

# More Induction Proofs

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## Example 1

Prove that  $f(n) = 6n^2 + 2n + 15$  is odd for all  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

*Proof by induction:*

Define  $P(n)$  as the property that  $f(n)$  is odd.

**Base case:** We prove  $P(1)$ .

$2(1) + 15 + 6(1)^2 = 2 + 15 + 6 = 23$ . Since 23 is odd,  $P(1)$  is true.

**Inductive hypothesis:** Assume  $P(k)$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

That means that  $6k^2 + 2k + 15 = 2m + 1$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Inductive step:** We will now prove  $P(k + 1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} 6(n + 1)^2 + 2(n + 1) + 15 &= (6n^2 + 12n + 6) + (2n + 2) + 15 \\ &= (2n + 15 + 6n^2) + 12n + 8 \\ &= (2m + 1) + 12n + 8 \\ &= 2(m + 6n + 4) + 1 = 2j + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Since  $j = m + 6n + 4 \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $f(k + 1)$  is odd. Thus,  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ .

Since  $P(1)$  and  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ ,  $P(k)$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .

## Example 2

Prove that if  $x \geq -1$ , then  $(1 + x)^n \geq 1 + nx$  for all integers  $n \geq 1$ .

*Proof by induction:*

Let  $P(n)$  be that statement that  $(1 + x)^n \geq 1 + nx$  for all  $x \geq -1$ .

**Base Case:** First, we prove  $P(1)$ .

$(1 + x)^1 \geq 1 + x$  for all  $x \geq -1$ . Therefore  $P(1)$  holds.

**Inductive Hypothesis:** Assume that  $P(k)$  is true for some natural number  $k \geq 1$ .

**Inductive Step:** We will prove  $P(k + 1)$ .

From the IH, we know that for all  $x \geq -1$ ,  $(1 + x)^k \geq 1 + kx$ .

Multiplying both sides by  $1 + x \geq 0$  gives:

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + x)^{k+1} &\geq (1 + kx)(1 + x) \\ &= 1 + (k + 1)x + kx^2 \\ &\geq 1 + (k + 1)x \end{aligned}$$

So  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ , and the inductive step is proved.

Because  $P(1)$  is true and  $P(k)$  implies  $P(k + 1)$  for all  $k \geq 1$ ,  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n \geq 1$ .

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## Example 3

The substrings of a string  $a_1a_2 \dots a_n$  are all strings of the form  $a_i a_{i+1} \dots a_j$  for all  $i, j$  such that  $0 \leq i \leq j \leq n$  and where  $a_0$  is the empty string. For example, “”, “ba”, and “banana” are substrings of the string “banana,” while “bann” is not. “b” can be represented as either  $a_0a_1$  or  $a_1$ , but these different representations are not distinct substrings. “an” can be represented as either  $a_1a_2$  or  $a_3a_4$ ; these are distinct substrings.

Prove that the number of distinct substrings of a string  $a_1a_2 \dots a_n$  is

$$\frac{n(n+1)}{2} + 1.$$

*Proof by induction:*

Let  $P(k)$  be the property “all strings  $a_1a_2 \dots a_k$  have exactly  $\frac{n(n+1)}{2} + 1$  distinct substrings.

**Base Case:** We show  $P(0)$ .

A string of length 0 is simply the empty string  $a_0$ . The only substring of the empty string is the empty string, meaning that there is only one substring.  $\frac{0 \cdot 1}{2} + 1 = 1$ . Thus,  $P(0)$  is true.

**Inductive Hypothesis:** Assume that  $P(k)$  is true for some  $k \geq 0$ ; that is, for all strings  $a_1a_2 \dots a_k$  there are exactly  $\frac{k(k+1)}{2} + 1$  distinct substrings.

**Inductive Step:** Now  $P(k+1)$  must be shown to hold, meaning that for all strings  $a_1a_2 \dots a_k a_{k+1}$  there are exactly  $\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} + 1$  substrings.

The string  $a_1a_2 \dots a_k a_{k+1}$  has exactly one more character than some string  $a_1a_2 \dots a_k$ . All substrings of the shorter string are substrings of the longer, and for the longer there are also  $k+1$  distinct new substrings: all substrings of the shorter string that end in  $a_k$  with  $a_{k+1}$  added to the end, as well as just  $a_{k+1}$ .

By inductive hypothesis, there are  $\frac{k(k+1)}{2} + 1$  substrings of the shorter string; thus, there are  $\frac{k(k+1)}{2} + 1 + k + 1$  substrings of the longer.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + 1 + k + 1 &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + 1 + \frac{2(k+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{k(k+1) + 2(k+1)}{2} + 1 \\ &= \frac{k^2 + 3k + 2}{2} + 1 \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} + 1 \end{aligned}$$

This is what was expected and required; clearly the number of substrings of all strings  $a_1a_2 \dots a_k a_{k+1}$  is  $\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} + 1$ , so  $P(k)$  implies  $P(k+1)$ .

Thus, because  $P(0)$  is true and  $P(k)$  implies  $P(k+1)$  for all  $k \geq 0$ ,  $P(n)$  is true for all  $n \geq 0$ .

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## Example 4

Prove that for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , a  $2^n \times 2^n$  chessboard with any one square removed can be tiled by these 3-square L-tiles.



*Proof by induction:*

Let  $P(n)$  be the property that a  $2^n \times 2^n$  chessboard with any one square removed can be tiled by the 3-square L-tiles.

**Base case:** We prove  $P(1)$ .

For  $n = 1$ , we have a  $2 \times 2$  board with 1 square removed, which can be tiled by 1 L-tile.

**Inductive hypothesis:** Assume  $P(k)$  holds for some  $k \geq 1$ .

**Inductive step:** We prove  $P(k + 1)$ .

Divide the  $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$  board as follows, where A,B,C,D are each a  $2^k \times 2^k$  board.

A	B
C	D

Without loss of generality, suppose that the one square has been removed from B.

Then by the inductive hypothesis, B can be tiled.

Remove the center corners of A,C, and D, such that each of their remainders can be tiled by the inductive hypothesis. Tile the remaining 3 squares in the center with a single L-tile, and we have completed the tiling.

Since the base case  $P(1)$  holds and we have shown that  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k + 1)$ ,  $P(n)$  holds for  $n \geq 1$ . QED.