

Mathematical Induction

Everybody – do the wave!

The Wave

- If done properly, everyone will eventually end up joining in.
- Why is that?
 - Someone (me!) started everyone off.
 - Once the person before you did the wave, you did the wave.

The **principle of mathematical induction** states that if for some $P(n)$ the following hold:

$P(0)$ is true

If it starts
true...

and

...and it stays
true...

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$

then

...then it's
always true.

For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $P(n)$ is true.

Induction, Intuitively

- It's true for 0.
- Since it's true for 0, it's true for 1.
- Since it's true for 1, it's true for 2.
- Since it's true for 2, it's true for 3.
- Since it's true for 3, it's true for 4.
- Since it's true for 4, it's true for 5.
- Since it's true for 5, it's true for 6.
- ...

Proof by Induction

- Suppose that you want to prove that some property $P(n)$ holds of all natural numbers. To do so:
 - Prove that $P(0)$ is true.
 - This is called the **basis** or the **base case**.
 - Prove that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, that if $P(n)$ is true, then $P(n + 1)$ is true as well.
 - This is called the **inductive step**.
 - $P(n)$ is called the **inductive hypothesis**.
 - Conclude by induction that $P(n)$ holds for all n .

Some Summations

$$2^0 = 1$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 = 1 + 2 = 3$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 = 1 + 2 + 4 = 7$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 = 31$$

$$2^0 = 1 = 2^1 - 1$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 = 1 + 2 = 3 = 2^2 - 1$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 = 1 + 2 + 4 = 7 = 2^3 - 1$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 = 15 = 2^4 - 1$$

$$2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 + 2^4 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + 16 = 31 = 2^5 - 1$$

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Just as in a proof by contradiction or contrapositive, we should mention this proof is by induction.

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Now, we state what property $P(n)$ we are going to prove holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

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The first step of an inductive proof is to show $P(0)$. We explicitly state what $P(0)$ is, then try to prove it. We can prove $P(0)$ using any proof technique we'd like.

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The goal of this step is to prove

“For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if $P(n)$, then $P(n + 1)$ ”

To do this, we'll choose an arbitrary n , assume that $P(n)$ holds, then try to prove $P(n + 1)$.

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Here, we're explicitly stating $P(n + 1)$, which is what we want to prove. Now, we can use any proof technique we want to try to prove it.

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We're assuming that $P(n)$ is true, so we can replace this sum with the value $2^n - 1$.

1 powers of two. This is two, plus 2^n . Using the

$$2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{n-1} + 2^n = (2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{n-1}) + 2^n$$

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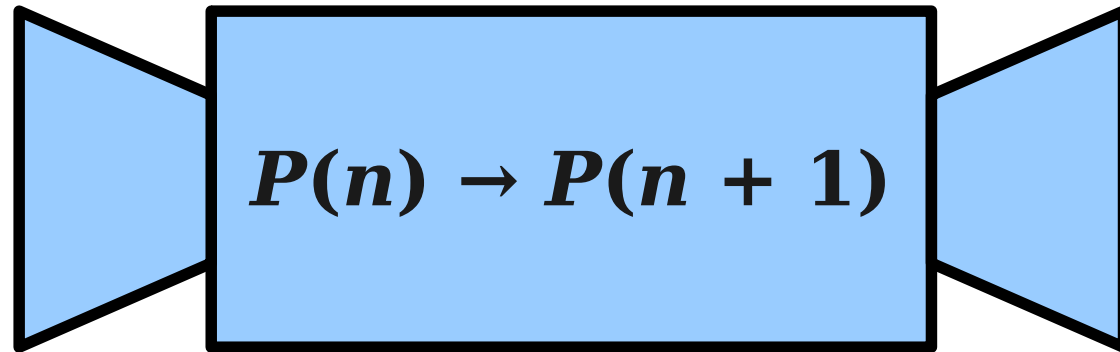
Structuring a Proof by Induction

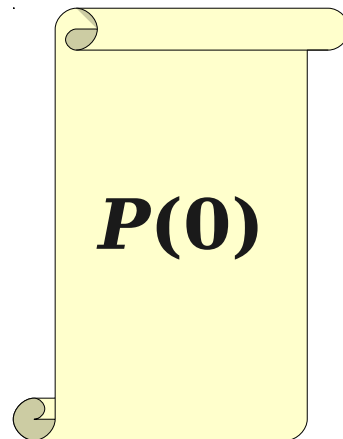
- State that your proof works by induction.
- State your choice of $P(n)$.
- Prove the base case:
 - State what $P(0)$ is, then prove it using any technique you'd like.
- Prove the inductive step:
 - State that for some arbitrary $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that you're assuming $P(n)$ and mention what $P(n)$ is.
 - State that you are trying to prove $P(n + 1)$ and what $P(n + 1)$ means.
 - Prove $P(n + 1)$ using any technique you'd like.
- This is very rigorous, so as we gain more familiarity with induction we will start being less formal in our proofs.

Induction, Intuitively

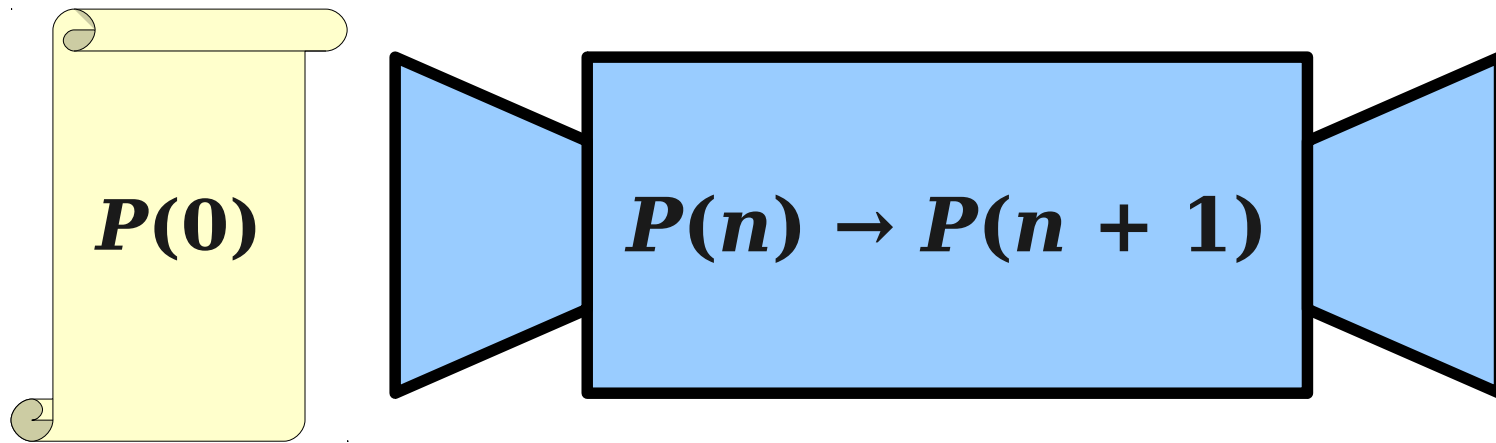
- You can imagine an “machine” that turns proofs of $P(n)$ into proofs of $P(n + 1)$.
- Starting with a proof of $P(0)$, we can run the machine as many times as we'd like to get proofs of $P(1)$, $P(2)$, $P(3)$,
- The principle of mathematical induction says that this style of reasoning is a rigorous argument.

Why This Proof Works

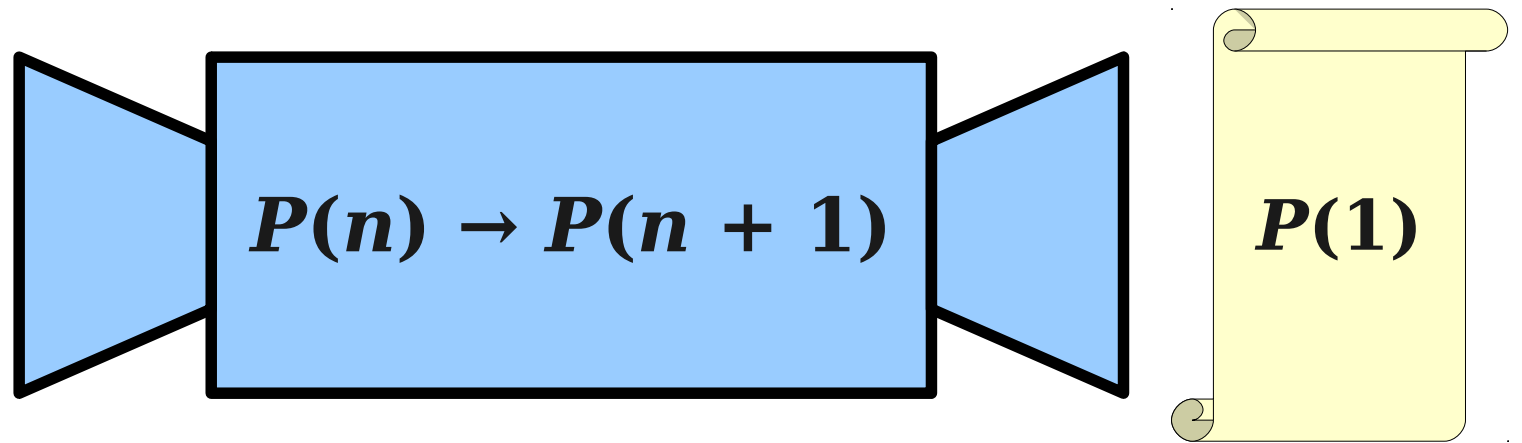

$$P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$$


$$P(0)$$

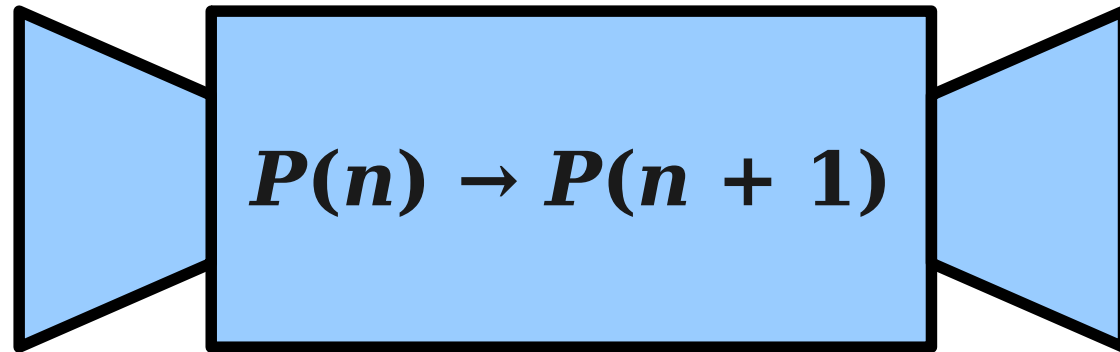
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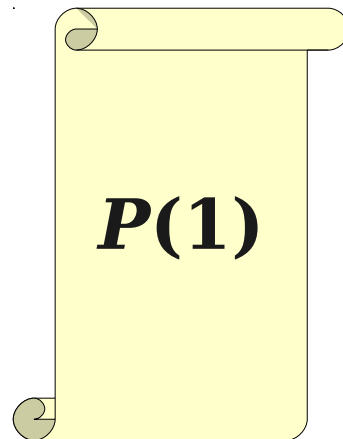


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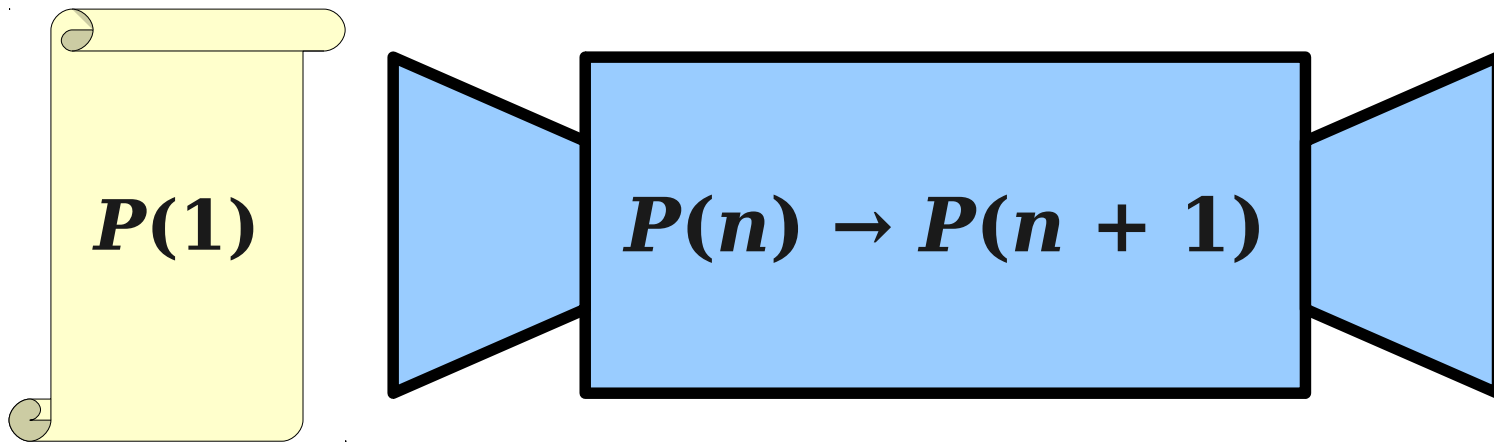


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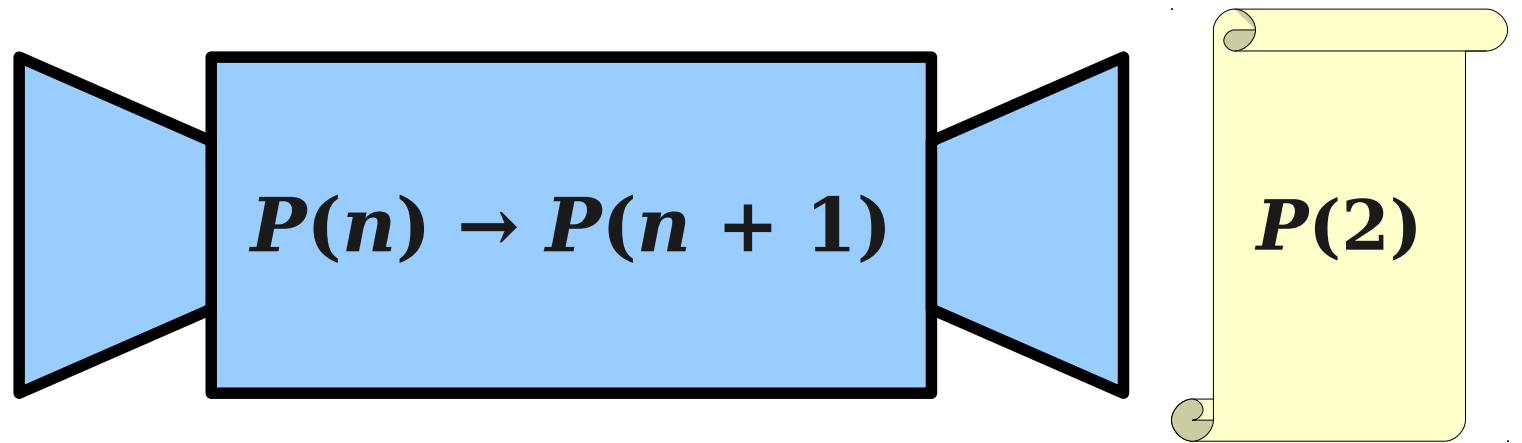

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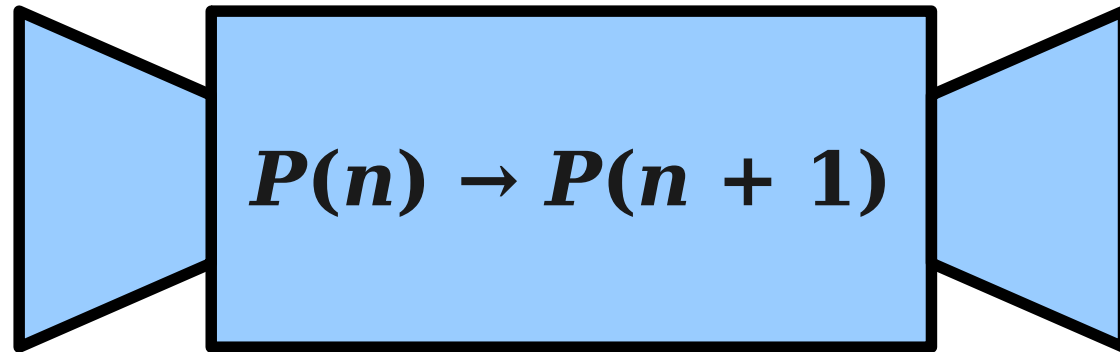
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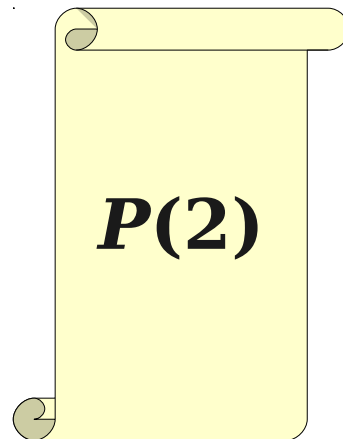


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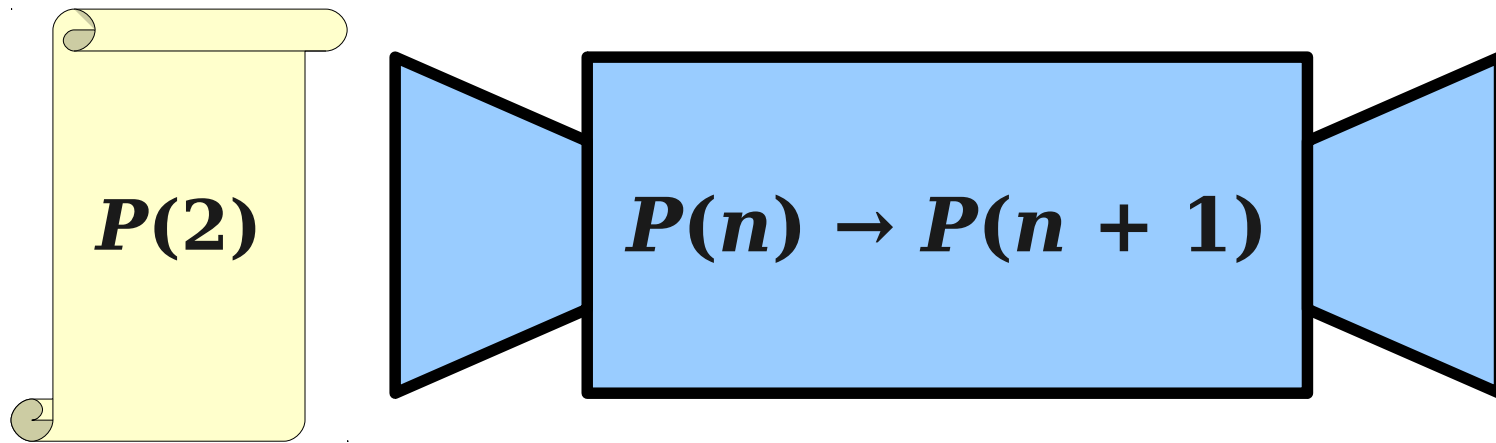


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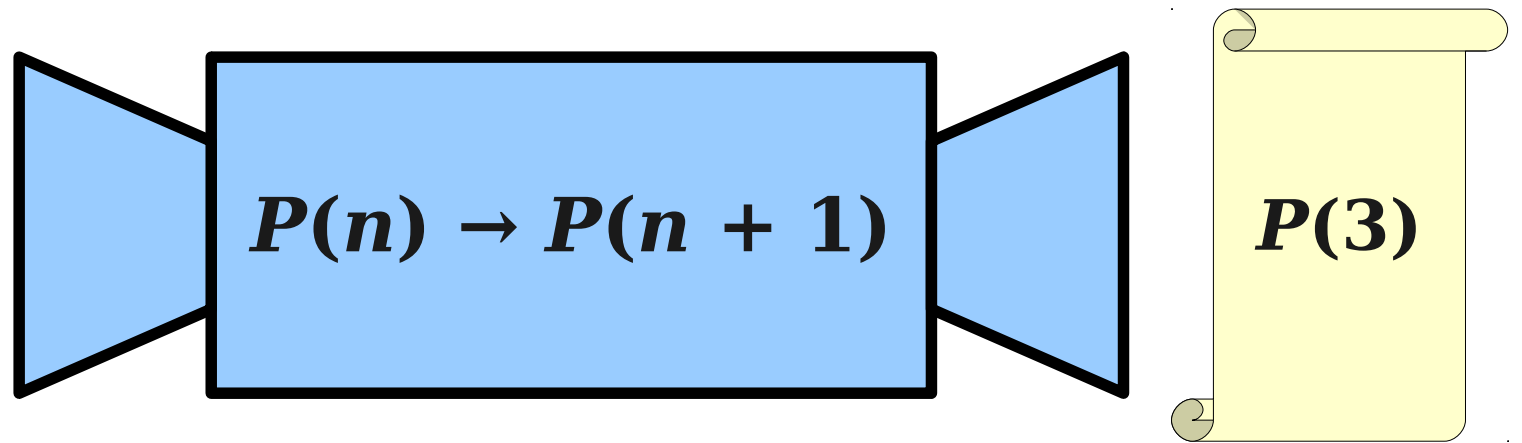

$$P(n) \rightarrow P(n + 1)$$


$$P(2)$$

Why This Proof Works



Why This Proof Works



A Quick Aside

- This result helps explain the range of numbers that can be stored in an **int**.
- If you have an unsigned 32-bit integer, the largest value you can store is given by $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + 2^{31} = 2^{32} - 1$.
- This formula for sums of powers of two has many other uses as well. We'll see one next week.

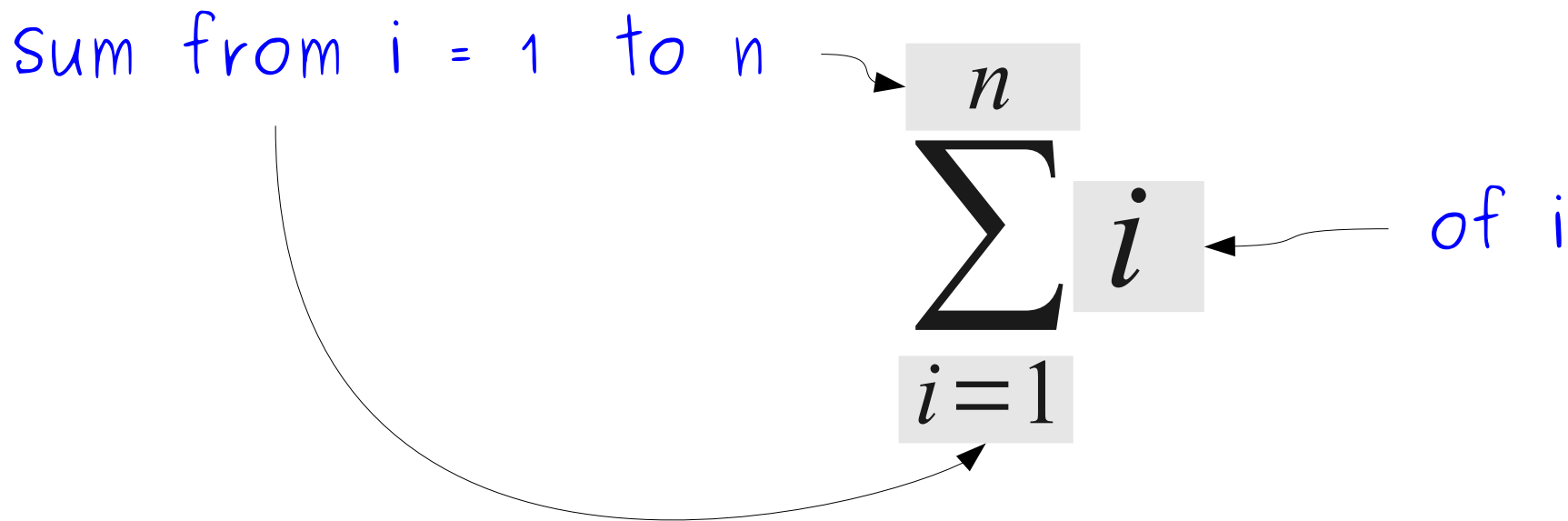
Notation: Summations

- **Summation notation** gives a compact way for discussing sums of multiple terms.
- For example, instead of writing the sum $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n$, we can write

sum from $i = 1$ to n

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i$$

of i



The diagram illustrates the components of the summation notation $\sum_{i=1}^n i$. The text 'sum from $i = 1$ to n ' is written in blue and has two arrows: one pointing to the upper limit n and another pointing to the lower limit $i=1$. The variable i is enclosed in a gray box, and the text 'of i ' is written in blue to its right, with an arrow pointing to the box. The summation symbol Σ is centered between the limits and the term.

Summation Examples

$$\sum_{i=1}^5 i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = 15$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^3 2^i = 2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 = 15$$

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

The Empty Sum

- A sum of no numbers is called the **empty sum** and is defined to be zero.
- Examples:

$$\sum_{i=1}^0 2^i = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=137}^{42} i^i = 0$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{-1} i = 0$$

- Why do you think it's defined to be zero as opposed to some other number?

Theorem: For any natural number n , $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n - 1$

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$$P(n) \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n - 1$$

In this context, \equiv means "is defined as." $P(n)$ is defined to be the assertion that the sum of the first n powers of two is $2^n - 1$.

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Here, we're "peeling off" the last term of the sum. Many inductive proofs on sums will use this trick.

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A Brief Interlude for Announcements

Recitation Sections

- Handout #06 contains several discussion questions for this week.
- We will set up several recitation sections where you can work through these problems with one of the TAs.
 - Dates/times announced later today.
 - All sections cover the same material.
- Solutions distributed at recitation sections and online later this week.

Problem Set Clarification

- All problem sets are designed to use only the material up to and include the lecture in which they are released.
- We'll explicitly mark any problems for which we won't have covered the requisite material.

Ask Us A Question:

“What are the criteria used to grade proofs in our problem sets?”

Back to our regularly
scheduled programming...

Back to our regularly
scheduled ~~programming~~...
math

How Not To Induct

An Incorrect Proof

Theorem: For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n$.

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Where did we
prove the base
case?

To see this, note that

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An Incorrect Proof



$$2^i = 2^n.$$

defined as $P(n) \equiv \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n.$

$P(n)$ holds, so

true, which means

Where did we
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$$2^n + 2^n = 2^{n+1}$$

so $P(n+1)$ holds, completing the induction. ■

When proving $P(n)$ is true
for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ by induction,

make sure to show the base case!

Otherwise, your argument is invalid!

Why This Worked

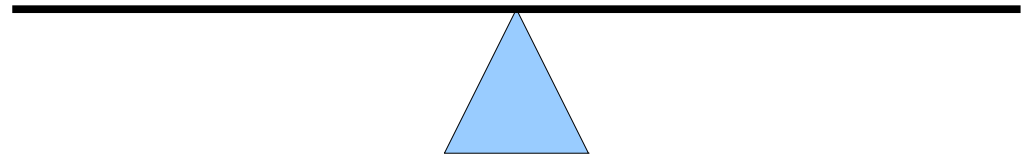
- The math internally checked out because we made an incorrect assumption!
- Induction requires both the base case and the inductive step.
 - The base case shows that the property initially holds true.
 - The inductive step shows how each step influences the next.

The Counterfeit Coin Problem

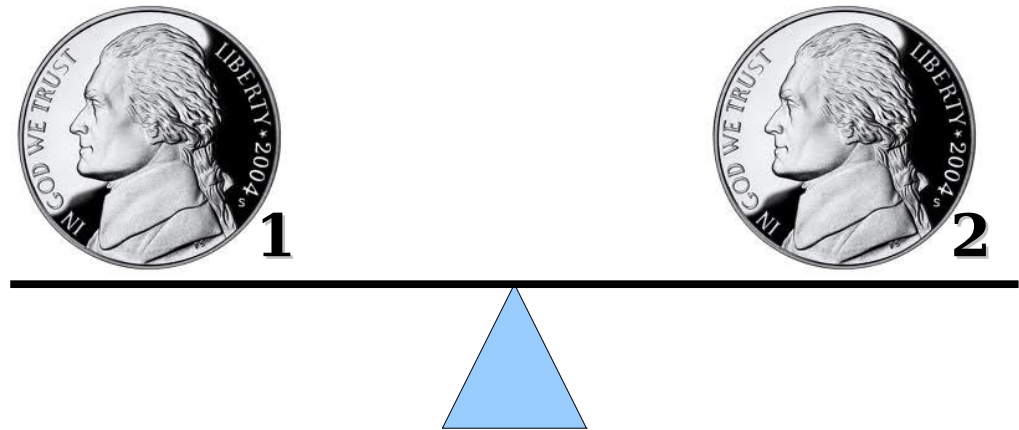
Problem Statement

- You are given a set of three seemingly identical coins, two of which are real and one of which is counterfeit.
- The counterfeit coin weighs more than the rest of the coins.
- You are given a balance. Using only one weighing on the balance, find the counterfeit coin.

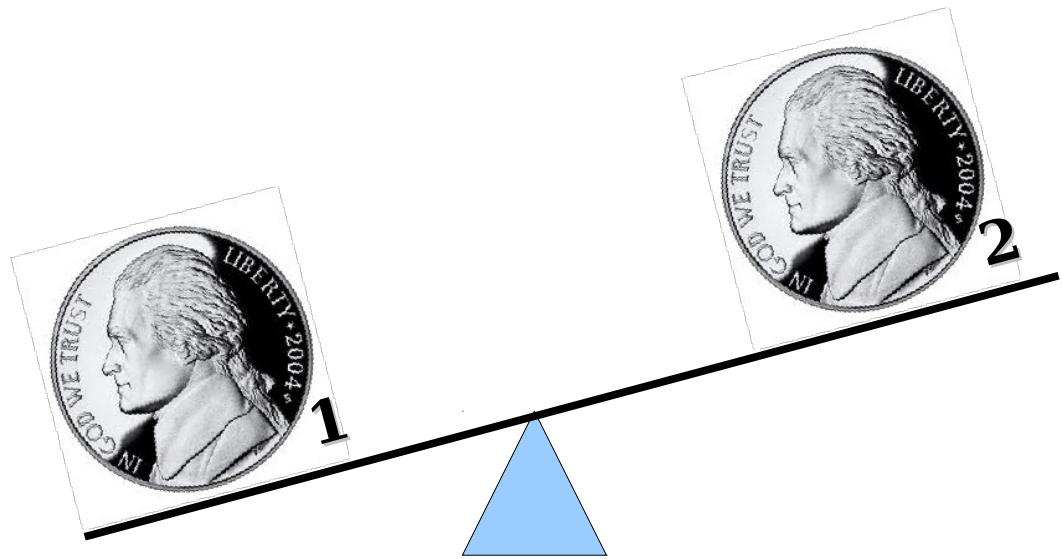
Finding the Counterfeit Coin



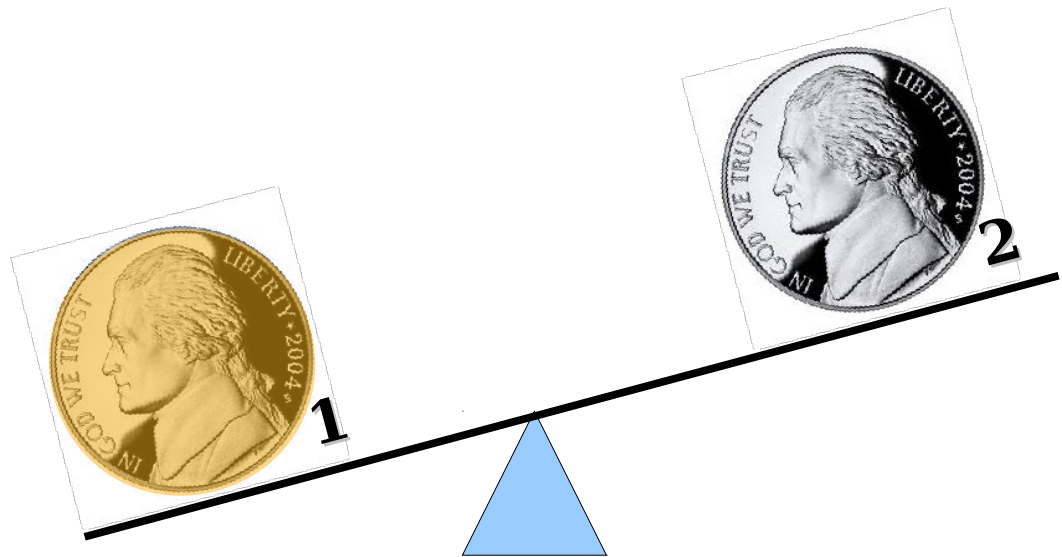
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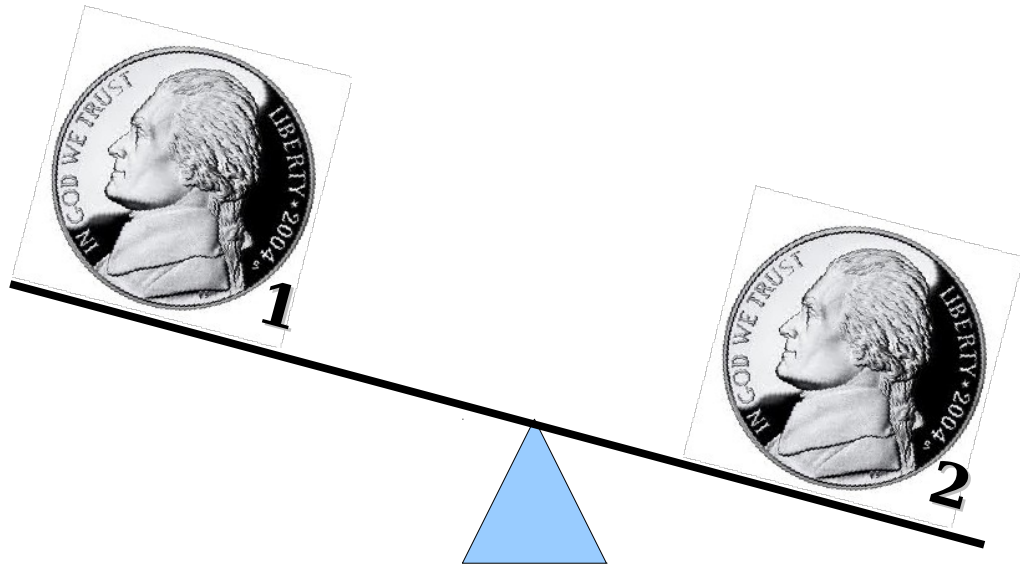
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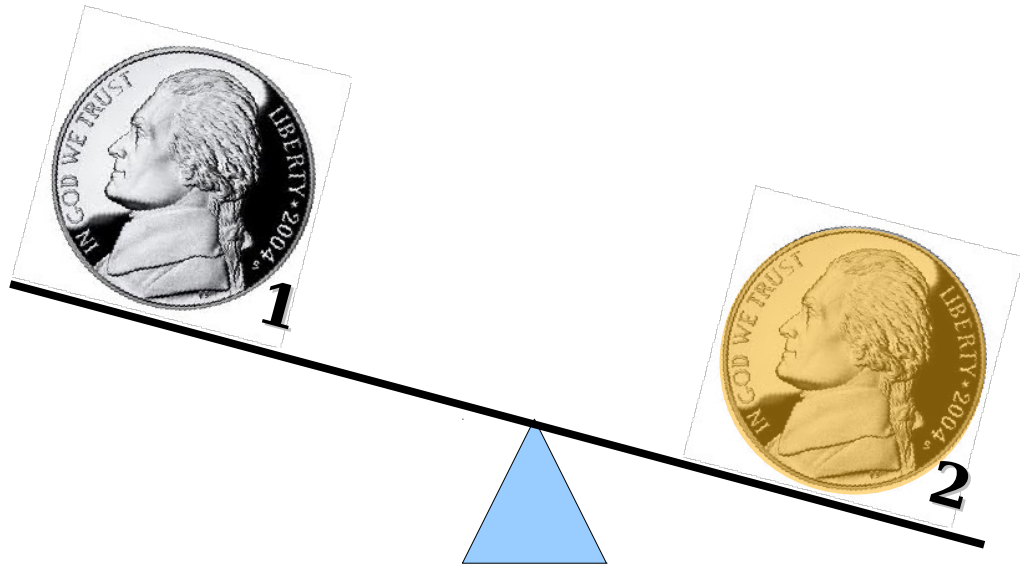
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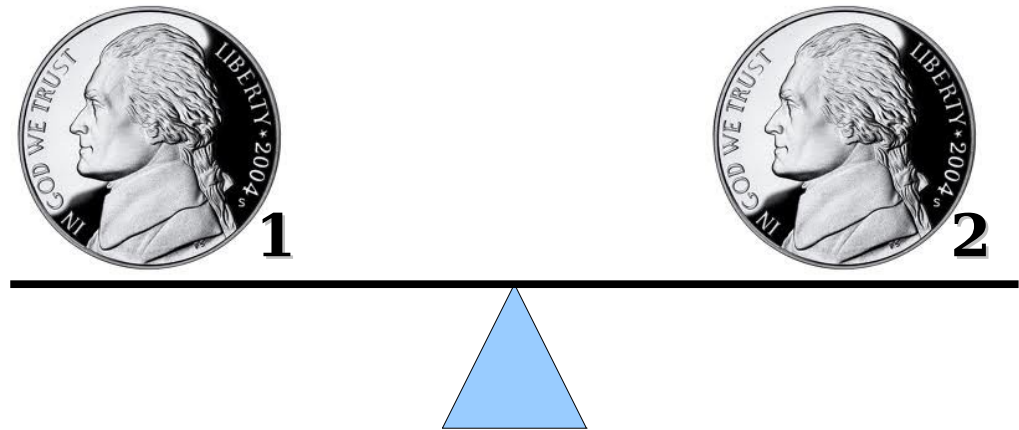
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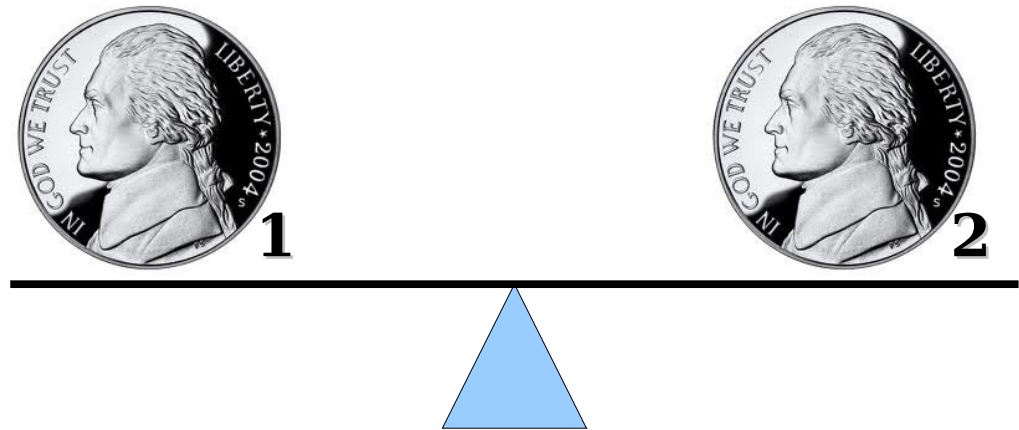
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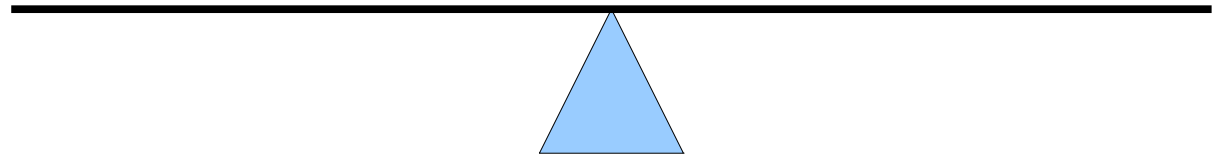
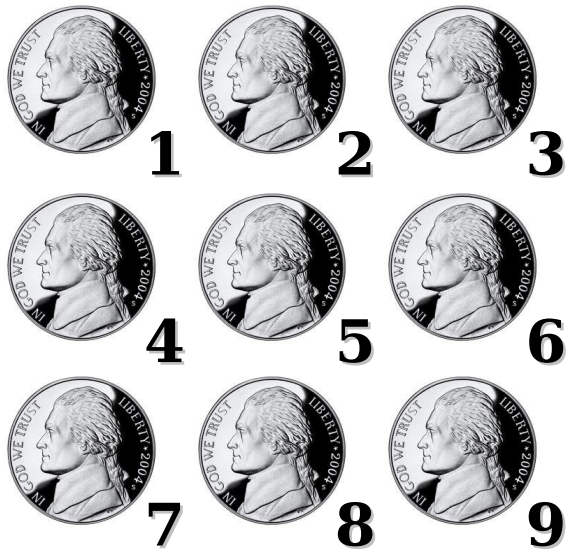
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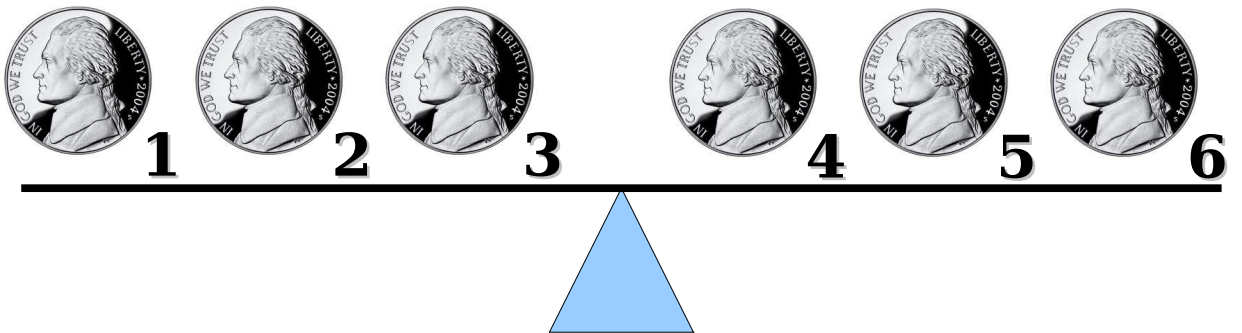
A Harder Problem

- You are given a set of **nine** seemingly identical coins, eight of which are real and one of which is counterfeit.
- The counterfeit coin weighs more than the rest of the coins.
- You are given a balance. Using only **two** weighings on the balance, find the counterfeit coin.

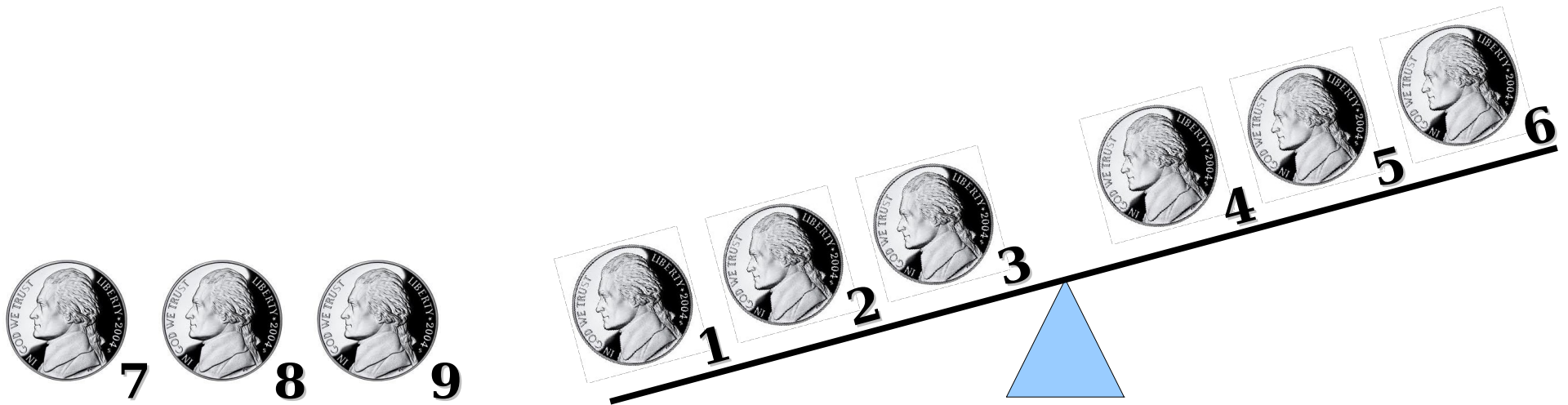
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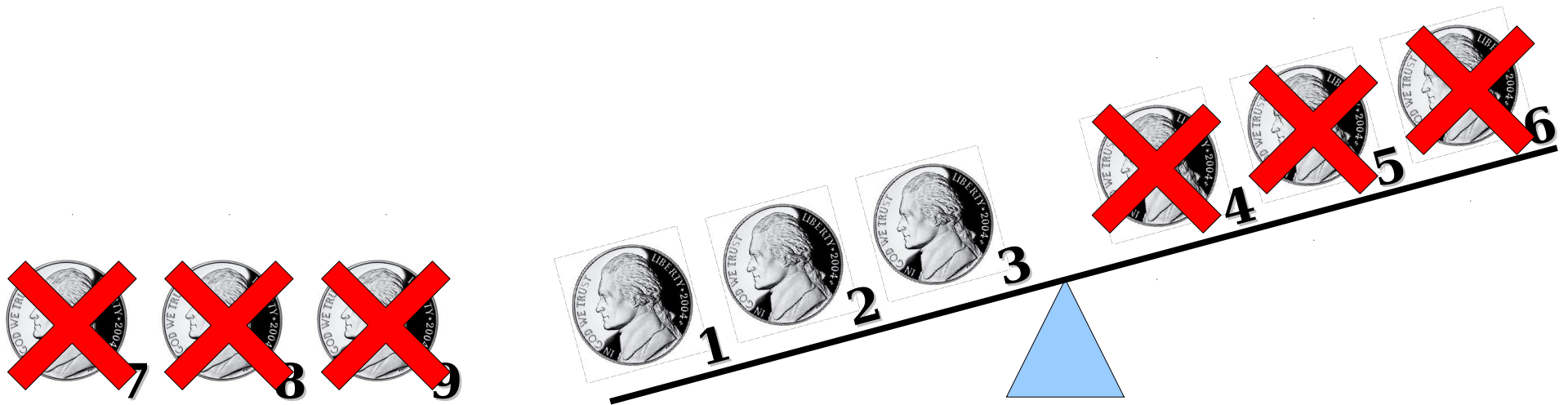
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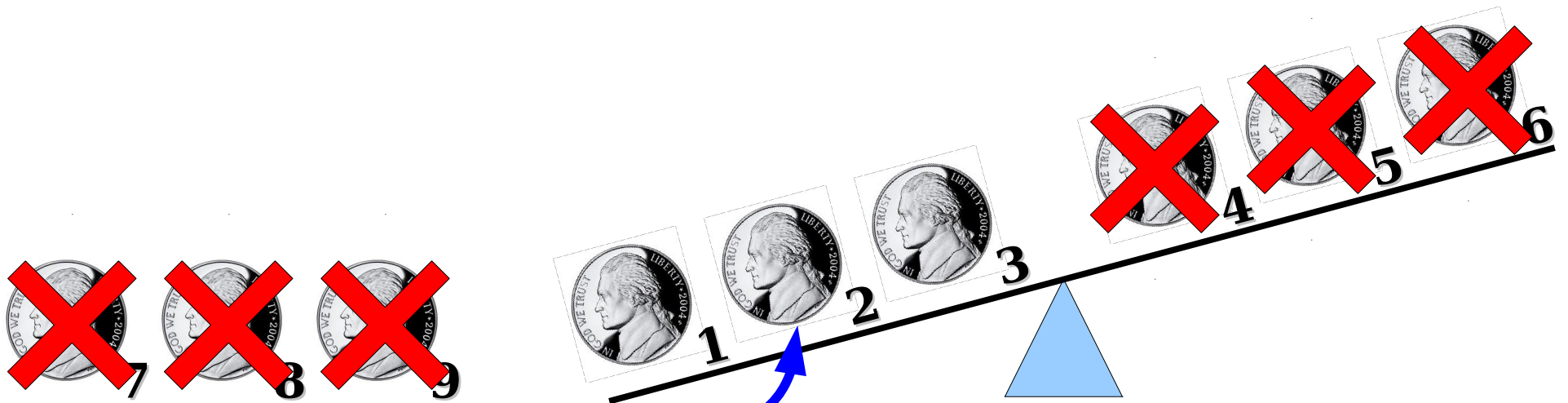
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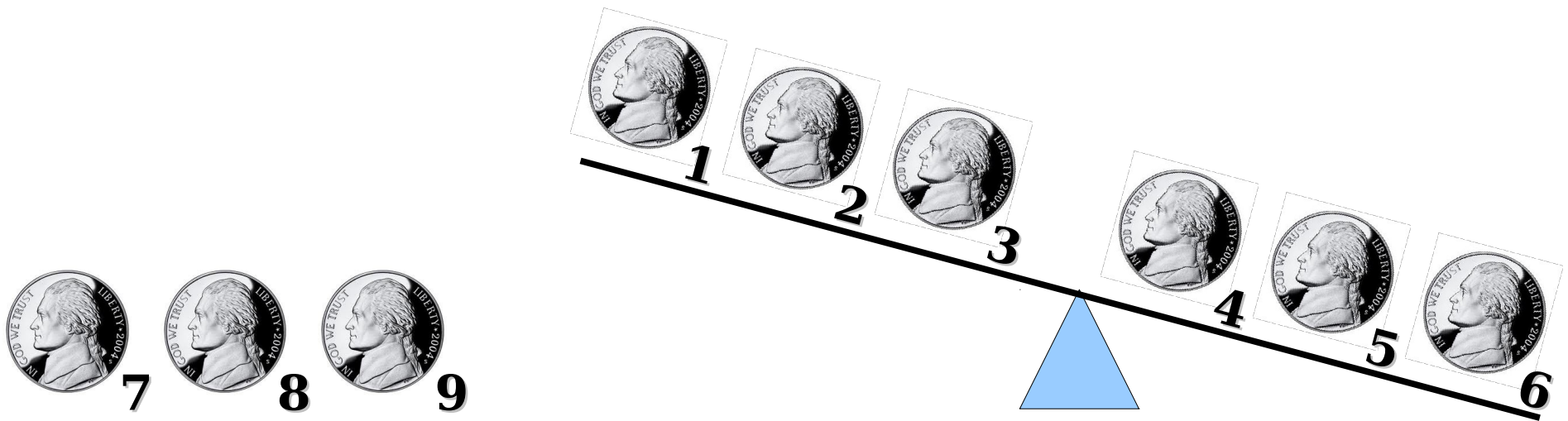


Finding the Counterfeit Coin

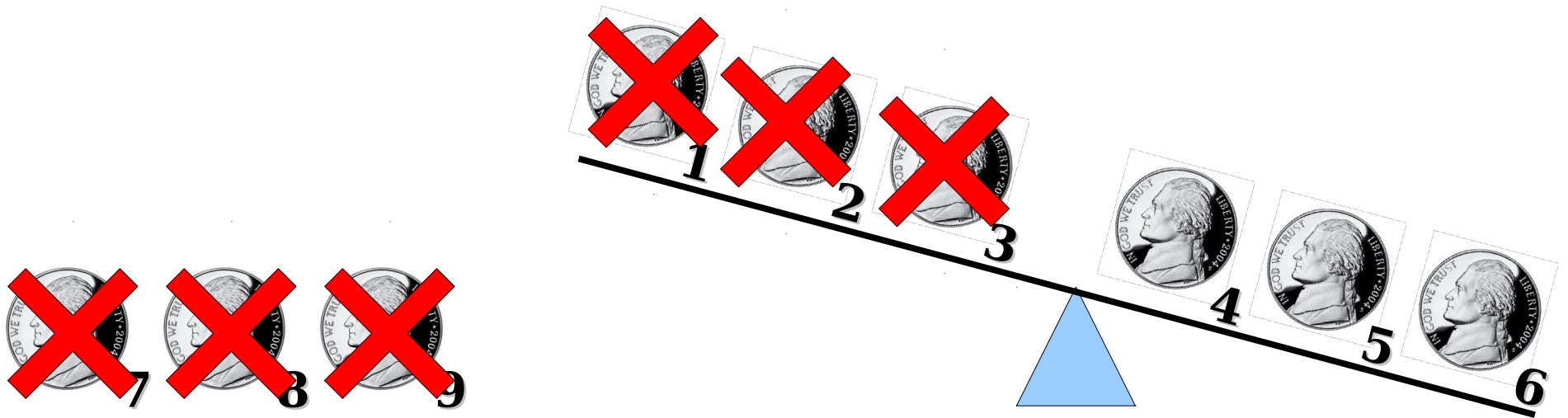


Now we have one weighing
to find the counterfeit out
of these three coins.

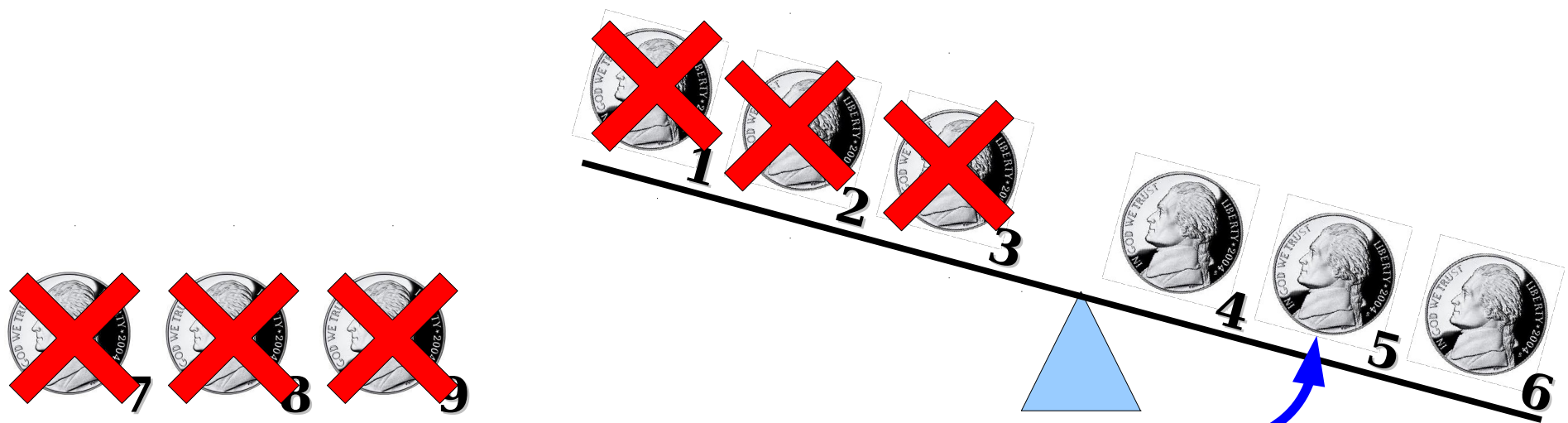
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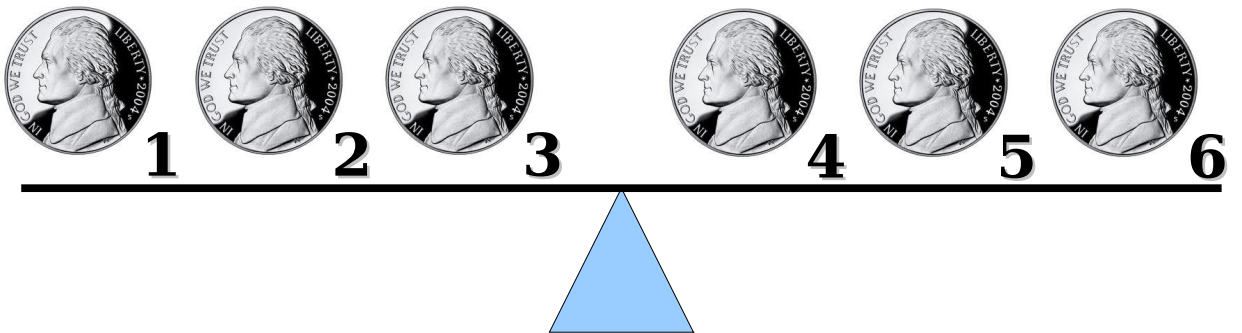


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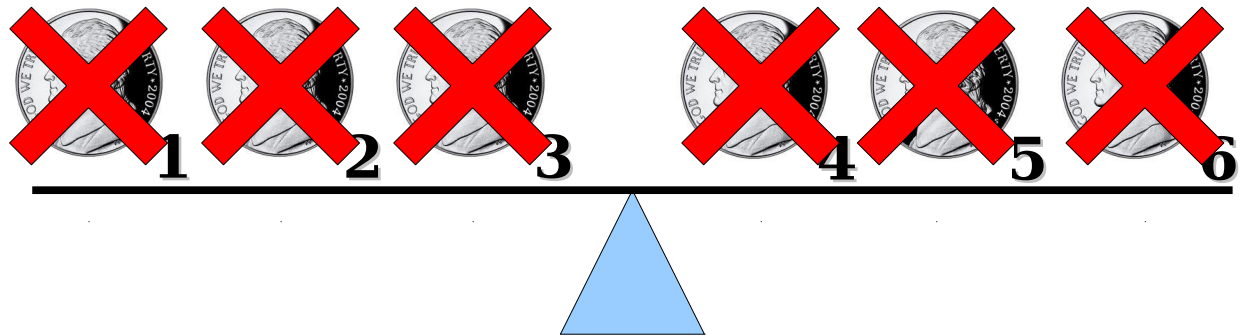


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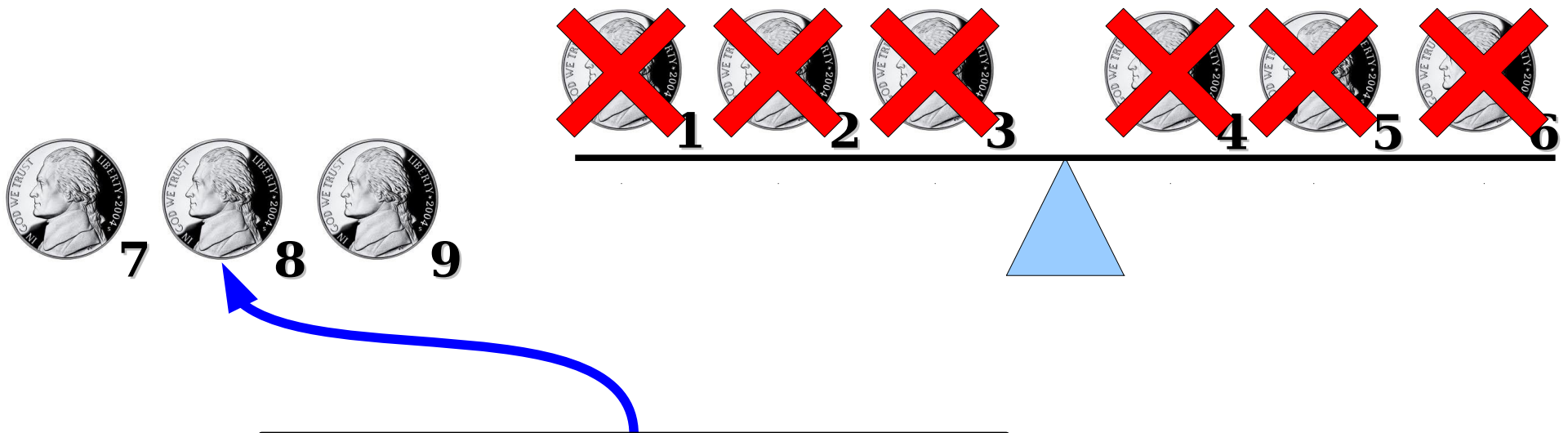
Finding the Counterfeit Coin



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Finding the Counterfeit Coin



Now we have one weighing
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If we have n weighings on the scale, what is the largest number of coins out of which we can find the counterfeit?

A Pattern

- Assume out of the coins that are given, exactly one is counterfeit and weighs more than the other coins.
- If we have no weighings, how many coins can we have while still being able to find the counterfeit?
 - **One coin**, since that coin has to be the counterfeit!
- If we have one weighing, we can find the counterfeit out of **three** coins.
- If we have two weighings, we can find the counterfeit out of **nine** coins.

So far, we have

$$\mathbf{1, 3, 9 = 3^0, 3^1, 3^2}$$

Does this pattern continue?

Theorem: Given n weighings, we can detect which of 3^n coins is counterfeit.

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Proof: By induction.

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Case 2: Side B is heavier.

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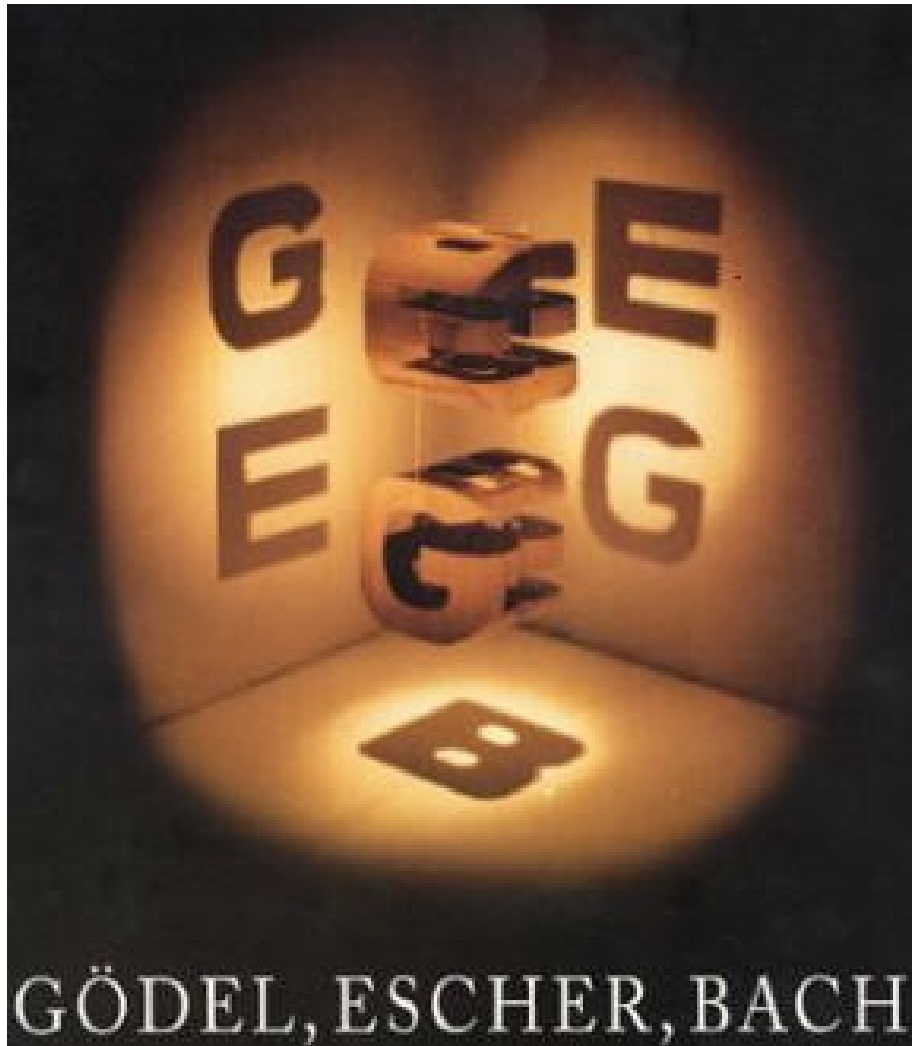
Case 2: Side B is heavier. Then the counterfeit must be in group B .

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In all cases, we use one weighing to find a set of 3^n coins containing the counterfeit coin. By the inductive hypothesis, with n more weighings, we can find which of these 3^n coins is counterfeit. This means that we can find the counterfeit of 3^{n+1} coins in $n + 1$ weighings. Thus $P(n + 1)$ holds, completing the induction. ■

The MU Puzzle

Gödel, Escher Bach: An Eternal Golden Braid



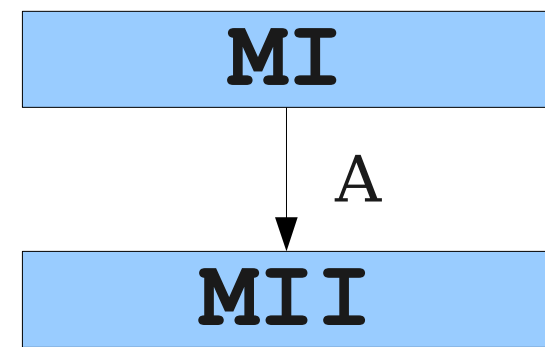
- Pulitzer-Prize winning book exploring recursion, computability, and consciousness.
- Written by Douglas Hofstadter, computer scientist at Indiana University.
- A great (but dense!) read.

The **MU** Puzzle

- Begin with the string **MI**.
- Repeatedly apply one of the following operations:
 - Double the contents of the string after the **M**: for example, **MIIU** becomes **MIUIIU** or **MI** becomes **MII**.
 - Replace **III** with **U**: **MIIII** becomes **MUI** or **MIU**
 - Append **U** to the string if it ends in **I**: **MI** becomes **MIU**
 - Remove any **UU**: **MUUU** becomes **MU**
- **Question:** How do you transform **MI** to **MU**?

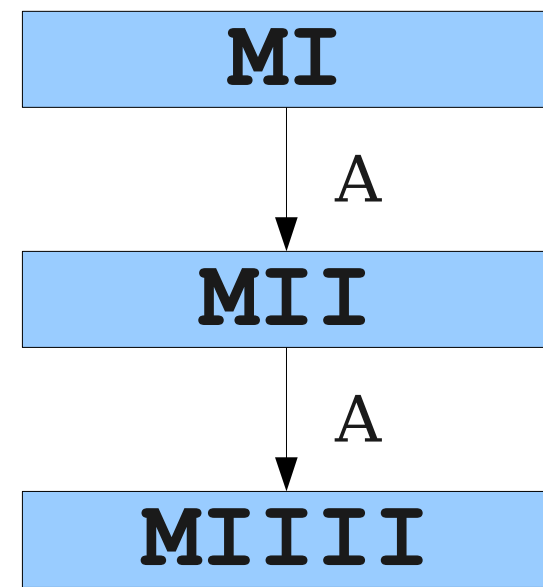
- A) Double the contents of the string after **M**.
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- C) Remove **UU**
- D) Append **U** if the string ends in **I**.

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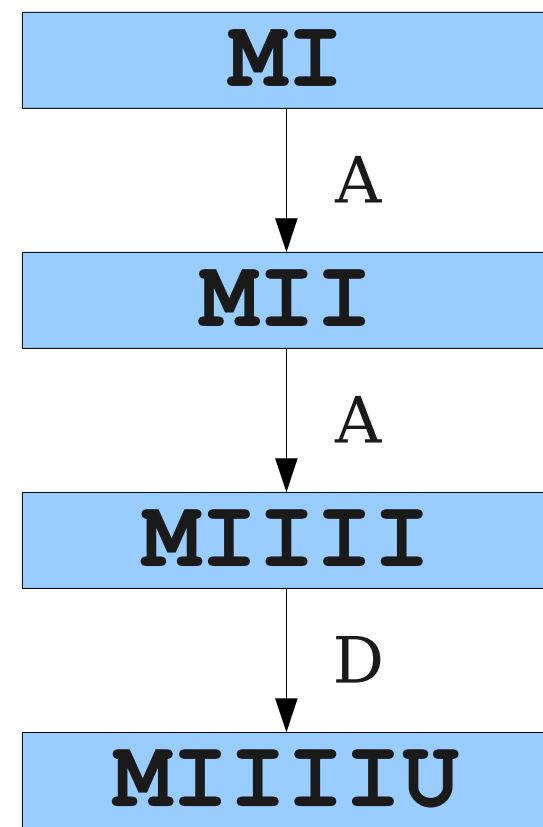


- A) Double the contents of the string after **M**.
- B) Replace **III** with **U**.
- C) Remove **UU**
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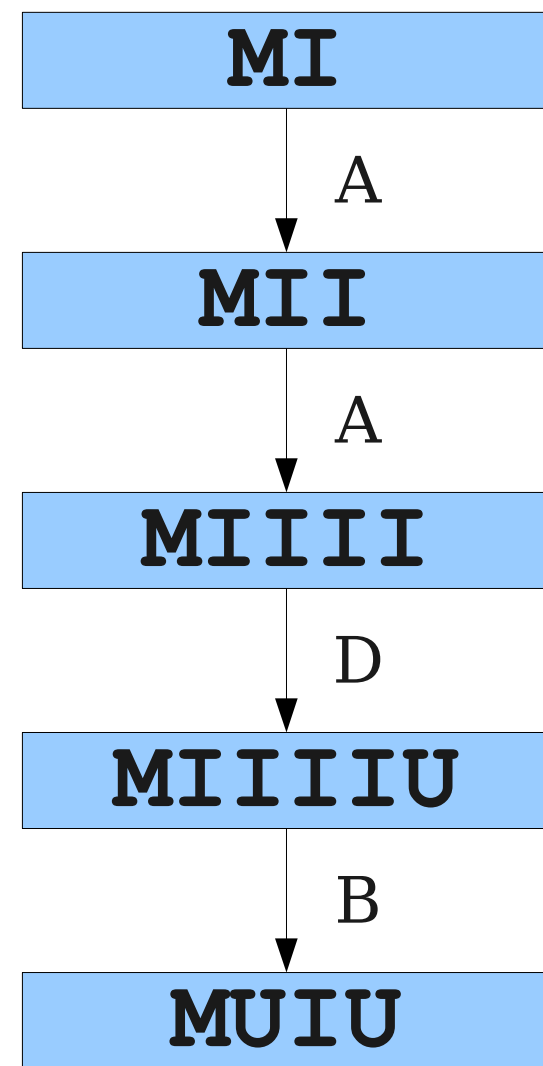
- A) Double the contents of the string after **M**.
- B) Replace **III** with **U**.
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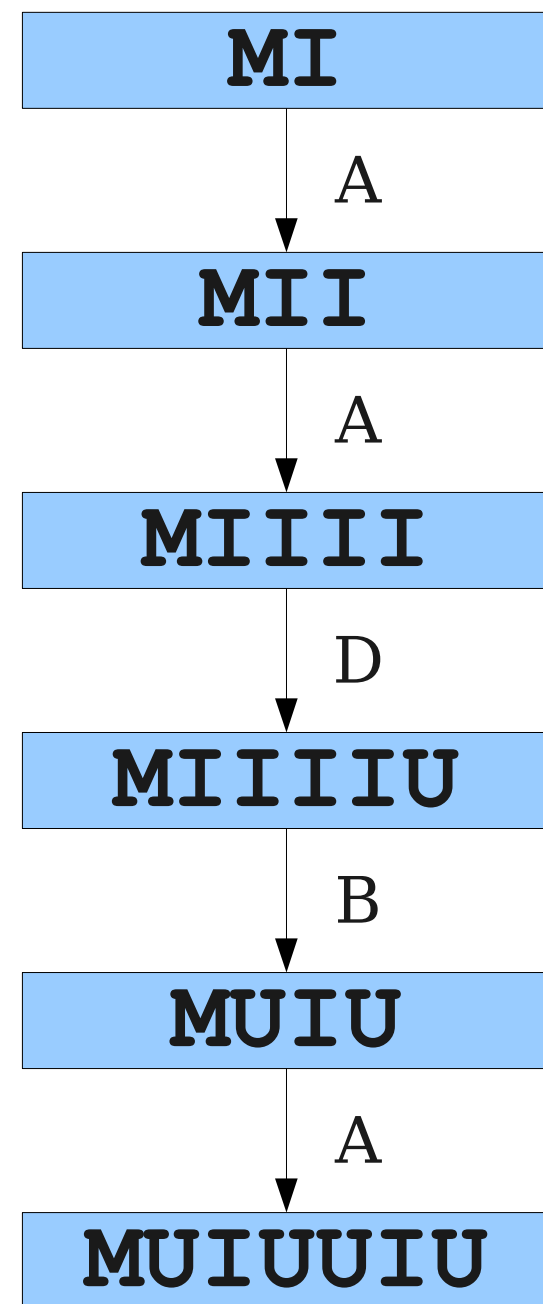
- A) Double the contents of the string after **M**.
- B) Replace **III** with **U**.
- C) Remove **UU**
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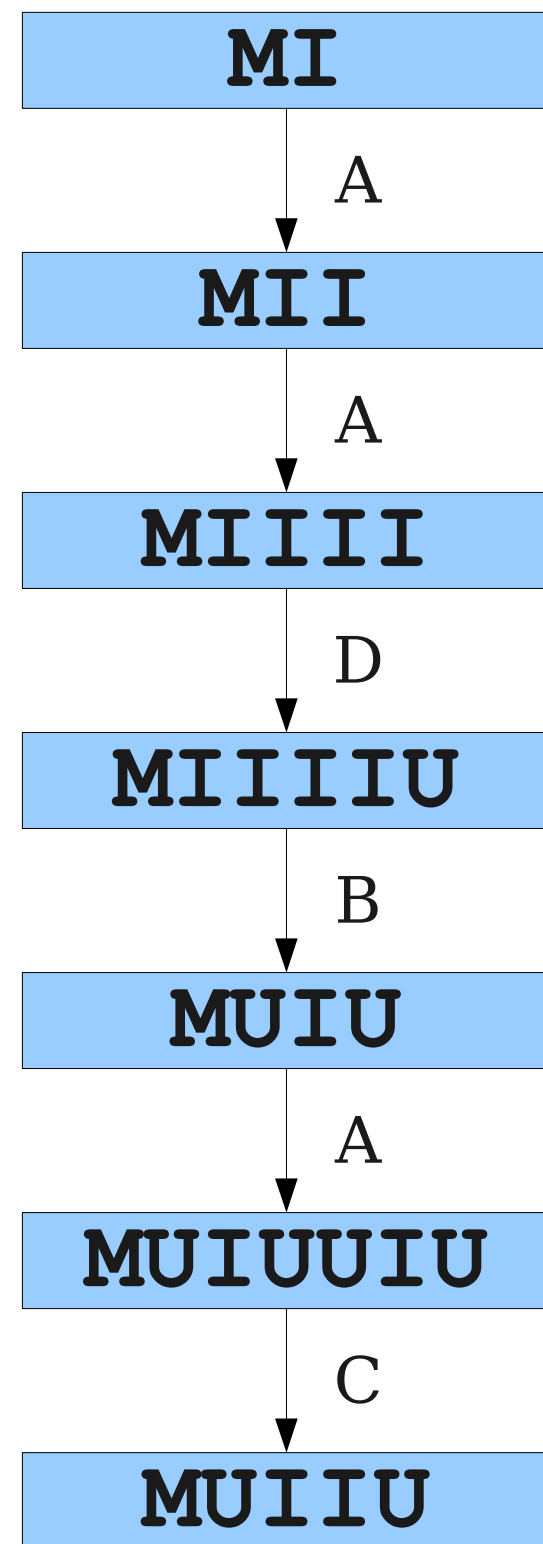
- A) Double the contents of the string after **M**.
- B) **Replace IIII with U.**
- C) Remove UU
- D) Append U if the string ends in I.



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- B) Replace **III** with **U**.
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Try It!

Starting with **MI**, apply these operations to make **MU**:

- A) Double the contents of the string after **M**.
- B) Replace **III** with **U**.
- C) Remove **UU**
- D) Append **U** if the string ends in **I**.

Not a single person in this room
was able to solve this puzzle.

Are we even sure that there is a solution?

Counting I's

Counting I's



The Key Insight

- Initially, the number of **I**'s is **not** a multiple of three.
- To make **MU**, the number of **I**'s must end up as a multiple of three.
- Can we *ever* make the number of **I**'s a multiple of three?

Lemma: Beginning with **MI** and applying any legal sequence of moves, the number of **I**s never becomes a multiple of three.

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Proof: By induction.

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Proof: By induction. Let $P(n)$ be “Starting with **MI** and making n moves, the number of **Is** is not a multiple of 3.”

Lemma: Beginning with **MI** and applying any legal sequence of moves, the number of **Is** never becomes a multiple of three.

Proof: By induction. Let $P(n)$ be “Starting with **MI** and making n moves, the number of **Is** is not a multiple of 3.” We prove $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

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Proof: By induction. Let $P(n)$ be “Starting with **MI** and making n moves, the number of **Is** is not a multiple of 3.” We prove $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. As a base case, we prove $P(0)$, that after making no moves the number of **Is** is not a multiple of 3.

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Case 1: “Double the string after the **M**.” Then we end up with either $2(3k+1) = 6k+2 = 3(2k)+2$ or $2(3k+2) = 6k+4 = 3(2k+1) + 1$ **I**s, neither of which is a multiple of 3.

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Lemma: Beginning with **MI** and applying any legal sequence of moves, the number of **I**s never becomes a multiple of three.

Proof: By induction. Let $P(n)$ be “Starting with **MI** and making n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3.” We prove $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. As a base case, we prove $P(0)$, that after making no moves the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. **MI** has one **I** in it, which is not a multiple of 3.

For the inductive step, assume for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that $P(n)$ holds: after any sequence of n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. We prove $P(n+1)$: after $n+1$ moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. Any sequence of $n+1$ moves is a sequence of n moves followed by an $(n+1)$ st move. By the inductive hypothesis, after the first n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3, so before the $(n+1)$ st move, the number of **I**s equals either $3k+1$ or $3k+2$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the $(n+1)$ st move:

Case 1: “Double the string after the **M**.” Then we end up with either $2(3k+1) = 6k+2 = 3(2k)+2$ or $2(3k+2) = 6k+4 = 3(2k+1) + 1$ **I**s, neither of which is a multiple of 3.

Case 2: “Delete **UU**” or “append **U**.” The number of **I**s is unchanged.

Case 3: “Delete **III**.”

Lemma: Beginning with **MI** and applying any legal sequence of moves, the number of **I**s never becomes a multiple of three.

Proof: By induction. Let $P(n)$ be “Starting with **MI** and making n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3.” We prove $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. As a base case, we prove $P(0)$, that after making no moves the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. **MI** has one **I** in it, which is not a multiple of 3.

For the inductive step, assume for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that $P(n)$ holds: after any sequence of n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. We prove $P(n+1)$: after $n+1$ moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. Any sequence of $n+1$ moves is a sequence of n moves followed by an $(n+1)$ st move. By the inductive hypothesis, after the first n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3, so before the $(n+1)$ st move, the number of **I**s equals either $3k+1$ or $3k+2$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the $(n+1)$ st move:

Case 1: “Double the string after the **M**.” Then we end up with either $2(3k+1) = 6k+2 = 3(2k)+2$ or $2(3k+2) = 6k+4 = 3(2k+1) + 1$ **I**s, neither of which is a multiple of 3.

Case 2: “Delete **UU**” or “append **U**.” The number of **I**s is unchanged.

Case 3: “Delete **IIII**.” The number of **I**s either changes from $3k + 1$ to $3k+1 - 3 = 3(k-1)+1$ or from $3k+2$ to $3k+2 - 3 = 3(k-1) + 2$, neither of which is a multiple of 3.

Lemma: Beginning with **MI** and applying any legal sequence of moves, the number of **I**s never becomes a multiple of three.

Proof: By induction. Let $P(n)$ be “Starting with **MI** and making n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3.” We prove $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. As a base case, we prove $P(0)$, that after making no moves the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. **MI** has one **I** in it, which is not a multiple of 3.

For the inductive step, assume for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ that $P(n)$ holds: after any sequence of n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. We prove $P(n+1)$: after $n+1$ moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3. Any sequence of $n+1$ moves is a sequence of n moves followed by an $(n+1)$ st move. By the inductive hypothesis, after the first n moves, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of 3, so before the $(n+1)$ st move, the number of **I**s equals either $3k+1$ or $3k+2$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Consider the $(n+1)$ st move:

Case 1: “Double the string after the **M**.” Then we end up with either $2(3k+1) = 6k+2 = 3(2k)+2$ or $2(3k+2) = 6k+4 = 3(2k+1) + 1$ **I**s, neither of which is a multiple of 3.

Case 2: “Delete **UU**” or “append **U**.” The number of **I**s is unchanged.

Case 3: “Delete **IIII**.” The number of **I**s either changes from $3k + 1$ to $3k+1 - 3 = 3(k-1)+1$ or from $3k+2$ to $3k+2 - 3 = 3(k-1) + 2$, neither of which is a multiple of 3.

Thus after the $(n+1)$ st move, the number of **I**s is not a multiple of three, so $P(n+1)$ holds, completing the induction. ■

Theorem: The **MU** puzzle has no solution.

Proof: By contradiction; assume it has a solution. By our lemma, the number of **I**'s in the final string must not be a multiple of three. However, for the solution to be valid, the number of **I**'s must be 0, which is a multiple of three. We have reached a contradiction, so our assumption was wrong and the **MU** puzzle has no solution. ■

Algorithms and Loop Invariants

- The proof we just made had the form
 - “If P is true before we perform an action, it is true after we perform an action.”
- We could therefore conclude that after any series of actions of any length, if P was true beforehand, it is true now.
- In algorithmic analysis, this is called a **loop invariant**.
- Proofs on algorithms often use loop invariants to reason about the behavior of algorithms.
 - Take CS161 for more details!

Next Time

- **Variations on Induction**
 - Starting induction later.
 - Taking larger steps.
 - Complete induction.