

CS 441: Primes, GCDs, and LCMs

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[Motivation] Primes



Generating Unpredictable Numbers

Computers can't generate truly random numbers. They use an algorithm to produce a sequence of numbers that appears random, called a ***pseudorandom number generator (PRNG)***. For applications like a virtual lottery or a simple card game, you need these numbers to be as unpredictable as possible.

How can we generate these pseudorandom numbers?



Today's topics

- Primes & Greatest Common Divisors
 - Prime factorizations
 - Important theorems about primality
 - Greatest Common Divisors
 - Least Common Multiples
 - Euclid's algorithm



Let's (finally) define the primes formally

Definition: A **prime number** is a positive integer p greater than 1 that is divisible by only 1 and itself. If a number is not prime, it is called a **composite number**.

Mathematically: p is prime $\Leftrightarrow p > 1 \wedge \forall x \in \mathbf{Z}^+ [(x \neq 1 \wedge x \neq p) \rightarrow x \nmid p]$

Examples: Are the following numbers prime or composite?

- 23
- 42
- 17
- 3
- 9

Any positive integer can be represented as a unique product of prime numbers!

Theorem (The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic): Every positive integer greater than 1 can be written uniquely as a prime or the product of two or more primes where the prime factors are written in order of non-decreasing size.

Examples:

- $100 = 2 \times 2 \times 5 \times 5 = 2^2 \times 5^2$
- $641 = 641$
- $999 = 3 \times 3 \times 3 \times 37 = 3^3 \times 37$
- $1024 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 = 2^{10}$

Note: Proving the fundamental theorem of arithmetic requires some mathematical tools that we have not yet learned.

This leads to a related theorem...

Theorem: If n is a composite integer, then n has a prime divisor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

Proof:

- If n is composite, then it has a positive integer factor a with $1 < a < n$ by definition. This means that $n = ab$, where b is an integer greater than 1.
- Assume $a > \sqrt{n}$ and $b > \sqrt{n}$. Then $ab > \sqrt{n}\sqrt{n} = n$, which is a **contradiction**. So either $a \leq \sqrt{n}$ or $b \leq \sqrt{n}$.
 - Thus, n has a divisor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .
- By the **fundamental theorem of arithmetic**, this divisor is either prime, or is a product of primes. In either case, n has a prime divisor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} . \square

Applying **contraposition** leads to a naive primality test

Corollary: If n is a positive integer that does not have a prime divisor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} , then n is prime.

Example: Is 101 prime?

- The primes less than or equal to $\sqrt{101}$ (~ 10.05) are 2, 3, 5, and 7
- Since 101 is not divisible by 2, 3, 5, or 7, it must be prime

Example: Is 1147 prime?

- The primes less than or equal to $\sqrt{1147}$ (~ 33.87) are 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 23, 29, and 31
- $1147 = 31 \times 37$, so 1147 must be composite

This approach can be generalized

The **Sieve of Eratosthenes** is a brute-force algorithm for finding all prime numbers less than some value n

Step 1: List the numbers less than n

2	3	×	5	×	7	×	×	×	11
×	13	×	×	×	17	×	19	×	×
×	23	×	×	×	×	×	29	×	31
×	×	×	×	×	37	×	×	×	41
×	43	×	×	×	47	×	×	×	×
×	53	×	×	×	×	×	59	×	61
×	×	×	×	×	67	×	×	×	71



Step 2: If the next available prime number is less than \sqrt{n} , cross out all of its multiples

$$\sqrt{71} = 8.43$$

Step 3: Repeat until the next available number is $> \sqrt{n}$

Step 4: All remaining numbers are prime

How many primes are there?

Theorem: There are infinitely many prime numbers.

Proof: By contradiction

- Assume that there are only a finite number of primes p_1, \dots, p_n
- Let $Q = p_1 \times p_2 \times \dots \times p_n + 1$
- By the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, Q can be written as the product of two or more primes.
- Q is not divisible by any of the primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$ because dividing Q by any of these primes would leave a remainder of 1.
- Since Q is not divisible by any of the previous prime number, there must be some prime number not in our list. This prime number is either Q (if Q is prime) or a prime factor of Q (if Q is composite).
- This is a **contradiction** since we assumed that all primes were listed. Therefore, there are infinitely many primes. \square



This is a non-constructive existence proof!

In-class Activities

Activity 1: What is the prime factorization of 984? [[miro](#)]

Activity 2: Is 157 prime? Is 97 prime? [[miro](#)]

Activity 3: Is the set of all prime numbers countable or uncountable? If it is countable, show a 1-to-1 correspondence between the prime numbers and the natural numbers. [[miro](#)]

Steps:

1. Introduce to a classmate
2. Work in pairs on the exercise
3. Submit answers on miro
4. Volunteers to share answers

Greatest common divisors

Definition: Let a and b be integers, not both zero. The largest integer d such that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ is called the **greatest common divisor** of a and b , denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$.

Note: We can (naively) find GCDs by comparing the common divisors of two numbers.

Example: What is the GCD of 24 and 36?

- Factors of 24: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 24
- Factors of 36: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 9, 12, 18, 36
- $\therefore \gcd(24, 36) = 12$

Sometimes, the GCD of two numbers is 1

Example: What is $\gcd(17, 22)$?

- Factors of 17: 1, 17
- Factors of 22: 1, 2, 11, 22
- $\therefore \gcd(17, 22) = 1$

Definition: If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, we say that a and b are **relatively prime**, or **coprime**. We say that a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are **pairwise relatively prime** if $\gcd(a_i, a_j) = 1 \forall i, j$.

Example: Are 10, 17, and 21 pairwise coprime?

- Factors of 10: 1, 2, 5, 10
- Factors of 17: 1, 17
- Factors of 21: 1, 3, 7, 21

We can leverage the fundamental theorem of arithmetic to develop a better algorithm

Let: $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n}$

Then:

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

Greatest multiple of p_1 in both a and b

Greatest multiple of p_2 in both a and b

Example: Compute $\gcd(120, 500)$

- $120 = 2^3 \times 3 \times 5$
- $500 = 2^2 \times 5^3$
- So $\gcd(120, 500) = 2^2 \times 3^0 \times 5 = 20$

Better still is Euclid's algorithm

Observation: If $a = bq + r$, then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$

Proved in section 4.3 of the book

So, let $r_0 = a$ and $r_1 = b$. Then:

- $r_0 = r_1q_1 + r_2$ $0 \leq r_2 < r_1$
- $r_1 = r_2q_2 + r_3$ $0 \leq r_3 < r_2$
- ...
- $r_{n-2} = r_{n-1}q_{n-1} + r_n$ $0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1}$
- $r_{n-1} = r_nq_n$

$\gcd(a, b) = r_n$

Examples of Euclid's algorithm

Example: Compute $\gcd(414, 662)$

- $662 = 414 \times 1 + 248$
 - $414 = 248 \times 1 + 166$
 - $248 = 166 \times 1 + 82$
 - $166 = 82 \times 2 + 2$
 - $82 = 2 \times 41$
- ← $\gcd(414, 662) = 2$

Example: Compute $\gcd(9888, 6060)$

- $9888 = 6060 \times 1 + 3828$
 - $6060 = 3828 \times 1 + 2232$
 - $3828 = 2232 \times 1 + 1596$
 - $2232 = 1596 \times 1 + 636$
 - $1596 = 636 \times 2 + 324$
 - $636 = 324 \times 1 + 312$
 - $324 = 312 \times 1 + 12$
 - $312 = 12 \times 26$
- ← $\gcd(9888, 6060) = 12$

Least common multiples

Definition: The **least common multiple** of the integers a and b , where neither is 0, is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both a and b . The least common multiple of a and b is denoted $\text{lcm}(a, b)$.

Example: What is $\text{lcm}(3, 12)$?

- Multiples of 3: 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, ...
- Multiples of 12: 12, 24, 36, ...
- So $\text{lcm}(3, 12) = 12$

Note: $\text{lcm}(a, b)$ is guaranteed to exist, since a common multiple exists (i.e., ab).

We can leverage the fundamental theorem of arithmetic to develop a better algorithm

Let: $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n}$

Then:

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

Greatest multiple of p_1 in either a or b

Greatest multiple of p_2 in either a or b

Example: Compute $\text{lcm}(120, 500)$

- $120 = 2^3 \times 3 \times 5$
- $500 = 2^2 \times 5^3$
- So $\text{lcm}(120, 500) = 2^3 \times 3 \times 5^3 = 3000 \ll 120 \times 500 = 60,000$

LCMs are closely tied to GCDs

Note: $ab = \text{lcm}(a, b) \times \text{gcd}(a, b)$

Example: $a = 120 = 2^3 \times 3 \times 5$, $b = 500 = 2^2 \times 5^3$

- $120 = 2^3 \times 3 \times 5$
- $500 = 2^2 \times 5^3$
- $\text{lcm}(120, 500) = 2^3 \times 3 \times 5^3 = 3000$
- $\text{gcd}(120, 500) = 2^2 \times 3^0 \times 5 = 20$
- $\text{lcm}(120, 500) \times \text{gcd}(120, 500)$



In-class Activities

Activity 4: Use Euclid's algorithm to compute $\gcd(92928, 123552)$. [[miro](#)]

Activity 5: Compute $\gcd(24, 36)$ and $\text{lcm}(24, 36)$. Verify that $\gcd(24, 36) \times \text{lcm}(24, 36) = 24 \times 36$. [[miro](#)]

Steps:

1. Introduce to a classmate
2. Work in pairs on the exercise
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Final Thoughts

- Prime numbers play an important role in number theory
- There are an infinite number of prime numbers
- Any number can be represented as a product of prime numbers; this has implications when computing GCDs and LCMs
- Next time: Solving congruences, modular inverses