

## Part I

# Appendix: Mathematical Background

# Chapter 1

## Summations

### A.1 Summation formulas and properties

#### A.1-1

Prove that  $\sum_{k=1}^n O(f_k(i)) = O(\sum_{k=1}^n f_k(i))$

Short answer:

$$\sum cg(x) = c \sum g(x)$$

Long answer:

Suppose that  $g \in O(f_k(i))$ . It follows that there exists  $n_i$  and  $c_i$  such that  $0 \leq g(n) \leq c f_i(n)$ . Thus we can pick  $n = \max\{n_0, n_1, \dots\}$  and  $c = \max\{c_0, c_1, \dots\}$ . We know that both  $n$  and  $c$  will work all of functions  $f_k$ . Therefore by linearity of summations

$$\sum_{k=1}^n O(f_k(i)) = \sum_{k=1}^n c f_k(i) = c \sum_{k=1}^n f_k(i) = O\left(\sum_{k=1}^n f_k(i)\right)$$

(notation is a little abused and there is nothing is rigorously proven, but it'll do).

#### A.1-2

Find a simple formula for  $\sum_{k=1}^n (2k - 1)$ .

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

#### A.1-3

Interpret the decimal number 111,111,111 in light of equation A.6

$$111, 111, 111 = \sum_{k=0}^9 10^k = \frac{10^{10} - 1}{10 - 1}$$

**A.1-4**

Evaluate the infinite series  $1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} - \dots$

The series converges absolutely to 2, so we are free to do anything with it.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} - \dots &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^{2k}}{2} - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^{1+2k}}{2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^{2k}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^{2k}}{2} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^{2k}}{2} = \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^k}{4} = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{4}} = \frac{1}{2} * \frac{4}{3} = \frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

**A.1-5**

Let  $c \geq 0$  be a constant. Show that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^c = \Theta(n^{c+1})$

We can follow that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^c \in O(n^{c+1})$  by the fact that  $(\forall k \leq n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, c \in (0, \infty))(k \leq n^c)$  and thus

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^c \leq \sum_{k=1}^n n^c = n * n^c = n^{c+1}$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n k^c &\in O(n^{c+1}) \\ \sum_{k=1}^n k^c &= \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} k^c + n^c = n^c \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k^c}{n^c} = \end{aligned}$$

Let  $f(n) = n^c$ . It can be seen from the graph that

$$\int_0^n f(x) dx \leq \sum_{k=1}^n k^c \leq \int_0^n f(x+1) dx$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^n f(x) dx &= \int_0^n x^c = \frac{n^{c+1}}{c+1} \in \\ \int_0^n f(x+1) dx &= \int_0^n (x+1)^c = \frac{(n+1)^{c+1}}{c+1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus we can state that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^c = \Theta(n^{c+1})$  (I'm not good enough yet to show that  $\frac{(n+1)^{c+1}}{c+1} \in \Theta(n^{c+1})$ , but I'm pretty sure that it's true TODO).

**A.1-6**

Show that  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 x^k = x(1+x)/(1-x)^3$  for  $|x| < 1$

We know that for  $|x| < 1$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} kx^k = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$$

thus if we differentiate both sides we get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 x^{k-1} = \frac{2x}{(1-x)^3} + \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$$

and then if we multiply all of it by  $x$  we'll get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 x^k = \frac{2x^2}{(1-x)^3} + \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$$

thus if we factor all of this jazz we'll get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 x^k = -\frac{x(x+1)}{(x-1)^3}$$

and if we tuck this minus into denominator we'll get (which we can do because the power is odd)

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k^2 x^k = \frac{x(x+1)}{(1-x)^3}$$

as desired.

**A.1-7**

Prove that  $\sum_{k=1}^n \sqrt{k \lg k} = \Theta(n^{3/2} \lg^{1/2} n)$

$$\int \sqrt{k \lg k} =$$

TODO

**A.1-8**

Show that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n 1/(2k-1) = \ln(\sqrt{n}) + O(1)$$

by manipulating the harmonic series

In the book we're reassured that

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

which is also pretty straightforward to follow if we think of the desired sum as the chopped integral of  $\ln(n)$

We want to find the sum of reciprocals of odd numebers. Since  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  is either odd or even, but not both, we follow that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n 1/(2k-1) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{2k} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{k} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}$$

and since

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

we follow that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n 1/(2k-1) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} = \frac{1}{2} (\ln(n) + O(1)) = \ln(n^{1/2}) + 1/2 O(1) = \ln(\sqrt{n}) + O(1)$$

as desired (justification that  $1/2 O(1) = O(1)$  follows directly from the definition of  $O$ ).

### A.1-9

Show that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k-1)/2^k = 0$$

We can use standard series manipulations to get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k-1)/2^k &= -1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (k-1)/2^k = -1 + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (k-1)/2^k = -1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^{k+1} = \\ &= -1 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k \end{aligned}$$

We can also manipulate it differently to get

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k-1)/2^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k/2^k - 1/2^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k/2^k - \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 1/2^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k/2^k - 2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k - 2$$

Now assuming that the original sum converges we get an equation

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k - 2 = -1 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k = 1$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k = 2$$

and by substituting the result into any of the previous results (I'll take the first) we get that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k-1)/2^k = -1 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k/2^k = -1 + 1 = 0$$

as desired.

### A.1-11

*Evaluate the product*

$$\prod_{k=2}^n 1 - \frac{1}{k^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \prod_{k=2}^n 1 - \frac{1}{k^2} &= \prod_{k=2}^n \frac{k^2 - 1}{k^2} = \prod_{k=2}^n \frac{(k+1)(k-1)}{k^2} = \frac{\prod_{k=2}^n (k+1) \prod_{k=2}^n (k-1)}{\prod_{k=2}^n (k^2)} = \\ &= \frac{\prod_{k=3}^{n+1} k \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} k}{(\prod_{k=2}^n k)^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} * 1 * 2 * \prod_{k=3}^n k * (n+1) * \frac{1}{n} * n * \prod_{k=1}^{n-1} k}{(1 * \prod_{k=2}^n k)^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{2} * \prod_{k=1}^n k * (n+1) * \frac{1}{n} * \prod_{k=1}^n k}{(1 * \prod_{k=2}^n k)^2} = \\ &= \frac{\frac{1}{2} * (n+1) * \frac{1}{n} * (\prod_{k=1}^n k)^2}{(\prod_{k=1}^n k)^2} = \frac{1}{2} * (n+1) * \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

## A.2 Bounding summations

## Chapter 2

# Sets, Etc.

### 1-1

*Draw Venn diagrams that illustrate the first of the distributive laws (B.1)*

TODO, add picture here

### 1-2

*Prove the generalization of DeMorgan's laws to any finite collection of sets*

*Copy from real analysis exercises*

Suppose that  $x \in (\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} E_{\lambda})^c$ . It follows, that  $x$  is not in the union of given sets. Therefore there is no set  $E_n$  such that  $x \in E_n$  (because if there would be such a set, then  $x$  wouldn't be in  $(\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} E_{\lambda})^c$ ). Therefore  $x \in \cap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} E_{\lambda}^c$ . Therefore

$$(\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} E_{\lambda})^c \subseteq \cap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} E_{\lambda}^c$$

The proof of reverse inclusion is the same as with the forward, but in reverse order.

$x \in (\cap_{\lambda \in \Lambda} E_{\lambda})^c$  implies that  $x$  is not in every  $E_n$ . Therefore there exists  $x \in E_n^c$  for some  $E_n$ . therefore it is in  $\cup_{\lambda \in \Lambda} E_{\lambda}^c$ . The proof of reverse inclusion uses the same argument, but in other direction.

### 1-3

TODO

### 1-4

*Show that the set of odd natural numbers is countable.*

Let us set a function  $f : A \rightarrow N$ , where  $A$  denotes the set of odd natural numbers

$$f(n) = (n + 1)/2$$

for this function we've got

$$f^{-1}(n) = 2n - 1$$

Both functions are injective and therefore  $f$  is bijective. Therefore we've got a bijective function between  $A$  and  $N$ , therefore  $A \sim N$ , therefore it is countable, as desired.

## 1-5

*Show that for any finite set  $S$ , the power set  $2^S$  has  $2^{|S|}$  elements (that is, there are  $2^{|S|}$  distinct subsets of  $S$ ).*

*Another copy from real analysis*

This proof is dumb, but intuitive:

Every subset is corresponding to a number in binary system: 0 for excluded, 1 for included. Therefore there exist  $2^n$  possible combinations.

For a more concrete proof let's resort to induction.

Base case(s): subsets of  $\emptyset$  are  $\emptyset$  itself ( $2^0 = 1$  in total). Subsets of set with one element are  $\emptyset$  and set itself ( $2^1 = 2$  in total).

Proposition is that set with  $n$  elements has  $2^n$  subsets.

Inductive step is that for set with  $n+1$  elements can either have or not have the  $n+1$ 'th element. Therefore there exist  $2^n + 2^n = 2 * 2^n = 2^{n+1}$  subsets, as desired.

## 1-6

*Give an inductive definition for an  $n$ -tuple by extending the set-theoretic definition for an ordered pair.*

The tuple is actually just a re-writing of particular set

$$(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) = \{\{a_1\}, \{a_1, a_2\}, \{a_1, a_2, a_3\} \dots \{a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n\}\}$$



## Chapter 3

# Counting and Probability

### C.1 Counting

#### C.1-15

Show that for all integers  $n \geq 0$

$$\sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k)k = n2^{n-1}$$

We can use the Gauss' argument for the sum of triangle numbers. Basically that

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

implies that

$$2 \sum_{k=1}^n = (1 + 2 + \dots + n) + (n + (n-1) + \dots + 2 + 1) = (n+1) + (n-1+2) + \dots = n(n+1)$$

and thus

$$\sum_{k=1}^n = n(n+1)/2$$

We follow that

$$\sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k)k = 0C(n, 0) + C(n, 1) + 2C(n, 2) \dots + nC(n, n)$$

thus

$$2 \sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k)k = (0C(n, 0) + C(n, 1) + 2C(n, 2) \dots + nC(n, n)) +$$

$$+(nC(n, n) + (n-1)C(n, n-1) + \dots + 2C(n, 2) + C(n, 1) + 0C(n, 0))$$

We know from properties of binomials that  $C(n, k) = C(n, n-k)$  (which rigorously can be proven by the explicit function), and thus

$$2 \sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k)k = (0C(n, 0) + C(n, 1) + 2C(n, 2) \dots + nC(n, n)) +$$

$$+(nC(n, 0) + (n-1)C(n, 1) + \dots + 2C(n, n-2) + C(n, n-1) + 0C(n, 0))$$

thus

$$2 \sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k)k = nC(n, 0) + nC(n, 1) + nC(n, 2) \dots + nC(n, n) =$$

$$n(C(n, 0) + C(n, 1) + C(n, 2) \dots + C(n, n)) =$$

$$n \left( \sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k) \right) = n2^n$$

therefore we can compress the whole shebang to get

$$2 \sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k)k = n2^n$$

and thus

$$\sum_{k=0}^n C(n, k)k = n2^{n-1}$$

as desired.