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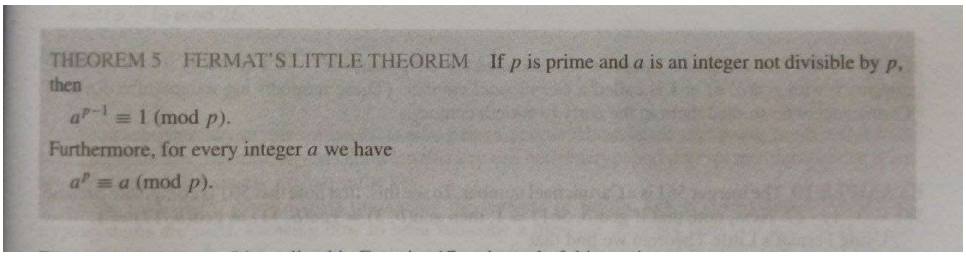
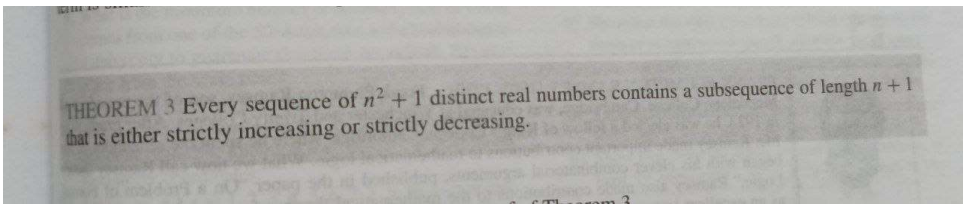


THEOREM 5 FERMAT'S LITTLE THEOREM If p is prime and a is an integer not divisible by p, then

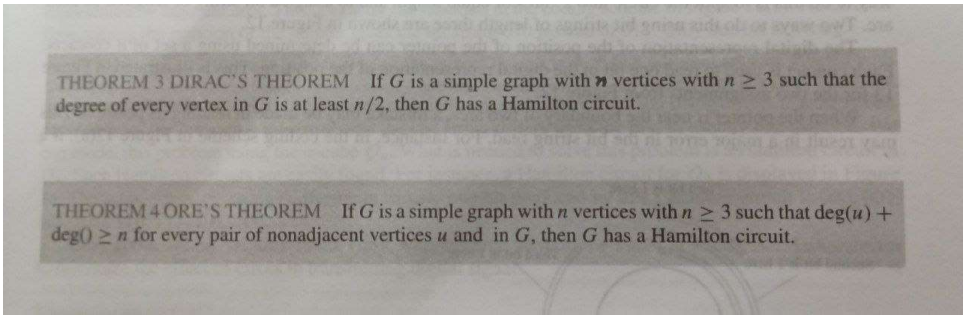
$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Furthermore, for every integer a we have

$a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.

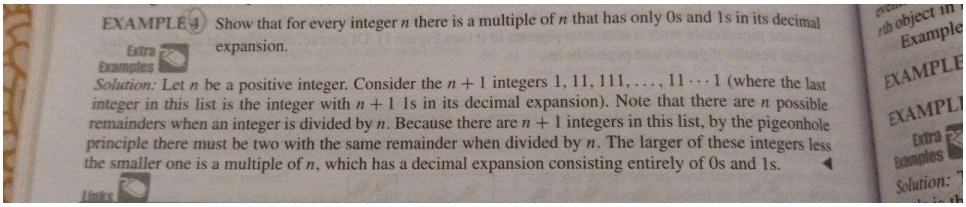


THEOREM 3 Every sequence of $n^2 + 1$ distinct real numbers contains a subsequence of length $n + 1$ that is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing.



THEOREM 3 DIRAC'S THEOREM If G is a simple graph with n vertices with $n \geq 3$ such that the degree of every vertex in G is at least $n/2$, then G has a Hamilton circuit.

THEOREM 4 ORE'S THEOREM If G is a simple graph with n vertices with $n \geq 3$ such that $\deg(u) + \deg() \geq n$ for every pair of nonadjacent vertices u and in G, then G has a Hamilton circuit.

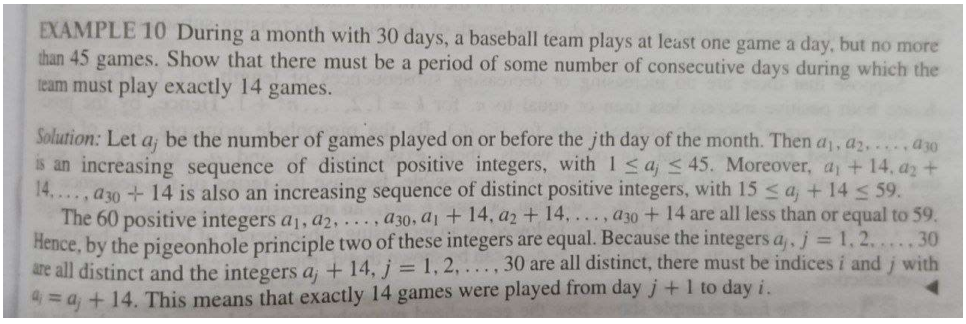


EXAMPLE 4 Show that for every integer n there is a multiple of n that has only 0s and 1s in its decimal expansion.

Extra Examples

Solution: Let n be a positive integer. Consider the $n + 1$ integers $1, 11, 111, \ldots, 11 \cdots 1$ (where the last integer in this list is the integer with $n + 1$ 1s in its decimal expansion). Note that there are n possible remainders when an integer is divided by n. Because there are $n + 1$ integers in this list, by the pigeonhole principle there must be two with the same remainder when divided by n. The larger of these integers less the smaller one is a multiple of n, which has a decimal expansion consisting entirely of 0s and 1s. ◀

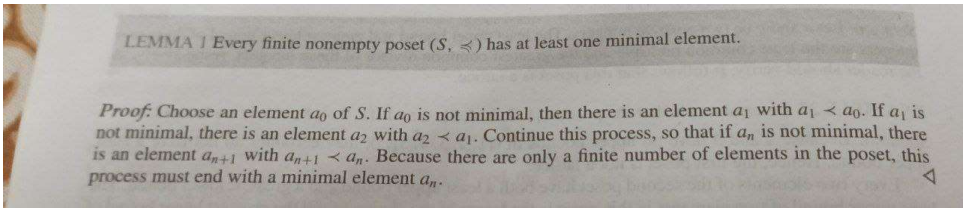
Links



EXAMPLE 10 During a month with 30 days, a baseball team plays at least one game a day, but no more than 45 games. Show that there must be a period of some number of consecutive days during which the team must play exactly 14 games.

Solution: Let a_j be the number of games played on or before the jth day of the month. Then $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{30}$ is an increasing sequence of distinct positive integers, with $1 \leq a_j \leq 45$. Moreover, $a_1 + 14, a_2 + 14, \ldots, a_{30} + 14$ is also an increasing sequence of distinct positive integers, with $15 \leq a_j + 14 \leq 59$.

The 60 positive integers $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{30}, a_1 + 14, a_2 + 14, \ldots, a_{30} + 14$ are all less than or equal to 59. Hence, by the pigeonhole principle two of these integers are equal. Because the integers a_j, $j = 1, 2, \ldots, 30$ are all distinct and the integers $a_j + 14$, $j = 1, 2, \ldots, 30$ are all distinct, there must be indices i and j with $a_i = a_j + 14$. This means that exactly 14 games were played from day $j + 1$ to day i. ◀



LEMMA 1 *Every finite nonempty poset $(S, \prec)$ has at least one minimal element.*

Proof: Choose an element a_0 of S. If a_0 is not minimal, then there is an element a_1 with $a_1 \prec a_0$. If a_1 is not minimal, there is an element a_2 with $a_2 \prec a_1$. Continue this process, so that if a_n is not minimal, there is an element a_{n+1} with $a_{n+1} \prec a_n$. Because there are only a finite number of elements in the poset, this process must end with a minimal element a_n. ◁

COROLLARY 2 Let m be a positive integer and let a and b be integers. Then

$$(a + b) \bmod m = ((a \bmod m) + (b \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

and

$$ab \bmod m = ((a \bmod m)(b \bmod m)) \bmod m.$$

Proof. By the definitions mod m and the definition of congruence modulo m, we know that $a \equiv$

EXAMPLE 4 **Rabbits and the Fibonacci Numbers** Consider this problem, which was originally posed by Leonardo Pisano, also known as Fibonacci, in the thirteenth century in his book *Liber abaci*. A young pair of rabbits (one of each sex) is placed on an island. A pair of rabbits does not breed until they are 2 months old. After they are 2 months old, each pair of rabbits produces another pair each month, as shown in Figure 1. Find a recurrence relation for the number of pairs of rabbits on the island after n months, assuming that no rabbits ever die.

Solution: Denote by f_n the number of pairs of rabbits after n months. We will show that f_n, $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$, are the terms of the Fibonacci sequence.

The rabbit population can be modeled using a recurrence relation. At the end of the first month, the number of pairs of rabbits on the island is $f_1 = 1$. Because this pair does not breed during the second month, $f_2 = 1$ also. To find the number of pairs after n months, add the number on the island the previous month, f_{n-1}, and the number of newborn pairs, which equals f_{n-2}, because each newborn pair comes from a pair at least 2 months old.

THEOREM 6 Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k} + F(n),$$

where $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k$ are real numbers, and

$$F(n) = (b_t n^t + b_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + b_1 n + b_0) s^n,$$

where $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_t$ and s are real numbers. When s is not a root of the characteristic equation of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation, there is a particular solution of the form

$$(p_t n^t + p_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + p_1 n + p_0) s^n.$$

When s is a root of this characteristic equation and its multiplicity is m, there is a particular solution of the form

$$n^m (p_t n^t + p_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + p_1 n + p_0) s^n.$$

THEOREM 4 A simple graph is bipartite if and only if it is possible to assign one of two different colors to each vertex of the graph so that no two adjacent vertices are assigned the same color.

Proof. First, suppose that $G = (V, E)$ is a bipartite simple graph. Then $V = V_1 \cup V_2$, where V_1 and V_2 are

EXAMPLE 8 What is the least number of area codes needed to guarantee that the 25 million phones in a state can be assigned distinct 10-digit telephone numbers? (Assume that telephone numbers are of the form NXX-NXX-$XXXX$, where the first three digits form the area code, N represents a digit from 2 to 9 inclusive, and X represents any digit.)

Solution: There are eight million different phone numbers of the form NXX-$XXXX$ (as shown in Example 8 of Section 5.1). Hence, by the generalized pigeonhole principle, among 25 million telephones, at least $\lceil 25{,}000{,}000/8{,}000{,}000 \rceil$ of them must have identical phone numbers. Hence, at least four area codes are required to ensure that all 10-digit numbers are different.

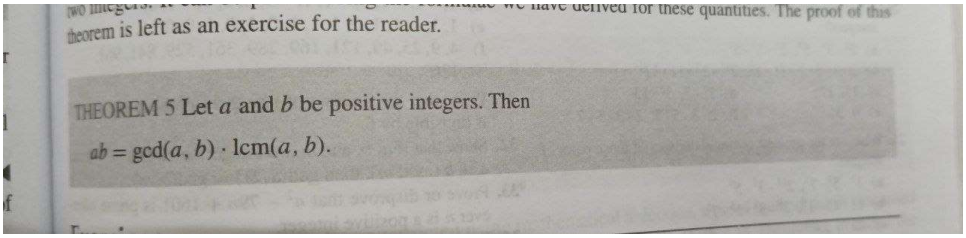
In different posets different symbols such as $\leq$, $\subseteq$, and $|$, are used for a partial ordering. However, we need a symbol that we can use when we discuss the ordering relation in an arbitrary poset. Customarily, the notation $a \preccurlyeq b$ is used to denote that $(a, b) \in R$ in an arbitrary poset (S, R). This notation is used because the "less than or equal to" relation on the set of real numbers is the most familiar example of a partial ordering and the symbol $\preccurlyeq$ is similar to the $\leq$ symbol. (Note that the symbol $\preccurlyeq$ is used to denote the relation in *any* poset, not just the "less than or equals" relation.) The notation $a \prec b$ denotes that $a \preccurlyeq b$, but $a \neq b$. Also, we say "a is less than b" or "b is greater than a" if $a \prec b$.

When a and b are elements of the poset $(S, \preccurlyeq)$, it is not necessary that either $a \preccurlyeq b$ or $b \preccurlyeq a$. For instance, in $(P(\mathbf{Z}), \subseteq)$, $\{1, 2\}$ is not related to $\{1, 3\}$, and vice versa, because neither set is contained within the other. Similarly, in $(\mathbf{Z}^+, |)$, 2 is not related to 3 and 3 is not related to 2, because $2 \nmid 3$ and $3 \nmid 2$. This leads to Definition 2.

DEFINITION 2 The elements a and b of a poset $(S, \preccurlyeq)$ are called *comparable* if either $a \preccurlyeq b$ or $b \preccurlyeq a$. When a and b are elements of S such that neither $a \preccurlyeq b$ nor $b \preccurlyeq a$, a and b are called *incomparable*.

EXAMPLE 5 In the poset $(\mathbf{Z}^+, |)$, are the integers 3 and 9 comparable? Are 5 and 7 comparable?

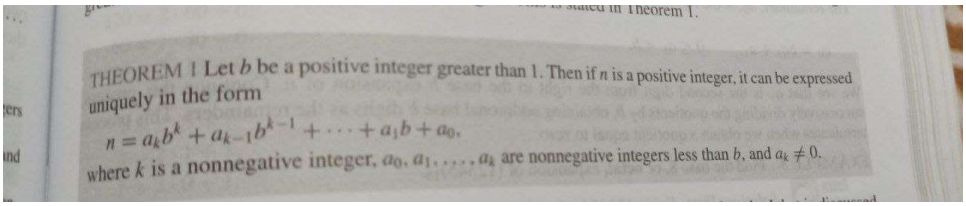
Solution: The integers 3 and 9 are comparable, because $3 \mid 9$. The integers 5 and 7 are incomparable, because $5 \nmid 7$ and $7 \nmid 5$. ◀



theorem is left as an exercise for the reader.

THEOREM 5 Let a and b be positive integers. Then

$$ab = \gcd(a, b) \cdot \operatorname{lcm}(a, b).$$



THEOREM 1 Let b be a positive integer greater than 1. Then if n is a positive integer, it can be expressed uniquely in the form

$$n = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \cdots + a_1 b + a_0,$$

where k is a nonnegative integer, $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_k$ are nonnegative integers less than b, and $a_k \neq 0$.

required to ensure that all 10-digit numbers are different. ◀

Example 9, although not an application of the generalized pigeonhole principle, makes use of similar principles.

EXAMPLE 9 Suppose that a computer science laboratory has 15 workstations and 10 servers. A cable can be used to directly connect a workstation to a server. For each server, only one direct connection to that server can be active at any time. We want to guarantee that at any time any set of 10 or fewer workstations can simultaneously access different servers via direct connections. Although we could do this by connecting every workstation directly to every server (using 150 connections), what is the minimum number of direct connections needed to achieve this goal?

Solution: Suppose that we label the workstations $W_1, W_2, \ldots, W_{15}$ and the servers $S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{10}$. Furthermore, suppose that we connect W_k to S_k for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, 10$ and each of $W_{11}, W_{12}, W_{13}, W_{14}$, and W_{15} to all 10 servers. We have a total of 60 direct connections. Clearly any set of 10 or fewer workstations can simultaneously access different servers. We see this by noting that if workstation W_j is included with $1 \leq j \leq 10$, it can access server S_j, and for each workstation W_k with $k \geq 11$ included, there must be a corresponding workstation W_j with $1 \leq j \leq 10$ not included, so W_k can access server S_j. (This follows because there are at least as many available servers S_j as there are workstations W_j with $1 \leq j \leq 10$ not included.)

Now suppose there are fewer than 60 direct connections between workstations and servers. Then some server would be connected to at most $\lfloor 59/10 \rfloor = 5$ workstations. (If all servers were connected to at least six workstations, there would be at least $6 \cdot 10 = 60$ direct connections.) This means that the remaining

words, let $a_j =$ $q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_{n+1}$ are all odd
less than $2n$, it follows fro
equal. Therefore, there are
$= 2^k q$ and $a_j = 2^{k_j} q$. It

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THEOREM 3 Every se
that is either strictly inc

We give an example

FIGURE 1 **Rabbits on an Island.**

Consequently, the sequence $\{f_n\}$ satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$

for $n \geq 3$ together with the initial conditions $f_1 = 1$ and $f_2 = 1$. Because this recurrence relation and the initial conditions uniquely determine this sequence, the number of pairs of rabbits on the island after n months is given by the nth Fibonacci number. ◀

with smaller integers, until one of them is 0.

The Euclidean algorithm is based on the following result about greatest common divisors and the division algorithm.

LEMMA 1 Let $a = bq + r$, where a, b, q, and r are integers. Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$.

Hence, g
The E
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LEMMA 1 If a, b, and c are positive integers such that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and $a \mid bc$, then $a \mid c$.

Proof: Because $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, by Theorem 1 there are integers s and t such that

$$sa + tb = 1.$$

Multiplying both sides of this equation by c, we obtain

$$sac + tbc = c.$$

Using Theorem 1 of Section 3.4, we can use this last equation to show that $a \mid c$. By part (ii) of that theorem, $a \mid tbc$. Because $a \mid sac$ and $a \mid tbc$, by part (i) of that theorem, we conclude that a divides $sac + tbc$, and since $a \mid c$. This finishes the proof. ◁

We will use the following generalization of Lemma 1 in the proof of uniqueness of prime factorizations. The proof of Lemma 2 is left as Exercise 60 in Section 4.1, because it can be most easily carried out using the method of mathematical induction, which will be covered in that section.)

LEMMA 2 If p is a prime and $p \mid a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, where each a_i is an integer, then $p \mid a_i$ for some i.

We can now show that a factorization of an integer into primes is unique. That is, we will show that every integer can be written as the product of primes in nondecreasing order in at most one way. This is part of the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic. We will prove the other part, that every integer has a factorization into primes, in Section 4.2.

THEOREM 3 If a and m are relatively prime integers and $m > 1$, then an inverse of a modulo m exists. Furthermore, this inverse is unique modulo m. (That is, there is a unique positive integer $\overline{a}$ less than m that is an inverse of a modulo m and every other inverse of a modulo m is congruent to $\overline{a}$ modulo m.)

Proof: By Theorem 1, because $\gcd(a, m) = 1$, there are integers s and t such that

$$sa + tm = 1.$$

This implies that

$$sa + tm \equiv 1 \pmod{m}.$$

Because $tm \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$, it follows that

$$sa \equiv 1 \pmod{m}.$$

Consequently, s is an inverse of a modulo m. That this inverse is unique modulo m is left as Exercise 9 at the end of this section. ◁

EXAMPLE 6 To solve the system of congruences in Example 5, first let $m = 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 = 105$, $M_1 = m/3 = 35$, $M_2 = m/5 = 21$, and $M_3 = m/7 = 15$. We see that 2 is an inverse of $M_1 = 35$ modulo 3, because $35 \equiv 2 \pmod 3$; 1 is an inverse of $M_2 = 21$ modulo 5, because $21 \equiv 1 \pmod 5$; and 1 is an inverse of $M_3 = 15 \pmod 7$, because $15 \equiv 1 \pmod 7$. The solutions to this system are those x such that

$$\begin{aligned} x &\equiv a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + a_3 M_3 y_3 = 2 \cdot 35 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 21 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 15 \cdot 1 \\ &= 233 \equiv 23 \pmod{105}. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that 23 is the smallest positive integer that is a simultaneous solution. We conclude that 23 is the smallest positive integer that leaves a remainder of 2 when divided by 3, a remainder of 3 when divided by 5, and a remainder of 2 when divided by 7. ◀

THEOREM 2 Let m be a positive integer and let a, b, and c be integers. If $ac \equiv bc \pmod m$ and $\gcd(c, m) = 1$, then $a \equiv b \pmod m$.

Proof: Because $ac \equiv bc \pmod m$, $m \mid ac - bc = c(a - b)$. By Lemma 1, because $\gcd(c, m) = 1$, it follows that $m \mid a - b$. We conclude that $a \equiv b \pmod m$. ◀

Proof: To establish this theorem, we need to show that a solution exists and that it is unique modulo m. We will show that a solution exists by describing a way to construct this solution; showing that the solution is unique modulo m is Exercise 24 at the end of this section.

To construct a simultaneous solution, first let

$$M_k = m/m_k$$

for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. That is, M_k is the product of the moduli except for m_k. Because m_i and m_k have no common factors greater than 1 when $i \neq k$, it follows that $\gcd(m_k, M_k) = 1$. Consequently, by Theorem 3, we know that there is an integer y_k, an inverse of M_k modulo m_k, such that

$$M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}.$$

To construct a simultaneous solution, form the sum

$$x = a_1 M_1 y_1 + a_2 M_2 y_2 + \cdots + a_n M_n y_n.$$

We will now show that x is a simultaneous solution. First, note that because $M_j \equiv 0 \pmod{m_k}$ whenever $j \neq k$, all terms except the kth term in this sum are congruent to 0 modulo m_k. Because $M_k y_k \equiv 1 \pmod{m_k}$ we see that

$$x \equiv a_k M_k y_k \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k},$$

for $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. We have shown that x is a simultaneous solution to the n congruences. ◀

THEOREM 4 THE CHINESE REMAINDER THEOREM Let $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_n$ be pairwise relatively prime positive integers and $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ arbitrary integers. Then the system

$$\begin{aligned} x &\equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}, \\ x &\equiv a_2 \pmod{m_2}, \\ &\cdots \\ x &\equiv a_n \pmod{m_n} \end{aligned}$$

has a unique solution modulo $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_n$. (That is, there is a solution x with $0 \leq x < m$, and all other solutions are congruent modulo m to this solution.)

integer coefficients of a and b. For example, $\gcd(6, 14) = 2$, and
as Theorem 1.

THEOREM 1 If a and b are positive integers, then there exist integers s and t such that $\gcd(a, b) = sa + tb$.

We will not give a formal proof of Theorem 1 here (see Exercise 36 in Section 4.2 and [Ro05] for proofs), but we will provide an example of a method for finding a linear combination of two integers equal to their

EXAMPLE 3 Find an inverse of 3 modulo 7.

Solution: Because $\gcd(3, 7) = 1$, Theorem 3 tells us that an inverse of 3 modulo 7 exists. The Euclidean algorithm ends quickly when used to find the greatest common divisor of 3 and 7:

$$7 = 2 \cdot 3 + 1.$$

From this equation we see that

$$-2 \cdot 3 + 1 \cdot 7 = 1.$$

This shows that -2 is an inverse of 3 modulo 7. (Note that every integer congruent to -2 modulo 7 is also an inverse of 3, such as 5, -9, 12, and so on.) ◀

When we have an inverse $\overline{a}$ of a modulo m, we can easily solve the congruence $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ by multiplying both sides of the linear congruence by $\overline{a}$, as Example 4 illustrates.