MATH2081: Math for Computing Lecturer: Dr. Nguyen Hieu Thao Email: thao.nguyenhieu@rmit.edu.vn



Lecture Notes 7: Number Theory

(2024A, Week 8, Monday, April 22, 10:30-12:00)¹

Divisors and prime numbers

- (a) Let n and d be integers, $d \neq 0$. We say that d divides n if there exists an integer q satisfying n = dq. We call q the **quotient** and d a **divisor** or **factor** of n. If d divides n, we write $d \mid n$. If d does not divide n, we write $d \nmid n$.
- (b) An integer greater than 1 whose only positive divisors are itself and 1 is a **prime**.
- (c) An integer greater than 1 that is not prime is a **composite**.
- (d) Let m and n be integers with not both zero. A **common divisor** of m and n is an integer that divides both m and n. The **greatest common divisor** of m and n is denoted by gcd(m, n).
- (e) Two integers m and n are **relatively prime** if gcd(m, n) = 1.
- (f) Let m and n be positive integers. A **common multiple** of m and n is an integer that is divisible by both m and n. The **least common multiple** of m and n, denoted by lcm(m, n), is the smallest *positive* common multiple of m and n.

Theorems

- (a) Let m, n and d be integers. If $d \mid m$ and $d \mid n$, then $d \mid (m+n)$ and $d \mid (m-n)$.
- (b) The number of primes is infinite.
- (c) A positive integer n greater than 1 is composite if and only if n has a divisor d satisfying $2 \le d \le \sqrt{n}$.
- (d) **Fundamental theorem of arithmetic.** Any integer greater than 1 can be written as a product of primes. Moreover, if the primes are written in nondecreasing order, the factorization is unique. In symbols, if

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_i$$
 and $n = p'_1 p'_2 \cdots p'_j$,

where p_k and p'_k are primes and

$$p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \cdots \leq p_i$$
 and $p'_1 \leq p'_2 \leq \cdots \leq p'_i$,

then i = j and

$$p_k = p'_k, \quad \forall k = 1, 2, \dots, i.$$

¹Most of the content of this document is taken from the book [1].

(e) Let m and n be integers, m > 1, n > 1, with prime factorizations

$$m = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_k^{a_k}$$
 and $n = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_k^{b_k}$.

If the prime p_i is not a factor of m, we let $a_i = 0$. Similarly, if the prime p_i is not a factor of n, we let $b_i = 0$. Then

$$\gcd(m,n) = p_1^{\min(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\min(a_2,b_2)} \cdots p_k^{\min(a_k,b_k)},$$

and

$$\text{lcm}(m,n) = p_1^{\max(a_1,b_1)} p_2^{\max(a_2,b_2)} \cdots p_k^{\max(a_k,b_k)}.$$

(f) For any positive integers m and n,

$$gcd(m, n) \cdot lcm(m, n) = mn.$$

(g) If a is a nonnegative integer, b is a positive integer, and $r = a \mod b$, then

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

(h) If a and b are nonnegative integers, not both zero, there exist integers s and t such that

$$\gcd(a,b) = sa + tb.$$

- (i) For two integers n > 0 and $\varphi > 1$ with $\gcd(n, \varphi) = 1$, there exists a unique integer s, $0 < s < \varphi$, such that $ns \mod \varphi = 1$. We call s the **multiplicative inverse** of n modulo φ .
- (j) If a, b, and z are positive integers,

$$ab \mod z = [(a \mod z)(b \mod z)] \mod z.$$

(k) (Fermat's theorem) If p is prime, then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p, \quad \forall a \in Z_n^*,$$

where
$$Z_p^* = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}.$$

(1) If p, q are pairwise relatively prime and n = pq, then for all integers x and a,

$$x \equiv a \bmod p \ \text{ and } \ x \equiv a \bmod q \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad x \equiv a \bmod n.$$

RSA public-key cryptosystems

- 1. Select at random two large prime numbers p and $q, p \neq q$.
- 2. Compute n = pq.
- 3. Select a small odd integer e that is relatively prime to $\phi(n) = (p-1)(q-1)$.
- 4. Compute d as the multiplicative inverse of e modulo $\phi(n)$.
- 5. Publish the pair P = (e, n) as the participant's **RSA public key**.
- 6. Keep secret the pair S = (d, n) as the participant's **RSA secret key**.

To encode/encrypt a message M associated with a public key P = (e, n), compute

$$P(M) = M^e \bmod n, \quad \forall M \in Z_n.$$

To decode/decrypt a ciphertext C associated with a secret key S = (d, n), compute

$$S(C) = C^d \bmod n, \quad \forall M \in Z_n.$$

Theorem.
$$S(P(M)) = P(S(M)) = M$$
 for all $M \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Representations of integers

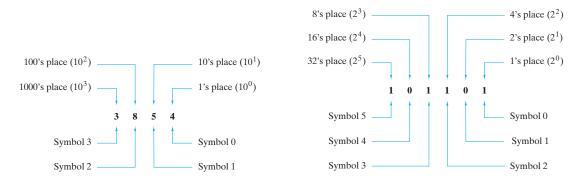


Figure 1: The decimal (left) and the binary (right) number systems.

A bit is a binary digit, that is, 0 or 1. In digital computers, data and instructions are encoded as bits. Technology determines how the bits are physically represented within a computer system. Hardware relies on the state of an electronic circuit to represent a bit. The circuit must be capable of being in two states - one representing 1, the other 0.

The **binary number system** represents integers using bits (0 and 1). Other important bases for number systems in computer science are base 8 (or **octal**) and base 16 (or **hexadecimal**). In the **hexadecimal number system**, to represent integers we use the symbols 0 - 9, A - F. The symbols A - F are interpreted as decimal 10 - 15, respectively.

In general, in the **base** N **number system**, N distinct symbols, representing 0, 1, 2, ..., N-1 are required. In representing an integer, reading from the right, the first symbol represents the number of 1 (i.e., N^0), the next symbol the number of N (i.e., N^1), the next symbol the number of N^2 , and so on.

References

1. Johnsonbaugh, R.: Discrete Mathematics - Eighth Edition. *Pearson Education*, New York (2018).