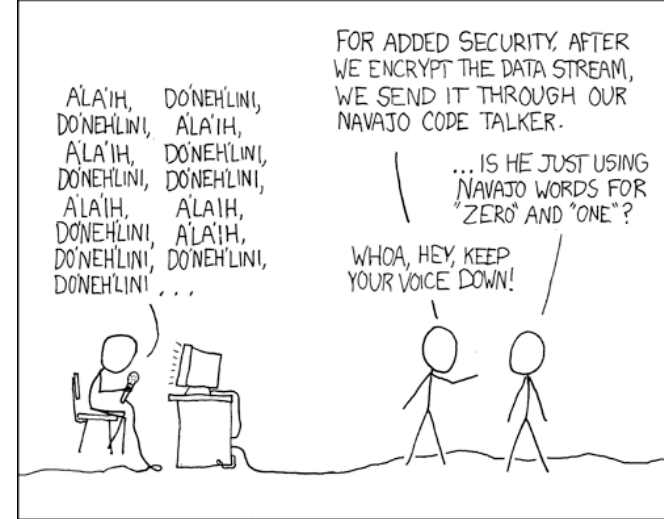


CSE 311



Foundations of Computing I

Fall 2014

Useful GCD Fact

If a and b are positive integers, then

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

Proof:

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

Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ so $a = kd$ and $b = jd$ for some integers k and j .
Therefore $(a \bmod b) = a - qb = kd - qjd = d(k - qj)$.

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

Now, let $e = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$. Then $e \mid b$ and $e \mid (a \bmod b)$. It follows that $b = me$ and $(a \bmod b) = ne$ for some integers m and n . Therefore

$$a = qb + (a \bmod b) = qme + ne = e(qm + n)$$

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

Therefore $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$.

Euclid's Algorithm

Repeatedly use the fact to reduce numbers
until you get

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

$$660 = 5 \cdot 126 + 30$$

$$126 = 4 \cdot 30 + 6$$

$$30 = 5 \cdot 6$$

Euclid's Algorithm

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

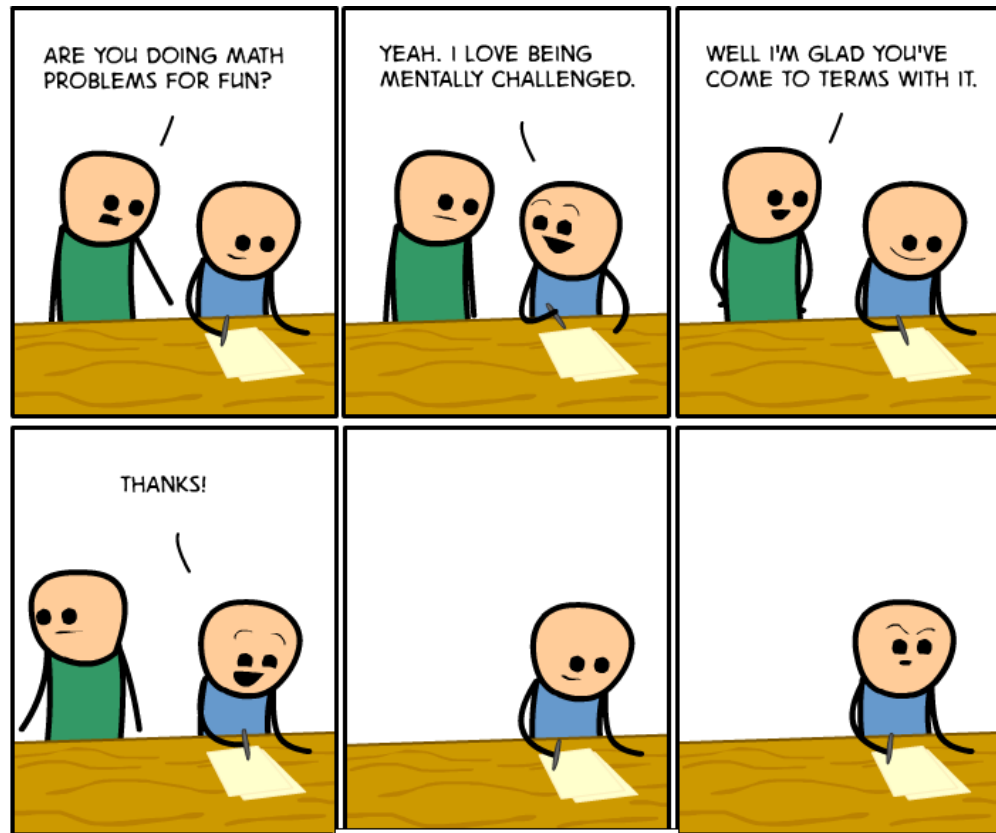
```
int GCD(int a, int b){ /* a >= b, b > 0 */
    int tmp;
    while (y > 0) {
        tmp = a % b;
        a = b;
        b = tmp;
    }
    return a;
}
```

Example: GCD(660, 126)

CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

Fall 2014

Lecture 13: Modular Inverses, Induction



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

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

- e.g. $\gcd(35, 27)$: $35 = 1 \cdot 27 + 8$ $35 - 1 \cdot 27 = 8$

$$27 = 3 \cdot 8 + 3$$

$$27 - 3 \cdot 8 = 3$$

$$8 = 2 \cdot 3 + 2$$

$$8 - 2 \cdot 3 = 2$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$$

$$3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 1$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0$$

- Substitute back from the bottom

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 3 - 1(8 - 2 \cdot 3) = (-1) \cdot 8 + 3 \cdot 3$$

$$= (-1) \cdot 8 + 3(27 - 3 \cdot 8) = 3 \cdot 27 + (-10) \cdot 8$$

=

multiplicative inverse mod m

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

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

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

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

Solving Modular Equations

Solving $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ for unknown x when $\gcd(a, m) = 1$.

1. Find s such that $sa + tm = 1$
2. Compute $a^{-1} = s \pmod{m}$, the multiplicative inverse of a modulo m
3. Set $x = (a^{-1} \cdot b) \pmod{m}$

Example

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

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

$$26 = 7*3 + 5$$

$$5 = 26 - 7*3$$

$$7 = 5*1 + 2$$

$$2 = 7 - 5*1$$

$$5 = 2*2 + 1$$

$$1 = 5 - 2*2$$

$$1 = 5 - (7 - 5*1)*2$$

$$= (-7)*2 + 5*3$$

$$= (-7)*2 + (26 - 7*3)*3$$

$$= 7*(-11) + 26*3$$

So, $x = 15 + 26k$ for $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Mathematical Induction

Method for proving statements about all natural numbers

- A new logical inference rule!
 - It only applies over the natural numbers
 - The idea is to **use** the special structure of the naturals to prove things more easily
- Particularly useful for reasoning about programs!

```
for(int i=0; i < n; n++) { ... }
```

- Show $P(i)$ holds after i times through the loop

```
public int f(int x) {  
    if (x == 0) { return 0; }  
    else { return f(x - 1); }  
}
```

- $f(x) = x$ for all values of $x \geq 0$ naturally shown by induction.

Prove for all $k > 0$, n^k even \rightarrow n even

Let $k > 0$ be arbitrary. We go by contrapositive. Suppose that n is odd. We know that if a, b are odd, then ab is also odd.

So,

$$\begin{aligned} & (\dots \bullet ((n \bullet n) \bullet n) \bullet \dots \bullet n) = n^k \\ & \quad \quad \quad (k \text{ times}) \end{aligned}$$

Those “...”s are a problem! We’re trying to say “we can use the same argument over and over”... We should use induction instead.

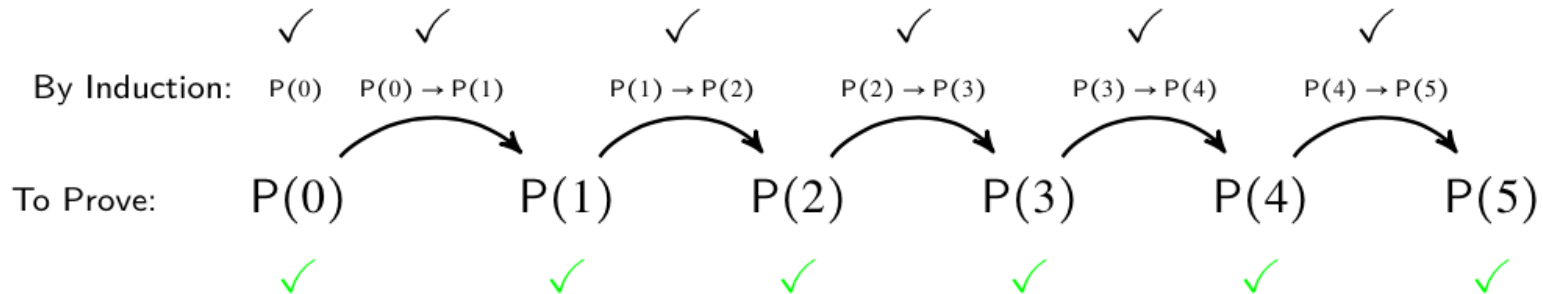
Induction Is A Rule of Inference

Domain: Natural Numbers

$$P(0)$$
$$\forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1))$$

$$\therefore \forall n P(n)$$

How does this technique prove $P(5)$?



First, we prove $P(0)$.

Since $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ for all n , we have $P(0) \rightarrow P(1)$.

Since $P(0)$ is true and $P(0) \rightarrow P(1)$, by Modus Ponens, $P(1)$ is true.

Since $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ for all n , we have $P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$.

Since $P(1)$ is true and $P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$, by Modus Ponens, $P(2)$ is true.

Using The Induction Rule In A Formal Proof

$$\begin{array}{l} P(0) \\ \forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)) \end{array}$$

$$\therefore \forall n P(n)$$

1. Prove $P(0)$
2. Let k be an arbitrary integer ≥ 0
 3. Assume that $P(k)$ is true
 4. ...
 5. Prove $P(k+1)$ is true
6. $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ Direct Proof Rule
7. $\forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$ Intro \forall from 2-6
8. $\forall n P(n)$ Induction Rule 1&7

What can we say about $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + 2^n$

- $1 = 1$
- $1 + 2 = 3$
- $1 + 2 + 4 = 7$
- $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15$
- $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 = 31$

- Can we describe the pattern?
 - $1 + 2 + 4 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$

Proving $1 + 2 + 4 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$

- **We could try proving it normally...**
 - We want to show that $1 + 2 + 4 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1}$.
 - So, what do we do now? We can sort of explain the pattern, but that's not a proof...
- **We could prove it for $n=1$, $n=2$, $n=3$, ... (individually), but that would literally take forever...**

Instead, Let's Use Induction

$$P(0)$$
$$\forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1))$$

$$\therefore \forall n P(n)$$

1. Prove $P(0)$

Base Case

2. Let k be an arbitrary integer ≥ 0

Inductive Hypothesis

3. Assume that $P(k)$ is true

4. ...

Inductive Step

5. Prove $P(k+1)$ is true

6. $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

Direct Proof Rule

7. $\forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$

Intro \forall from 2-6

8. $\forall n P(n)$

Induction Rule 1&7

Conclusion