> Robert C. Vaughan

Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

Factorization and Primality Testing Chapter 2 Euclid's Algorithm and Applications

Robert C. Vaughan

September 11, 2024

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Factorization and Primality Testing Chapter 2 Euclid's Algorithm and Applications

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • The question arises. We know that given integers *a*, *b* not both 0, there are integers *x* and *y* so that

$$(a,b)=ax+by.$$

How do we find x and y?

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- Moreover this solution gives a very efficient algorithm and it is still the basis for many numerical methods in arithmetical applications.
- We may certainly suppose that a and b > 0 since multiplying either by (-1) does not change the (a, b) - we can replace x by -x and y by -y.

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- We can certainly suppose that b ≤ a. For convenience of notation put r₀ = b, r₋₁ = a.
- Now apply the division algorithm iteratively as follows

 $\begin{aligned} r_{-1} &= r_0 q_1 + r_1, \quad 0 < r_1 \le r_0, \\ r_0 &= r_1 q_2 + r_2, \quad 0 < r_2 < r_1, \\ r_1 &= r_2 q_3 + r_3, \quad 0 < r_3 < r_2, \\ & \dots \\ r_{s-3} &= r_{s-2} q_{s-1} + r_{s-1}, \quad 0 < r_{s-1} < r_{s-2}, \\ r_{s-2} &= r_{s-1} q_s. \end{aligned}$

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• That is, we stop the moment that there is a remainder equal to 0.

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- This could be r_1 if b|a, for example, although the way it is written out above it is as if s is at least 3.

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- That is, we stop the moment that there is a remainder equal to 0.
- This could be r_1 if b|a, for example, although the way it is written out above it is as if s is at least 3.
- The important point is that because $r_j < r_{j-1}$, sooner or later we must have a zero remainder.

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

• Repeating

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• Euclid proved that $(a, b) = r_{s-1}$.

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• First of all (a, b)|a and (a, b)|b, and so $(a, b)|r_1$.

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- Euclid proved that $(a, b) = r_{s-1}$.
- First of all (a, b)|a and (a, b)|b, and so $(a, b)|r_1$.
- Repeating this we get $(a, b)|r_j$ for $j = 2, 3, \ldots, s 1$.

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- First of all (a, b)|a and (a, b)|b, and so $(a, b)|r_1$.
- Repeating this we get $(a, b)|r_j$ for $j = 2, 3, \ldots, s 1$.
- On the other hand, starting at the bottom line $r_{s-1}|r_{s-2}$, $r_{s-1}|r_{s-3}$ and so on until we have $r_{s-1}|b$ and $r_{s-1}|a$. Recall that this means that $r_{s-1}|(a, b)$.

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- Thus we have just proved that

$$|r_{s-1}|(a,b), (a,b)|r_{s-1}, r_{s-1} = (a,b)$$

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

• Consider.

Example 1

Let a = 10678, b = 42

$$10678 = 42 \times 254 + 10$$

$$42 = 10 \times 4 + 2$$

$$10 = 2 \times 5.$$

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Thus (10678, 42) = 2.

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- But how to compute the x and y in (a, b) = ax + by?
- We could just work backwards through the algorithm using back substitution,

$$2 = 42 - 10 \times 4 = 42 - (10678 - 42 \times 254) \times 4$$

= 42 × 1017 - 10678 × 4.

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 $2 = 42 - 10 \times 4 = 42 - (10678 - 42 \times 254) \times 4$

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 $= 42 \times 1017 - 10678 \times 4.$

 In general this is tedious and computationally wasteful since it requires all our calculations to be stored.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • A simpler way is as follows.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

- A simpler way is as follows.
- Define $x_{-1} = 1$, $y_{-1} = 0$, $x_0 = 0$, $y_0 = 1$ and then lay the calculations out as follows.

 $\begin{array}{ll} r_{-1} = r_0 q_1 + r_1, & x_1 = x_{-1} - q_1 x_0, & y_1 = y_{-1} - q_1 y_0 \\ r_0 = r_1 q_2 + r_2, & x_2 = x_0 - q_2 x_1, & y_2 = y_0 - q_2 y_1 \\ r_1 = r_2 q_3 + r_3, & x_3 = x_1 - q_3 x_2, & y_3 = y_1 - q_3 y_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ r_{s-2} = r_{s-1} q_s. \end{array}$

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• The claim is that $x = x_{s-1}$, $y = y_{s-1}$. More generally $r_j = ax_j + by_j$ and this can be proved by induction.

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- By construction we have $r_{-1} = ax_{-1} + by_{-1}$, $r_0 = ax_0 + by_0$.

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- By construction we have $r_{-1} = ax_{-1} + by_{-1}$, $r_0 = ax_0 + by_0$.
- Suppose $r_j = ax_j + by_j$ is established for all $j \le k$. Then

$$r_{k+1} = r_{k-1} - q_{k+1}r_k$$

= $(ax_{k-1} + by_{k-1}) - q_{k+1}(ax_k + by_k)$
= $ax_{k+1} + by_{k+1}$.

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- The claim is that $x = x_{s-1}$, $y = y_{s-1}$. More generally $r_j = ax_j + by_j$ and this can be proved by induction.
- By construction we have $r_{-1} = ax_{-1} + by_{-1}$, $r_0 = ax_0 + by_0$.
- Suppose $r_j = ax_j + by_j$ is established for all $j \le k$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} r_{k+1} &= r_{k-1} - q_{k+1}r_k \\ &= (ax_{k-1} + by_{k-1}) - q_{k+1}(ax_k + by_k) \\ &= ax_{k+1} + by_{k+1}. \end{aligned}$$

• In particular $(a, b) = r_{s-1} = ax_{s-1} + by_{s-1} + by_{s-1$

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • Hence laying out the example above in this expanded form we have

$$1 = 10678, r_0 = 42, x_{-1} = 1, x_0 = 0, y_{-1} = 0, y_0 = 1,$$

$$10678 = 42 \cdot 254 + 10, \quad x_1 = 1, \quad y_1 = -254$$

$$42 = 10 \cdot 4 + 2, \quad x_2 = -4, \quad y_2 = 1017$$

$$10 = 2 \cdot 5.$$

 $(10678, 42) = 2 = 10678 \cdot (-4) + 42 \cdot (1017).$

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

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$$\begin{aligned} r_{-1} &= 10678, \ r_0 = 42, \ x_{-1} = 1, \ x_0 = 0, \ y_{-1} = 0, \ y_0 = 1, \\ 10678 &= 42 \cdot 254 + 10, \quad x_1 = 1, \quad y_1 = -254 \\ 42 &= 10 \cdot 4 + 2, \qquad x_2 = -4, \quad y_2 = 1017 \\ 10 &= 2 \cdot 5. \end{aligned}$$

 $(10678, 42) = 2 = 10678 \cdot (-4) + 42 \cdot (1017).$

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• It is also possible to set this up using matrices.

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

• Lay out the sequences in rows

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • Lay out the sequences in rows

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• Now proceed to compute each successive row as follows.

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • Lay out the sequences in rows

- Now proceed to compute each successive row as follows.
- If the s-th row is the last one to be computed, calculate $q_s = \lfloor r_{s-1}/r_s \rfloor$.

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • Lay out the sequences in rows

- Now proceed to compute each successive row as follows.
- If the s-th row is the last one to be computed, calculate $q_s = \lfloor r_{s-1}/r_s \rfloor$.
- Then take the last two rows computed and pre multiply by $(1, -q_s)$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1, -q_s \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_{s-1}, & x_{s-1}, & y_{s-1} \\ r_s, & x_s, & y_s \end{pmatrix} = (r_{s+1}, x_{s+1}, y_{s+1})$$

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to obtain the s + 1-st row.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

• Here is a simple example.

Example 2

Let a = 4343, b = 973. We can lay this out as follows

	4343	1	0	
4	973	0	1	
2	451	1	-4	
6	71	-2	9	
2	25	13	-58	
1	21	-28	125	
5	4	41	-183	
	1	-233	1040	
Thus $(4343, 973) = 1$	=(-2)	33)4343	+(1040)9	973.

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • We can use Euclid's algorithm to find the complete solution in integers to linear diophantine equations of the kind

$$ax + by = c$$
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• Here *a*, *b*, *c* are integers and we wish to find all integers *x* and *y* which satisfy this.

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• Here *a*, *b*, *c* are integers and we wish to find all integers *x* and *y* which satisfy this.

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• There are some obvious necessary conditions.
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$$ax + by = c.$$

- Here *a*, *b*, *c* are integers and we wish to find all integers *x* and *y* which satisfy this.
- There are some obvious necessary conditions.
- First of all if a = b = 0, then it is not soluble unless c = 0 and then it is soluble by any x and y, which is not very interesting.

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- First of all if a = b = 0, then it is not soluble unless c = 0 and then it is soluble by any x and y, which is not very interesting.
- Thus it makes sense to suppose that one of *a* or *b* is non-zero.
- Then since (a, b) divides the left hand side, we can only have solutions if (a, b)|c.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

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- We are considering ax + by = c and we are assuming that a and b are not both 0 and (a, b)|c.
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• Then as $\left(\frac{a}{(a,b)}, \frac{b}{(a,b)}\right) = 1$ we have by an earlier example that $y_0 - y = z \frac{a}{(a,b)}$ and $x - x_0 = z \frac{b}{(a,b)}$ for some z.

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 - that $y_0 y = z \frac{a}{(a,b)}$ and $x x_0 = z \frac{b}{(a,b)}$ for some z.
- But any x and y of this form give a solution, so we have found the complete solution set.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • We have

Theorem 3

Suppose that a and b are not both 0 and (a, b)|c. Suppose further that $ax_0 + by_0 = c$. Then every solution of

ax + by = c

is given by

$$x = x_0 + z \frac{b}{(a,b)}, \quad y = y_0 - z \frac{a}{(a,b)}$$

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where z is any integer.

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$$x = x_0 + z \frac{b}{(a,b)}, \quad y = y_0 - z \frac{a}{(a,b)}$$

where z is any integer.

• One can see here that the solutions x all leave the same remainder on division by $\frac{b}{(a,b)}$ and likewise for y on division by $\frac{a}{(a,b)}$. This suggests that there may be a useful way of classifying integers.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • Here is an algorithm due to R. S. Lehmen based on differences of squares which is a small improvement on trial division.

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• 1. Apply trial division with $d = 2, 3, \ldots, d \le n^{1/3}$.

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$$\sqrt{4tn} \le x \le \sqrt{4tn + n^{2/3}}.$$

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Check each $x^2 - 4tn$ to see if it is a perfect square y^2 (compute $4tn - \lfloor \sqrt{4tn} \rfloor^2$).

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• 3. If there are x and y such that

$$x^2 - 4tn = y^2,$$

then compute

$$GCD(x + y, n).$$

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 4. If there is no t ≤ n^{1/3} + 1 for which there are x and y, then n is prime.

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • We already saw this in Example 1.23, but now it does not look like a fluke.

Example 4

Let n = 10001. Then $\lfloor (10001)^{1/3} \rfloor = 21$. Trial division with d = 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19 finds no factors. Let t = 1, so that 4tn = 40004. Then

$$\lfloor \sqrt{4n} \rfloor = 200, \ \lfloor \sqrt{4n + n^{2/3}} \rfloor = \lfloor (40445)^{1/2} \rfloor = 201,$$

$$(201)^2 = 40401, \ 397 \neq y^2.$$

Let t = 2, so that 4tn = 80008. Then

$$\lfloor \sqrt{8n} \rfloor = 282, \lfloor \sqrt{8n + n^{2/3}} \rfloor = \lfloor (80449)^{1/2} \rfloor = 283,$$

 $x = 283, (283)^2 - 8n = 80089 - 80008 = 81 = 9^2,$
 $y = 9, x + y = 292, (292, 10001) = 73.$

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • The proof that Lehman's algorithm works depends on a subject called *diophantine approximation*.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

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- The proof that Lehman's algorithm works depends on a subject called *diophantine approximation*.
- The normal way in to this is *via* continued fractions, which in turn has some connections with Euclid's algorithm.

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- Fortunately we can take a short cut by appealing to

Theorem 5 (Dirichlet)

For any real number α and any integer $Q \ge 1$ there exist integers a and q with $1 \le q \le Q$ such that

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 As an immediate consequence of casting out all common factors of a and q in a/q we have

Corollary 6

The conclusion holds with the additional condition (a, q) = 1.

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Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • **Proof of Lehman's algorithm.** We have to show that when there is a d|n with $n^{1/3} < d \le n^{1/2}$, then there is a t with $1 \le t \le n^{1/3} + 1$ and x, y such that

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• We use Dirichlet's theorem with $\alpha = \frac{n}{d^2}$, $Q = \left\lfloor \frac{d}{n^{1/3}} \right\rfloor$.

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• As $d > n^{1/3}$ we have Q > 1. Thus there are $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $q \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $1 \le q \le Q$ and

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• Let $x = \frac{n}{d}q + ad, y = \left|\frac{n}{d}q - ad\right|, t = aq.$

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• Let $x = \frac{n}{d}q + ad$, $y = \left|\frac{n}{d}q - ad\right|$, t = aq. • Then $x^2 = \frac{n^2}{d^2}q^2 + 2nqa + a^2d^2 = y^2 + 4tn$.

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- Let $x = \frac{n}{d}q + ad$, $y = \left|\frac{n}{d}q ad\right|$, t = aq.
- Then $x^2 = \frac{n^2}{d^2}q^2 + 2nqa + a^2d^2 = y^2 + 4tn.$

• Moreover
$$y^2 < n^{2/3}$$
 and

$$t = aq < rac{n}{d^2}q^2 + n^{1/3}rac{q}{d} \le rac{n}{d^2}Q^2 + n^{1/3}rac{Q}{d} \le n^{1/3} + 1.$$

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization • I will not go into details but the runtime is bounded by $n^{1/3}$.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

- I will not go into details but the runtime is bounded by $n^{1/3}$.
- A little more precisely, since $y^2 = x^2 4tn y$ is determined by t and x it suffices to bound the number of pairs t, xwhich need to be considered and this can be shown to be of order $n^{1/3}$.

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Linear Diophantine Equations

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Linear Diophantine Equations

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- Theorem 5 (Dirichlet). For any real number α and any integer Q ≥ 1 there exist integers a and q with 1 ≤ q ≤ Q such that |α a/q | ≤ 1/q(Q+1).
- **Proof.** Let I_n denote the interval $\left[\frac{n-1}{Q+1}, \frac{n}{Q+1}\right)$ and consider the Q numbers $\{\alpha\}, \{2\alpha\}, \ldots, \{Q\alpha\}$ where we use $\{\beta\} = \beta \lfloor \beta \rfloor$ to denote the "fractional" part of β .

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- Similarly when one of them lies in I_{Q+1} , then $1 \frac{1}{Q+1} \le q\alpha \lfloor q\alpha \rfloor < 1$, whence $-\frac{1}{Q+1} \le q\alpha (\lfloor q\alpha \rfloor + 1) < 0$ and we can take $a = \lfloor q\alpha \rfloor + 1$.

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- When neither situation occurs the Q numbers will lie in the Q - 1 intervals I₂,..., I_Q, so there is at least one interval containing at least two (the *pigeon hole principle*.

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Factorization and Primality Testing Chapter 2 Euclid's Algorithm and Applications

> Robert C. Vaughan

Euclid's algorithm

Linear Diophantine Equations

An application to factorization

- Theorem 5 (Dirichlet). For any real number α and any integer $Q \ge 1$ there exist integers a and q with $1 \le q \le Q$ such that $\left| \alpha \frac{a}{q} \right| \le \frac{1}{q(Q+1)}$.
- **Proof.** Let I_n denote the interval $\left\lfloor \frac{n-1}{Q+1}, \frac{n}{Q+1} \right\rfloor$ and consider the Q numbers $\{\alpha\}, \{2\alpha\}, \ldots, \{Q\alpha\}$ where we use $\{\beta\} = \beta \lfloor\beta\rfloor$ to denote the "fractional" part of β .
- If one of these, say $\{q\alpha\}$, lies in I_1 , then we are done with $a = \lfloor q\alpha \rfloor$, and then $0 \le q\alpha a < \frac{1}{Q+1}$.
- Similarly when one of them lies in I_{Q+1} , then $1 \frac{1}{Q+1} \le q\alpha \lfloor q\alpha \rfloor < 1$, whence $-\frac{1}{Q+1} \le q\alpha (\lfloor q\alpha \rfloor + 1) < 0$ and we can take $a = \lfloor q\alpha \rfloor + 1$.
- When neither situation occurs the Q numbers will lie in the Q - 1 intervals I₂,..., I_Q, so there is at least one interval containing at least two (the *pigeon hole principle*.
- Thus there are q_1, q_2 with $q_1 < q_2$ such that $|(\alpha q_2 \lfloor \alpha q_2 \rfloor) (\alpha q_1 \lfloor \alpha q_1 \rfloor)| < \frac{1}{Q+1}$.

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- We put $q = (q_2 q_1)$, $a = (\lfloor \alpha q_2 \rfloor \lfloor \alpha q_1 \rfloor)$.