

# Mathematical Induction: Introduction and basic problems

CMSC 250

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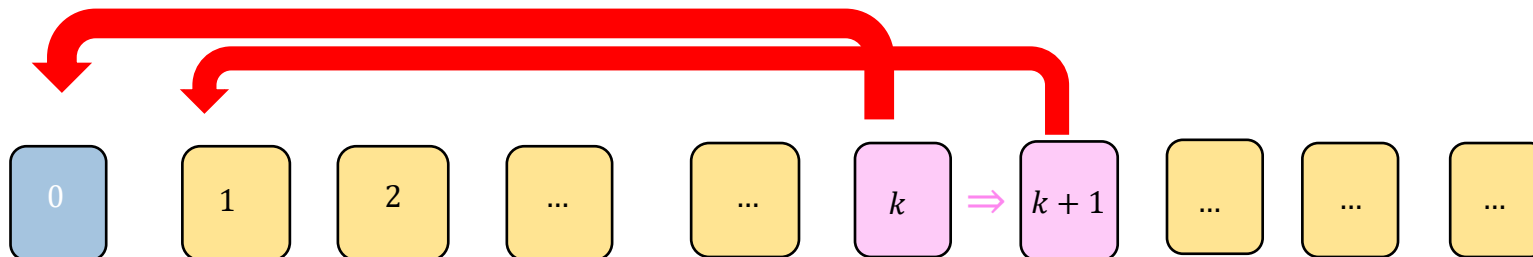
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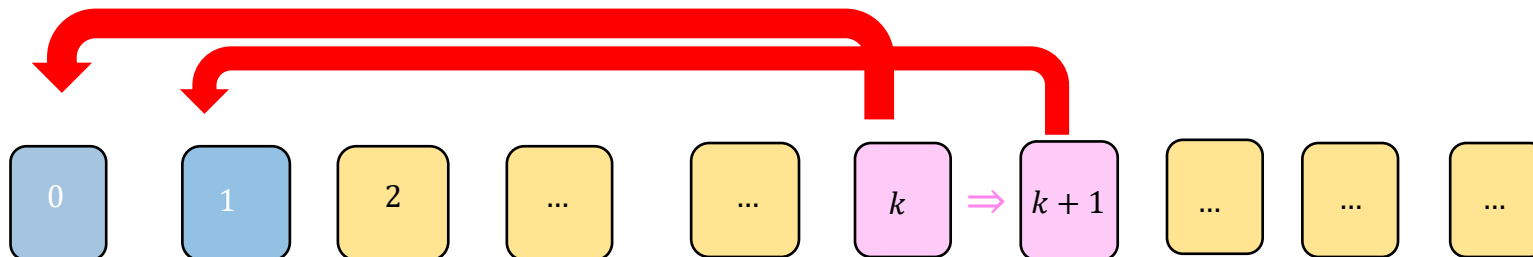
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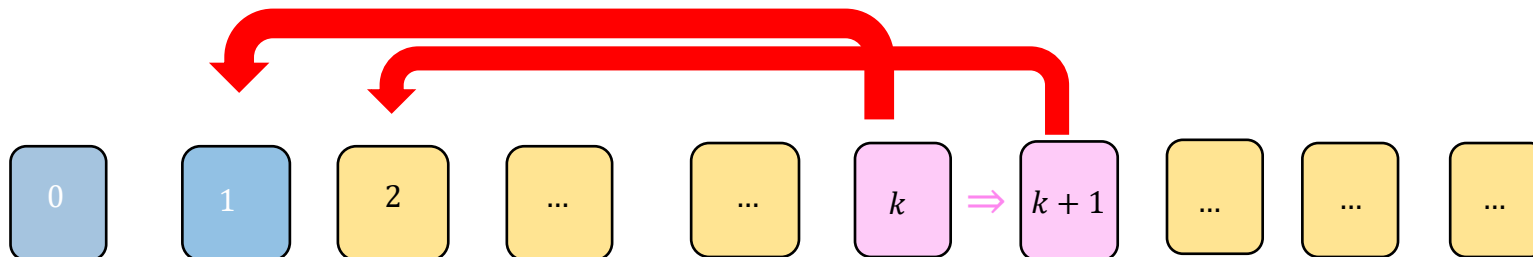
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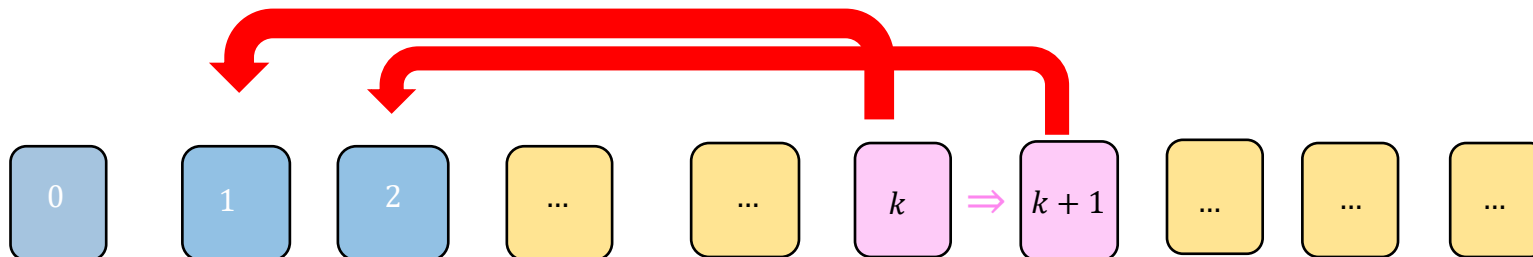
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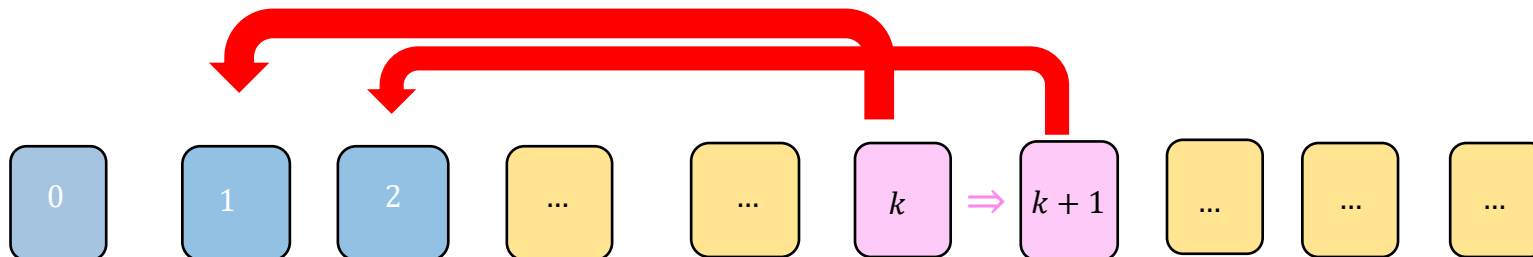
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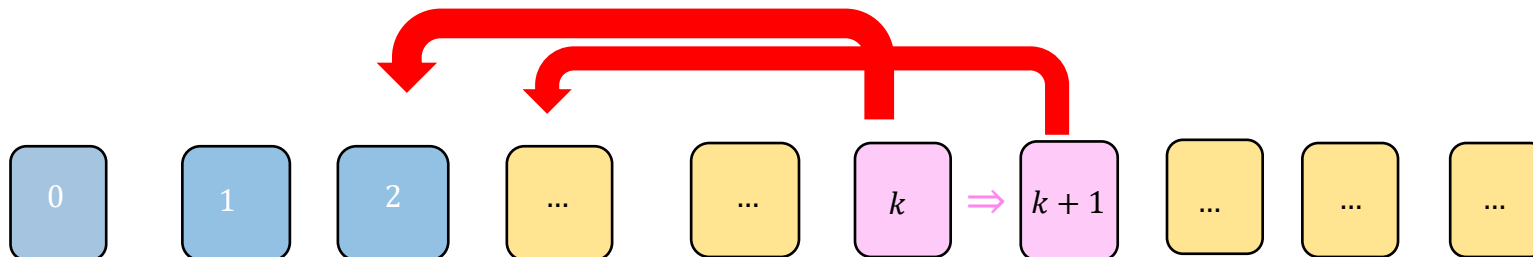
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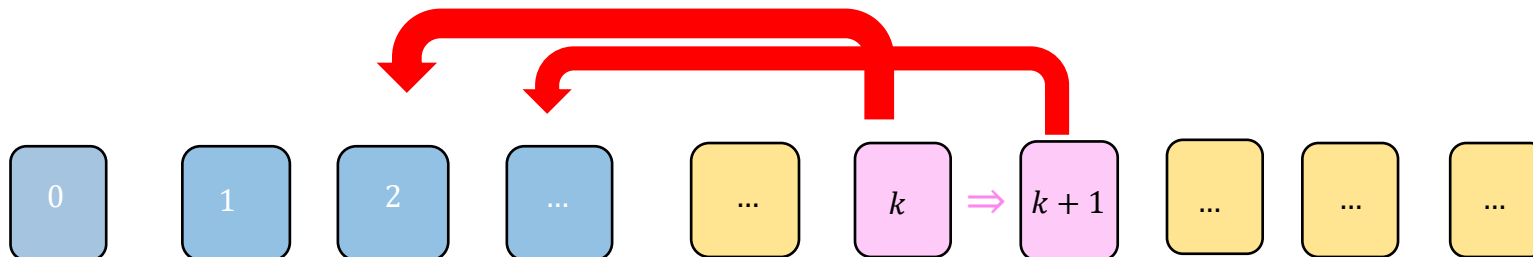
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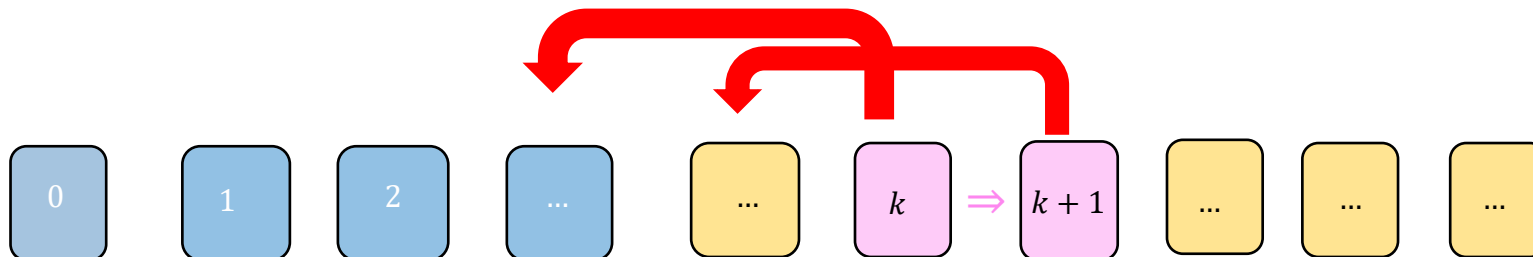
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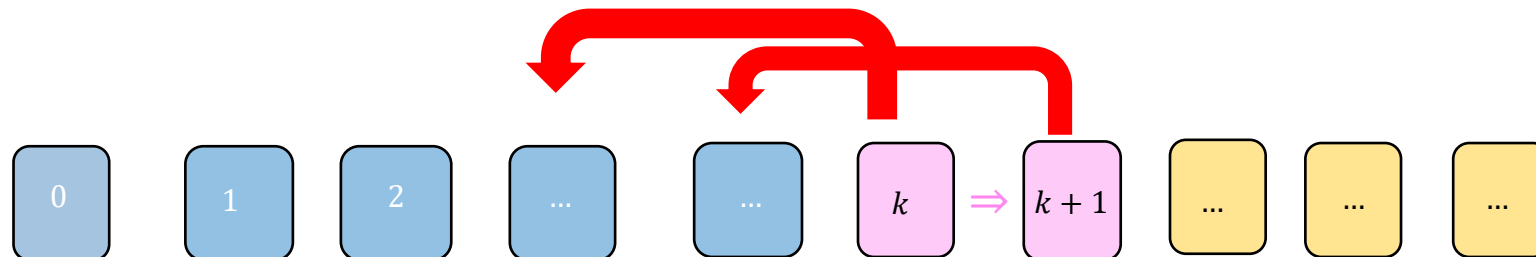
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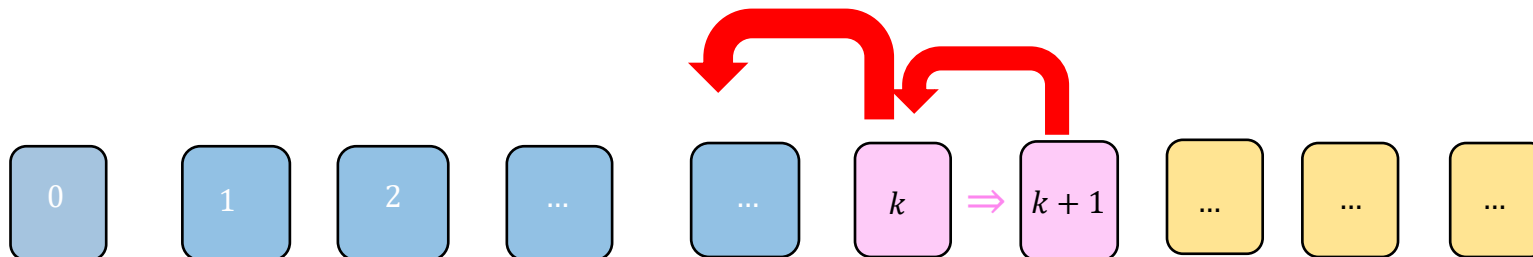
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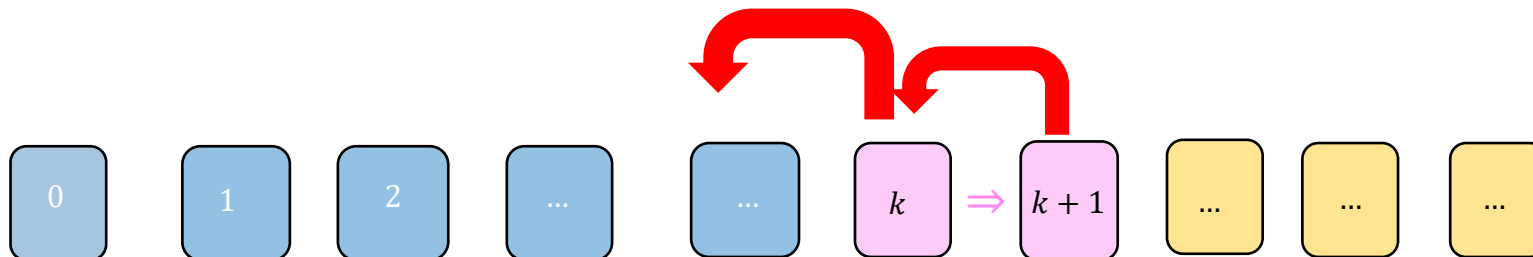
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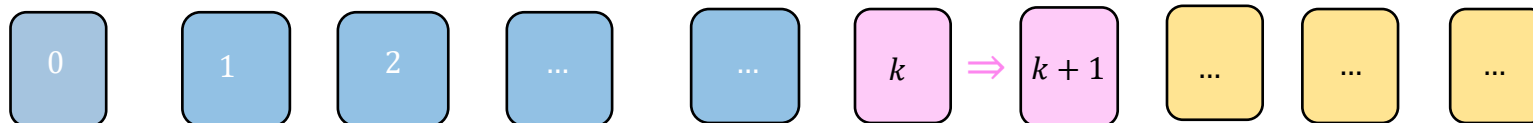
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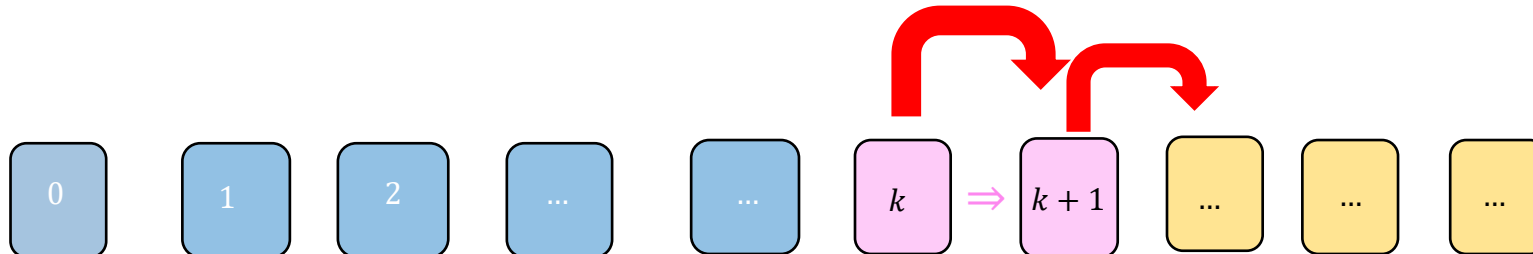
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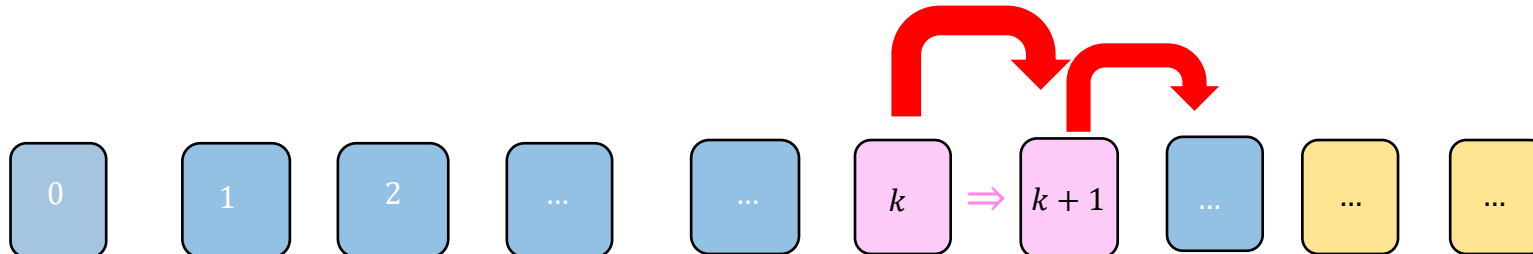
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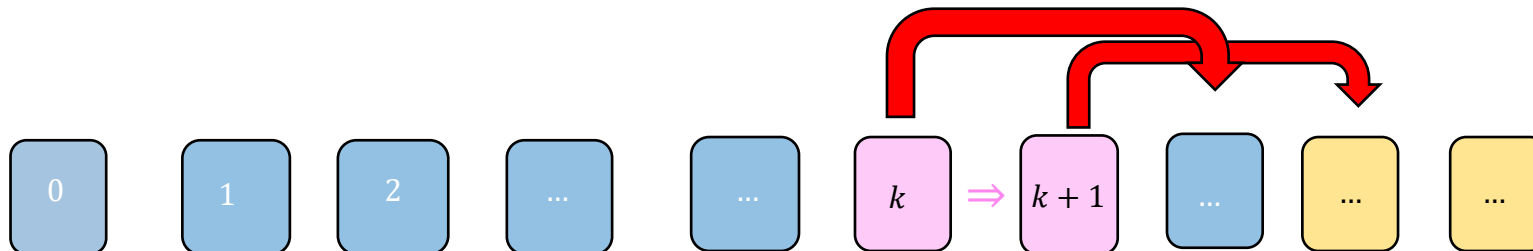
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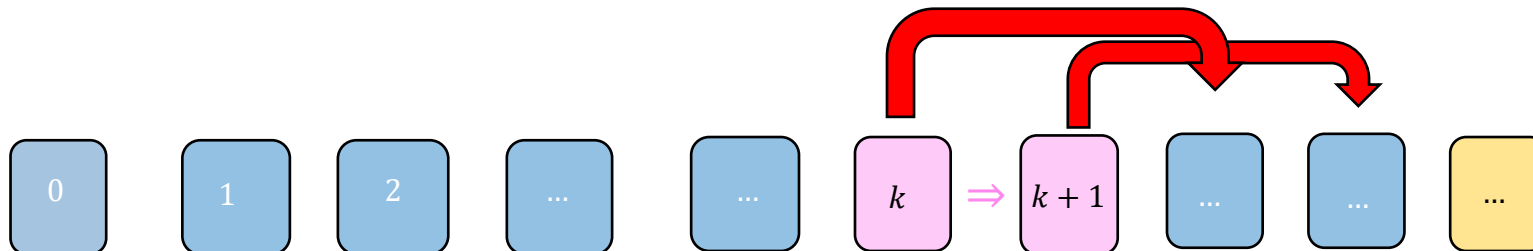
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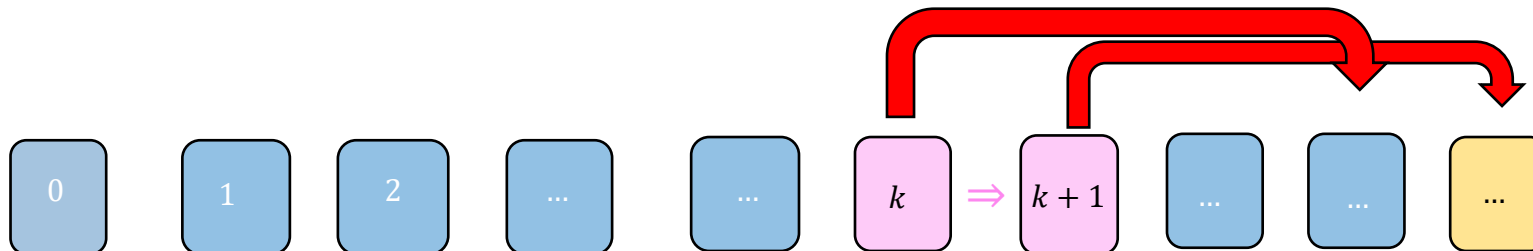
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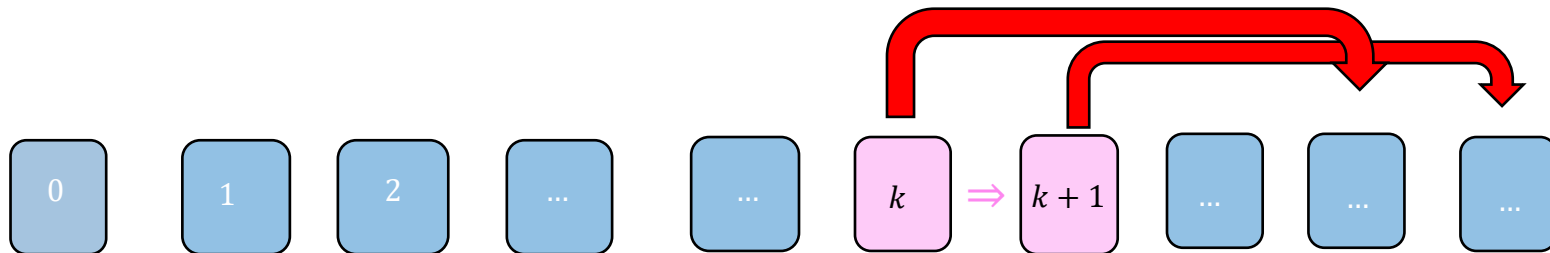
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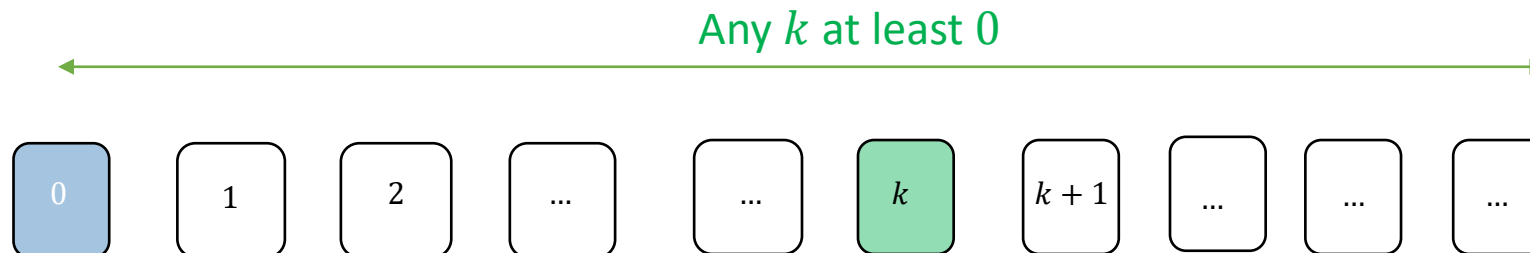
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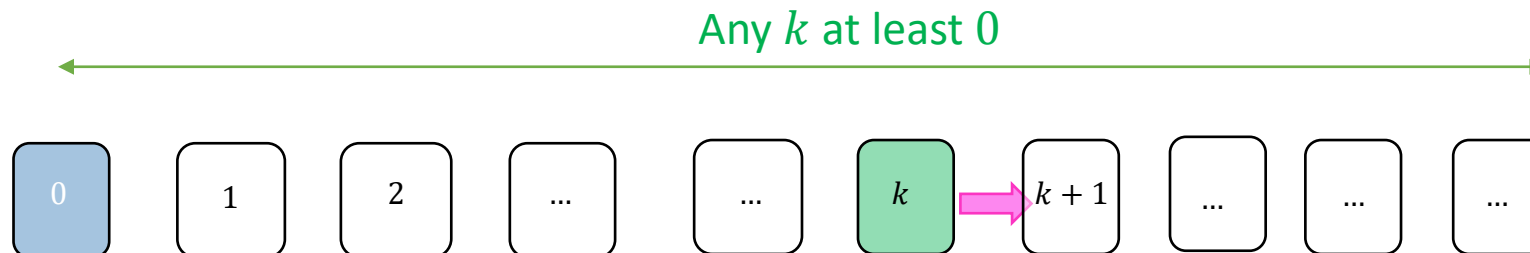
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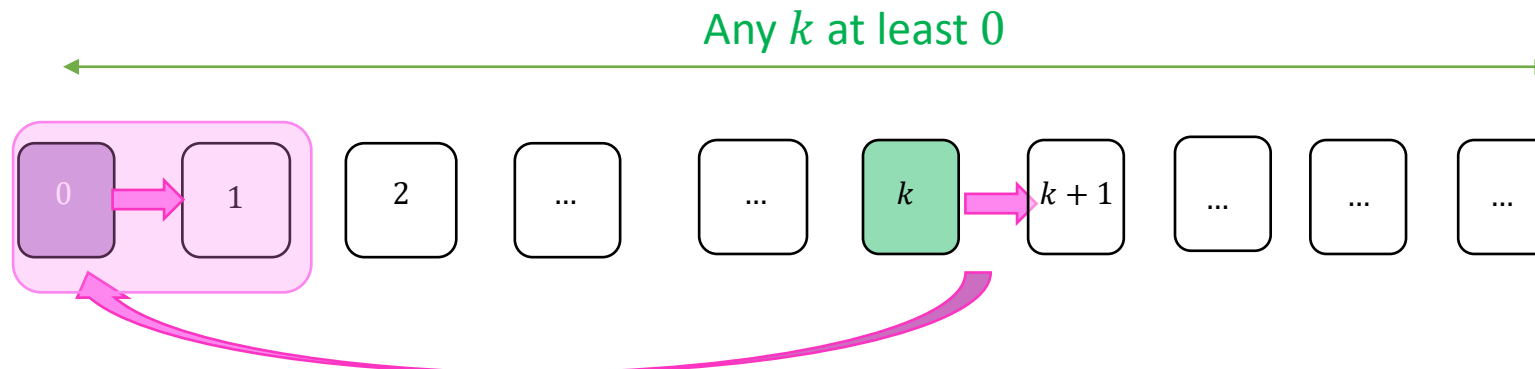
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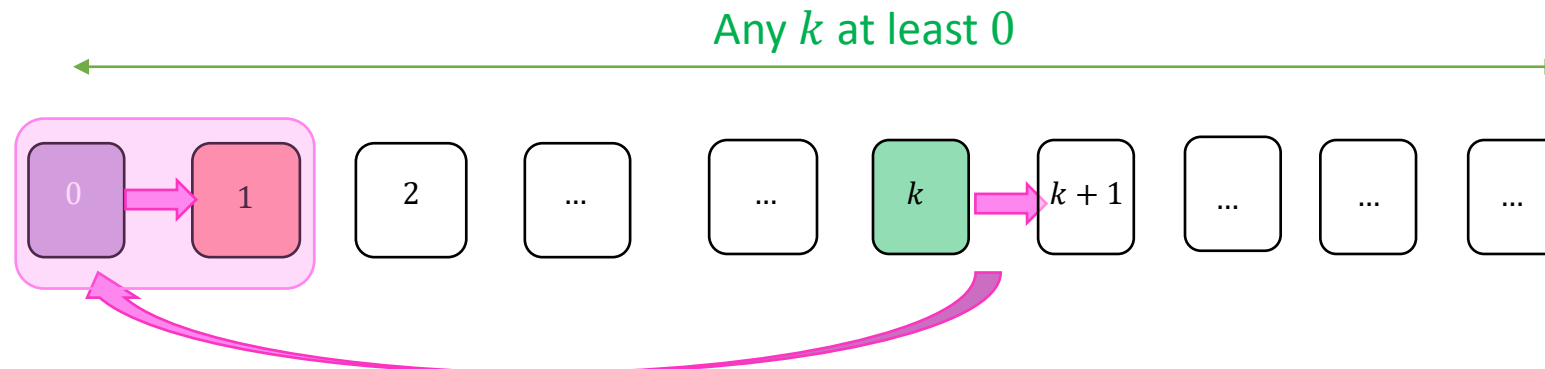
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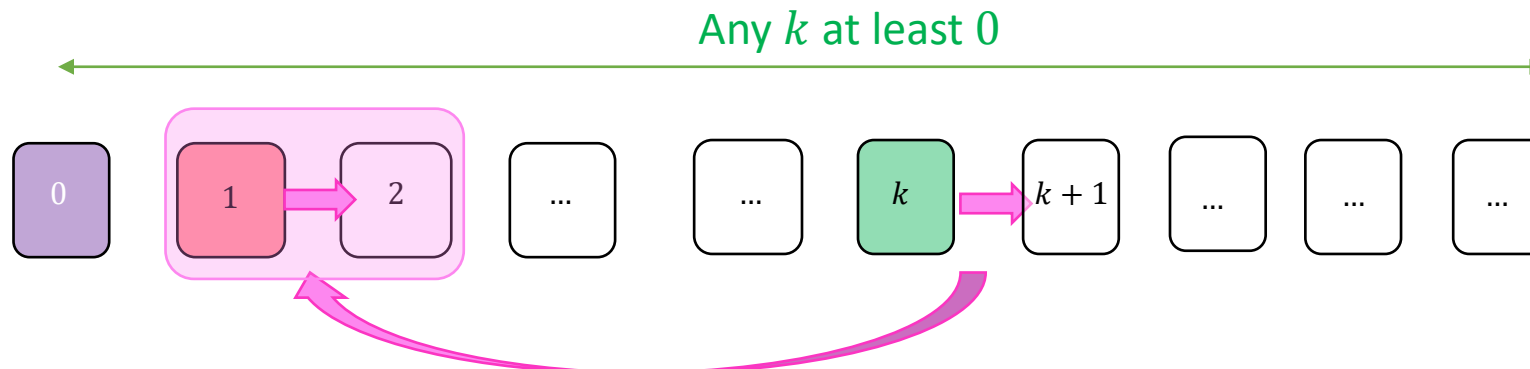
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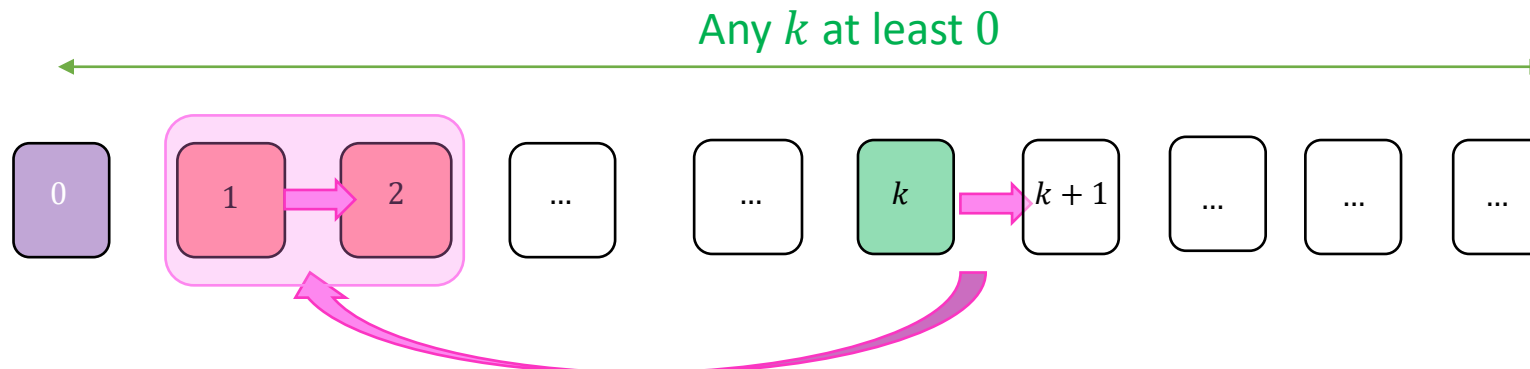
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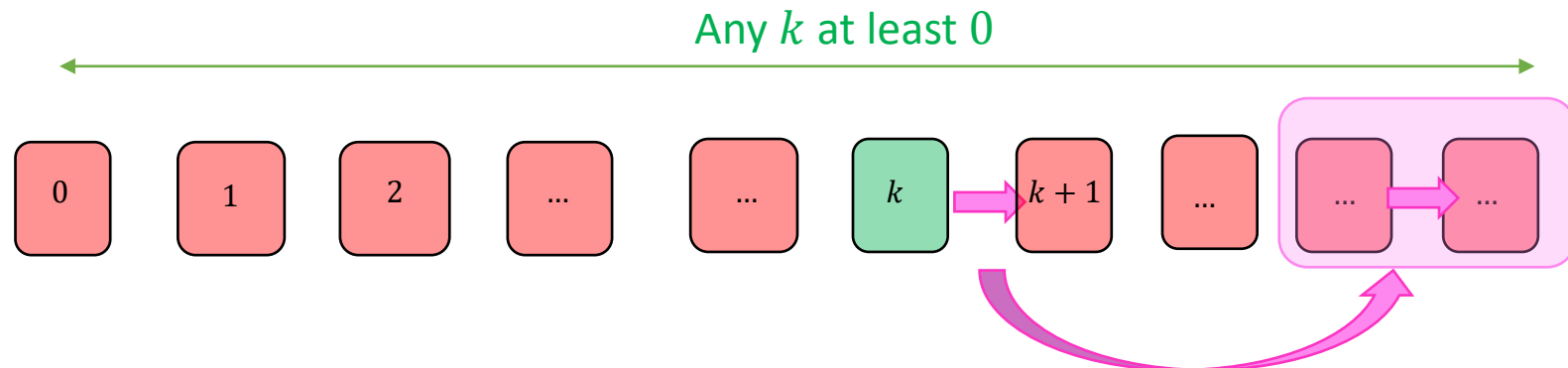
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*(We fast-forwarded here to save some time.)*

# An introductory example

- Suppose that we have the sequence  $a$  such that:

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 0 \\ 2a_{n-1}, & n \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

- First few terms:

$$1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \dots$$

- We will prove, **via mathematical induction**, that **for all  $n \geq 0$ ,**

$$a_n = 2^n$$

# Inductive Base

- For  $n = 0$ , we will **prove** that  $P(0)$  is true, where  $P(0)$  is the statement:

$$a_0 = 2^0$$

- This is trivial to prove, since by the base case of the sequence  $a$  we have  $a_0 = 1 = 2^0$ .
- So  $P(0)$  is true.

# Inductive Hypothesis

- For  $n = k \geq 0$ , we **assume** that  $P(k)$  **is true**:

$$a_k = 2^k$$

# Inductive Step

- Given that  $P(k)$  is true, we will **prove** that  $P(k + 1)$  is true, where  $P(k + 1)$  is the statement:

$$a_{k+1} = 2^{k+1}$$

# Inductive Step

- Given that  $P(k)$  is true, we will **prove** that  $P(k + 1)$  is true, where  $P(k + 1)$  is the statement:

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- Since  $k \geq 0$ ,  $k + 1 \geq 1$ .

# Inductive Step

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- Since  $k \geq 0$ ,  $k + 1 \geq 1$ .
- We can therefore use the **recursive rule** of the sequence's definition to derive  $a_{k+1} = 2 \cdot a_k$  (I)



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- From our assumption of  $P(k)$ , we know that  $a_k = 2^k$  (II)

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- Since  $k \geq 0$ ,  $k + 1 \geq 1$ .
- We can therefore use the recursive rule of the sequence's definition to derive  $a_{k+1} = 2 \cdot a_k$  (I)
- From our assumption of  $P(k)$ , we know that  $a_k = 2^k$  (II)
- (I)  $\stackrel{(II)}{\implies} a_{k+1} = 2^{k+1}$
- So  $P(k + 1)$  is also true and we are done.

# Here's another

- Suppose that we have the sequence  $s$  defined as follows:

$$s_n = \begin{cases} 0, & n = 0 \\ s_{n-1} + 10, & n \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

- Using weak induction, prove that  $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N})[5 \mid s_n]$

# Inductive Base

- For  $n = 0, s_0 = 0$  (I).
- Furthermore, it is the case that  $5 \mid 0$  (II).
- $(I, II) \Rightarrow 5 \mid s_0 \Rightarrow P(0)$  holds

# Inductive Hypothesis

- Suppose that  $n = k \geq 0$ . We will assume that  $P(k)$  holds, i.e:

$$(5 \mid s_k) \Leftrightarrow (\exists r \in \mathbb{Z})[s_k = 5r]$$

*Could also use the  
mod definition!*

# Inductive Step

- Given  $P(k)$ , we will now attempt to prove  $P(k+1)$ , i.e:

$$(5 \mid s_{k+1}) \Leftrightarrow (\exists \ell \in \mathbb{Z})[s_{k+1} = 5\ell]$$

- Since  $k \geq 0, k+1 \geq 1$  and we can use the recursive part of the definition of  $s$ :

$$s_{k+1} = s_{(k+1)-1} + 10 = s_k + 10 \stackrel{\text{(By I.H)}}{=} 5 \cdot r + 10 = 5r + 5 * 2 = 5(r + 2) = 5 \ell$$

# You do this!

- The sequence  $b$  is defined as:

$$b_n = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 0 \\ 4 + b_{n-1}, & n \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

- Prove that for all  $n \geq 0$ ,  $b_n$  is odd



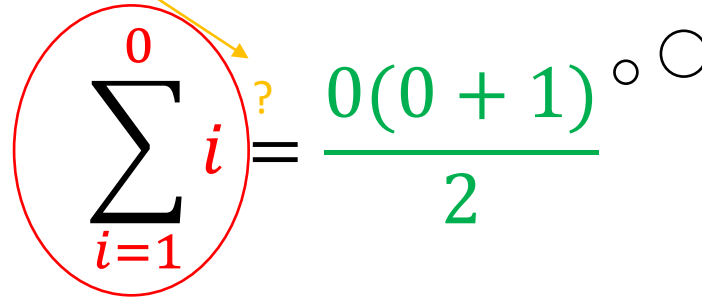
# The Gaussian Sum

- We will prove that the sum of the first  $n$  numbers is equal to  $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ .
- Symbolically:

$$\underbrace{1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + (n - 1) + n}_{\sum_{i=1}^n i} = \frac{n(n + 1)}{2}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n + 1)}{2}$$

# Inductive base

- For  $n = 0$ , we will **prove** that  $P(0)$  holds


$$\sum_{i=1}^0 i = \frac{0(0+1)}{2}$$

Remember:  $P(n)$  is

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

- LHS:  $\sum_{i=1}^0 i = 0$  (recall this fact from our sequences lecture)
- RHS:  $\frac{0(0+1)}{2} = 0$
- Since LHS = RHS for  $n = 0$ ,  $P(0)$  has been proven true.

# Inductive Hypothesis

- For  $n = k \geq 0$ , we **assume** that  $P(k)$  **is true**:

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

So, we **assume** that

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

is true for an arbitrary  $k \geq 0$

- Inductive Hypothesis done!

# Inductive step

- Given that  $P(k)$  is true, we will **prove** that  $P(k + 1)$  is true.

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

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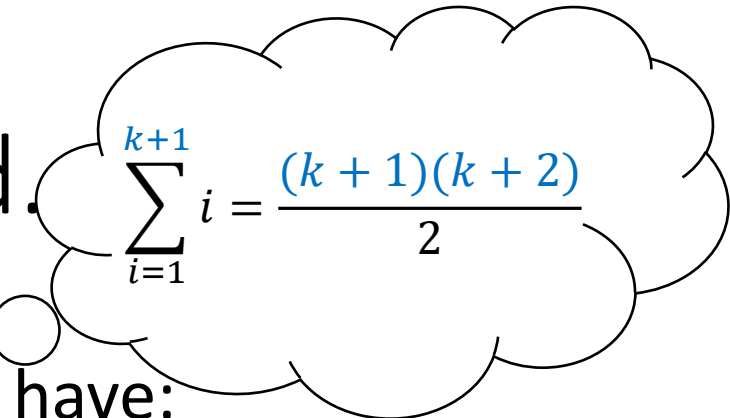
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Just adding 1 to  $k+1$

**This is our goal!**

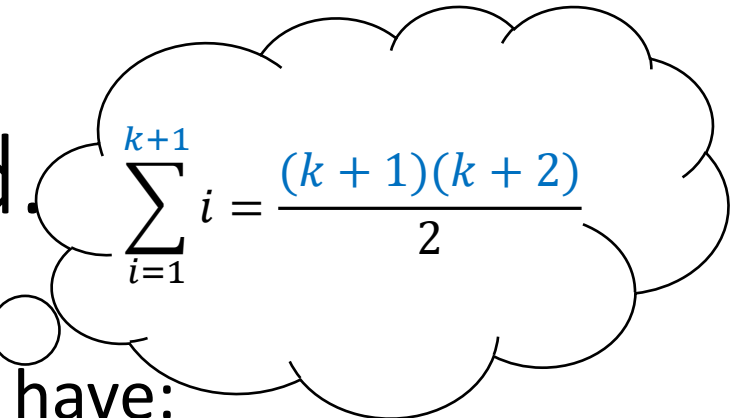
Inductive step, contd.


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

- Starting from the **LHS** of the relation to prove, we have:

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

## Inductive step, contd.

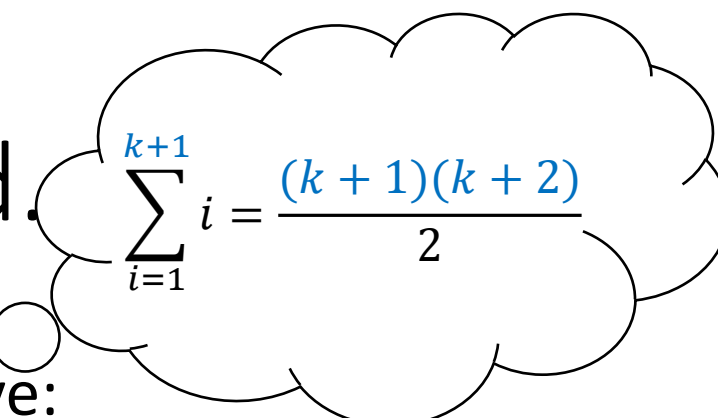

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- Starting from the **LHS** of the relation to prove, we have:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = 1 + 2 + \cdots + k + (k+1) = \sum_{i=1}^k i + (k+1) \quad (1)$$



## Inductive step, contd.


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$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = 1 + 2 + \cdots + k + (k+1) = \sum_{i=1}^k i + (k+1) \quad (1)$$

- From the Inductive Hypothesis**, we have that

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

## Inductive step, contd.

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

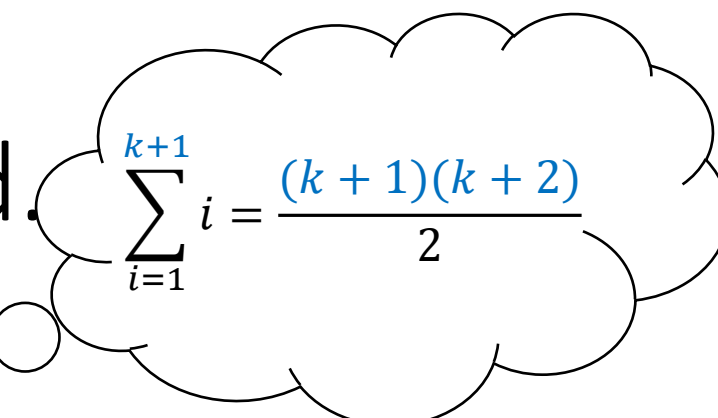
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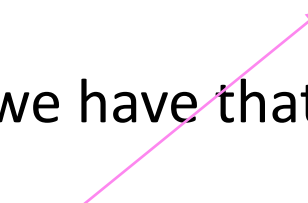
# Inductive step, contd.


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- Starting from the **LHS** of the relation to prove, we have:

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

- From the Inductive Hypothesis**, we have that


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

- Substituting (2) into (1) yields (next slide):

Inductive step, contd.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) = \frac{\textcolor{violet}{k}(\textcolor{blue}{k+1})}{2} + \frac{\textcolor{green}{2}(\textcolor{blue}{k+1})}{2} = \frac{(\textcolor{violet}{k} + \textcolor{green}{2})(\textcolor{blue}{k+1})}{\textcolor{green}{2}} = RHS$$

Inductive step, contd.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) = \frac{\textcolor{violet}{k}(\textcolor{blue}{k+1})}{2} + \frac{\textcolor{green}{2}(\textcolor{blue}{k+1})}{2} = \frac{(\textcolor{violet}{k} + \textcolor{green}{2})(\textcolor{blue}{k+1})}{\textcolor{green}{2}} = RHS$$

- So, when  $P(k)$  is true,  $P(k+1)$  was also proven true.
- We conclude that  $P(n)$  is true  $\forall n \geq 0$ .  $\square$

And one for you!

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$



# Inductive Base

- For  $n = 0$ ,  $\text{LHS} = \sum_{i=1}^0 i^2 = 0$
- $\text{RHS} = \frac{0(0+1)(2*0+1)}{2} = 0$
- Since  $\text{LHS} = \text{RHS}$ ,  $P(0)$  holds and we are done.

# Inductive Base

- For  $n = 0$ ,  $\text{LHS} = \sum_{i=1}^0 i^2 = 0$
- $\text{RHS} = \frac{0(0+1)(2*0+1)}{2} = 0$
- Since  $\text{LHS} = \text{RHS}$ ,  $P(0)$  holds and we are done.
- You could also start from  $n = 1$ !  $\text{LHS} = \text{RHS}$  in both cases
  - $n = 0$  sometimes makes the math easier (RHS in this case)



# Inductive Hypothesis

- Suppose that  $n = k \geq 0$ . *(Or 1 in the alternative scenario)*
- We will then assume  $P(k)$ , i.e:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6}$$

# Inductive Step

- We will now attempt to prove  $P(k + 1)$ , i.e

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6}$$

Careful with  
factoring please!!!



# Inductive Step

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- By leveraging associativity of sum, the LHS can be written as follows:

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

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- By leveraging associativity of sum, the LHS can be written as follows:

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

We can apply the I.H here!

# Inductive Step

- By I.H, we can now write:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} + (k+1)^2$$

- Remember: we **want** this to be equal to

$$\frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6}$$

- We will fearlessly manipulate the algebra until it does!

## Inductive Step - Algebra

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} + (k+1)^2 &= \frac{k(\textcolor{teal}{k} + \textcolor{teal}{1})(2k+1)}{6} + \frac{\textcolor{red}{6}(\textcolor{teal}{k} + \textcolor{teal}{1})^2}{6} = \\ &= \frac{(\textcolor{teal}{k} + \textcolor{teal}{1})[k(2k+1) + \textcolor{red}{6}(k+1)]}{6} = \frac{(\textcolor{teal}{k} + \textcolor{teal}{1})[\textcolor{violet}{2}k^2 + \textcolor{violet}{7}k + \textcolor{red}{6}]}{6} \end{aligned}$$

- If only we could prove that  $\textcolor{violet}{2}k^2 + \textcolor{violet}{7}k + \textcolor{red}{6} = (k+2)(2k+3)$ , we'd be done!
- But....  $(k+2)(2k+3) = 2k^2 + 3k + 4k + 6 = \textcolor{violet}{2}k^2 + \textcolor{violet}{7}k + \textcolor{red}{6}$ ! 😊
- So we're done.

# And one with more than 1 variable!

- Prove that the sum of the first  $n$  terms of a **geometric sequence** with  $m \in (\mathbb{R} - \{1\})$  and  $a_0 = 1$  is equal to  $\frac{m^n - 1}{m - 1}$ .
- Symbolically:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} m^i = \frac{m^n - 1}{m - 1}$$

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- Symbolically:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} m^i = \frac{m^n - 1}{m - 1}$$

- In this instance, we have two variables,  $m$  and  $n$ , and it's **spectacularly easy** to confuse ourselves about which variable we will be focusing on.
  - So, we will **explicitly** say, **at the beginning of our proof**, that we will be performing a proof by induction on  $n$ .



# Proof

- Proof : We attempt to prove  $P(n)$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We proceed via **induction on  $n$** .
- **Inductive base:** We attempt to prove  $P(0)$ .

$$P(0): \sum_{i=0}^{0-1} m^i = \frac{m^0 - 1}{m - 1} \Leftrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{-1} m^i = \frac{m^0 - 1}{m - 1} \Leftrightarrow 0 = 0$$


So  $P(0)$  is true.

- **Inductive hypothesis:** Suppose  $n = k \geq 0$ . We assume  $P(k)$ , i.e

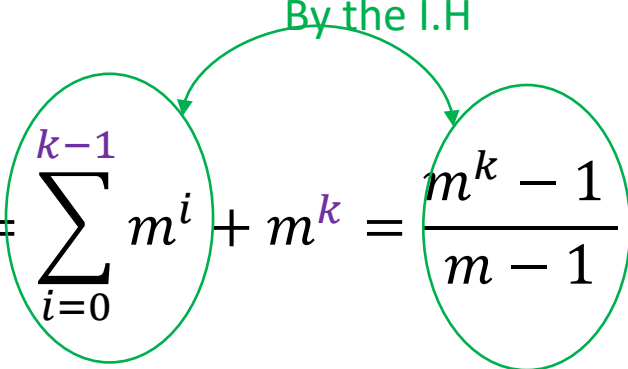
$$\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} m^i = \frac{m^k - 1}{m - 1}$$

# Proof (contd.)

- **Inductive step:** We will attempt to prove  $P(k + 1)$ , i.e


$$\sum_{i=0}^k m^i = \frac{m^{k+1} - 1}{m - 1}$$

From the LHS to the RHS:


$$\begin{aligned} LHS &= \sum_{i=0}^k m^i = \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} m^i + m^k = \frac{m^k - 1}{m - 1} + m^k = \frac{m - 1 + m^k(m - 1)}{m - 1} = \frac{m^{k+1} - 1}{m - 1} = RHS \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

# A coin problem

- We will prove that every dollar amount  $\geq 4$  cents can be exclusively paid for by 2 and/or 5 cent coins.



# Theorem expressed in quantifiers



- All quantifiers implicitly assumed over  $\mathbb{N}$ .

$$(\forall n \geq 4)(\exists n_1, n_2)[n = 2n_1 + 5n_2]$$

# Inductive base



- The least amount of money we are required to prove the statement for is 4¢, so we will attempt to **prove  $P(4)$** .
- For  $n = 4$ , we have 4¢. Since  $4¢ = 2 \times 2¢$ , we are done (we have shown that the amount of 4¢ can be **exclusively** paid for by using only 2 **and/or** 5 cent coins)

Inductive hypothesis



- Let  $n = k \geq 4$ .
- Assume  $P(k) \Leftrightarrow (\exists k_1, k_2)[k = 2k_1 + 5k_2]$

# Inductive step



- We will **prove** that  $P(k) \Rightarrow P(k + 1)$ , i.e that we can pay an amount of money equal to  $k + 1$  cents using **only 2¢ or 5¢ coins**.
- In terms of algebra, what we want to prove is:

$$(\exists k_3, k_4 \in \mathbb{N}) [k + 1 = 2k_3 + 5k_4]$$

# Inductive step



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Different variables from  
I.H!



## Inductive Step (contd.)



- From the **Inductive Hypothesis (I.H)**, we have that for some specific positive integers  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ :

$$k = 2k_1 + 5k_2$$

# Inductive Step (contd.)



- From the **Inductive Hypothesis (I.H)**, we have that for some specific positive integers  $k_1$  and  $k_2$ :

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## 1. Case #1: $k_1 \geq 2$

- I have at least 2 2¢ coins, so I can take away 2 2¢ coins and add one 5¢ coin

# Inductive Step (contd.)



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## 1. Case #1: $k_1 \geq 2$

- I have at least 2 2¢ coins, so I can take away two 2¢ coins and add one 5 ¢ coin
- By adding 1 on both sides of the I.H we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} k + 1 &= 2k_1 + 5k_2 + 1 = 2k_1 + 5k_2 + (5 - 2 * 2) = \\ &= (2k_1 - 4) + (5k_2 + 5) = 2 \underbrace{(k_1 - 2)}_{k_3} + 5 \underbrace{(k_2 + 1)}_{k_4} = 2k_3 + 5k_4 \end{aligned}$$

# Inductive Step (contd.)



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$k_1 - 2 \geq 0$  because  
 $k_1 \geq 2$

In  $\mathbb{N}$  by closure

# Inductive step



## 2. Case #2: $k_2 \geq 1$

- I have at least one 5¢ coin so I can take away one 5¢ coin and add three 2¢ coins
- By adding 1 on both sides of the I.H we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} k + 1 &= 2k_1 + 5k_2 + 1 = 2k_1 + 5k_2 + (3 * 2 - 5) = \\ &= 2 \underbrace{(k_1 + 3)}_{k_3} + 5 \underbrace{(k_2 - 1)}_{k_4} = 2k_3 + 5k_4 \end{aligned}$$

# Inductive step



## 2. Case #2: $k_2 \geq 1$

- I have at least one 5¢ coin so I can take away one 5¢ coin and add three 2¢ coins
- By adding 1 on both sides of the I.H we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned} k + 1 &= 2k_1 + 5k_2 + 1 = 2k_1 + 5k_2 + (3 * 2 - 5) = \\ &= 2(\underbrace{k_1 + 3}) + 5(\underbrace{k_2 - 1}) = 2k_3 + 5k_4 \end{aligned}$$

$(k_1 + 3) \in \mathbb{N}$   
by closure

$k_2 - 1 \geq 0$   
because  
 $k_2 \geq 1$

# Inductive step



## 3. Case #3: $(k_1 \leq 1) \wedge (k_2 = 0)$

- This case means that we have either 0 or 2¢ at our disposal.
- But this is not possible, since we want to prove the theorem only for values  $\geq 4$ ¢
- So we're done.  $\square$

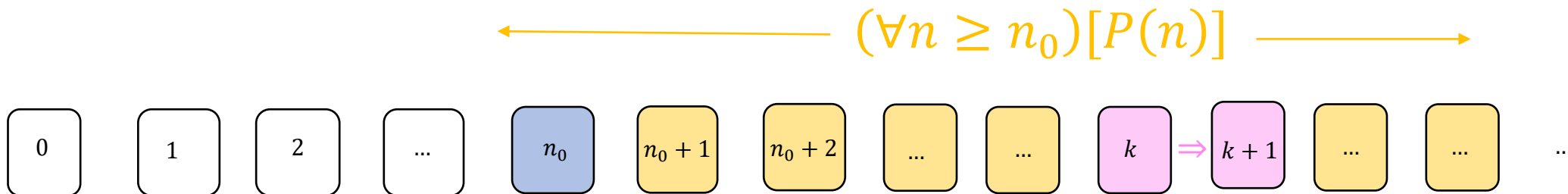
# A note about the penny problem

- Note that we proved the theorem for  $n \geq 4$
- Generally speaking, we can use induction to prove statements  $P(n) \forall n \geq n_0$ , where  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Most of the time  $n_0$  will be small (0, 1, 2, ...)



# A note about the penny problem

- Note that we proved the theorem for  $n \geq 4$
- Generally speaking, we can use induction to prove statements  $P(n) \forall n \geq n_0$ , where  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- Most of the time  $n_0$  will be small (0, 1, 2, ...)
- If  $P(n_0) \wedge (\forall k \geq n_0)[P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)]$  is true, then the inductive principle holds and we have the **desired statement**



# Another!

- Prove that every dollar amount equal to at least 112 cents can be paid for exclusively by 5 and 6 cent coins.

# Another!

- Prove that every dollar amount equal to at least 112 cents can be paid for exclusively by 5 and 6 cent coins.
- Let's do this one together.



A coin problem for you!



Prove to me that every dollar amount  $\geq 20$  cents can be exclusively paid for through combinations of 5-cent coins and 6-cent coins!

Here's one with an inequality!

- Prove that for all integers  $n$  at least 4,  $2^n < n!$
- 1. **I.B:** We will **prove**  $P(4) \Leftrightarrow 2^4 < 4!$  Done.
- 2. **I.H:** For  $n = k \geq 4$ , we **assume**  $P(k)$ , i.e  $2^k < k!$
- 3. **I.S:** We will **prove**  $P(k) \Rightarrow P(k + 1)$ , i.e

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

# Inductive Step...

- Prove that for all integers  $n$  at least 4,  $2^n < n!$ 
  1. **I.B:** We will **prove**  $P(4) \Leftrightarrow 2^4 < 4!$  Done.
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    - From algebra, we have that  $2^{k+1} = 2^k \cdot 2$  (1)

# Inductive Step...

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  - From algebra, we have that  $2^{k+1} = 2^k \cdot 2$  (1)
  - From the I.H, we have that  $2^k < k! \stackrel{2>0}{\Leftrightarrow} 2^k \cdot 2 < k! \cdot 2$  (2)



# Inductive Step...

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  - Since  $k \geq 4$ , we have that  $2 < k+1 \stackrel{k!>0}{\Leftrightarrow} k! \cdot 2 < k! (k+1)$  (3)

# Inductive Step...

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  - Since  $k \geq 4$ , we have that  $2 < k+1 \stackrel{k!>0}{\Leftrightarrow} k! \cdot 2 < k! (k+1)$  (3)
  - $(2) \stackrel{(3)}{\Rightarrow} 2^k \cdot 2 < (k+1)! \stackrel{(1)}{\Leftrightarrow} 2^{k+1} < (k+1)!$

# An inequality problem for you!

- Using mathematical induction, prove that, for all naturals  $n \geq 3$ ,

$$2n + 1 < 2^n$$