

Assignment 01

Paul Jones and Matthew Klein
Professor Professor Kostas Bekris
Design and Analysis of Computer Algorithms (01.198.344)

February 17, 2014

Part A

Problem 1

In each of the following situations indicate whether $f = O(g)$ or $f = \Omega(g)$ or $f = \Theta(g)$:

1. $f(n) = \sqrt{2^{7x}}, g(n) = \lg(7^{2x})$

$$\begin{aligned} f(n) &= \sqrt{2^{7x}} = \sqrt{128^x} \\ g(n) &= \lg(7^{2x}) = \lg(49^x) \\ \lg(49^1) &\approx 5.6 \\ \sqrt{128^1} &\approx 11.3 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that both of these functions only grow relative to x .

$$f = \Omega(g)$$

2. $f(n) = 2^{n \ln(n)}, g(n) = n!$

The factorial, that is $n!$, function grows much, much faster than 2^n .

$$f = \Omega(g)$$

3. $f(n) = \lg(\lg^*(n)), g(n) = \lg^*(\lg(n))$

$$f = \Theta(g)$$

4. $f(n) = \frac{\lg(n^2)}{n}, g(n) = \lg^*(n)$

$$f(n) = \frac{\lg(n^2)}{n} = \frac{2\lg(n)}{n}$$

$$f = \Theta(g)$$

5. $f(n) = 2^n, g(n) = n^{\lg(n)}$

This is comparing the exponential function to a function that is less than n^2 .

$$f = \Omega(g)$$

6. $f(n) = 2^{\sqrt{\ln(n)}}, g(n) = n(\lg(n))^3$

$$f(n) = 2^{\sqrt{n}}, g(n) = (2^n)(n^3)$$

$$f = \Omega g$$

7. $f(n) = e^{\cos(x)}, g(n) = \lg(x)$

$$f = \Omega(g)$$

8. $f(n) = \lg(n^2), g(n) = (\lg(n))^2$

$$f = \Theta(g)$$

9. $f(n) = \sqrt{4n^2 - 12n + 9}, g(n) = n^{\frac{3}{2}}$

$$f = \Theta(g)$$

10. $f(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n k, g(n) = (n+2)^2$

$$f = \Omega(g)$$

Problem 2

Algorithm 1: Number_Theoretic_Algorithm (integer n)

```

1  $N \leftarrow \text{Random\_Sample}(0, 2^n - 1);$ 
2 if  $N$  is even then
3    $N \leftarrow N + 1$  /* Worse case, N is odd,  $2 \cdot N - 1$ . */ ;
4  $m \leftarrow N \bmod n$  /* worse case same as  $n$  */ ;
5 for  $j \leftarrow 0$  to  $m$  do
6   if Greatest_Common_Divisor( $j, N$ )  $\neq 1$  then
7     return FALSE; /* GCD is  $O(n)$  */
8   Compute  $x, z$  so that  $N - 1 = 2^z \cdot x$  and  $x$  is odd;
9    $y_0 \leftarrow (N - 1 - j)^x \bmod N$ ;
10  for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $m$  do
11     $y_i \leftarrow y_{i-1}^2 \bmod N$  ;
12     $y_i \leftarrow y_i + y_{i-1} \bmod N$ ;
13  if Low_Error_Primality_Test( $y_m$ ) == FALSE then
14    return FALSE /* Naive primality test is  $O(\sqrt{n})$  */ ;
15 return TRUE;

```

Compute the asymptotic running time of the above algorithm as a function of its input parameter, given:

- The running times of integer arithmetic operations (e.g., multiplication of two large n -bit numbers is $O(n^2)$).
- Assume that sampling a number N is an operation linear to the number of bits needed to represent this number.

- Worse case running n operations with times $O(n)$, $O(n)$, and $O(\sqrt{n})$ (refer to marked-up algorithm above, in comments).
- That's a run time of $O(2n^2 + n^{\frac{3}{2}})$, resulting in big-O of $O(n^2)$.

Part B

Problem 3

- Consider that we have a tree data structure T_m^N , where every node can have at most m children and the tree has at most N nodes total. Compute a lower bound for the height of the tree.

A tree with m children is $\log_m(N + 1) - 1$.

- Consider two such trees T_m^N and $T_{m'}^N$ that are “perfect”, i.e., every node has exactly m and m' children correspondingly. Now, consider the functions $h_m(N)$ and $h_{m'}(N)$ that express the heights of these perfect trees for different values of N . What is the asymptotic behavior of h_m relative to $h_{m'}$ and under what conditions?

A perfect tree will only be changing based on the m, m' values. Whichever value is larger will run faster.

- Consider the following rule for modular exponentiation, where x is in the order of 2^m and y is in the order of 2^n . What is the running time of computing the result according to this rule?

$$x^y = \begin{cases} (x^{\lfloor \frac{y}{2} \rfloor})^2, & \text{if } y \text{ is even} \\ x \cdot (x^{\lfloor \frac{y}{2} \rfloor})^2, & \text{if } y \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$

- On the top level, just like multiplication, this algorithm will have at most n recursive calls.
- During each call it multiplies n -bit numbers, which is in the order of $O(n^2)$.
- The resulting $O(n \cdot n^2)$ is $O(n^3)$.

Problem 4

- Compute the following: $2^{902} \bmod 7$.

I found out how to do this using a website, since I didn't understand how to from lecture ? $2^{902} \bmod 7$ We can find the original, $2 \bmod 7 = 2$ because 7 doesn't go into 2 at all. We can next square, finding $4 \bmod 7 = 4$. Divide exponent in half, $2^{451} \bmod 7$. Next we can do $4 \bmod 7 = 4$ again, and square. $16 \bmod 7 = 2$. Once again we cut our exponent, $2^{225} \bmod 7$. Now we have $4 \cdot 2 \bmod 7 \rightarrow 8 \bmod 7 = 1$. Next we square our other value, $4 \bmod 7 = 4$. We divide exponent again, $2^{112} \bmod 7$, and we do $16 \bmod 7 = 2$. Another cut, $2^{56} \bmod 7$. We can check $2^2 \bmod 7 = 4$. Another time we cut, $2^{28} \bmod 7$. We need to use previous value again, $16 \bmod 7 = 2$. $2^{14} \bmod 7$ from another cut, and we use $4 \bmod 7 = 4$. We can cut again,

$2^7 \bmod 7$ and we use $4 \bmod 7 = 4$. We are almost done and use $2^3 \bmod 7$. We must check $8 \bmod 7 = 1$, and now we are on the final step. $2^1 \bmod 7 = 4$

- **Find the modulo multiplicative inverse of 11 mod 120, 13 mod 45, 35 mod 77, 9 mod 11, 11 mod 1111.**

$11 \bmod 120 = 11, 13 \bmod 45 = 13, 9 \bmod 11 = 9$. For the last one and third one I used Extended Euclidean Algorithm discussed in class. I also used $p_i = p_{i-2} - p_{i-1}q_{i-2} \bmod n$.

Third one: $35 \bmod 77 \rightarrow 77 = 2(35) + 7$ and $p_0 = 0$. Next, $35 = 5(7) + 0$ and $p_1 = 1$. However, this can't be solved.

Last one: $11 \bmod 1111 \rightarrow 1111 = 101(11) + 0$. This one can't be solved either because we were unable to get past the step, like the third one.

- **Assume that for a number x the following property is true: $\forall y \in [1, x-1] : \gcd(x, y) = 1$. Compute the running time of an efficient algorithm for finding all the inverses modulo x^m from the set $\{0, 1, \dots, x^m - 1\}$ that exist.**

$\forall y \in [1, x-1] : \gcd(x, y) = 1$. If we want to find all of the modulo x^m between $0, 1, \dots, x^m - 1$ then we can assume there are m total modulo inverses to compute. An example is that there $x = 2, m = 2$ to keep it simple. This means that every number from $1 \rightarrow 1 : \gcd(1, 1) = 1$ which is correct. Now we need to find $0, \dots, 2^2 - 1$ which becomes $0, \dots, 3$. We have a total of 4 numbers to modulo inverse. The running time to find is the amount multiplied by the time it takes to run the euclidean algorithm. There's a total of x^m to find and the Extended Euclidean algorithm takes $\log(m^2)$. Our total runtime is $x^m \log(m^2)$.

Problem 5

- **Assume two positive integers $x < y$. Then the pairs $(5x + 3y, 3x + 2y)$ and (x, y) have the same greater common divisor. True or False, explain.**

- The way we can solve this is using the following lemma, where for all integers and numbers greater than zero:

$$\gcd(x, y) = \frac{xy}{\text{lcm}(x, y)}$$

- Notice that the left half of the equation will serve as an answer to the the second pair in the given problem.
- Witness that the lowest common multiple of x and y is xy .
- For the first pair, witness that by the same rule:

$$\gcd((5x + 3y), (3x + 2y)) = \frac{(5x + 3y)(3x + 2y)}{\text{lcm}((5x + 3y), (3x + 2y))}$$

- Witness that the lowest common multiple of $(5x + 3y)$ and $(3x + 2y)$ is $(5x + 3y)(3x + 2y)$.
- Multiply

$$(5x + 3y)(3x + 2y) = 15x^2 + 19xy + 6y^2$$

- Notice that the claim being tested by the problem can be symbolized by the following:

$$\forall x \forall y ((x < y \wedge x, y \neq 0 \wedge x, y \in \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \gcd((5x + 3y), (3x + 2y)) = \gcd(x, y))$$

- Just consider the consequent:

$$\gcd((5x + 3y), (3x + 2y)) = \gcd(x, y)$$

- Substitute the equalities we found earlier:

$$\frac{(5x + 3y)(3x + 2y)}{\text{lcm}((5x + 3y), (3x + 2y))} = \frac{xy}{\text{lcm}(x, y)}$$

- Substitute the lowest common multiples we found earlier:

$$\frac{(5x + 3y)(3x + 2y)}{15x^2 + 19xy + 6y^2} = \frac{xy}{xy}$$

- Multiply

$$\frac{15x^2 + 19xy + 6y^2}{15x^2 + 19xy + 6y^2} = \frac{xy}{xy}$$

- Simplify

$$1 = 1$$

- It's true.

- **Consider the following sequence of numbers: $s_n = 1 + \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} s_i$, where $s_0 = 2$. Prove that any two numbers in this sequence are relatively prime.**

- I don't know.

Part C

Problem 6

- **A proof that the hash function family \mathcal{M} is universal.**

The hash function for the family is definitely consistent because each item is only either 0, 1, and we are modding by the total amount of choices, but I'm not sure how to prove this other than by what was stated in class: $Pr = h_\alpha(x) = h_\alpha(y) = Pr \sum_{i=1}^4 \alpha_i \cdot x_i = \sum_{i=1}^4 \alpha_i \cdot y_i \bmod N =$

$$Pr \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^3 \alpha_i (x_i - y_i)}_{\text{given } x, y \text{ and randomly picked } \alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3: c \text{ is constant}} = \alpha_4 (y_4 - x_4 \bmod N) \quad . \text{ However, in this case this would be different be-}$$

cause we have 0, 1 not 1, ..., 4: $Pr = h_\alpha(x) = h_\alpha(y) = Pr \sum_{i=1}^2 \alpha_i \cdot x_i = \sum_{i=1}^2 \alpha_i \cdot y_i \bmod N =$

$$Pr \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^1 \alpha_i(x_i - y_i) = \alpha_2(y_2 - x_2 \bmod N)}_{\text{given } x, y \text{ and randomly picked } a: c \text{ is constant}}.$$

- **A comparison to the universal hash function family described in DPV chapter 1.5.2. How many random bits are needed here?**

Problem 7

- **Assume that number n is prime, then all numbers $1 \leq x < n$ are invertible modulo n . Which of these numbers are their own inverse modulo n ?**

– x is its own inverse mod n if $x^2 = 1 \bmod n$ which means:

$$x^2 - 1 = 0 \bmod n$$

– Were interested in the numbers less than n but greater than or equal to 1, so observe that for all n :

$$1^2 - 1 = 0 \bmod n$$

$$0 = 0 \bmod n$$

– Therefore 1 is a value of x that will be its own inverse modulo n .

- **Show that $(n-1)! \equiv -1 \bmod n$ for prime n .**

– Expand left-hand side:

$$(n-1)! = (n-1) \times (n-2) \times \cdots \times 3 \times 2 \times 1$$

– What we want to do is pair each number with its inverse.

– But some number are there own inverses! Which ones are these?

$$x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

$$x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

$$(x-1)(x+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

– Now solve just with algebra

$$x-1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n} \rightarrow x \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

$$x+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{n} \rightarrow x \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$

– So 1 and $n-1$ are there own inverses.

- Now group all others with their inverses,

$$(n-1)! \equiv (2 \times 2^{-1})(3 \times 3^{-1}) \cdots (n)(n-1)$$

$$(n-1)! \equiv (1)(1) \cdots (n)(n-1)$$

$$(n-1)! \equiv (n)(n-1)$$

$$(n-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$

- **Show that if n is not prime, then $(n-1)! \not\equiv -1 \pmod{n}$.**

- Proof by counterexample for $n = 4$ because 4 is not prime.

$$(4-1)! = 6$$

$$-1 \pmod{4} = -1$$

$$6 \not\equiv -1$$

$$(n-1)! \not\equiv -1 \pmod{n} \forall n$$

- **The above process can be used as a primality test instead of Fermat's Little theorem as it is an if-and-only-if condition for primality. Why can't we immediately base a primality test on this rule?**

- It's obviously possible *in principle* but why both *in practice*? Computing $(n-1)! \pmod{n}$ for large n is computationally very expensive.
- Why? It'll take *factorial time*, which is among the worst.
- Especially when Fermat's Little Theorem gets us a much better time complexity, and even manual checking is more efficient than factorial time.

Part D

Problem 8

Part A

Make a table with three columns. The first column is all numbers from 0 to 36. The second is the residues of these numbers modulo 5; the third column is the residues modulo 7.

- See following table.

Part B

Consider two different prime numbers x and y . Show that the following is true: for every pair of numbers m and n so that: $0 \leq m < x$ and $0 \leq n < y$, there is a unique integer q , where $0 \leq q < xy$, so that:

Table 1: Problem 8, Part A

1 through 36	modulo 5	modulo 7
0	0	0
1	1	1
2	2	2
3	3	3
4	4	4
5	0	5
6	1	6
7	2	0
8	3	1
9	4	2
10	0	3
11	1	4
12	2	5
13	3	6
14	4	0
15	0	1
16	1	2
17	2	3
18	3	4
19	4	5
20	0	6
21	1	0
22	2	1
23	3	2
24	4	3
25	0	4
26	1	5
27	2	6
28	3	0
29	4	1
30	0	2
31	1	3
32	2	4
33	3	5
34	4	6
35	0	0
36	1	1

$$q \equiv m \pmod{x}$$

$$q \equiv n \pmod{y}$$

- I don't know.

Part C

The previous problem asks to go from q to (m, n) . It is also possible to go the other way. In particular, show the following:

$$q = (m \cdot y \cdot (y^{-1} \pmod{x}) + n \cdot x \cdot (x^{-1} \pmod{y})) \pmod{xy}$$

- I don't know.

Part D

What happens in the case of three primes x , y and z ? Do the above properties still hold? If they do, how do they look like in this case?

Problem 9

- How did Mallory do this?

- Represent encrypted messages with C , original messages with M , and the multiple of two primes p and q with N . The exponent of M by e .
- Mallory intercepted the C_1 , C_2 , and C_3 which belong to Bob, Charlie, and David respectively. She knows these equal the following:

$$C_i \equiv M^e \pmod{N_i}$$

- Observe the following from the table,

$$C_1 = 153, C_2 = 196, C_3 = 27$$

- Also from the table, observe the following,

$$e = 3$$

- When Mallory looked up their public keys, she gained the following information:

$$N_1 = 155, N_2 = 203, N_3 = 117$$

- She was thus able to construct the following series of equations,

$$153 = M^3 \pmod{155}$$

$$196 = M^3 \pmod{203}$$

$$27 = M^3 \bmod 117$$

- Now Mallory uses the Chinese Remainder Theorem to compute:

$$C = M^3 \bmod 155 \times 203 \times 117$$

- This message will be smaller than $155 \times 203 \times 117$ because $e = 3$.
- Now the attacker can get the original message by taking the cube root.

- **What is the original message?**

42