

# CSE 20, Fall 2020 - Midterm 2 Review Solutions

## **Question 1**

Prove that for any real number  $x > -1$ , and any positive integer  $n$ ,  $(1+x)^n \geq 1+nx$ .

### **Solution:**

Towards a proof by mathematical induction for  $n$ :

Base Case: For  $n = 1$ ,  $LHS = (1+x)^n = (1+x)^1 = 1+x$

$RHS = (1+nx) = 1+1 \cdot x = 1+x$

Therefore,  $LHS = RHS$

Inductive Hypothesis: For a positive integer  $k$ , we assume that  $(1+x)^k \geq 1+kx$ .

We need to show that  $(1+x)^{k+1} \geq 1+(k+1)x$

$LHS = (1+x)^{k+1} = (1+x)^k(1+x)$

From the IH, we know that:  $(1+x)^k \geq 1+kx$

Therefore:

$(1+x)^k(1+x) \geq (1+kx)(1+x)$

$\Rightarrow (1+x)^k(1+x) \geq 1+(k+1)x+kx^2$

Since  $x^2 > 0$ , and  $k > 0$ ,  $kx^2 > 0$

Therefore,  $(1+x)^{k+1} \geq 1+(k+1)x$

Hence Proved.

## **Question 2**

Let  $U$  be the universal set, and let  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $C$  be sets. Use the definition of set equality to prove:  $A - (B \cup C) = (A - B) - C$

### **Solution:**

Recall that for two sets to be equal

$A = B$  if and only if  $A \subseteq B$  and  $B \subseteq A$

Therefore,  $A - (B \cup C) = (A - B) - C$  if and only if  $A - (B \cup C) \subseteq (A - B) - C$  and

$(A - B) - C \subseteq A - (B \cup C)$

To prove that  $A - (B \cup C) \subseteq (A - B) - C$

Assume that  $x \in A - (B \cup C)$ . We need to show that  $x \in (A - B) - C$

$$\begin{aligned}x \in A - (B \cup C) &\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge \neg(x \in (B \cup C)) \text{ (from the definition of set difference)} \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge \neg(x \in B \vee x \in C) \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge (\neg(x \in B) \wedge \neg(x \in C)) \text{ (De-Morgan's law)} \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge (x \notin B) \wedge (x \notin C) \\&\Rightarrow (x \in A \wedge (x \notin B)) \wedge (x \notin C) \\&\Rightarrow x \in (A - B) \wedge x \notin C \\&\Rightarrow x \in (A - B) - C\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $x \in A - (B \cup C) \Rightarrow x \in (A - B) - C$

$$A - (B \cup C) \subseteq (A - B) - C$$

To prove that  $(A - B) - C \subseteq A - (B \cup C)$

Assume that  $x \in (A - B) - C$ . We need to show that  $x \in A - (B \cup C)$

$$\begin{aligned}x \in (A - B) - C &\Rightarrow (x \in (A - B)) \wedge (x \notin C) \\&\Rightarrow (x \in A \wedge x \notin B) \wedge (x \notin C) \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \notin B \wedge x \notin C \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge (x \notin B \wedge x \notin C) \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge (\neg(x \in B) \wedge \neg(x \in C)) \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge \neg((x \in B) \vee (x \in C)) \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge \neg(x \in (B \cup C)) \\&\Rightarrow x \in A \wedge x \notin (B \cup C) \\&\Rightarrow x \in (A - (B \cup C))\end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $x \in (A - B) - C \Rightarrow x \in A - (B \cup C)$

$$(A - B) - C \subseteq A - (B \cup C)$$

Since,  $A - (B \cup C) \subseteq (A - B) - C$  and  $(A - B) - C \subseteq A - (B \cup C)$

Therefore,  $A - (B \cup C) = (A - B) - C$

Hence proved.

### **Question 3**

If  $n \bmod 3 = 2$ , then show that  $n^2 + 2n$  is not divisible by 3.

### **Solution:**

Towards a direct proof:

$n \bmod 3 = 2$ . Therefore, we can write  $n = 3k + 2$ , where  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}
n^2 + 2n &= (3k + 2)^2 + 2(3k + 2) \\
&= 9k^2 + 12k + 4 + 6k + 4 \\
&= 9k^2 + 18k + 8 \\
&= (9k^2 + 18k + 6) + 2 \\
&= 3(3k^2 + 6k + 2) + 2 \\
&= 3l + 2
\end{aligned}$$

Where,  $l = 3k^2 + 6k + 2$  is an integer

Therefore,  $n^2 + 2n = 3l + 2$ , which is not divisible by 3.

Hence proved!

#### **Question 4**

For each of the following relations  $R$  on the given domain  $A$ , categorize them as one of the following:

- Not an equivalence relation
- An equivalence relation with finitely many distinct equivalence classes
- An equivalence relation with infinitely many distinct equivalence classes

a)  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $R = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$

b)  $A = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $R = \{(x, y) | x^2 = y^2\}$

c)  $A = \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}^*$ ,  $R = \{(a, b), (c, d) | ad = bc\}$ , where  $\mathbb{Z}^*$  are the set of non-zero integers

#### **Solution:**

a)  $A = \{1, 2, 3\}$ ,  $R = \{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$

##### **Equivalence Relation with finitely many equivalence classes.**

- Reflexive: This is trivially true since the relation contains all tuples of the form  $(n, n)$ , where  $n \in A$
- Symmetric: Again, this is also trivially true for each of the tuples  $\{(1, 1), (2, 2), (3, 3)\}$
- Transitive: Since there are no tuples of the form  $(a, b)$ , the transitivity property is also trivially satisfied.

The three equivalence classes are  $\{1\}$ ,  $\{2\}$ ,  $\{3\}$

b)  $A = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $R = \{(x, y) | x^2 = y^2\}$

##### **Equivalence Relation with infinitely many equivalence classes.**

- Reflexive: For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x^2 = x^2$ . Therefore,  $(x, x) \in R$ .
- Symmetric: For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , if  $(x, y) \in R$ , then  $x^2 = y^2$ . This implies that  $y^2 = x^2$ , which in turn implies that  $(y, x) \in R$
- Transitive: For all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ , if  $(x, y) \in R \wedge (y, z) \in R$ . Then  $x^2 = y^2 = z^2$  which implies that  $x^2 = y^2 = z^2$ , which in turn implies that  $(x, z) \in R$

For each positive real number, we get a distinct equivalence class containing  $\{r, -r\}$ . We also have an equivalence class  $\{0\}$ .

c)  $A = Z \times Z^*$ ,  $R = \{(a, b), (c, d) \mid ad = bc\}$ , where  $Z^*$  are the set of non-zero integers

**Equivalence Relation with infinitely many equivalence classes.**

- Reflexive: For all  $(a, b) \in Z \times Z^*$ , if  $a = c$  and  $b = d$ , then we get  $ab = ba$ . Therefore,  $((a, b), (a, b)) \in R$ . Therefore,  $R$  is reflexive.
- Symmetric: For all  $(a, b), (c, d) \in Z \times Z^*$ , if  $((a, b), (c, d)) \in R$  then  $ad = bc$ . This is equivalent to writing  $cb = da$ . Therefore,  $((c, d), (a, b)) \in R$ . Therefore,  $R$  is symmetric.
- Transitive: For all  $(a, b), (c, d), (e, f) \in Z \times Z^*$ , if  $((a, b), (c, d)) \in R$  and  $((c, d), (e, f)) \in R$ , then  $ad = bc \Rightarrow c = \frac{ad}{b}$  and  $cf = de \Rightarrow c = \frac{de}{f}$ . This implies that:  $\frac{ad}{b} = \frac{de}{f} \Rightarrow af = be$ . Therefore,  $((a, b), (e, f)) \in R$ . hence, the transitivity property is satisfied.

Therefore, we see that the relation is satisfied by all tuples whose ratio is the same: i.e.  $\frac{a}{b} = \frac{c}{d}$ . Therefore, the equivalence classes are formed of the fractions  $\frac{a}{b}$  in the simplified form, where  $\gcd(a, b) = 1$ . Since there are infinitely many fractions, there are infinitely many equivalence classes.

**Question 5**

Calculate  $7^{15420} \pmod{13}$ .

- $7^0 \pmod{13} = 1, 7^1 \pmod{13} = 7, 7^2 \pmod{13} = 10, 7^3 \pmod{13} = 5 \dots$  keep following the pattern, and we get  $7^{12} \pmod{13} = 1$ , so the pattern repeats for  $7^0$  up to  $7^{12}$
- $15420 \pmod{12} = 0$
- $15420 == 12 * k + j$  for some integers
- $7^{15420} == (7^{12})^k * 7^j$
- $7^{15420} == (7^{12})^k * 7^j \pmod{13}$
- $(1^k * 7^j) \pmod{13} == (1^k * 7^0) \pmod{13} == 1 == 7^{15420} \pmod{13}$

**Question 6**

Prove that for three integers  $a, b$  and  $c$ , if  $c$  does not divide  $a \times b$  then  $c$  does not divide  $a$  and  $c$  does not divide  $b$ .

Proof by Contraposition

- Assume that  $c$  does divide  $a$  or  $c$  does divide  $b$ , then  $c$  does divide  $a * b$ .
- Since  $c$  divides  $a$  or  $b$ , that means that either  $a \pmod{c} = 0$ , or  $b \pmod{c} = 0$ .
- Modular multiplication: for  $x, y, x \pmod{c} * y \pmod{c} == x * y \pmod{c}$
- This means that  $a * b \pmod{c} = 0 \pmod{c}$
- This means that  $a * b = k * c$  for some integer  $k$ , which means that  $c$  divides  $a * b$  by

- definition
- Q.E.D.

### **Question 7**

For  $f_1, f_2 : A \rightarrow B$  and  $g : B \rightarrow C$ , prove that if  $g$  is injective and  $g(f_1(x)) = g(f_2(x))$  for all  $x \in A$ , then  $f_1 = f_2$ .

Definition of injective: if  $g(x) = g(y)$ , then  $x = y$ .

Proof by contradiction. Assume that there  $f_1 \neq f_2$ . This means that there exists some value where  $f_1(x) \neq f_2(x)$ . However, we know that  $g(f_1(x)) = g(f_2(x))$ , and since  $g$  is injective, that means  $f_1(x) = f_2(x)$ .

Direct proof version

- $g$  is injective,  $g(f_1(x)) = g(f_2(x))$  for  $x \in A$
- $f_1(x) = f_2(x)$  for  $x \in A$
- $f_1 = f_2$