

WINTER 2012, MATH 312, ASSIGNMENT 1

1) For any real $r \in \mathbb{R}$, let

$[r]$ denote the integer part of r , where $[r] \leq r$ (even for r negative); and let

$\{r\}$ denote the "fractional/decimal" part of r , i.e. $\{r\} = r - [r]$. Note that $\{r\} \in [0, 1)$.

For $j \in \mathbb{Z}$, $0 \leq j \leq n+1$, consider the $n+2$ numbers $\{j\alpha\}$, which all lie in the interval $0 \leq \{j\alpha\} < 1$.

Partition this interval into $n+1$ subintervals

$$\frac{k-1}{n+1} \leq x < \frac{k}{n+1} \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n, n+1.$$

As there are $n+2$ numbers and only $n+1$ intervals, by the Pigeonhole Principle, some interval contains at least 2 of the numbers.

Thus, there exist $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that

$$0 \leq r < s \leq n+1 \quad \text{and} \quad |\{r\alpha\} - \{s\alpha\}| \leq \frac{1}{n+1}.$$

6 marks

Now let $a = s - r$ and $b = [s\alpha] - [r\alpha]$. Since $r, s \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $0 \leq r < s \leq n+1$, we have $1 \leq a \leq n$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also, } |a\alpha - b| &= |(s-r)\alpha - ([s\alpha] - [r\alpha])| \\ &= |\{s\alpha\} - \{r\alpha\}| \leq \frac{1}{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

So a & b meet our requirements.

4 marks

[Total:
10 marks]

2) Let S be a countable set, i.e. there exists a bijection $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow S$

$$1 \mapsto f(1)$$

$$2 \mapsto f(2)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$n \mapsto f(n)$$

$$\vdots$$

Let E be an infinite subset of S .

Let n_1 be the smallest positive integer s.t.

$$f(n_1) \in E$$

[Such an n_1 exists because the set

$\{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid f(n) \in E\}$ is non-empty and bounded below]

Let n_2 be the smallest positive integer greater than n_1 s.t. $f(n_2) \in E$.

$$\vdots$$

Let n_{k+1} be the smallest positive integer greater than n_k s.t. $f(n_{k+1}) \in E$

$$\vdots$$

[Such a process will continue indefinitely because E is infinite]

Now consider the function $g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow E$

$$1 \mapsto f(n_1)$$

$$2 \mapsto f(n_2)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$k \mapsto f(n_k)$$

$$\vdots$$

5 marks

2) (continued)

Showing that g is injective

Suppose $f(n_j) = f(n_k) \in E$ for $j, k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Then $n_j = n_k$ since f is injective

Then $j = k$ because the n_i 's were chosen in a strictly increasing manner.

Showing that g is surjective

Let e be an element of E .

As $E \subseteq S$, we see that $e \in S$

As $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow S$ is surjective, e is in the image of f .

In fact, as $e \in E = \{f(n_1), f(n_2), \dots, f(n_k), \dots\}$, we see that $e = f(n_x)$ for some $x \in \mathbb{N}$.

But then $g(x) = f(n_x) = e$.

\Rightarrow As $g: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow E$ is a bijection, E is a countable set as well.

5 marks

[Total:
10 marks]

3) Let P_n denote the statement
" $1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$ "
for some given $n \in \mathbb{N}$

"Base" Case : Show P_1 is true.

$$1^2 = 1 = \frac{1}{6}(1)(1+1)(2(1)+1) \quad \checkmark$$

2 marks

"Induction Step" : Showing P_k true implies P_{k+1} true.

Suppose P_k is true for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e. suppose

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + k^2 = \frac{1}{6}k(k+1)(2k+1)$$

$$\text{Then } 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + k^2 + (k+1)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}k(k+1)(2k+1) + (k+1)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}(k+1) [k(2k+1) + 6(k+1)]$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}(k+1) [2k^2 + 7k + 6]$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}(k+1)[(k+1)+1][2(k+1)+1]$$

i.e. P_{k+1} is true.

Conclusion

By mathematical induction,

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$$

is true for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

8 marks

[Total:
10 marks]

$$\begin{aligned}
 4) \quad a^3 - a &= a(a^2 - 1) \\
 &= a(a-1)(a+1) \\
 &= \underbrace{(a-1) \cdot a \cdot (a+1)}_{3 \text{ consecutive integers}}
 \end{aligned}$$

For any 3 consecutive integers, exactly one of them is divisible by 3, which makes their product also divisible by 3.

[Note: this is true even if $a \leq 0$]

[Alternatively,

$$a^3 - a = (a-1) \cdot a \cdot (a+1)$$

$$\equiv 0 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \pmod{3}$$

$$\equiv 0 \pmod{3} \quad]$$

Total:
[5 marks]

5) Let P_n denote the statement
" $5 \mid n^5 - n$ " for some given $n \in \mathbb{N}$

"Base" Case : Show P_1 is true.

$$5 \mid 1^5 - 1 = 0 \quad (\text{as } 0 = 5(0)) \quad \checkmark$$

2 marks

"Induction Step" : Showing P_k true implies P_{k+1} true

Suppose P_k is true for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e. suppose

$$5 \mid k^5 - k, \text{ i.e. } k^5 - k = 5a \text{ for some } a \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then, } (k+1)^5 - (k+1) &= [k^5 + 5k^4 + 10k^3 + 10k^2 + 5k + 1] - [k+1] \\ &= (k^5 - k) + (5k^4 + 10k^3 + 10k^2 + 5k + 1 - 1) \\ &= 5a + 5(k^4 + 2k^3 + 2k^2 + k) \\ &= 5(a + k^4 + 2k^3 + 2k^2 + k) \end{aligned}$$

So $5 \mid (k+1)^5 - (k+1)$ and P_{k+1} is true.

Conclusion

By mathematical induction, $5 \mid n^5 - n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

8 marks

[Total:
10 marks]

6) Existence of $\gcd(a, b)$

For $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ not both zero, the common divisors of a & b are a subset of the finite set of integers,

$$\{-\max\{|a|, |b|\}, -\max\{|a|, |b|\} + 1, \dots, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots, \max\{|a|, |b|\}\}.$$

Thus, the set of common divisors of a and b is itself a finite, ordered set and must thus have a greatest element, the \gcd .

Note that the set of common divisors of a and b is non-empty because it always contains the number 1. (and actually -1 too).

Show that $\gcd(a, b) = m_0 a + n_0 b$ for $m_0, n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$.

$$\text{Let } S = \{ma + nb \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } ma + nb > 0\}$$

$S \neq \emptyset$: if m has the sign of a and n has the sign of b } then $ma + nb > 0$

[Note, here, it's important that a, b not both 0]

S is bounded below by the number 0.

Thus, S has a least element (since we're working over the integers). Call it $S_0 = m_0 a + n_0 b$.

We seek to prove that

$$m_0 a + n_0 b = S_0 = \gcd(a, b)$$

6) (continued)

Firstly,

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \gcd(a,b) \mid a \\ \gcd(a,b) \mid b \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \gcd(a,b) \mid m_0 a + n_0 b = s_0 \quad \dots \textcircled{1}$$

Conversely, we seek to prove $s_0 \mid a$ & $s_0 \mid b$
[for then s_0 would be a common divisor of a & b ,
which means $s_0 \mid \gcd(a,b)$]

By the Division Algorithm, there exist $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\text{s.t. } a = q s_0 + r \quad \text{where } 0 \leq r < s_0$$

$$= q(m_0 a + n_0 b) + r$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 - q m_0) a - (q n_0) b = r$$

Case 1 $r = 0 \Rightarrow a = q s_0 + 0 \Rightarrow s_0 \mid a$.

Case 2 $r > 0 \Rightarrow$ Since r can be written as a
linear combination of a & b , $r \in S$.

But $r < s_0$, so this contradicts the
minimality of s_0 in S . ~~✗~~ ← Contradiction

Thus, must have $s_0 \mid a$. And similarly $s_0 \mid b$.

$$\text{So, } s_0 \mid \gcd(a,b) \quad \dots \textcircled{2}$$

① & ② show that

$$\gcd(a,b) = s_0 = m_0 a + n_0 b$$

6 marks

[Total:
10 marks]

7)

n	n^2	$(n+1)^2$	Smallest prime b/w n^2 & $(n+1)^2$
1	1	4	2
2	4	9	5
3	9	16	11
4	16	25	17
5	25	36	29
6	36	49	37
7	49	64	53
8	64	81	67
9	81	100	83
10	100	121	101

1 mark

- 1
- 1
- 1
- 1
- 1
- 1
- 1
- 1
- 1
- 1

[Total:
10 marks]

8) Dirichlet's Theorem on Primes in Arithmetic Progressions

Let a & b be relatively prime positive integers.

Then the arithmetic progression $an + b, n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ contains infinitely many primes.

Let $a = 10, b = 1$.

Note that $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(10, 1) = 1$

so a & b are relatively prime positive integers.

3 marks

Then by Dirichlet's Theorem, the arithmetic progression $11, 21, 31, 41, 51, \dots$ contains infinitely many primes.

i.e. there are infinitely many primes whose decimal expansion ends with 1.

2 marks

[Total:
5 marks]