

# CMSC 250H - UPF, Primality in Domains, Relations

March 4, 2026

## Theorem

$\sqrt{7}$  is irrational

## Proof.

We use unique factorization. Assume  $\sqrt{7}$  is rational. Then, we can write

$$\sqrt{7} = \frac{a}{b} \implies 7b^2 = a^2$$

for coprime integers  $a$  and  $b$ . Let  $p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$  be the prime factors of either  $a$  or  $b$ . That is:

$$a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_k^{a_k}$$

$$b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_k^{b_k}$$



# Last Lecture

## Theorem

$\sqrt{7}$  is irrational

## Proof.

We substitute the prime factors in

$$7 \cdot (p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_k^{b_k})^2 = (p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_k^{a_k})^2 \implies$$

$$7 \cdot p_1^{2b_1} p_2^{2b_2} \dots p_k^{2b_k} = p_1^{2a_1} p_2^{2a_2} \dots p_k^{2a_k}$$

Let  $p_i = 7$ . Observe the exponent of  $p_i$  on the right hand side and left hand side:

$$2b_i + 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 2a_i$$

One is odd and one is even. This contradicts unique factorization. □

# Last Lecture

Showing primality in  $\mathbb{D} = \{a + b\sqrt{-5} : a, b \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

## Lemma

*The norm of an element  $x \in \mathbb{D}$  is never 2, that is*

$$N(x) \neq 2$$

*for all  $x \in \mathbb{D}$*

## Proof.

We know  $x = a + b\sqrt{-5}$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . So

$$N(x) = a^2 + 5b^2$$



$$N(x) \neq 2$$

Proof.

Take the equation mod 5

$$a^2 + 5b^2 \pmod{5} \equiv a^2 \pmod{5}$$

So we need  $a^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ . Consider the squares mod 5. Then

$$0^2 \equiv 0, 1^2 \equiv 1, 2^2 \equiv 4, 3^2 \equiv 4, 4^2 \equiv 1$$

No square ever is 2! So  $N(x)$  cannot be 2. □

# Back to Primality in $\mathbb{D}$

## Theorem

*2 is prime in  $\mathbb{D}$*

## Proof.

If 2 is composite in  $D$  then we write  $2 = xy$  for some  $x, y \in \mathbb{D}$ .  
Taking the norm

$$N(2) = N(xy) = N(x)N(y)$$

Recall  $N(2) = 2^2 + 0 \cdot 5 = 4$ . So, either

- 1  $N(x)$  and  $N(y)$  is 2 – not possible by Lemma
- 2 One of  $N(x)$  and  $N(y)$  is 1, the other is 4.

So it must be prime. □

Similar procedure for 3.

# General Procedure

## Goal

Prove a prime  $p$  in  $\mathbb{N}$  is prime in  $\mathbb{D}$

## Idea

Write  $p$  as a factor of 2 elements

$$p = x \cdot y$$

with  $x, y \in \mathbb{D}$ . Since  $x, y \in \mathbb{D}$ , we have

$$x = a + b\sqrt{-5} \quad \text{and} \quad y = c + d\sqrt{-5}$$

for integers  $a, b, c, d$ .

# General Procedure

## Goal

Prove a prime  $p$  in  $\mathbb{N}$  is prime in  $\mathbb{D}$

## Idea

Take the norm

$$N(p) = p^2 = N(x)N(y) = (a^2 + 5b^2)(c^2 + 5d^2)$$

Check  $0 \leq a, b, c, d \leq p$  that satisfy the equation. Check to see if  $a + b\sqrt{-5}$  is a unit. If there is a satisfying  $a, b, c, d$  such that this is not the case, then it is not prime.

# Primes are Infinite

## Proof.

Assume to the contrary that they are finite. Then we can order them  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$ . Consider the product,  $N$ , of all primes plus 1:

$$N = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot \dots \cdot p_k + 1$$

If  $N$  is prime, then we have just found a prime that was not in our previous list of all primes, a contradiction.

If  $N$  is composite, then it has a prime factor, say  $p_N$ . However,  $p_N \neq p_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq k$ , since dividing  $N$  by any  $p_i$  results in a remainder of 1. So  $p_N$  must be a prime that is not on our list, a contradiction.

In either case, we show that the primes must be infinite. □

# Relations

In math, there is an endless number of ways two entities can be related to each other

①  $6 \in \mathbb{Z}$

②  $6 < 10$

③  $X \subseteq Y$

④  $5 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$

⑤  $3 \nmid 8$

We have a symbol in between two mathematical objects. This symbol is called a relation.

## Definition

A relation  $R \subseteq A \times A$ . We often say  $(x, y) \in R$  or use the notation  $xRy$ .

The elements of  $A$  are paired together in  $R$  if  $x \sim y$  ( $x$  is related to  $y$ ).  
An example: for  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  consider

$$R = \{(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4), (1, 5), (2, 3), (2, 4), (2, 5), (3, 4), (3, 5), (4, 5)\}$$

What mathematical relation does this set represent?

# Properties of Relations

- 1 A relation is **reflexive** if  $xRx$  (or equivalently  $(x, x) \in R$ ) for all  $a \in A$
- 2 A relation is **symmetric** if  $xRy$  implies  $yRx$  for all  $x, y \in A$
- 3 A relation is **transitive** if when  $xRy$  and  $yRz$ , then  $xRz$  for all  $x, y, z \in A$

# Equivalence Relations and Equivalence Classes

## Definition

A relation  $R$  is an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

## Definition

Suppose  $R$  is an equivalence relation on a set  $A$ . Given an element  $a \in A$ , the equivalence class containing  $a$  is the subset

$$\{x \in A : xRa\}$$

of  $A$  consisting of all elements of  $A$  that relate to  $a$ . We sometimes denote it  $[a]$

# Example

Is  $\geq$  an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ ?

# Example

Is  $\geq$  an equivalence relation on  $\mathbb{Z}$ ?

**Answer:** No, it is not symmetric since if  $x \geq y$ , it could be that  $y \not\geq x$

# Example

How about mod 5 on  $\mathbb{Z}$ ?

**Answer:** Yes! The modular operation itself is an equivalence relation! We call the equivalence classes of modular arithmetic, **residue classes**, since they represent the remainder for integer division

## Theorem

*Let  $R$  be an equivalence relation on the set  $A$ . Then, for elements  $a, b \in A$ ,  $[a] = [b]$  if and only if  $aRb$ .*

Try proving it yourself! Remember this is a **bi-implication** so we need to prove both directions of the statement.

# Equivalence Classes

Proof.

$$\text{i) } [a] = [b] \implies aRb$$

Since we know that  $a \in [a]$  and  $b \in [b]$ , since  $[a] = [b]$ , then  $a \in [b]$  and  $b \in [a]$ . So  $aRb$ , and  $bRa$ .

$$\text{ii) } aRb \implies [a] = [b]$$

Suppose  $c \in [a]$ . Then we know that  $cRa$ . Since  $aRb$  and  $R$  is an equivalence relation, by transitivity  $cRb$ . But, then that means every element  $c \in [a]$  is contained in  $[b]$ . Hence,  $[a] \subseteq [b]$ . The same argument can be used to show  $[b] \subseteq [a]$ , establishing  $[a] = [b]$   $\square$

## Definition

A partition of a set  $A$  is a set of subsets  $\{A_i : A_i \subseteq A\}$  of  $A$  that union to form  $A$ , with each element being in one unique subset. That is

$$\bigcup_i A_i = A \quad \text{with} \quad A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$$

for all  $i < j$

Example: For  $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$

$$A_1 = \{1\}, A_2 = \{4, 5\}, A_3 = \{2, 3\}$$

is partition of  $A$  of size 3.

# Equivalence Classes and Partitions

## Theorem

*The equivalence classes of an equivalence relation,  $R$ , on a set  $A$ , form a partition of  $A$ .*

## Proof.

Exercise for you! Not too bad. Need to show two things:

- 1  $A = \bigcup_{a \in A} [a]$
- 2 For any  $a \neq b$ ,  $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$

