

# Foundations of Computer Science

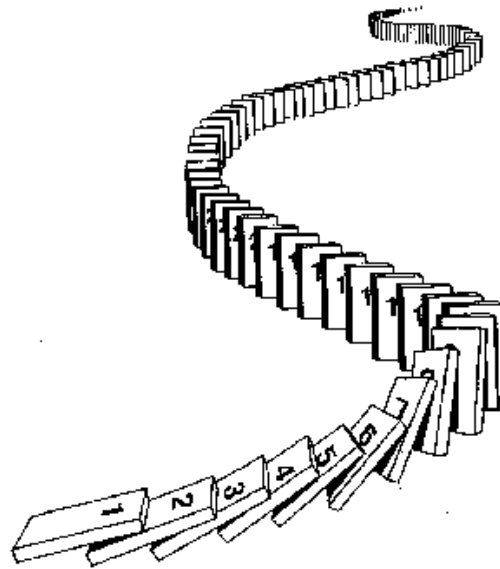
## Lecture 5

### Induction: Proving “For All ...”

Induction: What and Why?

Induction: Good, Bad and Ugly

Induction, Well-Ordering and the Smallest Counter-Example



- ① Proving “IF ..., THEN ...”.
  
- ② Proving “...IF AND ONLY IF ...”.
  
- ③ Proof patterns:
  - ▶ direct proof;
    - ★ If  $x, y \in \mathbb{Q}$ , then  $x + y \in \mathbb{Q}$ .
    - ★ If  $4^x - 1$  is divisible by 3, then  $4^{x+1} - 1$  is divisible by 3.
  - ▶ contraposition;
    - ★ If  $r$  is irrational, then  $\sqrt{r}$  is irrational.
    - ★ If  $x^2$  is even, then  $x$  is even.
  - ▶ contradiction.
    - ★  $\sqrt{2}$  is irrational.
    - ★  $a^2 - 4b \neq 2$ .
    - ★  $2\sqrt{n} + 1/\sqrt{n+1} \leq 2\sqrt{n+1}$ .

# Today: Induction, Proving “...for all ...”

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- 1 What is induction.
- 2 Why do we need it?
- 3 The principle of induction. Toppling the dominos. The induction template.
- 4 Examples.
- 5 Induction, Well-Ordering and the Smallest Counter-Example.

# Dispensing Postage Using 5¢ and 7¢ Stamps

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19¢	20¢	21¢	22¢	23¢
7,7,5	5,5,5,5	7,7,7	5,5,5,7	?

Perseverance is a virtue when tinkering.

19¢	20¢	21¢	22¢	23¢	24¢	25¢	26¢	27¢	28¢
7,7,5	5,5,5,5	7,7,7	5,5,5,7	–	7,7,5,5	5,5,5,5,5	7,7,7,5	5,5,5,5,7	7,7,7,7

Can every postage greater than 23¢ can be dispensed?

Intuitively yes.

**Induction** formalizes that intuition.

# Why Do We Need Induction?

Predicate	Claim
(i) $P(n) =$ “5¢ and 7¢ stamps can make postage $n$ .”	$\forall n \geq 24 : P(n)$
(ii) $P(n) =$ “ $n^2 - n + 41$ a prime number.”	$\forall n \geq 1 : P(n)$
(iii) $P(n) =$ “ $4^n - 1$ is divisible by 3.”	$\forall n \geq 1 : P(n)$

**TINKER!**

$n$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	...	40	41
$n^2 - n + 41$	41✓	43✓	47✓	53✓	61✓	71✓	83✓	97✓	...	1601✓	1681✗
$(4^n - 1)/3$	1	5	21	85	341	1365	5461	21845	...		

How can we prove something for *all*  $n \geq 1$ ? Verification takes too long!  
 Prove for general  $n$ . Can be tricky.  
**Induction.** Systematic.

# Is $4^n - 1$ Divisible by 3 for $n \geq 1$ ?

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$$P(n) = \text{“}4^n - 1 \text{ is divisible by 3.”}$$

We proved:

$$\underbrace{\text{IF } 4^n - 1 \text{ is divisible by 3,}}_{P(n)} \quad \text{THEN} \quad \underbrace{4^{n+1} - 1 \text{ is divisible by 3.}}_{P(n+1)}$$

*Proof.* We prove the claim using a direct proof.

- 1: Assume that  $P(n)$  is  $\top$ , that is  $4^n - 1$  is divisible by 3.
- 2: This means that  $4^n - 1 = 3k$  for an integer  $k$ , or that  $4^n = 3k + 1$ .
- 3: Observe that  $4^{n+1} = 4 \cdot 4^n$ , and since  $4^n = 3k + 1$ , it follows that

$$4^{n+1} = 4 \cdot (3k + 1) = 12k + 4.$$

Therefore  $4^{n+1} - 1 = 12k + 3 = 3(4k + 1)$  is a multiple of 3 ( $4k + 1$  is an integer).

- 4: Since  $4^{n+1} - 1$  is a multiple of 3, we have shown that  $4^{n+1} - 1$  is divisible by 3.
- 5: Therefore,  $P(n + 1)$  is  $\top$ . ■

We proved:

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

What use is this?

(Reasoning in the absense of facts.)

# $4^n - 1$ is Divisible by 3 for $n \geq 1$

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$$P(n) = \text{“}4^n - 1 \text{ is divisible by 3.”}$$

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

## NEW INFORMATION:

From tinkering we know that  $P(1)$  is T:  $4^1 - 3 = 3$  ← divisible by 3 (new fact)

$$\checkmark P(1) \rightarrow \checkmark P(2) \rightarrow \checkmark P(3) \rightarrow \checkmark P(4) \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \checkmark P(n-1) \rightarrow \checkmark P(n) \rightarrow \dots$$

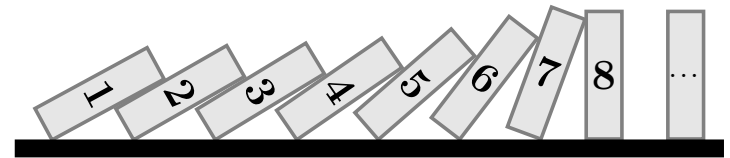
# By Induction, $4^n - 1$ is Divisible by 3 for $n \geq 1$

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$$P(n) = \text{“}4^n - 1 \text{ is divisible by 3.”}$$

- ①  $P(1)$  is T. ✓
  - ②  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$  is T. ✓
- } By induction,  $P(n)$  is T for all  $n \geq 1$ .

$$\boxed{P(1)} \rightarrow P(2) \rightarrow P(3) \rightarrow P(4) \rightarrow P(5) \rightarrow \dots$$



$P(n)$  form an infinite chain of dominos.  
Topple the first and they *all* fall.

**Practice.** Exercise 5.2.



# Induction Template

**Induction to prove:**  $\forall n \geq 1 : P(n)$ .

*Proof.* We use induction to prove  $\forall n \geq 1 : P(n)$ .

- 1: Show that  $P(1)$  is T. (“simple” verification.) [base case]
- 2: Show  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$  for  $n \geq 1$  [induction step]

Prove the *implication* using direct proof or contraposition.

<p><u>Direct</u></p> <p>Assume <math>P(n)</math> is T.          (valid derivations)</p> <p>↓ must show for any <math>n \geq 1</math>          must use <math>P(n)</math> here</p> <p><b>Show <math>P(n + 1)</math> is T.</b></p>	<p><u>Contraposition</u></p> <p>Assume <math>P(n + 1)</math> is F.          (valid derivations)</p> <p>↓ must show for any <math>n \geq 1</math>          must use <math>\neg P(n + 1)</math> here</p> <p><b>Show <math>P(n)</math> is F.</b></p>
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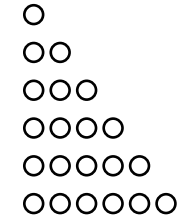
3: Conclude: by induction,  $\forall n \geq 1 : P(n)$ . ■

- Prove the *implication*  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$  for a *general*  $n \geq 1$ . (Often direct proof)  
Why is this easier than just proving  $P(n)$  for general  $n$ ?
- Assume  $P(n)$  is T, and reformulate it mathematically.
- Somewhere in the proof you *must* use  $P(n)$  to prove  $P(n + 1)$ .
- End with a statement that  $P(n + 1)$  is T.

# Sum of Integers

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$$1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + (n - 1) + n = ?$$

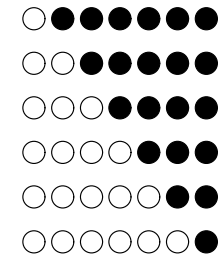


**The GREAT Gauss (age 8-10):**

$$S(n) = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n$$

$$S(n) = n + (n - 1) + \cdots + 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2S(n) &= (n + 1) + (n + 1) + \cdots + (n + 1) \\ &= n \times (n + 1) \end{aligned}$$



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

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

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*Proof.* (By Induction)  $P(n) : \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$ .

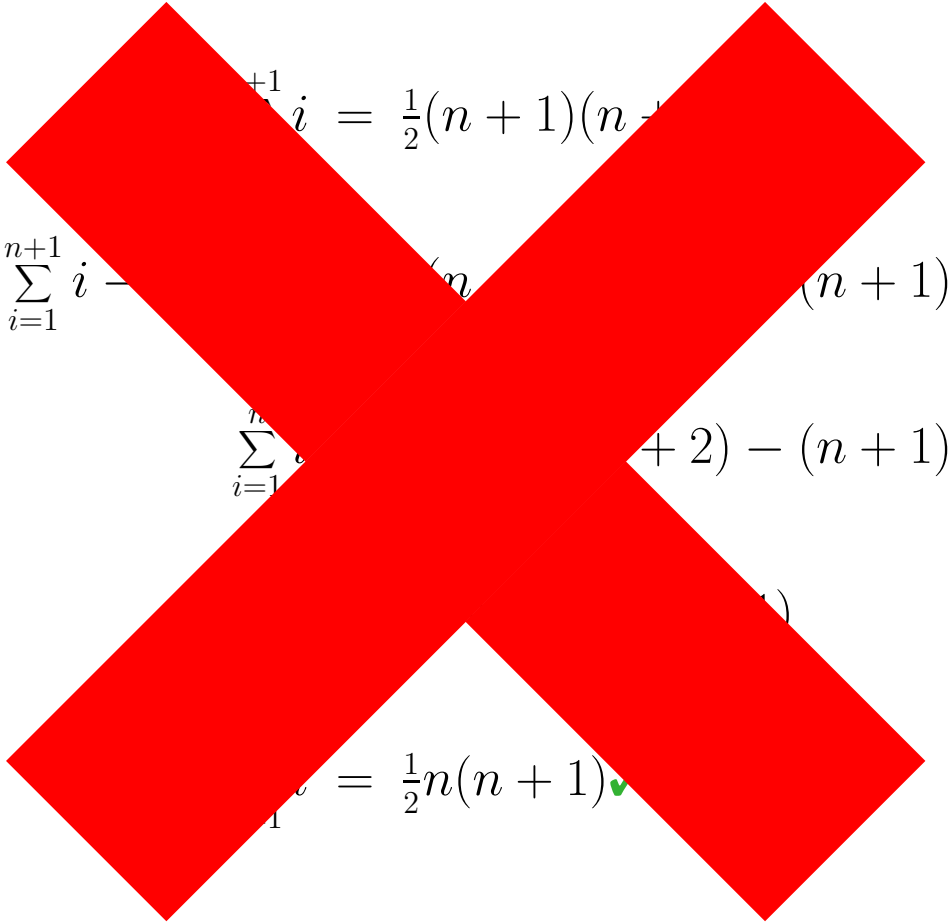
- 1: [**Base case**]  $P(1)$  claims that  $1 = \frac{1}{2} \times 1 \times (1+1)$ , which is clearly T.
- 2: [**Induction step**] We show  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$  for all  $n \geq 1$ , using a direct proof.  
*Assume (induction hypothesis)  $P(n)$  is T:  $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$ .*  
*Show  $P(n+1)$  is T:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} i = \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{n+1})(\mathbf{n+1}+1)$ .*

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} i &= \sum_{i=1}^n i + (n+1) && \text{[key step]} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{n(n+1)} + (n+1) && \text{[induction hypothesis } P(n)\text{]} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(n+1)(n+2) && \text{[algebra]} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{n+1})(\mathbf{n+1}+1).\end{aligned}$$

This is exactly what was to be shown. So,  $P(n+1)$  is T.

- 3: By induction,  $P(n)$  is T for all  $n \geq 1$ . ■

# VERY BAD! Induction Step



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

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

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

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

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

Compare:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} i = \sum_{i=1}^n i + (n+1)$

$7 = 4$	
$\rightarrow 4 = 7$	<small>(<math>a=b \rightarrow b=a</math>)</small>
$+ 11 = 11 \checkmark$ (pew 🤪)	
(Have we proved $7=4$ ?)	

(pew, nothing bad 😊)

To start, you can **NEVER** assert (as though its true) what you are trying to prove.

# Sum of Integer Squares

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

Replace Gauss with **TINKERING**: *method of differences*.

	$n$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	$S(n)$	1	5	14	30	55	91	140
1st difference	$S'(n)$		4	9	16	25	36	49
2nd difference	$S''(n)$			5	7	9	11	13
3rd difference	$S'''(n)$				2	2	2	2

3<sup>rd</sup> difference constant is like 3<sup>rd</sup> derivative constant. So guess:

$$S(n) = a_0 + a_1n + a_2n^2 + a_3n^3.$$

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 + a_1 + a_2 + a_3 &= 1 \\ a_0 + 2a_1 + 4a_2 + 8a_3 &= 5 \\ a_0 + 3a_1 + 9a_2 + 27a_3 &= 14 \\ a_0 + 4a_1 + 16a_2 + 64a_3 &= 30 \end{aligned}$$

$n$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$\frac{1}{6}n + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{3}n^3$	1	5	14	30	55	91	140	204	285	385

$$a_0 = 0, a_1 = \frac{1}{6}, a_2 = \frac{1}{2}, a_3 = \frac{1}{3}$$

**Proof:**  $S(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{1}{6}n + \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{1}{3}n^3 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$

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*Proof.* (By induction.)  $P(n) : \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$ .

1: [**Base case**]  $P(1)$ , claims that  $1 = \frac{1}{6} \times 1 \times 2 \times 3$ , which is clearly  $\mathsf{T}$ .

2: [**Induction step**] Show  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . Direct proof.

*Assume (induction hypothesis)  $P(n)$  is  $\mathsf{T}$ :  $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$ .*

*Show  $P(n+1)$  is  $\mathsf{T}$ :  $\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} i^2 = \frac{1}{6}(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)$ .*

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} i^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + (n+1)^2 && \text{[key step]} \\ &= \frac{1}{6}\mathbf{n(n+1)(2n+1)} + (n+1)^2 && \text{[induction hypothesis } P(n)\text{]} \\ &= \frac{1}{6}(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3) && \text{[algebra]} \end{aligned}$$

This is exactly what was to be shown. So,  $P(n+1)$  is  $\mathsf{T}$ .

3: By induction,  $P(n)$  is  $\mathsf{T}$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . ■

# Induction Gone Wrong

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$$\boxed{P(1)} \rightarrow P(2) \rightarrow P(3) \rightarrow P(4) \rightarrow P(5) \rightarrow P(6) \rightarrow P(7) \rightarrow \dots$$

No Base Case.

$$P(1) \rightarrow P(2) \rightarrow P(3) \rightarrow P(4) \rightarrow \dots$$

False:  $P(n) : n \leq n + 1$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

$$n \leq n + 1 \rightarrow n + 1 \leq n + 2 \quad \text{therefore} \quad P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1).$$

[Every link is proved, but without the base case, you have *nothing*.]

Broken Chain.

$$\boxed{P(1)} \quad P(2) \rightarrow P(3) \rightarrow P(4) \rightarrow \dots$$

False:  $P(n) : “\text{all balls in any set of } n \text{ balls are the same color.}”$

**Induction step.** Suppose any set of  $n$  balls have the same color. Consider any set of  $n + 1$  balls  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n, b_{n+1}$ . So,  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$  have the same color and  $b_2, b_3, \dots, b_{n+1}$  have the same color. Thus  $b_1, b_2, b_3, \dots, b_{n+1}$  have the same color.

$$P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)?$$

[A *single* broken link kills the entire proof.]

# Well Ordering Principle

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## Well-ordering Principle.

*Any* non-empty set of natural numbers has a minimum element.

Induction follows from well ordering. Let  $P(1)$  and  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$  be  $\mathsf{T}$ .

Suppose  $P(n_*)$  fails for the **smallest** counter-example  $n_*$  (well-ordering).

$$\boxed{P(1)} \rightarrow \boxed{P(2)} \rightarrow \boxed{P(3)} \rightarrow \boxed{P(4)} \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow \boxed{P(n_* - 1)} \rightarrow P(n_*) \rightarrow \cdots$$

Now how can  $P(n_* - 1) \rightarrow P(n_*)$  be  $\mathsf{T}$ ?

Any induction proof can also be done using well-ordering.



# Example Well-Ordering Proof: $n < 2^n$ for $n \geq 1$

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*Proof.* [Induction]  $P(n) : n < 2^n$ .

**Base case.**  $P(1)$  is T because  $1 < 2^1$ .

**Induction.** Assume  $P(n)$  is T:  $n < 2^n$ . and show  $P(n + 1)$  is T:  $n + 1 < 2^{n+1}$ .

$$n + 1 \leq n + n = 2n \leq 2 \times 2^n = 2^{n+1}.$$

Therefore  $P(n + 1)$  is T and, by induction,  $P(n)$  is T for  $n \geq 1$ . ■

*Proof.* [Well-ordering] Proof by **contradiction**.

Assume that there is an  $n \geq 1$  for which  $n \geq 2^n$ .

Let  $n_*$  be the **minimum** such **counter-example**,  $n_* \geq 2^{n_*}$ . ← well ordering

Since  $1 < 2^1$ ,  $n_* \geq 2$ . Since  $n_* \geq 2$ ,  $\frac{1}{2}n_* \geq 1$  and so,

$$n_* - 1 \geq n_* - \frac{1}{2}n_* = \frac{1}{2}n_* \geq \frac{1}{2} \times 2^{n_*} = 2^{n_*-1}.$$

So,  $n_* - 1$  is a *smaller* counter example. **FISHY!** ■

The **method of minimum counter-example** is very powerful.

**TINKER**

**PRACTICE**

**Challenge.** A circle has  $2n$  distinct points,  $n$  are red and  $n$  are blue. Prove that one can start at a blue point and move clockwise always having passed as many blue points as red.

**Practice.** All exercises and pop-quizzes in chapter 5.

**Strengthen.** Problems in chapter 5.

