

Number Theory

1 The fundamental theorem of arithmetic

An integer $p > 1$ is a prime number if its only positive divisors are 1 and p (by convention, $p = 1$ is not considered a prime number). The prime numbers form an infinite set. Indeed, if there was finitely many prime numbers $p_1 < p_2 < \dots < p_k$, then $q := p_1 p_2 \dots p_k + 1 > p_k$ would not be prime, hence it would be divisible by some prime number p_i , but then $p_i | q - p_1 \dots p_i \dots p_k = 1$, which is absurd. In fact, the prime number theorem states that the number $\pi(n)$ of primes less than or equal to n behaves like $n / \ln(n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

The fundamental theorem of arithmetic states that every integer $n > 1$ can be written uniquely (up to the order of factors) as product of primes.

2 Euclid algorithm and its consequences

Two integers $n > 1$ and $m > 1$ are called coprime (or relatively prime) if they share no common prime factor. Stated differently, n and m are coprime if their greatest common divisor is 1. The notions of greatest common divisor and least common multiple are self-explanatory. With obvious notations, we have $\gcd(n, m) \cdot \text{lcm}(n, m) = n \cdot m$. The greatest common divisor of n and m can be found via Euclid algorithm: with $n > m$, set $r_0 = n$, $r_1 = m$, and produce r_k inductively for $k \geq 2$ from the division of r_{k-2} by r_{k-1} as

$$r_{k-2} = q_{k-1} r_{k-1} + r_k, \quad 0 \leq r_k < r_{k-1}.$$

Since the sequence of nonnegative numbers $(r_k)_{k \geq 0}$ is strictly decreasing, it eventually reaches $r_K = 0$, and $\gcd(n, m) = r_{K-1}$. This is the case because gcd is preserved at each iteration, i.e.,

$$(1) \quad \gcd(r_{k-2}, r_{k-1}) = \gcd(r_{k-1}, r_k), \quad k \geq 2,$$

hence $\gcd(n, m) = \gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_{K-2}, r_{K-1}) = r_{K-1}$ where the latter equality is due to the fact that r_{K-2} divides r_{K-1} . The set of integer combinations is also preserved at each iteration, i.e.,

$$(2) \quad \{pr_k + qr_{k-1}, (p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \{pr_{k+1} + qr_k, (p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}\}, \quad k \geq 2,$$

so the equality between the first and last sets gives

$$\{pn + qm, (p, q) \in \mathbb{Z}\} = \gcd(n, m)\mathbb{Z}.$$

This implies in particular Bézout lemma, i.e.,

$$\gcd(n, m) = 1 \iff \exists p, q \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ such that } pn + qm = 1.$$

In turn, the latter is used to prove Euclid lemma (obvious with prime factor decompositions, but needed in the uniqueness part of the fundamental theorem of arithmetic) which says that

if m divides nr and if m and n are coprime, then m divides r .

To see this, write $nr = dm$ and $pn + qm = 1$, so that $r = (pn + qm)r = pdm + qmr = (pd + qr)m$.

3 Euler totient function

Define the Euler function ϕ on the positive integers by

$$\phi(n) := \text{card}\{k \in [1 : n] \text{ such that } k \text{ and } n \text{ are coprime}\}.$$

Note that, if p is prime and if $s \geq 1$ is an integer, then $\phi(p^s) = p^s - p^{s-1} = p^s(1 - 1/p)$ (because there are p^{s-1} integers in $[1 : p^s]$ that are not coprime with p^s , namely $p, 2p, 3p, \dots, p^{s-1}p = p^s$). Note also that ϕ is multiplicative, meaning that $\phi(nm) = \phi(n)\phi(m)$ whenever n and m are coprime (this is a consequence of the Chinese remainder theorem, see *Modular Arithmetic*). Combining these two facts with the prime factor decomposition $n = p_1^{s_1} p_2^{s_2} \cdots p_\ell^{s_\ell}$ of a positive integer gives the formula

$$\phi(n) = n \prod_{p \text{ prime, } p|n} \left(1 - \frac{1}{p}\right).$$

Multiplying out the right-hand side yields

$$(3) \quad \phi(n) = \sum_{d|n} \frac{n}{d} \mu(d) = \sum_{d|n} d \mu\left(\frac{n}{d}\right),$$

where μ is the Möbius function defined by $\mu(1) = 1$ and, for $m > 1$,

$$\mu(m) := \begin{cases} (-1)^\ell & \text{if } m = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_\ell \text{ is a product of } \ell \text{ distinct primes,} \\ 0 & \text{if } p^2 | m \text{ for some prime } p. \end{cases}$$

This can be concisely written as $\phi = \text{id} * \mu$, where the Dirichlet convolution is the commutative operation defined, for two functions a, b on positive integers, by

$$(a * b)(n) = \sum_{ij=n} a(i)b(j).$$

This operation has an identity given by $e(1) = 1$ and $e(m) = 0$, $m > 1$, and is associative, since

$$\begin{aligned} [a * (b * c)](n) &= \sum_{im=n} a(i)(b * c)(m) = \sum_{im=n} a(i) \sum_{jk=m} b(j)c(k) = \sum_{ijk=n} a(i)b(j)c(k), \\ [(a * b) * c](n) &= \sum_{km=n} (a * b)(m)c(k) = \sum_{km=n} \sum_{ij=m} a(i)b(j)c(k) = \sum_{ijk=n} a(i)b(j)c(k). \end{aligned}$$

Let us also notice that, for an integer $m > 1$ decomposed in prime factors as $m = p_1^{s_1} p_2^{s_2} \cdots p_\ell^{s_\ell}$,

$$\sum_{d|m} \mu(d) = \sum_{r_1, \dots, r_\ell \in \{0,1\}} \mu(p_1^{r_1} p_2^{r_2} \cdots p_\ell^{r_\ell}) = \sum_{h=0}^{\ell} \binom{\ell}{h} (-1)^h = (1-1)^\ell = 0.$$

Since the sum takes the value 1 for $m = 1$, we have $\mu * 1 = e$. Now, if $a = b * \mu$, then $a * 1 = b * \mu * 1 = b * e = b$, and conversely, if $a * 1 = b$, then $b * \mu = a * 1 * \mu = a * e = a$. Spelling out the convolutions leads to Möbius inversion formula: for functions a, b on positive integers,

$$a(n) = \sum_{d|n} b(d) \mu(n/d) \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1 \iff b(n) = \sum_{d|n} a(d) \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1.$$

Taking $a = \phi$ and $b = \text{id}$ in the latter and using (3) gives Euler formula, that is

$$\sum_{d|n} \phi(d) = n.$$

4 Exercises

Ex.1: Verify the statements made in (1) and (2).

Ex.2: Prove that the distance between two consecutive prime numbers is unbounded.

Ex.3: Prove that the product of three consecutive integers is never a perfect power (i.e., not a perfect square, not a perfect cube, etc.).

Ex.4: For an integer $n \geq 1$, prove that $n^4 - 7n^2 + 1$ cannot be a perfect square.

Ex.5: If n is an integer with prime factor decomposition $n = p_1^{k_1} p_2^{k_2} \cdots p_\ell^{k_\ell}$, let $f(n) := \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} k_i p_i$ and $g(n) := \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{f \circ \cdots \circ f}_m(n)$. Evaluate $g(100)$ and $g(10^{10})$. Find all odd integers $n > 1$ such that $n/2 < g(n) < n$.