

Math 347: Fundamental Mathematics

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Contents

1	Numbers, sets and functions	3
1.1	Elementary Inequalities	3
1.2	Sets	3
1.3	Functions	4
2	Logic and Proofs	5
2.1	Quantifiers and Logical Statements	5
2.2	Methods of proof	6
3	Induction	6
3.1	Principle of Induction	6
4	Bijection and Cardinality	7
4.1	Representing integers	7
4.2	Bijection	9
4.3	Cardinality	9
5	The Real Numbers	10
5.1	Completeness Axiom	10
5.2	Limits and Continuity	11
5.3	K-ary expansion and discountability	12
6	Series and Sequences	12
6.1	Limits	12
6.2	Cauchy Sequence	13
6.3	Infinite Series	13
7	Number Theory	15
7.1	Divisibility in the Integers	15
7.2	Modular Arithmetic	19

1 Numbers, sets and functions

1.1 Elementary Inequalities

Proposition 1.1.1 *If $0 < a < b$, then $a^2 < ab < b^2$ and $0 < \sqrt{a} < \sqrt{b}$*

Definition 1.1.1 (Absolute Value)

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

Proposition 1.1.2 (Triangle Inequality) *If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, $|x + y| \leq |x| + |y|$*

Proposition 1.1.3 (AGM Inequality) *If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, $2xy \leq x^2 + y^2$ and $xy \leq (\frac{x+y}{2})^2$.*

Proof: Since $(x - y)^2 \geq 0$, $x^2 - 2xy + y^2 \geq 0$, when we add $2xy$ to both sides, we have $2xy \leq x^2 + y^2$, when we add $4xy$ on both sides and calculate the square root, we have $xy \leq (\frac{x+y}{2})^2$.

Corollary 1.1.1 *If $x, y > 0$, $\frac{2xy}{x+y} \leq \sqrt{xy} \leq \frac{x+y}{2}$, equality holds only when $x = y$.¹*

1.2 Sets

Definition 1.2.1 (Set) *The objects in a **set** are its **elements** or **members**. When x is an element of A , we write $x \in A$, if not, we write $x \notin A$. If $\forall x \in A, x \in B$, then A is a **subset** of B , and B **contains** A , we write $A \subseteq B$ or $B \supseteq A$.²*

Definition 1.2.2 *Sets $A = B$ if they have the same elements. The **empty set** \emptyset , is the unique set with no elements. A **proper subset** of a set A is a subset of A that is not A . The **power set** of a set A is the set of all its subsets.*

Definition 1.2.3 *When $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a \leq b$, we use a, \dots, b to $i \in \mathbb{Z} | a \leq i \leq b$. When $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we write $[n]$ for $1 \dots n$. The set of even numbers is $\{2k | k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ and the set of odd numbers is $\{2k + 1 | k \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.*

¹Arithmetic Mean: $\frac{x+y}{2}$, Geometric Mean: \sqrt{xy} , Harmonic Mean: $\frac{2xy}{x+y}$

²Important sets: $\mathbb{N} \subset \mathbb{Z} \subset \mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R} \subset \mathbb{C}$, in this class $0 \notin \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 1.2.4 (Intervals) When $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a \leq b$, the **closed interval** $[a, b]$ is $\{x \in \mathbb{R} | a \leq x \leq b\}$ and the **open interval** (a, b) is $\{x \in \mathbb{R} | a < x < b\}$.

Definition 1.2.5 A **list** with entries in A consists of elements of A in a specific order, with repetition allowed. A **k -tuple** is a list with k entries. We write A^k for the set of k -tuples with entries in A .

An **ordered pair** is a list with two entries. The **Cartesian product** of sets S and T , $S \times T = \{(x, y) | x \in S, y \in T\}$

Definition 1.2.6 (Set Operations) Let A and B be sets,

- Union $A \cup B = \{x | x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$
- Intersection $A \cap B = \{x | x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}$
- Difference $A - B = \{x | x \in A \text{ and } x \notin B\}$
- Complement $A^c = U - A$

If $A \cap B = \emptyset$, they are **disjoint**.

1.3 Functions

Definition 1.3.1 (Function) A **function** f from a set A to a set B assigns to each $a \in A$ a single element $f(a) \in B$, called the **image** of a under f . For a function $f : A \rightarrow B$, A is the **domain**, B is the **target**. The **image** of f is $\{f(a), a \in A\}$.³

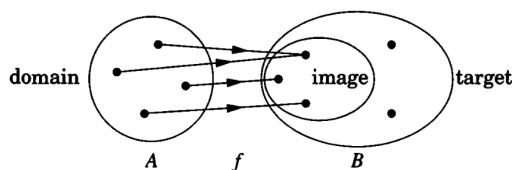


Figure 1: Mapping

³A function is called **well-defined** means that rules assign to each element of A exactly one element, belonging to B .

Definition 1.3.2 For 2 functions f and g , $f = g$ when they have same domain, same target and $\forall x \in \text{domain}$, $f(x) = g(x)$.

Definition 1.3.3 A function is **real-valued** if its image is a subset of \mathbb{R} . If f and g are real-valued functions on A , $f + g$ and fg will be real-valued functions on A defined by $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ and $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$.

Definition 1.3.4 (Polynomial) A real **polynomial** in one variable is a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^k c_i x^i$$

where k is a nonnegative integer and c_0, \dots, c_k are real numbers called the coefficients of f . The **degree** of f is the largest d such that $c_d \neq 0$.

Definition 1.3.5 A set $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is **bounded** if $\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in S, |x| \leq M$, or the set is **unbounded**.

Definition 1.3.6 A function is **increasing** in a certain interval if $\forall x_2 > x_1, f(x_2) > f(x_1)$, **decreasing** if $f(x_2) < f(x_1)$.

2 Logic and Proofs

2.1 Quantifiers and Logical Statements

Definition 2.1.1 (Mathematical Statement) A **mathematical statement** is a statement that can be evaluated to be true or false.

Definition 2.1.2 (Quantifier) Suppose $P(x)$ is a statement involving the variable x which can take values in a set S , then:

- **Universally quantified:** For all $x \in S, P(x)$ is true, denoted as $\forall x \in S$, such that $P(x)$ is true.
- **Existentially quantified:** There exists an $x \in S$ such that $P(x)$ is true, denoted as $\exists x \in S, P(x)$ is true.

Definition 2.1.3 (Logical Connectives) Suppose P and Q are mathematical statements,

- *Negation(not P): $\neg P$*
- *Conjunction(P and Q): $P \wedge Q$*
- *Disjunction(P or Q): $P \vee Q$*
- *Bicondition(P if & only if Q): $P \Leftrightarrow Q$*
- *Condition(P implies Q)⁴: $P \Rightarrow Q$*

Rule of negation:

- $\neg[(\forall x)P(x)] \Leftrightarrow (\exists x)(\neg P(x))$
- $\neg[(\exists x)P(x)] \Leftrightarrow (\forall x)(\neg P(x))$

2.2 Methods of proof

Direct method of proof: Assume P and argue via logical deduction that Q is also true ($P \Rightarrow Q$).

Contrapositive Assume $\neg Q$ follow deductions and conclude $\neg P$ is true ($\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$).

Methods of Contradiction Assume p and $\neg Q$, follow deductions and obtain a contradiction.

3 Induction

3.1 Principle of Induction

Definition 3.1.1 The set \mathbb{N} of natural numbers is the intersection of all sets $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ that have the following properties:

1. $1 \in S$
2. If $x \in S$, then $x + 1 \in S$

⁴P - **Hypothesis**, Q - **Conclusion**, $Q \Rightarrow P$ - **Converse** It is always true if the hypothesis is false.

Theorem 3.1.1 (Principle of Induction) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $P(n)$ be a mathematical statement. If

- $P(1)$ is true
- $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$

Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$.

Theorem 3.1.2 (Strong Induction) $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $P(n)$ be a mathematical statement. If

- $P(1)$ is true
- $\forall k \geq 2$ and $i < k, P(i) \Rightarrow P(k)$

Then $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$.

4 Bijection and Cardinality

4.1 Representing integers

Usual way Decimal representation:

E.x.

$$1735 = 10^3 + 7 \cdot 10^2 + 3 \cdot 10 + 5$$

Definition 4.1.1 Let $q \geq 2$ be a natural number. A **q -ary expansion** or **base- q expansion** of n is a list a_m, \dots, a_0 of integers that $a_i \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, q-1\}$ such that

$$n = \sum_{j=0}^m a_j q^j$$

We write $(a_m, \dots, a_0)_q$ for base- q expansion.⁵

Theorem 4.1.1 $\forall q \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, n has a unique q -ary expansion.

⁵When $q = 2$, binary, $n = 3$, ternary.

Proof: The base case, $n = 1$ is true since 1 is represented by $a_0 = 1$.

Suppose, $n = k$ is true, then when $n = k+1$. If $a_0 = a_1 = \dots = a_m = q-1$,

$$\begin{aligned} k+1 &= \sum_{j=0}^m (q-1)q^j + 1 \\ &= (q-1) \sum_{j=0}^m q^j + 1 \\ &= (q-1) \frac{q^{m+1} - 1}{q-1} + 1 \\ &= q^{m+1} - 1 + 1 = q^{m+1} \end{aligned}$$

So $k+1$ is represented by $a_{m+1} = 1$, $a_i = 0$ for $i \leq m$. If a_i is the first a that $a \neq q-1$, then

$$k+1 = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} a_j q^j + a_i q^i + \sum_{j=i+1}^m a_j q^j = \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} a_j q^j + (a_j + 1)q^i$$

So we can conclude that $\forall q \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, n has a q -ary expansion.

Suppose an integer n has 2 distinct q -ary expansions

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \sum_{j=0}^r a_j q^j \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^s b_j q^j \end{aligned}$$

According to the definition of polynomial, we have $a_j = b_j$ for all $j \leq m$ which is controversial to the hypothesis. Thus such expansion is unique.

If $r = s = m$, Then

$$\sum_{j=0}^m a_j q^j - \sum_{j=0}^m b_j q^j = \sum_{j=0}^m (a_j - b_j) q^j = 0$$

If $r \neq s$, without losing generality, we can suppose that $r > s$, then

$$\sum_{j=0}^r a_j q^j - \sum_{j=0}^s b_j q^j = \sum_{j=0}^s (a_j - b_j) q^j + \sum_{j=s+1}^r a_j q^j = 0$$

According to the definition of polynomial, we have $s \leq a_j = b_j$ for all $j \leq s$ and $b_j = 0$ for all $s < j \leq r$, which is controversial to the hypothesis. Thus such expansion is unique.

So we can conclude that $\forall q \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, n has a unique q -ary expansion.

4.2 Bijection

Definition 4.2.1 A function $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a **bijection** if $\forall b \in B, \exists$ exactly one $x \in A$ such that $f(x) = b$.⁶ ⁷

Definition 4.2.2 Power set of a set S is the set that is formed by all S 's subsets.

Definition 4.2.3 If $f : A \rightarrow B$ is a bijection that $f(a) = b$. The inverse of f , $f^{-1} : B \rightarrow A$ is $f^{-1}(b) = a$. The inverse of a bijection is a bijection.

4.3 Cardinality

Definition 4.3.1 The cardinality of a set A is the number of elements of the set. Denote as $|A|$.

Definition 4.3.2 A set A is finite if there is a bijection $f : A \rightarrow [n]$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Proposition 4.3.1 If two set A and B are disjoint, $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B|$.

Corollary 4.3.1

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$$

Definition 4.3.3 If a set infinite if it is not finite. If there is a bijection $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, then A is **countably infinite** or it is **uncountably infinite**.

Definition 4.3.4 $|A| = |B|$ if there is a bijection $f : A \rightarrow B$.

⁶Alternative terminology: one-to-one correspondence

⁷ f is a bijection if and only if f is both injective and surjective.

5 The Real Numbers

Assumption

- $\mathbb{Q} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$
- \mathbb{R} is a **field**, which means it's legal to:
 - add / subtract
 - multiply
 - divide by nonzero real number
 - associativity
 - commutativity
 - distributivity
- \mathbb{R} has an ordering
- \mathbb{R} satisfies the completeness axiom

5.1 Completeness Axiom

Definition 5.1.1 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. A number $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ is an **least upper bound** or **supremum** of S if S has no upper bound less than α . $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ is an **greatest lower bound** or **infimum** of S if S has no lower bound larger than β .⁸

Axiom 5.1.1 (Completeness Axiom) Every nonempty subset of \mathbb{R} that has an upper bound has a least upper bound.

Theorem 5.1.1 (Archimedean Property) Given any positive real numbers a, b there exists $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $na > b$.

Equivalently, $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is not upper bounded.

⁸Notation: $\text{Sup}(S) = \text{supremum of } S$, $\text{inf}(S) = \text{infimum of } S$

5.2 Limits and Continuity

Definition 5.2.1 (Limit) Let (a_n) be a sequence of real numbers, we say that (a_n) **converges** to $L \in \mathbb{R}$ provided that given an $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$|a_n - L| < \varepsilon$$

for every $n \geq N$.⁹

e.g.1

Proof: The sequence $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ converges to 0.
Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. There is $N \in \mathbb{N}$ so that

$$\frac{1}{\varepsilon} < N$$

so $\varepsilon > \frac{1}{N}$. Then $\forall n \geq N$ we have

$$|a_n - 0| = \left| \frac{1}{n} \right| = \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$$

■

Definition 5.2.2 If $(a_n), (b_n)$ are sequences. Assume that $a_n \rightarrow 0$. If

$$|b_n - L| \leq |a_n|$$

Then

$$b_n \rightarrow L$$

Terminology: Say (a_n) is convergent if it converges to some $L \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proposition 5.2.1 A convergent sequence has a unique limit.

Proposition 5.2.2 Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a subset, then $(S) = \alpha \Leftrightarrow \exists (a_n)$ with $a_n \in S$ and $a_n \rightarrow \alpha$.

Definition 5.2.3 A sequence is **monotone** if it is either nondecreasing ($n \geq m \Rightarrow a_n \geq a_m$) or nonincreasing ($n \geq m \Rightarrow a_n \leq a_m$)

⁹Notation: (a_n) converges to $L \equiv \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L \equiv \lim a_n = L \equiv a_n \rightarrow L$.

Theorem 5.2.1 (Monotone Convergence Theorem) *If (a_n) is a bounded monotone sequence, then it converges. If (a_n) is bounded nondecreasing, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \text{Sup}(a_n)$. If (a_n) is bounded nonincreasing, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \text{Inf}(a_n)$*

Lemma 5.2.1 *If $a_n \leq M \forall a \in \mathbb{N}$, then if $a_n \rightarrow L$ then $L \leq M$.*

Proposition 5.2.3 *If (a_n) is nonincreasing, (b_n) is nondecreasing and if*

$$a_n - b_n \rightarrow 0$$

then both a_n and b_n converge and have the same limit.

Lemma 5.2.2 *If $a_n \rightarrow L$, then $a_n^2 \rightarrow L^2$.*

Theorem 5.2.2 $\sqrt{x} \in \mathbb{R}$ if $x \geq 0$.

5.3 K-ary expansion and discountability

Definition 5.3.1 *The **canonical k-ary expansion** of α is the sequence (l_n) defined by $l_n =$ largest multiple of $\frac{1}{k^n}$ such that $l_n \leq \alpha$.*

Theorem 5.3.1 *Let $k \in \mathbb{N}, k \geq 2$, then*

- $\forall \alpha \in [0, 1)$ has a canonical k-ary expansion
- Every k-ary expansion represent a real number in $[0, 1)$.

Theorem 5.3.2 (Cantor) \mathbb{R} is uncountable.

Lemma 5.3.1 *If a set S contains an uncountable subset, then S is uncountable.*

6 Series and Sequences

6.1 Limits

Theorem 6.1.1 *Let $(S_n), (T_n)$ be sequences, $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then*

•

$$\lambda \lim S_n = \lim \lambda S_n$$

•

$$\lim S_n \pm \lim T_n = \lim(S_n \pm T_n)$$

•

$$\lim S_n \cdot \lim T_n = \lim(S_n \cdot T_n)$$

•

$$\lim \frac{1}{S_n} = \frac{1}{\lim S_n}$$

Lemma 6.1.1 *If (a_n) is convergent, then it is bounded.*

Proposition 6.1.1 *Suppose (a_n) is a sequence such that $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ converges to a number $0 \leq x < 1$. Then $\lim a_n = 0$.*

Theorem 6.1.2 (Squeeze Theorem) *Suppose $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ for all n . Then if $\lim a_n = L, \lim c_n = L$, then $\lim b_n = L$.*

6.2 Cauchy Sequence

Definition 6.2.1 *A sequence is said to be Cauchy provided given any $\varepsilon > 0$ there is $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n, m > N \in \mathbb{N}$*

$$|a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon$$

Proposition 6.2.1 *Any convergent sequence is a Cauchy sequence.*

Lemma 6.2.1 *Every Cauchy sequences is bounded.*

6.3 Infinite Series

Definition 6.3.1 *An **infinite series** is an infinite summation $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$. The sequence is **partial sums** is $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$. Say that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n$ exists.*

Theorem 6.3.1 *The geometric theories*

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k$$

converges to

$$\frac{1}{1-x}$$

if $|x| < 1$ and diverges otherwise.

Remark: If $(a_k) \rightarrow L \neq 0$, then $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ diverges.

Proposition 6.3.1 (Harmonic Series)

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1/k$$

diverges.

Lemma 6.3.1 If $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges, then $a_k \rightarrow 0$.

Proposition 6.3.2 (Comparison Test) Suppose that $c_n \geq 0$ for all n . If

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$$

converges and

$$|a_n| \leq c_n$$

for all n , then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

converges.

If

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$$

diverges to ∞ , then if $a_n \geq c_n$ for all n ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

diverges.

Corollary 6.3.1 If $\sum |a_n|$ converges then $\sum a_n$ converges as well.

Proposition 6.3.3 The sequence $\sum \frac{1}{n^p}$ converges if $p > 1$ and diverges if $p \leq 1$.

Theorem 6.3.2 (Ratio Test) Let (a_n) be a sequence such that $|a_{k+1}/a_k|$ converges to a number p . If $p < 1$, then $\sum a_k$ converges, if $p > 1$, then $\sum a_k$ diverges.

Theorem 6.3.3 Consider a series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$$

where $a_n \geq 0$ such that

1.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$$

2. (a_n) is nonincreasing

then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$$

converges.

Lemma 6.3.2 If (x_n) is a sequence, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n} = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{2n+1}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = L$ as well.

7 Number Theory

7.1 Divisibility in the Integers

Definition 7.1.1 (Integer) We denote the set of *integers* $\{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$ by \mathbb{Z} .

Definition 7.1.2 (Natural Number) We denote the set of natural numbers $\{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ by \mathbb{N} .

Proposition 7.1.1 : Addition and Multiplication

1. Addition on \mathbb{Z} is commutative and associative.
2. 0 is an identity element for addition; $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 + a = a$.

3. Every element a of \mathbb{Z} has an additive inverse $-a$ that $a + (-a) = 0$.
4. Multiplication on \mathbb{Z} is commutative and associative.
5. 1 is an identity element for multiplication; $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, 1a = a$.
6. The distributive law holds; $a(b + c) = ab + ac$.
7. \mathbb{N} is closed under addition and multiplication.
8. The product of non-zero integers is non-zero.

Definition 7.1.3 (Divisibility) We say that an integer a **divides** b , (or that b is divisible by a), if there is an integer q such that $aq = b$; we write $a|b$ for "a divides b"

Proposition 7.1.2 *Properties of Divisibility:*

Let a, b, c, u , and v denote integers.

1. If $uv = 1$, then $u = v = 1$ or $u = v = -1$.
2. If $a|b$ and $b|a$, then $a = \pm b$.
3. Divisibility is transitive; if $a|b$, $b|c$, then $a|c$.
4. If $a|b$ and $a|c$, then $a|(sb + tc)$, where s and t are integers.

Definition 7.1.4 (Prime) A natural number is **prime** if it is greater than 1 and not divisible by any natural number other than 1 and itself.

Proposition 7.1.3 Any natural number other than 1 can be written as a product of prime numbers.

Theorem 7.1.1 There are infinitely many prime numbers.

Proposition 7.1.4 Given integers a and b , with $d \geq 1$, there exist unique integers q and r ¹⁰ such $a = qd + r$ and $0 \leq r < d$.

¹⁰The q is called **quotient** and the r is called **remainder**.

Definition 7.1.5 (Greatest Common Divisor) A natural number d is the greatest common divisor of nonzero integers m and n if

1. $d|m$ and $d|n$;
2. whenever $x \in \mathbb{N}$ divides m and n , then x also divides d .

Proposition 7.1.5 For integers m and n , let

$$I(m, n) = \{am + bn : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}. \quad (1)$$

1. For $x, y \in I(m, n)$, $x + y \in I(m, n)$ and $-x \in I(m, n)$.
2. $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}, xI(m, n) \subseteq I(m, n)$
3. If $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ divides m and n , then b divides all elements of $I(m, n)$.

Lemma 7.1.1 Let m and n be nonzero integers. If a natural number d is a common divisor of m and n and an element of $I(m, n)$, then d is the greatest common divisor of m and n .

Proposition 7.1.6 Let $m, n, n_1, \dots, n_k, \dots, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$m = q_1n + n_1 \quad (2)$$

$$n = q_2n_1 + n_2 \quad (3)$$

...

$$n_{k-2} = q_k n_{k-1} + n_k \quad (4)$$

...

$$n_{r-1} = q_{r+1}n_r \quad (5)$$

The natural number n_r is the greatest common divisor of m and n , and furthermore $n_r \in I(m, n)$.

Corollary 7.1.1 Let m and n be nonzero integers, and write $d = \text{g.c.d.}(m, n)$

1. d is the least element of $\mathbb{N} \cap I(m, n)$.

2. $I(m, n) = \mathbb{Z}d$, the set of all integer multiples of d .

Definition 7.1.6 (Relatively Prime) Nonzero integers m and n are **relatively prime** if $\text{g.c.d.}(m, n) = 1$.

Corollary 7.1.2 Two nonzero integers m and n are relatively prime if and only if there exist integers s and t such that $1 = sm + tn$.

Corollary 7.1.3 Suppose that a and b are relatively prime natural numbers, that x is an integer, and that both a and b divide x . Then ab divides x .

Proposition 7.1.7 If p is a prime number and a is any nonzero integer, then either p divides a or p and a are relatively prime.

Proposition 7.1.8 Let p be a prime number, and a and b nonzero integers. If $p|ab$, then $p|a$ or $p|b$.

Corollary 7.1.4 Suppose that a prime number $p|a_1a_2\cdots a_r$, which for $r \in [1, r]$, $a_r \neq 0$, then p divides one of the factors.

Theorem 7.1.2 The prime factorization of a natural number is unique.

Definition 7.1.7 Greatest common Divisor of Several Numbers A natural number d is the greatest common divisor of nonzero integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , if

1. d divides each a_i and
2. whenever $x \in \mathbb{N}$ divides each a_i , then x also divides d .

Lemma 7.1.2 Given nonzero integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n ($n \geq 2$), there is a natural number d and an n -by- n integer matrix Q such that Q is invertible, Q^{-1} also has integer entries, and

$$(d, 0, \dots, 0) = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)Q \quad (6)$$

Proposition 7.1.9 The greatest common divisor of nonzero integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n exists, and is an integer linear combination of a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n .

Definition 7.1.8 (Relatively Prime) We say that nonzero integers a_1, \dots, a_n are **relatively prime** if their greatest common divisor is 1. We say that they are **pairwise relatively prime** if a_i and a_j are relatively prime whenever $i \neq j$.

7.2 Modular Arithmetic

Definition 7.2.1 (Congruence) Given integers a and b , and a natural number n , we say that " a is congruent to b modulo n " and we write $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if $n \mid (a - b)$.

Lemma 7.2.1 *Properties of Mod*

1. $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, a \equiv a \pmod{n}$ (Reflexive)
2. $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ if and only if $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$. (Symmetric)
3. $\forall a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$. (Transitive)

Lemma 7.2.2 For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, the following are equivalent:

- $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.
- $[a] = [b]$.¹¹
- $\text{rem}_n(a) = \text{rem}_n(b)$.¹²
- $[a] \cap [b] \neq \emptyset$

Corollary 7.2.1 There exist exactly n distinct residue classes modulo n , namely $[0], [1], \dots, [n-1]$. These classes are mutually disjoint.

Lemma 7.2.3 Let a, a', b, b' be integers with $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$. Then $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{n}$ and $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{n}$.

Proposition 7.2.1 *Properties of Modulo Congruence:*

1. Addition on \mathbb{Z}_n is commutative and associative, $\forall [a], [b], [c] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$

$$[a] + [b] = [b] + [a] \quad (7)$$

and,

$$[a] + [b] + [c] = [a] + ([b] + [c]) \quad (8)$$

¹¹The set a is called the residue class or congruence class of a modulo n .

¹²Denote by $\text{rem}_n(a)$ the unique number r such that $0 \leq r < n$ and $a - r$ is divisible by n .

0 is an identity element for addition, $\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,

$$[0] + [a] = [a] \quad (9)$$

2. Every element $[a]$ of \mathbb{Z}_n has an additive inverse $[-a]$, that

$$[a] + [-a] = [0] \quad (10)$$

3. Multiplication on \mathbb{Z}_n is commutative and associative; $\forall [a], [b], [c] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,

$$[a][b] = [b][a] \quad (11)$$

, and

$$[a][b][c] = [a]([b][c]) \quad (12)$$

4. $[1]$ is an identity for multiplication; $\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,

$$[1][a] = [a][1] \quad (13)$$

5. The distributive law hold; $\forall [a], [b], [c] \in \mathbb{Z}_n$,

$$[a]([b] + [c]) = [a][b] + [a][c] \quad (14)$$

Proposition 7.2.2 (Chinese Remainder Theorem) Suppose a and b are relatively prime natural numbers, and α and β are integers. There exists an integer x such that $x \equiv \alpha \pmod{a}$ and $x \equiv \beta \pmod{b}$. Moreover, x is unique up to congruence modulo ab .