### Exam I — Sample Solutions

#### Problem 1.

Proof by induction: Basis case: n=0

$$\sum_{k=0}^{!n} (2k+1) = \sum_{k=0}^{!0} (2k+1) = 1 = 1^2 = (n+1)^2 \text{ so true for } n=0.$$

Induction step: assume true for n, prove for n+1

Inductive hypothesis: assume 
$$\sum_{k=0}^{!n} (2k+1) = (n+1)^2$$
.

Extend induction (prove for n+1):

$$\begin{split} & \sum_{k=0}^{ln+1} (2k+1) = \sum_{k=0}^{ln} (2k+1) + 2(n+1) + 1 \text{ by rearrangement} \\ & = (n+1)^2 + 2n + 3 \text{ by inductive hypothesis} \\ & = n^2 + 2n + 1 + 2n + 3 = n^2 + 4n + 4 = (n+2)^2 = ((n+1)+1)^2 \text{ by algebra.} \end{split}$$

Therefore the induction is extended, and by induction the result is proven for all n.

## Problem 2.

For parts (a) and (c) of this solution, assume the universe is  $E = \{1, 2, 3\}$ .

- (a) (A ∩ B) ∪ (~A ∩ B) = A ∪ B is false for A = {1} and B = {2}, A ∪ B = {1, 2} while (A ∩ B) ∪ (~A ∩ B) = Ø ∪ {2} = {2}.
  (b) (A-B) - C = (A-C) - B is true —
- If  $x \in (A-B) C$ , then  $x \in (A-B)$  and  $x \notin C$  and so  $x \in A$  and  $x \notin B$ . Hence  $x \in (A-C) B$ , and  $(A-B) - C \subseteq (A-C) - B$ . Conversely, if  $x \in (A-C) - B$ , then  $x \in (A-C)$  and  $x \notin B$ and so  $x \in A$  and  $x \notin C$ . Hence  $x \in (A-B) - C$ , and  $(A-C) - B \subseteq (A-B) - C$  and the proof is complete.
- (c)  $(A-B) \cup (B-A) = \sim (A \cap B)$  is false for A = {1} and B = {2},  $\sim (A \cap B) = \{1, 2, 3\}$  while  $(A-B) \cup (B-A) = \{1, 2\}$ .

# Problem 3.

The relation R is an equivalence relation. Since m mod  $2 = n \mod 2$ , either both m and n must be even or both must be odd. This condition alone would yield the classes

 $[0] = \{0, 2, 4, 6, \dots\}$  and

$$[1] = \{1, 3, 5, 7, \dots \}.$$

But not all elements in one of these classes are equivalent under R. For instance,  $(0,2)\notin R$  since  $(0 \mod 3) \neq (2 \mod 3)$ , and  $(0 \mod 3) \neq (4 \mod 3)$ , so  $(0,4)\notin R$ . On the other hand,  $(0 \mod 3) = (6 \mod 3)$ , so  $(0,6)\in R$ . The added requirement that  $(m \mod 3) = (n \mod 3)$  splits the even/odd classes above. Since there are three possible remainders from division by 3, each of these two classes splits into three and the six equivalence classes of R are:

- [0] = {0, 6, 12, … } = {k•6 | k∈N}
- $[2] = \{2, 8, 14, \dots\} = \{2 + k \cdot 6 \mid k \in \mathbb{N}\}$
- $[4] = \{4, 10, 16, \dots\} = \{4 + k \cdot 6 \mid k \in \mathbb{N}\}$

remainders 0,0 (from 2 and 3, respectively) remainders 0,2 (from 2 and 3, respectively) remainders 0,1 (from 2 and 3, respectively)  $[1] = \{1,7,13, \dots\} = \{1 + k \cdot 6 \mid k \in N\}$  $[3] = \{3, 9, 15, \dots\} = \{3 + k \cdot 6 \mid k \in N\}$  $[5] = \{5, 11, 17, \dots\} = \{5 + k \cdot 6 \mid k \in N\}$  remainders 1,1 (from 2 and 3, respectively) remainders 1,0 (from 2 and 3, respectively) remainders 1,2 (from 2 and 3, respectively)

## Problem 4.

(a) The function is defined as

 $f(n) = \begin{cases} n/2, \text{ for } n \text{ even} \\ \\ \{ -((n+1)/2), \text{ for } n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$ 

For an odd integer n, n+1 is even, and -((n+1)/2) is the desired negative integer. (b) f is 1-1 since if  $f(n_1) = f(n_2)$ , then  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are either both even or both odd since

otherwise  $f(n_1)$  is negative and  $f(n_2)$  is not, or vice-versa. Then in case both are even  $n_1/2 = n_2/2$  implies  $n_1 = n_2$ . And in case both are odd, likewise  $-((n_1+1)/2) = -((n_2+1)/2)$  implies  $n_1 = n_2$ .

Also f is onto Z since for any n≥0, f(2n) = n since 2n is even, and for any -n<0, 2n-1 is odd so f(2n-1) = -(((2n-1)+1)/2) = -(2n/2) = -n.