

## MODEL ANSWERS TO THE FOURTH HOMEWORK

2.1.5. Note that  $(a, b)$  divides  $a$  and  $b$  so that it divides  $a$  and  $bc$ , that is,  $(a, b)$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $bc$ . Thus  $(a, b)$  divides  $(a, bc)$ . By symmetry,  $(a, c)$  divides  $(a, bc)$ . On the other hand,  $(a, b)$  divides  $b$  and  $(a, c)$  divides  $c$  so that  $(a, b)$  and  $(a, c)$  are coprime. Thus  $(a, b)(a, c)$  divides  $(a, bc)$ .

Since  $(a, bc)$  divides  $bc$ , we may write  $(a, bc) = d_1 d_2$ , where  $d_1$  divides  $b$  and  $d_2$  divides  $c$ . Then  $d_1$  divides  $d_1 d_2$ , which divides  $a$ . Thus  $d_1$  divides  $a$  and it divides  $b$  so that it is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ . Thus  $d_1$  divides  $(a, b)$ . By symmetry  $d_2$  divides  $(a, c)$ . Thus  $(a, bc) = d_1 d_2$  divides  $(a, b)(a, c)$ . As  $(a, bc) = d_1 d_2$  divides  $(a, b)(a, c)$  and vice-versa, it follows that  $(a, bc) = (a, b)(a, c)$ , as both sides are natural numbers. Suppose that  $a = bx + cy$ . Now if  $d$  divides  $a$  and  $b$  then  $d$  certainly divides  $a = bx + cy$  and  $b$ . Vice-versa, if  $d$  divides  $b$  and  $bx + cy$  then  $d$  divides  $cy$ . As  $d$  divides  $b$  and  $(b, c) = 1$ , it follows that  $d$  divides  $y$ . Thus the common divisors of  $\{a, b\}$  and  $\{b, y\}$  are the same, so that  $(a, b) = (b, y)$ . By symmetry, it follows that  $(a, c) = (c, x)$ . By what we already proved,

$$\begin{aligned}(bx + cy, bc) &= (a, bc) \\ &= (a, b)(a, c) \\ &= (b, y)(c, x).\end{aligned}$$

2.2.6. Let

$$u = 3 + \sqrt{10}.$$

Note that if we put

$$v = \sqrt{10} - 3$$

then

$$\begin{aligned}uv &= (\sqrt{10} + 3)(\sqrt{10} - 3) \\ &= (\sqrt{10})^2 - 3^2 \\ &= 10 - 9 \\ &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $u$  is a unit, with inverse  $v$ . But then

$$\begin{aligned} u^n v^n &= (uv)^n \\ &= 1^n \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

It follows that  $u^n$  is a unit for all natural numbers  $n$ . In this case

$$u^n = v^{-n},$$

so that  $u^{-n} \in \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{10}]$  for all natural numbers  $n$ . From there it follows easily that  $u^n$  is a unit for all integers  $n$ .

2.3.5. Since  $(a, b) = 1$  the linear Diophantine equation

$$ax + by = c$$

has infinitely many integral solutions. The two intercepts are  $(c/a, 0)$  and  $(0, c/b)$  and the distance between these points is

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{c}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{c}{b}\right)^2} = \frac{c}{ab} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}.$$

Now the distance between two successive solutions is

$$\sqrt{a^2 + b^2}.$$

The distance between  $n$  solutions is then

$$(n-1)\sqrt{a^2 + b^2},$$

and this must be at most the distance between the intercepts. Thus

$$(n-1)\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \leq \frac{c}{ab} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2},$$

so that cancelling and moving the one over, we get

$$n \leq \frac{c}{ab} + 1.$$

On the other hand, amongst all solutions let  $(a_0, b_0)$  be the solution with the largest negative value for  $a_0$  and let  $(a_{n+1}, b_{n+1})$  be the solution with the largest negative value for  $b_{n+1}$ . Then the  $n$  solutions in the first quadrant are the only solutions between these two solutions. The distance between  $(a_0, b_0)$  and  $(a_{n+1}, b_{n+1})$  is then

$$(n+1)\sqrt{a^2 + b^2},$$

and this must be greater than the distance between the intercepts. Thus

$$(n+1)\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} \leq \frac{c}{ab} \sqrt{a^2 + b^2},$$

so that cancelling and moving the one over, we get

$$n > \frac{c}{ab} - 1.$$

3.1.1. Suppose that the consecutive integers are  $a, a + 1, \dots, a + r - 1$ . Then the difference between any of these integers is at most  $r - 1$ , so that these none of these  $r$  integers are congruent. As there are exactly  $r$  congruence classes, it follows that any integer is congruent to exactly one of these  $r$  numbers. By assumption  $f(a + i)$  is divisible by  $r$ , for any  $0 \leq i \leq r - 1$ , so that  $f(a + i) \equiv 0 \pmod{r}$ .

Suppose that  $b \in \mathbb{Z}$  is an integer. Then  $b \equiv a + i \pmod{r}$ , for some  $0 \leq i \leq r - 1$ . We check below that  $f(a + i) \equiv f(b) \pmod{r}$ . Assuming this, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(b) &\equiv f(a + i) \pmod{r} \\ &= 0 \pmod{r}, \end{aligned}$$

so that  $f(b)$  is divisible by  $r$ .

Note that  $f(x) = x^2 + x$  is always even, since both

$$f(0) = 0^2 + 0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f(1) = 1^2 + 1 = 2,$$

are even. The coefficients of  $x^2 + x$  are 1 and 0 and the greatest common divisor is 1, which is not divisible by 2.

Suppose that  $a$  and  $b$  are two integers, which are congruent modulo  $r$ . We check that  $f(a) \equiv f(b) \pmod{r}$ . We proceed by induction on  $n$  in the expression

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n.$$

Let

$$g(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} \quad \text{and} \quad h(x) = a_nx^n.$$

Then  $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$ . Suppose that we know  $h(a) \equiv h(b) \pmod{r}$ . By induction on  $n$  we would have  $g(a) \equiv g(b) \pmod{r}$ . But then

$$\begin{aligned} f(a) &= g(a) + h(a) \\ &\equiv g(b) + h(b) \pmod{r} \\ &= f(b). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore it suffices to check that  $h(a) \equiv h(b) \pmod{r}$ . Let  $k(x) = x^n$ . Note that if  $k(a) \equiv k(b) \pmod{r}$  then

$$\begin{aligned} h(a) &= a_n a^n \\ &\equiv a_n b^n \pmod{r} \\ &= h(b). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore it suffices to check that  $k(a) = k(b) \pmod r$ . We proceed by induction on  $n$ . Assume the result for lower values of  $n$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} k(a) &= a^n \\ &= a \cdot a^{n-1} \\ &\equiv b \cdot b^{n-1} \pmod r \\ &= b^n \\ &= k(b). \end{aligned}$$

This completes the induction and the proof. In short,  $f(a) \equiv f(b) \pmod r$ , as equivalence modulo  $r$  respects addition and multiplication and a polynomial is built up using just these two operations.

3.1.2. Suppose  $a$  is an integer. If we write  $a$  in decimal then we get

$$a = \sum a_i 10^i.$$

where  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  are digits, so that  $a_i$  are integers between 0 and 9. Let

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n.$$

Then

$$a = f(10).$$

If we work modulo 9 we get we have

$$10 \equiv 1 \pmod 9,$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} a &\equiv f(1) \pmod 9 \\ &= a_0 + a_1 + \dots + a_n. \end{aligned}$$

So throwing out nines just means that if we work modulo 9, we are just adding the digits and working modulo 9 respects addition and multiplication.

3.1.7. As  $r$  and  $s$  are odd we can find  $a$  and  $b$  such that  $r = 2a + 1$  and  $s = 2b + 1$ .

(a) We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{rs - 1}{2} &= \frac{(2a + 1)(2b + 1) - 1}{2} \\
 &= \frac{4ab + 2a + 2b + 1 - 1}{2} \\
 &= 2ab + a + b \\
 &\equiv a + b \pmod{2} \\
 &= \frac{r - 1}{2} + \frac{s - 1}{2}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\frac{rs - 1}{2} \equiv \frac{r - 1}{2} + \frac{s - 1}{2} \pmod{2}.$$

(b) Now one of  $a$  or  $a + 1$  is even, so that  $a(a + 1)$  is always divisible by 2 and  $4a(a + 1)$  is always divisible by 8. Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 r^2 &= (2a + 1)^2 \\
 &= 4a^2 + 4a + 1 \\
 &= 4a(a + 1) + 1 \\
 &\equiv 1 \pmod{8}.
 \end{aligned}$$

(c) As  $a^2 + a$  is always divisible by 2 it follows that  $2(a^2 + a)(b^2 + b)$  is divisible by 8. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{(rs)^2 - 1}{8} &= \frac{(2a + 1)^2(2b + 1)^2 - 1}{8} \\
 &= \frac{(4a^2 + 4a + 1)(4b^2 + 4b + 1) - 1}{8} \\
 &= \frac{4a^2 + 4a}{8} + \frac{4b^2 + 4b}{8} + 2(a^2 + a)(b^2 + b) \\
 &\equiv \frac{r^2 - 1}{8} + \frac{s^2 - 1}{8} \pmod{8}.
 \end{aligned}$$

3.1.8. Let  $n$  be an integer. Suppose that  $n$  is even and  $n$  is prime. Then  $n = \pm 2$ . If  $n = -2$  then  $n = 0$  which is not prime. If  $n = 2$  then  $n + 2 = 4$  which is not prime. Thus if  $n$  and  $n + 2$  are both prime then  $n$  is odd.

Suppose that  $n$  is odd. As  $[0]$ ,  $[2]$  and  $[4] = [1]$  are distinct equivalence classes, modulo 3, it follows that one of  $n$ ,  $n + 2$  and  $n + 4$  is congruent to zero modulo three, so that one of them is divisible by 3. Thus if all three of  $n$ ,  $n + 2$  and  $n + 4$  are prime, then one of  $n$ ,  $n + 2$ ,  $n + 4$  is equal to  $\pm 3$ . Since this gives only finitely many possible values for  $n$ ,

it follows that the set

$$\{ n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n, n + 2 \text{ and } n + 4 \text{ are all prime} \}$$

is finite.

3.1.10. First note that

$$k + 3 \equiv k \pmod{3}.$$

On the other hand, working modulo three, we have

$$[0]^3 = [0^3] = 0 \quad [1]^3 = [1^3] = [1] \quad \text{and} \quad [2]^3 = [2^3] = [8] = [2].$$

Thus

$$[0]^6 = 0 \quad [1]^6 = [1] \quad \text{and} \quad [2]^6 = ([2]^3)^2 = [2]^2 = [4] = [1].$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} (k + 6)^{k+6} &\equiv k^{k+6} \pmod{3} \\ &= k^6 \cdot k^k \\ &\equiv k^k \pmod{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the sequence  $k^k \pmod{3}$  repeats itself every sixth integer. Therefore the period is a divisor of six. Consider the first few terms

$$0^0 = 0 \quad 1^1 = 1 \quad 2^2 = 4 \equiv 1 \pmod{3} \quad \text{and} \quad 3^3 = 27 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}.$$

This sequence does not repeat itself every second term but the third term is a repeat. Therefore the period is either 3 or 6. But

$$\begin{aligned} 5^5 &\equiv 2^5 \pmod{3} \\ &= 2^3 \cdot 2^2 \\ &\equiv 2 \cdot 2^2 \pmod{3} \\ &\equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the period is six.