Elementary Number Theory: Divisibility Theory in the Integers

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1 Division Algorithm

- Division Algorithm: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, b > 0. Then there exist unique integers r, q such that a = qb + r, $0 \le r < b$. Proof: Let $S = \{a xb : x \in \mathbb{Z}, a xb \ge 0\}$. Since $b \ge 1$, $|a|b \ge |a|$, and so $a (-|a|)b = a + |a|b \ge a + |a| \ge 0$. Thus S is nonempty. By the well ordering principle, S must have a least element r. By the definition of S, there exists $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that r = a qb, $r \ge 0$. Suppose $r \ge b$. Then $a (q+1)b = (a-qb) b = r b \ge 0$. Thus $a (q+1)b \in S$, but since r is the least element of S, this is a contradiction. So r < b. Now, suppose that a = qb + r = q'b + r', where $0 \le r < b$, $0 \le r' < b$. Then r' r = b(q q') and so |r r'| = b|q q'|. On adding the inequalities $-b < -r \le 0$ and $0 \le r' < b$, we get -b < r' r < b, or |r' r| < b. Thus b|q q'| < b, implying that $0 \le |q q'| < 1$. So q q' = 0 and thus r r' = 0. Thus q and r are unique.
- Corollary: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b \neq 0$. Then there exist unique integers r, q such that a = qb + r, $0 \leq r < |b|$. Proof: Let b < 0. Then |b| > 0, and by the division algorithm there exist unique integers q' and r such that a = q'|b| + r. Since |b| = -b, let q = -q' to get a = qb + r, with $0 \leq r < |b|$.

2 Greatest Common Divisor

- Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \neq 0$. b is said to be divisible by a, denoted $a \mid b$ if there exists $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that b = ac.
- Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then:
 - 1. $a \mid 0, 1 \mid a, \text{ and } a \mid a. \text{ Proof: } 0 = 0 \times a, 1 = 1 \times a \text{ and } a = 1 \times a.$
 - 2. $a \mid 1$ if and only if $a = \pm 1$. Proof: Suppose $a \mid 1$. Then 1 = na for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Let |a| > 1. Since $n \neq 0$, |na| > 1, which is a contradiction. So |a| = 1, and thus $a = \pm 1$. Conversely, suppose a = +1. Then $1 = 1 \times 1 = (-1) \times (-1)$.
 - 3. If $a \mid b$ and $c \mid d$, then $ac \mid bd$. Proof: There exist integers m, n such that b = am and d = cn. Then ac(mn) = bd.
 - 4. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$. Proof: There exist integers m, n such that b = am and c = bn. Then c = a(mn).
 - 5. $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$ if and only if $a = \pm b$. Proof: Suppose $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$. There exist integers m, n such that a = bm and b = an. Thus a = amn, implying mn = 1. So $m = n = \pm 1$ and thus $a = \pm b$. The converse is obvious. \blacksquare
 - 6. If $a \mid b$ and $b \neq 0$, then $|a| \leq |b|$. Proof: There exists an integer c such that b = ac. Since $b \neq 0$, $c \neq 0$. So |b| = |a||c|. Since $c \neq 0$, $|c| \geq 1$ and thus $|b| = |a||c| \geq |a|$.
 - 7. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (bx + cy)$ for any $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Proof: There exist integers r, s such that b = ar and c = as. Given integers x, y, bx + cy = arx + asy = a(rx + zy). So $a \mid (bx + xy)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|a| + |b| \neq 0$. The greatest common divisor of a and b, denoted gcd(a, b), is the positive integer d satisfying: $d \mid a$, $d \mid b$, and if $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, then $c \leq d$.

- Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|a| + |b| \neq 0$, there exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$. Proof: Consider the set $S = \{au + bv : u, v \in \mathbb{Z}, au + bv > 0\}$. S is nonempty as $|a| = (au + b \times 0) \in S$, where $u = \pm 1$. By the well ordering principle, S must contain a least element d. By the definition of S, there exist integers x, y such that d = ax + by. Using the division algorithm, we obtain $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that a = qd + r, $0 \leq r < d$. Then r = a qd = a q(ax + by) = a(1 qx) + b(-qy). If r > 0, then $r \in S$, but this contradicts d being the least element of S. Thus r = 0, and $d \mid a$. By the same reasoning, $d \mid b$. Let c be a positive common divisor of a and b. Then $c \mid (ax + by) = d$, and so $c = |c| \leq |d| = d$. Thus $d = \gcd(a, b)$. ■
- If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then the set $T = \{ax + by : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ is the set of all multiples of $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Proof: Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, $d \mid (ax + by)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Conversely, there exist $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $d = ax_0 + by_0$. Given $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $nd = anx_0 + bny_0 \in \mathbb{T}$. Thus T is the set of all multiples of d.
- Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|a| + |b| \neq 0$. a and b are said to be relatively prime or coprime if gcd(a, b) = 1.
- a and b are relatively prime if and only if there exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that 1 = ax + by. Proof: If gcd(a, b) = 1, then there exist x, y such that 1 = ax + by. Conversely, suppose 1 = ax + by and d = gcd(a, b). Then $d \mid (ax + by) = 1$ and so d = 1.
- If gcd(a,b) = d, then gcd(a/d,b/d) = 1. Proof: There exist x,y such that d = ax + by. Then $1 = \frac{a}{d}x + \frac{b}{d}y$. Thus gcd(a/d,b/d) = 1.
- If $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$, with gcd(a,b) = 1, then $ab \mid c$. Proof: There exist r, s such that c = ar = bs. There exist x, y such that 1 = ax + by. Then, $c = c \times 1 = c(ax + by) = acx + bcy \implies c = a(bs)x + b(ar)y = ab(sx + ry)$. So $ab \mid c$.
- Euclid's Lemma: If $a \mid bc$, with gcd(a,b) = 1, then $a \mid c$. Proof: There exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that 1 = ax + by. Then $c = c \times 1 = c(ax + by) = acx + bcy$. Since $a \mid ac$ and $a \mid bc$, $a \mid (acx + bcy) = c$.
- Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $|a| + |b| \neq 0$, $d \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then, $d = \gcd(a, b)$ if and only if d is a common divisor of a and b and for all $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that c is a common divisor, $c \mid d$. Proof: Suppose $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then there exist $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that d = ax + by. Since $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, $c \mid (ax + by) = d$. Conversely, suppose d is an integer satisfying the conditions. Since $c \mid d$, $c \leq d$ and so $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

3 Euclidean Algorithm

- Euclidean Algorithm: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Since $\gcd(|a|, |b|) = \gcd(a, b)$, we can assume that $a \geq b > 0$. Applying the division algorithm, we get $a = q_1b + r_1$, $0 \leq r_1 < b$. If $r_1 = 0$, then $b \mid a$ and $\gcd(a, b) = b$. Otherwise, apply the division algorithm again on b and r_1 to get $b = q_2r_1 + r_2$, $0 \leq r_2 < r_1$. If $r_2 = 0$, we are done. Otherwise divide r_1 by r_2 and so on. The last nonzero remainder obtained in this way is $\gcd(a, b)$.
- If a = qb + r, then gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r). Proof: If d = gcd(a, b), then $d \mid (a qb)$ or $d \mid r$. Thus d is a common divisor of b and r. Suppose c is also a common divisor of b and r. Then $c \mid qb + r = a$, so $c \mid a$ and thus $c \leq d$. Therefore, gcd(b, r) = d. This provides the justification for the Euclidean Algorithm.
- If k > 0, then gcd(ka, kb) = k gcd(a, b). Proof: Multiplying the equations for the euclidean algorithm on a and b by k, we see that the last nonzero remainder is $k \cdot gcd(a, b)$. So gcd(ka, kb) = k gcd(a, b).
- Corollary: If $k \neq 0$, then gcd(ka, kb) = |k| gcd(a, b). Proof: Let k < 0. Then -k = |k| > 0, and so gcd(ka, kb) = gcd(-ka, -kb) = gcd(a|k|, b|k|) = |k| gcd(a, b).
- The least common multiple of $a, b \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$, denoted by lcm(a, b), is the positive integer m satisfying the following: $a \mid m, b \mid m$, and if $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$, with c > 0, then $m \leq c$.
- Let $a,b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then, $\gcd(a,b) \cdot \operatorname{lcm}(a,b) = ab$. Proof: Let $d = \gcd(a,b)$ with a = dr, b = ds for some integers r and s. Let $m = \frac{ab}{d}$. Then m = as = rb, and thus m is a common multiple of a and b. Let c be any positive integer that is a common multiple of a and b, say c = au = bv. There exist integers x, y such that d = ax + by. Then, $\frac{c}{m} = \frac{cd}{ab} = \frac{c(ax + by)}{ab} = \frac{c}{b}x + \frac{c}{a}y = vx + uy$. So $m \le c$, and thus $m = \operatorname{lcm}(a, b)$. Therefore $\operatorname{lcm}(a, b) \gcd(a, b) = ab$.

• Corollary: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Then, lcm(a, b) = ab if and only if gcd(a, b) = 1.

4 The Diophantine Equation ax + by = c

- Any equation in one or more unknowns that has to be solved in the integers is called a Diophantine equation.
- The simplest type is the linear diophantine equation ax + by = c, where a, b, c are integers and a and b are not both zero.
- The linear diophantine equation ax + by = c has a solution if and only if $d \mid c$, where $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Proof: There exist integers r, s such that a = dr and b = ds. Suppose a solution exists, i.e., $ax_0 + by_0 = c$ for some x_0, y_0 , then $c = ax_0 + by_0 = drx_0 + dsy_0 = d(rx_0 + sy_0)$. Conversely, suppose c = dt. There exist x_0, y_0 such that $d = ax_0 + by_0$. Then $c = dt = a(tx_0) + b(ty_0)$.
- If x_0, y_0 is any particular solution for ax + by = c, then all other solutions are given by $x = x_0 + (\frac{b}{d})t$, $y = y_0 (\frac{a}{d})t$, where t is an arbitrary integer and $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Proof: Let x', y' be any other solution of the equation. Then, $ax_0 + by_0 = c = ax' + by' \implies a(x' x_0) = b(y_0 y')$. There exist relatively prime integers r, s such that a = dr and b = ds. Thus $r(x' x_0) = s(y_0 y')$. By Euclid's lemma, $y_0 y' = rt$ for some integer t. Thus $x' x_0 = st$. From this we obtain $x' = x_0 + st = x_0 + (\frac{b}{d})t$ and $y' = y_0 rt = y_0 (\frac{a}{d})t$. It can also be shown that these values satisfy the diophantine equation for any integer t: $ax' + by' = a[x_0 + (\frac{b}{d})t] + b[y_0 (\frac{a}{d})t] = ax_0 + by_0 + (\frac{ab}{d} \frac{ab}{d})t = c + 0 = c$. Thus there an infinite number of solutions.