

Advanced Calculus Homework 1

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1.1

Question.

Prove that

$$P_n : 1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

is true for all positive integers n .

Proof. (Using induction)

Base Case: $n = 1$,

$$1^2 = 1 \quad \text{also,} \quad \frac{1(1+1)(2(1)+1)}{6} = \frac{(2)(3)}{6} = 1.$$

Inductive Hypothesis:

Assume that P_k is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. We want to show that P_{k+1} must also be true. i.e., we want to show that:

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + k^2 + (k+1)^2 = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6}.$$

Starting with the left hand side, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} 1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + k^2 + (k+1)^2 &= \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} + (k+1)^2 \quad \text{by Inductive Hypothesis} \\ &= \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1) + 6(k+1)^2}{6} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(k(2k+1) + 6(k+1))}{6} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(2k^2 + k + 6k + 6)}{6} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(2k^2 + 7k + 6)}{6} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6} \end{aligned}$$

This is our desired equality. Therefore, by the principle of Mathematical Induction, P_n must be true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. \square

1.3

Question.

Prove that

$$P_n : 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + n^3 = (1 + 2 + \cdots + n)^2$$

is true for all positive integers n .

Proof. (Using induction)

Base Case: $n = 1$,

$$1^3 = 1 \quad \text{also,} \quad 1^2 = 1.$$

Inductive Hypothesis:

Assume that P_k is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. We want to show that P_{k+1} must also be true. i.e., we want to show that:

$$1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + k^3 + (k+1)^3 = (1 + 2 + \cdots + k + (k+1))^2$$

Starting with the left hand side, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + k^3 + (k+1)^3 &= (1 + 2 + \cdots + k)^2 + (k+1)^3 && \text{by Inductive Hypothesis} \\
&= \left(\frac{k(k+1)}{2} \right)^2 + (k+1)^3 && \text{by Lemma 1 below} \\
&= \frac{k^2(k+1)^2 + 4(k+1)^3}{4} \\
&= \frac{(k+1)^2(k^2 + 4(k+1))}{4} \\
&= \frac{(k+1)^2(k^2 + 4k + 4)}{4} \\
&= \frac{(k+1)^2(k+2)^2}{4} \\
&= \left(\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} \right)^2 \\
&= (1 + 2 + \cdots + k + (k+1))^2 && \text{again by Lemma 1 below} \tag{1}
\end{aligned}$$

Lemma 1.

$$P_n : 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \quad \text{is true for all } n \in \mathbb{N}$$

Proof. Proof of Lemma 1, using induction

Base Case: $n = 1$,

$$1 = 1 \quad \text{also,} \quad \frac{1(1+1)}{2} = \frac{2}{2} = 1.$$

Inductive Hypothesis

Assume that P_k is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. We want to show that P_{k+1} must also be true. i.e., we want to show that:

$$1 + 2 + \cdots + k + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$$

Starting with the left hand side, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
1 + 2 + \cdots + k + (k+1) &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + k + 1 && \text{by Inductive Hypothesis} \\
&= \frac{k(k+1) + 2(k+1)}{2} \\
&= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}
\end{aligned}$$

This is the desired equality; thus, proving the Lemma by the Principle of Mathematical Induction. \square

With the above Lemma proven, and the desired equality in line (1), we have proven the given statement due to the Principle of Mathematical Induction. \square

1.5

Question.

Prove that

$$P_n : 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^n}$$

is true for all positive integers n .

Proof. (Using induction)

Base Case: $n = 1$,

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^1} = \frac{3}{2} \quad \text{also,} \quad 2 - \frac{1}{2^1} = \frac{3}{2}$$

Inductive Hypothesis

Assume that P_k is true for some integer $k \geq 1$. We want to show that P_{k+1} must also be true. i.e., we want to show that:

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

Starting with the left hand side, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
1 + \frac{1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} &= 2 - \frac{1}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \quad \text{by the Inductive Hypothesis} \\
&= 2 - \frac{1}{2^k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \\
&= 2 - \frac{1}{2^k} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \\
&= 2 - \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}
\end{aligned}$$

This is our desired equality. Thus, by the Principle of Mathematical induction, P_n must be true for all positive integers n . \square

2.1

Question.

Show that:

- a) $\sqrt{3}$
- b) $\sqrt{5}$
- c) $\sqrt{7}$
- d) $\sqrt{24}$
- e) $\sqrt{31}$

are all not rational numbers.

For the following proofs, I will use the "Rational Zeros Theorem" as stated below:

Theorem 1. Suppose c_0, c_1, \dots, c_n are integers and $r = \frac{c}{d}$ is a rational number (with $d \neq 0$ and c and d sharing no common factors) satisfying the following polynomial equation :

$$c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1 x + c_0 = 0$$

where $n \geq 1, c_n \neq 0$. Then, c divides c_0 and d divides c_n

Proof. a.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 2, c_2 = 1, c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -3$ because $\sqrt{3}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^2 - 3$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-3)$ and $d|1$. Since 3 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 3\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -2$ and $f(\pm 3) = 6$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt{3}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

Proof. b.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 2, c_2 = 1, c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -5$ because $\sqrt{5}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^2 - 5$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-5)$ and $d|1$. Since 5 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 5\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -4$ and $f(\pm 5) = 20$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt{5}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

Proof. c.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 2, c_2 = 1, c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -7$ because $\sqrt{7}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^2 - 7$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-7)$ and $d|1$. Since 7 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 7\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -6$ and $f(\pm 7) = 42$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt{7}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

Proof. d.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 2, c_2 = 1, c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -24$ because $\sqrt{24}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^2 - 24$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-24)$ and $d|1$. Since 24 has 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, and 24 as its positive factors, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \pm 4, \pm 6, \pm 8, \pm 12, \pm 24\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -23$, $f(\pm 2) = -20$, $f(\pm 3) = -15$, $f(\pm 4) = -8$, $f(\pm 6) = 12$, $f(\pm 12) = 120$, and $f(\pm 24) = 552$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt{24}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

Proof. e.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 2, c_2 = 1, c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -31$ because $\sqrt{31}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^2 - 31$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-31)$ and $d|1$. Since 31 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 31\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -30$ and $f(\pm 31) = 930$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt{31}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

2.2

Question.

Show that:

a) $\sqrt[3]{2}$

b) $\sqrt[7]{5}$

c) $\sqrt[4]{13}$

are all not rational numbers.

For the following proofs, I will once again use the "Rational Zeros Theorem" from above.

Proof. a.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 3, c_3 = 1, c_2 = c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -2$ because $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^3 - 2$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-2)$ and $d|1$. Since 2 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -1$ and $f(\pm 2) = 6$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt[3]{2}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

Proof. b.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 7, c_7 = 1, c_6 = c_5 = c_4 = c_3 = c_2 = c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -5$ because $\sqrt[7]{5}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^7 - 5$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-5)$ and $d|1$. Since 5 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 5\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -4$ and $f(\pm 5) = 78120$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt[7]{5}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

Proof. c.)

I will apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 4, c_4 = 1, c_3 = c_2 = c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = -13$ because $\sqrt[4]{13}$ is clearly a zero of $f(x) = x^4 - 13$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|(-13)$ and $d|1$. Since 13 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 13\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -12$ and $f(\pm 13) = 28548$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt[4]{13}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

2.3

Question.

Show that $\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$ is not a rational number.

Proof.

Here, I would again like to use the "Rational Zeros Theorem," but it is not quite as obvious as to what my polynomial should be. I will begin by setting $a = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$ and manipulating the equation.

$$\begin{aligned}a &= \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}} \\a^2 &= 2 + \sqrt{2} \\a^2 - 2 &= \sqrt{2} \\(a^2 - 2)^2 &= 2 \\a^4 - 4a^2 + 4 &= 2 \\a^4 - 4a^2 + 2 &= 0\end{aligned}$$

From this, it is clear that I can apply the Rational Zeros Theorem to the polynomial f with $n = 4, c_4 = 1, c_3 = 0, c_2 = -4, c_1 = 0$, and $c_0 = 2$ because we've just shown that $\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$ is a zero of $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^2 + 2$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|2$ and $d|1$. Since 2 is prime, and 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{\pm 1, \pm 2\}$. However, $f(\pm 1) = -1$ and $f(\pm 2) = 2$, so none of those are roots of f . Therefore, f has no rational roots and since $\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}}$ is a root of f , it cannot be rational. \square

2.8

Question.

Find all rational solutions of the equation $x^8 - 4x^5 + 13x^3 - 7x + 1 = 0$.

Proof. I will once again apply the Rational Zeros Theorem on this polynomial. In this case, $n = 8$, $c_8 = 1$, $c_7 = c_6 = 0$, $c_5 = -4$, $c_4 = 0$, $c_3 = 13$, $c_2 = 0$, $c_1 = -7$, and $c_0 = 1$. By the Rational Zeros Theorem, if this polynomial has any rational roots, they must be of the form $r = \frac{c}{d}$ where $c|1$ and $d|1$. Since 1 only has itself and -1 as factors, we know that $r \in \{+1, -1\}$. However, $(1)^8 - 4(1)^5 + 13(1)^3 - 7(1) + 1 = 1 - 4 + 13 - 7 + 1 = 4$, so +1 is not a solution of the equation. Thus, -1 is the only option for a rational root for the polynomial, and, indeed, $(-1)^8 - 4(-1)^5 + 13(-1)^3 - 7(-1) + 1 = 1 + 4 - 13 + 7 + 1 = 0$. Therefore, -1 is the only rational solution to the equation. \square