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# Discrete Mathematics Mathematical Induction

(c) Marcin Sydow

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### Statements about Natural Numbers

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Imagine a **statement** concerning all natural numbers greater than some natural value that can be expressed in the form of a predicate:

$$\forall_{n\geq n_0}P(n)$$

where  $n \in N$  is a free natural variable, and  $n_0$  is the smallest value having the property

Examples of  $\forall_{n>n_0} P(n)$ :

"for any  $n \ge 0$  it holds that  $n < 2^{n}$ "

"for any  $n \ge 0$  the sum of first n odd numbers is equal to  $n^2$ "

"for any  $n \ge 1$  it holds that  $2^n < n!$ "

### Mathematical Induction

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The principle of mathematical induction:

If the following 2 conditions hold, for some predicate P(n),  $n \in N$ :

- **1**  $P(n_0)$  is true for some  $n_0 \in N$  (Basis step)
- $P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$  is true for any  $k \ge n_0$  (Inductive step)<sup>1</sup>

then: the predicate P(n) is true for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

Mathematical Induction is a **powerful technique** for proving statements concerning natural numbers of the form  $\forall_{n \geq n_0} P(n)$ .

 $<sup>{}^{1}</sup>P(k)$  is called "inductive assumption"  ${}^{1}P(k)$  is called "inductive assumption"

## Sum notation (reminder)

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Let  $a_i$  be a sequence of numbers indexed by natural index  $i \in N$ . Then notation:

$$\sum_{i=i_0}^k a$$

### Where:

- *i* is the name of the index variable
- $\bullet$   $a_i$  is a sequence of numbers indexed by i

Denotes **the sum** of all the terms of the sequence  $a_i$  from  $a_{i_0}$  up to  $a_k$  (both inclusive):

$$\sum_{i=i_0}^k a_i = a_{i_0} + \cdots + a_k$$

### Examples of sum notation

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### Examples:

$$\sum_{i=2}^{5} i =$$

## Examples of sum notation

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### Examples:

$$\sum_{i=2}^{5} i = 2 + 3 + 4 + 5$$

$$\sum_{i=4}^{6} i^2 =$$

### Examples of sum notation

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### **Sum Notation**

### Examples:

$$\sum_{i=2}^{5} i = 2 + 3 + 4 + 5$$

$$\sum_{i=4}^{6} i^2 = 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2 = 16 + 25 + 36 = 77$$

### Product notation

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Let  $a_i$  be a sequence of numbers indexed by natural index  $i \in N$ . Then notation:

$$\prod_{i=i_0}^k a_i$$

### Where:

- *i* is the name of the index variable
- $\bullet$   $a_i$  is a sequence of numbers indexed by i

Denotes **the product** of all the terms of the sequence  $a_i$  from  $a_{i_0}$  up to  $a_k$  (both inclusive):

$$\prod_{i=i_0}^k a_i = a_{i_0} \cdot \cdots \cdot a_k$$

Example:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} i =$$

### Product notation

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Let  $a_i$  be a sequence of numbers indexed by natural index  $i \in N$ . Then notation:

$$\prod_{i=i_0}^k a_i$$

### Where:

- *i* is the name of the index variable
- $\bullet$   $a_i$  is a sequence of numbers indexed by i

Denotes **the product** of all the terms of the sequence  $a_i$  from  $a_{i_0}$  up to  $a_k$  (both inclusive):

$$\prod_{i=i_0}^{k} a_i = a_{i_0} \cdot \cdots \cdot a_k$$

Example:

$$\prod_{i=1}^{n} i = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot n = n!$$

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n i =$$

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n i =$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + ... + n = ?$$

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P(n):

$$T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n i =$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + ... + n = ?$$

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

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$T_n = \sum_{i=1}^n i =$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + ... + n = ?$$

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

The sum of n first non-negative natural numbers is called **triangle number**.

Is the above equation true for all  $n \in N$ ?

(proof by mathematical induction)



# Proof of the formula for Triangle Numbers

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### Basis step:

P(1):

- left-hand side:  $\sum_{i=1}^{1} = 1$ 
  - right-hand side:  $1 \cdot (1+1)/2 = 1$

P(1) holds (i.e. the basis step is done)

### Inductive assumption:

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

**Inductive step** (the main part of the proof):

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

The above is equivalent to P(k+1), so that the inductive step is done, what completes the proof for all n > 0.

# Sum of geometric series

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 $a,r\in R$ , r
eq 1

$$P(n)$$
:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} ar^{i} =$$

# Sum of geometric series

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 $a, r \in R, r \neq 1$ 

$$a,r\in R,\ r\neq 1$$

$$P(n)$$
:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \mathsf{ar}^i =$$

$$a + ar + ar^2 + ... + ar^n = ?$$

# Sum of geometric series

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**Validity** 

 $a, r \in R, r \neq 1$ 

$$P(n)$$
:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} ar^{i} =$$

$$a + ar + ar^2 + ... + ar^n = ?$$

$$=\frac{ar^{n+1}-a}{r-1}$$

Is the above equation true for all  $n \in N$ ? (proof by mathematical induction)

# Geometric series formula proof

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### Basis step:

P(0):

- left-hand side:  $\sum_{i=0}^{0} ar^{i} = ar^{0} = a \cdot 1 = a$
- right-hand side:  $(ar^{0+1} a)/(r-1) = (r-1)a/(r-1) = a$

the basis step is done.

Inductive assumption:  $\sum_{i=0}^{k} ar^i = \frac{ar^{k+1}-a}{r-1}$ 

Inductive step:

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

The inductive step is done what completes the proof.

### Recursive Definition

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Mathematical Induction makes it also possible to define some mathematical objects indexed by natural numbers in a **recursive** way i.e. the defined object references to itself but for a smaller natural value and some *basis* object is defined. Recursive definition constists of two parts:

- 1 basis case
- recursive (inductive) step

# Example of recursive definition

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Factorial of n:

Denoted as: n!

It is a product of n first non-zero natural numbers.

Standard definition:  $n! = \prod_{i=1}^{n} i = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot ... \cdot n$ 

E.g.  $3! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 6$ 

Recursive definition of factorial:

1 0! = 1 (basis case)

2  $n! = (n-1)! \cdot n$  (recursive/inductive step)

Example  $3! = 2! \cdot 3 = 1! \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 0! \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 1 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 = 6$  (notice the necessity of providing the basis step to avoid endless recursion!)

### Sum of odd naturals

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} 2i - 1 = 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n - 1) = ?$$

### Sum of odd naturals

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} 2i - 1 = 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2n - 1) = ?$$

$$= n^{2}$$

Is the above equation true for all  $n \in N$ ? (proof by mathematical induction)

# Sum of powers of 2

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P(n):

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} 2^{n} =$$

# Sum of powers of 2

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} 2^{n} =$$

$$1 + 2 + 4 + ... + 2^n = ?$$

### Sum of powers of 2

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} 2^{n} =$$

$$1 + 2 + 4 + ... + 2^n = ?$$

$$=2^{n+1}-1$$

Is the above equation true for all  $n \in N$ ? (proof by mathematical induction)

# Example of inequality

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P(n):

 $n < 2^n$ 

# Example of inequality

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$$P(n)$$
:

$$n < 2^n$$

Is the above inequality true for all  $n \in N$ ? (proof by mathematical induction)

# Another Example of inequality

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P(n):

 $2^{n} < n!$ 

# Another Example of inequality

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### More proof examples

$$P(n)$$
:

$$2^{n} < n!$$

For which values of n is the above inequality true? (proof by mathematical induction)

### Harmonic numbers

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A harmonic number  $H_n$  is defined as:

$$H_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}$$

For which values of n is the following true:

$$H_{2^n} \geq 1 + \frac{n}{2}$$

(proof by mathematical induction)

# Example on divisibility

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P(n):

$$3|(n^3-n)$$

for which values of n is the above statement true? (proof by mathematical induction)

## Generalisation of De Morgan Law

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Let's consider a family of subsets of some universe U:  $A_i \subset U$ , indexed by natural numbers  $i \in N$ . Let  $A'_i$  denote the complement of  $A_i$ .

P(n):

$$(\bigcap_{i=1}^n A_i)' = \bigcup_{i=1}^n A_i'$$

For which values of n is the above law true?

(proof by mathematical induction)

# Proof of the generalised de Morgan Law

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### Basis step:

Let's start the induction from  $n_0 = 2$ .

$$P(2)$$
:  $(A_1 \cap A_2)' = A_1' \cup A_2'$ 

This is true since it is a standard de Morgan Law.

Inductive assumption: 
$$(\bigcap_{i=1}^k A_i)' = \bigcup_{i=1}^k A_i'$$

Inductive step:

$$(\bigcap_{i=1}^{k+1} A_i)' = (\bigcap_{i=1}^k A_i \cap A_{k+1})' = (\bigcap_{i=1}^k A_i)' \cup A'_{k+1} = (\bigcup_{i=1}^k A'_i) \cup (A_{k+1})' = \bigcup_{i=1}^{k+1} A'_i$$

The induction step is done what completes the proof.

# Example from graph theory: Number of edges in a tree

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P(n): any tree having n vertices has exactly n-1 edges.

For which values of n is the above statement true?

(proof by mathematical induction)

### Number of edges in a tree, cont.

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Tree: a graph that is connected and does not have cycles.

Fact: each tree has at least 1 leaf (why?)

### Non-numeric example: tiling of checkerboards

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P(n): Each checkerboard of size  $2^n \times 2^n$  with exactly 1 square removed can be tiled using L-shaped pieces covering 3 squares each.

For which values of n is the above statement true? (proof by mathematical induction)

# Strong Mathematical Induction

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It is a variant of mathematical induction that makes it possible to use a stronger variant of inductive assumption:

If the following 2 conditions hold, for some predicate P(n),  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :

- **1**  $P(n_0)$  is true for some  $n_0 \in N$  (Basis step)
- 2  $P(1) \land P(2) \land \cdots \land P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$  is true for any  $k \ge n_0$  (Inductive step)

then: the predicate P(n) is true for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

Strong mathematical induction is logically equivalent to standard mathematical induction (i.e. one implies another) and both are equivalent to the well-ordering of the natural numbers.

### Example: number of edges of a tree

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Let's now use strong induction to prove:

P(n): each n-vertex tree has exactly n-1 edges.

(proof by strong induction)

Observation: removing 1 edge from a tree results in 2 smaller trees. (because any edge is not part of any cycle)

Notice: in this kind of proof it is easier to use strong mathematical induction here than the standard one.

### Prime factorisation

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P(n): a number n is a product of primes for which values of n is the above statement true?

for which values of h is the above statement true!

(proof by strong induction)

Notice: it is easier to use strong mathematical induction in this proof.

### Examples of Mistakes in Mathematical Induction

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The typical mistakes in Mathematical Induction can be the following:

- ignoring the basis step (even if the inductive step can be done!)
- wrong induction step

Both: the basis step and the inductive step are necessary to construct a valid proof by mathematical induction.

### Example of Mistake of ignoring the basis step

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Prove that for all  $n \in N$  the following holds:

$$P(n): n + 2 < n$$

Let's ignore the basis step and proceed directly to the inductive step:

Inductive assumption:

$$P(k)$$
:  $k + 2 < k$ .

Inductive step:

$$P(k+1)$$
:  $(k+1) + 2 = (k+2) + 1 < k+1$ 

The inductive step can be proven! But P(k) is not true for any k since the basis step is missing (the basis step is not true for any  $k \in N$ !)

## Another example of mistake

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Let's prove the statement: P(n): any set of n cars is of the same color (i.e. all the cars have the same color!)

Basis step (let's start from  $n_0 = 1$ ):

P(1): any set of 1 car if of the same color (true)

Inductive assumption:

P(k): any set of k cars if of the same color.

Inductive step:

Let's prove P(k + 1): any set of k+1 cars is of the same color.

The set of the first k cars has the same color (by inductive assumption). The set of last k cars also is of the same color (again: inductive assumption). Thus, since the middle k-1 cars (2,3,...,k) are common for the two sets, all the k+1 cars have the same color.

Where is the mistake?

## Why does the mathematical Induction work?

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Equivalence to well ordering.

Well ordering of natural numbers: (reminder:)

A set is well ordered if its any non-empty subset has the

A set is well ordered if its any non-empty subset has the smallest element.

The set of natural numbers, ordered by the  $\leq$  relation is well-ordered.

### General properties of Natural Numbers

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The following conditions<sup>2</sup> come from the **Peano's system of axioms** of natural numbers: (S(n)) denotes the successor function, S(n) = n + 1, e.g. S(0) = 1, S(1) = 2, etc.)

- **1** 0 ∈ *N*
- 2 for any  $n \in N$  it holds that  $S(n) \in N$  (its successor is also in N)
- ${f 3}$  every element of  ${\it N}$  except 0 is a successor of exactly 1 element
- 4 induction axiom<sup>3</sup>: if a set  $A \subseteq N$  satisfies 2 conditions:
  - 0 ∈ *A*
  - for any  $n \in N$  the fact that  $n \in S$  implies that also  $S(n) \in N$

Then it holds that A = N.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>conditions 1-3 are first-order logic the condition 4 is a second-order logic (quantifies set variable)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Induction axiom is logically equivalent to the well-ordering property of natural numbers.

### Why does the Mathematical Induction work?

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The principle of mathematical induction is implied by the fact that the natural numbers are well-ordered.

hint: imagine the smallest element s of the set of natural numbers that do not satisfy the property P(n) and the number p such that s = S(p). Hence, s must be either smaller then  $n_0$  or it would lead to a contradiction with the inductive step.

## Summary

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- Examples of numerical and non-numerical statements than can be proven by mathematical induction
- Strong Mathematical Induction
- Equivalence of Mathematical Induction with the well-ordering of the natural numbers

### Example tasks/questions/problems

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- Validity

- Formulate the principle of mathematical induction
- Formulate the principle of strong mathematical induction
- How mathematical induction is implied by the fact that natural numbers are well ordered
- disprove or prove by mathematical induction that for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ :
  - $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^3 = (n(n+1)/2)^2$

  - $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i \cdot i! = (n+1)! 1$
  - the number of all subsets of n-element set is  $2^n$
  - $n^2 + n$  is always even
  - $| 3|(n^3+2n)$
  - $| 5|(n^5-n)$
  - $| 6|(n^3-n)$

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Thank you for your attention.