

1. Give a formula for the number of positive divisors of a number  $n$  based on its factorization into primes. That is, if

$$n = p_1^{n_1} p_2^{n_2} \cdots p_k^{n_k}$$

then determine how many divisors  $n$  has.

**ANSWER:** The divisors of  $n$  are precisely the integers whose prime factorization is of the form

$$n = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \cdots p_k^{m_k}$$

for some non-negative integers  $m_i \leq n_i$ . So there are  $n_1 + 1$  possible values for  $m_1$  (it could be any of  $0, 1, 2, \dots, m_1 - 1, m_1$ ), and independently we may choose any of  $n_2 + 1$  values for  $m_2$ , etc. The total number of divisors is then the total number of choices for the sequence  $(m_1, m_2, \dots, m_k)$ , which is then

$$(n_1 + 1)(n_2 + 1) \cdots (n_k + 1)$$

2. Show that if  $a$  and  $b$  are coprime integers and  $a \cdot b$  is a perfect cube, then  $a$  and  $b$  are perfect cubes too. The corresponding statement for squares is almost true, but there's a little subtlety; can you find it?

**ANSWER:** Obviously if an integer  $n$  has prime factorization

$$n = p_1^{m_1} p_2^{m_2} \cdots p_k^{m_k}$$

then the  $r$ th power of  $n$  has prime factorization

$$n^r = p_1^{rm_1} p_2^{rm_2} \cdots p_k^{rm_k}$$

and thanks to the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic that is the *only* decomposition  $n^r$  can have. So  $r$ th powers can be recognized from their prime decomposition: all exponents must be multiples of  $r$ . So for example if  $a$  and  $b$  are positive integers whose product  $ab$  is a cube, then all the exponents in the prime factorization of  $ab$  are multiples of 3. On the other hand, the prime factorization of  $ab$  may be obtained by simply pasting together the factorizations of  $a$  and  $b$  separately, *because* those two integers are coprime. Thus each exponent in the decompositions of  $a$  and  $b$  are themselves multiples of 3, meaning  $a$  and  $b$  are perfect cubes.

Replace “cube” with “square”, and “3” with “2”, and the previous paragraph again stands. But the original question didn't specify that the integers are positive; if for example  $a = -4$  and  $b = -9$  then  $ab$  is a perfect square but  $a$  and  $b$  are not!

3. Show that for every integer  $n > 1$ ,  $n^3 + 1$  is composite. (Hint: you may find a few examples to be instructive. Try  $n = 1, 2, 4, 6$ , and 16.)

**ANSWER:** For every  $n$ ,  $n^3 + 1 = (n + 1)(n^2 - n + 1)$ . Since for every number  $n >$  both of those factors are greater than 1, this provides a nontrivial factorization of  $n^3 + 1$ .

4. *Twin primes* are primes  $p$  and  $q$  which differ by 2. For example 11 and 13 are twin primes. Prove that there are infinitely many primes which are NOT part of a twin-prime pair. How many primes  $p$  are there for which  $p, p + 2$ , and  $p + 4$  are all prime?

**ANSWER:** I postponed this problem until the following week so that you would have Dirichlet's Theorem at your disposal. A prime  $p$  is part of a twin-prime pair if either  $p - 2$  or  $p + 2$  is also prime, so what we want in this problem is an infinite set of primes  $p$  for which both  $p - 2$  and  $p + 2$  are composite. We might, for example, look for primes  $p$  for which  $p - 2$  is a multiple of 3 (other than 3 itself) and  $p + 2$  is a multiple of 5 (other than 5 itself). In other words we want primes  $p$  (other than 5 or 3) for which

$$p \equiv +2 \pmod{3} \quad \text{and} \quad p \equiv -2 \pmod{5}$$

By the Chinese Remainder Theorem these two congruences together simply state that  $p \equiv 8 \pmod{15}$ . Since  $\gcd(8, 15) = 1$ , Dirichlet's Theorem guarantees there are infinitely many such primes. (The first few are 23, 53, 83, 113, 173, 223, ...).

5. For each integer  $n$  let  $C_n$  denote the central binomial coefficient  $C_n = \binom{2^{n+1}}{2^n}$ . Compute  $C_0, C_1, C_2$ . Show that for every integer  $M$ ,  $\gcd(M, C_n)$  is divisible by all the prime divisors of  $M$  that lie between  $2^n$  and  $2^{n+1}$ .

**ANSWER:** The definition of the binomial coefficient in terms of factorials may be written this way:

$$m!(n - m)! \binom{n}{m} = n!$$

If  $p$  is any prime less than or equal to  $n$  then it divides the number on the right, and hence must divide one of the three factors on the left. If on the other hand  $p$  is larger than both  $m$  and  $n - m$  then  $p$  will not divide  $m!$  nor  $(n - m)!$ ; in that case it must divide the binomial coefficient. In the special case that  $n = 2m$ , this means the binomial coefficient is divisible by every prime which lies (strictly) between  $m$  and  $n$ . In particular, my  $C_n$  above is divisible by every prime between  $2^n$  and  $2^{n+1}$ . (That's all the the primes which are  $n + 1$  bits long when expressed in binary. That's a lot of primes!)

Of course that means every prime divisor of  $M$  which is in that same range will then divide  $\gcd(M, C_n)$ , as was to be shown.

The first few of these numbers are 1, 2, 6, 70, 12870, 601080390.

A small variation of the numbers  $C_n$  may be used instead; look up the *Catalan numbers*.

Let me comment about that parenthetical part. It's very easy to find all the prime divisors of a number  $M$ . Compute, in turn, each of the gcds  $\gcd(M, C_1), \gcd(M, C_2), \gcd(M, C_3), \dots$  ■ These will report to you in turn (the product of) all of  $M$ 's 2-bit prime divisors, then its

3-bit prime divisors, then its 4-bit prime divisors, etc. And remember, it's very easy to compute a gcd using the Euclidean algorithm. (Roughly speaking there are only about  $\log_2(M)$  steps to each such gcd computation.) And even though the numbers  $C_n$  get large fast, we don't ever really need them: if  $C_n \equiv X \pmod{M}$  then  $\gcd(M, C_n) = \gcd(M, X)$ , so we never really need to work with numbers bigger than  $M$  itself. So I could write a very fast computer program to find the prime divisors of any integer  $M$  if I could just figure out a way to insert  $C_n$  quickly into the program in the first place, or more precisely to have my computer compute  $C_n \pmod{M}$  in a relatively few steps. I'm thinking of numbers  $M$  of say a couple hundred digits; that means I might need  $C_{1000}$ . What's the fastest way to compute this number (modulo any integer  $M$ , say)?