

Induction

Induction is a very useful proof technique

Induction and Recursion

CSC-2259 Discrete Structures

In computer science, induction is used to prove properties of algorithms

Induction and recursion are closely related

- Recursion is a description method for algorithms
- Induction is a proof method suitable for recursive algorithms

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Use induction to prove that a proposition $P(n)$ is true:

Inductive Basis: Prove that $P(1)$ is true

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume $P(k)$ is true
(for any positive integer k)

Inductive Step: Prove that $P(k+1)$ is true

Inductive Hypothesis: Assume $P(k)$ is true
(for any positive integer k)

Inductive Step: Prove that $P(k+1)$ is true

In other words in inductive step we prove:

$$P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$$

for every positive integer k

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Inductive basis

$$\begin{array}{l} P(1) \\ \text{True} \end{array}$$

Inductive Step

$$\begin{array}{l} P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1) \\ \text{True} \end{array}$$

Induction as a rule of inference:

$$[P(1) \wedge \forall k(P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1))] \rightarrow \forall n P(n)$$

Proposition true for all positive integers

$$P(1) \rightarrow P(2) \rightarrow P(3) \rightarrow P(4) \rightarrow \dots$$

Theorem: $P(n): 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Proof:

Inductive Basis: $P(1): 1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}$

Inductive Hypothesis: assume that it holds

$$P(k): 1 + 2 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$

Inductive Step: We will prove

$$P(k+1): 1 + 2 + \dots + k + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2}$$

Inductive Step:

$$P(k+1):$$

$$\begin{aligned} & 1 + 2 + \dots + k + (k+1) \\ &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \\ &= \frac{k(k+1) + 2(k+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

(inductive hypothesis)

End of Proof

Harmonic numbers

$$H_j = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{j}$$

$j = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Example: $H_4 = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{25}{12}$

Theorem: $H_{2^n} \geq 1 + \frac{n}{2} \quad n \geq 0$

Proof:

Inductive Basis: $n = 0$

$$H_{2^0} = H_{2^0} = H_1 = 1 = 1 + \frac{0}{2} = 1 + \frac{n}{2}$$

Inductive Hypothesis: $n = k$

Suppose it holds: $H_{2^k} \geq 1 + \frac{k}{2}$

$$H_{2^{k+1}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}$$

$$= H_{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}$$

$$\geq \left(1 + \frac{k}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \quad \text{from inductive hypothesis}$$

$$\geq \left(1 + \frac{k}{2}\right) + 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{k}{2}\right) + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{k+1}{2}$$

End of Proof

Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

We will show: $H_{2^{k+1}} \geq 1 + \frac{k+1}{2}$

Theorem: $H_{2^n} \leq 1 + n$ $n \geq 0$

Proof:

Inductive Basis: $n = 0$

$$H_{2^0} = H_{2^0} = H_1 = 1 = 1 + 0 = 1 + n$$

Inductive Hypothesis: $n = k$

Suppose it holds: $H_{2^k} \leq 1 + k$

Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

We will show: $H_{2^{k+1}} \leq 1 + (k + 1)$

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$$\begin{aligned} H_{2^{k+1}} &= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \\ &= H_{2^k} + \frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \\ &\leq (1+k) + \frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \quad \text{from inductive hypothesis} \\ &\leq (1+k) + 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^k + 1} \\ &\leq (1+k) + 1 \\ &= 1 + (k+1) \end{aligned}$$

End of Proof

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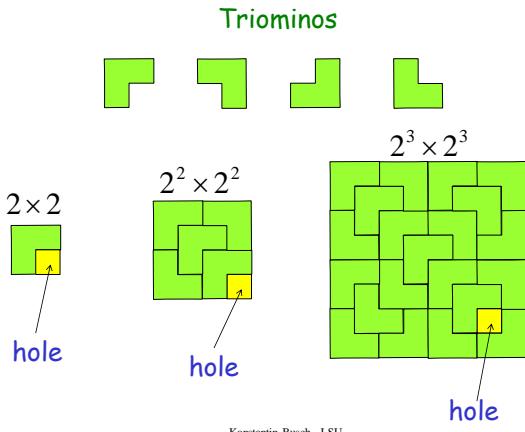
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We have shown: $1 + \frac{n}{2} \leq H_{2^n} \leq 1 + n$

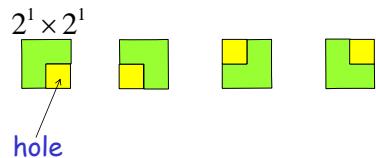
It holds that: $H_{2^{\lfloor \log k \rfloor}} \leq H_k \leq H_{2^{\lceil \log k \rceil}}$

$$\begin{aligned} &\downarrow \\ 1 + \frac{\lfloor \log k \rfloor}{2} &\leq H_k \leq 1 + \lceil \log k \rceil \\ &\downarrow \\ H_k &= \Theta(\log k) \end{aligned}$$



Theorem: Every $2^n \times 2^n$, $n \geq 1$ checkerboard with one square removed can be tiled with triominoes

Proof: **Inductive Basis:** $n = 1$

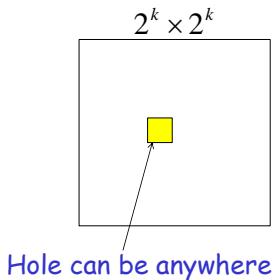


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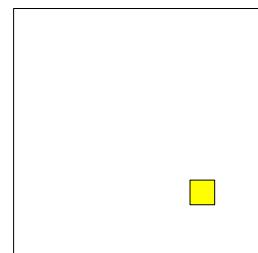
Inductive Hypothesis: $n = k$

Assume that a $2^k \times 2^k$ checkerboard can be tiled with the hole anywhere



Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

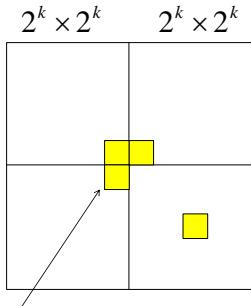
$2^{k+1} \times 2^{k+1}$



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By inductive hypothesis $2^k \times 2^k$ squares with a hole can be tiled

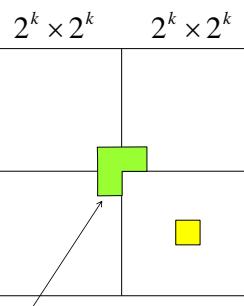
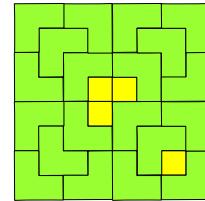


add three artificial holes

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$2^3 \times 2^3$ case:

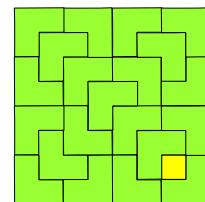


Replace the three holes with a triomino
Now, the whole area can be tiled

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$2^3 \times 2^3$ case:



End of Proof

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Strong Induction

To prove $P(n)$:

Inductive Basis: Prove that $P(1)$ is true

Inductive Hypothesis:

Assume $P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(k)$ is true

Inductive Step: Prove that $P(k+1)$ is true

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Theorem: Every integer $n \geq 2$ is a product of primes (at least one prime in the product)

Proof: (Strong Induction)

Inductive Basis: $n = 2$

Number 2 is a prime

Inductive Hypothesis: $2 \leq n \leq k$

Suppose that every integer between 2 and k is a product of primes

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Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

$$k + 1 = a \cdot b \quad 2 \leq a, b \leq k$$

If $k + 1$ is prime then the proof is finished

If $k + 1$ is not a prime then it is composite:

$$k + 1 = a \cdot b \quad 2 \leq a, b \leq k$$

By the inductive hypothesis:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} i, j \geq 1 \\ a = p_1 p_2 \cdots p_i \\ b = q_1 q_2 \cdots q_j \\ \text{primes} \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow k + 1 = a \cdot b = p_1 \cdots p_i q_1 \cdots q_j \quad \text{primes}$$

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End of Proof

Theorem: Every postage amount $n \geq 12$ can be generated by using 4-cent and 5-cent stamps

Proof: (Strong Induction)

Inductive Basis: We examine four cases (because of the inductive step)

$$n = 12 = 4 + 4 + 4$$

$$n = 13 = 4 + 4 + 5$$

$$n = 14 = 5 + 5 + 4$$

$$n = 15 = 5 + 5 + 5$$

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Inductive Hypothesis: $12 \leq n \leq k$

Assume that every postage amount between 12 and k can be generated by using 4-cent and 5-cent stamps

$$n = a \cdot 4 + b \cdot 5$$

Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

If $12 \leq k \leq 14$ then the inductive step follows directly from inductive basis

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Consider: $k \geq 15$

$$k + 1 = (k - 3) + 4$$

$$12 \leq (k - 3) \leq k$$



Inductive hypothesis

$$(k - 3) = a' \cdot 4 + b' \cdot 5$$



$$k + 1 = (k - 3) + 4 = (a' + 1) \cdot 4 + b' \cdot 5$$

End of Proof

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Recursion

Recursion is used to describe functions, sets, algorithms

Example: Factorial function $f(n) = n!$

Recursive Basis: $f(0) = 1$

Recursive Step: $f(n+1) = (n+1) \cdot f(n)$

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Recursive algorithm for factorial

```
factorial( n ) {  
    if n = 1 then //recursive basis  
        return 1  
    else          //recursive step  
        return n · factorial(n-1)  
}
```

Fibonacci numbers

$f_0, f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots$

Recursive Basis: $f_0 = 0, f_1 = 1$

Recursive Step: $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$

$n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$

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$$\begin{aligned}f_0 &= 0 \\f_1 &= 1 \\f_2 &= f_1 + f_0 = 1 + 0 = 1 \\f_3 &= f_2 + f_1 = 1 + 1 = 2 \\f_4 &= f_3 + f_2 = 2 + 1 = 3 \\f_5 &= f_4 + f_3 = 3 + 2 = 5 \\f_6 &= f_5 + f_4 = 5 + 3 = 8 \\f_7 &= f_6 + f_5 = 8 + 5 = 13 \\&\vdots\end{aligned}$$

Recursive algorithm for Fibonacci function

```
fibonacci( n ) {  
    if n ∈ {0,1} then //recursive basis  
        return n  
    else          //recursive step  
        return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)  
}
```

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Iterative algorithm for Fibonacci function

```

fibonacci(n) {
    if n=0 then y ← 0
    else {
        x ← 0
        y ← 1
        for i ← 1 to n-1 do {
            z ← x + y
            x ← y
            y ← z
        }
        return y
    }
}

```

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Theorem: $f_n > \delta^{n-2}$ for $n \geq 3$

$$\delta = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \quad (\text{golden ratio})$$

Proof: Proof by (strong) induction

Inductive Basis: $n = 3 \quad n = 4$

$$f_3 = 2 > \delta$$

$$f_4 = 3 > \delta^2$$

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Inductive Hypothesis: $3 \leq n \leq k$

Suppose it holds $f_n > \delta^{n-2}$

Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

We will prove $f_{k+1} > \delta^{(k-1)}$ for $4 \leq k$

δ is the solution to equation $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$

$$\begin{array}{c}
\downarrow \\
\delta^2 = \delta + 1 \\
\downarrow \\
\delta^{k-1} = \delta^2 \cdot \delta^{k-3} = (\delta + 1)\delta^{k-3} = \delta^{k-2} + \delta^{k-3} \\
\downarrow \\
f_{k+1} = f_k + f_{k-1} \geq \delta^{k-2} + \delta^{k-3} = \delta^{k-1}
\end{array}$$

induction hypothesis End of Proof

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Greatest common divisor

Recursive Basis: $\gcd(a, 0) = a$

Recursive Step: $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, a \bmod b)$
 $a > b$

Recursive algorithm for greatest common divisor

```
gcd(a,b){ //assume a>b
    if b=0 then //recursive basis
        return a
    else          //recursive step
        return gcd(b,a mod b)
}
```

Lamé's Theorem:

The Euclidian algorithm for $\gcd(a, b)$, $a \geq b$
uses at most $5 \cdot \log_{10} b$ divisions (iterations)

Proof:

We show that there is a Fibonacci relation
in the divisions of the algorithm

divisions	$a = r_0$	$b = r_1$	remainder
r_0 / r_1	$r_0 =$	$r_1 q_1 + r_2$	$0 < r_2 < r_1$
r_1 / r_2	$r_1 =$	$r_2 q_2 + r_3$	$0 < r_3 < r_2$
⋮	⋮		⋮
r_{n-2} / r_{n-1}	$r_{n-2} =$	$r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n$	$0 < r_n < r_{n-1}$
r_{n-1} / r_n	$r_{n-1} =$	$r_n q_n + 0$	first zero

result

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(a, b) &= \gcd(r_0, r_1) = \gcd(r_1, r_2) = \gcd(r_2, r_3) \dots \\ &\dots = \gcd(r_{n-2}, r_{n-1}) = \gcd(r_{n-1}, r_n) = \gcd(r_n, 0) = r_n \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 r_0 &= r_1 q_1 + r_2 \Rightarrow r_0 \geq r_1 + r_2 \\
 r_1 &= r_2 q_2 + r_3 \Rightarrow r_1 \geq r_2 + r_3 \\
 &\vdots \\
 r_{n-2} &= r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \Rightarrow r_{n-2} \geq r_{n-1} + r_n \\
 r_{n-1} &= r_n q_n + 0 \Rightarrow r_{n-1} \geq 2r_n
 \end{aligned}$$

This holds since $r_n < r_{n-1}$ and q_n is integer

This holds since $r_n = \gcd(a, b) \geq 1$

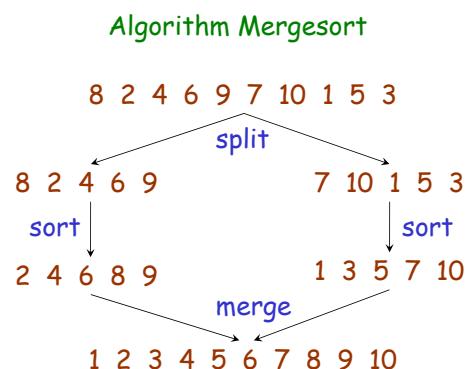
$$\begin{aligned}
 r_n &\geq 1 & r_n &\geq f_2 \\
 r_{n-1} &\geq 2r_n & r_{n-1} &\geq 2f_2 = 2 = f_3 \\
 r_{n-2} &\geq r_{n-1} + r_n & r_{n-2} &\geq r_{n-1} + r_n \geq f_3 + f_2 = f_4 \\
 r_{n-3} &\geq r_{n-2} + r_{n-1} & r_{n-3} &\geq r_{n-2} + r_{n-1} \geq f_4 + f_3 = f_5 \\
 &\vdots & &\vdots \\
 r_2 &\geq r_3 + r_4 & r_2 &\geq r_3 + r_4 \geq f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} = f_n \\
 r_1 &\geq r_2 + r_3 & r_1 &\geq r_1 + r_2 \geq f_n + f_{n-1} = f_{n+1}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} b = r_1 \geq f_{n+1} \\ f_{n+1} > \delta^{n-1} \end{array} \right\} \xrightarrow{b > \delta^{n-1}} \log_{10} b > (n-1) \log_{10} \delta$$

$$\delta = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \quad n < \frac{\log_{10} b}{\log_{10} \delta} + 1 < 5 \cdot \log_{10} b + 1$$

$$\xrightarrow{n \leq 5 \cdot \log_{10} b}$$

End of Proof



```

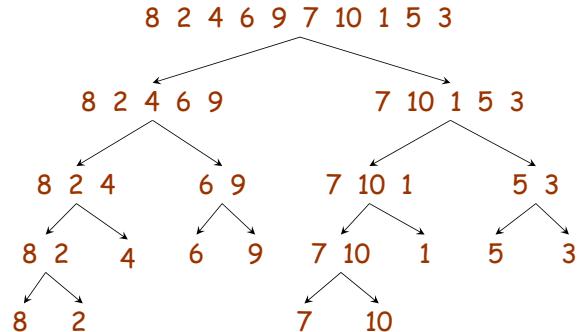
sort(  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  ){
    if  $n > 1$  then {
         $m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ 
         $A \leftarrow \text{sort}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m)$ 
         $B \leftarrow \text{sort}(a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n)$ 
        return merge( $A, B$ )
    }
    else return  $a_1$ 
}

```

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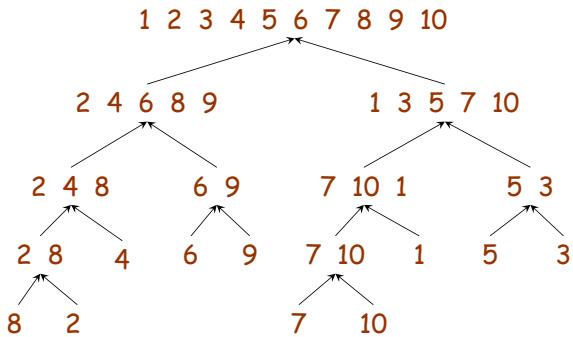
Input values of recursive calls



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Input and output values of merging



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```

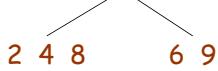
merge(  $A, B$  ) { //two sorted lists
     $L \leftarrow \emptyset$ 
    while  $A \neq \emptyset$  and  $B \neq \emptyset$  do {
        Remove smaller first element of  $A, B$ 
        from its list and insert it to  $L$ 
    }
    if  $A \neq \emptyset$  or  $B \neq \emptyset$  then {
        append remaining elements to  $L$ 
    }
    return  $L$ 
}

```

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merging 2 4 6 8 9



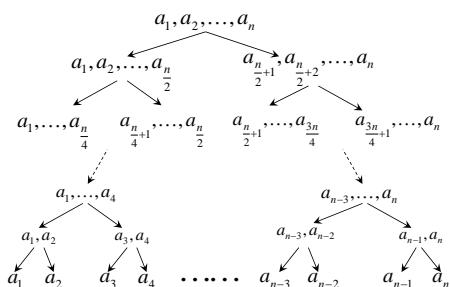
A	B	L	Comparison
2 4 8	6 9	2	2 < 6
4 8	6 9	2 4	4 < 6
8	6 9	2 4 6	6 < 8
8	9	3 4 6 8	8 < 9
	9	2 4 6 8 9	

The total number of comparisons to merge two lists A, B is at most:

$$\# \text{comparisons} \leq |A| + |B|$$

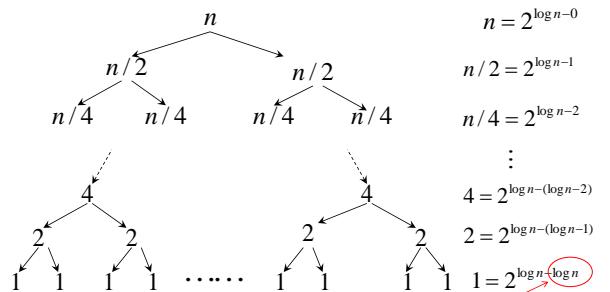
Merged size
 Length of A Length of B

Recursive invocation tree



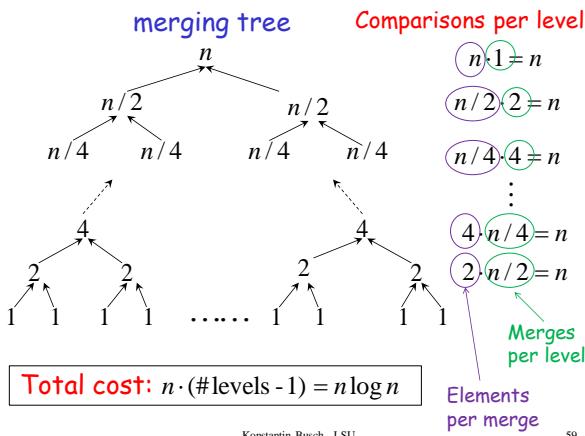
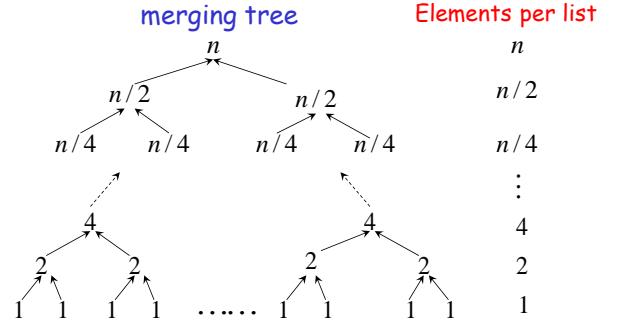
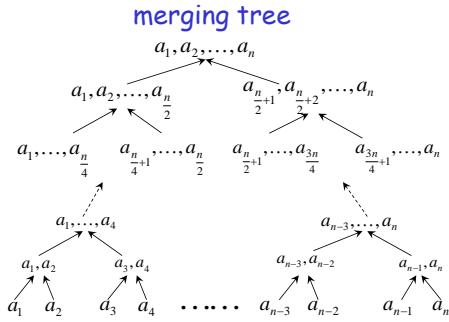
Assume
 $n = 2^k$

Recursive invocation tree Elements per list



Assume
 $n = 2^k$

#levels of tree = $1 + \log n$



If $n = 2^k$ the number of comparisons is at most $n \log n$

If $n \neq 2^k$ the number of comparisons is at most $m \log m = O(n \log n)$

$$m = 2^{\lceil \log n \rceil} < 2n$$

Time complexity of merge sort: $O(n \log n)$