

Number Theory

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CHAPTER 1

Fundamentals

1. Notation

For the rest of this course, the following notation will be followed:

- (1) \mathbb{N} is the set of natural numbers
- (2) \mathbb{Z} is the set of integers
- (3) \mathbb{W} is the set of whole numbers, i.e. $\mathbb{W} = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

2. Induction

Often in number theory, we use inductive proofs to prove our arguments. Induction consists of the following steps:

- (1) Define an induction hypothesis $P(k)$
- (2) Verify it works for some base case $k = b$. It is possible multiple base cases need to be verified.
- (3) Assuming $P(k)$ is true, show that it implies that $P(k + 1)$ is true

Remember that $P(k)$ is a statement, not a function. You cannot multiply it by some constant or perform any operations on it.

In weak induction (like in the steps given above), we only assume that $P(k)$ is true. However in strong induction, we assume that $P(i)$ is true $\forall i \in [b, k]$, and use this to prove that $P(k+1)$ is true.

EXERCISE. Prove that the principle of strong induction is true given that the principle of weak induction is true.

SOLUTION. Let us assume that $P(1), \dots, P(b)$ is true. If $P(1), \dots, P(k)$ are true for some $k \geq b$, then $P(k + 1)$ is true. Then, we must show that $P(n)$ is true for all $n \geq 1$.

Let $Q(n)$ be the statement that $P(1), \dots, P(n)$ are true. Of course, in the base case, $Q(1)$ is true. Let $Q(k)$ be true, where $K \geq 1$. This means that $P(1), \dots, P(k)$ is true, so $P(k + 1)$ must be true. Hence, $Q(k + 1)$ is true.

So, by Weak induction, $Q(n)$ is true $\forall n \geq 1$, which implies that $P(n)$ is true $\forall n \geq 1$. ■

3. Well Ordering Principle

THEOREM 3.1 (Well Ordering Principle). Every non empty set of non-negative integers has a least element.

This is not true about negative integers - consider the case of infinite sets, like the set of all integers. There is no well defined least element.

LEMMA 3.2. The well ordering principle is equivalent to the principle of mathematical induction.

PROOF. First, let us prove that WOP \Rightarrow PMI. Let $P(n)$ be a statement that depends on $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Suppose that:

- $P(1)$ is true
- $P(k)$ is true implies $P(k+1)$ is true for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

We have to show that $P(n)$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Let :

$$S = \{n \in \mathbb{N} : P(n) \text{ is true}\}$$

This means we must show that $S = \mathbb{N}$. Let $T := \mathbb{N} \setminus S$, i.e. T is the complement. Let us assume that $S \neq \mathbb{N}$.

By WOP, T has a least element, say m . Note that $m \geq 2$ since $1 \in S$. Then, $m-1 \notin T$ and $m-1 \in S$. As such, $P(m-1)$ must be true! However, by our initial assumptions, that would mean $P(m)$ is true as well, so $m \in S$. This creates a contradiction, since $m \in T$. Hence, $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Now, let us prove that PMI \Rightarrow WOP.

Consider the statement $P(n)$ that every non empty set of non-negative integers of size n has a least element. It is clear that the base case $P(1)$ is true. Now, let us assume that $P(k)$ is true - what can we say about $P(k+1)$. When we insert an element, we have two cases:

- (1) The inserted element is less than the least element. In this case, there is a new least element, and $P(k+1)$ is true.

- (2) The inserted element is not less than the least element. In this case, the least element is the same, and $P(k+1)$ is true.

Hence, by PMI, we can say that $P(n)$ is true $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e., WOP is true.

Since $\text{PMI} \Rightarrow \text{WOP}$ and $\text{WOP} \Rightarrow \text{PMI}$, $\text{PMI} \Leftrightarrow \text{WOP}$.

□

4. Binomial Theorem

THEOREM 4.1 (Binomial Theorem). Let $x, y \in \mathbb{C}$ and let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^k y^{n-k}$$

COROLLARY 4.1.1.

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} = 2^n$$

LEMMA 4.2 (Pascal's Identity).

$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

LEMMA 4.3.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} \binom{n-k}{k} = F_n$$

5. Pigeonhole Principle

THEOREM 5.1. If n items are put into m containers, with $n > m$, then at least one container must contain more than one item.

CHAPTER 2

Division

1. Division Algorithm

THEOREM 1.1. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$. Then, there exist unique integers q and r such that $a = bq + r$, $r \in [0, b)$.

PROOF. Let $S = \{a - bn : n \in \mathbb{Z}, a - bn \geq 0\}$. This set is always non-empty:

- If $a \geq 0$, then $a \in S$
- If $a < 0$, then if $n = a$, we have $a - ab \in S$ since $b \geq 1$.

By WOP, S has a least element, say r . So, there exists $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $r = a - bq$. Since $r \in S$, we have $r \geq 0$.

Suppose $r \geq b$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} a - b(q + 1) &= a - bq - b = r - b \geq 0 \\ &\Rightarrow a - b(q + 1) \in S \\ &\Rightarrow r - b \in S \end{aligned}$$

However, $r - b < r$, and r is the least element! This gives us a contradiction. So, $r < b$.

As such, we have proved the existence of this solution. Now we must prove it's uniqueness.

Suppose there exists p, r, q', r' , such that:

$$\begin{aligned} a &= bq + r, 0 \leq r < b \\ a &= bq' + r', 0 \leq r' < b \end{aligned}$$

Assume WLOG $q \geq q'$. Now,

$$r' - r = b(q - q')$$

If $q > q'$, then $r' - r \geq b$. However, $r' - r < b$. So, this is a contradiction, and $q' = q$. The solution must be unique.

□

DEFINITION 1. If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, we say that a divides b if $b = ak$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. This is denoted by $a|b$

Some properties of division are:

- If $a|b$, then $\pm a | \pm b$
- If $a|b$ and $b|c$ then $a|c$ (Transitivity)
- If $a|b$ and $a|c$ then $a|bx + cy$ (Linear Combination)
- If $a|b$ and $b \neq 0$, then $|a| \leq |b|$ (Bounds by divisibility)
- $a|b$ and $b|a$, then $b = \pm a$.

2. Base b representations

THEOREM 2.1. Let $b \in \mathbb{N}$ with $b \geq 2$. Then every positive integer can be expressed uniquely as

$$N = a_k b^k + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$$

where $k \geq 0, a_k \neq 0$ and $0 \leq a_i < b$ for $i = 0, \dots, k$. This is denoted by $N = (a_k, \dots, a_1 a_0)_b$

PROOF. By the division algorithm, there exist unique integers q_0 and a_0 such that:

$$N = q_0 b + a_0, a_0 \in [0, b)$$

Note that $q_0 < N$. If $q_0 \neq 0$ we apply the division algorithm again to find unique integers q_1 and a_1 such that:

$$q_0 = q_1 b + a_1, a_1 \in [0, b)$$

Then,

$$N = (q_1 b + a_1)b + a_0 = q_1 b^2 + a_1 b + a_0$$

We continue till we get a quotient $q_k = 0$. This will terminate since $q_k < \dots < q_2 < q_1 < q_0 < N$, forming a decreasing sequence of non-negative integers and eventually reaching zero. From this, we get:

$$N = a_k b^k + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$$

Hence, the solution always exists.

Suppose N has two distinct expansions. We can write it as:

$$\begin{aligned} N &= a_k b^k + \dots + a_1 b + a_0 \\ &= c_k b^k + \dots + c_1 b + c_0 \end{aligned}$$

where $0 \leq a_i, c_j < b$ for all i, j . Let $d_i = a_i - c_i$. Then, $\sum_{i=0}^k d_i b^i = 0$. The d_i cannot all be zero as the two expansions are assumed distinct. Let j be the least integer, $0 \leq j \leq k$, such that $d_j \neq 0$. Then, $\sum_{i=j}^k d_i b^i = 0$. Dividing by b^j , we find that $\sum_{i=j}^k d_i b^{i-j} = 0$. Thus,

$$d_j + b \left(\sum_{i=j+1}^k d_i b^{i-j-1} \right) = 0$$

This implies that $b \mid d_j$ and since $d_j \neq 0$, we get that $b = |b| \leq |d_j|$. However, $|d_j| < b$. Hence, we have a contradiction, and the two expansions cannot be distinct. Hence, the solution is also always unique. \square

LEMMA 2.2. If $N = (a_k \dots a_1 a_0)_b$, then:

$$\begin{aligned} bN &= (a_k \dots a_1 a_0 0)_b \\ \left\lfloor \frac{N}{b} \right\rfloor &= (a_k \dots a_1)_b \end{aligned}$$

LEMMA 2.3 (Particular case of Legendre's formula). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let e denote the highest power of 2 dividing $n!$. Then

$$e = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2^k} \right\rfloor$$

This is always a finite sum. This can alternatively expressed as, if $n = (a_k \dots a_1 a_0)_2$, then:

$$e = n - (a_k + \dots + a_1 + a_0)$$

Thus, if r denotes the number of ones in the binary expansion of n , then 2^{n-r} is the highest power of 2 dividing $n!$. Further,

- $2^n \nmid n!$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $2^{n-1} \mid n!$ if and only if n is a power of 2.