M 328K: Homework 1

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1. Show that $(3!)^n \mid (3n)!$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Proof by Induction. We aim to show that

$$(3n)! = (3!)^n \cdot k$$
 for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Base case (n = 0): $0! = (3!)^0 \cdot k$, k = 1

Base case (n = 1): $3! = (3!) \cdot k$, k = 1

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that $(3n)! = (3!)^n \cdot k$ is true for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ and all $n \ge 0$. Consider n + 1:

$$(3(n+1))! = (3n+3)!$$

$$= (3n+3)(3n+2)(3n+1)(3n)!$$

$$= (3n+3)(3n+2)(3n+1)(3!)^n \cdot k$$
 By the IH

Lemma 1. The product of any two consecutive integers is even.

We want to show that n(n+1) is even $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

(a) Case 1: n is even. We have n = 2a, where $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$n(n+1) = 2a(2a+1) = 2(2a^2 + a)$$

 $2a^2 + a \in \mathbb{Z}$, thus n(n+1) is even.

(b) Case 2: n is odd. We have n = 2b + 1, where $b \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$n(n+1) = (2b+1)(2b+1+1)$$
$$= 4b^2 + 6b + 2$$
$$= 2(2b^2 + 3b + 1)$$

 $2b^2 + 3b + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$, thus n(n+1) is even.

The statement is true in both cases. Therefore, the product of any two consecutive integers is even.

By Lemma 1: (3n+2)(3n+1) = 2p for some $p \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$(3(n+1))! = (3n+3)(2p)(3!)^n \cdot k$$
$$= 3(n+1)(2)(p)(3!)^n \cdot k$$
$$= (3!)^{n+1} \cdot ((n+1) \cdot p \cdot k)$$

where $(n+1) \cdot p \cdot k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence

$$(3(n+1))! = (3!)^{n+1} \cdot k$$

Thus $(3!)^n \mid (3n)!$ for all $n \geq 0$.

2. Show that if a and b are odd integers, then $8 \mid a^2 - b^2$.

Proof. We aim to show that $a^2 - b^2 = 8k$, for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Given a and b are odd integers, they can be rewritten as a=2m+1 and b=2n+1 for some $m,n\in\mathbb{Z}$.

Then, we have

$$a^{2} - b^{2} = (2m + 1)^{2} - (2n + 1)^{2}$$
$$= 4m^{2} + 4m + 1 - (4n^{2} + 4n + 1)$$
$$= 4(m(m + 1) - n(n + 1))$$

By Lemma 1: 4(m(m+1) - n(n+1)) = 4(2r - 2s) for some $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$4(2r - 2s) = 8(r - s)$$

We now have $a^2 - b^2 = 8(r - s)$, where r - s is an integer.

Thus if a and b are odd integers, then $8 \mid a^2 - b^2$.

3. Consider the following sequence of integers:

(a) Show by induction that each integer in the sequence can be written in the form 4k + 3.

Proof by Induction. Each element in the sequence can be described with:

$$x_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} 10^i$$

Let P(n) be the statement that x_n can be written in the form 4k + 3.

Base case: P(0)

$$x_0 = \sum_{i=0}^{0+1} 10^i = 10^0 + 10^1 = 11 = 4(2) + 3$$
, where $2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume P(n) is true. That is,

$$x_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} 10^i = 4k + 3 \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

P(n+1):

$$x_{n+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{(n+1)+1} 10^{i}$$

$$= 10^{n+2} + \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} 10^{i}$$

$$= 10^{n+2} + 4k + 3$$

$$= 100 \cdot 10^{n} + 4k + 3$$

$$= 4(25 \cdot 10^{n} + k) + 3$$
By the IH

where $(25 \cdot 10^n + k) \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus P(n+1) is true, proving that each integer in the sequence can be written in the form 4k + 3.

(b) Use the previous result together with the division algorithm to show that no integer in the sequence is a perfect square.

Proof by Contradiction. Given that each integer in the sequence can be written as 4k+3, suppose that each integer can be written as a perfect square. That is,

$$4k + 3 = a^2, a \in \mathbb{Z}$$

i. Case 1: a is odd, ie. $a = 2p + 1, p \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$4k + 3 = (2p + 1)^{2}$$
$$= 4p^{2} + 4p + 1$$
$$= 4(p^{2} + p) + 1$$

By the division algorithm, \exists integers q and r such that a = bq + r. In this instance, q = 4 and r = 3. If a is an odd integer, r = 1, a contradiction.

ii. Case 2: a is even, ie. $a = 2p, p \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$4k + 3 = (2p)^2$$
$$= 4(p^2)$$

If a is an even integer, r = 0, a contradiction.

The supposition is false, thus no integer in the sequence is a perfect square.

4. Let a and b be coprime integers. Show that ab and a + b are also coprime.

Proof. The contrapositive of the given statement is as follows:

"If ab and a + b are not coprime, then a and b are not coprime."

Suppose that ab and a+b are not coprime. That is, suppose d|ab and d|a+b, for some $d \in \mathbb{Z}$. Given that a and b are coprime,

$$d|ab \implies d|a \text{ OR } d|b$$

Say d|a. This implies that a = dc for some $c \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Next, we have

$$d|a+b \implies a+b=dk \text{ for some } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$b=dk-a$$

$$b=dk-dc$$

$$b=d(k-c)$$

This suggests that a and b are not coprime due to sharing a common factor d. Thus the contrapositive statement is true and so the given statement is true.

- 5. Prove the following properties of the greatest common divisor (without appealing to prime factorization):
 - (a) If gcd(a, b) = gcd(a, c) = 1, then gcd(a, bc) = 1.

Proof. We want to show that ax + bcy = 1 for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. Given gcd(a, b) = gcd(a, c) = 1 and Bezout's Theorem, we can write

$$ax_1 + by_1 = ax_2 + cy_2 = 1$$
 for some $x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$

i. Multiply the first expression by c. We get

$$acx_1 + bcy_1 = c$$
$$a(cx_1) + bc(y_1) = c$$

ii. Multiply the second expression by b. We get

$$abx_2 + bcy_2 = c$$
$$a(bx_2) + bc(y_2) = c$$

Now, we have

$$a(cx_1) + bc(y_1) = a(bx_2) + bc(y_2) = c$$

Since $ax_1 + by_1 = ax_2 + cy_2 = 1$,

$$a(cx_1) + bc(y_1) = a(bx_2) + bc(y_2) = 1$$

Thus, ax + bcy = 1 and gcd(a, bc) = 1.

(b) If gcd(a, b) = 1, then gcd(ac, b) = gcd(c, b).

Proof. Suppose $gcd(ac, b) = z_1$ and $gcd(c, b) = z_2$. We have

$$ac(x_1) + b(y_1) = z_1$$

 $c(x_2) + b(y_2) = z_2$

Given ax + by = 1 for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$, we have

i. $axz_1 + byz_1 = z_1$

$$ax(ac(x_1) + b(y_1)) + byz_1 = z_1$$

 $c(a^2xx_1) + b(axy_1 + y_1z_1) = z_1$

 $\therefore z_2|z_1$ since z_2 can divide any linear combination of c and b.

ii. $axz_2 + byz_2 = z_2$

$$ax(cx_2 + by_2) + by(z_2) = z_2$$

 $ac(xx_2) + b(axy_2 + yz_2) = z_2$

 $\therefore z_1|z_2$ since z_2 can divide any linear combination of ac and b.

Now, we have $z_1|z_2$ and $z_2|z_1$.

Lemma 2. For some integers $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$, if $x_1|x_2$ and $x_2|x_1$, then $x_1 = x_2$ or $x_1 = -x_2$.

Given $x_1|x_2$ and $x_2|x_1$, we have

$$x_2 = x_1 \cdot a$$
 for some $a \in \mathbb{Z}$
 $x_1 = x_2 \cdot b$ for some $b \in \mathbb{Z}$
 $x_1 = (x_1 \cdot a) \cdot b$
 $1 = a \cdot b$

This tells us a = b = 1 or a = b = -1.

i.
$$a = b = 1 \implies x_1 = x_2$$

ii.
$$a = b = -1 \implies x_1 = -x_2$$

Thus if $x_1|x_2$ and $x_2|x_1$, then $x_1 = x_2$ or $x_1 = -x_2$.

By Lemma 2, $z_1 = z_2$ since z_1 and z_2 both must be positive integers. Thus gcd(ac, b) = gcd(c, b). (c) If gcd(a, b) = 1, d|ac, and d|bc, then d|c.

Proof. Given d|ac and d|bc, we have

$$ac = dp$$
 for some $p \in \mathbb{Z}$
 $bc = dq$ for some $q \in \mathbb{Z}$

Given a and b are coprime, we have

$$ax + by = 1$$
 for some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$
 $acx + bcy = c$
 $dpx + dqy = c$
 $d(px + qy) = c$

Since $x, y, p, q \in \mathbb{Z}$, d|c.

(d) If gcd(a, b) = 1, then $gcd(a^2, b^2) = 1$.

Proof. Given a and b are coprime, there exist some $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that ax + by = 1.

$$1 = ax + by$$

$$1^{3} = (ax + by)^{3}$$

$$1 = (ax + by)^{2} \cdot (ax + by)$$

$$1 = (a^{2}x^{2} + 2axby + b^{2}y^{2}) \cdot (ax + by)$$

$$1 = a^{3}x^{3} + a^{2}x^{2}by + 2a^{2}x^{2}by + 2axb^{2}y^{2} + b^{2}y^{2}ax + b^{3}y^{3}$$

$$1 = a^{2}(ax^{3} + x^{2}by + 2x^{2}by) + b^{2}(2axy^{2} + y^{2}ax + by^{3})$$

This equation can be rewritten as

$$a^2x_1 + b^2y_2 = 1$$

where

$$x_1 = ax^3 + x^2by + 2x^2by \in \mathbb{Z}$$
$$y_1 = 2axy^2 + y^2ax + by^3 \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Therefore, by Bezout's Theorem, $gcd(a^2, b^2) = 1$.

6. Use the Euclidean Algorithm to obtain integers x and y satisfying

$$119x + 272y = \gcd(119, 272)$$
$$272 = 2 \cdot 119 + 34$$
$$119 = 3 \cdot 34 + 17$$
$$34 = 2 \cdot 17 + 0$$
$$\boxed{GCD = 17}$$

$$17 = 119 - 3 \cdot 34$$

$$= 119 - 3(272 - 2 \cdot 119)$$

$$= 119 - (3 \cdot 272) + 6(119)$$

$$= 7(119) - 3(272)$$

$$\boxed{x = 7, y = -3}$$