### **CHAPTER 5**

SEQUENCES, MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION, AND RECURSION

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## Sequences

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#### Definition

A **sequence** is a function whose domain is either all the integers between two given integers or all the integers greater than or equal to a given integer.

# We typically represent a sequence as a set of elements written in a row. In the sequence denoted

 $a_m, a_{m+1}, a_{m+2}, \ldots, a_n,$ 

each individual element  $a_k$  is called a **term**.



The notation:

 $a_m, a_{m+1}, a_{m+2}, \ldots$ 

denotes an infinite sequence.

An **explicit formula** (or **general formula**) for a sequence is a rule that shows how the value  $a_k$  depends on k.

The following example shows that it is possible for two different explicit formulas to obtain sequences with the same terms.

Example 1 – Finding Terms of Sequences Given by Explicit Formulas

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

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

Compute the first five terms of both sequences.

Solution:

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$
  $b_2 = \frac{2-1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ 

## Example 1 – Solution

$a_2 = \frac{2}{2+1} = \frac{2}{3}$	$b_3 = \frac{3-1}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$
$a_3 = \frac{3}{3+1} = \frac{3}{4}$	$b_4 = \frac{4-1}{4} = \frac{3}{4}$
$a_4 = \frac{4}{4+1} = \frac{4}{5}$	$b_5 = \frac{5-1}{5} = \frac{4}{5}$
$a_5 = \frac{5}{5+1} = \frac{5}{6}$	$b_6 = \frac{6-1}{6} = \frac{5}{6}$

As you can see, the first terms of both sequences are  $\frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\frac{2}{3}$ ,  $\frac{3}{4}$ ,  $\frac{4}{5}$ ,  $\frac{5}{6}$ ; in fact, it can be shown that all terms of both sequences are identical.

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In 1772 the French mathematician Joseph Louis Lagrange introduced the capital Greek letter sigma,  $\Sigma$ , to denote the word *sum* (or *summation*), and defined the summation notation as follows:

#### • 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  $a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + \ldots + a_n$  is the expanded form of the sum, and we write

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

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

Often, the terms of a summation are expressed using an explicit formula.

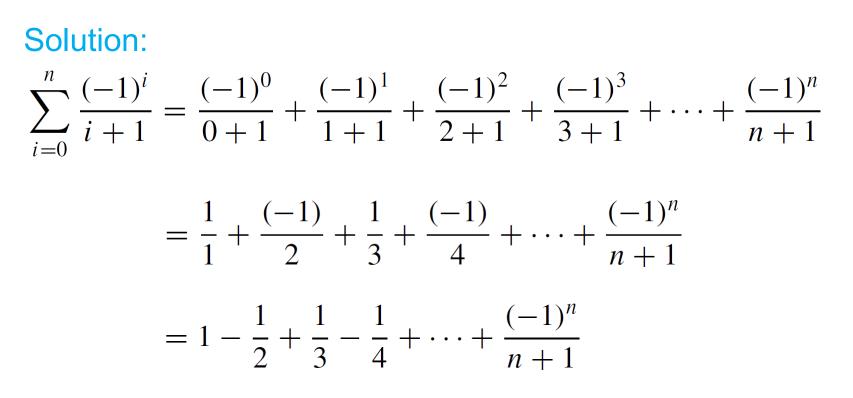
For instance, it is common to see summations such as

$$\sum_{k=1}^{5} k^2 \quad \text{or} \quad \sum_{i=0}^{8} \frac{(-1)^i}{i+1}.$$

Example 6 – Changing from Summation Notation to Expanded Form

Write the following summation in expanded form:

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



A more mathematically precise definition of summation, called a *recursive definition*, is the following:

### If *m* is any integer, then

$$\sum_{k=m}^{m} a_k = a_m \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=m}^{n} a_k = \sum_{k=m}^{n-1} a_k + a_n \quad \text{for all integers } n > m.$$

When solving problems, it is often useful to rewrite a summation using the recursive form of the definition.

## **Product Notation**

## **Product Notation**

The notation for the product of a sequence of numbers is analogous to the notation for their sum. The Greek capital letter pi,  $\Pi$ , denotes a product. For example,

$$\prod_{k=1}^{5} a_k = a_1 a_2 a_3 a_4 a_5.$$

#### • 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

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

## **Product Notation**

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

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

## Example 11 – Computing Products

Compute the following products:

**a.** 
$$\prod_{k=1}^{5} k$$
  
**b.**  $\prod_{k=1}^{1} \frac{k}{k+1}$ 

### Solution:

**a.** 
$$\prod_{k=1}^{5} k = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 \cdot 5 = 120$$

**b.** 
$$\prod_{k=1}^{1} \frac{k}{k+1} = \frac{1}{1+1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

## Properties of Summations and Products

### **Properties of Summations and Products**

# The following theorem states general properties of summations and products.

#### 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. 
$$\left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} a_{k}\right) \cdot \left(\prod_{k=m}^{n} b_{k}\right) = \prod_{k=m}^{n} (a_{k} \cdot b_{k}).$$

The product of all consecutive integers up to a given integer occurs so often in mathematics that it is given a special notation—*factorial* notation.

#### • 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*:

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

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

0! = 1.

A recursive definition for factorial is the following: Given any nonnegative integer *n*,

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0\\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{if } n \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

An important use for the factorial notation is in calculating values of quantities, called *n choose r*, that occur in many branches of mathematics and computer science, especially those connected with the study of counting techniques and probability.

#### • Definition

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

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. 21

The computational formula:

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

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

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

The quantities  $\binom{n}{r}$  are also called *combinations*. Sometimes they are referred to as *binomial coefficients* because of the connection with the binomial theorem.

## Example 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.**  $\binom{4}{0}$  **c.**  $\binom{n+1}{n}$ 

### Solution:

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

$$=\frac{8\cdot7\cdot\cancel{6}\cdot\cancel{5}\cdot\cancel{4}\cdot\cancel{3}\cdot\cancel{2}\cdot1}{(\cancel{5}\cdot\cancel{4}\cdot\cancel{3}\cdot\cancel{2}\cdot1)\cdot(\cancel{3}\cdot\cancel{2}\cdot1)}$$

always cancel common factors before multiplying

## Example 17 – Solution

$$\mathbf{b.} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{4!}{4!(4-4)!} \\ = \frac{4!}{4!0!} \\ = \frac{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1}{(4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1)(1)} \\ = 1$$

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.

$$\mathbf{C} \cdot \binom{n+1}{n} = \frac{(n+1)!}{n!((n+1)-n)!} = \frac{(n+1)!}{n!1!} = \frac{(n+1) \cdot n!}{n!1!} = n+1$$

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## Sequences in Computer Programming

## Sequences in Computer Programming

An important data type in computer programming consists of finite sequences. In computer programming contexts, these are usually referred to as *one-dimensional arrays*.

For example, consider a program that analyzes the salaries paid to a sample of 50 workers. Such a program might compute the average salary and the difference between each individual salary and the average.

Each salary is stored in a one-dimensional array:

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W[1], W[2], W[3], \ldots, W[50].
```

## Sequences in Computer Programming

The recursive definitions for summation, product, and factorial lead naturally to computational algorithms.

For instance, we present two sets of pseudocode to find the sum of *a*[1], *a*[2], ..., *a*[*n*].

## Sequences in Computer Programming

In both cases the output is  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a[k]$ .

The one on the left exactly mimics the recursive definition; the one on the right is instead an iterative algorithm.

RecursiveIterativeint funct S(m,n)s := 0if m=n then return a[m]for k := 1 to nelse return S(m,n-1)+a[n]s := s + a[k]

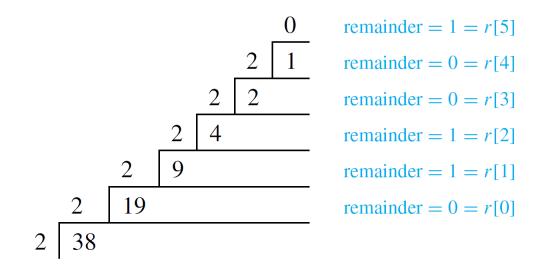
**next** k

A systematic algorithm to convert any non-negative integer to binary notation uses repeated division by 2.

Suppose *a* is a non-negative integer. Divide *a* by 2 to obtain a quotient q[0] and a remainder *r* [0]. If the quotient is nonzero, divide by 2 again to obtain a new quotient q[1] and a new remainder *r* [1].

Continue this process until a quotient of 0 is obtained. At each stage, the remainder must be less than the divisor, which is 2. Thus each remainder is either 0 or 1.

The process is illustrated below for a = 38. (Read the divisions from the bottom up.)



The results of all these divisions can be written as a sequence of equations:

$$38 = 19 \cdot 2 + 0$$
,

$$19 = 9 \cdot 2 + 1,$$
  

$$9 = 4 \cdot 2 + 1,$$
  

$$4 = 2 \cdot 2 + 0,$$
  

$$2 = 1 \cdot 2 + 0,$$
  

$$1 = 0 \cdot 2 + 1.$$

By repeated substitution, then,

$$38 = 19 \cdot 2 + 0$$
  
=  $(9 \cdot 2 + 1) \cdot 2 + 0 = 9 \cdot 2^{2} + 1 \cdot 2 + 0$   
=  $(4 \cdot 2 + 1) \cdot 2^{2} + 1 \cdot 2 + 0 = 4 \cdot 2^{3} + 1 \cdot 2^{2} + 1 \cdot 2 + 0$   
=  $(2 \cdot 2 + 0) \cdot 2^{3} + 1 \cdot 2^{2} + 1 \cdot 2 + 0$ 

$$= 2 \cdot 2^{4} + 0 \cdot 2^{3} + 1 \cdot 2^{2} + 1 \cdot 2 + 0$$
  
=  $(1 \cdot 2 + 0) \cdot 2^{4} + 0 \cdot 2^{3} + 1 \cdot 2^{2} + 1 \cdot 2 + 0$   
=  $1 \cdot 2^{5} + 0 \cdot 2^{4} + 0 \cdot 2^{3} + 1 \cdot 2^{2} + 1 \cdot 2 + 0.$ 

Note that each coefficient of a power of 2 on the right-hand side is one of the remainders obtained in the repeated division of 38 by 2.

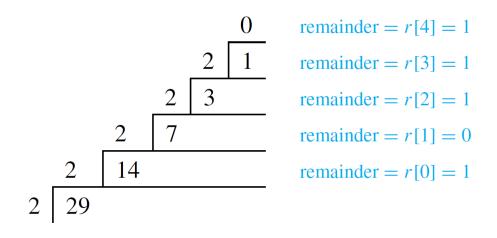
This is true for the left-most 1 as well, because  $1 = 0 \cdot 2 + 1$ . Thus

 $38_{10} = 100110_2 = (r[5]r[4]r[3]r[2]r[1]r[0])_2.$ 

Example 19 – Converting from Decimal to Binary Notation Using Repeated Division by 2

# Use repeated division by 2 to write the number $29_{10}$ in binary notation.

Solution:



Hence  $29_{10} = (r[4] r[3] r[2] r[1] r[0])_2 = 11101_2$ .

**Input:** *n* [a nonnegative integer]

### Algorithm Body:

*q* := *n*, *i* := 0

[Repeatedly perform the integer division of q by 2 until q becomes 0. Store successive remainders in a one-dimensional array r [0], r [1], r [2], ...., r [k].

Even if the initial value of q equals 0, the loop should execute one time (so that r [0] is computed).

Thus the guard condition for the **while** loop is i = 0 or  $q \neq 0$ .]

while  $(i = 0 \text{ or } q \neq 0)$ 

*r*[*i*] := *q* mod 2

 $q := q \operatorname{div} 2$ 

[r [ i ] and q can be obtained by calling the division algorithm.]

*i* := *i* + 1

end while

[After execution of this step, the values of r [0], r [1], ..., r [i - 1] are all 0's and 1's, and  $a = (r [i - 1] r [i - 2] ... r [2] r [1] r [0])_2$ .]

**Output:** *r* [0], *r* [1], *r* [2], ..., *r* [*i* – 1] [a sequence of integers]