

7/12/21

## RECURSION

### UNIT-3: ALGORITHMS, INDUCTION AND

#### MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION:-

- Mathematical induction have two part, first part they show that the statement holds for the integer.
- Second part, Assume that statement is true for large positive integers. Then they show that the statement is true for next large positive integers.
- Mathematic induction is key goal of learning Discrete Mathematics. A cod rule is given for finding subsequent values from the known values.

Prove that  $1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + \dots + (2n+1)^2 = \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{3}$   
 where  $n$  non negative integer.

Case (i) :- Basic step

for  $n=0$

$$\text{LHS } (2n+1)^2 = 1^2 = 1$$

$$\text{RHS} = \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)(3n+3)}{3}$$

$$= (1)(1)(1)/3 = 1$$

for  $n=0$

$$\text{LHS} = \text{RHS}$$

The given statement is true for  $n=0$   
 i.e  $P(0)$  is true

for  $n=1$

$$\text{LHS } 1^2 + 3^2 = 10 \quad (\because n=1 \quad (2n+1)^2 = 3^2)$$

$$\text{RHS} \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)(2n+3)}{3} = \frac{(1+1)(2(1)+1)(2(1)+3)}{3}$$

$$= 10$$

$$\text{for } n=1 \quad \text{LHS} = \text{RHS}$$

The given statement is true for  $n=1$   
i.e.,  $P(1)$  is true

case-(ii):- The statement is true for  $n=k$   
i.e., Assume  $P(k)$  is true

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

Consider,

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

$$= (2k+3) \left[ \frac{(k+1)(2k+1)}{3} + (2k+3) \right]$$

$$= (2k+3) \left[ \frac{(k+1)(2k+1) + 3(2k+3)}{3} \right]$$

$$= (2k+3) \left[ \frac{2k^2 + 3k + 1 + 6k + 9}{3} \right]$$

$$= (2k+3) \left[ \frac{2k^2 + 9k + 10}{3} \right]$$

$$= (2k+3) \left[ \frac{(k+2)(2k+5)}{3} \right]$$

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

for  $n=k+1$

L.H.S - RHS

The given statement is true for  $n=k+1$   
i.e  $P(k+1)$  is true

Hence, By mathematical Induction, the given statement is true for every non-negative integers 'n'.

(Pb) Prove that 133 is divisor for the integers

$11^{n+1} + 12^{2n-1}$  where n is any integer.

Sol: case (i): Basic step

for  $n=1$

$$\begin{aligned} 11^{n+1} + 12^{2n-1} &= 11^{1+1} + 12^{2(1)-1} \\ &= 11^2 + 12 \\ &= 121 + 12 \\ &= 133 \end{aligned}$$

133 divides  $11^{n+1} + 12^{2n-1}$  for  $n=1$   
 $P(1)$  is true

From  $n=2$

$$11^{n+1} + 12^{2n-1} = 11^{2+1} + 12^{(2 \cdot 2)-1}$$
$$= 11^3 + 12^3$$
$$= 3059$$

$$133 \mid 3059 \quad \& \quad \frac{3059}{133} = 23$$

133 is divisor of  $11^{n+1} + 12^{2n-1}$  for  $n=2$

$P(2)$  is true

case (ii): Inductive step

Assume that  $P(k)$  is true

i.e. B3 is divisor of  $11^{k+1} + 12^{2k-1}$

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} & 11^{(k+1)+1} + 12^{2(k+1)-1} \\ \Rightarrow & 11^{(k+2)} + 12^{2k+2-1} \\ \Rightarrow & 11^{k+1} \cdot 11 + 12^{2k+1} - 12^2 \\ \Rightarrow & 11^{k+1} \cdot 11 + 12^{2k-1} \quad (144) \\ \Rightarrow & 11^{k+1} \cdot 11 + 12^{2k-1} \quad (133+11) \\ \Rightarrow & 11^{k+1} \cdot 11 + (11 \cdot (12^{2k-1})) + (133 \cdot (12^{2k-1})) \\ \Rightarrow & 11(11^{k+1} + 12^{2k-1}) + 133 \cdot (12^{2k-1}) \end{aligned}$$

is divisible by 133 [ $\because P(k)$  is true]

$P(k+1)$  is true

Hence the given statement is true for every positive integer "n".

d/n/21

(b) Prove that  $1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2} < 2 - \frac{1}{n}$

where  $n$  is a positive integer and  $n \geq 2$ .

Sol: Given that,  $n$  is a positive integer

case i.:  $\Rightarrow$  for  $n=2$

$\Rightarrow$  L.H.S

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{5}{4} = 1.25$$

$\Rightarrow$  R.H.S

$$\Rightarrow 2 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{4-1}{2} = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5$$

L.H.S < R.H.S

for  $n=2$  the given statement is true

i.e.,  $P(2)$  is true

for  $n=3$

$$\text{L.H.S: } \frac{1}{1^2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} = \frac{49}{36} = 1.3611$$

$$\text{R.H.S: } 2 - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{6-1}{3} = \frac{5}{3} = 1.666$$

L.H.S < R.H.S

for  $n=3$  the given statement is true  
i.e  $P(3)$  is true

Case (ii): Assume that  $P(k)$  is true

$$\Rightarrow 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{k^2} < 2 - \frac{1}{k} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

Consider LHS  $P(k+1)$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{k^2} + \frac{1}{(k+1)^2} - \textcircled{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow < 2 - \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{(k+1)^2} \quad (\because \text{from } \textcircled{1})$$

$$= < 2 - \left[ \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{(k+1)^2} \right]$$

$$< 2 - \left[ \frac{(k+1)^2 - k}{k(k+1)^2} \right]$$

$$< 2 - \left[ \frac{(k^2 + 2k + 1) - k}{k(k+1)^2} \right]$$

$$< 2 - \left[ \frac{(k^2 + k + 1)}{k(k+1)^2} \right]$$

$$< 2 - \left[ \frac{k^2}{k(k+1)^2} + \frac{(k+1)}{k(k+1)^2} \right]$$

$$L.H.S = \left[ \frac{k}{(k+1)^2} + \frac{1}{k(k+1)} \right]$$

$$R.H.S = \left[ \frac{k}{(k+1)^2} - \frac{1}{(k+1)^2} + \frac{1}{k(k+1)} \right]$$

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

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

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

$$= R.H.S$$

$P(k+1)$  is true

Hence given statement is true for  $n \geq 2$ .

(b) Prove that  $1+2+3+\dots+n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  where  $n$  is a

positive integer.

Given that

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

$\Rightarrow$  case (i) :-

for  $n=1$

$$\begin{aligned} L.H.S. \\ t=1 \end{aligned}$$

R.H.S

$$\frac{1(1+1)}{2} = 1$$

L.H.S = R.H.S for  $n=1$  the given statement  
is true i.e  $P(1)$  is true

for  $n=2$

for  
L.H.S  
 $1+2 = 3$

R.H.S

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

$$L.H.S = R.H.S$$

for  $n=2$  the given statement is true  
i.e  $P(2)$  is true

Case (ii):- P(k) Assume that  $P(k)$  is true

$$1+2+3+\dots+k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

consider  $P(k+1)$  is

$$\Rightarrow 1+2+3+\dots+k+(k+1)$$

$$\frac{k(k+1)+k+1}{2} \quad [\because \text{from (1)}]$$

$$\frac{k(k+1)+2(k+1)}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{k^2 + k + 2k + 2}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{k^2 + 3k + 2}{2}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{k(k+1) + 1(k+2)}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$$

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

$\Rightarrow$  R.H.S for  $n = k+1$

$\therefore P(k+1)$  is true

By mathematical induction

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

for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

- (Pb) Prove that  $1+2+2^2+2^3+\dots+2^n = 2^{n+1}-1$  for all non-negative integers  $n$ .

Sol. Given that

$$1+2+2^2+2^3+\dots+2^n = 2^{n+1}-1$$

for  $n=0$

$$\text{L.H.S} \\ 2^0 = 1$$

R.H.S

$$2^{0+1} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 2^1 - 1 \\ 2 - 1 = 1$$

$$\text{L.H.S} = \text{R.H.S}$$

for  $n=0$  the given statement is true  
i.e  $p(0)$  is true

for  $n=1$

$$\Rightarrow \text{L.H.S} \\ \Rightarrow 2^0 + 2^1 \\ = 1 + 2 = 3$$

$$\text{R.H.S} \\ \Rightarrow 2^{1+1} - 1 = 2^2 - 1 = 4 - 1 = 3$$

$$\text{L.H.S} = \text{R.H.S}$$

for  $n=1$  the given statement is true  
i.e  $p(1)$  is true

$\Rightarrow$  case(ii): -

Assume that  $p(k)$  is true

$$\Rightarrow 1 + 2 + 2^2 + 2^3 + \dots + 2^k = 2^{k+1} - 1 \quad \textcircled{1}$$

$\Rightarrow$  consider

$$\text{L.H.S} < p(k+1)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\Rightarrow 1+2+2^2+2^3+\cdots+2^k+2^{(k+1)} \\
 &\Rightarrow 2^{k+1}-1+2^{k+1} \quad [\because \text{from } ①] \\
 &\Rightarrow 2 \cdot 2^{(k+1)-1} \\
 &\Rightarrow 2^{k+1+1}-1 \\
 &\Rightarrow 2^{k+2}-1 \\
 &\Rightarrow \text{R.H.S} \\
 \therefore P(k+1) \text{ is true}
 \end{aligned}$$

By mathematical induction

$$1+2+2^2+2^3+\cdots+2^n=2^{n+1}-1$$

for all non-negative integers

## \* Sum of Geometric progression

(Pb) the sum of finite number of terms of geometric progression  $\sum_{j=0}^n ar^j = a + ar + ar^2 + ar^3 + \dots + ar^n = \frac{a(r^{n+1}-1)}{r-1}$  where  $n$  is non-negative integer and also  $r \neq 1$ .

Sol: when  $n$  is non-negative integer.

$r \neq 1$

given that

case (i):

for  $n=0$

$$L.H.S = 0$$

$$R.H.S = \frac{a(r^{0+1}-1)}{(r-1)} = \frac{a(r-1)}{(r-1)} = a$$

$$L.H.S = R.H.S$$

Statement is true for  $n=0$

$\therefore$  i.e  $P(0)$  is true

for  $n=1$

$$\begin{aligned} L.H.S &= a + ar \\ &= a(1+r) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} R.H.S &= \frac{a(\gamma^{k+1}-1)}{\gamma-1} \\ &= a \frac{(\gamma^2-1^2)}{\gamma-1} = a \frac{(\gamma-1)(\gamma+1)}{\gamma-1} = a(\gamma+1) \end{aligned}$$

L.H.S = R.H.S  
 Statement is true for  $n=1$   
 i.e.,  $P(1)$  is true

case (ii):

introduce Assume that  $P(k)$  is true

$$\sum_{j=0}^k a\gamma^j = \frac{a(\gamma^{k+1}-1)}{\gamma-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow a + a\gamma + a\gamma^2 + a\gamma^3 + \dots + a\gamma^k = \frac{a(\gamma^{k+1}-1)}{\gamma-1} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

consider

L.H.S for  $n=k+1$

$$a + a\gamma + a\gamma^2 + \dots + a\gamma^k + a\gamma^{k+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{a(\gamma^{k+1}-1)}{\gamma-1} + a\gamma^{k+1} \quad (\because \text{from } \textcircled{1})$$

$$\Rightarrow a \left[ \frac{\gamma^{k+1}-1 + \gamma^{k+1}(\gamma-1)}{\gamma-1} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow a \left[ \frac{\cancel{\gamma^{k+1}}} {\gamma-1} + \gamma^{k+2} - 1 - \cancel{\gamma^{k+1}} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow a \frac{(\gamma^{(k+1)+1}-1)}{\gamma-1} = \text{RHS}$$

$\Rightarrow P(k+1)$  is true

By mathematical induction

$$\sum_{j=0}^n a\gamma^j = (a + a\gamma + a\gamma^2 + \dots + a\gamma^n) = a \frac{(\gamma^{n+1}-1)}{\gamma-1}$$

for non-negative integers  $n, \gamma \neq 1$ .

(Pb) Prove that 21 divides  $4^{n+1} + 5^{2n-1}$  where  $n$  is

positive integer.

Sol: Given that

$n$  is positive integer

for  $n=1$

$$4^1 + 1 + 5^{2-1}$$

$$4^2 + 5^1$$

$16 + 5 = 21$  21 divides  $4^{n+1} + 5^{2n-1}$  for  $n=1$

$P(1)$  is true

for  $n=2$

$$\Rightarrow 4^{2+1} + 5^{2(2)-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4^3 + 5^3$$

$$\Rightarrow 64 + 125 = 189$$

$$21/189 \not\mid 4 = \frac{189}{21} = 9$$

~~21 divides  $4^n + 5^{2n-1}$~~   
 21 is divisor of  $4^{n+1} + 5^{2n-1}$  for  $n=2$   
 $P(2)$  is true

case (ii):

Assume that  $P(k)$  is true

$$\therefore 4^{k+1} + 5^{2k-1}$$

Consider

$$P(k+1)$$

$$\Rightarrow 4^{(k+1)+1} + 5^{2(k+1)-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4^{k+2} + 5^{2k+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4^{k+1} \cdot 4 + 5^{2k-1} \cdot 5^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 4^{k+1} \cdot 4 + 5^{2k+1} (21+4)$$

$$\Rightarrow 4^{k+1} \cdot 4 + 4 \cdot 5^{2k-1} + 21 \cdot 5^{2k-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow 4(4^{k-1} + 5^{2k-1}) + 21 \cdot 5^{2k-1}$$

$\Rightarrow$  is divisible by 21

$\therefore P(k+1)$  is true

the statement is true for  $n=k+1$

By induction 21 divides  $4^{n+1} + 5^{2n-1}$  for  
 $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

\*\*  
① Prove that if  $h > -1$ , then  $1+nh \leq (1+h)^n$  for  
all non-negative integers  $n$   
(or)

Prove that the Bernoulli's inequality by use  
the mathematical induction

Sol: Given that  
for  $n=0$   
 $L.H.S$   
 $\Rightarrow 1+0 \leq 1$   
 $\Rightarrow R.H.S$   
 $(1+0)^0 = 1$

$$L.H.S = R.H.S$$

$\Rightarrow$  for  $n=0$  the given statement is true  
 $\Rightarrow P(0)$  is true

For  $n=1$   
 $L.H.S$   
 $\Rightarrow 1+h$   
 $\Rightarrow R.H.S$   
 $= (1+h)^1$   
 $= (1+h)$

$$= L.H.S \leq R.H.S$$

for  $n=1$  the given statement is true  
 $p(1)$  is true

Inductive part:-

Assume  $p(k)$  is true

$$\Leftrightarrow 1+kh \leq (1+h)^k$$
$$(1+h)^k \geq (1+kh)$$

Consider

R.H.S for  $n=k+1$

$$\Rightarrow (1+h)^k \cdot (1+h)$$
$$\Rightarrow (kh+1)(1+h)$$
$$\Rightarrow \geq 1+kh+h+kh^2$$
$$\geq 1+(k+1)h+kh^2$$
$$\geq 1+(k+1)h$$

L.H.S  $p(k+1)$  is true

By the mathematical induction

i.e.  $p(k+1)$  is true

$\therefore$  For a non-negative  $n$

$1+nh \leq (1+h)^n$  is true

$$*\textcircled{1} \quad 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$*\textcircled{2} \quad 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 + \dots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Sol: Given that

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$\Rightarrow$  for  $n=0$

$$\text{L.H.S} = n^2 = 0$$

$$\text{R.H.S} = \frac{0(0+1)(6+1)}{6} = 0/6 = 0$$

$$\text{L.H.S} = \text{R.H.S}$$

for ( $n=0$ ) the given statement is true.  
 $P(0)$  is true.

$\Rightarrow$  for  $n=1$

$$\text{L.H.S}$$

$$n = 0^2 + 1^2 = 1 + 0 = 1$$

$$\text{R.H.S}$$

$$\frac{1(1+1)(2+1)}{6} = \frac{1(2)(3)}{8}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{L.H.S} = \text{R.H.S}$$

For ( $n=1$ ) the given statement is true

$P(1)$  is true

Case iii:-

$$\Rightarrow \text{Assume that } P(k) \text{ is true}$$
$$\Rightarrow 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (k)^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6}$$

Consider that L.H.S  $P(k+1)$  is

$$\Rightarrow 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (k)^2 + (k+1)^2$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} + (k+1)^2$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1) + 6(k+1)^2}{6}$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{(k^2+k)(2k+1) + 6(k+1)^2}{6}$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{2k^3 + k^2 + 2k^2 + k + 6(k^2 + 2k + 1)}{6}$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{2k^3 + 3k^2 + 1k + 6k^2 + 12k + 6}{6}$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{2k^3 + 9k^2 + 13k + 6}{6}$$
$$\Rightarrow (k+1) \frac{(2k^2 + 7k + 6)}{6}$$
$$\Rightarrow (k+1) \frac{(k+2)(2k+3)}{6}$$
$$\Rightarrow (k+1) \frac{(k+1+1)(2(k+1)+1)}{6}$$

R.H.S  $\Rightarrow P(k+1)$  is true

for By the mathematical induction

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \text{ is true}$$

for all  $\mathbb{Z}$ .

Sol:  $1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 + \dots + n^3 = n^2(n+1)^2$

Given that

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

$\Rightarrow$  for  $n=0$

$$L.H.S = 0$$

$$R.H.S = \frac{0(0+1)^2}{4} = 0$$

$$L.H.S = R.H.S$$

for  $n=0$  the given statement is true

$p(0)$  is true

$$\Rightarrow 1+8 \left| \frac{4(3)^2}{4} = 9 \right.$$

for  $n=1$

$$\Rightarrow L.H.S \\ = n^2 = 1$$

$\Rightarrow R.H.S$

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

for  $n=1$  the given statement is true  
 $p(1)$  is true

Case (i):

Assume that  $p(k)$  is true

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

Consider that

LHS is  $p(k+1)$

$$\Rightarrow 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 + \dots + k^3 + (k+1)^3$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

= R.H.S

$p(k+1)$  is true

By the mathematical induction

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 + \dots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$
 is true

for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

17/12/21 Demorgan Law for union and intersection

$$(\overline{A \cup B}) = \bar{A} \cap \bar{B}$$

$$(\overline{\bar{A} \cap \bar{B}}) = A \cup B$$

(Pb) To proof that the generalization of the

Demorgn law  $\overline{\bigcap_{j=1}^n A_j} = \bigcup_{j=1}^n \overline{A_j}$  where  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  is a subset of universal set  $[U]$ ,

$n \geq 2$   $n \geq 2$  &  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Sol: Basic step:- for  $n=2$

$$L.H.S = \overline{\bigcap_{j=1}^2 A_j} = \overline{(A_1 \cap A_2)} = \overline{A_1} \cup \overline{A_2}$$

C: By Demorgan law

$$R.H.S = \bigcup_{j=1}^2 \overline{A_j} = \overline{A_1} \cup \overline{A_2}$$

$$L.H.S = R.H.S$$

$P(2)$  is true

$$\text{for } n=3 \\ \text{L.H.S.} = \overline{\bigcup_{j=1}^3 A_j} = [(\overline{A_1 \cap A_2}) \cap A_3] = (\overline{A_1 \cap A_2}) \cup \overline{A_3} \\ = (\overline{A_1} \cup \overline{A_2}) \cup \overline{A_3} = (\overline{A_1} \cup \overline{A_2} \cup \overline{A_3})$$

$$\text{R.H.S.} = \bigcup_{j=1}^3 \overline{A_j} = \overline{A_1} \cup \overline{A_2} \cup \overline{A_3}$$

$$\text{L.H.S.} = \text{R.H.S.}$$

$P(3)$  is true

Inductive step:-

Assume  $P(k)$  is true

$$\text{i.e., } \overline{\bigcup_{j=1}^k A_j} = \bigcup_{j=1}^k \overline{A_j} \rightarrow ①$$

Consider L.H.S for  $n=k+1$

$$\begin{aligned} \overline{\bigcup_{j=1}^{k+1} A_j} &= (\overline{\bigcup_{j=1}^k A_j}) \cap A_{k+1} \\ &= \overline{\bigcup_{j=1}^k A_j} \cup \overline{A_{k+1}} \quad (\because \text{By DeMorgan Law}) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \bigcup_{j=1}^k \overline{A_j} \cup \overline{A_{k+1}} \quad (\because \text{from } ①)$$

$$= \bigcup_{j=1}^{k+1} \overline{A_j}$$

$$= \text{R.H.S. for } n=k+1$$

LHS = RHS for  $n=k+1$

$P(k+1)$  is true

By Induction Demorgan law proved

$$\overline{\bigcap_{j=1}^n A_j} = \bigcup_{j=1}^n \overline{A_j} \text{ for } n \geq 2, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

H.W

- Pb) To proof the generalization of the Demorgan law  $\overline{\bigcup_{j=1}^n A_j} = \bigcap_{j=1}^n \overline{A_j}$  where  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$  is a subset of universal set  $[U], n \geq 2$ .

Q:

(Pb) Prove that, If  $A_1, A_2, A_3, \dots, A_n$  and  $B$  are subsets of  $\mu$  [universal set]. Then

$$(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \cap B = (A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B) \cup (A_3 \cap B) \cup \dots \cup (A_n \cap B)$$

Sol: for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Basic part:-

for  $n=1$

$$L.H.S (A_1) \cap B = A_1 \cap B$$

$$R.H.S (A_1 \cap B)$$

$$L.H.S = R.H.S$$

$P(1)$  is true

for  $n=2$

$$L.H.S (A_1 \cup A_2) \cap B = (A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B)$$

$$(A \cup B) \cap C = (A \cap B) \cup (B \cap C)$$

$$(A \cap B) \cup C = (A \cup C) \cap (B \cup C)$$

$$R.H.S = (A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B)$$

$$L.H.S = R.H.S$$

$P(2)$  is true

Inductive part:-

Assume  $P(k)$  is true

$$\text{i.e., } (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k) \cap B = (A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B) \cup \dots \cup (A_k \cap B) \quad \text{L.H.S.} \quad \text{from ①}$$

Consider L.H.S for  $n=k+1$

$$[(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k) \cup A_{k+1}] \cap B$$

$$= [(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_k) \cap B] \cup [A_{k+1} \cap B]$$

$$= (A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B) \cup \dots \cup (A_k \cap B) \cup [A_{k+1} \cap B]$$

( $\because$  from ①)

= R.H.S for  $n=k+1$

$P(k+1)$  is True

By Induction

$(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \cap B = (A_1 \cap B) \cup (A_2 \cap B) \cup \dots \cup (A_n \cap B)$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$   
is true

7/12/21

## STRONG INDUCTION AND WELL ORDERING

80

### INDUCTION:

(Pb) Prove that every amount of postage 6c or more can be founded by using 3c and 4c stamps

[Hint: Let  $p(n)$  = postage can be made using 3c and 4c stamps]

Sol:

NOTE:-

\* strong induction:

To prove that  $p(n)$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$   
 $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Basic part: verify that  $p(1)$  and  $p(2)$  are true

Inductive step: Prove that if  $[p(1) \wedge p(2) \wedge \dots \wedge p(k)]$  is true then  $p(k+1)$  is true

(o8)

$[p(1) \wedge p(2) \wedge \dots \wedge p(k)] \rightarrow p(k+1)$  is true for  
all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

ING

Sol: Let  $P(n)$  = postage can be made by using  $3c$  and  $4c$  stamps

Basic part:  $P(6)$  is true because  $6c = 3c + 3c$

Similarly  $7c = 3c + 4c \Rightarrow P(7)$  is true

Similarly  $8c = 4c + 4c \Rightarrow P(8)$  is true

Inductive step: Assume that  $P(j)$  is true  
for all  $j$  ranges  $6 \leq j \leq k$

$\rightarrow$  To prove  $P(k+1)$  is true by adding the stamps

$3c$  or  $4c$

$\rightarrow$  we need to consider  $P(k-2)$  is true i.e

$(k-2)c$  can be made by using the postal  
stamps  $3c$  and  $4c$ .

and also

$$(k-2)c + 3c = (k+1)c$$

$\therefore (k+1)c$  can be made by the  
sum of postage stamps of  $3c$  and  $4c$

i.e  $P(k+1)$  is true,

$\rightarrow$  By strong induction the given statement  
is true for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $n \geq 6$ .

(Pb) Suppose every amount of postage 18c can be found using 4c and 7c stamps.

Sol: let  $P(n)$  = postage can be made by using 4c and 7c stamps.

Basic part:  $P(18)$  is true because

$$18c = 7c + 7c + 4c$$

$$19c = 7c + 4c + 4c + 4c \Rightarrow P(19) \text{ is true}$$

$$20c = 4c + 4c + 4c + 4c + 4c \Rightarrow P(20) \text{ is true}$$

$$21c = 7c + 7c + 7c \Rightarrow P(21) \text{ is true}$$

Inductive part: Assume that  $P(j)$  is true for values of  $j$  ranges from  $18 \leq j \leq k$ . To prove  $P(k+1)$  is true by adding stamps 4c and 7c we need to consider  $P(k-3)$  is true

i.e

$(k-3)c$  can be made using postal stamp

- 4c and 7c

and also

$$(k-3)c + 4c = (k+1)c$$

$(k+1)c$  can be made by using the

summation of postage stamps 4 and 7c  
i.e  $P(k+1)$  is true

By strong induction the given statement  
is true for  $n \in \mathbb{N}^+, n \geq 18$ .

Example: we can reach the first rung of the ladder  
for every integer  $k$ . if we can reach the  
first  $k$  rung then we can reach the  $(k+1)^{\text{th}}$   
rung we can show this example by using  
strong induction principle that for the integers  $n$   
then  $P(n)$  holds the strong induction  
Principle can also called as Second  
Mathematical induction.

(Pb)

Suppose every amount of postage  $12c$  or more can be formed using 4-cent and 5-cent stamps.

Sol: Let  $P(n)$  = postage can be made using 4c and 5c stamps

20/12/2  
(Pb)

Basic step:-  $P(12)$  is true

because

$$12c = 4c + 4c + 4c$$

$$13c = 4c + 4c + 5c \Rightarrow P(13) \text{ is true}$$

$$14c = 4c + 5c + 5c \Rightarrow P(14) \text{ is true}$$

$$15c = 5c + 5c + 5c \Rightarrow P(15) \text{ is true}$$

Inductive step:- Assume that  $P(j)$  is true for

values of  $j$  ranges from  $12 \leq j \leq k$ . To prove  $P(k+1)$ ,  
is true by adding stamps  $\rightarrow$  4c and 5c we  
need to consider  $P(k-3)$  is true

Pro

i.e.,  
 $(k-3)c$  can be made using postal stamps  
4c and 5c

and also,

$$(k-3)c + 4c = (k+1)c$$

$(k+1)c$  can be made by summation

of postage stamps 4c and 5c  
i.e  $P(k+1)$  is true

By strong induction-induction, the given statement is true for  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ .

(b) Prove that the Fundamental Theorem of arithmetic by using mathematical induction.

(ox)

Proof: Show that the  $n$  is if then  $n$  is greater than 1 then  $n$  is product of prime numbers.

Proof: (Basic)  $n$  is an integer and  $n > 1$ .

Basic part:

for  $n = 2$

$2 = 1 \times 2$  (product of prime numbers)  
 $\therefore P(2)$  is true

for  $n = 3$

$3 = 1 \times 3$  (product of prime numbers)  
 $\therefore P(3)$  is true

for  $n = 4$

$4 = 2 \times 2$  (product of prime numbers)  
 $\therefore P(4)$  is true

Inductive part: Assume that  $P(j)$  is true

for  $j$  ranges  $2 \leq j \leq k$

Consider a number  $n = k+1$

case-1:

→ If  $(k+1)$  is a prime number than  $(k+1)$  can be expressed as  $1 \times (k+1)$  is product of primes

case-2:

If  $(k+1)$  is a composite number,

then  $(k+1)$  can be expressed product of its factors then  $(\exists a, b, 2 \leq a < b < k \ni (k+1) = a \times b)$

$$(k+1) = a \times b$$

$$\exists a, b, 2 \leq a < b < k \ni (k+1) = a \times b$$

a, b are in between (but or worse assumption)  
our assumption range that is a, b are satisfying fundamental theorem of arithmetic so a can be as product of prime numbers & so can b

then product of a and b is also product of prime numbers

Therefore  $P(k+1)$  is true

thus, Mathematical Induction  $n \geq 1$  then is product of prime numbers. So the fundamental theorem of arithmetic is True.

(b) use the Well ordering property to prove the division algorithm,

"which states that if  $a$  is an integer and  $d$  is a positive integer, then the unique integers  $q$  and  $r$  with  $0 \leq r < d$  such that  $a = dq + r$ "

Note:- "well ordering property":-

Every non-empty of non-negative integer has a least element

Let  $S$  be the set of non-negative integers of the form  $a-dg$ , where  $g$  is an integer.

This set is non-empty because  $-dg$  can be made as large as desired.

By the well ordered property, every non-empty, non-negative integer set has a least element i.e.,  $S$  has a least element.

Let  $\gamma = a - dg_0$  be the least element of sets.

There  $\gamma$  is non-negative integer.

In this case  $\gamma < d$  is true.

If not  $\gamma \geq d$ .

then there would be an smaller non-negative element in  $S$ . The element namely

$$a - d(g_0 + 1) [= a - dg_0 - d]$$

which contradicts our assumption  $a - dg_0$  is a least element.

$$\therefore (a - dg_0 - d < a - dg_0)$$

$\therefore \alpha < d$

hence  $0 \leq \gamma < d$

uniqueness of  $\alpha$  &  $\gamma$ :

Assume that

$$\alpha = d\alpha_1 + \gamma \text{ and } \alpha = d\alpha_2 + \gamma$$

$$\Rightarrow d\alpha_1 + \gamma = d\alpha_2 + \gamma$$

$$d\alpha_1 - d\alpha_2 = \gamma - \gamma$$

$$d(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2) = 0$$

$$\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 = 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_1 = \alpha_2$$

$\therefore \alpha$  is unique

- (b) Suppose we can reach the first and second rungs of an infinite ladder, and we know that if we can reach a rung, then we can reach two rungs higher. Can we prove that we can reach every rung using the principle of mathematical induction? Can we prove that we can reach every rung using the principle of strong induction.

Sol: the proof by mathematical induction

i. Basic part: - the basic step of this proof holds, it is simply verifies that we can reach the first rung.

ii. Inductive part step: - the inductive hypothesis is the statement that we can reach  $k$ th step (rung) of the ladder. we need to show that if we assume the inductive hypothesis for a positive integer  $k$ , then we can reach the  $(k+1)$ th rung of the ladder.

However there is noway to complete this inductive step because we dont know from the given information that we can reach the  $(k+1)$ th rung from the  $k$ th rung.

After all only we know that if we can reach a rung we can reach the rung of two higher.

## Proof by strong induction

- i) Basic step:- The basic step of this proof holds, it simply verifies that we can reach the first sung
- ii) Inductive step:- Assume that  $[P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3) \wedge \dots \wedge P(k)]$  is true. i.e., we reached  $k$  sungs in the ladder step by step upto  $k$ th sung. Then by the inductive hypothesis we can reach  $(k+1)^{th}$  sung of the ladder because already we know that we can reach the second sung if we complete the inductive hypothesis step by step. We can reach  $(k+1)^{th}$  sung from the  $(k-1)^{th}$  sung. By strong induction if we reach the first two sungs of the infinite ladder and for every integer we can reach the  $(k+1)^{th}$  sung.  
∴ we can reach all the sungs of the ladder.

27/12/21

(Pb)

## Recursive Induction:

- \* A sequence recursively by specifying how terms of the sequence are found from previous terms, we can use induction to prove result about the sequence.

- \* To prove results about recursively defines, we use a method called structure induction. In this Induction every step depends upon the previous step.

Basic step: - Specify the value of the function at zero (at initial stages).

Inductive step: Give a rule for finding its value at an integer from its values at smaller integers. It is called recursive (or) Inductive step.

Sol:

Suppose that  $f$  is defined recursively by  
 $f(0) = 3$ ,  $f(n+1) = 2f(n) + 3$ . Then find  $f(1)$ ,  $f(2)$ ,  $f(3)$  and  $f(4)$ .

Given that  $f(0) = 3$

Given recursive Relation  $f(n+1) = 2f(n) + 3$

$$f(1) = f(0+1) = 2 \cancel{f}(0) + 3 \\ = 2(3) + 3$$

$$f(1) = 9$$

$$f(2) = f(1+1) = 2f(1) + 3 \\ = 2(9) + 3 \\ = 18 + 3$$

$$f(2) = 21$$

$$f(3) = f(2+1) = 2f(2) + 3 \\ = 2(21) + 3 \\ = 42 + 3$$

$$f(3) = 45$$

$$f(4) = f(3+1) = 2f(3) + 3 \\ = 2(45) + 3 \\ = 90 + 3$$

$$f(4) = 93$$

(Pb) Give an inductive definition after of the factorial function  $f(n) = n$  factorial ( $!n$ )

Sol: Basic step:-

$$\text{for } n=0$$

$$F(0) = 0!$$

$$F(0) = 1$$

$$\text{for } n=1$$

$$F(1) = 1! = 1 \times 0!$$

$$= 1 \times F(0)$$

$$\text{for } n=2$$

$$F(2) = 2! = 2 \times 1!$$

$$= 2 \times F(1)$$

Inductive step:- Assume that  $F(k+1) = (k+1)$

$$F(k)$$

$$\text{or}$$

$$F(k) = k F(k-1)$$

By using above Basic values

Suppose

$$F(5) = 5 \cdot F(5-1)$$

$$= 5 \cdot F(4)$$

$$= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot F(4-1)$$

$$= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot F(3)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 F(3-1) \\
 &= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 F(2) \\
 &= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 F(2-1) \\
 &= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 F(1) \\
 &= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 F(0) \\
 &= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 (\because F(0)=1) \\
 F(5) &= 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \\
 F(5) &= 5!
 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore F(k) = kF(k-1)$

Hence  $F(n) = n F(n-1)$   
is the definition

(Recursive relation) of factorial notation.

NOTE:- The fibonacci numbers ~~are~~  $f_0, f_1, f_2$  and so on are defined by the equation

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n=2, 3, 4, \dots$$

where  $f_0 = 0$  and  $f_1 = 1$ .

(Pb) Find fibonacci numbers  $f_2, f_3, f_4, f_5$  and  $f_6$ :

Sol. By the definition of fibonacci series we have  $f_0 = 0$ ,  $f_1 = 1$  and also

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \text{ for } n=2, 3, 4, \dots$$

Now  $f_2 = f_{2-1} + f_{2-2}$

$$\Rightarrow f_2 = f_1 + f_0 = 1 + 0 = 1$$

Now

$$f_3 = f_{3-1} + f_{3-2}$$

$$= f_2 + f_1$$

$$f_3 = 1 + 1 = 2$$

$$f_4 = f_{4-1} + f_{4-2}$$

$$= f_3 + f_2$$

$$= 2 + 1 = 3$$

$$f_5 = f_{5-1} + f_{5-2}$$

$$= f_4 + f_3$$

$$= 3 + 2 = 5$$

$$f_6 = f_{6-1} + f_{6-2}$$

$$= f_5 + f_4$$

$$= 5 + 3 = 8$$

## Recursive Algorithms

An algorithm that proceeds by reducing a problem to the same problem with smaller input.

(Pb) Give a recursive algorithm for computing  $n!$  where  $n$  is a non-negative integer

~~fol:~~ Basic step:- Given that  $n$  is non-negative integers and define  $0! = 1$ .

~~Basic step:- If  $n=0$  (It is already defined)~~  
 $0! = 1$

If  $n=1$

$$\Rightarrow n! = 1!$$

If  $n$  is a positive integer.  $n!$  is defined as  
 $n(n-1)!$

$$1! = 1 \cdot 0!$$

$$1! = 1 \times 1 = 1$$

Inductive step: - the recursive algorithm for a positive integer  $n$  to compute  $n!$  is defined in above step.

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1)!$$

If  $n!$  is non-negative integer, for  $n=0$  then  $n!$  (i.e  $0!$ ) is undefined according to given the recursive algorithm.

Therefore, for all tve integers  $n$   
 $n! = n \cdot (n-1)!$  and  $0! = 1$  is the required recursive algorithm for the given data.

Recursive algorithm for computing  
 $n!$ :

Procedure Factorial ( $n$ : non negative  
integer)

If  $n=0$  then  $\text{Factorial}(n) := 1$

else  $\text{Factorial}(n) := n \cdot \text{Factorial}(n-1)$

Pb) Given recursive algorithm for computing G.C.D of two non-negative integers  $a$  and  $b$  with  $a \geq b$

Sol: Basic step:- This G.C.D of  $(0, b)$  =  $b$

Recursive step or Inductive step:-

Define the  $\text{g.c.d}(a,b) = \text{g.c.d}(b \bmod a, a)$   
for all non-negative integers  $a, b$  and  $a < b$   
Positive

and  $\text{g.c.d}(0,b) = b$

for  $a=5, b=8$ , since  $5 < 8$

$$\text{g.c.d}(5,8) = \text{g.c.d}(8 \bmod 5, 5)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(3,5)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(5 \bmod 3, 3)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(2,3)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(3 \bmod 2, 2)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(1,2)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(2 \bmod 1, 1)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(1,1)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(1 \bmod 1, 1)$$

$$= \text{g.c.d}(0,1)$$

$$\text{g.c.d}(5,8) = 1$$

Recursive algorithm for computing  $\text{g.c.d}(a,b)$ :

Procedure  $\text{gcd}(a,b)$ : non negative integers  
with  $a < b$ )

If  $a=0$  then  $\text{gcd}(a,b) := b$

else  $\text{gcd}(a,b) := \text{gcd}(b \bmod a, a)$

(Pb) Given recursive algorithm for computing  $a^n$  where  $a$  is non-zero real number and  $n$  is a non-negative integer.

Sol: Given that  $a$  is non-zero real number,  $n$  is non-negative integers and previously defined  $a^0 = 1$

Basic step:- If  $n=0$

$$a^0 = 1$$

If  $n=1$

$$\Rightarrow a^1 = a \cdot a^0 \\ = a \cdot 1$$

If  $n=2$

$$\Rightarrow a^2 = a^1 \cdot a^1 \\ = a \cdot a$$

Recursive step (or) Recursive Algorithm (or)

Inductive Step:- Recursive Algorithm

to compute  $a^n$  is defined as follows

$$a^n = a \cdot a^{n-1}$$

(or)

$$a^{n+1} = a \cdot a^n \quad (\text{By using the basic step})$$

The above recursive algorithm only for  $n > 0$ . For  $n=0$   $a^0 = 1$  already defined

Recursive algorithm for computing  $a^n$ :-

Procedure power (a: nonzero real number, n: nonnegative integer)

If  $n=0$  then power ( $a, n$ ) := 1

else power ( $a, n$ ) :=  $a \cdot \text{power}(a, n-1)$

\* Recursive algorithm for Fibonacci numbers:-

Procedure fibonacci (n: nonnegative integer)

If  $n=0$  then fibonacci ( $n$ ) := 0

else if  $n=1$  then fibonacci ( $n$ ) := 1

else fibonacci ( $n$ ) := fibonacci ( $n-1$ ) +

fibonacci ( $n-2$ ).