# 01204211 Discrete Mathematics Lecture 8a: Integers and GCD

Jittat Fakcharoenphol

October 1, 2024

# Number theory: integers and divisibility

In the third part of the course, we study number theory, a once-thought-to-be "useless" branch of mathematics.

### Why?

- ► The topic itself is very very beautiful.
- lt has many applications in cryptography and error correcting codes.

#### 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.
- ▶ 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 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  $a \not |b$ .

## **Examples**

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

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

### Remainder

### Defintion (remainder)

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

$$b = qa + r,$$

where  $0 \le r < a$ .

We refer to q as the **quotient** of the division.

### **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

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

# More examples

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

#### **Primes**

### 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

### 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? 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?

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 n, the number of bits of n is  $\lceil \log_2 n \rceil$ .

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

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)

### 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).

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

```
g = min(x,y)
while (x mod g != 0) or (y mod g != 0):
   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)
```

```
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)
```

### **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.

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  $y \not| x$ . The Euclid algorithm returns  $\operatorname{Euclid}(y, x \mod y)$  as the gcd. Note that y < x and  $x \mod y < y$ . 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

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

What is 
$$x \mod y$$
?

Let 
$$\lfloor a \rfloor$$
 be the largest integer  $a'$  such that  $a' \leq \lfloor a \rfloor$ .

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

### Lemma 2

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

### Lemma 3

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

# How many recursive calls does Euclid's algorithm makes?

#### 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.
- ▶ When can we decrease the value of x or y in the calls?
- ▶ When  $y \le x/2$ , when  $\operatorname{Euclid}(x,y)$  calls  $\operatorname{Euclid}(y,x \bmod y)$  the first argument decreases by half.
- ► How about when y>x/2? Euclid(x,y)  $\Rightarrow$  Euclid $(y,x \bmod y)$   $\Rightarrow$  Euclid $(x \bmod y,y \bmod (x \bmod y))$  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  $O(\log \max\{x,y\}) = O(\log x + \log y)$ .

### Computing power

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.,

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

```
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)

```
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
```

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)

#### Computing $x^y \mod n$ :

```
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
```