

Problem 1.

- a) Compute $\gcd(85, 289)$ using Euclid's extended algorithm.

Answer: $\gcd(85, 289) = 17$

$$289 = 3 * 85 + 34$$

$$85 = 2 * 34 + 17$$

$$34 = 2 * 17 + 0$$

$$\gcd(85, 289) = 17$$

- b) Compute x and y such that $85x + 289y = \gcd(85, 289)$. Show your work.

Answer: $x = 7$ and $y = -2$

$$17 = 85 + (-2) \times 34$$

$$34 = 289 + (-3) \times 85$$

$$17 = 85 + (-2) \times (289 + (-3) \times 85)$$

$$17 = 85 + (-2) \times 289 + 6 \times 85$$

$$17 = 7 \times 85 - 2 \times 289$$

To show this is correct, $7 \times 85 - 2 \times 289 = 595 - 578 = 17$.

Problem 2.

Use Fermat's little theorem to compute $3^{62} \pmod{7}$. Show your work.

Answer: Since 7 is prime and 3 is not divisible by 7 the theorem implies that $3^6 \equiv 1 \pmod{7}$.

$$3^{62} \pmod{7} = ((3^6)^{10} \times 3^2) \pmod{7}$$

$$3^{62} \pmod{7} = (1^{10} \times 9) \pmod{7}$$

$$3^{62} \pmod{7} = 9 \pmod{7}$$

$$3^{62} \pmod{7} = 2$$

Problem 3.

- a) Show that $n^7 - n$ is divisible by 42 for every positive integer n .

Answer: To prove this we need to show that $n^7 - n$ is divisible by the prime factors of 42 for all n . These factors are 2, 3, and 7.

From Fermat's Little Theorem $p|(n^p - n)$ for all n if p is prime. $p = 7$ and 7 is prime, thus $7|(n^7 - n)$ for all n .

Fermat's Little Theorem also then shows that $3|(n^3 - n)$. Factoring $n^7 - n$ we get,

$$n^7 - n = n(n - 1)(n + 1)(n^2 + n + 1)(n^2 - n + 1) = (n^3 - n)(n^4 + n^2 + 1)$$

Thus $3|(n^7 - n)$ for all n .

Regardless of the value of n , $n^7 - n$ will always be even, thus $2|(n^7 - n)$ for all n .

So $42|(n^7 - n)$ for all positive n .

- b) Show that every prime not equal to 2 or 5 divides infinitely many of the numbers 1, 11, 111, 1111, etc.

Answer: For p that is not 2 or 5, we have $10^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ by Fermat's little theorem. Doing some modular multiplicative arithmetics, we also have $10^{k(p-1)} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, meaning $p \mid 10^{k(p-1)} - 1$. $10^{k(p-1)} - 1$ ($k \in \mathbb{Z}$) is such sequence that each number is just $k(p-1)$ 9s. So it's now showed that every prime not equal to 2 or 5 divides infinitely many of the numbers 9, 99, 999, 9999, etc.

Also because for a prime $p > 5$, p will not divide 9. So if p does not divide 9 but divides infinitely many of the numbers 9, 99, 999, 9999, etc, it must divide infinitely many of the numbers 1, 11, 111, 1111, etc.

$p = 3$ is a special case since it divides 9. But it's known that 3 will also divide infinitely many of the numbers 1, 11, 111, 1111, etc, as long as the number of 1s consisting the number is divisible by 3. QED.

- c) Show that if $p > 3$ is a prime, then $p^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{24}$.

Answer: This is equivalent to stating that $24|(p^2 - 1)$. So the factors of $p^2 - 1 = (p - 1)(p + 1)$. In any three consecutive numbers at least one is divisible by 3. Since $p > 3$ this means that either $3|(p - 1)$ or $3|(p + 1)$. Since p is prime it is also odd, so $p - 1$ and $p + 1$ are both even. Since they are consecutive one of them is divisible by 2 and the other is divisible by 4. So $p^2 - 1$ is divisible by $2 \times 3 \times 4 = 24$. And since $p^2 = (p^2 - 1) + 1$ we know that $p^2 \pmod{24} \equiv 1 \pmod{24}$.

Problem 4.

a) Prove that if p is prime, and $0 < k < p$, then $p \mid \binom{p}{k}$.

Answer:

$$p \mid \binom{p}{k} = \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!}$$

p is prime and only divisible by 1 and p . Since $k < p$ and $(p-k) < p$ then all values in the denominator are $< p$. So p is never cancelled out. Since $\binom{p}{k}$ results in an integer and p is prime, this implies that p is a factor of $\binom{p}{k}$. Thus, if p is prime, and $0 < k < p$, then $p \mid \binom{p}{k}$.

b) Prove that for all integers a and b and all primes p ,

$$(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}$$

Answer: Let p be prime. Then by the binomial theorem,

$$(a+b)^p = b^p + \binom{p}{1}b^{p-1}a + \binom{p}{2}b^{p-2}a^2 + \dots + \binom{p}{p-k}ba^k + a^p$$

From problem 4a we know that if p is prime and $0 < k < p$ then $p \mid \binom{p}{k}$. Given this all the middle terms in the above equation disappear with \pmod{p} , leaving $(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}$. Thus for all integers a and b and all primes p , $(a+b)^p \equiv a^p + b^p \pmod{p}$.

Problem 5.

Let a be 1 in the previous problem, and use its conclusion to prove Fermat's little theorem.

Answer: This can be proved by induction.

Prove: Fermat's Little Theorem, $b^p \equiv b \pmod{p}$.

Let p be prime. As our base case let $b = 1$, then $1^p \equiv 1 \pmod{p} \rightarrow 1 \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$, which is true since any prime is greater than 1. It's also true for $b = 0$ since $0 \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, if we need to consider 0 as an integer. Assume this holds for some integer b , so $b^p \equiv b \pmod{p}$. Then for $b+1$, we want to prove,

$$(b+1)^p \equiv b+1 \pmod{p}.$$

Given the result of question 4b, we know that $(b+1)^p \equiv b^p + 1^p \pmod{p} = (b+1)^p \equiv b^p + 1 \pmod{p}$. Since $b^p \equiv b \pmod{p}$ then $(b+1)^p \equiv b+1 \pmod{p}$.

Having shown $b^p \equiv b \pmod{p}$ holds for $b = 1$, as well as if $b^p \equiv b \pmod{p}$, then $(b+1)^p \equiv b+1 \pmod{p}$ for $b \geq 1$, $b^p \equiv b \pmod{p}$ holds for all integers b and primes p .