MATH 433 Applied Algebra Lecture 4: More on greatest common divisor. Prime numbers. Unique factorisation theorem.

#### Greatest common divisor

Given positive integers  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ , the **greatest common divisor**  $gcd(a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)$  is the largest positive integer that divides  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ .

**Theorem (i)**  $gcd(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$  is the smallest positive integer represented as an integral linear combination of  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ . (ii)  $gcd(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n)$  is divisible by any other common divisor of  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$ .

*Remark.* The theorem can be proved in the same way as in the case n = 2 (see Lecture 2). Another approach is by induction on n using the fact that  $gcd(a_1, a_2, ..., a_n) = gcd(a_1, gcd(a_2, ..., a_n))$ .

### **Prime numbers**

A positive integer p is **prime** if it has exactly two positive divisors, namely, 1 and p.

*Examples.* 2, 3, 5, 7, 29, 41, 101.

A positive integer *n* is **composite** if it a product of two strictly smaller positive integers.

*Examples.*  $6 = 2 \cdot 3$ ,  $16 = 4 \cdot 4$ ,  $125 = 5 \cdot 25$ .

Any positive integer is either prime or composite or 1. **Prime factorisation** of a positive integer  $n \ge 2$ is a decomposition of *n* into a product of primes.

Examples. • 
$$120 = 12 \cdot 10 = (2 \cdot 6) \cdot (2 \cdot 5)$$
  
=  $(2 \cdot (2 \cdot 3)) \cdot (2 \cdot 5) = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5.$   
•  $144 = 12^2 = (2^2 \cdot 3)^2 = 2^4 \cdot 3^2.$ 

# **Sieve of Eratosthenes**

The **sieve of Eratosthenes** is a method to find all primes from 2 to *n*:

- (1) Write down all integers from 2 to n.
- (2) Select the smallest integer k that is not selected or crossed out yet.
- (3) Cross out all multiples of k.
- (4) If not all numbers are selected or crossed out, return to step (2).

The prime numbers are those selected in the process.

# Unique factorisation theorem

**Theorem** Any positive integer  $n \ge 2$  admits a prime factorisation. This factorisation is unique up to rearranging the factors.

**Corollary** There are infinitely many prime numbers. *Idea of the proof:* Let  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$  be the first n primes. Consider the number  $N = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$ . This number must have a prime divisor different from  $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ . **Problem.** Suppose *m* is a positive integer such that

$$m = 2^4 p_1 p_2 p_3,$$
  

$$m + 100 = 5q_1 q_2 q_3,$$
  

$$m + 200 = 23r_1 r_2 r_3 r_4,$$

where  $p_i, q_j, r_k$  are prime numbers and, moreover,  $p_i \neq 2$ ,  $q_j \neq 5$ ,  $r_k \neq 23$ . Find *m*.

The prime decomposition of 100 is  $2^2 \cdot 5^2$ . Since the numbers m + 100 and 100 are divisible by 5, so are their difference m and their sum m + 200.

The prime decomposition of 200 is  $2^3 \cdot 5^2$ . Since the number *m* is divisible by  $2^4 = 16$ , it follows that m + 100 is divisible by  $2^2 = 4$  while m + 200 is divisible by  $2^3 = 8$ .

By the above the prime decomposition of m + 200 contains  $2^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 23$ . As there are only 5 factors in this decomposition, the number m + 200 is exactly  $2^3 \cdot 5 \cdot 23 = 920$ . Then  $m + 100 = 820 = 2^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 41$  and  $m = 720 = 2^4 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5$ .

# Unique prime factorisation

**Theorem** Any positive integer  $n \ge 2$  admits a prime factorisation. This factorisation is unique up to rearranging the factors.

*Ideas of the proof:* The **existence** is proved by strong induction on *n*. It is based on a simple fact: if  $p_1p_2...p_s$  is a prime factorisation of *k* and  $q_1q_2...q_t$  is a prime factorisation of *m*, then  $p_1p_2...p_sq_1q_2...q_t$  is a prime factorisation of *km*.

The **uniqueness** is proved by (normal) induction on the number of prime factors. It is based on a (not so simple) fact: if a prime number p divides a product of primes  $q_1q_2 \ldots q_t$  then one of the primes  $q_1, \ldots, q_t$  coincides with p.

### **Coprime numbers**

Positive integers *a* and *b* are **relatively prime** (or **coprime**) if gcd(a, b) = 1.

**Theorem** Suppose that a and b are coprime integers. Then (i) a|bc implies a|c; (ii) a|c and b|c imply ab|c.

Idea of the proof: Since gcd(a, b) = 1, there are integers m and n such that ma + nb = 1. Then c = mac + nbc.

**Corollary 1** If a prime number p divides the product  $a_1a_2...a_n$ , then p divides one of the integers  $a_1,...,a_n$ .

**Corollary 2** If an integer *a* is divisible by pairwise coprime integers  $b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$ , then *a* is divisible by the product  $b_1b_2 \ldots b_n$ .

Let  $a = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \dots p_k^{n_k}$  and  $b = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \dots p_k^{m_k}$ , where  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  are distinct primes and  $n_i, m_i$ are nonnegative integers.

**Theorem (i)**  $ab = p_1^{n_1+m_1} p_2^{n_2+m_2} \dots p_k^{n_k+m_k}$ . (ii) *a* divides *b* if and only if  $n_i \le m_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . (iii)  $gcd(a, b) = p_1^{s_1} p_2^{s_2} \dots p_k^{s_k}$ , where  $s_i = min(n_i, m_i)$ . (iv)  $lcm(a, b) = p_1^{t_1} p_2^{t_2} \dots p_k^{t_k}$ , where  $t_i = max(n_i, m_i)$ .

Here lcm(a, b) denotes the **least common multiple** of *a* and *b*, that is, the smallest positive integer divisible by both *a* and *b*.