

1.0 Introduction

Well Ordering Principle: Every nonempty set S of non-negative integers contains a least element; that is there is some integer a in S such that $a \leq b$ for all b 's belonging to S

Theorem 1.1: Archimedian property. If a and b are any positive integers, then there exists a positive integer n such that $na \geq b$.

Theorem 1.2 First Principle of Finite Induction. Let S be the set of positive integers.

- (a) The integer 1 belongs to S
- (b) Whenever the integer k is in S , the next integer $k + 1$ must also be in S

Theorem 1.2 Second Principle of Finite Induction. Let S be the set of positive integers.

- (a) The integer 1 belongs to S
- (b') If k is a positive integer such that $1, 2, \dots, k$ for $k \in S$, then $k + 1$ must also be in S .

Thus S is the set of all positive integers.

Binomial Theorem

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Canceling either $k!$ or $(n - k)!$ yields

$$\frac{n(n-1)\cdots(k+1)}{(n-k)!} \text{ or } \frac{n(n-1)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k!}$$

If $k = 0$ or $k = 1$ then we have $\binom{n}{0} = \binom{n}{n} = 1$

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

Pascals Triangle

Rows of pascals triangle are built by $(a + b)^n$.

$$(a + b)^1 = a + b$$

$$(a + b)^2 = a^2 + 2ab + b^2$$

$$(a + b)^3 = a^3 + 3a^2b + 3ab^2 + b^3$$

$$(a + b)^4 = a^4 + 4a^3b + 6a^2b^2 + 4ab^3 + b^4$$

When $a = b = 1$ the following triangle is built

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1 1
1 2 1
1 3 3 1
1 4 6 4 1

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{The binomial expansion takes the form } (a + b)^n &= \binom{n}{0} a^n + \\ &\binom{n}{1} a^{n-1}b + \binom{n}{2} a^{n-2}b^2 + \cdots + \binom{n}{n-1} ab^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n} b^n \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{or } (a + b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$$

1.1 Chapter 2

Pythagoreans were pretty weird and attached tons of religious connotations to numbers.

The number 1 represents reason

The number 2 stood for man

The number 3 stood for woman

4 stood for justice since it is the first number that is the product of equals

5 was for marriage because it formed the union of 2 and 3 (man and woman)

All sums $1 + \cdots + n$ are actually triangular numbers.

Triangular Numbers

A number is triangular if it is of the form $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

n is triangular if $8n + 1$ is a perfect square.

The sum of any consecutive two triangular numbers is a perfect square. It is in fact the n th square. Take $1 + 1 + 2 = 4$ for example. Here 4 is the square of the second natural number and it is also the sum of the first two summations for $n = 1$ and $n = 2$ respectively.

If n is triangular then so is $9n + 1$, $25n + 3$, and $49n + 6$

Let t_n denote the n th triangular number

$$t_n = \binom{n+1}{2}$$

$$t_{n-1} + t_n = n^2$$

$t_1 + t_2 + t_3 + \cdots + t_n = \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{6}$ the sum of n consecutive triangular numbers is the same as the sum of n consecutive squares because we have previously shown that the sum of the two consecutive triangular numbers is the n th square.

$$\binom{2}{2} + \cdots + \binom{n}{2} \binom{(n+1)}{3}$$

This formula is an extension of binomial expansion formula for summations

If t_n is a perfect square then $t_{4n(n+1)}$ is also a perfect square.

The difference of two consecutive triangular numbers is a cube.

Pentagonal Numbers

let p_n = the n th pentagonal number

$$p_n = \frac{n(3n-1)}{2}$$

$$p_n = t_{n-1} + n^2$$

$$p_n = 3t_{n-1} + n = 2t_{n-1} + t_n$$

2.2 The Division Algorithm

Theorem 2.1: Division Algorithm. Given integers a and b with $b > 0$, there exists unique integers q and r such that

$$a = qb + r \quad 0 \leq r < b$$

q is called the quotient and r the remainder in the division of a by b .

when $b = 2$ $r = 0$ or $r = 1$

when $a = 2q + 0$, a is called even

when $a = 2q + 1$, a is called odd

The previous 2 statements imply that any integer is of the form $2n + 1$ or $2n + 0$ similarly any square is of the form

$(2q)^2 = 4k$ or $(2q + 1)^2 = 4(q^2 + q) + 1 = 4k + 1$ this also implies that any square has a remainder 0 or 1 when divided by 4

Greatest Common Divisor

An int a is said to be divisible by an integer $a \neq 0$, $a|b$ if there exists some integer c such that $b = ac$ we write $a \nmid b$ if a does not divide b .

$a|b$ means a divides b

Theorem 2.2

1. $a|0, 1|a, a|a$
2. $a|1$ iff $a = \pm 1$
3. If $a|b$ and $c|d$ then $ac|bd$
4. If $a|b$ and $b|c$, then $a|c$
5. $a|b$ and $b|a$ iff $a = \pm b$
6. If $a|b$ and $b \neq 0$, then $|a| \leq |b|$
7. If $a|b$ and $a|c$, then $a|(bx + cy)$ for arbitrary x, y

Definition 2.2: Let a and b be given integers, with at least one different from zero. The GCD of a and b , denoted by $\gcd(a, b)$ is the positive integer d satisfying the following.

1. $d|a$ and $d|b$
2. If $c|a$ and $c|b$, then $c \leq d$

Theorem 2.3: Given integers a and b , not both of which are zero, there exists x and y such that $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$.

Definition 2.3: Two integers a and b , not both of which are zero, said to be relatively prime when $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

Theorem 2.4: Let a and b be integers, not both zero. Then a and b are relatively prime iff there exists integers x and y such that $1 = ax + by$.

If $a|c$ and $b|c$, and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $ab|c$.

Theorem 2.5 Euclid's Lemma: If $a|bc$, and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $a|c$

Theorem 2.6: Let a, b be integers, not both zero. For a positive integer d , $d = \gcd(a, b)$ iff

1. $d|a$ and $d|b$
2. Whenever $c|a$ and $c|b$, then $c|d$

2.4 The Euclidian Algorithm

The Euclidian Algorithm is a process for finding the gcd of two numbers. The equations that describe it are as follows.

Given integers a and b where $a \geq b > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} a &= q_1b + r_1 \\ b &= q_2r_1 + r_2 \\ r_1 &= q_3r_2 + r_3 \\ &\vdots \\ r_{n-2} &= q_nr_{n-1} + r_n \\ r_{n-1} &= q_{n+1}r_n + 0 \end{aligned}$$

r_n the last non-zero remainder that appears is equal to $\gcd(a, b)$.

Theorem 2.7: If $k > 0$, then $\gcd(ka, kb) = k\gcd(a, b)$.

For all $k \neq 0$, $\gcd(ka, kb) = |k|\gcd(a, b)$.

Definition 2.4: The least common multiple of two non-zero integers a and b , denoted $\text{lcm}(a, b)$, is the positive integer m satisfying

1. $a|m$ and $b|m$
2. If $a|c$ and $b|c$, with $c > 0$, then $m \leq c$.

$$\gcd(a, b) * \text{lcm}(a, b) = ab.$$

The ideas of the $\gcd()$ can be extended to more than two integers a, b, c . $\gcd(a, b, c)$ is defined as the positive integer d having the following properties

1. d is a divisor of each a, b, c .
2. If e divides the integers a, b, c , then $e \leq d$.

For any choice of positive integers a and b , $\text{lcm}(a, b) = ab$ iff $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

2.3 Diophantine Equations

Theorem 2.9: The linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$ has a solution iff $d|c$, where $d = \gcd(a, b)$. If x_0, y_0 is any particular solution of this equation then all other solutions are given by $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t$ and $y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t$. Where t is an arbitrary integer.

Relatively prime form of theorem 2.9: $r(x' - x_0) = s(y_0 - y')$ where $a = dr$ and $b = ds$.

Corollary: If $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ and if x_0, y_0 is a particular solution of the linear Diophantine equation $ax + by = c$, then all solutions are given by

$x = x_0 + bt$ and $y = y_0 - at$.

3.0 Chapter 3 Primes And Their Distributions

Definition 3.1: An integer $p > 1$ is called a prime number if its only positive divisors are 1 and p . An integer greater than 1 that is not a prime is termed composite.

Theorem 3.1: If p is a prime and $p|ab$, then $p|a$ or $p|b$.

Corollary: If p is a prime and $p|a_1a_2 \cdots a_n$, then $p|a_k$ for some k , where $1 \leq k \leq n$.

Corollary: If p, q_1, q_2, \cdots, q_n are all primes and $p|q_1q_2 \cdots q_n$, then $p = q_k$ for some k , where $1 \leq k \leq n$.

theorem 3.2 The fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: Every positive integer $n > 1$ is either a prime or a product of primes; this representation is unique, apart from the order in which the factors occur.

Corollary: Any positive integer $n > 1$ can be written uniquely in a canonical form $n = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \cdots p_r^{k_r}$.

this theorem just states that primes can be repeated in a numbers representation. Just think of $18 = 2 * 2 * 3$ its prime factorization has 2 2's.

Theorem 3.3 The Famous Pythagororas Result: The number $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational (he almost got stoned for this).

3.1 Sieve of Eratosthenes

If a is a composite and $a > 1$ then $a = bc$, where $1 < b < a$ and $1 < c < a$. In other words it has two non-zero factors. Assuming $b \leq c$ implies $b^2 \leq bc = a$ and $b \leq \sqrt{a}$; and because theorem 3.2 ensures b will have at least one prime factor p , it follows that $p|b \wedge b|a$, therefore $p|a$. Thus a composite number a will always possess a prime divisor p satisfying $p \leq \sqrt{a}$.

This result means that in testing the primality of a you need only test division by all primes $p < \sqrt{a}$. Similarly to find the prime factorization of a you need only test divisibility by all primes less than \sqrt{a} . A simple algorithm to determine prime factorization then would be.

for $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and prime p where $p < \sqrt{a}$. If $p|a$ add p to the list of prime factors and divide a by p . Repeat process with all prime factors $q < \sqrt{\frac{a}{p}}$ until $a = 1$ and all factors are exhausted.

Theorem 3.4 Euclid: There is an infinite number of primes.

There are a couple ways to estimate the size of the n th prime.

$$p_n^2 < p_1 p_2 \cdots p_{n-1} n \geq 5.$$

Theorem 3.5: If p_n is the n th prime number, then $p_n \leq 2^{2^{n-1}}$.

Corollary: For $n \geq 1$ there are at least $n + 1$ primes less than 2^{2^n} .

The proof is omitted but, there is a proven theorem stating that between $n \geq 2$ and $2n$ there is at least one prime. Base on this result it can be shown that $p_n < 2^n$ where $n \geq 2$.

Consequently $p_{n+1} < 2p_n$ for $n \geq 2$.

3.2 Goldbachs Conjecture

The product of two or more integers of the form $4n + 1$ is of the same form.

Theorem 3.6: There are infinite number of primes of the form $4n + 3$.

Theorem 3.7 Dirichlet: If a and b are relatively prime positive integers, then the arithmetic progression $a, a + b, a + 2b, a + 3b, \cdots$ contains infinitely many primes.

Theorem 3.8: If all the $n > 2$ terms of the arithmetic progression $p, p + d, p + 2d, \dots, p + (n - 1)d$ are prime then the common difference d is divisible by every prime $a < n$.

Interesting Fact: Any prime above 5 must end in a 1, 3, 7, or a 9. This sounds kind of obvious since anything ending in 5 is divisible by 5 but still interesting to note.