One way of formulating last lecture's theorem

N(t) = number of nodes in binary tree t.

L(t) = number of leaves in binary tree.

## Theorem 1

A binary tree with n nodes has at most  $\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil$  leaves.

For all  $t \in B$  and all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , let S(t,n) = "that n nodes" and let AL(t,n) = "t has at most n leaves". Denote  $P(n) = \forall t \in B.[S(t,n) \text{ IMPLIES } AL(t,\left\lceil \frac{n}{2}\right\rceil)]$ "

Prove  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}.p(n)$  using strong induction on n.

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Another way of formulating the theorem

Recursive Definition of B

Base Case: the empty tree is in B

Constructor Case: If  $t_1, t_2 \in B$  and r is a node, then  $t := t_1 - r - t_2 \in B$  where  $left(t) = t_1$ ,  $right(t) = t_2$ 

Let  $g: B \to \{T, F\}$  be such that  $g(t) = L(t) \le \left\lceil \frac{N(t)}{2} \right\rceil$ 

 $N: B \to \mathbb{N}$ 

Base Case

N(empty tree)=0

Constructor Case

$$N(t)=1+N(left(t))+N(right(t))$$

 $L: B \to \mathbb{N}$ 

Base Cases

L(empty tree) = 0

L(one node tree) = 1

Constructor Case:

$$L(t)=L(\operatorname{left}(t))+L(\operatorname{right}(t))$$

To prove  $\forall t \in B.q(t)$ , we use structural induction.

Let  $t \in B$  be arbitrary

Case 1: t is the empty tree

$$N(t) = 0, L(t) = 0$$

so 
$$L(t) = 0 = \left\lceil \frac{0}{2} \right\rceil = \left\lceil \frac{N(t)}{2} \right\rceil$$

Case 2:  $t := t_1 - r - t_2$ :

Assume  $q(t_1)$  and  $q(t_2)$ , by definition  $L(t_1) \leq \left\lceil \frac{N(t_1)}{2} \right\rceil$  and  $L(t_2) \leq \left\lceil \frac{N(t_2)}{2} \right\rceil$ 

Then 
$$L(t) = L(t_1) + L(t_2)$$
,  $N(t) = N(t_1) + N(t_2) + 1$ 

😢 Lecture 9 😻

So 
$$L(t) \le \left\lceil \frac{N(t_1)}{2} \right\rceil + \left\lceil \frac{N(t_2)}{2} \right\rceil \le \ldots \le \frac{N(t)+1}{2}$$

Since N(t) is an integer, we have  $L(t) \leq \left\lfloor \frac{N(t)+1}{2} \right\rfloor \leq \left\lceil \frac{N(t)}{2} \right\rceil$ 

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structural induction  $\forall t \in S.p(t)$ . can be proved using strong induction.

Let  $E_0 = \text{set of elements of } S$  due to base case

 $E_1$  = set of elements of S obtained from elements of  $E_0$  by applying constructor case once.

:

 $E_i$  = set of elements of S obtained from elements of  $E_{i-1}$  by applying constructor case i times.

We can see  $S = \bigcup_{i>0} E_i$ 

Let  $q(i) = \forall t \in E_i.p(t)$ , then we can prove  $\forall i \in \mathbb{N}.q(i)$  using strong induction on i instead of structural induction.

#### Theorem 2

Every integer greater than n = 1 can be written as a product of primes

*Proof.* Suppose the claim is false. Let n be the smallest integer greater than 1 that cannot be written as a product of prime.

If n is prime, then n is a product of 1 prime, thus n is composite.

So there exist integers m, k > 1 such that  $n = m \times k$ 

But m and k are both less than n, so they can both be written as a product of primes.

Hence  $n = m \times k$  can be written as a product of primes.

This contradicts the definition of n, hence the claim is true.

quod erat dem

#### Definition 1

A set S is partially ordered if there exist  $R: S \times S \to \{T, F\}$  such that  $\forall x \in S. \forall y \in S. \forall z \in S.$ 

$$R(x,x) = T$$
 (reflexive)

R(x, y) AND R(y, x) IMPLIES x = y (antisymmetry)

R(x,y) AND R(y,z) IMPLIES R(x,z) (transitivity)

In this case R is called a partial order.

Examples:  $(\mathbb{Z}, \preceq)$ ,  $(\mathbb{R}, \preceq)$ ,  $(P(\{1, 2, 3\}), \subseteq)$ 

Not example:

 $R(x,y)=\mathbb{C}$  with " $|x|\leq |y|$ "; we can see  $|i|\leq |1|$  and  $|1|\leq |i|$  but  $|i|\neq |1|$  thus not antisymmetry.

H=hockey teams, R(t,t') if t has beaten by t', we can see it is not transitive.

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# Definition 2

A set S is totally ordered if there exists a partial order  $R: S \times S \to \{T, F\}$  such that  $\forall x, y \in S$ , R(x, y) OR R(y, x) (comparability), R is a total order.

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Examples:  $\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{Z}, \leq$  Not example:

 $P(\{1,2,3\}),\subseteq : \text{ since } \{1,2\} \not\subseteq \{2,3\} \text{ and } \{2,3\} \not\subseteq \{1,2\}, \text{ thus not totally ordered}.$ 

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## Definition 3

A totally ordered set S is <u>well-ordered</u> if every non-empty subset  $S' \subseteq S$  has a smallest element m, That is, R(m,x) = T for all  $x \in S'$ 

 $\leq$  is a well ordering for  $\mathbb N$ 

 $\leq$  is NOT a well ordering for  $\mathbb{Z}$  (negatives) or  $\mathbb{Q}^+$  (archimedean)

This is an example for  $\mathbb{Z}$ :  $x \leq y$  IFF [(|x| < |y|) OR (|x| = |y|) AND  $x \leq y)$ 

 $0 \leq -1 \leq 1 \leq -2 \leq 2 \cdots$  is a well ordering for  $\mathbb{Z}$ 

This is an example for  $\mathbb{Q}^+$ :

Consider ordering based on  $\max\{\text{numerator}, \text{denominator}\}\$  when written in reduced form i.e.  $\gcd(\text{numerator}, \text{denominator}) = 1$  and then by value

$$\frac{1}{1} \preceq \frac{1}{2} \preceq \frac{2}{1} \preceq \frac{2}{3} \preceq \frac{3}{2} \preceq \frac{3}{1}$$

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## Definition 4

If  $\leq$  is a well ordering, then  $x \prec y$  means " $x \leq y$  and  $x \neq y$ ".

Suppose  $\leq$  is a well ordering of the set S. Then to prove  $\forall e \in S.p(e)$ :

To obtain a contradiction, suppose  $\forall e \in S.P(e)$  is false.

Let  $C = \{e \in S \mid P(e) = F\}$  be the set of counterexamples to P.

 $C \neq \emptyset$ ; by definition of the previous 2 lines

Let e be the smallest element of C; (since S is well ordered and C is non-empty)

Let  $e' = \dots;$ 

. . .

 $e' \in C$ ;

 $e' \prec e$ ;

This is a contradiction (contradicting e is the smallest such element in C)

Thus using contradition, we show that  $\forall e \in S.p(e)$  is true.

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## Theorem 3

Every positive rational number  $\frac{m}{n}$  can be expressed in reduced form.

Proof.

Suppose there exist  $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $\frac{m}{n}$  cannot be expressed in reduced form;

Let  $C = \{m \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid \exists n \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \text{ such that } \frac{m}{n} \text{ cannot be expressed in reduced form}\};$ 

Then  $C \neq \emptyset$ .

Since  $Z^+$  is well ordered, and  $\varnothing \neq C \subseteq \mathbb{Z}^+$ , C has a smallest element  $m_0$ .

By definition of C there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $\frac{m_0}{n_0}$  cannot be expressed in reduced form.

In particular,  $gcd(m_0, n_0) > 1$  (otherwise it is in reduced form).

Let p be a prime factor of  $gcd(m_0, n_0)$ ;

Let  $m_0' = \frac{m_0}{p} \in \mathbb{Z}^+;$ 

Let  $n_0' = \frac{n_0}{p} \in \mathbb{Z}^+;$ 

Since  $\frac{m_0'}{n_0'} = \frac{m_0}{n_0}$ , it cannot be expressed in reduced form.

Hence  $m_0' \in C$  such that  $m_0' < m_0$ ;

The above line is a contradiction.

Therefore, every positive rational number  $\frac{m}{n}$  can be expressed in reduced form.

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# Theorem 4

For every positive integer i, let E(i) = "The subset of  $[i] = \{j \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid j \leq i\}$  that contain an even number of elements". Let U(i)= "subsets of [i] that contain an odd number of elements" For all  $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .  $|E(i)|=|U(i)|=2^{i-1}$ 

Proof.

For every  $i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , let  $P(i) = |E(i)| = |U(i)| = 2^{i-1}$ ."

Suppose  $\forall i \in \mathbb{Z}^+.P(i)$  is false;

Let  $C = \{i \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \mid NOT(P(i))\};$ 

Then  $C \neq \emptyset$ ;

Since C is well ordered, it has a smallest element x;

 $x \neq 1$  since  $\{1\}$  has  $1 = 2^{x-1}$  subset which contains an even number of elmeents,  $\emptyset$ ; 1 subset which contains an odd number of elements, {1}.

Let  $E'(x) = \{ S \in E(x) \mid x \in S \};$ 

Then  $E(x) = E'(x)\dot{\cup}E(x-1)$ ;

|E(x)| = |E'(x)| + |E(x-1)|;

There is a 1 to 1 correspondence etween E'(x) and U(x-1) (we can add x from one in U(x-1) or remove x from one in E'(x);

Hence |E'(x)| = |U(x-1)|;

Hence |E(x)| = |U(x-1)| + |E(x-1)|

 $x - 1 \notin C$  so  $= 2^{x-2} + 2^{x-2} = 2^{x-1}$ 

 $|U(x)| = 2^{x-1}$  by symmetry or  $|U(x)| = 2^x - |E(x)| = 2^{x-1}$  (alternating);

Thus  $x \notin C$ , this is a contradiction.

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## Definition 5 – Countable + Uncountable Sets

A function  $f: A \to B$  is suejective or <u>onto</u> means

$$\forall y \in B. \exists x \in A. (f(x) = y),$$

when A and B are finite sets, we can conclude  $|B| \leq |A|$ .

A non-empty set C is <u>countable</u> if there is a surjective function from  $\mathbb{N}$  to C.

Every non-empty finite set is conutable.

*Proof.* Suppose the elements of C are  $c_0, c_1, \ldots, c_{n-1}$ 

define  $f: \mathbb{N} \to C$  by  $f(i) = c_i$  for  $i \in \{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}, f(i) = c_{n-1}$  for  $i \ge n$ .

Then f is surjective, thus C is countable.

 $\begin{array}{c} quod\\ erat\\ dem \blacksquare \end{array}$ 

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(<u>C</u>)

The empty set is also considered to be countable.

Any well ordered set is countable.

Suppose A and B are countable, then  $A \cup B$  is countable,  $A \times B = \{(a,b) \mid a \in A \text{ AND } b \in B\}$  is also countable.

For  $\mathbb{Z}$ : f(0) = 0, f(2i - 1) = -i for i > 0, f(2i) = i for i < 0, so  $\mathbb{Z}$  is countable.

For  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ : we use the diagonal argument, from top left to bottom right, we can list all the elements of  $\mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$  (insdert the 2D table here, where the row is  $\mathbb{N}$  and with i; column is  $\mathbb{N}$  and with j, then there is a mapping of (i,j) to  $(i,j) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ ).

If A is countable and  $B \subseteq A$ , then B is also countable.

## Lemma 1

If A is nonempty and conutable, then there exists a surjective function  $f: A \to B$  then B is countable.