

Chapter 3

1 Sections 3.1: Introduction and 3.2: The Positive Integers are Well Ordered

Theorem 1.1. The positive integers $\mathbb{Z}^+ := \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ are *well-ordered*, meaning that any subset X of \mathbb{Z}^+ , even an infinite subset, will have a smallest integer.

Remark 1.2.

- As a brief example, consider the set of even integers $\{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$. This is a subset of \mathbb{Z}^+ , and it clearly has a smallest integer, 2.
- Note that the set of all integers, $\mathbb{Z} := \{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ is NOT well-ordered.
- The importance of the well-ordering principle will become apparent further on.

2 Section 3.3: The Meaning of Statements

In this chapter, we are going to be dealing with “sequences of concepts”. By a “sequence of concepts”, I mean a family of definitions, formulas, or true-false statements, each organized and corresponding to its own positive integer.

They could be formulas, e.g. factorials:

n	1	2	3	4	...
n th factorial	$1! = 1$	$2! = 2 \cdot 1$	$3! = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$	$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$...

They could be definitions, e.g. prime numbers:

n	1	2	3	4	5	...
n th prime number	2	3	5	7	11	...

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They could be counts of objects, e.g. the numbers of $(0, 1)$ -strings:

n	1	2	3	...
# of $(0, 1)$ -strings of length n	$3^1 = 3$	$3^2 = 9$	$3^3 = 27$...

They could be true-false statements, e.g. for any positive integer n ,

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

n	1	2	3	4	...
	$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}$	$1+2 = \frac{2(2+1)}{2}$	$1+2+3 = \frac{3(3+1)}{2}$	$1+2+3+4 = \frac{4(4+1)}{2}$...

Example 2.1. In this class, we have defined the n th factorial for $n \geq 1$ the following way:

$$n! := n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1.$$

However, we could alternatively give it a recursive definition:

Definition 2.2. For $n \geq 1$, the n th factorial is defined to be:

$$n! := \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n = 1, \\ n * (n-1)!, & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

Note the two important parts of the recursive definition, the **base case** and the “**step up**”.

n	1	2	3	4	5	...
n th factorial	$1!$	$2!$	$3!$	$4!$	$5!$...

3 Sections 3.4: Binomial Coefficients Revisited and 3.5: Solving Combinatorial Problems Recursively

It is also possible to use recursive steps in more complex ways than going from the $(k-1)$ th step to the k th step. Here are two such examples:

- Using not just the $(k-1)$ th case to define the k th case, but the $(k-2)$ th, $(k-3)$ th, or even smaller cases.
- Including more than one indeterminate; e.g. recursively defining something depending on both n and k

Exercise 3.1 (Example with Case(i)).

- How many different ternary strings of length n are there?
- How many different ternary strings of length n do not contain 20?
- How many different ternary strings of length n do not contain 102?

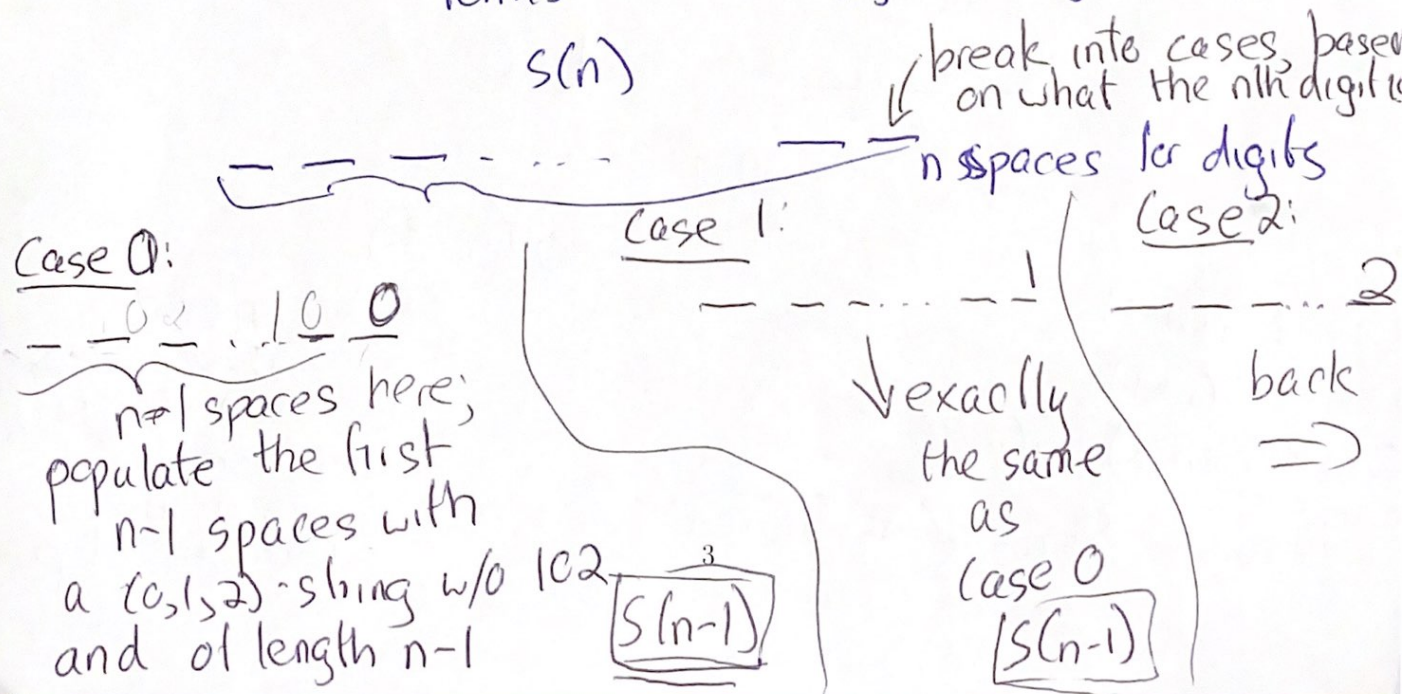
$S(n) :=$
of strings
with entries
0, 1, 2 that
have length n
and don't
contain 102

(a)

n	1	2	3	4	5	...
$S(n)$	$S(1)$	$S(2)$	$S(3)$	$S(4)$	$S(5)$	

Use a recursive definition

Recursive Step: look at $S(n)$; can we define it in terms of $S(n-1)$, $S(n-2)$, ...?



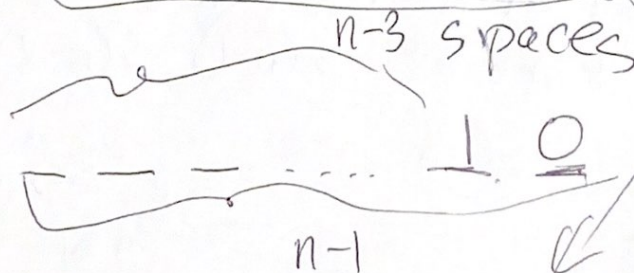
Case 2:

1 2 0 ... 1 0 2

what if we have a string of length $(n-1)$ with no 102, but the last two digits are 10?

the # of strings for case 2 is

$S(n-1) - \# \text{ of } (n-1) \text{ length strings that end in } 10$

$n-3$ spaces

 $n-1$

$= S(n-3)$

Case 1: $S(n-1)$

Case 2: $S(n-1)$

Case 3: $S(n-1) - S(n-3)$

Recursive Step $S(n) = 3S(n-1) - S(n-3)$

can't have 102 in string whose length < 3

$S(1) = 3$

$S(2) = 3^2 = 9$

$S(3) = 3 \cdot 3 \cdot 3 - 1 = 26$

answer

Now need base cases: get $S(1), S(2), S(3)$ because $S(n-3)$ is in the recursive step

Exercise 3.2 (Example with Case (ii)).

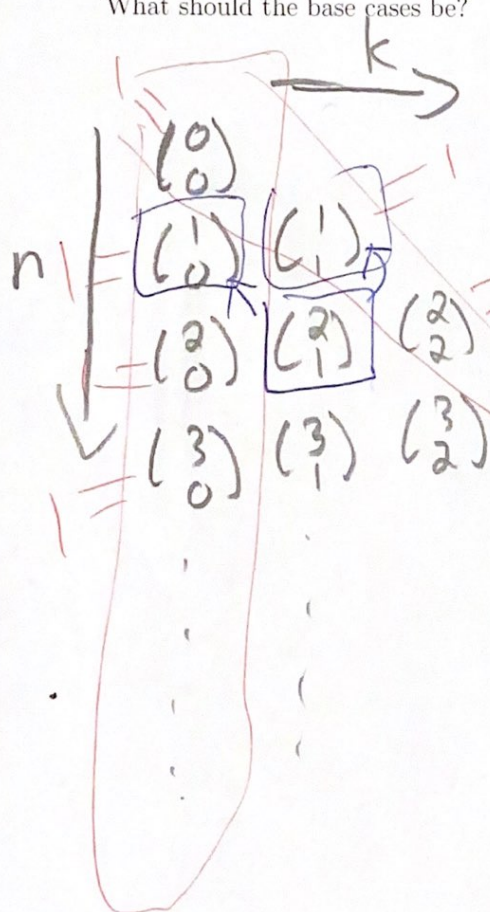
We know from Chapter 2 that the binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k}$, the number of ways to choose k objects from a set of n objects, is given by the formula:

$$\binom{n}{k} := \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!}.$$

However, we can also define this binomial coefficient recursively:

$$\binom{n}{k} := \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

What should the base cases be?



$$\binom{2}{1} = \binom{1}{1} + \binom{1}{0}$$

base cases

$$\begin{array}{cc} \binom{n-1}{k-1} & \binom{n-1}{k} \\ \uparrow & \uparrow \\ & \binom{n}{k} \end{array}$$

$\binom{n}{k}$ depends on the formula directly above it, $\binom{n-1}{k}$, and the formula above and to the left of it $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$.

4 Section 3.6: Mathematical Induction

We now come to true-false statements. We can try to prove these using **induction**. This method is similar to recursion, we start at a base, prove that's true, and then work our way up from there.

- We prove these statements (assuming they are true) in two steps:

- (i) The **Base Case**: We prove that the statement is true for the case when $n = 1$.
- (ii) The **Inductive Step**: We assume that the statement is true for a particular n . We call this the **inductive hypothesis**. We then prove that the statement is true for $n + 1$.

Essentially, proof by induction sets off a "chain reaction".

- The **Base Case** says the statement is true for $n = 1$.
- The **Inductive Step** says that if it's true for $n = 1$, then it must also be true for $n + 1 = 2$.
- The **Inductive Step** says that if it's true for $n = 2$, then it must also be true for $n + 1 = 3$.
- The **Inductive Step** says that if it's true for $n = 3$, then it must also be true for $n + 1 = 4$.
- and so on, continuing on to infinity through the **Inductive Step**.

Exercise 4.1 (Proposition 3.12 from textbook). Prove that for every $n > 0$, the following holds:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n * (n + 1)}{2}.$$

Base Case:

$$n=1$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1$$

✓

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

$$\frac{2}{2}$$

$$1$$

Inductive Step:

Assume $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ is true,

now look at for $(n+1)$:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} k = \left(\sum_{k=1}^n k \right) + (n+1)$$

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

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

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

use inductive hypothesis

Exercise 4.2. Use mathematical induction to prove that for all $n \geq 1$, we have that $n^3 + (n+1)^3 + (n+2)^3$ is divisible by 9.

n	1	2	3
$S(n)$	$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3$		

n	1	2	3
$S(n)$	$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3$ divisible by 9	$2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3$ divisible by 9	...

✗

Inductive Step:

Inductive Hypothesis

We assume true for n : 9 divides $n^3 + (n+1)^3 + (n+2)^3$
there exists an integer b such that
 $9b = n^3 + (n+1)^3 + (n+2)^3$

Look at $n+1$: $(n+1)^3 + ((n+1)+1)^3 + ((n+1)+2)^3$
 $= (n+1)^3 + (n+2)^3 + (n+3)^3$ ← multiply out

Base Case:

$n=1$:

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3$$

$$= 1 + 8 + 27$$

$$= 36 = 9 \cdot 4$$

✓

$$= (n+1)^3 + (n+2)^3 + n^3 + 3n^2 + 6n + 3$$

$$= n^3 + (n+1)^3 + (n+2)^3 + 9(n^2 + 3n + 3)$$

by Inductive Hypothesis

factored out 9

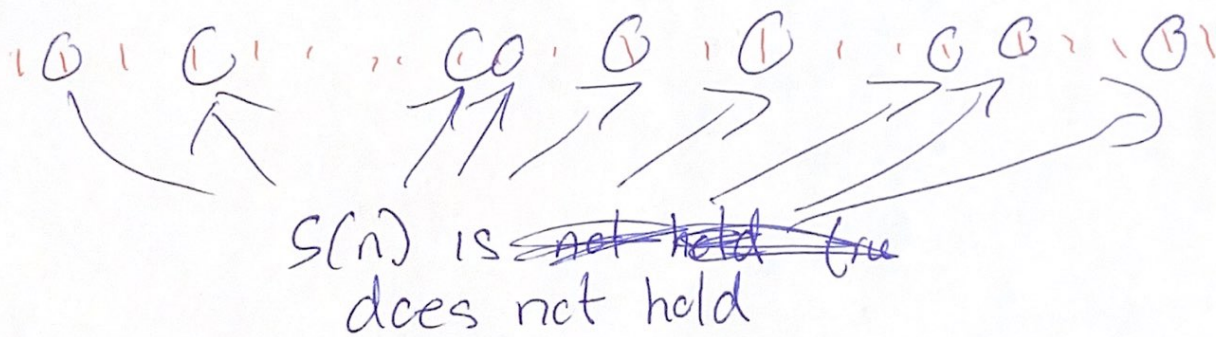
$$= 9 \cdot (b + n^2 + 3n + 3)$$

strong induction

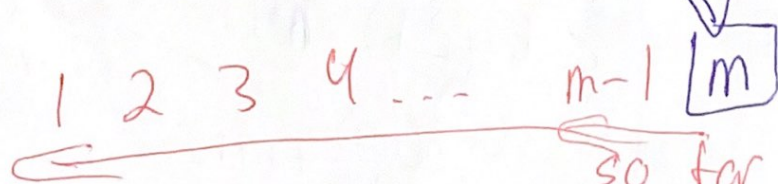
n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	...
$S(n)$	$S(1)$	$S(2)$	$S(3)$	$S(4)$	$S(5)$	$S(6)$	$S(7)$	$S(8)$...

Assume that $S(n)$ DOES NOT hold
for all n (we are looking for a
contradiction)

Look at the set of integers for which
 $S(n)$ is not true (DOES NOT hold)



so by the well-ordering principle, this
set of integers n for which $S(n)$ doesn't hold,
has a smallest member



so for every ~~thing~~ n less
than m , ~~$S(n)$~~ $S(n)$ must
hold

5 Section 3.9: Strong Induction

In Example 3.2, we saw that for recursion, sometimes to define the k th case you need not just the $(k-1)$ th case, but some (or maybe even all) of the $(k-2)$ th, $(k-3)$ th, ..., 2nd, and 1st cases.

Similarly, sometimes the inductive step requires more than just assuming the $(k-1)$ th case is true. We need to assume that the 1st through $(k-1)$ th cases are all true. This is **strong induction**.

Exercise 5.1 (Exercise 3.17 from the textbook). Consider the recursive function given by

$$f(n) := \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 4, & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2f(n-1) - f(n-2) + 6, & \text{if } n \geq 2. \end{cases}$$

Prove that $f(n) = 3n^2 - n + 2$ for all $n \geq 0$.

Assume that $f(n) \neq 3n^2 - n + 2$ for all n ,
so there is some smallest number in this set,
call it m .

So for all $n < m$, it must be that $f(n) = 3n^2 - n + 2$

start at $f(m) = 2f(m-1) - f(m-2) + 6$

try to show that in fact $f(m) = 3m^2 - m + 2$

for $n < m$

$$f(n) = 3n^2 - n + 2$$

$$\text{so } f(m-1) = 3(m-1)^2 - (m-1) + 2$$

$$f(m-2) = 3(m-2)^2 - (m-2) + 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(m) &= 2(3(m-1)^2 - (m-1) + 2) - (3(m-2)^2 - (m-2) + 2) + 6 \\ &= 2(3m^2 - 6m + 3 - m + 1 + 2) - (3m^2 - 12m + 12 - m + 2 + 2) + 6 \\ &= 6m^2 - 12m + 6 - 2m + 6 - 3m^2 + 12m - 12 + m + 6 \\ &= 3m^2 - m + 6 \\ &= 3m^2 - 12m + 6 - m + 3 - 3m^2 + 12m - 12 + m - 4 + 6 \\ &= 3m^2 \end{aligned}$$

next
page

$$f(m) = 2f(m-1) - f(m-2) + 6$$

$$f(m-1) = 3(m-1)^2 - (m-1) + 2$$

$$f(m-2) = 3(m-2)^2 - (m-2) + 2$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(m) &= 2[3(m-1)^2 - (m-1) + 2] - [3(m-2)^2 - (m-2) + 2] + 6 \\ &= 2[3(m^2 - 2m + 1) - (m-1) + 2] - [3(m^2 - 4m + 4) - (m-2) + 2] + 6 \\ &= 2[3m^2 - 6m + 3 - m + 1 + 2] - [3m^2 - 12m + 12 - m + 2 + 2] + 6 \\ &= 2[3m^2 - 7m + 6] - [3m^2 - 13m + 16] + 6 \\ &= 6m^2 - 14m + 12 - 3m^2 + 13m - 16 + 6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{3m^2 - m + 2}$$

Verify Base Cases:

$$f(0) = 3 \cdot 0^2 - 0 + 2 = 2 \checkmark$$

$$f(1) = 3 \cdot 1^2 - 1 + 2 = 4 \checkmark$$