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Number Theory, Lecture 1

Integers, Divisibility, Primes

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Definition

- $\mathbb{Z} = \{0, 1, -1, 2, -2, 3, -3, \dots\}$
- $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$
- $\mathbb{P} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

Unless otherwise stated, $a, b, c, x, y, r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$, $n, m \in \mathbb{P}$.

Definition

$a|b$ if exists c s.t. $b = ac$.

Example

$3|12$ since $12 = 3 * 4$.

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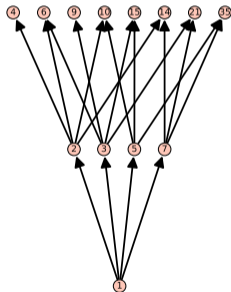
Lemma

- $a|0$,
- $0|a \iff a = 0$,
- $1|a$,
- $a|1 \iff a = \pm 1$,
- $a|b \wedge b|a \iff a = \pm b$
- $a|b \iff -a|b \iff a| -b$
- $a|b \wedge a|c \implies a|(b + c)$,
- $a|b \implies a|bc$.

Theorem

Restricted to \mathbb{P} , divisibility is a partial order, with unique minimal element 1.

Part of Hasse diagram



Id est,

① $a|a$,

② $a|b \wedge b|c \implies a|c$,

③ $a|b \wedge b|a \implies a = b$.

Definition

$n \in \mathbb{P}$ is a prime number if

- $n > 1$,
- $m|n \implies m \in \{1, n\}$

(positive divisors, of course $-1, -n$ also divisors)

2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, ...

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Theorem

$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0$. Then exists unique k, r , quotient and remainder, such that

- $a = kb + r$,
- $0 \leq r < b$.

Example

$$-27 = (-6) * 5 + 3.$$

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Suppose $a, b > 0$. Fix b , induction over a , base case $a < b$, then

$$a = 0 * b + a.$$

Otherwise

$$a = (a - b) + b$$

and ind. hyp. gives

$$a - b = k'b + r', \quad 0 \leq r' < b$$

so

$$a = b + k'b + r' = (1 + k')b + r'.$$

Take $k = 1 + k'$, $r = r'$.

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If

$$a = k_1b + r_1 = k_2b + r_2, \quad 0 \leq r_1, r_2 < b$$

then

$$0 = a - a = (k_1 - k_2)b + r_1 - r_2$$

hence

$$(k_1 - k_2)b = r_2 - r_1$$

$|RHS| < b$, so $|LHS| < b$, hence $k_1 = k_2$. But then $r_1 = r_2$.

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Example

$$a = 23, b = 5.$$

$$\begin{aligned} 23 &= 5 + (23 - 5) = 5 + 18 \\ &= 5 + 5 + (18 - 5) = 2 * 5 + 13 \\ &= 2 * 5 + 5 + (13 - 5) = 3 * 5 + 8 \\ &= 3 * 5 + 5 + (8 - 5) = 4 * 5 + 3 \end{aligned}$$

$$k = 4, r = 3.$$

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Definition

$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. The greatest common divisor of a and b , $c = \gcd(a, b)$, is defined by

- 1 $c|a \wedge c|b$,
- 2 If $d|a \wedge d|b$, then $d \leq c$.

If we restrict to \mathbb{P} , the the last condition can be replaced with

- 2' If $d|a \wedge d|b$, then $d|c$.

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Theorem (Bezout)

Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then exists (not unique) $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that

$$ax + by = d.$$

Proof.

$S = \{ax + by \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$, $d = \min S \cap \mathbb{P}$. If $t \in S$, then $t = kd + r$, $0 \leq r < d$. So $r = t - kd \in S \cap \mathbb{N}$. Minimality of d , $r < d$ gives $r = 0$. So $d \mid t$.

But $a, b \in S$, so $d \mid a$, $d \mid b$, and if ℓ another common divisor then $a = \ell u$, $b = \ell v$, and

$$d = ax + by = \ell ux + \ell vy = \ell(ux + vy)$$

so $\ell \mid d$. Hence d is **greatest** common divisor. □

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Lemma

If $a = kb + r$ then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Proof.

If $c|a$, $c|b$ then $c|r$.

If $c|b$, $c|r$ then $c|a$.



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$$27 = 3 * 7 + 6$$

$$7 = 1 * 6 + 1$$

$$6 = 6 * 1 + 0$$

$$6 = 1 * 27 - 3 * 7$$

$$1 = 7 - 1 * 6$$

$$= 7 - (27 - 3 * 7)$$

$$= (-1) * 27 + 4 * 7$$

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Algorithm

- 1 Initialize: Set $x = 1, y = 0, r = 0, s = 1$.
- 2 Finished?: If $b = 0$, set $d = a$ and terminate.
- 3 Quotient and Remainder: Use Division algorithm to write $a = qb + c$ with $0 \leq c < b$.
- 4 Shift: Set $(a, b, r, s, x, y) = (b, c, x - qr, y - qs, r, s)$ and go to Step 2.

Lemma

$$\gcd(an, bn) = |n| \gcd(a, b).$$

Proof

Assume $a, b, n \in \mathbb{P}$. Induct on $a + b$. Basis: $a = b = 1$, $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, $\gcd(an, bn) = n$, OK.

Ind. step: $a + b > 2$, $a \geq b$.

$$a = kb + r, \quad 0 \leq r < b$$

If $k = 0$, OK. Assume $k > 0$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\gcd(a, b) &= \gcd(b, r) \\ \gcd(an, bn) &= \gcd(bn, rn)\end{aligned}$$

since

$$an = kbn + rn, \quad 0 \leq rn < bn.$$

But

$$b + r = b + (a - kb) = a - b(k - 1) \leq a < a + b,$$

so ind. hyp. gives

$$n \gcd(b, r) = \gcd(bn, rn).$$

But $LHS = n \gcd(a, b)$, $RHS = \gcd(an, bn)$.

Lemma

If $a|bc$ and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ then $a|c$.

Proof.

$$1 = ax + by,$$

so

$$c = axc + byc.$$

Since $a|RHS$, $a|c$.



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Lemma

p prime, $p|ab$. Then $p|a$ or $p|b$.

Proof.

If $p \nmid a$ then $\gcd(p, a) = 1$. Thus $p|b$ by previous lemma. □

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Theorem (Euclides)

Every n is a product of primes. There are infinitely many primes.

Proof.

1 is regarded as the empty product. Ind on n . If n prime, OK. Otherwise, $n = ab$, $a, b < n$. So a, b product of primes. Combine.

Suppose p_1, p_2, \dots, p_s are known primes. Put

$$N = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_s + 1,$$

then $N = kp_i + 1$ for all known primes, so no known prime divide N . But N is a product of primes, so either prime, or product of unknown primes. □

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Example

$$2 * 3 * 5 + 1 = 31$$

$$2 * 3 * 5 * 7 + 1 = 211$$

$$2 * 3 * 5 * 7 * 11 * 13 + 1 = 59 * 509$$

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Theorem

For any $n \in \mathbb{P}$, can uniquely (up to reordering) write

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_s, \quad p_i \text{ prime .}$$

Proof.

Existence, Euclides. Uniqueness: suppose

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_s = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_r.$$

Since $p_1 | n$, we have $p_1 | q_1 q_2 \cdots q_r$, which by lemma yields $p_1 | q_j$ some q_j , hence $p_1 = q_j$. Cancel and continue. □

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- Number the primes in increasing order, $p_1 = 2, p_2 = 3, p_3 = 5$, et cetera.
- Then $n = \prod_{j=1}^{\infty} p_j^{a_j}$, all but finitely many a_j zero.
- Let $v(n) = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots)$ be this integer sequence.
- Then $v(nm) = v(n) + v(m)$.
- Order componentwise, then $n|m \iff v(n) \leq v(m)$.
- Have $v(\gcd(n, m)) = \min(v(n), v(m))$.

Example

$$\begin{aligned}
 \gcd(100, 130) &= \gcd(2^2 * 5^2, 2 * 5 * 13) \\
 &= 2^{\min(2,1)} * 5^{\min(2,1)} * 13^{\min(0,1)} \\
 &= 2^1 * 5^1 * 13^0 \\
 &= 10
 \end{aligned}$$

Definition

- $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$
- $m = \text{lcm}(a, b)$ least common multiple if
 - ① $m = ax = by$ (common multiple)
 - ② If n common multiple of a, b then $m|n$

Lemma (Easy)

- $a, b \in \mathbb{P}, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$
- $\text{lcm}(\prod_j p_j^{a_j}, \prod_j p_j^{b_j}) = \prod_j p_j^{\max(a_j, b_j)}$
- $ab = \text{gcd}(a, b)\text{lcm}(a, b)$
- If $a|c$ and $b|c$ then $\text{lcm}(a, b)|c$
- If $c \equiv d \pmod{a}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{b}$ then $c \equiv d \pmod{\text{lcm}(a, b)}$

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Algorithm

- Given N , find all primes $\leq N$
- $X = [2, N]$, $i = 1$, $P = \emptyset$
- $p_i = \min(X)$.
- Remove multiples of p_i from X
- $P = P \cup \{p_i\}$
- If $p_i \geq \sqrt{N}$, then terminate, otherwise $i = i + 1$, goto 3.

1	(2)	(3)	4	(5)	6	(7)	8	9	10
(11)	12	(13)	14	15	16	(17)	18	(19)	20
21	22	(23)	24	25	26	27	28	(29)	30
(31)	32	33	34	35	36	(37)	38	39	40
(41)	42	(43)	44	45	46	(47)	48	49	50
51	52	(53)	54	55	56	57	58	(59)	60
(61)	62	63	64	65	66	(67)	68	69	70
(71)	72	(73)	74	75	76	77	78	(79)	80
81	82	(83)	84	85	86	87	88	(89)	90
91	92	93	94	95	96	(97)	98	99	100

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- Any number have remainder 0,1,2, or 3, when divided by 4
- Except for 2, all primes are odd
- Thus, primes > 2 are either of the form $4n + 1$ or $4n + 3$
- $4n + 3 = 4(n + 1) - 1 = 4m - 1$.

Theorem

There are infinitely many primes of the form $4m - 1$.

Proof.

Let q_1, \dots, q_r be the known such primes, put

$$N = 4q_1q_2 \cdots q_r - 1$$

Then N odd, not divisible by any q_j . Factor N into primes:

$$N = u_1u_2 \cdots u_s$$

If all $u_i = 4m_i + 1$ then

$$N = (4m_1 + 1)(4m_2 + 1) \cdots (4m_s + 1) = 4m + 1,$$

a contradiction. So some $u_j = 4m_j - 1$, $u_j | N$ so $u_j \notin \{q_1, \dots, q_r\}$, hence new. \square

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Theorem (Dirichlet)

$a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. Then $a\mathbb{Z} + b$ contains infinitely many primes.

Example

Obviously $6\mathbb{Z} + 3$ contains only one prime, 3, so condition necessary.

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