

## 8. VARIATIONS ON A THEME

Here we present some variations on the method of induction.

First we note that it is not really necessary to start at  $n = 1$ . Sometimes it makes sense to start at zero and sometimes it makes sense to start at a larger value of  $n$ .

**Lemma 8.1.** *For every integer  $n \geq 4$ ,*

$$2^n < n!.$$

*Proof.* Let  $P(n)$  be the statement that

$$2^n < n!.$$

We prove that  $P(n)$  holds for all integers  $n \geq 4$ . We proceed by mathematical induction.

We first check that  $P(4)$  holds. If  $n = 4$  then the LHS is

$$2^n = 2^4 = 2 \cdot 2^3,$$

and the RHS is

$$n! = 4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 2^3 \cdot 3.$$

As  $2 < 3$  it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} 2^4 &= 2 \cdot 2^3 \\ &< 3 \cdot 2^3 \\ &= 4!. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $P(4)$  is true.

We now check that  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$ , for every  $k \geq 4$ . Assume that  $P(k)$  holds. We check that  $P(k+1)$  holds. We have

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{k+1} &= 2 \cdot 2^k \\ &< 2 \cdot k! \\ &\leq (k+1) \cdot k! \\ &= (k+1)!, \end{aligned}$$

where we used the inductive hypothesis to get from line one to line two and the fact that  $k \geq 1$  to get from line two to line three. Thus  $P(k+1)$  holds.

We checked that  $P(4)$  holds and that  $P(k) \implies P(k+1)$  holds and so by the principle of mathematical induction  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 4$ , that is, for every positive integer  $n$ ,

$$2^n \leq n!. \quad \square$$

Another place that mathematical induction turns up is in definitions, although in this context it is often called recursion. Here are three well-known examples.

**Definition 8.2.** Let  $n$  be a non-negative integer.

The **factorial** of  $n$ , denoted  $n!$ , is defined recursively by

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)! & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 8.3.** Let  $a_1, a_2, \dots$  be a sequence of real numbers. The **sum** of the first  $n$  terms, denoted

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

is defined recursively by

$$\sum_{i=1}^n a_i = \begin{cases} a_1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i + a_n & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

**Definition 8.4.** Let  $a$  be a real number and let  $n$  be a non-negative integer. The **product** of  $a$  with itself  $n$  times, denoted

$$a^n$$

is defined recursively by

$$a^n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ a \cdot a^{n-1} & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

It is possible to define sequences of integers with quite subtle properties using quite simple definitions:

**Definition 8.5.** The **Fibonacci sequence** is the sequence of non-negative integers  $F_0, F_1, F_2, \dots$  defined recursively by

$$F_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1 \\ F_{n-2} + F_{n-1} & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

The first few terms are therefore

$$0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, \dots$$

Somewhat surprisingly there is a closed form expression for the  $n$ th term of the Fibonacci sequence:

**Theorem 8.6** (Binet Formula). *If  $n$  is a non-negative integer then*

$$F_n = \frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\sqrt{5}},$$

where

$$\alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}.$$

The numbers  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are the two roots of the quadratic equation

$$x^2 - x - 1 = 0.$$

$\alpha$  is called the *Golden ratio*. If you have a rectangle with sides in proportion to the Golden ratio and you remove a square from one end of length the shortest side then you get another rectangle whose sides have ratio the Golden ratio.

Note that  $-1 < \beta < 0$ , so that  $0 < |\beta| < 1$ . Therefore  $|\beta|^n$  approaches zero, as  $n$  goes to infinity. In particular,  $F_n$  is the closest integer to  $\alpha^n/\sqrt{5}$  and the ratio  $F_n/F_{n-1}$  approaches the Golden ratio.

To prove (8.6) we will need strong mathematical induction:

**Axiom 8.7** (Induction Principle (bis)). *Let  $P(n)$  be a statement about the positive integers.*

*Then  $P(n)$  is true for all positive integers, provided:*

(1)  $P(1)$  is true.

(2)  $(P(j) \text{ for every } 1 \leq j \leq k) \text{ implies } P(k+1)$ .

In other words, to deduce  $P(k+1)$ , you are free not only to assume  $P(k)$ , but you may also assume

$$P(1), \quad P(2), \quad P(3), \quad \dots \quad P(k-1) \quad \text{and} \quad P(k).$$

*Proof of (8.6).* Let  $P(n)$  be the statement that

$$F_n = \frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\sqrt{5}}.$$

We prove this using strong mathematical induction.

We need to check two things.

If  $n = 0$  then the LHS is

$$F_n = F_0 = 0,$$

and the RHS is

$$\frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\sqrt{5}} = \frac{1 - 1}{\sqrt{5}} = 0.$$

Thus  $P(0)$  is true.

If  $n = 1$  then the LHS is

$$F_n = F_1 = 1,$$

and the RHS is

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\sqrt{5}} &= \frac{\alpha - \beta}{\sqrt{5}} \\
&= \frac{\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} - \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}}{\sqrt{5}} \\
&= \frac{2\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{5}} \\
&= 1.
\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $P(1)$  is true.

Now we assume  $P(j)$  holds for every  $0 \leq j \leq k$ . We also assume that  $k \geq 1$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned}
F_{k+1} &= F_{k-1} + F_k \\
&= \frac{\alpha^{k-1} - \beta^{k-1}}{\sqrt{5}} + \frac{\alpha^k - \beta^k}{\sqrt{5}} \\
&= \frac{\alpha^k + \alpha^{k-1} - (\beta^k + \beta^{k-1})}{\sqrt{5}} \\
&= \frac{\alpha^{k-1}(1 + \alpha) - \beta^{k-1}(1 + \beta)}{\sqrt{5}} \\
&= \frac{\alpha^{k+1} - \beta^{k+1}}{\sqrt{5}},
\end{aligned}$$

where we used the recursive definition of  $F_k$  on the top line, the fact that  $P(k-1)$  and  $P(k)$  hold by strong induction, to get from the first line to the second line, and we used the identities

$$1 + \alpha = \alpha^2 \quad \text{and} \quad 1 + \beta = \beta^2,$$

which hold as  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are roots of the quadratic equation

$$x^2 - x - 1 = 0.$$

Thus  $P(k+1)$  holds.

As we checked the hypothesis of strong mathematical induction, it follows that  $P(n)$  holds for all non-negative integers  $n$ , that is,

$$F_n = \frac{\alpha^n - \beta^n}{\sqrt{5}}. \quad \square$$