## Mathematical Induction Part Two

## Outline for Today

- Variations on Induction
- Starting later, taking different step sizes, etc.
- "Build Up" versus "Build Down"
- An inductive nuance that follows from our general proofwriting principles.
- Complete Induction
- When one assumption isn't enough!


## Recap from Last Time

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

## If it starts true... <br> - $P(0)$ is true <br> ... and it stays true...

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

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
2^{0}+2^{1}+\ldots+2^{k-1}=2^{k}-1 . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

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

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

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\end{aligned}
$$

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

New Stuff!

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 $\boldsymbol{m}$

- To prove that $P(n)$ is true for all natural numbers greater than or equal to $\boldsymbol{m}$ :
- Show that $P(\boldsymbol{m})$ is true.
- Show that for any $k \geq \boldsymbol{m}$, 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 $\boldsymbol{m}$.


## Variations on Induction: Bigger Steps

## Subdividing a Square



## Subdividing a Square



## Subdividing a Square



## Subdividing a Square



## Subdividing a Square



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## Subdividing a Square



## Subdividing a Square



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

Try out some numbers $n$ from 1 to 13 . Which values of $n$ work?

Answer at
https://cs103.stanford.edu/pollev
$\begin{array}{llllllllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12\end{array}$

## $\begin{array}{llllllllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12\end{array}$



## $\begin{array}{llllllllllll}1 & Z & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12\end{array}$



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| 1 |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 | 8 |  |
| 3 |  |  |
| 4 | 5 | 6 |

## $\begin{array}{llllllllllll}1 & Z & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 & 9 & 10 & 11 & 12\end{array}$



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## An Insight



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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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For the inductive step, assume that for some arbitrary $k \geq 6$ that $P(k)$ is true and that there is a way to subdivide a square into $k$ squares.

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

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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.
- If you do, make sure that...
- ... you actually need all your base cases. Avoid redundant base cases that are already covered by a mix of other base cases and your inductive step.
- ... you cover all the numbers you need to cover. Trace out your reasoning and make sure all the numbers you need to cover really are covered.
- As with a proof by cases, you don't need to separately prove you've covered all the options. We trust you.


## 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.


## The Colored Cubes Problem



Here are 20 cubes of 4 different colors. Split them into 4 groups of 5 cubes each so that each group has cubes of at most two different colors.


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$$
\begin{array}{rcc}
\hline \square & \boxed{\nabla} \boxed{\nabla} & \boxed{\nabla} \\
& \boxed{+}
\end{array}
$$



Here are 20 cubes of 4 different colors. Split them into 4 groups of 5 cubes each so that each group has cubes of at most two different colors.


> Oops - three colors left:

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Here are 25 cubes of 5 different colors.
Split them into 5 groups of 5 cubes each so that each group has cubes of at most two different colors.


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*     *         * 

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*     *         * 

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A good split of a group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ colors is a way of splitting them into groups of five each where each group has cubes of at most two colors.

Theorem: For any group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ colors, there is a good split of those cubes.
$P(n)$ is the statement "for any group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ colors, there exists a good split of those cubes."

$$
P(0)
$$

Theorem: For any group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ different colors, there exists a good split of those cubes into groups.
$P(n)$ is the statement "for any group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ colors, there exists a good split of those cubes."

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

Which of the following best describes the high-level structure of the inductive step of this proof?
A. Begin with a group of $5 k$ cubes of $k$ colors. Find a way to add in five new cubes and one color.
B. Begin with a group of $5 k+5$ cubes of $k+1$ colors. Find a way to remove five cubes and one color.

Answer at https://cs103.stanford.edu/pollev

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then

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Theorem: For any group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ different colors, there exists a good split of those cubes into groups.


Idea: Begin with $5 k+5$ cubes and $k+1$ colors. Find a way to remove five cubes and one color.


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Idea: Begin with $5 k+5$ cubes and $k+1$ colors. Find a way to remove five cubes and one color.

Find a color that appears five or fewer times.

If it's exactly five times, use all cubes of that color in a single group.

Otherwise, use all cubes of that color and
 "top off" with cubes of another color.

Idea: Begin with $5 k+5$ cubes and $k+1$ colors. Find a way to remove five cubes and one color.

## Theorem: Every group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ colors has a good split.

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As our base case, we prove $P(0)$, that any group of 0 cubes of 0 colors has a good split.

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As our base case, we prove $P(0)$, that any group of 0 cubes of 0 colors has a good split. Pick any group of 0 cubes.

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Pick any group of $5 k+5$ cubes of $k+1$ colors.

## We need to find a color that appears five or fewer times. What mathematical tool guarantees such a color exists? <br> Answer at https://cs103.stanford.edu/pollev

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Pick any group of $5 k+5$ cubes of $k+1$ colors. By the GPHP, there is a color (call it blue) appearing on $b \leq 5$ cubes.

> A nice abbreviation of "generalized pigeonhole principle."

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Case 1: $b=5$.
Case 2: $b<5$.

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```
    We need to argue there's
some other color that we can
use to "top off" the group
    of the blue cubes. How
        do we do that?
```

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## A Neat Application

- This result on colored cubes forms the basis for the alias method, a fast algorithm for simulated rolls of a loaded die in software.
- This in turn has applications throughout computer science.
- Want to learn more? Check out this blog post, which shows how to apply this result.


## An Observation



Start with more cubes


Get to
fewer cubes

fewer squares


Get to more squares

## Following the Rules

- When working with square subdivisions, our predicate looked like this:
$P(n)$ is "there exists a way to subdivide
a square into $n$ squares."
- When working with colored cubes, our predicate looked like this:
$P(n)$ is "for any group of $5 n$ cubes of $n$ colors, there is a good split of those cubes."
- With squares, the quantifier is $\exists$. With cubes, the first quantifier is $\forall$.
- This fundamentally changes the "feel" of induction.


## Build Up with $\exists$

- In the case of squares, in our inductive step, we prove If
there exists a subdivision into $k$ squares, then
there exists a subdivision into $k+3$ squares.
- Assuming the antecedent gives us a concrete subdivision into $k$ squares.
- Proving the consequent means finding some way to subdivide in to $k+3$ squares.
- The inductive step goal is to "build up:" start with a smaller number of squares, and somehow work out what to do to get a larger number of squares.


## Build Down with $\forall$

- In the colored cubes case, in our inductive step, we prove If
for all groups of $5 k$ cubes of $k$ colors, there's a good split then
for all groups of $5 k+5$ cubes of $k+1$ colors, there's a good split
- Assuming the antecedent means once we find $5 k$ cubes and $k$ colors, we can group them into a good split.
- Proving the consequent means picking an arbitrary group of $5 k+5$ cubes of $k+1$ colors and looking for a good split.
- The inductive step goal is to "build down:" start with a larger set of cubes, then find a way to turn it into a smaller set of cubes.


## Some Notes

- Not all predicates $P(n)$ will have the form outlined here.
- That's okay! Just use the normal rules for assuming and proving things.
- Think of these as quick shorthands rather than fundamentally new strategies.
- In all cases, assume $P(k)$ and prove $P(k+1)$.
- All that changes is what you do to assume $P(k)$ and what you do to prove $P(k+1)$.
- When in doubt, consult the assume/prove table.
- It really does work for all cases!


## Time-Out for Announcements!

## Midterm 1

- You're done with the midterm! Congrats!
- We will be grading the exam over the weekend and will release solutions and statistics as soon as they're ready.
- In the meantime, we're happy to discuss the problems in office hours or over EdStem, though we can't comment on specifics of how we will be grading.


## Problem Set Four

- PS4 is due at the normal Friday 3:00PM time this week.
- You can use a late day to extend the deadline to Saturday at 3:00PM if you'd like.
- You know the drill: ask questions on EdStem or office hours if you have them. That's what we're here for!

Back to CS103!

## Complete Induction

## Guess what?

## It's time for

## Mathematical Calesthenics!

## It's time for

## Mathematicalesthenics!

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.

## 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.

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

- $P(0)$ is true

If it starts true...
and

# for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, if $P(0), \ldots$, 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 $\boldsymbol{P ( 0 )}, \boldsymbol{P}(\mathbf{1}), \boldsymbol{P}(\mathbf{2}), \ldots$, and $\boldsymbol{P}(\boldsymbol{k})$ are all true.
- Prove $P(k+1)$.
- Conclude that $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

An Example: Eating a Chocolate Bar




## Eating a Chocolate Bar

- You have a $1 \times n$ chocolate bar subdivided into $1 \times 1$ squares.
- You eat the chocolate bar from left to right by breaking off one or more squares and eating them in one (possibly enormous) bite.
- How many ways can you eat a...
- $1 \times 1$ chocolate bar?
- $1 \times 2$ chocolate bar?

- $1 \times 3$ chocolate bar?
- $1 \times 4$ chocolate bar?



There are eight ways to eat a $1 \times 4$ chocolate bar.


If you eat one piece first, you then eat the remaining $1 \times 3$
chocolate bar any way you'd like.


There are eight ways to eat a $1 \times 4$ chocolate bar.

If you eat two pieces first, you then eat the remaining $1 \times 2$
chocolate bar any way you'd like.

There are eight ways to eat a $1 \times 4$ chocolate bar.

If you eat three pieces first, you then eat the remaining $1 \times 1$
chocolate bar any way you'd like.


There are eight ways to eat a $1 \times 4$ chocolate bar.

Or you could eat the whole chocolate bar at
once. Ah, gluttony.


There are eight ways to eat a $1 \times 4$ chocolate bar.

## Eating a Chocolate Bar

- There's...
- 1 way to eat a $1 \times 1$ chocolate bar,
- 2 ways to eat a $1 \times 2$ chocolate bar,
- 4 ways to eat a $1 \times 3$ chocolate bar, and
- 8 ways to eat a $1 \times 4$ chocolate bar.
- Our guess: There are $2^{n-1}$ ways to eat a $1 \times n$ chocolate bar for any natural number $n \geq 1$.
- And we think it has something to do with this insight: we eat the bar either by
- eating the whole thing in one bite, or
- eating some piece of size $k$, then eating the remaining $n-k$ pieces however we'd like.
- Let's formalize this!

Theorem: For any natural number $n \geq 1$, the number of ways to eat a $1 \times n$ chocolate bar from left to right is $2^{n-1}$.

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## Proof:

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As our base case, we prove $P(1)$, that the number of ways to eat a $1 \times 1$ chocolate bar from left to right is $2^{1-1}=1$.

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## More on Chocolate Bars

- Imagine you have an $m \times n$ chocolate bar. Whenever you eat a square, you have to eat all squares above it and to the left.
- How many ways are there to eat the chocolate bar?

- Open Problem: Find a non-recursive exact formula for this number, or give an approximation whose error drops to zero as $m$ and $n$ tend toward infinity.


## Induction vs. Complete Induction



## Induction vs. Complete Induction



Complete Induction


## Induction vs. Complete Induction



Complete Induction


## Induction vs. Complete Induction



Regular induction is
great when you know exactly how much smaller your "smaller" problem instance is.

## Induction vs. Complete Induction

| Complete induction is |
| :---: |
| great when you know |
| things get smaller, but |
| you're not sure by how |
| much. |

## Exactly k+3 squares



An Important Milestone

## Recap: Discrete Mathematics

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

Induction
Graphs
Formal Proofs

Functions
The Pigeonhole Principle
Mathematical Logic

Set Theory

- 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.

