

# 1. MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION

**EXAMPLE 1:** Prove that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \quad (1.1)$$

for any integer  $n \geq 1$ .

**Proof:**

**STEP 1:** For  $n=1$  (1.1) is true, since

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}.$$

**STEP 2:** Suppose (1.1) is true for some  $n = k \geq 1$ , that is

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}.$$

**STEP 3:** Prove that (1.1) is true for  $n = k + 1$ , that is

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}.$$

We have

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) \stackrel{\text{ST.2}}{=} \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) = (k+1) \left( \frac{k}{2} + 1 \right) = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}. \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 2:** Prove that

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2 \quad (1.2)$$

for any integer  $n \geq 1$ .

**Proof:**

**STEP 1:** For  $n=1$  (1.2) is true, since  $1 = 1^2$ .

**STEP 2:** Suppose (1.2) is true for some  $n = k \geq 1$ , that is

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k-1) = k^2.$$

**STEP 3:** Prove that (1.2) is true for  $n = k + 1$ , that is

$$1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k-1) + (2k+1) \stackrel{?}{=} (k+1)^2.$$

We have:  $1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k-1) + (2k+1) \stackrel{\text{ST.2}}{=} k^2 + (2k+1) = (k+1)^2. \blacksquare$

**EXAMPLE 3:** Prove that

$$n! \leq n^n \quad (1.3)$$

for any integer  $n \geq 1$ .

**Proof:**

**STEP 1:** For  $n=1$  (1.3) is true, since  $1! = 1^1$ .

**STEP 2:** Suppose (1.3) is true for some  $n = k \geq 1$ , that is  $k! \leq k^k$ .

**STEP 3:** Prove that (1.3) is true for  $n = k + 1$ , that is  $(k + 1)! \stackrel{?}{\leq} (k + 1)^{k+1}$ . We have

$$(k + 1)! = k! \cdot (k + 1) \stackrel{\text{St. 2}}{\leq} k^k \cdot (k + 1) < (k + 1)^k \cdot (k + 1) = (k + 1)^{k+1}. \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 4:** Prove that

$$8 \mid 3^{2n} - 1 \quad (1.4)$$

for any integer  $n \geq 0$ .

**Proof:**

**STEP 1:** For  $n=0$  (1.4) is true, since  $8 \mid 3^0 - 1$ .

**STEP 2:** Suppose (1.4) is true for some  $n = k \geq 0$ , that is  $8 \mid 3^{2k} - 1$ .

**STEP 3:** Prove that (1.4) is true for  $n = k + 1$ , that is  $8 \mid 3^{2(k+1)} - 1$ . We have

$$3^{2(k+1)} - 1 = 3^{2k+2} - 1 = 3^{2k} \cdot 9 - 1 = 3^{2k}(8 + 1) - 1 = \underbrace{3^{2k} \cdot 8}_{\text{div. by 8}} + \underbrace{3^{2k} - 1}_{\substack{\text{St. 2} \\ \text{div. by 8}}}. \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 5:** Prove that

$$7 \mid n^7 - n \quad (1.5)$$

for any integer  $n \geq 1$ .

**Proof:**

**STEP 1:** For  $n=1$  (1.5) is true, since  $7 \mid 1^7 - 1$ .

**STEP 2:** Suppose (1.5) is true for some  $n = k \geq 1$ , that is

$$7 \mid k^7 - k.$$

**STEP 3:** Prove that (1.5) is true for  $n = k + 1$ , that is  $7 \mid (k + 1)^7 - (k + 1)$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} (k + 1)^7 - (k + 1) &= k^7 + 7k^6 + 21k^5 + 35k^4 + 35k^3 + 21k^2 + 7k + 1 - k - 1 \\ &= \underbrace{k^7 - k}_{\substack{\text{St. 2} \\ \text{div. by 7}}} + \underbrace{7k^6 + 21k^5 + 35k^4 + 35k^3 + 21k^2 + 7k}_{\text{div. by 7}}. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

## 2. THE BINOMIAL THEOREM

### DEFINITION:

Let  $n$  and  $k$  be some integers with  $0 \leq k \leq n$ . Then

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

is called a binomial coefficient.

### PROPERTIES:

1.  $\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1.$

Proof: We have

$$\binom{n}{0} = \frac{n!}{0!(n-0)!} = \frac{n!}{1 \cdot n!} = 1,$$

$$\binom{n}{n} = \frac{n!}{n!(n-n)!} = \frac{n!}{n! \cdot 0!} = \frac{n!}{n! \cdot 1} = 1. \blacksquare$$

2.  $\binom{n}{1} = \binom{n}{n-1} = n.$

Proof: We have

$$\binom{n}{1} = \frac{n!}{1!(n-1)!} = \frac{(n-1)! \cdot n}{1! \cdot (n-1)!} = n,$$

$$\binom{n}{n-1} = \frac{n!}{(n-1)![n-(n-1)]!} = \frac{n!}{(n-1)! \cdot 1!} = \frac{(n-1)! \cdot n}{(n-1)! \cdot 1!} = n. \blacksquare$$

3.  $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}.$

Proof: We have

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} = \frac{n!}{(n-k)![n-(n-k)]!} = \binom{n}{n-k}. \blacksquare$$

$$4. \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} = \binom{n+1}{k}.$$

**Proof:** We have

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} &= \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k+1)!} \\ &= \frac{n!(n-k+1)}{k!(n-k)!(n-k+1)!} + \frac{n!k}{(k-1)!k(n-k+1)!} \\ &= \frac{n!(n-k+1)}{k!(n-k+1)!} + \frac{n!k}{k!(n-k+1)!} \\ &= \frac{n!(n-k+1) + n!k}{k!(n-k+1)!} \\ &= \frac{n!n - n!k + n! + n!k}{k!(n-k+1)!} \\ &= \frac{n!n + n!}{k!(n-k+1)!} \\ &= \frac{n!(n+1)}{k!(n-k+1)!} = \frac{(n+1)!}{k!(n-k+1)!} = \frac{(n+1)!}{k!(n+1-k)!} = \binom{n+1}{k}. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

### **PROBLEM:**

For all integers  $n$  and  $k$  with  $1 \leq k \leq n$  we have

$$\binom{n}{k-1} + 2\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} = \binom{n+2}{k+1}.$$

**Proof:** By property 4 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{n}{k-1} + 2\binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} &= \binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k+1} \\ &= \binom{n+1}{k} + \binom{n+1}{k+1} = \binom{n+2}{k+1}. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

### **THEOREM (The Binomial Theorem):**

Let  $a$  and  $b$  be any real numbers and let  $n$  be any nonnegative integer. Then

$$(a+b)^n = a^n + \binom{n}{1}a^{n-1}b + \binom{n}{2}a^{n-2}b^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-2}a^2b^{n-2} + \binom{n}{n-1}ab^{n-1} + b^n.$$

**PROBLEM:**

For all integers  $n \geq 1$  we have

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n.$$

**Proof:** Putting  $a = b = 1$  in the Theorem above, we get

$$\begin{aligned} (1+1)^n \\ = 1^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot 1^{n-1} \cdot 1 + \binom{n}{2} \cdot 1^{n-2} \cdot 1^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-2} \cdot 1^2 \cdot 1^{n-2} + \binom{n}{n-1} \cdot 1 \cdot 1^{n-1} + 1^n, \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$2^n = 1 + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n-2} + \binom{n}{n-1} + 1,$$

therefore by property 1 we get

$$2^n = \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n-2} + \binom{n}{n-1} + \binom{n}{n}. \blacksquare$$

**PROBLEM:**

For all integers  $n \geq 1$  we have

$$\binom{n}{0} - \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} - \dots + (-1)^n \binom{n}{n} = 0.$$

**Proof:** Putting  $a = 1$  and  $b = -1$  in the Theorem above, we get

$$\begin{aligned} (1-1)^n \\ = 1^n + \binom{n}{1} \cdot 1^{n-1} \cdot (-1) + \binom{n}{2} \cdot 1^{n-2} \cdot (-1)^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1} \cdot 1 \cdot (-1)^{n-1} + (-1)^n, \end{aligned}$$

hence

$$0 = 1 - \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \binom{n}{n-1} + (-1)^n,$$

therefore by property 1 we get

$$0 = \binom{n}{0} - \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} - \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \binom{n}{n-1} + (-1)^n \binom{n}{n}. \blacksquare$$

### 3. RATIONAL AND IRRATIONAL NUMBERS

#### DEFINITION:

Rational numbers are all numbers of the form  $\frac{p}{q}$ , where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ .

EXAMPLE:  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $-\frac{5}{3}$ ,  $2$ ,  $0$ ,  $\frac{50}{10}$ , etc.

#### NOTATIONS:

$\mathbb{N}$  = all natural numbers, that is,  $1, 2, 3, \dots$

$\mathbb{Z}$  = all integer numbers, that is,  $0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$

$\mathbb{Q}$  = all rational numbers

$\mathbb{R}$  = all real numbers

#### DEFINITION:

A number which is not rational is said to be irrational.

PROBLEM 1: Prove that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Proof: Assume to the contrary that  $\sqrt{2}$  is rational, that is

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q},$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . Moreover, let  $p$  and  $q$  have no common divisor  $> 1$ . Then

$$2 = \frac{p^2}{q^2} \Rightarrow 2q^2 = p^2. \quad (3.1)$$

Since  $2q^2$  is even, it follows that  $p^2$  is even. Then  $p$  is also even (in fact, if  $p$  is odd, then  $p^2$  is odd). This means that there exists  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$p = 2k. \quad (3.2)$$

Substituting (3.2) into (3.1), we get

$$2q^2 = (2k)^2 \Rightarrow 2q^2 = 4k^2 \Rightarrow q^2 = 2k^2.$$

Since  $2k^2$  is even, it follows that  $q^2$  is even. Then  $q$  is also even. This is a contradiction. ■

**PROBLEM 2:** Prove that  $\sqrt[3]{4}$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\sqrt[3]{4}$  is rational, that is

$$\sqrt[3]{4} = \frac{p}{q},$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . Moreover, let  $p$  and  $q$  have no common divisor  $> 1$ . Then

$$4 = \frac{p^3}{q^3} \Rightarrow 4q^3 = p^3. \quad (3.3)$$

Since  $4q^3$  is even, it follows that  $p^3$  is even. Then  $p$  is also even (in fact, if  $p$  is odd, then  $p^3$  is odd). This means that there exists  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$p = 2k. \quad (3.4)$$

Substituting (3.4) into (3.3), we get

$$4q^3 = (2k)^3 \Rightarrow 4q^3 = 8k^3 \Rightarrow q^3 = 2k^3.$$

Since  $2k^3$  is even, it follows that  $q^3$  is even. Then  $q$  is also even. This is a contradiction. ■

**PROBLEM 3:** Prove that  $\sqrt{6}$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\sqrt{6}$  is rational, that is

$$\sqrt{6} = \frac{p}{q},$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . Moreover, let  $p$  and  $q$  have no common divisor  $> 1$ . Then

$$6 = \frac{p^2}{q^2} \Rightarrow 6q^2 = p^2. \quad (3.5)$$

Since  $6q^2$  is even, it follows that  $p^2$  is even. Then  $p$  is also even (in fact, if  $p$  is odd, then  $p^2$  is odd). This means that there exists  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$p = 2k. \quad (3.6)$$

Substituting (3.6) into (3.5), we get

$$6q^2 = (2k)^2 \Rightarrow 6q^2 = 4k^2 \Rightarrow 3q^2 = 2k^2.$$

Since  $2k^2$  is even, it follows that  $3q^2$  is even. Then  $q$  is also even (in fact, if  $q$  is odd, then  $3q^2$  is odd). This is a contradiction. ■

**PROBLEM 4:** Prove that  $\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{2} + 5$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{2} + 5$  is rational, that is

$$\frac{1}{3}\sqrt{2} + 5 = \frac{p}{q},$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . Then

$$\sqrt{2} = \frac{3(p - 5q)}{q}.$$

Since  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational and  $\frac{3(p - 5q)}{q}$  is rational, we obtain a contradiction. ■

**PROBLEM 5:** Prove that  $\log_5 2$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\log_5 2$  is rational, that is

$$\log_5 2 = \frac{p}{q},$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . Then

$$5^{p/q} = 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 5^p = 2^q.$$

Since  $5^p$  is odd and  $2^q$  is even, we obtain a contradiction. ■



## 4. DIVISION ALGORITHM

**PROBLEM:** Prove that  $\sqrt{3}$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\sqrt{3}$  is rational, that is

$$\sqrt{3} = \frac{p}{q},$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . Moreover, let  $p$  and  $q$  have no common divisor  $> 1$ . Then

$$3 = \frac{p^2}{q^2} \Rightarrow 3q^2 = p^2.$$

Since  $3q^2$  is divisible by 3, it follows that  $p^2$  is divisible by 3. Then  $p$  is also divisible by 3 (in fact, if  $p$  is not divisible by 3, then ...???)

**THEOREM (DIVISION ALGORITHM):** For any integers  $a$  and  $b$  with  $a \neq 0$  there exist unique integers  $q$  and  $r$  such that

$$b = aq + r, \quad \text{where } 0 \leq r < |a|.$$

The integers  $q$  and  $r$  are called the **quotient** and the **remainder** respectively.

**EXAMPLE 1:** Let  $b = 49$  and  $a = 4$ , then  $49 = 4 \cdot 12 + 1$ , so the quotient is 12 and the remainder is 1.

**REMARK:** We can also write 49 as  $3 \cdot 12 + 13$ , but in this case 13 is not a remainder, since it is NOT less than 3.

**EXAMPLE 2:** Let  $a = 2$ . Since  $0 \leq r < 2$ , then for any integer number  $b$  we have ONLY TWO possibilities:

$$b = 2q \quad \text{or} \quad b = 2q + 1.$$

So, thanks to the Division Algorithm we proved that any integer number is either even or odd.

**EXAMPLE 3:** Let  $a = 3$ . Since  $0 \leq r < 3$ , then for any integer number  $b$  we have ONLY THREE possibilities:

$$b = 3q, \quad b = 3q + 1, \quad \text{or} \quad b = 3q + 2.$$

**Proof of the Problem:** Assume to the contrary that  $\sqrt{3}$  is rational, that is

$$\sqrt{3} = \frac{a}{b},$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are integers and  $b \neq 0$ . Moreover, let  $a$  and  $b$  have no common divisor  $> 1$ . Then

$$3 = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \Rightarrow 3b^2 = a^2. \tag{4.1}$$

Since  $3b^2$  is divisible by 3, it follows that  $a^2$  is divisible by 3. Then  $a$  is also divisible by 3.

In fact, if  $a$  is not divisible by 3, then by the Division Algorithm there exists  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$a = 3q + 1 \quad \text{or} \quad a = 3q + 2.$$

Suppose  $a = 3q + 1$ , then

$$a^2 = (3q + 1)^2 = 9q^2 + 6q + 1 = 3(\underbrace{3q^2 + 2q}_{q'}) + 1 = 3q' + 1,$$

which is not divisible by 3. We get a contradiction. Similarly, if  $a = 3q + 2$ , then

$$a^2 = (3q + 2)^2 = 9q^2 + 12q + 4 = 3(\underbrace{3q^2 + 4q + 1}_{q''}) + 1 = 3q'' + 1,$$

which is not divisible by 3. We get a contradiction again.

So, we proved that if  $a^2$  is divisible by 3, then  $a$  is also divisible by 3. This means that there exists  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$a = 3q. \tag{4.2}$$

Substituting (4.2) into (4.1), we get

$$3b^2 = (3q)^2 \Rightarrow 3b^2 = 9q^2 \Rightarrow b^2 = 3q^2.$$

Since  $3q^2$  is divisible by 3, it follows that  $b^2$  is divisible by 3. Then  $b$  is also divisible by 3 by the arguments above. This is a contradiction. ■

## 5. GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR AND EUCLID'S LEMMA

**PROBLEM:** Prove that  $\sqrt{101}$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\sqrt{101}$  is rational, that is

$$\sqrt{101} = \frac{a}{b},$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are integers and  $b \neq 0$ . Moreover, let  $a$  and  $b$  have no common divisor  $> 1$ . Then

$$101 = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \Rightarrow 101b^2 = a^2.$$

Since  $101b^2$  is divisible by 101, it follows that  $a^2$  is divisible by 101. Then  $a$  is also divisible by 101.

In fact, if  $a$  is not divisible by 101, then by the Division Algorithm there exists  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$a = 101q + 1 \quad \text{or} \quad a = 101q + 2 \quad \text{or} \quad a = 101q + 3 \quad \text{or} \quad a = 101q + 4 \dots ???$$

### DEFINITION:

If  $a$  and  $b$  are integers with  $a \neq 0$ , we say that  $a$  is a divisor of  $b$  if there exists an integer  $q$  such that  $b = aq$ . We also say that  $a$  divides  $b$  and we denote this by

$$a \mid b.$$

**EXAMPLE:** We have:  $4 \mid 12$ , since  $12 = 4 \cdot 3$   
 $4 \nmid 15$ , since  $15 = 4 \cdot 3.75$

### DEFINITION:

A common divisor of nonzero integers  $a$  and  $b$  is an integer  $c$  such that  $c \mid a$  and  $c \mid b$ . The greatest common divisor (gcd) of  $a$  and  $b$ , denoted by  $(a, b)$ , is the largest common divisor of integers  $a$  and  $b$ .

**EXAMPLE:** The common divisors of 24 and 84 are  $\pm 1$ ,  $\pm 2$ ,  $\pm 3$ ,  $\pm 4$ ,  $\pm 6$ , and  $\pm 12$ . Hence,  $(24, 84) = 12$ . Similarly, looking at sets of common divisors, we find that  $(15, 81) = 3$ ,  $(100, 5) = 5$ ,  $(17, 25) = 1$ ,  $(-17, 289) = 17$ , etc.

**THEOREM:** If  $a$  and  $b$  are nonzero integers, then their gcd is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ , that is there exist integer numbers  $s$  and  $t$  such that

$$sa + tb = (a, b).$$

**Proof:** Let  $d$  be the least positive integer that is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ . We write

$$d = sa + tb, \tag{5.1}$$

where  $s$  and  $t$  are integers.

We first show that  $d \mid a$ . By the Division Algorithm we have

$$a = dq + r, \text{ where } 0 \leq r < d.$$

From this and (5.1) it follows that

$$r = a - dq = a - q(sa + tb) = a - qsa - qtb = (1 - qs)a + (-qt)b.$$

This shows that  $r$  is a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ . Since  $0 \leq r < d$ , and  $d$  is the least positive linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$ , we conclude that  $r = 0$ , and hence  $d \mid a$ . In a similar manner, we can show that  $d \mid b$ .

We have shown that  $d$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ . We now show that  $d$  is the *greatest common divisor* of  $a$  and  $b$ . Assume to the contrary that

$$(a, b) = d' \quad \text{and} \quad d' > d.$$

Since  $d' \mid a$ ,  $d' \mid b$ , and  $d = sa + tb$ , it follows that  $d' \mid d$ , therefore  $d' \leq d$ . We obtain a contradiction. So,  $d$  is the greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  and this concludes the proof. ■

#### **DEFINITION:**

An integer  $n \geq 2$  is called prime if its only positive divisors are 1 and  $n$ . Otherwise,  $n$  is called composite.

**EXAMPLE:** Numbers 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37, 41, 43, 47, 53, 59... are prime.

**THEOREM (Euclid's Lemma):** If  $p$  is a prime and  $p \mid ab$ , then  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ . More generally, if a prime  $p$  divides a product  $a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ , then it must divide at least one of the factors  $a_i$ .

**Proof:** Assume that  $p \nmid a$ . We must show that  $p \mid b$ . By the theorem above, there are integers  $s$  and  $t$  with

$$sp + ta = (p, a).$$

Since  $p$  is prime and  $p \nmid a$ , we have  $(p, a) = 1$ , and so

$$sp + ta = 1.$$

Multiplying both sides by  $b$ , we get

$$spb + tab = b. \tag{5.2}$$

Since  $p \mid ab$  and  $p \mid spb$ , it follows that

$$p \mid (spb + tab).$$

This and (5.2) give  $p \mid b$ . This completes the proof of the first part of the theorem. The second part (generalization) easily follows by induction on  $n \geq 2$ . ■

**COROLLARY:** If  $p$  is a prime and  $p \mid a^2$ , then  $p \mid a$ .

**Proof:** Put  $a = b$  in Euclid's Lemma. ■

**THEOREM:** Let  $p$  be a prime. Then  $\sqrt{p}$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\sqrt{p}$  is rational, that is

$$\sqrt{p} = \frac{a}{b},$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are integers and  $b \neq 0$ . Moreover, let  $a$  and  $b$  have no common divisor  $> 1$ . Then

$$p = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \Rightarrow pb^2 = a^2. \quad (5.3)$$

Since  $pb^2$  is divisible by  $p$ , it follows that  $a^2$  is divisible by  $p$ . Then  $a$  is also divisible by  $p$  by the Corollary above. This means that there exists  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$a = pq. \quad (5.4)$$

Substituting (5.4) into (5.3), we get

$$pb^2 = (pq)^2 \Rightarrow b^2 = pq^2.$$

Since  $pq^2$  is divisible by  $p$ , it follows that  $b^2$  is divisible by  $p$ . Then  $b$  is also divisible by  $p$  by the Corollary above. This is a contradiction. ■

**PROBLEM:** Prove that  $\sqrt{101}$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Since 101 is prime, the result immediately follows from the Theorem above. ■

**PROBLEM:** Prove that if  $a$  and  $b$  are positive integers with  $(a, b) = 1$ , then  $(a^2, b^2) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

**Proof 1:** Assume to the contrary that  $(a^2, b^2) = n > 1$ . Then there is a prime  $p$  such that  $p \mid a^2$  and  $p \mid b^2$ . From this by Euclid's Lemma it follows that  $p \mid a$  and  $p \mid b$ , therefore  $(a, b) \geq p$ . This is a contradiction. ■

**Proof 2 (Hint):** Use the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic below.

## 6. FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM OF ARITHMETIC

**THEOREM** (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic): Assume that an integer  $a \geq 2$  has factorizations

$$a = p_1 \dots p_m \quad \text{and} \quad a = q_1 \dots q_n,$$

where the  $p$ 's and  $q$ 's are primes. Then  $n = m$  and the  $q$ 's may be reindexed so that  $q_i = p_i$  for all  $i$ .

**Proof:** We prove by induction on  $\ell$ , the larger of  $m$  and  $n$ , i. e.  $\ell = \max(m, n)$ .

**Step 1.** If  $\ell = 1$ , then the given equation in  $a = p_1 = q_1$ , and the result is obvious.

**Step 2.** Suppose the theorem holds for some  $\ell = k \geq 1$ .

**Step 3.** We prove it for  $\ell = k + 1$ . Let

$$a = p_1 \dots p_m = q_1 \dots q_n, \tag{6.1}$$

where

$$\max(m, n) = k + 1. \tag{6.2}$$

From (6.1) it follows that  $p_m \mid q_1 \dots q_n$ , therefore by Euclid's Lemma there is some  $q_i$  such that  $p_m \mid q_i$ . But  $q_i$ , being a prime, has no positive divisors other than 1, therefore  $p_m = q_i$ . Reindexing, we may assume that  $q_n = p_m$ . Canceling, we have

$$p_1 \dots p_{m-1} = q_1 \dots q_{n-1}.$$

Moreover,  $\max(m - 1, n - 1) = k$  by (6.2). Therefore by step 2  $q$ 's may be reindexed so that  $q_i = p_i$  for all  $i$ ; plus,  $m - 1 = n - 1$ , hence  $m = n$ . ■

**COROLLARY:** If  $a \geq 2$  is an integer, then there are unique distinct primes  $p_i$  and unique integers  $e_i > 0$  such that

$$a = p_1^{e_1} \dots p_n^{e_n}.$$

**Proof:** Just collect like terms in a prime factorization. ■

**EXAMPLE:**  $120 = 2^3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$ .

**PROBLEM:** Prove that  $\log_3 5$  is irrational.

**Proof:** Assume to the contrary that  $\log_3 5$  is rational, that is

$$\log_3 5 = \frac{p}{q},$$

where  $p$  and  $q$  are integers and  $q \neq 0$ . Then

$$3^{p/q} = 5 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 3^p = 5^q,$$

which contradicts the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic. ■

## 7. EUCLIDEAN ALGORITHM

**THEOREM** (Euclidean Algorithm): Let  $a$  and  $b$  be positive integers. Then there is an algorithm that finds  $(a, b)$ .

**LEMMA**: If  $a, b, q, r$  are integers and  $a = bq + r$ , then  $(a, b) = (b, r)$ .

**Proof**: We have  $(a, b) = (bq + r, b) = (b, r)$ . ■

**Proof of the Theorem**: The idea is to keep repeating the division algorithm. We have:

$$a = bq_1 + r_1, \quad (a, b) = (b, r_1)$$

$$b = r_1q_2 + r_2, \quad (b, r_1) = (r_1, r_2)$$

$$r_1 = r_2q_3 + r_3, \quad (r_1, r_2) = (r_2, r_3)$$

$$r_2 = r_3q_4 + r_4, \quad (r_2, r_3) = (r_3, r_4)$$

...

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1}q_n + r_n, \quad (r_{n-2}, r_{n-1}) = (r_{n-1}, r_n)$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_nq_{n+1}, \quad (r_{n-1}, r_n) = r_n,$$

therefore

$$(a, b) = (b, r_1) = (r_1, r_2) = (r_2, r_3) = (r_3, r_4) = \dots = (r_{n-2}, r_{n-1}) = (r_{n-1}, r_n) = r_n.$$

■

**PROBLEM**: Find  $(326, 78)$ .

**Solution**: By the Euclidean Algorithm we have

$$326 = 78 \cdot 4 + 14$$

$$78 = 14 \cdot 5 + 8$$

$$14 = 8 \cdot 1 + 6$$

$$8 = 6 \cdot 1 + 2$$

$$6 = 2 \cdot 3$$

therefore  $(326, 78) = 2$ .

**PROBLEM**: Find  $(252, 198)$ .

**Solution**: By the Euclidean Algorithm we have

$$252 = 198 \cdot 1 + 54$$

$$198 = 54 \cdot 3 + 36$$

$$54 = 36 \cdot 1 + 18$$

$$36 = 18 \cdot 2$$

therefore  $(252, 198) = 18$ .

**PROBLEM:** Find  $(4361, 42371)$ .

**Solution:** By the Euclidean Algorithm we have

$$42371 = 9 \cdot 4361 + 3122$$

$$4361 = 1 \cdot 3122 + 1239$$

$$3122 = 2 \cdot 1239 + 644$$

$$1239 = 1 \cdot 644 + 595$$

$$644 = 1 \cdot 595 + 49$$

$$595 = 12 \cdot 49 + 7$$

$$49 = 7 \cdot 7 + 0,$$

therefore  $(4361, 42371) = 7$ .

**THEOREM:** Let  $a = p_1^{e_1} \dots p_n^{e_n}$  and  $b = p_1^{f_1} \dots p_n^{f_n}$  be positive integers. Then

$$(a, b) = p_1^{\min(e_1, f_1)} \dots p_n^{\min(e_n, f_n)}.$$

**EXAMPLE:** Since  $720 = 2^4 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5$  and  $2100 = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7$ , we have:

$$(720, 2100) = 2^2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 = 60.$$

**PROBLEM:** Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Prove that  $(2a + 3, a + 2) = 1$ .

**Proof:** By the Lemma above we have

$$\begin{aligned} (2a + 3, a + 2) &= (a + 1 + a + 2, a + 2) \\ &= (a + 1, a + 2) \\ &= (a + 1, a + 1 + 1) \\ &= (a + 1, 1) \\ &= 1. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**PROBLEM:** Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Prove that  $(7a + 2, 10a + 3) = 1$ .

**Proof:** By the Lemma above we have

$$\begin{aligned} (7k + 2, 10k + 3) &= (7k + 2, 7k + 2 + 3k + 1) \\ &= (7k + 2, 3k + 1) \\ &= (6k + 2 + k, 3k + 1) \\ &= (k, 3k + 1) \\ &= (k, 1) \\ &= 1. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$



## 8. FERMAT'S LITTLE THEOREM

Theorem (Fermat's Little Theorem): Let  $p$  be a prime. We have

$$p \mid n^p - n \quad (8.1)$$

for any integer  $n \geq 1$ .

Proof 1:

**STEP 1:** For  $n=1$  (8.1) is true, since

$$p \mid 1^p - 1.$$

**STEP 2:** Suppose (8.1) is true for some  $n = k \geq 1$ , that is

$$p \mid k^p - k.$$

**STEP 3:** Prove that (8.1) is true for  $n = k + 1$ , that is

$$p \mid (k + 1)^p - (k + 1).$$

Lemma: Let  $p$  be a prime and  $\ell$  be an integer with  $1 \leq \ell \leq p - 1$ . Then

$$p \mid \binom{p}{\ell}.$$

Proof: We have

$$\binom{p}{\ell} = \frac{p!}{\ell!(p-\ell)!} = \frac{\ell!(\ell+1) \cdot \dots \cdot p}{\ell!(p-\ell)!} = \frac{(\ell+1) \cdot \dots \cdot p}{(p-\ell)!},$$

therefore

$$\binom{p}{\ell} (p-\ell)! = (\ell+1) \cdot \dots \cdot p.$$

From this it follows that

$$p \mid \binom{p}{\ell} (p-\ell)!,$$

hence by Euclid's Lemma  $p$  divides  $\binom{p}{\ell}$  or  $(p-\ell)!$ . It is easy to see that  $p \nmid (p-\ell)!$ . Therefore

$$p \mid \binom{p}{\ell}.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} & (k+1)^p - (k+1) \\ &= k^p + \binom{p}{1} k^{p-1} + \binom{p}{2} k^{p-2} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} k + 1 - k - 1 \\ &= \underbrace{k^p - k}_{\substack{\text{St. 2} \\ \text{div. by } p}} + \underbrace{\binom{p}{1} k^{p-1} + \binom{p}{2} k^{p-2} + \dots + \binom{p}{p-1} k}_{\text{div. by } p \text{ by Lemma}}. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

## 9. CONGRUENCES

### DEFINITION:

Let  $m$  be a positive integer. Then integers  $a$  and  $b$  are congruent modulo  $m$ , denoted by

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m},$$

if  $m \mid (a - b)$ .

### EXAMPLE:

$$3 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}, \quad 6 \equiv 4 \pmod{2}, \quad -14 \equiv 0 \pmod{7}, \quad 25 \equiv 16 \pmod{9}, \quad 43 \equiv -27 \pmod{35}.$$

### PROPERTIES:

Let  $m$  be a positive integer and let  $a, b, c, d$  be integers. Then

1.  $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$
2. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , then  $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$ .
3. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$ , then  $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ .
4. (a) If  $a \equiv qm + r \pmod{m}$ , then  $a \equiv r \pmod{m}$ .  
(b) Every integer  $a$  is congruent mod  $m$  to exactly one of  $0, 1, \dots, m - 1$ .
5. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ , then

$$a \pm c \equiv b \pm d \pmod{m} \quad \text{and} \quad ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}.$$

- 5'. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , then

$$a \pm c \equiv b \pm c \pmod{m} \quad \text{and} \quad ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}.$$

- 5''. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ , then

$$a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{m} \quad \text{for any } n \in \mathbb{Z}^+.$$

6. If  $(c, m) = 1$  and  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ , then  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

**Proof 2 of Fermat's Little Theorem:** We distinguish two cases.

*Case A:* Let  $p \mid n$ , then, obviously,  $p \mid n^p - n$ , and we are done.

*Case B:* Let  $p \nmid n$ . Since  $p$  is prime, we have

$$(p, n) = 1. \tag{9.1}$$

Consider the following numbers:

$$n, 2n, 3n, \dots, (p-1)n.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned}
n &\equiv r_1 \pmod{p} \\
2n &\equiv r_2 \pmod{p} \\
3n &\equiv r_3 \pmod{p} \\
&\dots \\
(p-1)n &\equiv r_{p-1} \pmod{p},
\end{aligned} \tag{9.2}$$

where  $0 \leq r_i \leq p-1$ . Moreover,  $r_i \neq 0$ , since otherwise  $p \mid in$ , and therefore by Euclid's Lemma  $p \mid i$  or  $p \mid n$ . But this is impossible, since  $p > i$  and  $p \nmid n$ . So,

$$1 \leq r_i \leq p-1. \tag{9.3}$$

From (9.2) by property 5 we have

$$\begin{aligned}
n \cdot 2n \cdot 3n \dots (p-1)n &\equiv r_1 r_2 \dots r_{p-1} \pmod{p} \\
&\Downarrow \\
(p-1)!n^{p-1} &\equiv r_1 r_2 \dots r_{p-1} \pmod{p}.
\end{aligned} \tag{9.4}$$

Lemma: We have

$$r_1 r_2 \dots r_{p-1} = (p-1)!. \tag{9.5}$$

Proof: We first show that

$$r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{p-1} \text{ are all distinct.} \tag{9.6}$$

In fact, assume to the contrary that there are some  $r_i$  and  $r_j$  with  $r_i = r_j$ . Then by (9.2) we have  $in \equiv jn \pmod{p}$ , therefore by property 6 with (9.1) we get  $i \equiv j \pmod{p}$ , which is impossible. This contradiction proves (9.6).

By the Lemma we have

$$r_1 r_2 \dots r_{p-1} = (p-1)!. \tag{9.7}$$

By (9.4) and (9.7) we obtain

$$(p-1)!n^{p-1} \equiv (p-1)! \pmod{p}.$$

Since  $(p, (p-1)!) = 1$ , from this by property 6 we get

$$n^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p},$$

hence

$$n^p \equiv n \pmod{p}$$

by property 4'. This means that  $n^p - n$  is divisible by  $p$ . ■

COROLLARY: Let  $p$  be a prime. Then

$$n^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

for any integer  $n \geq 1$  with  $(n, p) = 1$ .

THEOREM: If  $(a, m) = 1$ , then, for every integer  $b$ , the congruence

$$ax \equiv b \pmod{m} \tag{9.8}$$

has exactly one solution

$$x \equiv bs \pmod{m}, \quad (9.9)$$

where  $s$  is such number that

$$as \equiv 1 \pmod{m}. \quad (9.10)$$

**Proof (Sketch):** We show that (9.9) is the solution of (9.8). In fact, if we multiply (9.9) by  $a$  and (9.10) by  $b$  (we can do that by property 5'), we get

$$ax \equiv abs \pmod{m} \quad \text{and} \quad bsa \equiv b \pmod{m},$$

which imply (9.8) by property 3. ■

## Problems

**Problem 1:** Find all solutions of the congruence

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

**Solution:** We first note that  $(2, 3) = 1$ . Therefore we can apply the theorem above. Since  $2 \cdot 2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , we get

$$x \equiv 1 \cdot 2 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}.$$

**Problem 2:** Find all solutions of the following congruence

$$2x \equiv 5 \pmod{7}.$$

**Solution:** We first note that  $(2, 7) = 1$ . Therefore we can apply the theorem above. Since  $2 \cdot 4 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ , we get

$$x \equiv 5 \cdot 4 \equiv 6 \pmod{7}.$$

**Problem 3:** Find all solutions of the congruence

$$3x \equiv 4 \pmod{8}.$$

**Solution:** We first note that  $(3, 8) = 1$ . Therefore we can apply the theorem above. Since  $3 \cdot 3 \equiv 1 \pmod{8}$ , we get

$$x \equiv 4 \cdot 3 \equiv 12 \equiv 4 \pmod{8}.$$

**Problem 4:** Find all solutions of the following congruence

$$2x \equiv 5 \pmod{8}.$$