

Solution Exercise 1.

1. $P \vee (Q \wedge R)$ and $(P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$

P	Q	R	$Q \wedge R$	$P \vee (Q \wedge R)$	$P \vee Q$	$P \vee R$	$(P \vee Q) \wedge (P \vee R)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

①

②

The two columns ① and ② are identical, then the two statements are equivalent.

2. $P \implies Q$ and $\overline{P} \vee Q$

P	Q	$P \implies Q$	\overline{P}	$\overline{P} \vee Q$
1	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	0
0	1	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	1

①

②

The two columns ① and ② are identical, then the two statements are equivalent.

3. $P \implies Q$ and $Q \implies P$

P	Q	$P \implies Q$	$Q \implies P$
1	1	1	1
1	0	0	1
0	1	1	0
0	0	1	1

①

②

The two columns ① and ② are not identical, then there is no equivalence between the two statements.

Solution Exercise 2. Let's show the equivalences :

1. $\overline{P \implies Q} \equiv \overline{P} \wedge Q$

P	Q	\overline{Q}	$P \implies Q$	$\overline{P \implies Q}$	$\overline{P} \wedge Q$
1	1	0	1	0	0
1	0	1	0	1	1
0	1	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	1	0	0

①

②

The two columns ① and ② are identical, then the two statements are equivalent.

1. \equiv is another notation for the equivalence.

2. $P \implies Q \equiv \overline{Q} \implies \overline{P}$

P	Q	\overline{P}	\overline{Q}	$P \implies Q$	$\overline{Q} \implies \overline{P}$
1	1	0	0	1	1
1	0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	0	1	1
0	0	1	1	1	1

① ②

The two columns ① and ② are identical, then the two statements are equivalent.

3. $(P \Leftrightarrow Q) \equiv (P \implies Q) \wedge (Q \implies P)$

P	Q	$P \Leftrightarrow Q$	$P \implies Q$	$Q \implies P$	$(P \implies Q) \wedge (Q \implies P)$
1	1	1	1	1	1
1	0	0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1	0	0
0	0	1	1	1	1

① ②

The two columns ① and ② are identical, then the two statements are equivalent.

4. $P \oplus Q \equiv (P \wedge \overline{Q}) \vee (\overline{P} \wedge Q)$

P	Q	\overline{P}	\overline{Q}	$P \oplus Q$	$P \wedge \overline{Q}$	$\overline{P} \wedge Q$	$(P \wedge \overline{Q}) \vee (\overline{P} \wedge Q)$
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1
0	1	1	0	1	0	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0

① ②

The two columns ① and ② are identical, then the two statements are equivalent.

5. $(P \oplus Q) \oplus Q \equiv P$

P	Q	$P \oplus Q$	$(P \oplus Q) \oplus Q$
1	1	0	1
1	0	1	1
0	1	1	0
0	0	0	0

① ②

The two columns ① and ② are identical, then the two statements are equivalent.

Let's now verify if the given statements are tautologies

1. $P \vee \overline{P}$

P	\overline{P}	$P \vee \overline{P}$
1	0	1
0	1	1

The last column contains just ones, hence the statement is a tautology.

2. $P \wedge \overline{P}$

P	\overline{P}	$P \wedge \overline{P}$
1	0	0
0	1	0

The last column contains just zeros, then the statement is not a tautology; it's rather a contradiction.

Solution Exercise 3.

1.

$$\overline{P \wedge Q} \equiv \overline{P} \vee \overline{Q}$$

2.

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{[(P \wedge Q) \vee R]} \implies \overline{(P \wedge R)} &\equiv [(P \wedge Q) \vee R] \wedge (\overline{P \wedge R}) \\ &\equiv [(P \wedge Q) \vee R] \wedge (\overline{P} \vee \overline{R}) \end{aligned}$$

3.

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{P \Leftrightarrow Q} &\equiv \overline{(P \implies Q) \wedge (Q \implies P)} \\ &\equiv \overline{(P \implies Q)} \vee \overline{(Q \implies P)} \\ &\equiv (P \wedge \overline{Q}) \vee (Q \wedge \overline{P}) \end{aligned}$$

This means that the negation of : P and Q are equivalent, is : one of the statements is true and the other is false.

4.

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{P \oplus Q} &\equiv \overline{(P \wedge \overline{Q}) \vee (Q \wedge \overline{P})} \\ &\equiv (\overline{P \wedge \overline{Q}}) \wedge (\overline{Q \wedge \overline{P}}) \\ &\equiv (\overline{P} \vee Q) \wedge (\overline{Q} \vee P) \\ &\equiv (P \implies Q) \wedge (Q \implies P) \\ &\equiv P \iff Q \end{aligned}$$

Solution Exercise 4.

1. Is the statement : $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \exists y \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 + y < 0$, true ?

It's clear that for any $x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 \geq 0$. Is there a $y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x^2 + y < 0$? Let's consider y as the unknown of the inequation and let's try to solve it :

$$x^2 + y < 0 \implies y < -x^2$$

and that's it, every $y \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $y < -x^2$, and not just an only one, will do the job i.e. $x^2 + y < 0$. Hence this statement is true.

Now let's swap the quantifiers :

- We obtain the following statement :

$$\exists y \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 + y < 0$$

For $y \geq 0$ the inequality $x^2 + y < 0$ is obviously false for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

So for the inequality to hold, it's necessary that $y < 0$, but in this case :

$$x^2 + y < 0 \implies -\sqrt{-y} < x < \sqrt{-y}$$

hence for $x \in]-\infty, -\sqrt{-y}] \cup [\sqrt{-y}, +\infty[$ the inequality doesn't hold.

Conclusion : the statement is false.

- Another way to make the swap is the following statement :

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R}, \forall y \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 + y < 0$$

This statement is obviously false, because for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$, if $y = -x^2$ then we obtain $x^2 + y = 0$ i.e. the inequality is not verified. Hence this statement is also false.

2. Let's write the negation of the statement : $\forall y \in \mathbb{R}, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, y \leq n$:

$$\overline{\forall y \in \mathbb{R}, \exists n \in \mathbb{N}, y \leq n} \iff \exists y \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, y > n$$

This statement is false, because for $y \in \mathbb{R}_-$, then $y \leq 0$ which contradicts the statement and if $y \in \mathbb{R}_+$, then if we take $n = [y] + 1$, we obtain $y < n$ which is a contradiction too with the statement. $[y]$ is called the integer part, it is the greatest integer less than or equal to y . We deduce that the original statement is true.

Solution Exercise 5.

1. $x^2 + 2ax + 3 = 0$ is a second degree equation of variable x . We will use a direct reasoning to study this equation. The discriminant of the equation is then $\Delta = 4a^2 - 12$, so :

$$\Delta > 0 \iff \{a < -\sqrt{3} \text{ or } \sqrt{3} < a\}, \Delta = 0 \iff a = \pm\sqrt{3} \text{ and } \Delta < 0 \iff \{-\sqrt{3} < a < \sqrt{3}\}.$$

Hence :

(a) If $a \in]-\infty, -\sqrt{3}[\cup]\sqrt{3}, +\infty[$ then the equation has two solutions :

$$x_1 = \frac{-2a - \sqrt{\Delta}}{2} \quad x_2 = \frac{-2a + \sqrt{\Delta}}{2}$$

(b) If $a = \pm\sqrt{3}$, the equation has a unique solution :

$$x = \frac{-2a}{2} = -a \text{ hence } x = \sqrt{3} \text{ if } a = -\sqrt{3} \text{ and } x = -\sqrt{3} \text{ if } a = \sqrt{3}$$

(c) If $a \in]-\sqrt{3}, \sqrt{3}[$ then the equation has no solutions.

If we suppose $a \in \mathbb{N}$, then $\Delta \neq 0$, hence there is just two cases :

(a) If $a \in \{2, 3, 4, \dots\}$ then the equation has two solutions :

$$x_1 = \frac{-2a - \sqrt{\Delta}}{2} \quad x_2 = \frac{-2a + \sqrt{\Delta}}{2}$$

(b) If $a \in \{0, 1\}$ then the equation has no solutions.

2. We have to show by contraposition that : $\forall p \in \mathbb{N}, p^2 \text{ is even} \implies p \text{ is even}$.

We have the equivalence :

$$(p^2 \text{ is even} \implies p \text{ is even}) \iff (p \text{ is odd} \implies p^2 \text{ is odd})$$

Let's show the second implication which is easier to do :

If $p \in \mathbb{N}$ such that p is odd, that is $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}, p = 2k + 1$, then $p^2 = (2k + 1)^2 = 2k' + 1$ with $k' = 2k^2 + 2k \in \mathbb{N}$, which means that p^2 is odd, and here we're finished.

3. Let's try to prove by contradiction the same statement. (supplementary question)

Suppose that : $\forall p \in \mathbb{N}, p^2 \text{ is even} \implies p \text{ is even}$, is true, that is $\exists p \in \mathbb{N}, p^2 \text{ is even and } p \text{ is odd}$.

$$p \text{ is odd} \implies \exists k \in \mathbb{N}, p = 2k + 1$$

$$\implies p^2 = 2k' + 1$$

$$\iff p^2 \text{ is odd, this is a contradiction with the hypothesis which says that } p^2 \text{ is even.}$$

4. Now we show by contradiction that $\sqrt{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$.

Suppose that $\sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{Q}$, hence there exists $p \in \mathbb{N}$ and $q \in \mathbb{N}^*$ such that $\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$ with $\frac{p}{q}$ being reduced i.e. 1 is the only common divisor for p and q .

$\sqrt{2} = \frac{p}{q}$ implies that $p^2 = 2q^2$, this means that p^2 is even and hence p is even too (take a look

at the question 2).

p is even is equivalent to say that there exists a $k \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $p = 2k$.

We obtain, then, from $p^2 = 2q^2$ that $4k^2 = 2q^2$ and hence $q^2 = 2k^2$ and like p , we obtain that q is even too, which means that 2 is a common divisor of p and q and this is a contradiction because the fraction $\frac{p}{q}$ is reduced.

5. This statement $\forall x \in]-\infty, 3[, x^2 < 9$ is false, we can prove it by a counter example : Let $x = -4$, then $x \in]-\infty, 3[$ but $x^2 = 16 > 9$.

The statement $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 + y^2 \geq xy$ is true, we will prove it by a direct reasoning.

Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$, then $(x - y)^2 \geq 0$ hence $x^2 + y^2 - 2xy \geq 0$ which leads to $x^2 + y^2 \geq 2xy$, here we have two cases :

case 1 : $xy < 0$ i.e. x and y are of opposite signs, then $x^2 + y^2 \geq xy$ is obvious since $x^2 + y^2 > 0$ and $xy < 0$.

case 2 : $xy \geq 0$ i.e. x and y are both positive or both negative, then if we multiply the inequality $2 > 1$ by xy , its direction doesn't change and we obtain $2xy > xy$. Hence $x^2 + y^2 \geq xy$. (The null case i.e. $x = 0$ or $y = 0$ or $x = y = 0$ is included in this case 2).

6. We show by induction that for any integer $n \geq 4$, $n! \geq 2^n$.

1. **Initialization** : For $n = 4$ we have :

$$4! = 24 \geq 2^4 = 16$$

2. **Heredity** : Suppose that for a given $n \geq 4$ we have $n! \geq 2^n$. Using this hypothesis, let's show that $(n + 1)! \geq 2^{n+1}$.

$$\begin{aligned} (n + 1)! &= (n + 1) \cdot n! \\ &\geq (n + 1) \cdot 2^n \text{ because of the induction hypothesis} \\ &\geq 2 \cdot 2^n \text{ because } \forall n \geq 4, n + 1 > 2 \\ &= 2^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

3. **Conclusion** : $\forall n \geq 4$, $n! \geq 2^n$.

7. Let's prove by induction the statement : $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{1}{2}n(n + 1)$. with $\sum_{k=1}^n k = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots + n$. In order to lighten the writing let's put :

$$A(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n k \quad \text{and} \quad B(n) = \frac{1}{2}n(n + 1)$$

1. **Initialization** : For $n = 1$, we have $A(1) = B(1)$, that is :

$$\sum_{k=1}^1 k = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot (1 + 1)$$

because : $\sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1$ and $\frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot (1 + 1) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot (2) = 1$.

2. **Heredity** : Suppose that for a given $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ we have $A(n) = B(n)$. Let's prove that $A(n+1) =$

$$B(n+1) \text{ i.e. } \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} k = \frac{1}{2}(n+1)(n+2).$$

$$\begin{aligned} A(n+1) &= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} k \\ &= 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \cdots + n + (n+1) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n k + (n+1) \\ &= A(n) + (n+1) \\ &= B(n) + (n+1) \text{ because of the induction hypothesis} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}n(n+1) + (n+1) \\ &= \frac{n(n+1) + 2(n+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{n^2 + 3n + 2}{2} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(n+1)(n+2) \\ &= B(n+1) \end{aligned}$$

3. **Conclusion** : $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*, \sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$

8. We will show by induction that : $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 7^n - 1$ is divisible by 6.

1. **Initialization** : For $n = 0$ we have $7^0 - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$ and 0 is divisible by 6.

2. **Heredity** : Suppose that for a given $n \in \mathbb{N}, 7^n - 1$ is divisible by 6. Let's show that $7^{n+1} - 1$ est divisible by 6.

$$\begin{aligned} 7^{n+1} - 1 &= 7 \cdot 7^n - 1 \\ &= (6 + 1) \cdot 7^n - 1 \\ &= 6 \cdot 7^n + 7^n - 1 \end{aligned}$$

$6 \cdot 7^n$ is divisible by 6 and by induction hypothesis $7^n - 1$ is also divisible by 6 then $6 \cdot 7^n + 7^n - 1$ is divisible by 6, that is $7^{n+1} - 1$ is divisible by 6.

3. **Conclusion** : $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 7^n - 1$ is divisible by 6.

9. Now we show that : $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, 4^n + 6n - 1$ is a multiple of 9 (supp).

Put $P(n)$: $4^n + 6n - 1$ is a multiple of 9.

1. **Initialization** : For $n = 0$ we have $P(0) : 4^0 + 6 \cdot 0 - 1 = 0$ and 0 is a multiple of 9. $P(0)$ is then verified.

2. **Heredity** : Suppose that $P(n)$ is verified for a given $n \in \mathbb{N}$, that is $\exists k_n \in \mathbb{N}, 4^n + 6n - 1 = 9k_n$. Let's show that $P(n+1)$ is also verified. $P(n+1)$ is given by : $4^{n+1} + 6(n+1) - 1$ is a multiple

of 9.

$$\begin{aligned}4^{n+1} + 6(n+1) - 1 &= 4 \cdot 4^n + 6n + 6 - 1 \\&= (1+3) \cdot 4^n + 6n - 1 + 6 \\&= 4^n + 6n - 1 + 3 \cdot 4^n + 6 \\&= 9 \cdot k + 3 \cdot 4^n + 6 \text{ because of the induction hypothesis} \\&= 9 \cdot k_n + 3(9k_n - 6n + 1) + 6 \\&\quad \text{the formula } 9k_n - 6n + 1 \text{ is derived from the induction hypothesis} \\&= 9(k_n + 3k_n - 2n + 1) \\&= 9(4k_n - 2n + 1) \\&= 9k'_n \text{ with } k'_n = 4k_n - 2n + 1 \in \mathbb{N}\end{aligned}$$

Hence $P(n+1)$ is verified.

3. Conclusion : $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $4^n + 6n - 1$ is a multiple of 9