

**Discrete Structures**  
Introduction to Proofs

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# Proofs

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## 1 Terminology

- **Conjecture:** A mathematical statement that has not yet been rigorously proved but is being proposed as being true.
- **Theorem:** Is a statement that can be shown to be true, or has been shown to be true.
- **Axioms (or Postulates):** Is a statement that is taken to be true, to serve as a premise or starting point for further reasoning and arguments.
- **Lemma:** Is a less important theorem that is helpful in the proof of theorems.
- **Corollary:** Is a theorem that can be established directly from a theorem that has been proven.

## 2 Direct Proof

**Definition 1. Definition.** A **direct proof** is a way of showing the truth or falsehood of a given statement by a straightforward combination of established facts, usually axioms, existing lemmas and theorems, without making any further assumptions.

Let's say we have the statement: *If  $n$  is odd number then  $n^2$  is an odd number*

**Proof:** Let's assume that  $n$  is an odd number, which means that it can be expressed as  $n = 2k + 1$  for some integer  $k$ . This is because odd numbers are of the form  $2k + 1$  where  $k$  is an integer.

Now, let's square  $n$ :

$$\begin{aligned}n^2 &= (2k + 1)^2 \\&= 4k^2 + 4k + 1 \\&= 2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1\end{aligned}$$

As we can see from the expression  $2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$ , the squared value  $n^2$  is expressed as an even number (2 times an integer) plus 1. Since an odd number can always be represented as  $2k + 1$ , where  $k$  is an integer, the expression  $2(2k^2 + 2k) + 1$  follows the same pattern and is also an odd number.

Thus, we have shown that if  $n$  is an odd number, then  $n^2$  is indeed an odd number.  $\odot$

Now let's say we have the statement: *If  $n$  is even then  $(-1)^n = 1$*

**Proof:** Let's assume that  $n$  is an even number, which means that it can be expressed as  $n = 2k$  for some integer  $k$ . This is because even numbers are of the form  $2k$  where  $k$  is an integer.

Now, let's consider  $(-1)^{2k}$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (-1)^{2k} &= ((-1)^2)^k \\ &= 1^k \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

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Since any non-negative integer exponent of 1 is always 1, the expression  $(-1)^{2k}$  simplifies to 1.

Therefore, we have shown that if  $n$  is an even number, then  $(-1)^n = 1$  holds true.

This completes the proof.

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For the next example, let's consider the following statement: *if  $a|b$  and  $a|c$ , then  $a|(b+c)$ ,  $a, b, c \in \mathbb{Z}$*

**Proof:** Assume that  $a|b$  and  $a|c$ . This means there exist integers  $r$  and  $t$  such that:

$$\begin{aligned} b &= a \cdot r, & (\text{by definition of divisibility}) \\ c &= a \cdot t. & (\text{by definition of divisibility}) \end{aligned}$$

We want to show that  $a|(b+c)$ . This means there exists an integer  $s$  such that:

$$b + c = a \cdot s. \quad (\text{by definition of divisibility})$$

Adding the equations for  $b$  and  $c$ , we get:

$$\begin{aligned} b + c &= a \cdot r + a \cdot t \\ &= a \cdot (r + t). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $r$  and  $t$  are integers,  $r + t$  is also an integer. Therefore, we have shown that  $b + c = a \cdot (r + t)$ , which implies  $a|(b+c)$ . Thus, we have proved the statement.

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### 3 Proofs by Contrapositive

Recall contrapositive, if  $p \rightarrow q$ , then the contrapositive is  $\neg q \rightarrow \neg p$ . Recall that these two statements are *logically equivalent*

**Definition 2. Definition.** In mathematics, proof by contrapositive, or proof by contraposition, is a rule of inference used in proofs, where one infers a conditional statement from its contrapositive. In other words, the conclusion "if  $A$ , then  $B$ " is inferred by constructing a proof of the claim "if not  $B$ , then not  $A$ " instead. More often than not, this approach is preferred if the contrapositive is easier to prove than the original conditional statement itself.

Consider the statement:  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ , if  $n^2$  is odd, then  $n$  is odd

First, let's try to prove this directly. To show that this approach is futile.

**Proof:** Suppose  $n^2$  is odd. Then, we can express it as  $n^2 = 2k + 1$ , where  $k$  is an integer.

$$n^2 = 2k + 1, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

Our goal is to prove that  $n$  is also odd, implying that  $n$  can be written as  $n = 2k + 1$ , where  $k$  is an integer. Let's attempt to find a direct expression for  $n$ :

$$n = \sqrt{2k + 1}.$$

However, this doesn't provide any information about the parity of  $n$ . Therefore, a direct proof is not yielding the desired result. In such cases, we often resort to a proof by contrapositive, which can be more effective in establishing the statement. ☹

Before we begin our proof by contrapositive, let's clarify what the contrapositive is for our statement:

Statement: If  $n^2$  is odd, then  $n$  is odd.  
 Contrapositive: if  $n$  is even, then  $n^2$  is even

**Proof:** Suppose  $n$  is even. Then, we can express it as  $n = 2k$ , where  $k$  is an integer.

$$n = 2k, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}.$$

We want to show that  $n^2$  is also even, implying that  $n^2 = 2k + 1$ , where  $k$  is an integer. If we square both sides of our statement  $n = 2k + 1$

$$\begin{aligned} n^2 &= (2k)^2 \\ n^2 &= 4k^2 \\ n^2 &= 2(2k^2). \end{aligned}$$

Since we know that if  $k$  is an integer, then  $k^2$  must also be an integer, we have shown that the parity of  $n^2$  is indeed even if  $n$  is even.

Therefore, by proving the contrapositive statement, we have established the original statement: If  $n^2$  is odd, then  $n$  is odd.



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Let's consider another example:  $\forall$  positive real numbers,  $n \cdot m > 100$ , then  $n > 10$  or  $m > 10$

So we have:

Statement:  $\forall$  positive real numbers, if  $n \cdot m > 100$ , then  $n > 10$  or  $m > 10$   
Contrapositive:  $\forall$  positive real numbers, if  $n \leq 10$  and  $m \leq 10$  then  $n \cdot m \leq 100$

**Proof:** So suppose  $n \leq 10$  and  $m \leq 10$ , we want to show that  $nm \leq 100$ .

If:

$$\begin{aligned} n &\leq 10 \\ nm &\leq 10m \quad (\text{Multiplying both sides by } m). \end{aligned}$$

And:

$$\begin{aligned} m &\leq 10 \\ 10m &\leq 100 \quad (\text{Multiplying both sides by } 10). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, it follows that:

$$nm \leq 100.$$

Therefore, we have shown that if  $n \leq 10$  and  $m \leq 10$ , then  $nm$  must be  $\leq 100$



## 4 Proof by Contradiction

**Definition 3. Proof by Contradiction** is a form of proof that establishes the truth or the validity of a proposition, by showing that assuming the proposition to be false leads to a contradiction

**Remark.** There are infinitely many primes

*Proof.* To prove by contradiction, let's assume that there exists a *finite* number of primes

If we denote the primes

$$p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4, \dots, p_n.$$

Now suppose we let some integer  $m$  be the product of these primes. Then we add one to this product

$$m = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdot p_3 \cdot p_4 \cdot \dots \cdot p_n + 1.$$

By the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, this new integer  $m$  must either be prime or composite. Let's explore both possibilities

Prime:

If  $m$  were to be prime, this means that we have created a new prime number. In this case, since our assumption is that there is a finite number of primes it would imply that our assumption is false, and there are indeed not a finite number of primes.

Composite:

If  $m$  were to be composite then the prime factors of  $m$  would need to be able to divide  $m$ , however, since we added one to  $m$ , we know that these prime factors will not be divisors of  $m$ . Thus,  $m$  cannot be composite

Thus, since  $m$  cannot be composite, by the fundamental theorem of arithmetic,  $m$  must be prime. This implies that there are infinitely many primes



**Remark.**  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.

*Proof.* For the sake of contradiction, let's assume that  $\sqrt{2}$  is *rational*. If we assume that  $\sqrt{2}$  is rational, then it can be expressed as:

$$\frac{a}{b}, \quad a, b \in \mathbb{Z}, \quad b \neq 0 \text{ and } \text{GCF}(a, b) = 1.$$

Lemma 1: An even integer multiplied by an even integer yields an even integer.

*Lemma 1:* Show  $(2k)^2$  is even for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\begin{aligned} (2k)^2 \\ &= 4k^2 \\ &= 2(2k^2). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , then  $2k^2$  must be an integer. Which means we have the form  $2k$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{2} &= \frac{a}{b} \quad (\text{by definition of rational numbers}) \\ 2 &= \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^2 \quad (\text{squaring both sides of the equation, maintaining equality}) \\ 2 &= \frac{a^2}{b^2} \quad (\text{exponentiation property of fractions}) \\ 2b^2 &= a^2 \quad (\text{cross multiplication property}) \end{aligned}$$

If  $2b^2$  is an even integer (by definition of an even integer), then  $a^2$  must also be an integer. Thus,  $a$  and  $b$  must also be even integers:

$$\therefore a = 2k \text{ and } b = 2l \text{ for some integers } k, l.$$

Since  $\frac{2k}{2l}$  has a GCF of 2, this implies that our statement:  $\sqrt{2}$  is *rational* is false, which demonstrates a contradiction. Therefore,  $\sqrt{2}$  must be irrational.





## 5 Proof by Exhaustion (Proof by cases)

**Definition 4. Proof by Exhaustion** the proof that something is true by showing that it is true for each and every case that could possibly be considered.

**Remark.**  $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \leq 4$

*Proof.* To show that  $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \leq 4$ , we must show that this is true for all possible cases of  $n$   
for  $n \in (1, 2, 3, 4)$ .

Case 1:  $n = 1$

$$(1 + 1)^3 = 8 \geq 3^1 \quad \text{because } 8 \geq 3.$$

Case 2:  $n = 2$

$$(2 + 1)^3 = 27 \geq 3^2 \quad \text{because } 27 \geq 9.$$

Case 3:  $n = 3$

$$(3 + 1)^3 = 64 \geq 3^3 \quad \text{because } 64 \geq 27.$$

Case 4:  $n = 4$

$$(4 + 1)^3 = 125 \geq 3^4 \quad \text{because } 125 \geq 81.$$

Thus, we have shown that  $(n + 1)^3 \geq 3^n$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \leq 4$  for every possible case of  $n$

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**Remark.** For any positive integer  $x$  that is a perfect cube ( $x = n^3$  for some positive integer  $n$ ), one of the following conditions holds:

1.  $x$  is a multiple of 9 ( $x = 9k$  for some positive integer  $k$ ).
2.  $x$  is one less than a multiple of 9 ( $x = 9k - 1$  for some positive integer  $k$ ).
3.  $x$  is one more than a multiple of 9 ( $x = 9k + 1$  for some positive integer  $k$ ).

*Proof.* To show that this statement holds  $\forall x \mid x = n^3, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  we will show that all three cases lead to a true statement.

First, consider any positive integer  $n$ . Since every integer can be written in the form  $9p$ ,  $9p - 1$ , or  $9p + 1$  for some integer  $p$  (because the remainder when dividing by 9 must be 0, 1, or -1), we will prove the three cases.

Case 1  $n = 9p$ :

$$(9p)^3 = 729p^3$$

Note:  $729p^3 = 9(81p^3)$  is a multiple of 9

Case 2  $n = 9p - 1$ :

$$(9p - 1)^3 = 729p^3 - 243p^2 + 27p - 1$$

Note:  $729p^3 - 243p^2 + 27p = 9(81p^3 - 27p^2 + 3p)$

Therefore,  $(9p - 1)^3 = 9(81p^3 - 27p^2 + 3p) - 1$  is one less than a multiple of 9.

Case 3  $n = 9p + 1$ :

$$(9p + 1)^3 = 729p^3 + 243p^2 + 27p + 1$$

Note:  $729p^3 + 243p^2 + 27p = 9(81p^3 + 27p^2 + 3p)$

Therefore,  $(9p + 1)^3 = 9(81p^3 + 27p^2 + 3p) + 1$  is one more than a multiple of 9.

Therefore, it is apparent that for any positive integer  $x$  that is a perfect cube ( $x = n^3$  for some positive integer  $n$ ), one of the following conditions holds:

1.  $x$  is a multiple of 9 ( $x = 9k$  for some positive integer  $k$ ).
2.  $x$  is one less than a multiple of 9 ( $x = 9k - 1$  for some positive integer  $k$ ).
3.  $x$  is one more than a multiple of 9 ( $x = 9k + 1$  for some positive integer  $k$ ).



## 6 Proof by Existence

**Definition 5.** A **proof by existence** is a proof that establishes the existence of an element with a certain desired property.

**Remark.** There exists a prime number  $p$  such that both  $p + 2$  and  $p + 6$  are prime numbers.

*Proof.* We can show that,  $\exists p \in \mathbb{P} \mid p + 2, p + 6 \in \mathbb{P}$ , by use of numerical methods. First, let's define a subset of  $\mathbb{P}$ , denoted as  $S$ , as follows:

$$S = \{2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13\}.$$

By iterating through  $S$ , we observe that when  $p = 5$ , we have  $p + 2 = 7$  and  $p + 6 = 11$ , where both 7 and 11 are elements of  $S$  and, by definition, prime numbers.

Thus, we have shown that there exists a prime number  $p$  such that both  $p + 2$  and  $p + 6$  are prime numbers.



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**Remark.**  $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z} \ 6x = 2k, \ k \in \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow x = 2l, \ l \in \mathbb{Z}$

*Proof.* We can show that  $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z} \ 6x = 2k, \ k \in \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow x = 2l, \ l \in \mathbb{Z}$  finding a number  $x$  such that if  $x$  is not even when  $6x$  is even.

We can start by defining a few test cases,  $S$

$$S = \{-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}.$$

Iterating through  $S$  we can see that when  $x = 5$ ,  $x$  is not even when  $6x$  is even

$$6(5) = 30, \quad \text{where } 30 = 2k \ k \in \mathbb{Z} \ x = 5, \quad \text{where } 5 = 2k + 1 \ k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

Thus, we have show that for all integers  $x$ , if  $6x$  is even then  $x$  may not be even. Therefore, the remark  $\forall x \in \mathbb{Z} \ 6x = 2k, \ k \in \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow x = 2l, \ l \in \mathbb{Z}$  is not a true statement for all integers  $x$ .



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**Proposition.**  $\exists x, y \in \bar{\mathbb{Q}} \mid x^y \in \mathbb{Q}$

*Proof.* To show that  $\exists x, y \in \bar{\mathbb{Q}} \mid x^y \in \mathbb{Q}$ , let's assume that  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational, then denote  $x = \sqrt{2}$  and  $y = \sqrt{2}$ . If we want to show that  $x^y$  is a rational number when  $x$  and  $y$  are irrational, then we must compute:

$$(\sqrt{2})^{\sqrt{2}}$$

Since this number is clearly still irrational, let's consider when  $x = (\sqrt{2})^{\sqrt{2}}$  and when  $y = \sqrt{2}$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} x^y &= ((\sqrt{2})^{\sqrt{2}})^{\sqrt{2}} && \text{(Original expression)} \\ &= ((\sqrt{2})^{2^{\frac{1}{2}}})^{2^{\frac{1}{2}}} && \text{(Simplify } \sqrt{2} \text{ to } 2^{\frac{1}{2}}) \\ &= (\sqrt{2})^{4^{\frac{1}{2}}} && \text{(Power of a power rule, } (a^b)^c = a^{bc}) \\ &= \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{4}} && \text{(Simplify } 4^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{ to } \sqrt{4}) \\ &= \sqrt{2}^2 && \text{(Simplify } \sqrt{4} \text{ to } 2) \\ &= 2 && \text{(Power rule, } (\sqrt{2})^2 = 2) \end{aligned}$$

Thus, when  $x = \sqrt{2}^{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $y = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $x^y = 2$ , where 2 is rational.

Therefore, we have shown that when  $x = (\sqrt{2})^{\sqrt{2}}$  and  $y = \sqrt{2}$ , where  $x$  and  $y$  are irrational, then  $x^y$  is rational. Proving the proposition  $\exists x, y \in \bar{\mathbb{Q}} \mid x^y \in \mathbb{Q}$  non-constructively

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## 7 Proof by Uniqueness

**Definition 6.** To **Prove by Uniqueness** is to show that some element has some desired property, and there is only one instance.

1. Show that there exists an  $x$  with some desired property
2. Show that  $y \neq x$ , then  $y$  does not have a desired property

**Proposition.** Given  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a \neq 0$ , there exists a unique  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $a \cdot r + b = 0$ .

*Proof.* To prove existence, we will show that there is at least one solution  $r$  that satisfies  $a \cdot r + b = 0$ . Assuming  $a \neq 0$ , We can solve for  $r$  by isolating it in the equation:

$$\begin{array}{ll} a \cdot r + b = 0 & \text{(Original equation)} \\ a \cdot r = -b & \text{(Subtracting } b \text{ from both sides)} \\ r = \frac{-b}{a} & \text{(Dividing both sides by } a) \end{array}$$

Since  $a \neq 0$ , the division is well-defined. Therefore, there exists at least one solution  $r = \frac{-b}{a}$  that satisfies the equation.

To prove uniqueness, we will assume that there is another solution  $s \neq r$  such that  $a \cdot s + b = 0$ . By substituting the values of  $r$  and  $s$  from the original equation, we get:

$$\begin{array}{ll} as + b = 0 & ar + b = 0 \\ a \cdot s + b = a \cdot r + b & \\ a \cdot s = a \cdot r & \\ s = r & \end{array}$$

Here, we reach a contradiction as we initially assumed that  $s \neq r$ , but through the proof, we derived that  $s = r$ . Therefore, the solution  $r$  is unique.

In conclusion, given  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a \neq 0$ , there exists a unique solution  $r = \frac{-b}{a}$  such that  $a \cdot r + b = 0$ . ☺

## 8 Proof by Induction

**Definition 7.** To **Prove by Induction** is to prove that for every  $n$ , if the statement holds for  $n$ , then it holds for  $n + 1$

1. Basis Step: Show that  $P(a)$  is true
2. Inductive Step: Show that for all integers  $k \geq a$ , if  $P(k)$  is true then  $P(k + 1)$  is true

**Proposition.**  $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \geq 1$

*Proof.* To show that  $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , we must first show that the basis step, when  $n = 1$  that

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

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

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

$$1 = 1.$$

Assume  $n = k$  holds (inductive hypothesis):

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

Show  $n = k + 1$  holds:

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

By the inductive hypothesis, if  $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$ , then it holds that:

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



**Proposition.** 3 is a factor of  $4^n + 2$

*Proof.* To show that 3 is a factor of  $4^n + 2$ , we must show that  $4^n + 2 = 3r$ ,  $r \in \mathbb{Z}$  for  $P_1$ ,  $P_k$ , and  $P_{k+1}$

Anchor:  $P_1 = 4^1 + 2 = 6$ , since  $6 = 3(2)$ ,  $P_1$  holds

Inductive hypothesis: Assume  $P_k$  holds, this implies that  $4^k + 2 = 3r$ , for some integer  $r$

Inductive step: Prove  $P_{k+1}$  holds

$$\begin{aligned} P_{k+1} &= 4^{k+1} + 2 \\ &= 4 \cdot 4^k + 2 \quad (\text{by product of powers property, } x^{n+m} = x^n \cdot x^m) \\ &= (3 + 1) \cdot 4^k + 2 \\ &= 3 \cdot 4^k + 4^k + 2. \end{aligned}$$

By the inductive hypothesis,  $4^k + 2 = 3r$ . Thus, it follows that:

$$\begin{aligned} &3 \cdot 4^k + 3r \\ &= 3(4^k + r). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have shown that  $P_{k+1}$  has a factor of 3. Thus proving this statement by induction.

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**Proposition.**  $36 + 324 + 900 + \dots + (12n - 6)^2 = 12n(4n^2 - 1)$

*Proof.* First, we show that  $P(1) = 36$

$$12(1)(4(1)^2 - 1) = 12(3) = 36.$$

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume  $P(k)$ :

$$P(k) = 36 + 324 + 900 + \dots + (12k - 6)^2 = 12k(4k^2 - 1).$$

Inductive Step: Show  $\forall k + 1$ ,  $P(k + 1)$  holds.

$$\begin{aligned} P(k + 1) &= 36 + 324 + 900 + \dots + (12(k) - 6)^2 + (12(k + 1) - 6)^2 = 12(k + 1)(4(k + 1)^2 - 1) \\ &\quad \underbrace{12k(4k^2 - 1) + (12(k + 1) - 6)^2}_{\text{Manipulate this side}} = 12(k + 1)(4(k + 1)^2 - 1). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 48k^3 - 12k + (12k + 12 - 6)^2 \\ &= 48k^3 - 12k + (12k + 6)^2 \\ &= 48k^3 - 12k + 144k^2 + 144k + 36 \\ &= 48k^3 + 144k^2 + 132k + 36 \\ &= 12(4k^3 + 12k^2 + 11k + 3) \\ &= 12(4k^3 + 12k^2 + 12k + 4 - k - 1) \\ &= 12(4(k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1)) - (k + 1) \\ &= 12(4(k^3 + 1^3) + (3k^2 + 3k) - (k + 1)) \\ &= 12(4(\underbrace{(k + 1)(k^2 - k + 1)}_{\text{By sum of perfect cubes where } a = k, b = 1}) + (3k^2 + 3k) - (k + 1)) \\ &= 12(4((k + 1)(k^2 - k + 1) + 3k(k + 1)) - (k + 1)) \\ &= 12(k + 1)4((k^2 - k + 1) + 3k) - 12(k + 1) \\ &= 12(k + 1)(4(k^2 + 2k + 1) - 1) \\ &= 12(k + 1)(4(k + 1)^2 - 1). \end{aligned}$$

Bringing back the right side of the equation:

$$12(k + 1)(4(k + 1)^2 - 1) = 12(k + 1)(4(k + 1)^2 - 1).$$

Thus, we have proved by induction that  $\forall k + 1$ ,  $P(k + 1)$  holds. ☺



**Proposition.**  $7^n \geq 7n$

*Proof.* Let  $P_n$  be the statement,  $7^n \geq 7n$

Anchor Step:

$$P_1 \text{ is true : } 7^1 \geq 7 \cdot 1.$$

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume that  $P_k$  is true:  $7^k \geq 7k$  for some positive integer  $k \geq 1$

Inductive Step: We now show that  $P_{k+1}$  is true:

$$\begin{aligned} 7^k &\geq 7k \quad k \geq 1 \\ 7 \cdot 7^k &\geq 7 \cdot 7k \quad 42k \geq 42 \geq 7 \\ 7^{k+1} &\geq 49k \\ 7^{k+1} &\geq 7k + 42k \\ \implies 7^{k+1} &\geq 7k + 7, \end{aligned}$$

Since we are assuming  $k \geq 1$ , and noted that  $42k \geq 42 \geq 7$ , the replacement of  $42k$  with 7 is justified

$$\therefore 7^{k+1} \geq 7(k+1).$$

Thus, By induction,  $P_n$  true true for all  $n \geq 1$

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