

Chapter 3

The integers

Recall that an abelian group is a set A with a special element 0 , and operation $+$ such that

$$\begin{aligned}x + 0 &= x \\x + y &= y + x \\x + (y + z) &= (x + y) + z\end{aligned}$$

every element x has an inverse $x + y = 0$

We also should recall that the inverse is unique, so we denote it by $-x$. We also define subtraction by $y - x = y + (-x)$. In this chapter, we look at the most important example which is the abelian group of integers $\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$. This can be characterized by some additional axioms. Let $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ be the subset of natural numbers. Then

1. If $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ then either $x \in \mathbb{N}$ or $-x \in \mathbb{N}$.
2. Both $x \in \mathbb{N}$ and $-x \in \mathbb{N}$ if and only if $x = 0$.
3. If $x \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y \in \mathbb{N}$, then $x + y \in \mathbb{N}$.
4. Mathematical induction: If $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ contains 0 and is closed under addition by 1 , then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

To appreciate what we can do with these axioms, let us define $x \leq y$ to mean that $y = x + z$ such that $z \in \mathbb{N}$. We can also define all the usual variants. For example $x < y$ means that $x \leq y$ and $x \neq y$.

Lemma 3.1. $x \leq y$ if and only if $y - x \in \mathbb{N}$.

Proof. Adding $-x$ to $y = x + z$ and using the associative and commutative laws shows that

$$y - x = (x + z) + (-x) = -x + (x + z) = (-x + x) + z = 0 + z = z$$

□

Theorem 3.2. *The relation \leq is a linear ordering, which means that it is*

1. *Reflexive: $x \leq x$*
2. *Antisymmetric: if $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$ then $x = y$*
3. *Transitive: if $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z$ then $x \leq z$*
4. *Linear: for any x, y , either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$.*

Proof. $x \leq x$ because $x = x + 0$.

Suppose that $x \leq y$ and $y \leq x$, then $x - y \in \mathbb{N}$ and $y - x \in \mathbb{N}$. But $y - x = -(x - y)$ (this requires a proof, but it will be relegated to the exercises). By our axioms for \mathbb{N} , this forces $x - y = 0$. So $x = y$.

If $x \leq y$ and $y \leq z$ then $y - x \in \mathbb{N}$ and $z - y \in \mathbb{N}$. This implies (by our axioms) that $(y - x) + (z - y) \in \mathbb{N}$. By the associative and commutative laws, we can rearrange this as

$$(y - x) + (z - y) = y - x + z - y = (y - y) + z - x = z - x$$

Thus $z - x \in \mathbb{N}$ which means that $x \leq z$.

Given x and y , either $x - y \in \mathbb{N}$ or $y - x \in \mathbb{N}$ by our axioms. So either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$. □

The induction axiom, which wasn't needed in the previous proof, is a very powerful tool that you have probably used before. It allows us to prove statements like

$$0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

To do this, let S be the set of natural numbers where this holds. Then certainly $0 \in S$. We can see that if $n \in S$ then $n + 1 \in S$ by adding $n + 1$ to both sides and simplifying to obtain

$$0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + n + (n + 1) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (n + 1) = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$

Thus $S = \mathbb{N}$. There a number of useful variants of induction.

Theorem 3.3 (Well ordering property). *Any nonempty subset $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ has a least element.*

Proof. Let M be the set of natural numbers so that $m \leq s$ for every $s \in S$. Then $0 \in M$. If $s \in S$ then $s + 1 \in M$. Therefore M cannot equal \mathbb{N} . So there exists a number $m \in M$ such that $m + 1 \notin M$. We have $m \leq s$ for all $s \in S$ by definition of M . However, $m \notin M$ so $m + 1 > s_0$ for some $s_0 \in S$. This forces $s_0 < m + 1 \leq s_0 + 1$ which is only possible if $m = s_0$. So to summarize $m \in S$ and $m \leq s$ for all s . Therefore m is the least element. □

Theorem 3.4 (Strong induction). *Suppose that $P \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is a subset such that $0 \in P$ and $n \in P$ whenever $0, 1, \dots, n - 1 \in P$ then $P = \mathbb{N}$.*

Proof. We prove this by contradiction. Suppose that $P \neq \mathbb{N}$. Then the complement $S = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid n \notin P\}$ is nonempty. Let s be the least element. Then $s \neq 0$ because $0 \in P$. Since s is the least element, all the numbers $0, 1, \dots, s-1 \in P$. But this implies that $s \in P$ which is a contradiction. \square

There is another kind of induction is very useful, and that is inductive or recursive definitions, where a function is defined in terms of its previous values. This often is used implicitly. For example the factorial

$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n = (1 \cdot 2 \cdots (n-1))n$$

is really short for the inductive definition

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Here is the general statement.

Theorem 3.5. *Given a set A , an element $a \in A$, and a function $g : \mathbb{N} \times A \rightarrow A$, there exists a unique function $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow A$ satisfying*

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } n = 0 \\ g(n, f(n-1)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Before giving the proof, we need to clarify exactly what a function is. Given sets X, Y , the cartesian product $X \times Y$ is the set of ordered pairs $\{(x, y) \mid x \in X, y \in Y\}$. A subset of $X \times Y$ is called a *relation*. We can identify a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ with its graph, which is the relation $\{(x, y) \mid y = f(x), x \in X\}$. Relations which arise from functions are very special.

Definition 3.6. *A subset $f \subset X \times Y$ is a function if for every $x \in X$ there is a unique $y \in Y$ such that $(x, y) \in f$. We then write $y = f(x)$.*

The key step to prove the theorem is the following.

Lemma 3.7. *Let A, a , and g be as above, then there exists a sequence of functions $f_n : \{0, 1, 2 \dots n\} \rightarrow A$ so that each f_n satisfies the conditions of the proposition, and such that f_n and f_{n-1} agree on their domains.*

Proof. We prove this by induction. Let $f_0(0) = a$. If f_n exists, then we define

$$f_{n+1}(x) = \begin{cases} f_n(x) & \text{if } x \leq n \\ g(n, f(n)) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

\square

Proof of theorem. Thinking of f_n as a subset $\{0, 1, \dots, n\} \times A$ we define $f = \bigcup_n f_n = f_0 \cup f_1 \cup \dots$. This determines a function which agrees with f_n on its domain. Therefore the theorem follows from the previous lemma. \square

Natural numbers are important because they can be used to count. Given a natural number $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let

$$[n] = \{x \in \mathbb{N} \mid x < n\} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$$

Let X be a set, then we say that X has n elements, or that X has cardinality n , or $|X| = n$ if there exists a one to one correspondence $f : [n] \rightarrow X$. (A one to one correspondence is the same thing as function which is one to one and onto.) If no such n exists, then we say that X is an infinite set. The first problem is to show that $|X|$ cannot have multiple values. This is guaranteed by the following:

Theorem 3.8. *If there exists a one to one correspondence $f : [n] \rightarrow [m]$, then $n = m$.*

Proof. We will prove this by induction on the minimum M of n and m . Suppose that M is zero. Then $n = 0$ or $m = 0$. If $n = 0$, then $[n] = \emptyset$, so that $f : \emptyset \rightarrow [m]$ is onto. It follows that $m = 0$. If $m = 0$, then $f^{-1} : \emptyset \rightarrow [n]$ is onto, so that $n = 0$.

Assume that $M > 0$ and that the theorem holds for $M - 1$. Then define $g : [n - 1] \rightarrow [m - 1]$ by

$$g(i) = \begin{cases} f(i) & \text{if } f(i) < f(n-1) \\ f(i) - 1 & \text{if } f(i) > f(n-1) \end{cases}$$

This is a one to one correspondence, therefore $m - 1 = n - 1$, which implies $m = n$. □

Proposition 3.9. *If a finite set X can be written as a union of two disjoint subsets $Y \cup Z$, then $|X| = |Y| + |Z|$. (Recall that $Y \cup Z = \{x \mid x \in Y \text{ or } x \in Z\}$, and disjoint means their intersection is empty.)*

Proof. Let $f : [n] \rightarrow Y$ and $g : [m] \rightarrow Z$ be one to one correspondences. Define $h : [n + m] \rightarrow X$ by

$$h(i) = \begin{cases} f(i) & \text{if } i < n \\ g(i - n) & \text{if } i \geq n \end{cases}$$

This is a one to one correspondence. □

A *partition* of X is a decomposition of X as a union of subsets $X = Y_1 \cup Y_2 \cup \dots \cup Y_n$ such that Y_i and Y_j are disjoint whenever $i \neq j$.

Corollary 3.10. *If $X = Y_1 \cup Y_2 \cup \dots \cup Y_n$ is a partition, then $|X| = |Y_1| + |Y_2| + \dots + |Y_n|$.*

Proof. We have that

$$|X| = |Y_1| + |Y_2 \cup \dots \cup Y_n| = |Y_1| + |Y_2| + |Y_3 \cup \dots \cup Y_n| = \dots = |Y_1| + |Y_2| + \dots + |Y_n|$$

□

Given a function $f : X \rightarrow Y$ and an element $y \in Y$, the preimage

$$f^{-1}(y) = \{x \in X \mid f(x) = y\}$$

Proposition 3.11. *If $f : X \rightarrow Y$ is a function, then*

$$|X| = \sum_{y \in Y} |f^{-1}(y)|$$

Proof. The collection $\{f^{-1}(y)\}$ forms a partition of X . □

Next consider the cartesian product of two finite sets.

Theorem 3.12. *If X and Y are finite sets, then $|X \times Y| = |X||Y|$.*

Proof. Let $p : X \times Y \rightarrow Y$ be the projection map defined by $p(x, y) = y$. Then

$$p^{-1}(y) = \{(x, y) \mid x \in X\}$$

and $(x, y) \rightarrow x$ gives a one to one correspondence to X . Therefore, by the previous corollary,

$$|X \times Y| = \sum_{y \in Y} |p^{-1}(y)| = |Y||X|$$

□

Finally, we are ready to tie up a loose end from before.

Theorem 3.13. $|S_n| = n!$

Proof. The intuitive argument is that to specify a permutation,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ n \text{ choices} & n-1 \text{ choices} & \dots & 1 \text{ choice} \end{pmatrix}$$

we make $n(n-1)\dots 1 = n!$ choices. We will turn this into a rigorous proof using induction on n starting from $n = 1$. The case $n = 1$ is clear because the identity $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is the only permutation.

Now assume that the theorem holds for $n - 1$, i.e. that $|S_{n-1}| = (n - 1)!$. Consider the map $\phi : S_n \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$ sending f to $f(n)$. We claim that there is a one to one to correspondence between $\phi^{-1}(i)$ and S_{n-1} for any $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Assuming the claim, we are done because proposition 3.11 implies that

$$|S_n| = \sum_{i=1}^n |\phi^{-1}(i)| = \sum_{i=1}^n (n-1)! = n(n-1)! = n!$$

It now remains to prove the claim. To start off, consider $\phi^{-1}(n)$. This is the set of permutations $f \in S_n$ of the form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & n-1 & n \\ f(1) & \dots & f(n-1) & n \end{pmatrix}$$

Removing the last column $\begin{pmatrix} n \\ n \end{pmatrix}$ gives a permutation of $1, \dots, n-1$. Conversely, adding this column to a permutation in S_{n-1} yields an element of $\phi^{-1}(n)$. So we have a one to one correspondence between $\phi^{-1}(n)$ and S_{n-1} as claimed. The general case is similar but a bit messier to write out. Given i , let

$$g(k) = \begin{cases} k & \text{if } k < i \\ k-1 & \text{if } k \geq i \end{cases}$$

We define a function from $\phi^{-1}(i) \rightarrow S_{n-1}$ defined by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & n-1 & n \\ f(1) & \dots & f(n-1) & i \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & n-1 \\ g(f(1)) & \dots & g(f(n-1)) \end{pmatrix}$$

can be seen to be a one to one correspondence. □

3.14 Exercises

1. Given integers a, b, c, d such that $a \leq b$ and $c \leq d$ prove that $a + c \leq b + d$.
2. Given an abelian group A , an element $a \in A$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we define $n \cdot a = a + a + \dots$ (n times) by induction. To make this a bit clearer, write this as $m_a(n)$ temporarily. Then

$$m_a(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ a + m_a(n-1) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Prove one of the distributive laws $n(a+b) = na + nb$, or equivalently that $m_{a+b}(n) = m_a(n) + m_b(n)$, by induction on n .

3. Given finite sets Y, Z . Prove that $|Y \cup Z| = |Y| + |Z| - |Y \cap Z|$. Recall that the intersection $Y \cap Z = \{x \mid x \in Y \text{ and } x \in Z\}$.
4. If $B \subseteq A$, prove that $|A - B| = |A| - |B|$, where $A - B = \{a \mid a \in A \text{ and } a \notin B\}$. Use this to prove that the set of distinct pairs $\{(x_1, x_2) \in X \times X \mid x_1 \neq x_2\}$ has $|X|^2 - |X|$ elements.
5. We can use the above counting formulas to solve simple exercises in probability theory. Suppose that a 6 sided dice is rolled twice. There are $6 \times 6 = 36$ possible outcomes. Given a subset S of these outcomes, called an *event*, the probability of S occurring is $|S|/36$.
 - a) What is the probability that a five or six is obtained on the first roll?
 - b) What is the probability that a five or six is obtained in either (or both) roll(s)?
 - c) What is probability that the same number is rolled twice?
 - d) What is probability that different numbers be obtained for each roll?

It's important that you explain how you got your answers.