

## Lecture - 3:

Tuesday, 2/8/2022

Note Title

8/1/2022

1st principle of mathematical induction: Let  $A$  be a non-empty subset of  $\mathbb{N}$ .

Suppose that (i)  $1 \in A$  and (ii)  $n \in A \Rightarrow 1+n \in A$ .

Then,  $A = \mathbb{N}$ .

2nd principle of mathematical induction: Let  $A$  be a non-empty subset

of  $\mathbb{N}$ . Suppose that (i)  $1 \in A$  and (ii)  $1, 2, \dots, n \in A \Rightarrow 1+n \in A$ .

Then  $A = \mathbb{N}$ .

Theorem: The above two principles are equivalent to the well-ordering principle of  $\mathbb{N}$ .

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§ Primes: An integer  $p > 1$  is called a prime number if there is no divisor  $d$  of  $p$  satisfying  $1 < d < p$ . That is, 1 and  $p$  are the only positive divisors of  $p$ .

If an integer  $a > 1$  is not a prime, then it is called a composite number.

Theorem 1: If  $p$  is a prime, and  $p \mid ab$ , then  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .

More generally, if  $p \mid a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ , then  $p$  divides at least one factor  $a_i$  of the product.

Proof: Suppose that  $p \nmid a$ . Then,  $\gcd(a, p) = 1$ . Since  $p \mid ab$ , so  $p \mid b$ .

If  $p \mid a_1 a_2 a_3$ , then  $p \mid a_1 b_1$ , where  $b_1 = a_2 a_3$ .  $\Rightarrow p \mid a_1$  or  $p \mid b_1$

If  $p \mid b_1$ , then  $p \mid a_2 a_3$  implies  $p \mid a_2$  or  $p \mid a_3$ . Hence,  $p \mid a_i$  for some  $i = 1, 2, 3$ .

In general, we can use mathematical induction.

So, we assume that the result holds whenever  $p$  divides a product with fewer than  $n$  factors.

Now, if  $p \mid a_1 a_2 \dots a_n$ , we write  $p \mid a_1 c$  where  $c = a_2 a_3 \dots a_n$ .

Then,  $p \mid a_1$  or  $p \mid c$ . If  $p \mid a_1$ , we are done.

If  $p \mid c$ , we apply the induction hypothesis to conclude that  $p \mid a_i$  for some  $i = 2, 3, \dots, n$ .

Hence,  $p \mid a_i$  for some  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

Theorem 2 (Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic): This completes the proof. #

Every integer  $n > 1$  can be expressed as a product of primes. Also, the factorization of  $n$  into primes is unique apart from the order of the prime factors.

Proof: Let  $n > 1$ . If  $n$  is a prime, then the integer itself stands as a product with a single factor. Otherwise,  $n = n_1 n_2$ , where  $1 < n_1 < n$ ,  $1 < n_2 < n$ . If  $n_1$  is a prime, then  $n_1$  remains in the factorization. Otherwise, it will factor into, say,  $n_3 n_4$  where  $1 < n_3 < n_1$  and  $1 < n_4 < n_1$ . Similarly, we proceed with  $n_2$ . This process of writing each composite number that arises as a product of factors must terminate because the factors are smaller than the composite number itself, and each factor is greater than 1.

Thus, we can write  $n$  as a product of primes as

$$n = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_r^{a_r}, \quad \text{where } p_1, \dots, p_r \text{ are distinct primes,}$$

and  $a_1, \dots, a_r$  are positive.

We next prove that the factorization of  $n$  into product of primes is unique apart from the order of the prime factors.

Suppose that there is an integer  $n$  with two different factorizations.

Dividing out any primes common to the two representations, we would have an equality of the form

$$p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s \longrightarrow (1)$$

where the factors  $p_i$  and  $q_j$  are primes, not necessarily all distinct and  $p_1 \neq q_j$  for any  $i$  and  $j$ .

But this is impossible, because  $p_1 / q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s \Rightarrow p_1 / q_j$  for some  $j$ .

(by Theorem 1)

$$\Rightarrow p_1 = q_j \text{ for some } j.$$

This completes the proof.

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Theorem 3 (Euclid): There are infinitely many primes. That is, there is no end to the sequence of primes

2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, ...

1st proof: Suppose that there are only finitely many primes,

say,  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r$ . Consider  $n = 1 + p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$ .

Since  $n > p_i$  for all  $i$ , so  $n$  is not a prime (as  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  are the only primes)

By Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic,  $n$  has a prime divisor  $p$ .

Since  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  are the only primes, so  $p = p_j$  for some  $j$ .

$\Rightarrow p$  divides  $1 = n - p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$ , which is a contradiction.  
 $\therefore$  There are infinitely many primes. #

2nd proof: Fermat's numbers are defined as:

$$F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1, \quad n \geq 1$$

$$F_1 = 5, F_2 = 2^4 + 1 = 17$$

$$F_3 = 2^8 + 1 = 257, \dots$$

We first prove that  $\gcd(F_n, F_{n+k}) = 1$  for all  $k \geq 1$   
(That is, any two distinct Fermat's numbers are co-prime).

Let  $m \mid F_n$  and  $m \mid F_{n+k}$ , where  $k \geq 1$ .

$$\text{Put } x = 2^{2^n}. \text{ Then, } \frac{F_{n+k} - 2}{F_n} = \frac{2^{2^{n+k}} - 1}{2^{2^n} - 1} = \frac{x^{2^k} - 1}{x - 1}$$

$$= x^{2^{k-1}} - x^{2^{k-2}} + \dots - 1, \text{ which is an integer.}$$
$$\Rightarrow F_n \text{ divides } F_{n+k} - 2$$

Since  $m \mid F_n$  and  $m \mid F_{n+k}$ , so  $m \mid 2$ .

But Fermat's numbers are odd, and hence  $m = 1$ .

$$\therefore \gcd(F_n, F_{n+k}) = 1 \quad \text{for all } k \geq 1.$$

Now, consider the prime factorizations of the Fermat's numbers,

Since  $\gcd(F_n, F_{n+k}) = 1$ , so the prime divisors of  $F_n$  and  $F_{n+k}$  are all different.

Since there are infinitely many Fermat's numbers, so there are infinitely many prime numbers.

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