

View the lecture on YouTube: <https://youtu.be/6So-0z4zsx4>

View motivational speech from Adam Spencer on YouTube to understand the nature of prime numbers: <https://youtu.be/B4xOFsygwr4>

Definition: Any positive integer > 1 is prime if and only if its factors are 1 and itself, and the positive integer that is not prime is called composite number.

If x is a positive real number then $\pi(x)$ denotes the number of primes $\leq x$.

Theorem 1: Every integer $n \geq 2$ has a prime factor.

Proof: This proof involves strong induction.

For $n = 2$, the statement is true since 2 is a prime number. Assume that all integers between 2 and k ($2 \leq x \leq k$) has a prime factor.

TPT the integer $k + 1$ also has a prime factor

- (i) If $k + 1$ is prime then it is a factor of itself
- (ii) If $k + 1$ is not prime then $k + 1$ has factors between $2 \leq x \leq k \Rightarrow (k + 1)$ has a prime factor.

Hence by induction all integers $n \geq 2$ has a prime factor.

Theorem 2: Prove that there are infinitely many primes.

Proof: Assume the contradiction, that is there is only a finite number of primes i.e., $p_1, p_2, p_3 \dots p_n$

Now, consider an integer $N = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n + 1$ since $N \geq 2$, N is divisible by some prime $p_i, 0 \leq i \leq n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Since } p_i / N &\Rightarrow p_i / (p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n) \\ &\Rightarrow p_i / (N - p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n) = p_i / 1. \end{aligned}$$

which is a contradiction that it is divided by only one term.

Hence the assumption is false.

\Rightarrow There are infinitely many primes.

Theorem 3: Prove that there are infinitely many prime of the form $4n + 3$.

Proof: To prove this assume the contradiction. i.e., there are only finite number of primes of the form $4n + 3$ and let them be $p_1, p_2, p_3 \dots p_n$.

Let $N = 4(p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n) - 1$, then $N \equiv -1 \pmod{4} \Rightarrow N \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$.

Let the prime factorization of N be given as $N = q_1 q_2 q_3 \dots q_l$.

Since N is odd $\Rightarrow q_1, q_2, q_3 \dots q_l$ are all odd.

Note that any q_i satisfies one of the residues

$$q_i \equiv 1(\text{mod}4), q_i \equiv 2(\text{mod}4), q_i \equiv 3(\text{mod}4), q_i \equiv 0(\text{mod}4).$$

Since q_i is odd, $q_i \equiv 2(\text{mod}4), q_i \equiv 0(\text{mod}4)$ is not possible.

Therefore, we have $q_i \equiv 1(\text{mod}4)$ or $q_i \equiv 3(\text{mod}4)$.

Claim 1: At least for one i , $q_i \equiv 3(\text{mod}4)$.

To prove this claim assume the contrary that $q_i \equiv 1(\text{mod}4)$ for each $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$.

$$q_1 q_2 q_3 \dots q_l \equiv 1.1.1 \dots 1(\text{mod}4)$$

$N \equiv 1(\text{mod}4)$, which is a contradiction. Hence the claim.

Claim 2: q_i is different from each of $p_1, p_2, p_3 \dots p_n$.

To prove this assume the contradiction, i.e., $q_i = p_j$ for some j .

Therefore, $p_j / (4p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n) \Rightarrow p_j / (N + 1)$ by definition of N .

$$\Rightarrow q_i / N \Rightarrow p_j / N, \text{ since } q_i = p_j.$$

Now, $p_j / (N + 1)$ and $p_j / N \Rightarrow p_j / N + 1 - N \Rightarrow p_j / 1$ which

is contradiction that p_j is prime. Hence the Claim.

Claim 1 and 2 contradicts the assumption that there are finite number of prime.

Hence, there are infinitely many primes.

Theorem 4: For every positive integer n there are n consecutive integers that are composite.

Proof: Consider a n consecutive integers of the form

$$(n + 1)! + 2, (n + 1)! + 3, \dots, (n + 1)! + n + 1.$$

For any integer k ,

such that $2 \leq k \leq n + 1$ and by previous theorem, we have $k / (n + 1)!$ and also k / k , therefore $k / (n + 1)! + k$ for every k .

\Rightarrow each of them is composite.

Theorem 5: Every composite number n has a prime factor $\leq \sqrt{n}$.

Proof: Consider a composite number n . Then n can be written as a product of integers.

So for $a, b \in N$, let $n = ab$ be the composite number.

If suppose $a > \sqrt{n}$, $b > \sqrt{n}$, then $n = ab > \sqrt{n}\sqrt{n} > n$, which is a contradiction.

Therefore, $a \leq \sqrt{n}$, $b \leq \sqrt{n}$.

We know that, every positive integer ≥ 2 has a prime factor. Any such factor of a or b is also a factor of $ab = n$. So n must have a prime factor.

Important Results:

1. Let $p_1, p_2, p_3 \dots p_t$ be the prime $\leq \sqrt{n}$, then

$$\pi(n) = n - 1 + \pi(\sqrt{n}) - \sum_i \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i} \right\rfloor + \sum_{i < j} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i p_j} \right\rfloor - \sum_{i < j < k} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i p_j p_k} \right\rfloor + \dots + (-1)^n \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_t} \right\rfloor$$

2. If x approaches ∞ , $\pi(x)$ approaches $\frac{x}{\log x}$ for $x \geq 2$. i.e

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi(x)}{x/\log x} = 1.$$

Example 1: Determine whether the following are prime or composite

- a) 129 b) 1729 c) 1601 d) 1001

Solution: a) It's composite since 3 is a factor

b) Given 1729.

The prime factors $\leq \sqrt{1729} = 41.58$ are 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37.

In this 7 is a factor of 1729 (7|1729). Therefore, it is a composite number

c) 1601. The prime factors $\leq \sqrt{1601} = 40.01$ are 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31, 37

In this none of the numbers divide 1601.

Therefore, 1601 is a prime number.

d) 1001. The prime factors $\leq \sqrt{1001} = 31$ are 2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23, 29, 31.

In this 7 is a factor of 1001 (7|1001). Therefore, it is a composite number

Example 2: Find the number of primes ≤ 61 using $\pi(x)$.

Solution:

$$\pi(n) = n - 1 + \pi(\sqrt{n}) - \sum_i \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i} \right\rfloor + \sum_{i < j} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i p_j} \right\rfloor - \sum_{i < j < k} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i p_j p_k} \right\rfloor + \dots + (-1)^n \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_t} \right\rfloor$$

$$\pi(61) = 61 - 1 + \pi(\sqrt{61}) - \left(\frac{61}{2} + \frac{61}{3} + \frac{61}{5} + \frac{61}{7} \right) + \left(\frac{61}{6} + \frac{61}{10} + \frac{61}{14} + \frac{61}{15} + \frac{61}{21} + \frac{61}{35} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & -\left(\frac{61}{30} + \frac{61}{42} + \frac{61}{70} + \frac{61}{105}\right) + \left(\frac{61}{210}\right) \\
 & = 60 + 4 - (30 + 20 + 12 + 8) + (10 + 6 + 4 + 4 + 2 + 4) \\
 & \quad - (1 + 2 + 0 + 0) + (0) \\
 & = 21.
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 3: Find the number of primes ≤ 100 using $\pi(x)$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi(n) = n - 1 + \pi(\sqrt{n}) - \sum_i \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i} \right\rfloor + \sum_{i < j} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i p_j} \right\rfloor - \sum_{i < j < k} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_i p_j p_k} \right\rfloor + \dots \\
 + (-1)^n \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_t} \right\rfloor
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \pi(100) & = 100 - 1 + \pi(\sqrt{100}) - \left(\frac{100}{2} + \frac{100}{3} + \frac{100}{5} + \frac{100}{7}\right) \\
 & + \left(\frac{100}{6} + \frac{100}{10} + \frac{100}{14} + \frac{100}{15} + \frac{100}{21} + \frac{100}{35}\right) \\
 & - \left(\frac{100}{30} + \frac{100}{42} + \frac{100}{70} + \frac{100}{105}\right) + \left(\frac{100}{210}\right) \\
 & = 99 + 4 - (50 + 33 + 20 + 14) - (16 + 10 + 7 + 6 + 4 + 2) \\
 & = 25.
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4: Find five consecutive integers that are composite.

Solution: Here, $n = 5$, We know that the consecutive composite numbers are given by $(n + 1)! + 2, (n + 1)! + 3, \dots, (n + 1)! + (n + 1)$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{For } n = 5 \text{ we have } 6! + 2, 6! + 3, 6! + 4, 6! + 5, 6! + 6 \\
 = 722, 723, 724, 725, 726 \text{ are composite.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 5: Find six consecutive integers that are composite.

Solution: We know that the consecutive composite numbers are given

$$\text{By } (n + 1)! + 2, (n + 1)! + 3, \dots, (n + 1)! + (n + 1)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{For } n = 6 \text{ we have } 7! + 2, 7! + 3, 7! + 4, 7! + 5, 7! + 6, 7! + 7 \\
 = 5042, 5043, 5044, 5045, 5046, 5047 \text{ are composite.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 6: Find five consecutive integers < 100 that are composite numbers.

Solution: Since $5! = 120 > 100$,

$$\text{We consider } 4!, 4! + 1, 4! + 2, 4! + 3, 4! + 4,$$

Therefore, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28 are 5 consecutive composite numbers < 100 .

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GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR

View the lecture on YouTube: <https://youtu.be/IfLqUhTNQ3c>

Greatest Common Divisor (GCD)

The greatest common divisor (GCD) of two integers a and b , not both zero, is the largest positive integer that divides both a and b ; it is denoted by (a, b) . For example, $(12, 18) = 6$, $(12, 25) = 1$, $(11, 19) = 1$, $(-15, 25) = 5$, and $(3, 0) = 3$.

Important Results

A positive integer d is the gcd of two positive integers a and b , if

(i) $d|a$ and $d|b$.

(ii) If $c|a$ and $c|b$ then $c|d$, where c is the positive integer.

Theorem 1: The GCD of positive integers a and b is the linear combination with respect to a and b .

Proof:

Let $S = \{xa + yb \mid xa + yb > 0, x, y \in \mathbb{Z}\}$.

For $x = 1$ and $y = 0$, $S = a \Rightarrow S$ is non empty.

Therefore by well ordering principle, let S has the least positive integer d .

$d = la + mb$ for some positive integers l and m .

To Prove: $d = \gcd(a, b)$.

Since $d > 0$, by the division algorithm a and d , there exist an integers q and r such that

$$a = qd + r, \quad 0 \leq r < d \quad (1)$$

$$r = a - qd$$

$$= a - q(la + mb)$$

$$= (1 - ql)a + (-qm)b.$$

This shows r is the linear combination of a and b .