

CS 441 Discrete Mathematics for CS
Lecture 13

Integers and division

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Integers and division

- **Number theory** is a branch of mathematics that explores integers and their properties.
- **Integers:**
 - \mathbf{Z} integers $\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
 - \mathbf{Z}^+ positive integers $\{1, 2, \dots\}$
- Number theory has many applications within computer science, including:
 - Storage and organization of data
 - Encryption
 - Error correcting codes
 - Random numbers generators

Division

Definition: Assume 2 integers a and b , such that $a \neq 0$ (a is not equal 0). We say that **a divides b** if there is an integer c such that $b = ac$. If a divides b we say that **a is a factor of b** and that **b is multiple of a** .

- The fact that a divides b is denoted as **$a \mid b$** .

Examples:

- $4 \mid 24$ True or False ? **True**
 - 4 is a factor of 24
 - 24 is a multiple of 4
- $3 \mid 7$ True or False ? **False**

Primes

Definition: A positive integer p that greater than 1 and that is divisible only by 1 and by itself (p) is called **a prime**.

Examples: 2, 3, 5, 7, ...

$1 \mid 2$ and $2 \mid 2$, $1 \mid 3$ and $3 \mid 3$, etc

The Fundamental theorem of Arithmetic

Fundamental theorem of Arithmetic:

- Any positive integer greater than 1 can be expressed as a product of prime numbers.

Examples:

- $12 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3$
- $21 = 3 \cdot 7$

- Process of finding out factors of the product: **factorization**.

Primes and composites

- **How to determine whether the number is a prime or a composite?**

Let n be a number. Then in order to determine whether it is a **prime** we can test:

- **Approach 1:** if any number $x < n$ divides it. If yes it is a composite. If we test all numbers $x < n$ and do not find the proper divisor then n is a prime.
- **Approach 2:** if any prime number $x < n$ divides it. If yes it is a composite. If we test all primes $x < n$ and do not find a proper divisor then n is a prime.
- **Approach 3:** if any prime number $x < \sqrt{n}$ divides it. If yes it is a composite. If we test all primes $x < \sqrt{n}$ and do not find a proper divisor then n is a prime.

Division

Let a be an integer and d a positive integer. Then there are unique integers, q and r , with $0 \leq r < d$, such that

$$a = dq + r.$$

Definitions:

- a is called the **dividend**,
- d is called the **divisor**,
- q is called the **quotient** and
- r the **remainder** of the division.

Example: $a = 14$, $d = 3$

$$14 = 3 \cdot 4 + 2$$

$$14/3 = 3.666$$

$$14 \operatorname{div} 3 = 4$$

$$14 \operatorname{mod} 3 = 2$$

Relations:

- $q = a \operatorname{div} d$, $r = a \operatorname{mod} d$

Greatest common divisor

A systematic way to find the gcd using factorization:

- Let $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} p_3^{a_3} \dots p_k^{a_k}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} p_3^{b_3} \dots p_k^{b_k}$
- $\operatorname{gcd}(a,b) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} p_3^{\min(a_3,b_3)} \dots p_k^{\min(a_k,b_k)}$

Examples:

- $\operatorname{gcd}(24,36) = ?$
- $24 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 2^3 \cdot 3$
- $36 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2$
- $\operatorname{gcd}(24,36) =$

Greatest common divisor

A systematic way to find the gcd using factorization:

- Let $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} p_3^{a_3} \dots p_k^{a_k}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} p_3^{b_3} \dots p_k^{b_k}$
- $\gcd(a,b) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} p_3^{\min(a_3,b_3)} \dots p_k^{\min(a_k,b_k)}$

Examples:

- $\gcd(24,36) = ?$
- $24 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 2^3 \cdot 3$
- $36 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2$
- $\gcd(24,36) = 2^2 \cdot 3 = 12$

Least common multiple

Definition: Let a and b are two positive integers. The least common multiple of a and b is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b . The **least common multiple** is denoted as **$\text{lcm}(a,b)$** .

Example:

- **What is $\text{lcm}(12,9) = ?$**
- Give me a common multiple: ...

Least common multiple

Definition: Let a and b are two positive integers. The least common multiple of a and b is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b . The **least common multiple** is denoted as **$\text{lcm}(a,b)$** .

Example:

- **What is $\text{lcm}(12,9)$ =?**
- Give me a common multiple: ... $12 \cdot 9 = 108$
- **Can we find a smaller number?**

Least common multiple

Definition: Let a and b are two positive integers. The least common multiple of a and b is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b . The **least common multiple** is denoted as **$\text{lcm}(a,b)$** .

Example:

- **What is $\text{lcm}(12,9)$ =?**
- Give me a common multiple: ... $12 \cdot 9 = 108$
- **Can we find a smaller number?**
- **Yes.** Try 36. Both 12 and 9 cleanly divide 36.

Least common multiple

A systematic way to find the lcm using factorization:

- Let $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} p_3^{a_3} \dots p_k^{a_k}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} p_3^{b_3} \dots p_k^{b_k}$
- $\text{lcm}(a,b) = p_1^{\max(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\max(a_2,b_2)} p_3^{\max(a_3,b_3)} \dots p_k^{\max(a_k,b_k)}$

Example:

- What is $\text{lcm}(12,9) = ?$
- $12 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 2^2 \cdot 3$
- $9 = 3 \cdot 3 = 3^2$
- $\text{lcm}(12,9) = 2^2 \cdot 3^2 = 4 \cdot 9 = \mathbf{36}$

Euclid algorithm

Finding the greatest common divisor requires factorization

- $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} p_3^{a_3} \dots p_k^{a_k}$, $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} p_3^{b_3} \dots p_k^{b_k}$
- $\text{gcd}(a,b) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} p_3^{\min(a_3,b_3)} \dots p_k^{\min(a_k,b_k)}$
- Factorization can be cumbersome and time consuming since we need to find all factors of the two integers that can be very large.
- Luckily a more efficient method for computing the gcd exists:
- It is called **Euclid's algorithm**
 - the method is known from ancient times and named after Greek mathematician Euclid.

Euclid algorithm

Assume two numbers 287 and 91. We want $\gcd(287,91)$.

- First divide the larger number (287) by the smaller one (91)
- We get $287 = 3 \cdot 91 + 14$

(1) **Any divisor of 91 and 287 must also be a divisor of 14:**

- $287 - 3 \cdot 91 = 14$
- Why? [$ak - cbk = r \rightarrow (a - cb)k = r \rightarrow (a - cb) = r/k$ (must be an integer and thus k divides r)

(2) **Any divisor of 91 and 14 must also be a divisor of 287**

- Why? $287 = 3bk + dk \rightarrow 287 = k(3b + d) \rightarrow 287/k = (3b + d) \leftarrow 287/k$ must be an integer
- **But then $\gcd(287,91) = \gcd(91,14)$**

Euclid algorithm

- **We know that $\gcd(287,91) = \gcd(91,14)$**
- But the same trick can be applied again:
 - $\gcd(91,14)$
 - $91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7$
- and therefore
 - $\gcd(91,14) = \gcd(14,7)$
- And one more time:
 - $\gcd(14,7) = 7$
 - trivial
- **The result: $\gcd(287,91) = \gcd(91,14) = \gcd(14,7) = 7$**

Euclid algorithm

Example 1:

- Find the greatest common divisor of 666 & 558

- $\gcd(666, 558)$ $666 = 1 \cdot 558 + 108$
 $= \gcd(558, 108)$ $558 = 5 \cdot 108 + 18$
 $= \gcd(108, 18)$ $108 = 6 \cdot 18 + 0$
 $= \mathbf{18}$

Euclid algorithm

Example 2:

- Find the greatest common divisor of 286 & 503:

- $\gcd(503, 286)$ $503 =$

Euclid algorithm

Example 2:

- Find the greatest common divisor of 286 & 503:
- $\gcd(503, 286)$ $503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$
 $= \gcd(286, 217)$ $286 =$

Euclid algorithm

Example 2:

- Find the greatest common divisor of 286 & 503:
- $\gcd(503, 286)$ $503 = 1 \cdot 286 + 217$
 $= \gcd(286, 217)$ $286 = 1 \cdot 217 + 69$
 $= \gcd(217, 69)$ $217 = 3 \cdot 69 + 10$
 $= \gcd(69, 10)$ $69 = 6 \cdot 10 + 9$
 $= \gcd(10, 9)$ $10 = 1 \cdot 9 + 1$
 $= \gcd(9, 1) = \mathbf{1}$

Modular arithmetic

- In computer science we often care about the remainder of an integer when it is divided by some positive integer.

Problem: Assume that it is a midnight. What is the time on the 24 hour clock after 50 hours?

Answer: the result is 2am

How did we arrive to the result:

- Divide 50 with 24. The remainder is the time on the 24 hour clock.
 - $50 = 2 \cdot 24 + 2$
 - so the result is 2am.

Congruency

Definition: If a and b are integers and m is a positive integer, then **a is congruent to b modulo n** if m divides $a-b$. We use the notation **$a = b \pmod{m}$** to denote the congruency. If a and b are not congruent we write $a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Example:

- Determine if 17 is congruent to 5 modulo 6?

Congruency

Theorem. If a and b are integers and m a positive integer. Then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a \bmod m = b \bmod m$.

Example:

- Determine if 17 is congruent to 5 modulo 6?
- $17 \bmod 6 = 5$
- $5 \bmod 6 = 5$
- Thus 17 is congruent to 5 modulo 6.

Congruencies

Theorem 1. Let m be a positive integer. The integers a and b are congruent modulo m if and only if there exists an integer k such that $a = b + mk$.

Theorem 2 . Let m be a positive integer. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ then:

$$a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m} \text{ and } ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}.$$

Modular arithmetic in CS

Modular arithmetic and congruencies are used in CS:

- Pseudorandom number generators
- Hash functions
- Cryptology

Pseudorandom number generators

- Some problems we want to program need to simulate a random choice.
- Examples: flip of a coin, roll of a dice

We need a way to generate random outcomes

Basic problem:

- assume outcomes: $0, 1, \dots, N$
 - generate the random sequences of outcomes
-
- Pseudorandom number generators let us generate sequences that look random
 - **Next:** linear congruential method

Pseudorandom number generators

Linear congruential method

- We choose 4 numbers:
 - the modulus m ,
 - multiplier a ,
 - increment c , and
 - seed x_0 ,such that $2 \leq a < m$, $0 \leq c < m$, $0 \leq x_0 < m$.
- We generate a sequence of numbers $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n, \dots$ such that $0 \leq x_n < m$ for all n by successively using the congruence:
 - $x_{n+1} = (a \cdot x_n + c) \bmod m$

Pseudorandom number generators

Linear congruential method:

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

Example:

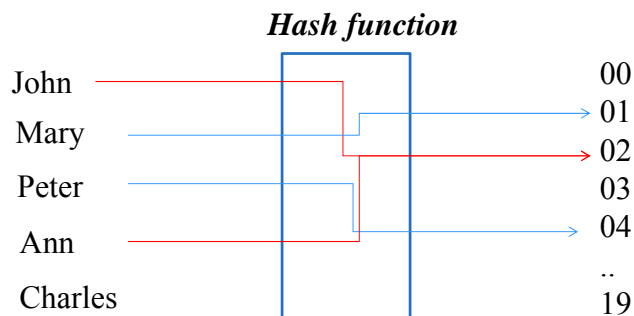
- Assume : $m=9, a=7, c=4, x_0 = 3$
- $x_1 = 7 \cdot 3 + 4 \bmod 9 = 25 \bmod 9 = 7$
- $x_2 = 53 \bmod 9 = 8$
- $x_3 = 60 \bmod 9 = 6$
- $x_4 = 46 \bmod 9 = 1$
- $x_5 = 11 \bmod 9 = 2$
- $x_6 = 18 \bmod 9 = 0$
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Hash functions

A *hash function* is an algorithm that maps data of arbitrary length to data of a fixed length.

The values returned by a hash function are called **hash values** or **hash codes**.

Example:



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Hash function

An example of a hash function that maps integers (including very large ones) to a subset of integers $0, 1, \dots, m-1$ is:

$$h(k) = k \bmod m$$

Example: Assume we have a database of employees, each with a unique ID – a social security number that consists of 8 digits. We want to store the records in a smaller table with m entries. Using $h(k)$ function we can map a social security number in the database of employees to indexes in the table.

Assume: $h(k) = k \bmod 111$

Then:

$$h(064212848) = 064212848 \bmod 111 = 14$$

$$h(037149212) = 037149212 \bmod 111 = 65$$

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