## Pure - Miscellaneous: Exercises (Sol'ns)(7 pages; 17/1/20)

### Contents

- (A) Indices
- (B) Partial Fractions
- (C) Recurrence relations
- (Z) Miscellaneous

# (A) Indices

(1\*) (i) Does  $\sqrt{4}$  equal 2 or  $\pm 2$ ? (ii) Simplify  $\sqrt{x^2}$ 

## Solution

(i) By convention, 2 (consider the  $\pm$  in the quadratic formula).

(ii) |*x*|

(2\*) Simplify 
$$\left(1 + \left(1 + 2^{-\frac{1}{2}}\right)^{-1}\right)^{-1}$$

### Solution

$$\left( 1 + \left( 1 + 2^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{-1} \right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2} + 1}} = \frac{\sqrt{2} + 1}{\sqrt{2} + 1 + \sqrt{2}} = \frac{\sqrt{2} + 1}{2\sqrt{2} + 1} = \frac{(\sqrt{2} + 1)(2\sqrt{2} - 1)}{(2\sqrt{2} + 1)(2\sqrt{2} - 1)} = \frac{4 - \sqrt{2} + 2\sqrt{2} - 1}{8 - 1} = \frac{3 + \sqrt{2}}{7}$$

### (B) Partial Fractions

(1\*\*\*) Express  $\frac{1}{(1-x^2)^2}$  in terms of partial fractions

### Solution

$$\frac{1}{(1-x^2)^2} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2(1+x)^2} = \frac{A}{1-x} + \frac{B}{(1-x)^2} + \frac{C}{1+x} + \frac{D}{(1+x)^2}$$
  
so that  $1 = A(1-x)(1+x)^2 + B(1+x)^2 + C(1+x)(1-x)^2 + D(1-x)^2$   
Then  $x = 1 \Rightarrow 1 = 4B \Rightarrow B = \frac{1}{4}$   
 $x = -1 \Rightarrow 1 = 4D \Rightarrow D = \frac{1}{4}$   
 $x = 0 \Rightarrow 1 = A + B + C + D \Rightarrow A + C = \frac{1}{2}$   
Equating coefficients of  $x^3 \Rightarrow 0 = -A + C$   
Hence  $A = C = \frac{1}{4}$   
and  $\frac{1}{(1-x^2)^2} = \frac{1}{4(1-x)} + \frac{1}{4(1-x)^2} + \frac{1}{4(1+x)} + \frac{1}{4(1+x)^2}$ 

### (C) Recurrence relations

(1#) Consider the sequence defined by  $u_n = au_{n-1} + b$ ,

where a & b are real constants, and  $u_0$  is given.

(i) What familiar sequences are special cases of this sequence?Solution

Setting a = 1 gives an arithmetic sequence.

Setting b = 0 gives a geometric sequence.

(ii) Define a new sequence by  $v_n = u_n + c$ 

For what value of *c*, in terms of *a* & *b*, will  $v_n$  be a geometric sequence?

For what value of *a* does this not work?

#### Solution

 $v_{n-1} = u_{n-1} + c$  , and hence

$$u_n = au_{n-1} + b \Rightarrow v_n - c = a(v_{n-1} - c) + b$$

 $\Rightarrow v_n = av_{n-1} + b + c(1-a)$ 

For  $v_n$  to be a geometric sequence, we want b + c(1 - a) = 0,

so that  $c = \frac{-b}{1-a} = \frac{b}{a-1}$ , provided that  $a \neq 1$ 

When a = 1,  $u_n$ , and hence  $v_n$  also, are arithmetic sequences.

(iii) If  $u_n = 2u_{n-1} + 3$ , and  $u_0 = 4$ , find a formula for  $u_n$  in terms of n

#### Solution

From (ii),  $c = \frac{3}{2-1} = 3$  and  $v_n = 2v_{n-1}$ Then  $v_n = v_0(2^n)$ and  $v_n = u_n + 3$ , so that  $u_n + 3 = (u_0 + 3)(2^n)$ and  $\therefore u_n = 7(2^n) - 3$ (and this can be checked by comparing with  $u_n = 2u_{n-1} + 3$ , and  $u_0 = 4$ )

(iv) Find a similar formula for  $u_n = au_{n-1} + b$ , where  $u_0$  is given.

### Solution

From (ii),  $c = \frac{b}{a-1}$  and  $v_n = av_{n-1}$ Then  $v_n = v_0(a^n)$ and  $v_n = u_n + c$ , so that  $u_n + c = (u_0 + c)(a^n)$ and  $\therefore u_n = (u_0 + c)(a^n) - c = \left(u_0 + \frac{b}{a-1}\right)(a^n) - \frac{b}{a-1}$ 

(v) Under what conditions will  $u_n$  be constant? Give a non-trivial example.

### Solution

Either a = 1 & b = 0

Or a = 0 and  $u_0 = b$ 

Or  $u_0 + \frac{b}{a-1} = 0$ ; ie  $u_0 = \frac{b}{1-a}$ 

For example,  $u_n = 2u_{n-1} - 1$ , where  $u_0 = 1$ 

## (Z) Miscellaneous

(1\*) How are the following usually defined?

(a) Whole numbers (b) Natural numbers

### Solution

(a) Whole numbers: Integers (including zero and negative integers)

(b) Natural numbers: usually positive integers, but sometimes including zero

fmng.uk

(2#) Prove that  $E' \Rightarrow L'$  is equivalent to  $L \Rightarrow E$ 

## Solution

Suppose that L is true & E is not true; then  $E' \Rightarrow L'$  means that L is not true; ie a contradiction; hence  $L \Rightarrow E$ 

(3#) What is a transcendental number?

# Solution

First of all, an 'algebraic number' is one that is the root of a polynomial equation with integer coefficients.

Irrational numbers can be divided into two classes: those that are algebraic numbers and those that aren't. The former are called surds and the latter are called 'transcendental numbers'. The best known examples of transcendental numbers are  $\pi$  and e.

(4#) Find the square roots of  $49 - 12\sqrt{5}$ 

# Solution

Let  $x^2 = 49 - 12\sqrt{5}$ 

Consider  $x = a + b\sqrt{5}$ 

Then  $a^2 + 2ab\sqrt{5} + 5b^2 = 49 - 12\sqrt{5}$ 

Let  $a^2 + 5b^2 = 49$  & 2ab = -12

[a variation on Equating Coefficients]

Looking for integer solutions, we see that either

a = 2 & b = -3 or a = -2 & b = 3 work.

fmng.uk

(5#) Show that 
$$\sum_{r=0}^{n} {n \choose r} = 2^{n}$$

Solution

**Method 1**: Consider  $(1 + 1)^n$ 

Method 2: Pascal's triangle

The sum of each row is twice the sum of the previous one.

eg 
$$1 + 5 + 10 + 10 + 5 + 1$$
  
=  $(1 + 10 + 5)[alternate terms] + (5 + 10 + 1)$   
=  $2(1 + 10 + 5) = 2(1 + [4 + 6] + [4 + 1])$   
&  $1 + 6 + 15 + 20 + 15 + 6 + 1$   
=  $(1 + 15 + 15 + 1) + (6 + 20 + 6)$   
=  $(1 + [5 + 10] + [10 + 5] + 1)$   
+ $([1 + 5] + [10 + 10] + [5 + 1])$ 

Method 3: Counting ways of selecting any number of items

1st counting method:  $\sum_{r=0}^{n} \binom{n}{r}$ 

2nd counting method: For each object, there are 2 choices: include or exclude; giving  $2^n$ 

[Note: 1 way of choosing no objects is included in the total.]

Method 4: Induction

If true for n = k, so that  $\sum_{r=0}^{k} \binom{k}{r} = 2^{k}$ , then  $\sum_{r=0}^{k+1} \binom{k+1}{r} = \binom{k+1}{0} + \{\sum_{r=1}^{k} \binom{k+1}{r}\} + \binom{k+1}{k+1}$  $= 1 + \sum_{r=1}^{k} \{\binom{k}{r-1} + \binom{k}{r}\} + 1$ 

fmng.uk

$$= 1 + \{\sum_{r=1}^{k-1} \binom{k}{r-1}\} + [\{\sum_{r=0}^{k} \binom{k}{r}\} - \binom{k}{0}] + 1$$

$$= 1 + \{\sum_{R=0}^{k-1} \binom{k}{R}\} + [2^{k} - 1] + 1$$

$$= 1 + \{\sum_{R=0}^{k} \binom{k}{R}\} - \binom{k}{k} + 2^{k}$$

$$= 1 + 2^{k} - 1 + 2^{k}$$

$$= 2^{k+1}$$