

M521 HW1
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Problem 1.

Solution: Base Case (n=1): For $n = 1$, $\text{LHS} = 2(1) + 1 = 3$. $\text{RHS} = 3(1)^2 = 3$. Since $\text{LHS} = \text{RHS}$, the equation holds for $n = 1$.

Inductive Step: Assume that for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $(2k+1) + (2k+3) + \dots + (4k-1) = 3k^2$ is true.

We need to prove that the equation holds for $n = k + 1$:

$$(2(k+1) + 1) + (2(k+1) + 3) + \dots + (4(k+1) - 1) = 3(k+1)^2.$$

Consider the LHS for $n = k + 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= (2k+3) + (2k+5) + \dots + (4k+3) \\ &= [(2k+3) + (2k+5) + \dots + (4k-1)] + (4k+1) + (4k+3) \\ &= [(2k+1) + (2k+3) + \dots + (4k-1)] - (2k+1) + (4k+1) + (4k+3) \\ &= 3k^2 - (2k+1) + (4k+1) + (4k+3) \\ &= 3k^2 - 2k - 1 + 4k + 1 + 4k + 3 \\ &= 3k^2 + 6k + 3 \\ &= 3(k^2 + 2k + 1) \\ &= 3(k+1)^2 = \text{RHS} \end{aligned}$$

By mathematical induction, the equation $(2n+1) + (2n+3) + \dots + (4n-1) = 3n^2$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

□

Problem 2. Pell numbers

Solution: (a) Prove H_n is true

We will prove that H_n is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ using mathematical induction, where H_n is the statement " $P_n = f(n)$ and $P_{n-1} = f(n-1)$ ", and $f(n) = \frac{(1+\sqrt{2})^n - (1-\sqrt{2})^n}{2\sqrt{2}}$.

Base Case (n=1):

We check if H_1 is true, i.e., if $P_1 = f(1)$ and $P_0 = f(0)$. $f(1) = \frac{(1+\sqrt{2})^1 - (1-\sqrt{2})^1}{2\sqrt{2}} = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{2\sqrt{2}} = 1 = P_1$. $f(0) = \frac{(1+\sqrt{2})^0 - (1-\sqrt{2})^0}{2\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1-1}{2\sqrt{2}} = 0 = P_0$. Thus, H_1 is true.

Inductive Step:

Assume H_k is true for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. That is, assume $P_k = f(k)$ and $P_{k-1} = f(k-1)$.

We want to prove H_{k+1} , i.e., $P_{k+1} = f(k+1)$ and $P_k = f(k)$.

Using the Pell number recurrence relation: $P_{k+1} = 2P_k + P_{k-1}$.

By the inductive hypothesis, substitute $P_k = f(k)$ and $P_{k-1} = f(k-1)$:

$$P_{k+1} = 2f(k) + f(k-1) = 2 \frac{(1+\sqrt{2})^k - (1-\sqrt{2})^k}{2\sqrt{2}} + \frac{(1+\sqrt{2})^{k-1} - (1-\sqrt{2})^{k-1}}{2\sqrt{2}}.$$

Combining terms:

$$P_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \left[2(1+\sqrt{2})^k - 2(1-\sqrt{2})^k + (1+\sqrt{2})^{k-1} - (1-\sqrt{2})^{k-1} \right].$$

Factor out $(1+\sqrt{2})^{k-1}$ and $(1-\sqrt{2})^{k-1}$, and simplify:

$$\begin{aligned} P_{k+1} &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \left[(1+\sqrt{2})^{k-1}(2(1+\sqrt{2}) + 1) - (1-\sqrt{2})^{k-1}(2(1-\sqrt{2}) + 1) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \left[(1+\sqrt{2})^{k-1}(1+\sqrt{2})^2 - (1-\sqrt{2})^{k-1}(1-\sqrt{2})^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \left[(1+\sqrt{2})^{k+1} - (1-\sqrt{2})^{k+1} \right] \\ &= f(k+1). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $P_{k+1} = f(k+1)$. Hence, H_{k+1} is true.

By mathematical induction, H_n is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Therefore, $P_n = f(n)$ and $P_{n-1} = f(n-1)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. In particular, $P_n = f(n)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Since we verified $P_0 = f(0) = 0$ separately, we conclude $P_n = f(n)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$.

(b) Why is $|\lambda - \sqrt{2}|$ small?

We have $\lambda = \frac{P_8+P_9}{P_9} = 1 + \frac{P_8}{P_9}$.

From part (a), $P_n = \frac{(1+\sqrt{2})^n - (1-\sqrt{2})^n}{2\sqrt{2}}$.

For large n , since $|1 - \sqrt{2}| < 1$, $(1 - \sqrt{2})^n \approx 0$.

So, $P_n \approx \frac{(1+\sqrt{2})^n}{2\sqrt{2}}$ for large n .

Then

$$\frac{P_8}{P_9} \approx \frac{(1 + \sqrt{2})^8 / (2\sqrt{2})}{(1 + \sqrt{2})^9 / (2\sqrt{2})} = \frac{(1 + \sqrt{2})^8}{(1 + \sqrt{2})^9} = \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2} - 1}{2 - 1} = \sqrt{2} - 1.$$

Thus, $\frac{P_8}{P_9} \approx \sqrt{2} - 1$. Therefore,

$$\lambda = 1 + \frac{P_8}{P_9} \approx 1 + (\sqrt{2} - 1) = \sqrt{2}.$$

Hence, $|\lambda - \sqrt{2}|$ is small because λ is based on the ratio of consecutive Pell numbers, which for large indices approximates $\sqrt{2}$. More precisely, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\frac{P_n}{P_{n-1}} \rightarrow 1 + \sqrt{2}$, so $\frac{P_{n-1}}{P_n} \rightarrow \frac{1}{1+\sqrt{2}} = \sqrt{2} - 1$. For $n = 9$, $\frac{P_8}{P_9}$ is already a good approximation of $\sqrt{2} - 1$, making $\lambda = 1 + \frac{P_8}{P_9}$ a good approximation of $\sqrt{2}$. \square

Problem 3. $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$ is irrational.

Solution: Proof by Contradiction:

Assume, for contradiction, that $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$ is rational. Let $r = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$, where $r \in \mathbb{Q}$.
Square both sides of $r = \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$:

$$r^2 = (\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5})^2 = 7 + 2\sqrt{10}$$

Rearrange to isolate $\sqrt{10}$:

$$\sqrt{10} = \frac{r^2 - 7}{2}$$

Since $r \in \mathbb{Q}$, the expression $\frac{r^2 - 7}{2}$ is also rational. Thus, if $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$ is rational, then $\sqrt{10}$ must be rational.

We now prove by contradiction that $\sqrt{10}$ is irrational.

Assume $\sqrt{10}$ is rational, so $\sqrt{10} = \frac{p}{q}$ for integers p, q with $\gcd(p, q) = 1$ and $q \neq 0$.
Squaring both sides gives $10 = \frac{p^2}{q^2}$, so $p^2 = 10q^2$. This means p^2 is divisible by 10, hence divisible by 2 and 5. Since 2 and 5 are prime, p must be divisible by 2 and 5, so $p = 10k$ for some integer k . Substituting $p = 10k$ into $p^2 = 10q^2$:

$$\begin{aligned}(10k)^2 &= 10q^2 \\ 100k^2 &= 10q^2 \\ q^2 &= 10k^2\end{aligned}$$

This means q^2 is divisible by 10, and thus q is divisible by 10. So, both p and q are divisible by 10, contradicting $\gcd(p, q) = 1$. Therefore, $\sqrt{10}$ is irrational.

In conclusion: We have shown that, if $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$ is rational, then $\sqrt{10}$ is rational. However, we then proved that $\sqrt{10}$ is irrational. This is a contradiction. Therefore, our initial assumption that $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$ is rational is false.

Thus proves $\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{5}$ is irrational.

□

Problem 4 (Field properties).

Solution: (a) \mathbb{N} (Natural Numbers)

Field Properties:

- **Holds:** A1 (Additive Associativity), A2 (Additive Commutativity), M1 (Multiplicative Associativity), M2 (Multiplicative Commutativity), M3 (Multiplicative Identity: 1), DL (Distributive Law)
- **Fails:** A3 (No additive identity $0 \in \mathbb{N}$), A4 (No additive inverses), M4 (No multiplicative inverses except for 1)

Order Properties (O1–O5):

- **O1 (Trichotomy):** Holds. For any $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$, exactly one of $a < b$, $a = b$, or $a > b$ is true.
- **O2 (Antisymmetry):** Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ satisfy $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$. By O1 (trichotomy), if $a \neq b$, then either $a < b$ or $a > b$ would hold, contradicting one of the inequalities. Thus, the only possibility is $a = b$.
- **O3 (Transitivity):** Holds. If $a < b$ and $b < c$, then $a < c$.
- **O4 (Additive Compatibility):** Holds. If $a < b$, then $a + c < b + c$ for all $c \in \mathbb{N}$.
- **O5 (Multiplicative Compatibility):** Holds. If $a < b$ and $c > 0$, then $a \cdot c < b \cdot c$.

\mathbb{N} satisfies all order properties but is missing additive identity/inverses and multiplicative inverses.

(b) \mathbb{Z} (Integers)

Field Properties:

- **Holds:** A1, A2, A3 (Additive Identity: 0), A4 (Additive Inverses), M1, M2, M3 (Multiplicative Identity: 1), DL
- **Fails:** M4 (No multiplicative inverses except for ± 1)

Order Properties (O1–O5):

- **O1 :** Holds.
- **O2 :** Holds by the same argument as in \mathbb{N} : if $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$, then trichotomy forces $a = b$.
- **O3 :** Holds.
- **O4 :** Holds.
- **O5 :** Holds.

\mathbb{Z} does not satisfy M4.

(c) $\mathbb{B} = \{0, 1\}$ (**Binary Numbers**)

Field Properties: All field axioms hold:

- **A1** : For all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$, $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$
 - $(1 + 1) + 1 = 0 + 1 = 1 = 1 + 0 = 1 + (1 + 1)$
 - Similar for other combinations.
- **A2** : For all $a, b \in \mathbb{B}$, $a + b = b + a$
 - $0 + 0 = 0 = 0 + 0$
 - $0 + 1 = 1 = 1 + 0$
 - $1 + 1 = 0 = 1 + 1$
- **A3** : $0 \in \mathbb{B}$ satisfies $a + 0 = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{B}$
- **A4** : For each $a \in \mathbb{B}$, there exists $-a \in \mathbb{B}$ where:
 - $-0 = 0$ since $0 + 0 = 0$
 - $-1 = 1$ since $1 + 1 = 0$
- **M1** : For all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$, $(a \cdot b) \cdot c = a \cdot (b \cdot c)$
- **M2** : For all $a, b \in \mathbb{B}$, $a \cdot b = b \cdot a$
 - $0 \cdot 1 = 0 = 1 \cdot 0$
 - $1 \cdot 1 = 1$
- **M3** : $1 \in \mathbb{B}$ satisfies $a \cdot 1 = a$ for all $a \in \mathbb{B}$
- **M4** : For non-zero elements:
 - $1^{-1} = 1$ since $1 \cdot 1 = 1$
- **DL** : For all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{B}$, $a \cdot (b + c) = (a \cdot b) + (a \cdot c)$

Order Properties (O1–O5): Given $0 \leq 1$:

- **O1** : Holds. For $a, b \in \mathbb{B}$, exactly one of the following holds: $a < b$, $a = b$, or $a > b$.
- **O2** : If $a \leq b$ and $b \leq a$, then by the trichotomy property the possibilities $a < b$ or $a > b$ are ruled out, leaving only $a = b$.
- **O3** : Trivially holds (with only two elements, no nontrivial chain exists).
- **O4** : **Fails**. For example, $0 < 1$ but $0 + 1 = 1 \not\leq 1 + 1 = 0$.
- **O5** : Vacuously holds. The only $c > 0$ is 1, and $0 \cdot 1 = 0 < 1 \cdot 1 = 1$.

\mathbb{B} is a **field** but **not an ordered field** due to the failure of O4. □

Problem 5.**Solution:** (a) $0 < 1$.**Proof:**

Step 1: By the trichotomy property (O1), exactly one of the following holds: $0 < 1$, $0 = 1$, or $1 < 0$. Since $1 \neq 0$, we exclude $0 = 1$.

Step 2: Assume for contradiction that $1 < 0$. Add -1 to both sides:

$$1 + (-1) < 0 + (-1) \implies 0 < -1.$$

Step 3: Multiply $1 < 0$ by -1 (which is positive by Step 2):

By multiplicative compatibility : $1 \cdot (-1) < 0 \cdot (-1) \implies -1 < 0$. But Step 2 gives $0 < -1$, violating antisymmetry (O2). Hence, $1 < 0$ is false.

Conclusion: By trichotomy, $0 < 1$ must hold.

(b) If $0 < a < b$, then $0 < b^{-1} < a^{-1}$ for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

Step 1: Prove $a^{-1} > 0$ and $b^{-1} > 0$:

Suppose $a^{-1} \leq 0$. Since $a > 0$, multiplying $a^{-1} \leq 0$ by a gives: $a \cdot a^{-1} \leq 0 \implies 1 \leq 0$, contradicting $0 < 1$ (from part (a)). Thus, $a^{-1} > 0$. Similarly, $b^{-1} > 0$.

Step 2: Multiply $a < b$ by $a^{-1}b^{-1} > 0$:

By multiplicative compatibility : $a \cdot (a^{-1}b^{-1}) < b \cdot (a^{-1}b^{-1}) \implies b^{-1} < a^{-1}$.

Step 3: Combine results: From $b^{-1} > 0$ (Step 1) and $b^{-1} < a^{-1}$ (Step 2), we conclude by transitivity:

$$0 < b^{-1} < a^{-1}.$$

□

Problem 6.

Solution: (a) **Set** $A = [1, 2) \cup (3, \infty)$

- **Minimum:** 1 (since 1 is included in the interval $[1, 2)$).
- **Maximum:** Does not exist (the set is unbounded above).
- **Infimum:** $\inf A = 1$.
- **Supremum:** $\sup A = \infty$.

(b) **Set** $B = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} \mid r < 2\}$

- **Minimum:** Does not exist (no smallest rational number less than 2).
- **Maximum:** Does not exist (approaches 2 but never attains it).
- **Infimum:** $\inf B = -\infty$.
- **Supremum:** $\sup B = 2$.

(c) **Set** $C = \{r \in \mathbb{Q} \mid r^2 < 2\}$

- **Minimum:** Does not exist (approaches $-\sqrt{2}$ but never attains it in \mathbb{Q}).
- **Maximum:** Does not exist (approaches $\sqrt{2}$ but never attains it in \mathbb{Q}).
- **Infimum:** $\inf C = -\sqrt{2}$.
- **Supremum:** $\sup C = \sqrt{2}$.

(d) **Set** $D = \{\frac{1}{m} + n \mid m, n \in \mathbb{N}\}$

- **Minimum:** Does not exist (smallest term approaches 1 as $m \rightarrow \infty$, but 1 is not attained).
- **Maximum:** Does not exist (unbounded above as $n \rightarrow \infty$).
- **Infimum:** $\inf D = 1$.
- **Supremum:** $\sup D = \infty$.

(e) **Set** $E = \{\sqrt{2}, e, \pi\}$

- **Minimum:** $\sqrt{2}$
- **Maximum:** π
- **Infimum:** $\inf E = \sqrt{2}$.
- **Supremum:** $\sup E = \pi$.

(f) **Set** $F = \{2 - x^2 \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$

- **Minimum:** Does not exist (unbounded below as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$).
- **Maximum:** 2 (attained at $x = 0$).
- **Infimum:** $\inf F = -\infty$.
- **Supremum:** $\sup F = 2$.

□

Problem 7.

Solution: (a)

Statement: $a < b$ if and only if $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$.

Disprove: We will show that the statement is false by providing a counterexample.

($\not\Rightarrow$):

Consider for a counterexample: Let $a = 1$ and $b = 1$. Then $a < b$ is false, since $1 \not< 1$.

Since $\epsilon > 0$, we have $1 + \epsilon > 1$, so $1 < 1 + \epsilon$ is true for all $\epsilon > 0$.

Thus, for $a = 1$ and $b = 1$, the condition $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$ is true, but $a < b$ is false.

Therefore, the reverse implication is false, and the statement " $a < b$ if and only if $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$ " is false.

Counterexample: Let $a = 1$ and $b = 1$. Then $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$, but $a \not< b$.

(b)

Statement: $a \leq b$ if and only if $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$.

Proof:

(\Rightarrow)

Assume $a \leq b$.

Since $\epsilon > 0$, we know $b < b + \epsilon$.

If $a < b$, then $a < b < b + \epsilon$, so $a < b + \epsilon$.

If $a = b$, then $a = b < b + \epsilon$, so $a < b + \epsilon$.

In both cases, if $a \leq b$, then $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$. Therefore, the forward direction is true.

(\Leftarrow)

Assume $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$. Suppose for contradiction that $a > b$.

Let $\delta = a - b$. Since $a > b$, we have $\delta > 0$.

Choose $\epsilon = \frac{\delta}{2} = \frac{a-b}{2}$. Since $\delta > 0$, we have $\epsilon > 0$.

By our assumption, $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$, so it must be true for $\epsilon = \epsilon_0 = \frac{a-b}{2}$.

Thus,

$$a < b + \epsilon_0 = b + \frac{a-b}{2} = \frac{2b + a - b}{2} = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

So we have $a < \frac{a+b}{2}$. Multiplying both sides by 2 gives $2a < a + b$. Subtracting a from both sides gives $a < b$.

We started by assuming $a > b$ and derived $a < b$, which is a contradiction.

Therefore, we have $a \leq b$.

Therefore, the reverse direction is true.

Since both directions are true, the statement " $a \leq b$ if and only if $a < b + \epsilon$ for all $\epsilon > 0$ " is true. \square

Problem 8.

Solution: Let A and B be non-empty bounded subsets of \mathbb{R} , and define the set

$$A - B = \{a - b \mid a \in A, b \in B\}.$$

We aim to prove that

$$\sup(A - B) = \sup A - \inf B.$$

Step 1: Prove that $\sup(A - B) \leq \sup A - \inf B$

Let $x \in A - B$. Then there exist $a \in A$ and $b \in B$ such that

$$x = a - b.$$

Since $a \leq \sup A$ (as $\sup A$ is the least upper bound of A) and $b \geq \inf B$ (as $\inf B$ is the greatest lower bound of B), we obtain

$$x = a - b \leq \sup A - \inf B.$$

Since this holds for all $x \in A - B$, it follows that

$$\sup(A - B) \leq \sup A - \inf B.$$

Step 2: Prove that $\sup(A - B) \geq \sup A - \inf B$

We need to show that for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $x \in A - B$ such that

$$x > \sup A - \inf B - \epsilon.$$

Since $\sup A$ is the least upper bound of A , there exists $a' \in A$ such that

$$a' > \sup A - \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Similarly, since $\inf B$ is the greatest lower bound of B , there exists $b' \in B$ such that

$$b' < \inf B + \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Consider $x = a' - b'$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= a' - b' \\ &> \left(\sup A - \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) - \left(\inf B + \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \\ &= \sup A - \inf B - \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $x \in A - B$ such that $x > \sup A - \inf B - \epsilon$, which implies

$$\sup(A - B) \geq \sup A - \inf B.$$

Conclusion:

Since we have shown both

$$\sup(A - B) \leq \sup A - \inf B \quad \text{and} \quad \sup(A - B) \geq \sup A - \inf B,$$

it follows that

$$\sup(A - B) = \sup A - \inf B.$$

□

Problem 9.

Solution: (a)

The statement is **false**.

Counterexample: Let $C = [-2, -1]$ and $D = [3, 4]$.

Then:

$$\begin{aligned}\inf C &= -2 \\ \inf D &= 3 \\ (\inf C)(\inf D) &= (-2)(3) = -6\end{aligned}$$

However, for $M = \{cd \mid c \in C, d \in D\}$:

$$\inf M = (-2)(4) = -8$$

Since $\inf M \neq (\inf C)(\inf D)$, the statement is false.

(b)

The statement is **true**.

Proof: Assume $\sup C < \inf D$. Let $\alpha = \sup C$ and $\beta = \inf D$. Define $r = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2}$. Then:

$$\alpha < r < \beta$$

For all $c \in C$: $c \leq \sup C = \alpha < r$, so $c < r$.

For all $d \in D$: $d \geq \inf D = \beta > r$, so $r < d$.

Therefore, for all $c \in C$ and $d \in D$: $c < r < d$.

(c)

The statement is **true**.

Proof: Assume there exists $r \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $c < r < d$ for all $c \in C$ and $d \in D$. Let $\alpha = \sup C$ and $\beta = \inf D$.

Since $c < r$ for all $c \in C$, r is an upper bound of C , so $\alpha \leq r$.

Since $r < d$ for all $d \in D$, r is a lower bound of D , so $r \leq \beta$.

Therefore:

$$\alpha \leq r \leq \beta$$

Suppose, for contradiction, that $\alpha \geq \beta$. Then:

$$\alpha \geq \beta \geq r \geq \alpha$$

implying $\alpha = \beta = r$.

But then:

- Since $c < r$ for all $c \in C$, no element of C equals α
- Since $r < d$ for all $d \in D$, no element of D equals β

By definition of supremum, for any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $c_\epsilon \in C$ such that:

$$\alpha - \epsilon < c_\epsilon < \alpha$$

Similarly, there exists $d_\epsilon \in D$ such that:

$$\beta < d_\epsilon < \beta + \epsilon$$

As $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, both sequences approach r , making $d_\epsilon - c_\epsilon \rightarrow 0$. This contradicts the requirement of a non-zero gap between C and D implied by $c < r < d$.

Therefore, $\alpha < \beta$, i.e., $\sup C < \inf D$. □

Problem 10.

Solution: Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ with $a < b$. We will construct an irrational number $x \in \mathbb{I}$ such that $a < x < b$.

Consider the interval $(a - \sqrt{2}, b - \sqrt{2})$. Since $a < b$, we have $a - \sqrt{2} < b - \sqrt{2}$, so this interval is non-empty.

By the density of rational numbers in \mathbb{R} , there exists $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ such that

$$a - \sqrt{2} < r < b - \sqrt{2}$$

Let $x = r + \sqrt{2}$. We claim this x satisfies our requirements:

- (a) First, $x \in \mathbb{I}$: Since $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{I}$, their sum $x = r + \sqrt{2}$ must be irrational. (If it were rational, then $\sqrt{2} = x - r$ would be rational, a contradiction.)
- (b) Second, $a < x < b$: Adding $\sqrt{2}$ to each part of the inequality $a - \sqrt{2} < r < b - \sqrt{2}$ gives:

$$a - \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{2} < r + \sqrt{2} < b - \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{2}$$

which simplifies to

$$a < x < b$$

Therefore, we have constructed an irrational number $x \in \mathbb{I}$ such that $a < x < b$. □

Problem 11.

Solution: (a) For $\frac{n^2 + 3}{n^2 - 3}$:

Dividing numerator and denominator by n^2 :

$$\frac{n^2 + 3}{n^2 - 3} = \frac{1 + \frac{3}{n^2}}{1 - \frac{3}{n^2}} \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 + 3}{n^2 - 3} = 1$

(b) For $(-1)^n n$:

When n is even, the term is n . When n is odd, the term is $-n$. The sequence alternates between increasingly large positive and negative values. Therefore, the limit **does not exist**.

(c) For $\frac{4n + 2}{3 - 5n^2}$:

Dividing numerator and denominator by n^2 :

$$\frac{4n + 2}{3 - 5n^2} = \frac{\frac{4}{n} + \frac{2}{n^2}}{\frac{3}{n^2} - 5} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n + 2}{3 - 5n^2} = 0$

(d) For $\sqrt{n} - \sqrt{n - 1}$:

Rationalizing the numerator:

$$\sqrt{n} - \sqrt{n - 1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n} + \sqrt{n - 1}} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{n} - \sqrt{n - 1}) = 0$

(e) For $\sqrt{n^2 + n} - n$:

Rewriting as $n(\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} - 1)$ and using binomial expansion:

$$\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n}} \approx 1 + \frac{1}{2n} - \frac{1}{8n^2} + \dots$$

Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{n^2 + n} - n) = \frac{1}{2}$

(f) For $\frac{n!}{8^n}$:

Using Stirling's approximation:

$$\frac{n!}{8^n} \approx \left(\frac{n}{8e}\right)^n \sqrt{2\pi n}$$

Since $\frac{n}{8e} > 1$ for large enough n , this grows without bound. Therefore, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{8^n} = \infty$ \square

Problem 12.**Solution: (A)**

We will use the series expansion of the mathematical constant e to construct the sequence.

Recall that the number e is defined by the infinite series:

$$e = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots \quad (1)$$

It is a well-known fact that e is irrational. We define the sequence (q_n) as the n -th partial sum of the series for e :

$$q_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} = 1 + \frac{1}{1!} + \frac{1}{2!} + \dots + \frac{1}{n!} \quad (2)$$

Rationality of q_n :

Each term $\frac{1}{k!}$ is rational since both the numerator and denominator are integers.

A finite sum of rational numbers is rational.

Therefore, each q_n is rational.

Limit of q_n :

By the definition of e in equation (1), we have:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} = e$$

Since e is irrational, the limit is irrational.

In conclusion, the sequence $\{q_n\}$ consists of rational numbers and converges to the irrational number e .

(B)

We will construct a sequence converging to the rational number 1.

Define the sequence (p_n) by:

$$p_n = 1 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}, \quad \text{for } n \geq 1 \quad (3)$$

Proof. We will show that each p_n is irrational.

- Since $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational and n is a positive integer, $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}$ is irrational.¹
- Suppose, for contradiction, that p_n is rational for some n .

¹Dividing an irrational number by a non-zero integer yields an irrational number because if $\frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}$ were rational, then $\sqrt{2} = n \times (\text{rational})$ would be rational, which contradicts the irrationality of $\sqrt{2}$.

- Then $p_n - 1 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n}$ would be rational (since the difference of two rationals is rational).
- This implies that $\sqrt{2} = n(p_n - 1)$ is rational (product of an integer and a rational).
- This contradicts the fact that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.
- Therefore, our assumption is false, and p_n must be irrational for all n .

□

Limit of p_n :

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n} \right) \\
 &= 1 + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n} \\
 &= 1 + 0 \\
 &= 1
 \end{aligned}$$

The limit is the rational number 1.

Conclusion: The sequence $\{p_n\}$ consists of irrational numbers and converges to the rational number 1.

□