ASSIGNMENT 3

MATH 235

Let *n* be a positive integer and $\tau(n)$ be the number of positive divisors of *n*. The following lemma will be useful in the following proofs:

Lemma Let $r \ge 1$ with $r = p_1 \dots p_k$, primes not necessarily distinct. We then have that all divisors of r can be written as $p_1 \dots p_j$, i.e. some combination of the prime factors of r. Assume otherwise, and choose a divisor x|r. Then xy = r for $y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$\implies x_1...x_sy_1...y_t = p_1...p_k$$

Since the prime factorization of r = xy is unique, we can group these as follows WLOG:

$$x_1...x_sy_1...y_t = p_1...p_jp_{j+1}...p_k$$

with $x_1 = p_1, ..., x_s = p_i$, and we are done.

Part (1): Suppose *p* is prime. p^r , then, is its own prime factorization. We can deduce that all divisors of p^r may be written as $\{p^0, p^1, ..., p^r\}$, where, for any divisor p^i , we can write $p^i q = p^r$ with $q = p^{r-i}$.

As shown before, all divisors can be written as a product of prime factors, and so the set $\{p^0, p_1, ..., p^r\}$ is indeed complete, and has r + 1 elements.

$$\tau(p^r) = r + 1$$

Part (3): Part (2) is done on the next page, since it's lengthy. We borrow its result here, that $\tau(mn) = \tau(m)\tau(n)$. We can then write

$$\tau(a_1a_2...a_n) = \tau(a_1)\tau(a_2...a_n) = \tau(a_1)\tau(a_2)\tau(a_3...a_n) = ... = \tau(a_1)\tau(a_2)...\tau(a_n)$$

Consider $\tau(p_1^{a_1}...p_k^{a_k})$. From (2) and above, this is $\prod_{i=1}^k \tau(p_i^{a_i})$.

$$\prod_{i=1}^{k} \tau(p_i^{a_i}) = \prod_{i=1}^{k} (a_i + 1)$$

To use our result from (2), note that the GCD of any two expodentiated primes in this list is 1. As proof, for two primes $p_1^{a_1}$ and $p_2^{a_2}$, we have that any two of their divisors, x_1 and x_2 , are of the form $p_1^{i_1}$, $p_2^{i_2}$, where $i_1 \le a_1, i_2 \le a_2$. Thus we have that $x_1 \ne x_2$ except when $i_1 = i_2 = 0$, i.e. $x_1 = x_2 = 1$ is the only, and thus greatest, common divisor of $p_1^{a_1}$ and $p_2^{a_2}$.

and we are done.

Part (2): Let $\mathcal{D}(i)$ denote the set of all divisors of *i*. We see that for $m = p_1^{a_1} \dots p_k^{a_k}$, as before, all divisors can be made up of combinations of these primes and their powers, where no divisors diverge from this form (see lemma):

$$\mathcal{D}(m) = [1, p_1, p_1^2, ..., p_1^{a_1}] \times [1, p_2, p_2^2, ..., p_2^{a_2}] \times ... \times [1, p_k, p_k^2, ..., p_k^{a_k}]$$

Note that this Cartesian product allows for no duplicates, since all p_i are distinct. Pick a prime $p_i^{a'_i}$ in each set $[1, p_i, ..., p_i^{a_i}]$, with $1 \le a'_i \le a_i$. Then there are $\sum_{i=1}^k {k \choose i}$ ways of choosing divisors from $[p_1^{a'_1}] \times ... \times [p_k^{a'_k}]$. Furthermore, let there be \mathbb{P}_m ways of fixing primes, without replacement, as we've just done. Then the total unique combinations are

$$\tau(m) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{k} \binom{k}{i}\right] \mathbb{P}_{m}$$

Similarly, for $n = q_1^{b_1} \dots q_l^{b_l}$, we have

$$\tau(n) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{l} \binom{l}{i}\right] \mathbb{P}_n$$

Write mn as $p_1^{a_1} \dots p_k^{a_k} q_1^{b_1} \dots q_l^{b_l}$. Fixing all $a'_1, \dots, a'_k, b'_1, \dots, b'_l$ as we did before, we can count $\sum_{i=1}^{k+l} \binom{k+l}{i}$ corresponding divisors. Note that, since gcd(m, n) = 1, they share no common divisors other than 1. This ensures that, in the calculation above, we are not counting duplicate products.

Consider all ways in which $a'_1, ..., a'_k, b'_1, ..., b'_l$ can be chosen uniquely. This is precisely $\mathbb{P}_m \mathbb{P}_n$. Thus:

$$\tau(mn) = \left[\sum_{i=1}^{k+l} \binom{k+l}{i}\right] \mathbb{P}_n \mathbb{P}_m$$

By Binomial theorem, $\tau(m) = 2^k \mathbb{P}_m$, $\tau(n) = 2^l \mathbb{P}_n$, and $\tau(mn) = 2^{k+l} \mathbb{P}_m \mathbb{P}_n = 2^k \mathbb{P}_m 2^l \mathbb{P}_n = \tau(m)\tau(n)$, and we are done.

Part (1): Let c = lcm(m, n). Then m|c and n|c. Further, we have that m|cq and n|cq for any q we'd like.

Since we have that m|k and n|k, combining with the above equations yields m|k - cq, n|k - cq. Note that we can write k = cq + r where $0 \le r < c$, so simplifying we get m|r and n|r. Thus, r is a common multiple with r < c. But it is given that c is the *least* common multiple, so the only way to satisfy m|r and n|r is to conclude r = 0.

 \implies k = cq, and thus c|k

Part (2): Let $m = p_1^{a_1} \dots p_k^{a_k}$, $n = p_1^{b_1} \dots p_k^{b_k}$. Denote $\max\{a_i, b_i\}$ as \max_i and $\min\{a_i, b_i\}$ as \min_i . The following proof will borrow from the result shown in Q3, i.e. that $\operatorname{lcm}(m, n) = p_1^{\max_1} \dots p_k^{\max_k}$.

$$lcm(m, n) gcd(m, n) = p_1^{\max_1} \dots p_k^{\max_k} p_1^{\min_1} \dots p_k^{\min_k}$$
$$= p_1^{\max_1 + \min_1} \dots p_k^{\max_k + \min_k}$$
$$= p_1^{a_1 + b_1} \dots p_k^{a_k + b_k}$$
$$= p_1^{a_1} \dots p_k^{a_k} p_1^{b_1} \dots p_k^{b_k} = mn$$

Thus, we have

$$\operatorname{lcm}(m,n) = \frac{mn}{\gcd(m,n)}$$

Before proving, we'll need to add more construction to our prime factorization of *m* and *n*:

Define $m := p_1^{a_1} p_2^{a_2} \dots p_k^{a_k}$ and $m := p_1^{b_1} p_2^{b_2} \dots p_k^{b_k}$ to be factorizations of *m* and *n*. Note that, if there is a prime p_i in the unique factorization of *m* that is not in *n*, one sets the power $b_i = 0$ (and vise-versa).

Let *c* be a common multiple of *m* and *n*, i.e. m|c, n|c, and we have

$$\star \quad c = p_1^{a_1'} p_2^{a_2'} \dots p_k^{a_k'} \quad \text{and} \quad c = p_1^{b_1'} p_2^{b_2'} \dots p_k^{b_k'} \quad \text{with} \quad a_i' \ge a_i, \ b_i' \ge b_i$$

c.f. Proposition 10.2.1.

One normally writes $c = p_1^{a'_1} \dots p_k^{a'_k} q_1 \dots q_t$ and $c = p_1^{b'_1} \dots p_k^{b'_k} r_1 \dots r_t$, but, as above, we can take each q_i and r_j to reference particular primes p_i and p_j with their exponents $a_i = b_i = a_j = b_j$ all 0.

Let $l := p_1^{\max\{a_1, b_1\}} \dots p_k^{\max\{a_k, b_k\}}$. Denote $\max_i = \max\{a_i, b_i\}$. We can write l in the following two forms:

Note that, since the prime factorization for c is unique, the previous 2 forms are equal.

From \star , we can write $c = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k}$ with two conditions for α : that $\alpha_i \ge a_i$ and $a_i \ge b_i$. Thus, $\alpha_i \ge \max\{a_i, b_i\}$.

Then, for any common multiple *c*, we have that $c = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_k^{\alpha_k} \ge p_1^{\max_1} \dots p_k^{\max_k}$ $c \ge p_1^{\max_1} \dots p_k^{\max_k} = l$ is exactly our least common multiple. \Box

Two important facts will be important: \mathbb{Q} is closed under multiplication; for any $i \in \mathbb{Q} \setminus \mathbb{R}$ and $q \in \mathbb{Q}$, $iq \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$. The former is provided since \mathbb{Q} is a ring, and for the latter a proof:

Let *i* be irrational. Then, for any choice $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, $\frac{a}{b} \neq i$ (it is impossible to express *i* as a ratio of two integers). Let $q := \frac{c}{d}$

 \implies $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, \frac{ac}{bd} \neq iq$. Varying *a*, *b* only, one can indeed span all of \mathbb{Q} : suppose we want $\frac{x}{y}$. Let a = xd, $b = yc \implies \frac{xdc}{ycd} = \frac{x}{y}$. Thus, we can rephrase and say $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{Q}, \frac{x}{y} \neq iq$, i.e. *iq* is irrational.

Let *p*, *q* be rational, and consider $\sqrt{3} = a + b\sqrt{2}$. Then:

$$\implies 3 = a^2 + 2b^2 + 2ab\sqrt{2} \implies \underbrace{3 - a^2 - 2b^2}_{\in \mathbb{Q}} = \underbrace{2ab}_{\in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}} \underbrace{\underbrace{2ab}_{\in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}}}_{\in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}} \underbrace{\underbrace{e \mathbb{Q}}_{\in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}}}_{\in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}} \underbrace{e \mathbb{Q}}_{\in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}} \underbrace{e \mathbb{Q}}_{\mathbb{Q}} \underbrace{e \mathbb{Q}} \underbrace{e \mathbb{Q}$$

Thus, *p*, *q* cannot be rational, and we are done.

Part (1): Let $N = n_k n_{k-1} \dots n_1 n_0$, a decimal expansion, where $n_i \in \mathbb{N} \ \forall i$.

 (\implies) Suppose that $N = n_k n_{k-1} \dots n_1 n_0$ is divisible by 3. Then we have that $N \pmod{3} = 0$, and further $n_0 + 10n_1 + 10^2n_2 + \dots + 10^kn_k \pmod{3} = 0$. We can Note that $3|10^n - 1$. One can express this sum as:

express this sum as.

$$n_0 + n_1 + n_2 + \dots + n_k + 9p_1 + 99p_2 + \dots + (10^k - 1)p_k$$

Clearly, 3|9, 3|99, ..., $3|10^k - 1$, i.e. $(10^i - 1)p_i \pmod{3} = 0 \forall i$.

Using the additive property of congruences, we have:

$$n_0 + n_1 + \dots + n_k + 9p_1 + 99p_2 + \dots + (10^k - 1)p_k \pmod{3} = 0$$

$$\implies [n_0 + n_1 + \dots + n_k \pmod{3}] + \underbrace{[9p_1 + 99p_2 + \dots + (10^k - 1)p_k \pmod{3}]}_{=0, \text{ since all divisible by 3}} = 0$$

 $\implies n_0 + n_1 + \dots + n_k \pmod{3} = 0$

 \implies 3| $n_0 + n_1 + \dots + n_k$

 (\Leftarrow) Suppose now that $3|n_0 + n_1 + ... + n_k$. We know that $3|9, 3|99, ..., 3|10^k - 1$, further that $3|9n_1, 3|99n_2, ..., 3|(10^k - 1)p_k$, and finally that $3|9n_1 + 99n_2 + ... + (10^k - 1)n_k$.

 $\implies 3|n_0 + n_1 + \dots + n_k + 9n_1 + 99n_2 + \dots + (10^k - 1)n_k$

$$\implies 3|n_0 + 10n_1 + \dots + 10^k n_k \implies 3|N_k$$

 $10 - 1 = 9 = 3(3) \implies 3|9.$ Let $n \rightarrow n + 1$. Then $10^{n+1} - 1 \pmod{3} = 10 \cdot 10^n - 10^n - 10^n - 10^n + 10^n - 10^$

show by induction: for n = 1,

 $10^{n+1}-1 \pmod{3} = 10 \cdot 10^n - 1 \pmod{3} = 10 \pmod{3} \cdot 10^n \pmod{3} = 10 \pmod{3} = 1 \cdot [10^n \pmod{3} - 1 \pmod{3} = 1 \cdot [10^n - 1] \pmod{3} = 1(0)$ by ind. hyp. Then, $3|10^{k+1} - 1$, and we are done.

Part (2): Lemma: $11|10^{2k} - 1$ and $11|10^{2k-1} + 1 \quad \forall k \ge 1$.

We'll show $11|10^{2k} - 1$ by induction: let k = 1. Then 10(2) - 1 = 99 = 11(9), so $11|10^2 - 1$.

With
$$k \to k + 1$$
, we have $10^{2(k+1)} - 1 = 10^2 \cdot 10^{2k} - 1$.

$$\implies 10^2 \cdot 10^{2k} - 1 \pmod{11} = 10^2 \pmod{11} \cdot 10^{2k} \pmod{11} - 1 \pmod{11}$$

Since $10^2 \pmod{11} = 1$, this is just

$$10^{2k} \pmod{11} - 1 \pmod{11} = 10^{2k} - 1 \pmod{11} = 0$$

by ind. hyp. Thus $11|10^{2(k+1)} - 1$, and we conclude $11|10^{2k} - 1$.

Now we'll show $11|10^{2k-1} + 1$, once again by induction: let k = 1. Then 10 + 1 = 11|11.

With $k \to k + 1$, we have $10^{2(k+1)-1} + 1 = 10^{2k+1} + 1 = 10^{2}10^{2k-1} + 1$.

As before, $10^2 10^{2k-1} + 1 \pmod{11} = \underbrace{10^2 \pmod{11}}_{=1} 10^{2k-1} \pmod{11} + 1 \pmod{11}$

which is $10^{2k-1} + 1 \pmod{11} = 0$ by ind. hyp. Thus, $10^{2(k+1)-1} + 1 \pmod{11} = 0$, and we conclude that $11|10^{2k-1} + 1$.

 (\Longrightarrow) Assume that 11|N, and write $N = n_0 + 10n_1 + 10^2n_2 + \dots + 10^kn_k$.

Rearranging, this is

(mod 11)=0 from above

(mod 11)=0 by assumption

assuming WLOG that k is even.

 $\implies n_0 - n_1 + n_2 - \dots - n_{k-1} + n_k \pmod{11} = 0$, or $11|n_0 - n_1 + n_2 - \dots - n_{k-1} + n_k$

(\Leftarrow) Now assume that $11|n_0 - n_1 + n_2 - \dots - n_{k-1} + n_k$. We know from lemma that $11|(10^{2k} - 1)q_1$ and $11|(10^{2k-1} + 1)q_2$ for all $k \ge 1$ and arbitrary $q_1, q_2 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Then we have that $11|(10+1)n_1 + (10^2 - 1)n_2 + \dots + (10^{k-1} + 1)n_{k-1} + (10^k - 1)n_k$.

Combining our assumption yields:

 $11|n_0 - n_1 + n_2 - \dots - n_{k-1} + n_k + (10+1)n_1 + (10^2 - 1)n_2 + \dots + (10^{k-1} + 1)n_{k-1} + (10^k - 1)n_k$

or 11|*N*

Part (3):

(\implies) Suppose $N = n_0 + 10n_1 + ... + 10^k n_k$ is divisible by 7. We'll show that $7|M - 2n_0$, with $M := n_k n_{k-1}...n_1$. We can write

$$M - 2n_0 = n_k n_{k-1} \dots n_1 - 2n_0$$

= $n_1 + 10n_2 + \dots + 10^{k-1}n_k - 2n_0$
= $\frac{1}{10} (10n_1 + 10^2n_2 + \dots + 10^k n_k) - 2n_0$
= $\frac{1}{10} (n_0 + 10n_1 + \dots + 10^k n_k - 21n_0)$
mod 7-ing : $\frac{1}{10} (n_0 + 10n_1 + \dots + 10^k n_k - 21n_0) \mod 7$
= $\left[\frac{1}{10} \mod 7\right] \left[\underbrace{(n_0 + 10n_1 + \dots + 10^k n_k) \mod 7}_{=0 \text{ by assumption}} \underbrace{-21n_0 \mod 7}_{=0, \text{ since } 7|21} \right]$

= 0, and thus $7|M - 2n_0$

(\Leftarrow) Now suppose that $M - 2n_0$ is divisible by 7:

$$7|M - 2n_0 \implies 7|n_1 + 10n_2 + ... + 10^{k-1}n_k - 2n_0$$

$$\implies 7\left|\frac{1}{10}\left(n_0 + 10n_1 + ... + 10^k n_k - 21n_0\right)\right|$$
These are equivelant expressions

$$\implies 7|n_0 + 10n_1 + ... + 10^k n_k - 21n_0$$

$$\implies n_0 + 10n_1 + ... + 10^k n_k \underbrace{-21n_0}_{\text{mod } 7=0} \text{mod } 7 = 0$$

$$\implies n_0 + 10n_1 + ... + 10^k n_k \text{ mod } 7 = 0$$
And thus $7|n_0 + 10n_1 + ... + 10^k n_k$, or $7|N$

We are considering $\frac{3\cdot 5-3^3}{2\cdot 6+10}$. Simplifying, this is $\frac{-12}{22}$.

In $\mathbb{Z}/5\mathbb{Z}$: Following properties of the inverse, $\frac{1}{22}(22) = 1 \pmod{5}$. Setting $\frac{1}{22} = 3$, one sees that $22(3) = 66 = 1 \pmod{5}$. Thus, our problem is now $[-12 \pmod{5}] \cdot 3 = 3(3) = \boxed{9}$

In $\mathbb{Z}/7\mathbb{Z}$: We require $\frac{1}{22}(22) = 1 \pmod{7}$ as before. Setting $\frac{1}{22} = 1$, we have that $1(22) = 1 \pmod{7}$. Thus, consider $[-12 \pmod{7}] \cdot 1 = 2(1) = \boxed{2}$