Tutorial #6. Sequences and Induction

Sequence

We consider sequence as a function over a set if integers from \mathbf{k} to \mathbf{n} with a step 1. To express we can either use f(k), f(k+1), ..., f(n) OR a_k , a_{k+1} , a_{k+2} , ... a_n that is read as «A-sub-K». If domain of the function is finite, this is a **finite sequence**. If domain is infinite 1, 2, 3,, n, ... - **infinite sequence**. First element of the sequence is called **initial term**, last (if exists) – **final term**.

To express the sequence we can use either

- Explicit (general) formula: $a_k = f(k)$, or
- Recurrent formula: $a_{k+1} = f^*(a_k)$

Converting one formula to another can be helpful to solve some problems:

1) You have bank account with 10% yearly income for \$1M sum. When you will be able to buy a flat, if it costs now \$2M, and inflation rate is 7%?

```
a_0 = 1M
a_{k+1} = a_k * 1.1
a_k = 1M * 1.1^k
b_n = 2M * 1.07^n
a_k >= b_k;
1*1.1^k >= 2*1.07^k;
(1.1/1.07)^k >= 2;
k >= log_{1.028} 2 = 1/log_2 1.028
k >= 25.067
```

Summation and product notation

There's a *sigma* and *pi* notations to represent a sum and product of a sequence. Upper and lower limits represent **initial term**, **final term**. You can do the following:

- 1) Move the limits: $\sum_{i=-1}^{80} (i+2)^2 = replace \ i \ with \ k-2$, move both limits "in opposite direction" $= \sum_{k=1}^{82} ((k-2)+2)^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{82} (k)^2 = can \ return \ back \ to \ "i" = \sum_{i=1}^{82} i^2$
 - a. Do the exercise with $\prod_{a=4}^{17} (a^2 6a + 9)$
- 2) Detach and attach final and initial terms

a.
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} \frac{1}{i^2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^2} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2}$$
 b.
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} 2^k + 2^{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} 2^k$$

3) Use associative and distributive rules (with the same limits!!!).

1.
$$\sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k + \sum_{k=m}^{n} b_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n} (a_k + b_k)$$
2.
$$c \cdot \sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n} c \cdot a_k \quad \text{generalized distributive law}$$
3.
$$\left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} a_k\right) \cdot \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} b_k\right) = \prod_{k=m}^{n} (a_k \cdot b_k).$$

There are some special sequences:

$$n(a_1 + a_n)$$

1) Arithmetic progression, it's sum is $\dfrac{n(a_1+a_n)}{2}$

$$a(1-r^{m})$$

- 2) Geometric progression, it's sum is $\dfrac{a(1-r^m)}{1-r}$
 - a. Fork bomb is an attack method, what each process creates N subprocesses. Assume, each process finish its task in one second, and occupies 64kB of memory. How much time will it take for a fork bomb (N=2) to bring down a server with 128GB of RAM?

```
Solution: this is a sum of geometric progression: 64K, 64K*2, 64K*2*2, ...;
R_n = 64K*2^n. Sum = 64K (1 - 2*)/(1-2);
64K (1 - 2^{x})/(1-2) > 128GB = 128*2^{20}KB
2^{x} - 1 > 2^{21}; 2^{x-21} > 1; x-21 > 0; x > 21 - 21 sec.
```

3) Natural number sequence (also a kind of arithmetic). Product of this sequence is called **factorial**. It is expressed as

$$n! = \prod_{i=1}^{n} i ; 0! = 1$$

and can be treated as the number of all possible ways you pull all the balls from the bag blindly. This number is growing fast.

Do the task: calculate 33! exactly in your program.

Solution: none of fixed-size types can handle this value. You should use "long arithmetic" for this.

e.g. C#:

```
System.Numerics.BigInteger a = 1;
for (int i = 2; i <= 33; i++)
      a *= i;
      Console.WriteLine(a);
Console.ReadLine();
```

Proof by induction

Proof by induction is a proof of proposition P(k) for a whole sequence k in $\{a, a+1, a+2, ...\}$, that is based on:

- well-known fact about sequence start (BASIC STEP, P(a) == true) and
- some information I, that makes $P(k) \land I \vdash P(k+1)$ (Induction step).

Induction step can be, e.g. recursive notation that implies conclusion. We already used induction to prove the complexity of the algorithms.

Coins case: If we remove 1 cent coin from monetary system, will it affect the market? Will we be able to construct any sum greater than 8 cents with 3 & 5-cent coins?

For all integers $n \ge 8$, P(n) is true, where P(n) is the sentence "n cents can be obtained using 3ϕ and 5ϕ coins."

Let the property P(n) be the sentence

 $n\phi$ can be obtained using 3ϕ and 5ϕ coins. $\leftarrow P(n)$

Show that P(8) is true:

P(8) is true because 8ϕ can be obtained using one 3ϕ coin and one 5ϕ coin.

Show that for all integers $k \ge 8$, 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 $k \ge 8$. That is:] Suppose that k is any integer with $k \ge 8$ such that

 $k \notin \text{can be obtained using } 3 \notin \text{and } 5 \notin \text{coins.}$ $\leftarrow P(k)$ inductive hypothesis

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

 $(k+1)\phi$ can be obtained using 3ϕ and 5ϕ coins. $\leftarrow P(k+1)$

Case 1 (There is a 5¢ coin among those used to make up the k¢.): In this case replace the 5¢ coin by two 3¢ coins; the result will be (k + 1)¢.

Case 2 (There is not a 5¢ coin among those used to make up the $k \notin$.): In this case, because $k \ge 8$, at least three 3¢ coins must have been used. So remove three 3¢ coins and replace them by two 5¢ coins; the result will be $(k + 1) \notin$.

Thus in either case $(k+1)\phi$ can be obtained using 3ϕ and 5ϕ coins [as was to be shown].

[Since we have proved the basis step and the inductive step, we conclude that the proposition is true.]

WB: Prove that binary tree has at most $NC_n = 2^{n-1}$ nodes, and $LC_n = 2^{n-1}$ nodes at the last level, where **n** is number of levels.

Solution: **base case**: 1-level tree has **one node** and one element at the last level. Let tree with **k** levels have a most 2^{k-1} nodes, and 2^{k-1} nodes at the last level. Each node at last level can have at most 2 children, so there will be no more then $LC_{k+1} = 2^{k-1}*2 = 2^{(k+1)-1}$. Number of nodes in a tree then will be no more then $NC_{k+1} = NC_k + LC_{k+1} = 2^k - 1 + 2^k = 2^{(k+1)} - 1$, QED