

■ **Example:** How many positive factors does 21560 have?

• **Solution:**

① Using trial division, we obtain the prime factorization:

$$21560 = 2^3 \times 5 \times 7^2 \times 11.$$

② According to the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic and the property regarding the number of prime factors, the number of positive divisors of 21560 is $(3+1) \times (1+1) \times (2+1) \times (1+1) = 48$.

- **Example:** How many trailing zeros are there in the binary representation of $10!$?
 - **Solution:** According to:
 - ① The number of trailing zeros in a binary number indicates the highest power of 2 that divides the number.
 - ② In the binary representation of a decimal number, each trailing zero means the number is divisible by 2 one more time.
- $10! = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2^2 \times 5 \times (2 \times 3) \times 7 \times 2^3 \times 3^2 \times (2 \times 5)$ has the prime factorization : $10! = 2^8 \times 3^4 \times 5^2 \times 7$
- Therefore, the binary representation of $10!$ has **8 trailing zeros**.

↪ The Infinitude of Primes

- **Theorem 8.4 (Infinitude of Primes):** There are infinitely many prime numbers.
- **Proof:** We use proof by contradiction.
 - ① Assume that there are only finitely many prime numbers, and denote them as p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n . Now construct a new number Q , where $Q = p_1 p_2 \dots p_n + 1$.
 - ② Clearly, none of the primes p_i divides Q , since dividing Q by any p_i leaves a remainder of 1, for $1 \leq i \leq n$.
 - ③ According to the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, either Q is a new prime number, or it must have a prime factor that is not in the known list of primes.
 - ④ This contradicts the assumption that the number of primes is finite.Therefore, there must be *infinitely many prime numbers*.

↳ Mersenne Numbers and Mersenne Primes

- **Mersenne numbers** (named after Marin Mersenne) are a special class of natural numbers defined as: $M_n = 2^n - 1$, n is the exponent used to generate the Mersenne number.
If $M_n = 2^n - 1$ is a prime number, then M_n is called a **Mersenne prime**.
- Properties of Mersenne Numbers and Mersenne Primes
 - (1) All Mersenne primes are prime numbers, they are a special form of primes.
 - (2) If M_n is a Mersenne prime, then n itself must also be a prime number (this is a necessary condition).
 - (3) If n is a composite number, then the Mersenne number M_n is definitely composite. For example: $M_6 = 2^6 - 1 = 63 = 7 \times 9$.

- The GIMPS official website(www.mersenne.org) publishes the latest discovered Mersenne prime and the discovery process.
- On October 21, 2024, GIMPS discovered a new Mersenne prime, $2^{2136279841}-1$, with 41 million digits—surpassing the previous record by over 16 million digits.
- **Example:** $M_5 = 2^5 - 1 = 31$ is a prime number, $M_{11} = 2^{11} - 1 = 2047 = 23 \times 89$ is a composite number.



- The study of the *distribution of prime numbers* focuses on the patterns and regularities in how primes appear among natural numbers. The *Prime Number Theorem* provides an approximate description of the frequency of prime numbers.
- The *prime counting function* $\pi(n)$ represents the number of prime numbers less than or equal to n .
- Example:

$$\pi(0)=\pi(1)=0, \pi(2)=1, \pi(3)=\pi(4)=2, \pi(5)=\pi(6)=3, \\ \pi(7)=\pi(8)=\pi(9)=\pi(10)=4 \text{ (2、3、5、7).}$$

■ Theorem 8.5 (Prime Number Theorem):

- As n approaches infinity, the ratio of the number of primes less than or equal to n , denoted $\pi(n)$, to $\frac{n}{\ln(n)}$ approaches 1.

Mathematically, this is written as: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(n)}{\frac{n}{\ln(n)}} = 1$.

- This can also be equivalently stated as: $\pi(n)$ is asymptotically equal to $\frac{n}{\ln(n)}$, i.e., $\pi(n) \sim \frac{n}{\ln(n)}$.

- The Prime Number Theorem tells us that there are approximately $\frac{n}{\ln(n)}$ prime numbers between 1 and n .

■ Theorem 8.6 (Factor Property of Composite Numbers):

If a is a composite number, then it must have a proper factor less than or equal to \sqrt{a} .

■ Proof:

- ① By the property of composite numbers (a composite number a has at least one nontrivial factor), we can write $a=bc$, where $1 < b < a$ and $1 < c < a$.
- ② Clearly, at least one of b or c must be less than or equal to \sqrt{a} . Otherwise, $bc > a$, which is a contradiction.

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↪ Smallest Prime Factor Bound Theorem

- **Corollary:** If a is a composite number, then it must have a prime factor less than or equal to \sqrt{a} .
- **Proof:** ① By the fact that “any composite number can be factored into a product of prime numbers,” composite number a must have at least one prime factor d such that $1 < d < a$.
② If $d \leq \sqrt{a}$, the result is proven.
③ Suppose $d > \sqrt{a}$, since d is a factor of a , there exists another integer e such that $a = d \times e$.
④ If $d > \sqrt{a}$, and $e > \sqrt{a}$, then $d \times e > \sqrt{a} \times \sqrt{a} = a$, which contradicts the fact that $d \times e = a$, therefore, e must be less than or equal to \sqrt{a} .
⑤ Since d is a prime factor of a , and a cannot have two factors greater than \sqrt{a} , our initial assumption that $d > \sqrt{a}$ must be false. Thus, **any prime factor d of a must satisfy $d \leq \sqrt{a}$** 。

↳ Prime testing algorithms

- **Prime Testing Algorithms** can be broadly categorized into two types: **deterministic tests** and **probabilistic tests**. **Trial Division** and the **Sieve of Eratosthenes** are common deterministic algorithms.
- **Trial Division**: For a given number a , divide it by all positive integers less than or equal to \sqrt{a} . If a has no divisors in this range (i.e., none divide it evenly), then a is a prime number, otherwise, it is composite.
- **Sieve of Eratosthenes**: To find all prime numbers less than or equal to n , start from 2 and consider all numbers less than or equal to \sqrt{n} as potential prime candidates. Then eliminate all multiples of these candidates. The numbers that remain after the elimination process are the prime numbers.

↳ Prime testing algorithms - Trial Division(e.g.)

- **Example:** Determine whether 157 and 161 are prime numbers.
- **Solution:**
 - ① $\sqrt{157}$, $\sqrt{161}$ are less than 13. The prime numbers less than 13 are: 2, 3, 5, 7, 11.
 - ② Since $2 \nmid 157$, $3 \nmid 157$, $5 \nmid 157$, $7 \nmid 157$, $11 \nmid 157$, we conclude that 157 is a prime number.
 - ③ Since $2 \nmid 161$, $3 \nmid 161$, $5 \nmid 161$, $7 \mid 161$ ($161=7 \times 23$), we conclude that 161 is a composite number.

↳ Prime testing algorithms - The Sieve of Eratosthenes (e.g.)

- The Sieve of Eratosthenes for finding all prime numbers less than or equal to 100.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70
71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80
81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90
91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100

Divisible by 2

Divisible by 3

Divisible by 5

Divisible by 7

↳ Prime testing algorithms - The Sieve of Eratosthenes (C code)

// Original sieve method using the **isPrime** function to check for prime numbers.

```
#include <stdio.h>
```

```
#define N 100
```

```
int main() { int i, j; int prime[N+1];
```

// Assume all numbers are prime: 0 represents a prime number, 1 represents a non-prime number

```
for(i = 2; i <= N; i++) {  
    prime[i] = 0;    }
```

```
for(i = 2; i*i <= N; i++) {
```

// If *i* is a prime number, eliminate all multiples of *i*

```
if(prime[i] == 0) {  
    for(j = i*i; j <= N; j += i) {  
        prime[j] = 1;    }    } }
```

// **print prime**

```
printf("Prime numbers up to %d:\n", N);
```

```
for(i = 2; i <= N; i++) {
```

```
    if(prime[i] == 0) {  
        printf("%d ", i);
```

```
    }    }
```

```
printf("\n");
```

```
return 0; }
```

8.1 Prime Numbers • Brief summary

Objective :

Key Concepts :



Discrete Mathematics 2025 Spring



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- 8.1 Prime Numbers
- 8.2 Greatest Common Divisor and Least Common Multiple
- 8.3 Congruence
- 8.4 Linear Congruence Equations and the Chinese Remainder Theorem
- 8.5 Euler's Theorem and Fermat's Little Theorem

- Common divisor and **Greatest common divisor (GCD)**
- Common multiple and **Least common multiple (LCM)**
- Euclidean algorithm (for finding the GCD)
- Relatively prime (coprime)

↳ Greatest common divisor and least common multiple

- A **common factor** (or divisor) refers to an integer that can divide two or more integers simultaneously.
- A **common multiple** refers to a shared multiple of two or more integers.
- **Definition 8.4:**
 - (1) Let a and b be two integers, not both zero. The greatest integer d such that d divides both a and b is called the **greatest common divisor** (gcd) of a and b , denoted as **$\gcd(a, b)$** .
 - (2) The **least common multiple** (lcm) of two positive integers a and b is the smallest positive integer divisible by both a and b , denoted as **$\text{lcm}(a, b)$** .
- **example:** $\gcd(12, 18) = 6$, $\text{lcm}(12, 18) = 36$.
- **gcd-lcm relation**
 - For any positive integer a : $\gcd(0, a) = a$, $\gcd(1, a) = 1$, $\text{lcm}(1, a) = a$
 - For positive integers a and b : $a \cdot b = \gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b)$

■ Theorem 8.7:

(1) If $a \mid m$, $b \mid m$, then $\text{lcm}(a, b) \mid m$.

* If a and b are two factors of an integer m , then $\text{lcm}(a, b)$ is also a factor of m .

(2) If $d \mid a$, $d \mid b$, then $d \mid \text{gcd}(a, b)$.

* If two integers a and b have a common factor d , then d is also a factor of their greatest common divisor.

■ Proof:

(1) Since $a \mid m$ and $b \mid m$, we know that m is a common multiple of a and b , and $\text{lcm}(a, b)$ is the least common multiple of a and b . Therefore, m must be a multiple of $\text{lcm}(a, b)$, meaning there exists an integer n such that $m = \text{lcm}(a, b) \cdot n$. Thus, $\text{lcm}(a, b) \mid m$ holds.

■ Proof: (2)

- ① Since $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, we know that d is a common divisor of a and b .
- ② The greatest common divisor $\gcd(a, b)$ is the largest integer that can divide both a and b , and it is also a common divisor of a and b .
- ③ By the transitivity of divisibility, d must also divide $\gcd(a, b)$. This is because any integer that divides both a and b must also divide their common divisors, especially the greatest common divisor.

↳ Divisibility properties of LCM and GCD

- **Prime factorization**, based on the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, calculates the **gcd** by multiplying common prime factors with the smallest exponent, and the **lcm** by multiplying them with the largest exponent.
- The **gcd** and **lcm** of two non-negative integers **a** and **b** can be calculated as:

$$a = p_1^{e_1} \cdot p_2^{e_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{e_n}, \quad b = p_1^{f_1} \cdot p_2^{f_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{f_n}$$

$$\text{gcd}(a, b) = p_1^{\min(e_1, f_1)} \cdot p_2^{\min(e_2, f_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{\min(e_n, f_n)}$$

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = p_1^{\max(e_1, f_1)} \cdot p_2^{\max(e_2, f_2)} \cdot \dots \cdot p_n^{\max(e_n, f_n)}$$

- **Example:** Find the greatest common divisor and least common multiple of 45, 75, and 90.

Solve: $45=3^2 \times 5^1$, $75=3^1 \times 5^2$, $90=2^1 \times 3^2 \times 5^1$

$$\text{gcd}(45, 75, 90) = 3^1 \times 5^1 = 15$$

$$\text{lcm}(45, 75, 90) = 2^1 \times 3^2 \times 5^2 = 2 \times 9 \times 25 = 450.$$

8.2 Greatest Common Divisor and Least Common Multiple

↳ Euclidean Lemma (for computing the GCD)

■ Theorem 8.8: let $a=qb+r$, where a, b, q, r are integers.

Then, $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b,r)$.

■ Prove \Rightarrow : “If d is a common divisor of a and b , then d is also a common divisor of b and r ”.

① Let d be a common divisor of a and b , so we have $a=dm$ and $b=dn$, where m and n are integers. The equation $a=qb+r$ can be rewritten as: $dm=q(dn)+r$, $r=dm-q(dn)=d(m-qn)$.

② Since $m-qn$ is an integer, $d|r$. Therefore, since d divides both a and b ($d|a$ and $d|b$), d is also a common divisor of b and r .

8.2 Greatest Common Divisor and Least Common Multiple

↳ Euclidean Lemma (for computing the GCD)

■ Prove \Leftarrow :

"if d is a common divisor of b and r , then d is also a common divisor of a and b ":

- ① Let d be a common divisor of b and r , so we have $b=dk$ and $r=dl$, where k and l are integers. The equation $a=qb+r$ can be rewritten as: $a=q(dk)+dl=d(qk+l)$.
- ② Since $qk+l$ is an integer, d divides a . Therefore, since d is a common divisor of b and r ($d|b$ and $d|r$), d is also a common divisor of a and b .

Euclidean Algorithm (Successive Division Method): Finding the GCD

■ Successive Division Method

- ① Input two non-negative integers a and b (assume $a > b$, otherwise swap a and b), and $b \neq 0$.
- ② According to the Euclidean division theorem, find q and r such that $a = bq + r$, where $0 \leq r < b$.
- ③ Assign the value of b to a , and the value of r to b .
- ④ Repeat steps ② and ③ until the remainder $r = 0$. When $r = 0$, the current value of b is the greatest common divisor $\gcd(a, b)$.
- ⑤ The final non-zero value of b is the greatest common divisor of a and b .

■ Example: Find the greatest common divisor of 414 and 662.

Solve: $a = b \times q + r$

$$\text{① } 662 = 414 \times 1 + 248. \quad \text{② } 414 = 248 \times 1 + 166. \quad \text{③ } 248 = 166 \times 1 + 82.$$

$$\text{④ } 166 = 82 \times 2 + 2. \quad \text{⑤ } 82 = 2 \times 41 + 0$$

$$\gcd(662, 414) = 2$$

↳ Bézout's Identity: A Bridge Between GCD and Linear Combinations

■ Theorem 8.9: (Bézout's Theorem):

Let a and b not both be zero, then there exist integers x and y such that $\gcd(a,b) = xa+yb$.

■ Proof:

① Let $a=r_0$, $b=r_1$, and apply the Euclidean algorithm:

$$r_i = q_{i+1}r_{i+1} + r_{i+2}, \quad i=0, 1, \dots, k-2, \quad r_{k-1} = q_k r_k, \quad \gcd(a,b) = r_k.$$

② Rewrite as $r_{i+2} = r_i - q_{i+1}r_{i+1}$, $i=k-2, k-3, \dots, 0$.

③ By performing backward substitution, r_k can be expressed as a linear combination of a and b .