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## MATH 342 Number Theory

Number theory is about integers. At least, that is the main focus. Other types of numbers come in, and generate studies in their own right, but often the original reason for introducing them was to gain insight into problems about integers.

What questions are asked in number theory?

Questions about prime numbers, in particular, their distribution

Questions about polynomial equations (usually in several variables) with integer coefficients: are there solutions, and if so, how many.

### Examples of questions

Are there infinitely many primes? (Yes!)

Are there infinitely many pairs of consecutive odd integers which are prime? (Unknown! Twin Prime Conjecture)

What integers can be written as the sum of two squares of integers? (Will discuss later)

What numbers can be written as the sum of two positive primes? (Unknown! Goldbach Conjecture)

### Review of Basic Material

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$$

integers

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

natural numbers

$$\mathbb{Z}_+ = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$

strictly positive integers.

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## Arithmetic

The sum or product of two integers (or natural numbers, or elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ ) is ~~another~~ integer (or natural number, or elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ )

The difference of two integers is an integer.

These arithmetic operations satisfy a number of laws.

Addition and multiplication are both associative:

$$(m+n)+p = m+(n+p) \quad \forall m, n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$(m \cdot n) \cdot p = m \cdot (n \cdot p) \quad \forall m, n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$$

and commutative:

$$m+n = n+m \quad \forall m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$m \cdot n = n \cdot m \quad \forall m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

A distributive law holds:

$$m \cdot (n+p) = (m \cdot n) + (m \cdot p) \quad \forall m, n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$$

There is also an order and modulus

$$m \leq m \cdot n \quad \forall m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$$

$$\text{and } m \leq m \cdot n \quad \forall m \in \mathbb{Z}_+, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+ \text{ with } n \geq 2$$

$$|n| = \begin{cases} n & \text{if } n \geq 0 \\ -n & \text{if } n < 0 \end{cases} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Divisors For  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we say  $m$  divides  $n$  if

$$n = km \quad \text{for } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

This is written  $m | n$ . We also say  $m$  is a divisor of  $n$

eg.  $2 | 4$     $2 \nmid 3$    and for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ :

$$n | 0, \quad n | \pm n, \quad 1 | n.$$

We say " $\mathbb{Z}$  has no zero divisors" meaning that if  $0 = mn$

$$\text{for } m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ then } m = 0 \text{ or } n = 0.$$

## Primes

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$p \in \mathbb{Z}$  is prime if  $p \neq 0$ ,  $p \neq \pm 1$  and the only divisors of  $p$  are  $\pm 1$ ,  $\pm p$ .

Examples 2 and 3 are prime. 4 is not.

### Euclidean property

$\mathbb{Z}$  is a Euclidean domain. It has the Euclidean property with modulus as the Euclidean valuation

$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $\forall m \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $0 \leq r < |m|$  such that

$$n = qm + r$$

### Greatest common divisor

Let  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ . The g.c.d. of  $m$  and  $n$  is the largest  $d \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that  $d|m$  and  $d|n$ .  
We can also say that  $-d$  is "the" g.c.d. of  $m$  and  $n$ , or that  $\pm d$  is the g.c.d.

Euclidean property has important consequences.

Theorem If  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ , the g.c.d. of  $m$  and  $n$  is the smallest integer element of  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  of the form  $am + bn$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof. Clearly such an integer exists. Call it  $d = am + bn$

If  $d \nmid m$  then  $m = qd + r$  for  $1 \leq r < d$

$$r = m - q(am + bn) = (1 - qa)m + (-qb)n < d \quad \times$$

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Corollary Every other divisor of  $mn$  divides  $d = cm + kn$

Corollary If  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$  then  $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $am + bn = 1$

Corollary If  $m, p, n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p | mn$  then  $p | n$

Proof  $\gcd(m, p) = 1 \Rightarrow \exists c, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $cm + bp = 1$

$n = (cm + bp)n = a(mn) + (bn)p$  is divisible by  $p$

Corollary  $p$  is prime  $\Leftrightarrow p \neq 0, \pm 1$  and whenever  $p | mn$  then  $p | m$  or  $p | n$ .

Proof  $\Leftarrow p = mn \Rightarrow p | m$  or  $p | n \Rightarrow p = \pm m$  and  $n = \pm 1$  or  $p = \pm n$  or  $m = \pm 1$

$\Rightarrow p | mn$  and  $p \nmid m \Rightarrow \gcd(p, m) = 1 \Rightarrow p | n$

Corollary The lowest common multiple  $l$  of  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  is  $\pm \frac{mn}{d}$  where  $d = \gcd(m, n)$

Proof  $m = dm_1$  and  $n = dn_1$  with  $\gcd(m_1, n_1) = 1$

Both  $m$  and  $n$  divide  $m_1 n_1 d = \frac{mn}{d}$

Suppose both  $m$  and  $n$  divide  $mn_2 = m_1 d n_2$

$n = n_1 d | m_1 d n_2 \Rightarrow n_1 | m_1 n_2 \Rightarrow m_1 | n_2 \Rightarrow m_1 n_1 d | m n_2$

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# Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, n \geq 2$ . Then  $\exists k, \beta \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , primes  $p_i \in \mathbb{Z}_+ (1 \leq i \leq k)$  and  $r_i \in \mathbb{Z}_+ (1 \leq i \leq k)$  s.t.

$$n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i} \quad \text{--- } k, p_i, r_i \text{ are unique given } n.$$

Proof By induction on  $n$ . Uniqueness uses: if  $p$  is prime and  $p|n_1 n_2$  then  $p|n_1$  or  $p|n_2$ .

Examples  $135 = 3^3 \times 5$   $136 = 17 \times 2^3$   $137$  is prime

Application If  $m = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i}$  and  $n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{s_i}$  for

$$r_i, s_i \in \mathbb{N} \text{ then } \gcd(m, n) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{\min(r_i, s_i)}$$
$$\text{lcm}(m, n) = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{\max(r_i, s_i)}$$

Application If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  is not of the form  $k^2 (k \in \mathbb{Z}_+)$  then there do not exist  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  s.t.

$$a^2 = n b^2$$

Proof  $a = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{2r_i}$   $b = \prod_{i=1}^k q_i^{2s_i}$

$$\prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{2r_i} = n \prod_{i=1}^l q_i^{2s_i} \Rightarrow n \text{ must be a product of even powers of primes } \{X_i\}$$

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Application If  $n = \prod_{i=1}^k p_i^{r_i}$  for distinct

primes  $p_i$  then the number of divisors of  $n$  is

$$\prod_{i=1}^k (r_i + 1)$$

Example  $135 = 3^3 \times 5$ . So the number of divisors

is  $4 \times 2 = 8$

Solving linear equations over  $\mathbb{Z}$

If  $a \neq 0$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  then

$ax = b$  has a solution  $x \in \mathbb{Z} \iff a | b$  and

then the solution is unique

If  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $a \neq 0, b \neq 0$ , the equation

$ax + by = c$  has solutions  $x \in \mathbb{Z}, y \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\iff \gcd(a, b) | c$$

If  $c = kg$  then  $\exists x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.

$$ax_0 + by_0 = g$$

$x_1 = kx_0, y_1 = ky_0$  is one solution

$$ax + by = c \iff a(x - x_1) + b(y - y_1) = 0$$

$$\iff a_1(x - x_1) + b_1(y - y_1) = 0 \text{ where } a_1 = a/g, b_1 = b/g$$

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If this holds then  $\gcd(a_1, b_1) = 1 \Rightarrow b_1 | x - x_1$   
and  $a_1 | y - y_1$

So  $x - x_1 = nb_1$  and  $y - y_1 = -na_1$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

So  $x = kx_0 + nb_1$ ,  $y = ky_0 - na_1$  for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

is the general solution.

Solutions in  $\mathbb{N}$

Which numbers in  $\mathbb{N}$  can be written in the form

$2a + 3b$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ ?

0, 3, 6, any number  $\geq 4$  e.g.  $2k$  (for even numbers)

$3 + 2k$  (for odd numbers  $\geq 3$ )

$2a + 5b$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ ?

0, 2, 4, 5, 6, any number  $\geq 4$

$3a + 9b$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ ?

All numbers divisible by 3.

What about  $5a + 11b$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ ?

Various numbers between 0 and 40 and then all integers

$\Rightarrow 40$

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Why? More generally, let  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  
 $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ .

Let  $p < q$ . All integers  $\geq pq - q$  can be  
written as  $ap + bq$  for  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$

To see this: <sup>by using</sup> we can find  $a_1, b_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.

$$a_1 p + b_1 q = 1 \quad (\text{since } \gcd(p, q) = 1)$$

$$(a_1 + kq)p + (b_1 - kp)q = 1 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

We can choose  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  so that

$$0 \leq b_1 - kp \leq p - 1$$

If  $n \geq pq - q$  then  $a_1 + kq \geq 0$

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The Euclidean algorithm is a method for

finding the gcd of  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$

Might as well take  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_+, n > m$

$$n = q_1 m + r_1$$

$$q_i, r_i \in \mathbb{N}, 0 \leq r_i < m$$

$$m = q_2 r_1 + r_2$$

If  $r_i = 0$  then stop

⋮

$$r_{k-2} = q_k r_{k-1} + 0$$

$$n > m > r_1 \dots > r_{k-1} > r_k = 0$$

$$r_{k-1} = \gcd(m, n)$$

$$r_0 = m$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} r_{i-1} \\ r_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} q_{i+1} r_i + r_{i+1} \\ r_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} q_{i+1} & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_i \\ r_{i+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} r_i \\ r_{i+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} r_i \\ r_{i-1} - q_{i+1} r_i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -q_{i+1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_{i+1} \\ r_i \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{So } \begin{pmatrix} n \\ m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} q_1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \dots \begin{pmatrix} q_k & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} r_{k-1} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} n & r_{k-1} \\ m & r_{k-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} r_{k-1} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -q_k \end{pmatrix} \dots \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -q_1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ m \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ a' & b' \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ m \end{pmatrix}$$

$$ab' - a'b = (-1)^k \quad \text{So } \gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a', b') = 1$$

$$r_{k-1} = an + bm \quad \gcd(m) = \pm a'n = \pm b'm$$

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Examples

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$$\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 255 \\ 135 \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{R_1 - R_2} \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 120 \\ 135 \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{R_2 - R_1} \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 120 \\ 15 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 + 8R_2} \begin{array}{c|c} 9 & -17 \\ -1 & 2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 15 \end{array} \right. \quad \text{gcd}(255, 135) = 15$$

$$-255 + 2 \times 135 = 15 \quad \text{lcm} = 9 \times 255 = 17 \times 135$$

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$$\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 255 \\ 136 \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{R_1 - R_2} \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 119 \\ 136 \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{R_2 - R_1} \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 119 \\ 17 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 - 7R_2} \begin{array}{c|c} 8 & -15 \\ -1 & 2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 17 \end{array} \right. \quad \text{gcd}(255, 136) = 17$$

$$-255 + 2 \times 136 = 17$$

$$8 \times 255 = 15 \times 136 = \text{lcm}$$

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$$\begin{array}{c|c} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 255 \\ 137 \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{R_1 - R_2} \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 118 \\ 137 \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{R_2 - 2R_1} \begin{array}{c|c} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 118 \\ 19 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 - 118R_1} \begin{array}{c|c} 255 & -137 \\ -1 & 2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array} \right. \quad \text{gcd}(255, 137) = 1$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_1 - 6R_2} \begin{array}{c|c} 7 & -13 \\ -1 & 2 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 4 \\ 19 \end{array} \right. \xrightarrow{R_1 - 4R_2} \begin{array}{c|c} 7 & -13 \\ -29 & 54 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 3 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\xrightarrow{R_2 - 3R_1} \begin{array}{c|c} 36 & -67 \\ -137 & 255 \end{array} \left| \begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \end{array} \right. \quad \text{gcd}(255, 137) = 1$$

## (11) Modulo arithmetic

For  $p \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $n_1, n_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ , we write

$$n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{p} \quad \text{if} \quad p \mid n_1 - n_2 \quad \text{— omits } \pmod{p}$$

if it is clear from the context.

$\equiv \pmod{p}$  is an equivalence relation, called congruence mod  $p$

$$n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{p} \iff n_2 = n_1 + kp \quad \text{for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

If  $n_1 \equiv n_2 \pmod{p}$  and  $m_1 \equiv m_2 \pmod{p}$  then  $n_1 + m_1 \equiv n_2 + m_2 \pmod{p}$

†† and  $n_1 m_1 \equiv n_2 m_2 \pmod{p}$

because  $n_2 = n_1 + kp$  and  $m_2 = m_1 + lp \Rightarrow n_2 m_2 = n_1 m_1 + p(km_1 + km_2)$

Examples  $1 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$

$$2 \times 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$x - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \iff x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3} \iff x \equiv -1 \pmod{3} \iff x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \iff 2x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$\text{because } 2x \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \Rightarrow 2 \times 2x \equiv 2 \times 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$\Rightarrow x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

For any  $p \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $p \geq 2$ ,  $\{n \pmod{p} : n \in \mathbb{Z}\}$  is a commutative

ring with identity The identity element is  $1 \pmod{p}$

The arithmetic operations are addition and multiplication mod  $p$ .

$r \pmod p$  has a <sup>(2)</sup> (multiplicative) inverse mod p  $\Leftrightarrow$

$$r \neq 0 \text{ and } \gcd(p, r) = 1$$

A multiplicative inverse of  $r \pmod p$  is  $s \pmod p$  s.t.

$$rs = 1 \pmod p.$$

$$rs = 1 \pmod p \Leftrightarrow rs + ap = 1 \text{ for some } a \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$$\text{So } s \text{ exists} \Leftrightarrow \gcd(r, p) = 1.$$

$$\text{If } rs_1 \equiv rs_2 \equiv 1 \pmod p \text{ then } s_1 \equiv s_2 \pmod p$$

$$\text{because } s_1 \equiv s_1 rs_2 \equiv (rs_1) s_2 \equiv s_2 \pmod p.$$

If  $p \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  is prime then  $r \pmod p$  has an inverse mod p  $\forall 1 \leq r \leq p-1$ .

$$\text{Examples } 2^{-1} \equiv 2 \pmod 3 \text{ because } 2 \times 2 \equiv 1 \pmod 3$$

$$2^{-1} \equiv 3 \pmod 5 \quad 4^{-1} \equiv 4 \pmod 5$$

$$\text{Example } 3 \mid 2^n - 1 \Leftrightarrow n \text{ is even, for } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\text{To see this: } 2^2 \equiv 1 \pmod 3. \quad 2^0 = 1 \equiv 1 \pmod 3$$

$$\text{So } 2^{2k} = (2^2)^k = 1^k = 1 \pmod 3 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$$

$$2^{2k+1} \equiv 2^{2k} \times 2 \equiv 1 \times 2 \equiv 2 \pmod 3 \text{ for all } k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$$2^{2k} - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod 3 \quad 2^{2k+1} - 1 \equiv 1 \pmod 3.$$

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Of course there are other ways of doing this

For any  $x$

$$x^{2k} - 1 = (x^2 - 1)(1 + \dots + x^{2(k-1)})$$

Putting  $x=2$ ,  $2^{2k} - 1 = (2^2 - 1)(1 + \dots + 2^{2(k-1)})$   
 $= 3 \times (1 + \dots + 2^{2(k-1)})$

$$x^{2k+1} - 1 = x(x^{2k} - 1) + x - 1.$$

Putting  $x=2$ ,  $2^{2k+1} - 1 = 2(2^{2k} - 1) + 1$

Example How many solutions to  $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ ?

Check  $x \equiv 0$ ,  $x \equiv 1$ ,  $x \equiv 2$

$x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$  are both solutions.

Example How many solutions to  $x^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ ?

Check  $x \equiv 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6$

$$0^3 \equiv 0, \quad 1^3 \equiv 1, \quad 2^2 \equiv 4 \equiv -3, \quad 2^3 \equiv +1$$

$$3^2 \equiv +2, \quad 3^3 \equiv -1, \quad 4^3 \equiv (-3)^3 \equiv +1, \quad 5^3 \equiv (-2)^3 \equiv -1$$

$6^3 \equiv (-1)^3 \equiv -1$   
 ~~$x \equiv 1$  is the only solution.~~

However  $x^3 \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  has only one solution.

