MATH406: Introduction to Number Theory

Michael Li

Contents

1 Basics **2**

2 Divisibility **2**
- 2.1 Divisibility . . . 2
- 2.2 Euclid's Theorem . . . 2
- 2.3 The Sieve of Eratosthenes . . . 3
- 2.4 The Division Algorithm . . . 3
- 2.5 The Greatest Common Divisor . . . 3
- 2.6 The Euclidean Algorithm . . . 4
  - 2.6.1 The Extended Euclidean Algorithm . . . 4
- 2.7 Other Bases . . . 6
- 2.8 Fermat and Mersenne Numbers . . . 6

3 Linear Diophantine Equation **7**

4 Unique Factorization **8**

5 Applications of Unique Factorization **10**
- 5.1 A Puzzle . . . 10
- 5.2 Irrationality Proof . . . 10
- 5.3 Rational Root Theorem . . . 11
- 5.4 Pythagorean Triples . . . 11
- 5.5 Difference of Squares . . . 12
- 5.6 Prime Factorization of Factorials . . . 12
- 5.7 Riemann Zeta Function . . . 13

6 Congruences **14**
- 6.1 Definitions and Examples . . . 14
- 6.2 Divisibility Tests . . . 15
- 6.3 Linear Congruences . . . 15
- 6.4 Chinese Remainder Theorem . . . 17
- 6.5 Fractions mod m . . . 18

Notes are based off of *An Introduction to Number Theory with Cryptography* (Second edition), by Washington and Kraft

1 Basics

Well-Ordering Principle: All non-empty subsets of N has a smallest member

- **Note**: This is equivalent to the Principle of Induction

2 Divisibility

2.1 Divisibility

Definition 2.1: Given $a, d \in Z$, for $d \neq 0$, d **divides** a if $\exists c \in Z$ such that $a = cd$

Proposition 2.2: Let $a, b, c \in Z$. If $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c \implies a \mid c$

Proof: $b = ea$ and $c = fb \implies c = (fe)a$

Proposition 2.3: Let $a, b, d, x, y \in Z$. If $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b \implies d \mid ax + by$

Proof: $a = md$ and $b = nd \implies ax + by = d(mx + ny)$

Upshot: Every common divisor of both a, b divides any linear combination of a, b

Corollary 2.4: Let $a, b, d \in Z$. If $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, then $d \mid a + b$ and $d \mid a - b$

Proof: Apply Proposition 2.3 using $x = 1, y = 1$, and $x = 1, y = -1$, respectively

Lemma 2.5: Let $d, n \in N$ and $d \mid n$. Then $d \leq n$

Proof: Since $d \mid n$, we have $k \in Z$ such that $dk = n$

Since $d \in N$, we also must have $k \in N$ (otherwise $n \notin N$)

Thus $n = dk \geq d * 1$

2.2 Euclid's Theorem

Prime: Integer $p \geq 2$ whose divisors are $1, p$

Composite: Integer $n \geq 2$ not prime such that $n = ab$ for $a, b \in Z$ and $1 < a, b, < p$

Lemma 2.6: Every integer greater than 1 is prime or divisible by a prime

Proof 1: If n is NOT prime, then it is divisible by some $a_1 \in Z$ where $1 < a_1 < n$

If a_1 is prime, we are done

Otherwise a_1 is divisible by some $a_2 \in Z$ where $1 < a_2 < a_1 \implies a_2 \mid n$

This creates a decreasing sequence of positive integers, which by the Well Ordering Principle, must have a smallest element a_m

So either some a_i is prime and divides n or we stop at a_m, which is prime. Thus n is divisible by a prime

Proof 2 by Induction: Let $n \in Z, n \geq 2$, and suppose n is composite. Thus $n = kl$ for $k, l \in Z$ where $1 < k, l, < n$

Base case: we only care about the first composite n, i.e. $n = 4 = 2 \cdot 2$ thus $2 \mid 4$ and 2 is prime

IH: Suppose the Lemma holds for all $i \in N, i < n$

IS: $n = kl$ where $k < n$. Thus k is either a prime or is divisible by a prime

- If k is prime, we are done since $k \mid n$
- Otherwise $p \mid k$ for some prime $p < k$. Then we have $p \mid k \land k \mid n \implies p \mid n$

Euclid's Theorem: there are an infinite number of primes

Proof: Assume by contradiction that there are a finite number of primes $2, 3, 5, \ldots, p_n$

Let $N = (2 * 3 * 5 * \cdots * p_n) + 1$

Since $N > 2p_n + 1 > p_n$, it is composite and thus is divisible by some p_i in the list of primes

Then we have $p_i \mid 2 * 3 * 5 * \cdots * p_n$ and $p_i \mid N \implies p_i \mid N - (2 * 3 * 5 * \cdots * p_n) \implies p_i \mid 1$ contradiction since $p_i > 1$

Thus there are an infinite number of primes

2.3 The Sieve of Eratosthenes

Proposition 2.7: If n is composite then n has a prime factor $p \leq \sqrt{n}$

Proof: $n = ab$ where $1 < a \leq b < n \implies a^2 \leq ab = n \implies a \leq \sqrt{n}$

By Lemma 2.6, a has a prime divisor p, where $p \mid a \implies p \leq a \leq \sqrt{n}$

- **Note**: Not all prime factors of n are $\leq \sqrt{n}$. For example, $6 = 2 * 3$ but $3 > \sqrt{6}$

2.4 The Division Algorithm

Division Algorithm: Let $a, b \in Z$ with $b > 0$. Then there exists unique $q, r \in Z$ such that $a = bq + r$ with $0 \leq r < b$

Proof: Let $S = \{n \in Z \mid bn \leq a\}$. Clearly S is non-empty since

- If $a \geq 0$, take $n = -1$
- If $a < 0$, take $n = a$

Since S is bounded above by a/b, it has a largest member, call it q

Thus q is the largest integers $\leq a/b$ such that $q \leq a/b < q + 1$

Then we have $bq \leq a < bq + b \implies 0 \leq a - bq < b$

Setting $r = a - bq$ we see that $0 \leq r < b$ and we have $a = bq + r$ so EXISTENCE is done

To show UNIQUENESS let $a = bq + r = bq_1 + r_1$ for $0 \leq r, r_1 < b$

Then we have $b(q - q_1) = r_1 - r$. Since LHS is a mutliple of b, RHS is also a multiple of b

But $0 \leq r, r_1 < b \implies -b < r_1 - r < b \implies r_1 - r = 0$ since $b = 0$ is the only multiple of b that satisfies this inequality

Thus $r_1 = r$ and since $b \neq 0 \implies b(q - q_1) = 0 \implies q = q_1$. So q, r are UNIQUE

2.5 The Greatest Common Divisor

Relative Prime: a, b are relatively prime if $\gcd(a, b) = 1$

- By definition, we have $\gcd(a, 0) = a$

Proposition 2.10: Let $a, b \in Z$ and $d = \gcd(a, b)$. Then $\gcd(\frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d}) = 1$

Proof: Let $c = \gcd(a/d, b/d)$. Then $c \mid (a/d)$ and $c \mid (b/d)$

Thus $a = cdk_1$ and $b = cdk_2$ so cd is a common divisor of a, b

Since d is the greatest common divisor of a, b, we have $d \leq cd \leq d \implies c = 1$

Proposition 2.11: If $a, b \in Z$, not both 0, and $e \in Z^+$. Then $\gcd(ea, eb) = e * \gcd(a, b)$

Proof: Let $d = \gcd(ea, eb)$, we show that $d = e * \gcd(a, b)$

$\gcd(a, b) = ax + by \implies e \gcd(a, b) = eax + eby$. If d is a common divisor of ea and eb, then $d \mid e * \gcd(a, b)$

Thus $d \leq e \gcd(a, b)$. But since $e \gcd(a, b)$ is a common divisor of ea, eb, it is the gcd we desire

Various ways to find $\gcd(a, b)$:

1. List all prime factors of a, b and take the largest factor.

   Example: $84 = 2 * 2 * 3 * 7$ and $264 = 2 * 2 * 2 * 3 * 11 \implies \gcd(84, 264) = 2 * 2 * 3 = 12$

2. Take Linear Combination of a, b and find a list of possible factors

   Example: $d = \gcd(1005, 500) \implies d \mid (1005 - 2 * 500) \implies d = 1$ or $d = 5$. Clearly $d = 5$

   Example: $d = \gcd(2n+3, 3n-7) \implies d \mid 3(2n+3)-2(3n-6) = 21$ so $d \in \{1, 3, 7, 21\}$. Clearly with $n = 9, \gcd(21, 21) = 21$

3. Use Euclidean Algorithm

2.6 The Euclidean Algorithm

Euclidean Algorithm: Let $a, b \in Z$ with $a \geq 0, b > 0$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned}
a &= q_1 b + r_1 \qquad 0 < r_1 < b \\
b &= q_2 r_1 + r_2 \qquad 0 < r_2 < r_1 \\
r_1 &= q_3 r_2 + r_3 \qquad 0 < r_3 < r_2 \\
&\dots \\
r_{n-3} &= q_{n-1} r_{n-2} + r_{n-1} \qquad 0 < r_{n-1} < r_{n-2} \\
r_{n-2} &= q_n r_{n-1} + 0
\end{aligned}$$

Where $r_{n-1} = \gcd(a, b)$

Proof: $r_{n-1} \mid r_{n-2}, r_{n-1} \mid r_{n-3}, \dots, r_{n-1} \mid b, r_{n-1} \mid a$ so cleary r_{n-1} is a common factor of a, b

To show that r_{n-1} is the largest common factor, let d be an arbitrary common divisor of a, b

From the first line, we see that $d \mid r_1$. From the second line, $d \mid r_2$. This continues until $d \mid r_{n-1}$

Thus $d \leq r_{n-1}$ which means that r_{n-1} is the largest divisor and $\gcd(a, b) = r_{n-1}$

NOTE: each common divisor of a, b also divides $\gcd(a, b)$

2.6.1 The Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Extended Euclidean Algorithm: $\gcd(a, b)$ can be expressed as a linear combination of a, b.

Example: $\gcd(456, 123)$

$$\begin{aligned}
456 &= 3 * 123 + 87 \\
123 &= 1 * 87 + 36 \\
87 &= 2 * 36 + 15 \\
36 &= 2 * 15 + 6 \\
15 &= 2 * 6 + 3 \\
6 &= 2 * 3
\end{aligned}$$

Using the values above, we can create a table

	x	y	
456	1	0	
123	0	1	
87	1	-3	$R_1 - 3R_2$
36	-1	4	$R_2 - R_3$
15	3	-11	$R_3 - 2R_4$
6	-7	26	$R_4 - 2R_5$
3	17	-63	$R_5 - 2R_6$

Thus $3 = 456 * 17 - 123 * 63$

Theorem 2.12 (Bezout's Theorem): Let $a, b \in Z$ with at least one non-zero. Then there exists $x, y \in Z$ such that $\gcd(a, b) = ax + by$

Proof: Let S be a set of integers that can be written in the form $ax + by$ for $x, y \in Z$

Since $a, b, -a, -b \in S$, clearly S contains at least one positive integer.

Using the Well-Ordering Principle, let d be the smallest positive integer in S. Thus $d = ax_0 + by_0$ for $x_0, y_0 \in Z$

We show that d is a common divisor of a, b

$$a = dq + r \implies r = a - dq = a - (ax_0 + by_0)q = a(1 - x_0 q) + b(-y_0 q)$$

Thus $r \in S$. But since d is the smallest positive element of S and $0 \leq r < d$, we must have $r = 0$

Thus $d \mid a$. Similarly, $d \mid b$. Thus d is a common divisor of a, b

Next we show that for any common divisor of a, b, call it e, we have $e \leq d$

$e \mid a$ and $e \mid b \implies e \mid ax_0 + by_0 = d$. Thus $e \leq d$

Theorem 2.13: Let $n \geq 2$ and $a_1, \ldots, a_n \in Z$ with at least one nonzero a_i. Then $\exists x_1, \ldots, x_n \in Z$ such that

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

Proof by Induction: By Theorem 2.12, the statement holds for $n = 2$

IH: assume the statement holds for $n = k$. $\gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_k) = a_1 x_1 + \cdots + a_k x_k$

IS: Note that $\gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_{k+1}) = \gcd(\gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_k), a_{k+1})$

Apply Theorem 2.12 to $a_1 x_1 + \cdots + a_k x_k$ and a_{k+1} so $\gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_{k+1}) = (a_1 x_1 + \cdots + a_k x_k)y + a_{k+1} x$

But then this satisfies the statement since if we set $y_i = y x_i$ for $1 \leq i \leq k$ and $y_{k+1} = x$

Thus by Induction, $\gcd(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = a_1 x_1 + \cdots + a_n x_n$

Corollary 2.14: If e is a common divisor of a, b then $e \mid \gcd(a, b)$

Proof: $e \mid a$ and $e \mid b \implies e$ divides any linear combination of $a, b \implies e \mid \gcd(a, b) = ax + by$

Proposition 2.15: Let $a, b, c \in Z$ with $\gcd(a, c) = \gcd(b, c) = 1$. Then $\gcd(ab, c) = 1$

Proof: $\gcd(a, c) = 1 \implies ax_1 + cy_1 = 1$

$\gcd(b, c) = 1 \implies bx_2 + cy_2 = 1$

Multiplying these 2 equations we get $1 = (ab)(x_1 x_2) + (c)(by_1 x_2 + ax_1 y_2 + cy_1 y_2)$

Thus by Proposition 2.3, any common divisor of ab and c must divide $1 \implies \gcd(ab, c) = 1$

Proposition 2.16: Let $a, b, c \in Z$ with $a \neq 0$ and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. Then $a \mid bc \implies a \mid c$

Proof: By Theorem 2.12, $1 = ax + by \implies c = acx + bcy$

Thus by Proposition 2.3, $a \mid a$ and $a \mid bc \implies a \mid acx + bcy = c$

Proposition 2.17: Let $a, b, c \in Z$ with a, b nonzero and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. Then if $a \mid c$ and $b \mid c \implies ab \mid c$

Proof: By Theorem 2.12, $1 = ax + by \implies c = acx + bcy$

$b \mid c \implies ab \mid ac$

$a \mid c \implies ba \mid bc$

Since c is a linear combination of ac and bc, by Proposition 2.3, we must have that $ab \mid c$

2.7 Other Bases

We can convert a number from base 10 to any other base using the Division Algorithm

Example: Convert 21963_{10} to base 8

$$\begin{aligned} 21963 &= 2745 * 8 + 3 \\ 2745 &= 343 * 8 + 1 \\ 343 &= 42 * 8 + 7 \\ 42 &- 5 * 8 + 2 \\ 5 &= 0 * 8 + 5 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $21963_{10} = 52713_8$ This is because

$$5 * 8^4 + 2 * 8^3 + 7 * 8^2 + 1 * 8 + 3 = 52713_8$$

Note: decimal representations in other bases are NOT unique. For $a_k \leq n - 1$

$\displaystyle\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{n^k} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{n-1}{n^k}$, which is the geometric series and converges

Thus any sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ for $0 \leq a_k \leq n - 1$ converges

In particular, for $j > 1$, $\displaystyle\sum_{k=j}^{\infty} \frac{n-1}{n^k} = \frac{1}{n^{j-1}}$

- **Example**: for $n = 10$, we have $1 = 0.\bar{9}$
- **Example**: $0.01_7 = 0.000\bar{6}6_7$

2.8 Fermat and Mersenne Numbers

Mersenne Numbers: $M_n = 2^n - 1$ for prime n. Thought to generate prime numbers, but doesn't always work (e.g. $n = 11$ results in a composite number)

Proposition 2.18: If n is composite, then $2^n - 1$ is composite

Proof: Recall that $x^k - 1 = (x - 1)(x^{k-1} + x^{k-2} + \cdots + x + 1)$

Since n is composite, $n = ab$. Let $x = 2^a$ and $k = b$

Then $2^{ab} - 1 = (2^a - 1)(2^{a(b-1)} + \cdots + 2^a + 1)$

$1 < a < n \implies 1 < 2^a - 1 < 2^n - 1$ so $2^a - 1$ is a nontrivial factor and $2^n - 1$ is composite

Corollary 2.18.1: For $k, n \in N$, $k \mid n \implies M_k \mid M_n$

Proof: Can be seen from the factorization seen in the previous proposition

Corollary 2.18.2: If M_n is prime, then n is prime

Proof: Follows from the contraposition of Proposition 2.18

Fermat Numbers: $F_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$. Thought to generate prime numbers, but doesn't always work (e.g. $n = 5$ results in a composite number)

Proposition 2.19: If $m > 1$ is not a power of 2 then $2^m + 1$ is composite

Proof: Recall that k is odd then $x^k + 1 = (x+1)(x^{k-1} - x^{k-2} + x^{k-3} - \cdots - x + 1)$

Since m is not a power of 2 it has a nontrivial odd factor $a \geq 3$, so $m = ab$. Let $k = a$ and $x = 2^b$

Then $2^{ab} + 1 = (2^b + 1)(2^{b(a-1)} - 2^{b(a-2)} + \cdots - 2^b + 1)$

$1 \leq b < m \implies 1 < 2^b + 1 < 2^m + 1$ so $2^b + 1$ is a nontrivial factor and $2^n + 1$ is composite

Proposition 2.20: A regular n-gon is constructable if and only if $n = 2^a F_{n_1} F_{n_2} \cdots F_{n_r}$ for distinct Fermat Primes and $a \geq 0$

3 Linear Diophantine Equation

We look for solutions to $ax + by = c$ for $a, b, c \in Z$

- If $\gcd(a,b) \nmid c$ then there are NO integer solutions (x, y). This follows from $\gcd(a,b)$ divides any linear combination of a, b

Theorem 3.1: Let $a, b, c \in Z$ where a, b are not both 0. Then $ax + by = c$ has a solution if and only if $\gcd(a,b) \mid c$

Furthermore, if it has one solution (x_0, y_0), then there are an infinite number of solutions of the form

$$x = x_0 + \frac{b}{\gcd(a,b)} t \qquad y = y_0 - \frac{a}{\gcd(a,b)} t \qquad t \in Z$$

Proof: Let $d = \gcd(a,b)$

$\implies$ Contraposition: If $d \nmid c$ then clearly no solutions

$\impliedby$ If $d \mid c$ then by Theorem 2.12, there exists $r, s \in Z$ such that $ar + bs = d$

$d \mid c \implies df = c$ for $f \in Z \implies a(rf) + b(sf) = df = c$

Thus $x_0 = rf$ and $y_0 = sf$ is a solution to $ax + by = c$

To show there are an infinite number of solutions, first let $x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d} t$ and $y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d} t$

Then $ax + by = a(x_0 + \frac{b}{d} t) + b(y_0 - \frac{a}{d} t) = ax_0 + by_0 = c$

Thus there are an infinite number of solutions of this form

To show that every solution has the correct form, fix solutions x_0, y_0 and let u, v be any solution

$au + bv = c = ax_0 + by_0 \implies a(u - x_0) - b(v - y_0) = 0 \implies \frac{a}{d}(u - x_0) = \frac{b}{d}(y_0 - v)$

- The last part follows because $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b \implies \frac{a}{d}, \frac{b}{d} \in Z$

Thus we have $(a/d) \mid (b/d)(y_0 - v)$

Since, by Proposition 2.10, $\gcd(a/d, b/d) = 1$, we have by Proposition 2.6, $(a/d) \mid (y_0 - v)$

Thus $y_0 - v = \frac{a}{d} t \implies v = y_0 - t\frac{a}{d}$

Furthermore, $\frac{a}{d}(u - x_0) = \frac{b}{d}(\frac{a}{d} t) \implies u = x_0 + \frac{b}{d} t$

Corollary 3.2: Let $a, b, c \in Z$ with at least one a, b nonzero. If $\gcd(a,b) = 1$ then $ax + by = c$ has infinite number of solutions

Upshot: If (x_0, y_0) is a particular solution, then all solutions are of the form

$$x = x_0 + bt \qquad y = y_0 - at \qquad t \in Z$$

General Steps to Solve Linear Diophantine Equation:

1. Verify $\gcd(a, b) \mid c$
   - If no, then there is no solution
   - If yes, divide the equation by d to get $a'x + b'y = c'$ where $\gcd(a', b') = 1$
2. Then use Extended Euclidean Algorithm to solve for $a'x + b'y = 1$, then multiply the solution by the value of c'
3. If one of the solution variable (e.g. x) is negative, we can perform Extended Euclidean Algorithm with a positive x then flip the sign of x at the end
4. General solutions will be $(x_0 + \frac{b}{d}t, y_0 - \frac{a}{d}t)$
   - **Example**: $-17x + 14y = 30 \implies 17x + 14y = 30$ has the solution $(5 * 30, -6 * 30)$ so the desired solution is $(-150, -180)$ and general solution is of the form

$$x = -150 + 14t \qquad y = -180 + 17t \qquad t \in Z$$

Proposition 3.3: Let $a, b \in Z^+$ and relatively prime. Then there are no non-negative $x, y \in Z$ such that $ax + by = ab - a - b$

Proof: Observe that $a(-1) + b(a - 1) = ab - a - b \implies x = -1$ and $y = a - 1$ is a solution

Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ every solution has the form $x = -1 + bt$ and $y = a - 1 - at = a(1 - t) - 1$

Note that $x \geq 0$ if and only if $t > 0$ but then we have $1 - t \leq 0 \implies y \leq -1$

Thus it is impossible to find a non-negative solution to $ax + by = ab - a - b$

Proposition 3.4: Let $a, b \in Z^+$ and relatively prime. If $n > ab - a - b$ then there exists non-negative $x, y \in Z$ such that $ax + by = n$

Proof: First find a pair (x_0, y_0) such that $ax_0 + by_0 = n \geq ab - a - b + 1$. Note (x_0, y_0) may be negative

Solution has the form $x = x_0 + bt$ and $y = y_0 - at$

We find the smallest possible $y \geq 0$ then show that $x \geq 0$

From Division Algorithm and dividing y_0 by a, we have $y_0 = at + y_1$ for $0 \leq y_1 < a$. Let y_1 be our choice of y

Since $y_1 = y_0 - at$, we take $x_1 = x_0 + bt$ as our choice of x. First note that these are a valid solution

$$ax_1 + by_1 = a(x_0 + bt) + b(y_0 - at) = ax_0 + by_0 = m$$

Now we show that $x_1 \geq 0$

Suppose by contradiction that $x_1 \leq -1$, then we have

$$n = ax_1 + by_1 \leq a + by_1 \leq -a + b \underbrace{(a - 1)}_{0 \leq y < a}$$

Thus $n = ab - a - b$. Contradiction since we said $n > ab - a - b$

Thus (x_1, y_1) is a non-negative solution

4 Unique Factorization

Theorem 4.1: Let p be prime and $a, b \in Z$ such that $p \mid ab$. Then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$

Proof: Let $d = \gcd(a, p)$. If $d = p$ then $d \mid a \implies p \mid a$

Otherwise applying Extended Euclidean Algorithm, $d = 1 = ax + py \implies b = abx + pby$

$p \mid ab$ and $p \mid p \implies p \mid b$, which is a linear combination of p and ab

- **NOTE**: if n is composite, then we CANNOT conclude $n \mid a$ or $n \mid b$ from $n \mid ab$

Corollary 4.2: Let p be prime and $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_3 \in Z$ such that $p \mid a_1 \cdot a_2 \cdots a_r$. Then $p \mid a_i$ for some i

Proof by Induction: clearly statement holds for $r = 1$

IH: assume statement holds for $r = k$

IS: show statement is true for $r = k + 1$. Let $a = a_1 \cdots a_k$ and $b = a_{k+1}$

We can apply Theorem 4.1 where $p \mid ab \implies$ statement holds for any $r \geq 1$

Lemma 4.3: Every integer can be written as a product of primes

Proof: Assume there exist composite integers that cannot be written as product of primes. Let S be the set of these ints > 1

Since all $e \in S$ are positive, by Well Ordering Principle, it has a smallest element s

Since s is composite,we have $s = ab$, but $a, b < s \implies a, b \notin S \implies a, b$ can be written as the product of primes

Thus s is also a product of primes and thus S is empty

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic: Any positive integer > 1 is either prime or can be factored exactly one way as a product of primes

Proof: Lemma 4.3 shows that any integer > 1 can be written as a product of primes

For uniqueness, suppose that there are 2 ways of factoring an integer. Let n be the smallest of these integers

$$n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$$

$p_1 \mid \text{LHS} \implies p_1 \mid \text{RHS} \implies p_1 \mid q_i$

Rearranging the RHS, we let $p_1 = q_1$ and now we have $n/p_1 = m = p_2 \cdots p_r = q_2 \cdots q_s$

But $m < n$ so it must have a unique factorization but we see that m can be written using 2 different factorization

Thus we have a contradiction and every positive integer > 1 can be unique factored

Proposition 4.4: Let $a, b \in Z^+$ where $a = 2^{a_2} 3^{a_3} \cdots$ and $b = 2^{b_2} 3^{b_3} \cdots$. Then $a \mid b \iff a_p \leq b_p$ for all p

Proof: $\implies a \mid b \implies ac = b$ where $c = 2^{c_2} 3^{c_3} \cdots$

Then $2^{a_2 + c_2} 3^{a_3 + c_3} \cdots = b$

Thus we must have $\forall p, a_p + c_p = b_p \implies a_p \leq b_p$

$\impliedby$ suppose $\forall p, a_p \leq b_p$ and let $c_p = b_p - a_p$. Clearly $c_p \geq 0$

Let $c = 2^{c_2} 3^{c_3} \cdots \implies ac = b \implies a \mid b$

Definition - Least Common Multiple: $\text{lcm}(a, b)$ is the smallest positive integer divisible by a, b

Proposition 4.5: Let $a, b \in Z^+$ where $a = 2^{a_2} 3^{a_3} \cdots$ and $b = 2^{b_2} 3^{b_3} \cdots$. Furthermore, for all p, let $d_p = \min(a_p, b_p)$ and $e_p = \max(a_p, b_p)$. Then $\gcd(a, b) = 2^{d_2} 3^{d_3} \cdots$ and $\text{lcm}(a, b) = 2^{e_2} 3^{e_3} \cdots$

Proof: Let d be any common divisor of a, b such that $d = 2^{d_2} 3^{d_3} \cdots$

$d \mid a \implies d_p \leq a_p$ for all p. Similarly $d \mid b \implies d_p \leq b_p$ for all p

Largest common divisor occurs when $d_p = \min(a_p, b_p)$ for each p

Least common multiple occurs when $e_p = \max(a_p, b_p)$ for each p

Definition - Squarefree: integer whose factors are all distinct (doesn't have a square of a number as a factor)

Proposition 4.7: Let $n \in Z^+$. Then there exists $r \in Z, r \geq 1$ and a squarefree integer $s \geq 1$ such that $n = r^2 s$

Proof: Let $n = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \cdots$.

If a_i is even, write it as $a_i = 2b_i$. Otherwise write $a_i = 2b_i + 1$

Let $r = p_1^{a_1} p_2^{p_2} \cdots$ and let $s =$ the product of all primes p_i with odd a_i

Then we have $r^2 s = n$

5 Applications of Unique Factorization

5.1 A Puzzle

Proposition 5.1: Let $k \geq 2$ be an integer and $m \in Z^+$. Then m is a kth power $\iff$ all exponents in the prime factorization of m are multiples of k

Proof: $\impliedby$ Let $m = 2^{y_2} 3^{y_3} \cdots$. If each y_p is a multiple of k then $y_p = kz_p \implies m = (2^{z_2} 3^{z_3} \cdots)^k$

$\implies$ If $m = n^k$ where $n = 2^{w_2} 3^{w_3} \cdots$, then $2^{y_2} 3^{y_3} \cdots = m = n^k = 2^{kw_2} 3^{kw_3} \cdots$

By Uniqueness of Factorization, $y_p = kw_p$ for each $p \implies$ each exponent for m is a multiple of k

Example Find a number such that $2/3 * A^2$ is a cube

We have $2/3 * A^2 = 2^{2a+1} 3^{2b-1} 5^{2c} \cdots$ is a cube, so $2a+1$, $2b-1$, $2c$, $\cdots$ are all multiples of 3

By brute force, we see that $a = 1, b = 2, c = d = \cdots = 0$ works and gives us $A = 18$

To find the general solution, we note that $3 \mid 2c$ and $\gcd(3, 2) = 1$ so c must be a multiple of 3 $\implies c = 3c'$. Similar for $d, e, \ldots$

Since $2a + 1$ is odd and a multiple of 3, we have $2a + 1 = 3(2j + 1) \implies a = 3j + 1$

Since $2b - 1$ is odd and a multiple of 3, we have $2b - 1 = 3(2k + 1) \implies b = 3k + 2$

Finally, we see that $A = 2^a 3^b 5^c \cdots = 2 * 3^2 (2^j 3^k 5^{c'} \cdots)^3 = 18B^3$ for any $B \geq 1$

5.2 Irrationality Proof

Rational: number that can expressed as a ratio of 2 integers

Theorem 5.2: $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Proof: Suppose by contradiction that $\sqrt{2}$ is rational and $\sqrt{2} = a/b \in Q$ in reduced form

Then we have $2 = a^2/b^2 \implies 2b^2 = a^2$

Clearly a^2 is even $\implies a$ is even so $a = 2a_1$

But then we have $b^2 = 2a_1$ so b^2 is even $\implies b$ is even. This a contradiction since we said a/b is in reduced form

Thus we have a contradiction and $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational

Theorem 5.3: Let $k \in Z$ and $k \geq 2$. let $n \in Z^+$ that is not a perfect kth power. Then $\sqrt[k]{n}$ is irrational

Proof: We show the contrapositive that if $\sqrt[k]{n}$ is rational then n is a perfect kth power

Suppose $\sqrt[k]{n} = a/b \implies nb^k = a^k$

We can prime factorize n, b to get $n = 2^{x_2} 3^{x_3} \cdots$ and $b = 2^{z_2} 3^{z_3} \cdots$

Thus we have $nb^k = 2^{x_2 + kz_2} 3^{x_3 + kz_3} \ldots$

Let $a = 2^{y_2} 3^{y_3} \cdots$. Since $nb^k = a^k$ is a perfect power, by Proposition 5.1, every exponent is of the prime factorization is a multiple of k

Thus $x_p + kz_p = ky_p \implies x_p = k(y_p - z_p) \implies n$ is a perfect kth power

5.3 Rational Root Theorem

Theorem 5.4 (Rational Root Theorem): let $P(X) = a_nX^n + \cdots + a_1X + a_0$ where $a_i \in Z$ such that $a_n \neq 0$ and $a_0 \neq 0$

If $r = u/v \in Q$ with $\gcd(u, v) = 1$ and $P(u/v) = 0$ then $u \mid a_0$ and $v \mid a_n$

Proof: $P(u/v) = 0 \implies a_n(u/v)^n + \cdots + a_0 = 0 \implies a_nu^n + \cdots + a_0v^n = 0$

$a_{n-1}vu^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0v^n = -a_nu^n \implies v \mid a_nu^n$. But $\gcd(u, v) = 1 \implies v \mid a_n$

$a_nu^n + \cdots + a_1v^{n-1}u = -a_0v^n \implies u \mid a_0v^n$. But $\gcd(u, v) = 1 \implies u \mid a_0$

5.4 Pythagorean Triples

Pythagorean Triples: positive integers (a, b, c) where $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$

Primitive Pythagorean Triples: Pythagorean triples where $\gcd(a, b, c) = 1$

Example: A primitive way of generating Pythagorean Triples is using odd numbers

$(2n + 1)^2 = 4n^2 + 4n + 1 = (2n^2 + 2n) + (2n^2 + 2n + 1) \implies (2n + 1)^2 + (2n^2 + 2n)^2 = (2n^2 + 2n + 1)^2$

Lemma 5.6: Let $k \in Z, k \geq 2$ and let a, b relatively prime integers such that $ab = n^k$. Then a, b are each kth powers of integers

Proof: Let $n = 2^{x_2}3^{x_3}\cdots$. Then $ab = n^k = 2^{kx_2}3^{kx_3}\cdots$

Let p be a prime in the prime factorization of a and p^c be the exact power of p in the factorization of a

Since $\gcd(a, b) = 1$, p doesn't occur in the factorization of b, so p^c occurs in ab and n^k has p^{kx_p} as the power of p

Since prime factorization is unique, we have $c = kx_p \implies$ every prime in factorization of a occurs with a power of a multiple of k

Thus a is a kth power integer. Similar for b

Lemma 5.7: The square of an odd integer is 1 more than a multiple of 8. The square of an even integer is a multiple of 4

Proof: Let n be even then $n = 2k \implies n^2 = 4j^2 \implies 4 \mid n$

Let n be odd $\implies n = 2k + 1 \implies n^2 4k(k + 1) + 1$

Since k or $k + 1$ is even, we have $4k(k + 1)$ is a multiple of 8. Thus n is a 1 more than a multiple of 8

Theorem 5.5: Let (a, b, c) be a Primitive Pythagorean triple. Then c is odd and exactly one of a, b is even and the other is odd. Assume b is even, then there are relatively prime integers m, n such that $m < n$ and one odd and the other even such that

$$a = n^2 - m^2 \qquad b = 2mn \qquad c = m^2 + n^2$$

Proof: Let $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ and $\gcd(a, b, c) = 1$

Suppose by contradiction that both a, b are odd, then by Lemma 5.7, $a^2 + b^2$ is 2 more than a multiple of 8

Thus $a^2 + b^2$ is not a multiple of 4 so by Lemma 5.7, $a^2 + b^2$ cannot be a square. Thus at least one of a, b is even

Suppose by contradiction that both a, b are even. Then $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$ is even so c is even.

But then 2 is common divisor of a, b, c but we have $\gcd(a, b, c) = 1$. Contradiction

Thus one of a, b is even and the other is odd. WLOG let a be odd and b be even

Then we have $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ is odd.

Let $b = 2b_1$ so we have $c^2 - a^2 = (c + a)(c - a) = b^2 = 4b_1^2$

Thus we have $(\frac{c+a}{2})(\frac{c-a}{2}) = b_1^2$. Since c, a are odd we must have $\frac{c+a}{2}$ and $\frac{c-a}{2} \in Z$

Let $d = \gcd((c+a)/2, (c-a)/2)$ and suppose by contradiction $d > 1$. Then let p be a prime dividing d

Then $c = \frac{c+a}{2} + \frac{c-a}{2}$ and $a = \frac{c+a}{2} - \frac{c-a}{2}$ are multiples of p

Thus $c^2 - a^2 = b^2$ is a multiple of $p \implies p \mid b$ so p is a common divisor of a, b, c, contradicting that $\gcd(a, b, c) = 1$. Thus $d = 1$

Thus we have two relatively prime integers: $(c+a)/2$ and $(c-a)/2$ whose product is a square

By Lemma 5.6, each factor is a square so $\frac{c-a}{2} = m^2$ and $\frac{c+a}{2} = n^2$

Thus $c = \frac{c+a}{2} + \frac{c-a}{2} = n^2 + m^2$ and $a = \frac{c+a}{2} - \frac{c-a}{2} = n^2 - m^2$

Thus $b^2 = c^2 - a^2 = (n^2+m^2)^2 - (n^2-m^2)^2 = 4m^2n^2 \implies b = 2mn$

Since $(c-a)/2 = m^2$ and $(c+a)/2 = n^2$ are relatively prime, then $\gcd(n, m) = 1$

Finally since $m^2 + n^2 = c$ is odd, one of m, n is odd and the other is even

5.5 Difference of Squares

Theorem 5.8: Let $m \in Z^+$. Then m is a difference of 2 squares $\iff$ either m is odd or m is a multiple of 4

Proof: $\impliedby$ Let m be odd then $m = 2n+1 = (n+1)^2 - n^2$.

Otherwise let m be a multiple of 4 then $m = 4n = (n+1)^2 - (n-1)^2$

$\implies$ Suppose $m = x^2 - y^2 = (x+y)(x-y)$. Since $x+y, x-y$ differ by $2y$ (even) they are either both even or both odd

- If they are both even, then $m = (x+y)(x-y)$ is the product of 2 even numbers and is thus a multiple of 4
- If both are odd, then m is clearly odd

As an aside, suppose $m = uv$ where u, v have the same parity and $u \geq v$

If we let $x = \frac{(u+v)}{2}$ and $y = \frac{(u-v)}{2}$ then clearly $x, y \in Z$ since u, v have the same parity

And we have $x^2 - y^2 = \frac{(u+v)^2}{4} - \frac{(u-v)^2}{4} = uv = m$

Upshot: Writing m as a difference of 2 squares corresponds to factorizing m into 2 factors of the same parity

Example: $m = 15 \implies 15 * 1 = 8^2 - 7^2$ where $8 + 7 = 15$ and $8 - 7 = 1$

$m = 15 \implies 5 * 3 = 4^2 - 1^2$ where $4 + 1 = 5$ and $4 - 1 = 3$

Example: $m = 60 \implies 30 * 2 = 16^2 - 14^2$

$m = 60 \implies 10 * 6 = 8^2 - 2^2$

5.6 Prime Factorization of Factorials

Theorem 5.9: Let $n \geq 1$ and p be a prime. If we write $n! = p^b c$ with $p \nmid c$, then

$$b = \lfloor \frac{n}{p} \rfloor + \lfloor \frac{n}{p^2} \rfloor + \cdots$$

Proof: write $n = qp + r$ for $0 \leq r < p$. Clearly multiples of p up to n are $p, 2p, \ldots, qp$

but we see that $\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \rfloor = \lfloor q + (r/p) \rfloor = q$ so there are $\lfloor \frac{n}{p} \rfloor$ multiples of p up to n

Similarly, there are $\lfloor \frac{n}{p^j} \rfloor$ multiples of p^j up to n

Thus we can write $b = (\#$ of multiples of p up to n$) + ($ of multiples of p^2 up to n$) + \cdots$

Take m such that $1 \leq m \leq n$ and $m = p^k m_1$ with $p \nmid m_1$.

Then m contributes p^k to $n!$ and contributes k to the exponent b since m is a multiple of p^j for $j \leq k$

Example: $n = 30, p = 5 \implies \lfloor \frac{30}{5} \rfloor + \lfloor \frac{30}{25} \rfloor = 6 + 1 \implies 5^7$ is the power of 5 in 30!

Example: $n = 30, p = 2 \implies \lfloor \frac{30}{2} \rfloor + \lfloor \frac{30}{4} \rfloor + \lfloor \frac{30}{8} \rfloor + \lfloor \frac{30}{16} \rfloor = 15 + 7 + 3 + 1 = 26 \implies 2^{26}$ is the power of 2 in 30!

Thus $2^{26}5^7 = 2^{19}10^7 \implies 30!$ has 7 zeros at the end

5.7 Riemann Zeta Function

Definition - Riemann Zeta Function: For a real number $s > 1$, we define the **Riemann zeta function** as

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}$$

Theorem 5.10: If $s > 1$, then

$$\zeta(s) = \prod_p (1 - p^{-s})^{-1} \qquad \text{for all primes } p$$

Proof:

Note that the geometric series $1 + r + r^2 + \cdots = \frac{1}{1-r} = (1-r)^{-1}$ for $|r| < 1$

Letting $r = p^{-1}$, we get

$$1 + \frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{p^{2s}} + \cdots = (1 - p^{-s})^{-1}$$

As an example, consider the product

$$\begin{aligned}(1-2^{-s})^{-1}(1-3^{-s})^{-1} &= (1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \cdots)(1 + \frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{9^s} + \cdots) \\ &= (1 + \frac{1}{2^s} + \frac{1}{4^s} + \cdots) + (\frac{1}{3^s} + \frac{1}{2^s 3^s} + \frac{1}{4^s 3^s} + \cdots) + (\frac{1}{9^s} + \frac{1}{2^s 9^s} + \frac{1}{4^s 9^s} + \cdots) \\ &= \sum_{n \in S(2,3)} \frac{1}{n^s} \qquad S(p,q) \text{ are all integers whose prime factorizations only use } p, q\end{aligned}$$

Now consider using m primes

$$(1-2^{-s})^{-1}(1-3^{-s})^{-1} \cdots (1-p_m^{-s})^{-1} = \sum_{n \in S(2,3,\ldots,p_m)} \frac{1}{n^s}$$

The LHS converges to the product over all primes. Since every positive integer has a prime factorization, each n lies in $S(2, 3, \ldots, p_m)$. Thus RHS converges to the sum over all positive integers n

Infinite Primes Proof: BWOC suppose there are only a finite number of primes. Then

$$\lim_{s \to 1^+} \prod_p (1 - p^{-s})^{-1} = \prod_p (1 - p^{-1})^{-1}$$

is a finite product and thus must itself be finite

Furthermore, since each of the functions used in the product is continuous at $s = 1$, we have that for $n > 1, x \geq n, s > 1$

$$x^s \geq n^s \implies \frac{1}{n^s} \geq \frac{1}{x^s} \implies \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{n^s}\, dx \geq \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{x^s}\, dx$$

Thus we have

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} \geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{x^s} = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^s}\, dx = \frac{1}{s-1}$$

Thus $\zeta(s) \geq \frac{1}{s-1}$ diverges as $s \to 1^+$. Contradiction since we showed that $\prod_p (1 - p^{-s})^{-1}$ converges

Thus there are an infinite number of primes

6 Congruences

6.1 Definitions and Examples

Congruence: $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if $a - b$ is a multiple of m

Proposition 6.2: $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \iff a = b + km$ for some $k \in Z$

Proof: $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if and only if $a - b$ is a multiple of m. Thus $a - b = km \implies a = b + km$

Looking at integers mod m, we get m **congruent classes**. Each integer is only in one congruent class mod m

Proposition 6.3: Let $a \in Z$ and $m \in Z^+$ then $\exists! r$, with $0 \leq r \leq m - 1$ such that $a \equiv r \pmod{m}$

Proof: By division algorithm, we have $\exists$ unique q, r such that $a = mq + r$ with $0 \leq r \leq m - 1$

Thus from the previous proposition, $a \equiv r \pmod{m}$

Proposition 6.4: Let $a, b, c \in Z$ and $m \in Z^+$. Then

- $a \equiv a \pmod{m}$
- $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \implies b \equiv a \pmod{m}$
- $a \equiv c \pmod{m}$ and $b \equiv c \pmod{m} \implies a \equiv c \pmod{m}$

Proof:

- $a = a + 0 * m \implies a \equiv a \pmod{m}$
- $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \implies a = b + km \implies b = a + (-k)m \implies b \equiv a$
- $a - c = (a - b) + (b - c) = (k_1 + k_2)m \implies a \equiv c \pmod{m}$

Proposition 6.5: Let $a, b, c, d \in Z$ and $m \in Z^+$. If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$ then

- $a + c \equiv b + d \pmod{m}$
- $a - c \equiv b - d \pmod{m}$
- $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$

Proof: $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \implies a = b + k_1 m$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m} \implies c = d + k_2 m$

- $a + c = (b + d) + (k_1 + k_2)m \implies a + c \equiv c + d \pmod{m}$
- $a - c = (b - d) + (k_1 - k_2)m \implies a - c \equiv c - d \pmod{m}$
- $ac = (bd)(bk_2 + dk_1 + k_1 k_2 m)m \implies ac \equiv cd \pmod{m}$

Corollary 6.6: $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \implies a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{m}$ for $n \in Z^+$

Proof: By the previous proposition, $a \equiv b \pmod{m} \implies a^2 \equiv b^2 \pmod{m}$. Repeated multiplication yields $a^n \equiv b^n \pmod{n}$

Proposition 6.7: $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(c, m) = 1 \implies a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

$ac \equiv bc \pmod{m} \implies m \mid (ac - bc) \implies m \mid c(a - b)$

If c, m are relatively prime, then we must have $m \mid a - b \implies a \equiv b \pmod{m}$

Proposition 6.8: $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m}$ and $\gcd(c, m) = d \implies a \equiv b \pmod{(m/d)}$ and $a = b + (\frac{m}{d})k$ with $0 \leq k \leq d - 1$

Proof: $ac \equiv bc \pmod{m} \implies m \mid c(a - b) \implies \frac{m}{d} \mid \frac{c}{d}(a - b)$

Since $\gcd(c, m) = d$, we must have $\gcd(m/d, c/d) = 1 \implies \frac{m}{d} \mid a - b \implies a \equiv b \pmod{(m/d)}$

Furthermore, $a - b = m(\frac{d}{k})$ where $\frac{d}{k} \in Z \implies 0 \leq k \leq d - 1$

Various ways to solve equations of the form $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$:

- Add m to b until we find an easy factor of a

  Example: $2c \equiv 7 \pmod{9} \equiv 16 \pmod{9} \implies c = 8$

- Use Proposition 6.8 and divide a, b be a common factor c and m by $\gcd(c, m)$

  Example: $6c \equiv 18 \pmod{21} \implies c \equiv 3 \pmod{7}$. So solutions are $c \equiv 3 \pmod{21}$. **Note**: answer was converted back to mod 21 at the end

Proposition 6.9: Let $n \in Z^+$ and $a, b \in Z$. Then $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \implies \gcd(a, n) = \gcd(b, n)$

Proof: $a \equiv b \pmod{n} \implies a = b + nk$. Let d be a divisor of b, n. Then $d \mid a$ since a is a linear combination of b, n

We also must have $b = a - nk \implies$ any common divisor of a, n is also a divisor of b

Thus the set of common divisors for a, n is the same as the set of common divisors of b, n. Thus $\gcd(a, n) = \gcd(b, n)$

Example: $\gcd(1234, 10) = \gcd(4, 10)$ since $1234 \equiv 4 \pmod{10}$

Proposition 6.10: If p is a prime and $ab \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then $a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ or $b \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

Proof: $ab \equiv 0 \pmod{p} \implies p \mid ab$. Thus by theorem, $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b \implies a \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ or $b \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, respectively

Corollary 6.11: Let p be a prime. Then $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ has only solutions $x \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{p}$

Proof: $x^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \iff x^2 - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{0} \iff (x-1)(x+1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

By the previous Proposition, this ony happens when $x - 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ or $x + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$

Thus the only possible solutions are $x \equiv \pm \pmod{p}$

6.2 Divisibility Tests

An integer n is divisible by 4 if the last 2 digits are divisible by 4

An integer n is divisible by 8 if the last 3 digits are divisible by 8

Proposition 6.14: An integer mod 3 (respectively, mod 9) is congruent to the sum of its digits mod 3 (respectively, mod 9)

Proof: Clearly $10 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. Since $1^k = 1$ for all integers k, we have

$$10^k \equiv 1^k \equiv \pmod{3}$$

Thus when we look at n expanded in its base 10 form mod 3, we get

$$n = a_m 10^m + \cdots + a_1 0 + a_0 \equiv a_m + \cdots + a_1 + a_0 \pmod{3}$$

Identical for mod 9

Corollary 6.15: An integer n is divisible by 3 if and only if the sum of its digits are divisible by 3. It is divisible by 9 if and only if the sum of its digits is divisible by 9

Proposition 6.16: An integer mod 11 is congruent to the alternating sum its digits starting with the ones (a_0), subtracting the tens (a_1), ...

Proof: Note that $10 \equiv -1 \pmod{11} \implies 10^k \equiv (-1)^k \pmod{11}$

Thus when we look at n expanded in its base 10 form mod 11, we get

$$n = a_m 10^m + \cdots + a_1 0 + a_0 \equiv a_0 - a_1 + \cdots + (-1)^m a_m \pmod{11}$$

Corollary 6.17: An integer n is divisible 11 if and only if the alternating sum of its digits is divisible by 11

6.3 Linear Congruences

Theorem 6.18: Let $m \in Z^+$ and $a \neq 0$. Then $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ has a solution if and only if $d = \gcd(a, m)$ divides b. If $d \mid b$, then there are exactly d solutions distinct mod m. Let x_0 be a solution, then the other solutions are of the form

$$x = x_0 + (\frac{m}{d})k \qquad 0 \leq k \leq d$$

Where x_0 can be found by satisfying

$$(\frac{a}{d})x_0 \equiv (\frac{b}{d}) \pmod{(m/d)}$$

Proof: $ax \equiv b \pmod{m} \implies ax = b + my \implies ax - my = b$. This is a Diophantine problem with $(a, -m, b)$

Let $d = \gcd(a, m)$. If $d \nmid b$, then there are no solutions

Otherwise let $d \mid b \implies$ solutions are of the form

$$x = x_0 + (\frac{m}{d})k \qquad y = y_0 + (\frac{a}{d})k$$

Which implies that $x \equiv x_0 \pmod{(m/d)}$. To show that these solutions are distinct mod m,

Let $x_1 = x_0 + (\frac{m}{d})k_1$ and $x_2 = x_0 + (\frac{m}{d})k_2$ be distinct solutions and suppose $x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{m}$

Then $x_1 - x_2 = mk_3 \iff (\frac{m}{d})(k_1 - k_2) = mk_3 \iff k_1 - k_2 = dk_3 \implies k_1 \equiv k_2 \pmod{d}$. Thus x_1, x_2 are distinct

Finally, to show that x_0 arises from solving $(\frac{a}{d})x_0 \equiv \frac{b}{d} \pmod{(m/d)}$,

Note that $(\frac{a}{d})x_0 = \frac{b}{d} + (\frac{m}{d})z \implies ax_0 = b + mz \implies ax_0 \equiv b \pmod{m}$

Thus x_0 is a solution we desire

Corollary 6.19: If $\gcd(a, m) = 1$, then $ax = b \pmod{m}$ has exactly 1 solution mod m

Proof: Let $d = 1$ and apply Theorem 6.18. Then $d \mid b \implies$ there is only 1 solution

Example: $6x \equiv 7 \pmod{15}$ has no solutions because $\gcd(6, 15) = 3$ but $3 \nmid 7$

Example: $5x = 6 \pmod{11} \implies x = 10$ is a unique solution since $\gcd(5, 11) = 1$

Example: $9x \equiv 6 \pmod{15}$ has $\gcd(9, 15) = 3$ solutions mod 15

Reducing the equation, we get $3x \equiv 2 \pmod{5} \implies x_0 = 4 \implies$ solutions are $\{4, 4 + \frac{15}{3}, 4 + 2 * \frac{15}{3}\} = \{4, 9, 14\}$

We can also solve linear congruence problems using Extended Euclidean Algorithm

Example: $183x \equiv 15 \pmod{31} \implies 28x \equiv 15 \pmod{31}$

Converting it into a Linear Diophantine problem, we get $28x - 31y = 15$. Now we find $\gcd(28, 31)$

$$\begin{aligned} 31 &= 1 * 28 + 3 \\ 28 &= 9 * 3 + 1 \\ 3 &= 3 * 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\gcd(28, 31) = 1$. Now we write it as a linear combination of $28, 31$

$$\begin{aligned} 31 &= 1 * 31 + 0 * 28 \\ 28 &= 0 * 31 + 1 * 28 \\ 3 &= 1 * 31 - 1 * 28 \\ 1 &= 1 * 28 - 9 * 3 = -9 * 31 + 10 * 28 \end{aligned}$$

Thus $28(10) + 31(-9) = 1 \implies 28(150) + 31(-135) = 15 \implies 28(150) \equiv 15 \pmod{31} \implies x = 26$

Multiplicative Inverse: a has a **multiplicative inverse** b if $ab \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

Corollary 6.21: a has an inverse mod m if and only if $\gcd(a, m) = 1$

Proof: From Theorem 6.18, $ax = 1 \pmod{m}$ has a solution if and only if $\gcd(a, m) \mid 1 \iff \gcd(a, m) = 1$

Example: $7x \equiv 4 \pmod{19}$ where $7^{-1} = 11$

$77x \equiv 44 \pmod{19} \implies x \equiv 6 \pmod{19}$

Steps to solve $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ where $\gcd(a, m) = 1$

1. Convert the problem into Linear Diophantine problem $ax - my = b$
2. Use Extended Euclidean Algorithm to find x_0, y_0 such that $ax_0 - my_0 = 1$
3. Compute $x = bx_0$

Steps to find an inverse of $a \pmod{m}$ with $\gcd(a, m) = 1$

1. Convert the problem into Linear Diophantine problem $ax - my = b$
2. Use Extended Euclidean Algorithm to find x_0, y_0 such that $ax_0 - my_0 = 1$
3. $x_0 \pmod{m}$ is the inverse of $a \pmod{m}$

6.4 Chinese Remainder Theorem

Theorem 6.22: Let m, n be relatively prime. Then the system of congruences

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

Has a unique solution mod mn

Existence Proof 1: $x \equiv a \pmod{m} \implies a = mt \equiv b \pmod{n} \implies mt \equiv (b-a) \pmod{n}$

By Theorem, since m, n are relatively prime, there is a unique solution. Clearly $x = a + mt_0$ is a solution to both congruences

Existence Proof 2: $\gcd(m,n) = 1 \implies mu + nv = 1 \implies x = bmu + anv$

Note that $\mu \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$ and $nv \equiv 1 - mu \equiv 1 \pmod{m} \implies x \equiv a \pmod{m}$ and $x \equiv b \pmod{n}$ as desired

Thus x is the desired solution

Uniqueness Proof: Let x_1, x_2 be 2 different solutions. Then we must have

$$x_1 \equiv \pmod{m} \qquad x_1 \equiv b \pmod{n}$$
$$x_2 \equiv \pmod{m} \qquad x_2 \equiv b \pmod{n}$$

Thus $x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{m}$ and $x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{n} \implies m \mid (x_1 - x_2)$ and $n \mid (x_1 - x_2) \implies x_1 - x_2$ is multiple of m, n

Since $\gcd(m,n) = 1$, we must have $mn \mid x_1 - x_2 \implies x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{mn}$

Example: $x \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ $\qquad$ $x \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$

$\gcd(3,5) = 1$ and we solve that $3(2) + 5(-1) = 1 \implies x = bmu + anv = (4)(3)(2) + (2)(5)(-1) \equiv 14 \pmod{15}$

Theorem 6.23 Chinese Remainder Theorem: Let $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_r \in Z^+$ and are pairwise relatively prime. Then

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}$$
$$x \equiv a_2 \pmod{m_1}$$
$$\ldots$$
$$x \equiv a_3 \pmod{m_r}$$

Has a unique solution $x \pmod{m_1 m_2 \cdots m_r}$

Existence Proof 1: Pair up the first 2 equations and use Theorem 6.22

$$x \equiv b_1 \pmod{m_1 m_2})$$

Repeat process for m_3 and $m_1 m_2$. Works because pairwise relatively prime implies that m_3 and $m_1 m_2$ have no common divisors

Existence Proof 2: Let $m = m_1 m_2 \cdots m_r$ and $n_i = m/m_i$. We claim that $\gcd(n_i, m_i) = 1$

Suppose by contradiction that $p \mid \gcd(n_i, m_i)$. Then $p \mid n_i \implies p \mid m_j$ for some $j \neq i$

Thus we must have $p \mid \gcd(m_j, m_i)$, contradicting that $gcd(m_i, m_j) = 1$ and thus we must have $\gcd(n_i, m_i) = 1$

For each i, by Corollary 6.21, there exists u_i such that

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

Let $x = a_1 n_1 u_1 + \cdots + a_r n_r u_r$, then clearly for each m_i

$$x \equiv a_i n_i u_i \equiv a_i \pmod{m_i}$$

Unique Proof: Assume there are 2 solutions x_1, x_2. Then for each m_i we must have

$$m_i \mid (x_1 - x_2) \qquad 1 \leq i \leq r$$

Thus means that $m_1 m_2 \cdots m_r \mid (x_1 - x_2)$ since m_i are relatively prime

Thus $x_1 \equiv x_2 \pmod{m_1 m_2 \cdots m_r}$ and x_1, x_2 are the same solution

Example Let $x \equiv 2 \pmod 3 \qquad x \equiv 3 \pmod 5 \qquad x \equiv 2 \pmod 7$

Then we have $n_1 = 35$, $n_2 = 21$, $n_3 = 15$ and

$$\begin{aligned} 35u_1 &\equiv 1 \pmod 3 \implies u_1 = 2 \\ 21u_2 &\equiv 1 \pmod 5 \implies u_2 = 1 \\ 15u_3 &\equiv 1 \pmod 7 \implies u_3 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have $x = a_1 n_1 u_1 + a_2 n_2 u_2 + a_3 n_3 u_3 = (2)(35)(2) + (3)(21)(1) + (2)(15)(1) \equiv 23 \pmod{105}$

UPSHOT: We can factor composite modulus m into distinct prime powers and the solve the system of congruence mod

Example: $x^2 \equiv \pmod{275 = 5^2 * 11}$ can be broken down into

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 &\equiv 1 \pmod{25} \implies x \equiv 1, 24 \pmod{25} \\ x^2 &\equiv 1 \pmod{11} \implies x \equiv 1, 10 \pmod{11} \end{aligned}$$

Thus solutions are of the form

$$\begin{aligned} x &\equiv 1 \pmod{25} \qquad x \equiv 1 \pmod{11} \implies x \equiv 1 \pmod{275} \\ x &\equiv 1 \pmod{25} \qquad x \equiv 10 \pmod{11} \implies x \equiv 76 \pmod{275} \\ x &\equiv 24 \pmod{25} \qquad x \equiv 1 \pmod{11} \implies x \equiv 199 \pmod{275} \\ x &\equiv 24 \pmod{25} \qquad x \equiv 10 \pmod{11} \implies x \equiv 274 \pmod{275} \end{aligned}$$

Thus the solutions are $x \equiv \{1, 76, 199, 274\} \pmod{275}$

6.5 Fractions mod m

We can interpret $\frac{a}{b} \pmod m$ as $a(b^{-1}) \pmod m$ where b^{-1} comes from $bb^{-1} \equiv 1 \pmod m$

- Only works when $\gcd(b, m) = 1$. Since these are the only b's with a multiplicative inverse mod m
- Here we interpret $\frac{1}{b}$ as the number we need to multiply b by to get $1 \pmod m$

Example: Calculate $\frac{2}{7} \pmod{19}$

We see that $7^{-1} \equiv 11 \pmod{19}$. Thus $\frac{2}{7} = 2 * 11 \equiv 3 \pmod{19}$