

# Exercise 8

## Discrete Mathematics

November 26, 2020

### Exercise 71

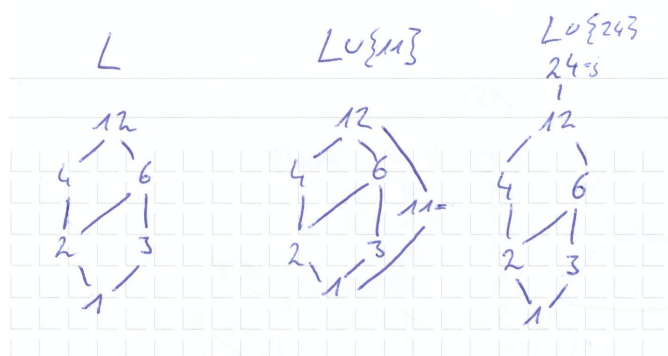
$x \wedge y$  ("meet") is the unique maximal element of all common lower elements of  $x, y$  if it exists.  $x \vee y$  ("join") is the unique minimal element of all common upper bounds of  $x, y$  if it exists.  $P$  is called a lattice if  $x \wedge y, x \vee y$  exist for all  $x, y \in P$ .

- a)  $0 \in P$  is the zero-element if and only if  $\forall x \in P : 0 \leq x$ .  $1 \in P$  is the one-element if and only if  $\forall x \in P : x \leq 1$ .

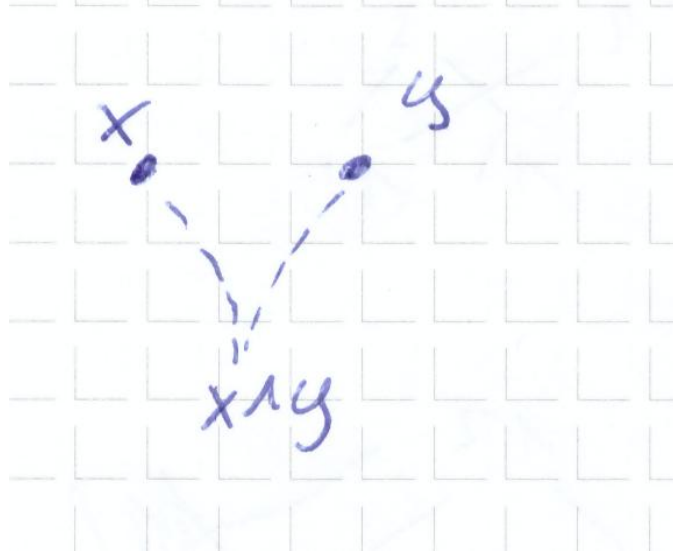
Proof by induction.  $P(n)$ : A lattice  $L$  of size  $n$  has a 0-element and a 1-element.

$P(1)$ : By reflexivity holds for the only element  $l \in L$  that  $l \leq l$ . Hence,  $x$  is zero-element and one-element.

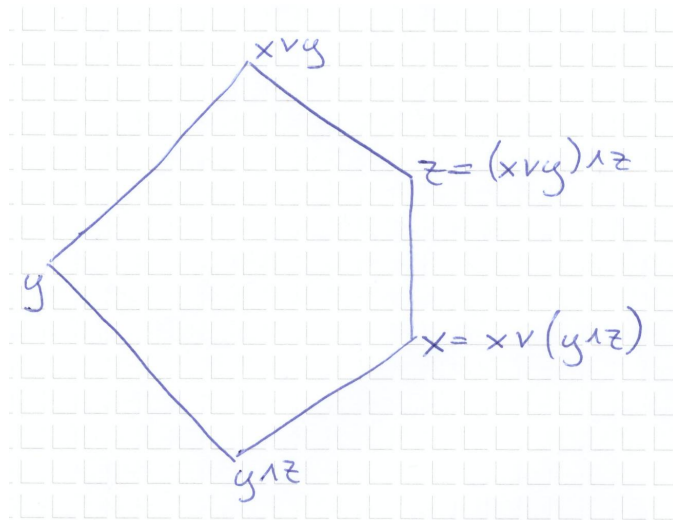
$P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ : Assume  $P(n)$ . Consider the lattice  $L \cup \{j\}$  of size  $n+1$ . Then there is  $x \wedge j$  and  $x \vee j$  for all  $x \in L \cup \{j\}$ . Note that this holds for  $x = 0$  and  $x = 1$ . That is, there exists  $1 \vee j$  and  $0 \wedge j$ . Case 1:  $1 \leq j$ . Then  $j$  is the new 1 and 0 remains 0. Case 2:  $0 \leq j \leq 1$ . Then 1 and 0 remain equal. Case 3:  $j \leq 0$ . Then  $j$  is the new 0 and 1 remains 1.



- b)  $x \wedge y$  is a common lower bound of  $x$  and  $y$ . That means  $x \wedge y \leq x$ .  $x \wedge y$  is a lower bound of  $y$ . Therefore,  $y$  is the smallest common upper bound of  $x \wedge y$  and itself. Hence, by definition  $y = y \vee (x \wedge y)$ .



- c) [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modular\\_lattice#Examples](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Modular_lattice#Examples) Consider the following lattice.



We see that  $x \leq y$ , the hypothesis of the implication, holds. We also see that  $x$  and  $y$  are distinct. Note that  $x = x \vee (y \wedge z)$  and  $z = (x \vee y) \wedge z$ . It follows

$x \vee (y \wedge z) \neq (x \vee y) \wedge z$ . That means, the conclusion of the implication does not hold. Hence, the implication is wrong.

## Exercise 73

1. Assume  $\exists e \in \mathbb{Z} : b = ae, \exists f \in \mathbb{Z} : c = af$ . Let  $x, y$  be arbitrary integers. Then  $xb = aex$  and  $yc = afy$ . By addition we get  $xb + yc = aex + afy = a(ex + fy)$  where  $ex + fy$  is just another integer, say  $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $xb + yc = az$ , so by definition  $a \mid xb + yc$ .

2. *Could be shorter and without the lemma*

<https://math.stackexchange.com/a/1920634>

Lemma: From  $ma + nb = 1$  with  $a, b, n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$  (linear combination of  $a, b$ ) follows that  $a, b$  are coprime.

Proof: Assume they are not coprime. Then there exists an integer  $d > 1$  that divides  $a$  and  $b$ . Then there exist integers  $s, t$  such that  $a = ds$  and  $b = dt$ . It follows

$$ma + nb = 1 \Leftrightarrow m(ds) + n(dt) = 1 \Leftrightarrow d(ms + nt) = 1$$

It follows that  $d$  divides 1. The only positive number that divides 1 is 1 itself, so  $d = 1$ . However, we previously had  $d > 1$ . Contradiction. Hence,  $a$  and  $b$  are coprime. This concludes the proof of the lemma.

<https://math.stackexchange.com/a/985209>

Assume  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$  and  $c \mid a$  and  $d \mid b$ . Then  $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} : a = xc$  and  $\exists y \in \mathbb{Z} : b = yd$ . Furthermore, Bézout's theorem implies  $\exists e, f \in \mathbb{Z} : 1 = ae + bf$ , from which follows by substitution  $\exists e, f \in \mathbb{Z} : 1 = (xe)c + (yf)d$ . As  $xe$  and  $yf$  are just integers,  $c$  and  $d$  are coprime, so by definition  $\gcd(c, d) = 1$ .

3. Assume  $a \mid c$  and  $b \mid c$  and  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ . Then by definition  $\exists x \in \mathbb{Z} : c = xa$  and  $\exists y \in \mathbb{Z} : c = yb$  and by Bézout's theorem  $\exists e, f \in \mathbb{Z} : 1 = ae + bf$ . Multiplying both sides by  $c$  gives  $c = ace + bcf$  and by substituting  $c$  we get  $c = a(yb)e + b(xa)f$ . So we get  $c = ab(ye + xf)$  where  $ye + xf$  is an integer. Then by definition  $ab \mid c$ .

## Exercise 74

For integers  $a, b$  holds  $x = 2a + 1$  and  $y = 2b + 1$ . It follows

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + y^2 &= (2a + 1)^2 + (2b + 1)^2 \\ &= 4(a^2 + a) + 1 + 4(b^2 + b) + 1 \\ &= 4z + 2 \end{aligned}$$

where  $z = a^2 + a + b^2 + b$  is some integer. This means that  $x^2 + y^2$  divided by 4 leaves remainder 2, that is  $4 \nmid (x^2 + y^2)$ . As  $x, y$  are odd it follows  $x^2, y^2$  are odd which implies  $x^2 + y^2$  is even, that is  $2 \mid (x^2 + y^2)$ .

Alternatively, consider  $x^2 + y^2 = 4z + 2 = 2(2z + 1)$ . As  $z$  can be any integer,  $2z + 1$  is an odd integer. As  $2z + 1$  is an integer, it follows again  $2 \mid (x^2 + y^2)$ . As it is additionally odd (and odd multiples of 2 are not divisible by 4), it follows again  $4 \nmid (x^2 + y^2)$ .

$k$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$2k$	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18

## Exercise 75

- Note that  $n^2 - n = (n - 1)n$  is the product of two consecutive integers. One factor must be divisible by two. Therefore, the product is divisible by two. Hence,  $n^2 - n$  is even.

- <https://math.stackexchange.com/a/211122>

<https://math.stackexchange.com/a/1359478>

Note that  $n^3 - n = (n - 1)n(n + 1)$  is the product of three consecutive integers. One factor must be even and one must be a multiple of three. Hence, the product is a multiple of both 2 and 3. Therefore, it is divisible by the least common multiple of 2 and 3, which is 6.

## Exercise 76

<https://math.stackexchange.com/a/1114724>

By definition, we have to show that  $4 \mid (a + b) \wedge 4 \mid 4 \wedge (t \mid (a + b) \wedge t \mid 4 \implies t \mid 4)$ . As  $(t \mid (a + b) \wedge t \mid 4 \implies t \mid 4)$  is a tautology, what we have to show is

$$4 \mid (a + b)$$

From  $\gcd(a, 4) = 2$  follows  $a = 2k$  where  $k$  is odd. Otherwise the gcd would be 4.

$k$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
$a$	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18
$\gcd(a, 4)$	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2

Likewise, from  $\gcd(b, 4) = 2$  follows  $b = 2m$  where  $m$  is odd. Hence,  $a + b = 2(k + m)$ . As for all odd numbers, the sum of  $k + m$  is even. So for some integer  $x$  holds  $k + m = 2x$ , which yields  $a + b = 2 \cdot 2x = 4x$ . Therefore, we get the required property  $4 \mid (a + b)$ .

## Exercise 77

*Can also be calculated using the definitions of gcd and lcm*

<https://math.stackexchange.com/a/470827>

We know Bézout's identity from the lecture:

$$d = \gcd(a, b) \implies \exists e, f \in \mathbb{Z} : d = ae + bf \quad (1)$$

Note that  $d$  divides  $ab$ . Let  $m = \frac{ab}{d}$ . To complete the proof, we show that  $m$  is the least common multiple of  $a$  and  $b$ . Certainly  $m$  is some multiple of  $a$  and  $b$ . Let  $n$  be any other common positive multiple of  $a$  and  $b$ . We show that  $m$  divides  $n$ . This will show that  $m \leq n$ , making  $m$  the least common multiple.

We have

$$\frac{n}{m} = \frac{nd}{ab} = \frac{n(ae + bf)}{ab} = \frac{n}{b}e + \frac{n}{a}f.$$

As we assumed  $n$  to be a multiple of  $a$  and  $b$ , the term  $\frac{n}{b}e + \frac{n}{a}f$  is certainly an integer, and therefore  $n/m$  is an integer, too. Hence,  $n$  is a multiple of  $m$ .

From our initial assumption  $m = \frac{ab}{d}$  follows the identity

$$md = ab$$

## Exercise 78

$$2863 = 1057 \cdot 2 + 749$$

$$1057 = 749 \cdot 1 + 308$$

$$749 = 308 \cdot 2 + 133$$

$$308 = 133 \cdot 2 + 42$$

$$133 = 42 \cdot 3 + 7$$

$$42 = 7 \cdot 6 + 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} 7 &= 133 - 42 \cdot 3 \\ &= 133 - (308 - 133 \cdot 2) \cdot 3 = 7 \cdot 133 - 3 \cdot 308 \\ &= 7 \cdot (749 - 2 \cdot 308) - 3 \cdot 308 = 7 \cdot 749 - 17 \cdot 308 \\ &= 7 \cdot 749 - 17 \cdot (1057 - 749) = 24 \cdot 749 - 17 \cdot 1057 \\ &= 24 \cdot (2863 - 2 \cdot 1057) - 17 \cdot 1057 = 24 \cdot 2863 - 65 \cdot 1057 \end{aligned}$$

Multiply both sides by 6 to get

$$42 = 144 \cdot 2863 - 390 \cdot 1057$$

so  $a = 144$  and  $b = -390$ . You can also start the second/backwards part at the line  $308 = 133 \cdot 2 + 42$  and avoid the multiplication by 6.

## Exercise 79

solver

$$\begin{aligned}x^3 + 5x^2 + 7x + 3 &= (x^3 + x^2 - 5x + 3) 1 + (4x^2 + 12x) \\x^3 + x^2 - 5x + 3 &= (4x^2 + 12x) \left(\frac{1}{4}x - \frac{1}{2}\right) + (x + 3) \\4x^2 + 12x &= (x + 3) 4x + (0)\end{aligned}$$

The GCD (last non-zero remainder) is  $x + 3$ .

Calculation example: To calculate  $(x^3 + x^2 - 5x + 3) : (4x^2 + 12x)$  we start with  $\frac{1}{4}x$  to adjust  $4x^2$  to  $x^3$ . As  $(x^3 + x^2 - 5x + 3) - \frac{1}{4}x(4x^2 + 12x) = -2x^2 - 5x + 3$  has the same degree as  $(4x^2 + 12x)$ , we continue and add  $-\frac{1}{2}$  to adjust  $4x^2$  to  $-2x^2$ . The following division yields the remainder  $x + 3$ . Then we are done with this line.

## Exercise 80

Illustration of  $n \equiv m \pmod{4}$ :

$n$	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
$m$	2	3	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3	0	1	2	3	0	1

Assume to the contrary that there are only finitely many primes  $p$  with  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Let this set be  $P = \{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n\}$ .

Let  $a = 4p_1p_2 \dots p_n - 1$ . Then  $a - (-1) = 4p_1p_2 \dots p_n$ . Then  $4 \mid a - (-1)$ . By definition  $x \equiv y \pmod{m} \Leftrightarrow m \mid (x - y)$ . Therefore,  $a \equiv -1 \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  (see table).

Only the product of two odd numbers gives an odd number.  $a$  is odd. Therefore, all prime divisors of  $a$  are odd. Let  $t$  be an arbitrary one of them. Then  $t$  must be of the form  $4k + 1$  or  $4k + 3$ , and can certainly not be of the form  $4k$  or  $4k + 2$  for some integer  $k$ . Hence, for any prime divisor  $t$  of  $a$  holds  $t \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  or  $t \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

Furthermore, there is at least one prime factor  $q$  of the prime factorization of  $a$  with  $q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . Proof by contradiction: Suppose all prime factor of  $a$  are congruent to 1 modulo 4. Then they are of the form  $4m + 1$ . Notice that the product of two such prime factors  $(4m + 1)(4k + 1) = 4(4km + k + m) + 1$  is of the same form. By induction, the product of all prime factors of  $a$  is of that form. So  $a$  itself is of that form, and hence  $a \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . But we have shown that  $a \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Contradiction. Therefore,  $q \not\equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . By our previous result follows  $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

Additionally, it holds  $q \notin P$ . Suppose the contrary. Then  $q = p_j$  for some  $1 \leq j \leq n$ . As  $q$  is a prime factor of  $a$ , it holds  $q \mid a$ . As  $q = p_j$  it holds  $p_j \mid 4p_1p_2 \dots p_n$ . But then it must also hold that  $q \mid (-1)$ . However, this is impossible as only for  $q = 1, a = -1$  and  $q = -1, a = 1$  the divisibility definition  $qa = -1$  is fulfilled. However,  $q$  is primes and primes are defined to be strictly greater than 1. This contradiction concludes the proof that  $q \notin P$ .

So in the end we have  $q \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  and  $q \notin P$ . This contradicts our initial assumption. Hence, there are infinitely many solutions of the equation  $p \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ .

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