

1. *Show that  $8n + 3$  and  $5n + 2$  are relatively prime for all integers  $n$ .*

We first use the fact that  $(a, b) = (a + kb, b)$  applied to  $a = 8n + 3$ ,  $b = 5n + 2$ , and  $k = -1$  to find that  $(8n + 3, 5n + 2) = (3n + 1, 5n + 2)$ .

Then, we apply the same fact, but with  $a = 5n + 2$ ,  $b = 3n + 1$ , and  $k = -1$  to find  $(3n + 1, 5n + 2) = (3n + 1, 2n + 1)$ .

Finally, we apply the fact again twice more to get  $(3n + 1, 2n + 1) = (n, 2n + 1) = (n, 1) = 1$ . Therefore,  $(8n + 3, 5n + 2) = 1$ , so  $8n + 3$  and  $5n + 2$  are relatively prime.

2. Using Euclid's proof that there are infinitely many primes (this is the first proof we gave in class), show that the  $n$ th prime,  $p_n$ , does not exceed  $2^{2^{n-1}}$  for  $n \geq 1$ . Conclude that when  $n$  is a positive integer, there are at least  $n + 1$  primes less than  $2^{2^n}$ . Conclude that for integers  $x$  of the form  $2^{2^n}$ ,  $\pi(x) \geq \log_2 \log_2 x$

We prove this by strong induction on  $n$ . Note that for  $n = 1$ ,  $p_1 = 2$  and  $2^{2^{n-1}} = 2$ , so  $p_n \leq 2^{2^{n-1}}$ .

Now, if  $p_k \leq 2^{2^{k-1}}$ , we aim to show that  $p_{n+1} \leq 2^{2^n}$ . By Euclid's proof that there are infinitely many primes,  $p_{n+1} \leq p_1 \cdots p_n + 1$ . By the induction hypotheses,  $p_1 \cdots p_n \leq 2^{2^0} \cdot 2^{2^1} \cdots 2^{2^{n-1}}$ , so

$$p_{n+1} \leq p_1 \cdots p_n + 1 \leq 2^{2^0} \cdot 2^{2^1} \cdots 2^{2^{n-1}} + 1 = 2^{2^0 + 2^1 + \cdots + 2^{n-1}} + 1 = 2^{2^n - 1} + 1 < 2^{2^n}$$

Hence, if  $n$  is a positive integer, then  $p_1, \dots, p_{n+1} \leq 2^{2^n}$ , so there are at least  $n + 1$  primes less than or equal to  $2^{2^n}$ . Substituting  $x = 2^{2^n}$ , we have  $\pi(x) \geq n + 1 = \log_2 \log_2 x + 1 \geq \log_2 \log_2 x$ .

3. Show that if  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>1}$  and  $i, j \in \mathbb{N}$  satisfying  $1 \leq i < j \leq n$ , then

$$(n! \cdot i + 1, n! \cdot j + 1) = 1$$

*Hint: You may use the fact that if  $p$  is prime and  $p \mid ab$ , then  $p \mid a$  or  $p \mid b$ .*

We apply the fact that  $(a, b) = (a + bc, b)$  with  $a = n! \cdot j + 1$ ,  $b = n! \cdot i + 1$ , and  $c = -1$ . Hence  $(n! \cdot i + 1, n! \cdot j + 1) = (n! \cdot i + 1, n! \cdot (j - i))$ .

Now if  $p$  is a prime factor of  $n! \cdot (j - i)$ , then  $p \mid n!$  or  $p \mid (j - i)$ . If  $p \mid n!$ , then  $p \leq n$ . If  $p \mid (j - i)$ , then  $p \leq j - i < n$ . In either case,  $p \leq n$ .

If  $p$  is a prime factor of  $n! \cdot i + 1$ , then  $p > n$  (otherwise, if  $p \leq n$ , then  $p \mid n! \cdot i$  and  $p \mid n! \cdot i + 1$ , a contradiction).

Hence,  $n! \cdot i + 1$  and  $n! \cdot (j - i)$  share no prime factors, so

$$(n! \cdot i + 1, n! \cdot j + 1) = (n! \cdot i + 1, n! \cdot (j - i)) = 1$$

4. Show that if  $a^k - 1$  is prime (with  $a \geq 1$  and  $k \geq 2$ ), then...

(a) ...  $a = 2$

Suppose that  $a \geq 1$  and  $k \geq 2$ . If  $a = 1$ , then  $a^k - 1 = 0$ , which is not prime, so we may assume that  $a \geq 2$ . Then

$$a^k - 1 = (a - 1)(a^{k-1} + a^{k-2} + \cdots + a + 1)$$

If  $a > 2$ , then we see that  $a^k - 1$  is not prime because  $(a - 1) \mid (a^k - 1)$  and  $1 < a - 1 < a^k - 1$ . Therefore,  $a = 2$ .

(b) ...  $k$  is prime

To show that if  $2^k - 1$  is prime, then  $k$  is prime, we prove the contrapositive. Suppose that  $k$  is not prime, so that there exists an integer  $a$  so that  $1 < a < k$  and  $a \mid k$ . Then we observe that

$$\begin{aligned} 2^k - 1 &= 2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2} + \cdots + 2 + 1 \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{k/a} \sum_{j=1}^a 2^{k-ai-j} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{k/a} 2^{k-a(i-1)} \sum_{j=1}^a 2^{a-j} \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{k/a} 2^{k-a(i-1)} \cdot (2^a - 1) \\ &= (2^a - 1) \sum_{i=0}^{k/a} 2^{k-a(i-1)} \end{aligned}$$

so  $2^a - 1$  is a factor of  $2^k - 1$ . Since  $1 < a < k$ , we have that  $1 < 2^a - 1 < 2^k - 1$  and so  $2^k - 1$  is not prime.