Elementary Number Theory - Overview

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Spring semester 2023

Primes and Divisibility

- **Euclid:** There are infinitely many primes.
- Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic. Every natural number n > 1 has a prime factorization

$$n=p_1\cdots p_r,$$

which is unique up to order.

- **Division with remainder:** a = qb + r with $0 \le r < |b|$.
- **•** Bézout's Lemma: There exist $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ with gcd(a, b) = ax + by.
- Euclidean Algorithm: Computes gcd(a, b), as well as $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ with gcd(a, b) = ax + by.
- Bertrand's Postulate: There's always a prime between n and 2n.
- Prime Number Theorem: $\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\log(x)}$ for large x.

Number-theoretic functions

- ▶ Important examples: $e(n), \mathbf{1}(n), \sigma_k(n), \sigma(n), \tau(n), \varphi(n), \mu(n).$
- **Basic properties of multiplicative functions:** f(1) = 1, $f \cdot g$ is multiplicative.
- **•** Summatory function $F(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d)$

• Examples:
$$\sum_{d|n} \varphi(d) = n$$
 and $\sum_{d|n} \mu(d) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

- **Theorem.** f multiplicative \Leftrightarrow F multiplicative.
- Dirichlet convolution $(f * g)(n) = \sum_{d|n} f(d)g(n/d)$.
- **Proposition.** f with $f(1) \neq 0$ has an inverse w.r.t. convolution.
- Moebius inversion formula: $F = f * \mathbf{1} \Leftrightarrow f = F * \mu$.
- Important application: Proof that φ is multiplicative.

• Explicit formula:
$$\varphi(n) = n \prod_{p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right)$$
.

Perfect and amicable numbers

- **Definition.** *n* is perfect if it is equal to the sum of its proper divisors, i.e. $\sigma(n) = 2n$.
- **Theorem** (Euclid, Euler): An *even n* is perfect iff it is of the form

$$n = 2^{m-1}(2^m - 1)$$
 and $2^m - 1$ is prime

for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$.

- First few are 6, 28, 496, 8128.
- **Lemma.** If $2^m 1$ is prime, then *m* must be prime.
- **Definition.** $M_p = 2^p 1$ the *p*-th Mersenne number.
- Definition. m, n are amicable if m is the sum of the proper divisors of n, and vice versa. Smallest pair is (220, 284).
- Thabit's Rule: If

$$T_k = 3 \cdot 2^k - 1, \quad T_{k-1} = 3 \cdot 2^{k-1} - 1, \quad R_k = 9 \cdot 2^{2k-1} - 1$$

are all prime, then $m = 2^k T_k T_{k-1}$ and $n = 2^k R_k$ are amicable.

Modular arithmetic

- **Proposition.** *a* has an inverse modulo *m* iff gcd(a, m) = 1.
- Chinese Remainder Theorem. If m₁,..., m_k are pairwise coprime, then the system

$$x \equiv a_1 \pmod{m_1}, \ldots, x \equiv a_k \pmod{m_k}$$

has a unique solution modulo $m = \prod m_i$.

• Euler-Fermat. If gcd(a, m) = 1 then

$$a^{\varphi(m)} \equiv 1 \pmod{m}.$$

▶ Fermat's Little Theorem. If gcd(*a*, *p*) = 1 then

$$a^{p-1}\equiv 1\pmod{p}.$$

Applications:

- 1. Computing inverse modulo m.
- 2. Computing powers modulo m.

Lagrange, Wilson, and Wolstenholme

- Lagrange A polynomial f ∈ Z[x] whose coefficients are not all divisible by p has at most deg(f) roots modulo p.
- Wilson n > 1 is prime iff $(n-1)! \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$.
- Wolstenholme For p > 3 the numerator of

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{p-1}$$

is divisible by p^2 .

Proof idea: Consider the polynomials

$$g(x) = x^{p-1} - 1,$$
 $h(x) = (x - 1)(x - 2) \cdots (x - (p - 1))$

and use Fermat's Little Theorem and Lagrange to deduce $g(x) - h(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$. Then look at the constant and linear coefficient in g(x) - h(x).

Quadratic residues

▶ **Definition.** $\begin{pmatrix} \frac{a}{p} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic residue mod } p, \\ -1 & \text{if } a \text{ is a quadratic nonresidue mod } p, \\ 0, & \text{if } p \mid a. \end{cases}$

- **Theorem.** Half of the elements in $(\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^*$ are quadratic residues.
- Euler's criterion. $a^{\frac{p-1}{2}} \equiv \left(\frac{a}{p}\right) \pmod{p}$ if gcd(a, p) = 1.
- Theorem. Legendre symbol is completely multiplicative.

► First supplement.
$$\left(\frac{-1}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}. \end{cases}$$

- Second supplement. $\left(\frac{2}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{8}, \\ -1 & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 3 \pmod{8}. \end{cases}$
- Quadratic reciprocity. $\begin{pmatrix} p \\ q \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} q \\ p \end{pmatrix} = (-1)^{\frac{p-1}{2}\frac{q-1}{2}}$.
- Algorithm. Computation of the Jacobi symbol using quadratic reciprocity, but without factoring.

- **Fermat test**: Choose *a* and check if $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$.
- ▶ Carmichael number: *n* composite such that $a^{n-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ whenever gcd(*a*, *n*) = 1. Example: 561
- ► Korselt's criterion: n is Carmichael iff n square-free and (p-1) | (n-1) for every prime p | n.
- **Solovay-Strassen test**: Choose *a* and check $a^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \equiv \left(\frac{a}{n}\right) \pmod{n}$.
- **Theorem.** There are no analogs of Carmichael numbers that can fool the Solovay-Strassen test.

The RSA cryptosystem

Key generation:

- 1. Choose two large primes p, q.
- 2. Compute RSA modulus N = pq.
- 3. Compute $\varphi(N) = (p-1)(q-1)$.
- 4. Choose public key e with $1 < e < \varphi(N)$ and $gcd(e, \varphi(N)) = 1$.
- 5. Compute private key d with $1 < d < \varphi(N)$ and $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{\varphi(N)}$.

Encode a message *m* as a natural number.

- **Encryption:** $c = m^e \pmod{N}$.
- **Decryption:** $m = c^d \pmod{N}$.
- Proof that this works: Euler-Fermat, at least if gcd(m, N) = 1.
- Important: Long message m > N has to be split into blocks < N.

- Fermat: An odd prime p is a sum of two squares iff $p \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$.
- Legendre: A number *n* is a sum of three squares iff it is not of the form $4^{a}(8b + 7)$.
- **Lagrange:** Every natural number is a sum of four squares.

Proof ingredients:

- 1. Euler's four square identity, so we can reduce to primes p.
- 2. Show that $mp = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 + x_4^2$ for some *m*.
- 3. Method of infinite descent: If m > 1, construct a new solution such that $y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2 + y_4^2 = rp$ with r < m.
- 4. Continue until m = 1.

Binary quadratic forms

- $Q(x, y) = ax^2 + bxy + cy^2$, discriminant $D = b^2 4ac$.
- **Lemma.** *Q* positive definite iff D < 0 and a > 0.
- ▶ $SL_2(\mathbb{Z})$ acts on quadratic forms by $Q \circ M = M^t Q M$.
- Equivalent forms have the same discriminant and represent the same numbers.
- ▶ **Theorem.** For fixed *D*, there are finitely many SL₂(ℤ)-classes of quadratic forms of discriminant *D*.
- Proof using weakly reduced forms,

 $|b| \leq |a| \leq |c|$

and reduction algorithm.

- ▶ Definition. For D < 0, the class number h(D) is the number of SL₂(Z)-classes of primitive positive definite quadratic forms of discriminant D.
- ► **Algorithm** to compute the class number: list all reduced forms of discriminant *D*.
- Gauss composition turns the set of eqivalence classes into a finite abelian group (GAUSS COMPOTISITION WILL NOT BE ASKED IN THE EXAM).

Pell's equation

- Pell's equation $x^2 dy^2 = 1$ with d > 0 non-square.
- Trivial solutions $(x, y) = (\pm 1, 0)$.
- Fundamental solution $(x_1, y_1) \in \mathbb{N}^2$ with minimal x > 1.
- **Lagrange:** Every solution with x > 1 is of the form (x_n, y_n) where

$$x_n+y_n\sqrt{d}=(x_1+y_1\sqrt{d})^n.$$

Solutions (x, y) yield rational approximation $\frac{x}{y}$ to \sqrt{d} with

$$\left|\frac{x}{y}-\sqrt{d}\right|<\frac{1}{2y^2}$$

Continued fractions

- Continued fraction $[a_0, \ldots, a_n] = a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_0 + \dots}}$.
- Algorithm to compute the expansion of a rational number.
- Quadratic irrational w satisfies $aw^2 + bw + c = 0$ with $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- **Theorem.** *w* quadratic irrational iff *w* has a periodic CFE.
- Algorithm to compute expansion of quadratic irrational, e.g. $\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$.
- **Theorem.** \sqrt{d} has CFE of the form

$$\sqrt{d} = [a_0, \overline{a_1, \ldots, a_{n-1}, 2a_0}], \quad a_0 = \lfloor \sqrt{d} \rfloor.$$

• Main Theorem. Let *n* be minimal in \sqrt{d} above.

1. If *n* is even, put
$$\frac{x}{y} = [a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}]$$
.
2. If *n* is odd, put $\frac{x}{y} = [a_0, \dots, a_{2n-1}]$.

Then (x, y) is the fundamental solution to $x^2 - dy^2 = 1$.

- Pythagorean triple: $(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{N}^3$ with $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$.
- Theorem. Every primitive Pythagorean triple with odd a is of the form

$$(m^2 - n^2, 2mn, m^2 + n^2)$$

for unique coprime m > n of different parity.

Congruent numbers

- Congruent number n: area of a right-angled triangle with rational side lengths.
- **Example:** n = 6 is congruent, the triangle has sides (3, 4, 5).
- **Lemma.** *n* is congruent iff d^2n is congruent for every $d \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \{0\}$.
- **Fermat:** 1, 2, 3 are not congruent numbers.
- **Corollary:** $x^4 + y^4 = z^4$ has no non-trivial integer solutions.
- **Tunnell:** Let *n* be square-free, and put

$$\begin{split} &A(n) = \#\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}^3 \ : \ 2x^2 + y^2 + 8z^2 = n\}, \\ &B(n) = \#\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}^3 \ : \ 2x^2 + y^2 + 32z^2 = n\}, \\ &C(n) = \#\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}^3 \ : \ 8x^2 + 2y^2 + 16z^2 = n\}, \\ &D(n) = \#\{(x, y, z) \in \mathbb{Z}^3 \ : \ 8x^2 + 2y^2 + 64z^2 = n\}. \end{split}$$

Then:

- 1. If n is an odd congruent number, then A(n) = 2B(n).
- 2. If n is an even congruent number, then C(n) = 2D(n).
- **Example** 10 is not a congruent number.

Partitions - WILL NOT BE ASKED IN THE EXAM

- p(n) counts the number of partitions of n.
- Example: p(4) = 5 since
 4 = 3 + 1 = 2 + 2 = 2 + 1 + 1 = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1.
- Generating function:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p(n) x^n = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1-x^n}$$

• Euler's Pentagonal Number Theorem:

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x^n) = \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^{k(3k-1)/2}.$$

Recursions: