

Reading, Discovering and Writing Proofs
Version 1.0

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Preface

These course notes are meant to accompany the lectures of MATH 135 at the University of Waterloo.

The script, examples and exercises were initially authored by Steve Furino and subsequently modified by Mukto Akash and J.P. Pretti with help from Carmen Bruni. Please send any corrections or suggestions to jpretti@uwaterloo.ca.

This version is an update to version 0.5 used in Winter 2016. It corrects mistakes discovered at that time but several chapters have also been substantially rewritten.

Part I

Introduction to Proof Methods

Chapter 1

In the beginning

1.1 What Makes a Mathematician a Mathematician?

Welcome to MATH 135!

Let us begin with a question. What makes a mathematician a mathematician?

Many people would answer that someone who works with numbers is a mathematician. But bookkeepers for small businesses work with numbers and we don't normally consider a bookkeeper as a mathematician. Others might think of geometry and answer that someone who works with shapes is a mathematician. But architects work with shapes and we don't normally consider architects as mathematicians. Still others might answer that people who use formulas are mathematicians. But engineers work with formulas and we don't normally consider engineers as mathematicians. A more insightful answer would be that people who find patterns and provide descriptions and evidence for those patterns are mathematicians. But scientists search for and document patterns and we don't normally consider scientists as mathematicians.

The answer is *proof* - a rigorous, formal argument that establishes the truth of a statement. This has been the defining characteristic of mathematics since ancient Greece.

This course is about reading, writing and discovering proofs. If you have never done this before, do not worry. The course will provide you with techniques that will help, and we will practice those techniques in the context of some very interesting algebra.

1.2 Why Do We Reason Formally?

But why do we reason so formally at all? Many people believe that humans already know enough mathematics so "Why bother with proofs?" There are quite a few reasons.

To prevent silliness. In solving quadratic equations with non-real roots, some of you will have encountered the number i which has the special property that $i^2 = -1$. But then,

$$-1 = i^2 = i \times i = \sqrt{-1}\sqrt{-1} = \sqrt{-1 \times -1} = \sqrt{1} = 1$$

Clearly, something is amiss.

To understand better. How would most of us answer the question “What’s a real number?” We would probably say that any number written as a decimal expansion is a real number and any two different expansions represent different numbers. But then what about this?

$$\text{Let } x = 0.\bar{9} = 0.999\dots$$

Multiplying by 10 and subtracting gives

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 10x & = & 9.\bar{9} \\ - \quad x & = & 0.\bar{9} \\ \hline 9x & = & 9 \end{array}$$

which implies $x = 1$, not $x = 0.\bar{9}$. Consequently, we need a better understanding of how to distinguish between two real numbers.

Or suppose we wanted to evaluate the infinite sum

$$1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + 1 - 1 + \dots$$

If we pair up the first two terms we get zero and every successive pair of terms also gives us 0 so the sum is zero.

$$\overbrace{1-1} + \overbrace{1-1} + \overbrace{1-1} + \overbrace{1-1} + \dots$$

On the other hand, if we pair up the second and third term we get 0 and all successive pairs of terms give 0 so the sum is 1.

$$1 - \overbrace{1+1} - \overbrace{1+1} - \overbrace{1+1} - \overbrace{1+1} + \dots$$

To resolve this issue, we need to understand how to obtain numbers that represent such infinite sums.

Or suppose we wanted to resolve one of the famous Zeno’s paradoxes. Zeno was a famous ancient Greek philosopher who posed the following problem. Suppose the Greek hero Achilles was going to race against a tortoise and suppose, in recognition of the slowness of the tortoise, that the tortoise gets a 100m head start. By the time Achilles has run half the distance between he and the tortoise, the tortoise has moved ahead. And now again, by the time Achilles has run half the remaining distance between he and the tortoise, the tortoise has moved ahead. No matter how fast Achilles runs, the tortoise will always be ahead! You might object that your eyes see Achilles pass the tortoise, but what is logically wrong with Zeno’s argument?

To make better commercial decisions. Building pipelines is expensive. Certainly lots of pipelines will be built in the next few decades. Pipelines will ship oil, natural gas, water and sewage. Finding the shortest route given physical constraints (mountains, rivers, lakes, cities), environmental constraints (protection of the water table, no access through national or state parks), and supply chain constraints (access to concrete and steel) is very important. How do pipeline builders *prove* that the route they have chosen for the pipeline is the shortest possible route given the constraints?

To discover solutions. Formal reasoning provides a set of tools that allow us to think rationally and carefully about problems in mathematics, computing, engineering, science, economics and any discipline in which we create models.

Poor reasoning can be very expensive. Inaccurate application of financial models led to losses of hundreds of billions of dollars during the financial crisis of 2008.

To experience joy. Mathematics can be beautiful, just as poetry can be beautiful. But to hear the poetry of mathematics, one must first understand the language.

1.3 Structure of the Course

He who seeks for methods without having a definite problem in mind seeks for the most part in vain.

David Hilbert

Let us start with a description of how the course is organized.

Throughout the course, our goal is to develop our mathematical reasoning. We start with the foundations for mathematical proof and then work on four problems - all of which illustrate the need for proof. The first problem resolves a very important practical commercial problem. The second problem results in a new number system and yields a surprising and beautiful formula. The third problem relies on a profound theorem proved by Karl Friedrich Gauss, one of the greatest mathematicians of the modern age. The fourth problem concerns an astonishing result about one of the simplest things we do, count. Here are the four problems.

How do we secure internet commerce? Have you ever bought a song or movie digitally? Have you ever done your banking over the web? How do you make sure that your credit card number and personal information are not intercepted by bad guys? Number theory allows us to enable secure web transactions, and that theory is backed by proof.

Why does $e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0$? This is often heralded as the “most beautiful equation” in mathematics. We know that the natural exponent, e , is a very unusual number that arises in calculus as a limit of a specific sequence of numbers.

On a similar note, i is a very unusual number because it has the property that $i^2 = -1$. This is strange because we know that the square of a real number is always non-negative, and clearly the number i violates this rule.

As mathematicians, we appreciate that π is also a very unusual number even if it is common. It is the unique ratio of the circumference of a circle to its diameter. Why should that ratio be unique?

In addition to all of these, one (1) is the basis of the natural numbers, hence the integers, hence the rationals. Zero (0) is a difficult number and was only accepted into the mathematics of western Europe because of the influence of Hindu and Islamic scholars. Why should all of these numbers be connected in so simple and elegant a form?

How do we factor polynomials? You may have factored positive integers into a product of prime numbers before. We will see in this course that polynomials, which are expressions like $ax^4 + bx^3 + cx^2 + dx + e$, behave a lot like the integers. Hence, there is also a need in mathematics to factor polynomials into the polynomial equivalent of prime numbers.

What does it mean to count? You probably learned to count before you went to school. In fact, counting with our fingers is often the first way we get introduced to the numbers we use in mathematics. We soon realize there are more numbers than we can count with our fingers. But how do you count to infinity? Is there only one infinity?

To understand and solve these problems we will need to learn about various mathematical concepts, such as **modular congruences**, **modular arithmetic**, **complex numbers**, **polynomials**, etc. To work with these topics, we must learn some foundational mathematics such as logical expressions and sets, and, most importantly, we must learn how to recognize and use proof techniques.

There will be a substantial amount of new definitions and propositions introduced throughout the course. Familiarize yourself with these. We will use a system of acronyms (e.g. (DML)) to keep track of the proven propositions (e.g. (De Morgan's Laws)) and to refer to them from time-to-time. *Disclaimer: These acronyms are somewhat artificial and may not be meaningful outside the setting of this course. A similar comment applies to the labels (e.g., Select Method, Construct Method, etc.) that we use for our various proof methods.*

Chapter 2

A First Look At Proofs

2.1 Objectives

1. Define *statement*, *proposition*, and *axiom*.
2. Read our first proof.
3. Develop a notion of *proofs* as convincing arguments that verify propositions.

2.2 The Language

Mathematics is the language of mathematicians, and a *proof* is a method of communicating a mathematical truth to another person who speaks the “language”.
(Solow, *How to Read and Do Proofs*)

Mathematics is an extraordinarily precise language. When making a mathematical argument, such as a proof, our aim is to leave no ambiguity and no doubt about its correctness. This depends on the audience which in this course we will assume is a “typical MATH 135 student”.

However, understanding a proof requires understanding the language. This course will help you with the basic grammar of the language of mathematics and is applicable to all proofs. Just as in learning any new language, you will need lots of practice to become fluent.

Hopefully, in the previous lecture, we convinced you of *why* we need to prove things. Now *what* is it that mathematicians prove? Mathematicians prove statements.

Definition 2.2.1

Statement

A **statement** is a sentence that has a definite state of being either true or false.

Example 1 Here are some examples of statements.

1. $2 + 2 = 4$. (A true statement.)
2. $\pi + 2 < 5$. (A false statement.)
3. There is no largest real number. (A true statement.)
4. There exists a real number θ such that $\sin(\theta) > 1$. (A false statement.)

First of all, a statement must have a corresponding truth value. That is, when reading a statement, we should realize that what is being said has to be either true or false (but cannot be both), even if we do not know the truth value of the statement.

Example 2 On the other hand, the following are examples of sentences that are not mathematical statements.

1. Is $7 = 5$?
2. Find the smallest positive integer.
3. Let $x > 0$.
4. This statement is false.

Let us discuss why the above sentences are not statements. Questions, such as “is $7 = 5$?”, are never statements. We simply cannot assign a “true” or a “false” state to questions. Similarly, instructions to “find the smallest positive integer” or to “assume that $x > 0$ ” cannot be given truth values, and are therefore not statements. The last example is different and paradoxical. Can you see why it cannot be true but also cannot be false?

2.3 Propositions, Proofs and Axioms

A mathematical statement has a definite true or false value. Given a statement, however, it is not always obvious whether the statement is true or not. Throughout this course we will encounter statements like this. We will be interested in figuring out whether they are true or false. Such statements are known as *propositions*.

REMARK

A **proposition** is a mathematical claim posed in the form of a statement that either needs to be proven true or demonstrated false by a valid argument. You will encounter several variations on the word proposition. A **theorem** is a particularly significant proposition. A **lemma** is a subsidiary proposition, or more informally, a “helper” proposition, that is used in the proof of a theorem. A **corollary** is a proposition that follows almost immediately from a theorem.

Consider the following proposition.

Proposition 1

For every real number x , $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$.

This is clearly a statement, but is it true? Well, if we consider the number 5 in place of x , we note that $(5)^2 + 1 = 26$, whereas $2 \times 5 = 10$, and since $26 > 10$, the number 5 does satisfy the claim made in the proposition. However, just as one swallow does not make a summer, knowing that the sentence is true when $x = 5$ does not guarantee us that it will be true for other instances of x . We need to establish this using a proof.

A **proof** is simply a series of convincing arguments that leaves absolutely no doubt that a given proposition is true. Proofs work by connecting our assumed knowledge from previously proven statements, definitions, axioms, etc. in a mathematically accurate way to deduce a result that establishes the proposed truth.

Let us read our first proof.

Proof of Proposition 1: Suppose x is a real number. Therefore, $x - 1$ must also be a real number, and hence

$$(x - 1)^2 \geq 0.$$

Expanding the terms on the left side, we get $x^2 - 2x + 1 \geq 0$. Adding $2x$ to both sides yields $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$. \square

Note that in the given proof, we did not specify any particular number, rather we worked with the algebraic symbol x . The significance of using x is that it establishes the rule in general. The arguments that are used in the proof are just applications of our common knowledge about real numbers and inequalities. Since we followed a valid line of reasoning, the last expression must hold true for the x we started with, thus proving the statement.

REMARK

Here is a common mistake made by students when they try to prove Proposition 1 given above.

Proposition 1

For every integer x , $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$.

Attempted Proof: Suppose x is an integer. Then from $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$, subtract $2x$ from both sides to get $x^2 - 2x + 1 \geq 0$. We recognize that this is just saying $(x - 1)^2 \geq 0$, which is obviously true, so the proposition must be true. \square

The problem with this proof is that we are looking at consequences of $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$. However, this means they have already *assumed* that $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$ holds, which is exactly what we need to *verify* to be true. This is an example of circular logic, and thus this attempt does not provide us a proof of the proposition at all.

Exercise 1

Try to prove Proposition 1 another way. Start with the left-hand side $x^2 + 1$ and manipulate it to deduce that $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$.

Finally, there are particular statements, known as axioms, that are more foundational. An **axiom** is a statement that is *assumed* to be true. No proof is given, nor needed. Axioms are essentially our fundamental beliefs on how mathematics should work. Obviously, choosing axioms has to be done *very* carefully.

There are some very famous axioms in mathematics, such as *Peano's Axioms on Natural Numbers*, *Euclid's Axioms on Plane Geometry*, the *Zermelo-Fraenkel Axioms of Set Theory*, the *Principle of Mathematical Induction*, etc. However, these formal axioms are often stated for a professional audience, and their importance is sometimes difficult to grasp at a beginner's level.

In this course, we will not use a formal set of axioms. Instead, we will write for an audience consisting of other students in the course. Assume other MATH 135 students are reading your proofs. Facts they all should know can be used without proof. This audience should be able to follow your arguments without having to question any facts (axioms) that you use.

Example 3 (Examples of Axioms That May be Used Without Proof)

For any two integers x and y , the following are true:

1. $x + y$ and $x - y$ are integers.
2. xy is also an integer, but $\frac{x}{y}$ may or may not be an integer.
3. $x + y = y + x$ and $xy = yx$.
4. $x^2 \geq 0$ and $y^2 \geq 0$.

Definition 2.3.1

Even and Odd

We say that an integer **even** if it can be written in the form $2k$ where k is an integer. Otherwise, an integer can be written in the form $2k + 1$ where k is an integer and we say that the integer is **odd**.

Exercise 2

Let us now try to solve a few problems on our own.

1. Prove that for every integer x , $x^2 \geq x$.
2. Consider the statement

Suppose x and y are integers, then $x + y$ must always be even.

Provide some evidence that the above statement is clearly false.

Next, identify the mistake in the “attempted proof” of the given statement.

Attempted Proof: As integers, x and y must be even or odd. When x and y are even, we may write $x = 2k$ and $y = 2m$ for some integers k and m . Then $x + y = 2(k + m)$, which is even.

Similarly, when x and y are odd, we may instead write $x = 2k + 1$ and $y = 2m + 1$, where k and m are integers. Once again, $x + y = 2(k + m + 1)$, which is even. This shows that $x + y$ is always even. □

Chapter 3

Truth Tables and Logical Operators

3.1 Objectives

1. Define *AND*, *OR*, *NOT* using truth tables.
2. Evaluate logical expressions using truth tables.
3. Use truth tables to establish the equivalence of logical expressions.
4. Prove *De Morgan's Laws*.

3.2 Compound Statements

Throughout this course we work with statements and their proofs. To understand methods for proving statements, we must first understand how complicated statements may often be dissected into a combination of simpler parts. We may then develop ways to string together proofs of such parts to prove the complicated statement in its entirety.

Our objective in this chapter is to develop some rules for combining several statements to produce a new statement. The truth value of the new statement depends on the truth value of the initial statements that are being combined.

Definition 3.2.1
Compound,
Component

A **compound statement** is a statement composed of several individual statements called **component statements**.

For example, the statement “ $(\pi \text{ is a real number}) \text{ and } (3 \neq 4)$. ” contains two components:

1. π is a real number.
2. $3 \neq 4$.

For the time being, we shall focus on compound statements that are composed of two components. We often label statements with letters such as A, B, C , etc. Suppose A and B are two arbitrary, unrelated statements. Then A would have its own truth value, as would B . We may indicate, for example, that A is *true* (T) but B is *false* (F) by assigning the state (T, F) to the pair of statements (A, B) . Thus, the pair (A, B) can achieve any of the following states: (T, T) , (T, F) , (F, T) and (F, F) .

To form a compound statement S , whose components are A and B , we need to declare the truth value of S based on the possible states of its components. The simplest way to do so is to use a *truth table*. A truth table summarizes the information about the states of each component and the corresponding truth value of the compound statements. We have a few examples of how truth tables are used to define compound statements in section 3.3 below.

3.3 Truth Tables as Definitions

In this section, we will use truth tables to introduce three logical operators: “AND”, “OR” and “NOT”. Note that these do not always coincide with our use of the words *and*, *or*, *not* in the English language.

3.3.1 Negating Statements

Given some statement A , perhaps the simplest compound statement that we may come up with is the *negation of A*. The negation of A , simply known as NOT A , is the statement whose truth value is the exact opposite of that of A . For example, $(3 = 4)$ and $(3 \neq 4)$ are negations of each other.

Definition 3.3.1 NOT

We define **NOT** A , written $\neg A$, using the following truth table.

A	$\neg A$
T	F
F	T

In prose, if the statement A is true, then the statement “NOT A ” is false. If the statement A is false, then the statement “NOT A ” is true.

Given a statement A , we often try to *negate* A by writing $\neg A$ in a manner that does not involve the \neg symbol. For example, $\neg(3 = 4)$ is written as $(3 \neq 4)$, $\neg(\pi < 4)$ is written as $(\pi \geq 4)$, etc. We will see in later chapters that such practice becomes useful when we are trying to prove complicated statements that have many individual components.

3.3.2 Conjunctions and Disjunctions

Suppose A and B are arbitrary statements. Let us now use truth tables to define two compound statements: $A \wedge B$ (conjunction) and $A \vee B$ (disjunction).

Definition 3.3.2
AND

The definition of A **AND** B , written $A \wedge B$, is

A	B	$A \wedge B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	F

The truth table summarizes the fact that $A \wedge B$ is true only when both the components A and B are true.

Truth tables can be used to *define* the truth value of a statement or to *evaluate* the truth value of a statement. For example, if we now specify that

P : π is a real number,
and Q : $(3 \neq 4)$,

then, according to the truth table above, the compound statement

$$P \wedge Q : (\pi \text{ is a real number}) \wedge (3 \neq 4),$$

must be true as both of its components are true. On the other hand, the statement

$$(\pi \text{ is a real number}) \wedge (3 = 4)$$

is false as the component $(3 = 4)$ is false.

Proof Method
 $A \wedge B$

We may also devise methods for proving compound statements by using truth tables. To prove that a statement of the form $A \wedge B$ is true, we must establish, separately, that both A is true and B is true.

On the other hand, showing either A is false or B is false is enough to conclude that $A \wedge B$ must be false.

Definition 3.3.3
OR

The definition of A **OR** B , written $A \vee B$, is

A	B	$A \vee B$
T	T	T
T	F	T
F	T	T
F	F	F

This truth table establishes that $A \vee B$ is false only when A and B are both false.

This is an opportune moment to highlight the difference between mathematical language and the English language. In English, we sometimes use the word “or” to dictate exclusivity. For example, a single coin toss will result in a “head” *or* a “tail”. Here, we are implying that a coin cannot land with both of its faces (“head” *and* “tail”) showing. Similarly, when we defined *statements*, we said that a statement must be either true *or* false. Once again, we implicitly meant that a statement cannot be both true and false at the same time.

Unfortunately, we also use the word English word “or” in an inclusive setting. For example, if you are ordering coffee at your local coffee shop, you may be asked whether you would like “milk *or* sugar” in your beverage. In this setting, you are free to choose just milk, just sugar, or a combination of both milk *and* sugar in your coffee. As a result, there is some ambiguity about how the word “or” is used in English, and we may have to rely on the context to fully understand how it is being used.

Fortunately, however, mathematicians detest ambiguity in the language of mathematics. For instance, we must always keep in mind that the logical $A \vee B$ results in a true statement when A is true, B is true or both are true. In mathematics, *OR* is always inclusive.

Example 1

Each of the following statements are true since at least one of the components is true.

1. $(\pi \text{ is a real number}) \vee (3 \neq 4)$.
2. $(\pi \text{ is a real number}) \vee (3 = 4)$.
3. $(\pi \text{ is an integer}) \vee (3 \neq 4)$.

On the other hand, the statement

$$(\pi \text{ is an integer}) \vee (3 = 4)$$

is false as both components are false.

Proof Method

$$A \vee B$$

To prove that a statement of the form $A \vee B$ is true, it is enough to establish any one of the statements A or B to be true. On the other hand, to show $A \vee B$ is false, we must show that both A is false and B is false.

3.4 More Complicated Statements

We may now combine more than one logical operator to form more complicated compound statements. We can construct truth tables for compound statements by evaluating parts of the compound statement separately and then combine their corresponding truth value to evaluate the truth value of the overall statement. Consider the following truth table which shows the truth values of $\neg(A \vee B)$ for all possible combinations of truth values of the component statements A and B . (Brackets serve the same purpose in logical expressions as they do in arithmetic: they specify the order of operations.)

Example 2 Construct a truth table for $\neg(A \vee B)$.

A	B	$A \vee B$	$\neg(A \vee B)$
T	T	T	F
T	F	T	F
F	T	T	F
F	F	F	T

In the first row of the table A and B are true, so using the definition of *OR*, the statement $A \vee B$ is true. Since the negation of a true statement is false, $\neg(A \vee B)$ is false, which appears in the last column of the first row. Take a minute to convince yourself that each of the remaining rows is correct.

Example 3 Construct a truth table for $(\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$.

A	B	$\neg A$	$\neg B$	$(\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$
T	T	F	F	F
T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	F
F	F	T	T	T

Exercise 1 Suppose A , B and C are statements.

1. Construct a truth table for $(A \wedge \neg B) \vee C$.
2. Suppose A and B are true, and C is false. What is the truth value of $A \wedge (B \vee C)$?

3.5 Equivalent Logical Expressions

Notice that the effect of taking *double negation*, that is $\neg(\neg A)$, is exactly what we expect: the truth value of $\neg(\neg A)$ is the same as that of A . Thus, *logically*, there is no difference between considering the original statement A or the compound statement $\neg(\neg A)$. We say that A and $\neg(\neg A)$ are *logically equivalent*, and express this idea by writing

$$\neg(\neg A) \equiv A.$$

Definition 3.5.1

**Logically
equivalent**

Two compound statements, say S_1 and S_2 , are **logically equivalent** if they have the same truth values for all possible states of their component statements. We write $S_1 \equiv S_2$ to mean S_1 is logically equivalent to S_2 .

Essentially, $S_1 \equiv S_2$ tells us that their truth values are *perfectly correlated* - one cannot be true while the other is false, and vice versa. Thus, logically, there is no reason to distinguish between S_1 and S_2 .

Proof Method

Logically Equivalent Statements

Equivalent statements are enormously useful in proofs. Suppose you wish to prove S_1 but are having difficulty. If there is a simpler statement S_2 and $S_1 \equiv S_2$, then you can prove S_2 instead. In proving S_2 , you will have proved S_1 as well.

Let us look back at examples 2 and 3 from the previous section.

Example 4

Construct a single truth table for $\neg(A \vee B)$ and $(\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$. Are these statements logically equivalent?

A	B	$A \vee B$	$\neg(A \vee B)$	$\neg A$	$\neg B$	$(\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$
T	T	T	F	F	F	F
T	F	T	F	F	T	F
F	T	T	F	T	F	F
F	F	F	T	T	T	T

Since the columns representing $\neg(A \vee B)$ and $(\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$ are identical for the corresponding truth values of the components, we can conclude that

$$\neg(A \vee B) \equiv (\neg A) \wedge (\neg B).$$

Exercise 2

Use truth tables to show that for statements A , and B , the **Commutativity Laws** hold. That is

1. $A \vee B \equiv B \vee A$
2. $A \wedge B \equiv B \wedge A$

Using a truth table is not the only way to determine whether two statements are logically equivalent; we may also use established equivalences to obtain new ones. In general, if we can establish that $S_1 \equiv S_2$ and $S_2 \equiv S_3$, then we may immediately conclude that $S_1 \equiv S_3$. We say that logical equivalence is *transitive* and use this fact many times in this course.

Example 5

Suppose A and B are arbitrary statements. Use the fact that we have established

1. $\neg(\neg A) \equiv A$ (double negation)
2. $\neg(A \vee B) \equiv (\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$ (negation of OR)

to prove that

$$(\neg A) \vee (\neg B) \equiv \neg(A \wedge B)$$

without using a truth table.

Solution. To establish the logical equivalence between two statements, we must start with one statement and convince the reader that it is logically equivalent to the other. Let us start with the statement to the left of the \equiv sign.

$$\begin{aligned} (\neg A) \vee (\neg B) &\equiv \neg [\neg ((\neg A) \vee (\neg B))] && \text{(double negation)} \\ &\equiv \neg [(\neg(\neg A)) \wedge (\neg(\neg B))] && \text{(negation of OR)} \\ &\equiv \neg [A \wedge B] && \text{(double negation).} \end{aligned}$$

Note that the final statement is $\neg(A \wedge B)$, exactly what appears on the right of the \equiv sign. Since we managed to arrive at $\neg(A \wedge B)$ from $(\neg A) \vee (\neg B)$ with the help of established logical equivalences, we may conclude that $(\neg A) \vee (\neg B) \equiv \neg(A \wedge B)$.

Exercise 3

Construct a single truth table for $\neg(A \wedge B)$ and $(\neg A) \vee (\neg B)$ and verify that these statements are indeed logically equivalent. Then verify that these statements are not logically equivalent to $(\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$ and are also not logically equivalent to $\neg(A \vee B)$.

The preceding examples demonstrate **De Morgan's Laws**.

Proposition 1 (De Morgan's Laws (DML))

For any two statements A and B

1. $\neg(A \vee B) \equiv (\neg A) \wedge (\neg B)$
2. $\neg(A \wedge B) \equiv (\neg A) \vee (\neg B)$

Example 6

Suppose A is the statement

$$A : (5 = 2) \vee (3 < 6 < 7).$$

Provide a statement that is logically equivalent to NOT A , but does not contain the word “not” or the negation (\neg) symbol (negative symbols such as \neq , \notin , etc. are allowed).

Solution. Here, we are asked to *negate* statement A .

There are two obvious components to statement A , namely $(5 = 2)$ and $(3 < 6 < 7)$, that are connected by the logical operator OR (\vee). According to De Morgan's Laws (DML), we would have

$$\text{NOT } A \equiv \neg(5 = 2) \wedge \neg(3 < 6 < 7).$$

However, we are not allowed to use the \neg symbol, so we shall use $(5 \neq 2)$ instead of $\neg(5 = 2)$. At this point, we must realize that $(3 < 6 < 7)$ is actually an abbreviated form of compound statement $(3 < 6) \wedge (6 < 7)$. Thus, using DML again, we have

$$\neg(3 < 6 < 7) \equiv \neg(3 < 6) \vee \neg(6 < 7).$$

Finally, we may replace $\neg(3 < 6)$ by $(3 \geq 6)$ and $\neg(6 < 7)$ by $(6 \geq 7)$. Collecting all this analysis in one place, we finally get that

$$\text{NOT } A \equiv (5 \neq 2) \wedge [(3 \geq 6) \vee (6 \geq 7)].$$

Several other logical equivalences provide the foundation of the various proof techniques we will study throughout the course.

Example 7

Use a truth table to determine whether or not $A \vee (B \wedge C)$ is equivalent to $(A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$.

A	B	C	$B \wedge C$	$A \vee (B \wedge C)$	$A \vee B$	$A \vee C$	$(A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$
T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
T	T	F	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	T	F	T	T	T	T
T	F	F	F	T	T	T	T
F	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
F	T	F	F	F	T	F	F
F	F	T	F	F	F	T	F
F	F	F	F	F	F	F	F

Since the columns associated with the statements $A \vee (B \wedge C)$ and $(A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$ are identical, the two statements are equivalent. That is, $A \vee (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$.

REMARK

The previous example verifies the first of the following **Associativity Laws**.

1. $A \vee (B \vee C) \equiv (A \vee B) \vee C$
2. $A \wedge (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \wedge C$

The term *associative* (and *commutative* seen earlier) is also used in other contexts. For example, we say that the addition of integers is associative because $a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c$ for integers a , b and c . Ask yourself what other standard arithmetic operations are also associative.

Finally, we state the **Distributivity Laws**:

1. $A \wedge (B \vee C) \equiv (A \wedge B) \vee (A \wedge C)$
2. $A \vee (B \wedge C) \equiv (A \vee B) \wedge (A \vee C)$

Self Check 1

As in the previous example, use truth tables to verify the remaining laws.

Chapter 4

Implications and the Direct Proof

4.1 Objectives

1. Understand the definition of $A \implies B$.
2. Use the truth value of $A \implies B$ to draw inferences about A and B .
3. Learn how implications can be proved using a *direct proof*.

4.2 Implications: Hypothesis \implies Conclusion

We have just started our journey towards understanding mathematical statements and developing their proofs. So far, we have discovered that a complicated statement may often be broken down into simpler components, and the connection between these components may then be leveraged to produce a proof of the complicated statement. We would now like to start developing the theory of *how* to prove statements.

The most common type of statement we will prove is an **implication**. An implication is a compound statement that has two components, let's call these components A and B for the time being.

Definition 4.2.1

Implication,
Hypothesis,
Conclusion

An **implication** is commonly read as A implies B and is written symbolically as $A \implies B$. The definition of $A \implies B$ is given by the following truth table

A	B	$A \implies B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

The component A located to the left of the \implies arrow is known as the **hypothesis**, while the component B on the right is known as the **conclusion**.

When translating the mathematical statement $A \implies B$ into an English sentence, we often use conditional sentences such as

If A is true, then B must be true

or more commonly written as

If A , then B .

Conditional statements such as implications have been around since the ages of classical Greek philosophy, and it may be worth mentioning that the terms *hypothesis* and *conclusion* are inherited from their usage in logic and philosophy. In English language, the structure of implications is quite easy to understand. The *hypothesis* (also known as *supposition*, *premise*, *protasis*, etc.) appears between the “if” and the “then”. The *conclusion* (also often called *proposition*, *inference*, *apodosis*, etc.) shows up after the “then” and states the consequence of the hypothesis condition being met.

Example 1

For example, consider the following statement:

If I read this chapter thoroughly, then I will be able to prove implications.

Here, the hypothesis is “I read this chapter thoroughly” and the conclusion is “I will be able to prove implications.”

Example 2

Let x be a positive real number. Identify the hypothesis and the conclusion of the following implication:

If $x > 1$ then $x^2 > x$.

Hypothesis: $x > 1$

Conclusion: $x^2 > x$

REMARK

1. We usually only use true implications in our day-to-day usage of conditional sentences. False implications (e.g., if the earth is a planet, then all people are mushrooms) are rare. We must always keep in mind that the condition imposed on an implication being false is that the hypothesis must be true while the conclusion is false.
2. Another point of confusion often arises from the last two rows in the definition of $A \implies B$:

A	B	$A \implies B$
F	T	T
F	F	T

Inexperienced mathematicians often look at these rows and ask questions such as

- (a) How can “false” imply “true”?
- (b) How is it possible that “false” implies both “true” and “false” at the same time?

These questions arise from our difficulty in appreciating the fact that the truth table is simply *defining* $A \implies B$. The purpose of the truth table is to establish the truth value of $A \implies B$ depending on the state of the pair (A, B) . The states (F, T) and (F, F) are just possible truth values for the pair (A, B) , and we assign $A \implies B$ to be true for these states.

Example 3

The implications

If $(1 + 1 = 4)$ then $(\pi = 3)$

and

If $(1 + 1 = 4)$ then $(\pi \neq 3)$

are both true. Another interesting true implication is

If 5 is even, then 5 is odd.

4.3 Rules of Inference

We may try to use the truth value of $A \implies B$ to obtain information about the truth values of the components A and B respectively. This is a nice exercise in logic, and helps us understand how to use previously proven propositions towards proving new ones.

It will be useful for us to remember the truth table for $A \implies B$ in this section.

A	B	$A \implies B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

For example, from the second row of the truth table, whenever $A \implies B$ is false, we immediately determine that A must be true and B must be false.

On the other hand, suppose $A \implies B$ is true. Perhaps we also know that A is true. What can we deduce from these pieces of information? From the definition of $A \implies B$, we see that the only row where both $A \implies B$ is true and A is true is the first row. Thus, we may deduce that B must also be true.

Example 4 Consider the following examples that illustrate these rules of inference.

1. In each of the given cases, assume that it has been established that the given implication is true. For the given statements **P** and **Q**, when **P** is true, discuss whether we can determine if **Q** must be true or not.

- (a) **Implication** : If I do every problem in the text book, then I will learn discrete mathematics.

P : I learnt discrete mathematics.

Q : I must have done every problem in the text book.

Solution: We are told that the implication is true, and that **P** is true. However, **P** only tells us that the conclusion of the implication is satisfied, thus it is still possible for the hypothesis, **Q**, to be either true or false.

For example, I could have learnt discrete mathematics by other means such as attending relevant lectures, reading different books, etc, rather than solving every problem in the text book.

- (b) **Implication** : If the Earth were flat, then Columbus would not set sail.

P : Columbus set sail.

Q : The earth is not flat.

Solution: Given that **P** is true, this means that the conclusion of the implication is false, but the implication itself is true. From the definition of an implication, the only way this is possible is when the hypothesis of the implication is also false. This means $\neg Q$ must be false, so this time we may actually deduce that **Q** is true.

2. Let a and b be real numbers. Is it possible for the following implications to be false?

- (a) If $a < b$ and $b < a$ then $a = b$.

Solution: The hypothesis: " $a < b$ and $b < a$ " can never be true for two real numbers a and b . Thus, the hypothesis is always false and so the implication is true.

- (b) If $a + b = 2$ then $a - b = 0$.

Solution: We have no restrictions on a and b other than that they are real numbers. So if we consider the case when $a = 4$ and $b = -2$, then $a + b = 4 + (-2) = 2$ is true, so the hypothesis is satisfied. However, in this case $a - b = 4 - (-2) = 4 + 2 = 6 \neq 0$, and thus the conclusion fails. Hence, for this specific case, the implication is false.

- (c) If $a = 0$ then $a \cdot b = 0$.

Solution: We know that almost all real numbers are non-zero and, as long as the hypothesis is not satisfied, the implication would be true.

The only time the hypothesis is true happens to be when a is zero. In that case, in the conclusion, would have $a \cdot b = (0) \times (b) = 0$. This means that when the hypothesis is true, the conclusion is also true, and thus the implication is true.

Since there is no case where the hypothesis is true but the conclusion is false, this implication can never be false.

4.4 Proving Implications: The Direct Proof

There are a few different methods for proving that an implication is true. In this section, we will focus on the most obvious method: the direct proof.

Proof Method Direct Proof

To *prove* the implication “ A implies B ” is true, you assume that A is true and you use this assumption to show that B is true. Statement A is what you start with. Statement B is where you must end up.

Suppose a, b and c are real numbers. You may have seen the following proposition in high school.

Proposition 1

If $a \neq 0$ and $b^2 = 4ac$ and, then $x = -\frac{b}{2a}$ is a solution to $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$.

We shall prove this proposition through a direct proof, but before that, let us start by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion of the implication above.

Hypothesis: $a \neq 0$ and $b^2 = 4ac$

Conclusion: $x = -\frac{b}{2a}$ is a solution to $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

Our approach will be to assume “ $a \neq 0$ and $b^2 = 4ac$ ” is true, and try to use this assumption to verify that “ $x = -\frac{b}{2a}$ is a solution to $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ ” is also a true statement. To check whether a particular value of x solves some equation in the variable x , we need to substitute the proposed value of x in the equation and check that the left side and the right side of the equation evaluates to the same number.

Proof of Proposition 1: Assume that $(a \neq 0) \wedge (b^2 = 4ac)$ is true. This means that the components $a \neq 0$ and $b^2 = 4ac$ are both true.

Since $a \neq 0$, therefore we are allowed to divide by a , and thus the fraction $-\frac{b}{2a}$ is a real number. Substitute $x = -\frac{b}{2a}$ into the left side of $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ and simplify to get

$$\begin{aligned} ax^2 + bx + c &= a \left(-\frac{b}{2a} \right)^2 + b \left(-\frac{b}{2a} \right) + c \\ &= a \left(\frac{b^2}{4a^2} \right) - \frac{b^2}{2a} + c \\ &= \frac{b^2}{4a} - \frac{b^2}{2a} + c \\ &= \frac{b^2 - 2b^2 + 4ac}{4a} \\ &= \frac{-b^2 + 4ac}{4a}. \end{aligned}$$

Using the assumption that $b^2 = 4ac$, we get that $-b^2 + 4ac$ must equal zero. Hence the left side of the equation evaluates to zero. The right side is already zero, so the two sides match.

Therefore, $x = -\frac{b}{2a}$ is a solution to $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$. □

REMARK

Here, it is crucial to note that this proof does not begin with the statement $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$. Instead, it begins by manipulating the expression $ax^2 + bx + c$ which is not a statement on its own.

Related to this, it is best to start a direct proof of the statement $A \implies B$ with the sentence

Assume A is true

and end the proof with

Therefore B must be true.

Although professional mathematicians will take shortcuts, when first learning proofs, all your assumptions should be stated explicitly. At no point during the proof should we give the impression that the conclusion, i.e., statement B , has been assumed to be true.

We will see lots of direct proofs in this course, presented in different contexts.

Example 5

Suppose n is an integer. Consider the implication

If n^2 is even, then n is even.

What is wrong with the following “attempted proof” of the given implication?

Attempted Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Assume n^2 is even.
2. Then $n^2 = 2k$ of some integer k .
3. Let $n = 2\ell$ for some integer ℓ .
4. Hence, n must be even. □

Solution: In the “attempted proof”, we cannot yet justify how we obtain step 3 from any of the previous steps. In fact, in step 3, we are actually assuming that n can be written as 2ℓ , but this is true only when n is even. Therefore, we have inherently assumed that the conclusion is true instead of deducing it from the hypothesis.

4.5 Negating an Implication

An equivalent way to express an implication is demonstrated in the following example.

Example 6

Construct the truth table for $(\neg A) \vee B$ and demonstrate that this statement is logically equivalent to $A \implies B$.

Solution: Using the following truth table

A	B	$A \implies B$	$\neg A$	$(\neg A) \vee B$
T	T	T	F	T
T	F	F	F	F
F	T	T	T	T
F	F	T	T	T

we get that $(\neg A) \vee B \equiv A \implies B$.

Perhaps the most important aspect of the equivalence $(\neg A) \vee B \equiv A \implies B$ is that it allows us to **negate an implication** through its components. More specifically, using the rule for double negations and De Morgan's Laws (DML), we get

$$\neg[(\neg A) \vee B] \equiv A \wedge (\neg B).$$

Thus, $\neg(A \implies B)$ is logically equivalent to $A \wedge (\neg B)$. Notice that the negation of an implication is actually an AND statement.

Example 7

Let x, y and z be integers. Negate the implication

$$\text{If } x < z < y \text{ then } x^2 < z^2 < y^2.$$

Solution: $(x < z < y)$ and $(x^2 \geq z^2 \text{ or } z^2 \geq y^2)$.

Example 8

Consider the following implication.

$$\text{If } x^2 < 0 \text{ then } x^2 + 1 > 2.$$

1. Explain why the implication is true for all real numbers x .

Solution: Since x is a real number, the hypothesis $x^2 < 0$ is always false, so the implication is always going to be true.

2. Identify the logical flaw in the following attempted disproof of the implication.

Attempted Disproof: Assume $x^2 < 0$. Then adding 1 to both sides of the inequality gives $x^2 + 1 < 1$. Thus $x^2 + 1 \leq 2$. We have that the hypothesis being true gives us that the conclusion is false, hence the given implication must be false. \square

Solution: The argument correctly demonstrates that the implication “If $x^2 < 0$ then $x^2 + 1 \leq 2$ ” is true. However this statement is unrelated to the original statement. It is not the negation of the implication, which would be “ $x^2 < 0$ and $x^2 + 1 \leq 2$ ” which indeed is false for all real numbers.

Chapter 5

Analysis of a Proof

5.1 Objectives

1. Understand what it means to assume $a \mid b$.
2. Learn how to prove $a \mid b$.
3. Read a direct proof of *Transitivity of Divisibility*.
4. Learn how to structure the analysis of a proof.
5. Carry out the analysis of a proof.

We have have just learned how to prove an implication using a direct proof. In this chapter, we shall analyze the proof of the proposition known as Transitivity of Divisibility, and will recognize it as a direct proof. First, let us introduce the concept of divisibility.

5.2 Divisibility of Integers

For the time being, we will focus exclusively on integers. Division turns out to be a fairly complicated operation on integers. If we try to divide 6 by 2, we get the integer 3 as a result; but if we divide say 6 by 4, then the result $\frac{6}{4} = 1.5$ is no longer an integer. Since we want to deal solely with integers, we are interested in learning more about the cases where the result of a division is an integer.

Definition 5.2.1
Divisibility

An integer m **divides** an integer n , and we write $m \mid n$, when there exists an integer k so that $n = km$.

If $m \mid n$, then we say that m is a **divisor** or a **factor** of n , and that n is a **multiple** of m or that n is **divisible by** m .

Example 1 Consider the following examples.

- $3 \mid 6$ since $6 = 3 \times 2$. That is, there exists an integer k such that $6 = 3k$.
- $5 \nmid 6$ since no integer k exists so that $6 = k \times 5$.
- For all integers a , $a \mid 0$ since $0 = 0 \times a$. In particular, $0 \mid 0$ is true.
- For all non-zero integers a , $0 \nmid a$ since there is no integer k so that $k \times 0 = a$.
- 1 divides all integers. This is because any integer b can be written as $b = b \times 1$.

Some comments about definitions are in order. If mathematics is thought of as a language, then definitions are the vocabulary and our prior mathematical knowledge indicates our experience and versatility with the language.

Mathematics and the English language both share the use of definitions as extremely practical abbreviations. Instead of saying “a domesticated carnivorous mammal known scientifically as *Canis familiaris*” we would say “dog.” Instead of writing down “there exists an integer k so that $n = km$ ”, we write “ $m \mid n$.”

However, mathematics differs greatly from English in precision and emotional content. Mathematical definitions do not allow ambiguity or sentiment.

5.2.1 Understanding the Definition of Divisibility

Suppose m and n are two integers. Let us also make the assumption that m is non-zero. We would like to understand what it means:

1. **to assume** $m \mid n$. By definition, we inherently know that there must be some integer k such that $n = k \cdot m$. The value of k is unknown unless we know the values of m and n , so when $m \neq 0$, k simply represents the integer $\frac{n}{m}$. This k may be used in later expressions such as $k + 1$, k^2 , etc., in order to obtain some desired conclusion.
2. **to prove** $m \mid n$. We must obtain an explicit example of an integer that can be multiplied with m to get n . Often, start with n and try to express it in terms of m . If we can successfully show that n is equal to an integer multiple of m , then $m \mid n$ is true. This desired multiple may be obtained from expressions involving variables that have already been defined earlier in the context of the proof.

5.2.2 Transitivity of Divisibility

We will now look at a proposition involving divisibility.

Proposition 1 (Transitivity of Divisibility (TD))

Let a , b and c be integers. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$.

When one first encounters a proposition, it often helps to work through some examples to understand the proof.

Example 2

Suppose $a = 3$, $b = 6$ and $c = 42$. Since $3 \mid 6$ ($a \mid b$) and $6 \mid 42$ ($b \mid c$), Transitivity of Divisibility allows us to conclude that $3 \mid 42$ ($a \mid c$).

Now you might immediately know that $3 \mid 42$. The strength of this proposition is that it works for any integers a, b, c that satisfy the condition “ $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$ ”, not just for the particular integers of our example.

Now take a minute to read the following proof of Transitivity of Divisibility.

Proof: Assume $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$. Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer r so that $ra = b$. Since $b \mid c$, there exists an integer s so that $sb = c$. Substituting ra for b in the previous equation, we get $(sr)a = c$. Since sr is an integer, $a \mid c$. \square

The proposition Transitivity of Divisibility involves an implication that has some instances of *divisibility of integers* (i.e., $m \mid n$) both in the hypothesis and in the conclusion. The proof highlights the difference between assuming $m \mid n$ versus showing $m \mid n$.

5.3 Analyzing the Proof of Transitivity of Divisibility

Let us analyze the proof of the Transitivity of Divisibility in detail because it will give us some sense of how to analyze proofs in general.

We will do a line by line analysis, so to make our work easier, we will write each sentence on a separate line. What we do now will seem like overkill but it serves two purposes. It gives us practice at justifying every line of a proof, and a structure that we can use for other proofs.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Assume $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$.
2. Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer r so that $ra = b$.
3. Since $b \mid c$, there exists an integer s so that $sb = c$.
4. Substituting ra for b in the previous equation, we get $(sr)a = c$.
5. Since sr is an integer, $a \mid c$.

\square

Analysis of Proof: We begin by explicitly identifying our assumptions and our desired conclusion.

Assumptions: a, b and c are integers, $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$

Desired Conclusion: $a \mid c$

Core Proof Technique: Work forwards from the hypothesis (Direct Proof).

Preliminary Material: The definition of *divides*. An integer m **divides** an integer n , and we write $m \mid n$, if there exists an integer k so that $n = km$.

Let us try to justify each sentence of the existing proof.

Sentence 1 *Assume $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$.*

Here, the author clearly indicates that the hypothesis is assumed true. This establishes the core proof technique.

Sentence 2 *Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer r so that $ra = b$.*

In this sentence, the author of the proof uses the hypothesis $a \mid b$ and the definition of divides. Note that the author is using the symbol ‘ r ’ for the integer that multiplies with a to produce b . The value of r is unknown, but its existence is known by our assumption.

Sentence 3 *Since $b \mid c$, there exists an integer s so that $sb = c$.*

In this sentence, the author uses the hypothesis $b \mid c$ and the definition of divides. Here, the author uses a different symbol, ‘ s ’, to designate the integer whose product with b will give c .

Note that we cannot use the symbol ‘ r ’ again to say $rb = c$. Once we have used r in sentence 1, its role is fixed so that $ra = b$, and thus rb has a fixed value. Since c can take any integer value, then rb is not an appropriate expression for c . If you are confused by this, return to the previous numerical example and try to use the same value for r there. What happens?

Sentence 4 *Substituting ra for b in the previous equation, we get $(sr)a = c$.*

Here, the author works forward using arithmetic. The actual work is:

$$c = sb \text{ and } b = ra \text{ implies } c = s(ra) \text{ which implies } c = (sr)a.$$

Sentence 5 *Since sr is an integer, $a \mid c$.*

Lastly, the author uses the definition of divides. In this case, the m , k and n of the definition apply to the a , sr and c of the proof. It is important to note that sr is an integer, otherwise the definition of *divides* does not apply.

At the end of each proof, you should be able to identify where each part of the hypothesis was used. It is obvious where $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$ were used. The hypothesis “ a , b and c are integers” was needed to allow the author to use the definition of divides.

This completes our first careful analysis of a proof.

Chapter 6

Discovering Proofs

6.1 Objectives

1. Understand the statement of *Divisibility of Integer Combinations*.
2. Discover a direct proof of *Divisibility of Integer Combinations*.
3. Understand the statement of *Bounds By Divisibility*.
4. Analyze a direct proof of *Bounds By Divisibility*.

6.2 Divisibility of Integer Combinations

In the previous chapter we used the proof techniques that we have learned so far to analyze a proof of the *Transitivity of Divisibility*.

When we define a new mathematical concept, such as divisibility, we are usually eager to find out what kind of properties it satisfies. For example, we know that 5 divides both 10 and 15. Then, according to the *Transitivity of Divisibility (TD)*, 5 would divide all multiples of 10, and similarly, 5 would also divide all multiples of 15. What if we add a multiple of 10 to a multiple of 15, would 5 divide the result? For instance, does 5 divide

$$(10 \times 3) + (15 \times 4) = 90?$$

The answer is a resounding ‘yes’! In fact, it is not very difficult to believe that 5 would divide all possible linear *integer combinations* of 10 and 15 (i.e., any expression of the form $10x + 15y$, where x and y are integers). This can be generalized to a new result:

Proposition 1

(Divisibility of Integer Combinations (DIC))

Let a , b and c be integers. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then for any integers x and y , $a \mid (bx + cy)$.

However, we still need to prove this result. In this chapter, we will *discover* a proof of the above proposition.

6.3 Discovering a Proof of Divisibility of Integer Combinations

Discovering a proof of a statement is generally hard. There is no recipe for this, but there are some tips that may be useful, and as we go on through the course, you will learn specific techniques.

Let us begin with a numeric example.

Example 1

Suppose $a = 3$, $b = 6$ and $c = 27$. Then, the proposition claims that for any integers x and y , $3 \mid (6x + 27y)$. That is, 3 divides any linear integer combination of 6 and 27. You might say, “That’s obvious. Just take a common factor of 3 from $6x + 27y$.” That is

$$6x + 27y = 3(2x + 9y).$$

That observation is very suggestive of the proof of the Divisibility of Integer Combinations.

The very first thing to do when proving a statement is to explicitly identify the assumptions and the desired conclusion. Let’s do that for Divisibility of Integer Combinations (DIC).

Assumptions: $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$.

Desired Conclusion: For any choice of $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \mid (bx + cy)$.

Since we are *proving* an implication, not *using* it, we assume that the hypothesis is true, and then demonstrate that the conclusion is true. You may recognize this straightforward approach to be a direct proof. However, in actually discovering a proof we do not need to work only forwards from hypothesis. We can work backwards from the conclusion and meet somewhere in the middle. When writing the proof we must ensure that we begin with the hypothesis and end with the conclusion.

Whether working forwards or backwards, it is best to proceed by asking questions. When working backwards, we may ask

“What mathematical fact would allow us to deduce the conclusion?”

For example, in the proposition under consideration we could ask

“What mathematical fact would allow us to deduce that $a \mid (bx + cy)$?”

The answer tells us what to look for or gives us another statement we can work backwards from. In this case the answer would be

“If there exists an integer k so that $bx + cy = ak$, then $a \mid (bx + cy)$.”

Note that the answer makes use of the definition of *divides*. Let’s record this statement as part of a proof in progress.

Proof in Progress

1. *To be completed.*
2. Since there exists an integer k so that $bx + cy = ka$, then $a \mid (bx + cy)$.

Now we could ask the question

How can we find such a k ?

The answer is not obvious so let's turn to working forwards from the hypothesis. In this case our standard two questions are

"Have we seen something like this before?"

"What mathematical fact can we deduce from what we already know?"

We have seen $a \mid b$ in a hypothesis before. Twice actually, once in the proof of the Transitivity of Divisibility and once in the prior example. Just as was done in the proof of the Transitivity of Divisibility, we can use $a \mid b$ and the definition of divisibility to assert that

"There exists an integer r such that $b = ra$."

and we'll add this to the proof in progress.

Proof in Progress

1. Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer r such that $b = ra$.
2. *To be completed.*
3. Since there exists an integer k so that $bx + cy = ka$, then $a \mid (bx + cy)$.

We also know that $a \mid c$ so we can use the definition of divisibility again to assert that

There exists an integer s such that $c = sa$.

and we will add this to the proof in progress as well.

Proof in Progress

1. Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer r such that $b = ra$.
2. Since $a \mid c$, there exists an integer s such that $c = sa$.
3. *To be completed.*
4. Since there exists an integer k so that $bx + cy = ka$, then $a \mid (bx + cy)$.

Hmm, what now? Let's look again at the last sentence. There is a $bx + cy$ in the last sentence and an algebraic expression for b and c in the first two sentences. Substituting gives

$$bx + cy = (ra)x + (sa)y$$

and factoring out the a gives

$$bx + cy = (ra)x + (sa)y = a(rx + sy)$$

Does this look familiar? We factored in our numeric example and we are factoring here. If we let $k = rx + sy$ then, because multiplying integers gives integers and adding integers gives integers, k is an integer. Hence, there exists an integer k so that $bx + cy = ak$. That is, $a \mid (bx + cy)$.

We are done. Almost. We have discovered a proof but this is rough work. We must now write a formal proof. Just like any other writing, the amount of detail needed in expressing your thoughts depends upon the audience. A proof of a statement targeted at an audience of professional specialists in algebra will not look the same as a proof targeted at a high school audience. When you approach a proof, you should first make a judgement about the audience. As with our use of axioms, write for your peers. That is, write your proof so that you could hand it to a classmate and expect that they would understand the proof.

Proof: Assume that $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$. Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer r such that $b = ra$. Since $a \mid c$, there exists an integer s such that $c = sa$. Let x and y be any integers. Now $bx + cy = (ra)x + (sa)y = a(rx + sy)$. Since $rx + sy$ is an integer, it follows from the definition of divisibility that $a \mid (bx + cy)$. \square

Note that this proof does not reflect the discovery process, and it is a direct proof. It begins with the hypothesis and ends with the conclusion.

Before we leave this proposition, let's consider the significance of the requirement that " x and y are integers". Suppose, as in our numeric example, $a = 3$, $b = 6$ and $c = 27$. If we choose $x = 3/2$ and $y = 1/4$, then $bx + cy = 99/2$ which is not even an integer! This simple example emphasizes the importance of the variables x and y being integers in the conclusion.

Exercise 1

Let a , b , c and d be integers. Prove the following statements.

1. If $a \mid c$ and $b \mid d$, then $ab \mid cd$.
2. If $d \mid (b - a)$ and $d \mid (c - b)$ then $d \mid (c - a)$.

6.4 Proof of Bounds by Divisibility

Here is another proposition and proof.

Proposition 2

(Bounds By Divisibility (BBD))

Let a and b be integers. If $a \mid b$ and $b \neq 0$ then $|a| \leq |b|$.

Proof: Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer q so that $b = qa$. Since $b \neq 0$, $q \neq 0$. However, if $q \neq 0$, $|q| \geq 1$. Hence, $|b| = |qa| = |q||a| \geq |a|$. \square

Let's analyze this proof. First, we will rewrite the proof line by line.

Proof: (For reference purposes, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer q so that $b = qa$.
2. Since $b \neq 0$, $q \neq 0$.
3. However, if $q \neq 0$, $|q| \geq 1$.
4. Hence, $|b| = |qa| = |q||a| \geq |a|$.

\square

Now the analysis.

Analysis of Proof As usual, we begin by explicitly identifying the assumptions and the desired conclusion.

Hypothesis: a and b are integers, $a \mid b$ and $b \neq 0$.

Conclusion: $|a| \leq |b|$.

Core Proof Technique: Direct proof.

Preliminary Material: The definition of *divides*.

Now we justify every sentence in the proof.

Sentence 1 *Since $a \mid b$, there exists an integer q so that $b = qa$.*

In this sentence, the author of the proof uses the hypothesis $a \mid b$ and the definition of divides.

Sentence 2 *Since $b \neq 0$, $q \neq 0$.*

If q were zero, then $b = qa$ would imply that b is zero. So by our rules of inference, since b is not zero, q cannot be zero.

Sentence 3 *However, if $q \neq 0$, $|q| \geq 1$.*

Since q is an integer from Sentence 1, and q is not zero from Sentence 2, $q \geq 1$ or $q \leq -1$. In either case, $|q| \geq 1$.

Sentence 4 *Hence, $|b| = |qa| = |q||a| \geq |a|$.*

Sentence 1 tells us that $b = qa$. Taking the absolute value of both sides gives $|b| = |qa|$ and using the properties of absolute values we get $|qa| = |q||a|$. From Sentence 3, $|q| \geq 1$ so multiplication of both sides by the positive number $|a|$ gives $|q||a| \geq |a|$.

REMARK

When reading a proof of a proposition, you should attempt to do the following.

1. *Identify all the assumptions that have been made.* Sometimes the assumptions may not be explicitly stated in the proof, but you should try to locate them anyway. Quite often there are mistakes in incorrect proofs because of unjustified assumptions, so it is a good practice to keep track of all the assumptions and highlight where each assumption is being used.
2. *Record any preliminary material used in the proof,* usually definitions or propositions that have already been proved. As a rule of thumb for MATH 135, in our proofs, we are allowed to use any definition that has been stated and any result that has been proven in the duration of the course, unless instructed otherwise.
3. *Justify each step* with reference to the definitions, previously proved propositions or techniques used. *Add missing steps* where necessary and justify these steps as well. If a particular step cannot be justified, then the proof is most definitely incorrect.
4. *Identify the core proof technique.* Although we have not seen this yet, throughout this course we will learn several proof techniques and then apply them in different mathematical scenarios. You should try to identify the technique that is being employed in the proof.

Part II

Foundations: Sets and Quantifiers

Chapter 7

Introduction to Sets

7.1 Objectives

1. Learn to define a set using *set-builder notation*.
2. Practice working with sets and set operations: *union*, *intersection* and *set-difference*.
3. Understand *Cartesian products* of sets.

7.2 Describing a Set

We are now going to improve our understanding of some fundamental concepts. In the next two chapters, we will discover sets. Sets are foundational in mathematics and appear in many places.

Definition 7.2.1
Set, Element

A **set** is a collection of objects. The objects that make up a set are called its **elements** (or **members**).

Sets can contain any type of object. Since this is a math course, we frequently use sets of numbers. But sets could contain letters, the letters of the alphabet for example, or books, such as those in a library collection. The simplest way to describe a set is to explicitly list all of its elements inside curly braces, $\{\}$, and separate individual elements with a comma.

Example 1

The following are examples of sets:

1. $\{2, 4, 6, 8\}$ lists all the positive even numbers less than 10.
2. $\{1, 2, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$ is a set that contains three elements: 1, 2 and the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$. Note that the set $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is considered a single element of $\{1, 2, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$, even though $\{1, 2, 3\}$ contains three elements itself.
3. $\{\clubsuit, \diamond, \heartsuit, \spadesuit\}$ lists the symbols of the four suites in a deck of playing cards.

4. The set of natural numbers, denoted \mathbb{N} , lists all the positive integers starting from 1. That is,

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}.$$

Computer scientists begin counting at 0 so the notation \mathbb{N} used in a computer science context usually means the set of integers $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$. Be sure to note that in MATH 135, we start counting our natural numbers from 1.

It is customary to use uppercase letters (S, T, U , etc.) to represent sets and lowercase letters (x, y, z , etc.) to represent elements. If x is an element of the set S , we write $x \in S$. If x is not an element of the set S , we write $x \notin S$.

Example 2

The following examples show how the notation is used:

1. Suppose $S = \{2, 4, 6, 8\}$. Then $6 \in S$, but $7 \notin S$.
2. Let $T = \{1, 2, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$. In this case, $1 \in T$, $2 \in T$ and $\{1, 2, 3\} \in T$, but $3 \notin T$.

Definition 7.2.2

Empty Set

The set $\{ \}$ contains no elements and is known as the **empty set**. We usually use \emptyset as a symbol for the empty set, that is,

$$\emptyset = \{ \}.$$

REMARK

It is quite common for students to mistake the set $\{\emptyset\}$ as the empty set \emptyset . However, $\{\emptyset\}$ is actually non-empty, it contains \emptyset as an element! Thus

$$\{\emptyset\} \neq \emptyset.$$

The number of elements in a finite set is called the **cardinality** of the set. For a set S , we use $|S|$ to denote its cardinality. For instance, $|\{\clubsuit, \diamond, \heartsuit, \spadesuit\}| = 4$, $|\{1, 2, \{1, 2, 3\}\}| = 3$ and $|\{\emptyset, \{\emptyset\}\}| = 2$.

The cardinality of the empty set is defined to be zero, i.e., $|\emptyset| = 0$.

Although small sets can be explicitly listed, many sets are too large to comfortably list all their elements. You may have noticed this when we introduced \mathbb{N} . Fortunately, a lot of sets can be defined with the help of some common rules that each of their elements must satisfy. In these cases, we employ *set-builder notation* which makes use of a *defining property* of the set.

7.2.1 Set-builder Notation

When we work with sets, we assume the existence of a very large set, known as the **universe of discourse**, usually denoted \mathcal{U} , that contains all the objects that we would need in the context of our work. The universe of discourse is often not explicitly stated, we simply assume that it exists. For example, in our work on divisibility, we will primarily be concerned with integers, so it may be safe to assume that the set of integers \mathbb{Z} is the universe of discourse, even when we don't always explicitly say so.

Quite often we will come across sets whose elements satisfy some **membership criteria**. The membership criteria of a set S is simply established by a property $P(x)$ that can be evaluated for all the elements of the universe of discourse, and $P(x)$ is true if and only if x is an element of S . Thus $P(x)$ is the **defining property** of the set we are trying to describe.

Definition 7.2.3

Set-builder Notation

Suppose S is a set that has a defining property $P(x)$ for its elements, then the **set-builder notation**

$$\{x \in \mathcal{U} : P(x)\}$$

is used to describe S . The part of the description following the colon ($:$) is the defining property of the set.

Sometimes we use a vertical bar instead of a colon and write $\{x \in \mathcal{U} \mid P(x)\}$ to describe S . However, this can be confusing because we also use a bar to mean *divides*.

The statement

$$S = \{x \in \mathcal{U} : P(x)\}$$

is read as “The elements of S are exactly all the values of x such that $P(x)$ is true”.

Sometimes we only write $S = \{x : P(x)\}$, assuming that the universe of discourse is implied by the context. However, we will try to avoid this sloppiness in this course.

REMARK

The membership criteria $P(x)$ mentioned here is an example of an *open sentence*.

An **open sentence** is a sentence that contains one or more variables, where

- each variable has values that come from a designated set called the **domain** of the variable, and
- the sentence is either true or false whenever values from the respective domains of the variables are substituted for the variables.

Of course, by substituting a particular element of the domain in place of the variable in the open sentence, we get a statement.

For example, “ $x > 0$ ” is an open sentence. If the domain of x is the set of real numbers, then for a real number, such as π , chosen and substituted for x , the sentence “ $\pi > 0$ ” is a statement.

Example 3 (Set-Builder Notation)

Below are examples of the use of set-builder notation and an alternative form of this notation.

1. When the universe of discourse, \mathcal{U} , is explicitly known, the focus is on a defining property.

- The set of all even integers can be described as

$$\{n \in \mathbb{Z} : 2 \mid n\}.$$

- The set of all real solutions to $x^2 + 4x - 2 = 0$ can be described as

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 + 4x - 2 = 0\}.$$

- The set of all positive divisors of 30 can be written as

$$\{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \mid 30\}.$$

- In calculus, we often use intervals of real numbers. The **closed interval** $[a, b]$ is defined as the set

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \leq x \leq b\}.$$

$$\text{Thus } [1, 2] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : 1 \leq x \leq 2\}.$$

2. When the universe of discourse is not known or named, or sometimes just because it is more convenient, elements of the set S can be expressed in terms of other variables. This alternative form of the set builder notation is

$$\{f(x) : P(x)\},$$

where $f(x)$ is a typical element of S that has been expressed in terms of the variable x , and the defining property $P(x)$ is true if and only if $f(x)$ is an element of S .

- For example, another way of describing the set of even integers is

$$\{2k : k \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

In this example, $f(k) = 2k$ and $P(k)$ is $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Here, as we go over all the integer values of k , the values of $2k$ give us all the even numbers.

- The set of rational numbers, denoted \mathbb{Q} , is described by

$$\left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0 \right\}.$$

Once again, the elements of \mathbb{Q} are fractions of the form $\frac{p}{q}$, where p and q are integers, and $q \neq 0$. Observe that when there are multiple defining properties listed for the variables, we implicitly consider these properties to be connected by an AND. Also, notice here that some elements have multiple representations (e.g. $\frac{2}{1} = \frac{4}{2}$). This is okay but we don't "double count" them.

- The set described by $\{x^2 : x \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \leq x \leq 4\}$ can be explicitly listed as

$$\{0, 1, 4, 9, 16\}.$$

Example 4 Let $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^2 = 2\}$ and $T = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x^2 = 2\}$.

1. Describe the set S by listing its elements. What is the cardinality of S ?

Solution: $S = \{\sqrt{2}, -\sqrt{2}\}$. $|S| = 2$.

2. Describe the set T by listing its elements. What is the cardinality of T ?

Solution: $T = \emptyset$. $|T| = 0$.

Self Check 1

It usually takes some time to get used to the set-builder notation. Check to see whether you can answer the following question.

Let T be the set of integers divisible by 5. Describe T by using the set-builder notation in at least two ways.

7.3 Set Operations - Unions, Intersections and Set-Differences

In this section we shall review some of the basic set operations that you need to be familiar with.

Definition 7.3.1

Union

The **union** of two sets S and T , written $S \cup T$, is the set of all elements belonging to either set S or set T . Symbolically we write

$$S \cup T = \{x : x \in S \text{ OR } x \in T\} = \{x : (x \in S) \vee (x \in T)\}$$

Note that when we say “set S or set T ” we mean the mathematical use of *OR*. That is, the element can belong to S , T or both S and T .

Definition 7.3.2

Intersection

The **intersection** of two sets S and T , written $S \cap T$, is the set of all elements belonging to both set S and set T . Symbolically we write

$$S \cap T = \{x : x \in S \text{ AND } x \in T\} = \{x : (x \in S) \wedge (x \in T)\}$$

Definition 7.3.3

Set-Difference

The **set-difference** of two sets S and T , written $S - T$ (or $S \setminus T$), is the set of all elements belonging to S but not T . Symbolically we write

$$S - T = \{x : x \in S \text{ AND } x \notin T\} = \{x : (x \in S) \wedge (x \notin T)\}$$

Definition 7.3.4**Set Complement**

Relative to a universal set \mathcal{U} , the **complement** of a subset S of \mathcal{U} , written \overline{S} , is the set of all elements in \mathcal{U} but not in S . Symbolically, we write

$$\overline{S} = \{x : x \in \mathcal{U} \text{ AND } x \notin S\} = \{x : (x \in \mathcal{U}) \wedge (x \notin S)\}$$

If \mathcal{U} is the universal set and $S \subseteq \mathcal{U}$ then $\overline{S} = \mathcal{U} - S$.

Example 5

Let the universal set for this question be \mathcal{U} , the set of natural numbers less than or equal to twelve. Let T be the set of integers divisible by three and F be the set of integers divisible by five.

1. Describe T by explicitly listing the set and by using set-builder notation in at least two ways.
2. Find an element which belongs to neither T nor F .
3. Explicitly list the set \overline{T} .
4. Determine the sets $T \cup F$, $T \cap F$ and $\overline{T} \cup F$.

Solution:

1. Explicitly listing the set gives $T = \{3, 6, 9, 12\}$. Two set-builder descriptions of the set are $T = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : 3 \mid n, n \leq 12\}$ and $T = \{3k : k \in \mathbb{N}, 3k \leq 12\}$.
2. There are several choices possible. For example, 1 is not in T and also not in F .
3. $\{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11\}$.
4. The sets are

$$T \cup F = \{3, 5, 6, 9, 10, 12\}, \quad T \cap F = \emptyset, \quad \overline{T} \cup F = \{1, 2, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11\}.$$

Exercise 1

Consider the following proposition.

If A and B are sets, then $|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|$.

Complete the following table and verify that the proposition holds for each of the following pairs of sets.

1. $A = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \mid 30\}$ and $B = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \mid 42\}$
2. $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid \sin x = 0, -2\pi \leq x \leq 2\pi\}$ and
 $B = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \cos x = 0, -2\pi \leq x \leq 2\pi\}$

	$ A $	$ B $	$ A \cap B $	$ A \cup B $	$ A + B - A \cap B $
(a)					
(b)					

7.4 Cartesian Products of Sets

Suppose S and T are two sets. We have already seen several ways to combine S and T to form a new set. Here is another way of doing so:

Definition 7.4.1

**Cartesian Product,
Ordered Pair**

The **Cartesian product** of S and T is defined to be the set

$$S \times T = \{(x, y) : x \in S, y \in T\}.$$

Each element of $S \times T$ is an **ordered pair** of the form (x, y) , where the first element of the pair belongs to S and the second element belongs to T . For two ordered pairs (x, y) and (a, b) to be equal, we must have $x = a$ and $y = b$. So, if $x \neq y$, then the pair (x, y) is different from the pair (y, x) .

Example 6

Let $S = \{4, 5\}$ and $T = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \mid 6\}$. By explicitly listing all the elements of each set, we have

$$T = \{1, 2, 3, 6\},$$

and so

$$S \times T = \{(4, 1), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 6), (5, 1), (5, 2), (5, 3), (5, 6)\}$$

whereas

$$T \times S = \{(1, 4), (1, 5), (2, 4), (2, 5), (3, 4), (3, 5), (6, 4), (6, 5)\}.$$

As this example shows, typically

$$S \times T \neq T \times S.$$

REMARK

We note the following

1. If $S = \emptyset$ or $T = \emptyset$, then $S \times T = \emptyset$.
2. Suppose S and T are finite sets such that $|S| = n$ and $|T| = m$, where n and m are natural numbers. Then $|S \times T| = n \cdot m$.

7.4.1 Cartesian Products of the Form $S \times S$

Given a set S , we can consider collecting all the possible ordered pairs of the elements in S . The resulting set is the Cartesian product $S \times S$.

In an ordered pair, the order in which the elements are listed does matter, so the pair $(4, 5)$ is distinct from the pair $(5, 4)$. So, for example, when $S = \{4, 5\}$, there are four distinct ordered pairs in $S \times S$ as demonstrated below:

$$S \times S = \{(4, 4), (4, 5), (5, 4), (5, 5)\}.$$

Example 7

Let $T = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : n \mid 6\}$. The Cartesian product $T \times T$ is described using the set-builder notation as

$$T \times T = \{(n, m) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : n \mid 6, m \mid 6\}.$$

Since there are four elements in T , therefore there are *sixteen* elements in $T \times T$, exhaustively listed below:

$$T \times T = \{(1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 6), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 6), \\ (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3), (3, 6), (6, 1), (6, 2), (6, 3), (6, 6)\}$$

REMARK

In the previous example, a common error is to try to describe $T \times T$ as

$$\{(n, n) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : n \mid 6\}.$$

However, in the set $\{(n, n) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : n \mid 6\}$, each pair (n, n) has the same number in the first and the second coordinates. Thus $\{(n, n) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} : n \mid 6\}$ only has these four elements: $(1, 1)$, $(2, 2)$, $(3, 3)$ and $(6, 6)$ and so it does not consider all possible pairs that can be formed using the elements of T .

In general, for a set $A = \{x : P(x)\}$, the Cartesian product $A \times A$ is described by

$$A \times A = \{(x, y) : P(x), P(y)\},$$

and is usually different from the **diagonal set** $\{(x, x) : P(x)\}$.

An example of a Cartesian product that you may be familiar with is the set

$$\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} = \{(x, y) : x \in \mathbb{R}, y \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

The elements of this set are represented by the points on a two dimensional Cartesian plane, and the diagonal set contains all the points on the line $y = x$ (see Figure 7.4.1).

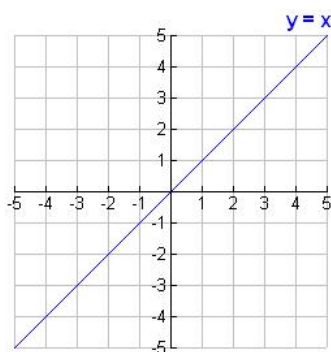


Figure 7.4.1: The Cartesian plane is a visualization of $\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$

Chapter 8

Subsets, Set Equality, Converse and If and Only If

8.1 Objectives

1. To understand the concept of *subsets*, *supersets* and *powersets*.
2. To learn how to prove that two sets are *disjoint*, or one is *contained as a subset* of the other, or they are *equal*.
3. Define the *converse* of an implication.
4. Establish connection between *set equality* and *if and only if* statements.

8.2 Comparing Sets

In the previous chapter, we developed some basic understanding of sets and set operations. In this chapter, we will discuss how to compare two sets. Our main criteria for comparison between two sets might be the amount of overlap between the two sets, that is, the proportion of elements the sets have in common.

Suppose S and T are two sets that we want to compare. Let us start with a few definitions.

Definition 8.2.1
Disjoint Sets

S and T are said to be **disjoint sets** when $S \cap T = \emptyset$.

In other words, we say S and T are disjoint when they have nothing in common. For example, the sets $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and $\{5, 6, 7\}$ are disjoint. Similarly $\{1, 2, 3\}$ is disjoint from the set $\{\{1\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 2, 3\}\}$. Finally, note that the empty set \emptyset is disjoint from every other set.

If we consider two sets S and T from the same universe \mathcal{U} , then they may or may not be disjoint. When two sets are not disjoint, they share some common elements (i.e., $S \cap T \neq \emptyset$). In an extreme scenario, it is possible that all the elements of one set, say S , are also shared by T .

Definition 8.2.2**Subset**

A set S is called a **subset** of a set T , and is written $S \subseteq T$, when every element of S belongs to T .

Notice that we may rewrite the definition of $S \subseteq T$ in terms of an implication. Suppose we consider an object x from the universe of discourse \mathcal{U} , then $S \subseteq T$ **means if x is an element of S then x must be an element of T** . If there is even a single element of S that does not belong to T , then S cannot be a subset of T . When S is not a subset of T , we write $S \not\subseteq T$.

Given two particular sets S and T , mathematicians must become skilled at verifying whether $S \subseteq T$ or not.

Proof Method $S \subseteq T$

To prove $S \subseteq T$, prove the implication: $x \in S \implies x \in T$. Usually, this is done through a *direct proof*.

Example 1

Let S be the set of all roots of $f(x) = (x^2 - 1)\sin x$. We could write S more symbolically as

$$S = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : f(x) = 0\}.$$

Let T be the set of integer multiples of π . We could also write T more symbolically as

$$T = \{n\pi : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

1. Show that $T \subseteq S$.

Solution: We start by assuming that x is an element of T . Therefore, by the defining property of T , $x = n\pi$, for some integer n . Since $\sin(n\pi) = 0$ for all integers n , we know that

$$f(x) = f(n\pi) = ((n\pi)^2 - 1)\sin(n\pi) = 0.$$

Now, the defining property of S is that a real number x belongs to S if and only if $f(x) = 0$. Since $f(n\pi) = 0$, $n\pi \in S$. Thus, we have proven that if $x \in T$, then $x \in S$. This is equivalent to showing $T \subseteq S$.

2. Is $S \subseteq T$? Justify your answer.

Solution: No. Consider $x = 1$. The value $x = 1$ is a solution to $(x^2 - 1)\sin x = 0$ and so belongs to S , but it is not an integer multiple of π , so it does not belong to T . That is, $S \not\subseteq T$.

8.2.1 Concepts related to Subsets

There are a few more concepts related to subsets that we need to define.

Definition 8.2.3**Proper Subset**

A set S is called a **proper subset** of a set T , and written $S \subsetneq T$, if every element of S belongs to T and there exists at least one element in T which does not belong to S .

Example 2

For example,

$$\{1, 2, 3\} \subsetneq \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$$

REMARK

You may have seen the notation $S \subset T$ being used to denote “ S is a proper subset of T ”. However, this is not universal. Some authors use $S \subset T$ to mean $S \subseteq T$ as well. To avoid any potential confusion, we will not be using the notation $S \subset T$, and will explicitly use $S \subseteq T$ or $S \subsetneq T$ as needed.

Definition 8.2.4**Superset**

A set S is called a **superset** of a set T , and written $S \supseteq T$, if every element of T belongs to S . $S \supseteq T$ is equivalent to $T \subseteq S$.

Example 3

$$\{1, 2, 3, 4\} \supseteq \{1, 2, 3\}$$

Definition 8.2.5**Proper Superset**

As before, a set S is called a **proper superset** of a set T , and written $S \supsetneq T$, if every element of T belongs to S and there exists an element in S which does not belong to T .

Example 4

$$\{1, 2, 3, 4\} \supsetneq \{1, 2, 3\}$$

Example 5

The empty set \emptyset is a subset of any given set S .

The entire set S is also a subset of itself (i.e., $S \subseteq S$), but it is not a *proper subset*.

Example 6

Let S, T, V and W be sets. Prove that if $S \subseteq V$ and $T \subseteq W$, then $S \times T \subseteq V \times W$.

Proof: Assume that $S \subseteq V$ and $T \subseteq W$.

Let $(x, y) \in S \times T$. Then, by definition, $x \in S$ and $y \in T$. Since $S \subseteq V$, then $x \in S$ implies $x \in V$. Similarly, $y \in T$ means that $y \in W$. Thus $(x, y) \in V \times W$. Therefore $S \times T \subseteq V \times W$. \square

Self Check 1

Let S, T and V be three sets. Check that you can prove: If $S \subseteq T$ and $T \subseteq V$ then $S \subseteq V$.

8.3 Showing Two Sets Are Equal

Definition 8.3.1

Set Equality

We say that two sets S and T are **equal**, and write $S = T$, when $S \subseteq T$ and $T \subseteq S$.

According to the definition of set equality, two sets S and T are equal when every element of S is in T and every element of T is in S . That is, $S = T$ means that for every element x from the universe of discourse,

$$[(x \in S) \implies (x \in T)] \text{ AND } [(x \in T) \implies (x \in S)]$$

is a true statement. More informally, $S = T$ means S and T have exactly the same elements.

Example 7

Suppose we define three sets A , B and C as

$$A = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} : 10 \mid n\}, \quad B = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x \text{ is even}\}, \quad C = \{5x : x \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

Show that $A = (B \cap C)$.

Solution: We shall prove that $A = (B \cap C)$ using mutual inclusion. So we must show

1. $A \subseteq (B \cap C)$ and
2. $(B \cap C) \subseteq A$.

Recall that showing $A \subseteq (B \cap C)$ is equivalent to proving the implication: if $x \in A$ then $x \in B \cap C$. We shall prove this implication with a *direct proof*.

Proof of $A \subseteq (B \cap C)$: Assume that $x \in A$. Then, according to the defining property of A , $10 \mid x$. Since $2 \mid 10$ and $10 \mid x$, by tTransitivity of Divisibility (TD), $2 \mid x$. Hence x is even, so $x \in B$. Similarly, $5 \mid 10$ and $10 \mid x$, therefore $5 \mid x$. Consequently, we may write $x = 5k$ for some integer k , and so $x \in C$. As $x \in B$ and $x \in C$, then $x \in (B \cap C)$. As a result, $A \subseteq (B \cap C)$.

Next, we need to show that $(B \cap C) \subseteq A$. Once again, this means we will be proving the implication: if $x \in (B \cap C)$ then $x \in A$ through a direct proof.

Proof of $(B \cap C) \subseteq A$: Assume $x \in B \cap C$. Thus $x \in B$ and $x \in C$. Since $x \in B$, x must be even. Since $x \in C$, $x = 5k$ for some integer k . Now 5 is an odd number, but $5k$ must be even as x is even. This means that k must be even. So we may write $k = 2m$ for some integer m , and get $x = 5k = 5(2m) = 10m$. Therefore $10 \mid x$, so $x \in A$. As a result, $(B \cap C) \subseteq A$.

Since both $A \subseteq (B \cap C)$ and $(B \cap C) \subseteq A$ have been proven, then $A = (B \cap C)$. □

Example 8

Give a specific example to show that the statement “ $U \cap (S \cup T) = (U \cap S) \cup T$ ” is false.

Solution: Let $U = \emptyset$, $S = \{1\}$ and $T = \{2\}$. Then $U \cap (S \cup T) = \emptyset$ and $(U \cap S) \cup T = \{2\}$. In this case $U \cap (S \cup T) \neq (U \cap S) \cup T$.

8.3.1 Converse of an Implication

Often times, mathematicians ask if an implication in reverse is true. For example, “if n is even, then n^2 is even” is a true statement. A natural question to ask is whether the implication “if n^2 is even, then n is even” is also true.

Definition 8.3.2

Converse

The statement $B \implies A$ is called the **converse** of $A \implies B$.

To obtain the converse of an implication, we simply switch the places of the hypothesis and the conclusion.

REMARK

It is a common mistake for beginning mathematicians to assume that $A \implies B$ and $B \implies A$ are the same. They are not!

We can use truth tables to show that $A \implies B \not\equiv B \implies A$. Essentially, this means that the truth values of $A \implies B$ and $B \implies A$ are unrelated; when $A \implies B$ is true, it is not possible to deduce whether $B \implies A$ is true or false without knowing the truth values of the components A and B .

Example 9

Look at Example 1 and Example 7. We may say the following.

1. For all real numbers x , “if $x = n\pi$, for some integer n , then $(x^2 - 1)\sin(x) = 0$ ” is true, but its converse “if $(x^2 - 1)\sin(x) = 0$ then $x = n\pi$ for some integer n ” is not true.
2. For any integer k , the implication “if k is even and $5 \mid k$ then $10 \mid k$ ” is true, and the converse “if $10 \mid k$ then k is even and $5 \mid k$ ” is true as well.

8.3.2 If and Only If Statements

The above discussion that $(A \implies B) \not\equiv (B \implies A)$ suggests that statements A and B where $A \implies B$ and $B \implies A$ are both true are of additional importance.

Definition 8.3.3

If and Only If

The definition of A **if and only if** B , written $A \iff B$ or $A \text{ iff } B$, is

A	B	$A \iff B$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	F
F	F	T

The statement $A \iff B$ poses an interesting connection between A and B . According to the truth table above, whenever $A \iff B$ is true, A and B have the same truth value. Thus $A \iff B$ is true exactly when A is logically equivalent to B . On the other hand $A \iff B$ is false indicates that A is not logically equivalent to B .

Using a truth table, we may show that $A \iff B$ is logically equivalent to

$$(A \implies B) \wedge (B \implies A).$$

Proof Method

\iff as
 \implies and \impliedby

To prove a statement of the form $A \iff B$, we could prove

1. $A \implies B$ and
2. $B \implies A$.

Example 10

Consider the following statement.

An integer n is even if and only if $n + 1$ is odd.

To prove this, we must consider both directions. That is, we must prove that if n is even, then $n + 1$ is odd and if $n + 1$ is odd, then n is even. Note that we won't always see such short simple proofs!

Proof:

\implies

Assume that n is even. Then $n = 2k$ for some integer k . Hence $n + 1 = 2k + 1$. That is, $n + 1$ is odd.

\impliedby

Assume that $n + 1$ is odd. Then $n + 1 = 2\ell + 1$ for some integer ℓ . Hence $n = 2\ell$. That is, n is even. \square

REMARK

Mathematicians often write definitions like this:

An integer is a **perfect square** *if* it equals k^2 for some integer k .

This is sloppy and technically incorrect. We really should say

An integer is a **perfect square** *if and only if* it equals k^2 for some integer k .

Definition 8.3.4

Perfect Square

The convention is that when “if” is used in this way in a definition, it really means “if and only if”. Since this is so common, we will sometimes begrudgingly adopt this norm in this course.

Sometimes, we can also use a chain of true if and only if statements to prove a statement is true. Recall the following proposition from an earlier chapter.

Proposition 1

For every real number x , $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$.

Our attempted direct proof of this result failed because it began by implicitly assuming the statement to be proved was true. Instead, we can continually write equivalent statements:

Proof: For every real number x ,

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + 1 \geq 2x &\iff x^2 - 2x + 1 \geq 0 \\ &\iff (x - 1)^2 \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Since the square of any real number is never negative, the last statement is true. Hence all the equivalent statements including $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$ are true for all real numbers x . \square

This proof technique is succinct and correct. However, it requires the reader to check that each step is “correct in both directions”. For example, above, the reader must verify that $x^2 - 2x + 1 \geq 0 \implies (x - 1)^2 \geq 0$ and that $(x - 1)^2 \geq 0 \implies x^2 - 2x + 1 \geq 0$. As it is in this case, the “reversibility” of each step should be easy to verify. Sometimes, a step is only true in one direction! Other times it is true in both directions but this is unclear and further justification is required. There may also be a large number of steps involved. So, we often advise novice proof writers to write out both directions separately.

Example 11

Let x be a real number and consider the following statement.

$$|x + 3| < \frac{1}{2} \text{ if and only if } |4x + 13| < 3.$$

An erroneous proof is provided below. Clearly state the fundamental error in the argument and explain why it is an error.

Proof: Let x be a real number.

$$\begin{aligned} |x + 3| < \frac{1}{2} &\iff -\frac{1}{2} < x + 3 < \frac{1}{2} \\ &\iff -\frac{7}{2} < x < -\frac{5}{2} \\ &\iff -14 < 4x < -10 \\ &\iff -1 < 4x + 13 < 3 \\ &\iff -3 < 4x + 13 < 3 \\ &\iff |4x + 13| < 3. \end{aligned}$$

\square

Solution: It is false to claim The statement $(-1 < 4x + 13 < 3) \iff (-3 < 4x + 13 < 3)$ holds for any real number x . For example, when $x = -3$, $(-1 < 4x + 13 < 3)$ is false but $(-3 < 4x + 13 < 3)$ is true.

It is important to understand that $(-1 < 4x + 13 < 3) \implies (-3 < 4x + 13 < 3)$ is true for all real numbers x because $-3 < -1$. Only its converse is false. So the corresponding step in the proof is not “reversible”.

Finally, note that the original statement itself is false (the forward direction is however true) but noticing this is different than identifying the fundamental flaw in a purported proof of the statement.

8.3.3 Set Equality and If and Only If Statements

Proof Method

$$S = T$$

Given sets S and T , there are two logically equivalent ways to prove that $S = T$:

Mutual Inclusion: Show that each of the set relations $S \subseteq T$ and $T \subseteq S$ is true.

Chain of If and Only If Statements: Show, through a chain of true if and only if statements, that $(x \in S) \iff (x \in T)$ is a true statement for every x from the universe of discourse.

We present two proofs of the same statement about sets. The first uses mutual inclusion and the second uses a chain of if and only if statements.

Proposition 2

Let A , B and C be arbitrary sets.

$$A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$$

Proof: This proof uses mutual inclusion. That is, we will show

1. $A \cup (B \cap C) \subseteq (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.
2. $A \cup (B \cap C) \supseteq (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.

Equivalently, we must show

1. If $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$, then $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$.
2. If $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$, then $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$.

Let $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$. By the definition of union, $x \in A$ or $x \in (B \cap C)$. If $x \in A$, then by the definition of union, $x \in A \cup B$ and $x \in A \cup C$, that is $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$. If $x \in B \cap C$, then by the definition of intersection, $x \in B$ and $x \in C$. But then by the definition of union, $x \in A \cup B$ and $x \in A \cup C$. Hence, by the definition of intersection, $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$. In both cases, $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ as required.

Let $x \in (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$. By the definition of intersection, $x \in A \cup B$ and $x \in A \cup C$. If $x \in A$, then by the definition of union, $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$. If $x \notin A$, then by the definition of union and the fact that $x \in A \cup B$, $x \in B$. Similarly, $x \in C$. But then, by the definition

of intersection, $x \in B \cap C$. By the definition of union, $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$. In both cases, $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$. □

REMARK

Notice that we used *cases* to help with our proof. An arbitrary element x is either in a set or not in a set. This can often be used to help with a condition like $x \in A \cup B$.

Proof: This proof uses a chain of if and only if statements to show that both $A \cup (B \cap C)$ and $(A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$ have exactly the same elements. Let $x \in A \cup (B \cap C)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 x \in A \cup (B \cap C) & \\
 \iff (x \in A) \vee (x \in (B \cap C)) & \text{definition of union} \\
 \iff (x \in A) \vee ((x \in B) \wedge (x \in C)) & \text{definition of intersection} \\
 \iff ((x \in A) \vee (x \in B)) \wedge ((x \in A) \vee (x \in C)) & \text{Distributive Law of logic} \\
 \iff (x \in A \cup B) \wedge (x \in A \cup C) & \text{definition of union} \\
 \iff x \in ((A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)) & \text{definition of intersection}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

8.4 Discovering: Sets of Solutions

One common use of sets is to describe values which are solutions to an equation, but care in expression is required here. The following two sentences mean different things.

1. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, $a \neq 0$ and $b^2 - 4ac \geq 0$. The solutions to the quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ are $x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$.
2. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, $a \neq 0$ and $b^2 - 4ac \geq 0$. Then $x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$ are solutions to the quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$.

The first sentence asserts that a complete description of all solutions is given. The second sentence only asserts that $x = (-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac})/2a$ are solutions, not that they are the *complete* solution. In the language of sets, if S is the complete solution (set of all solutions) to $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$, and $T = \{(-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac})/2a\}$, Sentence 1 asserts that $S = T$ (which implies $S \subseteq T$ and $T \subseteq S$) but Sentence 2 only asserts that $T \subseteq S$.

This point can be confusing. Statements about solutions are often implicitly divided into two sets: the set S of all solutions and a set T of proposed solutions. One must be careful to determine whether the statement is equivalent to $S = T$ or $T \subseteq S$. Phrases like *the solution* or *complete solution* or *all solutions* indicate $S = T$. Phrases like *a solution* or *are solutions* indicate $T \subseteq S$.

Similar confusion arises when showing that sets have more than one representation. For example, a circle centered at the origin O is often defined geometrically as the set of points equidistant from O . Others define a circle algebraically in the Cartesian plane as the set of points satisfying $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$. To show that the two definitions describe the same object, one must show that the two sets of points are equal.

Self Check 2 Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, $a \neq 0$ and $b^2 - 4ac \geq 0$. Check that you can prove the statement:

Proposition 3 The solutions to the quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ are $x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$.

Consider the approach outlined in this section. Define two sets S and T to be

$$S = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid ax^2 + bx + c = 0\} \quad \text{and} \quad T = \left\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}\right\}.$$

Demonstrate that $S = T$.

Chapter 9

Quantifiers

9.1 Objectives

1. Learn the basic structure of statements with *quantifiers*.
2. Understand the usage of the *universal* and the *existential quantifier*.
3. Learn how to prove quantified statements.

9.2 Quantifiers

This chapter is devoted towards the final piece of the puzzle required to construct well-formed mathematical statements involving variables. Let us recall some of the statements that we have seen so far:

1. For every integer x , $x^2 + 1 \geq 2x$.
2. For any real number x , if $x^2 < 0$ then $x^2 + 1 > 2$.
3. There exists some integer n such that $n^2 - 1 = 0$.
4. There is an integer k such that $6 = 3k$.

The above sentences are examples of *quantified statements*. Each of the statements above contain a variable, and each variable has been introduced through a phrase such as “for every”, “for any”, “there exists”, “there is”, etc. Such phrases are called *quantifiers*, and they give us some information about how to assess whether the statements are true or false.

The role of a **quantifier** is to develop a sense of “how many” elements of a given domain satisfy a given property. In English, words such as “all”, “some”, “many”, “none”, “few”, etc., are used in quantification. In this course, we will only be interested in two types of quantifiers: **universal** and **existential**. A universal quantifier (e.g., “for all”) generalizes a property for all elements of a given domain, while an existential quantifier (e.g., “there exists”) demands that the property be satisfied by at least one element from the domain.

REMARK

All statements which use quantified variables share a basic structure:

Quantified variable in given domain, followed by some open sentence containing the variable.

There are four key parts to a quantified statement.

1. a **quantifier** which will be either an existential or universal quantifier,
2. a **variable** which can be any mathematical object,
3. a set which is the **domain** of the variable, often implicit, and
4. an **open sentence** which involves the variable.

Recall that an **open sentence** is a sentence that contains one or more variables, where the truth of the sentence is determined by the values from the respective domains of the variables.

It is crucial that you be able to identify the four parts in the structure of quantified statements.

Example 1

Here are some examples of statements with quantified variables. We have identified the four key parts of each statement.

1. For every integer k , $10^4 - 1 = 101k$

Quantifier:	Universal
Variable:	k
Domain:	\mathbb{Z}
Open sentence:	$10^4 - 1 = 101k$

2. There exists a real number x such that $x^2 - 2 = 0$.

Quantifier:	Existential
Variable:	x
Domain:	\mathbb{R}
Open sentence:	$x^2 - 3 = 0$

After studying quantifiers more carefully in the next sections, you will see that the first statement is false and the second statement is true.

However, if we change the domain of x in the second statement to integers, we get the statement

There exists an integer x such that $x^2 - 3 = 0$.

This is false because neither of the two real roots, $\sqrt{3}$ or $-\sqrt{3}$, are integers. So changing the domain can change the truth value of the statement. What would be a suitable domain for k in the first statement that will give us a true statement?

9.3 The Universal Quantifier

The **universal quantifier**, denoted by the symbol \forall , is used to indicate that all elements of a set satisfy a common property. Thus the statement

$$\forall x \in S, P(x),$$

indicates that all members of the set S satisfy the given property P . We read the above statement as “For all x in S , $P(x)$ is true” or simply as “For all x in S , $P(x)$ ”.

Example 2

Suppose T is a subset of the letters of the English alphabet, given by $T = \{i, o, u\}$. Consider $P(x)$ to be the open sentence “ x is a vowel”. Then $\forall x \in T, P(x)$ is a true statement as each of the statements $P(i)$, $P(o)$ and $P(u)$ is true. Notice that this means that $P(i) \wedge P(o) \wedge P(u)$ is a true statement as well.

REMARK

In general, given a finite set $S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$, the statement “ $\forall x \in S, P(x)$ ” is logically equivalent to “ $P(x_1) \wedge P(x_2) \wedge P(x_3) \wedge \dots \wedge P(x_n)$ ”

When the domain is empty, i.e., $S = \emptyset$, then regardless of what the open sentence $P(x)$ says, the statement “ $\forall x \in \emptyset, P(x)$ ” is said to be *vacuously* true.

Example 3

Consider the open sentence $P(x)$ given by $x^2 \geq 0$. The statement $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, P(x)$, or equivalently, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 \geq 0$, is a true statement.

In addition to the standard sentence: “For all x in \mathbb{R} , $x^2 \geq 0$ ”, we also often use the following sentences in English to convey the same meaning as “ $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 \geq 0$ ”.

1. For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x^2 \geq 0$.
2. Any $x \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfies $x^2 \geq 0$.
3. Let x be a real number. Then $x^2 \geq 0$.
4. The square of every real number is non-negative.

Here is another example of how we may use the universal quantifier. You may be familiar with the following definition of a prime number.

Definition 9.3.1

Primes

An integer $p > 1$ is called a **prime** if and only if its only positive divisors are 1 and p itself. Otherwise, p is called **composite**.

According to this definition, an integer $p > 1$ is a prime if and only if

$$\text{For all } k \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ if } k \mid p \text{ then } (k = 1) \vee (k = p).$$

Note how the universal quantifier is being used to convey the condition about the “only positive divisors of p are 1 and p ” by looking at “all the positive integers k that divide p ” and inferring that k must be 1 or p .

9.3.1 The Select Method

Let us now discuss how to prove that a statement of the form $\forall x \in S, P(x)$ is true. We want to justify that each element of S satisfies the property $P(x)$. One way to do so would be to go through each and every element of S , and check that the open sentence P is evaluates to true for each member of S .

However, it is easy to see that this process could get tiresome when S has a lot of elements, perhaps infinitely many, and we have to carefully check that the open sentence is true for each element of S . Instead, we use the **select method**.

Proof Method

Select Method

To prove $\forall x \in S, P(x)$:

Select a representative mathematical object $x \in S$. This cannot be a specific object. It has to be a placeholder, that is, a variable, so that our argument would work for any specific member of S .

Then show that the open sentence P must be true for our representative x . You may use the rules of algebra, combined with any other previously proven result, to obtain this.

How do we select a representative object x from S ? We simply declare “Let x be an arbitrary element of S ”, or state “Let $x \in S$ ”. Next, we start using the symbol x as if it has all the characteristics of a typical member of S . The philosophy here is that we could replace x by any particular element from S , and all our steps would be correct. Then, when we symbolically show that $P(x)$ must be satisfied, we are guaranteed that the open sentence would be true for any element of S .

Example 4

Prove each of the following statements.

1. For each $x \in \mathbb{R}$, $x < x + 1$.

Solution: Let x be a real number. Therefore $(x+1)-(x) = 1 > 0$. Since $(x+1)-(x) > 0$,

$$x < x + 1$$

is true. Thus, since x was arbitrary, $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x < x + 1$ is a true statement.

2. For every natural number n , $n \leq n^2$.

Solution: Let $P(x)$: $x \leq x^2$. We know that the set of natural numbers is given by

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}.$$

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Since n is a natural number, $n \geq 1$.

Multiply both sides of the inequality by n (note: n is positive) to get $n^2 \geq n$. Thus, $P(n)$ is true and since n was arbitrary, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$ is a true statement.

9.4 The Existential Quantifier

The **existential quantifier**, denoted by the symbol \exists , is used to express the idea that at least one element of a given set satisfies a given property. We read the statement

$$\exists x \in S, P(x)$$

as “There exists at least one value of x in S for which $P(x)$ is true” or simply as “There exists x in S such that $P(x)$ ”.

Here are some other ways in which the statement $\exists x \in S, P(x)$ is expressed in written English:

1. There is an $x \in S$ such that $P(x)$ is true.
2. The statement $P(x)$ is true for some $x \in S$.
3. At least one $x \in S$ satisfies $P(x)$.
4. The set S has an element x such that $P(x)$ is satisfied.

For example, the symbolic statement

$$\exists x \in [0, 2], x^2 - 1 = 0$$

could be read as “The value of $x^2 - 1$ is 0 for some x between 0 and 2 (inclusive).” However, the standard way to read the above statement is to say “There exists an x in the interval $[0, 2]$ such that $x^2 - 1 = 0$.”

Example 5

Let us look at a few uses of the existential quantifier.

1. The statement “ $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \mid n$ ” is true because $n = 0$ is an integer and $0 \mid 0$. However, the statement “ $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \mid n$ ” is false because 0 cannot divide any non-zero integer.
2. Suppose n and m are integers. The statement $n \mid m$ is defined to mean

$$\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, m = kn.$$

REMARK

In general, given a finite set $S = \{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n\}$ with n -elements, we have

$$[\exists x \in S, P(x)] \equiv [P(x_1) \vee P(x_2) \vee P(x_3) \vee \dots \vee P(x_n)].$$

The statement $\exists x \in S, P(x)$ is true if and only if we can find at least one element from the set S that satisfies the property P , which happens if and only if $P(x_1) \vee P(x_2) \vee \dots \vee P(x_n)$ is a true statement.

Note that $\exists x \in S, P(x)$ would be a false statement when there are no elements of x that satisfy the property P . This implies that when the domain is empty, the statement “ $\exists x \in \emptyset, P(x)$ ” is *vacuously* false.

9.4.1 The Construct Method

We use the **construct method** to prove a statement of the form

$$\exists x \in S, P(x).$$

Proof Method

Construct Method

To prove $\exists x \in S, P(x)$.

Provide an explicit value of x from the domain S , and show that $P(x)$ is true for this value. In other words, find an element in S that satisfies the property P .

The following examples demonstrate how the construct method works.

Example 6

Prove each of the following statements.

1. $\exists x \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, such that x is even.

Proof: Consider $x = 2$. Since 2 is an element of the given domain, and 2 is even, therefore the above statement is true. \square

Note that 4 is also an even number from the domain, so we could have chosen $x = 4$ as well. However, all we need to do is find one element from the domain that satisfies the given property. So once we find one value that works, such as $x = 2$, we don't need to concern ourselves with whether other elements of the domain satisfy the property or not.

2. There is a real number $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ such that $\sin \theta = \cos \theta$.

Proof: Consider $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$. Clearly, $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$. Since

$$\sin \theta = \sin \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \text{ and } \cos \theta = \cos \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$\sin \theta = \cos \theta$ as required. \square

3. $x^2 - 2 = 3x$ for some $x \in [-1, 1]$.

Proof: Consider $x = \frac{3-\sqrt{17}}{2}$.

Note that $-1 = \frac{3-\sqrt{25}}{2} \leq \frac{3-\sqrt{17}}{2} \leq \frac{3-\sqrt{16}}{2} = \frac{-1}{2} \leq 1$, so $\frac{3-\sqrt{17}}{2} \in [-1, 1]$.

Substitute $x = \frac{3-\sqrt{17}}{2}$ into $x^2 - 2$ to get

$$x^2 - 2 = \left(\frac{3 - \sqrt{17}}{2} \right)^2 - 2 = \frac{(3)^2 + 2(3)(-\sqrt{17}) + (-\sqrt{17})^2 - 8}{4} = \frac{18 - 6\sqrt{17}}{4}.$$

Similarly, substitute $x = \frac{-3+\sqrt{17}}{2}$ into $3x$ to get

$$3x = 3 \left(\frac{3 - \sqrt{17}}{2} \right) = \frac{9 - 3\sqrt{17}}{2} = \frac{18 - 6\sqrt{17}}{4}$$

as well. Therefore, the value $x = \frac{3-\sqrt{17}}{2}$ satisfies the equation $x^2 - 2 = 3x$. \square

Let us provide some more insights into *how* to use the construct method. In particular, if we look back at the previous example, how did we manage to obtain the values from the corresponding domain that seem to magically satisfy the required property? There are two ways to find such values as discussed below.

1. *By Trial and Error*: We could attempt to substitute each element of the domain for x in the open sentence until we find one that works. This approach works well when the domain is small, and it is easy to verify whether the property is true or false for each domain element.

For instance, when $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ and $P(x)$ is the statement “ x is even”, we can simply exhaustively examine each of the numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4 until we find an even number. So, we try $x = 1$ and find that $P(1)$ is false. We then move onto $x = 2$, find $P(2)$ is true, and may immediately conclude that $\exists x \in S, P(x)$ is a true statement.

When we write down the final proof, we do not need to demonstrate all the values that we tried, but just use the one that we found to work.

2. *By using preliminary knowledge about what we wish to prove*. The method of trial and error is not such a great idea when we are dealing with infinite domains such as $[0, 2\pi]$ or $[-1, 1]$. In these cases, we try to use any prior knowledge that we may have about the open sentence to try to come up with a value that works.

For example, here’s a table of special angles for trigonometric ratios that you may remember from high school:

θ	0	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$
$\sin \theta$	$\frac{\sqrt{0}}{2} = 0$	$\frac{\sqrt{1}}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{4}}{2} = 1$
$\cos \theta$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0

From this table, we notice that $\sin \theta$ and $\cos \theta$ take the same value when $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$. Alternatively, we might note that $\sin \theta = \cos \theta$ if and only if $\tan \theta = 1$ and come up with $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$. Armed with this knowledge, we may now write a formal proof of the statement “there is a real number $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ such that $\sin \theta = \cos \theta$ ”. In our proof, we do not need to mention how we came across the value of $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$, but just demonstrate that it works.

Similarly, while proving “ $x^2 - 2 = 3x$ for some $x \in [-1, 1]$ ”, we may use our knowledge of quadratic equations. The equation $x^2 - 2 = 3x$ may be written as $x^2 - 3x - 2 = 0$, and using the quadratic formula to solve for the values of x gives us

$$x = \frac{-(-3) \pm \sqrt{(-3)^2 - (4)(1)(-2)}}{2} = \frac{3 \pm \sqrt{17}}{2}.$$

Then we can work with inequalities, or possibly use a calculator to compute approximations, and test if these values are within our intended interval $[-1, 1]$.

REMARK

When we apply our preliminary knowledge in a constructive proof, we usually do it on a rough piece of paper. The final written proof does not usually contain any reference of how we obtained the value that works. We simply propose this value for x , make sure the proposed value is in the domain, and then demonstrate that the property holds for this value.

9.5 Negating Quantifiers

Here is a quick summary of what we have learned so far.

Quantified Statement	When True?	When False
$\forall x \in S, P(x)$	$P(x)$ is true for every $x \in S$	$P(x)$ is false for at least one element in S
$\exists x \in S, P(x)$	$P(x)$ is true for at least one element in S	$P(x)$ is false for every element in S

The above suggests that the following rules of negation should apply for quantified statements.

The negation of “For all $x \in S$, $P(x)$ is true” is

There exists some $x \in S$ for which $P(x)$ is false.

That is, using the symbols for the quantifiers, we are saying

$$\neg[\forall x \in S, P(x)] \equiv [\exists x \in S, (\neg P(x))].$$

Similarly, the negation of “There exists some $x \in S$ such that $P(x)$ is true” is

For all $x \in S$, $P(x)$ is false.

In other words,

$$\neg[\exists x \in S, P(x)] \equiv [\forall x \in S, (\neg P(x))].$$

These rules of negation help us understand the methods for *disproving* quantified statements.

1. To show $\forall x \in S, P(x)$ is *false*, we need to prove $\exists x \in S, (\neg P(x))$. Thus, we need to find a value of x from the domain S for which P is false. This process is called *finding a counter-example*.

For example, the statement: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n! < 2^n$ is false, because when $n = 4$, we have $4! = 24$, but $2^4 = 16$, so $4! > 2^4$. Thus $n = 4$ acts as a counter-example to the statement $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n! < 2^n$.

2. To show $\exists x \in S, P(x)$ is *false*, we need to show that $\forall x \in S, (\neg P(x))$ is true. This involves the *select method*. We must show that $P(x)$ fails for any arbitrary x from the domain.

For example, we may show that $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}, n^2 < n$ is false by proving $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n^2 \geq n$, which we have already done in an earlier example (see Example 4).

Self Check 1

Check that you can negate the following statement without using the word “not” or the “ \neg ” symbol:

For all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, if $x^4 + 2x^2 - 2x < 0$ then $0 < x < 1$.

Either prove or disprove the statement above.

9.6 Assuming a Quantified Statement is True

Let us now discuss the consequence of assuming a statement such as “ $\forall x \in S, P(x)$ ” or “ $\exists x \in S, P(x)$ ” is true.

9.6.1 The Substitution Method

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the following statement about n :

If $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}, n \mid x$ then $n = 1$.

To directly prove this implication, we assume that the hypothesis “ $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}, n \mid x$ ” is true. This is a very strong assumption. By our assumption, we may substitute any positive integer in place of x , and the property $n \mid x$ must be satisfied for that value of x .

For example, if we use $x = 12$, then we get $n \mid 12$. So n must be one of the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 or 12. On the other hand, if we use $x = 5$, then $n \mid 5$ tells us that n is either 1 or 5, and so on. The trick here is to choose an appropriate value of x from \mathbb{N} such that the information $n \mid x$ helps us get to the desired conclusion that $n = 1$. Let's now write a proof of the given implication.

Proof: Assume that $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}, n \mid x$. Since $1 \in \mathbb{N}$, consider $x = 1$. By our assumption, $n \mid 1$. We know that the only positive divisor of 1 is 1 itself. Therefore $n = 1$. \square

Proof Method

Substitution Method

Suppose we assume $\forall x \in S, P(x)$ is true, and we want to use this assumption in a proof.

Substitute one or more appropriate values of x from S into the open sentence $P(x)$, and use the fact that $P(x)$ must be true to arrive at the desired conclusion.

Self Check 2

Let r be a real number. Prove the following statement:

If $\forall x \in [0, \infty), r^2 \leq x$ then $r = 0$.

9.6.2 The Object Method

Let p be a real number and k be an integer. Consider the following statement about p and k :

If there exists a non-zero integer q such that $\frac{p}{q} = k$, then p must be an integer.

To prove this statement, we assume that “ \exists non-zero integer q , such that $\frac{p}{q} = k$ ” is true. Here p and k are integers, but we do not know their numerical values. We will now use the symbol “ q ” as an (hypothetical) *object* that

1. is a non-zero integer, and

2. satisfies the equation $\frac{p}{q} = k$.

Our goal is to use these properties of q to convince the reader that p must be an integer. The proof is below.

Proof: We are given that p is a real number and k is an integer. Let us assume that q is a non-zero integer for which $\frac{p}{q} = k$.

We may now multiply both sides of $\frac{p}{q} = k$ by q to get $p = qk$. Since q and k are both integers, then qk is also an integer. Hence p must be an integer. \square

Proof Method

Object Method

Assume $\exists x \in S$, $P(x)$ is true.

Use a symbol, such as “ x ”, to denote an element of S for which $P(x)$ is true. Since we do not know exactly which element of S satisfies $P(x)$, we cannot assign a specific value to x . Instead, we work with x as a variable.

We may then apply the rules of mathematics and other established results about the elements of S to this “ x ” in order to prove the desired conclusion.

Example 7

Let n be an integer. Prove the following statement about n :

If n is of the form $4\ell + 1$ for some positive integer ℓ , then $8 \mid (n^2 - 1)$.

Discussion: Once again, we are proving an implication, so we start by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: n is of the form $4\ell + 1$ for some integer ℓ .

Conclusion: $8 \mid (n^2 - 1)$.

Note that we may rewrite the hypothesis in its symbolic form:

$$\exists \ell \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ such that } n = 4\ell + 1.$$

Our goal is to prove $8 \mid (n^2 - 1)$, which is equivalent to *proving* that “ $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, 8k = (n^2 - 1)$ ”.

Proof: Assume that we can write $n = 4\ell + 1$ for some integer ℓ .

Let $k = 2\ell^2 + \ell$. Since ℓ is an integer, therefore k must also be an integer. In that case,

$$n^2 - 1 = (4\ell + 1)^2 - 1 = 16\ell^2 + 8\ell + 1 - 1 = 16\ell^2 + 8\ell = 8(2\ell^2 + \ell) = 8k.$$

Thus, we have shown that $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, 8k = (n^2 - 1)$ is true. Therefore, $8 \mid (n^2 - 1)$. \square

Note that when using the object method, we should not use a variable that already exists in the problem as that can lead to potential confusion and error.

Can you see that we also used the *construct method* in the above proof?

The next example shows such a mistake in an attempted “proof”.

Example 8

Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Consider the following statement:

If $m \mid (b - a)$ and $m \mid (c - b)$ then $(c - a)$ is even.

Here is an incorrect proof of this statement:

Incorrect Proof: Assume that the hypothesis is true. Since $m \mid (b - a)$, we may say $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}$, $b - a = mx$. Similarly, from $m \mid (c - b)$, we get $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}$, $c - b = mx$. We may add $b - a = mx$ and $c - b = mx$ to get $c - a = 2mx$. As $2mx$ is an even number, therefore $(c - a)$ must also be even. \square .

Self Check 3

Discuss what is wrong with the previous attempt at proving the above statement. Either prove the given statement, or provide a value for each of the variables m, a, b and c such that the statement is false.

Example 9

Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Prove the following statement:

If $m \mid (b - a)$ and $m \mid (c - b)$ then $m \mid (c - a)$.

Proof: Assume that $m \mid (b - a)$ and $m \mid (c - b)$.

From $m \mid (b - a)$, we can say that there exists an integer x for which $(b - a) = mx$. Similarly, from $m \mid (c - b)$, we may say that there is an integer y (note: we are using a variable different from x) such that $(c - b) = my$.

Add $b - a = mx$ with $c - b = my$ to get $c - a = m(x + y)$. As x and y are both integers, $x + y$ must also be an integer. Thus by definition $m \mid (c - a)$. \square

Chapter 10

Nested Quantifiers

10.1 Objectives

1. Recognize *nested quantifiers*.
2. Learn how to parse statements with nested quantifiers.
3. Discover proof techniques that apply to a sentence containing nested quantifiers.

10.2 Nested Quantifiers

Most of the statements that we will see in mathematics contain more than one variable. Each variable must come with its own domain and quantifier. When a statement has more than one quantified variable, it is important to note the order in which they appear.

For example, consider the following statement containing three variables x , y and z :

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists y \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists z \in \mathbb{R}, x + y + z = 0.$$

We read mathematical statements from left to right. If a statement contains more than one quantified variable, then we first read the leftmost quantified variable, and regard the rest of the statement as a property of this variable. Thus, the other quantified variables become *nested* within the property of the leftmost variable. We then proceed through the rest of the statement in a similar manner. Therefore, we may parse the above statement in layers, like an onion. For instance, we can consider this statement to be of the form

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, P(x),$$

$$\text{where } P(x) \text{ is } \exists y \in \mathbb{Z}, Q(x, y),$$

$$\text{where } Q(x, y) \text{ is } \exists z \in \mathbb{R}, R(x, y, z),$$

$$\text{where } R(x, y, z) \text{ is } x + y + z = 0.$$

Here, the quantifier for y is nested within the property $P(x)$, the quantifier for z is nested within the property $Q(x, y)$, and so on. A useful way to think about nested quantifiers is in terms of nested loops that we use in programming.

It takes a bit of practice to become good at parsing and using nested quantifiers in statements. To start, we will focus on statements that have only two variables. There are four possible combinations of nested quantifiers to consider. The following examples illustrate how to prove statements with nested quantifiers.

Example 1

For all $x \in \mathbb{N}$, for all $y \in \mathbb{N}$, $\frac{x+y}{2} \geq \sqrt{xy}$.

Proof. Let $x \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y \in \mathbb{N}$. We know that the following algebraic equation is true for all natural numbers x and y :

$$(x - y)^2 = (x + y)^2 - 4xy.$$

Since $\mathbb{N} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, $(x - y)^2 \geq 0$. Thus, we have $(x + y)^2 - 4xy \geq 0$, which simplifies to

$$\frac{(x + y)^2}{4} \geq xy.$$

Taking the positive square-root on both sides, we get $\frac{x+y}{2} \geq \sqrt{xy}$.

Proof Method

$\forall x \in S, \forall y \in T$

To prove $\forall x \in S, \forall y \in T, Q(x, y)$:

1. either exhaustively verify Q is true for each pair (x, y) from $S \times T$,
2. or use the *select method* on both the variables x and y , show $Q(x, y)$ is true.

Example 2

There exists a positive even integer m such that for every positive integer n ,

$$\left| \frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{n} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}.$$

Proof. The first quantifier is existential, so we must use the *construct method*. Let $m = 2$. Let n be any arbitrary positive integer. We consider three cases.

Case 1. When $n = 1$, we have $\left| \frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{n} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{1} \right| = \left| -\frac{1}{2} \right| = \frac{1}{2}$.

Case 2. When $n = 2$, then $\left| \frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{n} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \right| = 0 < \frac{1}{2}$.

Case 3. When $n \geq 3$, then $0 < \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{3} < \frac{1}{2}$. Thus

$$\left| \frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{n} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right| = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{2}.$$

We note that in each case, the required inequality is satisfied. Thus “ $\left| \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{n} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2}$ ” is true for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Consequently, the given statement is true as well.

Proof Method

$\exists x \in S, \forall y \in T$

To prove $\exists x \in S, \forall y \in T, Q(x, y)$:

Propose a definite value of x from S . The value of x gets fixed and cannot depend on y , in particular, x should not be an expression in y . Use the *select method* on $y \in T$ to demonstrate $Q(x, y)$ is true for the proposed value of x .

Example 3

For every integer $n \geq 2$, there exists an integer m such that $n < m < 2n$.

Proof. Let n be an integer greater than or equal to 2. We need to provide a value of m that satisfies the property “ $n < m < 2n$ ”. As the value of m may depend on n , we will try to express m in terms of n .

Let $m = n + 1$. Since n is an integer, $n + 1$ must also be an integer, therefore m is indeed an integer.

Notice that $m = n + 1 > n$. On the other hand, $2n = n + n$. We are given that $n \geq 2$, therefore $n + n \geq n + 2 > n + 1$. In other words, $2n > m$. Thus, our proposed value of m satisfies

$$n < m < 2n.$$

Proof Method

$$\forall x \in S, \exists y \in T$$

To prove $\forall x \in S, \exists y \in T, Q(x, y)$:

Use the *select method* to choose x as a representative of S . Construct y , possibly in terms of x , and show that the resulting value of the expression is in T . Finally, demonstrate that $Q(x, y)$ is true.

Example 4

There exists a positive even integer s for which there exists a positive odd integer t such that $2^s + 3^t$ is prime.

Proof. Let $s = 2$ and $t = 1$. Then

$$2^2 + 3^1 = 4 + 3 = 7,$$

which is a prime. Therefore the given statement is true.

Proof Method

$$\exists x \in S, \exists y \in T$$

To prove $\exists x \in S, \exists y \in T, Q(x, y)$:

Find a value of x from S and a value of y from T . Show that $Q(x, y)$ is satisfied.

10.2.1 Negating Nested Quantifiers

A statement involving nested quantified variables is negated layer-by-layer.

Here are the general rules:

1. $\neg(\forall x \in S, \forall y \in T, Q(x, y)) \equiv \exists x \in S, \exists y \in T, \neg Q(x, y)$
2. $\neg(\forall x \in S, \exists y \in T, Q(x, y)) \equiv \exists x \in S, \forall y \in T, \neg Q(x, y)$
3. $\neg(\exists x \in S, \forall y \in T, Q(x, y)) \equiv \forall x \in S, \exists y \in T, \neg Q(x, y)$
4. $\neg(\exists x \in S, \exists y \in T, Q(x, y)) \equiv \forall x \in S, \forall y \in T, \neg Q(x, y)$

For instance, the negation of the statement “ $\exists n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \mid m$ ” is given by

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists m \in \mathbb{Z}, n \nmid m.$$

REMARK

To disprove a statement involving quantifiers, we usually just prove that the negation of the statement is true.

10.3 More Examples with Nested Quantifiers

Prove or disprove each of the following statements.

1. There exists a non-negative integer k such that for every integer n , $k < n$.

Solution: The given statement is false. Let k be any non-negative integer. Consider $n = k - 1$. Then $k > n$. So we cannot find a non-negative integer k that would satisfy $k < n$ for all values of n . \square

2. For every two integers a and c , there exists an integer b such that $a + b = c$.

Solution: The given statement is true.

Proof: Let $a, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Suppose $b = c - a$. Since a and c are integers, therefore $c - a$ must also be an integer, thus $b \in \mathbb{Z}$. Consequently,

$$a + b = a + (c - a) = c.$$

\square

3. For every set S where $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, there exists $t \in S$ such that $t \geq 1$.

Solution: The given statement is false. Let $S = \emptyset$. Since the empty set is a subset of all sets, then $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$.

However, for the empty set, the statement “ $\exists t \in \emptyset, t \geq 1$ ” is vacuously false. Hence the empty set acts as a counter example to the above statement. \square

4. For every non-empty set S where $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, there exists $t \in S$ such that $t \geq 1$.

Solution: The given statement is true.

Proof: Suppose S is a non-empty subset of \mathbb{N} . Since S is non-empty, it must have at least one element, which we shall call t . As $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, we get $t \in \mathbb{N}$.

Now, we know that 1 is the smallest positive integer. Thus, $t \in \mathbb{N}$ implies $t \geq 1$. \square

Self Check 1

Prove or disprove the following statements.

1. Suppose $S = \{1, 3, 5\}$ and $T = \{6, 14\}$. For every $x \in S$ there exists some $y \in T$ such that $x + y$ is a prime.
2. There exists a non-negative integer k such that for every non-negative integer n , $k < n$.
3. There exists a non-negative integer k such that for every positive integer n , $k < n$.
4. For every non-negative integer n , there exists a non-negative integer k such that $k < n$.

REMARK (Order of Nested Quantifiers)

It is important to keep track of the order in which the quantified variables appear in a statement. It is also important to note the corresponding domain for each variable. Suppose S and T are two sets, and $Q(x, y)$ is an open sentence. Then

“ $\forall x \in S, \exists y \in T, Q(x, y)$ ” is not logically equivalent to “ $\exists y \in T, \forall x \in S, Q(x, y)$ ”,

and

“ $\forall x \in S, \exists y \in T, Q(x, y)$ ” is not logically equivalent to “ $\forall x \in T, \exists y \in S, Q(x, y)$ ”,

and

“ $\exists x \in S, \forall y \in T, Q(x, y)$ ” is not logically equivalent to “ $\exists x \in T, \forall y \in S, Q(x, y)$ ”.

Exercise 1

Consider the following mathematical statements:

$$\begin{aligned} P &: \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \exists y \in \mathbb{R} (y^2 - 2xy + x^2 - 2x + 2y \leq 0), \\ Q &: \exists y \in \mathbb{R} \forall x \in \mathbb{R} (y^2 - 2xy + x^2 - 2x + 2y \leq 0). \end{aligned}$$

Prove that statement P is true and disprove statement Q .

10.4 Functions and Surjections

One of the most fundamental notions of modern mathematics is that of a function. You may be familiar with the concept of functions from studying high school mathematics. We may formally define functions with the help of nested quantifiers.

Definition 10.4.1

**Function, Domain,
Codomain, Value**

Let S and T be two sets. A **function** f from S to T , denoted by $f : S \rightarrow T$, is a rule that assigns to each element $s \in S$ a unique element $f(s) \in T$. The set S is called the **domain** of the function and the set T is called the **codomain**. The element $f(s)$ is called the **value** of the function f at s .

In terms of nested quantifiers, $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a function if and only if

For every $s \in S$, there exists a unique $t \in T$ such that $f(s) = t$.

Sometimes a picture helps. In this case, Figure 10.4.1 illustrates when a rule is *not* a function.

If there exists an element in the domain which maps to more than one element in the codomain, then the given rule is not a function.

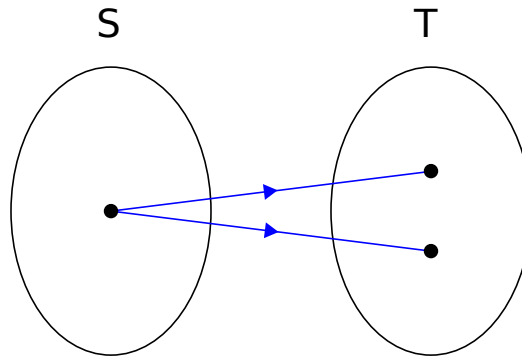


Figure 10.4.1: NOT a Function

Example 5

Prove that $f : \mathbb{Q} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ defined by

$$f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = a + b$$

is not a function.

Solution: Note that $\frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{6}$ in \mathbb{Q} . However, $f\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 1 + 3 = 4$, whereas $f\left(\frac{2}{6}\right) = 2 + 6 = 8$. As $4 \neq 8$, f cannot be a function.

Suppose $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a function with domain S and codomain T . The set of values that can be obtained by the function f is a subset of T , known as the **image of f** . For example, the familiar function $\sin x$ is often defined with domain \mathbb{R} , codomain \mathbb{R} and image $[-1, 1]$. In special cases, the image of f and the codomain of f may be the same set.

Definition 10.4.2

Onto, Surjective

Let S and T be two sets. A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **onto** (or **surjective**) if and only if for every $y \in T$ there exists an $x \in S$ so that $f(x) = y$.

More prosaically, every element of T is mapped to by some element of S .

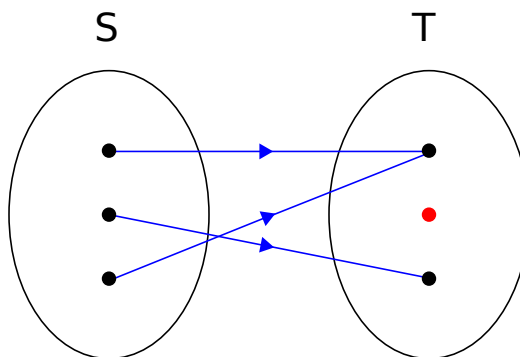
In calculus, S and T are often equal to \mathbb{R} or are subsets of \mathbb{R} . Also in calculus and elsewhere, you may see the word *range* to mean the codomain or the image. This usage is not consistent throughout mathematics and we will not use the term *range* in this course.

The important observation for us is that the definition contains two quantifiers. The order of quantifiers matters. We should be able to determine the structure of any proof that a function is onto.

10.4.1 Graphically

As with the illustration of a rule that is not function, sometimes a picture helps to illustrate when a function is not surjective. See Figure 10.4.2.

If there exists an element in the codomain which is not the value of any element in the domain, then the given function is not surjective.

Figure 10.4.2: *NOT* Surjective

10.4.2 Reading a Proof About Surjection

Let's work through an example.

Proposition 1

Let $m \neq 0$ and b be fixed real numbers. The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = mx + b$ is onto.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Let $y \in \mathbb{R}$.
2. Consider $x = (y - b)/m$.
3. Since $y \in \mathbb{R}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
4. But then $f(x) = f((y - b)/m) = m((y - b)/m) + b = y$ as needed.

□

Let's perform an analysis of this proof.

Analysis of Proof The definition of *onto* uses a nested quantifier.

Hypothesis: $m \neq 0$ and b are fixed real numbers, and $f(x) = mx + b$.

Conclusion: $f(x)$ is onto.

Core Proof Technique: $\forall y \in S, \exists x \in T$

Preliminary Material: Let us remind ourselves of the definition of the defining property of *onto* as it applies in this situation.

For every $y \in \mathbb{R}$ there exists $x \in \mathbb{R}$ so that $f(x) = y$.

Sentence 1 *Let $y \in \mathbb{R}$.*

The first quantifier in the definition of onto is a universal quantifier so the author uses the select method. That is, the author chooses an element, y , in the domain, \mathbb{R} . The author must now show that the open sentence is satisfied (there exists an $x \in \mathbb{R}$ so that $f(x) = y$).

Sentence 2 *Consider $x = (y - b)/m$.*

The second quantifier in the definition is a nested existential quantifier so the author uses the construct method. The constructed object in this example is not surprising – we can simply solve for x in $y = mx + b$. In general, though, it can be difficult to construct a suitable object. Note also that the choice of x depends on y so it is not surprising that x is a function of y .

Sentence 3 *Since $y \in \mathbb{R}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$.*

Because this step is usually straightforward, it is often omitted. It is included here to emphasize that the constructed object lies in the appropriate domain.

Sentence 4 *But then $f(x) = f((y - b)/m) = m((y - b)/m) + b = y$ as needed.*

Here the author confirms that the open sentence is satisfied.

10.4.3 Discovering a Proof About Surjection

Having read a proof, let's discover one.

Proposition 2

The function $f : [1, 2] \rightarrow [4, 7]$ defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 3$ is onto.

We can begin with the basic proof structure that we discussed earlier.

Proof in Progress

1. Let $y \in [4, 7]$.
2. Consider $x = \dots$ *We must construct x .*
3. Show that $x \in [1, 2]$. *To be completed.*
4. Now we show that $f(x) = y$. *To be completed.*

What is our candidate value for x ? Since x must satisfy

$$y = x^2 + 3$$

we can solve for x to get

$$x = \pm\sqrt{y - 3}$$

Since we want $x \in [1, 2]$, we will choose the positive square root. Let's update the proof in progress.

Proof in Progress

1. Let $y \in [4, 7]$.

2. Consider $x = \sqrt{y-3}$.
3. Show that $x \in [1, 2]$. *To be completed.*
4. Now we show that $f(x) = y$. *To be completed.*

It is not immediately obvious that $x \in [1, 2]$. Some arithmetic manipulation with inequalities helps us here. Since $y \in [4, 7]$, we know that

$$4 \leq y \leq 7$$

Subtracting three gives

$$1 \leq y - 3 \leq 4$$

Now taking the positive square root gives

$$1 \leq \sqrt{y-3} \leq 2$$

and since $x = \sqrt{y-3}$ we have

$$1 \leq x \leq 2$$

which is exactly what we need. We can update our proof in progress.

Proof in Progress

1. Let $y \in [4, 7]$.
2. Consider $x = \sqrt{y-3}$.
3. Now

$$4 \leq y \leq 7 \implies 1 \leq y - 3 \leq 4 \implies 1 \leq \sqrt{y-3} \leq 2 \implies 1 \leq x \leq 2.$$

4. Now we show that $f(x) = y$. *To be completed.*

Substitution will give us the last step. Here is a complete proof. Note that techniques are not named and the steps in the arithmetic are not explicitly justified. These are left to the reader.

Proof: Let $y \in [4, 7]$. Consider $x = \sqrt{y-3}$. Now

$$4 \leq y \leq 7 \implies 1 \leq y - 3 \leq 4 \implies 1 \leq \sqrt{y-3} \leq 2 \implies 1 \leq x \leq 2.$$

Since

$$f(x) = x^2 + 3 = (\sqrt{y-3})^2 + 3 = y$$

f is onto. □

The choice of the domain and codomain for the function is important. Consider the statement

Statement 3

The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 3$ is onto.

This is very similar to the proposition we just proved, and you might think that the same proof would work. But it doesn't. Consider the choice $y = 0 \in \mathbb{R}$. What value of x maps to 0? Since $f(x) = x^2 + 3 \geq 3$ for all real numbers x , there is no choice of x so that $f(x) = 0$, and Statement 3 is false.

Part III

More Proof Techniques

Chapter 11

Contrapositives and Other Proof Techniques

11.1 Objectives

1. Learn how to prove statements using the *contrapositive*.
2. Develop proof methods for more complicated implications.

11.2 Proof by Contrapositive

We now have some basic idea about implications and the direct proof method for proving implications. The recipe for a direct proof is simple: assume that the hypothesis is true and use it to prove the conclusion. Unfortunately, there are several implications that are very difficult to prove using a direct proof.

Example 1

Let x be a real number. Consider the implication

$$\text{If } x^5 - 3x^4 + 2x^3 - x^2 + 4x - 1 \geq 0, \text{ then } x \geq 0.$$

Let us try to prove this implication using a direct proof. If we assume that the hypothesis $x^5 - 3x^4 + 2x^3 - x^2 + 4x - 1 \geq 0$ is true, then we have a monstrous polynomial inequality to deal with. It will be very difficult to try to get information about x from this hypothesis alone. We must find a better method to solve this problem.

Definition 11.2.1

Contrapositive

The statement $\neg B \implies \neg A$ is called the **contrapositive** of $A \implies B$.

We can use truth tables to show that $(A \implies B) \equiv (\neg B \implies \neg A)$.

A	B	$A \implies B$	$\neg B$	$\neg A$	$\neg B \implies \neg A$
T	T	T	F	F	T
T	F	F	T	F	F
F	T	T	F	T	T
F	F	T	T	T	T

The logical equivalence of an implication and its contrapositive is extremely useful. If proving $A \implies B$ seems difficult, we could try to prove $\neg B \implies \neg A$ instead. It may be easier!

Proof Method

Proving the Contrapositive

We want to prove $A \implies B$.

Replace the given implication $A \implies B$ with its contrapositive $\neg B \implies \neg A$. Next, prove the implication $\neg B \implies \neg A$, usually through a direct proof.

That is, assume $\neg B$ is true and thus try to deduce that $\neg A$ must be true as well.

Since the two statements are logically equivalent, proving $\neg B \implies \neg A$ is true establishes that $A \implies B$ is true as well.

Example 2

From the previous example, replace the given implication - if $x^5 - 3x^4 + 2x^3 - x^2 + 4x - 1 \geq 0$, then $x \geq 0$ - by its contrapositive

$$\text{If } x < 0 \text{ then } x^5 - 3x^4 + 2x^3 - x^2 + 4x - 1 < 0.$$

We will now prove this contrapositive using a direct proof. Let us assume that $x < 0$. Then $x^5 < 0$, $2x^3 < 0$ and $4x < 0$. In addition, $-3x^4 < 0$, $-x^2 < 0$ and $-1 < 0$. As all the terms are negative, we add them to get

$$x^5 - 3x^4 + 2x^3 - x^2 + 4x - 1 < 0.$$

Since the contrapositive is true, the original implication must be true as well.

When To Use The Contrapositive

Suppose you need to prove the statement $A \implies B$. Use the contrapositive when the statement *NOT* A or the statement *NOT* B gives you useful information. This is most likely to occur when A or B contains a negation. Especially when both A and B contain negations, it is highly likely that using the contrapositive will be productive.

Another possible motivation for using contrapositive may come from the statements A or B themselves. If A or B contains a condition that is one of only two possibilities, then the negation, which indicates the second possibility, may be useful. For example, an integer can be either odd or even (not both). So if we have a statement about an even integer, the contrapositive will give us a statement about an odd integer.

In addition to that, we often use the method of contrapositive when the hypothesis of an implication looks more complicated than the conclusion.

Finally, these are just rules of thumb. There are no rules that tell you exactly when the contrapositive should be used. However, with practice, you should develop a feel for when it is a good technique to attempt.

Reading a Proof That Uses the Contrapositive

Consider the following proposition.

Proposition 1

Suppose a is an integer. If $32 \nmid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$ then a is even.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. We will prove the contrapositive.
2. If a is odd we can write a as $2k + 1$ for some integer k .
3. Substitution gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 (a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7) &= ((2k + 1)^2 + 3)((2k + 1)^2 + 7) \\
 &= (4k^2 + 4k + 1 + 3)(4k^2 + 4k + 1 + 7) \\
 &= (4k^2 + 4k + 4)(4k^2 + 4k + 8) \\
 &= 4(k^2 + k + 1) \times 4(k^2 + k + 2) \\
 &= 16(k^2 + k + 1)(k^2 + k + 2)
 \end{aligned}$$

4. Since one of the consecutive integers $k^2 + k + 1$ or $k^2 + k + 2$ must be even, and the last line above shows that a factor of 16 already exists disjoint from $(k^2 + k + 1)(k^2 + k + 2)$, $(a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7)$ must contain a factor of 32. That is, $32 \mid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$.

□

Analysis of Proof As usual, we begin by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: A : $32 \nmid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$.

Conclusion: B : a is even.

Since the hypothesis of the proposition contains a negation, and the conclusion is one of two possible choices, it makes sense to consider the contrapositive.

For the contrapositive

Hypothesis: $NOT B$: a is odd.

Conclusion: $NOT A$: $32 \mid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$

Sentence 1 *We will prove the contrapositive.*

Not all authors will be so obliging as to state the proof technique up front. The provided proof would also be correct if this sentence was omitted. Correct, but harder to understand.

Sentence 2 *If a is odd we can write a as $2k + 1$ for some integer k .*

This is the statement $NOT B$. Knowing from Sentence 1 that the author is using the contrapositive we would expect to see statements moving forward from the hypothesis of the contrapositive (a is odd) or backwards from the conclusion of the contrapositive ($32 \mid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$).

Sentence 3 *Substitution gives $(a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7) = \dots = 16(k^2 + k + 1)(k^2 + k + 2)$.*

This is just arithmetic.

Sentence 4 *Since one of the consecutive integers $k^2 + k + 1$ or $k^2 + k + 2$ must be even, and the last line above shows that a factor of 16 already exists disjoint from $(k^2 + k + 1)(k^2 + k + 2)$, $(a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7)$ must contain a factor of 32. That is, $32 \mid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$.*

These sentences establish the conclusion of the contrapositive. Since the contrapositive is true, the original statement is true.

11.3 More Complicated Implications

We have seen that the hypothesis and conclusion of an implication can be compound statements. Let us look at some examples that outline the process for proving implications where the hypothesis or conclusion is of the form $(P \wedge Q)$ or $(P \vee Q)$. The logical equivalences mentioned here can be proved using truth tables.

We have already seen examples where the hypothesis and conclusion include the “AND” logical operator. These situations are not actually all that complicated.

Proof Method

$$(A \wedge B) \implies C$$

To prove “If A and B then C ”:

Nothing new needs to be considered in this case. A direct proof would begin by assuming that both A and B are true and continue to establish that C must be true. If A and B involve negations, then the contrapositive may be helpful and will lead us to a situation described below.

Example 3

Look back at our propositions involving divisibility. Our results Transitivity of Divisibility (TD), Divisibility of Integer Combinations (DIC) and Bounds By Divisibility (BBD) all involve a hypotheses of the form $(A \wedge B)$.

Proof Method

$$A \implies (B \wedge C)$$

To prove “If A then B and C ”:

Prove the logically equivalent statement $(A \implies B) \wedge (A \implies C)$.

Example 4

Let p, q and r be prime numbers. Prove that

$$\text{if } p^2 \mid qr \text{ then } p = q \text{ and } p = r.$$

We will prove the following two implications

1. if $p^2 \mid qr$ then $p = q$, and
2. if $p^2 \mid qr$ then $p = r$

are true.

Proof: Assume $p^2 \mid qr$.

Since r is an integer, $q \mid p^2$. As p is a prime, the only factors of p^2 are 1, p and p^2 . However, q is prime so $q \neq 1$ and $q \neq p^2$, therefore $q = p$. This proves the first implication.

Again, assume $p^2 \mid qr$.

Since q is an integer, $r \mid p^2$. As p is a prime, the only factors of p^2 are 1, p and p^2 . However, r is prime so $r \neq 1$ and $r \neq p^2$, therefore $r = p$. This proves the second implication. \square

REMARK

Both “subproofs” in the previous example use the exact same logic, and in fact the second is a word-for-word rewrite of the first if we simply switch the variables q and r .

In proofs like these, it is redundant to go through both cases. Often, we use the phrase **without loss of generality** or the word and only show one case. It is implied that the other case will be proved in exactly the same way apart from some obvious interchange of variables. Some authors will write that the second case follows **similarly**.

We will see this again in the next example.

Proof Method

$$(A \vee B) \implies C$$

To prove “If A or B then C ”:

Prove the logically equivalent statement $(A \implies C) \wedge (B \implies C)$.

Example 5

Let a, b and c be integers. Prove the implication

$$\text{If } a \mid b \text{ or } a \mid c \text{ then } a \mid (bc).$$

We prove the above implication by proving that both

1. if $a \mid b$ then $a \mid (bc)$, and
2. if $a \mid c$ then $a \mid (bc)$

are true. Notice that the two cases are nearly identical.

Proof: Without loss of generality, assume $a \mid b$. Since $b \mid (bc)$, by Transitivity of Divisibility (TD), $a \mid (bc)$. \square

Warning: It takes some experience and expertise in mathematics to know when we can write a proof without loss of generality. It is best to avoid using this if you are not confident in your approach. In general, it is not correct to prove $A \implies C$ and immediately conclude that $(A \vee B) \implies C$. A simple example of this is when A is false, B is true, and C is false.

11.3.1 Method of Elimination

The remaining situation to consider is an implication of the form $A \implies (B \vee C)$. It tends to cause novice mathematicians more trouble than the previous situations. The most common approach to proving a statement of this form is sometimes called the method of elimination. We begin with an important exercise.

Exercise 1

Prove that

$$A \implies (B \vee C) \text{ is logically equivalent to } (A \wedge \neg B) \implies C$$

Proof Method

$$A \implies (B \vee C)$$

To prove “If A then B or C ”:

Prove the logically equivalent statement If A and $\neg B$, then C .

Example 6

Consider the following statement for some $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\text{If } x^2 - 7x + 12 \geq 0, \text{ then } x \leq 3 \text{ or } x \geq 4.$$

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Suppose that $x^2 - 7x + 12 \geq 0$ and $x > 3$.
2. Factoring gives $(x - 3)(x - 4) \geq 0$.
3. Since $x > 3$, $x - 3 > 0$.
4. Dividing the inequality in Sentence 2 by $x - 3$ gives $x - 4 \geq 0$, or
5. Therefore $x \geq 4$ as desired.

□

11.4 Summary Examples

Example 7

Let x be a real number. Consider the following statement about x :

Statement 2

If $x^2 - 3x + 2 \leq 0$ then x is between 1 and 2 (inclusive).

1. Rewrite the given statement in symbolic form.

$$\textbf{Solution: } (x^2 - 3x + 2 \leq 0) \implies (1 \leq x \leq 2).$$

2. State the hypothesis of Statement 2.

$$\textbf{Solution: } x^2 - 3x + 2 \leq 0.$$

3. State the conclusion of Statement 2.

Solution: $1 \leq x \leq 2$.

4. State the negation of Statement 2 without using the word “not” or the \neg symbol.

Solution: $(x^2 - 3x + 2 \leq 0) \wedge [(x < 1) \vee (x > 2)]$.

5. State the contrapositive of Statement 2.

Solution: $[(x < 1) \vee (x > 2)] \implies (x^2 - 3x + 2 > 0)$

6. Prove or disprove Statement 2.

Solution: Statement 2 is true.

Proof: We shall prove the given statement through its contrapositive:

$$[(x < 1) \vee (x > 2)] \implies (x^2 - 3x + 2 > 0).$$

Assume that $(x < 1)$ or $(x > 2)$. For a real number x , since $x < 1$ and $x > 2$ cannot be true simultaneously, this gives us two cases to work with.

Case I: Assume $x < 1$. Note that $x^2 - 3x + 2$ can be factored as $(x - 1)(x - 2)$. Since $x < 1$, therefore both $(x - 1) < 0$ and $(x - 2) < 0$. Thus, their product $(x - 1)(x - 2)$ must be positive. Hence $x^2 - 3x + 2 > 0$.

Case II: Assume $x > 2$. Then $(x - 1) > 0$ and $(x - 2) > 0$. Once again, the product $(x - 1)(x - 2)$ must be positive, so $x^2 - 3x + 2 > 0$.

□

Self Check 1 Analyze the proof above. Make sure to justify each sentence.

Self Check 2 Let U be a universal set containing sets S and T . Consider the following statement.

Statement 3

$$\overline{S \cap T} \subseteq \overline{S} \cup \overline{T}$$

This may be mystifying. How is this connected to the other examples in this chapter? But let's rephrase the statement as

$$\text{If } x \in \overline{S \cap T}, \text{ then } x \in \overline{S} \cup \overline{T}$$

or

$$\text{If } x \in \overline{S \cap T}, \text{ then } x \in \overline{S} \text{ or } x \in \overline{T}$$

Now the implication and use of the word *or* is apparent. Prove this rephrased statement.

Chapter 12

Proofs by Contradiction

12.1 Objectives

1. To learn how to read and discover *proofs by contradiction*.
2. Read a proof of *Prime Factorization*.
3. Discover a proof of *Infinitely Many Primes*.

Let us begin with a riddle. Suppose a group of three mathematicians and four engineers are seated at a round table. Assuming there are no empty chairs, is it possible to make sure that no two engineers sit next to each other?

We may answer the riddle in the following way. Suppose each engineer sits between two mathematicians. Then there must be a mathematician to the right of each engineer, so we get that there must be at least four mathematicians at the table. However, the riddle stipulates that there are three mathematicians in the group, so saying that there are four or more mathematicians at the table does not make any sense.

We reached a conclusion that must be false. The only way this can happen is if our initial assumptions was also false, that is, it is not possible for each engineer to sit between two mathematicians. In other words, we have proven that there must be at least two engineers who sit next to each other. We have just seen an example of a *proof by contradiction*.

12.2 Proof by Contradiction

Definition 12.2.1 Contradiction

Let A be a statement. Note that either A or $\neg A$ must be false, so the compound statement $A \wedge (\neg A)$ is always *false*. The statement “ $A \wedge (\neg A)$ is true” is called a **contradiction**.

In other words, any time we come across an argument that claims both A and $\neg A$ to be true, we say that there must be a contradiction in the argument.

Proof Method**Proof by
Contradiction**

Suppose we are trying to prove statement C .

Start with the assumption that C is false (or that $\neg C$ is true).

Use a series of true implications to deduce that a statement A is true as a direct consequence of C being false, where $\neg A$ is also true because of an earlier assumption or because of some proposition that we have already proven.

As a result, we get a situation where $A \wedge (\neg A)$ is true, also known as a contradiction. Since $A \wedge (\neg A)$ must be false, we trace back our steps to conclude that our initial assumption is not correct.

Thus, we have proven that C is true.

Suppose that we wish to prove that the statement “ A implies B ” is true. To use a contradiction, we must assume that $\neg(A \implies B)$ is true. Hence, our assumption becomes “ A is true and B is false”. We must now proceed to find a contradiction. Let us demonstrate this with an example.

Example 1

Let a, b and c be integers. Prove that if $a \mid (b + c)$ and $a \nmid b$, then $a \nmid c$.

Solution: Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that $a \mid (b + c)$ and $a \nmid b$ and $a \mid c$.

Since $a \mid (b + c)$ and $a \mid c$, then by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations (DIC), we get that

$$a \mid [(1)(b + c) + (-1)(c)],$$

or in other words, $a \mid b$.

Note that a part of our initial assumptions was that $a \nmid b$, and now we have concluded that $a \mid b$. This is a contradiction.

As a result, the implication if $a \mid (b + c)$ and $a \nmid b$, then $a \nmid c$ must be true.

12.2.1 When to Use Contradiction

We have mostly used the direct method to discover proofs, often in conjunction with one of the methods associated with quantifiers. There are times when this is difficult. A **proof by contradiction** provides a new method. Unfortunately, it is not always clear what contradiction to find, or how to find it. What is more clear is *when* to use contradiction.

The general rule of thumb is to use contradiction when the statement *NOT B* gives you more useful information than B , the statement you wish to prove. There are typically two instances when this is useful. The first instance is when the statement B is one of only two alternatives. For example, if the conclusion B is the statement $f(x) = 0$ then the only two possibilities are $f(x) = 0$ and $f(x) \neq 0$. *NOT B* is the statement $f(x) \neq 0$ which could be useful to you. The second instance is when B contains a negation. As we saw earlier, *NOT B* eliminates the negation.

REMARK

There is a subtle connection between a proof by contrapositive and a proof by contradiction for an implication $A \implies B$. In a proof by contradiction, we would start by assuming $A \wedge (\neg B)$ is true and one possible contradiction to deduce is that A must be false. However, this is similar to proving the contrapositive $\neg B \implies \neg A$.

So a proof by contrapositive may be viewed as a very special instance of a proof by contradiction.

12.2.2 A More Substantial Proof by Contradiction

Suppose we want to prove the following proposition.

Proposition 1 (Prime Factorization (PF))

Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If n is an integer greater than 1, then n can be expressed as a product of primes.

Example 2

The integers 2, 3, 5 and 7 are primes and mathematicians use the convention that a number by itself is a product. The integers $4 = 2 \times 2$, $6 = 2 \times 3$ and $8 = 2 \times 2 \times 2$ have been factored as products of primes.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Let N be the smallest integer, greater than 1, that cannot be written as a product of primes.
2. Now, N is not itself a prime, so we can write $N = rs$ where $1 < r \leq s < N$.
3. Since r and s are less than N , they can be written as a product of primes.
4. But then it follows that $N = rs$ can be written as a product of primes, a contradiction.

□

Analysis of Proof An interpretation of sentences 1 through 4 follows.

Sentence 1 *Let N be the smallest integer, greater than 1, that cannot be written as a product of primes.*

The first sentence of a proof by contradiction usually gives the specific form of *NOT B* that the author is going to work with. In this case, the author identifies that this is a proof by contradiction by assuming the existence of an object which contradicts the conclusion, an integer N which *cannot* be written as a product of primes. Moreover, of all such candidates for N the author chooses the smallest one. Though it may not be obvious when first encountering the proof why the author would stipulate such a condition, it always has to do with something needed later in the argument.

Once you know that this is a proof by contradiction, look ahead to find the contradiction. In this case, the contradiction appears in Sentence 4.

Sentence 2 *Now, N is not itself a prime, so we can write $N = rs$ where $1 < r \leq s < N$.*

If N were prime, then N by itself is a product of primes (with just one factor). But the author has assumed that N is not a product of primes, hence N is composite and can be written as the product of two non-trivial factors r and s .

Sentence 3 *Since r and s are less than N , they can be written as a product of primes.*

This sentence makes it clear why N needs to be the *smallest* integer that cannot be written as a product of primes. In order to generate the contradiction, r and s must be written as products of primes. If it were the case that N was not the smallest such integer, it might be the case that neither r nor s could be written as a product of primes.

Sentence 4 *But then it follows that $N = rs$ can be written as a product of primes, a contradiction.*

Since both r and s can be written as a product of primes, the product $rs = N$ can certainly be written as a product of primes. But this contradicts the assumption in Sentence 1 that N cannot be written as a product of primes.

Since our reasoning is correct, it must be the case that our assumption that there is an integer which cannot be written as a product of primes is incorrect. That is, every integer can be written as a product of primes.

REMARK

A subtle point needs to be addressed. In Sentence 1, we choose the smallest integer N from a set of positive integers. How do we know such an integer exists? When assuming this, we are actually relying on **the well-ordering principle** which famously states that every non-empty set of positive integers contains at least one element.

12.2.3 Discovering and Writing a Proof by Contradiction

Discovering a proof by contradiction can be difficult and often requires several attempts at finding the path to a contradiction. Let's see how we might discover a proof to a famous theorem recorded by Euclid.

Proposition 2 (Euclid's Theorem (ET))

The number of primes is infinite.

We should always be clear about our hypothesis and conclusion. There is no explicit hypothesis in this case and the conclusion is the statement

Conclusion: The number of primes is infinite.

This statement contains a negation, *infinite* is an abbreviation of *not* finite, and so is a candidate for a proof by contradiction. Our first statement in a proof by contradiction is a negation of the conclusion so we have

Proof in Progress

1. Assume that the number of primes is finite. (This is *NOT* B.)
2. *To be completed.*

Now comes the tough part. What do we do from here? How do we generate a contradiction? Well, if the number of primes is finite, could we somehow use that assumption to find a “new” prime not in our finite list of primes? Our candidate should not have any of the finite primes as a factor. At this point, it sounds like we need to list our primes.

Proof in Progress

1. Assume that the number of primes is finite. (This is *NOT* B.)
2. Label the finite number of primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$.
3. *To be completed.*

Now we have a way to express a candidate for a “new” prime.

Proof in Progress

1. Assume that the number of primes is finite. (This is *NOT* B.)
2. Label the finite number of primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$.
3. Consider the integer $N = p_1 p_2 p_3 \cdots p_n + 1$.
4. *To be completed.*

Clearly N is larger than any of the p_i so, by the first sentence, N cannot be in the list of primes. Thus

Proof in Progress

1. Assume that the number of primes is finite. (This is *NOT* B.)
2. Label the finite number of primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$.
3. Consider the integer $N = p_1 p_2 p_3 \cdots p_n + 1$.
4. Since $N > p_i$ for all i , N is not a prime.
5. *To be completed.*

This is where we can find our contradiction. The value N has no non-trivial factors since dividing N by any of the p_i leaves a remainder of 1. But that means N cannot be written as a product of primes, which contradicts the previous proposition. The contradiction in this proof arises from a result which is inconsistent with something else we have proved.

Proof in Progress

1. Assume that the number of primes is finite. (This is *NOT* B.)
2. Label the finite number of primes $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$.
3. Consider the integer $N = p_1 p_2 p_3 \cdots p_n + 1$.

4. Since $N > p_i$ for all i , N is not a prime.
5. Since $N = p_i q + 1$ for each of the primes p_i , no p_i is a factor of N . Hence N cannot be written as a product of primes, which contradicts our previous proposition.

Putting all of the statements together gives the following proof.

Proof: Assume that there are only a finite number of primes, say $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$. Consider the integer $N = p_1 p_2 p_3 \cdots p_n + 1$. Since $N > p_i$ for all i , N is not a prime. But $N = p_i q + 1$ for each of the primes p_i , so no p_i is a factor of N . Hence N cannot be written as a product of primes, which contradicts our previous proposition. \square

Chapter 13

Uniqueness, Injections and the Division Algorithm

13.1 Objectives

1. Learn how to prove a statement about *uniqueness*.
2. Prove the uniqueness of the quotient and the remainder from the *Division Algorithm*.

13.2 Introduction

Proof Method Uniqueness

To prove a statement of the form

If ..., then there is a *unique* object x in the set S such that $P(x)$ is true.

there are basically two approaches.

1. **Demonstrate** that there is at least one object in the set S that satisfies $P(X)$. **Assume** that there are two objects X and Y in the set S such that $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ are true. **Show** that $X = Y$.
2. **Demonstrate** that there is at least one object in the set S that satisfies $P(X)$. **Assume** that there are two *distinct* objects X and Y in the set S such that $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ are true. **Derive** a contradiction.

You can use whichever is easier in the given circumstance.

13.3 Showing $X = Y$

The method is as follows.

1. **Demonstrate** that there is at least one object in the set S that satisfies P .
2. **Assume** that there are two objects X and Y in the set S such that $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ are true.
3. **Show** that $X = Y$.

For example, let us prove the following statement.

Proposition 1

If a and b are integers with $a \neq 0$ and $a \mid b$, then there is a unique integer k so that $b = ka$.

As usual, we begin by explicitly identifying the hypothesis and conclusion.

Hypothesis: a and b are integers with $a \neq 0$ and $a \mid b$.

Conclusion: There is a unique integer k so that $b = ka$.

The appearance of “unique” in the conclusion tells us to use one of the two approaches described in the previous section. In this case, we will assume the existence of two integers k_1 and k_2 and show that $k_1 = k_2$. But first, we need to show that at least one integer k exists, and this follows immediately from the definition of divisibility.

Proof in Progress

1. Since $a \mid b$, at least one integer k exists so that $b = ka$.
2. Let k_1 and k_2 be integers such that $b = k_1a$ and $b = k_2a$. (Note how closely this follows the standard pattern where k_1 corresponds to X , and k_2 corresponds to Y . Both come from the set of integers and if $P(x)$ is the statement “ $b = xa$ ”, then $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ are assumed to be true.)
3. *To be completed.*
4. Hence, $k_1 = k_2$.

The obvious thing to do is equate the two equations to get

$$k_1a = k_2a$$

Since a is not zero we can divide both sides by a to get

$$k_1 = k_2$$

A proof might look like the following.

Proof: Since $a \mid b$, by the definition of divisibility there exists an integer k so that $b = ka$. Now let k_1 and k_2 be integers such that $b = k_1a$ and $b = k_2a$. But then $k_1a = k_2a$ and dividing by the non-zero value a gives $k_1 = k_2$. \square

13.4 Finding a Contradiction

The method is as follows.

1. **Demonstrate** that there is at least one object in the set S that satisfies P .
2. **Assume** that there are two *distinct* objects X and Y in the set S such that $P(X)$ and $P(Y)$ are true.
3. **Derive** a contradiction.

For example, let us prove the following statement.

Proposition 2

Suppose a solution to the simultaneous linear equations $y = m_1x + b_1$ and $y = m_2x + b_2$ exists. If $m_1 \neq m_2$, then there is a unique solution to the simultaneous linear equations $y = m_1x + b_1$ and $y = m_2x + b_2$.

As usual, we begin by explicitly identifying the hypothesis and conclusion.

Hypothesis: A solution to the simultaneous linear equations $y = m_1x + b_1$ and $y = m_2x + b_2$ exists, and $m_1 \neq m_2$.

Conclusion: There is a unique solution to the simultaneous linear equations $y = m_1x + b_1$ and $y = m_2x + b_2$.

The appearance of “unique” in the conclusion tells us to use one of the two approaches described in the previous section. In this case, we will assume the existence of two distinct points of intersection and derive a conclusion.

Proof in Progress

1. Suppose that $y = m_1x + b_1$ and $y = m_2x + b_2$ intersect in the distinct points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) . (The existence of at least one solution is guaranteed by the hypothesis. Note again how closely this follows the standard pattern where (x_1, y_1) corresponds to X , and (x_2, y_2) corresponds to Y . Both come from the set of ordered pairs and both satisfy the statement “are a solution to the simultaneous linear equations $y = m_1x + b_1$ and $y = m_2x + b_2$.”)
2. *To be completed*, hence a contradiction.

But now if we substitute (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) into $y = m_1x + b_1$ we get

$$y_1 = m_1x_1 + b_1 \tag{13.1}$$

$$y_2 = m_1x_2 + b_1 \tag{13.2}$$

which implies that

$$y_1 - y_2 = m_1(x_1 - x_2)$$

Similarly, substituting (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) into $y = m_2x + b_2$ gives

$$y_1 - y_2 = m_2(x_1 - x_2)$$

Equating the two expressions for $y_1 - y_2$ gives

$$(m_1 - m_2)(x_1 - x_2) = 0$$

Since $m_1 \neq m_2$, $m_1 - m_2 \neq 0$ and we can divide by $(m_1 - m_2)$. This gives $x_1 - x_2 = 0$. That is, $x_1 = x_2$. But then,

$$y_1 - y_2 = m_1(x_1 - x_2) \text{ and } x_1 - x_2 = 0$$

imply

$$y_1 - y_2 = 0$$

That is, $y_1 = y_2$. But then the points (x_1, y_1) and (x_2, y_2) are not distinct, a contradiction.

13.5 One-to-one (Injective)

You may already be familiar with the concept of *one-to-one* functions, also known as *injections*. Let us now write a formal definition of one-to-one functions.

Definition 13.5.1

**One-to-one,
Injective**

Let S and T be two sets. A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **one-to-one** (or **injective**) if and only if for every $x_1 \in S$ and every $x_2 \in S$, $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies that $x_1 = x_2$.

We should be able to recognize that the definition above contains the concept of uniqueness, although it is not spelled out explicitly. In particular, according to the above definition, a function f is one-to-one if and only for a given element y from the image of f , there is a unique $x \in S$ such that $y = f(x)$.

Let's work through an example. Notice how closely the proof follows the structure of a uniqueness proof.

Proposition 3

Let $m \neq 0$ and b be fixed real numbers. The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = mx + b$ is one-to-one.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Let $x_1, x_2 \in S$.
2. Suppose that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.
3. Now we show that $x_1 = x_2$.
4. Since $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, $mx_1 + b = mx_2 + b$.
5. Subtracting b from both sides and dividing by the non-zero m gives $x_1 = x_2$ as required.

□

Let's perform an analysis of this proof.

Analysis of Proof The definition of *one-to-one* uses a nested quantifier.

Hypothesis: $m \neq 0$ and b are fixed real numbers, and $f(x) = mx + b$.

Conclusion: $f(x)$ is one-to-one.

Core Proof Technique: $\forall x \in S, \forall y \in T$ and uniqueness.

Preliminary Material: Let us remind ourselves of the definition of the defining property of *one-to-one* as it applies in this situation.

For every $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ and every $x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies that $x_1 = x_2$.

Sentence 1 *Let $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.*

The author combines the first two sentences of the structure of a one-to-one proof into a single sentence. This works because both of the first two quantifiers in the definition are universal quantifiers and so the author uses the select method twice. That is, the author chooses elements x_1 and x_2 in the domain \mathbb{R} . The author must now show that the open sentence is satisfied. That is, $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies that $x_1 = x_2$.

Sentences 2 and 3 *Suppose that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. Now we show that $x_1 = x_2$.*

The open sentence that must be verified is an implication, and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ is the hypothesis. To prove an implication, we assume the hypothesis and demonstrate that the conclusion, $x_1 = x_2$, is true.

Sentence 3 *Since $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, $mx_1 + b = mx_2 + b$.*

This is just substitution.

Sentence 4 *Subtracting b from both sides and dividing by the non-zero m gives $x_1 = x_2$ as required.*

Here the author confirms that the open sentence is satisfied. Observe that the hypothesis $m \neq 0$ is used here.

13.5.1 Discovering a proof about injections

Having read a proof, let's discover one.

Proposition 4

The function $f : [1, 2] \rightarrow [4, 7]$ defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 3$ is one-to-one.

We can begin with the basic proof structure that we discussed earlier.

Proof in Progress

1. Let $x_1, x_2 \in [1, 2]$.
2. Suppose that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.
3. Now we show that $x_1 = x_2$. *To be completed.*

The obvious starting point is to write down $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ and see if algebraic manipulation can take us to $x_1 = x_2$. And that is indeed the case.

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1^2 + 3 = x_2^2 + 3 \implies x_1^2 = x_2^2$$

We need to be careful here since $x_1^2 = x_2^2$ does not generally imply $x_1 = x_2$. For example, $x_1 = 5$ and $x_2 = -5$ satisfy $x_1^2 = x_2^2$ but not $x_1 = x_2$. However, in this case because the domain is $[1, 2]$ we are justified in taking the positive square root and concluding that $x_1 = x_2$. Here is a complete proof.

Proof: Let $x_1, x_2 \in [1, 2]$. Suppose that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$. But then $x_1^2 + 3 = x_2^2 + 3$ and so $x_1^2 = x_2^2$. Since $x_1, x_2 \in [1, 2]$ we can take the positive square root of both sides to get $x_1 = x_2$. \square

Just as with onto functions, the choice of the domain and codomain for the function is important. Consider the statement

Statement 5 The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 3$ is one-to-one.

This is very similar to the proposition we just proved, but this statement is false. It is easier to see why by working with the contrapositive of $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$. Recall that the contrapositive is logically equivalent to the original statement. For one-to-one functions, we can make the following statement which is equivalent to the definition.

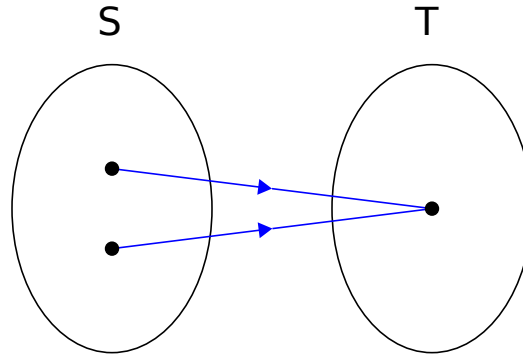
Statement 6 Let S and T be two sets. A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **one-to-one** (or **injective**) if and only if for every $x_1 \in S$ and every $x_2 \in S$, if $x_1 \neq x_2$, then $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$.

For the function $f(x) = x^2 + 3$, consider $x_1 = 1$ and $x_2 = -1$. It is indeed the case that $x_1 \neq x_2$, but $f(x_1) = 4 = f(x_2)$ which contradicts the definition of one-to-one. So, $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^2 + 3$ is *not* one-to-one.

13.5.2 Graphically

As with the illustration of a function that is not surjective, sometimes a picture helps to illustrate when a function is not injective. See Figure 13.5.1.

If there exists an element in the codomain which is the value of more than one element in the domain, then the given function is not injective.

Figure 13.5.1: *NOT* Injective

13.6 The Division Algorithm

In this section, we will see the partial proof of an important proposition about divisibility of integers.

Proposition 7 (Division Algorithm)

If a and b are integers and $b > 0$, then there exist unique integers q and r such that

$$a = qb + r \text{ where } 0 \leq r < b$$

If the statement of Division Algorithm, the integer a is called the **dividend** and b is called the **divisor**. The corresponding q is called the **quotient** and r is called the **remainder**.

Suppose that in a proof of the Division Algorithm it has already been established that integers q and r exist and only uniqueness remains. A proposed proof of uniqueness follows.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Suppose that $a = q_1b + r_1$ with $0 \leq r_1 < b$. Also, suppose that $a = q_2b + r_2$ with $0 \leq r_2 < b$ and $r_1 \neq r_2$.
2. Without loss of generality, we can assume $r_1 < r_2$.
3. Then $0 < r_2 - r_1 < b$ and
4. $(q_1 - q_2)b = r_2 - r_1$.
5. Hence $b \mid (r_2 - r_1)$.
6. By Bounds By Divisibility, $b \leq r_2 - r_1$ which contradicts the fact that $r_2 - r_1 < b$.
7. Therefore, the assumption that $r_1 \neq r_2$ is false and in fact $r_1 = r_2$.
8. But then $(q_1 - q_2)b = r_2 - r_1$ implies $q_1 = q_2$.

□

Let's make sure that we understand every line of the proof.

Sentence 1 *Suppose that $a = q_1b + r_1$ with $0 \leq r_1 < b$. Also, suppose that $a = q_2b + r_2$ with $0 \leq r_2 < b$ and $r_1 \neq r_2$.*

Since a statement about uniqueness appears in the conclusion, we would expect one of the two uniqueness methods to be used. In fact, both are used. The assertion of uniqueness applies to both q and r . Since the author writes $r_1 \neq r_2$, that is, there are distinct values of r_1 and r_2 , we should look for a contradiction regarding r . But the author does not assume distinct values of q and so we would expect that the author will show $q_1 = q_2$.

Sentence 2 *Without loss of generality, we can assume $r_1 < r_2$.*

“Without loss of generality” is an expression that means the upcoming argument would hold identically if we made any other choice, so we will simply assume one of the possibilities.

Sentence 3 *Then $0 < r_2 - r_1 < b$ and*

This is a particularly important line. It comes, in part, from $r_1 < r_2$ by subtracting r_1 from both sides (this gives $0 < r_2 - r_1$) and by remembering that the largest possible value of r_2 is $b - 1$ and the smallest possible value of r_1 is 0, so the largest possible difference is $b - 1$, thus $r_2 - r_1 < b$. Stop to make sure you understand this argument as it can be difficult to follow the first time you see it, and we will use it again later in the course.

Sentence 4 $(q_1 - q_2)b = r_2 - r_1$.

This follows from equating $a = q_1b + r_1$ and $a = q_2b + r_2$.

Sentence 5 *Hence $b \mid (r_2 - r_1)$.*

This follows from the definition of divisibility.

Sentence 6 *By BBD, $b \leq r_2 - r_1$ which contradicts the fact that $r_2 - r_1 < b$.*

Note the importance of the strict inequality in the relation

$$b \leq r_2 - r_1 < b.$$

Sentence 7 *Therefore, the assumption that $r_1 \neq r_2$ is false and in fact $r_1 = r_2$.*

The contradiction we were looking for. The Division Algorithm states that both q and r are unique. So far, only the uniqueness of r has been established.

Sentence 7 *But then $(q_1 - q_2)b = r_2 - r_1$ implies $q_1 = q_2$.*

And this is where the uniqueness of q is established. Originally, the author assumed the existence of q_1 and q_2 and now has shown that they are, in fact, the same.

Chapter 14

Simple Induction

14.1 Objectives

1. Learn how to use sum and product notation, and recognize recurrence relations.
2. Learn how to use *The Principle of Mathematical Induction*.

14.2 Notation

Suppose we had 10 spheres of radii from 1 to 10 and wanted the total volume? How would we express this? What if there were 100 spheres? It helps to have notation for this. This section introduces sum, product and recursive notation that you may not be familiar with.

14.2.1 Summation Notation

The sum of the first ten perfect squares could be written as

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \cdots + 10^2$$

In mathematics, a more compact notation is used often: $\sum_{i=1}^{10} i^2$.

Definition 14.2.1

Summation Notation

The notation

$$\sum_{i=m}^n x_i$$

is called **summation notation** and it represents the sum

$$x_m + x_{m+1} + x_{m+2} + \cdots + x_n$$

The summation symbol, \sum , is the upper case Greek letter *sigma*. The letter i is the **index of summation**; the letter m is the **lower bound of summation**, and the letter n is the **upper bound of summation**. The notation means that the index i begins with an initial value of m and increments by 1 stopping when $i = n$. The index of summation is a *dummy* variable and any letter could be used in its place.

Example 1

$$\sum_{i=3}^7 i^2 = 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2 + 7^2$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^3 \sin(k\pi) = \sin(0) + \sin(\pi) + \sin(2\pi) + \sin(3\pi)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^2}$$

There are a number of rules that help us manipulate sums.

Proposition 1 (Properties of Summation)

1. Multiplying by a constant

$$\sum_{i=m}^n cx_i = c \sum_{i=m}^n x_i \text{ where } c \text{ is a constant}$$

2. Adding two sums and subtracting two sums

$$\sum_{i=m}^n x_i + \sum_{i=m}^n y_i = \sum_{i=m}^n (x_i + y_i)$$

$$\sum_{i=m}^n x_i - \sum_{i=m}^n y_i = \sum_{i=m}^n (x_i - y_i)$$

3. Changing the bounds of the index of summation

$$\sum_{i=m}^n x_i = \sum_{i=m+k}^{n+k} x_{i-k}$$

The first two properties tell us that summation is *linear*. They require indices with the same upper and lower bounds. The last property allows us to change the bounds of the index of summation, which is often useful when combining summation expressions.

Self Check 1

Restate the following using summation notation:

The sum of the first n positive odd integers is n^2 .

14.2.2 Product Notation

Just as summation notation using \sum is an algebraic shorthand for a sum, product notation using \prod is an algebraic shorthand for a product.

Definition 14.2.2**Product Notation**

The notation

$$\prod_{i=m}^n x_i$$

is called **product notation** and it represents the product

$$x_m \cdot x_{m+1} \cdot x_{m+2} \cdots x_n$$

The product symbol, \prod , is the upper case Greek letter *pi*. The index i and the upper and lower bounds m and n behave just as they do for sums.

Example 2

$$\prod_{i=2}^n \left(1 - \frac{1}{i^2}\right) = \left(1 - \frac{1}{4}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{9}\right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{16}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

14.2.3 Recurrence Relations

You are accustomed to seeing mathematical expressions in one of two ways: **iterative** and **closed form**. For example, the sum of the first n integers can be expressed iteratively as

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n$$

or in closed form as

$$\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

There is a third way.

Definition 14.2.3**Recurrence Relation**

A **recurrence relation** is an equation that defines a sequence of numbers and which is generated by one or more initial terms, and expressions involving prior terms.

Example 3**(Sum of First n Integers)**

We can define the sum of the first n terms recursively as

$$\begin{aligned} f(1) &= 1 \text{ and} \\ f(n) &= f(n-1) + n \text{ for } n > 1 \end{aligned}$$

You are probably familiar with the Fibonacci sequence which is a recurrence relation.

Example 4**(Fibonacci Sequence)**

The initial two terms are defined as $f_1 = 1$ and $f_2 = 1$. All subsequent terms are defined by the recurrence relation $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$. The first eight terms of the Fibonacci sequence are 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21.

14.3 Principle of Mathematical Induction

Definition 14.3.1

Axiom

An **axiom** of a mathematical system is a statement that is assumed to be true. No proof is given. From axioms we derive propositions and theorems.

Sometimes axioms are described as *self-evident*, though many are not. Axioms are defining properties of mathematical systems. The *Principle of Mathematical Induction* is one such axiom.

Axiom 1

Principle of Mathematical Induction (POMI)

Let $P(n)$ be a statement that depends on $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

If

1. $P(1)$ is true, and
2. $P(k)$ is true implies $P(k + 1)$ is true for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$

then $P(n)$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Induction is a common and powerful technique and should be a consideration whenever you encounter a statement of the form

For every integer $n \geq 1$, $P(n)$ is true.

where $P(n)$ is a statement that depends on n .

The structure of a proof by induction models the Principle of Mathematical Induction. The three parts of the structure are as follows.

Base Case *Verify that $P(1)$ is true.* Usually, we prove that a relation (for example, an equality such as $\sum_{i=0}^n 2^i = 2^{n+1} - 1$, or an inequality such as $3^n > n^2$, or divisibility such as $4 \mid (5^n - 1)$, etc.) holds true for $n = 1$. The typical approach in such a case is to substitute $n = 1$ on the left side and also on the right side of the relation separately, and show that you can obtain the same number or expression from both sides. This is usually easy, but it is best to write this step out completely.

Inductive Hypothesis *Assume that $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 1$.* It is best to write out the statement $P(k)$.

Note that we are using the *select method* on k , so it is important to mention that $P(k)$ is assumed true *for some* $k \in \mathbb{N}$. If the assumption stated $P(k)$ is true *for all* $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then the whole proof would fall apart.

Inductive Conclusion Using the assumption that $P(k)$ is true, *show that $P(k + 1)$ is true.* Again, it is best to write out the statement $P(k + 1)$ before trying to prove it.

14.3.1 Why Does Induction Work?

The basic idea is simple. We show that $P(1)$ is true. We then use $P(1)$ to show that $P(2)$ is true. And then we use $P(2)$ to show that $P(3)$ is true and continue indefinitely. That is

$$P(1) \implies P(2) \implies P(3) \implies \dots \implies P(k) \implies P(k+1) \implies \dots$$

14.3.2 Two Examples of Simple Induction

Our first example is very typical and uses an equation containing the integer n .

Proposition 2

For every integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}.$$

Proof: We begin by formally writing out our inductive statement. Let $P(n)$ be the statement:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}.$$

Base Case We verify that $P(1)$ is true where $P(1)$ is the statement

$$\sum_{i=1}^1 i^2 = \frac{1(1+1)(2 \times 1+1)}{6}.$$

As in most base cases involving equations, we can evaluate the expressions on the left hand side and right hand side of the equals sign. The left hand side expression evaluates to

$$\sum_{i=1}^1 i^2 = 1^2 = 1.$$

and the right hand side expression evaluates to

$$\frac{1(1+1)(2 \times 1+1)}{6} = 1.$$

Since both sides equal each other, $P(1)$ is true.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. That is, assume

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6}.$$

Inductive Conclusion Now we show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we show

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)}{6}.$$

This is the difficult part. When working with equations, you can often start with the more complicated expression and decompose it into an instance of $P(k)$ with some leftovers. That's what we will do here.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 \right) + ((k+1)^2) && \text{(partition into } P(k) \text{ and other)} \\
 &= \left(\frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} \right) + ((k+1)^2) && \text{(use the inductive hypothesis)} \\
 &= \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1) + 6(k+1)^2}{6} && \text{(algebraic manipulation)} \\
 &= \frac{(k+1)(2k^2 + 7k + 6)}{6} && \text{(factor out } k+1, \text{ expand the rest)} \\
 &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6} && \text{(factor)} \\
 &= \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)}{6}
 \end{aligned}$$

The result is true for $n = k+1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

□

Our next example does not have any equations.

Proposition 3 Let $S_n = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$. Then S_n has 2^n subsets.

Let's be very clear about what our statement $P(n)$ is. Let $P(n)$ be the statement

S_n has 2^n subsets.

Now we can begin the proof.

Proof: Base Case We verify that $P(1)$ is true where $P(1)$ is the statement

S_1 has 2 subsets.

Note that $S_1 = \{1\}$. We can enumerate all of the sets of S_1 easily. They are $\{ \}$ and $\{1\}$, exactly two as required.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. That is, we assume

S_k has 2^k subsets.

Inductive Conclusion Now show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we show

S_{k+1} has 2^{k+1} subsets.

The subsets of S_{k+1} can be partitioned into two sets. The set A in which no subset contains the element $k+1$, and the complement of A , \bar{A} , in which every subset contains the element $k+1$. Now A is just the subsets of S_k and so, by the inductive hypothesis, has 2^k subsets of S_k . Further, \bar{A} is composed of the subsets of S_k to which the element $k+1$ is added. So, again by our inductive hypothesis, there are 2^k subsets of \bar{A} . Since A and \bar{A} are disjoint and together contain all of the subsets of S_{k+1} , there must be $2^k + 2^k = 2^{k+1}$ subsets of S_{k+1} .

The result is true for $n = k+1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Mathematical Induction. □

14.3.3 A Different Starting Point

Some true statements cannot start with “for all integers n , $n \geq 1$ ”. For example, “ $2^n > n^2$ ” is false for $n = 2, 3$, and 4 but true for $n \geq 5$. But the basic idea holds. If we can show that a statement is true for some base case $n = b$, and then show that

$$P(b) \Rightarrow P(b+1) \Rightarrow P(b+2) \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1) \Rightarrow \dots$$

this is also induction. Perhaps this is not surprising because we can always recast a statement “For every integer $n \geq b$, $P(n)$ ” as an equivalent statement “For every integer $m \geq 1$, $P(m)$ ”. For example,

$$\text{For every integer } n \geq 5, 2^n > n^2.$$

is equivalent to

$$\text{For every integer } m \geq 1, 2^{m+4} > (m+4)^2.$$

In this case, we have just replaced n by $m+4$.

The basic structure of induction is the same. To prove the statement

$$\text{For every integer } n \geq b, P(n) \text{ is true.}$$

the only changes we need to make are that our base case is $P(b)$ rather than $P(1)$, and that in our inductive hypothesis we assume $P(k)$ is true for $k \geq b$ rather than $k \geq 1$.

Here is an example.

Proposition 4 For every integer $n \geq 3$, $n^2 > 2n + 1$.

As usual, let's be very clear about what our statement $P(n)$ is. Let $P(n)$ be the statement

$$n^2 > 2n + 1.$$

Now we can begin the proof.

Proof: Base Case We verify that $P(3)$ is true where $P(3)$ is the statement

$$3^2 > 2(3) + 1.$$

This is just arithmetic as

$$3^2 = 9 > 7 = 2(3) + 1.$$

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 3$.

That is, we assume

$$k^2 > 2k + 1.$$

Inductive Conclusion Now show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we show

$$(k+1)^2 > 2(k+1) + 1.$$

We take the left-hand side and note that

$$(k+1)^2 = k^2 + 2k + 1 > (2k+1) + (2k+1) = 4k + 2 > 2k + 3 = 2(k+1) + 1.$$

The first inequality follows from the inductive hypothesis and the second inequality uses the fact that $k > 0$.

The result is true for $n = k+1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Mathematical Induction. □

Here is another, similar example.

Proposition 5

For every integer $n \geq 5$, $2^n > n^2$.

The statement $P(n)$ is:

$$2^n > n^2.$$

Proof: Base Case We verify that $P(5)$ is true where $P(5)$ is the statement

$$2^5 > 5^2.$$

This is just arithmetic as

$$2^5 = 32 > 25 = 5^2.$$

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 5$.

That is, we assume

$$2^k > k^2.$$

Inductive Conclusion Now show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we assume


$$2^{k+1} > (k+1)^2.$$

We will use the fact that for $k \geq 5$, $k^2 > 2k + 1$ which follows from the previous proposition:

$$2^{k+1} = 2 \times 2^k > 2 \times k^2 = k^2 + k^2 > k^2 + 2k + 1 = (k+1)^2.$$

The result is true for $n = k+1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Mathematical Induction. □

14.4 An Interesting Example

A **triomino** is a tile of the form 

Proposition 6

A $2^n \times 2^n$ grid of squares with one square removed can be covered by triominoes.


As usual, we begin by explicitly stating $P(n)$. Let $P(n)$ be the statement

A $2^n \times 2^n$ grid of squares with one square removed can be covered by triominoes.

We will use induction.

Proof: Base Case We verify that $P(1)$ is true. That is, we verify:

A 2×2 grid of squares with one square removed can be covered by triominoes.

A 2×2 grid with one square removed looks like  or  or  or .

Each of these can be covered by one triomino.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. That is, we assume:

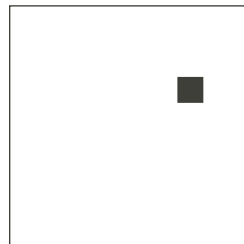
A $2^k \times 2^k$ grid of squares with one square removed can be covered by triominoes.

Note that our inductive hypothesis covers every possible position for the empty square within the grid.

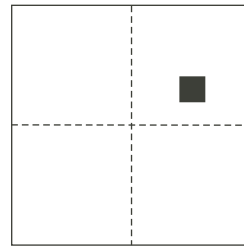
Inductive Conclusion We now show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we show:

A $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ grid of squares with one square removed can be covered by triominoes.

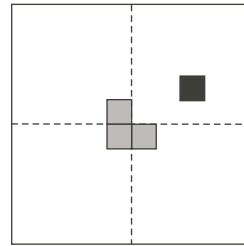
Consider a $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ grid with any square removed.



Split the $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ grid in half vertically and horizontally.



The missing square occurs in one of the four $2^k \times 2^k$ subgrids formed. We'll start by placing one tile around the centre of the grid, not covering any of the $2^k \times 2^k$ subgrids where the square is missing:



We can now view the grid as being made up of four $2^k \times 2^k$ subgrids, each with one square missing. The Inductive Hypothesis tells us that each of these can be covered by triominoes. Together with one more triomino in the centre, the whole $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ grid can be covered. The result is true for $n = k + 1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

□

REMARK

Outside of this course, proofs can often be difficult to read because of the habits of writing for professional audiences. In general, many proofs share the following properties which can be frustrating for students.

1. Proofs are economical. That is, a proof includes what is needed to verify the truth of a proposition but nothing more.
2. Proofs do not usually identify the assumptions and the goals explicitly.
3. Proofs sometimes omit or combine steps.
4. Proofs do not always explicitly justify steps.
5. Proofs do not reflect the process by which the proof was discovered.

All of this is often especially true for proofs that use induction. The reader of a proof must be conscious of the assumptions being made and the desired goal of the proof, fill in the omitted parts and justify each step.

In this course, we will train towards writing proofs that do not share the points from the list above. The point is not frustrate the readers of our proofs!

Chapter 15

Strong Induction

15.1 Objectives

1. Learn when to use *The Principle of Strong Induction*.
2. Learn how to use *The Principle of Strong Induction*.

15.2 Strong Induction

Sometimes Simple Induction doesn't work where it looks like it should. We then need to change our approach a bit. The following example is similar to examples that we've done earlier. Let's try to make The Principle of Mathematical Induction (POMI) work and see where things go wrong.

Proposition 1

Let the sequence $\{x_n\}$ be defined by $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = 30$ and $x_m = x_{m-1} + 6x_{m-2}$ for $m \geq 3$. Then

$$x_n = 2 \cdot 3^n + 3 \cdot (-2)^n \text{ for all } n \geq 1.$$

The proposition is saying that the closed form of x_n agrees with the recursive definition. This seems like a classic case for induction since the conclusion clearly depends on the integer n . Let's begin with our statement $P(n)$:

$$x_n = 2 \cdot 3^n + 3 \cdot (-2)^n.$$

Now we can begin the proof.

Proof: Use induction on n ,

Base Case We verify that $P(1)$ is true where $P(1)$ is the statement

$$x_1 = 2 \cdot 3^1 + 3 \cdot (-2)^1.$$

From the definition of the sequence $x_1 = 0$. The right side of the statement $P(1)$ evaluates to 0 so $P(1)$ is true.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. That is, we assume

$$x_k = 2 \cdot 3^k + 3 \cdot (-2)^k.$$

Inductive Conclusion Now we show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we show

$$x_{k+1} = 2 \cdot 3^{k+1} + 3 \cdot (-2)^{k+1}.$$

Starting with the left-hand side,

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= x_k + 6x_{k-1} && \text{(by the definition of the sequence)} \\ &= 2 \cdot 3^k + 3 \cdot (-2)^k + 6x_{k-1} && \text{(by the Inductive Hypothesis)} \end{aligned}$$

(Proof is not completed)

Now two problems are exposed. The more obvious problem is what do we do with x_{k-1} ? The more subtle problem is whether we can even validly write the first line. When $k+1 = 2$ we get

$$x_2 = x_1 + 6x_0$$

and x_0 is not even defined.

The basic principle that earlier instances imply later instances is sound. We need to strengthen our notion of induction in two ways. First, we need to allow for more than one base case so that we avoid invalidly using the recursive definition. Second, we need to allow access to any of the statements $P(1), P(2), P(3), \dots, P(k)$ when showing that $P(k+1)$ is true. This may seem like too strong an assumption but is, in fact, quite acceptable. This practice is based on the Principle of Strong Induction.

Axiom 2 Principle of Strong Induction (POSI)

Let $P(n)$ be a statement that depends on $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

If

1. $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(b)$ are true for some positive integer b , and
2. $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(k)$ are all true implies $P(k+1)$ is true for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$,

then $P(n)$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Just as before, there are three parts in a proof by strong induction.

Base Cases Verify that $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(b)$ are all true. This is usually easy.

Inductive Hypothesis Assume that $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(k)$ are true for some $k \geq b$. This is sometimes written as Assume that $P(i)$ is true for integers $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, k$, for some integer $k \geq b$ or Assume that $P(i)$ is true for all integers $1 \leq i \leq k$, for some $k \geq b$.

Inductive Conclusion Using the assumption that $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(k)$ are true, show that $P(k+1)$ is true.

As a rule of thumb, use strong induction when the general case depends on multiple previous cases. Though we could use strong induction all the time, it is often confusing to do so.

Let's return to our previous proposition.

Proposition 2

Let the sequence $\{x_n\}$ be defined by $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = 30$ and $x_m = x_{m-1} + 6x_{m-2}$ for $m \geq 3$. Then

$$x_n = 2 \cdot 3^n + 3 \cdot (-2)^n \text{ for } n \geq 1.$$

We will use Strong Induction. Recall our statement $P(n)$:

$$x_n = 2 \cdot 3^n + 3 \cdot (-2)^n.$$

Now we can begin the proof.

Proof: Base Case We verify that $P(1)$ and $P(2)$ are true. Now, $P(1)$ is

$$x_1 = 2 \cdot 3^1 + 3 \cdot (-2)^1.$$

From the definition of the sequence $x_1 = 0$. The right side of the statement $P(1)$ evaluates to 0 so $P(1)$ is true. Now, $P(2)$ is

$$x_2 = 2 \cdot 3^2 + 3 \cdot (-2)^2.$$

From the definition of the sequence $x_2 = 30$. The right side of the statement $P(2)$ evaluates to 30 so $P(2)$ is true.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(i)$ is true for all integers $1 \leq i \leq k$, for some $k \geq 2$. That is, we assume

$$x_i = 2 \cdot 3^i + 3 \cdot (-2)^i.$$

Inductive Conclusion Now we show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we show

$$x_{k+1} = 2 \cdot 3^{k+1} + 3 \cdot (-2)^{k+1}.$$

Starting with the left-hand side which is valid because $k \geq 2 \implies k+1 \geq 3$,

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= x_k + 6x_{k-1} && \text{(by the definition of the sequence)} \\ &= 2 \cdot 3^k + 3 \cdot (-2)^k + 6(2 \cdot 3^{k-1} + 3 \cdot (-2)^{k-1}) && \text{(by the Inductive Hypothesis)} \\ &= 3^{k-1}[2 \cdot 3 + 6 \cdot 2] + (-2)^{k-1}[3 \cdot (-2) + 6 \cdot 3] && \text{(expand and factor)} \\ &= 18 \cdot 3^{k-1} + 12 \cdot (-2)^{k-1} \\ &= 2 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 3^{k-1} + 3 \cdot (-2)^2 \cdot (-2)^{k-1} \\ &= 2 \cdot 3^{k+1} + 3 \cdot (-2)^{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

The result is true for $n = k+1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Strong Induction. □

As with simple induction, strong induction can have a starting point other than $n = 1$.

Proposition 3 Every integer $n \geq 9$ can be written in the form $3x + 4y$ for non-negative integers x and y .

Before we attempt a proof let's check small values.

x	y	$3x + 4y$
3	0	9
2	1	10
1	2	11
4	0	12
3	1	13
2	2	14

There seems to be a pattern. After every group of three integers n , we can generate the next group of three integers by adding one to the preceding values of x . Since this is a case where previous values allow us to generate later values, induction may work.

Our first task is to come up with a suitable statement $P(n)$. Let $P(n)$ be the statement

There exist non-negative integers x and y so that $3x + 4y = n$.

Now we can begin the proof.

Proof: Base Case We verify that $P(9)$, $P(10)$ and $P(11)$ are true. We repeat the table above for the required values of 9, 10 and 11. Note that x and y are non-negative integers.

x	y	$3x + 4y$
3	0	9
2	1	10
1	2	11

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(i)$ is true for all integers $9 \leq i \leq k$, for some $k \geq 11$. That is, we assume

There exist non-negative integers x and y so that $3x + 4y = i$.

Inductive Conclusion Now we show that the statement $P(k + 1)$ is true. That is, we show

There exist non-negative integers x and y so that $3x + 4y = k + 1$.

Consider the integer $(k + 1) - 3 = k - 2$. Since $9 \leq k - 2 < k$ we can use the Inductive Hypothesis to assert the existence of non-negative integers x_0 and y_0 such that $3x_0 + 4y_0 = k - 2$. Now consider the non-negative integers $x_1 = x_0 + 1$ and $y_1 = y_0$. We have that

$$3x_1 + 4y_1 = 3(x_0 + 1) + 4y_0 = 3x_0 + 4y_0 + 3 = (k - 2) + 3 = k + 1.$$

The result is true for $n = k + 1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Strong Induction.

□

15.3 More Examples

1. A sequence $\{x_n\}$ is defined by $x_1 = 11$, $x_2 = 23$ and $x_n = x_{n-1} + 12x_{n-2}$ for all integers $n \geq 3$. For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $x_n = 2 \cdot 4^n - (-3)^n$.

Proof: We will use Strong Induction. Our statement $P(n)$ is

$$x_n = 2 \cdot 4^n - (-3)^n$$

Base Case We verify that $P(1)$ and $P(2)$ are true. For $P(1)$,

$$x_1 = 2 \cdot 4^1 - (-3)^1,$$

from the definition of the sequence $x_1 = 11$. The right side of the statement $P(1)$ evaluates to 11 so $P(1)$ is true. For $P(2)$,

$$x_2 = 2 \cdot 4^2 - (-3)^2,$$

from the definition of the sequence $x_2 = 23$. The right side of the statement $P(2)$ evaluates to 23 so $P(2)$ is true.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(i)$ is true for all integers $1 \leq i \leq k$, for some $k \geq 2$. That is, we assume that

$$x_i = 2 \cdot 4^i - (-3)^i$$

Inductive Conclusion Now we show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. Namely,

$$x_{k+1} = 2 \cdot 4^{k+1} - (-3)^{k+1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= x_k + 12x_{k-1} \text{ (by the definition of the sequence)} \\ &= 2 \cdot 4^k - (-3)^k + 12(2 \cdot 4^{k-1} - (-3)^{k-1}) \text{ (by the Inductive Hypothesis)} \\ &= 4^{k-1}[2 \cdot 4 + 12 \cdot 2] + (-3)^{k-1}[-(-3) + 12 \cdot -1] \text{ (expand and factor)} \\ &= 32 \cdot 4^{k-1} + (-9) \cdot (-3)^{k-1} \\ &= 2 \cdot 4^2 \cdot 4^{k-1} - 3^2 \cdot (-3)^{k-1} \\ &= 2 \cdot 4^{k+1} - (-3)^{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

The result is true for $n = k+1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Strong Induction. □

2. If $n \geq 2$ is an integer, then n can be written as a product of primes.

Proof: Let $P(n)$ be the statement: n can be written as a product of primes.

$P(2)$ is true since 2 is itself a prime. (A product with one factor is fine.) For our Inductive Hypothesis, let $k \geq 2$ be some integer and assume that $P(i)$ is true for integers $2 \leq i \leq k$. That is, such i can be written as a product of primes. Now we show that $P(k+1)$ is true, that is, $k+1$ can be written as a product of primes. If $k+1$ is a prime, we are done. We have a product consisting of the single prime factor $k+1$. If $k+1$ is composite, then we can write $k+1 = rs$ where r and s are integers and $2 \leq r, s \leq k$. But then, by our Inductive Hypothesis, both r and s can be written as a product of primes, so $rs = k+1$ is a product of primes. The result is true for $n = k+1$, and so holds for all n by the Principle of Strong Induction. □

REMARK

When using strong induction, we prove the base cases $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(b)$ are true for some positive integer b . Depending on the nature of the problem, sometimes we may have $b = 1$, and proving $P(1)$ is sufficient for the base case. The proof carried out in the induction conclusion will tell us whether we need more than one base case.

As a rule of thumb, when the induction conclusion is completed, check whether you can use $P(1)$ to logically deduce that $P(2)$ must be true using solely the procedure from the induction conclusion step. Then check whether $P(1)$ and $P(2)$ implies $P(3)$, whether $P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3)$ implies $P(4)$, and so on. If this can be consistently done, then we need only one base case.

3. Every positive integer n can be written as a sum of non-negative distinct powers of 2.

Proof: We use strong induction on n .

Base Case When $n = 1$, $1 = 2^0$.

Induction Hypothesis Assume that for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, each integer between 1 and k can be written as a sum of distinct, non-negative powers of 2.

Induction Conclusion We will break into two cases: $k + 1$ is odd or $k + 1$ is even.

Suppose $k + 1$ is odd. By the Induction Hypothesis, k is the sum of distinct powers of 2. In particular, k is even, so this sum cannot include 2^0 , since it is the only power of 2 that is odd. By adding 2^0 to this sum, we obtain $k + 1$ as a sum of distinct powers of 2.

Suppose $k + 1$ is even. Then $(k + 1)/2$ is a positive integer less than $k + 1$. So by induction hypothesis, $(k + 1)/2$ is the sum of distinct powers of 2. By multiplying each term in the sum by 2, each power increased by 1, but the overall powers are still distinct. So this gives us $k + 1$ as a sum of distinct powers of 2.

By The Principle of Strong Induction, the result holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

□

REMARK

An interesting, but technical point is that the Well-Ordering Principle (mentioned briefly in Chapter 12), The Principle of Mathematical Induction and The Principle of Strong Induction are logically equivalent. That is, nothing can be proven by one of these that cannot be proven by any of the others.

Chapter 16

What's Wrong?

16.1 Objectives

1. To practice reading proofs carefully.
2. To gain experience in identifying common errors.

16.2 Failure Is More Common Than Success

Proving statements is hard. Both for beginners and for professionals, it is usually the case that one needs to make several attempts to prove a given statement. Even when it seems like a proof has been discovered, errors are common.

This chapter identifies some of the most common errors and gives you practice in detecting those errors. Being aware of these common errors will hopefully allow you to identify them and so avoid them in your own work.

16.3 Some Questions To Ask

Let's assume you are reading a proposed proof of the statement S . How do you go about assessing whether or not the proof is correct? Here are some questions to ask yourself.

- Is S in the form of an implication, or does it begin with a quantifier? If S is in the form of an implication, explicitly identify the hypothesis and the conclusion.
- Are there any explicit quantifiers in the statement S ? If so, identify the four parts of the quantifier and the proof technique associated with the quantifier.
- How can I justify each sentence in the proof? What definition, previously proved proposition or proof technique justifies the sentence?
- Have any steps been omitted? If so, what should those steps be and what definition, previously proved proposition or proof technique justifies the omitted step?

16.4 Assuming What You Need To Prove

To prove an implication, you assume that the hypothesis is true and deduce, by careful reasoning, that the conclusion is true. It is an extremely common error among beginning mathematicians to assume that the conclusion is true. Typically the flawed proof begins by assuming the conclusion and reasons to some true statement. The problem in this case does not lie with the reasoning, but with the assumption.

Consider the following statement and proposed proof.

Statement 1 Suppose a is an integer. If $32 \nmid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$, then a is even.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Suppose a is even.
2. Then a^2 is even, so both $a^2 + 3$ and $a^2 + 7$ are odd.
3. Since 32 is even, $32 \nmid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$.

□

The reasoning from Sentence 1 to Sentence 2 is correct. The reasoning from Sentence 2 to Sentence 3 is correct., and $32 \nmid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$ does appear in the statement we are trying to prove. But it appears as the hypothesis, not as the conclusion. The problem lies in Step 1 where the author assumed the conclusion, what needed to be proved.

REMARK

When proving an implication, assume that the hypothesis is true and deduce, by careful reasoning, that the conclusion is true. Do not assume that the conclusion is true.

16.5 Incorrectly Invoking A Proposition

This common error is related to the previous one in that inadequate attention is paid to an hypothesis and conclusion. Typically, this error occurs when a proposition is invoked but the hypotheses for the proposition are not satisfied. Hence, invoking the proposition is wrong.

Consider the following statement and proposed proof.

Statement 2 Let a, b, d be integers. If $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, then $d \leq |a - b|$.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Let $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$.

2. By the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, $d \mid (1 \cdot a - 1 \cdot b)$, that is, $d \mid (a - b)$.
3. From Bounds By Divisibility, $d \leq |a - b|$.

□

The statement is false but the proof looks convincing. To see that the statement is false, consider the case where $a = b = d = 3$. Since a , b and d are integers, and $3 \mid 3$ the hypotheses are true. But $d = 3 \not\leq 0 = |a - b|$ so the conclusion is false.

Sentence 1 simply restates the hypothesis so it is correct. The reasoning from Sentence 1 to Sentence 2 is correct. So, the error lies somewhere in Sentence 3. Recall the statement of Bounds By Divisibility. We have changed the variable names to make a comparison with the above statement clearer.

Proposition 3 (Bounds By Divisibility (BBD))

Let m and n be integers. If $m \mid n$ and $n \neq 0$ then $|m| \leq |n|$.

In going from Sentence 2 to Sentence 3, the author is assuming that $m = d$ and $n = a - b$. Let us check the hypotheses of Bounds By Divisibility. It is certainly the case that m and n are integers and that $m \mid n$ (since $d \mid (a - b)$). But, when $a = b$, $n = 0$, which contradicts the hypothesis that $n \neq 0$. Since the hypotheses of Bounds By Divisibility are not satisfied, the proposition Bounds By Divisibility cannot be invoked.

REMARK

Before invoking a proposition, make sure that all of the hypotheses of the proposition are satisfied.

16.6 Examples With A Universal Quantifier

When you try to prove a statement of the form “For every x in the set S , $P(x)$ is true”, you must cover *every* element in the set S . It is not enough to give a particular example.

Consider the following statement and proposed proof.

Statement 4 For every odd integer a , $32 \mid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Consider the case $a = 3$.
2. Then $a^2 + 3 = 12$ and $a^2 + 7 = 16$.
3. Since $(a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7) = 12 \times 16 = 192$, and $32 \mid 192$, the statement is true.

□

The “proof” shows that in the particular case $a = 3$ the statement is true. It does not address the infinitely many other odd cases all of which are included under “For every odd integer a ”.

REMARK

You cannot use an example to show that a universal statement is true. Use the select method when you want to prove that a universal statement is true.

16.7 Counter-Examples With An Existential Quantifier

When you try to prove a statement of the form “There exists an x in the set S such that $P(x)$ is true”, showing that there are elements in S which do not satisfy the statement $P(x)$ is not useful. There may be many, even infinitely many, elements in S which do not satisfy $P(x)$. The point is to show that at least one element does satisfy $P(x)$.

Consider the following statement and proposed proof that the statement is false.

Statement 5

There exists an integer in the set $S = \{10, 11, 12, \dots, 20\}$ such that $2^n - 1$ is prime.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Consider the case $n = 10$.
2. Then $2^{10} - 1 = 1023$.
3. But since $1023 = 3 \times 341$, $2^{10} - 1$ is not prime and the statement is false.

□

The “proof” shows that in the particular case $n = 10$ the statement is false. However, the statement does *not* claim that all of the elements of S have the property that $2^n - 1$ is prime. The statement only claims that one element in the set S has such a property. In fact, there is an element with that property, $n = 13$.

REMARK

You cannot use a counter-example to show that an existential statement is false. To show that an existential statement is false, negate the statement to get a universal statement and then use the select method to prove that this universal statement is true. To show that an existential statement is true, use the construct method.

16.8 Using the Same Variable For Different Objects

We see in the example below that using the same variable for different objects can lead to an incorrect conclusion.

Statement 6 Let a, b and c be integers. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$ then $b - c = 0$

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Assume $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$.
2. From $a \mid b$, $b = ka$ for some integer k .
3. From $a \mid c$, $c = ka$ for some integer k .
4. Therefore $b - c = ka - ka = 0$.

□

There is no reason to believe that dividing b by a gives the same quotient as when dividing c by a . Assuming this leads to a false statement.

REMARK

When using the object method on multiple existential quantifiers, use a new variable for each quantifier.

16.9 The Converse Is Not the Contrapositive

Recall that the contrapositive of $A \Rightarrow B$ is $\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$ and the converse of $A \Rightarrow B$ is $B \Rightarrow A$. Truth tables tell us that the contrapositive is logically equivalent to the original statement, but the converse is not. Thus, it makes sense to use the contrapositive to prove $A \Rightarrow B$, but not the converse.

If we go back to the very first proof of this chapter, reproduced below, we see that the author begins with the conclusion and ends with the hypothesis, that is, the author proved the converse, not the original statement.

Statement 7 Suppose a is an integer. If $32 \nmid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$, then a is even.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Suppose a is even.
2. Then a^2 is even, so both $a^2 + 3$ and $a^2 + 7$ are odd.
3. Since 32 is even, $32 \nmid ((a^2 + 3)(a^2 + 7))$.

□

REMARK

To prove $A \Rightarrow B$, you can prove the contrapositive $\neg B \Rightarrow \neg A$ which is logically equivalent to $A \Rightarrow B$. Proving or disproving the converse, $B \Rightarrow A$, is not helpful.

16.10 Base Cases in Induction Proofs

Induction works on the basis that

$$P(1) \Rightarrow P(2) \Rightarrow P(3) \Rightarrow \dots \Rightarrow P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1) \Rightarrow \dots$$

If $P(1)$ is false, the chain of reasoning fails. Thus, it is always important to establish the base case in induction.

Consider the following statement and proposed proof.

Statement 8

For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n > n + 1$.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Let $P(n)$ be the statement: $n > n + 1$.
2. Assume that $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. That is, $k > k + 1$ for some integer $k \geq 1$.
3. We must show that $P(k + 1)$ is true, that is, $k + 1 > k + 2$.
4. But this follows immediately by adding one to both sides of $k > k + 1$.
5. Since the result is true for $n = k + 1$, it holds for all n by the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

□

This induction fails because we did not verify that $P(1)$ is true. In fact, $P(1)$ is not true in this case. One is not greater than two.

REMARK

When doing induction, always verify the base cases.

16.11 Arithmetic and Unusual Cases

It may be that the structure of a proof is correct, but the proof stumbles while doing complicated arithmetic or not properly treating unusual cases. Consider the following statement and proposed proof.

Statement 9

If r is a positive real number with $r \neq 1$, then there is an integer n such that $2^{\frac{1}{n}} < r$.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Let n be any integer with $n > \frac{1}{\log_2(r)}$.
2. It then follows that $\frac{1}{n} < \log_2(r)$.
3. Hence $2^{\frac{1}{n}} < 2^{\log_2(r)} = r$.

□

Because the error in this proof is more subtle than others we have looked at, let's do a formal analysis of the proof.

Analysis of Proof As usual, we begin by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion. An interpretation of Sentences 1 through 3 will follow.

Hypothesis: r is a positive real number. $r \neq 1$.

Conclusion: There is an integer n such that $2^{\frac{1}{n}} < r$.

Sentence 1 *Let n be any integer with $n > 1/\log_2(r)$.*

Since an existential quantifier occurs in the conclusion, the author uses the Construct Method. The four parts of the quantifier are:

Quantifier:	\exists
Variable:	n
Domain:	\mathbb{Z}
Open sentence:	$2^{\frac{1}{n}} < r$

In the first sentence of the proof, the author constructs an integer n . Later in the proof, the author intends to show that n satisfies the open sentence of the quantifier. Since r is a real number (not equal to 1), $1/\log_2(r)$ evaluates to a real number and we can certainly find an integer greater than any given real number.

Sentence 2 *It then follows that $\frac{1}{n} < \log_2(r)$.*

Here the author takes the reciprocal of $n > 1/\log_2(r)$.

Sentence 3 *Hence $2^{\frac{1}{n}} < 2^{\log_2(r)} = r$.*

Use the left and right sides of $\frac{1}{n} < \log_2(r)$ as exponents of 2 and recall that the function 2^x always increases as x increases.

Even the analysis looks good. What went wrong? Let's look again at Sentence 2. Here we used the statement

Statement 10 If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, neither equal to 0, and $a < b$, then $1/b < 1/a$.

A proof seems pretty straightforward – divide both sides of $a < b$ by ab . Except that the statement is false. Consider the case $a = -2$ and $b = 4$. $-2 < 4$ but $\frac{1}{4} \not< \frac{1}{-2}$. Our proposition really should be

Statement 11 If $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and $0 < a < b$, then $1/b < 1/a$.

Now we see the problem in the proof. Choose r so that $0 < r < 1$, say $r = 1/2$. That will make $\log_2(r)$ negative and hence $1/\log_2(r)$ negative. Choose $n = 1$. Now Sentence 1 is satisfied but Sentence 2 fails.

16.12 Not Understanding a Definition

This is the most common error in our experience, and that is not surprising. Even great mathematicians have had difficulty with definitions. In the historical development of mathematics, correct definitions often come well after the associated mathematics has been used. Cauchy's $\epsilon - \delta$ definition of a limit came two hundred years after Newton's description of calculus.

Consider the following statement and proposed proof.

Statement 12 Let n be an integer. If $n = k^3 + 1 \geq 3$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then n is not prime.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Assume $n = k^3 + 1$, where $k \in \mathbb{N}$.
2. By factoring, $n = (k + 1)(k^2 - k + 1)$.
3. Since $k + 1$ and $k^2 - k + 1$ are integer factors of n , n cannot be a prime.

□

The problem is in step 3, which misses important parts of the definition of a prime.

Definition 16.12.1 An integer $p > 1$ is called a **prime** if and only if its only positive divisors are 1 and p itself.

Primes

To convince the reader that n is not a prime, it is insufficient to factor n as $(k+1)(k^2-k+1)$. We also need to show that these factors of n are positive and are different from 1 and n .

REMARK

Know your definitions.

Part IV

Securing Internet Commerce

Chapter 17

The Greatest Common Divisor

17.1 Objectives

1. To discover a proof of the proposition *GCD With Remainders*.
2. Do an example of the *Euclidean Algorithm*.
3. Prove the *GCD Characterization Theorem*.

17.2 Greatest Common Divisor

Definition 17.2.1
Greatest Common
Divisor

Let a and b be integers, not both zero. An integer $d > 0$ is the **greatest common divisor** of a and b , written $\gcd(a, b)$, if and only if

1. $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$ (this captures the *common* part of the definition), and
2. if $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$ then $c \leq d$ (this captures the *greatest* part of the definition).

Example 1

Here are some examples.

- $\gcd(24, 30) = 6$
- $\gcd(17, 25) = 1$
- $\gcd(-12, 0) = 12$
- $\gcd(-12, -12) = 12$

Definition 17.2.2
 $\gcd(0, 0)$

For $a \neq 0$, the definition implies that $\gcd(a, 0) = |a|$ and $\gcd(a, a) = |a|$. We define $\gcd(0, 0)$ as 0. This may sound counterintuitive, since all integers are divisors of 0, but it is consistent with $\gcd(a, 0) = |a|$ and $\gcd(a, a) = |a|$.

Let's prove a seemingly unusual proposition about greatest common divisors.

Proposition 1

If a and b are integers not both zero, and q and r are integers such that $a = qb + r$, then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Before we begin the proof, let's take a look at a numeric example.

Example 2

Suppose $a = 72$ and $b = 30$. Now $72 = 2 \times 30 + 12$ so the proposition asserts that $\gcd(72, 30) = \gcd(30, 12)$. This is true. The $\gcd(72, 30)$ and $\gcd(30, 12)$ is 6.

How would we discover a proof? Let's try the usual approach: identify the hypothesis and conclusion, and begin asking questions.

Hypothesis: a, b, q and r are integers such that $a = qb + r$.

Conclusion: $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

It is often a good idea to start with the conclusion and works backward. What is a suitable first question? How about "How do we show that two integers are equal?" There are lots of possible answers: show that their difference is zero, their ratio is one, each is less than or equal the other. However, here we are working with greatest common divisors rather than generic integers so perhaps a better question would be "How do we show that a number is a greatest common divisor?" The broad answer is relatively easy. Use the definition of greatest common divisor. After all, right now it is the only thing we have! A specific answer is less easy. Do we want to focus on $\gcd(a, b)$ or $\gcd(b, r)$? Here is an easy way to do both. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then show that $d = \gcd(b, r)$. That gets us two statements in our proof.

Proof in Progress

1. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$.
2. *To be completed.*
3. Hence $d = \gcd(b, r)$.

But how do we show that $d = \gcd(b, r)$? Use the definition. Our proof can expand to

Proof in Progress

1. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$.
2. We will show
 - (a) $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$, and
 - (b) if $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$ then $c \leq d$.
3. *To be completed.*
4. Hence $d = \gcd(b, r)$.

For the first part of the definition, we ask “How do we show that one number divides another number?” Interestingly enough, there are two different answers - one for b and one for r , though that is not obvious. For b there is already a connection between d and b in the first sentence. Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, we know from the definition of gcd that $d \mid b$.

What about r ? Using the definition of divisibility seems problematic. What propositions could we use? Transitivity of Divisibility doesn't seem to apply. How about using the Divisibility of Integer Combinations? Recall

Proposition 2 (Divisibility of Integer Combinations (DIC))

Let a, b and c be integers. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (bx + cy)$ for any $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Observe that $r = a - qb$. Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, d divides any integer combination of a and b by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations. That is, $d \mid (a(1) + b(-q))$ so $d \mid r$. Let's extend our proof in progress.

Proof in Progress

1. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$.
2. We will show
 - (a) $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$, and
 - (b) if $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$ then $c \leq d$.
3. Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, we know from the definition of gcd that $d \mid b$.
4. Observe that $r = a - qb$. Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, $d \mid (a(1) + b(-q))$ by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, so $d \mid r$.
5. *To be completed.*
6. Hence $d = \gcd(b, r)$.

That leaves us with the *greatest* part of greatest common divisor. This second part of the definition is itself an implication, so we assume that $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$ and we must show $c \leq d$. How do we show one number is less than or equal to another number? There doesn't seem to be anything obvious but ask “Have I seen this anywhere before?”. Yes, we have. In the second part of the definition of gcd. But then you might ask “Isn't that assuming what we have to prove?”. Let's be precise about what we are saying. We can use d for one inequality.

Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, for any c where $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, $c \leq d$.

What we need to show is: if $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$ then $c \leq d$.

These two statements are close, but not the same. Make sure that you see the difference. In one, we are using the fact that $d = \gcd(a, b)$. In the other, we are showing that any common factor of b and r is less than or equal to d .

If we assume that $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$, then $c \mid (b(q) + r(1))$ by Divisibility of Integer Combinations (again). Since $a = qb + r$, $c \mid a$. Combining, $d = \gcd(a, b)$ and $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, gives $c \leq d$ as needed. Let's add that to our proof in progress.

Proof in Progress

1. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$.
2. We will show
 - (a) $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$, and
 - (b) if $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$ then $c \leq d$.
3. Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, we know from the definition of gcd that $d \mid b$.
4. Observe that $r = a - qb$. Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, $d \mid (a(1) + b(-q))$ by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, so $d \mid r$.
5. Let $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$. Then $c \mid (b(q) + r(1))$ by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations. Since $a = qb + r$, $c \mid a$. Combining $d = \gcd(a, b)$ and $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, gives $c \leq d$ by the second part of the definition of greatest common divisor.
6. Hence $d = \gcd(b, r)$.

Having discovered a proof, we should now write the proof. Notice that in our written proof below, we begin by clearly making our audience aware of our plan.

Proof: Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. We will use the definition of gcd to show that $d = \gcd(b, r)$.

Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, $d \mid b$. Observe that $r = a - qb$. Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, $d \mid (a - qb)$ by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations. Hence $d \mid r$, and d is a common divisor of b and r .

Let c be a divisor of b and r . Since $c \mid b$ and $c \mid r$, $c \mid (qb + r)$ by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations. Now $a = qb + r$, so $c \mid a$. Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$ and $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$, we have $c \leq d$. Hence $d = \gcd(b, r)$. \square

REMARK

1. Notice that q and r are not restricted as in the statement of the Division Algorithm.
2. If $a = b = 0$ this proposition is also true since the only possible choices for b and r are $b = r = 0$. As a result we name and use the following more general proposition.

Proposition 3 (GCD With Remainders (GCD WR))

If a, b, q and r are integers such that $a = qb + r$, then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Example 3

Prove that for any integer a , $\gcd(22a + 7, 3a + 1) = 1$.

Proof: Since $22a + 7 = 7 \cdot (3a + 1) + a$, GCD With Remainders tells us that $\gcd(22a + 7, 3a + 1) = \gcd(3a + 1, a)$. Since $3a + 1 = 3 \cdot a + 1$, GCD With Remainders (again) tells us that $\gcd(3a + 1, a) = \gcd(a, 1)$. Since $\gcd(a, 1) = 1$, $\gcd(22a + 7, 3a + 1) = 1$. \square

Example 4 Prove that for any integer a , $\gcd(a^2, a + 1) = 1$.

Proof: Since $a^2 = (a - 1) \cdot (a + 1) + 1$, GCD With Remainders tells us that $\gcd(a^2, a + 1) = \gcd(a + 1, 1)$. Since $\gcd(a + 1, 1) = 1$, $\gcd(a^2, a + 1) = 1$. \square

17.3 Certificate of Correctness

Suppose we wanted to compute $\gcd(1386, 322)$. We could factor both numbers, find their common factors and select the greatest. In general, this is very slow.

Repeated use of GCD With Remainders allows us to efficiently compute gcds. For example, let's compute $\gcd(1386, 322)$.

Example 5

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Since } 1386 = 4 \times 322 + 98, & \gcd(1386, 322) = \gcd(322, 98). \\ \text{Since } 322 = 3 \times 98 + 28, & \gcd(322, 98) = \gcd(98, 28). \\ \text{Since } 98 = 3 \times 28 + 14, & \gcd(98, 28) = \gcd(28, 14). \\ \text{Since } 28 = 2 \times 14 + 0, & \gcd(28, 14) = \gcd(14, 0). \end{array}$$

Since $\gcd(14, 0) = 14$, the chain of equalities from the column on the right gives us

$$\gcd(1386, 322) = \gcd(322, 98) = \gcd(98, 28) = \gcd(28, 14) = \gcd(14, 0) = 14.$$

This process is known as the Euclidean Algorithm.

Exercise 1

Randomly pick two positive integers and compute their gcd using the Euclidean Algorithm. How do you know that you have the correct answer? Keep your work. You'll need it soon.

Because mistakes happen when performing arithmetic by hand, and mistakes happen when programming computers, it would be very useful if there were a way to certify that an answer is correct. Think of a *certificate of correctness* this way. You are a manager. You ask one of your staff to solve a problem. The staff member comes back with the proposed solution and a certificate of correctness that can be used to verify that the proposed solution is, in fact, correct. The certificate has two parts: a theorem which you have already proved and which relates to the problem in general, and data which relates to this specific problem.

For example, here's a proposition that allows us to produce a certificate for $\gcd(a, b)$.

Proposition 4 (GCD Characterization Theorem (GCD CT))

If d is a positive common divisor of the integers a and b , and there exist integers x and y so that $ax + by = d$, then $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Our certificate would consist of this theorem along with integers x and y . If our proposed solution was d and $d \mid a$, $d \mid b$ and $ax + by = d$, then we could conclude without doubt that $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

In Example 5 above, the proposed greatest common divisor of 1386 and 322 is 14. Our certificate of correctness consists of the GCD Characterization Theorem and the integers $d = 14$, $x = 10$ and $y = -43$. Note that $14 \mid 1386$ and $14 \mid 322$ and $1386 \times 10 + 322 \times (-43) = 14$, so we can conclude that $14 = \gcd(1386, 322)$.

Here is a proof of the GCD Characterization Theorem.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. We will show that d satisfies the definition of $\gcd(a, b)$.
2. From the hypotheses, $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$.
3. Now let $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$.
4. By the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, $c \mid (ax + by)$ so $c \mid d$.
5. By the Bounds by Divisibility, $c \leq d$, and so $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

□

Let's do an analysis of the proof.

Analysis of Proof As usual, we will begin by explicitly identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: d is a positive common divisor of the integers a and b . There exist integers x and y so that $ax + by = d$.

Conclusion: $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Core Proof Technique: A direct proof recognizing an existential quantifier in the hypothesis.

Preliminary Material: Definition of *greatest common divisor*. An integer $d > 0$ is the $\gcd(a, b)$ if and only if

1. $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, and
2. if $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$ then $c \leq d$.

Sentence 1 *We will show that d satisfies the definition of $\gcd(a, b)$.*

The author states the plan - always a good idea. The author is actually answering the question "How do I show that one number is the gcd of two other numbers?"

Sentence 2 *From the hypotheses, $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$.*

The author is working forwards from the hypothesis. This handles the first part of the definition of gcd.

Sentence 3 *Now let $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$.*

The second part of the definition of greatest common divisor is an implication with hypothesis $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$. The author must show $c \leq d$.

Sentence 4 *By the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, $c \mid (ax + by)$ so $c \mid d$.*

This is where the author uses an existential quantifier in the hypothesis. The author assumes the existence of two integers x and y such that $ax + by = d$. The author does not state this explicitly.

Having made this assumption, the author can use Sentence 3 to satisfy the hypotheses of Divisibility of Integer Combinations and so invoke the conclusion, that is, $c \mid (ax + by)$.

Sentence 5 *By the Bounds By Divisibility, $c \leq d$, and so $d = \gcd(a, b)$.*

Bounds by Divisibility concludes with a statement involving absolute values. Where did the absolute value signs go? From Sentence 4 we know that $c \mid d$ and from the hypothesis we know that $d \neq 0$ so Bounds by Divisibility implies that $|c| \leq |d|$. From the hypothesis we know more than $d \neq 0$. We know that d is positive, so $|c| \leq d$. Regardless of the sign of c , if $|c| \leq d$, it must be the case that $c \leq d$. Having determined that $c \leq d$, both parts of the definition of \gcd are satisfied and so the author can conclude that $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Now the obvious question is: “How do we find x and y ?”

Chapter 18

The Extended Euclidean Algorithm

18.1 Objectives

1. Compute the greatest common divisor of two integers and certificates using the *Extended Euclidean Algorithm*.
2. Understand and apply the statement of the *Extended Euclidean Algorithm*.

18.2 The Extended Euclidean Algorithm (EEA)

Given two positive integers, a and b , the EEA is an efficient way to compute not only $d = \gcd(a, b)$ but the data x and y for the certificate. We'll begin with an example and then formally state the algorithm.

First though, we need to know what the floor of a number is.

Definition 18.2.1
floor

The **floor** of x , written $\lfloor x \rfloor$, is the largest integer less than or equal to x .

Example 1

1. $\lfloor 9.713 \rfloor = 9$.
2. $\lfloor 9.025 \rfloor = 9$.
3. $\lfloor 9 \rfloor = 9$.
4. $\lfloor -9.713 \rfloor = -10$. Since the floor of x is the largest integer less than or equal to x , -9 cannot be the floor of -9.713 since $-9 > -9.713$.
5. $\left\lfloor \frac{7}{2} \right\rfloor = 3$.

Let's compute $\gcd(1386, 322)$ using the EEA. We begin by creating four columns labelled x , y , r (for remainder) and q (for quotient). We will construct a sequence of rows that will tell us the gcd and provide a certificate. For the i -th row we will label the column entries x_i , y_i , r_i and q_i . There is something very important to observe about the table. If we are computing $\gcd(a, b)$, in each row of the table

$$ax_i + by_i = r_i$$

Where have you seen an expression like that before?

Assuming $a > b$, the first two rows are always

x	y	r	q
1	0	a	0
0	1	b	0

so in our specific problem the first two rows are

x	y	r	q
1	0	1386	0
0	1	322	0

We construct each of the remaining rows by using the two preceding rows. To generate the third row we must first compute a quotient q_3 using the formula

$$q_i \leftarrow \left\lfloor \frac{r_{i-2}}{r_{i-1}} \right\rfloor$$

Here we get

$$q_3 = \left\lfloor \frac{r_1}{r_2} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{1386}{322} \right\rfloor = 4$$

To construct the next row we use the formula

$$\text{Row}_i = \text{Row}_{i-2} - q_i \text{Row}_{i-1}$$

When $i = 3$ we get

$$\text{Row}_3 = \text{Row}_1 - q_3 \text{Row}_2$$

With $q_3 = 4$ we get

$$\text{Row}_3 = \text{Row}_1 - 4 \times \text{Row}_2$$

Writing this in the table gives

	x	y	r	q
Row ₁	1	0	1386	0
$-4 \times \text{Row}_2$	0	1	322	0
$= \text{Row}_3$	1	-4	98	4

In a similar fashion we get the fourth row. To generate the fourth row we must first compute a quotient q_4 using the formula

$$q_i \leftarrow \left\lfloor \frac{r_{i-2}}{r_{i-1}} \right\rfloor$$

Here we get

$$q_4 = \left\lfloor \frac{r_2}{r_3} \right\rfloor = \left\lfloor \frac{322}{98} \right\rfloor = 3$$

To construct the next row we use the formula

$$\text{Row}_i \leftarrow \text{Row}_{i-2} - q_i \text{Row}_{i-1}$$

When $i = 4$ we get

$$\text{Row}_4 \leftarrow \text{Row}_2 - q_4 \text{Row}_3$$

With $q_4 = 3$ we get

$$\text{Row}_4 \leftarrow \text{Row}_2 - 3 \times \text{Row}_3$$

and so

	x	y	r	q
	1	0	1386	0
Row ₂	0	1	322	0
$-3 \times \text{Row}_3$	1	-4	98	4
$= \text{Row}_4$	-3	13	28	3

The completely worked out example follows.

x	y	r	q
1	0	1386	0
0	1	322	0
1	-4	98	4
-3	13	28	3
10	-43	14	3
-23	99	0	2

We stop when the remainder is 0. The second last row provides the desired d , x and y . The greatest common divisor d is the entry in the r column, x is the entry in the x column and y is the entry in the y column. Hence, $d = 14$ (as before), and we can check the conditions of the GCD Characterization Theorem to certify correctness. Since $14 \mid 1386$ and $14 \mid 322$ and $1386 \times 10 + 322 \times (-43) = 14$, we can conclude that $14 = \gcd(1386, 322)$.

If a or b is negative, apply the EEA to $\gcd(|a|, |b|)$ and then change the signs of x and y after the EEA is complete. If $a < b$, simply swap their places in the algorithm. This works because $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a)$.

Here is a formal statement of the algorithm.

Algorithm 1 Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Require: $a > b > 0$ are integers.

Ensure: The following conditions hold at the end of the algorithm.

$$r_{n+1} = 0.$$

$$r_n = \gcd(a, b).$$

$$r_{i-2} = q_i r_{i-1} + r_i \text{ where } 0 \leq r_i < r_{i-1}.$$

$$\text{In every row, } ax_i + by_i = r_i.$$

$$x = x_n, y = y_n \text{ is a solution to } ax + by = \gcd(a, b).$$

{Initialize}

Construct a table with four columns so that

The columns are labelled x , y , r and q .

The first row in the table is $(1, 0, a, 0)$.

The second row in the table is $(0, 1, b, 0)$.

{To produce the remaining rows ($i \geq 3$)}

repeat

$$q_i \leftarrow \left\lfloor \frac{r_{i-2}}{r_{i-1}} \right\rfloor$$

$$\text{Row}_i \leftarrow \text{Row}_{i-2} - q_i \text{Row}_{i-1}$$

until $r_i = 0$

We treat the EEA as a proposition where the preconditions of the algorithm are the hypotheses and the postconditions of the algorithm are the conclusions. However, if a or b is negative, we can apply the EEA with $|a|$ and $|b|$ and convert signs afterwards. Therefore, the algorithm gives rise to a well known theorem for any integers a and b .

Proposition 1 (Bézout's Lemma (BL))

If a and b are integers, then $d = \gcd(a, b)$ can be computed and there exist integers x and y so that $ax + by = d$.

Note that this also known as Bézout's Identity.

A proof of the correctness of the EEA and Bézout's Lemma is not included in these notes.

Example 2

Let $d = \gcd(231, 660)$.

1. Use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm to compute d and provide a certificate that d is correct.
2. Using part (a), find $d_1 = \gcd(231, -660)$ and provide a certificate that d_1 is correct.
3. Using part (a) of this question, find $d_2 = \gcd(-231, -660)$ and provide a certificate that d_2 is correct.

Solution:

1.

x	y	r	q
1	0	660	0
0	1	231	0
1	-2	198	2
-1	3	33	1
7	-20	0	6

By the EEA, $d = 33$. Our certificate consists of the GCD Characterization Theorem together with $d = 33$ (d is positive and divides both 660 and 231), and the integers -1 and 3 (since $660(-1) + 231(3) = 33$).

2. Since $\gcd(231, -660) = \gcd(231, 660)$, $d_1 = 33$. Our certificate consists of the GCD Characterization Theorem together with $d_1 = 33$ (d_1 is positive and divides both -660 and 231), and the integers 1 and 3 (since $-660(1) + 231(3) = 33$).
3. Since $\gcd(-231, -660) = \gcd(231, 660)$, $d_2 = 33$. Our certificate consists of the GCD Characterization Theorem together with $d_2 = 33$ (d_2 is positive and divides both -660 and -231), and the integers 1 and -3 (since $-660(1) - 231(-3) = 33$).

Example 3

Prove the following statement. Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ where $a \neq 0$ or $b \neq 0$. If $c > 0$, then $\gcd(ac, bc) = c \gcd(a, b)$.

Proof: Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. We will use the GCD Characterization Theorem and Bézout's Lemma.

First, we show that cd is a common divisor of ac and bc . Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, $d \mid a$. By the definition of divisibility, there exists an integer k so that $dk = a$. Multiplying this equation by c gives $cdk = ca$. Since k is an integer, $cd \mid ac$. Similarly, $cd \mid bc$.

Next, we show that there exist integers x_0 and y_0 so that

$$acx_0 + bcy_0 = cd$$

Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, by Bézout's Lemma, there exist integers x_1 and y_1 so that

$$ax_1 + by_1 = d$$

Multiplying this equation by c gives

$$acx_1 + bcy_1 = cd$$

Letting $x_0 = x_1$ and $y_0 = y_1$ gives the required values for the GCD Characterization Theorem.

□

Chapter 19

Properties Of GCDs

19.1 Objectives

1. Define *coprime*.
2. Discover a proof of *Coprimeness and Divisibility*.
3. Give the statement of *Primes and Divisibility*.
4. See proofs of *GCD of One* and *Division by the GCD*.

19.2 Some Useful Propositions

We begin with a proposition on coprimeness and divisibility.

Definition 19.2.1
Coprime

Two integers a and b are **coprime** if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Proposition 1

(Coprime and Divisibility (CAD))

If a , b and c are integers and $c \mid ab$ and $\gcd(a, c) = 1$, then $c \mid b$.

This proposition has two implicit existential quantifiers, one in the hypothesis and one in the conclusion. You might object and ask “Where?” They are hidden - in the definition of *divides*. Recall the definition. An integer m divides an integer n if *there exists* an integer k so that $n = km$.

We treat an existential quantifier in the hypothesis differently from an existential quantifier in the conclusion. Recall the following remarks from the chapter on quantifiers.

REMARK

When proving that “ A implies B ” and A uses an existential quantifier, use the object method.

1. Identify the four parts of the quantified statement “there exists an x in the set S such that $P(x)$ is true.”
2. *Assume* that a mathematical object x exists within the domain S so that the statement $P(x)$ is true.
3. Make use of this information to generate another statement.

When proving that “ A implies B ” and B uses an existential quantifier, use the construct method.

1. Identify the four parts of the quantified statement. “there exists an x in the set S such that $P(x)$ is true.”
2. *Construct* a mathematical object x .
3. Show that $x \in S$.
4. Show that $P(x)$ is true.

With all of this in mind, how do we go about discovering a proof for Coprimeness and Divisibility? As usual, we will begin by explicitly identifying the hypothesis, the conclusion, the core proof technique and any preliminary material we think we might need.

Hypothesis: a, b and c are integers and $c \mid ab$ and $\gcd(a, c) = 1$.

Conclusion: $c \mid b$.

Core Proof Technique: We use the object method because of the existential quantifier in the hypothesis, and the construct method because of the existential quantifier in the conclusion.

Preliminary Material: Definition of *divides* and *greatest common divisor*.

Let’s work backwards from the conclusion by asking the question “How do we show that one integer divides another?” We can answer with “the definition of divisibility.” We must construct an integer k so that $b = ck$. We will record this as follows.

Proof in Progress

1. *To be completed.*
2. Since $b = kc$, $c \mid b$.

The problem is that it is not at all clear what k should be. Let's work forwards from the hypothesis.

Somehow we need an equation with a b alone on one side of the equality sign. We can't start there but we can get an equation with a b . Since $\gcd(a, c) = 1$, Bézout's Lemma tells us we can find integers x and y so that $ax + cy = 1$. We could multiply this equation by b . Let's record these forward statements.

Proof in Progress

1. Since $\gcd(a, c) = 1$, Bézout's Lemma guarantees that we can find integers x and y so that $ax + cy = 1$. Call this equation (1).
2. Multiplying (1) by b gives $abx + cby = b$. Call this equation (2).
3. *To be completed.*
4. Since $b = kc$, $c \mid b$.

If we could factor the left hand side of (2), we'd be able to get a c and other stuff that we could treat as our k . But the first term has no c . Or maybe it does. Since $c \mid ab$ there exists an integer h so that $ch = ab$. Substituting ch for ab in (2) gives $chx + cby = b$. We record this as

Proof in Progress

1. Since $\gcd(a, c) = 1$, Bézout's Lemma guarantees that we can find integers x and y so that $ax + cy = 1$. Call this equation (1).
2. Multiplying (1) by b gives $abx + cby = b$. Call this equation (2).
3. Since $c \mid ab$ there exists an integer h so that $ch = ab$. Substituting ch for ab in (2) gives $chx + cby = b$.
4. *To be completed.*
5. Since $b = kc$, $c \mid b$.

Now factor.

Proof in Progress

1. Since $\gcd(a, c) = 1$, Bézout's Lemma guarantees that we can find integers x and y so that $ax + cy = 1$. Call this equation (1).
2. Multiplying (1) by b gives $abx + cby = b$. Call this equation (2).
3. Since $c \mid ab$ there exists an integer h so that $ch = ab$. Substituting ch for ab in (2) gives $chx + cby = b$.
4. This gives $c(hx + by) = b$.
5. But then if we let $k = hx + by$ we have an integer k so that $ck = b$.
6. Since $b = kc$, $c \mid b$.

Here is a proof.

Proof: By Bézout's Lemma and the hypothesis $\gcd(a, c) = 1$, there exist integers x and y so that $ax + cy = 1$. Multiplying by b gives $abx + cby = b$. Since $c \mid ab$ there exists an integer h so that $ch = ab$. Substituting ch for ab gives $chx + cby = b$. Lastly, factoring produces $(hx + by)c = b$. Since $hx + by$ is an integer, $c \mid b$. \square

As a corollary of Coprimeness and Divisibility we have the following proposition.

Corollary 2 (Euclid's Lemma (EL))

If p is a prime and $p \mid ab$, then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.

Exercise 1

Prove Primes and Divisibility. Because of the “or” in the conclusion, you may want to use the elimination method.

Let us consider more properties of the greatest common divisor.

Proposition 3 (GCD of One (GCD OO))

Let a and b be integers. Then $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ if and only if there are integers x and y with $ax + by = 1$.

This proposition has similar elements to the one we just proved, so it won't be a surprise if we use similar reasoning.

REMARK

The important difference is that this statement is an “if and only if” statement. To prove “ A if and only if B ” we must prove two statements:

1. If A , then B .
2. If B , then A .

Symbolically, we write “ A if and only if B ” as $A \iff B$. We established the equivalence of $A \iff B$ and $(A \Rightarrow B) \wedge (B \Rightarrow A)$ in the chapter *Truth Tables*.

We can restate the proposition as

Proposition 4 (GCD of One (GCD OO))

Let a and b be integers.

1. If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then there are integers x and y with $ax + by = 1$.
2. If there are integers x and y with $ax + by = 1$, then $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

In statement (1), there is an existential quantifier in the conclusion, so we would expect to use the construction method. The problem is “Where do we get x and y ?” In the previous proof, we used Bézout’s Lemma and it makes sense to use it here as well. By Bézout’s Lemma and the hypothesis $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, there exist integers x and y so that $ax + by = 1$.

In statement (2), an existential quantifier occurs in the hypothesis so we use the object method and assume the existence of integers x and y so that $ax + by = 1$. Also, $1 \mid a$ and $1 \mid b$. These are exactly the hypotheses of the GCD Characterization Theorem, so we can conclude that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Here is a proof of the GCD of One proposition.

Proof: Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, Bézout’s Lemma assures the existence of integers x and y so that $ax + by = 1$. Statement 1 is proved.

Now, $1 \mid a$ and $1 \mid b$. Also, by the hypothesis of Statement 2, there exist integers x and y so that $ax + by = 1$. These are exactly the hypotheses of the GCD Characterization Theorem, so we can conclude that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and Statement 2 is proved. \square

REMARK

This proof illustrates the connection between the GCD Characterization Theorem and Bézout’s Lemma. Both assume integers a and b . The GCD Characterization Theorem starts with an integer d where $d \mid a$, $d \mid b$ and integers x and y so that $ax + by = d$ and concludes that $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Bézout’s Lemma gives a d so that $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, namely $d = \gcd(a, b)$, and also hands us integers x and y so that $ax + by = d$.

So, if we encounter a greatest common divisor in the conclusion, we can try the GCD Characterization Theorem. If we encounter a greatest common divisor in the hypothesis, we can try using Bézout’s Lemma.

Here is another property of greatest common divisors.

Proposition 5 (Division by the GCD (DB GCD))

Let a and b be integers. If $\gcd(a, b) = d \neq 0$, then $\gcd\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right) = 1$.

As we often do, let’s get a sense of the proposition by using numeric examples.

Example 1

First, observe that $\gcd\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right)$ is meaningful. Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, both $\frac{a}{d}$ and $\frac{b}{d}$ are integers.

Now $\gcd(18, 24) = 6$. By the proposition Division by the GCD,

$$\gcd\left(\frac{18}{6}, \frac{24}{6}\right) = 1$$

which is exactly what we would expect from $\gcd(3, 4)$.

Now take minute to read the proof.

Proof: We will use the GCD Characterization Theorem. Since $\gcd(a, b) = d$, Bézout's Lemma assures the existence of integers x and y so that $ax + by = d$. Dividing by d gives

$$\frac{a}{d}x + \frac{b}{d}y = 1$$

Since 1 divides both $\frac{a}{d}$ and $\frac{b}{d}$ and 1 is positive, the GCD Characterization Theorem implies that $\gcd\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right) = 1$. □

19.3 Using Properties of GCD

We have now built up a collection of useful results that we can build upon to increase our understanding of the greatest common divisor.

Example 2

Prove the following proposition. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. For every integer $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $\gcd(a, b^n) = 1$.

Proof: We begin by formally writing out our inductive statement $P(n)$:

$$\text{If } \gcd(a, b) = 1, \text{ then } \gcd(a, b^n) = 1.$$

Base Case The statement

$$\text{If } \gcd(a, b) = 1, \text{ then } \gcd(a, b) = 1.$$

is trivially true.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. That is, we assume

$$\text{If } \gcd(a, b) = 1, \text{ then } \gcd(a, b^k) = 1.$$

Inductive Conclusion Now we show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true, namely

$$\text{If } \gcd(a, b) = 1, \text{ then } \gcd(a, b^{k+1}) = 1.$$

Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, Bézout's Lemma tells us that there exist integers x and y so that

$$ax + by = 1$$

Since $\gcd(a, b^k) = 1$ by the Inductive Hypothesis, Bézout's Lemma tells us that there exist integers x' and y' so that

$$ax' + b^k y' = 1$$

Multiplying the two equations together gives

$$a^2 x x' + ab^k x y' + ab x' y + b^{k+1} y y' = 1$$

which we can rewrite as

$$a(axx' + b^k xy' + bx'y) + b^{k+1}(yy') = 1$$

Let $x'' = axx' + b^k xy' + bx'y$ and $y'' = yy'$. Since there exist integers x'' and y'' so that

$$ax'' + b^{k+1}y'' = 1$$

we can invoke GCD of One to assert that $\gcd(a, b^{k+1}) = 1$.

□

Example 3

Prove the following proposition. Given any rational number r , prove that there exist coprime integers p and q , with $q \neq 0$, so that $r = \frac{p}{q}$.

Proof: Since r is rational, we can write r as $r = \frac{a}{b}$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \neq 0$. Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Since $b \neq 0$, $d \neq 0$. Let $p = \frac{a}{d}$ and $q = \frac{b}{d}$. Since d is a divisor of a and b , both p and q are integers. Moreover, the proposition Division by GCD assures us that $\gcd(p, q) = 1$. Thus, there exist coprime integers p and q , with $q \neq 0$, so that $r = \frac{p}{q}$. □

Chapter 20

GCD from Prime Factorization

20.1 Objectives

1. State the *Unique Factorization Theorem* and the proof of uniqueness.
2. Read a proof of *Finding A Prime Factor*.
3. State and use *Divisors from Prime Factorization*.
4. State and use *GCD from Prime Factorization*.

Many of us are familiar with a method for calculating the GCD of positive integers with the help of prime factorization. For example, given

$$252 = 2^2 \times 3^2 \times 7 \text{ and } 630 = 2 \times 3^2 \times 5 \times 7,$$

you may know that you can take the minimum exponent for each prime factor to determine that $\gcd(252, 630) = 2 \times 3^2 \times 7 = 126$. In this chapter, we investigate prime numbers towards formalizing this result.

20.2 Introduction to Primes

Recall our definition of prime number.

Definition 20.2.1
Prime, Composite

An integer $p > 1$ is called a **prime** if and only if its only positive divisors are 1 and p itself. Otherwise, p is called **composite**.

Example 1

The integers 2, 3, 5 and 7 are primes. The integers $4 = 2 \times 2$, $6 = 2 \times 3$ and $8 = 2 \times 2 \times 2$ are composite. Note, that by definition, 1 is not a prime.

We have already proved three propositions about primes, one of which is a consequence of Coprimeness and Divisibility, and the other two were proved in the chapter on contradiction.

Proposition 1 (Euclid's Lemma (EL))

If p is a prime and $p \mid ab$, then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.

Proposition 2 (Prime Factorization (PF))

If n is an integer greater than 1, then n can be written as a product of prime factors.

Proposition 3 (Euclid's Theorem (ET))

The number of primes is infinite.

20.3 Unique Factorization Theorem (UFT)

In grade school you used prime numbers to write the prime factorization of any positive integer greater than one. You probably never worried about the possibility that there might be more than one way to do this. However, in some sets “prime” factorization is not unique.

Consider the set $S = \{a + b\sqrt{5} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. In S , the number $4 = 4 + 0\sqrt{5}$ can be factored in two different ways, $4 = 2 \times 2$ and $4 = (\sqrt{5} + 1)(\sqrt{5} - 1)$. Moreover, 2, $\sqrt{5} + 1$ and $\sqrt{5} - 1$ are all prime numbers in S !

Since multiplication in the integers is commutative, the prime factorizations can be written in any order. For example $12 = 2 \times 2 \times 3 = 2 \times 3 \times 2 = 3 \times 2 \times 2$. However, up to the order of the factors, the factorization of integers is unique. This property is so basic it is referred to as the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic. It is also referred to as the Unique Factorization Theorem.

Theorem 4 (Unique Factorization Theorem (UFT))

If $n > 1$ is an integer, then n can be written as a product of prime factors and, apart from the order of factors, this factorization is unique.

Recall that a single prime number is considered a product.

This theorem is also well known as the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic.

How can this important result be proved? First, observe that the conclusion contains two parts:

1. n can be written as a product of prime factors (which we proved earlier), and
2. apart from the order of factors, this factorization is unique.

That n can be written as a product of prime factors follows is precisely the proposition Prime Factorization. The key new part of the statement is that apart from the order of factors, this factorization is unique. What follows is an outline of the proof of uniqueness.

Sketch of Proof:

1. Suppose that n is factored into primes in two ways,

$$n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k = q_1 q_2 \dots q_\ell \quad (20.1)$$

where all of the p 's and q 's are primes.

2. Since $p_1 \mid n$, $p_1 \mid q_1 q_2 \dots q_\ell$.
3. By repeatedly applying Euclid's Lemma, p_1 must divide one of the q 's. If necessary, rearrange the q 's so that $p_1 \mid q_1$.
4. Since q_1 is prime, and $p_1 > 1$, it must be the case that $p_1 = q_1$.
5. Dividing Equation 20.1 by $p_1 = q_1$ gives

$$p_2 p_3 \dots p_k = q_2 q_3 \dots q_\ell \quad (20.2)$$

6. By continuing in this way, we see that each p must be paired off with one of the q s until there are no factors on either side.
7. Hence $k = \ell$ and, apart from the order of the factors, the two expressions for n are the same.

This is a classic use of the uniqueness method. We assume that there are two representations of the same object, and show that the two representations are, in fact, identical. Why, however, is the argument labelled as a *sketch* of a proof? What is not as rock solid as we would like it to be?

The author is waving his or her hands when writing “repeatedly applying” and “continuing in this way”. How do we know that Euclid's Lemma can be applied indefinitely? Are we sure that we can always continue pairing factors? It may seem obvious to you and some mathematicians might be lazy and leave the argument as stated above. However, induction can be used to be fully convincing and meet our standards of rigour.

Self Check 1

Use induction to prove the following generalization of Euclid's Lemma for all natural numbers n .

If p is prime and $p \mid (m_1 m_2 \dots m_n)$, then $p \mid m_i$ for some $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Self Check 2

Write a formal rigorous proof of the Unique Factorization Theorem (UFT).

20.4 Finding a Prime Factor

The previous proposition does not provide an algorithm for finding the prime factors of a positive integer n . The next proposition shows that we do not have to check *all* of the prime factors less than n , only those less than or equal to the square root of n .

Proposition 5 (Finding a Prime Factor (FPF))

An integer $n > 1$ is either prime or contains a prime factor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

Let's begin by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: n is an integer and $n > 1$.

Conclusion: n is either prime or contains a prime factor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

Before we see a proof, let's do an example.

Example 2 Is 73 a prime number?

Solution: Using Finding a Prime Factor, we can check for divisibility by primes less than or equal to $\sqrt{73}$. Now $\sqrt{73} < \sqrt{81} = 9$ so any possible prime factor must be less than or equal to 8. The only candidates to check are 2, 3, 5 and 7. Since none of these divide 73, 73 must be prime.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Suppose that n is not prime.
2. Let p be the smallest prime factor of n .
3. Since n is composite we can write $n = ab$ where a and b are integers such that $1 < a, b < n$.
4. Since p is the smallest prime factor, $p \leq a$ and $p \leq b$ and so $p^2 = p \cdot p \leq a \cdot b = n$. That is $p \leq \sqrt{n}$.

□

Analysis of Proof Since *or* appears in the conclusion, we will use proof by elimination. The equivalent statement that is proved is:

If n is an integer greater than 1 and n is not prime, then n contains a prime factor less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

The word “a” should alert us to the presence of an existential quantifier. We could reword the statement as

If n is an integer greater than 1 and n is not prime, then there exists a prime factor of n which is less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

This is the statement that will actually be proved.

Hypothesis: n is an integer greater than 1 and n is not prime.

Conclusion: There exists a prime factor of n which is less than or equal to \sqrt{n} .

Core Proof Technique: There is an existential quantifier in the conclusion so the author uses the construct method.

Sentence 1 *Suppose that n is not prime.*

This sentence tells us that the author is going to use proof by elimination.

Sentence 2 *Let p be the smallest prime factor of n .*

The conclusion has an existential quantifier and so the author uses the construct method. The prime p will be the desired prime factor though it is not clear yet why “smallest” is important. The proposition on Prime Factorization guarantees us that a prime factor exists.

Sentence 3 *Since n is composite we can write $n = ab$ where a and b are integers such that $1 < a, b < n$.*

By the hypotheses of the restated proposition, $n > 1$ and n is not prime, so n is composite and can be factored.

Sentence 4 *Since p is the smallest prime factor, $p \leq a$ and $p \leq b$ and so $p^2 = p \cdot p \leq a \cdot b = n$. That is $p \leq \sqrt{n}$.*

This is where “smallest” is used. The conclusion follows from arithmetic and the fact that p is the smallest prime factor.

20.5 Working With Prime Factorizations

The Unique Factorization Theorem tells us that for any integer $n \geq 2$, if p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are all the distinct primes that divide n , then we may express

$$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k},$$

where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{N}$. For example, the prime divisors of 80262 are 2, 3, 7 and 13, and, in particular, $80262 = 2^1 \times 3^2 \times 7^3 \times 13^1$.

Note that in the unique prime factorization of 80262, we cannot use primes such as 5, 11 or 17 as they do not divide 80262. However, if we are willing to give up on the uniqueness of the factorization, then we may write $80262 = 2^1 \times 3^2 \times 5^0 \times 7^3 \times 11^0 \times 13^1 \times 17^0$. The key here is that 5^0 , 11^0 and 17^0 are all equal to 1, so their inclusion in the product has not changed the overall answer. Nevertheless, this has now allowed us to use a larger list of primes in the factorization of 80262, at the cost of losing the guarantee that these primes will divide 80262.

In general, given any integer $n \geq 2$, if we have a large enough list of distinct primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m that includes all the prime divisors of n , but may also include primes that don't divide n , then we are allowed to represent n using all the primes in this list by saying

$$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_m^{\alpha_m},$$

where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_m$ are non-negative integers. The next proposition uses this idea to list all of the positive divisors of a positive integer.

Proposition 6 (Divisors From Prime Factorization (DFPF))

Let $n > 1$ be an integer and $d \in \mathbb{N}$. If

$$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$$

is the unique prime factorization of n into powers of distinct primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k , where the integers $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \geq 1$, then d is a positive divisor of n if and only if d can be written as

$$d = p_1^{d_1} p_2^{d_2} \cdots p_k^{d_k} \text{ where } 0 \leq d_i \leq \alpha_i \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

Proof: Assume $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$, where p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are distinct primes and the integers $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k \geq 1$.

In the case when $d = 1$, we know d is a positive divisor of n and we have $1 = p_1^0 p_2^0 \cdots p_k^0$, so the proposition is true for $d = 1$.

Otherwise, suppose $d \geq 2$. We will now prove the conclusion of the given proposition by proving each direction of the if and only if statement.

“ \implies ” : We will use strong induction on n .

When $n = 2$, the prime factorization of n is 2^1 . The only positive divisors of 2 are 2^0 and 2^1 so the statement is true when $n = 2$.

Assume that the statement is true for all $n \leq k$ for some integer $k \geq 2$.

Consider when $n = k + 1$. Assume $d \mid n$. By Prime Factorization, we know that d has a prime factor. Moreover, by Transitivity of Divisibility, this prime factor divides n . Using the generalization of Euclid's Lemma, (after rearranging primes, if necessary), we can say this prime is p_1 . After dividing, we have that $\frac{d}{p_1} \mid \frac{n}{p_1}$. Now, if $\frac{n}{p_1} = 1$, then $d = p_1$ and $n = p_1$ so the claim holds. Otherwise, $2 \leq \frac{n}{p_1} < n$, so by our inductive hypothesis, $\frac{d}{p_1}$ can be written as

$$p_1^{d_1-1} p_2^{d_2} \cdots p_k^{d_k} \text{ where } 0 \leq d_1 - 1 \leq \alpha_1 - 1 \text{ and } 0 \leq d_i \leq \alpha_i \text{ for } i = 2, \dots, k.$$

After multiplying by p_1 , we complete the proof in this direction by the Principal of Strong Induction.

“ \impliedby ” : Suppose we have the expression $d = p_1^{d_1} p_2^{d_2} \cdots p_k^{d_k}$ where $0 \leq d_i \leq \alpha_i$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. Since $(\alpha_i - d_i) \geq 0$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, we know that

$$q = p_1^{(\alpha_1 - d_1)} p_2^{(\alpha_2 - d_2)} \cdots p_k^{(\alpha_k - d_k)}.$$

is a positive integer. Exponent laws tell us that

$$qd = (p_1^{(\alpha_1 - d_1)} p_2^{(\alpha_2 - d_2)} \cdots p_k^{(\alpha_k - d_k)}) (p_1^{d_1} p_2^{d_2} \cdots p_k^{d_k}) = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k} = n.$$

Therefore $d \mid n$ as required. □

Example 3 (Using Divisors From Prime Factorization)

What are the positive divisors of 72?

We will use Divisors From Prime Factorization. Since

$$72 = 2^3 3^2$$

the positive divisors of a are integers of the form

$$d = 2^{d_1} 3^{d_2} \text{ where } 0 \leq d_1 \leq 3 \text{ and } 0 \leq d_2 \leq 2.$$

The possibilities are

$$\begin{array}{llll} 2^0 3^0 = 1 & 2^1 3^0 = 2 & 2^2 3^0 = 4 & 2^3 3^0 = 8 \\ 2^0 3^1 = 3 & 2^1 3^1 = 6 & 2^2 3^1 = 12 & 2^3 3^1 = 24 \\ 2^0 3^2 = 9 & 2^1 3^2 = 18 & 2^2 3^2 = 36 & 2^3 3^2 = 72 \end{array}$$

Exercise 1 Using Divisors From Prime Factorization, list all of the positive factors of 45.

Exercise 2 Show that the number of positive divisors of an integer n , whose unique prime factorization is

$$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k},$$

is given by $(\alpha_1 + 1)(\alpha_2 + 1) \cdots (\alpha_k + 1)$.

Now that we have a method to obtain all the positive divisors of any positive integer using its prime factorization, we may expect to use this method to calculate the GCD of two positive integers say a and b . First, note that given $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, since there are infinitely many primes but only a finite number of prime factors of a and b , we may produce a large enough list of distinct primes, say p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k , that contain all the prime divisors of both a and b . This provides us with ways to write both a and b , respectively, in terms of the primes p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k as

$$\begin{aligned} a &= p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}, \text{ and} \\ b &= p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k}, \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_k$ and $\beta_1, \beta_2, \dots, \beta_k$ are non-negative integers.

Proposition 7 (GCD From Prime Factorization (GCD PF))

If

$$a = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$$

and

$$b = p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k}$$

are ways to express a and b as a product of primes, where the primes are distinct and some of the exponents may be zero, then

$$\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{d_1} p_2^{d_2} \cdots p_k^{d_k} \text{ where } d_i = \min\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\} \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, k.$$

Proof: Assume that $a = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ and $b = p_1^{\beta_1} p_2^{\beta_2} \cdots p_k^{\beta_k}$, where p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k are distinct primes and the exponents are non-negative integers.

Consider $d \in \mathbb{N}$ given by $d = p_1^{d_1} p_2^{d_2} \cdots p_k^{d_k}$ where $d_i = \min\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\}$ for $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$. Since $\min\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\} \leq \alpha_i$ as well as $\min\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\} \leq \beta_i$ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, according to Divisors From Prime Factorization (DFPF), $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$.

Consider some positive integer c such that $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$. According to DFPF, a prime factorization of c is

$$c = p_1^{\gamma_1} p_2^{\gamma_2} \cdots p_k^{\gamma_k},$$

where for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, $0 \leq \gamma_i \leq \alpha_i$ as $c \mid a$ and $0 \leq \gamma_i \leq \beta_i$ as $c \mid b$. On the other hand, for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$, $d_i = \alpha_i$ if $\alpha_i \leq \beta_i$, otherwise $d_i = \beta_i$, which means $0 \leq \gamma_i \leq d_i$. Then, once again by DFPF, $c \mid d$, so *Bounds By Divisibility (BBD)* gives us $c \leq d$. Note that a similar analysis would apply to all negative common divisors of a and b .

Consequently, the definition of GCD, $d = \gcd(a, b)$. □

Example 4 (Using GCD From Prime Factorization)

What is $\gcd(24750, 434511)$?

Since

$$24750 = 2^1 3^2 5^3 11^1 = 2^1 3^2 5^3 7^0 11^1 19^0$$

and

$$434511 = 3^3 7^1 11^2 19^1 = 2^0 3^3 5^0 7^1 11^2 19^1,$$

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(24750, 434511) &= 2^{\min\{1,0\}} 3^{\min\{2,3\}} 5^{\min\{3,0\}} 7^{\min\{0,1\}} 11^{\min\{1,2\}} 19^{\min\{0,1\}} \\ &= 2^0 3^2 5^0 7^0 11^1 19^0 \\ &= 99 \end{aligned}$$

Though this method of finding the GCD works well enough on small examples, but for larger numbers, this method is very slow and inefficient. Nevertheless, it is an important theoretical tool that can be used to prove other propositions.

Exercise 3 Use GCD PF to compute $\gcd(3^3 5^1 7^4 13^1, 5^2 7^7 13^1 23^2)$.

Chapter 21

Linear Diophantine Equations: One Solution

21.1 Objectives

1. Define *Diophantine equations*.
2. Prove the *Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem (Part 1)*

21.2 Linear Diophantine Equations

In high school, you studied how to find all the real solutions to systems of linear equations. However, there are many applications where we only want to find the integer solutions. For example, a variable might represent the number of trucks to use when shipping a product over large distances.

Definition 21.2.1

Diophantine Equations

Equations with integer coefficients for which integer solutions are sought, are called **Diophantine equations** after the Greek mathematician, Diophantus of Alexandria, who studied such equations. Diophantine equations are called **linear** if each term in the equation is a constant or a constant times a single variable of degree 1.

The simplest linear Diophantine equation is

$$ax = b$$

To emphasize, a and b are given integers in \mathbb{Z} where $a \neq 0$ and we want an $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ that solves $ax = b$. From the definition of divisibility, we know that this equation has an integer solution x if and only if $a \mid b$, and if $a \mid b$, then $x = \frac{b}{a}$.

What about linear Diophantine equations with two variables?

Theorem 1

(Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 1 (LDET 1))

Let $\gcd(a, b) = d$. The linear Diophantine equation

$$ax + by = c$$

has a solution if and only if $d \mid c$.

Before we study a proof of this theorem, let's see how it works in practice.

Example 1

Which of the following linear Diophantine equations has a solution?

1. $33x + 18y = 10$
2. $33x + 18y = 15$

Solution:

1. Since $\gcd(33, 18) = 3$, and 3 does not divide 10, the first equation has no integer solutions.
2. Since $\gcd(33, 18) = 3$, and 3 does divide 15, the second equation does have an integer solution.

But how do we find a solution? Here are two simple steps that will allow us to find a solution.

1. Use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm to find $d = \gcd(a, b)$ and x_1 and y_1 where

$$ax_1 + by_1 = d. \quad (21.1)$$

2. Multiply Equation 21.1 by $k = \frac{c}{d}$ to get $akx_1 + bky_1 = kd = c$. A solution is $x = kx_1$ and $y = ky_1$.

Applying these two steps to Part 2 of the example, the Extended Euclidean Algorithm gives

x	y	r	q
1	0	33	0
0	1	18	0
1	-1	15	1
-1	2	3	1
6	-11	0	5

hence

$$33 \times -1 + 18 \times 2 = 3$$

Multiplying by $k = \frac{c}{d} = \frac{15}{3} = 5$ gives

$$33 \times -5 + 18 \times 10 = 15$$

so one particular solution is $x = -5$ and $y = 10$.

But are there more solutions? That's where part 2 of the Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem comes in and we will cover it later. Let's prove part 1 first.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. First, suppose that the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$ has an integer solution $x = x_0, y = y_0$. That is, $ax_0 + by_0 = c$.
2. Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$.
3. But then, by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, $d \mid (ax_0 + by_0)$. That is $d \mid c$.
4. Conversely, suppose that $d \mid c$.
5. Then there exists an integer k such that $c = kd$.
6. Now, by Bézout's Lemma, there exist integers x_1 and y_1 so that

$$ax_1 + by_1 = d.$$

7. Multiplying this equation by $k = \frac{c}{d}$ gives

$$akx_1 + bky_1 = kd = c$$

which, in turn, implies that $x = kx_1$ and $y = ky_1$ is a solution to $ax + by = c$.

□

Analysis of Proof This is an “if and only if” statement so we must prove two statements.

1. If the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$ has a solution, then $d \mid c$.
2. If $d \mid c$, then the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$ has a solution.

Core Proof Technique: Both statements contain an existential quantifier in the hypothesis, so each will start with the object method. Though both statements also contain an existential quantifier in the conclusion, only one uses the construct method. The other uses a proposition we have already proved.

Sentence 1 *First, suppose that the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$ has an integer solution $x = x_0, y = y_0$. That is, $ax_0 + by_0 = c$.*

The author does not explicitly rephrase the “if and only if” as two statements. Rather, Sentence 1 indicates which of the two implicit statements will be proved by stating the hypothesis of the first statement. Moreover, the first statement uses an existential quantifier in the hypothesis. The hypothesis of the first statement could be restated as

There exists an integer solution x_0, y_0 to the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$.

The four parts are

Quantifier:	\exists
Variable:	x_0, y_0
Domain:	\mathbb{Z}
Open sentence:	$ax + by = c$.

Since the existential quantifier occurs in the hypothesis, the author uses the object method. The author assumes the existence of the corresponding objects (x_0, y_0) in a suitable domain (\mathbb{Z}) and assumes that these objects satisfy the related open sentence $(ax + by = c)$.

Sentence 2 *Since $d = \gcd(a, b)$, $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$.*

This follows from the definition of greatest common divisor.

Sentence 3 *But then, by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, $d \mid (ax_0 + by_0)$. That is $d \mid c$.*

Since the hypotheses of DIC (a, b and d are integers, and $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$) are satisfied, the author can invoke the conclusion of DIC ($d \mid (ax_0 + by_0)$). From Sentence 1, $ax_0 + by_0 = c$ so $d \mid c$.

Sentence 4 *Conversely, suppose that $d \mid c$.*

The *conversely* indicates that the author is about to prove the second statement. Recall that an “if and only if” always consists of a statement and its converse. The hypothesis of the converse is $d \mid c$. The definition of divides contains an existential quantifier and so, in Sentence 5, the authors uses the object method. The conclusion of Statement 2 contains an existential quantifier (there exists an integer solution to the linear Diophantine equation), so the author uses the construct method to build a suitable solution. Here are the parts of the existential quantifier in the conclusion.

Quantifier:	\exists
Variable:	x, y
Domain:	\mathbb{Z}
Open sentence:	$ax + by = c$.

Sentence 5 *Then there exists an integer k such that $c = kd$.*

This is the object method and follows from the definition of divisibility.

Sentence 6 *Now, by Bézout’s Lemma, there exist integers x_1 and y_1 so that*

$$ax_1 + by_1 = d.$$

The author is making use of a previously proved proposition.

Sentence 7 *Multiplying this equation by $k = \frac{c}{d}$ gives*

$$akx_1 + bky_1 = kd = c$$

which, in turn, implies that $x = kx_1$ and $y = ky_1$ is a solution to $ax + by = c$.

This is where the solution is constructed, $x = kx_1$ and $y = ky_1$, and where the open sentence is verified. The author does not explicitly check that kx_1 and ky_1 are integers, though we must when we analyse the proof.

Chapter 22

Linear Diophantine Equations: All Solutions

22.1 Objectives

1. Discover a proof to the *Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem (Part 2)*.
2. Examples of the *Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem (Part 2)*.

22.2 Finding All Solutions to $ax + by = c$

LDET 1 tells us when solutions exist and how to construct a solution. It does not find all of the solutions. That happens next.

Theorem 1

(Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 2, (LDET 2))

Let $\gcd(a, b) = d$ where both a and b are not zero. If $x = x_0$ and $y = y_0$ is one particular integer solution to the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$, then the complete integer solution is

$$x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n, \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Before we discover a proof, let's make sure we understand the statement.

Example 1

Find all solutions to $33x + 18y = 15$.

Solution: Since $\gcd(33, 18) = 3$, and 3 does divide 15, this equation does have integer solutions by the Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 1. If we can find one solution, we can use the Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 2 to find all solutions. Since we earlier found the solution $x = -5$ and $y = 10$ the complete solution is

$$x = -5 + 6n, y = 10 - 11n \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

You we can check that these are solutions by substitution.

Check:

$$33x + 18y = 33(-5 + 6n) + 18(10 - 11n) = -165 + 198n + 180 - 198n = 15$$

This check does not verify that we have found all solutions. It verifies that all of the pairs of integers we have found are solutions.

REMARK

The use of “for all” in the statement of LDET 2 is common but it means something different than the universal quantifier. It is arguably better to say “as n ranges over all the integers”. In fact, “complete integer solution” is really hiding the use of sets. A formal solution to the previous example can be written as $\{(x, y) : x = -5 + 6n, y = 10 - 11n, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. This makes it particularly clear that one solution consists of a value for x and also a value for y . Moreover, “the same n ” must be used for any one solution.

For the general equation, let’s be explicit about what sets are lurking beneath the surface and what we need to do with them. There are, in fact, two sets in the conclusion, the set of solutions, and the set of x and y pairs. We define them formally as follows.

Complete solution Let $S = \{(x, y) : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, ax + by = c\}$

Proposed solution Let $T = \{(x, y) : x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

The conclusion of LDET 2 is $S = T$.

How do we show that two sets are equal? Two sets S and T are equal if and only if $S \subseteq T$ and $T \subseteq S$. That is, at the risk of being repetitive, to establish that $S = T$ we must show two things:

1. $S \subseteq T$ and
2. $T \subseteq S$.

Normally one of the two is easy and the other is harder.

Suppose we want to show $S \subseteq T$. How do universal quantifiers figure in? Showing that $S \subseteq T$ is equivalent to the following statement.

$S \subseteq T$ if and only if, for every member $s \in S$, we have that $s \in T$.

If you prefer symbolic notation you could write $\forall s \in S, s \in T$ or alternatively $s \in S \Rightarrow s \in T$.

What are the components of the universal quantifier?

Quantifier:	\forall
Variable:	s
Domain:	S
Open sentence:	$s \in T$

The select method works perfectly in these situations.

As frequently as sets are used, they are usually implicit and our first task is to discern what sets exist and how they are used. Let's return to the proof of LDET 2 where our sets are:

Complete solution Let $S = \{(x, y) : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, ax + by = c\}$

Proposed solution Let $T = \{(x, y) : x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n, n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

Let us discover a proof. We must keep in mind that we have two things to prove

1. $S \subseteq T$ and
2. $T \subseteq S$.

In this case, the second statement is easier so we will do it first. How do we show that $T \subseteq S$? We must show that “for all $x \in T, x \in S$ ”. We certainly don't want to individually check every element of T so we choose a representative element of T , one that could be replaced by any element of T and the subsequent argument would hold. This is just the select method and it provides our first statement.

$$\text{Let } n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}. \text{ Then } \left(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n_0, y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n_0\right) \in T.$$

To show that this element is in S we must show that the element satisfies the defining property of S , that is, the element is a solution.

$$\begin{aligned} ax + by &= a\left(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n_0\right) + b\left(y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n_0\right) \\ &= ax_0 + by_0 + \frac{ab}{d}n_0 - \frac{ab}{d}n_0 \\ &= ax_0 + by_0 \\ &= c \quad (\text{by hypothesis, } x = x_0 \text{ and } y = y_0 \text{ is an integer solution}) \end{aligned}$$

And now we can conclude

$$\left(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n_0, y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n_0\right) \in S.$$

Now we consider the first statement. How do we show that $S \subseteq T$? We choose a representative element in S and show that it is in T , that is, that it satisfies the defining property of T . Specifically, we must show that an arbitrary solution (x, y) has the form

$$\left(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n, y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n\right).$$

Let (x, y) be an arbitrary solution. Then $(x, y) \in S$ and we must show $(x, y) \in T$. Let (x_0, y_0) be a particular solution to the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$. The existence of (x_0, y_0) is assured by the hypothesis. Let's do the obvious thing and substitute both solutions into the equation:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} ax & + & by = c \\ ax_0 & + & by_0 = c. \end{array}$$

Eliminating c and factoring gives

$$a(x - x_0) = -b(y - y_0).$$

Now what? We are looking to show that $(x, y) \in T$ and we see $d = \gcd(a, b) \neq 0$ in the denominator. This might remind you of Division by the GCD:

Proposition 2 (Division by the GCD (DB GCD))

Let a and b be integers. If $\gcd(a, b) = d \neq 0$, then $\gcd\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right) = 1$

So we divide the previous equation by d to get

$$\frac{a}{d}(x - x_0) = -\frac{b}{d}(y - y_0). \quad (22.1)$$

Using Division by the GCD, $\gcd\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right) = 1$. Since $\frac{b}{d}$ divides $\frac{a}{d}(x - x_0)$ we know from Coprimeness and Divisibility that

$$\frac{b}{d} \mid (x - x_0).$$

By the definition of divisibility, there exists an $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that

$$x - x_0 = n\frac{b}{d} \Rightarrow x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n.$$

Substituting $n\frac{b}{d}$ for $x - x_0$ in Equation (22.1) yields

$$y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n.$$

So every solution is of the form

$$(x, y) = \left(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n, y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n\right)$$

and so

$$(x, y) \in T.$$

A very condensed proof of Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 2 might look like the following. Notice the lack of mention of sets.

Theorem 3 (Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 2, (LDET 2))

Let $\gcd(a, b) = d \neq 0$. If $x = x_0$ and $y = y_0$ is one particular integer solution to the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$, then the complete integer solution is

$$x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n, \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Proof: Substitution shows that integers of the form $x = x_0 + n\frac{b}{d}$, $y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ are solutions.

Now, let (x, y) be an arbitrary solution and let (x_0, y_0) be a particular solution to the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$. Then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} ax & + & by = c \\ ax_0 & + & by_0 = c. \end{array}$$

Eliminating c and factoring gives $a(x - x_0) = -b(y - y_0)$ (1). Dividing by d and using Division by the GCD and Coprimeness and Divisibility we have $\frac{b}{d} \mid (x - x_0)$. Hence, there exists an $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n$ (2). Substituting (2) in (1) gives $y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n$ as needed. \square

Exercise 1 Find all solutions to

1. $35x + 21y = 28$

2. $35x - 21y = 28$

22.3 More Examples

1. (a) Find all integer solutions to the linear Diophantine equation $36x + 48y = 18$.

Solution: Since $\gcd(36, 48) = 12$ and $12 \nmid 18$, no solutions exists by LDET 1.

- (b) Find all integer solutions to the linear Diophantine equation $36x + 438y = 18$.

Solution: First, we apply the EEA to 36 and 438.

y	x	r	q
1	0	438	0
0	1	36	0
1	-12	6	12
-6	73	0	6

By the EEA, $\gcd(36, 438) = 6$ and

$$36 \cdot (-12) + 438 \cdot 1 = 6.$$

Multiplying by 3 gives

$$36 \cdot (-36) + 438 \cdot 3 = 18$$

and so $x_0 = -36$ and $y_0 = 3$ is one particular solution to $36x + 438y = 18$.

By LDET 2, the complete solution is $x = -36 + 73n, y = 3 - 6n$, for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- (c) Find all positive integer solutions to the linear Diophantine equation $36x + 438y = 18$.

Solution: Following on from part (b), we are looking for values of n so that $x > 0$ and $y > 0$. That is,

$$-36 + 73n > 0 \text{ and } 3 - 6n > 0.$$

Now

$$-36 + 73n > 0 \implies n > \frac{36}{73}.$$

Since n is an integer, this gives $n \geq 1$. Also,

$$3 - 6n > 0 \implies n < \frac{3}{6}.$$

Since n is an integer, this gives $n \leq 0$.

There are no integers that simultaneously satisfy $n \geq 1$ and $n \leq 0$, so no positive integer solutions to $36x + 438y = 18$ exist.

2. What is the complete solution to the linear Diophantine equation $1950x - 770y = 30$?

We begin with the EEA applied to 1950 and 770. We will adjust the signs later.

x	y	r	q
1	0	1950	0
0	1	770	0
1	-2	410	2
-1	3	360	1
2	-5	50	1
-15	38	10	7
77	-195	0	5

Now we see that

$$1950(-15) - 770(-38) = 10.$$

Multiplying by 3 gives one particular solution, $x_0 = -45, y_0 = -114$ to $1950x - 770y = 30$. The complete solution is $x = -45 - 77n, y = -114 - 195n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Check:

$$\begin{aligned}
 1950x - 770y &= 1950(-45 - 77n) - 770(-114 - 195n) \\
 &= 1950(-45) - 1950(77n) + 770(114) + 770(195n) \\
 &= 1950(-45) + 770(114) \\
 &= -87750 + 87780 \\
 &= 30
 \end{aligned}$$

3. (From a collection attributed to Alcuin of York in 775 who is known to have sent a collection of similar problems to Charlemagne.)

One hundred bushels of grain are distributed among one hundred people in such a way that every man receives three bushels, every woman receives two bushels and every child receives half a bushel. How many men, women and children are there? (Give all possible solutions if more than one exists.)

Solution: Let m represent the number of men, w the number of women and c the number of children. The statement of the problem implies that

$$\begin{aligned} m + w + c &= 100 \\ 3m + 2w + 0.5c &= 100. \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying the second equation by 2 and eliminating the c gives

$$5m + 3w = 100. \quad (22.2)$$

One obvious solution to Equation 22.2 is $m = 20$ and $w = 0$ and the complete solution to Equation 22.2 is

$$\left. \begin{aligned} m &= 20 + 3n \\ w &= 0 - 5n \end{aligned} \right\} n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

The complete set of solutions for the problem where m , w and c are each non-negative is enumerated in the table below.

n	m	w	c
0	20	0	80
-1	17	5	78
-2	14	10	76
-3	11	15	74
-4	8	20	72
-5	5	25	70
-6	2	30	68

Chapter 23

Congruence

23.1 Objectives

1. Define *a is congruent to b modulo m*.
2. Read a proof of *Congruence is an Equivalence Relation*.
3. Discover the proof of *Properties of Congruence*.
4. Give a proof of *Congruence Division*.

23.2 Congruences

23.2.1 Definition of Congruences

One of the difficulties in working out properties of divisibility is that we don't have an "arithmetic" of divisibility. Wouldn't it be nice if we could solve problems about divisibility in much the same way that we usually do arithmetic: add, subtract, multiply and divide?

Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777 – 1855) was the greatest mathematician of the last two centuries. In a landmark work, *Disquisitiones Arithmeticae*, published when Gauss was 23, he introduced congruence notation and provided a mechanism to treat divisibility with arithmetic.

Definition 23.2.1
Congruent

Let m be a fixed positive integer. If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ we say that a is **congruent** to b **modulo** m , and write

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$$

if and only if $m \mid (a - b)$. If $m \nmid (a - b)$, we write $a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$.

REMARK

The three bars used for congruence is the same notation that is used for logical equivalence even though there is no connection. Unfortunately, mathematicians often use the same symbol to mean very different things.

Example 1 Verify each of the following

1. $20 \equiv 2 \pmod{6}$
2. $2 \equiv 20 \pmod{6}$
3. $20 \equiv 8 \pmod{6}$
4. $-20 \equiv 4 \pmod{6}$
5. $24 \equiv 0 \pmod{6}$
6. $5 \not\equiv 3 \pmod{7}$

REMARK

One already useful trait of this definition is the number of equivalent ways we have to work with it.

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &\equiv b \pmod{m} \\
 &\iff m \mid (a - b) \\
 &\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } a - b = km \\
 &\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } a = km + b
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 2 In each of the following cases, find all values of a , $0 \leq a < m$ where m is the modulus, that satisfy the congruence relation.

1. $a \equiv 52 \pmod{12}$
2. $-14 \equiv a \pmod{15}$
3. $2a \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$
4. $2a \equiv 5 \pmod{8}$
5. $2a \equiv 4 \pmod{8}$
6. $a^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$

Solution:

1. $a = 4$
2. $a = 1$
3. $a = 6$
4. No solution exists
5. $a \in \{2, 6\}$
6. $a \in \{1, 6\}$

23.3 Elementary Properties

Another extraordinarily useful trait of this definition is that it behaves a lot like equality. Equality is an *equivalence relation*. That is, it has the following three properties:

1. *reflexivity*, $a = a$.
2. *symmetry*, If $a = b$ then $b = a$.
3. *transitivity*, If $a = b$ and $b = c$, then $a = c$.

Most relationships that you can think of do not have these three properties. The relation *greater than* fails reflexivity. The relation *divides* fails symmetry. The non-mathematical relation *is a parent of* fails transitivity. However, logical equivalence and similarity of triangles do satisfy this.

Proposition 1

(Congruence Is an Equivalence Relation (CER))

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

1. $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$.
2. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$.
3. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$.

These may seem obvious but as the earlier examples showed, many relations do not have these properties. So, a proof is needed. We will give a proof for all of them, and then an analysis for part 3.

Proof: We show each part in turn.

1. Because $a - a = 0$ and $m \mid 0$, the definition of congruence gives $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$.
2. Since $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, $m \mid (a - b)$. Now, $b - a = -(a - b)$ so $(a - b) \mid (b - a)$. By Transitivity of Divisibility, $m \mid (b - a)$ and thus by the definition of congruence, $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$.
3. Since $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, $m \mid (a - b)$. Since $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$, $m \mid (b - c)$. Now, by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, $m \mid ((1)(a - b) + (1)(b - c))$ so $m \mid (a - c)$. By the definition of congruence, $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$.

□

Analysis of Proof We will prove part 3 of the proposition Congruence Is an Equivalence Relation.

Hypothesis: $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$.

Conclusion: $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$.

Sentence 1 *Since $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, $m \mid (a - b)$.*

The author is working forward from the hypothesis using the definition of congruence.

Sentence 2 *Since $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$, $m \mid (b - c)$.*

The author is working forward from the hypothesis using the definition of congruence.

Sentence 3 *Now, by the Divisibility of Integer Combinations, $m \mid ((1)(a - b) + (1)(b - c))$ so $m \mid (a - c)$.*

Here it is useful to keep in mind where the author is going. The question “How do I show that one number is congruent to another number?” has the answer, in this case, of showing that $m \mid (a - c)$ so the author needs to find a way of generating $a - c$. This value $a - c$ follows nicely from an application of the Divisibility of Integer Combinations.

Sentence 4 *By the definition of congruence, $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$.*

The author is working forward from $m \mid (a - c)$ using the definition of congruence.

Proposition 2 (Properties of Congruence (PC))

Let $a, a', b, b' \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$, then

1. $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{m}$
2. $a - b \equiv a' - b' \pmod{m}$
3. $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$.

This proposition allows us to perform substitutions of congruent values. We will discover a proof of the third part and leave the first two parts as exercises.

As usual we begin by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$.

Conclusion: $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$.

Let's consider the question “How do we show that two numbers are congruent to one another?” The obvious abstract answer is “Use the definition of congruence.” We may want to keep in mind, however, that there are several equivalent forms.

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &\equiv b \pmod{m} \\
 &\iff m \mid (a - b) \\
 &\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } a - b = km \\
 &\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } a = km + b
 \end{aligned}$$

It is not at all clear which is best or whether, in fact, several could work. Since the conclusion of part three involves the arithmetic operation of multiplication, and we don't have multiplication properties for equivalence or divisibility, it makes sense to consider

either the third or fourth of the equivalent forms. There isn't much to separate them. Let's choose the last form and see how it works. So, the answer to "How do we show that two numbers are congruent to one another?" in the notation of this proof is "We must find an integer k so that $ab = km + a'b'$. Let's record that.

Proof in Progress

1. *To be completed.*
2. Since there exists k so that $ab = km + a'b'$, $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$.

The problem is how to find k . There is no obvious way backwards here so let's start working forward. The two hypotheses $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$ can be restated in any of their equivalent forms. Since we have already decided that we would work backwards with the fourth form, it makes sense to use the same form working forwards. That gives two statements.

Proof in Progress

1. Since $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$, there exists an integer j such that $a = mj + a'$ (1).
2. Since $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$, there exists an integer h such that $b = mh + b'$ (2).
3. *To be completed.*
4. Since there exists k so that $ab = km + a'b'$, $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$.

But now there seems to be a rather direct way to produce an ab and an $a'b'$ which we want for the conclusion. Just multiply equations (1) and (2) together. Doing that produces

$$ab = m^2jh + mjb' + a'mh + a'b' = (mjh + jb' + a'h)m + a'b'$$

If we let $k = mjh + jb' + a'h$ then k is an integer and satisfies the property we needed in the last line of the proof, that is $ab = km + a'b'$. Let's record this.

Proof in Progress

1. Since $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$, there exists an integer j such that $a = mj + a'$ (1).
2. Since $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$, there exists an integer h such that $b = mh + b'$ (2).
3. Multiplying (1) by (2) gives $ab = m^2jh + mjb' + a'mh + a'b' = (mjh + jb' + a'h)m + a'b'$.
4. Since there exists k so that $ab = km + a'b'$, $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$.

Lastly, we write a proof. Note that the reader of the proof is expected to be familiar with the equivalent forms.

Proof: Since $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$, there exists an integer j such that $a = mj + a'$ (1). Since $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$, there exists an integer h such that $b = mh + b'$ (2). Multiplying (1) by (2) gives

$$ab = m^2jh + mjb' + a'mh + a'b' = (mjh + jb' + a'h)m + a'b'.$$

Since $mjh + jb' + a'h$ is an integer, $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$. □

REMARK

The preceding proof goes back to first principles by relying on the definition of divisibility. This is okay and something that should definitely be attempted before admitting defeat. However, we have built some useful results on divisibility and it makes sense to see if we can use these powerful tools to discover an alternative proof. Below we describe how you might come up with a more elegant argument.

Recall the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$.

Conclusion: $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$.

We know that $m \mid (a - a')$ and $m \mid (b - b')$. We need to show that $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$ or equivalently, $m \mid (ab - a'b')$. How do we do this?

Our go-to theorem is DIC. Let's try to use it here. To get the terms $ab - a'b'$ from

$$(a - a')x + (b - b')y$$

it seems like we could pick $x = b$ to get ab , but then we also get an $a'b$ term which we need to cancel. Setting $y = a'$ will do this and also gives us the $-a'b'$ term we need. This leads us to the following proof.

Proof: Since $a \equiv a' \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$, by definition of congruence, we have that $m \mid (a - a')$ and $m \mid (b - b')$. By Divisibility of Integer Combinations,

$$m \mid [(a - a')b + (b - b')a'].$$

Expanding and simplifying gives $m \mid (ab - a'b')$ and hence $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{m}$ by the definition of congruence. \square

Exercise 1 Prove the remainder of the Properties of Congruence proposition.

Exercise 2 Use induction to prove the following corollary of Properties of Congruence.

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{m}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

There are four arithmetic operations with integers, but analogues to only three have been given. It turns out that division is problematic. A statement of the form

$$ab \equiv ab' \pmod{m} \Rightarrow b \equiv b' \pmod{m}$$

seems natural enough, simply divide by a . This works with the integer equation $ab = ab'$. But consider the case where $m = 12$, $a = 6$, $b = 3$ and $b' = 5$. It is indeed true that

$$18 \equiv 30 \pmod{12}$$

and so

$$6 \times 3 \equiv 6 \times 5 \pmod{12}$$

But “dividing” by 6 gives the false statement

$$3 \equiv 5 \pmod{12}.$$

Division works only under the specific conditions of the next proposition.

Proposition 3 (Congruence Division (CD))

If $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(c, m) = 1$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Before we read the proof, let's look at an example.

Example 3 Examples of division in congruence relations.

1. $8 \times 7 \equiv 17 \times 7 \pmod{3} \Rightarrow 8 \equiv 17 \pmod{3}$
2. For $6 \times 3 \equiv 6 \times 5 \pmod{12}$, CD cannot be invoked. Why?
Because $\gcd(c, m) = \gcd(6, 12) = 6 \neq 1$, the hypotheses of CD are not satisfied and so the conclusion of CD cannot be invoked.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Since $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$, $m \mid (ac - bc)$. That is, $m \mid c(a - b)$.
2. By the proposition Coprimeness and Divisibility, $m \mid (a - b)$.
3. Hence, by the definition of congruence $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

□

Chapter 24

Congruence and Remainders

24.1 Objectives

1. Read the proof of *Congruent Iff Same Remainder*.
2. Apply *Congruent Iff Same Remainder*.

24.2 Congruence and Remainders

We now give one more statement that is equivalent to $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Proposition 1 (Congruent Iff Same Remainder (CISR))

$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if a and b have the same remainder when divided by m .

Because this proposition is an “if and only if” proposition, there are two parts to the proof: a statement and its converse. We can restate the proposition to make the two parts more explicit.

Proposition 2 (Congruent Iff Same Remainder (CISR))

1. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then a and b have the same remainder when divided by m .
2. If a and b have the same remainder when divided by m , then $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

In practice, the two statements are not usually written out separately. The author assumes that you do that whenever you read “if and only if”. Many “if and only if” proofs begin with some preliminary material that will help both parts of the proof. For example, they often introduce notation that will be used in both parts.

Let’s look at a proof of Congruent Iff Same Remainder. Before we do an analysis, make sure that you can identify

1. preliminary material (if any exists),
2. the proof of a statement, and
3. the proof of the converse of the statement.

Proof: The Division Algorithm applied to a and m gives

$$a = q_1m + r_1, \text{ where } 0 \leq r_1 < m.$$

The Division Algorithm applied to b and m gives

$$b = q_2m + r_2, \text{ where } 0 \leq r_2 < m.$$

Subtracting the second equation from the first gives

$$a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2), \text{ where } -m < r_1 - r_2 < m.$$

If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $m \mid (a - b)$ and there exists an integer h so that $hm = a - b$. Hence

$$\begin{aligned} a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2) &\implies hm = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2) \\ &\implies r_1 - r_2 = m(h - q_1 + q_2) \end{aligned}$$

which implies $m \mid (r_1 - r_2)$. But, $-m < r_1 - r_2 < m$ so $r_1 - r_2 = 0$.

Conversely, if a and b have the same remainder when divided by m , then $r_1 = r_2$ and $a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m$ so $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

□

The preliminary material is quoted below.

The Division Algorithm applied to a and m gives

$$a = q_1m + r_1, \text{ where } 0 \leq r_1 < m.$$

The Division Algorithm applied to b and m gives

$$b = q_2m + r_2, \text{ where } 0 \leq r_2 < m.$$

Subtracting the second equation from the first gives

$$a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2), \text{ where } -m < r_1 - r_2 < m.$$

The proof of Statement 1 is

If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $m \mid (a - b)$ and there exists an integer h so that $hm = a - b$. Hence

$$a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2) \Rightarrow hm = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2) \Rightarrow r_1 - r_2 = m(h - q_1 + q_2)$$

which implies $m \mid (r_1 - r_2)$. But, $-m < r_1 - r_2 < m$ so $r_1 - r_2 = 0$.

The proof of the converse of Statement 1, Statement 2, is

Conversely, if a and b have the same remainder when divided by m , then $r_1 = r_2$ and $a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m$ so $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

We will do an analysis of the proof of Statement 1. An analysis of the proof of Statement 2 is left as an exercise.

Analysis of Proof In many “if and only if” statements one direction is much easier than the other. In this particular case, we are starting with the harder of the two directions.

Hypothesis: $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$.

Conclusion: a and b have the same remainder when divided by m .

Sentence 1 *If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $m \mid (a - b)$ and there exists an integer h so that $hm = a - b$.*

Here the author is working forwards using two definitions. The definition of congruence allows the author to assert that “If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, then $m \mid (a - b)$ ”. The definition of divisibility allows the author to assert that “ $m \mid (a - b)$ [implies that] there exists an integer h so that $hm = a - b$.”

Sentence 2 *Hence*

$$\begin{aligned} a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2) &\implies hm = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2) \\ &\implies r_1 - r_2 = m(h - q_1 + q_2) \end{aligned}$$

which implies $m \mid (r_1 - r_2)$.

This is mostly arithmetic. The author begins with $a - b = (q_1 - q_2)m + (r_1 - r_2)$ from the preliminary paragraph, substitutes hm for $a - b$, isolates $r_1 - r_2$ and factors out an m from the remaining terms. Since $h - q_1 + q_2$ is an integer, the author deduces that $m \mid (r_1 - r_2)$.

Sentence 3 *But, $-m < r_1 - r_2 < m$ so $r_1 - r_2 = 0$.*

This part is not so obvious. The author is working with two pieces of information. The prefatory material provides $-m < r_1 - r_2 < m$. Let’s take a minute to think about why this statement is true. Sentence 2 provides $m \mid (r_1 - r_2)$. Now, what are the possible values of $r_1 - r_2$? Certainly $r_1 - r_2$ can be zero but are there any other possible choices? If there were another choice it would be of the form mx with $x \neq 0$. But that would make $r_1 - r_2 = xm \geq m$ or $r_1 - r_2 = xm \leq -m$ both of which are impossible because $-m < r_1 - r_2 < m$. Hence, $r_1 - r_2 = 0$.

The conclusion does not say $r_1 - r_2 = 0$. It says that a and b have the same remainder when divided by m . Since r_1 and r_2 are those remainders, and $r_1 - r_2 = 0 \Rightarrow r_1 = r_2$, the author leaves it to the reader to deduce the conclusion.

Exercise 1 Perform an analysis of the proof of Statement 2.

REMARK

The proposition Congruent Iff Same Remainder gives us another part to our chain of equivalent statements:

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &\equiv b \pmod{m} \\
 &\iff m \mid (a - b) \\
 &\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \ni a - b = km \\
 &\iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \ni a = km + b \\
 &\iff a \text{ and } b \text{ have the same remainder when divided by } m.
 \end{aligned}$$

The propositions covered in this lecture are surprisingly powerful. Consider the following example.

Example 1

What is the remainder when 3^{47} is divided by 7?

Solution: You could attempt to compute 3^{47} with your calculator but it might explode. Here is a simpler way. By the Division Algorithm,

$$3^{47} = 7q + r \text{ where } 0 \leq r < 7.$$

If we reduce this expression modulo 7 we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 3^{47} &\equiv 7q + r \pmod{7} \\
 &\equiv r \pmod{7}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the remainder when 3^{47} is divided by 7 is just $3^{47} \pmod{7}$. Now observe that $3^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$ and $3^3 \equiv 27 \equiv 6 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$. But then

$$\begin{aligned}
 3^{47} &\equiv 3^{45} 3^2 \pmod{7} && \text{arithmetic} \\
 &\equiv (3^3)^{15} 3^2 \pmod{7} && \text{arithmetic} \\
 &\equiv (-1)^{15} (2) \pmod{7} && \text{Properties of Congruence (3), twice} \\
 &\equiv (-1)(2) \pmod{7} && \text{arithmetic} \\
 &\equiv -2 \pmod{7} && \text{arithmetic} \\
 &\equiv 5 \pmod{7} && \text{since } 0 \leq r < 7.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the remainder when 3^{47} is divided by 7 is 5.

Example 2 Is $3^{47} \equiv 5^{21} \pmod{7}$?

Solution: By Congruences Iff the Same Remainder $3^{47} \equiv 5^{21} \pmod{7}$ if and only if 3^{47} and 5^{21} have the same remainder when divided by 7. The previous example showed that 5 is the remainder when 3^{47} is divided by 7. We only need to compute the remainder when 5^{21} is divided by 7.

By the Division Algorithm,

$$5^{21} = 7q + r \text{ where } 0 \leq r < 7.$$

If we reduce this expression modulo 7 we get

$$\begin{aligned} 5^{21} &\equiv 7q + r \pmod{7} \\ &\equiv r \pmod{7}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $5 \equiv -2 \pmod{7}$ and $-2^3 \equiv -8 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$, we know $5^3 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ hence

$$5^{21} \equiv (5^3)^7 \equiv (-1)^7 \equiv -1 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}.$$

Thus,

$$3^{47} \not\equiv 5^{21} \pmod{7}.$$

Example 3

What is the remainder when $2^{271}3^{314}$ is divided by 7? Provide justification for your work.

Solution: First, observe that $2^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ and $3^3 \equiv -1 \pmod{7}$ and so by the proposition and corollary to Properties of Congruence,

$$2^{271}3^{314} \equiv (2^3)^{90}2^1(3^3)^{104}3^2 \equiv (1)^{90}2^1(-1)^{104}3^2 \equiv 2 \cdot 9 \equiv 18 \equiv 4 \pmod{7}.$$

Thus, by the proposition Congruent Iff Same Remainder, $2^{271}3^{314}$ has remainder 4 when divided by 7.

Chapter 25

Linear Congruences

25.1 Objectives

1. Define a *linear congruence in the variable x* .
2. State and prove the *Linear Congruence Theorem*.
3. Apply the *Linear Congruence Theorem*.

25.2 The Problem

One of the advantages of congruence over divisibility is that we have an “arithmetic” of congruence. This allows us to solve new kinds of “equations”.

Definition 25.2.1
Linear Congruence

A relation of the form

$$ax \equiv c \pmod{m}$$

is called a **linear congruence in the variable x** . A **solution** to such a linear congruence is an integer x_0 so that

$$ax_0 \equiv c \pmod{m}.$$

The problem for this lecture is to determine when linear congruences have solutions and how to find them.

Recalling our table of statements equivalent to $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ we see that

REMARK

$$\begin{aligned}
& ax \equiv c \pmod{m} \text{ has a solution} \\
& \iff \text{there exists an integer } x_0 \text{ such that } ax_0 \equiv c \pmod{m} \\
& \iff \text{there exist integers } x_0, y_0 \text{ such that } ax_0 + my_0 = c \\
& \iff \gcd(a, m) \mid c \quad (\text{by the Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 1}).
\end{aligned}$$

Moreover, the Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 2 tells us what the solutions to $ax + by = c$ look like.

Theorem 1 (Linear Diophantine Equation Theorem, Part 2, (LDET 2))

Let $\gcd(a, m) = d \neq 0$.

If $x = x_0$ and $y = y_0$ is one particular integer solution to the linear Diophantine equation $ax + my = c$, then the complete integer solution is

$$x = x_0 + \frac{m}{d}n, \quad y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

But then, if $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ is one solution to $ax \equiv c \pmod{m}$ the complete solution will be

$$x \equiv x_0 \pmod{\frac{m}{d}} \text{ where } d = \gcd(a, m).$$

Let's think about why that is. If we reduce the solution given in LDET 2 above modulo $\frac{m}{d}$, then the term involving $\frac{m}{d}$ evaluates to 0 leaving $x \equiv x_0 \pmod{\frac{m}{d}}$.

Notice that since m is a natural number, we know that $d > 0$ so we can safely divide by d .

Since the original problem was posed modulo m , we might like to give solutions modulo m . In which case, $x \equiv x_0 \pmod{\frac{m}{d}}$ is equivalent to

$$x \equiv x_0, x_0 + \frac{m}{d}, x_0 + 2\frac{m}{d}, \dots, x_0 + (d-1)\frac{m}{d} \pmod{m}.$$

Note that there are $d = \gcd(a, m)$ distinct solutions modulo m and one solution modulo $\frac{m}{d}$.

We record this discussion as the following theorem.

Theorem 2 (Linear Congruence Theorem, Version 1, (LCT 1))

Let $\gcd(a, m) = d$.

The linear congruence

$$ax \equiv c \pmod{m}$$

has a solution if and only if $d \mid c$.

Moreover, if $x = x_0$ is one particular solution, then the complete solution is

$$x \equiv x_0 \pmod{\frac{m}{d}}$$

or, equivalently,

$$x \equiv x_0, x_0 + \frac{m}{d}, x_0 + 2\frac{m}{d}, \dots, x_0 + (d-1)\frac{m}{d} \pmod{m}.$$

25.3 Examples**Example 1**

If possible, solve the linear congruence

$$3x \equiv 5 \pmod{6}.$$

Solution: Since $\gcd(3, 6) = 3$ and $3 \nmid 5$, there is no solution to $3x \equiv 5 \pmod{6}$ by the Linear Congruence Theorem, Version 1.

Example 2

If possible, solve the linear congruence

$$4x \equiv 6 \pmod{10}.$$

Solution: Since $\gcd(4, 10) = 2$ and $2 \mid 6$, we would expect to find two solutions to $4x \equiv 6 \pmod{10}$. Since ten is a small modulus, we can simply test all possibilities modulo 10.

$x \pmod{10}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$4x \pmod{10}$	0	4	8	2	6	0	4	8	2	6

Hence, $x \equiv 4$ or $9 \pmod{10}$.

REMARK

Why are there only 10 possibilities? Make sure you understand why this follows from Congruent Iff Same Remainder. Going forward, we won't be explicit about this.

Example 3 If possible, solve the linear congruence

$$3x \equiv 5 \pmod{76}.$$

Solution: Since $\gcd(3, 76) = 1$ and $1 \mid 5$, we would expect to find one solution to $3x \equiv 5 \pmod{76}$. We could try all 76 possibilities but there is a more efficient way. Thinking of our list of equivalencies, solving $3x \equiv 5 \pmod{76}$ is equivalent to solving $3x + 76y = 5$ and that we know how to do that using the Extended Euclidean Algorithm:

x	y	r	q
1	0	76	0
0	1	3	0
1	-25	1	25
-3	76	0	3

From the second last row, $76(1) + 3(-25) = 1$, or to match up with the order of the original equation, $3(-25) + 76(1) = 1$. Multiplying the equation by 5 gives $3(-125) + 76(5) = 5$. Hence

$$x \equiv -125 \equiv 27 \pmod{76}.$$

We can check our work by substitution. $3 \cdot 27 \equiv 81 \equiv 5 \pmod{76}$.

25.4 Non-Linear Congruences

Though we have efficient means to solve linear congruences, we have no equivalent means to solve polynomial congruences.

Example 4 Solve $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ by substitution.

Your first reaction might be that there are zero, one or two solutions as there would be when working with real numbers.

Solution: We use a table to test all possible values of x .

$x \pmod{8}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$x^2 \pmod{8}$	0	1	4	1	0	1	4	1

Hence, the solution is $x \equiv 1, 3, 5$ or $7 \pmod{8}$.

Chapter 26

Modular Arithmetic

26.1 Objectives

1. Define the *congruence class modulo m* .
2. Construct \mathbb{Z}_m and perform modular arithmetic. Highlight the role of additive and multiplicative identities, and additive and multiplicative inverses.

26.2 Modular Arithmetic

In this section we will see the creation of a number system which will likely be new to you.

Definition 26.2.1
Congruence Class

The **congruence class modulo m** of the integer a is the set of integers

$$[a] = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv a \pmod{m}\}$$

Example 1

For example, when $m = 4$

$$\begin{aligned} [0] &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 0 \pmod{m}\} = \{\dots, -8, -4, 0, 4, 8, \dots\} = \{4k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \\ [1] &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 1 \pmod{m}\} = \{\dots, -7, -3, 1, 5, 9, \dots\} = \{4k + 1 \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \\ [2] &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 2 \pmod{m}\} = \{\dots, -6, -2, 2, 6, 10, \dots\} = \{4k + 2 \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\} \\ [3] &= \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv 3 \pmod{m}\} = \{\dots, -5, -1, 3, 7, 11, \dots\} = \{4k + 3 \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}\}. \end{aligned}$$

REMARK

Note that congruence classes have more than one representation. In the example above $[0] = [4] = [8]$ and, in fact $[0]$ has infinitely many representations. If this seems strange to you, remember that fractions are another example of where one number has infinitely many representations. For example $1/2 = 2/4 = 3/6 = \dots$.

Definition 26.2.2 \mathbb{Z}_m

We define \mathbb{Z}_m to be the set of m congruence classes

$$\mathbb{Z}_m = \{[0], [1], [2], \dots, [m-1]\}$$

and we define two operations on \mathbb{Z}_m , addition and multiplication, as follows:

$$[a] + [b] = [a + b]$$

$$[a] \cdot [b] = [a \cdot b].$$

Though the definition of these operations may seem obvious there is a fair amount going on here.

1. Sets are being treated as individual “numbers”. Modular addition and multiplication are being performed on congruence classes which are sets.
2. The addition and multiplication symbols on the left of the equals signs are in \mathbb{Z}_m and those on the right are operations in the integers.
3. We are assuming that the operations are *well-defined*. That is, we are assuming that these operations make sense even when there are multiple representatives of a congruence class. For example, in \mathbb{Z}_6 , $[2] = [8]$ and $[3] = [-9]$. Further, we can verify that $[2] + [3] = [8] + [-9]$.

REMARK

Since

$$[a] = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv a \pmod{m}\}$$

we can extend our list of equivalent statements to

$$\begin{aligned} [a] &= [b] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_m \\ \iff a &\equiv b \pmod{m} \\ \iff m &\mid (a - b) \\ \iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \ni a - b &= km \\ \iff \exists k \in \mathbb{Z} \ni a &= km + b \\ \iff a &\text{ and } b \text{ have the same remainder when divided by } m. \end{aligned}$$

Just as there were addition and multiplication tables in grade school for the integers, we have addition and multiplication tables in \mathbb{Z}_m .

Example 2

Addition and multiplication tables in \mathbb{Z}_4

Note that all of the entries have representatives between 0 and 3. Even though there are many representatives for each congruence class, we usually choose a representative between 0 and $m - 1$.

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[0]	[1]	[2]

·	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[0]	[2]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[2]	[1]

Exercise 1 Write out the addition and multiplication tables in \mathbb{Z}_5

26.2.1 $[0] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$

By looking at the tables for \mathbb{Z}_4 and \mathbb{Z}_5 it seems that $[0] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ behaves just like $0 \in \mathbb{Z}$. In \mathbb{Z}

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, a + 0 = a$$

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, a \cdot 0 = 0$$

and in \mathbb{Z}_m

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a] + [0] = [a]$$

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a] \cdot [0] = [0].$$

This actually follows from our definition of addition and multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_m .

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a] + [0] = [a + 0] = [a]$$

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a] \cdot [0] = [a \cdot 0] = [0].$$

26.2.2 $[1] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$

In a similar fashion, by looking at the multiplication tables for \mathbb{Z}_4 and \mathbb{Z}_5 it seems that $[1] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ behaves just like $1 \in \mathbb{Z}$. In \mathbb{Z}

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}, a \cdot 1 = a$$

and in \mathbb{Z}_m

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a] \cdot [1] = [a].$$

This follows from our definition of multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_m .

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a] \cdot [1] = [a \cdot 1] = [a]$$

26.2.3 Identities and Inverses in \mathbb{Z}_m

Many of us think of subtraction and division as independent from the other arithmetic operations of addition and multiplication. In fact, subtraction is just addition of the inverse. Now, what's an inverse? To answer that question we must first define an *identity*.

Definition 26.2.3**Identity**

Given a set and an operation, an identity is, informally, “something that does nothing”. More formally, given a set S and an operation designated by \circ , an **identity** is an element $e \in S$ so that

$$\forall a \in S, a \circ e = a$$

The element e has no effect. Having something that does nothing is extremely useful – though parents might not say that of teenagers.

Example 3

Here are examples of sets, operations and identities.

- The set of integers with the operation of addition has the identity 0.
- The set of rational numbers excluding 0 with the operation of multiplication has the identity 1.
- The set of real valued functions with the operation of function composition has the identity $f(x) = x$.
- The set of integers modulo m with the operation of modular addition has the identity $[0]$.

Definition 26.2.4**Inverse**

The element $b \in S$ is an **inverse** of $a \in S$ if $a \circ b = b \circ a = e$.

Example 4

Here are examples of inverses.

- Under the operation of addition, the integer 3 has inverse -3 since $3 + (-3) = (-3) + 3 = 0$.
- Under the operation of multiplication, the rational number $\frac{3}{4}$ has inverse $\frac{4}{3}$ since $\frac{3}{4} \cdot \frac{4}{3} = \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{3}{4} = 1$.
- Under the operation of function composition $\ln x$ has the inverse e^x since $\ln(e^x) = e^{\ln x} = x$.
- Under the operation of modular addition, $[3]$ has the inverse $[-3]$ in \mathbb{Z}_7 since $[3] + [-3] = [-3] + [3] = [0]$.

When the operation is addition, we usually denote the inverse by $-a$. Otherwise, we typically denote the inverse of a by a^{-1} . This does cause confusion. Many students interpret a^{-1} as the reciprocal. This works for real or rational multiplication but fails in other contexts like function composition. We will use $-a$ to mean the inverse of a under addition and a^{-1} to mean the inverse under all other operations.

26.2.4 Subtraction in \mathbb{Z}_m

Let's return to \mathbb{Z}_m . The identity under addition in \mathbb{Z}_m is $[0]$ since

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a] + [0] = [a].$$

Given any $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, $[-a]$ exists and

$$[a] + [-a] = [a - a] = [0].$$

That is, every element $[a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ has an additive inverse, $[-a]$. This allows us to define subtraction in \mathbb{Z}_m .

Definition 26.2.5

Subtraction

We will define **subtraction** as addition of the inverse. Thus

$$[a] - [b] = [a] + [-b] = [a - b]$$

26.2.5 Division in \mathbb{Z}_m

Division is related to multiplication in the same way that subtraction is related to addition. So first, we must identify the multiplicative identity in \mathbb{Z}_m . Since

$$\forall [a] \in \mathbb{Z}_m, [a][1] = [a]$$

we know that $[1]$ is the identity under multiplication in \mathbb{Z}_m .

Inverses are more problematic with multiplication. Looking at the multiplication table for \mathbb{Z}_5 we see that $[2]^{-1} = [3]$ since $[2][3] = [6] = [1]$. But what is the inverse of $[2]$ in \mathbb{Z}_4 ? It doesn't exist! Looking at the row containing $[2]$ in the multiplication table for \mathbb{Z}_4 we cannot find $[1]$. Unlike addition in \mathbb{Z}_m where every element has an additive inverse, it is not always the case that a non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_m has a multiplicative inverse.

We define division analogously to subtraction.

Definition 26.2.6

Division

Division by $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ is defined as multiplication by the multiplicative inverse of $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, assuming that the multiplicative inverse exists.

REMARK

In a later chapter we will determine when multiplicative inverses do and do not exist in \mathbb{Z}_m . With this deeper understanding, we can compare \mathbb{Z}_m to other algebraic systems like the integers, rationals and real numbers. By the end of this course we will be able to include complex numbers and polynomials on this list. Mathematicians classify these systems by studying the commonalities and differences between them. Common examples that you might encounter in future courses are *groups*, *rings*, and *vector spaces*. We will touch on the importance of *fields* at the end of MATH 135.

26.3 More Examples

1. Construct addition and multiplication tables for \mathbb{Z}_6 . Which elements of \mathbb{Z}_6 have multiplicative inverses?

Solution:

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[5]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[5]	[5]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]

\times	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[4]	[0]	[2]	[4]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[0]	[3]	[0]	[3]
[4]	[0]	[4]	[2]	[0]	[4]	[2]
[5]	[0]	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

The elements [1] and [5] are the only elements with an inverse in \mathbb{Z}_6 .

2. In each of the following cases, find all values of $[x] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$, $0 \leq x < m$, that satisfy the equation.
- (a) $[4][3] + [5] = [x] \in \mathbb{Z}_{10}$
 - (b) $[7]^{-1} - [2] = [x] \in \mathbb{Z}_{10}$
 - (c) $[2][x] = [4] \in \mathbb{Z}_8$
 - (d) $[3][x] = [9] \in \mathbb{Z}_{11}$

Solution:

- (a) $x = [7]$
- (b) $x = [1]$
- (c) $x \in \{[2], [6]\}$
- (d) $x = [3]$

3. Solve the following system of equations in \mathbb{Z}_{11} ,

$$[2][x] + [7][y] = [4] \tag{26.1}$$

$$[3][x] + [2][y] = [9]. \tag{26.2}$$

There are several ways to solve this. We will use elimination just as you would have used in high school. In \mathbb{Z}_{11} , [3] times equation (1) minus [2] times equation (2) gives

$$[17][y] = [-6] \implies [6][y] = [-6] \implies [y] = [-1] \implies [y] = [10].$$

Substituting $[y] = [10]$ into Equation (1) gives

$$[2][x] + [7][10] = [4] \implies [2][x] = [0] \implies [x] = [0].$$

Thus, the solution is $[x] = [0]$, $[y] = [10]$.

(Notice that we used CD when dividing by 6 and then again when dividing by 2.)

Check

$$[2][x] + [7][y] = [2][0] + [7][10] = [70] = [4]$$

$$[3][x] + [2][y] = [3][0] + [2][10] = [20] = [9]$$

26.4 Linear Congruences and Modular Classes

Recall that a **linear congruence** is a relation of the form

$$ax \equiv c \pmod{m}.$$

Another way of considering the same problem is to reframe it in \mathbb{Z}_m . Since

$$[a] = \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid x \equiv a \pmod{m}\}$$

solving

$$ax \equiv c \pmod{m}$$

is equivalent to finding a congruence class $[x_0] \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ that solves

$$[a][x] = [c] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_m.$$

Thus

Theorem 1 (Linear Congruence Theorem, Version 2, (LCT 2))

Let $\gcd(a, m) = d$.

The equation

$$[a][x] = [c] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_m$$

has a solution if and only if $d \mid c$.

Moreover, if $[x] = [x_0]$ is one particular solution, then the complete solution is

$$\left\{ [x_0], \left[x_0 + \frac{m}{d} \right], \left[x_0 + 2\frac{m}{d} \right], \dots, \left[x_0 + (d-1)\frac{m}{d} \right] \right\} \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_m$$

26.5 Extending Equivalencies

Putting all of this together we have several views of the same problem.

REMARK

$$\begin{aligned} & [a][x] = [c] \text{ has a solution in } \mathbb{Z}_m \\ \iff & ax \equiv c \pmod{m} \text{ has a solution} \\ \iff & \text{there exists an integer } x_0 \text{ such that } ax_0 \equiv c \pmod{m} \\ \iff & \text{there exist integers } x_0, y_0 \text{ such that } ax_0 + my_0 = c \\ \iff & \gcd(a, m) \mid c. \end{aligned}$$

Moreover, if x_0, y_0 is a particular integer solution to $ax + my = c$ then

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{the complete solution to } ax + my = c \text{ is } x = x_0 + \frac{m}{d}n, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 \iff & \text{the complete solution to } ax \equiv c \pmod{m} \text{ is } x \equiv x_0 \pmod{\frac{m}{d}} \\
 \iff & \text{the complete solution to } ax \equiv c \pmod{m} \text{ is} \\
 & x \equiv x_0, x_0 + \frac{m}{d}, x_0 + 2\frac{m}{d}, \dots, x_0 + (d-1)\frac{m}{d} \pmod{m} \\
 \iff & \text{the complete solution to } [a][x] = [c] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_m \text{ is} \\
 & \left\{ [x_0], \left[x_0 + \frac{m}{d} \right], \left[x_0 + 2\frac{m}{d} \right], \dots, \left[x_0 + (d-1)\frac{m}{d} \right] \right\} \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_m.
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 5

- For each of the given elements, determine its inverse, if an inverse exists. Express the inverse as $[b]$ where $1 \leq b < m$.

(a) $[5] \in \mathbb{Z}_{10}$

(b) $[5] \in \mathbb{Z}_{47}$

Solution:

- Finding $[5]^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{10}$ is equivalent to solving $[5][b] = [1]$ in \mathbb{Z}_{10} . Since $\gcd(5, 10) = 5$ and $5 \nmid 1$, this equation has no solution by LCT 2.
- Finding $[5]^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_{47}$ is equivalent to solving $[5][b] = [1]$ in \mathbb{Z}_{47} . Since $\gcd(5, 47) = 1$ and $1 \mid 1$, this equation has a solution by LCT 2. Now, solving $[5][b] = [1]$ in \mathbb{Z}_{47} is equivalent to solving $5b + 47y = 1$. We can use the EEA to find a solution.

y	b	r	q
1	0	47	0
0	1	5	0
1	-9	2	9
-2	19	1	2
5	-47	0	2

(Note that the x of the EEA has been written as b to be consistent with the linear Diophantine equation.) The table gives $5(19) + 47(-2) = 1$ and so $[5]^{-1} = [19]$ in \mathbb{Z}_{47} .

- Find the inverse of $[13]$ in \mathbb{Z}_{29} .

Solution: By definition, the inverse of $[13]$ in \mathbb{Z}_{29} is the congruence class $[x]$ so that $[13][x] = [1]$ in \mathbb{Z}_{29} . Since $\gcd(13, 29) = 1$, we know by the Linear Congruence Theorem, Version 2 that there is exactly one solution. We could try all 29 possibilities or recall that solving

$$[13][x] = [1] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{29}$$

is equivalent to solving

$$13x + 29y = 1$$

and that we know how to do using the Extended Euclidean Algorithm.

y	x	r	q
1	0	29	0
0	1	13	0
1	-2	3	2
-4	9	1	4
13	-29	0	3

From the second last row, $29(-4) + 13(9) = 1$, or to match up with the order of the original equation, $13(9) + 29(-4) = 1$. Hence

$$[13]^{-1} = [9] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{29}.$$

We can check our work by substitution. $[13][9] = [117] = [1] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_{29}$.

Congruence Division

Chapter 27

Fermat's Little Theorem

27.1 Objectives

1. State *Fermat's Little Theorem*.
2. Read a proof of *Fermat's Little Theorem*.
3. Read a proof to a corollary of *Fermat's Little Theorem*.
4. Discover a proof to the *Existence of Inverses in \mathbb{Z}_p* .

27.2 Fermat's Little Theorem

Pierre de Fermat proved a useful result called Fermat's Little Theorem. This should not be confused with one of the great conjectures, now theorem, of the last 400 years, Fermat's Last Theorem.

Theorem 1 (Fermat's Little Theorem (FLT))

If p is a prime number that does not divide the integer a , then

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Let's begin by understanding what the theorem is saying by using a numeric example.

Example 1

Suppose $p = 29$ and $a = 18$. Computing 18^{28} and reducing it modulo 29 is difficult without the aid of a computer. However, by Fermat's Little Theorem we know that

$$18^{28} \equiv 1 \pmod{29}.$$

Take a minute to read the rather complicated proof.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. If $p \nmid a$, we first show that all of the integers

$$a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$$

are all distinct modulo p .

2. Suppose that $ra \equiv sa \pmod{p}$ where $1 \leq r < s \leq p-1$.
3. Since $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, Congruence Division tells us that $r \equiv s \pmod{p}$, but this is not possible when $1 \leq r < s \leq p-1$.
4. Because $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$ are all distinct and non-zero modulo p , it must be the case that these integers are equivalent to the integers $1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1$ in some order.
5. Multiplying these integers together gives

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 2a \cdot 3a \cdots (p-1)a &\equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots (p-1) \pmod{p} \\ (p-1)!a^{p-1} &\equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

6. Since $\gcd(p, (p-1)!) = 1$, Congruence Division (again) tells us that

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

□

Let's analyze the proof. As usual, we begin by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: p is a prime number and $p \nmid a$.

Conclusion: $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Analysis of Proof This is the most complicated proof in the course so far, so we will be very thorough. In fact, this proof contains a proof within a proof.

Sentence 1 *If $p \nmid a$, we first show that the integers $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$ are all distinct modulo p .*

The reason for this sentence is not at all obvious. The sentence is needed, but not until Sentence 4. The word *distinct* should alert us to a need to prove uniqueness.

Sentence 2 *Suppose that $ra \equiv sa \pmod{p}$ where $1 \leq r < s \leq p-1$.*

The author treats Sentence 1 as a mini-proposition and begins a proof of the distinctness of the integers $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$. How? The author assumes that two of the integers, ra and sa with $r \neq s$, are the same modulo p and looks for a contradiction. The expression $1 \leq r < s \leq p-1$ is needed to make clear that ra and sa come from the integers under consideration, and that $r \neq s$. Since r and s are not the same, one is less than the other. Without any loss of generality, we can assume $r < s$.

Sentence 3 Since $\gcd(a, p) = 1$, Congruence Division tells us that $r \equiv s \pmod{p}$, but this is not possible when $1 \leq r < s \leq p - 1$.

The statement $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ is not one of the hypotheses. Where did it come from? Since p is a prime and $p \nmid a$, it must be the case that $\gcd(a, p) = 1$. It is always useful to identify where the hypotheses of a proposition are used in a proof. The hypotheses of Fermat's Little Theorem are used right here.

To invoke Congruence Division, we must show that its hypotheses are satisfied. One of those hypotheses is $ra \equiv sa \pmod{p}$. The other is $\gcd(a, p) = 1$. Invoking CD gives $r \equiv s \pmod{p}$. But r and s are distinct, positive integers less than p , so this is not possible. This concludes the proof of distinctness of the integers $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$.

Sentence 4 Because $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$ are all distinct and non-zero modulo p , it must be the case that these integers are equivalent to the integers $1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1$ in some order.

The set $\{a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a\}$ is a set of $p-1$ integers all distinct and non-zero modulo p and also coprime to p . (Can you see why?) This is also true for the set of $p-1$ integers $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1\}$. Thus, the two sets must be the same modulo p .

Sentence 5 Multiplying these integers together gives

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot 2a \cdot 3a \cdots (p-1)a &\equiv 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots (p-1) \pmod{p} \\ (p-1)!a^{p-1} &\equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

This is another sentence whose purpose is not yet clear.

Sentence 6 Since $\gcd(p, (p-1)!) = 1$, Congruence Division (again) tells us that $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

The second of the congruences above is almost what we need. If we could divide out the $(p-1)!$ we would be done. But Congruence Division allows us to do exactly that. Try to justify that $\gcd(p, (p-1)!) = 1$.

Example 2

What is the remainder when 3141^{2001} is divided by 17?

We are looking for an r that satisfies the Division Algorithm. That is

$$3141^{2001} = 17q + r \text{ where } 0 \leq r < 17.$$

Reducing the above equation modulo 17 indicates that we must find r satisfying

$$3141^{2001} \equiv r \pmod{17} \text{ where } 0 \leq r < 17.$$

Observe that

$$3141 \equiv 13 \pmod{17}$$

and that by Fermat's Little Theorem

$$13^{16} \equiv 1 \pmod{17}$$

when $17 \nmid 13$. Putting all of this together with Properties of Congruence gives

$$3141^{2001} \equiv 13^{2001} \equiv 13^{125 \cdot 16 + 1} \equiv (13^{16})^{125} \cdot 13^1 \equiv 1^{125} \cdot 13 \equiv 13 \pmod{17}.$$

Example 3

Solve $36x^{47} + 5x^9 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ where $x \in \mathbb{Z}_5$. Reduce terms and use Fermat's Little Theorem or its corollaries before substitution.

Solution: Since $36 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ the term $36x^{47}$ reduces to $x^{47} \pmod{5}$. Since $5 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$ the term $5x^9$ reduces to $0 \pmod{5}$. Thus,

$$36x^{47} + 5x^9 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

reduces to

$$x^{47} + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

Now observe that $x \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$ cannot be a solution, otherwise we have $1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ by substitution in the preceding equation. Since 5 is a prime and $5 \nmid x$, we can use Fermat's Little Theorem which implies that $x^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ and so

$$x^{47} \equiv x^{44}x^3 \equiv (x^4)^{11}x^3 \equiv 1^{11}x^3 \equiv x^3 \pmod{5}$$

and the polynomial congruence further reduces to

$$x^3 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

or, more simply,

$$2x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

Now we can use a table.

$x \pmod{5}$	0	1	2	3	4
$2x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \pmod{5}$	1	0	3	2	4

Hence, the only solution to

$$36x^{47} + 5x^9 + x^3 + x^2 + x + 1 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

is

$$x \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

Now we examine two corollaries of Fermat's Little Theorem.

Corollary 2

For any integer a and any prime p

$$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}.$$

Proof: Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let p be a prime. If $p \nmid a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Multiplying both sides of the equivalence by a gives $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. If $p \mid a$, then $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $a^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Thus $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$. \square

Let's make sure we understand the proof.

Analysis of Proof There are two important items to note: the use of nested quantifiers and the use of cases.

Sentence 1 *Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let p be a prime.*

The corollary begins with two universal quantifiers, so we use the select method twice, once for integers and once for primes.

Sentence 2 *If $p \nmid a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.*

The author breaks up the proof into two parts depending on whether or not p divides a . The author will need two distinct cases because the approach differs based on the case. In the case where p does not divide a , the author uses Fermat's Little Theorem.

Sentence 3 *Multiplying both sides of the equivalence by a gives $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.*

This is just modular arithmetic.

Sentence 4 *If $p \mid a$, then $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and $a^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Thus $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.*

This is the second case where p does divide a . Both a^p and a are congruent to zero mod p so they are congruent to each other by the transitivity of the congruence relation.

Corollary 3 (Existence of Inverses in \mathbb{Z}_p (INV \mathbb{Z}_p))

Let p be a prime number. If $[a]$ is any non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p , then there exists an element $[b] \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ so that $[a] \cdot [b] = [1]$

This corollary is equivalent to stating that every non-zero element of \mathbb{Z}_p has an inverse. Let's discover a proof. As usual, we begin by identifying the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: p is a prime number. $[a]$ is any non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p .

Conclusion: There exists an element $[b] \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ so that $[a] \cdot [b] = [1]$.

Two points are salient. First, the corollary only states that an inverse exists. It doesn't tell us what the inverse is or how to compute the inverse. Second, there are three quantifiers.

1. *Let p be a prime number* is equivalent to *for all primes p* . Since this is an instance of a universal quantifier we would expect to use the select method.
2. *$[a]$ is any non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p* is another instance of a universal quantifier so we would expect to use the select method again.
3. There is an existential quantifier in the conclusion so we would expect to use the construct method.

Together these give us the following.

Proof in Progress

1. Let p be a prime number.
2. Let $[a]$ be a non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p .

3. Construct $[b]$ as follows.
4. *To be completed.*

Now Fermat's Little Theorem uses congruences, not congruence classes. But we could restate Fermat's Little Theorem with congruence classes as

Theorem 4 (Fermat's Little Theorem (FℓT))

If p is a prime number that does not divide the integer a , then

$$[a^{p-1}] = [1] \text{ in } \mathbb{Z}_p.$$

Now an analogy to real numbers provides the final step. In the reals $a^{p-1} = a \cdot a^{p-2}$ so why not let $[b] = [a^{p-2}]$? This would give

Proof in Progress

1. Let p be a prime number.
2. Let $[a]$ be a non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p .
3. Consider $[b] = [a^{p-2}]$.
4. *To be completed.*

Now we can invoke Fermat's Little Theorem but first we need to make sure the hypotheses are satisfied.

Proof in Progress

1. Let p be a prime number.
2. Let $[a]$ be a non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p .
3. Consider $[b] = [a^{p-2}]$.
4. Since $[a] \neq [0]$ in \mathbb{Z}_p , $p \nmid a$ and so by FℓT

$$[a][b] = [a][a^{p-2}] = [a^{p-1}] = [1].$$

A proof might look as follows.

Proof: Let p be a prime number. Let $[a]$ be a non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p . Consider $[b] = [a^{p-2}]$. Since $[a] \neq [0]$ in \mathbb{Z}_p , $p \nmid a$ and so by Fermat's Little Theorem

$$[a][b] = [a][a^{p-2}] = [a^{p-1}] = [1].$$

□

REMARK

In summary, if p is a prime number and $[a]$ is any non-zero element in \mathbb{Z}_p , then

$$[a]^{-1} = [a^{p-2}].$$

Exercise 1

What is $[3]^{-1}$ in \mathbb{Z}_7 ?

Chapter 28

Chinese Remainder Theorem

28.1 Objectives

1. Solve simultaneous linear congruences.
2. Discover a proof of the *Chinese Remainder Theorem*.

28.2 An Old Problem

The following problem was posed, likely in the third century CE, by Sun Zi in his *Mathematical Manual* and republished in 1247 by Qin Jiushao in the *Mathematical Treatise in Nine Sections*.

There are certain things whose number is unknown. Repeatedly divided by 3, the remainder is 2; by 5 the remainder is 3; and by 7 the remainder is 2. What will be the number?

The word problem asks us to find an integer n that simultaneously satisfies the following three linear congruences.

$$n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$n \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$$

$$n \equiv 2 \pmod{7}$$

As when faced with linear Diophantine equations, we first want to determine if there is a solution. When a solution exists, we want to know how to find a solution and, in fact, all the solutions. We cannot simply “plug one congruence into the other”. Instead, we will use our theory on single linear congruences and their connection to linear Diophantine equations to try and express the complete solution in terms of a single modulus.

Before we solve the word problem above with three simultaneous linear congruences, we will begin with two simultaneous congruences whose moduli are coprime.

28.3 Chinese Remainder Theorem

Example 1

Solve

$$\begin{aligned}n &\equiv 2 \pmod{5} \\ n &\equiv 9 \pmod{11}.\end{aligned}$$

Solution: Suppose n is an integer such that $n \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ and $n \equiv 9 \pmod{11}$. From the first congruence, we know

$$n = 5x + 2 \text{ for some } x \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (28.1)$$

Substituting this into the second congruence we get

$$5x + 2 \equiv 9 \pmod{11} \implies 5x \equiv 7 \pmod{11}.$$

As in a previous chapter, we can use inspection and Linear Congruence Theorem 1 to solve this and get

$$x \equiv 8 \pmod{11}$$

which can be written as

$$x = 11y + 8 \text{ for some } y \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (28.2)$$

Substituting Equation 28.2 into Equation 28.1 gives

$$n = 5(11y + 8) + 2 = 55y + 42.$$

Thus

$$n \equiv 42 \pmod{55}.$$

Conversely, if $n = 55y + 42$, then $n \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ and $n \equiv 9 \pmod{11}$.

Therefore the complete solution is $n \equiv 42 \pmod{55}$.

REMARK

Suppose we try and solve

$$\log_2(x + 3) + \log_2(x - 3) = 4.$$

We can use logarithm rules to get $\log_2(x^2 - 9) = 4 \implies 2^4 = x^2 - 9 \implies x = \pm 5$. However, we can't stop there. We need to check our final answers and reject $x = -5$ because $\log_2(x - 3)$ requires $x > 3$.

How is this related to solving simultaneous linear congruences?

In the solution to Example 1, we carefully included a last checking step. The ultimate goal was to describe $\{n \in \mathbb{Z} : n \equiv 2 \pmod{5} \text{ and } n \equiv 9 \pmod{11}\}$ in another more helpful way. This means our solution is essentially a proof that two sets are equal requiring an argument in two directions. Now, in practice, we typically cite the following formalization of this process instead of including the last checking step.

Theorem 1 (Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT))

Let $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, then the simultaneous linear congruences

$$n \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$n \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

have a unique solution modulo $m_1 m_2$. Thus, if $n = n_0$ is one integer solution, then the complete solution is

$$n \equiv n_0 \pmod{m_1 m_2}$$

Let's identify, as usual, the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$. $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$.

Conclusion: The simultaneous linear congruences

$$n \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$n \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

have a unique solution modulo $m_1 m_2$.

Since there is an existential quantifier in the conclusion, we use the construct method and construct a solution. There is nothing obvious from the statement of the theorem that will help us, but we have already solved such a problem once in Example 1. Perhaps we could mimic what we did there.

From the first linear congruence

The integer n satisfies $n \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$ if and only if

$$n = a_1 + m_1 x \quad \text{for some } x \in \mathbb{Z}$$

The next thing we did was substitute this expression into the second congruence.

The number n satisfies the second congruence if and only if

$$a_1 + m_1 x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

$$m_1 x \equiv a_2 - a_1 \pmod{m_2}.$$

Have we seen anything like this before? Of course, this is just a linear congruence!

Since $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, the Linear Congruence Theorem tells us that this congruence has a solution, say $x = b$ and that the complete solution can be written:

$$x = b + m_2 y \quad \text{for some } y \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Substituting this expression for x into $n = a_1 + m_1x$ gives

$$n = a_1 + m_1x = a_1 + m_1(b + m_2y) = (a_1 + m_1b) + m_1m_2y.$$

This implies

$$n \equiv a_1 + m_1b \pmod{m_1m_2}.$$

Conversely, we can write this as

$$n = a_1 + m_1b + m_1m_2k \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

and we need to check that all integers of this form satisfy both congruences.

Exercise 1 Using the analysis above, write a proof for the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Example 2 Solve

$$n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$n \equiv 3 \pmod{5}.$$

Solution: The first congruence is equivalent to

$$n = 3x + 2 \text{ for some } x \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (28.3)$$

Substituting this into the second congruence we get

$$3x + 2 \equiv 3 \pmod{5} \implies 3x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}.$$

Using inspection and Linear Congruence Theorem 1, the solution to this is

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}.$$

Now, $x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ is equivalent to

$$x = 5y + 2 \text{ for some } y \in \mathbb{Z}. \quad (28.4)$$

Substituting Equation (28.4) into Equation (28.3) gives

$$n = 3(5y + 2) + 2 = 15y + 8.$$

Thus

$$n \equiv 8 \pmod{15}$$

and since $\gcd(3, 5) = 1$, by the Chinese Remainder Theorem, this is the complete solution.

Example 3 Solve

$$3x \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$$

$$4x \equiv 9 \pmod{11}.$$

We've seen how to determine by Linear Congruence Theorem 1 that this system of congruences is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned}x &\equiv 6 \pmod{8} \\x &\equiv 5 \pmod{11}.\end{aligned}$$

Since $\gcd(8, 11) = 1$, we know by the Chinese Remainder Theorem that a solution to this pair of linear congruences exists. Rewriting $x \equiv 6 \pmod{8}$ as $x = 8y + 6$ (1) for some $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ and substituting into the second linear congruence gives $8y + 6 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$. This reduces to $8y \equiv 10 \pmod{11}$ and the solution is $y \equiv 4 \pmod{11}$ by inspection and Linear Congruence Theorem 1. Rewriting $y \equiv 4 \pmod{11}$ as $y = 11z + 4$ for $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ and substituting in Equation 1 gives $x = 8(11z + 4) + 6 = 38 + 88z$ for some $z \in \mathbb{Z}$, or, equivalently,

$$x \equiv 38 \pmod{88}.$$

Check: $3 \cdot 38 \equiv 114 \equiv 14 \cdot 8 + 2 \equiv 2 \pmod{8}$ and $4 \cdot 38 \equiv 152 \equiv 13 \cdot 11 + 9 \equiv 9 \pmod{11}$.

Example 4

Solve

$$\begin{aligned}n &\equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\n &\equiv 3 \pmod{5} \\n &\equiv 4 \pmod{11}.\end{aligned}$$

Solution: The first two of the three linear congruences were solved above so we can replace

$$\begin{aligned}n &\equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\n &\equiv 3 \pmod{5}\end{aligned}$$

by

$$n \equiv 8 \pmod{15}.$$

This reduces a problem of three linear congruences to a problem in two linear congruences.

$$\begin{aligned}n &\equiv 8 \pmod{15} \\n &\equiv 4 \pmod{11}.\end{aligned}$$

We leave the remainder of the exercise to the reader.

The previous exercise makes it clear that we can solve more than two simultaneous linear congruences simply by solving pairs of linear congruences successively. We record this as

Theorem 2 (Generalized Chinese Remainder Theorem (GCRT))

If $m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ whenever $i \neq j$, then for any choice of integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k , there exists a solution to the simultaneous congruences

$$n \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$

$$n \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$n \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k}$$

Moreover, if $n = n_0$ is one integer solution, then the complete solution is

$$n \equiv n_0 \pmod{m_1 m_2 \dots m_k}$$

You should ask yourself “What happens if the moduli are *not* coprime?” That investigation is left as an exercise.

Exercise 2 Solve the problem posed by Sun Zi that began this lecture.

28.4 Splitting a Modulus

We may now prove the following theorem.

Theorem 3 (Splitting Modulus (SM))

Let m_1 and m_2 be coprime positive integers. Then for any two integers x and a ,

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv a \pmod{m_1} \\ x \equiv a \pmod{m_2} \end{cases} \text{ (simultaneously)} \iff x \equiv a \pmod{m_1 m_2}.$$

Proof: Assuming $x \equiv a \pmod{m_1 m_2}$, we get $m_1 m_2 \mid (x - a)$. By the definition of divisibility, we get $m_1 \mid (x - a)$ and $m_2 \mid (x - a)$. Therefore $x \equiv a \pmod{m_1}$ and $x \equiv a \pmod{m_2}$.

On the other hand, starting with the simultaneous congruences $x \equiv a \pmod{m_1}$ and $x \equiv a \pmod{m_2}$, since $\gcd(m_1, m_2) = 1$, we may use the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) to get $x \equiv a \pmod{m_1 m_2}$. \square

Example 5 Find all integers n such that $n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{35}$.

Solution: We could try all 35 possibilities but even then, computing something like 20^{37} is a problem. Perhaps there is another way. Observing that $35 = 5 \times 7$ and both factors are relatively prime, we will use the Splitting Modulus (SM) theorem and split the problem

into two linear congruences and then apply the Chinese Remainder Theorem. Can you see why this is okay even though the polynomial is not linear?

We split

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{35}$$

into

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{5} \quad (28.5)$$

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}. \quad (28.6)$$

Well, have we seen anything like these before? Indeed, we have. The previous example solved congruences just like these. We'll solve each of the polynomial congruences individually. As in the previous example, we can reduce terms and use Fermat's Little Theorem or its corollaries to simplify the congruence before substitution. Let's start with Equation (28.5).

Since $10 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$ the term $10n^8$ reduces to $0 \pmod{5}$.

Since $14 \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$ the term $14n^7$ reduces to $4n^7 \pmod{5}$.

Finally, since $5 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$, the right hand side constant reduces to $0 \pmod{5}$.

Thus,

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{5}$$

reduces to

$$n^{37} + 4n^7 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}.$$

This looks like progress! Now observe that $n_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$ cannot be a solution, otherwise we have $1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}$ by substitution in the preceding equation. Since 5 is a prime and $5 \nmid n_0$, we use Fermat's Little Theorem to get $n^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$. Hence

$$n^{37} \equiv n^{36}n \equiv (n^4)^9n \equiv 1^9n \equiv n \pmod{5}$$

and

$$n^7 \equiv n^4n^3 \equiv n^3 \pmod{5}$$

and so the polynomial congruence further reduces to

$$n + 4n^3 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{5}.$$

Now we can use a table.

$n \pmod{5}$	0	1	2	3	4
$n + 4n^3 + 1 \pmod{5}$	1	1	0	2	1

Hence, the only solution to

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{5}$$

is

$$n \equiv 2 \pmod{5}.$$

This is a linear congruence so that supports the idea of using the Chinese Remainder Theorem. Now let's examine Equation (28.6) (repeated below).

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}.$$

Reducing each term modulo 7 gives

$$n^{37} + 3n^8 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}.$$

Since $n_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{7}$ cannot be a solution, otherwise $1 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$, and 7 is a prime, we can use Fermat's Little Theorem to assert $n^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$. This allows us to say

$$n^{37} \equiv n^{36}n \equiv (n^6)^6n \equiv 1^6n \equiv n \pmod{7}$$

and

$$n^8 \equiv n^6n^2 \equiv n^2 \pmod{7}.$$

Thus, Equation (28.6) reduces to

$$n + 3n^2 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}.$$

This is a good time to use a table.

$n \pmod{7}$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
$n + 3n^2 + 1 \pmod{7}$	1	5	1	3	4	4	3

Hence, the only solution to

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{7}$$

is

$$n \equiv 1 \pmod{7}.$$

But now we have two simultaneous linear congruences

$$n \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

$$n \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$$

Since the moduli are coprime, we know by the Chinese Remainder Theorem that a solution exists. The proof of CRT gave us a way to solve two simultaneous linear congruences.

The first congruence is equivalent to

$$n = 5x + 2 \text{ for some } x \in \mathbb{Z}. \tag{28.7}$$

Substituting this into the second congruence we get

$$5x + 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{7} \implies 5x \equiv 6 \pmod{7}.$$

Solving this linear congruence gives

$$x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}.$$

Now $x \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$ is equivalent to

$$x = 7y + 4 \text{ for some } y \in \mathbb{Z}. \tag{28.8}$$

Substituting Equation (28.8) into Equation (28.7) gives the solution

$$n = 5(7y + 4) + 2 = 35y + 22 \text{ for some } y \in \mathbb{Z}$$

which is equivalent to

$$n \equiv 22 \pmod{35}.$$

Thus, by the CRT, the solution to

$$n^{37} + 10n^8 + 14n^7 + 1 \equiv 5 \pmod{35}$$

is

$$n \equiv 22 \pmod{35}.$$

REMARK

Let's summarize what we have learned from all of our examples.

- By the Linear Congruence Theorem, all linear congruences can be solved.
- There is no efficient means to solving a general polynomial congruence but sometimes Fermat's Little Theorem can help simplify the congruence.
- Simultaneous linear congruences can be solved using the Chinese Remainder Theorem if the moduli are coprime.
- A single congruence can be split into simultaneous congruences by splitting the modulus into coprime factors and using the Chinese Remainder Theorem to combine solutions to the individual congruences.

Chapter 29

The RSA Scheme

29.1 Objectives

1. Illustrate the use of RSA.
2. Prove that the message sent will be the message received.

29.2 Public Key Cryptography

The need for secret communications has been known for millenia. In the modern world, the need for secret communication is much larger than it was even in the recent past. Certainly the traditional requirements of military and diplomatic secrecy continue, but the credit card, debit card and web transactions of modern commerce, as well as privacy concerns for health, citizenship and other electronic records, have raised the need for secure communications and storage dramatically.

In its most elemental form, the objective of any secret communication scheme is to allow two parties, usually referred to as Alice (for person A) and Bob (for person B), to communicate over an insecure channel so that an opponent, often called Oscar, cannot understand what is being communicated. The information Alice wishes to communicate is called the **message** or the **plaintext**. The act of transforming the plaintext into a **ciphertext** is called **enciphering** or **encryption**. The rules for enciphering make use of a **key**, which is an input to the algorithm. The act of transforming the ciphertext to plaintext using the key is called **deciphering** or **decryption**.

In a **private key cryptographic scheme**, Alice and Bob both must share some secret key to be able communicate using cryptography. This raises the problem of how to distribute a large number of keys between users, especially if these keys need to be changed frequently. For example, there are almost 200 countries in the world. If Canada maintains an embassy in each country and allows Canadian embassies to communicate with one another, the embassies must exchange a common key between each pair of embassies. That means there are $\binom{200}{2} = 19,900$ keys to exchange. Worse yet, for security reasons, keys should be changed frequently and so 19,900 keys might need to be exchanged daily.

In a **public key cryptographic scheme**, keys are divided into two parts: a private decryption key held secretly by each participant, and a public encryption key, derived from the private key, which is shared in an open repository of some sort. For user A to send a

private message to user B , A would look up B 's public key, encrypt the message and send it to B . Since B is the only person who possesses the secret key required for decryption, only B can read the message.

Such an arrangement solves the key distribution problem. The public keys do not need to be kept secret and only one per participant needs to be available. Thus, in our embassy example previously, only 200 keys need to be published.

The possibility of public key cryptography was first published in 1976 in a paper by Diffie, Hellman and Merkle. The RSA scheme, named after its discoverers Rivest, Shamir and Adleman is an example of a commercially implemented public key scheme.

RSA is now widely deployed. The following protocols and products, which embed RSA, are used by many of us daily. SSL (Secure Sockets Layer) is the most commonly used protocol for secure communication over the web. It is frequently used to encrypt payment data before sending that data to a server. PGP (Pretty Good Privacy) is used by individuals and businesses to encrypt and authenticate messages. It was originally intended for email messages and attachments but is now also used for encrypting files, folders or entire hard drives. EMV (Europay, MasterCard and VISA) is a global standard for authenticating credit and debit card transactions at point of sale (POS) or automated teller machines (ATM).

In the next section, we will introduce the RSA scheme and then prove that it works. The security of the RSA scheme is a widely studied subject, but we will not address that here.

29.3 Implementing RSA

In RSA, messages are integers. How does one get an integer from plaintext? We assign a number to each letter of the alphabet and then concatenate the digits together. If the message is too long, it may need to be broken into parts so that $M < n$ (see *Sending a Message* below).

29.3.1 Setting up RSA

-
1. Choose two large, distinct primes p and q and let $n = pq$.
 2. Select an integer e so that $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ and $1 < e < (p-1)(q-1)$.
 3. Solve

$$ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$$
 for an integer d where $1 < d < (p-1)(q-1)$.
 4. Publish the public encryption key (e, n) .
 5. Keep secure the private decryption key (d, n) .
-

29.3.2 Sending a Message

To send a message:

1. Look up the recipient's public key (e, n) .
2. Generate the integer message M so that $0 \leq M < n$.
3. Compute the ciphertext C as follows:

$$M^e \equiv C \pmod{n} \text{ where } 0 \leq C < n.$$

4. Send C .
-

29.3.3 Receiving a Message

To decrypt a message:

1. Use your private key (d, n) .
2. Compute the plaintext R from the ciphertext C as follows:

$$C^d \equiv R \pmod{n} \text{ where } 0 \leq R < n.$$

3. R is the original message.
-

29.3.4 Example

All of the computations in this part were done in Maple.

Setting up RSA

1. Choose two large, distinct primes p and q and let $n = pq$.
 Let p be
 9026694843 0929817462 4847943076 6619417461
 5791443937,
 and let q be
 7138718791 1693596343 0802517103 2405888327
 6844736583
 so n is
 6443903609 8539423089 8003779070 0502485677
 1034536315 4526254586 6290164606 1990955188
 1922989980 3977447271.

2. Select an integer e so that $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ and $1 < e < (p-1)(q-1)$.

Now $(p-1)(q-1)$ is

6443903609 8539423089 8003779070 0502485677
 1034536313 8360840952 3666750800 6340495008
 2897684191 1341266752.

Choose e as

9573596212 0300597326 2950869579 7174556955
 8757345310 2344121731.

It is indeed the case that $\gcd(e, (p-1)(q-1)) = 1$ and $1 < e < (p-1)(q-1)$.

3. Solve

$$ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$$

for an integer d where $1 < d < (p-1)(q-1)$. Solving this LDE gives d as

5587652122 6351022927 9795248536 5522717791
 7285682675 6100082011 1849030646 3274981250
 2583120946 4072548779.

4. Publish the public encryption key (e, n) .
5. Keep secure the private decryption key (d, n) .

Sending a Message

To send a message:

1. Look up the recipient's public key (e, n) .
2. Generate the integer message M so that $0 \leq M < n$.
We will let $M = 3141592653$.
3. Compute the ciphertext C as follows:

$$M^e \equiv C \pmod{n} \text{ where } 0 \leq C < n.$$

Computing gives C

4006696554 3080815610 2814019838 8509626485
 8151054441 5245547382 5506759308 1333888622
 4491394825 3742205367.

4. Send C .

Receiving a Message

To decrypt a message:

1. Use your private key (d, n) .
2. Compute the plaintext R from the ciphertext C as follows:

$$C^d \equiv R \pmod{n} \text{ where } 0 \leq R < n.$$

3. This value $R = 3141592653$ is the original message.

29.3.5 RSA calculations without using computers

When the value of n is small and can be easily factored into $n = pq$ for distinct primes p and q , we can carry out the calculations without using computers. For this, we need to recall the theorem about splitting a congruence modulo n into multiple simultaneous congruences using the factors of n .

Theorem 1 (Splitting Modulus (SM))

Let p and q be coprime positive integers. Then for any two integers x and a ,

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv a \pmod{p} \\ x \equiv a \pmod{q} \end{cases} \text{ (simultaneously)} \iff x \equiv a \pmod{pq}.$$

Even though the end results of an RSA calculation is presented modulo n , the Splitting Modulus (SM) theorem allows us to carry out the intermediate modulo p and modulo q separately, and combine the results using the Chinese Remainder Theorem (CRT) to get the final answer in $(\text{mod } n)$.

The advantage of using p and q is that these numbers are prime, so we can use Fermat's Little Theorem (FLT) and its corollaries.

Example 1 Let us carry out some RSA calculations.

- Given $p = 5$, and $q = 11$, and $e = 3$, find the private key (d, n) for an RSA scheme.

Solution: In this case, $n = 5 \times 11 = 55$ and $(p - 1)(q - 1) = 4 \times 10 = 40$. To find d , we solve

$$3d \equiv 1 \pmod{40}.$$

Set up the Linear Diophantine Equation

$$40x + 3d = 1$$

and use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm

x	y	r	q	Division Algorithm
1	0	40	0	$40 = 0(3) + 40$
0	1	3	0	$23 = 0(40) + 3$
1	-13	1	13	$40 = 13(3) + 1$

So our solution for d is

$$d \equiv -13 \pmod{40}.$$

How many solutions do we expect for d ? Since $\gcd(3, 40) = 1$, by the Linear Congruence Theorem (LCT), there is only one solution modulo 40.

As d must satisfy $1 < d < 40$, the answer is $d = (40 - 13) = 27$.

Note that we could have solved for d simply from the observation that $3 \times 27 = 81$, which leaves a remainder of 1 when divided by 40.

The private key is the pair $(d, n) = (27, 55)$

2. Suppose you receive the cipher-text $C = 47$. Decrypt the message using your private key $(27, 55)$.

Solution: So we will compute

$$R = (47)^{27} \pmod{55}.$$

The Splitting Modulus (SM) theorem allows us to instead solve the simultaneous congruences

$$\begin{aligned} R &\equiv (47)^{27} \pmod{5} \\ \text{and } R &\equiv (47)^{27} \pmod{11}. \end{aligned}$$

We know $47 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ and $47 \equiv 3 \pmod{11}$, which provides us with slightly simpler congruences

$$\begin{aligned} R &\equiv 2^{27} \pmod{5} \\ \text{and } R &\equiv 3^{27} \pmod{11}. \end{aligned}$$

Since 5 and 11 are both prime numbers, we may now use Fermat's little Theorem (FLT), which tells us $2^4 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ and $3^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$.

Using $27 = (6)(4) + 3$, we get $R \equiv (2^4)^6 2^3 \equiv 2^3 \equiv 8 \equiv 3 \pmod{5}$. Similarly, from $27 = 2(10) + 7$, we get that $R \equiv (3^{10})^2 3^7 \equiv (3^7) \equiv 9 \pmod{11}$. Finally, we have to solve the simultaneous system of equations given by

$$\begin{aligned} R &\equiv 3 \pmod{5} \\ \text{and } R &\equiv 9 \pmod{11}. \end{aligned}$$

A quick check shows that $R \equiv 3 \equiv 53 \pmod{5}$ and $R \equiv 9 \equiv 53 \pmod{11}$ and so by SM, $R \equiv 53 \pmod{55}$.

REMARK

Notice that the Splitting Modulus theorem simplified our work in the example above. However, this is not something that an adversary can do because p and q are not part of the public key!

29.4 Does $M = R$?

Are we confident that the message sent is the message received?

Theorem 2 (RSA)

If

1. p and q are distinct primes,
2. $n = pq$
3. e and d are positive integers such that $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$,
4. $0 \leq M < n$
5. $M^e \equiv C \pmod{n}$
6. $C^d \equiv R \pmod{n}$ where $0 \leq R < n$

then $R = M$.

The proof is long and can appear intimidating but, in fact, it is structurally straightforward if we break it into pieces. The proof is done in four parts.

1. Write R as a function of M , specifically

$$R \equiv MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n}.$$

2. Show that $R \equiv M \pmod{p}$. We will do this in two cases: (i) $p \nmid M$ and (ii) $p \mid M$.
3. Show that $R \equiv M \pmod{q}$.
4. Use the Chinese Remainder Theorem to deduce that $R = M$.

Proof: First, we will show that

$$R \equiv MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n}.$$

Since $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$, there exists an integer k so that

$$ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1).$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned}
 R &\equiv C^d \pmod{n} \\
 &\equiv (M^e)^d \pmod{n} \\
 &\equiv M^{ed} \pmod{n} \\
 &\equiv M^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n} \\
 &\equiv MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Second, we will show that $R \equiv M \pmod{p}$. Suppose that $p \nmid M$. By Fermat's Little Theorem,

$$M^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} M^{k(p-1)(q-1)} &\equiv (M^{p-1})^{k(q-1)} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv 1^{k(q-1)} \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv 1 \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

Multiplying both sides by M gives

$$MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv M \pmod{p}.$$

Since

$$R \equiv MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n} \implies R \equiv MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{p}.$$

we have

$$R \equiv M \pmod{p}.$$

Now suppose that $p \mid M$. But then $M \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ and so $MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. That is,

$$MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \equiv M \pmod{p}.$$

Again, since

$$R \equiv MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{n} \implies R \equiv MM^{k(p-1)(q-1)} \pmod{p}$$

we have

$$R \equiv M \pmod{p}.$$

In either case, we have $R \equiv M \pmod{p}$.

Third, we will show that $R \equiv M \pmod{q}$. But this is very similar to $R \equiv M \pmod{p}$.

Fourth and last, we will show that $R = M$. So far we have generated two linear congruences that have to be satisfied simultaneously, namely:

$$\begin{aligned} R &\equiv M \pmod{p} \\ R &\equiv M \pmod{q}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ we can invoke the Chinese Remainder Theorem and conclude that

$$R \equiv M \pmod{pq}.$$

Since $pq = n$ we have

$$R \equiv M \pmod{n}.$$

Now, R and M are both integers congruent to each other modulo n , and both lie between 0 and $n - 1$, so $R = M$. \square

Part V

Complex Numbers and Euler's Formula

Chapter 30

Complex Numbers

30.1 Objectives

1. Define *complex number*, \mathbb{C} , *real part*, and *imaginary part*.
2. Perform *complex addition* and *complex multiplication*.
3. State and prove properties of complex numbers.

30.2 Different Equations Require Different Number Systems

When humans first counted, we tallied. We literally made notches on sticks, stones and bones. Thus the natural numbers, \mathbb{N} , were born. But it wouldn't be long before the necessity of fractions became obvious. One animal to be shared by four people (we will assume uniformly) meant that we had to develop the notion of $1/4$. Though it would not have been expressed this way, the equation

$$4x = 1$$

does not have a solution in \mathbb{N} and so we would have had to extend our notion of numbers to include fractions, the rationals.

$$\mathbb{Q} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0 \right\}$$

This is an overstatement historically, because recognition of zero and negative numbers which are permitted in \mathbb{Q} were very slow to come. But even these new numbers would not help solve equations of the form

$$x^2 = 2$$

which would arise naturally from isosceles right angled triangles. For this, the notion of number had to be extended to include irrational numbers, which combined with the rationals, give us the real numbers.

Eventually, via Hindu and Islamic scholars, western mathematics began to recognize and accept both zero and negative numbers. Otherwise, equations like

$$3x = 5x$$

or

$$2x + 4 = 0$$

have no solution. Thus, mathematicians recognized that

$$\mathbb{N} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z} \subsetneq \mathbb{Q} \subsetneq \mathbb{R}$$

but even \mathbb{R} was inadequate because equations of the form

$$x^2 + 1 = 0$$

had no real solutions.

So once again, our number system was extended again.

30.3 Complex Numbers

Definition 30.3.1 Complex Number

A **complex number** z in **standard form** is an expression of the form $x + yi$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. The set of all complex numbers is denoted by

$$\mathbb{C} = \{x + yi : x, y \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

Example 1

Some examples are $3 + 4i$, $0 + 5i$ (usually written $5i$), $7 - 0i$ (usually written 7) and $0 + 0i$ (usually written 0).

Definition 30.3.2 Real Part, Imaginary Part

For a complex number $z = x + yi$, the real number x is called the **real part** and is written $\operatorname{Re}(z)$ or $\Re(z)$ and the real number y is called the **imaginary part** and is written $\operatorname{Im}(z)$ or $\Im(z)$.

So $\operatorname{Re}(3 + 4i) = 3$ and $\operatorname{Im}(3 + 4i) = 4$. If z is a complex number where $\operatorname{Im}(z) = 0$, we will treat z as a real number and we will not write the term containing i . For example, $z = 3 + 0i$ will be treated as a real number and will be written as $z = 3$. Thus

$$\mathbb{R} \subsetneq \mathbb{C}$$

and so

$$\mathbb{N} \subsetneq \mathbb{Z} \subsetneq \mathbb{Q} \subsetneq \mathbb{R} \subsetneq \mathbb{C}$$

One has to wonder how much further the number system needs to be extended!

Definition 30.3.3 Equality

The complex numbers $z = x + yi$ and $w = u + vi$ are **equal** if and only if $x = u$ and $y = v$.

Definition 30.3.4 Addition

Addition is defined as

$$(a + bi) + (c + di) = (a + c) + (b + d)i$$

Example 2

$$(1 + 7i) + (2 - 3i) = (1 + 2) + (7 - 3)i = 3 + 4i$$

Definition 30.3.5**Multiplication**

Multiplication is defined as

$$(a + bi) \cdot (c + di) = (ac - bd) + (ad + cb)i$$

Example 3

$$(1 + 7i) \cdot (2 - 3i) = (1 \cdot 2 - 7 \cdot (-3)) + (1 \cdot (-3) + 7 \cdot 2)i = 23 + 11i$$

REMARK

Let's square i .

$$i \cdot i = (0 + 1i) \cdot (0 + 1i) = (0 \cdot 0 - 1 \cdot 1) + (0 \cdot 1 + 0 \cdot 1)i = -1$$

The fact that $i^2 = -1$ is what gives complex numbers their strangeness and their strength. Together with properties of real numbers, it allows us to avoid use of the cumbersome formal definition of complex multiplication when doing numerical computations. Instead, we can expand the binomial and replace i^2 by -1 . So for the above example, we can more familiarly write

$$(1 + 7i) \cdot (2 - 3i) = 2 - 3i + 14i - 21i^2 = 23 + 11i.$$

The multiplication symbol is usually omitted and we write zw or $(a + bi)(c + di)$.

Definition 30.3.6**Subtraction**

Subtraction is defined as

$$(a + bi) - (c + di) = (a - c) + (b - d)i$$

Exercise 1

Verify that if z and w are complex numbers, then $z - w = z + (-1 + 0i)w$.

Example 4

Let $u = 3 + i$ and $v = 2 - 7i$. Compute

1. $u + v$

2. $u - v$

3. uv

4. u^3

Solution:

1. $u + v = (3 + i) + (2 - 7i) = 5 - 6i$
2. $u - v = (3 + i) - (2 - 7i) = 1 + 8i$
3. $uv = (3 + i)(2 - 7i) = (6 - (-7)) + (-21 + 2)i = 13 - 19i$
4. $u^3 = (3 + i)^3 = (3 + i)^2(3 + i) = (8 + 6i)(3 + i) = 18 + 26i$

You probably didn't even question the use of exponents in the previous example. Technically, we haven't defined u^2 and u^3 for a complex number yet. However, we do this in the usual way. That is, if z is a complex number and $n > 1$ is an integer, we write z^n to mean the multiplication of n copies of z . We stick to the convention that $z^0 = 1$ and $z^1 = z$. However, we won't take sides in the debate over what 0^0 is or means.

Exercise 2

Compute

1. i^{4k} for any non-negative integer k
2. i^{4k+1} for any non-negative integer k
3. i^{4k+2} for any non-negative integer k
4. i^{4k+3} for any non-negative integer k

What about division? Consider $\frac{3+4i}{1+2i}$. What does this mean?

Let $z = 1 + 2i$. As with real numbers and integers modulo a prime, we want to write

$$\frac{3+4i}{z} = (3+4i)z^{-1}$$

where if $z^{-1} = (x + yi)$ for real numbers x and y , then $(1 + 2i)(x + yi) = 1$. If this is true,

$$(x - 2y) + (2x + y)i = 1 + 0i.$$

We can equate real and imaginary parts and solve for x and y to determine that $z^{-1} = \frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{5}i$. Then

$$\frac{3+4i}{z} = (3+4i)z^{-1} = (3+4i)\left(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{5}i\right) = \frac{11}{5} - \frac{2}{5}i.$$

Notice that assuming the left-hand side (below) is also well-defined,

$$\left(\frac{3+4i}{1+2i}\right)\left(\frac{1-2i}{1-2i}\right) = \frac{11-2i}{1^2+2^2} = \frac{11}{5} - \frac{2}{5}i.$$

Definition 30.3.7**Division**

Division is defined as

$$\frac{(a+bi)}{(c+di)} = \frac{ac+bd}{c^2+d^2} + \left(\frac{bc-ad}{c^2+d^2}\right)i$$

Example 5

Let $u = 3 + i$ and $v = 2 - 7i$. Compute $\frac{v}{u}$ and write the answer standard form.

Solution: Using the definition, we get

$$\frac{v}{u} = \frac{6 - 7}{9 + 1} + \frac{2 + 21}{9 + 1}i = \frac{-1}{10} + \frac{-23}{10}i.$$

Alternatively,

$$\frac{v}{u} = \frac{2 - 7i}{3 + i} = \frac{2 - 7i}{3 + i} \cdot \frac{3 - i}{3 - i} = \frac{-1 - 23i}{10} = \frac{-1}{10} + \frac{-23}{10}i.$$

We will now also allow negative integer exponents. That is, if z is a complex number and n is a positive integer, then z^{-n} simply means $\frac{1}{z^n}$. Things get interesting and especially strange when we explore rational, real and even complex exponents!

The usual properties of associativity, commutativity, identities, inverses and distributivity that we associate with rational and real numbers also apply to complex numbers.

Proposition 1

Let $u, v, z \in \mathbb{C}$. Then

1. Associativity of addition: $(u + v) + z = u + (v + z)$
2. Commutativity of addition: $u + v = v + u$
3. Additive identity: $0 = 0 + 0i$ has the property that $z + 0 = z$
4. Additive inverses: If $z = x + yi$ then there exists an *additive inverse* of z , written $-z$ with the property that $z + (-z) = 0$. The additive inverse of $z = x + yi$ is $-z = -x - yi$.
5. Associativity of multiplication: $(u \cdot v) \cdot z = u \cdot (v \cdot z)$
6. Commutativity of multiplication: $u \cdot v = v \cdot u$
7. Multiplicative identity: $1 = 1 + 0i$ has the property that $z \cdot 1 = z$.
8. Multiplicative inverses: If $z = x + yi \neq 0$ then there exists a *multiplicative inverse* of z , written z^{-1} , with the property that $z \cdot z^{-1} = 1$. The multiplicative inverse of $z = x + yi \neq 0$ is $z^{-1} = \frac{x - yi}{x^2 + y^2}$.
9. Distributivity: $z \cdot (u + v) = z \cdot u + z \cdot v$

Example 6

Let $u = 3 + i$ and $v = 2 - 7i$ as before. Verify that $(u^2)v = u(uv)$.

Solution: We compute

$$(u^2)v = (3 + i)^2(2 - 7i) = (8 + 6i)(2 - 7i) = 58 - 44i$$

and

$$u(uv) = (3 + i)((3 + i)(2 - 7i)) = (3 + i)(13 - 19i) = 58 - 44i.$$

Self Check 1

Prove that the properties of associativity, commutativity, identities, inverses and distributivity are true for complex numbers.

REMARK

You may wonder if the quadratic formula still works for complex numbers. If you were introduced to complex numbers in high school, this may have been the motivation. It turns out that complex numbers allow us to find two (not necessarily distinct) solutions to *any* real quadratic equation. It also “works” if the coefficients are complex numbers. However, we need a reinterpretation of some of the terms in the formula. We will get to this in later chapters.

Chapter 31

Properties Of Complex Numbers

31.1 Objectives

1. Define *conjugate* and *modulus*.
2. State and prove several properties of complex numbers.

31.2 Conjugate

Definition 31.2.1
Conjugate

The **complex conjugate** of $z = x + yi$ is the complex number

$$\bar{z} = x - yi.$$

The conjugate of $z = 2 + 3i$ is $\bar{z} = 2 - 3i$.

Example 1

Find all $z \in \mathbb{C}$ which satisfy $z^2 + 2\bar{z} + 1 = 0$.

Solution: Let $z = x + yi$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$z^2 + 2\bar{z} + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow (x^2 - y^2 + 2xyi) + 2(x - yi) + 1 = 0$$

or

$$(x^2 - y^2 + 2x + 1) + (2xy - 2y)i = 0$$

Equating real and imaginary parts we have

$$x^2 - y^2 + 2x + 1 = 0.$$

$$2xy - 2y = 0.$$

From the second equation we get

$$2xy - 2y = 0 \Rightarrow 2y(x - 1) = 0 \Rightarrow y = 0 \text{ or } x = 1$$

If $y = 0$ then the first equation gives

$$x^2 + 2x + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow x = -1$$

If $x = 1$ then the first equation gives

$$1 - y^2 + 2 + 1 = 0 \Rightarrow y^2 = 4 \Rightarrow y = \pm 2$$

Thus, the solutions are

$$-1, 1 + 2i, 1 - 2i$$

Proposition 1 (Properties of Conjugates (PCJ))

If z and w are complex numbers, then

1. $\overline{z + w} = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$
2. $\overline{zw} = \bar{z} \bar{w}$
3. $\overline{\bar{z}} = z$
4. $z + \bar{z} = 2\operatorname{Re}(z)$
5. $z - \bar{z} = 2\operatorname{Im}(z)i$

We will prove the first of these properties and leave the remainder as exercises.

Proof: Let $z = x + yi$ and $w = u + vi$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \overline{z + w} &= \overline{(x + yi) + (u + vi)} && \text{(substitution)} \\
 &= \overline{(x + u) + (y + v)i} && \text{(defn of addition)} \\
 &= (x + u) - (y + v)i && \text{(defn of conjugate)} \\
 &= (x - yi) + (u - vi) && \text{(Properties of Addn and Mult)} \\
 &= \bar{z} + \bar{w} && \text{(defn of conjugate)}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Exercise 1 Prove each of the remaining parts of the Properties of Conjugates proposition.

Example 2 Prove: Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$. The complex number z is a real number if and only if $z = \bar{z}$.

Solution: Let $z = x + yi$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 z \text{ is real} &\iff \operatorname{Im}(z) = 0 && \text{(from the previous chapter)} \\
 &\iff y = 0 \\
 &\iff x + 0i = x - 0i \\
 &\iff z = \bar{z}
 \end{aligned}$$

Exercise 2 Prove: Let $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and $z \neq 0$. The complex number z is purely imaginary ($\operatorname{Re}(z) = 0$) if and only if $z = -\bar{z}$.

REMARK

Note that zero is both real and purely imaginary.

Exercise 3 Let w and z be complex numbers in standard form. Prove that

$$\overline{\left(\frac{1}{w}\right)} = \frac{1}{\bar{w}}$$

and hence

$$\overline{\left(\frac{z}{w}\right)} = \frac{\bar{z}}{\bar{w}}$$

Example 3 For $z \neq i$ define

$$w = \frac{z+i}{z-i}$$

Prove that w is a real number if and only if z is purely imaginary.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} w \text{ is real} &\iff w = \bar{w} \\ &\iff \frac{z+i}{z-i} = \overline{\left(\frac{z+i}{z-i}\right)} \\ &\iff \frac{z+i}{z-i} = \frac{\bar{z}-i}{\bar{z}+i} \text{ by Properties of Conjugates} \\ &\iff z\bar{z} - 1 + (z+\bar{z})i = z\bar{z} - 1 - (z+\bar{z})i \\ &\iff 2i(z+\bar{z}) = 0 \\ &\iff z+\bar{z} = 0 \\ &\iff 2\operatorname{Re}(z) = 0 \text{ by Properties of Conjugates} \\ &\iff \operatorname{Re}(z) = 0 \\ &\iff z \text{ is purely imaginary.} \end{aligned}$$

31.3 Modulus

Given two real numbers, say x_1 and x_2 , we can write either $x_1 \leq x_2$ or $x_2 \leq x_1$. However, given two complex numbers, z_1 and z_2 , we cannot meaningfully write $z_1 \leq z_2$ or $z_2 \leq z_1$. This is one reason why we associate each complex number with a non-negative real number.

Definition 31.3.1**Modulus**

The **modulus** of the complex number $z = x + yi$ is the non-negative real number

$$|z| = |x + yi| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}.$$

Example 4

The modulus of $z = 2 - 5i$ is $|z| = \sqrt{(2)^2 + (-5)^2} = \sqrt{29}$.

Since the modulus of a complex number is a real number, we can meaningfully write $|z_1| \leq |z_2|$. The modulus gives us a means to compare the magnitude of two complex numbers, but not compare the numbers themselves.

If $\text{Im}(z) = 0$, the modulus corresponds to the absolute values of real numbers. If we think of $|x|$ for a real number x as the “distance” from x to zero, then this matches a geometric interpretation of $|z|$ we will introduce for complex numbers in the next chapter.

Proposition 2**(Properties of Modulus (PM))**

If z and w are complex numbers, then

1. $|z| = 0$ if and only if $z = 0$
2. $|\bar{z}| = |z|$
3. $\bar{z}z = |z|^2$
4. $|zw| = |z||w|$
5. $|z + w| \leq |z| + |w|$. This is the **triangle inequality**.

Exercise 4

Prove each of the parts of the Properties of Modulus proposition.

REMARK

Squaring both sides of an equation or inequality and the using $z\bar{z} = |z|^2$ from Properties of Modulus often allows us to avoid introducing the real and imaginary parts of a complex number z . This often leads to a shorter and more elegant proof. How did you prove the fourth part of Properties of Modulus?

Example 5

For $z \in \mathbb{C}$, $z \neq i$ define $w = \frac{z+i}{z-i}$. Prove that $|w| < 1$ if and only if $\text{Im}(z) < 0$.

Solution: Let $z = x + yi$ with $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}
 |w| < 1 &\iff \left| \frac{z+i}{z-i} \right| < 1 \\
 &\iff \frac{|z+i|}{|z-i|} < 1 \\
 &\iff |z+i| < |z-i| \\
 &\iff |x + (y+1)i| < |x + (y-1)i| \\
 &\iff \sqrt{x^2 + (y+1)^2} < \sqrt{x^2 + (y-1)^2} \\
 &\iff x^2 + (y+1)^2 < x^2 + (y-1)^2 \\
 &\iff 2y < -2y \\
 &\iff 4y < 0 \\
 &\iff y < 0 \\
 &\iff \operatorname{Im}(z) < 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 6

One of the dangers in working in a new mathematical system is the temptation to invent new but incorrect rules.

For each step of the following argument that purports to show that $|z| = 1$ for all complex numbers z , provide justification (by citing an appropriate proposition, for example) or state that the logic is incorrect and give a reason why.

Let z be any complex number.

$$0 = |1| - 1 \quad (31.1)$$

$$= |zz^{-1}| - 1 \quad (31.2)$$

$$= |z||z^{-1}| - 1 \quad (31.3)$$

$$= |(z+1) - 1||z^{-1}| - 1 \quad (31.4)$$

$$= (|z+1| + |-1|)|z^{-1}| - 1 \quad (31.5)$$

$$= (|z+1| + 1)|z^{-1}| - 1 \quad (31.6)$$

$$= |z+1||z^{-1}| + |z^{-1}| - 1 \quad (31.7)$$

$$= |z+1||z| + |z| - 1 \quad (31.8)$$

$$= (|z| + |1|)|z| + |z| - 1 \quad (31.9)$$

$$= (|z| + 1)|z| + |z| - 1 \quad (31.10)$$

$$= |z|^2 + 2|z| - 1 \quad (31.11)$$

$$= (|z| - 1)^2 \quad (31.12)$$

Therefore $|z| = 1$ for all complex numbers z .

Chapter 32

Graphical Representations of Complex Numbers

32.1 Objectives

1. Define *complex plane*, *polar coordinates*, *polar form*.
2. Convert between Cartesian and polar form.
3. Multiplication in polar form.

32.2 The Complex Plane

32.2.1 Cartesian Coordinates (x, y)

Definition 32.2.1
Complex Plane

The notation $z = x + yi$ suggests a non-algebraic representation. Each complex number $z = x + yi$ can be thought of as a point (x, y) in a plane with orthogonal axes. Label one axis the **real axis** and the other axis the **imaginary axis**. The complex number $z = x + yi$ then corresponds to the point (x, y) in the plane. This interpretation of the plane is called the **complex plane** or the **Argand plane**.

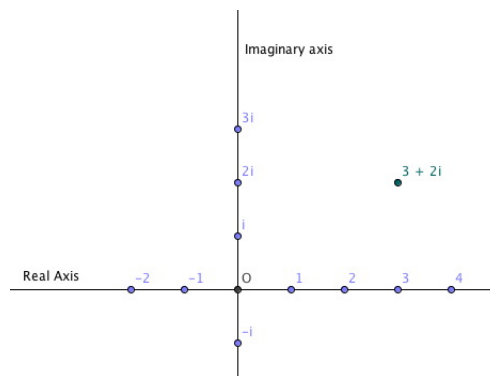


Figure 32.2.1: The Complex Plane

Exercise 1 Plot the following points in the complex plane.

1. $4 - i$
2. $-2 + 3i$

32.2.2 Modulus

Recall that the modulus of the complex number $z = x + yi$ is the non-negative real number

$$|z| = |x + yi| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

There are a couple of geometric points to note about the modulus of $z = x + yi$. The Pythagorean Theorem is enough to prove that $|z|$ is the distance from the origin to z in the complex plane, and that the distance between z and $w = u + vi$ is just $|z - w| = \sqrt{(x - u)^2 + (y - v)^2}$.

Exercise 2 Sketch all of the points in the complex plane with modulus 1.

32.3 Polar Representation

There is another way to represent points in a plane which is very useful when working with complex numbers. Instead of beginning with the origin and two orthogonal axes, we begin with the origin O and a **polar axis** which is a ray leaving from the origin. The point $P(r, \theta)$ is plotted so that the distance OP is r , and the counter clockwise angle of rotation from the polar axis, measured in radians, is θ .

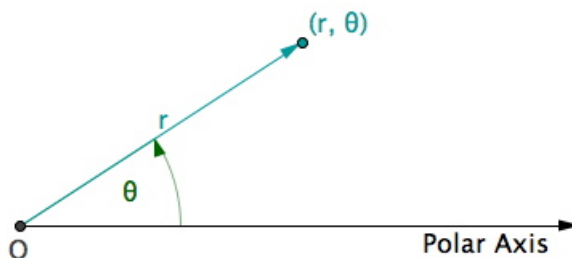


Figure 32.3.1: Polar Representation

Note that this allows for multiple representations since (r, θ) identifies the same point as $(r, \theta + 2\pi k)$ for any integer k .

The obvious problem is how to go from one to the other.

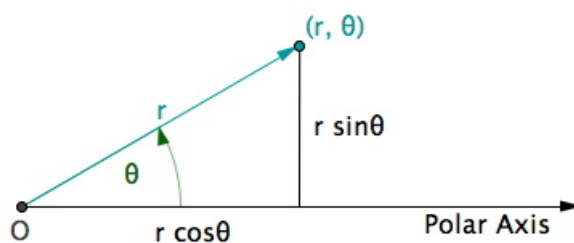


Figure 32.4.1: Connecting Polar and Cartesian Representations

32.4 Converting Between Representations

Simple trigonometry allows us to convert between polar and Cartesian coordinates.

Given the polar coordinates (r, θ) , the corresponding Cartesian coordinates (x, y) are

$$x = r \cos \theta$$

$$y = r \sin \theta.$$

Given the Cartesian coordinates (x, y) , the corresponding polar coordinates are determined by

$$r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}.$$

Example 1

Here are points in standard form, Cartesian coordinates and polar coordinates.

Standard Form	Cartesian Coordinates	Polar Coordinates
1	$(1, 0)$	$(1, 0)$
$-1 + i$	$(-1, 1)$	$(\sqrt{2}, 3\pi/4)$
$-1 - \sqrt{3}i$	$(-1, -\sqrt{3})$	$(2, 4\pi/3)$

Exercise 3

Below are polar coordinates of points. Plot the points and convert to Cartesian coordinates.

1. $(1, 0)$
2. $(2, 7\pi/2)$
3. $(4, 4\pi/3)$

Next are Cartesian coordinates of points. Plot the points and convert to polar coordinates.

1. $(1, 0)$
2. $(1, 1)$
3. $(2, -2\sqrt{3})$

From our earlier description of conversions, we can write the complex number

$$z = x + yi$$

as

$$z = r \cos \theta + ri \sin \theta = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta).$$

Definition 32.4.1

Polar Form

The **polar form** of a complex number z is

$$z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$$

where r is the modulus of z and the angle θ is called an **argument** of z .

REMARK

Some people shorten $\cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ using the notation $\text{cis } \theta$.

Example 2

The following are representations of complex numbers in both standard and polar form.

1. $1 = \cos 0 + i \sin 0$
2. $-1 + i = \sqrt{2} \left(\cos \frac{3\pi}{4} + i \sin \frac{3\pi}{4} \right)$
3. $-1 - \sqrt{3}i = 2 \left(\cos \frac{4\pi}{3} + i \sin \frac{4\pi}{3} \right)$

Example 3

Write $z = \frac{9+i}{5-4i}$ in the form $r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ with $r \geq 0$ and $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$.

Solution:

$$z = \frac{9+i}{5-4i} = \frac{(9+i)(5+4i)}{(5-4i)(5+4i)} = \frac{41+41i}{5^2+4^2} = 1+i = \sqrt{2}(\cos \pi/4 + i \sin \pi/4).$$

One of the advantages of polar representation is that multiplication becomes very straightforward.

Proposition 1

(Polar Multiplication of Complex Numbers (PMCN))

If $z_1 = r_1(\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1)$ and $z_2 = r_2(\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2)$ are two complex numbers in polar form, then

$$z_1 z_2 = r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2))$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} z_1 z_2 &= r_1(\cos \theta_1 + i \sin \theta_1) \cdot r_2(\cos \theta_2 + i \sin \theta_2) \\ &= r_1 r_2 ((\cos \theta_1 \cos \theta_2 - \sin \theta_1 \sin \theta_2) + i(\cos \theta_1 \sin \theta_2 + \sin \theta_1 \cos \theta_2)) \\ &= r_1 r_2 (\cos(\theta_1 + \theta_2) + i \sin(\theta_1 + \theta_2)) \end{aligned}$$

□

Example 4

$$\begin{aligned} &\sqrt{2} \left(\cos \frac{3\pi}{4} + i \sin \frac{3\pi}{4} \right) \cdot 2 \left(\cos \frac{4\pi}{3} + i \sin \frac{4\pi}{3} \right) \\ &= 2\sqrt{2} \left(\cos \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} + \frac{4\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} + \frac{4\pi}{3} \right) \right) \\ &= 2\sqrt{2} \left(\cos \left(\frac{25\pi}{12} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{25\pi}{12} \right) \right) \\ &= 2\sqrt{2} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{12} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{12} \right) \right) \end{aligned}$$

Chapter 33

De Moivre's Theorem

33.1 Objectives

1. State and prove *De Moivre's Theorem* and do examples.
2. Derive Euler's Formula.

33.2 De Moivre's Theorem

De Moivre's Theorem dramatically simplifies exponentiation of complex numbers.

Theorem 1 (De Moivre's Theorem (DMT))

If $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta.$$

Example 1

Consider the complex number

$$z = 1/\sqrt{2} + i/\sqrt{2}$$

which, in polar form is

$$z = \cos \pi/4 + i \sin \pi/4.$$

By De Moivre's Theorem,

$$z^{10} = (\cos \pi/4 + i \sin \pi/4)^{10} = \cos 10\pi/4 + i \sin 10\pi/4 = \cos \pi/2 + i \sin \pi/2 = i.$$

Proof: We will prove DeMoivre's Theorem using three cases:

1. $n = 0$
2. $n > 0$
3. $n < 0$.

For the case $n = 0$, DeMoivre's Theorem reduces to $(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^0 = \cos 0 + i \sin 0$. By convention $z^0 = 1$ so the left hand side of the equation is 1. Since $\cos 0 = 1$ and $\sin 0 = 0$, the right hand side also evaluates to 1.

For the case $n > 0$ we will use induction. Let $P(n)$ be the statement

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n = \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta.$$

Base Case We verify that $P(1)$ is true where $P(1)$ is the statement

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^1 = \cos 1\theta + i \sin 1\theta.$$

This is trivially true.

Inductive Hypothesis We assume that the statement $P(k)$ is true for some $k \geq 1$. That is, we assume

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^k = \cos k\theta + i \sin k\theta.$$

Inductive Conclusion Now show that the statement $P(k+1)$ is true. That is, we show

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^{k+1} = \cos(k+1)\theta + i \sin(k+1)\theta.$$

Beginning with the left-hand side,

$$\begin{aligned} (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^{k+1} &= (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^k (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) && \text{(by separating out one factor)} \\ &= (\cos k\theta + i \sin k\theta)(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) && \text{(by the Inductive Hypothesis)} \\ &= \cos(k+1)\theta + i \sin(k+1)\theta && \text{(Polar Multiplication)} \end{aligned}$$

Since $P(k+1)$ is true, $P(n)$ is true for all natural numbers n by the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

Lastly, for the case $n < 0$ we will use complex arithmetic. Since $n < 0$, $n = -m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$\begin{aligned} (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^n &= (\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^{-m} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^m} \\ &= \frac{1}{(\cos m\theta + i \sin m\theta)} \\ &= \frac{\cos m\theta - i \sin m\theta}{(\cos^2 m\theta + \sin^2 m\theta)} \\ &= \cos m\theta - i \sin m\theta \\ &= \cos(-m\theta) + i(\sin(-m\theta)) \\ &= \cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta \end{aligned}$$

□

Corollary 2 If $z = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ and n is an integer,

$$z^n = r^n(\cos n\theta + i \sin n\theta)$$

Example 2 Calculate $(-1 + \sqrt{3}i)^{17}$.

Solution: We use De Moivre's Theorem. The polar form of $-1 + \sqrt{3}i$ is

$$z = 2(\cos 2\pi/3 + i \sin 2\pi/3)$$

By De Moivre's Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} (-1 + \sqrt{3}i)^{17} &= 2^{17}(\cos 2\pi/3 + i \sin 2\pi/3)^{17} \\ &= 2^{17}(\cos 34\pi/3 + i \sin 34\pi/3) \\ &= 2^{17}(\cos 4\pi/3 + i \sin 4\pi/3) \\ &= 2^{17}\left(-\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i\right) \\ &= 2^{16}(-1 - \sqrt{3}i) \end{aligned}$$

Example 3 Use De Moivre's Theorem to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 3\theta &= 4 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta \\ \sin 3\theta &= 3 \sin \theta - 4 \sin^3 \theta. \end{aligned}$$

Solution: By De Moivre's Theorem

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^3 = \cos 3\theta + i \sin 3\theta.$$

By expanding

$$(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)^3 = \cos^3 \theta + 3i \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - 3 \cos \theta \sin^2 \theta - i \sin^3 \theta.$$

Equating the right and left sides gives

$$\cos 3\theta + i \sin 3\theta = \cos^3 \theta + 3i \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - 3 \cos \theta \sin^2 \theta - i \sin^3 \theta.$$

Equating real and imaginary parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 3\theta &= \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta \sin^2 \theta \\ \sin 3\theta &= 3 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \sin^3 \theta. \end{aligned}$$

Now using the identity $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \cos 3\theta &= \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta \sin^2 \theta = \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta) = 4 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta \\ \sin 3\theta &= 3 \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta - \sin^3 \theta = 3(1 - \sin^2 \theta) \sin \theta - \sin^3 \theta = 3 \sin \theta - 4 \sin^3 \theta \end{aligned}$$

as required.

Example 4

Using the fact that $\theta = \frac{2}{5}\pi$ satisfies $\cos 2\theta = \cos 3\theta$, calculate $\cos \frac{2}{5}\pi$.

Solution: From the previous example and substituting $1 - \cos^2 \theta$ for $\sin^2 \theta$ we have

$$\cos 3\theta = 4 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta$$

Now, by the hint, we get

$$\cos 2\theta = 4 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta \implies 2 \cos^2 \theta - 1 = 4 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta$$

by the double angle formula for the cosine. Rearranging this and letting $X = \cos \theta$, we get

$$4X^3 - 2X^2 - 3X + 1 = 0$$

Note that $X = 1$ is a solution (extraneous) to this polynomial: that would mean that $\theta = 2\pi k$ for some integer k , contrary to assumption. So, divide the polynomial by $X - 1$ to get

$$(X - 1)(4X^2 + 2X - 1) = 0$$

The real value of $\cos \theta$ is one of the roots of this polynomial, and it is not 1. Now apply the quadratic formula taking the positive root since $0 < \theta$ and $\theta = \frac{2}{5}\pi < \frac{1}{2}\pi$ to get

$$X = \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{20}}{8} \text{ and } X > 0 \implies X = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{4}$$

Therefore, $\cos \frac{2}{5}\pi = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{4}$.

33.3 Complex Exponentials

If you were asked to find a real-valued function y with the property that

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = ky \text{ and } y = 1 \text{ when } x = 0$$

for some constant k , you would choose

$$y = e^{kx}.$$

If you were asked to find the derivative of $f(\theta) = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$ where i was treated as any other constant you would almost certainly write

$$\frac{df}{d\theta} = -\sin \theta + i \cos \theta$$

but then

$$\frac{df}{d\theta} = -\sin \theta + i \cos \theta = i(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) = if(\theta)$$

and so

$$\frac{df}{d\theta} = if(\theta) \text{ and } f(\theta) = 1 \text{ when } \theta = 0.$$

Definition 33.3.1**Complex
Exponential**

By analogy, we define the **complex exponential function** by

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta.$$

As an exercise, prove the following.

Proposition 3**(Properties of Complex Exponentials (PCE))**

If θ and ϕ are real numbers, then

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\theta} \cdot e^{i\phi} &= e^{i(\theta+\phi)} \\ \left(e^{i\theta}\right)^n &= e^{in\theta} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

The polar form of a complex number z can now be written as

$$z = re^{i\theta}$$

where $r = |z|$ and θ is an argument of z .

Out of this arises one of the most stunning formulas in mathematics. Setting $r = 1$ and $\theta = \pi$ we get

$$e^{i\pi} = \cos \pi + i \sin \pi = -1 + 0i = -1,$$

that is,

$$e^{i\pi} + 1 = 0.$$

Who would have believed that $e, i, \pi, 1$ and 0 would have such a wonderful connection!

Example 5

How do we write $z = \left(\frac{e^{i5\pi/12}}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^{-6}$ in the form $x + iy$ with $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$?

$$z = \left(\frac{e^{i5\pi/12}}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^{-6} = (\sqrt{3})^6 (e^{i5\pi/12})^{-6} = 3^3 e^{-i5\pi/2} = 27(e^{-i\pi/2}) = -27i.$$

Chapter 34

Roots of Complex Numbers

34.1 Objectives

1. State, prove and apply the *Complex n -th Roots Theorem*.

34.2 Complex n -th Roots

Definition 34.2.1
Complex Roots

If a is a complex number, then the complex numbers that solve

$$z^n = a$$

are called the **complex n -th roots**.

De Moivre's Theorem gives us a straightforward way to find complex n -th roots of a .

Theorem 1 **(Complex n -th Roots Theorem (CNRT))**

Let n be a natural number. If $r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ is the polar form of a complex number a , then the solutions to $z^n = a$ are

$$\sqrt[n]{r} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) \right) \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1.$$

The modulus $\sqrt[n]{r}$ is the unique non-negative n -th root of r . This theorem asserts that any non-zero complex number, including the reals, has exactly n different complex n -th roots.

Example 1 Find all the complex fourth roots of -16 .

Solution: We will use the Complex n -th Roots Theorem. First, we write -16 in polar form as

$$-16 = 16(\cos \pi + i \sin \pi)$$

Using the Complex n -th Roots Theorem the solutions are

$$\begin{aligned} & \sqrt[4]{16} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{4} \right) \right) \\ &= 2 \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{k\pi}{2} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{k\pi}{2} \right) \right) \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, 3. \end{aligned}$$

The four distinct roots are given below

$$\text{When } k = 0, z_0 = 2 \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right) \right) = 2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = \sqrt{2} + i\sqrt{2}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 1, z_1 = 2 \left(\cos \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} \right) \right) = 2 \left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = -\sqrt{2} + i\sqrt{2}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 2, z_2 = 2 \left(\cos \left(\frac{5\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{5\pi}{4} \right) \right) = 2 \left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = -\sqrt{2} - i\sqrt{2}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 3, z_3 = 2 \left(\cos \left(\frac{7\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{7\pi}{4} \right) \right) = 2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = \sqrt{2} - i\sqrt{2}.$$

Graphing these solutions is illuminating.

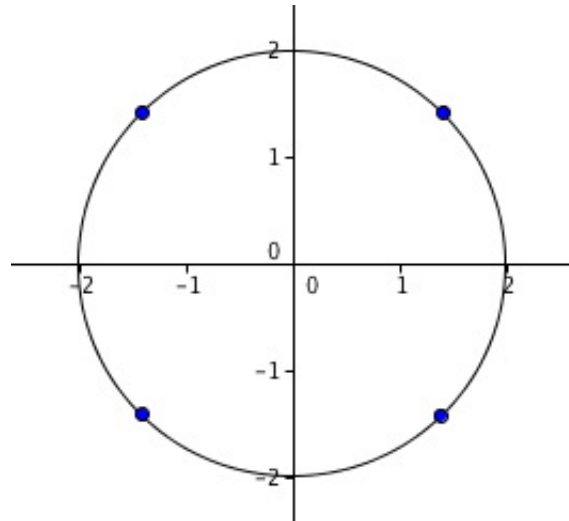


Figure 34.2.1: The Fourth Roots of -16

Note that the solutions are uniformly distributed around a circle whose radius is $\sqrt[4]{16}$.

Proof: As usual, when showing that a complete solution exists we work with two sets: the set S of solutions and the set T of specific representations of the solution. We then show that $S = T$ by mutual inclusion. Our two sets are

$$S = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : z^n = a\}$$

and

$$T = \left\{ \sqrt[n]{r} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) \right) : k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1 \right\}$$

where $a = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$.

We begin by showing that $T \subseteq S$. Let $t = \sqrt[n]{r} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) \right)$ be an element of T . Now

$$\begin{aligned} t^n &= (\sqrt[n]{r})^n \left(\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) \right)^n \\ &= r(\cos(\theta + 2k\pi) + i \sin(\theta + 2k\pi)) \text{ using De Moivre's Theorem} \\ &= r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \\ &= a \end{aligned}$$

Hence, t is a solution of $z^n = a$, that is, $t \in S$.

Now we show that $S \subseteq T$. Let $w = s(\cos \phi + i \sin \phi)$ be an n -th root of a . Since $a = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta)$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} w^n &= a \\ \iff (s(\cos \phi + i \sin \phi))^n &= r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \\ \iff s^n(\cos n\phi + i \sin n\phi) &= r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta) \text{ by De Moivre's Theorem.} \end{aligned}$$

Now two complex numbers in polar form are equal if and only if their moduli are equal and their arguments differ by an integer multiple of 2π . So

$$s^n = r \implies s = \sqrt[n]{r}$$

and

$$n\phi - \theta = 2\pi k \implies \phi = \frac{\theta + 2\pi k}{n}$$

where $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence, the n -th roots of a are of the form

$$\sqrt[n]{r} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k\pi}{n} \right) \right) \quad \text{for } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

But this is $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, not $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$. Since w is an n -th root of a , there exists an integer k_0 so that

$$w = \sqrt[n]{r} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k_0\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k_0\pi}{n} \right) \right).$$

If we can show that

$$w = \sqrt[n]{r} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\theta + 2k_1\pi}{n} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\theta + 2k_1\pi}{n} \right) \right)$$

if and only if $k_0 \equiv k_1 \pmod{n}$ whenever $r \neq 0$, then $w \in T$. Now

$$\begin{aligned} k_0 \equiv k_1 \pmod{n} &\iff k_0 - k_1 = n\ell \text{ for some } \ell \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &\iff 2\pi k_0 - 2\pi k_1 = 2\pi n\ell \text{ for some } \ell \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &\iff \frac{2\pi k_0}{n} - \frac{2\pi k_1}{n} = 2\pi\ell \text{ for some } \ell \in \mathbb{Z} \\ &\iff \frac{\theta + 2\pi k_0}{n} - \frac{\theta + 2\pi k_1}{n} = 2\pi\ell \text{ for some } \ell \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

□

Example 2

Find all the cube roots of i .

Solution: We will use the Complex n -th Roots Theorem. First, we write i in polar form as

$$i = \cos \pi/2 + i \sin \pi/2$$

Using the Complex n -th Roots Theorem the solutions are

$$\begin{aligned} &\cos \left(\frac{\frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi}{3} \right) \\ &= \cos \left(\frac{\pi + 4k\pi}{6} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi + 4k\pi}{6} \right) \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2. \end{aligned}$$

The three distinct roots are given below.

$$\text{When } k = 0, z_0 = \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{6} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{6} \right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{i}{2}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 1, z_1 = \cos \left(\frac{5\pi}{6} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{5\pi}{6} \right) = \frac{-\sqrt{3}}{2} + \frac{i}{2}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 2, z_2 = \cos \left(\frac{3\pi}{2} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{3\pi}{2} \right) = -i.$$

Example 3

Find all of the cube roots of 2. Express your answers in standard form and plot these solutions in the complex plane.

Solution: We will use the Complex n -th Roots Theorem to solve $z^3 = 2$. First, we write 2 in polar form as

$$2 = 2(\cos 0 + i \sin 0).$$

Using the Complex n -th Roots Theorem the solutions are

$$\sqrt[3]{2} \left(\cos \left(\frac{2k\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{2k\pi}{3} \right) \right) \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2.$$

The three distinct roots are given below

$$\text{When } k = 0, z_0 = \sqrt[3]{2} (\cos(0) + i \sin(0)) = \sqrt[3]{2}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 1, z_1 = \sqrt[3]{2} \left(\cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) \right) = \sqrt[3]{2} \cdot \left(\frac{-1}{2} + \frac{i\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{4}} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt[3]{4}}i.$$

$$\text{When } k = 2, z_2 = \sqrt[3]{2} \left(\cos\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) + i \sin\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) \right) = \sqrt[3]{2} \left(\frac{-1}{2} - \frac{i\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{4}} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt[3]{4}}i.$$

The diagram is omitted.

Example 4

Solve $z^6 - z^3 - 2 = 0$.

Solution: Since $z^6 - z^3 - 2 = (z^3 - 2)(z^3 + 1)$ it is enough to solve $z^3 - 2 = 0$ and $z^3 + 1 = 0$. The roots of $z^3 - 2 = 0$ are given by the previous example. The roots of $z^3 + 1 = 0$ can also be calculated to yield $\frac{1}{2} + i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$, -1 and $\frac{1}{2} - i\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$.

Exercise 1

An **n -th root of unity** is a complex number that solves $z^n = 1$. Find all of the sixth roots of unity. Express them in standard form and graph them in the complex plane.

34.3 Square Roots

The Complex n -th Roots Theorem (CNRT) tells us that for a complex number $a \neq 0$, there are exactly two complex numbers z such that $z^2 = a$. It is common to call these the **square roots** of a and CNRT gives them to us in polar form. However, the quadratic formula can also be used.

Proposition 2

(Quadratic Formula)

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{C}$. The two (not necessarily distinct) solutions to $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ are

$$\frac{-b \pm w}{2a}$$

where w is a solution to $z^2 = b^2 - 4ac$.

Notice that this is not written using the notation $\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$. What does $\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$ even mean when $b^2 - 4ac$ is not a non-negative real number? Remember that we don't have the notions of "positive" and "negative" for arbitrary complex numbers. Square root is not a well-defined function over the complex numbers.

Nevertheless, if $w^2 = a$ for complex numbers w and a , then $(-w)^2 = a$ as well. So in some sense the plus/minus sign in the quadratic formula means it does not matter which square root we select as a value for $\sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$. This is why some people still safely use the notation \sqrt{r} even if they do not know whether or not r is a non-negative real number.

Exercise 2 Prove that the quadratic formula holds for any complex quadratic equation.

Exercise 3 Find the square roots of $-2i$ and graph them in the complex plane.

Example 5 Express the solutions to $2x^2 + 3x + 2 = 0$ in standard form.

Solution: Using the quadratic formula, we get

$$x = \frac{-3 \pm w}{4} \text{ where } w^2 = 9 - 4(4) = -7.$$

By inspection, we see that $(\sqrt{7}i)^2 = 7i^2 = -7$ so the two solutions are

$$\frac{-3}{4} \pm \frac{\sqrt{7}}{4}i.$$

Example 6 Express the solutions to $ix^2 + 3x - 2i = 0$ in standard form.

Solution: Using the quadratic formula, we get

$$x = \frac{-3 \pm w}{-2i} \text{ where } w^2 = 9 - 4i(-2i) = 9 - 8 = 1.$$

We certainly know how to solve $z^2 = 1$. Thus the two solutions are

$$\frac{-3 \pm 1}{2i} = \frac{-3 \pm 1}{2i} \left(\frac{-2i}{-2i} \right) = 2i \text{ or } i.$$

Example 7 The equation $x^3 - x^2 + x - 1 = 0$ has one real solution but it also has two non-real complex solutions. What are the three solutions?

Solution: Observe that

$$x^3 - x^2 + x - 1 = x^2(x - 1) + 1(x - 1) = (x^2 + 1)(x - 1)$$

so solutions to $x^3 - x^2 + x - 1 = 0$ exist when

$$(x^2 + 1) = 0 \text{ or } (x - 1) = 0.$$

The second factor yields the real root $x = 1$ and the first factor yields the two non-real complex roots $\pm i$.

You may know that if the sum of the coefficients is zero as in this example, then $x - 1$ is a factor. Can you explain why? This relates to the material in the next chapter.

Part VI

Factoring Polynomials

Chapter 35

An Introduction to Polynomials

35.1 Objectives

1. Define *polynomial* and key polynomial terminology.
2. Define operations on polynomials.
3. State the *Division Algorithm for Polynomials*.

35.2 Polynomials

Our number systems were developed in response to the need to find solutions to equations. We are now able to solve all equations of the form

$$a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0 = 0$$

or

$$x^n - a_0 = 0$$

whether a_0 , a_1 and a_2 are real or complex numbers and n is a natural number. In fact, a great deal more is known.

Consider the left hand side of the equations above. They are expressions built using a symbol x and coefficients taken from some set. The choice of set is important.

In MATH 135, when we use the term **field**, we mean

- the rational numbers, \mathbb{Q} ,
- the real numbers, \mathbb{R} ,
- the complex numbers, \mathbb{C} , or
- the integers modulo a prime \mathbb{Z}_p .

You may see a more general definition in a future course and it is important to know there are many more examples of fields! Roughly speaking, a field is a set of numbers equipped with operations addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.

The integers are not a field because, for example, we do not get an integer when dividing 11 by 3. Similarly, \mathbb{Z}_6 is not a field since $[3]$ does not have a multiplicative inverse in \mathbb{Z}_6 . Recall that division is just multiplication by an inverse so we cannot divide by $[3]$ in \mathbb{Z}_6 .

REMARK

One of the most critical properties of a field is the following.

Let \mathbb{F} be a field. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{F}$. If $ab = 0$, then $a = 0$ or $b = 0$.

Convince yourself that this statement is true when \mathbb{F} is $\mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ or \mathbb{Z}_p where p is a prime. Although the integers are not a field, this property is also true for integers. However, it is not true in \mathbb{Z}_6 . Notice that in \mathbb{Z}_6 , we have $[2][3] = [0]$ but $[2] \neq [0]$ and $[3] \neq [0]$.

Definition 35.2.1**Polynomial**

A **polynomial in x** over the field \mathbb{F} is an expression of the form

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0,$$

where $n \geq 0$ is an integer, and

- x is a symbol called an **indeterminate**, and
- a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are elements of \mathbb{F} and called the **coefficients** of the polynomial.

Each individual expression of the form $a_i x^i$ is called a **term** of the polynomial.

We use the notation $\mathbb{F}[x]$ to denote the set of all polynomials over the field \mathbb{F} .

Most often we will work with polynomials over the rational numbers, real numbers or complex numbers. These are called **real polynomials**, **rational polynomials** and **complex polynomials** respectively.

Example 1

Here are some examples of polynomials.

1. $2x^3 + (\sqrt{2} - i)x^2 - \frac{7\pi}{2}ix + (5 - 2i)$ is in $\mathbb{C}[x]$. Here $a_3 = 2, a_2 = \sqrt{2} - i, a_1 = -\frac{7\pi}{2}i$ and $a_0 = 5 - 2i$. Notice that these are all complex numbers.
2. $x^2 + \sqrt{7}x - 1$ is in $\mathbb{R}[x]$. Note that since $\mathbb{R} \subsetneq \mathbb{C}$, all real polynomials are also polynomials over \mathbb{C} . So $x^2 + \sqrt{7}x - 1$ is also in $\mathbb{C}[x]$.
3. $\frac{1}{2}x^5 - \frac{5}{13}x^4 + x^3 - x^2 + 5x + \frac{3}{2}$ is in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. This is also a polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and in $\mathbb{C}[x]$.
4. $5x^4 + 0x^3 - 1x^2 + 0x - 2$ is in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$ (also in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and $\mathbb{C}[x]$). We would usually express the term $1x^2$ simply as x^2 , and omit the terms $0x^3$ and $0x$ from the polynomial expression, and simplify the polynomial as $5x^4 - x^2 - 2$.

Finally, note that $2x^3 + x^2 - \frac{7\pi}{2}ix + \sqrt{5} \notin \mathbb{R}[x]$ as at least one of the coefficients is not a real number. In fact, as we have

$$\mathbb{Q} \subsetneq \mathbb{R} \subsetneq \mathbb{C},$$

we also get a similar relationship for polynomials:

$$\mathbb{Q}[x] \subsetneq \mathbb{R}[x] \subsetneq \mathbb{C}[x].$$

This means we should always clearly specify the field when working with polynomials.

Example 2

The polynomial $[2]x^3 + [4]x^2 + [1]$ can be viewed as a polynomial over \mathbb{Z}_5 but it is cumbersome to write all these square brackets and hence people often write this element of $\mathbb{Z}_5[x]$ as $2x^3 + 4x + 1$ making sure to do all of our coefficient arithmetic “modulo 5”.

35.2.1 Comparing Polynomials

Are the two polynomials $x^3 - x + \frac{1}{2}$ and $\ln(1)x^4 + \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)x^3 - \sin(\pi)x^2 - e^0x + \frac{\sqrt{4}}{4}$ the same? How would we compare two polynomials?

Definition 35.2.2

**Degree of
Polynomial**

Let $n \geq 0$ be an integer. If $a_n \neq 0$ in the polynomial

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$$

then the polynomial is said to have **degree** n . In other words, the degree of a polynomial is the largest power of x that has a non-zero coefficient.

The **zero** polynomial has all of its coefficients equal to zero and its degree is not defined. The reason for this might be explained in future courses where you may alternatively see the degree of the zero polynomial defined to be $-\infty$. A **constant polynomial** is a polynomial that is either the zero polynomial or a polynomial of degree 1. Polynomials of degree 1 are called **linear** polynomials, of degree 2, **quadratic** polynomials, and of degree 3, **cubic** polynomials.

Example 3

Using some of the polynomials from the previous example,

1. $2x^3 + (\sqrt{2} - i)x^2 - \frac{7\pi}{2}ix + (5 - 2i)$ is a cubic polynomial.
2. $x^2 + \sqrt{7}x - 1$ is a quadratic polynomial.
3. $\frac{1}{2}x^5 - \frac{5}{13}x^4 + x^3 - x^2 + 5x + \frac{3}{2}$ is a polynomial of degree 5.

Note that the polynomial $0x^3 + 0x^2 + 1x + 0$ is actually linear as the largest exponent of x with a non-zero coefficient is 1.

In the following discussion, we will sometimes use both function notation and summation notation. That is, we will frequently use $f(x)$ to denote an element of $\mathbb{F}[x]$ and write

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k.$$

Definition 35.2.3

Equal

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$, and $g(x) = b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_1 x + b_0$ both be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$.

The polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are **equal** if and only if $a_k = b_k$ for all k .

Thus, $x^3 - x + \frac{1}{2}$ and $\ln(1)x^4 + \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)x^3 - \sin(\pi)x^2 - e^0x + \frac{\sqrt{4}}{4}$ are indeed the same polynomial. As another example, in $\mathbb{Z}_2[x]$, $[4]x^5 + [1]x$ equals $[3]x$.

REMARK

Do not mistake polynomial equality with function equality. For example, consider

$$f(x) = [1]x^2 \text{ and } g(x) = [1]x^4.$$

When viewed as polynomials, $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are not equal. However they are equal when viewed as functions mapping elements of \mathbb{Z}_3 to \mathbb{Z}_3 . That is, both functions map $[0]$ to $[0]$, $[1]$ to $[1]$, and $[2]$ to $[1]$.

35.3 Operations on Polynomials

Polynomials can be added, subtracted and multiplied as algebraic expressions exactly as you have done in high school.

Example 4 (Polynomial Addition)

Polynomials are added “term-by-term”, that is, we add the coefficients of the same powers of x .

1. In $\mathbb{R}[x]$, if $f(x) = x^2 + 7x - 1$ and $g(x) = 3x^4 - x^3 + 4x^2 - x + 5$ then $f(x) + g(x) = 3x^4 - x^3 + 5x^2 + 6x + 4$.
2. In $\mathbb{C}[x]$, if $f(x) = x^3 - 7ix + (5 - 2i)$ and $g(x) = (4 + 3i)x + (7 + 7i)$ then $f(x) + g(x) = x^3 + (4 - 4i)x + (12 + 5i)$.

Definition 35.3.1**Sum**

The **sum** of the polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is defined as

$$f(x) + g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\max(n,m)} (a_k + b_k)x^k$$

where $\deg(f(x)) = n$, $\deg(g(x)) = m$, and any “missing” terms have coefficient zero.

Definition 35.3.2**Difference**

The **difference** of the polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is defined as

$$f(x) - g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\max(n,m)} (a_k - b_k)x^k$$

where $\deg(f(x)) = n$, $\deg(g(x)) = m$, and any “missing” terms have coefficient zero.

Example 5

In $\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$, if $f(x) = [3]x^5 + [2]x^3 + [5]$ and $g(x) = [2]x^4 + [2]x^3 + [3]x^2 + [6]$ then $f(x) - g(x) = [3]x^5 + [5]x^4 + [4]x^2 + [6]$.

Exercise 1 Find the difference of each of the pairs of polynomials given in Example 4.

Example 6 (Polynomial Multiplication)

Polynomials are multiplied in a “distributive” manner. We just collect all of the terms containing x^i that we would get through distributive multiplication.

In $\mathbb{R}[x]$, let $f(x) = x^2 + 7x - 1$ and $g(x) = 3x + 2$. We will compute the product $f(x)g(x)$ using long multiplication and see how it captures the description of multiplication just given.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 + - \\
 + - \\
 \times + - \\
 \hline
 + - \\
 + - \\
 \hline
 3x^3 + 21x^2 - 3x \\
 \hline
 3x^3 + 23x^2 + 11x - 2
 \end{array}$$

The x^2 column simply displays the combinations of terms from $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ whose product gives x^2 , that is $x^2 \times 2$ and $7x \times 3x$.

The formal definition of the product of two polynomials looks more complicated than it is.

Definition 35.3.3
Product

The **product** of the polynomials $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is defined as

$$f(x)g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{m+n} c_k x^k$$

where

$$c_k = a_0 b_k + a_1 b_{k-1} + \cdots + a_{k-1} b_1 + a_k b_0 = \sum_{j=0}^k a_j b_{k-j}.$$

Exercise 2 Find $f(x)g(x)$ for the two polynomials given.

1. Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be the real polynomials $f(x) = 2x^4 + 6x^3 - x + 4$ and $g(x) = x^2 + 3$.
2. Let $f(z)$ and $g(z)$ be the complex polynomials $f(z) = iz^2 + (3 - i)z + 2i$ and $g(z) = -iz + (2 - 2i)$.

How do we divide polynomials? Although it makes sense to say that $x - 3$ divides $x^2 - 9$ since $x^2 - 9 = (x - 3)(x + 3)$, what do we do when there is a remainder?

Proposition 1 (Division Algorithm for Polynomials (DAP))

If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ and $g(x)$ is not the zero polynomial, then there exist unique polynomials $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ such that

$$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x) \text{ where } r(x) \text{ is the zero polynomial or } \deg r(x) < \deg g(x).$$

Definition 35.3.4
Quotient,
Remainder, Divides

The polynomial $q(x)$ is called the **quotient polynomial**. The polynomial $r(x)$ is called the **remainder polynomial**. We say that $g(x)$ **divides** $f(x)$ or $g(x)$ is a **factor** of $f(x)$ and we write $g(x) \mid f(x)$ if and only if there exists a polynomial $q(x)$ such that $f(x) = q(x)g(x)$. That is, $f(x)$ divides $g(x)$ when $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are both the zero polynomial or when the remainder $r(x)$ from the Division Algorithm for Polynomials is the zero polynomial.

We use the same notation as before with the division of integers. This is because of the strong parallels between division of integers and division of polynomials.

We won't prove the Division Algorithm for Polynomials.

REMARK

This is a place where it is very important that the coefficients are taken from a field. Consider

$$x^2 = (2x + 1)(\tfrac{1}{2}x - \tfrac{1}{2}) + \tfrac{1}{2}.$$

Here we are dividing the quadratic rational polynomial x^2 by the linear rational polynomial $2x + 1$. While these polynomials have integer quotients, we get the quotient $\frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{2}$ and remainder $\frac{1}{2}$ which do not have integer coefficients. The statement of the Division Algorithm for Polynomials would not be true if we tried to say $f(x), g(x), q(x)$ and $r(x)$ all have integer coefficients. The integers are not a field! Similarly, think about what goes wrong if we try to work over \mathbb{Z}_4 which is also not a field.

How do we find the quotient and remainder polynomials?

Example 7 (Long Division of Polynomials over \mathbb{R})

What are the quotient and remainder polynomials when $f(x) = 3x^4 + x^3 - 4x^2 - x + 5$ is divided by $g(x) = x^2 + 1$ in $\mathbb{R}[x]$?

Before we begin, we would expect from the Division Algorithm for Polynomials a remainder polynomial of degree at most one.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 3x^2 x 7 \\
 x^2 + 1 \overline{) 3x^4 + x^3 - 4x^2 - x + 5} \\
 \underline{3x^4 3x^2} \\
 x^3 - 7x^2 - x \\
 \underline{x^3 } \\
 - 7x^2 - 2x + 5 \\
 \underline{- 7x^2 } \\
 - 2x + 12
 \end{array}$$

Thus, the quotient polynomial is $q(x) = 3x^2 + x - 7$ and the remainder polynomial is $r(x) = -2x + 12$ and $f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x)$.

Example 8 (Long Division of Polynomials over \mathbb{C})

What are the quotient and remainder polynomials when $f(z) = iz^3 + (2 + 4i)z^2 + (3 - i)z + (40 - 4i)$ is divided by $g(z) = iz + (2 - 2i)$ in $\mathbb{C}[x]$?

From the Division Algorithm for Polynomials, we would expect a constant remainder or the zero polynomial.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \overline{) \begin{array}{r} iz^3 + (2 + 4i)z^2 + (3 - i)z + (40 - 4i) \\ iz^3 + (2 - 2i)z^2 \\ \hline 6iz^2 + (3 - i)z \\ 6iz^2 + (12 - 12i)z \\ \hline (-9 + 11i)z + (40 - 4i) \\ (-9 + 11i)z + (40 - 4i) \\ \hline 0 \end{array} \\
 \end{array}$$

Thus, the quotient polynomial is $q(z) = z^2 + 6z + (11 + 9i)$ and the remainder is the zero polynomial. Therefore, $g(z)$ divides $f(z)$.

Don't forget that when dividing $f(x)$ by $g(x)$, you can always check your work by multiplying $g(x)$ by the quotient and adding the remainder. You should get $f(x)$!

Exercise 3 For each $f(x)$ and $g(x)$, find the quotient and remainder polynomials.

1. $f(x) = 2x^4 + 6x^3 + x + 4$ and $g(x) = x^2 + 3$ where $f(x), g(x) \in \mathbb{Z}_7[x]$.
2. Complex polynomials:
 $f(z) = iz^3 + z^2 - (1 + i)z + 10$ and $g(z) = z + 2i$.

Chapter 36

Factoring Polynomials

36.1 Objectives

1. Define *polynomial equation*, *solution* and *root*.
2. State the *Fundamental Theorem of Algebra*.
3. State and prove the *Rational Roots Theorem*.
4. State and prove the *Remainder Theorem* and its corollaries.
5. State and prove the *Conjugate Roots Theorem*.
6. State and prove two propositions about factoring real polynomials.

36.2 Polynomial Equations

Definition 36.2.1 Polynomial Equation

A **polynomial equation** is an equation of the form

$$a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0 = 0$$

which will often be written as $f(x) = 0$. An element $c \in \mathbb{F}$ is called a **root** or **zero** of the polynomial $f(x)$ if $f(c) = 0$, that is, if c is a **solution** of the polynomial equation $f(x) = 0$.

The history of mathematics is replete with exciting and sometimes bizarre stories of mathematicians as they looked, in vain, for an algorithm that would find a root of any arbitrary polynomial. It is known, though, that every complex polynomial has at least one root. This was proved in 1799 by the brilliant mathematician Karl Friedrich Gauss.

Theorem 1 (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra (FTA))

For all complex polynomials $f(z)$ with $\deg(f(z)) \geq 1$, there exists a $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}$ so that $f(z_0) = 0$.

Interestingly, we can prove a root exists, we just can't construct one in general. The proof of this fact and the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra are both demanding and are left for later courses.

Instead, we will study some consequences of the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra and investigate some special cases. First, in this section we consider an arbitrary field and recall the Division Algorithm for Polynomials.

Proposition 2 (Division Algorithm for Polynomials (DAP))

If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ and $g(x)$ is not the zero polynomial, then there exist unique polynomials $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ such that

$$f(x) = q(x)g(x) + r(x) \text{ where } r(x) \text{ is the zero polynomial or } \deg r(x) < \deg g(x).$$

We can use this to prove a very useful theorem.

Proposition 3 (Remainder Theorem (RT))

The remainder when the polynomial $f(x)$ is divided by $(x - c)$ is $f(c)$.

Example 1

Find the remainder when $f(z) = 3z^{12} - 8iz^5 + (4 + i)z^2 + z + 2 - 3i$ is divided by $z + i$.

Solution: We could do the painful thing and carry out long division. Another possibility is to use the Remainder Theorem and compute $f(-i)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(-i) &= 3(-i)^{12} - 8i(-i)^5 + (4 + i)(-i)^2 + (-i) + 2 - 3i \\ &= 3 - 8i(-i) + (4 + i)(-1) - i + 2 - 3i \\ &= 3 - 8 - 4 - i - i + 2 - 3i \\ &= -7 - 5i \end{aligned}$$

The remainder is $-7 - 5i$.

Proof: By the Division Algorithm for Polynomials, there exist unique polynomials $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ such that

$$f(x) = q(x)(x - c) + r(x) \text{ where } \deg r(x) < \deg(x - c) = 1 \text{ or } r(x) \text{ is the zero polynomial.}$$

Therefore, the remainder $r(x)$ is a constant (which could be zero) which we will write as r_0 . Hence

$$f(x) = q(x)(x - c) + r_0$$

Substituting $x = c$ into this equation gives $f(c) = r_0$. □

Corollary 4 (Factor Theorem (FT))

The linear polynomial $(x - c)$ is a factor of the polynomial $f(x)$ if and only if $f(c) = 0$.

Equivalently,

Corollary 5 **(Factor Theorem (FT))**

The linear polynomial $(x - c)$ is a factor of the polynomial $f(x)$ if and only if c is a root of the polynomial $f(x)$.

Self Check 1 Prove the Factor Theorem.

Next, we make note of a very handy little lemma.

Lemma 6 Let \mathbb{F} be a field and let $f(x), g(x)$ and $h(x)$ be polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$.

If $h(x) = f(x)g(x)$, then $\deg h(x) = \deg f(x) + \deg g(x)$.

Exercise 1 Prove Lemma 6. Show that it is false if we extend the definition of *polynomial* to allow coefficients to be taken from \mathbb{Z}_6 .

This lemma, induction, and the Factor Theorem, allow us to prove the following.

Proposition 7 If $f(z)$ is a polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$ over a field \mathbb{F} , then $f(z)$ has at most n roots in \mathbb{F} .

Exercise 2 Prove the preceding proposition.

REMARK

We learned that when considering multiplication and division, the prime numbers are the basic building blocks of the positive integers. What happens with polynomials? Can we always factor a polynomial? Is there an analogy of prime numbers for polynomials? We will move towards answering this question as the course winds down.

The Remainder Theorem and Factor Theorem give us a connection between roots and linear factors. What about factors of higher degree? It turns out that sometimes we can factor polynomials (into non-linear factors) even if the polynomial does not have any roots. All of this only makes sense with respect to a specific field.

Definition 36.2.2

**Reducible,
Irreducible**

Let \mathbb{F} be a field. We say a polynomial of positive degree in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ is **reducible in $\mathbb{F}[x]$** when it can be written as the product of two polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$ of positive degree. Otherwise, we say that the polynomial is **irreducible in $\mathbb{F}[x]$** .

Lemma 6 tells us that all linear polynomials are irreducible over any field. However, the next example shows that not all irreducible polynomials are linear.

Example 2

Consider the polynomial $f(x) = x^2 + 1$. It is reducible in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ because $f(x) = (x - i)(x + i)$. However, it is irreducible in $\mathbb{R}[x]$. Why? Using Lemma 6, the only possible way to write $f(x)$ as a product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ is as a product of two real linear factors. However, we know that $x^2 + 1$ does not have a real root so the Factor Theorem tells us this is impossible.

Polynomials of degree higher than two can also be irreducible.

Exercise 3

Prove that $x^3 + x + 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

As another example, consider

$$x^4 - 5x^2 + 6 = (x^2 - 2)(x^2 - 3)$$

which is reducible in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and also reducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Its factor $x^2 - 2$ is reducible in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ but irreducible in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

A quartic polynomial (degree 4) can be irreducible, written as a product of irreducible quadratic factors, or written as the product of a linear irreducible polynomial and a cubic irreducible polynomial over a field \mathbb{F} . This follows from Lemma 6 and the idea generalizes to any polynomial of higher degree.

REMARK

In future courses, you might also encounter polynomial analogies of greatest common divisor and the Euclidean Algorithm.

36.3 Factoring in Special Cases

The Division Algorithm for Polynomials, Remainder Theorem, Factor Theorem are true for any field. We also saw that the degree of a polynomial is an upper bound on the number of roots of the polynomial.

For complex polynomials, we have the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra and can use it to prove a particularly close connection between roots and factorization of complex polynomials.

Proposition 8**(Complex Polynomials of Degree n Have n Roots (CPN))**

If $f(z)$ is a complex polynomial of degree $n \geq 1$, then there exist complex numbers c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n and $c \neq 0$ such that

$$f(z) = c(z - c_1)(z - c_2) \cdots (z - c_n).$$

Moreover, the roots of $f(z)$ are c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n .

Proof: We proceed by induction on n , the degree of the polynomial.

If $n = 1$, then $f(z) = az + b$ for complex numbers a and b with $a \neq 0$. In this case, we can write $f(z) = c(z - c_1)$ where $c = a$ and $c_1 = -\frac{b}{a}$. Now, $f(w) = 0$ for a complex number w if and only if $c(w - c_1) = 0$ and thus since $c \neq 0$, w is a root of $f(z)$ if and only if $w = c_1$. That is, c_1 is the one and only root of $f(z)$.

Now assume that the result holds for all polynomials of degree $k - 1$ where $k \geq 2$.

Consider a complex polynomial $f(z)$ of degree $k + 1$. By the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra, $f(z)$ has a complex root. Call this root c_1 . By the Factor Theorem, we know that $f(z) = (z - c_1)q(z)$ for some complex polynomial $q(z)$. This quotient $q(z)$ must have degree $k - 1$ by Lemma 6 and therefore by our inductive hypothesis, there exist complex numbers c_2, c_3, \dots, c_k and $c \neq 0$ such that

$$q(z) = c(z - c_2)(z - c_3) \cdots (z - c_k).$$

Moreover, the roots of $q(z)$ are c_2, c_3, \dots, c_k . Substitution gives us

$$f(z) = c(z - c_1)(z - c_2) \cdots (z - c_k).$$

Since $f(z) = (z - c_1)q(z)$, then a complex number w is a root of $f(z)$ if and only if $(w - c_1)q(w) = 0$ if and only if $w = c_1$ or $q(w) = 0$. That is, the roots of $f(z)$ are precisely c_1 and c_2, c_3, \dots, c_k , the roots of $q(z)$.

Therefore the statement is true when $n = k$ and the result is true by the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

□

Of course, the n roots of a complex polynomial of degree n may not be distinct. Put another way, a number c can be a root of a polynomial “more than once” in which case the corresponding linear polynomial $(x - c)$ will appear more than once in a full factorization of the polynomial.

Definition 36.3.1

Multiplicity of a Root

The **multiplicity** of a root c of a polynomial $f(x)$ is the largest positive integer k such that $(x - c)^k$ is a factor of $f(x)$.

Example 3

The complex number $1 - i$ is a root of multiplicity 2 of the complex polynomial

$$z^3 - (2 - 3i)z^2 - (2 + 4i)z + 2 = (z - (1 - i))^2(z + i).$$

How do we go about actually factoring polynomials? In general, this is hard to do. If the polynomial has degree five or more, there are no formulas for the exact values its roots using addition, subtraction, multiplication and division. However, if the polynomial has integer coefficients, we have a good starting point.

Theorem 9 (Rational Roots Theorem (RRT))

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$ be a polynomial with integer coefficients. If $\frac{p}{q}$ is a rational root of $f(x)$ with $\gcd(p, q) = 1$, then $p \mid a_0$ and $q \mid a_n$.

In order to find a rational root of $f(x)$, we only need to examine a *finite* set of rational numbers, those whose numerator divides the constant term and whose denominator divides the leading coefficient. Note that the theorem only suggests the rational numbers that *might* be roots. It does not guarantee that any of these numbers are roots.

Example 4

If possible, find a rational root of $f(x) = 2x^4 + x^3 + 6x + 3$.

Solution: We will use the Rational Roots Theorem. The divisors of 2 are ± 1 and ± 2 . The divisors of 3 are ± 1 and ± 3 . Hence, the candidates for rational roots are

$$\pm 1, \pm \frac{1}{2}, \pm 3, \pm \frac{3}{2}.$$

Now test each of these candidates.

x	1	-1	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{2}$	3	-3	$\frac{3}{2}$	$-\frac{3}{2}$
$f(x)$	12	-2	$\frac{25}{4}$	0	210	120	$\frac{51}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$

Thus, the only rational root is $-\frac{1}{2}$.

Proof: If $\frac{p}{q}$ is a root of $f(x)$ then

$$a_n \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^n + a_{n-1} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{n-1} + \cdots + a_2 \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^2 + a_1 \left(\frac{p}{q}\right) + a_0 = 0.$$

Multiplying by q^n gives

$$a_n p^n + a_{n-1} p^{n-1} q + \cdots + a_2 p^2 q^{n-2} + a_1 p q^{n-1} + a_0 q^n = 0$$

and

$$a_n p^n = -q (a_{n-1} p^{n-1} + \cdots + a_2 p^2 q^{n-3} + a_1 p q^{n-2} + a_0 q^{n-1}).$$

Since all of the symbols in this equation are integers, both the right hand side and left hand side are integers. Since q divides the right hand side, q divides the left hand side, that is

$$q \mid a_n p^n.$$

Since $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ we can repeatedly use the proposition on Coprimeness and Divisibility to show that $q \mid a_n$. In a similar way, we can show that $p \mid a_0$. \square

REMARK

The phrase “we can repeatedly use” is a sign that the author is cheating a bit here. It would be better to use a generalized form of Coprimeness and Divisibility and prove this generalization by induction.

Exercise 4

Is $x + 1$ a factor of $x^{10} + 1$, or of $x^9 + 1$? When does $x + 1$ divide (or not divide) $x^{2n} + 1$ for n a positive integer? When does $x + 1$ divide (or not divide) $x^{2n+1} + 1$ for n a positive integer?

Exercise 5

Prove that if p is a prime, then $\sqrt[n]{p}$ is irrational for any integer $n > 1$.

The next, very useful theorem is like a “two for one special”. If you find one non-real complex root of a real polynomial, you get another one for free.

Theorem 10**(Conjugate Roots Theorem (CJRT))**

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ be a polynomial with real coefficients. If $c \in \mathbb{C}$ is a root of $f(x)$, then $\bar{c} \in \mathbb{C}$ is a root of $f(x)$.

Example 5

Let $f(x) = x^4 - x^3 - 5x^2 - x - 6$. Given that i is a root of $f(x)$, factor $f(x)$.

Solution: Since $f(x)$ is a polynomial with real coefficients, we can use the Conjugate Roots Theorem. Thus, i and $-i$ are both roots and, by the Factor Theorem, $(x - i)$ and $(x + i)$ are factors of $f(x)$. The product of these two factors is $x^2 + 1$. Dividing $f(x)$ by $x^2 + 1$ yields a quotient of $x^2 - x - 6$ which factors as $(x - 3)(x + 2)$. Thus

$$f(x) = (x - i)(x + i)(x - 3)(x + 2)$$

Proof: Since c is a root of $f(x)$

$$a_n c^n + a_{n-1} c^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 c + a_0 = 0.$$

Taking the complex conjugate of both sides gives

$$\overline{a_n c^n + a_{n-1} c^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 c + a_0} = \bar{0}$$

and using Properties of Conjugates

$$\overline{a_n} \bar{c}^n + \overline{a_{n-1}} \bar{c}^{n-1} + \cdots + \overline{a_1} \bar{c} + \overline{a_0} = \bar{0}.$$

Since $\bar{a} = a$ whenever a is real, we now have

$$a_n \bar{c}^n + a_{n-1} \bar{c}^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 \bar{c} + a_0 = 0.$$

That is,

$$f(\bar{c}) = 0$$

and so \bar{c} is a root of $f(x)$. □

Exercise 6

Given that $x + (2 + i)$ is a factor of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + 2x^2 - 12x - 15$, write $f(x)$ as a product of irreducible real polynomials and also as a product of irreducible complex polynomials.

The Conjugate Roots Theorem has a very useful corollary.

Corollary 11**(Real Quadratic Factors (RQF))**

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ be a polynomial with real coefficients. If $c \in \mathbb{C}$ is a root of $f(x)$ and $\text{Im}(c) \neq 0$, then there exists a real quadratic polynomial $g(x)$ and a real polynomial $q(x)$ such that $f(x) = g(x)q(x)$.

Proof: Let $c \in \mathbb{C}$ be a root of $f(x)$ where $\text{Im}(c) \neq 0$. Then by the Factor Theorem,

$$f(x) = (x - c)q_1(x) \text{ for some } q_1(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x].$$

Now, by the Conjugate Roots Theorem, \bar{c} is also a root of $f(x)$. Hence

$$f(\bar{c}) = (\bar{c} - c)q_1(\bar{c}) = 0.$$

Since $\text{Im}(c) \neq 0$, then $\bar{c} \neq c$, or $\bar{c} - c \neq 0$ which in turn means $q_1(\bar{c}) = 0$. That is, \bar{c} is a root of $q_1(x)$ and so by using the Factor Theorem again, we get that

$$q_1(x) = (x - \bar{c})q_2(x) \text{ where } q_2(x) \in \mathbb{C}[x].$$

We substitute to get

$$f(x) = (x - c)(x - \bar{c})q_2(x) = g(x)q_2(x)$$

where $g(x) = (x - c)(x - \bar{c})$. By Properties of Conjugates and Properties of Modulus,

$$g(x) = x^2 - (c + \bar{c})x + c\bar{c} = x^2 - 2\text{Re}(c)x + |c|^2.$$

Since $-2\text{Re}(c) \in \mathbb{R}$ and $|c|^2 \in \mathbb{R}$, $g(x)$ is a real quadratic polynomial. All that remains is to show that $q_2(x)$ is in $\mathbb{R}[x]$. From above, in $\mathbb{C}[x]$, we have that

$$f(x) = g(x)q_2(x) + r_2(x)$$

where $r_2(x)$ is the zero polynomial. Using the Division Algorithm for Polynomials (DAP) in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, we get

$$f(x) = g(x)q(x) + r(x)$$

where $q(x)$ is in $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and the remainder $r(x)$ is the zero polynomial or $\deg r(x) < \deg g(x)$. Now, every real polynomial is a complex polynomial, so we can also view this as a statement in $\mathbb{C}[x]$. As for any field, DAP over \mathbb{C} tells us that the quotient and remainder are unique. Therefore $r(x) = r_2(x)$ is the zero polynomial and $q(x) = q_2(x)$ has real coefficients. \square

REMARK

Notice how we used complex polynomials to prove a result about real polynomials. This is one of many ways in which moving “up” to \mathbb{C} from \mathbb{R} gives us a more complete picture and deeper understanding of the “real world”.

This corollary is useful in characterizing the factorization of all real polynomials.

Theorem 12 (Real Factors of Real Polynomials (RFRP))

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ be a real polynomial where $n \geq 1$. Then $f(x)$ can be written as a product of real linear and real quadratic factors.

We leave proving this using induction and Real Quadratic Factors as an exercise. The main idea is that complex polynomials of degree n have n roots, perhaps with repetitions. Those roots which are real correspond to real linear factors. Those roots which are not real come in conjugate pairs, and correspond to real quadratic factors (as a pair).

36.4 Examples**Example 6**

For each of the following, you are given several roots of a polynomial $f(x)$. Find a polynomial in the given $\mathbb{F}[x]$ of lowest possible degree that has the given roots.

1. $\mathbb{R}[x]$: $3 + \sqrt{2}i$, 5 .

Solution: Since we are looking for a polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, we can use the Conjugate Roots Theorem for complex roots. Hence, $3 + \sqrt{2}i \notin \mathbb{R}$ will be paired with its conjugate $3 - \sqrt{2}i$. The product of the corresponding factors will produce a real quadratic. Hence one choice for the polynomial is,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (x - (3 + \sqrt{2}i))(x - (3 - \sqrt{2}i))(x - 5) \\ &= (x^2 - 6x + 11)(x - 5) \\ &= x^3 - 11x^2 + 41x - 55. \end{aligned}$$

2. $\mathbb{C}[x]$: $3 + \sqrt{2}i$, 5 .

Solution: Since both $3 + \sqrt{2}i$ and 5 are complex numbers, the corresponding linear factors are in $\mathbb{C}[x]$ so

$$f(x) = (x - (3 + \sqrt{2}i))(x - 5) = x^2 - (8 + \sqrt{2}i)x + (15 + 5\sqrt{2}i).$$

3. $\mathbb{R}[x]$: $1 - \sqrt{5}$, $2i$, 0 .

Solution: Since we are looking for a polynomial in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, we can use the Conjugate Roots Theorem for complex roots. The only root not in \mathbb{R} is $2i$ so we need to pair this root with its conjugate $-2i$. The product of the corresponding factors will produce a real quadratic. Hence one choice for the polynomial is,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (x - (1 - \sqrt{5}))(x - 2i)(x + 2i)(x - 0) \\ &= (x - (1 - \sqrt{5}))(x^2 + 4)x \\ &= (x - (1 - \sqrt{5}))(x^3 + 4x) \\ &= x^4 + (-1 + \sqrt{5})x^3 + 4x^2 + 4(-1 + \sqrt{5})x. \end{aligned}$$

4. $\mathbb{Z}_7[x]$: $[2]$, $[1]$.

Solution: Both $[2]$, $[1]$ correspond to linear factors so

$$f(x) = (x - [2])(x - [1]) = x^2 - [3]x + [2] = x^2 + [4]x + [2].$$

Example 7

Write each of the following polynomials $f(x)$, as a product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{F}[x]$. Cite appropriate propositions to justify the reasoning.

1. $f(x) = x^2 - x - 6$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Solution: The quadratic formula gives the roots 3 and -2 . These are values in \mathbb{Q} so $f(x)$ has linear factors $x - 3$ and $x + 2$ by the Factor Theorem. Hence,

$$f(x) = (x - 3)(x + 2)$$

is a product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

2. $f(x) = x^2 - x + 6$ in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$.

Solution: The quadratic formula gives only complex roots in this instance. Since complex numbers do not belong to \mathbb{Q} there are no linear factors in $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. Therefore by Lemma 6, $f(x) = x^2 - x + 6$ is irreducible $\mathbb{Q}[x]$. (Can you see why?)

3. $f(x) = 2x^2 - 6ix - 4$ in $\mathbb{C}[x]$.

Solution: Applying the quadratic formula gives two roots, i and $2i$, hence

$$f(x) = c(x^2 - 3ix - 2) = c(x - i)(x - 2i)$$

for some complex number c is a product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{C}[x]$. It is easy to see that the leading coefficient is $c = 2$.

4. $f(x) = 2x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x + 2$ in $\mathbb{R}[x]$.

Solution: Since all of the coefficients are integers, we can use the Rational Roots Theorem. The divisors of a_0 are $\{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$ and the divisors of a_n are $\{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$ so the only candidates for rational roots are

$$\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm \frac{1}{2}.$$

Now test each of these candidates.

x	1	-1	2	-2	$\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{2}$
$f(x)$	3	-5	10	-30	$\frac{5}{2}$	0

Long division produces

$$f(x) = (2x + 1)(x^2 - 2x + 2).$$

The quadratic formula gives two complex roots for $x^2 - 2x + 2$ so it does not have any linear factors. Therefore, by Lemma 6 this is a product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{R}[x]$.

5. $f(z) = z^4 + 27z$ in $\mathbb{C}[z]$

Solution: Since $f(z)$ is a complex polynomial of degree four, it will have four linear factors. Now $f(z) = z(z^3 + 27)$. Factoring $z^3 + 27$ can be done with the aid of the Complex n -th Roots Theorem applied to $z^3 = -27$. First, we write -27 in polar form as

$$-27 = 27(\cos \pi + i \sin \pi).$$

Using the Complex n -th Roots Theorem, the solutions are

$$\sqrt[3]{27} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{3} \right) \right) = 3 \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{3} + \frac{2k\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3} + \frac{2k\pi}{3} \right) \right)$$

for $k = 0, 1, 2$. The three distinct roots are given below

$$\text{When } k = 0, z_0 = 3 \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3} \right) \right) = 3 \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i \right) = \frac{3}{2} + \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}i.$$

$$\text{When } k = 1, z_1 = 3 \left(\cos \pi + i \sin \pi \right) = -3.$$

$$\text{When } k = 2, z_2 = 3 \left(\cos \left(\frac{5\pi}{3} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{5\pi}{3} \right) \right) = 3 \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}i \right) = \frac{3}{2} - \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}i.$$

Thus, we have the following product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{C}[z]$:

$$f(z) = z(z + 3) \left(z - \left(\frac{3}{2} + \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}i \right) \right) \left(z - \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}i \right) \right).$$

Example 8

Factor $f(x) = 3x^4 - 5x^3 + x^2 - 5x - 2$ over $\mathbb{R}[x]$ and $\mathbb{C}[x]$ into a product of irreducible polynomials.

Solution: Since all of the coefficients are integers, we can use the Rational Roots Theorem. The divisors of a_0 are $\{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$ and the divisors of a_n are $\{\pm 1, \pm 3\}$ so the only candidates for rational roots are

$$\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm \frac{1}{3}, \pm \frac{2}{3}.$$

Now test each of these candidates.

x	1	-1	2	-2	$\frac{1}{3}$	$-\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{2}{3}$	$-\frac{2}{3}$
$f(x)$	-8	12	0	100	$-\frac{100}{27}$	0	$-\frac{52}{9}$	$\frac{104}{27}$

Since 2 and $-\frac{1}{3}$ are roots, $x - 2$ and $x + \frac{1}{3}$ (or $3x + 1$) are factors. We can perform long division with $f(x)$ and the divisor $(x - 2)(3x + 1) = 3x^2 - 5x - 2$ to get

$$f(x) = (x - 2)(3x + 1)(x^2 + 1).$$

As we saw previously, $x^2 + 1$ is irreducible in $\mathbb{R}[x]$, so we get

$$f(x) = (x - 2)(3x + 1)(x^2 + 1) \in \mathbb{R}[x]$$

and

$$f(x) = (x - 2)(3x + 1)(x - i)(x + i) \in \mathbb{C}[x].$$

Example 9

Let $f(z) = z^6 + 4z^4 + z^2 + 4$. Given that $f(2i) = 0$, factor $f(z)$ into a product of irreducible polynomials over $\mathbb{C}[z]$.

Solution: Over \mathbb{C} , a polynomial of degree six will have six linear factors. Since all of the coefficients of $f(z)$ are real, the Conjugate Roots Theorem applies. Since $2i$ is a root, $-2i$ is also a root. Thus

$$(z - 2i)(z + 2i) = z^2 + 4$$

is a factor of $f(z)$. Long division produces

$$f(z) = z^6 + 4z^4 + z^2 + 4 = (z^2 + 4)(z^4 + 1)$$

We now factor $z^4 + 1$ using the Complex n -th Roots Theorem applied to $z^4 = -1$. First, we write -1 in polar form as

$$-1 = 1(\cos \pi + i \sin \pi).$$

So the four distinct roots are

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt[4]{1} \left(\cos \left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi + 2k\pi}{4} \right) \right) = \\ \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{k\pi}{2} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{k\pi}{2} \right) \text{ for } k = 0, 1, 2, 3. \end{aligned}$$

We name the roots z_1, z_2, z_3 and z_4 .

$$\text{When } k = 0, z_0 = \cos \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{4} \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 1, z_1 = \cos \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{3\pi}{4} \right) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 2, z_2 = \cos \left(\frac{5\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{5\pi}{4} \right) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

$$\text{When } k = 3, z_3 = \cos \left(\frac{7\pi}{4} \right) + i \sin \left(\frac{7\pi}{4} \right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}.$$

Thus we get the following product of irreducible polynomials in $\mathbb{C}[z]$,

$$f(z) = (z - 2i)(z + 2i)(z - z_0)(z - z_1)(z - z_2)(z - z_3)$$

where the z_i are defined above.

Example 10

Let $f(x) = [1]x^2 + [1] \in \mathbb{Z}_3[x]$. Factor $f(x)$ into a product of irreducible polynomials.

After substituting all three elements of \mathbb{Z}_3 , we see that $f(x)$ does not have any roots. Therefore it does not have any linear factors and by Lemma 6, there is no work to do. Notice that the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra does not apply to polynomials over \mathbb{Z}_p .

Example 11

Let $f(x) = [1]x^4 + [2]x^2 + [1] \in \mathbb{Z}_3[x]$. Factor $f(x)$ into a product of irreducible polynomials.

As in the previous example, we can deduce that $f(x)$ does not have any roots. This tells us that $f(x)$ does not have any linear factors. So by Lemma 6 we only need to check if $f(x)$ can be written as a product of quadratic polynomials. In fact, $f(x) = ([1]x^2 + [1])^2$. Can you see how we might have found this factorization in this case? In general, mathematicians do not have efficient methods for factoring in \mathbb{Z}_p .

Part VII

Bijections, Counting and Cardinality

Chapter 37

Compositions and Bijections

37.1 Objectives

1. Read proofs about the composition of surjections and composition of injections.
2. Define *bijection*.
3. Read and discover proofs that specified functions are bijections.

37.2 Functions, Surjections and Injections

Earlier, we learned about nested quantifiers and used them to define the concept of functions, surjections and injections. Here is a quick summary of the definitions.

Definition 37.2.1

Function, Surjective,
Injective

Let S and T be two sets.

A **function** f from S to T , denoted by $f : S \rightarrow T$, is a rule that assigns to each element $s \in S$ a unique element $f(s) \in T$. The set S is called the **domain** of the function and the set T is called the **codomain**. The element $f(s)$ is called the **value** of the function f at s .

A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **surjective** (or **onto**) if and only if for every $y \in T$ there exists an $x \in S$ so that $f(x) = y$.

A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **injective** (or **one-to-one**) if and only if for every $x_1 \in S$ and every $x_2 \in S$, $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies that $x_1 = x_2$.

Symbolically, we can write out these definitions as follows.

REMARK

A rule $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a function if and only if

$$\forall s \in S \exists ! t \in T, f(s) = t$$

where the exclamation mark after the existential quantifier means unique.

A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is surjective if and only if

$$\forall t \in T \exists s \in S, f(s) = t$$

A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is injective if and only if

$$\forall x_1 \in S \forall x_2 \in S, f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2$$

Equivalently, a function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is injective if and only if

$$\forall x_1 \in S \forall x_2 \in S, x_1 \neq x_2 \implies f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$$

In prose, we can say the following.

REMARK

Suppose f is a rule that defines a mapping from set S to set T .

- f is a function if it assigns to each element $s \in S$ exactly one element $f(s) \in T$.
- f is surjective if, for each element $t \in T$, there is at *least* one element $s \in S$ so that $f(s) = t$.
- f is injective if, for each element $t \in T$, there is at *most* one element $s \in S$ so that $f(s) = t$.

37.3 Composition of Functions

We may combine two functions to create a third function using the concept of composition of functions defined below:

Definition 37.3.1 Composition of Functions

Suppose S, T and V are three sets, and $f : T \rightarrow V$ and $g : S \rightarrow T$ are two functions. Then we may define the **composite function** $f \circ g : S \rightarrow V$, given by

$$f \circ g(x) = f(g(x)) \text{ for all } x \in S.$$

Note that for the composition $f \circ g$ to be defined, the codomain of g must be equal of the domain of f . As a consequence, the composition $g \circ f$ may not be defined unless the codomain of f is equal to the domain of g . Therefore $f \circ g$ and $g \circ f$ are quite different.

37.3.1 Composing Onto Functions

Mathematics makes great use of the composition of functions. The next proposition states that the composition of onto functions is also onto.

Proposition 1 Let $f : T \rightarrow V$ and $g : S \rightarrow T$ be onto functions. Then $f \circ g$ is an onto function.

Carefully read and analyze the following proof.

Proof: Let y in V . Since $f : T \rightarrow V$ is onto, there exists a $t' \in T$ so that $f(t') = y$. Since $t' \in T$ and $g : S \rightarrow T$ is onto, there exists an $s' \in S$ so that $g(s') = t'$. Hence, there exists $s' \in S$ so that $f(g(s')) = f(t') = y$. \square

37.3.2 Composing One-to-One Functions

The next proposition asserts that the composition of one-to-one functions is also one-to-one. Try discovering a proof before analyzing the one given below.

Proposition 2 Let $f : T \rightarrow U$ and $g : S \rightarrow T$ be one-to-one functions. Then $f \circ g$ is a one-to-one function.

Proof: Let $x_1, x_2 \in S$. Suppose that $(f \circ g)(x_1) = (f \circ g)(x_2)$. Since $(f \circ g)(x_1) = (f \circ g)(x_2)$, we know that $f(g(x_1)) = f(g(x_2))$. Since f is one-to-one, we know that $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ and since g is one-to-one, $x_1 = x_2$ as required. \square

37.4 Bijections

An extraordinarily useful class of functions is described next.

Definition 37.4.1 A function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is **bijective** if and only if f is both surjective and injective.

Bijective

REMARK

Put another way, saying a function $f : S \rightarrow T$ is bijective means that for each element $t \in T$, there is *exactly one* element $s \in S$ such that $f(s) = t$.

Example 1 For each of the following functions, determine if the function is a surjection, injection, or bijection.

1. $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = e^x$.

Solution: This function is not surjective. Consider the real number -1 . Since $f(x) > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, there is no real number x_0 so that $f(x_0) = -1$. To show that this function is injective, let $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and suppose that $e^{x_1} = e^{x_2}$. Taking the natural log of both sides gives $\ln(e^{x_1}) = \ln(e^{x_2})$ which implies that $x_1 = x_2$. Since f is not surjective, it is not bijective.

2. $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, +\infty)$ defined by $f(x) = e^x$.

Solution: To show that this function is surjective, let $y \in (0, +\infty)$. Consider $x_0 = \ln y$. Now $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x_0) = e^{x_0} = e^{\ln y} = y$. To show that this function is injective, let $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and suppose that $e^{x_1} = e^{x_2}$. Taking the natural log of both sides gives $\ln(e^{x_1}) = \ln(e^{x_2})$ which implies that $x_1 = x_2$. Since f is both surjective and injective, f is bijective.

3. Let $p \neq 3$ be a prime and let $f : \mathbb{Z}_p \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_p$ be defined by $f(x) = [3]x$.

Solution: Since p is a prime, $[3]$ has an inverse by the corollary Existence of Inverses in \mathbb{Z}_p . To show that this function is surjective, let $y \in \mathbb{Z}_p$. Consider $x_0 = [3]^{-1}y$. Now $x_0 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and $f(x_0) = [3]([3]^{-1}y) = ([3][3]^{-1})y = y$. To show that this function is injective, let $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ and suppose that $[3]x_1 = [3]x_2$. Multiplying both sides by $[3]^{-1}$ gives $[3]^{-1}([3]x_1) = [3]^{-1}([3]x_2)$ which implies that $x_1 = x_2$. Since f is both surjective and injective, f is bijective.

4. $f : \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_7$ defined by $f(x) = [x]$.

Solution: Recall that $\mathbb{Z}_7 = \{[0], [1], [2], [3], [4], [5], [6]\}$. Since $f(j) = [j]$ for $j = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$, f is surjective. This function is not injective since 0 and 7 both map to $[0]$. Since f is not injective, it is not bijective.

5. $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ where $d(n)$ is the number of natural number divisors of n .

Solution: To show that this function is surjective, let $y \in \mathbb{N}$. Since the natural number 2^{y-1} has the y divisors $2^0, 2^1, 2^2, \dots, 2^{y-1}$, $f(2^{y-1}) = y$ so f is surjective. This function is not injective since $d(2) = d(3) = 2$. Since f is not injective, it is not bijective.

Self Check 1

Prove the following proposition.

Proposition 3

Let $f : T \rightarrow U$ and $g : S \rightarrow T$ be bijections. Prove that $f \circ g$ is a bijection.

37.4.1 Inverses

There are many instances in mathematics when *undoing* an operation is very useful. Subtraction undoes addition. Division undoes multiplication. Taking a square root undoes the operation of squaring. Here is a way to generalize all such *undoes*.

Definition 37.4.2

Inverse

If $f : S \rightarrow T$ and $g : T \rightarrow S$ are functions that satisfy

- for every $s \in S$, $g(f(s)) = s$, and
- for every $t \in T$, $f(g(t)) = t$

then g is called the **inverse** of f and we write $g = f^{-1}$.

A common mistake is to assume that the inverse is the reciprocal. The inverse of the function $f(x) = x^2$ is $f^{-1} = \sqrt{x}$, not $1/x^2$.

Example 2

The inverse of the function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = mx + b$ is the function $g(x) = (x - b)/m$. Let's verify that the two defining properties of an inverse hold.

For every $s \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$g(f(s)) = \frac{(ms + b) - b}{m} = s$$

as required, and for every $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$f(g(t)) = m \frac{t - b}{m} + b = t$$

as required.

It is not surprising that the function f in our example is bijective. The following theorem, which we will not prove, establishes the fact that inverses only exist for bijective functions.

Theorem 4 (Inverse Theorem)

A function has an inverse if and only if the function is bijective.

Bijections are commonly used in calculus to identify invertible functions. Bijections are used in linear algebra and group theory to show that two algebraic structures, which may look very different, are essentially the same. We will use bijections to count.

Chapter 38

Counting

38.1 Objectives

1. Define what it means for two sets to have the same cardinality.
2. State and prove the *Cardinality of Disjoint Sets*.
3. State and prove the *Cardinality of Intersecting Sets*.
4. State and prove the *Cardinality of Subsets of Finite Sets*.

38.2 African Shepherds

Many, many years ago, Dr. Furino lived high up in the mountains of southern Africa. Herd boys would be sent with their flocks of sheep and goats to the high pastures to allow the animals to graze. The herd boys were uneducated, and very few knew how to “count”. So, how did they know if they had the right number of animals at any given time? An animal might get lost at night, be out of sight among the ridges during the day, or be taken by jackals.

Before the herd boys were sent out from their family compounds they would be given a very small bag that contained pebbles, one pebble for each animal. So, to “count” the animals, they would simply match up a pebble against each animal they could see. If there were more pebbles than animals, an animal was missing. If there were more animals than pebbles, another animal had joined their flock, presumably from a nearby herd. If there was exactly one pebble for each animal, the herd boy had the correct number of animals.

The herd boys “counted” by forming a bijection between the set of pebbles in their bag and the set of animals in their flock. When we count by saying $1, 2, 3, \dots$ we are creating a bijection between a subset of the integers and the set of objects we are counting. Now, how do we formalize this idea?

38.3 What Does It Mean to Count?

Recall that we used the notation $|S|$ to mean the cardinality, or number of elements, in the set S . Now it is time to be clear about what that really means.

Definition 38.3.1
Cardinality

If there exists a bijection between the sets S and T , we say that the sets have the same **cardinality** and we write $|S| = |T|$.

Let \mathbb{N}_n denote the set of all natural numbers less than or equal to n .

- $\mathbb{N}_0 = \emptyset$
- $\mathbb{N}_1 = \{1\}$
- $\mathbb{N}_2 = \{1, 2\}$
- $\mathbb{N}_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$
- $\mathbb{N}_n = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$

Definition 38.3.2
Number of
Elements, Finite,
Infinite

If there exists a bijection between a set S and \mathbb{N}_n , we say that the **number of elements** in S is n , and we write $|S| = n$. Moreover, we also say that S is a **finite set**. If no bijection exists between a set S and \mathbb{N}_n for any n , we say that S is an **infinite set**.

This formal definition corresponds exactly to what herd boys do with pebbles, what children do when “counting” on fingers, and what we do when “counting” with the words “one, two, three”. This definition extends the bijection notion to infinite sets as well, but that extension brings some weirdness which we will see next lecture.

38.4 Showing That a Bijection Exists

To show that $|S| = |T|$ using a bijection is equivalent to proving a proposition of the following form.

Proposition 1

Let $S = \dots$ Let $T = \dots$ Then there exists a bijection $f : S \rightarrow T$. Hence, $|S| = |T|$.

The presence of an existential quantifier in the conclusion suggests we use the construct method. Let’s begin by identifying the parts of the quantified sentence.

Quantifier:	\exists
Variable:	f
Domain:	all functions from S to T
Open sentence:	$f : S \rightarrow T$ is a bijection.

To show that the open sentence is true, we must show that f is a bijection, that is, we must show that f is surjective and injective. So any proof that $|S| = |T|$ which uses bijections will have the following structure.

Proof in Progress

1. Consider the rule $f : S \rightarrow T$ defined by $f(s) = \text{to be completed}$.
2. We show that f is a function. *This shows f is in the domain of the quantified statement we just examined.*
3. We show that f is surjective. *To be completed.*
4. We show that f is injective. *To be completed.*
5. Hence, $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a bijection and $|S| = |T|$.

In practice, the first two steps are usually combined and authors typically write “Consider the function f mapping from S to T defined by ...”. The task of verifying that the rule is really a function is left to the reader. A more formal proof would require that the details be presented, but this is where understanding your audience is important. In many instances, verifying that a rule is a function is straightforward and including such a verification would actually distract from the proof. With the preceding remark in mind, and already knowing how to handle Steps 3 and 4, we can produce a more typical proof structure.

Proof in Progress

1. Consider the function $f : S \rightarrow T$ defined by $f(s) = \text{to be completed}$.
2. We show that f is surjective. Let $t \in T$. Consider $s = \text{to be completed}$. We show that $s \in S$ *to be completed*. Now we show that $f(s) = t$ *to be completed*.
3. We show that f is injective. Let $s_1, s_2 \in S$ and suppose that $f(s_1) = f(s_2)$. Now we show that $s_1 = s_2$ *to be completed*.
4. Hence, $f : S \rightarrow T$ is a bijection and $|S| = |T|$.

The structure contains two parts which are, in themselves, proofs: a proof that f is surjective, and a proof that f is injective.

We should emphasize that bijections are not the only way to show that two sets have the same cardinality. We can use bijections to establish propositions which are simpler to work with, and then use the propositions.

REMARK

Even though it is often obvious that a rule is a function, we want to emphasize that many common rules are not functions. For example, the (x, y) pairs that satisfy $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ do not constitute a function using the rule $f(x) = y$ since $(0, 1)$ and $(0, -1)$ are among the pairs. That is, $x = 0$ does not map to a unique value of y . The parabola $x = y^2$ is not a function. Though $y = \sin x$ is a function, its reflection in the line $y = x$, $x = \sin y$, is not a function which is why the domain must be restricted when you are looking for an inverse sine relation.

Many real life rules are not functions. Think of a university timetable which implicitly embeds a rule that maps rooms to students. Since one room contains many students, the rule that maps rooms to students is not a function.

38.5 Finite Sets

We begin by proving two fundamental theorems about counting and sets for which you probably already have an intuitive understanding but may never have proved.

Definition 38.5.1

Disjoint

Sets S and T are **disjoint** if $S \cap T = \emptyset$.

Proposition 2

(Cardinality of Disjoint Sets (CDS))

If S and T are disjoint finite sets, then

$$|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|.$$

A simple example can be taken from any room in any building. If S is a set of m chairs in the room, and T is a set of n tables in the room, then the number of tables and chairs is $m + n$.

Before we read a proof of the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets, it is important to keep two things in mind. First, we are proving a statement about set cardinality, not a statement about set equality. Second, to establish basic properties of set cardinality we must work with bijections.

The intuitive idea underlying the proof is very simple. Count the first m elements in S , and then continue counting the next n elements in T . As you will see, a formal proof is more complicated. Note how closely the proof follows the structure described in the previous section.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Since S is a finite set, there exists a bijection $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_m$ for some non-negative integer m , and $|S| = m$.
2. Since T is a finite set, there exists a bijection $g : T \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$ for some non-negative integer n , and $|T| = n$.
3. Construct a function $h : S \cup T \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{m+n}$ as follows.

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in S \\ g(x) + m & \text{if } x \in T. \end{cases}$$

4. To show that h is surjective, let $y \in \mathbb{N}_{m+n}$. If $y \leq m$, then because f is surjective, there exists an element $x \in S$ so that $f(x) = y$, hence $h(x) = y$. If $m + 1 \leq y \leq m + n$, then because g is surjective, there exists an element $x \in T$ so that $g(x) = y - m$ and so $h(x) = (y - m) + m = y$.
5. To show that h is injective, let $x_1, x_2 \in S \cup T$ and suppose that $h(x_1) = h(x_2)$. If $h(x) \leq m$ then $h(x) = f(x)$ so if $h(x_1) \leq m$ we have

$$h(x_1) = h(x_2) \implies f(x_1) = f(x_2)$$

But since f is a bijection $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ implies $x_1 = x_2$ as needed.

If $h(x) > m$ then $h(x) = g(x) + m$ so if $h(x_1) > m$ we have

$$h(x_1) = h(x_2) \implies g(x_1) + m = g(x_2) + m \implies g(x_1) = g(x_2).$$

But since g is a bijection $g(x_1) = g(x_2)$ implies $x_1 = x_2$ as needed.

Since h is a function which is both injective and surjective, h is bijective.

6. Thus

$$|S \cup T| = |\mathbb{N}_{m+n}| = m + n = |\mathbb{N}_m| + |\mathbb{N}_n| = |S| + |T|$$

□

Let's spend some time analyzing the proof.

Analysis of Proof As usual, we begin with the hypothesis and the conclusion.

Hypothesis: S and T are disjoint finite sets.

Conclusion: $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T|$.

Sentence 1 *Since S is a finite set, there exists a bijection $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_m$ for some non-negative integer m , and $|S| = m$.*

This makes use of the hypothesis and the definition of \mathbb{N}_m . The second sentence is similar.

Sentence 2 *Since T is a finite set, there exists a bijection $g : T \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$ for some non-negative integer n , and $|T| = n$.*

Sentence 3 Before looking at Sentence 3, we are going to skip ahead to the last sentence. Fortunately, when reading a proof we are free to do that. This last sentence drives what we need to do. Sentence 3 constructs a function $h : S \cup T \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{m+n}$. How are we going to use h ?

$$\begin{aligned} |S \cup T| &= |\mathbb{N}_{m+n}| && \text{because of the bijection } h \\ &= m + n && \text{from the cardinality of the finite set } \mathbb{N}_{m+n} \\ &= |\mathbb{N}_m| + |\mathbb{N}_n| && \text{from the cardinality of the finite sets } \mathbb{N}_m \text{ and } \mathbb{N}_n \\ &= |S| + |T| && \text{because of the bijections } f \text{ and } g \end{aligned}$$

The first equality sign relies on the bijection h . All of the remaining equality signs can be justified from the definition of \mathbb{N}_ℓ or Sentences 1 and 2. The difficult part is constructing h and then establishing that h is a bijection. Sentence 3 constructs a function $h : S \cup T \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{m+n}$ as follows.

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in S \\ g(x) + m & \text{if } x \in T. \end{cases}$$

Notice that h is defined in terms of f and g . Note also that elements in the set S will be mapped to the integers $1, 2, \dots, m$ and the elements in the set T will be mapped to the integers $m + 1, m + 2, \dots, m + n$.

Having defined a function h , the author must still establish

- h is surjective
- h is injective

This occurs in the next two paragraphs, each of which is a proof in its own right.

Paragraph 4 *To show that h is surjective, ...*

In this paragraph the author establishes that h is surjective by using the definition of surjective. The checking of each sentence is left to the reader.

Paragraph 5 *To show that h is injective, ...*

In this paragraph the author establishes that h is injective by using the definition of injective. The checking of each sentence is left to the reader.

Who would have thought that counting was so complicated!

Self Check 1

The rule $h : S \cup T \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_{m+n}$ defined below appears in the proof of the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets.

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \in S \\ g(x) + m & \text{if } x \in T \end{cases}$$

Prove that the rule is a function.

Proposition 3

(Cardinality of Intersecting Sets (CIS))

If S and T are any finite sets, then

$$|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|.$$

After having just endured an arduous proof, you might be disinclined to go looking for a complicated mapping and then proving that it is a bijection. That's sensible. What we can do in this case is to use the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets by writing $S \cup T$ and T as the union of disjoint sets.

Proof in Progress

1. $S \cup T = S \cup (T - S)$ where S and $T - S$ are disjoint sets.
(Prove this for practice.)
2. $T = (S \cap T) \cup (T - S)$ where $S \cap T$ and $T - S$ are disjoint sets.
(Prove this for practice.)
3. *To be completed.*

But now that we have the unions of finite disjoint sets we can invoke the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets.

Proof in Progress

1. $S \cup T = S \cup (T - S)$ where S and $T - S$ are disjoint sets.

2. Hence, by the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets, $|S \cup T| = |S| + |T - S|$.
3. $T = (S \cap T) \cup (T - S)$ where $S \cap T$ and $T - S$ are disjoint sets.
4. Hence, by the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets, $|T| = |S \cap T| + |T - S|$
5. *To be completed.*

Subtracting the two cardinality equations and rearranging will give us what we need. Take a minute to read a complete proof.

Proof: Since S and $T - S$ are disjoint sets, and

$$S \cup T = S \cup (T - S),$$

the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets implies

$$|S \cup T| = |S| + |T - S|.$$

Since $S \cap T$ and $T - S$ are disjoint sets, and

$$T = (S \cap T) \cup (T - S)$$

the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets implies

$$|T| = |S \cap T| + |T - S|.$$

Subtracting the two cardinality equations gives

$$|S \cup T| - |T| = |S| - |S \cap T|$$

hence

$$|S \cup T| = |S| + |T| - |S \cap T|$$

as required. □

Proposition 4 (Cardinality of Subsets of Finite Sets (CSFS))

If S and T are finite sets, and $S \subsetneq T$, then $|S| < |T|$.

The proof uses the same partitioning idea that was used in the proof of the Cardinality of Intersecting Sets.

Proof: The sets S and $T - S$ are disjoint sets where

$$S \cup (T - S) = T.$$

By the Cardinality of Disjoint Sets and the fact above

$$|S| + |T - S| = |S \cup (T - S)| = |T|.$$

Since $S \subsetneq T$, $T - S$ is a non-empty finite subset so $|T - S| > 0$. Hence

$$|S| + |T - S| = |T| \Rightarrow |S| < |T|.$$

□

Example 1 Prove the following proposition.

Let S, T, U be sets. If $|S| = |T|$ and $|T| = |U|$, then $|S| = |U|$.

Proof: Since $|S| = |T|$, there exists a bijection $f : S \rightarrow T$. Since $|T| = |U|$, there exists a bijection $g : T \rightarrow U$. By Proposition 3 in the previous chapter, $g \circ f : S \rightarrow U$ is a bijection from S to U so $|S| = |U|$. \square

Example 2 Suppose S is a non-empty finite set with k elements and $a \notin S$. Find a bijection f from $S \cup \{a\}$ to \mathbb{N}_{k+1} . You do not need to prove that f is a bijection, simply state it. Use this bijection to prove that $|S \cup \{a\}| = |S| + 1$.

Proof: Since S is a non-empty finite subset, there exists a bijection g between S and \mathbb{N}_k for some integer k . Define f as follows.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & \text{if } x \in S \\ k+1 & \text{if } x = a. \end{cases}$$

Now

$$|S \cup \{a\}| = |\mathbb{N}_{k+1}| = k+1 = |S| + 1$$

as needed. \square

Example 3 Let S be a non-empty finite set disjoint from \mathbb{N} . Find a bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \cup S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$.

Solution: Since S is a non-empty finite set, $|S| = n$ for some natural number n and there exists a bijection $g : S \rightarrow \mathbb{N}_n$. Define f as follows:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & \text{if } x \in S \\ n+x & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{N} \end{cases}$$

Chapter 39

Cardinality of Infinite Sets

39.1 Objectives

1. Discover a proof that $|\mathbb{N}| = |2\mathbb{N}|$.
2. State and prove that $|\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}|$.
3. State and prove that $|\mathbb{N}| \neq |(0, 1)|$.

39.2 Infinite Sets Are Weird

With respect to counting, finite sets behave pretty much as we expect. For example, if S is a proper subset of T , then $|S| < |T|$.

This is not the case for infinite sets. Consider the following proposition.

Proposition 1

Let $2\mathbb{N}$ be the set of even natural numbers. Then $|\mathbb{N}| = |2\mathbb{N}|$.

Let's be clear about what this proposition is saying. Even though the set of positive even numbers is a proper subset of the set of natural numbers, and even though there are infinitely many odd numbers excluded from the set of even numbers, the cardinality of the sets of even numbers and all natural numbers is the same!

How would we prove this? Two sets have the same cardinality if and only if there exists a bijection between the two sets. So we can use the same proof structure that was used in the previous chapter to build a bijection between two sets.

Proof in Progress

1. Consider the function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow 2\mathbb{N}$ defined by $f(s) =$ *to be completed*.
2. We show that f is surjective. Let $t \in 2\mathbb{N}$. Consider $s =$ *to be completed*. We show that $s \in \mathbb{N}$ *to be completed*. Now we show that $f(s) = t$ *to be completed*.
3. We show that f is injective. Let $s_1, s_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ and suppose that $f(s_1) = f(s_2)$. Now we show that $s_1 = s_2$ *to be completed*.

4. Hence, $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow 2\mathbb{N}$ is a bijection and $|\mathbb{N}| = |2\mathbb{N}|$.

How do we construct a bijection? There is an obvious mapping from \mathbb{N} to $2\mathbb{N}$:

$$f(s) = 2s$$

\mathbb{N}	1	2	3	4	...
	\downarrow	\downarrow	\downarrow	\downarrow	
$2\mathbb{N}$	2	4	6	8	...

Let's update the proof in progress.

Proof in Progress

1. Consider the function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow 2\mathbb{N}$ defined by $f(s) = 2s$.
2. We show that f is surjective. Let $t \in 2\mathbb{N}$. Consider $s = \dots$ (*to be completed*).
We show that $s \in \mathbb{N}$ (*to be completed*).
Now we show that $f(s) = t$ (*to be completed*).
3. We show that f is injective. Let $s_1, s_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ and suppose that $f(s_1) = f(s_2)$. Now we show that $s_1 = s_2$ (*to be completed*).
4. Hence, $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow 2\mathbb{N}$ is a bijection and $|\mathbb{N}| = |2\mathbb{N}|$.

Exercise 1

Complete the proof that $|\mathbb{N}| = |2\mathbb{N}|$.

39.3 Infinite Sets Are Even Weirder Than You Thought

There are infinitely many rational numbers between the natural numbers 1 and 2 so it is a real shock to most people that the cardinality of the positive rational numbers and the natural numbers is the same. For technical reasons, we won't prove that but we will prove something very close. Consider the sets

$$\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} = \{(a, b) \mid a, b \in \mathbb{N}\}$$

and

$$\mathbb{Q}_{>0} = \left\{ \frac{a}{b} \mid a, b \in \mathbb{N}, \gcd(a, b) = 1 \right\}.$$

The obvious mapping $f : \mathbb{Q}_{>0} \rightarrow \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ defined by

$$f\left(\frac{a}{b}\right) = (a, b)$$

is injective but not surjective since, for example, $(2, 2) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ but $\frac{2}{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}_{>0}$. Since $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ is at least as large as $\mathbb{Q}_{>0}$, it is even more surprising that $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ and \mathbb{N} have the same cardinality.

Proposition 2

$$|\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}|$$

To prove this we will make use of the following proposition, whose proof will be left as an exercise.

Proposition 3**(Even-Odd Factorization of Natural Numbers (EOFNN))**

Any natural number n can be written uniquely as $n = 2^i q$ where i is a non-negative integer and q is an odd natural number.

Proof: The proof is left as an exercise.

Example 1

Here are some examples of the Even-Odd Factorization of Natural Numbers.

$$60 = 2^2 \times 15$$

$$64 = 2^6 \times 1$$

$$65 = 2^0 \times 65$$

Here is a proof that $|\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}|$. Notice how closely it follows the proof structure that we have been using.

Proof: (For reference, each sentence of the proof is written on a separate line.)

1. Consider the function $f : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ defined by $f(a, b) = 2^{a-1}(2b - 1)$. Observe that mathematicians usually write $f(a, b)$ instead of $f((a, b))$.
2. We show that f is surjective. Let $t \in \mathbb{N}$. By the Even-Odd Factorization of Natural Numbers, $t = 2^i q$ where i is a non-negative integer and q is an odd natural number. Since q is odd, there exists a natural number b such that $q = 2b - 1$. If t is odd then $t = 2^0(2b - 1)$ and $f(1, b) = t$. If t is even then there exists a natural number a so that $t = 2^{a-1}(2b - 1)$ and $f(a, b) = t$.
3. We show that f is injective. Let $(a, b), (c, d) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ and suppose that $f(a, b) = f(c, d)$. But then

$$\begin{aligned} f(a, b) = f(c, d) &\Rightarrow 2^{a-1}(2b - 1) = 2^{c-1}(2d - 1) \\ &\Rightarrow (2^{a-1} = 2^{c-1}) \text{ and } (2b - 1 = 2d - 1) \\ &\Rightarrow (a = c) \text{ and } (b = d) \\ &\Rightarrow (a, b) = (c, d) \end{aligned}$$

as required.

4. Hence, $f : \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ is a bijection and $|\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}| = |\mathbb{N}|$.

□

You might well ask, do all infinite sets have the same size? The surprising answer is no.

39.4 Not All Infinite Sets Have the Same Cardinality

Recall that $(0, 1)$ denotes the open interval of real numbers between 0 and 1. That is

$$(0, 1) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < x < 1\}$$

Proposition 4

The set of natural numbers and the open interval $(0, 1)$ of real numbers do not have the same cardinality. That is, $|\mathbb{N}| \neq |(0, 1)|$

Proof: By way of contradiction, assume that $|\mathbb{N}| = |(0, 1)|$. But then some bijection $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow (0, 1)$ must exist. Write each element of $(0, 1)$ as an infinite decimal and list all of the real numbers in $(0, 1)$ as follows.

$$f(1) = 0.a_{11}a_{12}a_{13}a_{14} \dots$$

$$f(2) = 0.a_{21}a_{22}a_{23}a_{24} \dots$$

$$f(3) = 0.a_{31}a_{32}a_{33}a_{34} \dots$$

$$\vdots$$

$$f(n) = 0.a_{n1}a_{n2}a_{n3}a_{n4} \dots$$

$$\vdots$$

Construct the real number $c = 0.c_1c_2c_3c_4 \dots$ as follows. For c_i , choose any digit from $1, 2, 3, \dots, 8$ with the property that $c_i \neq a_{ii}$. The number c does not end in an infinite sequence of 0's or 9's so has only one decimal representation (a subtlety that requires its own explanation in another course). The real number c appears nowhere in the list since it differs from $f(i)$ in position i for every i .

But then f is not surjective, hence not bijective which contradicts our assumption. \square

This chapter raises a whole set of questions about infinite sets.

- How many “infinities” are there?
- Can we say that the cardinality of one infinite set is less than or greater than another infinite set?
- Can there be infinite sets whose cardinality lies between that of other infinite sets of distinct cardinalities?
- How does one construct “new” infinite sets?

These are very interesting questions with even more interesting answers. Unfortunately, the questions and answers will have to be left to another course.

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