

# CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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Division, Primes

Congruence

■ Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)



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$$a = dq + r$$

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 Greatest Common Divisor (GCD) (extended) Euclidean algorithm



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Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

Find the GCD of 286 and 503.

```
\gcd(503,286) \qquad 503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217 \\ = \gcd(286,217) \qquad 286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69 \\ = \gcd(217,69) \qquad 217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10 \\ = \gcd(69,10) \qquad 69 = 6 \cdot 10 + 9 \\ = \gcd(10,9) \qquad 10 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1 \qquad 1 = 29 \cdot 217 - 22 \cdot 286 \\ = 1 \qquad 9 = 9 \cdot 1 \qquad 1 = 29 \cdot 503 - 51 \cdot 286
```



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Greatest Common Divisor (GCD) (extended) Euclidean algorithm find the modular inverse solve linear congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  (gcd(a, m) = 1)



Division, Primes a = dq + r  $q = a \ div \ d$   $r = a \ mod \ d$ 

Congruence  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  if m divides a - b

- Greatest Common Divisor (GCD) (extended) Euclidean algorithm find the modular inverse solve linear congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m} (\gcd(a, m) = 1)$  Chinese Remainder Theorem / back substitution
- Euler's Theorem / Fermart's Little Theorem



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- Euler's Theorem / Fermart's Little Theorem  $x^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \mod n$  if  $\gcd(x, n) = 1$   $x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \mod p$  if  $x \not\equiv 0 \mod p$



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

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

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



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

$$C^{d'} \bmod n = M^{ed'} \bmod n = M^{k\lambda(n)+1} \bmod n$$

$$= (M^{k\lambda(n)} \bmod n) M \bmod n$$

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

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



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#### Case II: gcd(M, n) = p

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

$$(M^{k\lambda(n)}-1) \bmod q = (M^{k(p-1)(q-1)/\gcd(p-1,q-1)}-1) \bmod q = 0.$$

Then

$$(M^{ed'} - M) \mod n = M(M^{ed'-1} - 1) \mod n$$

$$= tp(M^{k\lambda(n)} - 1) \mod pq$$

$$= 0$$



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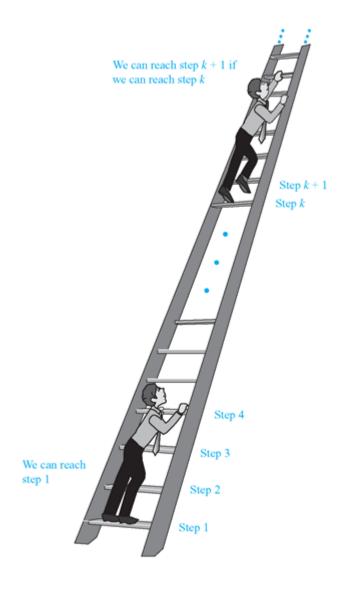
Case III: gcd(M, n) = q

Similar to Case II.

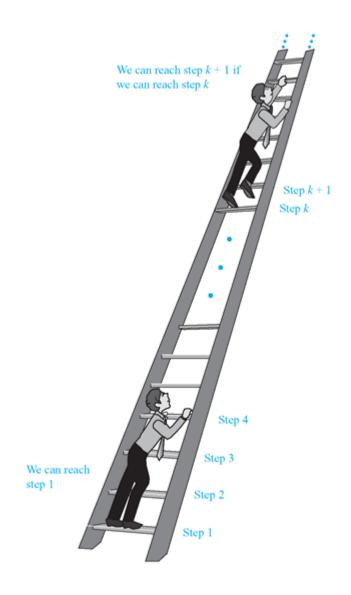
Case IV: gcd(M, n) = pq

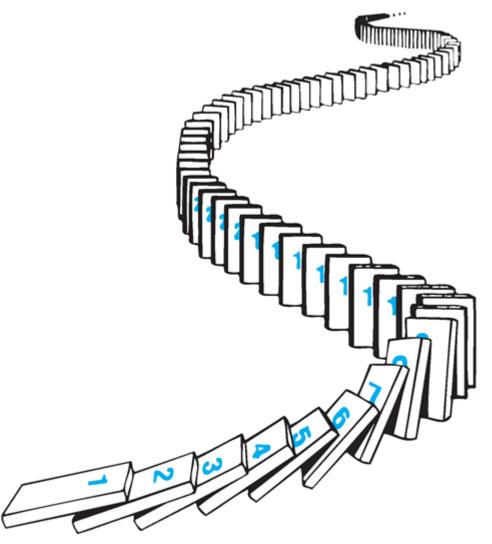
Trivial.













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- 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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- (i) Assume that a counterexample exists, i.e., There is some n > 0 for which P(n) is false
  - (ii) Let m > 0 be the smallest value for which P(n) is false

$$0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \qquad m-1 \quad m$$

$$P(m')$$
 true;  $0 \le m' < m$ 

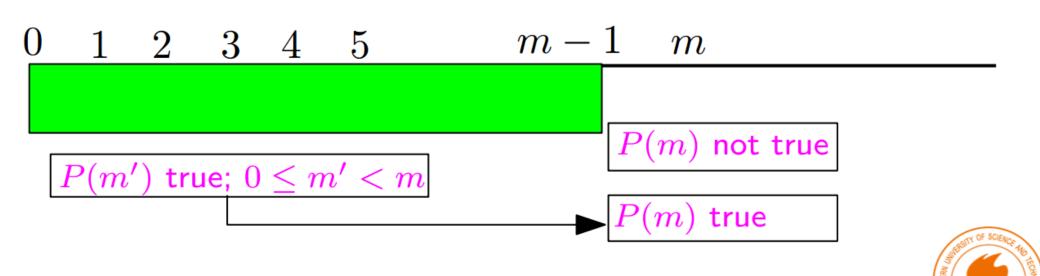
P(m) not true



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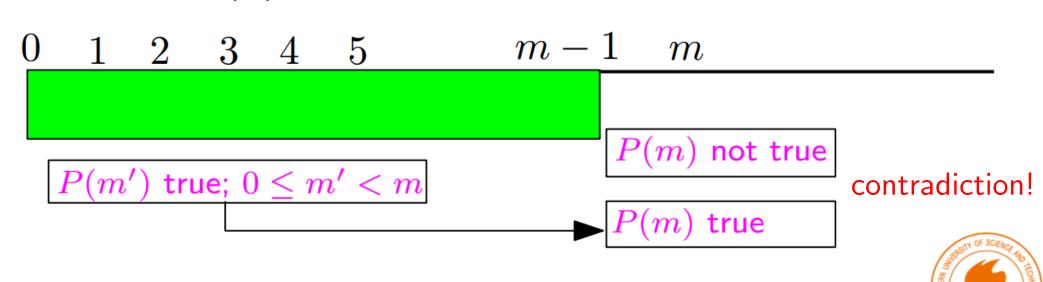
- (i) Assume that a counterexample exists, i.e., There is some n > 0 for which P(n) is false
  - (ii) Let m > 0 be the smallest value for which P(n) is false
- (iii) Then use the fact that P(m') is true for all  $0 \le m' < m$  to show that P(m) is true, contradicting the choice of m.



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



- We now have
  - (i) smallest counterexample n is greater than 0, and
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 Substituting  $n-1$  for  $i$  gives 
$$1+2+\cdots+n-1=\frac{(n-1)n}{2}$$



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    - $\diamond$  Substituting n-1 for i gives  $1+2+\cdots+n-1=rac{(n-1)n}{2}$
    - ♦ Adding *n* to both sides gives

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



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- $\diamond$  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

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



■ Use proof by smallest counterexample to show that,  $\forall n \in N$ ,  $2^{n+1} \ge n^2 + 2$ .



■ Use proof by smallest counterexample to show that,  $\forall n \in N$ ,

$$2^{n+1} > n^2 + 2$$
.

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

$$\forall n \in N \ P(n)$$

is false.



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

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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  $2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$ .



Let *n* be the smallest nonnegative integer for which  $2^{n+1} \ge n^2 + 2$ .

This means that, for all  $i \in N$  with i < n,  $2^{i+1} \ge i^2 + 2$ 



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Since  $2^{0+1} \ge 0^2 + 2$ , we know that n > 0. Thus, n - 1 is a nonnegative integer less than n.

Then setting i = n - 1 gives

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

or

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



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We are now given 
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Multiply both sides by 2, giving

$$2^{n+1} = 2 \cdot 2^n \ge 2 \cdot (n^2 - 2n + 3) = 2n^2 - 4n + 6.$$



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To get a contradiction, we want to convert the right side into  $n^2 + 2$  plus an additional nonnegative term.



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Thus, we write

$$2^{n+1} \geq 2n^2 - 4n + 6$$

$$= (n^2 + 2) + (n^2 - 4n + 4)$$

$$= n^2 + 2 + (n - 2)^2$$

$$\geq n^2 + 2.$$



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  - We just showed that
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    - ♦ This contradicts (\*).



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    - ♦ This contradicts (\*).
    - $\diamond$  Thus, P(n) is true for all  $n \in N$ .



What did we really do?

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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. (the 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, then P(n) is true for all integers  $n \ge b$



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



$$\forall n \geq 0, \ 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$$



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 $\forall n \geq 0, \ 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$ 

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- (i) Note that for n = 0,  $2^{0+1} = 2 \ge 2 = 0^2 + 2 P(0)$
- (ii) Suppose that n > 0 and that  $2^n \ge (n-1)^2 + 2$  (\*)



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- (i) Note that for n = 0,  $2^{0+1} = 2 \ge 2 = 0^2 + 2 P(0)$
- (ii) Suppose that n > 0 and that  $2^n \ge (n-1)^2 + 2$  (\*)  $2^{n+1} \ge 2(n-1)^2 + 4$   $= (n^2 + 2) + (n^2 - 4n + 4)$   $= n^2 + 2 + (n-2)^2$  $> n^2 + 2$



 $\forall n \geq 0, \ 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$ 

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- (i) Note that for n = 0,  $2^{0+1} = 2 \ge 2 = 0^2 + 2 P(0)$
- (ii) Suppose that n > 0 and that  $2^n \ge (n-1)^2 + 2$  (\*)  $2^{n+1} \ge 2(n-1)^2 + 4$   $= (n^2 + 2) + (n^2 - 4n + 4)$   $= n^2 + 2 + (n-2)^2$  $> n^2 + 2$

Hence, we've just prove that for n > 0,  $P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$ .



 $\forall n \geq 0, \ 2^{n+1} \geq n^2 + 2$ 

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

- (i) Note that for n = 0,  $2^{0+1} = 2 \ge 2 = 0^2 + 2 P(0)$
- (ii) Suppose that n > 0 and that  $2^n \ge (n-1)^2 + 2$  (\*)  $2^{n+1} \ge 2(n-1)^2 + 4$   $= (n^2 + 2) + (n^2 - 4n + 4)$   $= n^2 + 2 + (n-2)^2$  $> n^2 + 2$

Hence, we've just prove that for n > 0,  $P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$ .

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



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



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Base Step

- (i) Note that for n = 2,  $2^{2+1} = 8 \ge 7 = 2^2 + 3 P(2)$
- (ii) Suppose that n > 2 and that  $2^n \ge (n-1)^2 + 3$  (\*)  $2^{n+1} \ge 2(n-1)^2 + 6$  Inductive Hypothesis  $= n^2 + 3 + n^2 4n + 4 + 1$   $= n^2 + 3 + (n-2)^2 + 1$   $> n^2 + 3$

Inductive Step

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

By mathematical induction,  $\forall n > 2$ ,  $2^{n+1} \ge n^2 + 3$ . Inductive Conclusion



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 $\diamond$  Iterating gives us a proof of P(n) for all n



### Strong Induction

- Principle (The Strong Principle of Mathematical Induction)
  - (a) If the statement P(b) is true
  - (b) for all n > b, the statement

$$P(b) \land P(b+1) \land \cdots \land P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$$
 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.



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- 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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$$(*)$$
  $P(n-1) o P(n)$  or  $(**)$   $P(b) \wedge P(b+1) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(n-1) o P(n)$ 



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$$(*) \qquad P(n-1) \to P(n)$$

or

$$(**) \qquad P(b) \land P(b+1) \land \cdots \land P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$$

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



#### Recursion

Recursive computer programs or algorithms often lead to inductive analysis.



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A classical example of recursion is the Towers of Hanoi Problem.





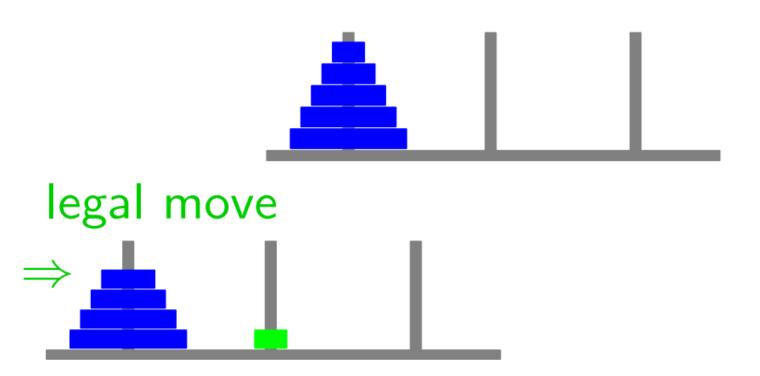




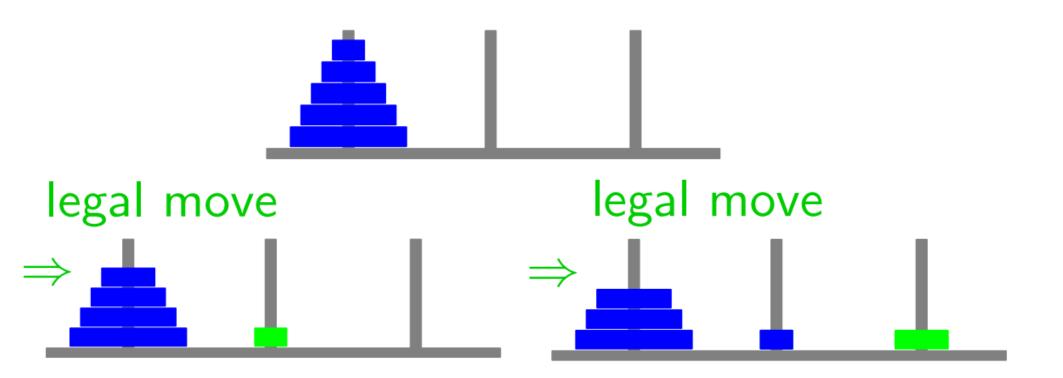
- 3 pegs; n disks of different sizes
- A legal move takes a disk from one peg and moves it onto another peg so that it is not on top of a smaller disk
- Problem: Find a (efficient) way to move all of the disks from one peg to another



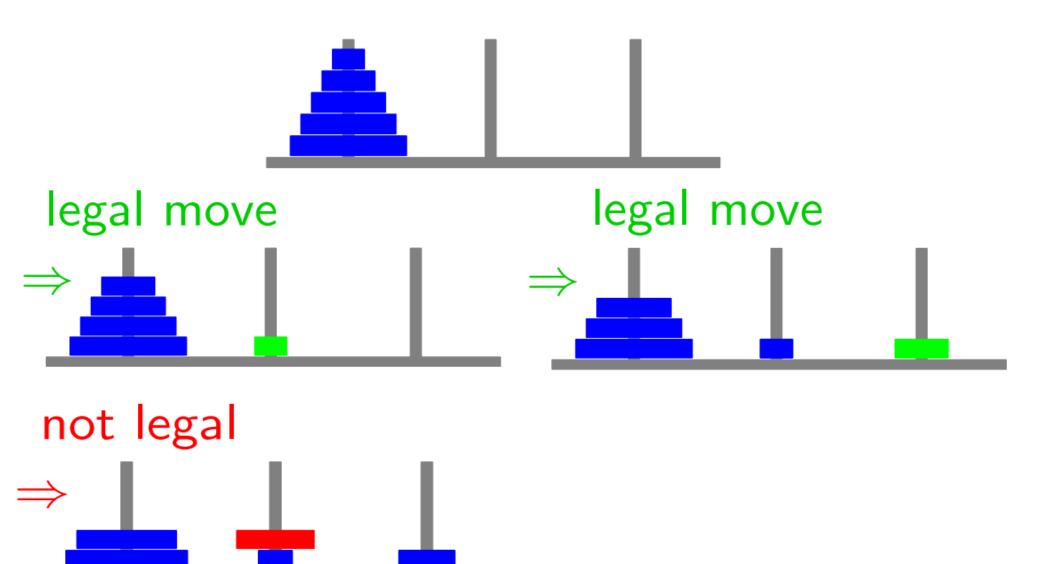




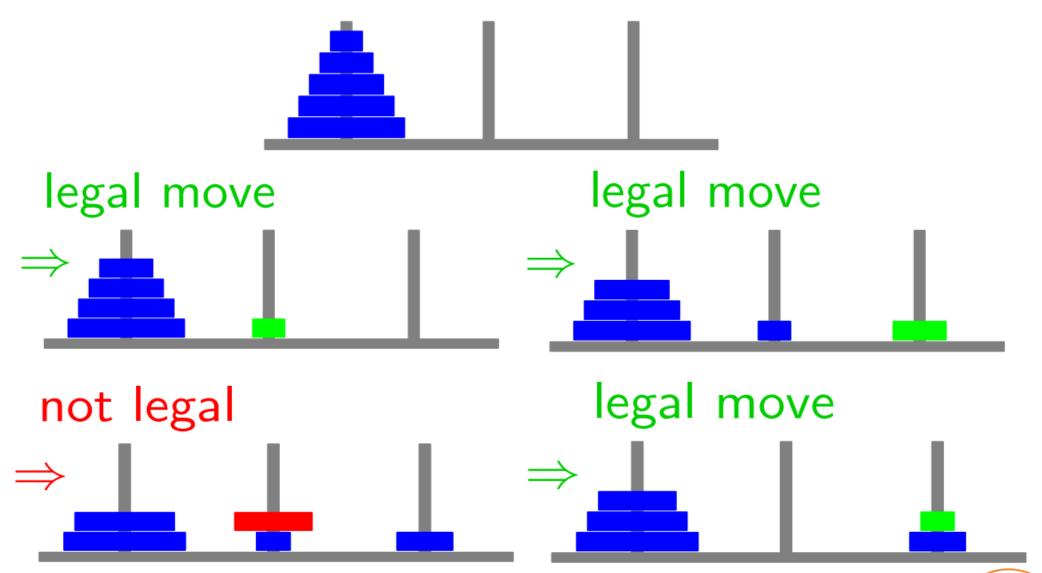














**Problem:** Start with *n* disks on leftmost peg



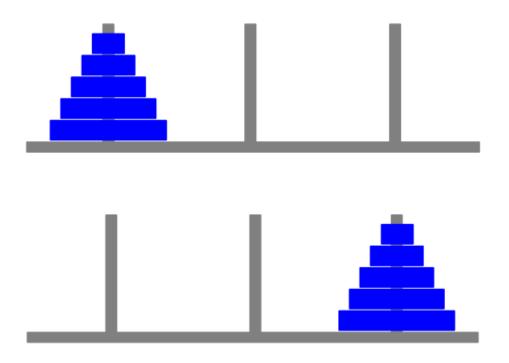


■ **Problem:** Start with *n* disks on leftmost peg using only legal moves





Problem: Start with n disks on leftmost peg using only legal moves move all disks to rightmost peg.





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

using only legal moves

move all disks to rightmost peg.



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



General solution



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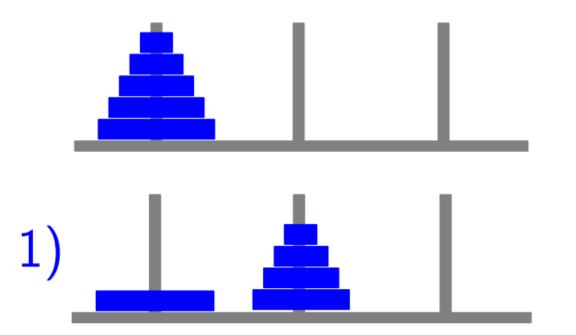






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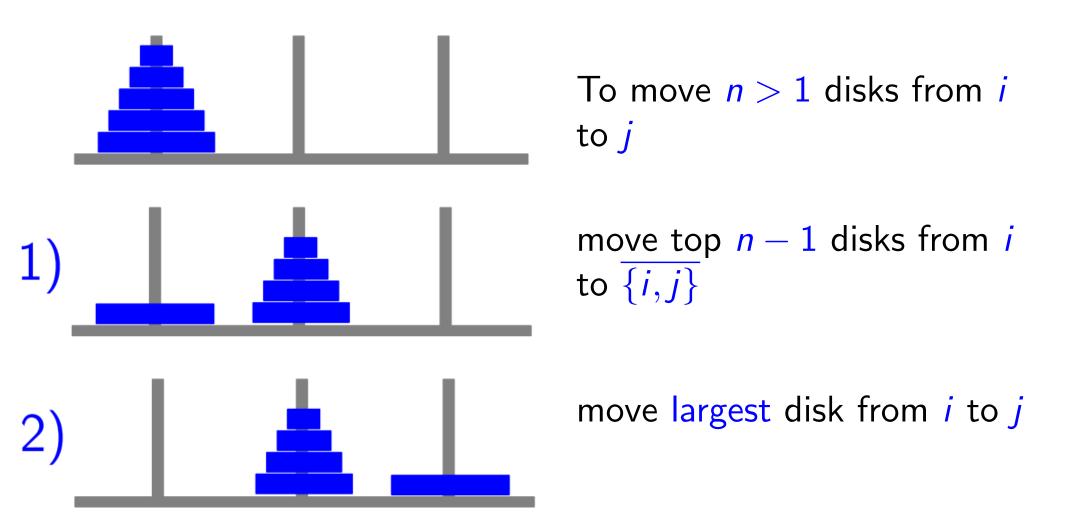




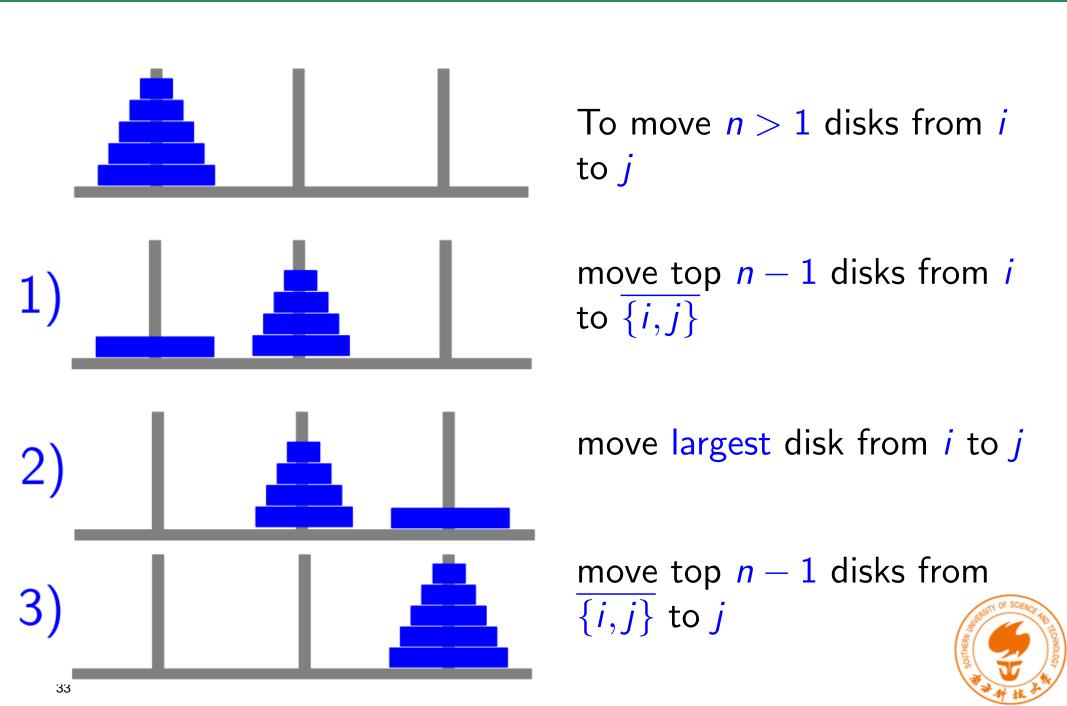
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- p(1) is statement that algorithm works for n=1 disks, which is obviously true
- $p(n-1) \rightarrow p(n)$  is *recursion* statement that if our algorithm works for n-1 disks, then we can build a correct solution for n disks

Running time

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

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$$M(1) = 1$$
 if  $n > 1$ , then  $M(n) = 2M(n-1) + 1$ 



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We'll prove this by induction

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



Formally, given

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

We show that  $M(n) = 2^n - 1$ .



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**Proof.** (by induction)

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For the inductive step, assume that  $M(n-1) = 2^{n-1} - 1$  for n > 1.



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



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The second time was to derive the closed form solution  $M(n) = 2^n - 1$  of the recurrence.



### Next Lecture

recurrence ...

