

# Math 55 Spring 2016 Practice Midterm 1 Solutions

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80 minutes, closed book, closed notes

1. (3 pts each) True or False (and provide a brief one or two sentence explanation):

(a) The compound propositions

$$\neg p \rightarrow q$$

and

$$\neg p \vee \neg q$$

are logically equivalent.

Solution: False, the first expression is equivalent to  $p \vee q$ , which is different from the second expression (for instance, when  $p$  and  $q$  are both false).

(b) The compound proposition

$$(p \rightarrow F) \vee (p \rightarrow T)$$

is a tautology, where  $T$  and  $F$  are true and false.

Solution: This is a tautology, because the conditional  $p \rightarrow T$  is always true, and so its disjunction with any other proposition is also true.

(c) Every subset of the integers has a least element.

Solution: False.  $\mathbb{Z}$  itself does not.

(d) If  $A$  and  $B$  are uncountable then  $A \cup B$  is also uncountable.

Solution: True. Here is a proof of the contrapositive: suppose there is a bijection  $f : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow A \cup B$ . Then consider the function  $g : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow A$  where  $g(n)$  is the  $n^{\text{th}}$  element of the sequence  $f(1), f(2), \dots$  which is an element of  $A$ . It is then easy to check that  $g$  is a bijection so  $A$  must be countable, so in particular it is not the case that  $A$  and  $B$  are uncountable.

(A similar argument can be used to show that  $B$  is also countable, and this establishes the stronger statement that if  $A \cup B$  is countable then both  $A$  and  $B$  must be countable.)

2. (7 pts) Suppose  $A, B$ , and  $C$  are sets such that  $A \cap C = B \cap C$  and  $A \cup C = B \cup C$ . Can you conclude that  $A = B$ ? Give a proof or a counterexample.

Solution: Yes, you can.

*Proof.* We will first show that  $A \subseteq B$ . Assume  $x \in A$ . If  $x \in C$  then  $x \in A \cap C$  so  $x \in B \cap C$  and consequently  $x \in B$ . On the other hand, if  $x \notin C$  then since  $x \in A \cup C$  and  $A \cup C = B \cup C$  we have  $x \in B \cup C$ , so  $x$  must be an element of  $B$  or  $C$ , but since we have assumed  $x \notin C$  we must have  $x \in B$ . Since  $x \in B$  in both cases, we conclude that  $A \subseteq B$ .

A completely analogous argument shows that  $B \subseteq A$ , so  $A = B$ . □

3. (7 pts) Suppose  $A, B$ , and  $C$  are sets and  $f : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$  are functions such that  $g \circ f : A \rightarrow C$  is injective. Can you conclude that both  $f$  and  $g$  are injective? Give a proof or a counterexample.

Solution: No. For a counterexample, consider  $A = C = \{0, 1\}$ ,  $B = \{0, 1, 2\}$ ,  $f : A \rightarrow B$  by  $f(x) = x$ , and  $g : B \rightarrow C$  by  $g(0) = 0, g(1) = 1, g(2) = 1$ . Then  $g$  is not injective but the composition  $g \circ f$  is injective.

4. (7 pts) Prove that if  $x$  and  $y$  are integers and  $p$  is a prime such that  $xy$  and  $x + y$  are both divisible by  $p$ , then both  $x$  and  $y$  must be divisible by  $p$ .

*Proof.* Since  $p|xy$ , we know by Euclid's lemma that either  $p|x$  or  $p|y$ . If  $p$  divides  $x$ , then since  $p$  divides  $x + y$ , we can conclude that  $p$  must also divide  $x + y - x = y$ . Thus,  $p$  divides both  $x$  and  $y$ , as desired. The case  $p|y$  is completely analogous. □

Note: instead of using "completely analogous", I could also have begun the proof by saying "assume without loss of generality that  $p|x$ ", since the problem is completely symmetric in  $x$  and  $y$ , and I can assume I have named the numbers in a way that  $x$  is always divisible by  $p$ . See page 95 of the book for a more detailed discussion.

5. (7 pts) Prove that if  $n$  is an integer then  $n^2 \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{4}$ . Use this to show that if  $m = 4k + 3$  for some integer  $k$  then  $m$  cannot be written as the sum of the squares of two integers.

*Proof.* We will first show that  $n^2 \equiv 0$  or  $1 \pmod{4}$ . If  $n$  is even then there exists an integer  $k$  such that  $n = 2k$ . In this case,  $n^2 = 4k^2$ , which is always divisible by 4, so  $n^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{4}$ . If  $n$  is odd then there exists an integer  $k$  such that  $n = 2k + 1$ , in which case  $n^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1$ . Since the first two terms are divisible by 4 we have  $n^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$  in this case.

For the second part, let  $m = 4k + 3$  and assume for contradiction that  $m$  can be written as the sum of two squares, i.e.,

$$m = a^2 + b^2$$

for some integers  $a, b$ . By the first part of the question, we have<sup>1</sup>

$$a^2 + b^2 \equiv (a^2 \mathbf{mod} 4) + (b^2 \mathbf{mod} 4) \equiv 0 \text{ or } 1 \text{ or } 2 \not\equiv 3 \pmod{4},$$

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<sup>1</sup>For clarity I will use the boldface **mod** to denote the remainder operation.

which is absurd since  $m \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Thus, our assumption is false, and  $m$  cannot be written as the sum of two squares.  $\square$

6. (5 pts each) (a) Find an inverse of 5 modulo 13. (b) Compute the remainder when  $3^{16}$  is divided by 11.

Solution:

(a) We use the Euclidean algorithm to compute  $\gcd(13, 5)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}13 &= 2 \cdot 5 + 3 \\5 &= 1 \cdot 3 + 2 \\3 &= 1 \cdot 2 + 1.\end{aligned}$$

Reversing these equalities, we can express 1 as an integer linear combination of 5 and 13:

$$1 = 3 - 1 \cdot 2 = 3 - (5 - 1 \cdot 3) = 2 \cdot 3 - 5 = 2 \cdot (13 - 2 \cdot 5) - 5 = 2 \cdot 13 - 5 \cdot 5.$$

The inverse of 5 modulo 13 must be the coefficient of 5 in this linear combination, which is  $-5 \equiv 8 \pmod{13}$ .

Note that since 13 is prime it is also possible to calculate this inverse by appealing to Fermat's Little Theorem, which tells us it must be congruent to  $5^{11}$  modulo 13.

(b) Since 11 is prime and  $11 \nmid 3$ , Fermat's Little Theorem tells us that

$$3^{10} \equiv 1 \pmod{11}.$$

Thus,

$$3^{16} \equiv 3^{10} \cdot 3^6 \equiv 1 \cdot 9^3 \equiv (-2)^3 \equiv -8 \equiv 3 \pmod{11}.$$