Principle of Mathematical Induction Suppose that VneIN, S(n) is a logical statement, and that:

1) S(1) is true, and

2) Ynem, S(n) => S(n+1).

Then S(n) is true for all nEM.

So, to prove that S(n) is true, Y new:

Base case

Prove that S(1) is true.

Inductive step

Prove that, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, if S(n) is true then S(n+1) is true. (inductive hypothesis) Conclude that S(n) is true, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Possible modifications:

- If we want to prove that S(n) is

 true, $\forall n \ge b$, where $b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then

 for the base case we should prove

 that S(b) is true.
- · Sometimes you may need to establish more "base cases" to get the inductive step to work.
- For the inductive step, instead of proving

 (YneM, if S(n) is true,

 (weak induction)

 then S(n+1) is true,

 we could prove that

 (YneM, if S(m) is true, Y 1=m=n,

 then S(n+1) is true.

 (strong induction)

Well-ordering principle
Suppose A=N.

If A≠ø, then ∃n∈A s.t. Ym∈A, m≥n.

Every non-empty subset of IN has a smallest element.

Pf: Consider the contrapositive: (logically ~ (∃neA s.t. VmeA, m≥n) => A=\$\phi\$.

Equivalently:

YneA, ∃meA s.t. m<n ⇒ A= ø.

Suppose the statement on the left is true, and $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ let S(n) be the statement that $n \notin A$. To show that $A = \emptyset$ is the same as showing that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, S(n) is true.

We proceed by (strong) induction:

Base case: If IEA then, by assumption, Imal s.t. meA. However A=IN, so this is impossible. Therefore IEA, so S(1) is true.

Inductive step: Suppose that neW and that

S(m) is true, YI=m=n. (m&A, YI=m=n)

If n+I EA then, by assumption, I m<n+I

s.t. mEA. But then it must be the case

that I=m=n, which is a contradiction.

Therefore n+I&A, so S(n+I) is true.

Canclusion: YnEM, S(n) is true.

Therefore $A = \emptyset$.

Possible modifications

- Could assume that A ⊆ II, A≠Ø, and that
 ∃ X ∈ IR s.t. ∀n ∈ A, n ≥ x.
- Could assume that $A \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$, $A \neq \emptyset$, and that $\exists x \in \mathbb{R} \quad s.t. \quad \forall n \in A$, $n \subseteq x$, but then conclude that A has a largest element.

Division algorithm

Suppose that $a_1b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and that $b \neq 0$. Then there exist unique integers q and r with a=qb+r and $0 \leq r \leq |b|$ (quotient) (remainder)

Sketch of proof: (existence only)

Suppose b>0. Consider the set

 $A = \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : a - nb \ge 0 \}$

Then: · A = ø:

· if a > 0 then a - 0.b = a > 0, so 0 EA.

· if a<0 then a-ab=a(1-b)≥0, so a∈A.

· YneA, n & a.

By the Well Ordering Principle:

FREA s.t. YNEA, nEq.

(cont. on next page)

Let r= a-qb. Then:

· 9EA => 120.

· If r=b then

 $a - (q+1)b = (a-qb) - b = r-b \ge 0$

⇒ q+l∈A, which is a contradiction.

Therefore rcb.

Uniqueness:... 1

acd and lcm

If a,dEZL with d≠0, we say that d divides a, and write dla, if IqEZL s.t. a=qd.

Otherwise we write dra.

Facts: Suppose a, b & Z \ {0}. Then:

· There is a <u>unique</u> delN, called

the greatest common divisor of a and b,

with the following properties:

i) dla and dlb. (common divisor)

ii) If $e \in \mathbb{Z}$, ela, and elb, then eld. (greatest)

Notation: d = qcd(a,b) = (a,b).

Abbreviations: gcd, gcf, hcf.

· There is a unique LEIN, called

the <u>least common multiple</u> of a and b, with the following properties:

i) all and bll. (common multiple)

ii) If me I, alm, and blm, then llm. (least)

Notation: l= lcm(a,b)

Abbreviations: lcm=lcd

• |ab|= gcd(a,b). lcm(a,b)

Special case: If gcd(a,b)=| then |ab|=lcm(a,b).

(a and b are relatively prime)

Two ways to compute gcd (a,b):

· Factor a and b ... (no known "fast" algorithm)

· Use the Euclidean algorithm. (fast)

Observation: Suppose a, b = Ilo3 and write

a=qb+r, q,r&Z, 0≤r<161.

Then $(a_1b)=(b_1r)$.

Pf: Follows from the facts that

 $(a_1b)|a_1b \Rightarrow (a_1b)|a-qb=r \Rightarrow (a_1b)|(b_1r)$

and that

 $(b,r)|b_1r \Rightarrow (b,r)|qb+r=a \Rightarrow (b,r)|(a,b)$.

Euclidean algorithm

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Suppose a, b &ZL\ roJ. Compute
                         O < r < IPI (mrite 10= IPI)
  a= q, b+r, q, e7,
  b=q21,+12, q267, 0=12<1,
  1=9515+131 93EZL1 0=13<15
  (n-1= qn+1 [n+ [n+1) qn+1 E Z) O = (n+1 < [n
  rn= 9m2 rn+1) 9n+zEZ (stop as soon as you
                        get a remainder of 0).
 Then (a_1b)=(b_1r_1)=(r_1,r_2)=\cdots=(r_n,r_{n+1})=r_{n+1}.
Ex: a= 218683, b= 215221, compute (a,b).
        q=1.b+3462 (q_1=1, r_1=3462)
       b=62.3462+577 (q2=62, 12=577)
     3462 = 6.577 \qquad \left(q_3 = b, \text{ no remainder}\right)
         Conclusion: (a,b)=577.
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Note: a=379.577, b=373.577,
so this problem is much more difficult
to do by brute force factorization.

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An important corollary:

Bézout's lemma: Suppose a_1b\in\mathbb{Z}\setminus\{0\} and let d=\gcd(a_1b).

Then \{ak+bl: k,l\in\mathbb{Z}\}=\{qd:q\in\mathbb{Z}\}.

In particular,

\exists k_1l\in\mathbb{Z} \ s.t. \ ak+bl=d.
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How to find k, let s.t. ak+bl=d:

Ex:
$$a = 218683$$
, $b = 215221$, $(a_1b) = 577$.
 $a = 1 \cdot b + 3462$ $\Rightarrow b - 62(a - b) = -62 \cdot a + 63 \cdot b$
 $b = 62 \cdot 3462 + 577$ $577 = b - 62 \cdot 3462$

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

A prime number is an integer p>1 whose only positive divisors are I and p.

Theorem (FTAr): If n>1 is an integer

then there is a unique way of writing $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} ... p_F^{\alpha_F}$

where kEM, picpz c--- <pk are prime numbers, and q1, q2,..., qk EM.

Useful facts:

· If p is a prime number, a, b ∈ II, and plab, then pla or plb.

(not true if p > 1 is not prime)

· Suppose that picpz<...<pre>cpe are
primes and that

$$a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_{\ell}^{a_{\ell}} / a_1, \cdots, a_{\ell} \ge 0$$

$$b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_{\ell}^{b_{\ell}} / b_1, \cdots, b_{\ell} \ge 0.$$

Then:

ii)
$$lcm(a_1b) = p_1 max(a_1,b_1) max(a_2|b_2)$$
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