## Lecture 23, Oct. 24

Woman in Pure Math/Math Finance Lunch

Tuesday 12:30-1:20 MC5417

## 23.1 Theorem.

- 1. if  $b \neq 0$  and  $a \mid b$  then  $|a| \leq |b|$
- 2. a | a
- 3. if  $a \mid b$  and  $b \mid a$  then a = b
- 4. if a | b and b | c then a | c
- 5. if a | b and a | c then

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \ a \mid (bx + cy)$$

Proof.

1. Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $b \neq 0$  and  $a \mid b$ . Since  $a \mid b$  we can choose  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that b = ak. Note that  $k \neq 0$  because if k = 0 then b = 0 but  $b \neq 0$ . Since  $k \neq 0$  we have  $|k| \geq 1$ . So we have

$$b = ak$$

$$|b| = |ak|$$

$$= |a| |k|$$

$$\geq |a| \cdot 1$$

$$= |a|$$

2. Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $a = a \cdot 1$ , it follows that  $a \mid a$ .

$$\{ \forall x \ x \cdot 1 = x \} \models \forall x \ x \cdot 1 = x$$
 
$$\models a \cdot 1 = a$$
 
$$\models \exists x \ a \cdot x = a$$

3. Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $a \mid b$  and  $b \mid a$ . Choose  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that b = ak. Choose  $l \in \mathbb{Z}$  sp that a = bl. Then b = ak = (nl)k = b(lk)

$$b - b(Ik) = 0$$
$$b \cdot 1 - b(Ik) = 0$$
$$b(1 - Ik) = 0$$

So b = 0 or (1 - lk) = 0 (Since  $\mathbb{Z}$  has no zero divisors.)

Case 1: Suppose b=0, then  $a=bl=0 \cdot l=0$ , so we have b=a=0, hence  $b=\pm a$ .

Case 2: Suppose 1-lk=0, then lk=1 and so either l=k=1 or l=k=-1. When l=k=1, we have  $b=ak=a\cdot 1=a$ , then  $b=\pm a$ . When l=k=-1, we have b=ak=a(-1)=(-1)a=-a, then  $b=\pm a$ .

In all cases we have  $b = \pm a$  as required.

- 4. cdots
- 5. Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $a \mid b$  and  $a \mid c$ . Say b = ak and c = al with  $k, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

$$bx + cy = (ak)x + (al)y$$
$$= a(kx) + a(ly)$$
$$= a(kx + ly)$$

 $\therefore a \mid bx + cy$  as required.

Remark.  $a \mid b$  means  $\exists x \ b = ax$ .  $a \mid c$  means  $\exists x \ c = ax$ .

$$[\exists x \ b = ax]_{b \mapsto bx + cy}$$

$$\equiv [\exists u \ b = au]_{b \mapsto bx + cy}$$

$$\equiv \exists u \ (bx + cy) = au$$

 $a \mid (bx + cy)$  means  $\exists u (bx + cy) = au$ 

Remark. Recall that when  $b \neq 0$ , if  $a \mid b$  then  $|a| \leq |b|$ . So b has finitely many divisors (and the greatest divisor is |b|).

**23.2 Definition.** For  $a, b, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we say that d is a **common divisor** of a and b when  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ . When a and b are not both zero, there are only finitely many common divisor of a and b, and b are common divisors, so a and b do have a greatest common divisor and we denote it by gcd(a, b).

For convenience, we also write gcd(0,0) = 0

- **23.3** Theorem. (Properties of the GCD) Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
  - 1. gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, a)
  - 2. gcd(a, b) = gcd(|a|, |b|)
  - 3. if  $a \mid b$  then gcd(a, b) = |a|, in particular, gcd(a, 0) = |a|
  - 4. gcd(a, b) = gcd(a + tb, b) for all  $t \in \mathbb{Z}$ .
  - 5. if a = qb + r where  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r)

*Proof.* 4 To show that gcd(a, b) = gcd(a + tb, b) we shall show that the common divisor of a and b is exactly the same as the common divisor of a + tb and b.

Let  $a, b, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Let  $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Suppose  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$  then  $d \mid ax + by$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ . In particular,  $d \mid (a \cdot 1 + bt)$ , so  $d \mid (a + td)$ . Thus  $d \mid (a + tb)$  and  $d \mid b$ .

Conversely, suppose  $d \mid (a+tb)$  and  $d \mid b$ . Then  $d \mid (a+tb)x + by$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ . In particular,  $d \mid (a+tb) \cdot 1 + b \cdot (-1)$ , so  $d \mid a$ . Thus  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid a$ .