CSE 191 Introduction to Discrete Structures

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Sequences, Summations, and Induction

Mid-Semester Review

Topics Covered so Far...

- 1. Propositional and Predicate Logic
- 2. Logical and Mathematical Proofs
- 3. Sets
- 4. Functions and Relations

Outline

- Sequences

- Definition and Terminology
- Finite Sequences
- Infinite Sequences
- Explicit Formulas
- Summations
- Recurrence Relations
- Mathematical Induction
- Strong Induction

Sequences

Example: Let's say you want to represent your GPA over four semester... Consider the function $g: \{1,2,3,4\} \rightarrow \{ \text{gpa} | \text{gpa} \in \mathbb{R}, 0 \le \text{gpa} \le 4 \}$ defined by:

g(1) = 3.6 g(2) = 2.8 g(3) = 3.2 g(4) = 3.8

For shorthand, we write **a**(**n**) as **a**_n

So *g*₁, *g*₂, *g*₃, *g*₄ represents our GPA **sequence**, 3.6, 2.8, 3.2, 3.8

Sequences: Terminology

A **<u>sequence</u>** is created by a special type of function with a domain of consecutive integers...ie no gaps in the domain

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OK: ℕ, ℤ⁺, ℤ⁺ ∪ {0}, ℤ, {1,2,34,5}
```

Not OK: {1,3,5,7}, { $x \in \mathbb{N}$ | x is even }

Sequences: Terminology

Given a sequence, **a** over domain $D \subseteq \mathbb{Z}$

- A <u>single term</u> (or <u>term</u>) a(k) is written as a_k for any $k \in D$
- Given term a_k , k denotes the <u>index</u> of a_k
- A shorthand for the entire sequence is $\{a_k\}$ or $\{a_n\}$

Sequences: Ground Rules

- Most sequences start at index 0 or 1
 - The domain is typically \mathbb{N} or $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$
 - In this case we write $\boldsymbol{a}_1, \boldsymbol{a}_2, \boldsymbol{a}_3, \dots$ or $\boldsymbol{b}_o, \boldsymbol{b}_1, \boldsymbol{b}_2, \dots$
- Sequences **can** start from any integer
 - A sequence starting at -2: $\boldsymbol{a}_{2}, \boldsymbol{a}_{1}, \boldsymbol{a}_{0}, \boldsymbol{a}_{1}, \dots$
 - A sequence starting at 5: \boldsymbol{b}_5 , \boldsymbol{b}_6 , \boldsymbol{b}_7 , \boldsymbol{b}_8 , ...
- The term $\boldsymbol{b_8}$ might not necessarily be the 8th term \circ In $\boldsymbol{b_5}$, $\boldsymbol{b_6}$, $\boldsymbol{b_7}$, $\boldsymbol{b_8}$, ... the term $\boldsymbol{b_8}$ is the 4th term

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Sequences: Finite

A sequence with a finite domain is called a **finite sequence**.

Consider **a**_m, **a**_{m+1}, **a**_{m+2}, ..., **a**_n

There is an **<u>initial index</u>** *m* and *a*_{*m*} denotes the <u>**initial term**</u>

There is a **final index** *n* and *a*^{*n*} denotes the **final term**

Examples:

GPA over 4 semesters 1,2,3,4 5,4,5,4,5,4,5

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Sequences: Infinite

A sequence with an infinite domain is called an *infinite sequence*. Consider ..., **a**_m, **a**_{m+1}, **a**_{m+2}, ... There may or may not be an **<u>initial index</u>** *m* (and <u>initial term</u> *a*)

There may or may not be an **final index** *n* (and **final term** *a*,)

Examples:

1,3,5,7, ... 2,4,6,8, ...

(positive odd numbers) (positive even numbers) $\{1\}, \{1,2\}, \{1,2,3\}, \{1,2,3,4\}, \dots$ (the sets **A**_i we had previously defined)

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Sequences: Explicit

An <u>explicit formula</u> lets us compute the value of term a_k as a function of k

Examples: $c_k = 5 \text{ for } 1 \le k \le 5$ $\rightarrow \{c_k\} = 5,5,5,5,5$ $d_k = k \text{ for } 1 \le k \le 10$ $\rightarrow \{d_k\} = 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10$ $e_k = 2k \text{ for } k \ge 1$ $\rightarrow \{e_k\} = 2,4,6,8, \dots$ $f_k = 2^k \text{ for } k \ge 0$ $\rightarrow \{f_k\} = 1,2,4,8,16, \dots$

A sequence $\{a_k\}$ is <u>increasing</u> if, $\forall i, a_i < a_{i+1}$ A sequence $\{a_k\}$ is <u>non-decreasing</u> if, $\forall i, a_i \le a_{i+1}$

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 $d_k = k$ for $1 \le k \le 10$ is increasing

- $\mathbf{e}_{\mathbf{k}} = 2\mathbf{k}$ for $\mathbf{k} \ge 1$ is increasing
- $f_k = 2^k$ for $k \ge 0$ is increasing

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What about the sequence $\{h_k\} = 1, 2, 2, 2, 3?$

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What about the sequence $\{h_k\} = 1, 2, 2, 2, 3$? Non-Decreasing

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Every increasing sequence is non-decreasing

Not every non-decreasing sequence is increasing

What about the sequence $\{h_k\} = 1, 2, 2, 2, 3$? Non-Decreasing

Decreasing Sequences

A sequence $\{a_k\}$ is <u>decreasing</u> if, $\forall i, a_i > a_{i+1}$ A sequence $\{a_k\}$ is <u>non-increasing</u> if, $\forall i, a_i \ge a_{i+1}$

Decreasing Sequences

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 $s_k = 10 - k$ for $1 \le k \le 10$ is decreasing (and non-increasing)

 $t_k = -2k$ for $k \ge 1$ is decreasing (and non-increasing)

 $u_k = 2^{-k}$ for $k \ge 0$ is decreasing (and non-increasing)

What about the sequence $\{vh_k\} = 3, 2, 2, 2, 1$? Non-Increasing

A **<u>geometric sequence</u>** is a sequence formed by successively multiplying the initial term by a fixed number called the **<u>common ratio</u>**.

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What are the explicit formulas for the above sequences?

For any geometric sequence $\{s_k\}$ with initial term s_o and common ratio r:

$$\boldsymbol{s}_{\boldsymbol{k}} = \boldsymbol{s}_{\boldsymbol{0}} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}^{\boldsymbol{k}}$$
, for $\boldsymbol{k} \ge 0$

A **geometric sequence** is a sequence formed by successively multiplying the initial term by a fixed number called the **common ratio**.

Examples:

$$\{a_k\}$$
 is 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, ... → $a_k = a_0 \cdot r^k = 1 \cdot (-1)^k$ for all $k \ge 0$
 $\{b_k\}$ is 1, ½, ¼, ⅛, ...

What are the explicit formulas for the above sequences? For any geometric sequence $\{s_k\}$ with initial term s_o and common ratio r:

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Examples:

$$\{ \boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{k}} \} \text{ is } 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, 1, -1, \dots \qquad \rightarrow \boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{k}} = \boldsymbol{a}_{0} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}^{\boldsymbol{k}} = 1 \cdot (-1)^{\boldsymbol{k}} \text{ for all } \boldsymbol{k} \ge 0 \\ \{ \boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{k}} \} \text{ is } 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots \qquad \rightarrow \boldsymbol{b}_{\boldsymbol{k}} = \boldsymbol{b}_{0} \cdot \boldsymbol{r}^{\boldsymbol{k}} = 1 \cdot (\frac{1}{2})^{\boldsymbol{k}} \text{ for all } \boldsymbol{k} \ge 0$$

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 $\{a_k\}$ is 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, ... $\{b_k\}$ is 49, 42, 35, 28, 21, ...

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For any arithmetic sequence $\{s_k\}$ with initial term s_o and common diff d:

 $\mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{k}} = \mathbf{s}_{\mathbf{0}} + \mathbf{k}\mathbf{d}$, for $\mathbf{k} \ge 0$

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Examples:

$$\{a_k\}$$
 is 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, ... → $a_k = a_0 \cdot kd = 5 + 10 \cdot k$ for all $k \ge 0$
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 is 5, 15, 25, 35, 45, ... → $a_k = a_0 \cdot kd = 5 + 10 \cdot k$ for all $k \ge 0$
 $\{b_k\}$ is 49, 42, 35, 28, 21, ... → $b_k = b_0 \cdot kd = 49 + (-7)k$ for all $k \ge 0$

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Summations

<u>Summation notation</u> is used to express the sum of terms in a numerical sequence

Consider the sequence: **a**₀, **a**₁, **a**₂, **a**₃, ..., **a**_k

We can express the sum of all elements in the sequence as:



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Consider the sequence: $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, ..., a_k$ We can express the sum of all elements in the sequence as: $\sum_{k=1}^{k}$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\kappa} a_i$$

What this represents is:
$$\displaystyle\sum_{i=0}^k a_i = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + ... + a_k$$
Summations

Given:
$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} a_i = a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_k$$

- *i* is the *index* of the summation
- *i* = 0 and *i* = *k* are the <u>limits</u> of the summation
 - **0** is the **lower limit**
 - *k* is the <u>upper limit</u>
- The capital sigma (Σ) denotes that elements will be added together

Given **a**_i = **i** what does the following sum evaluate to:



Given **a**_i = **i** what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} a_i = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5$$

Given **a**_i = **i** what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{5} a_i = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = 15$$

Given $b_i = 2^{-i}$ what does the following sum evaluate to:



Given $b_i = 2^{-i}$ what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2} b_i = b_0 + b_1 + b_2$$

Given $b_i = 2^{-i}$ what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2} b_i = b_0 + b_1 + b_2 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{7}{4}$$

Given **c**_{*i*} = **i**, what does the following sum evaluate to:



Given **c**_{*i*} = **i**, what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i = c_1 + c_2 + c_3 + \dots + c_n$$

Given $c_i = i$, what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-2) + (n-1) + n$$

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Given **c**_{*i*} = **i**, what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i = (1+n) + (2+(n-1)) + (3+(n-2)) + \dots + (\frac{n}{2} + (\frac{n}{2} + 1))$$

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Each pair sums to n + 1...how many pairs are there?

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Each pair sums to n + 1...how many pairs are there? n/2 pairs

Given $c_i = i$, what does the following sum evaluate to:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i = \frac{(n+1)n}{2}$$

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Idea: Some sequences can naturally be defined as a function of earlier terms in the sequence (defined recursively).

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Example: Consider the factorial function, fact(n) = n * n-1 * n-2 * ... * 1, (also denoted n!)

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```

A <u>recurrence relation</u> for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an equation that expresses a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms $(a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n-1})$, for all integers n with $n \ge n_0$, where n_0 is a nonnegative integer.

- A recurrence relation is said to *recursively define* a sequence
- It may have one or more initial terms
- A sequence is called a *solution* of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation

We've already seen some sequences that can be easily defined recursively

Recall: The geometric sequence $1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \dots$

Explicit Formula: $a_k = (\frac{1}{2})^k$ for all $k \ge 0$

Recurrence Relation:

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Recurrence Relation:

a₀ = 1

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Explicit Formula: $a_k = (\frac{1}{2})^k$ for all $k \ge 0$

Recurrence Relation:

a₀ = 1

We've already seen some sequences that can be easily defined recursively

Recall: The arithmetic sequence 5, 15, 25, 35, ...

Explicit Formula: $a_k = 5 + 10k$ for all $k \ge 0$

Recurrence Relation:

We've already seen some sequences that can be easily defined recursively

Recall: The arithmetic sequence 5, 15, 25, 35, ...

Explicit Formula: $a_k = 5 + 10k$ for all $k \ge 0$

Recurrence Relation:

a₀ = 5

We've already seen some sequences that can be easily defined recursively

Recall: The arithmetic sequence 5, 15, 25, 35, ...

Explicit Formula: $a_k = 5 + 10k$ for all $k \ge 0$

Recurrence Relation:

a₀ = 5

 $a_{k} = 10 + a_{k-1}$ for $k \ge 1$

Fibonacci

The Fibonacci sequence is a very famous recurrence relation

- Begins with **two** initial terms
- Each following term is the sum of the previous 2

First few terms are 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, ...

Recurrence Relation:

$$f_o = 0$$

$$f_{1} = 1$$

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$
 for $n \ge 2$

http://www.maths.surrey.ac.uk/hosted-sites/R.Knott/Fibonacci/fibBio.html



Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 2$, and suppose that $a_0 = 3$ and $a_1 = 5$. What are a_2 and a_3 ?

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$$a_2 = a_{2-1} - a_{2-2} = a_1 - a_0 = 5 - 3 = 2$$

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$$a_2 = a_{2-1} - a_{2-2} = a_1 - a_0 = 5 - 3 = 2$$

$$a_3 = a_{3-1} - a_{3-2} = a_2 - a_1 = 2 - 5 = -3$$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$ for $n \ge 1$, and suppose that $a_0 = 2$. What are a_1, a_2 , and a_3 ?

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$$a_1 = a_{1-1} + 3 = a_0 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$ for $n \ge 1$, and suppose that $a_0 = 2$. What are a_1, a_2 , and a_3 ?

$$a_1 = a_{1-1} + 3 = a_0 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$$

 $a_2 = a_{2-1} + 3 = a_1 + 3 = 5 + 3 = 8$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$ for $n \ge 1$, and suppose that $a_0 = 2$. What are a_1, a_2 , and a_3 ?

$$a_1 = a_{1-1} + 3 = a_0 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$$

 $a_2 = a_{2-1} + 3 = a_1 + 3 = 5 + 3 = 8$
 $a_3 = a_{3-1} + 3 = a_2 + 3 = 8 + 3 = 11$
How do we solve a recurrence relation to find an explicit formula for a_n ? Two approaches:

- 1. Start at the initial condition and successively apply the recurrence relation upwards until you reach **a**_n to deduce a formula.
- 2. Start with the term a_n and work downward until you reach the initial condition and deduce a formula.

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$ for $n \ge 2$, and suppose that $a_1 = 2$. Find the formula for a_n .

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 $a_{1} = 2$ $a_{2} = a_{2-1} + 3 = a_{1} + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$ $a_{3} = a_{3-1} + 3 = (2+3) + 3 = 2 + 2*3$ $a_{4} = a_{4-1} + 3 = (2+2*3) + 3 = 2 + 3*3$...

 $a_n = 2 + (n-1) * 3$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be a sequence that satisfies the recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$ for $n \ge 2$, and suppose that $a_1 = 2$. Find the formula for a_n .

a ₁ = 2	$a_n = a_{n-1} + 3$
$a_2 = a_{2-1} + 3 = a_1 + 3 = 2 + 3 = 5$	$= (a_{n-2} + 3) + 3$
$a_3 = a_{3-1} + 3 = (2+3) + 3 = 2 + 2*3$	= a _{n-2} + 2*3
a ₄ = a ₄₋₁ + 3 = (2+2*3)+3 = 2 + 3*3	= (a _{n-3} + 3) + 2*3
•••	= a _{n-3} + 3*3
a _n = 2 + (n-1) * 3	•••
	= a ₁ + (n - 1)*3 = 2 + (n-1)*3

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What is Induction?

Suppose we want to prove a property, P(n), is TRUE for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (or $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$):

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Suppose we want to prove a property, P(n), is TRUE for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (or $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$):

For example, given an arithmetic sequence with $a_0 = 4$ and common difference d = 16, prove that a_n is divisible by 4 for all $n \ge 0$...

- Here the property is the predicate **P(n)**: "**a**_n is divisible by 4"
- We want to prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, P(n)$

What is Induction?

Suppose we want to prove a property, P(n), is TRUE for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ (or $\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$):

Another example, prove that
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

• Here the property is the predicate **P(n)**: $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
• We want to prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} P(n)$

• We want to prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$

In both of the previous examples, notice that there is some dependency between truth values P(k) and P(k + 1)...

In both of the previous examples, notice that there is some dependency between truth values P(k) and P(k + 1)...

For the first example: we know that $\mathbf{a}_1 = \mathbf{a}_0 + \mathbf{d}$. $\mathbf{a}_2 = \mathbf{a}_1 + \mathbf{d}$, etc...

• Notice how the formula for a_1 relies on a_0 . Therefore P(1) relies on P(0)

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Similarly, consider the values of our summation for upper limit = k + 1

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Mathematical Induction takes advantage of these dependencies

Idea: Mathematical Induction consists of two proofs

- 1. Prove that $P(k_0)$ is a true statement (where k_0 is our initial index in D)
- 2. Prove that $\forall k$, $(P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1))$ is a true statement

Conclusion:

Since $P(k_0)$ is a true statement, and $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ it holds that P(n) is true for all n in D

Principle of Mathematical Induction:

Let P(n) be a statement defined for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. If the following hold:

- **P(1)** is true
- For all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

Then P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Note: We can relax this to apply to any domain **D** of consecutive integers

To prove the inductive step, assume **P**(**k**), then derive **P**(**k** + 1)

Brief Live Demo...

For the Towers of Hanoi problem, let **P**(**n**): We can move **n** disks.

For the Towers of Hanoi problem, let P(n): We can move n disks.

To prove that this works for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we first show the base case P(1).

Clearly we can move 1 disk, so **P(1)** is TRUE

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Clearly we can move 1 disk, so **P(1)** is TRUE

Then we assume we can move k disks for arbitrary $k \ge 1$, and show that this implies we can also move k + 1 disks

If we can move k, then we can move them to the middle platform, move the one remaining disk to the right platform (because P(1) is true), then move the k disks from the middle to the right. So $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$

Proof Template

To formally prove something via induction, you must do **all** of the following:

- 1. Express the statement being proved in the form " $\forall n \ge b$, P(n) for a fixed integer b
- 2. Prove the **Base Case**: show that **P(b)** is true.
- 3. Prove the Inductive Case
 - a. State the inductive hypothesis in the form "assume that P(k) is true for an arbitrary $k \ge b$
 - b. State what must be proved under this assumption; write out P(k + 1)
 - c. Prove the statement P(k + 1) is true by using the assumption P(k) is true. Be sure this proof is valid for all integers $k \ge b$
 - d. Clearly identify the conclusion
- Now that you have proven the Base Case and Inductive Case, conclude that P(n) is true for all n ≥ b

Prove that if **n** is a positive integer,
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

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Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

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Predicate: P(n): $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Base Case:

Prove that if **n** is a positive integer, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ **Predicate:** P(n): $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Base Case:

Show **P(1)** is true

Prove that if **n** is a positive integer, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ **Predicate:** P(n): $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Base Case:

Show P(1) is true

P(1): 1 = 1 * (1+1) / 2... TRUE

Prove that if **n** is a positive integer, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ **Predicate:** P(n): $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Inductive Case:

Prove that if **n** is a positive integer, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ **Predicate:** P(n): $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Inductive Case:

Assume that $P(\mathbf{k})$ is true for an arbitrary integer $k \ge 1$

Prove that if **n** is a positive integer, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ **Predicate:** P(n): $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Inductive Case:

Assume that $P(\mathbf{k})$ is true for an arbitrary integer $k \ge 1$

Now we must derive that **P**(**k** + 1) is true...

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \underbrace{1+2+3+\ldots+k}_{i=1} + (k+1)$$
This is just the sum from i=1 to k
$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \sum_{i=1}^{k} i + (k+1)$$



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

Therefore if we assume P(k) is true, then P(k + 1) must also be true

Prove that if **n** is a positive integer, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ **Predicate:** P(n): $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Goal: Show that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Base Case: True!

Inductive Case: True!

Therefore since the Base Case and Inductive Case are both true, P(n) is true for all $n \ge 1$

Quick Summary

Prove that for all $n \ge b$, "..." is true.

P(n): "..."

Base Case: Show that P(b) is true

Inductive Case: We must show that if P(k) is true, then P(k + 1) is true Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that P(k) is true for an arbitrary positive integer $k \ge b$. We must now show that P(k + 1): "..." is true Given P(k + 1) = "..." More derivation... Given our Inductive Hypothesis show that P(k + 1) must be true Therefore $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$

Therefore both the Base Case and Inductive case are true, so **P**(**n**): "..." is true for all **n** ≥ **b**

Outline

- Sequences
- Summations
- Recurrence Relations
- Mathematical Induction
- Strong Induction

Strong Induction

Problem: What happens when our next term (at k + 1) depends on multiple previous terms (more than just term k)?
Strong Induction

Problem: What happens when our next term (at k + 1) depends on multiple previous terms (more than just term k)?

Example: The terms in the fibonacci sequence rely on two previous terms

Strong Induction

Principle of Strong Mathematical Induction

- Let *a*, *b* be integers with *a* ≤ *b*
- Let P(n) be a statement defined for any integer $n \ge a$

Then P(n) is true for all $n \ge a$ if the following two conditions hold:

- 1. P(a), P(a + 1), ..., P(b) are all individually true (the base cases)
- 2. For all $k \ge b$, $P(a) \land P(a + 1) \land ... \land P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ (the inductive case)

Proof Template

To formally prove something via strong induction, you must do **all** of the following:

- Express the statement being proved in the form " ∀n ≥ a, P(n) for a fixed integer a
- 2. Prove the **Base Cases**: show that **P(a)**, **P(a + 1)**, ..., **P(b)** are all true.
- 3. Prove the Inductive Case
 - a. Inductive Hypothesis: Assume P(i) is true for all i, where $a \le i \le k$ for an arbitrary $k \ge b$
 - b. State what must be proved under this assumption; write out P(k + 1)
 - c. Prove the statement P(k + 1) is true by using the inductive assumption
 - d. Clearly identify the conclusion
- 4. Now that you have proven the Base Case and Inductive Case, conclude that P(n) is true for all $n \ge a$ by the principle of strong mathematical induction

Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5

Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 P(n): For all $n \ge 12$, a class of size n can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 **Base Cases:**

Prove **P**(**n**) is true for **n** = 12, 13, 14, and 15

Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 P(n): For all $n \ge 12$, a class of size n can be divided into groups of 4 or 5

Base Cases:

Prove **P**(**n**) is true for **n** = 12, 13, 14, and 15

12 = 4 + 4 + 4 13 = 4 + 4 + 5 14 = 4 + 5 + 515 = 5 + 5 + 5

Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 P(n): For all $n \ge 12$, a class of size n can be divided into groups of 4 or 5

Base Cases:

Prove **P**(**n**) is true for **n** = 12, 13, 14, and 15

12 = 4 + 4 + 413 = 4 + 4 + 5

14 = 4 + 5 + 5

14 = 5 + 5 + 5 **Therefore** *P***(12)**, *P***(13)**, *P***(14)**, and *P***(15)** are all TRUE

Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 P(n): For all $n \ge 12$, a class of size n can be divided into groups of 4 or 5

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Prove **P**(**n**) is true for **n** = 12, 13, 14, and 15

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Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 P(n): For all $n \ge 12$, a class of size n can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 Inductive Case:

We must show that if P(i) is true for $12 \le i \le k$, where $k \ge 15$, then P(k + 1) must be true.

Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 P(n): For all $n \ge 12$, a class of size n can be divided into groups of 4 or 5

Inductive Case:

We must show that if P(i) is true for $12 \le i \le k$, where $k \ge 15$, then P(k + 1) must be true.

Inductive Hypothesis: Let *k* ≥ 15

Assume P(i) is true for all i, where $12 \le i \le k$. Notably, P(k - 3) is true...

Proof of the Inductive Case:

We must show that **P**(**k** + 1) is true.

From the k + 1 students, form a group of 4 students. Now (k + 1) - 4 = k - 3 students remain to be grouped.

By our inductive hypothesis P(k - 3) is true, so we can divide the remaining k - 3 students into groups of 4 or 5.

Therefore if P(i) is true for all *i*, where $12 \le i \le k$, then P(k + 1) must be true

Prove that a class of $n \ge 12$ students can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 P(n): For all $n \ge 12$, a class of size n can be divided into groups of 4 or 5 <u>Base Cases</u>: TRUE

Inductive Case: TRUE

Therefore by the principle of strong mathematical induction, we can conclude that P(n) is true for all $n \ge 12$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

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Do we need strong mathematical induction here?

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Do we need strong mathematical induction here? **Yes.** The later terms in our sequence rely on more than just the previous term.

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$.

- 1. Express the statement being proved in the form " $\forall n \ge a, P(n)$ for a fixed integer a
- 2. Prove the **Base Cases**: show that **P**(**a**), **P**(**a** + 1), ..., **P**(**b**) are all true.
- 3. Prove the Inductive Case
 - a. Inductive Hypothesis: Assume P(i) is true for all i, where $a \le i \le k$ for an arbitrary $k \ge b$
 - b. State what must be proved under this assumption; write out P(k + 1)
 - c. Prove the statement P(k + 1) is true by using the inductive assumption
 - d. Clearly identify the conclusion
- Now that you have proven the Base Case and Inductive Case, conclude that *P(n)* is true for all *n* ≥ *a* by the principle of strong mathematical induction

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Express the statement being proved in the form " ∀n ≥ a, P(n) for a fixed integer a

P(n): $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$, we will now show that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, P(n) is true

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$.

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2. Prove the **Base Cases**: show that P(a), P(a + 1), ..., P(b) are all true. $P(1): a_1 = 1, a_1 = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n = 3 \cdot 2^0 + 2(-1)^1 = 3 - 2 = 1$ $P(2): a_2 = 8, a_2 = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n = 3 \cdot 2^1 + 2(-1)^2 = 6 + 2 = 8$

Therefore our base cases, **P(1)** and **P(2)** are both true

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$.

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- 3. Prove the Inductive Case
 - a. <u>Inductive Hypothesis</u>: Assume P(i) is true for all i, where $a \le i \le k$ for an arbitrary $k \ge b$

Assume $P(i): a_i = 3 \cdot 2^{i-1} + 2(-1)^i$ for all $1 \le i \le k$, where $k \ge 2$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$.

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Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

b. State what must be proved under this assumption; write out P(k + 1)

Now we must prove that P(k + 1) is true. Specifically, we must show that $a_{k+1} = 3 \cdot 2^{k+1-1} + 2(-1)^{k+1}$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

c. Prove the statement P(k + 1) is true by using the inductive assumption We must show $a_{k+1} = 3 \cdot 2^{k+1-1} + 2(-1)^{k+1}$

 $\begin{aligned} a_{k+1} &= a_k + 2a_{k-1} \text{ (by definition of our recurrence relation)} \\ a_{k+1} &= 3 \cdot 2^{k-1} + 2(-1)^k + 2(3 \cdot 2^{k-2} + 2(-1)^{k-2}) \text{ (by subbing in our assumption)} \end{aligned}$

$$= 3 (2^{k-1} + 2^{k-1}) = 2 ((-1)^{k} + 2(-1)^{k-1}) = 3 \cdot 2^{k} + 2(-1)^{k+1}$$

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

c. Prove the statement P(k + 1) is true by using the inductive assumption

 $\begin{aligned} a_{k+1} &= a_k + 2a_{k-1} \text{ (by definition of our recurrence relation)} \\ a_{k+1} &= 3 \cdot 2^{k-1} + 2(-1)^k + 2(3 \cdot 2^{k-2} + 2(-1)^{k-2}) \text{ (by subbing in our assumption)} \end{aligned}$

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Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$.

- 1. Express the statement being proved in the form " $\forall n \ge a, P(n)$ for a fixed integer a
- 2. Prove the **Base Cases**: show that **P**(**a**), **P**(**a** + 1), ..., **P**(**b**) are all true.
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 - a. Inductive Hypothesis: Assume P(i) is true for all i, where $a \le i \le k$ for an arbitrary $k \ge b$
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- Now that you have proven the Base Case and Inductive Case, conclude that *P(n)* is true for all *n* ≥ *a* by the principle of strong mathematical induction

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

d. Clearly identify the conclusion

Therefore P(k+1) is true when P(i) is true for all $1 \le i \le k$, where $k \ge 2$

So the proof of the induction step is complete

Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$.

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Let $\{a_n\}$ be the sequence defined by $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 8$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 3$. Prove that $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 2(-1)^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

4. Now that you have proven the Base Case and Inductive Case, conclude that P(n) is true for all $n \ge a$ by the principle of strong mathematical induction

By the principle of strong mathematical induction, P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$