

Greatest Common Divisor (gcd)

Greatest Common Divisor (gcd).

The **Greatest Common Divisor** (gcd) is also known as the highest common factor (hcf).

Example:

A fraction is in its lowest form $\frac{a}{b}$, when $gcd(a, b) = 1$, i.e. the greatest common divisor is 1.

Example:

$gcd(16, 24) = 8$ as 8 is the greatest common divisor (highest common factor) of 16 and 24.

gcd definition

gcd(a,b)

The positive integer, g , is the gcd (greatest common divisor) of integers a and b

i.e. $g = \gcd(a, b)$ iff

- 1) $g|a$ and $g|b$ i.e. g is a common divisor of a and b
- 2) If $h|a$ and $h|b$ then $h \leq g$ i.e. g is the greatest common divisor.

Relatively Prime

If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ then a and b are **relatively prime**.

i.e. a and b have no non-trivial (i.e. $\neq 1$ or $\neq -1$) common factors.

e.g. 4 and 9 are relatively prime.

Finding $\gcd(a,b)$

For $a \geq 0 \wedge b > 0$, we have from Euclid's Remainder Theorem (some unique q and r):

$$a = b * q + r \wedge 0 \leq r < b$$

Let $g = \gcd(a, b)$, then $g|a$ and $g|b$ and so $g|(a - b * q)$

tf: since $r = a - b * q$ then $g|r$.

Show $g = \gcd(b, r)$

Pf:

1) $g|b$ and also $g|r$

2) Let $h|b$ and $h|r$, Show $h \leq g$.

Pf: Assume $h > g$, then since $h|b$ and $h|r$

$h|(b * q + r)$ **but** $a = b * q + r$ **tf.** $h|a$

but then $h|a$ and $h|b$ and so h is a divisor of a and b greater than g , contradicting that g is the greatest divisor of a and b .

Finding $\gcd(a,b)$ Cont'd

Example: Find $\gcd(72, 15)$

From Euclid's Remainder Thm: $a = b * q + r \wedge 0 \leq r < b$

$$72 = 15 * 4 + 12$$

$$\therefore \gcd(72, 15) = \gcd(15, 12)$$

$$15 = 12 * 1 + 3$$

$$\therefore \gcd(15, 12) = \gcd(12, 3)$$

$$12 = 3 * 4 + 0$$

$$\therefore \gcd(12, 3) = 3 \text{ as } 3|12 \text{ and } 3|3$$

$$\text{From above, } \gcd(72, 15) = \gcd(15, 12) = \gcd(12, 3) = 3$$

GCD Properties

Properties of gcd

1. $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$.
2. $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a)$
3. $\gcd(k * b, b) = b$
4. $\gcd(a, 0) = a$ as $a|a$ and $a|0$.

Example: Find $\gcd(72, 15)$ more briefly,

$$\gcd(72, 15)$$

$$= \gcd(15, 72 \bmod 15)$$

$$= \gcd(15, 12)$$

$$= \gcd(12, 3)$$

$$= 3, \text{ as } 3|12.$$

$$a*x+b*y=1$$

Question:

Given a 5 litre jar and a 13 litre jar can we get exactly 1 litre in one of them by filling and refilling the jars from a bigger container.

Can we find integers x and y such that

$$5 * x + 13 * y = 1$$

Solution:

Let $x = -5$ and $y = 2$ to get

$$5 * (-5) + 13 * 2 = 1$$

5L	0	5	0	5	0	3	3	5	0	5	0	5	0
13L	13	8	8	3	3	0	13	11	11	6	6	1	1

In effect, the 13L jar is filled twice and the 5L jar is emptied 5 times.

Question:

Can we find integers x and y such that

$$6 * x + 14 * y = 1$$

Solution:

No Solution!

$$a*x+b*y=\gcd(a,b)$$

In general, we can find integers x and y such that:

$$a * x + b * y = \gcd(a, b)$$

In particular, if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, i.e. a and b are **relatively prime**, then we can find we can find integers x and y such that:

$$a * x + b * y = 1$$

An equation such as $a * x + b * y = g$ is a linear *Diophantine Equation*. If g is a multiple of the $\gcd(a, b)$ then there is a solution.

Multiplicative Inverse. Solve $a *_n x = 1$

(Recall: $a *_n x = (a * x) \bmod n$)

If we can find x and y such that $a * x - n * y = 1$ then

$$a *_n x = 1$$

as from Euclid's Remainder Theorem:

$$a * x - n * y = (a * x) \bmod n, \text{ for some } y.$$

If $a *_n x = 1$ then

x is the inverse of a .

If a and n are relatively prime (i.e. $\gcd(a, n) = 1$) then a has an inverse in \mathbb{Z}_n .

In Summary

An element $a \in \mathbb{Z}_n$ has an inverse, x ,

iff $a * x - n * y = 1$, for some y .

iff $\gcd(a, n) = 1$.

Inverse Example

Let the number, a , be a remainder on division by n , i.e.

$a \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}$. Assuming $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, the number, a , has a multiplicative inverse, x , $\text{mod } n$, iff $a * x \equiv_n 1$ i.e.

iff $a * x - n * y = 1$, for some y . The equation, $a * x - n * y = 1$, has a solution iff $\gcd(a, n) = 1$.

With $a = 3$ and $n = 10$, we have $\gcd(3, 10) = 1$ and so 3 and 10 are relatively prime. Find $x < 10$ and y such that $3 * x - 10 * y = 1$.

Checking the multiples, $3, 3 * 2, 3 * 3, 3 * 4$ up to $3 * 9$, i.e. check $3 * k$ for $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, 9\}$ we find that $3 * 7 - 10 * 2 = 1$ i.e.

$3 * 7 \equiv_{10} 1$ i.e.

7 is the multiplicative inverse of 3, $\text{mod } 10$.

Proof $a*x+b*y=\text{gcd}(a,b)$

Theorem

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ show there exists $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a * x + b * y = \text{gcd}(a, b)$$

Proof (by induction on b)

Base case: $b = 0$.

Then $a * 1 + b * 0 = \text{gcd}(a, b)$ as $\text{gcd}(a, 0) = a$.

Induction step: (Assume true for $k < b$, show true for b)

Since $a \bmod b < b$ then there exists x' and y' such

$$b * x' + (a \bmod b) * y' = \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b)$$

$$\text{but } \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b) = \text{gcd}(a, b)$$

$$\text{Also, } a \bmod b = a - b * (a \text{ div } b)$$

\therefore

Cont'd

$$\begin{aligned} &gcd(a, b) \\ &= gcd(b, a \bmod b) \\ &\{ \text{by induction} \} \\ &= b * x' + (a \bmod b) * y' \\ &= b * x' + (a - b * (a \div b)) * y' \\ &= b * x' + a * y' - b * (a \div b) * y' \\ &= a * y' + b * (x' - (a \div b) * y') \\ &= a * x + b * y \text{ where } x = y' \text{ and } y = (x' - (a \div b) * y') \end{aligned}$$

Alternate definition gcd

Since there are integers x, y such that

$$\gcd(a, b) = a * x + b * y$$

then if $h|a$ and $h|b$ then $h|(a * x + b * y)$

tf. $h|\gcd(a, b)$.

Alternative definition of $\gcd(a, b)$

Definition

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

- 1) $g|a$ and $g|b$ i.e. g is a common divisor of a and b
- 2) If $h|a$ and $h|b$ then $h|g$ i.e. any common divisor divides g .

Construct Solution to $a*x+b*y=gcd(a,b)$

Example

Find integers x, y such that

$$1147 * x + 851 * y = gcd(1147, 851)$$

In principle, for a solution, we could check all multiples $1147, 1147 * 2, 1147 * 3$ up to $1147 * 850$ until we find $1147 * x$ that leaves a remainder, $gcd(1147, 851)$ on division by 851 i.e find x such that $1147 * x \equiv_{851} gcd(1147, 851)$.

An easier solution can be found based on calculating the $gcd(1147, 851)$. To construct a solution of $a * x + b * y = gcd(a, b)$, find $gcd(a, b)$ via Euclid's Algorithm; then 'reverse' the calculation to find x and y .

Solution $1147 * x + 851 * y = \gcd(1147, 851)$

Using Euclid's Remainder Theorem:

$$1147 = 851 * 1 + 296$$

$$\text{tf. } \gcd(1147, 851) = \gcd(851, 296)$$

$$851 = 296 * 2 + 259$$

$$\text{tf. } \gcd(1147, 851) = \gcd(296, 259)$$

$$296 = 259 * 1 + 37$$

$$\text{tf. } \gcd(1147, 851) = \gcd(259, 37)$$

$$\{ 259 = 7 * 37 \}$$

tf.

$$\gcd(1147, 851) = 37$$

Find x,y

Then 'reversing' the calculation (Euclid's Algorithm):

$$\begin{aligned} 37 &= 296 * 1 - 259 * 1 \\ &= 296 * 1 - (851 - 296 * 2) \\ &= 851 * (-1) + 296 * 3 \\ &= 851 * (-1) + (1147 - 851 * 1) * 3 \\ &= 1147 * 3 + 851 * (-1) + 851 * (-3) \\ &= 1147 * 3 + 851 * (-4) \end{aligned}$$

\therefore

$$37 = 1147 * 3 + 851 * (-4)$$

Solution:

$$37 = 1147 * x + 851 * y$$

$$\text{where } x = 3 \text{ and } y = -4$$

Check by calculation:

$$1147 * 3 - 851 * 4 = 3441 - 3404 = 37$$

Exercise

Exercise:

Find x, y such that

$$1785 * x + 374 * y = \gcd(1785, 374)$$

General Solution to $a * x + b * y = \gcd(a, b)$

If x_0 and y_0 is a solution to $a * x + b * y = \gcd(a, b)$ so also is:

$x_0 + m$ and $y_0 + n$ where $a * m + b * n = 0$.

$$a * (x_0 + m) + b * (y_0 + n) = \gcd(a, b)$$

$$a * x_0 + a * m + b * y_0 + b * n = \gcd(a, b)$$

$$(a * m + b * n) + a * x_0 + b * y_0 = \gcd(a, b)$$

$$a * x_0 + b * y_0 = \gcd(a, b).$$

Example:

A solution for $a * m + b * n = 0$ is $m = b$ and $n = -a$.

$\therefore x_0 + b$ and $y_0 - a$ is another solution to

$a * x + b * y = \gcd(a, b)$ when x_0 and y_0 is a solution.

$$\text{e.g. } a * (x_0 + b) + b * (y_0 - a) = \gcd(a, b)$$

$$\equiv a * x_0 + a * b + b * y_0 - b * a = \gcd(a, b)$$

$$\equiv a * x_0 + b * y_0 = \gcd(a, b)$$

General Solution (Cont'd)

If $a * m + b * n = 0$ then $\frac{a}{d} * m + \frac{b}{d} * n = 0$ where $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

In particular, if $m = \frac{b}{d}$ and $n = -\frac{a}{d}$ then $\frac{a}{d} * m + \frac{b}{d} * n = 0$.

\therefore the general solution $x_0 + m$ and $y_0 + n$ can be expressed as

$x_0 + \frac{b}{d} * k$ and $y_0 - \frac{a}{d} * k$ where $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

For the equation $37 = 1147 * x + 851 * y$ with $x_0 = 3$ and $y_0 = -4$

we have the general solutions: $3 + 23 * k$ and $-4 - 31 * k$ as

$$\frac{851}{37} = 23 \text{ and } \frac{1147}{37} = 31.$$

Example:

For equation $37 = 1147 * x + 851 * y$ we have solution $x_0 = 3$ and

$y_0 = -4$.

Let $k = -1$ in $3 + 23 * k$ and $-4 - 31 * k$ then check solution

$x = -20$ and $y = 27$:

$$1147 * (-20) + 851 * 27$$

$$= -22940 + 22977$$

$$= 37$$

Relatively Prime

If $d = \gcd(a, b)$ then $\frac{a}{d}$ and $\frac{b}{d}$ are relatively prime.

$a * x_0 + b * y_0 = \gcd(a, b)$ then

$\frac{a}{d} * x_0 + \frac{b}{d} * y_0 = 1$ where $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Example:

Since $37 = 1147 * x + 851 * y$

then $\frac{1147}{37}$ and $\frac{851}{37}$ i.e. 31 and 23 are relatively prime.

Since

$\gcd(a, b) = a * x + b * y$ for some x and y then

$\gcd(a, b)$ can be expressed as a linear combination of a and b .

Euclid's Lemma

Theorem

Euclid's Lemma

*If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ (i.e. a and b are relatively prime) and also $a|(b * c)$ then $a|c$*

Proof.

Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ there exists x and y such that $a * x + b * y = 1$

$\therefore c * a * x + c * b * y = c$.

From assumption that $a|(b * c)$ we have $a|(c * b * y)$.

Also $a|(c * a * x)$,

$\therefore a|c$.



Corollaries to Euclid's Lemma

Corollary 1

If p is a prime and $p|a^n$ then $p|a$.

Corollary 2

If $a * b \equiv_n a * c$ and a and n are relatively prime, then $b \equiv_n c$.

Corollary 3

Let p be a prime. If $p|(b * c)$ then either $p|b$ or $p|c$.

Since p is prime and assume $p \nmid b$, then $\gcd(p, b) = 1$.

From Euclid's Lemma, $p|c$.

Fundamental Thm of Arithmetic (Factorisation Thm)

Theorem

Every Natural number (>1) can be expressed as a product of primes.

Proof.

By Induction:

Base Case: $n = 2$, is True as 2 is prime. We can regard the single prime number, p , as a product of primes.

Induction Step: Assume true for $k < n$, show true for n .

If n is prime then we can regard n as a product of just one prime.

If n is composite, then $n = n_1 * n_2$ where $n_1 < n$ and $n_2 < n$.

By Induction, n_1 and n_2 can be expressed as products of primes and since $n = n_1 * n_2$, so also is n a product of primes. □

Fundamental Thm of Arithmetic (Factorisation Thm)

From Euclid's Lemma: If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ (i.e. a and b are relatively prime) and also $a|(b * c)$ then $a|c$.

Recall: From Corollary 3. Euclid's Lemma above:

Let p be a prime. If $p|(b * c)$ then either $p|b$ or $p|c$.

Since p is prime and assume $p \nmid b$, then $\gcd(p, b) = 1$.

From Euclid's Lemma, $p|c$.

Corollary 4. Euclid's Lemma: If p and p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n are primes and $p|p_1 * p_2 * \dots * p_n$ then $p = p_k$ some $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Proof:

From Euclid's Lemma: $p|p_1$ or $p|p_2 * p_3 * \dots * p_n$. If $p|p_1$ then $p = p_1$. If $p \nmid p_1$ then $p|p_2 * \dots * p_n$. Again by Euclid's Lemma: $p = p_2$ or $p|p_3 * \dots * p_n$. Hence, by continued application of Euclid's Lemma, $p = p_k$ for some $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Fundamental Thm of Arithmetic (Factorisation Thm)

Theorem

Unique Factorisation Thm

The representation of a natural number (>1) as a product of primes is unique apart from the ordering of the primes. We can fix an ordering by the size of the primes.

Proof.

Assume $n = p_1 * p_2 * \dots * p_j$ and also $n = q_1 * q_2 * \dots * q_k$ where the p_1, p_2, \dots, p_j and q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k are prime. So as to fix an order, assume $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \dots \leq p_j$ and $q_1 \leq q_2 \leq \dots \leq q_k$. We show $j = k$ and $p_i = q_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq j$.

By Induction on n .

$n = 2$. True, as 2 is a unique product of one prime. □

Fundamental Thm of Arithmetic (Factorisation Thm)

Proof.

Induction step: $n > 2$.

If n is prime, then True as a prime on its own is regarded as a unique product of primes.

If n is composite then $1 < j$ and $1 < k$. By Corollary 4. Euclid's Lemma, $p_1 = q_r$ some r and $q_1 = p_s$ some s . Since

$p_1 \leq p_s = q_1 \leq q_r = p_1$ i.e. $p_1 \leq q_1 \leq p_1$ then $p_1 = q_1$. Then

$1 < \frac{n}{p_1} < n$, and also $\frac{n}{p_1} = p_2 * \dots * p_j = q_2 * \dots * q_k$. By

induction, $j = k$ and $p_i = q_i$, $2 \leq i \leq j$. Hence $j = k$ and $p_i = q_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq j$. □

Fundamental Thm of Arithmetic (Factorisation Thm)

Theorem

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic (Factorisation Thm)

A positive integer, n , can be factorised uniquely into powers of primes.

$$n = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} p_i^{\alpha_i}$$

i.e.

$$n = (*i \mid 0 < i : p_i^{\alpha_i})$$

where p_i is the i^{th} prime and $p_1 < p_2 < \dots$

Prime representaton (Decomposition) of n

We can order the primes as:

$primes = 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, \dots$ i.e.

for primes, p_k : $p_1 = 2$, $p_2 = 3$ etc.

We can can decompose a number, n , into prime factors.

For example, $n = 12250$.

$$\begin{aligned} 12250 &= 2^1 * 3^0 * 5^3 * 7^2 * 11^0 \dots \\ &= 2^1 * 3^0 * 5^3 * 7^2 * (*i | 4 < i : p_i^0) \end{aligned}$$

Exercise: Find the prime factors of 10101.

Least Common Multiple, lcm

In the current context, read $x|y$ as ' y is a multiple of x '

Definition

$l = \text{lcm}(a, b)$ iff ($l > 0$)

1. $a|l$ and $b|l$ i.e. l is a common multiple of a and b
2. If $a|m$ and $b|m$ then $l \leq m$. i.e. l is the least common multiple

Alternative Definition:

Definition

$l = \text{lcm}(a, b)$ iff ($l > 0$)

1. $a|l$ and $b|l$ i.e. l is a common multiple of a and b
2. If $a|m$ and $b|m$ then $l|m$. i.e. any common multiple of a and b is a multiple of l .

Calculating $\text{lcm}(a,b)$

Definition

$$\text{lcm}(x, y) = \frac{x * y}{\text{gcd}(x, y)}$$

Example

Find $\text{lcm}(54,12)$.

$$\text{gcd}(54, 12) = \text{gcd}(12, 6) = 6$$

tf.

$$\text{lcm}(54, 12) = \frac{54 * 12}{6} = 54 * \frac{12}{6} = 54 * 2 = 108$$

Finding gcd and lcm using Prime representation

Finding gcd and lcm using Prime representation

Let $a = (*i \mid 0 < i : p_i^{\alpha_i})$ and $b = (*i \mid 0 < i : p_i^{\beta_i})$ then

$$\gcd(a, b) = (*i \mid 0 < i : p_i^{\min(\alpha_i, \beta_i)})$$

and

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = (*i \mid 0 < i : p_i^{\max(\alpha_i, \beta_i)})$$

Example

Find $\gcd(54,12)$ and $\text{lcm}(54,12)$

$$54 = 2^1 * 3^3 \text{ and } 12 = 2^2 * 3^1$$

$$\begin{aligned}\gcd(54, 12) &= 2^{\min(1,2)} * 3^{\min(3,1)} \\ &= 2^1 * 3^1 \\ &= 6\end{aligned}$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned}\text{lcm}(54, 12) &= 2^{\max(1,2)} * 3^{\max(3,1)} \\ &= 2^2 * 3^3 \\ &= 4 * 27 \\ &= 108\end{aligned}$$

Calculating gcd and lcm using the Factorisation Theorem is not efficient.

Consider $gcd(1147, 851)$.

$$851 = 23 * 37 = 23^1 * 31^0 * 37^1$$

$$1147 = 31 * 37 = 23^0 * 31^1 * 37^1$$

$$\begin{aligned} gcd(1147, 851) &= 23^{\min(0,1)} * 31^{\min(1,0)} * 37^{\min(1,1)} \\ &= 37 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} lcm(1147, 851) &= 23^{\max(0,1)} * 31^{\max(1,0)} * 37^{\max(1,1)} \\ &= 26381 \end{aligned}$$

Properties of gcd and lcm

So that the properties are more readable, an infix version of gcd and lcm can be used i.e. use " $a \text{ gcd } b$ " instead of " $gcd(a, b)$ " and use " $a \text{ lcm } b$ " instead " $lcm(a, b)$ ",

gcd	Associativity	$a \text{ gcd } (b \text{ gcd } c) = (a \text{ gcd } b) \text{ gcd } c$
	Commutativity	$a \text{ gcd } b = b \text{ gcd } a$
	Idempotent	$a \text{ gcd } a = a$
lcm	Distributivity	$a \text{ gcd } (b \text{ lcm } c) = (a \text{ gcd } b) \text{ lcm } (a \text{ gcd } c)$
	Associativity	$a \text{ lcm } (b \text{ lcm } c) = (a \text{ lcm } b) \text{ lcm } c$
	Commutativity	$a \text{ lcm } b = b \text{ lcm } a$
	Idempotent	$a \text{ lcm } a = a$
	Distributivity	$a \text{ lcm } (b \text{ gcd } c) = (a \text{ lcm } b) \text{ gcd } (a \text{ lcm } c)$

Divisors of 6

Consider the set, D , of divisors of 6 i.e. $D = \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$.

The operations gcd and lcm are closed on this set in that if

$a, b \in D$ then $(a \gcd b) \in D$ and $(a \operatorname{lcm} b) \in D$.

The *identity* element for gcd is 6 as for $a \in D$,

$(a \gcd 6) = (6 \gcd a) = a$.

The *identity* element for lcm is 1 as for $a \in D$,

$(a \operatorname{lcm} 1) = (1 \operatorname{lcm} a) = a$.

Also, for $a \in D$, $a \gcd 1 = 1$ and $a \operatorname{lcm} 6 = 6$.

Correspondence: D and $\text{Pow}(\{0,1\})$

The Powerset of $\{0,1\}$ is the subsets of $\{0,1\}$, i.e.

$\text{Pow}(\{0,1\}) = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0,1\}\}$ where \emptyset is the empty set.

\cup	\emptyset	$\{0\}$	$\{1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	lcm	1	2	3	6
\emptyset	\emptyset	$\{0\}$	$\{1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	1	1	2	3	6
$\{0\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{0\}$	$\{0,1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	2	2	2	6	6
$\{1\}$	$\{1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	$\{1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	3	3	6	3	6
$\{0,1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	$\{0,1\}$	6	6	6	6	6

$$D \sim \text{Pow}(\{0, 1\})$$

Matching:

x	\emptyset	$\{0\}$	$\{1\}$	$\{0, 1\}$
$m(x)$	1	2	3	6

\cap	\emptyset	$\{0\}$	$\{1\}$	$\{0, 1\}$	gcd	1	2	3	6
\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset	\emptyset	1	1	1	1	1
$\{0\}$	\emptyset	$\{0\}$	\emptyset	$\{0\}$	2	1	2	1	2
$\{1\}$	\emptyset	\emptyset	$\{1\}$	$\{1\}$	3	1	1	3	3
$\{0, 1\}$	\emptyset	$\{0\}$	$\{1\}$	$\{0, 1\}$	6	1	2	3	6

From tables:

$$m(x \cup y) = m(x) \text{ lcm } m(y) \text{ e.g.}$$

$$m(\{0, 1\}) = m(\{0\} \cup \{1\}) = m(\{0\}) \text{ lcm } m(\{1\}) = 2 \text{ lcm } 3 = 6$$

$$m(x \cap y) = m(x) \text{ gcd } m(y)$$

$$\text{e.g. } m(\emptyset) = m(\{0\} \cap \{1\}) = m(\{0\}) \text{ gcd } m(\{1\}) = 2 \text{ gcd } 3 = 1$$

Boolean Algebra

A Boolean Algebra consists of a set of elements, B , with 2 special elements, 0 and 1 together with the binary operations \cap , \cup and the unary operator, $'$, satisfying the following axioms:

$0' = 1$	$1' = 0$
$p \cap 0 = 0$	$p \cup 1 = 1$
$p \cap 1 = p$	$p \cup 0 = p$
$p \cap p' = 0$	$p \cup p' = 1$
$(p')' = p$	
$p \cap p = p$	$p \cup p = p$

Boolean Axioms Cont'd

$(p \cap q)' = p' \cup q'$	$(p \cup q)' = p' \cap q'$
$p \cap q = q \cap p$	$p \cup q = q \cup p$
$p \cap (q \cap r) = (p \cap q) \cap r$	$p \cup (q \cup r) = (p \cup q) \cup r$
$p \cap (q \cup r) = (p \cap q) \cup (p \cap r)$	$p \cup (q \cap r) = (p \cup q) \cap (p \cup r)$