

Induction

Properties. A property of natural numbers is a function from the natural numbers to $\{T, F\}$.

Examples

- Being odd: Define $odd(n)$ to mean that natural number n is odd
- Being prime: Define $prime(n)$ to mean that n is prime
- Triangular sum. Define $tri(n)$ to mean

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

Of these odd and $prime$ are not true of all natural numbers, but tri is true of all natural numbers

- $\neg \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, prime(n)$
- $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, tri(n)$

Simple Induction

Suppose we know for a property P of the natural numbers that

- (a) P is true of 0.
- (b) that for any k in \mathbb{N} , if the property is true of k , then it is also true of $k + 1$.

Then

- From (a) we know $P(0)$ is true
- From (b) and $P(0)$, we know $P(1)$ is true
- From (b) and $P(1)$, we know $P(2)$ is true
- From (b) and $P(2)$, we know $P(3)$ is true
- and so on ad infinitum.

In fact it must be that $P(n)$ is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Example 0

Consider the property of n that $(\sum_{i=0}^n i) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

We define

$$tri(n) \text{ iff } \left(\sum_{i=0}^n i \right) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

- (a) (Base Step) We can confirm that $tri(0)$ is true by plugging in the numbers

$$LHS = \left(\sum_{i=0}^n i \right) [n := 0] = \left(\sum_{i=0}^0 i \right) = 0$$

and

$$RHS = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} [n := 0] = \frac{0(0+1)}{2} = 0 = LHS$$

- (b) (Induction Step) We can show that, for any k in \mathbb{N} , if $tri(k)$, then $tri(k+1)$

* Proof

- Let k be any natural number
- Assume tri is true of that k . I.e.

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

(This assumption is called the induction hypothesis)

- It remains to show $tri(k+1)$

- Calculate

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} i \\ &= k+1 + \sum_{i=0}^k i \text{ Split off last term.} \\ &= k+1 + \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \text{ By our assumption} \\ &= \frac{2k+2+k^2+k}{2} \\ &= \frac{k^2+3k+2}{2} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus $tri(k+1)$ is true .

- Now we have

- * $tri(0)$ by the base step
- * $tri(1)$ by the induction step and $tri(0)$
- * $tri(2)$ by the induction step and $tri(1)$
- * and so on

- In fact we have $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, tri(n)$. That is

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \left(\sum_{i=0}^n i \right) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

The Theorem of Mathematical Induction

Principle: The “*theorem of (simple) mathematical induction*” states that

- For any property P of the natural numbers we have $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$ if
 - * $P(0)$, and
 - * for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, if $P(k)$ then $P(k+1)$

Notes

- The antecedent $P(k)$ is called the “induction hypothesis” (Ind. Hyp.)
- Proof is based on the WOP. See book.
- In applying this theorem
 - * $P(0)$ is called the “base step”
 - * $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ is called the “inductive step”

Informal “proof”: Recall that $P \wedge Q \Leftrightarrow P \wedge (P \rightarrow Q)$

- In the infinite case we have

$$\begin{aligned} & P(0) \wedge P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \\ \Leftrightarrow & P(0) \wedge (P(0) \rightarrow P(1)) \wedge (P(1) \rightarrow P(2)) \wedge \dots \end{aligned}$$

A proof by the theorem of (simple) mathematical induction answers the following questions

- (a) What is the property of the natural numbers?
- (b) What do we need to prove for the base step?
- (c) What is a proof of the base step?
- (d) What do we need to prove for the inductive step?
- (e) What is a proof of the inductive step?

Example 1

We will show that, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

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

Proof:

(a) Let $P(n)$ be the property of a natural number n that $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$

- (b) *Base Step*: We need to show $P(0)$, i.e.

$$\sum_{i=1}^0 i^2 = 0(0+1)(0n+1)/6$$

* (c) *Proof of Base Step*: The LHS is 0 since the sum

of 0 things is always 0. The RHS simplifies to 0. Thus $P(0)$ holds.

- (d) *Induction Step*. We need to show that $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$, if

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i^2 = k(k+1)(2k+1)/6 \quad (*)$$

then

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 = (k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)/6 \quad (**)$$

* (e) *Proof of Induction Step*

* Let k be any natural number.

* Assume (Induction Hypothesis)

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

* We need to show (**) .

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{LHS} \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^2 \\
 &= (k+1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k i^2 \text{ Split off last term} \\
 &= (k+1)^2 + k(k+1)(2k+1)/6 \text{ By the ind. hyp. (*)} \\
 &= k^2 + 2k + 1 + \frac{(k^2+k)(2k+1)}{6} \text{ Expand} \\
 &= k^2 + 2k + 1 + \frac{2k^3 + 3k^2 + k}{6} \text{ Expand} \\
 &= \frac{2k^3 + 9k^2 + 13k + 6}{6} \text{ Put over common denom.}
 \end{aligned}$$

*

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{RHS} \\
 &= \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)(2(k+1)+1)}{6} \\
 &= \frac{(k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)}{6} \text{ Adding} \\
 &= \frac{(k^2+3k+2)(2k+3)}{6} \text{ Expand} \\
 &= \frac{2k^3+9k^2+13k+6}{6} \text{ Expand}
 \end{aligned}$$

* Thus we have (**)

- By the theorem of mathematical induction we have $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, P(n)$. i.e. for all natural n ,

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

□

Example 2 If $|S| \in \mathbb{N}$ then $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = 2^{|S|}$.

Recall that $\mathcal{P}(S)$ is the set of all subsets of S

Proof:

- (a) Let $P(n)$ (for $n \in \mathbb{N}$) mean: for all sets S , if $|S| = n$ then $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = 2^n$
- We must show $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, for all sets S , if $|S| = n$ then $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = 2^n$
- (b) *Base Step:* We must show that all sets of cardinality 0 have a power set of size 2^0 .
- (c) *Proof of Base step:*
 - * There is only one set of size 0 namely \emptyset . The power set of \emptyset is $\{\emptyset\}$ and has size 1, which equals 2^0
- (d) *Induction Step:* We must show that, for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, if all sets of size k have a power set of size 2^k , then all sets of size $k + 1$ have a power set of size 2^{k+1} .
- (e) *Proof of induction step:*
 - * Let k be any natural number.
 - * Assume (as Induction Hypothesis) that all sets of size k have a power set of size 2^k .

- * Remains to prove: All sets of size $k + 1$ have power sets of size 2^{k+1}
- * Let S be any set of size $k + 1$.
- * Let x be any member of S .
- * We can partition $\mathcal{P}(S)$ into two disjoint sets $Q = \{T \subseteq S \mid x \notin T\}$ and $R = \{T \subseteq S \mid x \in T\}$.
- * **Note.** $\mathcal{P}(S) = Q \cup R$ and $Q \cap R = \emptyset$ So $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = |Q| + |R|$.
- * Also note that each element of R can be obtained from an element of Q by “unioning in” x .
- * And each element of Q can be obtained from an element of R by “subtracting out” x .
- * So $|Q| = |R|$.
- * Finally note that $Q = \mathcal{P}(S - \{x\})$ and since $|S - \{x\}| = k$ we have (by the ind. hyp.) $|Q| = 2^k$
- * $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = |Q| + |R| = 2 \times |Q| = 2 \times 2^k = 2^{k+1}$
- By the theorem of mathematical induction
 - $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, for all sets S , if $|S| = n$ then $|\mathcal{P}(S)| = 2^n$
 -

Example of the construction of Q and R

$$S = \{a, b, c, d\}$$

If $x = a$ then we have

| Q | R |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| $\{\emptyset\}$ | $\{\{a\},$ |
| $\{b\},$ | $\{a, b\},$ |
| $\{c\},$ | $\{a, c\},$ |
| $\{d\},$ | $\{a, d\},$ |
| $\{b, c\},$ | $\{a, b, c\},$ |
| $\{b, d\},$ | $\{a, b, d\},$ |
| $\{c, d\},$ | $\{a, c, d\},$ |
| $\{b, c, d\}\}$ | $\{a, b, c, d\}\}$ |

Extending the principle

What if $P(0)$ isn't true? Or isn't interesting. We can start from $P(1)$ or $P(2)$ and so on; even from $P(-42)$.

Principle: The theorem of (simple) mathematical induction (extended version).

- For any property P of the integers and $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$
 - * if $P(n_0)$ and
 - * for all $k \in \{n_0, n_0 + 1, \dots\}$, if $P(k)$ then $P(k + 1)$
 - * then $\forall n \in \{n_0, n_0 + 1, \dots\}$, $P(n)$

Example 3: Call a set of straight lines in a plane “independent” if any two lines meet at a point and no three lines meet at a point.

Theorem. For $n \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$ any set of n independent lines divides the plane into $\frac{n^2+n+2}{2}$

Proof

- The property of n is: Any set of n independent lines divides the plane into $\frac{n^2+n+2}{2}$ regions.
- Base step: Must show that 1 line divides the plane into $\frac{1^2+1+2}{2}$ regions.
- Proof of base step: Clearly any line will divide the plane into 2 parts. And $\frac{1^2+1+2}{2} = 2$.
- Induction step: Must show that, for all $k \geq 1$, if any set of k independent lines cuts the plane into $\frac{k^2+k+2}{2}$ regions, then any set of $k + 1$ independent lines cuts the plane into $\frac{(k+1)^2+(k+1)+2}{2}$ regions.
- Proof of induction step:
 - * Let k be any integer ≥ 1 .
 - * Assume (ind. hyp.) that any set independent lines will cut the plane into $\frac{k^2+k+2}{2}$ regions.
 - * Let S be any set of independent lines of size $k + 1$.

- * Let x be any line in S
- * $|S - \{x\}| = k$
- * Furthermore, since S is independent, $S - \{x\}$ is an independent set, so $S - \{x\}$ will (by the ind. hyp.) cut the plane into $\frac{k^2+k+2}{2}$ regions.
- * Now consider line x . It intersects each of the k other lines, and thus cuts through $k + 1$ of the regions defined by $S - \{x\}$, dividing each in two. (The k points of intersection divide x into $k + 1$ segments. Each segment cuts a region in two.)
- * So S defines $k + 1 + \frac{k^2+k+2}{2}$ regions.
- * Now

$$\begin{aligned}
 & k + 1 + \frac{k^2 + k + 2}{2} \\
 = & \frac{k^2 + 3k + 4}{2} \\
 = & \frac{(k + 1)^2 + k + 3}{2} \\
 = & \frac{(k + 1)^2 + (k + 1) + 2}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

- So, by the theorem of simple mathematical induction we have proved the theorem. \square

Complete Induction

We can use a stronger induction hypothesis.

This often make the proof much easier.

Principle The theorem of complete mathematical induction:

- For any property P of the natural numbers
- If
 - * [Base step] $P(0)$ and
 - * [Induction step] for all $k \geq 1$
 - if for all integers j , with $0 \leq j < k$, $P(j)$
 - then $P(k)$
- then for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $P(n)$.

The induction hypothesis here is:

- “for all integers j , with $0 \leq j < k$, $P(j)$ ” .

‘Informal Proof’:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & P(0) \wedge P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge P(3) \wedge \dots \\
 \Leftrightarrow & P(0) \wedge (P(0) \rightarrow P(1)) \\
 & \quad \wedge (P(0) \wedge P(1) \rightarrow P(2)) \\
 & \quad \wedge (P(0) \wedge P(1) \wedge P(2) \rightarrow P(3)) \wedge \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4

Consider the family of sequences defined by

$$p_{a,0} = 1$$

$$p_{a,n} = a \times p_{a,n-1} \text{ if } n > 0 \text{ and } n \text{ is odd}$$

$$p_{a,n} = (p_{a,n/2})^2 \text{ if } n > 0 \text{ and } n \text{ is even}$$

(For each value for a we get a sequence $p_{a,0}, p_{a,1}, \dots$)

Make a table or two:

| | | | | | |
|---------|-----|-----------|---------|-----|-----------|
| | n | $p_{2,n}$ | | n | $p_{3,n}$ |
| | 0 | 1 | | 0 | 1 |
| $a = 2$ | 1 | 2 | $a = 3$ | 1 | 3 |
| | 2 | 4 | | 2 | 9 |
| | 3 | 8 | | 3 | 27 |
| | 4 | 16 | | 4 | 81 |

Theorem: for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $p_{a,n} = a^n$.

Note: For the purpose of this theorem we will consider $0^0 = 1$.

Proof by complete induction.

- Let $Q(n)$ mean that “for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $p_{a,n} = a^n$ ”
- **Base step:** We must show that $Q(0)$. I.e. that for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $p_{a,0} = a^0$

- **Proof of base step:**

- * Let a be any real number.

- * $RHS = p_{a,0} = 1$, by defn of p

- * $LHS = a^0 = 1$

- **Induction step:** We must show that, for all $k > 0$, if $Q(j)$, for all $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$ then $Q(k)$. I.e. for all $k > 0$, if

$$\forall j \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}, \forall a \in \mathbb{R}, p_{a,j} = a^j \quad (*)$$

then

$$\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, p_{a,k} = a^k. \quad (**)$$

- **Proof of induction step**

- * Let k be any natural ≥ 1 .

- * Assume (as induction hypothesis) that

$$\forall j \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}, \forall a \in \mathbb{R}, p_{a,j} = a^j$$

- * Remains to show $\forall a \in \mathbb{R}, p_{a,k} = a^k$.

- * Let a be any real number.

* Case that k is odd:

- Then we know $p_{a,k} = a \times p_{a,k-1}$
- Note that $0 \leq k-1 < k$.
- We have

$$\begin{aligned} p_{a,k} &= a \times p_{a,k-1} \text{ Defn of } p \\ &= a \times a^{k-1} \text{ Ind. Hyp.} \\ &= a^k \end{aligned}$$

* Case that k is even:

- Then by definition $p_{a,k} = (p_{a,k/2})^2$
- Note that $k/2$ is an integer and $0 \leq k/2 < k$.
- We have

$$\begin{aligned} p_{a,k} &= (p_{a,k/2})^2 \text{ Defn of } p \\ &= (a^{k/2})^2 \text{ Ind. Hyp.} \\ &= a^k \end{aligned}$$

- So, by the theorem of complete mathematical induction, we have the theorem. \square

Extending Complete Induction

We can be a bit more general than this, allowing the base case to start anywhere and for multiple base cases.

Principle The theorem of complete induction (extended version)

- For any n_0 and n_1 in \mathbb{Z} with $n_0 \leq n_1$ and property P of the integers
- If
 - * [Base steps] $P(n_0)$ and $P(n_0 + 1)$ and ... and $P(n_1 - 1)$ and
 - * [Induction step] for all integers $k \geq n_1$
 - if for all integers j , with $n_0 \leq j < k$, $P(j)$
 - then $P(k)$
- then, for all $n \in \{n_0, n_0 + 1, \dots\}$, $P(n)$.

Here there are $n_1 - n_0$ base steps. Note that there can even be 0 base steps.

'Informal Proof' $n_0 = 0$ and $n_1 = 2$

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

$$\Leftrightarrow P(0) \wedge P(1) \wedge (P(0) \wedge P(1) \rightarrow P(2))$$

$$\quad \wedge (P(0) \wedge P(1) \wedge P(2) \rightarrow P(3)) \wedge \dots$$

Example 5

Define the following "Fibonacci" sequence

$$fib_0 = 1$$

$$fib_1 = 1$$

$$fib_n = fib_{n-1} + fib_{n-2}, \text{ if } n > 1$$

The Fibonacci sequence is

$$\langle 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, \dots \rangle$$

Theorem: For all natural numbers n , $fib_n = ca^n + db^n$

where

$$c = \frac{5 + \sqrt{5}}{10} \quad d = \frac{5 - \sqrt{5}}{10}$$

and

$$a = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \simeq 1.61803 \quad b = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \simeq -0.61803$$

Note. At the moment this theorem appears from "thin air". Later in the course, we will develop a method for deriving this and similar theorems.

Note.

- The numbers a and b are the two solutions to the equation

$$\frac{1}{x} = x - 1$$

as you can see by the quadratic formula.

- The number a is often written as ϕ and is called the "golden ratio".
- The number b is often written ϕ' or as $1 - \phi$.
- One consequence of the theorem is

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{fib_{n+1}}{fib_n} = \phi$$

Lemma: $\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{a^2} = 1 = \frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{b^2}$

Proof of lemma:

$$\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{a^2} = \frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{a}(a-1) = (a-1+1)\frac{1}{a} = a\frac{1}{a} = 1$$

And similarly for b . \square

Remark: Why this lemma? In actuality, I was most of the way through the proof of the theorem before I realized that this lemma would be useful. For presentation reasons it is convenient to prove it first.

Proof of theorem: By complete induction with 2 base cases.

The property $P(n)$ is " $fib_n = ca^n + db^n$ "

First base step: for $n = 0$. We must show $fib_0 = ca^0 + db^0$

Proof of first base step

$$\begin{aligned} & ca^0 + db^0 \\ &= c + d \\ &= \frac{(5 + \sqrt{5}) + (5 - \sqrt{5})}{10} \\ &= \frac{10}{10} \\ &= 1 \\ &= fib_0 \text{ by defn} \end{aligned}$$

Second base step: for $n = 1$. We must show $fib_1 = ca^1 + db^1$

Proof of second base step

$$\begin{aligned} & ca^1 + db^1 \\ &= \frac{5 + \sqrt{5}}{10} \cdot \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} + \frac{5 - \sqrt{5}}{10} \cdot \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \\ &= \frac{(5 + \sqrt{5})(1 + \sqrt{5}) + (5 - \sqrt{5})(1 - \sqrt{5})}{20} \\ &= \frac{5 + 6\sqrt{5} + 5 + 5 - 6\sqrt{5} + 5}{20} \\ &= 20/20 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Inductive step: We must show that for all integers $k \geq 2$, if, for all integers j , with $0 \leq j < k$, $P(j)$, then $P(k)$.

- Let k be any integer ≥ 2 .

- Assume (as the ind. hyp.) that

$$\text{for all } j \text{ with } 0 \leq j < k, fib_j = ca^j + db^j$$

- In particular (as $k \geq 2$) the ind. hyp. implies that

$$fib_{k-1} = ca^{k-1} + db^{k-1} \quad (*)$$

and that

$$fib_{k-2} = ca^{k-2} + db^{k-2} \quad (**)$$

- It remains to show that $fib_k = ca^k + db^k$

$$fib_k = fib_{k-1} + fib_{k-2} \quad \text{Defn of } fib \text{ as } k \geq 2$$

$$= ca^{k-1} + db^{k-1} + ca^{k-2} + db^{k-2} \quad \text{From } (*) \text{ and } (**)$$

$$= c(a^{k-1} + a^{k-2}) + d(b^{k-1} + b^{k-2}) \quad \text{Distributivity}$$

$$= c\left(\frac{a^k}{a} + \frac{a^k}{a^2}\right) + d\left(\frac{b^k}{b} + \frac{b^k}{b^2}\right)$$

$$= ca^k\left(\frac{1}{a} + \frac{1}{a^2}\right) + db^k\left(\frac{1}{b} + \frac{1}{b^2}\right) \quad \text{Distributivity}$$

$$= ca^k + db^k \quad \text{Lemma.}$$

So, by the theorem of complete mathematical induction, we have proved the theorem. \square