

An Invitation to Higher Mathematics

Math 215, Fall Semester, 2001

Solutions to Problems & Exercises

Week 2 – August 27-31

7. Prove by contradiction that there do not exist integers m and n such that

$$14m + 21n = 100$$

Proof: We give a proof by contradiction. That is, we assume there exists integers m and n so that $14m + 21n = 100$ and derive from this a contradiction. It will follow that there cannot exist integers n and m satisfying the equation.

We notice that both 14 and 21 are divisible by 7, while 100 is not. We use this to obtain a contradiction. Rewrite the LHS of the equation as

$$14m + 21n = 7 \cdot 2m + 7 \cdot 3n = 7 \cdot (2m + 3n)$$

So $100 = 14m + 21n = 7 \cdot (2m + 3n)$ where $2m + 3n$ is an integer. This shows that 100 is divisible by 7, which is a contradiction. \square

8. Prove by contradiction that for any integer n ,

$$n^2 \text{ is odd} \implies n \text{ is odd}$$

Proof: We will assume that n is an integer such that n^2 is odd and n is even, and derive from this a contradiction. Hence, no such integer n can exist, so for every n we have n^2 odd implies that n is odd.

The assumption n is even implies $n = 2p$ for some integer p .

Then $n^2 = (2p)^2 = 2 \cdot 2p^2$ where $2p^2$ is an integer, so n^2 is even.

This contradicts the assumption n^2 is odd. \square

9. (*turn in Wednesday, September 5*)

Prove by contradiction that for any integer n ,

$$n^2 \text{ is even} \implies n \text{ is even}$$

Hint: An integer n is odd if and only if $n = 2q + 1$ for some integer q .

Proof: We will assume that n is an integer such that n^2 is even and n is odd, and derive from this a contradiction. Hence, no such integer n can exist, so for every n we have n^2 even implies that n is even.

By the hint, the assumption n is odd implies $n = 2q + 1$ for some integer q .

Then $n^2 = (2q + 1)^2 = 4q^2 + 4q + 1 = 2(2q^2 + 2q) + 1$ where $2q^2 + 2q$ is an integer.

This shows n^2 is odd, contradicting the assumption n^2 is even. \square

10. (turn in Wednesday, September 5)

Prove that, for all real numbers a and b ,

$$|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$$

Proof: We consider four cases, corresponding to a and b non-negative or negative.

Case 1. $a \geq 0$ and $b \geq 0$. Then $a + b \geq 0$ so

$$|a + b| = a + b = |a| + |b|$$

Case 2. $a \geq 0$ and $b < 0$. This case has two subcases, $a + b \geq 0$ and $a + b < 0$.

If $a + b \geq 0$ then using that $b < 0$ so $b < -b$ and $-b = |b|$ we have

$$|a + b| = a + b < a - b = |a| + |b|$$

If $a + b < 0$ then using that $-a \leq 0$ so $-a \leq a$ and $-b = |b|$ we have

$$|a + b| = -(a + b) = -a + -b \leq a - b = |a| + |b|$$

Case 3. $a < 0$ and $b \geq 0$. This case has two subcases, $a + b \geq 0$ and $a + b < 0$.

If $a + b \geq 0$ then using that $a < 0$ so $a < -a$ and $-a = |a|$ we have

$$|a + b| = a + b < -a + b = |a| + |b|$$

If $a + b < 0$ then using that $-b \leq 0$ so $-b \leq b$ and $-a = |a|$ we have

$$|a + b| = -(a + b) = -a + -b \leq -a + b = |a| + |b|$$

Case 4. $a < 0$ and $b < 0$. Then $a + b < 0$ so

$$|a + b| = -(a + b) = -a - b = |a| + |b|$$

□

11. Prove the following statements concerning positive integers a , b , and c .

(i) $(a \text{ divides } b) \text{ and } (a \text{ divides } c) \implies a \text{ divides } (b + c)$

Proof:

a divides b implies $b = a \cdot p$ for some integer p .

a divides c implies $c = a \cdot q$ for some integer q .

This implies $b + c = a \cdot p + a \cdot q = a(p + q)$ where $p + q$ is an integer.

Thus, a divides $b + c$. \square

(ii) $(a \text{ divides } b) \text{ or } (a \text{ divides } c) \implies a \text{ divides } (bc)$

Proof: There are two cases, either a divides b or a does not divide b .

In the second case, by assumption we must have a divides c .

Case 1. a divides b implies $b = a \cdot p$ for some integer p .

This implies $b \cdot c = (a \cdot p) \cdot c = a \cdot (p \cdot c)$ where $p \cdot c$ is an integer. Thus, a divides bc .

Case 2. a divides c implies $c = a \cdot q$ for some integer q .

This implies $b \cdot c = b \cdot (a \cdot q) = a \cdot (b \cdot q)$ where $b \cdot q$ is an integer. Thus, a divides bc . \square

12. Which of the following conditions are necessary for the positive integer n to be divisible by 6?

Solution: For all of the following questions, we use that 6 divides n implies $n = 6 \cdot p = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot p$ for some integer p .

(i) 3 divides n . *Yes:* $n = 3 \cdot 2p$ so must be divisible by 3.

(ii) 9 divides n . *No:* $2p$ need not be divisible by 3. For example, take $n = 6$.

(iii) 12 divides n . *No:* p need not be divisible by 2. For example, take $n = 6$.

(iv) $n = 12$. *No:* $n = 6$ is divisible by 6.

(v) 6 divides n^2 . *Yes:* $n^2 = n \cdot n = 6 \cdot p \cdot n = 6 \cdot pn$.

(vi) 2 divides n and 3 divides n . *Yes:* $n = 2 \cdot 3p = 3 \cdot 2p$.

(vii) 2 divides n or 3 divides n . *Yes:* Both 2 and 3 divide n , so either divides n .

Which of these conditions are *sufficient*?

Solution: We discuss each case above.

If 3 or 9 divides n this does not imply 2 divides n , so i) and ii) are not sufficient.

If 12 divides n then $n = 12 \cdot q = 6 \cdot 2q$ for an integer q , so iii) is sufficient.

$n = 12$ implies 6 divides n , so iv) is sufficient.

We consider vi) before v) . 2 divides n implies $n = 2 \cdot p$. 3 divides $n = 2 \cdot p$ implies p is divisible by 3, or $p = 3 \cdot q$, so $n = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot q = 6 \cdot q$ is divisible by 6. So, v) is sufficient.

If 6 divides n^2 , then both 2 and 3 divide n^2 . This implies both 2 and 3 divide n , so by vi) 6 divides n and v) is sufficient.

vii) is not sufficient, as $n = 2$ is divisible by 2 or 3.

\square

13. (turn in Wednesday, September 5)

Prove by induction on n that, for all positive integers n , $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3.

Proof: We formulate the inductive statement first.

P(n): There exists integer q so that $n^3 - n = 3 \cdot q$.

We prove first the case P(1). For $n = 1$, $n^3 - n = 1^3 - 1 = 0 = 3 \cdot 0$.

Next, we assume that P(n) is true, and use this to prove the statement P($n+1$). We calculate the LHS of P($n+1$)

$$(n+1)^3 - (n+1) = n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1 - n - 1 = (n^3 - n) + 3(n^2 + n)$$

Use the inductive hypothesis P(n) to write $n^3 - n = 3q$, then we have

$$(n+1)^3 - (n+1) = (n^3 - n) + 3(n^2 + n) = 3q + 3(n^2 + n) = 3(q + n^2 + n)$$

where $(q + n^2 + n)$ is an integer. This shows $(n+1)^3 - (n+1)$ is divisible by 3. So P($n+1$) is also true, which completes the proof of the inductive step.

By the Principle of Induction, it follows that P(n) is true for all integers $n \geq 1$. \square