# Numb3rs

Prime Factorisation



# Primes

Definition: p∈ℤ is said to be a prime number if p ≥ 2 and the only positive factors of p are 1 and p itself
2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59, 61, ...

Unique Factorisation (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic): ∀a∈ Z, if a ≥ 2 then ∃! (p1,...,pt, d1,...,dt) s.t. p1 < ... < pt primes, d1,...,dt∈Zt, and a = p1<sup>d1</sup> p2<sup>d2</sup>... pt<sup>dt</sup>

Recall: We already saw that prime factorisation exists (using strong induction)

Will prove uniqueness now

# Primes

• <u>Definition</u>:  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is said to be a prime number if  $p \ge 2$  and the only positive factors of p are 1 and p itself

Euclid's Lemma $\forall a,b,p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ s.t. } p \text{ is prime } (p \mid ab) \rightarrow (p \mid a \lor p \mid b)$ 

Since the only positive factors of p are 1, p, we have two cases: gcd(a,p) = 1 or gcd(a,p) = p.

If gcd(a,p) = p, then pla ✓

Ø

If gcd(a,p) = 1, then ∃u,v s.t. 1 = ua+vp ⇒ b = uab + vpb ⇒ ∃k s.t. b = ukp+vbp (since plab) ⇒ plb

# Primes

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Generalisation of Euclid's Lemma (Prove by induction):
 $\forall a_1, ..., a_n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t. p is prime, (p |  $a_1 \cdots a_n$ ) → ∃ i, pla<sub>i</sub>

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• Uniqueness of prime factorisation: Suppose z is the smallest positive integer with two distinct prime factorisations as  $z = p_1 \cdots p_m = q_1 \cdots q_n$ . max $\{p_1, \dots, p_m\} \neq max\{q_1, \dots, q_n\}$  (Why?). So w.l.o.g.,  $p_m > q_i$ , i=1 to  $n \Rightarrow p_m \nmid q_i$ , i=1 to n. But,  $p_m \mid q_1 \cdots q_n \Rightarrow p_m \mid q_i$  for some i (by Lemma). Contradiction!

# Divisors, Again

Suppose  $a = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} p^{\alpha_p}$  and  $b = \prod_{p \text{ prime}} p^{\beta_p}$ (only finitely many primes p have  $a_p > 0$  or  $\beta_p > 0$ ) @alb iff for every p,  $a_p \leq \beta_p$  $a a b \Rightarrow b = aq$  where say,  $q = \Pi_p$  prime  $p^{\delta p}$  $\Rightarrow$  for every p,  $\beta_p = \alpha_p + \delta_p \ge \alpha_p$  $\bigcirc$  For every p,  $a_p \leq \beta_p$  $\Rightarrow$  for every p,  $\delta_P := \beta_P - \alpha_P \ge 0$  $\Rightarrow$  b = aq where q =  $\Pi_{p \text{ prime }} P^{\delta p}$  $\Rightarrow$  alb

# GCD, Again

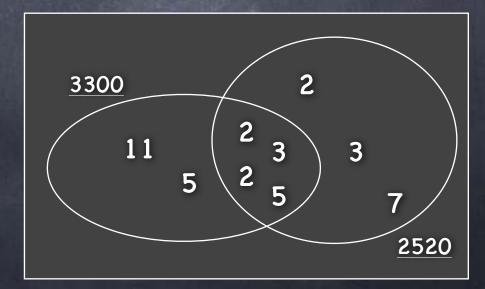
An alternate algorithm for gcd(a,b): Given the prime factorisation of a,b, construct that of gcd(a,b)

The factorisations of a and b resp. (Ignore p s.t.  $a_p=\beta_p=0$ )

Then  $\gamma_p = \min(\alpha_p, \beta_p)$  is p's exponent in the prime factorisation of gcd(a,b)

 $2520 = 2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7$  $3300 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 11$  $gcd ( 2520, 3300 ) = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ 

Not very practical compared to Euclid's algorithm, as prime factorisation is not easy



#### **Common Multiples**

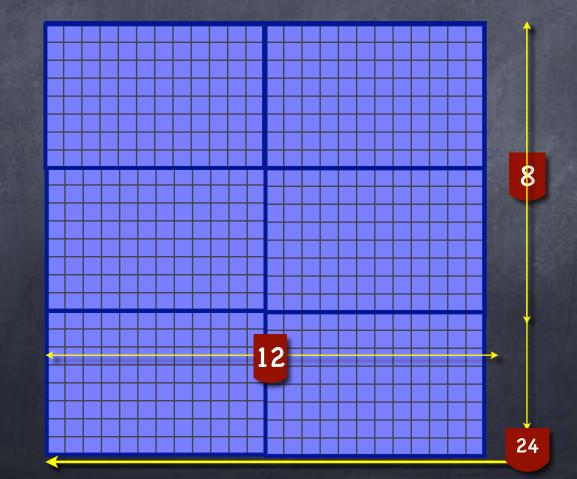
Common Multiple: c is a common multiple of a and b if a|c and b|c.

Least Common Multiple ( for a≠0 and b≠0 ) lcm(a,b) = smallest positive integer among the common multiples of a and b

Well-defined: a b is a positive common multiple of (a,b) (unless a=0 or b=0) and we restrict to positive multiples. So an integer in the range [1, a b].

@e.g.  $36 = 2^2 \cdot 3^2$ ,  $30 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ .  $lcm(36,30) = 2^2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 = 180$ 

#### LCM as Tiling [Here all numbers are positive integers] In is a common multiple of a & b, iff an a x b tile can be used to perfectly tile an n x n square



LCM: smallest such square

### LCM from Factorisation

For each prime number p let a<sub>p</sub> and β<sub>p</sub> be its exponents in the factorisations of a and b resp. (Ignore p s.t. a<sub>p</sub>=β<sub>p</sub>=0)
Then λ<sub>p</sub> = max(a<sub>p</sub>, β<sub>p</sub>) is p's exponent in the prime

factorisation of lcm(a,b)

 $\textcircled{0}{0} 2520 = 2^{3} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \\ 3300 = 2^{2} \cdot 3 \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 11 \\ \text{lcm ( 2520, 3300 )} \\ = 2^{3} \cdot 3^{2} \cdot 5^{2} \cdot 7 \cdot 11$ 

