

# Math55Hw7

Trustin Nguyen

October 2022

## 5.1: 3, 4, 10, 18, 28, 32, 49, 54x, 62x, 64, 76x.

**Exercise 3:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement that  $1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{6}$  for the positive integer  $n$ .

- a) What is the statement  $P(1)$ ?

$P(1)$  is the statement that  $1^2 = \frac{(1)(2)(3)}{6}$

- b) Show that  $P(1)$  is true, completing the basis step of a proof that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$

$$1^2 = \frac{(1)(2)(3)}{6}$$
$$1 = 1$$

So  $P(1)$  is true.

- c) What is the inductive hypothesis of a proof that  $P(n)$  is true for all integers  $n$ ?

The inductive hypothesis is that  $1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + k^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{6}$  for some arbitrary  $k$ .

- d) What do you need to prove in an inductive step of a proof that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ ?

You need to prove  $P(k+1)$  using the inductive hypothesis.

- e) Complete the inductive step of a proof that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ , identifying where you use the inductive hypothesis.

*Proof.* Suppose  $k$  is arbitrary and  $P(k)$  is true. Then

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + k^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{6}$$

Now observe:

$$\begin{aligned}
 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + (k+1)^2 &= \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} + (k+1)^2 \\
 &= (k+1) \left( \frac{k(2k+1)}{6} + k+1 \right) \\
 &= (k+1) \left( \frac{2k^2 + 7k + 6}{6} \right) \\
 &= (k+1) \left( \frac{(2k+3)(k+2)}{6} \right) \\
 &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2(k+1)+1)}{6}
 \end{aligned}$$

So  $P(k+1) = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2(k+1)+1)}{6}$  as desired.  $\square$

- f) Explain why these steps show that that this formula is true whenever  $n$  is a positive integer.

Since  $P(1)$  and  $P(k+1)$ , then  $P(2)$ . Since  $P(2)$ ,  $P(3)$ , and so on. This shows that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers.

**Exercise 4:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement that  $1^3 + 2^3 + \dots + n^3 = \left( \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right)^2$  for the positive integer  $n$ .

- a) What is the statement  $P(1)$ ?

The statement is that  $1^3 = \left( \frac{1(1+1)}{2} \right)^2$

- b) Show that  $P(1)$  is true completing the basis step of  $P(n)$  for all positive integers  $n$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 1^3 &= \left( \frac{1(2)}{2} \right)^2 \\
 &= (1)^2
 \end{aligned}$$

So  $P(1)$  is true.

- c) What is the inductive hypothesis of a proof that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ ?

The inductive hypothesis is that  $1^3 + 2^3 + \dots + k^3 = \left( \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \right)^2$  for some arbitrary  $k$ .

- d) What do you need to prove in the inductive step of a proof that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ ?

You would need to prove that  $P(k+1)$  is true from the inductive hypothesis.

- e) Complete the inductive step of a proof that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ , identifying where you use the inductive hypothesis.

*Proof.* Let  $k$  be arbitrary and  $P(k)$  is true. Then

$$1^3 + 2^3 + \dots + k^3 = \left( \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \right)^2$$

Now for  $P(k+1)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 1^3 + 2^3 + \dots + (k+1)^3 &= \left( \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \right)^2 + (k+1)^3 \\ &= \left( \frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4} \right) + (k+1)^3 \\ &= (k+1)^2 \left( \frac{k^2}{4} + (k+1) \right) \\ &= (k+1)^2 \left( \frac{k^2 + 4k + 4}{4} \right) \\ &= (k+1)^2 \left( \frac{(k+2)^2}{4} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $P(k+1) = \left( \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} \right)^2$  as desired. □

- f) Explain why these steps show that this formula is true whenever  $n$  is a positive integer.

Since  $P(1)$  and  $P(k+1)$ , then  $P(2)$ . Since  $P(2)$ ,  $P(3)$ , and so on. This shows that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers.

**Exercise 10:**

- a Find a formula for

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n(n+1)}$$

by examining the values of this expression for small values of  $n$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} &= \frac{1}{2}, \\ \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} &= \frac{3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} = \frac{2}{3}, \\ \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} &= \frac{12}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \frac{4}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} + \frac{2}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4} = \frac{3}{4}\end{aligned}$$

Inductive hypothesis:  $P(n) : \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n(n+1)} = \frac{n}{n+1}$

b) Prove the formula you conjectured in part (a).

*Proof.* Basis step: Observe that

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

So  $P(1)$  holds.

Inductive Step: Suppose  $k$  is arbitrary and assume that  $P(k)$  is true. Then

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \dots + \frac{1}{k(k+1)} = \frac{k}{k+1}$$

Adding  $\frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)}$  to both sides,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \dots + \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} &= \frac{k}{k+1} + \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} \\ &= \frac{k(k+2)}{(k+1)(k+2)} + \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} \\ &= \frac{k^2 + 2k + 1}{(k+1)(k+2)} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)^2}{(k+1)(k+2)} \\ &= \frac{k+1}{k+2}\end{aligned}$$

since  $\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \dots + \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} = \frac{k+1}{k+2}$ ,  $P(k+1)$  is true as desired.  $\square$

Use mathematical induction to prove the inequalities in Exercises 18-30.

**Exercise 18:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement that  $n! < n^n$ , where  $n$  is an integer greater than 1.

a) What is the statement  $P(2)$ ?

The statement  $P(2)$  is that  $x! < 2^2$

b) Show that  $P(2)$  is true completing the basis step of a proof by mathematical induction that  $P(n)$  is true for all integers  $n$  greater than 1.

Since  $2! = 2 < 2^2 = 4$ ,  $P(2)$  holds.

c) What is the inductive hypothesis for a proof by mathematical induction that  $P(n)$  for all integers  $n$  greater than 1?

The inductive hypothesis is that  $k! < k^k$  for some arbitrary integer  $k$  greater than 1.

d) What do you need to prove in the inductive step of a proof by mathematical induction that  $P(n)$  is true for all integers  $n$  greater than 1.

You would need to prove that  $P(k+1)$  is true from the inductive hypothesis. That is, that  $(k+1)! < (k+1)^{(k+1)}$ .

e) Complete the inductive step of a proof by mathematical induction that  $P(n)$  is true for all integers  $n$  greater than 1.

*Proof.* Suppose that  $k$  is arbitrary integer greater than 1 and that the inequality  $k! < k^k$  holds. We wish to show that  $(k+1)! < (k+1)^{(k+1)}$ . Multiply both sides by  $k+1$ . Since  $k+1 > 0$ , we have:

$$\begin{aligned} k! &< k^k \\ (k+1)! &< k^k(k+1) \end{aligned}$$

But now observe that:

$$\begin{aligned} (k+1) &> k \\ (k+1)^k &> k^k \\ (k+1)^k(k+1) &> k^k(k+1) \\ (k+1)^{(k+1)} &> k^k(k+1) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$(k+1)! < k^k(k+1) < (k+1)^{(k+1)}$$

So the statement  $(k+1)! < (k+1)^{(k+1)}$  is true, as desired.  $\square$

f) Explain why these steps show that the inequality is true whenever  $n$  is an integer greater than 1.

Since we have show that  $P(2)$  is true and the if  $P(k)$  is true,  $P(k+1)$  is true, we can conclude that the inequality holds for  $P(3)$ ,  $P(4)$ ,  $\dots$ , and so on. So the inequality is true for all natural numbers greater than 1.

**Exercise 28:** Prove that  $n^2 - 7n + 12$  is non-negative when  $n$  is an integer with  $n \geq 3$ .

*Proof.* We will prove that  $n^2 - 7n + 12 \geq 0$  for  $n \geq 3$  by induction.

Basis Step: We need to show that the statement holds for our base case of 3:

$$3^2 - 7(3) + 12 = 9 - 21 + 12 = 0 \geq 0$$

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is an arbitrary integer greater than or equal to 3. Suppose that  $k^2 - 7k + 12 \geq 0$  is true. We wish to show that  $(k+1)^2 - 7(k+1) + 12 \geq 0$ . Note the expression  $(k+1)^2 - 7(k+1) + 12$  expanded:

$$k^2 + 2k + 1 - 7k - 7 + 12 = k^2 - 5k + 6$$

Now consider the expression  $2k - 6$  or  $2(k - 3)$ . Observe that the expression is positive when

$$\begin{aligned} k - 3 &\geq 0 \\ k &\geq 3 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $k$  is indeed greater than or equal to 3, we have the inequalities:

$$\begin{aligned} k^2 - 7k + 12 &\geq 0 \\ 2k - 6 &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

Adding the inequalities, we get

$$\begin{aligned} k^2 - 7k + 12 + (2k - 6) &\geq 0 \\ (k+1)^2 - 7(k+1) + 12 &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

as desired. □

Use mathematical induction in Exercises 31-37 to prove divisibility facts.

**Exercise 32:** Prove that 3 divides  $n^3 + 2n$  whenever  $n$  is a positive integer.

*Proof.* Basis Step: We must show that 3 divides  $n^3 + 2n$  for  $n = 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 1^3 + 2(1) &= 3 \\ \text{Indeed, } 3 &| 3 \end{aligned}$$

Inductive Step: Suppose  $k$  is an arbitrary positive integer and that 3 divides  $k^3 + 2k$ . Since 3 divides  $k^3 + 2k$ , let  $k^3 + 2k = 3a$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ . We must show that 3 also divides  $(k+1)^3 + 2(k+1)$ . Observe that:

$$\begin{aligned}(k+1)^3 + 2(k+1) &= k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1 + 2k + 2 \\ &= k^3 + 3k^2 + 5k + 3 \\ &= k^3 + 2k + 3(k^2 + k + 1) \\ &= 3a + 3(k^2 + k + 1) \\ &= 3(k^2 + k + 1 + a)\end{aligned}$$

So  $(k+1)^3 + 2(k+1)$  is also divisible by 3, as desired.  $\square$

Exercise 49-51 present incorrect proofs using mathematical induction. You will need to identify an error in reasoning in each exercise.

**Exercise 49:** What is wrong with this "proof" that all horses are the same color?

*Proof.* Let  $P(n)$  be the proposition that all horses in a set of  $n$  horses have the same color.

*Basis Step:* Clearly,  $P(1)$  is true.

*Inductive Step:* Assume that  $P(k)$  is true, so that all horses in a set of  $k$  horses are the same color. Consider  $k+1$  horses; number these as horses  $1, 2, \dots, k, k+1$ . Now the first  $k$  of these horses must have the same color. The last  $k$  of this must also have the same color. Because the set of the first  $k$  horses and the last  $k$  horses overlap, all  $k+1$  must be the same color. This shows that  $P(k+1)$  is true and finishes the proof by induction.  $\square$

This is incorrect since the definition of  $P(n)$  is incorrect. The proposition that is to be tested is that " $n$  horses have the same color." If this definition was used, we cannot conclude that the last  $k$  horses all have the same color since we only know the color of the first  $k$  horses.

**Exercise 54x:** Use mathematical induction to prove that given a set of  $n+1$  positive integers, none exceeding  $2n$ , there exists one integer in this set that divides another integer in the set.

*Proof.* We will proceed by induction:

*Basis Step:* We must show that given as a set of 2 positive integers, none exceeding 2, that there is an integer that divides another in the set.

There are 3 possible sets:  $\{1,1\}$   $\{1,2\}$   $\{2,2\}$

By cases, we have verified the base case:  $1|1$   $1|2$   $2|2$

*Inductive Step:* Assume that  $k$  is an arbitrary positive integer. Suppose that a set of  $k + 1$  positive integers, none exceeding  $2k$  has an integer that divides another in the set. We must show that a set of  $k + 2$  positive integers, none exceeding  $2k + 2$  has an integer that divides another in the set.

We can list all possible sets of  $k + 1$  elements less than  $2k$  such that there is an element in the set that divides another:

$$\begin{aligned} K_1 &= \{k_{1_1}, k_{1_2}, \dots, k_{1_{k+1}}\} \\ K_2 &= \{k_{2_1}, k_{2_2}, \dots, k_{2_{k+1}}\} \\ &\vdots \\ K_n &= \{k_{n_1}, k_{n_2}, \dots, k_{n_{k+1}}\} \end{aligned}$$

Notice that  $2k + 1, 2k + 2 \notin K_1, K_2, \dots, K_n$ . Now construct all  $K_{i_{2k+1}}$  and  $K_{i_{2k+2}}$  which is defined by adding by adding the element  $2k + 1$  to the set  $K_i$  and  $2k + 2$  to the set  $K_i$  ( $1 \leq i \leq n$ ). Observe that all possible sets of  $k + 2$  elements can either be in the form  $K_{i_{2k+1}}$  or  $K_{i_{2k+2}}$  or have 2 or more elements that are in the form  $2k + 1$  or  $2k + 2$ .

Case 1: They have two or more elements of the form  $2k + 1$  or  $2k + 2$ . Since  $2k + 1 | 2k + 1$  and  $2k + 2 | 2k + 2$ , we have shown that an element in the set divides another in the same set.

Case 2: Suppose the set is  $K_{i_{2k+1}}$  or  $K_{i_{2k+2}}$ . Consider only one set without loss of generality. Then it follows that since  $K_i$  has an element that divides another in the set, and  $K_i \subseteq K_{i_{2k+1}}$ , the same holds for  $K_{i_{2k+1}}$ .

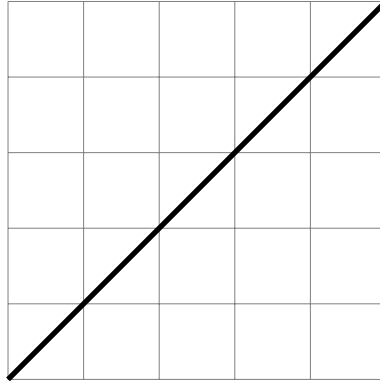
For both cases, we reached the conclusion that a set with  $k + 2$  positive integers no greater than  $2k + 2$  has an element that divides another element in the set, as desired.  $\square$

**Exercise 62x:** Show that  $n$  lines separate the plane into  $\frac{n^2 + n + 2}{2}$  regions if no two are parallel and no three pass through the same point.

*Proof.* If no two lines are parallel, and no three intersect at a point, then each pair of lines has 1 intersection point.

Basis Step: Observe that for 1 line we have 2 regions:

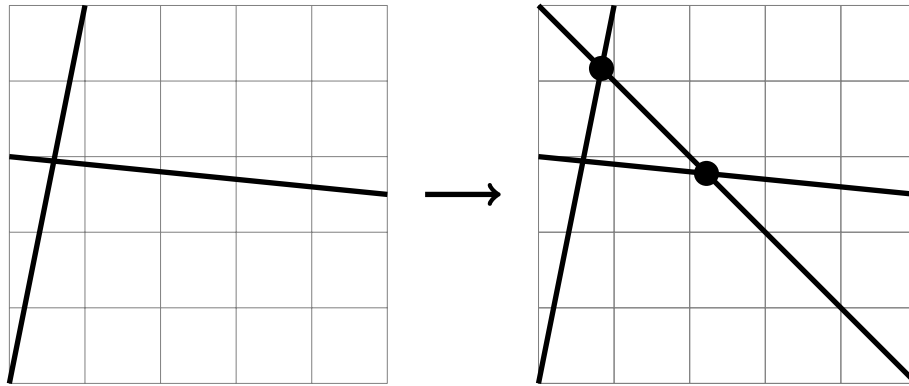




And  $\frac{1^2 + 1 + 2}{2} = \frac{4}{2} = 2$ .

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is an arbitrary positive integer and that  $k$  lines separate a plane into  $\frac{k^2 + k + 2}{2}$  regions if no two are parallel and no three pass through the same point. We must show that for  $k + 1$  lines, there will be  $\frac{(k + 1)^2 + (k + 1) + 2}{2}$  regions.

Observe that when an arbitrary line  $k'$  is added to the  $k$  lines, it must intersect each of the  $k$  lines once. So there will be  $k$  intersection points on our new line  $k'$ .



Since the line  $k'$  is divided into  $k + 1$  segments by the intersection points,  $k'$  must have run through  $k + 1$  regions. But by our basis step, a region divided by a single line yields two regions. So with  $k + 1$  regions divided, our plane with

$k'$  has  $k + 1$  more regions than the plane without  $k'$ :

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

We have the expected formula for a plane with  $k + 1$  lines as desired.  $\square$

**Exercise 64:** Use mathematical induction to prove Lemma 3 of Section 4.3 which states that if  $p$  is prime and  $p|a_1a_2\ldots a_n$ , where  $a_i$  is an integer for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$ , the  $p|a_i$  for some integer  $i$ .

*Proof.* We will proceed by mathematical induction.

Basis Step: We must show that  $p|a_1$  implies that  $p|a_i$  for some  $i = 1$ . And indeed,  $p|a_i$  for  $i = 1$ .

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is some arbitrary positive integer and that  $p|a_1a_2\ldots a_k$  means that  $p|a_i$  for some  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k$ . We must show that  $p|a_1a_2\ldots a_{k+1}$  implies that  $p|a_i$  for some  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k + 1$ . For  $p|a_1a_2\ldots a_{k+1}$ , we have two cases.

Case 1:  $p|a_1a_2\ldots a_k$ . Then  $p|a_1a_2\ldots a_{k+1}$  and  $p|a_i$  for  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k + 1$ .

Case 2:  $p \nmid a_1a_2\ldots a_k$ . Thus,  $bp + r = a_1a_2\ldots a_k$  for some  $b \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  and  $0 < r < p$ . Observe:

$$\begin{aligned}bp + r &= a_1a_2\ldots a_k \\ a_{k+1}bp + a_{k+1}r &= a_1a_2\ldots a_{k+1}\end{aligned}$$

Now suppose that  $p|a_1a_2\ldots a_{k+1}$ . Then  $cp = a_1a_2\ldots a_{k+1}$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ . So

$$\begin{aligned}a_{k+1}bp + a_{k+1}r &= cp \\ a_{k+1}bp - cp &= -a_{k+1}r \\ p(a_{k+1}b - c) &= -a_{k+1}r\end{aligned}$$

So  $p|-a_{k+1}r$ . Since  $p \nmid r$ ,  $p|a_{k+1}$ . We conclude that  $p|a_i$  for some  $i = 1, 2, \ldots, k + 1$ . Both cases give us our desired statement.  $\square$

**Exercise 76x:** Suppose we want to prove that

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2n-1}{2n} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3n}}$$

for all positive integers  $n$ .

- a) Show that if we try to prove this inequality with mathematical induction, the basis step works, but the inductive step fails.

Basis Step: We need to verify that  $\frac{1}{2} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$ . Multiplying both sides by  $2\sqrt{3}$ , we get  $\sqrt{3} < 2$  which is true.

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is an arbitrary positive integer and that  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k-1}{2k} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k}}$ . We must show that  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+3}}$ .

Observe that:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} &< \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k}} \cdot \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} &< \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{12k^3 + 24k^2 + 12k}} \end{aligned}$$

But:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{12k^3 + 24k^2 + 12k}} &> \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{12k^3 + 24k^2 + 15k + 3}} = \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{(3k+3)(2k+1)^2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+3}} \end{aligned}$$

So:

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} ? \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+3}} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k}} \cdot \frac{2k+1}{2k+2}$$

We cannot complete the proof since we still do not know if  $\prod_{i=0}^k \frac{2j+1}{2j+2}$  is less than, greater than, or equal to  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+3}}$ .

- b) Show that mathematical induction can be used to prove the stronger inequality

$$\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2n-1}{2n} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3n+1}}$$

For all integers greater than 1, which, together with the verification of the case where  $n = 1$ , establishes the weaker inequality we originally tried to prove using mathematical induction.

*Proof.* Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is an arbitrary positive integer and that  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k-1}{2k} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+1}}$ . We must show that  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+4}}$ .

Observe that:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} &< \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+1}} \cdot \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} &< \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{(3k+1)(2k+2)^2}} \\ \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} &< \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{12k^3 + 28k^2 + 20k + 4}} < \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{12k^3 + 28k^2 + 19k + 4}} \\ \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} &< \frac{2k+1}{\sqrt{(3k+4)(2k+1)^2}} \\ \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdots \frac{2k+1}{2k+2} &< \frac{1}{\sqrt{3k+4}} \end{aligned}$$

We have concluded the desired statement.  $\square$

## 5.2: 9, 38x

**Exercise 9:** Use strong induction to prove that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational. [*Hint:* Let  $P(n)$  be the statement that  $\sqrt{2} \neq \frac{n}{b}$  for any positive integer  $b$ .

*Proof.* Basis Step: We must show that  $\sqrt{2} \neq \frac{1}{b}$ . Since  $\sqrt{2} = 1.41 \dots$  we have  $1 < \sqrt{2}$ . Since  $\frac{1}{b} < 1$ ,  $\sqrt{2} \neq \frac{1}{b}$ .

Inductive Step: Let  $b$  be positive and an arbitrary integer. Suppose that for  $1, 2, \dots, k$ ,  $\sqrt{2} \neq \frac{k}{b}$ . We must show that  $\sqrt{2} \neq \frac{k+1}{b}$ . We have three cases.

Case 1: Suppose that  $k+1$  is odd. Suppose for contradiction that  $\sqrt{2} = \frac{k+1}{b}$ .

Then it follows that:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{k+1}{b} &= \sqrt{2} \\ (k+1)^2 &= 2b^2\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $(k+1)^2$  is even. Contradiction.  $\frac{k+1}{b} \neq \sqrt{2}$ .

Case 2:  $k+1$  is even and  $b > k$ . But that means that:

$$\begin{aligned}b &\geq k+1 \\ 1 &\geq \frac{k+1}{b}\end{aligned}$$

We conclude that  $\frac{k+1}{b} \neq \sqrt{2}$ .

Case 3:  $k+1$  is even and  $b \leq k$ . We know that  $\frac{1}{b}, \frac{2}{b}, \dots, \frac{k}{b} \neq \sqrt{2}$ . So that implies that:

$$\begin{aligned}b, \frac{b}{2}, \dots, \frac{b}{k} &\neq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 2b, \frac{2b}{2}, \dots, \frac{2b}{k} &\neq \sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

Let use begin by listing out all rationals that we have not equal to  $\sqrt{2}$  in an array.

$$\begin{array}{cccc}1/1 & 2/1 & \dots & k/1 \\ 1/2 & 2/2 & \dots & k/2 \\ 1/3 & 2/3 & \dots & k/3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots\end{array}$$

We can impose these computations to create a new array that also has elements not equal to  $\sqrt{2}$ . First, we take the reciprocal of all elements and reorganize:

$$\begin{array}{cccc}1/1 & 2/1 & 3/1 & \dots \\ 1/2 & 2/2 & 3/2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \\ 1/k & 2/k & 3/k & \dots\end{array}$$

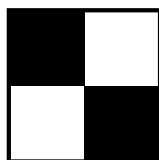
Then we multiply all elements by 2.

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 2/1 & 4/1 & 6/1 & \dots \\ 2/2 & 4/2 & 6/2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \\ 2/k & 4/k & 6/k & \dots \end{array}$$

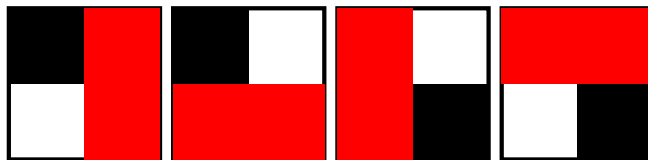
This is an array showing that all even numerator fractions are not equal to  $\sqrt{2}$  such that our denominator  $b$  is less than or equal to  $k$ , as desired.  $\square$

**Exercise 38x** Use mathematical induction to show that a rectangular checkerboard with an even number of cells and two squares missing, one white and one black, can be covered by dominoes.

*Proof.* We will proceed by induction. Base case: The smallest, even celled checkerboard is a  $2 \times 2$ :



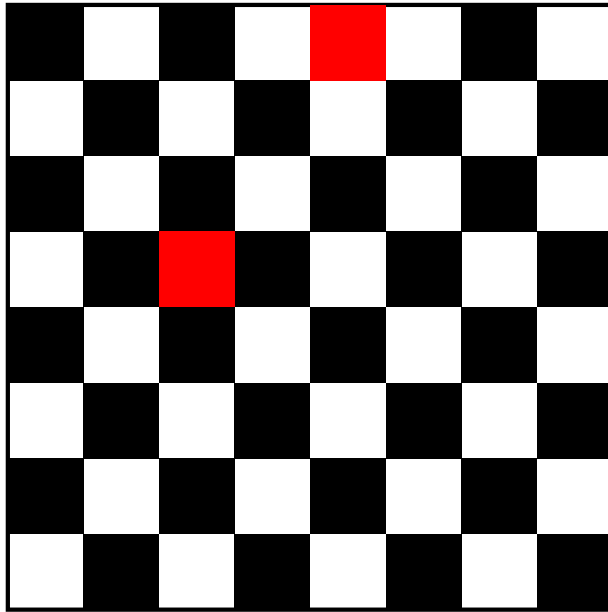
We have 4 cases of checkerboards with 2 squares removed, one white, one black:



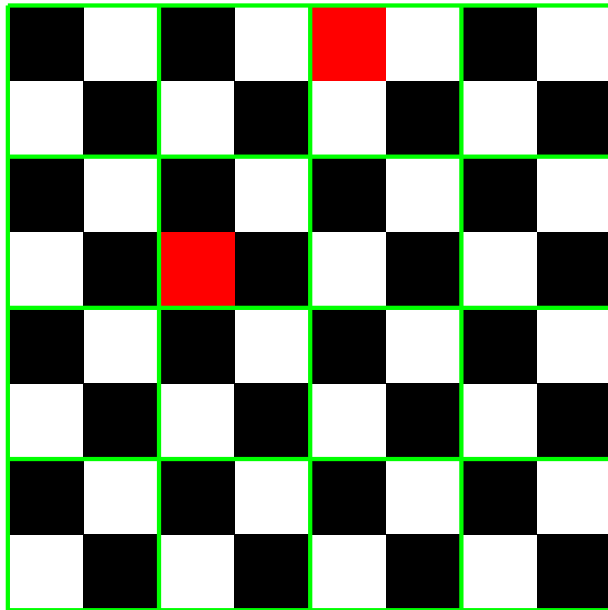
Each can be tiled with one domino.

Inductive Step: Suppose that we have a  $2b \times 2b$  checkerboard with 1 black and white square removed which can be tiled with dominoes for  $b = 1, 2, \dots, k$ . We must show that a  $2k+2 \times 2k+2$  checkerboard with one black and white square removed can be tiled with dominoes also.

For reference:



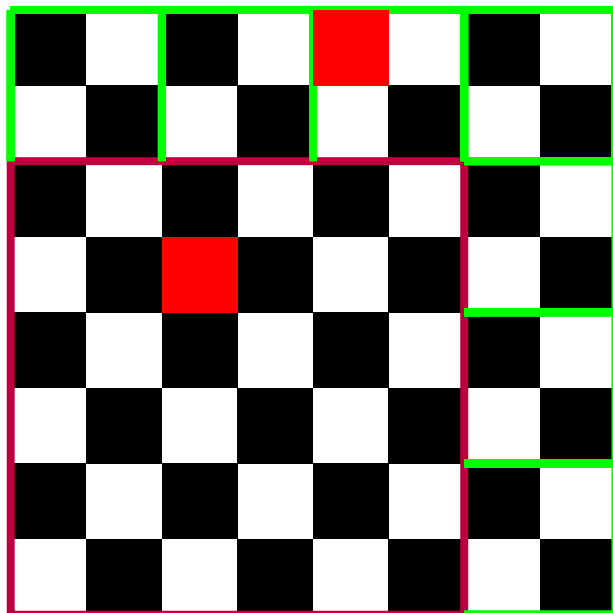
We can divide the boards into segments of  $2 \times 2$  checkerboards:



Case 1: The red squares fall in the same  $2 \times 2$  checkerboard. Then we can tile it. Observe that we can tile the remaining  $2 \times 2$  checkerboards as desired.

Case 2: The red squares do not fall in the same  $2 \times 2$  checkerboard. Then we can consider  $B$ , the largest  $2k \times 2k$  checkerboard subset of our  $2k + 2 \times 2k + 2$

checkerboard such that  $B$  contains red square  $r_1$  but not  $r_2$ . Let  $A$  be the  $2 \times 2$  checkerboard containing  $r_2$ .



Observe that  $B$  borders  $A$ . We can always place a domino that lies in both  $B$  and  $A$ . Let that domino be adjacent to  $r_2$ . Then it covers an opposite colored square than  $r_2$  in  $A$  called  $r'_2$ . It also covers the same colored square as  $r_2$  in  $B$ , called  $r'_1$ . Thus,  $r'_1$  and  $r_1$  are opposite colored. Thus, we can tile  $A$  and  $B$ . We can also tile the remaining  $2 \times 2$  checkerboards with 2 dominoes, so we are done.  $\square$

### 5.3: 4ab, 8bd, 12, 14, 17x, 20, mt2-2016

**Exercise 4:** Find  $f(2), f(3), f(4), f(5)$  if  $f$  is defined recursively by  $f(0) = f(1) = 1$  and  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

a)  $f(n+1) = f(n) - f(n-1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(2) &= f(1) - f(0) = 1 - 1 = 0 \\ f(3) &= f(2) - f(1) = 0 - 1 = -1 \\ f(4) &= f(3) - f(2) = -1 - 0 = -1 \\ f(5) &= f(4) - f(3) = -1 - (-1) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

b)  $f(n+1) = f(n)f(n-1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} f(2) &= f(1)f(0) = 1 \\ f(3) &= f(2)f(1) = 1 \\ f(4) &= f(3)f(2) = 1 \\ f(5) &= f(4)f(3) = 1 \end{aligned}$$



**Exercise 8:** Give a recursive definition of the sequence  $\{a_n\}, n = 1, 2, \dots$  if

- b)  $a_n = 1 + (-1)^n$   
 $a_1 = 0, a_2 = 2$   
 $a_{n+1} = (-1/2)(a_n - a_{n-1}) + 1$
- d)  $a_n = n^2$   
 $a_1 = 1, a_2 = 4$   
 $a_{n+1} = (a_n - a_{n-1} + 2) + a_n = 2a_n - a_{n-1} + 2$

In Exercises 12-19,  $f_n$  is the  $n$ th Fibonacci number.

**Exercise 12** Prove that  $f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_n^2 = f_n f_{n+1}$  when  $n$  is a positive integer.

*Proof.* We will proceed by induction.

Basis Step: We must show that for  $f_1 = 0, f_2 = 1$ , and  $f_3 = 1$ , that  $f_1^2 + f_2^2 = f_2 f_3$ . Plug in the numbers and verify:  $f_1^2 + f_2^2 = 0^2 + 1^2 = 1^2 = f_2 f_3$ .

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is arbitrary and that  $f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_k^2 = f_k f_{k+1}$ . We must show that  $f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_{k+1}^2 = f_{k+1} f_{k+2}$ . Observe the following algebraic manipulations:

$$\begin{aligned} f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_k^2 &= f_k f_{k+1} \\ f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_{k+1}^2 &= f_k f_{k+1} + f_{k+1}^2 \\ f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_{k+1}^2 &= f_{k+1}(f_k + f_{k+1}) \\ f_1^2 + f_2^2 + \dots + f_{k+1}^2 &= f_{k+1} f_{k+2} \end{aligned}$$

We have verified the equality to be proved.  $\square$

**Exercise 14:** Show that  $f_{n-1} f_{n+1} - f_n^2 = (-1)^n$  when  $n$  is a positive integer.

*Proof.* We will proceed by induction.

Basis Step: We should confirm that  $f_0 f_2 - f_1^2 = (-1)^1$  for the base case  $n = 1$ ,  $f_0 = 0, f_1 = 1, f_2 = 1$ . By computation:  $f_0 f_2 - f_1^2 = 0 - 1 = (-1)^1$ .

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is an arbitrary positive integer and that  $f_{k-1} f_{k+1} - f_k^2 = (-1)^k$ . We must prove that  $f_k f_{k+2} - f_{k+1}^2 = (-1)^{k+1}$ . From our first equation, add  $f_k f_{k+1} - f_k f_{k+1} = 0$  to both sides:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{k-1} f_{k+1} - f_k^2 &= (-1)^k \\ f_{k-1} f_{k+1} + (f_k f_{k+1}) - f_k^2 + (-f_k f_{k+1}) &= (-1)^k \\ f_{k+1}(f_k + f_{k+1}) - f_k(f_k + f_{k+1}) &= (-1)^k \\ f_{k+1}^2 - f_k f_{k+2} &= (-1)^k \\ f_k f_{k+2} - f_{k+1}^2 &= (-1)^{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

We have concluded that  $f_k f_{k+2} - f_{k+1}^2 = (-1)^{k+1}$  as desired.  $\square$

**Exercise 17x:** Determine the number of divisions used by the Euclidean Algorithm to find the greatest common divisor of the Fibonacci numbers  $f_n$  and  $f_{n+1}$ , where  $n$  is a nonnegative integer. Verify your answer using mathematical induction.

*Proof.* We will proceed with mathematical induction where the number of steps to compute  $\gcd(f_n, f_{n+1})$  is  $n - 1$ .

Basis Step: We need to show that to compute  $\gcd(f_1, f_2)$  takes  $1 - 1 = 0$  steps. Our Fibonacci numbers are  $f_1 = 0, f_2 = 1$ . So  $\gcd(1, 0) = 1$  which required 0 steps.

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k$  is an arbitrary positive integer and that  $\gcd(f_n, f_{n+1})$  takes  $k - 1$  steps of the Euclidean algorithm to compute. We must show that  $\gcd(f_{n+1}, f_{n+2})$  takes  $k$  steps to compute.

Consider  $\gcd(f_{n+1}, f_{n+2})$ . By the Euclidean Algorithm, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\gcd(f_{n+1}, f_{n+2}) &= \gcd(f_{n+2} \bmod f_{n+1}, f_{n+1}) \\ &= \gcd(f_n, f_{n+1})\end{aligned}$$

So there are  $k - 1$  more steps after this to computing the gcd. Since we took one step of the Euclidean Algorithm (computing  $f_{n+2} \bmod f_{n+1}$ ), there are  $k - 1 + 1$  steps total or  $k$ , as desired.  $\square$

**Exercise 20:** Give a recursive definition of the functions max and min so that  $\max(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  and  $\min(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$  are the maximum and minimum of the  $n$  numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ , respectively.

Maximum:

Basis Step:  $\max(a_1) = a_1$

Recursive Step:  $\max(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = \max(\max(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}), a_n)$

Minimum:

Basis Step:  $\min(a_1) = a_1$

Recursive Step:  $\min(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = \min(\min(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1}), a_n)$

**Midterm 1 (2016):** (8 points) Consider the function recursively defined by:

$$f(1) = 1; \quad f(k+1) = \sqrt{1 + f(k)} \quad \text{when } k \geq 1$$

Given that  $f(2) = \sqrt{2}$  is irrational, prove, using induction, that  $f(n)$  is irrational for all integers  $n \geq 2$ .

*Proof.* We will proceed with induction.

Basis Step: We are already given that  $f(2) = \sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

Inductive Step: Suppose that  $k \geq 2$  is an arbitrary integer and that  $f(k)$  is irrational. We must show that  $f(k+1)$  is also irrational. Suppose for contradiction that  $f(k+1)$  is rational. Then,

$$\begin{aligned}f(k+1) &= \sqrt{1 + f(k)} \\f^2(k+1) &= 1 + f(k)\end{aligned}$$

Since  $f(k+1)$  is rational,  $f^2(k+1)$  is also rational and therefore,  $1 + f(k)$  is rational. Contradiction. We know that 1 is rational and  $f(k)$  is irrational. The sum of an irrational number and rational number is always irrational.  $\square$