Divisibility

- We say that a nonzero b divides a if a = mb for some m, where a, b, and m are integers
- b divides a if there is no remainder on division
- The notation b | a is commonly used to mean b divides a
- If b | a we say that b is a divisor of a

The positive divisors of 24 are 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, and 24 13 | 182; - 5 | 30; 17 | 289; - 3 | 33; 17 | 0

Properties of Divisibility

- If $a \mid 1$, then $a = \pm 1$
- If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$, then $a = \pm b$
- Any $b \neq 0$ divides 0
- If a | b and b | c, then a | c

If b | g and b | h, then b | (mg + nh) for arbitrary integers m and n

Properties of Divisibility

- To see this last point, note that:
 - If b | g, then g is of the form g = b * g₁ for some integer g₁
 - If b | h, then h is of the form h = b * h₁ for some integer h₁
- So:
 - $mg + nh = mbg_1 + nbh_1 = b * (mg_1 + nh_1)$ and therefore b divides mg + nh

```
b = 7; g = 14; h = 63; m = 3; n = 2

7 \mid 14 and 7 \mid 63.

To show 7 (3 * 14 + 2 * 63),

we have (3 * 14 + 2 * 63) = 7(3 * 2 + 2 * 9),

and it is obvious that 7 \mid (7(3 * 2 + 2 * 9)).
```

• If $b \mid g$ and $b \mid h$, then $b \mid (mg + nh)$ for arbitrary integers m and n.

To see this last point, note that

- If $b \mid g$, then g is of the form $g = b \times g_1$ for some integer g_1 .
- If $b \mid h$, then h is of the form $h = b \times h_1$ for some integer h_1 .

So

$$mg + nh = mbg_1 + nbh_1 = b \times (mg_1 + nh_1)$$

and therefore b divides mg + nh.

$$b = 7; g = 14; h = 63; m = 3; n = 2$$

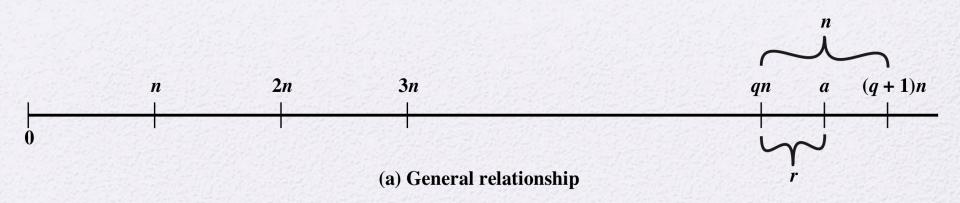
7|14 and 7|63.
To show 7|(3 × 14 + 2 × 63),

we have
$$(3 \times 14 + 2 \times 63) = 7(3 \times 2 + 2 \times 9)$$
, and it is obvious that $7 | (7(3 \times 2 + 2 \times 9))$.

Division Algorithm

 Given any positive integer n and any nonnegative integer a, if we divide a by n we get an integer quotient q and an integer remainder r that obey the following relationship:

$$a = qn + r$$
 $o \le r < n; q = [a/n]$



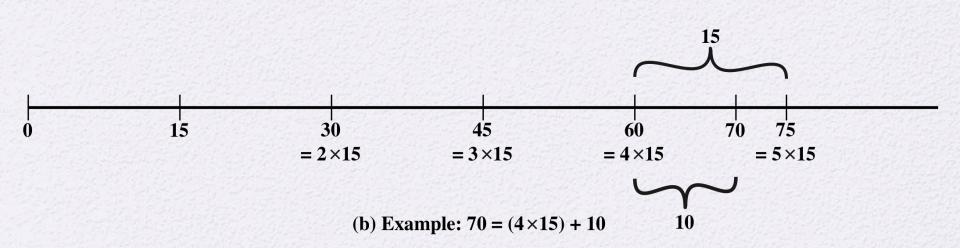


Figure 4.1 The Relationship a = qn + r; $0 \le r < n$

Euclidean Algorithm



- One of the basic techniques of number theory
- Procedure for determining the greatest common divisor of two positive integers
- Two integers are relatively prime if their only common positive integer factor is 1

Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

- The greatest common divisor of a and b is the largest integer that divides both a and b
- We can use the notation gcd(a,b) to mean the greatest
 common divisor of a and b
- We also define gcd(0,0) = 0
- Positive integer c is said to be the gcd of a and b if:
 - c is a divisor of a and b
 - Any divisor of a and b is a divisor of c
- An equivalent definition is:

gcd(a,b) = max[k, such that k | a and k | b]

GCD

- Because we require that the greatest common divisor be positive, gcd(a,b) = gcd(a,-b) = gcd(-a,b) = gcd(-a,-b)
- In general, gcd(a,b) = gcd(|a|, |b|)

$$gcd(60, 24) = gcd(60, -24) = 12$$

- Also, because all nonzero integers divide o, we have gcd(a,o) = | a |
- We stated that two integers a and b are relatively prime if their only common positive integer factor is 1; this is equivalent to saying that a and b are relatively prime if gcd(a,b) = 1

8 and 15 are relatively prime because the positive divisors of 8 are 1, 2, 4, and 8, and the positive divisors of 15 are 1, 3, 5, and 15. So 1 is the only integer on both lists.

Algorithm

```
GCD(a,b):

A=a, B=b

while B>0

R = A mod B

A = B, B = R

return A
```

GCD(1970,1066)

```
1970 = 1 \times 1066 + 904
                              gcd(1066, 904)
                               gcd(904, 162)
1066 = 1 \times 904 + 162
                               gcd(162, 94)
904 = 5 \times 162 + 94
162 = 1 \times 94 + 68
                               gcd(94, 68)
                              gcd(68, 26)
94 = 1 \times 68 + 26
68 = 2 \times 26 + 16
                              gcd(26, 16)
                              gcd(16, 10)
26 = 1 \times 16 + 10
16 = 1 \times 10 + 6
                               gcd(10, 6)
10 = 1 \times 6 + 4
                               gcd(6, 4)
                               gcd(4, 2)
6 = 1 \times 4 + 2
4 = 2 \times 2 + 0
                               gcd(2, 0)
```

Table 4.1 Euclidean Algorithm Example

Dividend	Divisor	Quotient	Remainder
a = 1160718174	b = 316258250	$q_1 = 3$	$r_1 = 211943424$
b = 316258250	$r_1 = 211943424$	$q_2 = 1$	$r_2 = 104314826$
$r_1 = 211943424$	$r_2 = 104314826$	$q_3 = 2$	$r_3 = 3313772$
$r_2 = 104314826$	$r_3 = 3313772$	$q_4 = 31$	$r_4 = 1587894$
$r_3 = 3313772$	$r_4 = 1587894$	$q_5 = 2$	$r_5 = 137984$
$r_4 = 1587894$	$r_5 = 137984$	$q_6 = 11$	$r_6 = 70070$
$r_5 = 137984$	$r_6 = 70070$	$q_7 = 1$	$r_7 = 67914$
$r_6 = 70070$	r ₇ = 67914	$q_8 = 1$	$r_8 = 2156$
$r_7 = 67914$	$r_8 = 2156$	$q_9 = 31$	$r_9 = 1078$
$r_8 = 2156$	$r_9 = 1078$	$q_{10} = 2$	$r_{10} = 0$

(This table can be found on page 91 in the textbook)

Modular Arithmetic

- The modulus
 - If a is an integer and n is a positive integer, we define a mod n to be the remainder when a is divided by n; the integer n is called the modulus
 - thus, for any integer a:

$$a = qn + r$$
 $0 \le r < n; q = [a/n]$
 $a = [a/n] * n + (a mod n)$

11 mod 7 = 4; - 11 mod
$$7 = 3$$

Negative number modulo k = k minus positive number modulo k. To find (-n)%k = k-(n%k)

Modular Arithmetic

- Congruent modulo n
 - Two integers a and b are said to be congruent modulo n if (a mod n) = (b mod n)
 - This is written as $a = b \pmod{n}^2$
 - Note that if $a = o \pmod{n}$, then $n \mid a$

 $73 = 4 \pmod{23}$; $21 = -9 \pmod{10}$

Properties of Congruences

Congruences have the following properties:

1.
$$a = b \pmod{n}$$
 if $n(a - b)$

2.
$$a = b \pmod{n}$$
 implies $b = a \pmod{n}$

3.
$$a = b \pmod{n}$$
 and $b = c \pmod{n}$ imply $a = c \pmod{n}$

- To demonstrate the first point, if n (a b), then (a b) = kn for some k
 - So we can write a = b + kn
 - Therefore, $(a \mod n) = (remainder when <math>b + kn$ is divided by $n) = (remainder when b is divided by <math>n) = (b \mod n)$

```
23 = 8 (mod 5) because 23 - 8 = 15 = 5 * 3

- 11 = 5 (mod 8) because - 11 - 5 = -16 = 8 * (-2)

81 = 0 (mod 27) because 81 - 0 = 81 = 27 * 3
```

Modular Arithmetic

Modular arithmetic exhibits the following properties:

1.
$$[(a \mod n) + (b \mod n)] \mod n = (a + b) \mod n$$

- 2. $[(a \mod n) (b \mod n)] \mod n = (a b) \mod n$
- 3. $[(a \mod n) * (b \mod n)] \mod n = (a * b) \mod n$
- We demonstrate the first property:
 - Define $(a \mod n) = r_a$ and $(b \mod n) = r_b$. Then we can write $a = r_a + jn$ for some integer j and $b = r_b + kn$ for some integer k
 - Then:

Remaining Properties:

Examples of the three remaining properties:

```
11 mod 8 = 3; 15 mod 8 = 7

[(11 mod 8) + (15 mod 8)] mod 8 = 10 mod 8 = 2

(11 + 15) mod 8 = 26 mod 8 = 2

[(11 mod 8) - (15 mod 8)] mod 8 = -4 mod 8 = 4

(11 - 15) mod 8 = -4 mod 8 = 4

[(11 mod 8) * (15 mod 8)] mod 8 = 21 mod 8 = 5

(11 * 15) mod 8 = 165 mod 8 = 5
```

To find 11⁷ mod 13, we can proceed as follows:

$$11^2 = 121 \equiv 4 \pmod{13}$$

$$11^4 = (11^2)^2 \equiv 4^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{13}$$

$$11^7 \equiv 11 \times 4 \times 3 \equiv 132 \equiv 2 \pmod{13}$$

Table 4.2(a) Arithmetic Modulo 8

+	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	0
2	2	3	4	5	6	7	0	1
3	3	4	5	6	7	0	1	2
4	4	5	6	7	0	1	2	3
5	5	6	7	0	1	2	3	4
6	6	7	0	1	2	3	4	5
7	7	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 4.2(b) Multiplication Modulo 8

×	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	0	2	4	6	0	2	4	6
3	0	3	6	1	4	7	2	5
4	0	4	0	4	0	4	0	4
5	0	5	2	7	4	1	6	3
6	0	6	4	2	0	6	4	2
7	0	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

Table 4.2(c)

Additive and Multiplicative Inverses Modulo 8

W	-w	w^{-1}
0	0	
1	7	1
2	6	_
3	5	3
4	4	<u>—</u>
5	3	5
6	2	_
7	1	7

Define the set Z_n as the set of nonnegative integers less than n:

$$Z_n = \{0, 1, \dots, (n-1)\}\$$

This is referred to as the **set of residues**, or **residue classes** (mod n). To be more precise, each integer in \mathbb{Z}_n represents a residue class. We can label the residue classes (mod n) as $[0], [1], [2], \ldots, [n-1]$, where

$$[r] = \{a: a \text{ is an integer}, a \equiv r \pmod{n}\}$$

The residue classes (mod 4) are
$$[0] = \{\dots, -16, -12, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, 12, 16, \dots\}$$

$$[1] = \{\dots, -15, -11, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, \dots\}$$

$$[2] = \{\dots, -14, -10, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, \dots\}$$

$$[3] = \{\dots, -13, -9, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, \dots\}$$

Table 4.3

Properties of Modular Arithmetic for Integers in Z_n

Property	Expression
Commutative Laws	$(w + x) \bmod n = (x + w) \bmod n$ $(w \times x) \bmod n = (x \times w) \bmod n$
Associative Laws	$[(w+x)+y] \bmod n = [w+(x+y)] \bmod n$ $[(w\times x)\times y] \bmod n = [w\times (x\times y)] \bmod n$
Distributive Law	$[w \times (x+y)] \mod n = [(w \times x) + (w \times y)] \mod n$
Identities	$(0+w) \bmod n = w \bmod n$ $(1 \times w) \bmod n = w \bmod n$
Additive Inverse (-w)	For each $w \in \mathbb{Z}_n$, there exists a z such that $w + z \equiv 0 \mod n$

if
$$(a + b) \equiv (a + c) \pmod{n}$$
 then $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ (4.4)

$$(5 + 23) \equiv (5 + 7) \pmod{8}; 23 \equiv 7 \pmod{8}$$

if
$$(a \times b) \equiv (a \times c) \pmod{n}$$
 then $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ if a is relatively prime to n (4.5)

Recall that two integers are **relatively prime** if their only common positive integer factor is 1. Similar to the case of Equation (4.4), we can say that Equation (4.5) is

$$((a^{-1})ab) \equiv ((a^{-1})ac)(\bmod n)$$
$$b \equiv c(\bmod n)$$

To see this, consider an example in which the condition of Equation (4.5) does not hold. The integers 6 and 8 are not relatively prime, since they have the common factor 2. We have the following:

$$6 \times 3 = 18 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$$

$$6 \times 7 = 42 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$$

Yet $3 \not\equiv 7 \pmod{8}$.

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

 $gcd(55, 22) = gcd(22, 55 \mod 22) = gcd(22, 11) = 11$

Extended Euclidean

- The extended Euclidean algorithm not only calculate the greatest common divisor d but also two additional integers x and y that satisfy the following equation.
- It is whole numbers cannot tolerate fractions

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

Extended Euclidean

```
Example 1: m = 65, n = 40
```

Step 1: The (usual) Euclidean algorithm:

$$(1) 65 = 1 \cdot 40 + 25$$

$$(2) 40 = 1 \cdot 25 + 15$$

$$(3) 25 = 1 \cdot 15 + 10$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 15 & = 1 \cdot 10 & + 5 \\
 10 & = 2 \cdot 5
 \end{array}$$

Therefore: gcd(65, 40) = 5.

Step 2: Using the method of back-substitution:

$$5 \stackrel{(4)}{=} 15 - 10$$

$$\stackrel{(3)}{=} 15 - (25 - 15) = 2 \cdot 15 - 25$$

$$\stackrel{(2)}{=} 2(40 - 25) - 25 = 2 \cdot 40 - 3 \cdot 25$$

$$\stackrel{(1)}{=} 2 \cdot 40 - 3(65 - 40) = 5 \cdot 40 - 3 \cdot 65$$

Conclusion: 65(-3) + 40(5) = 5.

Example 2: m = 1239, n = 735

Step 1: The (usual) Euclidean algorithm:

$$(1) 1239 = 1 \cdot 735 + 504$$

$$(2) 735 = 1 \cdot 504 + 231$$

$$(3) \qquad \boxed{504} = 2 \cdot 231 + 42$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (4) & 231 & = 5 \cdot 42 & + 21 \\ 42 & = 2 \cdot 21 \end{array}$$

Therefore: gcd(1239, 735) = 21.

Step 2: Using the method of back-substitution:

$$21 \stackrel{\underline{(4)}}{=} 231 - 5 \cdot 42$$

$$\stackrel{\underline{(3)}}{=} 231 - 5(504 - 2 \cdot 231) = 11 \cdot 231 - 5 \cdot 504$$

$$\stackrel{\underline{(2)}}{=} 11(735 - 504) - 5 \cdot 504 = 11 \cdot 735 - 16 \cdot 504$$

$$\stackrel{\underline{(1)}}{=} 11 \cdot 735 - 16(1239 - 735) = 27 \cdot 735 - 16 \cdot 1239$$

Conclusion: 1239(-16) + 735(27) = 21.

- Find the inverse of 15 mod 26.
- GCD(26,15) = GCD(15,11) = GCD(11,4) = GCD(4,3) = GCD(3,1)= GCD(1,0) = 1 Co-prime.
- Extended Euclidean algorithm.
- 26 = 1*26 + 0*15
- 15 = 0*26 + 1*15

- 11 = Equ 1 Equ 2 = 1 * 26 1*15
- 4 = Equ 2 Equ 3 = -1 * 26 + 2* 15
- 3 = Equ3 2 * Equ 4 = 3*26 -5*15
- 1 = Equ 4 Equ 5 = -4 *26 + 7 *15.
- Co-efficient is inverse. i.e., 7.

- Find inverse of 21 mod 26.
- GCD(26,21) = 1.
- 5

CRT

 The Chinese remainder theorem is a theorem of number theory, which states that, if one knows the remainders of the division of an integer n by several integers, then one can determine uniquely the remainder of the division of n by the product of these integers, under the condition that the divisors are pairwise coprime.

- Z = Ci mod bi = 3 mod 8, 1 mod 9, 4 mod 11
- Then Z = B1X1C1 +B2X2C2 +B3X3C3 = B1X1*3 +B2X2*1 +B3X3*4 B = product of divisors = 8*9*11 = 792 B1 = B/bi = 792/8 = 99 B2 = 88, B3 = 72 B1X1 \(\text{E}\) 1 mod b1. Z = 99.3.3 + 88(-5).1 + 72.2.4 =1027

Carmichael numbers 561

GCD(42,30) = 6

x	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
y							
-3	-216	-174	-132	-90	-48	-6	36
-2	-186	-144	-102	-60	-18	24	66
-1	-156	-114	-72	-30	12	54	96
0	-126	-84	-42	0	42	84	126
1	-96	-54	-12	30	72	114	156
2	-66	-24	18	60	102	144	186
3	-36	6	48	90	132	174	216

Table 4.4

Extended Euclidean Algorithm Example

i	r_i	q_i	x_i	Y_i
-1	1759		1	0
0	550		0	1
1	109	3	1	-3
2	5	5	-5	16
3	4	21	106	-339
4	1	1	-111	355
5	0	4		

Result: d = 1; x = -111; y = 355

Groups

- A set of elements with a binary operation denoted by that associates to each ordered pair (a,b) of elements in G an element (a b) in G, such that the following axioms are obeyed:
 - (A1) Closure:
 - If a and b belong to G, then a b is also in G
 - (A2) Associative:
 - $a \cdot (b \cdot c) = (a \cdot b) \cdot c$ for all a, b, c in G
 - (A3) Identity element:
 - There is an element e in G such that $a \cdot e = e \cdot a = a$ for all a in G
 - (A4) Inverse element:
 - For each a in G, there is an element a in G such that $a \cdot a = a \cdot a = e$
 - (A5) Commutative:
 - $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$ for all a, b in G

- Obeys CAIN:
 - Closure : a,b in S, then a.b in S
 - Associative law :(a.b).c = a.(b.c)
 - has Identity e :e.a = a.e = a
 - has Inverses a-1 :a.a-1 = e
- ☐ if commutative a.b = b.a
 - then forms an abelian group

If a group has a finite number of elements, it is referred to as a **finite group**, and the **order** of the group is equal to the number of elements in the group. Otherwise, the group is an **infinite group**.

A group is said to be **abelian** if it satisfies the following additional condition:

(A5) Commutative:
$$a \cdot b = b \cdot a$$
 for all a, b in G .

Example

- The set of integers (positive, negative, and o) under addition is an abelian group.
- The set of nonzero real numbers under multiplication is an abelian group.

Cyclic Group

- Exponentiation is defined within a group as a repeated application of the group operator, so that $a^3 = a \cdot a$
- We define $a^{\circ} = e$ as the identity element, and $a^{-n} = (a')^n$, where a' is the inverse element of a within the group
- A group G is cyclic if every element of G is a power a^k
 (k is an integer) of a fixed element
- The element a is said to generate the group G or to be a generator of G
- A cyclic group is always abelian and may be finite or infinite

Example

 $\mathbb{Z}_{N} = \{0, ..., N-1\}$ under addition modulo N

- Identity is 0
- Inverse of a is [-a mod N]
- Associativity, commutativity obvious
- Order N
- m · a = a + ··· + a mod N
 - Can be computed efficiently

- Modular Inverses uses gcd, inverse of b mod N
- Gcd(b,N) = 1.

- If p is prime, then 1, 2, 3, ..., p-1 are all invertible modulo p
- If N=pq for p, q distinct primes, then the invertible elements are the integers from 1 to N-1 that are not multiples of p or q

\mathbb{Z}_{N}^{*} = invertible elements between 1 and N-1 under multiplication modulo N

- Closure not obvious, but can be shown
- Identity is 1
- Inverse of a is [a⁻¹ mod N]
- Associativity, commutativity obvious
- a^m = a ··· a mod N

φ(N) = the number of invertible elements modulo N

$$= |\{a \in \{1, ..., N-1\} : gcd(a, N) = 1\}|$$

= The order of Z*N

- If N is prime, then $\phi(N) = N-1$
- If N=pq, p and q distinct primes, φ(N) = ?

 $\phi(21) = \phi(3) \times \phi(7) = (3-1) \times (7-1) = 2 \times 6 = 12$ where the 12 integers are $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 19, 20\}$.

$\phi(n)$
1
1
2
2
4
2
6
4
6
4

n	$\phi(n)$
11	10
12	4
13	12
14	6
15	8
16	8
17	16
18	6
19	18
20	8

n	$\phi(n)$
21	12
22	10
23	22
24	8
25	20
26	12
27	18
28	12
29	28
30	8