

# Mathematical Induction

## Part Two

# Problem Set Five

- Problem Set Four was due at 2:30PM today.
- Problem Set Five goes out today. It's due next Friday at 2:30PM.
  - Play around with everything we've covered so far, plus a healthy dose of induction and inductive problem-solving.

Recap from Last Time

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

If it starts true...

$P(0)$  is true

...and it stays true...

and

$\forall k \in \mathbb{N}. (P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))$

then

$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. P(n)$

...then it's always true.

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

**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  $2^0 - 1$ . 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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1} + 2^k &= (2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1}) + 2^k \\ &= 2^k - 1 + 2^k && \text{(via (1))} \\ &= 2(2^k) - 1 \\ &= 2^{k+1} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $P(k + 1)$  is true, completing the induction. ■

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

**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  $2^0 - 1$ . 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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1} + 2^k &= (2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1}) + 2^k \\ &= 2^k - 1 + 2^k && \text{(via (1))} \\ &= 2(2^k) - 1 \\ &= 2^{k+1} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $P(k + 1)$  is true, completing the induction. ■

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

**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  $2^0 - 1$ . 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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1} + 2^k &= (2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1}) + 2^k \\ &= 2^k - 1 + 2^k && \text{(via (1))} \\ &= 2(2^k) - 1 \\ &= 2^{k+1} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $P(k + 1)$  is true, completing the induction. ■

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

**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  $2^0 - 1$ . 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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} 2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1} + 2^k &= (2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{k-1}) + 2^k \\ &= 2^k - 1 + 2^k && \text{(via (1))} \\ &= 2(2^k) - 1 \\ &= 2^{k+1} - 1. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,  $P(k + 1)$  is true, completing the induction. ■



New Stuff!

# Induction in Practice

- Often, 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. In this class, you could err on the side of safety by always defining it, but it's not required.

**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 we have

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

So the theorem is true when  $n = k+1$ , completing the induction. ■

# A Fun Application: The Limits of Data Compression

# Bitstrings

- A ***bitstring*** is a finite sequence of 0s and 1s.
- Examples:
  - 11011100
  - 010101010101
  - 0000
  - $\varepsilon$  (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**.

101010101010101010101010101010101010

101010101010101010101010101010



Compress

1111010

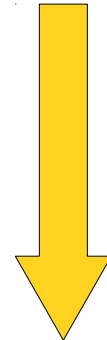


10101010101010101010101010101010



Compress

1111010



Transmit

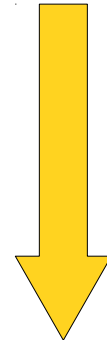
1111010

10101010101010101010101010101010



Compress

1111010



Transmit

1111010



Decompress

10101010101010101010101010101010

# 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:**  $2^n$
- How many bitstrings of length *less than*  $n$  are there?
  - **Answer:**  $2^0 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{n-1} = 2^n - 1$
- 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!

Variations on Induction: ***Starting Later***

# 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  $k \geq 0$ , 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.

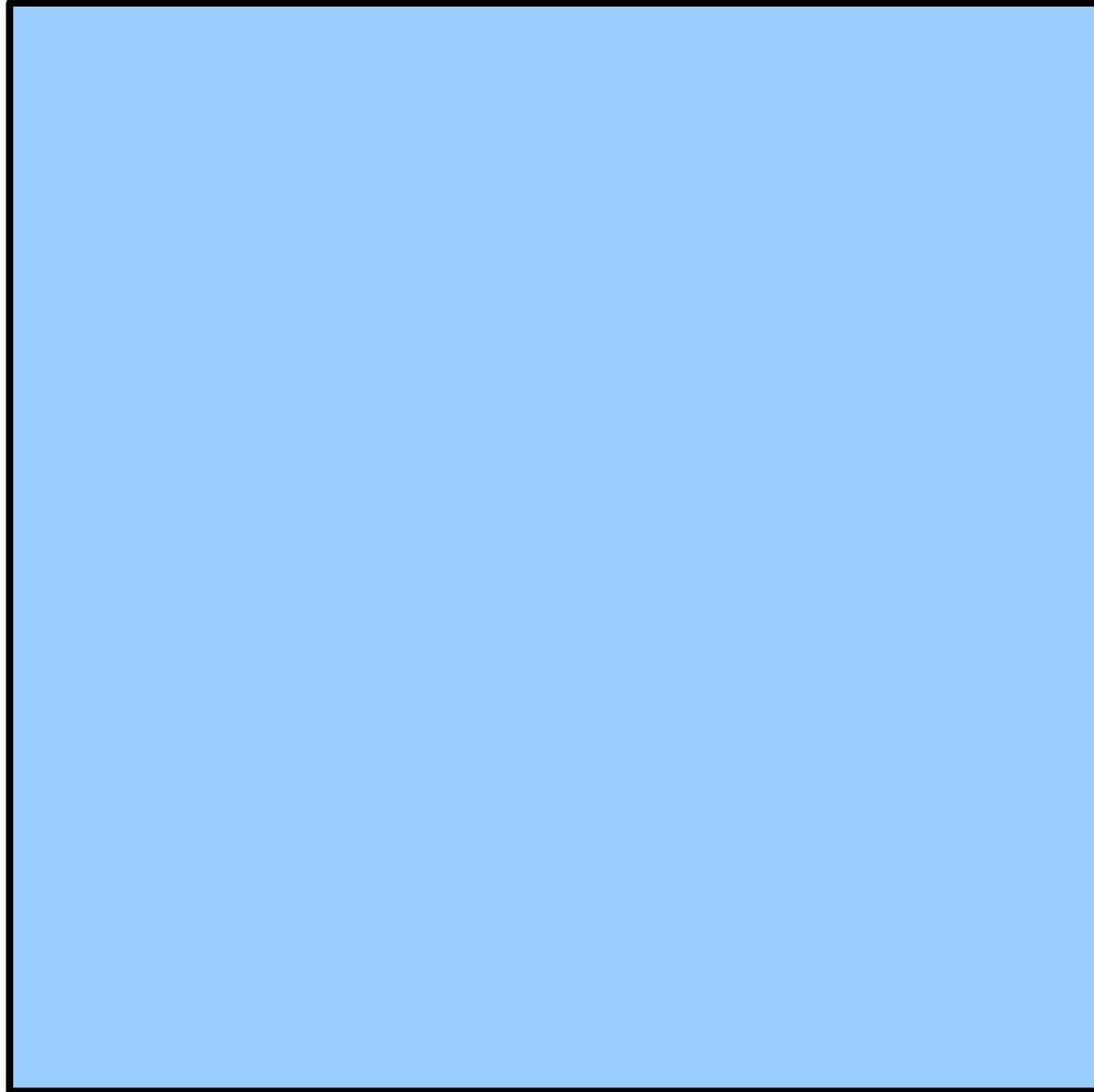


# Induction Starting at $m$

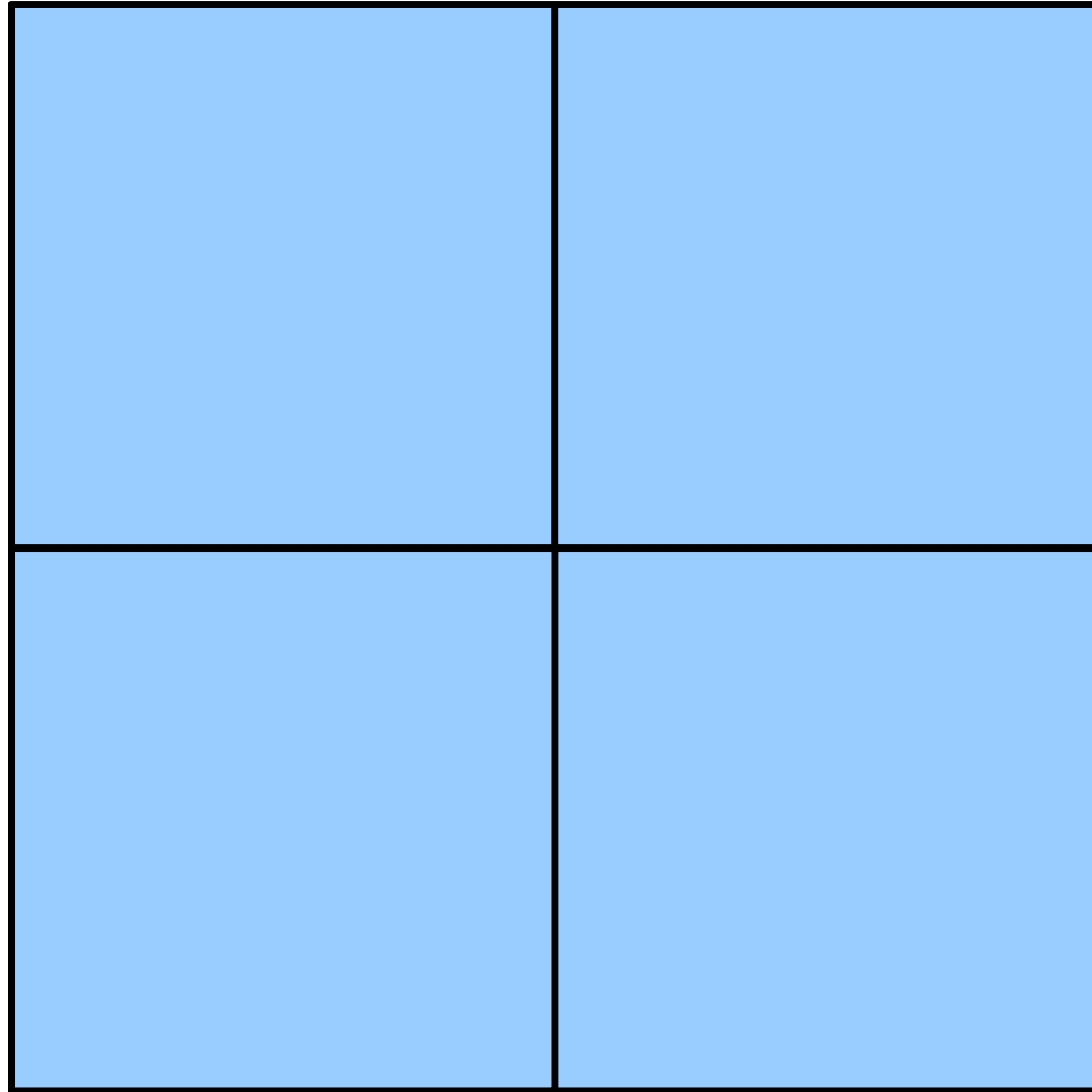
- To prove that  $P(n)$  is true for all natural numbers greater than or equal to  $m$ :
  - Show that  $P(m)$  is true.
  - Show that for any  $k \geq m$ , that if  $P(k)$  is true, then  $P(k+1)$  is true.
  - Conclude  $P(n)$  holds for all natural numbers greater than or equal to  $m$ .

Variations on Induction: ***Bigger Steps***

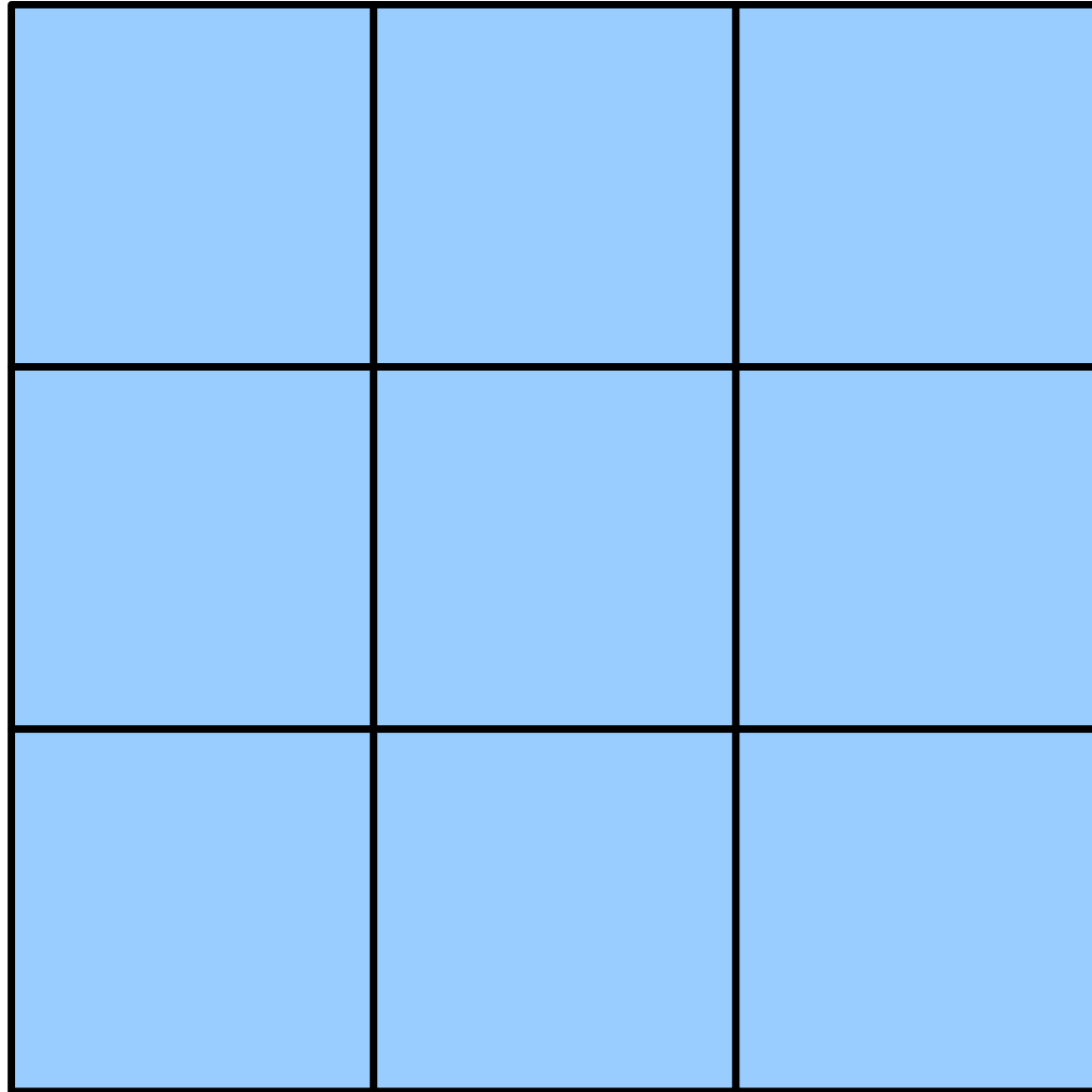
# Subdividing a Square



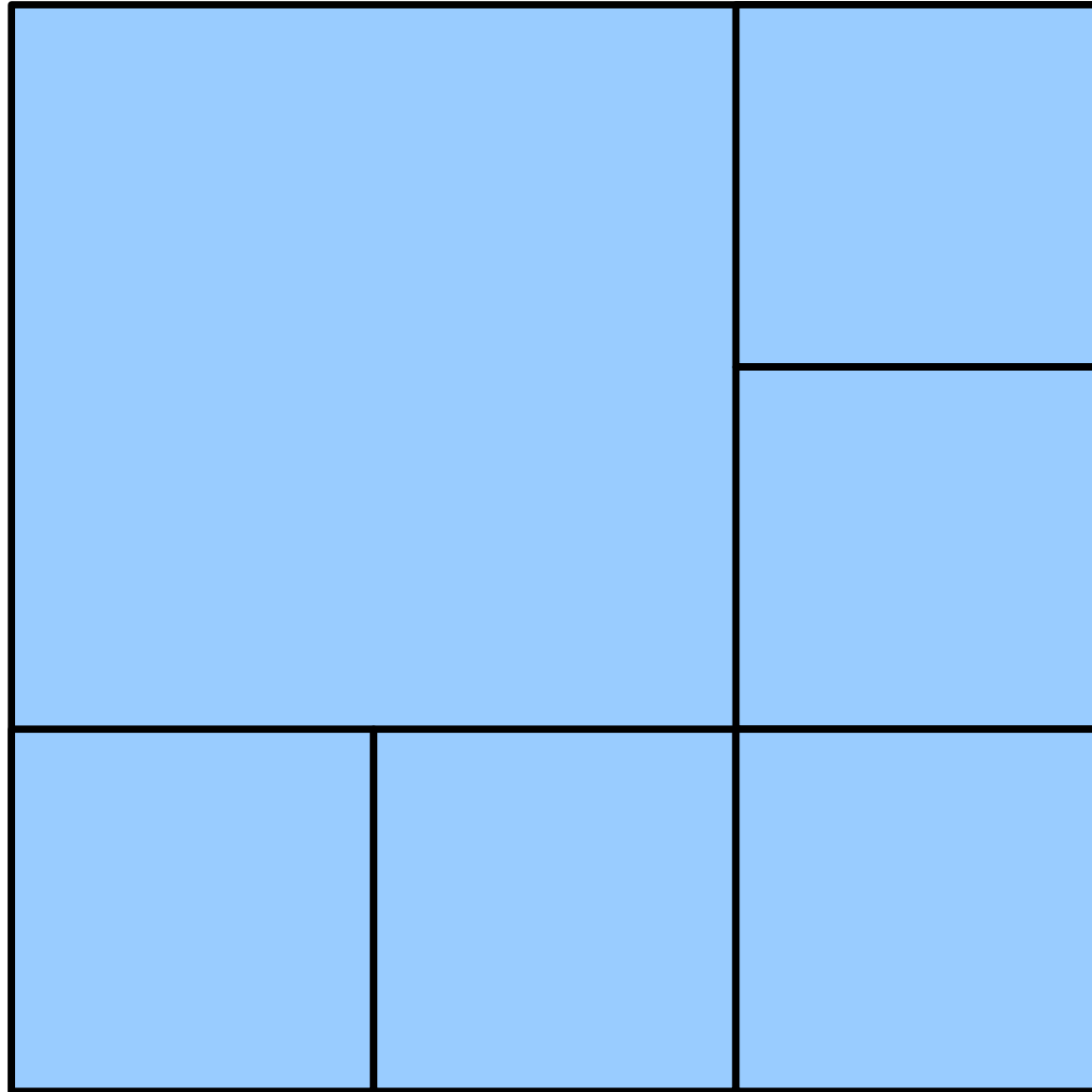
# Subdividing a Square



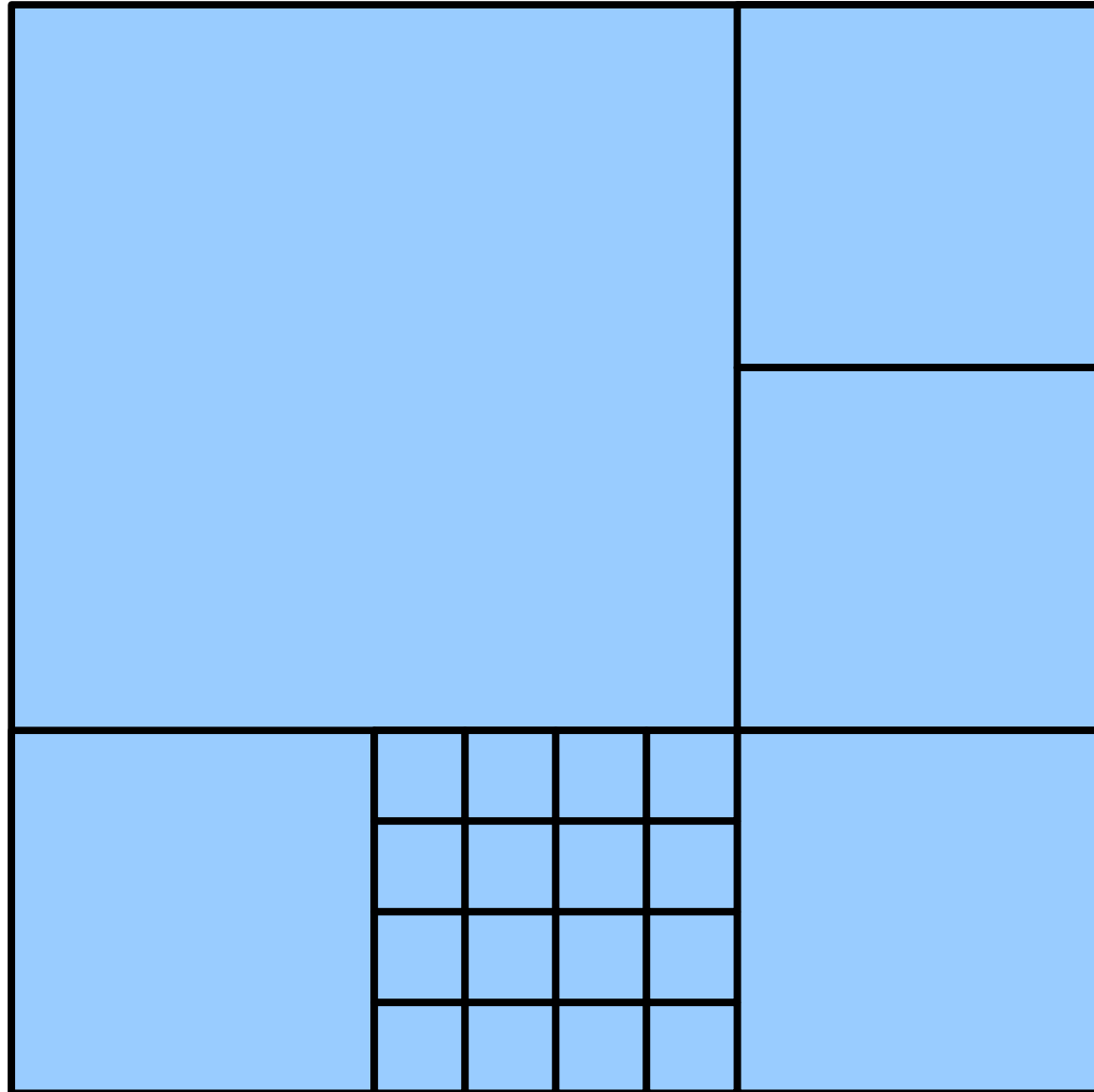
# Subdividing a Square



# Subdividing a Square



# Subdividing a Square

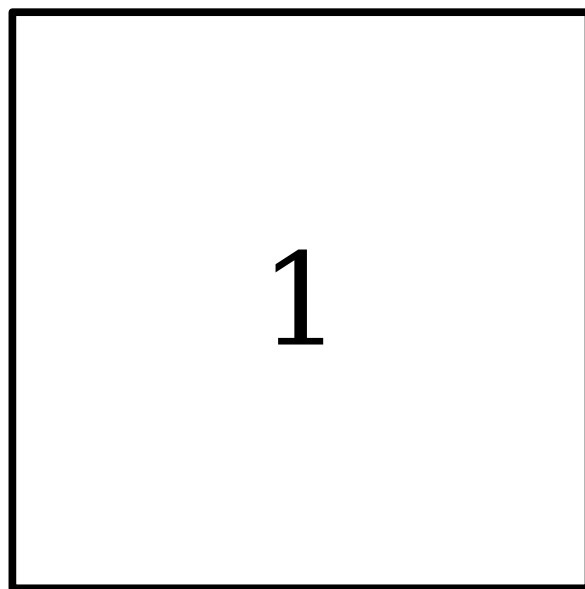


For what values of  $n$  can a square be subdivided into  $n$  squares?

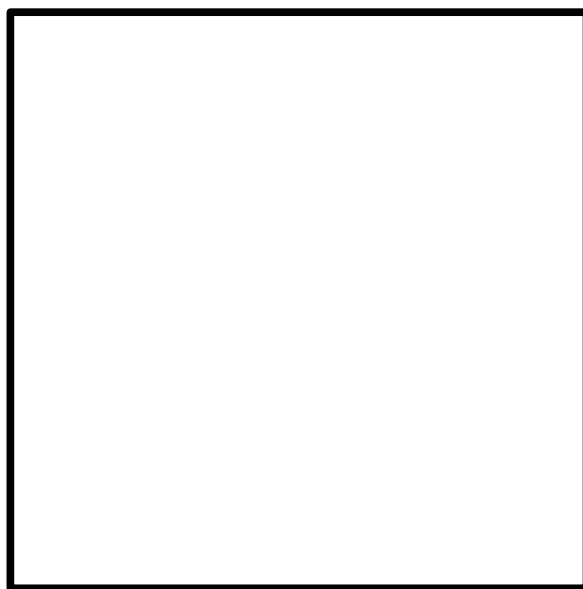


1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

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

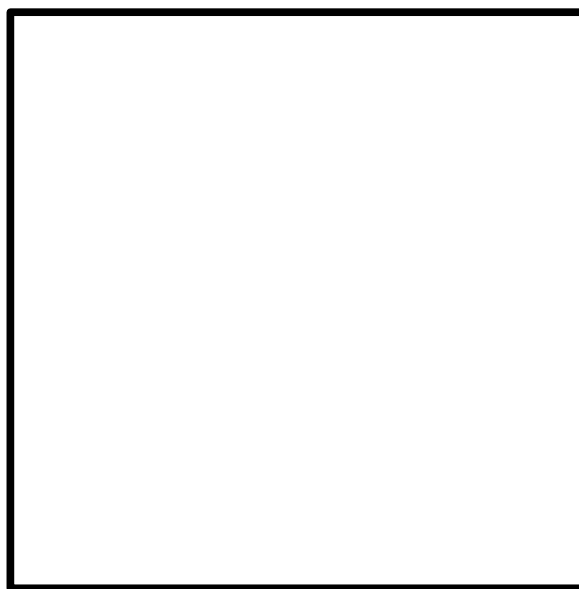


1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12



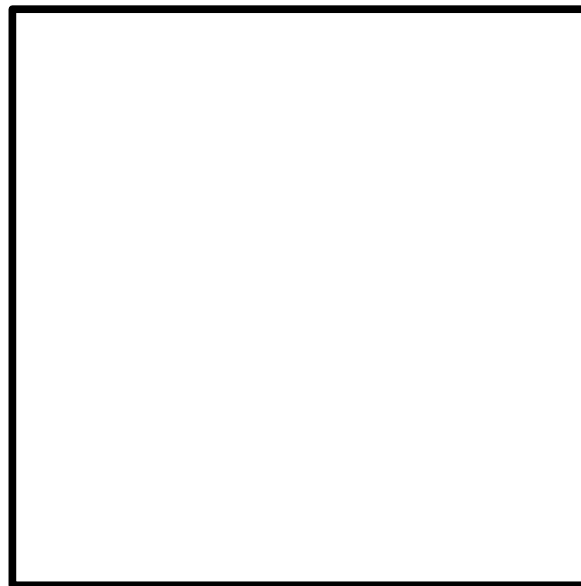
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Each of the original  
corners needs to be  
covered by a corner  
of the new smaller  
squares.



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

Each of the original corners needs to be covered by a corner of the new smaller squares.

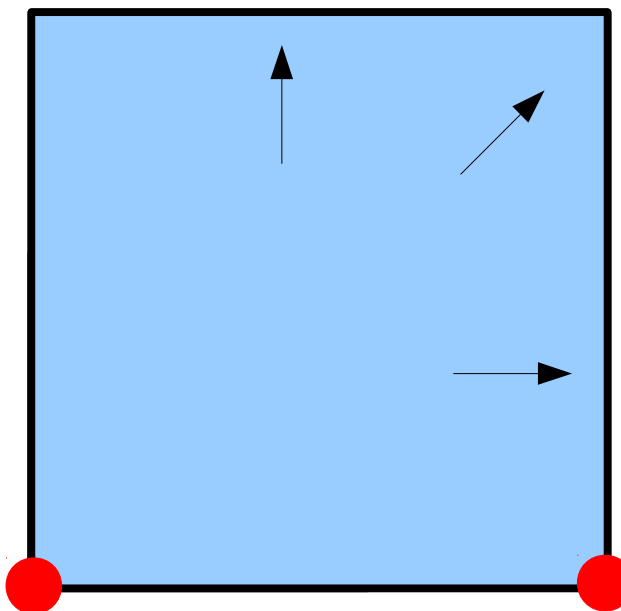


Number of corners  
= 4

Number of squares  
< 4

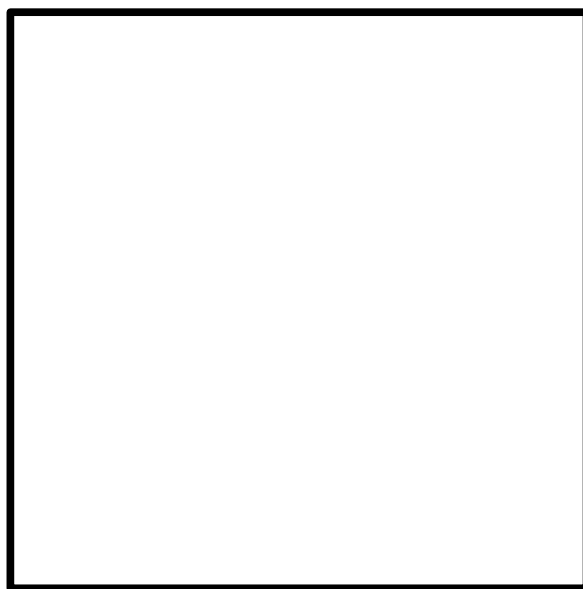
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Each of the original corners needs to be covered by a corner of the new smaller squares.



By the pigeonhole principle, at least one smaller square needs to cover at least *two* of the original square's corners.

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

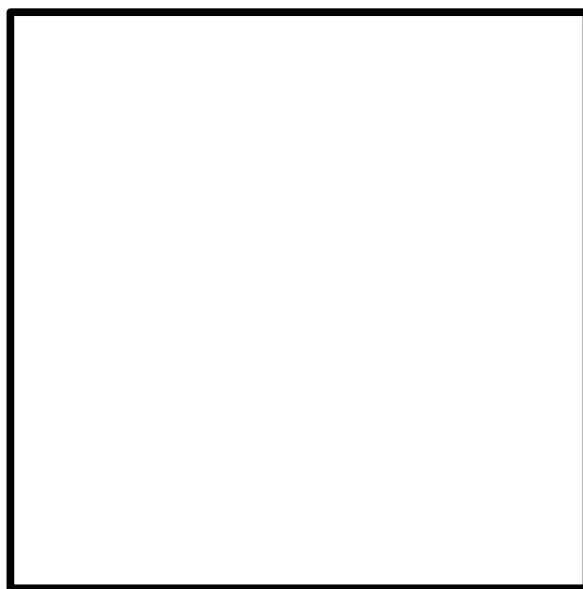


1   ~~2~~   ~~3~~   4   5   6   7   8   9   10   11   12

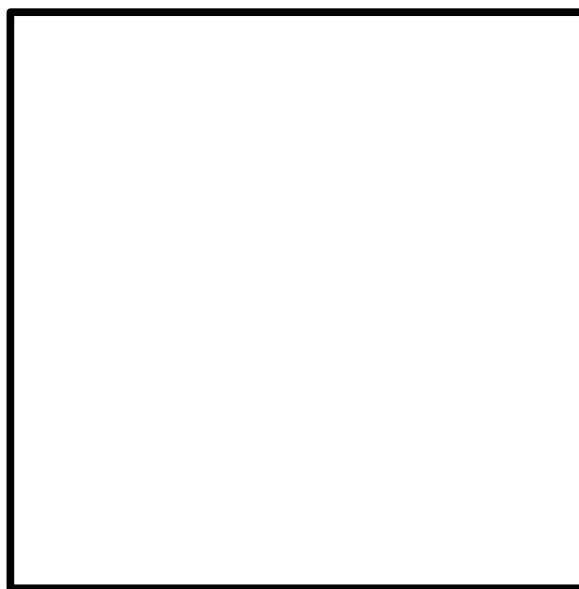
1	2
4	3



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



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

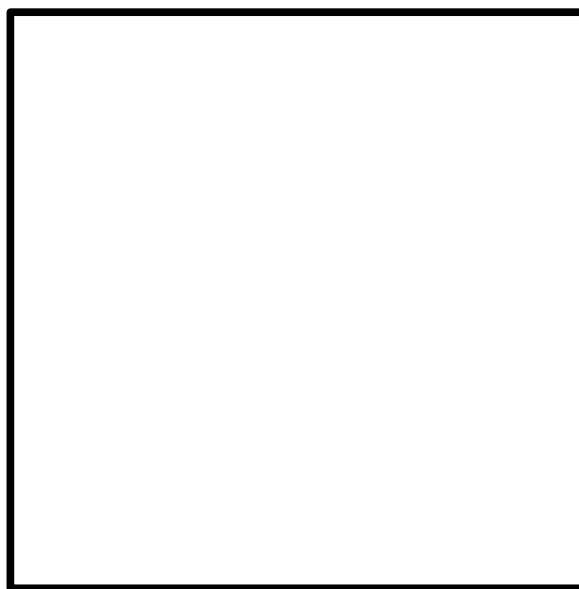


Number of corners  
= 4

Number of squares  
= 5

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

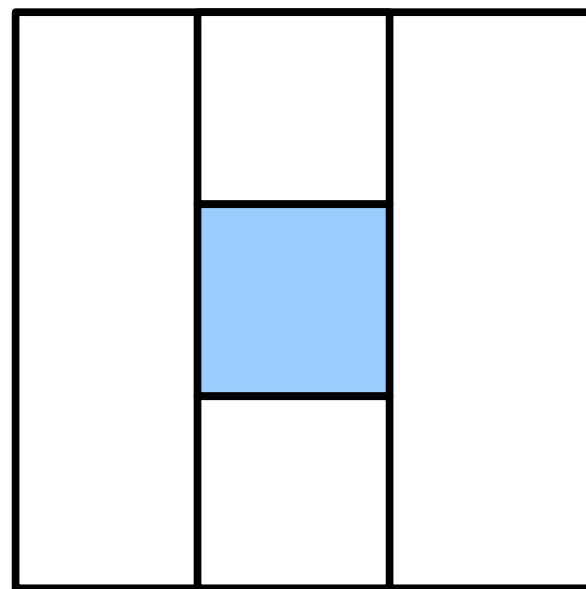
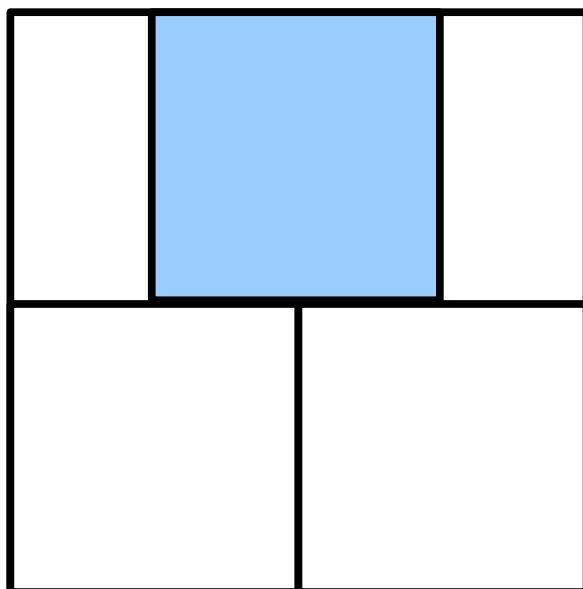
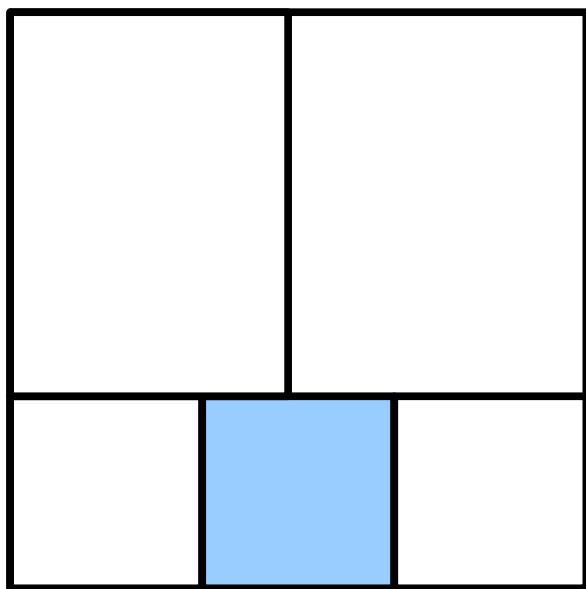
At least one square  
cannot be covering  
*any* of the original  
corners



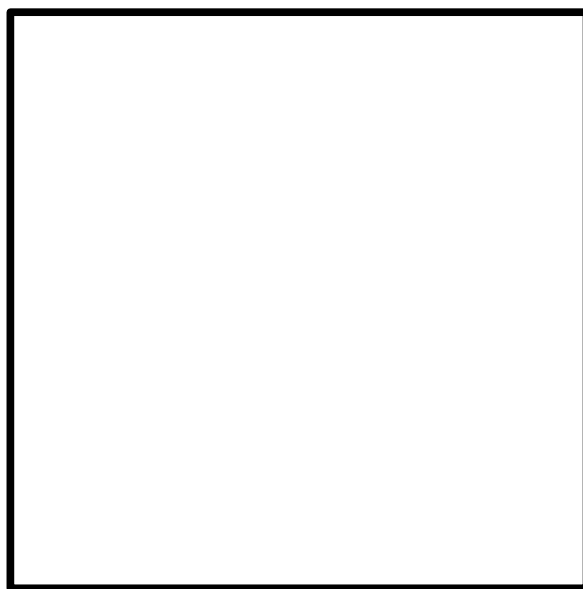
Number of corners  
= 4

Number of squares  
= 5

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



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



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

1		2
		3
6	5	4

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

5	6	1
4	7	
3		2

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

1	8		
2			
3			
4	5	6	7



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

1	2	3
8	9	4
7	6	5

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

1	2	3	
8	9		
7		10	4
		6	5

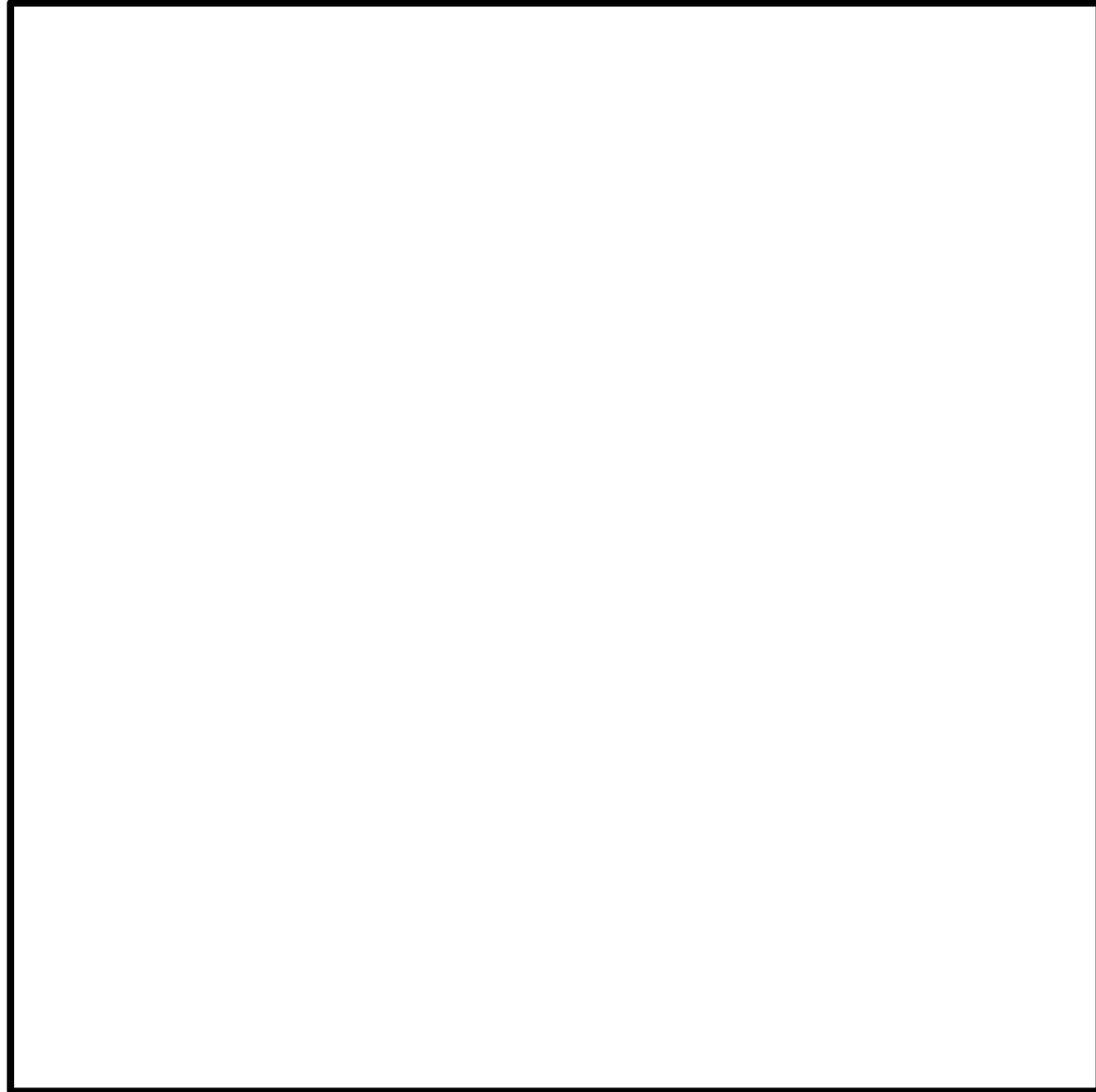
1   ~~2~~   ~~3~~   4   ~~5~~   6   7   8   9   10   11   12

1	10		9
2	11		8
3			
4	5	6	7

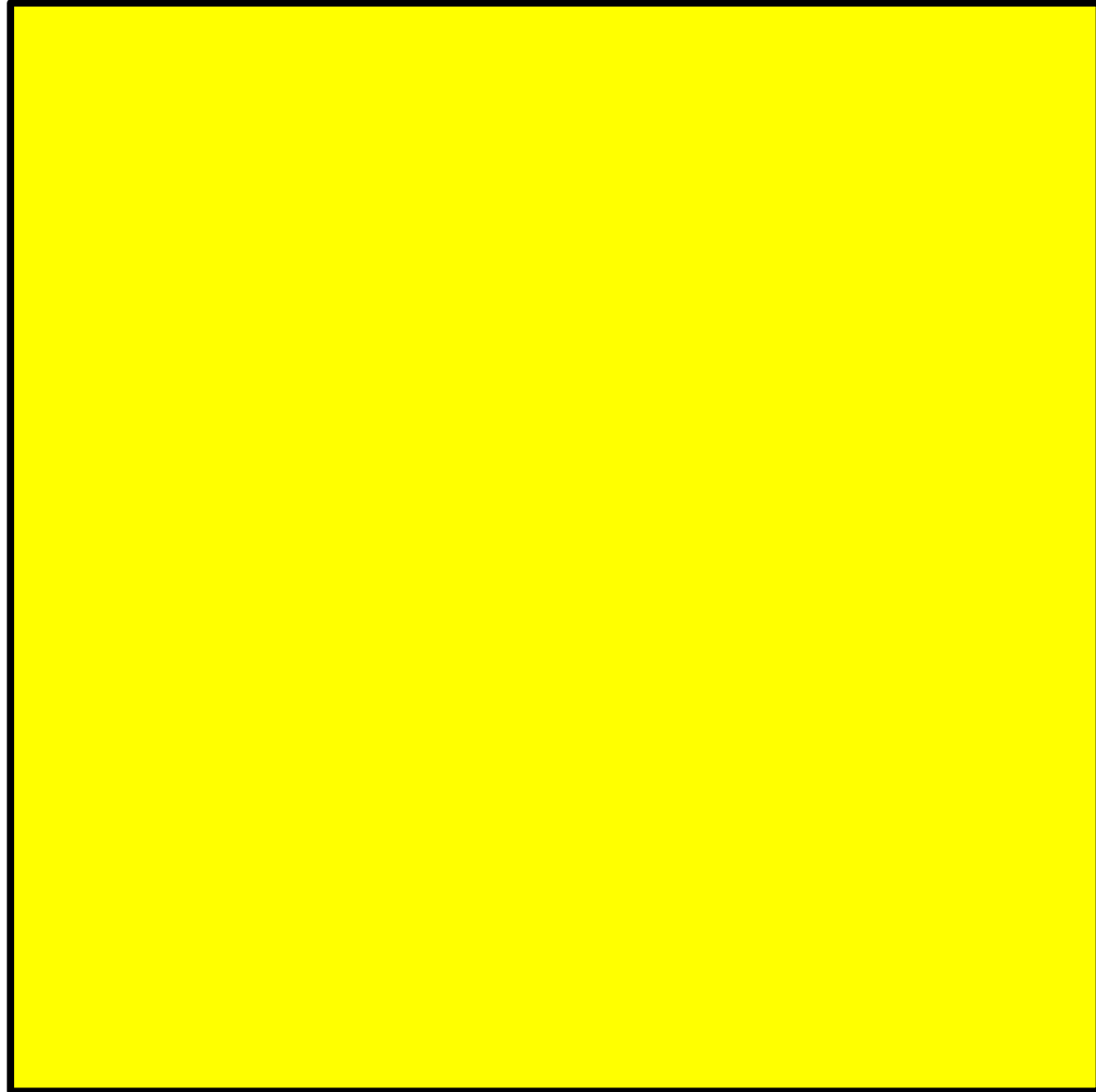
1   ~~2~~   ~~3~~   4   ~~5~~   6   7   8   9   10   11   12

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

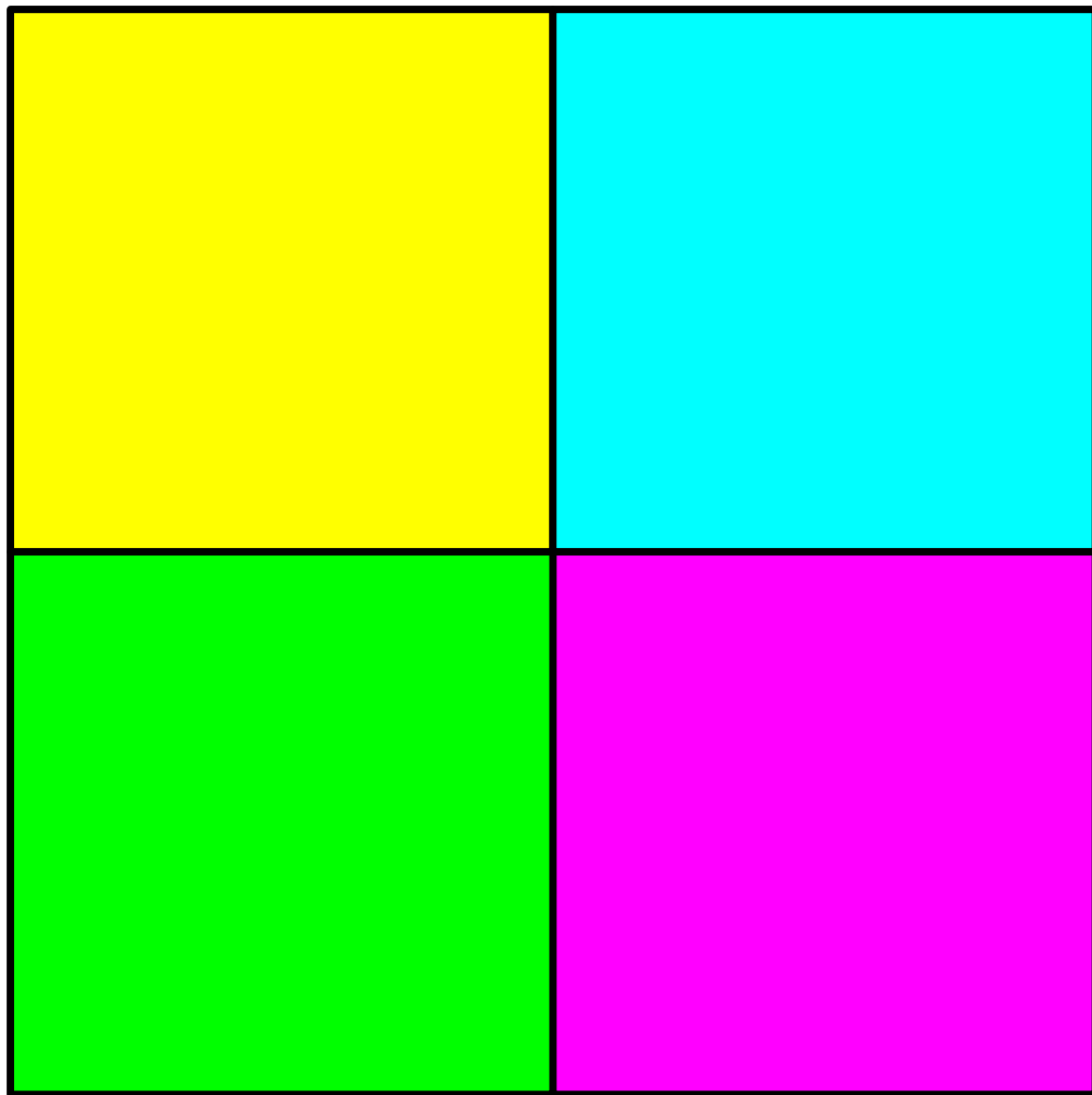
# The Key Insight



# The Key Insight



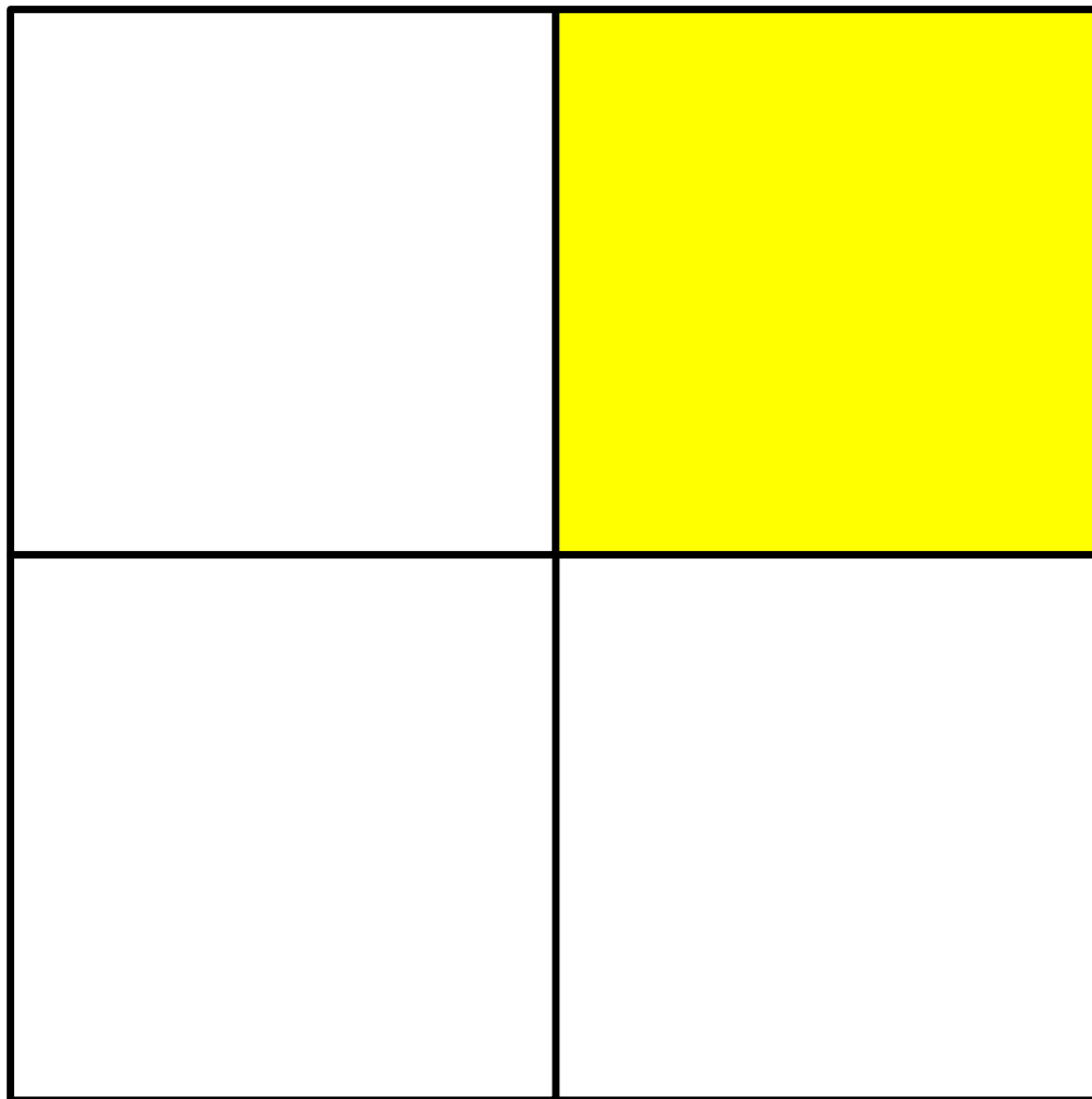
# The Key Insight



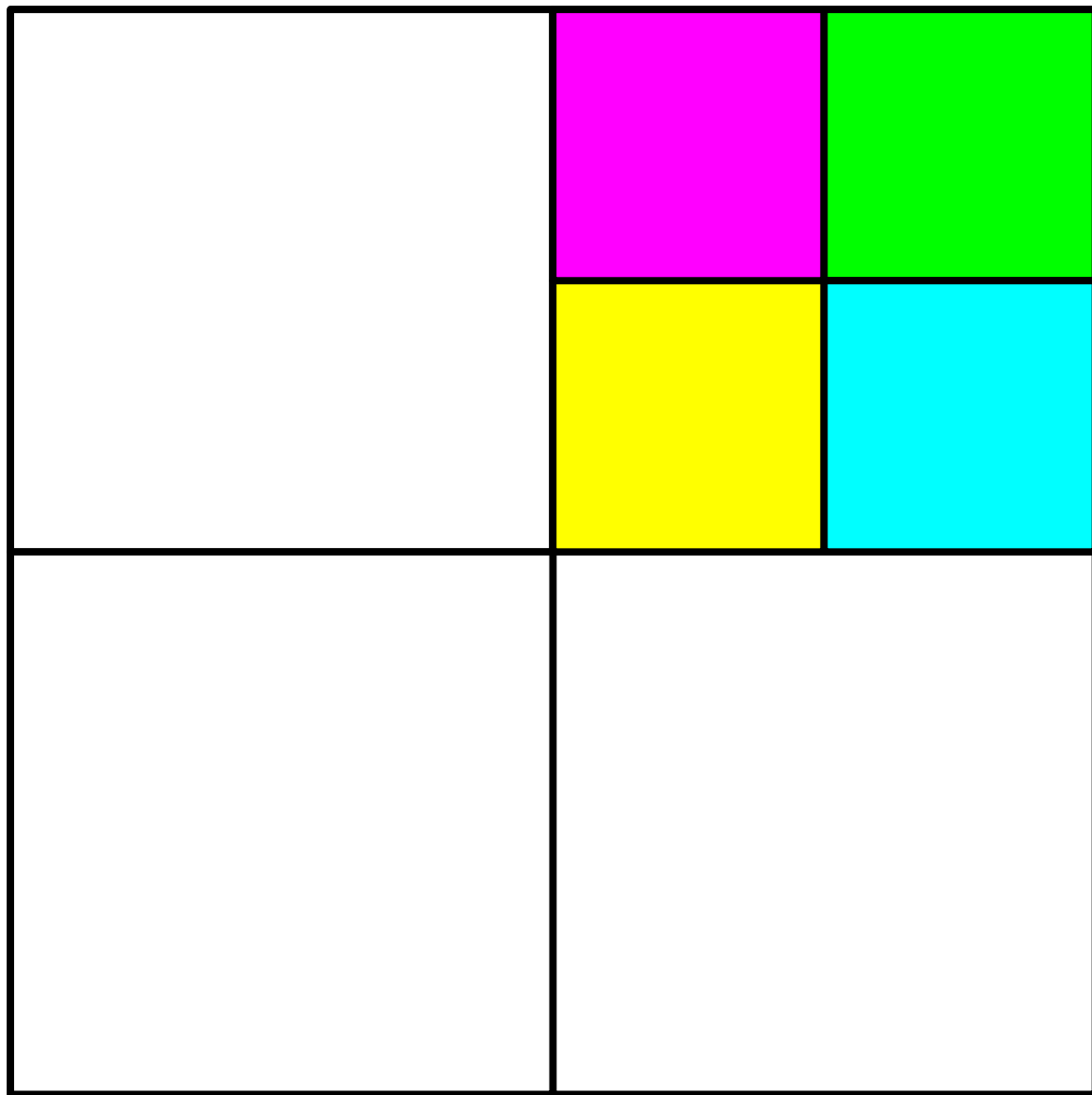
# The Key Insight



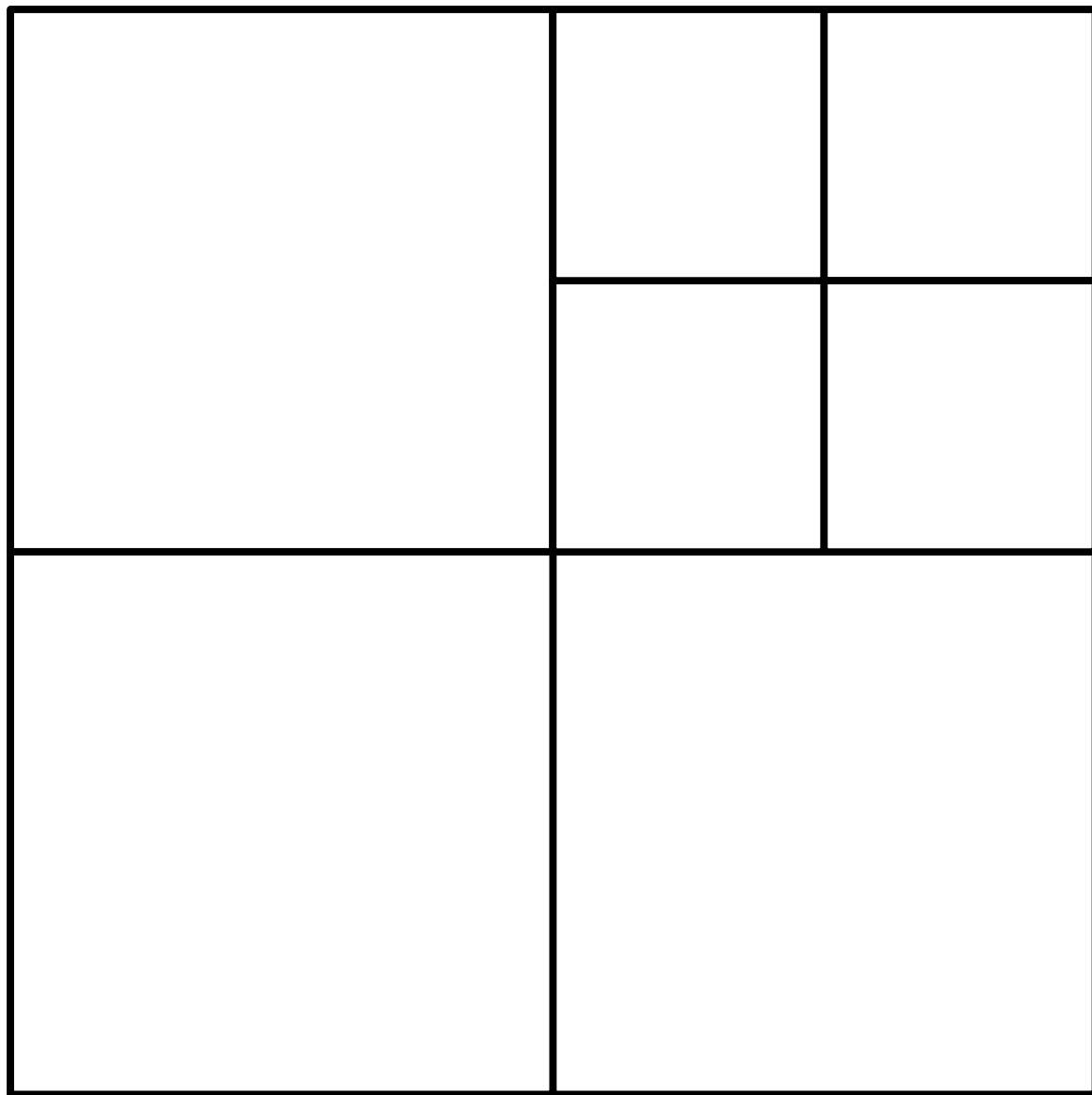

# The Key Insight



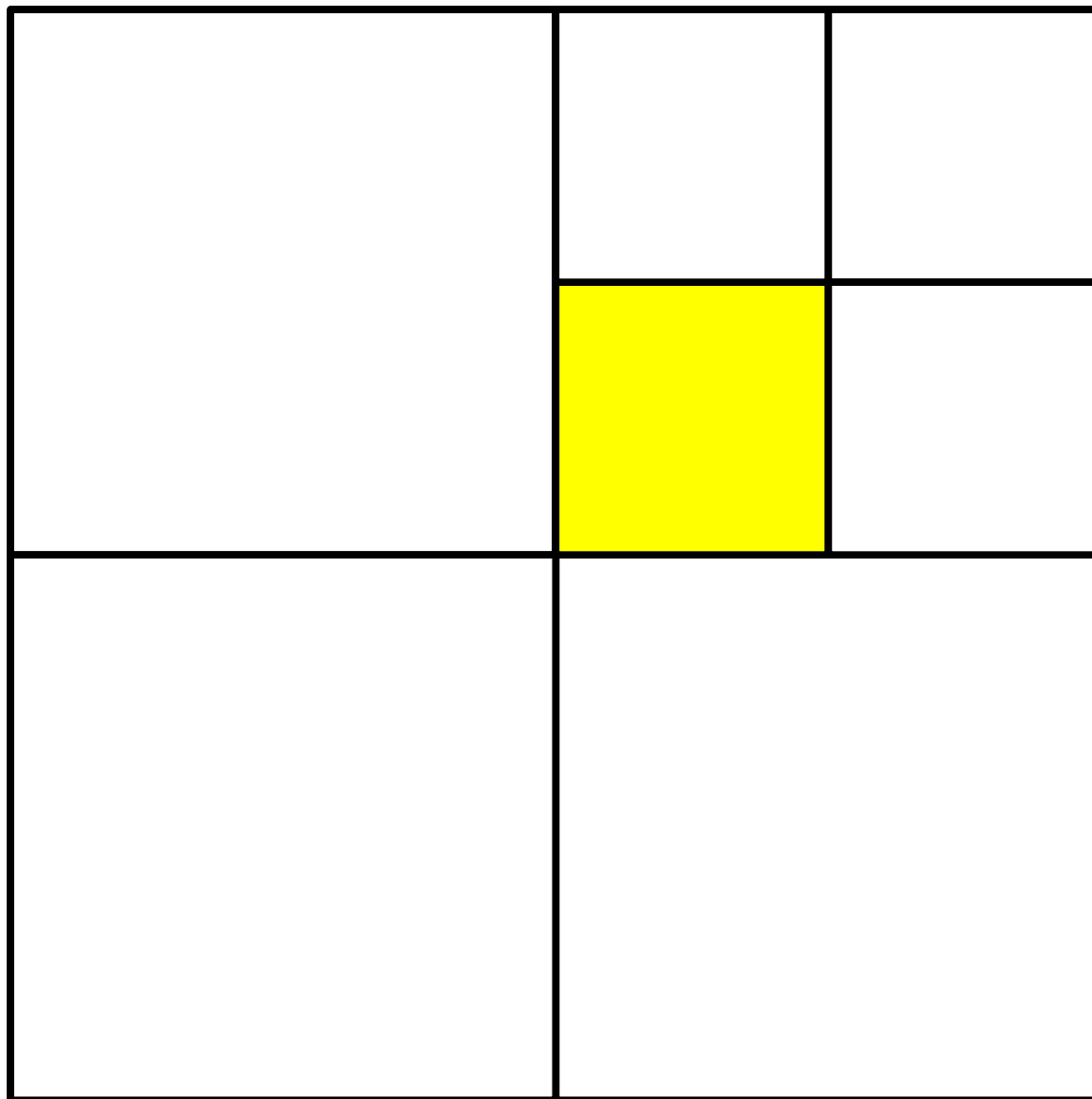
# The Key Insight



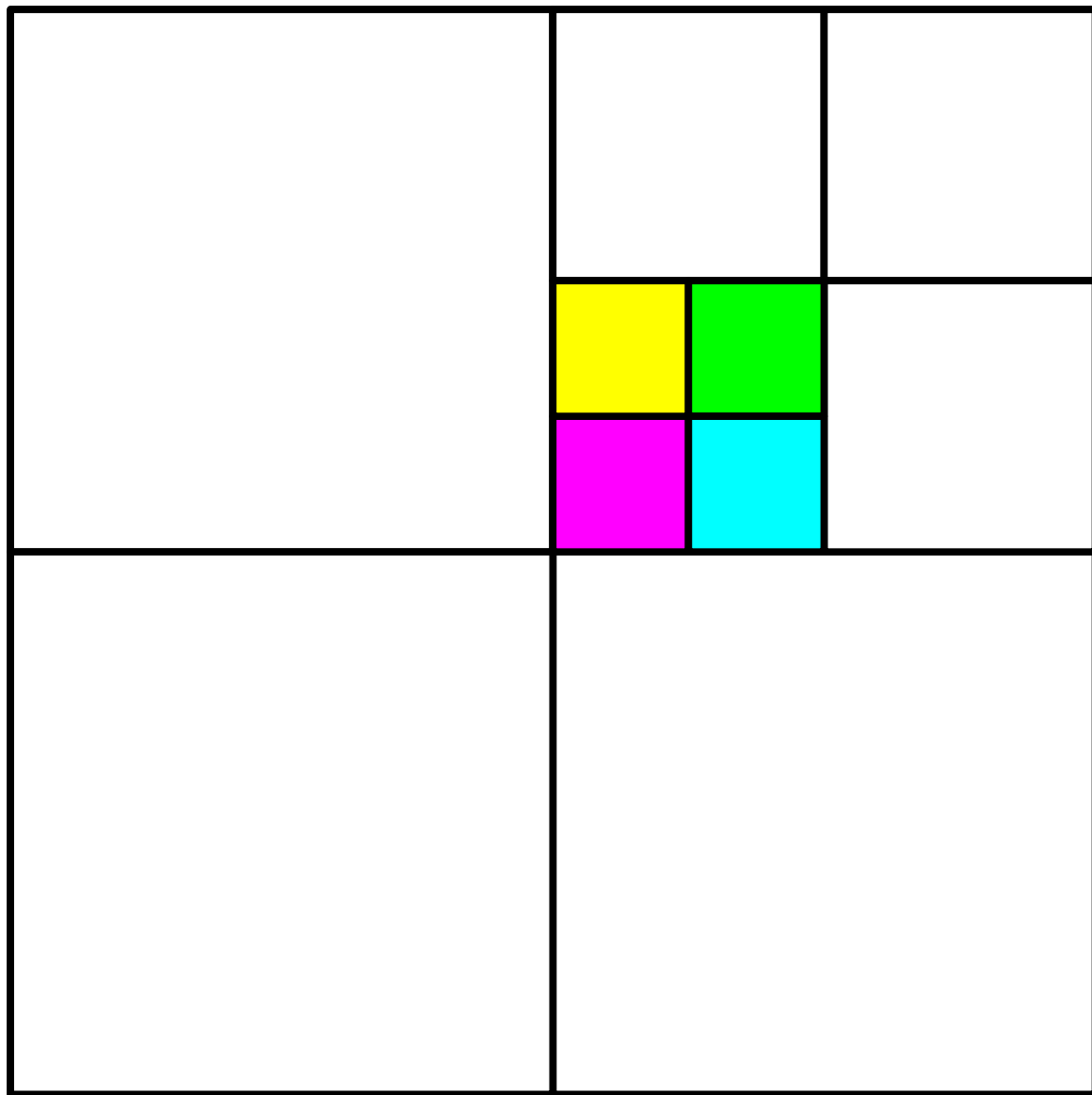
# The Key Insight



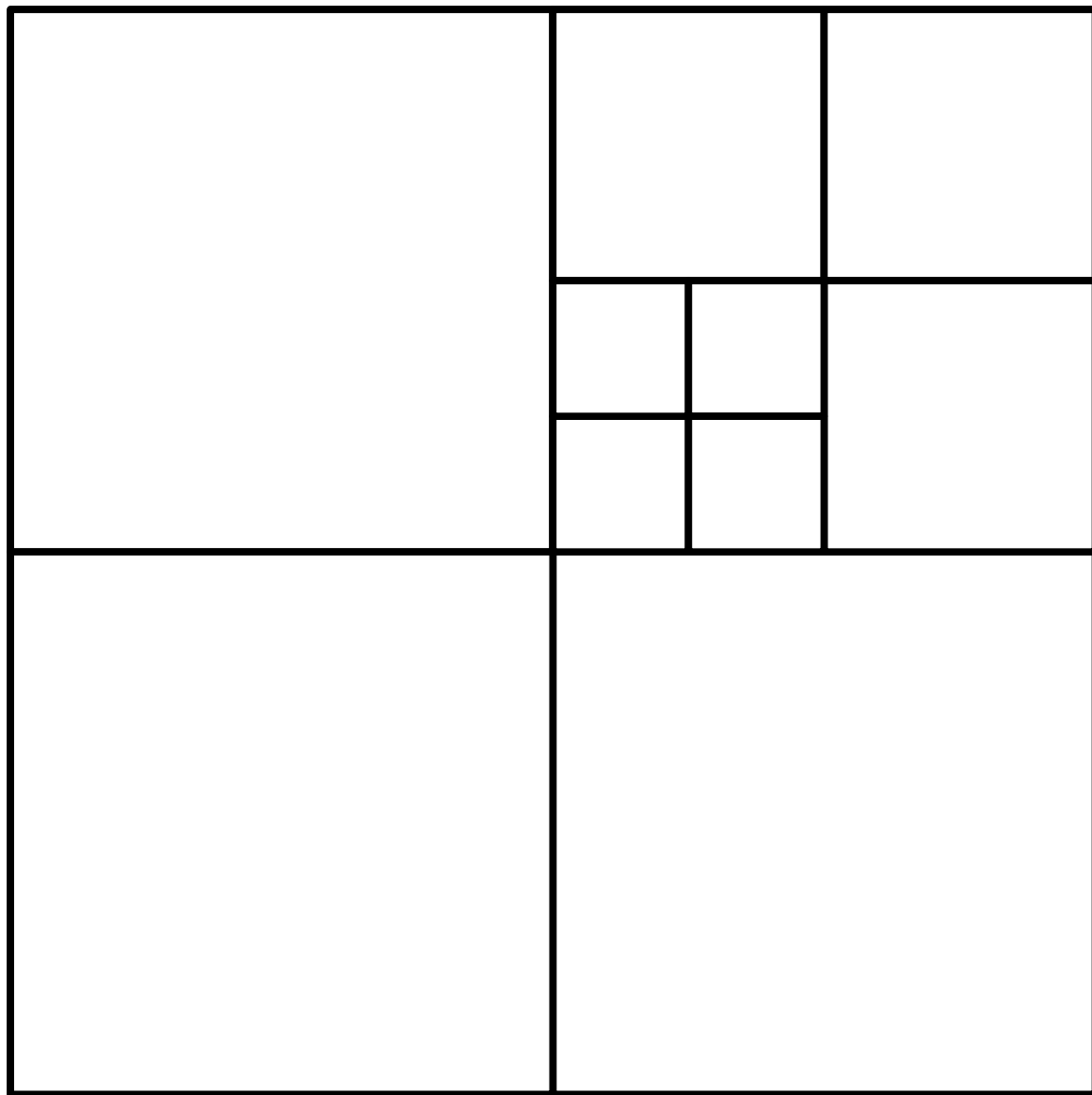
# The Key Insight



# The Key Insight



# The Key Insight



# The Key Insight

- 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  $n \geq 6$ :
  - 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.

***Theorem:*** For any  $n \geq 6$ , it is possible to subdivide a square into  $n$  smaller squares.



***Theorem:*** For any  $n \geq 6$ , it is possible to subdivide a square into  $n$  smaller squares.

***Proof:***

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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.”

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , it is possible to subdivide a square into  $n$  smaller squares.

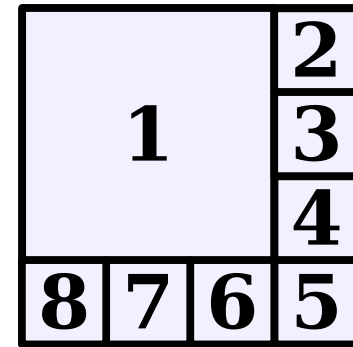
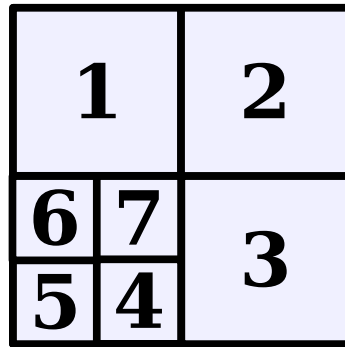
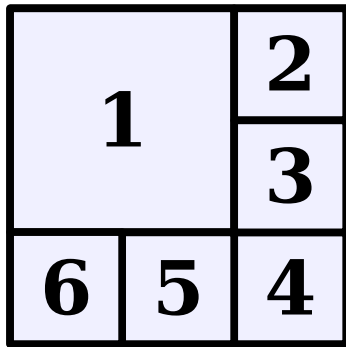
**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “a square can be subdivided into  $n$  smaller squares.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

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.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

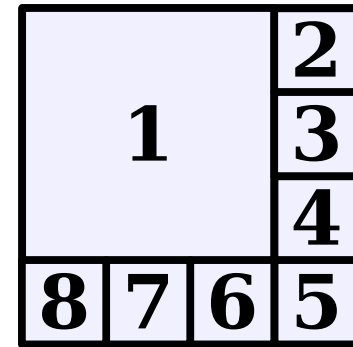
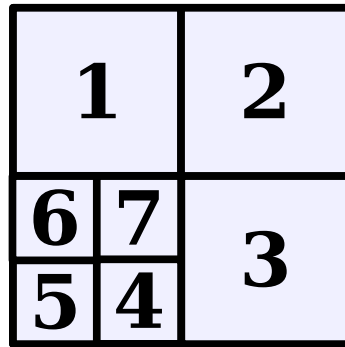
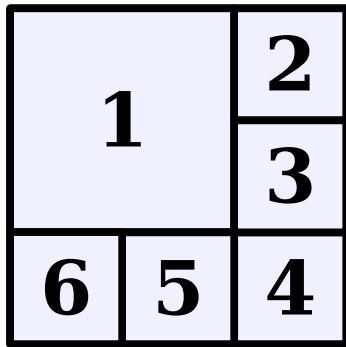
As our base cases, we prove  $P(6)$ ,  $P(7)$ , and  $P(8)$ , that a square can be subdivided into 6, 7, and 8 squares. This is shown here:



**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

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. This is shown here:

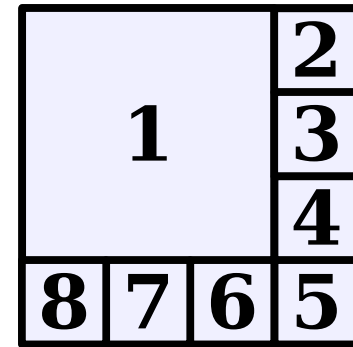
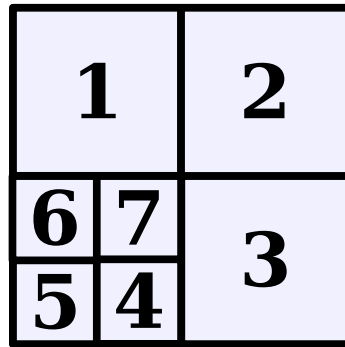
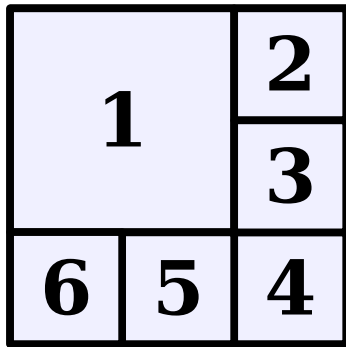


For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary  $k \geq 6$  that  $P(k)$  is true and that a square can be subdivided into  $k$  squares.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

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. This is shown here:

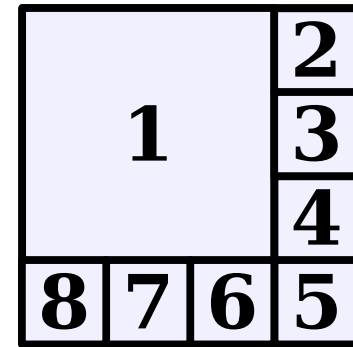
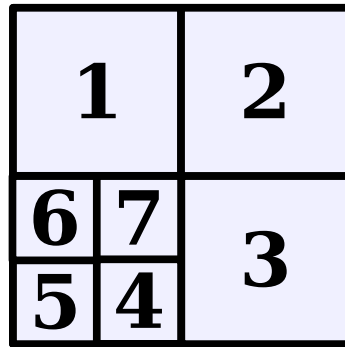
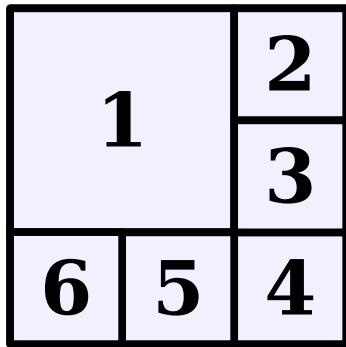


For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary  $k \geq 6$  that  $P(k)$  is true and that a square can be subdivided into  $k$  squares. We prove  $P(k+3)$ , that a square can be subdivided into  $k+3$  squares.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

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. This is shown here:



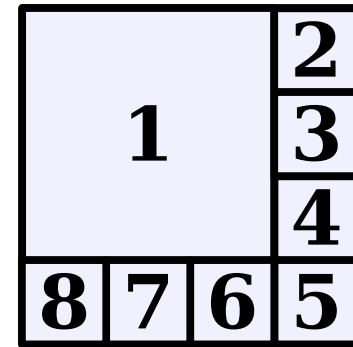
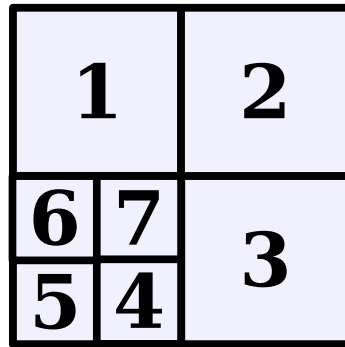
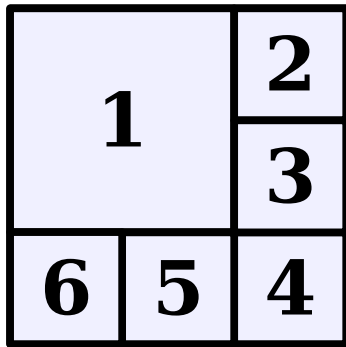
For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary  $k \geq 6$  that  $P(k)$  is true and that a square can be subdivided into  $k$  squares. We prove  $P(k+3)$ , that a square can be subdivided into  $k+3$  squares. To see this, start by obtaining (via the inductive hypothesis) a subdivision of a square into  $k$  squares.



**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

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. This is shown here:

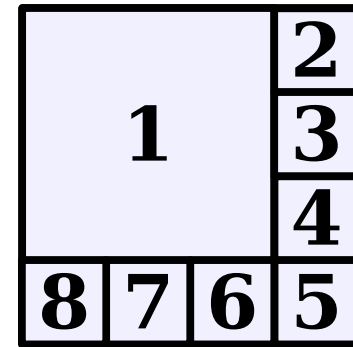
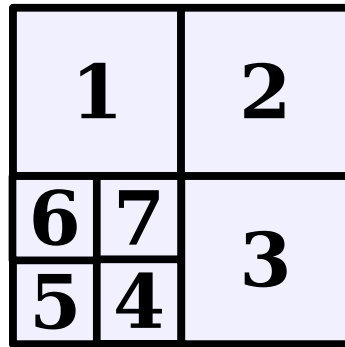
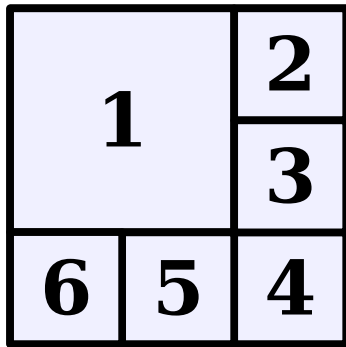


For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary  $k \geq 6$  that  $P(k)$  is true and that a square can be subdivided into  $k$  squares. We prove  $P(k+3)$ , that a square can be subdivided into  $k+3$  squares. To see this, start by obtaining (via the inductive hypothesis) a subdivision of a square into  $k$  squares. Then, choose any of the squares and split it into four equal squares.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

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. This is shown here:

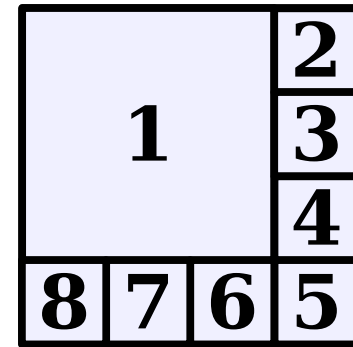
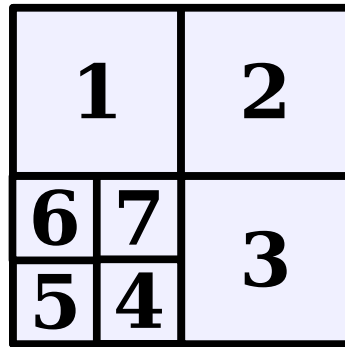
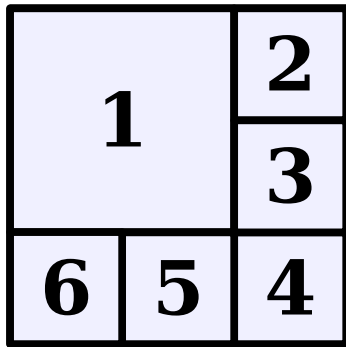


For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary  $k \geq 6$  that  $P(k)$  is true and that a square can be subdivided into  $k$  squares. We prove  $P(k+3)$ , that a square can be subdivided into  $k+3$  squares. To see this, start by obtaining (via the inductive hypothesis) a subdivision of a square into  $k$  squares. Then, choose any of the squares and split it into four equal squares. This removes one of the  $k$  squares and adds four more, so there will be a net total of  $k+3$  squares.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

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. This is shown here:

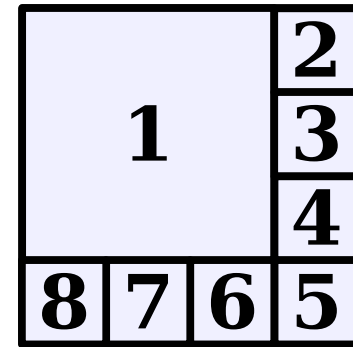
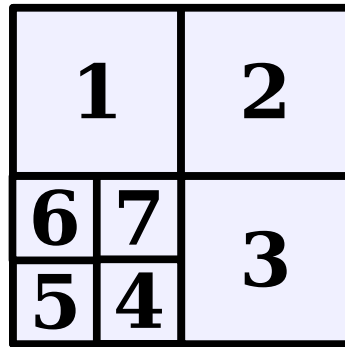
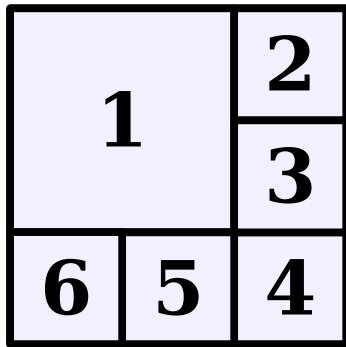


For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary  $k \geq 6$  that  $P(k)$  is true and that a square can be subdivided into  $k$  squares. We prove  $P(k+3)$ , that a square can be subdivided into  $k+3$  squares. To see this, start by obtaining (via the inductive hypothesis) a subdivision of a square into  $k$  squares. Then, choose any of the squares and split it into four equal squares. This removes one of the  $k$  squares and adds four more, so there will be a net total of  $k+3$  squares. Thus  $P(k+3)$  holds, completing the induction.

**Theorem:** For any  $n \geq 6$ , 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  $n \geq 6$ , from which the theorem follows.

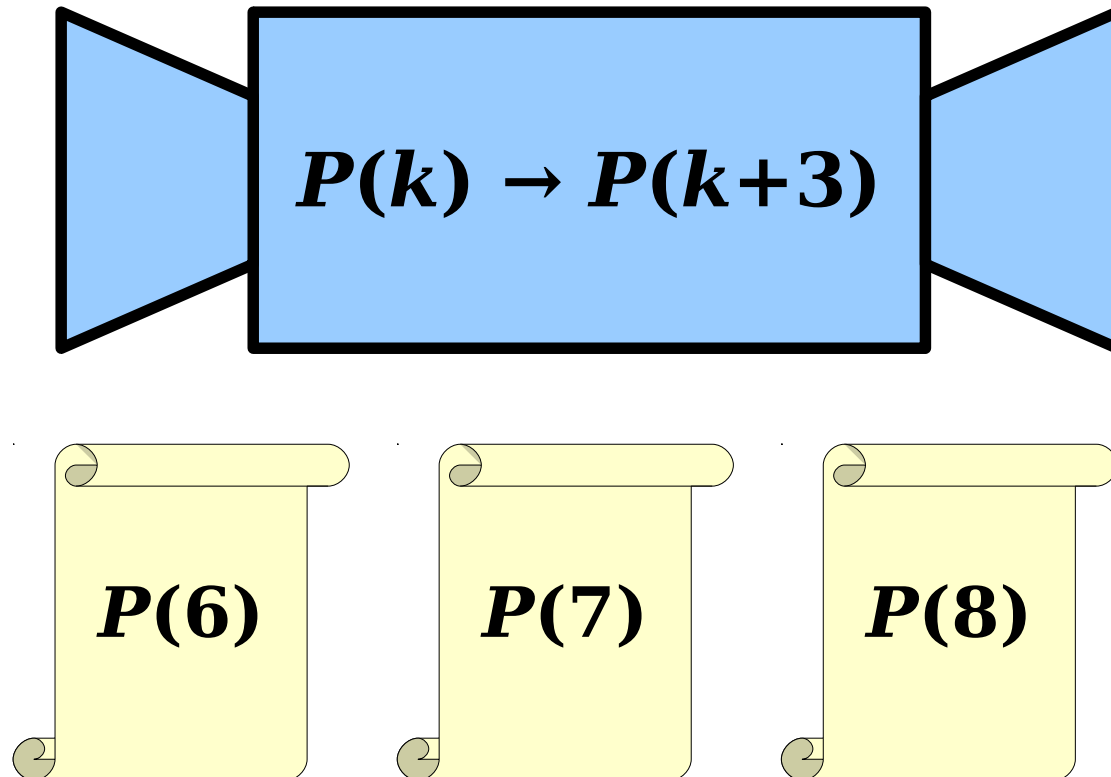
As our base cases, we prove  $P(6)$ ,  $P(7)$ , and  $P(8)$ , that a square can be subdivided into 6, 7, and 8 squares. This is shown here:



For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary  $k \geq 6$  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. To see this, start by obtaining (via the inductive hypothesis) a subdivision of a square into  $k$  squares. Then, choose any of the squares and split it into four equal squares. This removes one of the  $k$  squares and adds four more, so there will be a net total of  $k+3$  squares. Thus  $P(k+3)$  holds, completing the induction. ■

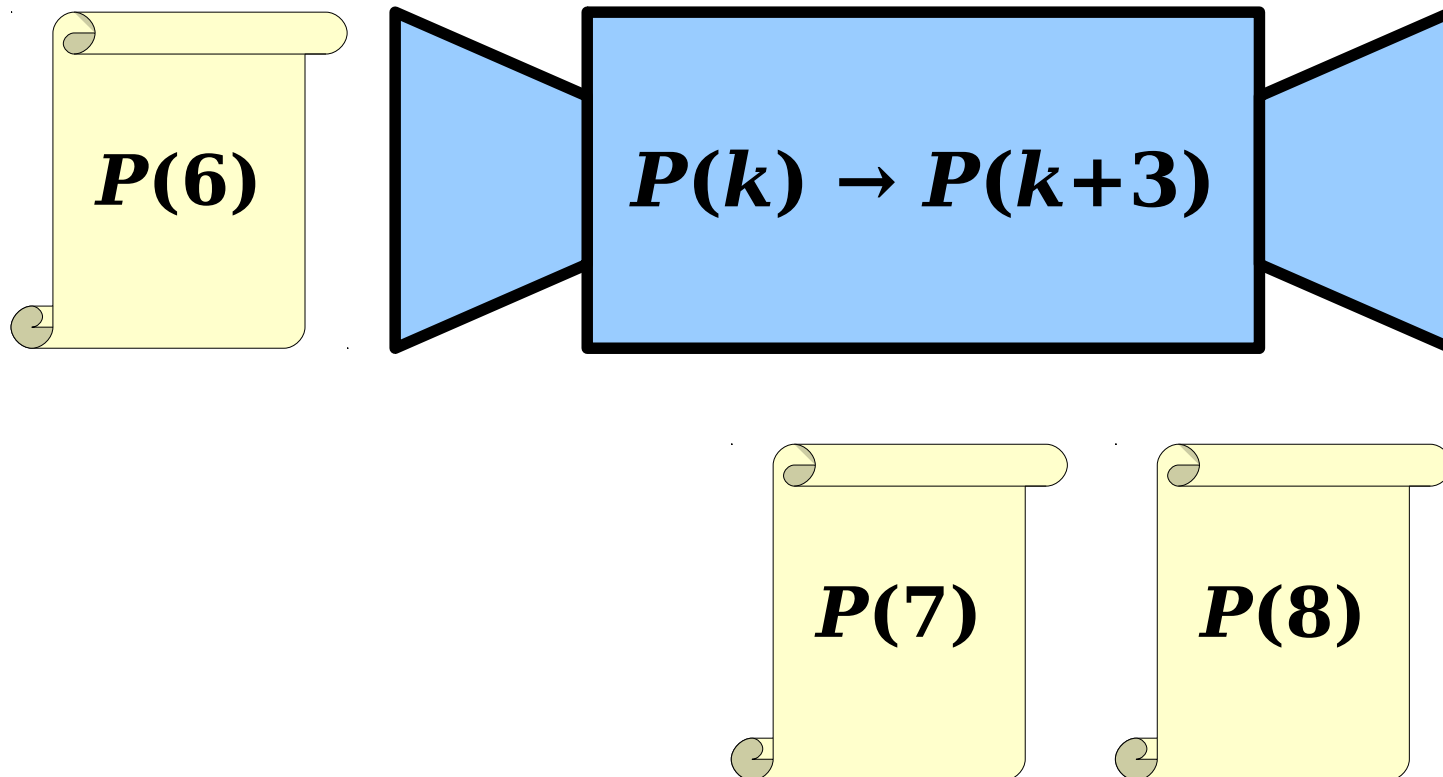
# Why This Works

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



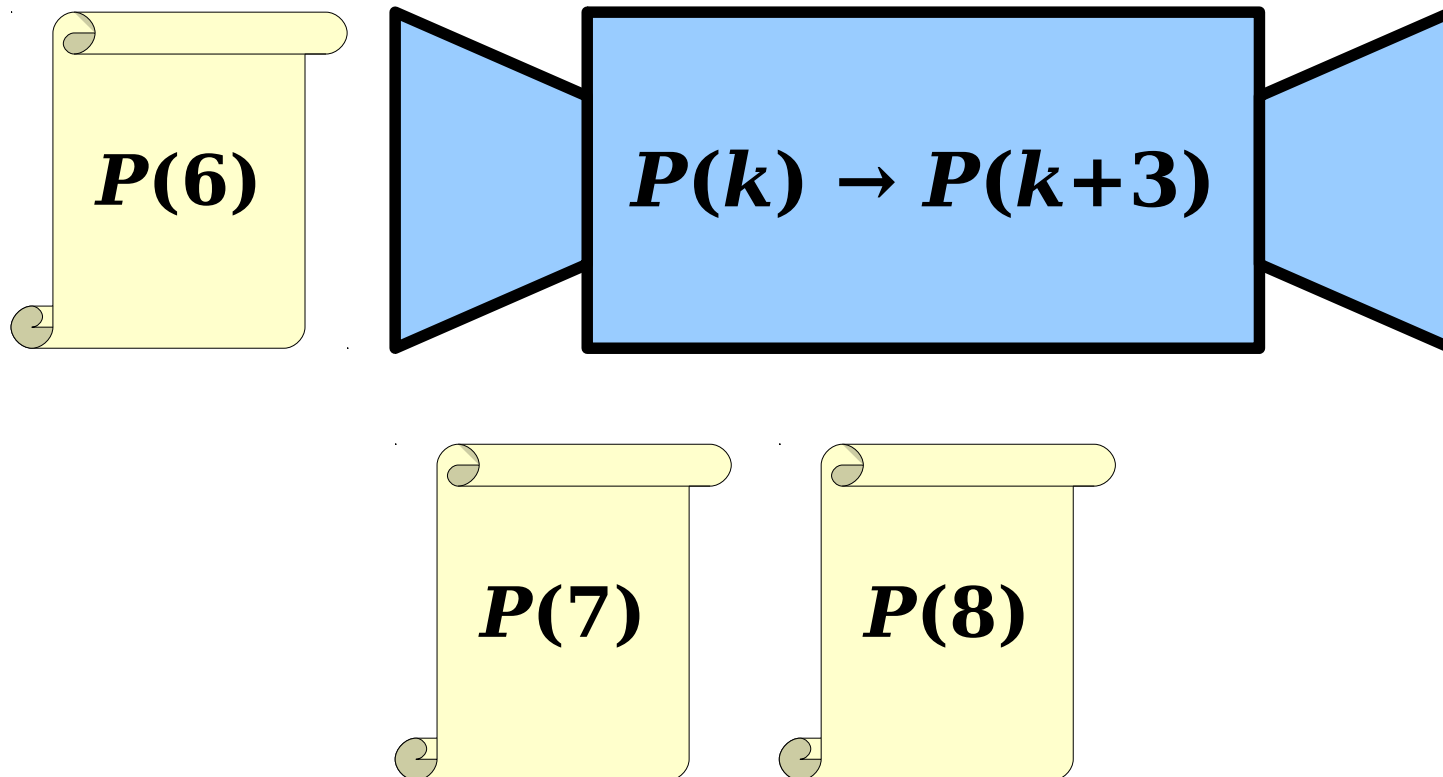
# Why This Works

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



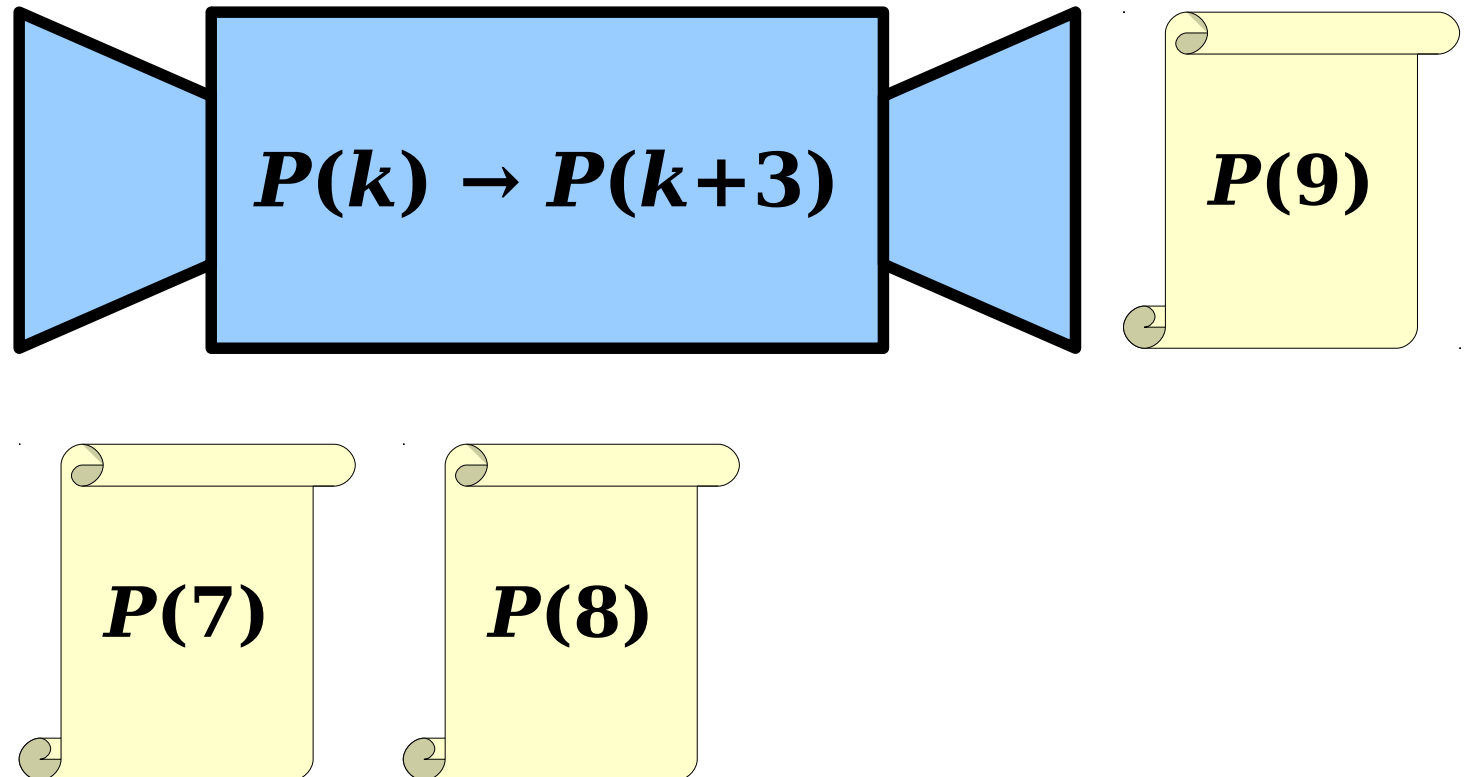
# Why This Works

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



# Why This Works

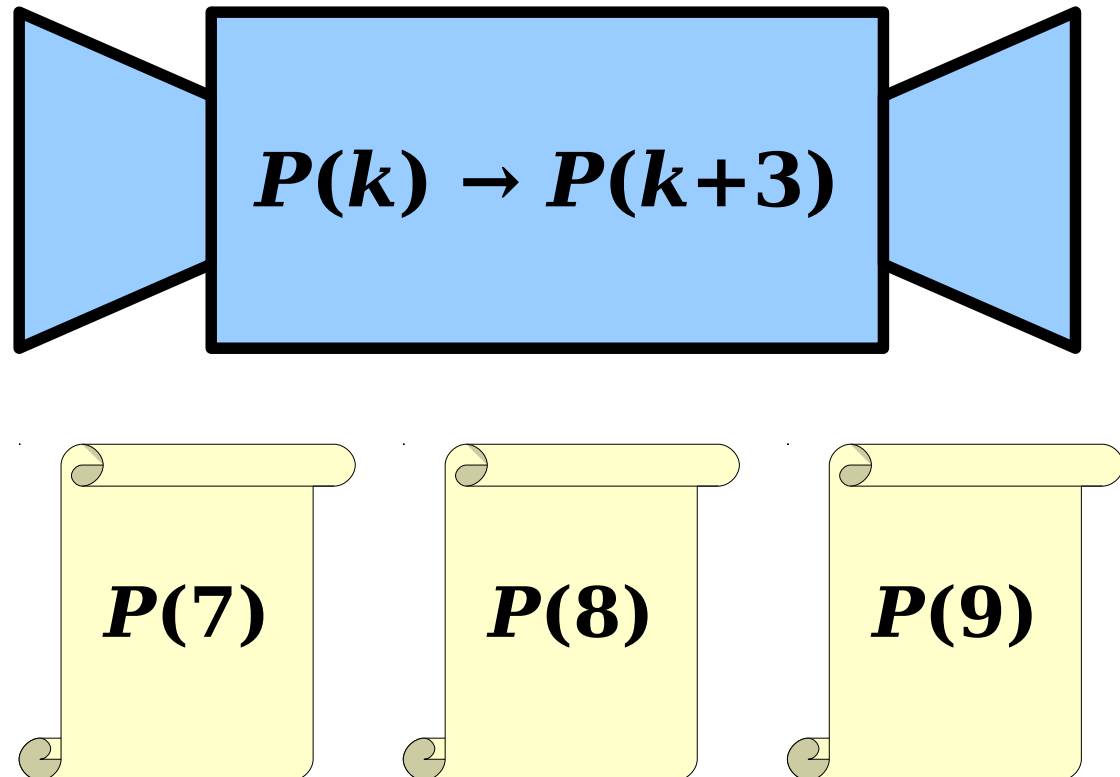
- This induction has three consecutive base cases and takes steps of size three.
- Thinking back to our “induction machine” analogy:





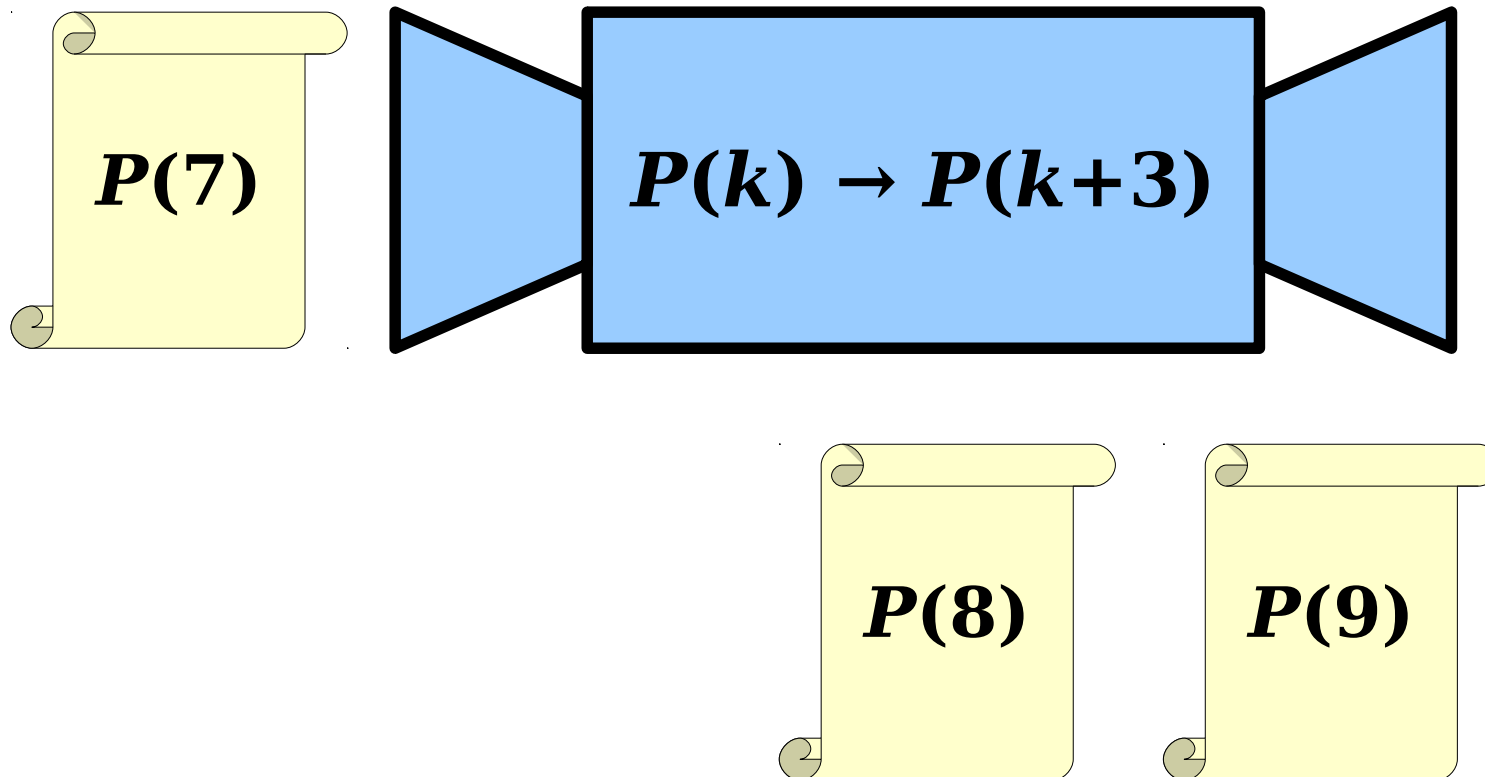
# Why This Works

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



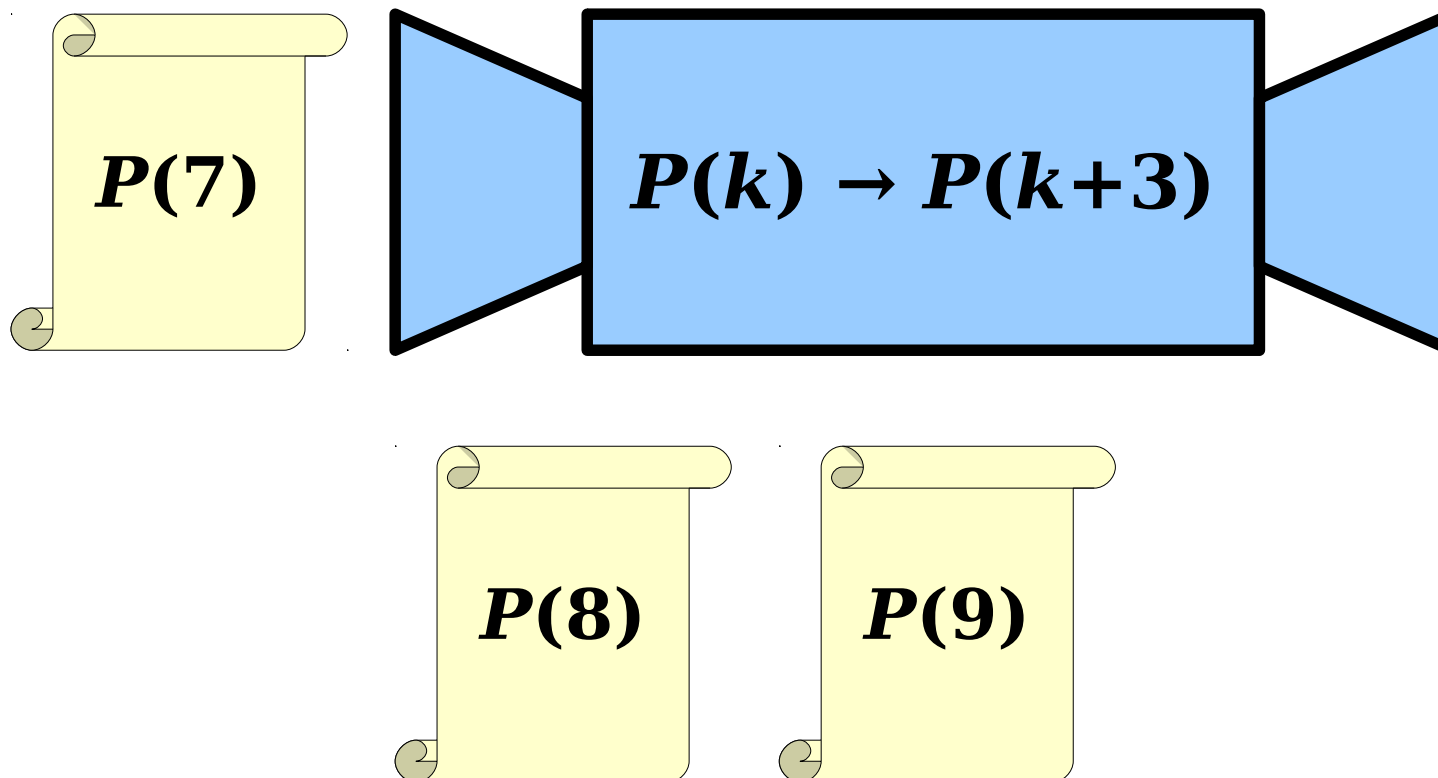
# Why This Works

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



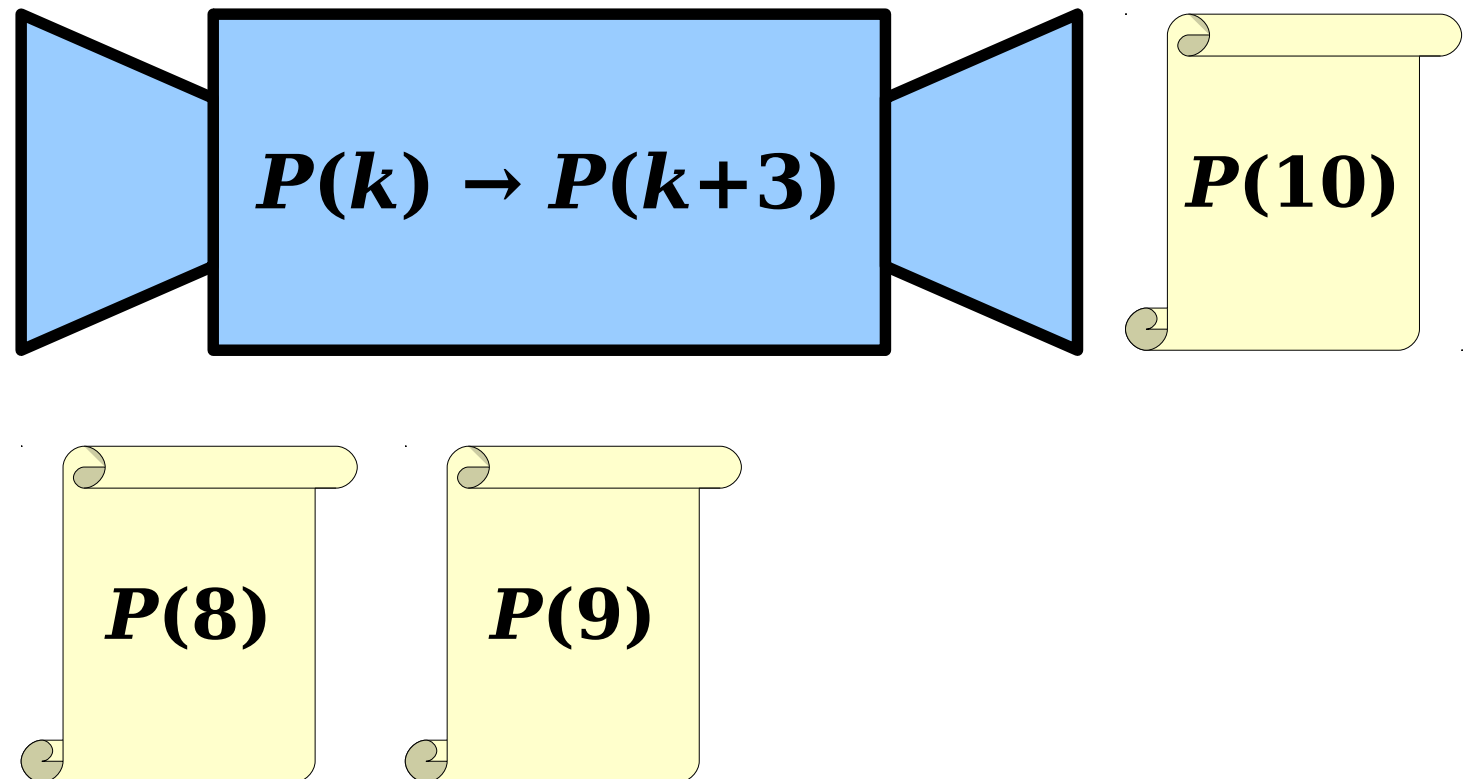
# Why This Works

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



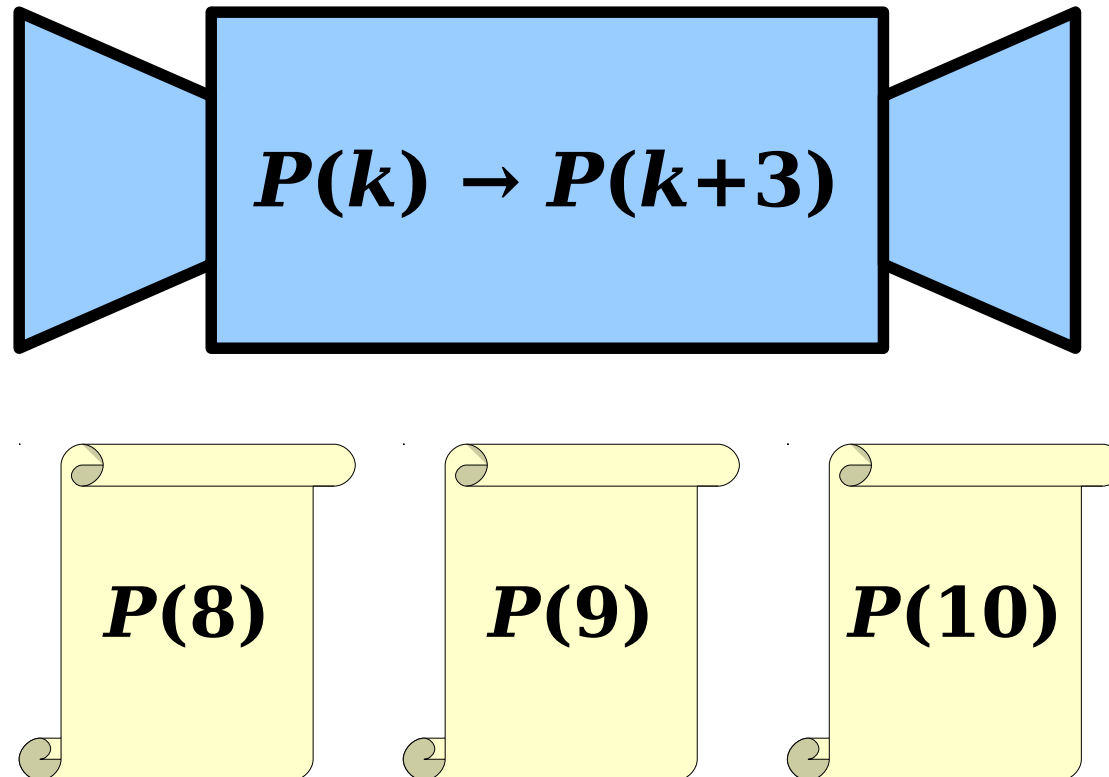
# Why This Works

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



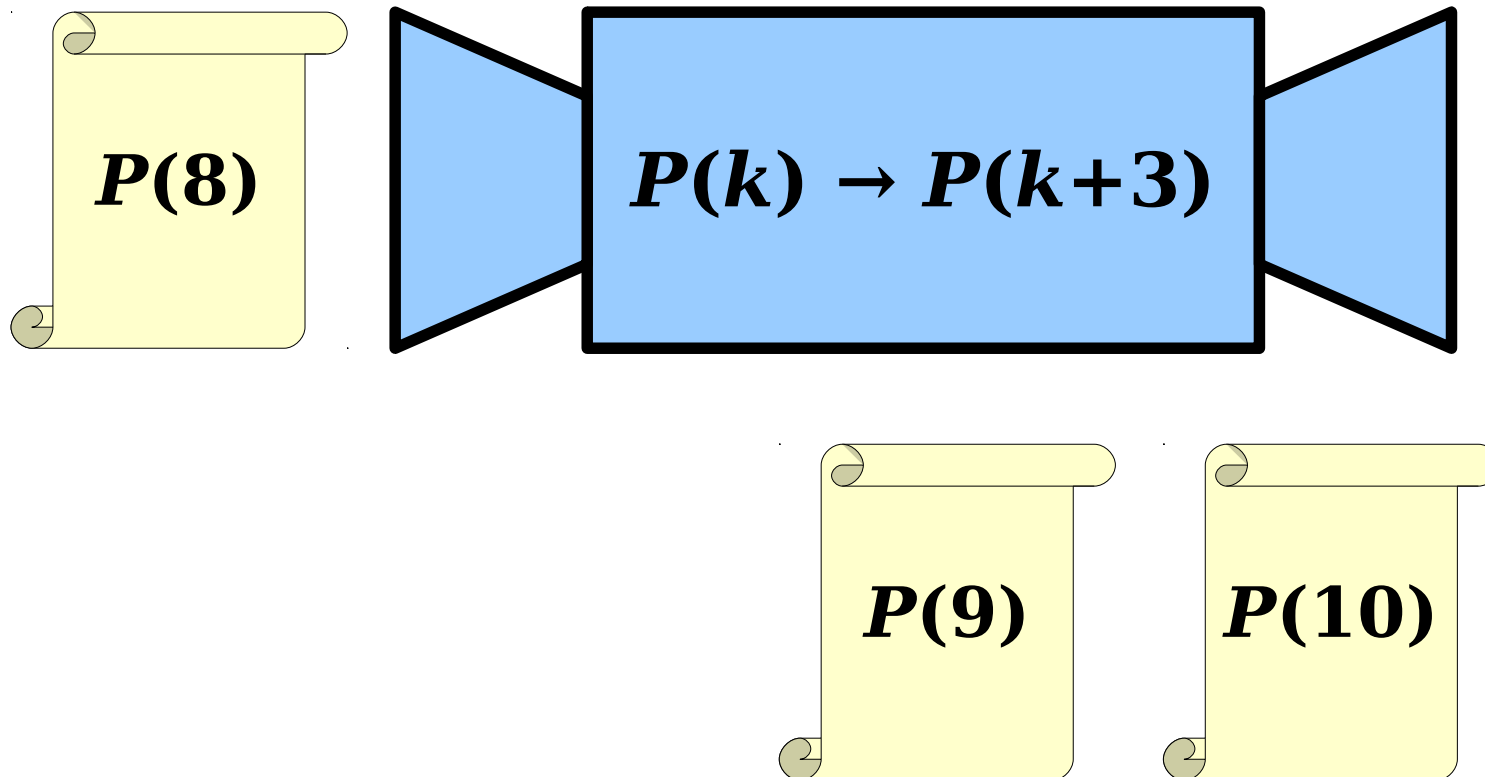
# Why This Works

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



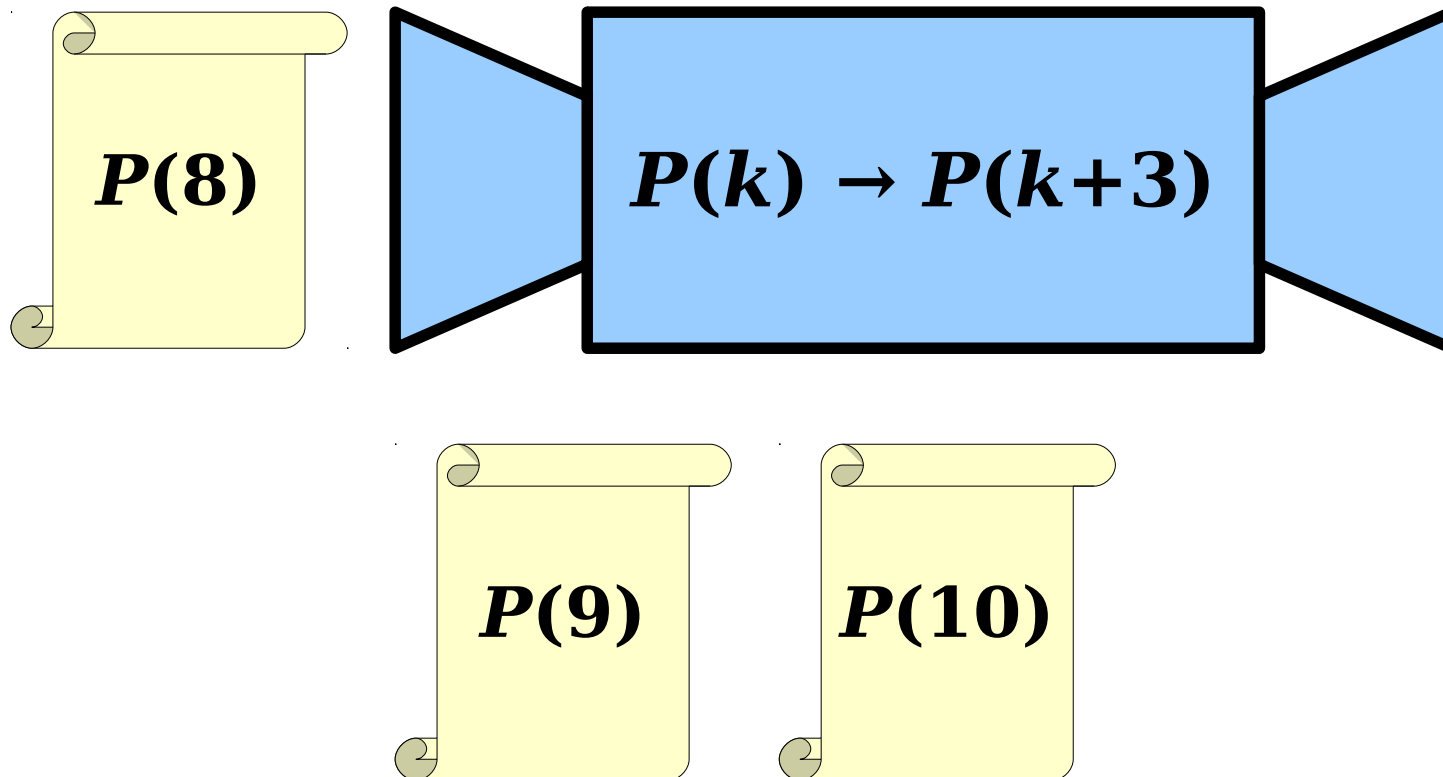
# Why This Works

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



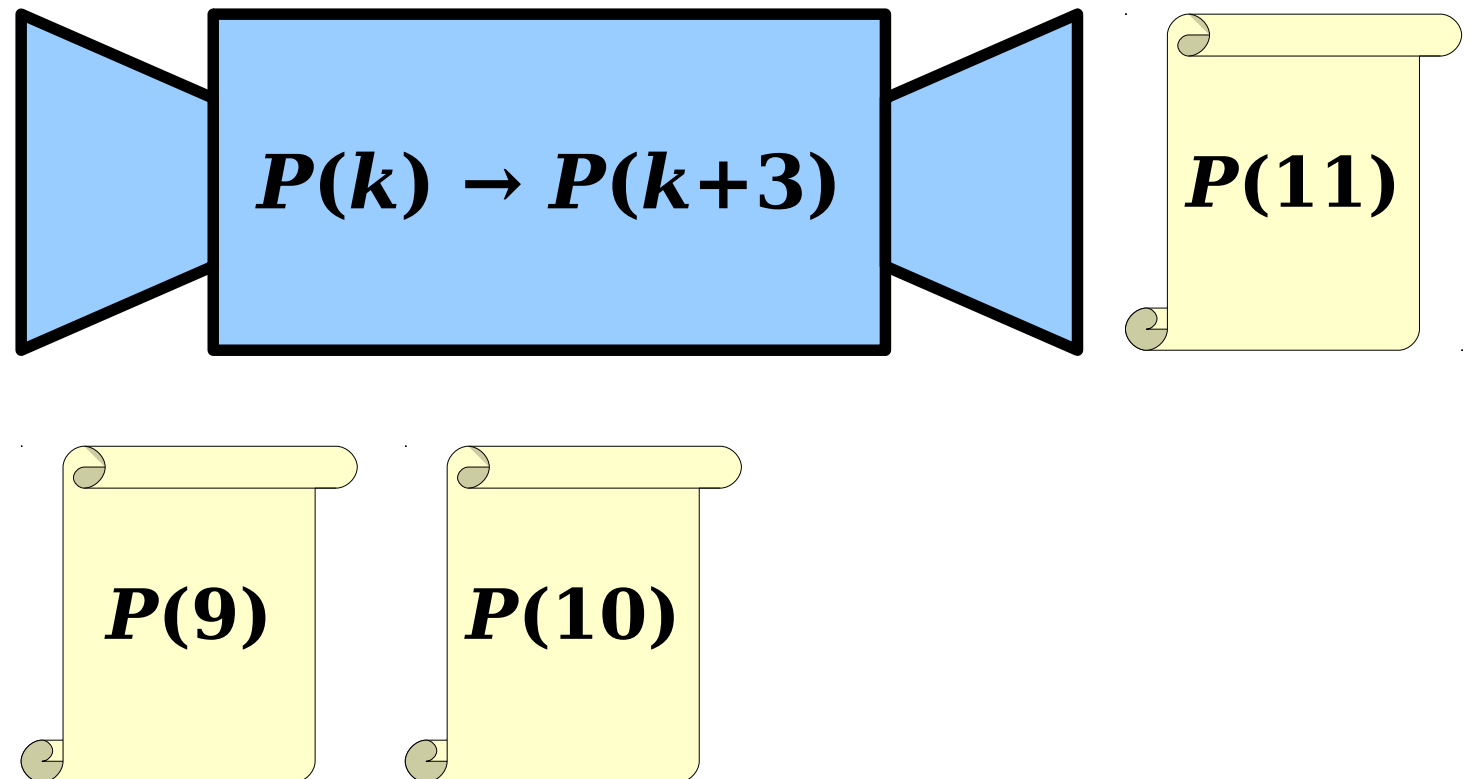
# Why This Works

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



# Why This Works

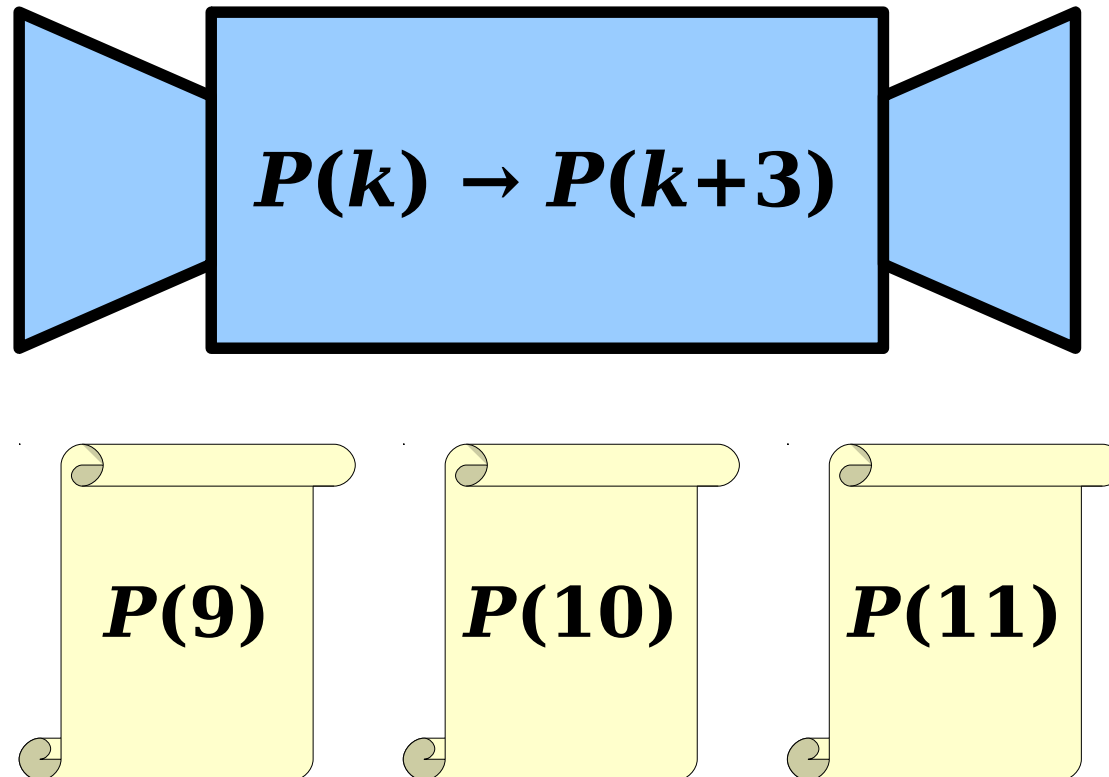
- This induction has three consecutive base cases and takes steps of size three.
- Thinking back to our “induction machine” analogy:





# Why This Works

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



# 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!

# More on Square Subdivisions

- There are a ton of interesting questions that come up when trying to subdivide a rectangle or square into smaller squares.
- In fact, one of the major players in early graph theory (William Tutte) got his start playing around with these problems.
- Good starting resource: this Numberphile video on [\*Squaring the Square\*](#).

# Complete Induction

Guess what!?

It's time for

**Mathematical**

**Calisthenics!**

It's time for

**Mathematical esthetics!**

This is kinda  
like  $P(0)$ .

If you are the *leftmost* person  
in your row, stand up right now.

Everyone else: stand up as soon as the  
person to your left in your row stands up.

This is kinda like  $P(k)$   
 $\rightarrow P(k+1)$ .



Everyone, please be seated.

Let's do this again... with a twist!

This is kinda  
like  $P(0)$ .

If you are the *leftmost* person  
in your row, stand up right now.


Everyone else: stand up as soon as  
*everyone* left of you in your row stands up.


What sort of sorcery  
is this?

Please be seated.

You all did a great job!

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

If it starts true...   **$P(0)$  is true** ...and it stays true...  
and

**for any  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , if  $P(0), P(1), \dots$ , and  $P(k)$  are true, then  $P(k+1)$  is true** 

then

**$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}. P(n)$**  

...then it's  
always true.

# Mathematical Induction

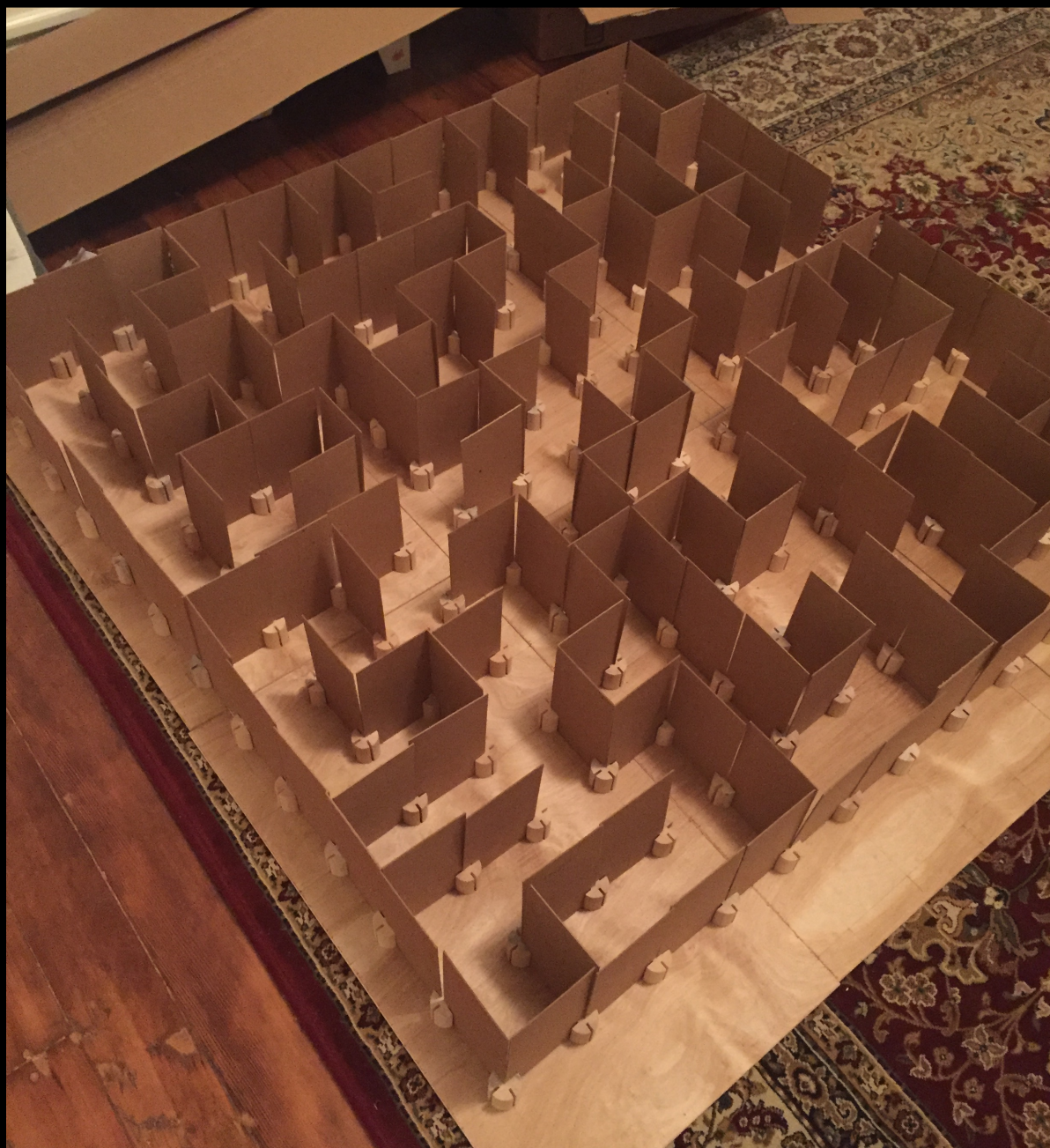
- You can write proofs using the principle of mathematical induction as follows:
  - Define some predicate  $P(n)$  to prove by induction on  $n$ .
  - Choose and prove a base case (probably, but not always,  $P(0)$ ).
  - Pick an arbitrary  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that  $P(k)$  is true.
  - Prove  $P(k+1)$ .
  - Conclude that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

# Complete Induction

- You can write proofs using the principle of **complete** induction as follows:
  - Define some predicate  $P(n)$  to prove by induction on  $n$ .
  - Choose and prove a base case (probably, but not always,  $P(0)$ ).
  - Pick an arbitrary  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and assume that  **$P(0), P(1), P(2), \dots$ , and  $P(k)$**  are all true.
  - Prove  $P(k+1)$ .
  - Conclude that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

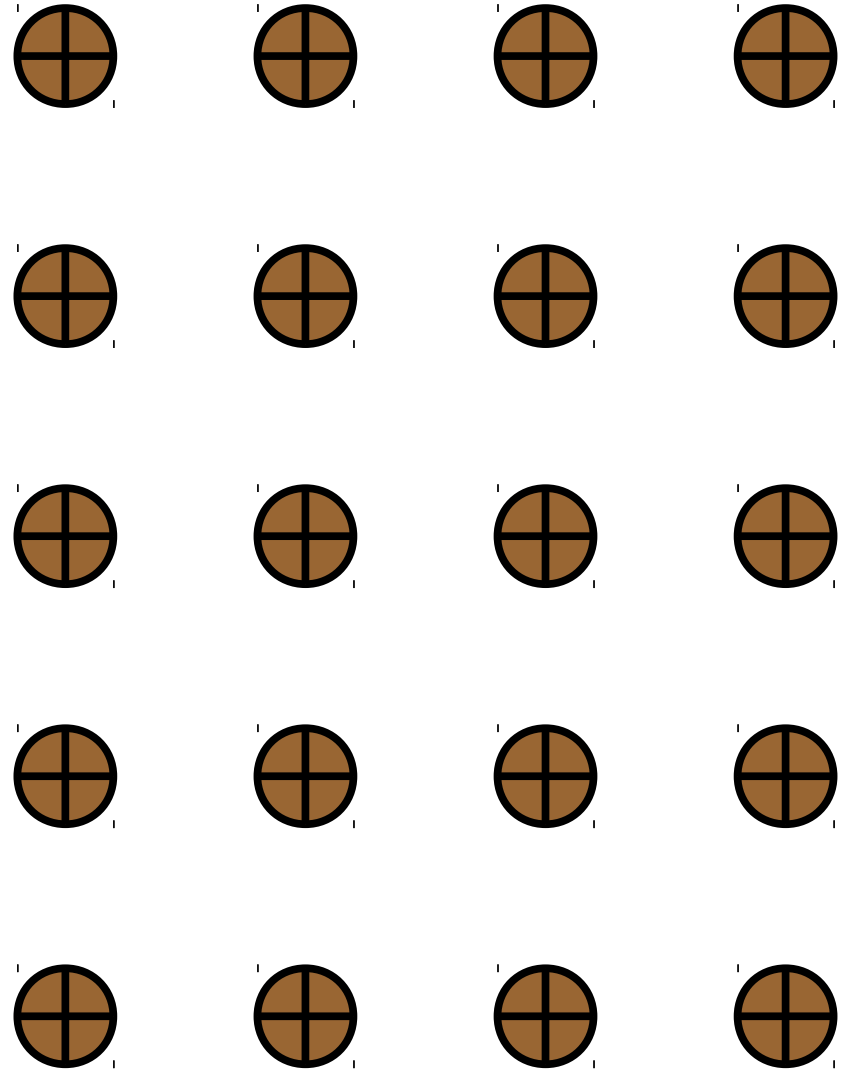
A Motivating Example: ***Rat Mazes***





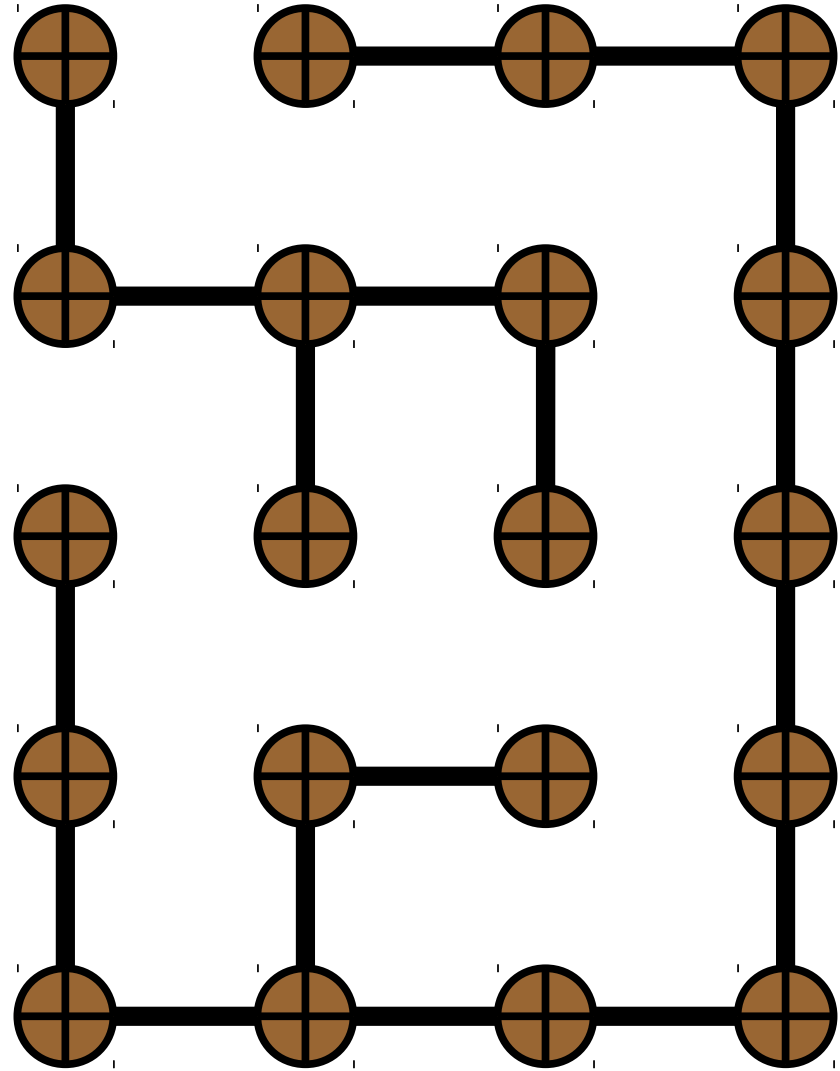
# Rat Mazes

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



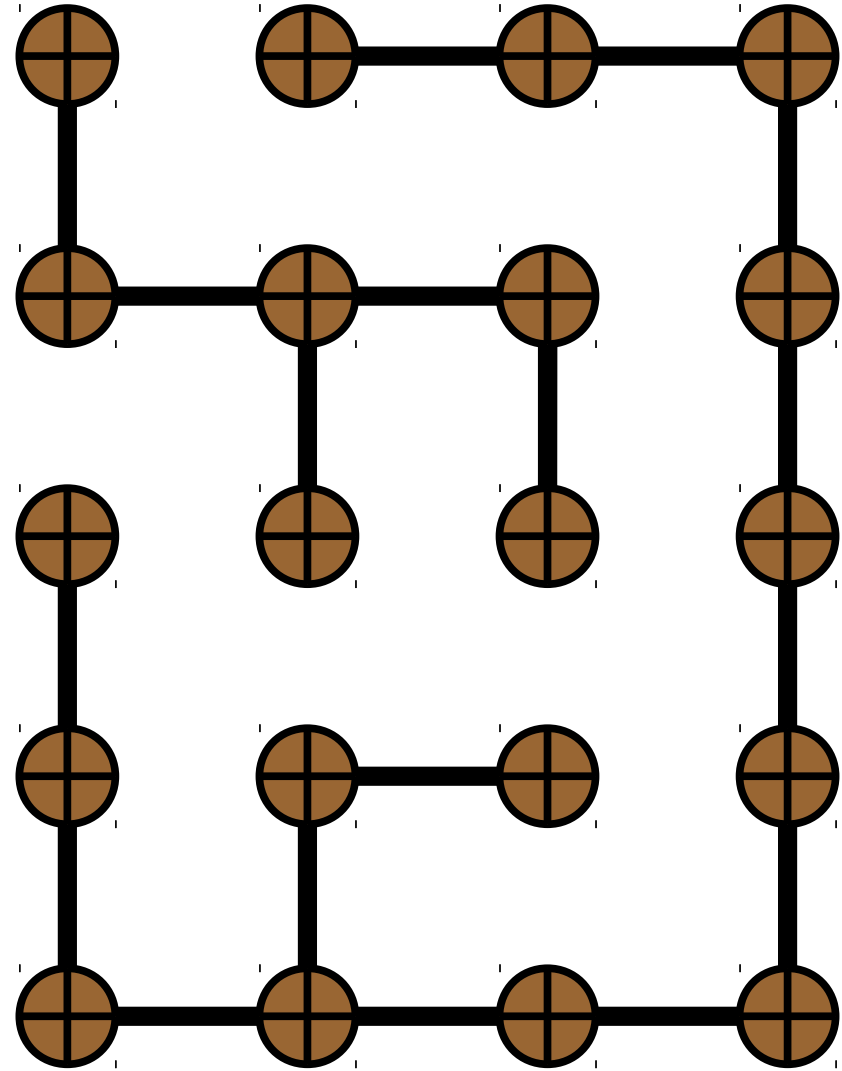
# Rat Mazes

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



# 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.

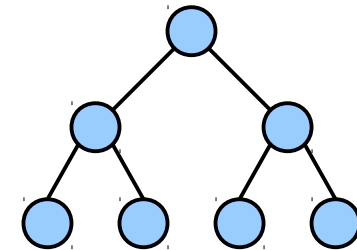
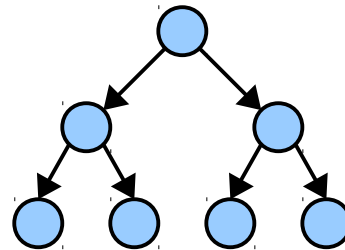
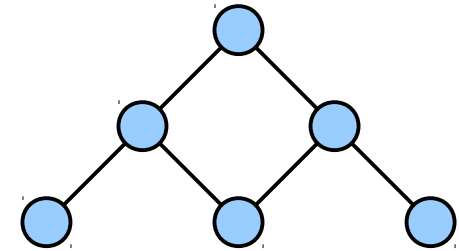
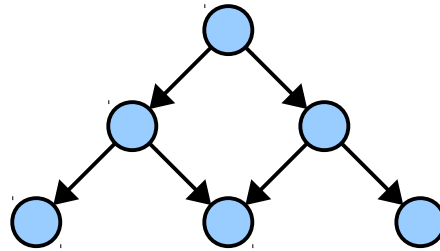
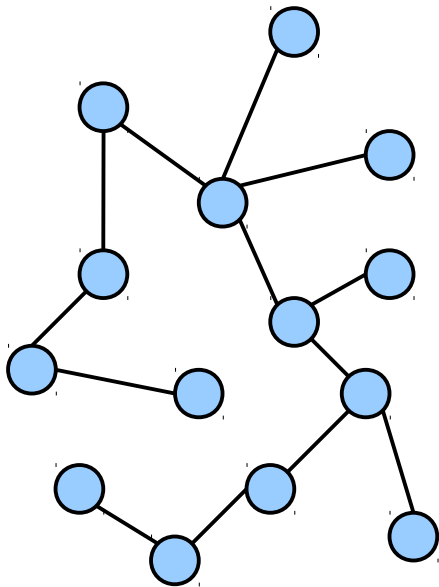


***Question:*** If you have an  $n \times m$  grid of pegs, how many slats do you need to make?

A Special Type of Graph: ***Trees***

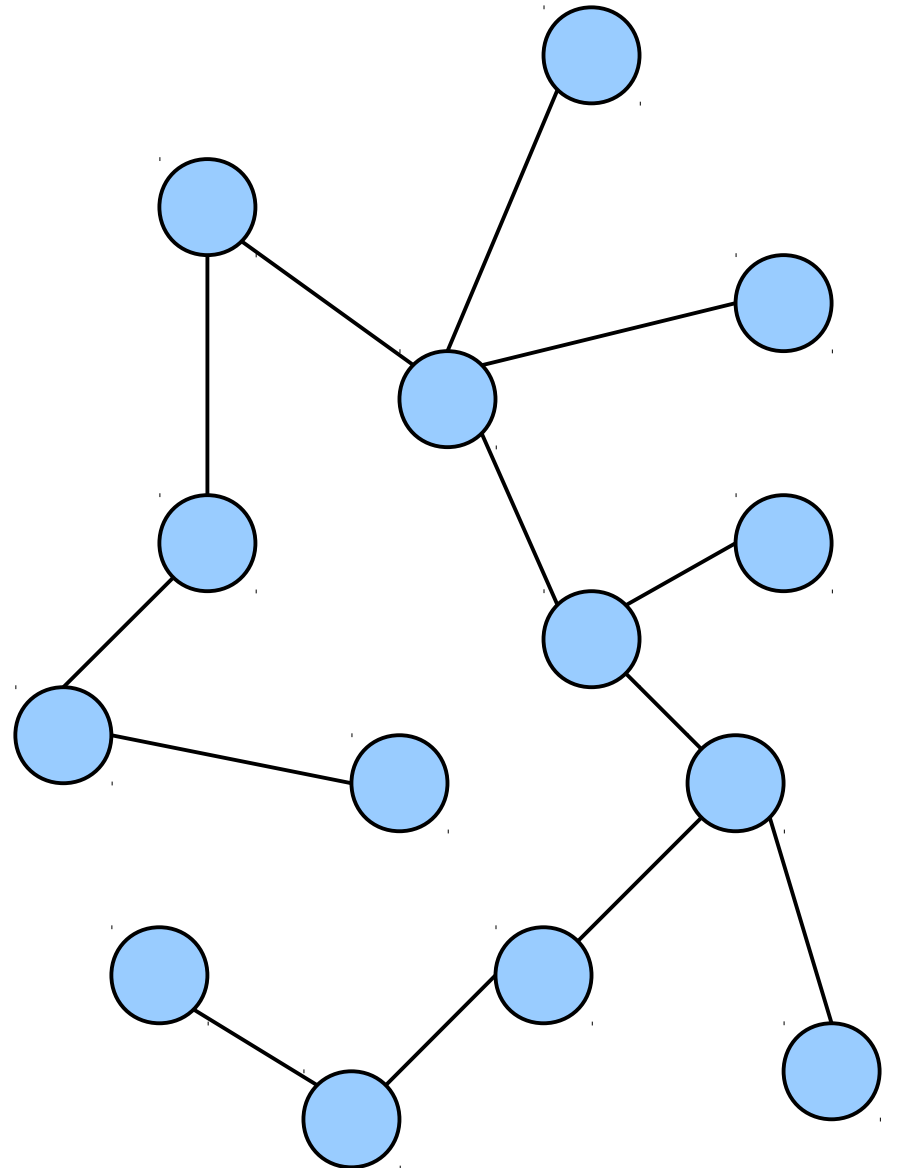
A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.

According to the above definition of trees, how many of these graphs are trees?



# Trees

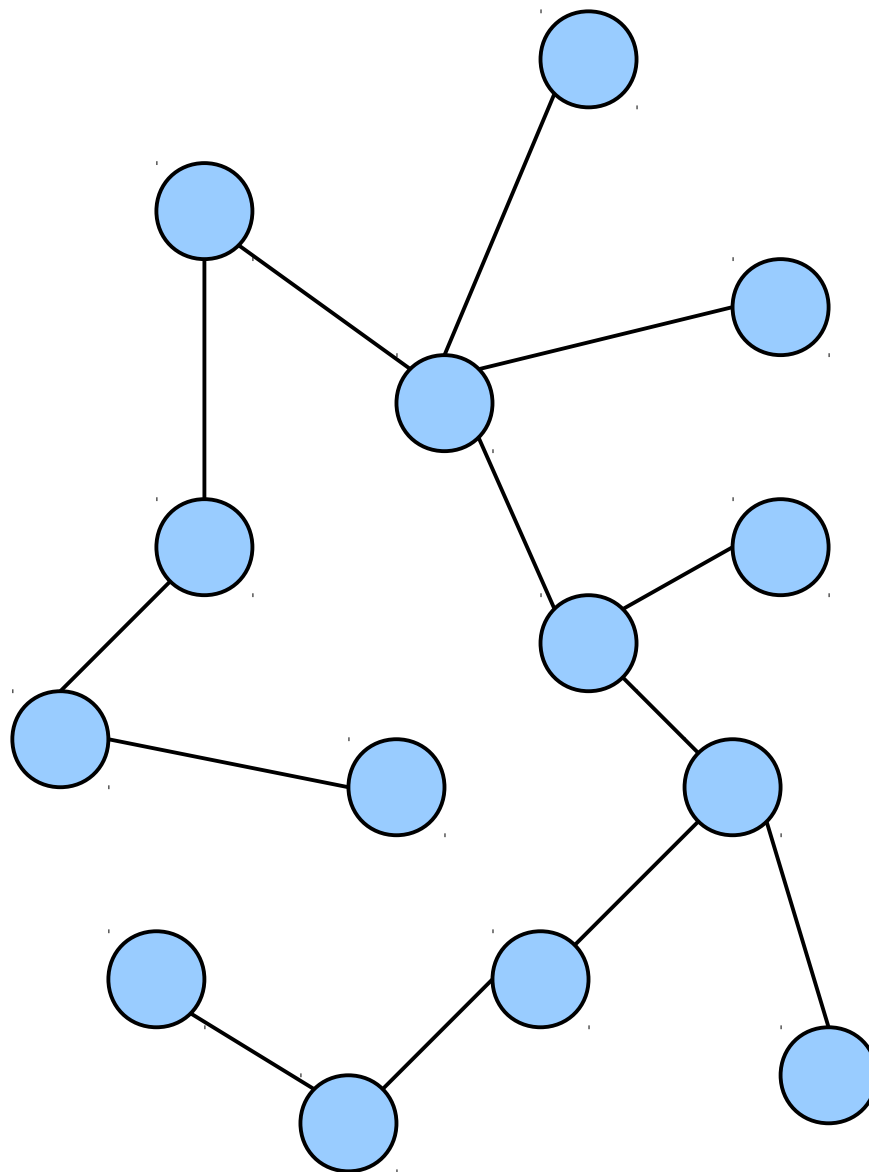
- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.





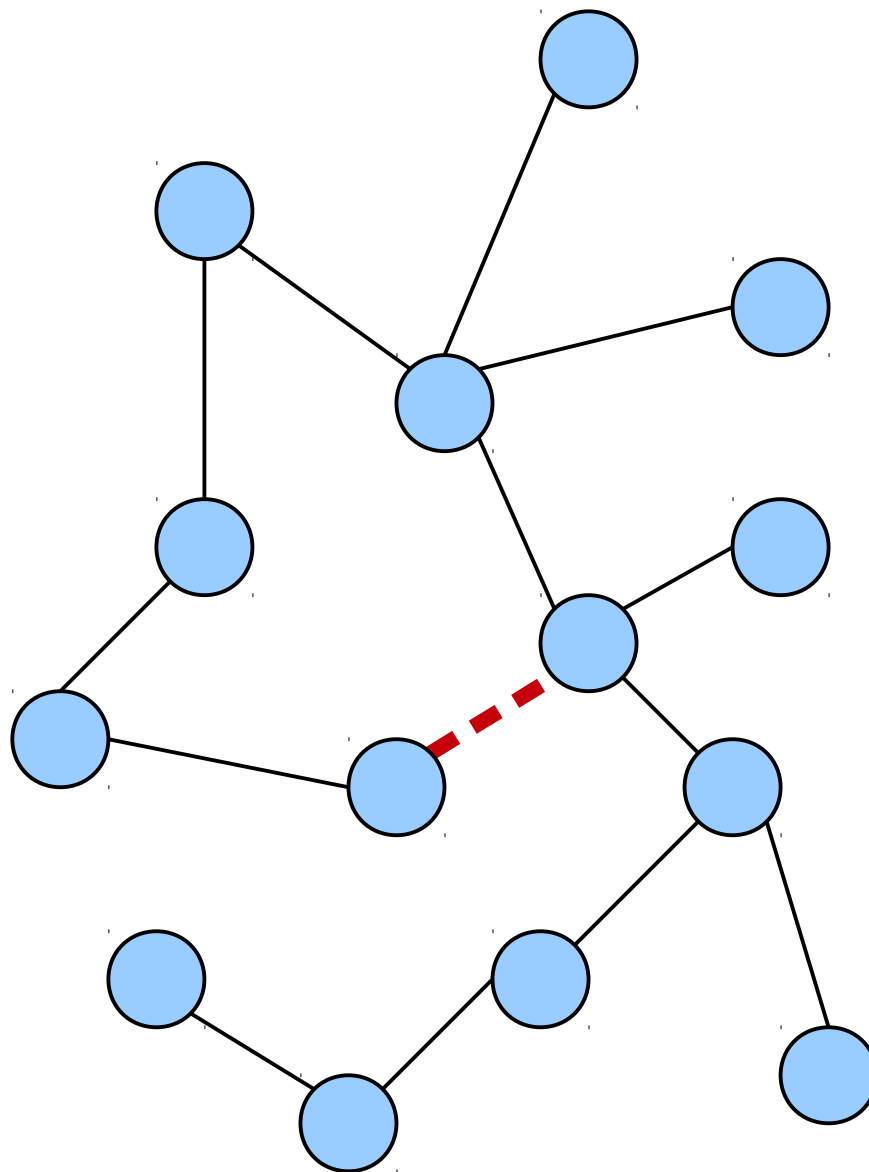
# Trees

- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)



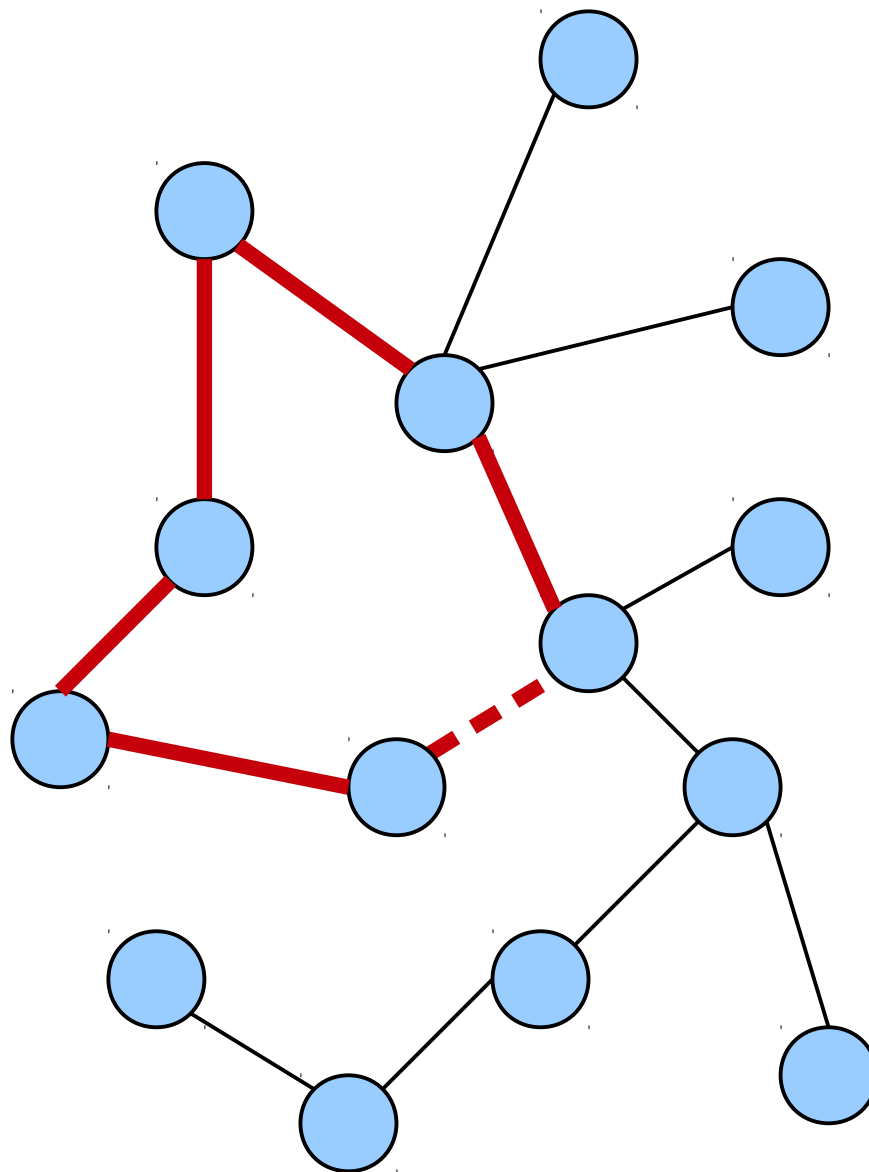
# Trees

- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)



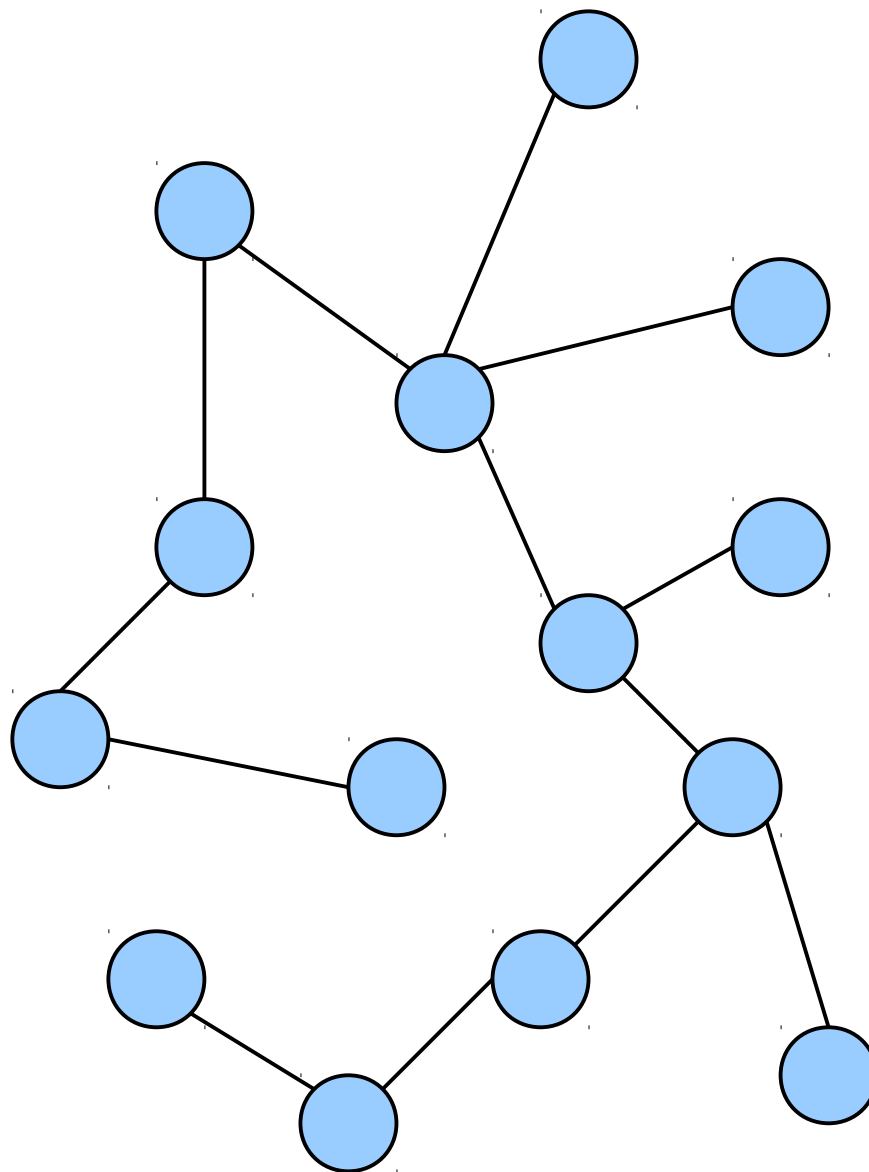
# Trees

- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)



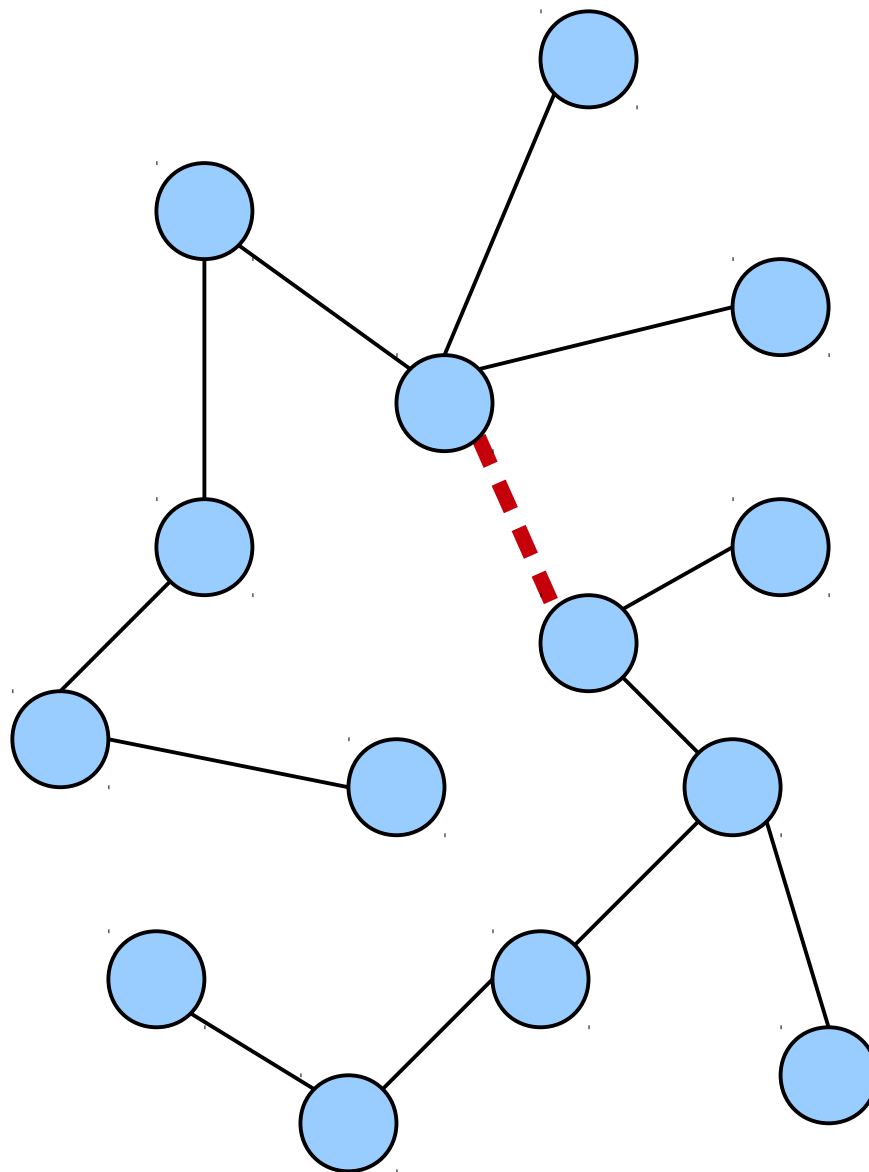
# Trees

- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)
  - They're **minimally connected** (deleting any edge disconnects the graph)



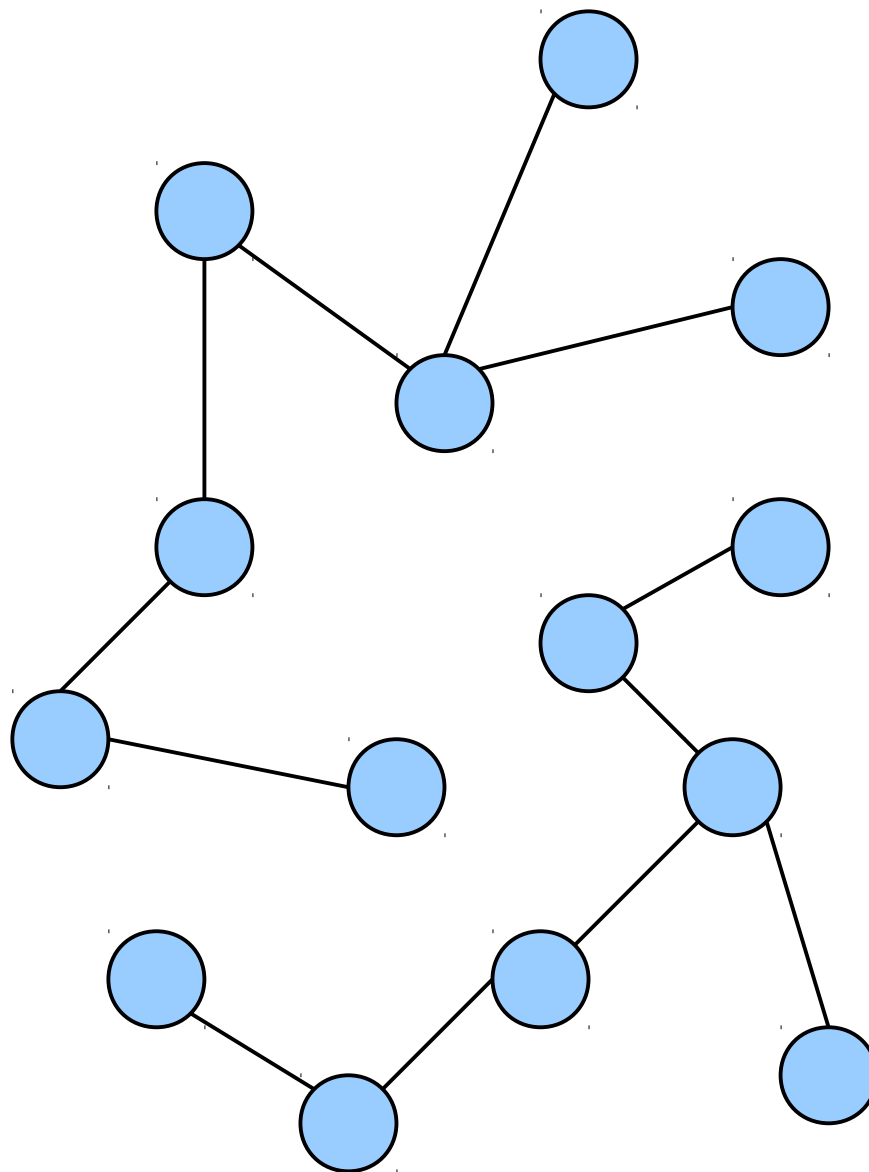
# Trees

- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)
  - They're **minimally connected** (deleting any edge disconnects the graph)



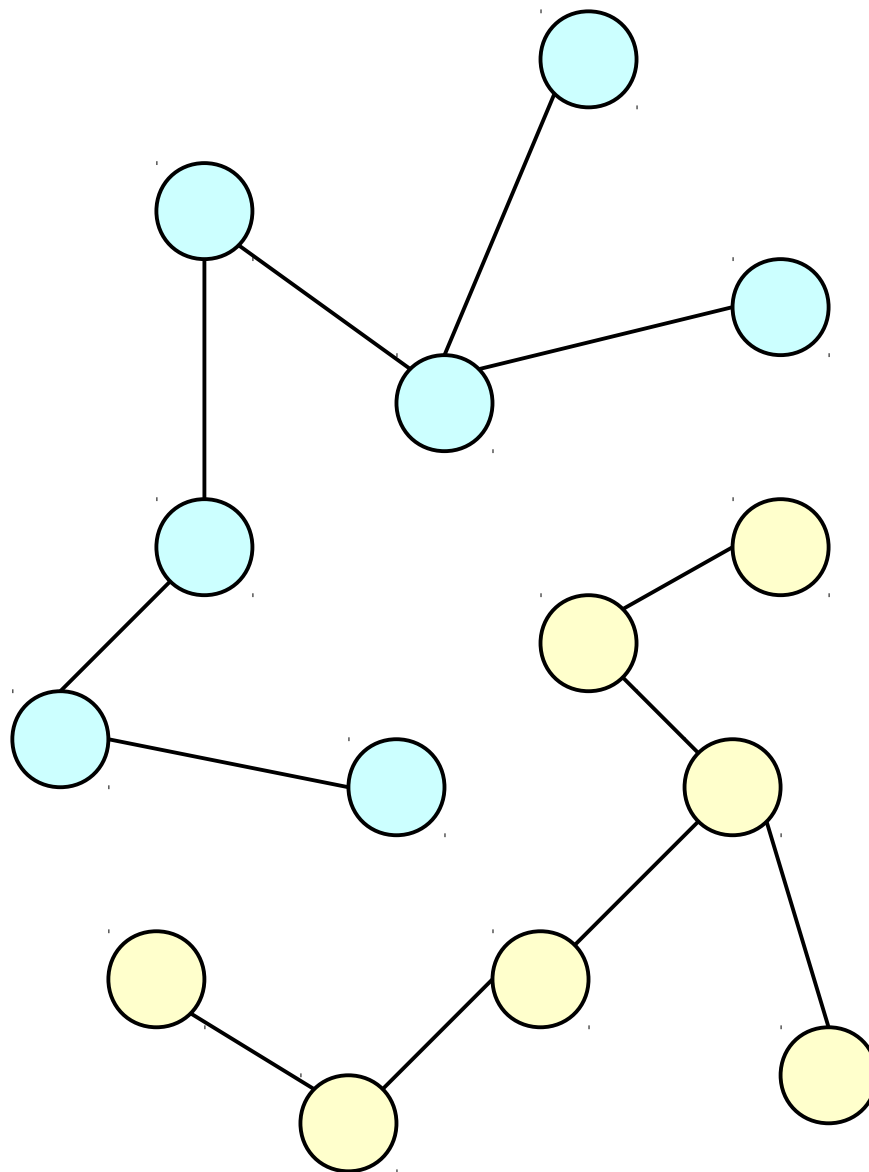
# Trees

- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)
  - They're **minimally connected** (deleting any edge disconnects the graph)



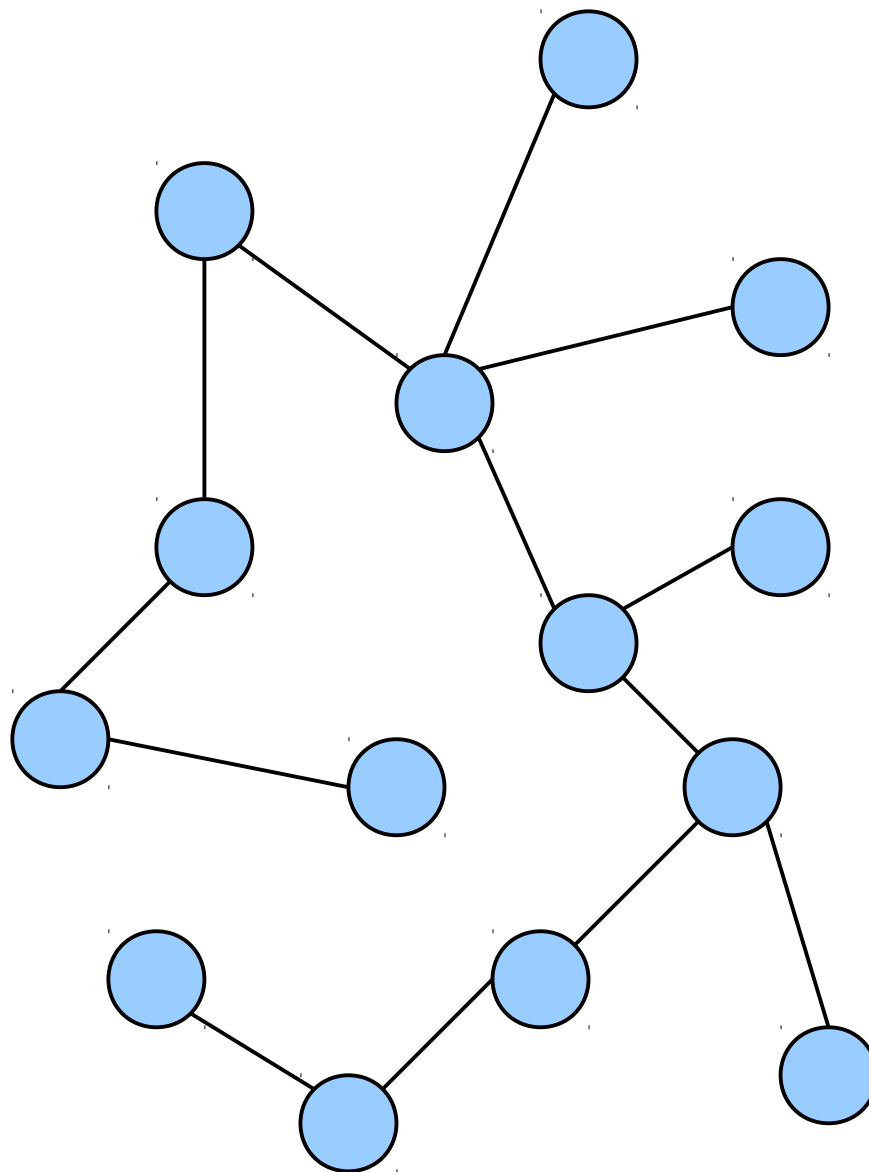
# Trees

- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)
  - They're **minimally connected** (deleting any edge disconnects the graph)



# Trees

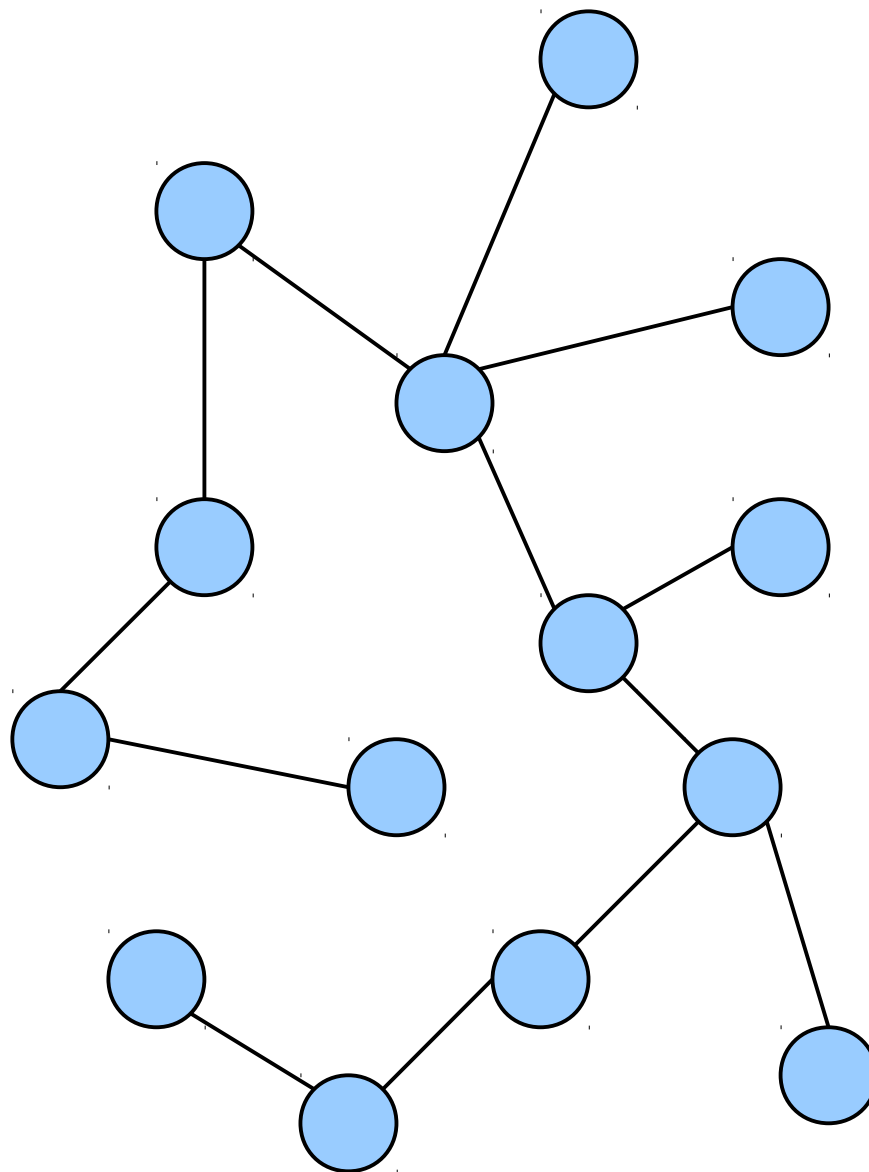
- A **tree** is a connected, nonempty graph with no simple cycles.
- Trees have tons of nice properties:
  - They're **maximally acyclic** (adding any missing edge creates a simple cycle)
  - They're **minimally connected** (deleting any edge disconnects the graph)
- Proofs of these results are in the course reader if you're interested. They're also great exercises.





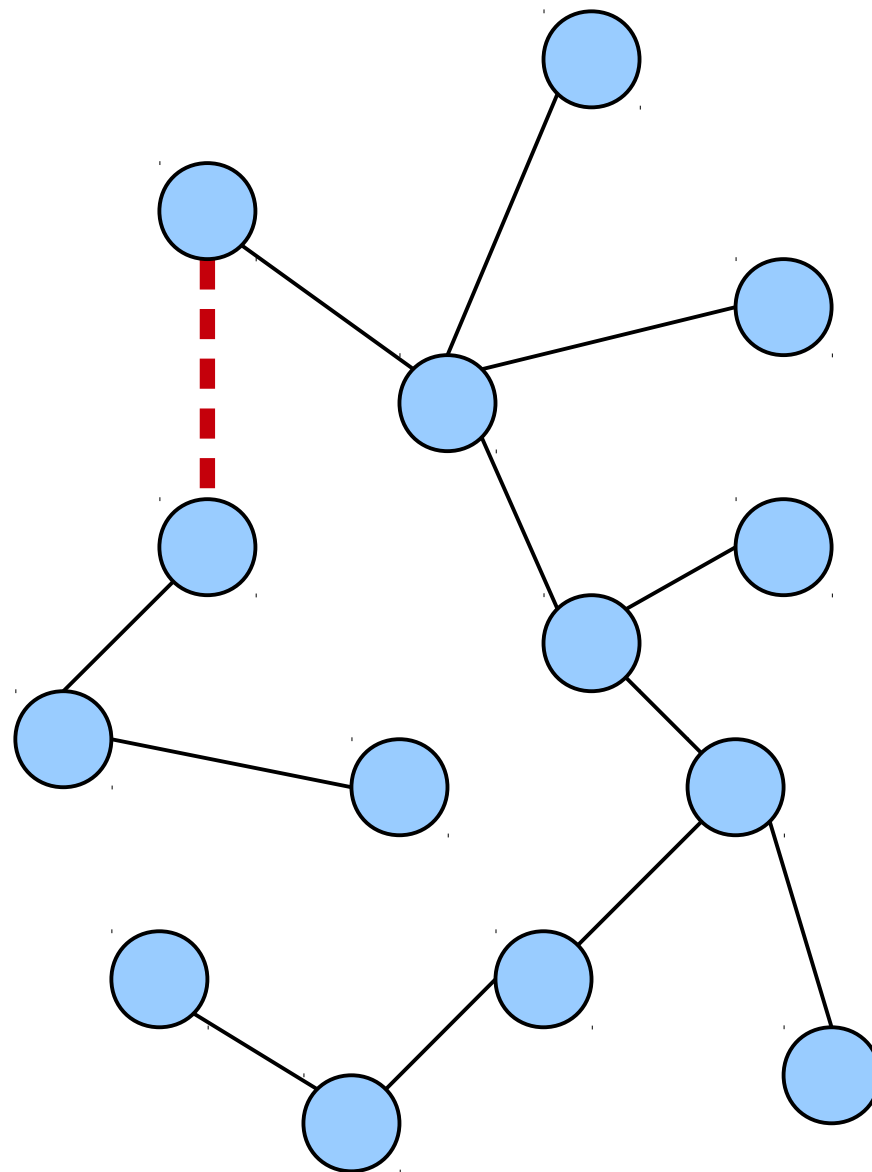
# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺



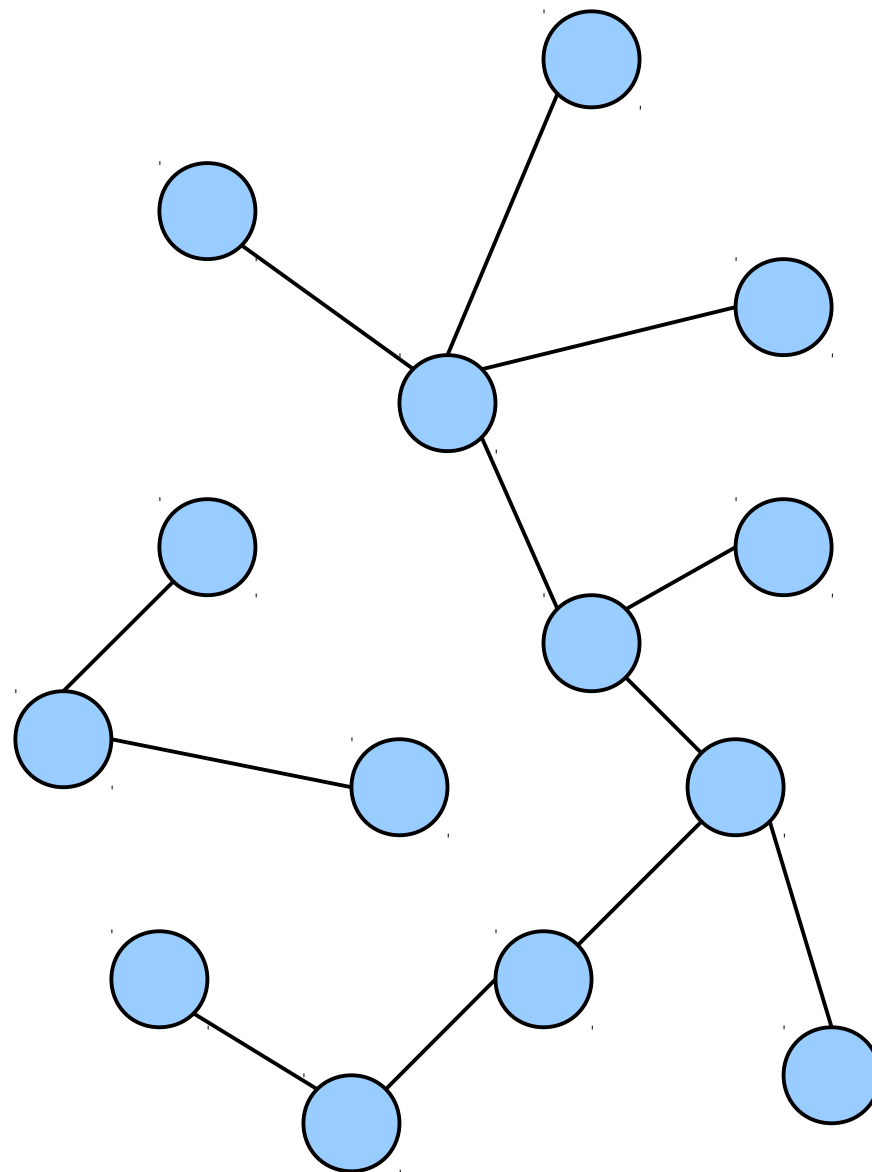
# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺



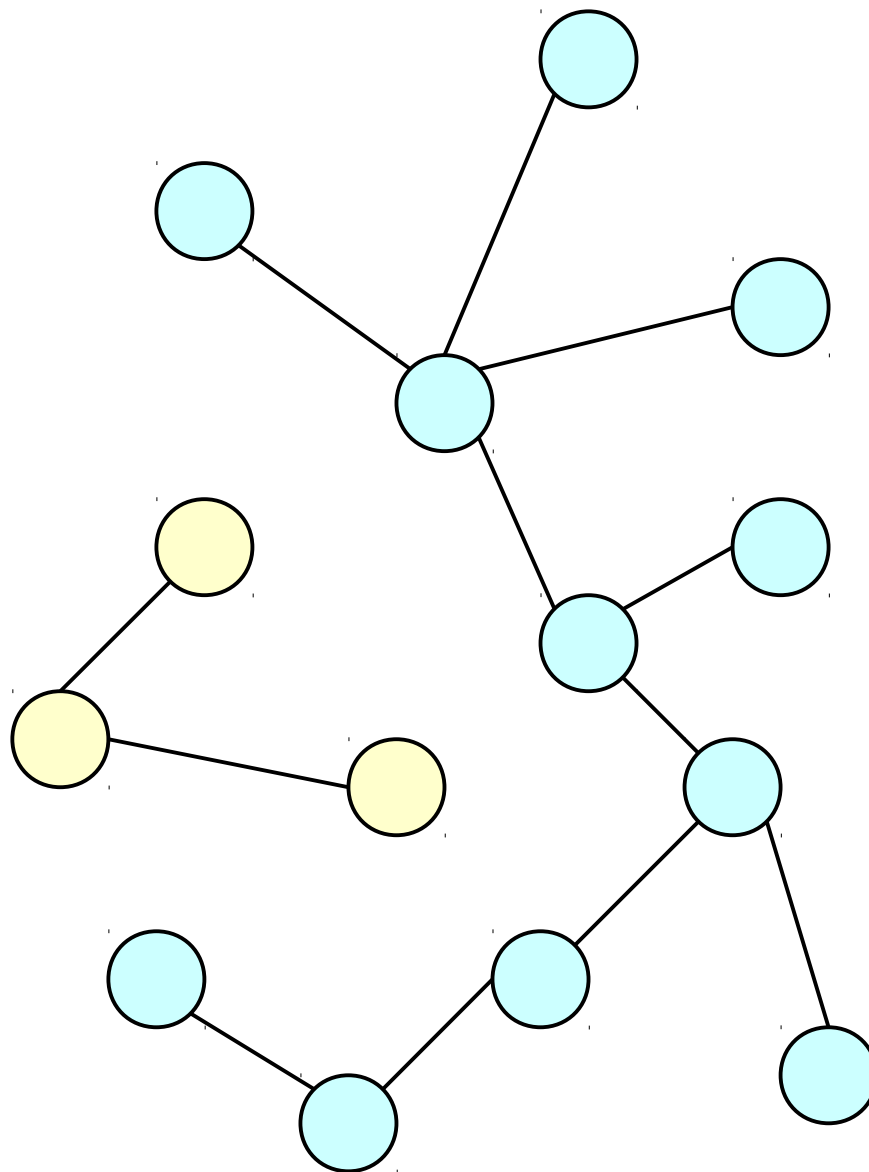
# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺



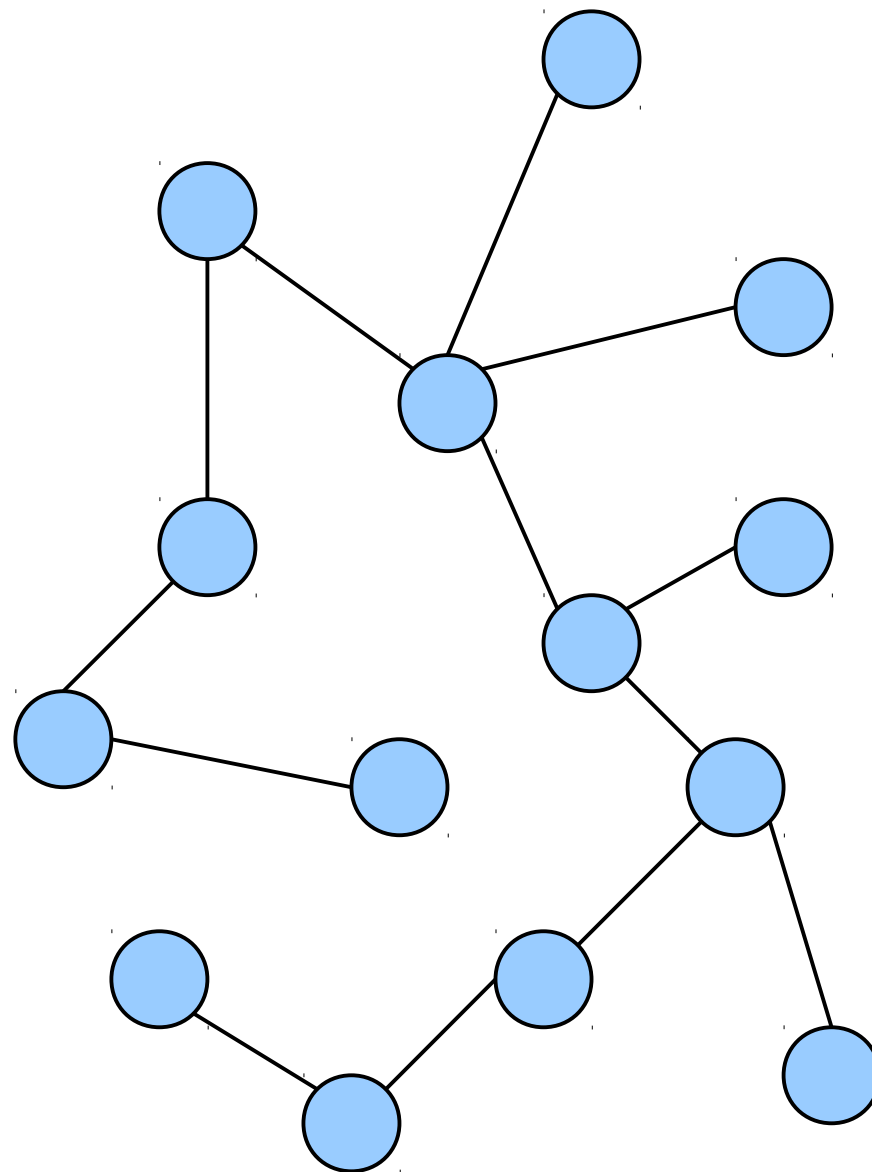
# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺



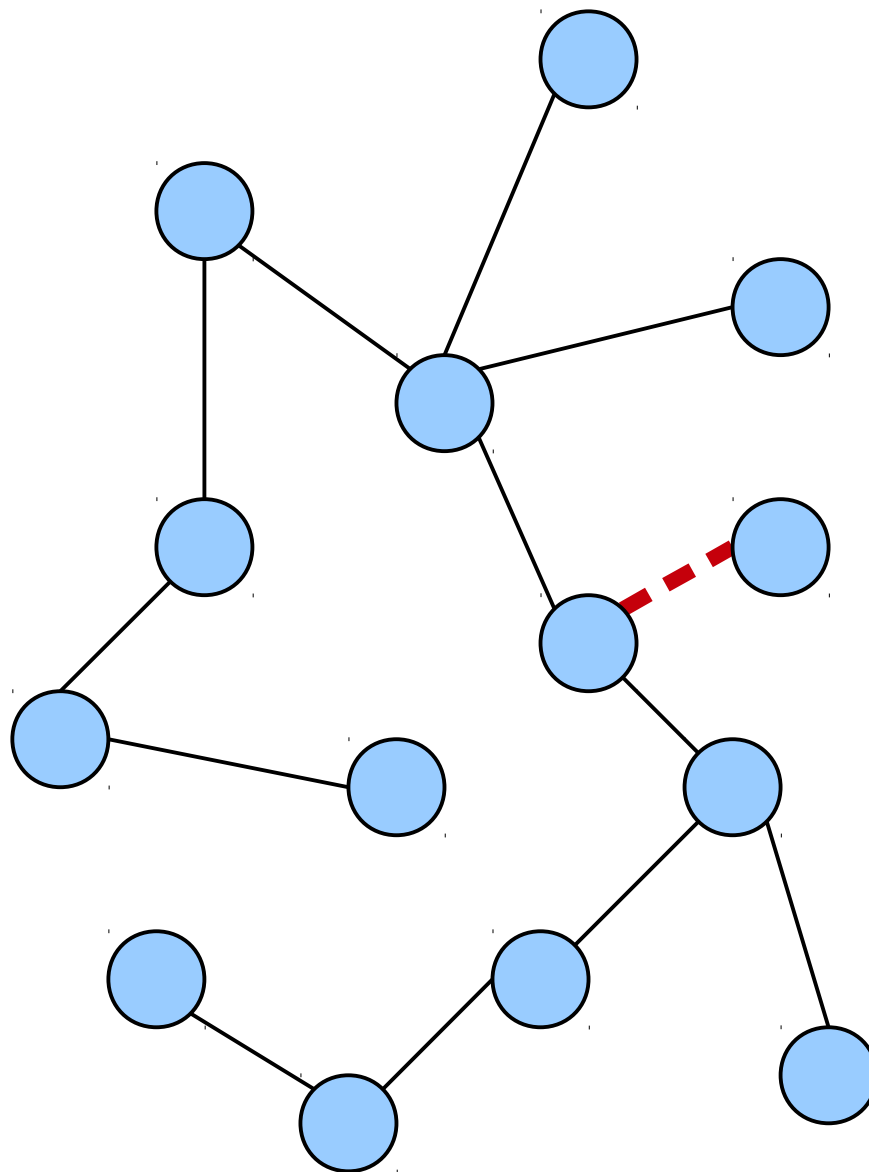
# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺



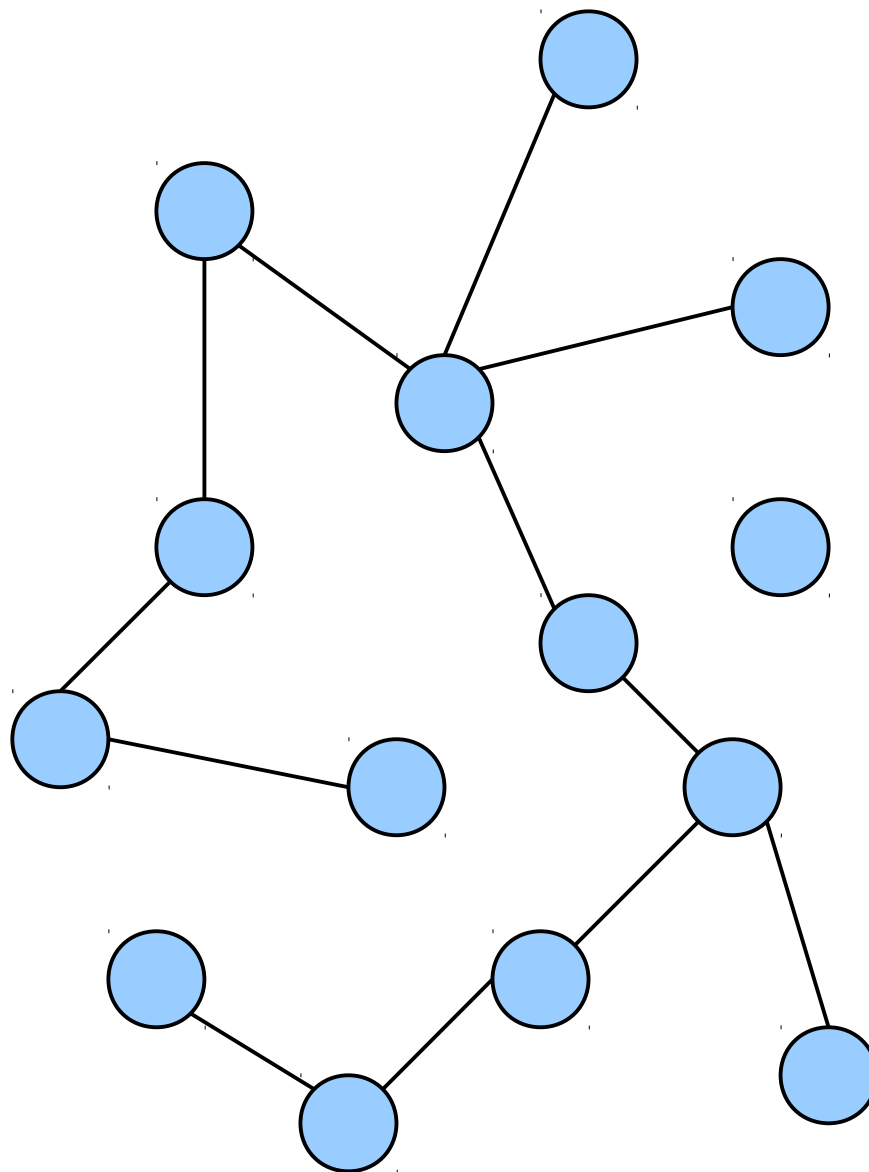
# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺



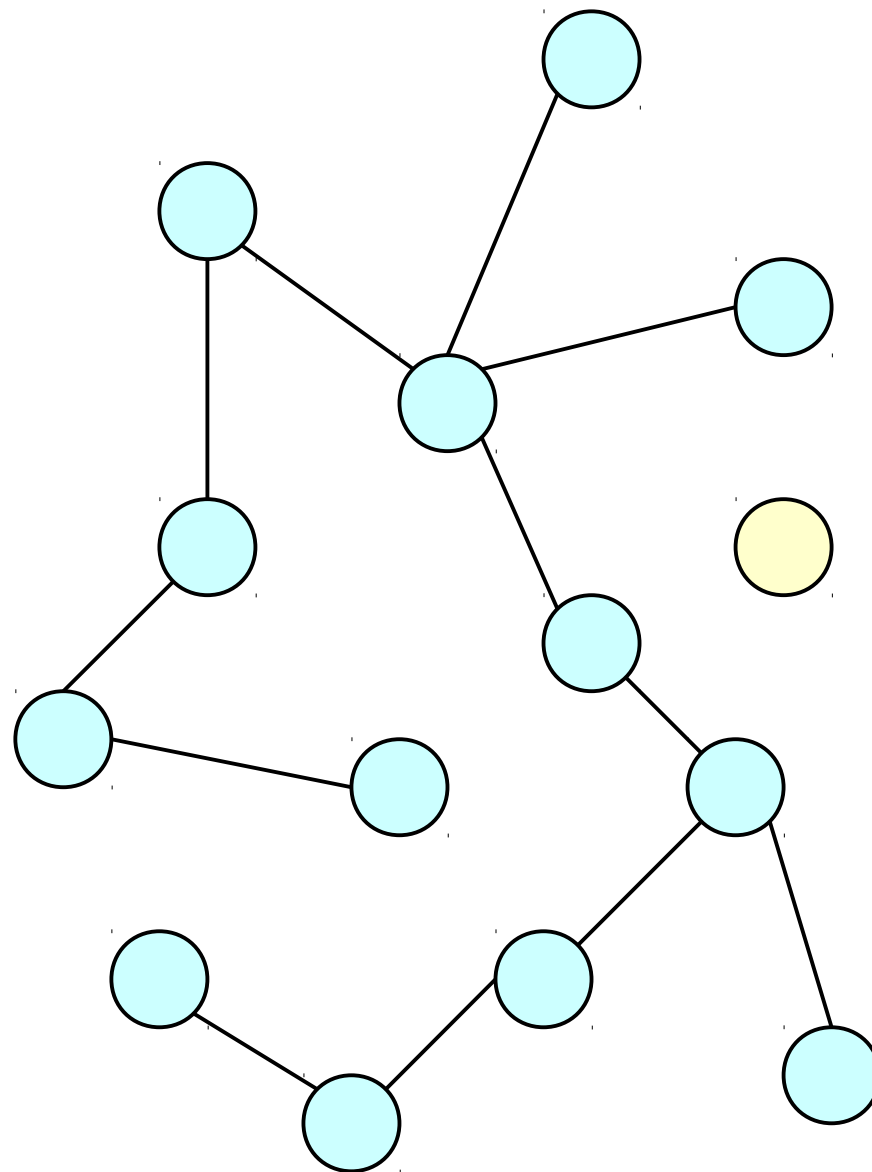
# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- **Proof:** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺



# Trees

- ***Theorem:*** If  $T$  is a tree with at least two nodes, then deleting any edge from  $T$  splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .
- ***Proof:*** Left as an exercise to the reader. ☺

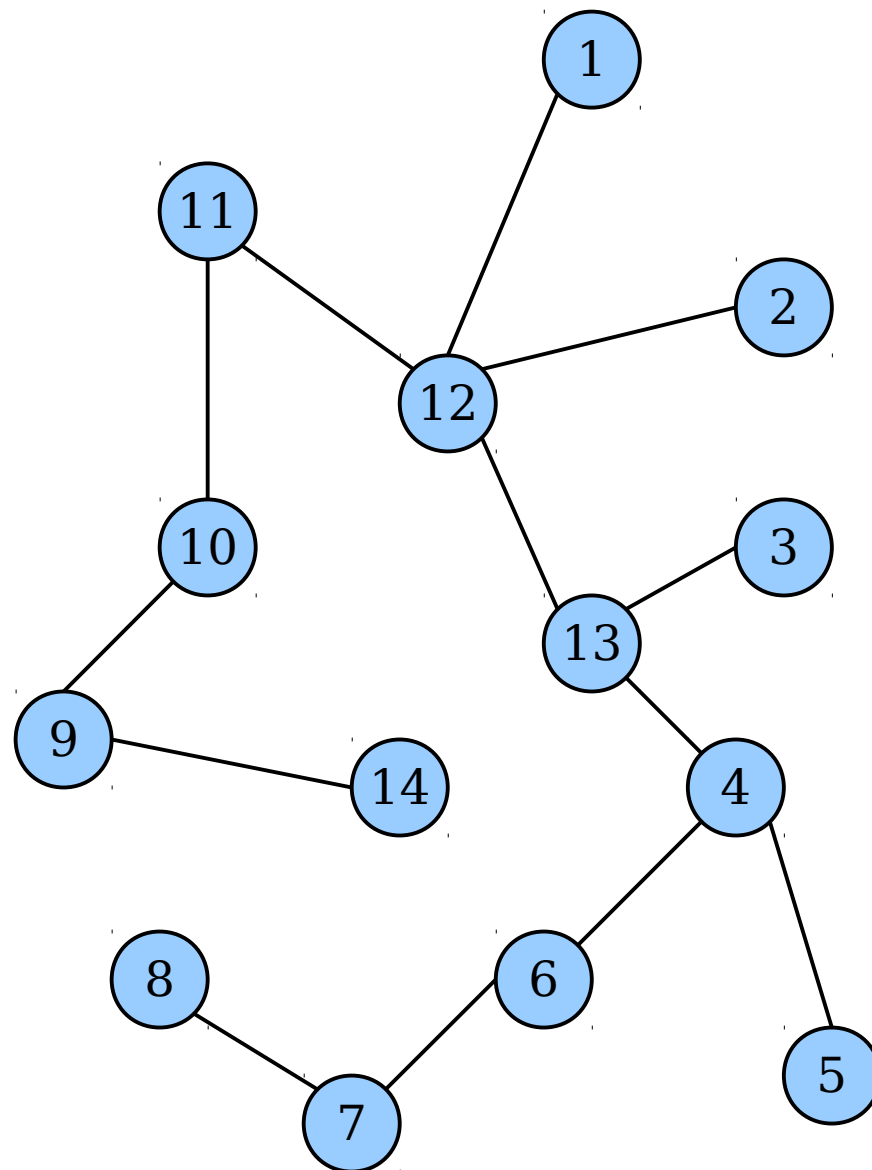






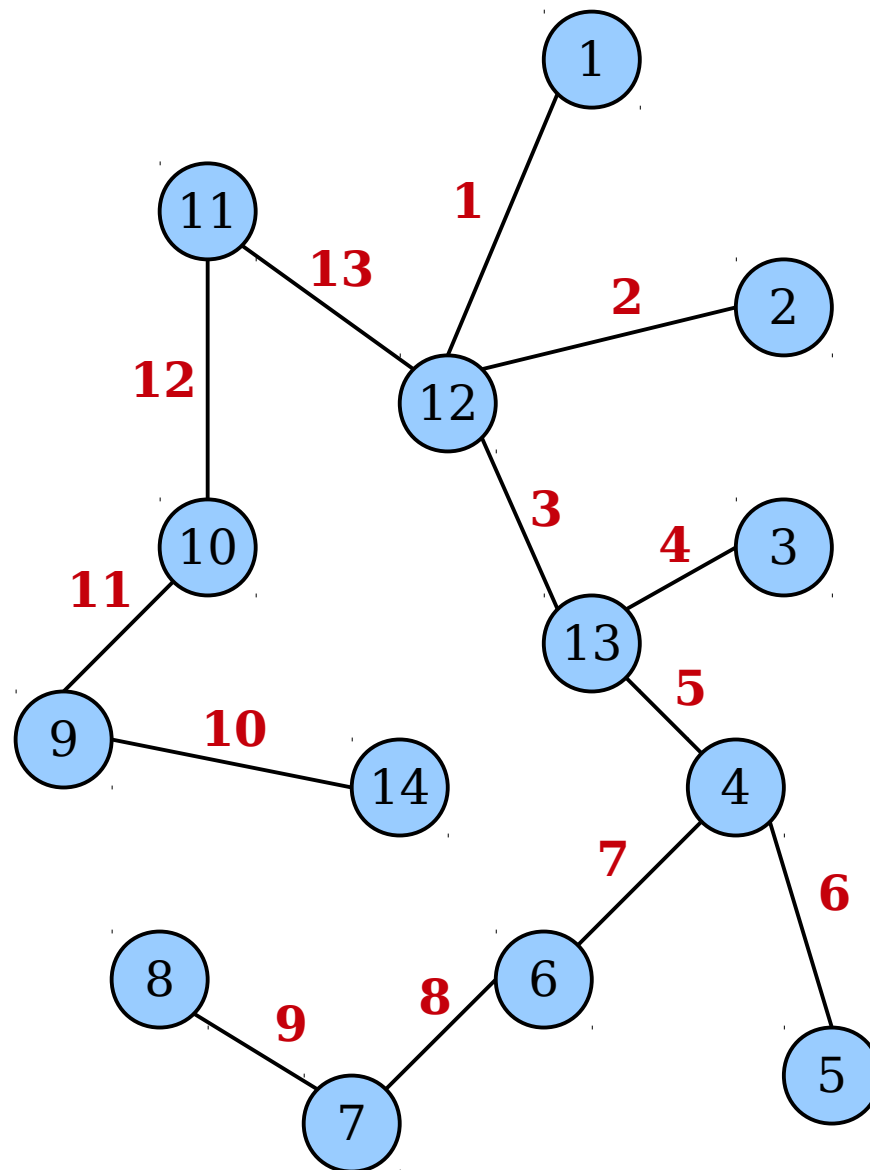
# Trees

- ***Theorem:*** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has exactly  $n-1$  edges.
- ***Proof:*** Up next!

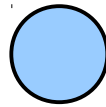


# Trees

- **Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has exactly  $n-1$  edges.
- **Proof:** Up next!



# Our Base Case



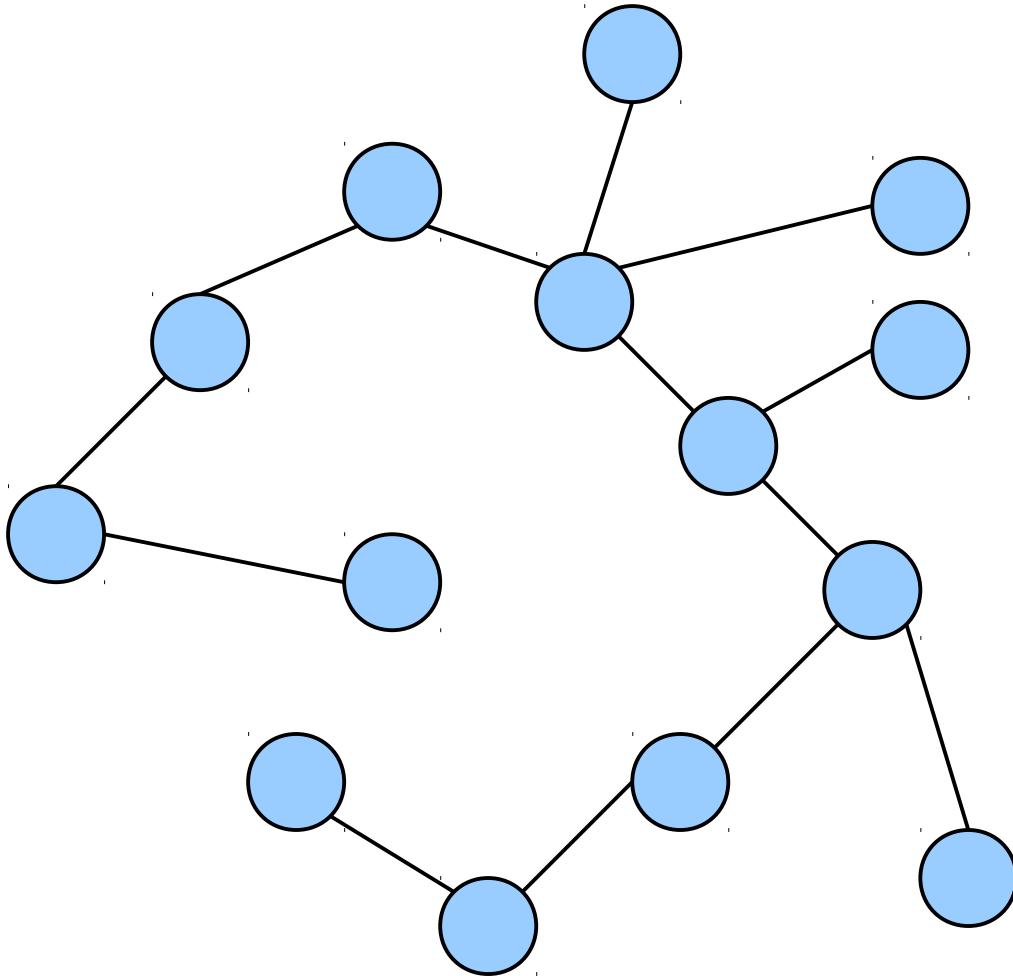
Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

Consider an arbitrary tree  
with  $k+1$  nodes.

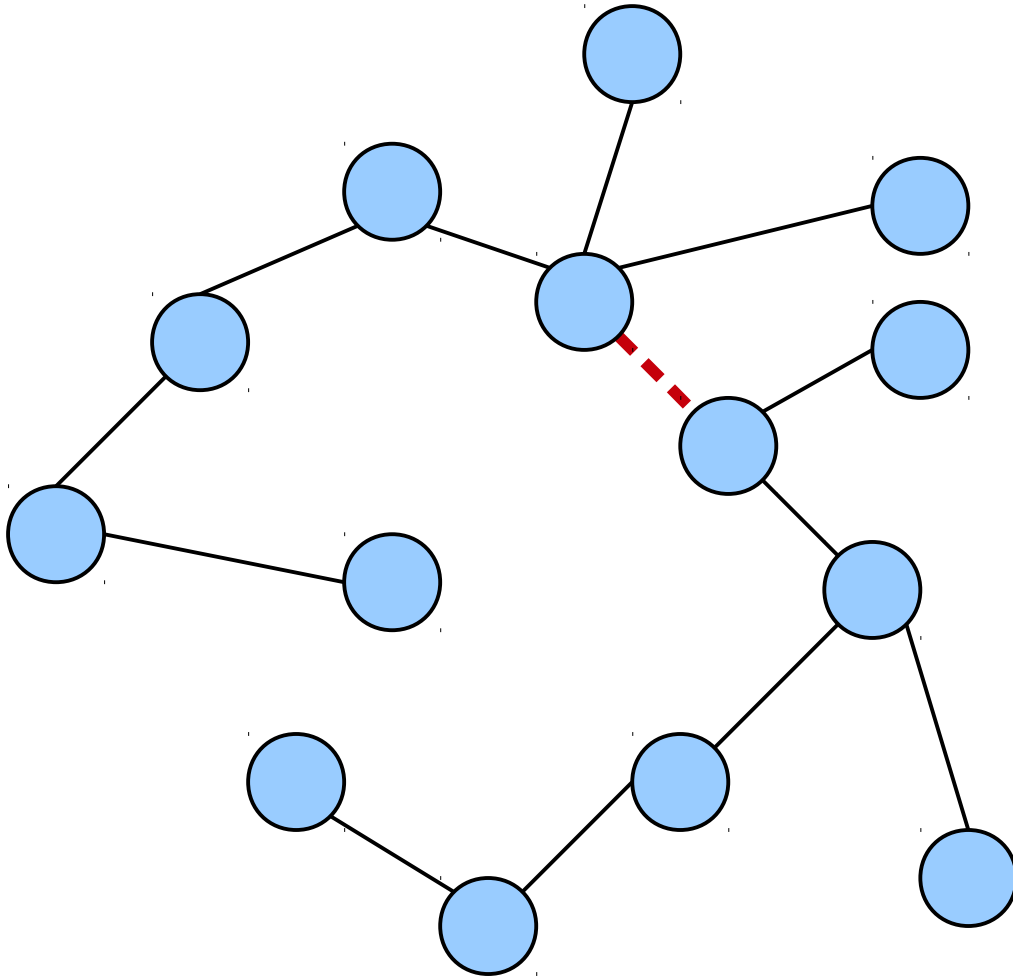
Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

Consider an arbitrary tree  
with  $k+1$  nodes.



Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

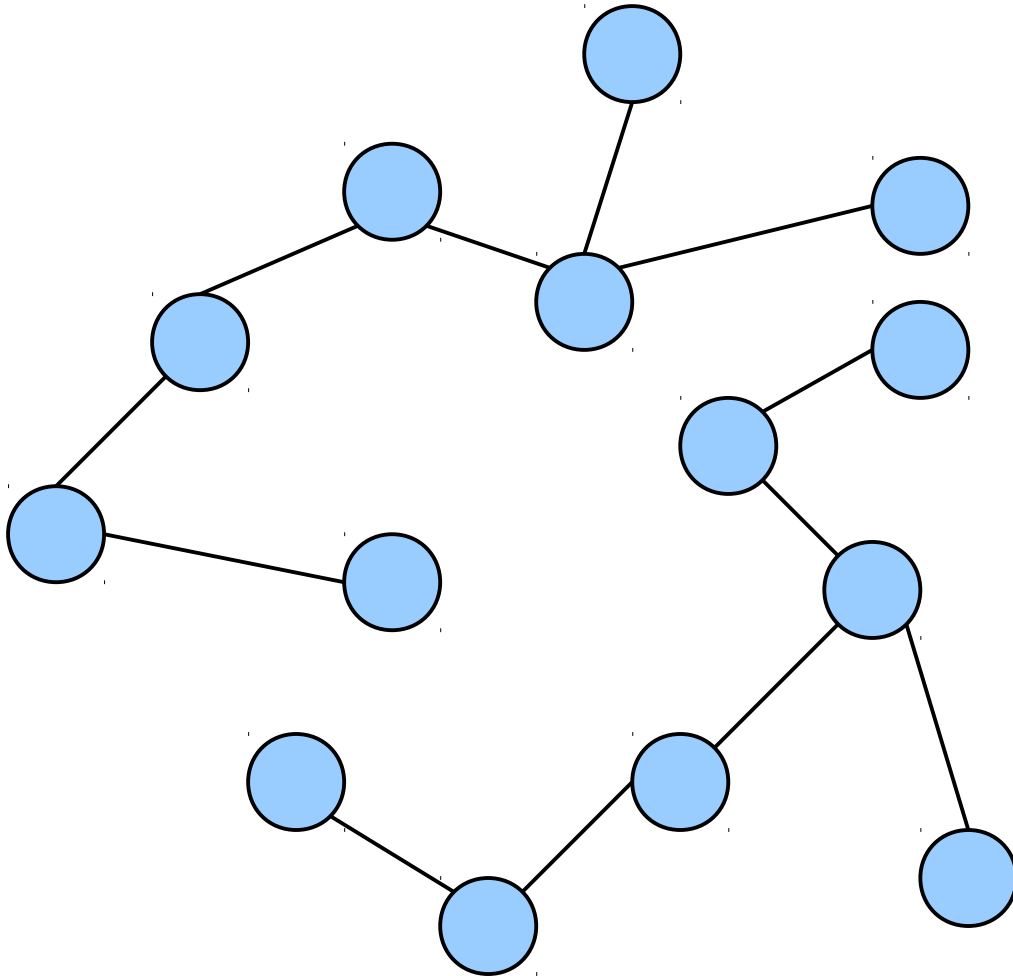
Consider an arbitrary tree with  $k+1$  nodes.





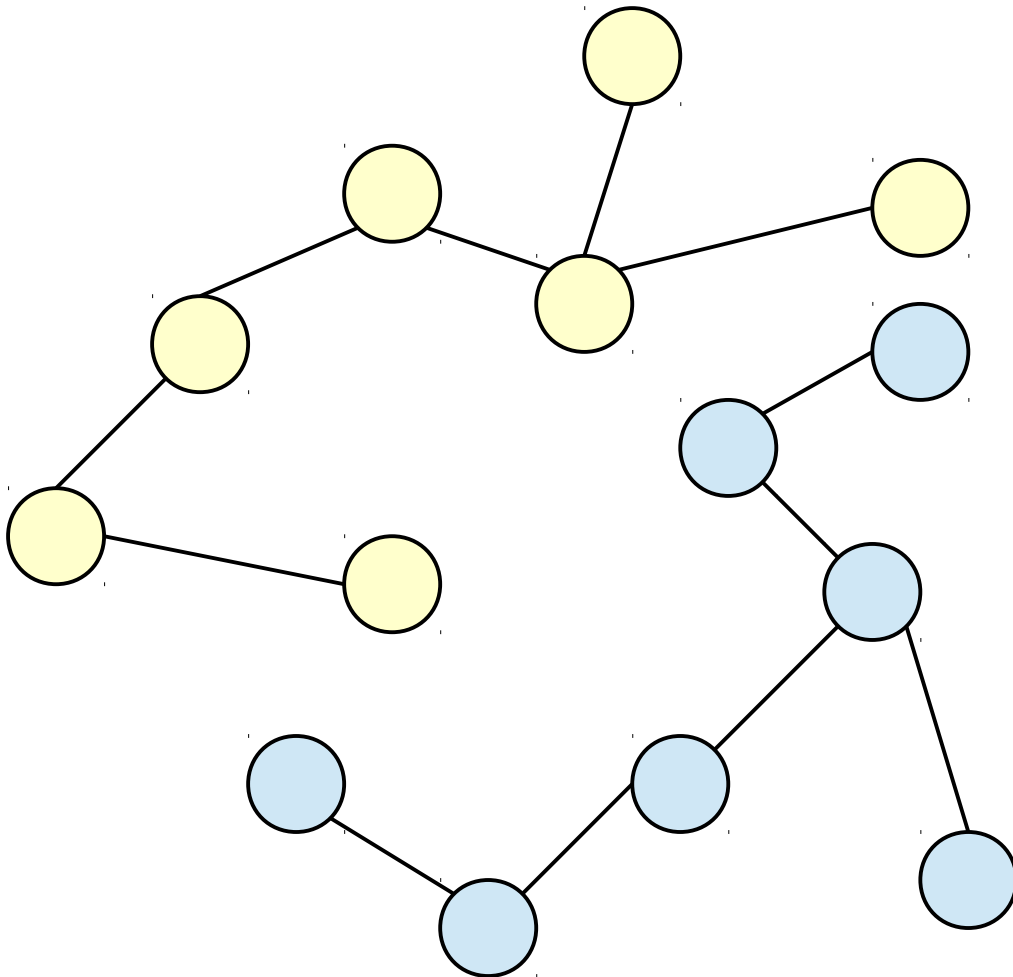
Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

Consider an arbitrary tree  
with  $k+1$  nodes.



Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

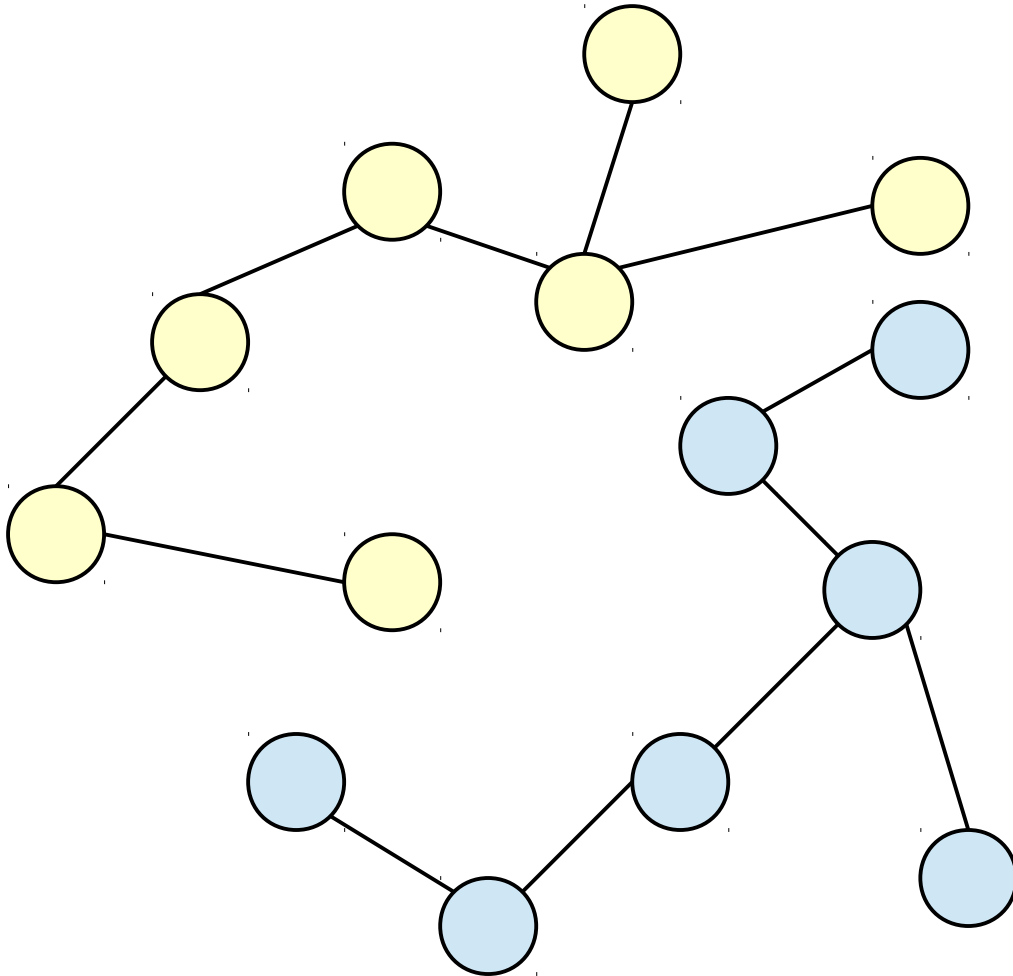
Consider an arbitrary tree  
with  $k+1$  nodes.



Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

Consider an arbitrary tree  
with  $k+1$  nodes.

Suppose there are  $r$  nodes in  
the yellow tree.

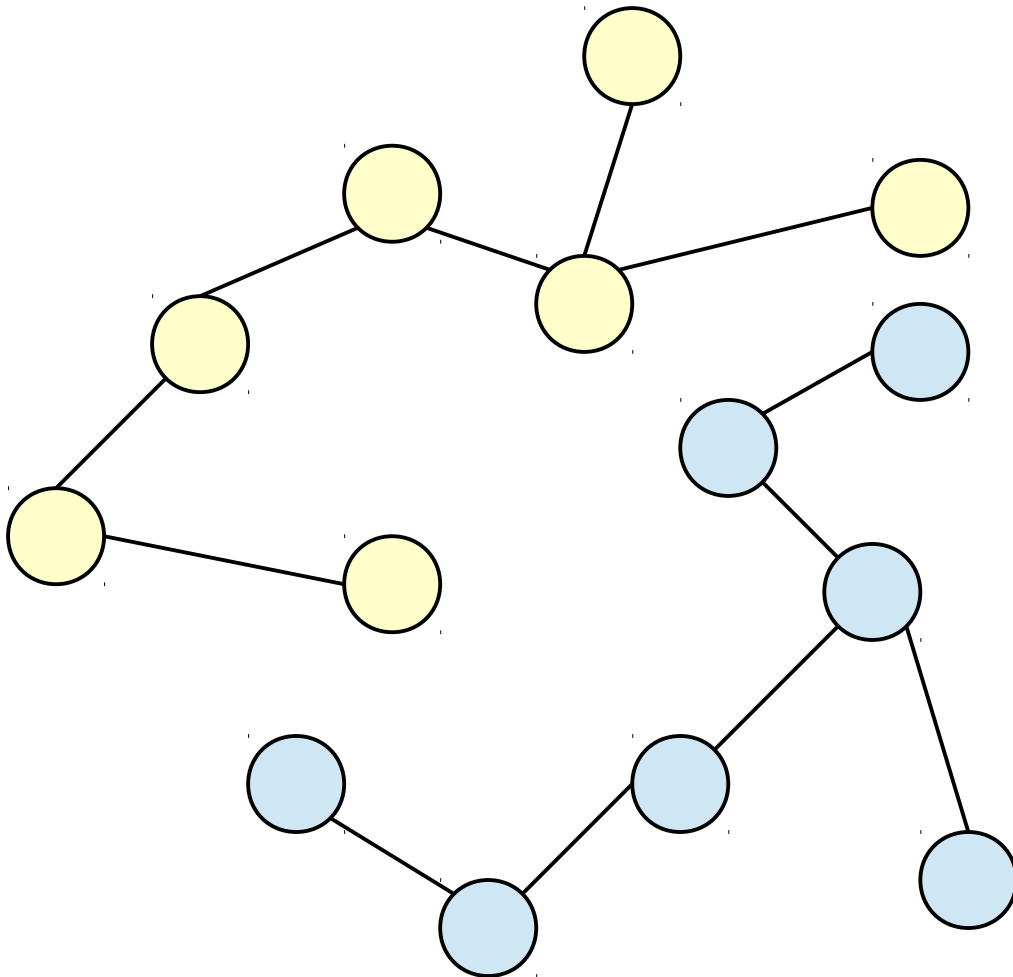


Assume any tree with  
at most  $k$  nodes has  
one more node than  
edge.

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.



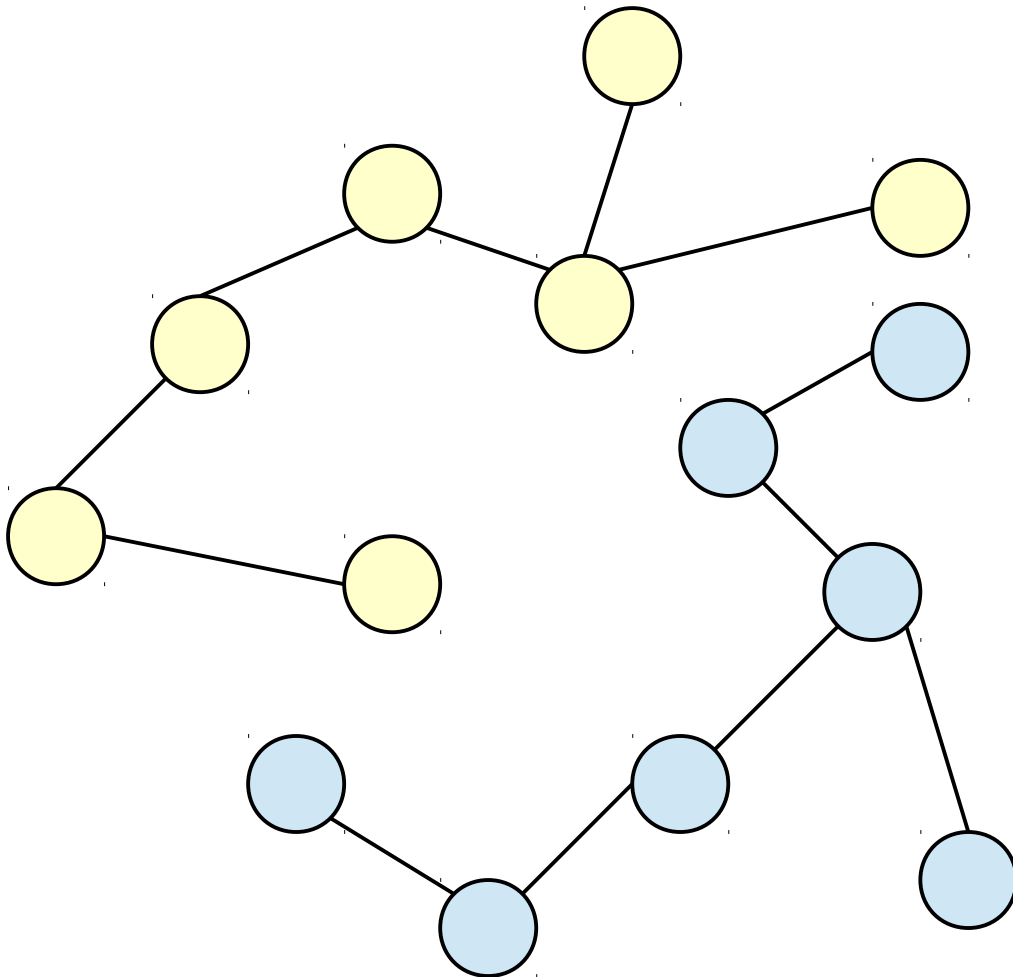
Assume any tree with at most  $k$  nodes has one more node than edge.

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.

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



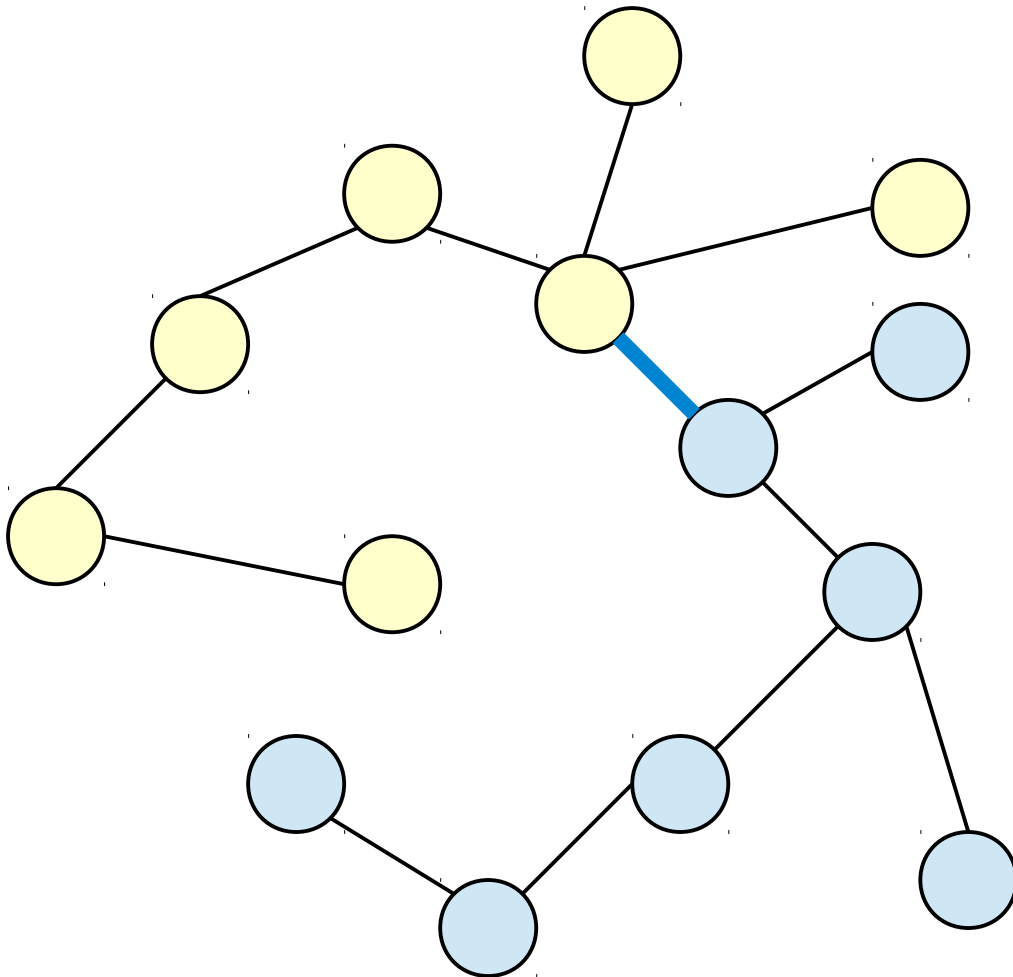
Assume any tree with at most  $k$  nodes has one more node than edge.

Consider an arbitrary tree with  $k+1$  nodes.

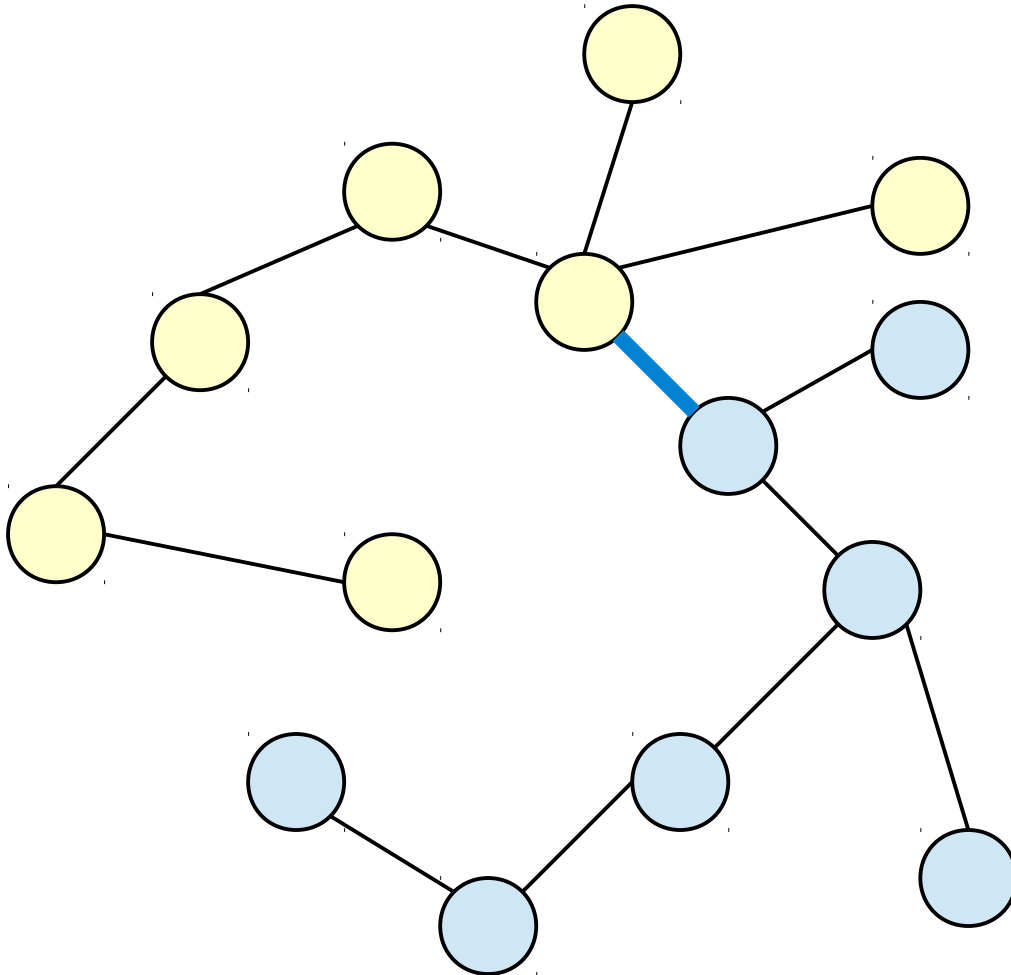
Suppose there are  $r$  nodes in the yellow tree.

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

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



Assume any tree with at most  $k$  nodes has one more node than edge.



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.

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

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

***Theorem:*** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.



**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.”

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.”  
We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.”

We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.



**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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  $T_2$ .

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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  $T_1$ .

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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  $T$ .

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.



**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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. ■

**Theorem:** If  $T$  is a tree with  $n \geq 1$  nodes, then  $T$  has  $n-1$  edges.

**Proof:** Let  $P(n)$  be the statement “any tree with  $n$  nodes has  $n-1$  edges.” We will prove by induction that  $P(n)$  holds for all  $n \geq 1$ , from which the theorem follows.

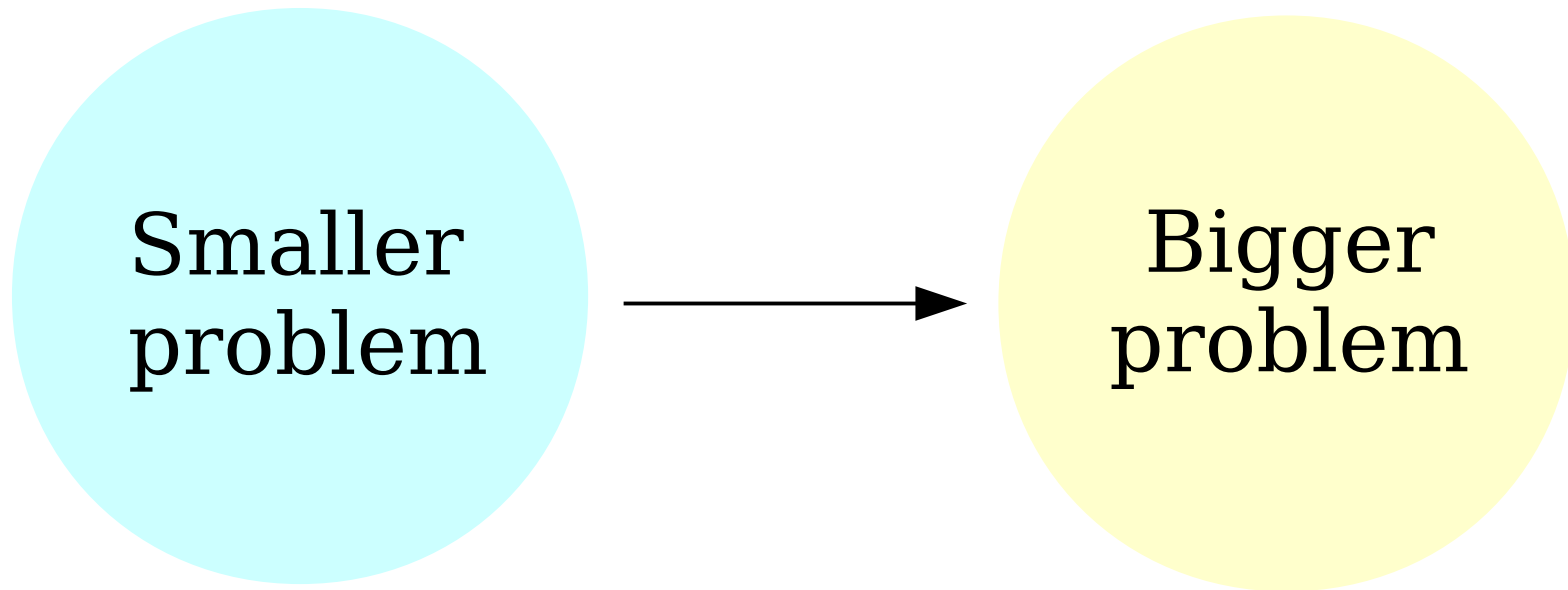
As a base case, we will prove  $P(1)$ , that any tree with 1 node has 0 edges. Any such tree has single node, so it cannot have any edges.

Now, assume for some arbitrary  $k \geq 1$  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.

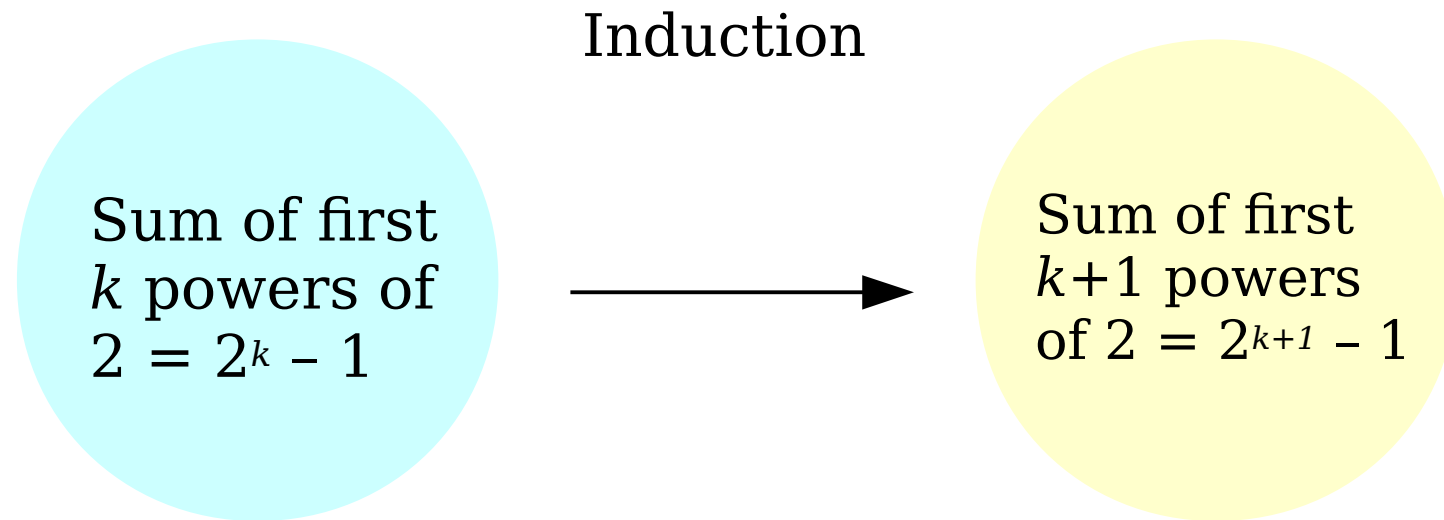
Consider any tree  $T$  with  $k+1$  nodes. Since  $T$  has at least two nodes and is connected, it must contain at least one edge. Choose any edge in  $T$  and delete it. This splits  $T$  into two nonempty trees  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ . Every edge in  $T$  is part of  $T_1$ , is part of  $T_2$ , or is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

# Induction vs. Complete Induction



# Induction vs. Complete Induction



# Induction vs. Complete Induction

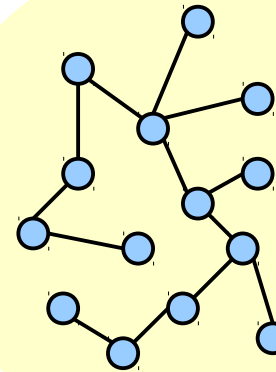
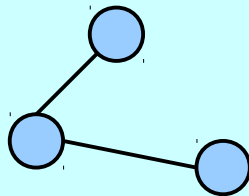
Induction

Sum of first  
 $k$  powers of  
2 =  $2^k - 1$

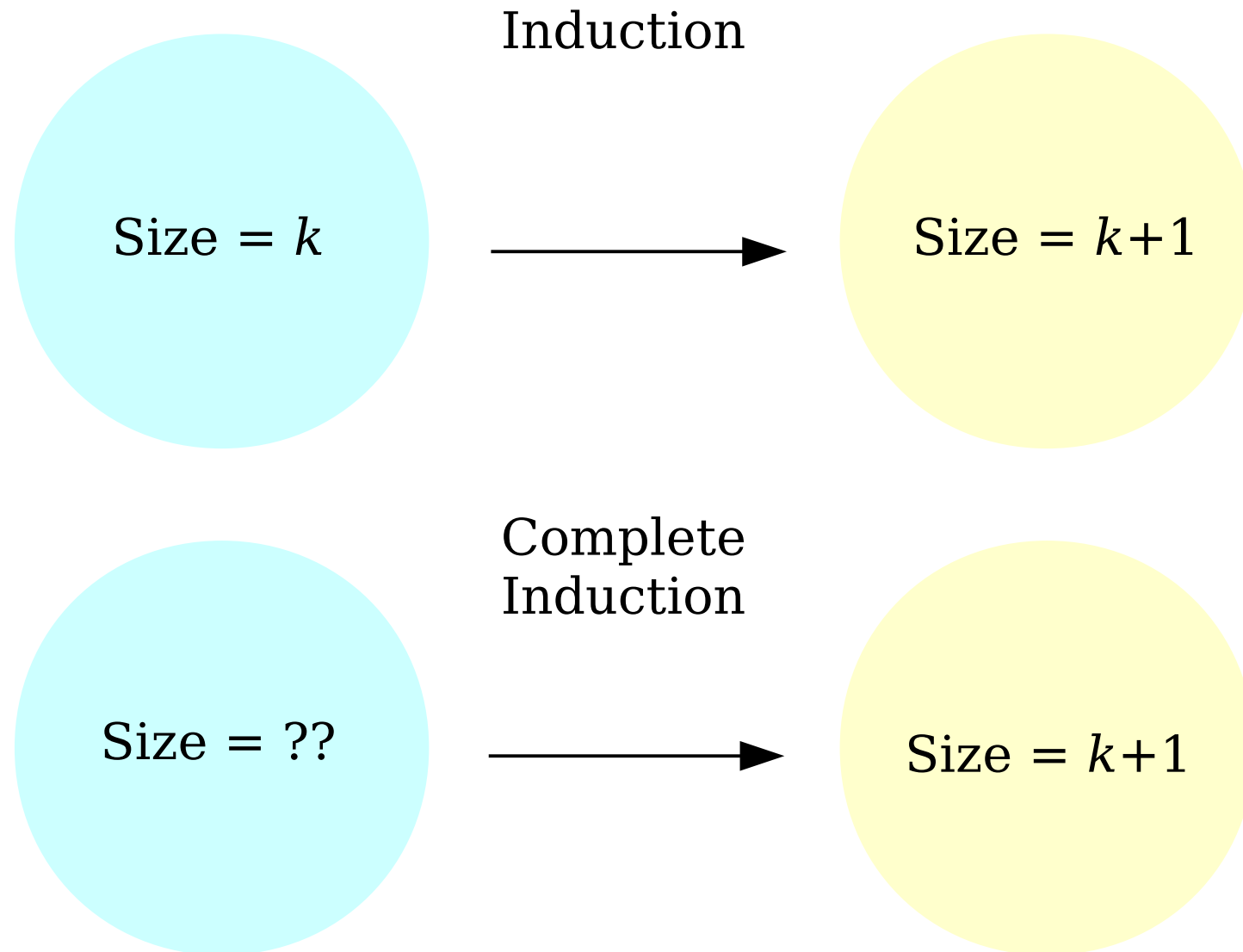


Sum of first  
 $k+1$  powers  
of 2 =  $2^{k+1} - 1$

Complete  
Induction



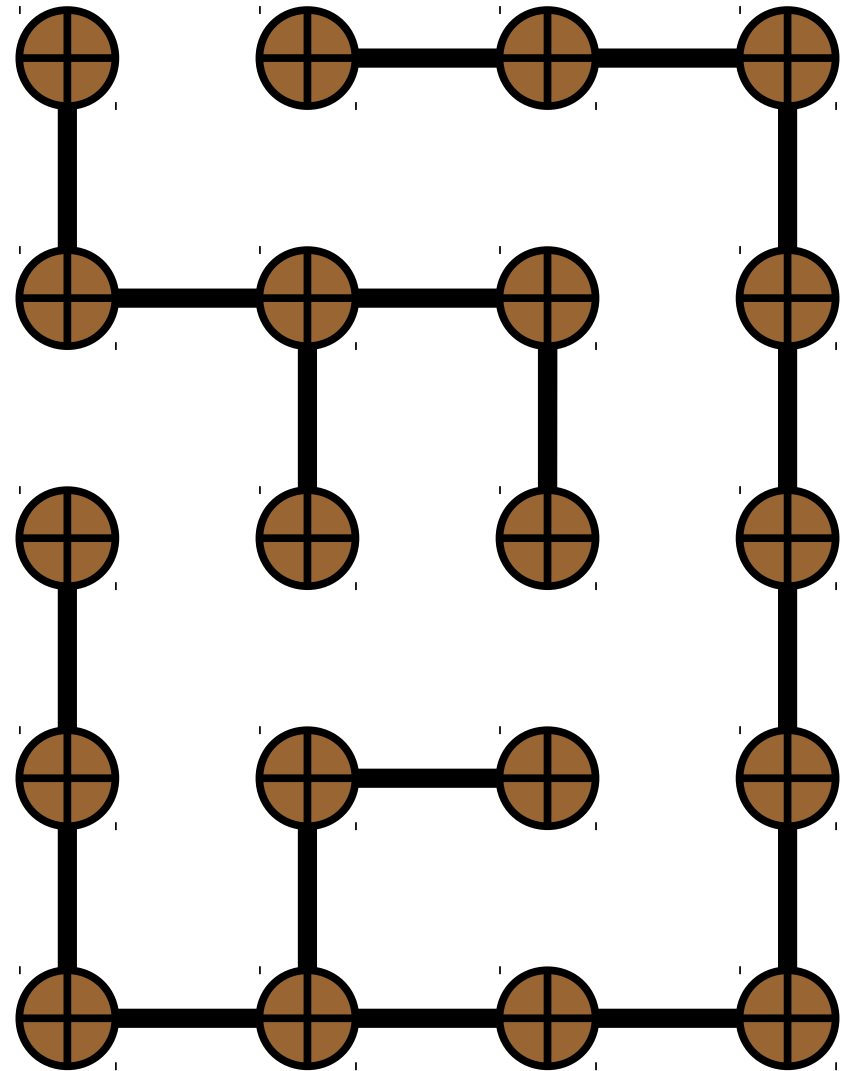
# Induction vs. Complete Induction





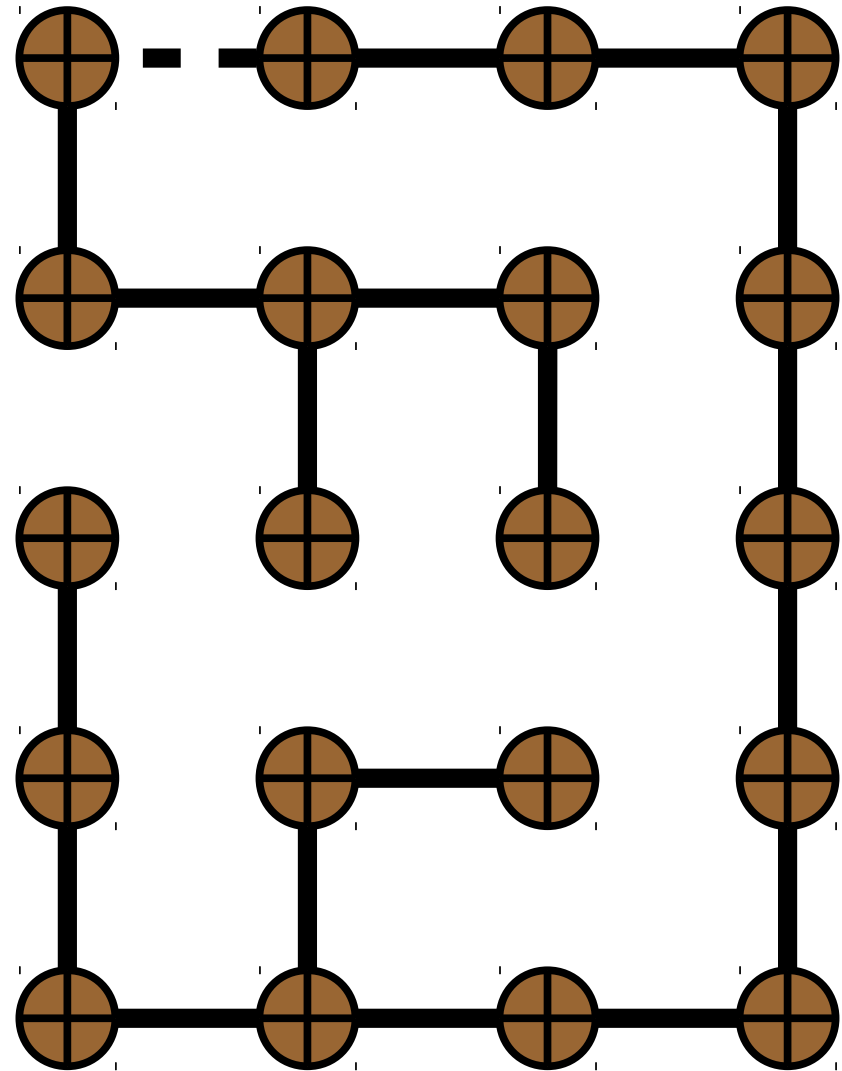
# Rat Mazes

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



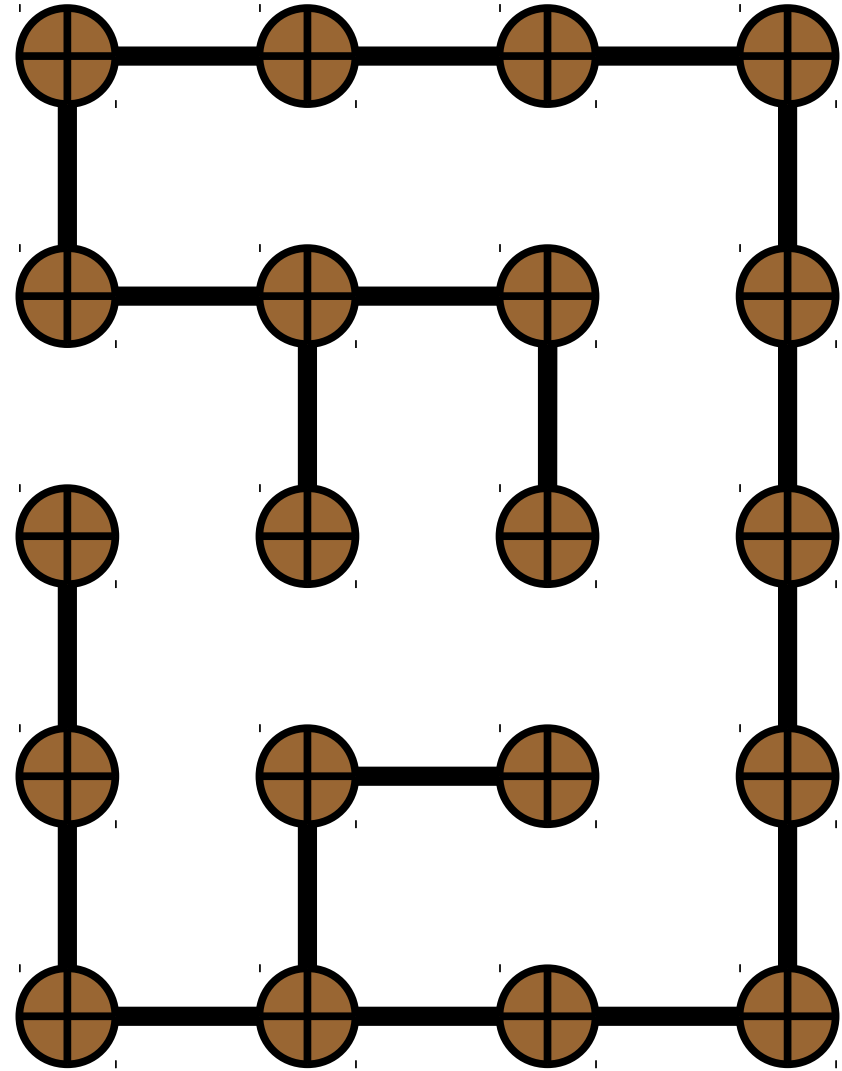
# Rat Mazes

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



# Rat Mazes

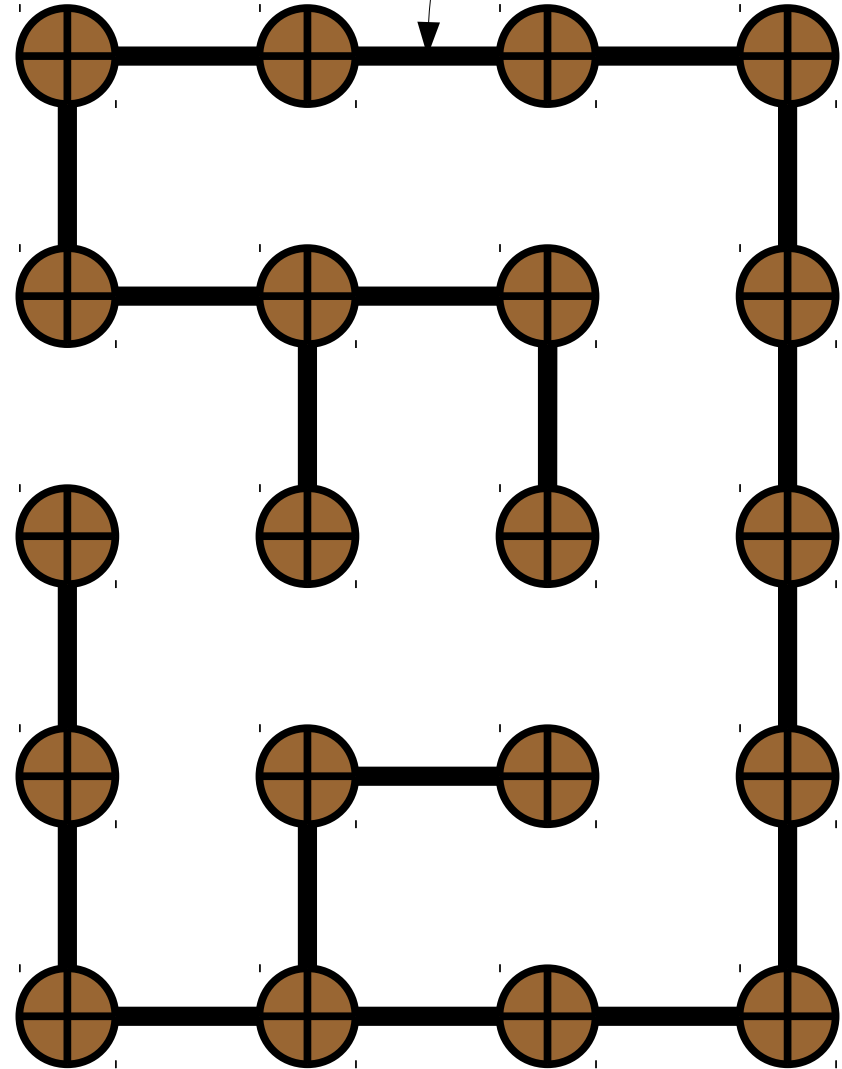
- Suppose you want to make a rat maze consisting of an  $n \times m$  grid of pegs with slats between them.
- **Question:** How many slats do you need to create?



# Rat Mazes

This is a  
tree!

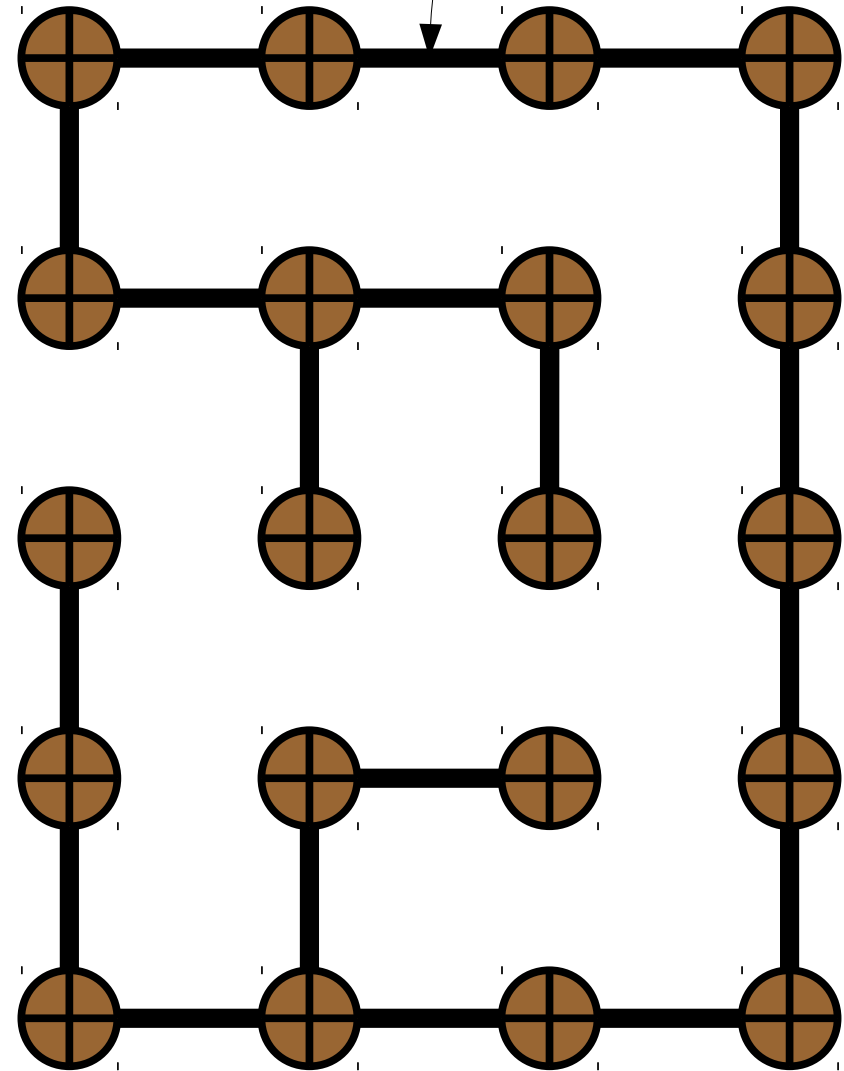
- Suppose you want to make a rat maze consisting of an  $n \times m$  grid of pegs with slats between them.
- **Question:** How many slats do you need to create?



# Rat Mazes

This is a  
tree!

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



For more on trees, take CS161 / 261 / 267!

***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.