

Reminders

- PS B Draft due tomorrow
- PS A Final due Friday
- PS C Draft due Monday

Quick Summary

① Induction

If we want to prove some collection of statements $s(n)$, one for each integer $n \geq 1$, induction gives us a strategy for doing this:

- First prove $s(1)$ is true. (Base case)
- Then prove that, if $s(k)$ is true for some k , then $s(k+1)$ is also true.
(ie, $s(k) \Rightarrow s(k+1)$). (Inductive step)

We know $s(1)$ is true. Our inductive step $s(1) \Rightarrow s(2)$, and since $s(1)$ is true, we must have $s(2)$ true also. Again by our inductive step, $s(2) \Rightarrow s(3)$, and since $s(2)$ is true, $s(3)$ must be too! And so on.

Variant: Base case is different ($n=0$, or $n=8, \dots$), strong induction

② Euclid's lemma

- If p is prime and $p \mid ab$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $p \mid a$ or $p \mid b$.
- If p is prime and $p \mid a_1 \cdots a_n$ for $a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $p \mid a_i$ for some $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Statement is not true if p is not prime:

$$p=10 \quad a=2 \quad b=5 \quad 10 \mid 2 \cdot 5 \text{ but } 10 \nmid 2 \text{ and } 10 \nmid 5.$$

③ Fundamental Thm of Arithmetic

Any integer $n \geq 2$ can be written uniquely in the form $n = p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_r^{e_r}$ for distinct primes p_1, \dots, p_r and positive integers e_1, \dots, e_r .

$$21 = 3^1 \cdot 7^1$$

$$12 = 2^2 \cdot 3^1$$

Worksheet 7

① Want to show that $\frac{(2n)!}{2^n \cdot n!}$ is an integer for all $n \geq 0$.

We'll induct on n . Our base case is $n=0$, and

$$\frac{(2 \cdot 0)!}{2^0 \cdot 0!} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 1} = 1 \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Next, we have the inductive step. For this, we assume that $\frac{(2k)!}{2^k \cdot k!} \in \mathbb{Z}$ for some k and we want to show that $\frac{(2(k+1))!}{2^{k+1} \cdot (k+1)!} \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(2(k+1))!}{2^{k+1} \cdot (k+1)!} &= \frac{(2k+2)!}{2^{k+1} \cdot (k+1)!} = \frac{(2k+2)(2k+1)(2k)!}{2^{k+1} \cdot (k+1)!} \\ &= \frac{(2k+2)(2k+1)(2k)!}{2^k \cdot 2 \cdot (k+1) \cdot k!} \\ &= \frac{\cancel{(2k+2)}(2k+1)}{\cancel{2} \cdot \cancel{(k+1)}} \cdot \frac{(2k)!}{2^k \cdot k!} \\ &= (2k+1) \cdot \frac{(2k)!}{2^k \cdot k!} \end{aligned}$$

since $2k+1$ is an integer and $\frac{(2k)!}{2^k \cdot k!}$ is an integer, the product is also an integer, so this completes the induction. \therefore includes $n=0$

② Want to show that $15 \mid 2^{4n}-1$ for all non-negative n .

We'll induct on n . Our base case is $n=0$, and we check that

$$2^{4 \cdot 0} - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$$

is divisible by 15. For inductive step, we assume $15 \mid 2^{4k}-1$ for some k , and we want to show that $15 \mid 2^{4(k+1)}-1$.

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{4(k+1)} &= 15a + 1. \\ 2^{4k} \cdot 2^4 - 1 &= 15a \\ 2^{4k} \cdot 16 - 1 &= 15a \end{aligned}$$

(using) $2^{4(k+1)} - 1 = 2^{4k+4} - 1 = 2^{4k} \cdot 16 - 1$. Since $15 \mid 2^{4k}-1$, I know there exists some a such that $2^{4k}-1=15a$. So $2^{4k}=15a+1$. So

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{4k} \cdot 16 - 1 &= (15a+1) \cdot 16 - 1 \\ &= 15 \cdot 16a + 16 - 1 \\ &= 15 \cdot 16a + 15 \\ &= 15(16a+1) \end{aligned}$$

so $15 \mid 2^{4(k+1)} - 1$. □

(EII2)

Different approach: know $2^{4k}-1=15a$ for some a .

$$\begin{aligned} (2^{4k}-1) \cdot 2^4 &= 2^4 \cdot 15a \\ 2^{4(k+1)} - 2^4 &= 2^4 \cdot 15a \\ 2^{4(k+1)} - 2^4 + 2^4 - 1 &= 2^4 \cdot 15a + 2^4 - 1 \\ 2^{4(k+1)} - 1 &= 2^4 \cdot 15a + 15 \\ &= 15(2^4a + 1) \end{aligned}$$

so again $2^{4(k+1)} - 1$ is divisible by 15. □

(3) $F_1 = F_2 = 1$. $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$.

want to show that F_n is even if and only if $3 \mid n$.

We have

$S(n) = "F_n \text{ is even if and only if } 3 \mid n"$ sometimes, it can help to write down very clearly what statement it is that you're trying to prove by induction.

We'll want to prove this by (strong) induction.

for $n=1$, we want to show that $S(1)$ is true, ie, that " F_1 is even iff $3 \mid 1$ "

we know that $F_1 = 1$ is odd and we know that $3 \nmid 1$. so $S(1)$ is a biconditional of the form $F \Leftrightarrow F$, which is true!

for $n=2$, we want to show that $S(2)$ is true, ie, that " F_2 is even iff $3 \mid 2$ ", but this is also a true statement for the same reasons.

Next we have the inductive step. This has to be strong induction, so we assume that $S(1), S(2), \dots, S(k)$ are all true. We want to show that $S(k+1)$ is true.

In particular, we know that $S(k-1) \wedge S(k)$ are both true.

$$F_{k+1} = F_k + F_{k-1}$$

Case 1 say $k+1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$. Then $k \equiv -1 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ and $k-1 \equiv -2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, so $3 \nmid k$ and $3 \nmid k-1$, so, since $S(k) \wedge S(k-1)$ are true, it must be that $F_k \wedge F_{k-1}$ are both odd. But then F_{k+1} is a sum of two odds, so its even, so $S(k+1)$ is true. (Recall $S(k+1)$ says " F_{k+1} is even $\Leftrightarrow 3 \mid k+1$ " and we have both F_{k+1} even $\wedge 3 \mid k+1$ in this case.)

Case 2 say $k+1 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$. Then $k \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, so F_k is even. Also, $k-1 \equiv -1 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ so F_{k-1} is odd. So F_{k+1} is the sum of an even \wedge an odd, so its odd, so $S(k+1)$ is true.

Case 3 say $k+1 \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$. Then $k \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$, so F_k is odd, and $k-1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}$, so F_{k-1} is even, so F_{k+1} is the sum of an odd \wedge an even, so its even, so $S(k+1)$ is true.

This completes our induction. □

(4) If p_1, \dots, p_n are distinct primes, want to show that $\sqrt{p_1 \cdots p_n}$ is irrational.

(*)

- Prove that $\sqrt{p_1}$ is irrational. Suppose $\sqrt{p_1} = \frac{a}{b}$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. Then $p_1 b^2 = a^2$. Then $p_1 | a^2$, so by Euclid's lemma, we know that $p_1 | a$.

so $a = p_1 x$ for some $x \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$p_1 b^2 = a^2 = (p_1 x)^2 = p_1^2 x^2$$
$$b^2 = p_1 x^2$$

so $p_1 | b^2$, so by Euclid's lemma, $p_1 | b$. so p_1 is a common factor of a^2, b^2 , contradicting $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

- We're trying to prove by induction that

$S(n) = " \sqrt{p_1 \cdots p_n} \text{ is prime for } n \text{ distinct primes } p_1, \dots, p_n "$

and we've just shown that $S(1)$ is true.

Assume $S(k)$ is true and we want to prove $S(k+1)$. So suppose p_1, \dots, p_k, p_{k+1} are $k+1$ distinct primes.

$$\sqrt{p_1 \cdots p_k p_{k+1}} = \sqrt{p_1} \sqrt{p_2 \cdots p_k} \sqrt{p_{k+1}}$$

\uparrow \uparrow
from base case, this is irrational from $S(k)$, this is irrational.

but the product of two irrationals can be rational!
eg, $\sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2} = 2$.

Let's just use our strategy in (*) to prove this in general directly & without induction!

Suppose for contradiction that $\sqrt{p_1 \cdots p_n} = \frac{a}{b}$ for $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. Rearranging, $p_1 \cdots p_n b^2 = a^2$. Then $p_1 | a^2$, so by Euclid's lemma, $p_1 | a$. so there exists an x such that $a = p_1 x$.

$$p_1 \cdots p_n b^2 = a^2 = (p_1 x)^2 = p_1^2 x^2$$
$$p_2 \cdots p_n b^2 = p_1 x^2$$

$p_1 | p_2 \cdots p_n b^2$. But p_1 cannot divide p_2, \dots, p_n since all of those are primes that are distinct from p_1 . so Euclid's lemma tells us that $p_1 | b^2$, so $p_1 | b$.

So p_1 is a common factor of $a \& b$, contradicting $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. \square

(5) p_1, p_2, \dots in ascending order. Want to show that $p_n \leq p_1 \dots p_{n-1} - 1$ for all $n \geq 3$.

Let $a = p_1 \dots p_{n-1} - 1$. Since $p_1 = 2 \& p_2 = 3$, $a \geq 2 \cdot 3 - 1 = 5 \geq 2$, so by the fundamental thm of arithmetic, a has some prime factor q .

Notice that $a \equiv 0 \pmod{q}$ but $a \equiv -1 \pmod{p_i}$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n-1$.

so $q \neq p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}$. But p_1, p_2, \dots is a list of primes in increasing order, so $q \geq p_n$. But then

$$p_n \leq q \leq a = p_1 \dots p_{n-1} - 1.$$

$$a = p_1 \dots p_{i-1} p_i p_{i+1} \dots p_{n-1} - 1 \\ \equiv p_1 \dots p_{i-1} \cdot 0 \cdot p_{i+1} \dots p_{n-1} - 1 \pmod{p_i}.$$

since
 $p_i \equiv 0 \pmod{p_i}$,

can swap out

p_i for 0
in big product!

$$= 0 - 1 \pmod{p_i} \\ = -1 \pmod{p_i}$$

(6) $1100 = 11 \cdot 100 = 11 \cdot 4 \cdot 25 = 11 \cdot 2^2 \cdot 5^2$

$$\begin{array}{ll} p_1 = 11 & e_1 = 1 \\ p_2 = 2 & e_2 = 2 \\ p_3 = 5 & e_3 = 2 \end{array}$$

$n = 3 = \# \text{ of prime factors.}$

$a \geq 2$ is an integer. By fundamental thm, there exist distinct primes p_1, \dots, p_n and positive integers such that $a = p_1^{e_1} \dots p_n^{e_n}$. Want to show a is a perfect square iff e_i is even for all i .

(a) If a is a perfect square, then $\sqrt{a} = b$ for some integer b . Then b must have exactly the same set of prime factors as a , so by the fundamental thm, we can write $b = p_1^{f_1} \dots p_n^{f_n}$ for some positive integers f_1, \dots, f_n . Then

$$\begin{aligned} a &= b^2 \\ p_1^{e_1} \dots p_n^{e_n} &= (p_1^{f_1} \dots p_n^{f_n})^2 \\ &= p_1^{2f_1} \dots p_n^{2f_n} \end{aligned}$$

Since prime factorizations are unique, we must have $e_i = 2f_i$ for all i , so e_i is even.

Conversely, if e_i is even for all i , we can write $e_i = 2f_i$ for some integer f_i and then

$$\sqrt{a} = \sqrt{p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_n^{e_n}} = \sqrt{p_1^{2f_1} \cdots p_n^{2f_n}} = p_1^{f_1} \cdots p_n^{f_n} \in \mathbb{Z}$$

so a is a perfect square. □

(b) By division algorithm, we can write $e_i = 2f_i + r_i$ for $r_i \in \{0, 1\}$, and e_i is even if and only if $r_i = 0$ for all i .

a is a perfect square if and only if \sqrt{a} is an integer.

so we want to show that \sqrt{a} is an integer iff $r_i = 0$ for all i .

Notice that

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{a} &= \sqrt{p_1^{e_1} \cdots p_n^{e_n}} = \sqrt{p_1^{2f_1+r_1} \cdots p_n^{2f_n+r_n}} \\ &= \sqrt{p_1^{2f_1} \cdots p_n^{2f_n} p_1^{r_1} \cdots p_n^{r_n}} \\ &= p_1^{f_1} \cdots p_n^{f_n} \sqrt{p_1^{r_1} \cdots p_n^{r_n}}\end{aligned}$$

If $r_i = 0$ for all i , then the stuff under square root is 1, so \sqrt{a} is an integer.
 If there exists an i such that $r_i \neq 0$, then the stuff under the square root is a product of distinct primes, so by #4, it's irrational. so \sqrt{a} is also irrational. so it's not an integer. □