## Mathematical Induction

Part Two

The principle of mathematical induction states that if for some property P(n), we have that

P(0) is true

and

For any natural number n,  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$ 

Then

For any natural number n, P(n) is true.

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

In an inductive proof, to prove P(5), we can only assume P(4). We cannot rely on any of our earlier results!

## Strong Induction

## The **principle of strong induction** states that if for some property P(n), we have that

P(0) is true

and

For any natural number n, if P(n') is true for all n' ≤ n, then P(n + 1) is true

then

For any natural number n, P(n) is true.

# The **principle of strong induction** states that if for some property P(n), we have that

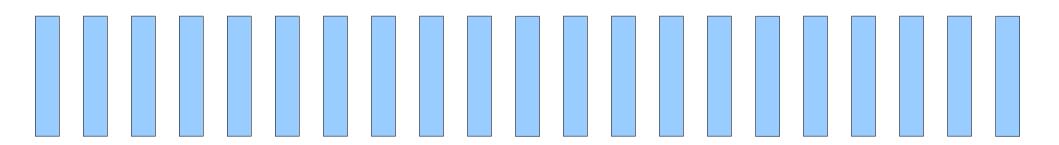
Assume that P(n) P(0) is true holds for n and all smaller n. and

For any natural number n, if P(n') is true for all n' ≤ n, then P(n + 1) is true

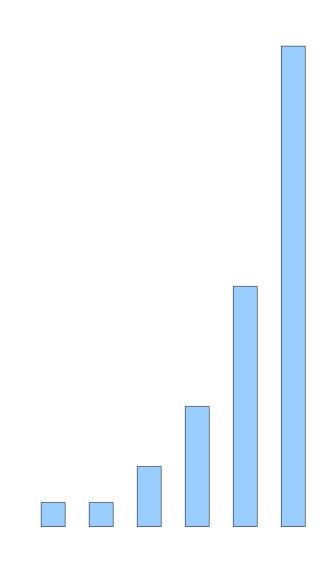
then

For any natural number n, P(n) is true.

#### Induction and Dominoes



## Strong Induction and Dominoes



## Weak and Strong Induction

- Weak induction (regular induction) is good for showing that some property holds by incrementally adding in one new piece.
- Strong induction is good for showing that some property holds by breaking a large structure down into multiple small pieces.

## Proof by Strong Induction

- State that you are attempting to prove something by strong induction.
- State what your choice of P(n) is.
- Prove the base case:
  - State what P(0) is, then prove it.
- Prove the inductive step:
  - State that you assume for all  $0 \le n' \le n$ , that P(n') is true.
  - State what P(n + 1) is. (this is what you're trying to prove)
  - Go prove P(n + 1).

## **Application:** Binary Numbers

## **Binary Numbers**

- The binary number system is base 2.
- Every number is represented as 1s and 0s encoding various powers of two.
- Examples:
  - $100_2 = 1 \times 2^2 + 0 \times 2^1 + 0 \times 2^0 = 4$
  - $11011_2 = 1 \times 2^4 + 1 \times 2^3 + 0 \times 2^2 + 1 \times 2^1 + 1 \times 2^0 = 27$
- Enormously useful in computing; almost all computers do computation on binary numbers.
- Question: How do we know that every natural number can be written in binary?

## Justifying Binary Numbers

 To justify the binary representation, we will prove the following result:

Every natural number *n* can be expressed as the sum of distinct powers of two.

- This says that there's *at least* one way to write a number in binary; we'd need a separate proof to show that there's *exactly* one way to do it.
- So how do we prove this?

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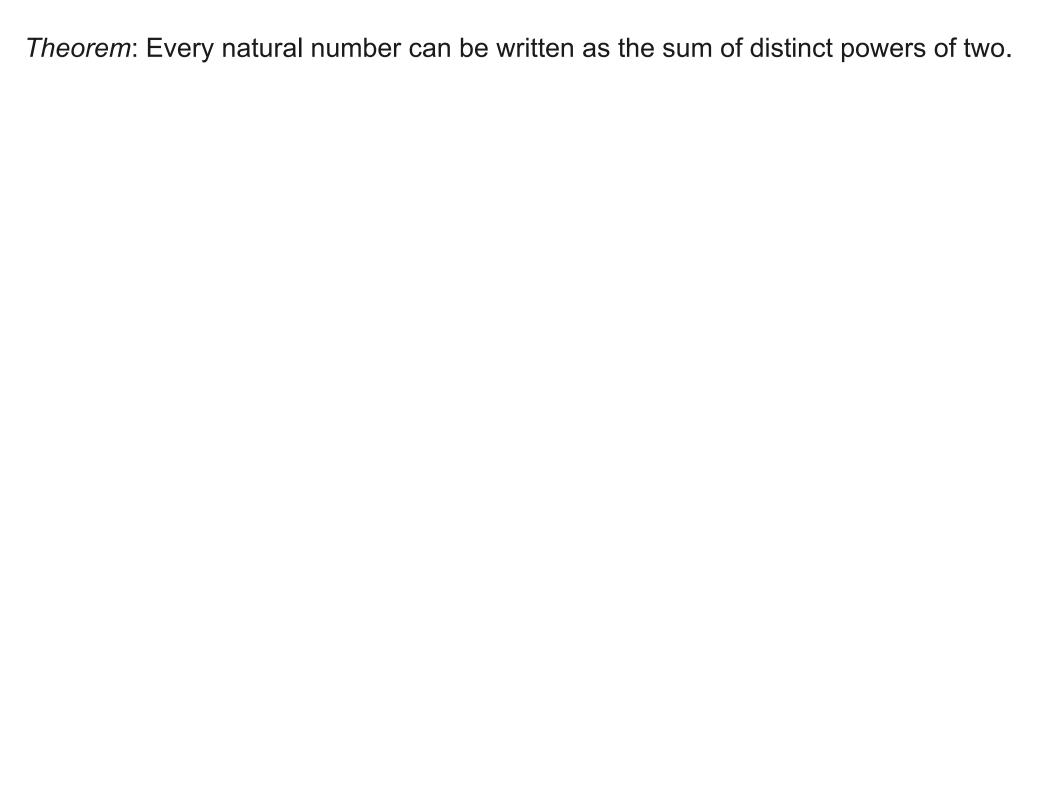
16 8 2

0

16 8 2 1

#### General Idea

- Repeatedly subtract out the largest power of two less than the number.
- Can't subtract 2<sup>n</sup> twice for any *n*; otherwise, you could have subtracted 2<sup>n+1</sup>.
- Eventually, we reach 0; the number is then the sum of the powers of two that we subtracted.
- How do we formalize this as a proof?



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Notice the stronger version of the induction hypothesis.

We're now showing that P(n) is true for n and all smaller natural numbers. We're going to use this fact later on.

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Here's the key step of the proof. If we can show that

$$n+1-2^k \leq n$$

then we can use the inductive hypothesis to claim that  $n+1-2^k$  is a sum of distinct powers of two.

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This step would fail in a normal inductive proof because we're talking about some number no greater than *n*, not necessarily *n* itself. Strong induction is extremely useful in cases like this.

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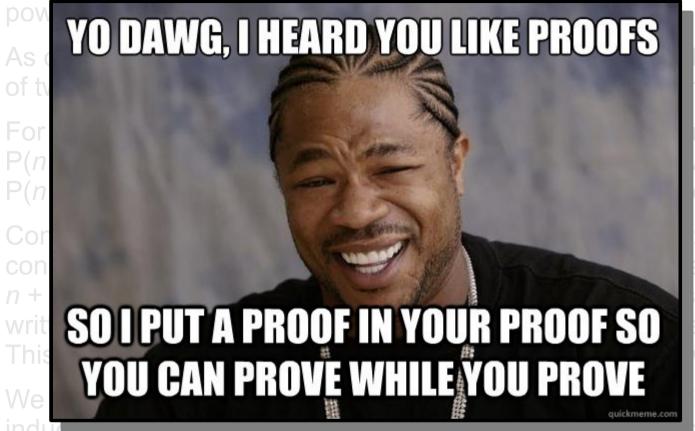
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We now need to show that these powers of two are all distinct. We know by the inductive hypothesis that all of the powers of two in S are distinct, so the only way that a power of two would be repeated would be if  $2^k \in S$ . We show that this is impossible by contradiction; assume that  $2^k \in S$ . Since  $2^k \in S$  and the sum of the powers of two in S is  $n + 1 - 2^k$ , this means that  $2^k \le n + 1 - 2^k$ . This means that  $2(2^k) \le n + 1$ , so  $2^{k+1} \le n + 1$ , contradicting the fact that  $2^k$  is the largest power of two less than or equal to n + 1. We have reached a contradiction, so our assumption was wrong and  $2^k \notin S$ .

*Proof:* By strong induction. Let P(n) be "n can be written as the sum of distinct powers of two." We prove that P(n) is true for all n.

As our base case, we prove P(0), that 0 can be written as the sum of distinct powers of two. Since the empty sum of no powers of two is equal to 0, P(0) holds.

For the inductive step, assume that for some n, for all n' satisfying  $0 \le n' \le n$ , that P(n') holds and n' can be written as the sum of distinct powers of two. We prove P(n + 1), that n + 1 can be written as the sum of distinct powers of two.

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### Reformulating Strong Induction

### The **principle of strong induction** states that if for some property P(n), we have that

P(0) is true

and

For any natural number n, if P(n') is true for all n' ≤ n, then P(n + 1) is true

then

For any natural number n, P(n) is true.

# The **principle of strong induction** states that if for some property P(n), we have that

Assume that P(n) P(0) is true holds for n and all smaller n. and

For any natural number n, if P(n') is true for all n' ≤ n, then P(n + 1) is true

then

For any natural number n, P(n) is true.

# The **principle of strong induction** states that if for some property P(n), we have that

P(0) is true

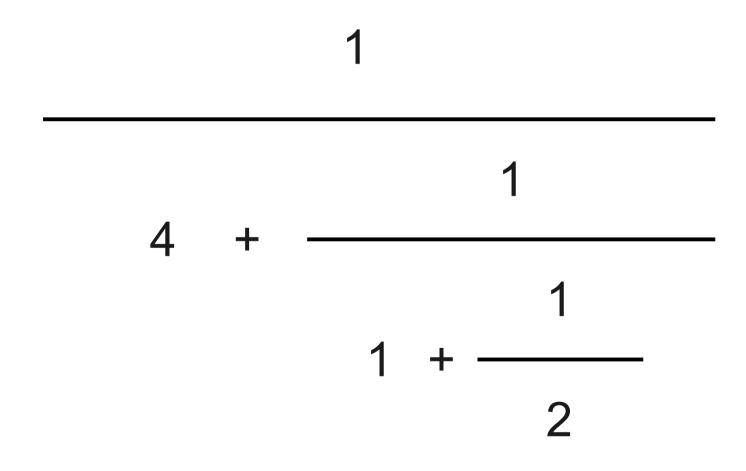
and

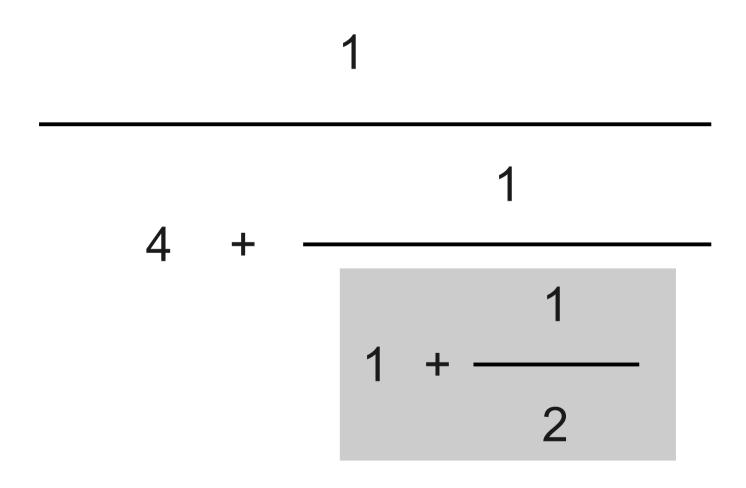
For any natural number n, if P(n') is true for all n' < n, then P(n) is true

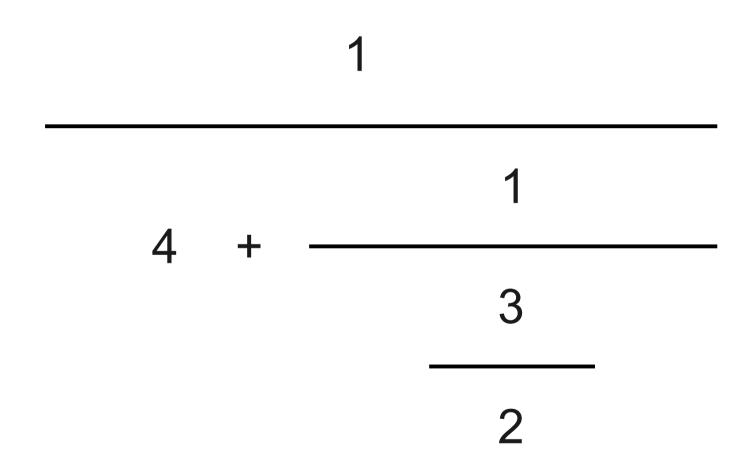
then

For any natural number n, P(n) is true.

### Application: Continued Fractions



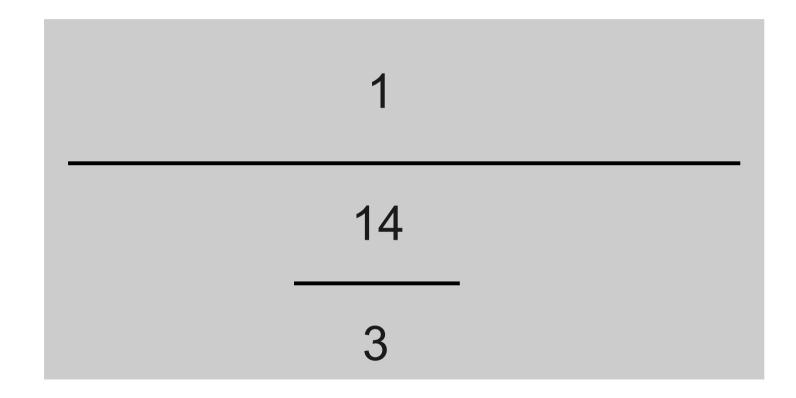


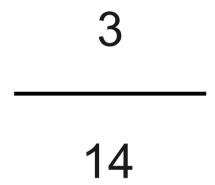


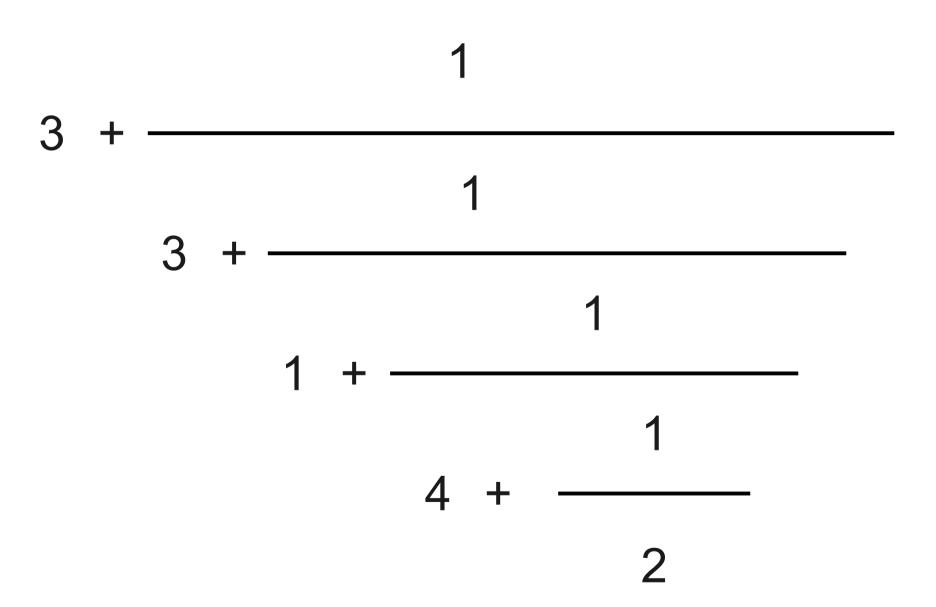
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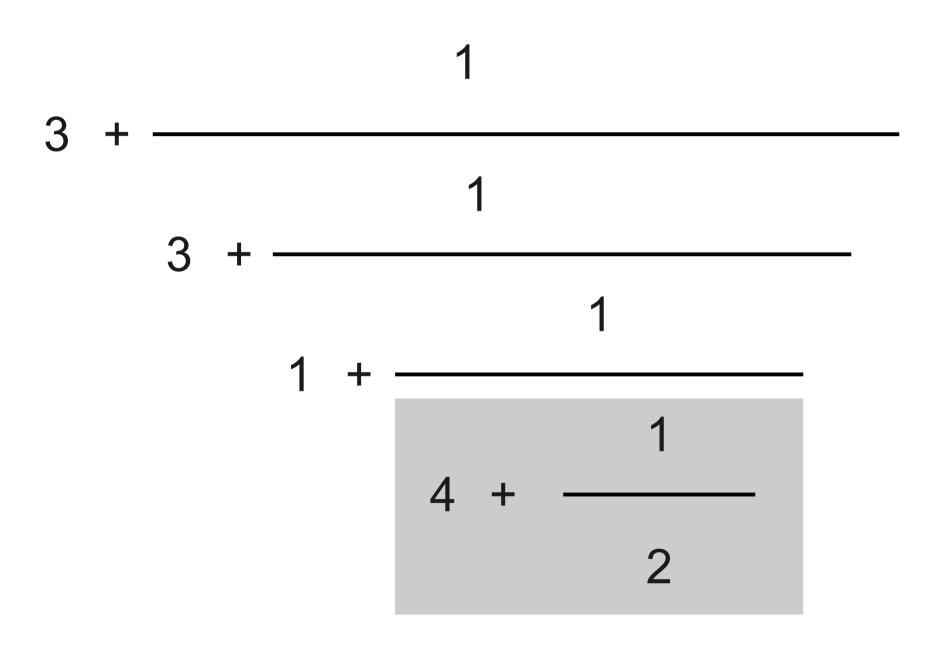
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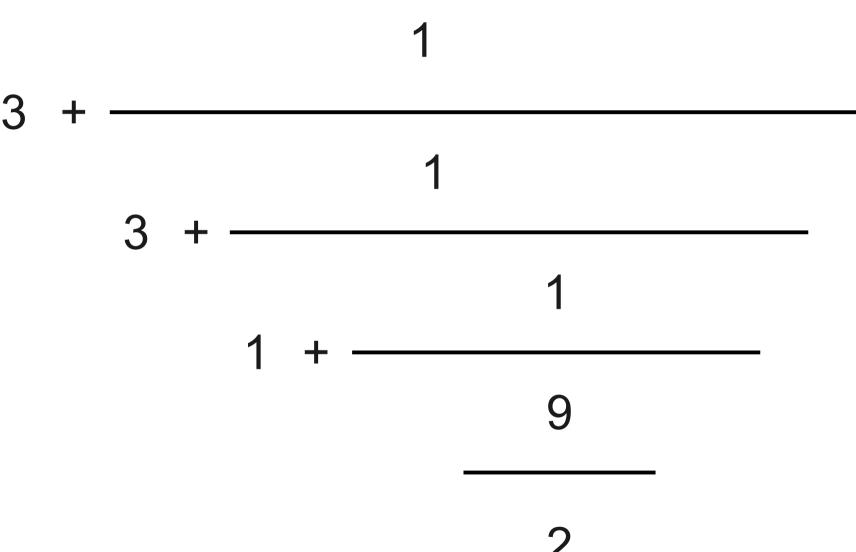
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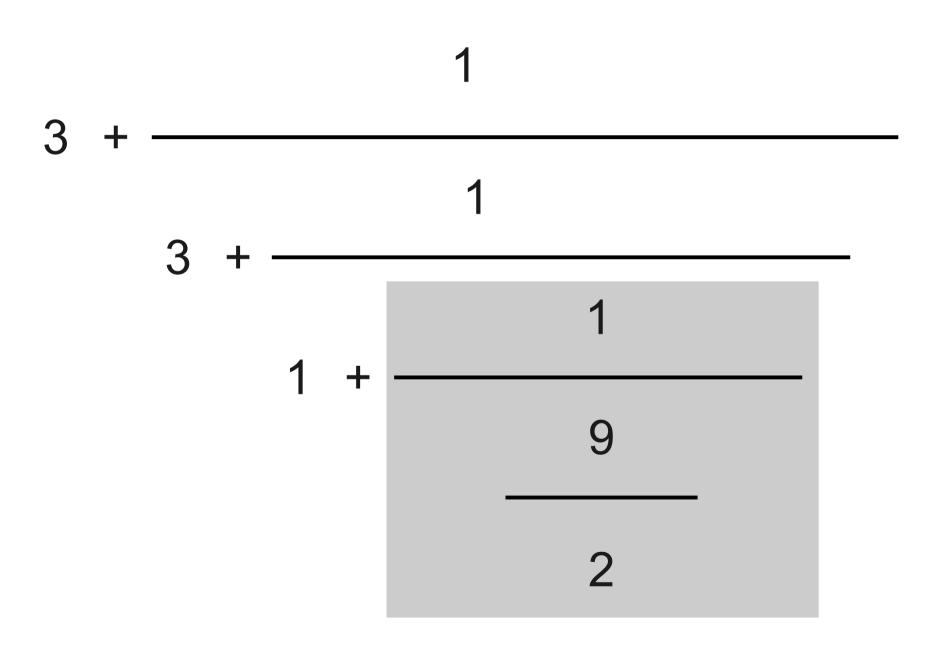


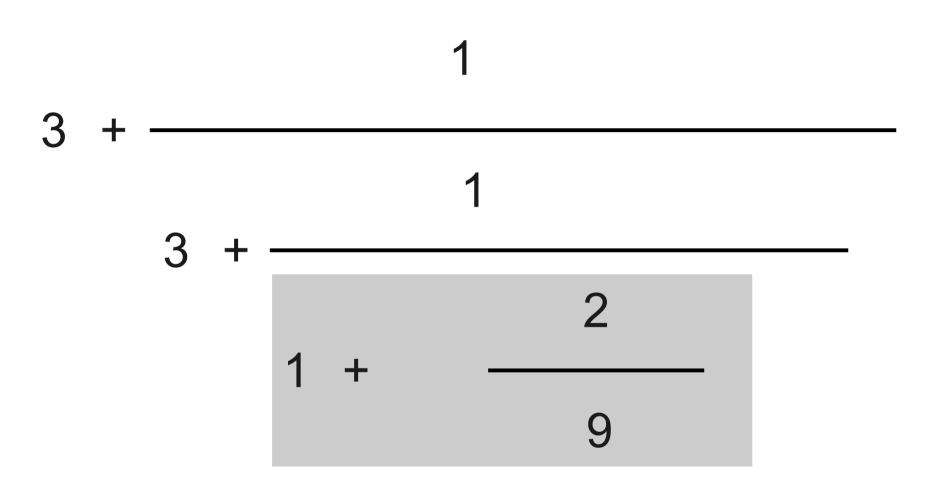


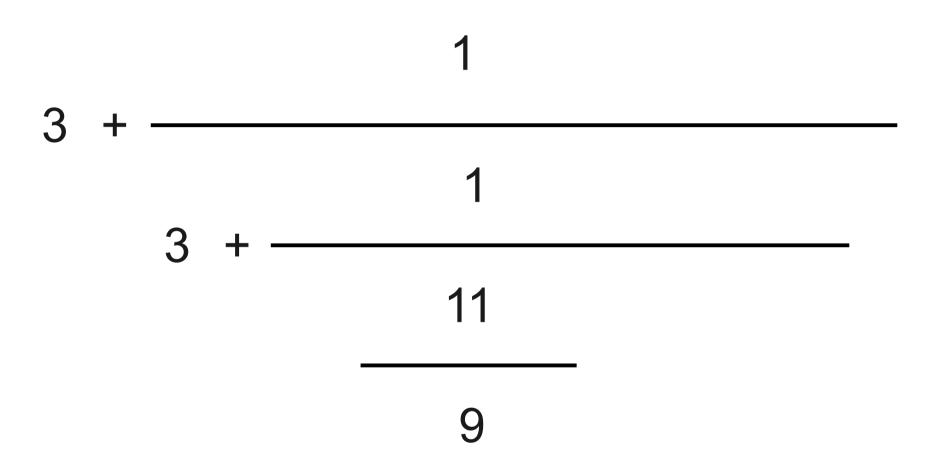


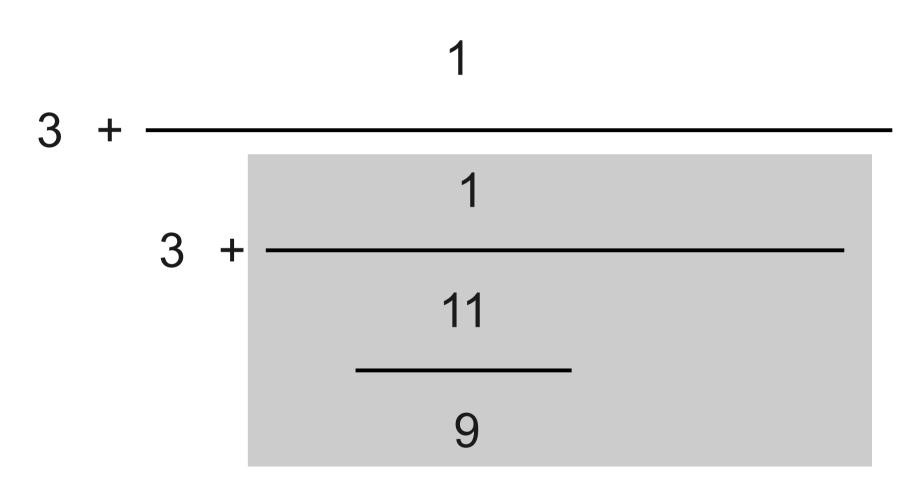


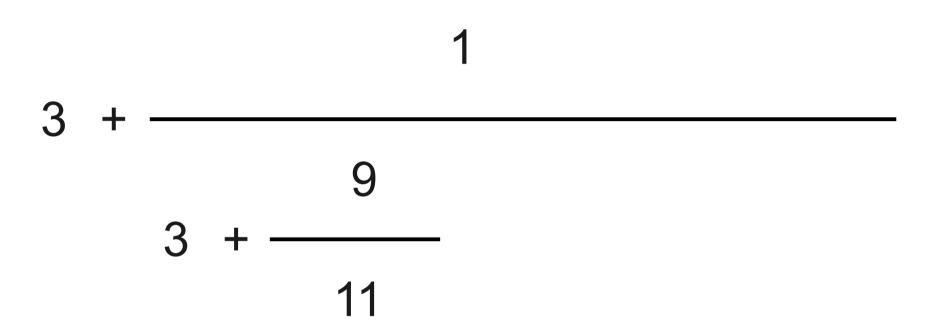


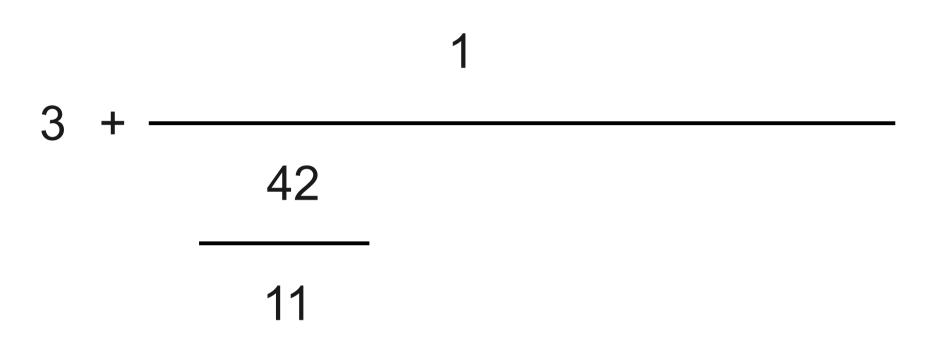


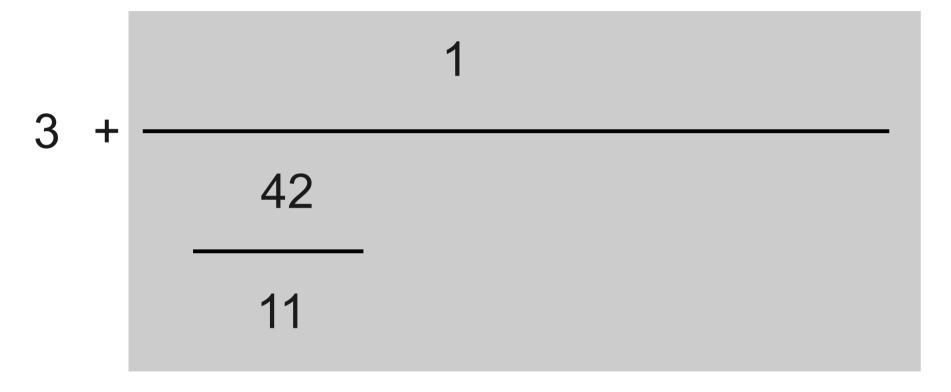


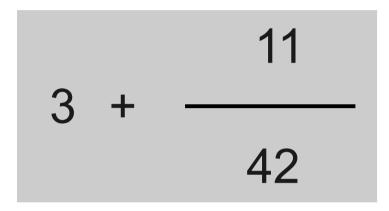












A continued fraction is an expression of the form

$$a_0 + \frac{1}{a_1 + \frac{1}{a_2 + \frac{1}{a_3 + \frac{1$$

- More formally, a continued fraction is either
  - An integer *n*, or
  - n + 1 / F, where n is an integer and F is a continued fraction.
- Continued fractions have numerous applications in number theory and computer science.
- (They're also really fun to write!)

#### Fun with Continued Fractions

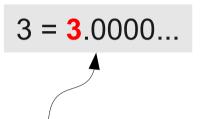
- Every rational number (including negative numbers) has a continued fraction.
- Harder result: every irrational number has an (infinite) continued fraction.
- If we truncate an infinite continued fraction for an irrational number, we can get progressively better approximations of that number.

#### Pi as a Continued Fraction

$$\pi = 3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{15 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{292 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{1}}}}}}}$$

$$\pi = 3$$

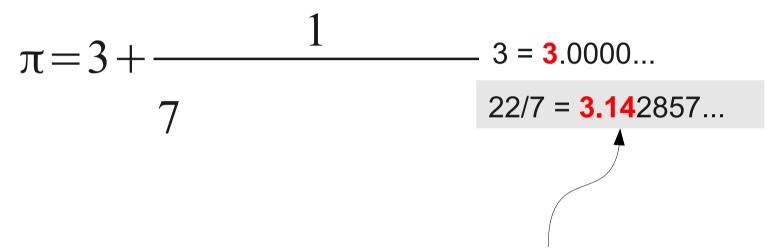
$$\pi = 3$$



And he made the Sea of cast bronze, ten cubits from one brim to the other; it was completely round. [... A] line of thirty cubits measured its circumference.

1 Kings 7:23, New King James
Translation

$$\pi = 3 + \frac{1}{7}$$
 3 = 3.0000... 22/7 = 3.142857...



Archimedes knew of this approximation, circa 250 BCE

$$\pi = 3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{15}}$$
 3 = 3.0000... 22/7 = 3.142857... 336/106 = 3.1415094...

$$\pi = 3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{15 + \frac{1}{1}}}$$
 3 = 3.0000...

 $3 = 3.0000$ ...

 $3 = 3.0000$ ...

 $3 = 3.0000$ ...

 $3 = 3.1415094$ ...

 $3 = 3.14159292$ ...

$$\pi = 3 + \frac{1}{7 + \frac{1}{15 + \frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{3 = 3.0000...}{22/7 = 3.142857...}$$

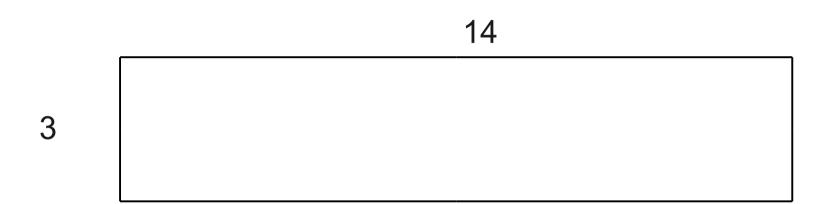
$$\frac{3 = 3.0000...}{336/106 = 3.1415094...}$$

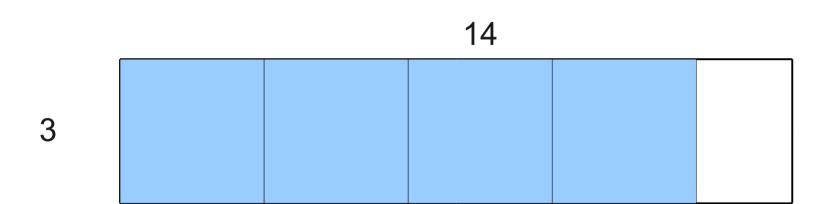
$$\frac{3 = 3.0000...}{336/106 = 3.1415094...}$$

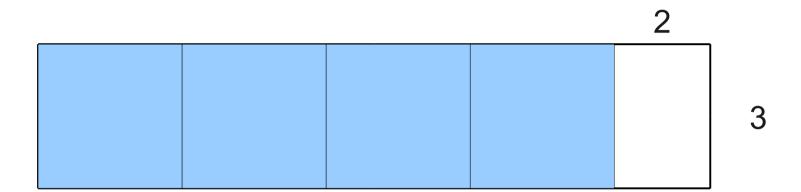
$$\frac{3 = 3.0000...}{336/106 = 3.1415094...}$$

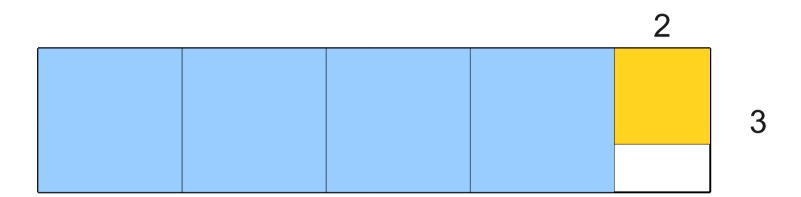
Chinese mathematician Zu Chongzhi discovered this approximation in the early fifth century; this was the best approximation of pi for over a thousand years

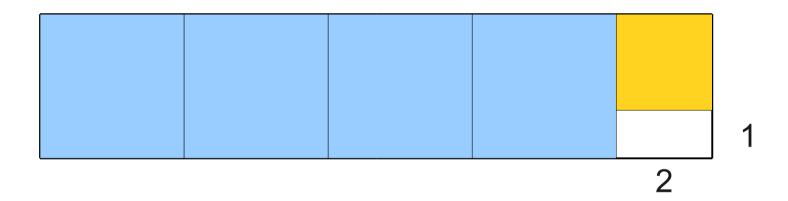
$$\pi = 3 + \cfrac{1}{7 + \cfrac{1}{15 + \cfrac{1}{1 + \cfrac{1}{292}}}} = 3.0000...$$
 $3 = 3.0000...$ 
 $22/7 = 3.142857...$ 
 $336/106 = 3.1415094...$ 
 $355/113 = 3.14159292...$ 
 $355/113 = 3.1415926530...$ 

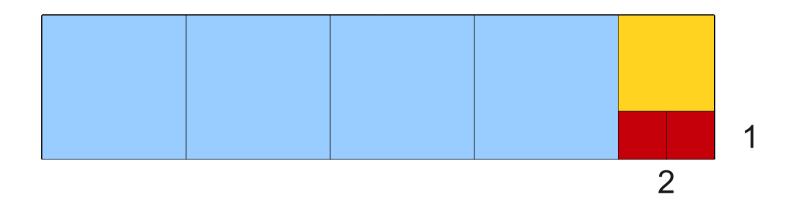




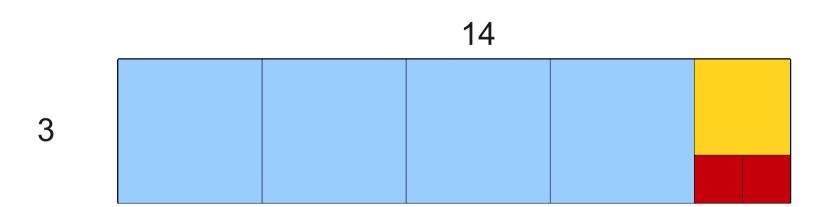




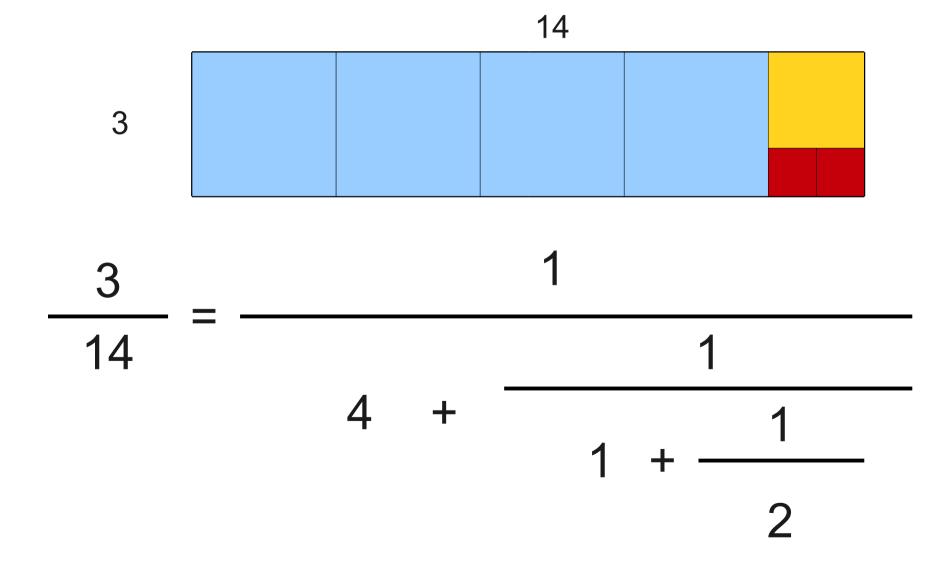




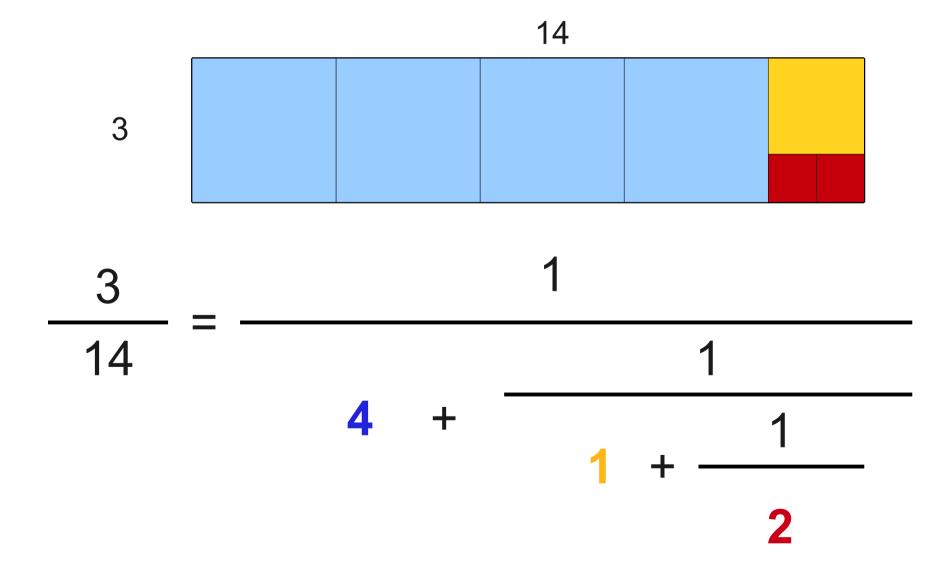
#### More Continued Fractions



#### More Continued Fractions



#### More Continued Fractions



$$x=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1$$

x=1

$$x=1+\frac{1}{1}$$
 1/1 2/1

$$x = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1}} = \frac{1}{1}$$

$$\frac{1}{1}$$

$$\frac{1}{3/2}$$

$$x=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\cdots + \frac{1}{1}}}}} = \frac{1}{1}$$

$$1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\cdots + \frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\cdots + \frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{5}{3}$$

$$1 = \frac{8}{5}$$

$$x=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1+\frac$$

$$x=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}}}}}} \begin{array}{c} 1/1\\ 2/1\\ \hline 1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}}} \\ \hline 1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}} \\ \hline 1 & 21/13 \end{array}$$

$$x=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}}}}} = \frac{1}{1}$$

$$1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$1+\frac{1}{1} = \frac{21}{13}$$

$$34/21$$

$$x=1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}}}} = \frac{1/1}{2/1}$$

$$1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}}} = \frac{3/2}{5/3}$$

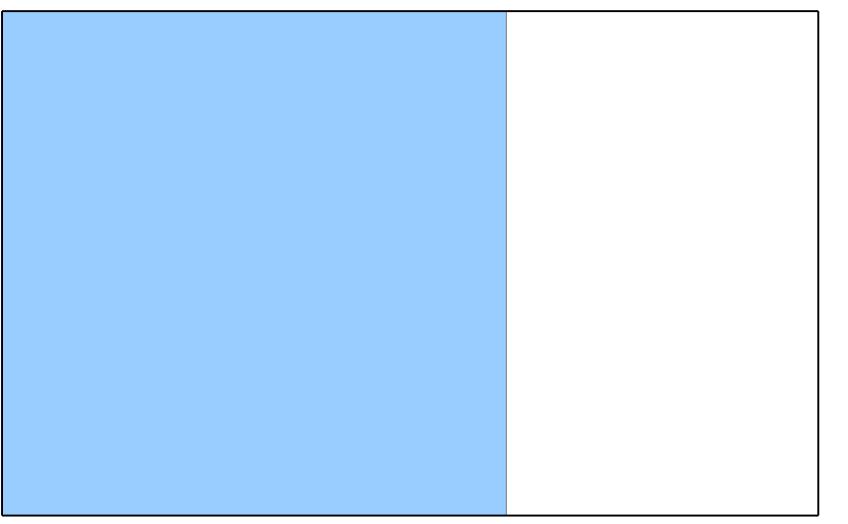
$$1+\frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1}} = \frac{13/8}{1+\frac{1}{1}}$$

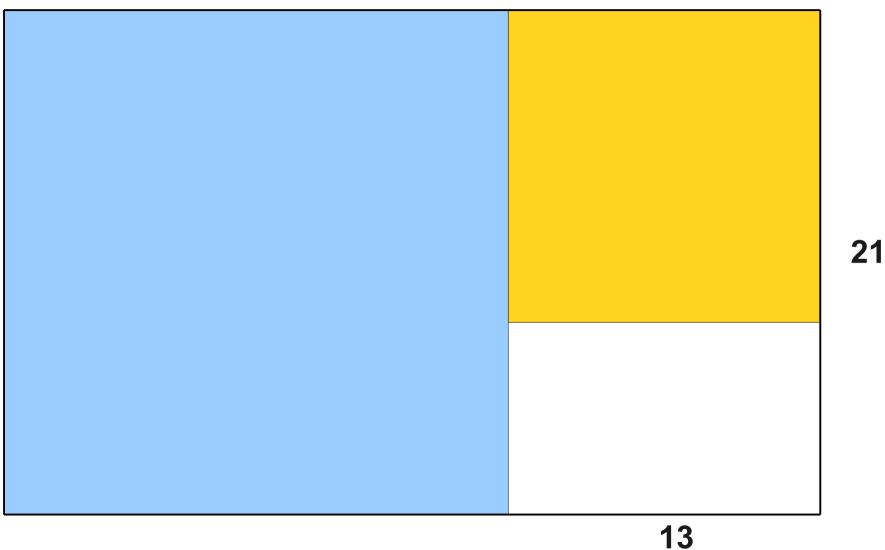
$$1/1$$

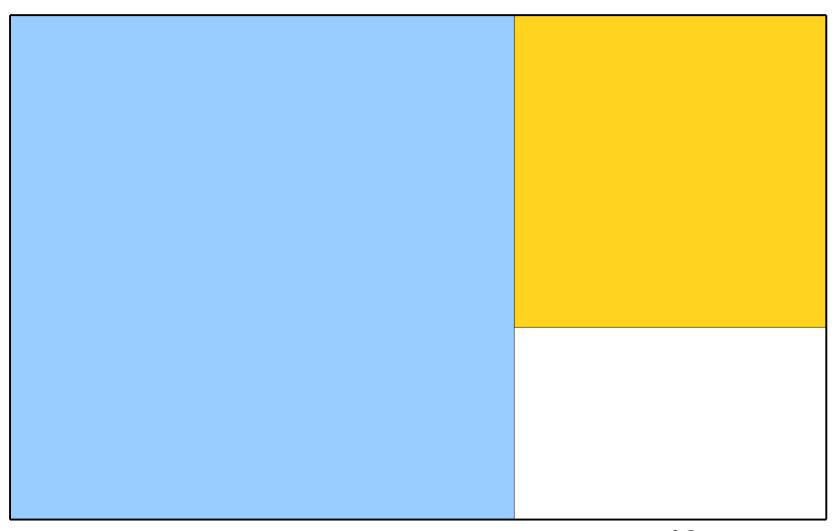
Each fraction is the ratio of consecutive Fibonacci numbers!

$$\phi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} = 1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{1 + \dots}}}}$$

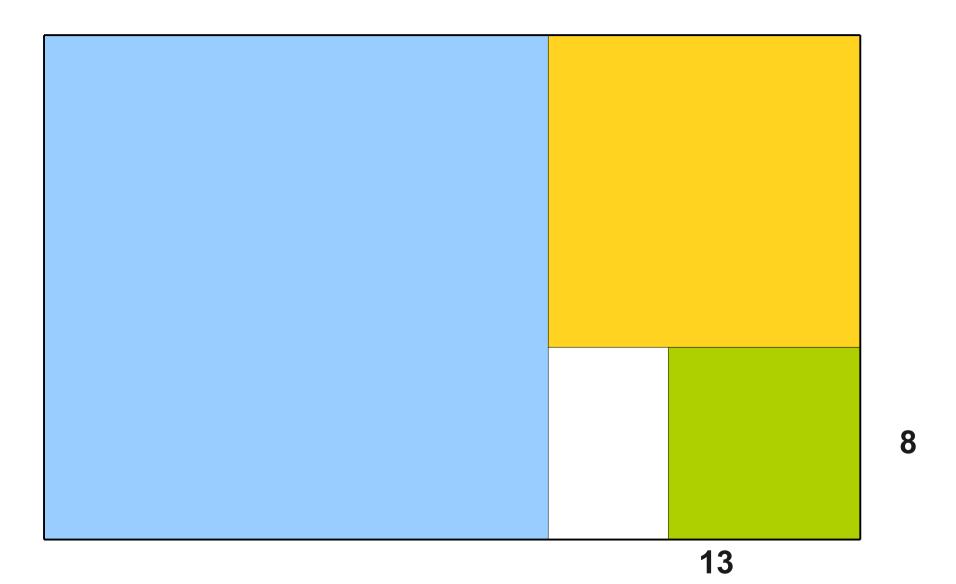
 $\phi \approx 1.61803399$ 

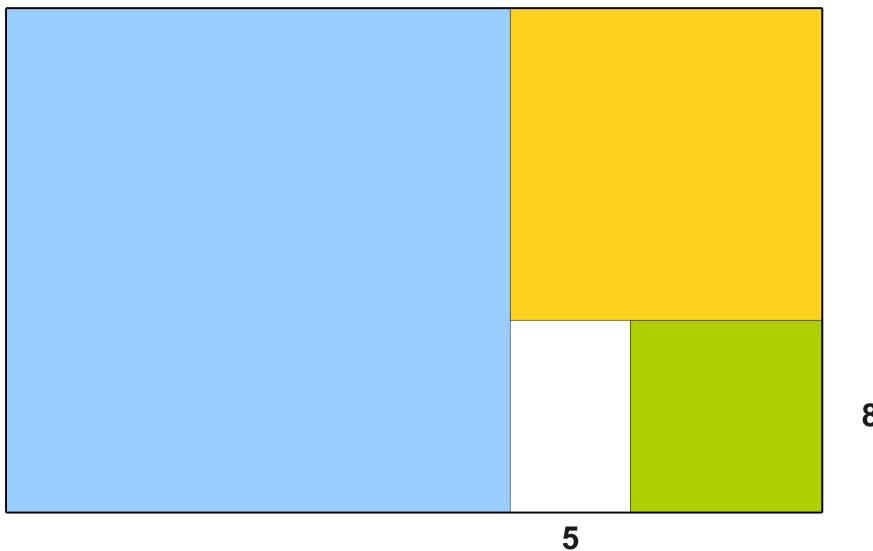


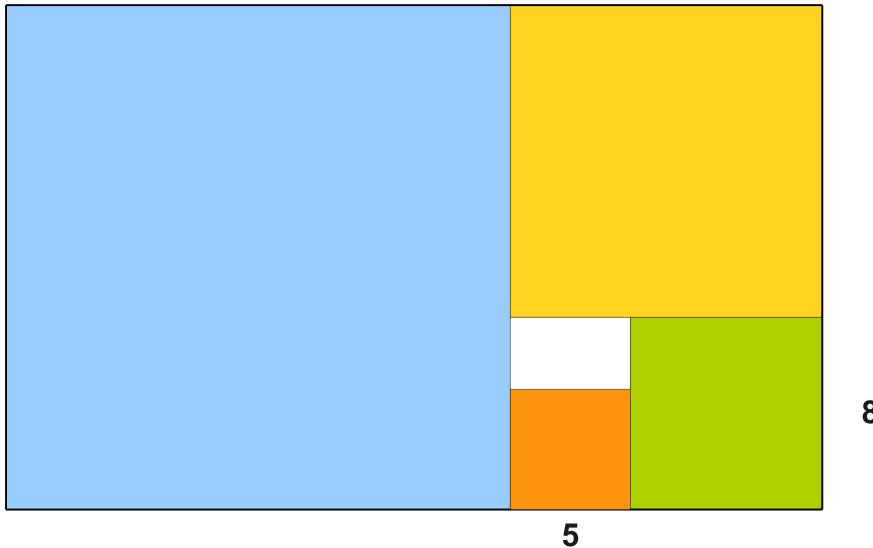


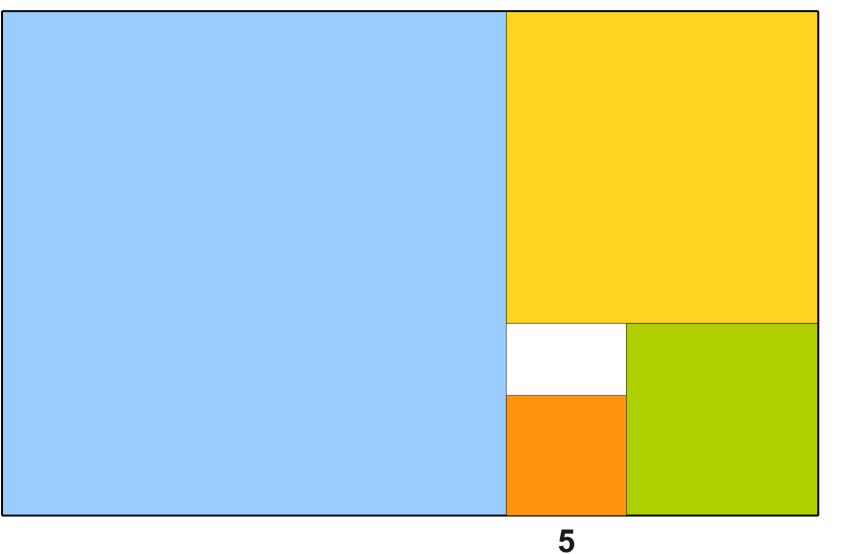


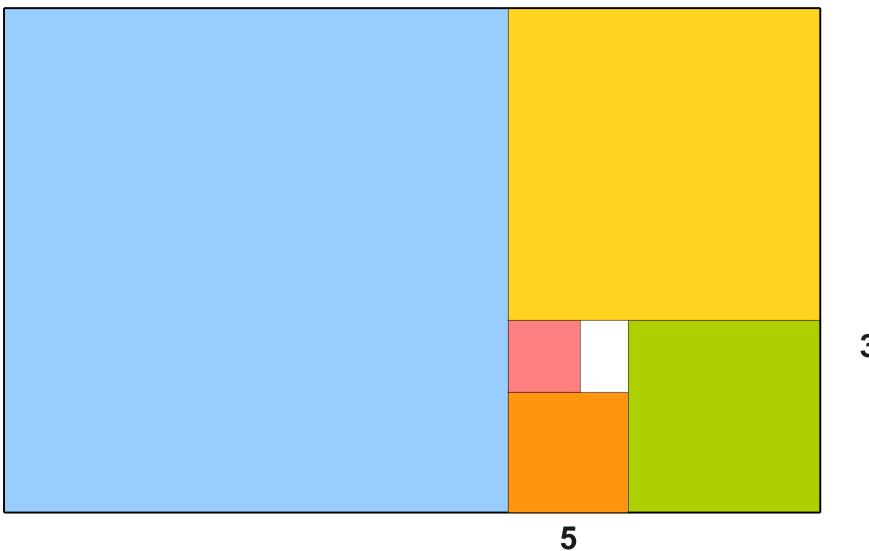
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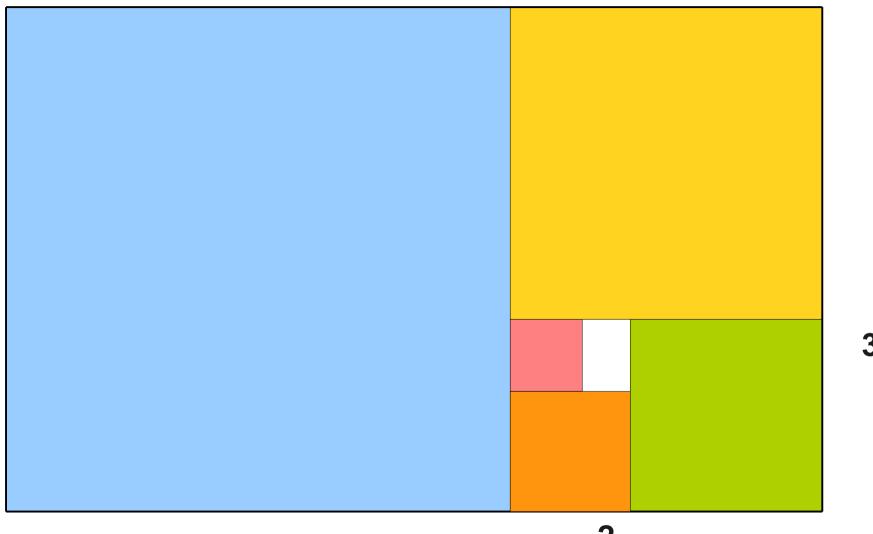


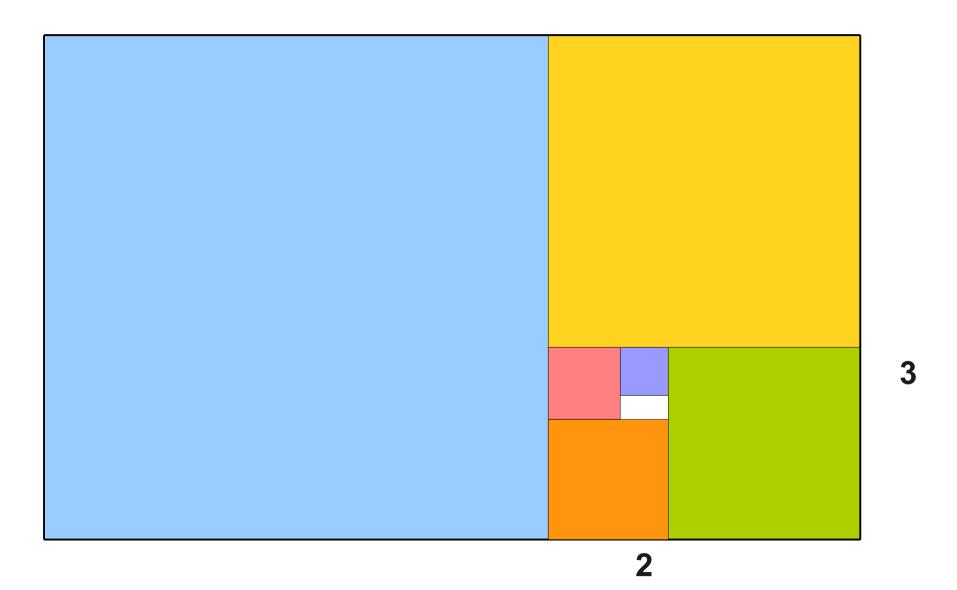


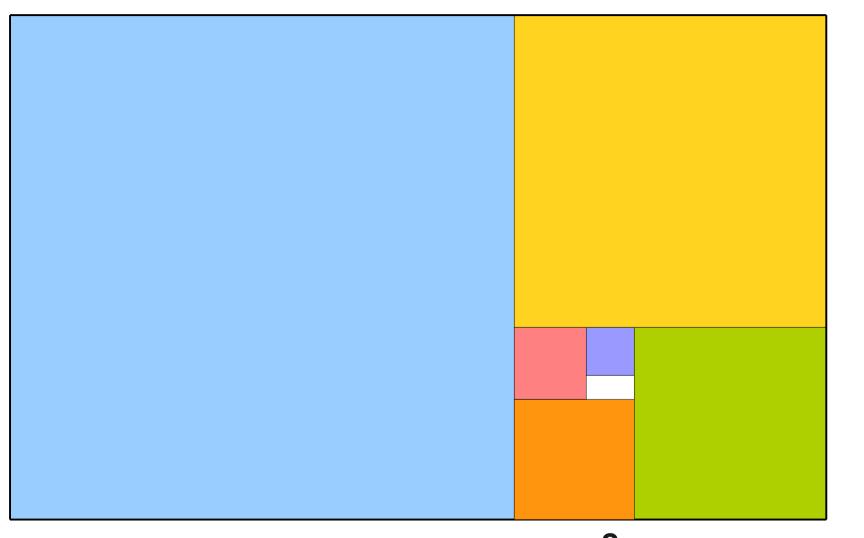


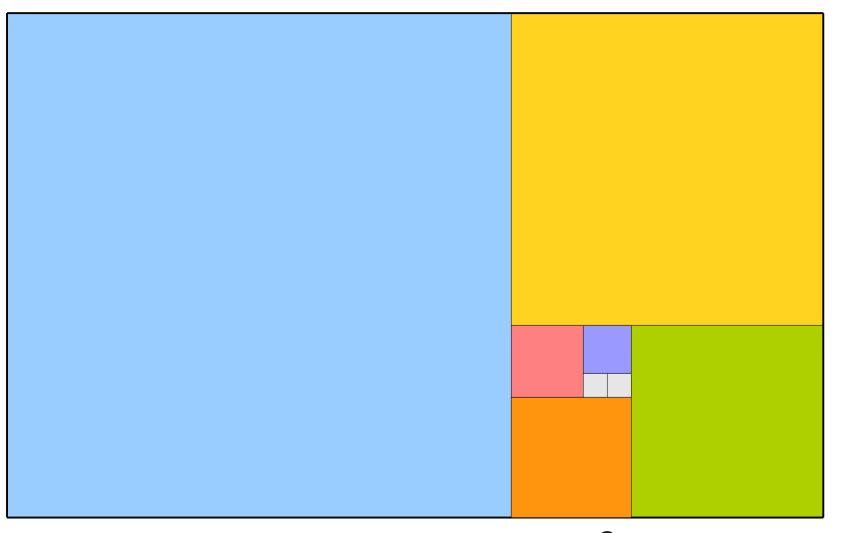


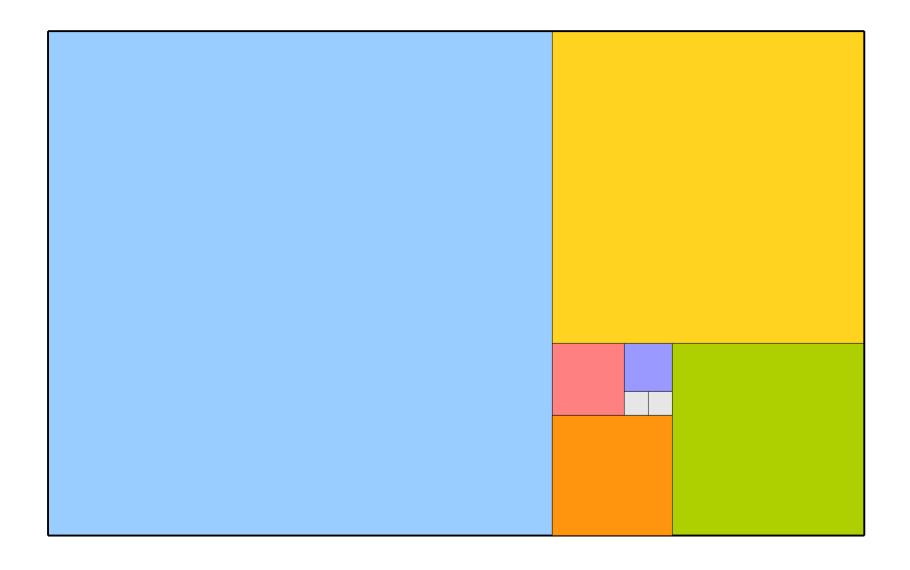




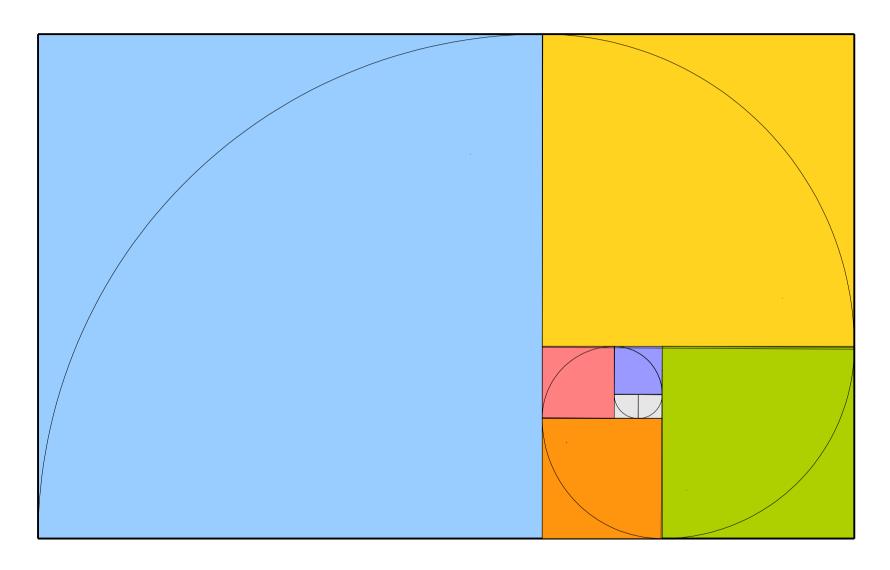








## The Golden Spiral



# How do we prove all rational numbers have continued fractions?

<u>25</u> 9

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{7}{9}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{2}{7}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{7}{2}}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{7}{2}}$$

$$\frac{7}{2}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{1}{\frac{7}{2}}$$

$$\frac{7}{2} = 3 + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{1}{7}$$

$$\frac{7}{2} = 3 + \frac{1}{2}$$

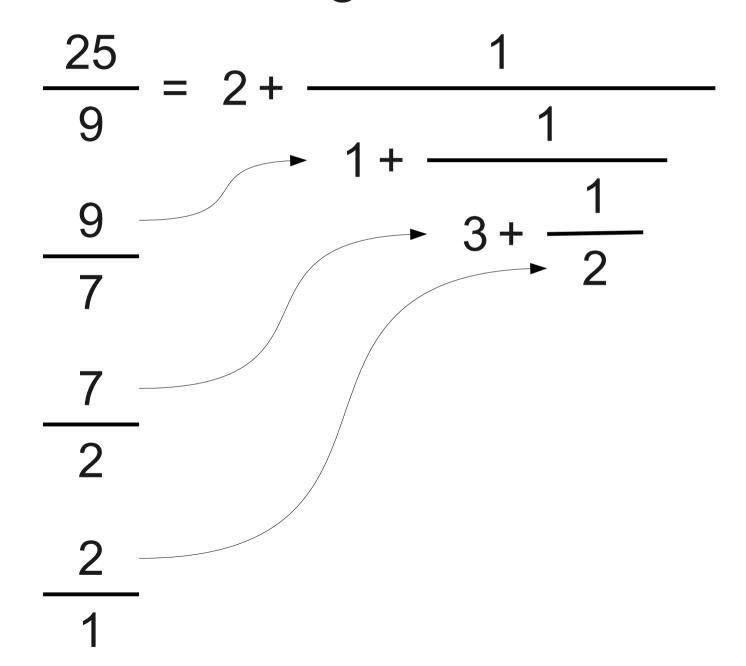
$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

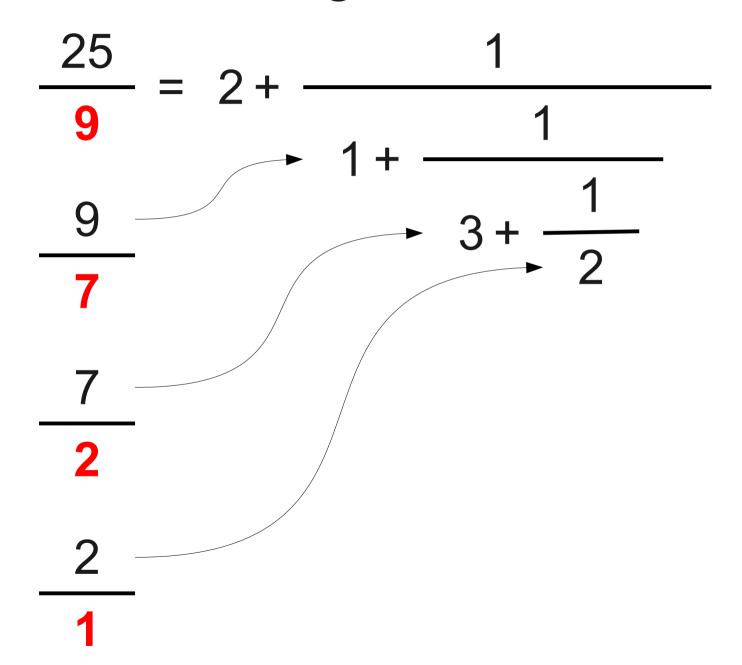
$$\frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{9}$$

$$\frac{9}{7} = 1 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{3 + \frac{1}{2}}}$$





$$\frac{25}{9} = 2 + \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\frac{9}{7}$$

$$\frac{7}{2}$$

$$\frac{2}{2}$$

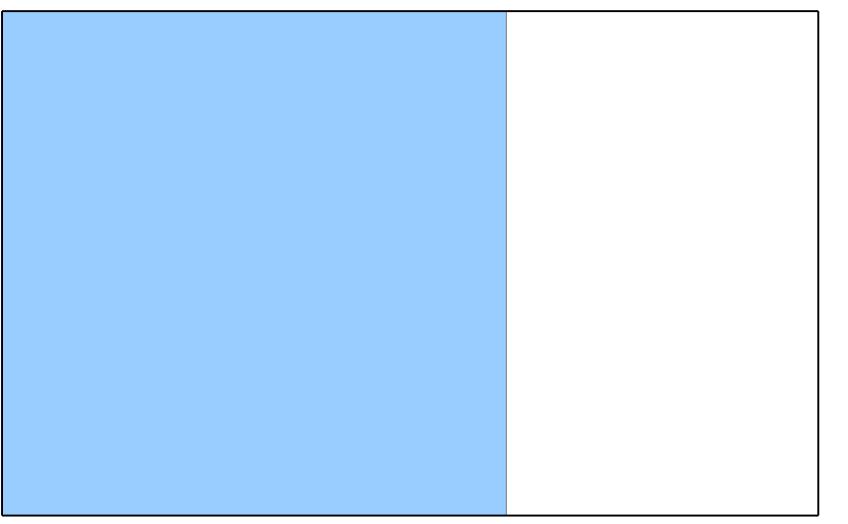
$$\frac{2}{4}$$

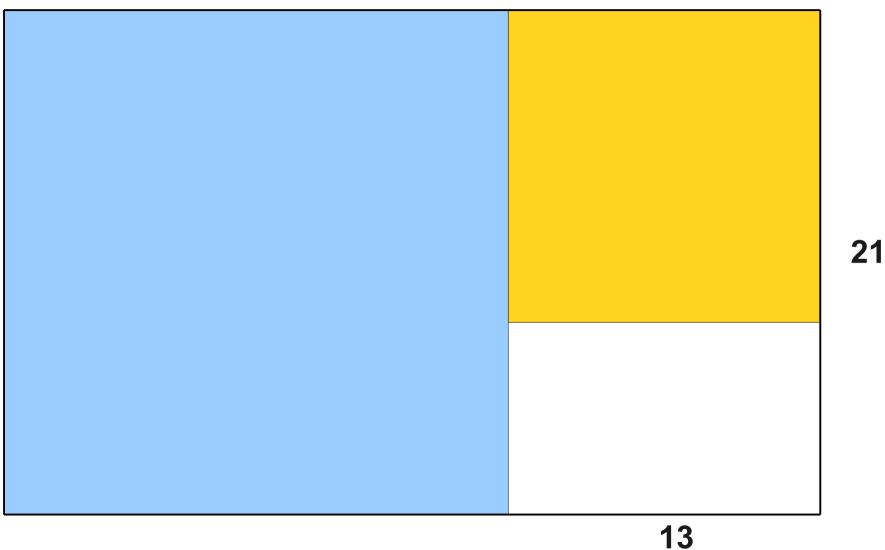
$$\frac{1}{2}$$

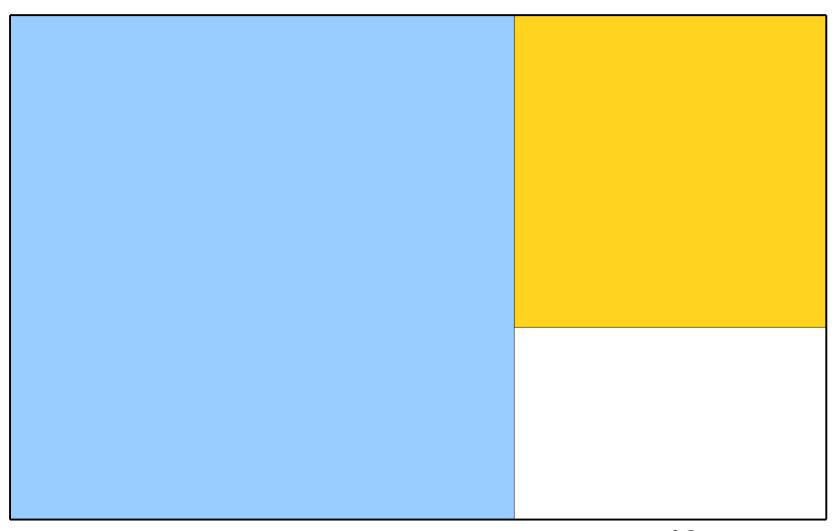
$$\frac{3 + \frac{1}{2}}{2}$$

$$\frac{3}{4}$$

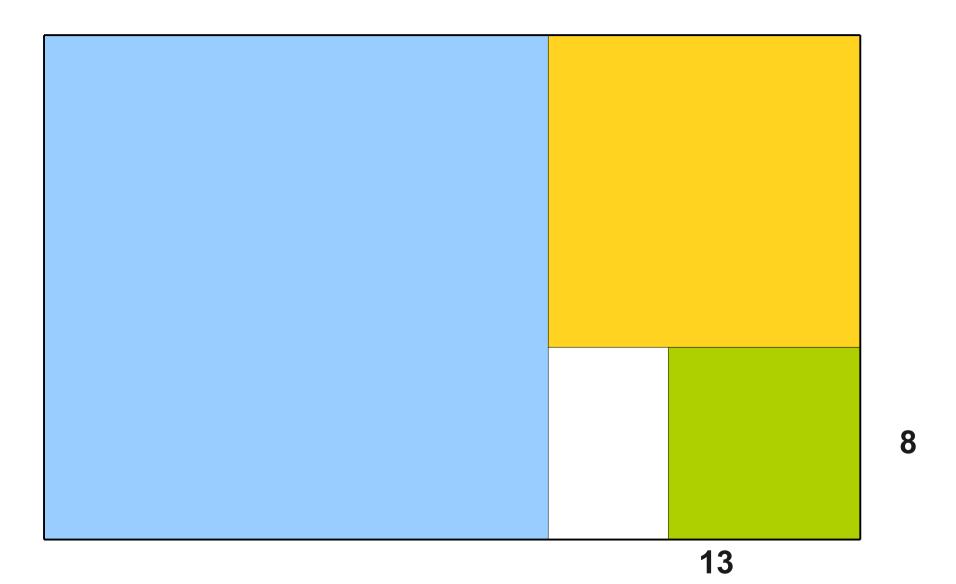
$$\frac{2}{4}$$

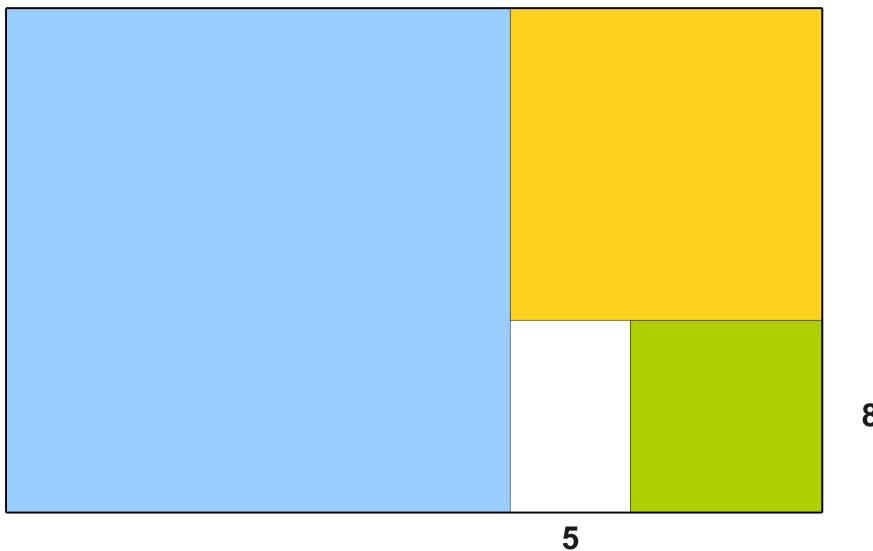


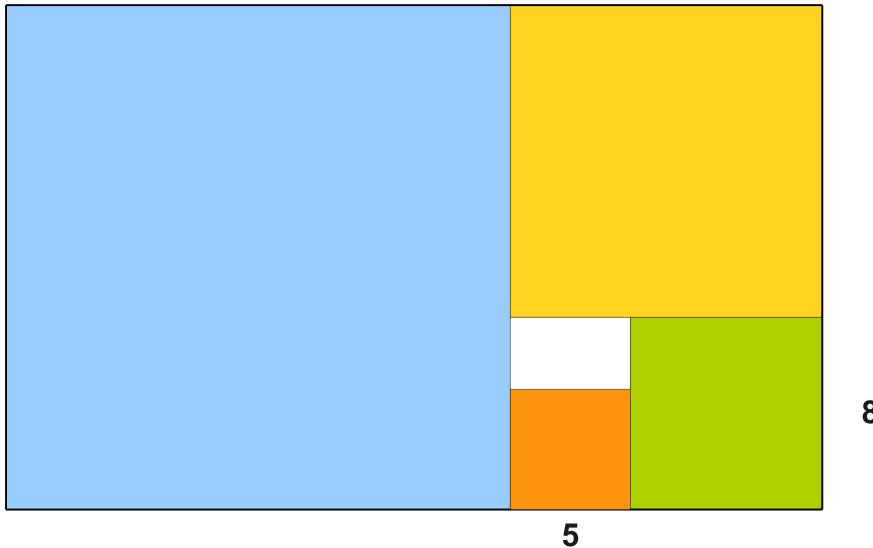


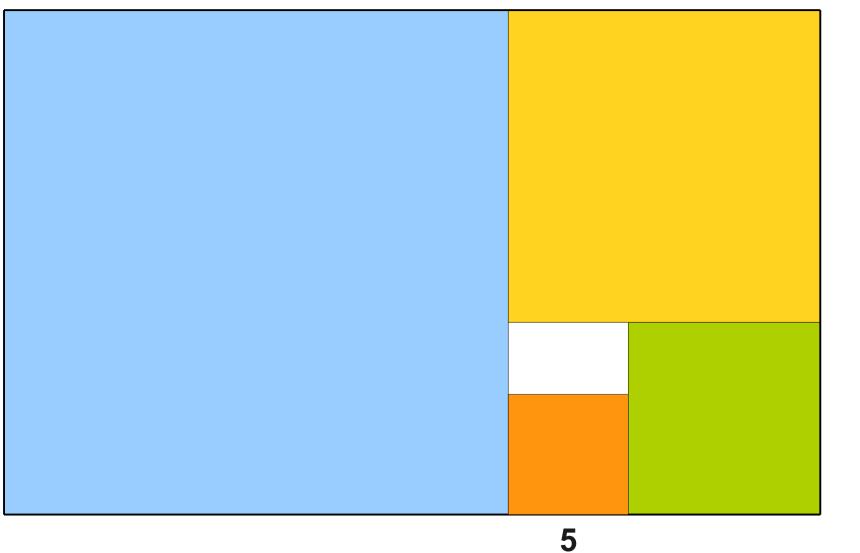


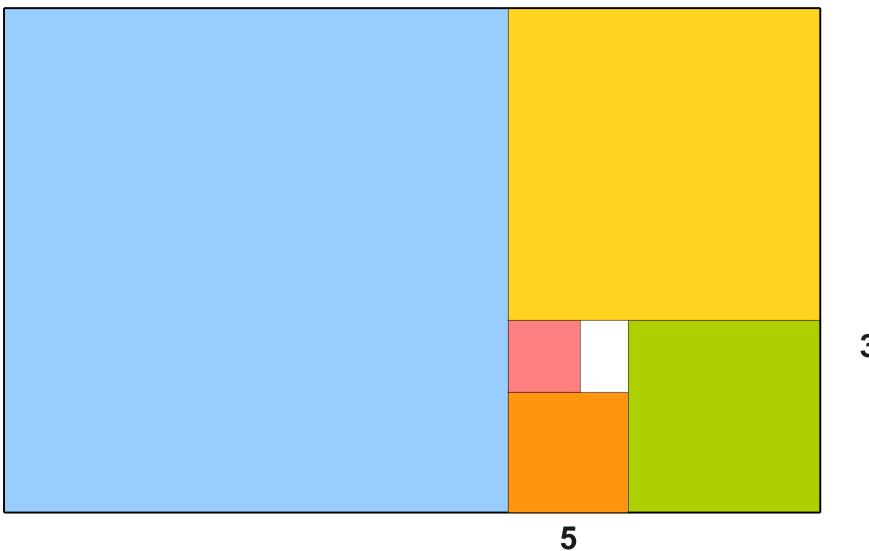
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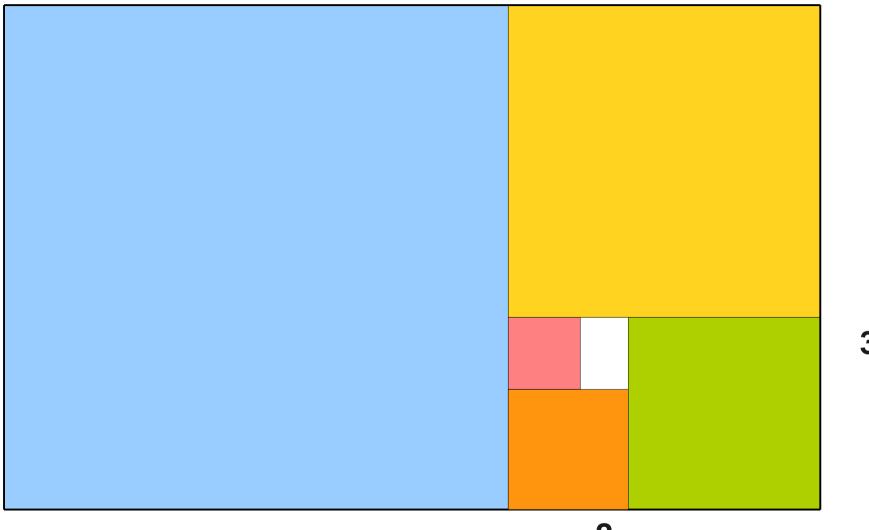


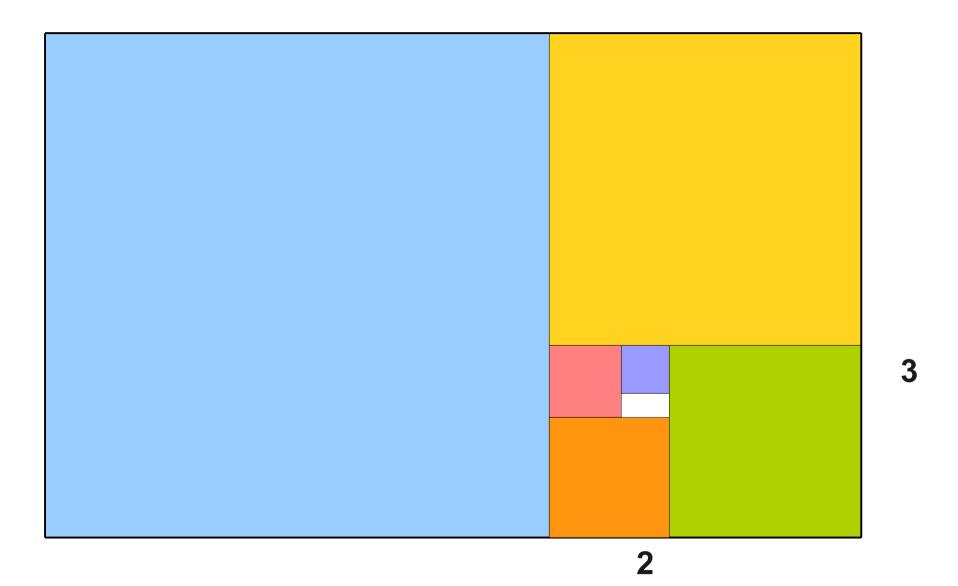


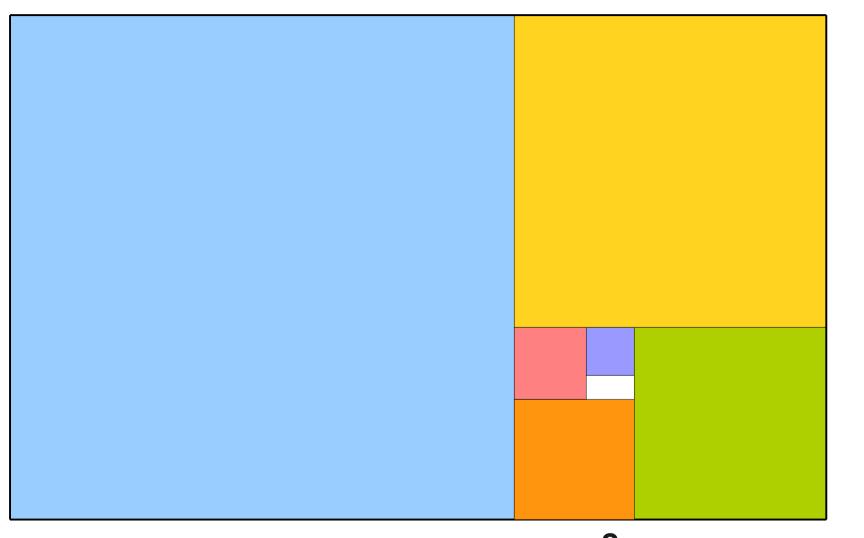


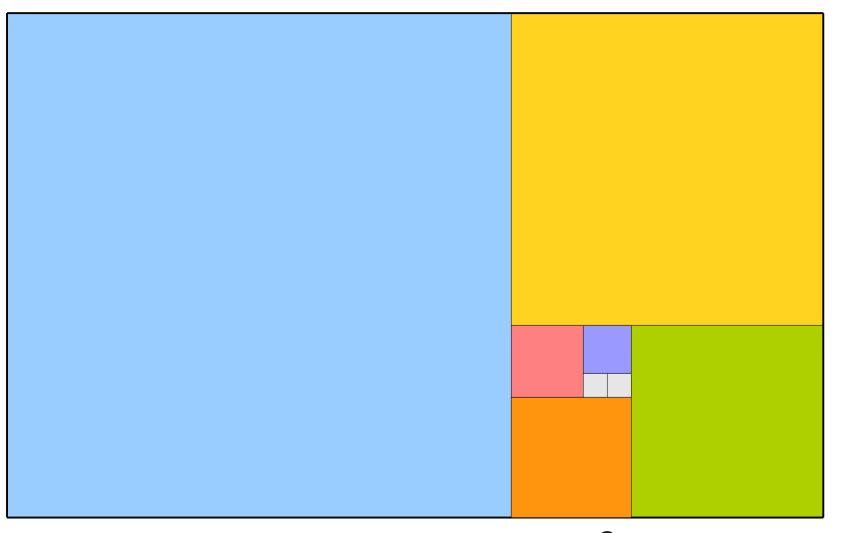


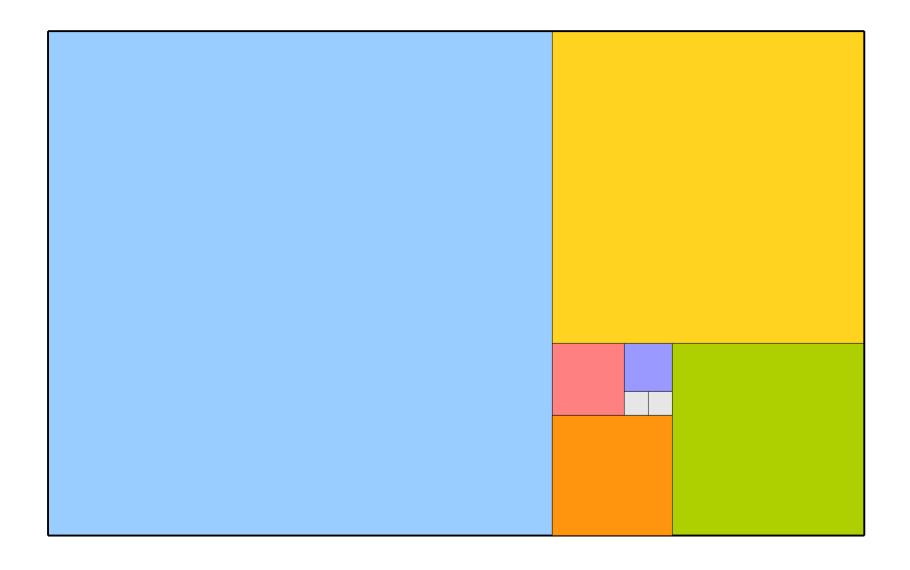












# The Division Algorithm

 For any integers a and b, with b ≠ 0, there exists unique integers q and r such that

$$a = qb + r$$

and

$$0 \le r < b$$

- q is the quotient and r is the remainder.
- If both a and b are nonnegative, then both q and r are nonnegative.
- Given a = 11 and b = 4: 11 = 2.4 + 3
- Given a = 137 and b = 42: 137 = 3.42 + 11

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The division algorithm is the mathematically rigorous way to justify getting a quotient and a remainder.

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Since our induction starts at 1, we also have to show that  $r \geq 1$ . Otherwise we might be out of the range of where the inductive hypothesis holds.

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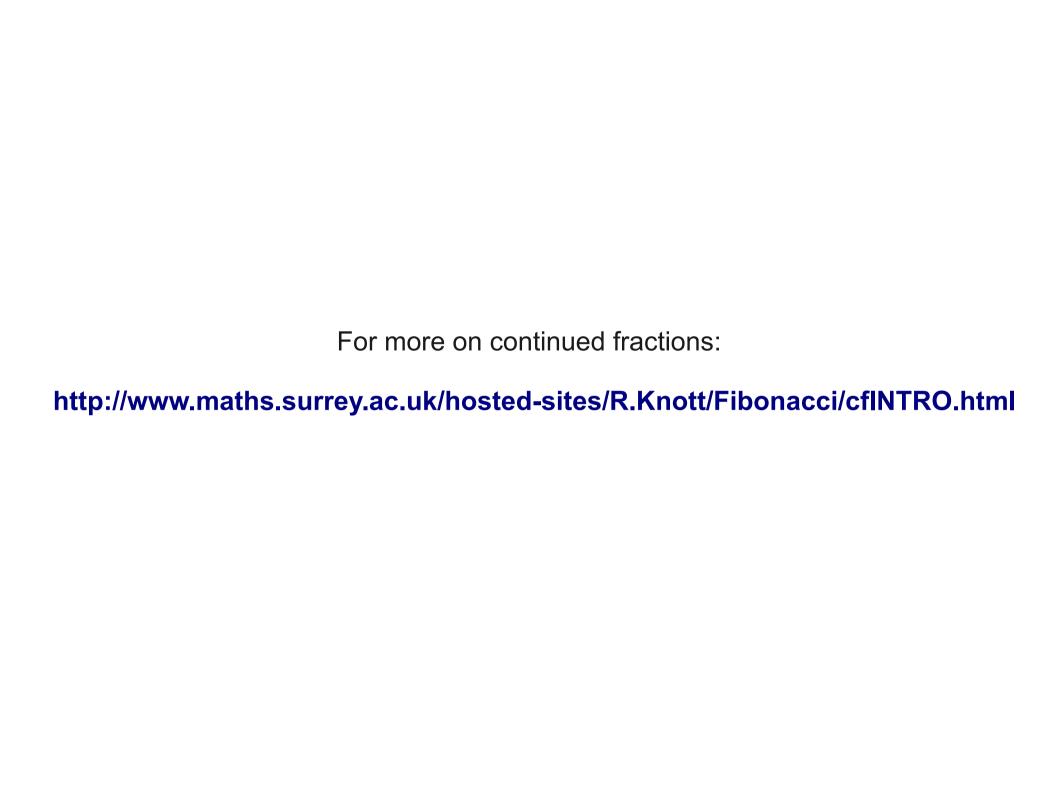
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## The Well-Ordering Principle

#### **Extremal Cases**

 Our proof about powers of two relied on a key step:

# Let $2^k$ be the largest power of two less than or equal to n + 1.

 Many proofs work by picking some extremal objects (the largest x such that..., the smallest y such that..., etc.)

### The Well-Ordering Principle

The well-ordering principle is the following:

Any nonempty set of natural numbers has a least element.

- Examples:
  - The least element of {1, 2, 3} is 1.
  - The least element of  $\mathbb{N}$  is 0.
  - There is no least element of  $\mathbb{Z}$ , but  $\mathbb{Z}$  is not a set of natural numbers.
  - There is no least element of Ø, but Ø is empty.

### Proof by Well-Ordering

- Many proofs by induction or strong induction can be rewritten as proofs using the well-ordering principle.
- To prove that P(n) is true for all natural numbers n:
  - Consider the set  $S = \{ n \mid n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } P(n) \text{ is false} \}$  of all natural numbers for which P(n) is false.
  - Assume, for the sake of contradiction, that S is nonempty.
  - Using the well-ordering principle, take the smallest element of S, call it n<sub>o</sub>.
  - Derive a contradiction with  $n_o$ .
  - Conclude that S must be empty, so P(n) is always true.

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This set S is the set of all natural numbers n where the theorem isn't true. If this set is empty, we're done. So our goal now is to show that it has to be empty.

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An important detail here is that we're picking the smallest element of S, not just any arbitrary element of S. We'll use this fact later on.

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This is notationally dense, but we're just pulling off the last term of the sum. Since we know that  $n_o > o$ , the upper bound on this sum is still a natural number.

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This means that the theorem is false for  $n_o - 1$ , which in turn means that  $n_o - 1$  has to be in the set  $S_o$ .

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## Irrational Numbers Revisited

A rational number is a number r that can be written as

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# One Simplifying Assumption

- For general rational numbers, p and q can be integers.
- We will assume that the square root of two is positive.
- Because of this, *p* and *q* can be assumed to be natural numbers.

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Notationally this is quite dense, but it just says that s is the set of denominators in an expression of the square root of two as a ratio.

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Again, notice that we're picking qo as the least element of S, not an arbitrary element of S.

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Since both p and  $q_0$  are even, this means that p/2 and  $q_0/2$  are natural numbers. Note that  $(p/2)/(q_0/2) = p/q_0 = \sqrt{2}$ . Since  $q_0 \neq 0$ , we have that  $q_0/2 \neq 0$ , and so  $q_0/2 \in S$ . However,  $q_0/2 < q_0$ , contradicting the fact that  $q_0$  is the least element of S.

 $S = \{ q \in \mathbb{N} \mid q \neq 0 \text{ and there exists a } p \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } p \mid q = \sqrt{2} \}.$  If this set is empty, then  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational, because there is no choice of  $p \mid q$  with  $q \neq 0$  such that  $p \mid q = \sqrt{2}$ .

We prove that S is empty by contradiction; assume that S is nonempty. Then by the well-ordering principle, it has a least element  $q_0$ . By our choice of S,  $q_0 \neq 0$ , and there exists some  $p \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $p \mid q_0 = \sqrt{2}$ . This means that  $p = \sqrt{2}q_0$ , so  $p^2 = 2q_0^2$ . Since  $q_0^2$  is an integer,  $p^2$  is even. By our earlier result, this means that p is even, so there exists some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that p = 2k.

Therefore,  $2q_0^2 = p^2 = (2k)^2 = 4k^2$ , and so  $q_0^2 = 2k^2$ . Since  $k^2$  is an integer, this means that  $q_0^2$  is even, so by our earlier result  $q_0$  is even.

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## **Next Time**

#### Graphs and Relations

- Representing structured data.
- Categorizing how objects are connected.