

# MAT4003 Assignment 2

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## 1

Assume  $x \in \cup_{X \in C} X$ . Then  $x \in X$  for some  $X \in C$ . It follows that  $x \in [a]$  for some  $a \in S$ . By definition of an equivalence class,  $x \in S$ . On the other hand assume  $x \in S$ . Then by property 1,  $x \sim x$ , so  $x \in [x] \in C$ , whence  $x \in \cup_{X \in C} X$ . This shows  $\cup_{X \in C} X = S$ .

To show the second equality, assume that some  $x \in X \cap Y$  with  $X \neq Y$ .

Suppose  $X = [a]$ ,  $Y = [b]$ . Then  $x \sim a$  and  $x \sim b$ . By property 2

$x \sim a \implies a \sim x$ . Then  $a \sim x \wedge x \sim b \implies a \sim b$  by property 3. Similarly

$b \sim a$ . Now suppose  $y \in X$ . Then  $y \sim a \wedge a \sim b \implies y \in Y$  by property 3 and the definition of  $Y$ . Similarly  $y \in Y \implies y \sim b \wedge b \sim a \implies y \in X$ , which

implies  $X = Y$ , a contradiction. Therefore  $X \cap Y = \emptyset$ .  $\square$

## 2

**Lemma 1.** Suppose  $(a, b) = 1$ . Then  $a, b|c \implies ab|c$ .

*Proof.* Let  $n$  be the largest integer s.t.  $p_n$ , the  $n^{\text{th}}$  prime, divides either  $a, b$ , or

$c$ . By FTA,  $a = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\alpha_i}$ ;  $b = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\beta_i}$ ;  $c = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\theta_i}$ . Then

$(a, b) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\min\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\}} = 1 \implies \min\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\} = 0$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . Therefore

$ab = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\alpha_i + \beta_i} = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\max\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\}}$ . Also since both  $a, b$  divides  $c$ ,

$(a, c) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\min\{\alpha_i, \theta_i\}} = a$  and  $(b, c) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\min\{\beta_i, \theta_i\}} = b$ . Hence  $\alpha_i, \beta_i \leq \theta_i$

for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ . It follows that

$(ab, c) = (\prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\max\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\}}, \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\theta_i}) = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\min\{\max\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\}, \theta_i\}} = \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\max\{\alpha_i, \beta_i\}} = ab$ .

Therefore  $ab|c$ .  $\square$

"(a)  $\implies$  (b)": We prove by induction on  $r$ .  $r = 1$  is tautology. Assume

$x \equiv y \pmod{m_1} \dots \pmod{m_k} \implies x \equiv y \pmod{m_1 m_2 \dots m_k}$ . Then

$x \equiv y \pmod{m_1} \dots \pmod{m_k} \pmod{m_{k+1}} \implies x \equiv y \pmod{m_1 m_2 \dots m_k}$

$\pmod{m_{k+1}} \implies m_1 m_2 \dots m_k, m_{k+1} | (x - y)$ .

Since  $m_1, \dots, m_k$  are all pairwise coprime to  $m_{k+1}$ , by FTA

$(m_1 m_2 \dots m_k, m_{k+1}) = 1$ . Then  $m_1 m_2 \dots m_k m_{k+1} | (x - y)$  by **Lemma 1**,

whence  $x \equiv y \pmod{m_1 m_2 \dots m_{k+1}}$ .

"(b)  $\implies$  (a)": Proceed by induction on  $r$ .  $r = 1$  is again tautology. Assume

$x \equiv y \pmod{m_1 m_2 \dots m_k} \implies x \equiv y \pmod{m_1} \pmod{m_2} \dots \pmod{m_k}$ .

Then  $x \equiv y \pmod{m_1 m_2 \dots m_{k+1}} \implies m_1 m_2 \dots m_k m_{k+1} | (x - y)$ . Therefore  $m_1 m_2 \dots m_k | (x - y)$ . By induction hypothesis

$x \equiv y \pmod{m_1} \dots \pmod{m_k}$ . Also  $m_{k+1} | (x - y)$ . So  $x \equiv y \pmod{m_{k+1}}$ .

This completes the proof.  $\square$

## 3

First note that all primes are either of the form  $4k + 1$  or  $4k + 3$ .

Suppose otherwise. Let  $p_1 = 3 < p_2 < \dots < p_n$  be all the primes of the form  $4k + 3$ . Then  $N := 4p_2 \dots p_n + 3 > p_n$  is not such a prime. But  $N \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  either. Thus  $N$  cannot be a prime. By FTA  $N = \prod q_i$ , where  $q_i$  are primes. We claim  $q \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  for all  $N$ 's prime factors  $q$ . If  $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  we argue as follows. If  $q = 3$ , then  $3 \mid 4p_2 \dots p_n$ . By Lemma (1.14),  $3 \mid p_i$  with  $2 \leq i \leq n$ , which is impossible. If  $q \neq 3$ , then  $q \mid N \implies q \mid 3$ , which is also impossible. Therefore  $q \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , whence  $q \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Then  $N = \prod q_i \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . However  $N \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  by definition, the desired contradiction.  $\square$

## 4

Use proof by contradiction. Suppose there exists some integer  $n$  s.t.

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^1} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{5} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = m \in \mathbb{N} \quad (1)$$

where  $2^k \leq n < 2^{k+1}$ . Multiplying both sides of (1) by  $2^{k-1}$  yields

$$2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{3} + 2^{k-3} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{5} + \dots + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{2^{k-1}}{n} = 2^{k-1}m.$$

Rearranging,

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2} &= (2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2} + \dots + 2 + 1 - 2^{k-1}m) + 2^{k-1} \left( \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \right) \\ &= \frac{N}{1} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{3} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{5} + \frac{2^{k-1}}{6} + \dots + \frac{2^{k-1}}{n}. \end{aligned}$$

where  $N = 2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2} + \dots + 2 + 1 - 2^{k-1}m$  is an integer. All the following terms  $\frac{2^{k-1}}{3}, \frac{2^{k-1}}{5}, \frac{2^{k-1}}{6}, \dots, \frac{2^{k-1}}{n}$  ( $\frac{2^{k-1}}{3}, \frac{2^{k-1}}{5}, \frac{2^{k-1}}{6}, \dots, \frac{2^{k-1}}{n-1}$  in the case  $n = 2^k$ ) can be reduced to  $\frac{2^p}{d}$  where the denominator  $d$  is odd. Therefore their sum will have an odd denominator in reduced form as well, as  $1 \cdot 1 \cdot \dots \cdot 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{2}$ . But then  $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{a}{b}$ , equivalently  $b = 2a$ , with  $b$  odd. This is clearly absurd.  $\square$

## 5

By FTA  $n! = p^\alpha \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\alpha_i}$  with  $p \neq p_i$  for all  $i$ . Since  $(p, p_i) = 1, (p^u, \prod_{i=1}^n p_i^{\alpha_i}) = 1$ . Hence by Euclid's Lemma  $p^u \mid n! \iff p^u \mid p^\alpha \iff u \leq \alpha$ . So  $v = \max u = \alpha$ .

Assume  $n = p^{m+\epsilon}$ , with  $0 < \epsilon < 1$ . Rewrite

$$s := \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{p^i} \right\rfloor = \sum_{i=1}^m [p^{m+\epsilon-i}] = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} [p^{\epsilon+i}].$$

We need to prove  $\alpha = s$ . To find  $\alpha$ , consider all terms in  $n!$  with prime factor  $p^i$ :

$$P_i := \{j \cdot p^i : 1 \leq j \leq n/p^i = p^{m-i+\epsilon}, p \nmid j\}.$$

$1 \leq j \leq p^{m-i+\epsilon}$  gives  $[p^{m-i+\epsilon}]$  terms. But we need to rule out terms with  $p \mid j$ :

$$i = cp \leq p^{m-i+\epsilon} \iff c \leq p^{m-i-1+\epsilon} \iff c = 1, 2, \dots, [p^{m-i-1+\epsilon}].$$

Thus  $|P_i| = [p^{m-i+\epsilon}] - [p^{m-i-1+\epsilon}]$ . Multiplying all the terms in  $P_i$  contribute

$$E_i := i([p^{m-i+\epsilon}] - [p^{m-i-1+\epsilon}])$$

to the exponent  $\alpha$ . Adding up  $E_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq m$ , we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \sum_{i=1}^m E_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m i([p^{m-i+\epsilon}] - [p^{m-i-1+\epsilon}]) \\ &= m[p^{\epsilon+m-1}] - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} i([p^{\epsilon+i}] - [p^{\epsilon+i-1}]) \\ &= m[p^{\epsilon+m-1}] + \sum_{i=0}^{m-2} [p^{\epsilon+i}] - (m-1)[p^{\epsilon+m-1}] \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} [p^{\epsilon+i}] = s. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

## 6

By Euler's Theorem,  $3^{\phi(100)} = 3^{40} \equiv 1 \pmod{100}$ . Therefore  $3^{1000} = (3^{40})^{25} \equiv 1^{25} = 1 \pmod{100}$ . So the last two digits are 01.

## 7

The system is equivalent to:

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv 1 \pmod{2} \\ x \equiv 2 \pmod{3} \\ x \equiv 3 \pmod{5} \end{cases}.$$

Let  $x = 2k + 1$ . Then  $2k + 1 = 3t + 2$ . Thus  $2k - 3t = 1$ . So  $k = 2 + 3j$ ;  $t = 1 + 2j$ . It follows that  $x = 6j + 5$ . Then  $6j + 5 = 5u + 3$ . So  $5u - 6j = 2$ , yielding  $u = 4 + 3h$ ;  $j = 3 + 5h$ . Hence  $x = 30h + 23$ , i.e.,

$$x \equiv 23 \pmod{30}.$$

## 8

For  $m = 1$ , there is exactly one solution  $x \equiv 0 \pmod{1}$ .

Assume  $m \geq 2$ . Let  $f(x) := x^2 - x$ .  $p$  prime. Note that

$$f(0) \equiv f(1) \equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Also

$$\begin{cases} f'(0) = -1 \\ f'(1) = 1 \end{cases} \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}.$$

Applying Hensel's Lemma and induction, solutions  $x \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{p}$  can be uniquely lifted to  $x_n \equiv x_1, x_2 \pmod{p^n}$  respectively; in this case,  $x_n \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{p^n}$ , for all  $n \geq 2$ . Hence the solutions to the congruence are  $x \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{p^n}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Now suppose  $m$  has prime factorization  $p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_n^{\alpha_n}$  with all  $\alpha \neq 0$ . By CRT solving  $f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{m}$  is equivalent to solving the congruent system

$$\begin{cases} f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p_1^{\alpha_1}} \\ f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p_2^{\alpha_2}} \\ \vdots \\ f(x) \equiv 0 \pmod{p_n^{\alpha_n}} \end{cases}.$$

Based on the previous discussion, the system yields

$$\begin{cases} x \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{p_1^{\alpha_1}} \\ x \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{p_2^{\alpha_2}} \\ \vdots \\ x \equiv 0, 1 \pmod{p_n^{\alpha_n}} \end{cases}.$$

Taking either congruence to 0 or to 1 for each modulo  $p_1^{\alpha_1}, \dots, p_n^{\alpha_n}$ , we obtain  $2^n$  possible solutions. We claim that these solutions are pairwise incongruent modulo  $m$ . For, if  $0 \equiv x_1 \not\equiv x_2 \equiv 1 \pmod{p_i^{\alpha_i}}$  for some  $i$ ,  $x_1 \not\equiv x_2 \pmod{m}$  by Lemma (2.6). Therefore,

$$\# \text{ of incongruent solutions} = 2^{\omega(m)}.$$

## 9

First note that  $(a^{-1})^2 \equiv (a^2)^{-1} \pmod{m}$ , as

$$a^2 \cdot (a^{-1})^2 = (a \cdot a^{-1})(a \cdot a^{-1}) \equiv 1^2 = 1 \pmod{m}.$$

Since  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , by Theorem (2.14)  $x^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$  has no solution. Suppose  $x_0^2 \equiv a \pmod{p}$  with  $0 < a < p$ . Then  $y_0^2 \equiv -a \pmod{p}$ . It follows that  $y_0^2 a^{-1} \equiv y_0^2 (x_0^2)^{-1} \equiv y_0^2 (x_0^{-1})^2 = (y_0 x_0^{-1})^2 \equiv -1 \pmod{p}$ . A contradiction. Therefore  $x_0^2 \equiv y_0^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Since  $a^2 \neq p$  for all  $0 \leq a < p$ , it follows that  $x_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ . Similarly  $y_0 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .  $\square$

## 10

Assume  $p, p+2$  both prime greater than 2. Then by Wilson's Theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} (p-1)! &\equiv -1 \pmod{p}; \\ (p+1)! &\equiv -1 \pmod{p+2}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $(p+1)^{-1} \equiv -1, p^{-1} \equiv (-2)^{-1}$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} 4((p-1)! + 1) + p &\equiv 0 \pmod{p}; \\ 4((p-1)! + 1) + p &\equiv 4(-2)^{-1} + 2 \equiv -2 + 2 \equiv 0 \pmod{p+2}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $(p, p+2) = 1$ , by Lemma (2.6)

$$4((p-1)! + 1) + p \equiv 0 \pmod{p(p+2)}.$$

Conversely, assume  $n > 1$  is odd. And

$$4((n-1)! + 1) + n \equiv 0 \pmod{n(n+2)}.$$

Since  $(n, n+2) = (n, 2) = 1$ , again by Lemma (2.6)

$$\begin{aligned}4((n-1)!+1)+n&\equiv 0 \pmod{n};\\4((n-1)!+1)+n&\equiv 0 \pmod{n+2}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned}(n-1)!+1&\equiv 0 \pmod{n};\\2(n-1)!+1&\equiv 2(n+1)!+2\equiv (n+1)!+1\equiv 0 \pmod{n+2}.\end{aligned}$$

By Theorem (2.13),  $n$  and  $n+2$  are both primes.  $\square$