

## MAT240 Problem Set 3

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*Lemma 1.0:*  $3n^2 + 3n + 6$  is divisible by 6 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.*

We will use induction.

Base Case:  $n = 1$ .

$3 + 3 + 6 = 12 = 6(2)$  Thus, the base case is true.

Induction Hypothesis: If  $3n^2 + 3n + 6$  is divisible by 6, then

$3(n + 1)^2 + 3(n + 1) + 6$  is divisible by 6.

Inductive Step:

$$\begin{aligned} 3(n + 1)^2 + 3(n + 1) + 6 &= 3(n^2 + 2n + 1) + 3n + 3 + 6 \\ &= 3n^2 + 6n + 3 + 3n + 9 \\ &= 3n^2 + 3n + 6 + 6n + 6 \\ &= 6k + 6n + 6, \quad k \in \mathbb{N} \\ &= 6(k + n + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $3(n + 1)^2 + 3(n + 1) + 6$  is divisible by 6; thus,  $3n^2 + 3n + 6$  is divisible by 6 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

□

1. a)

*Proof.*

We will use induction.

Base Case:  $n = 1$ .

$1^3 + 5 = 6 = 6(1)$  Thus, the base case is true.

Induction Hypothesis: If  $n^3 + 5n$  is divisible by 6, then

$(n + 1)^3 + 5(n + 1)$  is divisible by 6.

Inductive Step:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (n+1)^3 + 5(n+1) &= n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1 + 5n + 5 \\
 &= n^3 + 5n + 3n^2 + 3n + 6 \\
 &= 6k + 3n^2 + 3n + 6, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z} \\
 &= 6k + 6j, \quad j \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ LEMMA 1.0}
 \end{aligned}$$

Then,  $(n+1)^3 + 5(n+1)$  is divisible by 6; therefore,  $n^3 + 5n$  is divisible by 6 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

□

b)

*Proof.*

We will use induction.

Base Case:  $n = 1$ .

$\sum_{k=1}^1 \frac{k}{2^k} = \frac{1}{2} = 2 - \frac{3}{2} = 2 - \frac{n+2}{2^n}$ . Thus, the base case is true.

Induction Hypothesis: If  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{2^k} = 2 - \frac{n+2}{2^n}$ , then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{k}{2^k} = 2 - \frac{(n+1)+2}{2^{n+1}}$$

Inductive Step:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{k}{2^k} &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{2^k} + \frac{n+1}{2^{n+1}} \\
 &= 2 - \frac{n+2}{2^n} + \frac{n+1}{2^{n+1}} \\
 &= 2 - \frac{2n+4}{2^{n+1}} + \frac{n+1}{2^{n+1}} \\
 &= 2 + \frac{n+1-2n-4}{2^{n+1}} \\
 &= 2 + \frac{-n-3}{2^{n+1}} \\
 &= 2 - \frac{(n+1)+2}{2^{n+1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{k}{2^k} = 2 - \frac{(n+1)+2}{2^{n+1}}$ ; therefore,  $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{2^k} = 2 - \frac{n+2}{2^n}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

□

c)

*Proof.*

Consider:

$$\begin{aligned}8 &= 3 + 5 \\9 &= 3(3) + 5(0) \\10 &= 3(0) + 5(2) \\11 &= 3(2) + 5 \\12 &= 3(4) + 5(0) \\13 &= 3 + 5(2) \\14 &= 3(3) + 5 \\15 &= 3(5) + 5(0) \\16 &= 3(2) + 5(2) \\17 &= 3(4) + 5\end{aligned}$$

Thus, integers from 8 to 17 can be expressed in the form  $3a + 5b$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ .

Now consider  $n \geq 18$ . Then,  $n - 8 \geq 10$ . Thus we can choose the largest (well-ordering principle)  $k \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$  such that  $10k \leq n - 8$ . If we take the difference between the two. Then  $n - 8 - 10k = j$ ,  $j \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ . Notice that if we add 8 to both sides we get  $n - 10k = z$ ,  $z \in \{8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17\}$ . But we know that this set of numbers can be expressed in the form  $3a + 5b$ . Thus, we can rewrite the equation as  $n = 3a + 5b + 10k = 3a + 5b + 5(2k) = 3a + 5(b + 2k)$ . Therefore, all numbers greater than 8 can be expressed in the form  $3a + 5b$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ . Hence, you are able to make any sum of rubles greater than equal to 8 with a non-negative integer sum of 3 ruble and 5 ruble bills.

Alternatively, assume that you cannot express  $n \geq 8$  in the form  $3a + 5b$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ . This contradicts the *Chicken McNugget Theorem*.

□

2. a)

*Proof.*

The largest sum you can make out of  $\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} + \frac{1}{n_3}$  is the sum of the largest  $\frac{1}{n_1}$ ,  $\frac{1}{n_2}$ , and  $\frac{1}{n_3}$  individually. This is trivial because for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , if  $y > z$ , then  $x + y > x + z$ . Since  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(n) = \frac{1}{n}$  is a monotone decreasing function for all  $n > 0$ , then the largest value it can take is at  $n = 1$ ; thus,  $f(1) = 1$ . Therefore, the supremum of  $S$  is 3 and it is in  $S$ , so it is also the maximum of  $S$ .

0 is a lower bound for  $S$  because a sum of 3 positive numbers is always greater than 0. We will now show that 0 is the greatest lower bound by assuming that there exists some  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\epsilon$  is a lower bound. But if we choose  $n_1, n_2$ , and  $n_3$  arbitrarily large such that  $\frac{1}{n_1}, \frac{1}{n_2}, \frac{1}{n_3} < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ . Thus  $\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2} + \frac{1}{n_3} < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon$ . Thus we created an element that is smaller than  $\epsilon$ , thus  $\epsilon$  cannot be a lower bound, making 0 the greatest lower bound. But since a sum of positive numbers can never be 0, 0 is not a minimum of  $S$ .

□

b)

*Proof.*

Consider  $f : [\frac{1}{2}, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x + \frac{1}{x}$ . Notice that  $T = f([\frac{1}{2}, 2])$ . We can choose  $a := 1 \in (\frac{1}{2}, 2]$ .  $f(a) = 2$ . Suppose that 2 is a lower bound to  $T$ . We will show this by proving that  $f(1 + \psi) > 2$ ,  $\forall \psi \in (0, 1]$  and  $f(1 - \phi) > 2$ ,  $\forall \phi \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ . If  $\psi \in (0, 1]$ , then  $\frac{\psi}{1+\psi} < \psi$  because the denominator on the left is greater than 1. But we can rewrite the inequality as:

$$\begin{aligned}\psi &> \frac{\psi + 1 - 1}{\psi} \\ &= \frac{1 + \psi}{1 + \psi} - \frac{1}{1 + \psi} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \psi} \\ \psi + \frac{1}{1 + \psi} &> 1\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $2 = 1 + 1 < 1 + \psi + \frac{1}{1+\psi}$ ,  $\forall \psi \in (0, 1]$ ; thus,  
 $f(1 + \psi) > 2$ ,  $\forall \psi \in (0, 1]$ . Now if  $\phi \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ , then  $\phi < \frac{\phi}{1-\phi}$ . This is  
because the denominator on the right is in  $(0, 1)$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} -\phi &> \frac{-\phi}{1-\phi} \\ &> \frac{-\phi + 1 - 1}{1-\phi} \\ &= \frac{1-\phi}{1-\phi} - \frac{1}{1-\phi} \\ &> 1 - \frac{1}{1-\phi} \\ -\phi + \frac{1}{1-\phi} &> 1 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $2 = 1 + 1 < 1 - \psi + \frac{1}{1-\psi}$ ,  $\forall \psi \in (0, \frac{1}{2})$ ; thus,  
 $f(1 + \psi) > 2$ ,  $\forall \psi \in (0, 1]$ . Therefore, 2 is less than equal to all  
elements in  $T$ , but 2 is the greatest element less than equal to all  
elements in  $T$ , making it a infimum. 2 is in  $T$ , so 2 is also a  
minimum.

To find the supremum we will show that  $f$  is strictly increasing on  
the interval  $(1, 2]$  and strictly decreasing on the interval  $[\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ . Then,  
we can take the  $\max\{f(q)\}$ ,  $q \in \partial[\frac{1}{2}, 2]$  (boundary of the interval).

To show that  $f$  is strictly increasing on the interval  $(1, 2]$ , we will  
take  $1 < a < b \leq 2$ . Because  $a, b > 1$ , then  $ab > 1$ . Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} b - a &> \frac{b-a}{ab} \\ &> \frac{b}{ab} - \frac{a}{ab} \\ &> \frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \\ b + \frac{1}{b} &> a \frac{1}{a} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f$  is strictly increasing on the interval  $(1, 2]$ .

To show that  $f$  is strictly decreasing on the interval  $[\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ , we will

take  $\frac{1}{2} \leq a < b < 1$ . Because  $0 < a < b < 1$ , then  $ab < 1$ . Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} b - a &< \frac{b - a}{ab} \\ &< \frac{b}{ab} - \frac{a}{ab} \\ &< \frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \\ b + \frac{1}{b} &< a + \frac{1}{a} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f$  is strictly decreasing on the interval  $(\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ . Because  $f$  strictly increases on the interval  $(1, 2]$  and strictly decreases on the interval  $(\frac{1}{2}, 1)$  then we can just take the maximum between the boundary  $f(\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{3}{2}$  and  $f(2) = \frac{3}{2}$ . But because in the actual set  $T$ ,  $f(\frac{1}{2})$  is not included in the set, but  $f(x)$ ,  $x \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$  is in the  $T$ , then  $\forall x \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ ,  $f(x) < \frac{3}{2}$  (because the function is decreasing on this interval). Since 2 is in  $T$ , then we can take  $f(2)$  as the maximum of  $T$  because it is equal to  $\frac{3}{2}$ . Because 2 is the maximum of  $T$ , 2 is also the supremum. (Consider that there is some supremum less than 2, well it would be less than 2, contradicting the fact that it is a supremum; thus, 2 is the least upper bound).

□

*Lemma 3.0:* There exists  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $0 < a + \sqrt{2}b < \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.*

We will use induction.

Base Case:  $n = 1$ ,  $0 < \sqrt{2}(1) - 1 < \frac{1}{1}$

$n = 2$ ,  $0 < \sqrt{2}(1) - 1 < \frac{1}{2}$  Thus, both base cases are true.

Induction Hypothesis: If  $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{Z} : 0 < a + \sqrt{2}b < \frac{1}{n}$ , then

$\exists c, d \in \mathbb{Z} : 0 < c + \sqrt{2}d < \frac{1}{n^2}$ .

Inductive Step: By the induction hypothesis  $0 < a + \sqrt{2}b < \frac{1}{n}$ , then

$0 < a^2 + 2b^2 + 2b\sqrt{2} < \frac{1}{n^2}$  because  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^2$  is an

increasing function on the interval  $(0, +\infty)$ . Thus if  $c := a^2 + 2b^2$

and  $d := 2b$ , then  $0 < c + \sqrt{2}d < \frac{1}{n^2}$ . Thus there exists  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such

that  $0 < a + \sqrt{2}b < \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $\forall n \in \{2^{2^k} : k \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . If we wanted

$0 < a + b\sqrt{2} < \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then for any  $n$  we can choose  $k$

sufficiently large such that  $n < 2^{2^k}$ . Thus, there exists

$0 < c + d\sqrt{2} < \frac{1}{2^{2^k}} < \frac{1}{n}$ . This is because if  $n < 2^{2^k}$  then  $\frac{1}{n} > \frac{1}{2^{2^k}}$ .

Therefore, there exists  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $0 < a + \sqrt{2}b < \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . □

3.

*Proof.*

Clearly, 0 is a lower bound to  $S$ ; thus, we will show that 0 is the greatest lower bound to  $S$ .

For the sake of contradiction assume that  $\inf(S) = \epsilon > 0$ . But, by *Lemma 3.0*, there exists  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that

$0 < a + \sqrt{2}b < \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Because we can choose  $n$  arbitrarily

large, we can choose  $n$  such that  $\frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$ . Thus, there exists  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$

such that  $0 < a + \sqrt{2}b < \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$ . This contradicts the fact that  $\epsilon$  is a lower bound of  $S$ . Therefore, the  $\inf(S) = 0$ . □

4.

*Proof.*

Trivially,  $A(0) = 0$ ,  $A(1) = 0$ ,  $A(2) = 0$ , and  $A(3) = 1$ . We want to prove that  $A(n) = \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Notice that we can show the ways we can make  $n$  as a sum of  $n_1, n_2, n_3$  by listing the ordered pairs in the set  $\{1, 2, \dots, n-1\} \times \{1, 2, \dots, n-2\}$ . For example,  $(a, b)$  in the set corresponds to  $n_1 := a$ ,  $n_2 := b$ ,  $n_3 := n - a + b$ .

Although, if  $a + b \geq n$  then there will  $n_3 < 1$ . We want to ensure that each  $n_i > 0$ ; thus, we will only permit elements  $(a, b)$  such that  $a + b \leq n$ . Consider that  $1 + j < n$  for all  $j < n - 2$ ; thus, there are  $n - 2$  elements  $(a, b)$  where  $a = 1$ .  $2 + j < n$  for all  $j < n - 3$ ; thus, there are  $n - 3$  elements  $(a, b)$  where  $a = 2$ . If we continue this process we will get a series of  $(n - 1) + (n - 2) + \dots + 2 + 1$ . We can rewrite this as  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i$ . But we know that  $\sum_{i=0}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ ; thus, by substituting  $n - 1$  into  $n$  we get  $\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}$  elements as desired. □



5. a)

*Proof.*

Because  $\binom{3^n}{\ell} = \frac{3^n(3^n-1)\cdots(3^n-\ell+1)}{\ell!}$  is an integer and the numerator has at least  $n$  multiples of 3 while  $\ell!$  has at most  $n-1$  multiples of 3,  $\ell!$  cannot divide out enough prime factors of 3; thus,  $\binom{3^n}{\ell}$  must be divisible by 3.

□

b)

*Proof.*

We will use induction on  $k$ .

Base Case:  $k = 0$ .  $\binom{3^n}{1}$  is divisible by 3 via question 5 a. Thus, the base case is true.

Induction Hypothesis: If  $\binom{3^n+k}{k+1}$  is divisible by 3, then  $\binom{3^n+k+1}{k+1+1}$  is divisible by 3.

Inductive Step:

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{3^n+k+1}{k+1+1} &= \binom{3^n+k}{k+1} + \binom{3^n+k}{k+1+1} \\ &= 3i + 3j, \quad i, j \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ by the induction hypothesis} \\ &= 3(i+j)\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\binom{3^n+k}{k+1}$  is divisible by 3.

□

c)

*Proof.*

We will start with  $\binom{3^n+k}{k+1}$ .

We will induct on  $k$ .

Base Case:  $k = 0$ .  $\binom{3^n}{0} = 1 \pmod{3}$ . Thus the base case is true.

Induction Hypthesis: If  $\binom{3^n+k}{k} = 1 \pmod{3}$ , then

$$\binom{3^n+k+1}{k+1} = 1 \pmod{3}.$$

Inductive Step:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \binom{3^n + k + 1}{k + 1} &= \binom{3^n + k}{k + 1} + \binom{3^n + k}{k} \\
 &= 0 + 1, \text{ by the induction hypothesis and 5 b} \\
 &= 1 \pmod{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now we will do  $\binom{3^{n+k}}{3^n}$ .

We will induct on  $k$ .

Base Case:  $k = 0$ .  $\binom{3^n}{3^n} = 1 \pmod{3}$ . Thus, the base case is true.

Induction hypothesis: If  $\binom{3^{n+k}}{3^n} = 1 \pmod{3}$ , then

$$\binom{3^{n+k+1}}{3^n} = 1 \pmod{3}.$$

Inductive Step:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \binom{3^n + k + 1}{3^n} &= \binom{3^n + k}{3^n} + \binom{3^n + k}{3^n - 1} \\
 &= 0 + 1, \text{ by the induction hypothesis and 5 b} \\
 &= 1 \pmod{3}
 \end{aligned}$$

□