## Foundations Test 2

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## 1

**Theorem 1.** If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \geq 0$ , then  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} i \cdot i! = (n+1)! - 1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \geq 0$ . We will show that  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} i \cdot i! = (n+1)! - 1$  via induction. For our base case, n = 0,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{0} 0 \cdot 0! = (0+1)! - 1$$
$$= 0$$

which is true, so we proceed with our inductive step. Let us assume that for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  that  $k \ge 0$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^k i \cdot i! = (k+1)! - 1$ . It can be shown that by adding (k+1)(k+1)! to both sides of the equation we get,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} i \cdot i! + (k+1)(k+1)! = (k+1)! - 1 + (k+1)(k+1)!$$

Next, by re-arranging with algebra (namely, the distributive property), we can see,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} i \cdot i! + (k+1)(k+1)! = (1+(k+1))(k+1)! - 1$$
$$= (k+2)(k+1)! - 1$$

Now, notice that when we have k = k + 1, we have,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} i \cdot i! = ((k+1)+1)! - 1$$
$$= (k+2)(k+1)! - 1$$

which is matches our result from the inductive step, so we have shown that  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} i \cdot i! = (n+1)! - 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \ge 0$  by process of induction.

**Theorem 2.** The inequality  $2^n \le 2^{n+1} - 2^{n-1} - 1$  holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We will show that the inequality  $2^n \leq 2^{n+1} - 2^{n-1} - 1$  holds for all n via induction. For our base case, n = 1,

$$2^{1} \le 2^{1+1} - 2^{1-1} - 1$$
$$2 \le 4 - 1 - 1$$
$$2 \le 2$$

which is true, so we proceed with our inductive step. Let us assume that for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  the inequality  $2^k \le 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-1} - 1$  holds for all k. Since  $2^k$  is going to be less than  $2^{k+1} - 2^{k-1} - 1$  it will also be less than that plus an additional  $2^{k-1} + 1$ . Hence we can correctly re-write our inequality from,

$$2^k \le 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-1} - 1$$

to,

$$2^{k} \le 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-1} - 1 + (2^{k-1} + 1)$$
$$2^{k} \le 2^{k+1}$$
$$\le (2)2^{k}$$

Clearly, for any natural number,  $k, 2^k \le (2)2^k$ . Therefore, the inequality  $2^n \le 2^{n+1} - 2^{n-1} - 1$  holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Theorem 3.** Define the relation R on  $\mathbb{Z}$  such that xRy if and only if 3x - 5y is even. Then R is an equivalence relation.

*Proof.* Let x and  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$  the define relation R on  $\mathbb{Z}$  such that xRy if and only if 3x - 5y is even. We will show R is an equivalence relation.

To show R is reflexive, let  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then xRx if and only if 3x - 5x is even. By Definition 2.1 it can be seen that,

$$3x - 5x = 2(-k)$$
 (for some  $-k \in \mathbb{Z}$ )  
 $-2x = -2k$ 

which is true for all  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , so R is reflexive.

To show R is symmetric, let x and  $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then xRy if and only if 3x - 5y is even. By Definition 2.1 it can be seen that,

$$3x - 5y = 2(-k)$$
 (for some  $-k \in \mathbb{Z}$ )

We can add 2x-2y to both sides to get,

$$5x - 3y = 2(-k) + 2x - 2y$$
$$= -2(k - x + y)$$

We can then multiply each side by (-1) to get,

$$(-1)5x - 3y = (-1)(-2(k - x + y))$$
$$-5x + 3y = 2(k - x + y)$$
$$3y - 5x = 2(k - x + y)$$

where (k - x + y) is some integer. Therefore, since 3y - 5x is even (Definition 2.1), yRx, so R is symmetric.

To show R is transitive, let  $x,y,z \in \mathbb{Z}$  and xRy and yRz. Then 3x - 5y is even and 3y - 5z is even. By Definition 2.1 it can be seen that,

$$3x - 5y = 2(k)$$
 (for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ )  
 $3y - 5z = 2(l)$  (for some  $l \in \mathbb{Z}$ )

We can add the two equations to get,

$$3x - 5y + 3y - 5z = 2(k) + 2(l)$$
$$3x - 5z - 2y = 2(k+l)$$
$$= 2(k+l+y)$$

We see that 3x - 5z is even, so xRz and R is transitive.

In conclusion, R is an equivalence relation since R is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

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**Theorem 4.** Let  $a,b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $a \equiv_n b$  then  $a^2 \equiv_n b^2$ . (recall the definition of  $\equiv_n$  from Definition 7.79)

*Proof.* Let  $a,b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We will show that if  $a \equiv_n b$  then  $a^2 \equiv_n b^2$ . By definition 7.79,  $a \equiv_n b$  if and only if a - b is divisible by n. It can thus be shown that,

$$a - b = nk$$
 (for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ )

we can then multiply both sides by a + b to get,

$$a^{2} + ab - ba + b^{2} = (a+b)nk$$

$$a^{2} - b^{2} = (a+b)nk$$

$$a^{2} - b^{2} = np \text{ such that } p = (a+b)k$$

Therefore,  $a^2 - b^2$  is divisible by n. Thus,  $a^2 \equiv_n b^2$  if a - b is divisible by n.

**Theorem 5.** For an  $n \geq 4$ , one can obtain n dollars using only \$2 and \$5 bills.

*Proof.* Let  $n \ge 4$ . We will show that one can obtain n dollars using only \$2 and \$5 bills. In other words, there exist non-negative integers a and b such that n = 2a + 5b for all  $n \ge 4$ . We will prove this via strong induction.

For our base case we will prove the cases for n = 2, 4, and 5 directly.

For n = 2, we can use one \$2 bill:  $2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 0 \ (a = 1, b = 0)$ 

For n = 4, we can use two \$2 bills:  $4 = 2 \cdot 2 + 5 \cdot 0 \ (a = 2, b = 0)$ 

For n = 5, we can use one \$5 bill:  $5 = 2 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 1$  (a = 0, b = 1)

For our inductive hypothesis, we will assume that for  $5 \le k \le m$  can be obtained using only \$2 and \$5 bills such that  $k, m \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

We will now prove that k+1 can be obtained using only \$2 and \$5 bills. Since k-1 can be obtained using only \$2 and \$5 bills, we can see that,

$$k-1=2a+5b$$
 (for some  $a,b\in\mathbb{Z}$ )

which can be rewritten as,

$$(k+1) - 2 = 2a + 5b$$

Hence, by adding adding a \$2 bill to the \$2 and \$5 bills used to obtain k-1, we can obtain k+1 using only \$2 and \$5 bills.

Thus, we have shown via strong induction that for any  $n \ge 4$ , one can obtain n dollars using only \$2 and \$5 bills.

**Theorem 6.** Define  $\Psi = \{(a,b) : a,b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\}$  and define a relation  $\sim$  on  $\Psi$  via  $(a,b) \sim (c,d)$  if and only if ad = bc. Then  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

*Proof.* Let  $\Psi = \{(a,b) : a,b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \neq 0\}$  and define a relation  $\sim$  on  $\Psi$  via  $(a,b) \sim (c,d)$  if and only if ad = bc. To show that  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation, we must show that  $\sim$  is reflexive, symmetric, and transitive.

To show that  $\sim$  is reflexive, we must show that for all  $(a,b) \in \Psi$ ,  $(a,b) \sim (a,b)$ . It can be shown that,

$$(a,b) \sim (a,b) \Leftrightarrow ab = ba$$
  
  $\Leftrightarrow ab = ab$  (commutative property)

Therefore,  $\sim$  is reflexive.

To show that  $\sim$  is symmetric, we must show that for all  $(a,b) \in \Psi$  and  $(c,d) \in \Psi$ , if  $(a,b) \sim (c,d)$  then  $(c,d) \sim (a,b)$ . It can be shown that,

$$(a,b) \sim (c,d) \Leftrightarrow ad = bc$$

and that,

$$(c,d) \sim (a,b) \Leftrightarrow cb = da$$
  
 $\Leftrightarrow ad = bc$  (commutative property)

Therefore,  $\sim$  is symmetric.

To show that,  $\sim$  is transitive, we must show that for all  $(a,b) \in \Psi$ ,  $(c,d) \in \Psi$ , and  $(e,f) \in \Psi$ , if  $(a,b) \sim (c,d)$  and  $(c,d) \sim (e,f)$  then  $(a,b) \sim (e,f)$ . It can be shown that,

$$ad = bc$$
$$fad = fbc$$

Since  $(c,d) \sim (e,f)$ , cf = de. We can re-write f as  $\frac{de}{c}$ . We can finally show that,

$$adf = bc(\frac{de}{c})$$

$$adf = bde$$

$$af = be,$$

which would follow from  $(a,b) \sim (e,f)$ . Therefore,  $\sim$  is transitive.

Therefore,  $\sim$  is an equivalence relation.

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**Problem 1.** Consider the following relation:  $P_{n} = \{(x, y), (x, h), (x, y), (h, h), (x, y), (h, h), (h, h$ 

 $R = \{(a, a), (a, b), (a, d), (b, d), (c, c), (d, b), (d, c)\}$ 

**Problem 1.** .1 What elements must be add to R to make it reflexive?

To be reflexive, (b, b) and (d, d) must be added to R.

**Problem 1.** .1 What elements must be add to R to make it symmetric?

To be symmetric, (b, a), (d, a) and (c, d) must be added to R.