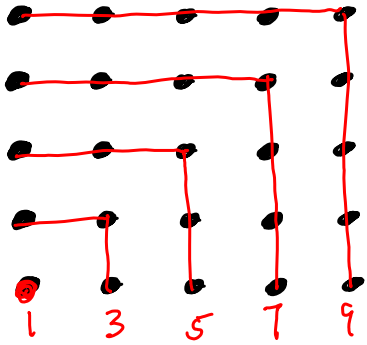


Chapter 6 Mathematical induction.

example



n^2 dots

$$1+3+5+\dots+2n-1 = n^2$$

example

Let $S = 1+2+3+4+\dots+n$

So
$$2S = 1+2+3+\dots+n +$$
$$\frac{n+(n-1)+(n-2)+\dots+1}{(n+1)+(n+1)+(n+1)+\dots+(n+1)} = n(n+1)$$

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

$$1+2+3+\dots+n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

example

The sum of the measures of the interior angles of an n -sided polygon is $(n-2)180^\circ$. ($n \geq 3$ of course).

1st Principle of Mathematical Induction (Simple Induction)

To show that $(\forall n)P(n)$ is true over domain $D = \{1, 2, 3, 4, \dots\}$

Show That

① Show that $P(1)$ is true Base case

and

② Show that $(\forall n)(P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1))$ is true Inductive step

example Prove that $\underbrace{1+3+5+\dots+2n-1}_{P(n)} = n^2$ for all $n \geq 1$.

Base Case ($n=1$)

When $n=1$, $1+3+5+\dots+2n-1 = 1$ and $n^2 = 1$
Same

Inductive Step $(\forall n)(P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1))$

Assume that $1+3+5+\dots+2n-1 = n^2$ for some $n \geq 1$. "Induction hypothesis"

We need to show that $1+3+5+\dots+2n+1 = (n+1)^2$ is also true.

Well $1+3+5+\dots+2n+1 = (1+3+5+\dots+2n-1) + 2n+1 = n^2 + 2n+1 = (n+1)^2$, as required. ▀
by the induction hypothesis

Example Prove that $\underbrace{1^2+2^2+\dots+n^2}_{P(n)} = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$ for all $n \geq 1$.

Base Case ($n=1$)

When $n=1$, $1^2+2^2+3^2+\dots+n^2 = \textcircled{1}$ and $\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \frac{1(2)(3)}{6} = \textcircled{1}$

←—————→
same

Induction Step ($P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$)

Assume that $1^2+2^2+\dots+n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$ for some $n \geq 1$. ← Induction hypothesis

Show that $1^2+2^2+\dots+(n+1)^2 = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)}{6}$ is also true ← Target Conclusion.

Well $1^2+2^2+\dots+(n+1)^2 = \left[1^2+2^2+\dots+n^2\right] + (n+1)^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} + (n+1)^2$

↑
by the induction hypothesis

$$= (n+1) \left(\frac{n(2n+1)}{6} + (n+1) \right) = (n+1) \left(\frac{2n^2+n}{6} + \frac{6n+6}{6} \right) = (n+1) \frac{2n^2+7n+6}{6} = (n+1) \frac{(2n+3)(n+2)}{6}$$

$$= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)}{6}, \text{ as required. } \blacksquare$$

Working With Inequalities

Given $A = B \leq C \leq D = F < G = H$ we obtain $A < H$.

Given $A = B \leq C \leq D = F \leq G = H$ we obtain $A \leq H$.

Also, ① $A \leq B$ and $C \leq D$ imply $A + C \leq B + D$

② $A \leq B$ and $C > 0$ imply $AC \leq BC$

③ $A \leq B$ and $C < 0$ imply $AC \geq BC$

Factorials

Def $n! = n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$

e.g. $1! = 1$

$$2! = 2 \cdot 1 = 2$$

$$3! = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 6$$

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24$$

$$5! = 5 \cdot 4! = 120$$

$$6! = 6 \cdot 5! = 720$$

⋮

In general $(n+1)! = (n+1)(n!)$

example Prove that $\underbrace{n!}_{P(n)} > \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^{n-1}$ for all $n \geq 4$.

Side Note $P(1) = "1! > \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^0" = "1 > 1"$ which is false

$P(2) = "2! > \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^1" = "2 > \frac{5}{2}"$ which is false

$P(3)$ is also false

Base Case (n=4)

When $n=4$, $n! = 4! = 24$ and $\left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^{4-1} = \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^3 = \frac{125}{8} = 15 + \frac{5}{8}$ and


$$24 > 15 + \frac{5}{8}.$$

Induction Step (P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1))

Assume that $n! > \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^{n-1}$ for some $n \geq 4$.

Show that $(n+1)! > \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^n$ is also true.

Well $(n+1)! = (n+1)(n!) > \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{by the} \\ \text{induction} \\ \text{hypothesis}}}{(n+1)} \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^{n-1} \geq \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{because} \\ n \geq 4}}{5} \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^{n-1} > \left(\frac{5}{2}\right) \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^{n-1} = \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^n.$

Thus $(n+1)! > \left(\frac{5}{2}\right)^n$, as required. 

example Prove $n^n > n!$ for all $n \geq 2$.

proof

Base Case ($n=2$)

When $n=2$, $n^n = 2^2 = 4$ and $n! = 2! = 2$, and $4 > 2$.

Induction Step ($P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$)

Assume that $n^n > n!$ for some arbitrary $n \geq 2$. ← Induction hypothesis

Show that, $(n+1)^{n+1} > (n+1)!$ is true as well. ← Target conclusion.

Well, $(n+1)^{n+1} = (n+1)(n+1)^n > (n+1)n^n > (n+1)(n!) = (n+1)!$. Therefore $(n+1)^{n+1} > (n+1)!$,
as required. ■

↑ because $n \geq 2$ ↑ by the induction hypothesis

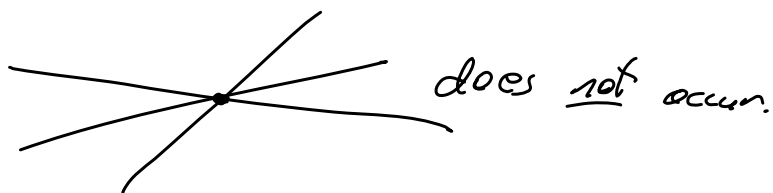
example A collection of lines \mathcal{L} in the 2-dimensional plane is said to be in general position when

① Every pair of lines intersect.



and

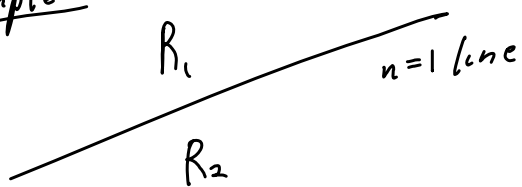
② No three lines intersect at the same point.



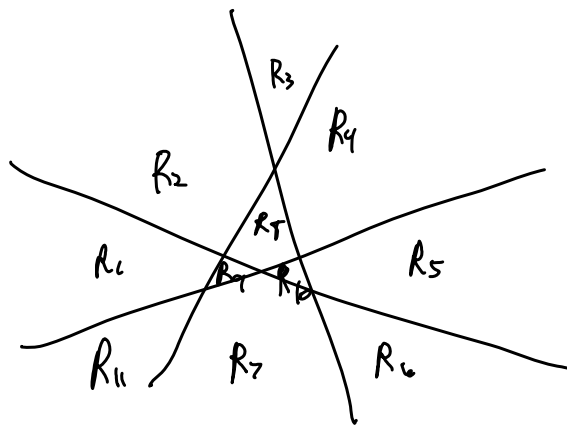
Let's prove that any collection \mathcal{L} of n lines in general position divides the plane into $\frac{n^2+n+2}{2}$ regions.

$P(n)$

example



$$\frac{1^2+1+2}{2} = 2 \text{ regions}$$



$n=4$ lines

$$\frac{4^2+4+2}{2} = \frac{22}{2} = 11 \text{ regions.}$$

Proof

Base Case ($n=1$)

One line defines 2 regions and $\frac{1^2+1+2}{2} = 2.$

Induction Step

Assume that any n lines in general position define $\frac{n^2+n+2}{2}$ regions.

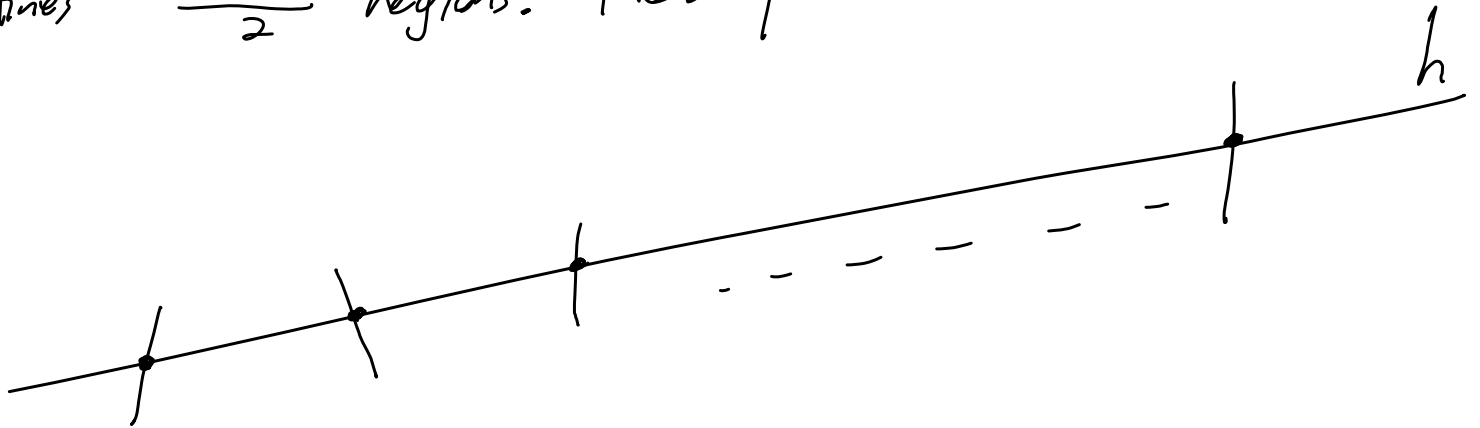
Show that $n+1$ lines in general position define $\frac{(n+1)^2+(n+1)+2}{2}$ regions.

First, note $\frac{(n+1)^2+(n+1)+2}{2} = \frac{n^2+3n+4}{2}$.

Let L be a collection of $n+1$ lines in general position.

Let $h \in L$. Now $L - \{h\}$ is a collection of n lines in general position. By the induction hypothesis, $L - \{h\}$

defines $\frac{n^2+n+2}{2}$ regions. Now put h back in.



h intersects the n other lines in one point each for a total of n intersection points which divides

h into $n+1$ segments. Each segment separates a region defined by $L - \{h\}$ into two new regions.

This yields a total gain of $n+1$ to the number of regions.

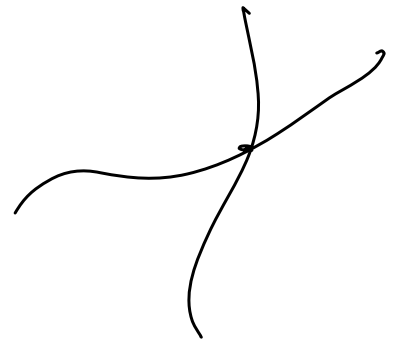
So the total number of regions defined by L

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number of regions given by } L - \{h\} &\rightarrow \frac{n^2 + n + 2}{2} + (n+1) = \text{total gain by putting } h \text{ back in} \\ &= \frac{n^2 + n + 2}{2} + \frac{2n + 2}{2} = \frac{n^2 + 3n + 4}{2}, \text{ as required} \end{aligned}$$

example A pseudoline is \circ just a line with some wainess.

A collection of pseudolines are in general position when

1. Every pair of pseudolines intersect once and do so transversely
2. No three pseudolines intersect at the same point.



A collection of n pseudolines defines $\frac{n^2 + n + 2}{2}$ regions.

Some proof.

Strong Induction (also called the 2nd principle of induction)

To show that $(\forall n) P(n)$ is true over domain $D = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$

we can show that

① $P(1)$ is true

and

② $(\forall n)(P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1))$.

example Prove that every integer $n \geq 2$ is either prime or a product of primes.

Base Case ($n=2$)

$n=2$ is prime.

Induction Step $P(2) \wedge P(3) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$

Assume that every $k \in \{2, \dots, n\}$ is either prime or a product of primes.

Show that $n+1$ is either prime or a product of primes.

If $n+1$ is prime, then we are done. If $n+1$ is

not prime, then $n+1 = ab$ where $a, b \in \{2, \dots, n\}$.

By the induction hypothesis

$$a = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_s \text{ where each } p_i \text{ is prime}$$

and

$$b = q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_t \text{ where each } q_j \text{ is prime.}$$

Therefore $n+1 = ab = p_1 \cdot p_2 \cdots p_s \cdot q_1 \cdot q_2 \cdots q_t$ which is a product of primes. \blacksquare

example Prove that every integer $n \geq 0$ can be written as

$$n = a_0 2^0 + a_1 2^1 + a_2 2^2 + \cdots + a_k 2^k \text{ where each } a_i \in \{0, 1\}.$$

proof

Base case $n=0 = 0 \cdot 2^0$.

Induction Step $P(0), P(1), \dots, P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$

Assume that every $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ can be written as

$$k = a_0 2^0 + a_1 2^1 + a_2 2^2 + \cdots + a_k 2^k \text{ where each } a_i \in \{0, 1\}.$$

Show that $n+1$ can also be written as a sum of consecutive powers of 2 with coefficients in $\{0, 1\}$.

Well $n+1$ is either even or odd. So

$$n+1 = 2k \quad \text{or} \quad n+1 = 2k+1 \quad \text{where} \quad k \in \{0, \dots, n\}.$$

By the induction hypothesis $k = a_0 2^0 + a_1 2^1 + a_2 2^2 + \dots + a_l 2^l$

when each $a_i \in \{0, 1\}$.

If $n+1 = 2k$, then, $n+1 = a_0 2^0 + a_1 2^1 + a_2 2^2 + \dots + a_l 2^{l+1}$ so

$$n+1 = 0 \cdot 2^0 + a_0 2^0 + a_1 2^1 + a_2 2^2 + \dots + a_l 2^{l+1}, \text{ as required.}$$

If $n+1 = 2k+1$, then $n+1 = 1 + a_0 2^0 + a_1 2^1 + a_2 2^2 + \dots + a_l 2^{l+1}$ so

$$n+1 = 1 \cdot 2^0 + a_0 2^0 + a_1 2^1 + a_2 2^2 + \dots + a_l 2^{l+1}, \text{ as required.}$$

example

<u>Base 10</u>	<u>Base 2</u>	<u>typically written</u>
0	$0 \cdot 2^0$	000
1	$1 \cdot 2^0$	001
2	$0 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^1$	010
3	$1 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^1$	011
4	$0 \cdot 2^0 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2$	100
5	$1 \cdot 2^0 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2$	101
6	$0 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2$	110
7	$1 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2$	111

Now

$$10 = 2 \cdot 5 = 2(1 \cdot 2^0 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2) = 0 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^3$$

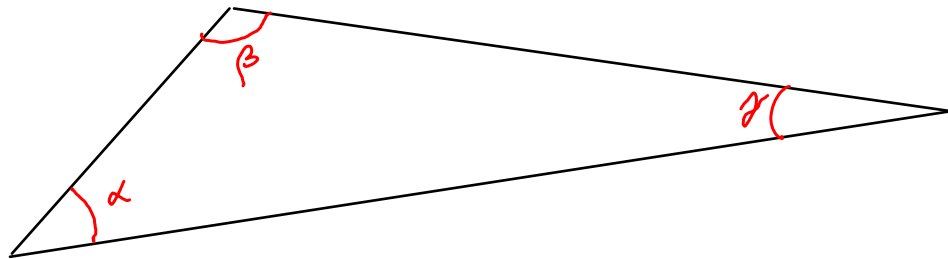
$$11 = 2 \cdot 5 + 1 = 2(1 \cdot 2^0 + 0 \cdot 2^1 + 1 \cdot 2^2) + 1 = 1 \cdot 2^0 + 1 \cdot 2^1 + 0 \cdot 2^2 + 1 \cdot 2^3$$

example Prove that The sum of The measures of The interior angles of an n -sided polygon ($n \geq 3$) is $(n-2)180^\circ$.

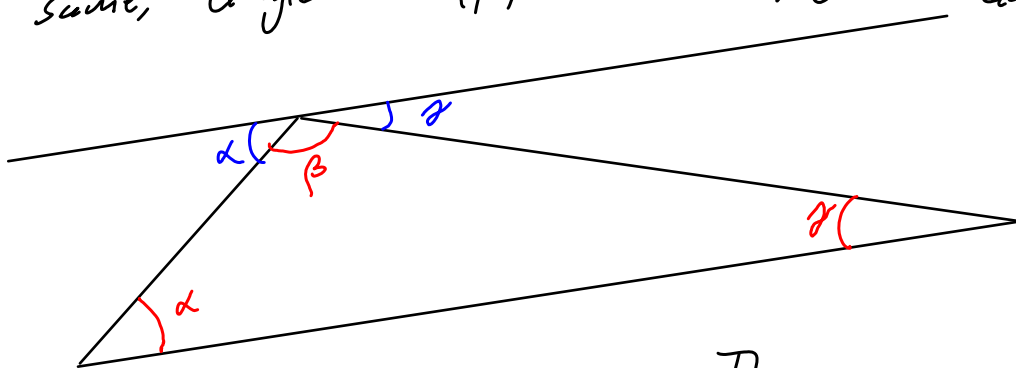
Base Case ($n=3$)

We want to show that The sum of The interior angles of a triangle is $(3-2)180^\circ = 180^\circ$.

Consider an arbitrary triangle with angles as indicated



Take one side of The triangle and place a parallel copy on The opposite vertex. Because opposite interior angles of transversal cutting two parallel lines are the same, angles α, β, γ form The angle of a straight line.



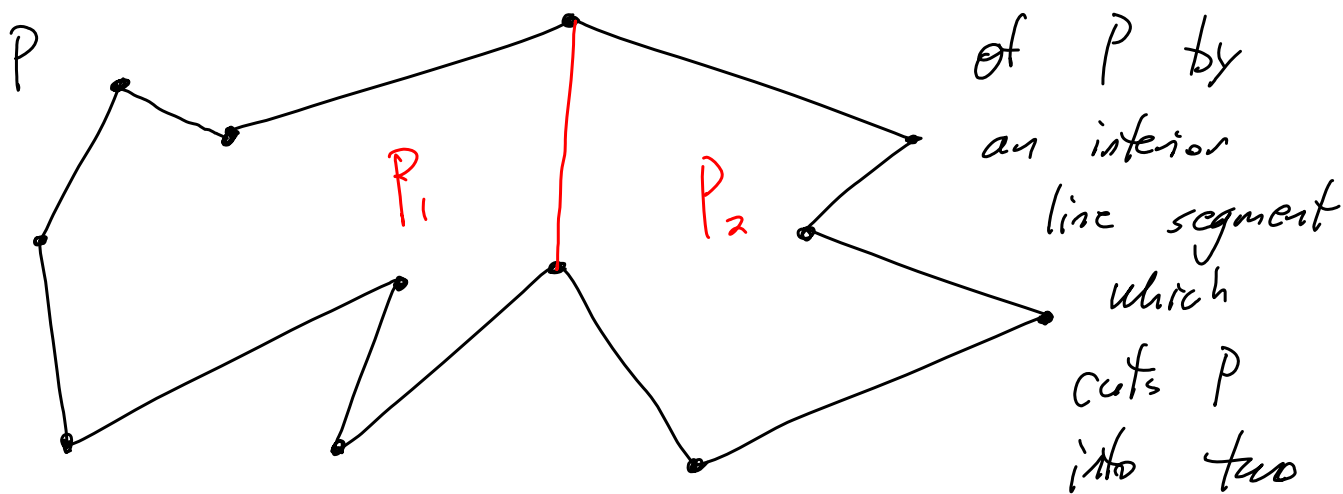
Thus $\alpha + \beta + \gamma = 180^\circ$.

Induction step $P(3) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$

Assume that for every $k \in \{3, \dots, n\}$ that the sum of the interior angles of a k -sided polygon is $(k-2)180^\circ$.

Show that the sum of the interior angles of an $(n+1)$ -sided polygon is $(n-1)180^\circ$.

Let P be an $(n+1)$ -sided polygon. Use a line to connect two vertices



of P by an interior line segment which cuts P into two

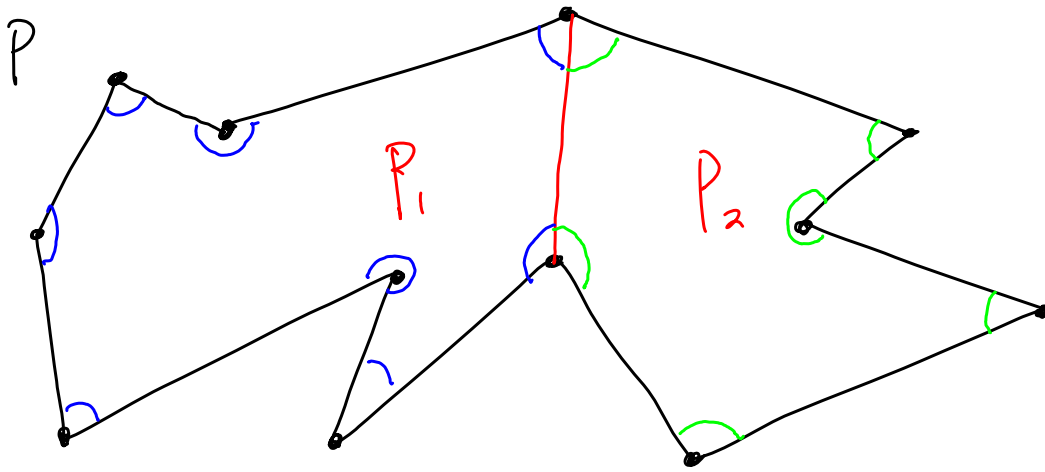
smaller polygons, P_1 and P_2

Say that P_1 has a sides and P_2 has b sides.

Therefore $a+b = n+3$ and $a, b \in \{3, \dots, n\}$.

By the induction hypothesis

Sum of angles of $P_1 = (a-2)180^\circ$ Sum of angles of $P_2 = (b-2)180^\circ$



Now

$$\text{Sum of the angles of } P = \text{Sum of the angles of } P_1 + \text{Sum of the angles of } P_2$$

$$= (a-2)180^\circ + (b-2)180^\circ$$

$$= (a+b-4)180^\circ$$

$$= (n+3-4)180^\circ$$

$$= (n-1)180^\circ \quad \blacksquare$$

Example Show that every propositional-logic statement can be rewritten equivalently using no connectors other than \rightarrow and $'$.

proof
The proof will be by induction on the number of connectors in a statement with base case $n=0$ connectors.

Base Case

If P has $n=0$ connectors, then P uses no connectors other than \rightarrow and $'$.

Induction Step

Assume that any propositional-logic statement with $k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ connectors can be rewritten equivalently using no connectors other than \rightarrow and $'$.

Show that any propositional-logic statement with $n+1$ connectors can be rewritten equivalently using no connectors other than \rightarrow and $'$.

If P is a statement with $n+1$ connectors, then either $P = A \vee B$, $A \wedge B$, $A \rightarrow B$, $A \leftrightarrow B$, or A' where

A has s connectors, B has t connectors, and

$s+t = n$. This implies that $s, t \in \{0, \dots, n\}$ so

by the induction hypothesis, $A \leftrightarrow C$ and $B \leftrightarrow D$

where C and D use no connectors other than \rightarrow and $'$.

So now either,

$$P = A \wedge B \leftrightarrow C \wedge D \leftrightarrow (C' \vee D)' \leftrightarrow (C \rightarrow D)' \quad \text{or}$$

$$P = A \vee B \leftrightarrow C \vee D \leftrightarrow C' \rightarrow D \quad \text{or}$$

$$P = A \rightarrow B \leftrightarrow C \rightarrow D \quad \text{or}$$

$$P = (A \leftrightarrow B) \leftrightarrow (C \leftrightarrow D) \leftrightarrow (C \rightarrow D) \wedge (D \rightarrow C) \leftrightarrow ((C \rightarrow D) \rightarrow (D \rightarrow C))'$$

or

$$P = A' \leftrightarrow C'$$

In each case, the final statement uses only the connectors \rightarrow and $'$. ▣

