

1. (a) Prove by contradiction that there does not exist a smallest positive real number.

Let us start by proposing that there is a smallest real number k , that is, $k < n$ for all positive real numbers n . Since the division operation is closed to real numbers as long as the divisor is not zero, we can assert the existence of another positive real number j , where $j = k/2$. Any positive number divided by 2 is necessarily smaller, so from this, we can assert $j < k$, which contradicts our proposition that k is the smallest of the positive reals, so the proposition must be false. Q.E.D.

- (b) Prove by induction on n that, for all positive integers n , 3 divides $4^n + 5$.

The proposition $4^n + 5 = 3i$ where i is an integer holds when $n = 1$ -

$$4^1 + 5 = 9 = 3 \cdot 3$$

Suppose now as inductive hypothesis that $4^k + 5 = 3i$ where i is an integer holds for some k . It follows that $4^{k+1} + 5 = 3j$ where j is also an integer, then, must also hold. $4^{k+1} = 4 \cdot 4^k + 5$, therefore, since by the inductive hypothesis,

$$4^k + 5 = 3i \Rightarrow 4^k = 3i - 5, 4 \cdot 4^k + 5 = 4(3i - 5) + 5 = 12i - 15 = 3j \Rightarrow 4i + 5 = j$$

. Thus, j must be an integer, as the operations of multiplication and addition are closed to integers, and all the terms on the left-hand side of the previous equality are integers. This proves the inductive step. Hence, by induction, 3 divides $4^n + 5$ for all $n \geq 1$. Q.E.D.

- (c) Prove by induction on n that $n! > 2^n$ for all integers n such that $n \geq 4$.

The proposition $n! > 2^n$ holds for $n = 4$ -

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24 > 16 = 2^4$$

Suppose as an inductive hypothesis that $k! > 2^k$. It follows that $(k+1)! > 2^{k+1}$, as $(k+1)! = (k+1) \cdot k!$, and $2^{k+1} = 2 \cdot 2^k$. As we are given by the induction hypothesis that $k! > 2^k$, and $k+1$ is larger than 2 given that we are bound to $n \geq 4$, we can assert that this inequality also holds for $k+1$. Hence, by induction, $n! > 2^n$ for all $n \geq 4$. Q.E.D.

- (d) Prove by induction on n that $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{n}{n+1}$ for all positive integers n .

We can show that the base case of $n = 1$ holds:

$$\sum_{i=1}^1 \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{1+1}$$

Suppose as an inductive hypothesis that $\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{k}{k+1}$. From this statement, it follows that $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{k+1}{k+2}$.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} + \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i(i+1)}$$

and

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

From these two lines of algebraic manipulation, we obtain the equality $\frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)} + \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{k}{k+1} + \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)}$. By the induction hypothesis, we have $\sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{k}{k+1}$, so this statement must be true. Hence, by induction, $\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{n}{n+1}$ for all $n > 0$. Q.E.D.

2. This argument is begging the question- it assumes that n is in fact the largest integer before proving it when it asserts that $n^2 < n$ - note that this is not part of any induction hypothesis!

This argument is very close to a *reductio ad absurdum* argument proving that there can be no largest integer, as for any integer n , there must exist n^2 which is necessarily larger than n .

3. This is an example of incorrectly applying the induction hypothesis and again begging the question. The error is precisely in the following line:

”...On the other hand, all the cows in the subset $\{C_2, \dots, C_{n+1}\}$ must also have the same color...”

This statement simply serves to assert *without proof* that C_{n+1} is also a cow of the same color as the rest. The induction hypothesis says nothing at all about specific sets such as the one above- it only applies to the general set $\{C_1, \dots, C_k\}$, where k is some integer. Given this, we can make no statements about a set missing the first element, and although this set is of the same size as the one proposed in the induction hypothesis, *it is not the same set*.

4. Let m and n be any integers. Show that the product $m \cdot n$ is odd if and only if both m and n are odd.

For this proof, I will make use of the following definitions of ‘even’ and ‘odd’:

A number n is even if and only if $n = 2k$ is true for some integer k .

A number n is odd if and only if $n = 2k + 1$ is true for some integer k .

Suppose it is not the case that if m and n are odd, then $m \cdot n$ is odd, or, in other words, $m \cdot n$ is even, or $m \cdot n = 2k$ for some integer k . Since m and n are both odd, they can each be expressed in the form $2k + 1$ for some k – to avoid confusion, we will use the variables i and j , both integers, like so:

$$m \cdot n \Rightarrow (2i + 1)(2j + 1) = 4ij + 2i + 2j + 1 = 2(2ij + i + j) + 1 = 2k$$

As multiplication and addition are closed to integers, it is clear that $2ij + i + j$ must also be an integer (we will call it p), so we can write $2p + 1 = 2k$. This statement is clearly false, as k and p are both integers (Intuitively, this statement is attempting to say that an even number is also an odd number, which greatly offends the sensibilities of the rational mind). Hence, a contradiction, therefore the supposition is false, thus, it must be the case that if m and n are both odd, then their product must be odd.

Let us further suppose that it is not the case that if a product of two integers $m \cdot n$ is odd that the factors m and n are also odd. There are two cases here – in one case, one of the variables is odd and one is even. We can express this as $2i(2j + 1) = 2k + 1$. This can be rearranged into $2(2ij + i) = 2k + 1$. Again, due to the closure of multiplication and addition to integers, we can assert that $2ij + i$ is also an integer p , and have $2p = 2k + 1$, which is a contradiction, as $p = \frac{2k+1}{2}$ cannot be an integer.

There is one last case where both m and n are even that we must eliminate before we can assert our second proposition as truth. This proceeds much in the same way –

$$m \cdot n = 2k + 1 = 2i \cdot 2j = 2(ij) = 2p$$

Again we reach $2p = 2k + 1$, and have the contradiction $p = \frac{2k+1}{2}$. As m and n cannot be both even, nor can one be even and one odd, they must both be odd to have an odd product.

Finally, as we have proven that if m and n are odd then $m \cdot n$ must be odd and that if $m \cdot n$ is odd then both m and n are odd, we can state that $m \cdot n$ is odd if and only if both m and n are odd. Q.E.D.