

Integers and exponents

Definition. A set of real numbers is called an inductive set if

- (a) The number 1 is in the set.
- (b) For every x in the set, the number $x + 1$ is in the set also.

The set \mathbb{R}^+ of positive real numbers is an example of an inductive set. [The number 1 is in \mathbb{R}^+ because $1 > 0$. And if x is in \mathbb{R}^+ (so that $x > 0$), then $x + 1$ is in \mathbb{R}^+ (since $x + 1 > 1 > 0$).]

Definition. A real number that belongs to every inductive set is called a positive integer; such a number is necessarily positive because \mathbb{R}^+ is an inductive set.

Let P denote the set of positive integers. We prove some basic properties of this set.

Theorem 1. Every element of P is greater than or equal to 1.

Proof. We shall show that the set A of all real numbers greater than or equal to 1 is inductive. It then follows that every positive integer belongs to this set.

The number 1 belongs to the set A , since $1 \geq 1$. Suppose x belongs to the set A . Then $x \geq 1$; it follows that $x + 1 \geq 1 + 1 > 1$, so that $x + 1$ belongs to the set A . Thus A is inductive. \square

Theorem 2. 1 is in P.

Proof. 1 belongs to every inductive set (by definition of "inductive.") Hence 1 belongs to P (by definition of P). \square

Theorem 3. If x is in P, so is $x + 1$.

Proof. Suppose that x is a given element of P. Let I be an arbitrary inductive set. Then x is in I (by definition of P). Hence $x + 1$ is in I (by definition of "inductive"). Since I is arbitrary, $x + 1$ is in I for every inductive set I. We conclude that $x + 1$ is in P (by definition of P). \square

Theorem 4 (Principle of induction). Let S be a set of positive integers. If 1 is in S, and if for every x in S, $x + 1$ is also in S, then necessarily S contains every positive integer.

Proof. S is inductive, by hypothesis. Therefore every positive integer is in S, by definition of P. \square

Now we show that P is closed under addition and multiplication.

Theorem 5. If a and b are in P, so is $a + b$.

Proof. Let a be a fixed positive integer. Then we let S be the set of all positive integers b for which $a + b$ is a positive integer. We shall show that S contains all

positive integers; then the theorem is proved. We use the principle of induction.

The number 1 is in S, because $a + 1$ is a positive integer (by Theorem 3). Given an element b in S, we show that $b + 1$ is in S. Now $a + b$ is a positive integer by hypothesis; hence $(a+b) + 1$ is a positive integer by Theorem 3. Thus $a + (b+1)$ is a positive integer, so $b + 1$ belongs to S, by definition of S. Thus S is inductive. \square

Theorem 6. If a and b are in P, so is $a \cdot b$.

The proof is left as an exercise.

Definition. A number x is called an integer if it is 0, or is a positive integer, or is the negative of a positive integer. It is easy to see that the negative of any integer is an integer, since $-(-a) = a$ and $-0 = 0$.

Let Z denote the set of integers. We now show that Z is closed under addition, multiplication, and subtraction.

Closure under multiplication is easy, so we leave the proof as an exercise:

Theorem 7. If a and b are in Z, so is $a \cdot b$. \square

Closure under addition and subtraction are more difficult:

Theorem 8. If a and b are in Z, so are $a + b$ and $a - b$.

Proof. We proceed in several steps.

Step 1. We show that the theorem is true in the case where a is a positive integer and $b = 1$. That is, if a is a positive integer, we show that $a + 1$ and $a - 1$ are integers. That $a + 1$ is an integer (in fact, a positive integer) has already been proved. We prove that $a - 1$ is an integer, by induction on a . It is true if $a = 1$, since $a - 1 = 0$ if $a = 1$. Supposing it true for a , we prove it true for $a + 1$. That is, we show $(a+1) - 1$ is an integer. But that is trivial, since $(a+1) - 1 = a$, which is an integer by hypothesis (in fact, a positive integer).

Step 2. We show the theorem is true if a is any integer and $b = 1$.

We consider three cases. If a is a positive integer, this result follows from Step 1. If $a = 0$, the result is immediate, since

$$0 + 1 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 - 1 = -1.$$

Finally, suppose $a = -c$, where c is a positive integer. Then

$$a + 1 = -c + 1 = - (c-1),$$

$$a - 1 = -c - 1 = - (c+1).$$

Both $c - 1$ and $c + 1$ are integers, by Step 1; then $a + 1$ and $a - 1$ are also integers.

Step 3. We show the theorem is true if a is any integer and b is a positive integer.

We proceed by induction on b , holding a fixed. We know the theorem holds if $b = 1$, by Step 2. Supposing it holds for b , we show it holds for $b + 1$. That is, we show that $a + (b+1)$ and $a - (b+1)$ are integers. Now

$$a + (b+1) = (a+b) + 1,$$

$$a - (b+1) = (a-b) - 1.$$

Both $a + b$ and $a - b$ are integers, by the induction hypothesis; then Step 2 applies to show that $(a+b) + 1$ and $(a-b) - 1$ are integers.

Step 4. The theorem is true in general. Let a be any integer. The case where b is a positive integer was treated in Step 3, and the case where $b = 0$ is trivial. Consider finally the case where $b = -d$, where d is a positive integer. Then

$$a + b = a - d \quad \text{and} \quad a - b = a + d;$$

Step 3 applies to show that both $a - d$ and $a + d$ are integers. \square

Now we prove the "obvious" fact that if n is an integer, then $n + 1$ is the "next" integer after n :

Theorem 9. If n is in Z and $n < a < n+1$, then a is not in Z .

Proof. From the hypothesis of the theorem, it follows that

$$0 < a - n < 1.$$

If a were in Z , then $a - n$ would be an integer, by the preceding theorem. But 1 is the smallest positive integer, by Theorem 1. Therefore a is not in Z . \square

Now we define integral exponents.

Definition. Let a be any real number. We define a^n , when n is a positive integer, by induction, as follows. We define

$$a^1 = a,$$

and supposing a^n is defined, we define

$$a^{n+1} = a^n \cdot a.$$

Then a^n is defined for every positive integer n . The number n in this expression is called the exponent, and the number a is called the base.

Exponents satisfy three basic laws, which are stated in the following three theorems. They are called the laws of exponents.

Theorem 10. $a^n \cdot a^m = a^{n+m}$.

Proof. Let a and n be fixed. We prove the theorem "by induction on m ." The theorem is true for $m = 1$, since $a^n \cdot a^1 = a^n \cdot a = a^{n+1}$ by definition. Suppose it is true for m ; we show it is true for $m + 1$. It follows that it holds for all m . We have

$$a^n \cdot a^{m+1} = a^n \cdot (a^m \cdot a) \text{ by definition,}$$

$$= (a^n \cdot a^m) \cdot a \text{ by associativity of multiplication,}$$

$$= (a^{n+m}) \cdot a \text{ by the induction hypothesis,}$$

$$= a^{(n+m)+1} \text{ by definition,}$$

$$= a^{n+(m+1)} \text{ by associativity of addition.}$$

Thus the theorem is proved for $m + 1$, as desired. \square

Similar proofs hold for the following two theorems, whose proofs are left as exercises:

Theorem 11. $(a^n)^m = a^{nm}$. \square

Theorem 12. $a^n \cdot b^n = (a \cdot b)^n$. \square

Now we define negative exponents.

Definition. Let a be a real number different from zero. We define zero and negative exponents by the rules:

$$a^0 = 1,$$

$$a^{-n} = 1/(a^n) \text{ if } n \text{ is a positive integer.}$$

Theorem 13. The "laws of exponents" hold when n and m are arbitrary integers, provided a and b are non-zero.

The proof is left as an exercise.

Later on, (in Section G) we shall extend this definition to define "rational exponents"; that is, we shall define a^r when a is positive and r is rational. Still later (in Section M), we shall extend the definition still further to define a^x when a is positive and x is an arbitrary real number. In each of these cases, the same three laws of exponents will hold.

Exercises

1. Prove Theorems 6 and 7.
2. Prove Theorems 11 and 12.
3. Show that if a set A of integers is bounded above, then A has a largest element. [Hint: Use the least upper bound axiom.]
4. Let F be the set of all real numbers of the form $a + b\sqrt{2}$, where a and b are rational. Show that F is closed under addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Conclude that F is an "ordered field", that is, that F satisfies Axioms 1 - 9. Show that F does not contain $\sqrt{3}$.
5. Let n and m be positive integers; let a and b be non-zero real numbers. Let p be any integer. Given that the laws of exponents hold for positive integral exponents, prove them for arbitrary integral exponents as follows:
 - (a) Show $a^n a^{-m} = a^{n-m}$ in the three cases $n - m > 0$ and $n - m = 0$ and $n - m < 0$.
 - (b) Show $a^{-n} a^{-m} = a^{-n-m}$; and $a^0 a^p = a^p$.
 - (c) Show $(a^n)^{-m} = a^{-nm} = (a^{-n})^m$.
 - (d) Show $(a^{-n})^{-m} = a^{nm}$, and $(a^0)^p = (a^p)^0 = a^0$.
 - (e) Show $a^{-n} b^{-m} = (ab)^{-n}$, and $a^0 b^0 = (ab)^0$.

6. Let a and h be real numbers; let m be a positive integer. Show by induction that if a and $a + h$ are positive, then

$$(a+h)^m \geq a^m + ma^{m-1}h.$$

[Note: Be explicit about where you use the fact that a and $a + h$ are positive. Note that h is not assumed to be positive.]

We shall use this result later on.

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