

Induction

Motivating example

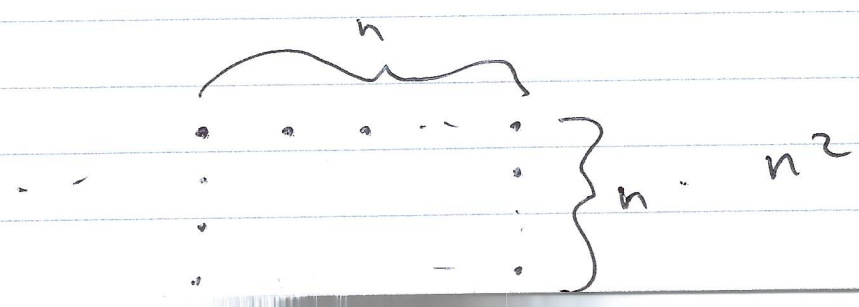
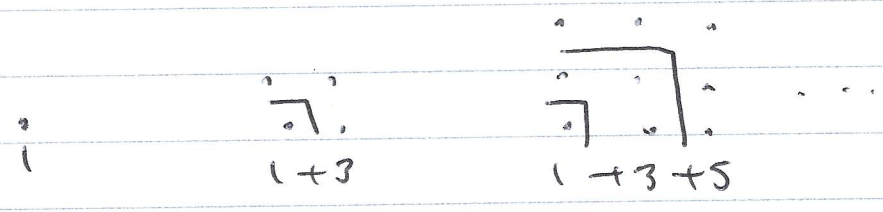
Q: What happens if we add the first several odd integers together?

1	= 1	= 1 ²
1 + 3	= 4	= 2 ²
1 + 3 + 5	= 9	= 3 ²
1 + 3 + 5 + 7	= 16	= 4 ²
1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9	= 25	= 5 ²
⋮		

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

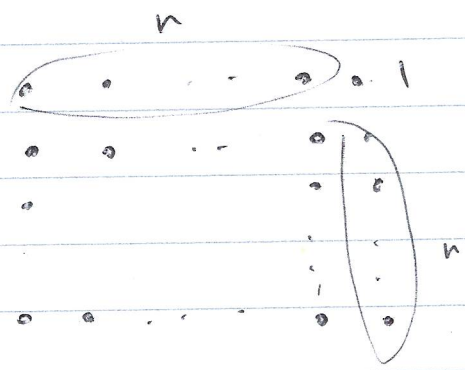
↑ watch indices

Picture:



②

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$$n^2 + \cancel{2n} - 1 = (n+1)^2$$

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- How would we prove this identity for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$?
- picture suggests that proof for $n+1$ depends on proof for n .

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Theorem For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have

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

i.e.

$$\sum_{k=1}^n 2k-1 = n^2$$

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PF: - Clearly true if $n=1$
 since

$$\sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1 = 1^2$$

- suppose $n \in \mathbb{N}$ is fixed and we have the identity for n

i.e. we know

$$\sum_{k=1}^n 2k-1 = n^2$$

Now: Consider the next sum:

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

Then by the identity for n we have

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

- What have we shown?

- (a) the identity holds for $n=1$
- (b) if the identity holds for n then it holds for $n+1$ as well.

- But then since it holds for $n=1$ it must also hold for $n=2$ and so for $n=3$ and so for $n=4$

and so for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ✓

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The validity of this kind of argument is called the Principle of Mathematical Induction (PMI)

Theorem (PMI)

Let $P(n)$ be a variable prop'n. Suppose that

(1) $P(1)$ holds

(2) $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) (P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1))$ holds

then

$(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$ holds.

↳ There is a "proof" of PMI in the book, but it's a bit bogus

↳ we'll take PMI as an axiom, and later show it is equiv. to another intuitively obvious principle.

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How to use PMI to prove $\forall n P(n)$

- ① (Base case) Verify $P(1)$ directly
- ② (Inductive Hypothesis) Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be arbitrary but fixed. Assume $P(n)$
- ③ Deduce $P(n+1)$, using this hypothesis

PMI tells you: if you can do ① + ② + ③ then $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$ holds.

Examples

① Q: what is the sum of the first n naturals?

i.e. what is

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = \sum_{k=1}^n k ?$$

Theorem For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have

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

↳ before proving, let's verify for the first few possible values of n .

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$$\underline{n=1} \quad \sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} \quad \checkmark$$

$$\underline{n=2} \quad \sum_{k=1}^2 k = 1+2 = 3 = \frac{2(2+1)}{2} \quad \checkmark$$

$$\underline{n=3} \quad \sum_{k=1}^3 k = 1+2+3 = 6 = \frac{3 \cdot 4}{2} \quad \checkmark$$

↳ formula looks plausible, let's prove it.

Pf: let $P(n)$ be the prop'n
$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Base Case: $P(1)$ is true since
$$\sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} \quad \checkmark$$

Inductive hypothesis: \checkmark Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
Assume $P(n)$,
i.e. assume

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

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New, consider

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} k &= 1+2+\dots+n+n+1 \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n k + n+1\end{aligned}$$

by the IH, ~~we have~~ we have

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

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

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

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

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

here $P(n+1)$ holds ✓

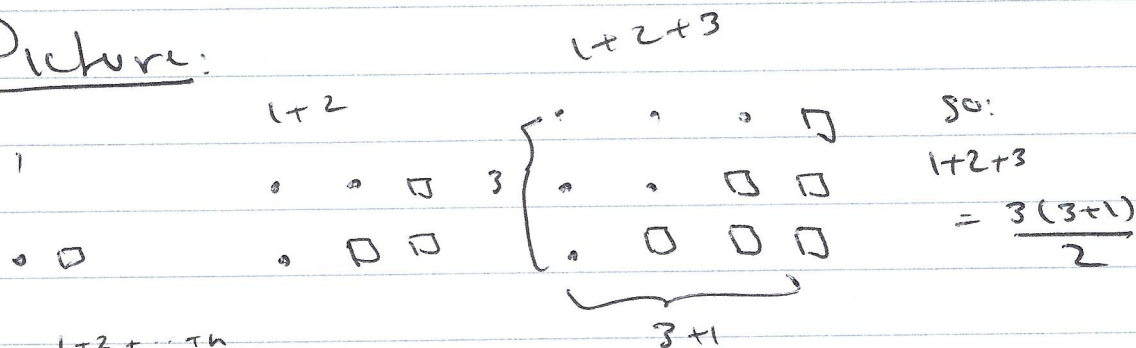
By PMI we may conclude
 $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$, i.e. For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we
have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2} \quad \checkmark$$

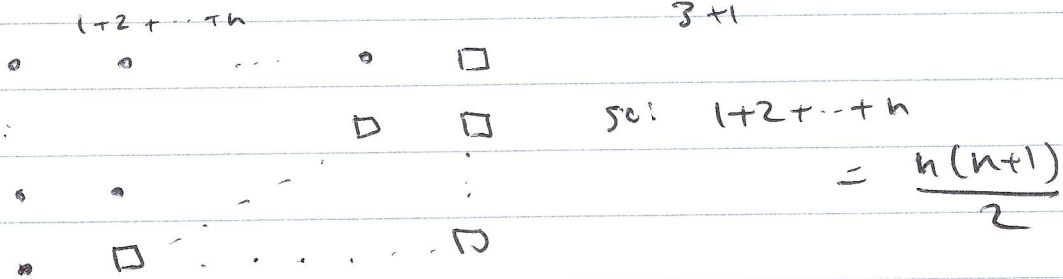
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Picture:



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Notice: - the proof above doesn't give much insight into how we might have guessed the formula

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

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- but if we can guess such a formula (or it's handed to us) PMF allows us to prove it $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

② Geometric Series ^{then} Suppose $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \neq 0, 1$. Then for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have:

$$1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^{n-1} = \frac{x^n - 1}{x - 1}$$

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l.p.

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} x^k = \frac{x^n - 1}{x - 1}$$

Pf.: - Fix $x \in \mathbb{R}$ with $x \neq 0, 1$

(BC) The ~~identity~~ ^{identity} holds for $n=1$ since

$$\sum_{k=0}^{1-1} x^k = \sum_{k=0}^0 x^k = x^0 = 1 = \frac{x^1 - 1}{x - 1}$$

(Notice: we use $x \neq 0$ and $x \neq 1$ to even verify the BC.)

(IH) Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume the identity form:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} x^k = \frac{x^n - 1}{x - 1}$$

Now consider

$$\sum_{k=0}^n x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} x^k + x^n$$

by IH $\Rightarrow \frac{x^n - 1}{x - 1} + x^n$

$$= \frac{x^n - 1}{(x - 1)} + \frac{x^n(x - 1)}{(x - 1)}$$

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$$= \frac{x^n - 1 + x^{n+1} - x^n}{x-1}$$

$$= \frac{x^{n+1} - 1}{x-1}$$

hence the identity holds for $n+1$

By PMI, the identity holds $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ✓

③ Prop'n For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $7^n - 4^n$ is a multiple of 3.

PF: (BC) if $n=1$ the statement holds
since $7^1 - 4^1 = 3$, which is a multiple of 3

(IH) Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume
 $7^n - 4^n$ is a multiple of 3,
i.e. $\exists k \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$7^n - 4^n = 3k.$$

Now, observe:

$$7^n = 3k + 4^n \quad (\text{by IH})$$

hence $7^{n+1} = (3k + 4^n)7$

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$$\begin{aligned} &= 21k + 7 \cdot 4^n \\ &= 21k + (4+3)4^n \\ &= 21k + 3 \cdot 4^n + 4^{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } 7^{n+1} - 4^{n+1} &= 21k + 3 \cdot 4^n \\ &= 3(7k + 4^n) \\ &= 3M \end{aligned}$$

Hence $7^{n+1} - 4^{n+1}$ is a multiple of 3. ✓

By PMI we may conclude
 $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) [(7^n - 4^n) \text{ is a multiple of } 3]$

Variants of Induction

↳ nothing special about starting at $n=1$

↳ as long as we have $P(n_0)$ for some (possibly negative) n_0 and $\forall n \geq n_0$ we have $P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$, can conclude $\forall n \geq n_0, P(n)$.

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Thm (PMI w/ a different base case)

- Suppose $P(n)$ is a var. prop'n and $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ is fixed.

- Let $S = \{n \in \mathbb{Z} \mid n \geq n_0\} = \{n_0, n_0+1, n_0+2, \dots\}$

- Suppose we know

① $P(n_0)$ holds

② $(\forall n \in S) (P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1))$ holds

then $(\forall n \in S) P(n)$ holds.

↳ can prove this using regular PMI, though it is equally obvious (see back if interested)

↳ template nearly the same as w/ regular PMI:

① Verify $P(n_0)$

② Fix $n \geq n_0$, assume $P(n)$

③ Deduce $P(n+1)$.

Ex's ① Q: for which $n \in \mathbb{N}$ do we have

$$n! > 2^n?$$

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n	$n!$	2^n
1	1	2
2	2	4
3	6	8
4	24	16
5	120	32

Seems like: $\forall n \geq 4$ we have $n! > 2^n$
Let's prove this.

Theorem For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 4$
we have $n! > 2^n$.

PF. Let $P(n)$ be the prop'n
" $n! > 2^n$ "

(BC) $P(4)$ holds since $4! = 24 > 16 = 2^4$

(IH) Let $n \geq 4$ be fixed and assume
 $P(n)$, i.e. assume
 $n! > 2^n$

Now, consider $(n+1)!$
We have:

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

$$> (n+1) \cdot 2^n$$

$$> 2^{n+1}$$

by IH

Since
 $n \geq 4$ we
knew $n+1 > 2$

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So $P(n+1)$ holds
- by induction we have $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
if $n \geq 4$ then ~~then~~ $n! > 2^n$. ✓

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Induction with jumps

- Sometimes want to prove $P(n)$,
not for all n , but when n is even,
or when n is odd,
or when n is a multiple of 5
- we can also argue inductively in
such cases.

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Thm - Let $P(n)$ be a var. prop'n and
suppose $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ are fixed
(n_0 is the "starting point" and k is
the "jump")

- Let $S = \{n_0, n_0+k, n_0+2k, \dots\}$

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IF:

- ① $P(n_0)$ holds
- ② $(\forall n \in S) (P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+k))$ holds

then: $(\forall n \in S) P(n)$ holds

e.g. if $E = \{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$

and we can show $P(2)$

and if $P(n)$ then $P(n+2)$

then we have $P(n)$ for all $n \in E$.

Ex's (1) Consider the alternating sum of the first n ~~odd~~ squares:

$$1^2 - 2^2 + 3^2 - 4^2 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} n^2$$

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

Prophn (1) if n is odd we have

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

(2) if n is even we have

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

PF: (1) (here: $n_0 = 1$ and $j_{k+1} = 2$)

(BC) if $n=1$

$$\sum_{k=1}^1 (-1)^{k-1} k^2 = (-1)^0 1^2 = 1$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^1 k \quad \checkmark$$

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(IH) Assume $n \geq 1$ is odd and

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

Now consider the sum up to $n+2$:

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

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

$$\text{IH} \rightarrow = \sum_{k=1}^n k + [(n+2)^2 - (n+1)^2]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n k + \left[\frac{(n+2) - (n+1)}{1} \right] [(n+2) + (n+1)]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n k + n+1 + n+2$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n+2} k$$

hence the identity holds for $n+2$.By induction we have for every n odd

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

$$P(n) \text{ is } \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{k-1} k^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \quad (17)$$

We showed

- $P(1)$

- if n is odd $P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+2)$

- hence $P(n) \text{ is true } \forall n \in \{1, 3, \dots\}$

For n even:

(BC) if $n=2$ then

$$\sum_{k=1}^2 (-1)^{k-1} k^2 = 1^2 - 2^2 = -3$$

$$= -(1+2)$$

$$= -\sum_{k=1}^2 k$$

(IH) Assume n is even and

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

Now consider:

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

$$\stackrel{\text{IH}}{=} -\sum_{k=1}^n k + (n+1)^2 - (n+2)^2$$

$$= -\sum_{k=1}^n k + [(n+1) - (n+2)]$$

$$= -\sum_{k=1}^n k + [-(n+1) - (n+2)]$$

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

$$= - \sum_{k=1}^{n+2} k$$

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hence, by induction, the identity holds $\forall n \in \{2, 4, \dots\}$

② The Fibonacci Sequence:

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Recall: the Fibonacci Sequence is defined recursively by:

$$f_0 = 0 \quad f_1 = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, n \geq 2$$

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ...

$f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3, f_4, \dots$

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Thm: (i) for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f_k = f_{n+2} - 1$$

(i.e. $f_1 + f_2 + \dots + f_n = f_{n+2} - 1$)

Pf (BC) for $n=1$ we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^1 f_k = f_1 = 1 = 2-1 \\ = f_3 - 1 \quad \checkmark$$

(IH) Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume the identity for n , that is,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f_k = f_{n+2} - 1$$

Consider the sum for $n+1$:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} f_k = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k + f_{n+1}$$

$$= f_{n+2} - 1 + f_{n+1}$$

$$= f_{(n+1)+2} - 1$$

hence the identity holds for $n+1$.

hence, by induction, the identity holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f_k = f_{n+2} - 1 \quad \checkmark$$

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(ii) If n is a multiple of 3, then f_n is even

PF (BC) if $n=3$ then $f_3 = 4$ and the statement holds

(IH) Suppose n is a multiple of 3 and f_n is even.

Consider f_{n+3}

$$\begin{aligned} f_{n+3} &= f_{n+2} + f_{n+1} \\ &= f_n + f_{n+1} + f_{n+1} \\ &= f_n + 2f_{n+1} \end{aligned}$$

by IH, f_n is even; hence $f_n + 2f_{n+1}$ is even

that is, f_{n+3} is even

- hence the statement

holds for $n+3$.

By induction, f_n is even for every $n \in \{3, 6, 9, \dots\}$

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Strong Induction

- In certain proofs, to show $P(n+1)$ holds we may need to assume more than just $P(n)$

- e.g. may need to assume $P(n)$ ~~and~~ $P(n-1)$

or $P(n), P(n-1), P(n-2), \dots, P(1)$

- this is still a legitimate inductive hypothesis to make!

- this type of argument is called strong induction.

Theorem (PSMI) (Principle of Strong Mathematical Induction)

Suppose $P(n)$ is a var prop'n and suppose

(1) $P(1)$ holds

(2) $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) ((\forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\}) P(k)) \Rightarrow P(n+1)$ holds

Then:

$(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$ holds.

Template for Strong Induction

- ① Show $P(1)$ directly
- ② Fix $n \geq 1$. Assume $\forall k \in \{1, \dots, n\} P(k)$
(that is, $P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n)$)
- ③ From this, deduce $P(n+1)$

then PMI gives: $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$

↳ SPMI seems ~~harder~~ ^{harder to apply} than PMI
 (we have to assume more:
 all of $P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n)$, not just
 $P(n)$, to get $P(n+1)$)

↳ but can actually prove SPMI
 from PMI.

Pf. - Let $P(n)$ be a variable
 prop'n s.t.

- ~~PMI: $(\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$ holds~~
- ① $P(1)$ holds
 - ② $(\forall k \in \mathbb{N}) P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$ holds

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- Let $Q(n)$ be the prop'n
 $(\forall k \in [n]) P(k)$

- We proceed by induction
on $Q(n)$

- (BC) $Q(1)$ is the statement
 $(\forall k \in \{1\}) P(k)$

- this is equivalent to $P(1)$ which
holds by ①. Hence $Q(1)$ holds ✓

(IH) Fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and assume $Q(n)$
holds, i.e. assume
 $(\forall k \in [n]) P(k)$

- then by ② we have that $P(n+1)$
holds

- hence the conjunction
 $(\forall k \in [n]) P(k) \wedge P(n+1)$
holds

- this is equivalent to saying
 $(\forall k \in [n+1]) P(k)$ holds

- i.e. $Q(n+1)$ holds.

- we have shown

① $Q(1)$ holds

② $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N})(Q(n) \Rightarrow Q(n+1))$ holds

- hence by PMI we know
 $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) Q(n)$ holds

- i.e. $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have

$(\forall k \in [n]) P(k)$ holds " $P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(n)$ "

- but this implies that $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$
 $P(n)$ holds.

- this is what we wanted to show. ✓

Example

↳ PMI often used when dealing with recursively defined sequences

① Let s_n be the sequence defined by

$$s_0 = 1 \quad \text{and for } n > 1 \quad s_n = 1 + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} s_k$$

So that: $s_1 = 1 + s_0 = 1 + 1 = 2$

$$s_2 = 1 + s_0 + s_1 = 1 + 1 + 2 = 4$$

$$s_3 = 1 + s_0 + s_1 + s_2 = 1 + 1 + 2 + 4 = 8$$

Seems like $S_n = 2^n$

Let's prove this.

Claim: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ we have $S_n = 2^n$

Pf: ^(BC) If $n=0$, $S_0 = 1 = 2^0$ and the identity holds.

(IH) fix $n \geq 0$ and assume that for every $k \in \{0, 1, \dots, n\}$ we have $S_k = 2^k$

Then

$$S_{n+1} = 1 + \sum_{k=0}^n S_k$$

Strong IH \rightarrow

$$= 1 + \sum_{k=0}^n 2^k$$

Geometric Series formula \rightarrow

$$= 1 + \frac{2^{n+1} - 1}{2 - 1}$$

$$= 1 + 2^{n+1} - 1 = 2^{n+1}$$

hence the identity holds for $n+1$.

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by the SPMI we have, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$
 $S_n = 2^n \checkmark$

Def'n For an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n > 1$, a prime factorization for n is a way of writing n as a product of primes (w/ possible repeats)

e.g. - 2 is a prime factorization of 2
- $2 \cdot 3$ is a prime factorization of 6
- $2 \cdot 3 \cdot 3$ is a prime factorization of 18.

Theorem For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n > 1$, n has a prime factorization.

Pf. - Let $F(n)$ be the statement " n has a prime factorization."

- We prove $(\forall n \geq 2) F(n)$ by strong induction.

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(BC) $F(2)$ holds because 2 has a prime factorization.

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(IH) Fix $n \geq 2$ and assume for every k with $2 \leq k \leq n$ that k has a prime factorization (i.e. $F(k)$ holds)

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- Now, Consider $n+1$. If $n+1$ is prime then $n+1 = n+1$ is a prime factorization.

- If $n+1$ is not prime then $n+1$ can be factored as

$$n+1 = a \cdot b$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ and $2 \leq a, b \leq n$.

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- Hence by the IH, a, b have prime factorizations, say

$$a = p_1 p_2 \dots p_e$$

$$b = q_1 q_2 \dots q_m$$

where p_i, q_j are all prime

- but then

$n+1 = p_1 \dots p_e q_1 \dots q_m$ is a prime factorization of $n+1$

- by SPMI, every $n \geq 2$ has a prime factorization ✓

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An example with multiple base cases

② Theorem: Every amount of postage that is at least 12 cents can be made from 4 and 5 cent stamps.
i.e. $(\forall n \geq 12) (\exists a, b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}) (n = 4a + 5b)$

PF (BCs)

$$n = 12 \quad n = 4 \cdot 3 + 5 \cdot 0$$

$$n = 13 \quad n = 4 \cdot 2 + 5 \cdot 1$$

$$n = 14 \quad n = 4 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 2$$

$$n = 15 \quad n = 4 \cdot 0 + 5 \cdot 3$$

(IH) Suppose $n \geq 15$, and $k \in \{12, \dots, n\}$
we have the claim.

Then: $n+1 \geq 16$

hence $n+1 - 4 \geq 12$

by the IH, $\exists a, b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ s.t.

$$n+1 - 4 = 4a + 5b$$

hence $n+1 = 4a + 4 + 5b$
 $= 4(a+1) + 5b$

so the claim holds for $n+1$

By SPMI, the claim holds for all $n \geq 12$ ✓

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Multiple base case considerations often pop up when dealing with recursively defined sequences.

(a) Define a sequence x_n recursively by

$$x_1 = 2 \quad x_2 = 3 \quad \text{and} \\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N} - \{1, 2\} \quad \text{let } x_n = 3x_{n-1} - 2x_{n-2}$$

Claim ($\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$) ($x_n = 2^{n-1} + 1$)

Pf. (BCs)

$$\begin{array}{l} \underline{n=1} \quad x_1 = 2 = 2^{1-1} + 1 \quad \checkmark \\ \underline{n=2} \quad x_2 = 3 = 2^{2-1} + 1 \quad \checkmark \end{array}$$

(IH) Fix $n \geq 2$ and assume $\forall k \leq n$ we have $x_k = 2^{k-1} + 1$

Then $x_{n+1} = \overset{\text{defn}}{3x_n - 2x_{n-1}} \quad \star$

$$\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{\text{IH}}{=} 3(2^{n-1} + 1) - 2(2^{n-2} + 1) \\ & = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 3 - 2 \cdot 2^{n-2} - 2 \\ & = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1} - 2^{n-1} + 1 \\ & = 2 \cdot 2^{n-1} + 1 \\ & = 2^n + 1 \\ & = 2^{(n+1)-1} + 1 \end{aligned}$$

by SPMI we have, $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$,
 $X_n = 2^{n-1} + 1$ ✓

Notice - we really needed to check both base cases $n=1$ and $n=2$.

- if we had only checked $n=1$ and used " $\forall n \geq 1$. Assume $\forall k \leq n$ $X_k = 2^{k-1} + 1$ " as our IH, step \star would have been unjustified for $n=1$.

$$X_{n+1} = 3X_n - 2X_{n-1}$$
$$\therefore X_{1+1} = 3X_1 - 2X_0 \leftarrow \text{undefined!}$$

- you can actually cook up false induction proofs that play on this issue.

- e.g. let $P(n)$ be the prop'n "In any group of n cats, if one is black, all are black"

PF :- $P(1)$ is clearly true.
- Suppose $P(n)$ is true.

- Now suppose we have a group of $n+1$ cats, at least one of which is black.

- call the black cat midnight

- Fix another cat, call it snow. Remove this cat from the group.

- the remaining group of n cats contains a black cat (Midnight) hence by our I.H. all cats in this group are black.

- Now remove Midnight and put Snow in his place

- In this group of n cats, all are black (except possibly snow)

- hence again by our I.H. all cats in this group must be black, including Snow

- hence all $n+1$ cats are black and $P(n+1)$ holds. ✓

- by induction, $P(n)$ holds for all n

- It follows that since there is a black cat, all cats are black.

The Well-ordering Principle

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"Theorem" (WOP) IF $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and $X \neq \emptyset$ then X has a least element.

- e.g. if $X = \mathbb{N}$ then its least el't is 1

- if $X = E = \{2, 4, 6, \dots\}$ its least el't is 2

- if $X = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid (\exists k \in \mathbb{N})(k > 5 \wedge n = k^2)\}$
 $= \{36, 49, 64, \dots\}$
then its least el't is 36.

↳ This "theorem" is intuitively obvious

↳ we can prove it using SPMT

PF: - Suppose $X \subseteq \mathbb{N}$ and X has no least el't.

- we'll prove $X = \emptyset$.

- Let $P(n)$ be the var prop'n " $n \notin X$ "

- We prove $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$ by SPMT

(BC)

Clearly, $P(1)$ is true, that is $1 \notin X$.
Because, if $1 \in X$ then 1 would be the least el't of X (it is the least el't of \mathbb{N} !)

(IH) Fix $n \geq 1$. Suppose $\forall k \leq n$ $P(k)$ holds, i.e. $(\forall k \leq n)(k \notin X)$

Consider $n+1$. If $n+1 \in X$ then $n+1$ is the least el't of X .

This follows from our induction hypothesis:
Since we know $1 \notin X, 2 \notin X, \dots, n \notin X$.

- Hence $n+1 \notin X$. That is $P(n+1)$ holds

- by SPMI $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$ holds

- hence $X = \emptyset$. ✓

We have just showed

$$\text{SPMI} \Rightarrow \text{WOP}$$

We previously proved SPMI from PMI, i.e. we showed

$$\text{PMI} \Rightarrow \text{SPMI}$$

(34)

In fact, all of these statements are equivalent.

Theorem: The following are equivalent:

- ① PMI
- ② SPMI
- ③ WOP

that is

$$\text{PMI} \Leftrightarrow \text{SPMI} \Leftrightarrow \text{WOP}$$

i.e. from any of these statements we can prove the other two.

Pf: We have already shown

$$\text{PMI} \Rightarrow \text{SPMI} \Rightarrow \text{WOP}$$

Hence if we can show

$$\text{WOP} \Rightarrow \text{PMI}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \Rightarrow \text{PMI} & \\ \text{WOP} & \Leftrightarrow & \Rightarrow \text{SPMI} \end{array}$$

We will have proved equivalence

- So assume WOP

- Let $P(n)$ be a var prop'n such that

(35)

(1) $P(1)$ holds

(2) $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) (P(n) \Rightarrow P(n+1))$ holds

We want to show $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$ holds.

Let $S = \{n \in \mathbb{N} \mid P(n) \text{ fails}\}$

We will use WOP to prove $S = \emptyset$.

- If $S \neq \emptyset$, then by WOP, S has a least el't. Call this el't x .

- We know that $x \neq 1$, since $P(1)$ holds

- hence $x = n+1$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- by def'n of x , $P(n)$ holds

- but then by (2), $P(n+1)$ holds, i.e. $P(x)$ holds, a contradiction

- hence no such x exists, i.e. $S = \emptyset$.

- hence $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) P(n)$ holds. ✓

↳ All three principles WOP, PMI, and oPMI are so basic

that in many contexts they are taken as axiom
 ↳ content of theorem w: if you assume any one of them, the other two are entailed.

↳ the central idea in the above proof "Finding a minimal counterexample" is useful in its own right.

Example Prop'n every natural number $n > 1$ can be written
 $n = 2 \cdot a + 3 \cdot b$ for some $a, b \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$

e.g. $2 = 2 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 0$
 $7 = 2 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 1$, etc.

Pf. - Suppose not. That is suppose there is a number ≥ 2 that cannot be so written.
 - let N be the least such number.
 - by above, $N > 2$

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- hence $N = n+1$ for some $n \geq 2$.
- since N was the least counterexample we have

$$n = 2 \cdot a + 3 \cdot b \quad \text{for some } a, b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$$

- observe: at least one of a, b is positive

- if $a > 0$ then

$$\begin{aligned} N = n+1 &= 2a + 3b + 1 \\ &= 2(a-1) + 2 + 3b + 1 \\ &= 2(a-1) + 3(b+1) \end{aligned}$$

- if $b > 0$ then

$$\begin{aligned} N = n+1 &= 2a + 3(b-1) + 3 + 1 \\ &= 2(a+2) + 3(b-1) \end{aligned}$$

- hence in either case, N does have a representation of the form

$$N = 2x + 3y \quad x, y \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$$

- this contradicts the def'n of N .

- hence in fact $\forall n \geq 2$ we have $a, b \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ s.t.

$$n = 2a + 3b \quad \checkmark$$