# Lecture 10 - Discrete Mafematiks

Kori Vernon

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## 1 Induction

## 1.1 Examples:

1. Prove by induction that  $2^n \leq 2^{n+1} - 2^{n-1} - 1$  where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ 

**Proof:** Base Case: Let n = 1, so we have  $2^{1} \le 2^{1+1} - 2^{1-1} - 1$ 

• Inductive Hypothesis: Suppose the above inequality is true for n = k.

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

We need to show that the given inequality is true for n = k + 1.

• Consider:

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{k+1} & \leq 2^{k+1} - 2^{k-1} - 1 \\ & 2 \cdot 2^k \leq 2^{k+2} - 2^k - 1 \\ & 2 \cdot 2^k \leq 2 \cdot (2^{k+1} - 2^{k-1} - 1) \leq 2^{k+2} - 2^k - 1 \\ & 2 \cdot 2^k \leq 2 \cdot (2^{k+1} - 2^{k-1} - 1) = 2^{k+2} - 2^k - 1 \leq 2^{k+2} - 2^k - 1 \end{aligned}$$

Which is true for n = k + 1.

2. 
$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} \ge 1 + \frac{n}{2}, n \in \mathbb{N}$$

**Proof:** Base Case: Let n = 1, so  $1 + \frac{1}{2^1} \ge 1 + \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\frac{3}{2} \ge \frac{3}{1}$ 

• Inductive Hypothesis: Assume this inequality is true for n = k, then  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + ... + \frac{1}{2^k} \ge 1 + \frac{1}{2}$  We need to prove it holds true for

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \ldots + \frac{1}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} &\geq 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \\ 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \ldots + \frac{1}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} &\geq 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} = 1 + \frac{k}{2} + \frac{1}{2^k \cdot 2} = \end{aligned}$$

#### 2 Recurrence Relations

**Definition:** When terms of a sequence depend on the previous terms.

**First-Order Recurrence:**  $a_0 = S_{n-1}$ , where  $a_0$  in given and S = some number.

Remark: The list of as sequence can be represented int he 1st-order recurrence

$$a_n = S \cdot a_{n-1} + t$$

and in terms of another formula which contains the  $S^nth$  term.

All solutions to the recurrence relation  $a_n = S_{n-1} + t$  where  $S \neq 1$  have the form

$$a_n = C_1 \cdot S^n + C_2$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are specific numbers  $a_0$  is given.

The solution to the recurrence relation of the form

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + t$$

1

where S = 1 is

$$a_n = a_0 + nt$$

**Second-order recurrence:** When  $a_n$  depends on 2 previous terms of a sequence, so

$$a_n = S_1 \cdot a_{n-1} + S_2 \cdot a_{n-1}$$

Where  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are constants and  $a_{n-1}$  and  $a_{n-2}$  are given is  $a_n = r^n$  to the second order recurrence

$$a_n = S_1 a_{n-1} + S_2 \cdot a_{n-2}$$

if there is only one solution.

However, if there are two distinct solutions,  $r_1 \neq r_2$ , then the solution is

$$a_n = C_1 \cdot r_1^n + C_2 \cdot r_2^n$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  we find solving a system of equations using  $a_0$  and  $a_1$ 

Let  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  be numbers, so that  $x^2 - S_1 x - S_2 = 0$  has exactly one root  $r \neq 0$ , then every solution to the recurrence relation  $a_n = S_1 \cdot a_{n-1} + S_2 \cdot a_{n-1}$  is of the form  $a_n = C_1 \cdot r^n + C_2 \cdot n \cdot r^n$ 

Note: Sequences can be generated by polynomials

$$0^{2} + 1^{2} + \dots + n^{2} = \frac{(2n+1)(n+1) \cdot n}{6}$$

if a sequence is generated by a polynomial, we should be able to recognize that and if possible, find the polynomial.

The difference operator  $\Delta$  is when we need to subtract one term of a sequence from another, so  $\Delta a = a_n - a_{n-1}$ , then we get a new sequence which will have less terms in it.

#### 2.1 Examples:

1. Consider  $a_n = 2 \cdot a_{n-1} + 3$  and  $a_0 = 1$ . Find the first 6 terms.

$$5, 13, 29, 61, 125, 253$$

Where the solution for this recurrence is  $a_n = 4 \cdot 2^n - 3$ 

2. Solve the recurrence:

$$a_n = 5 \cdot a_{n-1}$$
$$1, 8, 43$$

- The solution is in the form  $a_n = C_1 \cdot S^n + C_2$  where we need to solve for  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  using  $a_0 = 1$  and  $a_2 = 8$ .
- Solve the below system of equations:

$$a_0 = 1 = C_1 \cdot 5^0 + C_2$$

$$a_1 = 8 = C_1 \cdot 5^1 + C_2$$

$$C_1 = \frac{7}{4}, C_2 = \frac{-3}{4}$$

$$a_n = \frac{7}{4} \cdot 5^n - \frac{3}{4}$$

3. 23.1(b) Find the solution for the recurrence relation

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$$

$$soln = 5 + 3n$$

4. Solve the following recurrence

$$a_n = 3 \cdot a_{n-1} + 4 \cdot a_{n-2}$$

when  $a_0 = 3, a_1 = 2$ .

• We need to solve

$$x^{2} - 3x - 4 = 0$$
$$(x - 4)(x + 1) = 0$$

• The roots are r = 4 and r = -1

$$a_n = C_1 \cdot 4^n + C_2 \cdot (-1)^n$$

• Now, we need to solve for  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ 

$$a_0 = 3 = C_1 \cdot 4^0 + C_2(-1)^0$$

$$a_1 = 2 = C_1 \cdot 4^1 + C_2(-1)^1$$

$$C_1 = 1, C_2 = 2$$

• So  $a_n = 4^n + 2 \cdot (-1)^n$  is the solution

5.  $a_n = n^3 - 5n + 1$ , then

$$\Delta a_n = a_{n+1} - a_n$$

$$= [(n+1)^3 - 5(n+1) + 1] - [n^3 - 5n + 1]$$

$$= n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n + 1 - n^3 + 5n - 1$$

$$= 3n^2 + 3n - 4$$

• If a sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is generated by a polynomial of degree d, then  $\Delta^{d+1}$  in the all zero sequence

### 3 Functions

**Defintion:** A relation f is called a function if  $(a,b) \in f$  and  $(a,c) \in f \Rightarrow b=c$ **Remark:** So it is a *one-to-one* function, so every x must be "mapped" only to one y.

- There must be *bijection* which is "onto" and "one-to-one".
- Functions also can be defined as sets of ordered pairs.
- The set of all possible first elements of the ordered pairs  $(a, b) \in f$  is called the domain of f and denoted "dom f"
- The set of all possible second elements of the ordered pairs  $(a, b) \in f$  is called the image of f and denoted "im f"

$$f: A \to B_{x \mapsto y}$$

• for sets  $A = dom \ f$  and  $B = im \ f$ , x gets mapped to y. We say f is a function from A to B, provided  $A = dom \ f$  and  $im \ f \subseteq B$ , so we could say f is a mapping or map from A to B.

Note: "one-to-one" is injective.

To show:  $A \rightarrow B$ 

- $\bullet$  Prove that f is a function
- Prove that dom f = A
- Prove that  $im \ f \subseteq B$

Let A and B be a finite set with |A| = a and |B| = b, then the number of functions from A to B is  $b^a$ . A function is called *one-to-one*, provided that whenever  $(x,b), (y,b) \in f$ , then x = y. Or, if  $x \neq y$ , then  $f(x) \neq f(y)$ . If f is one-to-one, then an inverse function,  $f^{-1}$ , exists.

Let  $f: A \to B$ , we say f is onto (or surjective) onto B, provided that for every  $b \in B$ , there is an  $a \in A$ , so that f(a) = b, so  $im \ f = B$ . A bijection is when a map or function is both onto and one-to-one.

# 3.1 Examples:

1. 
$$G = \{(5,3), (5,-11), (9,4), (2,1)\}$$

$$5\mapsto 3, 4\mapsto -11, 9\mapsto 4, 2\mapsto 1$$

- This is not "one-to-one"
- $\bullet \ 3$  is an image of 5, OR 5 is a pre-image of 3