## 1. Divisibility. Unique Factorization Theorem

1.1. Definition. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ be two integers. We define

$$
x \mid y \quad \text { (read: } x \text { divides } y \text { ) }
$$

iff there exists an integer $q$ such that $y=q x$. We write $x \nmid y$, if this is not the case.
1.2. We list some simple properties of divisibility for numbers $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$.
i) $\quad(x|y \wedge y| z) \Longrightarrow x \mid z$.
ii) $\quad x \mid 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}$.
iii) $0 \mid x \Longrightarrow x=0$.
iv) $1 \mid x$ and $-1 \mid x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}$.
v) $\quad(x|y \wedge y| x) \Longrightarrow x= \pm y$.
1.3. Definition. A prime number is an integer $p \geq 2$ such that there doesn't exist any integer $x$ with $1<x<p$ and $x \mid p$.
So the only positive divisors of a prime number $p$ are 1 and $p$. Note that by definition 1 is not a prime number.

Every integer $x \geq 2$ is either a prime or a product of a finite number of primes. This can be easily proved by induction on $x$. The assertion is certainly true for $x=2$. Let now $x>2$, and assume that the assertion has already been proved for all integers $x^{\prime}<x$. If $x$ is a prime, we are done. Otherwise there exists a decomposition $x=y z$ with integers $2 \leq y, z<x$. By induction hypothesis, $y$ and $z$ can be written as products of primes

$$
y=\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}, \quad z=\prod_{j=1}^{m} q_{j}, \quad\left(m, n \geq 1, p_{i}, q_{j} \text { prime }\right)
$$

Multiplying these two formulas gives the desired prime factorization of $x$.
Using the convention that an empty product (with zero factors) equals 1 , we can state that any positive integer $x$ is a product of primes

$$
x=\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}, \quad n \geq 0, p_{i} \text { primes }
$$

We can now state and prove Euclid's famous theorem on the infinitude of primes.
1.4. Theorem (Euclid). There exist infinitely many prime numbers.

Proof. Assume to the contrary that there are only finitely many primes and that

$$
p_{1}:=2, p_{2}:=3, p_{3}, \ldots, p_{n}
$$

is a complete list of all primes. The integer

$$
x:=p_{1} \cdot p_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{n}+1
$$

must be a product of primes, hence must be divisible by at least one of the $p_{i}, i=$ $1, \ldots, n$. But this is impossible since

$$
\frac{x}{p_{i}}=(\text { integer })+\frac{1}{p_{i}}
$$

is not an integer. Hence the assumption is false and there exist infinitely many primes.
Whereas the existence of a prime factorization was easy to prove, the uniqueness is much harder. For this purpose we need some preparations.
1.5. Definition. Two integers $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ are called relatively prime or coprime (G. teilerfremd) if they are not both equal to 0 and there does not exist an integer $d>1$ with $d \mid x$ and $d \mid y$.
This is equivalent to saying that $x$ and $y$ have no common prime factor.
In particular, if $p$ is a prime and $x$ an integer with $p \nmid x$, then $p$ and $x$ are relatively prime.
1.6. Theorem. Two integers $x, y$ are coprime iff there exist integers $n, m$ such that

$$
n x+m y=1 .
$$

Proof. " $\Leftarrow$ " If $n x+m y=1$, every common divisor $d$ of $x$ and $y$ is also a divisor of 1 , hence $d= \pm 1$. So $x$ and $y$ are coprime.
" $\Rightarrow$ " Suppose that $x, y$ are coprime. Without loss of generality we may assume $x, y \geq 0$. We prove the theorem by induction on $\max (x, y)$.
The assertion is trivially true for $\max (x, y)=1$.
Let now $N:=\max (x, y)>1$ und suppose that the assertion has already been proved for all integers $x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}$ with $\max \left(x^{\prime}, y^{\prime}\right)<N$. Since $x, y$ are coprime, we have $x \neq y$, so we may suppose $0<x<y$. Then $(x, y-x)$ is a pair of coprime numbers with $\max (x, y-x)<N$. By induction hypothesis there exist integers $n, m$ with

$$
n x+m(y-x)=1,
$$

which implies $(n-m) x+m y=1$, q.e.d.
1.7. Theorem. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. If a prime $p$ divides the product $x y$, then $p \mid x$ or $p \mid y$.

Proof. If $p \mid x$, we are done. Otherwise $p$ and $x$ are coprime, hence there exist integers $n$, $m$ with $n p+m x=1$. Multiplying this equation by $y$ and using $x y=k p$ with an integer $k$, we obtain

$$
y=n p y+m x y=n p y+m k p=p(n y+m k) .
$$

This shows $p \mid y$, q.e.d.
1.8. Theorem (Unique factorization theorem). Every positive integer can be written as a (finite) product of prime numbers. This decomposition is unique up to order.
Proof. The existence of a prime factorization has already been proved, so it remains to show uniqueness. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=p_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{n}=q_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot q_{m} \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

be two prime factorizations of a positive integer $x$. We must show that $m=n$ and after rearrangement $p_{i}=q_{i}$ for all $i$. We may assume $n \leq m$. We prove the assertion by induction on $n$.
a) If $n=0$, it follows $x=1$ and $m=0$, hence the assertion is true in this case.
b) Induction step $n-1 \rightarrow n,(n \geq 1)$. We have $p_{1} \mid q_{1} \cdot \ldots \cdot q_{m}$, hence by theorem 1.7, $p_{1}$ must divide one of the factors $q_{i}$ and since $q_{i}$ is prime, we must have $p_{1}=q_{i}$. After reordering we may assume $i=1$. Dividing equation (*) by $p_{1}$ we get

$$
p_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot p_{n}=q_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot q_{m} .
$$

By induction hypothesis we have $n=m$ and, after reordering, $p_{i}=q_{i}$ for all $i$, q.e.d.
If we collect multiple occurrences of the same prime, we can write every positive integer in a unique way as

$$
x=\prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{i}^{e_{i}}, \quad p_{1}<p_{2}<\ldots<p_{n} \text { primes, } n \geq 0, e_{i}>0
$$

This is called the canonical prime factorization of $x$.
Sometimes a variant of this representation is useful. For an integer $x \neq 0$ and a prime $p$ we define

$$
\operatorname{ord}_{p}(x):=\sup \left\{e \in \mathbb{N}_{0}: p^{e} \mid x\right\}
$$

Then every nonzero integer $x$ can be written as

$$
x=\operatorname{sign}(x) \prod_{p} p^{\operatorname{ord}_{p}(x)}
$$

where the product is extended over all primes. Note that $\operatorname{ord}_{p}(x)=0$ for all but a finite number of primes, so there is no problem with the convergence of the infinite product.
1.9. Definition (Greatest common divisor). Let $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. An integer $d$ is called greatest common divisor of $x$ and $y$, if the following two conditions are satisfied:
i) $d$ ist a common divisor of $x$ and $y$, i.e. $d \mid x$ and $d \mid y$.
ii) If $d_{1}$ is any common divisor of $x$ and $y$, then $d_{1} \mid d$.

If $d_{1}$ and $d_{2}$ are two greatest common divisors of $x$ and $y$, then $d_{1} \mid d_{2}$ and $d_{2} \mid d_{1}$, hence by $1.2 . \mathrm{v}$ ) we have $d_{1}= \pm d_{2}$. Therefore the greatest common divisor is (in case of existence) uniquely determined up to sign. The positive one is denoted by $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)$. The existence can be seen using the prime factor decomposition. For $x \neq 0$ and $y \neq 0$,

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=\prod_{p} p^{\min \left(\operatorname{ord}_{p}(x), \operatorname{ord}_{p}(y)\right)}
$$

and $\operatorname{gcd}(x, 0)=\operatorname{gcd}(0, x)=|x|, \operatorname{gcd}(0,0)=0$.
Two integers $x, y$ are relatively prime iff $\operatorname{gcd}(x, y)=1$.
The following is a generalization of theorem 1.6.
1.10. Theorem. Let $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. An integer $d$ is greatest common divisor of $x$ and $y$ iff
i) $d$ is a common divisor of $x$ and $y$, and
ii) there exist integers $n$, $m$ such that

$$
n x+m y=d
$$

Proof. The case when at least one of $x, y$ equals 0 is trivial, so we may suppose $x \neq 0$, $y \neq 0$.
" $\Rightarrow$ " If $d$ is greatest common divisor of $x$ and $y$, then $x / d$ and $y / d$ are coprime, hence by theorem 1.6 there exist integers $n, m$ with

$$
n \frac{x}{d}+m \frac{y}{d}=1,
$$

which implies ii).
The implication " $\Leftarrow$ " is trivial.
1.11. Definition (Least common multiple). Let $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. An integer $m$ is called least common multiple of $x$ and $y$, if the following two conditions are satisfied:
i) $m$ ist a common multiple of $x$ and $y$, i.e. $x \mid m$ and $y \mid m$.
ii) If $m_{1}$ is any common multiple of $x$ and $y$, then $m \mid m_{1}$.

As in the case of the greatest common divisor, the least common multiple of $x$ and $y$ is uniquely determined up to sign. The positive one is denoted by $\operatorname{lcm}(x, y)$. For $x \neq 0$ and $y \neq 0$ the following equation holds

$$
\operatorname{lcm}(x, y)=\prod_{p} p^{\max (\operatorname{ord}(x), \operatorname{ord}(y))}
$$

and $\operatorname{lcm}(x, 0)=\operatorname{lcm}(0, x)=\operatorname{lcm}(0,0)=0$.
The definitions of the greatest common divisor and least common multiple can be extended in a straightforward way to more than two arguments. One has

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{gcd}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\operatorname{gcd}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right), x_{n}\right) \\
& \operatorname{lcm}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\operatorname{lcm}\left(\operatorname{lcm}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n-1}\right), x_{n}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

