

# Intro to Analysis of Algorithms

## Mathematical Foundations

### Chapter 9

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# Number theory

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

$$\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

We say that  $x$  *divides*  $y$ , and write  $x|y$  if  $y = qx$ .

If  $x|y$  we say that  $x$  is *divisor* (also *factor*) of  $y$ .

$$x|y \text{ iff } y = \text{div}(x, y) \cdot x.$$

We say that a number  $p$  is *prime* if its only divisors are itself and 1.

**Claim:** If  $p$  is a prime, and  $p|a_1a_2\dots a_n$ , then  $p|a_i$  for some  $i$ .

**Proof:** It is enough to show that if  $p|ab$  then  $p|a$  or  $p|b$ . Let  $g = \gcd(a, p)$ . Then  $g|p$ , and since  $p$  is a prime, there are two cases.

Case 1,  $g = p$ , then since  $g|a$ ,  $p|a$ .

Case 2,  $g = 1$ , so there exist  $u, v$  such that  $au + pv = 1$ , so  $abu + pbv = b$ .

Since  $p|ab$ , and  $p|p$ , it follows that  $p|(abu + pbv)$ , so  $p|b$ .

## Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

For  $a \geq 2$ ,  $a = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$ , where  $p_i$  are prime numbers, and other than rearranging primes, this factorization is unique.

**Proof:** We first show the existence of the factorization, and then its uniqueness.

The proof of existence is by complete induction; the basis case is  $a = 2$ , where 2 is a prime.

Consider an integer  $a > 2$ ; if  $a$  is prime then it is its own factorization (just as in the basis case).

Otherwise, if  $a$  is composite, then  $a = b \cdot c$ , where  $1 < b, c < a$ ; apply the induction hypothesis to  $b$  and  $c$ .

To show uniqueness suppose that  $a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_s = q_1 q_2 \dots q_t$  where we have written out all the primes, that is, instead of writing  $p^e$  we write  $p \cdot p \cdots p$ ,  $e$  times.

Since  $p_1 | a$ , it follows that  $p_1 | q_1 q_2 \dots q_t$ . So  $p_1 | q_j$  for some  $j$ , but then  $p_1 = q_j$  since they are both primes.

Now delete  $p_1$  from the first list and  $q_j$  from the second list, and continue.

Obviously we cannot end up with a product of primes equal to 1, so the two lists must be identical.

Let  $m \geq 1$  be an integer. We say that  $a$  and  $b$  are *congruent modulo  $m$* , and write  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  (or sometimes  $a \equiv_m b$ ) if  $m \mid (a - b)$ .

Another way to say this is that  $a$  and  $b$  have the same remainder when divided by  $m$ ; we can say that  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  if and only if  $\text{rem}(m, a) = \text{rem}(m, b)$ .

**Facts:**  $a_1 \equiv_m a_2$  and  $b_1 \equiv_m b_2$ , then  $a_1 \pm b_1 \equiv_m a_2 \pm b_2$  and  $a_1 \cdot b_1 \equiv_m a_2 \cdot b_2$ .

**Proposition:** If  $m \geq 1$ , then  $a \cdot b \equiv_m 1$  for some  $b$  if and only if  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ .

**Proof:** ( $\Rightarrow$ ) If there exists a  $b$  such that  $a \cdot b \equiv_m 1$ , then we have  $m|(ab - 1)$  and so there exists a  $c$  such that  $ab - 1 = cm$ , i.e.,  $ab - cm = 1$ .

And since  $\gcd(a, m)$  divides both  $a$  and  $m$ , it also divides  $ab - cm$ , and so  $\gcd(a, m)|1$  and so it must be equal to 1.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Suppose that  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ . By the extended Euclid's algorithm there exist  $u, v$  such that  $au + mv = 1$ , so  $au - 1 = -mv$ , so  $m|(au - 1)$ , so  $au \equiv_m 1$ . So let  $b = u$ .

Let  $\mathbb{Z}_m = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, m - 1\}$ .

We call  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  the set of integers modulo  $m$ .

To add or multiply in the set  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ , we add and multiply the corresponding integers, and then take the remainder of the division by  $m$  as the result.

Let  $\mathbb{Z}_m^* = \{a \in \mathbb{Z}_m \mid \gcd(a, m) = 1\}$ .

$\mathbb{Z}_m^*$  is the subset of  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  consisting of those elements which have multiplicative inverses in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ .



The function  $\phi(n)$  is called the *Euler totient function*, and it is the number of elements less than  $n$  that are co-prime to  $n$ , i.e.,  
$$\phi(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|.$$

If we are able to factor, we are also able to compute  $\phi(n)$ : suppose that  $n = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \cdots p_l^{k_l}$ , then it is not hard to see that  
$$\phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^l p_i^{k_i-1} (p_i - 1).$$

**Fermat's Little Theorem** Let  $p$  be a prime number and  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ . Then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof:** For any  $a$  such that  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$  the following products

$$1a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a, \quad (1)$$

all taken mod  $p$ , are pairwise distinct.

To see this suppose that  $ja \equiv ka \pmod{p}$ . Then  $(j-k)a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ , and so  $p|(j-k)a$ .

But since by assumption  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ , it follows that  $p \nmid a$ , and so it must be the case that  $p|(j-k)$ .

But since  $j, k \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ , it follows that  $-(p-2) \leq j-k \leq (p-2)$ , so  $j-k = 0$ , i.e.,  $j = k$ .

Thus the numbers in the list (1) are just a reordering of the list  $\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ .

Therefore

$$a^{p-1}(p-1)! \equiv_p \prod_{j=1}^{p-1} j \cdot a \equiv_p \prod_{j=1}^{p-1} j \equiv_p (p-1)!. \quad (2)$$

Since all the numbers in  $\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$  have inverses in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , as  $\gcd(i, p) = 1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq p-1$ , their product also has an inverse.

That is,  $(p-1)!$  has an inverse, and so multiplying both sides of (2) by  $((p-1)!)^{-1}$  we obtain the result.

**Exercise:** Give a second proof of Fermat's Little theorem using the binomial expansion, i.e.,  $(x + y)^n = \sum_{j=0}^n \binom{n}{j} x^j y^{n-j}$  applied to  $(a + 1)^p$ .

## Group theory

We say that  $(G, *)$  is a *group* if  $G$  is a set and  $*$  is an operation, such that if  $a, b \in G$ , then  $a * b \in G$ ; this property is called *closure*.

The operation  $*$  has to satisfy the following 3 properties:

1. *identity law*: There exists an  $e \in G$  such that  $e * a = a * e = a$  for all  $a \in G$ .
2. *inverse law*: For every  $a \in G$  there exists an element  $b \in G$  such that  $a * b = b * a = e$ . This element  $b$  is called an *inverse* and it can be shown that it is unique; hence it is often denoted as  $a^{-1}$ .
3. *associative law*: For all  $a, b, c \in G$ , we have  $a * (b * c) = (a * b) * c$ .

If  $(G, *)$  also satisfies the *commutative law*, that is, if for all  $a, b \in G$ ,  $a * b = b * a$ , then it is called a *commutative* or *Abelian*.

Typical examples of groups are  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$  (integers mod  $n$  under addition)

$(\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot)$  (integers mod  $n$  under multiplication).

Note that both these groups are Abelian.

These are, of course, the two groups of concern for us; but there are many others:  $(\mathbb{Q}, +)$  is an infinite group (rationals under addition),

$GL(n, \mathbb{F})$  (which is the group of  $n \times n$  invertible matrices over a field  $\mathbb{F}$ ),

and  $S_n$  (the *symmetric group* over  $n$  elements, consisting of permutations of  $[n]$  where  $*$  is function composition).

**Exercise:** Show that  $(\mathbb{Z}_n, +)$  and  $(\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot)$  are groups, by checking that the corresponding operation satisfies the three axioms of a group.

We let  $|G|$  denote the number of elements in  $G$  (note that  $G$  may be infinite, but we are concerned mainly with finite groups).

If  $g \in G$  and  $x \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $g^x = g * g * \cdots * g$ ,  $x$  times.

If it is clear from the context that the operation is  $*$ , we use juxtaposition  $ab$  instead of  $a * b$ .

Suppose that  $G$  is a finite group and  $a \in G$ ; then the smallest  $d \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a^d = e$  is called the *order* of  $a$ , and it is denoted as  $\text{order}_G(a)$  (or just  $\text{order}(a)$  if the group  $G$  is clear from the context).



**Proposition:** If  $G$  is a finite group, then for all  $a \in G$  there exists a  $d \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a^d = e$ . If  $d = \text{order}_G(a)$ , and  $a^k = e$ , then  $d|k$ .

**Proof:** Consider the list  $a^1, a^2, a^3, \dots$

If  $G$  is finite there must exist  $i < j$  such that  $a^i = a^j$ .

Then,  $(a^{-1})^i$  applied to both sides yields  $a^{i-j} = e$ .

Let  $d = \text{order}(a)$  (by the LNP we know that it must exist!).

Suppose that  $k \geq d$ ,  $a^k = e$ . Write  $k = dq + r$  where  $0 \leq r < d$ .

Then  $e = a^k = a^{dq+r} = (a^d)^q a^r = a^r$ .

Since  $a^d = e$  it follows that  $a^r = e$ , contradicting the minimality of  $d = \text{order}(a)$ , unless  $r = 0$ .

If  $(G, *)$  is a group we say that  $H$  is a *subgroup* of  $G$ , and write  $H \leq G$ , if  $H \subseteq G$  and  $H$  is closed under  $*$ .

That is,  $H$  is a subset of  $G$ , and  $H$  is itself a group.

Note that for any  $G$  it is always the case that  $\{e\} \leq G$  and  $G \leq G$ ; these two are called the *trivial subgroups* of  $G$ .

If  $H \leq G$  and  $g \in G$ , then  $gH$  is called a *left coset of  $G$* , and it is simply the set  $\{gh \mid h \in H\}$ .

Note that  $gH$  is not necessarily a subgroup of  $G$ .

**Lagrange** If  $G$  is a finite group and  $H \leq G$ , then  $|H|$  divides  $|G|$ , i.e., the order of  $H$  divides the order of  $G$ .

**Proof:** If  $g_1, g_2 \in G$ , then the two cosets  $g_1H$  and  $g_2H$  are either identical or  $g_1H \cap g_2H = \emptyset$ .

To see this, suppose that  $g \in g_1H \cap g_2H$ , so  $g = g_1h_1 = g_2h_2$ .

In particular,  $g_1 = g_2h_2h_1^{-1}$ .

Thus,  $g_1H = (g_2h_2h_1^{-1})H$ , and since it can be easily checked that  $(ab)H = a(bH)$  and that  $hH = H$  for any  $h \in H$ , it follows that  $g_1H = g_2H$ .

Therefore, for a finite  $G = \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_n\}$ , the collection of sets  $\{g_1H, g_2H, \dots, g_nH\}$  is a partition of  $G$  into subsets that are either disjoint or identical; from among all subcollections of identical cosets we pick a representative, so that

$G = g_{i_1}H \cup g_{i_2}H \cup \dots \cup g_{i_m}H$ , and so  $|G| = m|H|$ , and we are done.

**Exercise:** Let  $H \leq G$ . Show that if  $h \in H$ , then  $hH = H$ , and that in general for any  $g \in G$ ,  $|gH| = |H|$ . Finally, show that  $(ab)H = a(bH)$ .

**Exercise:** If  $G$  is a group, and  $\{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k\} \subseteq G$ , then the set  $\langle g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k \rangle$  is defined as follows

$$\{x_1 x_2 \cdots x_p \mid p \in \mathbb{N}, x_i \in \{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k, g_1^{-1}, g_2^{-1}, \dots, g_k^{-1}\}\}.$$

Show that  $\langle g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k \rangle \leq G$ , and it is called the subgroup *generated* by  $\{g_1, g_2, \dots, g_k\}$ . Also show that when  $G$  is finite  $|\langle g \rangle| = \text{order}_G(g)$ .

An example of “reification.”

**Euler:** For every  $n$  and every  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , that is, for every pair  $a, n$  such that  $\gcd(a, n) = 1$ , we have  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

**Proof:** First it is easy to check that  $(\mathbb{Z}_n^*, \cdot)$  is a group.

Then by definition  $\phi(n) = |\mathbb{Z}_n^*|$ , and since  $\langle a \rangle \leq \mathbb{Z}_n^*$ , it follows by Lagrange’s theorem that  $\text{order}(a) = |\langle a \rangle|$  divides  $\phi(n)$ .

Note that Fermat’s Little theorem is an immediate consequence of Euler’s theorem, since when  $p$  is a prime,  $\mathbb{Z}_p^* = \mathbb{Z}_p - \{0\}$ , and  $\phi(p) = (p - 1)$ .

**Chinese Remainder** Given two sets of numbers of equal size,  $r_0, r_1, \dots, r_n$ , and  $m_0, m_1, \dots, m_n$ , such that

$$0 \leq r_i < m_i \quad 0 \leq i \leq n \quad (3)$$

and  $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$  for  $i \neq j$ , then there exists an  $r$  such that  $r \equiv r_i \pmod{m_i}$  for  $0 \leq i \leq n$ .

**Proof:** The proof we give is by counting; we show that the distinct values of  $r$ ,  $0 \leq r < \prod m_i$ , represent distinct sequences.

To see that, note that if  $r \equiv r' \pmod{m_i}$  for all  $i$ , then  $m_i | (r - r')$  for all  $i$ , and so  $(\prod m_i) | (r - r')$ , since the  $m_i$ 's are pairwise co-prime.

So  $r \equiv r' \pmod{(\prod m_i)}$ , and so  $r = r'$  since both  $r, r' \in \{0, 1, \dots, (\prod m_i) - 1\}$ .

But the total number of sequences  $r_0, \dots, r_n$  such that (3) holds is precisely  $\prod m_i$ .

Hence every such sequence must be a sequence of remainders of some  $r$ ,  $0 \leq r < \prod m_i$ .

**Exercise** The proof of CRT just given is non-constructive. Show how to obtain efficiently the  $r$  that meets the requirement of the theorem, i.e., in polytime in  $n$ —so in particular not using brute force search.



Given two groups  $(G_1, *_1)$  and  $(G_2, *_2)$ , a mapping  $h : G_1 \longrightarrow G_2$  is a *homomorphism* if it respects the operation of the groups; formally, for all  $g_1, g'_1 \in G_1$ ,  $h(g_1 *_1 g'_1) = h(g_1) *_2 h(g'_1)$ .

If the homomorphism  $h$  is also a bijection, then it is called an *isomorphism*.

If there exists an isomorphism between two groups  $G_1$  and  $G_2$ , we call them *isomorphic*, and write  $G_1 \cong G_2$ .

If  $(G_1, *_1)$  and  $(G_2, *_2)$  are two groups, then their product, denoted  $(G_1 \times G_2, *)$  is simply  $\{(g_1, g_2) : g_1 \in G_1, g_2 \in G_2\}$ , where  $(g_1, g_2) * (g'_1, g'_2)$  is  $(g_1 *_1 g'_1, g_2 *_2 g'_2)$ .

The product of  $n$  groups,  $G_1 \times G_2 \times \cdots \times G_n$  can be defined analogously; using this notation, the CRT can be stated in the language of group theory as follows:

If  $m_0, m_1, \dots, m_n$  are pairwise co-prime integers, then

$$\mathbb{Z}_{m_0 \cdot m_1 \cdot \dots \cdot m_n} \cong \mathbb{Z}_{m_0} \times \mathbb{Z}_{m_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{Z}_{m_n}.$$