

## Chapter 1 Arithmetic in $\mathbb{Z}$

You learn the basis of arithmetic in  $\mathbb{Z}$  in grade school.

Most everything in this chapter is familiar to you, but now we will actually prove the results you already know. This is a good way to start in abstract algebra as you work with objects you already know.

We start with the division algorithm, which is really just division with remainder.

Theorem 1.1.1 (Division algorithm): Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $b > 0$ . There exist unique integers  $q, r$  with  $0 \leq r < b$  so that

$$a = bq + r.$$

Before we prove this, a quick example.

Example: Let  $a = 13$ ,  $b = 3$ . Then

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ 3 \overline{)13} \\ \underline{12} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

As  $13 = 3(4) + r$   $b = 4$ ,  $r = 1$ .

Proof: Let  $a, b$  be as in the statement of the theorem and

consider the set

$$S = \{a - bm : a - bm \geq 0, m \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

We first show  $S$  is nonempty. Since  $b \geq 1$ , we have

$|a|b \geq |a|$ . ~~Since~~ By definition we have  $|a| \geq -a$ , so

$|a|b \geq -a$ , and so  $a + b|a| \geq 0$ . Thus, if we take  $m = -|a|$ ,

then  $a + b|a| \in S$  so  $S \neq \emptyset$ .

Since  $S$  is a subset of  $\mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  and is nonempty, the well-ordering

axiom gives that  $b$  is the smallest element of  $S$ , say  $r$ . We

have  $r = a - bq$  for some  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ , i.e.,  $a = bq + r$ . It

only remains to show  $0 \leq r < b$  and  $r, q$  are unique.

Claim:  $r < b$ .

Pf: Suppose  $r \geq b$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq r - b &= (a - bq) - b \\ &= a - b(q+1). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $a - b(q+1) \geq 0$ , it is in  $S$ . Since  $b > 0$ ,

$r - b < r$ , so  $a - b(q+1) < r$  and is in  $S$ . This

contradicts  $r$  being the smallest element of  $S$ . Thus,  $r < b$ .

Claim:  $0 \leq r$

This is clear because  $r \in S$ .

It only remains to show  $q, r$  are unique.

Suppose there exist  $q_1, q_2, r_1, r_2$  w/  $0 \leq r_1, r_2 < b$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{and } a &= bq_1 + r_1 \\ &= bq_2 + r_2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$b(q_1 - q_2) = r_2 - r_1 \quad (*)$$

Since  $0 \leq r_1 < b$ , we have  $-b < -r_1 \leq 0$  and  $0 \leq r_2 < b$

implies  $-b < r_2 - r_1 < b$ .

$$(*) \text{ gives } -b < b(q_1 - q_2) < b$$

$$\Rightarrow -1 < q_1 - q_2 < 1.$$

Thus,  $q_1 - q_2 = 0$ , i.e.  $q_1 = q_2$ .

This also gives  $r_1 = r_2$  and we are done.  $\square$

## 1.2 Divisibility:

Def: Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $b \neq 0$ . We say  $b$  divides  $a$ , and write  $b|a$ , if there exists  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $a = bc$ . If there is no such  $c$  we say  $b$  does not divide  $a$  and write  $b \nmid a$ .

Example:  $5|15$  because  $15 = 5 \cdot 3$ .

Lemma 1.2.1: Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $n$  has only finitely many divisors.

Proof: This follows immediately from the fact that if  $a|n$ , then  $|a| \leq |n|$ , which we now prove. Suppose  $a|n$ . Then there exists  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $n = ac$ . Thus,  $|n| = |a||c|$ . Since  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $c \neq 0$ , we have  $|c| \geq 1$  so  $|a| \leq |n|$ .  $\square$

Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_{\neq 0}$ . Since each has only finitely many divisors, the collection of common divisors is finite. This means among the common divisors there is a greatest element.

Def: Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , not both 0. The greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ , denoted  $\gcd(a, b)$ , is the largest integer that divides  $a$  and  $b$ .

i.e.,  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  if

1)  $d|a$  and  $d|b$

2) if  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$  satisfies  $c|a$  and  $c|b$ , then  $c \leq d$ .

Example:  $\gcd(12, 16) = 4$ .

Theorem 1.2.2: Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , not both 0,  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ . Then

there exists  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $am + bn = d$ .

Proof: Let

$$S = \{ax + by : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, ax + by \geq 0\}.$$

Note  $a^2 + b^2 > 0$  since  $a, b$  are not both 0, so  $S \neq \emptyset$ .

Let  $e = ax + by$  be the smallest element of  $S$ . Thus,

$e = am + bn$  for some  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $d|a$  and  $d|b$ ,

there exist  $c_1, c_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that  $a = dc_1$ ,  $b = dc_2$  so

$e = dc_1 m + dc_2 n = d(c_1 m + c_2 n)$ . Thus,  $d|e$ , and

so  $d \leq e$ . Thus, if we can show  $e|a$  and  $e|b$  we

will have  $d = e$  and  $e$  is the gcd.

Write  $a = eq + r$  for  $0 \leq r < e$ .

Then we have

$$r = a - eq$$

$$= a - (am + bn)q = (1-m)a + b(-q).$$

Thus,  $r \in S$ . Since  $e$  is the smallest element of  $S$  and  $0 \leq r < e$ , we must have  $r=0$ . Thus,  $e|a$ . Similarly for  $b$ .  $\square$

Corollary 1.2.3: Let  $a, b$  be as above. Then  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  iff

1)  $d|a$  and  $d|b$

and

2) if  $c|a$  and  $c|b$ , then  $c|d$ .

Proof: ~~Suppose  $d$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ .~~ Let  $e$  satisfy these conditions,

ie.  $e|a$  and  $e|b$  and if  $c|a$  and  $c|b$ , then  $c|e$ . We must

show  $e=d$ . Since  $e$  is a common divisor, we have  $e \leq d$ .

by definition. Conversely, since  $d|a$  and  $d|b$ , we must have

by 2) above that  $d|e$ . Thus,  $e=d$ .  $\square$

Lemma 1.2.4: If  $a = bq + r$ , then  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$ .

Proof: Let  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  and  $e = \gcd(b, r)$ . Since  $r = a - bq$ ,

we have  $d | a - bq + r$ . Thus,  $d$  is a common divisor of

$b$  and  $r$ , so  $d \leq e$ . Similarly, if  $e | b$  and  $e | r$ , so

$e | a$ . Thus  $e \leq d$ . Hence,  $d=e$ .  $\square$

We can use this last result to give an algorithm for calculating

$\gcd(a, b)$ . We can write:

$$a = bq_1 + r_1 \quad 0 \leq r_1 < b$$

$$b = r_1q_2 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1$$

$$r_1 = r_2q_3 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2$$

⋮

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1}q_n + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1}$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_nq_{n+1}$$

Note since the sequence  $\{r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots\}$  is a strictly decreasing

sequence of nonnegative integers after finitely many steps we must

get 0. Lemma 1.2.4 now gives

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_2) = \dots = \gcd(r_{n-1}, r_n) = \gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n.$$

Thus,  $\gcd(a, b) = r_n$ , the last nonzero remainder.

Example: We saw before  $\gcd(12, 16) = 4$ .

$$16 = 12 \cdot 1 + 4$$

$$12 = 4 \cdot 3 + 0$$

So  $\gcd(12, 16) = 4$  by this method as well.

We can also use this to find  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that

$$am + bn = d$$

by back substitution.

Example: Let  $a = 12378$ ,  $b = 3054$ . We have

$$12378 = 4 \cdot 3054 + 162$$

$$3054 = 19 \cdot 162 + 138$$

$$162 = 1 \cdot 138 + 24$$

$$138 = 5 \cdot 24 + 18$$

$$24 = 1 \cdot 18 + 6$$

$$18 = 3 \cdot 6 + 0$$

Then,  $\gcd(12378, 3054) = 6$ . To find  $m, n$  we back

substitute:

$$6 = 24 + 18(-1) \quad (1)$$

$$18 = 138 + 24(-5) \quad (2)$$

$$24 = 162 + 138(-1) \quad (3)$$

$$138 = 3054 + 162(-18) \quad (4)$$

$$162 = 12378 + 3054(-4) \quad (5)$$

$$(1) \rightarrow (2) : \quad 6 = 24 + 18(-1)(138 + 24(-5)) = 6(24) + 138(-1)$$

~~Then~~ ~~substitution~~ ~~24 =~~

$$(3) \rightarrow \text{this} : \quad 6 = 6(162 + 138(-1)) + 138(-1)$$

$$= 6(162) + (-7)(138)$$



(4)  $\rightarrow$  This:

$$\begin{aligned}6 &= 6(162) + (-7)(3054 + 162(-18)) \\&= 6(162) + 126(162) + (-7)(3054) \\&= 132(162) + (-7)(3054)\end{aligned}$$

(5)  $\rightarrow$  This:

$$\begin{aligned}6 &= 132(12378 + 3054(-4)) + (-7)(3054) \\&= 12378(132) + 3054(-535).\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 1.2.5 (Euclid's Lemma): If  $a \mid bc$  and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ , then  $a \mid c$ .

Proof: Since  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ , there exist  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that

$$am + bn = 1. \quad \text{Multiply this by } c:$$

$$c = acm + bcn. \quad \text{Since } a \mid bc, \text{ then exists } k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ so}$$

$$\text{that } bc = ak. \quad \text{Thus,}$$

$$c = a(cm + kn),$$

and  $a \mid c$ .  $\square$

Note that if we write  $am + bn = d$  this does NOT in general

imply that  $\gcd(a, b) = d$ . For example,  $5 = 3(1) + 2(-1)$ , but

$$\gcd(2, 3) = 1, \text{ not } 5.$$

Prop. 1.2.6:  $\text{df}$   $am + bn = 1$  for some  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$  then  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ .

Proof: Let  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ . Then  $d|a$  and  $d|b$ , so  $d|(am + bn) = 1$ .

(See book problem). Thus,  $d|1 \rightarrow d=1$ .  $\square$

### 1.3 Prime and Unique Factorization:

Def: We say  $p \in \mathbb{Z}_{\neq 0}$  is prime if the only divisors of  $p$  are 1 and  $p$ .

Example: 7 is prime, but 6 is not.

(Note the book allows negative primes; we do not. Most sources only consider positive numbers to be prime so we follow that convention.)

Theorem 1.3.1: Let  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We have  $p$  is prime iff whenever  $p|ab$ ,  $p|a$  or  $p|b$ .

Proof: First suppose  $p$  is prime.  $\text{df}$  and assume  $p|ab$ .

of  $pl_a$  we are done. Assume  $p \nmid a$ . Since  $p$  is prime

this gives  $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ . Thus, Euclid's lemma gives  $p \nmid b$ .

Now assume that whenever  $p \mid ab$ , that  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ . If  $p$  is not prime, we can write  $p = mn$  with  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>1}$ .

But then  $m, n < p$  so  $p \nmid m, p \nmid n$ . This is a contradiction, so it must be the case  $p$  is prime. ■

Cor 1.3.2: Let  $p$  be prime and  $p \mid a_1 \dots a_n$ . Then  $p \mid a_j$  for some

$$1 \leq j \leq n.$$

Proof: Exercise. ■

Theorem 1.3.3: Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>2}$ . Then  $n$  can be factored into primes.

Proof: Let  $S$  be the subset of  $\mathbb{Z}_{>2}$  consisting of elements that do not factor into primes. <sup>Suppose  $S \neq \emptyset$ .</sup>

The well-ordering axiom says

$S$  has a smallest element, say  $m$ . Since  $m$  cannot be

factored into primes, it cannot be prime itself. Write

$m = a_1 a_2$  with  $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_{>1}$ . Then  $a_1, a_2 < m$  so they cannot

be in  $S$ , so they have prime factorizations. This is a contradiction

because their factorizations provide a factorization of  $m$ . Thus,  $S = \emptyset$ . ■

Note if  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{<0}$ , then  $-n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ . This means we can factor

any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \neq 0, \pm 1$  by setting if  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$ , write

$$-n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0} \text{ as } -n = p_1 \cdots p_k, \text{ so } n = (-1) p_1 \cdots p_k.$$

Theorem 1.3.4 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic): Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>2}$ . Then

$n$  can be factored into primes uniquely up to the order of the primes.

Proof: Suppose we have

$$n = p_1 \cdots p_k = q_1 \cdots q_s.$$

with the  $p_i, q_j$  primes. WLOG assume  $k \leq s$ . Note  $p_1 \mid q_1 \cdots q_s$ ,

so by Cor. 1.3.2 we have  $p_1 \mid q_j$  for some  $1 \leq j \leq s$ . However, since

these are both prime we must have  $p_1 = q_j$ . WLOG assume  $j=1$ .

Then cancelling we have

$$p_2 \cdots p_k = q_2 \cdots q_s.$$

Continuing like this we have

$$1 = q_{k+1} \cdots q_s.$$

Thus,  $s=k$  and the factorization is unique.  $\square$

Primes are essentially the building blocks of the integers so they are of fundamental importance to studying  $\mathbb{Z}$ . One should take this theorem & really see this.