

# Math 437 HW2

marcus lai

October 2023

1. Find all integers  $n > 1$  with the property that for each positive divisor  $d$  of  $n$ , we also have that

$$(d+2)|(n+2) \tag{1}$$

*Proof.* Let the set of solutions to the question be  $N$  (this set is non empty since  $7 \in N$ ). Consider an  $n \in N$ . Note that since we must have  $1|n$ , we have that  $3|(n+2)$  by (1) and equivalently

$$n \equiv -2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

Also note that  $\forall a \in \mathbf{N}$ , we have  $(a+2)|(a+2)$ . So prime numbers  $p$  such that  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  are solutions of  $N$  since the only two positive divisors are 1 and  $p$  (and both satisfy (1)).

Next, I will show that  $n$  cannot be a composite number.

First, I will show  $2 \nmid n$  by contradiction. Suppose  $2|n$ . Then  $n = 2k \implies k = \frac{n}{2} > 0$  is a positive divisor of  $n$ . So by (1),  $(k+2)|n+2 \iff l(k+2) = n+2$  for  $l \in \mathbf{Z}$ . In particular, since  $k+2 > 0$ ,  $n+2 > 0$ ,  $l \in \mathbf{N}$ . Now, note that  $l \neq 1$  since  $k+2 = \frac{n}{2} + 2 \neq n+2$  since  $n \neq 0$ . However, if  $l \geq 2$ , we have that  $l(k+2) \geq 2(k+2) = n+4 > n+2$ . So no solution to  $l$  exists (**contradiction**).

Now, suppose  $n$  is a composite number. Then  $\exists d_1, d_2 \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $n = d_1 d_2$  for  $d_1 \neq n, d_2 \neq 1$  (without loss of generality assume  $d_1 \geq d_2$ ). From above, we know that  $2 \nmid n$ , so  $d_1, d_2$  are **odd**. Then by (1), we have:

$$(d_1+2)|(d_1 d_2+2) \iff (d_1+2)|(d_1(d_2-1)+d_1+2) \iff (d_1+2)|(d_1(d_2-1))$$

Claim: consecutive odd integers are coprime

Let  $o$  an odd integer. Then  $o = 2k+1$  for some  $k \in \mathbf{Z}$  and  $o+2 = 2k+3$ . Suppose  $o$  and  $o+2$  are not coprime. Then  $\exists c \in \mathbf{N}$  and  $c|o$  and  $c|o+2$ . So  $c|o - (o+2) \implies c|2$ . Then  $c = 1$  or  $2$ . Since  $o$  is odd,  $2 \nmid o$  so  $c = 1$  as desired.

By our claim, we know that  $d_1$  and  $d_1+2$  are coprime. Thus by theorem in class:

$$(d_1+2)|(d_1(d_2-1)) \iff (d_1+2)|(d_2-1)$$

Since  $d_2 \neq 1$  by assumption, we obtain a **contradiction** since we have  $d_1 \geq d_2 \implies d_1 + 2 > d_2 - 1 > 0$  but  $(d_1 + 2) \nmid (d_2 - 1)$ .

Thus  $n$  cannot be composite, so  $n$  is any prime number such that  $n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .  $\square$

2. Suppose there exist integers  $m, n$  positive integers such that

$$2^m - 3^n = 7 \quad (1)$$

Taking (1) mod 3 gives:

$$2^m \equiv 7 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

Suppose that  $m$  is odd ( $m = 2k + 1, k \in \mathbf{Z}$ ). Since  $4 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ :

$$2^m \equiv 4^k \cdot 2 \equiv 1^k \cdot 2 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$$

So  $m$  is not odd. Check  $m$  can be even ( $m = 2k, k \in \mathbf{Z}$ ):

$$2^m \equiv 4^k \equiv 1^k \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$$

as desired. Along with (1), this gives us:

$$2^{2k} - 3^n = 7 \quad (2)$$

Taking (2) mod 4 gives:

$$-3^n \equiv 7 \pmod{4} \iff -3^n \equiv -1 \pmod{4} \iff 3^n \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

Suppose that  $n$  is odd ( $n = 2j + 1, j \in \mathbf{Z}$ ). Since  $9 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ :

$$3^n \equiv 9^j \cdot 3 \equiv 1^j \cdot 3 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$$

So  $n$  is not odd. Check  $n$  can be even ( $n = 2j, j \in \mathbf{Z}$ ):

$$3^n \equiv 9^j \equiv 1^j \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

as desired. So overall:

$$2^{2k} - 3^{2j} = 7 \iff (2^k - 3^j)(2^k + 3^j) = 7$$

So we have  $(2^k + 3^j) | 7$ . Note that  $j < 2$  and  $k < 3$  (otherwise  $(2^k + 3^j) > 7$  which yields a **contradiction** by theorem from class since  $7 \in \mathbf{N}$  and  $(2^k + 3^j) | 7$ ). Note  $m, n$  are positive integers so  $k = \frac{m}{2} > 0$  and  $j = \frac{n}{2} > 0$ . So check solutions for  $j = \{1\}, k = \{1, 2\}$  using (1):

$$2^{2 \cdot 1} - 3^{2 \cdot 1} = -5 \neq 7$$

$$2^{2 \cdot 2} - 3^{2 \cdot 1} = 7$$

Thus, the only solution is  $m = 4, n = 2$ .

3. Let  $k \in \mathbf{N}$ . I want to show that there exist  $k$  consecutive positive integers with the property that no integer from this set is of the form  $a^2 + b^2$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$ .

*Proof.* Claim: There are infinite primes of form  $4k + 3$ :

Suppose there are a finite number of primes of form  $4k + 3$ , denoted  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_a$  for  $a \in \mathbf{N}$ . Then consider the number  $n = 4P_1P_2\dots P_a - 1$  (note 3 is one such prime so  $n \geq 11$ ). Note from class, we've shown every integer greater than 1 can be prime factorized. Note next that  $n$  is odd so it's prime divisors must be of form  $4k + 1$  or  $4k + 3$ . By construction of  $n$ , it can't have a factor of form  $4k + 3$  since none of  $P_1, P_2, \dots, P_a$  divide  $n$ . Thus,  $n$  must only have prime factors of form  $4k + 1$ . Prime factoring  $n$  thus gives:

$$n = (4k_1 + 1)(4k_2 + 1)\dots(4k_j + 1)$$

where each  $k_i$  for  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, j\}$  is an integer (not necessarily distinct). By taking the equation mod 4:

$$n = (4k_1 + 1)(4k_2 + 1)\dots(4k_j + 1) \equiv 1 \cdot 1 \cdot \dots \cdot 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$$

This is a contradiction since  $n = 4P_1P_2\dots P_a - 1 \equiv -1 \pmod{4}$ .

Now, I will find an integer  $n$  such that  $n + 1, n + 2, \dots, n + k$  are not of the form  $a^2 + b^2$ . Denote the set of primes of form  $4k + 3$  as  $S$  and enumerate:  $S = \{3, 7, 11, 19, \dots\} = \{p_1, p_2, \dots\}$ . Now, construct  $k$  equations of congruence like so:

$$x + 1 \equiv s_1 \pmod{s_1^2} \iff x \equiv s_1 - 1 \pmod{s_1^2}$$

$$x + 2 \equiv s_2 \pmod{s_2^2} \iff x \equiv s_2 - 2 \pmod{s_2^2}$$

...

$$x + k \equiv s_k \pmod{s_k^2} \iff x \equiv s_k - k \pmod{s_k^2}$$

Note that clearly  $s_1^2, s_2^2, \dots, s_k^2$  are pairwise coprime. So by CRT, we can find a unique solution  $x_0$  for  $x$  such that  $0 < x_0 \leq s_1^2 s_2^2 \dots s_k^2$ . Pick  $n = x_0$ . Then by **Proposition 5.3 (1)**, we have that

$$n + 1 \equiv s_1 \pmod{s_1^2} \implies n + 1 \equiv s_1 \equiv 0 \pmod{s_1}$$

$$n + 2 \equiv s_2 \pmod{s_2^2} \implies n + 2 \equiv s_2 \equiv 0 \pmod{s_2}$$

...

$$n + k \equiv s_k \pmod{s_k^2} \implies n + k \equiv s_k \equiv 0 \pmod{s_k}$$

So each  $n + i$  for  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  is divisible by  $s_i$  but not divisible by  $s_i^2$ . So  $\exp_{s_i}(n + i) = 1$ . Recall that  $s_i$  has form  $4k + 3$ , so there exists

a prime divisor of form  $4k + 3$  in the prime factorization of each  $n + i$  with an odd exponent. Therefore by **Theorem 13.4**, we have that none of  $n + 1, n + 2, \dots, n + k$  can be represented by some  $a^2 + b^2$  for  $a, b \in \mathbf{Z}$  as desired.

□

4. (a) I want to evaluate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{d(n!) \cdot \phi(n!)}$$

*Proof.* First, note that  $\forall n \in \mathbf{N}, n! > 0, d(n!) > 0, \phi(n!) > 0$ . Thus, the limit is lower bounded by 0. Next,  $\forall n \in \mathbf{N}, n \geq 2$ , prime factorize  $n$  into  $\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}}$  for  $p_{(n,i)}$  distinct primes for fixed  $n$  and  $r_{(n,i)}, k_n \in \mathbf{N}$ .

Note that for  $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, k_n\}$  such that  $i \neq j$ ,  $p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}}$  and  $p_{(n,j)}^{r_{(n,j)}}$  are coprime. So we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}}}{d(\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}}) \cdot \phi(\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}})} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}}}{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} d(p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}}) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} \phi(p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}})} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,j)}^{r_{(n,j)}}}{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)} \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,j)}^{r_{(n,j)}} (1 - \frac{1}{p_{(n,j)}})} = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)} \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{p_{(n,j)}})} \end{aligned}$$

Since the smallest possible prime is 2:

$$\frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)} \cdot (1 - \frac{1}{p_{(n,j)}})} \leq \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)} \cdot (1/2)} = \frac{2}{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)}}$$

Claim:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)} = \infty$

Define the sequence  $(a_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)}$  (begin indexing at  $n = 2$  since we cannot prime factorize 1). First, I will show that  $a_n$  is non-decreasing. Consider  $a_{(n+1)}$  and  $a_n$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} n! &= \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}} \\ (n+1)! &= \prod_{i=1}^{k_{n+1}} p_{(n+1,i)}^{r_{(n+1,i)}} \\ (n+1)! &= (n+1) \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}} \end{aligned}$$

Since  $n+1 > 1$ , we can prime factorize  $n+1 = \prod_{i=1}^j p_i^{r_i}$  for  $p_i$  distinct primes and  $j, r_i \in \mathbf{N}$ . So:

$$(n+1)! = \prod_{i=1}^j p_i^{r_i} \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} p_{(n,i)}^{r_{(n,i)}}$$

Notice we are simply multiply more primes, so each  $r_{(n,i)}$  is not reduced. Also note that prime factorization is unique. Thus the product of the powers of primes  $(n+1)!$  must be greater or equal to that of  $n!$ :

$$\prod_{i=1}^{k_{n+1}} r_{(n+1,i)} \geq \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)}$$

In particular,

$$a_{(n+1)} \geq a_n$$

So  $a_n$  is non-decreasing. Using this, I will show by formal definition that  $a_n$  diverges to infinity. Let some real  $M > 0$ . Then choose  $N = 2^M \in \mathbf{N}$ . Then  $a_N = M$ . Further, since  $a_n$  is non-decreasing, I get that for all positive integer  $n > N$ ,  $a_n \geq M$ . Since  $M$  is arbitrary, this process works  $\forall M > 0$ . So by definition,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n) = +\infty$  and thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)} = +\infty$$

as desired. So in all:

$$0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 0 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{d(n!) \cdot \phi(n!)} \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{\prod_{i=1}^{k_n} r_{(n,i)}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{+\infty} = 0$$

Thus:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{d(n!) \cdot \phi(n!)} = 0$$

by Squeeze Theorem. □

(b) I want to evaluate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{2^{d(n!)}}$$

*Proof.* Perform the ratio test for sequences:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)!}{2^{d((n+1)!)}} / \frac{n!}{2^{d(n!)}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n+1}{2^{d((n+1)!)-d(n!)}} \right|$$

First, note that since  $n!|(n+1)!$ , all positive divisors of  $n!$  divides  $(n+1)!$  as well. To show this, let  $d$  be a positive divisor of  $n!$ . Then  $d|n! \implies \exists k \in \mathbf{Z} : dk = n! \implies dk(n+1) = (n+1)! \implies d|(n+1)!$  as desired. Next, I will construct  $n$  positive divisors of  $d((n+1)!)$  that do not divide  $d(n!)$  by performing the following process for  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ :

**Process for each  $k$ :** Consider  $n! = n \cdot n-1 \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1$ . Construct a positive integer  $c_k$  by replacing  $k$  by  $(n+1)$  in  $n!$ . Then  $c_k = (n+1) \cdot n \cdot \dots \cdot k+1 \cdot k-1 \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1$ . Then note that  $c_k$  is a positive divisor of  $(n+1)!$  since  $(n+1)! = c_k \cdot k$ . Further, since  $n+1 > k$ ,

we have  $c_k > n!$  which implies  $c_k \nmid n!$  since  $n! \in \mathbf{N}$  (by theorem in class). Finally, note that each  $c_k$  is distinct because we are replacing a different divisor of  $n!$ .

In all, we have  $d((n+1)!) - d(n!) \geq n$  since every positive divisor of  $n!$  is a positive divisor of  $(n+1)!$  and we were able to construct  $n$  distinct, positive divisors (each  $c_k$ ) of  $(n+1)!$  that do not divide  $n!$ .

Thus:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n+1}{2^{d((n+1)!) - d(n!)}} \right| \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n+1}{2^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1}{2^n} = 0$$

Since exponential functions grow much faster than linear functions (can also apply l'Hopital). This implies:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)!}{2^{d((n+1)!)}} / \frac{n!}{2^{d(n!)}} \right| = 0$$

by Squeeze Theorem (since absolute values are lower bounded by 0). Then:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)!}{2^{d((n+1)!)}} / \frac{n!}{2^{d(n!)}} \right| < 1$$

Therefore by the ratio test,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{2^{d(n!)}} = 0$$

□