November 06, 2022

Algebra.

<u>Recap: Elements of number theory. Euclidean algorithm and greatest common</u> <u>divisor</u>.

Theorem 1 (division representation).

$$\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b > 0, \exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 \le r < b: a = bq + r$$

Proof. If a is *a* multiple of *b*, then $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}, r = 0 : a = bq = bq + r$. Otherwise, if a > 0, then $\exists q > 0 \in \mathbb{Z} : bq < a < b(q + 1)$, and $\exists r = a - bq \in \mathbb{Z} : 0 < r < b$. If a < 0, then $\exists q < 0 \in \mathbb{Z} : b(q - 1) < a < bq$, and $\exists r = a - b(q - 1) \in \mathbb{Z} : 0 < r < b$, which completes the proof.

Definition. A number $d \in \mathbb{Z}$ is a common divisor of two integer numbers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $\exists n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$: a = nd, b = md.

A set of all positive common divisors of the two numbers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ is limited because these divisors are smaller than the magnitude of the larger of the two numbers. The greatest of the divisors, d, is called the <u>greatest common divisor</u> (*gcd*) and denoted d = (a, b).

Definition. Two integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, are called <u>relatively prime</u> if they have no common divisor larger than 1, i. e. (a, b) = 1.

Theorem 2. $\forall a, b, q, r \in \mathbb{Z}, (a = bq + r) \Rightarrow ((a, b) = (b, r))$

Proof. Indeed, if *d* is a common divisor of $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $\exists n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$: $a = nd, b = md \Rightarrow r = a - bq = (n - mq)d$. Therefore, *d* is also a common divisor of *b* and r = a - bq. Conversely, if *d'* is a common divisor of *b* and r = a - bq, then $\exists n', m' \in \mathbb{Z}$: $b = m'd', a - bq = n'd' \Rightarrow a = (n' + m'q)d'$, so *d'* is a common divisor of *b* and *a*. Hence, the statement of the theorem is valid for any divisor of *a*, *b*, and for *gcd* in particular.

Corollary 1 (Euclidean algorithm). In order to find the greatest common divisor d = (a, b), one proceeds iteratively performing successive divisions,

$$\begin{split} a &= bq + r, (a, b) = (b, r) \\ b &= rq_1 + r_1, (b, r) = (r, r_1), \\ r &= r_1q_2 + r_2, (r, r_1) = (r_1, r_2), \\ r_1 &= r_2q_3 + r_3, (r_1, r_2) = (r_2, r_3), \dots, r_{n-1} = r_nq_{n+1} \\ b &> r_1 > r_2 > r_3 > \cdots r_n > 0 \Rightarrow \exists d \leq b, d = r_n = (a, b) \end{split}$$

The last positive remainder, r_n , in the sequence $\{r_k\}$ is (a, b), the *gcd* of the numbers *a* and *b*. Indeed, the Eucleadean algorithm ensures that

$$(a,b) = (b,r_1) = (r_1,r_2) = \dots = (r_{n-1},r_n) = (r_n,0) = r_n = d$$

Examples.

a.
$$(385,105) = (105,70) = (70,35) = (35,0) = 35$$

b. (513,304) = (304,209) = (209,95) = (95,19) = (19,0) = 19

Continued fraction representation. Using the Eucleadean algorithm, one can develop a continued fraction representation for rational numbers,

$$\frac{a}{b} = q + \frac{1}{q_1 + \frac{1}{q_2 + \frac{1}{\dots}}} + \frac{1}{\frac{1}{q_n + \frac{1}{q_{n+1}}}}$$

This is accomplished by successive substitution, which gives,

$$\frac{a}{b} = q + \frac{r}{b} = q + \frac{1}{\frac{b}{r}}, \frac{b}{r} = q_1 + \frac{r_1}{r} = q_1 + \frac{1}{\frac{r}{r_1}}, \frac{r}{r_1} = q_2 + \frac{1}{\frac{r_1}{r_2}}, \dots, \frac{r_{n-1}}{r_n} = q_{n+1}.$$

Exercise. Show the continued fraction representations for $\frac{385}{105}$, $\frac{513}{304}$, $\frac{105}{385}$, $\frac{304}{513}$.

Example. $\frac{105}{385} = \frac{1}{\frac{385}{105}} = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{\frac{105}{70}}} = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{70}}} = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1}}}$.

Corollary 2 (Diophantine equation). $(d = (a, b)) \Rightarrow (\exists k, l \in \mathbb{Z} : d = ka + lb)$

Proof. Consider the sequence of remainders in the Euclidean algorithm, r = a - bq, $r_1 = b - rq_1$, $r_2 = r - r_1q_2$, $r_3 = r_1 - r_2q_3$, ..., $r_n = r_{n-2} - r_{n-1}q_n$. Indeed, the successive substitution gives, r = a - bq, $r_1 = b - (a - bq)q_1 = k_1a + l_1b$, $r_2 = r - (k_1a + l_1b)q_2 = k_2a + l_2b$, ..., $r_n = r_{n-2} - (k_{n-1}a + l_{n-1}b)q_n = k_na + l_nb = d = (a, b)$.

It follows that if *d* is a common divisor of *a* and *b*, then equation ax + by = d, called the Diophantine equation, has solution for integer $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Exercise. Find the representation d = ka + lb for the pairs (385,105) and (513,304) considered in the above examples.

Recap: Elements of number theory. Modular arithmetic.

Definition. For $a, b, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, the congruence relation, $a \equiv b \mod n$, denotes that, a - b is a multiple of n, or, $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z}, a = nq + b$.

All integers congruent to a given number $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ with respect to a division by $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ form congruence classes, $[r]_n$. For example, for n = 3,

$$[0]_{3} = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\}$$
$$[1]_{3} = \{\dots, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots\}$$
$$[2]_{3} = \{\dots, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots\}$$
$$[3]_{3} = \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\} = [0]_{3}$$

There are exactly *n* congruence classes mod *n*, forming set Z_n . In the above example n = 3, the set of equivalence classes is $Z_3 = \{[0]_3, [1]_3, [2]_3\}$. For general *n*, the set is $Z_n = \{[0]_n, [1]_n, ..., [n-1]_n\}$, because $[n]_n = [0]_n$.

One can define addition and multiplication in Z_n in the usual way,

$$[a]_n + [b]_n = [a + b]_n$$
$$[a]_n \cdot [b]_n = [a \cdot b]_n$$
$$([a]_n)^p = [a^p]_n, p \in \mathbb{N}$$

Here the last relation for power follows from the definition of multiplication.

Exercise. Check that so defined operations do not depend on the choice of representatives *a*, *b* in each equivalence class.

Exercise. Check that so defined operations of addition and multiplication satisfy all the usual rules: associativity, commutativity, distributivity.

In general, however, it is impossible to define division in the usual way: for example, $[2]_6 \cdot [3]_6 = [6]_6 = [0]_6$, but one cannot divide both sides by $[3]_6$ to obtain $[2]_6 = [0]_6$. In other words, for general n an element $[a]_n$ of Z_n could give $[0]_n$ upon multiplication by some of the elements in Z_n and therefore would not have properties of an algebraic inverse, so there may exist elements in Z_n which do not have inverse. In practice, this means that if we try to define an inverse element, $[r^{-1}]_n$, to an element $[r]_n$ employing the usual relation, $[r]_n \cdot [r^{-1}]_n = [1]_n$, there might be no element $[r^{-1}]_n$ in class Z_n satisfying this equation. However, it is possible to define the inverse for some special values of r and n. The corresponding classes $[r]_n$ are called invertible in Z_n .

Definition. The congruence class $[r]_n \in Z_n$ is called invertible in Z_n , if there exists a class $[r^{-1}]_n \in Z_n$, such that $[r]_n \cdot [r^{-1}]_n = [1]_n$.

Theorem. Congruence class $[r]_n \in Z_n$ is invertible in Z_n , if and only if r and n are mutually prime, (r, n) = 1. Or, $\forall [r]_n, (\exists [r^{-1}]_n \in Z_n) \Leftrightarrow ((r, n) = 1)$.

To find the inverse of $[a] \in Z_n$, we have to solve the equation, ax + ny = 1, which can be done using Eucleadean algorithm. Then, $ax \equiv 1 \mod n$, and $[a]^{-1} = [x]$.

Examples.

3 is invertible mod 10, i. e. in Z_{10} , because $[3]_{10} \cdot [7]_{10} = [21]_{10} = [1]_{10}$, but is not invertible mod 9, i. e. in Z_9 , because $[3]_9 \cdot [3]_9 = [0]_9$.

7 is invertible in Z_{15} : $[7]_{15} \cdot [13]_{15} = [91]_{15} = [1]_{15}$, but is not invertible in Z_{14} : $[7]_{14} \cdot [2]_{14} = [14]_{14} = [0]_{14}$.