

Session 59: GCD and LCM

- Greatest Common Divisor
- Least Common Multiple

Greatest Common Divisor

Definition: Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The largest integer d such that $d \mid a$ and also $d \mid b$ is called the **greatest common divisor** of a and b .

The greatest common divisor of a and b is denoted by **$\gcd(a, b)$** .

Example:

$$\gcd(24, 36) = 12$$

$$\gcd(17, 22) = 1$$

Relatively Prime

Definition: The integers a and b are **relatively prime** if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$

Definition: The integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are **pairwise relatively prime** if $\gcd(a_i, a_j) = 1$ whenever $1 \leq i < j \leq n$.

Examples

17 and 22 are relatively prime

The integers 10, 17 and 21 are pairwise relatively prime.

$$\gcd(10, 17) = 1$$

$$\gcd(10, 21) = 1$$

$$\gcd(17, 21) = 1$$

The integers 10, 19, and 24 are not pairwise relatively prime.

$$\gcd(10, 24) = 2$$

Finding the Greatest Common Divisor

Suppose the prime factorizations of a and b are:

$$a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n} , \quad b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n} ,$$

where each exponent is a nonnegative integer.

Then:

$$\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{\min(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2, b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\min(a_n, b_n)} .$$

- Finding the gcd of two positive integers using their prime factorizations is not efficient because there is no efficient algorithm for finding the prime factorization of a positive integer.

Example

$$120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 = 2^3 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 5^1$$

$$500 = 2^2 \cdot 5^3 = 2^2 \cdot 3^0 \cdot 5^3$$

$$\gcd(120, 500) = 2^2 \cdot 3^0 \cdot 5^1 = 20$$

Least Common Multiple

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

The least common multiple can also be computed from the prime factorizations.

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = p_1^{\max(a_1, b_1)} p_2^{\max(a_2, b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\max(a_n, b_n)}$$

Example: $\text{lcm}(2^3 3^5 7^2, 2^4 3^3) = 2^{\max(3,4)} 3^{\max(5,3)} 7^{\max(2,0)} = 2^4 3^5 7^2$

Theorem: Let a and b be positive integers. Then $ab = \text{gcd}(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b)$

Proof: Note that $a + b = \min(a, b) + \max(a, b)$

$$\gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b) = \prod_{p_1}^{\min(a_1, b_1)} \prod_{p_1}^{\max(a_1, b_1)} \dots$$

$$= \prod_{p_1}^{a_1 + b_1} \dots$$

$$= \prod_{p_1}^{a_1} \prod_{p_1}^{b_1} \dots$$

$$= a \cdot b$$

Euclidean Algorithm

Observation: for a, b , $a > b$ let $r = a \bmod b$
then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r, b)$

If $r = a \bmod b$, then $a = q \cdot b + r$ for some q

assume d divides both a, b ; then $d \mid a - qb$, thus $d \mid r$

assume d divides both b, r ; then $d \mid qb + r$, thus $d \mid a$

Therefore: d divides a, b iff. d divides b, r
and thus $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r, b)$

This observation allows to quickly compute gcd, without factorization

Example : $\gcd(287, 91)$

$$287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14, \quad 287 \bmod 91 = 14$$

$$\gcd(91, 14)$$

$$91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7, \quad 91 \bmod 14 = 7$$

$$\gcd(14, 7) = 7$$

$$7 = 2 \cdot 7 + 0, \quad 14 \bmod 7 = 0$$

$$\text{therefore } \gcd(287, 91) = 7$$

Euclidean Algorithm

The Euclidian algorithm is an efficient method for computing the greatest common divisor of two integers.

It is based on the idea that $\gcd(a, b)$ is equal to $\gcd(r, b)$ when $a > b$ and r is the remainder when a is divided by b .

Example:

Find $\gcd(91, 287)$:

$$287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14, \text{ therefore } \gcd(287, 91) = \gcd(14, 91) = \gcd(91, 14)$$

$$91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7, \text{ therefore } \gcd(91, 14) = \gcd(7, 14) = \gcd(14, 7)$$

$$14 = 7 \cdot 2 + 0, \text{ therefore } \gcd(14, 7) = 7$$

Correctness of Euclidean Algorithm

Lemma 1: Let $a = bq + r$, where a , b , q , and r are integers.
Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Proof:

- Suppose that d divides both a and b . Then d also divides $a - bq = r$.
 - Hence, any common divisor of a and b must also be a common divisor of b and r .
- Suppose that d divides both b and r . Then d also divides $bq + r = a$.
 - Hence, any common divisor of a and b must also be a common divisor of b and r .
- Therefore, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$. ☒

Euclidean Algorithm

```
procedure gcd(a, b: positive integers,  $a > b$ )  
x := a  
y := b  
while  $y \neq 0$   
    r := x mod y  
    x := y  
    y := r  
return x
```

```
procedure gcd(a, b: positive integers,  $a > b$ )  
if  $b = 0$  then return a  
    else return gcd(b, a mod b)
```

Correctness of Euclidean Algorithm

Suppose that a and b are positive integers with $a \geq b$. Let $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$.

Successive applications of the division algorithm yields:

$$\begin{array}{llll} r_0 &= r_1 q_1 + r_2 & 0 \leq r_2 < r_1, & r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1 \\ r_1 &= r_2 q_2 + r_3 & 0 \leq r_3 < r_2, & \\ & \cdot & & \cdot \\ & \cdot & & \cdot \\ & \cdot & & \cdot \\ r_{n-2} &= r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n & 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1}, & \\ r_{n-1} &= r_n q_n & & \end{array}$$

Eventually, a remainder of zero occurs in the sequence of terms: $a = r_0 > r_1 > r_2 > \cdots \geq 0$.

The sequence can't contain more than a terms.

By Lemma 1 $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r_0, r_1) = \cdots = \gcd(r_{n-1}, r_n) = \gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n$.

Hence the greatest common divisor is the last nonzero remainder in the sequence of divisions.

Why does the Euclidean algorithm (always) work?

Let's compute $\gcd(a, b)$ and set $r_0 = a$, $r_1 = b$

Performing divisions $r_2 = r_0 \bmod r_1$ $r_1 > r_2 \geq 0$

$r_3 = r_1 \bmod r_2$ $r_2 > r_3 \geq 0$

\vdots

$r_{n+1} = r_n \bmod r_n$ $r_{n+1} = 0$ why?

after at most n divisions r_{n+1} must be 0.

Since $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_2) =$

$= \gcd(r_n, r_{n+1}) = \gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n$

Complexity of Euclidean Algorithm

Theorem (Lamé's theorem): Let a and b be positive integers with $a \geq b$. Then the number of divisions used by the Euclidean algorithm to find $\gcd(a, b)$ is less than or equal to five times the number of decimal digits in b .

Therefore the Euclidean algorithm has complexity $O(\log b)$.

Summary

- Greatest common divisor
- Least common Multiple
- Euclidean Algorithm