

# Induction

**2.5.7:** Use the Principle of Complete Induction to prove the following properties of the Fibonacci numbers:

- (a)  $f_n$  is a natural number for all natural numbers  $n$ .
- (b)  $f_{n+6} = 4f_{n+3} + f_n$  for all natural numbers  $n$ .
- (c) For every natural number  $a$ ,  $f_a f_n + f_{a+1} f_{n+1} = f_{a+n+1}$  for all natural numbers  $n$ .

- (a) We know  $f_1 = f_2 = 1 \in \mathbb{N}$ ; consider  $n > 2$ . Suppose  $f_m \in \mathbb{N}$  for all natural numbers  $m < n$ . In particular,  $f_{n-1}$  and  $f_{n-2}$  are natural. Since  $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$  and the sum of natural numbers is natural,  $f_n \in \mathbb{N}$ . By the PCI, this is therefore true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- (b) We know  $13 = f_7 = 4f_4 + f_1 = 4(3) + 1$  and  $21 = f_8 = 4f_5 + f_2 = 4(5) + 1$ . Suppose  $f_{m+6} = 4f_{m+3} + f_m$  for all  $m < n$ . Then we compute for  $n > 2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{n+6} &= f_{n+5} + f_{n+4} \\
 &= 4f_{(n-1)+3} + f_{n-1} + 4f_{(n-2)+3} + f_{n-2} \\
 &= 4(f_{n+2} + f_{n+1}) + (f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}) \\
 &= 4f_{n+3} + f_n.
 \end{aligned}$$

So, the statement is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**2.6.13:** Prove the number of permutations of a subcollection of  $r$  objects from a larger collection of  $n$  objects is  $\frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$

- (b) by induction on  $n$ .

- (b) If  $n = 1$ , then the only choice for  $r$  is also 1, and there is 1 permutation because there is one possible order, and  $1 = \frac{1!}{0!}$ . Now suppose the number of permutations of  $r$  objects from  $n$  is  $\frac{n!}{(n-r)!}$  for  $1 \leq r \leq n$ . If we had  $n + 1$  objects and wished to construct a permutation of  $r$  of them (for  $1 \leq r \leq n + 1$ ), we could do so by first choosing one of the  $n + 1$  objects to be first, then constructing a permutation of  $r - 1$  of the remaining  $n$  objects (and  $0 \leq r \leq n$ ). If  $r = 1$ , we're done after the first choice, and had  $n + 1 = \frac{(n+1)!}{(n+1-1)!}$ . Otherwise, the number of options is

$$(n + 1) \frac{n!}{(n - (r - 1))!} = \frac{(n + 1)!}{((n + 1) - r)!}.$$

By the Principle of Mathematical Induction, this formula therefore holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**2.6.24:** The  $n$ th pyramid number,  $p_n$ , is the number of balls of equal diameter that can be stacked in a pyramid whose base is an  $n$  by  $n$  square. The first few pyramid numbers are  $p_1 = 1$ ,  $p_2 = 5$ ,  $p_3 = 14$ , and  $p_4 = 30$ . Show that

(a)  $p_n = 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$  for every natural number  $n$ .

(b)  $p_n = \binom{n+2}{3} + \binom{n+1}{3}$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

- (a) We will take the first equality more or less for granted: to construct a pyramid on a base of length  $n$ , we first lay down  $n^2$  balls, then construct a pyramid of base length  $n - 1$  on top by putting a ball between every square formed by four adjacent balls in the base. Now, clearly  $1^2 = 1 = \frac{1(2)(3)}{6}$ . Suppose we know  $1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 + (n+1)^2 &= \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} + (n+1)^2 \\ &= \frac{2n^3 + 9n^2 + 13n + 6}{6} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(2n^2 + 7n + 6)}{6} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

- (b) We prove first that  $\binom{n+1}{3} + (n+1)^2 = \binom{n+3}{3}$ . This may be done purely algebraically:

$$\binom{n+1}{3} + (n+1)^2 = \frac{(n+1)n(n-1)}{6} + (n+1)^2 = \frac{n+1}{6} (n^2 + 5n + 6) = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(n+3)}{6} = \binom{n+3}{3}.$$

We could also construct a (contrived) combinatorial task to prove this: we must either produce a set of three objects from  $n + 1$ , or paint a black and a white mark on two objects, which may coincide. The left hand expression counts this directly: there are  $\binom{n+1}{3}$  ways to produce the set, and  $(n+1)$  choices for the black mark times  $(n+1)$  for the white. The right hand side counts indirectly: we add two “placeholder” objects  $p$  and  $q$  to the collection and choose three from the augmented set; if  $p$  is chosen, we mark the chosen objects such that the smaller one chosen gets the black mark, if  $q$  is chosen similarly but the smaller gets the white mark. This represents the same situation: if neither  $p$  nor  $q$  is chosen we have a set of three objects, if exactly one is chosen we have two distinct objects and a consistent way of determining which has which mark, and if both are chosen we have a single object which receives both marks.

With either proof, we have a useful lemma. Now, if  $n = 2$ , then  $p_2 = 5 = \binom{4}{3} + \binom{3}{3} = 4 + 1$ . Assume  $p_n$  has the given form, and consider

$$p_{n+1} = p_n + (n+1)^2 = \binom{n+2}{3} + \binom{n+1}{3} + (n+1)^2 = \binom{n+3}{3} + \binom{n+2}{3}.$$

Thus, by the Principle of Mathematical Induction,  $p_n$  has the given form for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .