# Lec 08: Induction I

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#### The sum of all numbers between 1-100

A folk tale about Gauss is that he was an annoying and disruptive elementary school student, so much so, that his teacher asked him to sum all the numbers between 1-100 to distract him to get some peace and quite in the classroom.

But Gauss found the answer within a few seconds, without having to sum up all the numbers up directly.



Carl Friedrich Gauss 1777-1855

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# Gauss' "trick"

100 items

$$2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{100} = 100 \cdot 101 = 10100$$

Dividing by 2 gives us the result

$$\sum_{i=1}^{100} = (100 \cdot 101)/2 = 5050$$

# Generalizing Gauss' "trick"

What if we wanted to find a formula for the sum of the numbers 1-to-n?

n items

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

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

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# Proving this based just on the equation

What if I asked you to prove it based on the equation alone?

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^+, \sum_{1}^{n} = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

We can test for specific values,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{3} i = 1 + 2 + 3 = 6 = 3(3-1)/2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10 = 55 = 10(10+1)/2$$

As a universal quantifier, we can't check for all n.

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# Definition of (Weak) Induction

#### Definition (Method of Proof by Mathematical Induction)

To prove that  $\forall n \geq a$ , a property P(n) is true, we must prove two cases:

- Base Case: P(a) is true
- Inductive Step:  $(\forall k \geq a)(P(k) \implies P(k+1))$  is true.



Figure 5.2.3 If the kth domino falls backward, it pushes the (k + 1)st domino backward also.

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### The Inductive Hypothesis (IH)

Note the inductive step requires that you prove an implication:

$$P(k) \implies P(k+1)$$

That is, "if P(k), then P(k+1)."

Because we are proving an implication, we can assume that the hypothesis of the implication, P(k), is true in proving that P(k+1) is true.

The assumption that P(k) is true is referred to as the inductive hypothesis.

# Proving Gauss' formula with induction (1)

#### Theorem

For all integers  $n \geq 1$ ,  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = n(n+1)/2$ 

Let P(k) be the preposition that the sum of the integers 1-to-k is equivalent to the formula k(k+1)/2. We must show this to be true  $\forall k \geq 1$ 

We must prove two cases.

Base case: P(1)

Inductive case:  $(\forall k \geq 1)(\underbrace{P(k)}_{\text{Adjust III}} \Longrightarrow \underbrace{P(k+1)}_{\text{P}(k+1)})$ 

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# Proving Gauss' formula with induction (2)

The base case is straightforward. This is clearly true at P(1).

**Proof of Base Case:**  $P(1) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{1} i = 1(1+1)/2$ .

This is directly true because  $\sum_{i=1}^{1} = 1$  and 1(1+1)/2 = 1.

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### Describing the inductive step

Assume the inductive hypothesis (IH)

$$P(k) \equiv \left[\sum_{i=1}^{k} i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}\right]$$

Can we show?

$$P(k+1) \equiv \left[\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}\right]$$

Can we show this equality is true?

# Inductive step (1)

#### **Proof of Inductive Step:** $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$

We can rewrite the sum of the integers formula 1-to-(n+1) with two sums.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} i\right) + (k+1)$$

By the inductive hypothesis,  $\sum_{i=1}^{k} i = k(k+1)/2$ 

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

# Inductive step (2)

Proof of Inductive Step:  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$  (cont.)

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

Which shows our result.

#### **Exercise**

Proof the following using induction.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (6i-2) = n(3n+1)$$

For all integers  $n \ge 1$ ,  $2^n - 1$  is odd.

For all integers  $n \ge 1$ ,  $5^n - 1$  is divisible by 4.

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### Arithmetic and Geometric Sequence

The sum of the first n integers is also called the arithmetic sum and comes up often in computer science.

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

The geometric sum is another import summation in computer science that relates to exponentiation of ratios.

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r^i$$
 Geometric Sum

Where  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$  (set of rationals).

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# Deriving the Geometric sequence (1)

Consider the sequence

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} = r^0 + r^1 + r^2 + \ldots + r^{n-3} + r^{n-2} + r^{n-1}$$

If we multiply the sequence by (1-r), it subtracts the sequence from the sequence multiplied by r

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# Deriving the Geometric sequence (2)

With some basic math,

$$(1-r)(r^0+r^1+r^2+\ldots+r^{n-3}+r^{n-2}+r^{n-1})=1-r^n$$

$$(r^0 + r^1 + r^2 + \dots + r^{n-3} + r^{n-2} + r^{n-1}) = \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r}$$

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

#### **Exercise**

Proof that the sum of the geometric sequence using induction.

For all integers n > 0,

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

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There is a very strong connection between recursion and induction

This connection is fundamental to computer science, both for how we program but also for how we *prove* the correctness of programs and data structures.

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# Summation as recursion

The sum of 1-to-10, is 10 plus the sum of 1-to-9.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} i = \underbrace{1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9}_{\sum_{i=1}^{8} j} + 10$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} i = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{9} j\right) + 10$$

And, the sum of 1-to-9, is 9 plus the sum of 1-to-8.

$$\sum_{j=1}^{9} j = \underbrace{1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8}_{j=1, k} + 9$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{9} j = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{8} k\right) + 9$$

And . . . there is a sum that is obvious,  $\sum_{i=1}^1 = 1$ 

# Generalizing the recursion

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n-1} j\right) + n$$

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

In terms of functions/programming,

$$Sum(n) = Sum(n-1) + n \qquad Sum(1) = 1$$

### Connection between induction and recursion

**Recursion:** "If I assume the function Sum computes the result for Sum(n) = x, then I can compute the result for Sum(n+1) = x + (n+1)."

**Induction**: "If I assume the formula f is correct for  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} = f(n)$ , then I can prove that formula f is correct for  $\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} = f(n+1)$ ."

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# **Additional Exercises**

For all integers n > 0,  $11^n - 4^n$  is divisible by 7

For all integers  $n \ge 2$ ,  $n^2 > n + 1$ 

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