CHAPTER 4 INDUCTION

SECTION 4.1 MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION

Mathematical induction is used to prove statements that asserts that P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ where P(n) is a propositional function. It is an extremely important proof technique.

PRINCIPLE OF MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION

To prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+(P(n))$ where P(n) is a propositional function, we complete two steps:

BASIS STEP: Verify that P(1) is true.

INDUCTIVE STEP: Show that $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}^+(P(1) \land P(2) \land \cdots \land P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$ is true.

To complete the inductive step, we assume that $P(1), \ldots, P(k)$ are true, (this assumption is known as the **INDUCTION HYPOTHESIS**), and prove that P(k+1) is true. (It may seem circular and thus requires some clarification. We are not asserting that P(k) is true for all k here. What we are saying is that under the hypothesis that $P(1), \ldots, P(k)$ are true, we can prove that P(k+1) is true.)

What we do here is the following.

$$P(1) \quad \text{(basis step)}$$

$$P(1) \Rightarrow P(2)$$

$$P(1) \land P(2) \Rightarrow P(3)$$

$$P(1) \land P(2) \land P(3) \Rightarrow P(4)$$

. .

Eventually, we get $P(5), P(6), \ldots$

EXAMPLE

• Prove that $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}.$

PROOF: Let P(n) be the proposition that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

Basis step: P(1) is true since $\sum_{i=1}^{1} i = 1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}$.

Inductive step: Assume that $P(1), \ldots, P(k)$ are true, where $k \geq 1$, i.e.,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{j} i = \frac{j(j+1)}{2} \quad \text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, k \quad .$$

Then P(k+1) is true since

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} i\right) + (k+1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \quad \text{(we use } P(k) \text{ here)}$$
$$= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2}.$$

Thus P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ by mathematical induction.

• Prove that $n < 2^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

PROOF: Let P(n) be the proposition that $n < 2^n$.

Basis step: P(1) is true since $1 < 2^1$.

Inductive step: Assume $P(1), \ldots, P(k)$ are true. From P(k), we have $k < 2^k$. Add 1 to both sides, we have

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

and hence P(k+1) is true.

Therefore by mathematical induction $n < 2^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.

• The **HARMONIC NUMBERS** H_j , $j \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, are defined by

$$H_j = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{i}.$$

Prove that $H_{2^n} \geq 1 + \frac{n}{2}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{Z}^*$.

PROOF: Let P(n) be the proposition that $H_{2^n} \geq 1 + \frac{n}{2}$.

Basis step: P(0) is true since $H_{2^0} = \frac{1}{1} \ge 1 + \frac{0}{2}$.

Inductive step: Assume that $P(0), \ldots, P(k)$ are true. Then

$$\begin{split} H_{2^{k+1}} &= \left(\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \frac{1}{2^k + 2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}\right) \\ &= H_{2^k} + \left(\frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \frac{1}{2^k + 2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}\right) \\ &\geq \left(1 + \frac{k}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \frac{1}{2^k + 2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}\right) \quad \text{(Use } P(k) \text{ here)} \\ &\geq \left(1 + \frac{k}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{2^{k+1}} + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}\right) \\ &= \left(1 + \frac{k}{2}\right) + 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} = 1 + \frac{k+1}{2} \end{split}$$

Thus P(k+1) is true and the result follows by mathematical induction.

THEOREM: NUMBER OF SUBSETS OF A FINITE SET

A set with n elements has 2^n subsets.

PROOF: Let Q(n) be the above proposition.

Basis step: When n = 0, the set concerned is \emptyset which has only one subset. Thus Q(0) is true.

Inductive step: Assume that $Q(0), \ldots, Q(k)$ are true.

Let X be any set with k+1 elements. Take a particular element $a \in X$. Then $Y = X - \{a\}$ is a set with k elements. By the induction hypothesis,

$$|P(Y)| = 2^k.$$

Subsets of X can be divided into two types:

- (i) Those that do not contain a. These are precisely the subsets of Y and there are 2^k subsets of this type.
- (ii) Those that contain a. If the element a is deleted, they become subsets of Y. Thus each corresponds to a subset of Y. Therefore there are also 2^k subsets of this type.

Thus

$$|P(X)| = 2^k + 2^k = 2^{k+1}.$$

Hence Q(k+1) is true.

The result then follows by the principle of mathematical induction.

SUM OF GP

For all integers $n \in \mathbb{Z}^*$, and all real numbers $r \neq 1$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} r^{i} = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}.$$

PROOF: When n = 0, l.h.s = 1 and r.h.s = $\frac{r-1}{r-1} = 1$. Thus the formula is true when n = 0.

Assume that the formula is true for $n=0,1,\ldots,k$. Thus $\sum_{i=0}^k r^i = \frac{r^{k+1}-1}{r-1}$. Then

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^i = \sum_{i=0}^{k} r^i + r^{k+1} = \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} + r^{k+1} = \frac{r^{k+2} - 1}{r - 1}.$$

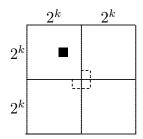
Thus the formula is also true at k + 1.

By the principle of mathematical, the formula is true.

• Prove that for any integer $n \ge 1$, if one square is removed from a $2^n \times 2^n$ checkerboard, the remaining squares can be covered by an L-tromino. (An L-tromino is an L-shape formed by 3 squares of the checkerboard.)

SOLN: Let P(n) be the given statement.

Basis step. P(1) is true since the board is itself an L-tromino.



Assume that $P(1), \ldots, P(k)$ are true. Consider a $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ checkerboard with one square removed. Divide the checkerboard in 4 equal quadrants so that each quadrant is a $2^k \times 2^k$ board. Without loss of generality, assume that the removed square is from the first quadrant. Now remove a tromino from the centre of the board. (This tromino has one square in each of the last three quadrants.) Now we are left with four $2^k \times 2^k$ checkerboards, each with a square removed. Thus by the induction hypothesis, each can be covered by trominoes. Hence the $2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$ checkerboard with one square removed can be so covered as well. The proof is now complete by mathematical induction.

• FIBONACCI NUMBERS F_0, F_1, \ldots are defined by

$$F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$$

 $F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}$ for $n \ge 1$

$$F_0 = 0$$
, $F_1 = 1$, $F_2 = 1$, $F_3 = 2$, $F_4 = 3$, $F_5 = 5$,...

• Prove that for $n \geq 3$, $F_n > \alpha^{n-2}$, where $\alpha = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$.

SOLN: Let P(n) be $F_n > \alpha^{n-2}$, $n \ge 3$.

Basis step: Since $F_3 = 2 > \alpha$, and $F_4 = 3 \ge \alpha^2$, P(3) and P(4) are true.

We need both as P(3) on its own will not yield P(4).

Inductive step:

Suppose P(n) is true, i.e., $F_n > \alpha^{n-2}$ for n = 3, ..., k. First note that

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{(1+\sqrt{5})^2}{4} = \frac{3+\sqrt{5}}{2} = 1+\alpha.$$

Now P(k+1) is true since

$$F_{k+1} = F_k + F_{k-1} > \alpha^{k-2} + \alpha^{k-3} = \alpha^{k-3}(\alpha + 1) = \alpha^{k-1}$$

LAME'S THEOREM

Let a and b be positive integers with $a \ge b$. Then the number of divisions used by the Euclidean algorithm to find gcd(a, b) is at most $5 \times$ the number of decimal digits in b.

(For example, to find gcd(1034578929341, 2018), the number of divisions is $\leq 5 \cdot 4 = 20$.)

PROOF: Let m be the number of digits of b. The algorithm runs as follows: Let $r_1 = a$, $r_2 = b$. Then

$$r_1 \ \mathbf{Mod} \ r_2 = r_3$$
 $r_2 \ \mathbf{Mod} \ r_3 = r_4$ \cdots $r_{n-1} \ \mathbf{Mod} \ r_n = r_{n+1}$ $r_n \ \mathbf{Mod} \ r_{n+1} = 0$

It stops after n steps with $gcd(a,b) = r_{n+1}$. We need to prove that $n \leq 5m$. We shall prove that $r_i \geq F_{n+3-i}$ for all i = 2, ..., n+1.

We have

$$r_{n+1} \ge 1 = F_2$$
 (: $\gcd = r_{n+1}$)
 $r_n \ge 2 = F_3$ (: $r_n \ne \gcd$)
 $r_{n-1} \ge r_n + r_{n+1}$ (: $r_{n-1} = r_n q + r_{n+1} \& q \ge 1$)
 $\ge F_3 + F_2 = F_4$
...
 $r_3 \ge r_4 + r_5$
 $\ge F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} = F_n$
 $b = r_2 \ge r_3 + r_4$
 $\ge F_n + F_{n-1}$
 $= F_{n+1} > \alpha^{n-1}$

Note that $\log_{10} \alpha > 1/5$ (use your calculator to check). Thus

$$m \ge \log_{10}(b+1) \ge (n-1)\log_{10}\alpha > (n-1)/5.$$

Therefore n-1 < 5m. Since n is an integer, $n \le 5m$.