## MATH 135 Fall 2020: Extra Practice 4

## Warm-Up Exercises

**WE01**. Evaluate 
$$\sum_{i=3}^{8} 2^i$$
 and  $\prod_{j=1}^{5} \frac{j}{3}$ .

Solution. Simply expand along the sum/product:

$$\sum_{i=3}^{8} 2^{i} = 2^{3} + 2^{4} + 2^{5} + 2^{6} + 2^{7} + 2^{8} = 8 + 16 + 32 + 64 + 128 + 256 = 504$$

and

$$\prod_{j=1}^{5} \frac{j}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{3}{3} \cdot \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{5}{3} = \frac{120}{243} = \frac{40}{81}$$

**WE02**. Let x be a real number. Using the Binomial Theorem, expand  $\left(x-\frac{1}{x}\right)^7$ .

Solution. Recall the Binomial Theorem, that  $(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$ . Now, substitute a=x and  $b=-\frac{1}{x}$ .

$$\left(x - \frac{1}{x}\right)^{7} = \sum_{k=0}^{7} {7 \choose k} x^{7-k} \left(-\frac{1}{x}\right)^{k}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{7} {7 \choose k} x^{7-k} x^{-k} (-1)^{k}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{7} {7 \choose k} (-1)^{k} x^{7-2k}$$

$$= x^{7} - 7x^{7-2} + 21x^{7-4} - 35x^{7-6} + 35x^{7-8} - 21x^{7-10} + 7x^{7-12} - x^{7-14}$$

$$= x^{7} - 7x^{5} + 21x^{3} - 35x + \frac{35}{x} - \frac{21}{x^{3}} + \frac{7}{x^{5}} - \frac{1}{x^{7}}$$

## Recommended Problems

**RP01**. Prove the following statements by induction.

(a) For all 
$$n \in \mathbb{N}$$
,  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} (2i - 1) = n^2$ .

*Proof.* We will induct the statement  $P(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n} (2i - 1) = n^2$  on n. (Base Case) When n = 1, the left-hand side is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{1} (2i - 1) = 2(1) - 1$$

$$= 1$$

$$= 1^{2}$$

1

which is the right-hand side, so P(1) holds.

(Inductive Step) Now, suppose that P(k) holds for an arbitrary k. Then, we take the left-hand side of P(k+1)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} (2i-1) = (2(k+1)-1) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} (2i-1)$$
 by inductive hypothesis 
$$= (k+1)^2$$

as desired to show that if P(k) holds, then P(k+1) holds.

Therefore, by induction, P(n) holds for all n.

(b) For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^i = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$  where r is any real number such that  $r \neq 1$ .

*Proof.* Let r be an arbitrary real other than 1. We will induct the statement  $P(n) \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{n} r^{i} = \frac{1-r^{n+1}}{1-r}$  on n.

(Base Case) For n = 1, substitute into the LHS and expand the summation:

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

This is precisely the RHS of the equality, so P(1) holds.

(Inductive Step) Now, suppose that P(k) holds for an arbitrary k. Again, expand the summation but for the LHS of P(k+1):

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^i &= r^{k+1} + \sum_{i=0}^k r^i \\ &= r^{k+1} + \frac{1-r^{k+1}}{1-r} \qquad \text{by inductive hypothesis} \\ &= \frac{(r^{k+1})(1-r) + 1 - r^{k+1}}{1-r} \\ &= \frac{r^{k+1} - r^{k+2} + 1 - r^{k+1}}{1-r} \\ &= \frac{1-r^{k+2}}{1-r} \end{split}$$

which is the other side of the equality. We have proved that if P(n) holds, then P(n+1) holds. Therefore, by induction, P(n) holds for all natural n.

(c) For all 
$$n \in \mathbb{N}$$
,  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{(i+1)!} = 1 - \frac{1}{(n+1)!}$ .

*Proof.* We will induct the statement  $P(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{(i+1)!} = 1 - \frac{1}{(n+1)!}$  on n.

First, verify the base case, P(1). Then, we let n = 1 and have

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

Expanding the summation, we can show that P(1) holds:

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

Now, suppose P(k) is true for some k, and consider P(k+1):

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

Like above, we take out a term of the summation and simplify, so we have

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \frac{i}{(i+1)!} &= \frac{k+1}{(k+2)!} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{i}{(i+1)!} \\ &= \frac{k+1}{(k+2)!} + 1 - \frac{1}{(k+1)!} \\ &= 1 + \frac{(k+1) - (k+2)}{(k+2)!} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{(k+2)!} \end{split}$$
 by inductive hypothesis

as required. We have proven P(1) and that P(k) implies P(k+1), so, by induction, P(n) is true for all natural n.

(d) For all 
$$n \in \mathbb{N}$$
,  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{2^{i}} = 2 - \frac{n+2}{2^{n}}$ .

*Proof.* For induction on n, let  $P(n) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{2^i} = 2 - \frac{n+2}{2^n}$ . Verify the base case P(1):

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

Suppose that P(k) holds for some k, and consider P(k+1). Now,

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \frac{i}{2^i} &= \frac{k+1}{2^{k+1}} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{2^i} \\ &= \frac{k+1}{2^{k+1}} + 2 - \frac{k+2}{2^k} \\ &= 2 + \frac{k+1-2(k+2)}{2^{k+1}} \\ &= 2 - \frac{k+3}{2^{k+1}} \end{split}$$
 by inductive hypothesis

as required. Because P(1) holds and P(k) implies P(k+1), by induction, P(n) holds for all n.

(e) For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , where  $n \geq 4$ ,  $n! > n^2$ .

*Proof.* We will prove by induction on n. Let P(n) be the statement  $n! > n^2$ .

To verify the base case P(4), notice that 4! = 24, that  $4^2 = 16$ , and that 24 > 16.

Now, suppose that P(k) is true for some  $k \geq 4$ . We must show that P(k+1) holds, i.e.,  $(k+1)! > (k+1)^2$ .

First, notice that  $x^2 > x+1$  for all  $x \ge 4$ . Then, we can state the inductive hypothesis as k! > k+1. Multiplying both sides by k+1 gives  $(k+1)! > (k+1)^2$ , as desired.

Therefore, by induction,  $n! > n^2$  for all  $n \ge 4$ .

(f) For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $4^n - 1$  is divisible by 3.

*Proof.* Induct the statement " $4^n - 1$  is divisible by 3" on n.

For the base case, let n = 1 so  $4^1 - 1 = 3$  and 3 is obviously divisible by 3.

Now, suppose that  $4^k - 1$  is divisible by 3 for some natural number k. By definition, there exists an integer a where  $4^k - 1 = 3a$ .

Consider when n = k + 1. Rearranging,  $4^{k+1} - 1 = (4^{k+1} - 4) + 3 = 4(4^k - 1) + 3$ . By our inductive hypothesis, this is equal to 4(3a) + 3 = 3(4a + 1). Then, since  $4^{k+1} - 1$  can be written as 3b for some integer b (namely, b = 4a + 1), it is by definition divisible by 3.

Therefore, by induction,  $4^n - 1$  is divisible by 3 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**RP02**. Let x be a real number. Find the coefficient of  $x^{19}$  in the expansion of  $(2x^3 - 3x)^9$ .

Solution. Recall the Binomial Theorem,  $(a+b)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} a^{n-k} b^k$ . Let  $a=2x^3$ , b=-3x, and n=9. Then, we have  $(2x^3-3x)^9 = \sum_{k=0}^9 \binom{9}{k} 2^{9-k} (-3)^k x^{27-2k}$ . We only care about when the exponent on x is 19, i.e.,  $27-2k=19 \implies k=4$ . On this term of the summation, we have  $\binom{9}{4} 2^5 (-3)^4 x^{19}$ .

The coefficient is  $\binom{9}{4} 2^5 (-3)^4 = 126 \cdot 32 \cdot 81 = 326592$ .

**RP03**. Let n be a non-negative integer. Prove that  $\sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} = 2^n$ .

*Proof.* We will induct the statement  $P(n) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \choose k} = 2^n$  on  $n \ge 0$ .

For the base case, P(0), we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{0} \binom{0}{k} = \binom{0}{0} = 1 = 2^{0}.$$

Now, suppose P(m) is true for some  $m \ge 0$ . Consider the summation in P(m+1):

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m+1} \binom{m+1}{k} = \binom{m+1}{m+1} + \sum_{k=0}^{m} \binom{m+1}{k}$$

$$= \binom{m+1}{m+1} + \sum_{k=0}^{m} \binom{m}{k} + \binom{m}{k-1}$$
 by Pascal's identity
$$= \binom{m+1}{m+1} + \sum_{k=0}^{m} \binom{m}{k} + \sum_{k=0}^{m} \binom{m}{k-1}$$

$$= 1 + 2^k + \sum_{k=0}^{m} \binom{m}{k-1}$$
 by inductive hypothesis

Recall that negative binomial coefficients are undefined, so we can change the variable in the summation with j = k + 1 and ignore the k = 0 term. Add and subtract a  $\binom{m}{m}$  term to round out the summation and apply the IH once more:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{m+1} \binom{m+1}{k} = 1 + 2^k + \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \binom{m}{j}$$

$$= 1 + 2^k + \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \binom{m}{j} + \binom{m}{m} - \binom{m}{m}$$

$$= 1 + 2^k + \sum_{j=0}^{m} \binom{m}{j} - 1$$

$$= 1 + 2^k + 2^k - 1$$
 by inductive hypothesis
$$= 2^{k+1}$$

which is what we wanted to show that P(m+1) is true.

Therefore, by induction, P(n) is true for all non-negative integer n.

**RP04**. Let n be a non-negative integer. Prove by induction on k that  $\sum_{j=0}^{k} {n+j \choose j} = {n+k+1 \choose k}$  for all non-negative integers k.

*Proof.* Let  $n \ge 0$  be an integer, and let P(k) be the statement  $\sum_{j=0}^{k} {n+j \choose j} = {n+k+1 \choose k}$ . We will induct P(k) on k.

For the base case, let k = 0. Then, P(k) reads  $\sum_{j=0}^{0} {n+j \choose j} = {n+1 \choose 0}$ . The summation only has one term, so we have  ${n \choose 0} = {n+1 \choose 0}$  which is true for all n (since  ${a \choose 0} = 1$  for all a).

Now, suppose that P(s) holds for some non-negative integer s.

This means that  $\sum_{j=0}^{s} {n+j \choose j} = {n+s+1 \choose s}$ . Now, consider the left-hand side of P(s+1):

$$\sum_{j=0}^{s+1} \binom{n+j}{j} = \binom{n+s+1}{s+1} + \sum_{j=0}^{s} \binom{n+j}{j}$$

$$= \binom{n+s+1}{s+1} + \binom{n+s+1}{s}$$
 by inductive hypothesis
$$= \binom{n+s+2}{s+1}$$
 by Pascal's identity

which is exactly the right-hand side. Since P(n) is true for n = 0 and P(s) implies P(s+1), it holds for all  $n \ge 0$  by induction.

**RP05**. The sequence  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots$  is defined recursively by  $x_1 = 8$ ,  $x_2 = 32$ , and  $x_i = 2x_{i-1} + 3x_{i-2}$  for all integers  $i \geq 3$ . Prove that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x_n = 2 \times (-1)^n + 10 \times 3^{n-1}$ .

*Proof.* We will strongly induct the statement P(n),  $x_n = 2(-1)^n + 10(3)^{n-1}$ , on n.

For a base case, let n = 1. Then,  $2(-1)^1 + 10(3)^0 = -2 + 10 = 8$ , which is the defined value of  $x_1$ . For another, let n = 2. Then,  $2(-1)^2 + 10(3)^1 = 2 + 30 = 32$ , which is the defined value of  $x_2$ . Therefore, P(1) and P(2) hold.

Now, for some  $m \geq 3$ , suppose P(n) holds for all n < m. Specifically, P(m-1) and P(m-2) hold.

Consider the definition of  $x_m$ :

$$\begin{split} x_m &= 2x_{m-1} + 3x_{m-2} \\ &= 2\left(2(-1)^{m-1} + 10(3)^{m-2}\right) + 3\left(2(-1)^{m-2} + 10(3)^{m-3}\right) \\ &= 4(-1)^{m-1} + 20(3)^{m-2} + 6(-1)^{m-2} + 30(3)^{m-3} \\ &= 4(-1)(-1)^{m-2} + 6(-1)^{m-2} + 20(3)(3)^{m-3} + 30(3)^{m-3} \\ &= 2(-1)^{m-2} + 90(3)^{m-3} \\ &= 2(-1)^2(-1)^{m-2} + 10(3)^2(3)^{m-3} \\ &= 2(-1)^m + 10(3)^{m-1} \end{split}$$

which is precisely P(m).

Therefore, by strong induction, P(n) is true for all n.

**RP06**. The sequence  $t_1, t_2, t_3, \ldots$  is defined recursively by  $t_1 = 2$  and  $t_n = 2t_{n-1} + n$  for all integers n > 1. Prove that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $t_n = 5 \times 2^{n-1} - 2 - n$ .

*Proof.* Let P(n) be the statement  $t_n = 5 \times 2^{n-1} - 2 - n$ . We will induct P(n) on n.

We first verify base cases: n = 1, hypothesized as  $t_1 = 5(2)^0 - 2 - 1 = 2$ , which matches the defined value; and n = 2, for which  $t_2$  is defined as 2(2) + 2 = 6 and we hypothesize  $t_2 = 5(2)^1 - 2 - 2 = 6$ .

Now, let m be an integer above 2 and suppose that P(m-1) holds. Consider the definition of  $t_m$ :

$$t_m = 2t_{m-1} + m$$
  
=  $2\left(5(2)^{m-2} - 2 - (m-1)\right) + m$  by inductive hypothesis  
=  $2\left(5(2)^{m-2} - m - 1\right) + m$   
=  $5(2)^{m-1} - 2m - 2 + m$   
=  $5(2)^{m-1} - 2 - m$ 

This is exactly P(m), so P(m-1) implies P(m).

Therefore, by induction, P(n) is true for all natural n.

**RP07**. The Fibonacci sequence is defined as the sequence  $f_1, f_2, f_3, \ldots$  where  $f_1 = 1$ ,  $f_2 = 1$  and  $f_i = f_{i-1} + f_{i-2}$  for  $i \geq 3$ . Use induction to prove the following statements:

(a) For 
$$n \ge 2$$
,  $f_1 + f_2 + \dots + f_{n-1} = f_{n+1} - 1$ .

*Proof.* We will induct the statement P(n),  $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f_i = f_{n+1} - 1$  on n. To verify the base case, n = 2, substitute and notice  $f_1 = 1 = 2 - 1 = f_3 - 1$ . Now, let m > 2 and suppose P(m) holds. Then,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m-1} f_i = f_{m+1} - 1$$

$$f_m + \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} f_i = f_m + f_{m+1} - 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i = f_{m+2} - 1$$

which is P(m+1).

Therefore, by induction, P(n) is true for all  $n \geq 2$ .

(b) Let 
$$a = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$$
 and  $b = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$ . For all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_n = \frac{a^n - b^n}{\sqrt{5}}$ .

*Proof.* Let P(n) be the statement  $f_n = \frac{a^n - b^n}{\sqrt{5}}$ . We will strongly induct P(n) on n.

For the base cases, start with n=1.  $f_1$  is defined to be 1, and  $\frac{a-b}{\sqrt{5}}=\frac{\sqrt{5}}{\sqrt{5}}=1$ . Likewise, for n=2,  $f_2$  is defined as 1, and  $\frac{a^2-b^2}{\sqrt{5}}=\frac{a-b}{\sqrt{5}}(a+b)=(1)(1)=1$ .

For our inductive step, first notice that a and b are the roots of  $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$ . Let x be either root.

Notice that for any  $n \geq 2$ , we have

$$0 = x^{2} - x - 1$$

$$0 = x^{n-2}(x^{2} - x - 1)$$

$$0 = x^{n} - x^{n-1} - x^{n-2}$$

$$x^{n} = x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}$$

Therefore,  $a^n = a^{n-1} + a^{n-2}$  and  $b^n = b^{n-1} + b^{n-2}$  for any  $n \ge 2$ .

Now, let  $m \geq 2$  and suppose P(m-1) and P(m-2) hold. Then,  $f_m$  is defined by:

$$f_m = f_{m-1} + f_{m-2}$$

$$= \frac{a^{m-1} - b^{m-1}}{\sqrt{5}} + \frac{a^{m-2} - b^{m-2}}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$= \frac{(a^{m-1} + a^{m-2}) - (b^{m-1} + b^{m-2})}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$= \frac{a^m - b^m}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Therefore, by strong induction, P(n) holds for all n.

**RP08**. Each of the following "proofs" by induction incorrectly "proved" a statement that is actually false. State what is wrong with each proof.

- (a) The proof does not consider the given definition  $x_2 = 20$ , and  $3(5)^1 = 15 \neq 20$ . Note that the recursive definition only applies to  $x_i$  for  $i \geq 3$ .
- (b) The proof erroneously assumes that n = 2 always falls within the inductive hypothesis. However, when proving the case n = 2 with strong induction, the only given is n = 1.

**RP09**. In a strange country, there are only 4 cent and 7 cent coins. Prove that any integer amount of currency greater than 17 cents can always be formed.

*Proof.* Let P(x) be the statement that there exist non-negative integer a and b where x = 4a + 7b. We will strongly induct on x > 17.

Verify a few base cases:

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For P(18) (where 18 = 4(4) + 2), let a = 1 and b = 2, so 4(1) + 7(2) = 18.
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For 
$$P(19)$$
 (where  $19 = 4(4) + 3$ ), let  $a = 3$  and  $b = 1$ , so  $4(3) + 7(1) = 19$ .

For 
$$P(20)$$
 (where  $20 = 4(5) + 0$ ), let  $a = 5$  and  $b = 0$ , so  $4(5) + 7(0) = 20$ .

For 
$$P(21)$$
 (where  $21 = 4(5) + 1$ ), let  $a = 0$  and  $b = 3$ , so  $4(0) + 7(3) = 21$ .

Now, suppose for some n > 21, P(m) holds for all m < n. Specifically, P(n - 4) holds. That is,  $n - 4 = 4a_0 + 7b_0$  for some  $a_0$  and  $b_0$ . Equivalently,  $n = 4(a_0 + 1) + 7b_0$ . If we let  $a = a_0 + 1$  and  $b = b_0$ , it follows that P(n) holds.

Therefore, by strong induction, P(x) is true for all x > 17.

## Challenges

C01. Prove that for every positive integer, there exists a unique way to write the integer as the sum of distinct non-consecutive Fibonacci numbers.

C02. Find a formula for the minimum steps required to solve the Tower of Hanoi puzzle with three pegs with n rings. Prove that your answer is correct.