

GB13604 - Maths for Computer Science

Lecture 3 – Number Theory

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This course is based on Mathematics for Computer Science, Spring 2015, by Albert Meyer and Adam Chlipala, Massachusetts Institute of Technology OpenCourseWare.



Summary Week 1 and 2

- Proof by Cases
- Proof by Contradiction (Well Ordered Principle)
- Proof by Induction
- Sets Definition
- Sets Relationships
- Finite Set Sizes

Exercise Discussion

For This Lecture...

Number Theory – Textbook Chapter 8

- GCD and Extended GCD
- Modular Arithmetic, and Relatively Primes
- Euler's Theorem, and Rings
- RSA Algorithm

Some basic arithmetic assumptions

For the proofs in this class, we can assume some default rules for arithmetic operators: $*$, $+$, $-$, \dots

- $a(b + c) = ab + ac$
- $ab = ba$
- $a(bc) = (ab)c$
- $a + 0 = a$
- $a - a = 0$
- $a + 1 > a$
- etc...

The Division Theorem

Axiom:

For any $b > 0$ and a in \mathbb{N} , we have:

- $q = \text{quotient}(a,b)$
- $r = \text{remainder}(a,b)$

\exists **unique** q and r in \mathbb{N} such as

$$a = bq + r, 0 < r \leq a$$

Take this by granted too!

Divisibility

c divides a ($c|a$) iff

$$\exists k, a = k \times c.$$

- $5|15$ because $15 = 3 \times 5$
- $n|0$ because $0 = 0 \times n$
- $1|n$ because $n = n \times 1$

Simple Divisibility Facts

- $c|a$ implies $c|(sa)$
- $c|a$ and $c|b$ implies $c|(a + b)$
- $c|a$ and $c|b$ implies $c|(sa + tb)$

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This one is pretty important!

Common Divisors

If $c|a$ and $c|b$, then c is a common divisor of a and b .

Common divisors of a and b also divide linear combinations of a and b .

Greatest Common Divisor

We define $\gcd(a, b) ::=$ the greatest **common divisor** of a and b .

- $\gcd(10, 12) = 2$ $(10 = 2 \times 5, 12 = 2 \times 6)$
- $\gcd(13, 12) = 1$ No common factors and $1|x, \forall x$
- $\gcd(17, 17) = 17$
- $\gcd(0, n) = n$ for $n > 0$

Does **one** gcd always exists? (Yes, because of the Well Ordering Principle)

Greatest Common Divisor

We define $\gcd(a, b) ::=$ the greatest **common divisor** of a and b .

- **lemma**: p is prime implies that $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ or p ;
- **proof**: The only divisors of p are ± 1 and $\pm p$.

Euclidean Algorithm (GCD is easy to compute)

Remainder Lemma: $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b, \text{rem}(a,b))$ for $b \neq 0$

Proof idea:

- $a = qb + r, 0 \leq r < b$ (division axiom)
- Any divisor of two out of $\{a, qb, r\}$, must divide all three.
(Check this yourself using slide 8)
- Therefore, $\forall m$ if $m|a$ and $m|b$ then $m|\text{rem}(a,b)$

Example GCD (Using Remainder Lemma)

$$\text{GCD}(899, 493) - a = 899, b = 493$$

- $899 = 493 \times 1 + 406$ division axiom
- $\text{GCD}(899, 493) = \text{GCD}(493, 406)$ remainder lemma

This is a **fast** algorithm (proof later)

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- $\text{GCD}(899, 493) = \text{GCD}(493, 406)$ remainder lemma
- $\text{GCD}(493, 406) = \text{GCD}(406, 87)$ $493 = 406 \times 1 + 87$

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Example GCD (Using Remainder Lemma)

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- $899 = 493 \times 1 + 406$
- $\text{GCD}(899, 493) = \text{GCD}(493, 406)$
- $\text{GCD}(493, 406) = \text{GCD}(406, 87)$
- $\text{GCD}(406, 87) = \text{GCD}(87, 58)$

division axiom

remainder lemma

$$493 = 406 \times 1 + 87$$

$$406 = 87 \times 4 + 58$$

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- $\text{GCD}(899, 493) = \text{GCD}(493, 406)$ remainder lemma
- $\text{GCD}(493, 406) = \text{GCD}(406, 87)$ $493 = 406 \times 1 + 87$
- $\text{GCD}(406, 87) = \text{GCD}(87, 58)$ $406 = 87 \times 4 + 58$
- $\text{GCD}(87, 58) = \text{GCD}(58, 29) = \text{GCD}(29, 0) = 29$

This is a **fast** algorithm (proof later)

GCD as a State Machine

- States::= $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$
- Start State::= (a, b)
- State Transitions::= $(x, y) \rightarrow (y, \text{rem}(x, y))$ for $y \neq 0$

GCD as a State Machine

Proof of Partial Correctness

- ① **We want to show:** $P((x,y)) ::= [\text{gcd}(x,y) = \text{gcd}(a,b)]$
- ② $P(\text{start})$ is **trivially true**: $(\text{gcd}(a,b) = \text{gcd}(a,b))$
- ③ P is a **Preserved Invariant**:
 $\text{GCD}(x,y) = \text{GCD}(y, \text{rem}(x,y))$ (remainder lemma)
- ④ By 2 and 3, **P holds for any state in the machine.**
- ⑤ So **if the machine stops**, $x = \text{gcd}(a, b)$. Why?
 - The machine only stops when $y = 0$
 - $\text{GCD}(x,0) = x$

GCD as a State Machine

Proof of Termination

- At each transition, y is replaced with $\text{rem}(x,y)$
- $0 < \text{rem}(x,y) \leq y$. (division axiom)
- So eventually $y = 0$, and the machine halts.
- how fast does it halt?
- At each transition, x is replaced by y . Two cases:
 - $y \leq x/2$ so x is halved this step.
 - $y > x/2$ so $\text{rem}(x,y) = x - y < (x/2)$, so x gets halved at the next step.
- x gets halved (or even smaller) every two steps.
- So number of steps is $\leq 2 \log_2 b$

GCD and Linear Combinations

Extended Euclid Algorithm or The Pulverizer

Main Idea:

- $\text{GCD}(a,b)$ is a linear combination of a and b .
- $\text{GCD}(a,b) = sa + tb$.
- **collorary:** All lin. comb. of a,b are multiples of $\text{GCD}(a,b)$
- The Pulverizer helps us find s and t

The Pulverizer: Method

Calculate euclid's algorithm:

- $\text{GCD}(x,y) = \text{GCD}(y, \text{rem}(x,y))$

Start: $\text{GCD}(a,b)$

Keep track of four coefficient: **c,d,e,f**

- $x = ca + db$ and $y = ea + fb$
- **at start:** $x = 1a + 0b$, $y = 0a + 1b$
- **update:** $x_{\text{next}} = y = ea + fb$
- $y_{\text{next}} = \text{rem}(x, y) = x - qy = ca + db - q(ea + fb)$
- $y_{\text{next}} = (c - qe)a + (d - qf)b$

The Pulverizer: Example

a = 899, b = 493

hfill (remember: $e_1 = c_0 - q_0 e_0$, $f_1 = d_0 - q_0 f_0$)

a	b	q	rem(a,b)	c	d	e	f
899	493	1	406	1	0	0	1
493	406	1	87	0	1	1	-1
406	87	4	58	1	-1	-1	2
87	58	1	29	-1	2	5	-9
58	29	2	0	5	-9	-6	11
29	0	-	-	-6	11	-	-

$$\text{GCD}(899, 493) = 29 = -6 \times 899 + 11 \times 493$$

The Pulverizer: One Weird Trick

$$\text{GCD}(899, 493) = -6 \times 899 + 11 \times 493$$

How can I get a positive coefficient for 899?

$$\text{GCD}(899, 493) = (-6 + 493k)899 + (11 - 899k)493, \text{ for any } k$$

Let $k = 1$

$$\text{GCD}(899, 493) = 487 \times 899 - 888 \times 493$$

Remember Robot 1.0?

- It could move 5 steps forward, 3 steps back.
- How many moves it takes to reach “8”?

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- It could move 5 steps forward, 3 steps back.
- How many moves it takes to reach “8”?
- $\text{GCD}(5,3) = 1 = 2 \times 5 - 3 \times 3$
- $8 = 8 \times 1 = (8 \times 2)5 - (8 \times 3)3$
- 16 steps forward, 24 steps back.

Remember Robot 1.0?

- It could move 5 steps forward, 3 steps back.
- How many moves it takes to reach “8”?
- $\text{GCD}(5,3) = 1 = 2 \times 5 - 3 \times 3$
- $8 = 8 \times 1 = (8 \times 2)5 - (8 \times 3)3$
- 16 steps forward, 24 steps back.
- Not the most efficient solution, but we can find any solution with this strategy.

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- $sab + tbp = b$
- $p|sab$ and $p|tbp$, so $p|(sab + tbp)$ and $p|b$ **done.**

- **Corollary:** if $p|a_1 a_2 \dots a_m$ then $\exists i. p|a_i$
- **proof:** Induction on m

Prime Factorization Theorem

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Every Integer > 1 factors **uniquely** into a weakly decreasing sequence of primes.

$$n > 1, \quad n = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_k, \quad p_1 \geq p_2 \geq \dots \geq p_k$$

Example

$$61394323221 = 53 \times 37 \times 37 \times 37 \times 11 \times 11 \times 7 \times 3 \times 3 \times 3$$

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- if $p_1 = q_1$ then we can cancel them, and n is not smallest anymore. ($n' = p_2 \dots p_k = q_2 \dots q_{k'}$)

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- **So we assume** $q_1 > p_1$
- **By the corollary** $q_1 | n \rightarrow q_1 | p_i \in p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$
- But, because $q_1 > p_i \forall i$, this is impossible. **done.**

Congruences mod N

Congruence mod n : Definition

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \text{ iff } n \mid (a - b)$$

Examples:

Congruence has many applications in crypto and hashing.

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- $30 \equiv 12 \pmod{9}$

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Congruence mod n : Definition

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Examples:

- $30 \equiv 12 \pmod{9}$ because $9 \mid (30-12)$
- $66666663 \equiv 788253 \pmod{10}$

Congruence has many applications in crypto and hashing.

Remainder Theorem

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \text{ iff } \text{rem}(a,n) = \text{rem}(b,n)$$

(This is the CS “ $a\%n$ ” definition)

Proof:

$$(\text{rem}(a,b) = r_{a,b})$$

- Let $a = q_a n + r_{a,n}$, $b = q_b n + r_{b,n}$
- **if** $r_{a,n} = r_{b,n}$ then $a - b = (q_a - q_b)n \rightarrow n|(a - b)$
- **also if** $n|(a - b)$ then $n|((q_a - q_b)n + (r_{a,n} - r_{b,n}))$
- but $0 \leq r_{*,n} < n$ so $r_{a,n} - r_{b,n}$ must be 0

Remainder Theorem: Consequences

$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ means that $\text{rem}(a,n) = \text{rem}(b,n)$.

Consequences:

- $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ **implies that** $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$
- $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ **and** $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ **implies** $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$
- $a \equiv \text{rem}(a,n) \pmod{n}$ (important!)
- **If** $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ **then** $a + c \equiv b + c \pmod{n}$
- **If** $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ **then** $ac \equiv bc \pmod{n}$
- **If** $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ **and** $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$
then $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$ **and** $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$

What does this mean?

Overall, arithmetic (mod n) is very similar to normal arithmetic.

If $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ and a' is simpler, you can **usually** replace in the formula to make it easier.

Using $a \equiv \text{rem}(a,n) \pmod{n}$ means that we can **keep the numbers in modular arithmetic between 0 and n .**

Modular Arithmetic: Example

- What is $287^9 \equiv ? \pmod{4}$

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- $287^9 \equiv 3^9 \pmod{4}$ **because** $r_{287,4} = 3$
- $3^9 = ((3^2)^2)^2 \times 3$
- $((3^2)^2)^2 \times 3 \equiv (1^2)^2 \times 3 \pmod{4}$ **because** $9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Modular Arithmetic: Example

- What is $287^9 \equiv ? \pmod{4}$
- $287^9 \equiv 3^9 \pmod{4}$ **because** $r_{287,4} = 3$
- $3^9 = ((3^2)^2)^2 \times 3$
- $((3^2)^2)^2 \times 3 \equiv (1^2)^2 \times 3 \pmod{4}$ **because** $9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$
- $289^9 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$

- And we did not need to calculate any x^9 !

Difference between Arithmetic and Modular Arithmetic

We saw that Arithmetic and Modular Arithmetic are similar
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We saw that Arithmetic and Modular Arithmetic are similar but...

- $8 \times 2 \equiv 3 \times 2 \pmod{10}$
- **Can we do:** $8 \times \cancel{2} \equiv 3 \times \cancel{2} \pmod{10}$?
- $8 \not\equiv 3 \pmod{10}$
- We can't cancel arbitrarily!

When can we cancel $ak \equiv bk \pmod{n}$?

You can cancel when k and n have no common factors.

OR, when $\text{GCD}(k,n) = 1$

Modular Inverses

- **Modular Inverse:** If $\text{GCD}(k,n) = 1$ then $\exists k', k \times k' \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$
- If $ak \equiv bk \pmod{n}$, we can multiply both sides by k'
- $akk' \equiv bkk' \pmod{n} \rightarrow 1a \equiv 1b \pmod{n}$

k has an inverse \pmod{n} **iff** k is relatively prime to n

Euler's Function

Number of **relatively primes** of n between 0 and n

$$\Phi(n) ::= \#k \in [0, n), \text{GCD}(k, n) = 1$$

Let us define:

$$\text{gcd1}\{n\} ::= \{k \in [0, n) | \text{GCD}(k, n) = 1\}$$

- $\text{gcd1}\{7\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$ $\Phi(7) = 6$
- $\text{gcd1}\{12\} = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$ $\Phi(12) = 4$

Calculating $\Phi(n)$

- If n is prime, $\Phi(n) = n - 1$
- If n is a power of a prime, $\Phi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1}$
 - Ex: $\Phi(9) = 3^2 - 3 = 6$ $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8\}$
- If n is ab where $\text{GCD}(a,b)=1$, $\Phi(ab) = \Phi(a)\Phi(b)$
 - Ex: $\Phi(12) = \Phi(3) \times \Phi(4) = (3 - 1) \times (2^2 - 2) = 4$
- **Euler's Theorem:** if $\text{GCD}(k,n) = 1$, $k^{\Phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

The Ring of \mathbb{Z}_n

Working with just Remainders

- The integer interval $[0, n)$ under $+$, \times (\mathbb{Z}_n) is called \mathbb{Z}_n .
- $i + j(\mathbb{Z}_n) ::= \text{rem}(i + j, n)$
- $i \times j(\mathbb{Z}_n) ::= \text{rem}(i \times j, n)$

Arithmetic in \mathbb{Z}_n

- $3 + 6 = 2(\mathbb{Z}_7)$
- $9 \times 8 = 6(\mathbb{Z}_{11})$
- $\text{rem}(a, n)$ is equivalent to $r(a)(\mathbb{Z}_n)$

$\equiv (\text{mod } n)$ and \mathbb{Z}_n

$$i \equiv j \pmod{n} \text{ iff } r(i) = r(j)(\mathbb{Z}_n)$$

As we saw before, most arithmetic rules apply to \mathbb{Z}_n arithmetic.

No Cancelling Rule – Be careful that you cannot easily cancel multiplication!

$$8 \times 2 \not\equiv 3 \times 2 \pmod{10}$$

\mathbb{Z}_n^* – Elements relatively prime to n

- $i \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ iff $\gcd(i, n) = 1$
- i is cancellable in \mathbb{Z}_n
- i has an inverse in \mathbb{Z}_n
- $\Phi(n) ::= |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$
- **Euler's Theorem:** $k^{\Phi(n)} = 1(\mathbb{Z}_n)$ if $k \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$

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- Public Key Cryptosystem;
- **Anyone** can send a secret (encrypted) message to the receiver **without prior contact, using only public information**.
- This sounds **paradoxical**: How can someone construct a **secret** message using only **public** information?

RSA Cryptosystem: Basic Assumption

- **Basic Assumption: One Way Functions** that are **easy** to compute but **hard to invert**
- It is **easy** to compute the product n of two **large primes** p and q ($n = pq$)
- It is **very hard** to **factor** n into p and q .

RSA Cryptosystem: Preparations

- **sender** wants to send a message to **receiver**
- **rcv** generates primes $p, q, n ::= pq$

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(hint: $(p - 1)(q - 1) = \Phi(n)$)

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(hint: $(p-1)(q-1) = \Phi(n)$)
- $(e, n) ::=$ **public key**. **rcv** publishes it widely.
- **rcv** finds $d ::= e^{-1}(\mathbb{Z}_{(p-1)(q-1)}^*)$
- $d ::=$ **private key**, **rcv** keeps it.

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- **sender** sends \hat{m} to **rcv**

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- **sender** sends \hat{m} to **rcv**
- **rcv** calculates $\hat{m}^d = m(\mathbb{Z}_n)$

RSA Cryptosystem: Message

- **sender** encodes a message $m \in [1, n)$
- **sender** reads (e, n) and calculates $\hat{m} = m^e(\mathbb{Z}_n)$
- **sender** sends \hat{m} to **rcv**
- **rcv** calculates $\hat{m}^d = m(\mathbb{Z}_n)$
- **Euler's Theorem** guarantees that $\hat{m}^d = m, d = e^{-1}, (\mathbb{Z}_n)$

RSA Cryptosystem: Requirements

- Find two large primes, p and q
 - Ok because: Lots of Primes
 - Need fast primality tester
- Find e relatively prime to $(p-1)(q-1)$
 - Ok because: Lots of relatively prime numbers
 - Fast because $\text{GCD}(e, (p-1)(q-1))$ is fast
- Find $e^{-1}(\mathbb{Z}_{(p-1)(q-1)}^*)$
 - Fast because of the Pulverizer
- Check the book for the proofs.

Summary of the Class

- GCD algorithm (with proof) and Pulverizer
- Arithmetic modulo n , and \mathbb{Z} ring
- Euler's Theorem
- The RSA cryptosystem

Extra Reading

- Proof for Euler's Theorem
- Relationship between SAT and factoring