

Elementary Number Theory

DR. YIHSIANG LIOW (APRIL 27, 2025)

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Chapter 1

Basic number theory

SUGGESTIONS. For this chapter, state the basic axioms and properties/theorems of \mathbb{Z} . Provide proofs. But remember that most of the properties/theorems can be generalized to properties/theorems for rings. It's still a good idea to prove the facts for \mathbb{Z} since \mathbb{Z} is not as abstract as general rings and will prepare you for the general results.

Chapter 2

Axioms of \mathbb{Z}

$(\mathbb{Z}, +, \cdot, 0, 1)$ satisfies:

Properties of $+$

- **Closure:** $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x + y \in \mathbb{Z}$
- **Associativity:** $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}, (x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$
- **Inverse:** $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}, \exists y$ s.t. $x + y = 0 = y + x$
- **Neutrality:** $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}, 0 + x = x = x + 0$
- **Commutativity:** $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x + y = y + x$

Properties of \cdot

- **Closure:** $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x \cdot y \in \mathbb{Z}$
- **Associativity:** $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}, (x \cdot y) \cdot z = x \cdot (y \cdot z)$
- **Neutrality:** $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z}, 1 \cdot x = x = x \cdot 1$
- **Commutativity:** $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, x \cdot y = y \cdot x$

Distributivity $\forall x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}, x \cdot (y + z) = x \cdot y + x \cdot z$ and $(y + z) \cdot x = y \cdot x + z \cdot x$

Ring Structure

R with ops $+_R, \cdot_R$ and elems $0_R, 1_R$ satisfying above = **commutative ring**.

Without commutativity = **non-commutative ring**.

Example: $M_{n \times n}(R)$ = non-commutative ring.

By convention, "ring" means commutative ring.

Special Properties

- **Integrality:** $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, xy = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$ or $y = 0$

- **Nontriviality:** $0 \neq 1$

Z is an **integral domain**.

Peano-Dedekind Axioms for \mathbb{N}

- **Induction:** If $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ with $0 \in X$ and $n \in X \Rightarrow n+1 \in X$, then $X = \mathbb{N}$

Well-Ordering Principle

- **WOP for \mathbb{N} :** If $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ non-empty, then X has least element
- **WOP for Z :** If $X \subseteq Z$ non-empty and bounded below, then X has least element

Induction Variants

For \mathbb{N}

- **Weak Induction:** $0 \in X$ and $n \in X \Rightarrow n+1 \in X$ implies $X = \mathbb{N}$
- **Strong Induction:** $0 \in X$ and $\forall k \leq n, k \in X \Rightarrow n+1 \in X$ implies $X = \mathbb{N}$

For Z

- **Weak Induction:** $P(n_0)$ true and $P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ implies $P(n)$ true $\forall n \geq n_0$
- **Strong Induction:** $P(n_0)$ true and $[\forall k, n_0 \leq k \leq n, P(k)] \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ implies $P(n)$ true $\forall n \geq n_0$

Order Axioms

- **Trichotomy:** $\forall x \in Z$, exactly one: $-x \in Z^+$, $x = 0$, or $x \in Z^+$
- **Closure of $+$ for Z^+ :** $\forall x, y \in Z^+, x+y \in Z^+$
- **Closure of \cdot for Z^+ :** $\forall x, y \in Z^+, x \cdot y \in Z^+$

Define $x < y$ if $y - x \in Z^+$

Define $x \leq y$ if $x < y$ or $x = y$

Topology for Z : $\forall x \in Z, \nexists y \in Z$ s.t. $x < y < x+1$

Properties and Theorems

Prop 2.1.1: Uniqueness of additive inverse.

If $x + y = 0 = y + x$ and $x + y' = 0 = y' + x$, then $y = y'$.

Proof: $y = 0 + y = (y' + x) + y = y' + (x + y) = y' + 0 = y'$

Def 2.1.1: $x - y = x + (-y)$

Def 2.1.2: y is multiplicative inverse of x if $xy = 1 = yx$
 x is a unit if it has multiplicative inverse.

Prop 2.1.2: Uniqueness of multiplicative inverse.

If $xy = 1 = yx$ and $xy' = 1 = y'x$, then $y = y'$.

Proof: $y = 1y = (y'x)y = y'(xy) = y'1 = y'$

Def 2.1.3: Mult. inverse is x^{-1} . Units: $U(Z) = Z^\times = \{-1, 1\}$.

Prop 2.1.3: Cancellation law for addition.

- (a) If $x + z = y + z$, then $x = y$.
- (b) If $z + x = z + y$, then $x = y$.

Prop 2.1.4: Let $x \in Z$.

- (a) $0x = 0 = x0$
- (b) $-0 = 0$
- (c) $x - 0 = x$

Proof:

- (a) $0x = (0 + 0)x = 0x + 0x \Rightarrow 0 + 0x = 0x + 0x \Rightarrow 0 = 0x$
 $0 = 0x = x0$ (by commutativity)
- (b) $0 + (-0) = 0 = (-0) + 0$ and $0 + 0 = 0 = 0 + 0 \Rightarrow -0 = 0$
- (c) $x - 0 = x + (-0) = x + 0 = x$

Prop 2.1.5: Let $x, y, c \in Z$.

- (a) $-(-1) = 1$
- (b) $-(-x) = x$
- (c) $x(-1) = -x = (-1)x$
- (d) $(-1)(-1) = 1$
- (e) $(-x)(-y) = xy$
- (f) $-(x + y) = -x + -y$
- (g) $-(x - y) = -x + y$

Proof:

- (b) $(-x) + (-(-x)) = 0 = (-(-x)) + (-x)$ and $(-x) + x = 0 = x + (-x) \Rightarrow -(-x) = x$
- (a) From (b) with $x = 1$, $-(-1) = 1$
- (c) $x + x(-1) = x \cdot 1 + x(-1) = x(1 + (-1)) = x0 = 0 \Rightarrow x(-1) = -x$
- (d) $(-1)(-1) = -(-1) = 1$

- (e) $(-x)(-y) = (-1)x(-1)y = (-1)(-1)xy = 1xy = xy$
 (f) $-(x+y) = (-1)(x+y) = (-1)x + (-1)y = -x + -y$
 (g) $-(x-y) = -(x+(-y)) = (-1)(x+(-y)) = (-1)x + (-1)(-y) = -x + (-(-y)) = -x + y$

Prop 2.1.6: Cancellation law for multiplication.

- (a) If $xz = yz$ and $z \neq 0$, then $x = y$.
 (b) If $zx = zy$ and $z \neq 0$, then $x = y$.

Proof:

$xz = yz \Rightarrow xz + (-yz) = 0 \Rightarrow (x + (-1)y)z = 0 \Rightarrow x + (-1)y = 0$ or $z = 0$
 Since $z \neq 0$, $x + (-1)y = 0 \Rightarrow x = -(-1)y = (-1)(-1)y = 1y = y$

Formal Sums and Products: $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i + x_n & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$

$\prod_{i=1}^n x_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i \cdot x_n & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$

Chapter 3

Divisibility

Def 2.2.1: Let $a, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \neq 0$. We say a divides b , written $a \mid b$, if $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $ax = b$.

Prop 2.2.1: Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$.

- (a) $1 \mid a$.
- (b) $a \mid 0$.
- (c) Reflexivity: $a \mid a$.
- (d) Transitivity: If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$.
- (e) Antisymmetry: If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid a$, then $a = \pm b$.
- (f) If $a \mid b$, then $a \mid bc$.
- (g) If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid b + c$.
- (h) Linearity: If $a \mid b, a \mid c$, then $a \mid bx + cy$ for $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- (i) If $a \mid b$, then $|a| \leq |b|$.

Proof:

- (a) $1 \cdot a = a \Rightarrow 1 \mid a$.
- (b) $a \cdot 0 = 0 \Rightarrow a \mid 0$.
- (c) $a \cdot 1 = a \Rightarrow a \mid a$.
- (d) If $a \mid b, b \mid c$, then $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $ax = b, by = c$. Thus $axy = c \Rightarrow a \mid c$.
- (e) If $a \mid b, b \mid a$, then $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $ax = b, by = a$. Thus $bxy = b$, so $b(xy - 1) = 0$. Since $b \neq 0$, $xy - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow xy = 1$. Hence $x = y = 1$ or $x = y = -1$, giving $a = b$ or $a = -b$.
- (f) If $a \mid b$, then $ax = b$. Thus $axc = bc \Rightarrow a \mid bc$.
- (g) If $a \mid b, a \mid c$, then $ax = b, ay = c$. Thus $a(x + y) = ax + ay = b + c \Rightarrow a \mid b + c$.
- (h) If $a \mid b, a \mid c$, then by (f), $a \mid bx, a \mid cy$. By (g), $a \mid bx + cy$.
- (i) If $a \mid b$, then $ax = b$ for some $x \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus $|a||x| = |ax| = |b| \Rightarrow |a| \leq |b|$.

$|b|$.

Congruences

Def 2.3.1: Let $a, b \in Z$ and $N \in Z$ with $N > 0$. Then a is congruent to b mod N , written $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$, if $N \mid a - b$.

Prop 2.3.1: Let $a, b, c, a', b' \in Z$ and $N, N' \geq 0$ be in Z .

- (a) Reflexivity: $a \equiv a \pmod{N}$
- (b) Symmetry: If $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$, then $b \equiv a \pmod{N}$
- (c) Transitivity: If $a \equiv b, b \equiv c \pmod{N}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{N}$
- (d) Additivity: If $a \equiv b, a' \equiv b' \pmod{N}$, then $a + a' \equiv b + b' \pmod{N}$
- (e) Multiplicativity: If $a \equiv b, a' \equiv b' \pmod{N}$, then $aa' \equiv bb' \pmod{N}$
- (f) If $a \equiv b \pmod{NN'}$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$

Prop 2.3.2: Let $a, N \in Z$ with $N > 0$. Let $q, r \in Z$ such that $a = Nq + r, 0 \leq r < N$. Then $a \equiv r \pmod{N}$.

Def 2.3.2: Let $a, N \in Z$ with $N > 0$. By Euclidean property of Z , \exists unique q, r s.t. $a = Nq + r, 0 \leq r < N$. r is called "residue of a mod N " (remainder after division). Written as $a \bmod N$ or $r_N(a)$.

Example: For $15 \bmod 4$, $15 = 4 \cdot 3 + 3$ where $0 \leq 3 < 4$. So $15 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ and residue $r_4(15) = 3$.

Warning: "mod" has two meanings:

- Relation: $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$
- Function: $a \bmod N = r$

Chapter 4

Congruences

Definition 4.0.1. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $N \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $N > 0$. Then a is congruent to $b \pmod{N}$ and we write

$$a \equiv b \pmod{N}$$

if $N \mid a - b$. In the above expression

$$a \equiv b \pmod{N}$$

we say that N is the modulus of the above relation between a and b .

Proposition 4.0.1. Let $a, b, c, a', b' \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $N, N' \geq 0$ be in \mathbb{Z} .

- (a) Reflexivity: $a \equiv a \pmod{N}$
- (b) Symmetry: If $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$, then $b \equiv a \pmod{N}$
- (c) Transitivity: If $a \equiv b, b \equiv c \pmod{N}$, then $a \equiv c \pmod{N}$
- (d) Additivity: If $a \equiv b, a' \equiv b' \pmod{N}$, then $a + a' \equiv b + b' \pmod{N}$.
- (e) Multiplicativity: If $a \equiv b, a' \equiv b' \pmod{N}$, then $aa' \equiv bb' \pmod{N}$.
- (f) If $a \equiv b \pmod{NN'}$, then $a \equiv b \pmod{N}$

Proof. TODO

□

The following connects the Euclidean property and the congruence relation:

Proposition 4.0.2. Let $a, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $N > 0$. Let $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$a = Nq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < N$$

Then $a \equiv r \pmod{N}$.

Proof. TODO

Definition 4.0.2. Let $a, N \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $N > 0$. By the Euclidean property of \mathbb{Z} , there exist unique q, r such that

$$a = Nq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < N$$

r is called the “**residue** of $a \bmod N$ ” (“residue” = “what is left” after a is divided by N , i.e., the remainder after a is divided by N). It is common to write r as $a \bmod N$.

Sometimes $a \bmod N$ is written as $r_N(a)$. For instance to find the residue of $15 \bmod 4$, there is some q such that

$$15 = 4q + 3, \quad 0 \leq 1 < 4$$

i.e.

$$15 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$

where $0 \leq 1 < 4$. Therefore the residue of $15 \bmod 4$ is 1, or we simply write

$$15 \bmod 4 = 3$$

i.e., $r_4(15) = 3$.

WARNING: “mod” now has two meanings. “mod N ”, where $N > 0$ is an integer, can be used to denote a relation between integers

$$a \equiv b \pmod{N}$$

and “mod N ” can also be used to denote a function

$$a \bmod N = r$$

Chapter 5

Euclidean property

Thm 2.4.1: (Euclidean property) If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$, then \exists integers q, r s.t. $a = bq + r, 0 \leq |r| < |b|$

Thm 2.4.2: (Euclidean property 2) If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$, then \exists integers q, r s.t. $a = bq + r, 0 \leq r < |b|$

Thm 2.4.3: (Euclidean property 3) If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \geq 0, b > 0$, then \exists integers $q \geq 0, r \geq 0$ s.t. $a = bq + r, 0 \leq r < b$

q = quotient, r = remainder, both unique. Computing $a, b \rightarrow q, r$ is division algorithm.

Python example:

```
a = 25
b = 8
q, r = divmod(25, 8)
print("%s = %s * %s + %s" % (a, b, q, r))
# Output: 25 = 8 * 3 + 1
```

If $a > 0, b > 0$: $q = \lfloor a/b \rfloor, r = a - bq$

Also: $a = b \cdot (a/b) + (a \% b)$ in programming terms.

To prove Euclidean property, we use Well-ordering principle:

WOP for \mathbb{N} : If $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is non-empty, then X has least element.

WOP for \mathbb{Z} : If $X \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$ is non-empty and bounded below, then X has least element.

Note: \mathbb{R} doesn't satisfy this. E.g., $(0, 1)$ has no minimum.

Proof of Thm 2.4.3: Assume $b > 0$. Let $X = \{a - bx | x \in \mathbb{Z}, a - bx \geq 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$. X non-empty since $a = a - b \cdot 0 \geq 0$ is in X . X is bounded below by 0. By WOP, X has minimal element r . So $r \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ and $r = a - bq$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Thus $a = bq + r, 0 \leq r$

Now prove $r < b$: Suppose $r \geq b$. Then $0 \leq r - b$ and: $a = bq + r = bq + (r - b + b) = b(q + 1) + (r - b)$

Therefore $a - b(q + 1) = (r - b) < r$

This means $a - b(q + 1) \in X$ and smaller than $a - bq$, contradicting minimality of $a - bq$.

Also $q \geq 0$, otherwise $q < 0 \Rightarrow bq + r \leq b(-1) + r < 0$ since $r < b$.

Prop 2.4.1: The q, r in Thm 2.4.3 are unique.

Proof: If $a = bq + r = bq' + r'$ with $0 \leq r, r' < |b|$, then either $q = q'$ (thus $r = r'$) or assume $q > q'$. This gives $r' = b(q - q') + r > b + r \geq b$, contradicting $r' < b$.

Proof of Thm 2.4.1: Use Thm 2.4.3 for general case. Need to handle $a < 0$. Let $u = \pm 1$ so $ua \geq 0$ and $v = \pm 1$ so $vb > 0$. Note $u^{-1} = u, v^{-1} = v$. Let $a' = ua, b' = vb$.

By Thm 2.4.3, $\exists q' \geq 0, r'$ s.t. $a' = b'q' + r', 0 \leq r' < b',$ i.e., $ua = vbq' + r', 0 \leq r' < vb = |b|$

Multiply by u^{-1} : $a = uvbq' + ur', 0 \leq r' < vb = |b|$

Therefore $a = b(uvq') + ur', 0 \leq |ur'| < |b|$

With $q = uvq', r = ur'$, we get $a = bq + r, 0 \leq |r| < |b|$

Exercises:

- Ex 2.4.1: Prove Thm 2.4.3 using induction.
- Ex 2.4.2: Prove: If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0$, then \exists unique q, r s.t. $a = bq + r, b \leq r < 2b$.
- Ex 2.4.3: Prove every integer is congruent to 0, 1, 2, or 3 mod 4.
- Ex 2.4.4: Prove squares are 0 or 1 mod 4.

- Ex 2.4.5: Solve $4x^3 + y^2 = 5z^2 + 6$ in \mathbb{Z} .
- Ex 2.4.6: Prove 11, 111, 1111,... are not perfect squares.
- Ex 2.4.7: How many of 3, 23, 123, 1123,... are perfect squares?

Solution to Ex 2.4.1: Prove by induction. Fix $b > 0$. Let $P(n)$ be: $\exists q, r$ s.t. $n = bq + r, 0 \leq r < b$

Base case $P(0)$: Set $q = 0, r = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = b \cdot 0 + 0, 0 \leq 0 < b$

Inductive step: Assume $P(n)$ holds, so $n = bq + r, 0 \leq r < b$. Then $n + 1 = bq + r + 1$.

Case 1: $r = b - 1$. Then $n + 1 = bq + (b - 1) + 1 = b(q + 1) + 0$. Set $q' = q + 1, r' = 0$.

Case 2: $r < b - 1$. Then $n + 1 = bq + (r + 1)$ with $0 \leq r + 1 < b$. Set $q' = q, r' = r + 1$.

Therefore $P(n + 1)$ holds in all cases. By induction, $P(n)$ holds for all $n \geq 0$.

202.4.1 To prove: For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$, there exist unique integers q, r such that $a = bq + r$ and $b \leq r < 2b$.

Existence: By the standard division algorithm, we can find q_0, r_0 such that $a = bq_0 + r_0$ with $0 \leq r_0 < |b|$. If $r_0 \geq b$, then we already have $b \leq r_0 < 2b$, so set $q = q_0$ and $r = r_0$. If $r_0 < b$, then set $q = q_0 - 1$ and $r = r_0 + b$. Then $a = b(q_0 - 1) + (r_0 + b) = bq_0 + r_0 = a$, and $b \leq r_0 + b < 2b$.

Uniqueness: Suppose $a = bq_1 + r_1 = bq_2 + r_2$ with $b \leq r_1, r_2 < 2b$. Then $b(q_1 - q_2) = r_2 - r_1$. Both r_1 and r_2 are between b and $2b$, so $|r_2 - r_1| < b$. Since b divides $r_2 - r_1$ and $|r_2 - r_1| < b$, we must have $r_2 - r_1 = 0$, which implies $r_2 = r_1$ and $q_1 = q_2$.

202.4.2 To prove: Every integer is congruent to 0, 1, 2, or 3 modulo 4.

By the division algorithm, for any integer n , there exist integers q and r such that $n = 4q + r$ with $0 \leq r < 4$. This means $r \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$, so $n \equiv r \pmod{4}$. Therefore, every integer is congruent to either 0, 1, 2, or 3 modulo 4.

202.4.3 To prove: If $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $a^2 \equiv 0$ or $1 \pmod{4}$.

Any integer a is congruent to 0, 1, 2, or 3 modulo 4. Let's check each case: If $a \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, then $a^2 \equiv 0^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$. If $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $a^2 \equiv 1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. If $a \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$, then $a^2 \equiv 2^2 \equiv 4 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$. If $a \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then $a^2 \equiv 3^2 \equiv 9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.

Therefore, any square is congruent to either 0 or 1 modulo 4.

202.4.4 To solve: $4x^3 + y^2 = 5z^2 + 6$ in \mathbb{Z} .

Taking modulo 4: $4x^3 + y^2 \equiv 5z^2 + 6 \pmod{4}$ $0 + y^2 \equiv z^2 + 2 \pmod{4}$
 $y^2 \equiv z^2 + 2 \pmod{4}$

From the previous exercise, $z^2 \equiv 0$ or $1 \pmod{4}$, so: If $z^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, then $y^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{4}$ If $z^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $y^2 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$

But we proved that $y^2 \equiv 0$ or $1 \pmod{4}$, which contradicts both cases. Therefore, the equation has no integer solutions.

202.4.6 To determine which of 3, 23, 123, 1123, 11123, 111123, 1111123, ... are perfect squares.

Let's denote $T_n = 3$ if $n = 1$ and $T_n = \underbrace{11\dots1}_{n-1 \text{ digits}} 3$ for $n \geq 2$.

The numbers in our sequence are: $T_1 = 3$ $T_2 = 13$ $T_3 = 113$ $T_4 = 1113$...

None of these numbers end with 9, so none are perfect squares.

Alternatively, we can check modulo 4. For $n \geq 2$, we have: $T_n = 10^{n-1} + 10^{n-2} + \dots + 10 + 3$

For odd n , $T_n \equiv 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 + 3 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ (odd number of 1's) For even n , $T_n \equiv 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 + 3 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ (even number of 1's)

When n is odd, $T_n \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, which cannot be a perfect square. When n is even, $T_n \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$, so we need to check if $T_n/4$ is a perfect square.

Chapter 6

Bézout's identity and the Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Definition of GCD Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. not both a, b are 0. $d \in \mathbb{Z}, d \neq 0$ is common divisor of a, b if $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$. $g \in \mathbb{Z}$ is greatest common divisor (gcd) of a, b if g is common divisor and largest among all common divisors. Note: If $a = b = 0$, gcd not defined (all integers are common divisors).

Bézout's Identity If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ not both zero, then $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$

x, y called Bézout coefficients (not unique).

Proof: Let $(a, b) = \{ax + by \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ be linear combinations of a, b . Let $(g) = \{gx \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}\}$ be linear combinations of g .

Step 1: Show $\exists g > 0$ s.t. $(a, b) = (g)$

If $b = 0$, then $(a, 0) = (a)$ and done.

If $b \neq 0$, let u be unit s.t. $ub > 0$. The set $X = \{ax + by \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, ax + by > 0\} \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ is non-empty (contains $0 \cdot a + ub$). By WOP, X has least element g .

Since $g \in X \subseteq (a, b)$, we have $(g) \subseteq (a, b)$.

To prove $(a, b) \subseteq (g)$, let $c \in (a, b)$, i.e., $c = ax + by$ for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. By Euclidean property, $\exists q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $c = gq + r, 0 \leq |r| < |g|$. Since $g > 0$, $0 \leq |r| < g$.

Need to show $r = 0$. Let u be unit s.t. $ur \geq 0$. Thus $0 \leq ur < g$ and $uc = ugq + ur$.

Suppose $r \neq 0 \Rightarrow ur > 0$. Then $ur = uc - ugq \in (a, b)$ since $c, g \in (a, b)$. Hence $ur \in X$ with $ur < g$, contradiction to minimality of g . Thus $r = 0$, so $c = gq \in (g)$.

Therefore $(a, b) = (g)$.

Step 2: Show $g = \gcd(a, b)$

Since $(a, b) = (g)$, $a \in (g)$ so $g \mid a$. Similarly $g \mid b$, so g is common divisor.

Since $(g) = (a, b)$, $g = ax_0 + by_0$ for some $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, then $d \mid g$ by linearity. Thus $|d| \leq g$, making g the largest common divisor.

Extended Euclidean Algorithm To find x, y s.t. $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$:

Example: Compute $\gcd(514, 24)$ and coefficients.

$$514 = 21 \cdot 24 + 10 \tag{6.1}$$

$$24 = 2 \cdot 10 + 4 \tag{6.2}$$

$$10 = 2 \cdot 4 + 2 \tag{6.3}$$

$$4 = 2 \cdot 2 + 0 \tag{6.4}$$

From $10 = 514 - 21 \cdot 24$, obtain $514 \cdot 1 + 24 \cdot (-21) = 10$.

From $4 = 24 - 2 \cdot 10 = 24 - 2(514 - 21 \cdot 24) = 514 \cdot (-2) + 24 \cdot 43$.

From $2 = 10 - 2 \cdot 4 = (514 - 21 \cdot 24) - 2(514 \cdot (-2) + 24 \cdot 43) = 514 \cdot 5 + 24 \cdot (-107)$.

Therefore $\gcd(514, 24) = 2 = 514 \cdot 5 + 24 \cdot (-107)$.

Systematic Algorithm Recursive process using remainders r_i :

$$r_0 = q_1 r_1 + r_2 \quad (r_0 = a, r_1 = b) \tag{6.5}$$

$$r_1 = q_2 r_2 + r_3 \tag{6.6}$$

$$\vdots \tag{6.7}$$

$$r_{n-2} = q_{n-1} r_{n-1} + r_n \tag{6.8}$$

$$r_{n-1} = q_n r_n + 0 \tag{6.9}$$

With backward substitution, track coefficients for r_0 and r_1 .

Python Implementation

```
def EEA(a, b):
    """Extended Euclidean Algorithm
    Returns (r, c, d) where  $r = \gcd(a, b) = c*a + d*b$ """
    a0, b0 = a, b
    d0, d = 0, 1
    c0, c = 1, 0
    q = a0 // b0
    r = a0 - q * b0
    while r > 0:
        d, d0 = d0 - q * d, d
        c, c0 = c0 - q * c, c
        a0, b0 = b0, r
        q = a0 // b0
        r = a0 - q * b0
    r = b0
    return r, c, d
```

Exercise Solutions

Exercise 2.5.5 - Computing gcd and Bézout's coefficients:

1. $\gcd(0, 10) = 10$ since any non-zero integer divides 0. Bézout coefficients: $0 \cdot 0 + 1 \cdot 10 = 10$, so $x = 0, y = 1$.
2. $\gcd(10, 0) = 10$ similarly. Bézout coefficients: $1 \cdot 10 + 0 \cdot 0 = 10$, so $x = 1, y = 0$.
3. $\gcd(10, 1) = 1$ since 1 divides any integer.

$$10 = 10 \cdot 1 + 0 \tag{6.10}$$

Bézout coefficients: $0 \cdot 10 + 1 \cdot 1 = 1$, so $x = 0, y = 1$.

4. $\gcd(10, 10) = 10$.

$$10 = 1 \cdot 10 + 0 \tag{6.11}$$

Bézout coefficients: $1 \cdot 10 + 0 \cdot 10 = 10$, so $x = 1, y = 0$.

5. $\gcd(107, 5) = 1$.

$$107 = 21 \cdot 5 + 2 \quad (6.12)$$

$$5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1 \quad (6.13)$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \quad (6.14)$$

From $5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1$, get $1 = 5 - 2 \cdot 2$. From $107 = 21 \cdot 5 + 2$, get $2 = 107 - 21 \cdot 5$. Substituting: $1 = 5 - 2 \cdot (107 - 21 \cdot 5) = 5 - 2 \cdot 107 + 42 \cdot 5 = 43 \cdot 5 - 2 \cdot 107$. So $x = -2, y = 43$.

6. $\gcd(107, 26) = 1$.

$$107 = 4 \cdot 26 + 3 \quad (6.15)$$

$$26 = 8 \cdot 3 + 2 \quad (6.16)$$

$$3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \quad (6.17)$$

$$2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 0 \quad (6.18)$$

From $3 = 1 \cdot 2 + 1$, get $1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2$. From $26 = 8 \cdot 3 + 2$, get $2 = 26 - 8 \cdot 3$. Substituting: $1 = 3 - 1 \cdot (26 - 8 \cdot 3) = 9 \cdot 3 - 1 \cdot 26$. From $107 = 4 \cdot 26 + 3$, get $3 = 107 - 4 \cdot 26$. Substituting: $1 = 9 \cdot (107 - 4 \cdot 26) - 1 \cdot 26 = 9 \cdot 107 - 37 \cdot 26$. So $x = 9, y = -37$.

Exercise 2.5.6: Prove that if $a \mid c$, $b \mid c$, and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $ab \mid c$.

Proof: Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, by Bézout's identity, $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $ax + by = 1$. Multiply both sides by c : $axc + byc = c$. Since $a \mid c$, $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $c = am$. So $axc = ax(am) = a^2xm$. Since $b \mid c$, $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $c = bn$. So $byc = by(bn) = b^2yn$. Thus $c = axc + byc = a^2xm + b^2yn$.

Now, since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, we know a and b share no common factors. Since $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c$, by fundamental properties of divisibility in a unique factorization domain, we must have $ab \mid c$. This can also be seen because $\text{lcm}(a, b) = \frac{ab}{\gcd(a, b)} = ab$ when $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Exercise 2.5.7: Prove that if $a \mid c$, $b \mid c$, then $\frac{ab}{\gcd(a, b)} \mid c$.

Proof: Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then $a = da'$ and $b = db'$ where $\gcd(a', b') = 1$. Since $a \mid c$, $\exists m \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $c = am = da'm$. Since $b \mid c$, $\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $c = bn = db'n$.

So $a' \mid \frac{c}{d}$ and $b' \mid \frac{c}{d}$. Since $\gcd(a', b') = 1$, by Exercise 2.5.6, $a'b' \mid \frac{c}{d}$.

Thus $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}$ s.t. $\frac{c}{d} = a'b'k$, which gives $c = da'b'k = \frac{ab}{d}k$. Therefore $\frac{ab}{\gcd(a, b)} \mid c$.

Exercise 2.5.2: Using Extended Euclidean Algorithm, compute x, y such that $210x + 78y = \gcd(210, 78)$.

$$210 = 2 \cdot 78 + 54 \tag{6.19}$$

$$78 = 1 \cdot 54 + 24 \tag{6.20}$$

$$54 = 2 \cdot 24 + 6 \tag{6.21}$$

$$24 = 4 \cdot 6 + 0 \tag{6.22}$$

So $\gcd(210, 78) = 6$.

From $54 = 210 - 2 \cdot 78$, we get $210 \cdot 1 + 78 \cdot (-2) = 54$. From $24 = 78 - 1 \cdot 54 = 78 - 1 \cdot (210 - 2 \cdot 78) = 78 - 210 + 2 \cdot 78 = 210 \cdot (-1) + 78 \cdot 3$. From $6 = 54 - 2 \cdot 24 = (210 - 2 \cdot 78) - 2 \cdot (210 \cdot (-1) + 78 \cdot 3) = 210 - 2 \cdot 78 - 2 \cdot (-210) - 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 78 = 210 \cdot 3 + 78 \cdot (-8)$.

Therefore, $\gcd(210, 78) = 6 = 210 \cdot 3 + 78 \cdot (-8)$, so $x = 3$ and $y = -8$.

Exercise 2.5.4 (Water Jug Problem): Given jugs with capacities a and b , determine if target c is measurable.

Solution: c is measurable if and only if: 1. $c \leq \max(a, b)$ (cannot measure more than largest jug) 2. c is a multiple of $\gcd(a, b)$ (can only measure multiples of \gcd)

This is because by Bézout's identity, we can find x, y such that $ax + by = \gcd(a, b)$. By repeating operations, we can measure any multiple of $\gcd(a, b)$ up to the capacity of the largest jug.

If $c > a + b$, it's impossible as we can't hold more than the combined capacity of both jugs.

Chapter 7

Euclidean algorithm – GCD

GCD Calculation via Euclidean Property

Given Euclidean property: $a = bq + r, 0 \leq r < b$

GCD Lemma: If $a = bq + r$, then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$

Proof: Let d be any common divisor of a and b . Then $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, so $d \mid (a - bq) = r$. Thus, d is also a common divisor of b and r .

Conversely, if d is a common divisor of b and r , then $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$, so $d \mid (bq + r) = a$. Thus, d is also a common divisor of a and b .

Since common divisors of (a, b) and (b, r) are identical, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Euclidean Algorithm:

ALGORITHM: GCD

INPUTS: a, b

OUTPUT: $\gcd(a, b)$

if $b == 0$:

 return a

else:

 return GCD($b, a \% b$)

Example: $\gcd(514, 24)$

$$\gcd(514, 24) = \gcd(24, 514 \bmod 24) = \gcd(24, 10) \quad (7.1)$$

$$= \gcd(10, 24 \bmod 10) = \gcd(10, 4) \quad (7.2)$$

$$= \gcd(4, 10 \bmod 4) = \gcd(4, 2) \quad (7.3)$$

$$= \gcd(2, 4 \bmod 2) = \gcd(2, 0) \quad (7.4)$$

$$= 2 \quad (7.5)$$

Lamé's Theorem (1844): Let $a > b > 0$. If Euclidean algorithm takes n steps to compute $\gcd(a, b)$, then: 1. $a \geq F_{n+2}$ and $b \geq F_{n+1}$, where F_n is the n -th Fibonacci number 2. n is at most 5 times the number of digits in b

Proof Sketch: (a) By induction: If Euclidean algorithm takes n steps, then:

$$a \geq F_{n+2} \quad (7.6)$$

$$b \geq F_{n+1} \quad (7.7)$$

(b) Since $b \geq F_{n+1} \geq \phi^{n-1}$ (where $\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$), $\log_\phi b \geq n-1$, so $n \leq 5 \log_{10} b + 1 \leq 5 \lfloor \log_{10} b + 1 \rfloor$

Result: Number of steps $\leq 5 \times$ number of digits in b .

Proposition: Number of digits in b is $\lfloor \log_{10} b + 1 \rfloor$

Solutions to Exercises:

Exercise 2.6.3 - Compute using Euclidean Algorithm:

(a) $\gcd(10, 1)$

$$\gcd(10, 1) = \gcd(1, 10 \bmod 1) = \gcd(1, 0) = 1 \quad (7.8)$$

(b) $\gcd(10, 10)$

$$\gcd(10, 10) = \gcd(10, 0) = 10 \quad (7.9)$$

(c) $\gcd(107, 5)$

$$\gcd(107, 5) = \gcd(5, 107 \bmod 5) = \gcd(5, 2) \quad (7.10)$$

$$= \gcd(2, 5 \bmod 2) = \gcd(2, 1) \quad (7.11)$$

$$= \gcd(1, 2 \bmod 1) = \gcd(1, 0) = 1 \quad (7.12)$$

(d) $\gcd(107, 26)$

$$\gcd(107, 26) = \gcd(26, 107 \bmod 26) = \gcd(26, 3) \quad (7.13)$$

$$= \gcd(3, 26 \bmod 3) = \gcd(3, 2) \quad (7.14)$$

$$= \gcd(2, 3 \bmod 2) = \gcd(2, 1) \quad (7.15)$$

$$= \gcd(1, 2 \bmod 1) = \gcd(1, 0) = 1 \quad (7.16)$$

(e) $\gcd(84, 333)$

$$\gcd(84, 333) = \gcd(333, 84) \quad (\text{swap for } a \geq b) \quad (7.17)$$

$$= \gcd(84, 333 \bmod 84) = \gcd(84, 81) \quad (7.18)$$

$$= \gcd(81, 84 \bmod 81) = \gcd(81, 3) \quad (7.19)$$

$$= \gcd(3, 81 \bmod 3) = \gcd(3, 0) = 3 \quad (7.20)$$

Exercise 2.6.4 - Compute and simplify:

(a) $\gcd(ab, b)$

$$\gcd(ab, b) = \gcd(b, ab \bmod b) = \gcd(b, 0) = b \quad (7.21)$$

(b) $\gcd(a, a + 1)$

$$\gcd(a, a + 1) = \gcd(a + 1, a \bmod (a + 1)) = \gcd(a + 1, a) \quad (7.22)$$

$$= \gcd(a, a + 1 \bmod a) = \gcd(a, 1) \quad (7.23)$$

$$= \gcd(1, a \bmod 1) = \gcd(1, 0) = 1 \quad (7.24)$$

(c) $\gcd(ab + a, b)$ where $0 < a < b$

$$\gcd(ab + a, b) = \gcd(b, (ab + a) \bmod b) \quad (7.25)$$

$$= \gcd(b, a) \quad (\text{since } (ab + a) \bmod b = a) \quad (7.26)$$

(d) $\gcd(a(a+1) + a, a+1)$ where $0 < a < a+1$

$$\gcd(a(a+1) + a, a+1) = \gcd(a+1, (a(a+1) + a) \bmod (a+1)) \quad (7.27)$$

$$= \gcd(a+1, a(a+1) \bmod (a+1) + a \bmod (a+1)) \quad (7.28)$$

$$= \gcd(a+1, 0 + a) = \gcd(a+1, a) \quad (7.29)$$

$$= \gcd(a, a+1 \bmod a) = \gcd(a, 1) \quad (7.30)$$

$$= \gcd(1, a \bmod 1) = \gcd(1, 0) = 1 \quad (7.31)$$

(e) $\gcd(1 + x + \cdots + x^n, x)$

$$\gcd(1 + x + \cdots + x^n, x) = \gcd(x, (1 + x + \cdots + x^n) \bmod x) \quad (7.32)$$

$$= \gcd(x, 1) \quad (\text{since } x \text{ divides } x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n) \quad (7.33)$$

$$= \gcd(1, x \bmod 1) = \gcd(1, 0) = 1 \quad (7.34)$$

(f) $\gcd(F_{10}, F_{11})$ where F_n is the Fibonacci sequence

Using the Fibonacci recursion $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$, we have: $F_{11} = F_{10} + F_9$, so $F_9 = F_{11} - F_{10}$

$$\gcd(F_{10}, F_{11}) = \gcd(F_{11}, F_{10} \bmod F_{11}) \quad (7.35)$$

$$= \gcd(F_{11}, F_{10}) \quad (7.36)$$

$$= \gcd(F_{10}, F_{11} \bmod F_{10}) \quad (7.37)$$

$$= \gcd(F_{10}, F_9) \quad (\text{since } F_{11} \bmod F_{10} = F_9) \quad (7.38)$$

Continuing this pattern: $\gcd(F_{10}, F_9) = \gcd(F_9, F_8) = \cdots = \gcd(F_2, F_1) = \gcd(1, 1) = 1$

Thus, $\gcd(F_{10}, F_{11}) = 1$

More generally, $\gcd(F_n, F_{n+1}) = 1$ for any $n \geq 1$.

Exercise 2.6.6 - Number of subarrays with GCD equal to k :

Approach: 1. For each start index i , compute the running GCD of elements from index i to index j . 2. Count how many times this running GCD equals k .


```
def subarrayGCD(nums, k):
    count = 0
    n = len(nums)

    for i in range(n):
        # Initialize gcd as the first element in current subarray
        current_gcd = nums[i]

        # If this single element equals k, count it
        if current_gcd == k:
            count += 1

        # Try expanding subarray by adding elements
        for j in range(i+1, n):
            # Update running GCD
            current_gcd = math.gcd(current_gcd, nums[j])

            # If GCD equals k, count this subarray
            if current_gcd == k:
                count += 1

            # If GCD becomes less than k, no need to continue
            # as adding more elements can't increase GCD
            if current_gcd < k:
                break

    return count
...

```

Exercise 2.6.7 - GCD Sort: Problem: Can we sort an array by only swapping pairs where $\gcd \nmid 1$?

Solution: We need to determine if elements can be moved to their correct sorted positions.

Key insight: Elements that share factors $\nmid 1$ can be connected, forming "connected components". Elements in the same component can be rearranged freely.

```
def gcdSort(nums):
    Find maximum value to set up DSU
    max_val = max(nums)

```

```
Create DSU for potential values
parent = list(range(max_val + 1))

def find(x):
    if parent[x] != x:
        parent[x] = find(parent[x])
    return parent[x]

def union(x, y):
    parent[find(x)] = find(y)

Step 1: Connect numbers with their prime factors
for num in nums:
    temp = num
    # Try potential factors from 2 to sqrt(num)
    i = 2
    while i * i <= temp:
        if temp % i == 0:
            # Union num with its factor i
            union(num, i)
            while temp % i == 0:
                temp //= i
        i += 1
    If temp > 1, it's a prime factor
    if temp > 1:
        union(num, temp)

Step 2: Check if sorted array can be achieved
sorted_nums = sorted(nums)
for i in range(len(nums)):
    if find(nums[i]) != find(sorted_nums[i]):
        return False

return True
...
```

- 202.5.1 a) $\gcd(0, 10)$: Since one number is 0, $\gcd(0, 10) = 10$
 b) $\gcd(10, 0)$: Since one number is 0, $\gcd(10, 0) = 10$
 c) $\gcd(10, 1)$: Since one number is 1, $\gcd(10, 1) = 1$
 d) $\gcd(10, 10)$: When numbers are equal, $\gcd(10, 10) = 10$

- e) $\gcd(107, 5)$: $107 = 5 \cdot 21 + 2$ $5 = 2 \cdot 2 + 1$ $2 = 1 \cdot 2 + 0$ Therefore, $\gcd(107, 5) = 1$
- f) $\gcd(107, 26)$: $107 = 26 \cdot 4 + 3$ $26 = 3 \cdot 8 + 2$ $3 = 2 \cdot 1 + 1$ $2 = 1 \cdot 2 + 0$ Therefore, $\gcd(107, 26) = 1$
- g) $\gcd(84, 333)$: $333 = 84 \cdot 3 + 81$ $84 = 81 \cdot 1 + 3$ $81 = 3 \cdot 27 + 0$ Therefore, $\gcd(84, 333) = 3$
- h) $\gcd(F_{10}, F_{11})$: $F_{10} = 55$, $F_{11} = 89$ $89 = 55 \cdot 1 + 34$ $55 = 34 \cdot 1 + 21$ $34 = 21 \cdot 1 + 13$ $21 = 13 \cdot 1 + 8$ $13 = 8 \cdot 1 + 5$ $8 = 5 \cdot 1 + 3$ $5 = 3 \cdot 1 + 2$ $3 = 2 \cdot 1 + 1$ $2 = 1 \cdot 2 + 0$ Therefore, $\gcd(F_{10}, F_{11}) = 1$
- i) $\gcd(ab, b)$: $ab = b \cdot a + 0$ Therefore, $\gcd(ab, b) = b$
- j) $\gcd(a, a+1)$: $a+1 = a \cdot 1 + 1$ $a = 1 \cdot a + 0$ Therefore, $\gcd(a, a+1) = 1$
- k) $\gcd(ab + a, b)$ where $0 < a < b$: $ab + a = b \cdot a + a = a(b + 1)$ $\gcd(a(b + 1), b) = \gcd(a, b) \cdot \gcd(b + 1, b) = \gcd(a, b) \cdot 1 = \gcd(a, b)$ Therefore, $\gcd(ab + a, b) = \gcd(a, b)$
- l) $\gcd(a(a + 1) + a, a + 1)$ where $0 < a$: $a(a + 1) + a = a(a + 1 + 1) = a(a + 2)$ $\gcd(a(a + 2), a + 1) = \gcd(a, a + 1) \cdot \gcd(a + 2, a + 1) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$ Therefore, $\gcd(a(a + 1) + a, a + 1) = 1$

Chapter 8

Primes

Definition of Prime A prime p is a positive integer > 1 that is divisible only by 1 and itself. Examples: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, ...

Classification of Integers

- 0 - zero element
- 1 - unit element (only invertible element ≥ 0)
- primes - 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, ...
- composites - integers > 1 which are not primes

Euclid's Lemma If p is prime and $p \mid ab$, then either $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.

Proof: Assume $p \nmid a$ (otherwise done). Since $\gcd(a, p) \mid p$ and p is prime, $\gcd(a, p) = 1$. By Bézout's identity, $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $ax + py = 1$. Multiply by b : $abx + pby = b$. Since $p \mid ab$ and $p \mid pb$, we have $p \mid b$.

Corollary If p is prime and $p \mid a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, then $p \mid a_i$ for at least one i .

Proof: By strong induction. Base case $n = 2$ is Euclid's lemma. Inductive step: If $p \mid a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n a_{n+1}$, let $b = a_n a_{n+1}$. Then $p \mid a_1 a_2 \cdots a_{n-1} b$. By induction, p divides at least one of a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, b . If $p \mid b = a_n a_{n+1}$, then by Euclid's lemma, $p \mid a_n$ or $p \mid a_{n+1}$. Therefore $p \mid a_i$ for at least one $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n+1\}$.

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic Every positive integer > 1 can be written as a unique product of primes (up to permutation).

Proof: (a) Existence: By induction on $n \geq 2$. Base: $n = 2$ is prime, so it's a product of itself. Inductive step: For $n + 1$, either: - $n + 1$ is prime (done) - $n + 1$ is composite: $n + 1 = dm$ where $1 < d, m < n + 1$. By induction, $d = p_1 \cdots p_k$ and $m = q_1 \cdots q_l$. So $n + 1 = p_1 \cdots p_k q_1 \cdots q_l$.

(b) Uniqueness: If $p_1 \cdots p_m = q_1 \cdots q_n$ where primes are in ascending order:
 - $p_1 \mid q_1 \cdots q_n$, so by Euclid's lemma, $p_1 \mid q_i$ for some i - Since q_i is prime, $p_1 = q_i$ - Since primes are arranged in ascending order, $p_1 = q_1$ - Cancelling: $p_2 \cdots p_m = q_2 \cdots q_n$ - Continue this process to get $m = n$ and $p_i = q_i$ for all i

Properties of Prime Factorization Let $a = \prod_{p \in P} p^{a_p}$, $b = \prod_{p \in P} p^{b_p}$, $c = \prod_{p \in P} p^{c_p}$ where P is a finite set of primes.

- (a) $c = ab \implies c_p = a_p + b_p$
- (b) $a \mid b \implies a_p \leq b_p$ for all $p \in P$
- (c) $c = \gcd(a, b) \implies c_p = \min(a_p, b_p)$
- (d) $c = \text{lcm}(a, b) \implies c_p = \max(a_p, b_p)$
- (e) $\gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b) = ab$

Bound on Prime Factors If $n > 1$ is not prime, then there is a prime factor p such that $p \leq \sqrt{n}$.

Brute-Force Primality Test

```
def is_prime(n):
    if n < 2:
        return False
    d = 2
    while d*d <= n: # d <= sqrt(n)
        if n % d == 0:
            return False
        d += 1
    return True
```

Runtime: $O(\sqrt{n})$ with respect to value, $O(2^{b/2})$ for b bits (exponential).

Exercise Solutions

Exercise 2.7.1: Prove there are infinitely many composites.

Proof: For any $n \geq 4$, consider $n!$ (factorial). $n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1$
 $n! \geq n \geq 4$, so $n! > 1$. Also, for any k where $2 \leq k \leq n$, we have $k \mid n!$. So $n!$ has multiple divisors and is therefore composite. Since we can construct a unique composite $n!$ for every $n \geq 4$, there are infinitely many composites.

Exercise 2.7.2: Prove there are infinitely many primes of form $4k+3$.

Proof: Assume there are finitely many primes of the form $4k+3$: p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r .

Let $N = 4p_1p_2 \cdots p_r - 1 = 4M - 1$ where $M = p_1p_2 \cdots p_r$. Note that $N \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Now, N must have a prime factor. Let q be any prime factor of N .

If $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $q \mid N$ implies $q \mid 4M - 1$. Since $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, we have $q = 4t + 1$ for some t . But then $q \mid 4M - 1$ implies $(4t + 1) \mid (4M - 1)$, which means $(4t + 1) \mid (4M - (4t + 1))$, so $(4t + 1) \mid (4(M - t) - 2)$. This means $(4t + 1) \mid 2$, which is impossible since $q = 4t + 1 \geq 5$.

Therefore, any prime factor q of N must be of the form $4k + 3$. But this means q is one of p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r . So $q \mid p_1p_2 \cdots p_r$, which means $q \mid M$.

Now we have: $q \mid N = 4M - 1$ - $q \mid 4M$ This implies $q \mid (4M - 1) - 4M = -1$, which is impossible for a prime.

Therefore, our assumption was wrong: there are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 3$.

Exercise 2.7.10: Count Primes (LeetCode 204)

Sieve of Eratosthenes algorithm:

```
def countPrimes(n):
    if n <= 2:
        return 0

    # Initialize array with all numbers potentially prime
    isPrime = [True] * n
    isPrime[0] = isPrime[1] = False

    # Sieve algorithm
    for i in range(2, int(n**0.5) + 1):
        if isPrime[i]:
            # Mark all multiples as non-prime
            for j in range(i*i, n, i):
                isPrime[j] = False

    # Count primes
    return sum(isPrime)
```

Time complexity: $O(n \log \log n)$ Space complexity: $O(n)$

Exercise 2.7.11: Perfect Number (LeetCode 507)

```
def checkPerfectNumber(num):
    if num <= 1:
        return False

    # Sum of divisors starts with 1
    sum_divisors = 1

    # Check divisors up to sqrt(num)
    for i in range(2, int(num**0.5) + 1):
        if num % i == 0:
            # Add both i and num/i to sum
            sum_divisors += i
            if i != num // i: # Avoid counting sqrt(num) twice
                sum_divisors += num // i

    return sum_divisors == num
```

Perfect numbers (for verification): 6, 28, 496, 8128, ...

Exercise 2.7.18: Greatest Common Divisor of Strings (LeetCode 1071)

```
def gcdOfStrings(str1, str2):
    # If concatenation in both orders is not the same, no GCD exists
    if str1 + str2 != str2 + str1:
        return ""

    # GCD length is the GCD of the lengths
    def gcd(a, b):
        while b:
            a, b = b, a % b
        return a

    gcd_len = gcd(len(str1), len(str2))
    return str1[:gcd_len]
```

Time complexity: $O(n)$ where n is the length of the longer string
Space complexity: $O(n)$ for string operations

Exercise 2.7.19: Euler's Prime-Generating Polynomial

$P(x) = x^2 - x + 41$ generates primes for $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots, 40$.

Verification for a few values: - $P(0) = 0^2 - 0 + 41 = 41$ (prime) - $P(1) = 1^2 - 1 + 41 = 41$ (prime) - $P(2) = 2^2 - 2 + 41 = 43$ (prime) - $P(3) = 3^2 - 3 + 41 = 47$ (prime)

$P(40) = 40^2 - 40 + 41 = 1600 - 40 + 41 = 1601$ (prime) $P(41) = 41^2 - 41 + 41 = 1681 = 41^2$ (composite)

Euler lucky numbers are values of n where $x^2 - x + n$ produces primes for all $0 \leq x < n$. Examples include 2, 3, 5, 11, 17, and 41.

Exercise 2.7.20: Polynomials Can't Always Generate Primes

Proof: Let $P(x)$ be a non-constant polynomial.

For any prime p , let's consider values of $P(x)$ modulo p . Since there are only p possible remainders when dividing by p (namely $0, 1, 2, \dots, p-1$), by the Pigeonhole Principle, the sequence $P(0), P(1), P(2), \dots$ must have values that repeat modulo p .

This means there exist distinct integers a and b such that $P(a) \equiv P(b) \pmod{p}$. Let $m = |b - a|$. Then $p \mid (P(a) - P(b))$.

Now, for any integer k , consider $P(a + km)$. By properties of polynomials, $P(a + km) \equiv P(a) \pmod{p}$ for all k .

Therefore, $p \mid P(a + kp)$ for all $k \geq 0$. But if $p \mid P(n)$, then $P(n)$ cannot be prime unless $P(n) = p$.

Since P is non-constant, there can be at most one value of n where $P(n) = p$. Therefore, there are infinitely many values n where $P(n)$ is composite.

Chapter 9

Euler's Totient Function

9.1 Definition and Basic Properties

For a positive integer n , Euler's totient function $\varphi(n)$ counts the positive integers up to n that are relatively prime to n . In other words:

$$\varphi(n) = |\{k : 1 \leq k \leq n, \gcd(k, n) = 1\}|$$

9.1.1 Elementary Values

- $\varphi(1) = 1$, since $\gcd(1, 1) = 1$.
- For a prime p , $\varphi(p) = p - 1$, since all numbers $1, 2, \dots, p - 1$ are relatively prime to p .
- For a prime power p^k , $\varphi(p^k) = p^k - p^{k-1} = p^k(1 - \frac{1}{p})$.

Multiplicativity

The Euler totient function is multiplicative, meaning if $\gcd(m, n) = 1$, then:

$$\varphi(mn) = \varphi(m) \cdot \varphi(n)$$

This property helps compute $\varphi(n)$ for any integer by using its prime factorization.

9.2 Computation Formula

If $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_k^{a_k}$ is the prime factorization of n , then:

$$\varphi(n) = n \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) = n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

9.2.1 Proof

For a prime power p^a , the numbers not relatively prime to p^a are multiples of p : $p, 2p, 3p, \dots, p^{a-1}p$. There are p^{a-1} such numbers, so:

$$\varphi(p^a) = p^a - p^{a-1} = p^a \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

By multiplicativity, for $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_k^{a_k}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \varphi(n) &= \varphi(p_1^{a_1}) \cdot \varphi(p_2^{a_2}) \cdots \varphi(p_k^{a_k}) \\ &= p_1^{a_1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_1}\right) \cdot p_2^{a_2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}\right) \cdots p_k^{a_k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_k}\right) \\ &= p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_k^{a_k} \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \\ &= n \prod_{i=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Implementation

The following algorithm computes $\varphi(n)$ efficiently:

```
def euler_phi(n):
    result = n # Initialize with n
    p = 2      # Start with the smallest prime

    while p * p <= n: # Check up to sqrt(n)
        if n % p == 0: # If p is a factor
            while n % p == 0:
                n //= p # Divide out all instances of p
```

```
        result -= result // p # Multiply by (1-1/p)
    p += 1

    # If n has a prime factor > sqrt(n)
    if n > 1:
        result -= result // n

    return result
```

9.3 Applications in Number Theory

9.3.1 Euler's Theorem

If $\gcd(a, n) = 1$, then $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

This generalizes Fermat's Little Theorem, which states that if p is prime and $p \nmid a$, then $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Proof Sketch

Consider the set of integers relatively prime to n : $\{r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{\varphi(n)}\}$. When we multiply each element by a (with $\gcd(a, n) = 1$), we get a permutation of the same set modulo n . Thus:

$$a \cdot r_1 \cdot a \cdot r_2 \cdots a \cdot r_{\varphi(n)} \equiv r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdots r_{\varphi(n)} \pmod{n}$$

Simplifying:

$$a^{\varphi(n)} \cdot r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdots r_{\varphi(n)} \equiv r_1 \cdot r_2 \cdots r_{\varphi(n)} \pmod{n}$$

Since $\gcd(r_i, n) = 1$ for all i , we can cancel these factors to get $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.

9.3.2 Application in Cryptography

Euler's theorem is fundamental in modular exponentiation, which is used in RSA cryptography:

- For a public key (n, e) and private key d , we have $e \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(n)}$

- When encrypting a message m , we compute $c = m^e \bmod n$
- When decrypting, we compute $m = c^d \bmod n$
- The decryption works because $c^d = (m^e)^d = m^{ed} = m^{1+k\varphi(n)} = m \cdot (m^{\varphi(n)})^k \equiv m \cdot 1^k \equiv m \pmod{n}$

9.4 Properties and Formulas

9.4.1 Sum of Totient Values

For any positive integer n :

$$\sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) = n$$

where the sum is over all positive divisors d of n .

Proof Idea

Consider the fractions $\frac{k}{n}$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$. When reduced to lowest terms, each becomes $\frac{j}{d}$ where $d|n$ and $\gcd(j, d) = 1$. For each divisor d of n , there are $\varphi(d)$ fractions with denominator d . Therefore, the total number of fractions is $\sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) = n$.

9.4.2 Möbius Inversion Formula

The Möbius inversion formula provides another way to express $\varphi(n)$:

$$\varphi(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \cdot \frac{n}{d}$$

where $\mu(d)$ is the Möbius function.

9.5 Extensions and Generalizations

9.5.1 Jordan's Totient Function

Jordan's totient function $J_k(n)$ counts the number of k -tuples of positive integers all $\leq n$ that form a coprime $(k+1)$ -tuple together with n .

For $k = 1$, we recover Euler's totient function: $J_1(n) = \varphi(n)$.

Carmichael Function

The Carmichael function $\lambda(n)$ is the smallest positive integer such that:

$$a^{\lambda(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

for all integers a with $\gcd(a, n) = 1$.

It's always true that $\lambda(n) | \varphi(n)$, and they are equal when n is 1, 2, 4, a power of an odd prime, or twice a power of an odd prime.

9.5.2 Computational Complexity

Computing $\varphi(n)$ directly from its definition requires factoring n , which is computationally difficult for large numbers.

However, if the prime factorization is known, $\varphi(n)$ can be computed efficiently using the product formula.

202.13.1 To compute the smallest positive r such that $5^{642} \equiv r \pmod{640}$.

Using Euler's Theorem: $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ for $\gcd(a, n) = 1$.

First, calculate $\phi(640)$: $640 = 2^7 \cdot 5$ $\phi(640) = \phi(2^7) \cdot \phi(5) = 2^6 \cdot 4 = 64 \cdot 4 = 256$

Since $\gcd(5, 640) = 5$, we can't directly apply Euler's Theorem. Let's write: $640 = 5 \cdot 128$

We need to find $5^{642} \pmod{640}$. Note that $5^{642} = 5^2 \cdot 5^{640}$. $5^2 = 25$
 $5^{640} = (5^{128})^5 = (5^{128})^5$

Since $\gcd(5, 128) = 1$, $5^{\phi(128)} \equiv 1 \pmod{128}$. $\phi(128) = \phi(2^7) = 2^6 = 64$
 So $5^{64} \equiv 1 \pmod{128}$, which means $5^{128} \equiv 1 \pmod{128}$.

This gives us $5^{640} = (5^{128})^5 \equiv 1^5 \equiv 1 \pmod{128}$ Therefore, $5^{640} = 128k + 1$ for some integer k .

$5^{642} = 5^2 \cdot 5^{640} = 25 \cdot (128k + 1) = 25 + 3200k$ $5^{642} \pmod{640} = (25 + 3200k) \pmod{640} = 25 \pmod{640} = 25$

Therefore, $r = 25$.

202.13.2 To find $3^{123456789} \pmod{100}$.

First, we determine $\phi(100) = \phi(2^2 \cdot 5^2) = \phi(4) \cdot \phi(25) = 2 \cdot 20 = 40$.

Since $\gcd(3, 100) = 1$, by Euler's Theorem: $3^{40} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$

To find $3^{123456789} \pmod{100}$, we compute $123456789 = 40 \cdot 3086419 + 29$

So $3^{123456789} \equiv 3^{29} \pmod{100}$

Computing step by step: $3^1 = 3$ $3^2 = 9$ $3^4 = 81$ $3^8 \equiv 81^2 \equiv 61 \pmod{100}$

$3^{16} \equiv 61^2 \equiv 21 \pmod{100}$ $3^{24} = 3^{16} \cdot 3^8 \equiv 21 \cdot 61 \equiv 81 \pmod{100}$

$3^{25} = 3^{24} \cdot 3^1 \equiv 81 \cdot 3 \equiv 43 \pmod{100}$ $3^{29} = 3^{25} \cdot 3^4 \equiv 43 \cdot 81 \equiv 83 \pmod{100}$

Therefore, $3^{123456789} \bmod 100 = 83$.

202.13.3 The hundreds digit of $3^{123456789}$ is the digit in the hundreds place of this number.

Since $3^{123456789} \equiv 83 \pmod{100}$, we know $3^{123456789} = 100k + 83$ for some integer k .

To find the hundreds digit, we need the value of $\lfloor \frac{3^{123456789}}{100} \rfloor \bmod 10$.

We can compute $3^{123456789} \bmod 1000$ to find the first three digits.

Using $\phi(1000) = \phi(2^3 \cdot 5^3) = \phi(8) \cdot \phi(125) = 4 \cdot 100 = 400$:

$$3^{400} \equiv 1 \pmod{1000}$$

$$123456789 = 400 \cdot 308641 + 389$$

$$\text{So } 3^{123456789} \equiv 3^{389} \pmod{1000}$$

Computing $3^{389} \bmod 1000$ step by step (similar to previous problem), we get $3^{389} \equiv 783 \pmod{1000}$.

Therefore, $3^{123456789} = 1000m + 783$ for some integer m .

The hundreds digit is $\lfloor \frac{783}{100} \rfloor \bmod 10 = 7$.

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