

Portfolio

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Math 210, C. Wells

Winter 2015

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1 Introduction

In this portfolio, I have included seven portfolio theorems, using a variety of proof methods and covering a variety of mathematical concepts.

The proof of Portfolio Theorem 1 is a *proof by contrapositive* using the definitions of prime and composite integers.

Portfolio Theorem 2 is a *direct proof* that uses the “divides” relation.

Portfolio Theorem 3 and Portfolio Theorem 5 are both *proofs by mathematical induction*, but the proof of Portfolio Theorem 3 is algebraic, while the proof of Portfolio Theorem 5 is a geometric argument.

I included two different proofs for Portfolio Theorem 4, one of which is a non-constructive *proof by cases*, the other of which is a *constructive direct proof*, but relies on Lemma 3, which was proven using a *proof by contradiction*.

For Portfolio Theorem 6, I prove that a function is a bijection. For Portfolio Theorem 7, I prove that a function is *not* an injection.

I have also included, at the end, a L^AT_EX “cheat sheet.”

2 Conjectures and Proofs

2.1 A Theorem Concerning Primes

2.1.1 A Definition

Definition 1. Saying that an integer, n , is *prime* means that n has exactly two distinct positive factors. An integer with *more* than two distinct positive factors is *composite*.

For example, 7 is prime because its positive factors are 1 and 7, while 12 is composite because its positive factors are 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, and 12. (Note that 1 is neither prime nor composite because it has only one positive factor, namely 1.)

Another thing to be aware of about this definition is that if n is composite it must have at least two factors that are greater than 1.

Conjecture 1. *If n and b are positive integers and $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is prime, then n is prime.*

2.1.2 Equivalent Expressions and the Negation

I began by rewriting the proposition so that the quantifiers are explicit. The quantifiers are in **bold** and logical connective are *emphasized* to better see the logical structure.

For all positive integers b and **for all** positive integers n , if $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is prime, then n is prime.

The variables b and n are universally quantified and both are taken from the set of positive integers, which I will denote by \mathbb{Z}^+ . So, now I can see that this conjecture has the form

$$(\forall b \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(S(b, n) \rightarrow P(n)) \quad (1)$$

where $S(b, n)$ is the predicate “ $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is prime,” and $P(n)$ is the predicate “ n is prime.” This form makes it easier to find the negation and contrapositive.

When we find the negation, the quantifiers are changed, and the negation of an implication, $P \rightarrow Q$ is $P \wedge \neg Q$, so the negation of Statement (1) is

$$(\exists b \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(\exists n \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(S(b, n) \wedge \neg P(n)) \quad (2)$$

which, in plain language, is

there are positive integers b and n such that $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is prime and n is not prime.

It will probably be easier to start with knowing whether a value for n is prime or not and find out about the value for $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$. Since Statement (2) is a conjunction, I can write the two parts in either order, so I will rewrite it as

Conjecture 1a (Negation). *There are positive integers b and n such that n is not prime and $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is prime.*

Since a counter-example is an example that proves the negation of a statement, a counter-example for Conjecture 1 would consist of a positive integer b and a positive integer n so that n is not prime and $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is prime.

On the other hand, if I want to start with n and try to prove that Conjecture 1 is true, I can replace Conjecture 1 with its contrapositive, which will be logically equivalent. The contrapositive of Conjecture 1 will have the form

$$(\forall b \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(\neg P(n) \rightarrow \neg S(b, n)) \quad (3)$$

which I will now write as Conjecture 1b

Conjecture 1b (Contrapositive). *For all positive integers b and all positive integers n , if n is not prime, then $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is not prime.*

I experimented to see if I could find a counter-example, or see a way to prove the conjecture. Since I would need n to be composite for a counter-example, I primarily looked at those cases, but looked at others, too, to look for patterns. I looked at several examples where I kept the same value of b and changed n , and I looked at other examples where I kept n the same and changed b .

2.1.3 Experimentation

1. $b = 6, n = 1$ (1 is not prime): $6^{1-1} = 6^0 = 1$, 1 is not prime.
2. $b = 2, n = 2$ (2 is prime): $1 + 2 = 3$, 3 is prime.
3. $b = 2, n = 3$ (3 is prime): $1 + 2 + 2^2 = 1 + 2 + 4 = 7$, 7 is prime.
4. $b = 2, n = 4$ ($4 = 2 \cdot 2$ is not prime): $1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15$, $15 = 3 \cdot 5$ is not prime.
5. $b = 2, n = 5$ (5 is prime): $1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 = 31$, 31 is prime.
6. $b = 2, n = 6$ ($6 = 2 \cdot 3$ is not prime): $1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 + 2^5 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 + 32 = 63$, $63 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$ is not prime.
7. $b = 3, n = 1$ (1 is not prime): $3^{1-1} = 3^0 = 1$, 1 is not prime.
8. $b = 3, n = 4$ (4 is not prime): $1 + 3 + 3^2 + 3^3 = 1 + 3 + 9 + 27 = 40$, 40 is not prime.
9. $b = 3, n = 5$ (5 is prime): $1 + 3 + 3^2 + 3^3 + 3^4 = 1 + 3 + 9 + 27 + 81 = 121$, $121 = 11 \cdot 11$ is not prime, (but the conjecture says that *if* 121 is *not* prime then n is not prime, so this isn't a counter-example.)

I noticed that $n = 1$ is not prime, and $b^{1-1} = b^0 = 1$ (and again, 1 is not prime), so the conjecture is true in the case where $n = 1$.

I realized that any positive integer greater than 1 must either be prime or composite, and if $n > 1$ is composite, then it must have a positive integer factor k so that $k > 1$ and $k \neq n$. That means that we can find an integer j so that $n = kj$ where $j > 1$ and $j \neq n$.

Next I tried to see if I could figure out how being able to factor n this way applied to my experiments where n is not prime.

Let's look at $n = 6 = 2 \cdot 3$, $b = 2$. $63 = 7 \cdot 9 = 7 \cdot 3 \cdot 3$.

I noticed that when $b = 2$ and $n = 2 \cdot 3$, the value I got for the sum was $63 = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 7$. But when $b = 2$ and $n = 2$ the sum was 3, and when $b = 2$ and $n = 3$ the sum was 7 and both of these sums are factors of 63.

After a couple more examples, I started to see a pattern: the sum would have n things added up, so if n was composite, I could break it into smaller groups of the same size. For example, I can break a sum of six things into three groups of two or two groups

of three:

$$\begin{aligned}
(1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 + 2^5) &= (1 + 2) + (2^2 + 2^3) + (2^4 + 2^5) & (4) \\
&= (1 + 2) + 2^2(1 + 2) + 2^4(1 + 2) \\
&= (1 + 2^2 + 2^4)(1 + 2) \\
&= (21)(3)
\end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
(1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 + 2^5) &= (1 + 2 + 2^2) + (2^3 + 2^4 + 2^5) & (5) \\
&= (1 + 2 + 2^2) + 2^3(1 + 2 + 2^2) \\
&= (1 + 2^3)(1 + 2 + 2^2) \\
&= (9)(7)
\end{aligned}$$

Then I was ready to write the proof, which meant that the conjecture would be a theorem!

2.1.4 Theorem and Proof

Portfolio Theorem 1. *If n and b are positive integers and $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is prime, then n is prime.*

Proof. We will prove this theorem using the contrapositive. That is, we will prove that if n and b are positive integers and n is not prime, then $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is not prime. Thus, we will assume that n and b are positive integers and that n is not prime, and we will show that the sum $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is not prime. First, we note that if $n = 1$, then the sum is just 1, which is not prime, so the theorem holds in this case.

Next, in the case where $n > 1$ and n is not prime, we know that n is composite, so we will be able to find integers $k > 1$ and $j > 1$ so that $n = kj$. We can think of this as grouping n objects into k groups of size j . So, because the sum $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is a sum of n terms, we can write it as

$$\begin{aligned}
1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1} &= (1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{j-1}) & (6) \\
&\quad + (b^j + b^{j+1} + \dots + b^{j+(j-2)} + b^{2j-1}) \\
&\quad + \dots + (b^{(k-1)j} + b^{(k-1)j+1} + \dots + b^{(k-1)j+(j-2)} + b^{kj-1}) \\
&= (1 + b^j + b^{2j} + \dots + b^{(k-1)j}) \\
&\quad \times (1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{j-1}). & (7)
\end{aligned}$$

Since $b > 0$, $j > 1$, and $k > 1$, each of the two sums in equation (7) will be greater than 1, and so the sum $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ must be composite, and therefore not prime.

Thus, we have shown that if n and b are positive integers and n is not prime, then the sum $1 + b + b^2 + \dots + b^{n-2} + b^{n-1}$ is not prime.

□

2.2 Divisibility by Six

A commonly taught “rule” for testing for divisibility by six is to check that a number (an integer) is even and divisible 3. This always works, which means that it is a theorem. Using the fact that an integer is even exactly when it is divisible by 2, we the following theorem.

Portfolio Theorem 2. *Let M be any integer. If M is divisible by 2 and M is divisible by 3 then M is divisible by 6.*

Proof. Stating that M is divisible by 3 means that we can express M as $M = 3k$ where k is an integer. Similarly, Stating that M is divisible by 2 means that we can express M as $M = 2j$ where j is an integer.

We wish to show that if we assume that M is divisible by both 2 and 3, then we will be able to find an integer, say q , so that $M = 6q$.

Because we are given that M is divisible by 3, there is an integer, k so that $M = 3k$. Furthermore, there is an integer j so that $M = 2j$ because we are given that M is divisible by 2. Thus, substituting, we see that

$$3k = 2j. \tag{8}$$

Now, we know that $3 = 2 + 1$, so substituting this into equation (8) and using the distributive property, we have

$$\begin{aligned} 3k &= 2j \\ (2 + 1)k &= 2j \\ 2k + k &= 2j \\ \text{so} \\ k &= 2j - 2k \\ &= 2(j - k). \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

Now, substituting equation (9) into the equation $M = 3k$, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} M &= 3(2(j - k)) \\ &= 6(j - k). \end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

Thus, given that the integer M is divisible by 2 and 3, we see from equation (10) that M is divisible by 6. \square

2.3 A Lemma and a Theorem

Lemma 2. *For any real numbers a , b , and c , if $a \geq b$ and $c \geq 0$ then $ca \geq cb$.*

Proof. Let a , b , and c be real numbers with $a \geq b$ and $c \geq 0$. We will show that $ca \geq cb$ using a direct proof.

We know that $a \geq b$ if and only if $a - b \geq 0$. Furthermore, we know that the product of any two non-negative real numbers will be non-negative. Thus, we know that

$$\begin{aligned}c(a - b) &= ca - cb \geq 0 \\ &\text{and so} \\ ca &\geq cb\end{aligned}$$

which is what we wanted to show. □

Portfolio Theorem 3. *For any non-negative real numbers a and b , if $a \geq b$, then for all natural numbers n , $a^n \geq b^n$.*

Proof. Let a and b be non-negative real numbers and assume that $a \geq b$. We will prove that for any natural number n , $a^n \geq b^n$ using induction.

Basis Step

For our basis step, we know that $a > b$, so

$$a^1 = a \geq b = b^1.$$

So $a^1 \geq b^1$.

Inductive Step

For our inductive step, we will show that if k is any natural number and $a^k \geq b^k$, then $a^{k+1} \geq b^{k+1}$. Thus, we let k be an arbitrary natural number and we assume that $a^k \geq b^k$. We first note that $a^{k+1} = a \cdot a^k$ and $b^{k+1} = b \cdot b^k$. Now, because $a \geq 0$, we know from Lemma 2 that

$$a \cdot a^k \geq a \cdot b^k. \tag{11}$$

Furthermore, because $b^k \geq 0$ and $a \geq b$, applying Lemma 2 again, we have

$$a \cdot b^k \geq b \cdot b^k. \tag{12}$$

Thus, combining equations (11) and (12), we have

$$\begin{aligned}a^{k+1} &= a \cdot a^k \\ &\geq a \cdot b^k \\ &\geq b \cdot b^k \\ &= b^{k+1}.\end{aligned}$$

So, we have shown that if $a \geq b$, then for any natural number k , if $a^k \geq b^k$, then $a^{k+1} \geq b^{k+1}$, which concludes our inductive step.

Since we have shown the basis step and the inductive step, we have shown that for any non-negative real numbers a and b , if $a \geq b$, then for all natural numbers n , $a^n \geq b^n$. □

2.4 Two Proofs of a Conjecture

Here we present a conjecture together with both a constructive and a non-constructive proof of the conjecture.

Portfolio Theorem 4. *The set of irrational real numbers is not closed under exponentiation. That is, there exist irrational numbers a and b so that a^b is rational.*

2.4.1 A Lemma

Before we begin our proofs of Portfolio Theorem 4, we will prove a lemma that will be needed in the constructive proof. (It is not needed in the non-constructive proof.)

Lemma 3. *The logarithm base 2 of 9, $\log_2(9)$, is irrational.*

Proof of Lemma 3. We will prove that the logarithm base 2 of 9 is irrational by means of a proof by contradiction. Thus, we will assume that $\log_2(9)$ is rational, and we will show that this gives rise to a contradiction.

If $\log_2(9)$ is rational, there must exist (because of what it means to be a rational number) integers p and q , with $q \neq 0$, so that $\log_2(9) = p/q$. This means (from properties of logarithms) that

$$2^{p/q} = 9. \tag{13}$$

Furthermore, because $9 > 2$, we must have that $p/q > 1 > 0$, and we can assume that both p and q are positive integers, since otherwise they would both have to be negative and we would use instead the integers $-p$ and $-q$.

Raising each side of equation (13) to the q power, we obtain

$$2^p = 9^q. \tag{14}$$

Because p and q are positive integers, both sides of equation (14) are integers. Furthermore, the integer on the left, 2^p , must be even, and the number on the right, 9^q , is odd. However, no integer can be both even and odd, and so we have arrived at a contradiction. Therefore, we have proven that $\log_2(9)$ is irrational. \square

2.4.2 A Non-Constructive Proof of Portfolio Theorem 4

Non-Constructive Proof of Portfolio Theorem 4. We will show that there must be irrational numbers a and b such that a^b is rational by considering two possibilities for the real number $(\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$, namely that this number must either be irrational or rational.

Case 1 ($(\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$ rational) We have shown previously that $\sqrt{2}$ and $(\sqrt{3})$ are irrational. If $(\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$ is rational, then we can set $a = (\sqrt{3})$ and $b = \sqrt{2}$, and have that

$$a^b = (\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$$

so that a and b are irrational and a^b is rational, and so our theorem is true.

Case 2 ($(\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$ irrational) If $(\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$ is irrational, then we can set $a = (\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$ and $b = \sqrt{2}$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} a^b &= \left((\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}} \right)^{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= (\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2}} \\ &= (\sqrt{3})^2 \\ &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

and 3 is rational, so we have found a and b irrational with a^b rational, so our theorem is true.

Since we have shown that whether $(\sqrt{3})^{\sqrt{2}}$ is rational or irrational, there exist irrational numbers a and b with a^b rational, we have proven our theorem. \square

2.4.3 A Constructive Proof of Portfolio Theorem 4

Constructive Proof of Portfolio Theorem 4. We will show that there exist irrational numbers a and b with the property that a^b is rational by exhibiting such numbers. Let $a = \sqrt{2}$ and let $b = \log_2(9)$. We have shown previously that $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational, and by Lemma 3 we know that $\log_2(9)$ is irrational. So, using properties of logarithms and of exponents, we have

$$\begin{aligned} a^b &= (\sqrt{2})^{\log_2(9)} \\ &= (2^{1/2})^{\log_2(3^2)} \\ &= (2^{1/2})^{2\log_2(3)} \\ &= (2)^{\log_2(3)} \\ &= 3. \end{aligned}$$

Because 3 is rational, we have shown that there exist irrational numbers a and b such that a^b is rational, as desired. \square

2.5 A Non-Algebraic Induction Proof

Definition 2. An L-triomino is a geometric figure consisting of three congruent squares arranged into an L, . We say that a region R can be tiled by L-triominoes if the region can be completely covered by L-triominoes without overlapping.

Portfolio Theorem 5. For any natural number n , any $2^n \times 2^n$ chessboard composed of squares of a particular size with one square removed can be completely tiled using L-triominoes consisting of squares of the same given size.

Proof. We will show that for any natural number n , any chessboard of size $2^n \times 2^n$ with one square deleted can always be tiled using L-triominoes using mathematical induction.

Basis Step

For our basis step, we need to show that any $2^1 \times 2^1 = 2 \times 2$ chess board with one square deleted can be tiled using L-triominoes.

We first note that we can always rotate the 2×2 chessboard so that the deleted

square is in the lower left corner: . Here, it is obvious that we can exactly tile

the three remaining squares of the 2×2 chessboard with one L-triomino, .

Inductive Step

For our inductive step, we will fix k to be some positive integer and show that if every $2^k \times 2^k$ chessboard with one square deleted can be tiled using L-triominoes, then every $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ chessboard with one square deleted can be tiled using L-triominoes.

Given any $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ chessboard with one square deleted, we first partition the chessboard into four regions of size $2^k \times 2^k$, and then rotate the chessboard so that the missing square is in the lower left $2^k \times 2^k$ region, as shown in Figure 1.

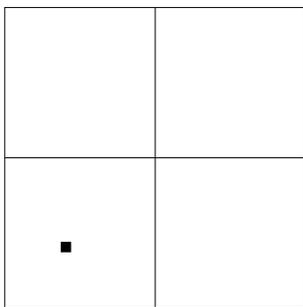


Figure 1: A $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ chessboard partitioned into four $2^k \times 2^k$ regions.

It is clear that the lower left region is precisely a $2^k \times 2^k$ chessboard with one square deleted and thus, by our inductive hypothesis, can be tiled with L-triominoes.

Next, we place one L-triomino adjacent to the lower left region so that it occupies one square in each of the remaining three $2^k \times 2^k$ regions as shown in Figure 2.

Because the L-triomino covers exactly one tile in each of the three $2^k \times 2^k$ regions, the remaining squares form three $2^k \times 2^k$ chessboards each with one square deleted, and

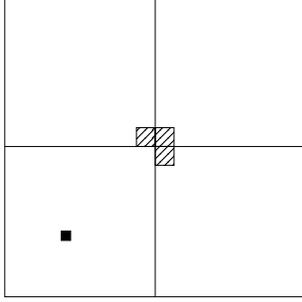


Figure 2: A $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ chessboard with one L-triomino.

thus they can, by our inductive hypothesis, be tiled with L-triominoes as well, and thus the entire $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ chessboard can be tiled with L-triominoes. This completes the inductive step.

Since we have proven the basis step and the inductive step, we have proven our proposition, that for any natural number n , any $2^n \times 2^n$ chessboard with one square removed can be completely tiled using L-triominoes. \square

2.6 A Proof of Bijection

Portfolio Theorem 6. *The function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by*

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2; & x = 3 \\ \frac{4x+3}{2x-6}; & x \neq 3 \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

is a bijection.

Proof. We will prove that the function, f , defined by equation (15) is a bijection by proving that f is an injection and that f is a surjection.

Injectivity To prove that f is an injection, we need to show that for any x_1 and x_2 that are elements of the domain of f , if $x_1 \neq x_2$, then $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$. We will do this by using the contrapositive. That is, we will let x_1 and x_2 be arbitrary elements of the domain of f and show that if $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then $x_1 = x_2$. In this case, this means that we assume x_1 and x_2 are arbitrary real numbers and that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ and we will show that $x_1 = x_2$.

Because f is piecewise defined, we need to consider that we could have $x_1 = 3$ or $x_1 \neq 3$, and similarly that we could have $x_2 = 3$ or $x_2 \neq 3$. If $x_1 = 3$ and $x_2 = 3$, then there is nothing to show, since $x_1 = 3 = x_2$. Thus we have to consider the following cases: $x_1 = 3$ and $x_2 \neq 3$, $x_1 \neq 3$ and $x_2 = 3$, and $x_1 \neq 3$ and $x_2 \neq 3$. It is easy to see that by simply relabeling x_1 and x_2 , the first two cases are really the same. That leaves us with two cases to consider.

Case 1 ($x_1 = 3$ and $x_2 \neq 3$) This is a proof by contradiction, and thus we will assume that $x_1 = 3$, $x_2 \neq 3$, and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, and show that a contradiction arises. Since $x_1 = 3$ and $x_2 \neq 3$, we know that $f(x_1) = f(3) = 2$ and $f(x_2) = \frac{4x_2+3}{2x_2-6}$. Because we assume that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, we thus have

$$\frac{4x_2 + 3}{2x_2 - 6} = 2. \quad (16)$$

Multiplying each side of equation (16) by $2x_2 - 6$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} 4x_2 + 3 &= 2(2x_2 - 6) \\ &= 4x_2 - 12. \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

By subtracting $4x_2$ from both sides of equation (17) we get $3 = -12$, which is a contradiction. Thus, the $x_1 = 3$, $x_2 \neq 3$, and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ cannot occur.

Case 2 ($x_1 \neq 3$ and $x_2 \neq 3$) It now remains to show that if x_1 and x_2 are any real numbers with $x_1 \neq 3$, $x_2 \neq 3$, and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then $x_1 = x_2$.

Because $x_1 \neq 3$, $x_2 \neq 3$, and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, we have that

$$\frac{4x_1 + 3}{2x_1 - 6} = \frac{4x_2 + 3}{2x_2 - 6}. \quad (18)$$

Multiplying both sides of equation (18) by $(2x_1 - 6)(2x_2 - 6)$ and expanding, we get

$$\begin{aligned} (4x_1 + 3)(2x_2 - 6) &= (4x_2 + 3)(2x_1 - 6) \\ &\text{and so} \\ 8x_1x_2 - 24x_1 + 6x_2 - 18 &= 8x_1x_2 + 6x_1 - 24x_2 - 18. \end{aligned} \quad (19)$$

Subtracting the left hand side of equation (19) from both sides, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= 30x_1 - 30x_2 \\ &= 30(x_1 - x_2). \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

From equation (20), since $30 \neq 0$, we see that $x_1 - x_2 = 0$, and thus $x_1 = x_2$, as desired.

Thus, we have shown that the function f is injective.

Surjectivity We will now show that f is surjective by showing that for any b in the codomain of f , there is an element x in the domain of f so that $f(x) = b$. Thus, we let b be an arbitrary element of the codomain of f , which is to say that b is any real number.

We will consider two cases for the value of b : either $b = 2$ or $b \neq 2$.

Case 1 ($b = 2$) If $b = 2$, then we see that if $x = 3$, then $f(x) = 2 = b$ as desired.

If $b \neq 2$, $2b - 4 \neq 0$ and so $x = \frac{6b+3}{2b-4}$ is a real number, and thus is in the domain of f . Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f\left(\frac{6b+3}{2b-4}\right) \\ &= \frac{4\left(\frac{6b+3}{2b-4}\right) + 3}{2\left(\frac{6b+3}{2b-4}\right) - 6} \\ &= \frac{4(6b+3) + 3(2b-4)}{2(6b+3) - 6(2b-4)} \\ &= \frac{24b + 12 + 6b - 12}{12b + 6 - 12b + 24} \\ &= \frac{30b}{30} \\ &= b. \end{aligned}$$

We have thus shown that for any element b of the codomain of f , there is an element x of the domain of f so that $f(x) = b$, which completes our proof that f is surjective.

Since we have shown that f is injective and surjective, this completes our proof that f is a bijection. \square

2.7 Checking and Disproving Injectivity

We start by defining the set $D = \mathbb{R} - \{3\}$, and looking at the function $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$f: x \mapsto \frac{2x^3}{x-3}.$$

We will investigate the question of whether f is injective or not.

We will check by letting x and z be arbitrary elements of the domain, $D = \mathbb{R} - \{3\}$, of f . If we can show that the *only* way for this to happen is for $x = z$, then we know that f is injective. On the other hand, if we can find $x \neq z$ so that $f(x) = f(z)$, then we know that f is *not* injective.

We assume that $f(x) = f(z)$. So,

$$\frac{2x^3}{x-3} = \frac{2z^3}{z-3}. \quad (21)$$

We can multiply equation (21) by $(x-3)(z-3)$ and simplify to get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{2x^3}{\cancel{(x-3)}(x-3)}(z-3) &= \frac{2z^3}{\cancel{(z-3)}(z-3)}(x-3)\cancel{(z-3)} \\ &\text{or} \\ x^3(z-3) &= z^3(x-3). \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

Next we subtract $z^3(x - 3)$ to obtain

$$x^3(z - 3) - z^3(x - 3) = 0. \quad (23)$$

By expanding, collecting like terms, and factoring equation (23), we have

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= x^3(z - 3) - z^3(x - 3) \\ &= x^3z - 3x^3 - xz^3 + 3z^3 \\ &= x^3z - xz^3 - 3x^3 + 3z^3 \\ &= x^3z - xz^3 - 3(x^3 - z^3) \\ &= xz(x^2 - z^2) - 3(x^3 - z^3) \\ &= xz(x + z)(x - z) - 3(x^2 + xz + z^2)(x - z) \\ &= (xz(x + z) - 3(x^2 + xz + z^2))(x - z). \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

From equation (24), we can see that if $f(x) = f(z)$, then either

$$\begin{aligned} x - z = 0 \text{ and thus } x = z \\ \text{or} \\ xz(x + z) - 3(x^2 + xz + z^2) = 0. \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

If we can show that for all $x, z \in D$, $xz(x + z) - 3(x^2 + xz + z^2) \neq 0$, then we will have shown that f is injective.

Otherwise, if we can find $x \neq z$ so that $xz(x + z) - 3(x^2 + xz + z^2) = 0$, we have a likely candidate to show that f is *not* injective.

Now, if $x = 0$, then $f(x) = f(0) = \frac{2 \cdot 0^3}{0 - 3} = 0$, and thus if $f(x) = f(z)$, then $f(z) = \frac{2z^3}{z - 3} = 0$. Multiplying both sides by $z - 3$ gives us $z = 0$. So, if $f(0) = f(z)$, then $z = 0$.

Having dealt with the case $x = 0$ separately, we can now assume that $x \neq 0$ and, by symmetry, $z \neq 0$.

Since $x \neq 0$, we can define $a = z/x$, so that $z = ax$, and substitute $z = ax$ in equation (25). Expanding and then factoring a common factor of x^2 , we get

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= xz(x + z) - 3(x^2 + xz + z^2) \\ &= x(ax)(x + ax) - 3x^2 - 3x(ax) - 3(ax)^2 \\ &= x(ax)(x + ax) - 3(x^2 + x(ax) + (ax)^2) \\ &= ax^3 + a^2x^3 - 3(x^2 + ax^2 + a^2x^2) \\ &= (a^2 + a)x^3 - 3(a^2 + a + 1)x^2 \\ &= x^2((a^2 + a)x - 3(a^2 + a + 1)). \end{aligned} \quad (26)$$

We have already said that $x \neq 0$, so equation (26) implies that

$$(a^2 + a)x - 3(a^2 + a + 1) = 0.$$

and thus

$$(a^2 + a)x = 3(a^2 + a + 1). \quad (27)$$

Recalling that $a = z/x$ and we want to find $x \neq z$ so that $f(x) = f(z)$, any value of a other than $a = 1$ is reasonable. In particular, as long as we choose a so that $a \neq 0$ and $a \neq -1$ we can divide by $a^2 + a$ in equation (27) getting

$$x = \frac{3(a^2 + a + 1)}{a^2 + a}. \quad (28)$$

Now let's pick a value of a . If we try $a = -2$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{3((-2)^2 + (-2) + 1)}{(-2)^2 + (-2)} \\ &= \frac{3(4 - 2 + 1)}{4 - 2} \\ &= \frac{3(3)}{2} \\ &= \frac{9}{2}, \end{aligned} \quad (29)$$

and $z = ax = (-2)(9/2) = -9$.

Clearly $-9 \neq 9/2$, so if $f(-9) = f(9/2)$, then we will have shown that f is not injective. Checking, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} f(-9) &= \frac{2 \cdot (-9)^3}{-9 - 3} \\ &= \frac{-2 \cdot 9^3}{-12} \\ &= \frac{9^3}{6} \\ &= \frac{243}{2} \end{aligned} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{aligned} f(9/2) &= \frac{2 \cdot (9/2)^3}{(9/2) - 3} \\ &= \frac{9^3/2^2}{(9 - 6)/2} \\ &= \frac{9^3/2}{3} \\ &= \frac{9^3}{6} \\ &= \frac{243}{2}, \end{aligned}$$

and thus we have that $-9 \neq 9/2$ and $f(-9) = f(9/2)$, so f is not injective. We are now ready to state a conjecture and proof.

Portfolio Theorem 7. *Let $D = \mathbb{R} - \{3\}$, and let the function $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by*

$$f: x \mapsto \frac{2x^3}{x - 3}.$$

The function f is not injective.

Proof. We will show that the function $f(x) = \frac{2x^3}{x-3}$ is not an injection by showing two distinct elements of the domain that map to the same element of the codomain. That is, we will find $x_1, x_2 \in D$ with $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

Let $x_1 = -9$ and let $x_2 = 9/2$. Since $x_1 \neq 3$ and $x_2 \neq 3$, we have that $x_1 \in D$ and $x_2 \in D$. It is also clear that $x_1 \neq x_2$. Thus, it remains to show that $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

By direct calculation, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_1) &= f(-9) & f(x_2) &= f(9/2) \\ &= \frac{2 \cdot (-9)^3}{-9 - 3} & &= \frac{2 \cdot (9/2)^3}{(9/2) - 3} \\ &= \frac{-2 \cdot 9^3}{-12} & &= \frac{9^3/2^2}{(9 - 6)/2} \\ &= \frac{9^3}{6} & \text{and} & &= \frac{9^3/2}{3} \\ &= \frac{243}{2} & & &= \frac{9^3}{6} \\ & & & &= \frac{243}{2}, \end{aligned}$$

and thus $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.

Since we have shown that $-9 \neq 9/2$ and $f(-9) = f(9/2)$, we have shown that f is not injective. \square

