

# Introduction to Number Theory

Math 110 | Winter 2023

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# What we have shown last week

- Binary linear Diophantine equation
- (Euclidean) Division Algorithm
- Bézout's identity
- Greatest common divisor
- Homogeneous linear equation
- Least common multiple
- Solution set of the linear Diophantine equation

Part II

# Prime Numbers

# Today's topics

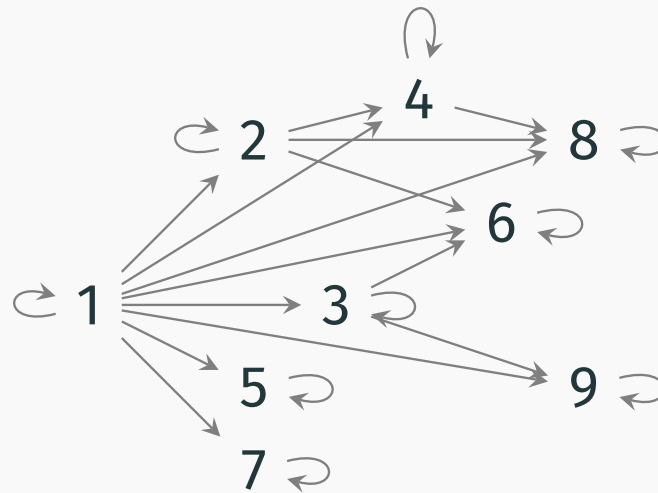
- Hasse diagram
- Division network of positive integers
- Prime numbers
- Prime factorization

# Hasse diagram

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# Hasse diagram

We want to illustrate the divisibility relation between positive integers. The first attempt is to list all the positive integers and whenever  $a \mid b$  draw an arrow from  $a$  to  $b$ . But the result diagram is cluttered and confusing



Divisibility of integers from 1 to 9

# Hasse diagram

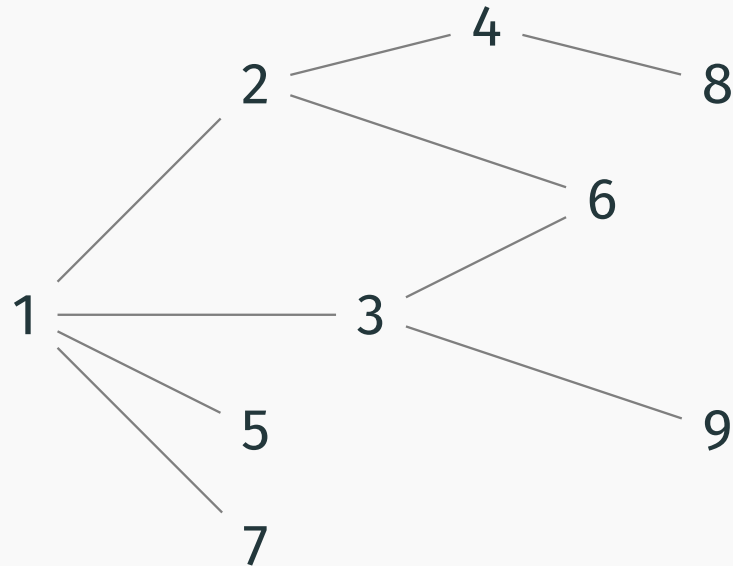
To simplify the diagram, we introduce the following omission:

- We may choose a global direction (for example, from left to right) to assemble the integers and omit the heads of arrows.
- We may omit the self-loops corresponding to the **reflexivity**:  $a \mid a$  ( $a \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ).
- By the **transitivity**, we may only draw the arrows connecting **adjacent** nodes. Here, saying  $a$  and  $b$  are adjacent means  $a \mid b$  and there is no other positive integer  $c$  between them in the sense  $a \mid c$  and  $c \mid b$ .
- By the **antisymmetry**, after above simplifications, the diagram contains no loops and crossings.



# Hasse diagram

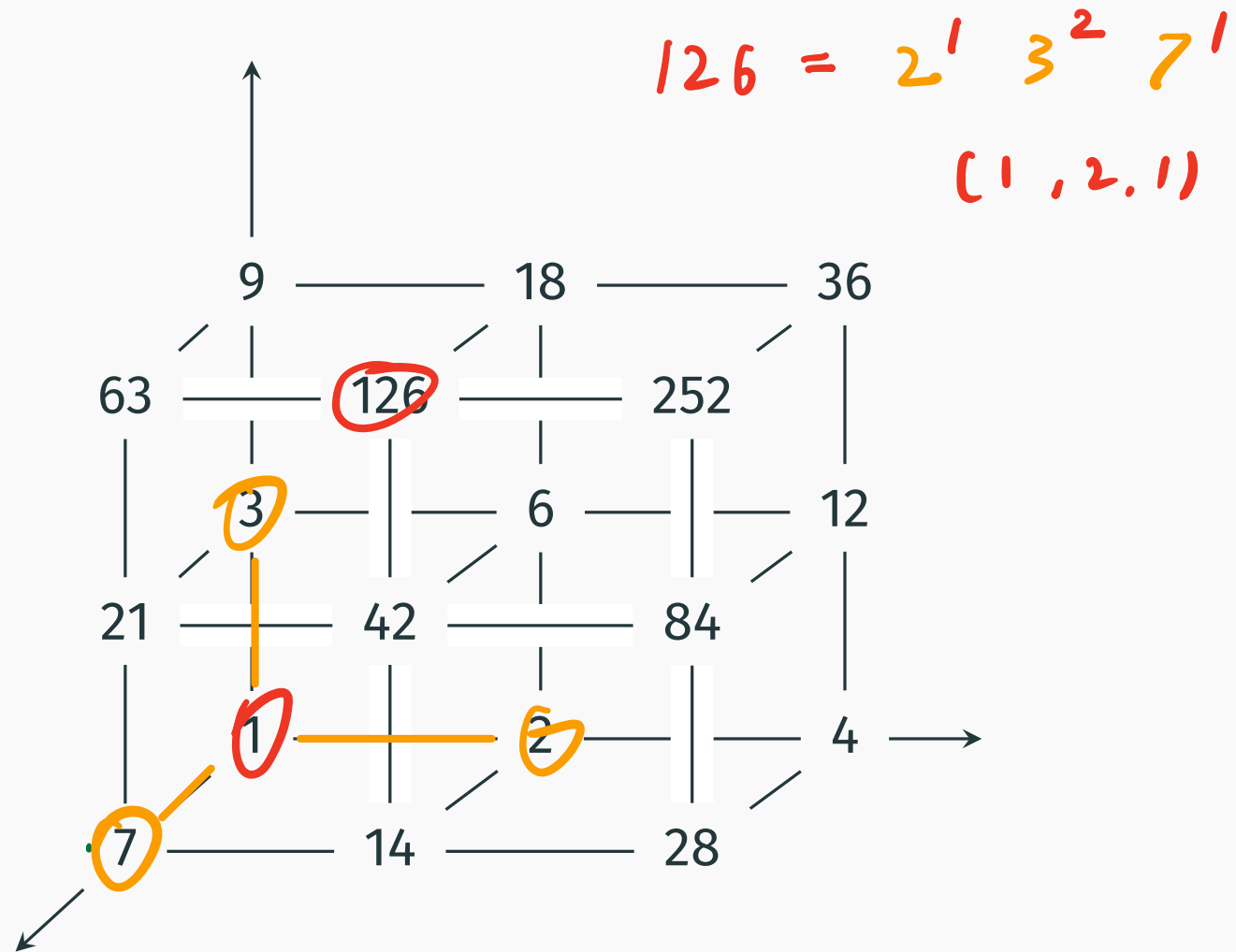
The diagram obtained through previous simplification is called a ***Hasse diagram (of divisibility of positive integers)***.



Hasse diagram of integers from 1 to 9 (from left to right)



# Hasse diagram



Hasse diagram of 1 and multiples of 2, 3, 7 (from inner to outer)

# Prime factorization

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## Definition 4.1

A **prime number**<sup>3</sup> is a positive integer having no divisors other than 1 and itself. If a positive integer is not 1 and is not a prime number, then it is called a **composite number**.

In the Hasse diagram of divisibility of positive integers, the above notions can be interpreted as follows:

- 1 is the root/origin;
- prime numbers are nodes adjacent to 1;
- composite number are other nodes.

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<sup>3</sup>There is no standard notation for the set of prime numbers. But many use  $\mathbb{P}$ .

# Prime numbers

$$p \nmid ab \iff p \nmid a \text{ and } p \nmid b$$

## Theorem 4.2 (Primarity, fundamental property of primes)

Let  $p$  be a prime number. Then for any integers  $a, b$ , if  $p \mid ab$ , then either  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .

$$p \mid ab \Rightarrow p \mid a \text{ or } p \mid b$$

$$p \mid ab \wedge p \nmid a \Rightarrow p \mid b$$

## Theorem 4.2 (Primarity, fundamental property of primes)

Let  $p$  be a prime number. Then for any integers  $a, b$ , if  $p \mid ab$ , then either  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .

**Proof.** We may assume  $p \nmid a$ . Then since there is no other divisor of  $p$  than 1 and  $p$ , we must have  $\gcd(p, a) = 1$ .

By **Bézout's identity**, there are integers  $x_0, y_0$  such that  $px_0 + ay_0 = 1$ .  
Let's multiply both sides by  $b$ , we get

$$pbx_0 + aby_0 = b.$$

Since  $p \mid ab$ , by **2-out-of-3 principle**, we must have  $p \mid b$ . □

# Prime factorization

$$a^x b^y c^z = a^{x'} b^{y'} c^{z'}$$

$$\nRightarrow x=x', y=y', z=z'$$

$$2^3 3^2 6^1 = 2^2 3^1 6^2$$

## Theorem 4.3 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

Let  $n$  be any positive integer.

1. (existence)  $n$  admits a prime factorization, i.e. there exist natural numbers  $e_p$  for each prime  $p$  such that<sup>4</sup>

$$n = 2^{e_2} \cdot 3^{e_3} \cdots p^{e_p} \cdots$$

↙ has to be a finite product.

2. (uniqueness) Suppose  $n$  admits another prime factorization, say

$$n = 2^{f_2} \cdot 3^{f_3} \cdots p^{f_p} \cdots$$

Then, for every prime  $p$ , we have  $e_p = f_p$ .

<sup>4</sup>Note that this is a finite product.

$$\text{e.g. } 42 = 2^1 \cdot 3^1 \cdot 7^1 = 2^{e_2} \cdot 3^{e_3} \cdot 5^{e_5} \cdots$$
$$\Rightarrow \begin{matrix} e_2=1 & e_5=0 & e_p=0 & (p>7) \\ e_3=1 & e_7=1 & & \end{matrix}$$

# Proof of uniqueness

We first prove the uniqueness.

Suppose we have two distinct prime factorizations of  $n$ , say

$$\begin{aligned} n &= 2^{e_2} \cdot 3^{e_3} \cdots p^{e_p} \cdots, \\ n &= 2^{f_2} \cdot 3^{f_3} \cdots p^{f_p} \cdots. \end{aligned}$$

Then there is a prime  $p$  such that  $e_p \neq f_p$ , say  $e_p > f_p$ .

# Proof of uniqueness

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$$\begin{aligned} n &= 2^{e_2} \cdot 3^{e_3} \cdots p^{e_p} \cdots, \\ n &= 2^{f_2} \cdot 3^{f_3} \cdots p^{f_p} \cdots, \\ a &= 2^{f_1} \cdot 3^{f_3} \cdots \cancel{p^{f_p}} \cdots \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow p^{e_p} \mid n$   
 $\Rightarrow p^{e_p - f_p} \mid \frac{n}{p^{f_p}} =: a$   
 $\Rightarrow p \mid a$

Then there is a prime  $p$  such that  $e_p \neq f_p$ , say  $e_p > f_p$ .

Consider  $a = \frac{n}{p^{f_p}}$ . By the first factorization, we have  $p \mid a$ . By the second factorization and theorem 4.2,  $p \nmid a$  (indeed, 4.2 implies: if each factor of a product is not a multiple of  $p$ , then the product is not a multiple of  $p$ ). This gives a contradiction. Therefore, we must have  $e_p = f_p$  for all prime  $p$ .

$$p \nmid ab \Leftrightarrow p \nmid a \text{ and } p \nmid b$$

$\uparrow$   
not divided by



# Proof of existence

Now we prove the existence.

For each prime  $p$ . Consider the sequence

$$1 = p^0, p, p^2, \dots$$
$$/ \mid n$$

Among them, there is a largest one, say  $p^{e_p}$ , such that  $p^{e_p} \mid n$ .

# Proof of existence

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For each prime  $p$ . Consider the sequence

$$1 = p^0, p, p^2, \dots$$

Among them, there is a largest one, say  $p^{e_p}$ , such that  $p^{e_p} \mid n$ .

In next lecture, we will show that, from  $p^{e_p} \mid n$  for all prime  $p$ , we can conclude that

$$2^{e_2} \cdot 3^{e_3} \cdots p^{e_p} \cdots \mid n.$$

Let's say  $n = d \cdot 2^{e_2} \cdot 3^{e_3} \cdots p^{e_p} \cdots$ . Then if  $d \neq 1$ , there must be a prime divisor  $p_0$  of  $d$  (e.g. the smallest divisor of  $d$  other than 1).

Then we have  $p_0^{e_{p_0}+1} \mid n$ , which contradicts with the maximality of  $e_{p_0}$ .

# **After Class Work**

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## Terminology

Given an ordered set  $(S, \leq)$ , we can illustrate the partial order by a **Hasse diagram**:

- the nodes are the elements of  $S$ , listed from smaller to larger;
- if two elements  $a, b$  are **adjacent**, namely  $a \leq b$  and there is no other elements  $c$  between them ( $a \leq c$  and  $c \leq b$ ), we draw an arrow (omitting the head) from  $a$  to  $b$ .

We can read out the partial order from the Hasse diagram as follows:  $a \leq b$  if and only if there is a path from  $a$  to  $b$ .

## Exercise 4.1

Consider the set of integers  $\mathbb{Z}$  equipped with the usual order  $\leq$ , show that the Hasse diagram looks as follows:



## Exercise 4.2

In the definition of Hasse diagram, we implied assumed that every pair  $(a, b)$  with the partial order relation  $a \leq b$  can be decomposed into a chain of adjacent ones:  $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b$ . However, this is NOT true in general:

Show that in  $(\mathbb{R}, \leq)$ , every pair  $a \leq b$  is NOT adjacent.

### Terminology

A partial order  $\leq$  on a set  $S$  is called a **linear order** if every two elements of  $S$  is comparable: namely, either  $a \leq b$  or  $b \leq a$ . If this is the case, we say  $(S, \leq)$  is a **linear ordered set**.

### Exercise 4.3 (†)

If an ordered set  $(S, \leq)$  is linear ordered set (and if it has a Hasse diagram), then we can assemble its Hasse diagram as a line (for example, exercise 4.1). To see this, show that there is no **branch** in the Hasse diagram, namely for every element  $a \in S$ , there can be at most one inward edge and one outward edge adjacent to  $a$ .

# Notations

We will use the following notations for ***indexed sum*** and ***product***:

$\sum S :=$  the sum of elements of  $S$ ,

$\sum_{a \in S} f(a) :=$  the sum of values of  $f(a)$  when  $a$  is taken over  $S$ ,

$\prod S :=$  the product of elements of  $S$ ,

$\prod_{a \in S} f(a) :=$  the product of values of  $f(a)$  when  $a$  is taken over  $S$ .

## Example 4.4

The prime factorization can be written as  $n = \prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}} p^{e_p}$ .

# Notations

When a presentation of a set  $S$  is given:

$$S = \{\text{expression} \mid \text{rule}\},$$

we usually write indexed sum and product in a more compact way:

$\sum_{\text{rule}} f(\text{expression}) :=$  the sum of values of  $f(\text{expression})$  when the value of **expression** is specified by **rule**,

$\prod_{\text{rule}} f(\text{expression}) :=$  the product of values of  $f(\text{expression})$  when the value of **expression** is specified by **rule**.

## Example 4.5

The prime factorization can be written as  $n = \prod_{p \text{ is prime}} p^{e_p}$ .



It is worth to point out that a **sequence** and a **map** are more or less the same thing.

- A sequence  $(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  is the same as a map from  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  mapping  $i$  to  $a_i$ .
- Similarly, a sequence  $(a_1, \dots)$  is the same as a map from  $\mathbb{Z}_+$  mapping  $i \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  to  $a_i$ .
- More generally, a sequence  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  is a map from  $I$  mapping  $i \in I$  to  $x_i$ .
- Conversely, a map from a set  $I$  to some target set  $T$  is the same as a sequence  $(x_i)_{i \in I}$  with each  $x_i \in T$ .