1.2: Induction

In the section, we consider several induction principles, i.e., methods for proving that every element x of some set A has some property P(x).

Principle of Mathematical Induction

Theorem 1.2.1 (Principle of Mathematical Induction) Suppose P(n) is a property of a natural number n. If

(basis step)

P(0) and

(inductive step)

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, if (†) P(n), then P(n+1),

then,

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, P(n).

We refer to the formula (†) as the *inductive hypothesis*.

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 2 / 13

Principle of Strong Induction

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Theorem 1.2.4 (Principle of Strong Induction)
Suppose P(n) is a property of a natural number n. If
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for all n \in \mathbb{N},
if (\dagger) for all m \in \mathbb{N}, if m < n, then P(m),
then P(n),
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then

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, P(n).

We refer to the formula (†) as the *inductive hypothesis*.

Proof. Follows by mathematical induction, but using a property Q(n) derived from P(n). See the book. \Box

Example Proof Using Strong Induction

Proposition 1.2.5

Every nonempty set of natural numbers has a least element.

Proof. Let X be a nonempty set of natural numbers.

We begin by using strong induction to show that, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

if $n \in X$, then X has a least element.

Suppose $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and assume the inductive hypothesis: for all $m \in \mathbb{N}$, if m < n, then

if $m \in X$, then X has a least element.

We must show that

if $n \in X$, then X has a least element.

Example Proof (Cont.)

Proof (cont.). Suppose $n \in X$. It remains to show that X has a least element. If n is less-than-or-equal-to every element of X, then we are done. Otherwise, there is an $m \in X$ such that m < n. By the inductive hypothesis, we have that

if $m \in X$, then X has a least element.

But $m \in X$, and thus X has a least element. This completes our strong induction.

Example Proof (Cont.)

Proof (cont.). Now we use the result of our strong induction to prove that X has a least element. Since X is a nonempty subset of \mathbb{N} , there is an $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n \in X$. By the result of our induction, we can conclude that

if $n \in X$, then X has a least element.

But $n \in X$, and thus X has a least element. \Box

Well-founded Induction

We can also do induction over a well-founded relation.

A relation R on a set A is *well-founded* iff every nonempty subset X of A has an R-minimal element, where an element $x \in X$ is R-minimal in X iff there is no $y \in X$ such that y R x.

Given $x, y \in A$, we say that y is a predecessor of x in R iff $y \in R$. Thus $x \in X$ is R-minimal in X iff none of x's predecessors in R (there may be none) are in X.

For example, in Proposition 1.2.5, we proved that the strict total ordering < on $\mathbb N$ is well-founded.

On the other hand, the strict total ordering < on \mathbb{Z} is *not* well-founded, as \mathbb{Z} itself lacks a <-minimal element.

Well-founded Induction (Cont.)

Here's another negative example, showing that even if the underlying set is finite, the relation need not be well-founded. Let $A = \{0, 1\}$, and $R = \{(0, 1), (1, 0)\}$. Then 0 is the only predecessor of 1 in R, and 1 is the only predecessor of 0 in R. Of the nonempty subsets of A, we have that $\{0\}$ and $\{1\}$ have R-minimal elements. But consider A itself. Then 0 is not R-minimal in A, because $1 \in A$ and 1 R 0. And 1 is not R-minimal in A, because $0 \in A$ and 0 R 1. Hence R is not well-founded.

Principle of Well-founded Induction

Theorem 1.2.8 (Principle of Well-founded Induction) Suppose A is a set, R is a well-founded relation on A, and P(x) is a property of an element $x \in A$. If

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for all x \in A,
if (†) for all y \in A, if y \in R, then P(y),
then P(x),
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then

for all $x \in A$, P(x).

We refer to the formula (†) as the *inductive hypothesis*. When $A = \mathbb{N}$ and $R = \langle$, this is the same as the principle of strong induction.

Proof of Well-founded Induction

Proof. Suppose A is a set, R is a well-founded relation on A, P(x) is a property of an element $x \in A$, and

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(‡) for all x \in A,
if for all y \in A, if y \in R, then P(y),
then P(x).
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We must show that, for all $x \in A$, P(x).

Suppose, toward a contradiction, that it is not the case that, for all $x \in A$, P(x). Hence there is an $x \in A$ such that P(x) is false. Let $X = \{x \in A \mid P(x) \text{ is false }\}$. Thus $x \in X$, showing that X is non-empty. Because R is well-founded on A, it follows that there is a $z \in X$ that is R-minimal in X, i.e., such that there is no $y \in X$ such that y R z.

▲ □ ► 10 / 13 Proof of Well-founded Induction (Cont.)

Proof (cont.). By (‡), we have that

if for all $y \in A$, if $y \in R$, then P(y), then P(z).

Because $z \in X$, we have that P(z) is false. Thus, to obtain a contradiction, it will suffice to show that

for all $y \in A$, if y R z, then P(y).

Suppose $y \in A$, and $y \not R z$. We must show that P(y). Because z is *R*-minimal in X, it follows that $y \notin X$. Thus P(y). \Box

Well-founded Induction on Predecessor Relation

Let the predecessor relation $\operatorname{pred}_{\mathbb{N}}$ on \mathbb{N} be $\{(n, n+1) \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Then $\operatorname{pred}_{\mathbb{N}}$ is well-founded on \mathbb{N} , because $\operatorname{pred}_{\mathbb{N}} \subseteq \langle \text{ and } \langle \text{ is well-founded on } \mathbb{N}$ (see Proposition 1.2.9 in the book).

0 has no predecessors in **pred**_N, and, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, *n* is the only predecessor of n + 1 in **pred**_N. Consequently, if a zero/non-zero case analysis is used, a proof by well-founded induction on **pred**_N will look like a proof by mathematical induction.

Well-founded Induction on Integers via Absolute Value

Let *R* be the relation on \mathbb{Z} such that, for all $n, m \in \mathbb{Z}$, n R m iff |n| < |m|.

Since $|\cdot| \in \mathbb{Z} \to \mathbb{N}$ and \langle is well-founded on \mathbb{N} , Proposition 1.2.10 from the book tells us that R is well-founded on \mathbb{Z} .

If we do a well-founded induction on R, when proving P(n), for $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, we can make use of P(m) for any $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ whose absolute value is strictly less than the absolute value of n.

E.g., when proving P(-10), we could make use of P(5) or P(-9).