

# 8. Induction and Recursion

## 8.1 Sequences

### Sequences are Functions

- An sequence is a function that maps natural numbers (or a subset of them) to a set.
- The domain of a sequence is a set of consecutive integers.

#### Example

- Sequences can represent various types of data, such as a student's GPA over the years they attend college.

$$g(1) = 2.51, \quad g(2) = 2.77, \quad g(3) = 3.21, \quad g(4) = 3.33$$

### Notation

- The entire sequence is represented by  $\{g_k\}$ .
- The value  $g_k$  is called a term of the sequence, and  $k$  is the index of  $g_k$ .
- A single term is represented by  $g_k$  (without the curly braces).

$$g_1 = 2.51, \quad g_2 = 2.77, \quad g_3 = 3.21, \quad g_4 = 3.33$$

- Sequences can be written with just the terms if the function name and indices are understood or not important.

$$gpaCollection = [2.51, 2.77, 3.21, 3.33]$$

- Sequences can also start with any integer, not just 0 or 1.

Sequence  $\{m_k\}$  is a collection of Star Wars films

$$m_{-3} = \text{The Phantom Menace}$$

$$m_{-2} = \text{Attack of the Clones}$$

$$m_{-1} = \text{Revenge of the Sith}$$

$$m_0 = \text{A new Hope}$$

$$m_1 = \text{The Empire Strikes Back}$$

$$m_2 = \text{Return of the Jedi}$$

### Finite and Infinite

- A finite sequence  $\{a_k\}$  has:
  1. A finite domain.

2. An initial index  $m$  and final index  $n$ , such that  $n \geq m$ .
  3. An initial term  $a_m$  and final term  $a_n$ .
  4. A bounded set:  $a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n$ .
- An infinite sequence  $\{b_k\}$  has:
    1. An infinite domain.
    2. An initial index  $m$ , where  $\{b_k\}$  is defined for all indices  $k$  such that  $k \geq m$ .
    3. Indices that approach infinity in the positive direction (*i. e.*  $k \geq m$ ).
    4. A set with no upper or lower bound:  $b_m, b_{m+1}, b_{m+2}, \dots$

## Explicit Formula

- Sequences can be expressed as an explicit formula that shows how  $a_k$  depends on  $k$ .

### Example

Triangular numbers are numbers that can be arranged in the shape of a triangle.

The  $n^{th}$  triangular number can be calculated using the formula:

$$T_n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \text{ for } n \geq 2$$

$$= [3, 6, 10, 15, 21, \dots]$$

## Increasing and Decreasing

- For every pair of consecutive indices  $k$  and  $k+1$ , a sequence is:

Property	Condition	Example
Increasing	$a_k < a_{k+1}$	$f(x) = x^3$
Non-decreasing	$a_k \leq a_{k+1}$	$f(x) = \lfloor \frac{x}{2} \rfloor$
Decreasing	$a_k > a_{k+1}$	$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \text{ for } x \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
Non-increasing	$a_k \geq a_{k+1}$	$f(x) = -x - \ x - 3\  + 6$

- Increasing sequences are always non-decreasing.
- Decreasing sequences are always non-increasing.
- A horizontal line is neither increasing nor decreasing.
- A horizontal line is both non-decreasing and non-increasing.

## Geometric Sequences

- A geometric sequence is a sequence of real numbers where every term after the first is found by multiplying the previous term by a common ratio ( $r$ ).

### Explicit Formula

$$a_n = a_i \cdot r^n$$

- $a_i$  = initial term
- $r$  = common ratio

### Finite geometric sequence

$$a_n = (1000) \cdot (1.005)^n$$

$$a_i = 1000, r = 1.005$$

$$\text{let } m = 0, n = 3$$

$$\{a_k\} = [1000, 1005, 1010, 1015.10]$$

### Infinite geometric sequence

$$a_n = (1) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

$$a_i = 1, r = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\{a_k\} = \left[1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{16}, \dots\right]$$

## Arithmetic Sequence

- An arithmetic sequence is a sequence of real numbers where each term is found by adding a fixed number called the common difference to the previous term.

### Explicit Formula

$$a_n = a_i + d \cdot n$$

$$\text{for } n \geq 0$$

- $a_i$  = initial term
- $d$  = common difference

### Infinite Arithmetic Sequence

$$a_n = 0 + 5 \cdot n$$

$$\{a_n\} = [0, 5, 10, 15, \dots]$$

### Finite Arithmetic Sequence

$$a_n = \pi - \frac{\pi}{3} \cdot n$$

$$\text{let } m = 0, n = 3$$

$$\{a_n\} = \left[\pi, \frac{2\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{3}, 0\right]$$

## 8.2 Recurrence Relations

## Recurrence Relation

- A rule that defines a term  $a_n$  as a function of previous terms in the sequence is called a recurrence relation.

### Arithmetic Sequence

- Arithmetic sequences can be defined by the following recurrence relation:
  - $a_0 = a$  (initial value)
  - $a_n = d + a_{n-1}$  for  $n \geq 1$  (recurrence relation)
- Initial value =  $a$ . Common difference =  $d$ .

### Geometric Sequence

$$a_n = r \cdot a_{n-1}$$
$$\text{for } n \geq 1$$

- $a_0$  = initial value
- $r$  = common ratio

## Fibonacci Sequence

- Leonardo Fibonacci used a recurrence relation to define the Fibonacci sequence, which models rabbit population growth.

Rules:

- The rabbit colony begins with one pair of newborn rabbits.
- Rabbits must be at least one month old before they can reproduce.
- Every pair of reproducing rabbits gives birth to a new pair (one male and one female) over the course of a month.

$$f_0 = 0$$

$$f_1 = 1$$

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n \geq 2$$

$$\{f_n\} = [0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots]$$

## Number of Initial Values

- The number of initial values required depends on which previous terms are used to define the  $n^{th}$  term.
- For example, in the Fibonacci sequence,  $f_n$  depends on the previous two terms. I.e.  $f_0$  and  $f_1$  are required to define  $f_2$

## Dynamical Systems

- A dynamical system is a system that changes over time, with its state determined by a set of well-defined rules that depend on the past states of the system.
- In a discrete time dynamical system, time is divided into discrete time intervals, and the state during one interval is a function of the state in previous time intervals.
- The history of the system is defined by a sequence of states, indexed by non-negative integers.

### Fibonacci's Rabbit Colony

- Fibonacci's rabbit colony is an example of a discrete time dynamical system.
- Each time interval is a month.
- The state of the system is the number of pairs of rabbits.
- Dynamical systems often give rise to recurrence relations that describe how the system changes over time.

## 8.3 Summations

### Summation Notation

- Summation notation is used to express the sum of terms in a numerical sequence.
- The capital letter sigma  $\Sigma$  is used to denote that the terms are to be added together.

$$\sum_{i=m}^n a_i = a_m + a_{m+1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} + a_n$$

- $n$  is the upper limit
- $i$  is called the index
- $m$  is the lower limit
- Use parentheses to indicate that all the terms are included in the summation.

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (j+1) \neq \sum_{j=1}^n j + 1$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j + 1 = \left( \sum_{j=1}^n j \right) + 1$$

### Example

- Consider the sequence:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= n^3, \quad \text{for } n = 1, 2, 3, 4 \\ &= 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 \\ &= 1 + 8 + 27 + 64 \\ &= 100 \end{aligned}$$

- Summation notation:

$$\sum_{j=1}^4 j^3 = 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 = 100$$

## Extracting Final Term

- It is often useful to extract or insert a final term into a summation.

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=m}^n a_k &= \underbrace{a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + \cdots + a_{n-1}}_{\text{terms } m \text{ to } n-1} + \underbrace{a_n}_{\text{final term}} \quad \text{for } n > m \\ &= \sum_{k=m}^{n-1} a_k + a_n\end{aligned}$$

### Example

$$\sum_{k=0}^n 10^k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} 10^k + 10^n$$

## Variable Limits

- Lower or upper limits are denoted by variables.
- Limits are require variables for evaluation of the sum, provided as values.
- A limit can be either finite or infinite.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k = 2$$

- Variables can be substituted.

### Example

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \sqrt{k-1}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc}\text{let } j = k - 1 & & \\ \text{when } k = 1 & \text{when } k = n & \\ \underbrace{j = 1 - 1 = 0}_{\text{New Lower Limit}} & \underbrace{j = n - 1}_{\text{New Upper Limit}} & \end{array}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \sqrt{k-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \sqrt{j}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^{10} \sqrt{k-1} &= \sum_{j=0}^9 \sqrt{j} \\ &= 19.306\end{aligned}$$

## Closed Form

- A closed form expresses a summation as an algebraic formula.

## Arithmetic Closed Form

- A series with a constant difference ( $d$ ) between consecutive terms.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a + kd) = an + \frac{d(n-1)n}{2}$$

for any integer  $n \geq 1$

### Example

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{44} (2 + k \times 5) &= 2(45) + \frac{5(45-1)45}{2} \\ &= 90 + 5 \times 45 \times \frac{44}{2} \\ &= 5 \times 22 \times 45 \times +90 \end{aligned}$$

### Example

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^5 (3k + 1) &= 1 + 4 + 7 + 10 + 13 + 16 &&= 51 \\ n - 1 &= 5 \\ n &= 6 \\ \sum_{k=0}^5 (3k + 1) &= (1)(6) + \frac{3 \cdot (6-1) \cdot 6}{2} &&an + \frac{d(n-1)n}{2} \\ &= 6 + \frac{90}{2} \\ &= 51 \end{aligned}$$

## Geometric Closed Form

- A series with an initial term ( $a$ ) and constant ratio ( $r$ ) between consecutive terms.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a \cdot r^k = \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1}$$

for any real number  $r \neq 1$  and any integer  $n \geq 1$

### Example

$$\sum_{k=0}^5 4\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k = 4 + 2 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{63}{8}$$

$$\begin{aligned} n - 1 &= 5 \\ n &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^5 4\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k &= \frac{4\left[\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^6 - 1\right]}{\frac{1}{2} - 1} && \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1} \\ &= \frac{4\left[\frac{1}{64} - 1\right]}{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= 2 \cdot 4\left[1 - \frac{1}{64}\right] = 8 \cdot \frac{63}{64} \\ &= \frac{63}{8} \end{aligned}$$

## Exponential Growth

- A bacterial colony grows at a rate of 4% every hour.
- Consider a colony with a population of 1000.
- How large would the colony be after 24 hours?

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{24} 1000(1.04)^k &= 1000 \cdot \frac{(1.04)^{25} - 1}{1.04 - 1} \\ &= \sim 41,646 \end{aligned}$$

## 8.4 Mathematical induction

### Mathematical Induction

- A proof technique for proving statements about elements in a sequence.
- Establishes that a statement parameterized by  $n$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ .

### Components of Inductive Proof

- Using an inductive proof we can verify the truth of statements such as:

The sum of first  $n$  Fibonacci numbers is equal to the  $(n + 2)^{th}$  Fibonacci number minus 1

### Base Case

- The base case proves the theorem for the first value in the sequence.
- Typically assigns  $n = 1$  to the summation index, but can assign higher integers, e.g.  $n = 2$ .



### Fibonacci Sequence

$$\{a_n\} = 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, \dots$$

$$\sum_{k=2}^n [a_{n-2} + a_{n-1}] = a_{n+2} - 1$$

$$\sum_{k=2}^2 [a_0 + a_1] = a_4 - 1$$

$$\sum_{k=2}^2 [0 + 1] = 1 \quad 2 - 1 = 1$$

## Inductive Step

- Assumes the theorem is true for  $k$ , and proves it for  $k + 1$ .
- Example: If you have three wishes on day  $k$ , you can get three wishes for day  $k + 1$ .

## Principle of Mathematical Induction

- If the base case and inductive step are both true, the theorem holds for all positive integers.

Principle of mathematical induction.

Let  $S(n)$  be a statement parameterized by a positive integer  $n$ .

Then  $S(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ , if:

- $S(1)$  is true (the base case).
- For all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,  $S(k)$  implies  $S(k + 1)$  (the inductive step).

## Inductive Step and Inductive Hypothesis

- The inductive step states that an infinite sequence of implications are true.
- This implies that the truth of  $S(k)$  guarantees the truth of  $S(k + 1)$ .
- The inductive hypothesis is the assumption that  $S(k)$  is true.
- The inductive hypothesis serves as the basis for proving the implication between  $S(k)$  and  $S(k + 1)$ .
- It assumes the truth of  $S(k)$  and allows for the deduction or inference of  $S(k + 1)$  being true as well.

Inductive Step:     For all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} S(k) \text{ implies } S(k+1) \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad & S(1) \text{ implies } S(2) \\ & \wedge S(2) \text{ implies } S(3) \\ & \wedge S(3) \text{ implies } S(4) \\ & \wedge \dots \end{aligned}$$