

Solutions for Homework 1

III.1 The first several triangular-square numbers are

$$1, 36, 1225, 41616, 1413721, 48024900.$$

finding these numbers is quite subtle and not something I expect. With a pocket calculator, you can determine $1225 = 35^2 = \underline{48\cdot50}$ pretty quickly, but to get further takes some good ideas.

We will return to this question in several weeks & give a complete answer. For now, it is possible (but hard) to notice that such numbers come from solutions to

$$\frac{m(m+1)}{2} = n^2$$

and that if (m,n) is a square-triangular number, then so is $(3m+4n+1, 2m+3n+1)$. [Note: I would not have noticed this myself]

III.2 Let's try a few:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 1 & = & 1 \\ 1+3 & = & 4 \\ 1+3+5 & = & 9 \\ 1+3+5+7 & = & 16 \\ 1+3+5+7+9 & = & 25 \\ \vdots & & \end{array}$$

It looks like we're getting all the squares. Can we prove it?

$$\begin{array}{l}
 1+3 = \begin{array}{c} x \\ \cdot \\ x \end{array} \\
 1+3+5 = \begin{array}{ccc} x & x & x \\ \cdot & \cdot & x \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{array} \\
 1+3+5+7 = \begin{array}{cccc} x & x & x & x \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & x \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{array}
 \end{array}$$

Geometrically, it is now quite clear.

In each picture, I've added the largest odd number of the sum as "x"s, & we get squares.

It's also now clear how the general case works.

So $1+3+\dots+(2n+1) = (n+1)^2$ is our formula. \blacksquare

1.3

No, 3, 5, 7 is the only prime triplet.

The reason why is that three consecutive odd numbers are of the forms $6n+1, 6n+3, 6n+5$ or $6n+3, 6n+5, 6n+7$ or

$$6n+5, 6n+7, 6n+9,$$

based on the remainder of the 1st number on division by 6.

In each possibility, one of the two is divisible by 3.

The only number ~~less than~~ divisible by 3 which is prime is 3 itself; so 3 must be a member of the triplet. And this leaves only 3, 5, 7.

What do you think about triplets of the form $p, p+2, p+6$?

\blacksquare

(1.4) This question calls for a lot of experimentation + data collection.

Ⓐ As $N^2 - 1 = (N+1)(N-1)$, these numbers are almost never prime.

Ⓑ We can't factor $N^2 - a$ like we can $N^2 - 1$. After some experimentation, it seems like $N^2 - 1$ is prime pretty often.

N	2	3	5	7	9	13
$N^2 - 2$	2	7	23	47	79	167

So it's reasonable to think it may happen infinitely often. But who knows?

Ⓒ Similarly, $N^2 - 3$ doesn't factor like $N^2 - 1$. But $N^2 - 4 = (N+2)(N-2)$, so we shouldn't expect $N^2 - 4$ to be prime very often. Some experimentation later, it seems $N^2 - 3$ is also prime pretty often.

Ⓓ Generally, it seems reasonable to conjecture that if a is not a perfect square, then $N^2 - a$ is prime infinitely often. But no one knows for sure.

QUESTION

2.1

[a] If a is not a multiple of 3, then it is either $3x+1$ or $3x+2$. Similarly, if b is not a multiple of 3, then $b = 3y+1$ or $b = 3y+2$.

This gives us four possibilities.

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{#1} \quad a^2 + b^2 &= (3x+1)^2 + (3y+1)^2 = \\ &= 9x^2 + 6x + 1 + 9y^2 + 6y + 1 = \\ &= 9x^2 + 6x + 9y^2 + 6y + 2. \end{aligned}$$

Why is this bad? We need to investigate c .

If $c = 3z$, then $c^2 = 9z^2$.

If $c = 3z+1$, then $c^2 = 9z^2 + 6z + 1$.

If $c = 3z+2$, then $c^2 = 9z^2 + 12z + 4$.

All of these are not more than a multiple of 3, as

$$9z^2 = 3 \cdot (3z^2)$$

$$9z^2 + 6z + 1 = 3(3z^2 + 2z) + 1$$

$$9z^2 + 12z + 4 = 3(3z^2 + 4z + 1) + 1.$$

But our $a^2 + b^2$ is 2 more than a multiple of 3.

So we can't have $a = 3x+1$, $b = 3y+1$.

$$\textcircled{#2} \quad a^2 + b^2 = (3x+2)^2 + (3y+1)^2 = 9x^2 + 12x + 9y^2 + \cancel{6y} + 5$$

$$\textcircled{#3} \quad a^2 + b^2 = (3x+1)^2 + (3y+2)^2 = 9x^2 + 6x + 9y^2 + 12y + 5$$

$$\textcircled{#4} \quad a^2 + b^2 = (3x+2)^2 + (3y+2)^2 = 9x^2 + 12x + 9y^2 + 12y + 8$$

In every case, $a^2 + b^2$ is 2 more than a multiple of 3.
And yet c^2 cannot be (a multiple of 3) plus 2!

So we must have at least one of a or b as a multiple of 3.

⑥ It seems like in every primitive Pythagorean triple, exactly one of a, b , or c is a multiple of 5.

We can show this through a lot of casework. We will return to this question in a few weeks with tools which allow us to simplify the casework. ■

⑦ As ~~m divides~~ d divides m , $m = dk$ for some k .
And as d divides n , $n = dl$ for some l .

Then $m+n = d(k+l)$, which are both of the
 $m-n = d(k-l)$

form $d(*)$. So d divides $m+n$ and $m-n$. ■

Q.7 $(a, b, c) \longleftrightarrow 2c - 2a$

$$(3, 4, 5) \longleftrightarrow 10 - 6 = 4$$

$$(5, 12, 13) \longleftrightarrow 26 - 10 = 16$$

$$(7, 24, 25) \longleftrightarrow 50 - 14 = 36$$

⋮
(and so on)

After experimenting, all the differences seem to be perfect squares.
To prove this, we can use what we proved:

$$(a, b, c) \xrightarrow{\text{a ppt}} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} a = st \\ b = \frac{s^2 - t^2}{2} \\ c = \frac{s^2 + t^2}{2} \end{array} \right.$$

||

So $2c - 2a = s^2 + t^2 - 2st$
 $= (s-t)^2$,

which is always a perfect square.
That's exactly what we wanted to prove! ■

Additional Problem (8)

As d divides a , $a = dk$ for some k . As d divides b , $b = dl$ for some l .

So $ax + by = dkx + dly = d(kx + ly)$, which is of the form $d(\text{integer})$, and so $ax + by$ is divisible by d . ■