example

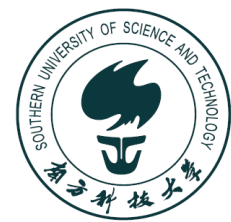
$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

$$x \equiv 8 \pmod{15}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{21}$$



Modular Arithmetic in CS

- Modular arithmetic and congruencies are used in CS:
 - ◇ Pseudorandom number generators
 - ◇ Hash functions
 - ◇ Cryptography



Pseudorandom Number Generators

■ *Linear congruential method*

We choose four numbers:

- ◇ the modulus m
- ◇ multiplier a
- ◇ increment c
- ◇ seed x_0



Pseudorandom Number Generators

■ *Linear congruential method*

We choose four numbers:

- ◇ the modulus m
- ◇ multiplier a
- ◇ increment c
- ◇ seed x_0

We generate a sequence of numbers $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, \dots$ with $0 \leq x_i < m$ by using the congruence

$$x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \pmod{m}$$



Pseudorandom Number Generators

- *Linear congruential method*

$$x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \pmod{m}$$



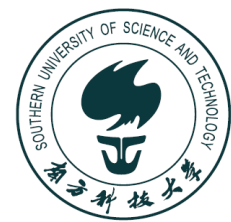
Pseudorandom Number Generators

■ *Linear congruential method*

$$x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \pmod{m}$$

Example:

- Assume : $m=9, a=7, c=4, x_0 = 3$
- $x_1 = 7*3+4 \pmod{9} = 25 \pmod{9} = 7$
- $x_2 = 53 \pmod{9} = 8$
- $x_3 = 60 \pmod{9} = 6$
- $x_4 = 46 \pmod{9} = 1$
- $x_5 = 11 \pmod{9} = 2$
- $x_6 = 18 \pmod{9} = 0$
-



Hash Functions

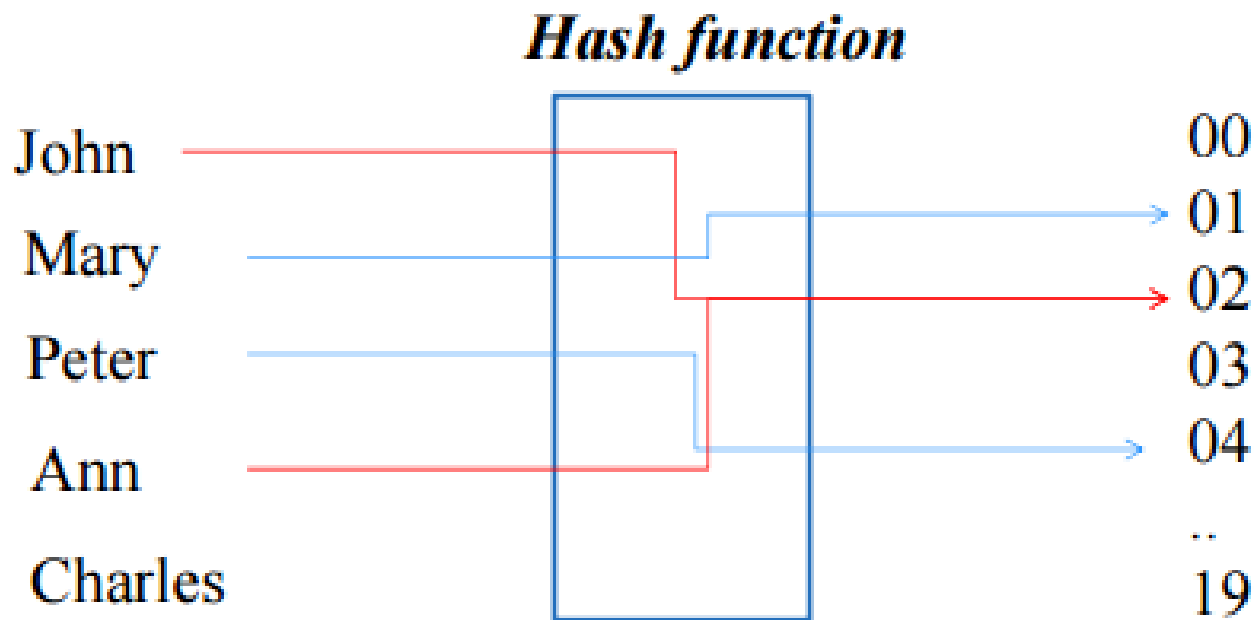
- A *hash function* is an algorithm that maps data of arbitrary length to *data of a fixed length*. The values returned by a hash function are called *hash values* or *hash codes*.



Hash Functions

- A *hash function* is an algorithm that maps data of arbitrary length to *data of a fixed length*. The values returned by a hash function are called *hash values* or *hash codes*.

Example:



Hash Functions

- **Problem:** Given a large collection of records, how can we store and find a record quickly?



Hash Functions

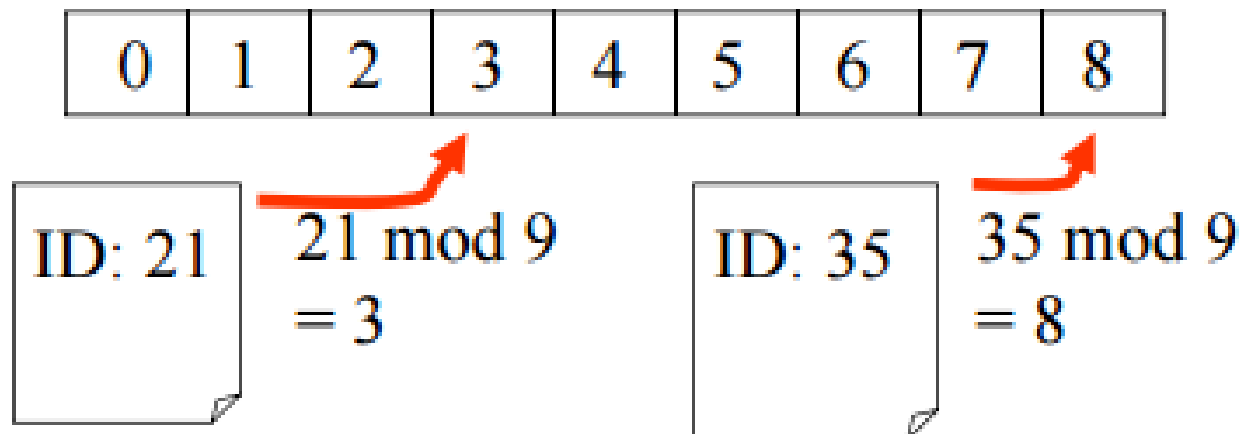
- **Problem:** Given a large collection of records, how can we store and find a record quickly?

Solution: Use a hash function, calculate the location of the record based on the record's ID.

Example: A common hash function is

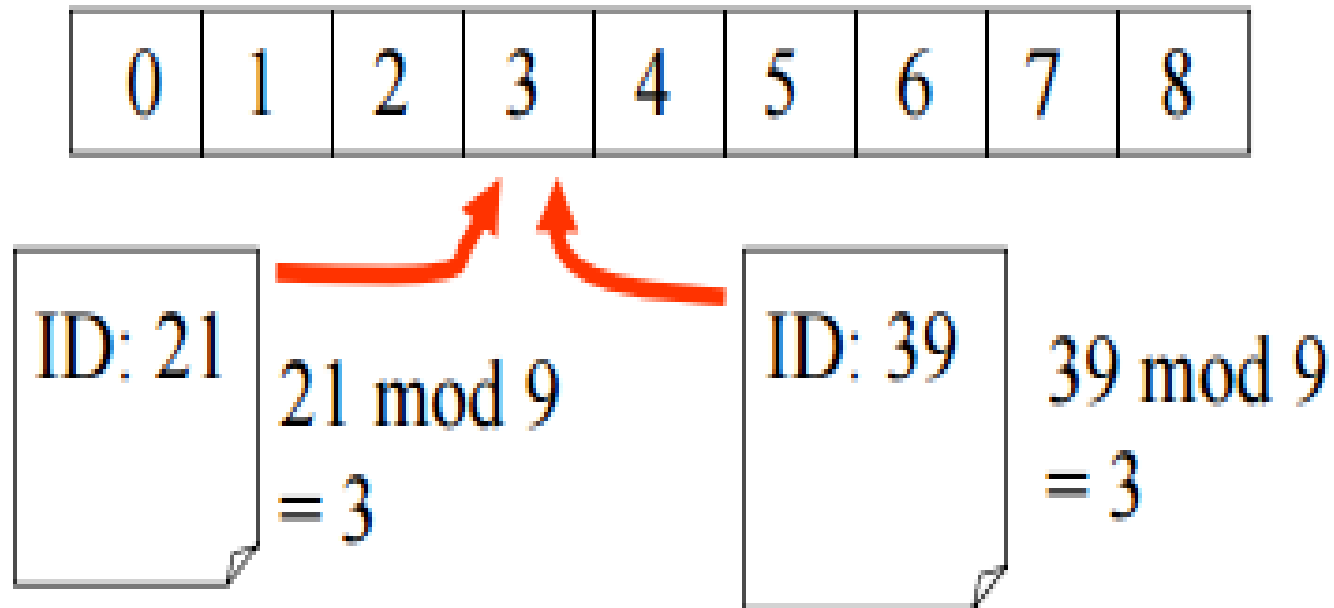
- $h(k) = k \bmod n$,

where n is the number of available storage locations.



Hash Functions

- Two records mapped to the same location



Hash Functions

- **Solution 1:** move to the next available location

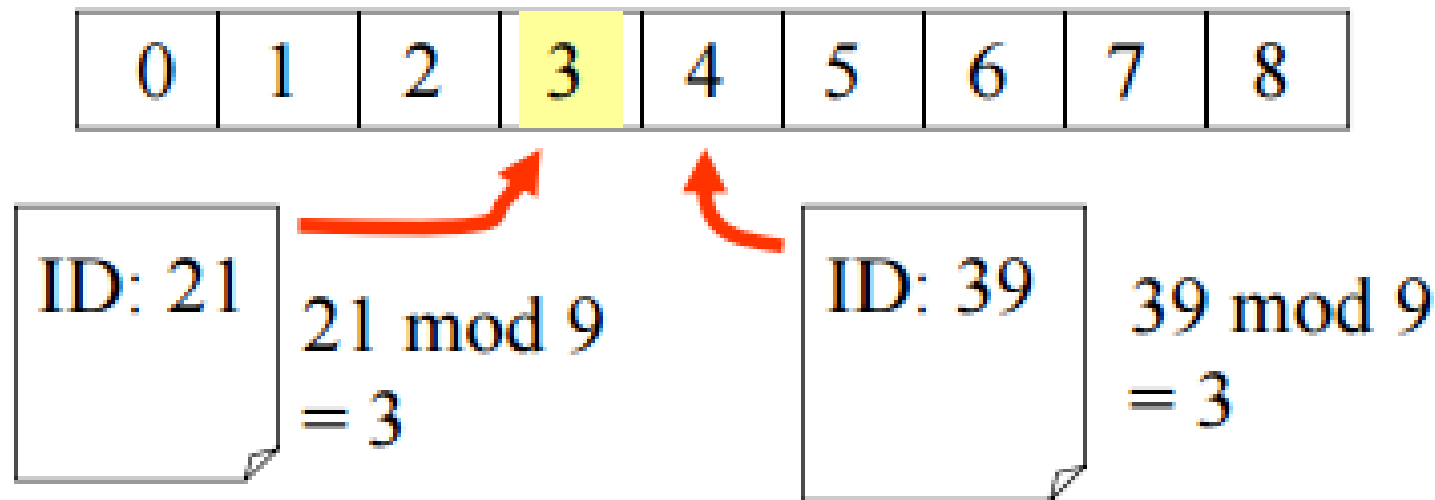
try

$$h_0(k) = k \bmod n$$

$$h_1(k) = (k+1) \bmod n$$

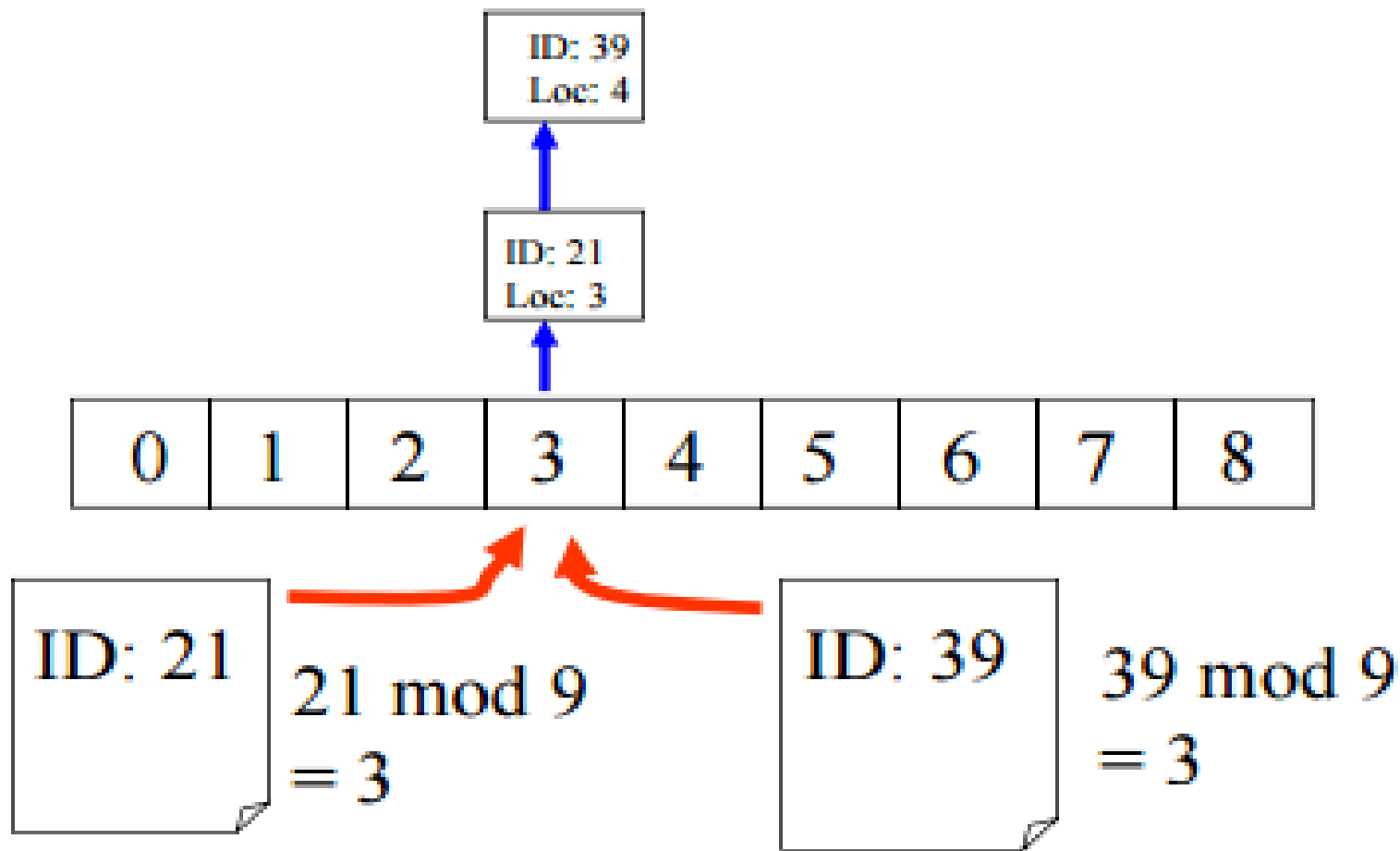
...

$$h_m(k) = (k+m) \bmod n$$



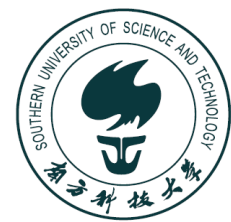
Hash Functions

- **Solution 2:** remember the exact location in a secondary structure that is searched sequentially



Applications of Number Theory in Cryptography

- Introduction
- Symmetric cryptography
- Asymmetric cryptography
- RSA Cryptosystem
- DLP and El Gamal cryptography
- Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol
- Cryptocurrency, e.g., bitcoin



Next Lecture

- cryptography, ...

