Project #13 Roll: 200028

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1. Prove that $\frac{21n+4}{14n+3}$ is irreducible for every natural n.

Sol. For the fraction to be irreducible, gcd(21n + 4, 14n + 3) = 1, or the numerator and denominator are **coprimes**.

Lemma. This follows directly from Euclidean Algorithm,

$$gcd(a, b) = gcd(a - b, b)$$
 where $a > b$ (say)

Proof.

$$\gcd(21n+4,14n+3) = \gcd(7n+1,14n+3)$$

$$= \gcd(14n+3,7n+1) \qquad \text{as } 14n+3 > 7n+1 \ \forall \ n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$= \gcd(7n+2,7n+1)$$

$$= \gcd(1,7n+1)$$

$$= 1$$

2. Find all integers n such that $n^2 + 2n + 2$ divides $n^3 + 4n^2 + 4n - 14$.

Sol. Upon factorisation, we get

$$n^3 + 4n^2 + 4n - 14 = (n^2 + 2n + 2)(n+2) - (2n+18)$$

Here, the quotient is (n+2) and the remainder is (-2n-18).

If, -2n - 18 is not a remainder, i.e. the two polynomials are **divisible**, it should contradict Theorem 1.2.1 (from the notes), i.e. n lies in the range

$$|-2n - 18| \ge |n^2 + 2n + 2|$$
 or $\left|\frac{2n + 18}{n^2 + 2n + 2}\right| \ge 1$
 $\implies \frac{2n + 18}{n^2 + 2n + 2} \ge 1$ or $\frac{2n + 18}{n^2 + 2n + 2} \le -1$
 $\implies n^2 \le 16$ or $n^2 + 4n + 20 \le 0$
 $\implies n \in [-4, 4]$

There is also a possibilty that $-2n - 18 = 0 \implies n = -9$

All the acceptable values of n are [-9, -4, -2, -1, 0, 1, 4] as other values in the range violate the condition $r \ge b$ (easy to see for $n \ge 0$, say 2 or 3).

3. For natural numbers a, n, m prove that $gcd(a^m-1, a^n-1) = a^{gcd(m,n)} - 1$.

Sol. Let
$$b = \gcd(a^m - 1, a^n - 1)$$

 $\therefore a^m = 1 + kb$ and $a^n = 1 + jb$ for some j and k

Also, gcd(m, n) = mx + ny by Bezout's identity. So,

$$a^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1 = a^{mx+ny} - 1$$

$$= a^{mx}a^{ny} - 1$$

$$= (1+kb)^{x}(1+jb)^{y} - 1$$

$$= (...)b$$

Hence, b divides $a^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1$. We also know that both m and n are divisible by $\gcd(m,n)$, say $m = \gcd(m,n)c$ then

 $a^m-1=a^{\gcd{(m,n)}c}-1^c\implies a^m-1=(a^{\gcd{(m,n)}}-1)(\qquad \dots \qquad), \text{ where } \dots \text{ is some constant.}$ Hence, $(a^{\gcd{(m,n)}}-1)$ divides a^m-1 , similarly a^n-1 .

 $(a^{\gcd(m,n)}-1)$ divides both a^m-1 and a^n-1 , therefore it must divide their gcd, i.e. b.

As, b divides $a^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1$ and $a^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1$ divides b, this implies they both are equal.

$$b = a^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1$$

OR

$$\gcd(a^m - 1, a^n - 1) = a^{\gcd(m,n)} - 1$$
 Proved!

4. Let the integers a_n and b_n be defined by the relationship

$$a_n + b_n \sqrt{2} = (1 + \sqrt{2})^n$$

for all integers $n \ge 1$. Prove that $\gcd(a_n, b_n) = 1$ for all integers $n \ge 1$.

Sol. By the Principle of Mathematical Induction,

For
$$n = 1$$
: $a_1 = 1$ and $b_1 = 1$ $\therefore \gcd(a_1, b_1) = 1$

Let $a_k + b_k \sqrt{2} = (1 + \sqrt{2})^k$ such that $\gcd(a_k, b_k) = 1$ be true for n = k.

For n = k + 1:

$$a_{k+1} + b_{k+1}\sqrt{2} = (1 + \sqrt{2})^{k+1}$$

$$= (1 + \sqrt{2})(1 + \sqrt{2})^k$$

$$= (1 + \sqrt{2})(a_k + b_k\sqrt{2})$$

$$= (a_k + 2b_k) + (a_k + b_k)\sqrt{2}$$
 (upon rearranging)

Upon comparing RHS and LHS we get,

$$a_{k+1} = a_k + 2b_k$$
 and $b_{k+1} = a_k + b_k$

Now,

$$\gcd(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}) = \gcd(a_k + 2b_k, a_k + b_k)$$

$$= \gcd(b_k, a_k + b_k)$$

$$= \gcd(b_k, a_k)$$
 (as assumed above)
$$= 1$$

Hence the relation holds for n = k + 1 given n = k.

Therefore, we conclude that relationship hold for all integers $n \geq 1$.

5. If p is an odd prime, and a, b are relatively prime positive integers, prove that

$$\gcd\left(a+b, \frac{a^p+b^p}{a+b}\right) = 1 \text{ or } p.$$

Sol.

6. If a|bc and gcd(a,b) = 1, prove that a|c.

Sol. Constructing a Linear Diophantine Equation, ax + by = 1, which also means that

$$cax + cby = c$$

We are given that a divides bc, a also divides ac (trivial).

Let bc = ap for some p. The equation converts to, cax + apy = c or a(cx + py) = c where $(cx + py) \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Hence, a divides c.

7. Prove that the expression

$$\frac{\gcd(m,n)}{n} \binom{n}{m}$$

is an integer for all pairs of integer $n \geq m \geq 1$.

Sol. Let gcd(m, n) = mx + ny for some integers x, y.

$$\frac{\gcd(m,n)}{n} \binom{n}{m} = \frac{(mx+ny)}{n} \binom{n}{m}$$

$$= \frac{xm}{n} \binom{n}{m} + y \binom{n}{m}$$

$$= x \binom{n-1}{m-1} + y \binom{n}{m} \in \mathbb{Z}$$
Proved.

8. Let n, p > 1 be positive integers and p be a prime. Given that n|p-1 and $p|n^3-1$, prove that 4p-3 is a perfect square.

Sol. As n divides (p-1) and p divides (n^3-1) , we can write $(p-1)=nx \implies p=(nx+1)$ and $(n^3-1)=py$ for x and $y\in\mathbb{Z}$.

Also $(n^3 - 1) = (n - 1)(n^2 + n + 1)$, but as p = nx + 1 it implies that $p \ge n + 1$, hence p cannot divide $n - 1 (< p) \implies$ it is the $(n^2 + n + 1)$ term that is divisible by p.

$$\therefore n^2 + n + 1 \ge p$$

$$\ge nx + 1 \implies \boxed{x \le n + 1}$$
(1)

if x < n + 1, then $nx + 1 = p < n(n + 1) + 1 = n^2 + n + 1$ which cannot be true as p divides $n^2 + n + 1$ (violates inequality 1).

 $\therefore x = n + 1$ is the only acceptable solution here. Putting x = n + 1 in p we get,

$$p = nx + 1 = n(n+1) + 1 = n^2 + n + 1$$

$$\therefore 4p - 3 = 4(n^2 + n + 1) - 3$$

$$= (2n + 1)^2$$
 which is a perfect square.

9. Find all pairs of positive integers a, b such that

$$\frac{a^2 + b}{b^2 - a}$$
 and $\frac{b^2 + a}{a^2 - b}$

are both integers.

Sol. If such integers exist, then

$$(a^{2} + b) \ge (b^{2} - a)$$
 and $(b^{2} + a) \ge (a^{2} - b)$
 $(a + b)(a - b + 1) \ge 0$ and $(a + b)(b - a + 1) \ge 0$
 $\implies a \ge b - 1$ and $b \ge a - 1$

This inequality holds only when a = b or a = b - 1 or b = a - 1.

Case 1: If a = b, then

$$\frac{a^2+b}{b^2-a} = \frac{b^2+a}{a^2-b} = \frac{a^2+a}{a^2-a} = \frac{a+1}{a-1} = 1 + \frac{2}{a-1} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Therefore a = 2 or a = 3 are the only solution here.

Case 2: If a = b - 1,

$$\frac{b^2 + a}{a^2 - b} = \frac{b^2 + b - 1}{(b - 1)^2 - b} = \frac{b^2 + b - 1}{b^2 - 3b + 1} = 1 + \frac{4b - 2}{b^2 - 3b + 1}$$

10. For m > 1, it can be proven that the integer sequence $f_m(n) = \gcd(n + m, mn + 1)$ has a fundamental period T_m . In other words,

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, f_m(n+T_m) = f_m(n)$$

. Find an expression for \mathcal{T}_m in terms of m .

Sol.