

## COMP 233 Discrete Mathematics

# Chapter 5 Sequences and Mathematical Induction



#### Outline

- Sequences:
  - Explicit Formulas;
  - Summation Notation;
  - Sequences in Computer Programming;
- Proof by Mathematical Induction (I and II)
  - Proving sum of integers and geometric sequences
  - Proving a Divisibility Property and Inequality
  - Proving a Property of a Sequence



## Sequences

**Idea:** Think of a sequence as a set of elements written in a row:

$$a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_n$$
 finite sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_n, \ldots$  infinite sequence

Each individual element a<sub>k</sub> is called a term.

The k in  $a_k$  is called a subscript or index

#### Observe patterns

Determine the number of points in the 4th and 5th figure

Determine the next 2 terms of the sequence 4, 8, 16, 32, 64

Induce the formula that could be used to determine any term in the sequence

# Finding Terms of Sequences Given by Explicit Formulas

Define sequences  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  and  $b_2, b_3, b_4, \ldots$  by the following explicit formulas:

 $a_k = \underline{k}$  for some integers  $k \ge 1$ 

 $b_i = \underline{i-1}$  for some integers  $i \ge 2$ 

Compute the first five terms of both sequences.

Compute the first six terms of the sequence  $c_0$ ,  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,... defined as follows:  $c_j = (-1)^j$  for all integers  $j \ge 0$ .

## Finding Explicit Formula to Fit Given Initial Terms

Find an explicit formula for a sequence that has the following initial terms:

$$1, \ -\frac{1}{4}, \ \frac{1}{9}, \ -\frac{1}{16}, \ \frac{1}{25}, \ -\frac{1}{36}, \dots$$

$$a_k = \frac{-1^{k+1}}{k^2}$$
 for all integers  $k \ge 1$ .

**OR** 

$$a_k = \frac{-1^k}{(k+1)^2}$$
 for all integers  $k \ge 0$ .

# Exercises

**Example:** Find an explicit formula for a sequence that has the following initial terms:

$$\frac{1}{3}$$
,  $-\frac{2}{4}$ ,  $\frac{3}{5}$ ,  $-\frac{4}{6}$ ,  $\frac{5}{7}$ ,  $-\frac{6}{8}$ ,...

**Solutions:** The sequence satisfies the formulas

for all integers 
$$n \ge 0$$
,  $a_n = (-1)^n \frac{n+1}{n+3}$ 

for all integers 
$$n \ge 1$$
,
$$a_n = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{n}{n+2}$$



#### Summation Notation

Suppose  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_n$  are real numbers. The "summation from i equals 1 to n of a-sub-i" is

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} = a_{1} + a_{2} + a_{3} + \dots + a_{n}.$$

#### Definition

If m and n are integers and  $m \le n$ , the symbol  $\sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k$ , read the summation from

**k equals m to n of a-sub-k**, is the sum of all the terms  $a_m$ ,  $a_{m+1}$ ,  $a_{m+2}$ , ...,  $a_n$ . We say that  $a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + ... + a_n$  is the **expanded form** of the sum, and we write

$$\sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k = a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + \cdots + a_n.$$

We call k the **index** of the summation, m the **lower limit** of the summation, and n the **upper limit** of the summation.



## Exercises

**Ex**: Use summation notation to write the following sum:

$$\frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{4} + \frac{3}{5} - \frac{4}{6} + \frac{5}{7} - \frac{6}{8}$$
.

**Solution**: By the example on the previous slide, we can write:

or:

$$\frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{4} + \frac{3}{5} - \frac{4}{6} + \frac{5}{7} - \frac{6}{8} = \sum_{n=0}^{5} (-1)^n \left( \frac{n+1}{n+3} \right).$$

$$\frac{1}{3} - \frac{2}{4} + \frac{3}{5} - \frac{4}{6} + \frac{5}{7} - \frac{6}{8} = \sum_{n=1}^{6} (-1)^{n+1} \left( \frac{n}{n+2} \right).$$

## Exercises

Let  $a_1 = -2$ ,  $a_2 = -1$ ,  $a_3 = 0$ ,  $a_4 = 1$ , and  $a_5 = 2$ . Compute the following:

a. 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{5} a_k$$

b. 
$$\sum_{k=2}^{2} a_k$$

a. 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{3} a_k$$
 b.  $\sum_{k=2}^{2} a_k$  c.  $\sum_{k=1}^{2} a_{2.k}$ 

#### Example 5.1.4 Computing Summations

Let  $a_1 = -2$ ,  $a_2 = -1$ ,  $a_3 = 0$ ,  $a_4 = 1$ , and  $a_5 = 2$ . Compute the following:

a. 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{5} a_k$$
 b.  $\sum_{k=2}^{2} a_k$  c.  $\sum_{k=1}^{2} a_{2k}$ 

b. 
$$\sum_{k=0}^{2} a_k$$

c. 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{2} a_{2k}$$

#### Solution

a. 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{5} a_k = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 + a_5 = (-2) + (-1) + 0 + 1 + 2 = 0$$

b. 
$$\sum_{k=2}^{2} a_k = a_2 = -1$$

c. 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{2} a_{2k} = a_{2 \cdot 1} + a_{2 \cdot 2} = a_2 + a_4 = -1 + 1 = 0$$



### Summation to Expanded Form

Write the following summation in expanded form:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^i}{i+1}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{i}}{i+1} = \frac{(-1)^{0}}{0+1} + \frac{(-1)^{1}}{1+1} + \frac{(-1)^{2}}{2+1} + \frac{(-1)^{3}}{3+1} + \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n}}{n+1}$$

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

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



## Expanded Form to Summation

Express the following using summation notation:

$$\frac{1}{n} + \frac{2}{n+1} + \frac{3}{n+2} + \ldots + \frac{n+1}{2n}$$

$$\frac{1}{n} + \frac{2}{n+1} + \frac{3}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{n+1}{2n} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k+1}{n+k}.$$



#### Separating Off a Final Term and Adding On a Final Term n

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

Rewrite  $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2}$  by separating off the final term.

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

Write 
$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k + 2^{n+1}$$
 as a single summation.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} 2^k + 2^{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} 2^k$$



## Telescoping Sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \left( \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+1} \right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4}\right) + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{n-1} - \frac{1}{n}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{n+1}.$$



#### **Product Notation**

#### Definition

If m and n are integers and  $m \le n$ , the symbol  $\prod_{k=m}^{n} a_k$ , read the **product from** k **equals** m **to** n **of** a-sub-k, is the product of all the terms  $a_m$ ,  $a_{m+1}$ ,  $a_{m+2}$ , ...,  $a_n$ . We write

$$\prod_{k=m}^n a_k = a_m \cdot a_{m+1} \cdot a_{m+2} \cdots a_n.$$

A recursive definition for the product notation is the following: If m is any integer, then

$$\prod_{k=m}^m a_k = a_m \quad \text{and} \quad \prod_{k=m}^n a_k = \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n-1} a_k\right) \cdot a_n \quad \text{for all integers } n > m.$$



## Computing Products

Compute the following products:

a. 
$$\prod_{k=1}^{5} k$$

$$b. \prod_{k=1}^{1} \frac{k}{k+1}$$

$$= 1/2$$



## Properties of Summations

#### Theorem 5.1.1

If  $a_m, a_{m+1}, a_{m+2}, \ldots$  and  $b_m, b_{m+1}, b_{m+2}, \ldots$  are sequences of real numbers and c is any real number, then the following equations hold for any integer  $n \ge m$ :

1. 
$$\sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k + \sum_{k=m}^{n} b_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n} (a_k + b_k)$$

2. 
$$c \cdot \sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n} c \cdot a_k$$
 generalized distributive law

3. 
$$\left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} a_k\right) \cdot \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} b_k\right) = \prod_{k=m}^{n} (a_k \cdot b_k).$$



Let  $a_k = k + 1$  and  $b_k = k - 1$  for all integers k. Write each of the following expressions as a single summation or product:

a. 
$$\sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k + 2 \cdot \sum_{k=m}^{n} b_k$$
 b. 
$$\left( \prod_{k=m}^{n} a_k \right) \cdot \left( \prod_{k=m}^{n} b_k \right)$$

#### Solution

a. 
$$\sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k + 2 \cdot \sum_{k=m}^{n} b_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n} (k+1) + 2 \cdot \sum_{k=m}^{n} (k-1)$$
 by substitution 
$$= \sum_{k=m}^{n} (k+1) + \sum_{k=m}^{n} 2 \cdot (k-1)$$
 by Theorem 5.1.1 (2) 
$$= \sum_{k=m}^{n} ((k+1) + 2 \cdot (k-1))$$
 by Theorem 5.1.1 (1) 
$$= \sum_{k=m}^{n} (3k-1)$$
 by algebraic simplification

b. 
$$\left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} a_{k}\right) \cdot \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} b_{k}\right) = \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} (k+1)\right) \cdot \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} (k-1)\right)$$
 by substitution 
$$= \prod_{k=m}^{n} (k+1) \cdot (k-1)$$
 by Theorem 5.1.1 (3) 
$$= \prod_{k=m}^{n} (k^{2}-1)$$
 by algebraic simplification



## Change of Variable

**Example:** Transform  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^n$  by making the change of variable j = k - 1.

When 
$$k = 1$$
, then  $j = 1 - 1 = 0$ 

When 
$$k = n$$
, then  $j = n - 1$ 

$$j = k - 1 \implies k = j + 1$$
 Thus  $k^n = (j + 1)^n$ 

So: 
$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^n = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (j+1)^n$$



## Exercises

Transform the following summation by making the specified change of variable.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{6} \frac{1}{k+1}$$
 Change variable  $j = k+1$ 

$$\sum_{j=1}^{7} \frac{1}{j} = \sum_{k=1}^{7} \frac{1}{k}.$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{6} \frac{1}{k+1} = \sum_{k=1}^{7} \frac{1}{k}$$



## Exercises

Transform the following summation by making the specified change of variable.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{k}{n+k}$$

For (k=1; k<=n+1; k++) Sum = Sum + k/(n+k)

Change of variable: j = k - 1

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{j+1}{n+(j+1)} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k+1}{n+(k+1)}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{k}{n+k} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k+1}{n+(k+1)}$$

For (k=0; k<=n; k++) Sum = Sum + (k+1)/(n+k+1)



## Sequences in Computer Programming

#### What is the difference

1. for 
$$i := 1$$
 to  $n$ 
2. for  $j := 0$  to  $n-1$ 
3. for  $k := 2$  to  $n+1$ 
print  $a[i]$ 
print  $a[j+1]$ 
print  $a[k-1]$ 
next  $i$ 
next  $j$ 
next  $k$ 

## Computing the sum

$$s := a[1]$$
  $s := 0$   
for  $k := 2$  to  $n$  for  $k := 1$  to  $n$   
 $s := s + a[k]$   $s := s + a[k]$   
next  $k$  next  $k$ 



$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \frac{k}{n+k} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{k+1}{n+(k+1)}$$

## **Sum=0** For (k=0; k<=n; k++)

Sum = Sum + (k+1)/(n+k+1)



#### Factorial!

#### Definition

For each positive integer n, the quantity n factorial denoted n!, is defined to be the product of all the integers from 1 to n:

$$n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \cdot \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1.$$

Zero factorial, denoted 0!, is defined to be 1:

$$0! = 1.$$



#### Example 5.1.16 Computing with Factorials

Simplify the following expressions:

b. 
$$\frac{5!}{2! \cdot 3}$$

a. 
$$\frac{8!}{7!}$$
 b.  $\frac{5!}{2! \cdot 3!}$  c.  $\frac{1}{2! \cdot 4!} + \frac{1}{3! \cdot 3!}$  d.  $\frac{(n+1)!}{n!}$  e.  $\frac{n!}{(n-3)!}$ 

d. 
$$\frac{(n+1)!}{n!}$$

e. 
$$\frac{n!}{(n-3)!}$$

#### Solution

a. 
$$\frac{8!}{7!} = \frac{8 \cdot 7!}{7!} = 8$$

b. 
$$\frac{5!}{2! \cdot 3!} = \frac{5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3!}{2! \cdot 3!} = \frac{5 \cdot 4}{2 \cdot 1} = 10$$

c. 
$$\frac{1}{2! \cdot 4!} + \frac{1}{3! \cdot 3!} = \frac{1}{2! \cdot 4!} \cdot \frac{3}{3} + \frac{1}{3! \cdot 3!} \cdot \frac{4}{4}$$
$$= \frac{3}{3 \cdot 2! \cdot 4!} + \frac{4}{3! \cdot 4 \cdot 3!}$$
$$= \frac{3}{3! \cdot 4!} + \frac{4}{3! \cdot 4!}$$
$$= \frac{7}{3! \cdot 4!}$$
$$= \frac{7}{144}$$

by multiplying each numerator and denominator by just what is necessary to obtain a common denominator

by rearranging factors

because  $3 \cdot 2! = 3!$  and  $4 \cdot 3! = 4!$ 

by the rule for adding fractions with a common denominator

d. 
$$\frac{(n+1)!}{n!} = \frac{(n+1) \cdot n!}{n!} = n+1$$

e. 
$$\frac{n!}{(n-3)!} = \frac{n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdot (n-3)!}{(n-3)!} = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2)$$
$$= n^3 - 3n^2 + 2n$$



#### n choose r

#### Definition

Let *n* and *r* be integers with  $0 \le r \le n$ . The symbol

$$\binom{n}{r}$$

is read "**n** choose **r**" and represents the number of subsets of size **r** that can be chosen from a set with **n** elements.

Observe that the definition implies that  $\binom{n}{r}$  will always be an integer because it is a number of subsets. In Section 9.5 we will explore many uses of n choose r for solving problems involving counting, and we will prove the following computational formula:

#### • Formula for Computing $\binom{n}{r}$

For all integers n and r with  $0 \le r \le n$ ,

$$\binom{n}{r} = \frac{n!}{r!(n-r)!}.$$



#### Example 5.1.17 Computing $\binom{n}{r}$ by Hand

Use the formula for computing  $\binom{n}{r}$  to evaluate the following expressions:

a. 
$$\binom{8}{5}$$

b. 
$$\binom{4}{0}$$

b. 
$$\binom{4}{0}$$
 c.  $\binom{n+1}{n}$ 

#### Solution

a. 
$$\binom{8}{5} = \frac{8!}{5!(8-5)!}$$

$$= \frac{8 \cdot 7 \cdot 6 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{(5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1) \cdot (\cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)}$$
always cancel common factors before multiplying
$$= 56.$$

b. 
$$\binom{4}{4} = \frac{4!}{4!(4-4)!} = \frac{4!}{4!0!} = \frac{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{(4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)(1)} = 1$$

The fact that 0! = 1 makes this formula computable. It gives the correct value because a set of size 4 has exactly one subset of size 4, namely itself.

c. 
$$\binom{n+1}{n} = \frac{(n+1)!}{n!((n+1)-n)!} = \frac{(n+1)!}{n!1!} = \frac{(n+1) \cdot n!}{n!} = n+1$$

5.2

#### **Mathematical Induction**



## Mathematical Induction: A Way to Prove Such Formulas and Other Things

Given an integer variable n, we can consider a variety of properties P(n) that might be true or false for various values of n. For instance, we could consider

$$P(n)$$
:  $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2n-1) = n^2$ 

P(n):  $4^n - 1$  is divisible by 3

P(n): *n* cents can be obtained using 3¢ and 5¢ coins.

■ A proof by mathematical induction: shows that a given property P(n) is true for all integers greater than or equal to some initial integer.



#### Principle of Mathematical Induction

Let P(n) be a property that is defined for integers n, and let a be a fixed integer. Suppose the following two statements are true:

- P(a) is true.
- 2. For all integers  $k \ge a$ , if P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true.

Then the statement

for all integers  $n \ge a$ , P(n)

is true.



# Outline of Proof by Mathematical Induction

#### Method of Proof by Mathematical Induction

Consider a statement of the form, "For all integers  $n \ge a$ , a property P(n) is true." To prove such a statement, perform the following two steps:

Step 1 (basis step): Show that P(a) is true.

Step 2 (inductive step): Show that for all integers  $k \ge a$ , if P(k) is true then P(k+1) is true. To perform this step,

**suppose** that P(k) is true, where k is any particular but arbitrarily chosen integer with  $k \ge a$ .

[This supposition is called the inductive hypothesis.]

Then

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



### Mathematical Induction: Example

**Example:** Prove that for all integers  $n \ge 1$ ,

$$1+3+5+7+\cdots+(2n-1) = n^2$$
.

**Proof:** Let the property P(n) be the equation

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2n-1) = n^2 \qquad \leftarrow \text{The property } P(n)$$

Show that the property is true for n = 1: Basis Step

When n = 1, the property is the equation  $1 = 1^2$ . But the left-hand side (LHS) of this equation is 1, and the right-hand side (RHS) is  $1^2$ , which equals 1 also. So the property is true for n = 1.



Inductive Step for the proof that for all integers 
$$n \ge 1$$
,  $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2n - 1) = n^2$ .

- Show that  $\forall$  integers  $k \geq 1$ , if p(k) is true then it is true for p(k)<u>k+1):</u>
- Let k be any integer with  $k \ge 1$ , and suppose that the property is true for n = k. In other words, suppose that
- $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2k-1) = k^2$ . | Inductive Hypothesis

- We must show that the property is true for n = k + 1.
- $P(k+1) = (k+1)^2$
- or, equivalently, we must **show** that
- $1+3+5+7+\cdots+(2(k+1)-1)=(k+1)^2$ .



Inductive hypothesis: 
$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2k - 1) = k^2$$
.

**Show:** 
$$1+3+5+7+\cdots+(2k+1)=(k+1)^2$$
.

But the LHS of the equation to be shown is

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2(k+1)-1)$$

$$= 1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \cdots + (2k-1) + (2(k+1)-1)$$
by making the next-to-last-term explicit
$$= k^2 + (2k+1)$$
by substitution from the inductive hypothesis
$$= (k+1)^2$$
by algebra,

which equals the RHS of the equation to be shown.

So, the property is true for n = k+1. Therefore the property P(n) is true.



### Proving sum of integers and geometric sequence

Formula for the sum of the first n integers: For all integers  $n \ge 1$ ,

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

Formula for the sum of the terms of a geometric sequence: For all real numbers  $r \neq 1$  and all integers  $n \geq 0$ ,

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



## Example

#### Theorem 5.2.2 Sum of the First *n* Integers

For all integers  $n \ge 1$ ,

$$1+2+\cdots+n=\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
.

#### **Proof (by mathematical induction):**

Let the property P(n) be the equation

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

#### Show that P(1) is true:

To establish P(1), we must show that

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} \qquad \qquad \leftarrow \quad {}^{P(1)}$$

But the left-hand side of this equation is 1 and the right-hand side is

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

also. Hence P(1) is true.

Show that for all integers  $k \ge 1$ , if P(k) is true then P(k+1) is also true: [Suppose that P(k) is true for a particular but arbitrarily chosen integer  $k \ge 1$ . That is:] Suppose that k is any integer with  $k \ge 1$  such that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$
  $\leftarrow P(k)$  inductive hypothesis

[We must show that P(k + 1) is true. That is:] We must show that

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

or, equivalently, that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}. \leftarrow P(k+1)$$

#### Exercises

The left-hand side of P(k + 1) is

$$1+2+3+\cdots+(k+1)$$

$$= 1+2+3+\cdots+k+(k+1)$$
 by making the next-to-last term explicit
$$= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1)$$
 by substitution from the inductive hypothesis
$$= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + \frac{2(k+1)}{2}$$

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

$$= \frac{k^2+3k+1}{2}$$
 by algebra.

And the right-hand side of P(k + 1) is

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

Thus the two sides of P(k + 1) are equal to the same quantity and so they are equal to each other. Therefore the equation P(k + 1) is true [as was to be shown]. [Since we have proved both the basis step and the inductive step, we conclude that the theorem is true.]



#### Definition Closed Form

If a sum with a variable number of terms is shown to be equal to a formula that does not contain either an ellipsis or a summation symbol, we say that it is written in closed form.

a. Evaluate 
$$2 + 4 + 6 + \cdots + 500$$
.

b. Evaluate 
$$5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + \cdots + 50$$
.

c. For an integer 
$$h \ge 2$$
, write  $1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + (h - 1)$  in closed form.

#### Solution

a. 
$$2+4+6+\cdots+500 = 2\cdot(1+2+3+\cdots+250)$$

$$= 2\cdot\left(\frac{250\cdot251}{2}\right)$$
by applying the formula for the sum of the first  $n$  integers with  $n=250$ 

$$= 62,750.$$

b. 
$$5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + \dots + 50 = (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + 50) - (1 + 2 + 3 + 4)$$

$$= \frac{50 \cdot 51}{2} - 10$$
by applying the formula for the sum of the first *n* integers with  $n = 50$ 

$$= 1,265$$

c. 
$$1+2+3+\cdots+(h-1)=\frac{(h-1)\cdot[(h-1)+1]}{2}$$
 by applying the formula for the sum of the first  $n$  integers with  $n=h-1$  
$$=\frac{(h-1)\cdot h}{2}$$
 since  $(h-1)+1=h$ .

# Proving Sum of Geometric Sequences

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^{i} = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}.$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{0} r^{i} = \frac{r^{0+1} - 1}{r - 1} \leftarrow P(0) = \frac{r - 1}{r - 1} = 1$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} r^{i} = \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} \leftarrow P(k)$$
inductive hypothesis

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^{i} = \frac{r^{k+2} - 1}{r - 1}. \leftarrow P(k+1)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{k} r^{i} + r^{k+1}$$

$$= \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} + r^{k+1}$$

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

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

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

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

#### Theorem 5.2.3 Sum of a Geometric Sequence



For any real number r except 1, and any integer  $n \ge 0$ ,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^{i} = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}.$$

#### **Proof (by mathematical induction):**

Suppose r is a particular but arbitrarily chosen real number that is not equal to 1, and let the property P(n) be the equation

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^{i} = \frac{r^{i+1} - 1}{r - 1} \quad \leftarrow P(n)$$

We must show that P(n) is true for all integers  $n \ge 0$ . We do this by mathematical induction on n.

#### Show that P(0) is true:

To establish P(0), we must show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{0} r^{i} = \frac{r^{0+1} - 1}{r - 1} \leftarrow P(0)$$

The left-hand side of this equation is  $r^0 = 1$  and the right-hand side is

$$\frac{r^{0+1}-1}{r-1} = \frac{r-1}{r-1} = 1$$



Show that for all integers  $k \ge 0$ , if P(k) is true then P(k+1) is also true: [Suppose that P(k) is true for a particular but arbitrarily chosen integer  $k \ge 0$ . That is:] Let k be any integer with  $k \ge 0$ , and suppose that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k} r^{i} = \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} \quad \leftarrow P(k)$$
inductive hypothesis



[We must show that P(k + 1) is true. That is:] We must show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^i = \frac{r^{(k+1)+1} - 1}{r - 1},$$

or, equivalently, that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^i = \frac{r^{k+2} - 1}{r - 1}. \leftarrow P(k+1)$$

[We will show that the left-hand side of P(k + 1) equals the right-hand side.] The left-hand side of P(k + 1) is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^{i} = \sum_{i=0}^{k} r^{i} + r^{k+1}$$
 by writing the  $(k+1)$ st term separately from the first  $k$  terms
$$= \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} + r^{k+1}$$
 by substitution from the inductive hypothesis
$$= \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} + \frac{r^{k+1}(r - 1)}{r - 1}$$
 by multiplying the numerator and denominator of the second term by  $(r - 1)$  to obtain a common denominator
$$= \frac{(r^{k+1} - 1) + r^{k+1}(r - 1)}{r - 1}$$
 by adding fractions
$$= \frac{r^{k+1} - 1 + r^{k+2} - r^{k+1}}{r - 1}$$
 by multiplying out and using the fact that  $r^{k+1} \cdot r = r^{k+1} \cdot r^1 = r^{k+2}$  by canceling the  $r^{k+1}$ 's.

which is the right-hand side of P(k + 1) [as was to be shown.] [Since we have proved the basis step and the inductive step, we conclude that the theorem



a. 
$$1 + 3 + 3^2 + \cdots + 3^{m-2} = 3^{(m-2)+1} - 1/3 - 1$$

by applying the formula for the sum of a geometric sequence with r = 3 and

$$n = m - 2$$

$$= \frac{3^{m-1} - 1}{2}$$

$$3^2 + 3^3 + 3^4 + \cdots + 3^m = 3^2 \cdot (1 + 3 + 3^2 + \cdots + 3^{m-2})$$

by factoring out 3<sup>2</sup>

$$= 9 \times \frac{3^{m-1}-1}{2}$$
 by part (a).



### Mathematics in Programming

Example: Finding the sum of a integers

**Same Question:** Prove that these programs prints the same results in case  $n \ge 1$ 

```
For (i=1, i \le n; i++)

S=S+i;

Print ("%d", S);

S=(n(n+1))/2

Print ("%d",S);
```



## Mathematics in Programming

Example: Finding the sum of a geometric series

Prove that these codes will return the same output.

```
int n, r, sum=0;
int i;
scanf("%d",&n);
scanf("%d",&r);

if(r != 1) {
   for(i=0; i<=n; i++) {
      sum = sum + pow(r,i);
   }
   printf("%d\n", sum);
}</pre>
```

```
int n, r, sum=0;
scanf("%d",&n);
scanf("%d",&r);

if(r != 1) {
        sum=((pow(r,n+1))-1)/(r-1);
        printf("%d\n", sum);
}
```

5.3

# Mathematical Induction II Proving Divisibility



# Mathematics in Programming Proving Divisibility Property

What will the output of this program be for any input n?

```
int n; scanf("%d",&n);  if(n >= 0) \{ \\ if( (pow(2,(2*n)) - 1) \%3 == 0) \\ printf("this property is true"); \\ else \\ printf("this property isn't true"); \}
```



## Proving a Divisibility Property

For all integers  $n \ge 0$ ,  $2^{2n} - 1$  is divisible by 3.

$$3 \mid 2^{2n} - 1 \leftarrow P(n)$$

Basis Step: Show that P(0) is true.

$$P(0)$$
:  $2^{2.0} - 1 = 2^{0} - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$  as  $3 \mid 0$ , thus  $P(0)$  is true.

Inductive Step: Show that for all integers  $k \ge 0$ , if P(k) is true then P(k + 1) is also true:

Suppose: 
$$2^{2k} - 1$$
 is divisible by 3.  $\leftarrow P(k)$  inductive hypothesis  $2^{2k} - 1 = 3r$  for some integer  $r$ .

We want to prove  $2^{2(k+1)}-1$  is divisible by 3.  $\leftarrow P(k+1)$ 

$$2^{2(k+1)} - 1 = 2^{2k+2} - 1$$
 by the laws of exponents  
=  $2^{2k} \cdot 2^2 - 1 = 2^{2k} \cdot 4 - 1$   
=  $2^{2k}(3+1) - 1 = 2^{2k} \cdot 3 + (2^{2k}-1) = 2^{2k} \cdot 3 + 3r$   
=  $3(2^{2k} + r)$  Which is integer

so, by definition of divisibility,  $2^{2(k+1)} - 1$  is divisible by 3



#### Outline a proof by math induction for the statement: For all integers $n \ge 0$ , $5^n - 1$ is divisible by 4.

#### Proof by mathematical induction:

Let the property P(n) be the sentence  $5^n - 1$  is divisible by 4.  $\leftarrow$  **the property** P(n)

Show that the property is true for n = 0:

We must show that  $5^{0} - 1$  is divisible by 4.

But  $5^{\mathbf{0}} - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0$ , and 0 is divisible by 4 because  $0 = 4 \cdot 0$ .

Show that for all integers  $k \ge 0$ , if the property is true for n = k, then it is true for n = k + 1:

Let k be an integer with  $k \ge 0$ , and **suppose** that [the property is true for n = k.

 $5^k-1$  is divisible by 4.  $\leftarrow$  inductive hypothesis We must show that P(k+1) is true.

 $5^{k+1} - 1$  is divisible by 4.



# Scratch Work for proving that For all integers $n \ge 0$ , $5^n - 1$ is divisible by 4.

$$5^{k+1}-1 = 5^{k} \cdot 5 - 1$$

$$= 5^{k} \cdot (4+1) - 1$$

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

$$= 5^{k} \cdot 4 + (5^{k} - 1)$$

Note: Each of these terms is divisible by 4.

**So:** 
$$5^{k+1}-1 = 5^k \cdot 4 + 4 \cdot r$$
 (where r is an integer)  $= 4 \cdot (5^k + r)$ 

 $(5^k + r)$  is an integer because it is a sum of products of integers, and so, by definition of divisibility  $5^{k+1}-1$  is divisible by 4.

# Proving Inequality

For all integers  $n \ge 3$ ,  $2n + 1 < 2^n$ 

Let 
$$P(n)$$
 be  $2n+1<2^n$ 

Basis Step: Show that P(3) is true. P(3):  $2.3+1 < 2^3$  which is true.

Inductive Step: Show that for all integers  $k \ge 3$ , if P(k) is true then P(k + 1) is also true:

Suppose: 
$$2k+1<2^k$$
 is true  $\leftarrow P(k)$  inductive hypothesis

$$2(k+1) + 1 < 2^{k+1} \leftarrow P(k+1)$$

$$2k+3 = (2k+1) + 2$$
 by algebra

$$< 2^k + 2^k$$
 as  $2k + 1 < 2^k$  by the hypothesis and because  $2 < 2^k$   $(k \ge 2)$ 

$$\therefore 2k + 3 < 2 \cdot 2^k = 2^{k+1}$$

[This is what we needed to show.]



#### Exercise

For each positive integer n, let P(n) be the property

$$2^n < (n+1)!$$



### Proving a Property of a Sequence

Define a sequence  $a_1$ ,  $a_2$ ,  $a_3$  . . . as follows:

$$a_1 = 2$$
  
 $a_k = 5a_{k-1}$  for all integers  $k \ge 2$ .

$$a_1 = 2$$
  
 $a_2 = 5a_{2-1} = 5a_1 = 5 \cdot 2 = 10$   
 $a_3 = 5a_{3-1} = 5a_2 = 5 \cdot 10 = 50$   
 $a_4 = 5a_{4-1} = 5a_3 = 5 \cdot 50 = 250$ 

Property  $\rightarrow$  The terms of the sequence satisfy the equation  $a_n = 2 \cdot 5^{n-1}$ 

### Proving a Property of a Sequence

#### Prove this property:

$$a_n = 2 \cdot 5^{n-1}$$
 for all integers  $n \ge 1$ 

Basis Step: Show that P(1) is true.  $a_1 = 2 \cdot 5^{1-1} = 2 \cdot 5^0 = 2$ 

Inductive Step: Show that for all integers  $k \ge 1$ , if P(k) is true then P(k + 1) is also true:

Suppose: 
$$a_k = 2 \cdot 5^{k-1}$$
  $\leftarrow P(k)$  inductive hypothesis
$$a_{k+1} = 2 \cdot 5^k \qquad \leftarrow P(k+1)$$

$$= 5a_{(k+1)-1} \qquad \text{by definition of } a_1, a_2, a_3 \dots$$

$$= 5a_k \qquad \qquad = 5 \cdot (2 \cdot 5^{k-1}) \qquad \text{by the hypothesis}$$

$$= 2 \cdot (5 \cdot 5^{k-1})$$

$$= 2 \cdot 5^k$$

[This is what we needed to show.]



#### **Important Formulas**

Formula for the sum of the first n integers: For all integers  $n \ge 1$ ,

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

Formula for the sum of the terms of a geometric sequence: For all real numbers  $r \neq 1$  and all integers  $n \geq 0$ ,

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

#### Exercises

a. 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + 100 = \frac{100(100 + 1)}{2} = 50(101) = 5050$$

**b.** 
$$1+2+3+\cdots+k=\frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$

c. 
$$1+2+3+\cdots+(k-1)=\frac{(k-1)((k-1)+1)}{2}=\frac{(k-1)k}{2}$$

d. 
$$4+5+6+\cdots+(k-1)=(1+2+3+\cdots+(k-1))-(1+2+3)$$
  
=  $\frac{k(k-1)}{2}-(1+2+3)=\frac{k(k-1)}{2}-6$ 

**e.** 
$$3 + 3^2 + 3^3 + \cdots + 3^k = (1 + 3 + 3^2 + 3^3 + \cdots + 3^k) - 1 = \frac{3^{k+1} - 1}{3 - 1} - 1$$

$$= \frac{3^{k+1}-1}{2} - 1 = \frac{3^{k+1}-1}{2} - \frac{2}{2} = \frac{3^{k+1}-3}{2}$$

**f.** 
$$3 + 3^2 + 3^3 + \cdots + 3^k = 3(1 + 3 + 3^2 + \cdots + 3^{k-1})$$
  
=  $3\left(\frac{3^{(k-1)+1} - 1}{3 - 1}\right) = \frac{3(3^k - 1)}{2}$ 

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