

1 List of problems to consider

1. We say that two primes p, q are *twin primes* if $|p - q| = 2$. For example, 11, 13 are twin primes, as are 29, 31. How many primes less than 100 are twins? Less than 200? Are there infinitely many?

Solution: The twin primes less than 100 are (3, 5), (5, 7), (11, 13), (17, 19), (29, 31), (41, 43), (59, 61), (71, 73). The ones less than 200, in addition to those less than 100, are (101, 103), (107, 109), (137, 139), (149, 151), (179, 181), (191, 193), (197, 199).

Whether or not there are infinitely many is an open problem, called the *Twin Prime conjecture*. It is suspected to be true, but not known.

2. Prove or disprove: There do not exist three integers $n, n + 2, n + 4$, all of which are prime.

Solution: This is false. 3, 5, 7 (i.e. $n = 3$) are all prime.

3. Prove or disprove: For every integer n , the integers $2n$ and $4n + 3$ are relatively prime. [Hint: Remember that if $d \mid a$ and $d \mid b$, then $d \mid (sa + tb)$ for any integers s, t .]

Solution: This is false. If $3 \mid n$, then $3 \mid 2n$ and $3 \mid (4n + 3)$. For example, if $n = 3$ then $2n = 6$ and $4n + 3 = 15$, and $\gcd(6, 15) = 3$.

4. Prove or disprove: For every integer n , the integers $2n + 1$ and $3n + 2$ are relatively prime. [Hint: Same as above.]

Solution: This is true. Suppose that $d \mid (2n + 1)$ and that $d \mid (3n + 2)$. Then we have that

$$\begin{aligned}d \mid ((3n + 2) - (2n + 1)) &= n + 1 \\d \mid (2(2n + 1) - (3n + 2)) &= n\end{aligned}$$

and so $d \mid n$ and $d \mid (n + 1)$. From class we know that this implies that $d = 1$.

5. Prove or disprove: If p, q are primes with $p, q \geq 5$, then $p^2 - q^2$ is divisible by 24.

Solution: We first consider what possible remainders primes may have upon division by 24. The only possibilities are, for $p \geq 5$, (easy to check): 5, 7, 11, 13, 17, 19, 23. If we square each of these and look at the remainder of those upon division by 24 are all 1! Thus $p^2 = 24a + 1$ and $q^2 = 24b + 1$, and so $p^2 - q^2 = 24(a - b)$ as claimed.

6. The greatest common divisor of a, b was defined previously as the... greatest divisor that a and b have in common. Similarly, the least common multiple is defined to be the smallest multiple of both a and b ; for example, if $a = 4$ and $b = 6$, then $\gcd(a, b) = 2$ and $\text{lcm}(a, b) = 12$.

Prove or disprove: For every integers a, b , we have that

$$\text{lcm}(a, b)\gcd(a, b) = ab$$

[Hint: Look at the fundamental theorem of arithmetic. Can you use that to figure out what $\gcd(a, b)$ and $\text{lcm}(a, b)$ are?]

Solution: Write $a = p_1^{a_1} \cdots p_k^{a_k}$ and $b = p_1^{b_1} \cdots p_k^{b_k}$ (with $a_i, b_i \geq 0$ —this allows us to use the same list of primes for both a and b). Then it is easy to see that

$$\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{\min(a_1, b_1)} \cdots p_k^{\min(a_k, b_k)}$$

$$\operatorname{lcm}(a, b) = p_1^{\max(a_1, b_1)} \cdots p_k^{\max(a_k, b_k)}$$

Since $a_i + b_i = \min(a_i, b_i) + \max(a_i, b_i)$, the conclusion follows.

7. Show that there are no strictly positive integer solutions to the equation

$$x^2 - y^2 = 1$$

(Hint: Factor the left-hand side). Are there any solutions if we allow x, y to be negative or zero?

Solution: We are trying to solve $(x-y)(x+y) = 1$. The only possible solution is $x+y = 1 = x-y$, or $x+y = -1 = x-y$, which has as integer solutions $x = \pm 1, y = 0$ or $y = \pm 1, x = 0$. But these do not satisfy the given constraint.

8. Find *all* integer solutions to the equation $x^2 - y^2 = 10$.

Solution: Similar to before, we factor this as $(x-y)(x+y) = 10$. Since 10 has as factorization $1 \cdot 10$ and $2 \cdot 5$, we have the following possibilities for the pair (x, y) .

$(1, 10)$	$(10, 1)$	$(-1, -10)$	$(-10, -1)$
$(2, 5)$	$(5, 2)$	$(-2, -5)$	$(-5, -2)$

We will solve $(x, y) = (1, 10)$ and $(x, y) = (2, 5)$, as the rest all arise from swapping x and y or by switching signs. In the first case, we have

$$x + y = 1$$

$$x - y = 10$$

which yields that $2x = 11$, which has no integer solutions. So this cannot happen. In the second we have

$$x + y = 2$$

$$x - y = 5$$

which yields that $2x = 7$ which also has no integer solutions. So there are no integer solutions to the equation $x^2 - y^2 = 10$.

9. Prove or disprove that every even number greater than 2 can be written as a sum of two primes.

Solution: This is called *Goldbach's conjecture*, and it is also a famous open problem.

10. Show that there are no rational roots to the cubic equation $x^3 + x + 1 = 0$. (Hint: What would happen if you assumed there was, and cleared denominators? What can we say about the *parity* [evenness or oddness] of the result?)

Solution: Suppose that there were a rational root $x = \frac{p}{q}$ (with $\gcd(p, q) = 1$) to this equation. That is,

$$\frac{p^3}{q^3} + \frac{p}{q} + 1 = 0$$

or

$$p^3 + pq^2 + q^3 = 0$$

for some integers p, q with $q \neq 0$. If p, q are odd, then p^3, pq^2 , and q^3 are odd. But then their sum would be odd, which is a contradiction.

If p were even, and q odd, then p^3 and pq^2 are even, but q^3 is odd, which is also a contradiction. A similar result occurs if p is odd and q is even.

11. We say that an integer a has an *inverse* mod b if there is some other integer c such that

$$[a]_b [c]_b = [1]_b$$

What conditions are there on a and b such that we can find such an inverse? [Hint: Look at the Euclidean algorithm]

Solution: The exact conditions are that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$. In that case, we can write

$$ac + bd = 1$$

for some integers c, d , and so reduction mod b yields that this is equivalent to

$$[a]_b [c]_b = \underbrace{[b]_b [d]_b}_{=[0]_b} = [1]_b$$

as claimed. Conversely, if we can write $[a]_b [c]_b = [1]_b$ that we can write 1 as a linear combination of a and b , which implies that $\gcd(a, b) = 1$.

12. We say that a number is *perfect* if the sum of its proper divisors is itself. For example, 6 and 28 are perfect, since $1 + 2 + 3 = 6$, and $1 + 2 + 4 + 7 + 14 = 28$. Prove the following: If $2^p - 1$ is prime, then $2^{p-1}(2^p - 1)$ is perfect. Is the converse true?