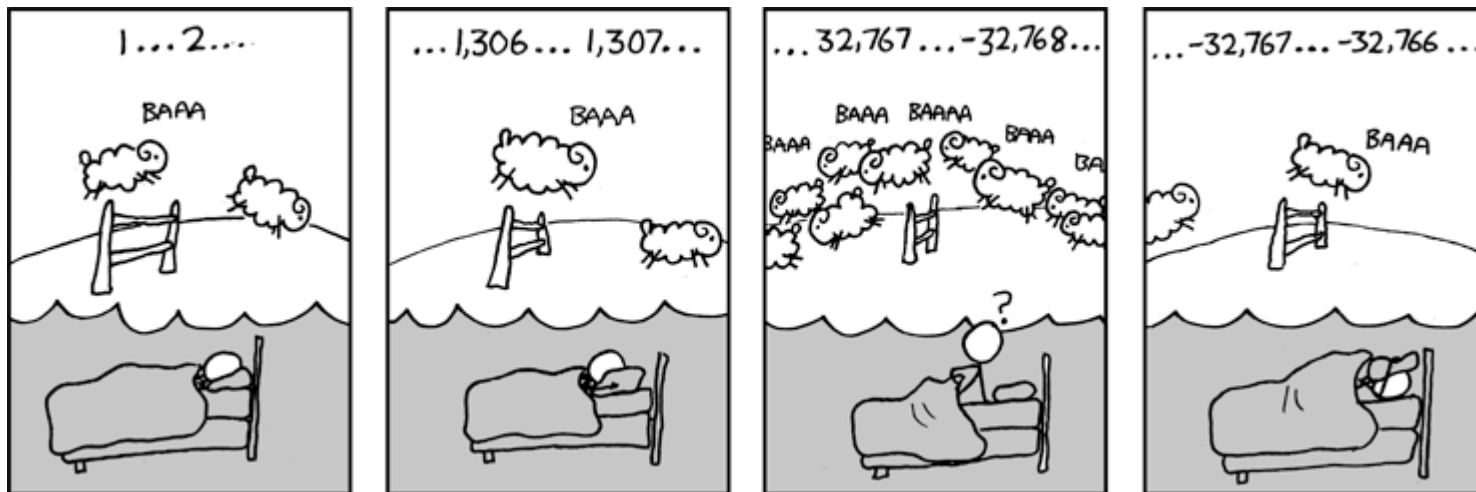


CSE 311: Foundations of Computing

Lecture 11: Modular Arithmetic, Applications and Factoring



Last Class: Divisibility

Definition: “a divides b”

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

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

Check Your Understanding. Which of the following are true?

$$5 \mid 1$$

$$5 \mid 1 \text{ iff } 1 = 5k$$

$$25 \mid 5$$

$$25 \mid 5 \text{ iff } 5 = 25k$$

$$5 \mid 0$$

$$5 \mid 0 \text{ iff } 0 = 5k$$

$$3 \mid 2$$

$$3 \mid 2 \text{ iff } 2 = 3k$$

$$1 \mid 5$$

$$1 \mid 5 \text{ iff } 5 = 1k$$

$$5 \mid 25$$

$$5 \mid 25 \text{ iff } 25 = 5k$$

$$0 \mid 5$$

$$0 \mid 5 \text{ iff } 5 = 0k$$

$$2 \mid 3$$

$$2 \mid 3 \text{ iff } 3 = 2k$$

Last Class: Division Theorem

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 $a = dq + r$.

To put it another way, if we divide d into a , we get a
unique quotient $q = a \text{ div } d$
and non-negative remainder $r = a \text{ mod } d$

```
public class Test2 {  
    public static void main(String args[]) {  
        int a = -5;  
        int d = 2;  
        System.out.println(a % d);  
    }  
}
```

```
----jGRASP exec: java Test2  
-1  
----jGRASP: operation complete.
```

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

Last Class: 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	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

Last Class: Modular Arithmetic

Definition: “a is congruent to b modulo m”

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

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

**Check Your Understanding. What do each of these mean?
When are they true?**

$$x \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$$

This statement is the same as saying “x is even”; so, any x that is even (including negative even numbers) will work.

$$-1 \equiv 19 \pmod{5}$$

This statement is true. $19 - (-1) = 20$ which is divisible by 5

$$y \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

This statement is true for y in $\{ \dots, -12, -5, 2, 9, 16, \dots \}$. In other words, all y of the form $2+7k$ for k an integer.

Modular Arithmetic: A Property

Let a, b, m be integers with $m > 0$.

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

Suppose that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Then, $m \mid (a - b)$ by definition of congruence.

So, $a - b = km$ for some integer k by definition of divides.

Therefore, $a = b + km$.

Taking both sides modulo m we get:

$$a \bmod m = (b + km) \bmod m = b \bmod m.$$

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Suppose that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Suppose that $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$.

By the division theorem, $a = mq + (a \bmod m)$ and

$b = ms + (b \bmod m)$ for some integers q, s .

Then, $a - b = (mq + (a \bmod m)) - (ms + (b \bmod m))$

$$= m(q - s) + (a \bmod m - b \bmod m)$$

$$= m(q - s) \text{ since } a \bmod m = b \bmod m$$

Therefore, $m \mid (a - b)$ and so $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Last Class: mod m function vs $\equiv \pmod{m}$ predicate

- **What we have just shown**
 - **The mod m function takes any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and maps it to a remainder $a \bmod m \in \{0, 1, \dots, m - 1\}$.**
 - **Imagine grouping together all integers that have the same value of the mod m function**
 - That is, the same remainder in $\{0, 1, \dots, m - 1\}$.**
 - **The $\equiv \pmod{m}$ predicate compares $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. It is true if and only if the mod m function has the same value on a and on b .**
 - That is, a and b are in the same group.**

Modular Arithmetic: Addition Property

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

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Suppose that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$. Unrolling definitions gives us some k such that $a - b = km$, and some j such that $c - d = jm$.

Adding the equations together gives us

$(a + c) - (b + d) = m(k + j)$. Now, re-applying the definition of congruence gives us $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$.

Modular Arithmetic: Multiplication Property

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

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Suppose that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$. Unrolling definitions gives us some k such that $a - b = km$, and some j such that $c - d = jm$.

Then, $a = km + b$ and $c = jm + d$. Multiplying both together gives us $ac = (km + b)(jm + d) = kjm^2 + kmd + bjm + bd$.

Re-arranging gives us $ac - bd = m(kjm + kd + bj)$.

Using the definition of congruence gives us $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$.

Example

Let n be an integer.

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

Let's start by looking at a small example:

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

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

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

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

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

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It looks like

Case 2 (n is odd):

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

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

Example

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

Case 1 (n is even):

Suppose $n \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$.

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

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

definition of congruence,

$n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$.

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It looks like

Case 2 (n is odd):

Suppose $n \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.

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

So, $n^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 4(k^2 + k) + 1$.

So, by definition of congruence, $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

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

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

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: 0110 0011

-18: 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: 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 $n = 8$:

$$99: \quad 0110\ 0011$$

$$-18: \quad 1110\ 1110$$

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

These applications work well because of how we can solve equations involving mods

– To understand that we need a bit more number theory...

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

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

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**, $A = 1$, $B = 2, \dots$
 - 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

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

$$591 = 3 \cdot 197$$

$$45,523 = 45,523$$

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

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

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.



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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 $d \mid b$

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

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