

# Induction

1. Define your logical predicate  $P(n)$ .
2. Prove that  $P(0)$  is true.
3. Prove that  $P(n)$  implies  $P(n+1)$ .
  - often done by proving  $P(n)$  assuming all  $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(n-1)$  are true
  - these are termed weak and strong induction, respectively

## Problem 1

Prove that for all  $n$  in the nonnegative integers,

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

## Solution

For the base case, our  $P(0)$  is really  $P(1)$ . The above formula is somewhat ill-defined, but let's assume it represents the sum from 1 to  $n$ . In that case,  $P(n=1)$  can be proved trivially:

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} = 1$$

For the case of  $P(n)$ , we assume  $P(n)$  to be true (inductive hypothesis), and directly compute  $P(n+1) = P(n) + (n+1)$  as

$$\begin{aligned} P(n+1) &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (n+1) \\ &= \frac{n^2 + n + 2n + 2}{2} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

yielding the expression to be proved for  $P(n+1)$ , and completing the proof by induction.

## Problem 2

Prove that every integer greater than 1 has a prime divisor.

Hint: two cases to consider for a given integer  $n$ . Use strong induction.

## Solution

Case 1:  $n$  is prime, and divides itself.

Case 2:  $n$  is not prime, so it must be a compound of two non-prime integers. Crucially, these integers are also *smaller* than  $n$ .

If we let  $n = ab$ , with  $a, b < n$ , then by our inductive hypothesis, both  $a$  and  $b$  have prime divisors.

Then let  $a/d$  be an integer, with  $d$  any prime divisor of  $a$ .

The quantity  $(n/a)(a/d)$  is the product of two integers, and thus the simplification  $n/d$  must also be an integer.

Thus proving that  $n$  has a prime divisor.

## Problem 3

Prove that all trees with  $n$  vertices contain  $n - 1$  edges.

## Solution

Base case: The smallest tree has  $n = 1$  vertex, and  $n - 1 = 0$  edges.

Consider an arbitrary tree with  $n$  vertices.

Remove an arbitrary edge from the tree. The result will be two disjoint trees (proof by contradiction: otherwise, the original tree would contain a cycle), let these be called tree  $S$  with  $k \in [1..n]$  vertices, and tree  $T$  with  $n - k$  vertices.

By our inductive hypothesis, tree  $S$  contains  $k - 1$  edges and tree  $T$  contains  $(n - k) - 1$  edges.

Consider merging these trees by adding an edge between any two vertices  $s \in S$  and  $t \in T$ . The result must be a tree, no cycle can be created since there was no path from  $s$  to  $t$  between two disjoint trees.

The resulting tree will contain  $(k - 1) + (n - k - 1) + 1 = n - 1$  edges, thus proving the result by induction.

## Problem 4

Any convex polygon  $P$  with  $n \geq 3$  vertices can be decomposed into a set of  $n - 2$  triangles whose interiors do not overlap.

### Solution

Base case: smallest polygon has  $n = 3$  vertices, equivalent to a single triangle.

Next, consider an arbitrary convex polygon with  $n$  vertices.

By definition of convexity, we can add an edge between any two nonadjacent vertices in  $P$ . This edge is guaranteed not to overlap any edges of the polygon.

This added edge decomposes  $P$  into two smaller nonoverlapping polygons,  $Q$  and  $R$ .  $Q$  has  $k \in [3..(n - 3)]$  vertices, and  $R$  has  $n - k + 2$  vertices (the  $+2$  from the two vertices the polygons share).

Thus, by our inductive hypothesis,  $Q$  can be decomposed into  $(k - 3)$  triangles and  $R$  can be decomposed into  $(n - k)$  triangles.

The sum of the number of triangles in these two smaller polygons is  $n - 3$  triangles to compose our original polygon  $P$ , thus proving the statement by induction.