

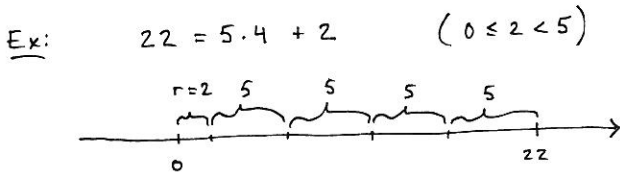
Lecture 1: Integers (1.1-1.3) ①

Integers $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots\}$ with the usual operations $+$, \cdot and order relation $<$.

Well-ordering axiom: Every nonempty subset of $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ has a smallest element.

Note: Is equivalent to the induction principle (App.C)

Division algorithm: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b > 0$. Then there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$, $0 \leq r < b$, such that $a = bq + r$.



Proof: (for the case $a \geq 0$). Consider the set

$$S = \{a - xb \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}, a - xb \geq 0\}$$

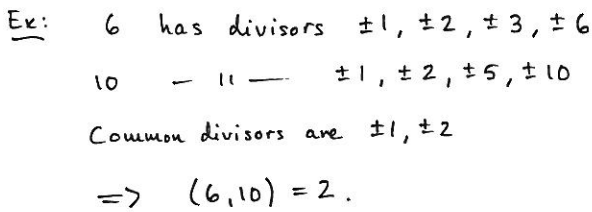
We see that $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and that $S \neq \emptyset$ (since $a - 0 \cdot b \in S$). According to the W.o.-axiom S has a smallest element $r = a - qb$.

We get $a = bq + r$ and it remains to show

Def: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. The greatest common divisor $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ (not both zero) of a, b is the integer that satisfies

- ① $d|a$ and $d|b$ (common divisor)
- ② if $c|a$ and $c|b$, then $c \leq d$ (greatest).

We write $d = (a, b)$.



Ex: $(7, 12) = 1$, relatively prime.

Theorem: If $d = (a, b)$ then there exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $d = ua + vb$.

Proof: Let $S = \{xa + yb \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, xa + yb > 0\}$.
 By construction $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and $S \neq \emptyset$ since $a \cdot a + b \cdot b = a^2 + b^2 > 0$. By the W.o.-axiom S has a smallest member $t = ua + vb$. We want to show that $t = d$:

that $0 \leq r < b$: We know by construction that $r \geq 0$, and if $r \geq b$ it follows that $r - b \geq 0$ and

$$r - b = a - qb - b = a - (q+1)b \in S,$$

contradicting the minimality of r .

Uniqueness: Assume $a = bq_1 + r_1 = bq_2 + r_2$, $0 \leq r_1, r_2 < b$, and show that $q_1 = q_2$, $r_1 = r_2$ (see book). \square

Def: $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0$. We say that b divides a , and write $b|a$, if there exists $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $a = bc$.

Ex: $2|6$ since $6 = 2 \cdot 3$, but $4 \nmid 6$.

Ex: 6 has the divisors $\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 6$.

Ex: $b|0$ for all $b \neq 0$, since $0 = b \cdot 0$

$1|a$ for all a , since $a = 1 \cdot a$

$a|a$ for all $a \neq 0$, since $a = a \cdot 1$.

Exercise: A) $\left. \begin{matrix} a|b \\ b|a \end{matrix} \right\} \Rightarrow b = \pm a$

B) $\left. \begin{matrix} a|b \\ b|c \end{matrix} \right\} \Rightarrow a|c$

C) $\left. \begin{matrix} c|a \\ c|b \end{matrix} \right\} \Rightarrow c|xa + yb$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$t|a$ and $t|b$: $a = qt + r$, $0 \leq r < t \Rightarrow$ ④

$$r = a - qt = a - q(ua + vb) = (1 - qu)a + (-qv)b$$

If $r > 0$ then it follows that $r \in S$, and consequently this contradicts the minimality of t .

Thus $r = 0$ and $a = qt \Rightarrow t|a$.

Analogously we get $t|b$

t greatest: Assume $c|a$ and $c|b$. Then $c|ua + vb = t \Rightarrow c \leq t$. \square

Note: $d = (a, b)$ is the smallest positive integer of the form $ua + vb$.

Alternative def. of gcd:

- ① $d|a$ and $d|b$
- ② if $c|a$ and $c|b$, then $c|d$

Theorem: If $a|bc$ and $(a, b) = 1$, then $a|c$.

Proof: $1 = ua + vb$ for some $u, v \Rightarrow$

$$c = cua + cvb = (cu)a + v(bc)$$

Since $a|a$ and $a|bc$, it follows that

$$a|(cu)a + v(bc), \text{ i.e. } a|c \quad \square$$

Euclidean algorithm

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A way to compute (a,b) .

Ex: $a=228, b=186$.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{Div. alg.} \quad 228 = 186 \cdot 1 + 42 \\
 \quad \quad \quad 186 = 42 \cdot 4 + 18 \\
 \quad \quad \quad 42 = 18 \cdot 2 + 6 \\
 \quad \quad \quad 18 = 6 \cdot 3 + 0
 \end{array}$$

The last nonzero remainder is gcd,
so $(228, 186) = \underline{6}$.

Based on the following lemma:

Lemma: If $a = bq + r$, then $(a,b) = (b,r)$.

Proof: Left as exercise (see book).

Note: $(228, 186) = (186, 42) = (42, 18) = (18, 6) = 6$.

Note: We can also use E.A. backwards:

$$\begin{aligned}
 6 &= 42 - 18 \cdot 2 = 42 - (186 - 42 \cdot 4) \cdot 2 = \\
 &= 9 \cdot 42 - 2 \cdot 186 = 9(228 - 186 \cdot 1) - 2 \cdot 186 = \\
 &= \underline{9 \cdot 228 + (-11) \cdot 186}.
 \end{aligned}$$

We want to show that $S = \emptyset$.

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Assume the contrary, i.e. that $S \neq \emptyset$. By the w.o.-axiom.

S then contains a smallest element m . Since m cannot be prime we have $m = ab$ with $1 < a, b < m$.

Since $a, b \notin S$ (m is minimal) these are products of primes, i.e. $a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$, $b = q_1 q_2 \dots q_l$

$\Rightarrow m = ab = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k q_1 q_2 \dots q_l$ is a product of primes $\Rightarrow m \notin S$. Contradiction! \square

Fundamental theorem of arithmetic: Every integer $\neq 0, \pm 1$ is a product of primes, unique up to the ordering (and the sign) of the factors.

Proof: See book. \square

Note: Prime factoring is a hard problem.

Basis for coding theory (e.g. RSA).

Congruence in \mathbb{Z} (2.1-2.2):

Def: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ (and let $n \geq 2$). If

$$n \mid b - a,$$

then we say that a is congruent to b modulo n , and write $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

We obtain (a,b) as a linear combination of a and b ,
i.e. $(a,b) = ua + vb$. ⁽⁶⁾

Def: $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ is prime if $p \neq 0, \pm 1$ and the only divisors are ± 1 and $\pm p$.

Ex: $\pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 5, \pm 7, \dots$ are primes

Theorem: $\left. \begin{array}{l} p \text{ prime} \\ p \mid ab \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow p \mid a \text{ or } p \mid b$.

Proof: Assume $p \nmid a$. Then $(p,a) = 1$ and $p \mid b$ by th. above. \square

Corollary: $\left. \begin{array}{l} p \text{ prime} \\ p \mid a_1 a_2 \dots a_n \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow p \mid a_i \text{ for some } i$.

Proof: Use th. above repeatedly. \square

Theorem: Every $n \neq 0, \pm 1$ is a product of primes.

Proof: Sufficient to consider $n \geq 2$.

Consider the set $S = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \geq 2, n \text{ not product of primes}\}$.

I.e. $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow b = a + kn$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Theorem: ① $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$ (reflexive)
② $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Rightarrow b \equiv a \pmod{n}$ (symmetric)
③ $\left. \begin{array}{l} a \equiv b \pmod{n} \\ b \equiv c \pmod{n} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow a \equiv c \pmod{n}$ (transitive)

Proof: ①: $n \mid a - a = 0$

②: $n \mid b - a \Leftrightarrow n \mid a - b$

③: $\left. \begin{array}{l} n \mid b - a \\ n \mid c - b \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow n \mid (b - a) + (c - b) = c - a \quad \square$

A relation that is reflexive, symmetric and transitive is called an equivalence relation.

We then define the congruence classes

$$[a] = \{b \in \mathbb{Z} \mid b \equiv a \pmod{n}\}$$

Ex: $n=3 \quad [7] = \{\dots, 7-3, 7, 7+3, 7+2 \cdot 3, \dots\}$
 $= \{\dots, 4, 7, 10, 13, \dots\}$

Theorem: ① $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow [a] = [b]$
 ② For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ either $[a] = [b]$ (equal)
 or $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$ (disjoint)

Proof: See book. \square

Since congruence classes are disjoint and every $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ belongs to one congruence class ($a \in [a]$, since $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$) the congruence classes constitute a partition of \mathbb{Z} .

Def: The set of all congruence classes mod n is denoted \mathbb{Z}_n .

Div. alg.: $a = nq + r$, $0 \leq r < n$.

We get $a \equiv r \pmod{n}$ and

$$\mathbb{Z}_n = \{[0], [1], [2], \dots, [n-1]\}$$

Arithmetic in \mathbb{Z}_n :

We define $[a] \oplus [b] = [a+b]$

$$[a] \odot [b] = [ab].$$

Ex: \mathbb{Z}_5 : $[3] \oplus [4] = [7] = [2]$
 $[3] \odot [4] = [12] = [2]$

⑩

Note! Only meaningful if \oplus and \odot are well-defined,

i.e. if $\left. \begin{array}{l} [a] = [c] \\ [b] = [d] \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} [a+b] = [c+d] \\ [ab] = [cd] \end{array}$

or alternatively

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} a \equiv c \pmod{n} \\ b \equiv d \pmod{n} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} a+b \equiv c+d \pmod{n} \\ ab \equiv cd \pmod{n} \end{array}$$

Check yourself (or see book).

Th. 2.7, properties of \oplus and \odot in \mathbb{Z}_n , follows from corr. properties of \mathbb{Z} .