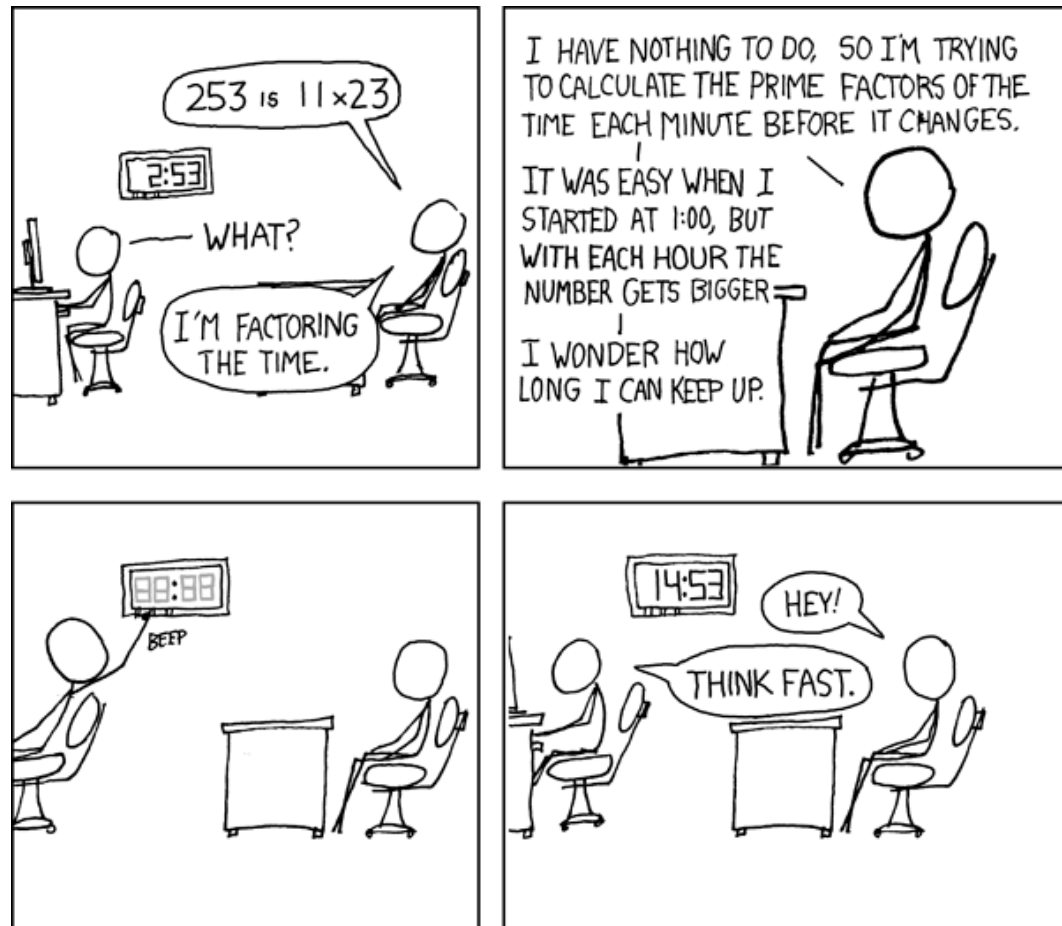


CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

Lecture 12: Primes, GCD



Last Time: Modular Arithmetic

Division Theorem

For $a \in \mathbb{Z}, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $d > 0$
there exist *unique* integers q, r with $0 \leq r < d$
such that $a = dq + r$.

Define “**div**” by $q = a \text{ div } d$
and “**mod**” by $r = a \text{ mod } d$

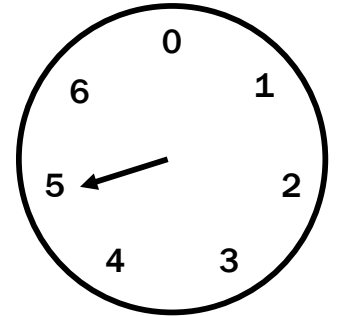
Can then write a as

$$a = (a \text{ div } d) \times d + (a \text{ mod } d)$$

Last Time: Modular Arithmetic

$$a +_7 b = (a + b) \bmod 7$$

$$a \times_7 b = (a \times b) \bmod 7$$



+	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

Replace number line with a clock. Taking m steps returns back to the same place.

Form of arithmetic using only a finite set of numbers $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, m - 1\}$

Unclear (so far) that modular arithmetic has the same properties as ordinary arithmetic....

Last Time: Modular Arithmetic

Idea: Find replacement for “=” that works for modular arithmetic

“=” on ordinary numbers allows us to solve problems, e.g.

- add / subtract numbers from both sides of equations
- substitute “=” values in equations

Definition: “a is congruent to b modulo m”

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

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

Equivalently, $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ iff $a = b + km$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Last Time: Modular Arithmetic

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Equivalently, $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ iff $a = b + km$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$.

I.e., a and b are congruent modulo m iff a and b steps go to the same spot on the “clock” with m numbers

Last Time: Modular Arithmetic: Properties

If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$,
then $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$

If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$,
then $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$

Corollary: If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $a + c \equiv b + c \pmod{m}$

If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$,
then $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

Corollary: If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$

Last Time: Modular Arithmetic: Properties

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If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$

- “ \equiv ” allows us to solve problems in modular arithmetic, e.g.
- add / subtract numbers from both sides of equations
 - chains of “ \equiv ” values shows first and last are “ \equiv ”
 - substitute “ \equiv ” values in equations (not proven yet)

Last Time: Two's Complement

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 $2^n - x$

-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

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

Basic Applications of mod

- **Two's Complement (last time)**
- **Hashing**
- **Pseudo random number generation**

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

- $\text{hash}(x) = x \bmod p$ 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

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

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

$$591 = 3 \cdot 197$$

$$45,523 = 45,523$$

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

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

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, \dots, p_n .

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 $Q = P + 1$.

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

Case 1: Q is prime: Then Q is a prime different from all of p_1, p_2, \dots, 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]:

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 $d \mid b$

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

GCD and Factoring

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

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

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

Factoring is expensive!

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

Useful GCD Fact

If a and b are positive integers, then
$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$$

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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 $d|a$ 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

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

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

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

Euclid's Algorithm

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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

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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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$$r = a - q * b$$

$$8 = 35 - 1 * 27$$

$$3 = 27 - 3 * 8$$

$$2 = 8 - 2 * 3$$

$$1 = 3 - 1 * 2$$

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

- 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

Re-arrange into 27's and 35's

Plug in the def of 2

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

Re-arrange into 3's and 8's

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

Plug in the def of 3

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

Re-arrange into 8's and 27's

$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 8$$
$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * (35 - 1 * 27)$$
$$= 3 * 27 + (-10) * 35 + 10 * 27$$
$$= 13 * 27 + (-10) * 35$$

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 :

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

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 $(-11) \pmod{26} = 15$. 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