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Math 251, Mon 15-Nov-2021 -- Mon 15-Nov-2021 Discrete Mathematics Fall 2021

Monday, November 15th 2021 -----Wk 12, Mo Topic:: Modular arithmetic Read:: Rosen 4.1 HwEE WW Modular arichmetic and these

This chapter: investigate number theory---integers, primes, congruences, etc.

Encryption RSA

Divisors and multiples

Definition 1: Let *a*, *b* be integers. We say *a* **divides** *b*, or *a* | *b*, precisely when there exists an integer *c* so that ac = b. When the negation of $a \mid b$ holds—that is, when no integer *c* exists so that ac = b—we write $a \nmid b$.

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Remarks:

- marks: When $a \mid b$, integers, we say a is a **divisor** of b. $\{-12, -6, -4, -3, -2, -1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12\}$
- The set of divisors of *b* lie between (-b) and *b*.
- The set of **common divisors** to integers *b* and *c* looks like $D = \{a \in \mathbb{Z} : (a \mid b) \land (a \mid c)\}$. Among the common divisors, *D* has a largest element, called the greatest common divisor, or gcd(b, c).
- The set of **common multiples** of integers *b* and *c* looks like $M = \{m \in \mathbb{Z} : (b \mid m) \land (c \mid m)\}$. Among the common multiples, *M* has a smallest positive element, called the **least common multiple**, or lcm(b, c).

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Example 1:

Find the gcd and lcm of 21560 and 8190.

$$21560 = 2^{3} \cdot 5 \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11 \qquad 8190 = 2 \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 13 \\ = 2^{3} \cdot 3^{5} \cdot 5 \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11 \cdot 13^{5} \qquad = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 7^{1} \cdot 11^{5} \cdot 13^{5} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{1} \cdot 13^{5} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{5} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{5} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{5} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{5} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{5} = 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{5} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 15^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 13^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 11^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7^{2} \cdot 13^{2} \\ = 2^{1} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 5^{1} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 5^{2$$

Theorem 1 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic): Every positive integer $a \ge 2$ is either prime or the product of primes:

$$a=p_1^{\alpha_1}p_2^{\alpha_2}\cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}.$$

If *a*, *b* are positive integers with prime factorizations

$$a = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$$
 and $b = p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k}$

(where, as needed, some α_j , β_j may be zero), then among all common divisors *d* of *a* and *b* (i.e, numbers which satisfy $(d \mid a) \land (d \mid b)$), the **greatest common divisor** is

$$\gcd(a,b) = p_1^{\min(\alpha_1,\beta_1)} p_2^{\min(\alpha_2,\beta_2)} \cdots p_k^{\min(\alpha_k,\beta_k)}.$$

Likewise, among all common multiples *m* of *a* and *b* (i.e., numbers which satisfy $a \mid m$ and $b \mid m$), the **least common multiple** is

$$\operatorname{lcm}(a,b) = p_1^{\max(\alpha_1,\beta_1)} p_2^{\max(\alpha_2,\beta_2)} \cdots p_k^{\max(\alpha_k,\beta_k)}.$$

Note: $gcd(a, b) \cdot lcm(a, b) = ab$.

Which among the following appear to be true claims?

False • Let $n, d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, and $A = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}^+ : (a \le n) \land (d \mid a)\}$. Then $|A| = \lfloor n/d \rfloor$. Countercomple: n = 50, d = 11

•
$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}, \forall b \in \mathbb{Z}^{+}, \forall c \in \mathbb{Z}^{+},$$

False $\circ (a \mid b) \rightarrow a \leqslant \sqrt{b}.$
True $\circ (a \mid b) \wedge (b \mid c) \rightarrow a \mid c.$
True $\circ (a \mid b) \wedge (a \mid c) \rightarrow a \mid (b + c).$ Some integers $k_{1}k$ exist so that $ak = b$, $al = c$. Thus,
Thus, $a(k+l) = c$
True $\circ (a \mid b) \wedge (a \mid c) \rightarrow a \mid (b + c).$
False $\circ a \mid (bc) \rightarrow (a \mid b) \vee (a \mid c).$
True $\circ (a \mid b) \rightarrow a \mid (bc).$
True $\circ (a \mid b) \wedge (a \mid c) \rightarrow \forall m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, a \mid (mb + nc).$

Theorem 2 (Division Algorithm): Let *a* be an integer and *d* a positive integer. There exist unique integers *q*, *r* with $0 \le r < d$ such that

$$a = dq + r$$
.

Note that

- The remainder *r* is the output of the mod function: $r = (a \mod d)$
- If, at the end of a calculation, you intend to perform the mod function, it can be inserted at various additive/multiplicative points along the way:

$$(37)(63) - 58^4 \mod 11 = (37 \mod 11)(63 \mod 11) - (58 \mod 11)^4 \mod 11$$
$$= (4)(8) \mod 11 - (3)^4 \mod 11$$
$$= 32 \mod 11 - 81 \mod 11$$
$$= 10 - 4 = 6.$$

It doesn't work reliably in exponents, however:

$$6^{17} \mod 13 = 6 \cdot (6^2 \mod 13)^8 \mod 13 = 6 \cdot 10^8 \mod 13$$

= $6 \cdot (10000 \mod 13)^2 \mod 13 = 6 \cdot 3^2 \mod 13 = 2.$

but

$$6^{17 \mod 13} \mod 13 = 6^4 \mod 13 = 9.$$

$$\frac{\text{True}/\text{False}}{\text{I. } 17 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}} = \frac{4.17 \pm 5 \pmod{12}}{1.17 \pm 5 \pmod{12}}$$

$$\frac{\text{MATH 251 Notes}}{2.17 \pm 5 \pmod{3}} = \frac{2}{3.17 \pm 5 \pmod{4}}$$

$$\frac{17 \pm 5 \pmod{4}}{1.17 \pm 5 \pmod{4}}$$

Definition 2: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $m \ge 2$ be an integer. We say that a and b are congruent **modulo** m, abbreviating this as $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, precisely when $m \mid (a - b)$.

Theorem 3: The following are equivalent:

1. $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ 2. $a \mod m = b \mod m$ 3. $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that a = b + kmSince $36 \mod 11 = 3$ $80 \mod 11 = 3$ $80 \mod 11 = 3$

Theorem 4: If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$ and $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$.

Note: It is this theorem which justifies the insertion of mod functions in additive/multiplicative operations above.

Example: Find $2^{8888} \mod 5$.

Note: The theorem above does *not* say that $ac \equiv bc \pmod{(m)}$ allows you to conclude $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Equivalence classes modulo m; \mathbb{Z}_m

If you pick a modulus *m*, the Division Algorithm ensures that the range of the mod function $f: \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{Z}$ given by $f(n) = n \mod m$ is $\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0, 1, 2, ..., m - 1\}$. That is, all integers *a* are equivalent to some element in \mathbb{Z}_m modulo *m*. For instance, relative to modulus m = 5 all the numbers

 $\dots, -7, -2, 3, 8, 13, \dots$