# THE PRINCIPLE OF INDUCTION

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The Principle of Induction: Let  $a$  be an integer, and let  $P(n)$ be a statement (or proposition) about  $n$  for each integer  $n \geq a$ . The principle of induction is a way of proving that  $P(n)$  is true for all integers  $n \geq a$ . It works in two steps:

- (a) [Base case:] Prove that  $P(a)$  is true.
- (b) **[Inductive step:**] Assume that  $P(k)$  is true for some integer

 $k \ge a$ , and use this to prove that  $P(k+1)$  is true.

Then we may conclude that  $P(n)$  is true for all integers  $n \geq a$ .



This principle is very useful in problem solving, especially when we observe a pattern and want to prove it.

The trick to using the Principle of Induction properly is to spot how to use  $P(k)$  to prove  $P(k+1)$ . Sometimes this must be done rather ingeniously!

**Problem 1.** Prove that for any integer  $n \geq 1$ ,

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

**Solution.** Let  $P(n)$  denote the proposition to be proved. First let's examine  $P(1)$ : this states that

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

which is correct.

Next, we assume that  $P(k)$  is true for some positive integer  $k$ , i.e.

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

.

.

and we want to use this to prove  $P(k + 1)$ , i.e.

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

Taking the LHS and using  $P(k)$ ,

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

and thus  $P(k + 1)$  is true. This completes the proof.

**Problem 2.** Find a formula for the sum of the first  $n$  odd numbers.

Solution. Note that this time we are not told the formula that we have to prove; we have to find it ourselves! Let's try some small numbers and see if a pattern emerges:

$$
1 = 1; \quad 1 + 3 = 4; \quad 1 + 3 + 5 = 9;
$$
  

$$
1 + 3 + 5 + 7 = 16; \quad 1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9 = 25;
$$

We conjecture (guess) that the sum of the first  $n$  odd numbers is equal to  $n^2.$  Now let's prove this proposition using the principle of induction; call it  $P(n)$ .

Our statement  $P(n)$  is that

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

First we prove the base case  $P(1)$ , i.e.

$$
1 = 1^2
$$

This is certainly true. Now we assume that  $P(k)$  is true, i.e.

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

and consider  $P(k + 1)$ :

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

Taking the LHS and using  $P(k)$ ,

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

and thus  $P(k + 1)$  is true. This completes the proof.

**Exercise 1.** Show that for all  $n \geq 1$ ,

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

.

**Problem 3.** For any positive integer  $n$ , find the largest power of 2 that divides  $(n + 1)(n + 2) \cdots (2n)$ .

**Solution.** Let  $f(n) = (n + 1)(n + 2) \cdots (2n)$ . First, let's find the answer for  $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$  to see if any pattern emerges:

> $n=1: \quad f(1)=2$  is divisible by  $2^1$  $n=2: \quad f(2)=3\cdot 4$  is divisible by  $2^2$  $n=3: \quad f(3)=4\cdot 5\cdot 6$  is divisible by  $2^3$  $n=4: \quad f(4)=5\cdot 6\cdot 7\cdot 8$  is divisible by  $2^4$

So it seems that the largest power of 2 dividing  $f(n)$  is  $2^n$ . Now, let's prove this by induction.

The base case  $n = 1$  is already done above. Assume that the result holds for  $n = k$ , i.e., that the largest power of 2 dividing  $f(k)=(k+1)(k+2)\cdots(2k)$  is  $2^k$  for some  $k\geq 1.$  Now look at

$$
f(k+1) = (k+2)(k+3)\cdots(2k)(2k+1)(2k+2)
$$
  
= [(k+1)(k+2)\cdots(2k)] \cdot \left[ \frac{(2k+1)(2k+2)}{k+1} \right]  
= 2(2k+1)f(k)

Since  $2k+1$  is odd, and the highest power of  $2$  dividing  $f(k)$  is  $2^k$ , it follows that the highest power of  $2$  dividing  $f(k+1)$  is  $2^{k+1}.$  This completes the proof.

## Alternative Solution. Note that

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

$$
= \frac{1\cdot 2\cdot 3\cdots 2n}{2^n\cdot 1\cdot 2\cdot 3\cdots n}
$$

$$
= \frac{1\cdot 2\cdot 3\cdots 2n}{2\cdot 4\cdot 6\cdots 2n}
$$

$$
= 1\cdot 3\cdot 5\cdot 7\cdots (2n-1).
$$

This is the product of all the *odd* integers from 1 to  $2n - 1$ .

**Exercise 2.** Show that for all  $n \geq 1$ , we have  $f(n) = g(n)$ , where

$$
f(n) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n - 1} - \frac{1}{2n}
$$

and

$$
g(n) = \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \frac{1}{n+3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n}.
$$

# Exercise 3.

Prove that every number in the sequence

1007, 10017, 100117, 1001117, 10011117, . . .

is divisible by 53.

#### Problem 4.

(a) Consider a circle and  $l$  lines in the plane, such that every line intersects the circle at two distinct points. Let  $p$  denote the number of points strictly inside the circle at which a pair of lines intersect each other. Also, let  $r$  denote the number of regions into which the circle is divided by the lines. Prove that

$$
r=l+p+1.
$$

### Solution.

(a) We will first prove that  $r = l+p+1$  by induction on the number of lines.

The base case  $l = 0$  is trivial; with no lines, there are no points of intersection inside the circle  $(p = 0)$  and the number of regions is  $r = 1$  (the circle itself).

Suppose the relationship  $r = l + p + 1$  is valid for some number l of lines. We will show that it remains valid if another line is added. Let's add a new line to the picture. Suppose that it intersects the other lines at  $s$  points *inside* the circle (note that  $s$  could be zero). These s points of intersection split the new line into  $s + 1$  segments within the circle, and each segment splits an old region into two new regions.

Thus *l* increases by 1, *p* increases by *s*, and *r* increases by  $s + 1$ . The formula  $r = l + p + 1$  remains valid since both sides increase by  $s + 1$ .

Therefore, by the principle of induction, the result holds for any number of lines  $l \geq 1$ .

(b) Let n be a positive integer. Place n points on the circumference of a circle, and draw all possible chords through pairs of these points. Assume that no three chords are concurrent (meet in a single point). Let  $a_n$  be the number of regions into which the circle is divided. Find a formula for  $a_n$ .

## Solution.

We will use the result from part (a). Here we have:

- By definition, the number of regions is  $r = a_n$ ;
- Each pair of points on the circle determines a unique line, so  $l = \binom{n}{2}$  $\binom{n}{2}$ ;
- Each set of 4 points on the circle produces a unique intersection point inside the circle, so  $p = \binom{n}{4}$  $\binom{n}{4}$  .

Thus we obtain

$$
a_n = \binom{n}{2} + \binom{n}{4} + 1.
$$

**Problem 5.** Every road in Uniland is one-way. Every pair of cities is connected by exactly one direct road. Show that there exists a city which can be reached from every other city either directly of via at most one other city.

**Solution.** Suppose there are  $n$  cities in Uniland. We will prove this by induction on n, starting with the base case  $n = 2$ . So first we prove that the proposition holds for 2 cities. This is easy since if there are only two cities A and B with a road from A to B, then  $B$  satisfies the conditions of the problem.

A city satisfying the conditions of the problem will be called a  $H$ city. Next we assume that the result holds for  $k$  cities. This means that among the k cities there must be a H-city; let's call it A.

This means that every other city in Uniland has a road going directly to  $A$  (in which case we call it a  $D$ -city for  $A$ ), or else a route going to  $A$  using some  $D$ -city  $X$  (in which case we call it an  $N$ -city for A). So every city in Uniland is either a D-city or an N-city for A. Next we add one more city to Uniland, call this city  $P$ . We use the following reasoning:

- **Case 1:** If a road goes from P to A, then P is a D-city for A. Therefore  $A$  is a  $H$ -city for the new problem.
- **Case 2:** Let X be a  $D$ -city. If there is a road from  $P$  to  $D$ , then  $P$  is an  $N$ -city for  $A$ . Therefore  $A$  is a  $H$ -city for the new problem.
- **Case 3:** The only other possibility is that roads go from  $A$  to P and from every D-city of A to P. But there is also a direct road from every N-city of A to some D-city of A. And so  $P$ is a  $H$ -city for the new problem.

#### Alternative Solution using the "Extremal Principle".

Let  $m$  be the *maximum* number of direct roads leading into any city, and let  $M$  be a city for which this maximum is attained.

Let D be the set of  $m$  cities with direct connections into  $M$ .

Let R be the set of all cities apart from M and the cities in  $D$ .

If R is empty, then M is the required city. If  $X \in R$ , then there is a city  $E$  in  $D$  such that a road leads from  $E$  in  $D$ , so that is it possible to reach  $M$  from  $X$  via  $D$ .

If such a city  $E$  did not exist, this would mean that all cities in  $D$ connect directly to X.

Since M also connects directly to X, there are  $m+1$  direct roads into  $X$ . This is a contradiction, since the maximum number of direct roads leading into any city is  $m$ .

Therefore, every city with the maximum number of entering roads satisfies the conditions of the problem.

#### Exercise 4 (BMO Round 1, 1997).

For positive integers n, the sequence  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  is defined by  $a_1 = 1$  and

$$
a_n = \left(\frac{n+1}{n-1}\right)(a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{n-1})
$$

for  $n > 1$ . Determine the value of  $a_{1997}$ .