COMP 3803 - Assignment 1 Solutions

January 30, 2015

- Q: Prove that the sum of n real numbers if rational if all of them are rational. Is the converse true? Prove or disprove that the product of n real numbers is rational (resp. irrational) if all of them are rational (resp. irrational).
 - A: We will prove the first part by induction. Of course, the base case is trivial: the sum of a single rational number is clearly rational. Then, suppose that the sum of n rational numbers is always rational. Given n + 1 rational numbers $\frac{a_1}{b_1}, \frac{a_2}{b_2}, \ldots, \frac{a_{n+1}}{b_{n+1}}$, their sum is:

$$\frac{a_1}{b_1} + \frac{a_2}{b_2} + \ldots + \frac{a_n}{b_n} + \frac{a_{n+1}}{b_{n+1}}$$

By the induction hypothesis, the sum of the first n of these numbers is some rational number $\frac{p}{q}$, so the above expression is:

$$= \frac{p}{q} + \frac{a_{n+1}}{b_{n+1}} = \frac{pb_{n+1} + qa_{n+1}}{qb_{n+1}}$$

which is rational. So by induction, the sum of n rational numbers is rational.

The converse is not necessarily true, *i.e.* if a number is rational, it is not necessarily only a sum of rational numbers, *e.g.* $0 = -\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{2}$. Finally, a product of rational numbers is clearly rational (by multiplying all numerators together and all denominators together), but a product of irrational numbers need not be irrational. Indeed, $\sqrt{2} * \sqrt{2} = 2$.

2. Q: Prove that if n is a positive integer, then n is odd if and only if 5n + 6 is odd.

A: First, suppose that n is an odd positive integer, so n = 2k + 1 for some integer $k \ge 0$. Then:

$$5n + 6 = 5(2k + 1) + 6 = 10k + 11 = 2(5k + 5) + 1$$

So 5n + 6 has the form $2\ell + 1$ for some integer ℓ – in other words, 5n + 6 is odd.

Conversely, suppose that 5n + 6 is odd, so 5n + 6 = 2k + 1 for some integer $k \ge 0$. Then:

$$5n+6 = 2k+1 \Rightarrow 5n = 2k-5 \Rightarrow n = \frac{2k}{5} - 1$$

Since n is known to be an integer, then 5|2k, so 5|k, and $\frac{k}{5} = \ell$ is an integer, whereby $n = 2\ell - 1$ is odd.

- 3. Q: Show by induction that $n^5 n$ is divisible by 5 for all $n \ge 0$.
 - A: For the base case, n = 0, $0^5 0 = 0$ is divisible by 5.

Suppose $n^5 - n$ is divisible by 5 for some $n \ge 0$ – in other words, $n^5 - n = 5k$ for some integer k. Then:

$$(n+1)^5 - (n+1) = (n^5 + 5n^4 + 10n^3 + 10n^2 + 5n + 1) - (n+1)$$

= $(n^5 - n) + 5(n^4 + 2n^3 + 2n^2 + n)$
= $5k + 5(n^4 + 2n^3 + 2n^2 + n)$

which is clearly divisible by 5. Thus, by induction, $n^5 - n$ is divisible by 5 for all $n \ge 0$.

- 4. Q: Show by induction that $n^3 n$ is divisible by 3 for all $n \ge 0$.
 - A: The solution is identical to that of the previous problem. For the base case, n = 0, $0^3 0 = 0$ is divisible by 3.

Suppose $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3 for some $n \ge 0$ – in other words, $n^3 - n = 3k$ for some integer k. Then:

$$(n+1)^3 - (n+1) = (n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1) - (n+1)$$

= (n³ - n) + 3(n² + n)
= 3k + 3(n² + n)

which is clearly divisible by 3. Thus, by induction, $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3 for all $n \ge 0$.

Remark. Just some extra information if you are curious! You don't need to know anything about this, but you may find it interesting.

The previous two questions hint at a pattern: is it true that $n^k - n$ is divisible by k for every $k \ge 2$ and $n \ge 0$? We can easily verify that this is not always the case: indeed, $2^4 - 2 = 14$ which is not divisible by 4.

However, if p is prime, then $n^p - n$ is always divisible by p. We only need a basic algebraic fact to prove this – the so-called "freshman's dream" – that if p is prime, then for any integers x and y:

$$(x+y)^p \equiv x^p + y^p \pmod{p}$$

Now, to show that $n^p - n$ is divisible by p, we proceed by induction as before. The base case is trivial, so we assume the induction hypothesis, and by the "freshman's dream":

$$(n+1)^p - (n+1) \equiv n^p + 1^p - n - 1 = n^p - n \pmod{p}$$

Since we've assumed that $n^p - n \equiv 0 \pmod{p}$, then we are done by induction. This result is known as *Fermat's little theorem*, and its more general form is seen in *Euler's theorem*.

- 5. Q: We had shown in class that the set of real numbers in the interval [0, 1] is uncountable. What can you then say about the cardinality of the set of real numbers in the interval [0.5, 0.6]? If it is countable, why is it? If it is uncountable, present the arguments in the same way we did the proof for the interval [0, 1]. Given what was taught in class, could you have come up with an easier proof?
 - A: You are asked to present a similar argument to the one shown in class: such an argument is called a *diagonalisation*, or a *diagonal argument*. We proceed by contradiction. Suppose [0.5, 0.6] is countable. Then, we can exhaustively enumerate its elements in a sequence s_1, s_2, \ldots

We represent each s_i in decimal as follows:

$$s_1 = 0.5s_{11}s_{12}s_{13}\dots$$

$$s_2 = 0.5s_{21}s_{22}s_{23}\dots$$

$$s_3 = 0.5s_{31}s_{32}s_{33}\dots$$

:

Then, I claim that there exists an element $t \in [0.5, 0.6]$ which is never listed in the above sequence. Indeed, let:

$$t = 0.5t_1t_2t_3\ldots$$

where $t_1 \neq s_{11}, t_2 \neq s_{22}, \ldots$, and in general, t_n is chosen so that $t_n \neq s_{nn}$. It is a fact that t is never listed: suppose $t = s_n$ for some n. Then $t_1 = s_{n1}, t_2 = s_{n2}, \ldots, t_n = s_{nn}$, but t was chosen precisely so that $t_n \neq s_{nn}$.

So, in conclusion, if [0.5, 0.6] were countable, we could exhaustively enumerate its elements, but this enumeration allows us to construct a number in [0.5, 0.6] which could not possibly be listed in the enumeration. Thus, by contradiction, [0.5, 0.6] must be uncountable. \Box *Remark.* There is a simpler proof: define the function f as follows:

$$f : [0, 1] \to [0.5, 0.6]$$
$$x \mapsto 0.1 * x + 0.5$$

f is a bijection, so [0,1] is uncountable if and only if [0.5, 0.6] is uncountable.

- 6. Q: Let A be the set of all even natural numbers, and B be the set of natural numbers divisible by 3. Prove that the set of fractions $\frac{a}{b}$ where $a \in \mathbf{A}$ and $b \in \mathbf{B}$ is countable.
 - A: We will say $\mathbf{C} = \{\frac{a}{b} : a \in \mathbf{A}, b \in \mathbf{B}\}$. The task is to show that \mathbf{C} is countable.

Clearly **A** and **B** are countable as subsets of the natural numbers, which by definition is a countable set. Thus, $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ is also countable. Each pair $(a, b) \in \mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B}$ exhaustively maps to an element $\frac{a}{b} \in \mathbf{C}$, so **C** is countable. Formally, here we have constructed a surjection (or *surjective* mapping, also sometimes called an *onto* mapping), $\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B} \to \mathbf{C}$. *Remark.* Again, a simple observation makes this a proof exceedingly easy. Note that \mathbf{C} is a subset of the rationals, which is a countable set, so \mathbf{C} must be countable.

- 7. Q: For arbitrary strings X and Y, show that $(XY)^R = Y^R \cdot X^R$, where, by notation, V^R is the string obtained by reversing the string V.
 - **A:** If $X = x_1 x_2 \dots x_i$, $Y = y_1 y_2 \dots y_j$, then:

$$X^{R} = x_{i}x_{i-1}\dots x_{1}$$

$$Y^{R} = y_{j}y_{j-1}\dots y_{1}$$

$$XY = x_{1}x_{2}\dots x_{i}y_{1}y_{2}\dots y_{j}$$

$$(XY)^{R} = y_{j}y_{j-1}\dots y_{1}x_{i}x_{i-1}\dots x_{1}$$

$$Y^{R}X^{R} = y_{j}y_{j-1}\dots y_{1}x_{i}x_{i-1}\dots x_{1}$$

So
$$(XY)^R = Y^R X^R$$
.

- 8. Q: For any language A, let \mathbf{A}^R be $\{X^R : X \in \mathbf{A}\}$. Then, for arbitrary languages A and B, show that $(\mathbf{AB})^R = \mathbf{B}^R \cdot \mathbf{A}^R$, and that $(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B})^R = \mathbf{A}^R \cup \mathbf{B}^R$. Your arguments must be brief but accurate.
 - A: For $(AB)^R$, by definition:

$$(\mathbf{AB})^{R} = \{X^{R} : X \in \mathbf{AB}\} = \{(XY)^{R} : X \in \mathbf{A}, Y \in \mathbf{B}\}$$
$$= \{Y^{R}X^{R} : X \in \mathbf{A}, Y \in \mathbf{B}\}$$
$$= \{Y^{R} : Y \in \mathbf{B}\} \cdot \{X^{R} : X \in \mathbf{A}\} = \mathbf{B}^{R}\mathbf{A}^{R}$$

For $(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B})^R$, by definition:

$$(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B})^{R} = \{X^{R} : X \in \mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}\} = \{X^{R} : X \in \mathbf{A} \text{ or } X \in \mathbf{B}\}$$
$$= \{X^{R} : X \in \mathbf{A}\} \cup \{X^{R} : X \in \mathbf{B}\} = \mathbf{A}^{R} \cup \mathbf{B}^{R}$$

9. Q: If the *languages* A and B are countably infinite and we use the notation of Question 8, what can you say about the size of the language obtained by concatenating $(\mathbf{AB})^R$ and $(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B})^R$. Is the size of the set $(\mathbf{AB})^R \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B})^R$ any larger or smaller than the size of the language obtained by concatenating \mathbf{B}^R and \mathbf{A}^R ?

A: We first show that if the language \mathbf{A} is countable, then \mathbf{A}^R is countable. Indeed, each string $X \in \mathbf{A}$ corresponds exactly to one string $X^R \in \mathbf{A}$, so \mathbf{A} is countable if and only if \mathbf{A}^R is countable. Moreover, if either one is countably infinite, then so is the other.

Recall also that the concatenation of countably infinite languages results in a countably infinite language.

So, from the previous problem, $(\mathbf{AB})^R$ is countably infinite since \mathbf{AB} is countably infinite. Similarly, $(\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B})^R$ is countably infinite since $\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B}$ is countably infinite.

Since **A** and **B** are countably infinite, then by the above observations, $(\mathbf{AB})^R \cdot (\mathbf{A} \cup \mathbf{B})^R$ is countably infinite and $\mathbf{B}^R \cdot \mathbf{A}^R$ is countably infinite, so they are both of equal cardinality.