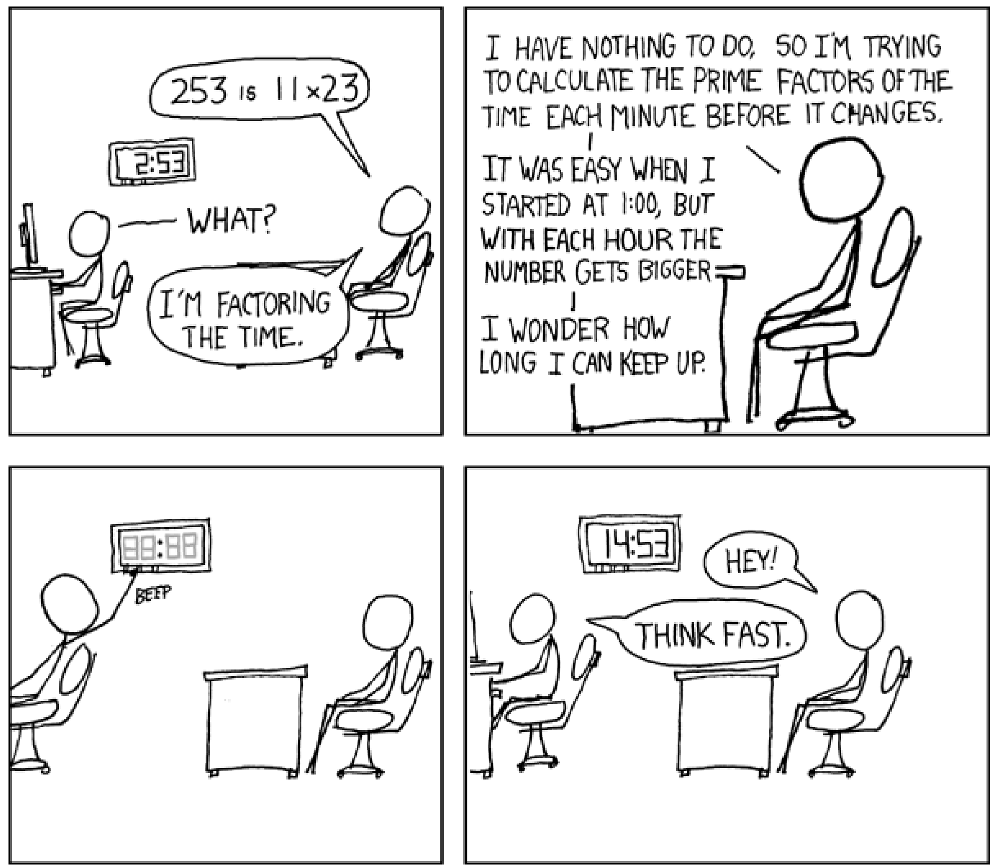
CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

Lecture 12: Primes, GCD



Basic Applications of mod

- Hashing
- Pseudo random number generation
- Simple cipher

Hashing

Scenario:

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

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

- $\text{hash}(x) = x \bmod p$ for p a prime close to n
  - or $\text{hash}(x) = (ax + b) \bmod p$
- 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

$$x_{n+1} = (a\, x_n + c) \bmod m$$

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

Simple Ciphers

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

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 • 2 • 2 • 2 • 3
591 = 3 • 197
45,523 = 45,523
321,950 = 2 • 5 • 5 • 47 • 137
1,234,567,890 = 2 • 3 • 3 • 5 • 3,607 • 3,803

Euclid's Theorem

There are an infinite number of primes.

Proof by contradiction:

Suppose that there are only a finite number of primes and call the full list $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$.

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Define the number $P = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \cdots \cdot p_n$ and let $Q = P + 1$.

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Define the number $P = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot \cdots \cdot p_n$ and let $Q = P + 1$.

Case 1: Q is prime: Then Q is a prime different from all of $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ since it is bigger than all of them.

Case 2: $Q > 1$ is not prime: Then Q has some prime factor p (which must be in the list). Therefore $p|P$ and $p|Q$ so $p|(Q - P)$ which means that $p|1$.

Both cases are contradictions so the assumption is false. ∎

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]:

1230186684530117755130495838496272077
285356959533479219732245215172640050726
365751874520219978646938995647494277406
384592519255732630345373154826850791702
612214291346167042921431160222124047927
4737794080665351419597459856902143413

1230186684530117755130494958384962720772853569595334 7
9219732245215172640050726365751874520219978646938995 6
4749427740638459251925573263034537315482685079170261 2
2142913461670429214311602221240479274737794080665351 4
19597459856902143413

=

33478071698956898786044169848212690817704794983 7
13768568912431388982883793878002287614711652531 7
43087737814467999489

×

36746043666799590428244633799627952632279158164 3
43087642676032283815739666511279233373417143396 8
10270092798736308917

Greatest Common Divisor

GCD(a, b):

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

- GCD(100, 125) =
- GCD(17, 49) =
- GCD(11, 66) =
- GCD(13, 0) =
- GCD(180, 252) =

GCD and Factoring

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

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

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

Factoring is expensive!

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

Useful GCD Fact

If a and b are positive integers, then

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

Useful GCD Fact

If *a* and *b* are positive integers, then
gcd(*a*,*b*) = gcd(*b*, *a* mod *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 $d|a$ and $d|b$ so $a = kd$ and $b = jd$ for some integers k and j.

Therefore $(a \bmod b) = a - qb = kd - qjd = (k - qj)d$.
So, $d|(a \bmod b)$ and since $d|b$ we must have $d \leq \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$.

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

Therefore $a = qb + (a \bmod b) = qme + ne = (qm + n)e$.
So, $e|a$ and since $e|b$ we must have $e \leq \gcd(a, b)$.

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

Another simple GCD fact

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

Euclid's Algorithm

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

gcd(660,126) = gcd(126, 660 mod 126) = gcd(126, 30)
= gcd(30, 126 mod 30) = gcd(30, 6)
= gcd(6, 30 mod 6) = gcd(6, 0)
= 6

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) = gcd(126, 660 mod 126) = gcd(126, 30)
= gcd(30, 126 mod 30) = gcd(30, 6)
= gcd(6, 30 mod 6) = gcd(6, 0)
= 6

In tableau form:

660 = 5 * 126 + 30
126 = 4 * 30 + 6
30 = 5 * 6 + 0

Bézout's theorem

If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers $\boldsymbol{s}$ and $\boldsymbol{t}$ such that

$$\gcd(a,b) = \boldsymbol{s}a + \boldsymbol{t}b.$$

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

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

Step 1 (Compute GCD & Keep Tableau Information):

a b b a mod b = r b r

$\gcd(35, 27) = \gcd(27, 35 \bmod 27) = \gcd(27, 8)$

a = q * b + r

$35 = 1 * 27 + 8$

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):

$$\underset{\text{a}\quad\text{b}}{\gcd(35, 27)} = \underset{\text{b}\quad\text{a mod b = r}}{\gcd(27, 35 \bmod 27)} = \underset{\text{b}\quad\text{r}}{\gcd(27, 8)}$$

$$= \gcd(8, 27 \bmod 8) = \gcd(8, 3)$$

$$= \gcd(3, 8 \bmod 3) = \gcd(3, 2)$$

$$= \gcd(2, 3 \bmod 2) = \gcd(2, 1)$$

$$= \gcd(1, 2 \bmod 1) = \gcd(1, 0)$$

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

- 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	r = a – q * b
$35 = 1 * 27 + 8$	$8 = 35 - 1 * 27$
$27 = 3 * 8 + 3$	$3 = 27 - 3 * 8$
$8 = 2 * 3 + 2$	$2 = 8 - 2 * 3$
$3 = 1 * 2 + 1$	$1 = 3 - 1 * 2$
$2 = 2 * 1 + 0$	

Extended Euclidean algorithm

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

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

Step 3 (Backward Substitute Equations):

$8 = 35 - 1 * 27$

$3 = 27 - 3 * 8$

$2 = 8 - 2 * 3$

$1 = 3 - 1 * 2$

Plug in the def of 2

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

Re-arrange into 3's and 8's

Extended Euclidean algorithm

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

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

Step 3 (Backward Substitute Equations):

$8 = 35 - 1 * 27$

$3 = 27 - 3 * 8$

$2 = 8 - 2 * 3$

$1 = 3 - 1 * 2$

Plug in the def of 2

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

Re-arrange into 3's and 8's

Plug in the def of 3

$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * (27 - 3 * 8)$$
$$= (-1) * 8 + 3 * 27 + (-9) * 8$$
$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 8$$

Re-arrange into 8's and 27's

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * (35 - 1 * 27)$$
$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 35 + 10 * 27$$
$$= 13 * 27 + (-10) * 35$$

Re-arrange into 27's and 35's

Multiplicative inverse $\bmod m$

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:

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

Example

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

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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