

Induction and Recursion (Sections 4.1-4.3) [Section 4.4 optional]

Based on Rosen and slides by K. Busch 1

Induction

Induction is a very useful proof technique

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

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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

$$P(1)$$

True

Inductive Step

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

True

Proposition true for all positive integers

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

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Induction as a rule of inference:

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

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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

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

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Inductive Step:

$$\begin{aligned} P(k+1): & 1+2+\dots+k+(k+1) \quad (\text{inductive hypothesis}) \\ &= \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + (k+1) \\ &= \frac{k(k+1) + 2(k+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)((k+1)+1)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

End of Proof

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Harmonic numbers

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

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

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

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

Proof:

Inductive Basis: $n = 0$

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

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Inductive Hypothesis: $n = k$

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

Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof:

Inductive Basis: $n = 0$

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

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

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

$$\leq (1+k) + \frac{1}{2^k + 1} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}}$$

from inductive hypothesis

$$\leq (1+k) + 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^k + 1}$$

$$\leq (1+k) + 1$$

$$= 1 + (k+1)$$

End of Proof

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

$$1 + \frac{\lfloor \log k \rfloor}{2} \leq H_k \leq 1 + \lceil \log k \rceil$$

$$H_k \approx \log k$$

(for large k)

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Triominos

The diagram illustrates the concept of triominos and their application in tiling checkerboards. At the top, four green triominos are shown: a 2x2 square missing the top-right corner, a 2x2 square missing the top-left corner, a 2x2 square missing the bottom-left corner, and a 2x2 square missing the bottom-right corner. Below these, three checkerboards of increasing size are shown, each with a single square removed (a 'hole'). The first is a 2×2 checkerboard with the bottom-right square missing. The second is a $2^2 \times 2^2$ checkerboard with the bottom-right square missing. The third is a $2^3 \times 2^3$ checkerboard with the bottom-right square missing. Each checkerboard is filled with green triominos, and the missing square is highlighted in yellow with an arrow pointing to it and the word 'hole' written below.

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

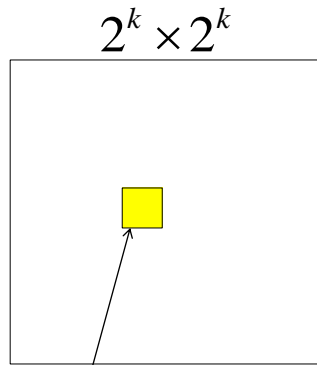
Proof: Inductive Basis: $n = 1$

The diagram shows the inductive basis for $n=1$. It features a $2^1 \times 2^1$ checkerboard with the bottom-right square missing, labeled 'hole'. To its right are three $2^1 \times 2^1$ checkerboards, each with a different square missing (top-right, top-left, and bottom-left), representing the three possible orientations of a triomino.

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Inductive Hypothesis: $n = k$

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

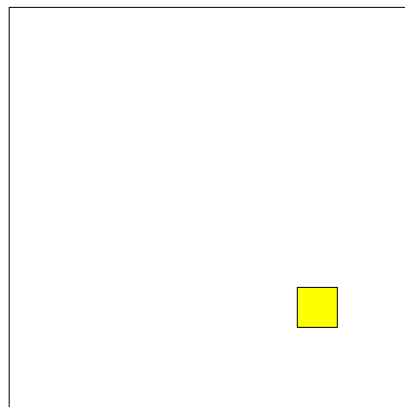


Hole can be anywhere

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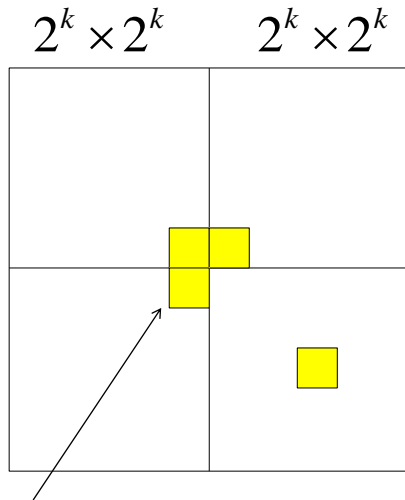
Inductive Step: $n = k + 1$

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



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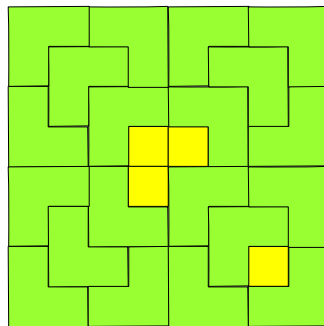
By inductive hypothesis $2^k \times 2^k$ squares with a hole can be tiled



add three artificial holes

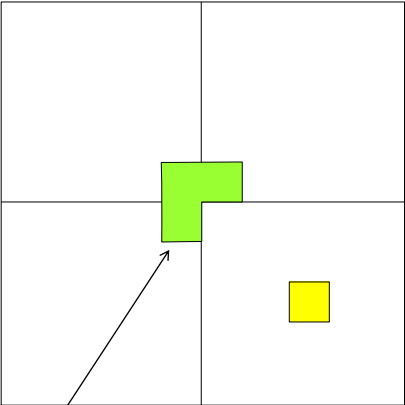
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$2^3 \times 2^3$ case:



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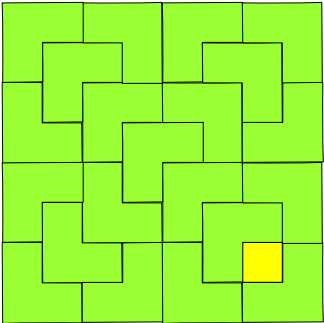
$2^k \times 2^k$
 $2^k \times 2^k$



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 $P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(k)$ 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
(Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic)

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: $n = k + 1$

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

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

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

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

By the inductive hypothesis:

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

primes

End of Proof

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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)

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

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

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

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

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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  $n \cdot \text{factorial}(n-1)$   
}
```

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

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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  $y \leftarrow 0$   
  else {  
     $x \leftarrow 0$   
     $y \leftarrow 1$   
    for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - 1$  do {  
       $z \leftarrow x + y$   
       $x \leftarrow y$   
       $y \leftarrow z$   
    }  
    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: $n = 3$ $n = 4$

$$f_3 = 2 > \delta$$

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

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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 $4 \leq k$

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


$$\delta^2 = \delta + 1$$


$$\delta^{k-1} = \delta^2 \cdot \delta^{k-3} = (\delta + 1)\delta^{k-3} = \delta^{k-2} + \delta^{k-3}$$


$$f_{k+1} = f_k + f_{k-1} \geq \delta^{k-2} + \delta^{k-3} = \delta^{k-1}$$

induction hypothesis

End of Proof

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Euclidean Algorithm for Greatest Common Divisor

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

Recursive Step: $\text{gcd}(a, b) = \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b)$

$$a > b$$

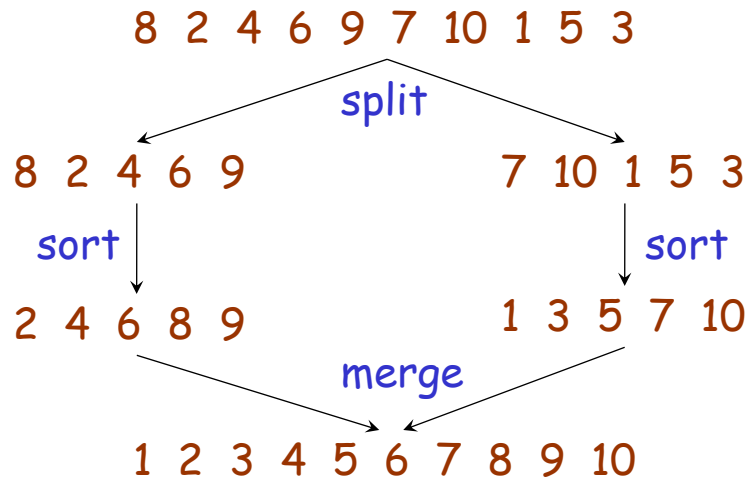
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Recursive Euclidean algorithm for greatest common divisor

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

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Algorithm Mergesort

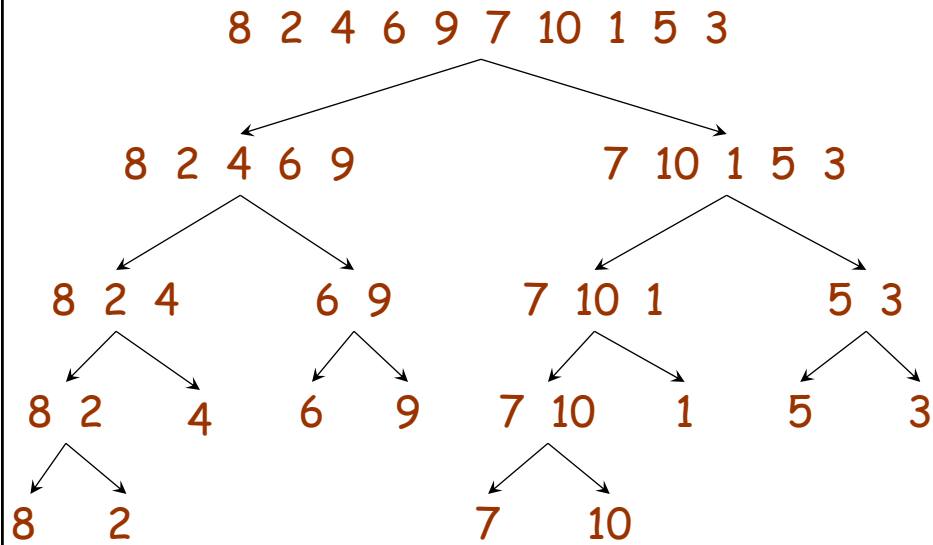


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```
sort( $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ ) {  
  if  $n > 1$  then {  
     $m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$   
     $A \leftarrow \text{sort}(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m)$   
     $B \leftarrow \text{sort}(a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n)$   
    return merge( $A, B$ )  
  }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

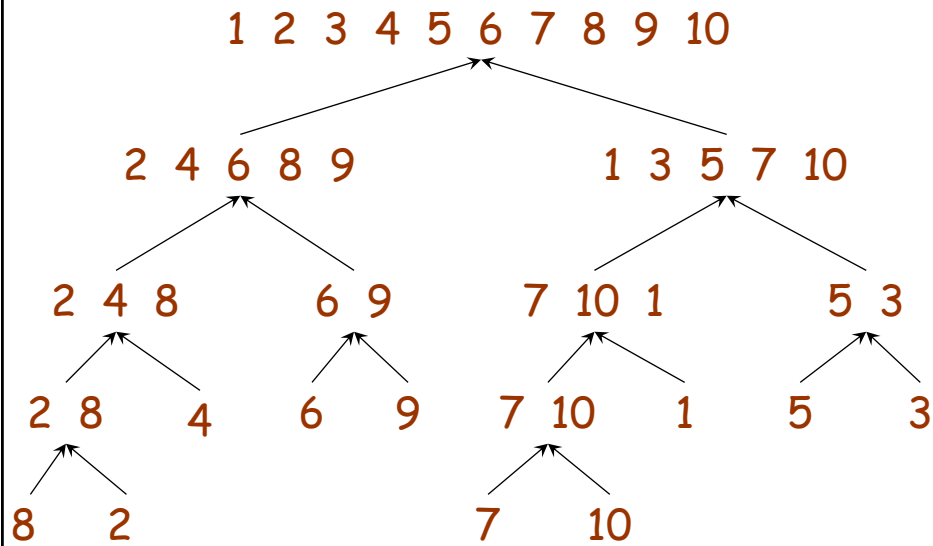
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Input values of recursive calls



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Input and output values of merging



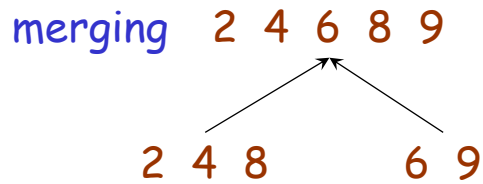
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```

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

```

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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	

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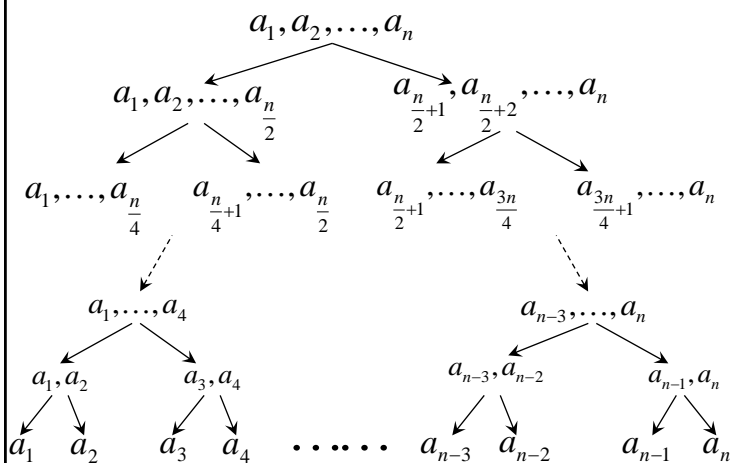
The total number of comparisons to merge two lists A, B is at most:

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

Length of A
Length of B

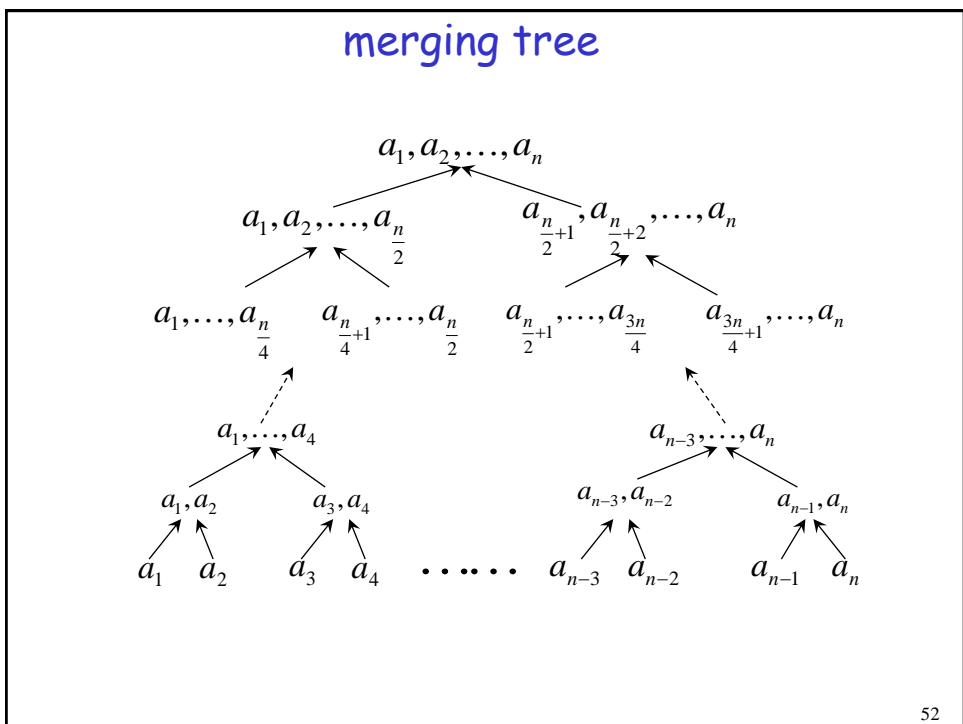
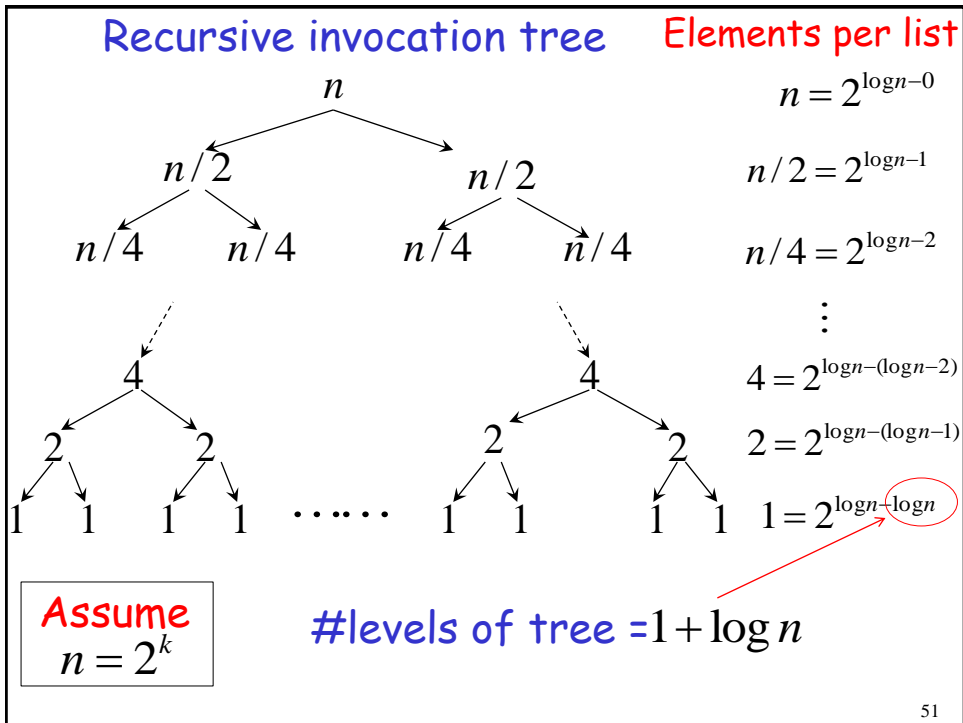
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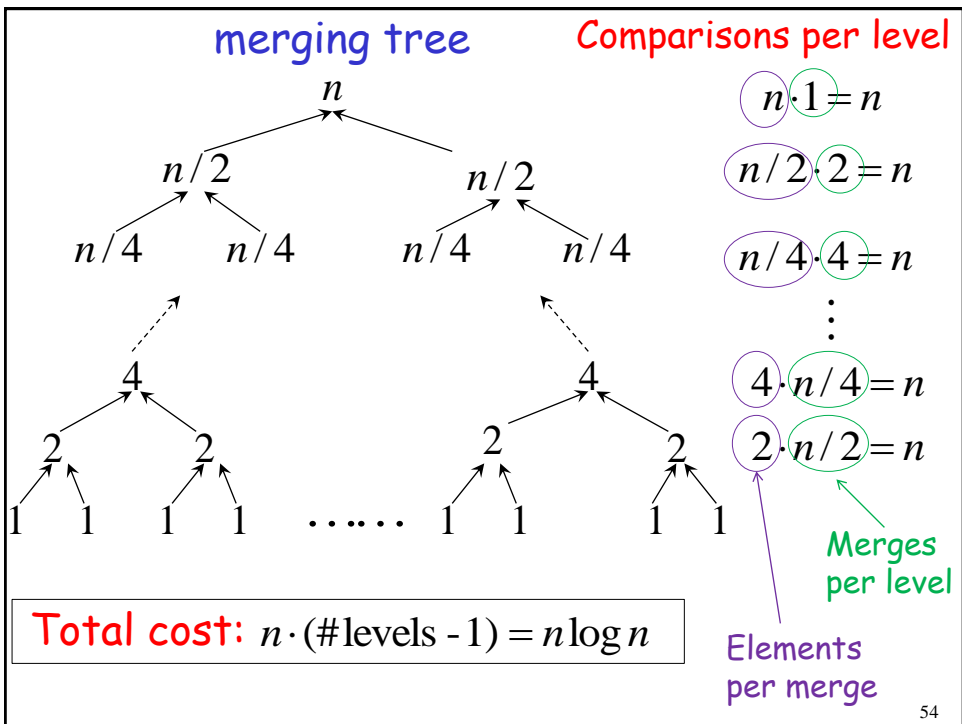
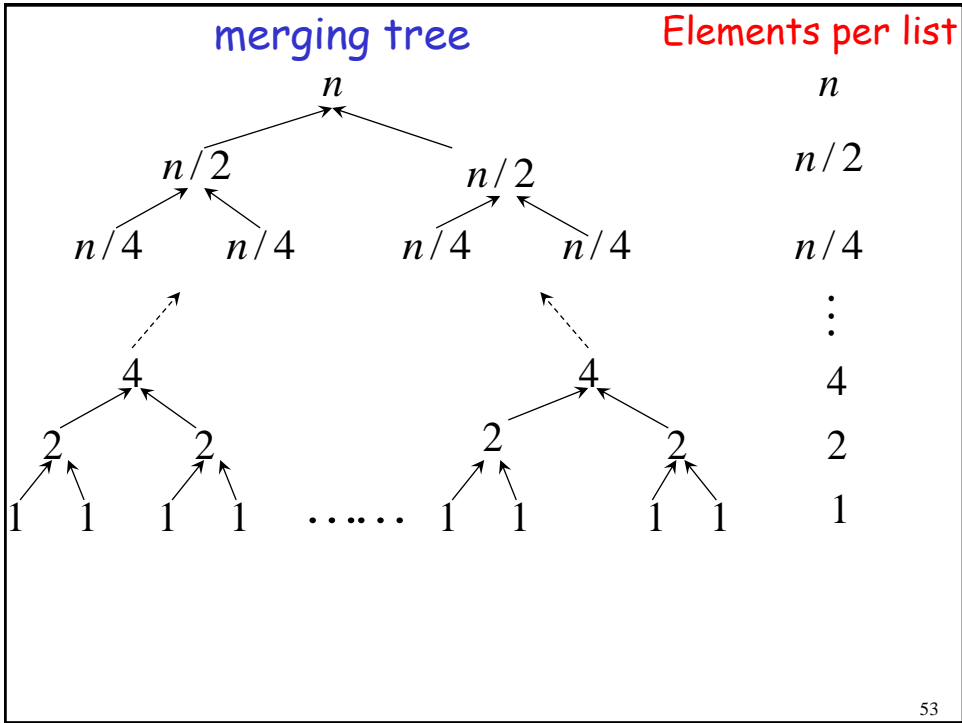
Recursive invocation tree



Assume
 $n = 2^k$

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

Therefore, worst-case running time of merge sort is $\approx n \log n$