



CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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RSA Variant

Q : Consider the RSA system. Let (e, d) be a key pair for the RSA. Define

$$\lambda(n) = \text{lcm}(p-1, q-1)$$

and compute $d' = e^{-1} \bmod \lambda(n)$. Will decryption using d' instead of d still work? (prove $C^{d'} \bmod n = M$)



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Case I: $\gcd(M, n) = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} C^{d'} \bmod n &= M^{ed'} \bmod n = M^{k\lambda(n)+1} \bmod n \\ &= (M^{k\lambda(n)} \bmod n) M \bmod n \\ &= \left(M^{(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} \bmod n \right)^k M \bmod n \end{aligned}$$

By Fermat's theorem, $M^{(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} \bmod p =$
 $\left(M^{(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} \right)^{p-1} \bmod p = 1$ and
 $M^{(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} \bmod q = 1$. Then by Chinese
Remainder Theorem, we have $C^{d'} \bmod n = M$.



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$M = tp$ for some integer $0 < t < q$. We have $\gcd(M, q) = 1$ and $ed' = k\lambda(n) + 1$ for some integer k . By Fermat's theorem, we have

$$(M^{k\lambda(n)} - 1) \bmod q = (M^{k(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1, q-1)} - 1) \bmod q :$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} (M^{ed'} - M) \bmod n &= M(M^{ed'-1} - 1) \bmod n \\ &= tp(M^{k\lambda(n)} - 1) \bmod pq \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



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Case III: $\gcd(M, n) = q$

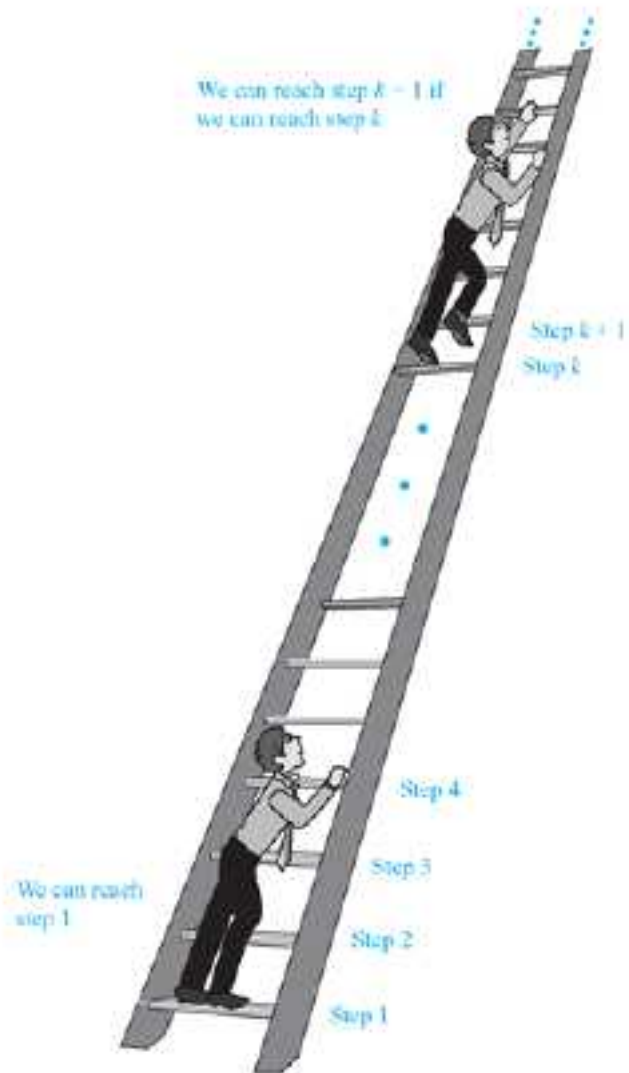
Similar to Case II.

Case IV: $\gcd(M, n) = pq$

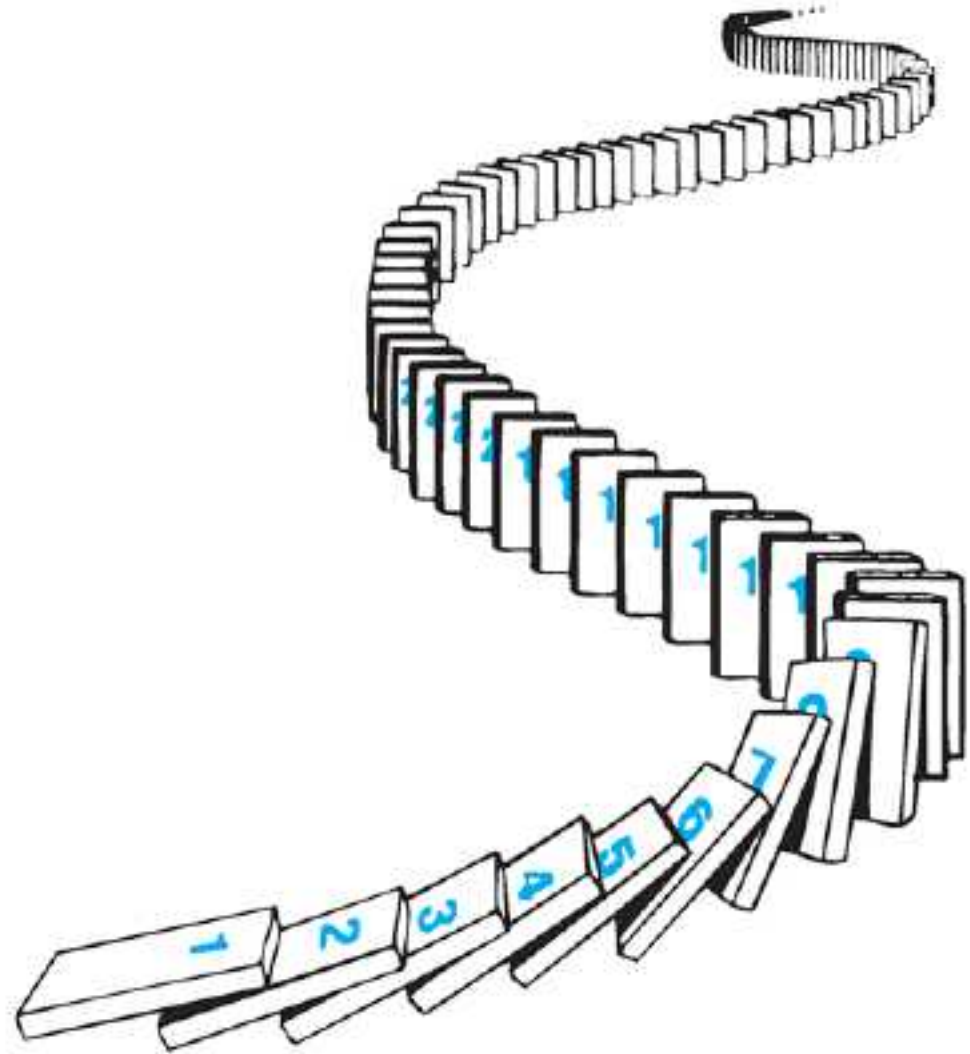
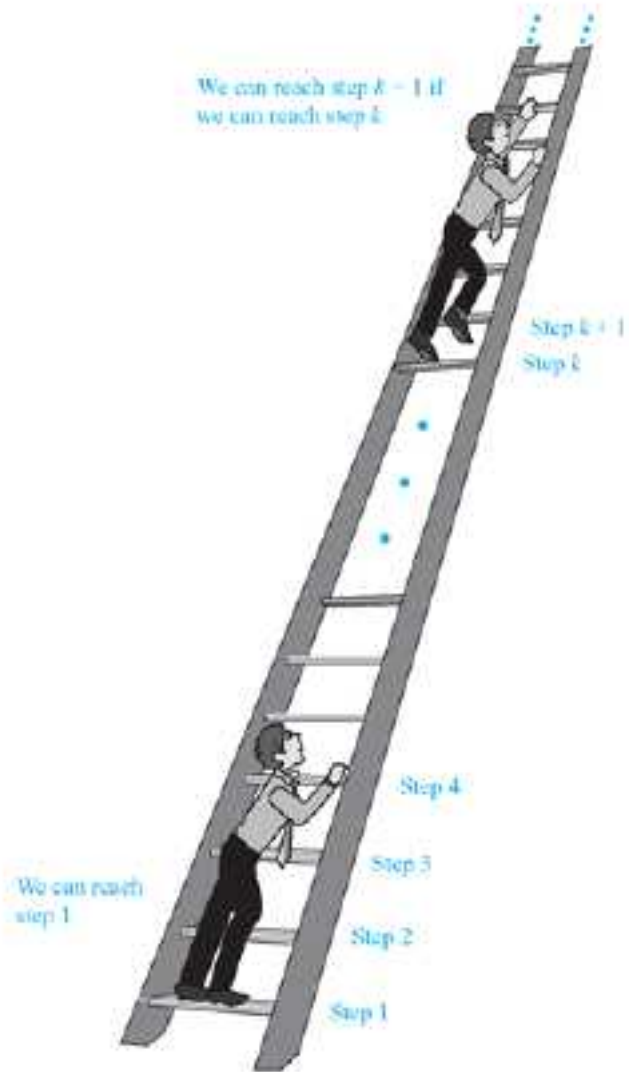
Trivial.



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- This leads us to transform the *indirect proof* of *proof by counterexample* to *direct proof*. This direct proof technique will be **induction**.
- We conclude by distinguishing between the *weak principle* of mathematical induction and the *strong principle* of mathematical induction.

The *strong principle* can actually be derived from the *weak principle*.



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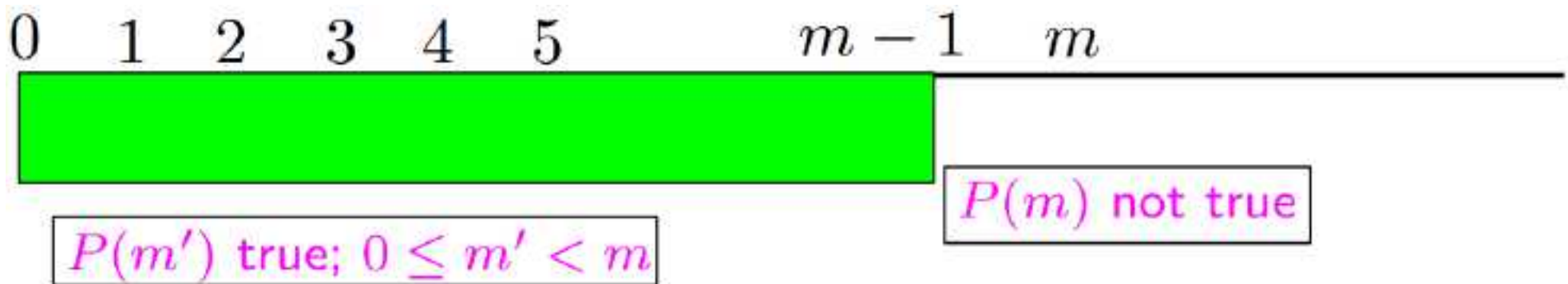


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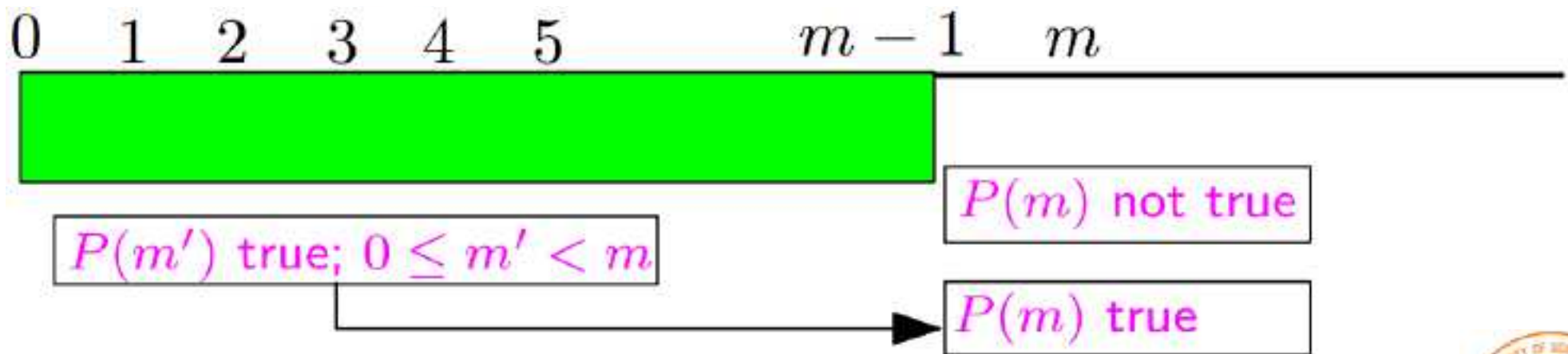


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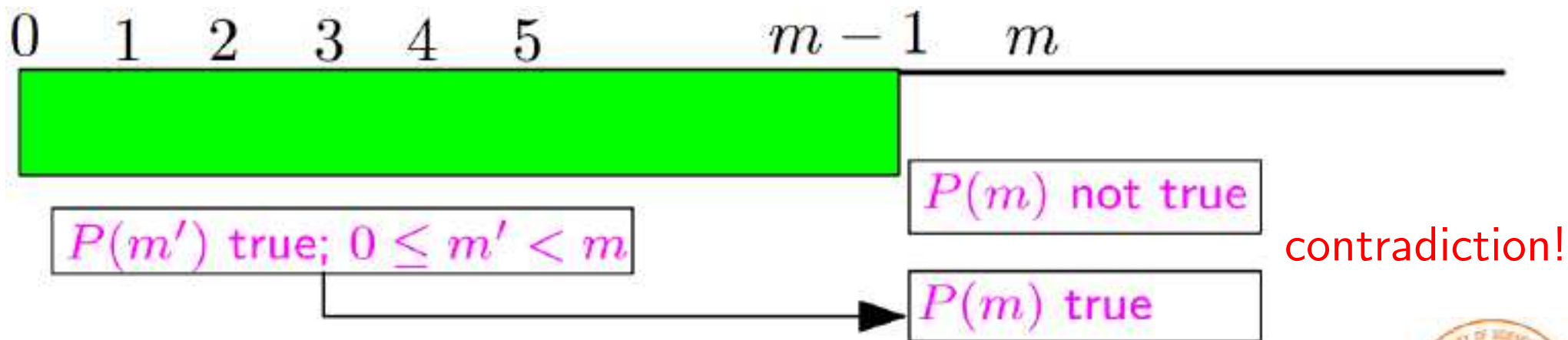


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- ◇ Since $0 = 0 \cdot 1/2$, **(*)** holds for $n = 0$
- ◇ The smallest counterexample n is larger than 0



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◇ Therefore, $(*)$ holds for all positive integers n .



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The **key step** was proving that

$$P(n - 1) \rightarrow P(n)$$

where $P(n)$ is the statement

$$1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n + 1)}{2}$$



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Let $P(n) = 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$. We start by assuming that the statement

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ P(n)$$

is **false**.



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is **false**.

When a **for all** quantifier is false, **there must be some n for which it is false**. Let n be the **smallest nonnegative integer** for which $2^{n+1} \not\geq n^2 + 2$.



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This means that, for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ with $i < n$,

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Then setting $i = n - 1$ gives

$$2^{(n-1)+1} \geq (n-1)^2 + 2.$$

or

$$(*) \quad 2^n \geq n^2 - 2n + 1 + 2 = n^2 - 2n + 3$$



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Thus, we write

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{n+1} &\geq 2n^2 - 4n + 6 \\ &= (n^2 + 2) + (n^2 - 4n + 4) \\ &= n^2 + 2 + (n - 2)^2 \\ &\geq n^2 + 2. \end{aligned}$$



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13 - 5



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- Let $P(n) - 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$

We just showed that

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- ◇ This contradicts (*).
- ◇ Thus, $P(n)$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.



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Since $P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$, we see that

$P(0)$ implies $P(1)$, $P(1)$ implies $P(2)$, ...



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Principle. (*Weak Principle of Mathematical Induction*)

- (a) If the statement $P(b)$ is true
- (b) the statement $P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$ is true for all $n > b$,
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(a) – *Basic Step* *Inductive Hypothesis*

(b) – *Inductive Step* *Inductive Conclusion*



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By mathematical induction, $\forall n > 0, 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$.



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Let $P(n) - 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 3$

(i) Note that for $n = 2, 2^{2+1} = 8 \geq 7 = 2^2 + 3 - P(2)$



Proof by Induction

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Proof by Induction

■ $\forall n \geq 2, 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 3$

Let $P(n) - 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 3$

Base Step

(i) Note that for $n = 2, 2^{2+1} = 8 \geq 7 = 2^2 + 3 - P(2)$

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 $2^{n+1} \geq 2(n-1)^2 + 6$ Inductive Hypothesis
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Inductive Step

Hence, we've just prove that for $n > 2, P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$.

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Inductive Conclusion



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- ◇ Iterating gives us a proof of $P(n)$ for all n



Strong Induction

- **Principle** (*Strong Principle of Mathematical Induction*)

(a) If the statement $P(b)$ is true

(b) for all $n > b$, the statement

$P(b) \wedge P(b+1) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$ is true.

then $P(n)$ is true for all integers $n \geq b$.



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 - ◇ Then, if n is not a prime power, it is a product of two smaller numbers, each of which is, by the **inductive hypothesis**, a power of a prime or a product of powers of primes.
 - ◇ Thus, by the **strong principle of mathematical induction**, every positive integer is a power of a prime or a product of powers of primes.

Mathematical Induction

- In practice, we **do not** usually explicitly distinguish between the weak and strong forms.



Mathematical Induction

- In practice, we **do not** usually explicitly distinguish between the weak and strong forms.
- In reality, they are **equivalent** to each other in that **the weak form is a special case of the strong form, and the strong form can be derived from the weak form.**



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3. We conclude on the basis of the principle of **mathematical induction** that $P(n)$ is true for all $n \geq b$.



Recursion

- Recursive computer programs or algorithms often lead to inductive analysis.



Recursion

- Recursive computer programs or algorithms often lead to *inductive analysis*.
- A classical example of *recursion* is the **Towers of Hanoi** Problem.



Towers of Hanoi



Towers of Hanoi



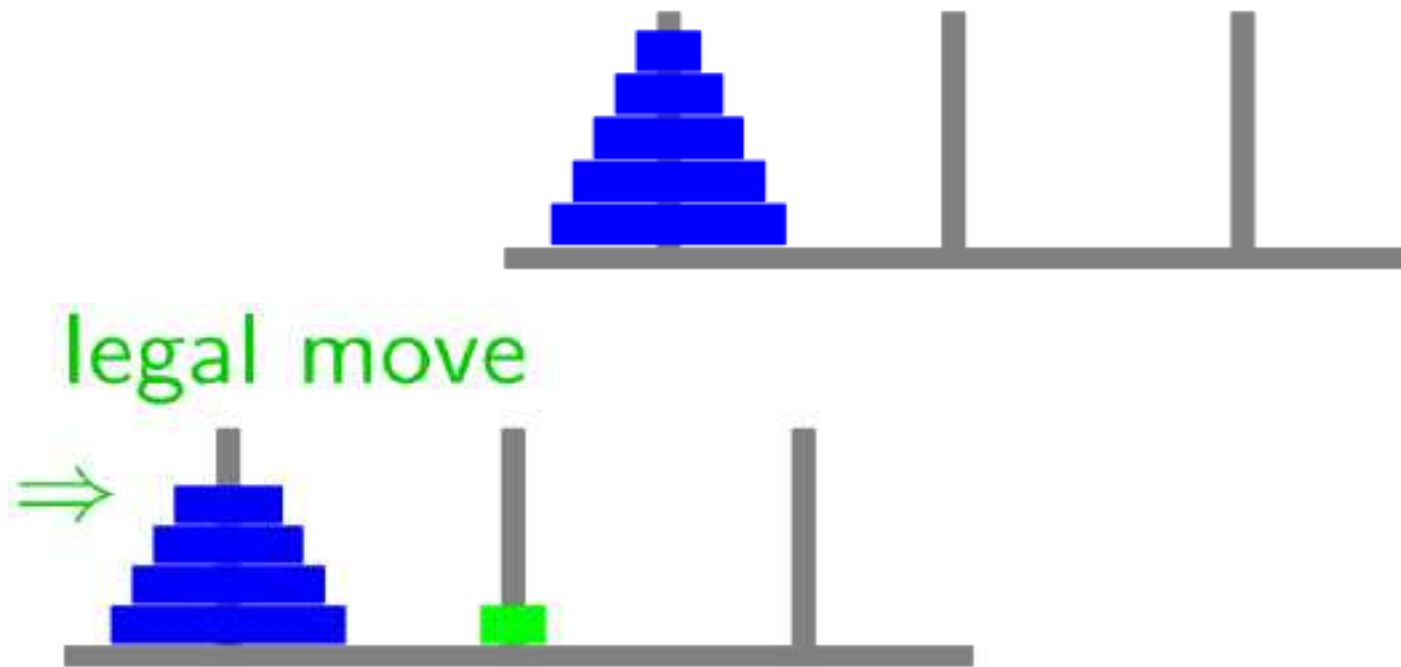
- 3 pegs; n disks of different sizes
- A *legal move* takes a disk from one peg and moves it onto another peg so that **it is not on top of a smaller disk**
- **Problem:** Find a (efficient) way to move all of the disks from one peg to another



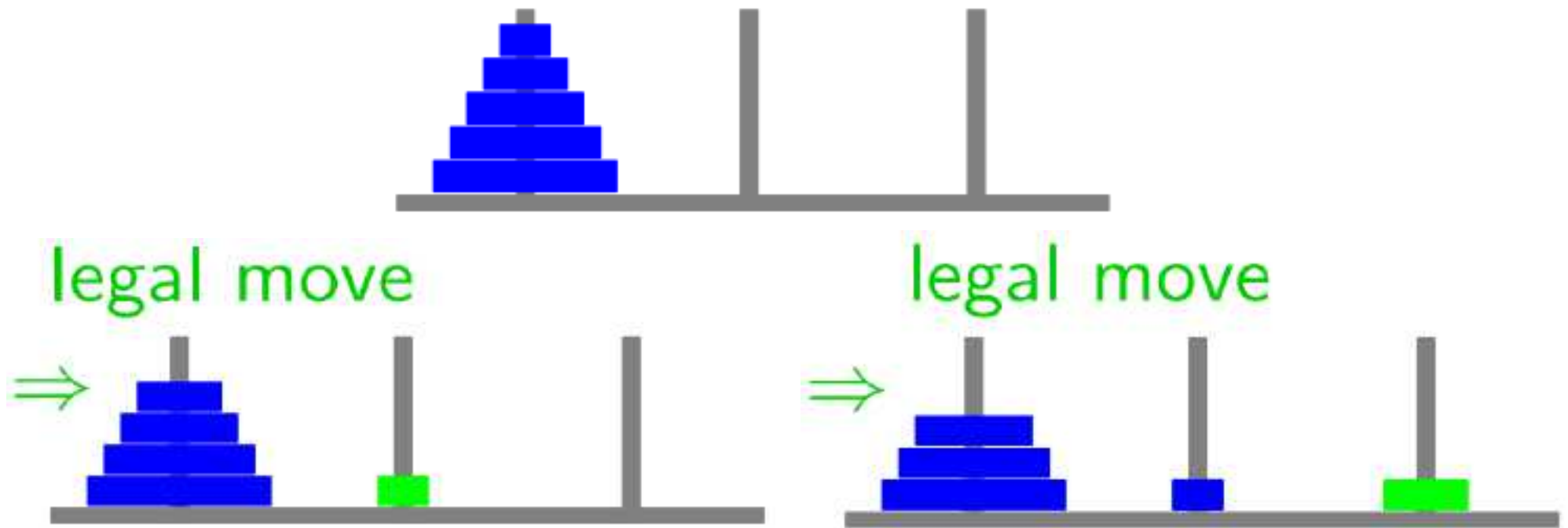
Towers of Hanoi



Towers of Hanoi



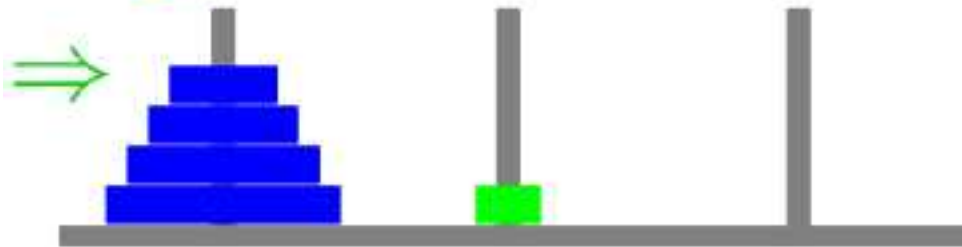
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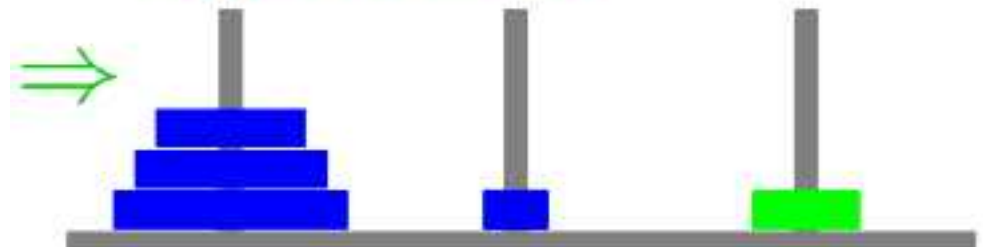
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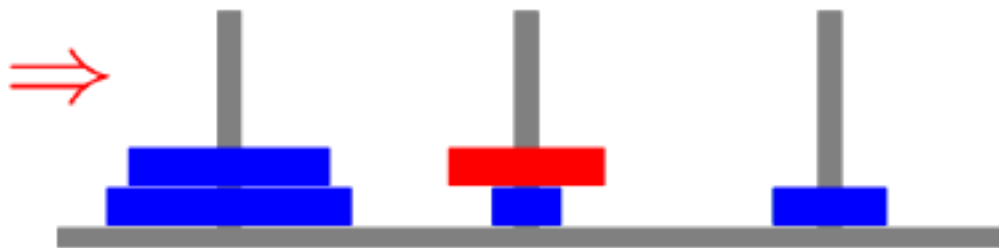
legal move



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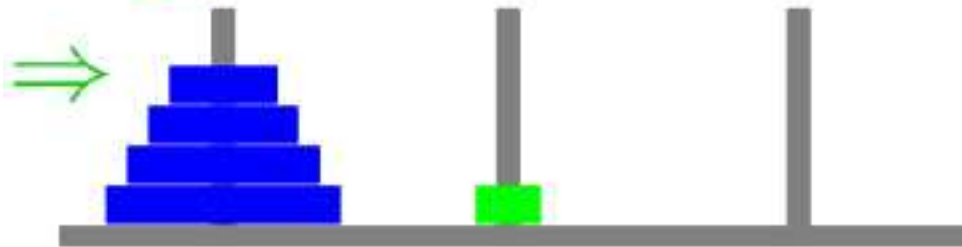
not legal



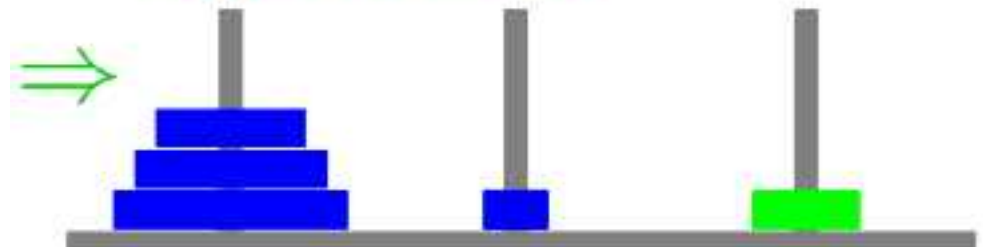
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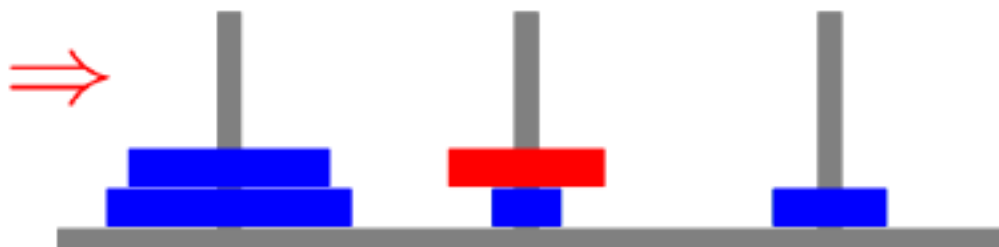
legal move



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Towers of Hanoi

- **Problem:** Start with n disks on leftmost peg



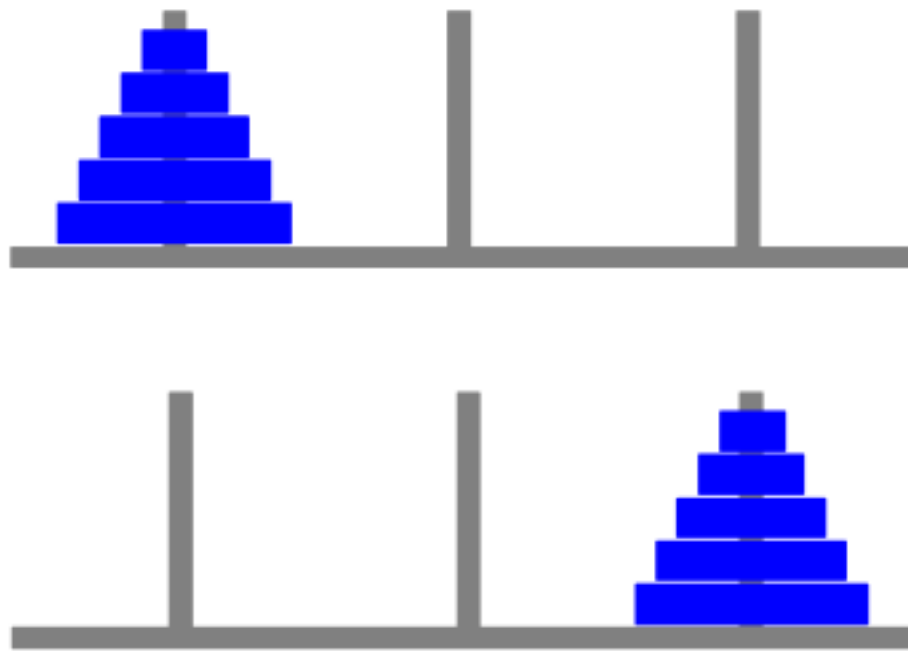
Towers of Hanoi

- **Problem:** Start with n disks on leftmost peg using only legal moves



Towers of Hanoi

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move all disks to rightmost peg.



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Given $i, j \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, let
 $\overline{\{i, j\}} = \{1, 2, 3\} - \{i\} - \{j\}$,
i.e., $\overline{\{1, 2\}} = \{3\}$, $\overline{\{1, 3\}} = \{2\}$,
 $\overline{\{2, 3\}} = \{1\}$.



Towers of Hanoi

- General solution



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Recursion Base:

If $n = 1$, moving one disk from i to j is easy. Just move it.



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To move $n > 1$ disks from i to j



Towers of Hanoi



To move $n > 1$ disks from i to j

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move top $n - 1$ disks from i to $\overline{\{i, j\}}$



Towers of Hanoi



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To move $n > 1$ disks from i to j

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move **largest** disk from i to j



Towers of Hanoi



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move **largest** disk from i to j

move top $n - 1$ disks from $\overline{\{i, j\}}$ to j



Towers of Hanoi

```
3 public class Hanoi
4 {
5
6     public void move(int n, char a, char b, char c)
7     {
8         if (n == 1)
9             System.out.println("plate " + n + " from " + a + " to " + c);
10        else
11        {
12            move(n-1,a,c,b);
13            System.out.println("plate " + n + " from " + a + " to " + c);
14            move(n-1,b,a,c);
15        }
16    }
17 }
18
```



Towers of Hanoi

To move n disks from i to j

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- To prove **Correctness** of solution, we are implicitly using **induction**

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- $p(n - 1) \rightarrow p(n)$ is **recursion** statement that
if our algorithm works for $n - 1$ disks, then we can build a correct solution for n disks

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Towers of Hanoi

■ Running time

$M(n)$ is number of disk moves needed for n disks

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$$M(1) = 1$$

$$\text{if } n > 1, \text{ then } M(n) = 2M(n - 1) + 1$$



Towers of Hanoi

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We'll prove this *by induction*

Later, we'll also see how to solve *without guessing*



Towers of Hanoi

- Formally, given

$$M(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2M(n-1) + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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Then $M(n) = 2M(n-1) + 1 = 2(2^{n-1} - 1) + 1 = 2^n - 1$



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Towers of Hanoi

Fibonacci Sequence

$$F(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ F(n-1) + F(n-2) & \text{other} \end{cases}$$



Recurrences

- **Example 2:** Let $S(n)$ be the number of subsets of a set of size n . What is the formula for $S(n)$?

The empty set, of size $n = 0$ has only one subset (itself), so $S(0) = 1$.

It is not difficult to see that

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We “guess” that $S(n) = 2^n$. But, in order to prove formula, we’ll need to think recursively.



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- Consider the eight subsets of $\{1, 2, 3\}$:
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This suggests that the recurrence for the number of subsets of an n -element set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ is

$$S(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 2S(n-1) & \text{if } n \geq 1 \end{cases}$$



Recurrences

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The subsets of $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ can be partitioned according to whether or not they contain the element n .

Each subset S containing n can be constructed in a unique fashion by adding n to the subset $S - \{n\}$ not containing n .

Each subset S not containing n can be constructed by removing n from the unique set $S \cup \{n\}$ containing n .



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Each subset S containing n can be constructed in a unique fashion by adding n to the subset $S - \{n\}$ not containing n .

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Proof by induction is easy.



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Can we generalize this to find a **closed-form solution**?



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Guess $T(n) = r^n T(0) + a \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r^i$



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$$T(0) = b$$

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This would lead to the same guess

$$T(n) = r^n b + a \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r^i.$$



Formula of Recurrences

- **Theorem** If $T(n) = rT(n-1) + a$, $T(0) = b$, and $r \neq 1$, then

$$T(n) = r^n b + a \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r}$$

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Proof by induction

The base case:

$$T(0) = r^0 b + a \frac{1 - r^0}{1 - r} = b.$$

So the formula is true when $n = 0$.

Now assume that $n > 0$ and

$$T(n-1) = r^{n-1} b + a \frac{1 - r^{n-1}}{1 - r}.$$



Formula of Recurrences

■ Proof by induction

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &= rT(n-1) + a \\&= r \left(r^{n-1}b + a \frac{1-r^{n-1}}{1-r} \right) + a \\&= r^n b + \frac{ar - ar^n}{1-r} + a \\&= r^n b + \frac{ar - ar^n + a - ar}{1-r} \\&= r^n b + a \frac{1-r^n}{1-r}.\end{aligned}$$



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Plugging $r = 3$, $a = 2$, $b = 5$ in the formula, gives

$$T(n) = 3^n \cdot 5 + 2 \frac{1 - 3^n}{1 - 3} = 3^n \cdot 6 - 1$$



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 - ◇ **Linear** because $T(n-1)$ only appears to the **first power**.
Something like $T(n) = (T(n-1))^2 + 3$ would be a **non-linear** first-order recurrence relation.



Next Lecture

- recurrence ...

