# Solutions to Homework Set 2

(Homework Problems from Chapter 1)

# Problems from Section 1.1.

1.1.1

Let n be an integer. Prove that a and c leave the same remainder when divided by n if and only if a - c = nk for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof.

#### $\Rightarrow$

Suppose a - c = nk. By the division algorithm, there exist unique integers  $q_1, r_1, q_2, r_2$  such that

a	=	$nq_1 + r_1$	;	$0 \le r_1 < n$	
c	=	$nq_2 + r_2$	;	$0 \le r_2 < n$	•

But then we have

$$a - c = nk + 0$$
  
 $a - c = n(q_1 - q_2) + (r_1 - r_2)$ 

Thus

$$r_1 - r_2 = n(q_1 - q_2 + k)$$

and so  $r_1 - r_2$  is divisible by n. However, the conditions  $0 \leq r_1, r_2 < n$  imply

$$0 \le |r_1 - r_2| < n$$

But the only non-negative integer divisible by n and less than n is 0. Hence,  $r_1 - r_2 = 0$ , or  $r_1 = r_2$ .

 $\Leftarrow$ 

Assume  $a = nq_1 + r$  and  $c = nq_2 + r$ . Then  $a - c = n(q_1 - q_2)$ . So a - c is divisible by n.

1.1.2

Let a and b be integers with  $c \neq 0$ . Then there exist unique integers q and r such that

(i) 
$$a = cq + r$$
  
(ii)  $0 \le r < |c|$ 

Proof.

If c is positive, then c = |c| and this is just the statement of the Division Algorithm (Theorem 1.1) so there is nothing more to prove.

If c is negative, then -c = |c| is positive and we can apply the Division Algorithm: there exist unique integers q' and r' such that

$$a = |c|q' + r'$$
 and  $0 \le r' < |c|$ ,

or, equivalently

$$a = -cq' + r'$$
 and  $0 \le r' < |c|$ .

We have thus shown that there exist integers q and r satisfying (i). We must now show this choice of q and r is unique. Suppose we have  $q, r, q', r' \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$a = cq + r$$
 ;  $0 \le r < |c|$   
 $a = cq' + r'$  ;  $0 \le r' < |c|$   
 $0 = c(q - q') + r - r'$ 

or

Then we have

$$(\star) \qquad \qquad r-r'=c(q'-q)$$

So r - r' is divisible by c. But also |r - r'| < |c|. Hence, since 0 is the only non-negative number less than |c| that is divisible by c, we must have r - r' = 0. But this with (\*) then implies q - q' = 0. Hence, q = q' and r = r'. So q and r are unique.

## 1.1.3

Prove that the square of any integer a is either of the form 3k or of the form 3k + 1 for some integer k.

#### Proof.

By the Division Algorithm, any integer a is representable as

with r an integer such that  $0 \le r < 3$ . That means  $r \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ . So a has one of three possible forms (1) a = 3a + 0

a = 3q + r

$$(1) a = 5q + c$$

$$(2) a = 3q + 1$$

$$(3) a = 3q + 2$$

In the first case,  $a^2 = 9q^2 = 3(3q^2)$  is obviously of the form 3k, with  $k = 3q^2$ . In the second case,

 $a^2$ 

$$= (3q+1)^{2}$$
  
= 9q^{2} + 6q + 1  
= 3(3q^{2} + 2q) + 1

and so  $a^2$  is of the form 3k + 1, with  $k = 3q^2 + 2q$ . In the last case,

$$a^{2} = (3q+2)^{2}$$
  
= 9q^{2} + 12q + 4  
= 3(3q^{2} + 4q + 1) + 1

 $a^2$  is also of the form 3k + 1, with  $k = 3q^2 + 4q + 1$ .

#### 1.1.4

Prove that the cube of any integer has exactly one of the forms 9k, 9k + 1, or 9k + 8.

Let a be any integer. Then by the Division Algorithm, a must have one of the following forms

$$a = \begin{cases} 3q\\ 3q+1\\ 3q+2 \end{cases}$$

.

 $\mathbf{So}$ 

$$a^{3} = \begin{cases} 27q^{3} = 9(3q^{3}) \\ 27q^{3} + 18q^{2} + 18q + 1 = 9(3q^{3} + 2q^{2} + 2q) + 1 \\ 27q^{3} + 36q^{2} + 72q + 8 = 9(3q^{3} + 4q^{2} + 8q) + 8 \end{cases}$$

#### Problems from Section 1.2

1.2.1

(a) Prove that if  $a \mid b$  and  $a \mid c$  then  $a \mid (b + c)$ .

Proof.

If  $a \mid b$  and  $a \mid c$ , then there exist integers  $q_1$  and  $q_2$  such that

 $b = q_1 a$  $c = q_2 a$ 

 $\mathbf{So}$ 

 $b + c = q_1 a + q_2 a = a(q_1 + q_2)$ .

So b + c is divisible by a.

(b) Prove that if  $a \mid b$  and  $a \mid c$ , then  $a \mid (br + ct)$  for any  $r, t \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

Proof.

Again we have

and so

 $br + ct = (q_1a)r + (q_2a)t$ =  $a(q_1r + q_2t)$ .

 $\begin{array}{rcl} b & = & q_1 a \\ c & = & q_2 a \end{array}$ 

Hence br + ct is divisible by a.

1.2.2 Prove or disprove that if  $a \mid (b+c)$ , then  $a \mid b$  or  $a \mid c$ .

Disproof by counter-example.

Take a = 6, b = c = 3. Then  $6 \mid (3+3)$  but  $6 \nmid 3$ .

### 1.2.3

Prove that if  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  is a non-zero solution of  $x^2 + ax + b = 0$  (where  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ), then  $r \mid b$ .

Proof.

By hypothesis,

 $r^2 + ar + b = 0$ 

or

 $b = r(-r - a) \quad .$ 

It is thus clear that r divides b if r is nonzero.

1.2.4

Prove that GCD(a, a + b) = d if and only if GCD(a, b) = d.

Proof.

Let

$$S = \{ \text{common divisors of } a \text{ and } b \}$$
  
$$T = \{ \text{common divisors of } a \text{ and } (a+b) \}$$

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We will show that these two sets coincide.

Suppose  $s \in S$ . Then there exist  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a & = & xs \\ b & = & ys \end{array}$$

Thus,

$$a+b = sx + sy = s(x+y) \quad ,$$

and so a + b is divisible by s. So any  $s \in S$  is also an element of T.

Suppose  $t \in T$ . Then there exist  $u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a & = & ut \\ a+b & = & vt \end{array}$$

Hence,

$$b = vt - ut = t(v - u)$$

and so b is also divisible by t. So any element  $t \in T$  is also an element of S.

Thus, S = T. So

$$GCD(a,b) = Max(S) = Max(T) = GCD(a,a+b)$$

.

1.2.5 Prove that if GCD(a,c) = 1 and GCD(b,c) = 1, then GCD(ab,c) = 1.

# ${\it Proof.}$

Suppose GCD(a,c) = 1 and GCD(b,c) = 1. Then by Theorem 1.3, there exists integers u, v, x, y such that

$$1 = ua + vc$$
  
$$1 = xb + yc$$

But then

$$1 = 1 \cdot 1$$
  
=  $(ua + vc) (xb + yc)$   
=  $(ux) ab + (uay + vxb + vyc) c$ 

Thus,

$$1 = u'(ab) + v'c$$

(4) with

 $\begin{array}{rcl} u' &=& ux \\ v' &=& uay + vxb + vyc \end{array} .$ 

Now let t be any common divisor of ab and c. Then, by definition, there exists  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$$ab = rt$$
  
 $c = st$ 

So we can rewrite (4) as

$$1 = u'rt + v'st = (u'r + v's)t ;$$

from which it is clear that  $t \mid 1$ . Hence,  $t = \pm 1$ . Hence the greatest common divisor of ab and c is 1.

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Here is an alternative proof.

First of all, it is clear that if c and b have no common factors, and t is a factor of b, then c and t have no common factors. Put another way; if  $t \mid c$  and GCD(c, b) = 1 then GCD(t, b) = 1.

Now suppose that d = GCD(c, ab). Then  $d \ge 1$  and there exist integers x and y such that

$$c = xd$$
$$ab = yd$$

Since  $d \mid c$  and GCD(a, c) = 1, by the remark above above, we have GCD(t, a) = 1.

Similarly, t divides c and GCD(b, c) = 1 implies GCD(t, b) = 1.

Now we apply Theorem 1.5.

$$t \mid ab$$
 and  $GCD(t, a) = 1 \implies t \mid b$ .

But GCD(t, b) = 1. Hence t = 1.

1.2.6

(a) Prove that if  $a, b, u, v \in \mathbb{Z}$  are such that au + bv = 1, then GCD(a, b) = 1.

Proof.

First note that the condition au + bv = 1 implies that a and b cannot both be zero. According to Corollary 1.4, an integer d is the greatest common divisor of a and b if and only if

(i)  $d \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ (ii) if  $c \mid a$  and  $c \mid b$ , then  $c \mid d$ .

Suppose now that d = GCD(a, b) > 1. Then

$$\begin{array}{rcl} a & = & sd \\ b & = & td \end{array}$$

But then we have

$$1 = sdu + tdv = d(su + tv)$$

But now note that the right hand side is divisible by d but the left hand side is not, since d is presummed to be greater than 1. Hence we have a contradiction unless d = 1.

(b) Show by example that if au + bv = d > 0, then GCD(a, b) need not be d.

Example.

Take a = 3, u = 1, b = 3, v = 1. Then

$$au + bv = 5$$

but

$$GCD(3,2) = 1$$
 .

## Problems from Section 1.3

1.3.1

Let p be an integer other than  $0, \pm 1$ . Prove that p is prime if and only if for each  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ , either GCD(a, p) = 1 or  $p \mid a$ .

Proof.

 $\Rightarrow$ 

If p is prime then the only divisors of p are  $\pm 1$  and  $\pm p$ . So if s is a common divisor of a and p, then  $s \in \{\pm 1, \pm p\}$ . Hence either GCD(a,p) = 1 or GCD(a,p) = |p|. In the latter case we have  $p \mid a$ . So either GCD(a,p) = 1 or  $p \mid a$ .

 $\Leftarrow$  (Proof by Contradiction)

Assume p has the property that for every integer a, either GCD(a, p) = 1 or  $p \mid a$ . If p is not prime then there exist  $s, t \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

p = st

 $\operatorname{and}$ 

$$1 < |s| \le |t| < |p|$$

Since t is a divisor of p,  $GCD(t,p) = t \neq 1$ . Therefore,  $p \mid t$ . But this is impossible since |t| < |p|. Hence p must be prime.

1.3.2

Let p be an integer other than  $0 \pm 1$  with this property: Whenever b and c are integers such that  $p \mid bc$ , then  $p \mid c$  or  $p \mid b$ . Prove that p is prime.

Proof.

Suppose p is an integer  $\neq 0, \pm 1$  such that whenever  $p \mid bc$  then  $p \mid b$  or  $p \mid c$ . Let s be a divisor of p. Then p = sq for some integer q and we have

 $sq \mid bc \implies sq \mid b \text{ or } sq \mid c$ 

In particular, taking b = s and c = q, we have

 $sq \mid s \text{ or } sq \mid q$ .

But this implies either

 $s = \pm 1$  and  $q = \pm p$ 

or

 $s = \pm p$  and  $q = \pm 1$ .

Hence the only divisors of p are  $\pm 1$  and  $\pm p$ ; and so p is prime.

1.3.3

 $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$ 

where the  $p_i$  are positive primes such that  $p_1 \leq p_2 \leq \cdots \leq p_r$ .

Proof.

By Theorem 1.11, we know that there exists a prime factorization of n that is unique up to changes in the order of factors and flips in the sign of pairs of factors. The statement above just removes the remaining ambiguity in the conclusion of Theorem 1.11. All prime factors are now required to be positive, so there one cannot flip the sign of terms; and the order of factors is fixed to coincide with their normal ordering as integers.

1.3.4 Prove that if p is prime and  $p \mid a^n$  , then  $p^n \mid a^n.$ 

Proof.

According to Corollary 1.9, if  $p \mid a^n$ , then  $p \mid a$  since  $a^n = a \cdot a \cdot a \cdots a$ . But then a = pq for some  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Hence  $a^n = p^n q^n$ , and so  $p^n$  divides  $a^n$ .

1.3.5

(a) Prove that there exist no nonzero integers a, b such that  $a^2 = 2b^2$ .

Proof.

According to the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic, a and b have prime factorizations of the form

$$a = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$$
$$b = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_s$$

But then

$$a^{2} = p_{1}p_{1}p_{2}p_{2}\cdots p_{r}p_{r} \qquad (2r \text{ prime factors})$$
  
$$2b^{2} = 2q_{1}q_{1}q_{2}q_{2}\cdots q_{s}q_{s} \qquad (2s+1 \text{ prime factors})$$

Since the two integers  $a^2$  and  $2b^2$  have, respectively, an even number and an odd number of prime factors,  $a^2$  can not equal  $2b^2$ .

(b) Prove that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Proof.

Suppose  $\sqrt{2}$  is rational; i.e.,  $\sqrt{2} = \frac{a}{b}$  with  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0$ . Then

$$\sqrt{2b} = a$$

is an integer. Squaring both sides of this equation we get

$$2b^2 = a^2$$

which as we have just seen cannot be satified by any non-zero integers a and b. Hence we have a contradiction. So  $\sqrt{2}$  can not be rational.