

18.781
PROBLEM SET 1

JOHN WANG

1. PROBLEM 1

Problem 1.1. Let $a > 0$ and b be integers. Show that there is an integer k such that $b + ka > 0$.

Solution Let us examine the set $S = \{b + ka | b + ka > 0; a, b \in \mathbb{Z}; a > 0\}$. This set is nonempty because if $b \geq 0$, then we can simply take $k = 1$ and $b + ka > 0$. Otherwise, if $b < 0$, then there exists some k such that $b + ka > 0$. This is because $b = qa + r < (q + 1)a$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 \leq r < a$. Thus, simply take $k = q + 1$ and we see that $b + ka > 0$. Thus, the set S is nonempty and one can use the well ordering principle to select the smallest element from the set. This shows the existence of an integer k for which $b + ka > 0$. \square

2. PROBLEM 2

Problem 2.1. Let a and b be positive integers whose gcd is 1. Find the largest positive integer $n(a, b)$ which is not a non-negative integer linear combination of a and b .

Solution Let us examine the sets $S = \{ax + by | 0 \leq x < b; y \geq 0\}$ and $U = \{ax + by | ax + by > 0; 0 \leq x < b; y < 0\}$. One can see that the set S contains all the integers which can be expressed as a non-negative linear combination of a and b . Also, the set U spans the positive integers which can be expressed as negative linear combinations of a and b . It is clear that the largest positive integer n which cannot be expressed as a non-negative integer linear combination of a and b is the maximum element in U .

Therefore, we must first show that U is nonempty and invoke the well ordering principle to select the maximum. First, we can assume without loss of generality that $a > b$ because $(a, b) = 1$. Then, we can simply choose $y = -1$ and we see that $ax - b \in U$. Since $0 \leq x < b$, we see that $x \geq 1$ which means that $ax - b > 0$ and is therefore in U . Because the set is nonempty, we can select its maximum.

In fact, the maximum is when $x = b - 1$ and $y = -1$ because both $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, we see that the maximum positive integer which cannot be represented as a non-negative linear combination of a and b is:

$$\begin{aligned} a(b - 1) + b(-1) &= a(b - 1) - b \\ (2.1) \qquad \qquad \qquad &= ab - a - b \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have found that $n = ab - a - b$. \square

3. PROBLEM 3

Problem 3.1. Let $a > 1$ be a positive integer and m, n be natural numbers. Show that $a^m - 1 | a^n - 1$ if and only if $m | n$.

Solution First we shall assume $m | n$ and show that $a^m - 1 | a^n - 1$. Since $m | n$, we see that $n = dm$ for some $d \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, we have $a^n - 1 = a^{md} - 1$. Moreover, we can factor $a^{md} - 1$ into the following:

$$\begin{aligned} (3.1) \qquad a^{md} - 1 &= a^{md} - 1 + (a^{m(d-1)} - a^{m(d-1)}) + \dots + a^m - a^m \\ (3.2) \qquad \qquad \qquad &= (a^m - 1)(a^{m(d-1)} + a^{m(d-2)} + \dots + a^m + 1) \end{aligned}$$

But this implies that $a^m - 1$ is a factor of $a^{md} - 1$ and therefore that $a^m - 1 | a^{md} - 1 = a^n - 1$.

Now we shall assume $a^m - 1 | a^n - 1$ and prove that $m | n$. First, we note that if $a^m - 1 | a^n - 1$, then $a^m - 1 | a^n - 1 - (a^m - 1)$. Therefore, we see that:

$$\begin{aligned} (3.3) \qquad \qquad \qquad a^m - 1 &| a^n - a^m \\ (3.4) \qquad \qquad \qquad a^m - 1 &| a^m(a^{n-m} - 1) \end{aligned}$$

Since we assumed that $a > 1$, we see that $(a^m - 1, a^m) = 1$. Therefore, we know that $a^m - 1 \nmid a^m$ so we can write:

$$(3.5) \quad a^m - 1 \mid a^{n-m} - 1$$

$$(3.6) \quad a^m - 1 \mid a^{n-m} - 1 - (a^m - 1)$$

$$(3.7) \quad a^m - 1 \mid a^{n-m} - a^m$$

$$(3.8) \quad a^m - 1 \mid a^m(a^{n-2m} - 1)$$

By the same argument as above that $(a^m - 1, a^m) = 1$, we see that $a^m - 1 \mid a^{n-2m} - 1$. If we iterative this argument, we see that this will eventually terminate because the exponent is strictly decreasing. Therefore, there will be some $d \in \mathbb{N}$ at which we terminate and for which $a^m - 1 \mid a^{n-dm} - 1$. But we see that this terminates exactly when $n - dm = m$. Therefore, we see that $n = m(d + 1)$ for some $d > 0$. Thus, we see that $m \mid n$. \square

Problem 3.2. Show that $(a^m - 1, a^n - 1) = a^{(m,n)} - 1$.

Solution We will use the same proof structure as above. We know that $(a, b) = (a, b - a)$ if $b > a$. We assume WLOG that $n > m$ so that $(a^m - 1, a^n - 1) = (a^m - 1, a^n - a^m)$. This means we have:

$$(3.9) \quad (a^m - 1, a^n - 1) = (a^m - 1, a^m(a^{n-m} - 1))$$

$$(3.10) \quad = (a^m - 1, a^{n-m} - 1)$$

By the same argument as before, namely that since $a > 1$, then $(a^m - 1, a^m) = 1$ so that $a^m - 1 \nmid a^m$. Iterating this process is simply the Euclidean algorithm on the exponents, which means that we will eventually reach $a^{(m,n)} - 1$. \square

4. PROBLEM 4

Problem 4.1. Use the Euclidean algorithm to find an integer solution (x_0, y_0) to $89x + 43y = 1$. Then use your solution to describe all possible integer solutions systematically.

Solution The Euclidean algorithm will be used in the table below:

Quotient	Divisor	Vector
	89	1 0
2	43	0 1
14	3	1 -2
	1	-14 29

TABLE 1. Euclidean Algorithm for $89x + 43y = 1$

Thus, we can use $x_0 = -14$ and $y_0 = 29$ to obtain $(89)(-14) + (43)(29) = 1$. Moreover, every integer solution can be described by subtracting x_0 and y_0 from 89 and 43 respectively. This shows that $x = 43a + 29$ and $y = -89a - 60$ will describe all integer solutions to $89x + 43y = 1$. This is because when we substitute x and y into the equation, we obtain $89(43a + 29) + 43(-89a - 60) = (89)(29) - (43)(60) = 1$ which is what we wanted. \square

5. PROBLEM 5

Problem 5.1. Let $1 < a < b$ be integers. Show that the number of divisions steps involved in the Euclidean algorithm to compute the gcd of a and b is at most a universal constant times $\log(a)$.

Solution Let us start the algorithm with $a = a_0$ and $b = b_0$. The next step of the algorithm will use the integers $a_1 < b_1$ and so on until termination at the $n + 1$ st step. We shall show that $a_{i+1} \leq pa_i$ for some constant $p < 1$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. To show this, we choose $p = \frac{a-1}{a}$. On the first step, since $a = a_0$, we see that $a_1 \leq pa_0 = (a - 1)$. This is because a is strictly decreasing in the Euclidean algorithm because $r < a$. Moreover, $a_{i+1} \leq pa_i$ for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ because a_i is strictly decreasing. This means the largest value of a_i for any i is a , and the smallest decrement occurs from a to $a - 1$. Since this can only possibly occur on the first step, and since $a_{i+1}/a_i \leq (a - 1)/a = p$ for all greater i , we see that $a_{i+1} \leq pa_i$.

We know the algorithm terminates, so let us say that the value of the smaller number in the second to last step is d . Since we have shown that $a_{i+1} \leq pa_i$, we know that $d \leq p^n a$. Taking logarithms of both sides, and noting that $p < 1$, we see that $\log_p(d/a) \geq n$. Since $d < a$ by the strictly decreasing nature of the algorithm, we see that $n \leq \log_p(d/a) < \log_p(a) = \log(a)/\log(p) = c \log(a)$. Therefore, we have found that $n < c \log(a)$. \square

6. PROBLEM 6

Problem 6.1. Using the math software *gp/PARI*, tabulate the number of primes less than x for $x = 10000, 20000, \dots, 100000$. Also tabulate the number of primes less than x and of the form $4k + 1$ and the number of the form $4k + 3$ and also $x/\log(x)$.

Solution The *gp/PARI* code for this exercise is given below:

```
for(i=1, 10,
  p = 0;
  p4k3 = 0;
  p4k1 = 0;
  forprime(x=1, i*10000,
    p ++;
    if((x%4) == 3, p4k3 ++, p4k1 ++);
  );
xlogx = round(i*10000/log(i*10000));
print("x=", i*10000);
print("Primes: ", p);
print("4k+1 Primes: ", p4k1);
print("4k+3 Primes: ", p4k3);
print("x/log(x): ", xlogx);
print(" ");
)
```

The output shows that the number of primes of the form $4k + 1$ and $4k + 3$ seem to generally be very close together. For $x = 10000$, the $4k + 1$ primes have a count of 610 while the $4k + 3$ primes have 619. This trend continues for all x that were tested. Moreover, the total number of primes is equal to the sum of the primes of the form $4k + 1$ and the form $4k + 3$. Moreover, $x/\log(x)$ comes close to the total number of primes but gets further off as x grows larger. \square

7. PROBLEM 7

Problem 7.1. A board has squares numbered 1 through n . Two players A and B play the following game: A starts, putting a token on some square a_1 . Then B puts a token on some square b_1 , which is not allowed to divide a_1 . Then A follows with a_2 , such that $a_2 \nmid a_1$ and $a_2 \nmid b_1$, and so on (at any stage, the number of the square selected must not divide any of the previous ones). The last person to put down a token wins. Try playing this game for $n = 10, 12, 24$. Who wins? Prove your observation for general n .

Solution We will show that the first player will always win. It is clear that for n small, this holds. It holds trivially for $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$. Now let us prove this fact for general n . First, we note that this game is finite and must terminate. This means that either player A or B must win. Let us assume by contradiction that player B wins. Then he holds some winning strategy on the numbers from $\{1, 2, \dots, n\} \setminus \{k \text{ and } k\text{'s divisors}\}$ for any $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. But this means that player A can start out by cancelling 1, and when player B moves, he will leave a board of the form $\{1, 2, \dots, n\} \setminus \{k \text{ and } k\text{'s divisors}\}$. We already know there exists a winning strategy on this board, since player B had one. This means that Player A will win, which is a contradiction. This proves that Player A will always win for any n . \square

8. PROBLEM 8

Lemma 8.1. If N is of the form $4k + 3$ for $k \geq 1$, then one of its prime factors must also have the form $4k + 3$.

Proof. We shall proceed by induction. For $k = 1$, we find that $4k + 1 = 7$ is a prime, so clearly it has a prime factor of the form $4k + 3$. Using this as a base case, let us assume that we have shown the assumption true for $k = 1, \dots, n - 1$. We must now show that $N = 4n + 3$ has a prime factor of the form $4k + 3$.

First, if N is prime, then the proof is complete. Otherwise, we can factor N into components. Since $N = 4n + 3$, we can have any of the following factorizations:

$$(8.2) \quad N = (4a + 1)(4b + 1) = 4(4ab + 1a + 1b) + 1$$

$$(8.3) \quad N = (4a + 1)(4b + 3) = 4(4ab + 3a + 1b) + 3$$

$$(8.4) \quad N = (4a + 3)(4b + 3) = 4(4ab + 3a + 3b + 2) + 1$$

This follows firstly because $N = 4n + 3$ is odd, so its two factors must also be odd. Moreover, the only odd numbers possible are of the form $4k + 1$ or $4k + 3$. Now, we see that cases 1 and 3 are impossible because they are both of the form $4k + 1$. Thus, the second case is the only possibility for factoring N . In this case, we see that $q = (4b + 3)$ is a factor of N . By the inductive hypothesis, $q < N$ so that q has a prime factor of the form $4k + 3$. Thus, we have shown that N has a prime factor of the form $4k + 3$. \square

Problem 8.1. *Show that there are infinitely many primes of the form $4k + 3$.*

Solution Suppose there are a finite number of primes of the form $4k + 3$, denoted by p_1, \dots, p_n . Then we can construct a number $d = 4(p_1 \dots p_n) - 1 = 4(p_1 \dots p_n - 1) + 3$ which cannot be a prime because it is larger than any p_i and is of the form $4k + 3$. From our lemma, we see that d must have a prime factor of the form $4k + 3$. However, this prime factor cannot be one of p_1, \dots, p_n because $d = qp_i - 1$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$. Therefore, p_i does not divide evenly into d for all $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$. Thus, it must be some other prime of the form $4k + 3$, which is a contradiction. \square