COMP170 Discrete Mathematical Tools for Computer Science

Intro to Induction

Version 2.0: Last updated, May 13, 2007

Discrete Math for Computer Science K. Bogart, C. Stein and R.L. Drysdale Section 4.1, pp. 127-142

4.1 Mathematical Induction

- Smallest Counterexamples
- The Principle of Mathematical Induction
- Strong Induction
- Induction in General

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- We conclude by distinguishing between the weak principle of mathematical induction and the strong principle of mathematical induction
 - Note that the strong principle can actually be derived from the weak principle. The difference between them has less to do with the power of the techniques, than with proof format

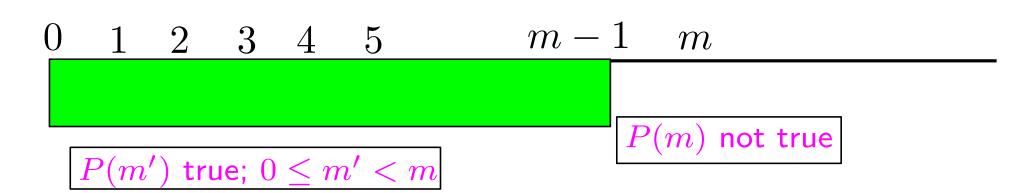
Proof by smallest counterexample that

statement P(n) is true for all $n = 0, 1, 2 \dots$ works by

(i) Assuming that a non-zero counterexample exists, i.e., There is some n>0 for which P(n) is not true

1 2 3 4 5

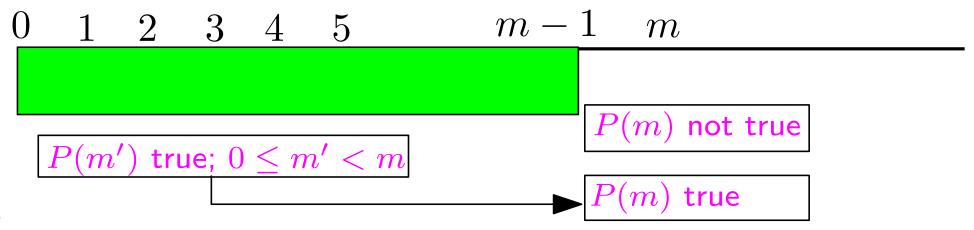
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- (iii) Then use fact that P(m') is true for all $0 \le m' < m$ to show that P(m) is true,

contradicting original choice of m.

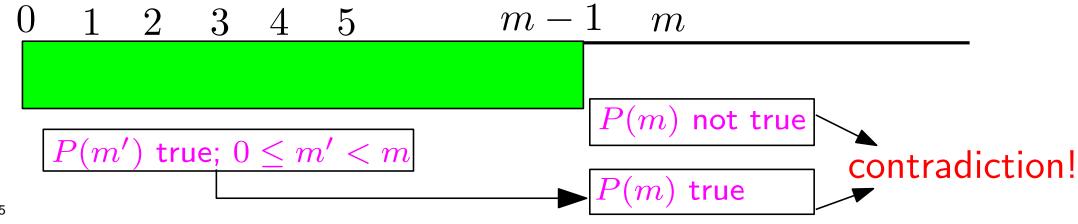
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$$0+1+2+3+4+...+n=\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
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Use proof by s.c. to show that, $\forall n \in N$, (non-negative ints)

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- Then, for any non-negative integer i < n, $1 + 2 + \ldots + i = \frac{i(i+1)}{2}.$
- Because $0 = 0 \cdot 1/2$, (*) holds when n = 0.
- Therefore, the smallest counterexample n is larger than 0.

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- Hence, (*) holds for all positive integers n.

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The crucial step was proving that

$$p(n-1) \Rightarrow p(n)$$

where p(n) is the statement $1+2+\ldots+n=\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

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When a for all statement is false there must be some n for which it is false.

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 contradiction! $\ge n^2 + 2$. (**)

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 - This contradicts (*).
 - Thus, p(n) is True for all $n \in N$.

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Since $p(n-1) \Rightarrow p(n)$, we see that p(0) implies p(1), p(1) implies p(2), p(2) implies p(3), ...

This should permit us to directly derive p(n) for every n!

4.1 Mathematical Induction

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- The Principle of Mathematical Induction
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Principle 4.1 (The Weak Principle of Mathematical Induction) (a) If the statement p(b) is True, and (b) the statement p(n-1) \Rightarrow p(n) is True for all n>b, then p(n) is True for all integers n \geq b.
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so, by mathematical induction, $\forall n > 0$, $2^{n+1} \ge n^2 + 2$

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Therefore,
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Therefore,
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Then, by the principle of mathematical induction,

$$\forall n \ge 2, \quad 2^{n+1} > n^2 + 3$$

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was then proven in the Inductive Step.

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It consisted of proving that p(b) is True, where in this case p(n) is $2^{n+1} > n^2 + 3$, and b = 2

(ii) Suppose that
$$n > 2$$
 and that $(*) 2^n > (n-1)^2 + 3$.

is the Inductive Hypothesis.

This is the assumption that p(n-1) is True.

The implication
$$p(n-1) \Rightarrow p(n)$$

was then proven in the **Inductive Step**.

The final sentence of the proof is called the Inductive Conclusion.

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So by the principle of mathematical induction, we see the formula holds for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

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Thus, by the principle of mathematical induction, $_{19-9}$ $2^n > n^2$ for all n > 5.

4.1 Mathematical Induction

- Smallest Counterexamples
- The Principle of Mathematical Induction
- Strong Induction
- Induction in General

Strong Induction

Recall that when we used Proof by smallest counterexample in Euclid's Division Theorem we actually

chose a smallest counterexample m to the EDT property p(n), and observed that m-n was a nonnegative integer less than m. Therefore p(m-n) had to be true. This in turn implied that p(m) was true, yielding a contradiction.

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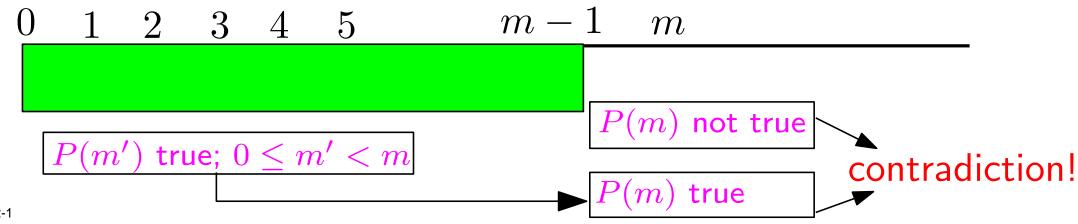
Note that the contradiction came from p(m-n) and not from p(m-1). We strongly used the fact that p(i) was True for all i < m and not just for i = m-1.

Proof by smallest counterexample that statement P(n) is true for all $n=0,1,2\ldots$ works by

- (i) Assuming that a non-zero counterexample exists, i.e., There is some n>0 for which P(n) is not true
- (ii) Letting $m \geq 0$ be *smallest* value for which P(m) is not true
- (iii) Then use fact that P(m') is true for all $0 \le m' < m$ to show that P(m) is true,

contradicting original choice of m.

 $\Rightarrow P(n)$ true for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$



The essence of our method for proving Euclid's division theorem was:

1. We have a statement q(k) that we want to prove for all k larger than some integer.

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- 4. We then use this assumption to derive a proof of q(k), thus generating our contradiction.

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- This is another form of the principle of mathematical induction.

Principle 4.2

(The Strong Principle of Mathematical Induction)

- (a) If the statement p(b) is True and
- (b) for all n > b, the statement

$$p(b) \land p(b+1) \land \ldots \land p(n-1) \Rightarrow p(n)$$
 is True

then p(n) is True for all integers $n \geq b$.

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- Then, if *n* is not a prime number, it is a product of two smaller numbers, each of which is, by the induction hypothesis, a power of a prime number or a product of powers of prime numbers.

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- n is therefore a power of a prime number or the product of powers of prime numbers
- Thus, by the strong principle of mathematical induction, every positive integer is a power of a prime number or a product of powers of prime numbers.

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The Weak Principle of Mathematical Induction and

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In reality, they are equivalent to each other in that the weak form is a special case of the strong form and the strong form can be derived from the weak form.

A typical proof by mathematical induction, showing that a statement p(n) is true for all integers $n \ge b$ consists of three steps:

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3. We conclude on the basis of the principle of mathematical in-29-7duction that p(n) is true for all integers $n \geq b$ The second step, proving (*) or (**), is the real core of an inductive proof.

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This is usually where hard work, creativity and insights are most needed