

## Algebra.

### Recap: Elements of number theory. Euclidean algorithm and greatest common divisor.

**Theorem 1** (division representation).

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

**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 greatest common divisor ( $gcd$ ) and denoted  $d = (a, b)$ .

**Definition.** Two integers  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , are called relatively prime 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  $b$  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,

$$\begin{aligned} a &= bq + r, (a, b) = (b, r) \\ b &= r_1q_1 + r_1, (b, r) = (r, r_1), \\ r &= r_1q_2 + r_2, (r, r_1) = (r_1, r_2), \\ r_1 &= r_2q_3 + r_3, (r_1, r_2) = (r_2, r_3), \dots, \\ r_{n-1} &= r_nq_{n+1}, (r_{n-1}, r_n) = (r_n, 0) \\ b > r_1 > r_2 > r_3 > \dots > r_n > 0 &\Rightarrow \exists d \leq b, d = r_n = (a, b) \end{aligned}$$

The last positive remainder,  $r_n$ , in the sequence  $\{r_k\}$  is  $(a, b)$ , the *gcd* of the numbers  $a$  and  $b$ . Indeed, the Euclidean 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 Euclidean algorithm, one can develop a continued fraction representation for rational numbers,

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

This is accomplished by successive substitution, which gives,

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

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

**Example.**  $\frac{105}{385} = \frac{1}{\frac{385}{105}} = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{105}{70}} = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\frac{70}{35}}}} = \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2}}}$ .

**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,  $r = a - bq, r_1 = b - r_1q_1, r_2 = r - r_1q_2, r_3 = r_1 - r_2q_3, \dots, r_n = r_{n-2} - r_{n-1}q_n$ .  
Indeed, the successive substitution gives,  $r = a - bq, r_1 = b - (a - bq)q_1 = k_1a + l_1b, r_2 = r - (k_1a + l_1b)q_2 = k_2a + l_2b, \dots, r_n = r_{n-2} - (k_{n-1}a + l_{n-1}b)q_n = k_na + l_nb = d = (a, b)$ .

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,  $a \equiv b \pmod n$ , 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  $n = 3$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} [0]_3 &= \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\} \\ [1]_3 &= \{\dots, -2, 1, 4, 7, \dots\} \\ [2]_3 &= \{\dots, -1, 2, 5, 8, \dots\} \\ [3]_3 &= \{\dots, -6, -3, 0, 3, 6, \dots\} = [0]_3 \end{aligned}$$

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  $Z_n = \{[0]_n, [1]_n, \dots, [n - 1]_n\}$ , 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 Euclidean algorithm. Then,  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ , 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  $Z_{14}$ :  $[7]_{14} \cdot [2]_{14} = [14]_{14} = [0]_{14}$ .