

HOMEWORK 5

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Proposition 4.32. *For all $k, m \in \mathbb{N}$, f_{mk} is divisible f_m .*

Proof. Let $P(k)$ be the statement " f_{mk} is divisible f_m ." Let's first observe $P(1)$.

Base. $k = 1$. $f_{m(1)} = f_m = f_m \cdot 1$.

Successor. Assume $P(k)$. That is, f_{mk} is divisible f_m . Consider $f_{m(k+1)}$. $f_{m(k+1)} = f_{mk+m}$. By proposition 4.30, we can rewrite this as $f_{mk}f_{m-1} + f_{mk+1}f_m$. By induction, we have that $f_{mk} = f_m j$ for some $j \in \mathbb{Z}$. Hence, $f_m j f_{m-1} + f_{mk+1}f_m = f_m(jf_{m-1} + f_{mk+1})$. We have proven $P(k+1)$, and thus proven the proposition by induction. \square

Project 5.16. *Someone tells you that the following equalities are true for all sets A, B, C . In each case, either prove the claim or provide a counterexample.*

(i) $A - (B \cup C) = (A - B) \cup (A - C)$.

(ii) $A \cap (B - C) = (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$.

(i) Say $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $B = \{3, 4, 5\}$, and $C = \{1, 6, 7\}$. $A - (B \cup C) = \{2\}$. On the other hand, $(A - B) \cup (A - C) = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$. Thus, the claim does not hold

Proof. (ii) $A \cap (B - C)$ is the intersection between A and B not including the elements in B that are also in C . Suppose we have an $x \in A \cap (B - C)$, by definition of intersection, we know $x \in A$ and $x \in (B - C)$. If $x \in (B - C)$, by definition, $x \in B$ but $x \notin C$. Because $x \in A$, $x \in B$, and $x \notin C$, $x \in (A \cap B)$ and $x \notin (A \cap C)$. By definition of set subtraction, $x \in (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$. Thus, $A \cap (B - C) \subseteq (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$.

Now assume $x \in (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$. By definition, this means $x \in (A \cap B)$ and $x \notin (A \cap C)$. Because $x \in (A \cap B)$, this means $x \in A$ and $x \in B$ by definition of intersection. Because $x \in A$ but $x \notin (A \cap C)$, this means $x \notin C$. Because $x \in B$ but $x \notin C$, $x \in (B - C)$ by definition of set subtraction. Since we already know $x \in A$ and $x \in (B - C)$, we can conclude $x \in A \cap (B - C)$ by definition of intersection. Hence, $(A \cap B) - (A \cap C) \subseteq A \cap (B - C)$. Since $A \cap (B - C) \subseteq (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$

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and $A \cap (B - C) \subseteq (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$, we may conclude $A \cap (B - C) = (A \cap B) - (A \cap C)$. \square

Proposition 5.20. *Let A, B, C be sets.*

(i) $A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$.

(ii) $A \times (B \cap C) = (A \times B) \cap (A \times C)$.

Proof. (i) Let $x \in A \times (B \cup C)$. By definition, this means $x = (y, z)$ where $y \in A$ and $z \in (B \cup C)$. By definition of union, this means $z \in B$ or $z \in C$.

Case 1: $z \in B$. Since $y \in A$ and $z \in B$, $x \in (A \times B)$. Thus by definition of union $x \in (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$.

Case 2: $z \in C$. Since $y \in A$ and $z \in C$, $x \in (A \times C)$. Thus by definition of union $x \in (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$.

We've proven that in both cases $x \in (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$. Therefore, $A \times (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$.

Now let $x \in (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$. This means $x \in (A \times B)$ or $x \in (A \times C)$.

Case 1: $x \in (A \times B)$. This means $x = (y, z)$ where $y \in A$ and $z \in B$. By definition of union, because $z \in B$, $z \in (B \cup C)$. Because $y \in A$ and $z \in (B \cup C)$, $x \in A \times (B \cup C)$ By definition of \times .

Case 2: $x \in (A \times C)$. This means $x = (y, z)$ where $y \in A$ and $z \in C$. By definition of union, because $z \in C$, $z \in (B \cup C)$. Because $y \in A$ and $z \in (B \cup C)$, $x \in A \times (B \cup C)$ By definition of \times .

We've proven that in both cases $x \in A \times (B \cup C)$. Therefore, $(A \times B) \cup (A \times C) \subseteq A \times (B \cup C)$. Because $(A \times B) \cup (A \times C) \subseteq A \times (B \cup C)$ and $A \times (B \cup C) \subseteq (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$, $A \times (B \cup C) = (A \times B) \cup (A \times C)$ by mutual inclusion. \square

Proposition 6.6. (i) *Given an equivalence relation on A , its equivalence classes form a partition of A .*

(ii) *Conversely, given a partition Π of A , define \sim by $a \sim b$ if and only if a and b lie in the same element of Π . Then \sim is an equivalence relation.*

Proof. (i) Set $\Pi = \{[a] | a \in A\}$. Let's first argue every $a \in A$ is in some member of Π . Clearly $[a] \in \Pi$ and by proposition 6.4, $a \in [a]$. Hence every $a \in A$ lies in some $P \in \Pi$. By 6.5 for any $[a], [b] \in \Pi$ either $[a] = [b]$ or $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$. If $[a] \neq [b]$, then $[a] \cap [b] = \emptyset$, by 6.5. Thus Π is a partition.

(ii) We define $a \sim b$ if and only if $a, b \in P \in \Pi$. **Reflexivity:** Since a is in the same part of the partition as itself, $a \sim a$. **Symmetry:** If a

and b are in the same part $P \in \Pi$, then b and a are in the same part. Hence $a \sim b$ if and only if $b \sim a$. **Transitivity:** If a and b are in the same part $P \in \Pi$, and if b and c are in the same part $P \in \Pi$, then a and c are in the same part. Thus, $a \sim c$. \square

Proposition 6.18. (Division Algorithm for Polynomials). *Let $n(x)$ be a polynomial that is not zero. For every polynomial $m(x)$, there exist polynomials $q(x)$ and $r(x)$ such that*

$$m(x) = q(x)n(x) + r(x)$$

and either $r(x)$ is zero or the degree of $r(x)$ is smaller than the degree of $n(x)$.

Proof. By definition, $m(x) = a_d x^d + \cdots + a_0$. Let $P(d)$ be the statement " $m(x) = q(x)n(x) + r(x)$." Let's first observe $P(0)$.

Base. $d = 0$. This means $m(x) = a_0$. a_0 is a constant, so by proposition 6.13 (the division algorithm) we know that $a_0 = qn + r$ for constants $q(x) = q$, $n(x) = n$, and $r(x) = r$.

Successor. Assume $P(n)$ holds. That is, $m(x) = a_n x^n + \cdots + a_0 = q(x)n(x) + r(x)$. Consider $m(x) = a_{n+1}x^{n+1} + \cdots + a_0$. I'm unsure what to do from this point on. But we must apply induction to prove $P(n+1)$ holds. \square

Proposition 6.25. *If $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ and $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$ then $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{n}$ and $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{n}$.*

Proof. By definition, $a \equiv a' \pmod{n}$ means $a - a' = qn$, and $b \equiv b' \pmod{n}$ means $b - b' = rn$ for some $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$. If we add these equations together, we have $a - a' + b - b' = qn + rn$. We can rewrite this as $(a + b) - (a' + b') = (q + r)n$. By definition of \equiv , $a + b \equiv a' + b' \pmod{n}$.

Consider $ab - a'b'$. Adding and subtracting ab' , we have $ab + ab' - ab' - a'b' = a(b - b') + (a - a')b'$. Substituting, we have $a(rn) + (qn)b'$. This is equal to $n(ar + qb')$. Since, the expression is divisible by n , we can conclude $ab \equiv a'b' \pmod{n}$. \square

Sources.

<http://zimmer.csufresno.edu/sdelcroix/sol111home6.pdf>

<http://zimmer.csufresno.edu/sdelcroix/sol111home8.pdf>