MATH453 Elementary Number Theory

Lecture 6: LCM and Dirichlet's Theorem

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6.1 Least Common Multiple

Definition 6.1 (Least Common Multiple). Let $a, b \neq 0$. The **least common multiple** of a and b, denoted by [a, b] or lcm(a, b), is the least m > 0 such that $a \mid m$ and $b \mid m$.

Example. What is $lcm(2^33^27^5, 2 \cdot 3^57 \cdot 11^2)$?

We take the least common multiple of each factor, so we have $2^33^57^511^2$

If gcd(a, b) = 1, lcm(a, b) = ab. In general, we have the following theorem

Theorem 6.1. $gcd(a,b) \cdot lcm(a,b) = ab$

Proof. Assume a, b > 1. If either a or b is equal to 1, then the proof is trivial. Let

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

so that p_1, \ldots, p_n are the primes in common to a and b. Since gcd(a, b) is the greatest common divisor,

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

Also,

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

Multiply the two together and we get

$$\gcd(a,b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a,b) = p_1^{a_1 + b_1} \cdots p_n^{a_n + b_n} = (p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_n^{a_n}) \cdot (p_1^{b_1} \cdots p_n^{b_n}) = ab$$

In practice, we can use theorem to find the least common multiple once we find the greatest common divisor using the Euclidean algorithm.

6.2 Arithmetic Progression and Dirichlet's Theorem

Arithmetic progression is another name for the arithmetic sequence, a sequence of integers in which the difference between two consecutive numbers is constant. In general, the nth term in an arithmetic sequence/progression is given by

$$a_n = a_1 + (n-1)d$$

How many primes are there in an infinite arithmetic progression? The theorem of Dirichlet tells us that indeed there are infinitely many primes in an infinite arithmetic progression.

Theorem 6.2 (Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progression). If gcd(a, b) = 1 (a and b are relatively prime), then the set

$$\{an+b \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n > 0\}$$

has **infinitely** many primes.

The proof of Dirichlet's theorem is beyond the scope of this course but will be covered in a course on analytic number theory. We can, however, prove some special cases of Dirichlet's theorem.

6.2.1 Special Cases of Dirichlet's Theorem

Lemma 6.3. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Suppose $a, b \in \{4n+1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0\}$. Then, $ab \in \{4n+1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0\}$.

Proof. Let $a = 4n_1 + 1$ and $b = 4n_2 + 1$. Then,

$$ab = (4n_1 + 1)(4n_2 + 1) = 16n_1n_2 + 4(n_1 + n_2) + 1$$

which can be factored as $4(4n_1n_2 + n_1 + n_2) + 1$. Take $n = (4n_1n_2 + n_1 + n_2)$ which is clearly a non-negative integer. Then, $n = ab \in \{4n + 1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \ge 0\}$.

Using this simple fact, we can show that there are infinitely many primes of the form 4n + 1.

Proposition 6.1. There exist infinitely many primes in $\{4n+3 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0\}$.

Proof. By contradiction.

Suppose for contradiction that there exist only finitely many primes in $\{4n+3 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0\}$. Say there exist only r+1 such primes. Clearly, $p_0=3$, and we have p_0, p_1, \ldots, p_r from the set that are primes.

Take $N=4p_1p_2\cdots p_r+3$. By the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, N has some prime divisor. We claim that N has some prime divisor $q_j\in\{4n+3\mid n\in\mathbb{Z},\,n\geq 0\}$. Further, we claim that if not, all prime divisors of N is of the form 4n+1. This is because we assumed that q_j is a prime divisor and the prime numbers ≥ 3 not of the form 4n+3 can be written as 4n+1 for some n. And if all prime divisors of N are of the form 4n+1, then N must also be of the form 4n+1 by Lemma 6.3, which is not true. Then, q_j is either 3 or one of p_1,\ldots,p_r .

If $q_j = 3$, $q_j \mid 3$ and $q_j \mid N$. It follows that $q_j \mid (N-3)$ so $q_j \mid 4p_1 \cdots p_r$. This is a contradiction because p_1, \ldots, p_r are primes not including 3. Hence, $q_j \neq 3$.

If $q_j \in \{p_1, \ldots, p_r\}$, then $q_j \mid 4p_1 \ldots p_r$. And by choice of $q_j, q_j \mid N$. It follows that $q_j \mid N - 4p_1 \cdots p_r$. This implies $q_j \mid 3$, which is a contradiction as well because $3 \notin \{p_1, \ldots, p_r\}$.

In both cases, we have a contradiction so the assumption that there are finitely many primes of the form 4n + 3 must be false.

Note that this proof will not work for the general case of Dirichlet's theorem because Lemma 6.3 does not hold in the general case.

Let's look another example of a similar special-case proof.

Lemma 6.4. Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$. Suppose $a, b \in \{3n+1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0\}$. Then, $ab \in \{3n+1 \mid n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0\}$.

Proof. Similar to the proof for Lemma 6.3.

Theorem 6.5. There exist infinitely many primes of the form 3n+2 for $n \geq 0$.

Proof. Suppose for contradiction that there exist only finitely many primes of the form 3n + 2. Say there are r + 1 such primes, namely, $2, p_1, \ldots, p_r$.

Similar to the proof for the previous theorem, we let

$$N = 3p_1 \cdots p_r + 2$$

We claim that there exsits a prime divisor of N of the form 3n + 2. To see why this claim holds, assume that N has no such divisors. Then, there are two possibilities for the prime divisors of N. First, we have $3 \mid N$. This is also not possible because $3 \nmid 2$. This implies that 3n is not a prime divisor for N. The only remaining possiblity is that all prime divisors of N are of the form 3n + 1.

However, by the previous lemma, we know that if all prime divisors of N are of the form 3n + 1, then N itself must also be of the form 3n + 1, which is not true. Hence, N must have some prime divisor of the form 3n + 2. Now, consider the following two cases regarding the prime divisor q of N:

Case 1: q = 2. we have $2 \mid N$ and clearly $2 \mid 2$. It follows that $2 \mid N - 2$, but this is a contradiction because $3p_1 \cdots p_r$ does not contain 2 as a factor. Therefore, q = 2 is not possible.

Case 2: $q \in \{p_1, \dots, p_r\}$. $q \mid N$ and $q \mid 3p_1 \cdots p_r$. It follows that $q \mid 2$. But again, this is not possible because q and 2 are both primes.

In both cases, we have a contradiction. This implies that N itself is a prime that is not in $\{2, p_1, \ldots, p_r\}$. Hence, our initial assumption that there are finitely many primes of the form 3n + 2 must be false, so the theorem holds.