

1. a. $1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2$ for all $n \geq 1$
using induction

Basis: $n=1 \Rightarrow n^2 = 1$
 $1^2 = 1$
 $1 \checkmark = 1$

Inductive:

$$(n+1)^2 = n^2 + (2(n+1) - 1)$$

$$n^2 + 2n + 1 \checkmark = n^2 + 2n + 1$$

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6. $1 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot 3 + 3 \cdot 4 + \dots + n(n+1) = \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)}{3}$ for all $n \geq 1$

using induction

Basis: $n=1 \Rightarrow 1 \cdot 2 \stackrel{?}{=} \frac{1(1+1)(1+2)}{3}$
 $1 \cdot 2 = \frac{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3}{3}$
 $2 \checkmark = 2$

$$n^3 + 2n^2 + n^2 + 2n$$

Inductive:

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

$$\frac{n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 2}{3} = \frac{n^3 + 3n^2 + 2n}{3} + n^2 + 3n + 2$$

$$\frac{n^3}{3} + n^2 + \frac{11}{3}n + 2 = \frac{n^3}{3} + n^2 + \frac{11}{3}n + 2$$

$0 = 0$ true for all n

$2n + n$
 $(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)$
 $(n^2 + 3n + 2)(n+3)$
 $n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n^2 + 9n + 2n + 6$
 $n^3 + 6n^2 + 5n + 6$
 $\frac{1}{3}n^3 + 2n^2 + \frac{5}{3}n + 2$

2.

$$2. a^n - 1 = (a-1)(a^{n-1} + a^{n-2} + \dots + a + 1) \text{ for all } n \geq 1$$

Basis Step:

$$n=1: a^1 - 1 = (a-1)(1) \\ a-1 = a-1$$

$$n=2: a^2 - 1 = (a-1)(a+1) \\ a^2 - 1 = a^2 - 1$$

Inductive

$$\frac{a^n - 1}{a-1} = a^{n-1} + a^{n-2} + \dots + a + 1$$

next step

$$(a-1) \left(\frac{a^n - 1}{a-1} + a^n \right) = \frac{a^{n+1} - 1}{a-1} \quad (a-1)$$

$$a^n - 1 + a^n(a-1) = a^{n+1} - 1$$

$$a^n - 1 + a^{n+1} - a^n = a^{n+1} - 1$$

$$a^{n+1} - 1 = a^{n+1} - 1$$

confirming inductive hypothesis

3. a.

$$n=4: 4! + 1 = 5^2$$

$$n=5: 5! + 1 = 11^2$$

$$n=7: 7! + 1 = 71^2$$

b. No, counterexamples:

$m=2 \quad n=2$

$$2! \cdot 2! \stackrel{?}{=} (2 \cdot 2)!$$

$$2 \cdot 2 \stackrel{?}{=} 4!$$

$$4 \neq 24$$

$$2! + 2! \stackrel{?}{=} (2+2)!$$

$$2+2 = 4!$$

$$4 \neq 24$$

~~4. a.~~

4. Basis Step: $n=1: \frac{1}{1} \leq 2 - \frac{1}{1}$
 $1 \leq 1 \checkmark$

Inductive Step:

$$2 - \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \leq 2 - \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$\frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} - \frac{1}{n} \leq 0$$

$$\frac{n(n+1) + n - (n+1)^2}{n(n+1)^2} \leq 0$$

$$\frac{-1}{n(n+1)^2} \leq 0$$

$$\frac{1}{n(n+1)^2} \geq 0$$

$$n(n+1)^2 = 0$$

$$n = 0, -1$$



Because $n(n+1)^2$ is positive for $n > 0$ the inequality should be true for all relevant values of n .

5. $\begin{cases} a_n = n, & n \in [1, 3] \\ a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + a_{n-3}, & n > 3 \end{cases} \quad a_n < 2^n$

Basis Step:

$$n=1: 1 < 2^1 \checkmark$$

$$n=2: 2 < 2^2$$

$$2 < 4 \checkmark$$

$$n=3: 3 < 2^3$$

$$3 < 8$$

Inductive Step:

$$2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2} + 2^{n-3} < 2^n$$

$$\frac{2^n}{2} + \frac{2^n}{4} + \frac{2^n}{8} < 2^n$$

$$\frac{4 \cdot 2^n + 2 \cdot 2^n + 2^n}{8} < 2^n$$

$$\frac{7}{8} 2^n < 2^n \checkmark$$

$$\frac{7}{8} < 1 \checkmark$$

Not proof a "justify"

4. a. using Pascal's triangle the sum of the elements on each row totals to a power of 2 following the pattern

$$\sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} = 2^n$$

This likely stems from the fact that each value is the sum of the two above it.

b. For odd values of n : because Pascal's triangle has horizontal symmetry the equivalent values will have opposite signs and thus cancel each other out.

For even values of n : the values come from the sum of the items in the odd n row above it and thus the values cancel out

c.

$$\sum_{k=0}^n q^{(n-k)} \binom{n}{k} = 10^n$$

probably long to do w/ polynomial testing formula

$$7. 1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + \dots + (2n-1)^2 = \binom{2n+1}{3} = \frac{(2n+1)!}{(2n-2)!6}$$

Base case: $n=1: (2(1)-1)^2 = \binom{2(1)+1}{3}$
 $1 = \binom{3}{3}$
 $1 = 1 \checkmark$

Inductive: $\binom{2n+1}{3} + (2(n+1)-1)^2 = \binom{2(n+1)+1}{3}$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{(2n+1)!}{(2n-2)!6} + (2n+1)^2 &= \frac{(2n+3)!}{(2n)!6} \\ \frac{(2n+1)(2n)(2n-1)(2n-2)!}{6(2n-2)!} + 4n^2 + 4n + 1 &= \frac{(2n+3)(2n+2)(2n+1)(2n)!}{6(2n)!} \\ \frac{8n^3 - 2n}{6} + 4n^2 + 4n + 1 &= \frac{8n^3 + 24n^2 + 22n + 6}{6} \\ 8n^3 - 2n + 24n^2 + 24n + 6 &= 8n^3 + 24n^2 + 22n + 6 \end{aligned}$$

8. The square of any integer is either $3k$ or $3k+1$

using the "division algorithm" theorem we can classify all integers as multiples of $b=3$ where $a=3q+r$ and $0 \leq r < 3$

thus all integers come in one of the following forms:

$$3q, 3q+1, 3q+2$$

$$(3q)^2 = 9q^2 = 3(3q^2) \in 3k$$

$$(3q+1)^2 = 3q^2 + 6q + 1 = 3(q^2 + 2q) + 1 \in 3k+1$$

$$(3q+2)^2 = 3q^2 + 12q + 4 = 3(q^2 + 4q + 1) + 1 \in 3k+1$$

which are all specific cases of the more generalized patterns

$$3k \text{ and } 3k+1$$

9. $3a^2 - 1$ (need $0 \leq r < 3$)
 $= 3(a^2 - 1) + 2$
 $\in 3k+2$

Because values resulting from this expression have a remainder of 2 they cannot be perfect squares as proof shows that perfect squares can only have a remainder of 1 or 0 with 3.

10. No integer in the sequence $11, 111, 1111, 11111, \dots$ is a perfect square
the remainder of any term in the sequence mod 4 is 3
however as we showed in class (and here again) perfect squares
must have a remainder of 0 or 1 with 4

All integers can be described as

$$2k \quad 2k+1 \text{ where } k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

their squares can be described as such

$$(2k)^2 = 4k^2 \in 4k$$

$$(2k+1)^2 = 4k^2 + 4k + 1 = 4(k^2 + k) + 1 \in 4k + 1$$

Thus the remainder for perfect squares with 4 must be either 1 or 0
and because items in the series have a remainder of 3
they cannot be perfect squares.