

01204211 Discrete Mathematics

Lecture 8a: Integers and GCD

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Number theory: integers and divisibility

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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.

$$\begin{array}{c} a \mid b \\ \hline a \text{ divides } b \\ \downarrow \quad \downarrow \\ b \mid a \end{array}$$

b is divided
by a

$a \mid b \rightarrow b$ is a multiple of a

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- ▶ 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

$$a|b \neq \frac{a/b}{\frac{a}{b}}$$

Definition (divisibility)

We say that an integer a **divides** b or b **is divisible by** a if there exist an integer k 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 $a \nmid b$.

Examples

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

① Because $a|b$, there exists integer k such that $b = ka$.

② Because $a|c$, \exists integer m , s.t. $c = ma$.

③ From ① & ②,

$$\begin{aligned} b+c &= ka+ma \\ &= (k+m)a. \end{aligned}$$

④ Since k & m are integers, $k+m$ is an integer.

⑤ \exists integer x , s.t. $b+c = ax$ $\Rightarrow a|(b+c)$.
 $(k+m)$

Definition: for any integer x & y , we say that $x|y$ if there exists an integer k such that $y = kx$

$$\forall x, \forall y [x|y \Leftrightarrow \exists k, y = kx]$$

(universe = set of all integers.)

ex: $3 | 12$ because $\exists k = 4$
 $12 = 4 \cdot 3$

$3 \nmid 10$ because for k
 $10 \neq 3 \cdot k$

Examples

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

Because $a|b$ & $a|c$, there exist integers k & m such that

$$b = k \cdot a \quad \& \quad c = m \cdot a$$

Thus $b+c = k \cdot a + m \cdot a = (k+m) \cdot a$.

Since k & m are integers, $k+m$ is also an integer.

Therefore there exists an integer $x = k+m$, s.t.

$$b+c = a \cdot x$$

This implies that $a|(b+c)$.

Examples

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

Then exist integers $k \in \mathbb{Z}$
s.t.

$$b = ka, c = mb.$$

Therefor

$$c = mb = m(ka) = (mk) \cdot a.$$

Since m & k are int,
 mk is an inter.

Thus there $\exists x = mk$
s.t. $c = x \cdot a = (mk)a$
 $\Rightarrow a|c$. as reqd..

If $a|b$ and $b|c$, prove that $a|c$. ✓

Remainder

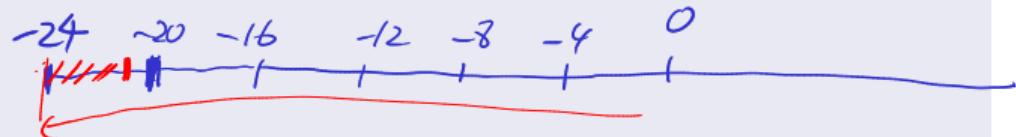
~~non negative~~

Definition (remainder)

The **remainder** of the division of b with a is an integer r when there exists an integer q such that

where $0 \leq r < a$.

$$b = qa + r,$$



divide
21 with 8

$$\text{remainder} = 1$$

divider
-21 with 9

$$\text{remainder} = \cancel{\cancel{2}} \quad 3$$

Remainder

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$b \bmod a$.

Examples:

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

Examples

$$r = b \bmod a.$$

If $c|a$ & $c|b \Rightarrow c|r$

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

Examples

$$r = b \bmod a$$

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



Since $c|a$ & $c|b$, there exist integers k & m

s.t. $a = k \cdot c$ & $b = m \cdot c$

Since $r = b \bmod a$, \exists integer q s.t. $b = q \cdot a + r$
 $\Rightarrow r = b - q \cdot a$.

(Your work: prove that $c|r$) Write $r = b - q \cdot a = m \cdot c - q \cdot k \cdot c$
 $= (m - qk)c$.

*Because q, k, m are int, $m - qk$ is an int, ...

More examples

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

Primes

RSA need 2 large primes
(Igva (amps))
- pick random number
→ check if it is a prime*

Definition (primes)

- An integer $p > 1$ is a **prime** if its divisors are only p , $-p$, 1, and -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

$$120 = 12 \cdot 10$$

$$= 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 5$$

$$= 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 5$$

$$= \boxed{2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5}$$

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
```

$n-2$

iterations

$\cdot \sqrt{n}$

Then

1000-digit limit

(n)

divide n by
 $2, 3, \dots, n-1$

if n is composite

$\exists a \& b$ s.t.
 $a \& b$ are int.

& $\frac{ab}{a} = n$

► if n is a comp.
 a or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$.

How fast can it run?

Prf: By contradiction:
x assume $a > \sqrt{n}, b > \sqrt{n}$.
then $a \cdot b > \sqrt{n} \cdot \sqrt{n} = n - \text{contr.}$

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

Efficient algorithms

Is $O(\sqrt{n})$ for checking a prime number efficient?

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Efficient algorithms

$$\text{Is } O(\sqrt{n}) = \underline{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil}$$

Is $O(\sqrt{n})$ for checking a prime number efficient?

What is the “size” of the input to the problem? The input contains one integer n ; is the size of the input just 1?

When working with input consisting only a few numbers, we typically use the number of bits. For integer \underline{n} , the number of bits of n is $\lceil \log_2 n \rceil$.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 32 & \overbrace{10000}^{\text{6 bit}} \\ 64 & \overbrace{1000000}^{\text{7 bit}} \\ 1024 & \overbrace{1000000000}^{\text{10 bit}} \end{array}$$

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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

Efficient algorithms

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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.

Greatest Common Divisors (GCD)

$$\frac{6}{5\cancel{2}} + \frac{7}{3\cdot 3\cancel{2}} = \frac{\cancel{2} - \cancel{90}}{\cancel{90}/\text{cm}}$$

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 $\gcd(x, y)$.

26880 12571

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A simple way to find $\gcd(x, y)$:

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(g = min(x,y)
  while (x mod g != 0) or (y mod g != 0):
    g -= 1
  return g)
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$O(\min(x, y))$

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    g -= 1
return g
```

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

Euclid's algorithm

```
Algorithm Euclid(x,y):
```

```
    if x mod y == 0:
```

```
        return y
```

```
    else:
```

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

if $x > y$

- first argument decreases.
- second argument $<$ from

\Rightarrow Euclid terminates.

x

y

12571

26880

26880

12571

12571

$1738 = 26880 \text{ mod } 12571$

1738

$405 = 12571 \text{ mod } 1738$

405

118

:

37493	6064	21529	9355	73696	21285
<u>0 123</u>		<u>456</u>		<u>787</u>	

```

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Euclid(1234567, 1234560)
Euclid(1234560, 7)
Euclid(7,)

Let's see how it works with *Euclid*(12311, 24324):

Euclid(12311, 24324)
Euclid(24324, 12311)
Euclid(12311, 12013)
Euclid(12013, 298)
Euclid(298, 93)
Euclid(93, 19)
Euclid(19, 17)
Euclid(17, 2)
Euclid(2, 1)

Euclid(x, y)
↓ if $y \leq x$
Euclid($y, x \text{ mod } y$)

Proofs

We have to prove two properties:

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

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

Note that when $x < y$, $\text{Euclid}(x, y)$ just calls itself with both arguments swapped, i.e., $\text{Euclid}(y, x)$. 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 $x > y$, 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 $y' < y$, $\text{Euclid}(x', y') = \gcd(x', y')$.

Now assume that $y \nmid x$. The Euclid algorithm returns 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

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

Thus, we are left to show that

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



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

Lemma 2

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

$$\underline{x} - \left\lfloor \frac{\underline{x}}{y} \right\rfloor \cdot \underline{y}$$

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Lemma 3

$$\underline{gcd(x, y)} = \underline{gcd(y, x \bmod y)}$$

$$\left(\text{if } g \mid x, g \mid y \Rightarrow g \mid x \bmod y \right) \xrightarrow{\text{means}} \underline{gcd(y, x \bmod y)} \geq \underline{gcd(x, y)}$$

(If $g \mid y$, $g \mid x \bmod y \Rightarrow g \mid x$)

$$\Rightarrow \underline{gcd(x, y)} \geq \underline{gcd(y, x \bmod y)}$$

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- ▶ When $\underline{y} \leq x/2$, when $\text{Euclid}(x, y)$ calls $\text{Euclid}(y, x \bmod y)$ the first argument decreases by half. *

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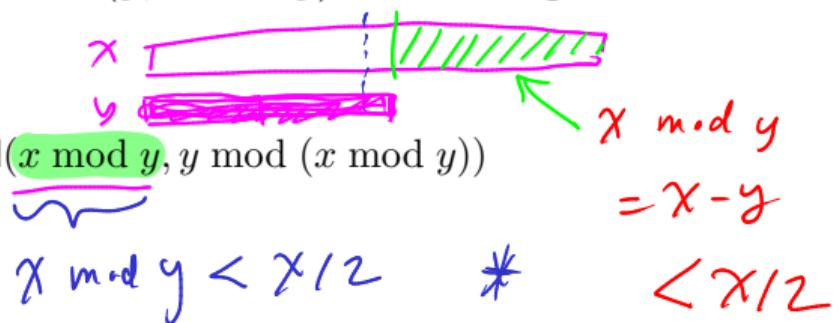
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$$\text{Euclid}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Euclid}(y, x \bmod y) \Rightarrow \text{Euclid}(\underbrace{x \bmod y}, y \bmod (x \bmod y))$$



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$\text{Euclid}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Euclid}(y, x \bmod y) \Rightarrow \text{Euclid}(x \bmod y, y \bmod (x \bmod y))$ Note that in this case, $x \bmod y = x - y \leq x/2$.

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$O(\min(x, y))$

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$\text{Euclid}(x, y) \Rightarrow \text{Euclid}(y, x \bmod y) \Rightarrow \text{Euclid}(x \bmod y, y \bmod (x \bmod y))$ Note that in this case, $x \bmod y = x - y \leq x/2$. 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 $O(\log \max\{x, y\}) = \underline{\underline{O(\log x + \log y)}}$.

Computing power

How fast can we compute x^y ?

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```
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    for i = 1,2,...,y:
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        a *= x  
    return a
```

What is the running time? Is it efficient?

Repeated squaring

$$x^{128} = (x^{64})^2 = ((x^{32})^2)^2 \dots$$

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

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

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

```
Algorithm power(x,y): // for y=2^k
    if y == 0:
        return 1
    else:
        a = power(x, y / 2)
        return a*a
```

Repeated squaring (general y)

$$x^7 = (x^3)^2 \cdot x$$

```
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
```

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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)

gcd - euclid
power

Computing $x^y \text{ mod } n$:

```
Algorithm power(x,y,n):
    if y == 0:
        return 1
    else:
        a = power(x, floor(y / 2)) mod n
        if y mod 2 == 0:
            return a*a mod n
        else
            return a*a*x mod n
```