

# Chapter 5 / 4: induction and recursion

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two-step approach to problem solving:

1. solve smallest problem instance

“basis” of induction, “bottom” of recursion

2. show either how

- solution of instance of size  $k$  leads to solution of instance of size  $k+1$  ← induction

or how

- instance of size  $k$  can be solved by solving instance(s) of size  $< k$  ← recursion

without basis or bottom:

step 2 useless and worthless

## Section 5.1 / 4.1: mathematical induction

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let  $P(n)$  be propositional function for  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq 1}$   
(thus  $\forall n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq 1} P(n) = \text{true} \vee P(n) = \text{false}$ )

to prove the statement

$$\forall n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq 1} P(n) = \text{true}$$

it suffices to prove that:

1.  $P(1) = \text{true}$

*(basis of the induction, or basis step)*

2.  $\forall k \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq 1}$ : if  $P(k) = \text{true}$

then  $P(k+1) = \text{true}$  *(inductive step)*

(if  $\exists n$  with  $P(n) = \text{false}$ , let  $s$  be the smallest, then  
 $s \neq 1$ , so  $s > 1$ , so  $P(s-1) = \text{true}$ , so  $P(s) = \text{true}$ )

## Section 5.1 / 4.1: mathematical induction

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let  $P(n)$  be propositional function for  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b}$   
(thus  $\forall n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b} P(n) = \text{true} \vee P(n) = \text{false}$ )

to prove the statement

$$\forall n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b} P(n) = \text{true}$$

it suffices to prove that:

1.  $P(b) = \text{true}$

*(basis of the induction, or basis step)*

2.  $\forall k \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b}$ : if  $P(k) = \text{true}$

then  $P(k+1) = \text{true}$  *(inductive step)*

(if  $\exists n$  with  $P(n) = \text{false}$ , let  $s$  be the smallest, then  
 $s \neq b$ , so  $s > b$ , so  $P(s-1) = \text{true}$ , so  $P(s) = \text{true}$ )

# Mathematical induction (MI), examples

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mathematical induction great way to prove known results, hardly useful to derive them

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- seen that  $\sum_{i=0}^k i = k(k+1)/2$ ,  
now use MI to prove it (again)

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- seen that  $\sum_{i=0}^k r^i = \frac{r^{k+1} - 1}{r - 1}$  ( $r \neq 1$ ),  
now use MI to prove it (again)

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- not just equalities:  $n < 2^n$ , prove with MI

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- **if suspect** that  $\sum_{i=0}^k i^2 = k(k+1)(2k+1)/6$ ,  
we can use MI to prove it

**but how does one find that formula?**

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- careful with buggy proofs (all horses have same color)

not  
in book

**Finding**  $S(k) = \sum_{i=0}^k i^2 = k(k+1)(2k+1)/6$

- from  $\int_0^k x^2 dx = k^3/3$  we suspect that  
 $S(k) = k^3/3 + ak^2 + bk + c$  for  $a, b, c \in \mathbf{R}$
- $S(0) = 0 \Rightarrow c = 0$
- $S(1) = 1 \Rightarrow 1/3 + a + b = 1$
- $S(2) = 5 \Rightarrow 8/3 + 4a + 2b = 5$

subtract  $1/3 + a + b = 1$  twice from  $8/3 + 4a + 2b = 5$

$$\Rightarrow 6/3 + 2a = 3 \Rightarrow a = 1/2 \Rightarrow b = 1/6$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{we suspect } S(k) &= k^3/3 + k^2/2 + k/6 \\ &= (2k^3 + 3k^2 + k)/6 \\ &= k(k+1)(2k+1)/6 \end{aligned}$$

now we still need to prove it...

**MI proof of**  $S(k) = \sum_{i=0}^k i^2 = k(k+1)(2k+1)/6$

use familiar two step induction approach and  
 $P(n)$ : “ $S(n) = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$ ” (for  $n \geq 0$ )

1. basis of induction, proof that  $P(0) = \text{true}$ :

because  $S(0) = 0$  and  $0(0+1)(2*0+1) = 0$

it follows that  $P(0) = \text{true}$

2. inductive step: assume  $P(k) = \text{true}$

$$\begin{aligned} S(k+1) &= S(k) + (k+1)^2 \text{ (from definition)} \\ &= k(k+1)(2k+1)/6 + (k+1)^2 \end{aligned}$$

(we use  $P(k) = \text{true}$ :  $S(k) = k(k+1)(2k+1)/6$  )

$$= (k+1)(k(2k+1) + 6(k+1))/6$$

$$= (k+1)(2k^2+7k+6)/6 = (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)/6$$

which shows that  $P(k+1) = \text{true}$

## Section 5.2 / 4.2: strong induction

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let  $P(n)$  be propositional function for  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b}$   
(thus  $\forall n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b} P(n) = \text{true} \vee P(n) = \text{false}$ )

to prove the statement

$$\forall n \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b} P(n) = \text{true}$$

it suffices to prove that:

1.  $P(b) = \text{true}$

(the *basis of the induction*, or *basis step*)

2.  $\forall k \in \mathbf{Z}_{\geq b} : \text{if } P(b) = P(b+1) = \dots = P(k) = \text{true}$   
then  $P(k+1) = \text{true}$  (the *inductive step*)

(if  $\exists n$  with  $P(n) = \text{false}$ , let  $s$  be the smallest, then  
 $s \neq b$ , so  $s > b$ , so  $\forall i < s P(i) = \text{true}$ , so  $P(s) = \text{true}$ )

# Strong induction, example

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strong induction equally powerful  
as mathematical induction

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example: for  $n \in \mathbf{Z}_{>1}$ , let  $P(n)$  be “ $n$  can be written as a product of one or more primes”

- $P(2) = \text{true}$ , since 2 is prime
- assume  $\forall k \in \mathbf{Z}, 2 \leq k < n, P(k) = \text{true}$ ,  
what about  $P(n)$ ?
  - if  $n$  prime, then  $P(n) = \text{true}$
  - if  $n$  composite:  $\exists n_1, n_2 \in \mathbf{Z}$  s.t.  $n = n_1 n_2$   
 $2 \leq n_1, n_2 < n \Rightarrow P(n_1) = P(n_2) = \text{true} \Rightarrow$   
 $n$  is product of products of primes  
 $\Rightarrow P(n) = \text{true}$  (uniqueness: page 270/233)



# Strong induction, another example

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given pile of  $n$  stones; for any  $k$  a pile of  $k$  stones can be split into two non-empty piles of  $r > 0$  and  $k-r > 0$  stones at cost  $r(k-r)$

how to split a single pile of  $n$  stones into  $n$  “piles” of one stone at lowest total cost  $C(n)$ ?

- $n = 1$ : nothing to do at cost  $C(1) = 0$
- $n = 2$ : one way to split ( $2 \rightarrow 1+1$ ) at cost  $C(2) = 1(2-1) = 1$
- $n = 3$ : one way to split ( $3 \rightarrow 2+1$ ) at cost  $2(3-2)=2$ ;  
next  $2 \rightarrow 1+1$  at cost 1; total cost  $C(3) = 2+1 = 3$
- $n = 4$ : **either**  $4 \rightarrow 2+2$  at cost 4, plus  $2C(2) = 2$ :  $4+2 = 6$ ;  
**or**  $4 \rightarrow 3+1$  at cost 3 plus  $C(3)$ :  $3+3 = 6$ ;  $\Rightarrow C(4) = 6$
- $n = 5$ : **either**  $5 \rightarrow 3+2$  at cost 6, plus  $C(3)+C(2)=4$ , thus 10  
**or**  $5 \rightarrow 4+1$  at cost 4 plus  $C(4)=6$ :  $4+6=10$ ;  $\Rightarrow C(5) = 10$

# Splitting piles of stones, continued

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exerc 10/14

- $n = 1$ : nothing to do at cost  $C(1) = 0$
- $n = 2$ : one way to split ( $2 \rightarrow 1+1$ ) at cost  $C(2) = 1(2-1) = 1$
- $n = 3$ : one way to split ( $3 \rightarrow 2+1$ ) at cost  $2(3-2)=2$ ;  
next  $2 \rightarrow 1+1$  at cost 1; total cost  $C(3) = 2+1 = 3$
- $n = 4$ : **either**  $4 \rightarrow 2+2$  at cost 4, plus  $2C(2) = 2$ :  $4+2 = 6$ ;  
**or**  $4 \rightarrow 3+1$  at cost 3 plus  $C(3)$ :  $3+3 = 6$ ;  $\Rightarrow C(4) = 6$
- $n = 5$ : **either**  $5 \rightarrow 3+2$  at cost 6, plus  $C(3)+C(2)=4$ , thus 10  
**or**  $5 \rightarrow 4+1$  at cost 4 plus  $C(4)=6$ :  $4+6=10$ ;  $\Rightarrow C(5) = 10$

we suspect that  $C(n) = n(n-1)/2$  **why so simple?**

proof with strong induction: (page 400/359: find

- correct for  $n = 1$  **combinatorial proof)**
- split  $n$  in  $r > 0$  and  $n-r > 0$ : cost  $r(n-r)$  plus  
(induction hypothesis)  $r(r-1)/2 + (n-r)(n-r-1)/2$ ;  
 $r(n-r) + r(r-1)/2 + (n-r)(n-r-1)/2 = n(n-1)/2$

# Common recursive definitions & algorithms

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- factorial function:

$$n! = n * (n-1)! \text{ for } n > 0$$

with  $0! = 1$  this defines  $n!$  for  $n \geq 0$

leads to recursive implementation:

$$\text{factorial}(n) = \text{if } n < 1 \text{ then } 1 \leftarrow \text{bottom of recursion} \\ \text{else } n * \text{factorial}(n-1)$$

- fibonacci numbers:

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \text{ for } n > 1$$

with  $f_0 = 0$ ,  $f_1 = 1$  this defines  $f_n$  for  $n \geq 0$

$$\text{fib}(n) = \text{if } n < 2 \text{ then } n \leftarrow \text{bottom of recursion} \\ \text{else } \text{fib}(n-1) + \text{fib}(n-2) \leftarrow \text{very bad idea}$$

# More recursive algorithms

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recursion often great for lazy programmer  
(with proper *bottom of recursion*):

⇒ useful to quickly get working prototypes

- $\text{gcd}(a,b): (b == 0) ? a : \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b)$

(refer to slide 35 of March 27 lecture for division-free method )

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- exponentiation:  $a^e \bmod m$  ( $e \geq 0, m > 1$ )

$power(a,e,m):$

if  $e$  equals 0: return(1)

else  $t = (power(a, [e/2], m))^2 \bmod m$

if ( $e$  is even): return( $t$ )

else return ( $ta \bmod m$ )

- mostly less efficient than iterative version

# Exponentiation: $a^e \bmod m$ ( $e \geq 0, m > 1$ )

$power(a,e,m)$ :

if  $e$  equals 0: return(1)

else  $t = (power(a,[e/2],m))^2 \bmod m$

    if ( $e$  is even): return( $t$ )

    else return ( $ta \bmod m$ )

to calculate  $3^5 \bmod 7$  (using different colors for variables at different recursion levels)

call  $power(3,5,7)$ :  $a = 3, e = 5, m = 7$

$e = 5 \neq 0$ , thus  $t = (power(3,[5/2]=2,7))^2 \bmod 7$

    generates recursive call  $power(3,2,7)$ :  $a = 3, e = 2, m = 7$

$e = 2 \neq 0$ , thus  $t = (power(3,[2/2]=1,7))^2 \bmod 7$

            generates recursive call  $power(3,1,7)$ :  $a = 3, e = 1, m = 7$

$e = 1 \neq 0$ , thus  $t = (power(3,[1/2]=0,7))^2 \bmod 7$

                    generates recursive call  $power(3,0,7)$ :  $a = 3, e = 0, m = 7$

$e = 0$ : return 1 (as the value of  $power(3,0,7)$ )

                    we find  $t = (power(3,0,7))^2 \bmod 7 = (1)^2 \bmod 7 = 1$

$e = 1$  is not even: return  $ta \bmod 7 = 1 * 3 \bmod 7 = 3$  (as the value of  $power(3,1,7)$ )

            we find  $t = (power(3,1,7))^2 \bmod 7 = 3^2 \bmod 7 = 2$

$e = 2$  is even: return  $t = 2$  (as the value of  $power(3,2,7)$ )

    we find  $t = (power(3,2,7))^2 \bmod 7 = 2^2 \bmod 7 = 4$

$e = 5$  is not even: return  $ta \bmod 7 = 4 * 3 \bmod 7 = 5$  (as the value of  $power(3,5,7)$ )

# More recursive algorithms

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353-362  
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recursion often great for lazy programmer  
(with proper *bottom of recursion*):

⇒ useful to quickly get working prototypes

- $\text{gcd}(a,b): (b == 0) ? a : \text{gcd}(b, a \bmod b)$

(refer to slide 35 of March 27 lecture for division-free method )

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- exponentiation:  $a^e \bmod m$  ( $e \geq 0, m > 1$ )

$power(a,e,m)$ : same computation

if  $e$  equals 0: return(1) as before

else  $t = (power(a, [e/2], m))^2 \bmod m$

if ( $e$  is even): return( $t$ )

else return ( $ta \bmod m$ )

- mostly less efficient than iterative version

# Exponentiation: $a^e \bmod m$ ( $e \geq 0, m > 1$ )

$power(a,e,m)$ :

if  $e$  equals 0: return(1)

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recursive call  $power(3,2,7)$ :  $a = 3, e = 2, m = 7$

$e = 2 \neq 0$ , thus  $t = (power(3,[2/2]=1,7))^2 \bmod 7$

recursive call  $power(3,1,7)$ :  $a = 3, e = 1, m = 7$

$e = 1 \neq 0$ , thus  $t = (power(3,[1/2]=0,7))^2 \bmod 7$

recursive call  $power(3,0,7)$ :  $a = 3, e = 0, m = 7$

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we find  $t = (power(3,0,7))^2 \bmod 7 = (1)^2 \bmod 7 = 1$

$e = 1$  is not even: return  $ta \bmod 7 = 1 * 3 \bmod 7 = 3$  (as the value of  $power(3,1,7)$ )

we find  $t = (power(3,1,7))^2 \bmod 7 = 3^2 \bmod 7 = 2$

$e = 2$  is even: return  $t = 2$  (as the value of  $power(3,2,7)$ )

we find  $t = (power(3,2,7))^2 \bmod 7 = 2^2 \bmod 7 = 4$

$e = 5$  is not even: return  $ta \bmod 7 = 4 * 3 \bmod 7 = 5$  (as the value of  $power(3,5,7)$ )

# Another quick and dirty recursion example

print all permutations of  $1, 2, 3, \dots, n$

initialize  $a_i = i, 1 \leq i \leq n$

*permute*( $b$ ): /\*  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_b$  still need to be permuted \*/

if ( $b \leq 1$ )

    print  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$

else

    for  $i = 1$  to  $b$

        swap  $a_i$  and  $a_b$

*permute*( $b-1$ )

        swap  $a_i$  and  $a_b$

*permute*( $n$ )



# Recursive sorting

generic recursive sorting of list  $L$  of  $n$  items:

if  $n \leq 1$ : list sorted already, done

else

1. create smaller subproblems:

form disjoint sublists  $L_1, L_2$  of  $L$

2. recurse:

sort  $L_1$  and  $L_2$

3. combine:

sort  $L$  using sorted  $L_1$  and  $L_2$

two common realizations of this idea:

- merge sort
- quick sort

# Merge sort

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sort list  $L$  of  $n$  items: cost  $M(n)$ :

if  $n \leq 1$ : list sorted already, done 0

else

1. create smaller subproblems by  
splitting  $L$  in the middle: 0

$L_1$  first half,  $L_2$  second half of  $L$

2. recurse: sort  $L_1$  and sort  $L_2$   $2M(n/2)$

3. combine: merge sorted lists  $L_1$  and  
 $L_2$  into single sorted list  $L$   $n$

(as seen in homework 5.3c)

total:  $n + 2M(n/2)$

## Solving $M(n) = n + 2M(n/2)$

$$M(n) = n + 2M(n/2)$$

$$= n + 2(n/2 + 2M(n/4))$$

$$= 2n + 4M(n/4)$$

$$= 2n + 4(n/4 + 2M(n/8))$$

$$= 3n + 8M(n/8)$$

...

$$= kn + 2^k M(n/2^k)$$

(when  $k$  reaches  $\log_2(n)$ :  $M(n/2^k) = 0$  )

$$= n \log_2(n)$$

# Proof that $M(n) = n \log_2(n)$

using strong induction:

1.  $M(1) = 0$  follows from the algorithm

$$1 * \log_2(1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow M(n) = n \log_2(n) \text{ holds for } n = 1$$

2. induction hypothesis:  $M(k) = k \log_2(k)$  if  $k < n$

$$M(n) = n + 2M(n/2) \text{ (from algorithm)}$$

$$= n + 2((n/2) \log_2(n/2)) \text{ (Induction hypothesis)}$$

$$= n + n \log_2(n/2)$$

$$= n + n(\log_2(n) - \log_2(2))$$

$$= n + n(\log_2(n) - 1)$$

$$= n \log_2(n)$$

(note the cheating: this proof requires  $n$  to be a power of 2;  
for general  $n$  the result  $M(n) = O(n \log(n))$  is valid though)

# Quick sort

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sort list  $L$  of  $n$  items  $l_0, l_1, \dots, l_{n-1}$ : cost  $Q(n)$ :  
if  $n \leq 1$ : list sorted already, done 0

else

1. create smaller subproblems:

$$L_1 = \{l_i: 0 < i < n, l_i \leq l_0\}, r = |L_1| \quad n-1$$

$$L_2 = \{l_i: 0 < i < n, l_i > l_0\}$$

2. recurse: sort  $L_1$  and sort  $L_2$   $Q(r) + Q(n-1-r)$

3. combine: concatenate sorted lists  $L_1$ ,

$l_0$  and  $L_2$  into single sorted list  $L$ :

$$L = L_1, l_0, L_2 \quad 0$$

total:  $n-1 + Q(r) + Q(n-1-r)$

# Solving $Q(n) = n-1 + Q(r) + Q(n-1-r)$

depends on  $r$  (and cardinalities in recursion)

- worst case:  $r = 0$  or  $r = n-1$ :

$$Q(n) = n-1 + Q(n-1)$$

$$= n-1+n-2+Q(n-2) \quad (\text{if bad luck again})$$

$$= n-1+n-2+n-3+Q(n-3) \quad (\text{same})$$

$$= \dots = n(n-1)/2$$

(as bad as bubble or insertion sort)

- optimal case: always  $r \approx n/2 \approx n-r$ :

$$Q(n) \approx n + 2Q(n/2)$$

$$= n \log_2(n) \quad (\text{same as } M(n))$$

# A final recursion example: heapsort

given  $a_i, 0 \leq i < n$

- $i \leq [(n - 1)/2]$ :  $a_i$ 's children are  $a_{2i+1}$  and  $a_{2i+2}$
- to make  $a_i$  largest among ordered offspring:  
*insert*( $i, n$ ): if  $a_i$  has larger child, then
  - swap  $a_i$  with largest child  $a_k$
  - *insert*( $k, n$ )

- sort  $a_i$  in increasing order:

$O(n)$  for  $i = [(n - 1)/2]$  downto 0 do *insert*( $i, n$ )

for  $i = n-1$  downto 1 do

- swap  $a_0$  and  $a_i$

- *insert*( $0, i$ )       $O(\log(i))$  per insertion

overall  $O(n \log(n))$