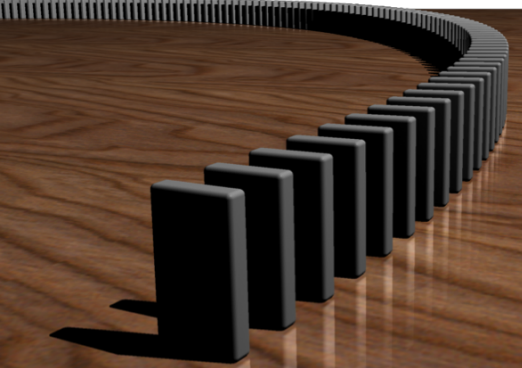

CS 220: Discrete Structures and their Applications

Mathematical Induction
6.4 - 6.6 in zybooks



Why induction?

Prove algorithm correctness (CS320 is full of it)

The inductive proof will sometimes point out an algorithmic solution to a problem

Strongly connected to recursion

Motivation

Show that any postage of $\geq 8\text{¢}$ can be obtained using 3¢ and 5¢ stamps.

First check for a few values:

$$8\text{¢} = 3\text{¢} + 5\text{¢}$$

$$9\text{¢} = 3\text{¢} + 3\text{¢} + 3\text{¢}$$

$$10\text{¢} = 5\text{¢} + 5\text{¢}$$

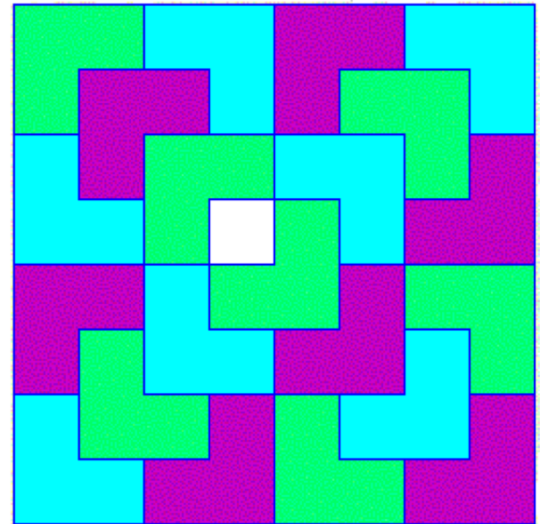
$$11\text{¢} = 5\text{¢} + 3\text{¢} + 3\text{¢}$$

$$12\text{¢} = 3\text{¢} + 3\text{¢} + 3\text{¢} + 3\text{¢}$$

How to generalize this?

Motivation

Let n be a positive integer. Show that every $2^n \times 2^n$ chessboard with one square removed can be tiled using triominoes, each covering three squares at a time.



Motivation

Prove that for every positive value of n ,

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n + 1)/2.$$

Motivation

Many mathematical statements have the form:

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$ $P(n)$: Logical predicate

Example: For every positive value of n ,

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n + 1)/2.$$

Predicate - propositional function that depends on a variable, and has a truth value once the variable is assigned a value.

Mathematical induction is a proof technique for proving such statements

Proving $P(3)$

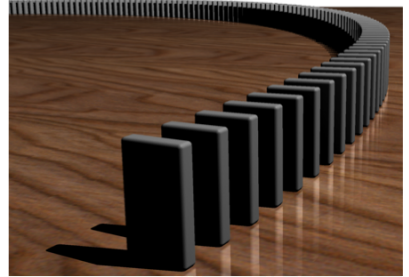
Suppose we know:

1. $P(1)$ and
2. $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1) \forall n \geq 1$.

Prove: $P(3)$

Proof:

1. $P(1)$. [premise]
2. $P(1) \rightarrow P(2)$. [specialization of premise]
3. $P(2)$. [step 1, 2, & modus ponens]
4. $P(2) \rightarrow P(3)$. [specialization of premise]
5. $P(3)$. [step 3, 4, & modus ponens]



We can construct a proof for every finite value of n

Modus ponens: if p and $p \rightarrow q$ then q

Example

Theorem: For every positive integer n ,

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

Proof.

By induction on n .

Base case: $n = 1$.

When $n = 1$, the left side of the equation is $\sum_{j=1}^1 j = 1$.

When $n = 1$, the right side of the equation is $1(1+1)/2 = 1$.

Therefore, $\sum_{j=1}^1 j = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}$.

Inductive step: Suppose that for positive integer k , $\sum_{j=1}^k j = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$, then we will show that

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

Starting with the left side of the equation to be proven:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k+1} j = \sum_{j=1}^k j + (k+1) \quad \text{by separating out the last term}$$

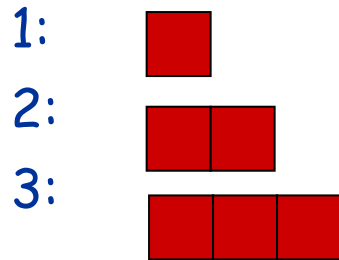
$$= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \quad \text{by the inductive hypothesis}$$

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

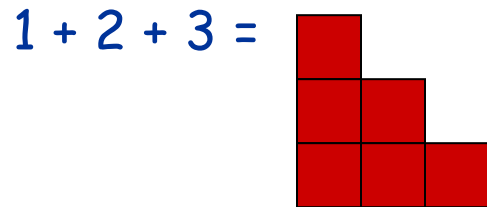
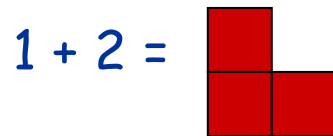
$$= \frac{(k+2)(k+1)}{2} \quad \text{by algebra}$$

Therefore, $\sum_{j=1}^{k+1} j = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$. ■

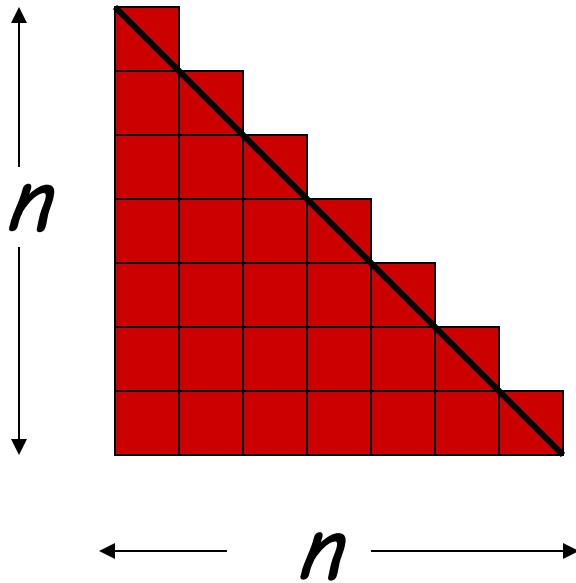
A Geometrical interpretation



Put these blocks, which represent numbers, together to form sums:



A Geometrical interpretation



Area is $n^2/2 + n/2 = n(n + 1)/2$

The principle of mathematical induction

Let $P(n)$ be a statement that, for each natural number n , is either true or false.

To prove that $\forall n \in \mathbf{N}, P(n)$, it suffices to prove:

- $P(1)$ is true. (basis step)
- $\forall n \in \mathbf{N}, P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$. (inductive step)

This is not magic.

It is a recipe for constructing a proof for an arbitrary $n \in \mathbf{N}$.

the domino principle

If

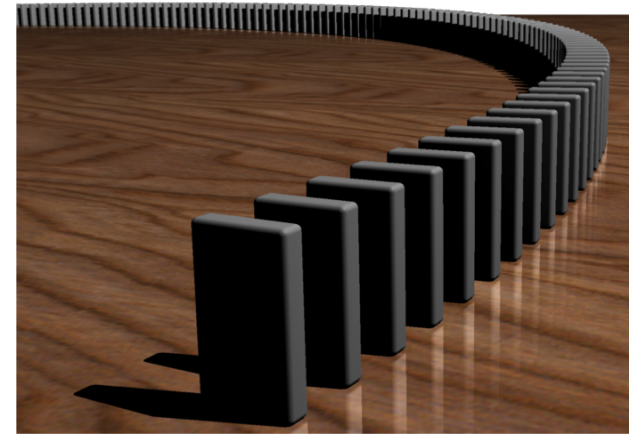
the 1st domino falls over

and

the n th domino falls over implies that domino $(n + 1)$ falls over

then

domino n falls over for all $n \in \mathbf{N}$.



proof by induction

3 steps:

- Prove $P(1)$. [the **basis** step]
- Assume $P(k)$ [the **induction hypothesis**]
- Using $P(k)$ prove $P(k + 1)$ [the **inductive step**]

Example

➤ Show that any postage of $\geq 8\text{¢}$ can be obtained using 3¢ and 5¢ stamps.

➤ Basis step:

$$8\text{¢} = 3\text{¢} + 5\text{¢}$$

Example

Let $P(n)$ be the statement "n cents postage can be obtained using 3¢ and 5¢ stamps".

Want to show that

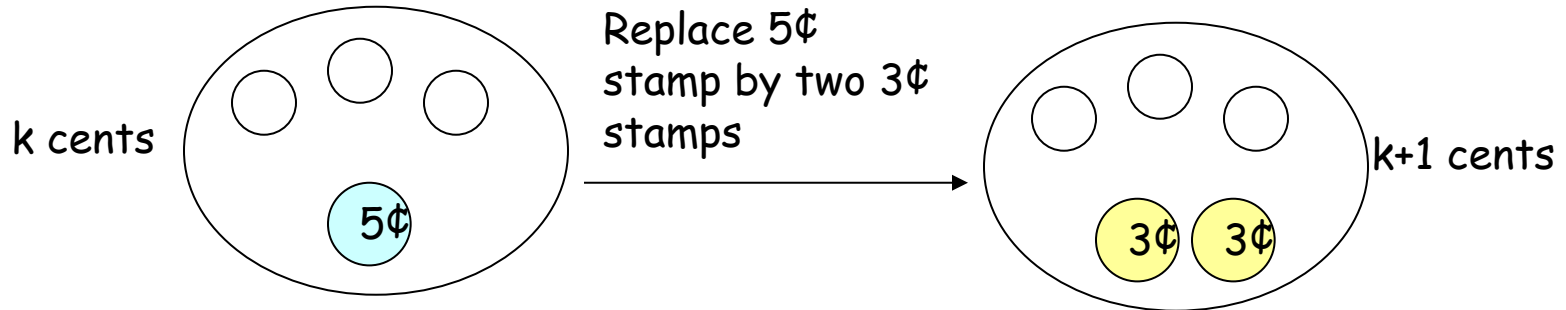
" $P(k)$ is true" *implies* " $P(k+1)$ is true" for all $k \geq 8$.

2 cases:

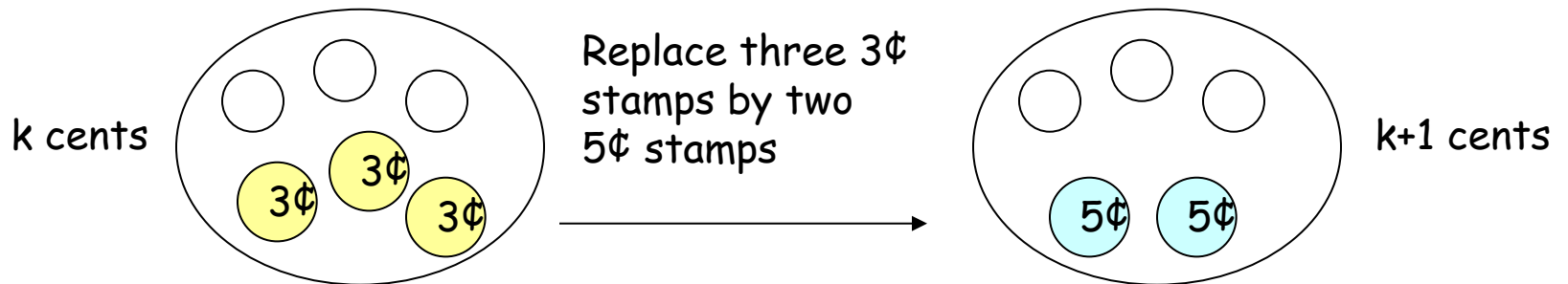
- 1) $P(k)$ is true **and**
the k cents contain at least one 5¢.
- 2) $P(k)$ is true **and**
the k cents do not contain any 5¢.

Example

Case 1: k cents contain at least one 5¢ stamp.



Case 2: k cents do not contain any 5¢ stamp.
Then there are at least three 3¢ stamp.



Arithmetic sequences

Sum of an arithmetic sequence:

For any integer $n \geq 1$:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (a + jd) = an + \frac{d(n-1)n}{2}$$

Proof: By induction on n

Base case: $n=1$

Induction step:

Assume:

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (a + jd) = ak + \frac{d(k-1)k}{2}$$

Need to prove:

$$\sum_{j=0}^k (a + jd) = a(k+1) + \frac{dk(k+1)}{2}$$

Examples

Prove that $1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$

Prove that for $n \geq 4$ $2^n < n!$

Prove that $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3 for every positive n .

Prove that $1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n+1) = (n+1)^2$

Prove that a set with n elements has 2^n subsets

Prove that $1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$ for $n > 0$

Hint: $2n^2 + 7n + 6 = (n+2)(2n+3)$

each time ask yourself

1. BASE

What is the base case? Can I prove the base case?

2. STEP

What is the hypothesis?

Obligation: What do I need to prove the inductive step

How do I complete the inductive step?

Example

Prove that $P(n): 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$ for $n > 0$

Base: $n=1$ $1^2 = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 / 6$

Hypothesis: $P(k): 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + k^2 = k(k+1)(2k+1)/6$

Obligation $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1) : 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (k+1)^2 = (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)/6$

Proof:

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + (k+1)^2 =$$

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + k^2 + (k+1)^2 = \text{hypothesis}$$

$$k(k+1)(2k+1)/6 + (k+1)^2 = (k+1)(k(2k+1)+6(k+1))/6 =$$

$$(k+1)(2k^2+7k+6)/6 =$$

$$\text{Hint: } 2n^2+7n+6 = (n+2)(2n+3)$$

$$(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)/6$$

All horses have the same color

Base case: If there is only one horse, there is only one color.



Induction step: Assume as induction hypothesis that within any set of n horses, there is only one color. Now look at any set of $n + 1$ horses. Number them: $1, 2, 3, \dots, n, n + 1$. Consider the sets $\{1, 2, 3, \dots, n\}$ and $\{2, 3, 4, \dots, n + 1\}$. Each is a set of only n horses, therefore within each there is only one color. But the two sets overlap, so there must be only one color among all $n+1$ horses.

This is clearly wrong, but can you find the flaw?

NOT all horses have the same color

The step from

$k = 1 \quad \{1\}$

to

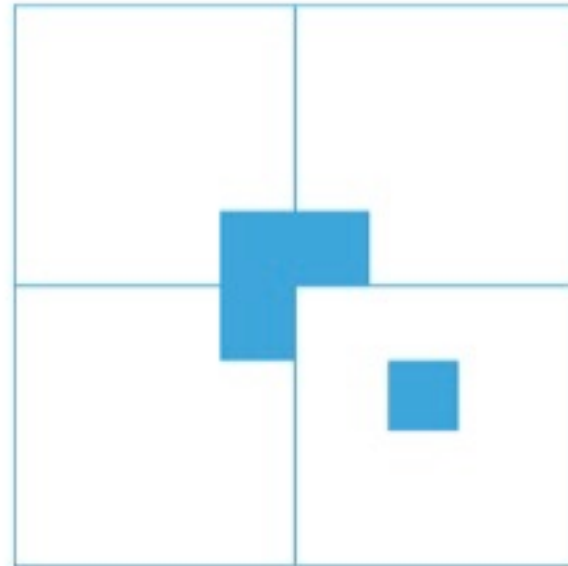
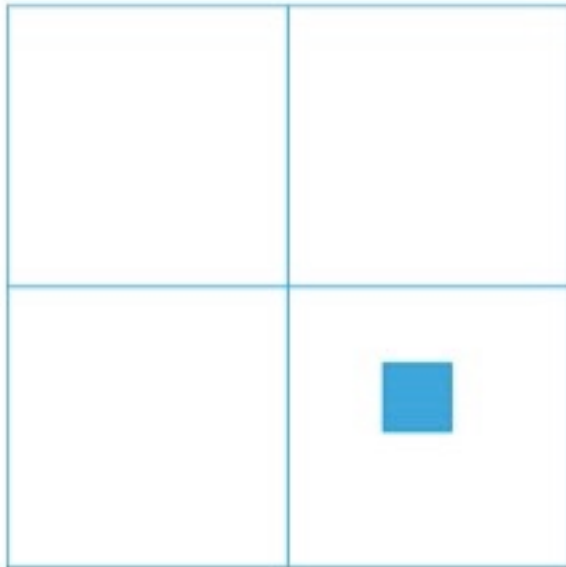
$k = 2 \quad \{1,2\}$

Fails: there is no intersection: $\{1\} \cap \{2\}$ in a set of two horses, as was incorrectly used in the "proof".

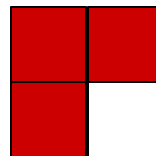


Tiling with triominoes

Divide the board into four sub-boards:



Base case?



A bound on Fibonacci numbers

The Fibonacci sequence:

$$f_0 = 0, f_1 = 1$$

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2$$

Theorem: $f_n \leq 2^n$ for $n \geq 0$

Strong induction

Induction:

- $P(1)$ is true.
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$.
- Implies $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$

Strong induction:

- $P(1)$ is true.
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, (P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n)) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$.
- Implies $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$

Example

Prove that all natural numbers ≥ 2 can be represented as a product of primes.

Basis: $n=2$: 2 is a prime.

Example

Inductive step: show that $n+1$ can be represented as a product of primes.

- If $n+1$ is a prime: It can be represented as a product of 1 prime, itself.
- If $n+1$ is composite: Then, $n + 1 = ab$, for some $a, b < n + 1$.
 - Therefore, $a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k$ & $b = q_1 q_2 \dots q_l$, where the p_i s & q_i s are primes.
 - Represent $n+1 = p_1 p_2 \dots p_k q_1 q_2 \dots q_l$.

Breaking chocolate

Theorem: Breaking up a chocolate bar with n "squares" into individual squares takes $n-1$ breaks.

(Break = dividing (sub) bar in 2 along a "break line")



A full binary tree (sometimes proper binary tree or 2-tree) is a tree in which every node other than the leaves has two children.

Prove:

A full binary tree with n leaves has $n-1$ internal nodes

What is the relation with the chocolate bar?

Induction and the well ordering principle

The well-ordering principle:

any non-empty subset of the non-negative integers has a smallest element.

Surprising fact:

Well-ordering implies the principle of mathematical induction

Smallest element: base

Next element: step