CSE2023 Discrete Computational Structures

Lecture 13

4.3 Theorem

- Theorem: There are infinitely many primes
- Proof by contradiction
- Assume that there are only finitely many primes, p₁, p₂, ..., p_n. Let Q=p₁p₂...p_n+1
- By Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: Q is prime or else it can be written as the product of two or more primes

Theorem

- However, none of the primes p_j divides Q, for if $p_j \mid Q$, then p_j divides $Q p_1 p_2 \dots p_n = 1$
- Hence, there is a prime not in the list p₁, p₂, ...,
 p_n
- This prime is either Q, if it is prime, or a prime factor for Q
- This is a contradiction as we assumed that we have listed all the primes

Mersenne primes

- As there are infinite number of primes, there is an ongoing quest to find larger and larger prime numbers
- The largest prime known has been an integer of special form 2^p-1 where p is also prime
- Furthermore, currently it is not possible to test numbers not of this or certain other special forms anywhere near as quickly as determine whether they are prime

Mersenne primes

- 2²-1=3, 2³-1=7, 2⁵-1=31 are Mersenne primes while 2¹¹-1=2047 is not a Mersenne prime (2047=23 · 89)
- Mersenne claims that 2^p-1 is prime for p=2, 3, 5, 7, 13, 17, 19, 31, 67, 127, 257 but is composite for all other primes less than 257
 - It took over 300 years to determine it is wrong 5 times
 - For p=67, p=257, 2p-1 is not prime
 - But p=61, p=87, and p=107, 2^p-1 is prime
- The largest Mersenne prime known (as of early 2011) is 2^{43,112,609}-1, a number with over 13 million digits

Distribution of primes

- The prime number theorem: The ratio of the number of primes not exceeding x and x/ln x approaches 1 as x grows without bound
- Can use this theorem to estimate the odds that a randomly chosen number is prime
- The odds that a randomly selected positive integer less than n is prime are approximately (n/ln n)/n=1/ln n
- The odds that an integer near 10¹⁰⁰⁰ is prime are approximately 1/In 10¹⁰⁰⁰, approximately 1/2300

Open problems about primes

- Goldbach's conjecture: every even integer n, n>2, is the sum of two primes
 4=2+2, 6=3+3, 8=5+3, 10=7+3, 12=7+5, ...
- As of 2011, the conjecture has been checked for all positive even integers up to 1.6 ·10¹⁸
- Twin prime conjecture: Twin primes are primes that differ by 2. There are infinitely many twin primes

Greatest common divisors

- Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The <u>largest</u> integer d such that d | a and d | b is called the greatest common divisor (GCD) of a and b, often denoted as gcd(a,b)
- The integers a and b are relative prime if their GCD is 1
 - gcd(10, 17)=1, gcd(10, 21)=1, gcd(10,24)=2
- The integers a₁, a₂, ..., a_n are pairwise relatively prime if gcd(a_i, a_i)=1 whenever 1 ≤ i < j ≤ n

Prime factorization and GCD

· Finding GCD

$$a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}, b = p_1^{h_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n}$$

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

$$120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5, \quad 500 = 2^2 \cdot 5^3$$

$$gcd(120.500) = 2^2 \cdot 3^0 \cdot 5^1 = 20$$

 Least common multiples of the positive integers a and b is the <u>smallest</u> positive integer that is divisible by both a and b, denoted as lcm(a,b)

Least common multiple

Finding LCM

$$\begin{aligned} &a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}, b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n} \\ &\operatorname{lcm}(a,b) = p_1^{\max(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\max(a_2,b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\max(a_n,b_n)} \\ &120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5, 500 = 2^2 \cdot 5^3 \\ &\operatorname{lcm}(120,500) = 2^3 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 5^3 = 8 \cdot 3 \cdot 125 = 3000 \end{aligned}$$

 Let a and b be positive integers, then ab=gcd(a,b)·lcm(a,b)

Euclidean algorithm

- Need more efficient prime factorization algorithm
- Example: Find gcd(91,287)
- 287=91 · 3 +14
- Any divisor of 287 and 91 must be a divisor of 287- 91 \cdot 3 =14
- Any divisor of 91 and 14 must also be a divisor of 287= $91 \cdot 3$
- Hence, the gcd(91,287)=gcd(91,14)
- Next, 91= 14 · 6+7
- Any divisor of 91 and 14 also divides 91- 14 · 6=7 and any divisor of 14 and 7 divides 91, i.e., gcd(91,14)=gcd(14,7)
- 14= 7 · 2, gcd(14,7)=7, and thus gcd(287,91)=gcd(91,14)=gcd(14,7)=7

Euclidean algorithm

- Lemma: Let a=bq+r, where a, b, q, and r are integers. Then gcd(a,b)=gcd(b,r)
- Proof: Suppose d divides both a and b. Recall if d|a and d|b, then d|a-bk for some integer k. It follows that d also divides abq=r. Hence, any common division of a and b is also a common division of b and r
- Suppose that d divides both b and r, then d also divides bq+r=a. Hence, any common divisor of b and r is also common divisor of a and b
- Consequently, gcd(a, b)=gcd(b,r)

Euclidean algorithm

Suppose a and b are positive integers, a≥b. Let r₀=a and r₁=b, we successively apply the division algorithm

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\begin{split} r_0 &= r_1 q_1 + r_2, 0 \leq r_2 < r_1 \\ r_1 &= r_2 q_2 + r_3, 0 \leq r_3 < r_2 \\ & \cdots \\ r_{n-2} &= r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n, 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1} \\ r_{n-1} &= r_n q_n \\ \gcd(a,b) &= \gcd(r_0,r_1) = \gcd(r_1,r_2) = \cdots = \gcd(r_{n-2},r_{n-1}) \\ &= \gcd(r_{n-1},r_n) = \gcd(r_n,0) = r_n \end{split}
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 Hence, the gcd is the last nonzero remainder in the sequence of divisions

Example

• Find the GCD of 414 and 662

The Euclidean algorithm

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    procedure gcd(a, b: positive integers)
    x := a
    y:=b
    while (y≠0)
    begin
    r:=x mod y
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x:=y y:=r

end {gcd(a,b)=x}

• The time complexity is $O(\log b)$ (where $a \ge b$)

4.5 Applications of congruence

- Hashing function: h(k) where k is a key
- One common function: h(k)=k mod m where m is the number of available memory location
- For example, m=111,
 - h(064212848)=064212848 mod 111=14
 - h(037149212)=037149212 mod 111=65
- Not one-to-one mapping, and thus needs to deal with collision
 - h(107405723)=107405723 mod 111 = 14
 - Assign to the next available memory location

.

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

Pseudorandom numbers

- · Generate random numbers
- The most commonly used procedure is the **linear congruential** method
 - Modulus m, multiple a, increment c, and seed x_0 , with 2≤a<m, 0 ≤c<m, and 0≤ x_0 <m
 - Generate a sequence of pseudorandom numbers $\{x_n\}$ with 0 ≤ x_n < m for all n, by
 - $x_{n+1}=(ax_n+c) \mod m$

Example

- Let m=9, a=7, c=4, x₀=3
 - $-x_1=7x_0+4 \mod 9=(21+4) \mod 9=25 \mod 9=7$
 - $-x_2=7x_1+4 \mod 9=(49+4) \mod 9=53 \mod 9=8$
 - $-x_3=7x_2+4 \mod 9=(56+4) \mod 9=60 \mod 9=6$
 - $x_4 = 7x_3 + 4 \mod 9 = (42 + 4) \mod 9 = 46 \mod 9 = 1$
 - $-x_5=7x_4+4 \mod 9=(7+4) \mod 9=11 \mod 9=2$
 - $x_6 = 7x_5 + 4 \mod 9 = (14 + 4) \mod 9 = 18 \mod 9 = 0$
 - $x_7 = 7x_6 + 4 \mod 9 = (0+4) \mod 9 = 4 \mod 9 = 4$
 - $x_8 = 7x_7 + 4 \mod 9 = (28 + 4) \mod 9 = 32 \mod 9 = 5$
 - $-x_9=7x_8+4 \mod 9=(35+4) \mod 9=11 \mod 9=3$
- A sequence of 3, 7, 8, 6, 1, 2, 0, 4, 5, 3, 7, 8, 6, 1, 2, 0, 4, 5, 3, ...
- Contains 9 different numbers before repeating

4.6 Cryptology

- One of the earliest known use is by Julius Caesar, shift each letter by 3 f(p)=(p+3) mod 26
 - Translate "meet you in the park"
 - -124419 241420 813 1974 1501710
 - -157722 11723 1116 22107 1832013
 - "phhw brx Iq wkh sdun"
 - To decrypt, $f^{-1}(p)=(p-3) \mod 26$

Example

- Other options: shift each letter by k
 - $f(p)=(p+k) \mod 26$, with $f^{-1}(p)=(p-k) \mod 26$
 - $f(p)=(ap+k) \mod 26$

RSA cryptosystem

- Each individual has an encryption key consisting of a modulus n=pq, where p and q are large primes, say with 200 digits each, and an exponent e that is relatively prime to (p-1)(q-1) (i.e., gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1))=1)
- To transform M: Encryption: C=Me mod n, Decryption: Cd=M (mod pq)
- The product of these primes n=pq, with approximately 400 digits, cannot be factored in a reasonable length of time (the most efficient factorization methods known as of 2005 require billions of years to factor 400-digit integers)