

Lecture 10

Any equation we wish to solve using only integers is said to be Diophantine

(named after Diophantus, a Greek mathematician).
We shall describe how to solve the Diophantine equation

$$\boxed{ax + by = c} \quad (*)$$

where $a, b, c \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a, b, c \neq 0$.

Observation If $(*)$ has an integer solution then any number that divides both a and b must also divide c .

A number that divides both a and b ($a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, a, b not both zero) is called a common divisor of a and b . 1 is always a common divisor of a and b . There may be others. The largest common divisor of a and b is called the greatest common divisor denoted $\gcd(a, b)$.

We can refine our observation above.

If $ax + by = c$ has an integer solution then $\gcd(a, b) \mid c$.

This turns out to be the key to solving Diophantine linear equations in two unknowns.

Example We calculate $\gcd(6, 9)$

let $A = \{n : n \mid 6\}$, $B = \{n : n \mid 9\}$

$A = \{1, 2, 3, 6\}$, $B = \{1, 3, 9\}$

Set of common divisors $= A \cap B = \{1, 3\}$

The $\gcd(6, 9) = 3$.

The above example illustrates the obvious way of computing $\gcd(a, b)$. It is very inefficient.

I shall now describe a very efficient way of computing $\gcd$.

We need the following which we shall treat as an axiom.

Remainder theorem

Given $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, $b \neq 0$

We can write $a = bq + r$

$\uparrow$ $\uparrow$
 quotient remainder

where $0 \leq r < b$. In addition, q and r are unique.

The above theorem is the main tool for our calculations in $\mathbb{N}$ or $\mathbb{Z}$.

Euclid's algorithm

This is an efficient way of computing $\gcd(a, b)$.

Lemma $\gcd(a, 0) = a$ if $a \neq 0$.

Let $a \geq b > 0$. Then

$$a = \underbrace{bq + r}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \downarrow}} \quad 0 \leq r < b$$

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

Proof. Let $d|a$ and $d|b$.

Then $r = a - bq$ and $d|r$.

Let $d|b$ and $d|r$. Then since $a = bq + r$

$d|a$. It follows that the set of

common divisors of a and b = the set

of common divisors of b and r . Thus

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

Two points.

(1) $\gcd(b, r)$ is smaller than $\gcd(a, b)$.

(2) The above process can be repeated with b and r .

Here is an example of how this idea can be turned into a method for computing gcd.

Example We compute $\gcd(19, 7)$

using Euclid's algorithm.

$$19 = 7 \cdot 2 + 5$$

$$7 = 5 \cdot 1 + 2$$

$$5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1$$

~~$$2 = 1 \cdot 1 + 1$$~~

$$2 = 1 \cdot 2 + 0$$

The last non-zero remainder
 $= \gcd(19, 7)$

$$\gcd(19, 7)$$

$$\parallel$$

$$\gcd(7, 5)$$

$$\parallel$$

$$\gcd(5, 2)$$

$$\parallel$$

$$\gcd(2, 1)$$

$$\parallel$$

$$\gcd(1, 0)$$

$$\parallel$$
$$1$$

What isn't so obvious is that we can use Euclid's algorithm to extract more information. In particular, we can find one solution to a special kind of Diophantine equation.

Bézout's theorem Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ not

both zero. The equation

$$ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$$

can always be solved.

We shall use our calculations of Euclid's algorithm to solve the above equation in a process called the extended Euclidean algorithm

Example We find one solution to

$$19x + 7y = 1 \quad (= \gcd(19, 7))$$

using the extended Euclidean algorithm.

$$\begin{aligned} 19 &= 7 \cdot 2 + \underline{5} && \leftarrow \text{remainders} \\ 7 &= 5 \cdot 1 + \underline{2} && \leftarrow \\ 5 &= 2 \cdot 2 + \underline{1} && \leftarrow \gcd(19, 7) \end{aligned}$$

$$1 = 5 - \underline{2} \cdot 2 \quad \text{Rewrite remainders}$$

$$= 5 - (7 - 5 \cdot 1) \cdot 2$$

$$= 5 - 7 \times 2 + 2 \times 5$$

$$= 3 \times \underline{5} - 7 \times 2 \quad \& \text{ check.}$$

$$= 3 \times (19 - 7 \cdot 2) - 7 \times 2$$

$$= 3 \times 19 - 6 \times 7 - 7 \times 2$$

$$= 3 \times \textcircled{19} - 8 \times \textcircled{7} \quad \text{stop}$$