# MAU23101 <br> Introduction to number theory <br> 1 - Divisibility and factorisation 

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## Main goal of this chapter

## Theorem (Fundamental theorem of arithmetic)

Every positive integer can be uniquely decomposed as a product of primes.

## Remark

Uniqueness is not obvious!
Given a non-prime integer $n$, we can write $n=a b$, and continue factoring.
But if we start with $n=a^{\prime} b^{\prime}$, will we get the same factors in the end?

## Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}=\{\cdots,-2,-1,0,1,2, \cdots\}$.
- $\mathbb{N}=\{1,2,3, \cdots\}$.


## Remark

In some languages, $\mathbb{N}=\{0,1,2,3, \cdots\}$.
$\rightsquigarrow$ Better notation: $\mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 1}$.

## Smallest and largest elements

## Proposition

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be a non-empty, finite subset. Then $S$ has a smallest element, and a largest element.

## Counter-example

Not true for $S=\mathbb{R}_{>0}=(0,+\infty)$.

## Corollary

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}, S \neq \emptyset$. Then $S$ has a smallest element.

## Proof.

Since $S \neq \emptyset$, there exists $s_{0} \in S$. Let

$$
S_{\leqslant s_{0}}=\left\{s \in S \mid s \leqslant s_{0}\right\} .
$$

Then $\min S=\min S_{\leqslant s_{0}}$, which exists because $S_{\leqslant s_{0}}$ is finite.

## Application: proof by induction

## Theorem (Proof by induction)

Let $P(n)$ be a property depending on $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
If $P(1)$ holds, and if $P(n) \Longrightarrow P(n+1)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

## Proof.

Suppose not. Then

$$
S=\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid P(n) \text { does not hold }\}
$$

is not empty. Let $n_{0}=\min S$. Then $n_{0} \neq 1$, so $n_{0}-1 \in \mathbb{N}$.
We have $P\left(n_{0}\right)$ is false, but $P\left(n_{0}-1\right)$ is true, because $n_{0}-1 \notin S$ a $n_{0}-1<\min S$. Absurd.

## Euclidean division in $\mathbb{Z}$

## Theorem

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \in \mathbb{N}$. There exist $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a=b q+r$ and $0 \leqslant r<b$.
Moreover, $q$ and $r$ are unique.

## Euclidean division in $\mathbb{Z}$

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Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \in \mathbb{N}$. There exist $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
a=b q+r \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leqslant r<b
$$

Moreover, $q$ and $r$ are unique.

## Proof.

Existence: WLOG, assume $a \geqslant 0$. Take
$q=\max \{x \in \mathbb{Z} \mid b x \leqslant a\}=\max \{x \in \mathbb{Z},-a \leqslant x \leqslant a \mid b x \leqslant a\}$ and $r=a-b q$. Then $b q \leqslant a$, so $r \geqslant 0$. Besides, if $r \geqslant b$, then

$$
b(q+1)=b q+b=a \underbrace{-r+b}_{\leqslant 0} \leqslant a,
$$

contradiction with the definition of $q$.

## Euclidean division in $\mathbb{Z}$

## Theorem

Let $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \in \mathbb{N}$. There exist $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $r \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
a=b q+r \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leqslant r<b
$$

Moreover, $q$ and $r$ are unique.

## Proof.

Uniqueness: Suppose now $a=b q+r=b q^{\prime}+r^{\prime}$ with $0 \leqslant r, r^{\prime}<b$. Then

$$
-b<r-r^{\prime}<b
$$

but also

$$
r-r^{\prime}=(a-b q)-\left(a-b q^{\prime}\right)=b\left(q-q^{\prime}\right)
$$

whence (divide by $b$ )

$$
-1<\underbrace{q-q^{\prime}}_{\in \mathbb{Z}}<1
$$

So $q-q^{\prime}=0$, whence $q=q^{\prime}$ and $r=r^{\prime}$.

## Divisibility

## Divisibility

## Definition (Divisibility)

For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, we say that $a \mid b$ if there exists $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $b=a k$.

## Remark

$a \mid b$ iff. $b$ is a multiple of $a$.

## Example

- $-2 \mid 6$.
- $1 \mid x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- $x \mid 1$ iff. $x= \pm 1$.
- If $a \neq 0$, then $a \mid b$ iff. $b / a \in \mathbb{Z}$.
- $0 \mid x$ iff. $x=0$.
- $x \mid 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{Z}$.


## Divisibility of combinations

## Proposition

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then

$$
a \mid(b x+c y)
$$

for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. In particular,

$$
a \mid(b+c) \quad \text { and } \quad a \mid(b-c)
$$

## Proof.

$a \mid b$ so $b=a k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Similarly $c=a l$ for some $I \in \mathbb{Z}$. So

$$
b x+c y=a k x+a l y=a(\underbrace{k x+l y}_{\in \mathbb{Z}}) .
$$

## gcd and lcm

## Definition

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{gcd}(a, b) & =\max \{d \in \mathbb{N}|d| a \text { and } d \mid b\} \\
\operatorname{Icm}(a, b) & =\min \{m \in \mathbb{N}|a| m \text { and } b \mid m\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example

For $a=18$ and $b=12$, we have

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=6, \operatorname{lcm}(a, b)=36
$$

Example $\operatorname{gcd}(n, n+1)=1$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. Indeed, let $d \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that $d \mid n$ and $d \mid(n+1)$; then $d \mid((n+1)-n)=1$.

## The Euclidean algorithm

## Theorem

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Start by dividing a by $b$, then iteratively divide the previous divisor by the previous remainder. The last nonzero remainder is $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$.

## Example

Take $a=23$ and $b=9$. We compute

- $23=9 \times 2+5$.
- $9=5 \times 1+4$.
- $5=4 \times 1+1$.
- $4=1 \times 4+0$.
$\rightsquigarrow \operatorname{gcd}(23,9)=1$.


## The Euclidean algorithm

## Lemma

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Define

$$
\operatorname{Div}(a, b)=\{d \in \mathbb{N}|d| a \text { and } d \mid b\}
$$

and let $a=b q+r$ be the Euclidean division. Then

$$
\operatorname{Div}(a, b)=\operatorname{Div}(b, r)
$$

## Proof.

- $\subseteq$ : If $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, then $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r=a 1+b(-q)$.
- $\supseteq$ : If $d \mid b$ and $d \mid r$, then $d \mid a=b q+r 1$ and $d \mid b$.


## The Euclidean algorithm

## Lemma

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Define

$$
\operatorname{Div}(a, b)=\{d \in \mathbb{N}|d| a \text { and } d \mid b\}
$$

and let $a=b q+r$ be the Euclidean division. Then

$$
\operatorname{Div}(a, b)=\operatorname{Div}(b, r)
$$

## Proof of the Euclidean algorithm.

Let $z$ be the last nonzero remainder in the Euclidean algorithm. Then

$$
\operatorname{Div}(a, b)=\cdots=\operatorname{Div}(\cdots, z)=\operatorname{Div}(z, 0)=\operatorname{Div}(z)
$$

whence $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=\max \operatorname{Div}(a, b)=\max \operatorname{Div}(z)=z$.

## Bézout's theorem

Theorem (Bézout)
Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. There exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=a u+b v
$$

## Bézout's theorem

## Theorem (Bézout)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. There exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

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\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=a u+b v
$$

Proof.

- $23=9 \times 2+5$.
- $9=5 \times 1+4$.
- $5=4 \times 1+1$.


## Bézout's theorem

## Theorem (Bézout)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. There exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=a u+b v
$$

Proof.

- $5=23-9 \times 2$.
- $4=9-5 \times 1$.
- $1=5-4 \times 1$.


## Bézout's theorem

## Theorem (Bézout)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. There exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=a u+b v
$$

Proof.

- $5=23-9 \times 2$.
- $4=9-5 \times 1$.
- $1=5-4 \times 1$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\rightsquigarrow 1 & =5-4 \times 1 \\
& =5-(9-5 \times 1) \times 1=5 \times 2-9 \times 1 \\
& =(23-9 \times 2) \times 2-9 \times 1=23 \times 2-9 \times 5 .
\end{aligned}
$$

## Bézout's theorem

## Theorem (Bézout)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. There exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=a u+b v
$$

Corollary
Two integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are coprime iff. there exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
a u+b v=1
$$

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Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. There exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

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Corollary
Two integers $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ are coprime iff. there exist $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$
a u+b v=1
$$

## Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{gcd}(n, n+1)=1 \text { for all } n \in \mathbb{N} \text {, because } \\
& n \times(-1)+(n+1) \times 1=1
\end{aligned}
$$

## The fundamental theorem of arithmetic

## Prime numbers

## Definition (Prime number)

Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$. $p$ is prime if it has exactly two positive divisors. In other words, this means $p \neq 1$ and for all $d \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$
d \mid p \Longleftrightarrow d=1 \text { or } p .
$$

An integer $n \geqslant 2$ which is not prime is called composite.

## Remark

$n \geqslant 2$ is composite iff. there exist $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $1<a, b<n$ and $a b=n$.

## Remark

If $p \in \mathbb{N}$ is prime, then for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(p, n)= \begin{cases}1, & \text { if } p \nmid n \\ p, & \text { if } p \mid n\end{cases}
$$

## Gauss's lemma

## Lemma (Gauss)

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b c$ and if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, then $a \mid c$.

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> Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b c$ and if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, then $a \mid c$.

Counter-example
$6 \mid 10 \times 3$ but $6 \nmid 10,6 \nmid 3$.

## Gauss's lemma

> Lemma (Gauss)
> Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b c$ and if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, then $a \mid c$.

## Proof.

$\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$ so $a u+b v=1$ for some $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$
a \mid a u c+b c v=(a u+b v) c=c
$$

## Gauss's lemma

## Lemma (Gauss)

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b c$ and if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, then $a \mid c$.

## Corollary (Euclid's lemma)

Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$ be prime, and let $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $p \mid b c$, then $p \mid b$ or $p \mid c$.

## Gauss's lemma

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Lemma (Gauss) } \\
& \text { Let } a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z} \text {. If } a \mid b c \text { and if } \operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1 \text {, then } a \mid c \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Counter-example
$6 \mid 10 \times 3$ but $6 \nmid 10,6 \nmid 3$.

Corollary (Euclid's lemma)
Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$ be prime, and let $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $p \mid b c$, then $p \mid b$ or $p \mid c$.

## Gauss's lemma

## Lemma (Gauss)

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $a \mid b c$ and if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$, then $a \mid c$.

## Corollary (Euclid's lemma)

Let $p \in \mathbb{N}$ be prime, and let $b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. If $p \mid b c$, then $p \mid b$ or $p \mid c$.

## Proof.

If $p \mid b$, OK. Else, $\operatorname{gcd}(p, b)=1$; apply Gauss's lemma.

## The fundamental theorem of arithmetic

## Theorem

Every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is a product of primes, and this decomposition is unique (up to re-ordering the factors).

## Proof.

Existence: If $n$ is prime, done. Else, $n=a b$ with $1<a, b<n$; recurse.
Uniqueness: Suppose

$$
n=p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{r}=q_{1} q_{2} \cdots q_{s}
$$

where the $p_{i}$ and the $q_{j}$ are prime. Then

$$
p_{1} \mid p_{1} p_{2} \cdots p_{r}=q_{1} q_{2} \cdots q_{s}
$$

by applying Euclid's lemma repeatedly, we get $p_{1} \mid q_{j}$ for some $j$. Since $q_{j}$ is prime, this forces $p_{1}=q_{j}$. Simplify by $p_{1}=q_{j}$ and start over.

## Practical factoring

## Factoring integers

## Lemma

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 2}$. If $n$ is composite, there exists prime $p \leqslant \sqrt{n}$ such that $d \mid n$.

## Proof.

As $n$ is composite, $n=a b$ with $2 \leqslant a, b<n$. If we had $a, b>\sqrt{n}$, then $n=a b>\sqrt{n}^{2}=n$, absurd; So WLOG $a \leqslant \sqrt{n}$. Consider a prime divisor of $a$.

## Factoring integers

## Lemma

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 2}$. If $n$ is composite, there exists prime $p \leqslant \sqrt{n}$ such that $d \mid n$.

## Example

Let $n=23$. Then $\sqrt{n}<\sqrt{25}=5$, so the primes $\leqslant \sqrt{n}$ are 2 and 3 . Since neither divides $n, n$ is prime.

## Factoring integers

## Lemma

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 2}$. If $n$ is composite, there exists prime $p \leqslant \sqrt{n}$ such that $d \mid n$.

## Example

Let $n=91$. For $p \in\{2,3,5\}$, we have $p \mid 90$, so

$$
p|n \Longrightarrow p|(n-90)=1
$$

absurd, thus $p \nmid n$.
However $91 / 7=13 \in \mathbb{Z}$, so we have a partial factorisation

$$
n=7 \times 13
$$

If 7 or 13 were composite, they would have a prime factor $p \leqslant \sqrt{13} \leqslant 5$; but then $p \mid 7 \times 13=n$, absurd. So 7 and 13 are prime, and we have completely factored $n$.

## Valuations

## $p$-adic valuation

## Definition

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0$. Write it as $n= \pm \prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}}$ where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 0}$ and the $p_{i}$ are distinct primes.
Define $v_{p_{i}}(n)=a_{i}$.

## Example

$18=2^{1} \times 3^{2}$, so $v_{2}(18)=1, v_{3}(18)=2, v_{p}(18)=0$ for $p \geqslant 5$.

## $p$-adic valuation

## Definition

Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \neq 0$. Write it as $n= \pm \prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}}$ where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geqslant 0}$ and the $p_{i}$ are distinct primes.
Define $v_{p_{i}}(n)=a_{i}$.
Convention: $v_{p}(0)=+\infty$.

## Proposition

Let $p$ be prime. Then for all $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$,

- $v_{p}(m n)=v_{p}(m)+v_{p}(n)$,
- $v_{p}(m+n) \geqslant \min \left(v_{p}(m), v_{p}(n)\right)$.


## Proof.

Exercise!

## Valuations vs. divisibility

## Remark

Given integers $m, n, \cdots$, we may always write

$$
m=\prod p_{i}^{a_{i}}, \quad n=\prod p_{i}^{b_{i}}, \cdots
$$

with the same distinct primes $p_{i}$, by allowing some $a_{i}, b_{i}, \cdots$ to be 0 .

## Lemma

Let $m=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}}, n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \in \mathbb{N}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct primes.
Then $m \mid n$ iff. $a_{i} \leqslant b_{i}$ for all $i$.
Example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 6=2^{1} 3^{1} \mid 60=2^{2} 3^{1} 5^{1} \\
& 12=2^{2} 3^{1} \nmid 18=2^{1} 3^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Valuations vs. divisibility

## Remark

Given integers $m, n, \cdots$, we may always write

$$
m=\prod p_{i}^{a_{i}}, \quad n=\prod p_{i}^{b_{i}}, \cdots
$$

with the same distinct primes $p_{i}$, by allowing some $a_{i}, b_{i}, \cdots$ to be 0 .

## Lemma

Let $m=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}}, n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \in \mathbb{N}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct primes. Then $m \mid n$ iff. $a_{i} \leqslant b_{i}$ for all $i$.

## Proof.

Exercise!

## Valuations vs. gcd and Icm

## Theorem

Let $m=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}}, n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \in \mathbb{N}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct primes.
Then $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{\min \left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)}, \quad \operatorname{Icm}(m, n)=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{\max \left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)}$.

## Valuations vs. gcd and Icm

## Theorem

Let $m=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}}, n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \in \mathbb{N}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct primes.
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## Corollary

The common divisors of $m$ and $n$ are exactly the divisors of $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)$.
The common multiples of $m$ and $n$ are exactly the multiples of $\operatorname{lcm}(m, n)$.

## Valuations vs. gcd and Icm

## Theorem

Let $m=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}}, n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{b_{i}} \in \mathbb{N}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct primes.
Then $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{\min \left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)}, \quad \operatorname{Icm}(m, n)=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{\max \left(a_{i}, b_{i}\right)}$.

## Corollary

$$
\operatorname{gcd}(m, n) \operatorname{lcm}(m, n)=m n \quad \rightsquigarrow \quad \operatorname{lcm}(m, n)=\frac{m n}{\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)}
$$

## Proof.

We always have $\min (a, b)+\max (a, b)=a+b$.

# Multiplicative functions 

## Multiplicative functions

## Definition

Let $f: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be a function.

- $f$ is strongly multiplicative if $f(m n)=f(m) f(n)$ for all $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- $f$ is (weakly) multiplicative if $f(m n)=f(m) f(n)$ for all $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\operatorname{gcd}(m, n)=1$.

We will see examples later!

## Sum of geometric progressions

## Lemma

Let $x \in \mathbb{C}, x \neq 1$; and let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$
1+x+x^{2}+x^{3}+\cdots+x^{n}=\frac{x^{n+1}-1}{x-1}
$$

## Remark

If $x=1$, what is $1+x+x^{2}+x^{3}+\cdots+x^{n}$ ?
And what is $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^{n+1}-1}{x-1}$ ?

## Sums of powers of divisors

## Definition

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k \in \mathbb{C}$, let $\sigma_{k}(n)=\sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d>0}} d^{k}$.

Example

- $\sigma_{2}(12)=1^{2}+2^{2}+3^{2}+4^{2}+6^{2}+12^{2}=210$.
- $\sigma_{1}(n)=$ sum of positive divisors of $n$.
- $\sigma_{0}(n)=$ number of positive divisors of $n$.


## Sums of powers of divisors

## Definition

For $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k \in \mathbb{C}$, let $\sigma_{k}(n)=\sum_{\substack{d \mid n \\ d>0}} d^{k}$.

## Theorem

Let $n=\prod_{i} p_{i}^{a_{i}} \in \mathbb{N}$, with the $p_{i}$ distinct primes. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sigma_{0}(n)=\prod_{i}\left(a_{i}+1\right), \text { and } \\
\sigma_{k}(n)=\prod_{i} \frac{p_{i}^{k\left(a_{i}+1\right)}-1}{p_{i}^{k}-1} \text { for } k \neq 0 .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Sums of powers of divisors

## Proof.

The positive divisors of $n=\prod_{i=1}^{r} p_{i}^{a_{i}}$ are the $\prod_{i=1}^{r} p_{i}^{b_{i}}$ for all combinations of the $b_{i}$ such that $0 \leqslant b_{i} \leqslant a_{i}$ for all $i$. Thus for each $i$, there are $a_{i}+1$ choices for $b_{i}$, hence the formula for $\sigma_{0}(n)$.

## Sums of powers of divisors

## Proof.

Similarly, for $k \neq 0$, the $k$-th power of these divisors are the $\left(\prod_{i} p_{i}^{b_{i}}\right)^{k}=\prod_{i=1}^{r} p_{i}^{k b_{i}}$, so

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sigma_{k}(n) & =\sum_{\substack{0 \leqslant b_{1} \leqslant a_{1} \\
0 \leqslant b_{r} \leqslant a_{r}}} p_{1}^{k b_{1}} p_{2}^{k b_{2}} \cdots p_{r}^{k b_{r}} \\
& =\sum_{b_{1}=0}^{a_{1}} \sum_{b_{2}=0}^{a_{2}} \cdots \sum_{b_{r}=0}^{a_{r}} p_{1}^{k b_{1}} p_{2}^{k b_{2}} \cdots p_{r}^{k b_{r}} \\
& =\left(\sum_{b_{1}=0}^{a_{1}} p_{1}^{k b_{1}}\right)\left(\sum_{b_{2}=0}^{a_{2}} p_{2}^{k b_{2}}\right) \cdots\left(\sum_{b_{r}=0}^{a_{r}} p_{r}^{k b_{r}}\right) \\
& =\prod_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{b_{i}=0}^{a_{i}} p_{i}^{k b_{i}}=\prod_{i=1}^{r} \frac{p_{i}^{k\left(a_{i}+1\right)}-1}{p_{i}^{k}-1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

## The $\sigma_{k}$ are multiplicative

## Corollary

The $\sigma_{k}$ are weakly multiplicative.

## Proof.

Let $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$ be coprime. Then $m=\prod p_{i}^{a_{i}}, n=\prod q_{j}^{b_{j}}$ with the $p_{i}$ distinct from the $q_{j}$.

## The Diophantine equation $a x+b y=c$

## A family of Diophantine equations

Fix integers $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. We want to solve

$$
a x+b y=c, \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

## A family of Diophantine equations

Fix integers $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. We want to solve

$$
a x+b y=c, \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

## Example

The equation

$$
6 x+10 y=2021
$$

has no solutions such that $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

## A family of Diophantine equations

Fix integers $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. We want to solve

$$
a x+b y=c, \quad x, y \in \mathbb{Z}
$$

## Lemma (Strong Bézout)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. The integers of the form $a x+$ by $(x, y \in \mathbb{Z})$ are exactly the multiples of $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$.

## Proof.

Let $g=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$. Then $g \mid a$ and $g \mid b$, so $g \mid(a x+b y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Conversely, by Bézout, we can find $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a u+b v=g$; then for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
a(k u)+b(k v)=k g .
$$

## A family of Diophantine equations

## Lemma (Strong Bézout)

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$. The integers of the form $a x+b y(x, y \in \mathbb{Z})$ are exactly the multiples of $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$.

## Proof.

Let $g=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$. Then $g \mid a$ and $g \mid b$, so $g \mid(a x+b y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Conversely, by Bézout, we can find $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a u+b v=g$; then for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$,

$$
a(k u)+b(k v)=k g .
$$

## Corollary

The Diophantine equation $a x+b y=c$ has solutions iff. $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b) \mid c$.

## Reduction to the case $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$

## Lemma

Let $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ not both zero, and let $g=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$. Then the integers $a^{\prime}=a / g$ and $b^{\prime}=b / g$ are coprime.

## Proof.

By Bézout, we can find $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a u+b v=g$. Then $a^{\prime} u+b^{\prime} v=1$, so $\operatorname{gcd}\left(a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right)=1$.

To solve $a x+b y=c$ with $c$ a multiple of $g=\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)$, dividing by $g$ yields

$$
a^{\prime} x+b^{\prime} y=c^{\prime}
$$

where $a^{\prime}=a / g, b^{\prime}=b / g, c^{\prime}=c / g$
$\rightsquigarrow$ WLOG, we can assume $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$.

## Solving the case $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ be such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$.
Let $x_{0}, y_{0} \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a x_{0}+b y_{0}=c$.
Suppose $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ also satisfy $a x+b y=c$. Then

$$
a x_{0}+b v y_{0}=c=a x+b y \rightsquigarrow a\left(x_{0}-x\right)=b\left(y-y_{0}\right) .
$$

So $a\left|b\left(y-y_{0}\right) \underset{\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}{\text { Gauss }} a\right|\left(y-y_{0}\right)$, whence $y=y_{0}+$ ka for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.
Similarly, $b\left|a\left(x_{0}-x\right) \underset{\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1}{\text { Gauss }} b\right|\left(x_{0}-x\right)$, whence $x=x_{0}+l b$ for some $l \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Besides, $a\left(x_{0}-x\right)=b\left(y-y_{0}\right)$ implies $I=-k$.

## Solving the case $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$

## Proposition

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ be such that $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$. Then $a x+b y=c$ has infinitely many solutions. If $x_{0}, y_{0}$ is a solution, then the general solutions are $x=x_{0}-k b, y=y_{0}+k a(k \in \mathbb{Z})$.

## Solving the case $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$

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## Theorem

Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$. The Diophantine equation $a x+b y=c$ has infinitely many solutions if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b) \mid c$, and none if $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b) \nmid c$.

## Solving the case $\operatorname{gcd}(a, b)=1$

## Example

We want to solve $6 x+10 y=2020$.
$g=\operatorname{gcd}(6,10)=2 \mid 2020 \rightsquigarrow$ infinitely many solutions.
Simplify by $g: 3 x+5 y=1010$.
Particular solution: Euclidean algorithm gives $3 u+5 v=1$ for $u=2, v=-1 \rightsquigarrow$ can take $x_{0}=2020, y_{0}=-1010$.
Or directly spot $x_{0}=0, y_{0}=202$.
Either way, the solutions are

$$
x=x_{0}-5 k, y=y_{0}+3 k, k \in \mathbb{Z} .
$$

## Complements on primes

## Infinitely many primes

## Theorem (Euclid)

There are infinitely many primes.

## Proof.

Suppose not, and let $p_{1}, \cdots, p_{r}$ be all the primes. Consider

$$
N=p_{1} \cdots p_{r}+1
$$

and let $p \mid N$ be a prime divisor of $N$. Then $p$ is one of the $p_{i}$, so

$$
p \mid p_{1} \cdots p_{r}
$$

thus

$$
p \mid\left(N-p_{1} \cdots p_{r}\right)=1
$$

absurd.

## Infinitely many primes

## Theorem (Euclid)

There are infinitely many primes.

## Example

$p_{1}=3$ is prime.
Prime divisor of $3+1=4=2 \times 2 \rightsquigarrow$ new prime $p_{2}=2$.
Prime divisor of $3 \times 2+1=7 \rightsquigarrow$ new prime $p_{3}=7$.
Prime divisor of $3 \times 2 \times 7+1=43 \rightsquigarrow$ new prime $p_{4}=43$.
Prime divisor of $3 \times 2 \times 7 \times 43+1=13 \times 139 \rightsquigarrow$ new prime $p_{5}=13$ (or 139)...

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## Joke

Theorem: There are infinitely many composite numbers.
Proof: Suppose not. Multiply all the composite numbers. Do not add 1!

## The prime number theorem (NON-EXAMINABLE)

## Theorem (1896)

For $x \in \mathbb{R}_{\geqslant 0}$, let $\pi(x)=\#\{p$ prime $\mid p \leqslant x\}$; for instance $\pi(8.2)=4$. Then, as $x \rightarrow+\infty$,

$$
\pi(x) \sim \frac{x}{\log x}
$$

It follows that the $n$-th prime is $\sim n \log n$ as $n \rightarrow+\infty$.

## Example

For $x=10^{10}$, we have

$$
\pi\left(10^{10}\right)=455052511 \text { whereas } \frac{10^{10}}{\log 10^{10}}=434294481.9032 \ldots
$$

The billionth prime is $p_{10^{9}}=22801763489$ whereas $10^{9} \log 10^{9}=20723265836.94 \ldots$

## The prime number theorem (NON-EXAMINABLE)

## Remark

A better estimate is

$$
\pi(x) \sim \operatorname{Li}(x) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \int_{2}^{x} \frac{d t}{\log t}
$$

The Riemann hypothesis about the complex zeroes of

$$
\zeta(s) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \sum_{n=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{n^{s}} \stackrel{\text { FTA }}{=} \prod_{p \text { prime }} \frac{1}{1-p^{-s}}
$$

implies

$$
\pi(x)-\operatorname{Li}(x)=O(\sqrt{x} \log x)
$$

Without it, we can still prove

$$
\pi(x)-\mathrm{Li}(x)=O\left(x / e^{c \sqrt{\log x}}\right) \text { for some } c>0
$$

