The Division Algorithm

We all learned division with remainder at elementary school. Like 14 divided by 3 has reainder $2: 14 = 3 \cdot 4 + 2$. In general we have the following

Division Algorithm. Let *n* be any integer and d > 0 be a positive integer. Then you can divide *n* by *d* with remainder. That is

$$n = q \cdot d + r, 0 \le r < d$$

where q and r are uniquely determined.

Given *n* we determine how often *d* goes evenly into n. Say, if n = 16 and d = 3 then 3 goes 5 times into 16 but there is a remainder $1 : 16 = 5 \cdot 3 + 1$. This works for non-negative numbers. If n = -16 then in order to get a positive remainder, we have to go beyond $-16 : -16 = (-6) \cdot 3 + 2$.

Let *a* and *b* be integers. Then we say that *b* divides *a* if there is an integer *c* such that $a = b \cdot c$. We write b|a for *b* divides *a*

Examples: n|0 for every $n : 0 = n \cdot 0$; in particular 0|0. 1|n for every $n : n = 1 \cdot n$

Theorem. *Let a*, *b*, *c be any integers*.

(a) If a|b, and a|c then a|b+c

(b) If a|b then $a|b \cdot c$ for any c.

(c) If a|b and b|c then a|c.

(d) If a|b and a|c then $a|m \cdot b + n \cdot c$ for any integers *m* and *n*.

Proof. For (a) we note that $b = a \cdot s$ and $c = a \cdot t$ therefore $b + c = a \cdot s$ + $a \cdot t = a \cdot (s + t)$. Thus a + b + c. For (b) we note that $b = a \cdot s$ and therefore $b \cdot c = (a \cdot s) \cdot c = a \cdot (s \cdot c)$ from which we get $ab \cdot c$. For (c) we note that $b = a \cdot s$ and $c = b \cdot t$ thus $c = (a \cdot s) \cdot t = a \cdot (s \cdot t)$ which is a|cPart (d) follows from (b) and (a).

We see that a|b if in the division algorithm $b = q \cdot a + r$ one has that r = 0Let *a* and *b* be any integers and let m > 0 be a positive integer. We say that *a* is congruent to *b* modulo $m, a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, or $a \equiv_m b$, in case that

m|a-b

Clearly:

$$a \equiv_m a$$
; if $a \equiv_m b$ then $b \equiv_m a$; if $a \equiv_m b$ and $b \equiv_m c$ then $a \equiv_m c$

Being congruent is a reflexive, symmetric and transitive relation between integers. It is what is called an equivalence relation. It particles the integers into congruence classes: $[n]_m = \{a \mid a \equiv_m n\}$.

If
$$a = q \cdot m + r, 0 \le r < m$$

then

 $a \equiv_m r$

Indeed $a - r = q \cdot m$.

If according to the division algorithm one has that if $a = q_a \cdot m + r_a, b = q_b \cdot m + r_b$ then $r_a = r_b$ iff $a \equiv_m b$

The idea is that if two positive numbers, both less than m, are congruent modulo m, then they must be equal.

Now, if $r_a = r_b$ then $a - b = q_a \cdot m - q_b \cdot m = (q_a - q_b) \cdot m$, which shows that $a \equiv_m b$. If on the other hand, $a \equiv_m b$, then $r_a \equiv r_b$ shows that two numbers, both less than *m* are congruent, and by the remark above, they must be equal.

Any integer *a* is modulo *m* congruent to its remainder if divided by *m*. Thus there are *m*-many congruence classes accrding to possible remainders 0, 1, ..., m - 1.

For m = 1 we just get one class. Any number is divisible by 1, thus has remainder 0 if divided by 1. We get $[0]_1 = \mathbb{Z}$

For m = 2 we get two classes. Remainder 0 gives us the even numbers while remainder 1 yields the odd numbers. Thus $[0]_2 = 2\mathbb{Z}, [1]_2 = 2\mathbb{Z} + 1 = \{2n + 1 | n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$. We get three classes modulo 3 : $[0]_3 = 3\mathbb{Z}, [1]_3 = 3\mathbb{Z} + 1, [2]_3 = 3\mathbb{Z} + 2$ The (n - 1) -classes mod n are

 $[0]_n = n\mathbb{Z}, [1]_n = n\mathbb{Z} + 1, [2]_n = n\mathbb{Z} + 2, \dots, [n-1]_n = n\mathbb{Z} + (n-1)$