



## Algorithms Design II

Algorithms with Numbers I

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## 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.

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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

# 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?



## Bases and Logs

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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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It is also the depth of a complete binary tree with  $N$  nodes. (More precisely:  $\lceil \log N \rceil$ .)

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

## Basics Arithmetic

## Lemma

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

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$$\begin{array}{r} 1 \quad \quad \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 1 \\ 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \\ 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \\ \hline 1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad 0 \end{array}$$

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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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It is often useful and necessary to handle numbers much larger than this, perhaps several thousand bits long.

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.

# Multiplication

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The grade-school algorithm for multiplying two number  $x$  and  $y$  is to create an array of **intermediate sums**.

$$\begin{array}{r} \phantom{+} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{0} \phantom{1} \\ \phantom{+} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{0} \phantom{1} \\ \phantom{+} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{0} \phantom{1} \\ \phantom{+} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{0} \phantom{1} \\ \phantom{+} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{0} \phantom{1} \\ + \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{0} \phantom{1} \\ \hline 1 \phantom{0} \phantom{0} \phantom{0} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \phantom{1} \end{array}$$

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$$\underbrace{O(n) + \dots + O(n)}_{n-1}$$
$$O(n^2)$$

## Quiz

What is the complexity of a number times 2?



## Multiplication by Al Khwarizmi

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11 13

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11	13
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2	52
1	104

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

## Multiplication á la Françis

```
MULTIPLY ( $x, y$ )  
Two  $n$ -bit integers  $x$  and  $y$ , where  $y \geq 0$ ;  
if  $y = 0$  then return 0;  
 $z = \text{MULTIPLY}(x, \lfloor y/2 \rfloor)$ ;  
if  $y$  is even then  
|   return  $2z$ ;  
|   else return  $x + 2z$ ;  
end
```

## Multiplication á la Françis

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MULTIPLY (x, y)  
Two n-bit integers x and y, where y ≥ 0;  
if y = 0 then return 0;  
z = MULTIPLY (x,  $\lfloor y/2 \rfloor$ );  
if y is even then  
|   return 2z;  
|   else return x + 2z;  
end
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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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- a division by 2 (right shift);
- a test for odd/even (looking up the last bit);
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- and a possibly one addition.

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- Yes!

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*Two  $n$ -bit integers  $x$  and  $y$ , where  $y \geq 1$ ;*

**if  $x = 0$  then** return ( $0, 0$ );

$(q, r) = \text{DIVIDE}(\lfloor x/2 \rfloor, y)$ ;

$q = 2 \cdot q, r = 2 \cdot r$ ;

**if  $x$  is odd then**  $r = r + 1$ ;

**if  $r \geq y$  then**  $r = r - y, q = q + 1$ ;

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- Exercise 1.8!

## Modular Arithmetic

# 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  $0 \leq r < N$ , then  $x$  modulo  $N$  is equal to  $r$ .

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

$$x \equiv y \pmod{N} \Leftrightarrow N \text{ divides } (x - y)$$

## Two Interpretations

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

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- 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  $1 \leq x \leq 2^{n-1}$ , are stored by first constructing  $x$  in binary, then flipping all the bits, and finally adding  $1$ . The **leading bit** in this case is  $1$ .

# Two's Complement

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

(from wiki)

## Rules

Substitution rules: if  $x \equiv x' \pmod N$  and  $y \equiv y' \pmod N$ , then

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$x + (y + z) \equiv (x + y) + z$	$\pmod N$	<b>Associativity</b>
$xy \equiv yx$	$\pmod N$	<b>Commutativity</b>
$x(y + z) \equiv xy + xz$	$\pmod N$	<b>Distributivity</b>

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

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



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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  $n = \lceil \log N \rceil$ .

# Modular Multiplication

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

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Multiplication thus remains a **quadratic** operation.



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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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In the **cyptosystem**, it is necessary to compute  $x^y \pmod{N}$  for values of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $N$  that are **several hundred bits** long.

The result is some number  $\pmod{N}$  and is therefore a few hundred bits long. However, the raw value  $x^y$  could be much, much longer.

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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But imagine if  $y$  is 500 bits long . . .

# Modular Exponentiation

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

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For instance,

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

# Modular Exponentiation

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**

    return  $z^2 \bmod N$ ;

**else** return  $x \cdot z^2 \bmod N$ ;

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Another formulation:

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

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**end**

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  $O(n^3)$

# Euclid's Algorithm for Greatest Common Divisor

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*Proof:*

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

## Euclid's Algorithm for Greatest Common Divisor

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EUCLID ( $x, y$ )  
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### Proof:

- if  $b \leq a/2$ ,  $a \bmod b < b \leq a/2$ ;
- if  $b > a/2$ ,  $a \bmod b = a - b < a/2$ .

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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.

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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  $O(n^3)$ .

## An Extension of Euclid's Algorithm

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

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

## An Extension of Euclid's Algorithm

```
EXTENDED-EUCLID ( $a, b$ )
```

*Two integers  $a$  and  $b$  with  $a \geq b \geq 0$ ;*

```
if  $b = 0$  then return ( $1, 0, a$ );
```

```
( $x', y', d$ )=EXTENDED-EUCLID ( $b, a \pmod{b}$ );
```

```
return ( $y', x' - \lfloor a/b \rfloor y', d$ );
```



# Modular Inverse

We say  $x$  is the **multiplicative inverse** of  $a \pmod N$  if

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



## Lemma

If  $\gcd(a, N) > 1$ , then  $ax \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ .

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$ax \pmod N = ax + kN$ , then  $\gcd(a, N)$  divides  $ax \pmod N$

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

## Theorem (Modular Division Theorem)

*For any  $a \pmod N$ ,  $a$  has a multiplicative inverse modulo  $N$  if and only if it is relatively prime to  $N$ .*

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*When the inverse exists, it can be found in time  $O(n^3)$  by running the extended Euclid algorithm.*

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**.