

CSE 311 Foundations of Computing I

Lecture 10
Modular Arithmetic
Spring 2013

1

Announcements

- Reading assignments
 - Modular Arithmetic:
 - 4.1-4.2 7th Edition
 - 3.4-3.5 6th Edition
 - For Wednesday-Monday:
 - 4.3-4.4 to page 277 7th Edition
 - 3.6-3.7 to page 236 6th Edition
- Pick up your graded HW 2 (max 83 points)

2

Highlights from last lecture: Set Theory

$x \in A$: “ x is an element of A ”
 $x \notin A$: $\neg (x \in A)$

$A = B \equiv \forall x (x \in A \leftrightarrow x \in B)$

$(A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq A) \rightarrow A = B$

$A \cup B = \{ x \mid (x \in A) \vee (x \in B) \}$

3

Applications of Set Theory

- Implementation: Characteristic Vector
- Private Key Cryptography
- Unix File Permissions

4

Russell's Paradox

$$S = \{ x \mid x \notin x \}$$

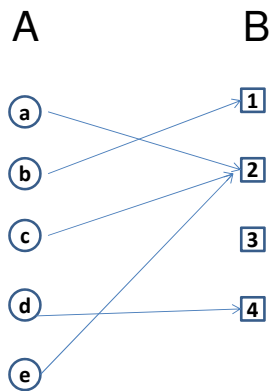
5

Functions review

- A *function* from A to B
 - an assignment of exactly one element of B to each element of A .
 - We write $f: A \rightarrow B$.
 - "Image of a " = $f(a)$
- *Domain* of $f: A$
- *Range* of f = set of all images of elements of A

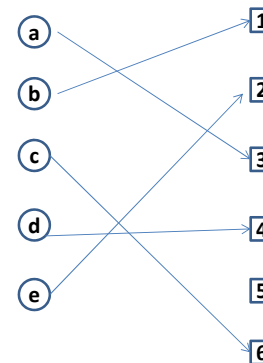
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Image, Preimage



7

Is this a function? one-to-one? onto?



8

Number Theory (and applications to computing)

- Branch of Mathematics with direct relevance to computing
- Many significant applications
 - Cryptography
 - Hashing
 - Security
- Important tool set

9

Modular Arithmetic

- Arithmetic over a finite domain
- In computing, almost all computations are over a finite domain

10

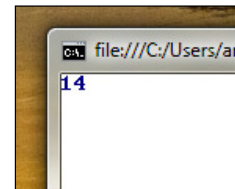
What are the values computed?

```
public void Test1() {  
    byte x = 250;  
    byte y = 20;  
    byte z = (byte) (x + y);  
    Console.WriteLine(z);  
}
```

```
public void Test2() {  
    sbyte x = 120;  
    sbyte y = 20;  
    sbyte z = (sbyte) (x + y);  
    Console.WriteLine(z);  
}
```

11

```
namespace ConsoleApplication1 {  
    class Program {  
        static void Main(string[] args) {  
            byte x = 250;  
            byte y = 20;  
            byte z = (byte) (x + y);  
            Console.WriteLine(z);  
            Console.ReadLine();  
        }  
    }  
}
```



```
namespace ConsoleApplication1 {  
    class Program {  
        static void Main(string[] args) {  
            sbyte x = 120;  
            sbyte y = 20;  
            sbyte z = (sbyte) (x + y);  
            Console.WriteLine(z);  
            Console.ReadLine();  
        }  
    }  
}
```



12

Arithmetic mod 7

- $a +_7 b = (a + b) \bmod 7$
- $a \times_7 b = (a \times b) \bmod 7$

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

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

13

Divisibility

Integers a , b , with $a \neq 0$, we say that a *divides* b is there is an integer k such that $b = ak$. The notation $a \mid b$ denotes a divides b .

14

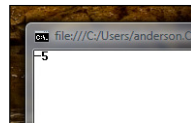
Division Theorem

Let a be an integer and d a positive integer. Then there are *unique* integers q and r , with $0 \leq r < d$, such that $a = dq + r$.

$$q = a \text{ div } d \quad r = a \text{ mod } d$$

```
namespace ConsoleApplication1 {
    class Program {
        static void Main(string[] args) {
            int a = -15;
            int d = 10;
            int r = a % d;
            Console.WriteLine(r);
            Console.ReadLine();
        }
    }
}
```

Note: $r \geq 0$ even if $a < 0$. Not quite the same as $a \% d$



Modular Arithmetic

Let a and b be integers, and m be a positive integer. We say a is *congruent to b modulo m* if m divides $a - b$. We use the notation $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ to indicate that a is congruent to b modulo m .

16

Modular arithmetic

Let a and b be integers, and let m be a positive integer. Then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$.

17

Modular arithmetic

Let m be a positive integer. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then

- $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$ and
- $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

18

Example

Let n be an integer, prove that $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ or $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$

19

n-bit Unsigned Integer Representation

- Represent integer x as sum of powers of 2:

If $x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} b_i 2^i$ 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

20

Signed integer representation

n-bit signed integers

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

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

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

$$18 = 16 + 2$$

For n = 8:

99: 0110 0011

-18: 1001 0010

Any problems with this representation?

21

Two's complement representation

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

Suppose $0 \leq x < 2^{n-1}$, x is represented by the binary representation of x

Suppose $0 < x \leq 2^{n-1}$, -x is represented by the binary representation of $2^n - x$

Key property: Two's complement representation of any number y is equivalent to $y \bmod 2^n$ so arithmetic works mod 2^n

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

$$18 = 16 + 2$$

For n = 8:

99: 0110 0011

-18: 1110 1110

22

Signed 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

Signed

-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

23

Two's complement representation

- For $0 < x \leq 2^{n-1}$, -x is represented by the binary representation of $2^n - x$
- 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 $2^{n-1} - x$

24