

# Module I : Number Theory (MATH 2201)

*by*

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# 1 Well-Ordering principle

Every non-empty subset  $S$  of set of positive integers has a least element.

## Counter-Examples

Set of integers, or, set of positive real numbers does not satisfy well-ordering principle.

**Problem :** There are no positive integers strictly between 0 and 1.

Let  $S$  be the set of integers  $x$  such that  $0 < x < 1$ . Let  $n$  be its least element. Multiplying both sides of  $n < 1$  by  $n$  gives,  $n^2 < n$ . Therefore,  $0 < n^2 < n < 1$ . This is a contradiction since  $n$  is least element. Hence  $S$  is empty.

# 2 Division Algorithm

Given integers  $a$  and  $b$ , with  $b > 0$ , there exist unique integers  $q$  and  $r$  satisfying  $a = bq + r$ ,  $0 \leq r < b$ . The integers  $q$  and  $r$  are respectively called, the quotient and remainder in division of  $a$  by  $b$ .

*Proof.* Let us consider the set  $S = \{a - xb : x \in \mathbb{Z}, a - xb \geq 0\}$ . We first show that  $S$  is non-empty. Since  $b \geq 1$ ,  $|a|b \geq |a|$ , and so,  $a - (-|a|)b \geq a + |a| \geq 0$ . Thus, for the choice  $x = -|a|$ ,  $S$  is non-empty. Hence by well-ordering principle,  $S$  contains a least element. say  $r$ . By the definition of  $S$ , there exists an integer  $q$  satisfying  $r = a - bq, r \geq 0$ .

We argue that  $r < b$ . Let us assume in the contrary,  $r \geq b$  and  $a - (q + 1)b = (a - bq) - b = r - b \geq 0$ . This implies that it is a member of  $S$ . But  $r - b < r$ , leading to a contradiction of choice  $r$  as the least element. Hence,  $r < b$ .

Next we show the uniqueness of  $q$  and  $r$ . Suppose that  $a$  has two representations  $a = bq + r = bq' + r', 0 \leq r < b, 0 \leq r' < b$ . Then  $r - r' = b(q' - q)$ , which gives,  $|r - r'| = b|q - q'|$ . Upon adding two inequalities  $-b < -r \leq 0$  and  $0 \leq r' < b$ , we obtain,  $-b < r' - r < b$ , or,  $|r' - r| < b$ . Thus,  $b|q - q'| < b$  yields  $|q - q'| < 1$ . The only possibility hence is that  $|q - q'| < 0$ , proving  $q = q'$  and hence  $r = r'$ .  $\square$

The Algorithm holds if  $b < 0$ , taking absolute value of  $b$ .

## Divisibility

An integer  $a$  is said to be divisible by an integer  $b \neq 0$  if there exists some integer  $c$  such that  $a = bc$ . We express it as " $b$  divides  $a$ " or,  $b|a$ .

Some immediate observations are:

- $a|0, 1|a, a|a$ .
- $a|b, c|d$  implies  $ac|bd$ .
- $a|b$  and  $a|c$  implies  $a|(bx + cy)$  for arbitrary integers  $x$  and  $y$ .

## Greatest Common Divisor(gcd)

**Definition:** Let  $a$  and  $b$  be given integers, with at least one of them different from zero. The greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ , denoted by  $\gcd(a, b)$  or,  $(a, b)$  is the positive integer  $d$  satisfying the following :

- (i)  $d|a$  and  $d|b$ .
- (ii) If  $c|a$  and  $c|b$ , then  $c \leq d$  and  $c|d$ .

**Result:** Given integers  $a$  and  $b$ , not both of which are zero, there exist integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$ .

*Proof.* Let  $S = \{ax + by : x, y \in \mathbb{Z}, ax + by > 0\}$ . We show that  $S$  is non-empty and hence it must have a least element. We show that the least element in the set  $S$  is actually the  $\gcd$  of  $a$  and  $b$ . □

**Definition:** Two integers  $a$  and  $b$ , not both zero, are said to be **relatively prime** whenever  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ .

## Least Common Multiple(lcm)

**Definition:** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  $m$  is called the lowest common multiple [lcm], written as  $[a, b]$  if  $a|m, b|m$  and if  $c$  be any number such that  $a|c$  and  $b|c, c > 0$  then  $m|c$ .

**Result:** Given integers  $a$  and  $b$ , not both of which are zero,  $[a, b](a, b) = |ab|$ .

### 3 Problems

1. Prove that if  $\gcd(a, b) = d$  then  $\gcd(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}) = 1$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\gcd(a, b) = d$ ,  $d|a$  and  $d|b$ . Then  $a = dx, b = dy$ . Now there exists integers  $u, v$  such that  $au + bv = d$ , i.e.,  $\frac{a}{d}u + \frac{b}{d}v = 1$ . This implies the result.  $\square$

2. Prove the following:

- (a) If  $a|bc$  and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  then  $a|c$ .
- (b) If  $a|c$  and  $b|c$  with  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ , then  $ab|c$ .
- (c) If  $a$  is prime to  $b$  and  $a$  is prime to  $c$  then  $a$  is prime to  $bc$ .
- (d) If  $a$  is prime to  $b$  then  $a + b$  is prime to  $ab$ .
- (e) If  $a$  is prime to  $b$  then  $a^2$  is prime to  $b^2$ .

3. Prove that the product of any three consecutive integers is divisible by 6.
4. Show that  $(a, a + 2)$  is either 1 or, 2 for any integer  $a$ .
5. If  $k > 0$  then prove that  $\gcd(ka, kb) = k \cdot \gcd(a, b)$ .

*Proof.* Let  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ . Then there exist integers  $u$  and  $v$  such that  $d = au + bv$ . Also  $d|a, d|b \Rightarrow kd|ka, kd|kb$ . Thus,  $kd$  is a common divisor of  $ka$  and  $kb$ . Let  $c$  be a common divisor of  $ka$  and  $kb$ . Then  $c|ka, c|kb$  and  $ka = cx, kb = cy$ , for some integers  $x, y$ . Now  $kd = k(au + bv) = cxu + cyv = c(xu + yv)$  implies  $c|kd$ . Hence  $kd$  is the gcd.  $\square$

*All unsolved problems are done in class*

## 4 Euclidean Algorithm

It is an efficient method of finding the greatest common divisor of two given integers by repeated application of division algorithm. Let  $a$  and  $b$  be two integers whose  $gcd$  has to be calculated. Since  $gcd(a, b) = gcd(|a|, |b|)$ , it is enough to assume  $a, b$  as positive. By division algorithm,  $a = bq_1 + r_1$ ,  $0 \leq r_1 < b$ . If it happens that  $r_1 = 0$ , then  $gcd = b$ . If not, by division algorithm,  $b = r_1q_2 + r_2$ ,  $0 \leq r_2 < r_1$ . If  $r_2 = 0$ , process stops. Otherwise, division algorithm is repeated. Like this, if we continue, we reach  $r_{n-1} = q_nr_n + 0$ . We apply an important result here that, if  $a = bq + r$ , then  $gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r)$ . Using this result, we get  $gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, r_1) = gcd(r_1, r_2) = \dots = gcd(r_{n-1}, r_n) = gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n$ .

## 5 Problems

1. Calculate  $gcd(567, 315)$  and express it as  $567u + 315v$ , where  $u, v$  are integers.

$567 = 315 \cdot 1 + 252$ ,  $315 = 252 \cdot 1 + 63$ ,  $252 = 63 \cdot 4 + 0$ . Hence  $gcd(567, 315) = 63$ .

Again,

$$\begin{aligned} 63 &= 315 - 252 \cdot 1 \\ &= 315 - (567 - 315) \\ &= 567 \cdot (-1) + 315 \cdot 2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $u = -1$  and  $v = 2$ .

2. Find two integers  $u, v$  satisfying  $54u + 24v = 30$ .
3. Use Euclidean Algorithm to calculate  $gcd(a, b)$  and hence express it as  $au + bv$  for some  $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  for the following  $a, b$  :

(a)  $gcd(12378, 3054)$

(b)  $gcd(272, 1479)$

(c)  $gcd(42823, 6409)$

(d)  $gcd(1819, 3587)$

## 6 Linear Diophantine Equations

An equation in one or more unknowns which is to be solved in integers is said to be a Diophantine equation, named after a Greek mathematician Diophantus. A given linear Diophantine equation of the form  $ax + by = c$  may have many solutions in integers or may not have even a single solution. For example,  $2x + 4y = 6$  has many solutions in integers, say  $x = 1, y = 1, x = 5, y = -1, \dots$ . Whereas,  $2x + 4y = 3$  cannot have a solution in integers.

The condition for solvability is stated as : the linear Diophantine equation  $ax + by = c$  admits a solution if and only if  $d|c$ , where  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ . If  $x_0, y_0$  is any particular solution of this equation then all other solutions are given by  $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t$ , where  $t$  is an arbitrary integer.

## 7 Prime Numbers

**Definition:** An integer  $p > 1$  is called a prime number, if its only positive divisors are 1 and  $p$ .

**Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic:** Every positive integer  $n > 1$  is either prime or a product of primes; this representation is unique.

**Canonical form:** Any positive integer  $n > 1$  can be written as  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ , where  $p_i$ 's are primes,  $\alpha_i$ 's are positive integers.

**Example:**  $4725 = 3^3 \cdot 5^2 \cdot 7, 7460 = 2^3 \cdot 3^2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7^2$ .

**Euclid Theorem:** The number of primes is infinite.

*Proof.* Let us suppose that the number of primes is finite and let  $p$  be the greatest prime. We write the primes  $2, 3, 5, 7, \dots, p$  in succession and  $p$  is the last in the enumeration. The product  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \dots p$  in which every prime appears only once is divisible by each prime and therefore, the number  $(2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \dots p) + 1$  is not divisible by any of the primes  $2, 3, 5, 7, \dots, p$ . Hence primes are infinite.  $\square$

**Test for primality:** If a positive integer  $a$  be composite, then  $a = bc$  for integers  $b, c$  satisfying  $1 < b < a, 1 < c < a$ . Then  $b^2 \leq bc = a$  and this implies  $b \leq \sqrt{a}$ . Since

$b > 1$ ,  $b$  has at least one prime divisor  $p$  and  $p \leq b \leq \sqrt{a}$ . In testing primality of a positive integer  $n$ , it is sufficient to divide  $n$  by primes not exceeding  $\sqrt{n}$ . In order to determine all primes  $\leq 30$ , the method is to strike all multiples of 2, 3, 5 from the table of integers 2 to 30, since 5 is the largest prime  $\leq \sqrt{30}$ .

**The number of positive divisors of a positive integer:** Let  $n$  be a positive integer greater than 1. Then  $n$  can be expressed as  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$  where prime  $p_i$  are distinct with  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_r$  and  $\alpha_i$ 's are positive integers. Then total number of positive divisors of a positive integer is denoted by  $\tau(n)$  and

$$\tau(n) = (\alpha_1 + 1)(\alpha_2 + 1) \dots (\alpha_r + 1).$$

**Result:** The total number of positive divisors of a positive integer  $n$  is odd if and only if  $n$  is a perfect square.

**The sum of all positive divisors of a positive integer:** Let  $n$  be a positive integer greater than 1. Then  $n$  can be expressed as  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$  where prime  $p_i$  are distinct with  $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_r$  and  $\alpha_i$ 's are positive integers. Then total number of positive divisors of a positive integer is denoted by  $\sigma(n)$  and

$$\sigma(n) = \frac{p_1^{\alpha_1+1}-1}{p_1-1} \cdot \frac{p_2^{\alpha_2+1}-1}{p_2-1} \dots \frac{p_r^{\alpha_r+1}-1}{p_r-1}.$$

## 8 Problems

1. Find the general solution in integers of the equation  $7x + 11y = 1$ .
2. Find the general solution in integers of the equation  $5x + 12y = 80$ .
3. Find the general solution in integers of the equation  $172x + 20y = 1000$ .
4. Find the general solution in integers of the equation  $56x + 72y = 40$ .
5. Find the general solution in integers of the equation  $24x + 138y = 18$ .
6. Find the general solution in integers of the equation  $221x + 35y = 11$ .
7. Find  $\tau(360)$ ,  $\sigma(360)$ ,  $\tau(1482)$ ,  $\sigma(1225)$ ,  $\tau(1932)$ ,  $\sigma(7007)$ .

## 9 Congruence

**Definition:** Let  $m$  be a fixed positive integer. Two integers  $a$  and  $b$  are said to be congruent modulo  $m$  if  $a - b$  is divisible by  $m$ . Symbolically this is expressed as  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ . For example let  $m = 7$ . Then  $3 \equiv 24 \pmod{7}$ ,  $-31 \equiv 11 \pmod{7}$ , etc.

Given an integer  $a$ , let  $q$  and  $r$  be its quotient and remainder upon division by  $m$ , such that  $a = qm + r$ ,  $0 \leq r < m$ . Then by definition of congruence,  $a \equiv r \pmod{m}$ . Because there are  $m$  choices of  $r$ , we see that every integer is congruent modulo  $n$  to exactly one of the values  $0, 1, 2, \dots, m-1$ ; the set of these integers is called the set of *least nonnegative residues modulo  $m$* . The whole set of integers is divided into  $m$  distinct and disjoint subsets, called the *residue classes modulo  $m$* , denoted by,  $\overline{0}, \overline{1}, \overline{2}, \dots, \overline{m-1}$ .

**Properties:** Let  $m > 1$  be fixed and  $a, b, c, d$  be arbitrary integers. Then the following properties hold:

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. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  then  $a + c \equiv (b + c) \pmod{m}$  and  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ .
5. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ , then  $a + c \equiv (b + d) \pmod{m}$  and  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$ .
6. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  then  $a^k \equiv b^k \pmod{m}$  for any positive integer  $k$ . (Proof by principle of mathematical induction)

**Problem:** If  $ax \equiv ay \pmod{m}$  and  $a$  is prime to  $m$  then  $x \equiv y \pmod{m}$ .

*Proof.*  $ax - ay = km$  implies  $x - y = \frac{km}{a}$ . Now, since  $x - y$  is an integer,  $a \mid km$ . Since  $a \nmid m$  hence  $a \mid k$  and  $k = ar$ . Thus,  $x - y = rm$ . □

**Result:** If  $d = \gcd(a, m)$ , then  $ax \equiv ay \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow x \equiv y \pmod{\frac{m}{d}}$ .

**Result:** Let  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$  be a polynomial with integer coefficients  $a_i$ . If  $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$  then  $f(a) \equiv f(b) \pmod{m}$ .



## 10 Linear Congruence

An equation of the form  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  is called a linear congruence and by a solution of such equation we mean an integer  $c$  such that  $ac \equiv b \pmod{m}$ .

**Result:** The linear congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  has a solution if and only if  $d|b$ , where  $d = \gcd(a, m)$ . If  $d|b$  then it has  $d$  mutually incongruent solutions modulo  $m$ .

The above result can be expressed from the concept of linear diophantine equations.  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m} \Rightarrow m|(ax - b) \Rightarrow ax - b = mr, r \in \mathbb{Z} \Rightarrow ax + my = b$  (taking  $y = -r$ ). Thus, the result follows. Moreover, if  $x_0, y_0$  is a particular solution of the equation then general solution is  $x = x_0 + \frac{m}{d}t, y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t$ . Taking  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, d-1$  will give the solutions that are incongruent modulo  $m$ .

**Result:** If  $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ , then the linear congruence  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  has a unique solution modulo  $m$ .

## 11 Chinese Remainder Theorem

Let  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r$  be positive integers such that  $\gcd(n_i, n_j) = 1$  for  $i \neq j$ . Then the system of linear congruences

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{n_1}$$

$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{n_2}$$

$$\cdot$$

$$\cdot$$

$$\cdot$$

$$x \equiv a_r \pmod{n_r}$$

has a simultaneous solution, which is unique modulo the integer  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_r$ .

**Problem:** Solve the system of linear congruences  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}, x \equiv 2 \pmod{5}, x \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$ .

$3, 5, 7$  are pairwise prime to each other. Let  $N = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$ . Let  $N_1 = \frac{N}{3} = 35$ ,  $N_2 = \frac{N}{5} = 21$ ,  $N_3 = \frac{N}{7} = 15$ . Then  $\gcd(N_1, 3) = \gcd(N_2, 5) = \gcd(N_3, 7) = 1$ . This implies the linear congruence  $35x \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  has a unique solution. The solution is

$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ . Similarly,  $21x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$  has a unique solution  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$ . And also,  $15x \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$  has a unique solution  $x \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$ .

$\bar{x} = 1(35.2) + 2(21.1) + 3(15.1) = 157$ . The solution of the given system is  $x \equiv 157 \pmod{105}$ , which is  $x \equiv 52 \pmod{105}$ .

## 12 Phi function

The function  $\phi(n)$  is defined for all positive integers as the number of positive integers less than  $n$  and prime to  $n$ , and  $\phi(1) = 1$ .

If  $p$  is prime then  $\phi(p) = p - 1$ .

If  $p$  be prime and  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $\phi(p^k) = p^k(1 - \frac{1}{p})$ .

If  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ , then  $\phi(n) = n(1 - \frac{1}{p_1})(1 - \frac{1}{p_2}) \dots (1 - \frac{1}{p_r})$

## 13 Fermat's Theorem

If  $p$  be a prime and  $p$  is not a divisor of  $a$ , then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

*Proof.* Let us consider the integers  $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$ . None of these are divisible by  $p$ . No two of these are congruent modulo  $p$ . Hence the integers  $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, (p-1)a$  are congruent to  $1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1$  modulo  $p$ , respectively. Taking product,  $a.2a.3a \dots (p-1)a \equiv 1.2.3 \dots (p-1) \pmod{p}$ . This proves the result.  $\square$

## 14 Euler's Theorem

If  $n$  be a prime and  $a$  is prime to  $n$ , then  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

## 15 Wilson's Theorem

If  $p$  be a prime then  $(p-1)! + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

## 16 Problems

1. Find the least positive residues in  $3^{36} \pmod{77}$ .
2. Use the theory of congruences to prove that  $7 \mid 2^{5n+3} + 5^{2n+3}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .
3. Prove that  $19^{20} \equiv 1 \pmod{181}$ .
4. Find the remainder when  $1! + 2! + 3! + \dots + 50!$  is divided by 15.
5. Solve the linear congruence  $15x \equiv 9 \pmod{18}$ .
6. Find the number of integers less than  $n$  and prime to  $n$ , when  $n = 256, 324, 900$ .
7. Find the least positive residue in  $2^{41} \pmod{23}$ .
8. If  $p$  be a prime  $> 2$ , prove that  $1^p + 2^p + \dots + (p-1)^p \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .
9. Prove that the eighth power of any integer is of the form  $17k$  or  $17k \pm 1$ .
10. Show that  $a^{12} - b^{12}$  is divisible by 91 if  $a$  and  $b$  are both prime to 91.
11. If  $n$  is a prime  $> 7$  prove that  $n^6 - n$  is divisible by 504.
12. Show that  $4(29)! + 5!$  is divisible by 31.
13. Find the units digits of  $7^{7^7}$ .
14. Prove that every year, including any leap year, has at least one Friday 13th.