Introduction to Number Theory

The study of the integers

Divisibility of Integers, $\mathbb{Z}$

The set of integers

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

In this lecture, if nothing is said about a variable, it is an integer.

Def. We say that a *divides* b if there is an integer k such that

$$b = a \cdot k.$$

We write $a \mid b$ if a divides b. Otherwise, we write $a \nmid b$.

For example, $7 \mid 63$, because $7 \cdot 9 = 63$.

If a divides b, then b is a multiple of a.

Definition for $a \mid b$

$a \cdot k = b$ for some integer k

notation: $a \mid b$

reads as "a divides b"

alternatively: "b is a multiple of a"

Example: $6 \mid 54$

Divisibility

Lemma 1. If $a \mid b$ then $a \mid bc$ for all c.

Proof. Since $a \mid b$, $\exists k$ such that $ak = b$. Thus $bc = akc$, and therefore by definition, $a|bc$. □

Example: $5 \mid 15$, then,
$5 \mid 30$,
$5 \mid -45$,
$5 \mid -150$.

Divisibility

Lemma 2. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$.

Proof. There exist integers m and n such that $b = am$ and $c = bn$. So, $c = bn = amn$, and therefore, $a \mid c$. □

Example: $7 \mid 14$, and $14 \mid 280$, therefore, by this lemma, $7 \mid 280$.

Divisibility

Lemma 3. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (mb + nc)$ for all m and n.

Example: $5 \mid 100$ and $5 \mid 15$. Therefore,
$5 \mid 115$,
$5 \mid 1030$,
$5 \mid -245$.

Lemma 4. For all $c \neq 0$, $a \mid b$ if and only if $ac \mid bc$.

Example: $17 \mid 34$ if and only if $-170 \mid -340$.

Division algorithm

Theorem. The Division Algorithm. Let a be an integer and d a positive integer. Then there are *unique* integers q and r, such that $0 \leq r < d$ and

$$a = dq + r.$$

$d =$ divisor

$a =$ dividend

$q =$ quotient

$r =$ remainder

How can we prove that q and r are unique?

Division algorithm

Assume that they are not unique, then there exist at least two distinct pairs of q and r:

$$a = dq_1 + r_1, \text{ and } a = dq_2 + r_2$$

Subtract one from another:

$$0 = d(q_1 - q_2) + (r_1 - r_2)$$

Since $0 \leq r1, r2 < d$, the difference of the remainders is

$$-d < r_1 - r_2 < d,$$

Therefore the same is true for the other term:

$$-d < d(q_1 - q_2) < d$$

It can happen only if $q_1 - q_2 = 0$, which also implies that $r_1 - r_2 = 0$. By contradiction, q and r are unique.

Prime numbers

Def. A number $p > 1$ with no positive divisors other than 1 and itself is called a *prime*.

Every other number greater than 1 is called *composite*.

The number 1 is considered neither prime nor composite.

The first few primes are 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37 ...

Theorem. Let p be a prime. If

$$p \mid a_1 a_2 \cdot \ldots \cdot a_n,$$

then p divides some a_i.

Example: If you know that $19 \mid 403 \cdot 629$, then you know that either $19 \mid 403$ or $19 \mid 629$, though you might not know which.

Greatest common divisor

Def. The *greatest common divisor* of two positive integers a_0 and a_1, denoted $\gcd(a_0, a_1)$ is the largest integer g that divides both a_0 and a_1.

Example. Find $\gcd(12, 18)$.

First, list all positive x such that $x \mid 12$:

$$1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 12.$$

Then, list all positive x such that $x \mid 18$:

$$1, 2, 3, 6, 9, 18.$$

The largest in the both lists, 6, is the $\gcd(12, 18)$.

Greatest common divisor

For two positive integers a and b:

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a)$$

Greatest common divisor

For two positive integers a and b:

If $a \mid b$, what is the $\gcd(a, b)$?

Greatest common divisor

For two positive integers a and b:

$$\text{If } a \mid b, \text{ what is the } \gcd(a, b)?$$

a is one of the divisors of b. But a is the greaterst possible divisor of itself.

Thus a is the greatest common divisor.

So, if $b = ka$,

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a, ka) = a.$$

Greatest common divisor

Let's find a way to compute $\gcd(a_0, a_1)$ without simply trying every single positive integer from 1 to $\min(a_0, a_1)$.

For simplicity, without loss of generality we can say that $a_0 \geq a_1$.

Then, by the division algorithm,

$$a_0 = a_1 q + r. \qquad (\text{and } q \geq 1)$$

Lemma. If $a_0 = a_1 q + r$ then $\gcd(a_0, a_1) = \gcd(a_1, r)$.

Greatest common divisor

Lemma. If $a_0 = a_1 q + r$ then $\gcd(a_0, a_1) = \gcd(a_1, r)$.

Proof. We are going to prove that the common divisors of a_0 and a_1 are the same as the common divisors of a_1 and r.

In other words, we have to prove that
d divides a_0 and a_1 *if and only if* d divides a_1 and r.

Greatest common divisor

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($\Rightarrow$) Let d be a divisor of a_0 and a_1, that is $d \mid a_0$ and $d \mid a_1$.

By Lemma 3, $d \mid (a_0 - a_1 q)$, and since $r = a_0 - a_1 q$, we get $d \mid r$.
Thus d divides a_1 and r.

Greatest common divisor

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By Lemma 3, $d \mid (a_0 - a_1 q)$, and since $r = a_0 - a_1 q$, we get $d \mid r$. Thus d divides a_1 and r.

($\Leftarrow$) Let d be a divisor of a_1 and r, that is $d \mid a_1$ and $d \mid r$.

Again, by Lemma 3, $d \mid (a_1 q + r)$, so $d \mid a_0$. So, d divides a_0 and a_1.

Threofore, $\gcd(a_0, a_1) = \gcd(a_1, r)$. □

Greatest common divisor

Compute $\gcd(a_0, a_1)$.

1) We find the quotient and the remainder:

$$a_0 = q_1 a_1 + r_1$$

Let $a_2 = r_1$: $\gcd(a_0, a_1) = \gcd(a_1, r_1) = \gcd(a_1, a_2)$.

2) Find the new quotient and the remainder:

$$a_1 = q_2 a_2 + r_2$$

Let $a_3 = r_2$: $\gcd(a_1, a_2) = \gcd(a_2, r_2) = \gcd(a_2, a_3)$.

3) ...
continue the process, computing a_4, a_5, a_6, ... until what?

Greatest common divisor

Compute $\gcd(300, 18)$.

$a_0 = 300$,
$a_1 = 18$. $\gcd(300, 18)$?

$$300 = 16 \cdot 18 + 12$$

$a_2 = 12$. $\gcd(18, 12)$?

$$18 = 1 \cdot 12 + 6$$

$a_3 = 6$. $\gcd(12, 6)$?

$$12 = 2 \cdot 6 + 0$$

$6 \mid 12$, and $6 \mid 6$. And there is simply no larger divisors of 6, so $\gcd(300, 18) = \gcd(12, 6) = 6$.

Greatest common divisor

So, to compute $\gcd(a_0, a_1)$, you compute a sequence remainders a_k, until some a_k divides a_{k-1}, and therefore

$$\gcd(a_0, a_1) = \gcd(a_{k-1}, a_k) = a_k,$$

where a_k is *the last non-zero remainder*.

This procedure for computing GCD is called *Euclid's algorithm*.

Greatest common divisor

If we use the following notation for the remainder of a division:

$$c = a \textbf{ rem } b$$

Euclid's algorithm works as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\gcd(300, 18) &= \gcd(18, \underbrace{300 \textbf{ rem } 18}_{=12}) \\
&= \gcd(12, \underbrace{18 \textbf{ rem } 12}_{6}) \\
&= \gcd(12, 6) \\
&= 6
\end{aligned}$$

In C and C++, there is a similar operator % (though it behaves differently when a or b are negative)

Greatest common divisor

Compute

$$\gcd(1110, 777)$$

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

Worst case number of steps.

In how many steps k the Euclidean algorithm computes $\gcd(a_0, a_1)$?

In the best case, if $a_1 \mid a_0$, we immediately find that the GCD is equal to a_1, and it takes just a single step.

What is the worst possible input?
That is, what are the smallest integers $a_0 \geq a_1$, such that $\gcd(a_0, a_1)$ is computed in k steps.

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

What are the smallest integers $a_0 \geq a_1$, such that $\gcd(a_0, a_1)$ is computed in k steps.

We are going to construct a sequence of a_i such that a_k is the $\gcd(a_0)$, and a_0 is the smallest possible.

Observe that

$$a_k = \gcd(a_0, a_1) \geq 1$$

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

We want to construct all the previous terms of the sequence

$$a_{k-2},\ a_{k-3},\ \ldots,\ a_0$$

in this backward order.

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

Observe that the sequence of a_i is strictly decreasing ($a_i > a_{i+1}$).

The recurrence looks like this

$$a_i = q_{i+1}a_{i+1} + a_{i+2},$$

and the quotient $q_{i+1} \geq 1$.

Thus

$$a_i \geq a_{i+1} + a_{i+2}$$

If, eventually, we are want to end up with the smallest possible a_0, then on each step, when constructing a_i from a_{i+1} and a_{i+2}, we should choose the smallest possible number:

$$a_i = a_{i+1} + a_{i+2}$$

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

Let's summarize our analysis.

We are constructing a decreasing sequence of positive integers

$$a_0 > a_1 > a_2 > \ldots > a_{k-1} > a_k$$

Such that

$$\begin{aligned} a_k &\geq 1 \\ a_{k-1} &\geq 2 \\ a_i &= a_{i+1} + a_{i+2} \end{aligned}$$

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

$$a_0 > a_1 > a_2 > \ldots > a_{k-1} > a_k$$

$$a_k \geq 1$$
$$a_{k-1} \geq 2$$
$$a_i = a_{i+1} + a_{i+2}$$

The Fibonacci numbers satisfy all the requirements

F_1	F_2	F_3	F_4	$\ldots$	F_{k+2-i}	$\ldots$	F_{k+2}
1	1	2	3				
	a_k	a_{k-1}	a_{k-2}	$\ldots$	a_i	$\ldots$	a_0

$$F_1 = 1; \quad F_2 = 1; \quad F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$$

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

Lets see, how bad they are:

Compute $\gcd(21, 34)$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_0 &= 34, \\
a_1 &= 21, \quad 34 = 1 \cdot 21 + 13 \\
a_2 &= 13, \quad 21 = 1 \cdot 13 + 8 \\
a_3 &= 8, \quad 13 = 1 \cdot 8 + 5 \\
a_4 &= 5, \quad 8 = 1 \cdot 5 + 3 \\
a_5 &= 3, \quad 5 = 1 \cdot 3 + 2 \\
a_6 &= 2, \quad 3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \\
a_7 &= 1, \quad 2 = 2 \cdot 1
\end{aligned}
$$

$\gcd(21, 34) = a_7 = 1$. And it took $k = 7$ steps.

The sequence of a_i is the Fibonacci sequence, $a_i = F_{k+2-i}$.

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

The algorithm is still very fast, even on the worst input:

Look at the Fibonacci sequence:

1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, 377, 610, 987, 1597, 2584, 4181, 6765, 10946, 17711, 28657, 46368, 75025, 121393, 196418, 317811, 514229, 832040, 1346269, 2178309, 3524578, 5702887, 9227465, ...

In the limit $\frac{F_n}{F_{n-1}}$ approaches $\phi \approx 1.618$.

Efficiency of Euclid's algorithm

It can be shown that $F_n \geq c\phi^{n-1}$ for some constant c, so $a_0 \geq c\phi^{n-1}$.

Given a_0, the number of steps for the Euclidean algorithm is

$$k \leq \log_\phi \frac{a_0}{c} - 1$$

So the complexity (number of steps) is *logarithmic* in a_0.

Complexity, when the input is a number
Usually, when the input is a number, the length of the input is measured as the length of the binary string that represents the input. A number a_0 can be represented by $\lceil \log_2 a_0 \rceil$ bits.

$$k \leq \log_\phi \frac{a_0}{c} - 1 = \frac{1}{\log_2 \phi} \log_2 a_0 - \log_\phi c - 1 = C_1 \log_2 a_0 + C_2$$

Therefore, the time complexity of the Euclidean algorithm is *linear in the number of bits* required to represent a_0.

Code v1.0

The sender wants to send a message "victory" to the receiver.

Beforehand. The sender and receiver agree on a secret key, which is a large *prime number*

$$p = 22801763489$$

Code v1.0

Encryption.

(1) The sender transforms a string of characters into a number:

“v	i	c	t	o	r	y”
22	09	03	20	15	18	25

(2) The resulting number is padded with a few more digits to make a *prime number*

$$m = 2209032015182513$$

(3) After that, the sender encrypts the message m by computing

$$\begin{aligned} m' &= m \cdot p \\ &= 2209032015182513 \cdot 22801763489 \\ &= 50369825549820718594667857 \end{aligned}$$

Code v1.0

Decryption. The receiver decrypts m by computing

$$\frac{m'}{p} = \frac{m \cdot p}{p} = m$$

$$m = \frac{m'}{p} = \frac{503698255498207185946678 57}{22801763489} = 2209032015182513$$

Then the number is transformed into the string "victory".

Code v1.0

The code raises a couple immediate questions.

1. **How can the sender and receiver ensure that m and p are prime numbers?** The general problem of determining whether a large number is prime or composite has been studied for centuries, and reasonably good primality tests were known in the past. In 2002, Manindra Agrawal, Neeraj Kayal, and Nitin Saxena announced a primality test that is guaranteed to work on a number n in about $(\log n)^{12}$ steps.

2. **Is the code secure?** If the adeversary receives the encrypted message m', how easily he can recove the original message m? This is the problem of factoring $m' = m \cdot p$.

   Despite immense efforts, no really efficient factoring algorithm has ever been found. It appears to be a fundamentally difficult problem, though a breakthrough is not impossible.

Code v1.0

Now, consider a situation, when your adversary received two encrypted messages

$$m' = m \cdot p \qquad \text{and} \qquad n' = n \cdot p$$