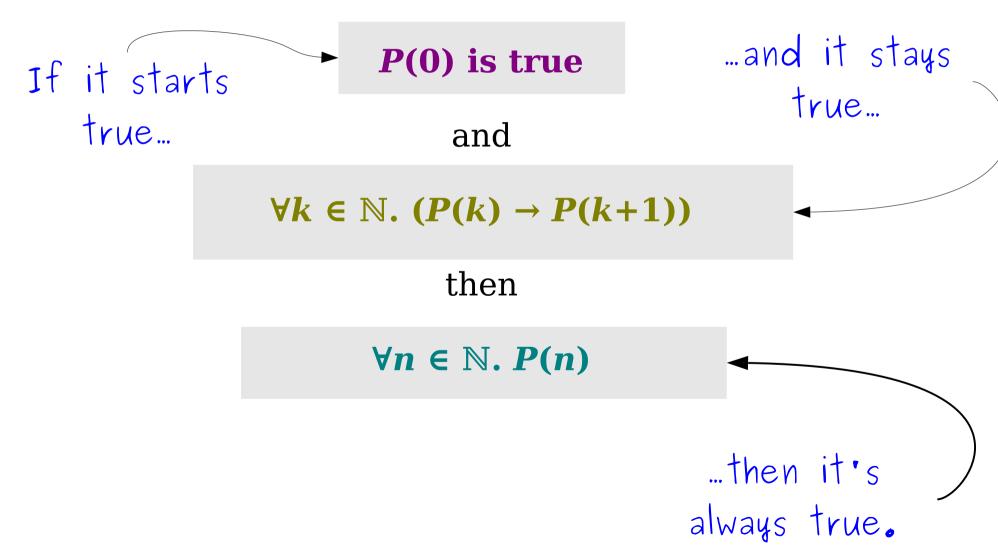
Mathematical Induction Part Two

Recap from Last Time

Let P be some predicate. The **principle of mathematical induction** states that if



Proof: Let P(n) be the statement "the sum of the first n powers of two is $2^n - 1$." We will prove, by induction, that P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, from which the theorem follows.

For our base case, we need to show P(0) is true, meaning that the sum of the first zero powers of two is $2^{0} - 1$. Since the sum of the first zero powers of two is zero and $2^{0} - 1$ is zero as well, we see that P(0) is true.

For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary $k \in \mathbb{N}$ that P(k) holds, meaning that

$$2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1} = 2^k - 1. \tag{1}$$

We need to show that P(k + 1) holds, meaning that the sum of the first k + 1 powers of two is $2^{k+1} - 1$. To see this, notice that

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1} + 2^{k} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1}) + 2^{k}$$

= $2^{k} - 1 + 2^{k}$ (via (1))
= $2(2^{k}) - 1$
= $2^{k+1} - 1$.

Proof: Let P(n) be the statement "the sum of the first n powers of two is $2^n - 1$." We will prove, by induction, that P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, from which the theorem follows.

For our base case, we need to show P(0) is true, meaning that the sum of the first zero powers of two is $2^{\circ} - 1$. Since the sum of the first zero powers of two is zero and $2^{\circ} - 1$ is zero as well, we see that P(0) is true.

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$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + \dots + 2^{k-1} = 2^{k} - 1. \tag{1}$$

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For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary $k \in \mathbb{N}$ that P(k) holds, meaning that

$$2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1} = 2^k - 1.$$
 (1)

We need to show that P(k + 1) holds, meaning that the sum of the first k + 1 powers of two is $2^{k+1} - 1$. To see this, notice that

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1} + 2^{k} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1}) + 2^{k}$$

= $2^{k} - 1 + 2^{k}$ (via (1))
= $2(2^{k}) - 1$
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New Stuff!

Proof: Let P(n) be the statement "the sum of the first n powers of two is $2^n - 1$." We will prove, by induction, that P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, from which the theorem follows.

For our base case, we need to show P(0) is true, meaning that the sum of the first zero powers of two is $2^{0} - 1$. Since the sum of the first zero powers of two is zero and $2^{0} - 1$ is zero as well, we see that P(0) is true.

For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary $k \in \mathbb{N}$ that P(k) holds, meaning that

$$2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1} = 2^k - 1. \tag{1}$$

We need to show that P(k + 1) holds, meaning that the sum of the first k + 1 powers of two is $2^{k+1} - 1$. To see this, notice that

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1} + 2^{k} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1}) + 2^{k}$$

= $2^{k} - 1 + 2^{k}$ (via (1))
= $2(2^{k}) - 1$
= $2^{k+1} - 1$.

Induction in Practice

- Typically, a proof by induction will not explicitly state P(n).
- Rather, the proof will describe P(n) implicitly and leave it to the reader to fill in the details.
- Provided that there is sufficient detail to determine
 - what P(n) is;
 - that P(0) is true; and that
 - whenever P(k) is true, P(k+1) is true, the proof is usually valid.

Theorem: The sum of the first n powers of two is $2^n - 1$. **Proof:** By induction.

For our base case, we'll prove the theorem is true when n = 0. The sum of the first zero powers of two is zero, and $2^{0} - 1 = 0$, so the theorem is true in this case.

For the inductive step, assume the theorem holds when n = k for some arbitrary $k \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1} + 2^{k} = (2^{0} + 2^{1} + ... + 2^{k-1}) + 2^{k}$$

= $2^{k} - 1 + 2^{k}$
= $2(2^{k}) - 1$
= $2^{k+1} - 1$.

So the theorem is true when n = k+1, completing the induction. \blacksquare



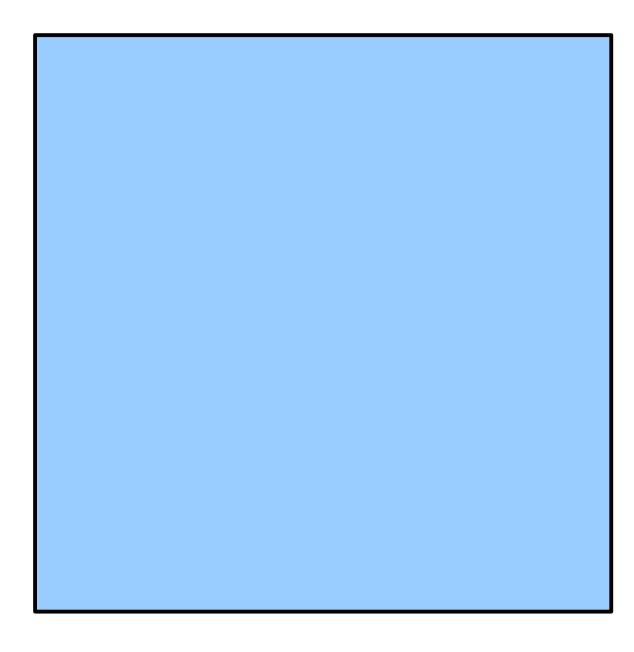
Induction Starting at 0

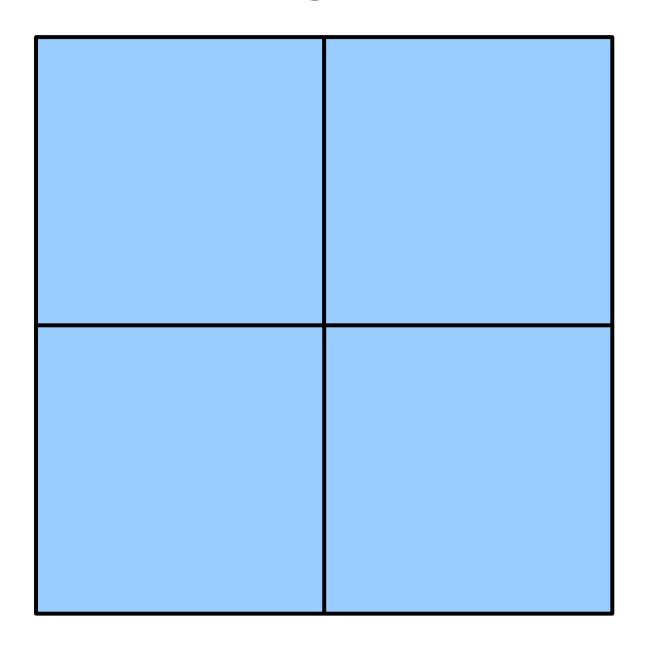
- To prove that P(n) is true for all natural numbers greater than or equal to 0:
 - Show that P(0) is true.
 - Show that for any $k \ge 0$, that if P(k) is true, then P(k+1) is true.
 - Conclude P(n) holds for all natural numbers greater than or equal to 0.

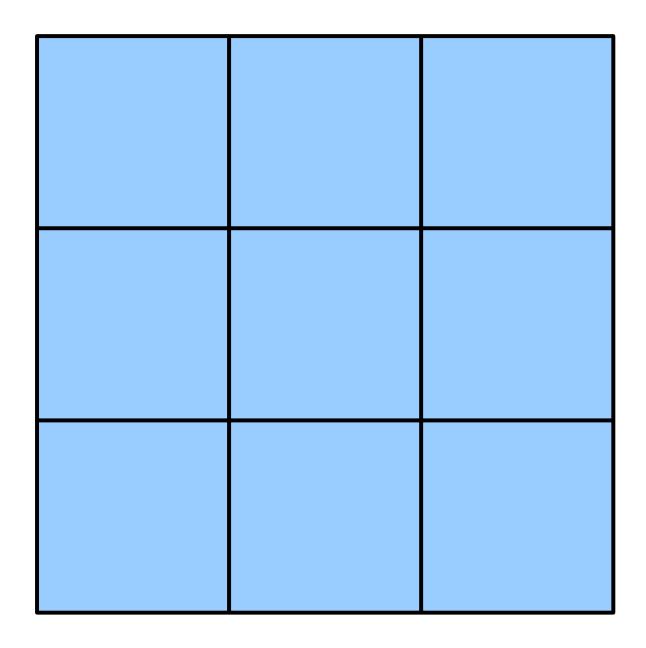
Induction Starting at m

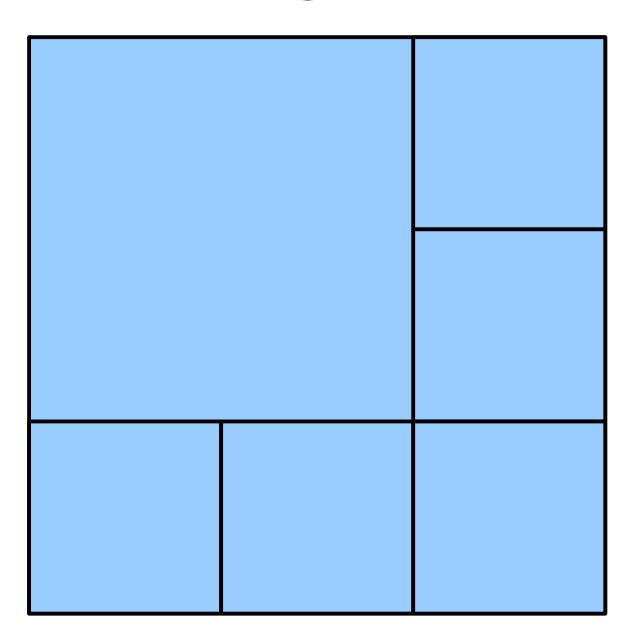
- To prove that P(n) is true for all natural numbers greater than or equal to m:
 - Show that $P(\mathbf{m})$ is true.
 - Show that for any $k \ge m$, that if P(k) is true, then P(k+1) is true.
 - Conclude P(n) holds for all natural numbers greater than or equal to m.

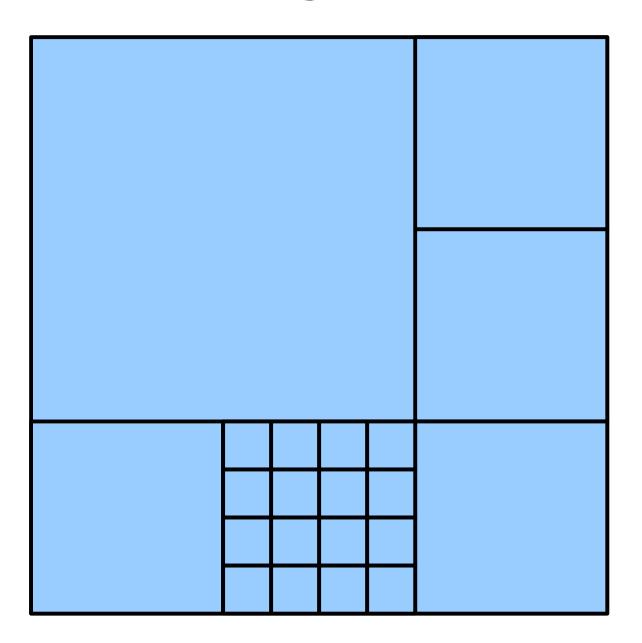
Variations on Induction: Bigger Steps











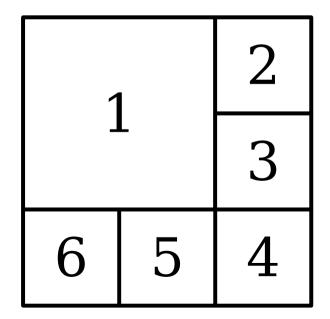
For what values of *n* can a square be subdivided into *n* squares?

 $1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 5 \quad 6 \quad 7 \quad 8 \quad 9 \quad 10 \quad 11 \quad 12$

1

 1
 2

 4
 3

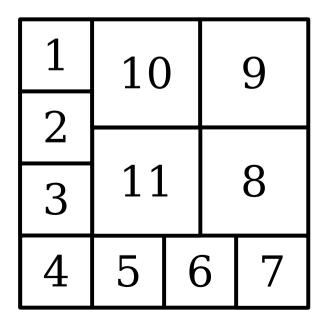


 5
 6

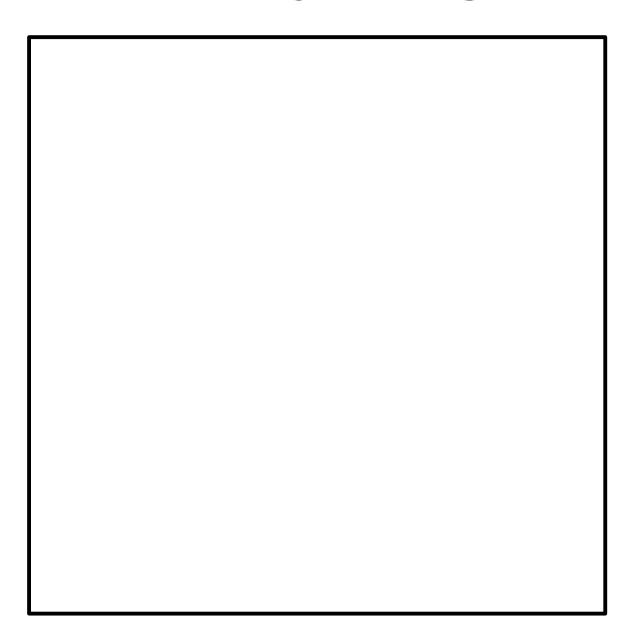
 4
 7

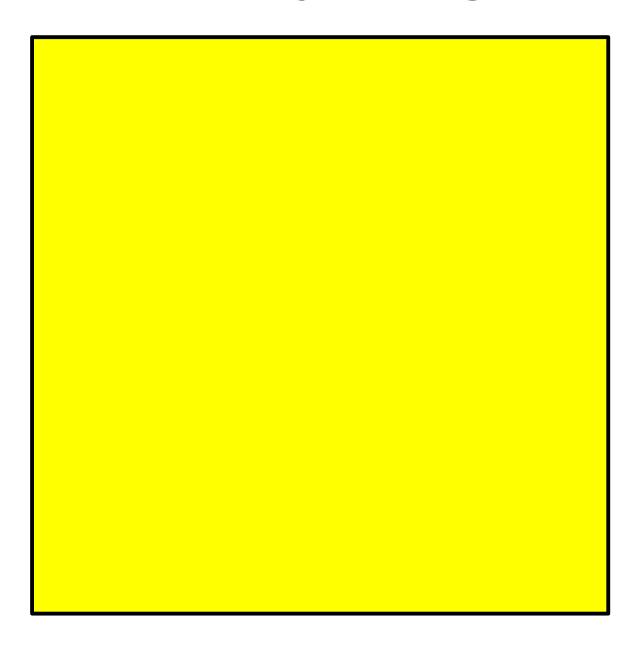
 3
 2

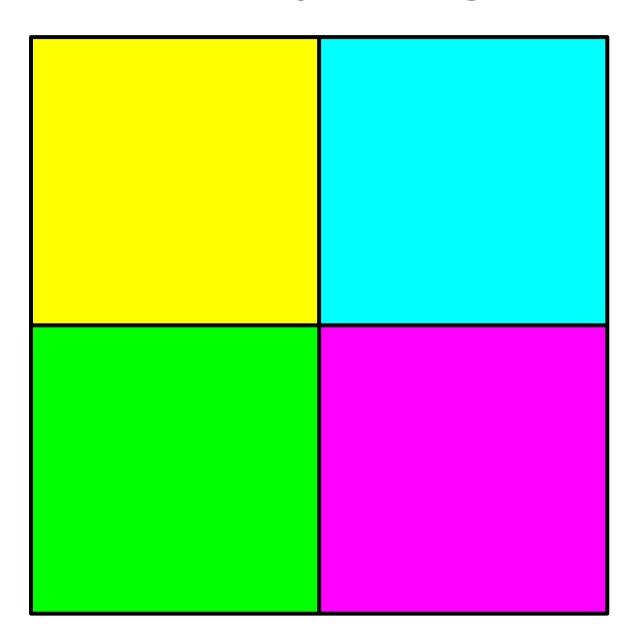
| 1 | 2 | 3 |
|---|---|---|
| 8 | 9 | 4 |
| 7 | 6 | 5 |

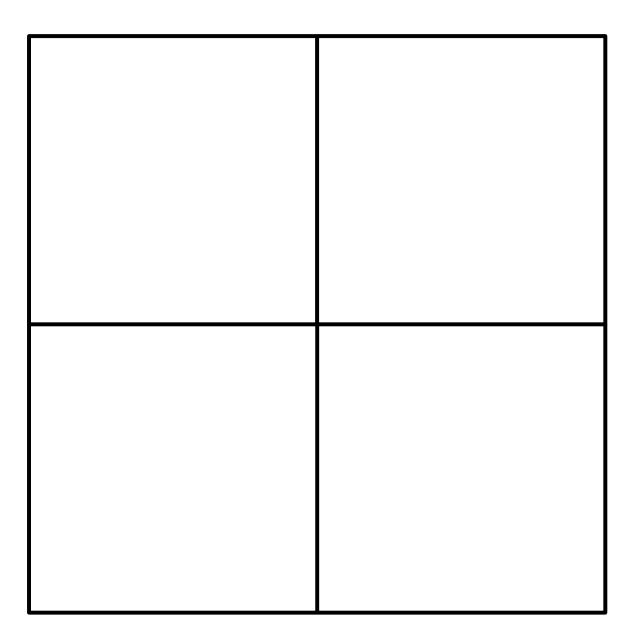


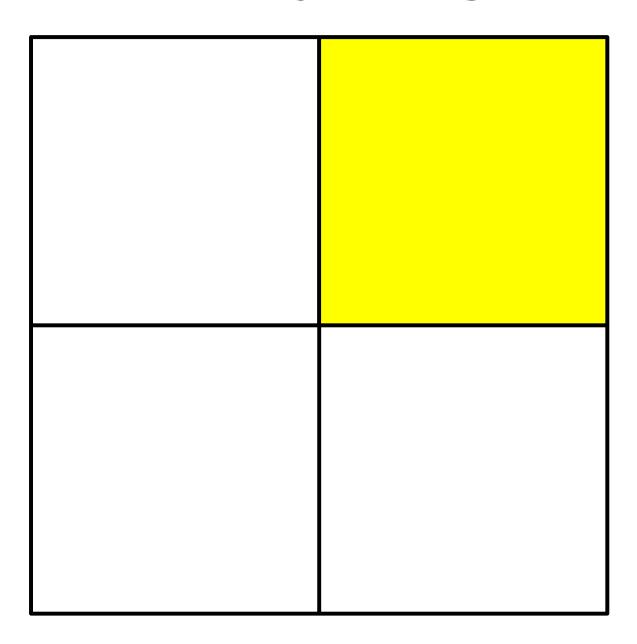
| 1 | 2 | | 3 |
|---|---------|----------|---|
| 8 | 9 12 | 10 11 | 4 |
| 7 | 6 | | 5 |

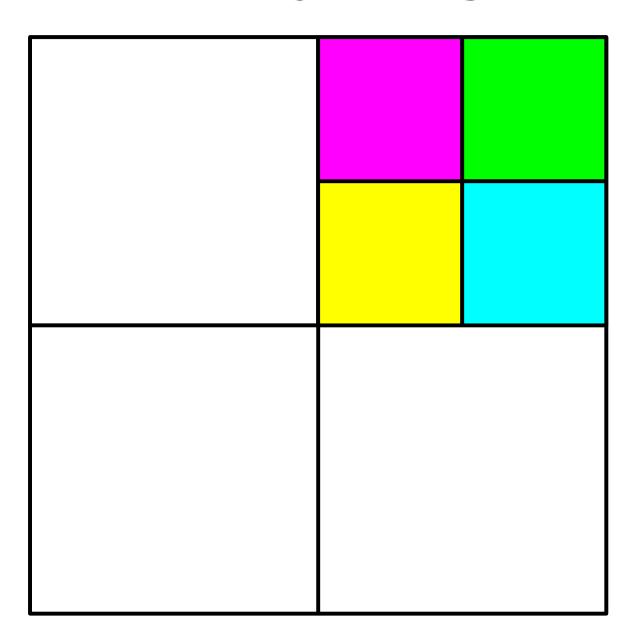


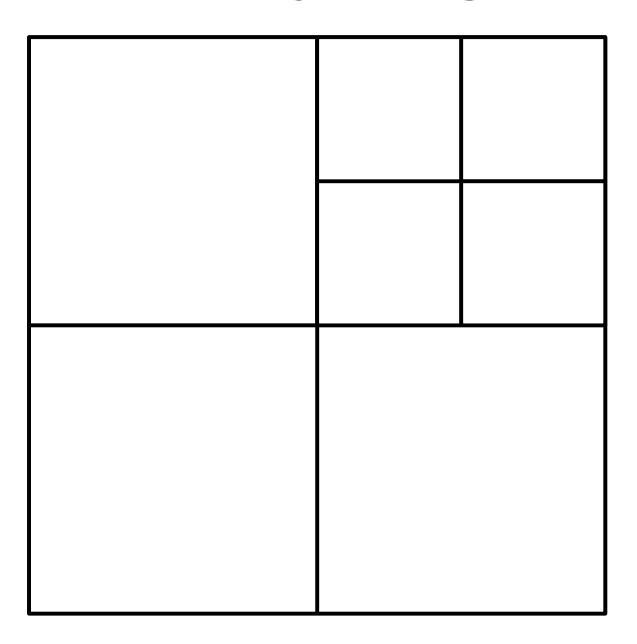


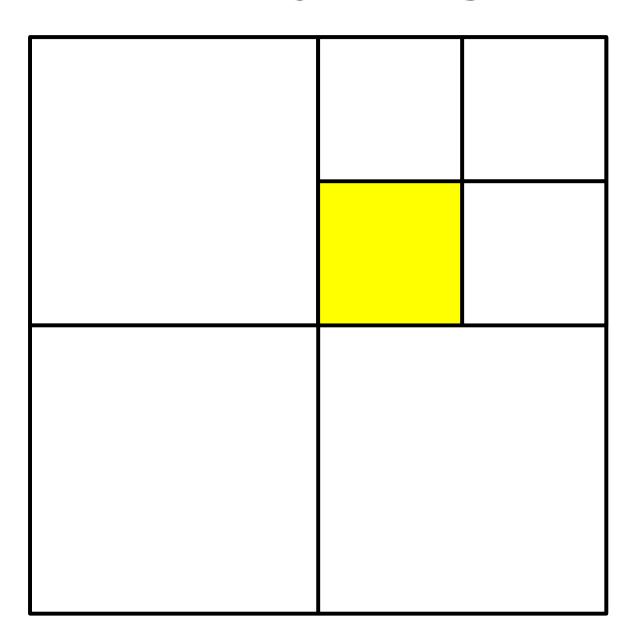


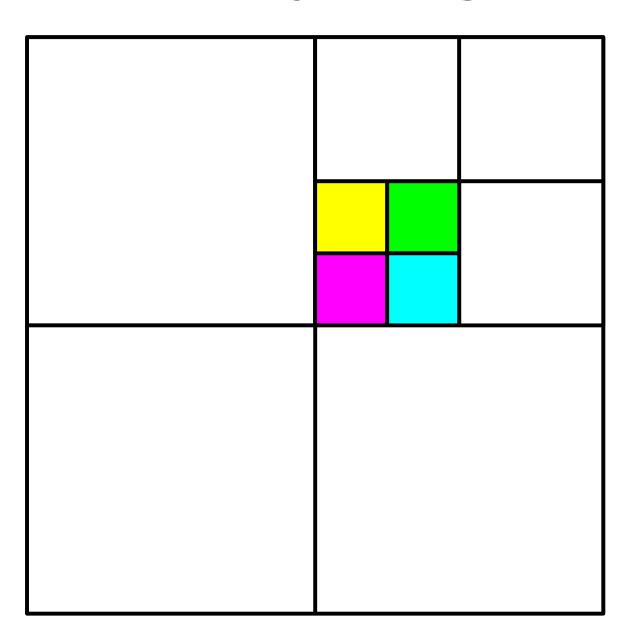


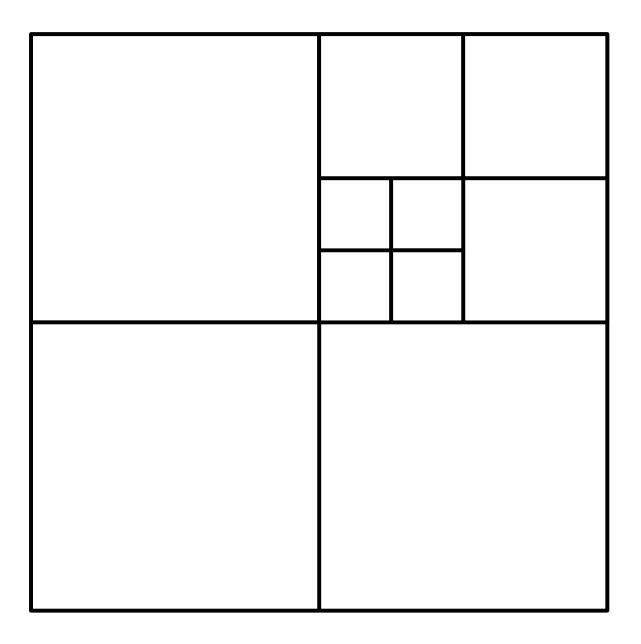












- If we can subdivide a square into n squares, we can also subdivide it into n + 3 squares.
- Since we can subdivide a bigger square into 6, 7, and 8 squares, we can subdivide a square into n squares for any $n \ge 6$:
 - For multiples of three, start with 6 and keep adding three squares until *n* is reached.
 - For numbers congruent to one modulo three, start with 7 and keep adding three squares until *n* is reached.
 - For numbers congruent to two modulo three, start with 8 and keep adding three squares until *n* is reached.

Proof:

Proof: Let P(n) be the statement "a square can be subdivided into n smaller squares."

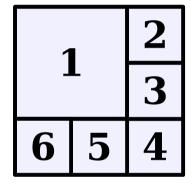
- **Theorem:** For any $n \ge 6$, it is possible to subdivide a square into n smaller squares.
- **Proof:** Let P(n) be the statement "a square can be subdivided into n smaller squares." We will prove by induction that P(n) holds for all $n \ge 6$, from which the theorem follows.

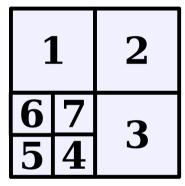
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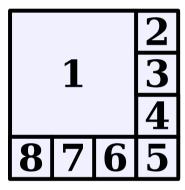
As our base cases, we prove P(6), P(7), and P(8), that a square can be subdivided into 6, 7, and 8 squares.

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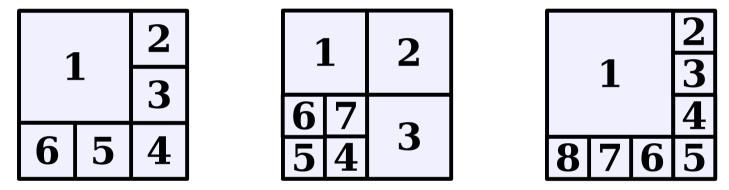






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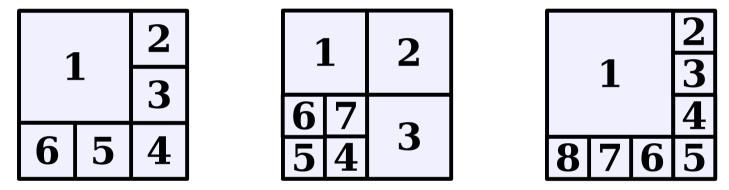
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For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary $k \ge 6$ that P(k) is true and that a square can be subdivided into k squares.

Proof: Let P(n) be the statement "a square can be subdivided into n smaller squares." We will prove by induction that P(n) holds for all $n \ge 6$, from which the theorem follows.

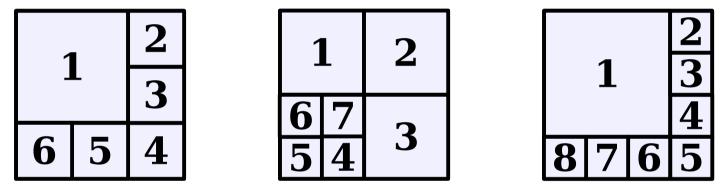
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For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary $k \ge 6$ that P(k) is true and that a square can be subdivided into k squares. We prove P(k+3), that a square can be subdivided into k+3 squares.

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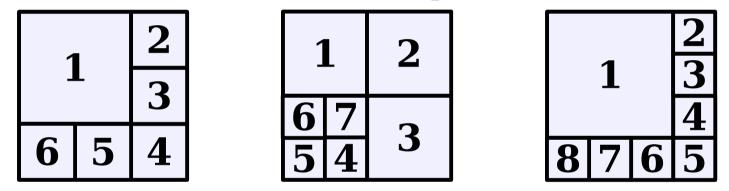
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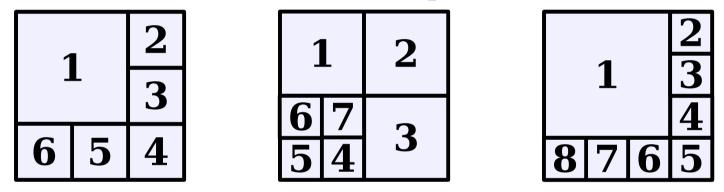
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Proof: Let P(n) be the statement "a square can be subdivided into n smaller squares." We will prove by induction that P(n) holds for all $n \ge 6$, from which the theorem follows.

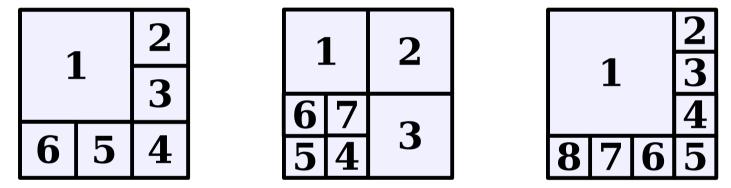
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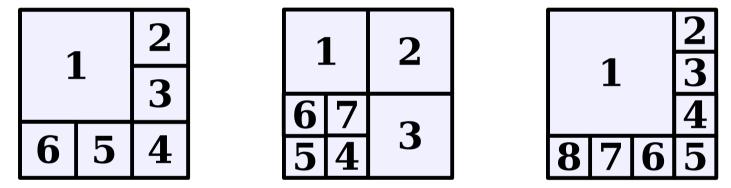
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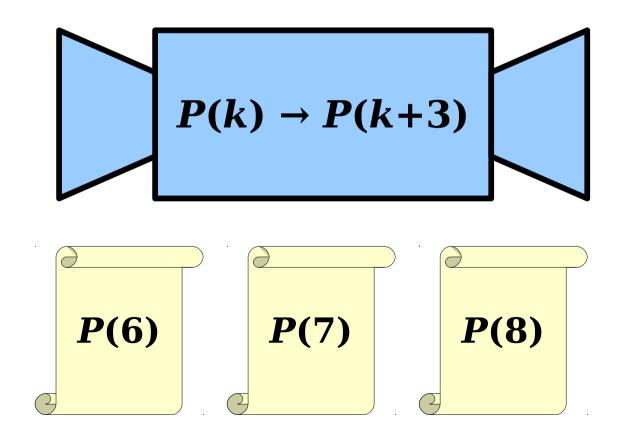
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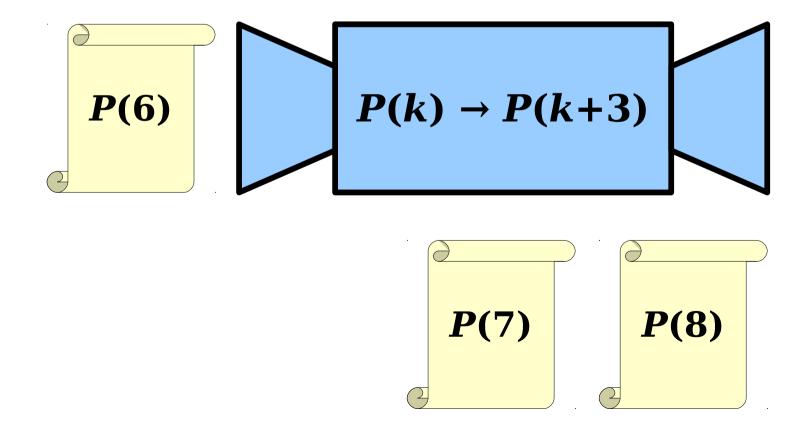


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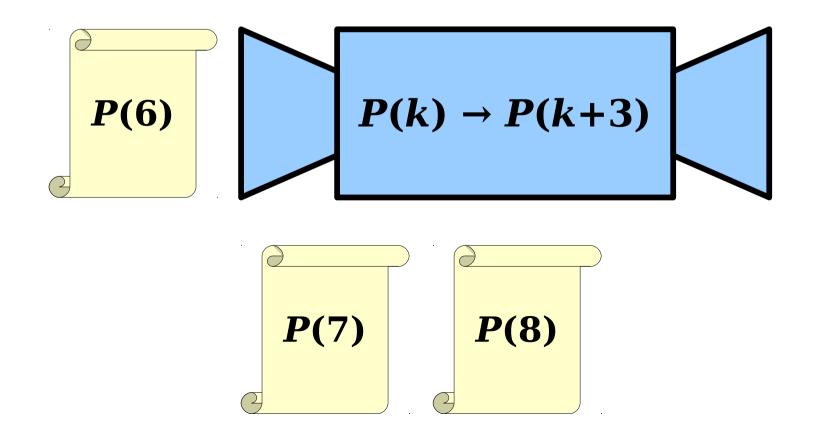
- This induction has three consecutive base cases and takes steps of size three.
- Thinking back to our "induction machine" analogy:



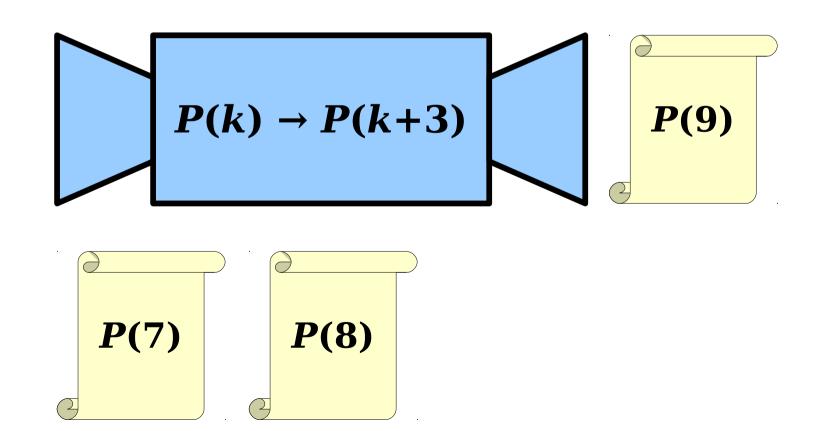
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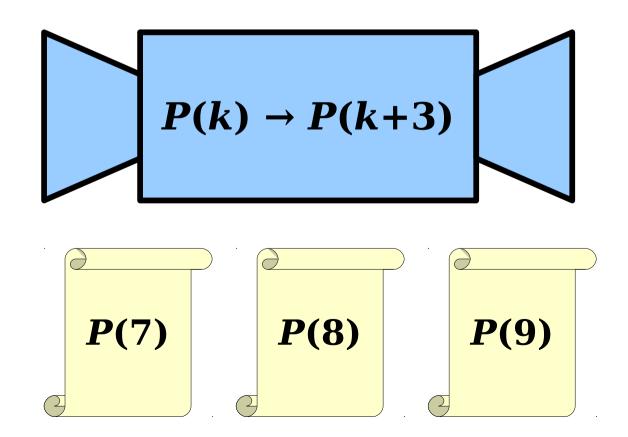
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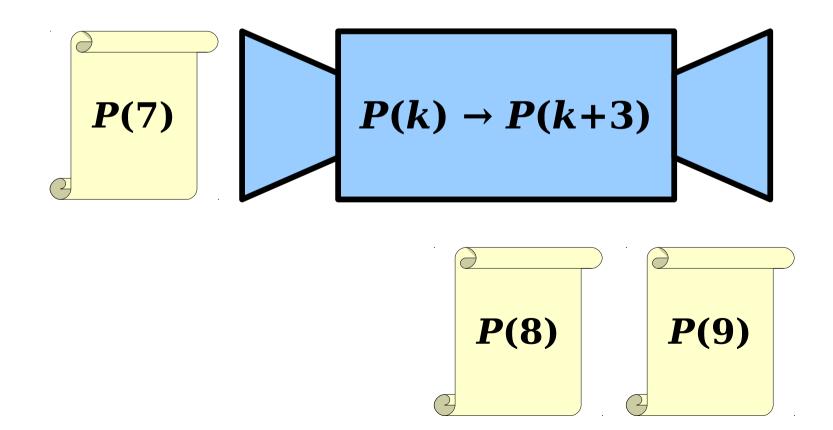
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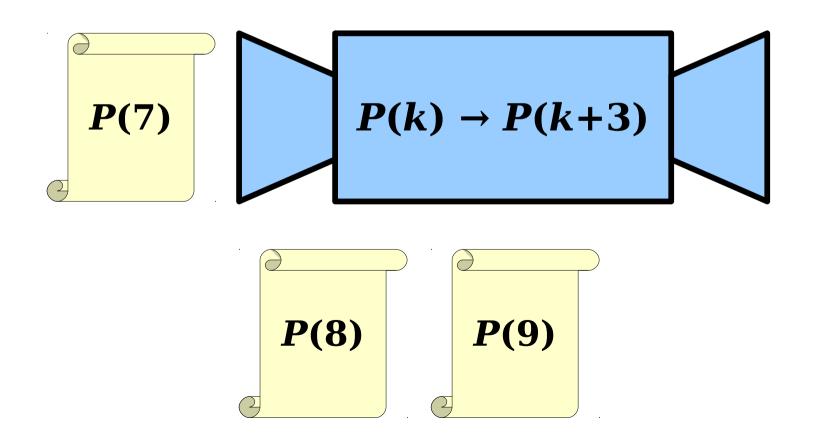
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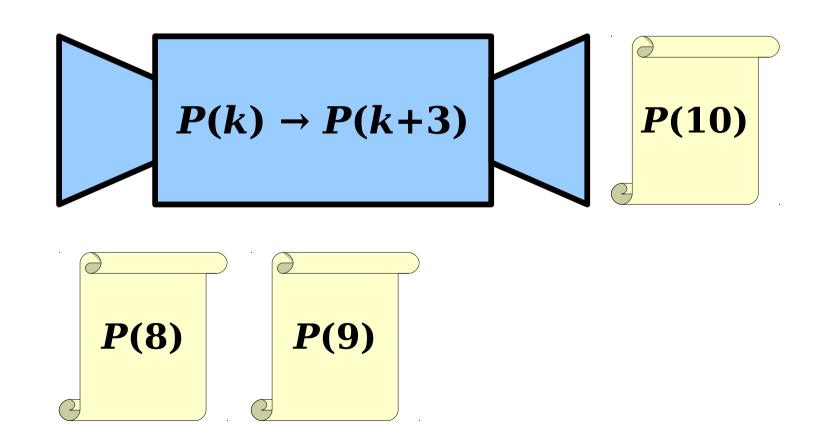
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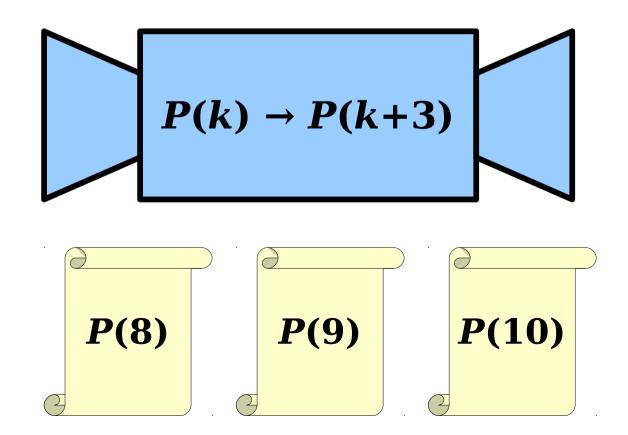
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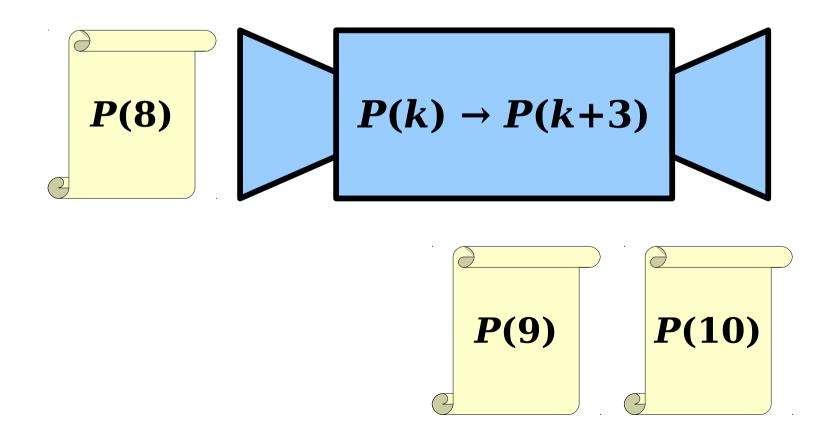
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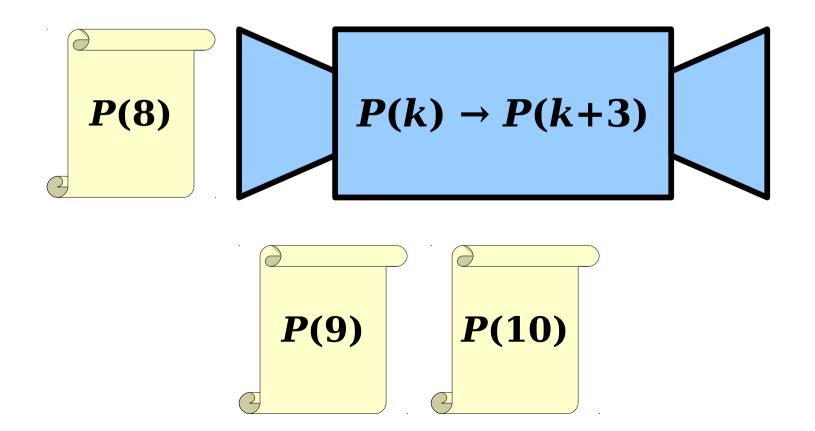
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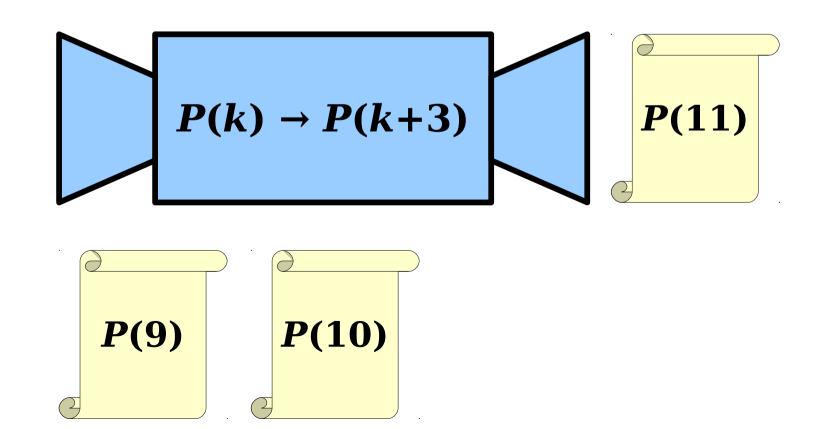
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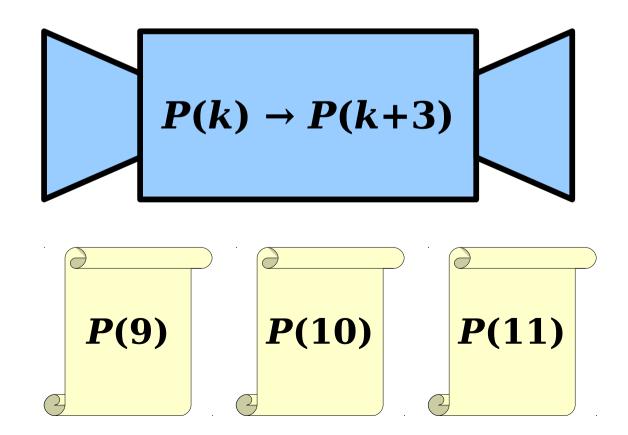
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Generalizing Induction

- When doing a proof by induction,
 - feel free to use multiple base cases, and
 - feel free to take steps of sizes other than one.
- Just be careful to make sure you cover all the numbers you think that you're covering!
 - We won't require that you prove you've covered everything, but it doesn't hurt to double-check!

Time-Out for Announcements!

Midterm Debrief

- You're done with the midterm! Woohoo!
- We'll be grading exams over the weekend. Once everything is graded, we'll release solutions and stats.
- Curious about any of the questions? Feel free to come and chat with us!

Problem Set Four

- Problem Set Four is due this Friday at the start of class.
 - Reminder: you have three free 24-hour late days to use throughout the quarter.
 - You'll get a flat percent hit if you turn something in once you're out of late days, but it's almost certainly a good deal.
- PS4 checkpoints have been graded and returned. We'll get PS3 returned as soon as it's ready.

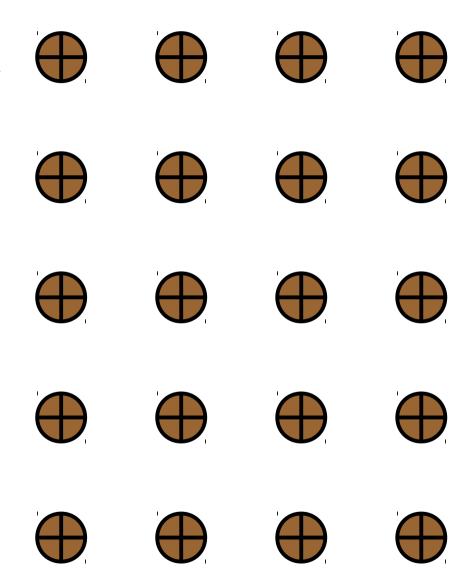
Back to CS103!

A Motivating Question: *Rat Mazes*



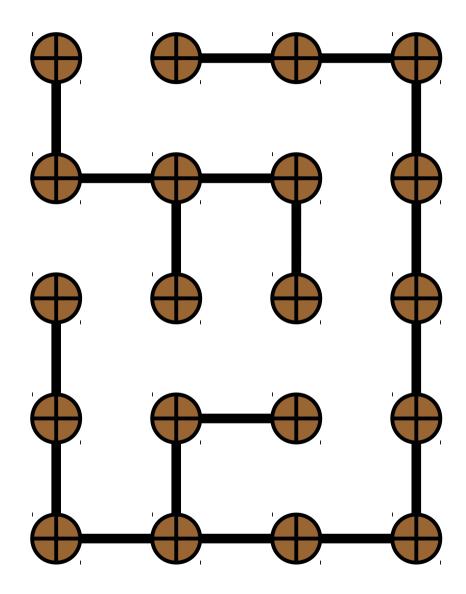
Rat Mazes

• Suppose you want to make a rat maze consisting of an $n \times m$ grid of pegs with slats between them.



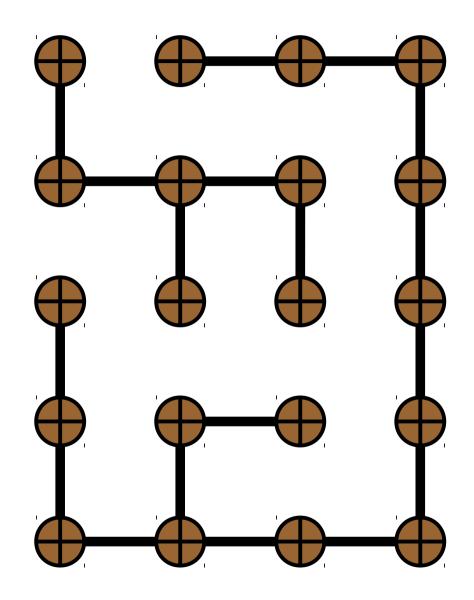
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Rat Mazes

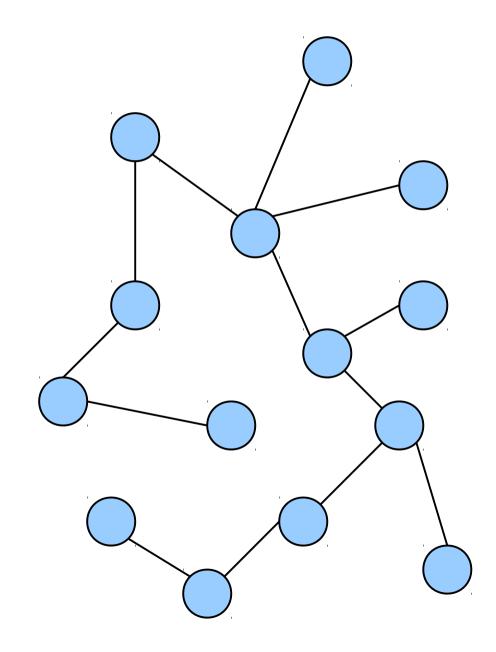
- Suppose you want to make a rat maze consisting of an $n \times m$ grid of pegs with slats between them.
- The maze should have these properties:
 - There is one entrance and one exit in the border.
 - Every spot in the maze is reachable from every other spot.
 - There is exactly one path from each spot in the maze to each other spot.



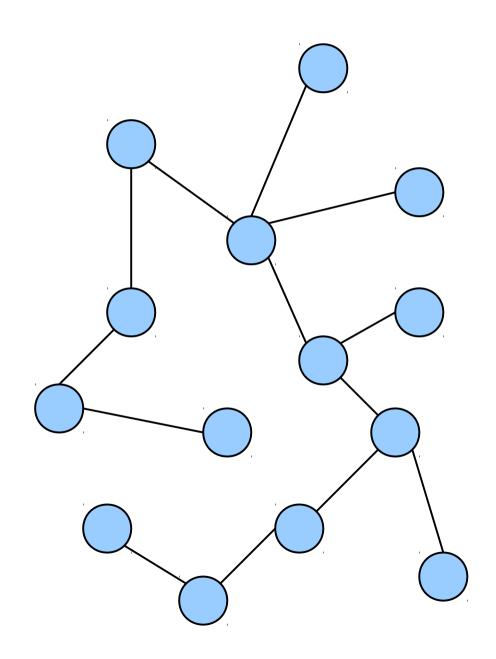
Question: If you have an $n \times m$ grid of pegs, how many slats do you need to make?

A Special Type of Graph: *Trees*

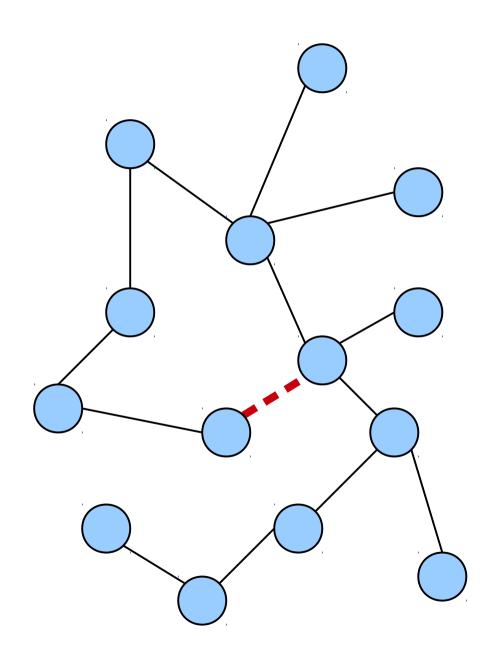
• A *tree* is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.



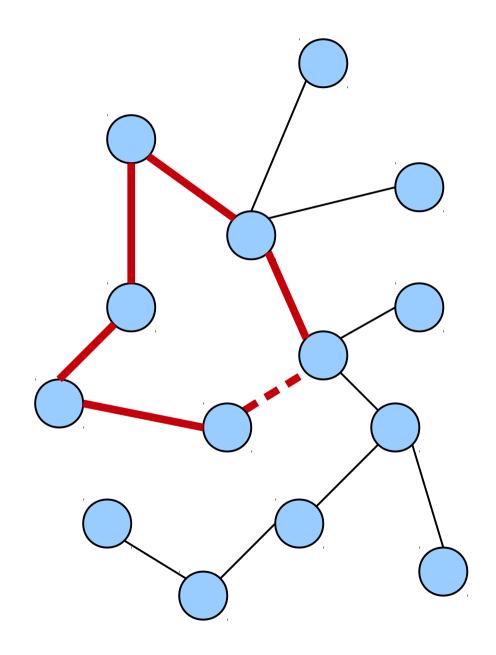
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- Trees have tons of nice properties:
 - They're *maximally acyclic* (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)



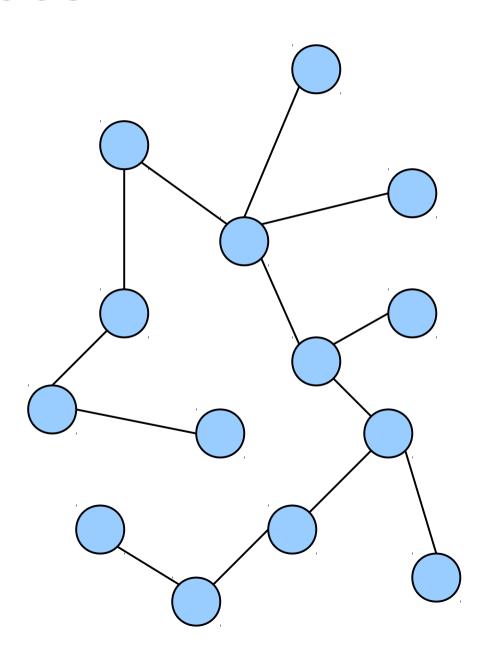
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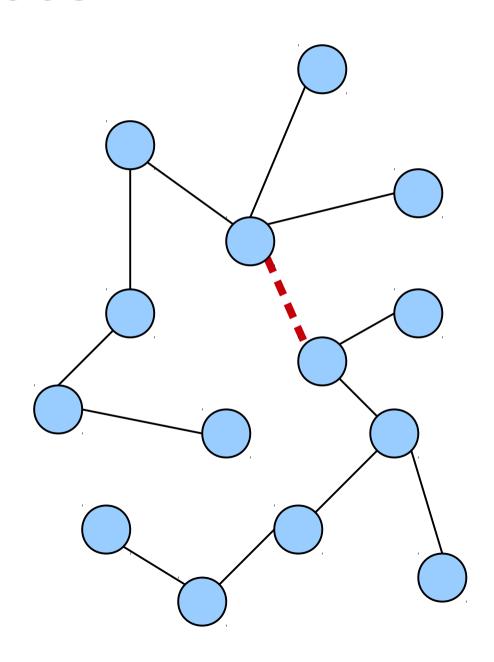
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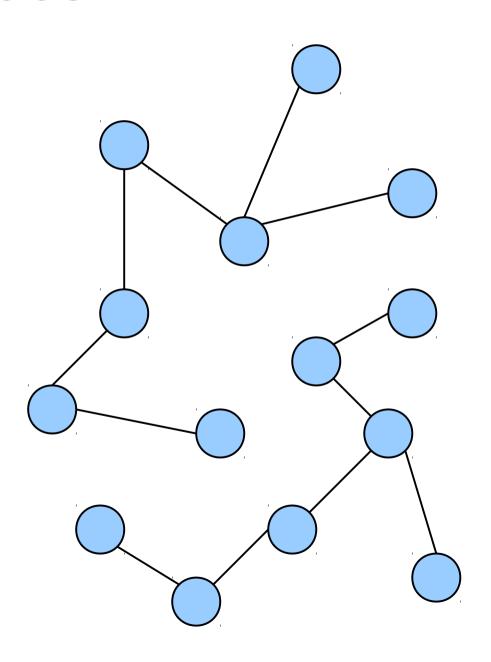
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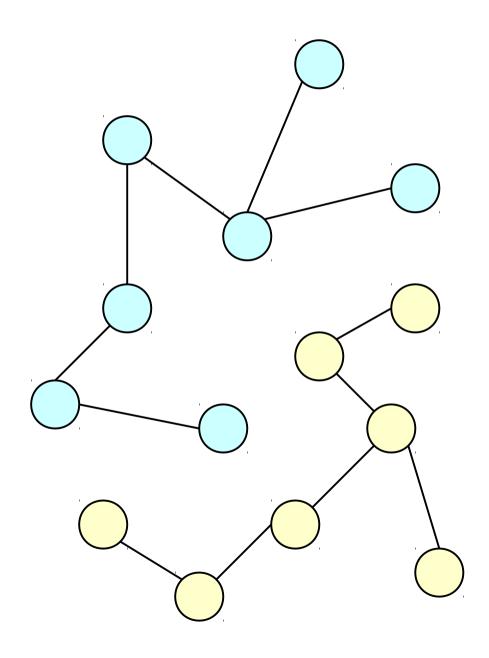
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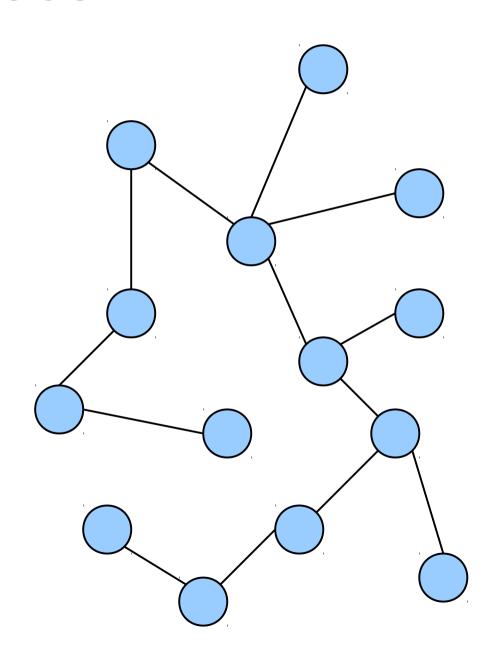
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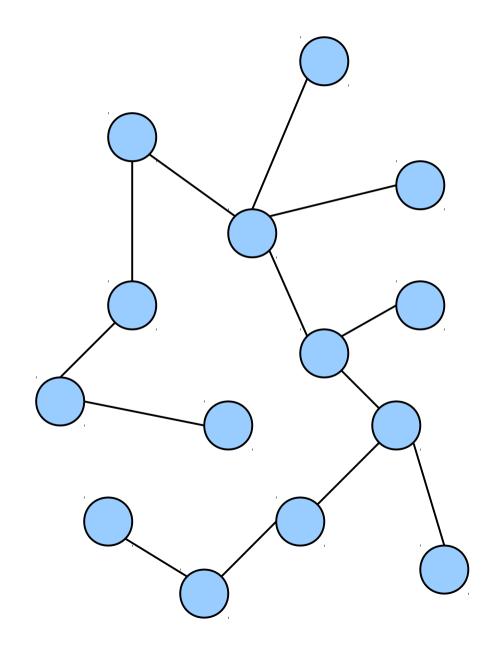
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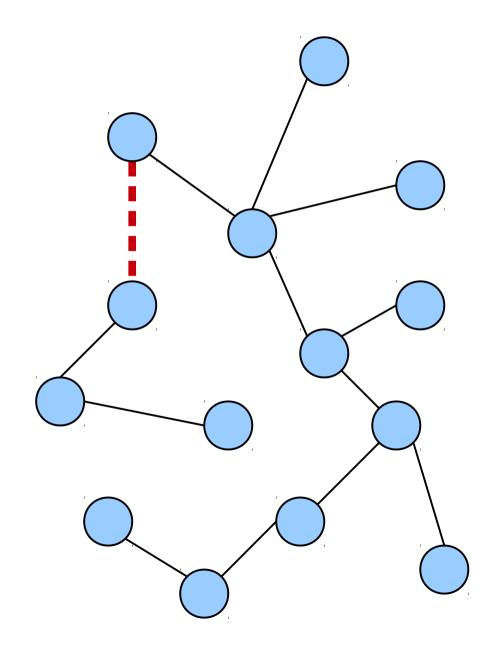
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- Proofs of these results are in the course reader if you're interested. They're also great exercises.



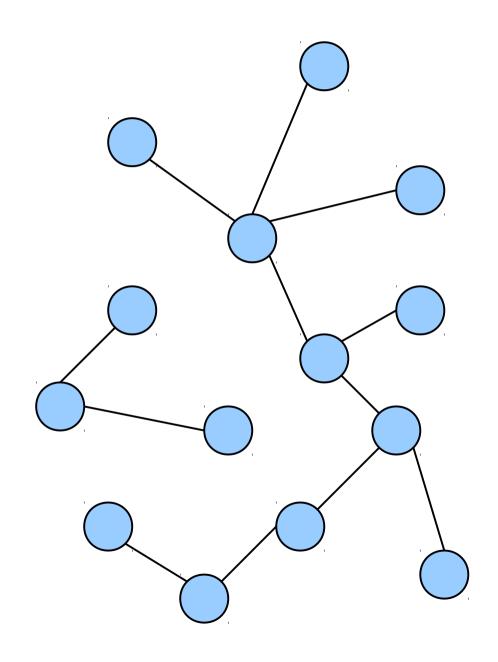
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- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ©



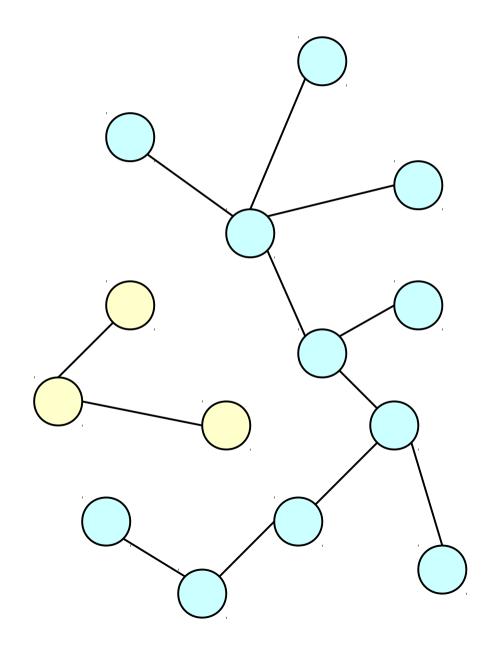
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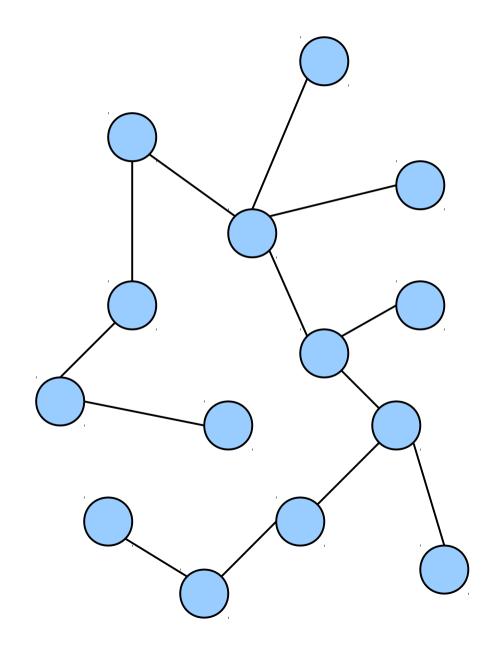
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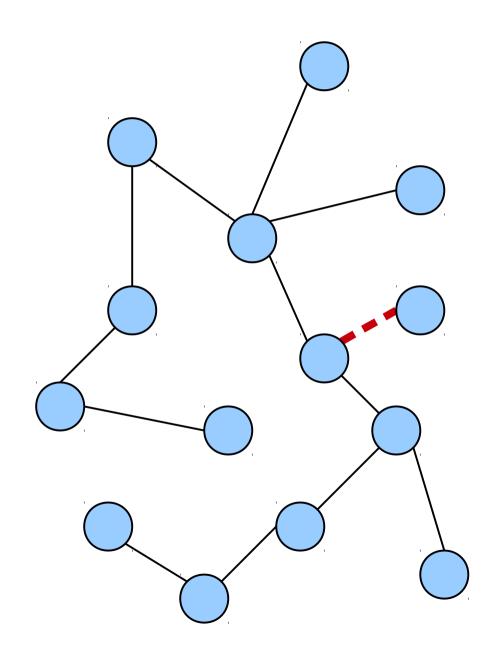
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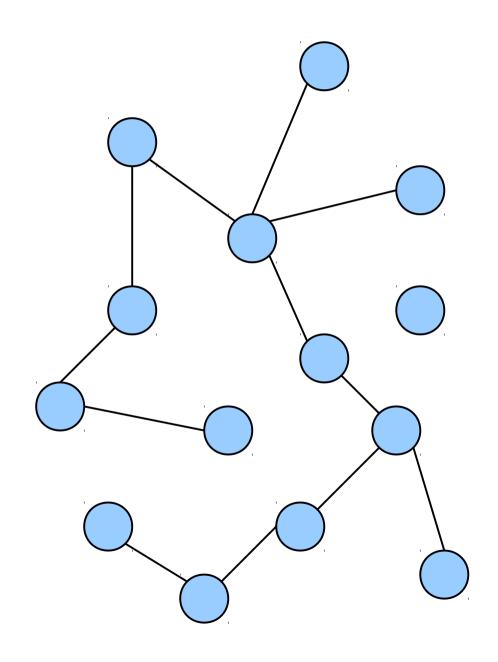
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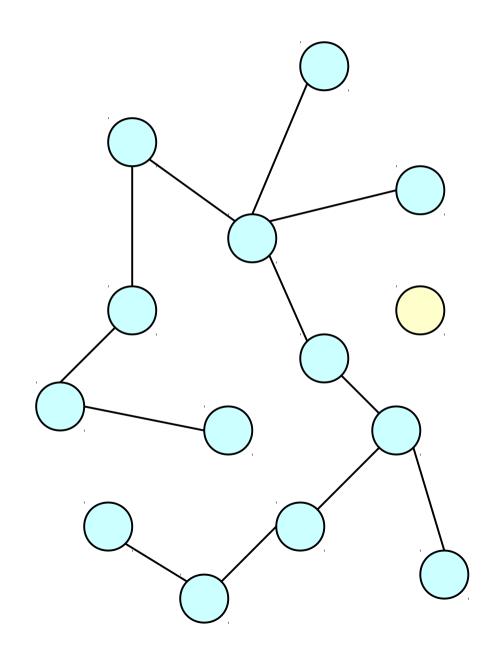
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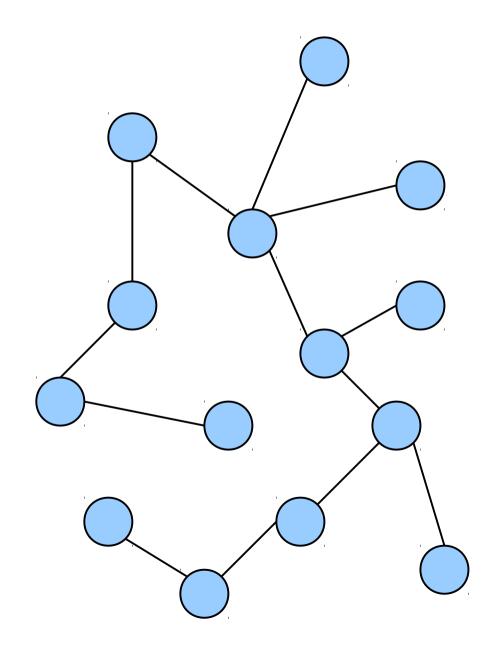
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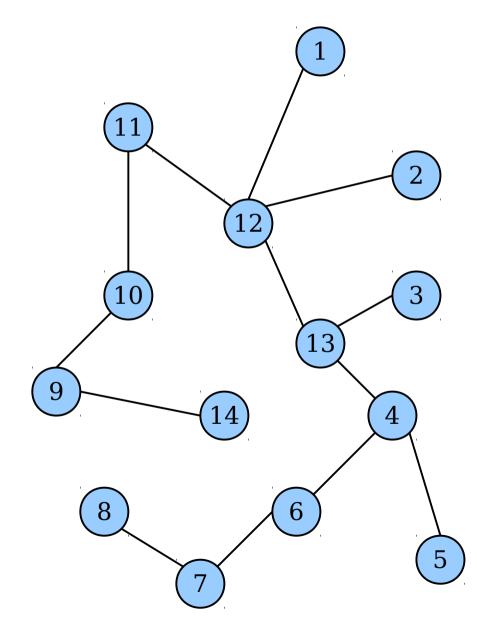
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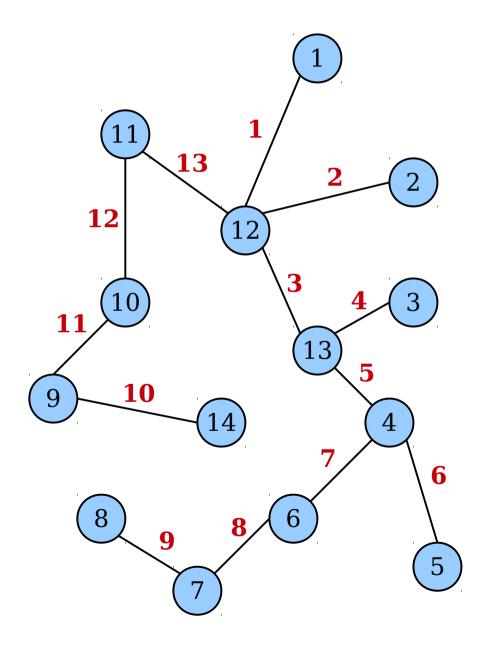
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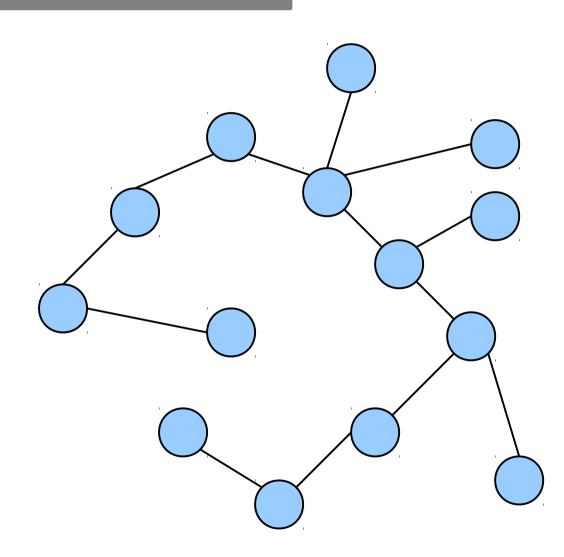


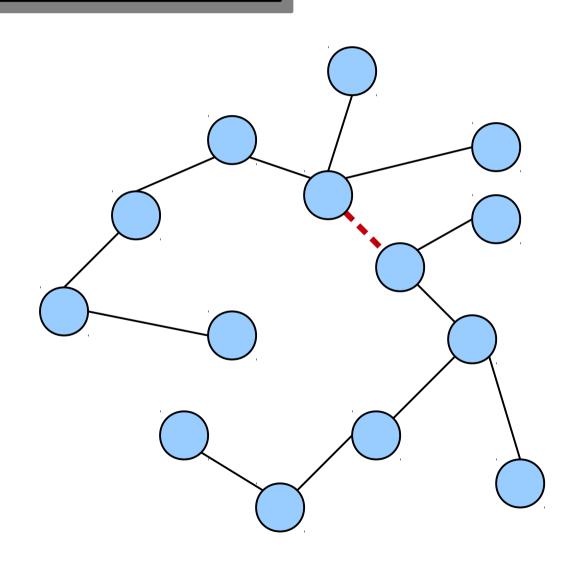
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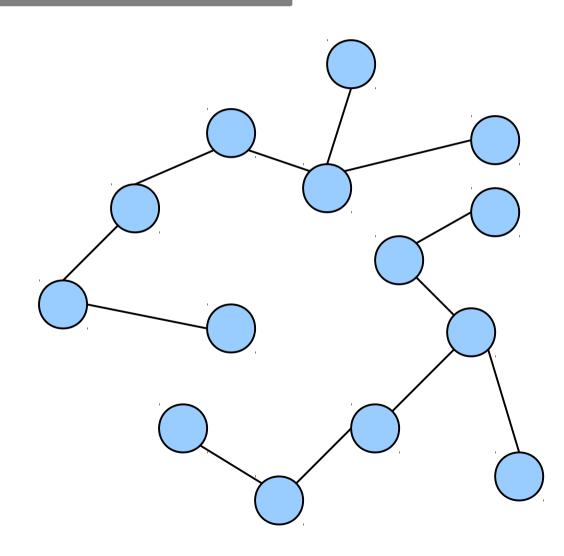


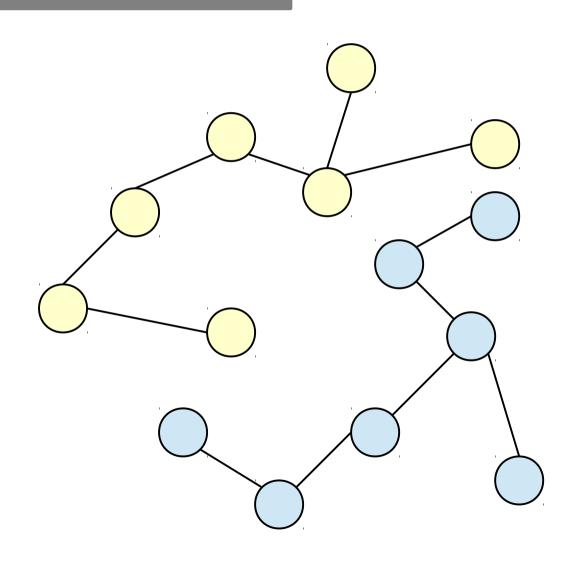
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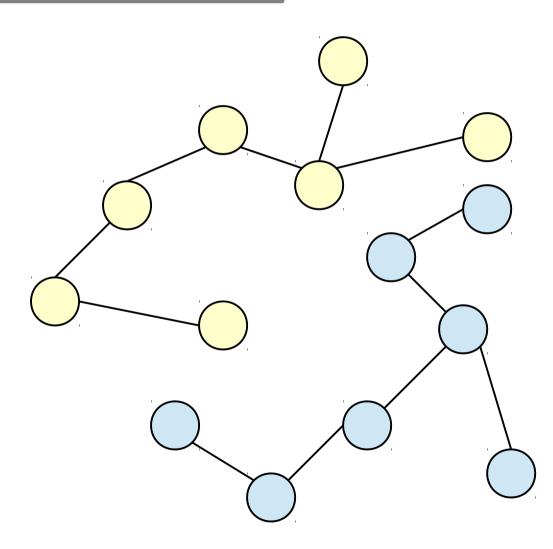






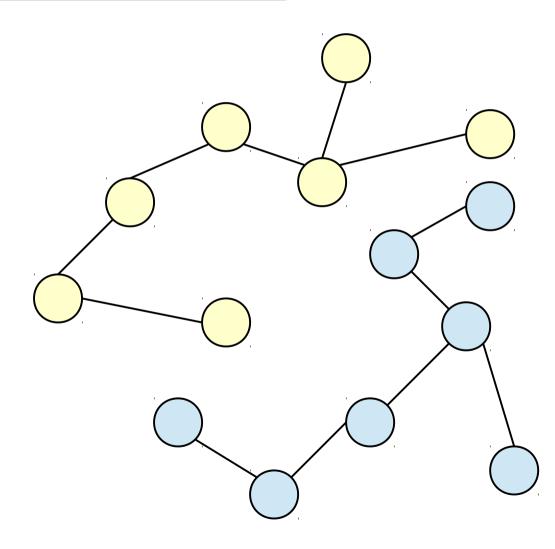






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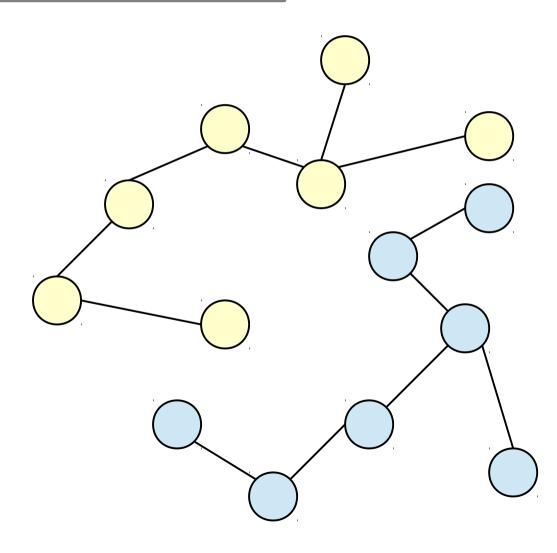
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Consider an arbitrary tree with k+1 nodes.

Suppose there are r nodes in the yellow tree.

Then there are (k+1)-r nodes in the blue tree.

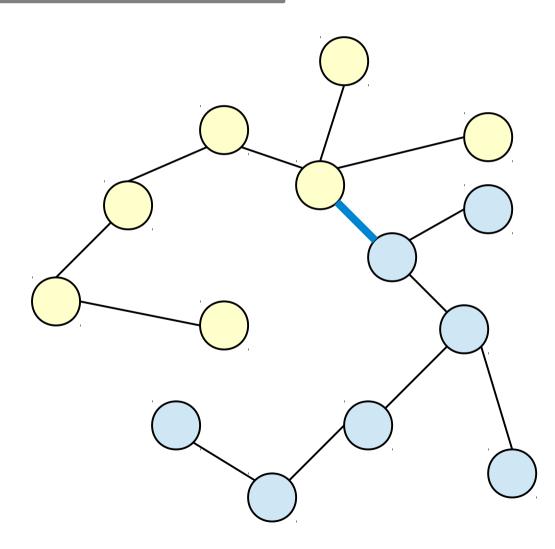


Consider an arbitrary tree with k+1 nodes.

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There are r-1 edges in the yellow tree and k-r edges in the blue tree.

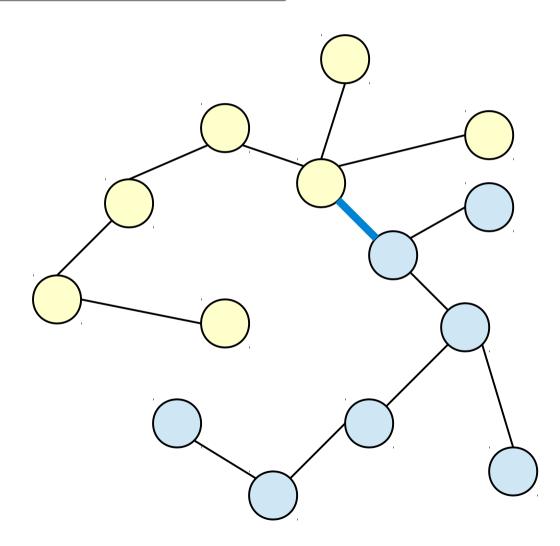


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Adding in the initial edge we cut, there are r-1+k-r+1=k edges in the original tree.

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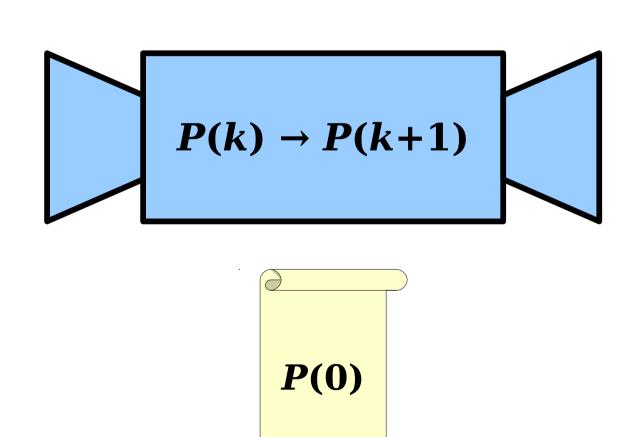
Now, assume for some arbitrary $k \ge 1$ that P(1), P(2), ..., and P(k) are true, so any tree with between 1 and k nodes has one more node than edge. We will prove P(k+1), that any tree with k+1 nodes has k edges.

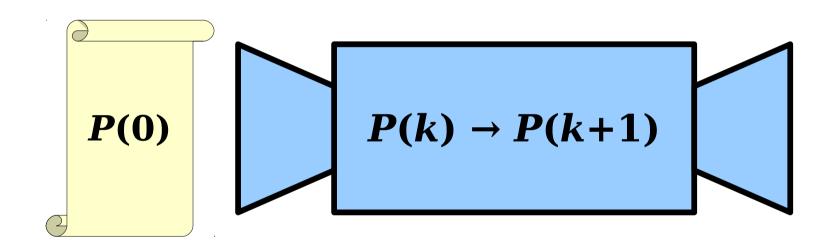
Consider any tree T with k+1 nodes. Since T has at least two nodes and is connected, it must contain at least one edge. Choose any edge in T and delete it. This splits T into two nonempty trees T_1 and T_2 . Every edge in T is part of T_1 , is part of T_2 , or is the initial edge we deleted.

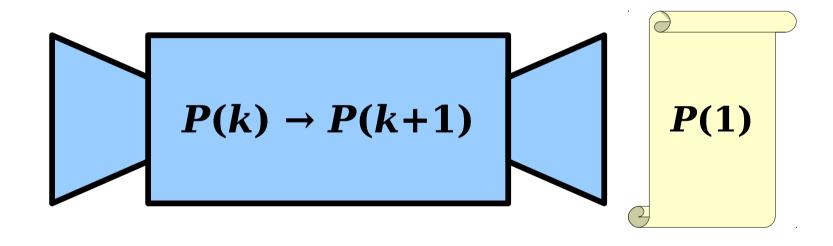
Let r be the number of nodes in T_1 . Since every node in T belongs to either T_1 or T_2 , we see that T_2 has (k+1)-r nodes. Additionally, since T_1 and T_2 are nonempty, neither T_1 nor T_2 contains all the nodes from T. Therefore, T_1 and T_2 each have between 1 and k nodes. We can then apply our inductive hypothesis to see that T_1 has r-1 edges and T_2 has k-r edges. Thus the total number of edges in T is 1 + (r-1) + (k-r) = k, as required. Therefore, P(k+1) is true, completing the induction.

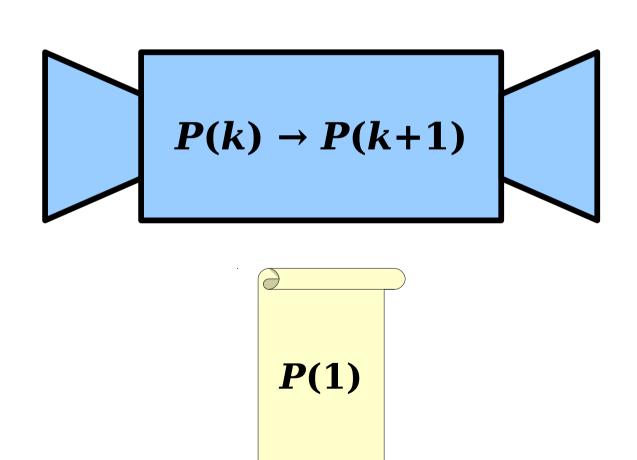
Complete Induction

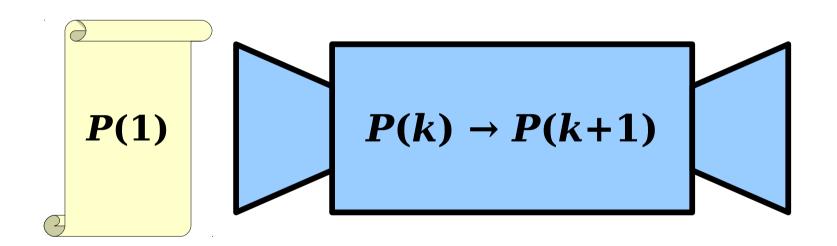
- If the following are true:
 - P(0) is true, and
 - If P(0), P(1), P(2), ..., P(k) are true, then P(k+1) is true as well.
 - then P(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.
- This is called the principle of complete induction or the principle of strong induction.
 - (This also works starting from a number other than 0; just modify what you're assuming appropriately.)

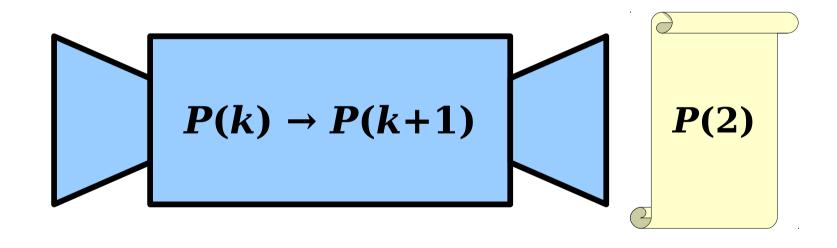


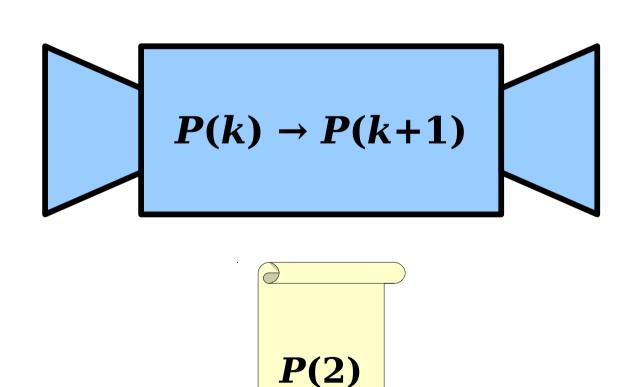


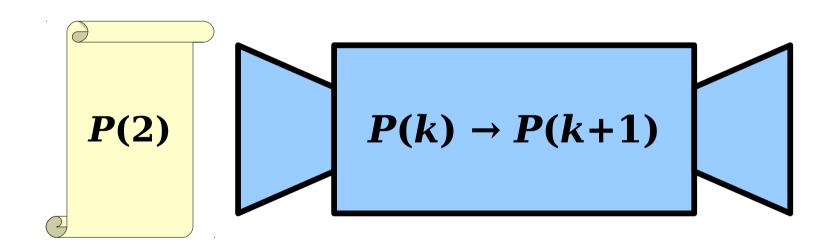


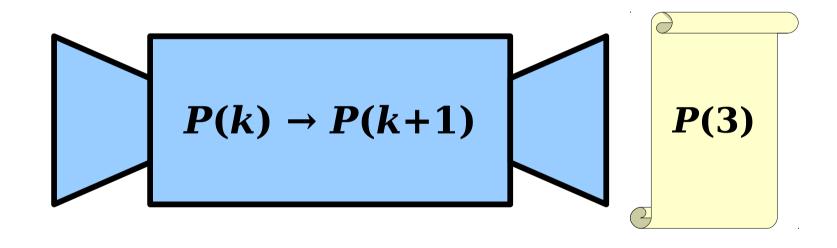




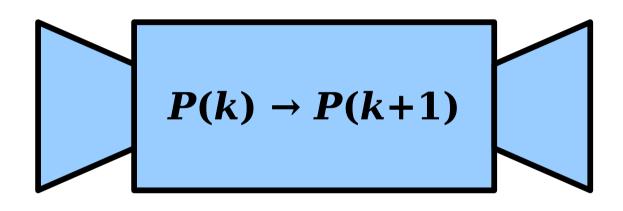


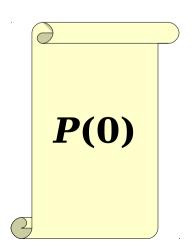


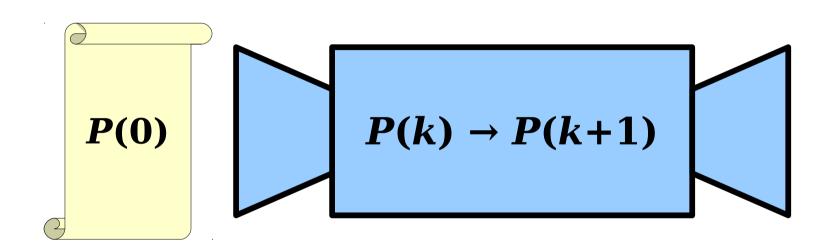


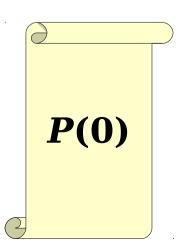


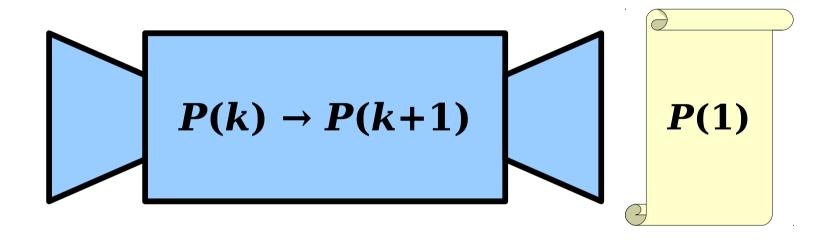
An Observation

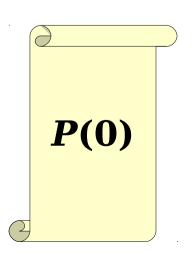


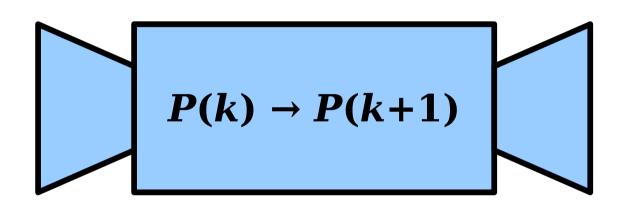


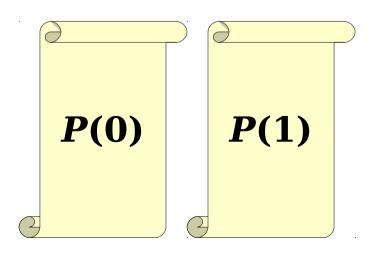


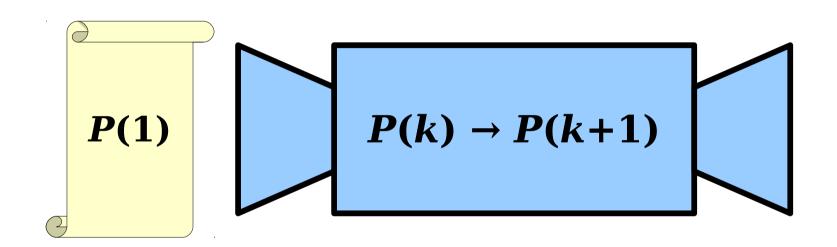


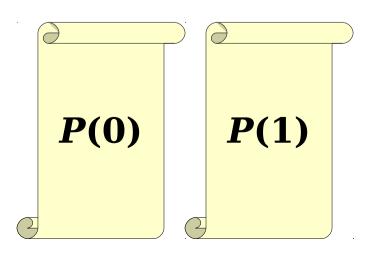


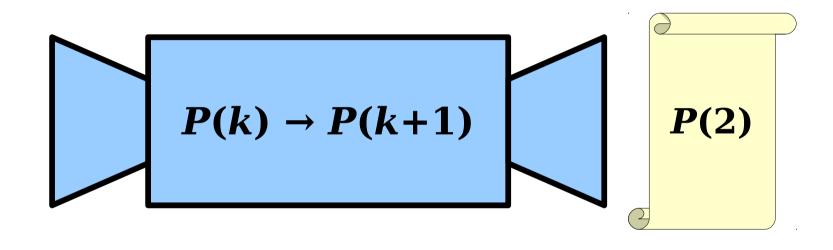


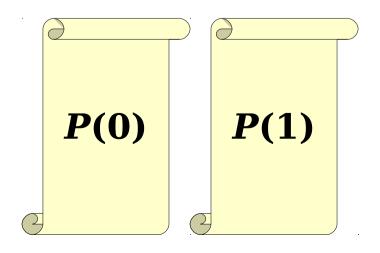


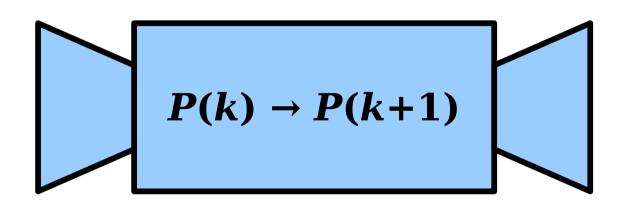


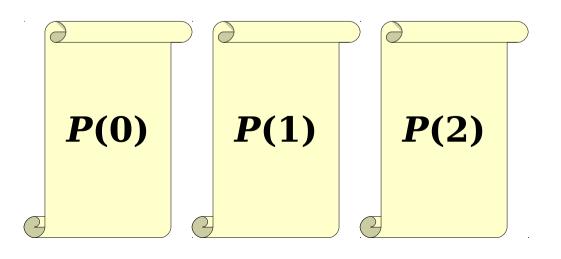


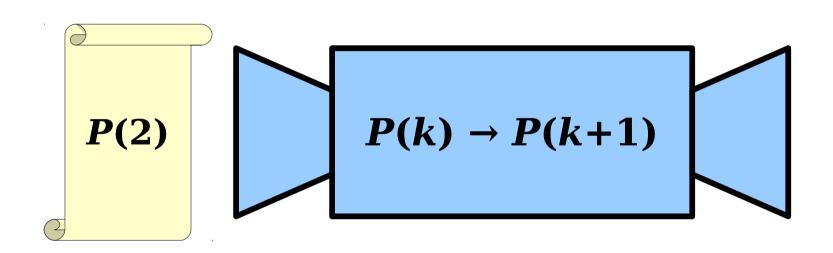


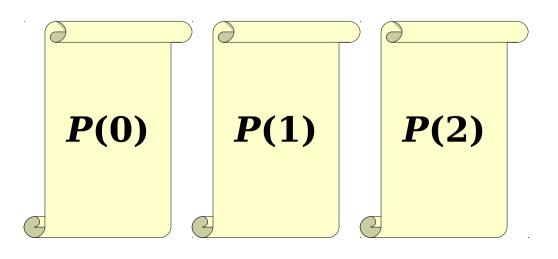


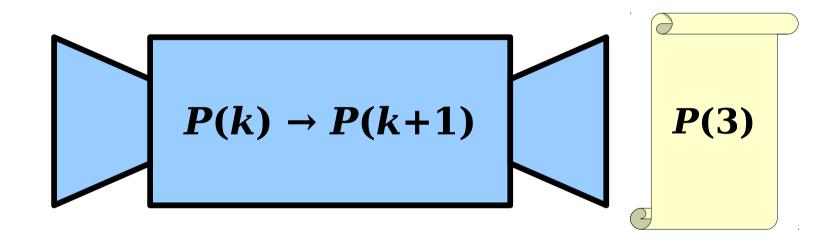


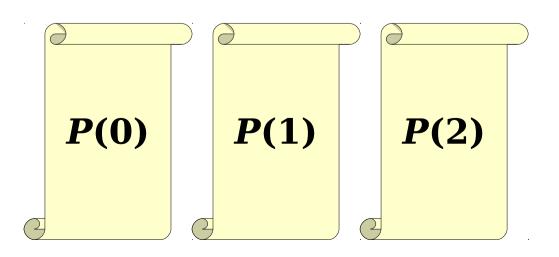


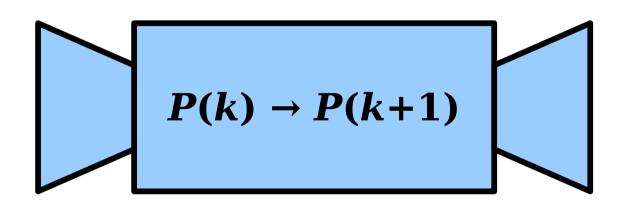


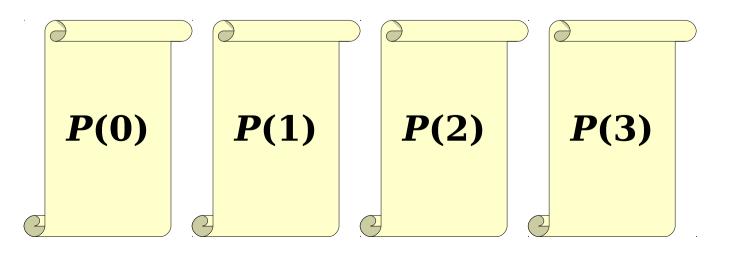


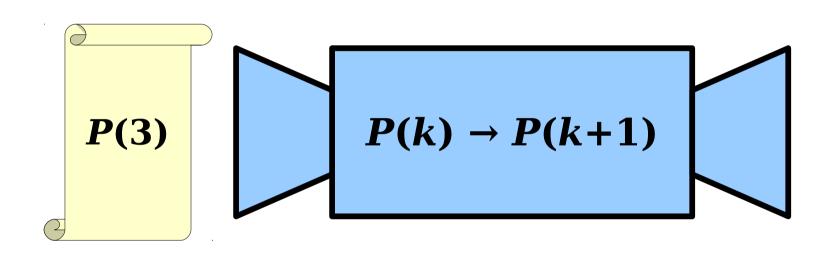


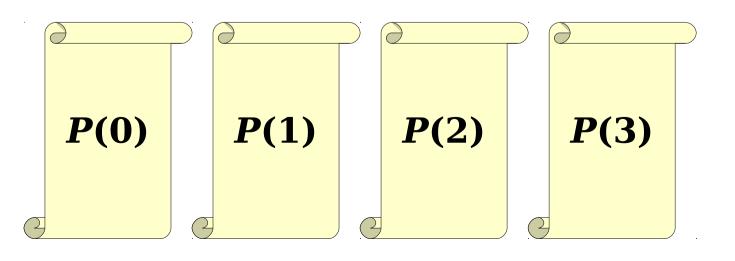


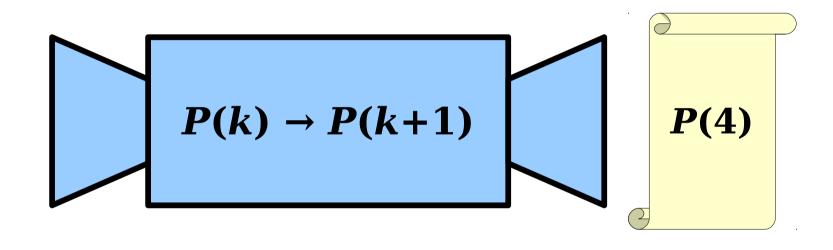


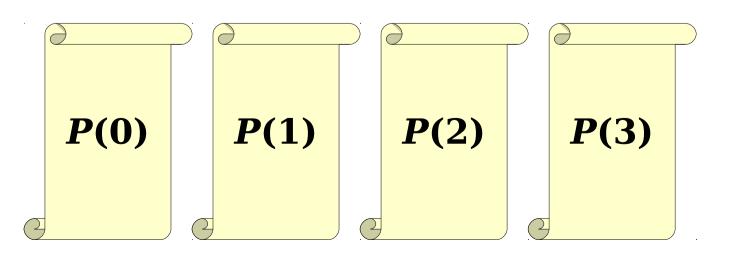


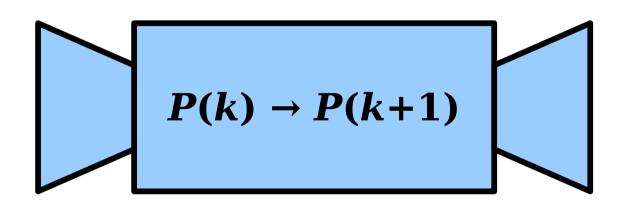


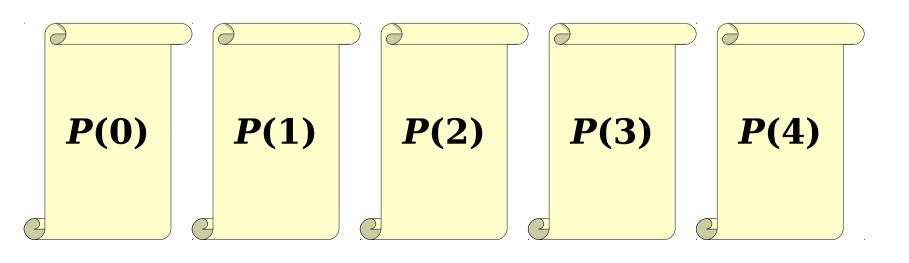


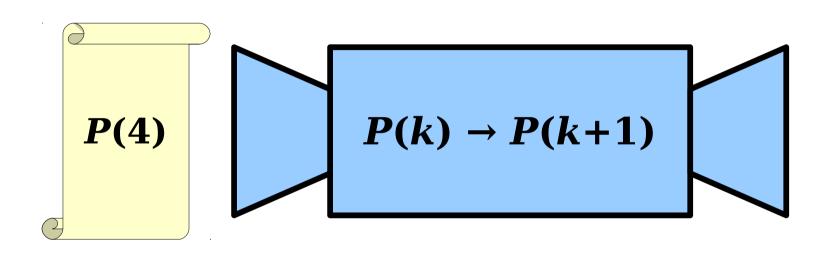


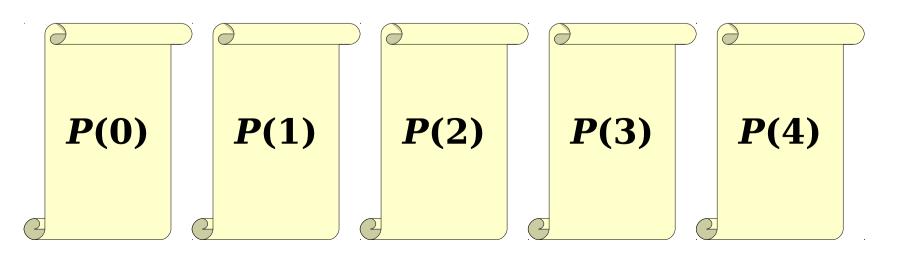


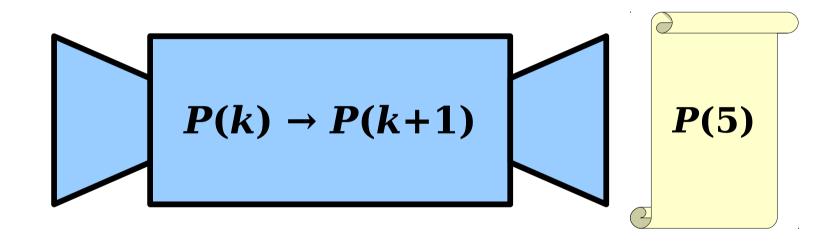


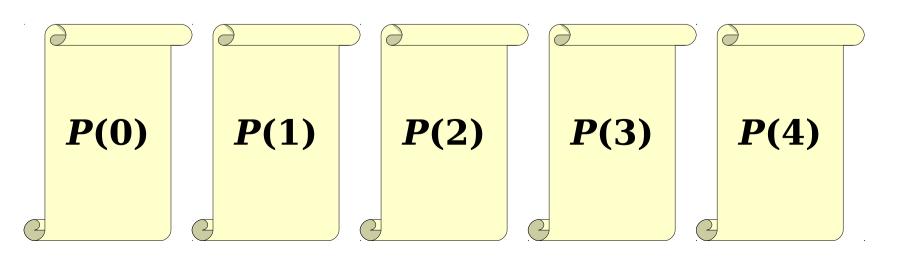


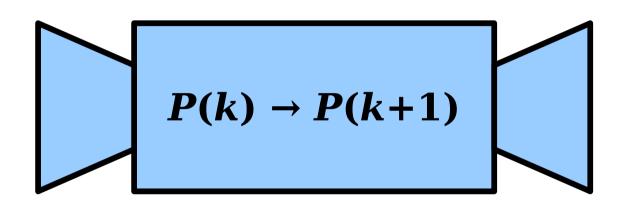


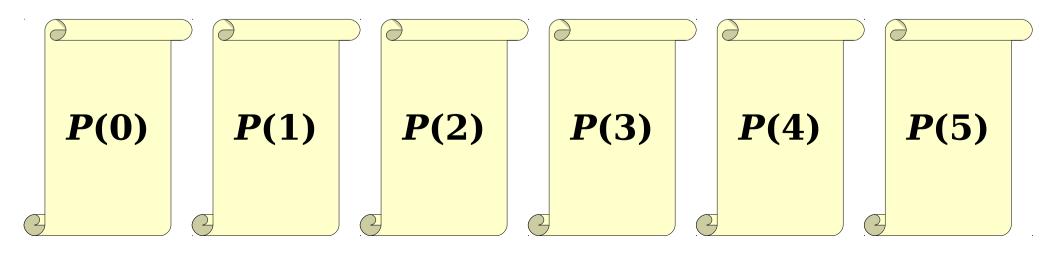


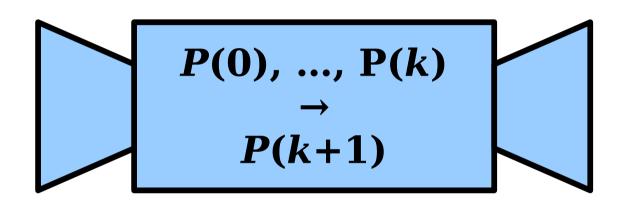


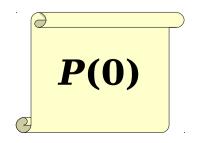


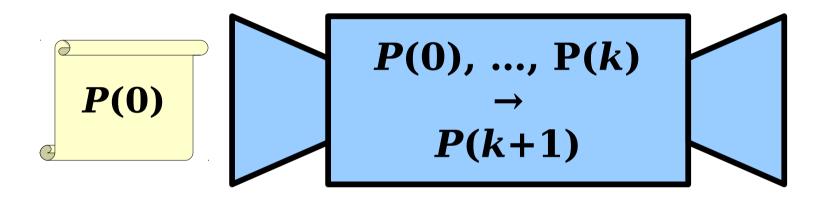


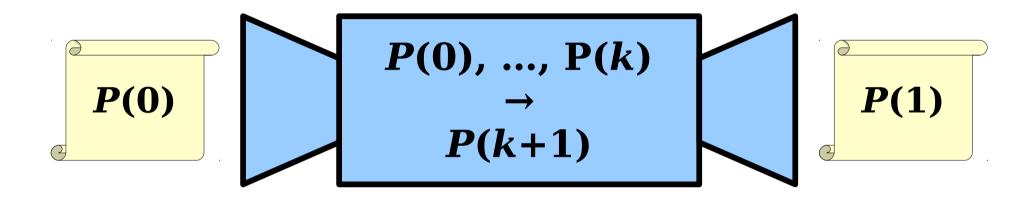


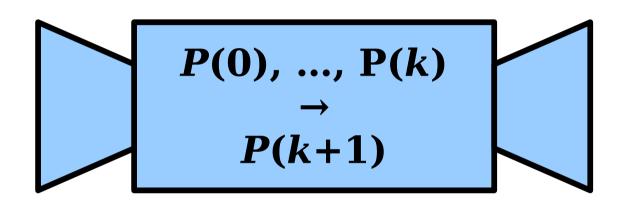


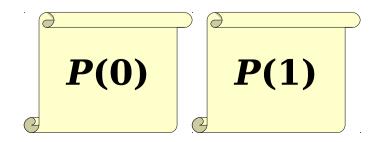


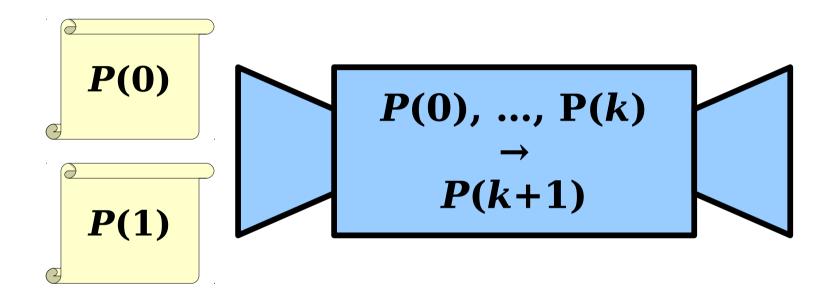


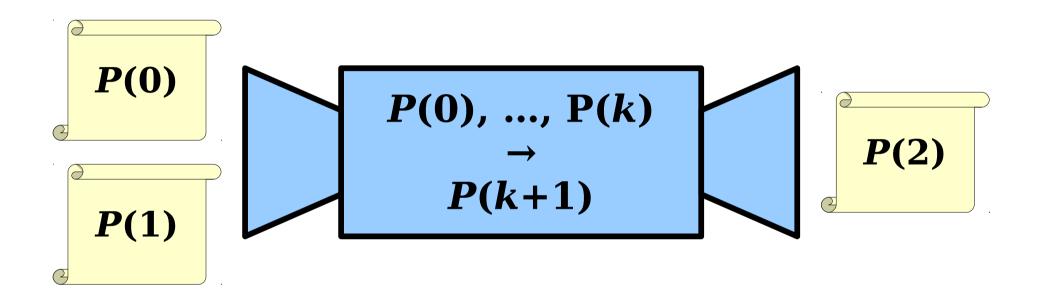


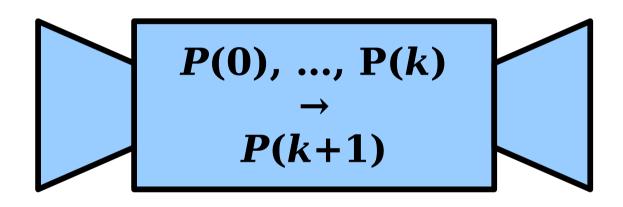


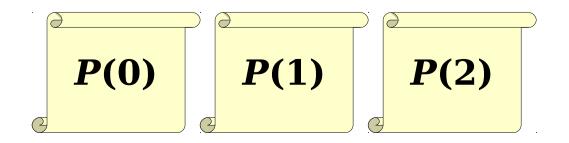


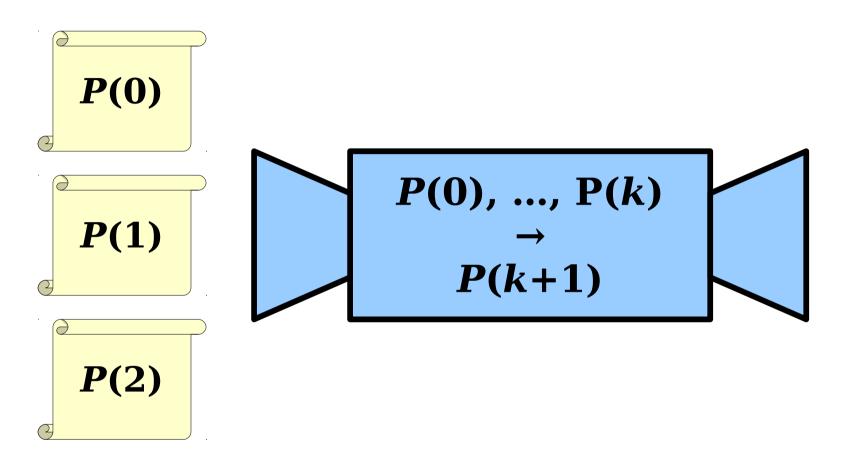


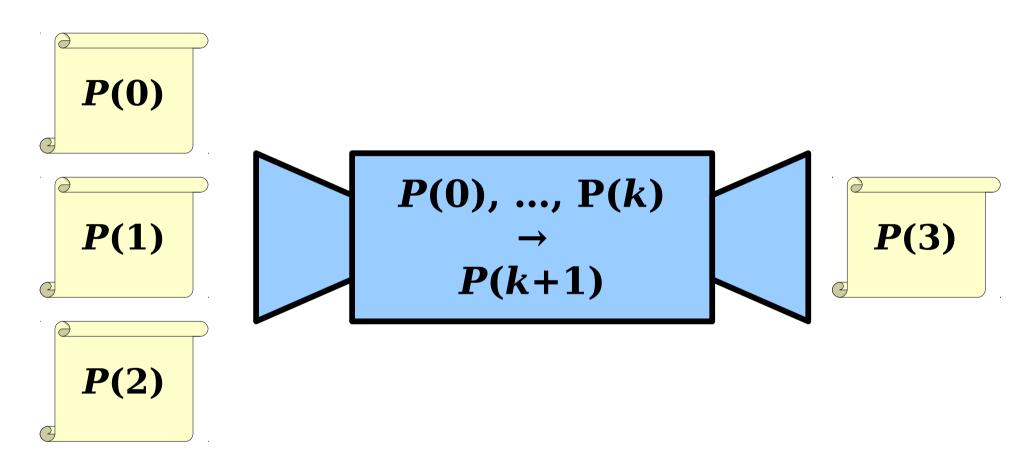


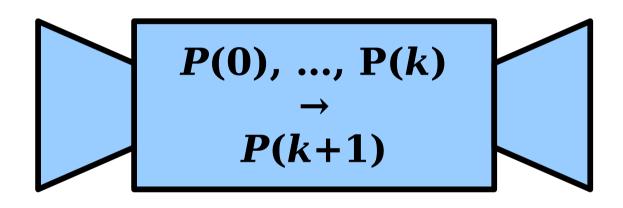


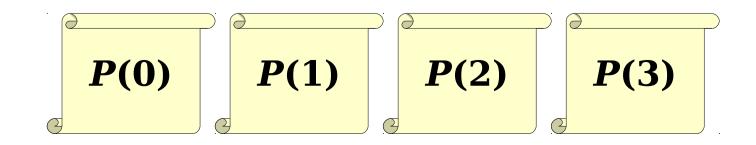








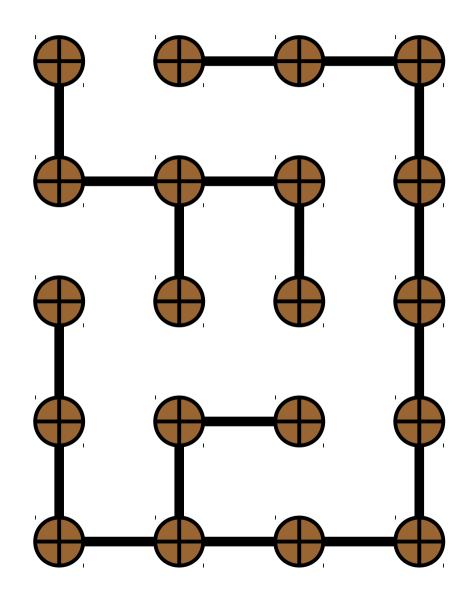




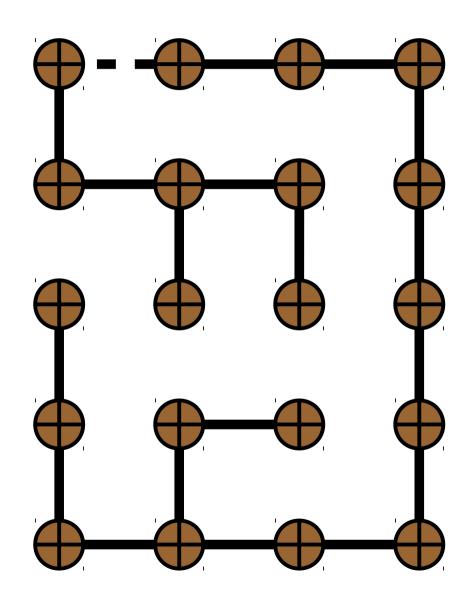
When Use Complete Induction?

- Normal induction is good for when you are shrinking the problem size by exactly one.
 - Peeling one final term off a sum.
 - Making one weighing on a scale.
 - Considering one more action on a string.
- Complete induction is good when you are shrinking the problem, but you can't be sure by how much.
 - In the previous example, if we delete a random edge, we can't know in advance how big the resulting trees will be.

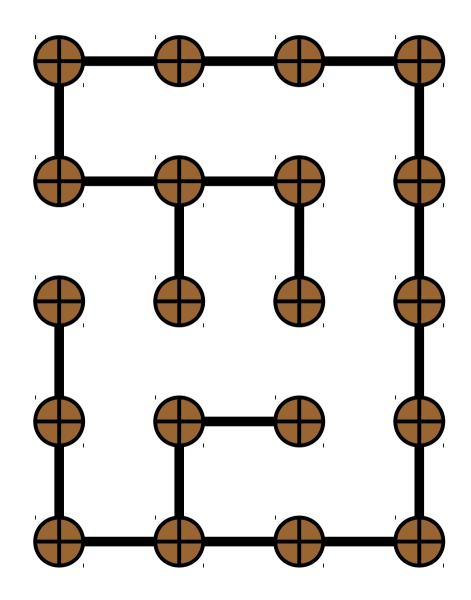
- Suppose you want to make a rat maze consisting of an n × m grid of pegs with slats between them.
- *Question:* How many slats do you need to create?



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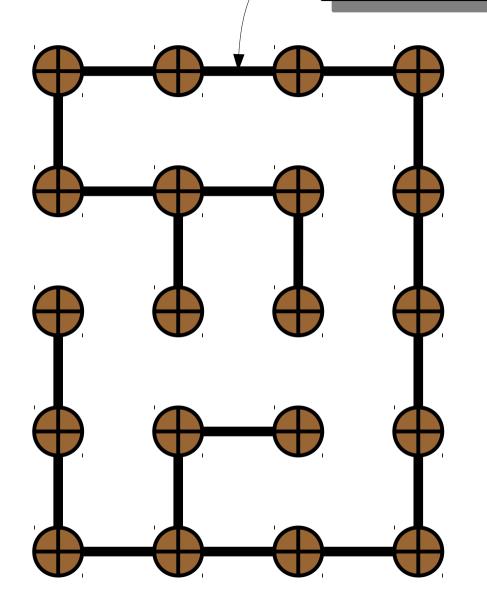


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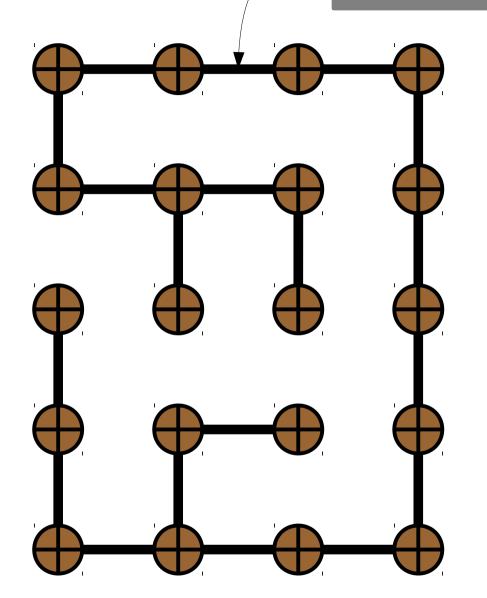
This is a tree!

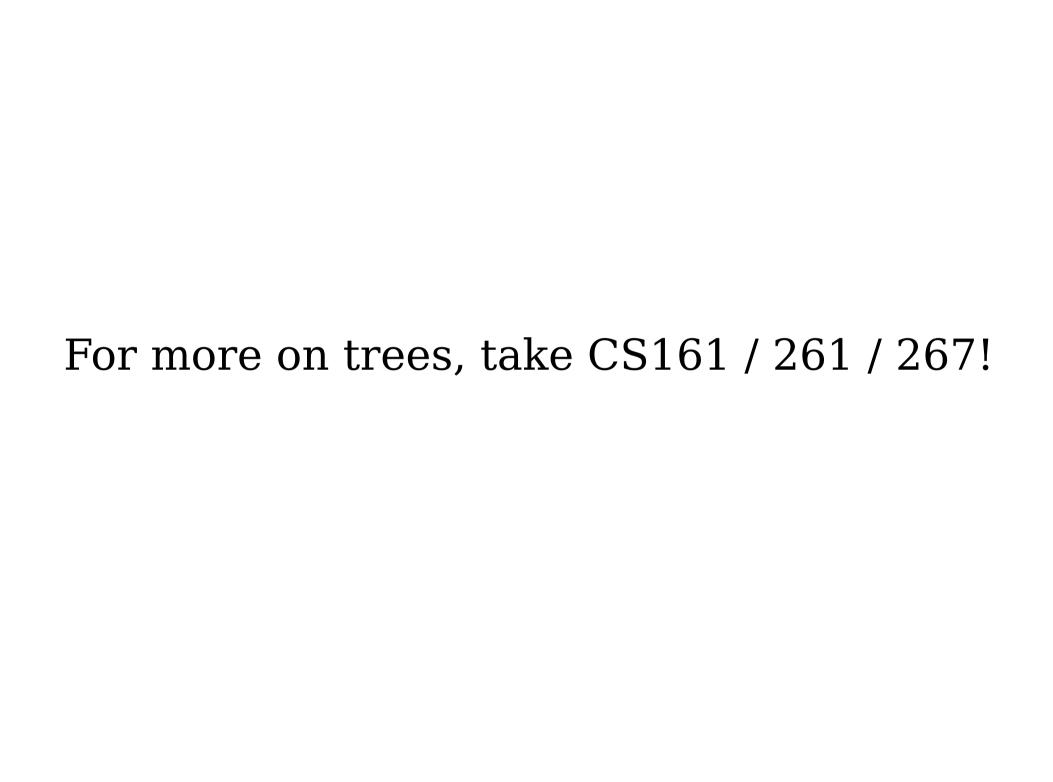
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This is a tree!

- Suppose you want to make a rat maze consisting of an n × m grid of pegs with slats between them.
- *Question:* How many slats do you need to create?
- **Answer:** mn 2.





Just For Funzies: The Limits of Data Compression

Bitstrings

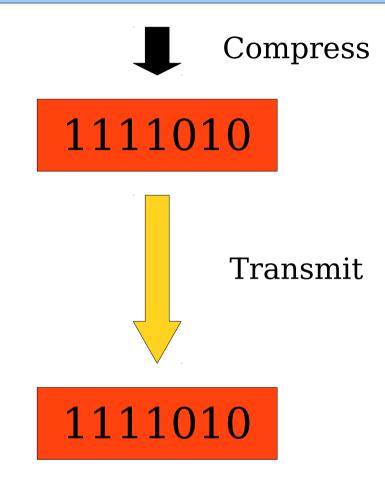
- A *bitstring* is a finite sequence of 0s and 1s.
- Examples:
 - 11011100
 - 010101010101
 - 0000
 - ε (the *empty string*)
- There are 2^n bitstrings of length n.

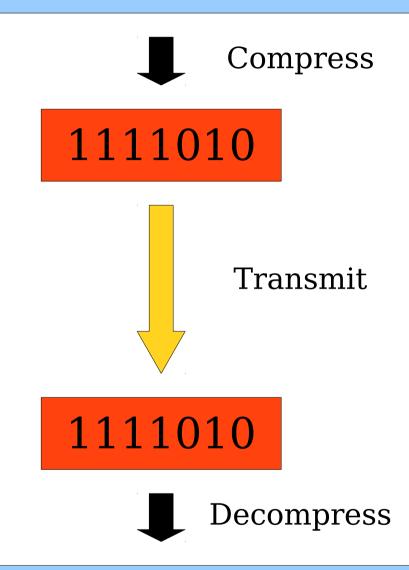
Data Compression

- Inside a computer, all data are represented as sequences of 0s and 1s (bitstrings)
- To transfer data over a network (or on a flash drive, if you're still into that), it is useful to reduce the number of 0s and 1s before transferring it.
- Most real-world data can be compressed by exploiting redundancies.
 - Text repeats common patterns ("the", "and", etc.)
 - Bitmap images use similar colors throughout the image.
- *Idea*: Replace each bitstring with a *shorter* bitstring that contains all the original information.
 - This is called *lossless data compression*.



Compress





Lossless Data Compression

- In order to losslessly compress data, we need two functions:
 - A *compression function C*, and
 - A decompression function D.
- We need to have D(C(x)) = x.
 - Otherwise, we can't uniquely encode or decode some bitstring.
- This means that D must be a left inverse of C, so (as you proved in PS3!) C must be injective.

A Perfect Compression Function

- Ideally, the compressed version of a bitstring would always be shorter than the original bitstring.
- **Question**: Can we find a lossless compression algorithm that always compresses a string into a shorter string?
- To handle the issue of the empty string (which can't get any shorter), let's assume we only care about strings of length at least 10.

A Counting Argument

- Let \mathbb{B}^n be the set of bitstrings of length n, and $\mathbb{B}^{< n}$ be the set of bitstrings of length less than n.
- How many bitstrings of length *n* are there?
 - **Answer**: 2ⁿ
- How many bitstrings of length *less than n* are there?
 - **Answer**: $2^0 + 2^1 + ... + 2^{n-1} = 2^n 1$
- By the pigeonhole principle, no function from \mathbb{B}^n to $\mathbb{B}^{< n}$ can be injective at least two elements must collide!
- Since a perfect compression function would have to be an injection from \mathbb{B}^n to $\mathbb{B}^{< n}$, there is no perfect compression function!

Why this Result is Interesting

- Our result says that no matter how hard we try, it is *impossible* to compress every string into a shorter string.
- No matter how clever you are, you cannot write a lossless compression algorithm that always makes strings shorter.
- In practice, only highly redundant data can be compressed.
- The fields of information theory and Kolmogorov complexity explore the limits of compression; if you're interested, go explore!

An Important Milestone

Recap: Discrete Mathematics

• The past five weeks have focused exclusively on discrete mathematics:

Induction Functions

Graphs The Pigeonhole Principle

Relations Mathematical Logic

Set Theory Cardinality

- These are building blocks we will use throughout the rest of the quarter.
- These are building blocks you will use throughout the rest of your CS career.

Next Up: Computability Theory

- It's time to switch gears and address the limits of what can be computed.
- We'll explore these questions:
 - How do we model computation itself?
 - What exactly is a computing device?
 - What problems can be solved by computers?
 - What problems *can't* be solved by computers?
- Get ready to explore the boundaries of what computers could ever be made to do.

Next Time

Formal Language Theory

 How are we going to formally model computation?

• Finite Automata

• A simple but powerful computing device made entirely of math!

• **DFAs**

A fundamental building block in computing.