



# Ch 5.1 & Ch 5.2: Mathematical Induction

ICS 141: Discrete Mathematics for Computer Science I

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# Proof by Induction

- Induction is a proof method for proving universally quantified proposition
  - Statements about all elements contained in a countable set
  - Ex:  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} (P(n))$
- Induction is one of the most useful tools for developing and analyzing algorithms
  - Correspondence between induction and recursive algorithms
  - Every iterative algorithm can be written recursively (and vice versa)

# Proof by Induction

- Composed of three main parts:
  - Inductive Hypothesis (I.H.):
    - Assumption that the proposition is true for some subset of values
  - Base Case(s) (or Basis Step(s)):
    - Prove that the proposition is true for “small” values
  - Inductive Case (or Inductive Step):
    - Prove that the proposition is true for all values that are not considered in the base case(s) using the Inductive Hypothesis

# Weak vs. Strong Induction

- Given a proposition  $P(n)$  for all values of  $n$  in a countable set
  - Ex:  $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$
- Weak Induction
  - Inductive Hypothesis: Assume inductively that  $P(k)$  is true for  $k = n - 1$ .
  - $P(n - 1) \Rightarrow P(n)$
- Strong Induction
  - Inductive Hypothesis: Assume inductively that  $P(k)$  is true for  $0 < k < n$ .
  - $(P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n - 1)) \Rightarrow P(n)$

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- Strong Induction
  - Inductive Hypothesis: Assume inductively that  $P(k)$  is true for  $0 < k < n$ .
  - $(P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n - 1)) \Rightarrow P(n)$
- In this course, ALWAYS use strong induction

# Axiom of Induction

- Induction is a valid proof technique because of the well-ordering property (Appendix 1)
  - Every non-empty subset of the set of positive integers contains a least element

# Axiom of Induction

1. Assume for the sake of contradiction that there exists a positive integer  $x$  such that  $P(x)$  is false
2. The set of positive integers for which  $P(n)$  is false is non-empty
3. By the well-ordering property, there exists a least element  $y$  such that  $P(y)$  is false
4. We know that  $P(1)$  is true, from the base case
5. Hence,  $y > 1$  and  $P(y - 1)$  must be true
6. Using the inductive hypothesis, we can show that  $P(y - 1) \Rightarrow P(y)$
7.  $P(y)$  is true which is a contradiction. Therefore, the assumption that  $P(x)$  is false is wrong.

# Boilerplate Template

- Proposition:  $P(n)$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

- Proof: (By induction)

Let  $n$  be an arbitrary integer such that  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Inductive Hypothesis (I.H.): Assume inductively that for all integers  $k$ , such that  $0 \leq k < n$ ,  $P(k)$  is true.

Case 1: (Base Case)

Assume that  $n = 0$ . [Prove base case here]. Therefore  $P(0)$  is true.

Case 2: (Inductive Case)

Assume that  $n > 0$ . [Prove inductive case here using the inductive hypothesis]. Therefore  $P(n)$  is true. ■



# Boilerplate Template

- Important notes:
  - Boilerplate shown only has a single base case
  - Some proofs by induction will have multiple base cases
  - The values of  $n$  assumed in the base case(s) and inductive case will change depending on the proposition
- When performing your proof sketch, start with the inductive case in order to figure out what the base cases are
- In this course, ALWAYS structure your proof by induction using the boilerplate

# Exercises

- Proposition: For all positive integers  $n$ ,

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

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- Proof: Let  $n$  be an arbitrary positive integer.  
Inductive Hypothesis: Assume inductively that for all integers  $k$ , such that  $1 \leq k < n$ ,  $P(k)$  is true. In other words,

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

# Exercises

- Proposition: For all positive integers  $n$ ,

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

- Proof:

Base Case: Assume  $n = 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^1 i &= 1 \\ &= \frac{1(2)}{2} \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} .\end{aligned}$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: For all positive integers  $n$ ,

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

- Proof:

Inductive Case: Assume  $n > 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n i &= 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-1) + n \\ &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i \right) + n . \end{aligned}$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: For all positive integers  $n$ ,

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

- Proof:

From our inductive hypothesis, we know that for  $1 \leq n-1 < n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i &= \frac{(n-1)(n-1+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: For all positive integers  $n$ ,

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

- Proof:  
Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i \right) + n &= \frac{n(n-1)}{2} + n \\ &= \frac{n(n-1)}{2} + \frac{2n}{2} \\ &= \frac{n^2 + n}{2} \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} . \end{aligned}$$



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- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.
- Proof: Let  $n$  be an arbitrary integer such that  $n > 23$ .  
Inductive Hypothesis: Assume inductively that for all integers  $k$ , such that  $23 < k < n$ ,  $P(k)$  is true. In other words, we can make a postage of  $k$ -cents using an unlimited supply of 5-cent and 7-cent stamps.

# Exercises

- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.

- Proof:

Case 1: (Base Case) Assume that  $n = 24$ .

We use two 7-cent stamps and two 5-cent stamps,

$$7 + 7 + 5 + 5 = 24 .$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.
- Proof:  
Case 2: (Base Case) Assume that  $n = 25$ .  
We use five 5-cent stamps,

$$5 + 5 + 5 + 5 + 5 = 25 .$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.

- Proof:

Case 3: (Base Case) Assume that  $n = 26$ .

We use three 7-cent stamps and one 5-cent stamp,

$$7 + 7 + 7 + 5 = 26 .$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.

- Proof:

Case 4: (Base Case) Assume that  $n = 27$ .

We use one 7-cent stamps and four 5-cent stamp,

$$7 + 5 + 5 + 5 + 5 = 27 .$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.
- Proof:  
Case 5: (Base Case) Assume that  $n = 28$ .  
We use four 7-cent stamps,

$$7 + 7 + 7 + 7 = 28 .$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.

- Proof:

Case 6: (Inductive Case) Assume that  $n > 28$ .

We choose to first use a 5-cent stamp, leaving  $(n - 5)$  cents remaining. From our inductive hypothesis, we know that for  $23 < n - 5 < n$ , we can make a postage of  $(n - 5)$  cents using an unlimited supply of 7-cent and 5-cent stamps.

Therefore, we can make a postage of  $n$  cents. ■

# Exercises

- Proposition: Given an unlimited supply of 5-cent stamps and 7-cent stamps, we can make any postage larger than 23 cents.
- *Question*: Is there another way to construct this inductive proof?



# Exercises

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$$2^n < n! .$$

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- Proof: Let  $n$  be an arbitrary integer such that  $n \geq 4$ .

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume inductively that for all integers  $k$ , such that  $4 \leq k < n$ ,  $P(k)$  is true. In other words,

$$2^k < k!$$

Base Case: Assume  $n = 4$ .

$2^n = 2^4 = 16$  and  $n! = 4! = 24$ , therefore,

$$2^n = 16 < 24 = n!$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: For every integer  $n \geq 4$ ,

$$2^n < n! .$$

- Proof:

Inductive Case: Assume  $n > 4$ .

From our inductive hypothesis, we know that for

$$4 \leq n - 1 < n,$$

$$2^{n-1} < (n - 1)!$$

Hence,

$$2^n = 2 \cdot 2^{n-1}$$

$$< 2 \cdot (n - 1)!$$

$$< n \cdot (n - 1)!$$

$$= n! .$$



# Exercises

- Proposition: (Bernoulli's Inequality) Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z} - \mathbb{Z}^-$ . If  $h \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $h > -1$ , then

$$1 + nh \leq (1 + h)^n .$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: (Bernoulli's Inequality) Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z} - \mathbb{Z}^-$ . If  $h \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $h > -1$ , then

$$1 + nh \leq (1 + h)^n .$$

- Proof: Let  $n$  be an arbitrary non-negative integer.  
Inductive Hypothesis: Assume inductively that for all integers  $k$ , such that  $0 \leq k < n$ ,  $P(k)$  is true. In other words,

$$1 + kh \leq (1 + h)^k .$$

Base Case: Assume  $n = 0$ .

$1 + nh = 1 + 0 \cdot h = 1$  and  $(1 + h)^n = (1 + h)^0 = 1$ . Therefore,

$$1 + nh = 1 \leq 1 = (1 + h)^n .$$

# Exercises

- Proposition: (Bernoulli's Inequality) Let  $n \in \mathbb{Z} - \mathbb{Z}^-$ . If  $h \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $h > -1$ , then

$$1 + nh \leq (1 + h)^n .$$

- Proof:

Inductive Case: Assume  $n > 0$ .

From our inductive hypothesis, we know that for

$$0 \leq n - 1 < n,$$

$$1 + (n - 1)h \leq (1 + h)^{n-1} .$$

Hence,  $(1 + h)^n = (1 + h)^{n-1}(1 + h)$

$$\geq (1 + (n - 1)h)(1 + h)$$

$$= 1 + h + (n - 1)h + (n - 1)h^2$$

$$= 1 + nh + (n - 1)h^2$$

$$\geq 1 + nh .$$

