# CMPSCI 250: Introduction to Computation

Lecture #18: Variations on Induction for Naturals David Mix Barrington 15 October 2013

#### Variations on Induction

- Not Starting at Zero
- Justifying the "Start Anywhere" Rule
- Induction on the Odds or the Evens
- Strong Induction
- The Law of Strong Induction
- Example: Existence of a Factorization
- Example: Making Change

## Not Starting at Zero

- Last lecture we claimed "for any n, the n'th odd number is 2n-1" but we *didn't* prove this by induction.
- The reason was that given our Law of Mathematical Induction, we would need to prove P(0), which says "the 0'th odd number is -1", and this doesn't make much sense.
- Of course the statement P(1) says "the first odd number is 1", which is true.

# Not Starting at Zero

- Also, the inductive case is fine -- if we assume that the n'th odd number is 2n 1, then clearly the n+1'st odd number should be two greater, or (2n 1) + 2 = 2(n + 1) 1.
- It seems reasonable to have a Law of Start Anywhere Induction that says "if you prove P(k) for any integer k, and prove ∀n: ((n ≥ k) ∧ P(n)) → P(n+1), you may conclude ∀n: (n ≥ k) → P(n)".

### Digression: Bounded Quantifiers

- Suppose I have variables whose type is "natural", but I want to quantify over only the naturals that are at least 3.
- This works differently depending on the quantifier.
- If I say "there exists a natural that is at least 3" in symbols, this is "∃x: (x ≥ 3) ∧ …"
- But to say "for every number that is at least 3, we write "∀x: (x ≥ 3) → …"

# Justifying "Start Anywhere"

- Using the intuition about dominoes, for example, the Start Anywhere Rule is just as convincing as the ordinary rule.
- If we push over the k'th domino, and every domino at or after the k'th pushes over the next one, every domino after the k'th will eventually be pushed over.
- But it would be nice to know that we don't need a new axiom, so we will prove the Start Anywhere rule by ordinary mathematical induction.

# Justifying "Start Anywhere"

- Suppose we have a predicate P(x), for integer x, and we have proved P(k) and ∀x: ((x ≥ k) ∧ P(x)) → P(x+1) for some integer k.
- For any natural n, we define a new predicate Q(n) to be P(k+n).
- Now we will prove the statement ∀n: Q(n) by ordinary induction.

# Justifying "Start Anywhere"

- Q(0) is the statement P(k), which we are given.
- For the inductive step, we assume Q(n) which is P(k+n). We specify the other premise to x = k + n, giving the statement "(k + n ≥ k) ∧ P(k+n)) → P(k+n+1)".
- Since n is a natural, k + n ≥ k is true, so we get P(k+n+1) which is the same as Q(n+1). The ordinary induction is done.

#### More on "Start Anywhere"

- Having proved ∀n: Q(n) by ordinary induction, we can translate it back into terms of P as ∀n: P(k +n), which means that P is true for all arguments k or greater. This is the conclusion of the Start Anywhere Rule.
- Another way to think about this is that we are doing induction on a *new* inductively defined type, in this case "integers that are ≥ k". This type could be defined as what we get by starting from k and taking successors, and the fact that it contains nothing else is our induction rule.

## More on "Start Anywhere"

- If k is positive, we can also prove the "Start at k Rule" by ordinary induction in another way.
- Let Q(n) be the predicate "(n ≥ k) → P(n)". Then Q(0) is true, and we can prove ∀n: Q(n)
   → Q(n+1) by cases.
- If n < k we can use Vacuous Proof. If n = k we use our premise P(k). And if n > k, Q(n) gives us P(n), and we can use Specification on the other premise to give us P(n+1).

### Clicker Question #I

- "If X is a convex polygon with k sides, the sum of the interior angles in X is 180(k - 2) degrees." If I wanted to prove this (true) geometry fact for all k by induction, what should be my starting point?
- (a) k = 0
- (b) k = I
- (c) k = 2
- (d) k = 3

## Answer #I

- "If X is a convex polygon with k sides, the sum of the interior angles in X is 180(k - 2) degrees." If I wanted to prove this (true) geometry fact for all k by induction, what should be my starting point?
- (a) k = 0
- (b) k = I
- (c) k = 2
- (d) <u>k</u> = 3

#### Induction on the Odds or Evens

- The first several odd perfect squares: 1, 9, 25, 49, and 81, are all congruent to 1 modulo 8. It's easy to prove by modular arithmetic that every odd number satisfies n<sup>2</sup> = 1 (mod 8), but suppose we want to prove this by induction?
- We now know how to start at n = 1 rather than n = 0, but our inductive step poses a different problem. We can't say that n<sup>2</sup> = 1 for even n, because it isn't true.

#### Induction on the Odds or Evens

- If we let P(n) be "if n is odd, then n<sup>2</sup> = 1 (mod 8)", then P(n) is true for all n, but the inductive hypothesis won't help us in a proof because it is true vacuously -- it says nothing about n<sup>2</sup> that we could use for (n+1)<sup>2</sup>.
- We can easily prove P(n) → P(n+2), however, and this looks like the correct inductive step for a statement about just the odds or just the evens.

#### Induction on the Odds or Evens

- We have another new induction rule: "If k is odd, P(k) is true, and ∀n: (P(n) ∧ (n is odd) ∧ (n ≥ k)) → P(n+2) is true, then ∀n: ((n is odd) ∧ (n ≥ k)) → P(n) is true."
- Of course there is a similar rule for the evens.
- As before, we can prove the validity of these rules by ordinary induction.

#### Clicker Question #2

- "If n is a natural and n = 2 (mod 4), then n<sup>3</sup> n = 2 (mod 4)." If I want to prove this fact by induction, how should I do it?
- (a) base P(0), induction P(n)  $\rightarrow$  P(n+1)
- (b) base P(2), induction P(n)  $\rightarrow$  P(n+4)
- (c) base P(2), induction P(n)  $\rightarrow$  P(n+1)
- (d) base P(0), induction P(n)  $\rightarrow$  P(n+2)

### Answer #2

- "If n is a natural and n = 2 (mod 4), then n<sup>3</sup> n = 2 (mod 4)." If I want to prove this fact by induction, how should I do it?
- (a) base P(0), induction P(n)  $\rightarrow$  P(n+1)
- (b) base P(2), induction  $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+4)$
- (c) base P(2), induction P(n)  $\rightarrow$  P(n+1)
- (d) base P(0), induction P(n)  $\rightarrow$  P(n+2)

## Strong Induction

- The difficulty of ordinary induction in this last case was that the truth of P(n+1) depended on P(n-1) rather than on P(n), so that the premise of the ordinary inductive step P(n)
   → P(n+1) gave no help.
- If we return to the domino metaphor, all we actually care about is that every domino is knocked over, whether by the preceding domino or some other earlier one.

## Strong Induction

- We can modify our Law of Induction to get a new Law of Strong Induction, which will handle these situations. The new law will work in any situation where the old one will, so we could just use it automatically.
- But in the many situations where ordinary induction works, using it makes for a clearer proof. So if we don't recognize the need for strong induction immediately, we start an ordinary induction proof and convert it in midstream if necessary.

# The Law of Strong Induction

- The Law of Strong Induction is as follows:
- Given a predicate P(n), define Q(n) to be the predicate  $\forall i: (i \le n) \rightarrow P(i)$ .
- Then if we prove both P(0) and  $\forall n: Q(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ , we may conclude  $\forall n: P(n)$ .
- We'll now justify this formally by using ordinary induction.

# The Law of Strong Induction

- The reason this is valid is that those two steps are exactly what we need for an ordinary induction proof of ∀n: Q(n).
- Q(0) and P(0) are the same statement, and Q(n+1) is equivalent to  $Q(n) \wedge P(n+1)$ .
- So Q(n) → P(n+1) allows us to derive Q(n) → Q(n+1), the inductive step of our ordinary induction. (And of course ∀n: Q(n) implies ∀n:P(n).)

## Using Strong Induction

- In practice, this means that if in the middle of an ordinary induction we decide that Q(n) would be a more useful inductive hypothesis than P(n), we just assume it, retroactively converting the proof to a strong induction.
- There is nothing that we need to add to our conclusion, as by proving P(n+1) we also prove Q(n+1).

#### Existence of a Factorization

- Let P(n) be the statement "n can be written as a product of prime numbers".
- We have asserted that this P(n) is true for all positive n (0 cannot be written as such a product). Our "proof" has been a recursive algorithm that generates a sequence of primes that multiply to n.
- Now with Strong Induction (starting from 1 rather than 0) we can make this idea into a formal proof.

#### Existence of a Factorization

- We begin by noting that P(1) is true, since 1 is the product of an empty sequence of primes.
- Now we let Q(n) be the statement "((i ≥ 1) ∧ (i ≤ n)) → P(i)". We can finish the strong induction by proving the strong inductive step ∀n: ((n ≥ 1) ∧ Q(n)) → P(n+1).
- (We need the " $(n \ge 1)$ " so we are not asked to deal with the false statement P(0).)

#### Existence of a Factorization

- But this proof is easy! Let n be an arbitrary positive natural. If n+1 is prime, P(n+1) is true because n+1 is the product of itself.
- Otherwise, by the definition of primality, n+1
   = a × b where a and b are each in the range
   from 2 to n. Since a ≤ n and b ≤ n, each can
   be written as a product of primes by the
   strong IH. And multiplying these two
   sequences gives us one for n+1.

## Clicker Question #3

- "If n ≥ 1, the number of bits in the binary representation of n is the smallest natural k such that 2<sup>k</sup> > n." If I want to prove this by induction on n, I will use the fact that the binary for n is the binary for n/2 (Java division) plus one more bit for n%2. What steps do I need for my strong induction?
- (a) base P(1), induction  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$
- (b) base P(1), induction P(k)  $\rightarrow$  P(2k)  $\land$  P(2k+1)
- (c) base P(1), induction P(k)  $\rightarrow$  P(2k)
- (d) base P(1) and P(2), induction P(k)  $\rightarrow$  P(k+2)

#### Answer #3

- "If n ≥ 1, the number of bits in the binary representation of n is the smallest natural k such that 2<sup>k</sup> > n." If I want to prove this by induction on n, I will use the fact that the binary for n is the binary for n/2 (Java division) plus one more bit for n%2. What steps do I need for my strong induction?
- (a) base P(1), induction  $P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$
- (b) base P(1), induction  $P(k) \rightarrow P(2k) \land P(2k+1)$
- (c) base P(1), induction  $P(k) \rightarrow P(2k)$
- (d) base P(1) and P(2), induction P(k)  $\rightarrow$  P(k+2)

# Example: Making Change

- Suppose I have \$5 and \$12 gift certificates, and I would like to be able to give someone a set of certificates for any integer number of dollars.
- I clearly can't do \$4 or \$11, but if the amount is large enough I should be able to do it. By trial and error (or more cleverly) you can show that \$43 is the last bad amount.

# Example: Making Change

- Let P(n) be the statement "\$n can be made with \$5's and \$12's".
- I'd like to prove  $\forall n: (n \ge 44) \rightarrow P(n)$  by strong induction, starting with P(44).
- It's easy to prove  $\forall n: P(n) \rightarrow P(n+5)$ , which helps with the strong inductive step, namely  $\forall n: Q(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ , where Q(n) is the statement  $\forall i:((i \ge 44) \land (i \le n)) \rightarrow P(i)$ .

## Example: Making Change

- So let n be arbitrary and assume Q(n). If n ≥ 48, Q(n) includes P(n-4), and I can prove P(n +1) from P(n-4). But there are the cases of P(45), P(46), P(47), and P(48) which I have to do separately. One way to think of this is that with an inductive step of P(n) → P(n+5), I need five base cases.
- If my sum proving P(n) had at least two \$12's, I could replace them with five \$5's and get the inductive step for an ordinary induction.