

# **CS 2336: Discrete Mathematics**

## **Chapter 4**

### **Properties of the Integers: Mathematical Induction**

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# Outline

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**4.1 The Well-ordering Principle: Mathematical Induction**

**4.2 Recursive Definitions**

**4.3 The Division Algorithm: Prime Numbers**

**4.4 The Greatest Common Divisor: The Euclidean Algorithm**

**4.5 The Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic**

# Well-Ordering Principle

- What makes  $\mathbf{Z}$  different from  $\mathbf{Q}$  and  $\mathbf{R}$ ?
- Observation:  $\mathbf{Z}^+ = \{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid x > 0\} = \{x \in \mathbf{Z} \mid x \geq 1\}$ 
  - but:  $\mathbf{Q}^+ = \{x \in \mathbf{Q} \mid x > 0\}$ ,  $\mathbf{R}^+ = \{x \in \mathbf{R} \mid x > 0\}$
- Every nonempty subset  $X$  of  $\mathbf{Z}^+$  contains a **least (smallest)** element
  - Why it's not true for  $\mathbf{Q}^+$  and  $\mathbf{R}^+$ ?
- This is called the **Well-Ordering Principle**
  - We say  $\mathbf{Z}^+$  is well-ordered

# Principle of Mathematical Induction

- Let  $S(n)$  denote an open statement that involves the positive integer variable  $n$ 
  - $S(1)$  is true and  $\leftarrow$  **basis step**
  - When  $S(k)$  is true then  $S(k+1)$  is true  $\leftarrow$  **inductive step**

Then  $S(n)$  is true for all  $n$  in  $\mathbf{Z}^+$

- Extension:
  - May use  $S(k_0)$  instead of  $S(1)$  as the basis step
  - Can expand  $\mathbf{Z}^+$  into  $\{x \mid x \in \mathbb{Z}, x > n_0\}$ , where  $n_0 < 0$  is a finite number

# Examples

- Ex 4.1: Prove  $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- Ex 4.4: Prove  $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- Ex 4.6: Check if the inductive step of the following (**invalid**) theorem works?

$$S(n) : \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n^2 + n + 2}{2} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

- Ex 4.13: Prove that any interger larger than or equal to 14 can be written as a sum of only 3's and 8's.

# Alternative Form

- Let  $S(n)$  denote an open statement that involves the positive integer variable  $n$ , let  $n_0 \leq n_1$  be two positive integers
  - $S(n_0), S(n_0+1), \dots, S(n_1-1), S(n_1)$  are true and
  - When  $S(n_0) \dots S(k)$  are true, where  $k \geq n_1$  then  $S(k+1)$  is true

Then  $S(n)$  is true for all  $n \geq n_0$

# Example

- Ex 4.14 (alternative proof): It is possible to write  $14, 15, 16$  using only 3's and 8's:
  - $14=3+3+8$
  - $15=3+3+3+3+3$
  - $16=8+8$

Prove

$S(n)$ :  $n$  can be written as a sum of 3's and 8's  
is true for all positive integer  $n \geq 14$

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# Explicit Formula

- A sequence of integers may or may not be written in explicit formula (depending on if you can observe a pattern!)
  - 0, 2, 4, 8, 10, 12,...
  - 1, 2, 3, 6, 11, 20, 37,...
- For those sequences that do not have explicit formulas, we may define it **recursively**:
  - E.g.,  $a_0=1$ ,  $a_1=2$ ,  $a_2=3$ , and  $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + a_{n-3}$
- Not necessary for sequence, but also for general mathematical concepts
  - e.g., conjunction of multiple statements

# Recursive Definition

- Ex: 4.17 Considers sets  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, A_{n+1}$ , where  $A_i \subseteq \mathcal{U}$  we define their union **recursively** as

- The union of  $A_1, A_2$  is  $A_1 \cup A_2$  ← **base definition**

- The union of  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_{n+1}$  for  $n \geq 2$ , is given by

$$A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n \cup A_{n+1} = (A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_n) \cup A_{n+1}$$

← **recursive process**

- **Then we have**

$$(A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_r) \cup (A_{r+1} \cup \dots \cup A_n) = \\ A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \dots \cup A_r \cup A_{r+1} \cup \dots \cup A_n$$

if  $n, r \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  where  $n \geq 3, 1 \leq r < n$

← **prove this using induction**

# Harmonic Numbers

- Define Harmonic numbers  $H$  as
  - $H_1 = 1$
  - $H_{n+1} = H_n + 1/(n+1)$  for  $n \geq 1$
- Prove  $\sum_{j=1}^n H_j = (n+1)H_n - n, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- Another example of recursive definition: factorial
  - $0! = 1$
  - $(n+1)! = (n+1)n!,$  for all  $n \geq 0$
- Define even number as a sequence  $b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots$  using recursive definition

# Fibonacci Numbers

- Define Fibonacci numbers  $F$  as

- $F_0=0, F_1=1$

- $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$

- Ex 4.19: Prove  $\sum_{i=0}^k F_i^2 = F_k \times F_{k+1}, \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

# Lucas Numbers

- Define Lucas numbers  $L$  as
  - $L_0=2, L_1=1$
  - $L_n=L_{n-1}+L_{n-2}$ , for  $n \geq 2$
- Ex 4.20: Prove:  $L_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n+1}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

**Table 4.2**

$n$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
$L_n$	2	1	3	4	7	11	18	29

# Recursively Defined Set

- Start from an initial set of element with one/multiple rules to create new elements based on the known element
  - All the elements in the recursively defined set either belong to the initial set, or were created by the rules
- Example 4.22: Define the set  $X$  recursively by: (i)  $1$  is in  $X$ , and (ii) for each  $a$  in  $X$ ,  $a+2$  is also in  $X$ .

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# Definition 4.1

- For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $b \neq 0$ , we say that  $b$  **divides**  $a$ , or  $b|a$ , if there is an integer  $n$  such that  $a=bn$ . In this case,  $b$  is a **divisor** of  $a$  and  $a$  is a **multiple** of  $b$ .
- Properties for  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$ 
  - $1|a$  and  $a|0$
  - $[(a|b) \wedge (b|a)] \Rightarrow a = \pm b$
  - $[(a|b) \wedge (b|c)] \Rightarrow a|c$
  - $a|b \Rightarrow a|bx \ \forall x \in \mathbb{Z}$
  - If  $x=y+z$  and  $a$  divides two out of three integers, it divides the last one as well
  - $[(a|b) \wedge (a|c)] \Rightarrow a|(bx + cy)$
  - $a|(x_1x_1 + \cdots + c_nx_n)$  if  $a|c_i, \forall 1 \leq i \leq n$



# Examples

- Ex 4.23: Do there exist integers  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ , so that  $6x+9y+15z=107$ ?
- Ex 4.24:  $a$ ,  $b$  are two integers and  $2a+3b$  is a multiple of  $17$ . Show that  $17$  divides  $9a+5b$ .

# Primes and Composite

- **Primes** are integers ( $n > 1$ ) with exactly two positive divisors
- All other integers ( $n > 1$ ) are called **composite**
- Lemma: If  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  is composite, then there is a prime  $p$  such that  $p|n$  ← Well-Ordering Principle
- Theorem: There are infinitely many primes. How to prove it? ← By contradiction

# The Division Algorithm

- For any  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, b > 0$ , there exist unique  $q, r \in \mathbb{Z}$  with  $a = qb + r, 0 \leq r < b$ 
  - $q$  is called **quotient**
  - $r$  is called **remainder**
  - $a$  is called **dividend**
  - $b$  is called **divisor**
- Ex 4.25: Find the  $q$  and  $r$  for the following  $a$  and  $b$ 
  - $a = 170, b = 11$
  - $a = -45, b = 8$

# Integers in Bases Other than 10

- Ex 4.27: Write  $6137$  in the octal system (base  $8$ ). In other words, find  $r_0, r_1, \dots, r_k$  so that  $(6137)_{10} = (r_k \dots r_2 r_1 r_0)_8$ .
- Ex 4.28: write  $3387$  into binary (base  $2$ ) and hexadecimal (base  $16$ ).

		Remainders
8	$\overline{6137}$	
8	$\overline{767}$	$1(r_0)$
8	$\overline{95}$	$7(r_1)$
8	$\overline{11}$	$7(r_2)$
8	$\overline{1}$	$3(r_3)$
	0	$1(r_4)$

		Remainders	
16	$\overline{13,874,945}$		
16	$\overline{867,184}$	1	$(r_0)$
16	$\overline{54,199}$	0	$(r_1)$
16	$\overline{3,387}$	7	$(r_2)$
16	$\overline{211}$	11 (= B)	$(r_3)$
16	$\overline{13}$	3	$(r_4)$
	0	13 (= D)	$(r_5)$

# Negative Integers

- Question: How to represent negative integers  $x$  in binary?
  - One's complement: write  $|x|$  in binary, and replace each 0 (1) with 1(0)
  - Two's complement: add 1 to one's complement
- Ex 4.29: Write -5 as two's complement in 4- and 8-bit integers
- Ex 4.30: Perform the subtraction  $33-5$  in base 2 8-bit integers ← observe the overflow, in this case we discard the left-most bit

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# Common Divisor

- For  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $c > 0$  is a common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$  if  $c|a$  and  $c|b$
- Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}$ , where  $a \neq 0$  or  $b \neq 0$ . Then  $c \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  is a **greatest common divisor** of  $a$  and  $b$  if
  - $c|a, c|b$
  - For any common divisor  $d$  of  $a$  and  $b$ , we know  $d|c$
- Theorem 4.6 For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  there exists a unique greatest common divisor of  $a$  and  $b$ , written as  $\gcd(a, b)$  ← Well-Ordering Principle,  $\gcd(a, b)$  is actually the smallest positive integer that can be a linear combination of  $a$  and  $b$

# A Few Facts on GCD

- $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b,a)$
- $\gcd(a,0) = |a|$ , for any nonzero  $a$
- $\gcd(-a,b) = \gcd(a,-b) = \gcd(-a,-b) = \gcd(a,b)$
- $\gcd(0,0)$  is undefined.
  
- Integer  $a$  and  $b$  are relatively prime if  $\gcd(a,b) = 1$ 
  - If there exist integers  $x$  and  $y$ , so that  $ax + by = 1$



# Euclidean Algorithm

$$\begin{array}{r}
 22 \quad 250 \\
 \underline{242} \\
 8 \\
 \underline{6} \\
 2 \\
 \underline{2} \\
 0
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{r}
 11 \\
 \underline{8} \\
 3 \\
 \underline{2} \\
 1
 \end{array}$$

	Quotient	Remainder
	↓	↓
$250 =$	$22 \times$	$11 + 8$
$11 =$	$1 \times$	$8 + 3$
$8 =$	$2 \times$	$3 + 2$
$3 =$	$1 \times$	$2 + 1$
$2 =$	$2 \times$	$1 + 0$

- Then,  $r_n$ , the last nonzero remainder, equals  $\gcd(a,b)$
- Ex 4.34: Find the  $\gcd(250,11)$ ?

# Examples

- Ex 4.35: Prove that  $8n+3$  and  $5n+2$  are relative prime
- Ex 4.36: Realize the Euclidean algorithm

```
$ cat GCD.java
```

```
public class GCD{  
    public static void main(String[] args) {  
        // a, b are positive integers  
        int a = 120, b = 32;  
        int r = a % b;  
        int d = b;  
        while (r > 0) {  
            int c = d;  
            d = r;  
            r = c % d;  
        }  
        // gcd(a,b) is d the last nonzero remainder  
        System.out.println("gcd(" + a + ", " + b + ") = " + d);  
    }  
}
```

```
$ java GCD
```

```
gcd(120, 32) = 8
```

# Diophantine Equation

- For positive integers  $a, b, c$ , the Diophantine equation  $ax+by=c$  has an integer solution  $x=x_0, y=y_0$  if  $\gcd(a,b)$  divides  $c$
- Ex 4.38: Brian can debug a Java program in 6 mins and a C++ program in 10 mins. If he continuously works for 104 mins and doesn't waste any time, how many programs can he debug in each languages?
  - Basically find integers  $x$  and  $y$  so that  $6x+10y=104$

# Common Multiple

- Let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .  $c$  is a **common multiple** of  $a$  and  $b$ .  $c$  is the **least common multiple** if it is the smallest positive common multiple of  $a, b$ , we write  $c = \text{lcm}(a, b)$
- If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $c = \text{lcm}(a, b)$ . For any  $d$  that is a common multiple of  $a$  and  $b$ , we know  $c \mid d$
- Thm 4.40: For all  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $ab = \text{lcm}(a, b)\text{gcd}(a, b)$

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# Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

- Lem 4.2: If  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $p$  is a prime, then  $p|ab \Rightarrow p|a$  or  $p|b$
- Lem 4.3: Generalize Lem 4.2 to  $n$  positive integers
- Thm 4.11: Integer  $n > 1$  can be written as a (unique) product of primes
  
- Ex 4.42: What is the prime factorization of 980,220?
  
- Ex 4.43: Prove that  $17|n$  given

$$10 \cdot 9 \cdot 8 \cdot 7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot n = 21 \cdot 20 \cdot 19 \cdot 18 \cdot 17 \cdot 16 \cdot 15 \cdot 14$$

# Examples

- Ex 4.44: Count the number of positive divisors of 360.

- Ex 4.45: Let  $m = p_1^{e_1} p_2^{e_2} \cdots p_t^{e_t}$ ,  $n = p_1^{f_1} p_2^{f_2} \cdots p_t^{f_t}$ , with  $e_i, f_i \geq 0, \forall e_i, f_i$  we have

$$\gcd(m, n) = \prod_{i=1}^t p_i^{a_i}, \text{ and } \text{lcm}(m, n) = \prod_{i=1}^t p_i^{b_i},$$

where  $a_i = \min(e_i, f_i)$ ,  $b_i = \max(e_i, f_i)$

- Find the gcd and lcm of  $491891400 = 2^3 3^3 5^2 7^2 11^1 13^2$   
and  $1138845708 = 2^2 3^2 7^1 11^2 13^3 17^1$

# Take-home Exercises

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- Exercise 4.1: 2, 8, 16, 19, 26
- Exercise 4.2: 1, 8, 10, 12, 16
- Exercise 4.3: 7, 15, 20, 22, 28
- Exercise 4.4: 1, 2, 7, 14, 19
- Exercise 4.5: 1, 2, 8, 24, 25