

## Mathematical Induction Chapter 5.1-5.4

### 5.1 Proof Using Mathematical Induction – Summation Formula

#### Mathematical Induction

To prove  $P(x)$  is true for  $x \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , where  $P(x)$  is a propositional function, we complete two steps:

1) Basis Step - Verify  $P(1)$  is true

2) Inductive Step - Verify if  $P(k)$  is true, then  $P(k+1)$  is true  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

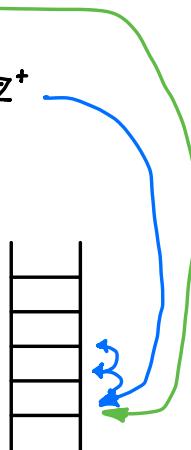
\* Inductive Hypothesis:  $P(k)$  is true

\* Must Show:  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

Conclusion:  $P(x)$  is true  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Other instructors might  
not write this

like a ladder  
with  $\infty$  feet runs



## Proving a Summation Formula

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

Show  $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Let  $P(n) : 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

① Basis: Prove  $P(0)$  is true

$$P(1) = 1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} \quad 1 = \frac{1(1)}{2} \quad 1 = 1 \checkmark$$

~ Prove Basis Step  
~ easy its just math

② Inductive step:  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

Inductive Hypothesis:  $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$

\* Must Show:  $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2} = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$

*Exactly what we wanted*

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \quad \begin{matrix} \downarrow \\ \text{write as fraction} \end{matrix} \quad \begin{matrix} 1^{\text{st}} \text{ Step: Added } (k+1) \text{ to both sides} \\ \end{matrix}$$

$$= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + \frac{2(k+1)}{2} \quad \begin{matrix} \downarrow \\ \text{2nd Step: Simplify solution} \end{matrix}$$

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

∴  $P(n)$  is true  
 $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$

### Problem 2:

Use mathematical induction to show that for all non-negative integer  $n$ ,  $1+2+2^2+\dots+2^n = 2^{n+1}-1$   
 $n > 0$

$$1+2+2^2+\dots+2^n = 2^{n+1}-1$$

$$\text{Let } P(n) : 1+2+2^2+\dots+2^n = 2^{n+1}-1$$

① Basis: Prove  $P(0)$  is true

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 &= 2^{0+1}-1 \\ 1 &= 1 \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

② Inductive step:  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

$$\text{Inductive Hypothesis: } 1+2+2^2+\dots+2^k = 2^{k+1}-1$$

$$\star \text{ Must Show: } 1+2+2^2+\dots+2^k + 2^{k+1} = 2^{(k+1)+1} - 1 \quad \begin{array}{l} \curvearrowleft \text{ We want to get to} \\ \text{this} \end{array}$$

↖ "next sequence in pattern"

$$1+2+2^2+\dots+2^k + 2^{k+1} = 2^{k+1}-1 + 2^{k+1} \quad \sim \text{Add to both sides}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 2(2^{k+1}) - 1 \quad \begin{array}{l} \curvearrowleft \text{Can add exponent} \\ 3^2 \cdot 3^4 = 3^6 \end{array} \\ &= 2^{k+2} - 1 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore P(n)$  is True  
 for all  $n \geq 0$   
 $n \in \mathbb{Z}$

### Problem 3

Conjecture and prove a summation formula for the sum of the first  $n$  positive odd integers.

$n = 1$	$1 = 1$	$1^2$	Looking for a Pattern
$n = 2$	$1+3 = 4$	$2^2$	
$n = 3$	$1+3+5 = 9$	$3^2$	
$n = 4$	$1+3+5+7 = 16$	$4^2$	
$\vdots$	$\vdots$	$\vdots$	
$n = n$	$1+3+5+\dots+(2n-1) = n^2$		$\sim P(n)$

Prove  $1+3+5+\dots+(2n-1) = n^2$

Let  $P(n)$ : the proposition that  $1+3+5+\dots+(2n-1) = n^2$

① Basis: Prove  $P(1)$  is true.

$$\begin{array}{l} 1 = (1)^2 \\ 1 = 1 \quad \checkmark \end{array}$$

② Inductive step:  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

Inductive Hypothesis:  $1+3+5+\dots+(2k-1) = k^2$

$$\text{Show: } 1+3+5+\dots+(2k-1) + (2k+1) = (k+1)^2$$

if we added the next odd integer, which is +2.

$$1+3+5+\dots+(2k-1) + (2k+1) = k^2 + (2k+1)$$

$$1+3+5+\dots+(2k-1) + (2k+1) = (k+1)(k+1) \quad - \text{Factor}$$

$$1+3+5+\dots+(2k-1) + (2k+1) = (k+1)^2$$

$\therefore P(n)$  is true.

## Proof Using Mathematical Induction – Inequalities

### Proving an Inequality:

Prove  $n < 2^n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  using mathematical induction.

Let  $P(n): n < 2^n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

① Basis:  $P(1)$

$$P(1): \begin{array}{l} 1 < 2^1 \\ 1 < 2 \end{array} \checkmark$$

② Inductive  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

$$IH: k < 2^k$$

$$\text{Show: } k+1 < 2^{k+1}$$

$$k+1 < 2^k + 1$$

- ~ Since it's an inequality that don't have same rules as an equals
- ~ We just have to make sure the inequality still holds

We know that:  $1 < 2^k \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

~ Proved this in Basis Step ①

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

- How can we do this?

B/c  $1 < 2^k$

$$k+1 < 2^{k+1}$$

- it's ok to do this b/c were not breaking any mathematical law.

- Replacing, inequality still works!

### Example 2:

Prove  $2^n < n!$   $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  and  $n \geq 4$ .

Let  $P(n) : 2^n < n!$

① Basis  $P(4)$

$$2^4 < 4! \rightarrow 16 < 24$$

$$16 < 24 \quad \checkmark$$

② Inductive  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

$$\text{IH: } 2^k < k!$$

$$\text{SHOW: } 2^{k+1} < \underline{(k+1)!}$$

Trying to get here!

$$2^k \cdot 2^1 < k! \cdot 2$$

$$k+1 > 2$$

$$2^{k+1} < \underline{2k!}$$

$$2^{k+1} < (k+1)k!$$

- Just have to make sure the inequality still holds

$$(k+1)(k)(k-1)\dots(2)(1) = (k+1)!$$

$$\boxed{2^{k+1} < (k+1)!}$$

## Proof Using Mathematical Induction – Divisibility

Use mathematical induction to prove  $7^{n+2} + 8^{2n+1}$  is divisible by 57 for all non-negative integers n.

Let  $P(n)$ :  $7^{n+2} + 8^{2n+1}$  is divisible by 57

① Basis:  $P(0)$

$$P(0): 7^{0+2} + 8^{2(0)+1} = 7^2 + 8 = 49 + 8 = \underline{\underline{57}} \quad \sim \text{is divisible by 57}$$

② Inductive:

I H:  $7^{k+2} + 8^{2k+2}$  is divisible by 57

Show:  $7^{k+3} + 8^{2k+3}$  is divisible by 57

$$\begin{aligned} 7 \cdot 7^{k+2} + 8^{2k+2} \cdot 8^2 &= 7^{k+3} + 8^{2k+3} \\ &= 7 \cdot 7^{k+2} + (7 + 57) 8^{2k+1} \\ &= 7(7^{k+2} + 8^{2k+1}) + 57 \cdot 8^{2k+1} \\ &= 7(7^{k+2} + 8^{2k+1}) + 57 \cdot 8^{2k+1} \end{aligned}$$

~ Show we can turn the I H into what were suppose to Show.  
If you multiply out  
lets rewrite the right-hand side.  
Then this portion is also divisible by 57

- By Inductive Hypothesis this is divisible by 57

Since  $7^{k+2} + 8^{2k+1}$  is divisible by 57 and  $57 \cdot 8^{2k+1}$  is divisible by 57,

then  $7^{k+3} + 8^{2k+3}$  is divisible by 57.

$\therefore 7^{n+2} + 8^{2n+1}$  is divisible by 57 for all  $n \geq 0, n \in \mathbb{Z}$

## 5.2 The Well-Ordering Principle and Strong Induction

### The Well-Ordering Principle

Every non-empty set of non-negative integers has a least element

$$\begin{array}{c} \mathbb{Z}^+ \quad \xrightarrow{\text{All have a least element}} \quad n = 1 \\ n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \quad \underline{n \geq 4} \quad n = 4 \\ \text{Non-negative int} \quad \quad \quad n = 0 \end{array} \quad * \text{ Works with non-negative Integers} *$$

In mathematical induction, we start with the least element.

If we used  $n \in \mathbb{Q}$  no least element for rational nos.

### Proof By Induction

Prove that every amount of postage of \$ 0.12 or more can be formed  
Using \$ 0.04 and \$ 0.05 stamps

↓  
Basis

$P(n)$  is the statement that postage of  $n$ -cents can be formed  
Using 4-cent and 5-cent stamps if  $n \geq 12$ .

Basis: Show postage of 12-cents can be made

12 cents, 3 4-cent stamps ✓

Inductive: Show if  $P(k)$  is true, then  $P(k+1)$  is true for  $k \geq 12$

IH: We can form postage of  $k$ -cent using 4 and 5 cent stamps

Show: I can make postage of  $k+1$  cents using 4 and 5 cent stamps

Case 1: I've used one or more 4-cent stamps

If I've used a 4-cent stamp for  $k$ -cent postage, then I can replace my 4-cent stamp with a 5-cent stamp.  $\therefore k+1$  postage is formed.

Case 2: I haven't used a 4-cent stamp

If no 4-cent stamp was used, then I've used at least 3 5-cent stamps because  $n \geq 12$ , so I can replace 3 5 cent stamps with 4 4-cent stamps making postage of  $k+1$ .

### **Proof by Strong Induction**

Prove that every amount of postage of \$0.12 or more can be formed using \$0.04 and \$0.05 stamps.

$P(n)$  is the statement that postage of  $n$ -cents can be formed using 4-cent and 5-cent stamps if  $n \geq 12$ .

Basis: Show postage of 12,13,14 and 15-cents can be made

- 12 - 3 4-cent stamps
- 13 - 2 4-cent stamps and 1 5-cent stamp
- 14 - 1 4-cent Stamps and 2 5-cent stamps
- 15 - 3 5-cent stamps

Inductive: Show that if  $P(j)$  is true, for  $\underline{12} \leq j \leq k$ , where  $\underline{k} \geq 15$ , then  $P(k+1)$  is true.

$$-3 \quad -3$$

$$k-j \geq 12$$

IH:  $P(k-3)$  is true

Show:  $P(k+1)$  is true

If I can make postage at  $k-3$ , then I can make postage

of  $k+1$  cents by adding a 4-cent stamp

## Revisiting Recursive Definitions

### Fibonacci Numbers

Recall the set of Fibonacci numbers:

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ....

How each number found?

add 2 previous terms

Recursive  
Definition: ① Initial Conditions

$$\begin{aligned} f_0 &= 0 \\ f_1 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

② Function

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}, \quad n \geq 2$$

~ How to find next term  
in the sequence

## Recursive Defined Functions

- Has two parts

Basis Step: Specifies the value of the function for the first term(s)  
Initial Condition

Recursive Step: Gives a rule for finding subsequent values using a previous  
Value(s) beginning at those defined in the basis step.  
Function

Example:

If  $f$  is defined recursively by  $f(0) = 2$  and  $f(n+1) = 3f(n) - 1$ , find  $f(1)$ ,  
 $f(2)$ ,  $f(3)$ , and  $f(4)$ .

$$f(n) = 3(f(n-1)) - 1$$

$$f(0) = 3f(0) - 1 = 3(2) - 1 = 5$$

$$f(1) = 3f(0) - 1 = 3(5) - 1 = 14$$

$$f(2) = 3f(1) - 1 = 3(14) - 1 = 41$$

$$f(3) = 3f(2) - 1 = 3(41) - 1 = 122$$

## Examples

Give a recursive definition for  $a^n$  for  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and non-negative and  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

Initial Condition

$$\begin{aligned}a^0 &= 1 \\a^1 &= a \cdot a \\a^2 &= a \cdot a \\a^3 &= a^2 \cdot a \\a^4 &= a^3 \cdot a\end{aligned}$$

Notice Pattern  
- Recursive part

2 Parts to Solve these Problems:

Initial Condition(s)

$$a^0 = 1$$

Recursive Function

~ for what values of  $n$

$$a^n = a^{n-1} \cdot a$$

for  $n \geq 1$

Note that a recursive definition is well-defined, meaning that the value of the function is defined for every positive integer. As such, we are able to use a form of Mathematical Induction to prove recursive definitions. We will look at these in our next video.

Give a recursive definition of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ ,  $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$  if  $a_n = 2n + 1$

$a_0 = 2(0) + 1 = 0 + 1 = 1$	Pattern +2	Initial Condition (s)
$a_1 = 2(1) + 1 = 2 + 1 = 3$	+2	$a_0 = 1$
$a_2 = 2(2) + 1 = 4 + 1 = 5$	+2	Recursive Function ~ for what values of $n$
$a_3 = 2(3) + 1 = 6 + 1 = 7$	+2	$a_n = a_{n-1} + 2$
$a_4 = 2(4) + 1 = 8 + 1 = 9$	+2	$n \geq 1$

$a_1 = a_0 + 2 = 1 + 2 = 3$       Checking our function

## Recursively Defined Sets and Structures

Basis Step: Specifies an initial collection of elements

Recursive Step: Gives rules for forming new elements from those already in the set.

Example:

The natural numbers  $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$

Basis:  $1 \in \mathbb{N}$

Recursive: If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  then  $n+1 \in \mathbb{N}$

1, 2, 3, 4  
Start at Basis

## Recursively Defined Set

Let  $S$  be a subset of the integers defined recursively by:

Basis Step:  $7 \in S$

Recursive Step: If  $x \in S$  and  $y \in S$ , then  $x+y \in S$

List the elements of  $S$  produced by the first 5 application of the recursive definition.

$$\{ 7, 14, 21, 28, 35 \}$$

↑

Basis  
Step

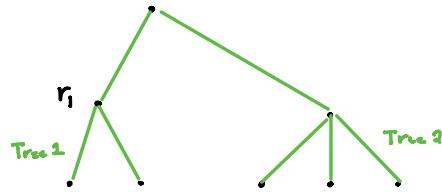
- ① 7
- ②  $7+7 = 14$
- ③  $7+14 = 21$
- ④  $7+21 = 28$
- ⑤  $7+28 = 35$

## Recursively Defined Structure

A set of **rooted trees**, where a rooted tree consists of a set of vertices containing a distinguished vertex, called the root, and edges containing these vertices can be defined recursively by:

**Basis Step:** A single vertex  $r$  is a rooted tree

**Recursive Step:** Suppose that  $T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n$  are disjointed rooted trees with roots  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$  respectively. The graph formed by starting with a root  $r$ , not contained in any tree and adding an edge from  $r$  to each of  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n$  is also a rooted tree.



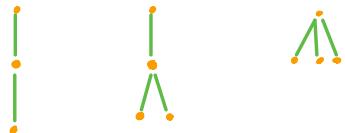
### Example of Rooted Trees Defn:

Basis Step:      •

Recursive Step 1:



Step 2:



## Full Binary Tree Example:

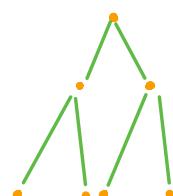
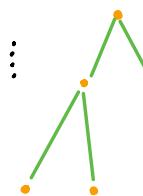
Basis Step:



Recursive Step 1:



Step 2:



- Add to Left Vertis

- Add to Right

- Add to both

## Structural Induction

### Mathematical Induction

Let  $S$  be a subset of the integers defined recursively by:

Basis Step:  $7 \in S$

Recursive Step:  $x \in S$  and  $y \in S$ , then  $x+y \in S$

Show that  $S$  is the set of all positive integers divisible by 7.

Show two sets are equal to one-another

Let  $A$  be the set of all integers divisible by 7. To prove  $A = S$ , we must show  $A \subseteq S$  and  $S \subseteq A$ .

$$A = 7n$$

Proof  
by Math Induction

Let  $P(n)$  be the statement  $7n \in S$ . The basis holds since  $7 \cdot 1 = 7 \in S$  from the basis step of the recursive definition. Assume  $P(k)$  is true, or that  $7k \in S$ . If  $7k \in S$  then  $7k + 7 \in S$  since  $7, 7k \in S$ .

$$\therefore 7k + 7 = 7(k+1) \in S \text{ and } A \subseteq S.$$

$$P(k+1)$$

Going in other direction

Since  $7 \cdot 1$  belongs  
to  $A$

$x+y \in S$  ABOVE

divides

For our Basis Step:  $7 \in A$  since  $7 \cdot 1 \in A$  for our recursive step,  $x+y \in S$ , and since  $7|x$  and  $7|y$ , then  $x = 7a$  and  $y = 7b$  for some integers  $a$  and  $b$ .

$$x+y = 7a + 7b = 7(a+b), \text{ therefore } x+y \in A.$$

Show in both directions

## **Structural Induction**

**Basis Step:** Show the result holds for all elements specified in the basis step of the recursive definition

**Recursive Step:** Show that if the statement is true for all elements used to construct new elements in the recursive step of the definition, the result holds for these new elements.

- Same idea, but specific to sets

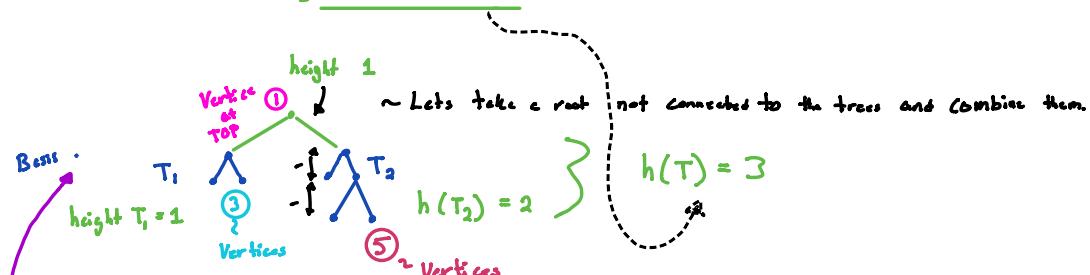
A Structural Induction proof is just a twist on proof using mathematical induction

## Full Binary Trees

The height  $h(t)$  of a full binary tree is defined recursively as:

Basis Step: The height of a full binary tree  $T$  consisting of only a root  $r$  is  $h(T) = 0$

Recursive Step: If  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are full binary trees, then the full binary tree  $T = T_1 * T_2$  has a height  $h(t) = \underline{1 + \max(h(T_1), h(T_2))}$ .



The number of vertices of a full binary tree is defined recursively as:

Basis Step: The number of vertices of a full binary tree  $T$  consisting of only a root is  $n(T) = 1$ .

Recursive Step: If  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are full binary trees, then the Full Binary tree  $T = T_1 * T_2$  has  $n(T) = \underline{1 + n(T_1) + n(T_2)}$  vertices.

$\begin{matrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \# \text{ of total} \\ \text{Vertices in each Tree structure} \end{matrix}$

## Structural Proof

If  $T$  is a full binary tree, then  $n(T) \leq 2^{h(T)+1} - 1$

Prove by Structural Induction.

### Basis Step:

The result holds for a full binary tree consisting of only a root,  $n(T) = 1$  and  $h(T) = 0$ , so

$$n(T) = 1$$

$$h(T) = 0$$

$$n(T) = 1 \leq 2^{0+1} - 1 = 1 \quad 1 \leq 1 \quad \checkmark$$

So basis step holds

### Recursive Step:

Assume  $n(T_1) \leq 2^{h(T_1)+1} - 1$  and  $n(T_2) \leq 2^{h(T_2)+1} - 1$

Whenever  $T_1, T_2$  are full binary trees.

### Proof:

Replace with what we defined them up here

Using IH, if True  
replace  $\leq$  with  $\leq$

$$n(T) = 1 + n(T_1) + n(T_2)$$

- Recursive defn. of  $n(T)$

- Inductive hypothesis

$$= 2 \cdot \max(2^{h(T_1)+1}, 2^{h(T_2)+1}) - 1$$

- B/c the sum of 2 terms is at most 2 times the larger  
- Replaced

$$= 2 \cdot 2^{\max(h(T_1), h(T_2))+1} - 1 \quad - \max(x, y) = 2^{\max(x, y)}$$

$$= 2 \cdot 2^{h(T)} - 1$$

- By rec. definition of  $h(T)$

$$\boxed{= 2^{h(T)+1} - 1}$$

## 5.4 Recursive Algorithms

An Algorithm is called recursive if it solves a problem by reducing it to an instance of the same problem with a smaller input.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Recall } & \gcd(14, 20) \\ &= \gcd(\underline{14}, 6) & 20 = 14(1) + 6 \\ &= \gcd(6, \underline{2}) & 14 = 6(2) + 2 \\ &= \gcd(2, 0) = \boxed{2} & 6 = 2(3) + 0 \\ & & 2 = 0(0) + 2 \end{aligned}$$

Give a recursive algorithm for computing the greatest common divisor of two non-negative integers  $a$  and  $b$  with  $a < b$ .

*Sudo Code:*

```
procedure gcd(a,b: nonnegative integers, a<b)
  if a=0 then return b
  else return gcd(b mod a,a)
```

→ {Output is gcd( $a,b$ )}

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{gcd}(14, 20); \quad 20 = 14(1) + 6 \quad \textcircled{1} \\ & = \text{gcd}(6, 14); \quad 14 = 6(2) + 2 \quad \textcircled{2} \\ & = \text{gcd}(2, 6); \quad 6 = 2(3) + 0 \\ & = \text{gcd}(0, 2) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

Give a recursive algorithm for computing  $n!$ , where  $n$  is a non-negative integer.

```
procedure factorial ( n : nonnegative integer )  
→ if n = 0 then return 1  
→ else return n · factorial ( n-1 )  
{output is n!}
```

$$\begin{aligned}n &= 4 && 4! \\n &= 3 = 4 \cdot 3! \\n &= 2 = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2! \\n &= 1 = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1! \\&\quad = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 0! \\&\quad = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 1\end{aligned}$$

Give a recursive algorithm for computing  $a^n$  where a is a non-zero real number and n is a non-negative integer.

```
procedure power ( a is a nonzero real number, n non-negative integer )
  If n = 0 then return 1
  → else return a · power ( a, n-1 )
  { output is  $a^n$  }
```

$$\begin{array}{ll} n=4 & 5^4 = 5 \cdot 5^3 \\ & = 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5^2 \\ n=3 & = 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5^1 \\ & = 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5^0 \\ & = 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 5 \cdot 1 \end{array}$$

Prove the algorithm correct which computes  $a^n$ , where a is a non-zero real number and n is a non-negative integer.

**Basis Step:**  $a^0 = 1$  for every non-zero real number a and  $\boxed{\text{power}(a, 0) = 1}$

**Inductive Step:** Assume  $\boxed{\text{power}(a, k) = a^k}$  for all  $a \neq 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \text{power}(a, k+1) &= a \cdot \underline{\text{power}(a, k)} \\ &= a \cdot a^k \\ &= a^{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

