

CHAPTER 1: THE INTEGERS

1.1 Types of Number, Well-Ordering, Floors and Ceilings

1. Types of numbers and notation
2. Well-ordered sets
 - Def: A set of numbers is **well-ordered** if every non-empty subset has a least element
 - Axiom: \mathbb{Z}^+ is well-ordered
3. Floors and Ceilings
 - for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\lfloor x \rfloor = n$ iff $n \leq x < n+1$
 - for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\lceil x \rceil = n$ iff $n-1 < x \leq n$
4. Countable and Uncountable Sets
 - Def: A set S is **countably infinite** if it can be placed in 1-1 correspondence with \mathbb{Z}^+
 - Def: A set S is **countable** if it is either **finite** or **countably infinite**

1.2 Sums and Products

1. Notation
 - (A) The sum: $\sum_{j=m}^n a_j = a_m + a_{m+1} + \dots + a_n$
 - (B) The product: $\prod_{j=m}^n a_j = a_m \cdot a_{m+1} \dots a_n$
2. Some sums:
 - (A) $\sum_{j=1}^n 1 = n$
 - (B) $\sum_{j=1}^n j = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
 - (C) $\sum_{j=1}^n j^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
 - (D) $\sum_{j=0}^n r^j = \frac{r^{n+1}-1}{r-1}$
3. Some techniques:
 - (A) Telescoping: Often partial fractions can help
 - (B) Trimming: Change starting index from m to 1
 - (C) Reindexing: Substitution

1.3 Induction

1. Weak Induction: Base case: We show $P(n_0)$ is true (plug it in and show!)
 Inductive step:
 I.H: Assume it works for k
 I.C: Show it works for $k+1$
2. Proof of Induction (using well-ordered)
3. Strong Induction:
 - Inductive step:
 - I.H: Assume it works for every k , where $k \leq n$
 - I.C: Show it works for $n+1$
 - Base case(s):
 - Analyze based on I.S to find how many base cases we need
 - Write down base cases (Note: Don't use any extra base case)

1.5 Divisibility

1. Definition: $a|b$ if $\exists c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \cdot c = b$ given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $a \neq 0$
2. Properties:
 - (A) **Theorem: if $a|b$ and $b|c$, then $a|c$**
 - (B) **Theorem: if $a|b$ and $a|c$, then for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have $a|(bx + cy)$**
- *Warning: Things that might appear true may not be!
3. The Division Algorithm:

Theorem: Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $b > 0$

Then $\exists! r, q \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a = bq + r$ with $0 \leq r < b$

Proof: First prove existence by well-ordered, then prove uniqueness

4. Definition of GCD

- (A) Given $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ not both 0
 define $\gcd(a, b)$ = largest integer dividing both a, b
- (B) Definition: **a, b are relatively prime (co-prime) if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$**
 Theorem: If $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 0}$ not both 0, then $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$

3.1 Prime Numbers

- Definition: An integer $n \geq 2$ is prime if its divisors are only 1 and n
 An integer $n \geq 2$ is **composite** if it is not prime
 Meaning $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ w/ $1 < a < n, 1 < b < n$ and $n = ab$
- Theorems:
 - Every integer $n \geq 2$ has a prime divisor**
 - There are infinitely many primes
 - If $n \in \mathbb{Z}^{\geq 2}$ is composite then n has a prime divisor $\leq \sqrt{n}$**

3.2 The Distribution of Primes

- Theorem: **We may find arbitrarily long sequences of consecutive composite integers!**
 $(n+1)! + 2, (n+1)! + 3, \dots, (n+1)! + (n+1)$
- Twin primes: Twin primes are primes two apart (Ex: 3, 5 or 41, 43)
- Definition: For $x \in \mathbb{R}^+$ define $\pi(x) = \# \text{primes} \leq x$
- Prime Number Theorem: $\pi(x) \approx \frac{x}{\ln x}$
- Corollary to PNT: For $x \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, define $p_n = n^{\text{th}}$ prime. Then, $p_n \approx n \ln n$
- Prime Conjectures:
 - Twin Prime conjecture: There are infinitely many pairs of twin primes
 - Legendre conjecture: There exists a prime between squares of any two consecutive integers
 - The $n^2 + 1$ conjecture: There are infinitely many primes of the form $n^2 + 1$
 - Goldbach conjecture: Every even int > 2 is the sum of two primes

3.3 Greatest Common Divisor

Theorems: Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ not both 0.

- Let $d = \gcd(a, b)$, then $\gcd\left(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}\right) = 1$
- $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}, \gcd(a, b) = \gcd(a, b + ca)$**
- $\gcd(a, b) =$ smallest positive linear comb of a and b
- $\{\text{Linear combinations of } a, b\} = \{\text{Multiples of } \gcd(a, b)\}$
- $d = \gcd(a, b)$ iff (a) $d|a$ and $d|b$ and (b) $\forall c \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $c|a$ and $c|b$ then $c|d$

3.4 The Euclidean Algorithm

- Process: Example: Want $\gcd(252, 196)$

$252 = 1 \cdot 196 + 56$	$\gcd(196, 56)$
$196 = 3 \cdot 56 + 28$	$\gcd(56, 28)$
$56 = 2 \cdot 28 + 0$	$\gcd(28, 0)$

 So, $\gcd(252, 196) = 28$
- Follow up: Find linear combinations of a, b based on that sequence
 $28 = 196 - 3 \cdot 56 = 196 - 3 \cdot (252 - 196) = 4 \cdot 196 - 3 \cdot 252$

3.5 Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

- Theorem: Any integer $n \geq 2$ may be written as a product of powers of primes.
- Supporting Theorems:
 - Suppose p is prime and $p|ab$, then either $p|a$ or $p|b$ (or both)
 - Suppose p is prime and $p|a_1 \dots a_n$ then there exists i such that $p|a_i$
 - Suppose $a|bc$ and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, then $a|c$
- Consequences:
 - Theorem: Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $a, b \geq 2$
 Then $a|b$ iff whenever p^k appears in the prime factorization of a then p^j appears in the prime factorization of b with $j \geq k$
 - Theorem: A method of finding all factors of $n \geq 2$
 The factors can be obtained by taking any subset of the primes with powers \leq
 - Calculation of $\gcd(a, b)$ via PF: take min powers of common primes
 - Calculation of $\text{lcm}(a, b)$ via PF: take max powers of all primes
 - Theorem: **$\gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b) = ab$**

4.1 Introduction to Congruences

1. Definition: Suppose $a, b, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ with $m \geq 1$

a is congruent/equivalent to $b \bmod m$ written $a \equiv b \bmod m$ iff $m|(a-b)$

2. Basic Properties:

(A) $a \equiv b \bmod m$ (Reflexive)

(B) if $a \equiv b \bmod m$ then $b \equiv a \bmod m$ (Symmetric)

(C) if $a \equiv b \bmod m$ and $b \equiv c \bmod m$ then $a \equiv c \bmod m$ (Transitive)

(D) if $a \equiv b \bmod m$ and $c \equiv d \bmod m$

then $a + c \equiv b + d \bmod m$, $a - c \equiv b - d \bmod m$, $ac \equiv bd \bmod m$

(E) if $a \equiv b \bmod m$ and $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ then $a^k \equiv b^k \bmod m$

3. Theorem: Suppose $ac \equiv bc \bmod m$ then $a \equiv b \bmod \frac{m}{\gcd(m,c)}$

Corollary: if p is prime and provided $p \nmid c$ then $ac \equiv bc \bmod p \Rightarrow a \equiv b \bmod p$

4. Congruence Classes and Complete Sets of Residues

- Definition: A congruence class mod m consists of all integers equivalent mod m
 - A representative of an equivalent class is simply one of the integers in that class
 - Definition: A representative is aka a residue
 - A complete set of residues mod m is a set consisting of one integer from each equivalent class. Such set will have m integers in it.
- Example: CSOR of mod 5 is $\{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ or $\{0, 2, 4, 6, 8\}$

4.2 Solving Linear Congruences

1. Definition: A linear congruence is a congruence of the form $ax \equiv b \bmod m$

2. $ax \equiv b \bmod m$ has solution(s) iff $\gcd(a, m) | b$ (also # of solns = $\gcd(a, m)$)

3. Find the first solution (using Euclidean Algorithm):

Example: $4x \equiv 6 \bmod 50$

By E.A, find $\gcd(4, 50) = 2 | 6 \Rightarrow$ There exists solution

also by E.A, $(1)50 + (-12)4 = 2$

$$(3)50 + (-36)4 \equiv 6 \bmod 50$$

$$4(-36) \equiv 6 \bmod 50$$

$$4(14) \equiv 6 \bmod 50$$

$$\Rightarrow x_0 = 14$$

4. All solutions have the form $x \equiv x_0 + k \left(\frac{m}{\gcd(a, m)} \right) \bmod m$ with $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \gcd(a, m) - 1$

Continued example above, $\gcd(4, 50) = 2 \Rightarrow 2$ solutions and $\frac{m}{\gcd(a, m)} = \frac{50}{2} = 25$

So, $x \equiv 14 + 25k \Rightarrow x \equiv 14, 39 \bmod 50$

5. Multiplicative Inverses

Definition: if $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ then the unique solution to $ax \equiv 1 \bmod m$ is the multiplicative inverse of $a \bmod m$

6. Exponent notation:

- $a^{-b} \equiv (a^{-1})^b \bmod m$ (provided $\gcd(a, m) = 1$ so it has an inverse)
- $a^{-b} \equiv (a^b)^{-1} \bmod m$
- $a^0 \equiv 1 \bmod m$

7. Finalé: mod $p =$ prime, then all of $\{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ have multiplicative inverse

Otherwise, not obvious. For example, $m = 10$, then only 1, 3, 7, 9 have m.i

4.3 Chinese Remainder Theorem

Example: $x \equiv 2 \bmod 6$, $x \equiv 4 \bmod 7$, $x \equiv 3 \bmod 25$

Notice, 6, 7, 25 are pairwise coprime. So, $M = (6)(7)(25) = 1050$

Then $M_1 = (7)(25) = 175$

$M_2 = (6)(25) = 150$

$M_3 = (6)(7) = 42$

Solve $175y_1 \equiv 1 \bmod 6$

$150y_2 \equiv 1 \bmod 7$

$42y_3 \equiv 1 \bmod 25$

$\Rightarrow y_1 = 1, y_2 = 5, y_3 = 3$

$\Rightarrow x = (2)(175)(1) + (4)(150)(5) + (3)(42)(3) = 3728$

We can reduce to get $x \equiv 578 \bmod 1050$