

## Lecture 10 Number Theory

- Division and Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)
  - Euclid's algorithm for GCD
  - Bezout's Identity
- Modular Arithmetic
  - Cryptography
  - RSA public key cryptography

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## 1 Basics

### 1.1 Quotient-Remainder Theorem

For  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n = qd + r$ , where  $0 \leq r \leq d$  and  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $r \in \mathbb{N}$  are unique

Ex:  $n = 27$ ,  $d = 6 \rightarrow q = 4$ ,  $r = 3$

$n = -27$ ,  $d = 6 \rightarrow q = -5$ ,  $r = 3$  \*NOTE\* remainder must be positive

Define  $d$  is a divisor of  $n$ , written  $d|n$ , if the remainder in the QRT is zero.

That is,  $d|n \iff n = qd$  for some  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$

### 1.2 Primes

$P = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, \dots\} = \{p | p \geq 2 \text{ and the only divisors of } p \text{ are } 1 \text{ and } p\}$

## Composite Numbers

All the number  $\geq 2$  with more than 2 prime divisors.

## Facts

- 1)  $d|0$
- 2)  $d|n$  and  $d|m \rightarrow d|(n + m)$
- 3)  $d|n$  and  $d'|m \rightarrow dd'|nm$
- 4)  $d|n$  then  $xd|xn$  for  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$
- 5)  $d|m$  and  $m|n \rightarrow d|n$
- 6)  $d|(m + n)$  and  $d|m \rightarrow d|n$

*Proof.*  $d|m + n \Rightarrow m + n = q_1 d$   
 $d|m \Rightarrow m = q_2 d$   
 $n = (q_1 - q_2)d$   
 $\Rightarrow d|n$

□

## 2 Common Divisors

We say  $d$  is a common divisor of  $m$  and  $n$  if  $d|m$  and  $d|n$   
 $m$  and  $n$  are coprime or relatively prime if they have no common divisors other than 1

### GCD

We say  $d = \gcd(m, n)$  if any  $l$  that is a common divisor of  $m$  and  $n$  satisfies  $l \leq \gcd(m, n)$

Ex: divisors of 30 = {1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 10, 15, 30}

divisors of 42 = {1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 14, 21, 42}

common divisors = {1, 2, 3, 6}

$\gcd(30, 42) = 6$

Q: Efficient Algg for finding  $\gcd(m, n)$ ?

One that doesn't require factorization

Fact:  $\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))$  \*NOTE\*  $\text{rem}(n, m) = r$  after using QRT to write  $n = qm + r$

Check:  $\gcd(30, 42) = \gcd(30, 12) = \gcd(12, 6) = \gcd(6, 0) = 6$

Ex:  $\gcd(42, 108) = \gcd(42, 24) = \gcd(24, 18) = \gcd(18, 6) = \gcd(6, 0) = 6$

Claim  $\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))$

*Proof.* Idea:

(1) show  $\gcd(m, n)|m$  and  $\gcd(m, n)|\text{rem}(n, m)$  which gives  $\gcd(m, n) \leq \gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))$

(2) then show  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))|m$  and  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))|n$  which gives  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m)) \leq \gcd(m, n)$

To show (1): Clearly  $\gcd(m, n)|m$ . Now consider  $\text{rem}(n, m)$  comes from  $n = qm + r \Rightarrow \text{rem}(n, m) = n - qm$  and since  $\gcd(m, n)|n$  and  $\gcd(m, n)|(-qm)$ , we have  $\gcd(m, n)|n - qm$  so  $\gcd(m, n)|\text{rem}(n, m)$ . We see that  $\gcd(m, n) \leq \gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))$

To show (2): Trivially  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))|m$ , and since  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))|m$  and  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))|\text{rem}(n, m)$ , we have  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))|qm + \text{rem}(n, m) = n$  Therefore  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))$  is a common divisor of  $m$  and  $n$  and satisfies  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m)) \leq \gcd(m, n)$

We conclude from (1) and (2) that  $\gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m)) = \gcd(m, n)$

□

### Facts about GCD

1)  $\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(m, \text{rem}(n, m))$

2) Every common divisor  $l$  of  $m$  and  $n$  divides  $\gcd(m, n)$

3) For every  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\gcd(km, kn) = k * \gcd(m, n)$

4) If  $\gcd(l, m) = 1$  and  $\gcd(l, n) = 1$  then  $\gcd(l, mn) = 1$

5) If  $l|mn$  and  $\gcd(l, m) = 1$ , then  $l|n$

### Bezout's Identity

$\gcd(m, n)$  is the smallest positive integer linear combination of  $m$  and  $n$ :  $\gcd(m, n) = mx + ny$  where  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$

Ex: 3 and 5 satisfy  $\gcd(3, 5) = 1$

$1 = 2 * 3 - 5$

42 and 108 satisfy  $\gcd(42, 108) = 6$

$6 = 2 * 108 - 5 * 42$

*Proof.* Let  $l$  be the smallest positive integer combination of  $m$  and  $n$

First show  $l \leq \gcd(m, n)$

We must establish that  $l|m$  and  $l|n$ . Note that we can write  $m = ql + r$  where  $0 \leq r < l$ .  $r = m - ql = m - q(mx + ny) = m(1 - q) - n(qy)$ . This implies  $r = 0$  because otherwise  $0 < r < l$  is a positive integer combination of  $m$  and  $n$  that is smaller than  $l$ , which is a contradiction.

The same argument for  $n$  shows that  $l|n$ . We see that  $l \leq \gcd(m, n)$

Second show  $\gcd(m, n) \leq l$

Recall  $l = mx + ny \Rightarrow \gcd(m, n) | l$

Therefore  $\gcd(m, n) = l$  □

Proof of GCD fact 5)

*Proof.*  $\gcd(l, m) = 1 \Rightarrow 1 = lx + my \Rightarrow n = l(nx) + mny$ . Note  $l|l$  and  $l|mn$ , so  $l|l(nx) + mny$  so  $l|n$  □

Proof of GCD fact 2)

*Proof.*  $\gcd(m, n) = mx + ny$  and  $l|m$  and  $l|n$  so  $l|\gcd(m, n)$  □

Proof of GCD fact 4)

*Proof.*  $1 = la + mb$

$1 = lc + nd$

$\Rightarrow (la + mb)(lc + nd) = l^2ac + lmcb + lnad + mnbd = l(lac + mbc + nad) + mn(bd) = 1$  □

### 3 Modular Arithmetic

Motivation: Cryptography

Alice wants to send Bob message  $M$ , but Charlie can intercept all transmissions

Alice and Bob share a large prime number  $k$

$M_* = Mk$

Fine for one round because to recover  $M$ , Charlie has to factorize  $M_*$  (practically impossible)

Problem: if Alice sends two messages:  $M_*^1 = M_1k$  and  $M_*^2 = M_2k$ , Charlie can compute  $\gcd(M_1k, M_2k) = k\gcd(M_1, M_2)$  if  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are co-prime

Weaknesses:

- Requires private-key
- Only really works once

One solution: RSA (Rivest, Shamir, Adleman) public-key cryptography scheme

- uses modular arithmetic with primes

Modular arithmetic

$a \equiv b \pmod d$  if  $d|(a - b)$

$15 \equiv 1 \pmod 2$  because  $15 - 1 = 14$  is divisible by 2

We can show that many of the usual arithmetic properties are preserved under modularity.

$a + b \equiv c + e \pmod d$  if  $a \equiv b \pmod d$  and  $b \equiv e \pmod d$

$(c * a) \pmod d = (c \pmod d) * (a \pmod d) \pmod d$

Properties of modular arithmetic

$a \equiv b \pmod d$

$r \equiv s \pmod d$

$$(i) \quad ar \equiv bs \pmod{d}$$

$$(ii) \quad a + r \equiv b + s \pmod{d}$$

$$(iii) \quad a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{d}$$

Property 1 Proof:

$$\text{Proof. } a \equiv b \pmod{d} \Rightarrow a = b + dq$$

$$r \equiv s \pmod{d} \Rightarrow r = s + dm$$

$$\Rightarrow ar = (b + dq)(s + dm) = bs + d(qs + bm + dqm)$$

$$\Rightarrow ar \equiv bs \pmod{d}$$

□

$$15 \not\equiv 13 \pmod{12}$$

$$15 * 6 \pmod{12} = 90 \pmod{12} = 6$$

$$13 * 6 \pmod{12} = 78 \pmod{12} = 6$$

$$15 * 6 \pmod{12} \equiv 13 * 6 \pmod{12}, \text{ but } 15 \not\equiv 13 \pmod{12}.$$

Conclusion: there is no multiplicative inverse of 6 mod 12

#### Modular Division

If  $ac = bc \pmod{d}$ , and  $\gcd(c, d) = 1$ , then  $a \equiv b \pmod{d}$

Proof in book.

Fact: If  $d$  is a prime number, then  $\gcd(c, d) = 1$

$$ac = bc \pmod{d} \iff a \equiv b \pmod{d}$$

and equivalently, there exists  $z$  such that  $z * c \equiv 1 \pmod{d}$