

Assignment 9 Answers

DEFINITION: Given two integers m and n , an integer k is a **common divisor of m and n** if k divides m and also k divides n . (In other words, there are integers a and b so that $m = ka$ and $n = kb$.)

DEFINITION: The **greatest common divisor of m and n** is a positive integer d such that d is a common divisor of m and n and any other divisor k of m and n also divides d . **The greatest common divisor of m and n is denoted by $\gcd(m,n)$.**

DEFINITION: Two integers m and n are said to be **relatively prime** if their greatest common divisor is 1.

Examples: The $\gcd(150, 45)$ is 15, since $150 = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 5$ and $45 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5$. The $\gcd(49, 39) = 1$ since $49 = 7 \cdot 7$ and $39 = 3 \cdot 13$.

Problem 9-2: Prove this theorem that we have been using.

For any integers m and n , there is an integer q and an integer r , with $0 \leq r < |m|$ so that $n = qm + r$.

Hint: Induction on n .

Correction and comment: The integer m cannot be 0. Also, if the case for positive m and nonnegative n is proved, the case for negative m or n can be quickly proved from the positive case (as will be noted at the end). So the revised instructions for the problem were to prove the result for positive m and nonnegative n .

Answer: The idea of the proof is that we can fix m (in class there was an example of $m = 5$) and then do an induction on n . Also, it suffices to prove the theorem for nonnegative n , as will be explained at the end of the proof.

So we can rephrase what we want to prove thus:

To prove: Given a positive integer m , for any nonnegative integer n , there are integers q and r , with $0 \leq r < m$ so that $n = qm + r$.

So m is fixed throughout the proof. We do an induction on n .

Base case: $n = 0$. In this case, $n = 0m + 0$, so $q = r = 0$.

Inductive step: Assume $n = qm + r$, with $0 \leq r < m$ (inductive hypothesis).

Prove: $n+1 = q'm + r'$, with $0 \leq r' < m$. (Note: we need a new q and a new r for this case.)

Now we start with $n + 1 = qm + r + 1$ from the inductive hypothesis.

If $0 \leq r + 1 < m$, then we can take $r' = r + 1$ and $q' = q$. If $r = m - 1$, this is the case and we are done.

In the remaining case of $r = m - 1$, then $r + 1 = m$. So in this case

$n + 1 = qm + r + 1 = qm + m = (q+1)m + 0$. So if we set $q' = q+1$ and $r' = 0$, we have proved what was needed in each case.

QED.

A very optional additional comment on the negative case for those who are interested: If $m > 0$ and $n < 0$, then we know from above that

$$-n = qm + r \text{ so } n = (-q)m + (-r).$$

This is the right form but now r is negative or zero. If $r = 0$, then $0 \leq r < m$ and we are done. But if $-m < -r < 0$, we add m to r to get $0 < m - r < m$. So if we rewrite the equation as $n = (-q-1)m + (m - r)$. So this has the form $n = q'm + r'$, with $q' = -q-1$ and $r' = m-r$.

For negative m , it is simpler. If m is negative and so $-m$ is positive, then for any n , $n = q(-m) + r$ and so $n = (-q)m + r$. is of the right form.

If these equations seem obscure, write out some simple examples.

Problem 9-3: Prove: If m , n , q , and r are integers, then the set of common divisors of m and n is the same as the set of common divisors of m and r .

What does this mean if $r = 0$. Is the theorem still true?

Conclude as a corollary: $\gcd(m,n) = \gcd(m,r)$.

Note: As clarified in an email, the integers here refer to the 9-2.

Answer: We want to show that any divisor of m and n is also a divisor of m and r and vice versa.

Let d be a divisor of m and n . That means for some integers a and b , $m = da$ and $n = db$.

But we have $n = qm + r$, so $r = n - qm = da - qdb = d(a - qb)$, so r is divisible by d . And we already assumed that m is divisible by d .

In the other direction, assume that d divides both m and r , so $m = db$ and $r = dc$.

Then $n = qm + r = qdb + dc = d(qb + c)$, so n is divisible by d also.

QED.

Problem 9-4: Use the result of 9-3 for an algorithm to find the gcd of any two integers that does not require factoring them into prime factors.

Then use your algorithm on some non-obvious numbers, including some of at least 4 digits and preferably more.

Answer: This is called the **Euclidean Algorithm**.

First of all, for divisors are the same for positive or negative integers, so we assume that m and n are positive. If we wish to find a common divisor of m

and n , we use the division algorithm to write $n = qm + r$, with $0 \leq r < m$ as before.

Because of 9-3, the gcd of m and n is the same as the gcd of m and r . If $r = 0$ above, then m divides n the $\text{gcd} = m$.

But we note that now, whatever, n was, the maximum of m and r is m .

Then if we apply the division algorithm to m , we get $m = q_1 r + r_1$, with $r_1 < r$.

So now the divisors of m and n are the same as the divisors of m and r which are the same as the divisors of r and r_1 . And we note that \max of r and $r_1 < m-1$.

So we continue with $r = q_2 r_1 + r_2$. Again the divisors of m and n are the same as the divisors of $r_1 + r_2$. And now the \max of $r_1 + r_2$ is less than $m - 2$.

So at each stage, the remainder, which began as a number $< m$ decreases by at least 1. So in no more than m steps, the remainder will be 0.

At this point we have $r_k = q_k r_{k-1} + 0$. And the divisors of m and n will be the same as the divisors of r_{k-1} and 0. But this is the same as the set of divisors of r_{k-1} since any integer divides 0. So we conclude that r_{k-1} itself (a divisor of r_{k-1}) divides m and n , and any common divisor of m and n is a divisor of r_{k-1} . So r_{k-1} must be the gcd of m and n .

Example 1: Let $n = 150$ and $m = 45$. Then

$$150 = 3 \cdot 45 + 15$$

$$45 = 3 \cdot 15 + 0$$

15 is the gcd of 150 and 45.

Example 2. Let $n = 3744$ and $m = 390$. Then

$$3744 = 9 \cdot 390 + 234$$

$$390 = 1 \cdot 234 + 156$$

$$234 = 1 \cdot 156 + 78$$

$$156 = 2 \cdot 78 + 0$$

So 78 is the gcd. In fact $3744 = 48 \cdot 78$ and $390 = 5 \cdot 78$.

Problem 9-5:

Any function X from N to R defines a sequence of real numbers, X_1, X_2, \dots

The number A is defined to be the limit of X_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$ if this is true:

For every $\varepsilon > 0$, there is a positive ~~integer~~ N so that for all $n > N$, $|X_n - A| < \varepsilon$.

Notation: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = A$

Comment: It is not necessary to assume N is an integer, since if we have any non-integer N with this property, then the integer N' obtained by rounding up N to an integer in the segment $[N, N+1]$ will satisfy the integer definition.

PROVE: If $X_n = \frac{2n-1}{n}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n = 2$.

Answer. We begin by computing the "error":

$$|X_n - A| = |2 - (1/n) - 2| = 1/n.$$

Then given an $\varepsilon > 0$, the goal is to make this error $< \varepsilon$, so in particular we need $(1/n) < \varepsilon$. But this is true if $1/\varepsilon < n$.

Then for this $\varepsilon > 0$, let $N = 1/\varepsilon$, then for any $n > N$, $1/n < 1/N$, so $|X_n - A| = 1/n < 1/N < \varepsilon$. Thus the definition is satisfied

Problem 9-6:

Suppose that Z_n is a sequence for which this is true: There is a positive integer N such that for every $\varepsilon > 0$, for all $n > N$, $|Z_n - A| < \varepsilon$.

What would an example of such a Z_n be? What can you prove about Z_n that must be true.

Answer. This definition says that for all $n > N$ that for that particular n , $|Z_n - A| < \varepsilon$ for any $\varepsilon > 0$. But this means that it must be true that $|Z_n - A| \leq 0$, for if the number were positive, there would be a positive ε that would be smaller. But also $|Z_n - A| \geq 0$ since it is an absolute value, so it must $= 0$ and $Z_n = A$.

And this is true for an $n > N$, so this only happens if the sequence is constant beyond a certain point: in other words, for all $n > N$, $Z_n = A$.

An example would be any constant sequences or any sequence such as 1, 2, 3, 3, 3, 3, ... with 3 for all remaining terms.

Problem 9-7:

(a) Write what it means for a number A *not* to be the limit of X_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In other words, what is the negation of the definition in 9-5.

Answer: A is not a limit of X_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$ if there exists an $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for every N there is some $n > N$ such that $|X_n - A| \geq \varepsilon$.

In other words, there is a subsequence that stays a fixed distance away from A .

(b) If the sequence $Y_n = (-1)^n$ for all positive integers n , prove that there is no number A that is the limit of Y_n as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Answer: Pick any A and we show it is not a limit. This includes the case when $A = 1$ or -1 but all other numbers as well. The idea of the proof is that we observe that any A is either at distance ≥ 1 from $+1$ or from -1 . So an infinite number of the Y_n must be at this distance from A . (In this case, either all the odd ones or all the even ones, or maybe both if A is a number like 12 .)

Since the distance between $+1$ and -1 is 2 , we pick $\epsilon = 1$, which is half that distance. (A smaller number would work well also.)

Now what we show is that for every N , there is an $n > N$, with $|(-1)^n - A| \geq 1$.

For any N , we pick any even number $n > N$. Then $Y_n = 1$. If $|1 - A| \geq 1$ we have already satisfied the condition.

But if $|1 - A| < 1$, for another number $n > N$, we choose $n + 1$. Then $Y_{n+1} = -1$.

The condition $|1 - A| < 1$ implies that $A > 0$. (This is kind of obvious by looking at the number line, but more formally: $|1 - A| < 1 \Rightarrow -1 < A - 1 < 1 \Rightarrow 0 < A < 2$.)

And for this positive A , the distance to the number -1 must be great that 1 . Algebraically, $|A - (-1)| = |A + 1| = A + 1$ since A is positive. And also $1 < A + 1 = |A - (-1)| = |A - Y_{n+1}|$. So this is the condition that $|A - Y_{n+1}| > 1 = \epsilon$.