

## Chapter 4: Mathematical Induction

So far in this course, we have seen some techniques for dealing with stochastic processes: first-step analysis for hitting probabilities (Chapter 2), and first-step analysis for expected reaching times (Chapter 3). We now look at another tool that is often useful for exploring properties of stochastic processes: *proof by mathematical induction*.

### 4.1 Proving things in mathematics *Maths 255*

There are many different ways of constructing a formal proof in mathematics. Some examples are:

- **Proof by counterexample:** a proposition is proved to be *not generally true* because a *particular example* is found for which it is not true.
- **Proof by contradiction:** this can be used either to prove a proposition is true or to prove that it is false. To prove that the proposition is *true* (say), we start by *assuming that it is false*. We then explore the consequences of this assumption until we reach a contradiction, e.g.  $0 = 1$ . Therefore something must have gone wrong, and the only thing we weren't sure about was our initial assumption that the proposition is false — so our initial assumption must be wrong and the proposition is proved true.

A famous proof of this sort is the proof that there are infinitely many prime numbers. We start by assuming that there are *finitely* many primes, so they can be listed as  $p_1, p_2, \dots, p_n$ , where  $p_n$  is the largest prime number. But then the number  $p_1 \times p_2 \times \dots \times p_n + 1$  must also be prime, because it is not divisible by any of the smaller primes. Furthermore this number is definitely bigger than  $p_n$ . So we have contradicted the idea that there was a 'biggest' prime called  $p_n$ , and therefore there are infinitely many primes.

- **Proof by mathematical induction:** in mathematical induction, we start with a formula that we *suspect* is true. For example, I might *suspect* from

$$\checkmark \quad n=1 \quad \sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1 = \frac{1 \times 2}{2} \quad \checkmark$$

$$\checkmark \quad n=2 \quad \sum_{k=1}^2 k = 1+2 = 3 = \frac{2 \times 3}{2} \quad \checkmark$$

observation that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = n(n+1)/2$ . I might have tested this formula for many different values of  $n$ , but of course I can never test it for *all* values of  $n$ . Therefore I need to prove that the formula is *always* true.

The idea of mathematical induction is to say: *suppose* the formula is true for all  $n$  up to the value  $n = 10$  (say). Can I prove that, *if* it is true for  $n = 10$ , *then* it will also be true for  $n = 11$ ? And *if* it is true for  $n = 11$ , *then* it will also be true for  $n = 12$ ? And so on.  $\checkmark n \rightarrow n+1 \checkmark$

In practice, we usually start lower than  $n = 10$ . We usually take the very easiest case,  $n = 1$ , and prove that the formula is true for  $n = 1$ : LHS =  $\sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1 = 1 \times 2/2 =$  RHS. Then we prove that, *if* the formula is ever true for  $n = x$ , *then* it will always be true for  $n = x + 1$ . Because it is true for  $n = 1$ , it must be true for  $n = 2$ ; and because it is true for  $n = 2$ , it must be true for  $n = 3$ ; and so on, for all possible  $n$ . Thus the formula is proved. } job

Mathematical induction is therefore a bit like a *first-step analysis for proving things*. We prove that, wherever we are now, the *next step* will always be OK. Then if we were OK at the very beginning, we will be OK for ever. *ie. formula true for  $n=1$ .*

The method of mathematical induction for proving results is very important in the study of Stochastic Processes. This is because a stochastic process builds up one step at a time, and mathematical induction works on the same principle.

**Example:** We have already seen examples of inductive-type reasoning in this course. For example, in Chapter 2 for the Gambler's Ruin problem, using the method of repeated substitution to solve for  $p_x = \mathbb{P}(\text{Ruin} \mid \text{start with } \$x)$ , we discovered that:

- $p_2 = 2p_1 - 1$
- $p_3 = 3p_1 - 2$
- $p_4 = 4p_1 - 3$

We deduced that  $p_x = x p_1 - (x-1)$  in general.

To prove this properly, we should have used the method of mathematical induction.

## 4.2 Mathematical Induction by example

This example explains the style and steps needed for a proof by induction.

**Question:** Prove by induction that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  for any integer  $n$ .  $(*)$

*My system:*  
Use  $(*)$ ,  $(**)$  etc for things that need to be proved.  
Use  $(a)$ ,  $(g)$ ,  $(g_1)$ ,  $(g_2)$  for Given or allowed things that I may use.

**Approach:** follow the steps below.

- (i) First verify that the formula  $(*)$  is true for a *base case*: usually the smallest appropriate value of  $n$  (e.g.  $n = 0$  or  $n = 1$ ). Here, the smallest possible value of  $n$  is  $n = 1$ , because we can't have  $\sum_{k=1}^0$ .

Base case:  $n = 1$ .

[First verify  $(*)$  is true for  $n = 1$ ]

$$\text{LHS of } (*) = \sum_{k=1}^1 k = 1$$

$$\text{RHS of } (*) = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2} = 1 = \text{LHS of } (*).$$

So  $(*)$  is proved for  $n = 1$ .

- (ii) Next suppose that formula  $(*)$  is true for all values of  $n$  up to and including some value  $x$ . (We have already established that this is the case for  $x = 1$ ).

Using the hypothesis that  $(*)$  is true for all values of  $n$  up to and including  $x$ , prove that it is therefore true for the value  $n = x + 1$ .

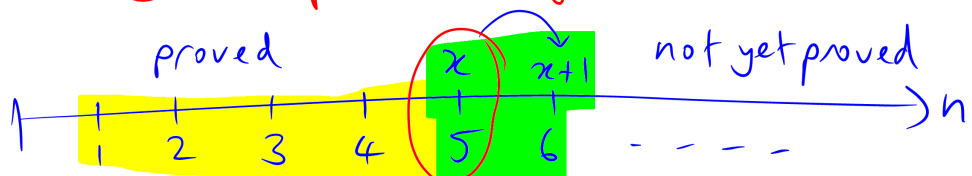
General case: Suppose that  $(*)$  is true for  $n = 1, 2, \dots, x$  for some  $x$ .

So we can assume that

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

$(a) \leftarrow (a)$  stands for "allowed information"

We need to show that  $(*)$  therefore holds for  $n = x + 1$ .



Require to prove  
R.T.P. that

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

$n=x+1$        $n+1=x+2$

(\*\*)

sh

LHS of (\*\*) =  $\sum_{k=1}^{x+1} k$

=  $\left( \sum_{k=1}^x k \right) + (x+1)$  by expanding the sum

=  $\frac{x(x+1)}{2} + (x+1)$  using allowed info (a)

=  $\frac{(x+1)}{2} \{x+2\}$  factorising

= RHS of (\*\*).

Blue part  
of regular  
why now

So, if (\*) is proved for  $n=x$ ,  
it is also proved for  $n=x+1$ .

- (iii) Refer back to the base case: if it is true for  $n=1$ , then it is true for  $n=1+1=2$  by (ii). If it is true for  $n=2$ , it is true for  $n=2+1=3$  by (ii). We could go on forever. This proves that the formula (\*) is true for all  $n$ .

(\*) was proved for base case  $n=1$ ,

$\therefore$  (\*) is proved for all  $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$



## General procedure for proof by induction

The procedure above is quite standard. The inductive proof can be summarized like this:

**Question:** prove that  $f(n) = g(n)$  for all integers  $n \geq 1$ .

label (\*)

**Base case:**  $n = 1$ . Prove that  $f(1) = g(1)$  using

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LHS} &= f(1) \\ &= \vdots \\ &= g(1) = \text{RHS.} \end{aligned}$$

**General case:** suppose the formula is true for  $n = x$ : so  $f(x) = g(x)$ .

(a) allowed

Prove that the formula is therefore true for  $n = x + 1$ :

RTP  $f(x+1) = g(x+1)$ . (\*\*)

$$\text{LHS} = f(x+1)$$

of (\*\*)

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{some expression breaking down } f(x+1) \\ \text{into } f(x) \text{ and an extra term in } x+1 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{formula is true for } n = x \text{ so substitute} \\ f(x) = g(x) \text{ in the line above} \end{array} \right\}$$

by allowed (a)

$$= \{ \text{do some working} \}$$

$$= g(x+1)$$

$$= \text{RHS. of } (**)$$

So if (\*) is proved for  $n=x$ ,  
then (\*) is proved for  $n=x+1$ .

**Conclude:** the formula is true for  $n = 1$ , so it is true for  $n = 2, n = 3, n = 4, \dots$

It is therefore true for all integers  $n \geq 1$ .

(\*) proved for base case  $n=1$ ,  
 $\therefore$  (\*) proved for all  $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$   $\square$

### 4.3 Some harder examples of mathematical induction

Induction problems in stochastic processes are often trickier than usual. Here are some possibilities:

- Backwards induction: start with base case  $n = N$  and go backwards, instead of starting at base case  $n = 1$  and going forwards.
- \* • Two-step induction, where the proof for  $n = x + 1$  relies not only on the formula being true for  $n = x$ , but also on it being true for  $n = x - 1$ .

The first example below is hard probably because it is too easy. The second example is an example of a two-step induction.

*Example 1:* Suppose that  $p_0 = 1$  and  $p_x = \alpha p_{x+1}$  for all  $x = 1, 2, \dots$ . Prove by mathematical induction that  $p_n = 1/\alpha^n$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .

given a 1-step recursion ...

... prove the general formula.

R.T.P.  $p_n = \frac{1}{\alpha^n}$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

(\*) To prove, can't use unless proved.

Information given:

$$p_{x+1} = \frac{1}{\alpha} p_x$$

$$p_0 = 1$$

(G1)

(G2)

given, can use anywhere.

Base case:  $n = 0$ .

LHS of (\*) =  $p_0 = 1$  by given info (G2)

RHS of (\*) =  $\frac{1}{\alpha^0} = 1 = \text{LHS of (*)}$ .

So (\*) is proved for base case  $n = 0$ .

General case: Suppose (\*) is true for  $n = x$ . So we can

assume

$$p_x = \frac{1}{\alpha^x} \quad (a)$$

[allowed to use this below]

RTP (\*) is true for  $n = x + 1$ , ie.

$$\text{RTP } p_{x+1} = \frac{1}{\alpha^{x+1}} \quad (**)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{LHS of } (**) &= p_{x+1} \\
 &= \frac{1}{\alpha} p_x \quad \text{by given info, } (G1) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha^x} \quad \text{using allowed } (a) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\alpha^{x+1}} \\
 &= \text{RHS of } (**).
 \end{aligned}$$

So if  $(*)$  is proved for  $n=x$ , it is also proved for  $n=x+1$ .  
 We proved  $(*)$  for base case  $n=0$ ,  
 $\therefore (*)$  is true for all  $n=0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$  ☺

**Example 2: Gambler's Ruin.** In the Gambler's Ruin problem in Section 2.7, we have the following situation:

- $p_x = \mathbb{P}(\text{Ruin} \mid \text{start with } \$x)$ ;
- We know from first-step analysis that  $p_{x+1} = 2p_x - p_{x-1}$   $(G_1)$
- We know from common sense that  $p_0 = 1$   $(G_2)$
- By direct substitution into  $(G_1)$ , we obtain:

$$\begin{aligned}
 (G_2) \quad & p_2 = 2p_1 - 1 \\
 & p_3 = 3p_1 - 2
 \end{aligned}$$

Given

- We develop a suspicion that for all  $x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ,

$$p_x = xp_1 - (x-1) \quad (*)$$

- We wish to prove  $(*)$  by mathematical induction.

For this example, our given information, in  $(G1)$ , expresses  $p_{x+1}$  in terms of both  $p_x$  and  $p_{x-1}$  so we need two base cases. Use  $x=1$  and  $x=2$ .

RTP  $p_x = x p_1 - (x-1) \quad (*)$  for  $x=1, 2, 3, \dots$

Base cases: i)  $x=1$

LHS of  $(*) = p_1$

RHS of  $(*) = 1 * p_1 - 0 = p_1 = \text{LHS of } (*)$

So  $(*)$  is proved for case  $x=1$ .

ii)  $x=2$  LHS of  $(*) = p_2 = 2p_1 - 1$  by info (G2).

RHS of  $(*) = 2p_1 - 1 = \text{LHS of } (*)$

So  $(*)$  is true for base case  $x=2$  also.

General case: Suppose  $(*)$  is true for all  $x$  up to some value  $k$ .

Allowed info:  $x=k \Rightarrow p_k = k p_1 - (k-1) \quad (a_1)$

$x=k-1 \Rightarrow p_{k-1} = (k-1)p_1 - (k-2) \quad (a_2)$

RTP  $(*)$  holds for  $x=k+1$ :

i.e. RTP  $p_{k+1} = \underline{(k+1)p_1 - k} \quad (**)$

LHS of  $(**) = p_{k+1}$

$= 2p_k - p_{k-1}$  by given info (G1)

$= 2 \{ k p_1 - (k-1) \} - \{ (k-1)p_1 - (k-2) \}$   
by allowed  $(a_1)$  and  $(a_2)$

$= p_1 \{ 2k - k + 1 \} - 2k + 2 + k - 2$

$= p_1 (k+1) - k$

$= \text{RHS of } (**) \quad \text{😊}$

So if  $(*)$  is true for  $x=k-1$  and  $x=k$ , it is proved for  $x=k+1$ . We proved  $(*)$  for cases  $x=1$  and  $x=2$ , so  $(*)$  is proved for all  $x=1, 2, 3, \dots$   $\square$