

Sequences and Mathematical Induction

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5.2 Mathematical Induction I



5.2 Mathematical Induction I

- Part 1: What is Mathematical Induction
- Part 2: Induction as a Method of Proof/Thinking
- Part 3: Proving sum of integers and geometric sequences
- Part 4: Proving a Divisibility Property and Inequality
- Part 5: Proving a Property of a Sequence
- Part 6: Induction Versus Deduction Thinking



Warm-up 1: Consider the expression

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1)$$

1. What is $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1)$
when $n = 3$? $(2 \cdot 1 - 1) + (2 \cdot 2 - 1) + (2 \cdot 3 - 1) = 1 + 3 + 5$
when $n = 2$? $(2 \cdot 1 - 1) + (2 \cdot 2 - 1) = 1 + 3$
when $n = 1$? $(2 \cdot 1 - 1) = 1$ ← **NOTE: The numbers 3, 5, and 7 don't appear!**
2. What is $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1)$
when $n = k$? $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k - 1)$
when $n = k + 1$? $1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k - 1) + (2(k + 1) - 1)$
 $= 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k + 1)$

What is the **next-to-last term** of
 $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k + 1)$?



Warm-up 1: Consider the expression $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1)$

1. What is $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1)$
 when $n = 3$? $(2 \cdot 1 - 1) + (2 \cdot 2 - 1) + (2 \cdot 3 - 1) = 1 + 3 + 5$
 when $n = 2$? $(2 \cdot 1 - 1) + (2 \cdot 2 - 1) = 1 + 3$
 when $n = 1$? $(2 \cdot 1 - 1) = 1$ ← **NOTE: The numbers 3, 5, and 7 don't appear!**

2. What is $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1)$
 when $n = k$? $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k - 1) = 2k + 2 - 1 = 2k + 1$
 when $n = k + 1$? $1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k - 1) + (2(k + 1) - 1)$
 $= 1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (2k + 1)$

What is the **next-to-last term** of
 $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k + 1)$? $2k - 1$



Mathematical Induction Note

Do not mix between the index of a term (e.g, k) and the value of that term (e.g., $2k - 1$)

the **next term after k** is $k + 1$ which makes the value $2(k + 1) - 1$

When proving a **formula** by mathematical induction, it is virtually always desirable to make the **next-to-last-term** explicit, as was done above.

Doing so, makes it easier to see how the inductive hypothesis will apply.



Warm-up 2: Consider the property
 $P(n): 1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1) = n^2$

*Why the colon?
Why not = ?*

1. What is $P(1)$? $1 = 1^2$
2. What is $P(k)$? $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k - 1) = k^2$
3. What is $P(k + 1)$? $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2(k + 1) - 1) = (k + 1)^2$

Or: $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k + 1) = (k + 1)^2$

Caution! $P(1)$ is NOT $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + 1 = 1^2$.



Introduction

Any whole number of cents of at least 8c/ can be obtained using 3¢ and 5¢ coins.
 More formally:

For all integers $n \geq 8$, n cents can be obtained using 3¢ and 5¢ coins.

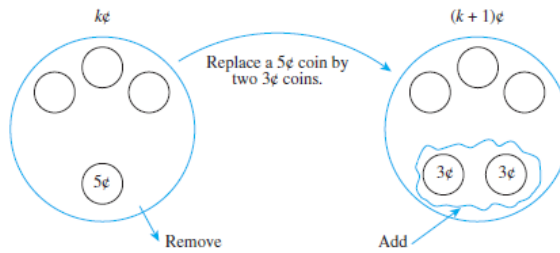
Even more formally:

For all integers $n \geq 8$, $P(n)$ is true, where $P(n)$ is the sentence
 “ n cents can be obtained using 3¢ and 5¢ coins.”

Number of Cents	How to Obtain It
8¢	3¢ + 5¢
9¢	3¢ + 3¢ + 3¢
10¢	5¢ + 5¢
11¢	3¢ + 3¢ + 5¢
12¢	3¢ + 3¢ + 3¢ + 3¢
13¢	3¢ + 5¢ + 5¢
14¢	3¢ + 3¢ + 3¢ + 5¢
15¢	5¢ + 5¢ + 5¢
16¢	3¢ + 3¢ + 5¢ + 5¢
17¢	3¢ + 3¢ + 3¢ + 3¢ + 5¢

Cont....

The cases shown in the **table** provide inductive evidence to support the claim that $P(n)$ is true for general n . Indeed, $P(n)$ is true for all $n \geq 8$ if, and only if, it is possible to continue filling in the table for arbitrarily large values of n . The k^{th} line of the table gives information about how to obtain $k\epsilon$ using 3ϵ and 5ϵ coins. To continue the table to the next row, directions must be given for how to obtain $(k + 1)\epsilon$ using 3ϵ and 5ϵ coins. **The secret** is to observe first that if $k\epsilon$ can be obtained using at least one 5ϵ coin, then $(k + 1)\epsilon$ can be obtained by replacing the 5ϵ coin by two 3ϵ coins,

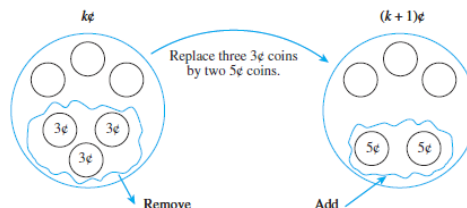


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Cont...

If, on the other hand, $k\epsilon$ is obtained without using a 5ϵ coin, then 3ϵ coins are used exclusively. And since the total is at least 8ϵ , three or more 3ϵ coins must be included. **Three of the 3ϵ coins can be replaced by two 5ϵ coins to obtain a total of $(k + 1)\epsilon$.** Any argument of this form is an argument by **mathematical induction**. In general, mathematical induction is a method for proving that a property defined for integers n is true for all values of n that are greater than or equal to some initial integer.



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Principal Of Mathematical Induction

Principle of Mathematical Induction

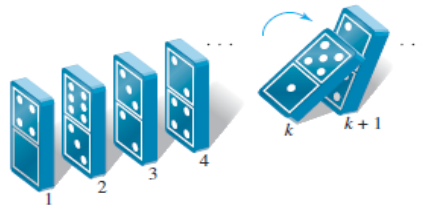
Let $P(n)$ be a property that is defined for integers n , and let a be a fixed integer. Suppose the following two statements are true:

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

Then the statement

for all integers $n \geq a$, $P(n)$

is true.



If the k th domino falls backward, it pushes the $(k + 1)$ st domino backward also.

Method Of Proof

Method of Proof by Mathematical Induction

Consider a statement of the form, "For all integers $n \geq a$, a property $P(n)$ is true." To prove such a statement, perform the following two steps:

Step 1 (basis step): Show that $P(a)$ is true.

Step 2 (inductive step): Show that for all integers $k \geq a$, if $P(k)$ is true then $P(k + 1)$ is true. To perform this step,

suppose that $P(k)$ is true, where k is any particular but arbitrarily chosen integer with $k \geq a$.

[This supposition is called the inductive hypothesis.]

Then

show that $P(k + 1)$ is true.

Induction is a technique for proving things on finite and infinite sequences.



Finding Terms of Sequences

Proposition: For all integers $n \geq 8$, $n\epsilon$ can be obtained using 3ϵ and 5ϵ coins

Proof: Let the property $P(n)$ be the sentence “ $n\epsilon$ can be obtained using 3ϵ and 5ϵ coins”. $\leftarrow P(n)$

Show that $P(8)$ is true:

$P(8)$ is true because 8ϵ can be obtained using one 3ϵ coin and one 5ϵ coin.

Show that for all integers $k \geq 8$, if $P(k)$ is true then $P(k+1)$ is also true:

Suppose that k is any integer with $k \geq 8$ such that $k\epsilon$ can be obtained using 3ϵ and 5ϵ coins. $\leftarrow P(k)$
(inductive hypothesis)



Explicit formula

$(k+1)\epsilon$ can be obtained using 3ϵ and 5ϵ coins. $\leftarrow P(k+1)$

Case 1 (There is a 5ϵ coin among those used to make up the $k\epsilon$)

In this case replace the 5ϵ -coin by two 3ϵ -coins; the result will be $(k+1)\epsilon$

Case 2 (There is not a 5ϵ coin among those used to make up the $k\epsilon$)

In this case, because $k \geq 8$, at least three 3ϵ coins must have been used. So remove three 3ϵ -coins and replace them by two 5ϵ coins; the result will be $(k+1)\epsilon$.

Thus in either case $(k+1)\epsilon$ can be obtained using 3ϵ and 5ϵ coins.



Prove $P(n)$: $1+2+3+\dots+n=n(n+1)/2$

Formula for the sum of the first n integers: For all integers $n \geq 1$,

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

Is like proving that these programs prints the same results for $n \geq 1$

for (i=1, i≤n; i++)	S=(n(n+1))/2;
S=S+i;	Print ("%d",S);
Print ("%d", S);	



Propositions

Proposition: For all integers $n \geq 1$,
 $1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n+1)/2$

Proof:

Show that $P(1)$ is true:

To establish $P(1)$, we must show that

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} \quad \leftarrow P(1)$$

But the left-hand side of this equation is 1 and the right-hand side is

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

also. Hence $P(1)$ is true.

Show that for all integers $k \geq 1$, if $P(k)$ is true then $P(k+1)$ is also true:

[Suppose that $P(k)$ is true for a particular but arbitrarily chosen integer $k \geq 1$.

That is:] Suppose that k is any integer with $k \geq 1$ such that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \quad \leftarrow P(k) \text{ inductive hypothesis}$$



Theorem: The sum of the first n integers is $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

Theorem: $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ property is that this relationship holds true.

Inductive step:

We want to show that for some integer $k \geq 1$, if $\sum_{i=1}^k i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$.

suppose IH: Suppose $\sum_{i=1}^k i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$ for some $k \geq 1$.

We want to show that $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$.



Cont...

[We must show that $P(k+1)$ is true. That is:] We must show that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1)[(k+1)+1]}{2},$$

or, equivalently, that

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}. \quad \leftarrow P(k+1)$$

[We will show that the left-hand side and the right-hand side of $P(k+1)$ are equal to the same quantity and thus are equal to each other.]

The left-hand side of $P(k+1)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (k+1) &= 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) && \text{by making the next-to-last term explicit} \\ &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) && \text{by substitution from the inductive hypothesis} \\ &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + \frac{2(k+1)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Cont...

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{k^2 + k}{2} + \frac{2k + 2}{2} \\ &= \frac{k^2 + 3k + 1}{2} \end{aligned} \quad \text{by algebra.}$$

And the right-hand side of $P(k + 1)$ is

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

Thus the two sides of $P(k + 1)$ are equal to the same quantity and so they are equal to each other. Therefore the equation $P(k + 1)$ is true [as was to be shown].

[Since we have proved both the basis step and the inductive step, we conclude that the theorem is true.]

Sum of Geometric Series

For any real number r except 1, and any integer $n \geq 0$,

$$\sum_{i=0}^n r^i = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}.$$

Proof (by mathematical induction):

Suppose r is a particular but arbitrarily chosen real number that is not equal to 1, and let the property $P(n)$ be the equation


$$\sum_{i=0}^n r^i = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1} \quad \leftarrow P(n)$$

We must show that $P(n)$ is true for all integers $n \geq 0$. We do this by mathematical induction on n .

Show that $P(0)$ is true:

To establish $P(0)$, we must show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^0 r^i = \frac{r^{0+1} - 1}{r - 1} \quad \leftarrow P(0)$$



Cont....

The left-hand side of this equation is $r^0 = 1$ and the right-hand side is

$$\frac{r^{0+1} - 1}{r - 1} = \frac{r - 1}{r - 1} = 1$$

also because $r^1 = r$ and $r \neq 1$. Hence $P(0)$ is true.

Show that for all integers $k \geq 0$, if $P(k)$ is true then $P(k + 1)$ is also true:
[Suppose that $P(k)$ is true for a particular but arbitrarily chosen integer $k \geq 0$. That is:]
 Let k be any integer with $k \geq 0$, and suppose that

$$\sum_{i=0}^k r^i = \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} P(k) \\ \text{inductive hypothesis} \end{array}$$

[We must show that $P(k + 1)$ is true. That is:] We must show that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^i = \frac{r^{(k+1)+1} - 1}{r - 1},$$

or, equivalently, that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^i = \frac{r^{k+2} - 1}{r - 1}. \quad \leftarrow P(k + 1)$$



Cont...

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} r^i = \sum_{i=0}^k r^i + r^{k+1}$$

$$= \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} + r^{k+1}$$

$$= \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1} + \frac{r^{k+1}(r - 1)}{r - 1}$$

$$= \frac{(r^{k+1} - 1) + r^{k+1}(r - 1)}{r - 1}$$

$$= \frac{r^{k+1} - 1 + r^{k+2} - r^{k+1}}{r - 1}$$

$$= \frac{r^{k+2} - 1}{r - 1}$$

by writing the $(k + 1)$ st term separately from the first k terms

by substitution from the inductive hypothesis

by multiplying the numerator and denominator of the second term by $(r - 1)$ to obtain a common denominator

by adding fractions

by multiplying out and using the fact that $r^{k+1} \cdot r = r^{k+1+1} = r^{k+2}$

by canceling the r^{k+1} 's.

which is the right-hand side of $P(k + 1)$ [as was to be shown.]

Prove P(n): $1 + 5 + 5^2 + 5^3 + \dots + 5^n = \frac{5^{n+1} - 1}{4}$ for all integers $n \geq 0$.

Formula for the sum of the terms of a geometric sequence: For all real numbers $r \neq 1$ and all integers $n \geq 0$, proving

$$1 + r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots + r^n = \frac{r^{n+1} - 1}{r - 1}.$$

Is like proving that these codes will return the same output.

```
int n, r, sum=0;
int i;
scanf("%d",&n);
scanf("%d",&r);
```

```
if(r != 1) {
    for(i=0; i<=n; i++) {
        sum = sum + pow(r,i);
    }
    printf("%d\n", sum);
}
```

```
int n, r, sum=0;
scanf("%d",&n);
scanf("%d",&r);
```

```
if(r != 1) {
    sum=((pow(r,n+1))-1)/(r-1);
    printf("%d\n", sum);
}
```

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Outline a proof by math induction: $1 + 5 + 5^2 + 5^3 + \dots + 5^n = \frac{5^{n+1} - 1}{4}$ for all integers $n \geq 0$.

Proof by mathematical induction: Let the property P(n) be the equation

$$1 + 5 + 5^2 + 5^3 + \dots + 5^n = \frac{5^{n+1} - 1}{4}.$$

Show that the property is true for $n = 0$: We must show that

$$1 = \frac{5^{0+1} - 1}{4}.$$

Show that for all integers $k \geq 0$, if the property is true for $n = k$, then it is true for $n = k + 1$: Let k be an integer with $k \geq 0$, and **suppose** that

$$1 + 5 + 5^2 + 5^3 + \dots + 5^k = \frac{5^{k+1} - 1}{4}. \quad \text{[This is the inductive hypothesis.]}$$

We must **show** that

$$1 + 5 + 5^2 + 5^3 + \dots + 5^{k+1} = \frac{5^{(k+1)+1} - 1}{4}.$$

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Prove P(n): $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1) = n^2$

Example: Prove that for all integers $n \geq 1$,

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1) = n^2.$$

Proof: Consider the equation

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1) = n^2 \quad \leftarrow \text{the property}$$

Show that the property is true for $n = 1$:

When $n = 1$, the property is the equation $1 = 1^2$.

But the left-hand side (LHS) of this equation is 1, and the right-hand side (RHS) is 1^2 , which equals 1 also.

So the property is true for $n = 1$.

It's really important to know what the property is.

Inductive Step for the proof that for all integers $n \geq 1$,
 $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2n - 1) = n^2$.

Show that \forall integers $k \geq 1$, if the property is true for $n = k$ then it is true for $n = k + 1$:

Let k be any integer with $k \geq 1$, and suppose that the property is true for $n = k$. In other words, **suppose** that

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k - 1) = k^2.$$

This supposition is called the **inductive hypothesis**.

We must show that the property is true for $n = k + 1$.

In other words, we must show that

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2(k + 1) - 1) = (k + 1)^2,$$

or, equivalently, we must **show** that

$$1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k + 1) = (k + 1)^2.$$



Inductive hypothesis: $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k - 1) = k^2$.
Show: $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k + 1) = (k + 1)^2$.

But the LHS of the equation to be shown is

$$\begin{aligned}
 &1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k + 1) \\
 &= 1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + \dots + (2k - 1) + (2(k + 1) - 1) \\
 &\hspace{15em} \textit{by making the next-to-last-term explicit} \\
 &= k^2 + (2k + 1) \hspace{2em} \textit{by substitution from the inductive hypothesis} \\
 &= (k + 1)^2 \hspace{5em} \textit{by algebra,}
 \end{aligned}$$

which equals the RHS of the equation to be shown.

This proves that **if** the property is true for $n = k$, **then** it is true for $n = k + 1$ and completes the proof by mathematical induction.



Example: Sum of Cubes

Proposition: For all integers $n \geq 1$,

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 = (1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n)^2$$

Is there another way of writing this?

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n i \right)^2 \rightarrow \text{We know this is } = \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right)^2 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

So, our theorem now is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{n^2(n + 1)^2}{4}$$



Base Case Step

Proof by Induction

Base Case: Let $n = 1$

$$\text{LHS: } \sum_{i=1}^1 i^3 = 1^3 = 1$$

$$\text{RHS: } \frac{1^2(1+1)^2}{4} = \frac{1 \cdot 2^2}{4} = \frac{1 \cdot 4}{4} = 1$$

So our base case holds!



Inductive Step

Inductive Step:

We want to show that if $\sum_{i=1}^k i^3 = \frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4}$
for some $k \geq 1$, then $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^3 = \frac{(k+1)^2((k+1)+1)^2}{4}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i^3 = \sum_{i=1}^k i^3 + (k+1)^3 \quad \text{by pulling off the last term}$$

$$= \frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4} + (k+1)^3 \quad \text{by the IH}$$

$$= \frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4} + \frac{4(k+1)^3}{4} \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{k^2(k+1)^2}{4} + \frac{4(k+1)^3}{4}} \right\} \text{algebra}$$
$$= \frac{k^2(k+1)^2 + 4(k+1)^3}{4}$$



Cont.

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

} by algebra

Which was to be shown. \square



Example: Sum of Squares - HW

Proposition: For all integers $n \geq 1$,

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$