

A GCD problem and a Hessenberg determinant

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Received: 31 December 2016

Accepted: 7 May 2018

Abstract: In this article we give a proof that, when two integers a and b are coprime ($(a, b) = 1$ i.e. greatest common divisor (GCD) of a and b is 1), then GCD of $a + b$ and $\frac{a^p+b^p}{a+b}$ is either 1 or p for a prime number p . We prove this by linking the problem to a certain type of Hessenberg determinants.

Keywords: Greatest common divisor, Binomial coefficients, Hessenberg determinants.

2010 Mathematics Subject Classification: 11A05, 15B36, 11C20.

1 Introduction

For integers a and b let (a, b) denote the greatest common divisor (GCD). The book [1] has an exercise: If $(a, b) = 1$ then prove that $(a + b, a^2 - ab + b^2)$ is either 1 or 3. Here we prove a generalized version of this problem by linking it to linear algebra. We prove that if $(a, b) = 1$, then $(a + b, \frac{a^p+b^p}{a+b})$ is either 1 or factors of p when p is an odd number. When p is a prime number, then $(a + b, \frac{a^p+b^p}{a+b})$ is either 1 or p .

2 Results

Lemma 2.1. *If $(a, b) = 1$, and some $d > 1$ is such that $d|(a + b)$ then $d \nmid a$ and $d \nmid b$.*

Proof. Suppose $d|a$ then $d|(a + b - a)$, which is $d|(b)$. But $(a, b) = 1$ and $d > 1$. By contradiction d will not divide a . Similarly for b . □

Lemma 2.2. For an odd integer p ,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{(p-1)/2} (-1)^{n-1} (p-2n) \binom{p}{n} = p.$$

Proof. For a real $x > 0$, consider $(x - \frac{1}{x})^p$. By expanding this with binomial theorem we get

$$\left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right)^p = \sum_{n=0}^p (-1)^n \binom{p}{n} x^{p-n} \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^n, \quad (1)$$

$$\left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right)^p = \sum_{n=0}^p (-1)^n \binom{p}{n} x^{p-2n}. \quad (2)$$

Differentiating equation 1 with respect to x ,

$$p \left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right)^{p-1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x^2}\right) = \sum_{n=0}^p (-1)^n \binom{p}{n} (p-2n) x^{p-2n-1}. \quad (3)$$

Substitute $x = 1$ in equation 3, we get

$$0 = 2 \left(\sum_{n=0}^{(p-1)/2} (-1)^n \binom{p}{n} (p-2n) \right), \quad (4)$$

$$p = \sum_{n=1}^{(p-1)/2} (-1)^{n-1} \binom{p}{n} (p-2n). \quad (5)$$

□

Consider the lower Hessenberg matrices,

$$H_n = \begin{bmatrix} \binom{2n+1}{1} & 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \binom{2n+1}{2} & \binom{2n-1}{1} & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \binom{2n+1}{3} & \binom{2n-1}{2} & \binom{2n-3}{1} & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ \binom{2n+1}{n-1} & \binom{2n-1}{n-2} & \binom{2n-3}{n-3} & \cdots & 5 & 1 \\ \binom{2n+1}{n} & \binom{2n-1}{n-1} & \binom{2n-3}{n-2} & \cdots & 10 & 3 \end{bmatrix}.$$

With $H_0 = 1$ and $H_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $H_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 10 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, etc.

Lemma 2.3. Determinant of the matrix H_n is $2n + 1$.

Proof. We can see $\det(H_1) = 3$ and $\det(H_2) = 5$. Now by using principle of strong induction and expanding the determinant along the first row of H_n we get the identity in Lemma 2.2 which proves Lemma 2.3. □

Theorem 2.4. If $(a, b) = 1$ then for an odd number $p = 2n + 1$, $(a + b, \frac{a^p + b^p}{a+b}) = d$, where d is a divisor of p .

And $(-1)^{(p-1)/2} \det(H_{(p-1)/2})$ is the corresponding $((p+1)/2, 1)$ entry of L^{-1} . This is the determinant obtained by removing the first row and last column of the matrix L . From Lemma 2.3 it is nothing but $\pm p$.

Then from equation (6) we get

$$p(ab)^{\frac{p-1}{2}} = \pm \left(\frac{a^p + b^p}{a + b} - \sum_{k=0}^{((p-1)/2)-1} C_k (a + b)^{2k} \right), \quad (10)$$

d divides RHS of equation (10), so it divides LHS, which proves the theorem. \square

References

- [1] Apostol, T. M. (2013) *Introduction to Analytic Number Theory*, Springer Science & Business Media.