

# Number Theory

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## Organizatorial stuff

Dates (in TUGrazOnline):

Mon	14:15–15:45	C208	Exercises (starting 19.10. first exercise class)
Tue	14:15–15:45	C307	Lecture (starting 20.10. first (real) lecture)
Wed	08:15–09:45	C208	Lecture

From now until 15.12. lectures by Martin Widmer. Then C. Frei.

End: oral exams

Exercises: Find details on website of the instructor Dijana Kreso. [math.tugraz.at/~kreso](http://math.tugraz.at/~kreso)

## 0 Basics

$$\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \dots\} \tag{1}$$

$$\mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \tag{2}$$

$$\mathbb{Z} = \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\} \tag{3}$$

## 0.1 Divisibility

**Definition 1.** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  $a$  divides  $b$  (written  $a \mid b$ ) if  $\exists q \in \mathbb{Z} : b = qa$ .  
Some properties: Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then the following statements hold:

$$a \mid b \Rightarrow ac \mid bc \quad (4)$$

$$a \mid b \wedge b \mid c \Rightarrow a \mid c \quad (5)$$

$$a \mid b \wedge b \mid a \Leftrightarrow a = b \quad (6)$$

$$a \mid b \wedge a \mid c \Rightarrow a \mid (b + c) \quad (7)$$

**Definition 2** (Remainder). Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then there are unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$a = qb + r \text{ and } 0 \leq r < b.$$

**Remark 1.** 1.  $b \mid a \Leftrightarrow r = 0$

2.  $q = \lfloor \frac{a}{b} \rfloor$  (largest integer  $\leq \frac{a}{b}$ )

3. we will sometimes write:  $a \bmod b := c$

**Definition 3.** Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, d \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  $d$  is a greatest common divisor (gcd) of  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  if  $d \mid a_i \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$ , and for every  $e \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $e \mid a_i \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$ ,  $e \mid d$ .

**Remark 2.** 1. a gcd of  $a_1, \dots, a_n$  is unique up to sign

2. we write  $d = \gcd(a_1, \dots, a_n)$  if  $d$  is a gcd of  $a_1, \dots, a_n$

3. for  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , a gcd exists and can be written as a linear combination of  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , i.e.,  $\exists x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$\gcd(a_1, \dots, a_n) = x_1 a_1 + \dots + x_n a_n$$

4.  $\gcd(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \gcd(\gcd(a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}), a_n)$

5. if  $a \mid bc$  and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  then  $a \mid c$ .

6. let  $a' := \frac{a}{\gcd(a, b)}$ ,  $b' = \frac{b}{\gcd(a, b)}$ . Then  $\gcd(a', b') = 1$

---

**Algorithm 1** Compute the gcd of two integers: Euclidean algorithm

---

**Given:**  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ .  $|a| \geq |b|$

**Find:**  $a := \gcd(a, b)$

replace  $a$  by  $|a|$ ,  $b$  by  $|b|$

**while**  $b \neq 0$  **do**

    write  $a = qb + r$ ,  $0 \leq r < b$

$a := b$

$b := r$

**end while**

**return**  $a$

---

Hier verwendest du  $:=$ , sonst aber nur  $=$ , evtl. einheitlich machen für alle Definitionen?

The algorithm is correct, since  $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$ .

The algorithm terminates because  $b$  decreases in each step.

The algorithm is fast: ( $\mathcal{O}(\log b)$ )

The Euclidean algorithm also allows us to find  $x, y$  such that  $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$  by doing all computations backwards.

**Example 1.**  $\gcd(56, 22) = ?$

$$\begin{aligned}
 a &= 56, b = 22 \\
 56 &= 2 \cdot 22 + 12 \\
 a &= 22, b = 12 \neq 0 \\
 22 &= 1 \cdot 12 + 10 \\
 a &= 12, b = 10 \neq 0 \\
 12 &= 1 \cdot 10 + 2 \\
 a &= 10, b = 2 \neq 0 \\
 10 &= 5 \cdot 2 + 0 \\
 a &= 2, b = 0 & \Rightarrow \gcd(56, 22) = 2
 \end{aligned}$$

sollte aus-  
gebessert  
werden, 1.  
 $O(\log n)$   
steps, 2.  
stimmt  
nur wenn  
 $|r| \leq b/2$

Doing the computations backwards:

$$\begin{aligned}
 2 &= 12 - 10 = 12 - (22 - 12) = -22 + 2 \cdot 12 = -22 + 2(56 - 2 \cdot 22) = 2 \cdot 56 - 5 \cdot 22 \\
 x &= 2, y = -5
 \end{aligned}$$

**Application** (linear diophantine equations). Let  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a, b, c \neq 0$ . Find all  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  which satisfy

$$ax + by = c. \quad (8)$$

**Existence of solution** let  $d = \gcd(a, b)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 (d \mid a \Rightarrow d \mid xa) \wedge (d \mid b \Rightarrow d \mid yb) \\
 \Rightarrow d \mid xa + yb = c \\
 \Rightarrow \text{eq. (8)}
 \end{aligned}$$

can have solutions only if  $d \mid c$ .

**Solution in case  $d = 1$**  Let  $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $ax_0 + by_0 = 1$  using the Euclidean algorithm. Then from  $acx_0 + bcy_0 = c$  the solution  $(cx_0, cy_0)$  of (eq. (8)) follows: for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ :  $(x, y) := (cx_0 + nb, cy_0 + na)$  is a solution.

Indeed,

$$ax + by = acx_0 + anb + bcy_0 - bna = c \quad \checkmark$$

These  $(x, y)$  are all solutions: let  $(x, y)$  be a solution. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 ax + by &= c \\
 acx_0 + bcy_0 &= c \\
 \Rightarrow a(x - cx_0) &= b(cy_0 - y) \\
 \gcd(a, b) = 1 &\Rightarrow b \mid x - cx_0 \Rightarrow x = cx_0 + nb, n \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 \Rightarrow a \mid cy_0 - y &\Rightarrow y = cy_0 + ma, m \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 c = ax + by &= acx_0 + anb + bcy_0 + bma \\
 &= c + (n + m)ab \Rightarrow (n + m)ab = 0 \Rightarrow m = -n
 \end{aligned}$$

**Solutions in the general case** Assume  $d = \gcd(a, b)$  and  $d \mid c$ , let

$$a' = \frac{a}{d} \quad b' = \frac{b}{d} \quad c' := \frac{c}{d}$$

Then  $\gcd(a', b') = 1$  and the solution to (eq. (8)) is exactly the solution of  $a'x + b'y = c'$ .

## 0.2 Primes

**Definition 4.**  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $p > 1$  is a prime number if the only positive divisors of  $p$  are 1 and  $p$ , i.e.,  $a \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $a \mid p \Rightarrow a \in \{1, p\}$ .  $\mathbb{P} := \{\text{primes}\} \subset \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\mathbb{P} = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, \dots\}$ .  $p$  prime and  $p \mid ab \Rightarrow p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$

**Theorem 1** (Fundamental theorem of arithmetic). Every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  can be written uniquely (up to reordering) as a product of primes. i.e. there are distinct primes  $p_1, \dots, p_l$ , and  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_l \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_l^{\alpha_l}$

*Sketch.*

**Existence** let  $p_0 > 1$  be the smallest divisor  $> 1$  of  $n$ . Then  $p_0$  is prime.  $n = p_0 n_0$ , induction  $\checkmark$

**Uniqueness** let  $p_1 \dots p_m = q_1 \dots q_l = n$ ,  $p_i, q_j$  primes.  $p_1 \mid q_1 \dots q_l \Rightarrow \exists i : p_1 \mid q_i$ , both prime  $\Rightarrow p_1 = q_i$ , wlog:  $i = 1$ .  $p_1 \dots p_m = q_1 \dots q_l$ , induction  $\checkmark$

□

**Theorem 2** (Euclid). There are  $\infty$ -many primes.

*Proof.* Given primes  $p_1, \dots, p_n \in \mathbb{P}$ . We construct one more prime

$$N := p_1 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1.$$

Assume  $P$  is a prime factor of  $N$ . If  $P \in \{p_1, \dots, p_n\}$  then  $P \mid N$  and  $P \mid p_1 \dots p_n \Rightarrow P \mid 1$   $\nmid$  □

**Remark 3** (prime factors and gcds). Let  $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , write

$$a_i = \prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}} p^{\alpha_{p,i}}, \quad \alpha_{p,i} \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

almost all  $a_i = 0$ , then

$$\gcd(a_1, \dots, a_n) = \prod_{p \in \mathbb{P}} p^{\min_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{\alpha_{p,i}\}}$$

## 0.3 Congruences

All rings are commutative with 1.

**Definition 5.** Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $a$  is congruent to  $b \pmod{n}$ ,  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ , if  $n \mid a - b$ . We write  $\bar{a} = [a]_n := \{b \in \mathbb{Z} : b \equiv a \pmod{n}\}$

**Remark 4.** 1. Congruence  $\text{mod } n$  is an equivalence relation

1. Beistriche für bessere Lesbarkeit  
2. faustregel, vor und nach "i.e." gehört eigentlich beistrich

2.  $\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}$  is a partition of  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

3. if  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$ ,  $c \equiv d \pmod{n}$ , then  $-a \equiv -b \pmod{n}$ ,  $a + d \equiv b + d \pmod{n}$ .

**Definition 6.**  $\mathbb{Z}/n\mathbb{Z} = \mathbb{Z}_n := \{[a]_n : a \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}$  residue class ring modulo  $n$

**Remark 5.**  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  is a ring with operation  $\bar{a} + \bar{b} := \overline{a+b}$  (well defined due to item 3 of Remark 4)  $\mathbb{Z}_n^\times = \{\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \exists \bar{b} \in \mathbb{Z}_n : \bar{a}\bar{b} = \bar{1}\}$  ... group of units mod  $n$

**Lemma 1.** Let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $\bar{a} \in \mathbb{Z}_n^\times \Leftrightarrow \gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

*Proof.*

“ $\Rightarrow$ ”  $\bar{a}\bar{b} = \bar{1} \Leftrightarrow ab \equiv 1 \pmod{n} \Leftrightarrow n \mid ab - 1$   
 $\Rightarrow$  no prime factor of  $n$  divides  $a$   
 $\Rightarrow \gcd(a, n) = 1$ .

“ $\Leftarrow$ ”  $1 = \gcd(a, n) = ax + ny \Rightarrow \bar{1} = \bar{a}\bar{x}$

□

**Remark 6.** The inverse of  $\bar{a}$  can be computed by the Euclidean algorithm.

**Example 2** (Simultaneous congruences). Find  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \tag{9}$$

$$x \equiv 1 \pmod{5} \tag{10}$$

$$x \equiv 0 \pmod{7} \tag{11}$$

**Theorem 3** (Chinese remainder theorem (CRT)). Let

$$n_1, \dots, n_l \in \mathbb{N} \text{ subject to } \gcd(n_i, n_j) = 1 \ \forall i \neq j$$

$$x_1, \dots, x_l \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Then

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } x \equiv x_i \pmod{n_i} \ \forall 1 \leq i \leq l$$

where  $x$  is unique modulo  $n_1 \cdots n_l$ .

*Proof.* How to compute  $x$ ? For  $i \in \{1, \dots, l\}$ , let

$$N_i := \prod_{j \neq i} n_j = n_1 \dots n_{i-1} n_{i+1} \dots n_l$$

and let

$$N := \prod_i n_i = n_1 N_1 = n_2 N_2 = \dots = n_l N_l$$

because  $\gcd(n_i, N_i) = 1 \Rightarrow N_i$  is invertible mod  $n_i$ . Let

$$m_i N_i \equiv 1 \pmod{n_i}$$

and let

$$x := N_1 m_1 x_1 + \dots + N_l m_l x_l.$$

We have  $N_i m_i x_i \equiv 0 \pmod{n_j, j \neq i}$

□

**Example 3.**

$$\begin{aligned}
n_1 &= 3, & n_2 &= 5, & n_3 &= 7 \\
x_1 &= 2, & x_2 &= 1, & x_3 &= 0 \\
N_1 &= 35, & N_2 &= 21, & N_3 &=? \\
\bar{m}_1 &= \overline{35}^{-1} \pmod{3} = \bar{2}^{-1} \pmod{3} = \bar{2} \pmod{3} \Rightarrow m_1 = 2 \\
\bar{m}_2 &= \overline{21}^{-1} \pmod{5} = \bar{1}^{-1} \pmod{5} = \bar{1} \pmod{5} \Rightarrow m_2 = 1 \\
x &= 35 \cdot 2 \cdot 2 + 21 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 + 0 \\
&= 140 + 21 \\
&= 161 \\
&\equiv 56 \pmod{105}
\end{aligned}$$

**Example 4** (more abstract CRT). Let  $n_1, \dots, n_l \in \mathbb{N}$ , with  $\gcd(n_i, n_j) = 1$   $\forall i \neq j$ . There is a ring isomorphism  $f : \mathbb{Z}_{n_1 \dots n_l} \xrightarrow{\cong} \mathbb{Z}_{n_1} \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_l}$  that satisfies  $f([a]_{n_1 \dots n_l}) = ([a]_{n_1}, \dots, [a]_{n_l}) \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . In particular:  $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1 \dots n_l}^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}_{n_1}^\times \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{n_l}^\times$  (restrict  $f$  to  $\mathbb{Z}_{n_1 \dots n_l}^\times$ )

## 0.4 Arithmetic functions

**Definition 7.**  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is an arithmetic function.  $f$  is multiplicative if  $\forall m, n$  it holds that  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ . We have  $f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$ .  $f$  is completely multiplicative if  $\forall m, n : f(mn) = f(m)f(n)$ . Let  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Its summatory function is  $S_f(n) := \sum_{d|n} f(d)$ .

*Proof.* If  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$  and  $d \mid mn$ , then  $\exists$  unique  $d_1, d_2$  such that  $d = d_1 \cdot d_2$  with  $d_1 \mid m, d_2 \mid n$ .

$$S_f(mn) = \sum_{d|mn} f(d) = \sum_{d_1|m} \sum_{d_2|n} f(d_1 d_2) = \sum_{d_1|m} f(d_1) \sum_{d_2|n} f(d_2) = S_f(m) S_f(n)$$

□

**Example 5.**

$$\begin{aligned}
\tau(n) &:= S_1(n) = \sum_{d|n} 1 && \dots \text{number of divisors of } n \\
\sigma(n) &:= S_{id}(n) = \sum_{d|n} d && \dots \text{divisor sum of } n
\end{aligned}$$

**Definition 8.** The function  $\phi(n) := |\mathbb{Z}_n^\times|$  is called Euler's  $\phi$ -function.

**Remark 7.** 1.  $\phi(n) = |\{0 \leq a < n : \gcd(a, n) = 1\}|$

2.  $\phi$  is multiplicative (CRT:  $\gcd(m, n) = 1$ .  $\mathbb{Z}_{nm}^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}_n^\times \times \mathbb{Z}_m^\times$ )

3.  $\phi(p) = p - 1$  ( $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is a field)

**Lemma 2.**  $\phi(p^n) = p^n - p^{n-1}$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}\phi(p^n) &= |\{0 \leq a < p^n\}| - |\{0 \leq a < p^n : \gcd(a, p^n) \neq 1\}| \\ &= p^n - |\{0 \leq a < p^n : p|a\}| \\ &= p^n - p^{n-1}\end{aligned}$$

□

**Proposition 1.** *If  $n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_l^{\alpha_l}$  with  $p_i \neq p_j$  primes,  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then*

$$\phi(n) = \prod_{i=1}^l p_i^{\alpha_i} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p_i}\right) = n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$

**Theorem 4** (Euler-Fermat). *Then  $a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$ . In particular:  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod p \forall p \nmid a$  (little Fermat).*

*Proof 1.* Lagrange's Theorem,  $G = \mathbb{Z}_n^\times$ ,  $\bar{a} \in G \Rightarrow \bar{a}^{|G|} = \bar{1}$ ,  $|G| = \phi(n)$ . □

*Proof 2.*  $\prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^\times} x = \prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^\times} (\bar{a}x) = \bar{a}^{\phi(n)} \prod_{x \in \mathbb{Z}_n^\times} x \Rightarrow a^{\phi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod n$  □

**Definition 9.** *The Möbius function  $\mu : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \{-1, 0, +1\}$  is defined as*

$$\mu(n) = \begin{cases} (-1)^l & n = p_1 \dots p_l, p_i \neq p_j, i \neq j, p_i \text{ primes} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise i.e. if } \exists p : p^2 \mid n \end{cases}$$

**Remark 8.**

1.  $\mu(1) = 1, \mu(2) = -1, \mu(3) = -1, \mu(4) = 0, \mu(5) = -1, \mu(6) = 1, \dots$
2.  $\mu$  is multiplicative

**Lemma 3.**

$$S_\mu(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

*Proof.*

$$S_\mu(1) = \sum_{d|1} \mu(d) = \mu(1) = 1$$

By multiplicativity, it suffices to prove  $S_\mu(p^n) = 0 \forall p, n$ .

$$\begin{aligned}S_\mu(p^n) &= \sum_{d|p^n} \mu(d) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n \mu(p^i) \\ &= \mu(1) + \mu(p) + 0 + \dots + 0 \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 5** (Möbius inversion formula). *Let  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ . Then*

$$f(n) = \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) S_f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right).$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) S_f\left(\frac{n}{d}\right) &= \sum_{d|n} \mu(d) \sum_{e|\frac{n}{d}} f(e) \\ &= \sum_{e|n} f(e) \sum_{\substack{d|n \\ s.t. e|\frac{n}{d}}} \mu(d)\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{For the next step we use } d | n \wedge e | \frac{n}{d} &\Leftrightarrow ed | n \Leftrightarrow e | n \wedge d | \frac{n}{e} \\ &= \sum_{e|n} f(e) \sum_{d|\frac{n}{e}} \mu(d) \\ &= f(n)\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{since } \sum_{d|\frac{n}{e}} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 1 & \frac{n}{e} = 1 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

□

## 0.5 Structure of $\mathbb{Z}_n^\times$

$n = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_l^{\alpha_l}$  with  $p_i \neq p_j, i \neq j, \alpha_i \in \mathbb{N}$  where  $p_i$  are primes

From the CRT it follows that  $\mathbb{Z}_n^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p_1^{\alpha_1}}^\times \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{p_l^{\alpha_l}}^\times$ . So we only consider prime powers  $p^\alpha, p \in \mathbb{P}, \alpha \in \mathbb{N}$

### 0.5.1 Case 1: $\alpha = 1$

**Theorem 6.**  $\mathbb{Z}_p^\times$  is cyclic, i.e.  $\mathbb{Z}_p^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}_{(p-1)}$

*Proof.* Use structure theorem for finite abelian groups. If  $G$  is a finite abelian group then  $\exists d_1, \dots, d_l \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $1 < d_1 | d_2 | d_3 | \dots | d_l$ , and  $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d_1}^\times \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_l}^\times$  thus,  $\mathbb{Z}_p^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}_{d_1}^\times \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_l}^\times$  (every element  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_{d_1}^\times \times \dots \times \mathbb{Z}_{d_l}^\times$  satisfies  $d_l x = 0 \Rightarrow$  every  $x \in \mathbb{Z}_p^\times$  satisfies  $x^{d_l} = 1$ ).  $x^{d_l} - 1$  is a polynomial of degree  $d_l$  over the field  $\mathbb{Z}_p \Rightarrow x^{d_l} - 1$  has  $\leq d_l$  roots  $\Rightarrow p-1 \leq d_l$ , but  $p-1 = d_1 \dots d_l \Rightarrow l = 1, p-1 = d_1$  □

**Remark 9.** The same proof shows: Let  $F$  be a field,  $G \leq F^\times, |G| < \infty$ . Then  $G$  is cyclic.

### 0.5.2 Case 2: $\alpha \geq 2; p \geq 3$

Denote  $|x|$  as the order of  $x$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^\alpha}^\times$ ; i.e.  $|x| = \min \{l \in \mathbb{N} : x^l \equiv 1 \pmod{p^\alpha}\}$

$|\mathbb{Z}_{p^\alpha}^\times| = \phi(p^\alpha) = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)$ , find  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}_{p^\alpha}^\times$  such that  $|x| = p^{\alpha-1}, |y| = p-1$  then  $|xy| = |x||y| = p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)$ , since  $\gcd(|x|, |y|) = 1$

**Lemma 4.**

$$(1+p)^{p^{n-1}} \begin{cases} \equiv 1 \pmod{p^n} \\ \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p^{n+1}} \end{cases}$$

*Proof.* Proof by induction

$n = 1$  ✓



$n \rightarrow n+1$

$$\begin{aligned}(1+p)^{p^{n-1}} &= 1 + ap^n, p \nmid a \\ (1+p)^{p^n} &= (1+ap^n)^p \\ &= 1 + pap^n + \sum_{i=2}^{p-1} \binom{p}{i} (ap^n)^i + (ap^n)^p\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}p^{np} \mid \bullet, \quad np \geq n+2, \quad (\text{or } p \geq 3), \quad p^{2n+1} \mid \bullet, \quad 2n+1 \geq n+2 \\ p \mid \binom{p}{i} = \frac{p!}{i!(p-i)!}, 1 \leq i < p \Rightarrow (1+p)^{p^n} \equiv 1 + ap^{n+1} \pmod{p^{n+2}}, p \nmid a\end{aligned}$$

□

2× Lemma:  $x = 1 + p$  satisfies  $|x| = p^{\alpha-1}$ , now find  $y$ .

1.  $\exists z \in \mathbb{Z} : |\bar{z}| = p-1$  is  $\mathbb{Z}_p^\times$
2. let  $l := |E|$  is  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^\alpha}^\times$
3. Then  $p^\alpha \mid z^l - 1 \Rightarrow z^l \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$
4.  $\Rightarrow p-1 \mid l$ .
5. Let  $y := z^{\frac{l}{p-1}}$ , then  $|\bar{y}| = p-1$ .

We have proven: Theorem:  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^\alpha}^\times$  is cyclic, i.e.  $\mathbb{Z}_{p^\alpha}^\times \cong \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha-1}(p-1)}$ , if  $p \geq 3, \alpha \geq 1$ .  
 $p = 2$ :  $\mathbb{Z}_{2^\alpha}^\times \cong \{0, \alpha = 1 \quad \mathbb{Z}_2, \alpha = 2 \quad \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{p^{\alpha-2}}, \alpha \geq 3\}$

**Corollary 1.** Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\mathbb{Z}_m^\times$  is cyclic iff  $m$  has one of the following forms:

- $m = 2$
- $m = 4$
- $m = p^\alpha, p \geq 3, \alpha \in \mathbb{N}$
- $m = 2p^\alpha, p \geq 3, \alpha \in \mathbb{N}$

In these cases a generator of  $\mathbb{Z}_m^\times$  is called a *primitive root modulo  $m$* .

## New Lecturer

Chapter 1:

1. Approximation to algebraic numbers; Wolfgang M. Schmidt, 1972 L'Ehseignement Mathématique
2. Lectures Notes in Mathematics 785; W.M.Schmidt, Springer
3. LNM 1467, W.M.S., Springer
4. For section 2 (continued fractions) he will strictly follow the lecture notes of MT421 of Professor James McKee

# 1 Diophantine Approximation

## 1.1 Dirichlet's Theorem

Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . As  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$  any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  can be approximated arbitrarily well, by rational numbers  $p/q$  ( $p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ).

The question is how well can we approximate  $\alpha$  in terms of the denominator  $q$ , e.g., is it true that for every  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  there exist infinitely many  $p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$  ( $q \in \mathbb{N}$ ) such that  $|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}| < \frac{1}{q^2}$ ?

The answer is no!

Take  $\alpha = r/s$  ( $s \in \mathbb{N}$ ) a rational number. Then

$$|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}| = |\frac{r}{s} - \frac{p}{q}| = |\frac{qr - ps}{sq}| \stackrel{\geq}{\geq} \frac{p}{q} \frac{1}{sq} > \frac{1}{q^2} \text{ provided } q > s.$$

This shows that we have only finitely many solutions  $p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$  for  $|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}| < \frac{1}{q^2}$ .

**Theorem 7** (1.1.1 Dirichlet's Theorem). *Suppose  $\alpha, Q \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $Q > 1$ . Then  $\exists p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$  s.t.  $0 < q < Q$  and  $|q\alpha - p| \leq \frac{1}{Q}$ .*

*Proof.* for  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$  put  $\{\xi\} = \xi - \lfloor \xi \rfloor$ . so  $0 \leq \{\xi\} < 1$ . First suppose  $Q \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Consider the  $Q+1$  numbers  $0, 1, \{\alpha\}, \{2\alpha\}, \dots, \{(Q-1)\alpha\}$ .

They all lie in  $[0, 1]$ . We split it up in  $Q$  subintervals:

$$[0, 1] = [0, \frac{1}{Q}] \cup [\frac{1}{Q}, \frac{2}{Q}] \cup \dots \cup [\frac{Q-1}{Q}, 1]$$

By the pigeon hole principle two of the previous numbers lie in the same subinterval. Thus  $\exists r_1, r_2, s_1, s_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $0 \leq r_1 < r_2 \leq Q-1$  such that  $|(r_1\alpha - s_1) - (r_2\alpha - s_2)| \leq \frac{1}{Q}$ . Then with  $q = r_2 - r_1$  and  $p = s_2 - s_1$  we get  $|q\alpha - p| \leq \frac{1}{Q}$  and  $0 < q < Q$ . This proves the Theorem when  $Q \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Now suppose  $Q \notin \mathbb{Z}$ . We apply the previous with  $Q' = \lfloor Q \rfloor + 1 > 1$ . Hence,  $\exists p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $|q\alpha - p| \leq \frac{1}{Q'}$  and  $0 < q < Q'$ , and so  $|q\alpha - p| \leq \frac{1}{Q}$  and  $0 < q < Q$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 2** (1.1.2). *Suppose  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q}$ . Then there exist infinitely many solutions  $p/q \in \mathbb{Q}$  ( $q \in \mathbb{N}$ ) of  $|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}| < \frac{1}{q^2}$ .*

*Proof.* Take  $Q_1 > 1$ . By Theorem 1.1.1 we get  $(p_1, q_1) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  with  $0 < q_1 < Q_1$ , and  $|q_1\alpha - p_1| \leq \frac{1}{Q_1}$ . Thus  $|\alpha - \frac{p_1}{q_1}| \leq \frac{1}{q_1 Q_1} < \frac{1}{q_1^2}$ .

Next take  $Q_2 = |\alpha - \frac{p_1}{q_1}|^{-1} + 1$ . Then Thm 1.1.1 again yields  $\frac{p_2}{q_2} \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $|\alpha - \frac{p_2}{q_2}| < \frac{1}{q_2^2}$  and  $|\alpha - \frac{p_2}{q_2}| \leq \frac{1}{q_1 Q_2} \leq \frac{1}{Q_2} < |\alpha - \frac{p_1}{q_1}|$ . So  $\frac{p_2}{q_2}$  is a better approx than  $\frac{p_1}{q_1}$ . Repeating this process indefinitely proves the claim.  $\square$

**Theorem 8** (1.1.3 Pell-equation). *Suppose  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  is not a square (i.e.,  $m \neq n^2 \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ).*

*Then*

$$x^2 - my^2 = 1$$

*has infinitely many solutions  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$ .*

*Proof.* Apply Corollary 1.1.2 with  $\alpha = \sqrt{m}$ . So  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q}$ . We get  $|\alpha - \frac{p}{q}| < \frac{1}{q^2}$  and  $|\alpha + \frac{p}{q}| \leq 1 + 2\alpha$ . Thus

$$|p^2 - mq^2| = q^2 \left| \alpha - \frac{p}{q} \right| \cdot \left| \alpha + \frac{p}{q} \right| < 1 + 2\sqrt{m}.$$

Hence, there exists  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $|k| < 1 + 2\sqrt{m}$  such that  $p^2 - mq^2 = k$  for infinitely many  $(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  and  $p/q$  all distinct. As  $m$  is not a square we have  $k \neq 0$ .

Let  $S$  be the set of solutions  $(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  of  $p^2 - mq^2 = k$ . The map  $S \rightarrow (\mathbb{Z}/k\mathbb{Z}) \times (\mathbb{Z}/k\mathbb{Z})$ . This map is not injective ( $S = \infty$ ) hence,  $\exists (p_1, q_1) \neq (p_2, q_2)$  both in  $S$  such that  $p_1 \equiv p_2, q_1 \equiv q_2 \pmod{k}$ . (MOD)  
Now we compute

$$k^2 = (p_1^2 - mq_1^2)(p_2^2 - mq_2^2) \quad (12)$$

$$= (p_1 + \sqrt{m}q_1)(p_2 - \sqrt{m}q_2) \quad (13)$$

$$= (r - \sqrt{m}s)(r + \sqrt{m}s) = r^2 - ms^2 \quad (14)$$

$$\text{where } r = p_1p_2 - mq_1q_2 \quad (15)$$

$$s = p_1q_2 - q_1p_2 = \frac{1}{q_1q_2} \left( \frac{p_1}{q_1} - \frac{p_2}{q_2} \right) \neq 0. \quad (16)$$

because of (MOD)  $k \mid s$ . Hence,  $k^2 \mid s^2$ . Thus  $k^2 \mid r^2$ . Hence  $k \mid r$ . Then  $x = \frac{r}{k}$  and  $y = \frac{s}{k}$  are both integers and

$$x^2 - my^2 = 1.$$

We have one solution but we need infinitely many! To this end we replace  $m$  by  $md^2$  ( $d \in \mathbb{N}$ ). The above argument yields a solution  $(x', y') \in \mathbb{Z}^2$  of  $x'^2 - md^2y'^2 = 1$ . Thus,  $(x, y) = (x', dy')$  is a new solution of  $x^2 - my^2 = 1$ .  
(Critical:  $s \neq 0$ ) □

## 1.2 Continued fractions

Let  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Put  $a_0 = \lfloor \theta \rfloor$ . If  $a_0 \neq \theta$  then we find  $\theta_1 > 1$  such that

$$\theta = a_0 + \frac{1}{\theta_1}$$

and we put  $a_1 = \lfloor \theta_1 \rfloor$ . If  $a_1 \neq \theta_1$  then we can find  $\theta_2 > 1$  such that

$$\theta_1 = a_1 + \frac{1}{\theta_2}$$

and we put  $a_2 = \lfloor \theta_2 \rfloor$ . This process can be continued indefinitely, unless  $a_n = \theta_n$  for some  $n$ . Note that  $a_0$  can be zero or negative but  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  are all positive integers.

We call this process the *continued fraction process*. The  $a_i$  are called *partial quotients* of  $\theta$ .

**Example 6.**

$$\theta = \frac{19}{11}$$

Then  $a_0 = \lfloor \theta \rfloor = 1$

Now  $\theta = \frac{19}{11} = a_0 + \frac{1}{\theta_1} = 1 + \frac{8}{11} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{11}{8}}$

So  $\theta_1 = \frac{11}{8}$ .

Thus  $a_1 = \lfloor \theta_1 \rfloor = 1$ .

Now

$$\theta_1 = \frac{11}{8} = a_1 + \frac{1}{\theta_2} = 1 + \frac{3}{8} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{8}{3}}$$

Thus  $\theta_2 = \frac{8}{3}$  and  $a_2 = \lfloor \theta_2 \rfloor = 2$

and so on...

If the continued fraction process terminates then we have

$$\theta = a_0 + \frac{1}{\theta_1} \quad (17)$$

$$= a_0 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{\theta_2}} \quad (18)$$

$$= a_0 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{a_3 + \frac{1}{\theta_3}}} \quad \dots = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{\dots}} \quad (19)$$

In this case we write  $\theta = [a_0, \dots, a_n]$ .

We use the same notation when the  $a_i$  are any real numbers, not necessarily integers.

In particular

$$\theta = [a_0, \dots, a_i, \theta_{i+1}]$$

where  $a \leq i < n$ .

If the continued fraction process does not terminate then we write  $\theta = [a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]$ .

Note that in this case, for every  $n \geq 0$ , we have

$$\theta = [a_0, \dots, a_n, \theta_{n+1}]$$

where  $a_0, \dots, a_n$  are integers but  $\theta_{n+1}$  is not! For  $n \geq 0$  we set

$$\frac{p_n}{q_n} = [a_0, \dots, a_n]$$

where  $\gcd(p_n, q_n) = 1$ . We shall say that  $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$  is the  $n$ -th convergent of  $\theta$ . We will prove that  $\frac{p_n}{q_n} \rightarrow \theta$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Next we shall see that  $p_n, q_n > 0$  both satisfy the same simple recurrence relation  $x_n = a_n x_{n-1} + x_{n-2}$  with different starting values.

**Lemma 5.** Let  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$  be a sequence of integers with  $a_i > 0$  ( $i > 0$ ).

Define  $p_n, q_n$ :

$$p_0 = a_0 \quad (20)$$

$$q_0 = 1 \quad (21)$$

$$p_1 = a_0 a_1 + 1 \quad (22)$$

$$q_1 = a_1 \quad (23)$$

$$p_n = a_n p_{n-1} + p_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2 \quad (24)$$

$$q_n = a_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2. \quad (25)$$

Then:

$$1. \ p_n q_{n+1} - p_{n+1} q_n = (-1)^{n+1}$$

$$2. \ \gcd(p_n, q_n) = 1$$

$$3. \ p_n/q_n = [a_0, \dots, a_n]$$

4. If the  $a_i$  are produced by the continued fraction process for  $\theta$ , then, for every  $n \geq 1$ ,  $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$  is the  $n$ -th convergent of  $\theta$  and

$$\theta = \frac{p_n \theta_{n+1} + p_{n-1}}{q_n \theta_{n+1} + q_{n-1}}$$

*Proof.* 1. We use induction on  $n$ . For  $n = 0$  we note that

$$p_0 q_1 - p_1 q_0 = a_0 a_1 - a_0 a_1 - 1 = -1.$$

So result 1 holds for  $n = 0$ .

Now suppose result holds for  $n = m - 1$ .

consider case  $n = m$ . Using the recurrence relation, we set

$$p_m q_{m+1} - p_{m+1} q_m = p_m (a_m q_m + q_{m-1}) - q_m (a_m p_m + p_{m-1}) \quad (26)$$

$$= p_m q_{m-1} - p_{m-1} q_m = -(-1)^m = (-1)^{m+1}. \quad (27)$$

This proves claim for  $n = m$ .

2. Immediate from (a)

3. (c) + (d):

Remark about  $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$  in (d) follows directly from (c). We prove the rest of (d), along with (c), using induction on  $n$ . Remember that (c) a priori does not require that the  $a_i$  are produced by the continued fraction process. Consider base case  $n = 1$ . For (c) note that  $\frac{p_1}{q_1} = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1} = [a_0, a_1]$ . For (d) we note that

$$\frac{p_1 \theta_2 + p_0}{q_1 \theta_2 + q_0} = \frac{(a_0 a_1 + 1) \theta_2 + a_0}{a_1 \theta_2 + 1} = a_0 + \frac{\theta_2}{a_1 \theta_2 + 1} = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{\theta_2}} = \theta$$

Next suppose (c) and (d) both hold for  $n = m - 1$ , and consider  $n = m$ .

Using (d) with  $n = m - 1$  we get

$$[a_0, \dots, a_m] = \frac{p_{m-1} a_m + p_{m-2}}{q_{m-1} a_m + q_{m-2}} = \frac{p_m}{q_m} \text{ by recurrence relation.}$$

This proves (c) for  $n = m$ .

To prove (d) with  $n = m$  we observe that

$$\theta = [a_0, \dots, a_m, \theta m + 1] \quad (28)$$

$$= [a_0, \dots, a_m + \frac{1}{\theta_{m+1}}] \quad (29)$$

$$(d) \text{ for } n = m - 1 \frac{p_{m-1}(a_m + \frac{1}{\theta_{m+1}}) + p_{m-2}}{q_{m-1}(a_m \frac{1}{\theta_{m-1}}) + q_{m-2}} \quad (30)$$

$$= \text{rec.rel} \frac{p_m + p_{m-1}(\frac{1}{\theta_{m+1}})}{q_m + q_{m-1}(\frac{1}{\theta_{m+1}})} \quad (31)$$

$$= \frac{p_m \theta_{m+1} + p_{m-1}}{q_m \theta_{m+1} + q_{m-1}} \quad (32)$$

which is (d) for  $n = m$ . □

Next we deduce some properties of continued fraction convergents.

**Theorem 9** (1.2.2). *Let  $\theta = [a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots]$  with convergents  $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$ . For (a) - (d) we assume that the continued fraction process does not terminate*

1. For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ ,  $\theta$  lies between  $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$  and  $\frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}}$ .
2. For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0 : |\theta - \frac{p_n}{q_n}| \leq \frac{1}{q_n q_{n+1}}$
3. For  $n \geq 1$  we have  $q_{n+2} \geq 2 \cdot q_n$
4.  $\frac{p_n}{q_n} \rightarrow \theta$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$
5. The continued fraction process terminates if and only if  $\theta$  is rational.

*Proof.* 1. Note  $\theta = [a_0, \dots, a_n, \theta_{n+1}] = [a_0, \dots, a_n + \frac{1}{\theta_{n+1}}]$  where  $0 < \frac{1}{\theta_{n+1}} < \frac{1}{a_{n+1}}$ . So that  $\theta$  lies between  $[a_0, \dots, a_n]$  and  $[a_0, \dots, a_n + \frac{1}{a_{n+1}}]$ . But  $[a_0, \dots, a_n + \frac{1}{a_{n+1}}] = [a_0, \dots, a_{n+1}]$ . This shows (a).

2. By (a) we have  $|\theta - \frac{p_n}{q_n}| \leq |\frac{p_n}{q_n} - \frac{p_{n+1}}{q_{n+1}}| = |\frac{p_n q_{n+1} - p_{n+1} q_n}{q_n q_{n+1}}| \stackrel{\text{Lemma 1.2.1(a)}}{=} \frac{1}{q_n q_{n+1}}$

3. Follows from the fact that  $a_i > 0 (i > 0)$  using Lemma 1.2.1.

4. Follows from (b) and (c)

5. Only if part is obvious.

Conversely suppose  $\theta = \frac{a}{b} \in \mathbb{Q}$  but the process does *not* terminate. Taking  $n$  such that  $q_n > b$  yields

$$|\theta - \frac{p_n}{q_n}| \geq \frac{a}{b} - \frac{p_n}{q_n} \geq \frac{p_n}{q_n} \text{ as } q_n > b \text{ and } \gcd(p_n, q_n) = 1 \geq \frac{1}{b q_n} > \frac{1}{q_n q_{n+1}}$$

contradicting (b). □

**Example 7.** Take  $\theta = \frac{16}{9}$ . We have  $a_0 = 1$ . Then  $\theta = 1 + \frac{7}{9}$  so  $\theta_1 = \frac{9}{7}$  and  $a_1 = 1$ . From  $\theta_1 = \frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{2}{7}$  we get  $\theta_2 = \frac{7}{2}$  and  $a_2 = 3$ . From  $\theta_2 = \frac{7}{2} = 3 + \frac{1}{2}$  we get  $\theta_3 = 2$  and  $a_3 = 2$ . Thus  $\theta = \frac{16}{9} = [1, 1, 3, 2]$  and the convergents are  $\frac{p_0}{q_0} = \frac{1}{1}$ ,  $\frac{p_1}{q_1} = 1 + \frac{1}{1} = \frac{2}{1}$ ,  $\frac{p_2}{q_2} = 1 + \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{3}} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{4}{3}} = \frac{7}{4}$  and  $\frac{p_3}{q_3} = \frac{16}{9}$ .

Let's check some of the properties claimed.

$$p_1q_2 + p_2q_1 = 2 \cdot 4 - 7 \cdot 1 = 1\checkmark, p_2q_3 - p_3q_2 = 7 \cdot 9 - 16 \cdot 4 = -1\checkmark, \frac{p_2\theta_3 + p_1}{q_2\theta_3 + q_1} = \frac{7 \cdot 2 + 2}{4 \cdot 2 + 1} = \frac{16}{9} = \theta\checkmark$$

We now show that convergents give best-possible rational approximations.

**Theorem 10 (1.2.3).** Let  $\theta$  be an irrational real number, and let  $\frac{p_n}{q_n}$  be the convergents ( $n \geq 0$ ) with partial quotients  $a_n (n \geq 0)$ .

Then

1.  $|\theta - \frac{p_n}{q_n}|$  strictly decreases as  $n$  increases.
2. the convergents give successively closer approximations to  $\theta$ .
3.  $\frac{1}{(a_{n+1}+2)q_n^2} < |\theta - \frac{p_n}{q_n}| < \frac{1}{a_{n+1}q_n^2} \leq \frac{1}{q_n^2}$
4. If  $p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $0 < q < q_{n+1}$  then

$$|q\theta - p| \geq |q_n\theta - p_n|$$

(In this sense convergents are best-possible)

5. If  $(p, q) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{N}$  and  $|\theta - \frac{p}{q}| < \frac{1}{2 \cdot q^2}$  then  $\frac{p}{q}$  is a convergent to  $\theta$ .

*Proof.* 1. From Lemma 1.2.1(d) we have  $\theta = \frac{p_n\theta_{n+1} + p_{n-1}}{q_n\theta_{n+1} + q_{n-1}}$ . Using Lemma 1.2.1(a) we get

$$|q_n\theta - p_n| = \left| \frac{q_n p_n \theta_{n+1} + q_n p_{n-1} - p_n q_n \theta_{n+1} - p_n q_{n-1}}{q_n \theta_{n+1} + q_{n-1}} \right| \quad (33)$$

$$= \frac{1}{q_n \theta_{n+1} + q_{n-1}} \quad (34)$$

$$< \frac{1}{q_n + q_{n-1}} \quad (35)$$

$$= \frac{1}{(a_n + 1)q_{n-1} + q_{n-2}} \quad (36)$$

$$< \frac{1}{\theta_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2}} \quad (37)$$

$$= |q_{n-1}\theta - p_{n-1}| \quad (38)$$

This shows (a) and (b) because the  $q_n$  are increasing.

- c We use  $a_{n+1}q_n^2 < \theta_{n+1}q_n^2 + q_n q_{n-1} < (a_{n+1} + 2)q_n^2$  and combine it with the equation (proof part (a)),

$$|\theta - \frac{p}{q}| = \frac{1}{q_n^2 \theta_{n+1} + q_n q_{n-1}}$$

□