

Writing Portfolio 3

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Proof Count: 17

Theorem 19.6. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$1 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 4 + \dots + n(n+2) = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+7)}{6}$$

Proof. Consider $n = 1$ then for the LHS $1(1+2) = 3$, for the RHS $\frac{1(1+1)(2(1)+7)}{6} = \frac{18}{6} = 3$. So it holds for the base case.

Assume it hold for some $n = k$, that is $1 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 4 + \dots + k(k+2) = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+7)}{6}$.

Then for $n = k+1$ we have $1 \cdot 3 + 2 \cdot 4 + \dots + k(k+2) + (k+1)(k+3) = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+7)}{6} + (k+1)(k+3)$ for the LHS. We also have $\frac{(k+1)(k+3)(2(k+1)+7)}{6}$, for the RHS. Factor out $(k+1)$ from both terms on the left-hand side:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= (k+1) \cdot \frac{k(2k+7) + 6(k+3)}{6} \\ &= (k+1) \cdot \frac{2k^2 + 13k + 18}{6} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(2k^2 + 13k + 18)}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Now for the RHS:

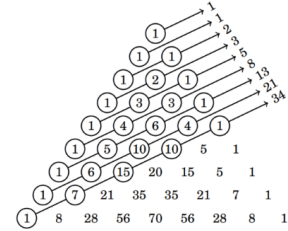
$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS} &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+9)}{6} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(2k^2 + 13k + 18)}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the formula holds for $n = k+1$ so By the principle of mathematical induction, the formula is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ \square

Theorem 20.4. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and f_n is the n th of the Fibonacci Sequence, then

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor} \binom{n-k}{k} = f_{n+1}$$

The above formula shows that the indicated diagonals of Pascal's triangle sum to Fibonacci numbers.



Proof. When n is even, then $n = 2m$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$. For this case: $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor = m$ and $\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \rfloor = m$ Then the formula becomes

$$\sum_{k=0}^m \binom{2m-k}{k}$$

Then for $m = 0$ and $m = 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^0 \binom{2(0)-k}{k} &= \binom{0}{0} = 1 \\ \sum_{k=0}^1 \binom{2(1)-k}{k} &= \binom{2}{0} + \binom{1}{1} = 1 + 1 = 2 \end{aligned}$$

The Fibonacci number $f_{2(0)+1} = f_1 = 1$ and $f_{2(1)+1} = f_2 = 2$ so the base case's hold. Assume that it holds for some $m = i$, That is

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

Then consider $m = i + 1$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{i+1} \binom{2(i+1)-k}{k} = f_{2(i+1)+1} = f_{2i+3}$$

Rewriting the sum as

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{i+1} \binom{2(i+1)-k}{k} &= \sum_{k=0}^i \binom{2(i+1)-k}{k} + \binom{2(i+1)-(i+1)}{i+1} = \sum_{k=0}^i \binom{2(i+1)-k}{k} + \binom{i+1}{i+1} \\ &= \binom{2(i+1)-k}{k} + 1 = f_{2(i)+1} + f_{2(i+1)+1} = f_{2i+1} + f_{2i+3} = f_{2i+4} \end{aligned}$$

Thus by the principle of mathematical induction and our assumption, it is shown that the formula holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Case 2: When n is odd, then $n = 2m + 1$ for $m \in \mathbb{Z}$, For this case: $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor = m$ and $\lfloor \frac{n+1}{2} \rfloor = m + 1$ Then the formula becomes

$$\sum_{k=0}^m \binom{(2m+1)-k}{k} = f_{2m+2}$$

When $m = 0$, we have $n = 2 \cdot 0 + 1 = 1$ $\sum_{k=0}^0 \binom{(1-k)}{k} = 1$. So it holds for the base case.

Assume it hold for some $m = j$, then consider $m = j + 1$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{j+1} \binom{(2(j+1)+1)-k}{k} = f_{2(j+1)+2},$$

Rewrite this sum by separating the last term

$$\sum_{k=0}^{j+1} \binom{(2j+3)-k}{k} = \sum_{k=0}^j \binom{(2j+3)-k}{k} + \binom{(2j+3)-(j+1)}{j+1} = f_{2j+3} + f_{2j+2} = f_{2j+4}. \text{(From the inductive step)}$$

Thus, the result holds for when n is odd by mathematical induction. □

Theorem 21.8. Suppose $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. If a is rational and ab is irrational, then b is irrational.

Proof. Suppose that a is rational, ab is irrational, and b is rational. If a is rational it can be expressed as $\frac{c}{d}$ where $d \neq 0$ and b can also be expressed as $\frac{g}{h}$ where $h \neq 0$. Then $ab = \frac{cg}{dh}$, since c is rational and g then cg is rational. Since d is rational and h is rational then dh is rational. This implies that $\frac{cg}{dh}$ is rational, this is a contradiction from the assumption that ab is irrational. Therefore, our assumption that b is rational must be false. Hence, b must be irrational. □

Theorem 20.6. For all integers $m, n \geq 1$, it holds $f_n \mid f_{nm}$.

Proof. Assume there exists a smallest pair of integers n and m which $m, n \geq 1$ for which $f_n \nmid f_{nm}$. Recall that Fibonacci numbers satisfy the recurrence relation: $f_{n+2} = f_{n+1} + f_n$. Consider the first three Fibonacci numbers $\{1, 1, 2\}$ then $1 \cdot 1 \mid 1$ and $2 \cdot 1 \mid 1$ so it works for the base case. Let f_{nm} be a Fibonacci number and assume $f_n \nmid f_{nm}$ but $f_{nm} = \gcd(f_n, f_m) = f_{\gcd(nm)}$ by the GCD identity for Fibonacci numbers. Then the $\gcd(f_n)$ is also the $\gcd(f_{nm})$ which implies that $f_n \mid f_{nm}$. Thus there is no counterexample to $f_n \mid f_{nm}$. \square

Theorem 23.2. *Let A be a set and let R be an irreflexive relation on A . Then any subset R is also irreflexive.*

Proof. Let $S \subseteq R$ then $\forall a \in A, (a, a) \notin R$. Let $(r, r) \notin S$ then $(r, r) \notin R$ since $\forall x \in S, x$ must also be in R . Therefore, the subset S inherits the irreflexive property from R \square

Theorem 24.14. *Let A be a set and let R be a relation on A . Then R is reflexive if and only if \bar{R} is irreflexive.*

Proof. This is true by the definition of reflexivity, $\forall a \in A, (a, a) \in R$ then for irreflexivity $\forall a \in A, (a, a) \notin R$. This implies that \bar{R} is irreflexive because all elements that are in R are reflexive, so elements that are in \bar{R} must be irreflexive. \square

Theorem 25.1. *Let (X, \leq) be a poset such that for every $x, y \in X$ either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$. Then is X said to be a totally ordered set. Likewise, we say \leq is total order (or linear order).*

- (a) *The poset (\mathbb{N}, \leq) is totally ordered.*
- (b) *The poset (\mathbb{N}, \mid) is not totally ordered.*

Proof. (a) For any two natural numbers a and b , either $a \leq b$ or $b \leq a$. Thus the relation is total order. (b) Consider this counter-example, if you take the numbers 2 and 3 from \mathbb{N} , neither 2 divides 3 nor 3 divides 2. Since there exist elements in which neither holds true, the relation is not a total order. \square

Theorem 26.5. *Suppose R is a reflexive and symmetric relation on a finite set A . Define a relation S on A by declaring xSy if and only if for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there are elements $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in A$ satisfying $xRx_1, x_1Rx_2, x_2Rx_3, x_3Rx_4, \dots, x_{n-1}Rx_n$, and x_nRy . Then S is an equivalence relation and $R \subseteq S$. In fact, S is the unique smallest equivalence relation on A containing R .*

Proof. Since R is reflexive, $\forall x, (x, x) \in R$ so xRx . Hence, xSx is true, Thus S is reflexive. Since R is symmetric, if xSy then there exists a list $x = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n = y$. By symmetry of R , we can reverse the order of this list to obtain ySx , proving that S is symmetric. If xSy and ySz , there exist list $x = x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n = y$ and $y = y_1, y_2, \dots, y_m = z$ Combining these list results in a list that will connect x and z , showing xSz , Thus S is transitivity. Suppose there is another equivalence relation T containing R . Since S is the set of all pairs related by lists in R , and any equivalence relation containing R must also relate all elements connected by these lists, it follows that $S \subseteq T$. Thus S is the unique smallest equivalence relation containing R . \square

Theorem 27.6. *The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) = 2x + \sin(x)$ has a unique x -intercept.*

Proof. For this f to have one unique x-intercept f must be continuous on \mathbb{R} . f must also have a constant derivative where it is positive or negative everywhere, that is the derivative is never zero.

Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given and choose $\delta = \max\{1, \frac{\epsilon-2}{2}\}$, if $|x - y| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} |2x + \sin(x) - 2y - \sin(y)| &= |2(x - y) + (\sin(x) - \sin(y))| \\ |2(x - y)| + |\sin(x) - \sin(y)| &\leq |2(x - y)| + |\sin(x) - \sin(y)| \quad (\text{by the triangle inequality}) \\ &= |\sin(x) - \sin(y)| + 2|x - y| \\ &\leq |\sin(x) - \sin(y)| + 2\delta \\ &\leq 2 + 2 \cdot \frac{\epsilon-2}{2} \quad (\text{Since max of } |\sin(x) - \sin(y)| = 2) \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Thus $f(x)$ is continuous on \mathbb{R}
lemma

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

note that $\sin x \leq x \leq \tan x$

$$\begin{aligned} \sin x \leq x \leq \tan x &= \frac{\sin x}{\sin x} \leq \frac{x}{\sin x} \leq \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \cdot \frac{1}{\sin x} \\ 1 &\leq \frac{x}{\sin x} \leq \frac{1}{\cos x} \\ 1 &\leq \frac{\sin x}{x} \leq \cos x \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1 &\leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x \\ 1 &\leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \leq 1 \quad (\text{by squeeze theorem}) \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$

Lemma Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} = 0$ by using trigonometric identities.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 - \cos x)(1 + \cos x)}{x(1 + \cos x)} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos^2 x}{x(1 + \cos x)} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x(1 + \cos x)} \quad (\text{by Pythagorean identity}) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \cdot \frac{\sin x}{1 + \cos x} = 0. \\ &(\text{Since the limit of } \frac{\sin x}{x} \text{ is equal to 1 from previous Lemma so the whole limit is 0}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Let } f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2(x+h) + (\sin(x+h)) - 2(x) - (\sin(x))}{h} \\
&= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2(x+h) + (\sin(x+h)) - 2(x) - (\sin(x))}{h} \\
&= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2h + (\sin(x+h) - \sin(x))}{h} \\
&= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2h}{h} + \frac{(\sin(x+h) - \sin(x))}{h} \\
&= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2 + \frac{\sin x \cdot \cos h + \cos x \cdot \sin h - \sin x}{h} \quad (\text{by the sum trig identity}) \\
&= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2 + \frac{\sin x(\cos h - 1) + \cos x \cdot \sin h}{h} \\
&= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2 + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} -\sin x \frac{1 - \cos h}{h} + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos x \frac{\sin h}{h} \\
&= \quad \text{From our previous Lemma we know that } \frac{1 - \cos h}{h} = 0 \text{ so the whole part is 0.}
\end{aligned}$$

We also now that $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin h}{h} = 1$ from a previous Lemma so $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos x \cdot 1 = \cos x$

Thus $f'(x) = 2 + \cos x$. Note that $-1 \leq \cos x \leq 1$, since -1 is the minimum of $\cos x$ then $f'(x) = 2 - 1 = 1 > 0$. Since $f'(x)$ is also greater then the 0 everywhere. This implies that there is only one real solution by the mean value theorem. Therefore since $f(x)$ is continuous on \mathbb{R} and $f'(x) > 0$ everywhere. The function $f(x)$ has one unique x-intercept. \square

Theorem 27.5. *Every real solution of $x^3 + x + 3 = 0$ is irrational.*

Proof. Suppose that there exists a rational root, $r = \frac{p}{q}$

$$\begin{aligned}
x^3 + x + 3 &= 0 \\
x^3 + x &= -3 \\
x(x^2 + 1) &= -3
\end{aligned}$$

This implies that $\{0, i, -i\}$ are solutions but zero is the only real solution, check for extraneous solutions

$$\begin{aligned}
0^3 + 0 &= -3 \\
0 &= -3
\end{aligned}$$

This is a contradiction zero does not equal negative three. Thus every real solution of $x^3 + x + 3 = 0$ is irrational. \square

Theorem 21.1. *Suppose $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If n is odd, then n^2 is odd.*

Proof. Let $n = 2k + 1, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $n^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$ where $(2k^2 + 2k) \in \mathbb{Z}$. Thus n^2 is odd.

Suppose that n is odd and n^2 is even, then $n = 2l + 1, l \in \mathbb{Z}$ then $n^2 = (2l + 1)^2 = 4l^2 + 4l + 1 = 2(2l^2 + 2l) + 1$ this implies that n^2 is odd a contradiction of the assumption, thus n^2 is odd. \square

Theorem 19.4. *If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$.*

Proof. Proof by Mathematical Induction Base Case: For $n = 0$,

$$2^0 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 2^{0+1} - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1,$$

so the statement holds for $n = 0$.

Inductive Step: Assume the statement holds for some $n = k$; that is,

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \cdots + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 1.$$

Then consider $n = k + 1$, that is

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \cdots + 2^k + 2^{k+1} = 2^{(k+1)+1} - 1 = 2^{k+2} - 1.$$

from the inductive hypothesis,

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \cdots + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 1.$$

Adding 2^{k+1} to both sides gives:

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \cdots + 2^k + 2^{k+1} = (2^{k+1} - 1) + 2^{k+1} = 2^{k+2} - 1.$$

Thus, the statement holds for $n = k + 1$.

Combinatorial Proof: Note that the sum $2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \cdots + 2^n$ represents the total number of subsets of a set with $n + 1$ elements. For a set with $n + 1$ elements, there are 2^{n+1} subsets in total, including the empty set. Excluding the empty set leaves $2^{n+1} - 1$, which is all the non-empty subsets, which matches the premise. Thus $2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \cdots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$. \square

Theorem 18.4. *If p is prime and k is an integer for which $0 < k < p$, then p divides $\binom{p}{k}$*

Proof. Assume for the sake of contradiction that a counterexample exists where p is prime and k is an integer for which $0 < k < p$, and p does not divide $\binom{p}{k}$. Then consider the binomial coefficient.

$$\begin{aligned} \binom{p}{k} &= \frac{p!}{k!(p-k)!} \\ &= \frac{p \cdot (p-1)!}{k!(p-k)!} \\ (\text{divide by } p) &= \frac{p \cdot (p-1)!}{\frac{k!(p-k)!}{p}} \\ &= \frac{p \cdot (p-1)!}{p \cdot k!(p-k)!} \\ &= \frac{(p-1)!}{k!(p-k)!} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $\binom{p}{k}$ contains a factor of p which implies that p divides $\binom{p}{k}$ this is a contradiction of the assume there exists a counterexample. Thus there is no counterexample so we conclude that p divides $\binom{p}{k}$ for all k such that $0 < k < p$. \square

Theorem 3.14159. *Consider the function $f(x) = x + \sin(x)$, obtain an approximation of π with high accuracy using the fact that π is a fixed point of $f(x)$ and that f maps the interval $[\frac{3\pi}{4}, \frac{5\pi}{4}]$ to itself. We have also shown that $f'(x) = 1 + \cos x$ from a previous theorem.*

Proof.

$$|x + \cos(x) - y - \cos y| = L|x - y|$$

$$|1 + \cos(x) - 1 - \cos y| \leq 1|x - y| + |\cos x - \cos y|$$

$$1|x - y| + |\cos x - \cos y| \leq 1|x - y| + \left(1 - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right) \quad \text{(since the maximum occurs at } \cos \frac{3\pi}{4} - \cos \pi)$$

$$0 \leq |\cos x - \cos y| \leq \left(1 - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right) \leq 1$$

This implies f has a Lipschitz constant less than 1, then by the Banach fixed-point theorem, it is varied that π is a fixed point on the interval so we can use a fixpoint iteration. Choose 3 for the iteration since it is in the interval.

$$\pi = f(f(f(\dots(3)\dots)))$$

$$\pi = \sin 3 + 3 = 3.14112$$

$$\pi = \sin 3.14112 + 3.14112 = 3.14159264$$

$$\pi = \sin 3.14159264 + 3.14159264 = 3.141593654\dots$$

Thus we have an approximation of π with high accuracy (higher than the float points allowed on my calculator). \square