



Discrete Mathematics

CS204: Spring, 2008

Jong C. Park
Computer Science Division, KAIST



Today's Topics

Mathematical Induction

*Strong Form of Induction and
the Well-Ordering Property*



Logic and Proofs

Mathematical Induction

- Motivating Example
 - Suppose that a sequence of blocks numbered $1, 2, \dots$ sits on an (infinitely) long table and that some blocks are marked with an “X”.
 - Suppose further that
 - (a) the first block is marked; and
 - (b) for all n , if block n is marked, then block $n+1$ is also marked.
 - We claim that the statements (a) and (b) imply that every block is marked.

Mathematical Induction

- Another Example

- Let S_n denote the sum of the first n positive integers:



$$S_n = 1 + 2 + \dots + n.$$

- Suppose that someone claims that

$$S_n = n(n + 1)/2 \text{ for all } n \geq 1.$$

- To prove this claim, we show that for all n , if equation n is true, then equation $n + 1$ is also true.
 - We may use a direct proof.
- We conclude that all of the equations are true.

Mathematical Induction

- Principle of Mathematical Induction
 - Suppose that we have a propositional function $S(n)$ whose domain of discourse is the set of positive integers.
 - Suppose that
 - $S(1)$ is true;  Basis Step
 - for all $n \geq 1$, if $S(n)$ is true, then $S(n + 1)$ is true.  Inductive Step
 - Then $S(n)$ is true for every positive integer n .

Mathematical Induction

- Definition

- *n factorial* is defined as

$$n! = 1 \qquad \text{if } n = 0,$$

$$n(n - 1)(n - 2)\cdots 2 \cdot 1 \qquad \text{if } n \geq 1.$$

- That is, if $n \geq 1$, $n!$ is equal to the product of all the integers between 1 and n inclusive.
 - As a special case, $0!$ is defined to be 1.

Mathematical Induction

- Example
 - Use induction to show that $n! \geq 2^{n-1}$ for all $n \geq 1$.
 - Proof sketch.
 - Basis Step
 - We must show that the inequality holds if $n = 1$.
 - Inductive Step
 - We assume that the inequality holds for n ; that is, we assume that $n! \geq 2^{n-1}$ is true.
 - We must then prove that the inequality holds for $n + 1$; that is, we must prove that $(n + 1)! \geq 2^n$ holds.
 - Since the Basis Step and the Inductive Step have been verified, the Principle of Mathematical Induction tells us that the inequality holds for every positive integer n .

Mathematical Induction

- Example

- If we want to verify that the statements

$$S(n_0), S(n_0 + 1), \dots,$$

- where $n_0 \neq 1$, are true, we must change the Basis Step to $S(n_0)$ is true.

- The Inductive Step then becomes

- for all $n \geq n_0$, if $S(n)$ is true, then $S(n + 1)$ is true.*

Mathematical Induction

- Example
 - Geometric Sum
 - Use induction to show that if $r \neq 1$,
$$a + ar^1 + ar^2 + \dots + ar^n = a(r^{n+1} - 1)/(r - 1)$$
for all $n \geq 0$.
 - Proof.
 - exercise
 - Use induction to show that $5^n - 1$ is divisible by 4 for all $n \geq 1$.
 - Proof.
 - exercise

Strong Form of Induction and the Well-Ordering Property

- Strong Form of Mathematical Induction
 - Suppose that we have a propositional function $S(n)$ whose domain of discourse is the set of integers greater than or equal to n_0 .
 - Suppose that
 - $S(n_0)$ is true;
 - for all $n > n_0$, if $S(k)$ is true for all k , $n_0 \leq k < n$, then $S(n)$ is true.
 - Then $S(n)$ is true for every integer $n \geq n_0$.
- Show that the two forms of mathematical induction are logically equivalent.

Strong Form of Induction

- Example

- Use mathematical induction to show that postage of four cents or more can be achieved by using only 2-cent and 5-cent stamps.

- Proof.

- exercise

- Example

- Suppose that the sequence c_1, c_2, \dots is defined by the equations $c_1 = 0$, $c_n = c_{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} + n$ for all $n > 1$.

- Use strong induction to prove that $c_n < 4n$ for all $n \geq 1$.

- Proof.

- exercise

Well-Ordering Property

- The Well-Ordering Property for nonnegative integers states that every nonempty set of nonnegative integers has a least element.
 - Show that this property is equivalent to the two forms of induction.

Today's Topics

Sets



The Language of Mathematics

Sets

- A **set** is a collection of objects (elements, members).
 - Examples
 - $A = \{1, 2, 3, 4\} = \{1, 3, 4, 2\} = \{1, 2, 2, 3, 4\}$
 - $B = \{x \mid x \text{ is a positive, even integer}\}$
- **Cardinality**
 - If X is a finite set, we let $|X|$ = number of elements in X .
- **Membership**
 - If x is in the set X , we write $x \in X$, and if x is not in X , we write $x \notin X$.

Sets

- Empty Set
 - The set with no elements is called the **empty** (**null**, **void**) set and is denoted \emptyset . Thus $\emptyset = \{ \}$.
- Equality
 - Two sets X and Y are equal, notated as $X = Y$, if X and Y have the same elements. In symbols, $X = Y$ iff $\forall x((x \in X \rightarrow x \in Y) \wedge (x \in Y \rightarrow x \in X))$.
- Example
 - Prove that if $A = \{x \mid x^2 + x - 6 = 0\}$ and $B = \{2, -3\}$, then $A = B$.

Sets

- Subset

- Suppose that X and Y are sets. If every element of X is an element of Y , we say that X is a **subset** of Y , written as $X \subseteq Y$. In symbols, X is a subset of Y if $\forall x(x \in X \rightarrow x \in Y)$.

- Examples

- If $C = \{1,3\}$ and $A = \{1,2,3,4\}$, then $C \subseteq A$.
- Show that $X \subseteq Y$, where $X = \{x \mid x^2 + x - 2 = 0\}$, $Y =$ set of integers, and the domain of discourse is the set of real numbers.
- Show that if $X = \{x \mid 3x^2 - x - 2 = 0\}$ and $Y =$ set of integers, X is not a subset of Y .

Sets

- Proper Subset
 - If X is a subset of Y and X does not equal Y , we say that X is a **proper subset** of Y and write $X \subset Y$.
- Power Set
 - The set of all subsets (proper or not) of a set X , denoted $\wp(X)$, is called the **power set** of X .
 - Example
 - If $A = \{a,b,c\}$, the members of $\wp(A)$ are $\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{c\}, \{a,b\}, \{a,c\}, \{b,c\}, \{a,b,c\}$. All but $\{a,b,c\}$ are proper subsets of A .
 - For this example, $|A| = 3, |\wp(A)| = 2^3 = 8$.
 - Show that if $|X| = n$, then $|\wp(X)| = 2^n$.
 - Proof.
 - By induction on n .

Sets

- Union
 - Given two sets X and Y , the set $X \cup Y = \{x \mid x \in X \text{ or } x \in Y\}$ is called the **union** of X and Y .
- Intersection
 - The set $X \cap Y = \{x \mid x \in X \text{ and } x \in Y\}$ is called the **intersection** of X and Y .
- Difference
 - The set $X - Y = \{x \mid x \in X \text{ and } x \notin Y\}$ is called the **difference** (or **relative complement**).
- Disjoint
 - Sets X and Y are **disjoint** if $X \cap Y = \emptyset$.
 - A collection of sets S is said to be **pairwise disjoint** if whenever X and Y are distinct sets in S , X and Y are disjoint.

Sets

- Universe
 - Sometimes we are dealing with sets, all of which are subsets of a set U . This set U is called a **universal set** or a **universe**. The set U must be explicitly given or inferred from the context.
 - Given a universal set U and a subset X of U , the set $U - X$ is called the **complement** of X and is written X^C .
- Venn diagrams
 - **Venn diagrams** provide pictorial views of sets. In a Venn diagram, a **rectangle** depicts a universal set. Subsets of the universal set are drawn as **circles**. The inside of a circle represents the members of that set.

Summary

- Mathematical Induction
- Strong Form of Induction and the Well-Ordering Property
- Sets