

# ICS141: Discrete Mathematics for Computer Science I

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based on slides by Dr. Baek and Dr. Still
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Provided by McGraw-Hill





- State the 1<sup>st</sup> Principle of Mathematical Induction
- 2. What is the difference between the 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup> and strong principles of Mathematical Induction. (Describe in plain English)
- 3. What is the big-O complexity of Euclid's Algorithm?





#### Lecture 21

#### **Chapter 4. Induction and Recursion**

4.3 Recursive Definitions and Structural Induction





- In induction, we prove all members of an infinite set satisfy some predicate P by:
  - proving the truth of the predicate for larger members in terms of that of smaller members.
- In recursive definitions, we similarly define a function, a predicate, a set, or a more complex structure over an infinite domain (universe of discourse) by:
  - defining the function, predicate value, set membership, or structure of larger elements in terms of those of smaller ones.



#### Recursion



- Recursion is the general term for the practice of defining an object in terms of itself
  - or of part of itself.
  - This may seem circular, but it isn't necessarily.
- An inductive proof establishes the truth of P(k+1) recursively in terms of P(k).
- There are also recursive algorithms, definitions, functions, sequences, sets, and other structures.



## Recursively Defined Functions

- Simplest case: One way to define a function f:N→S (for any set S) or series a<sub>n</sub>= f(n) is to:
  - Define *f*(0)
  - For n > 0, define f(n) in terms of f(0),...,f(n-1)
- Example: Define the series a<sub>n</sub> = 2<sup>n</sup> where n is a nonnegative integer recursively:
  - $a_n$  looks like  $2^0$ ,  $2^1$ ,  $2^2$ ,  $2^3$ ,...
  - Let  $a_0 = 1$
  - For n > 0, let  $a_n = 2 \cdot a_{n-1}$



#### **Another Example**



- Suppose we define f(n) for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  recursively by:
  - Let f(0) = 3
  - For all n > 0, let  $f(n) = 2 \cdot f(n-1) + 3$
- What are the values of the following?

$$f(1) = 2 \cdot f(0) + 3 = 2 \cdot 3 + 3 = 9$$

$$f(2) = 2 \cdot f(1) + 3 = 2 \cdot 9 + 3 = 21$$

$$f(3) = 2 \cdot f(2) + 3 = 2 \cdot 21 + 3 = 45$$

$$f(4) = 2 \cdot f(3) + 3 = 2 \cdot 45 + 3 = 93$$



# Recursive Definition of Factorial



 Give an inductive (recursive) definition of the factorial function,

$$F(n) = n! = \prod_{1 \le i \le n} i = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n$$

- Basis step: F(1) = 1
- Recursive step:  $F(n) = n \cdot F(n-1)$  for n > 1

$$F(2) = 2 \cdot F(1) = 2 \cdot 1 = 2$$

$$F(3) = 3 \cdot F(2) = 3 \cdot \{2 \cdot F(1)\} = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 6$$

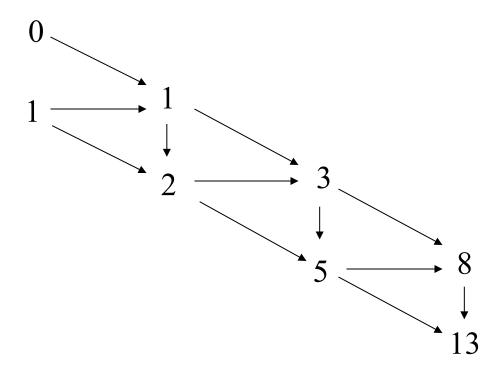
$$F(4) = 4 \cdot F(3) = 4 \cdot \{3 \cdot F(2)\} = 4 \cdot \{3 \cdot 2 \cdot F(1)\}$$
$$= 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 24$$



#### The Fibonacci Numbers

■ The *Fibonacci numbers*  $f_{n\geq 0}$  is a famous series defined by:

$$f_0 = 0$$
,  $f_1 = 1$ ,  $f_{n \ge 2} = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ 





## Inductive Proof about Fibonacci Numbers



- **Theorem**:  $f_n < 2^n$ . ←—Implicitly for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$
- Proof: By induction

Basis step: 
$$f_0 = 0 < 2^0 = 1$$
 Note: use of base cases of recursive definition

 Inductive step: Use 2<sup>nd</sup> principle of induction (strong induction).

Assume  $\forall 0 \le i \le k$ ,  $f_i < 2^i$ . Then

$$f_{k+1} = f_k + f_{k-1}$$
 is  
 $< 2^k + 2^{k-1}$   
 $< 2^k + 2^k = 2^{k+1}$ .

# A Lower Bound on Fibonacci Numbers



- **Theorem:** For all integers  $n \ge 3$ ,  $f_n > \alpha^{n-2}$ , where  $\alpha = (1 + 5^{1/2})/2 \approx 1.61803$ .
- Proof. (Using strong induction.)
  - Let  $P(n) = (f_n > \alpha^{n-2})$ .
  - Basis step:

For 
$$n = 3$$
, note that  $\alpha^{n-2} = \alpha < 2 = f_3$ .  
For  $n = 4$ ,  $\alpha^{n-2} = \alpha^2$ 

$$= (1 + 2 \cdot 5^{1/2} + 5)/4$$

$$= (3 + 5^{1/2})/2$$

$$\approx 2.61803 \qquad (= \alpha + 1)$$

$$< 3 = f_4$$
.

# A Lower Bound on Fibonacci Numbers: Proof Continues...

- Inductive step: For  $k \ge 4$ , assume P(j) for  $3 \le j \le k$ , prove P(k+1).
  - $f_{k+1} = f_k + f_{k-1} > \alpha^{k-2} + \alpha^{k-3}$  (by inductive hypothesis,  $f_{k-1} > \alpha^{k-3}$  and  $f_k > \alpha^{k-2}$ ).
  - Note that  $\alpha^2 = \alpha + 1$ . since  $(3 + 5^{1/2})/2 = (1 + 5^{1/2})/2 + 1$
  - Thus,  $\alpha^{k-1} = \alpha^2 \alpha^{k-3} = (\alpha + 1)\alpha^{k-3}$ =  $\alpha \alpha^{k-3} + \alpha^{k-3} = \alpha^{k-2} + \alpha^{k-3}$ .
  - So,  $f_{k+1} = f_k + f_{k-1} > \alpha^{k-2} + \alpha^{k-3} = \alpha^{k-1}$ .
  - Thus P(k+1). ■





### **Recursively Defined Sets**

- An infinite set S may be defined recursively, by giving:
  - A small finite set of base elements of S.
  - A rule for constructing new elements of S from previously-established elements.
  - Implicitly, S has no other elements but these.

base element (basis step)

construction rule (recursive step)

■ **Example:** Let  $3 \in S$ , and let  $x+y \in S$  if  $x,y \in S$ . What is S?



## Example cont.



- Let  $3 \in S$ , and let  $x+y \in S$  if  $x,y \in S$ . What is S?
  - 3 ∈ S (basis step)
  - 6 (= 3 + 3) is in S (first application of recursive step)
  - 9 (= 3 + 6) and 12 (= 6 + 6) are in S (second application of the recursive step)
  - 15 (= 3 + 12 or 6 + 9), 18 (= 6 + 12 or 9 + 9), 21 (= 9 + 12), 24 (= 12 + 12) are in S (third application of the recursive step)
  - ... so on
  - Therefore, S = {3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18, 21, 24,...}
    = set of all positive multiples of 3





- Given an alphabet Σ, the set Σ\* of all strings over Σ can be recursively defined by:
  - Basis step:  $\lambda \in \Sigma^*$  ( $\lambda$ : empty string)
  - Recursive step:  $(w \in \Sigma^* \land x \in \Sigma) \rightarrow wx \in \Sigma^*$
- **Example**: If  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$  then
  - λ∈ Σ\* (basis step)
  - 0 and 1 are in Σ\* (first application of recursive step)
  - 00, 01, 10, and 11 are in Σ\* (second application of the recursive step)
  - ... so on
  - Therefore, Σ\* consists of all finite strings of 0's and 1's together with the empty string



## String: Example



- Show that if Σ = {a, b} then aab is in Σ\*.
  Proof: We construct it with a finite number of applications of the basis and recursive steps in the definition of Σ\*:
- 1.  $\lambda \in \Sigma^*$  by the basis step.
- 2. By step 1, the recursive step in the definition of  $\Sigma^*$  and the fact that  $a \in \Sigma$ , we can conclude that  $\lambda a = a \in \Sigma^*$ .



#### Proof cont.

- 3. Since  $a \in \Sigma^*$  from step 2, and  $a \in \Sigma$ , applying the recursive step again we conclude that  $aa \in \Sigma^*$ .
- 4. Since  $aa \in \Sigma^*$  from step 3 and  $b \in \Sigma$ , applying the recursive step again we conclude that  $aab \in \Sigma^*$ .
- Since we have shown aab∈Σ\* with a finite number of applications of the basis and recursive steps in the definition we have finished the proof.



#### **Rooted Trees**

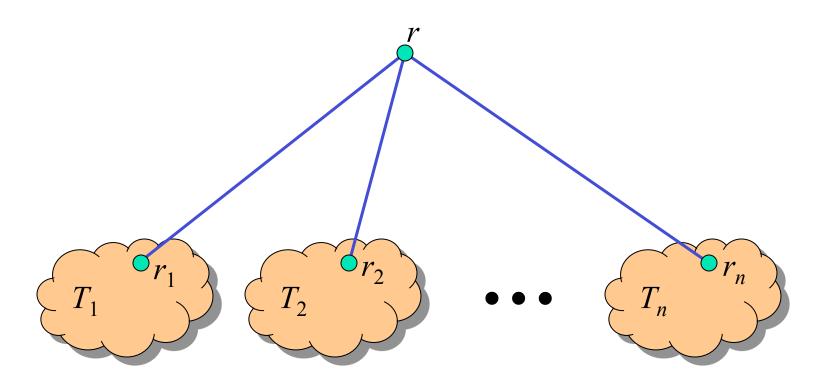


- Trees will be covered in more depth in chapter 10.
  - Briefly, a tree is a graph in which there is exactly one undirected path between each pair of nodes.
  - An undirected graph can be represented as a set of unordered pairs (called arcs) of objects called nodes.
- Definition of the set of rooted trees:
  - **Basis step**: Any single node *r* is a rooted tree.
  - Recursive step: If  $T_1,...,T_n$  are disjoint rooted trees with respective roots  $r_1,...,r_n$ , and r is a node not in any of the  $T_i$ 's, then another rooted tree is  $\{(r, r_1),...,(r, r_n)\} \cup T_1 \cup \cdots \cup T_n$ .



## Illustrating Rooted Tree Definition

 How rooted trees can be combined to form a new rooted tree...





## **Building Up Rooted Trees**



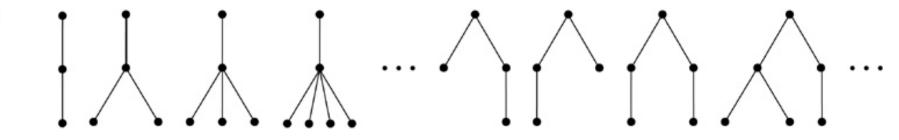
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Basis step

Step 1



Step 2







### **Extended Binary Trees**

- A special case of rooted trees.
- Recursive definition of extended binary trees:
  - Basis step: The empty set Ø is an extended binary tree.
  - Recursive step: If  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  are disjoint extended binary trees, then  $e_1 \cup e_2 \cup T_1 \cup T_2$  is an extended binary tree, where  $e_1 = \emptyset$  if  $T_1 = \emptyset$ , and  $e_1 = \{(r, r_1)\}$  if  $T_1 \neq \emptyset$  and has root  $r_1$ , and similarly for  $e_2$ . ( $T_1$  is the left subtree and  $T_2$  is the right subtree.)

# rees



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# Basis step Step 1 Step 2 Step 3



#### Lamé's Theorem

- **Theorem:**  $\forall a,b$ ∈**N**, a≥b>0, and let n be the number of steps Euclid's algorithm needs to compute gcd(a,b).
  - Then  $n \le 5k$ , where  $k = \lfloor \log_{10} b \rfloor + 1$  is the number of decimal digits in b.
    - Thus, Euclid's algorithm is linear-time in the number of digits in b. (or, Euclid's algorithm is O(log a))

#### Proof:

Uses the Fibonacci sequence! (See next!)





#### Proof of Lamé's Theorem

 Consider the sequence of division-algorithm equations used in Euclid's alg.:

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2$$
 with  $0 \le r_2 < r_1$   
 $r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3$  with  $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ 

Where  $a = r_0$ ,  $b = r_1$ , and  $gcd(a,b)=r_n$ .

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1}q_{n-1} + r_n$$
 with  $0 \le r_n < r_{n-1}$   
 $r_{n-1} = r_nq_n + r_{n+1}$  with  $r_{n+1} = 0$  (terminate)

The number of divisions (iterations) is n.

Continued on next slide...



#### Lamé Proof cont.



- Since  $r_0 \ge r_1 > r_2 > \dots > r_n$ , each quotient  $q_i \equiv \lfloor r_{i-1}/r_i \rfloor \ge 1$ .
- Since  $r_{n-1} = r_n q_n$  and  $r_{n-1} > r_n$ ,  $q_n \ge 2$ .
- So we have the following relations between r and f:

$$r_n \ge 1 = f_2$$
  
 $r_{n-1} \ge 2r_n \ge 2f_2 = f_3$   
 $r_{n-2} \ge r_{n-1} + r_n \ge f_2 + f_3 = f_4$   
...  
 $r_2 \ge r_3 + r_4 \ge f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} = f_n$ 

$$r_2 \ge r_3 + r_4 \ge t_{n-1} + t_{n-2} = t_n$$
  
 $b = r_1 \ge r_2 + r_3 \ge t_n + t_{n-1} = t_{n+1}$ 

- Thus, if n > 2 divisions are used, then  $b \ge f_{n+1} > α^{n-1}$ .
  - Thus,  $\log_{10} b > \log_{10}(\alpha^{n-1}) = (n-1)\log_{10} \alpha \approx (n-1)0.208 > (n-1)/5$ .
  - If b has k decimal digits, then  $\log_{10} b < k$ , so n-1 < 5k, so  $n \le 5k$ .