

# Lecture 10

# Basic Number Theory

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# **Divisibility and Modular Arithmetic**

# Division

- Definition
  - If  $a$  and  $b$  are integers with  $a \neq 0$ , then  $a$  divides  $b$  if there exists an integer  $c$  such that  $b = ac$ .
  - When  $a$  divides  $b$ , we say that  $a$  is a factor or divisor of  $b$  and that  $b$  is a multiple of  $a$ .
- Notation
  - The notation  $a | b$  denotes that  $a$  divides  $b$ .
  - If  $a | b$ , then  $\frac{b}{a}$  is an integer.
  - If  $a$  does not divide  $b$ , we write  $a \nmid b$ .

# Properties of Divisibility

- Let  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  be integers, where  $a \neq 0$ .
  - (i) If  $a | b$  and  $a | c$ , then  $a | (b + c)$ .
  - (ii) If  $a | b$ , then  $a | bc$  for all integers  $c$ .
  - (iii) If  $a | b$  and  $b | c$ , then  $a | c$ .
- If  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are integers, where  $a \neq 0$ , such that  $a | b$  and  $a | c$ , then  $a | mb + nc$  whenever  $m$  and  $n$  are integers.

# Division Algorithm

- Division
  - When an integer is divided by a positive integer, there is a quotient and a remainder.
  - This is called the **division algorithm**, but is actually a theorem.
- Division algorithm
  - If  $a$  is an integer and  $d$  a positive integer, then there are unique integers  $q$  and  $r$ , with  $0 \leq r < d$ , such that  $a = dq + r$ .
  - $d$  is called the **divisor**.
  - $a$  is called the **dividend**.
  - $q$  is called the **quotient**.
  - $r$  is called the **remainder**.

## Definitions of functions

**div** and **mod**

$$q = a \text{ div } d$$

$$r = a \text{ mod } d$$

# Division Algorithm

- Examples

- When 101 is divided by 11,
  - The quotient is  $9 = 101 \text{ div } 11$ , and
  - The remainder is  $2 = 101 \text{ mod } 11$ .
- When  $-11$  is divided by 3,
  - The quotient is  $-4 = -11 \text{ div } 3$ , and
  - The remainder is  $1 = -11 \text{ mod } 3$ .

# Congruence Relation

- Definition
  - If  $a$  and  $b$  are integers and  $m$  is a positive integer, then  $a$  is congruent to  $b$  modulo  $m$  if  $m$  divides  $a - b$ .
  - $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$
- We say that
  - $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  is a congruence, and
  - $m$  is the modulus of the congruence.
- Two integers are congruent mod  $m$  if and only if they have the same remainder when divided by  $m$ .
- If  $a$  is not congruent to  $b$  modulo  $m$ , we write  
 $a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$

# Congruence Relation

- Example 1
  - Determine whether 17 is congruent to 5 modulo 6.
  - $17 \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$  because 6 divides  $17 - 5 = 12$ .
- Example 2
  - Determine whether 24 and 14 are congruent modulo 6.
  - $24 \not\equiv 14 \pmod{6}$  since  $24 - 14 = 10$  is not divisible by 6.

# $(\text{mod } m)$ vs. $\text{mod } m$

- The different use of  $\text{mod}$ :
  - $a \equiv b \ (\text{mod } m)$ 
    - A relation on the set of integers
  - $a \ \text{mod} \ m = b$ 
    - A function
- Theorem
  - Let  $a$  and  $b$  be integers, and let  $m$  be a positive integer.
  - Then  $a \equiv b \ (\text{mod } m)$  if and only if  $a \ \text{mod} \ m = b \ \text{mod} \ m$ .

# Congruences of Sums and Products

- Theorem

- Let  $m$  be a positive integer.
- If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ , then  $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$  and  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$ .

- Proof

- Because  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ , there are integers  $s$  and  $t$  with  $b = a + sm$  and  $d = c + tm$ .
- Therefore,
  - $b + d = (a + sm) + (c + tm) = (a + c) + m(s + t)$
  - $bd = (a + sm)(c + tm) = ac + m(at + cs + stm)$
- Hence,  $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$  and  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$ .

# Algebraic Manipulation of Congruences

- Multiplying both sides of a valid congruence by an integer preserves validity.
  - If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  holds, then  $c \cdot a \equiv c \cdot b \pmod{m}$ , where  $c$  is any integer.
- Adding an integer to both sides of a valid congruence preserves validity.
  - If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  holds then  $c + a \equiv c + b \pmod{m}$ , where  $c$  is any integer.
- Dividing a congruence by an integer does not always produce a valid congruence.
  - $14 \equiv 8 \pmod{6}$ , but  $7 \not\equiv 4 \pmod{6}$ .
  - See page 33.

## mod $m$ Function of Products and Sums

- Let  $m$  be a positive integer and let  $a$  and  $b$  be integers.
  - $(a + b) \text{ mod } m = ((a \text{ mod } m) + (b \text{ mod } m)) \text{ mod } m$
  - $ab \text{ mod } m = ((a \text{ mod } m) \cdot (b \text{ mod } m)) \text{ mod } m$

# Integer Representations

# Representations of Integers

- Decimal (or base 10) notation
  - $965 = 9 \cdot 10^2 + 6 \cdot 10^1 + 5 \cdot 10^0$
- We can represent numbers using any base  $b$ , where  $b$  is a positive integer greater than 1.
- Important bases for computing and communications
  - $b = 2$  (*binary*)
  - $b = 8$  (*octal*)
  - $b = 16$  (*hexadecimal*)
- The ancient Mayans used base 20 and the ancient Babylonians used base 60.

# Base $b$ Representations

- Theorem
  - Let  $b$  be a positive integer greater than 1.
  - Then if  $n$  is a positive integer, it can be expressed
$$n = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \cdots + a_1 b + a_0$$
where  $k$  is a nonnegative integer,  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_k$  are nonnegative integers less than  $b$ , and  $a_k \neq 0$ .
  - The  $a_i, i = 0, \dots, k$  are called the base- $b$  digits of the representation.
- Base  $b$  expansion
  - The above representation of  $n$  is called the base- $b$  expansion of  $n$  and is denoted by  $(a_k a_{k-1} \cdots a_1 a_0)_b$ .
  - We usually omit the subscript 10 for base 10 expansions.

# Base $b$ Representations

- Binary expansions
  - Most computers represent integers and do arithmetic with binary (base 2) expansions of integers.
  - In these expansions, the only digits used are 0 and 1.
  - Example
    - What is the decimal expansion of the integer that has  $(101011111)_2$  as its binary expansion?
- Octal expansions
  - The octal expansion (base 8) uses the digits {0,1,2,3,4,5,6,7}.
  - Example
    - What is the decimal expansion of the number with octal expansion  $(111)_8$ ?

# Base $b$ Representations

- Hexadecimal Expansions
  - The hexadecimal expansion needs 16 digits, but our decimal system provides only 10.
  - So letters are used for the additional symbols.
  - The hexadecimal system uses the digits  $\{0, 1, \dots, 9, A, B, \dots, F\}$ .
    - The letters A through F represent the decimal numbers 10~15.
  - Example
    - What is the decimal expansion of the number with hexadecimal expansion  $(2AE0B)_{16}$ ?
    - What is the decimal expansion of the number with hexadecimal expansion  $(E5)_{16}$ ?

# Base Conversion

- Base conversion algorithm

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**Procedure** *base\_b*(*n, b*: positive integers with  $b > 1$ )

*q* := *n*

*k* := 0

**while** (*q* ≠ 0)

*a<sub>k</sub>* := *q* mod *b*

*q* := *q* div *b*

*k* := *k* + 1

**return** (*a<sub>k-1</sub>, a<sub>k-2</sub>, ..., a<sub>1</sub>, a<sub>0</sub>*)

---

- *q* represents the quotient obtained by successive divisions by *b*, starting with *q* = *n*.
- The digits in the base *b* expansion are the remainders of the division given by *q* mod *b*.

# Base Conversion

- Examples

- Find the octal expansion of  $(12345)_{10}$ .

- Successively dividing by 8 gives:

$$12345 = 8 \cdot 1543 + 1$$

$$1543 = 8 \cdot 192 + 7$$

$$192 = 8 \cdot 24 + 0$$

$$24 = 8 \cdot 3 + 0$$

$$3 = 8 \cdot 0 + 3$$

- The remainders are the digits yielding  $(30071)_8$ .

- Find the hexadecimal expansions of  $(11111010111100)_2$ .

- Group the digits into blocks of four  $(0011\ 1110\ 1011\ 1100)_2$  adding initial 0s as needed.
    - The blocks from left to right correspond to 3,E,B, and C.
    - Hence, the solution is  $(3EBC)_{16}$ .

# Binary Addition of Integers

- Algorithm

```
Procedure add( $a, b$ : positive integers)
```

```
    binary expansions of  $a := (a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_0)_2$ 
```

```
    binary expansions of  $b := (b_{n-1}, b_{n-2}, \dots, b_0)_2$ 
```

```
     $c := 0$ 
```

```
    for  $j := 1$  to  $n - 1$ 
```

```
         $d := \lfloor (a_j + b_j + c)/2 \rfloor$ 
```

```
         $s_j := a_j + b_j + c - 2d$ 
```

```
         $c := d$ 
```

```
     $s_n := c$ 
```

```
return  $(s_n, s_{n-1}, \dots, s_1, s_0)_b$ 
```

- The number of additions of bits is  $O(n)$ .

# Binary Multiplication of Integers

- Algorithm

```
Procedure multiply( $a, b$ : positive integers)
```

```
    binary expansions of  $a := (a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_0)_2$ 
```

```
    binary expansions of  $b := (b_{n-1}, b_{n-2}, \dots, b_0)_2$ 
```

```
    for  $j := 0$  to  $n - 1$ 
```

```
        if  $b_j = 1$  then  $c_j = a$  shifted  $j$  places.
```

```
        else  $c_j := 0$ 
```

```
     $p := 0$ 
```

```
    for  $j := 0$  to  $n - 1$ 
```

```
         $p := p + c_j$ 
```

```
return  $p$ 
```

- The number of additions of bits is  $O(n^2)$ .

# **Primes and Greatest Common Divisors**

# Primes

- Definition
  - A positive integer  $p$  greater than 1 is called prime if the only positive factors of  $p$  are 1 and  $p$ .
  - A positive integer that is greater than 1 and is not prime is called composite.
- Example
  - The integer 7 is prime because its only positive factors are 1 and 7, but 9 is composite because it is divisible by 3.

# The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

- Theorem
  - Every positive integer greater than 1 can be written uniquely as a prime or as the product of two or more primes where the prime factors are written in order of non-decreasing size.
- Examples
  - $100 = 2 \cdot 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 = 2^2 \cdot 5^2$
  - $641 = 641$
  - $999 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 37 = 3^3 \cdot 37$
  - $1024 = 2 \cdot 2 = 2^{10}$

## Prime Factorization

# Greatest Common Divisor

- Definition
  - Let  $a$  and  $b$  be integers, not both zero.
  - The largest integer  $d$  such that  $d \mid a$  and also  $d \mid b$  is called **the greatest common divisor** of  $a$  and  $b$ .
  - The greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  is denoted by  $\gcd(a, b)$ .
- Examples
  - What is the greatest common divisor of 24 and 36?
    - $\gcd(24, 36) = 12$
  - What is the greatest common divisor of 17 and 22?
    - $\gcd(17, 22) = 1$

# Greatest Common Divisor

- The integers  $a$  and  $b$  are **relatively prime** if their GCD is 1.
  - Example: 17 and 22
- The integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are **pairwise relatively prime** if  $\gcd(a_i, a_j) = 1$  whenever  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ .
  - Example: Determine whether the integers 10, 17 and 21 are pairwise relatively prime.
    - $\gcd(10, 17) = 1$ ,  $\gcd(10, 21) = 1$ , and  $\gcd(17, 21) = 1$ .
    - Hence 10, 17, and 21 are pairwise relatively prime.
  - Example: Determine whether the integers 10, 19, and 24 are pairwise relatively prime.
    - $\gcd(10, 24) = 2$
    - 10, 19, and 24 are not pairwise relatively prime.

## Finding GCD Using Prime Factorizations

- Suppose the prime factorizations of  $a$  and  $b$  are:

$$a = p_1^{a_1} \cdot p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}, \quad b = p_1^{b_1} \cdot p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n},$$

where each exponent is a non-negative integer. Then,

$$\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{\min(a_1, b_1)} \cdot p_2^{\min(a_2, b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\min(a_n, b_n)}.$$

- This formula is valid since the integer on the right divides both  $a$  and  $b$ . No larger integer can divide both  $a$  and  $b$ .
- Example
  - $120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$  and  $500 = 2^2 \cdot 5^5$
  - $\gcd(120, 500) = 2^{\min(3,2)} \cdot 3^{\min(1,0)} \cdot 5^{\min(1,3)} = 20$ .

# Finding GCD Using Euclidean Algorithm

- Euclidean algorithm for finding GCDs
  - An efficient method for computing the GCD of two integers.
  - Based on the idea that  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$  when  $a > b$  and  $r$  is the remainder when  $a$  is divided by  $b$ .
- An example: Find  $\gcd(91, 287)$ .
  - $287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14$
  - $91 = 14 \cdot 6 + 7$
  - $14 = 7 \cdot 2 + 0$       (Stopping condition: Found  $r = 0$ )
  - $\gcd(91, 287) = \gcd(91, 14) = \gcd(14, 7) = 7$

# Finding GCD Using Euclidean Algorithm

- Pseudo-code

```
Procedure gcd( $a, b$ : positive integers)
```

```
     $x := a$ 
```

```
     $y := b$ 
```

```
    while  $y \neq 0$ 
```

```
         $r := x \bmod y$ 
```

```
         $x := y$ 
```

```
         $y := r$ 
```

```
return  $x$ 
```

# Finding GCD Using Euclidean Algorithm

- Correctness of the algorithm

- **Lemma:**

Let  $a = bq + r$ , where  $a, b, q$ , and  $r$  are integers.

Then  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$ .

- **Proof:**

- Suppose that  $d$  divides both  $a$  and  $b$ .

Then  $d$  also divides  $a - bq = r$ .

Hence, any common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  must also be a common divisor of  $b$  and  $r$ .

- Suppose that  $d$  divides both  $b$  and  $r$ .

Then  $d$  also divides  $bq + r = a$ .

Hence, any common divisor of  $b$  and  $r$  must also be a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ .

- Therefore,  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$ .

# Least Common Multiple

- Definition
  - The least common multiple of the positive integers  $a$  and  $b$  is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both  $a$  and  $b$ .
  - It is denoted by  $\text{lcm}(a, b)$ .
- The least common multiple can also be computed from the prime factorizations.

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = p_1^{\max(a_1, b_1)} \cdot p_2^{\max(a_2, b_2)} \cdots p_n^{\max(a_n, b_n)}.$$

- This number is divided by both  $a$  and  $b$ , and no smaller number is divided by  $a$  and  $b$ .
- The GCD and the LCM of two integers are related by
$$ab = \gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b)$$

# GCD as Linear Combination

- Bézout's theorem
  - If  $a$  and  $b$  are positive integers, then there exist integers  $s$  and  $t$  such that  $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$ .
- Definition: Bézout's identity
  - If  $a$  and  $b$  are positive integers, then integers  $s$  and  $t$  such that  $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$  are called **Bézout coefficients** of  $a$  and  $b$ .
  - The equation  $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$  is called **Bézout's identity**.
- Example
  - $\gcd(6, 14) = 2 = (-2) \cdot 6 + 1 \cdot 14$

# Dividing Congruence by an Integer

- Dividing both sides of a valid congruence by an integer does not always produce a valid congruence.
- However, dividing by an integer relatively prime to the modulus does produce a valid congruence.
- Theorem
  - Let  $m$  be a positive integer and let  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  be integers.
  - If  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$  and  $\gcd(c, m) = 1$ , then  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .
  - Proof
    - $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow m \mid (ac - bc) \Leftrightarrow m \mid c(a - b)$
    - Since  $\gcd(c, m) = 1$ ,  $m \mid (a - b)$ .
    - Hence,  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

# Solving Congruence

# Linear Congruence

- Linear congruence
  - A congruence of the form  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , where  $m$  is a positive integer,  $a$  and  $b$  are integers, and  $x$  is a variable, is called a **linear congruence**.
  - The solutions to a linear congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  are all integers  $x$  that satisfy the congruence.
- Inverse
  - An integer  $\bar{a}$  such that  $\bar{a}a \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$  is said to be “**an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$** ”.
  - Example
    - 5 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7 since  $5 \cdot 3 = 15 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ .

One method of solving linear congruence makes use of an inverse  $\bar{a}$ , if it exists.  
Although we cannot divide both sides of the congruence by  $a$ ,  
we can multiply by  $\bar{a}$  to solve for  $x$ .

# Inverse of $a$ modulo $m$

- Theorem
  - If  $a$  and  $m$  are relatively prime integers and  $m > 1$ , then an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$  exists.
- Proof
  - [Bézout's Theorem] Since  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ , there are integers  $s$  and  $t$  such that  $sa + tm = 1$ .
  - Hence,  $sa + tm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ .
  - Since  $tm \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ , it follows that  $sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ .
  - Consequently,  $s$  is an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$ .

The theorem guarantees that  
an inverse of  $a$  modulo  $m$  exists  
whenever  $a$  and  $m$  are relatively prime.

# Finding Inverses

- The Euclidean algorithm and Bézout coefficients give us a systematic approach to finding inverses.
  - Example
    - Find an inverse of 3 modulo 7.
  - Solution
    - Because  $\gcd(3,7) = 1$ , an inverse of 3 modulo 7 exists.  
[by the theorem in the previous page]
    - Using the Euclidian algorithm:  $7 = 2 \cdot 3 + 1$ .
    - From this equation, we get  $-2 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 7 = 1$ , and see that -2 and 1 are Bézout coefficients of 3 and 7.
    - Hence -2 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7.
    - Also, every integer congruent to -2 modulo 7 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7 (*i.e.*, 5, -9, 12, ...).

# Finding Inverses

- The Euclidean algorithm and Bézout coefficients give us a systematic approach to finding inverses.
  - Example: Find an inverse of 101 modulo 4620.
  - Solution

$$\begin{aligned}4620 &= 45 \cdot 101 + 75 \\101 &= 1 \cdot 75 + 26 \\75 &= 2 \cdot 26 + 23 \\26 &= 1 \cdot 23 + 3 \\23 &= 7 \cdot 3 + 2 \\3 &= 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \\2 &= 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \\ \gcd(101, 4620) &= 1\end{aligned}$$

(1) Euclidean algorithm

$$\begin{aligned}1 &= 3 - 1 \cdot 2 \\1 &= 3 - 1 \cdot (23 - 7 \cdot 3) = -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot 3 \\1 &= -1 \cdot 23 + 8 \cdot (26 - 1 \cdot 23) = 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 23 \\1 &= 8 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot (75 - 2 \cdot 26) = 26 \cdot 26 - 9 \cdot 75 \\1 &= 26 \cdot (101 - 1 \cdot 75) - 9 \cdot 75 \\&= 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot 75 \\1 &= 26 \cdot 101 - 35 \cdot (4620 - 45 \cdot 101) \\&= -35 \cdot 4620 + 1601 \cdot 101\end{aligned}$$

(2) Working backwards

Bézout coefficients = -35 and 1601  $\rightarrow$  1601 is an inverse of 101 modulo 4620.

## Using Inverses to Solve Congruence

- What are the solutions of  $3x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$ ?
  - We found that  $-2$  is an inverse of  $3$  modulo  $7$  (two slides back).
  - We multiply both sides of the congruence by  $-2$  giving
$$-2 \cdot 3x \equiv -2 \cdot 4 \pmod{7}$$
  - Because  $-6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$  and  $-8 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$ , it follows that if  $x$  is a solution, then  $x \equiv -8 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$ .
  - The solutions are the integers  $x$  such that  $x \equiv 6 \pmod{7}$ , namely,  $6, 13, 20, \dots$  and  $-1, -8, -15, \dots$

