



# Number Theory

**John is peeking into Numbertheory**

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*Victory won't come to us unless we go to it.*

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# Chapter 1 Natural Number

What is natural number? Just like what they are called. Long time ago, human counted numbers will like this "one, two, three, ...". So naturally we can define natural numbers like this

## Definition 1.1 (Natural Number)

$$\mathbb{N} := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$



## 1.1 Primes

### Theorem 1.1 (Euclid)

*There are infinitely many primes.*



**Proof** If there is only finitely many primes, we can list them as  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r$ . Let

$$N = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r + 1.$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic,  $N$  can be factorized, so it must be divisible by some prime  $p_k$  of our list. Since  $p_k$  also divides  $p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$ , it must divide their difference

$$p_k | N - p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r = 1$$

which is impossible, as  $p_k > 1$ .  $\square$

## Chapter 2 Congruent

### 2.1 Congruent

#### Definition 2.1

We assign two integers  $a$  and  $b$  which have the same remainder mod  $n$  to the same residue class mod  $n$  or more simply, the same class mod  $n$ , and write

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n}$$



#### Theorem 2.1

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \iff n | a - b$$



#### Theorem 2.2

If  $ca \equiv cb \pmod{n}$ , then

$$a \equiv b \pmod{\frac{n}{d}}, \text{ where } (c, n) = d$$

and conversely.



#### Proposition 2.1 (properties of congruent)

1.  $a \equiv a \pmod{n}$
2. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , then  $b \equiv a \pmod{n}$
3. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $b \equiv c \pmod{n}$ , then  $a \equiv c \pmod{n}$
4. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ , then  $a \pm c \equiv b \pm d \pmod{n}$ .
5. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , then  $ac \equiv bc \pmod{n}$ .
6. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ , then  $ac \equiv bd \pmod{n}$ .
7. If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , then  $f(a) \equiv f(b) \pmod{n}$ , when  $f(x)$  is an integral function of  $x$  (polynomial in  $x$ ) with integral coefficients.



#### Corollary 2.1

If  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , then  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$a^k \equiv b^k \pmod{n}$$



#### Theorem 2.3

If  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  forms a complete system of residues mod  $n$  ( $n > 0$ ), then  $ax_1 + b, \dots, ax_n + b$  is also such a system, as long as  $a$  and  $b$  are integers and  $(a, n) = 1$ .



**Proof** To prove the theorem, we just need to prove that


$$ax_i + b \not\equiv ax_j + b \pmod{n} \quad (i \neq j)$$

Conversely, we let  $ax_i + b \equiv ax_j + b \pmod{n}$ , by property (iv), we have  $ax_i \equiv ax_j \pmod{n}$ , and because  $(a, n) = 1$ . By property (vi), we know  $x_i \equiv x_j \pmod{n}$ . Finally, because  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  forms a complete system of residues mod  $n$ . We finally get  $i = j$ .

**Theorem 2.4**

If  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are pairwise relatively prime integers, then a complete residue system mod  $A$ , where  $A = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ , is obtained in the form

$$L(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \frac{A}{a_1} c_1 x_1 + \frac{A}{a_2} c_2 x_2 + \dots + \frac{A}{a_n} c_n x_n$$

if the  $x_i$  independently run through a complete residue system mod  $a_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ). Here the  $c_i$  may be arbitrary integers relatively prime to  $a_i$ . 

**Proof** The number of these  $L$  values is  $|A|$ , because every  $x_i$  runs through a complete residue system mod  $a_i$  will produce  $a_i$  values. So we just need to prove for every two  $L$  when  $x_i$  run through a complete residue system mod  $a_i$ , they have different congruent mod  $A$ .

To do this, we let

$$L(x_1, \dots, x_n) \equiv L(x'_1, \dots, x'_n) \pmod{A}$$

A.K.A (as known as)

$$\frac{A}{a_1} c_1 x_1 + \dots + \frac{A}{a_n} c_n x_n \equiv \frac{A}{a_1} c_1 x'_1 + \dots + \frac{A}{a_n} c_n x'_n \pmod{A}$$

Since  $a_1 | A = a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$

$$\frac{A}{a_1} c_1 x_1 + \dots + \frac{A}{a_n} c_n x_n \equiv \frac{A}{a_1} c_1 x'_1 + \dots + \frac{A}{a_n} c_n x'_n \pmod{a_1}$$

and because  $\frac{A}{a_i} c_i x_i \equiv 0 \pmod{a_1}$  ( $i \neq 1$ ) we get

$$\frac{A}{a_1} c_1 x_1 \equiv \frac{A}{a_1} c_1 x'_1$$

Moreover by theorem 2.1, since  $(c_1, a_1) = 1$  and  $\left(\frac{A}{a_1}, a_1\right) = 1$ , we get  $x_1 \equiv x'_1 \pmod{a_1}$  Exactly, as the same way above, we can get  $x_i \equiv x'_i \pmod{a_i}$  for all  $i$ .

**Definition 2.2 (Euler Phi function)**

$$\varphi(n) := \#\{i(0 \leq i \leq n-1) | (i, n) = 1\}$$

where  $\#$  means the element number of a set. 

**Theorem 2.5 (Fermat-Euler Theorem)**

$\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $(a, n) = 1$ , then

$$a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

where  $\varphi(n)$  is Euler-phi function. 

**Proof** [Fermat]

1. If  $a = 1$ , obviously  $1^p = 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
2. Assume for some  $b \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $b^p \equiv b \pmod{p}$ , we just need to prove for  $a = b + 1$ , we have  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ .

By binomial theorem, we have

$$(b+1)^p = \sum_{i=0}^p \binom{p}{i} b^i, \text{ where } \binom{p}{i} = \frac{p(p-1) \dots (p-i+1)}{i!}$$

If  $1 \leq i \leq p-1$ , then  $p \nmid \binom{p}{i}$ . Since

$$i! \binom{p}{i} = p(p-1)(p-2) \cdots (p-i+1)$$

Naturally, we have

$$p \mid i! \binom{p}{i}$$

Since  $p$  is a prime and  $1 \leq i < p$ ,  $(p, i!) = 1$ , so we have

$$p \mid \binom{p}{i}$$

Finally

$$\begin{aligned} (b+1)^p &= \sum_{i=0}^p \binom{p}{i} b^i \\ &= b^p + 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i} b^i \\ &\equiv b^p + 1 \pmod{p} \\ &\equiv b + 1 \pmod{p} \end{aligned}$$

#### Theorem 2.6

For given polynomial  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in \mathbb{Z}[x]$ , and prime  $P$ , meantime  $a_n \not\equiv 0 \pmod{P}$ , then

$$f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{P}$$

the numbers of root is less than or equal to  $\deg f(x) = n$



**Remark** We mark  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  as  $\mathbb{F}_p$ , which means  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  is a **finite field**. And  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  presents a complete system of residues mod  $p$ .

The above theorem can be equivalently described as below

#### Theorem 2.7 (Lagrange Theorem)

For given polynomial  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0 \in \mathbb{F}_p[x]$ , and prime  $P$ , meantime  $a_n \neq 0$ , in  $\mathbb{F}_p[x]$ , then

$$f(x) = 0, \text{ in } \mathbb{F}_p[x]$$

the numbers of root is less than or equal to  $\deg f(x) = n$



#### Definition 2.3 (Equal)

Two integral polynomial

$$f(x) = c_0 + c_1 x + \cdots + c_k x^k$$

$$g(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_l x^l$$

when  $k = l$  and  $c_i = a_i \pmod{n}$  for  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, k$ , we say  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are congruent modulo  $n$ .

$$f(x) \equiv g(x) \pmod{n}$$


### Theorem 2.8

If  $(a, n) = 1$ , then the congruence equations

$$ax + b \equiv 0 \pmod{n}$$

exactly have one root  $\pmod{n}$ .



**Proof** By 2.1  $ax + b$ , when  $x$  runs through a complete residue system  $\pmod{n}$ , its value exactly is equal to 0 once, so the solution of the equation is unique  $\pmod{n}$ .

### Theorem 2.9 (Wilson Theorem)

If  $p$  is a prime, then

$$(p-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$$



### Theorem 2.10

Suppose  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n > 1$ , then

$$n \text{ is a prime} \iff (n-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$$



### Definition 2.4 (Carmichael number)

Suppose  $n$  is a composite number. If  $\forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $(a, n) = 1$ , if the below equation is always established

$$a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$$

then we call  $n$  as a Carmichael number or a absolutely improper number.



### Theorem 2.11 (Chinese Remainder Theorem)

Suppose that  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k \in \mathbb{N}$  which are pairwise prime, and  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Let  $v = n_1 n_2 \cdots n_k$ , then the first degree congruence equations exactly has one solution, and

$$x \equiv M_1 M_1^{-1} a_1 + M_2 M_2^{-1} a_2 + \cdots + M_k M_k^{-1} a_k \pmod{v}$$



## 2.2 Quadratic residues

Next is some talking about the solution of a Quadratic congruent equation.

$$x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$$

Suppose that  $(a, n) = 1$ ,  $a$  is any integer and  $n$  is a natural number. Then  $a$  is called a quadratic residue  $\pmod{n}$  if the congruence  $x^2 \equiv a \pmod{n}$  is soluble; otherwise it is called a quadratic non-residue  $\pmod{n}$ .

### Definition 2.5 (Legendre Symbol)

$$\left(\frac{a}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } (a, p) = 1 \text{ and } a \text{ is a quadratic residue mod } p. \\ -1, & \text{if } (a, p) = 1 \text{ and } a \text{ is a quadratic non-residue mod } p \\ 0, & p|a \end{cases}$$



**Theorem 2.12 (Law of quadratic reciprocity)**

If  $p, q$  are odd primes, then

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

**Theorem 2.13 (Euler's criterion)**

If  $p$  is an odd prime, then

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



**Property**  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,

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

**Lemma 2.1 (Gauss' Lemma)**

Suppose  $p$  is a prime, and  $(a, p) = 1$ . Further let  $a_j$  be the numerically residue of  $aj \pmod{p}$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots$ . Then Gauss's lemma states that

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

where  $l$  is the number of  $j \leq \frac{1}{2}(p-1)$  for which  $a_j < 0$ .

**2.3 Practice**