

6.1 Mathematical Induction

Notebook: Discrete Mathematics [CM1020]

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Cornell Notes	Topic: 6.1 Mathematical Induction	Course: BSc Computer Science
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Essential Question:		
What are proofs & mathematical induction?		
Questions/Cues:		
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is a proof?• What is a direct proof?• What is proof by contrapositive?• What is proof by contradiction?• What is Mathematical induction?• What is the intuition behind induction?• What is the structure of induction?• What are the uses of induction?• What is strong induction?• What is strong induction sometimes otherwise known as?• What is the well-ordering property?• What the equivalence between mathematical induction, well-ordering property & strong induction?		
Notes		
<h1>Definition</h1> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• A proof is a valid argument that is used to prove the truth of a statement• To build a proof we need to use all the blocks we have introduced previously:<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Variables and predicates• Quantifiers• Laws of logic• Rules of inference		

Terminology

We need to define some terms, even if choosing the appropriate term is intrinsically subjective:

- A **theorem** is a formal statement that can be shown to be true
- An **axiom** is a statement we assume to be true to serve as a premise for further arguments
- A **lemma** is a proven statement used as a step to a larger result rather than as a statement of interest by itself
- A **corollary** is a theorem that can be established by a short proof from a theorem.

Formalising a theorem

- Let's consider the statement **S**: "There exists a real number between any two not equal real numbers."
- **S** can be **formalised** as: $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ if $x < y$ then $\exists z \in \mathbb{R}$ where $x < z < y$
- **S** is a **theorem**.

Direct proof

- A **direct proof** is based on showing that a conditional statement: $p \rightarrow q$ is true
- We start by assuming that p is true and then use: **axioms, definitions and theorems**, together with **rules of inference**, to show that q must also be true.

Example

Let's give a proof of the theorem:

"There exists a real number between any two not equal real numbers."

Proof:

- Let x, y be arbitrary elements in \mathbb{R}
- Let's suppose $x < y$
- Let $z = (x + y)/2$
- $z \in \mathbb{R}$, satisfying $x < z < y$

∴ Therefore, using the universal generalisation rule, we can conclude that:
 $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ if $x < y$ then $\exists z \in \mathbb{R}$ where $x < z < y$

Proof by contrapositive

- A **proof by contrapositive** is based on the fact that proving the conditional statement $p \rightarrow q$ is equivalent to proving its contrapositive: $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$
- We start by assuming that $\neg q$ is true and then use: **axioms, definitions and theorems**, together with **rules of inference**, to show that $\neg p$ must also be true.

Example

Let's give a proof of the theorem:

"If n^2 is even then n is even."

Proof:

- **Direct proof:**
 - Let $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. If n^2 is even then $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, n^2 = 2k$
 - Then $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, n = \pm\sqrt{2k}$. From this equation it doesn't seem intuitive to prove that n is even.
- **Proof by contraposition:**
 - Let's suppose n is odd
 - Then $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, n = 2k+1$
 - Then $\exists k \in \mathbb{Z}, n^2 = (2k+1)^2 = 2(2k^2+2k)+1$
 - Then n^2 is also odd
 - We have succeeded in proving the contrapositive: if n is odd then n^2 is odd.

Proof by contradiction

- A **proof by contradiction** is based on assuming that the statement we want to prove is **false**, and then showing that this assumption leads to a **false** proposition
- We start by assuming that $\neg p$ is true and then use: **axioms, definitions and theorems**, together with **rules of inference**, to show that $\neg p$ is **false**. We can then conclude that it was wrong to assume that p is **false**, so it must be **true**.

Example

Let's give a direct proof of the theorem:
"There are infinitely many prime numbers."

Proof:

- Let's suppose there are only finitely many prime numbers
- Let's list them as $p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots, p_n$ where $p_1 = 2, p_2 = 3, p_3 = 5$ and so on
- Let's consider the number $c = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n + 1$, the product of all the prime numbers, plus 1
- Then, as c is a natural number, it has at least one prime divisor.
- Then $\exists k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, where p_k / c
- Then $\exists k \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \exists d \in \mathbb{N}$ where $d p_k = c = p_1 p_2 p_3 \dots p_n + 1$
- Then $\exists k \in \{1, \dots, n\}, \exists d \in \mathbb{N}$ where $d = p_1 p_2 \dots p_{k-1} p_{k+1} \dots p_n + \frac{1}{p_k}$
- Then, $\frac{1}{p_k}$, in the expression above, is an integer, which is a contradiction.

Definition

- Mathematical induction can be used to assert that a propositional function $P(n)$ is true for all positive integers n .
- **The rule of inference:**

$$\begin{array}{l} P(1) \text{ is true} \\ \forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)) \\ \hline \therefore \forall n P(n) \end{array}$$

The intuition behind induction

- Let $P(n)$ be the propositional function verifying:
 - $P(1)$ is true
 - $\forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$
- **Intuitively:**
 - P is true for 1
 - Since P is true for 1, it's true for 2
 - Since P is true for 2, it's true for 3
 - And so on ...
 - Since P is true for $n-1$, it's true for n ...
- **In other words:**
 - The base case shows that the property initially holds true
 - The inductive step shows how each iteration influences the next one.

Structure of induction

In order to prove that a propositional function $P(n)$ is true for all, we need to verify two steps:

1. **BASIS STEP:** where we show that $P(1)$ is true
2. **INDUCTIVE STEP:** where we show that for $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$:
if $P(k)$ is true, called **inductive hypothesis**,
then $P(k + 1)$ is true.

Some uses of induction

Mathematical induction can be used to prove $P(n)$ is true for all integers greater than a particular integer, where $P(n)$ is a propositional function. That might cover multiple cases such as:

- Proving formulas
- Proving inequalities
- Proving divisibility
- Proving properties of subsets and their cardinality.

Proving formulas

- Let's start by proving a simple formula formalised as the propositional function, $P(n)$: $1+2+3+\dots+n = n(n+1)/2$
 - In order to prove that a propositional function $P(n)$ is true for all, we need to verify two steps :
1. **BASIS STEP**: where we show that $P(1)$ is true
 2. **INDUCTIVE STEP**: where we show that for $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$:
if $P(k)$ is true, called **inductive hypothesis**,
then $P(k + 1)$ is true.

Example

1. **BASIS STEP**: The basis step, $P(1)$ reduces to $1 = 1(1+1)/2$
2. **INDUCTIVE STEP**:
 - Let $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$
 - If the inductive hypothesis $P(k)$ is true:
 - we have $1+2+3+\dots+k = k(k+1)/2$
 - then, $1+2+3+\dots+k+(k+1)$
 $= k(k+1)/2 + (k+1)$
 $= (k(k+1) + 2(k+1))/2$
 $= (k+1)((k+1) + 1)/2$
 - which verifies, $P(k+1)$.

Proving inequalities

- We may also use mathematical induction to prove an inequality that holds for all positive integers greater than a particular positive integer
- Let's consider proving the propositional function $P(n)$: $3^n < n!$ if n is an integer greater than or equal to 7.

Example

1. **BASIS STEP:** The basis step, $P(7)$ reduces to $3^7 < 7!$ because $2187 < 5040$.
2. **INDUCTIVE STEP:**
 - Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k \geq 7$
 - If the inductive hypothesis $P(k)$ is true:
then, $3^{k+1} = 3 * 3^k < (k+1) * k! = (k+1)!$ which verifies $P(k+1)$ is true.

Proving divisibility

- We may also use mathematical induction to prove a divisibility that holds for all positive integers greater than a particular positive integer.
- Let's consider proving the propositional function $P(n): \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \ 6^n + 4$ is divisible by 4

Example

1. **BASIS STEP:** The basis step, $P(0)$ reduces to $6^0 + 4$ is divisible by 5, because $6^0 + 4 = 5$
2. **INDUCTIVE STEP:**
 - Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$
 - If the inductive hypothesis $P(k)$ is true:
 - then, $6^k + 4 = 5p$, where $p \in \mathbb{N}$
 - then, $6^{k+1} + 4 = 6 * (5p - 4) + 4$
 $= 30p - 20$
 $= 5(6p - 4)$ which is divisible by 5 and verifies $P(k+1)$ is true.

Incorrect Induction

Let's consider the statement of the following
incorrect induction: $P(n): \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n$

Proof:

- Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Let's suppose the inductive hypothesis $P(k)$ is true, which means: $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i = 2^k$
- Now let's examine $P(k+1)$
- $\sum_{i=0}^k 2^i = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i + 2^k = 2^k + 2^k = 2^{k+1}$
- This means that $P(k+1)$ is also true and verifies the induction step.

Incorrect induction

- Even though we have been able to prove the induction step, let's prove that the statement: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n$ is **FALSE**
 - For example $2^0 + 2^1 = 3$ which is different from 2^2
- Our reasoning seemed correct because we haven't verified the base case and have made **false assumptions**
- In other words, and as we saw in propositional logic, false assumptions imply false conclusions
- To avoid this situation we need to make sure both the **base case** and the **inductive step** are verified.

Strong induction

- Sometimes, it is easier to prove statements using a different form of mathematical induction, called strong induction
- Strong induction can be formalised using the following **rule of inference**:

$$\begin{array}{l} P(1) \text{ is true} \\ \forall k \in \mathbb{N} \quad P(1), P(2) \dots P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1) \\ \hline \therefore \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n) \end{array}$$

- Strong induction is sometimes called the second principle of mathematical induction or complete induction

Example

Let's start by proving a simple statement, expressed as the propositional function, $P(n)$: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n \geq 2$, n is divisible by a prime number.

- To prove it, we need to verify two steps:
 1. **BASIS STEP:** The basis step, $P(2)$ reduces to 2, which is divisible by a prime number because 2 is a prime number and divides itself.
 2. **INDUCTIVE STEP:**
 - Let $k \in \mathbb{N}$, greater than 2.
 - If the inductive hypothesis is $P(k)$ is true:
 - let's also assume $P(2) \dots P(k+1)$ is true. Then, $\forall m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $2 \leq m \leq k+1$: $\exists p$ is a prime number dividing m
 - We have two cases:
 - $k+2$ is a prime number, in which case it is trivially divisible by itself
 - $k+2$ is not a prime number, in which case $\exists m$ dividing $k+2$
 - as $2 \leq m \leq k+1$, $\exists p$ is a prime number dividing m . p also divides $k+2$
 - Which verifies $P(k+2)$ is true and proves the strong induction.

Well-ordering property

The well-ordering property is an axiom about \mathbb{N} that we assume to be true. The axioms about \mathbb{N} are the following:

1. The number 1 is a positive integer
2. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $n + 1$, the successor of n , is also a positive integer
3. Every positive integer other than 1 is the successor of a positive integer
4. The well-ordering property: every nonempty subset of the set of positive integers has at least one element.

The well-ordering property can be used as a tool in building proofs.

Example

Let's reconsider the earlier statement $P(n)$: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $n \geq 2$, n is divisible by a prime number.

- **Proof:**
 - Let S be the set of positive integers greater than 1 with **no prime divisor**
 - Suppose S is nonempty. Let n be its smallest element
 - n cannot be prime, since n divides itself and if n were prime, it would be its own prime divisor
 - So n is composite: it must have a divisor d with $1 < d < n$. Then, d must have a prime divisor (by the minimality of n), let's call it p
 - Then $p|d$ and $d|n$, so $p|n$, which is a contradiction
 - Therefore S is empty, which verifies $P(n)$.

Equivalence of the three concepts

We can prove the following statements:

- mathematical induction \rightarrow the well-ordering property
- the well-ordering property \rightarrow strong induction
- strong induction \rightarrow mathematical induction.
- That is, the principles of mathematical induction, strong induction and well-ordering are all equivalent
- In other words, the validity of each of these three proof techniques implies the validity of the other two techniques.

Summary

In this week, we learned what a proof is, the different types of proofs & what mathematical induction is. Also we looked at a different form of induction called strong induction, the structure of induction, the well-ordering property & the equivalence of mathematical induction, the well-ordering property & strong induction.