

CS 2214B
Assignment 5

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Problem 1 :-

e: Integer

d : modular multiplicative inverse of e mod m

To prove: for an integer x, $x^{ed} \equiv x \pmod{m}$

Theorem: RSA Theorem

Since, d is the modular multiplicative inverse of e mod m for some positive integer m, we get - $ed \equiv 1 \pmod{m}$

Let k be an (+) integer such that :

$$ed * k = k \pmod{m}$$

Considering

$$x^{ed}, \dots \text{(any two positions)} \\ x^{ed} = (x^k)^{ed}$$

Here, $(x^k)^{ed}$ is congruent to $x^k \pmod{m}$ since we showed $ed * k$ is congruent to $k \pmod{m}$.

Hence, $x^{ed} \equiv (x^k)^{ed} \equiv x^k \pmod{m}$

Therefore, for any integer x, $x^{ed} \equiv x^k \pmod{m}$ for some positive integer k which is an arbitrary term and can be any positive integer co-prime to m.

Problem 2 :-

Using well ordering principle, let a, b, g be positive integers such that $g = \gcd(a, b)$. There exists s, t such that $g = sa + tb$.

Considering the set of all (+) integral linear combinations of a and b ,

$$S = \{ma + nb \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z} \wedge ma + nb > 0\};$$

By well ordering principle, there exists a smallest element in Set and is denoted by $c = sa + tb$ for s, t integers.

Since, $c = \gcd(a, b)$, have has to be shown by ① c divides both a and b ;
② any common divisor of a and b also divides c .

① For contradiction, assuming c doesn't divide one of the two numbers, then assuming that is ' a ', we get $a = cq + r$ from some q and $0 \leq r \leq c$.

Substituting: $a = (sa + tb)q + r$.

$$\Rightarrow r = a(1 - sq) - btq.$$

Since r is (+) and less than c , it $\in S$. This contradicts our assumption and so similarly c divides b also.

② Let d be the common divisor of a and b . Since c is a linear combination of a, b , d also must divide c . Hence, $c = \gcd(a, b)$. This can be expressed as $sa + tb$ for some integers s and t . $s = s'/c$, $t = t'/c$ such that $sa' + tb' = c$.

$$\Rightarrow sa + tb = (s'/c)a + (t'/c)b = (s'a + t'b)/c = c/c = 1$$

Hence, the theorem is proved.

Problem 3:-

Mathematical Induction: Prove $P(n)$ is true for all natural numbers (n) that are greater than some natural no. n_0 .

Base Case :- Show $P(n_0)$ is true directly.

Inductive Case :- Show $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ is true for $k \in \mathbb{N}, k \geq n_0$. If both cases are true, then by MI, $P(n)$ is true $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and greater than or equal to n_0 .

To prove : $(A_1 \cup A_2 \dots \cup A_n) = \bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \dots \cap \bar{A}_n$ for (+) n

Base Case :- For $n=1$, $(A_1) = \bar{A}_1$

Inductive Case : Suppose for some positive integer k , the statement $(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k) = \bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \dots \cap \bar{A}_k$ holds true. To show : $(A_1 \cup A_2 \dots \cup A_k \cup A_{k+1}) = \bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_k \cap \bar{A}_{k+1}$

Applying De Morgan's law,

$$\star \Rightarrow (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \dots \cup A_k \cup A_{k+1}) = (A_1 \cup A_2 \dots \cup A_k) \cap \bar{A}_{k+1}$$

As per the inductive hypothesis, we know :

$$\Rightarrow (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \dots \cup A_k) = A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_k$$

Substituting the above equation in (\star) ,

$$\Rightarrow (A_1 \cup A_2 \dots \cup A_k \cup A_{k+1}) = (A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_k) \cap \bar{A}_{k+1}$$

Using intersection over Union Distributive property,

$$(\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_k) \cap \bar{A}_{k+1} = \bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_k \cap (\bar{A}_{k+1})$$

Hence, we get :

$$(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k \cup A_{k+1}) = \bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_k \cap \bar{A}_{k+1}$$

Thus, By mathematical induction, the statement $(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) = (\bar{A}_1 \cap \bar{A}_2 \cap \dots \cap \bar{A}_n)$ holds true for any positive integer n .

Problem 4 :-

Strong Induction makes a stronger hypothesis than mathematical induction.

To prove : $A_n < 2^n$ for all (+) Integers n.

Base Cases :-

$n=1$, Given $A_1 = 1$

So, $A_1 = 1 < 2^1$; $A_1 < 2^1$

The result holds for $n=1$.

$n=2$, Given $A_2 = 1$

$$A_2 = 2^2 = 4$$

So, $A_2 = 1 < 4$; $A_2 < 2^2$

The result holds for $n=2$

$n=3$, Given $A_3 = 1$

$$A_3 = 2^3 = 8$$

So, $A_3 = 1 < 8$; $A_3 < 2^3$

The result holds for $n=3$.

Inductive Cases :-

Suppose the result holds for $n=1, 2, \dots, k$

So, $A_k < 2^k$ for $n \leq k$. To show that $A_{(k+1)} < 2^{k+1}$ when $k \geq 3$, $A_k < 2^k$, $A_{(k-1)} < 2^{k-1}$ and $A_{(k-2)} < 2^{k-2}$ hold true.

By recursive definition of the sequence,

$$A_{k+1} = A_k + A_{k-1} + A_{k-2}$$

Substituting the inductive hypothesis, we get, $A_{k+1} < 2^k + 2^{k-1} + 2^{k-2}$

Hence, we have, $A_k < 2^k$, $A_{k-1} < 2^{k-1}$ and $A_{k-2} < 2^{k-2}$.

Factoring out $A = 2^{(k-2)}$ from RHS we get
 $A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^{(k-2)} \times b(4 + 2 + 1)$
 $\Rightarrow A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^{(k-2)} \times 7$

Since $k \geq 3$, we have $2^{(k-2)} > 4$. Hence,

$$A^{(k+1)} \leq 4 \times 7$$

$$\Rightarrow A^{(k+1)} \leq 28$$

Also, since $2^{(k+1)} = 2 \times 2^k > 2 \times 2^{(k-2)}$
 $\Rightarrow A^{(k+1)} = 8 \times 2^{(k-2)} > 8$

Hence, $A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^{k+1}$ is true.

Alternatively, $A^{(k+1)} = A^{(k+1)} - 3 + A^{(k+1)} - 2 + A^{(k+1)} - 1$
 As per the given condition,

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

But, the result holds for $n \leq k+1$.

$$\therefore A^{(k-2)} \leq 2^{k-2}, \quad A^{(k-1)} \leq 2^{k-1} \quad \text{and} \quad A^{(k)} \leq 2^k$$

$$\Rightarrow A^{(k-2)} + A^{(k-1)} + A^{(k)} \leq 2^{(k-2)} + 2^{(k-1)} + 2^k$$

$$\text{i.e., } A^{(k+1)} = A^{(k-2)} + A^{(k-1)} + A^{(k)} \leq 2^{k-2} + 2^{k-1} + 2^k$$

$$\Rightarrow A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^{k-2} + 2^{k-1} + 2^k$$

$$\Rightarrow A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^k \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2} + 1 \right) \Rightarrow A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^k \left(\frac{7}{4} \right) - ①$$

$$\text{Since } \frac{7}{4} < 2 \Rightarrow 2^k \left(\frac{7}{4} \right) < 2^{k+1} \quad ② \text{ (given)}$$

$$\text{Using } ① \text{ and } ②, \quad A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^k \left(\frac{7}{4} \right) < 2^{k+1}$$

Hence, $A^{(k+1)} \leq 2^{k+1}$ is true. The result holds for $n = k+1$.

By the principle of strong induction, $A_n \leq 2^n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Problem 5 :-

(a) Number of excess mushrooms: $2000 - 200 = 1800$
 Number of purchases of the dish = 160

As per the generalized pigeonhole theorem *, if N objects (1800 excess mushrooms) are to be placed into k boxes (160 feature purchased), then there is at least one box containing $\lceil N/k \rceil$ or more objects. As per the above formula, to ensure that all excess mushroom is used, Ricardo will have to use $\lceil 1800/160 \rceil = \lceil 11.25 \rceil = 12$ mushrooms in each serving of the featured dish.

(b) Let Ivana run a total of N kilometres per week. It is given that Ivana has to run at least 1250 kilometres as per her training plan and so $N \geq 1250$. Since there are 7 days a week, $k = 7$.

Let $\lceil \frac{N}{k} \rceil$ be the kilometres needed to run by Ivana per week. $\lceil \frac{N}{k} \rceil = \lceil \frac{1250}{7} \rceil = \lceil 178.57 \rceil = 179$. However, she runs 35 \times 7 = 245 kilometres if she runs 35 kilometres every day of the week.

Hence, it is necessary that she runs more

35 kilometres ~~per~~^{one} day of the week to meeting her training ~~per~~ plans. Alternatively, using the pigeonhole principle, let us assume that Ivana need not run more than 35 kilometres a day of a week. To achieve her training goal, she must run atleast $\lceil 250/35 \rceil = 8$ days $\{ 7.14\}$. However, she has only 7 days to achieve her goal. Therefore she must run $\lceil 250/7 \rceil = 35.717 = 36$ hours kilometres a day. But she runs $35 \times 7 = 245$ kilometres a week which leaves her goal unachieved. As per these calculations, our assumption is contradicted and hence if she keeps on running 35 kilometres a day, she will have to run more than 35 kilometres on one day of the week to meet her goal of running 250 kilometres a week.

(C) Here, \mathbb{Z} represents the set of all integers. To prove that \mathbb{Z} is an infinite set, ~~we~~ it must be shown that there does not exist a natural number 'n' such that a bijection from \mathbb{Z} to $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ exists.

By proof by contradiction, let us assume that there exists a bijection between \mathbb{Z} and $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Then, every element of \mathbb{Z} has a ^{unique} mapping in the set $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. However, since \mathbb{Z} is infinite, it is not possible map every element of \mathbb{Z} with $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ and vice-versa, since the $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ set has only 'n' number of elements.

Also, since the bijection f is one-to-one, $f(m) \neq f(n)$ for any distinct integers m & n . Let $S = \{f(1), f(2), \dots, f(k), f(-k)\}$ where $f(1) = a$, $f(-1) = b$; then k is the maximum value such that $f(k) \leq n/2$ and k is positive. By the pigeonhole principle, two distinct elements in S map to the same element in $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ under f . Suppose ~~$f(i) = f(j)$~~ $f(i) = f(j)$, $1 \leq i < j \leq k$, then $f(j-i) = f(j) - f(i) = 0$. This is a contradiction since $0 \notin \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. Hence, our assumption is false and there does not exist a natural number ' n ' such that a bijection from \mathbb{Z} to $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ exists.

Hence, \mathbb{Z} is an infinite set.

Problem 6

(a) Adjacency Matrix using Lexicographical ordering

G_1 where

$$V_1 = \{a, b, c, d, e\}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

→ figure 1 (G_1)

Adjacency Matrix using Lexicographical ordering:

G_2 where

$$V_2 = \{u, v, x, y, z\}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

→ figure 2 (G_2)

(b)

Two graphs $G_1 = (V_1, E_1)$ and $G_2 = (V_2, E_2)$ are isomorphic if there exists a bijective function f from V_1 to V_2 with a property that two vertices $v_1, v_2 \in V_1$ are adjacent in G_1 if and only if $f(v_1)$ and $f(v_2)$ are adjacent in G_2 . Then the bijective function f is called an isomorphism.

Thus, we must have $|V_1| = |V_2|$ and $|E_1| = |E_2|$ alongside maintaining adjacencies.

To show $f: G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ is a one-one onto mapping -

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(a) &= x \\
 f(b) &= u \\
 f(c) &= z \\
 f(d) &= v \\
 f(e) &= y
 \end{aligned}$$

Degree of G_1 :

$$\deg(a) = 2 ; \deg(b) = 3 ; \deg(c) = 3 ;$$

$$\deg(d) = 2 ; \deg(e) = 2 ;$$

Degree of G_2 :

$$\deg(x) = 2 ; \deg(y) = 2 ; \deg(z) = 3$$

$$\deg(u) = 3 ; \deg(v) = 2 ;$$

From above, we can see that both the graphs have three vertices of degree 2 and two vertices of degree 3. The bijection works.

- ① 'a' is connected to 'b' and 'c' in G_1 and $f(a) = x$ is connected to $f(b) = u$ and $f(c) = z$ in G_2 .
- ② 'b' is connected to 'a', 'c' and 'e' in G_1 and 'u' is connected to 'x', 'z', 'y' in G_2 .
- ③ 'c' is connected to 'a', 'b', 'd' in G_1 and 'z' is connected to 'x', 'u', 'v' in G_2 .
- ④ 'd' is connected to 'c', 'e' in G_1 and 'v' is connected to 'z', 'y' in G_2 .
- ⑤ 'e' is connected to 'b' and 'd' in G_1 and 'y' is connected to 'u' and 'v' in G_2 .

Hence, the graphs are bijective and so isomorphic and here isomorphism can be defined as :

$$f(a) = 'x', f(b) = 'u', f(c) = 'z', f(d) = 'v' \text{ and } f(e) = y .$$