## Discrete Mathematics - CSCE 531 Fall 2018 In-Class Work, Day 8 (29 October 2018)

## From Section 5.3

1. (Inspired by Problem 11) Give a recursive definition of  $P_m(n)$ , the product of  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$$P_0(0) = 0$$
  
 $P_m(n) = P_m(n-1) + m$ 

Or, if we want the definition to apply to all m,

$$P_0(0) = 0$$

$$P_m(n) = P_m(n-1) + m$$

$$P_m(n) = P_{m-1}(n) + n$$

$$P_3(2) = P_3(1) + 3$$

$$= P_3(0) + 3 + 3$$

$$= P_2(0) + 0 + 3 + 3$$

$$= P_1(0) + 0 + 0 + 3 + 3$$

$$= P_0(0) + 0 + 0 + 0 + 3 + 3$$

$$= 0 + 0 + 0 + 0 + 3 + 3$$

$$= 6$$

2. (Inspired by Problem 13) Prove that  $f_1 + f_3 + \dots + f_{2n-1} = f_{2n}$  whenever  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ . In this problem,  $f_n$  is the nth Fibonacci number, where  $f_0 = 0$ ,  $f_1 = 1$  and  $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ . Hint: use proof by induction and the definition of the Fibonacci sequence.

Proof: Let P(n) be the proposition  $f_1 + f_3 + \cdots + f_{2n-1} = f_{2n}$ .

Base case: P(1) is true because  $f_1 = 1 = 0 + 1 = f_0 + f_1 = f_2$ .

<u>Inductive hypothesis:</u> For some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , P(k) holds, i.e. it is the case that  $f_1 + f_3 + \cdots + f_{2k-1} = f_{2k}$ .

Inductive step: We must show that  $P(k) \to P(k+1)$  holds, i.e. that  $f_1 + f_3 + \dots + f_{2k+1} = f_{2(k+1)}$  whenever  $f_1 + f_3 + \dots + f_{2k-1} = f_{2k}$ . By the definition of the Fibonacci sequence,  $f_{2k} + f_{2k+1} = f_{2k+2} = f_{2(k+1)}$ . Thus, making the penultimate term in the left hand side of P(k+1) explicit, we have

$$f_1 + f_3 + \dots + f_{2k+1} = f_1 + f_3 + \dots + f_{2k-1} + f_{2k+1}$$

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

$$= f_{2(k+1)}. \blacksquare$$

3. (Inspired by Problem 35) An **alphabet**, often denoted  $\Sigma$ , is a finite non-empty set for which the elements are called **symbols**. A **string** over  $\Sigma$  is a sequence  $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_n$ , where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $\forall i (\sigma_i \in \Sigma)$ . The case n = 0 corresponds to the **empty string**, denoted  $\lambda$  (or  $\epsilon$ ), and the set of all possible strings over  $\Sigma$  is denoted  $\Sigma^*$ . For example, if  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ , then  $\{\lambda, 0,1,00,01,10,11\} \subset \Sigma^*$ . The **concatenation** of a string  $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_n$  with a symbol  $\sigma_{n+1}$  is the string  $\sigma_1 \sigma_2 \cdots \sigma_{n+1}$ .

Give a recursive definition of the **reversal**  $w^R$  of a string w. The reversal of a string is the string consisting of the symbols of the string in reverse order. For example,  $bacaba^R = abacab$ .

$$\lambda^R = \lambda$$
$$(x\sigma)^R = \sigma x^R$$

## From Section 5.4

4. (Inspired by Problem 7) Give a recursive algorithm (write the pseudocode in the style used by the book) for computing  $n \cdot x$  whenever  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ , using just addition and subtraction.

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Procedure mult(n, x: integers with n > 0)

If n = 1 then return x

Else return x + \text{mult}(n - 1, x)

{output is n \cdot x}
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5. (Inspired by Problem 13) Give a recursive algorithm for finding  $n! \mod m$  whenever  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ - \{1\}$ . *Hint: recall that*  $a \cdot b \mod m = (a \mod m) \cdot (b \mod m) \mod m$ 

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Procedure modfact(n:non-negative integer, m: positive integer) If n=0 then return 1 Else return \left(n \bmod m \cdot modfact(n-1,m)\right) \bmod m {output is n! \bmod m}
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Of course, if  $n \ge m$ , then m|n!, so  $n! \mod m = 0$ .

6. (Inspired by Problem 23) Devise a recursive algorithm for computing  $n^2$  where  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , using the fact that  $(n+1)^2 = n^2 + 2n + 1$ . Then prove the algorithm is correct. *Hint: Use induction. Optional: Make your algorithm work for*  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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Procedure square(k: nonnegative integer) If k=0 return 0 Else return square(k-1) + 2k-1 {output is k^2}
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Proof: Let P(n) be the proposition that square (n) returns  $n^2$ .

Base case: P(0) holds because square (0) returns  $0 = 0^2$ .

<u>Inductive hypothesis:</u> P(k) holds, i.e. square (k) returns  $k^2$ .

<u>Induction step:</u> We must show that  $P(k) \to P(k+1)$ , i.e. that square(k+1) returns  $(k+1)^2$  whenever the inductive hypothesis is true. Since k+1>0, square(k+1) returns  $square((k+1)-1)+2(k+1)-1=square(k)+2k+2-1=k^2+2k+1=(k+1)^2$ , where we have used the inductive hypothesis. ■