math115A hw1

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Problem 1

(i) Suppose that n > 1 is a composite integer, with n = rs, say. Show that $2^n - 1$ is divisible by $2^r - 1$. (This shows that $2^n - 1$ is prime only if n is prime. Primes of the form $2^n - 1$ are called Mersenne primes.)

(ii) Show that if $2^k + 1$ is prime, then k must be a power of 2. (This explains why Fermat only had to consider numbers of the form $f_n = 2^{2^n} + 1$ (using the notation described in class) when he was hunting for primes, rather than more general numbers of the form $2^k + 1$ for an arbitrary positive integer k.

Solution

(i) Want to show that $2^{rs}-1$ is divisible by 2^r-1 where n=rs To do this, we can see that

$$2^{rs} - 1 = 2^{r(s)} - 1^1$$

this construction allows us to use the difference of powers of formula:

$$2^{r(s)}-1=(2^r-1)\big[{(2^r)}^{s-1}+\ldots+2^r+1\big]$$

therefore $2^n - 1$ is divisible by $2^r - 1$

(ii) We want to show that if 2^k+1 is prime then k must be a power of 2 suppose that k cannot be divisible be an odd prime p (and is therefore not a power of 2) so that k=mp then it holds that $2^k+1=2^{mp}+1=(2m+1)\left(1-2^m+2^{2m}-\ldots+2^{(p-1)m}\right)$ (geometric series expansion) which means that 2^k+1 is divible by some (2m+1) and is therefore composite, leading to a contradiction.

The Fibbonaci sequence $(F_n)_{n\geq 1}$ is defined recursively by the equations $F_1=1, F_2=1,$ and $F_{n+1}=F_n+F_{n-1}$ for $n\geq 2.$

Let α be any real number larger than $\beta=\frac{1}{2}\big(1+\sqrt{5}\big)$. Prove by induction or otherwise that, for $n\geq 1$, $F_n<\alpha^n$. [Hint: You may find it helpful to note that β is a solution of the equation $x^2=x+1$]

Solution

For the base cases n=1 and n=2 we can observe that

$$F_n = F_1 = f_2 = 1 < \beta^1 = \frac{1}{2} \Big(1 + \sqrt{5} \Big) \approx 1.6 < \alpha^1$$

For the inductive hypothesis, assume that $F_n < \alpha^n$ for some $n \leq k$

Then $F_{k+1} = F_k + F_{k-1} < \alpha^k + \alpha^{k-1} < \alpha^{k-1}(\alpha+1) < \alpha^{k+1}$ where the last statement comes from the fact that

$$\beta^2 = \beta + 1 \Rightarrow \alpha^2 > \alpha + 1 \Rightarrow \alpha^2 \alpha^{k-1} > \alpha^{k-1} (\alpha + 1) \equiv \alpha^{k+1} > \alpha^{k-1} (\alpha + 1)$$

Therefore the claim holds (by induction). Since we proved the base case k=1 as well as all k+1

Problem 3

Prove that for
$$n \ge 1$$
, $\sum_{1}^{n} m = \frac{1}{2} n(n+1)$

Solution

Since m is not defined, we can reformulate the problem and get a solution using induction.

Reformulate the problem to the following:

Prove that for $n \geq 1$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n m_i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

where $m_i = i$

For the base case n = 1 we can observe that 1 = (1(1+1))/2 = 1

For the inductive hypothesis assume that the claim holds for some n = k.

Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} m_i = \sum_{i=1}^k m_i + (k+1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + \frac{2(k+1)}{2} = \frac{k^2 + 3k + 2}{2} = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$$

Suppose that n pairs of gloves of different sizes are mixed together in a drawer. How many individual gloves must you take out if you are to be sure of having at least one complete pair. (justify your answer)

Solution

n+1 pairs is the minimum to ensure having at least one complete pair.

If we draw n gloves, they may be all distinct in the worst case (one glove from each of the n pairs). However, the next glove must form a complete pair,

Problem 5

prove that the integer $n=2^{10}\big(2^{11}-1\big)$ is not a perfect number by showing that $\sigma(n)\neq 2n$. [Hint: $2^{11}-1=23\times 89$]

Solution

Firstly, we know that if 2^n-1 is prime then $2^{n-1}(2^n-1)$ is a perfect number. It is known that there exists a one-to-one mapping between mersenne primes of the form 2^n-1 and the corresponding perfect number $2^{n-1}(2^n-1)$ by the Euclid–Euler theorem. Since $2^{11}-1$ is not a mersenne prime (it's not prime), then it follows that n is not perfect.

Alternatively, it is known that $\sigma(mn) = \sigma(m)\sigma(n)$ so long as m and n are coprime.

Since 2^{10} is a power of 2 this means that all of its divisors must also be powers of 2 or 1 (since $2^{10} = \underbrace{2 \cdot 2}_{10 \text{ times}}$).

The other number, $2^{11}-1=23\times 89$. Therefore 2^{10} and $2^{11}-1$ are coprime (23 and 89 do not have 2 as a divisor.)

Next,

$$\sigma(2^{10}(2^{11}-1)) = \sigma(2^{10})\sigma(2^{11}-1) = (2^{10+1}-1)\sigma(23\times 89) = (2^{11}-1)(24)(90)$$

where we use the fact that $\sigma(2^n) = 2^{n+1} - 1$. Also, since 23 and 89 are prime they are also coprime.

On the other hand, $2n = 2 \times 2^{10}(2^{11} - 1) = 2^{11}(2^{11} - 1) \neq (24 \times 90)(2^{11} - 1) = \sigma(n)$

Verify each of the following statements:

- a) No power of a prime can be a perfect number
- b) The product of two odd primes is never a perfect number

Solution

a) Let p be a prime. We want to see if $p^k = \sigma(p^k) = 1 + p + p^2 + ... + p^{k-1} = 1 + p(1 + p + ... + p^{k-2})$.

But since p^k is divisible by p but $1 + p(1 + p + ... + p^{k-2})$ is not, $p^k \neq 1 + p + p^2 + ... + p^{k-1}$ implies p^k is not perfect.

Note that the definition of $\sigma(n)$ for this subproblem does not include n itself in the sum, and that prime numbers must be greater than 1.

☐ b. By the euclid-euler theorem, a perfect number must be en even number multiplied by an odd prime number (2 is not a mersenne prime), which proves the claim.

Alternatively, let p_1, p_2 be both odd and prime. Then we want to see (or show) that $2p_1p_2 = \sigma(p_1p_2)$, supposing this is true for the sake of contradiction.

Note that p_1, p_2 are coprime therefore

$$\sigma(p_1p_2) = \sigma(p_1)\sigma(p_2) = (p_1+1)(p_2+1) = p_1p_2 + p_1 + p_2 + 1$$

Equivalently, if we exclude p_1p_2 from the sum of divisors we can see if

$$p_1 + p_2 + 1 = p_1 p_2$$

But if this is true then $p_1p_2 - p_1 - p_2 + 1 = 2 = (p_1 - 1)(p_2 - 1)$

But since $p_1,p_2\geq 3\Rightarrow (p_1-1)(p_2-1)\geq 4>2$ which is a contradiction. \square

Problem 7

- a) If n is a perfect number, prove that $\sum_{d|n} \left(\frac{1}{d}\right) = 2$
- b) Show that no proper divisor of a perfect number can be perfect.

Solution

a. Note that $\sigma(n) = 2n \Rightarrow \frac{\sigma(n)}{n} = 2$

and that
$$\frac{\sigma(n)}{n} = \sum_{d|n} \frac{d}{n} = \sum_{d|n} \left(\frac{1}{d}\right)$$

b) Note that all known perfect numbers are composite

Therefore if we have some proper divisor i of a perfect number n then using part (a):

 $2 = \sum\limits_{d|n} \! \left(\frac{1}{d}\right) > \sum\limits_{d|i} \! \left(\frac{1}{d}\right)$ which implies that i is not perfect.

If $\sigma(n) = kn$ where $k \ge 3$, then the positive integer n is called a k-perfect number. Establish the following assertions concerning k-perfect numbers:

- (a) If n is a 3-perfect number, and $3 \nmid n$, then 3n is 4-perfect.
- (b) If n is a 5-perfect number, and $5 \nmid n$, then 5n is 6-perfect.
- (c) If 3n is a 4k-perfect number, and $3 \nmid n$, then n is 3k-perfect.

Solution

- a) since n is 3-perfect, then we have $\sigma(3n) = \sigma(3)\sigma(n) = 4\sigma(n) = 4(3n)$ therefore 3n is 4-perfect and the multiplicative properties hold for coprime numbers 3 and n (note that $3 \nmid n$)
- b) similar to part (a) we can compute $\sigma(5n) = \sigma(5)\sigma(n) = 6(5n)$ therefore 5n is 6 perfect.
- c) since 3n is 4k perfect, we know that $\sigma(3n)=(4k)(3n)$. since $3\nmid n$ like in part (a) we also know that $\sigma(3n)=4(3n)=4\sigma(n)$.

This implies that $4\sigma(n)=(4k)(3n)$. Dividing 4 on both sides gives $\sigma(n)=3kn\Rightarrow n$ is 3k perfect.

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Resources:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perfect_number

https://penguinmaths.blogspot.com/2019/07/proof-sum-of-divisors-function-is.html

 $https://people.math.harvard.edu/{\sim}knill/seminars/perfect/handout.pdf$

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/157419/show-that-sum-no limits-dn-frac1d-frac-sigma-nn-for-every-pos

https://math.stackexchange.com/questions/4051082/prove-that-sigman-n-sum-d-mid-n-1-d