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Exam 1

1. Assume that there is a finite number of primes and let P be all those primes such that $P = P_1 \cdot P_2 \cdot \dots \cdot P_n$. Then we look at the next number lets say $X = P_1 \cdot P_2 \cdot \dots \cdot P_n + 1$. If X is prime then we found a new prime and that contradicts that P is the list of all primes. If X is composite then it can be divisible by $P_k \in \{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$. Since P_k can be factored out from P and X then it can be factored out from $P - X$. So $\frac{P - X}{P_k}$ is an integer but

$$\frac{P - X}{P_k} = \frac{1}{P_k} \quad \text{Since } P - X = 1 \text{ and}$$

$\frac{1}{P_k}$ is not an integer thus the contradiction

Therefore there are infinite number of primes.

2. Assume that $\sqrt{29}$ is rational
Such that $\sqrt{29} = \frac{p}{q}$ where $q \neq 0$ and

p and q both do not have factors
of 29. Looking at $\sqrt{29} = \frac{p}{q}$ then

$$29 = \frac{p^2}{q^2} \text{ so } 29q^2 = p^2 \text{ or that}$$

$$q^2 = \frac{p^2}{29} \text{ . Since } p^2 \text{ is divisible by}$$

29 then p is divisible by 29. So

$p = 29 \cdot k$ for $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Now we have

$$q^2 = \frac{(29 \cdot k)^2}{29} \rightarrow q^2 = 29 \cdot k \text{ and}$$

by the same argument q is divisible
by 29. but our assumption says

p and q both do not have factors
of 29 and we found they both

do so that's the contradiction.
Therefore $\sqrt{29}$ is irrational.

$$\begin{aligned}
 3. \quad \arctan x &= \int_0^x \frac{1}{1+t^2} dx = \int_0^x \frac{1}{1-(-t^2)} dx \\
 &= \int_0^x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-t^2)^n dx \\
 &= \int_0^x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n t^{2n} dx \\
 &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} = \arctan x
 \end{aligned}$$

Geometric Series

$$\text{Now } \arctan(x^3) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(x^3)^{2n+1}}{2n+1}$$

By just substituting in x^3 for x

$$4. \sum_{k=0}^n k(k-1)(k-2) = \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)(n-2)}{4}$$

I) it is degree 4 so you would have to verify it is true for 5 different cases.

$$n=0 \quad \sum_{k=0}^0 k(k-1)(k-2) = 0(0-1)(0-2) = 0$$

$$\frac{(0+1)(0)(0-1)(0-2)}{4} = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$n=1 \quad \sum_{k=0}^1 k(k-1)(k-2) = 0 + 1(1-1)(1-2) = 0$$

$$\frac{(1+1)(1)(1-1)(1-2)}{4} = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$n=2 \quad \sum_{k=0}^2 k(k-1)(k-2) = 0 + 0 + 2(2-1)(2-2) = 0$$

$$\frac{(2+1)(2)(2-1)(2-2)}{4} = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$n=3 \quad \sum_{k=0}^3 k(k-1)(k-2) = 0 + 0 + 0 + 3(3-1)(3-2) = 6$$

$$\frac{(3+1)(3)(3-1)(3-2)}{4} = \frac{(4)(3)(2)(1)}{4} = 6 \quad \checkmark$$

$$n=4 \quad \sum_{k=0}^4 k(k-1)(k-2) = 0 + 0 + 0 + 6 + 4(4-1)(4-2) = 6 + 4(3)(2) = 30$$

$$\frac{(4+1)(4)(4-1)(4-2)}{4} = \frac{(5)(3)(2)}{4} = 30 \quad \checkmark$$

Since they are both degree 4, and agree up to 5 different values then

$$\sum_{k=0}^n k(k-1)(k-2) = \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)(n-2)}{4}$$

is true

II) Base case $n=0$, $\sum_{k=0}^0 k(k-1)(k-2) = 0$

$$\frac{(0+1)(0)(0-1)(0-2)}{4} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad 0 = 0$$

thus it is true for $n=0$.

Now Assume $\sum_{k=0}^n k(k-1)(k-2) = \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)(n-2)}{4}$

for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we need to prove

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} k(k-1)(k-2) = \frac{((n+1)+1)(n+1)((n+1)-1)((n+1)-2)}{4}$$

$$\text{So } \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} k(k-1)(k-2) = \sum_{k=0}^n k(k-1)(k-2) + (n+1)(n+1-1)(n+1-2)$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)(n-2)}{4} + (n+1)n(n-1) \quad \text{By our assumption.}$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)(n-2) + 4(n+1)n(n-1)}{4}$$

and if we do some algebra we see that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k(k-1)(k-2) = \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)(n-2)}{4}$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

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x

1

2 8

3 9 15

4	35	10	41	16	22		
5	11	17	23		29		
6	12	18	24	30		34	
7	13	19	25	31	37		43
14	20	26	32	38		44	
21	27	33	39		45		
28	34	40	46				
	35	41	47				
	42	48					
		49					

7x7

4	35	10	41	16	47	22
29	11	42	17	48	23	5
12	36	18	49	24	6	30
43	19	37	25	13	31	7
20	44	26	1	32	14	38
45	27	2	33	8	39	21
46	15	40	9	34	3	28

- 6. Newton - 17th Century
- ✓ Archimedes - (287 - 212)
- ✗ Galileo - 16th Century
- Euler - 18th Century
- ✓ Leibniz - 17th Century
- ✓ Euclid - 323 BC
- ✓ Thales - 624 BC
- ✓ Brahmagupta - 625
- ✗ Fibonacci - 12th

Thales, Euclid, Archimedes, Brahmagupta, Fibonacci, Galileo, Newton, Euler, Leibniz

7. Egyptian fraction is a sum of fractions with 1 as the numerator for each of the summands.

$$\frac{5}{6} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{5}{6} - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{6} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$$

8. Ionians tried to study the science and arts of older civilizations and not reproduce them. Babylonian math were more developed than its oriental counterparts. Chinese math was just general arithmetic algebraic nature. Euclid is the father of Greek math

9. The "Elements" made by Euclid.

10. $V + F - E = 2$ made by Euler.

11. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} - \log n \right) = .577216\dots$

Which is the constant of Euler.

$$12. \quad \sin(\sin x) = \sin x - \frac{1}{6}(\sin x)^3$$

$$= x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots - \frac{1}{6}\left(x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots\right)^3$$

$$\sin(\sin(\sin x)) = \left(x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots - \frac{1}{6}\left(x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots\right)^3\right) - \frac{1}{6}\left(x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots - \frac{1}{6}\left(x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \dots\right)^3\right)^3$$

Just have to worry about up to x^3

$$a_0 = 0, a_1 = 1, a_2 = 0, a_3 = -\frac{1}{3}$$