

# Mathematical Induction

a means of proving a theorem by showing that if it is true of any particular case it is true of the next case in a series, and then showing that it is indeed true in one particular case.

# What is induction?

- A method of proof
- It does not generate answers: it only can prove them
- Three parts:
  - Base case(s): show it is true for one element
  - Inductive hypothesis: assume it is true for any given element
    - **Must be clearly labeled!!!**
  - Show that it is true for the next highest element



- In general, mathematical induction can be used to prove statements that assert that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ , where  $P(n)$  is a propositional function.
- When we use mathematical induction to prove a theorem, we first show that  $P(1)$  is true. Then we know that  $P(2)$  is true, because  $P(1)$  implies  $P(2)$ . Further, we know that  $P(3)$  is true, because  $P(2)$  implies  $P(3)$ . Continuing along these lines, we see that  $P(n)$  is true for every positive integer  $n$ .

- Many theorems assert that  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers  $n$ , where  $P(n)$  is a propositional function. Mathematical induction is a technique for proving theorems of this kind. In other words, mathematical induction can be used to prove statements of the form  $\forall n P(n)$ , where the domain is the *set of positive integers*. Mathematical induction can be used to prove an extremely wide variety of theorems, each of which is a statement of this form. (Remember, many mathematical assertions include an implicit universal quantifier. The statement “if  $n$  is a positive integer, then  $n^3 - n$  is divisible by 3” is an example of this. Making the implicit universal quantifier explicit yields the statement “for every positive integer  $n$ ,  $n^3 - n$  is divisible by 3.”)

- Have you heard of the "Domino Effect"?
- Step 1. The **first** domino falls
- Step 2. When **any** domino falls, the **next** domino falls
- So ... **all dominos will fall!**
- That is how Mathematical Induction works.



# Induction example

- Show that the sum of the first  $n$  odd integers is  $n^2$ 
  - If  $n = 5$ ,  $1+3+5+7+9 = 25 = 5^2$
  - Formally, Show  $\forall n P(n)$  where  $P(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n 2i - 1 == n^2$
- Basis step: Show that  $P(1)$  is true

$$\sum_{i=1}^1 2(i) - 1 == 1^2$$
$$1 == 1$$

# Induction example, continued

- Inductive hypothesis: assume true for  $k$ 
  - Thus, we assume that  $P(k)$  is true, or that

$$\sum_{i=1}^k 2i - 1 == k^2$$

- Note: we don't yet know if this is true or not!
- Inductive step: show that it is true for  $k+1$ 
  - We want to show that:

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

# Induction example, continued

- Recall the inductive hypothesis:  $\sum_{i=1}^k 2i - 1 == k^2$
- Proof of inductive step:

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

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

$$2(k + 1) - 1 + k^2 == k^2 + 2k + 1$$

$$k^2 + 2k + 1 == k^2 + 2k + 1$$



# What did we show

- Base case:  $P(1)$
- If  $P(k)$  was true, then  $P(k+1)$  is true
  - i.e.,  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$
- We know it's true for  $P(1)$
- Because of  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ , if it's true for  $P(1)$ , then it's true for  $P(2)$
- Because of  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ , if it's true for  $P(2)$ , then it's true for  $P(3)$
- Because of  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ , if it's true for  $P(3)$ , then it's true for  $P(4)$
- Because of  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ , if it's true for  $P(4)$ , then it's true for  $P(5)$
- And onwards to infinity
- Thus, it is true for all possible values of  $n$
- In other words, we showed that:

$$\left[ P(1) \wedge \forall k (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)) \right] \rightarrow \forall n P(n)$$

# The idea behind inductive proofs

- Show the base case
- Show the inductive hypothesis
- Manipulate the inductive step so that you can substitute in part of the inductive hypothesis
- Show the inductive step

# Second induction example

- Show the sum of the first  $n$  positive even integers is  $n^2 + n$
- Rephrased:  $\forall n P(n)$  where  $P(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n 2i == n^2 + n$
- The three parts:
  - Basis step
  - Inductive hypothesis
  - Inductive step

# Second induction example, continued

- Basis step: Show  $P(1)$ :
$$P(1) = \sum_{i=1}^1 2(i) == 1^2 + 1$$
$$= 2 == 2$$

- Inductive hypothesis: Assume

$$P(k) = \sum_{i=1}^k 2i == k^2 + k$$

- Inductive step: Show

$$P(k+1) = \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} 2i == (k+1)^2 + (k+1)$$

# Second induction example, continued

- Recall our inductive hypothesis:

$$P(k) = \sum_{i=1}^k 2i == k^2 + k$$

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

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

$$2(k+1) + k^2 + k == (k+1)^2 + k + 1$$

$$k^2 + 3k + 2 == k^2 + 3k + 2$$

# Notes on proofs by induction

- We manipulate the  $k+1$  case to make part of it look like the  $k$  case
- We then replace that part with the other side of the  $k$  case

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

$$P(k) = \sum_{i=1}^k 2i == k^2 + k$$

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

$$2(k+1) + k^2 + k == (k+1)^2 + k + 1$$

$$k^2 + 3k + 2 == k^2 + 3k + 2$$

# Third induction example

- Show 
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$
- Base case:  $n = 1$  
$$\sum_{i=1}^1 i^2 = \frac{1(1+1)(2+1)}{6}$$

$$1^2 = \frac{6}{6}$$

$$1 = 1$$

- Inductive hypothesis: assume

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6}$$

# Third induction example

- Inductive step: show  $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)}{6}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)}{6}$$

$$(k+1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6}$$

$$(k+1)^2 + \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6}$$

$$6(k+1)^2 + k(k+1)(2k+1) = (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)$$

$$2k^3 + 9k^2 + 13k + 6 = 2k^3 + 9k^2 + 13k + 6$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6}$$



# Third induction again: what if your inductive hypothesis was wrong?

- Show: 
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+2)}{6}$$

- Base case:  $n = 1$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^1 i^2 = \frac{1(1+1)(2+2)}{6}$$

$$1^2 = \frac{7}{6}$$

$$1 \neq \frac{7}{6}$$

- But let's continue anyway...
- Inductive hypothesis: assume

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+2)}{6}$$

# Third induction again: what if your inductive hypothesis was wrong?

- Inductive step: show  $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+2)}{6}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+2)}{6}$$

$$(k+1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+4)}{6}$$

$$(k+1)^2 + \frac{k(k+1)(2k+2)}{6} = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+4)}{6}$$

$$6(k+1)^2 + k(k+1)(2k+2) = (k+1)(k+2)(2k+4)$$

$$2k^3 + 10k^2 + 14k + 6 \neq 2k^3 + 10k^2 + 16k + 8$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+2)}{6}$$

# Fourth induction example

- Show that  $n! < n^n$  for all  $n > 1$
- Base case:  $n = 2$   
 $2! < 2^2$   
 $2 < 4$
- Inductive hypothesis: assume  $k! < k^k$
- Inductive step: show that  $(k+1)! < (k+1)^{k+1}$

$(k+1)!$	$= (k+1)k!$	$< (k+1)k^k$	$< (k+1)(k+1)^k$	$= (k+1)^{k+1}$
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# Example: Sum of Odd Integers

□ **Proposition:**  $1 + 3 + \dots + (2n-1) = n^2$   
for all integers  $n \geq 1$ .

□ **Proof (by induction):**

1) **Basis step:**

The statement is true for  $n=1$ :  $1=1^2$ .

2) **Inductive step:**

Assume the statement is true for some  $k \geq 1$

*(inductive hypothesis)* ,

show that it is true for  $k+1$  .

# Example: Sum of Odd Integers

## □ Proof (cont.):

The statement is true for  $k$ :

$$1+3+\dots+(2k-1) = k^2 \quad (1)$$

We need to show it for  $k+1$ :

$$1+3+\dots+(2(k+1)-1) = (k+1)^2 \quad (2)$$

Showing (2):

$$\begin{aligned} 1+3+\dots+(2(k+1)-1) &= 1+3+\dots+(2k+1) = \\ &= 1+3+\dots+(2k-1)+(2k+1) = \\ &= k^2+(2k+1) = (k+1)^2. \end{aligned} \quad \text{by (1)}$$

We proved the basis and inductive steps,  
so we conclude that the given statement true. ■

# Proving a divisibility property by mathematical induction

- **Proposition:** For any integer  $n \geq 1$ ,  
 $7^n - 2^n$  is divisible by 5.  $(P(n))$

- **Proof (by induction):**

## 1) Basis step:

The statement is true for  $n=1$ :  $(P(1))$

$$7^1 - 2^1 = 7 - 2 = 5 \text{ is divisible by } 5.$$

## 2) Inductive step:

Assume the statement is true for some  $k \geq 1$   $(P(k))$

*(inductive hypothesis)* ;

show that it is true for  $k+1$  .  $(P(k+1))$

# Proving a divisibility property by mathematical induction

□ **Proof (cont.):** We are given that

$$P(k): \quad 7^k - 2^k \text{ is divisible by } 5. \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Then } 7^k - 2^k = 5a \text{ for some } a \in \mathbf{Z}. \text{ (by definition)} \quad (2)$$

We need to show:

$$P(k+1): \quad 7^{k+1} - 2^{k+1} \text{ is divisible by } 5. \quad (3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} 7^{k+1} - 2^{k+1} &= 7 \cdot 7^k - 2 \cdot 2^k = 5 \cdot 7^k + 2 \cdot 7^k - 2 \cdot 2^k \\ &= 5 \cdot 7^k + 2 \cdot (7^k - 2^k) = 5 \cdot 7^k + 2 \cdot 5a \text{ (by (2))} \\ &= 5 \cdot (7^k + 2a) \text{ which is divisible by } 5. \text{ (by def.)} \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $P(n)$  is true by induction. ■

# Strong induction

- Weak mathematical induction assumes  $P(k)$  is true, and uses that (and only that!) to show  $P(k+1)$  is true
- Strong mathematical induction assumes  $P(1)$ ,  $P(2)$ , ...,  $P(k)$  are all true, and uses that to show that  $P(k+1)$  is true.

$$[P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3) \wedge \dots \wedge P(k)] \rightarrow P(k+1)$$



# Strong induction example 1

- Show that any number  $> 1$  can be written as the product of primes
- Base case:  $P(2)$ 
  - 2 is the product of 2 (remember that 1 is not prime!)
- Inductive hypothesis:  $P(1), P(2), P(3), \dots, P(k)$  are all true
- Inductive step: Show that  $P(k+1)$  is true

# Strong induction example 1

- Inductive step: Show that  $P(k+1)$  is true
- There are two cases:
  - $k+1$  is prime
    - It can then be written as the product of  $k+1$
  - $k+1$  is composite
    - It can be written as the product of two composites,  $a$  and  $b$ , where  $2 \leq a \leq b < k+1$
    - By the inductive hypothesis, both  $P(a)$  and  $P(b)$  are true