

CSCE 222-200, Discrete Structures for Computing, Honors

Fall 2021

Homework 3

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**Instructions:**

- The exercises are from the textbook. MAKE SURE YOU HAVE THE CORRECT EDITION! You are encouraged to work extra problems to aid in your learning; remember, the solutions to the odd-numbered problems are in the back of the book.
- Each exercise is worth 5 points.
- Grading will be based on correctness, clarity, and whether your solution is of the appropriate length.
- Always justify your answers.
- Don't forget to acknowledge all sources of assistance on the cover sheet, and write up your solutions on your own.
- *Turn in your pdf file on Canvas by 3:00 PM, Wednesday, October 6.*

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**LaTeX hints:** Read this .tex file for some explanations that are in the comments.

Math formulas are enclosed in \$ signs, e.g.,  $x + y = z$  becomes  $x + y = z$ .

Logical operators:  $\neg, \wedge, \vee, \oplus, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$ .

Here is a truth table using the “tabular” environment:

$p$	$\neg p$
T	F
F	T

**\*\* Delete the instructions and the LaTeX hints in your solution. \*\***

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## Exercises for Section 2.4 (pp. 177–179):

**32(c):** 21215

**36):** The result is  $1 - \frac{1}{n+1}$

## Exercises for Section 2.5 (pp. 186–187):

*Clarification for 2(e) and 4(e): To exhibit a one-to-one correspondence, it's sufficient to give a diagram of the pattern; if you provide the actual function and prove it is a bijection, you can get extra credit.*

**2(e):** The result is countably infinite. Lining up the elements of the set like so:

$$1 : (2, 1), 2 : (3, 1), 3 : (2, 2), 4 : (3, 2), 5 : (2, 3), 6 : (3, 3) \dots$$

We can create a function from each integer that creates an element of the cartesian product.

$$f(n) = (2 + (n + 1) \bmod 2, n - (n + 1) \bmod 2)$$

The function is one-to-one.  $(f(a) = f(b)) \rightarrow a = b$ . If  $a - (a + 1) \bmod 2 = b - (b + 1) \bmod 2$ , then  $a = b$ . Even if  $a$  and  $b$  have the same odd-even parity, they have to be equal. The function can be proven that it is onto.  $\forall x \in S \exists n (f(n) = x)$ .

**4(a):** The function should follow a pattern of  $f(1) = 1, f(2) = 2, f(3) = 4, f(4) = 5, f(5) = 7, f(6) = 8$

**(A):** Combining two countable sets, even if they are countably infinite sets, should always result in a countable set.

**(B):** If there exists a one-to-one function from set A to set B and set B to set A, then A and B must have the same cardinality.

**10a:** A is the set of all real numbers, B is the set of all real numbers as well.

**10b:** A is the set of real numbers less than or equal to 1, B is the set of all real numbers less than 1.

**10c:** A is the set of real numbers, B is the set of real numbers bigger than 5.

**34a:** Showing that  $f(x) = \frac{2x-1}{2x(1-x)}$  is one-to-one:

The derivative is  $\frac{2x^2-2x+1}{2x^2(1-x^2)}$

The derivate is always positive for  $x$  in the domain  $(0, 1)$ , Hence the function is always increasing and should be one-to-one.

**34b:**  $f(x)$  is a function that reaches positive and negative infinity in the domain  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  as the denominator approaches 0 when  $x$  approaches 0 and 1.

**38:** Each element in the domain  $(0, 1)$  can be written in the form  $0.d_1d_2d_n$  and has one-to-one correspondence to a function in the set of functions that map a positive integer to the set of integers 0 to 9. The set of real numbers in the domain  $(0, 1)$  is uncountable and hence the set of functions must also be uncountable.

## Exercises for Section 3.1 (pp. 213–216):

**28:**

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arr ← [a1, a2, ..., an]
left ← 1, right ← n
m2 ← 0
while left < right do
    m2 ← ⌊ $\frac{l+r}{2}$ ⌋
    m1 ← ⌊ $\frac{l+m2}{2}$ ⌋
    m3 ← ⌊ $\frac{m2+r}{2}$ ⌋
    if val == arr[m1] then
        return m1
    end if
    if val == arr[m2] then
        return m2
    end if
    if val == arr[m3] then
        return m3
    end if
    if val < arr[m1] then
        right ← m1
    end if
    if val < arr[m2] then
        right ← m2
        left ← m1
    end if
    if val < arr[m3] then
        right ← m3
        left ← m2

```

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    end if
    if  $val < arr[right]$  then
         $left \leftarrow m3$ 
    end if
end while
return  $-1$ 

```

### Exercises for Section 3.2 (pp. 228–231):

**28a:**  $f(x) = 10$  is not  $\Omega(x)$  as there is no such  $C, k$  pair where  $10 \geq Cx$  for all  $x > k$ . Because 10 is a constant,  $x$  eventually exceeds it.

**28b:**  $f(x) = 3x + 7$  is  $\Omega(x)$  as the function is greater for  $C = 1$ , and  $k = 1$ . Since it is also  $O(x)$ , the function is  $\Theta(x)$ .

**28c:**  $f(x) = x^2 + x + 1$  is  $\Omega(x)$ , as the function's leading term has a higher exponent. It is actually  $\omega(x)$ . However, the function is not  $O(x)$ , so therefore, it is not  $\Theta(x)$ .

**28d:**  $f(x) = 5\log x$  is not  $\Omega(x)$  as it's a smaller function since it's a logarithm. Therefore it's not  $\Theta(x)$ .

**28e:**  $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$  is not  $\Omega(x)$  as no matter what  $C$  and  $k$  values are chosen,  $f(x)$  will not be greater than or equal to  $x$  since decimal values would be floored. Hence, it is also not  $\Theta(x)$ .

**28f:**  $f(x) = \lfloor \frac{x}{2} \rfloor$  is also not  $\Omega(x)$  as no matter what  $C$  and  $k$  values are chosen,  $f(x)$  will not be greater than or equal to  $x$  since decimal values would be floored. Hence, it is also not  $\Theta(x)$ .

**50:** The function  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$  is  $O(g(x))$  where  $g(x) = x^n$ . There exists at least one  $C, k$  pair such that  $f(x) \leq C * g(x)$  for  $x > k$ . This is intuitive as we can say that  $C \geq a_n$ , and that it should also account for the remaining  $n$  terms in  $f(x)$ . Since  $g(x)$  is function that increases quicker than a function with a leading exponent less than  $n$ , we know that we can make  $C$  and  $k$  appropriately high enough such that  $g(x) > (f(x) - a_n x^n)$ .

### Exercises for Section 3.3 (pp. 241–244):

**4:** Justify your answer.

$4\log_2 n + 2$ . Each iteration of the while loop has 4 operations, two arithmetic and two assignments. It gets executed  $\log_2$  times and there are two initial assignments.

**14a:** The loop can be expanded to show all the calculations.

For  $i = 1, y = 3 * 2 + 1$

For  $i = 2, y = 7 * 3 + 1$

For  $i = 3, y = 22 * 3 + 0$

The result is  $y = 66$ .

**14b:** There are  $n$  multiplication and  $n$  addition operations.

**26:** There are 4 preliminary assignment operations. The loop will iterate approximately  $\log_4 n$  times. Each iteration does 26 operations. Each comparison of the loop is an operation. There are 12 operations to calculate the indices of the middle values. There are 6 comparison that use 12 operations due to the indexing Hence the complexity is  $4 + 26\log_n$ .

### Exercises for Section 5.1 (pp. 350–354):

**4a:**  $P(1)$  is  $1^3 = (\frac{1(1+1)}{2})^2$  which is true. **4b:**  $1^3 = (\frac{1(1+1)}{2})^2$  simplifies to  $1 = 1$  which is a true statement. This proved that the base case is true.

**4c:** The inductive hypothesis is that  $P(k)$  is true. This is the statement

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^3 = (\frac{k(k+1)}{2})^2$$

**4d:** It should be shown that  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

**4e:** The following statement must be shown.

$$1^3 + 2^3 + \dots + k^3 + (k+1)^3 = (\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2})^2$$

The inductive hypothesis can be used to replace the first  $k$  terms. This yields the statement:

$$(\frac{k(k+1)}{2})^2 + (k+1)^3 = (\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2})^2$$

We can distribute the squares into their expressions.

$$\frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4} + (k+1)^3 = \frac{(k+1)^2(k+2)^2}{4}$$

We then multiply by four and divide by  $(k+1)^2$ .

$$k^2 + 4(k+1) = (k+2)^2$$

Expanding the both sides reveals that they are equal.

$$k^2 + 4k + 4 = k^2 + 4k + 4$$

Hence, we have proved that  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ , so the statement  $\forall n P(n)$  is true.

**4f:** Mathematical induction relies on the idea that a statement being true for a value  $k$  implies that is true for  $k + 1$ , the next integer. If we prove the statement for a base case such as  $n = 1$ , the smallest positive integer and that each case implies the next case is true, this effectively proves the statement for all integers.  $((P(1)) \wedge (P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1))) \rightarrow \forall n P(n)$  where  $n$  is a positive integer.

**14:** The goal is to prove the statement

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k2^k = (n - 1)2^{n+1} + 2$$

Showing that the statement is true for the base case  $n = 1$ :

$$1(2^1) = (1 - 1)2^{1+1} + 2$$

Constructing the inductive hypothesis:

$$\sum_{j=1}^k j2^j = (k - 1)2^{k+1} + 2$$

Attempting to prove  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$

$$1 * 2^1 + 2 * 2^2 + 3 * 2^3 + \dots + k * 2^k + (k + 1) * 2^{k+1} = (k) * 2^{k+2} + 2$$

The inductive hypothesis can be used to replace the first  $k$  terms.

$$(k - 1)2^{k+1} + 2 + (k + 1) * 2^{k+1} = (k) * 2^{k+2} + 2$$

Subtracting the constants and expanding the left side reveals the following statement:

$$(k)2^{k+1} + (k) * 2^{k+1} + 2^{k+1} - 2^{k+1} = (k) * 2^{k+2}$$

Cancelling terms and simplifying the statements proves their equality:

$$2 * (k)2^{k+1} = (k) * 2^{k+2}$$

Hence, since  $P(1)$  is true and  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ , the statement  $\forall n P(n)$  where  $n$  is a positive integer is true. **20:** The goal is to prove the statement

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k2^k = (n - 1)2^{n+1} + 2$$

Showing that the statement is true for the base case  $n = 7$ :

$$3^7 < 7! \text{ is } 2187 < 5040$$

Constructing the inductive hypothesis:

$$3^k < k!$$

Attempting to prove  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$

$$3^{k+1} < (k + 1)!$$

We can split the left and right sides and use the inductive hypothesis:

$$3^k 3^1 < (k + 1)(k)!$$

Since we know from the inductive hypothesis that  $3^k < k!$  and that  $3^1 < k + 1$  since  $k$  is an integer greater than 6, the statement is true.

Hence, since  $P(1)$  is true and  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ , the statement  $\forall n P(n)$  where  $n$  is an integer greater than 6 is true.

**40:** Showing that  $(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) \cup B = (A_1 \cup B) \cap (A_2 \cup B) \cap \dots \cap (A_n \cup B)$  is true for all  $n$ . We can see this relationship in a smaller case:  $(A \cap B) \cup C$ . If  $k \in (A \cap B) \cup C$  then  $k$  is an element of  $C$  or  $k$  is an element of  $(A \cap B)$  or both. So we can say that  $k$  should be a member of  $A$  or  $C$  and  $B$  or  $C$ . This evaluates to  $k \in ((A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C))$ . This is a proof of the distributive law and can be applied to any number of sets.