Math 300.2

- 1. (a) [5%] For every integer m, there exist unique integers q and r [2.5%] such that m = 5q + r and $0 \le r < 5$. [2.5%]
 - (b) **[8%]**

Proof. Assume $5 \mid m^2$. Write m = 5q + r with q and r as in (a). Then

$$m^{2} = (5q+r)^{2} = 25q^{2} + 10qr + r^{2} = 5(5q^{2} + 2qr) + r^{2}.$$
 [2%]

Since 5 divides both m^2 and $5(5q^2 + 2qr)$, it divides their difference r^2 . [2%] Now r = 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4 so that r^2 is one of

$$0^2 = 0, \quad 1^2 = 1, \quad 2^2 = 4, \quad 3^2 = 9, \quad 4^2 = 16.$$
 [1%]

But 5 does not divide any of these numbers except 0, so that $r^2 = 0$. [2%] Then r = 0, and m = 5q + 0 = 5q. Thus 5 divides m. [1%]

(c) [7%] *Proof.* Just suppose $\sqrt{5}$ is rational, so that

$$\sqrt{5} = \frac{m}{n} \tag{(*)}$$

for some integers m and n with $n \neq 0$. [2%]

Without loss of generality, we may assume that m and n are relatively prime (if they are not, divide each by their gcd). [2%]

Square (*) to obtain

$$5 n^2 = m^2$$
. [1%]

Since 5 divides $5n^2$, it also divides m^2 . [1%] From (b), 5 divides m. [1%] ...

2. (a) [10%] Proof: Assume $a + c \equiv b + c \pmod{m}$. [1%] Then

 $m \mid ((a+c) - (b+c))$ [3%]

and, since (a + c) - (b + c) = a - b, [3%]

 $m \mid (a - b).$ [2%]

This means $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$. [1%]

- (b) [10%] The implication is not true in general. [2%] Take, for example, m = 2 and take a = 2, b = 3, c = 4. [6%] Then $2 \cdot 4 \equiv 3 \cdot 4 \pmod{2}$ and $4 \neq 0$, but $2 \nmid 3 \pmod{2}$. [2%]
- 3. (a) [5%] Integer n > 1 is not prime when there exists an integer d such that $d \mid n$ but $d \neq 1$ and $d \neq n$.
 - (b) [5%] Well-Ordering Principle: Each nonempty subset of N has a least element.

(c) [10%] *Proof:* We are going to use the Well-Ordering Principle. Let

 $A = \{ n \in \mathbb{Z} : n > 1 \& n \text{ has } no \text{ prime divisor} \}.$ [2%]

Just suppose some integer greater than 1 has no prime divisor, in other words, A is nonempty. [1%]

By the Well-Ordering Principle, A has a least element n_1 . [1%] Since n_1 has no prime divisor, then in particular, n_1 itself is not prime. [1%] This means that n_1 has a divisor d with $1 < d < n_1$. [2%] Because d > 1 and $d < n_1$, the least element of A, then $d \notin A$. This means that d has some prime divisor p. Then $p \mid d$ and, since $d \mid n_1$, then also $p \mid n_1$. This is impossible because $n_1 \in A$. [3%]

4. (a) **[5%]** Define:

$$\begin{cases} a^0 = 1, & [1\%] \\ a^{n+1} = a a^n & (n \ge 0) & [4\%] \end{cases}$$

[*Note:* You could equally well take $a^{n+1} = a^n a$ as the recursive relation, and then you would need to alter some of the steps in (b). You could also take as the recursive relation $a^n = a a^{n-1}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, but in view of the induction done in (b), it's easier to use the $a^{n+1} = \dots$ form.]

(b) [15%] Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We use induction on m to prove that $a^{m+n} = a^m a^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.[2%]

Base step (m = 0): For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a^{0+n} = a^n = 1 \cdot a^n = a^0 a^n$ [3%] Inductive step: Let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and assume

$$a^{m+n} = a^m a^n$$
 for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. [2%]

(What must be deduced is that $a^{(m+1)+n} = a^{m+1} a^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. [2%]) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then:

 $a^{(m+1)+n} = a^{m+(n+1)}$ (by properties of addition in \mathbb{Z}) [1%]

 $= a^m a^{n+1}$ (by the inductive assumption) [2%]

 $= a^m (a a^n)$ (by the recursive definition) [1%]

$$= (a a^m) a^n$$
 (by properties of multiplication in \mathbb{R}) [1%]

$$= a^{m+1} a^n$$
 (by the recursive definition again) \Box [1%]

Notes:

- The value of n was fixed in the proof above, so that the predicate P(m) being proved by induction is $a^{m+n} = a^m a^n$, where n is that fixed value. If you do not fix n, then the predicate P(m) to be proved by induction would be that $a^{m+n} = a^m a^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ —and you should explicitly say so.
- You could carry out the induction on *n* instead of on *m*.

- 5. (a) [5%] The set A of all even integers is infinite and differenced. (More generally: any nonzero ideal in \mathbb{Z} ; in other words, for any integer $g \neq 0$, the ideal { $k g : k \in \mathbb{Z}$ }.)
 - (b) [5%] The set A of all odd integers is infinite, but it is not differenced.
 (Another example: the subset N of Z.)
 - (c) [10%] First, since A has some element k and 0 = k k, then

$$0 \in A. \qquad [3\%] \tag{1}$$

[*Note:* The preceding needs to be a separate step. It is *not* enough to start something like this: "Let $m, n \in A$. Then $0 = m - m \in A$." The trouble with that is that you don't have any particular element of A yet; you explicitly have to invoke that A is nonempty to get such.]

Next, for each $n \in A$, its negative

$$-n = 0 - n \in A \qquad [3\%] \tag{2}$$

from (??) and the definition of "differenced". Finally, for every $m, n \in A$, the sum

$$m + n = m - (-n) \in A$$
 [4%]

from (??) and the definition of "differenced)". \Box

Another version of the proof: fix m and n at the start. Let $m, n \in A$. Since $m \in A$, from the definition of "differenced" we have $0 = m - m \in A$. Next, since $0 \in A$ and $n \in A$, then $-n = 0 - n \in A$. Finally, since $m \in A$ and $-n \in A$,

$$m+n = m - (-n) \in A.$$

Yet another version of the proof. This arrangement of the proof does not explicitly involve showing that $0 \in A$. (Thanks, Colette!) Let $m, n \in A$. Then $m - n \in A$ since A is differenced. Next,

 $-n = (m-n) - m \in A,$

again since A is differenced. Finally, as above,

$$m+n = m - (-n) \in A,$$

once more because A is differenced. \Box