

# Math 2603 - Lecture 9

## Section 5.1 Mathematical Induction

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# The Principle

# A motivating example

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Suppose we already have  $2^k > k$  for some indefinite integer  $k$ .

Then what about  $k + 1$ ? On the left hand side, from  $k$  to  $k + 1$  the value is doubled, while on the right hand side the value only increases by 1. So we have the following approach: (to be continued)



# A motivating example

Proof continued.

Suppose  $2^k > k$ . Then

$$2^{k+1} = 2 \cdot 2^k = 2^k + 2^k > k + 2^1 > k + 1.$$

So the statement holds for  $k + 1$  as well. And we can deduce in a chain:  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow \dots$ . This is the pattern of **mathematical induction**. □



# The principle

## Definition (The principle of mathematical induction)

*Let  $P(n)$  be a property (predicate) that is defined for integers  $n$ , and let  $a$  be a fixed integer. Suppose the following two statements are true:*

- ①  *$P(a)$  is true.*
- ② *For all integers  $k \geq a$ , if  $P(k)$  is true, then  $P(k+1)$  is true.*

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*Then the statement "for all integers  $n \geq a$ ,  $P(n)$ " is true.*

## Remark

*In practice, we usually choose  $a = 1$  or  $a = 0$ , while  $a$  could be any integer.*

# Why this principle is true

The principle of mathematical induction is essentially an axiom. Alternatively, it is deduced from the well-ordering property of positive integers, which is also an axiom.

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# An illustrative video of mine

## Remark

*An illustration: in a sequence of dominoes, if the very first one falls backward, what would happen? They all fall.*



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## Remark

*Note that the inductive step is a statement with the universal quantifier. So we usually take a particular but arbitrarily chosen integer  $k \geq a$  and suppose that  $P(k)$  is true (this is called the **inductive hypothesis**). Finally, we try to draw the conclusion that  $P(k+1)$  is true.*

# Example: challenges in the inductive step

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*The currency of some country only has two denominations of coins - 3 cents and 5 cents. Prove that for integer  $n \geq 8$ , we can pay exactly  $n$  cents using those coins.*

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## Hint

$$8 = 5 + 3, 9 = 3 + 3 + 3, 10 = 5 + 5, 11 = 5 + 3 + 3, \dots$$

# Proof by cases in the inductive step

## Proof.

We use induction on  $n$ . The basis step is when  $n = 8$ . Since  $8 = 3 + 5$ , it is true. For the inductive step, suppose  $k \geq 8$  is an arbitrary integer such that we can obtain  $k$  cents using those coins. How to obtain  $k + 1$  cents? There are two cases.

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Case 2: no 5-cent coin is used. Since  $k \geq 8$ , at least three 3-cent coins are used. We can take three of them, and replace them by two 5-cent coins, so  $k + 1$  cents is also obtained.

In summary,  $k + 1$  cents is also able to obtain and we are done.  $\square$

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## Remark

*This is a typical example for an alternative form of induction - we will discuss it next.*

# Strong Form and alternative Forms

## Motivation: stronger inductive hypothesis

Recall our example of 3- and 5-cents coins. When carrying out the inductive step, it is natural to add a coin, but then the total value of the coins would increase by 3 instead of 1. Then can we modify the principle to deal with this situation?

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### Remark

*If we think carefully about the pattern, we note that the inductive hypothesis is usually " $P(k)$  is true" for some arbitrary positive integer  $k$ . Suppose we begin with  $P(1)$ . When we already get  $P(k)$ , we must have got **all** of  $P(1), P(2), P(3), \dots, P(k-1)$ ! So it is possible to strengthen the inductive hypothesis.*

# The strong form

## Definition (Principle of mathematical induction (strong form))

The **strong form** of mathematical induction is the following:

Let  $P(n)$  be a property that is defined for integers  $n$ , and let  $a$  and  $b$  be fixed integers with  $a \leq b$ . Suppose the following two statements are true:

- ① (**basis step**)  $P(a), P(a+1), \dots, P(b)$  are all true.
- ② (**inductive step**) For any integer  $k \geq b$ , if  $P(i)$  is true for all integers  $a \leq i \leq k$ , then  $P(k+1)$  is true.

Then the statement "for all integers  $n \geq a$ ,  $P(n)$ " is true. The supposition that  $P(i)$  is true for all integers  $a \leq i \leq k$  is called the **inductive hypothesis**.

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Basis step:  $n = 2$  is divisible by the prime number 2.

Inductive step: suppose  $k \geq 2$  is an integer such that for integers  $i$  with  $2 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $i$  is divisible by a prime number. Now we consider the case when  $n = k + 1$ . To analyze the divisors of  $k + 1$ , we need to know whether it is prime or composite (must be in either case as it is greater than 1). We apply division into cases. (to be continued)



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### Remark

*If we don't which known case we need as a premise to deduce the next case, we may apply the strong form.*

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*The ordinary principle uses " $P(10)$  implies  $P(11)$ ", while the strong form uses " $\text{the conjunction of } P(1), P(2), \dots, P(10) \text{ implies } P(11)$ ". The punchline is that, when we have  $P(10)$ , we must have **already** obtained  $P(1), P(2), \dots, P(9)$  along the way!*

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## Alternative forms - leap by $m > 1$

The following form of mathematical induction is correct too:

### Theorem

*Let  $P(n)$  be a property (predicate) that is defined for integers  $n$ , and let  $a$  be a fixed integer,  $1 < m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Suppose the following two statements are true:*

- ①  *$P(a), P(a+1), \dots, P(a+m-1)$  are true ( $m$  cases in total).*
- ② *For all integers  $k \geq a$ , if  $P(k)$  is true, then  $P(k+m)$  is true.*

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## Remark

This version is similar to the strong form.

# Alternative form - forward-backward

## Theorem

*Let  $P(n)$  be a property (predicate) that is defined for integers  $n$ , and let  $a$  be a fixed integer. Suppose the following two statements are true:*

- ① *For  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $P(a_i)$  are true, here  $a = a_1 < a_2 < \dots$  is an infinite sequence of integers.*
- ② *For all integers  $k \geq a + 1$ , if  $P(k)$  is true, then  $P(k - 1)$  is true.*

*Then the statement "for all integers  $n \geq a$ ,  $P(n)$ " is true.*

# Applications

# Closed form of sums

## Definition

*If a sum with a variable number of terms is shown to be equal to a formula that does not contain either an ellipsis  $\cdots$  or a summation symbol  $\sum_i$ , we say that it is written in **closed form**.*

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## Remark

*A closed form may be a sum too, but it must contain a constant number of summands.*



## Example: find closed form of sums

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### Solution

*We apply induction on  $n$ . When  $n = 1$ , both sides are 1.*

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*We apply induction on  $n$ . When  $n = 1$ , both sides are 1. Suppose the statement holds for  $n = m$ , where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then*

$$\sum_{k=1}^m (2k - 1) = m^2.$$

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$$\sum_{k=1}^{m+1} (2k - 1) = \sum_{k=1}^m (2k - 1) + 2(m+1) - 1 = m^2 + 2m + 1 = (m+1)^2.$$

# Problem-solving strategy: guess the answer, prove by induction

In many situations, we don't know the answer of a sum. However, if we manage to figure it out, it is usually trivial to prove it by induction.

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## Example

*Let  $n$  be a positive integer. For positive integer  $k$ ,  $k!$  is the factorial of  $k$ , which is  $\prod_{i=1}^k i$ . Evaluate the following sum:*

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (k \cdot k!).$$

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## Hint

The first few terms in the sequence: 1, 4, 18, 96.



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The first few terms in the sequence: 1, 4, 18, 96.  
And the corresponding sums for small  $n$ : 1, 5, 23, 119. Any

# Problem-solving strategy: guess the answer, prove by induction

## Solution

*We claim that the sum is  $(n + 1)! - 1$ , and we use induction to prove it. When  $n = 1$ , the sum is 1 and  $(1 + 1)! - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1$ . As for the inductive step, suppose  $m$  is an arbitrary positive integer such that  $\sum_{k=1}^m k \cdot k! = (m + 1)! - 1$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^{m+1} k \cdot k! &= \sum_{k=1}^m k \cdot k! + (m + 1) \cdot (m + 1)! \\ &= [(m + 1)! - 1] + (m + 1) \cdot (m + 1)! \\ &= (m + 2) \cdot (m + 1)! - 1 = (m + 2)! - 1.\end{aligned}$$

*So the claim is still true when  $n = m + 1$ . We are done.*

# Example: a flawed proof using induction

## Example

*Here is a "proof" of the false statement "for all integers  $n \geq 1$ ,  $3^n - 2$  is even."*

## Proof.

*Suppose the statement is true for an arbitrary integer  $k \geq 1$ . Then  $3^k - 2$  is even. We must show that  $3^{k+1} - 2$  is even. But*

$$3^{k+1} - 2 = 3^k \cdot 3 - 2 = (3^k - 2) + 2 \cdot 3^k.$$

*Now  $3^k - 2$  is even by inductive hypothesis and  $2 \cdot 3^k$  is even by definition. Hence their sum is also even. It follows that  $3^{k+1} - 2$  is even, which is what we needed to show.  $\square$*

*What is the flaw?*

# Induction makes no sense without basis step

## Solution

*All steps in the "proof" are correct, but it misses the basis step and in fact the basis step is apparently false.*

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## Remark

*Although the inductive step is usually the essential step in a proof by induction, please note that it is only an implication! So if the premise is false, it is an invalid argument and it is useless. As a result, it is vital to make sure that the basis step is done correctly.*

## Example: a hidden flaw

### Example

*Here is a "proof" of the false statement "for all nonzero real numbers  $r$  and nonnegative integer  $n$ ,  $r^n = 1$ ."*

### Proof.

*Fix  $r$ , we use strong induction on  $n$ . Basis step: when  $n = 0$ , since  $r \neq 0$ ,  $r^0 = 1$  is true.*

*Inductive step: suppose  $k \geq 0$  is an arbitrary integer such that  $r^i = 1$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq k$ . Note that  $r^{k+1} = r^{k+k-(k-1)} = r^k \cdot r^k / r^{k-1}$ . By the inductive hypothesis,  $r^k = r^{k-1} = 1$ , so  $r^{k+1}$  is also 1. The inductive step is done.  $\square$*

*What is the flaw?*

# Mind the range of numbers that the hypothesis applies to

## Solution

*The basis step is absolutely correct. In the inductive step, the formulas are correct. The flaw is that when  $k = 0$ ,  $k - 1 = -1$ , which is no longer between 0 and  $k$ ! So in this particular case we don't have  $r^{k-1} = 1$ !*

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## Solution

*The basis step is absolutely correct. In the inductive step, the formulas are correct. The flaw is that when  $k = 0$ ,  $k - 1 = -1$ , which is no longer between 0 and  $k$ ! So in this particular case we don't have  $r^{k-1} = 1$ !*

## Remark

*In this flawed proof, we can see that if we already have that the claim is true for  $k = 0, 1$ , then the proof works. But this is expected - when  $k = 1$ , the claim becomes  $r = 1$ , and if  $r = 1$ , the statement would be true. Otherwise, it's false.*



## HW Assignment #5 - today's sections

Section 5.1 Exercise 3, 6(c)(e), 8(a),  
11, 13, 40(a).