

The Greatest Common Divisor

Definition: (1) An integer b is said to be divisible by an integer $a \neq 0$, in symbol $a|b$, if there exists some integer c s.t. $b=ac$. We write $a \nmid b$ to indicate that b is not divisible by a . (6)

For eg:- -12 is divisible by 4 , because $-12 = 4(-3)$.
However, 10 is not divisible by 3 ; since there is no integer c that makes the statement $10=3c$ true.

$a|b$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a \text{ is a divisor of } b \\ a \text{ is a factor of } b \\ b \text{ is a multiple of } a. \end{array} \right.$

If a is a divisor of b , then b is also divisible by $-a$.
[indeed, $b=ac$ implies $b=(-a)(-c)$], so that the divisors of an integer occur in pairs.

Note - To find all the divisors of a given integer, it is sufficient to obtain the positive divisors and then adjoin to them the corresponding negative integers.

Thm 2: For integers a, b, c , the following hold

- $a|0, 1|a, a|a$
- $a|1$ if and only if $a = \pm 1$.
- If $a|b$ & $c|d$, then $ac|bd$.
- If $a|b$ & $b|c$, then $a|c$.
- $a|b$ & $b|a$ if and only if $a = \pm b$
- If $a|b$ & $b \neq 0$, then $|a| \leq |b|$.
- If $a|b$ & $a|c$, then $a|(bx+cy)$ for arbitrary integers x & y .

Proof:-

(1) If $a|b$, then \exists an integer c such that
 $b = ac$,

Also, $b \neq 0$ implies $c \neq 0$.

Taking absolute values, we get -

$$|b| = |ac| = |a||c|.$$

Since $c \neq 0$, it follows that $|c| \geq 1$.

Hence, $|b| = |a||c| \geq |a| \cdot 1 = |a|$. \square

(2) Given $a|b$ and $a|c$.

So, $b = ax$ and $c = ay$ for suitable integers x and y .

But then whatever the choice of x and y ,

$$bx + cy = axx + ayy = a(xx + yy)$$

Since $xx + yy$ is an integer, this implies $a|bx + cy$. \square

Note: Property (2) of Thm (3) extends by induction to sums of more than two terms. If $a|b_k$, $k=1, 2, \dots, n$,

then $a|(b_1x_1 + b_2x_2 + \dots + b_nx_n)$

\forall integers x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n .

Defn (2) If a and b are arbitrary integers, then an integer d is said to be a common divisor of a and b if both $d|a$ and $d|b$.

Note (2) Since 1 is a divisor of every integer, so 1 is a common divisor of a and b . Therefore, the set of positive common divisors is non-empty.

⑦
⑥ Every integer divides zero, so that if $a=b=0$, then every integer serves as a common divisor of a & b .
In this case, the set of positive common divisors of a and b is infinite.

But if at least one of a or b is different from zero, there are only a finite number of positive common divisors. Among these, there is a largest one, called the greatest common divisor of a and b .

Def ③. Let a and b be given integers, with at least one of them different from zero. The greatest common divisor of a and b , denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$, is the positive integer d satisfying the following:

- (a) $d|a$ and $d|b$
- (b) If $c|a$ and $c|b$, then $c \leq d$.

Ex. Positive divisors of -12 are $1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12$, whereas those of 30 are $1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 15, 30$; so the positive common divisors of -12 and 30 are $1, 2, 3, 6$.

Since 6 is the largest, $\gcd(-12, 30) = 6$.

Similarly, $\gcd(-5, 5) = 5$, $\gcd(-8, -36) = 4$, $\gcd(8, 17) = 1$.

Thm ③: Given integers a and b , not both of which are zero, there exist integers x and y such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = ax + by.$$

Proof: Consider the set of all positive linear combinations of a and b :

$$S = \{au + bv \mid au + bv > 0; u, v \text{ integers}\}.$$

To ~~the~~ check S is non-empty.

If $a \neq 0$, then the integers, $|a| = au + b \cdot 0$ lies in S , where $u = 1$ or $u = -1$ according as a is (+)ve or (-)ve.

By the Well-Ordering Principle, S must contain a smallest element d .

So, \exists integers x and y for which $d = ax + by$.

Claim: $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

By the DA, we can get integers q and r such that $a = qd + r$, where $0 \leq r < d$.

Then, r can be written in the form:

$$\begin{aligned} r &= a - qd = a - q(ax + by) \\ &= a(1 - qx) + b(-qy) \end{aligned}$$

If $r > 0$, then this implies that $r \in S$, which contradicts the fact that d is the least integer in S , since $r < d$.

So, $r = 0$, and so $a = qd$ or $d \mid a$.

Similarly, we can show that $d \mid b$.

~~Hence $d = \gcd(a, b)$.~~

Hence d is a common divisor of a and b .

~~To \Rightarrow~~

To show $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

If c is any arbitrary positive common divisor of the integers a and b , then (8) of Thm (2) gives -

$$c \mid ax + by, \text{ i.e. } c \mid d.$$

By (1) of Thm (2), we get -

$$c = |c| \leq |d| = d.$$

This implies d is greater than every positive common divisor of a and b .

$$\text{Thus } d = \gcd(a, b).$$

Note

Observation: The \gcd of a and b may be described as the smallest positive integer of the form $ax + by$.

Consider, $a = 6$ and $b = 15$. The set S becomes

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \{ 6(-2) + 15 \cdot 1, 6(-1) + 15 \cdot 1, 6 \cdot 1 + 15 \cdot 0, \dots \} \\ &= \{ 3, 9, 6, \dots \}. \end{aligned}$$

We see that 3 is the smallest integer in S .

$$\text{Hence } 3 = \gcd(6, 15).$$

Corollary: If a and b are given integers, not both zero, then the set $T = \{ ax + by \mid x, y \text{ are integers} \}$ is precisely the set of all multiples of $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Proof: Try to prove!

Observation: $\gcd(2, 5) = \gcd(-9, 16) = \gcd(-27, 35) = 1$.

From this, we come to the following definition.

Defn (1) Two integers a and b , not both of which are zero, are said to be relatively prime whenever $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Thm (1): Let a and b be integers, not both zero. Then a and b are relatively prime if and only if there exist integers x and y such that $1 = ax + by$.

Proof: If a and b are relatively prime, then $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.
By Thm (3), \exists integers x and y satisfying
$$1 = ax + by.$$

Conversely, let $1 = ax + by$ for some choice of x and y and that $\gcd(a, b) = d$.

Since $d|a$ and $d|b$, by Thm (2), $d|ax + by$
or, $d|1$.

Since d is an integer, so we get $d = 1$ (by (b) of Thm (2)).
Thus a & b are relatively prime. \square .

Corollary: If $\gcd(a, b) = d$, then $\gcd(a/d, b/d) = 1$.

As an illustration, let $\gcd(-12, 30) = 6$ and

$$\gcd(-12/6, 30/6) = \gcd(-2, 5) = 1.$$

Corollary: If $a|c$ & $b|c$, with $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $ab|c$.

Proof: Since $a|c$ and $b|c$, integers x and s can be found s.t. $c = ax = bs$.

Now $\gcd(a, b) = 1$; so we get $1 = ax + by$ for some choice of integers x & y .

Multiplying by $\odot c$ in the last eqn, - ⑨

$$c = c \cdot 1 = c(ax + by) = acx + bcy.$$

So,

$$c = a(bx) + b(ay) \\ = ab(dx + cy).$$

$$\Rightarrow ab \mid c.$$

Thm: ⑤ Euclid's Lemma: If $a \mid bc$, with $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $a \mid c$.

Proof:- We have from $\gcd(a, b) = 1$
 $1 = ax + by$, where x & y are integers.

Multiply by c , we get -

$$c = 1 \cdot c = (ax + by)c = acx + bcy.$$

Since $a \mid ac$ & $a \mid bc$, it follows that
 $a \mid acx + bcy$

$$\Rightarrow a \mid c. \quad \square.$$

Note:- If a and b are not relatively prime, then the conclusion of Euclid's Lemma may fail to hold.
eg:- $12 \mid 9 \cdot 8$, but $12 \nmid 9$ and $12 \nmid 8$.

Note:- The following theorem serves as a definition of $\gcd(a, b)$. The advantage of using it as a definition, is that ~~an~~ order relationship is not involved. Thus, it may be used in algebraic systems having no order relation.

24^m ⑥ : Let a & b be integers, not both zero. For a positive integer d , $d = \gcd(a, b)$ if and only if.

(a) $d|a$ and $d|b$.

(b) whenever, $c|a$ and $c|b$, then $c|d$.

Proof, Try to prove!