

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

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

2. a. (case:)

$x \pmod 6$	$x^2+x \pmod 6$
0	$0^2+0 = 0$
1	$1^2+1 = 2$
2	$2^2+2 = 6 \equiv 0 \pmod 6$
3	$3^2+3 = 12 \equiv 0 \pmod 6$
4	$4^2+4 = 20 \equiv 2 \pmod 6$
5	$5^2+5 = 30 \equiv 0 \pmod 6$

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

b. (case:)

$x \pmod 7$	$x^3+1 \pmod 7$
0	$0^3+1 = 1$
1	$1^3+1 = 2$
2	$2^3+1 = 9 \equiv 2 \pmod 7$
3	$3^3+1 = 28 \equiv 0 \pmod 7$
4	$4^3+1 = 65 \equiv 2 \pmod 7$
5	$5^3+1 = 126 \equiv 0 \pmod 7$
6	$6^3+1 = 217 \equiv 0 \pmod 7$

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

(Note: can make calculations faster as follows:

$$5^3+1 = 5 \cdot 5^2+1 = 5 \cdot 25+1 \equiv 5 \cdot 4+1 = 21 \equiv 0 \pmod 7$$

↑
because $25 \equiv 4 \pmod 7$

3 a. Cases

$x \pmod{5}$	0	1	2	3	4
$x^2 \pmod{5}$	0	1	4	$9 \equiv 4$	$16 \equiv 1$

So $x^2 \equiv 0, 1$ 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 $x^2 - 5y^2 = 7$ Then $x^2 - 5y^2 \equiv 7 \pmod{5}$ Now $x^2 - 5y^2 \equiv x^2 - 0 \cdot y^2 \equiv x^2 \pmod{5}$ and $7 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ So $x^2 \equiv 2 \pmod{5}$ ~~is~~ this contradicts part (a). \square .4. Claim: $\sum_{r=1}^n r^2 = \frac{1}{6} n(n+1)(2n+1)$ Proof: By induction. $n=1$: LHS = $1^2 = 1$, RHS = $\frac{1}{6} 1 \cdot (1+1) \cdot (2 \cdot 1 + 1) = 1 \checkmark$ $n=k \Rightarrow n=k+1$: Suppose $\sum_{r=1}^k r^2 = \frac{1}{6} k(k+1)(2k+1)$ (*)We will show $\sum_{r=1}^{k+1} r^2 = \frac{1}{6} (k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= \sum_{r=1}^{k+1} r^2 = \sum_{r=1}^k r^2 + (k+1)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{6} k(k+1)(2k+1) + (k+1)^2 \quad \text{by inductive hypothesis (*)} \\ &= \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (k(2k+1) + 6(k+1)) = \frac{1}{6} (k+1) (2k^2 + 7k + 6) \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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 .

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

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

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.

$$\text{And } f(x) = (x-\alpha) \cdot g(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (x-\alpha) = 0 \text{ OR } g(x) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow x = \alpha \text{ OR } g(x) = 0.$$

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.

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

$$\text{RHS} = 3^4 = 81$$

$$120 \geq 81 \quad \checkmark$$

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

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

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 (k+1)! & = & (k+1) \cdot k! & \geq & (k+1) \cdot 3^{k-1} & \geq & (5+1) \cdot 3^{k-1} = 6 \cdot 3^{k-1} \\
 & & \uparrow & & \uparrow & & \geq 3 \cdot 3^{k-1} \\
 & & \text{inductive hypothesis} & & k! \geq 3^{k-1} & & k \geq 5 \\
 & & & & & & = 3^k \quad \square
 \end{array}$$

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 $a_k = 3 \cdot 2^k - 5$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

9. $52x + 91y = 26$ (*)

Compute $\gcd(52, 91)$:-

$$\begin{aligned} \stackrel{1}{=} 91 &= 1 \cdot 52 + 39 \\ \stackrel{2}{=} 52 &= 1 \cdot 39 + \boxed{13} \end{aligned}$$

$$\stackrel{3}{=} 39 = 3 \cdot 13 + 0 \quad \gcd(91, 52) = 13.$$

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:-

$$13 \stackrel{3}{=} 52 - 1 \cdot 39 \stackrel{1}{=} 52 - 1 \cdot (91 - 1 \cdot 52) = 2 \cdot 52 - 1 \cdot 91$$

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 $x_0, y_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ is one solution of

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$\begin{array}{l} \sphericalangle \\ \sphericalangle \\ \sphericalangle \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} 57 = 1 \cdot 42 + 15 \\ 42 = 2 \cdot 15 + 12 \\ 15 = 1 \cdot 12 + 3 \end{array}$$

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

$$15 = 1 \cdot 12 + \boxed{3}$$

$$\gcd(42, 57) = 3 \quad \text{Check } 3 \mid 12 \quad \checkmark$$

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

$$12 = 4 \cdot 3$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \sphericalangle \\ \sphericalangle \\ \sphericalangle \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} 3 = 15 - 1 \cdot 12 \\ = 15 - 1 \cdot (42 - 2 \cdot 15) \\ = 3 \cdot 15 - 1 \cdot 42 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \sphericalangle \\ \sphericalangle \\ \sphericalangle \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} = 3 \cdot (57 - 1 \cdot 42) - 1 \cdot 42 \\ = 3 \cdot 57 - 4 \cdot 42 \end{array}$$

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

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

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

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 $x \equiv 9 \pmod{14}$
and $x \equiv 5 \pmod{21}$.

Proof By contradiction.

Suppose there does exist $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ such that $x \equiv 9 \pmod{14}$

and $x \equiv 5 \pmod{21}$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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
 $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_r \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$.

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

are given by $d = p_1^{\delta_1} p_2^{\delta_2} \dots p_r^{\delta_r}$ where $0 \leq \delta_i \leq \alpha_i$ 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. Note $\min(\alpha, \beta) + \max(\alpha, \beta) = \alpha + \beta$

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

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 $n = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$ 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 $p+q = p_1 p_2 \dots p_r$ & we must show $r \geq 3$.

Proof by contradiction

Suppose $r < 3$.

Note that $2 \mid p+q$ (because p, q are odd)
 and $p+q > 2$ (because $p > 1$ & $q > 1$ since p, 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 $p_1 = 2$,

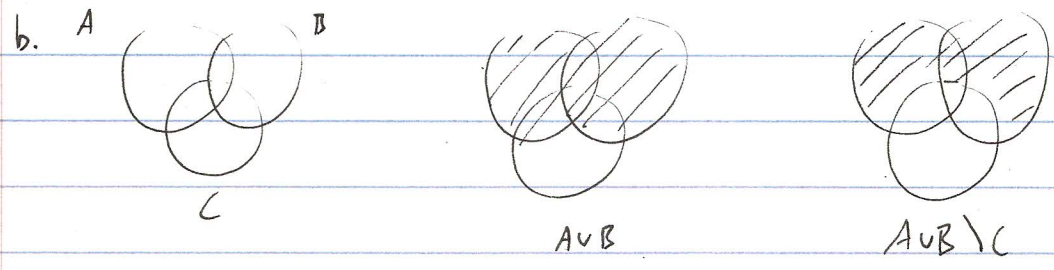
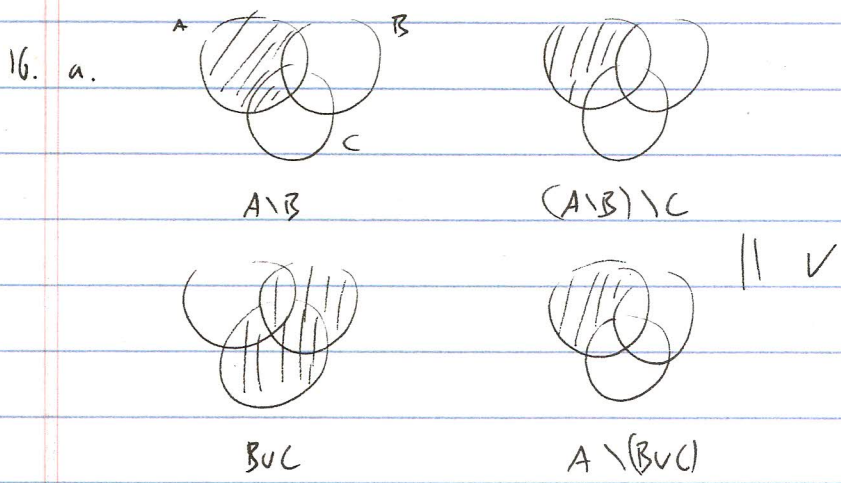
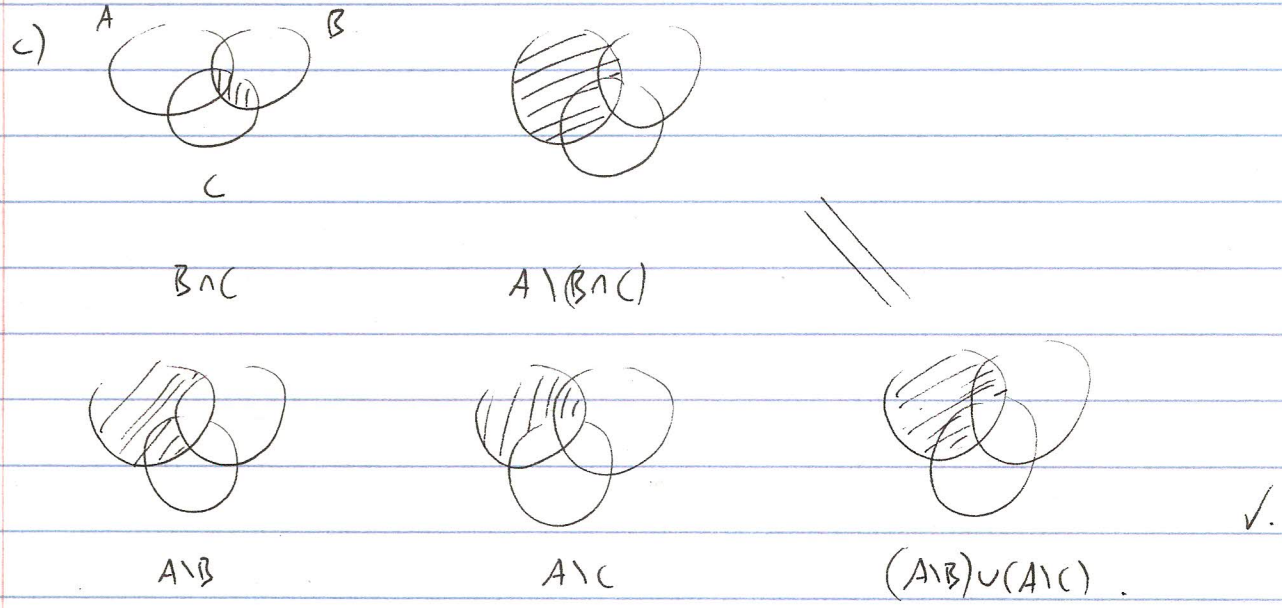
$$p+q = 2 p_2$$

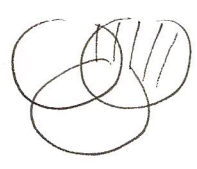
Now $p_2 = \frac{p+q}{2}$, and $p < \frac{p+q}{2} < q$ #

$\therefore p$ & q are consecutive primes. \square .

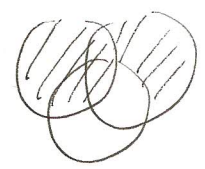
15 a) $(x \in A \setminus (B \cap C)) \equiv P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT}(Q \text{ AND } R))$
 $(x \in (A \setminus B) \cup (A \setminus C)) \equiv (P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } Q)) \text{ OR } (P \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } R))$

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





$B \setminus C$



$A \cup (B \setminus C)$

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

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

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

19. $|A \cup B \cup C \cup D| = |A| + |B| + |C| + |D| - \underbrace{(|A \cap B| + |A \cap C| + \dots + |C \cap D|)}_{\text{all pairwise intersections}} - \text{note triple intersections are empty here!}$
 $= 4 \cdot 51 - \binom{4}{2} \cdot 1$
 $= 204 - 6 = 198$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

~~$= 45936$~~ $= 1488096$

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