# MAT-255 Number Theory–Spring 2024

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# Contents

# 1 Introduction

What is number theory?

Elementary number theory is the study of integers, especially the positive integers. A lot of the course focuses on prime numbers, which are the multiplicative building blocks of the integers. Another big topic in number theory is integer solutions to equations such as the Pythagorean triples $x^2+y^2=z^2$ or the generalization $x^n+y^n=z^n$. Proving that there are no integer solutions when $n>2$ was an open problem for close to 400 years.

The first part of this course reproves facts about divisibility and prime numbers that you are probably familiar with. There are two purposes to this: 1) formalizing definitions and 2) starting with the situation you understand before moving to the new material.

## 1.1 Mathematical definitions and notation

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Formally define even and odd
- Complete basic algebraic proofs .

**Definition.** We will use the following number systems and abbreviations:

- The *integers,* written $\mathbb{Z}$, is the set $\{\dots, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$.
- The *natural numbers,* written $\mathbb{N}$. Most elementary number theory texts either define $\mathbb{N}$ to be the positive integers or avoid using $\mathbb{N}$. Some mathematicians include 0 in $\mathbb{N}$.
- The *real numbers,* written $\mathbb{R}$.
- The *integers modulo n,* written $\mathbb{Z}_n$. We will define this set in Strayer Chapter 2, although Strayer does not use this notation.

We will also use the following notation:

- The symbol $\in$ means "element of" or "in." For example, $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ means "$x$ is an element of the integers" or "$x$ in the integers."

This first section will cover basic even, odd, and divisibility results. These first few definitions and results will use algebraic proofs, before we cover formal proof methods.

**Definition** (Even and odd, multiplication definition)**.** An integer $n$ is *even* if $n = 2k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. That is, $n$ is a *multiple* of 2.

An integer $n$ is odd if $n = 2k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Now, the preceding definition is standard in an introduction to proofs course, but it is not the only definition of even/odd. We also have the following definition that is closer to the definition you are probably used to:

**Definition** (Even and odd, division definition)**.** Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $n$ is said to be *even* if 2 divides $n$ and $n$ is said to be *odd* if 2 does not divide $n$.

Note that we need to define *divides* in order to use the second definition. We will formally prove that these definitions are *equivalent,* but for now, let's use the first definition.

**Theorem.** *If $n$ is an even integer, then $n^2$ is even.*

**In-class Problem 1** *Prove this theorem.*

***Proof*** *If $n$ is an even integer, then by definition, there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k$. Then*

$$n^2 = (2k)^2 = 2(2k^2).$$

*Since $2(k^2)$ is an integer, we have written $n^2$ in the desired form. Thus, $n^2$ is even.* ■

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**Proposition.** *The sum of two consecutive integers in odd.*

For this problem, we need to figure out how to write two consecutive integers.

***Proof*** Let $n, n + 1$ be two consecutive integers. Then their sum is $n + n + 1 = 2n + 1$, which is odd by Even and odd, multiplication definition. ■

# 2 Divisibility, primes, and greatest common divisors

The goal of this chapter is to review basic facts about divisibility, get comfortable with the new notation, and solve some basic linear equations.

We will also use this material as an opportunity to get used to the course.

## 2.1 Divisibility

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Define "divisible" and "factor"
- Prove basic facts about divisibility .

**Definition** ($a$ divides $b$)**.** Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. The $a$ *divides* $b$, denoted $a \mid b$, if there exists an integer $c$ such that $b = ac$. If $a \mid b$, then $a$ is said to be a *divisor* or *factor of* $b$. The notation $a \nmid b$ means $a$ does not divide $b$.

Note that 0 is not a divisor of any integer other than itself, since $b = 0c$ implies $a = 0$. Also all integers are divisors of 0, as weird as that sounds at first. This is because for any $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, $0 = a0$.

**Proposition 1.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$.*

Since this is the first result in the chapter, the only tool we have is the definition of "$a \mid b$".

***Proof*** Since $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, there exist $d, e \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $b = ae$ and $c = bf$. Combining these, we see

$$c = bf = (ae)f = a(ef),$$

so $a \mid c$. ■

This means that division is *transitive*.

**Proposition 2.** *Let $a, b, c, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$ then $c \mid ma + nb$.*

***Proof*** *Let $a, b, c, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$. Then by definition of divisibility, there exists $j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $cj = a$ and $ck = b$. Thus,*

$$ma + nb = m(cj) + n(ck) = c(mj + nk).$$

*Therefore, $c \mid ma + nb$ by definition.* ■

**Definition.** The expression $ma + nb$ in  is called *an (integral) linear combination of $a$ and $b$.*

says that an integer dividing each of two integers also divides any integral linear combination of those integers. This fact will be extremely valuable in establishing theoretical results. But first, let's get some more practice with proof writing

Break into three groups. Using the proofs of  and 1.2 as examples, prove the following facts. Each group will prove one part.

**In-class Problem 2** *Prove or disprove the following statements.*

*(a) If $a, b, c$, and $d$ are integers such that if $a \mid b$ and $c \mid d$, then $a + c \mid b + d$.*

*(b) If $a, b, c$, and $d$ are integers such that if $a \mid b$ and $c \mid d$, then $ac \mid bd$.*

*(c) If $a, b$, and $c$ are integers such that if $a \nmid b$ and $b \nmid c$, then $a \nmid c$.*

## 2.2 Symbolic logic

*This section is included for students who have not seen symbolic logic and truth tables or need a review.*

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Prove basic mathematical statements using definitions and direct proof
- Use truth tables to understand compound propositions
- Prove statements by contradiction
- Use the greatest integer function .

If you have not seen proof by induction or need a review, see Ernst Chapter 1 and Section 2.1 and Section 2.2 through Example 2.21. Problem 2.17 is also provided below:

**In-class Problem 3** *Determine whether each of the following is a proposition. Explain your reasoning.*

- *All cars are red.*
- *Every person whose name begins with J has the name Joe.*
- $x^2 = 4$.
- *There exists a real number $x$ such that $x^2 = 4$.*
- *For all real numbers $x$, $x^2 = 4$.*
- $\sqrt{2}$ *is an irrational number.*
- $p$ *is prime.*
- *Is it raining?*
- *It will rain tomorrow.*
- *Led Zeppelin is the best band of all time.*

**In-class Problem 4** *Construct a truth table for $A \Rightarrow B, \neg(A \Rightarrow B)$ and $A \wedge \neg B$*

This is the basis for *proof by contradiction.* We assume both $A$ and $\neg B$, and proceed until we get a contradiction. That is, $A$ and $\neg B$ cannot both be true.

**Definition** (Proof by contradiction)**.** Let $A$ and $B$ be propositions. To prove $A$ implies $B$ by contradiction, first assume the $B$ is false. Then work through logical steps until you conclude $\neg A \wedge A$.

All definitions are 'biconditionals but we normally only write the "if."

We say that two definitions are *equivalent* if definition A is true if and only if definition B is true.

## 2.3 The Division Algorithm

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Prove existence and uniqueness for the Division Algorithm
- Prove existence and uniqueness for the general Division Algorithm .

This section introduces the division algorithm, which will come up repeatedly throughout the semester, as well as the definition of divisors from last class.

First, let's define a *lemma.* A lemma is a minor result whose sole purpose is to help in proving a theorem, although some famous named lemmas have become important results in their own right.

**Definition** (greatest integer (floor) function)**.** Let $x \in \mathbb{R}$. The *greatest integer function of* $x$, denoted $[x]$ or $\lfloor x \rfloor$, is the greatest integer less than or equal to $x$.

**Lemma 1.** *Let* $x \in \mathbb{R}$. *Then* $x - 1 < [x] \leq x$.

***Proof*** *By the definition of the floor function,* $[x] \leq x$.

*To prove that* $x - 1 < [x]$, *we proceed by contradiction. Assume that* $x - 1 \geq [x]$ *(the negation of* $x - 1 < [x]$*). Then,* $x \geq [x] + 1$. *This contradicts the assumption that* $[x]$ *is the greatest integer* less than or equal to $x$. *Thus,* $x - 1 < [x]$. ■

**Theorem** (Division Algorithm)**.** *Let* $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ *with* $b > 0$. *Then there exists a unique* $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ *such that*

$$a = bq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < b.$$

Before proving this theorem, let's think about division with remainders, ie long division. The quotient $q$ should be the largest integer such that $bq \leq a$. If we divide both sides by $b$, we have $q \leq \frac{a}{b}$. We have a function to find the greatest integer less than or equal to $\frac{a}{b}$, namely $q = \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor$. If we rearrange the equation $a = bq + r$, we gave $r = a - bq$. This is our scratch work for existence.

***Proof*** Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$. Define $q = \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor$ and $r = a - b \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor$. Then $a = bq + r$ by rearranging the equation. Now we need to show $0 \leq r < b$.

Since $x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor \leq x$ by Lemma 1, we have

$$\frac{a}{b} - 1 < \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor \leq \frac{a}{b}.$$

Multiplying all terms by $-b$, we get

$$-a + b > -b \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor \geq -a.$$

Adding $a$ to every term gives

$$b > a - b \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor \geq 0.$$

By the definition of $r$, we have shown $0 \leq r < b$.

Finally, we need to show that $q$ and $r$ are unique. Assume there exist $q_1, q_2, r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ with

$$a = bq_1 + r_1, \quad 0 \leq r_1 < b$$

$$a = bq_2 + r_2, \quad 0 \leq r_2 < b.$$

We need to show $q_1 = q_2$ and $r_1 = r_2$. We can subtract the two equations from each other.

$$\begin{aligned} a &= bq_1 + r_1, \\ \underline{-(a &= bq_2 + r_2)}, \\ 0 &= bq_1 + r_1 - bq_2 - r_2 = b(q_1 - q_2) + (r_1 - r_2). \end{aligned}$$

Rearranging, we get $b(q_1 - q_2) = r_2 - r_1$. Thus, $b \mid r_2 - r_1$. From rearranging the inequalities:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\leq r_2 < b \\ \underline{-b &< -r_1 \leq 0} \\ -b &< r_2 - r_1 < b. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the only way $b \mid r_2 - r_1$ is that $r_2 - r_1 = 0$ and thus $r_1 = r_2$. Now, $0 = b(q_1 - q_2) + (r_1 - r_2)$ becomes $0 = b(q_1 - q_2)$. Since we assumed $b > 0$, we have that $q_1 - q_2 = 0$. ■

**In-class Problem 5** *Use the Division Algorithm on $a = 47, b = 6$ and $a = 281, b = 13$.*

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**Corollary 1.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b \neq 0$. Then there exists a unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$a = bq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < |b|.$$

One proof method is using an existing proof as a guide.

**In-class Problem 6** *Let $a$ and $b$ be nonzero integers. Prove that there exists a unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$a = bq + r, \quad 0 \leq r < |b|.$$

(a) *Use the Division Algorithm to prove this statement as a corollary. That is, use the* conclusion *of the Division Algorithm as part of the proof. Use the following outline:*

(i) *Let $a$ and $b$ be nonzero integers. Since $|b| > 0$, the Division Algorithm says that there exist unique $p, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that and*

(ii) *There are two cases:*

*i. When , the conditions are already met and*

*ii. Otherwise, , .*

(iii) *Since both cases used that the $p, s$ are unique, then $q, r$ are also unique*

(b) *Use the* proof *of the Division Algorithm as a template to prove this statement. That is, repeat the steps, adjusting as necessary, but do not use the conclusion.*

(i) *In the proof of the Division Algorithm, we let $q = \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor$. Here we have two cases:*

*i. When ,*

*ii. When ,*

(ii) *Follow the steps of the* proof *of the Division Algorithm to finish the proof.*

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## 2.4 Greatest Common Divisors

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Define the greatest common divisor of two integers
- Prove basic facts about the greatest common divisor .

**Definition** (greatest common divisor)**.** If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$ then $a$ is a *common divisor* of $b$ and $c$.

If at least one of $b$ and $c$ is not 0, the greatest (positive) number among their common divisors is called the *greatest common divisor of $a$ and $b$* and is denoted $gcd(a, b)$ or just $(a, b)$.

If $gcd(a, b) = 1$, we say that $a$ and $b$ are *relatively prime*.

If we want the greatest common divisor of several integers at once we denote that by $\gcd(b_1, b_2, b_3, \ldots, b_n)$.

For example, $\gcd(4, 8)$ is 4 but $\gcd(4, 6, 8)$ is 2.

The GCD always exists when at least one of the integers is nonzero. How to show this: 1 is always a divisor, and no divisor can be larger than the maximum of $|a|, |b|$. So there is a finite number of divisors, thus there is a maximum.

**Proposition** (Bézout's Identity)**.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a$ and $b$ not both zero. Then*

$$\{(a, b) = \min\{ma + nb : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, ma + nb > 0\}.$$

This proof brings together definitions (of gcd), previous results (Division Algorithm, factors of linear combinations), the well-ordering principle, and some methods for minimum and maximum/greatest.

***Proof*** Since $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are not both zero, at least one of $1a + 0b, -1a + 0b, 0a + 1b, 0a + (-1)b$ is in $\{ma + nb : m, n \in \mathbb{Z}, ma + nb > 0\}$. Therefore, the set is nonempty and has a minimal element by the Well Ordering Principle. Call this element $d$, and $d = xa + yb$ for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

First we will show that $d \mid a$. By the Division Algorithm, there exist unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a = qd + r$ with $0 \leq r < d$. Then,

$$r = a - qd = a - q(xa + yb) = (1 - qx)a - qyb,$$

so $r$ is an integral linear combination of $a$ and $b$. Since $d$ is the least positive such integer, $r = 0$ and $d \mid a$. Similarly, $d \mid b$.

It remains to show that $d$ is the *greatest* common divisor of $a$ and$b$. Let $c$be any common divisor of $a$ and $b$. Then $c \mid ax + by = d$, so $c \mid d$. ■

Since we assume $a$ and $b$ are not both zero, we could also simplify the first sentence using *without loss of generality*. Since there is no difference between $a$ and $b$, we can assume $a \neq 0$.

## 2.5 Induction

*This section is included as a review of proof by induction.*

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Construct a proof by induction .

If you have not seen proof by induction or need a review, see Ernst Section 4.1 and Section 4.2

**In-class Problem 7** *Theorems in Ernst Section 4.1*

**Theorem** (Ernst Theorem 4.5)**.** *For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, 3 divides $4^n - 1$.*

**Theorem** (Ernst Theorem 4.7)**.** *Let $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ be $n$ distinct points arranged on a circle. Then the number of line segments joining all pairs of points is $\dfrac{n^2 - n}{2}$.*

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**In-class Problem 8** . *Use the first principle of mathematical induction to prove each statement.*

(a) *If $n$ is a positive integer, then*

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \cdots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}.$$

(b) *If $n$ is an integer with $n \geq 5$, then*

$$2^n > n^2.$$

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## 2.6 The Euclidean Algorithm

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Prove the Euclidean Algorithm halts and generates the greatest common divisor of two positive integers
- Use the Euclidean Algorithm to findd the greate common divisor of two integers
- Use the (extended) Euclidean algorithm to write $(a, b)$ as a linear combination of $a$ and $b$.

Typically by *Euclidean Algorithm*, we mean both the algorithm and the theorem that the algorithm always generates the greatest common divisor of two (positive) integers.

**Theorem** (Euclidean algorithm)**.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a \geq b > 0$. By the Division Algorithm, there exist $q_1, r_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$a = bq_1 + r_1, \quad 0 \leq r_1 < b.$$

*If $r_1 > 0$, there exist $q_2, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$b = r_1 q_2 + r_2, \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1.$$

*If $r_2 > 0$, there exist $q_3, r_3 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$r_1 = r_2 q_3 + r_3, \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2.$$

*Continuing this process, $r_n = 0$ for some $n$. If $n > 1$, then $\gcd(a, b) = r_{n-1}$. If $n = 1$, then $\gcd(a, b) = b$.*

***Proof*** *Note that $r_1 > r_2 > r_3 > \cdots \geq 0$ by construction. If the sequence did not stop, then we would have an infinite, decreasing sequence of positive integers, which is not possible. Thus, $r_n = 0$ for some $n$.*

*When $n = 1$, $a = bq + 0$ and $\gcd(a, b) = b$.*

*Lemma 1.12 states that for $a = bq_1 + r_1$, $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r_1)$. This is because any common divisor of $a$ and $b$ is also a divisor of $r_1 = a - bq_1$.*

*If $n > 1$, then by repeated application of the Lemma 1.12, we have*

$$\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_2) = \cdots = \gcd(r_{n-2}, r_{n-1})$$

*Then $r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_n + 0$. Thus $\gcd(r_{n-2}, r_{n-1}) = r_{n-1}$.* ■

When using the Euclidean algorithm, it can be tricky to keep track of what is happening. Doing a lot of examples can help.

Work in pairs to answer the following. Each pair will be assigned parts the following question.

**In-class Problem 9** *Find the greatest common divisors of the pairs of integers below and write the greatest common divisor as a linear combination of the integers.*

(a) $(21, 28)$

(b) $(32, 56)$

(c) $(0, 113)$

(a) $(78, 708)$

## 2.7 Primes

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Every integer greater than 1 has a prime divisor.
- Prove that there are infinitely many prime numbers.

**Definition** (prime and composite)**.** An integer $p > 1$ is *prime* if the only positive divisors of $p$ are 1 and itself. An integer $n$ which is not prime is *composite*.

Why is 1 not prime?

**Lemma 2** (Lemma 1.5)**.** *Every integer greater than 1 has a prime divisor.*

We will not go over this proof in class.

***Proof*** Assume by contradiction that there exists $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ greater than 1 with no prime divisor. By the Well Ordering Principle, we may assume $n$ is the least such integer. By definition, $n \mid n$, so $n$ is not prime. Thus, $n$ is composite and there exists $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = ab$ and $1 < a < n$, $1 < b < n$. Since $a < n$, then it has a prime divisor $p$. But since $p \mid a$ and $p \mid n$, $p \mid n$. This contradicts our assumption, so no such integer exists. ■

**Theorem** (Euclid's Infinitude of Primes)**.** *(Theorem 1.6) There are infinitely many prime numbers.*

***Proof*** Assume by way of contradiction, that there are only finitely many prime numbers, so $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$. Consider the number $N = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n + 1$. Now $N$ has a prime divisor, say, $p$, by Lemma 1.5. So $p = p_i$ for some $i$, $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$. Then $p \mid N - p_1 p_2 \ldots p_n$, which implies that $p \mid 1$, a contradiction. Hence, there are infinitely many prime numbers. ■

One famous open problem is the Twin Primes Conjecture. A *conjecture* is a proposition you (or in this case, the mathematical community) believe to be true, but have not proven.

**Conjecture 1** (Twin Prime Conjecture)**.** *There are infinitely many prime number $p$ for which $p + 2$ is also prime number.*

Another important fact is there are arbitrarily large sequences of composite numbers. Put another way, there are arbitrarily large gaps in the primes. Another important proof method, which is a *constructive proof*:

**Theorem 1.** *For any positive integer $n$, there are at least $n$ consecutive positive integers.*

***Proof*** Given the positive integer $n$, consider the $n$ consecutive positive integers

$$(n+1)! + 2, (n+1)! + 3, \ldots, (n+1)! + n + 1.$$

Let $i$ be a positive integer such that $2 \leq i \leq n + 1$. Since $i \mid (n+1)!$ and $i \mid i$, we have

$$i \mid (n+1)! + i, \quad 2 \leq i \leq n + 1$$

by linear combination (Proposition 1.2). So each of the $n$ consecutive positive integers is composite. ■

**In-class Problem 10** *Let $n$ be a positive integer with $n \neq 1$. Prove that if $n^2 + 1$ is prime, then $n^2 + 1$ can be written in the form $4k + 1$ with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

**In-class Problem 11** *Prove or disprove the following conjecture, which is similar to Twin Prime Conjecture:*

**Conjecture 2.** *There are infinitely many prime number $p$ for which $p + 2$ and $p + 4$ are also prime numbers.*

## 2.8 The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Prove the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic
- Prove $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

**Theorem** (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)**.** *Every integer greater than one can be written in the form $p_1^{a_1}p_2^{a_2}\cdots p_r^{a_r}$ where the $p_i$ are distinct prime numbers and the $a_i$ are positive integers. This factorization into primes is unique up to the ordering of the terms.*

***Proof*** *We will show that every integer $n$ greater than 1 has a prime factorization. First, note that all primes are already in the desired form. We will use induction to show that every composite integer can be factored into the product of primes. When $n = 4$, we can write $n = 2^2$, so 4 has the desired form.*

*Assume that for all integers $k$ with $1 < k < n$, $k$ can be written in the form $p_1^{a_1}p_2^{a_2}\cdots p_r^{a_r}$ where the $p_i$ are distinct prime numbers and the $a_i$ are positive integers. If $n$ is prime, we are done, otherwise there exists $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 < a, b < n$ such that $n = ab$. By the induction hypothesis, there exist primes $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_r, q_1, q_2, \ldots, q_s$ and positive integers $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_r, b_1, b_2, \ldots b_s$ such that $a = p_1^{a_1}p_2^{a_2}\cdots p_r^{a_r}$ and $b = q_1^{b_1}q_2^{a_2}\cdots q_s^{b_a}$. Then*

$$n = p_1^{a_1}p_2^{a_2}\cdots p_r^{a_r}q_1^{b_1}q_2^{a_2}\cdots q_s^{b_a}.$$

■

We will use an idea similar to the proof of the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic to proof the following:

**In-class Problem 12**

**Proposition.** *$\sqrt{2}$ is irrational*

*As class, put the steps of the proof in order, then fill in the missing information.*

Finally, work two groups. Each group will be assigned one of the following question.

**In-class Problem 13** *Let $p$ be prime.*

(a) *If $(a, b) = p$, what are the possible values of $(a^2, b)$? Of $(a^3, b)$? Of $(a^2, b^3)$?*

(b) *If $(a, b) = p$ and $(b, p^3) = p^2$, find $(ab, p^4)$ and $(a + b, p^4)$.*

Linear Diophantine Equations
## 2.9 Linear Diophantine Equations

**Definition 1.** *A* Diophantine equation *is any equation in one or more variables to be solved in the integers.*

**Definition 2.** *Let $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ not zero. A Diophantine equation of the form*

$$a_1x_1 + a_2x_2 + \cdots + a_nx_n = b$$

*is a* linear Diophantine equation in the $n$ variable $x_1, \ldots, x_n$.

The question of whether there are solutions to Diophantine equations becomes harder when there is more than one variable.

**Theorem 2.** *Let $ax + by = c$ be a linear Diophantine equation in the variables $x$ and $y$. Let $d = (a, b)$. If $d \nmid c$, then the equation has no solutions; if $d \mid c$, then the equation has infinitely many solutions. Furthermore, if $x_0, y_0$ is a particular solution of the equation, then all solution are given by $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n$ and $y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n$ where $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

***Proof*** *Since $d \mid a, d \mid b$, we have that $d \mid \boxed{?}$. So, if $d \nmid c$, then the given linear Diophantine equation has no solutions. Assume that $d \mid c$. Then, there exists $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that*

$$d = (a, b) = ar + bs.$$

*Furthermore, $d \mid c$ implies $c = de$ for some $e \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then*

$$c = de = (ar + bs)e = a(re) + b(se).$$

*Thus, $x = re$ and $y = se$ are integer solutions.*

*Let $x_0, y_0$ be a particular solution to $ax + by = c$ Then, if $n \in \mathbb{Z}, x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n$ and $y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n$,*

$$ax + by = a(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}n) + b(y_0 - \frac{a}{d}n) = ax_0 + \frac{abn}{d} + by_0 - \frac{abn}{d} = c.$$

*We now need to show that every solution has this form. Let $x$ and $y$ be any solution to $ax + by = c$. Then*

$$(ax + by) - (ax_0 + by_0) = c - c = 0.$$

*Rearranging, we get*

$$a(x - x_0) = b(y_0 - y).$$

*Dividing both sides by $d$ gives*

$$\frac{a}{d}(x - x_0) = \frac{b}{d}(y_0 - y).$$

*Now $\frac{b}{d} \mid \frac{a}{d}(x - x_0)$ and $(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}) = 1$, so $\frac{b}{d} \mid x - x_0$. Thus, $x - x_0 = \frac{b}{d}n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. The proof for $y$ is similar.* ■

**Example 1.** *Is $24x + 60y = 15$ is solvable?*

***Multiple Choice:***

(a) *Yes*

(b) *No*

**Example 2.** *Find all solutions to* $803x + 154y = 11$.

*Using the Euclidean Algorithm, we find:*

$$\begin{aligned} 803 &= 154 * \boxed{?} + \boxed{?} \\ 154 &= \boxed{?} * \boxed{?} + \boxed{?} \\ \boxed{?} &= \boxed{?} * 1 + \boxed{?} \end{aligned}$$

*Thus*

$$\begin{aligned} (803, 154) &= \boxed{?} - \boxed{?} \\ &= \boxed{?} - (154 - \boxed{?} * \boxed{?}) = \boxed{?} * \boxed{?} - 154 \\ &= (803 - 154 * \boxed{?}) * \boxed{?} - 154 = 803 * \boxed{?} - 154 * \boxed{?} \end{aligned}$$

*Thus, all solutions to the Diophantine equation have the form* $x = \boxed{?} + \frac{\boxed{?}}{\boxed{?}}n$ *and* $y = \boxed{?} - \frac{\boxed{?}}{\boxed{?}}n$.

**Example 3.** *There is a famous riddle about Diophantus: "God gave him his boyhood one-sixth of his life, One twelfth more as youth while whiskers grew rife; And then yet one-seventh ere marriage begun; In five years there came a bouncing new son. Alas, the dear child of master and sage After attaining half the measure of his father's life chill fate took him. After consoling his fate by the science of numbers for four years, he ended his life."*

*That is: Diophantus's childhood was* $1/6^{th}$ *of his life, adolescence was* $1/12^{th}$ *of his life, after another* $1/7^{th}$ *of his life he married, his son was born 5 years after he married, his son then died at half the age that Diophantus died, and 4 years later Diophantus died.*

*The Diophantine equation that let's us solve this riddle is:*

$$x = \frac{x}{6} + \frac{x}{12} + \frac{x}{7} + 5 + \frac{x}{2} + 4.$$

*Then, Diophantus's childhood was* $\boxed{?}$ *years, his adolescence was* $\boxed{?}$ *years, he married when he was* $\boxed{?}$*, his son was born when he was* $\boxed{?}$ *and died* $\boxed{?}$ *years later, then Diophantus died when he was* $\boxed{?}$.

## 2.10 Greatest Common Divisors and Diophantine Equations

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Prove the formula for integer solutions to $ax + by = c$.
- State when integer solution exist for $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_kx_k = c$. .

**Lemma 3.** *Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $a \neq 0$. Then $(a, b, c) = ((a, b), c)$.*

***Proof*** *Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, with $a \neq 0$. Define $d = (a, b, c)$ and $e = ((a, b), c)$. We will show that $d \mid e$ and $e \mid d$. Since the greatest common divisor is positive, we can conclude that $d = e$*[2]*.*

*Since $d = (a, b, c)$, we know $d \mid a, d \mid b$, and $d \mid c$. By Lemma 4, which we are about to prove, $d \mid (a, b)$. Thus, $d$ is a common divisor of $(a, b)$ and $c$, so $d \mid e$.*

*Since $e = ((a, b), c)$, $e \mid (a, b)$ and $e \mid c$. Since $e \mid (a, b)$, we know $e \mid a$ and $e \mid b$ by Lemma 4. Thus, $e$ is a common divides of $a, b$ and $c$* ■

**Lemma 4.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero. Then any common divisor of $a$ and $b$ divides the greatest common divisor.*

***Proof*** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero. By Bézout's Identity, $(a, b) = am + bn$ for some $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus, $d \mid (a, b)$ by linear combination.* ■

**Lemma 5.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero. Then any divisor of $(a, b)$ is a common divisor of $a$ and $b$.*

***Proof*** *Let $c$ be a divisor of $(a, b)$. Since $(a, b) \mid a$ and $(a, b) \mid b$, then $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$ by transitivity.* ■

**Proposition 3.** *Let $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a_1 \neq 0$. Then*

$$(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{n-1}), a_n).$$

***Proof*** *Let $k = 2$. The since $((a_1, a_2)) = (a_1, a_2)$ by the definition of greatest common divisor of one integer, $(a_1, a_2) = ((a_1, a_2))$. The $k = 3$ case is the first lemma in this section (3).*

*Assume that for all $2 \leq k < n$,*

$$(a_1, \ldots, a_k) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{k-1}), a_k).$$

*Let $d = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_k)$, $e = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_k), a_{k+1}) = (d, a_{k+1})$, and $f = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_k, a_{k+1})$. We will show that $e \mid f$ and $f \mid e$. Since both $e$ and $f$ are positive, this will prove that $e = f$.*

*Note that $e \mid (a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_k)$ and $e \mid a_{k+1}$ by definition. Since $(a_1, \ldots, a_k) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{k-1}), a_k)$ by the induction hypothesis, $e \mid (a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{k-1})$ and $e \mid a_k$ by Lemma 5. Again, by the induction hypothesis, $(a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{k-1}) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{k-2}), a_{k-1})$, so $e \mid a_{k-1}$ and $e \mid (a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_{k-2})$ by Lemma 5. Repeat this process until we get $(a_1, a_2, a_3) = ((a_1, a_2), a_3)$, so $e \mid a_3$ and $e \mid (a_1, a_2)$ by Lemma 5. Thus $e \mid a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{k+1}$ by repeated applications of Lemma 5. By the generalized version of the Lemma 4 on Homework 3, $e \mid f$.*

*To show that $f \mid e$, we note that $f \mid a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_k, a_{k+1}$ by definition. Then $f \mid d$ by the generalized version of the Lemma 4 on Homework 3. Since $e = (d, a_k)$, we have that $f \mid e$ by Lemma 4.* ■

[2] This is not true in general and a common mistake. In general $d = \pm e$

## 2.11 More facts about greatest common divisor and primes

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Find the solutions to a specific Diophantine equation in three variables
- Prove that when a Diophantine equation in three variables has a solutions, it has infinitely many. .

**Proposition 4.** *Let $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $ax + by + cz = d$ be a linear Diophantine equation. If $(a, b, c) \nmid d$, then the equation has no solutions. If $(a, b, c) \mid d$, then there are infinitely many solutions.*

**In-class Problem 14** *Find integral solutions to the Diophantine equation*

$$8x_1 - 4x_2 + 6x_3 = 6.$$

(a) *Since $(8, -4, 6) = 2$, solutions exist*

(b) *The linear Diophantine equation $8x_1 - 4x_2 = 4y$ has infinitely many solutions for all $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ by Theorem 2. Substituting into the original Diophantine equation gives $4y + 6x_3 = 6$, which has infinitely many solutions by Theorem 2, since $(4, 6) = 2 \mid 6$. Find them.*

(c) *For a particular value of $y$, the Diophantine equation $8x_1 - 4x_2 = 0$ has solutions, find them.*

(d) *Then $x_1 = 1 - m, x_2 = 2 - 2m, x_3 = 1$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$.*

---

***Proof of Proposition 4*** Let $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let $ax + by + cz = d$ be a linear Diophantine equation. If $(a, b, c) \mid d$, let $e = (a, b)$. Then

$$ax + by = ew \tag{1}$$

has a solution for all $w \in \mathbb{Z}$ by Theorem 2. Similarly, the linear Diophantine equation

$$ew + cz = d \tag{2}$$

has infinitely many solutions by Theorem 2, since $(e, c) = (a, b, c)$ by the Lemma 3 and $(a, b, c) \mid d$ by assumption. These solutions have the form

$$w = w_0 + \frac{cn}{(a, b, c)}, \quad z = z_0 - \frac{en}{(a, b, c)}, \qquad n \in \mathbb{Z},$$

where $w_0, z_0$ is a particular solution. Let $x_0, y_0$ be a particular solution to

$$ax + by = ew_0.$$

Then the general solution is

$$x = x_0 + \frac{bm}{e}, \quad y = y_0 - \frac{am}{e}, \qquad m \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

To verify that these formulas for $x, y$, and $z$ give solutions to $ax + by + cz = d$, we substitute into equation 2 then 1

$$\begin{aligned} e\left(w_0 + \frac{cn}{(a, b, c)}\right) + c\left(z_0 - \frac{en}{(a, b, c)}\right) &= d \\ ew_0 + cz_0 &= d \\ a\left(x_0 + \frac{bm}{e}\right) + b\left(y_0 - \frac{am}{e}\right) + cz_0 &= d \\ ax_0 + by_0 + cz_0 &= d. \end{aligned}$$

When $(a,b,c) \nmid d$, $\dfrac{a}{(a,b,c)}, \dfrac{b}{(a,b,c)}, \dfrac{c}{(a,b,c)} \in \mathbb{Z}$ by definition, but $\dfrac{d}{(a,b,c)}$ is not an integer. Therefore, there are no integers such that

$$\frac{a}{(a,b,c)}x + \frac{b}{(a,b,c)}y + \frac{c}{(a,b,c)}z = \frac{d}{(a,b,c)}.$$

■

# 3 Modular arithmetic

Modular arithmetic and congruences modulo $m$ generalize the concept of even and odd. We typically think of even and odd as "divisible by 2" and "not divisible by 2", but often a more useful interpretation is even means "there is a remainder of 0 divided by 2" and "there is a remainder of 1 when divided by 2". This interpretation gives us more flexibility when replacing 2 by 3 or larger numbers. Instead of "divisible" or "not divisible" we have several gradations.

There's two major reasons. One is that, calculations are much simplier using modular arithmetic. We'll see later that taking MASSIVE powers of MASSIVE numbers is a fairly doable feat in modular arithmetic. The second reason is that by reducing a question from all integers to modular arithmetic, we often have an easier time seeing what solutions are not allowed.

## 3.1 Introduction to modular arithmetic

**Learning Objectives.** By the end of class, students will be able to:

- Prove that congruence modulo $m$ is an equivalence relation on $\mathbb{Z}$.
- Define a complete residue system.
- Practice using modular arithmetic. .

**Definition** (divisibility definition of $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$)**.** Let $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$. We say that $a$ is *congruent to $b$ modulo $m$* and write $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if $m \mid b - a$, and $m$ is said to be the *modulus of the congruence*. The notation $a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$ means $a$ is not congruent to $b$ modulo $m$, or $a$ is *incongruent to $b$ modulo $m$.*

**Definition** (remainder definition of $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$)**.** Let $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$. We say that $a$ is congruent to $b$ modulo $m$ if $a$ and $b$ have the same remainder when divided by $m$.

Be careful with this idea and negative values. Make sure you understand why $-2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ or $-10 \equiv 4 \pmod{7}$.

**Proposition 5** (Definitions of congruence modulo $m$ are equivalent)**.** *These two definitions are equivalent. That is, for $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$, $m \mid b - a$ if and only if $a$ and $b$ have the same remainder when divided by $m$.*

***Proof*** Let $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$. By the Division Algorithm, there exists $q_1, q_2, r_1, r_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$aq_1m + r_1, 0 \leq r_1 < m, \text{ and}$$
$$bq_2m + r_2, 0 \leq r_2 < m.$$

If $m \mid b-a$, then by definition, there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $mk = b-a$. Thus, $mk = q_2m+r_2-q_1m-r_1$. Rearranging, we get $m(k - q_2 + q_1) = r_2 - r_1$ and $m \mid r_2 - r_1$. Since $0 \leq r_1 < m, 0 \leq r_2 < m$, we have $-m < r_2 - r_1 < m$. Thus, $r_2 - r_1 = 0$, so $a$ and $b$ have the same remainder when divided by $m$.

In the other direction, if $r_1 = r_2$, then $a - b = q_1m - q_2m = m(q_1 - q_2)$. Thus, $m \mid a - b$. ■

**Example 4.** *We will eventually find a function that generates all integers solutions to the equation $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ (this can be done with only divisibility, so feel free to try for yourself after class).*

*Modular arithmetic allows us to say a few things about solutions.*

**First, let's look at** $\pmod{2}$**.** *Note that* $0^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ *and* $1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$.

**Case 1:** $c^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ *In this case,* $c \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ *and either* $1^2 + 1^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$ *or* $0^2 + 0^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{2}$. *So, we know* $a \equiv b \pmod{2}$. (Note: $\pmod{4}$ will eliminate the $a \equiv b \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ case)

**Case 2:** $c^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ *In this case,* $c \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ *and either* $0^2 + 1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$. *So, we know* $a \not\equiv b \pmod{2}$.

**Let's start with** $\pmod{3}$**.** *Note that* $0^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, $1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, *and* $2^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$.

**Case 1:** $c^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$**.** *In this case,* $c \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$ *and* $0^2 + 0^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$. *So, we know* $a \equiv b \equiv c \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$.

**Case 2:** $c^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$**.** *In this case, $c$ could be* 1 *or* 2 *modulo* 3. *We also know* $0^2 + 1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, *so* $a \not\equiv b \pmod{3}$.

**Case 3:** $c^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ *has no solutions.*

*So at least one of $a, b, c$ is even, and at least one is divisible by* 3.

We can use the idea of congruences to simplify divisibility arguments, as well as nonlinear Diophantine equations.

# Part I

# Appendix

## 3.2 Other Results from Strayer

*These results are covered in the readings from* Elementary Number Theory *by James K. Strayer in Spring 2024, and referenced in these notes. All of the results in this section are standard elementary number theory and presented without proof.*

**Axiom 1** (Well Ordering Principle)**.** *Every nonempty set of positive integers contains a least element.*

### Divisibility facts

**Lemma** (Proposition 1.2)**.** *Let $a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $c \mid a$ and $c \mid d$, then $c \mid ma + nb$.*

**Proposition** (Proposition 1.10)**.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $(a, b) = d$. Then $(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}) = 1$.*

**Lemma** (Lemma 1.12)**.** *If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $a \geq b > 0$, and $a = bq + r$ with $q, r \in |Z$, then $(a, b) = (b, r)$.*

### Prime facts

**Lemma** (Lemma 1.14)**.** *Let $a, b, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p$ prime. If $p \mid ab$, then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.*

**Corollary** (Corollary 1.15)**.** *Let $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p$ prime. If $p \mid a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, then $p \mid a_i$ for some $i$.*

**Proposition** (Proposition 1.17)**.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a, b > 1$. Write $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_n^{a_n}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \cdots p_n^{b_n}$ where $p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n$ are distinct primes and $a_1, a_2 \cdots, a_n, b_1, b_2, \cdots, b_n$ are nonnegative integers (possibly zero). Then*

$$(a, b) = p_1^{\min\{a_1, b_1\}} p_2^{\min\{a_2, b_2\}} \cdots p_n^{\min\{a_n, b_n\}}$$

*and*

$$[a, b] = p_1^{\max\{a_1, b_1\}} p_2^{\max\{a_2, b_2\}} \cdots p_n^{\max\{a_n, b_n\}}.$$

**Theorem** (Theorem 1.19)**.** *Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a, b > 0$. Then $(a, b)[a, b] = ab$.*

### Congruences

**Proposition** (Proposition 2.1)**.** *Let $a, b, c, d, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$, then:*

(a) $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$

(b) $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ *implies* $b \equiv a \pmod{m}$

(c) $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ *and* $b \equiv c \pmod{m}$ *implies* $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$

**Proposition** (Proposition 2.4)**.** *Let $a, b, c, d, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$, then:*

*(a)* $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ *and* $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ *implies* $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$

*(b)* $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ *and* $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ *implies* $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$.

**Proposition** (Proposition 2.5)**.** *Let $a, b, c, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$. Then $ca \equiv cb \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a \equiv b \pmod{\frac{m}{(a,m)}}$.*

**Lemma** (Chapter 2, Exercise 9)**.** *Let $a, b, c, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ then $ac \equiv bc \pmod{mc}$ for $c > 0$.*

**Corollary** (Corollary 2.15)**.** *Let $p$ be a prime number and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$.*

## The Euler Phi-Function

**Theorem** (Theorem 3.3)**.** *Let $p$ be prime and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a > 0$. Then $\phi(p^a) = p^a - p^{a-1} = p^{a-1}(p-1)$.*