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## (A) Tests for divisibility

(1) If the sum of the digits of a number is a multiple of 3 , then the number itself is a multiple of 3 ; and similarly for 9 .
(2) $11 \times 325847=3584317$
and $3-5+8-4+3-1+7=11$, which is a multiple of 11
This is true in all cases: If $a-b+c-d+\cdots-z$ is a multiple of 11 , then $a b c d \ldots z$ is a multiple of 11 .
[and also for $a-b+c-d+\cdots+y$ ]

## (B) Weak \& Strong Induction

[ $P(k)$ is the proposition that a particular result is true for $n=k]$ 'Weak' induction is just the ordinary method 'Strong' induction is where we show that if $P(k-m)$, $P(k-m+1), \ldots P(k)$ are correct, then $P(k+1)$ will be correct. We then have to establish that $P(1), P(2), \ldots P(m+1)$ are correct. (Weak induction corresponds to $m=0$.)

Example: $g_{n}$ is defined recursively as $\left(n^{3}-3 n^{2}+2 n\right) g_{n-3}$ for $n \geq 4$, and $g_{1}=1, g_{2}=2, g_{3}=6$

Show that $g_{n}=n$ ! for $n \geq 1$

## Solution

Assume that the result is true for $n=k-2, k-1 \& k$.
Then $g_{k+1}=\left((k+1)^{3}-3(k+1)^{2}+2(k+1)\right) g_{k-2}$
$=(k+1)\left(k^{2}+2 k+1-3 k-3+2\right)(k-2)!$
$=(k+1)\left(k^{2}-k\right)(k-2)$ !
$=(k+1) k(k-1)(k-2)$ !
$=(k+1)$ !
So that the result is true for $n=k+1$ if it is true for
$n=k-2, k-1 \& k$.
As it is true for $n=1,2 \& 3$, it is therefore true for $n=4,5, \ldots$, and hence, by the principle of induction, it is true for all positive integers.

## (C) Series

(1) $\sum_{r=1}^{n} r=1+2+3+\cdots+n=\frac{1}{2} n(n+1)$
[Informal proof: The average size of the terms being added is $\frac{1}{2}(1+n)$, and there are $n$ terms.]
(2) See STEP 2008, P3, Q2 for a method to obtain $S_{k}(n)=\sum_{r=1}^{n} r^{k}$ for any $n$.
For example, $S_{4}(n)=\frac{1}{30} n(n+1)(2 n+1)\left(3 n^{2}+3 n-1\right)$
(3) Taylor \& Maclaurin expansions
(i) Maclaurin: $f(x)=f(0)+x f^{\prime}(0)+\frac{x^{2}}{2!} f^{\prime \prime}(0)+\cdots$
(ii) Taylor I: $f(x)=f(a)+(x-a) f^{\prime}(a)+\frac{(x-a)^{2}}{2!} f^{\prime \prime}(a)+\cdots$
(iii) Taylor II: $f(x+a)=f(a)+x f^{\prime}(a)+\frac{x^{2}}{2!} f^{\prime \prime}(a)+\cdots$
[ $x=0$ gives the Maclaurin expansion]

## (D) Factorisations

(1)(i) $x^{2}-y^{2}=(x+y)(x-y)$
(ii) $x^{3}-y^{3}=(x-y)\left(x^{2}+x y+y^{2}\right)$
[Let $f(x)=x^{3}-y^{3}$. Then $f(y)=0$, and so $x-y$ is a factor of $x^{3}-y^{3}$, by the Factor Theorem.]
$x^{3}+y^{3}=(x+y)\left(x^{2}-x y+y^{2}\right)$
(iii) $x^{n}-y^{n}=(x-y)\left(x^{n-1}+x^{n-2} y+\cdots+x y^{n-2}+y^{n-1}\right)$
or $(x+y)\left(x^{n-1}-x^{n-2} y+\cdots+x y^{n-2}-y^{n-1}\right)$, if $n$ is even $x^{n}+y^{n}=(x+y)\left(x^{n-1}-x^{n-2} y+\cdots-x y^{n-2}+y^{n-1}\right)$ if $n$ is odd
(2) Let $f(n)$ be the number of factors of $n$ (including 1 ).

If $n=p q$, where $p \& q$ have no common factors (other than 1 ), then $f(n)=f(p) f(q)$.
[eg $100=2^{2} \times 5^{2}$; factors are obtained from
$\{1,2,4\}$ with $\{1,5,25\}$, giving a total of $3 \times 3=9$ factors:
$1,5,25,2,10,50,4,20,100$ ]

## (E) Integer solutions

eg $x y-8 x+6 y=90$
can be rearranged to $(x+6)(y-8)=42$
(F) Trinomial expansions
(i) $(a+b+c)^{2}=\left(a^{2}+b^{2}+c^{2}\right)+2(a b+a c+b c)$
(ii) $(a+b+c)^{3}=\left(a^{3}+b^{3}+c^{3}\right)$
$+3\left(a^{2} b+a^{2} c+b^{2} a+b^{2} c+c^{2} a+c^{2} b\right)$
$+6 a b c$
(iii) $(a+b+c)^{4}=\left(a^{4}+b^{4}+c^{4}\right)$
$+4\left(a^{3} b+a^{3} c+b^{3} a+b^{3} c+c^{3} a+c^{3} b\right)$
$+6\left(a^{2} b^{2}+a^{2} c^{2}+b^{2} c^{2}\right)+12\left(a^{2} b c+b^{2} a c+c^{2} a b\right)$
(iv) $(a+b+c)^{n}=\sum_{\substack{i, j, k \\(i+j+k=n)}}\binom{n}{i, j, k} a^{i} b^{j} c^{k}$,
where $\binom{n}{i, j, k}=\frac{n!}{i!j!k!}$

## (G) Equating coefficients

Example: To divide $f(x)=x^{3}+x^{2}-11 x+10$ by $x-2$
First of all, $f(2)=8+4-22+10=0$, so that there is no remainder.

Then $x^{3}+x^{2}-11 x+10=(x-2)\left(x^{2}+a x-5\right)$
Equating coefficients of $x^{2}: 1=a-2$, so that $a=3$
(Check: Equating coefficients of $x$ : $-11=-5-2 a$, so that $a=3$ )
This method is usually quicker than long division.

## (H) Polynomials

(1) Integer roots

Let $f(x)=x^{n}+a_{n-1} x^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{2} x^{2}+a_{1} x+a_{0}$
where $n \geq 2$ and the $a_{i}$ are integers, with $a_{0} \neq 0$.
Then it can be shown that any rational root of the equation $f(x)=0$ will be an integer.

## Proof

Suppose that there is a rational root $\frac{p}{q}$, where $p \& q$ are integers with no common factor greater than 1 and $q>0$.

Then $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{n}+a_{n-1}\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{2}\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^{2}+a_{1}\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)+a_{0}=0$ and, multiplying by $q^{n-1}$ :
$\frac{p^{n}}{q}+a_{n-1} p^{n-1}+a_{n-2} p^{n-2} q+\cdots+a_{1} p q^{n-2}+a_{1} q^{n-1}=0$
Then, as all the terms from $a_{n-1} p^{n-1}$ onwards are integers, it follows that $\frac{p^{n}}{q}$ is also an integer, and hence $q=1$ (as $p \& q$ have no common factor greater than 1 ), and the root is an integer.

## (I) Hyperbolic Functions

$\operatorname{arsinh} x=\ln \left(x+\sqrt{x^{2}+1}\right) ; \operatorname{arcosh} x=\ln \left(x+\sqrt{x^{2}-1}\right)$
Note that coshy $=x \Rightarrow y= \pm \operatorname{arcosh} x= \pm \ln \left(x+\sqrt{x^{2}-1}\right)$,
which can be shown to equal $\ln \left(x \pm \sqrt{x^{2}-1}\right)$
[though note that $-\ln (a+b) \neq \ln (a-b)$ in general]

