

① Assume there are finitely many primes  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$ . Then let  $N = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k + 1$ . Either  $N$  is prime or not. If it is prime then we have a contradiction since we have a new prime  $N$  not on the list  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$ . If it isn't prime then  $N$  would divide  $p_1 p_2 \dots p_k - 1$ , which is impossible, hence  $N$  is another prime not on the list. Meaning  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_k$  are not all the primes. Hence primes are infinite.

② Assume  $\sqrt{29}$  is irrational. Then we can write  $\sqrt{29} = \frac{a}{b}$  for some  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Then  $29 = \frac{a^2}{b^2} \rightarrow 29b^2 = a^2$  in lowest terms. Therefore  $29$  divides  $a^2$ , but since  $29$  is prime,  $29$  divides  $a$ , therefore  $29k = a$ , hence  $29b^2 = (29k)^2 = 29^2 k^2$  which means  $b^2 = 29k^2$  hence  $29$  divides  $b^2$ . And  $29$  divides  $b$ . This is a contradiction since we said  $\frac{a}{b}$  are in lowest terms but we can divide both  $a$  and  $b$  by  $29$ , hence  $\sqrt{29}$  is irrational.



3) We know that

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

then

$$\arctan(x^3) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(x^3)^{2n+1}}{2n+1} = \boxed{\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(x)^{6n+3}}{2n+1}}$$

4) Prove

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

Let  $A(n) = \frac{n(n+1)(n-1)(n-2)}{4}$  → we know  $A(n)$  is a polynomial of degree 4

Hence we ~~also~~ need to show for  $A(0), A(1), A(2), A(3)$

$$A(0) : \sum_{n=0}^0 (-1)(-2) = 0 = \frac{0(1)(-1)(-2)}{4} = 0 \quad \checkmark \quad 4 \text{ cases}$$

$$A(1) : \sum_{n=1}^1 0 + 1(0)(-1) = 0 = 1 \quad | \quad \frac{1(2)(0)(-1)}{4} = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$A(2) : \sum_{n=2}^2 0 + 2(1)(0) = 0 \quad | \quad \frac{2(3)(1)(0)}{4} = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$$A(3) : \sum_{n=3}^3 0 + 3(2)(1) = 6 \quad | \quad \frac{3(4)(2)(1)}{4} = \frac{24}{4} = 6 \quad \checkmark$$

Since both sides are poly of degree 3, and agree at 4 different values, they are the same

4 (ii)

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

Base  $n=0$ , LHS:  $0(-1)(-2)=0$  and the ~~LHS~~ RHS:  $\frac{1(0)(-1)(-2)}{4}=0$

Hence the equation is true for  $n=0$ .

Assume it's true for ~~for~~ some  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , hence

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

Then for  $m+1$  we have

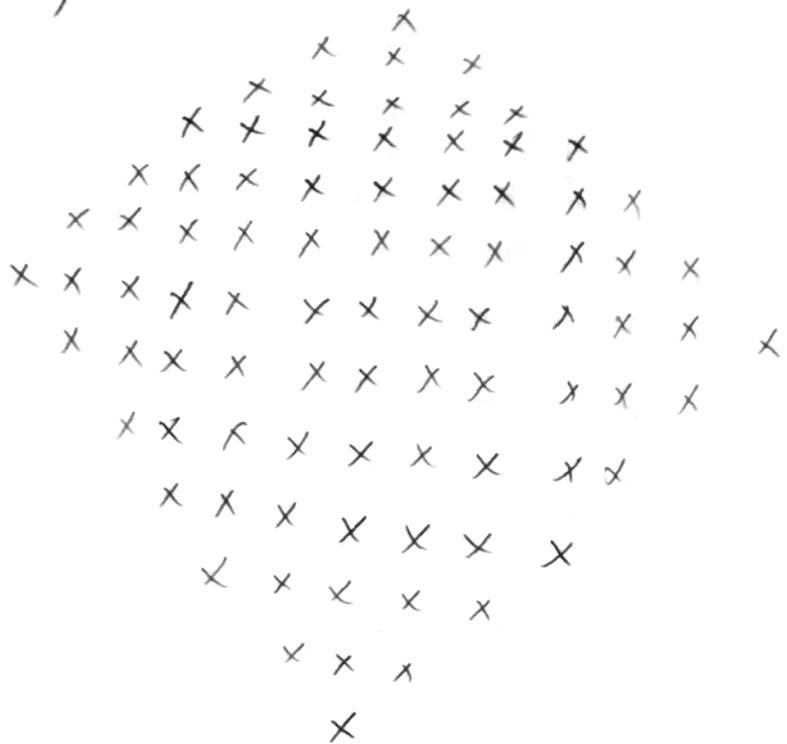
$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=0}^{m+1} k(k-1)(k-2) &= \left[ \sum_{k=0}^m k(k-1)(k-2) \right] + ((m+1)(m)(m-1)) \\ &= \frac{(m+1)m(m-1)(m-2)}{4} + \frac{4(m+1)m(m-1)}{4} \\ &= \frac{(m+1)m(m-1)(m-2) + 4(m+1)m(m-1)}{4} \\ &= \frac{(m+1)m(m-1)[(m-2)+4]}{4} = \frac{(m+1)m(m-1)(m+2)}{4}\end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

5)



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

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

6) Newton - [1643, 1727] - 17th century ✓

\* Archimedes - [287 BC, 212 BC] ✓ 3rd century BC

Gallileo - [1564, 1642] - 16th century ✓

Euler - [1707, 1783] - 18th century ✓

Gauss - [1777, 1855] - 19th century ✓

Zeilberger - [1950, current] - 20th century —

\* Euclid - [325 BC, 265 BC] ✓ 4th century BC

\* Thales - [626-623 BC, 548-545 BC] ✓ 6th century BC

Brahmagupta - [590 AD, 668 AD] - 6th century —

Fibonacci - [1170, 1250] 12th century ✓

### Order

Thales, Euclid, Archimedes, Brahmagupta, Fibonacci, Gallileo, Newton, Euler, Gauss, Zeilberger

7) Egyptian fraction is an expression which a series of fractions whose numerator is 1 and denominator is a positive integer, all unique.

$$\frac{5}{6} = \frac{1}{2} + \left( \frac{5}{6} - \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} + \left( \frac{5-3}{6} \right) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$$

Hence  $\frac{5}{6}$  as an EF is  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}$

8) Ionian math was very conceptual and was primarily based in philosophy. Topics included geometry of nature, and was very abstract. The father of Greek math is Thales.

9) "Elements" and its author is Euclid

10)  $(V+F-E=2)$  and it was due to Euler

11) Euler's constant

12) Taylor expansion about  $x=0$  for  $\sin x$

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

MacLaurin series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$

$$f(x) = \sin(\sin(\sin(x)))$$

$$f(0) = 0$$

$$f'(x) = \cos(x) \cos(\sin(x)) \cos(\sin(\sin(x)))$$

$$f'(0) = 1$$

Then

$$\sin(\sin(\sin(x)))$$

$$= 0 + \frac{1}{1!}x + \frac{0}{2!}x^2$$

$$= x +$$

$$a_0 = 0$$

$$a_1 = 1$$

$$a_2 = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} f''(x) &= -\sin(x) \cos(\sin(x)) \cos(\sin(\sin(x))) \\ &\quad - \sin(\sin(x)) \cos^2(x) \cos(\sin(\sin(x))) \\ &\quad - \sin(\sin(\sin(x))) \cos^2(\sin(x)) \end{aligned}$$

$$f''(0) = 0$$