

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 $n = 1$, $p_n = 2$ 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.