

1) a) Proposition:  $6 \mid (n^3 - n)$

Proof: We proceed by induction, where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Base Case. The base case is when  $n=1$  and

$$6 \mid (1^3 - 1)$$

$$6 \mid 0$$

$6 \mid 0$  is true since every number is a factor of 0.

Inductive Hypothesis. Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , and assume that

$$6 \mid (k^3 - k)$$

Induction Step. We want to prove that the result holds for  $k+1$  such that

$$6 \mid ((k+1)^3 - (k+1))$$

We can rewrite this expression to be

$$6 \mid (k+1)(k+1)(k+1) - (k+1)$$

$$6 \mid k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1 - (k+1)$$

$$6 \mid k^3 + 3k^2 + 2k$$

$$6 \mid k(k+1)(k+2)$$

We know that in the expression  $k(k+1)(k+2)$  that there either exists an even integer and an integer divisible by 3 since <sup>one of</sup>  $k$  or  $k+1$  is be even by the definition of an even integer and one of the integers  $k$ ,  $k+1$ , or  $k+2$  must be divisible by 3, OR there exists one integer in  $k$ ,  $k+1$ ,  $k+2$  that is both divisible by 3 and even. In either case, we could get  $6C$  where  $C \in \mathbb{N}$ , which would be divisible by 6, so  $6 \mid k(k+1)(k+2)$  is true.

Conclusion. Therefore, we can conclude by induction that  $6 \mid (n^3 - n)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

1) b) Proposition:  $1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 = (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n)^2$

Proof: We proceed by induction, where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Base Case The base case is when  $n=1$  and

$$1^3 = 1^2$$

$$1 = 1$$

So the base case is true.

Inductive Hypothesis. Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that

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

Inductive Step. We wish to show that the result holds for  $k+1$  such that

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

We can rewrite this expression such that

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + k^3 + (k+1)^3 = (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + k+1)^2 \quad \text{expanding}$$

$$(1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k)^2 + (k+1)^3 = (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + k+1)^2 \quad \text{using inductive hypothesis}$$

$$(k+1)^3 = (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + k+1)^2 - (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k)^2 \quad \text{rearranging expression}$$

$$(k+1)^3 = (k+1) \left( 2(1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k) + (k+1) \right) \quad \text{difference of squares}$$

$$(k+1)^2 = 2(1 + 2 + \dots + k) + (k+1) \quad \text{simplifying}$$

We know  $(1 + 2 + \dots + k) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$  by Proposition 4.2 in the "Proofs" textbook, which proves that  $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  is true for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . If we apply this proposition,

$$(k+1)^2 = 2 \left( \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \right) + k+1 \quad \text{Simplifying}$$
$$(k+1)^2 = (k+1)(k+1)$$

Conclusion: Therefore we can conclude by induction that

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 = (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n)^2 \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$



1) c) Proposition:  $1 \cdot 1! + 2 \cdot 2! + 3 \cdot 3! + \dots + n \cdot n! = (n+1)! - 1$

Proof: We proceed by induction, where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Base Case. The base case is when  $n=1$ , and

$$1 \cdot 1! = (1+1)! - 1$$

$$1 = 2 - 1$$

$$1 = 1$$

So the base case is true.

Inductive Hypothesis. Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that

$$1 \cdot 1! + 2 \cdot 2! + 3 \cdot 3! + \dots + k \cdot k! = (k+1)! - 1$$

Induction Step. We want to prove that the result holds for  $k+1$  such that

$$1 \cdot 1! + 2 \cdot 2! + 3 \cdot 3! + \dots + (k+1)(k+1)! = ((k+1)+1)! - 1$$

We can rewrite this expression such that

expanding  $1 \cdot 1! + 2 \cdot 2! + 3 \cdot 3! + \dots + k \cdot k! + (k+1)(k+1)! = (k+2)! - 1$

using inductive hypothesis  $(k+1)! - 1 + (k+1)(k+1)! = (k+2)! - 1$

Simplifying by rearranging  $(k+1)(k+1)! = (k+2)! - (k+1)!$

Simplifying by dividing by  $(k+1)!$   $(k+1) = (k+2) - 1$

$$k+1 = k+1$$

Conclusion. Therefore, We can conclude by induction that  $1 \cdot 1! + 2 \cdot 2! + 3 \cdot 3! + \dots + n \cdot n! = (n+1)! - 1$

$$1 \cdot 1! + 2 \cdot 2! + 3 \cdot 3! + \dots + n \cdot n! = (n+1)! - 1 \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

1) d) Proposition:  $1 + \frac{n}{2} \leq \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{2^n}$

Proof: We proceed by induction where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Base Case: The base case is when  $n=1$  and

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{2^{1-1}} + \frac{1}{2^1}$$

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} \leq 1 + \frac{1}{2}$$

So the base case is true.

Inductive Hypothesis: Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that

$$1 + \frac{n}{2} \leq \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{2^n} \quad \text{or} \quad 1 + \frac{n}{2} \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$$

Induction Step: We wish to show that the result holds for  $n+1$  such that

$$1 + \frac{n+1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{2^n} \quad \text{or} \quad 1 + \frac{n+1}{2} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{k}$$

To begin the induction step, we know that for  $n+1$ ,

$$1 + \frac{n}{2} + \sum_{k=2^{n+1}}^{2^{n+1}} \frac{1}{k} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{2^{n+1}} \frac{1}{k} \quad \text{Since we are adding } \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \text{ to}$$

both sides. With  $\sum_{k=1}^{2^{n+1}} \frac{1}{k}$ , we can observe that the smallest value will be  $\frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$ .

By the definition of a summation, a summation must be greater than or equal to its smallest value multiplied by the total number of elements, so

$$\sum_{k=1}^{2^{n+1}} \frac{1}{k} \geq (2^{n+1} - 2^n) \left( \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} \right)$$
$$\frac{2^{n+1} - 2^n}{2^{n+1}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

This means we could simplify our expression such that  $1 + \frac{n}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{k}$  or  $1 + \frac{n+1}{2} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{k}$ .

Conclusion: Therefore by induction,  $1 + \frac{n}{2} \leq \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{2^n}$  is true for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .



2) a)

$$\boxed{1} < \boxed{3} > \boxed{2} < \boxed{4} < \boxed{6} > \boxed{5}$$

b) Proof: We proceed by induction, where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Base case: The base case is when  $n = 1$ , which holds true because there could be  $n-1$  or 0 inequalities.

Inductive hypothesis: Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that there are  $k$  boxes

with  $k-1$  inequalities between the boxes. We can rearrange the numbers for 1 to  $k$  such that each box has one number and the boxes satisfy all of the inequalities.

Induction Step: We want to prove that the inequalities hold for  $k+1$  boxes.

Case 1: If either the inequality <sup>that is added to the</sup> leftmost side is a  $>$  symbol or the inequality <sup>that is added to</sup> the rightmost side is a  $<$  symbol, then we can assign  $k+1$  to the new box on the outside of the newly added inequality since  $k+1$  is the largest number in the sequence from 1 to  $k+1$ . This retains the satisfaction of the inequalities, since we know that the <sup>previous</sup>  $k$  boxes with  $k-1$  inequalities must also hold from the inductive hypothesis.

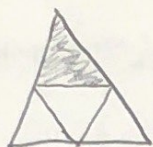
Case 2: If either the inequality that is added to the leftmost side is a  $<$  symbol or the inequality that is added to the rightmost side is a  $>$  symbol, then we know we're looking for a smaller number. To guarantee that the inequality holds true for  $k+1$ , we can increment all existing numbers in the boxes by 1, such that all existing numbers range from 2 to  $k+1$ . Then, we can assign 1 to the new box on the outside of the newly added inequality since 1 is the smallest number in the sequence from 1 to  $k+1$ . This retains the satisfaction of the inequalities, since we know that the previous  $k$  boxes with  $k-1$  must hold by the inductive hypothesis.

Conclusion: If one has  $n$  boxes with <sup>or</sup>  $n-1$  inequalities between them, then it is always possible to place numbers  $1, 2, 3, \dots, n$  into these boxes so that the inequalities are all correct for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .





3) Proof: We proceed by induction, where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

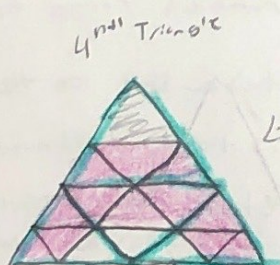
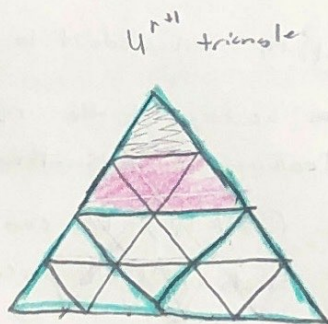
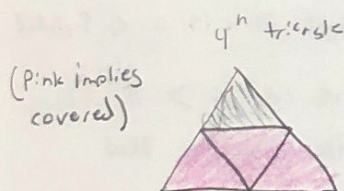
Base Case: The base case is when  $n=1$ . This means we could have 4 congruent triangles with the top corner removed as shown below:



For the base case, only the shape:  is left, which is the shape we want to cover the remaining triangles by, so the base case is true.


Inductive Hypothesis: Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that the remaining number of triangles we want to be covered with the shape:  is  $4^k - 1$ .


Induction Step: We want to prove that the resulting triangle can be covered with the shape:  for  $k+1$ . Our new <sup>total</sup> number of triangles expression could be  $4^{k+1}$  or  $4 \cdot 4^k$  or 4 times as many triangles and the total number of triangles we would need to cover could be  $4^{k+1} - 1$  or  $4(4^k) - 1$ , shown below:



We can observe that for the  $4^{n+1}$  triangle, there exists 4 of the  $4^n$  triangles (outlined in blue).

If we apply the placement on the top triangle, making sure to rotate the pieces like so:

Then we could have  $4(4^n - 1)$  or  $4^n - 4$  triangles covered, in which case we can place one more  shape such that  $4 \cdot 4^n - 1$  triangles have been covered.

Conclusion: Therefore by induction, we have proved that the remaining  $4^n - 1$  triangles in a  $4^n$  equilateral triangle with the top removed can be covered entirely by the shape  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

4) Proof: We proceed by induction.

Base Case: The base case is when  $n = 2, 3$ .

For  $n = 2$  cents, we can only use 1 2-cent stamp, so  $1 \leq \frac{2}{2}$  or  $1 \leq 1$ .

For  $n = 3$  cents, we can only use 1 3-cent stamp, so  $1 \leq \frac{3}{2}$ .

Thus, all base cases are true.

Strong Inductive Hypothesis:

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that  $k$  cents in postage can be made up using at most  $\frac{k}{2}$  postage stamps for  $k \geq 2$ .

Induction Step: We want to prove that the result holds for  $k+1$  cents  $\leq \frac{k+1}{2}$  stamps

From our hypothesis, we know that  $k-1$  cents in postage can be made up using at most  $\left(\frac{k-1}{2}\right)$  stamps, which can be represented as  $k-1 \leq \frac{k-1}{2}$ .

If we add one 2-cent stamp, then  $k$  would increase by 2 cents and the number of stamps would increase by 1.

This means that we would have  $k+1 \leq \frac{k-1}{2} + 1$  or  $k+1 \leq \frac{k+1}{2}$ .

Conclusion: Therefore by strong induction,  $n$  cents in postage can be made up using at most  $\frac{n}{2}$  postage stamps for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \geq 2$ .