DISCRETE MATHEMATICS: COMBINATORICS AND GRAPH THEORY

Exam 1 Solution

Instructions. Solve any 5 questions and state which 5 you would like graded. Write neatly and show your work to receive full credit. You must sign the attendance sheet when returning your booklet. Good luck!

- 1. Prove or disprove the following:
 - (a) For all $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, if mn are odd, then m and n are odd. Consider the contrapositive: If m or n are even, then $m \times n$ is even. By definition the product is even in each of the three cases:
 - i. m is even and n is odd:
 ⇒ m = 2a, n = 2b + 1 ⇒ m × n = 2ab + 2a = 2(ab + a) ⇒ m × n is even.
 ii. m is even and n is even:
 - $\Rightarrow m = 2a, n = 2b \Rightarrow m \times n = 2a \times 2b = 4ab = 2(2ab) \Rightarrow m \times n$ is even.
 - iii. *m* is odd and *n* is even: $\Rightarrow m = 2a + 1, n = 2b \Rightarrow m \times n = 4ab + 2b = 2(2ab + b) \Rightarrow m \times n \text{ is even.}$
 - (b) There are no integer solutions to the equation x² + 19 = y² + 2021.
 We know that (x+y)(x-y) = 2002 so (x+y)(x-y) is even. Therefore one of (x+y) and (x-y) must be even. However, since 2002/2 = 1001 which is odd, one of (x + y) and (x y) must be odd. The sum of an even and odd number is odd, which implies (x + y) + (x y) must be odd, but (x + y) + (x y) = 2x which is even. This is a contradiction. Therefore no integer solutions.
 - (c) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, n > 1. If n is not prime then $2^n 1$ is not prime. Hint: you may use the identity $(a^x 1) = (a 1)(a^{x-1} + a^{x-2} + \dots + a^1 + 1)$. If n is not prime, then n is composite and can be written as $n = \beta \times \gamma$ with $1 < \beta$, $\gamma < n$:

$$2^{\gamma\beta} - 1 = (2^{\gamma} - 1)(2^{\gamma(\beta-1)} + 2^{\gamma(\beta-2)} + \dots + 2^{\gamma 1} + 2^{\gamma 0})$$

In the above, $\gamma > 1 \Rightarrow (2^{\gamma} - 1) > 1$ and $\beta > 1 \Rightarrow (2^{\gamma(\beta-1)} + 2^{\gamma(\beta-2)} + \dots + 2^{\gamma 1} + 2^{\gamma 0}) < 2^n - 1$. Therefore $2^n - 1$ is composite.

- 2. Prove the following by induction. State base case, inductive hypothesis and inductive step explicitly.
 - (a) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (2i-1) = n^2$ Base case when $n = 1 : (2 \times 1 - 1) = 1^2$ Inductive hypothesis: Assume $\sum_{i=1}^{k} (2i-1) = k^2$ Inductive step:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (2i-1) = \sum_{\substack{i=1\\k^2 \text{ by IH}}}^{k} (2i-1) + 2(k+1) - 1$$
$$= k^2 + 2k + 1$$
$$= (k+1)^2 \quad \Box$$

(b) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \ge 4$, $3^n \ge n^3$ Base case when $n = 4: 3^4 = 81 \ge 4^3 = 64$ Inductive hypothesis: Assume $n \ge 4$, $3^n \ge n^3$ for some $k \ge 4$ Inductive step:

$$3^{k+1} = 3^{1} \times 3^{k}$$

$$\geq k^{3} + k^{3} + k^{3} \text{ (by IH)}$$

$$\geq k^{3} + 3k^{2} + 3k^{2} \text{ (since } k \geq 4)$$

$$= k^{3} + 3k^{2} + k^{2} + k^{2} + k^{2} \text{ (expanding the last term)}$$

$$\geq k^{3} + 3k^{2} + 3k + 3k \text{ (since } k \geq 4)$$

$$\geq k^{3} + 3k^{2} + 3k + 1 \text{ (since } k \geq 4)$$

$$= (k+1)^{3} \square$$

(c) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{n}{n+1}$ Base case when n = 1: $\frac{1}{1(1+1)} = \frac{1}{1+1}$. Inductive hypothesis: Assume $\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \frac{k}{k+1}$ true for some k. Inductive step:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{1}{i(i+1)} = \sum_{\substack{i=1 \ k \neq 1}}^{k} \frac{1}{i(i+1)} + \frac{1}{(k+1)(k+2)}$$
$$= \frac{k(k+2)+1}{(k+1)(k+2)}$$
$$= \frac{k^2+2k+1}{(k+1)(k+2)}$$
$$= \frac{(k+1)(k+1)}{(k+1)(k+2)}$$
$$= \frac{k+1}{k+2} \square$$

3. Use the Euclidean Algorithm to find the greatest common divisor of 143 and 33. Use the Extended Euclidean Algorithm to find the Bezout coefficients x, y and all integer solutions to the equation 143x + 33y = gcd(143, 33).

$$143 = 4 \times 33 + 11 \Rightarrow 11 = 143 - 4 \times 33$$
$$33 = 3 \times 11 + 0$$

Therefore the gcd(143, 33) = 11 and x = 1, y = -4. Using the identity $lcm(a, b) = \frac{ab}{gcd(a,b)}$ we find that:

$$143 \times \frac{33}{11} = 33 \times \frac{143}{11}$$
$$143 \times 3 = 33 \times 13$$
$$143 \times 3 - 33 \times 13 = 0$$
$$143 \times 3k + 33 \times (-13k) = 0$$

Adding the above with Bezout's identity:

$$143 \times (3k+1) + 33 \times (-13k-4) = 11$$

- 4. Prove the following by induction. State base case, inductive hypothesis and inductive step explicitly.
 - (a) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n \ge 2$, $\prod_{i=2}^{n} \left(1 \frac{1}{i^2}\right) = \frac{n+1}{2n}$. Base case when $n = 2: \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^2}\right) = \frac{3}{4} \equiv \frac{2+1}{4}$. Inductive hypothesis: Assume $\prod_{i=2}^{k} \left(1 - \frac{1}{i^2}\right) = \frac{k+1}{2k}$ true for some k. Inductive step:

$$\begin{split} \prod_{i=2}^{k+1} \left(1 - \frac{1}{i^2} \right) &= \prod_{\substack{i=2\\k+1\\2k}}^k \left(1 - \frac{1}{i^2} \right) \times \left(1 - \frac{1}{(k+1)^2} \right) \\ &= \left(\frac{k+1}{2k} \right) \times \left(\frac{k^2 + 2k}{k^2 + 2k + 1} \right) \\ &= \frac{k(k+1)(k+2)}{2k(k+1)(k+1)} \\ &= \frac{k+2}{2(k+1)} \quad \Box \end{split}$$

(b) For all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $7|(2^{n+2} + 3^{2n+1})$ Base case when $n = 1: 7|(2^3 + 3^3) \Rightarrow 7|35$ Inductive hypothesis: Assume $7|(2^{k+2} + 3^{2k+1})$ for some k. Inductive step:

$$2^{k+3} + 3^{2k+2} = (9-7) \times 2^{k+3} + 9 \times 3^{2k+1}$$

= 9($2^{k+2} + 3^{2k+1}$) - $7 \times 2^{k+2}$
 $7|(2^{k+2}+3^{2k+1})$ by IH) - $7 \times 2^{k+2}$

Therefore $9(2^{k+2}+3^{2k+1})-7\times 2^{k+2}$ is divisible by 7 \Box

- 5. Verify whether the following functions define bijections.
 - (a) Let $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \neq -2\}$ and $B = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \neq 1\}$ Is the function $f : A \to B$ defined by $f(x) = \frac{x-2}{x+2}$ (i) injective (ii) surjective and (iii) bijective? Prove or disprove.
 - i. $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow \frac{x_1-2}{x_1+2} = \frac{x_2-2}{x_2+2} \Rightarrow (x_1-2)(x_2+2) = (x_2-2)(x_1+2) \Rightarrow x_1x_2 2x_2 + 2x_1 4 = x_1x_2 + 2x_2 2x_1 4 \Rightarrow -2x_2 + 2x_1 = 2x_2 2x_1 \Rightarrow 4x_1 = 4x_2 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$. Therefore f(x) is injective.
 - ii. $y = \frac{x-2}{x+2} \Rightarrow y(x+2) = x-2 \Rightarrow yx-x+2y = -2 \Rightarrow x(y-1)+2y = -2 \Rightarrow x(y-1) = -2(1+y) \Rightarrow x = \frac{-2(1+y)}{y-1}$. Given that $1 \notin B$, taking $f(\frac{-2-2x}{x-1}) = y$. Therefore f(x) is surjective.
 - (b) Is the function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = x^3$ (i) injective (ii) surjective and (iii) bijective? What if $f : \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}$ or $f : \{-1, 0, 2\} \to \{-1, 0, 8\}$? Prove or disprove.

$$\Rightarrow f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow x_1^3 = x_2^3 \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2.$$

$$\Rightarrow f^{-1}(x) = x^{1/3}.$$

We can now verify for each domain and codomain below:

i. $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. Bijective. Both derivations above hold. ii. $f: \mathbb{Q} \to \mathbb{Q}$.

Injective, but not surjective. The cubed root is not always rational. For example, $\sqrt[3]{2} \notin \mathbb{Q}$. iii. $f : \{-1, 0, 2\} \rightarrow \{-1, 0, 8\}$.

Bijective. Both derivations above hold.

7. Construct a bijection $f:[a,b) \to [0,1)$. Show that f is one-to-one and onto.

$$f(x) = \frac{x-a}{b-a}$$

We need $0 \le a < b$

- (a) It is straightforward to verify that $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow \frac{x_1 a}{b a} = \frac{x_2 a}{b a} \Rightarrow (x_1 a)(b a) = (x_2 a)(b a) \Rightarrow x_1 a = x_2 a \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2$. Therefore f(x) is one-to-one.
- (b) $y = \frac{x-a}{b-a} \Rightarrow y(b-a) = (x-a) \Rightarrow x = y(b-a) + a \Rightarrow f(x) = \frac{x(b-a)+a-a}{b-a} = x \Rightarrow f(x)$ is onto.