

15-251


Great Theoretical Ideas in Computer Science

Fact:
 $\text{GCD}(x,y) \times \text{LCM}(x,y) = x \times y$

You can use
 $\text{MAX}(a,b) + \text{MIN}(a,b) = a+b$
 to prove the above fact...

Number Theory and Modular Arithmetic

Lecture 13 (October 8, 2009)



$$a^{p-1} \equiv_p 1$$

$(a \bmod n)$ means the remainder
when a is divided by n .

$$a \bmod n = r$$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

$$a = dn + r \text{ for some integer } d$$

Greatest Common Divisor:
 $\text{GCD}(x,y) =$
 greatest $k \geq 1$ s.t. $k|x$ and $k|y$.

Least Common Multiple:
 $\text{LCM}(x,y) =$
 smallest $k \geq 1$ s.t. $x|k$ and $y|k$.

Definition: Modular equivalence

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (a \bmod n) = (b \bmod n)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow n \mid (a-b)$$

$$31 \equiv 81 \pmod{2}$$

$$31 \equiv_2 81$$

$$31 \equiv 80 \pmod{7}$$

$$31 \equiv_7 80$$

Written as $a \equiv_n b$, and
spoken
 "a and b are
 equivalent or
 congruent modulo n"

\equiv_n is an equivalence relation

In other words, it is

Reflexive: $a \equiv_n a$

Symmetric: $(a \equiv_n b) \Rightarrow (b \equiv_n a)$

Transitive: $(a \equiv_n b \text{ and } b \equiv_n c) \Rightarrow (a \equiv_n c)$

Why do we care about these
residue classes?

Because we can replace any member
of a residue class with another member
when doing addition or multiplication mod n
and the answer will not change

To calculate: $249 * 504 \bmod 251$

just do $-2 * 2 = -4 = 247$

\equiv_n induces a natural partition of the
integers into n “residue” classes.

(“residue” = what left over = “remainder”)

Define residue class
 $[k]$ = the set of all integers that
are congruent to k modulo n .

Fundamental lemma of
plus and times mod n :

If $(x \equiv_n y)$ and $(a \equiv_n b)$. Then

$$1) x + a \equiv_n y + b$$

$$2) x * a \equiv_n y * b$$

Residue Classes Mod 3:

$$[0] = \{ \dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots \}$$

$$[1] = \{ \dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \}$$

$$[2] = \{ \dots, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots \}$$

$$[-6] = \{ \dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots \} = [0]$$

$$[7] = \{ \dots, -5, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots \} = [1]$$

$$[-1] = \{ \dots, -4, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots \} = [2]$$

Proof of 2: $xa = yb \pmod{n}$

(The other proof is similar...)



Another Simple Fact:
If $(x \equiv_n y)$ and $(k|n)$, then: $x \equiv_k y$

Example: $10 \equiv_6 16 \Rightarrow 10 \equiv_3 16$

Proof:

Unique representation system mod 4

Finite set $S = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

+ and * defined on S:

+	0	1	2	3
0	0	1	2	3
1	1	2	3	0
2	2	3	0	1
3	3	0	1	2

*	0	1	2	3
0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3
2	0	2	0	2
3	0	3	2	1

A Unique Representation System
Modulo n:

We pick one representative from each residue class and do all our calculations using these representatives.

Unsurprisingly, we use $0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$

Notation

$Z_n = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$

Define operations $+_n$ and $*_n$:

$$a +_n b = (a + b \bmod n)$$

$$a *_n b = (a * b \bmod n)$$

Unique representation system mod 3

Finite set $S = \{0, 1, 2\}$

+ and * defined on S:

+	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

*	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2
2	0	2	1

Some properties of the operation $+_n$

["Closed"]

$$x, y \in Z_n \Rightarrow x +_n y \in Z_n$$

["Associative"]

$$x, y, z \in Z_n \Rightarrow (x +_n y) +_n z = x +_n (y +_n z)$$

["Commutative"]

$$x, y \in Z_n \Rightarrow x +_n y = y +_n x$$

Similar properties also hold for $*_n$

Unique representation system mod 3

Finite set $S = \{0, 1, 2\}$

$+$ and $*$ defined on S :

$+$	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

$*$	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2
2	0	2	1

Unique representation system mod 2

Finite set $Z_2 = \{0, 1\}$

two associative, commutative operators on Z_2

$+_2$ XOR	0	1
0	0	1
1	1	0

$*_2$ AND	0	1
0	0	0
1	0	1

Unique representation system mod 3

Finite set $Z_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$

two associative, commutative operators on Z_3

$Z_5 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$

$+$	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

$*$	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0				
3	0	3	1	4	
4	0	4	3	2	

Unique representation system mod 3

Finite set $Z_3 = \{0, 1, 2\}$

two associative, commutative operators on Z_3

$+$	0	1	2
0	0	1	2
1	1	2	0
2	2	0	1

$*$	0	1	2
0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2
2	0	2	1

$Z_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

$+$	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	1	2	3	4	5
1	1	2	3	4	5	0
2	2	3	4	5	0	1
3	3	4	5	0	1	2
4	4	5	0	1	2	3
5	5	0	1	2	3	4

$*$	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	
1	0	1	2	3	4	
2	0	2	4	0	2	
3	0					
4	0	4	2	0	4	
5	0	5	4	3	2	

For addition tables, rows and columns always are a permutation of Z_n

+	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4	0
2	2	3	4	0	1
3	3	4	0	1	2
4	4	0	1	2	3

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

For multiplication, if a row has a permutation you can solve, say,

$$5 * _ = 4 \pmod{6}$$

$$\text{or, } 5 * _ = 1 \pmod{6}$$

*	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

For multiplication, some rows and columns are permutation of Z_n , while others aren't...

*	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	2	4	1	3
3	0	3	1	4	2
4	0	4	3	2	1

*	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

what's happening here?

But if the row does not have the permutation property, how do you solve

no solutions! $3 * _ = 4 \pmod{6}$

multiple solutions! $3 * _ = 3 \pmod{6}$

$$3 * _ = 1 \pmod{6}$$

no multiplicative inverse!

*	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

For addition, the permutation property means you can solve, say,

$$4 + _ = 1 \pmod{6}$$

$$4 + _ = x \pmod{6} \text{ for any } x \text{ in } Z_6$$

Subtraction mod n is well-defined

Each row has a 0, hence $-a$ is that element such that $a + (-a) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow a - b = a + (-b)$$

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

Division

If you define $1/a \pmod{n} = a^{-1} \pmod{n}$ as the element b in Z_n such that $a * b = 1 \pmod{n}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } x/y \pmod{n} \\ = \\ x * 1/y \pmod{n} \end{aligned}$$

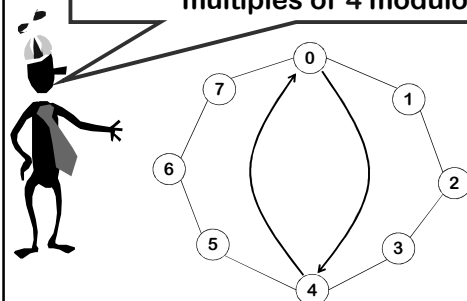
Hence we can divide out by only the y 's for which $1/y$ is defined!

And which rows do have the permutation property?

*	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	0	2						
3	0	3						
4	0	4						
5	0	5						
6	0	6						
7	0	7						

consider \ast_8 on \mathbb{Z}_8

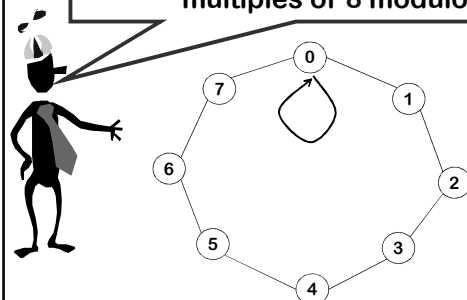
There are exactly 2 distinct multiples of 4 modulo 8.



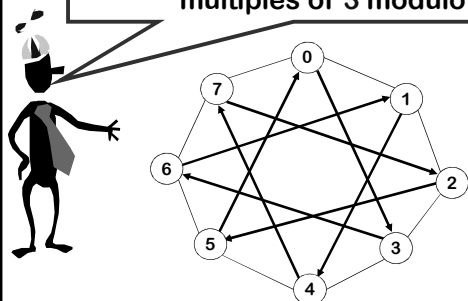
row 4 does not have “permutation property” for \ast_8 on \mathbb{Z}_8

A visual way to understand multiplication and the “permutation property”.

There are exactly 1 distinct multiples of 8 modulo 8.

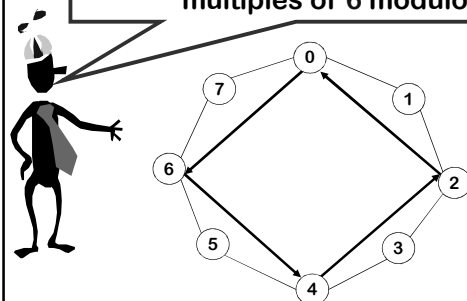


There are exactly 8 distinct multiples of 3 modulo 8.



hit all numbers \Leftrightarrow row 3 has the “permutation property”

There are exactly 4 distinct multiples of 6 modulo 8.



What's the pattern?

exactly 8 distinct multiples of 3 modulo 8.
 exactly 2 distinct multiples of 4 modulo 8
 exactly 1 distinct multiple of 8 modulo 8
 exactly 4 distinct multiples of 6 modulo 8

exactly _____ distinct
 multiples of x modulo y

Theorem: There are exactly
 $\text{LCM}(n,c)/c = n/\text{GCD}(c,n)$
 distinct multiples of c modulo n

Hence,
 only those values of c with $\text{GCD}(c,n) = 1$
 have n distinct multiples
 (i.e., the permutation property for \ast_n on Z_n)

And remember, permutation property means
 you can divide out by c (working mod n)

Theorem: There are exactly
 $\text{LCM}(n,c)/c = n/\text{GCD}(c,n)$
 distinct multiples of c modulo n

Fundamental lemma of division
 modulo n:
 if $\text{GCD}(c,n)=1$, then $ca \equiv_n cb \Rightarrow a \equiv_n b$

Proof:

Theorem: There are exactly $k = n/\text{GCD}(c,n)$
 distinct multiples of c modulo n, and these
 multiples are $\{c \ast i \bmod n \mid 0 \leq i < k\}$

Proof:

Clearly, $c/\text{GCD}(c,n) \geq 1$ is a whole number

$ck = cn/\text{GCD}(c,n) = n(c/\text{GCD}(c,n)) \equiv_n 0$
 \Rightarrow There are $\leq k$ distinct multiples of c mod n:
 $c \ast 0, c \ast 1, c \ast 2, \dots, c \ast (k-1)$

Also, k = factors of n missing from c
 $\Rightarrow cx \equiv_n cy \Leftrightarrow n|c(x-y) \Rightarrow k|(x-y) \Rightarrow x-y \geq k$
 \Rightarrow There are $\geq k$ multiples of c.

Hence exactly k.

If you want to extend to
 general c and n

$$ca \equiv_n cb \Rightarrow a \equiv_{n/\text{gcd}(c,n)} b$$

Fundamental lemmas mod n:

If $(x \equiv_n y)$ and $(a \equiv_n b)$. Then

- 1) $x + a \equiv_n y + b$
- 2) $x * a \equiv_n y * b$
- 3) $x - a \equiv_n y - b$
- 4) $cx \equiv_n cy \Rightarrow a \equiv_n b$ if $\gcd(c,n)=1$

We've got closure

Recall we proved that Z_n was "closed" under addition and multiplication?

What about Z_n^* under multiplication?

Fact: if $a, b \in Z_n^*$, then $ab \pmod n$ in Z_n^*

Proof: if $\gcd(a,n) = \gcd(b,n) = 1$,
then $\gcd(ab, n) = 1$
then $\gcd(ab \pmod n, n) = 1$

New definition:

$$Z_n^* = \{x \in Z_n \mid \gcd(x,n) = 1\}$$

Multiplication over this set Z_n^* has the cancellation property.

$$Z_{12}^* = \{0 \leq x < 12 \mid \gcd(x,12) = 1\} \\ = \{1,5,7,11\}$$

$*_{12}$	1	5	7	11
1	1	5	7	11
5	5	1	11	7
7	7	11	1	5
11	11	7	5	1

$$Z_6 = \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\} \\ Z_6^* = \{1, 5\}$$

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

*	0	1	2	3	4	5
0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5
2	0	2	4	0	2	4
3	0	3	0	3	0	3
4	0	4	2	0	4	2
5	0	5	4	3	2	1

$$Z_{15}^*$$

*	1	2	4	7	8	11	13	14
1	1	2	4	7	8	11	13	14
2	2	4	8	14	1	7	11	13
4	4	8	1	13	2	14	7	11
7	7	14	13	4	11	2	1	8
8	8	1	2	11	4	13	14	7
11	11	7	14	2	13	1	8	4
13	13	11	7	1	14	8	4	2
14	14	13	11	8	7	4	2	1

$$\mathbb{Z}_5^* = \{1, 2, 3, 4\} = \mathbb{Z}_5 \setminus \{0\}$$

\ast_5	1	2	3	4
1	1	2	3	4
2	2	4	1	3
3	3	1	4	2
4	4	3	2	1

$$\mathbb{Z}_{12}^* = \{0 \leq x < 12 \mid \gcd(x, 12) = 1\} = \{1, 5, 7, 11\}$$

$$\phi(12) = 4$$

\ast_{12}	1	5	7	11
1	1	5	7	11
5	5	1	11	7
7	7	11	1	5
11	11	7	5	1

Fact:

For prime p , the set $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p \setminus \{0\}$

Proof:

It just follows from the definition!

For prime p , all $0 < x < p$ satisfy
 $\gcd(x, p) = 1$

Theorem: if p, q distinct primes then
 $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$

How about $p = 3, q = 5$?

Euler Phi Function $\phi(n)$

$\phi(n)$ = size of \mathbb{Z}_n^*
 = number of $1 \leq k < n$ that
 are relatively prime to n .

p prime
 $\Rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$
 $\Rightarrow \phi(p) = p-1$

Theorem: if p, q distinct primes then
 $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$

pq = # of numbers from 1 to pq
 p = # of multiples of q up to pq
 q = # of multiples of p up to pq
 1 = # of multiple of both p and q up to pq

$$\phi(pq) = pq - p - q + 1 = (p-1)(q-1)$$

Additive and Multiplicative Inverses



Multiplicative inverse of $a \bmod n$
= number b such that $a \cdot b \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

What is the multiplicative inverse
of $a = 342952340$ in
 $\mathbb{Z}_{4230493243} = \mathbb{Z}_n$?

Answer: $a^{-1} = 583739113$

Additive inverse of $a \bmod n$
= number b such that $a + b \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$

What is the additive inverse
of $a = 342952340$ in
 $\mathbb{Z}_{4230493243} = \mathbb{Z}_n$?

Answer: $n - a$
= $4230493243 - 342952340$
= 3887540903

How do you find
multiplicative inverses
fast?

Multiplicative inverse of $a \bmod n$
= number b such that $a \cdot b \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$

Remember,
only defined for numbers a in \mathbb{Z}_n^*

Theorem: given positive integers X, Y , there
exist integers r, s such that
$$rX + sY = \gcd(X, Y)$$

and we can find these integers fast!

Now take n , and $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$

$\gcd(a, n) = 1$ $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^* \Rightarrow \gcd(a, n) = 1$

suppose $ra + sn = 1$

then $ra \equiv_n 1$

so, $r = a^{-1} \bmod n$

Theorem: given positive integers X, Y , there exist integers r, s such that

$$rX + sY = \gcd(X, Y)$$

and we can find these integers fast!

How?

Extended Euclid Algorithm

Finally, a puzzle...

You have a 5 gallon bottle,
a 3 gallon bottle,
and lots of water.

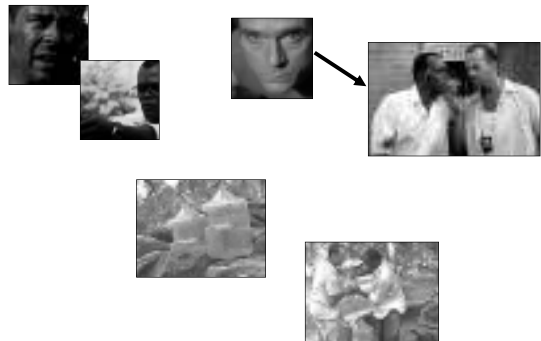
How can you measure out
exactly 4 gallons?

Euclid's Algorithm for GCD

```
Euclid(A,B)
If B=0 then return A
else return Euclid(B, A mod B)
```

Euclid(67,29)	$67 - 2 \cdot 29 = 67 \bmod 29 = 9$
Euclid(29,9)	$29 - 3 \cdot 9 = 29 \bmod 9 = 2$
Euclid(9,2)	$9 - 4 \cdot 2 = 9 \bmod 2 = 1$
Euclid(2,1)	$2 - 2 \cdot 1 = 2 \bmod 1 = 0$
Euclid(1,0) outputs 1	

why?



Extended Euclid Algorithm

Let $\langle r, s \rangle$ denote the number $r \cdot 67 + s \cdot 29$.
Calculate all intermediate values in this representation.

$67 = \langle 1, 0 \rangle$ $29 = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$

Euclid(67,29)	$9 = \langle 1, 0 \rangle - 2 \cdot \langle 0, 1 \rangle$	$9 = \langle 1, -2 \rangle$
Euclid(29,9)	$2 = \langle 0, 1 \rangle - 3 \cdot \langle 1, -2 \rangle$	$2 = \langle -3, 7 \rangle$
Euclid(9,2)	$1 = \langle 1, -2 \rangle - 4 \cdot \langle -3, 7 \rangle$	$1 = \langle 13, -30 \rangle$
Euclid(2,1)	$0 = \langle -3, 7 \rangle - 2 \cdot \langle 13, -30 \rangle$	$0 = \langle -29, 67 \rangle$

Euclid(1,0) outputs $1 = 13 \cdot 67 - 30 \cdot 29$

why?



Invariant

Suppose stage of system is given by (L, S)
(L gallons in larger one, S in smaller)

Set of valid moves

1. empty out either bottle
2. fill up bottle (completely) from water source
3. pour bottle into other until first one empty
4. pour bottle into other until second one full

Invariant: L, S are both multiples of 3.

Diophantine equations

Does the equality
 $3x + 5y = 4$
have a solution where x, y are integers?

Generalized bottles of water

You have a P gallon bottle,
a Q gallon bottle,
and lots of water.

When can you measure out
exactly 1 gallon?

New bottles of water puzzle

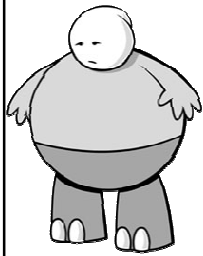
You have a 6 gallon bottle,
a 3 gallon bottle,
and lots of water.

How can you measure out
exactly 4 gallons?

Recall that

if P and Q have $\gcd(P, Q) = 1$
then you can find integers a and b so that
 $a \cdot P + b \cdot Q = 1$

Suppose a is positive, then fill out P a times
and empty out Q b times
(and move water from P to Q as needed...)



Here's What
You Need to
Know...

Working modulo integer n

Definitions of \mathbb{Z}_n , \mathbb{Z}_n^*
and their properties

Fundamental lemmas of $+$, $-$, $*$, $/$
When can you divide out

Extended Euclid Algorithm
How to calculate $c^{-1} \bmod n$.

Euler phi function $\phi(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$