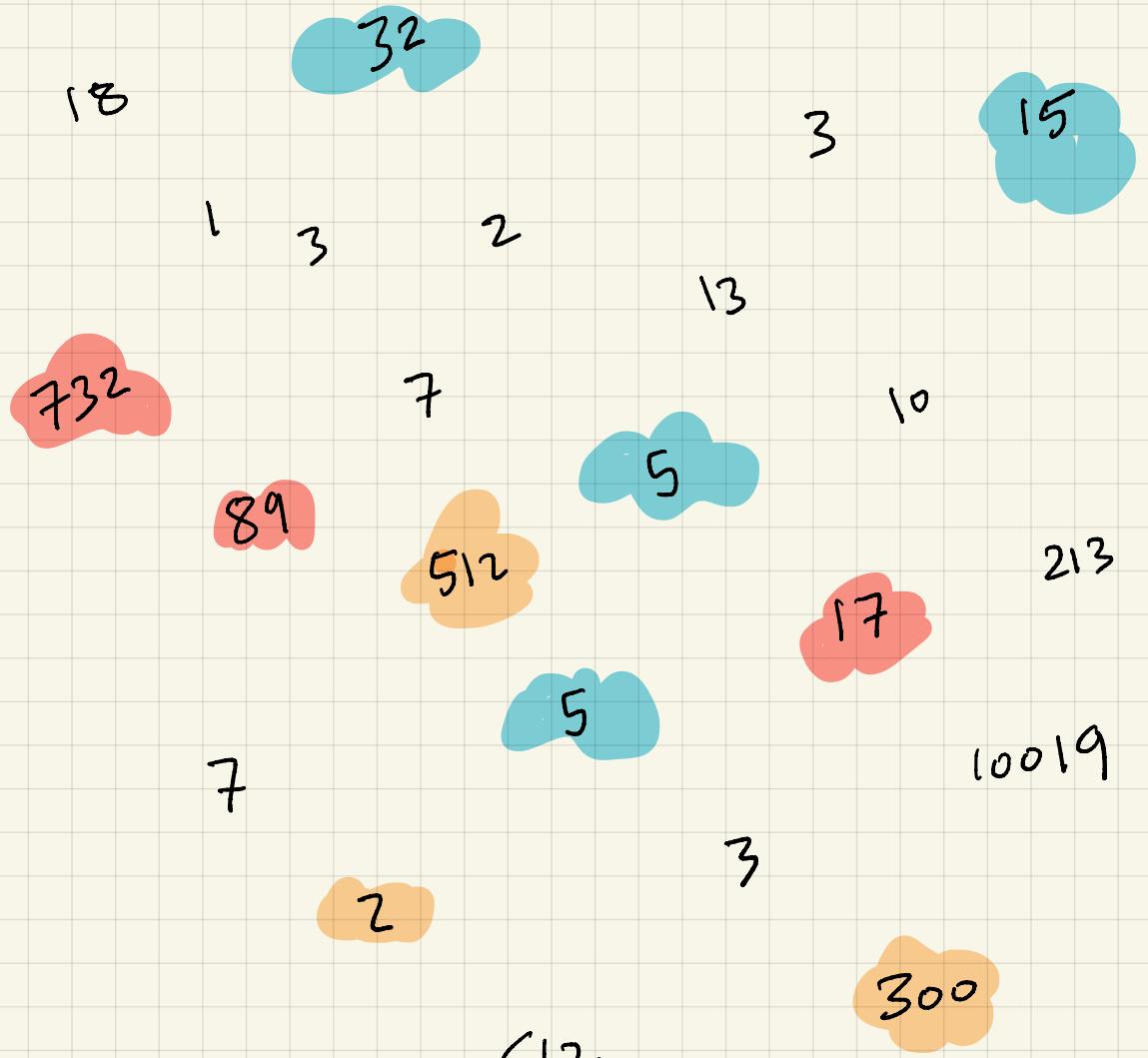


Some Number theory

Lecture 20



Number Theory

We focus on the positive integers.

Divisibility: Definition & Notation

1. a divides b

e.g. 6 divides 18

2. a is a divisor of b

3. b is a multiple of a

e.g. 18 is multiple of 6

$$\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}. b = ma$$

$$18 = \underline{\underline{3}} \cdot 6$$

4. $a \mid b$ (notation)

If a does NOT divide b , we can write $a \nmid b$.

We can always write (uniquely)

$$b = aq + r$$

where $0 \leq r < a$

q : quotient

r : remainder , $r \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, a-1\}$ ($r=0 \Leftrightarrow a|b$)

Proof of uniqueness :

Suppose $b = aq_1 + r_1 \Rightarrow r_1 = b - aq_1$

$$b = aq_2 + r_2 \Rightarrow r_2 = b - aq_2$$

$$q_1 \neq q_2 \text{ and } r_1 > r_2. \text{ Then } r_1 - r_2 = (b - aq_1) - (b - aq_2)$$

$$\text{so } r_1 - r_2 = a(q_2 - q_1)$$

Since $0 \leq r_1 - r_2 < a$, then $0 \leq q_2 - q_1 < 1$, contradiction.

One interesting notion is a common divisor

d is common divisor of a and b

$$d|a \wedge d|b$$

Given $\underline{b = aq + r}$ ($0 \leq r < a$)

$$d|a \wedge d|b \iff d|a \text{ and } d|r$$

$$6 | 30$$

$$6 | 18$$

$$30 = 18(1) + \underbrace{12}_{r}$$

$$6 | 12$$

Proof: • $d|a \wedge d|b \Rightarrow b = md \wedge a = nd \Rightarrow$

$$r = b - aq = md - ndq = d(m - nq) = dm'$$

so $d|r$.

• $d|a \wedge d|r \Rightarrow a = md \wedge r = nd \Rightarrow$

$$b = aq + r = mdq + nd = d(mq + n) = dm'$$

so $d|b$

This idea is behind one of the earliest algorithms in history, The Greatest Common Divisor algorithm due to Euclid.

First, observe that the greatest common divisor is a well defined concept (Why) :

- 1) Any two integers share at least one divisor : 1
- 2) A divisor of a number x , cannot be greater than x .

So the greatest common divisor exists.

Example: 300 and 18

Divisors of 300 :

{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 10, 12, 15, 20, 25, 30, 50, 60, 75, 100, 150, 300}

Divisors of 18

{1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 18}

$$\gcd(300, 18) = 6$$

Not a practical approach!

Too much time to find all divisors.

Another idea: Factoring into primes

$$300 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2$$

$$18 = 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^0$$

For each prime factor, pick the smaller power:

$$\gcd(300, 18) = 2^1 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 5^0 = 6$$

Side remark: What happens if we pick for each prime factor the largest power?

$$2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5^2 = 900$$

This is the least common multiple lcm.

Observation: $\gcd(a, b) \times \text{lcm}(a, b) = a \times b$.

Also not a practical approach: Factoring into primes not easy!

Euclid's algorithm :

Construct a sequence

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} a_0 & a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_{i-2} & a_{i-1} & a_i & \dots & a_k & \underbrace{a_{k+1}}_0 \\ \hline 300 & 18 & & & & & & & & \end{array}$$

where $a_{i-2} = a_{i-1} q_{i-1} + \underbrace{a_i}_{\text{remainder}}$

remainder of a_{i-2}/a_{i-1}

Then $a_k = \gcd(a_0, a_1)$

Example:

a_0	a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4	$300 = 18(16) + \underbrace{12}_{\text{remainder}}$
300	18	12	6	0	

↑

$$\gcd(300, 18) = \gcd(18, 12) = \gcd(12, 6)$$

Since $6 | 12$

100 39 22 17 5 2 1 0

↓
1 0

$$\begin{array}{r} 100 \\ 78 \\ \hline 22 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 39 \\ 22 \\ \hline 17 \end{array}$$

Do Long division.

$$\begin{array}{r} 22 \\ 17 \\ \hline 5 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 17 \\ 15 \\ \hline 2 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 5 \\ 4 \\ \hline 1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 2 \\ 2 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

Why is this good? It's efficient (Fast)

$a_0 \ a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_{i-2} \ a_{i-1} \ a_i \ \dots \ a_k \ \underbrace{a_{k+1}}_0$ (decreasing)

where $a_{i-2} = a_{i-1} q_{i-1} + a_i$
 $\qquad\qquad\qquad \downarrow \downarrow$
remainder of a_{i-2}/a_{i-1}

$$a_{i-2} \geq a_{i-1} + a_i \quad (q_{i-1} \geq 1)$$

$$a_{k-1} \geq 2$$

$$a_k \geq 1$$

V.S.

$$F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$$

$$F_3 = 2$$

$$F_2 = 1$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} F_2 & F_3 & & \dots & F_{k+2} & (\text{k+1 terms}) \\ \nwarrow & \nwarrow & & & \nwarrow & \\ a_k & a_{k-1} & \dots & & a_0 & \end{array}$$

$$a_0 \geq F_{k+2} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \phi^{k+2} \Rightarrow k \text{ is logarithmic in } a_0$$

The extended Euclidean alg.

$a_0 \ a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_{i-2} \ a_{i-1} \ a_i \ \dots \ a_k \ \underbrace{a_{k+1}}_0$

First, a claim :

$$a_i = a_0 x_i + a_1 y_i \quad x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (\text{not unique})$$

Every number in the sequence is a linear combination of a_0 and a_1 .

Example: $\begin{array}{ccccc} 300 & 18 & 12 & 6 & 0 \\ \hline a_0 & a_1 \end{array}$

$$300 = a_0 \cdot 1 + a_1 \cdot 0$$

$$18 = a_0 \cdot 0 + a_1 \cdot 1$$

$$12 = a_0 \cdot 1 + a_1 \cdot (-16)$$

$$6 = a_0 \cdot (-1) + a_1 \cdot 17$$

$$0 = a_0 (3) + a_1 (-50)$$

Euclidean alg.

can find

x_i and y_i

- Before we prove claim and find x_i, y_i , what's in this?
- Well, gcd is one integer in the sequence
- So we can write

$$\boxed{\gcd(a, b) = ar - bs}$$

$(r \geq 0, s \geq 0)$

how?

How: $ar - bs = a(r+b) - b(s+a)$

- Why is this useful? (Later)

Proof that $a_i = a_0 x_i + a_1 y_i$ for all a_i is seq.

Base case:

$$a_0 = a_0 \cdot 1 + a_1 \cdot 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$a_1 = a_0 \cdot 0 + a_1 \cdot 1 \quad \checkmark$$

Inductive hypothesis: Assume for a fixed $i \geq 1$,

$$a_j = a_0 x_j + a_1 y_j \text{ for all } 0 \leq j \leq i$$

Inductive hypothesis: Consider $i+1$

$$a_{i+1} = a_{i-1} - q_i a_i$$

$$= a_0 x_{i-1} + a_1 y_{i-1} - q_i (a_0 x_i + a_1 y_i)$$

$$= a_0 \underbrace{[x_{i-1} - q_i x_i]}_{x_{i+1}} + a_1 \underbrace{[y_{i-1} - q_i y_i]}_{y_{i+1}}$$

$$x_{i+1}$$

$$y_{i+1}$$

$$x_i = x_{i-2} - q_{i-1} x_{i-1}$$

$$q_{i-1} = \frac{a_{i-2} - a_i}{a_{i-1}}$$

$$y_i = y_{i-2} - q_{i-1} y_{i-1}$$

	a_0	a_1	\dots	a_{i-2}	a_{i-1}	a_i	\dots	$gcd(a_0, a_i) = 0$
x	1	0		x_{i-2}	x_{i-1}	x ?	?	
y	0	1		y_{i-2}	y_{i-1}	?		

Example:

$$\begin{array}{cccccc} 300 & 18 & 12 & 6 & 0 \\ \hline 1 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & -16 & 17 & -50 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(300, 18) &= 300(-1) + 18(17) \\ &= 300(-1) - 18(-17) \\ &= 300\left(\cancel{-1} + 18\right) - 18\left(\cancel{-17} + \cancel{300}\right) \\ &= 300(17) - 18(283) \\ &\geq 0 & \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$