
MAT-255 Number Theory–Spring 2024

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Part I

Course Notes

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. ■

Proposition. *The sum of two consecutive integers is 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

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

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 $ma + nb$ 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 1.1 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.

- If a, b, c , and d are integers such that if $a \mid b$ and $c \mid d$, then $a + c \mid b + d$.
- If a, b, c , and d are integers such that if $a \mid b$ and $c \mid d$, then $ac \mid bd$.
- If a, b , and c are integers such that if $a \nmid b$ and $b \nmid c$, then $a \nmid c$.

Solution: Problem on Homework 1.

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 $A \wedge \neg B$

Solution:

A	B	$A \Rightarrow B$	$\neg(A \Rightarrow B)$	$A \wedge \neg B$
True	True	True	False	False
True	False	False	True	True
False	True	True	False	False
False	False	True	False	False

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 have $r = a - bq$. 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 $x - 1 < [x] \leq x$ 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.

$$\begin{array}{r} a = bq_1 + r_1, \\ -(a = bq_2 + r_2), \\ \hline 0 = bq_1 + r_1 - bq_2 - r_2 = b(q_1 - q_2) + (r_1 - r_2). \end{array}$$

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

$$\begin{array}{r} 0 \leq r_2 < b \\ -b < -r_1 \leq 0 \\ \hline -b < r_2 - r_1 < b. \end{array}$$

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 $a = 281, b = 13$.

Solution: For $a = 47, b = 6$, we have that $a = (7)6 + 5, q = 7, r = 5$. For $a = 281, b = 13$, we have that $a = (21)13 + 8, q = 21, r = 8$.

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 $a = p|b| + s$ and $0 \leq s < |b|$.
 - (ii) There are two cases:
 - i. When $b > 0$, the conditions are already met and $r = s$ and $q = \text{answer}$.
 - ii. Otherwise, $b < 0$, $r = s$ and $q = \text{answer} - b$.
 - (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:

$$\text{i. When } b > 0, q = \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor \text{ and } r = a - bq.$$

ii. When $\boxed{b < 0}$, $q = \boxed{-\left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor}$ and $r = \boxed{a - bq}$.

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

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 $\gcd(b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_n)$.

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 $c \mid xa + yb = d$, 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 $4^n - 1$.

Solution: We proceed by induction. When $n = 1$, $3 \mid 4^1 - 1 = 3$. Thus, the statement is true for $n = 1$.

Now assume $k \geq 1$ and the desired statement is true for $n = k$. Then the induction hypothesis is

$$3 \mid 4^k - 1.$$

By the definition of a divides b , there exists $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $3m = 4^k - 1$. In other words, $3m + 1 = 4^k$. Multiplying both sides by 4 gives $12m + 4 = 4^{k+1}$. Rewriting this equation gives $3(4m + 1) = 4^{k+1} - 1$. Thus, $3 \mid 4^{k+1} - 1$, and the desired statement is true for $n = k + 1$. By the (first) principle of mathematical induction, the statement is true for all positive integers, and the proof is complete.

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

Solution: We proceed by induction. When $n = 1$, there is only one point, so there are no lines connecting pairs of points. Additionally, $\frac{1^2 - 1}{2} = 0$.¹

Now assume $k \geq 1$ and the desired statement is true for $n = k$. Then the induction hypothesis is for k distinct points arranged in a circle, the number of line segments joining all pairs of points is $\frac{k^2 - k}{2}$. Adding a $(k + 1)^{\text{st}}$ point on the circle will add an additional k line segments joining pairs of points, one for each existing point. Note that

$$\frac{k^2 - k}{2} + k = \frac{k^2 + k}{2} = \frac{k^2 + k + k + 1 - (k + 1)}{2} = \frac{(k + 1)^2 - (k + 1)}{2}$$

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

(a) If n is a positive integer, then

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

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

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

¹Alternately, you could use $n = 2$ for the base case. Then there is one line connecting the only pair of points and $\frac{2^2 - 2}{2} = 1$

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 find the greatest 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

$$b = r_1q_2 + r_2, \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1.$$

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

$$r_1 = r_2q_3 + r_3, \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2.$$

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)

Solution: By inspection: $28 - 21 = 7$.

Using the Euclidean algorithm: $a = 28, b = 21$

$$28 = 21(1) + 7$$

$$q_1 = 1, r_1 = 7$$

$$7 = 21(1) + 28(-1)$$

$$21 = 7(3) + 0$$

$$q_2 = 3, r_2 = 0$$

$$\text{so } 28 + (-1)21 = 7 = (28, 21)$$

(b) (32, 56)

Solution: Using the Euclidean algorithm: $a = 56, b = 32$

$$56 = 32(1) + 24 \quad q_1 = 1, r_1 = 24$$

$$24 = 56(1) + 32(-1)$$

$$32 = 24(1) + 8 \quad q_2 = 1, r_2 = 8 \quad 8 = 32(1) + 24(-1) = 32(1) + (56(1) + 32(-1))(-1) = 32(2) + 56(-1)$$

$$32 = 8(4) + 0 \quad q_3 = 4, r_3 = 0.$$

$$\text{so } 56(-1) + 32(2) = 8 = (56, 32)$$

(c) (0, 113)

Solution: Since $0 = 113(0)$, $(0, 113) = 113 = 0(0) = 113(1)$.

(a) (78, 708)

Solution: Using the Euclidean algorithm: $a = 708, b = 78$

$$708 = 78(9) + 6$$

$$q_1 = 9, r_1 = 6$$

$$6 = 708(1) + 78(-9)$$

$$78 = 6(13) + 0$$

$$q_2 = 13, r_2 = 0.$$

$$\text{so } 708(1) + 78(-9) = 6 = (78, 708)$$

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, \dots, 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 , $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Then $p \mid N - p_1 p_2 \cdots p_n$, 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

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

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 $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Solution: Assume that n is a positive integer, $n \neq 1$, and $n^2 + 1$ is prime. If n is odd, then n^2 is odd, which would imply $n^2 + 1 = 2$, the only even prime. However, $n \neq 1$ by assumption. Thus, n is even.

By definition of even, there exists $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k$ and $n^2 = 4j^2$. Thus, $n^2 + 1 = 4k + 1$ when $k = j^2$.

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 $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r, q_1, q_2, \dots, q_s$ and positive integers $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_s$ such that $a = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_r^{a_r}$ and $b = q_1^{b_1} q_2^{b_2} \cdots q_s^{b_s}$. Then

$$n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots p_r^{a_r} q_1^{b_1} q_2^{b_2} \cdots q_s^{b_s}.$$

■

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.

Put the following steps in order:

- [10] Therefore, $\sqrt{2}$ is not rational. [2] Assume that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational, ie, there exists $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$.
- [6] Therefore there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $p = 2k$ by definition of $2 \mid p$
- [4] Then (include to remove fractions and the radical) $2q^2 = p^2$.
- [5] Then $2 \mid p^2$ by definition of divisibility and $2 \mid p$ by Lemma 1.14
- [9] This contradicts our assumption that $(p, q) = 1$ [7] Then (more algebraic manipulations) $2q^2 = 4k^2$ and $q^2 = 2k^2$.
- [1] We proceed by contradiction.
- [8] Then $2 \mid q^2$ and $2 \mid q$ by Lemma 1.14 and definition of $2 \mid q$
- [3] Without loss of generality, we may assume $(p, q) = 1$, since

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 $(a + b, p^4)$.

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 $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n not zero. A Diophantine equation of the form

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

is a linear Diophantine equation in the n variable x_1, \dots, 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 $d \mid \boxed{c}$. 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:

$$\begin{aligned} 803 &= 154 * \boxed{5} + \boxed{33} \\ 154 &= \boxed{33} * \boxed{4} + \boxed{22} \\ \boxed{33} &= \boxed{22} * 1 + \boxed{11} \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} (803, 154) &= \boxed{33} - \boxed{22} \\ &= \boxed{33} - (154 - \boxed{33} * \boxed{4}) = \boxed{33} * \boxed{5} - 154 \\ &= (803 - 154 * \boxed{5}) * \boxed{5} - 154 = 803 * \boxed{5} - 154 * \boxed{26} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, all solutions to the Diophantine equation have the form $x = \boxed{5} + \frac{\boxed{154}}{\boxed{11}}n$ and $y = \boxed{-26} - \frac{\boxed{803}}{\boxed{11}}n$.

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 $1/6^{\text{th}}$ of his life, adolescence was $1/12^{\text{th}}$ of his life, after another $1/7^{\text{th}}$ 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 $\boxed{14}$ years, his adolescence was $\boxed{7}$ years, he married when he was $\boxed{33}$, his son was born when he was $\boxed{38}$ and died $\boxed{42}$ years later, then Diophantus died when he was $\boxed{84}$.

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 6, 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 6. 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 $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a_1 \neq 0$. Then

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

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 $2 \leq k < n$,

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

Let $d = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k)$, $e = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k), a_{k+1}) = (d, a_{k+1})$, and $f = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k, a_{k+1})$. 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 $e \mid (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k)$ and $e \mid a_{k+1}$ by definition. Since $(a_1, \dots, a_k) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-1}), a_k)$ by the induction hypothesis, $e \mid (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-1})$ and $e \mid a_k$ by Lemma 7. Again, by the induction hypothesis, $(a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-1}) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-2}), a_{k-1})$, so $e \mid a_{k-1}$ and $e \mid (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-2})$ by Lemma 7. 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 7. Thus $e \mid a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{k+1}$ by repeated applications of Lemma 7. By the generalized version of the Lemma 6 on Homework 3, $e \mid f$.

To show that $f \mid e$, we note that $f \mid a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k, a_{k+1}$ by definition. Then $f \mid d$ by the generalized version of the Lemma 6 on Homework 3. Since $e = (d, a_k)$, we have that $f \mid e$ by Lemma 6. ■

²This 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.

Solution: By inspection, $y = 0, x_3 = 1$ is a particular solution. Then by Theorem 2, the solutions have the form

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 0 + \frac{6n}{2}, & x_3 &= 1 - \frac{4n}{2}, & \text{or} \\ y &= 0 + 3n, & x_3 &= 1 - 2n, & n \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

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

Solution: By inspection, $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2$ is a particular solution. Then by Theorem 2, the solutions have the form

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= 1 + \frac{-4m}{4}, & x_2 &= 2 - \frac{8m}{4}, & \text{or} \\ x_1 &= 1 - m, & x_2 &= 2 - 2m, & m \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

- (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 $(a, b, c) \nmid d$, let $e = (a, b, c)$. 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

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

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

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

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 $(a, b, c) \nmid d$, $\frac{a}{(a, b, c)}, \frac{b}{(a, b, c)}, \frac{c}{(a, b, c)} \in \mathbb{Z}$ by definition, but $\frac{d}{(a, b, c)}$ 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 simpler 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

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

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 II

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 $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$, 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 $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, p \in \mathbb{Z}$ 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, \dots, p_n are distinct primes and $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$ 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 $\phi(p^a) = p^a - p^{a-1} = p^{a-1}(p - 1)$.*

Part III

In Class Assignments

MAT-255– NUMBER THEORY

SPRING 2024

IN CLASS WORK JANUARY 17

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 15 Prove**Theorem** (Ernst, Theorem 2.2). *If n is an even integer, then n^2 is even.***Solution:** *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.***In-class Problem 16** Prove**Theorem** (Strayer, Proposition 1.2). *Let $a, b, c, m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $c \mid a$ and $c \mid b$ then $c \mid ma + nb$.*

MAT-255– NUMBER THEORY

SPRING 2024

IN CLASS WORK JANUARY 19

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

Use the proofs of the following propositions as a guide.

Proposition 6. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$.**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

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

so $a \mid c$. ■**Proposition 7.** 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. ■**In-class Problem 17** 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 $a \nmid c$.

In-class Problem 18 Construct a truth table for $A \rightarrow B$, $\neg(A \rightarrow B)$ and $A \wedge \neg B$

	A	B	$A \Rightarrow B$	$\neg(A \Rightarrow B)$	$A \wedge \neg B$
Solution:	T	T	T	F	F
	T	F	F	T	T
	F	T	T	F	F
	F	F	T	F	F

In-class Problem 19 Prove that our two definitions of even are equivalent using the following outline:**Proposition 8.** Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k$ if and only if $2 \mid n$.**Proof** (\Rightarrow) Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Assume that there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k$. Thus, $2 \mid n$ **Free Response:** by definition of divides.(\Leftarrow) Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Assume that $2 \mid n$. Then, there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k$ **Free Response:** by definition of divides. ■**In-class Problem 20** Prove that our two definitions of odd are equivalent using the following outline:**Proposition 9.** Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k + 1$ if and only if $2 \nmid k$.**Proof** (\Rightarrow) Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Assume that there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k + 1$. Then

Free Response: by the division algorithm, there exists unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2q + r$ and $0 \leq r < 2$.

Thus, $2 \nmid k$.

(\Leftarrow) Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Assume that $2 \nmid k$. Then

Free Response: by the division algorithm, there exists unique $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2q + r$ and $0 < r < 2$. Thus, $r = 1$.

Thus, there is some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2k + 1$. ■

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IN CLASS WORK JANUARY 22

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 21 Use the division algorithm on $a = 47, b = 6$ and $a = 281, b = 13$.**Solution:** When $a = 47, b = 6$, we have $q = 7$, and $r = 5$ since

$$47 = 6(7) + 5 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq 5 < 6.$$

When $a = 281, b = 13$, we have $q = 21$, and $r = 8$ since

$$47 = 13(21) + 8 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq 8 < 13.$$

In-class Problem 22 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 $a = p|b| + s$ and $0 \leq s < |b|$.

(ii) There are two cases:

i. When $b > 0$, the conditions are already met, and $r = s$ and $q = p$.ii. Otherwise, $b < 0$, $r = s$ and $q = -p$.(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 $b > 0$, $q = \left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor$ and $r = a - bq$.**Hint:** The TeXcode for the floor function is `\lfloor ... \rfloor`

as in the proof of the division algorithm.

ii. When $b < 0$, $q = -\left\lfloor \frac{a}{b} \right\rfloor$ and $r = a - bq$.(ii) Summarizing these statements, rewrite q, r in terms of a and b , as in the original proof of the division algorithm.

(iii) Now use your scratch work and follow the outline of the proof of the division algorithm to provide a new proof without referencing the division algorithm.

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IN CLASS WORK JANUARY 24

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In-class Problem 23 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 $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Hint: Try showing the statement is true for all odd integers greater than 1.

Solution: Assume that n is a positive integer, $n \neq 1$, and $n^2 + 1$ is prime. If n is odd, then n^2 is odd, which would imply $n^2 + 1 = 2$, the only even prime. However, $n \neq 1$ by assumption. Thus, n is even.

By definition of even, there exists $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $n = 2j$ and $n^2 = 4j^2$. Thus, $n^2 + 1 = 4j^2 + 1$ when $k = j^2$.

In-class Problem 24 Prove or disprove the following conjecture, which is similar to the Twin Prime Conjecture:

Conjecture 3. There are infinitely many prime number p for which $p + 2$ and $p + 4$ are also prime numbers.

Hint: Show that the only prime where $p + 2$ and $p + 4$ are also prime is $p = 3$.

In-class Problem 25 Without looking up the proof, prove Proposition 1.10: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $(a, b) = d$. Then $\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right) = 1$.

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IN CLASS WORK JANUARY 26

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Use the first principle of mathematical induction to prove each statement.

In-class Problem 26 For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, 3 divides $4^n - 1$.**Proof** We proceed by induction. The base case is $n = 1$. Since $3 \mid 4^1 - 1$, we are done.The induction hypothesis is that if $k \geq 1$ and $n = k$, then $3 \mid 4^k - 1$. We want to show that $3 \mid 4^{k+1} - 1$.**Free Response:** Then by the definition of divides, there exists m such that $3m = 4^k - 1$. Rewriting this equation, we get $3m + 1 = 4^k$. Multiplying both sides by 4 gives $4(3m) + 4 = 4^{k+1}$, or $3(4m + 1) = 4^{k+1} - 1$. Therefore, $3 \mid 4^{k+1} - 1$. ■**In-class Problem 27** Let p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n be n distinct points arranged on a circle. Then the number of line segments joining all pairs of points is $\frac{n^2 - n}{2}$.**Proof** We proceed by induction. The base case is $n = 1$. Since**Free Response:** There are $6 \frac{1^2 - 1}{2} = 0$ line segments connecting the only point

we are done.

The induction hypothesis is that if $k \geq 1$ and $n = k$, then**Free Response:** there are $\frac{k^2 - k}{2}$ line segments joining all pairs of distinct points p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k arranged on a circle.

We want to show that

Free Response: there are $\frac{(k+1)^2 - (k+1)}{2}$ line segments joining all pairs of distinct points $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k, p_{k+1}$ arranged on a circle.**Free Response:** Adding a $k+1^{\text{st}}$ point adds an additional k pairs of points. Then there are $\frac{k^2 - k}{2} + k = \frac{k^2 + k}{2} = \frac{(k+1)^2 - (k+1)}{2}$ line segments joining all pairs of distinct points $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k, p_{k+1}$ arranged on a circle. ■**In-class Problem 28** If n is a positive integer, then

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

Proof We proceed by induction. The base case is $n = 1$. Since $1^3 = \frac{1^2(1+1)^2}{4}$, we are done.The induction hypothesis is that if $k \geq 1$ and $n = k$, then

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

We want to show that

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

Free Response:

$$\begin{aligned} 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \cdots + k^3 &= \frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4} \\ 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \cdots + k^3 + (k+1)^3 &= \frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4} + (k+1)^3 = \frac{k^2(k+1)^2 + 4(k+1)^3}{4} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)^2(k^2 + 4k + 4)}{4} = \frac{(k+1)^2(k+2)^2}{4} \end{aligned}$$

■

In-class Problem 29 If n is an integer with $n \geq 5$, then

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

Proof We proceed by induction. The base case is $n = 5$. Since $\boxed{2^5 > 5^2}$, we are done.

The induction hypothesis is that if $k \geq 5$ and $n = k$, then $\boxed{2^k > k^2}$. We want to show that $\boxed{2^{k+1} > (k+1)^2}$.

Free Response: Multiplying both sides by k gives $k2^k > 2^{k+1} > k^2$.

■

Recall the notation $\gcd(a, b) = (a, b)$.

In-class Problem 30 Let $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a_1 \neq 0$. Prove that

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

Hint: Try solving the $k = 3$ case as part of your scratch work.

Proof We proceed by induction. The base case is $n = 2$, since the statement we are trying to prove requires at least two inputs. Since

$$\boxed{(a_1, a_2) = ((a_1, a_2))}$$

we are done.

The induction hypothesis is that if $k \geq 2$ and $n = k$, then

$$\boxed{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k) = ((a_1, a_2, a_{k-1}), a_k)}$$

We want to prove that

$$\boxed{(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{k+1}) = ((a_1, a_2, a_k), a_{k+1})}$$

Free Response: Let $d_k = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k)$, $e = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k), a_{k+1}) = (d_k, a_{k+1})$, and $f = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k, a_{k+1})$. 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 $e \mid (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_k)$ and $e \mid a_{k+1}$ by definition. Since $(a_1, \dots, a_k) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-1}), a_k) = (d_{k-1}, a_k)$ by the induction hypothesis, $e \mid d_{k-1}$ and $e \mid a_k$ by definition of (d_{k-1}, a_k) . Again, by the induction hypothesis,

$d_{k-1} = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-1}) = ((a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_{k-2}), a_{k-1}) = (d_{k-2}, a_{k-1})$, so $e \mid a_{k-1}$ and $e \mid d_{k-2}$ by definition of (d_{k-2}, a_{k-1}) . 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 definition of $((a_1, a_2), a_3)$. Thus $e \mid a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{k+1}$ by repeated applications of the induction hypothesis and the definition of greatest common divisor. By Problem 4 on Homework 3, $e \mid f$.

To show that $f \mid e$, we note that $f \mid a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k, a_{k+1}$ by definition. Then $f \mid d_k$ by Problem 4 on Homework 3. Since $e = (d_k, a_k)$, we have that $f \mid e$ by Problem 4 on Homework 3. ■

In-class Problem 31 Redo the following proofs using induction:

In-class Problem 31.1 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Prove that $3 \mid n^3 - n$.

Proof We proceed by induction. The base case is $n = 1$. Since $3 \mid 1^3 - 1 = 0$, we are done.

The induction hypothesis is that if $k \geq 1$ and $n = k$, then $3 \mid k^3 - k$. We want to show that $3 \mid (k+1)^3 - (k+1)$.

Free Response: Since $3 \mid 3(k^2 + k)$ by the definition of divides, and $3 \mid k^3 - k$ by the induction hypothesis, $k^3 - k + 3(k^2 + k)$ by linear combination. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} k^3 - k + 3(k^2 + k) &= k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1 - k - 1 \\ &= (k+1)^3 - (k+1). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $3 \mid (k+1)^3 - (k+1)$. ■

In-class Problem 31.2 Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Prove that $5 \mid n^5 - n$.

Proof We proceed by induction. The base case is $n = 1$. Since $5 \mid 1^5 - 1 = 0$, we are done.

The induction hypothesis is that if $k \geq 1$ and $n = k$, then $5 \mid k^5 - k$. We want to show that $5 \mid (k+1)^5 - (k+1)$.

Free Response: Since $5 \mid 5(k^4 + 2k^3 + 2k^2 + k)$ by the definition of divides, and $5 \mid k^5 - k$ by the induction hypothesis, $k^5 - k + 5(k^4 + 2k^3 + 2k^2 + k)$ by linear combination. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} k^5 - k + 5(k^4 + 2k^3 + 2k^2 + k) &= k^5 + 5k^4 + 10k^3 + 10k^2 + 5k + 1 - k - 1 \\ &= (k+1)^5 - (k+1). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $5 \mid (k+1)^5 - (k+1)$. ■

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IN CLASS WORK JANUARY 26

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 32 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)

Solution: By inspection: $28 - 21 = 7$.Using the Euclidean Algorithm: $a = 28, b = 21$

$$28 = 21(1) + 7$$

$$q_1 = 1, r_1 = 7$$

$$7 = 21(1) + 28(-1)$$

$$21 = 7(3) + 0$$

$$q_2 = 3, r_2 = 0$$

$$\text{so } 28 + (-1)21 = 7 = (28, 21)$$

(b) (32, 56)

Solution: Using the Euclidean Algorithm: $a = 56, b = 32$

$$56 = 32(1) + 24 \quad q_1 = 1, r_1 = 24$$

$$24 = 56(1) + 32(-1)$$

$$32 = 24(1) + 8 \quad q_2 = 1, r_2 = 8 \quad 8 = 32(1) + 24(-1) = 32(1) + (56(1) + 32(-1))(-1) = 32(2) + 56(-1)$$

$$32 = 8(4) + 0 \quad q_3 = 4, r_3 = 0.$$

$$\text{so } 56(-1) + 32(2) = 8 = (56, 32)$$

(c) (0, 113)

Solution: Since $0 = 113(0)$, $(0, 113) = 113 = 0(0) = 113(1)$.

(d) (78, 708)

Solution: Using the Euclidean Algorithm: $a = 708, b = 78$

$$708 = 78(9) + 6$$

$$q_1 = 9, r_1 = 6$$

$$6 = 708(1) + 78(-9)$$

$$78 = 6(13) + 0$$

$$q_2 = 13, r_2 = 0.$$

$$\text{so } 708(1) + 78(-6) = 6 = (78, 708)$$

In-class Problem 33 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) ?

Solution: If $(a, b) = p$, then there exist $j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a = pj, b = pk$, and $p \nmid j$ or $p \nmid k$ (otherwise $(a, b) = p^2$).

$$a^2 = p^2 j^2, \quad a^3 = p^3 j^3, \quad b^3 = p^3 k^3$$

Then (a^2, b) is p if $p \nmid k$ or p^2 if $p \mid k$; and (a^3, b) is p if $p \nmid k$, p^2 if $p \mid k$ and $p^2 \nmid k$, or p^3 if $p^2 \mid k$.

If $p \mid j$, then $p \nmid k$ and $(a^2, b^3) = p^3$. If $p \nmid j$, then $(a^2, b^3) = p^2$.

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

Solution: There exists $j, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a = pj, b = p^2k$, and $p \nmid k, p \nmid k$. Then $ab = p^3jk$ and $a + b = pj + p^2k = p(j + pk)$. Thus, $(ab, p^4) = p^3$ and $(a + b, p^4) = p$.

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IN CLASS WORK FEBRUARY 5

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 34 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**Free Response:** Theorem 6.2.Substituting into the original Diophantine equation gives $4y + 6x_3 = 6$, which has infinitely many solutions by**Free Response:** Theorem 6.2,since $(4, 6) = 2 \mid 6$. Find them.**Solution:** By inspection, $y = 0, x_3 = 1$ is a particular solution. Then by Theorem 6.2, the solutions have the form

$$\begin{aligned} y &= 0 + \frac{6n}{2}, & x_3 &= 1 - \frac{4n}{2}, & \text{or} \\ y &= 0 + 3n, & x_3 &= 1 - 2n, & n \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

(c) For a particular value of y , the Diophantine equation $8x_1 - 4x_2 = 0$ has solutions, find them.(d) By inspection, $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 2$ is a particular solution. Then by Theorem 6.2, the solutions have the form

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= 1 + \frac{-4m}{4}, & x_2 &= 2 - \frac{8m}{4}, & \text{or} \\ x_1 &= \boxed{1 - m}, & x_2 &= \boxed{2 - 2m}, & m \in \mathbb{Z}. \end{aligned}$$

The first row should not have reduced fractions. Then simplify your answer for the second row.(e) Then $x_1 = \boxed{1 - m}, x_2 = \boxed{2 - 2m}, x_3 = \boxed{1}$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$.

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IN CLASS WORK FEBRUARY 7

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 35 (a) Do there exist integers x and y such that $x + y = 100$ and $(x, y) = 8$?**Solution:** No. By linear combination, $(x, y) \mid x + y$. Since $8 \nmid 100$, there does not exist integers x and y such that $x + y = 100$ and $(x, y) = 8$ (b) Prove that there exist infinitely many pairs of integers x and y such that $x + y = 87$ and $(x, y) = 3$.**Scratch Work.** Note that $87 = 3(29)$. To ensure that $(x, y) = 3$, not just $3 \mid x$ and $3 \mid y$, let $x = 3n$ where $29 \nmid n$.**Proof** Let $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ with**Free Response:** $x = 3n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ where $29 \nmid n$.Let $y = 87 - 3n$. Then $3 \mid y$ by *linear combination*. Then $(x, y) = 3$ since $29 \nmid n$. Thus, there are infinitely many $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ **Free Response:** where $x + y = 87$ and $(x, y) = 3$. ■**In-class Problem 36** Let a and b be relatively prime integers. Prove that $(a + b, a - b)$ is either 1 or 2.**Hint:** From the back of Strayer: Let $(a + b, a - b) = d$ and note that $d \mid (a + b) + (a - b)$ and $d \mid (a + b) - (a - b)$.**Hint:** Use Homework 3, Problem 2 which states $(ca, cb) = |c|(a, b)$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both 0.**Solution:** Let $(a + b, a - b) = d$ and note that $d \mid (a + b) + (a - b)$ and $d \mid (a + b) - (a - b)$ by linear combination. Since $d \mid 2a$ and $d \mid 2b$, $d \mid (2a, 2b) = 2(a, b)$. Since $(a, b) = 1$ by assumption, $d \mid 2$. Thus, $d = 1, 2$.

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IN CLASS WORK FEBRUARY 9

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In-class Problem 37 Prove that

$$[a] = \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$$

is an equivalence relation on \mathbb{Z} .**Solution:** Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. We must show that the relation is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.To show the relation is reflexive, we must show $a \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$. Since $3 \mid a - a = 0$, $a \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$.To show the relation is symmetric, we must show that if $x \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$, then $a \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (x - b)\}$. If $x \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$, then there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $3k = a - x$. Therefore, $-3k = b - a$ and $a \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (x - b)\}$.To show the relation is transitive, we must show that if $x \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$ and $y \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (x - b)\}$, then $x \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$. If $x \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$, then there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $3k = a - x$. Similarly, if $y \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (x - b)\}$, then there exists $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $3m = x - y$. Therefore, $3(m + k) = a - y$ and $y \in \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : 3 \mid (a - b)\}$.

Since the relation is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive, it is an equivalence relation.

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IN CLASS WORK FEBRUARY 14

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In-class Problem 38 Find the addition and multiplication tables modulo 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9.**Solution:** Modulo 3

+	[0]	[1]	[2]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[0]	[1]

*	[0]	[1]	[2]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[1]

Modulo 4

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[0]	[1]	[2]

*	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[0]	[2]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[2]	[1]

Modulo 5

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]

*	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[4]	[1]	[3]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[1]	[4]	[2]
[4]	[0]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

Modulo 6

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[5]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[5]	[5]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]

*	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[4]	[0]	[2]	[4]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[0]	[3]	[0]	[3]
[4]	[0]	[4]	[2]	[0]	[4]	[2]
[5]	[0]	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

Modulo 7

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[5]	[5]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[6]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]

*	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[4]	[6]	[1]	[3]	[5]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[6]	[2]	[5]	[1]	[4]
[4]	[0]	[4]	[1]	[5]	[2]	[6]	[3]
[5]	[0]	[5]	[3]	[1]	[6]	[4]	[2]
[6]	[0]	[6]	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

Modulo 8

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[5]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[6]	[6]	[7]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[7]	[7]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]

*	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[4]	[6]	[0]	[2]	[4]	[6]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[6]	[1]	[4]	[7]	[2]	[5]
[4]	[0]	[4]	[0]	[4]	[0]	[4]	[0]	[4]
[5]	[0]	[5]	[2]	[7]	[4]	[1]	[6]	[3]
[6]	[0]	[6]	[4]	[2]	[0]	[6]	[4]	[2]
[7]	[0]	[7]	[6]	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

Modulo 9

+	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]
[0]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]
[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[0]
[2]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[0]	[1]
[3]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[0]	[1]	[2]
[4]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]
[5]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]
[6]	[6]	[7]	[8]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
[7]	[7]	[8]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
[8]	[8]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]

*	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]
[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]	[0]
[1]	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]	[7]	[8]
[2]	[0]	[2]	[4]	[6]	[0]	[1]	[3]	[5]	[7]
[3]	[0]	[3]	[6]	[0]	[3]	[6]	[0]	[3]	[6]
[4]	[0]	[4]	[8]	[3]	[7]	[2]	[6]	[1]	[5]
[5]	[0]	[5]	[1]	[6]	[2]	[7]	[3]	[8]	[4]
[6]	[0]	[6]	[3]	[0]	[6]	[3]	[0]	[6]	[3]
[7]	[0]	[7]	[5]	[3]	[1]	[8]	[6]	[4]	[2]
[8]	[0]	[8]	[7]	[6]	[5]	[4]	[3]	[2]	[1]

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IN CLASS WORK FEBRUARY 21

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 39 Let p be an odd prime. Use that $\left(\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!\right) \equiv (-1)^{(p+1)/2} \pmod{p}$ to show

(a) If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $\left(\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!\right)^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$

(b) If $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then $\left(\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!\right)^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$

Solution: (a) Let p be a prime with $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$. Then $p = 4k + 1$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. From part (a),

$$\left(\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!\right) \equiv (-1)^{(p+1)/2} \equiv (-1)^{(4k+1+1)/2} \equiv (-1)^{2k+1} \equiv -1 \pmod{p}.$$

(b) Let p be a prime with $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$. Then $p = 4k + 3$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. From part (a),

$$\left(\left(\frac{p-1}{2}\right)!\right) \equiv (-1)^{(p+1)/2} \equiv (-1)^{(4k+3+1)/2} \equiv (-1)^{2k+2} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

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IN CLASS WORK FEBRUARY 28

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In-class Problem 40 Let p, q be distinct primes. Prove that $p^{q-1} + q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{pq}$.**Proof** Let p, q be distinct primes. Then $\boxed{q^{p-1} \equiv 1} \pmod{p}$ and $\boxed{p^{q-1} \equiv 1} \pmod{q}$ by Fermat's Little Theorem, and $\boxed{p^{q-1} \equiv 0} \pmod{p}$ and $\boxed{p^{q-1} \equiv 0} \pmod{q}$ by definition.**Free Response:** Thus, $p^{q-1} + q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ and $p^{q-1} + q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{q}$ by modular addition. Thus, $p^{q-1} + q^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{pq}$ and this is the unique congruence class modulo pq by the Chinese Remainder Theorem. ■**In-class Problem 41** Let us prove that $\phi(20) = \phi(4)\phi(5)$. First, note that $\phi(4) = \boxed{2}$ and $\phi(5) = \boxed{4}$, so we will prove $\phi(20) = \boxed{8}$.

- (a) A number a is relatively prime to 20 if and only if a is relatively prime to $\boxed{4}$ and $\boxed{5}$. *The first blank should be smaller than second blank for the automatic grading to work.*

Hint: The number in each blank should be relevant to what we are trying to show.

- (b) We can partition the positive integers less than or equal to 20 into

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &\equiv \boxed{5} \equiv \boxed{9} \equiv \boxed{13} \equiv \boxed{17} \pmod{4} \\ 2 &\equiv \boxed{6} \equiv \boxed{10} \equiv \boxed{14} \equiv \boxed{18} \pmod{4} \\ 3 &\equiv \boxed{7} \equiv \boxed{11} \equiv \boxed{15} \equiv \boxed{19} \pmod{4} \\ 4 &\equiv \boxed{8} \equiv \boxed{12} \equiv \boxed{16} \equiv \boxed{20} \pmod{4} \end{aligned}$$

For any b in the range 1, 2, 3, 4, define s_b to be the number of integers a in the range 1, 2, ..., 20 such that $a \equiv b \pmod{4}$ and $\gcd(a, 20) = 1$. Thus, $s_1 = \boxed{4}$, $s_2 = \boxed{0}$, $s_3 = \boxed{4}$, and $s_4 = \boxed{0}$.

We can see that when $(b, 4) = 1$, $s_b = \phi(\boxed{4})$ and when $(b, 4) > 1$, $s_b = \boxed{0}$.

- (c) $\phi(20) = s_1 + s_2 + s_3 + s_4$. Why?

Free Response: Every positive integers less than or equal to 20 is counted by exactly one s_b .

- (d) We have seen that $\phi(20) = s_1 + s_2 + s_3 + s_4$, that when $(b, 4) = 1$, $s_b = \boxed{\phi(5)}$, *This blank is asking for a function, not a number.* and that when $(b, 4) > 1$, $s_b = \boxed{0}$. To finish the “proof” we show that there are $\phi(\boxed{4})$ integers b where $(b, 4) = 1$. Thus, we can say that $\phi(20) = \boxed{\phi(4)\phi(5)}$.

In-class Problem 42 Repeat the same proof for m and n where $(m, n) = 1$.**Solution:** Let m and n be relatively prime positive integers. A number a is relatively prime to mn if and only if a is relatively prime to \boxed{m} and \boxed{n} .

We can partition the positive integers less than or equal to mn into

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 &\equiv \boxed{m+1} \equiv \boxed{2m+1} \equiv \cdots \equiv \boxed{(n-1)m+1} \pmod{m} \\
 2 &\equiv \boxed{m+2} \equiv \boxed{2m+2} \equiv \cdots \equiv \boxed{(n-1)m+2} \pmod{m} \\
 &\vdots \\
 m &\equiv \boxed{2m} \equiv \boxed{3m} \equiv \cdots \equiv \boxed{nm} \pmod{m}
 \end{aligned}$$

For any b in the range $1, 2, 3, \dots, m$, define s_b to be the number of integers a in the range $1, 2, \dots, mn$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(a, mn) = 1$. Thus, when $(b, m) = 1$, $s_b = \phi(\boxed{m})$ and when $(b, m) > 1$, $s_b = \boxed{0}$.

Free Response: Since every positive integers less than or equal to mn is counted by exactly one s_b , $\phi(mn) = s_1 + s_2 + \cdots + s_m$.

We have seen that $\phi(mn) = s_1 + s_2 + \cdots + s_m$, that when $(b, m) = 1$, $s_b = \boxed{\phi(n)}$, *This blank is asking for a function, not a value.* and that when $(b, m) > 1$, $s_b = \boxed{0}$. Since there are $\phi(\boxed{m})$ integers b where $(b, m) = 1$. Thus, we can say that $\phi(mn) = \boxed{\phi(m)\phi(n)}$.

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In-class Problem 43 Repeat the proof from last class to prove**Theorem** (Theorem 3.2). Let m and n be positive integers where $(m, n) = 1$. Then $\phi(mn) = \phi(m)\phi(n)$.**Proof** Let m and n be relatively prime positive integers. A number a is relatively prime to mn if and only if a is relatively prime to \boxed{m} and \boxed{n} .We can partition the positive integers less than or equal to mn into

$$\begin{aligned}
1 &\equiv \boxed{m+1} \equiv \boxed{2m+1} \equiv \cdots \equiv \boxed{(n-1)m+1} \pmod{m} \\
2 &\equiv \boxed{m+2} \equiv \boxed{2m+2} \equiv \cdots \equiv \boxed{(n-1)m+2} \pmod{m} \\
&\vdots \\
m &\equiv \boxed{2m} \equiv \boxed{3m} \equiv \cdots \equiv \boxed{nm} \pmod{m}
\end{aligned}$$

For any b in the range $1, 2, 3, \dots, m$, define s_b to be the number of integers a in the range $1, 2, \dots, mn$ such that $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(a, mn) = 1$. Thus, when $(b, m) = 1$, $s_b = \phi(\boxed{m})$ and when $(b, m) > 1$, $s_b = \boxed{0}$.**Free Response:** Since every positive integers less than or equal to mn is counted by exactly one s_b , $\phi(mn) = s_1 + s_2 + \cdots + s_m$.We have seen that $\phi(mn) = s_1 + s_2 + \cdots + s_m$, that when $(b, m) = 1$, $s_b = \boxed{\phi(n)}$, *This blank is asking for a function, not a value.* and that when $(b, m) > 1$, $s_b = \boxed{0}$. Since there are $\phi(\boxed{m})$ integers b where $(b, m) = 1$. Thus, we can say that $\phi(mn) = \boxed{\phi(m)\phi(n)}$. ■**In-class Problem 44** Complete the proof of *Theorem 3.2* by proving**Proposition 10.** If m, n , and i are positive integers with $(m, n) = (m, i) = 1$, then the integers

$$i, m+i, 2m+i, \dots, (n-1)m+i$$

form a complete system of residues modulo n .

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Proposition (Proposition 5.4). *Let $a, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$ and $(a, m) = 1$. If i is a positive integer, then*

$$\text{ord}_m(a^i) = \frac{\text{ord}_m a}{\gcd(\text{ord}_m a, i)}.$$

In-class Problem 45 *Use only the results through Proposition 5.3/Reading Lemma 10.3.5 (ie, not Proposition 5.4) to prove the primitive root version:***Proposition.** *Let $r, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$ and r a primitive root modulo m . If i is a positive integer, then*

$$\text{ord}_m(r^i) = \frac{\phi(m)}{\gcd(\phi(m), i)}.$$

Solution: *Let r be a primitive root modulo m . Then by Proposition 5.3, $\{r, r^2, \dots, r^{\phi(m)}\}$ is a complete residue system modulo m . By Proposition 5.1, $\text{ord}_m(r^i) \mid \phi(m)$ and by Proposition 5.3, $r, r^2, \dots, r^{\phi(m)}$ is a complete residue system modulo m* **In-class Problem 46** *Prove***Proposition** (Proposition 10.2.2). *Let p be prime, and let m be a positive integer. Consider*

$$x^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

- (a) *If $m \mid p - 1$, then there are exactly m incongruent solutions modulo p .*
- (b) *For any positive integer m , there are $\gcd(m, p - 1)$ incongruent solutions modulo p .*

Solution: *Let p be prime, and let m be a positive integer. By Fermat's Little Theorem, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.*

- (a) *If $m \mid p - 1$, then there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $mk = p - 1$. If $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$*

In-class Problem 47 *Prove the following statement, which is the converse of Reading Proposition 10.3.2:**Let p be prime, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. If every $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $p \nmid b$ is congruent to a power of a modulo p , then a is a primitive root modulo p .***Solution:** *Let p be prime, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that every integer $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ where $p \nmid b$ is congruent to a^i modulo p for some positive integer i . Thus, $(a, p) = 1$, otherwise 1 would not be congruent to a power of a . By Proposition 5.2, $a^i \equiv a^j \pmod{p}$ if and only if $i \equiv j \pmod{p - 1}$. Thus, a^1, a^2, \dots, a^{p-1} are distinct congruence classes and only one of a^1, a^2, \dots, a^{p-1} is congruent to 1 modulo p . By Fermat's Little Theorem, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, so $\text{ord}_p a = p - 1$.***In-class Problem 48** *Prove the following generalization of Reading Lemma 10.3.5*

Lemma. *Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m be reduced residues modulo n . Suppose that for all $i \neq j$, $\text{ord}_n(x_i)$ and $\text{ord}_n(x_j)$ are relatively prime. Then*

$$\text{ord}_n(x_1 x_2 \cdots x_m) = (\text{ord}_n x_1)(\text{ord}_n x_2) \cdots (\text{ord}_n x_m).$$

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IN CLASS WORK MARCH 18

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Previous Results**Lemma 6.** Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero. Then any common divisor of a and b divides the greatest common divisor.**Lemma 7.** Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, not both zero. Then any divisor of (a, b) is a common divisor of a and b .**Proposition** (Proposition 5.1). Let $a, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m > 0$ and $(a, m) = 1$. Then $a^n \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$ for some positive integer n if and only if $\text{ord}_m a \mid n$. In particular, $\text{ord}_m a \mid \phi(m)$.**Problems****In-class Problem 49** Let p be prime, m a positive integer, and $d = (m, p-1)$. Prove that $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if and only if $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.**Proof** Let p be prime, m a positive integer, and $d = (m, p-1)$. Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $p \mid a$, then $a^i \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ for all positive integers. Otherwise, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ by Fermat's Little Theorem.By Proposition 5.1, $a^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if and only if $\text{ord}_p a \mid m$. Similarly, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if and only if $\text{ord}_p a \mid p-1$. Thus, $\text{ord}_p a$ is a common divisor of m and $p-1$. Combining Lemmas 6 and 7 gives $\text{ord}_p a$ is a common divisor of m and $p-1$ if and only if $\text{ord}_p a \mid d$. One final application of Proposition 5.1 gives $\text{ord}_p a \mid d$ if and only if $a^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. ■**In-class Problem 50** Let p be prime and m a positive integer. Prove that

$$x^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

has exactly $(m, p-1)$ incongruent solutions modulo p .**Proof** Let p be prime, m a positive integer, and $d = (m, p-1)$. From Problem 1,**Free Response:** $x^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ if and only if $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$.

Now find a result that allows you to finish the proof in 1-2 sentences.

Free Response: By Proposition 5.8 there are exactly d solutions to $x^d \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. Thus, there are exactly d solutions to $x^m \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. ■**In-class Problem 51** Prove the following statement, which is the converse of Proposition 5.4 (for a prime):Let p be prime, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$. If every $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $p \nmid b$ is congruent to a power of a modulo p , then a is a primitive root modulo p .**Solution:** Let p be prime, and let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that every integer $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ where $p \nmid b$ is congruent to a^i modulo p for some positive integer i . Thus, $(a, p) = 1$, otherwise 1 would not be congruent to a power of a . By Proposition 5.2, $a^i \equiv a^j \pmod{p}$ if and only if $i \equiv j \pmod{p-1}$. Thus, a^1, a^2, \dots, a^{p-1} are distinct congruence classes and only one of a^1, a^2, \dots, a^{p-1} is congruent to 1 modulo p . By Fermat's Little Theorem, $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, so $\text{ord}_p a = p-1$.

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IN CLASS WORK MARCH 27

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

From class March 20:

Modulus	Quadratic residues	Quadratic nonresidues
2	1	None
3	1	2
5	1, 4	2, 3
7	1, 2, 4	3, 5, 6

Proposition (Proposition 4.5). *Let p be an odd prime number and $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$ and $p \nmid b$. Then*

$$(a) \left(\frac{a^2}{p} \right) = 1$$

$$(b) \text{ If } a \equiv b \pmod{p} \text{ then } \left(\frac{a}{p} \right) = \left(\frac{b}{p} \right)$$

$$(c) \left(\frac{ab}{p} \right) = \left(\frac{a}{p} \right) \left(\frac{b}{p} \right)$$

Theorem (Theorem 4.6). *Let p be an odd prime number. Then*

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p} \right) = \begin{cases} 1, & p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1, & p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}.$$

Theorem (Quadratic reciprocity). *Let p and q be distinct primes.*

$$(a) \text{ If } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \text{ or } q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \text{ then } \left(\frac{p}{q} \right) = \left(\frac{q}{p} \right)$$

$$(b) \text{ If } p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}, \text{ then } \left(\frac{p}{q} \right) = - \left(\frac{q}{p} \right)$$

In-class Problem 52 *Let p be an odd prime number. Prove the following statements the following provided outlines, which will help solve the next problem, as well.*

$$(a) \left(\frac{3}{p} \right) = 1 \text{ if and only if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}.$$

$$(b) \left(\frac{-3}{p} \right) = 1 \text{ if and only if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}.$$

Proof (a) Since $3 \equiv \boxed{3} \pmod{4}$,³ we need two cases for Quadratic reciprocity.

$$(i) \text{ If } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \text{ then } \left(\frac{3}{p} \right) = \left(\frac{p}{3} \right) \text{ by Quadratic reciprocity, and } \left(\frac{p}{3} \right) = 1 \text{ if and only if } p \equiv \boxed{1} \pmod{3}.$$

Then $p \equiv \boxed{1} \pmod{12}$, and this is the unique equivalence class modulo 12 by the Chinese Remainder Theorem.³In this problem, this step is repetitive, but it is needed when $p \neq 3$.

(ii) If $p \equiv 3 \equiv -1 \pmod{4}$, then $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \boxed{-\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)}$ by Quadratic reciprocity, and $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = -1$ if and only if $p \equiv \boxed{2 \equiv -1 \pmod{3}}$. Then $p \equiv \boxed{-1 \pmod{12}}$, and this is the unique equivalence class modulo 12 by the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Therefore, $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = 1$ if and only if $p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{12}$.

(b) From Theorem 4.25(c), $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \boxed{\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right)\left(\frac{3}{p}\right)}$. Again, we have two cases.

(i) If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \boxed{1}$ by Theorem 4.6 and $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \boxed{\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)}$ by Quadratic reciprocity. Thus, $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \boxed{\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)} = 1$ if and only if $p \equiv \boxed{1 \pmod{3}}$. Then $p \equiv \boxed{1 \pmod{12}}$, and this is the unique equivalence class modulo 12 by the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

(ii) If $p \equiv 3 \equiv -1 \pmod{4}$, then $\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \boxed{-1}$ by Theorem 4.6 and $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \boxed{-\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)}$ by Quadratic reciprocity. Thus, $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = \boxed{\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)} = 1$ if and only if $p \equiv \boxed{1 \pmod{3}}$. Then $p \equiv \boxed{7 \pmod{12}}$, and this is the unique equivalence class modulo 12 by the Chinese Remainder Theorem.

Therefore, $\left(\frac{-3}{p}\right) = 1$ if and only if $p \equiv \boxed{1, 7 \pmod{12}}$, which is equivalent to $p \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$. ■

In-class Problem 53 Find congruences characterizing all prime numbers p for which the following integers are quadratic residues modulo p , as done in the previous exercise.

Outline is provided for the first part.

- (a) 5
- (b) -5
- (c) 7
- (d) -7

Proof (a) Since $5 \equiv \boxed{1 \pmod{4}}$, $\boxed{\left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{5}\right)}$ by Quadratic reciprocity. Then $\left(\frac{5}{p}\right) = \boxed{\left(\frac{p}{5}\right)} = 1$ if and only if $\boxed{p \equiv 1, 4 \pmod{5}}$. ■

MAT-255– NUMBER THEORY

SPRING 2024

IN CLASS WORK APRIL 1

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

Results

Theorem 3 (Euler's Criterion). *Let p be an odd prime and $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$. Then*

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$$

Theorem (Theorem 4.6). *Let p be an odd prime number. Then*

$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & p \equiv 1 \pmod{4} \\ -1, & p \equiv 3 \pmod{4} \end{cases}.$$

Theorem (Quadratic reciprocity). *Let p and q be distinct primes.*

(a) *If $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ or $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, then $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$*

(b) *If $p \equiv q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, then $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right) = -\left(\frac{q}{p}\right)$*

Lemma (Gauss's Lemma). *Let p be an odd prime number and like $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$. Let n be the number of least positive residues of the integers $a, 2a, 3a, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}a$ modulo p that are greater than $\frac{p}{2}$. Then*

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

Problems

We can combine these results to find the Legendre symbol many different ways.

In-class Problem 54 Use the following methods to find $\left(\frac{-6}{11}\right)$:

(a) *Euler's Criterion, from March 22:*

$$\left(\frac{-6}{11}\right) \equiv (-6)^{(11-1)/2} \equiv (-6)^5 \pmod{11} \text{ By Euler's Criterion. Then}$$

$$(-6)^5 \equiv ((6)^2)^2(-6) \equiv 3^2(-6) \equiv -54 \equiv 1 \pmod{11}$$

(b) *Factor into $\left(\frac{-6}{11}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{11}\right) \left(\frac{2}{11}\right) \left(\frac{3}{11}\right) = \left(\frac{-1}{11}\right) \left(\frac{2}{11}\right) \left(\frac{3}{11}\right)$. From here, we will explore the various ways to find $\left(\frac{2}{11}\right)$ and $\left(\frac{3}{11}\right)$.*

(i) *Find $\left(\frac{2}{11}\right)$ using the specified method:*

- *Using Euler's Criterion.*

Solution: From *Euler's Criterion*,

$$\left(\frac{2}{11}\right) \equiv 2^{(11-1)/2} \equiv 32 \equiv -1 \pmod{11}.$$

- Using *Gauss's Lemma*.

Solution: First, find the least nonnegative residues of $2, 2(2), 3(2), 4(2), 5(2)$ modulo 11. These are

$$2, 4, 6, 8, 10,$$

and $n = \boxed{3}$ are greater than $\frac{11}{2}$. Thus, by *Gauss's Lemma*,

$$\left(\frac{2}{11}\right) = (-1)^{\boxed{3}} = \boxed{3}.$$

(ii) Find $\left(\frac{3}{11}\right)$ using the specified method:

- Using *Euler's Criterion*.

Solution: From *Euler's Criterion*,

$$\left(\frac{3}{11}\right) \equiv 3^{(11-1)/2} \equiv (-2)^2(3) \equiv 1 \pmod{11}.$$

- Using *Quadratic reciprocity*

Solution: Since $11 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$, $\left(\frac{3}{11}\right) = -\left(\frac{11}{3}\right) = -\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) = 1.$

- Using *Gauss's Lemma*.

Solution: First, find the least nonnegative residues of $3, 2(3), 3(3), 4(3), 5(3)$ modulo 11. These are

$$\boxed{3, 6, 9, 1, 4}$$

and $n = \boxed{2}$ are greater than $\frac{11}{2}$. Thus, by *Gauss's Lemma*,

$$\left(\frac{3}{11}\right) = (-1)^{\boxed{2}} = \boxed{1}.$$

Thus, $\left(\frac{-6}{11}\right) = \boxed{1}$

(c) Use that $-6 \equiv 5 \pmod{11}$, so $\left(\frac{-6}{11}\right) = \left(\frac{5}{11}\right)$. Then find $\left(\frac{5}{11}\right)$ the specified method:

- (i) Using *Euler's Criterion*.

Solution: From *Euler's Criterion*,

$$\left(\frac{5}{11}\right) \equiv 5^{(11-1)/2} \equiv (3)^2(5) \equiv 1 \pmod{11}.$$

(ii) Using *Quadratic reciprocity*

Solution: Since $5 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$, $\left(\frac{5}{11}\right) = \left(\frac{11}{5}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{5}\right) = 1$.

(iii) Using *Gauss's Lemma*.

Solution: First, find the least nonnegative residues of $5, 2(5), 3(5), 4(5), 5(5)$ modulo 11. These are

$$\boxed{5, 10, 4, 9, 2},$$

and $n = \boxed{2}$ are greater than $\frac{11}{2}$. Thus, by *Gauss's Lemma*,

$$\left(\frac{5}{11}\right) = (-1)^{\boxed{2}} = \boxed{1}.$$

In-class Problem 55 Now we will examine the Legendre symbol of 2 using Gauss's Lemma. First, note that $2, 2(2), 3(2), \dots, 2(\frac{p-1}{2})$ are already least nonnegative residues modulo p . It will be slightly easier to count how many are less than $\frac{p}{2}$, then subtract from the total number, $\frac{p-1}{2}$.

Let $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $1 \leq k \leq \frac{p-1}{2}$. Then $2k < \frac{p}{2}$ if and only if $k < \left\lfloor \frac{p}{4} \right\rfloor$. Thus, $\frac{p-1}{2} - \left\lfloor \frac{p}{4} \right\rfloor$ of $2, 2(2), 3(2), \dots, 2(\frac{p-1}{2})$ are greater than $\frac{p}{2}$.

Hint: The two blanks should be the same, and also go in the blanks below

Now complete this table

p	$\left\lfloor \frac{p}{4} \right\rfloor$	$\frac{p-1}{2} - \left\lfloor \frac{p}{4} \right\rfloor$	$2, 2(2), 3(2), \dots, 2(\frac{p-1}{2})$	$\left(\frac{2}{p}\right)$
3	$\boxed{0}$	$\boxed{1}$	Less than $\frac{3}{2} : \boxed{N/A}$ Greater than $\frac{3}{2} : \boxed{2}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{1}} = \boxed{-1}$
5	$\boxed{1}$	$\boxed{1}$	Less than $\frac{5}{2} : \boxed{2}$ Greater than $\frac{5}{2} : \boxed{4}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{1}} = \boxed{-1}$
7	$\boxed{1}$	$\boxed{2}$	Less than $\frac{7}{2} : \boxed{2}$ Greater than $\frac{7}{2} : \boxed{4, 6}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{2}} = \boxed{1}$
11	$\boxed{2}$	$\boxed{3}$	Less than $\frac{11}{2} : \boxed{2, 4}$ Greater than $\frac{11}{2} : \boxed{6, 8, 10}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{3}} = \boxed{-1}$
13	$\boxed{3}$	$\boxed{3}$	Less than $\frac{13}{2} : \boxed{2, 4, 6}$ Greater than $\frac{13}{2} : \boxed{8, 10, 12}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{3}} = \boxed{-1}$
17	$\boxed{4}$	$\boxed{4}$	Less than $\frac{17}{2} : \boxed{2, 4, 6, 8}$ Greater than $\frac{17}{2} : \boxed{10, 12, 14, 16}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{4}} = \boxed{1}$
19	$\boxed{4}$	$\boxed{5}$	Less than $\frac{19}{2} : \boxed{2, 4, 6, 8}$ Greater than $\frac{17}{2} : \boxed{10, 12, 14, 16, 18}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{5}} = \boxed{-1}$
p	$\boxed{5}$	$\boxed{6}$	Less than $\frac{17}{2} : \boxed{2, 4, 6, 8, 10}$ Greater than $\frac{17}{2} : \boxed{12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22}$	$(-1)^{\boxed{6}} = \boxed{1}$

MAT-255– NUMBER THEORY

SPRING 2024

IN CLASS WORK APRIL 3

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

Lemma 8. Let p be an odd prime number and like $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $p \nmid a$. Consider

$$a, 2a, 3a, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}a, \frac{p+1}{2}a, \dots, (p-1)a.$$

The least absolute residues of ak and $a(p-k)$ differ by a negative sign. In other words,

$$ak \equiv -a(p-k) \pmod{p}.$$

Furthermore, for each $k = 1, 2, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}$, the exactly one of k and $-k$ is a least absolute residue of $\{a, 2a, 3a, \dots, \frac{p-1}{2}a\}$.**In-class Problem 56** Check Lemma 1 for

(a) $a = 3, p = 7$

(b) $a = 5, p = 11$

(c) $a = 6, p = 11$

Solution: (a) $a = 3, p = 7$

$$\begin{aligned} 3 &\pmod{7}, 3(2) \equiv -1 \pmod{7}, 3(3) \equiv 2 \pmod{7}, \\ 3(4) &\equiv -2 \pmod{7}, 3(5) \equiv 1 \pmod{7}, 3(6) \equiv -3 \pmod{7}, \end{aligned}$$

(b) $a = 5, p = 11$

$$\begin{aligned} 5 &\pmod{11}, 5(2) \equiv -1 \pmod{11}, 5(3) \equiv 4 \pmod{11}, \\ 5(4) &\equiv -2 \pmod{11}, 5(5) \equiv 3 \pmod{11}, \\ 5(6) &\equiv -3 \pmod{11}, 5(7) \equiv -2 \pmod{11}, 5(8) \equiv -4 \pmod{11}, \\ 5(9) &\equiv 1 \pmod{11}, 5(10) \equiv -5 \pmod{11}, \end{aligned}$$

(c) $a = 11, p = 23$

$$\begin{aligned} 11 &\pmod{23}, 11(2) \equiv -1 \pmod{23}, 11(3) \equiv 10 \pmod{23}, \\ 11(4) &\equiv -2 \pmod{23}, 11(5) \equiv 9 \pmod{23}, 11(6) \equiv -3 \pmod{23}, \\ 11(7) &\equiv 8 \pmod{23}, 11(8) \equiv -4 \pmod{23}, 11(9) \equiv 7 \pmod{23}, \\ 11(10) &\equiv -5 \pmod{23}, 11(11) \equiv 6 \pmod{23}, \\ 11(12) &\equiv -6 \pmod{23}, 11(13) \equiv 5 \pmod{23}, \\ 11(14) &\equiv -7 \pmod{23}, 11(15) \equiv 4 \pmod{23}, 11(16) \equiv -8 \pmod{23}, \\ 11(17) &\equiv 3 \pmod{23}, 11(18) \equiv -9 \pmod{23}, 11(19) \equiv 2 \pmod{23}, \\ 11(20) &\equiv -10 \pmod{23}, 11(21) \equiv 1 \pmod{23}, 11(22) \equiv -11 \pmod{23}, \end{aligned}$$

MAT-255– NUMBER THEORY

SPRING 2024

IN CLASS WORK APRIL 17

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 57 Prove that a positive integer can be written as the difference of two squares of integers if and only if it is not of the form $4n + 2$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof (\Rightarrow) We will show that if a positive integer can be written as the difference of two squares of integers, then it is not of the form $4n + 2$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Free Response:

(\Leftarrow) We will show that any positive integer not of the form $4n + 2$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ can be written as the difference of two squares of integers.

First, we will show that if a and b are positive integers that can be written as the difference of two squares of integers, then so can ab .

Free Response:

Now we will show that every odd prime can be written as the difference of two squares of integers. Let p be an odd prime. Then $p = x^2 - y^2 = (x - y)(x + y)$ when $x = \boxed{\frac{p+1}{2}}$ and $y = \boxed{\frac{p-1}{2}}$. Therefore every odd number can be written as the difference of two squares since

Free Response: every odd number is a product of odd primes, and we proved that the product of integers that can be written as the difference of two squares can also be written as the difference of two squares.

It remains to show that every positive integer of the form $4n$ for some $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ can be written as the difference of two squares of integers. Why is this the only remaining case?

Free Response: Every even integer has the form $4n$ or $4n + 2$.

Similar to the odd prime case, $4n = x^2 - y^2 = (x - y)(x + y)$ when $x = \boxed{n + 1}$ and $y = \boxed{n - 1}$.

■

MAT-255– NUMBER THEORY

SPRING 2024

IN CLASS WORK APRIL 19

Your Name: _____ Group Members: _____

In-class Problem 58 Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ and let p be a prime number.(a) Prove that if $x^{p-1} + y^{p-1} = z^{p-1}$, then $p \mid xyz$.(b) Prove that if $x^p + y^p = z^p$, then $p \mid (x + y - z)$.**Hint:** Recall Fermat's Little Theorem and its corollaries.**Solution:** Let p be a prime number.(a) Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^{p-1} + y^{p-1} = z^{p-1}$.By Fermat's Little Theorem, if $p \nmid x$, then $x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$. If $p \mid x$, then $x^{p-1} \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Similarly for y and z . Thus,

$$x^{p-1} + y^{p-1} \equiv \begin{cases} 0 + 0 & \pmod{p} \\ 0 + 1 & \pmod{p} \\ 1 + 1 & \pmod{p} \end{cases}$$

has a solution if and only if p divides at least one of x, y . Thus, $p \mid xyz$.(b) Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^p + y^p = z^p$.By Corollary 5.8, $x^p \equiv x \pmod{p}$, $y^p \equiv y \pmod{p}$, and $z^p \equiv z \pmod{p}$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} x^p + y^p &\equiv z^p \pmod{p} \\ x + y &\equiv z \pmod{p}. \end{aligned}$$

In other words, $p \mid (x + y - z)$.