



0,



0, 1,

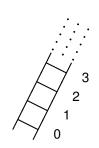


0, 1, 2,

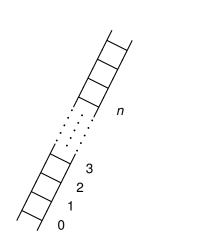


0, 1, 2, 3,

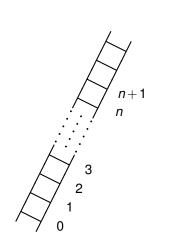




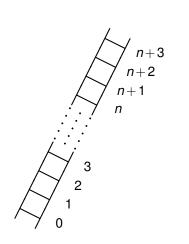
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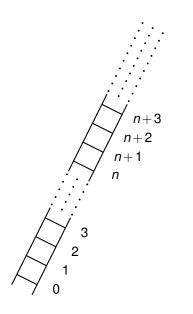
0, 1, 2, 3, ..., *n*,



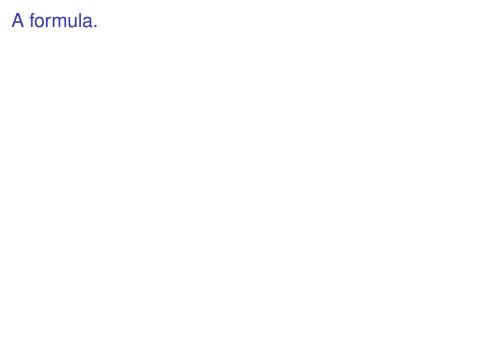
 $0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n+1,$



0, 1, 2, 3, ..., n, n+1, n+2, n+3,



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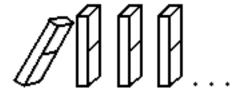
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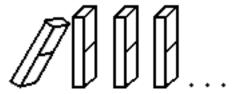
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Note's visualization: an infinite sequence of dominos.



Prove they all fall down;

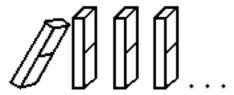
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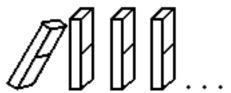
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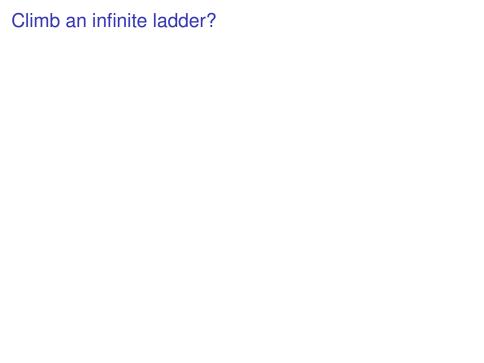
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 "kth domino falls implies that k+1st domino falls"





P(0)

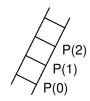


$$\forall k, P(k) \Longrightarrow P(k+1)$$



$$P(0) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$$

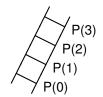
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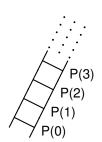


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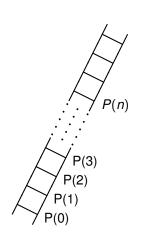




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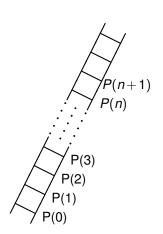
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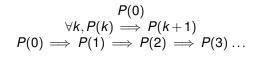
$$P(0) \Longrightarrow P(1) \Longrightarrow P(2) \Longrightarrow P(3) \dots$$

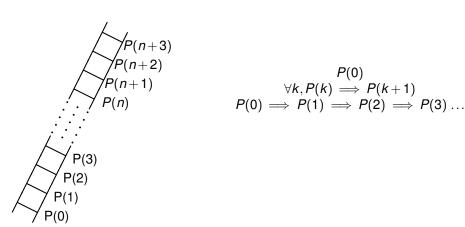


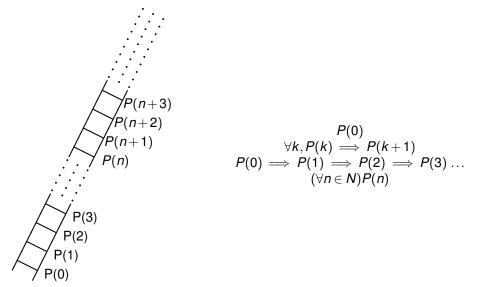
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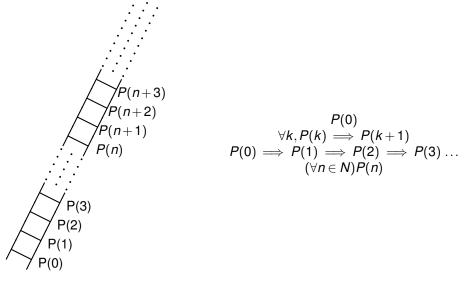
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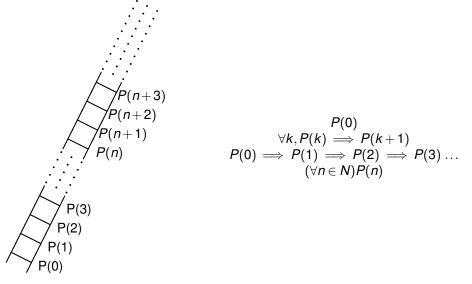








Your favorite example of forever...



Your favorite example of forever..or the natural numbers...

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$$(\forall k \in N)(P(k))$$

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Statement is true for n = 0 P(0) is true

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Statement is true for n = 0 P(0) is true plus inductive step

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Predicate, P(n), True for all natural numbers!

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Predicate, P(n), True for all natural numbers! Proof by Induction.

Poll: What did Gauss use in the proof?

- (A) Every natural number has a next number.
- (B) The recursive leap of faith.
- (C) $2^k > k$.
- (D) $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + k + 1 = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}.$

Another Induction Proof.

Theorem: For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3. $(3|(n^3 - n))$.

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Induction Step: $(\forall k \in N), P(k) \Longrightarrow P(k+1)$

Theorem: For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3. $(3 | (n^3 - n))$.

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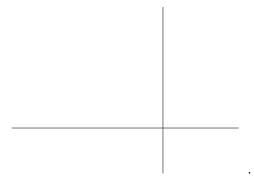
Thus, theorem holds by induction.

Any map formed by dividing the plane into regions by drawing straight lines can be properly colored with two colors.

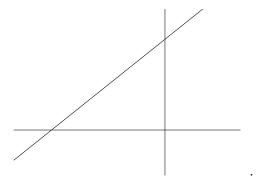
Proper coloring: for each line segment the regions on the two sides have different colors.1

Fact: Swapping red and blue gives another valid colors.

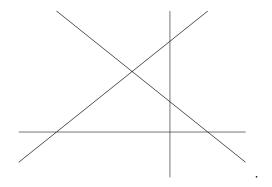
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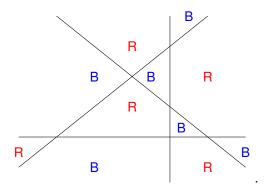
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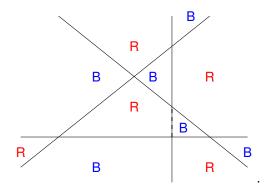
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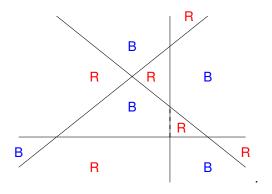
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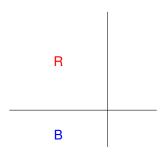
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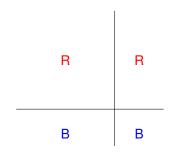
Base Case.

R	
 В	

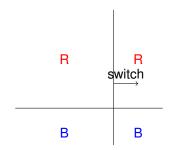
Base Case.



1. Add line.

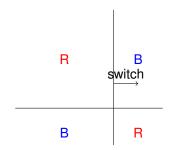


- 1. Add line.
- 2. Get inherited color for split regions



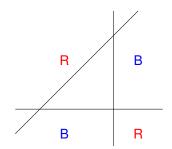
- 1. Add line.
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- 3. Switch on one side of new line.

(Fixes conflicts along new line, and makes no new ones along previous line.)

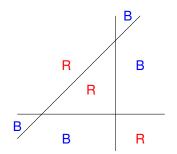


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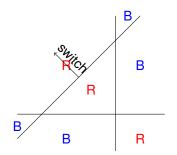
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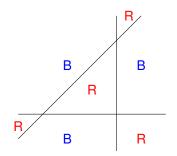
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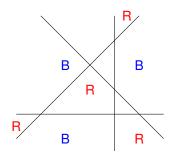
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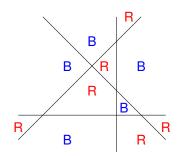
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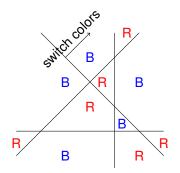
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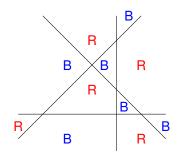
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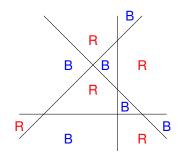
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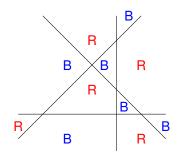


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Algorithm gives $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$.



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Poll: what did we use in the proof.

- (A) Switching a 2-coloring is a valid coloring.
- (B) Definition of 2-coloring.
- (C) Definition of adjacent.
- (D) Definition of region.
- (E) The four color theorem.

Theorem: The sum of the first n odd numbers is a perfect square.

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kth odd number is 2(k-1)+1.

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Induction Hypothesis Sum of first k odds is perfect square $a^2 = k^2$.

Induction Step 1. The (k+1)st odd number is 2k+1.

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... $P(k+1)!$

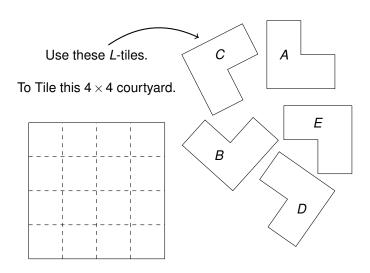
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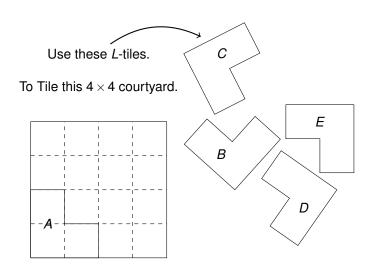
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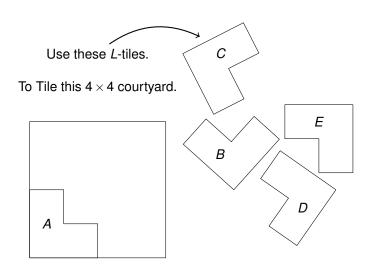
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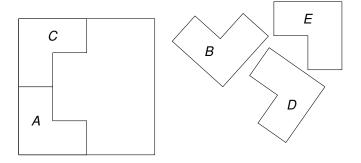
- Induction Step 1. The (k+1)st odd number is 2k+1.
 - 2. Sum of the first k+1 odds is $a^2 + 2k + 1 = k^2 + 2k + 1$
 - 3. $k^2 + 2k + 1 = (k+1)^2$... P(k+1)!



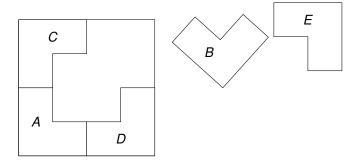




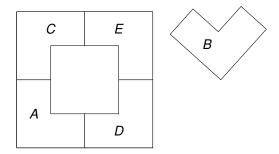


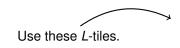


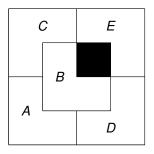


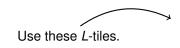




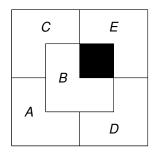




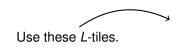




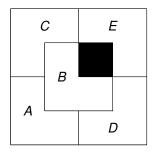
To Tile this 4×4 courtyard.



Alright!



To Tile this 4×4 courtyard.

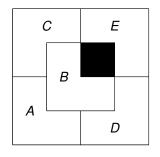


Alright!

Tiled 4×4 square with 2×2 *L*-tiles.

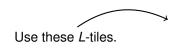


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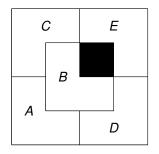


Alright!

Tiled 4×4 square with 2×2 *L*-tiles. with a center hole.



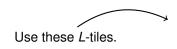
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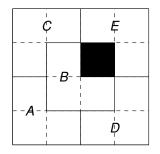
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Tiled 4×4 square with 2×2 *L*-tiles. with a center hole.

Can we tile any $2^n \times 2^n$ with *L*-tiles (with a hole)



To Tile this 4×4 courtyard.



Alright!

Tiled 4×4 square with 2×2 *L*-tiles. with a center hole.

Can we tile any $2^n \times 2^n$ with *L*-tiles (with a hole) for every n!

Hole have to be there? Maybe just one?

Theorem: Any tiling of $2^n \times 2^n$ square has to have one hole.

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Proof: The remainder of 2^{2n} divided by 3 is 1.

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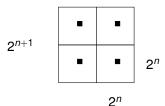
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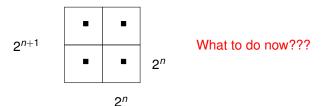
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Induction Hypothesis:

"Any $2^n \times 2^n$ square can be tiled with a hole **anywhere**."

Consider $2^{n+1} \times 2^{n+1}$ square.

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Use L-tile and ... we are done.

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Strong induction hypothesis: "a and b are products of primes"

 \implies " $n+1 = a \cdot b =$ (factorization of a)(factorization of b)" n+1 can be written as the product of the prime factors!

If $(\forall n)P(n)$ is not true, then $(\exists n)\neg P(n)$.

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The **Well ordering principle** states that for any subset of the natural numbers there is a smallest element.

Examples: even numbers, odd numbers, primes, non-primes, etc..

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$$(\neg \forall n)P(n) \Longrightarrow ((\exists n)\neg (P(n-1) \Longrightarrow P(n)).$$

(Contrapositive of Induction principle (assuming P(0))

It assumes that there is a smallest m where P(m) does not hold.

The **Well ordering principle** states that for any subset of the natural numbers there is a smallest element.

Examples: even numbers, odd numbers, primes, non-primes, etc..

True for rational numbers?

If $(\forall n)P(n)$ is not true, then $(\exists n)\neg P(n)$.

Consider smallest m, with $\neg P(m)$, $m \ge 0$

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For example. Use reduced form: a/b and order by a+b.

Thm: All natural numbers are interesting.

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0 is interesting...

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Let n be the first uninteresting number.

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But this is interesting.

Thus, there is no smallest uninteresting natural number.

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Let *n* be the first uninteresting number.

But n-1 is interesting and n is uninteresting,

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But this is interesting.

Thus, there is no smallest uninteresting natural number.

Thus: All natural numbers are interesting.

Tournaments have short cycles

Def: A **round robin tournament on** *n* **players**: every player *p* plays every other player *q*, and either $p \rightarrow q$ (*p* beats *q*) or $q \rightarrow p$ (*q* beats *p*.)

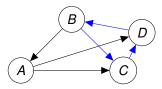
Tournaments have short cycles

Def: A **round robin tournament on** p **players**: every player p plays every other player q, and either $p \rightarrow q$ (p beats q) or $q \rightarrow p$ (q beats p.)

Def: A cycle: a sequence of $p_1, \dots, p_k, p_i \rightarrow p_{i+1}$ and $p_k \rightarrow p_1$.

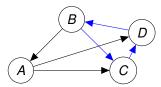
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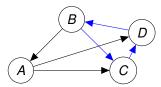
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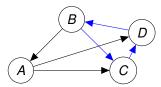
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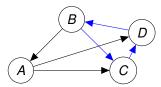
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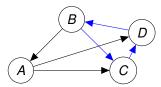
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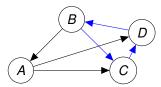
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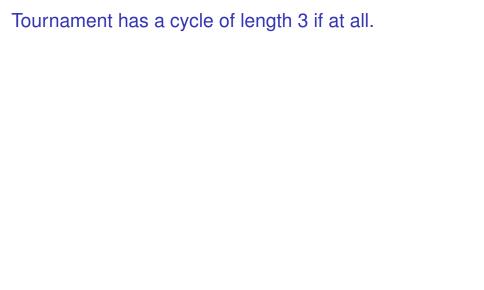
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Case 1: Of length 3.

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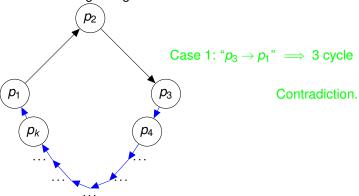
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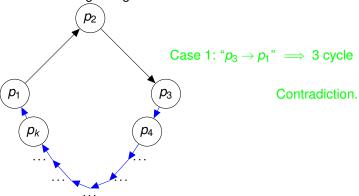
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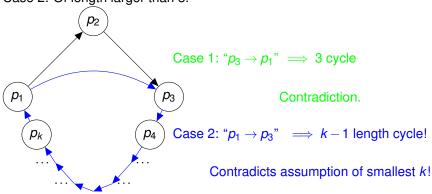
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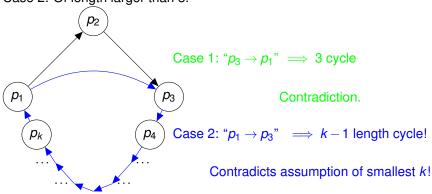
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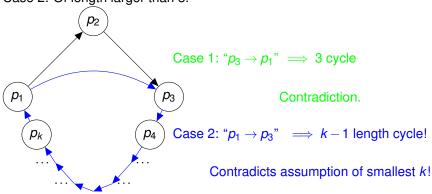
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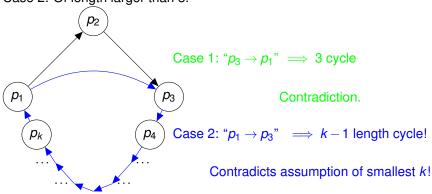
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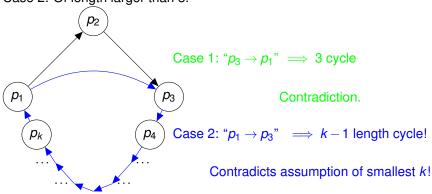
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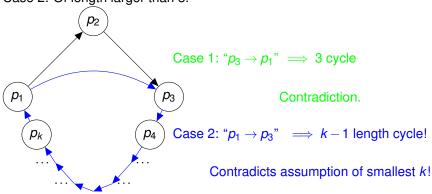
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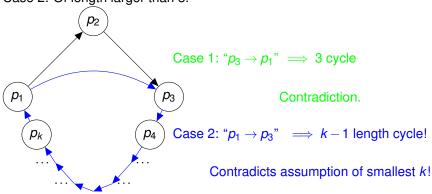
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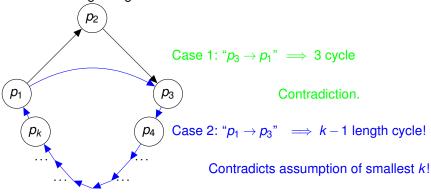
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Assume the the **smallest cycle** is of length *k*.

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Def: A round robin tournament on n players: all pairs p and q play, and either $p \rightarrow q$ (p beats q) or $q \rightarrow p$ (q beats q.)

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Def: A **Hamiltonian path**: a sequence

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Def: A Hamiltonian path: a sequence $p_1, ..., p_n$, $(\forall i, 0 \le i < n)$ $p_i \rightarrow p_{i+1}$.

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Base: True for two vertices.

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Tournament on n+1 people,

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Tournament on n+1 people, Remove arbitrary person

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Def: A **Hamiltonian path**: a sequence

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$$2 \longrightarrow 1 \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow 7$$

Base: True for two vertices.

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Tournament on n+1 people,

Remove arbitrary person \rightarrow yield tournament on n-1 people.

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By induction hypothesis: There is a sequence $p_1, ..., p_n$ contains all the people

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$$a \rightarrow b \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow m \rightarrow c$$

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Theorem: All horses have the same color.

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A horse in the middle in common! 1, 2, 3, ..., k, k + 1

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Induction Hypothesis: P(k) - Any k horses have the same color.

Induction step P(k+1)?
First k have same color by P(k). 1,2
Second k have same color by P(k). 1,2
A horse in the middle in common!

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No horse in common!

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A horse in the middle in common! 1,2

No horse in common!

Theorem: All horses have the same color.

Base Case: P(1) - trivially true.

New Base Case: P(2): there are two horses with same color.

Induction Hypothesis: P(k) - Any k horses have the same color.

Induction step P(k+1)?

First k have same color by P(k).

Second k have same color by P(k).

A horse in the middle in common!

Fix base case.

Theorem: All horses have the same color.

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A horse in the middle in common!

Fix base case.

There are two horses of the same color.

Theorem: All horses have the same color.

Base Case: P(1) - trivially true.

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There are two horses of the same color. ...Still doesn't work!!

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Of course it doesn't work.

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Fix base case.

There are two horses of the same color. ...Still doesn't work!! (There are two horses is $\not\equiv$ For all two horses!!!)

Of course it doesn't work.

As we will see, it is more subtle to catch errors in proofs of correct theorems!!

Island with 100 possibly blue-eyed and green-eyed inhabitants.

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Any islander who knows they have green eyes must commit ritual suicide that day.

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First rule of island:

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Visitor: "I see someone has green eyes."

Result: Poll.

Sad Islanders...

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Result: Poll. On day 100, they all do the ritual.

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Visitor: "I see someone has green eyes."

Result: Poll. On day 100, they all do the ritual.

Why?

Thm: If there are n villagers with green eyes they do ritual on day n.

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Proof:

Base: n = 1. Person with green eyes does ritual on day 1.

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Induction hypothesis:

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Proof:

Base: n = 1. Person with green eyes does ritual on day 1.

Induction hypothesis:

If n people with green eyes, they would do ritual on day n.

Thm: If there are n villagers with green eyes they do ritual on day n.

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If n people with green eyes, they would do ritual on day n.

Induction step:

On day n+1, a green eyed person sees n people with green eyes.

Thm: If there are n villagers with green eyes they do ritual on day n.

Proof:

Base: n = 1. Person with green eyes does ritual on day 1.

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If n people with green eyes, they would do ritual on day n.

Induction step:

On day n+1, a green eyed person sees n people with green eyes.

But they didn't do the ritual.

Thm: If there are n villagers with green eyes they do ritual on day n.

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So there must be n+1 people with green eyes.

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One of them, is me.

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So there must be n+1 people with green eyes.

One of them, is me.

Sad.

Wait! Visitor added no information.

Using knowledge about what other people's knowledge (your eye color) is.

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On day 99, everyone knows no one sees 98

Using knowledge about what other people's knowledge (your eye color) is.

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On day 99, everyone knows no one sees 98 since everyone knows everyone else does not see 97...

Using knowledge about what other people's knowledge (your eye color) is.

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On day 100,

Using knowledge about what other people's knowledge (your eye color) is.

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On day 99, everyone knows no one sees 98 since everyone knows everyone else does not see 97...

On day 100, ...uh oh!

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On day 100, ...uh oh!

Another example:

Using knowledge about what other people's knowledge (your eye color) is.

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Another example:

Emperor's new clothes!

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Another example:

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No one knows other people see that he has no clothes.

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On day 99, everyone knows no one sees 98 since everyone knows everyone else does not see 97...

On day 100, ...uh oh!

Another example:

Emperor's new clothes!

No one knows other people see that he has no clothes.

Until kid points it out.

Today: More induction.

Today: More induction. (P(0))

Today: More induction.

$$(P(0) \land ((\forall k \in N)(P(k) \implies P(k+1))))$$

Today: More induction.

$$(P(0) \land ((\forall k \in N)(P(k) \implies P(k+1)))) \implies (\forall n \in N)(P(n))$$

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$$(P(0) \land ((\forall k \in N)(P(k) \Longrightarrow P(k+1)))) \Longrightarrow (\forall n \in N)(P(n))$$

Statement to prove: P(n) for n starting from n_0

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Base Case: Prove $P(n_0)$.

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Statement is proven!

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Also Today: strengthened induction hypothesis.

Today: More induction.

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Statement to prove: P(n) for n starting from n_0

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Strengthen theorem statement.

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Strengthen theorem statement.

Sum of first n odds is n^2 .

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Hole anywhere.

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Hole anywhere.

Not same as strong induction.

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Hole anywhere.

Not same as strong induction. E.g., used in product of primes proof.

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Induction \equiv Recursion.

