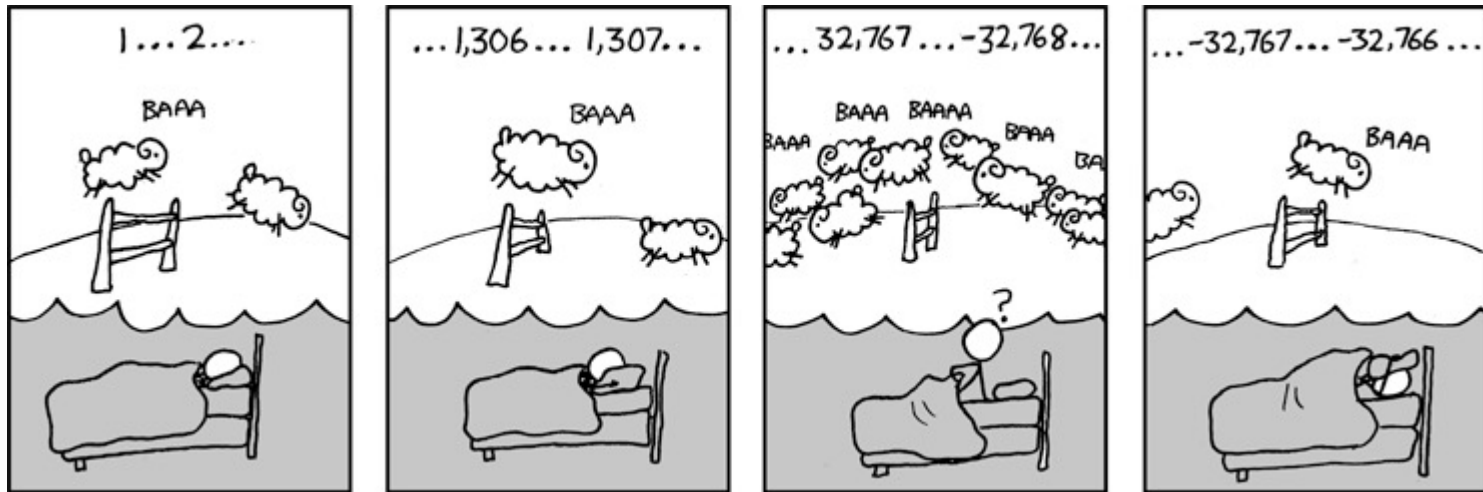


CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

Lecture 14: More number theory & modular arithmetic



Recap from last lecture

Definition: “a divides b”

For $a \in \mathbb{Z}, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$:

$$a \mid b \leftrightarrow \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} (b = ka)$$

Definition: “a is congruent to b modulo m”

For $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \leftrightarrow m \mid (a - b)$$

- **Example:** $-1 \equiv 9 \pmod{5}$

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- **Example:** $-1 \equiv 9 \pmod{5}$
- **Division Theorem.** Any integer a, d with $d \geq 1$, can write uniquely $a = (a \operatorname{div} d) \cdot d + (a \% d)$ where $0 \leq a \% d < d$.
- **Example:** $-1 \% 5 = 4, 9 \% 4 = 1$

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Facts:

- $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ iff $a \% m = b \% m$
- $(a \equiv b \pmod{m}) \wedge (b \equiv c \pmod{m}) \rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{m}$
- $(a \equiv b \pmod{m}) \wedge (c \equiv d \pmod{m}) \rightarrow a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$
- $(a \equiv b \pmod{m}) \wedge (c \equiv d \pmod{m}) \rightarrow ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

Example

Let n be an integer.

Prove that $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ or $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Let's start by looking a small example:

$$0^2 = 0 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

$$1^2 = 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

$$2^2 = 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

$$3^2 = 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

$$4^2 = 16 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

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It looks like

$$n \equiv 0 \pmod{2} \rightarrow n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \text{ and}$$

$$n \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \rightarrow n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Example

Let n be an integer.

Prove that $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ or $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Case 1 (n is even):

Suppose n is even.

Then, $n = 2k$ for some integer k .

So, $n^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2$.

So, by definition of congruence,
we have $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$.

Let's start by looking a small example:

$$0^2 = 0 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

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Example

Let n be an integer.

Prove that $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ or $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Case 1 (n is even): Done.

Case 2 (n is odd):

Let's start by looking at a small example:

$$0^2 = 0 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

$$1^2 = 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

$$2^2 = 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

$$3^2 = 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

$$4^2 = 16 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

It looks like

$$n \equiv 0 \pmod{2} \rightarrow n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \text{ and}$$

$$n \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \rightarrow n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Example

Let n be an integer.

Prove that $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ or $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

Case 1 (n is even): Done.

Case 2 (n is odd):

Suppose n is odd.

Then, $n = 2k + 1$ for some integer k .

$$\text{So, } n^2 = (2k + 1)^2$$

$$= 4k^2 + 4k + 1$$

$$= 4(k^2 + k) + 1.$$

So, by the earlier property of mod, we have $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Let's start by looking at a small example:

$$0^2 = 0 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

$$1^2 = 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

$$2^2 = 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$$

$$3^2 = 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

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It looks like

$$n \equiv 0 \pmod{2} \rightarrow n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}, \text{ and}$$

$$n \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \rightarrow n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}.$$

Result follows by “proof by cases”: n is either even or not even (odd)

n-bit Unsigned Integer Representation

- Represent integer x as sum of powers of 2:

If $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i 2^i$ where each $b_i \in \{0,1\}$

then representation is $b_{n-1} \dots b_2 b_1 b_0$

$$99 = 64 + 32 + 2 + 1$$

$$18 = 16 + 2$$

- For $n = 8$:

99: 0110 0011

18: 0001 0010

Sign-Magnitude Integer Representation

n-bit signed integers

Suppose that $-2^{n-1} < x < 2^{n-1}$

First bit as the sign, $n - 1$ bits for the value

$$99 = 64 + 32 + 2 + 1$$

$$18 = 16 + 2$$

For $n = 8$:

$$99: \quad 0110 \ 0011$$

$$-18: \quad 1001 \ 0010$$

Any problems with this representation?

Two's Complement Representation

n bit signed integers, first bit will still be the sign bit

Suppose that $0 \leq x < 2^{n-1}$,

x is represented by the binary representation of x

Suppose that $0 \leq x \leq 2^{n-1}$,

$-x$ is represented by the binary representation of $2^n - x$

Key property: Twos complement representation of any number y is equivalent to $y, \text{ mod } 2^n$ so arithmetic works **mod** 2^n

$$99 = 64 + 32 + 2 + 1$$

$$18 = 16 + 2$$

For $n = 8$:

99: 0110 0011

-18: 1110 1110

Sign-Magnitude vs. Two's Complement

-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1111	1110	1101	1100	1011	1010	1001	0000	0001	0010	0011	0100	0101	0110	0111

Sign-bit

-8	-7	-6	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1000	1001	1010	1011	1100	1101	1110	1111	0000	0001	0010	0011	0100	0101	0110	0111

Two's complement

Two's Complement Representation

- For $0 < x \leq 2^{n-1}$, $-x$ is represented by the binary representation of $2^n - x$
 - That is, the two's complement representation of any number y has the same value as y modulo 2^n .
- To compute this: Flip the bits of x then add 1:
 - All 1's string is $2^n - 1$, so
 - Flip the bits of $x \equiv$ replace x by $2^n - 1 - x$
 - Then add 1 to get $2^n - x$

Basic Applications of mod

- Hashing
- Pseudo random number generation
- Simple cipher

Hashing

Scenario:

Map a small number of data values from a large domain $\{0, 1, \dots, M - 1\}$...

...into a small set of locations $\{0, 1, \dots, n - 1\}$ so one can quickly check if some value is present

- $\text{hash}(x) = x \% p$ for p a prime close to n
 - or $\text{hash}(x) = (ax + b) \% p$
- Depends on all of the bits of the data
 - helps avoid collisions due to similar values
 - need to manage them if they occur

Pseudo-Random Number Generation

Linear Congruential method

$$x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \% m$$

Choose random x_0, a, c, m and produce a long sequence of x_n 's

Simple Ciphers

- **Caesar cipher**, $A = 1, B = 2, \dots$
 - HELLO WORLD
- **Shift cipher**
 - $f(p) = (p + k) \% 26$
 - $f^{-1}(p) = (p - k) \% 26$
- **More general**
 - $f(p) = (ap + b) \% 26$

Primality

An integer p greater than 1 is called *prime* if the only positive factors of p are 1 and p .

A positive integer that is greater than 1 and is not prime is called *composite*.

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Every positive integer greater than 1 has a unique prime factorization

$$48 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3$$

$$591 = 3 \cdot 197$$

$$45,523 = 45,523$$

$$321,950 = 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 47 \cdot 137$$

$$1,234,567,890 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 3,607 \cdot 3,803$$

Lecture 14 Activity

- You will be assigned to **breakout rooms**. Please:
- Introduce yourself
- Choose someone to share screen, showing this PDF
- Complete the following proof:

(Euclid's Theorem): There are an infinite number of primes.

Proof: Suppose for the sake of contradiction that there are only a finite number of primes and call the full list p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n .

Define the number $P = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n$ and let $Q = P + 1$. (Note that $Q > 1$.)

- Case 1: Q is prime:
- Case 2: Q is composite:

Both cases are contradictions, so the assumption is false.

Fill out a poll everywhere for **Activity Credit!**
Go to pollev.com/thomas311 and login
with your UW identity

Famous Algorithmic Problems

- **Primality Testing**
 - Given an integer n , determine if n is prime
- **Factoring**
 - Given an integer n , determine the prime factorization of n

Factoring

Factor the following 232 digit number [RSA768]:

123018668453011775513049495838496272077
285356959533479219732245215172640050726
365751874520219978646938995647494277406
384592519255732630345373154826850791702
612214291346167042921431160222124047927
4737794080665351419597459856902143413

12301866845301177551304949583849627207728535695953347
92197322452151726400507263657518745202199786469389956
47494277406384592519255732630345373154826850791702612
21429134616704292143116022212404792747377940806653514
19597459856902143413

=

334780716989568987860441698482126908177047949837
137685689124313889828837938780022876147116525317
43087737814467999489

×

367460436667995904282446337996279526322791581643
430876426760322838157396665112792333734171433968
10270092798736308917

Greatest Common Divisor

GCD(a , b):

Largest integer d such that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$

- $\text{GCD}(100, 125) =$
- $\text{GCD}(17, 49) =$
- $\text{GCD}(11, 66) =$
- $\text{GCD}(13, 0) =$
- $\text{GCD}(180, 252) =$

GCD and Factoring

$$a = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7 \cdot 11 = 46,200$$

$$b = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^3 \cdot 7 \cdot 13 = 204,750$$

$$\text{GCD}(a, b) = 2^{\min(3,1)} \cdot 3^{\min(1,2)} \cdot 5^{\min(2,3)} \cdot 7^{\min(1,1)} \cdot 11^{\min(1,0)} \cdot 13^{\min(0,1)}$$

Factoring is expensive!

Can we compute **GCD(a,b)** without factoring?

Useful GCD Fact

If a and b are positive integers, then

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \% b)$$

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Proof:

By definition of %, $a = qb + (a \% b)$ for some integer $q = a \text{ div } b$.

Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then $d|a$ and $d|b$ so $a = kd$ and $b = jd$
for some integers k and j .

Therefore $(a \% b) = a - qb = kd - qjd = (k - qj)d$.

So, $d|(a \% b)$ and since $d|b$ we must have $d \leq \gcd(b, a \% b)$.

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So, $d|(a \% b)$ and since $d|b$ we must have $d \leq \gcd(b, a \% b)$.

Now, let $e = \gcd(b, a \% b)$. Then $e|b$ and $e|(a \% b)$ so
 $b = me$ and $(a \% b) = ne$ for some integers m and n .

Therefore $a = qb + (a \% b) = qme + ne = (qm + n)e$.

So, $e|a$ and since $e|b$ we must have $e \leq \gcd(a, b)$.

It follows that $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \% b)$. ■

Another simple GCD fact

If a is a positive integer, $\gcd(a, 0) = a$.

Euclid's Algorithm

$$\text{gcd}(a, b) = \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b), \text{gcd}(a, 0) = a$$

```
int gcd(int a, int b){ /* a >= b, b >= 0 */
    if (b == 0) {
        return a;
    }
    else {
        return gcd(b, a % b);
    }
}
```

Example: GCD(660, 126)

Euclid's Algorithm

Repeatedly use $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$ to reduce numbers until you get $\gcd(g, 0) = g$.

$\gcd(660, 126) =$

Euclid's Algorithm

Repeatedly use $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \% b)$ to reduce numbers until you get $\gcd(g, 0) = g$.

$$\begin{aligned}\gcd(660, 126) &= \gcd(126, 660 \% 126) = \gcd(126, 30) \\ &= \gcd(30, 126 \% 30) &&= \gcd(30, 6) \\ &= \gcd(6, 30 \% 6) &&= \gcd(6, 0) \\ &= 6\end{aligned}$$

Euclid's Algorithm

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$$\begin{aligned}\gcd(660, 126) &= \gcd(126, 660 \% 126) = \gcd(126, 30) \\ &= \gcd(30, 126 \% 30) &&= \gcd(30, 6) \\ &= \gcd(6, 30 \% 6) &&= \gcd(6, 0) \\ &= 6\end{aligned}$$

In tableau form:

$$\begin{aligned}660 &= 5 * 126 + 30 \\ 126 &= 4 * 30 + \textcircled{6} \\ 30 &= 5 * 6 + 0\end{aligned}$$

Bézout's theorem

If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb.$$

Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Can use Euclid's Algorithm to find s, t such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$$

Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Can use Euclid's Algorithm to find s, t such that

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Step 1 (Compute GCD & Keep Tableau Information):

$$\begin{array}{ccc} a & b & \\ \gcd(35, 27) & = \gcd(27, 35 \bmod 27) & = \gcd(27, 8) \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} a = q * b + r \\ 35 = 1 * 27 + 8 \end{array}$$

Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Can use Euclid's Algorithm to find s, t such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$$

Step 1 (Compute GCD & Keep Tableau Information):

a	b	b	$a \bmod b = r$	b	r
$\gcd(35, 27)$	$= \gcd(27, 35 \bmod 27)$	$= \gcd(27, 8)$			
	$= \gcd(8, 27 \bmod 8)$	$= \gcd(8, 3)$			
	$= \gcd(3, 8 \bmod 3)$	$= \gcd(3, 2)$			
	$= \gcd(2, 3 \bmod 2)$	$= \gcd(2, 1)$			
	$= \gcd(1, 2 \bmod 1)$	$= \gcd(1, 0)$			

a	$=$	q	$*$	b	$+$	r
35	$=$	1	$*$	27	$+$	8
27	$=$	3	$*$	8	$+$	3
8	$=$	2	$*$	3	$+$	2
3	$=$	1	$*$	2	$+$	1

Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Can use Euclid's Algorithm to find s, t such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$$

Step 2 (Solve the equations for r):

$$a = q * b + r$$

$$35 = 1 * 27 + 8$$

$$27 = 3 * 8 + 3$$

$$8 = 2 * 3 + 2$$

$$3 = 1 * 2 + 1$$

$$2 = 2 * 1 + 0$$

$$r = a - q * b$$

$$8 = 35 - 1 * 27$$

Extended Euclidean algorithm

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$$1 = 3 - 1 * 2$$

Extended Euclidean algorithm

- Can use Euclid's Algorithm to find s, t such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$$

Step 3 (Backward Substitute Equations):

$$8 = 35 - 1 * \textcircled{27}$$

$$3 = 27 - 3 * \textcircled{8}$$

$$2 = 8 - 2 * \textcircled{3}$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 * \textcircled{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 3 - 1 * (8 - 2 * 3) \\ &= 3 - 8 + 2 * 3 \\ &= (-1) * 8 + 3 * 3 \end{aligned}$$

Plug in the def of 2

Re-arrange into
3's and 8's

Extended Euclidean algorithm

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$$\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$$

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$$3 = 27 - 3 * \textcircled{8}$$

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$$1 = 3 - 1 * \textcircled{2}$$

Re-arrange into
27's and 35's

$$1 = 3 - 1 * (8 - 2 * 3)$$

$$= 3 - 8 + 2 * 3$$

$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * 3$$

$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * (27 - 3 * 8)$$

$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * 27 + (-9) * 8$$

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 8$$

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * (35 - 1 * 27)$$

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 35 + 10 * 27$$

$$= 13 * 27 + (-10) * 35$$

Plug in the def of 2

Re-arrange into
3's and 8's

Plug in the def of 3

Re-arrange into
8's and 27's

Multiplicative inverse mod m

Suppose $\text{GCD}(a, m) = 1$

By Bézout's Theorem, there exist integers s and t such that $sa + tm = 1$.

$s \% m$ is the multiplicative inverse of a :

$$1 = (sa + tm) \% m = sa \% m$$

Example

Solve: $7x \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

Example

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$$\gcd(26, 7) = \gcd(7, 5) = \gcd(5, 2) = \gcd(2, 1) = 1$$

$$26 = 7 * 3 + 5 \qquad 5 = 26 - 7 * 3$$

$$7 = 5 * 1 + 2 \qquad 2 = 7 - 5 * 1$$

$$5 = 2 * 2 + 1 \qquad 1 = 5 - 2 * 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= 5 - 2 * (7 - 5 * 1) \\ &= (-7) * 2 + 3 * 5 \\ &= (-7) * 2 + 3 * (26 - 7 * 3) \\ &= (-11) * 7 + 3 * 26 \end{aligned}$$

Multiplicative inverse of 7 mod 26

Now $(-11) \bmod 26 = 15$. **So, $x = 15 + 26k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.**

Example of a more general equation

Now solve: $7y \equiv 3 \pmod{26}$

We already computed that **15** is the multiplicative inverse of **7** modulo **26**:

That is, $7 \cdot 15 \equiv 1 \pmod{26}$

By the multiplicative property of mod we have

$$7 \cdot 15 \cdot 3 \equiv 3 \pmod{26}$$

So any $y \equiv 15 \cdot 3 \pmod{26}$ is a solution.

That is, $y = 19 + 26k$ for any integer k is a solution.

Math mod a prime is especially nice

$\gcd(a, m) = 1$ if m is prime and $0 < a < m$ so
can always solve these equations mod a prime.

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	0	1	2	3	4	5

x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	0	2	4	6	1	3	5
3	0	3	6	2	5	1	4
4	0	4	1	5	2	6	3
5	0	5	3	1	6	4	2
6	0	6	5	4	3	2	1

mod 7