

Last time Proved that if $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $(a, b) \neq (0, 0)$ then $\exists! d \geq 1$ s.t.

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

$d := \gcd(a, b)$, the greatest common divisor of a & b .

Also, $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ (not unique) s.t. $d = xa + yb$

[Note: $ba + (-a)b = 0 \Rightarrow d = (x+b)a + (y-a)b$ etc...]

Lemma 2.3 $\gcd(n, m) = \gcd(n - km, m) \quad \forall k, n, m \quad ((n, m) \neq (0, 0))$

Thm 2.5 If $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ and $a | (mn)$ then $a | n$.

Def An integer $p \geq 2$ is prime $\Leftrightarrow p = ab$, $a, b > 1$, $\Rightarrow a=1$ or $b=1$.

[strictly speaking this is a definition of an irreducible element of \mathbb{Z}]

Remark For any $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and any prime p , $\gcd(n, p) = 1$ or p

This is because $\gcd(n, p) \nmid p$ (and $\gcd(n, p) \geq 1$).

HW1 If p is prime, $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p \nmid nm$ then either $p | n$ or $p | m$ (or both). Hint Remark above and Thm 2.5

(rings the property)

Remark In general, $p \nmid nm \Rightarrow p | n$ or $p | m$ is used as a definition of a prime.

Thm 3.1 (Euclid's lemma; see Nicholson, p37). Suppose p is prime, $k \geq 1$, $m_1 - m_k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $p | (m_1 - m_k)$. Then $p | m_i$ for some $i, 1 \leq i \leq k$.

Proof Induction on k . If $k=1$, nothing to prove.

Suppose true for $k=n$ and $p | (m_1 - m_n m_{n+1})$. Then

$p \nmid (m_1 - m_n) \cdot m_{n+1}$. By HW, $p | (m_1 - m_n)$ or $p | m_{n+1}$.

If $p | (m_1 - m_n)$ then $p | m_i$ for some $i, 1 \leq i \leq n$ by inductive assumption. Otherwise, $p | m_{n+1}$

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Thm 3.2 (Nicholson, Thm 7, p 37)

- 1) Every integer $n \geq 2$ is a prime or a product of primes.
- 2) Factorization of integers ≥ 2 into prime factors is unique up to order.

That is, if $n = p_1 \cdots p_r = q_1 \cdots q_s$

then $r=s$, and q_i 's can be re-ordered so that $q_j = p_j \ \forall j$.

Proof (1) Suppose not: $\exists m \geq 2, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ which is not a prime or a product of primes. Then

$S = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \geq 2, n \text{ is not a prime or a product of primes}\}$
is nonempty. By well-ordering $k = \min S$ exists.

Then k is not a prime, so it can be factored as $k = ab$, $a, b > 0$, $a, b \neq 1$. Then $a, b < k = \min S$

$\Rightarrow a, b$ a primes or products of primes.

$\Rightarrow k$ is a product of primes. Contradiction.

(2) Suppose there is $n \geq 2$ which has two distinct factorizations.

By well-ordering there is the smallest integer $m \geq 2$ with two distinct factorizations: $m = p_1 \cdots p_r = q_1 \cdots q_s$, $r, s > 0$, $p_1 \cdots p_r, q_1 \cdots q_s$ primes

$p_1 \mid (p_1 \cdots p_r)$. $\Rightarrow p_1 \mid (q_1 \cdots q_s)$. By Euclid's Lemma, $p_1 \mid q_j$ for some j . We may assume $p_1 \mid q_1$.

q_1 is a prime, $p_1 > 1$. $\Rightarrow p_1 = q_1$. Contradiction.

Case 1: $r=1$. Then $p_1 = p_1 q_2 \cdots q_s \Rightarrow 1 = q_2 \cdots q_s$, which is impossible if $s \geq 2$. Hence if $r=1$, $s=1$ and we're done.

Case 2: $r > 1$. Then $m = p_1 \cdots p_r = p_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{m}{p_1} = p_2 \cdots p_r = q_2 \cdots q_s. \quad \text{Since } \frac{m}{p_1} < m,$$

$\frac{m}{p_1}$ has a unique factorization into primes (up to order).

$$\Rightarrow r=s \text{ and } p_i = q_i \ (\forall i \geq 2) \text{ after reordering.}$$

Factorization of m into primes is unique, after all. □

Theorem 3.3 (Euclid) There are infinitely many primes.

Proof Suppose not. Then there are finitely many primes:

$$p_1, \dots, p_n \text{ for some } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

$$\text{Consider } m = p_1 \cdots p_n + 1.$$

By Thm 3.2(1) m is a prime or a product of primes

Since $p_1 \cdots p_n + 1 > p_i$ for all i , m is not a prime.

If $p_i \mid m$ for some i , Then $p_i \mid m - (p_1 \cdots p_n) = 1$

which is impossible since $p_i \geq 2$.

m cannot be a product of primes either. Contradiction.

\therefore there are infinitely many primes

Review Equivalence relations, equivalence classes, partitions

Recall A (binary) relation R on a set X is a subset of $X \times X$
We write $x \sim y$ if $(x, y) \in R$.

Def A relation R on a set X is an equivalence relation iff

- 1) $x \sim x \quad \forall x \in X$ (R is reflexive)
- 2) $x \sim y \Rightarrow y \sim x$ (R is symmetric)
- 3) $(x \sim y) \& (y \sim z) \Rightarrow x \sim z$ (R is transitive)

Def A partition of a set X is a collection of subsets $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ of X such that

- 1) $\bigcup_{\alpha \in A} C_\alpha = X$
- 2) $C_\alpha \cap C_\beta \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow C_\alpha = C_\beta$.

Thm Every equivalence relation \sim on X gives rise to a partition of X

Every partition of X gives rise to an equivalence relation

There is a bijection: $\{\text{equiv relations on } X\} \leftrightarrow \{\text{partitions of } X\}$.

[compare with Nicholson, p 19]

Sketch of proof

Given an equivalence relation \sim on X , given $x \in X$ let

$$[x] = \{y \in X \mid y \sim x\}, \text{ the equivalence class of } x.$$

Then $x \in [x]$ since $x \sim x$. $\Rightarrow \bigcup_{x \in X} [x] = X$.

Also if

$[x] \cap [y] \neq \emptyset$ then $\exists z \in [x] \cap [y]$ ie $\exists z$ st $z \sim x$ and $z \sim y$.

Then if $w \in [x]$, $w \sim x$. Since $x \sim z$ and $z \sim y$, $w \sim y$. $\Rightarrow w \in [y]$
 $\Rightarrow [x] \subseteq [y]$. Similarly $[y] \subseteq [x]$.

$\therefore \{[x]\}_{x \in X}$ is a partition of X .

[The indexing of the equivalence classes is redundant]

Conversely suppose $\{C_\alpha\}_{\alpha \in A}$ is a partition of X .

Define a relation \sim on X by $x \sim y \Leftrightarrow \exists \alpha \text{ st } x, y \in C_\alpha$.

Then \sim is reflexive and symmetric

Moreover if $x \sim y$ and $y \sim z$ $\exists \alpha, \beta$ st $x, y \in C_\alpha$, $y, z \in C_\beta$.

$\Rightarrow \{y \in C_\alpha \cap C_\beta\} \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow C_\alpha \cap C_\beta \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow C_\alpha = C_\beta \Rightarrow x \sim z$.

$\therefore \sim$ is transitive

Ex. Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n > 1$. Define \sim_n on \mathbb{Z} by $x \sim_n y \Leftrightarrow n \mid (x-y)$

Then \sim is an equivalence relation: $x \sim x$ since $n \mid x-x=0$

$x \sim y \Rightarrow n \mid (x-y) \Rightarrow n \mid (-(x-y)) \Rightarrow y \sim x$.

$x \sim y$ and $y \sim z \Rightarrow n \mid (x-y)+(y-z) = x-z \Rightarrow x \sim z$.

We get a partition of \mathbb{Z} : $\mathbb{Z} = \{\{k\}\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}}$.

(Claim.) $\{\{k\}\}_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} \sim \{\{0\}, \dots, \{n-1\}\}$.

Reason: $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \ \exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad 0 \leq r < n$ st

$$k = qn+r \Rightarrow n \mid qn = k-r \Rightarrow [k] = [r].$$