

# 01204211 Discrete Mathematics

## Lecture 8a: Integers and GCD

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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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- ▶ 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  $a \nmid b$ .

## Examples

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



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## Examples:

We use operator `mod` to denote an operation for finding the remainder of a division. I.e.,  $a \bmod b$  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  $a$ ,  $a - 1 \mid a^2 - 1$ .

# 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.



# 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:
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        i = i + 1
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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

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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)

## 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

```
Algorithm Euclid(x,y):  
  if  $x \bmod y == 0$ :  
    return y  
  else:  
    return Euclid(y,  $x \bmod y$ )
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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  $y$ ,  $\text{Euclid}(x, y) = \text{gcd}(x, y)$ .
- ▶ The running time of Euclid.

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- ▶ The running time of  $\text{Euclid}$ .

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  $x > y$ ,  
 $\text{Euclid}(x, y) = \text{gcd}(x, y)$ .*

### Proof.

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

Our induction hypothesis is: for any  $x' < x$  and  $y' < y$ ,  
 $\text{Euclid}(x', y') = \text{gcd}(x', y')$ .

Now assume that  $y \nmid x$ . The Euclid algorithm returns  $\text{Euclid}(y, x \bmod y)$  as the gcd. Note that  $y < x$  and  $x \bmod y < y$ . Therefore, we can use the I.H. to claim that

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

Thus, we are left to show that

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



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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  $a|x \bmod y$ .*

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## Lemma 3

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

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

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



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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.,

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

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```
Algorithm power(x,y): // for  $y=2^k$ 
  if  $y == 0$ :
    return 1
  else:
     $a = \text{power}(x, y / 2)$ 
    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
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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 $n$ )

Computing  $x^y \bmod n$ :

```
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
```