

# **Algorithms Design II**

Algorithms with Numbers I

Guoqiang Li School of Software, Shanghai Jiao Tong University



**Two Seemingly Similar Problems** 



Factoring: Given a number N, express it as a product of its prime factors.

Primality: Given a number N, determine whether it is a prime.

### **Two Seemingly Similar Problems**



Factoring: Given a number N, express it as a product of its prime factors.

Primality: Given a number N, determine whether it is a prime.

We believe that Factoring is hard and much of the electronic commerce is built on this assumption.

There are efficient algorithms for Primality, e.g., AKS test by Manindra Agrawal, Neeraj Kayal, and Nitin Saxena.

### **A Notable Result**



The AKS primality test is a deterministic primality-proving algorithm created and published by Manindra Agrawal, Neeraj Kayal, and Nitin Saxena, computer scientists at the Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur, on August 6, 2002, The algorithm was the first to determine whether any given number is prime or composite within polynomial time. The authors received the 2006 Gödel Prize and the 2006 Fulkerson Prize for this work.

#### **Preliminaries**

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**How to Represent Numbers** 



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The bigger the base is, the shorter the representation is. But how much do we really gain by choosing large base?



Q: How many digits are needed to represent the number  $N \ge 0$  in base b?



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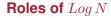
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In O notation, the base is irrelevant, and thus we write the size simply as  $O(\log N)$ 





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# Roles of Log N



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It is even the sum  $1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + \ldots + 1/n$ , to within a constant factor.

### **Basics Arithmetic**



#### Lemma

The sum of any three single-digit number is at most two digits long.





This rule holds not just in decimal but in any  $b \ge 2$ .



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The sum of x and y is n + 1 bits at most. Each individual bit of this sum gets computed in a fixed amount of time.

The total running time for the addition is of form  $c_0 + c_1 n$ , where  $c_0$  and  $c_1$  are some constants, i.e., O(n).





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So the addition algorithm is optimal.

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To study the basic algorithms encoded in the hardware of today's computers, we shall focus on the bit complexity of the algorithm, the number of elementary operations on individual bits.

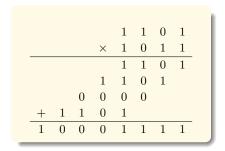
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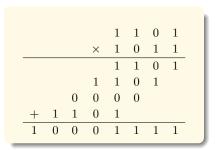
				1	1	0	1	
			×	1	0	1	1	
				1	1	0	1	
			1	1	0	1		
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+	1	1	0	1				
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$$\underbrace{\frac{O(n) + \ldots + O(n)}{n-1}}_{O(n^2)}$$

Quiz



What is the complexity of a number times 2?

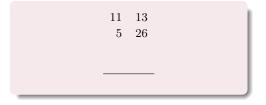


• write them next to each other.

11 13



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- keep going till the first number gets down to 1.

11	13		
5	26		
2	52		
1	104		



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- halve the first number by 2, dropping the .5, and double the second number.
- keep going till the first number gets down to 1.
- strike out all the rows where the first number is even.

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- The left is to calculate the binary number.
- The right is to shift the row!



```
\begin{array}{l} \text{MULTIPLY}\,(x,\,y)\\ \hline \textit{Two $n$-bit integers $x$ and $y$, where $y \geq 0$;}\\ \text{if $y = 0$ then return $0$;}\\ z=\!\text{MULTIPLY}\,(x,\,\lfloor y/2 \rfloor)\,;\\ \text{if $y$ is even then}\\ & | return $2z$;\\ & else return $x+2z$;\\ end \end{array}
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Another formulation:

$$x \cdot y = \begin{cases} 2(x \cdot \lfloor y/2 \rfloor) & \text{if } y \text{ is even} \\ x + 2(x \cdot \lfloor y/2 \rfloor) & \text{if } y \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$



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- and a possibly one addition.



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• Yes!

#### Division



DIVIDE (x, y)Two n-bit integers x and y, where  $y \ge 1$ ; if x = 0 then return (0, 0); (q, r)=DIVIDE  $(\lfloor x/2 \rfloor, y)$ ;  $q = 2 \cdot q, r = 2 \cdot r$ ; if x is odd then r = r + 1; if  $r \ge y$  then r = r - y, q = q + 1; return (q, r);

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• Exercise 1.8!

### **Modular Arithmetic**

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# What Is Modular



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x modulo N is the remainder when x is divided by N; that is, if x = qN + r with  $0 \le r < N$ , then x modulo N is equal to r.

x and y are congruent modulo N if they differ by a multiple of N, i.e.

 $x \equiv y \mod N \iff N \operatorname{divides} (x-y)$ 





• It limits numbers to a predefined range  $\{0, 1, ..., N\}$  and wraps around whenever you try to leave this range - like the hand of a clock.

#### **Two Interpretations**



- **1** It limits numbers to a predefined range  $\{0, 1, ..., N\}$  and wraps around whenever you try to leave this range like the hand of a clock.
- **2** Modular arithmetic deals with all the integers, but divides them into N equivalence classes, each of the form  $\{i + k \cdot N \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  for some *i* between 0 and N 1.



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- Positive integers, in the range 0 to  $2^{n-1} 1$ , are stored in regular binary and have a leading bit of 0.
- Negative integers -x, with  $1 \le x \le 2^{n-1}$ , are stored by first constructing x in binary, then flipping all the bits, and finally adding 1. The leading bit in this case is 1.



127	=	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
2	=	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	=	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	-	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
-1	=	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
-2	=	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
-127	=	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
-128	=	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

(from wiki)

#### **Rules**



Substitution rules: if  $x \equiv x' \mod N$  and  $y \equiv y' \mod N$ , then  $x + y \equiv x' + y' \mod N$  $xy \equiv x'y' \mod N$ 

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$x + (y + z) \equiv (x + y) + z$	$\mod N$	Associativity
$xy \equiv yx$	$\mod N$	Commutativity
$x(y+z) \equiv xy + xz$	$\mod N$	Distributivity

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 $\begin{array}{ll} x+(y+z)\equiv (x+y)+z & \mod N & \mbox{Associativity} \\ xy\equiv yx & \mod N & \mbox{Commutativity} \\ x(y+z)\equiv xy+xz & \mod N & \mbox{Distributivity} \end{array}$ 

It is legal to reduce intermediate results to their remainders modulo N at any stage.

 $2^{345} \equiv (2^5)^{69} \equiv 32^{69} \equiv 1^{69} \equiv 1 \mod 31$ 



Since x and y are each in the range 0 to N - 1, their sum is between 0 and 2(N - 1).



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The overall computation therefore consists of an addition, and possibly a subtraction, of numbers that never exceed 2N.



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The overall computation therefore consists of an addition, and possibly a subtraction, of numbers that never exceed 2N.

Its running time is O(n), where  $n = \lceil \log N \rceil$ .





The product of x and y can be as large as  $(N-1)^2$ , but this is still at most 2n bits long since

 $log (N-1)^2 = 2log (N-1) \le 2n$ 



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Multiplication thus remains a quadratic operation.



Not quite so easy!

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In ordinary arithmetic there is just one tricky case - division by zero.

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It turns out that in modular arithmetic there are potentially other such cases as well.

Whenever division is legal, however, it can be managed in cubic time,  $O(n^3)$ .



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When x and y are just 20-bit numbers,  $x^y$  is at least

 $(2^{19})^{(2^{19})} = 2^{(19)(524288)}$ 

about 10 million bits long!



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The resulting sequence of intermediate products,

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consists of numbers that are smaller than N, and so the individual multiplications do not take too long.



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But imagine if y is 500 bits long . . .



Second idea: starting with x and squaring repeatedly modulo N, we get

 $x \mod N \to x^2 \mod N \to x^4 \mod N \to x^8 \mod N \to \dots x^{2 \lfloor \log y \rfloor} \mod N$ 



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To determine  $x^y \mod N$ , multiply together an appropriate subset of these powers, those corresponding to 1's in the binary representation of y.

For instance,

 $x^{25} = x^{11001_2} = x^{10000_2} \cdot x^{1000_2} \cdot x^{1_2} = x^{16} \cdot x^8 \cdot x^1$ 



```
MODEXP (x, y, N)

Two n-bit integers x and N, and an integer exponent y;

if y = 0 then return 1;

z=MODEXP (x, \lfloor y/2 \rfloor, N);

if y is even then

\mid return z^2 \mod N;

else return x \cdot z^2 \mod N;

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### Another formulation:

$$x^y \mod N = \begin{cases} (x^{\lfloor y/2 \rfloor})^2 \mod N & \text{if } y \text{ is even} \\ x \cdot (x^{\lfloor y/2 \rfloor})^2 \mod N & \text{if } y \text{ is odd} \end{cases}$$



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```

The algorithm will halt after at most *n* recursive calls, and during each call it multiplies *n*-bit numbers. for a total running time of  $O(n^3)$ 



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#### Euclid's rule

If x and y are positive integers with  $x \ge y$ , then  $gcd(x, y) = gcd(x \pmod{y}, y)$ .

#### Proof:

It is enough to show the rule gcd(x, y) = gcd(x - y, y). Result can be derived by repeatedly subtracting *y* from *x*.



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if y = 0 then return x; return (EUCLID  $(y, x \mod y)$ );



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- if  $b \le a/2$ ,  $a \mod b < b \le a/2$ ;
- if b > a/2,  $a \mod b = a b < a/2$ .



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This means that after any two consecutive rounds, both arguments, x and y are at the very least halved in value, i.e., the length of each decreases at least one bit.

### **Euclid's Algorithm for Greatest Common Divisor**



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If they are initially *n*-bit integers, then the base case will be reached within 2n recursive calls. Since each call involves a quadratic-time division, the total time is  $O(n^3)$ .



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 $d \leq gcd(x, y)$ , obviously;

 $d \ge gcd(x, y)$ , since gcd(x, y) can divide x and y, it must also divide ax + by = d.



EXTENDED-EUCLID (a, b)Two integers a and b with  $a \ge b \ge 0$ ; if b = 0 then return (1, 0, a); (x', y', d)=EXTENDED-EUCLID  $(b, a \pmod{b})$ ; return  $(y', x' - \lfloor a/b \rfloor y', d)$ ;



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Correctness of the algorithm? DIY!



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Remark: The inverse does not always exists! for instance, 2 is not invertible modulo 6.



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#### Proof:

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If gcd(a, N) = 1, then extended Euclid algorithm gives us integers x and y such that ax + Ny = 1, which means  $ax \equiv 1 \mod N$ . Thus x is a's sought inverse.

### **Modular Division**



Theorem (Modular Division Theorem)

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This resolves the issues of modular division: when working modulo N, can divide by numbers relatively prime to N. And to actually carry out the division, multiply by the inverse.