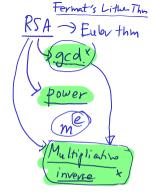
# 01204211 Discrete Mathematics Lecture 8a: Integers and GCD

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October 1, 2024



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#### We will cover:

- Basic concepts of divisibility, prime numbers, and congruence.
- ▶ How to quickly check if a number is prime.
- ► How to essentially perform "division" with integers, allowing us to work with important and useful objects like polynomials using only integers.



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- ▶ Basic concepts of divisibility, prime numbers, and congruence.
- ► How to quickly check if a number is prime.
- ► How to essentially perform "division" with integers, allowing us to work with important and useful objects like polynomials using only integers.
- ▶ Applications like cryptography (RSA), secret sharing, erasure codes and error correcting codes.



#### **Definitions**

## Definition (divisibility)

We say that an integer a divides b or b is divisible by a if there exist an integer b such that

$$b = ak$$
.

If it is the case, we also write a|b. We also say that a is a **divisor** (or a **factor**) of b. On the other hand if a does not divide b, we write  $a \not |b$ .

Examples HAVE  $\begin{cases}
alb \rightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \\
b \Rightarrow ak
\end{cases}$   $alc \rightarrow \exists l \in \mathbb{Z}$   $c = a \cdot l$ If a|b and a|c, prove that a|(b+c). Prof: Because a b, we know that there exists an integer k such that b=k-a. (man): a (6+c)  $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t.  $a \cdot (x) = \frac{b+c}{2}$ Also, since alc, there exists an integer & s.t. c=l-a. There fore, we have that b+c=k-a+l-a=a(k+l).However, kel are integers; thus kel is also an integer. By me definition of divisibility, we can conclude than

because 7 aninteger x=k+l, such that ax = b+c.

**Examples** 

 $\bigcirc$  If a|b and a|c, prove that a|(b+c).

② If a|b and b|c, prove that a|c.

Prof: Since a b, I an integer k such that b=k.a.

Also since b/c, F an integer l, s.t. c=b.l. Thus

$$C = b \cdot l = k \cdot a \cdot l = (k \cdot l) \cdot a$$

Since kel are integer klis also an integer, therefore, we know that

# / positive Defintion (remainder) The **remainder** of the division of b with a is an integer r when there exists an integer q such that b = qa + rwhere $0 \le r \le a$ . mod 3 = 125 mod 7 = 4 -25 mod 7 = 3

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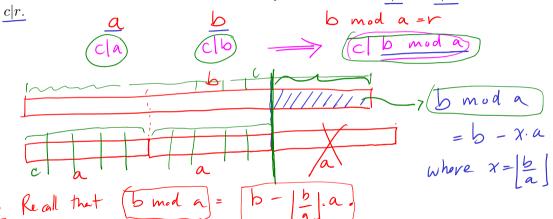
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#### **Examples:**

We use operator mod to denote an operation for finding the remainder of a division. I.e.,  $a \mod b$  is the remainder of dividing a with b.

Examples \_ r = b mod a .

Let r be the remainder of the division of b by a. Assume that  $\underline{c|a}$  and  $\underline{c|b}$ . Prove that



Port! Reall that (5 mod a) = [b-[b].a.)

(Use the fact from everyise 5 too conclude that c divides b-[b].a.)

## More examples

 $a^2 - 1 = (a - 1)(a + 1)$ 

For every integer a,  $a-1|a^2-1$ .



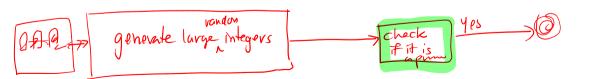
## Definition (primes)

- ▶ An integer p > 1 is a **prime** if its divisors are only p,  $\underline{-p}$ ,  $\underline{1}$ , and  $\underline{-1}$ .
- ▶ If an integer n > 1 is not a prime, it is called a **composite**.
- ▶ Note: 1 is not a prime and also not a composite.

### Fundamental theorem of arithmetic

#### Unique factorization

Every integer greater than 1 can be represented uniquely as a product of prime numbers, up to the order of the factors.



## Algorithm for testing primes



#### Recall our CheckPrime2 algorithm

```
Algorithm CheckPrime2(n)
                           // Input: an integer n
   if n <= 1:
        return False
    let s = square root of n
    i = 2
    while i <= s:
        if n is divisible by i:
            return False
        i = i + 1
    return True
```

How fast can it run?

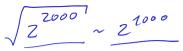
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How fast can it run? Note that  $s=\sqrt{n}$ ; therefore, it takes time  $O(\sqrt{n})$  to run.





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n	number of bits of $n$	$\sqrt{n}$
2	1	1.414
4	2	2
16	4	4
1,024	10	32
1,048,576	20	1,024
1,125,899,906,842,624	50	33,554,432
1,267,650,600,228,229,401,496,703,205,376	100	1,125,899,906,842,624
	'ا	

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Side note: Recall that the first step in RSA is to find a pair of large primes. Typically we want them to be of size in the *thousand* bits.

## Definition (GCD)

For integers x and y, the **greatest common divisor** (or GCD) of x and y is the largest integer g such that g|x and g|y. We refer to it as gcd(x,y).

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What is the running time of this algorithm? Does it run in polynomial time on the size of the input?

# Euclid's algorithm

f g g g g

```
Algorithm Euclid(x,y):

if x \mod y == 0:

return y

else:

return Euclid(y, x \mod y)
```

$$\frac{1}{12311}$$
  $\frac{9}{24324}$   $\frac{1}{12311}$   $\frac{1}{12013}$   $\frac{1}{12013}$   $\frac{1}{12013}$   $\frac{1}{12013}$   $\frac{1}{12013}$   $\frac{1}{12013}$   $\frac{1}{12013}$ 

# Euclid's algorithm

```
9 = gcd (x12)
      Algorithm Euclid(x,y):
                                       g also dévides & mody.
        if x \mod y == 0:
          return v
        else:
          return Euclid(y, x mod y)
                                    <u>57888139</u>
  Let's see how it works with Euclid(12311, 24324):
→ Euclid( 12311, 24324)
                                 275,790,979
  Euclid( 24324, 12311)
                                                             k-y + (x mody)
  Euclid( 12311, 12013)
  Euclid(12013, 298)
                                 179,638,933
  Euclid(298, 93)
  Euclid( 93(19)
                                93,810,803
  Euclid( 19, 17)
  Euclid( 17, 2)
                                18037259
  Euclid( 2, (1
```

### **Proofs**

We have to prove two properties:

- For any integers x and y,  $\operatorname{Euclid}(x,y) = gcd(x,y)$ .
  - ► The running time of Euclid.

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- For any integers x and y,  $\operatorname{Euclid}(x,y) = \gcd(x,y)$ .
- ► The running time of Euclid.

Note that when x < y,  $\operatorname{Euclid}(x,y)$  just calls itself with both arguments swapped, i.e.,  $\operatorname{Euclid}(y,x)$ . After that, in each call, x is always larger than y. For simplicity of the analysis, we shall work only with the case that x > y.

#### Theorem 1

For any integers x and y such that x > y,  $\operatorname{Euclid}(x, y) = \gcd(x, y)$ .

#### Proof.

We prove using strong induction. For the base case, note that when y|x, gcd(x,y)=y; therefore, the base case of the algorithm is correct.

Our induction hypothesis is: for any x' < x and y' < y,  $\operatorname{Euclid}(x', y') = \gcd(x', y')$ . Now assume that  $y \not\mid x$ . The Euclid algorithm returns  $\operatorname{Euclid}(y, x \bmod y)$  as the gcd. Note that y < x and  $x \bmod y < y$ . Therefore, we can use the I.H. to claim that

$$\operatorname{Euclid}(y, x \bmod y) = \gcd(y, x \bmod y).$$

Thus, we are left to show that

$$gcd(x, y) = gcd(y, x \bmod y).$$



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$$x \bmod y = x - \left| \frac{x}{y} \right| \cdot y$$

### Lemma 2

If a|x and a|y, then  $a|x \mod y$ .

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### Lemma 3

 $gcd(x,y) = gcd(y, x \bmod y)$ 

#### Consider Euclid(x, y):

If we start with x < y, the next calls will always have that x > y; so we have at most one call with x < y.

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- ▶ How about when y>x/2? Euclid $(x,y)\Rightarrow \operatorname{Euclid}(y,x \bmod y)\Rightarrow \operatorname{Euclid}(x \bmod y,y \bmod (x \bmod y))$  Note that in this case,  $x \bmod y = x y \le x/2$ .

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- ▶ How about when y>x/2? Euclid $(x,y)\Rightarrow$  Euclid $(y,x\bmod y)\Rightarrow$  Euclid $(x\bmod y,y\bmod x)$  Note that in this case,  $x\bmod y=x-y\le x/2$ . Thus, after two recursive calls, the first argument decreases by half.
- How many times can that happen?
- ▶ The first argument can decrease by a factor of two for at most  $\log x$  times. Therefore, the Euclid algorithm runs in time  $O(\log \max\{x,y\}) = O(\log x + \log y)$ .



$$- F(m) = m \mod n$$

$$- D(k) = k \mod n$$

$$- mod n$$

$$- (00121324227)$$
123

How fast can we compute  $x^y$ ?

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Algorithm power(x,y):

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for i = 1,2,...,y:

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What is the running time?

$$\chi \cdot \chi = \chi^{2} \qquad \left( \left( \left( \left( \chi \right)^{2} \right)^{2} \right)^{2} \right) \dots$$

$$\chi^{2} \cdot \chi^{2} = \chi^{4}$$

$$\chi^{4} \cdot \chi^{4} = \chi^{7}$$

How fast can we compute  $x^y$ ?

```
Algorithm power(x,y):
    a = 1
    for i = 1,2,...,y:
        a *= x
    return a
```

What is the running time? Is it efficient?

### Repeated squaring

If y is a power of two, we can find  $x^y$  using small number of multiplications using repeated squaring. E.g.,

$$x^{(6)} = (x^8)^2 = ((x^4)^2)^2 = (((x^2)^2)^2)^2.$$

# Repeated squaring

If y is a power of two, we can find  $x^y$  using small number of multiplications using repeated squaring. E.g.,

$$x^{16} = (x^8)^2 = ((x^4)^2)^2 = (((x^2)^2)^2)^2.$$

pa-(3,8) po:(14) -3,2 -

logzy

```
Repeated squaring (general y)
        Algorithm power(x,y):
          if y == 0:
            return 1
          else:
            a = power(x, floor(y / 2))
            if y \mod 2 == 0:
              return (a*a)
            else
              return (a*a*x
                                 3-3.3
```

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# Repeated squaring (general y)

x can be a really large number

```
Algorithm power(x,y):

if y == 0:

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else:

a = power(x, floor(y / 2))

if y mod 2 == 0:

return a*a

else

return a*a*x
```

What is the number of recursive calls?

What is the running time?

While the number of multiplication is small, the numbers involved is huge as  $x^y$  has  $y \log x$  bits. Computing  $x^y$  exactly definitely takes a long time.

Repeated squaring (general y, mod n)  $y = 112 \times 10 = 1,120$ 1120 7= 72 mod 101 power (3,1120) Computing  $x^y \mod n$ : pom(3, 560) Algorithm power(x,y)n): if v == 0: 560 return 1 else: 180  $a = power(x, floor(y / 2)) \mod n$ 140 if  $v \mod 2 == 0$ : return a\*a mod n . 70 else 35 return a\*a\*x mod n  $\ell^2. \chi = \emptyset$ 17 value of 6 me l DOW (x, 1120, 101) such that 4日ト4間ト4日ト4日ト ヨ 990