

$$1. f(x) = |x| + |x-1| = \begin{cases} x + x-1 & \text{if } x \geq 1 \\ x - (x-1) = 1 & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ -x - (x-1) & \text{if } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

and $x + x-1 = 2x-1 \geq 2 \cdot 1 - 1 = 1 \quad \text{if } x \geq 1$
 $-x - (x-1) = -2x+1 \geq -2 \cdot 0 + 1 = 1 \quad \text{if } x \leq 0.$

2. a. (a) x mod 6	$x^2+x \text{ mod } 6$
0	$0^2+0 = 0$
1	$1^2+1 = 2$
2	$2^2+2 = 6 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 6$
3	$3^2+3 = 12 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 6$
4	$4^2+4 = 20 \equiv 2 \text{ mod } 6$
5	$5^2+5 = 30 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 6.$

So, $x^2+x \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 6 \iff x \equiv 0, 2, 3, \text{ or } 5 \text{ mod } 6.$

b. (a) x mod 7	$x^3+1 \text{ mod } 7$
0	$0^3+1 = 1$
1	$1^3+1 = 2$
2	$2^3+1 = 9 \equiv 2 \text{ mod } 7$
3	$3^3+1 = 28 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 7$
4	$4^3+1 = 65 \equiv 2 \text{ mod } 7$
5	$5^3+1 = 126 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 7$
6	$6^3+1 = 217 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 7$

So, $x^3+1 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 7 \iff x \equiv 3, 5, \text{ or } 6 \text{ mod } 7$

(Note: can make calculations faster as follows:

$$5^3+1 = 5 \cdot 5^2 + 1 = 5 \cdot 25 + 1 \stackrel{\uparrow}{=} 5 \cdot 4 + 1 = 21 \equiv 0 \text{ mod } 7)$$

because $25 \equiv 4 \text{ mod } 7$

3. a. (ans)

$x \bmod 5$	0	1	2	3	4
$x^2 \bmod 5$	0	1	4	$9 \equiv 4$	$16 \equiv 1$

$$\text{So } x^2 \equiv 0, 1 \text{ or } 4 \pmod{5}.$$

In particular, $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ has no solutions.

b. Claim: $x^2 - 5y^2 = 7$ has no solutions $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof: By contradiction.

Suppose $\exists x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x^2 - 5y^2 = 7$

$$\text{Then } x^2 - 5y^2 \equiv 7 \pmod{5}$$

$$\text{Now } x^2 - 5y^2 \equiv x^2 - 0 \cdot y^2 \equiv x^2 \pmod{5}$$

$$\text{and } 7 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$$

So $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ ~~✓~~ this contradicts part (a). \square .

4. Claim: $\sum_{r=1}^n r^2 = \frac{1}{6} n(n+1)(2n+1)$

Proof: By induction.

$$\underline{n=1}: \text{LHS} = 1^2 = 1, \text{ RHS} = \frac{1}{6} 1 \cdot (1+1)(2 \cdot 1 + 1) = 1 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\underline{n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1}: \text{Suppose } \sum_{r=1}^k r^2 = \frac{1}{6} k(k+1)(2k+1) \quad (\star)$$

$$\text{We will show } \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} r^2 = \frac{1}{6} (k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3) \quad :-$$

$$\text{LHS} = \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} r^2 = \sum_{r=1}^k r^2 + (k+1)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} k(k+1)(2k+1) + (k+1)^2 \quad \text{by inductive hypothesis } (\star)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (k(2k+1) + 6(k+1)) = \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (2k^2 + 7k + 6)$$

$$\text{RHS} = \frac{1}{6} (k+1) \underbrace{(k+2)(2k+3)}_{\text{expand}} = \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (2k^2 + 7k + 6) \quad \checkmark \quad \square.$$

$$\begin{aligned} 5 \text{ a. } f(x) &= (x-\alpha) \cdot g(x) + r \\ \Rightarrow f(\alpha) &= (\alpha-\alpha) \cdot g(\alpha) + r \\ &= 0 \cdot g(\alpha) + r = r \end{aligned}$$

b. Claim If f is a polynomial of degree n then there are at most n real solutions of the equation $f(x)=0$.

Proof: By induction on n .

$$\underline{n=1}: f(x) = a_1 x + a_0, \quad a_0, a_1 \in \mathbb{R}, \quad a_1 \neq 0.$$

$$f(x)=0 \Leftrightarrow a_1 x + a_0 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = -a_0/a_1,$$

So, the equation $f(x)=0$ has one real solution.

$n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1$: Let f be a polynomial of degree $k+1$.

If the equation $f(x)=0$ has no real solutions, we are done.

Otherwise, let $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ be a solution.

Using part (a), we have $f(x) = (x-\alpha) \cdot g(x)$,

for some polynomial $g(x)$ of degree $(k+1)-1 = k$.

By the inductive hypothesis, the equation $g(x)=0$ has at most k solutions.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{And } f(x) = (x-\alpha) \cdot g(x) = 0 &\Leftrightarrow (x-\alpha)=0 \text{ OR } g(x)=0 \\ &\Leftrightarrow x=\alpha \text{ OR } g(x)=0. \end{aligned}$$

So $f(x)=0$ has at most $1+k = k+1$ real solutions. \square .

6 Claim For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n \geq 5$, $n! \geq 3^{n-1}$

Proof By induction.

$$\underline{n=5}: \quad \text{LHS} = 5! = 120$$

$$\text{RHS} = 3^4 = 81 \quad 120 > 81 \quad \checkmark$$

$n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1$: Suppose $k \geq 5$ and $k! \geq 3^{k-1}$

we will show $(k+1)! \geq 3^{(k+1)-1} = 3^k$.

$$(k+1)! = (k+1) \cdot k! \geq (k+1) \cdot 3^{k-1} \geq (5+1) \cdot 3^{k-1} = 6 \cdot 3^{k-1}$$

\uparrow \uparrow
 inductive hypothesis $k! \geq 3^{k-1}$ $k \geq 5$ $= 3^k$. \square

7. Claim $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n - 5$

Proof By strong induction.

For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, we assume $a_m = 3 \cdot 2^m - 5$ for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$
such that $m < k$, and show $a_k = 3 \cdot 2^k - 5$.

$$\text{If } k=1, \quad a_1 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 3 \cdot 2^1 - 5 = 1 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\text{If } k=2, \quad a_2 = 7 \quad \text{and} \quad 3 \cdot 2^2 - 5 = 12 - 5 = 7 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\text{If } k \geq 3, \quad a_k = 3a_{k-1} - 2a_{k-2}$$

$$= 3(3 \cdot 2^{k-1} - 5) - 2(3 \cdot 2^{k-2} - 5) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{by the} \\ \text{inductive hypothesis} \end{matrix}$$

$$= 9 \cdot 2^{k-1} - 15 - 6 \cdot 2^{k-2} + 10$$

$$= (9 \cdot 2 - 6) \cdot 2^{k-2} - 5 \quad \begin{matrix} \text{writing } 2^{k-1} = 2 \cdot 2^{k-2} \end{matrix}$$

$$= 12 \cdot 2^{k-2} - 5$$

$$\text{and} \quad 3 \cdot 2^k - 5 = (3 \cdot 2^2) \cdot 2^{k-2} - 5 = 12 \cdot 2^{k-2} - 5 \quad \checkmark \quad \square$$

8. For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $a \neq b$ are not both zero,
the equation $ax+by=c$ has a solution $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$
if and only if $\gcd(a, b) | c$

Our case: $492x + 213y = c \quad (\rightarrow)$

(compute $\gcd(492, 213)$ by Euclidean algorithm)

$$492 = 2 \cdot 213 + 66$$

$$213 = 3 \cdot 66 + 15$$

$$66 = 4 \cdot 15 + 6$$

$$15 = 2 \cdot 6 + \boxed{3}, \quad 6 = 2 \cdot 3 + 0.$$

$$\text{So } \gcd(492, 213) = 3.$$

Therefore, the equation (†) has a solution $x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \iff 3 \mid c$.

$$9. 52x + 91y = 26 \quad (\dagger)$$

(compute gcd (52, 91):-

$$\begin{matrix} 91 & = & 1 \cdot 52 & + & 39 \\ 52 & = & 1 \cdot 39 & + & \boxed{13} \end{matrix}$$

$$39 = 3 \cdot 13 + 0$$

Note that $13 \mid 26$. So equation (†) has a solution $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$. We can find one solution by "back substitution" in the Euclidean algorithm:-

$$13 \stackrel{?}{=} 52 - 1 \cdot 39 \stackrel{?}{=} 52 - 1 \cdot (91 - 1 \cdot 52) = 2 \cdot 52 - 1 \cdot 91$$

So $52u + 91v = 13$ has one solution $u=2, v=-1$

$\Rightarrow 52x + 91y = 26 = 2 \cdot 13$ has one solution $x=2u=4, y=2v=-2$.

For $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$, a, b not both zero, if x_0, y_0 is one solution of

$ax + by = c$, then all solutions $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}$ are given by

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x = x_0 + \frac{b}{d} k \\ y = y_0 - \frac{a}{d} k \end{array} \right\} \text{where } d = \gcd(a, b) \text{ and } k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ is arbitrary.}$$

In our case $52x + 91y = 26$, $x_0 = 4, y_0 = -2$, $d = \gcd(52, 91) = 13$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} x = 4 + \frac{91}{13} k = 4 + 7k \\ y = -2 - \frac{52}{13} k = -2 - 4k \end{array} \right\} \text{where } k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ is arbitrary}$$

$$10. 42x \equiv 12 \pmod{57} \iff 42x = 12 + 57q, \text{ some } q \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\iff 42x + 57y = 12, \text{ some } y = -q \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\gcd(42, 57) = ?$$

$$57 = 1 \cdot 42 + 15$$

$$42 = 2 \cdot 15 + 12$$

$$15 = 1 \cdot 12 + 3 \quad \gcd(42, 57) = 3. \text{ Check } 3 \mid 12 \checkmark$$

$$12 = 4 \cdot 3 + 0$$

$$12 = 4 \cdot 3$$

$$3 = 15 - 1 \cdot 12 = 15 - 1 \cdot (42 - 2 \cdot 15) = 3 \cdot 15 - 1 \cdot 42$$

$$= 3 \cdot (57 - 1 \cdot 42) - 1 \cdot 42 = 3 \cdot 57 - 4 \cdot 42$$

So $u = -4, v = 3$ is a solution of $42u + 57v = 3$

$\Rightarrow x = 4u = -16, y = 4v = 12$ is a solution of $42x + 57y = 12 = 4 \cdot 3$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{All solutions: } x &= -16 + \frac{57}{3} \cdot k = -16 + 19k && \left. \right\} \text{ for } k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ arbitrary} \\ y &= 12 - \frac{42}{3} \cdot k = 12 - 14k \end{aligned}$$

So, all solutions of $42x \equiv 12 \pmod{57}$ are given by

$$x = -16 + 19k, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ arbitrary,}$$

$$\text{i.e. } x \equiv -16 \equiv 3 \pmod{19}.$$

ii. claim There does not exist $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x \equiv 9 \pmod{14}$
 $\qquad \qquad \qquad$ and $x \equiv 5 \pmod{21}$.

Proof By contradiction.

Suppose there does exist $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x \equiv 9 \pmod{14}$
 $\qquad \qquad \qquad$ and $x \equiv 5 \pmod{21}$.

$$\text{So } x = 9 + 14q, \text{ some } q \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\text{and } x = 5 + 21r, \text{ some } r \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

$$\text{Then } 9 + 14q = 5 + 21r$$

$$14q - 21r = -4$$

$$\text{But } \gcd(14, -21) = \gcd(14, 21) = 7 \neq 4. \quad \times \quad \square.$$

12. a. If $d \in \mathbb{N}$ and $d|n$ and $d|n+7$,
then $d | (n+7) - n = 7$.

So $d = 1$ or 7

$$\therefore \gcd(n, n+7) = 1 \text{ or } 7 \quad (\& \gcd=7 \Leftrightarrow 7|n)$$

b. $\gcd(7n+11, 3n+5) = ?$

Euclidean algorithm:-

$$7n+11 = 2 \cdot (3n+5) + (n+1)$$

$$3n+5 = 3 \cdot (n+1) + 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } \gcd(7n+11, 3n+5) &= \gcd(3n+5, n+1) = \gcd(n+1, 2) \\ &= \begin{cases} 2 & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \\ 1 & \text{if } n \text{ is even.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

13. a. $a \in \mathbb{N}$, $a = p_1^{\alpha_1} p_2^{\alpha_2} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$, p_1, \dots, p_r distinct primes
 $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

Then the $d \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d|a$

are given by $d = p_1^{\gamma_1} p_2^{\gamma_2} \dots p_r^{\gamma_r}$ where $0 \leq \gamma_i \leq \alpha_i$ for each i .

It follows that if $a = p_1^{\alpha_1} \dots p_r^{\alpha_r}$ & $b = p_1^{\beta_1} \dots p_r^{\beta_r}$
 then

$$\gcd(a, b) = p_1^{\min(\alpha_1, \beta_1)} \dots p_r^{\min(\alpha_r, \beta_r)}$$

$$\text{where } \min(\alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \alpha & \text{if } \alpha \leq \beta \\ \beta & \text{if } \beta \leq \alpha \end{cases}$$

Similarly,

$$\text{lcm}(a, b) = p_1^{\max(\alpha_1, \beta_1)} \dots p_r^{\max(\alpha_r, \beta_r)}$$

$$\text{where } \max(\alpha, \beta) = \begin{cases} \beta & \text{if } \alpha \leq \beta \\ \alpha & \text{if } \beta \leq \alpha. \end{cases}$$

b.

$$\text{Note } \min(\alpha_1, \beta_1) + \max(\alpha_1, \beta_1) = \alpha_1 + \beta_1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b) &= p_1^{\min(\alpha_1, \beta_1) + \max(\alpha_1, \beta_1)} \cdots p_r^{\min(\alpha_r, \beta_r) + \max(\alpha_r, \beta_r)} \\ &= p_1^{\alpha_1 + \beta_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r + \beta_r} \\ &= (p_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots p_r^{\alpha_r})(p_1^{\beta_1} \cdots p_r^{\beta_r}) \\ &= a \cdot b. \quad \square. \end{aligned}$$

14. Claim: If p, q are consecutive odd primes then $p+q$ has at least 3 prime factors (not necessarily different).

Proof: Recall the fundamental theorem of arithmetic: For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we can write $n = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$ where $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$ and p_1, p_2, \dots, p_r are primes (not necessarily different), and this expression is unique up to reordering the factors.

In our case we have $p+q = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_r$ & we must show $r \geq 3$.

Proof by contradiction.

Suppose $r < 3$.

Note that $2 \mid p+q$ (because $p \neq q$ are odd)

and $p+q > 2$ (because $p > 1 \wedge q > 1$ since $p \neq q$ are prime).

So $r \geq 2$ ($r \neq 1$ because $p+q$ is not prime),

and $r=2$ by our assumption.

So $p+q = p_1 p_2$. Also, as already noted, $2 \mid p+q$,

so (reordering the factors if necessary) we may assume $p_1 = 2$,

$$p+q = 2 p_2$$

$$\text{Now } p_2 = \frac{p+q}{2}, \text{ and } p < \frac{p+q}{2} < q \quad \#$$

— $p \neq q$ are consecutive primes. \square .

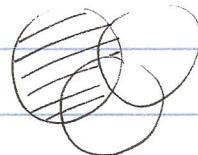
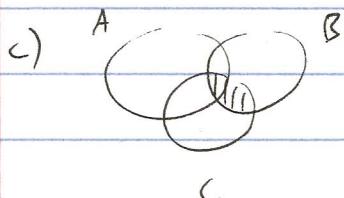
$$15 \text{ a) } (x \in A \setminus (B \cap C)) \equiv P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT}(Q \text{ AND } R))$$

$$(x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)) \equiv (P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } Q)) \text{ OR } (P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R))$$

$$\text{b) } P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT}(Q \text{ AND } R))$$

$$\equiv P \text{ AND } ((\text{NOT } Q) \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } R))$$

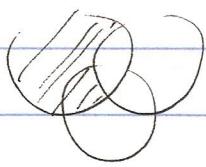
$$\equiv (P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } Q)) \text{ OR } (P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R)) \quad \square.$$



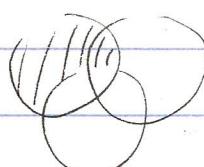
$$B \cap C$$

$$A \setminus (B \cap C)$$

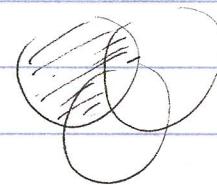
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$$A \setminus B$$

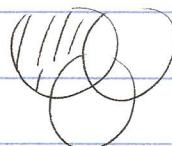
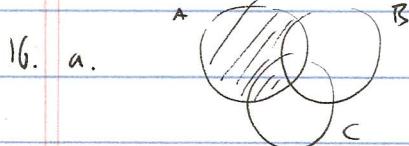


$$A \setminus C$$



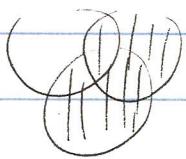
$$(A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)$$

✓.

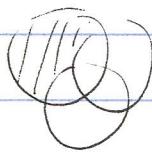


$$A \setminus B$$

$$(A \setminus B) \setminus C$$

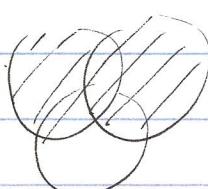
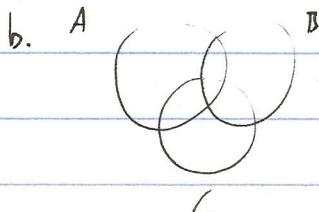


$$B \setminus C$$

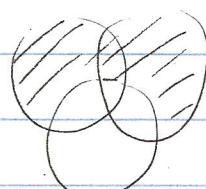


$$A \setminus (B \setminus C)$$

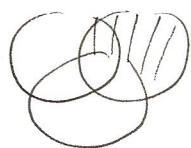
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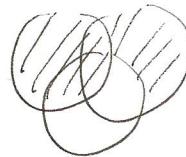
$$A \cup B$$



$$A \cup B \setminus C$$



$$B \setminus C$$



$$A \cup (B \setminus C)$$

See $(A \cup B) \setminus C \neq A \cup (B \setminus C)$ unless $A \cap C = \emptyset$.

$$17. \quad \binom{4+7}{4} = \binom{11}{4} = \frac{11 \cdot 10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8}{4!} = \frac{11 \cdot 10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8}{24} = 11 \cdot 10 \cdot 3 = 330.$$

$$18. \quad \frac{\binom{8}{4}}{2^8} = \frac{\frac{8 \cdot 7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5}{4!}}{256} = \frac{70}{256} = \frac{35}{128} = 0.273..$$

19.

$$|A \cup B \cup C \cup D| = |A| + |B| + |C| + |D| - (\underbrace{|A \cap B| + |A \cap C| + \dots + |C \cap D|}_{\text{all pairwise intersections}})$$

$$= 4 \cdot 51 - \binom{4}{2} \cdot 1$$

*note triple intersections
are empty here!*

$$= 204 - 6 = 198.$$

$$\therefore \text{Probability} = \frac{198}{\binom{52}{2}} = \frac{198}{\frac{52 \cdot 51}{2}} = \frac{198}{26 \cdot 51} = \frac{198}{1326} = 0.149..$$

$$20. \quad |A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_6| \stackrel{\text{IEP}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^6 |A_i| - \sum_{1 \leq i < j \leq 6} |A_i \cap A_j| + \dots + (-1)^5 |A_1 \cap \dots \cap A_6|$$

$$|A_i| = 5^8 \quad |A_i \cap A_j| = 4^8, \text{ etc.}$$

$$\text{so } |A_1 \cup \dots \cup A_6| = 6 \cdot 5^8 - \binom{6}{2} \cdot 4^8 + \binom{6}{3} \cdot 3^8 - \binom{6}{4} \cdot 2^8$$

$$+ \binom{6}{5} \cdot 1^8 - \binom{6}{6} \cdot 0^8$$

$$= 6 \cdot 5^8 - 15 \cdot 4^8 + 20 \cdot 3^8 - 15 \cdot 2^8 + 6$$

$$\underline{\underline{-45936}} = 1488096$$

$$\therefore \text{Probability} = \frac{\underline{\underline{6 - 45936}}}{6^8} \frac{6^8 - 1488096}{6^8} = 0.114..$$