

Exam Reasoning and Logic (TI1306), 9:00 – 10:30

- Hint: First consider what would be the correct answer for a multiple choice question and then find that answer in the options given.

Multiple choice questions (1 point for each question)

1. If P and Q are properties of pairs of integers, in what way can you prove this theorem?

Theorem. For all $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ there exists a $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $P(x, y) \rightarrow Q(x, y)$.

- A. Take a random $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ and find a $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ (potentially dependent on x) for which it holds that from the assumption that $P(x, y)$ does not hold, it follows that $Q(x, y)$ does not hold either.
- B. Find a $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ and show for a random $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ that $P(x, y)$ follows from the assumption of $Q(x, y)$.
- C. Take a random x and y in \mathbb{Z} and show that $Q(x, y)$ follows from the assumption of $P(x, y)$.
- D. Take a random $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ and find a $y \in \mathbb{Z}$ (potentially dependent on x) for which you show that from the assumption that $Q(x, y)$ does not hold, it follows that $P(x, y)$ does not hold.**

Answer: The theorem consists of a “for all” predicate followed by a “there exists” predicate. For the “for all” predicate we are required to take a random element of \mathbb{Z} and prove that the theorem holds. For the “there exists” we can simply show that there is one, even a specific one will do. Finally we can choose to either prove the theorem as it is stated here, or prove the logically equivalent contrapositive ($\neg Q(x, y) \rightarrow \neg P(x, y)$). Answer D does exactly this.

2. If you want to prove the following theorem by mathematical induction, what do you have to do during the inductive step?

Theorem. For all integers $n \geq 1$ it holds that: $6 \mid (n^3 - n)$.

- A. Find an integer k for which an integer a exists such that $(k^3 - k) = a \cdot 6$ holds, and show that for a random integer b it holds that $((k+1)^3 - (k+1)) = b \cdot 6$.
- B. Show for a random integer k that if there exists a random integer a so that $((k+1)^3 - (k+1)) = a \cdot 6$ holds, there exists an integer b so that $(k^3 - k) = b \cdot 6$ holds.
- C. Show that if it holds that when $n = 1$, there exists an integer a so that $(n^3 - n) = a \cdot 6$, then there also exists an integer b so that $((n+1)^3 - (n+1)) = b \cdot 6$.
- D. Show that if there exists an integer a such that $(k^3 - k) = a \cdot 6$ holds for a random integer k , there also exists an integer b such that $((k+1)^3 - (k+1)) = b \cdot 6$.**

Answer: The inductive step always requires you to prove that $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ for a random k , or in English: if the integer k has the property, then so does the integer $k+1$. If we take $P(k)$ as $6 \mid (k^3 - k)$, then we can reformulate the answers as such:

- A. Prove that: $\exists k(P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$
- B. Prove that: $\forall k(P(k+1) \rightarrow P(k))$
- C. Prove that: $P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$.
- D. Prove that: $\forall k(P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$

It is now obvious that D is exactly what we want.

3. If A , B and C are sets in the universe U , and $D = ((A \cup B)^c \cap (C - A))$, which of the following options is **not** true?

- A. $(A \cap B) \subseteq (C - D)$.
- B. $D \subseteq B^c$.
- C. $(A \cap B) \cap D = \emptyset$.
- D. $C^c \subseteq D^c$.

Answer: You can easily represent the set D as the set with all elements which are in not in $A \cup B$ but are in $C - A$. Make a Venn diagram with the three sets, and look at the part of C which isn't a part of A or B . Set D is everything *inside* that set.

- A. This statement does not hold: There can be elements in C that are not part of both A and B , but are part of only one. This way they are not in D and thus they are in $C - D$, but they are not in $A \cap B$.
- B. This statement holds. Drawing the Venn diagram will help you see that! Everything that is in D is a part of C but not a part of B (after all it is not in the union of A and B).
- C. This statement holds. Everything that is in $(A$ and $B)$ is also in $(A$ or $B)$, thus not in D . Thus we find nothing that is in these three sets at the same time.
- D. This statement holds. The contrapositive of this is that everything that is in D is also in C , which is easily seen from the definition of D .

4. If X , Y , Z and W are sets, how can you prove the following statement "If $X \subseteq Y$, then $Z \subseteq W$ " ?

- A. By showing that $Z \subseteq X$ and that $Y \subseteq W$.
- B. By showing that $Y \subseteq Z$ and that $W \subseteq X$.
- C. By showing that $X \subseteq Z$ and that $Y \subseteq W$.
- D. By showing that $Z \subseteq X$ and that $W \subseteq Y$.

Answer: If $X \subseteq Y$ is true, then you get, if you can show that $Z \subseteq X$ and $Y \subseteq W$, the following relations: $Z \subseteq X \subseteq Y \subseteq W$. From this it follows that $Z \subseteq W$ because of transitivity.

5. Let A and B be sets for which it holds that $A \subseteq B$. Which of the following can we **not** say with certainty?

- A. If $B = \emptyset$ then $A = \emptyset$.
- B. $|A| < |B|$.
- C. If $A \neq \emptyset$ then $B \neq \emptyset$.
- D. $(A - B) = \emptyset$.

Answer:

- A If there does not exist an element in B , there also does not exist an element in A , otherwise $A \not\subseteq B$.
- B If $A = B$, $A \subseteq B$ holds, but not $|A| < |B|$.
- C If there exists an element in A , that element also has to exist in B , otherwise $A \not\subseteq B$.
- D If $A - B$ has an element then that means that A has an element B does not, thus $A \not\subseteq B$.

6. The following argument does not hold. Which sets can be used for a counterexample?

Argument. For all sets A and B it holds that: $2^A \cup 2^B = 2^{A \cup B}$.

- A. $A = \emptyset$ and $B = \{a, b\}$.
- B. $A = \{a, b\}$ and $B = \{a\}$.
- C. $A = \{a\}$ and $B = \{b\}$.**
- D. $A = \{\emptyset\}$ and $B = \emptyset$.

Answer: This claim is true if $A \subseteq B$ or $B \subseteq A$, only for one of the pairs this is false: $A = \{a\}$ en $B = \{b\}$.

7. Consider the directed graph which corresponds to the (binary) relation R on a set A . If it is given that relation R is reflexive and is **not** symmetric, which of the following must hold?

- A. (i) If there is an edge from a vertex to another vertex, there is no edge the other way, and (ii) there is an edge from every vertex to itself.
- B. (i) Not all vertices have an edge to themselves, and (ii) if there is an edge from a vertex to another vertex, there is also an edge the other way.
- C. (i) There are no edges between pairs of vertices, but (ii) every vertex has an edge to itself.
- D. (i) There exists an edge from a vertex to another vertex, without an edge going the other way, and (ii) every vertex has an edge to itself.**

Answer: Because R is reflexive, every vertex in G_R has an edge to itself. Because R is not symmetric, there has to be at least one edge for which the graph does not contain its counterpart.

8. Consider the following relation T on \mathbb{Z} : A pair $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Z} \times \mathbb{Z}$ is an element of T if and only if $x \mid 2y$. Which of the following is true?

- A. The relation T is reflexive and is symmetric.
- B. The relation T is reflexive and is not symmetric.**
- C. The relation T is not reflexive and is symmetric.
- D. The relation T is not reflexive and is not symmetric.

Answer: So T contains for example $(0, 0)$, $(-2, 1)$, $(-1, 1)$, $(1, 1)$, $(2, 1)$, $(-4, 2)$, $(-2, 2)$, $(-1, 2)$, $(1, 2)$, $(2, 2)$, $(4, 2)$, ... What are the properties of this relation?

Reflexive: The relation is **reflexive**, because for every integer x it holds that $x \mid 2x$.

Symmetric: The relation is **not symmetric**, because for every odd number $n > 1$, 2 divides $2n$, but an odd number greater than 1 does not divide $2 \cdot 2$. For example: $2 \mid 2 \cdot 5$, so $(2, 5) \in T$, but $\neg(5 \mid 2 \cdot 2)$, so $(5, 2) \notin T$.

Transitive: If we take random integers x , y and z , but in such a way that $(x, y) \in T$ and $(y, z) \in T$, then does $(x, z) \in T$ also always hold? The fact that $(x, y), (y, z) \in T$ means that there exist integers a and b such that $2y = ax$ and $2z = by$. Does this guarantee that there exists an integer c such that $2z = cx$? We know that $2z = by$, but $y = \frac{a}{2}x$, so $2z = b\frac{a}{2}x$, so $(x, z) \notin T$ if $b\frac{a}{2}$ is not an integer, which is the case if a and b are odd. Take for example $x = 4$, $y = 6$ en $z = 3$. Now $4 \mid 2 \cdot 6$ and $6 \mid 2 \cdot 3$ do hold, but it does not hold that $4 \mid 2 \cdot 3$, so the relation T is **not transitive**.

9. The functions $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are given as $f(x) = 3x^3 + 1$ and $g(x) = 2x^2 + 6x - 5$. Which of the following is true?

- A. The function f is one-to-one and the function g is one-to-one.
- B. The function f is one-to-one and the function g is not one-to-one.**
- C. The function f is not one-to-one and the function g is one-to-one.
- D. The function f is not one-to-one and the function g is not one-to-one.

Answer: f is one-to-one as for every $f(a) = f(b)$ we find exactly one $x = a = b$ to solve it ($x = (\frac{1}{3}(f(a) - 1))^{\frac{1}{3}}$), but $g(x)$ is not: take $g(x) = -5$, this leads to $x = 0$ but also $x = -3$.

10. Consider the functions f and g again from the previous question (9). Which of these statements is true?

- A. The function f is onto and the function g is onto.
- B. The function f is onto and the function g is not onto.**
- C. The function f is not onto and the function g is onto.
- D. The function f is not onto and the function g is not onto.

Answer: The previous answer already answers this question as well. But for every $y = f(x)$ we can find an x (using the formula given in the answer of question 9), whereas for $y = g(x)$ it is possible no x exists to make a y . For instance there is no x such that $g(x) = -100$.

Open questions

1. Consider the following arguments, where 2^X is the power set of the set X . (To make things clear: Epp writes 2^X as $\mathcal{P}(X)$ in her book.)

Argument (I). For all sets A and B it holds that: $2^{A-B} \not\subseteq (2^A - 2^B)$.

Argument (II). For all sets A and B it holds that: $(2^A - 2^B) \not\subseteq 2^{A-B}$.

Argument I does hold, and argument II does not hold.

- (a) (1 point) Give for sets $C = \{0, 1\}$ and $D = \{1\}$ the sets 2^{C-D} and $(2^C - 2^D)$ as an enumeration of elements (so in 'set-roster notation').

Answer:

$$C - D = \{0, 1\} - \{1\} = \{0\}$$

$$2^{C-D} = \{\emptyset, \{0\}\}$$

first answer

$$2^C = \{\emptyset, \{0\}, \{1\}, \{0, 1\}\}$$

$$2^D = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$$

$$2^C - 2^D = \{\{0\}, \{0, 1\}\}$$

second answer

- (b) (2 points) Give a proof for argument I. Explicitly note the proof techniques you use and explain all your steps. (You get the points for this question if your proof shows your *knowledge* of this matter.)

Answer:

Proof. You have to prove that for every set A and B it holds that: $2^{A-B} \not\subseteq (2^A - 2^B)$. So take random sets A and B . Now you have to prove that $2^{A-B} \not\subseteq (2^A - 2^B)$ is true, so we have to show that there exists an element in 2^{A-B} which does not exist in $(2^A - 2^B)$. Consider the empty set \emptyset . Because A and B are sets, $A - B$ is also a set, and the empty set is a subset of all sets, so $\emptyset \subseteq A - B$, so $\emptyset \in 2^{A-B}$. Because A and B are sets, and the empty set is a subset of all sets, $\emptyset \subseteq A$ and $\emptyset \subseteq B$ hold, so $\emptyset \in 2^A$ and $\emptyset \in 2^B$. In the set $2^A - 2^B$ are all elements of 2^A which are not in 2^B , so \emptyset is not part of that, because that is an element of 2^B , so $\emptyset \notin (2^A - 2^B)$. This shows that $2^{A-B} \not\subseteq (2^A - 2^B)$. Because A and B are random sets, this holds for all sets A and B , which had to be proven. QED

- (c) i. (1 point) Give a counterexample which shows that argument II does not hold.

Answer: The counterexample has to show that the statement "For all sets A and B it holds that: $(2^A - 2^B) \not\subseteq 2^{A-B}$ " does not hold. Such a counterexample consists of specific sets A and B for which $(2^A - 2^B) \not\subseteq 2^{A-B}$ is false, because this shows that this statement does not hold for all sets A and B . So we have to find two sets A and B for which $(2^A - 2^B) \subseteq 2^{A-B}$ is true. A simple solution is to choose two sets for which $(2^A - 2^B) = \emptyset$, which we can accomplish for example by choosing $A = B$, or in general, to choose $A \subseteq B$. For this $2^A = 2^B$ (respectively $2^A \subseteq 2^B$), so there is no element in 2^A which is not in 2^B . So take as counterexample $A = B = \{1\}$.

- ii. (1 point) Explain clearly and precisely how you prove the invalidity of the argument using your counterexample.

Answer: With the sets $A = B = \{1\}$, $2^A = 2^B = \{\emptyset, \{1\}\}$, so $(2^A - 2^B) = \emptyset$. Because the empty set is a subset of all sets, $\emptyset \subseteq 2^{A-B}$, which means that for the sets $A = \{1\}$ and $B = \{1\}$ it holds that $(2^A - 2^B) \subseteq 2^{A-B}$, which again shows that $(2^A - 2^B) \not\subseteq 2^{A-B}$ does not hold for all sets.

2. (5 points) Prove using mathematical induction that for all integers $n \geq 1$ it holds that: $\sum_{i=1}^n (i \cdot i!) = (n+1)! - 1$.

Hint: Set up your proof such that it shows your *insight* in the steps of a proof by induction: The proof which you deliver should show indubitably that you understand how and why such a proof *works*! Give ample explanations and comments.

Answer: We use the predicate $P(n)$ to show that an integer n has the property $\sum_{i=1}^n (i \cdot i!) = (n+1)! - 1$. We have to prove that every integer $n \geq 1$ has this property.

Proof using mathematical induction. Basis step ($n = 1$): We need to prove that $P(1)$ is true, so that $\sum_{i=1}^1 (i \cdot i!) = (1+1)! - 1$ is true if $n = 1$.

$$\sum_{i=1}^1 (i \cdot i!) = (1 \cdot 1!) = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 = 2 - 1 = 2! - 1 = (1+1)! - 1,$$

so $P(1)$ is true.

Inductive step: In this part we need to prove that for all integers $n \geq 1$ it holds that: $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$. So we take a random number ≥ 1 , say k . We need to prove that the implication $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ is true. Suppose that $P(k)$ holds (this is the inductive hypothesis IH), so that number k has the property, so that $\sum_{i=1}^k (i \cdot i!) = (k+1)! - 1$. We need to prove that $P(k+1)$ holds, so that $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (i \cdot i!) = (k+1+1)! - 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (i \cdot i!) &= \sum_{i=1}^k (i \cdot i!) + (k+1) \cdot (k+1)! && \text{split off last term} \\ &= (k+1)! - 1 + (k+1) \cdot (k+1)! && \text{according to the IH} \\ &= (k+1)! - 1 + (k+1)! \cdot (k+1) && ab = ba \\ &= (k+1)! \cdot (k+1) + (k+1)! - 1 && \text{reorder} \\ &= (k+1)! \cdot ((k+1) + 1) - 1 && \text{split off } (k+1)! \\ &= (k+2)! - 1 && (k+1)! \cdot (k+2) = (k+2)! \\ &= (k+1+1)! - 1, \end{aligned}$$

So the number $k+1$ does indeed have the property: $P(k+1)$ is derived from the assumption that $P(k)$ is true, so the implication is proven for k . Because k is a random integer ≥ 1 , the implication holds for all integers ≥ 1 , which was proven in the inductive step.

According the principle of induction, we can conclude that $P(n)$ holds for all integers $n \geq 1$. QED