# PROBLEM SET 1 MATH 115 NUMBER THEORY PROFESSOR PAUL VOJTA

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Problems 1.2.1c, 1.2.2, 1.2.3e, 1.2.14, 1.2.19, 1.2.21, 1.3.6, 1.3.14, 1.3.16, 1.3.18, 1.3.21, 1.4.2, 1.4.6, and 1.4.9 from  $An\ Introduction\ to\ The\ Theory\ of\ Numbers,\ 5^{th}$  edition, by Ivan Niven, Herbert S. Zuckerman, and Hugh L. Montgomery

### Problem (1.2.1)

Solution.

c.

$$3997 = 1 * 2947 + 1050$$

$$2947 = 2 * 1050 + 847$$

$$1050 = 1 * 847 + 203$$

$$847 = 4 * 203 + 35$$

$$203 = 5 * 35 + 28$$

$$35 = 1 * 28 + 7$$

$$r_{7}$$

$$28 = 4 * 7 + 0$$

$$r_{7}$$

$$gcd(2947, 3997) = (r_{7}, r_{8})$$

$$= (7, 0)$$

$$= 7$$

Date: June 30, 2014.

# Problem (1.2.2)

Solution.

$$3587 = 1 * 1819 + 1768$$

$$1819 = 1 * 1768 + 51$$

$$1768 = 34 * 51 + 34$$

$$51 = 1 * 34 + 17$$

$$34 = 2 * 17 + 0$$

$$r_{4}$$

$$r_{5}$$

So 
$$\gcd(3587, 1819) = \gcd(r_5, r_6) = \gcd(17, 0) = 17.$$
  
Next,  $2*1819 - 1*3587 = 51$ . Note that  $3587 = 70*51 + 17$ . 
$$3587 = 70*51 + 17$$
$$3587 = 70*(2*1819 - 3587) + 17$$

$$-140 * 1819 + 71 * 3587 = 17$$

$$-140 * 1819 + 71 * 3587 = \gcd(3587, 1819)$$

so x = -140, y = 71.

## **Problem** (1.2.3)

Solution.

e. From

$$f(x, y, z) = 6x + 10y + 15z = 1,$$

we see that

$$f(x, y, z) \equiv 1 \mod n, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+.$$

For n = 2, 3, 5 we get the congruences

$$z \equiv 1 \mod 2$$

$$y \equiv 1 \mod 3$$

$$x \equiv 1 \mod 5$$
.

The gcd of 6 and 10 is 2 such that  $6 \cdot -3 + 10 \cdot 2 = 2$ . Next, we see that

$$6x + 10y = 1 - 15z$$

$$= 1 - 15(2k + 1) (since z is odd)$$

$$= 1 - 30k - 15$$

$$= -14 - 30k$$

$$= 2(-7 - 15k)$$

$$= (6 \cdot -3 + 10 \cdot 2)(-7 - 15k)$$

$$= 6 \cdot (3(7 + 15k)) + 10 \cdot (2(-7 - 15k)),$$

so

$$z = 2k + 1$$

$$x = 21 + 45k$$

$$y = -14 - 30k$$

### **Problem** (1.3.14)

Solution.

If n is odd, we can write n=2k+1 for some  $k\in\mathbb{Z}$ . We have

$$n^{2} - 1 = (2k + 1)^{2} - 1$$
$$= (4k^{2} + 4k + 1) - 1$$
$$= 4k^{2} + 4k$$
$$= 4k(k + 1).$$

Either k or k+1 is even, so we can factor our 2 from one of these terms to get

$$4k(k+1) = 8c,$$

for some  $c \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $8c = n^2 - 1$ ,  $n^2 - 1$  is divisible by 8 by definition.

### **Problem** (1.3.19)

Solution.

Suppose we have n distinct integers  $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Given that

$$\gcd(a_i, a_j) = 1$$

for  $i \neq j$ , if we consider the prime factorizationa

$$a_k = \prod_{p} p^{\alpha_k(p)}, 1 \le k \in \mathbb{N} \le n,$$

Then  $\min(\alpha_i(p), \alpha_j(p)) = 0$  for all prime p. We prove that the set of numbers is relatively prime by contradiction. Suppose, they are not relatively prime. Then

$$\gcd(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \neq 1.$$

This implies that

$$\min(\alpha_1(p), \alpha_2(p), \dots, \alpha_n(p)) \neq 0$$

for some prime p. From this we have,

$$\alpha_k(p) \ge 1$$

for all  $1 \le k \le n$  for some p. Therefore

(2) 
$$\min(\alpha_i(p), \alpha_j(p)) \ge 1$$

for all i, j given some prime p. This contradicts equation 1. Therefore,

$$\gcd(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = 1$$

# **Problem** (1.3.21)

Solution.

Regardless of the value of k, it is easy to see that  $6k + 5 \equiv 1 \mod 2$ . Thus, we can write odd numbers of the form 6k + 5. If we can also write that number in the form 3k' - 1, then

$$3k' - 1 \equiv 1 \mod 2$$
  
 $3k' \equiv 2 \mod 2$   
 $3k' \equiv 0 \mod 2$   
 $k' \equiv 0 \mod 2$ 

so k' is even. Now we try to find a formula for k in terms of k' if a number can be written in both forms. We have

$$6k + 5 = 3k' - 1$$

$$6k - 3k' = -6$$

$$3(2k - k') = -6$$

$$2k - k' = -2$$

$$k = \frac{k' - 2}{2}.$$

Since k' is even, the term on the right is an integer. Thus, if a number can be written in the form 6k + 5, we can substitute  $k = \frac{k'-2}{2}$  to recover the form 3k' - 1.

# **Problem** (1.3.6)

Solution.

By the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, any number  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  can be written uniquely (up to a permutation) in form

$$n = \prod_{p} p^{\alpha(p)}$$

where p is prime. We can factor our factors of 2 to get

$$n = \underbrace{2^{\alpha(2)}}_{2^r} \prod_{p \neq 2} p^{\alpha(p)}.$$

Since all primes other than 2 are odd, m is the product of odd numbers and must also be odd. Since  $r = \alpha(2)$  and  $\alpha(p) \ge 0$  for all prime  $p, r \ge 0$ , completing the proof.

### **Problem** (1.3.14)

Solution.

In this proof I use the fact that if gcd(a, b) = d and gcd(a, c) = 1 then gcd(a, bc) = d. I also use the notation  $p^e \parallel a$  for a prime p and  $e, a \in \mathbb{Z}$  to mean that e is the highest power of p that divides a.

It is clear that from  $gcd(a, p^2) = p$  that  $p \parallel a$ . Thus, np = a for some  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  where gcd(n, p) = 1.

Likewise, from  $gcd(b, p^3) = p^2$  we see that  $p^2 \parallel b$ . Thus,  $mp^2 = b$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  where  $gcd(m, p^2) = 1$ . This also implies gcd(m, p) = 1.

Now we can prove  $gcd(ab, p^4) = p^3$ . We know that

$$\gcd(p^4, p^3) = p^3.$$

Since gcd(p, n) = 1 and gcd(p, m) = 1, gcd(p, nm) = 1 and therefore

(4) 
$$\gcd(p^4, nm) = 1.$$

Combining equations 3 and 4 we get

$$\gcd(p^4, mnp^3) = 1$$
$$\gcd(p^4, ab) = 1$$
$$\gcd(ab, p^4) = 1$$

Now we aim to prove that  $gcd(a+b,p^4)=p$ . We start with gcd(n+mp,p). Clearly this gcd is equal to 1 or p. If the gcd is p, then  $p\mid n+mp$ . Since  $p\mid mp$ , then  $p\mid n$ . But gcd(n,p)=1, so  $p\nmid n$ . Thus, the gcd is 1 so

(5) 
$$\gcd(p^4, n + mp) = 1$$

Clearly,

(6) 
$$\gcd(p^4, p) = p$$

Combining equations 5 and 6, we have

$$\gcd(p^4, p(n + mp)) = p$$
$$\gcd(p^4, pn + mp^2) = p$$
$$\gcd(p^4, a + b) = p$$
$$\gcd(a + b, p^4) = p$$

# **Problem** (1.3.16)

Solution.

From the description of n, we see that

$$n = 2a^2 = 3b^3 = 5c^5,$$

for some  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . Consider the prime factorization of n,

$$n = \prod_{p} p^{\alpha(p)} a$$

for primes p. We see that

$$\alpha(2) \equiv 1 \mod 2$$

$$\alpha(2) \equiv 0 \mod 3$$

$$\alpha(2) \equiv 0 \mod 5$$

The solution is  $\alpha(2) \equiv 15 \mod 30$ .

Likewise,

$$\alpha(3) \equiv 0 \mod 2$$

$$\alpha(3) \equiv 1 \mod 3$$

$$\alpha(3) \equiv 0 \mod 5$$

The solution is  $\alpha(3) \equiv 10 \mod 30$ .

Finally,

$$\alpha(5) \equiv 0 \mod 2$$

$$\alpha(5) \equiv 0 \mod 3$$

$$\alpha(5) \equiv 1 \mod 5$$

The solution is  $\alpha(5) \equiv 6 \mod 30$ .

By guess and check, the factorization

$$n = 2^{15} \cdot 3^{10} \cdot 5^6$$

is a solution.

# **Problem** (1.3.18)

Solution.

We aim to prove that  $gcd(a^2, b^2) = c^2 \iff gcd(a, b) = c$ . Let

$$a = \prod_{p} p^{\alpha(p)}$$
$$b = \prod_{p} p^{\beta(p)}$$

 $(\longleftarrow)$ 

We see that

$$c = \prod_p p^{\min(\alpha(p), \beta(p))}$$

Clearly,

$$a^{2} = \left(\prod_{p} p^{\alpha(p)}\right)^{2}$$
$$= \prod_{p} \left(p^{\alpha(p)}\right)^{2}$$
$$= \prod_{p} p^{2\alpha(p)},$$

and

$$b^{2} = \left(\prod_{p} p^{\beta(p)}\right)^{2}$$
$$= \prod_{p} \left(p^{\beta(p)}\right)^{2}$$
$$= \prod_{p} p^{2\beta(p)}.$$

Let  $c' = \gcd(a^2, b^2)$ . Then

$$c' = \prod_{p} p^{\min(2\alpha(p), 2\beta(p))}.$$

But

$$c^{2} = \left(\prod_{p} p^{\min(\alpha(p),\beta(p))}\right)^{2}$$
$$= \prod_{p} \left(p^{\min(\alpha(p),\beta(p))}\right)^{2}$$
$$= \prod_{p} p^{2 \cdot \min(\alpha(p),\beta(p))}$$

$$= \prod_{p} p^{\min(2\alpha(p), 2\beta(p))}.$$

so  $c^2 = c'$  and gcd(a, b) = c implies  $gcd(a^2, b^2) = c^2$ .

 $(\longrightarrow)$ 

To prove the converse, assuming  $\gcd(a^2, b^2) = c^2$ , we simply reverse the steps for how we calculated  $a^2, b^2$  and  $c^2$  to get formulas for a, b, c. We know that  $\gcd(a, b) = \prod_p p^{\min(\alpha(p), \beta(p))}$ , which is equal to c, so  $c = \gcd(a, b)$ .

### **Problem** (1.3.21)

Solution.

We aim to prove that

(7) 
$$\operatorname{lcm}(a, b, c) \cdot \operatorname{gcd}(ab, bc, ca) = |abc|.$$

Consider the prime factorization of both sides of the equation. They must be equal if each exponent for every prime in their prime factorization is equal. Let

$$a = \prod_{p} p^{\alpha(p)},$$

$$b = \prod_{p} p^{\beta(p)},$$

$$c = \prod_{p} p^{\gamma(p)}.$$

Consider an arbitrary prime p. The exponent for this prime on the left hand side is

$$\max(\alpha(p), \beta(p), \gamma(p)) + \min(\alpha(p) + \beta(p), \beta(p) + \gamma(p), \gamma(p) + \alpha(p)).$$

Suppose that  $\alpha(p) \geq \beta(p) \geq \gamma(p)$ . Then

$$\max(\alpha(p),\beta(p),\gamma(p))=\alpha(p),$$

and

$$\min(\alpha(p) + \beta(p), \beta(p) + \gamma(p), \gamma(p) + \alpha(p)) = \beta(p) + \gamma(p),$$

SO

$$\max(\alpha(p), \beta(p), \gamma(p)) + \min(\alpha(p) + \beta(p), \beta(p) + \gamma(p), \gamma(p) + \alpha(p)) = \alpha(p) + \beta(p) + \gamma(p).$$

We see that the right hand side is the exponent for the same prime in the prime factorization of |abc|.

Since the ordering of the exponents  $\alpha(p)$ ,  $\beta(p)$  and  $\gamma(p)$  was arbitrary, this holds for any ordering. Furthermore, since p was an arbitrary prime, this condition holds for any prime p. Thus the exponents for each prime are the same on each side of equation 7 so the equation is true.

### Problem (1.4.2)

Solution.

We aim to show that for  $n \in \mathbb{N} \geq 1$ , that

(8) 
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} = 0.$$

We show this with induction. Assume equation 8. We have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} = \left[ \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n+1}{k} \right] + (-1)^{n+1} \binom{n+1}{k+1}$$

$$= \left[ \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} + \binom{n}{k-1} \right] + (-1)^{n+1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k} + \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k-1} + (-1)^{n+1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^k \binom{n}{k-1} + (-1)^{n+1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (-1)^{k+1} \binom{n}{k} + (-1)^{n+1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^n (-1)^{k+1} \binom{n}{k} - (-1)^{n+1} \binom{n}{n} + (-1)^{n+1}$$

$$= 0 \text{ by } (*)$$

$$= -(-1)^{n+1} + (-1)^{n+1}$$

Here, (\*) is from multiplying both sides of equation 8 by -1. Thus, the inductive step is true. Next, we use the base case of n = 1, where

$$\sum_{k=0}^{1} (-1)^k \binom{1}{k} = (-1)^0 \binom{1}{0} + (-1)^1 \binom{1}{1}$$
$$= 1 - 1$$
$$= 0,$$

completing the proof.

# **Problem** (1.4.6)

Solution.

We aim to show that if f(x), g(x) are n-times differentiable, then the  $n^{\text{th}}$  derivative of f(x)g(x) is

(9) 
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n-k)}(x).$$

We will prove this with induction. First, assume equation 9. Next,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n-k)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} \left( f^{(k+1)}(x) g^{(n-k)}(x) + f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n+1-k)}(x) \right) 
= \sum_{k=0}^{n} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n+1-k)}(x) \left( \binom{n}{k-1} + \binom{n}{k} \right) + f^{(n+1)}(x) g^{(0)}(x) 
= \sum_{k=0}^{n} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n+1-k)}(x) \binom{n+1}{k} + f^{(n+1)}(x) g^{(0)}(x) 
= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n+1-k)}(x) \binom{n+1}{k}.$$

As our base case, suppose n = 0.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{0} {0 \choose k} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(0-k)}(x) = {0 \choose 0} f^{(0)}(x) g^{(0)}(x)$$
$$= f(x)g(x).$$

Thus, equation 9 is true for all  $n \geq 0$ .

### Problem (1.4.9)

Solution.

We aim to prove this by induction. For our induction step, suppose that

(10) 
$$\Delta^{n} f(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{k} (-1)^{j} {k \choose j} f(x+k-j)$$

We see that

$$\Delta^{n+1} f(x) = \Delta(\Delta^n f(x))$$

$$= \Delta \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j \binom{k}{j} f(x+k-j)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j \binom{k}{j} \Delta f(x+k-j)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j \binom{k}{j} \left( f(x+(k+1)-j) - f(x+k-j) \right)$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^k f(x+(k+1)-j) \left( (-1)^j \binom{k}{j} - (-1)^{j-1} \binom{k}{j-1} \right) - f(x)(-1)^k$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^k f(x+(k+1)-j)(-1)^j \binom{k+1}{j} - f(x)(-1)^k$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^k f(x+(k+1)-j)(-1)^j \binom{k+1}{j} + f(x)(-1)^{k+1}$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{k+1} (-1)^j \binom{k+1}{j} f(x+(k+1)-j),$$

completing the induction step.

As our base case, consider k = 1.

$$\sum_{j=0}^{1} (-1)^{j} {1 \choose j} f(x+1-j) = (-1)^{0} {1 \choose 0} f(x+1-0) + (-1)^{1} {1 \choose 1} f(x+1-1)$$

$$= f(x+1) + -f(x)$$

$$= \Delta f(x)$$

by definition. Thus, equation is true for all  $k \geq 1$ .