

CS2209A 2017
Applied Logic for Computer Science

Lecture 18, 19

Well-ordering and induction

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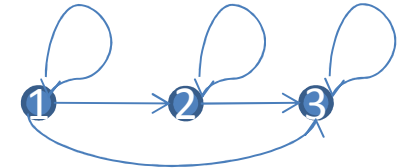
Partial and total orders



- A binary relation $R \subseteq A \times A$ is an **order** if R is **reflexive**, **anti-symmetric** and **transitive**.

– R is a **total order** if $\forall x, y \in A \ R(x, y) \vee R(y, x)$

- That is, every two elements of A are related.
- E.g. $R_1 = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \wedge x \leq y\}$ is a total order.
- So is alphabetical order of English words.
- But not $R_2 = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{Z} \wedge x < y\}$
 - not reflexive, so not an order.



– Otherwise, R is a **partial order**.

- $SUBSETS = \{(A, B) \mid A, B \text{ are sets} \wedge A \subseteq B\}$ is a partial order.
 - Reflexive: $\forall A, A \subseteq A$
 - Anti-symmetric: $\forall A, B \ A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq A \rightarrow A = B$
 - Transitive: $\forall A, B, C \ A \subseteq B \wedge B \subseteq C \rightarrow A \subseteq C$
 - Not total: if $A = \{1, 2\}$ and $B = \{1, 3\}$, then neither $A \subseteq B$ nor $B \subseteq A$
- $DIVISORS = \{(x, y) \mid x, y \in \mathbb{N} \wedge x, y \geq 2 \wedge \exists z \in \mathbb{N} \ y = z \cdot x\}$ is a partial order.
- **PARENT** is not an order. But **ANCESTOR** would be, if defined so that each person is an ancestor of themselves. It is a partial order.

Partial and total orders



- An order may have **minimal** and **maximal** elements (maybe multiple)
 - $x \in A$ is minimal in R if $\forall y \in A \ y \neq x \rightarrow \neg R(y, x)$
 - and maximal if $\forall y \in A \ y \neq x \rightarrow \neg R(x, y)$
 - \emptyset is minimal in SUBSETS (its unique minimum); universe is maximal (its unique maximum).
 - All primes are minimal in DIVISORS, and there are no maximal elements.

Functions



- **A function** $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is a **relation** on $X \times Y$ such that for every $x \in X$ there is **at most one** $y \in Y$ for which (x, y) is in the relation.

- Usual notation: $f(x) = y$
 - y is an **image** of x under f .

- X is the **domain** of f

- Y is the **codomain** of f

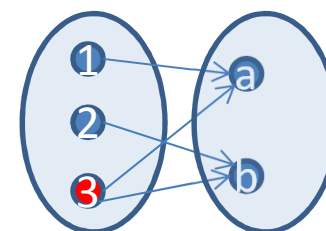
- **Range** of f (**image** of X under f):

- $\{y \in Y \mid \exists x \in X, f(x) = y\}$

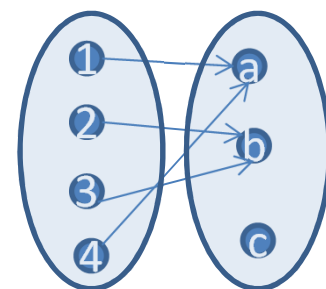
- **Preimage** of a given $y \in Y$:

- $\{x \in X \mid f(x) = y\}$

- Preimage of b is $\{2,3\}$.



This R is not a function



This R is a function with domain $\{1,2,3,4\}$, codomain $\{a,b,c\}$ and range $\{a,b\}$

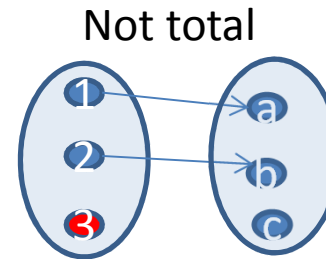
Functions



- **A function $f: X \rightarrow Y$ is**

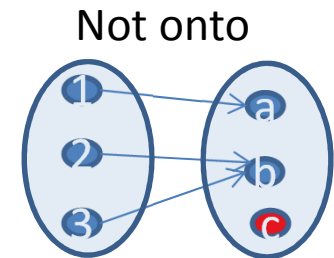
- **Total:** $\forall x \in X \exists y \in Y f(x) = y$

- $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
- $f(x) = x + 1$ is total.
- $f(x) = \frac{100}{x}$ is not total. Why?



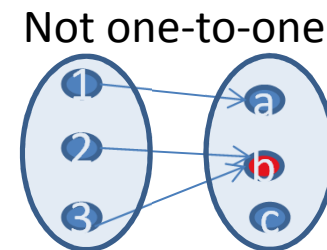
- **Onto:** $\forall y \in Y \exists x \in X f(x) = y$

- $f(x) = x + 1$ is onto over \mathbb{Z} , but not over \mathbb{N}



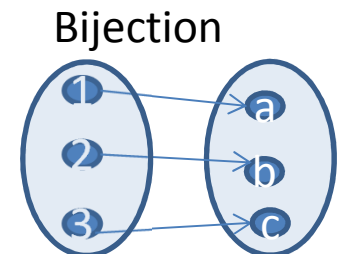
- **One-to-one:** $\forall x_1, x_2 \in X (f(x_1) = f(x_2) \rightarrow x_1 = x_2)$

- $f(x) = x + 1$ is one-to-one.
- $f(x) = x^2$ is not one-to-one

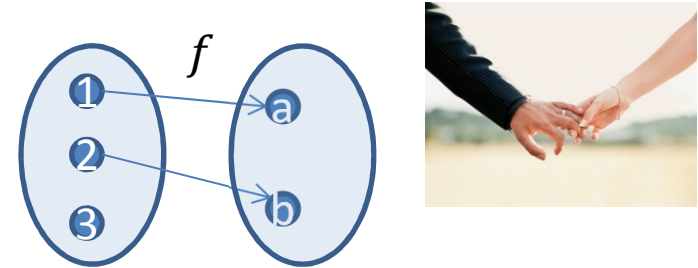


- **Bijection:** both one-to-one and onto.

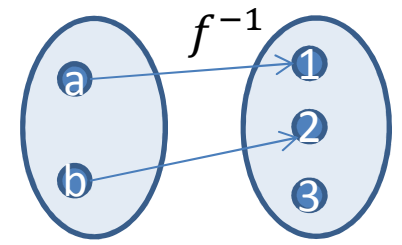
- $f(x) = x + 1$ is a bijection over \mathbb{Z} .



Functions

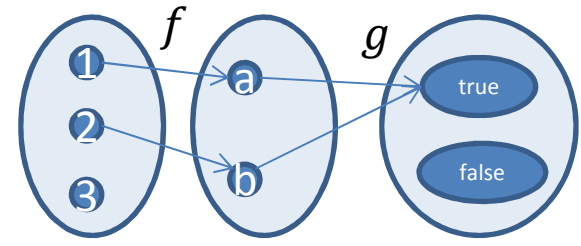


- An **inverse** of f is $f^{-1}: Y \rightarrow X$, such that $f^{-1}(y) = x$ iff $f(x) = y$
 - $f(x) = x + 1, f^{-1}(y) = y - 1$
 - *Only one-to-one functions have an inverse*



- **Composition** of $f: X \rightarrow Y$ and $g: Y \rightarrow Z$ is $g \circ f: X \rightarrow Z$ such that $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x))$

- $f(x) = \frac{x}{5}, g(x) = \lceil x \rceil$, over \mathbb{R}
 - $\lceil x \rceil$ is ceiling: x rounded up to nearest integer.



- $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = \lceil \frac{x}{5} \rceil$
- $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = \frac{\lceil x \rceil}{5}$
- $(g \circ f)(12.5) = \lceil 2.5 \rceil = 3$
- $(f \circ g)(12.5) = \frac{13}{5} = 2.6$
 - Order matters!



Puzzle: coins



- A not-too-far-away country recently got rid of a penny coin, and now everything needs to be rounded to the nearest multiple of 5 cents...
 - Suppose that instead of just dropping the penny, they would introduce a 3 cent coin.
 - Like British three pence.
 - What is the largest amount that cannot be paid by using only existing coins (5, 10, 25) and a 3c coin?

7c

Any number $n > 7$ can be paid with 3,5,10,25 coins (even just 3 and 5).

Well-ordering principle



- **Any non-empty subset of natural numbers contains the least element**
 - With respect to the usual total order $x \leq y$
 - Very useful for proofs!

Well-ordering principle



- Coins: $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}$, if $x > 7$ then $\exists y, z \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x = 3y + 5z$. So any amount > 7 can be paid with 3s and 5s.
 - Suppose, for the sake of **contradiction**, that there are amounts greater than 7 which cannot be paid with 3s and 5s.
 - Take a set S of all such amounts. Since $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$, and we assumed that $S \neq \emptyset$, by *well-ordering principle* S has the least element. Call it n .
 - Now, look at $n-3$; it cannot be paid by 3s and 5s either.
 - Since n is the least element of S , $n - 3 \leq 7 < n$
 - 3 cases:
 - $n-3 = 7$. Then $n=10=2*5$.
 - $n-3 = 6$. Then $n=9=3*3$
 - $n-3 = 5$. Then $n=8=3+5$.
 - In all three cases, got a contradiction.
 - Therefore, for every $x \in \mathbb{N}$, if $x > 7$ then $x=3y+5z$ for some $y, z \in \mathbb{N}$.



Sums, products and sequences



- How to write long sums, e.g., $1+2+\dots+(n-1)+n$ concisely?

– Sum notation (“sum from 1 to n ”):

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + \dots + n$$

- If $n=3$, $\sum_{i=1}^3 i = 1+2+3=6$.

- The name “ i ” does not matter. Could use another letter not yet in use.

- In general, let $f: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $m, n \in \mathbb{Z}$, $m \leq n$.

– $\sum_{i=m}^n f(i) = f(m) + f(m+1) + \dots + f(n)$

- If $m=n$, $\sum_{i=m}^n f(i) = f(m) = f(n)$.

- If $n=m+1$, $\sum_{i=m}^n f(i) = f(m) + f(m+1)$

- If $n > m$, $\sum_{i=m}^n f(i) = (\sum_{i=m}^{n-1} f(i)) + f(n)$

- Example: $f(x) = x^2$. $2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 = \sum_{i=2}^4 i^2 = 29$

Sums, products and sequences



- Similarly for product notation (product from m to n):

$$- \prod_{i=m}^n f(i) = f(m) \cdot f(m+1) \cdot \dots \cdot f(n) = (\prod_{i=m}^{n-1} f(i)) \cdot f(n)$$

$$- \text{For } f(x) = x, 2 \cdot 3 \cdot 4 = \prod_{i=2}^4 i = 24$$

$$- 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot n = \prod_{i=1}^n i = n! \text{ (n factorial)}$$



Sum of numbers formula

- Claim: for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sum_{i=0}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

- Proof.

- Suppose not.

- Let S be a set of all numbers n' such that $\sum_{i=0}^{n'} i \neq \frac{n'(n'+1)}{2}$.

By **well-ordering principle**, if $S \neq \emptyset$, then there is the least number k in S .

- Case 1: $k=0$. But $\sum_{i=0}^0 i = 0 = \frac{0(0+1)}{2}$. So formula works for $k=0$.

- Case 2: $k>0$. Then $k-1 \geq 0$.

- So $\sum_{i=0}^k i = (\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i) + k$.

- As k is the smallest bad number, the formula works for $k-1$.

- So $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i = \frac{(k-1)k}{2}$

- Now, $\sum_{i=0}^k i = (\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i) + k = \frac{(k-1)k}{2} + k = \frac{k^2 - k + 2k}{2} = \frac{k^2 + k}{2} = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$

- So the formula works for $k>0$, too.

- Contradiction. So S is empty, thus the formula works for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Gauss' proof:

1 + 2 + ... + 99 + 100 +

100 + 99 + ... + 2 + 1 =

101 + 101 + ... + 101 + 101 = 100 * 101

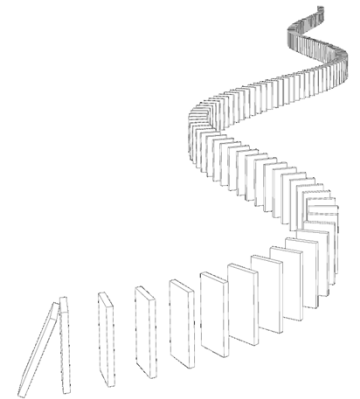
So $1+2+...+99+100 = \frac{100*101}{2}$

Works for any n , not just $n=100$



Mathematical induction

- Want to prove a statement $\forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$.
 - Check that $P(0)$ holds
 - And whenever $P(k)$ does not hold for some k , $P(k - 1)$ does not hold either
 - Contradicting well-ordering principle.
 - Contrapositive:
 - if $P(k-1)$ holds for arbitrary k ,
 - then $P(k)$ also must be true.
 - Conclude that $\forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$



Mathematical induction



- Want to prove a statement $\forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$.

- Check that $P(0)$ holds

Proving that $P(0)$ holds is called the **base case**.

- And whenever $P(k)$ does not hold for some k , $P(k - 1)$ does not hold either

- Contradicting well-ordering principle.

- Contrapositive:

That $P(k-1)$ holds is an **induction hypothesis**

- if $P(k-1)$ holds for arbitrary k ,

- then $P(k)$ also must be true.

Proving that $P(k-1) \rightarrow P(k)$ is the **induction step**

- Conclude that $\forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$

Mathematical Induction principle:

If $P(0) \wedge \forall k \in \mathbb{N} P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)$ then $\forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$



Sum of numbers formula



- Claim: for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\sum_{i=0}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
- Proof (by **induction**).
 - $P(n)$ is $\sum_{i=0}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ (statement we are proving by induction on n)
 - **Base case:** $k=0$. Then $\sum_{i=0}^0 i = 0 = \frac{0(0+1)}{2}$.
 - **Induction hypothesis:** Assume that $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} i = \frac{(k-1)k}{2}$ for an arbitrary $k > 0$
 - That is, for an arbitrary number $k-1 \in \mathbb{N}$
 - Can take k instead of $k-1$, but $k-1$ makes calculations simpler.
 - **Induction step:** show that $P(k-1)$ implies $P(k)$.
 - $\sum_{i=0}^k i = (\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i) + k$.
 - By induction hypothesis, $\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i = \frac{(k-1)k}{2}$
 - Now, $\sum_{i=1}^k i = (\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} i) + k = \frac{(k-1)k}{2} + k = \frac{k^2 - k + 2k}{2} = \frac{k^2 + k}{2} = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$
 - **By induction**, therefore, $P(n)$ holds for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Changing the base case



- Mathematical Induction principle:
 - $(P(0) \wedge \forall k \in \mathbb{N} P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)) \rightarrow \forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$
- What if want to prove it only for $x \geq a$?
 - Make a the base case (when $a \geq 0$). For the rest, assume $k \geq a$.
 - $(P(a) \wedge \forall k \geq a P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)) \rightarrow \forall x \geq a P(x)$
 - Here, $\forall x \geq a P(x)$ is a shorthand for
$$\forall x \in \mathbb{N} (x \geq a \rightarrow P(x))$$
 - To prove it works, prove $P(n')$ where $n' = n-a$.

Changing the base case



- Example: show that for all $n \geq 4$, $2^n \geq n^2$
 - $P(n)$: $2^n \geq n^2$
 - **Base case:** $n=4$. $2^4 = 16 = 4^2$
 - **Induction hypothesis:** assume that for an arbitrary $k \geq a$, $2^k \geq k^2$
 - **Induction step:** show that $2^k \geq k^2$ implies $2^{k+1} \geq (k+1)^2$
 - $2^{k+1} = 2 \cdot 2^k = 2^k + 2^k \geq k^2 + k^2$
 - $(k+1)^2 = k^2 + 2k + 1$.
 - Want: $k^2 + k^2 \geq k^2 + 2k + 1$, so $k^2 \geq 2k + 1$
 - Dividing both sides of the inequality by k : $k \geq 2 + \frac{1}{k}$
 - Since $k \geq 4$, and $2 + \frac{1}{k} \leq 3$, $2 + \frac{1}{k} \leq 3 < 4 \leq k$. So $k \geq 2 + \frac{1}{k}$ and thus $k^2 \geq 2k + 1$
 - So $2^{k+1} = 2 \cdot 2^k = 2^k + 2^k \geq k^2 + k^2 \geq k^2 + 2k + 1 = (k+1)^2$
 - **By induction**, for all $n \geq 4$, $2^n \geq n^2$
- **Corollary:** as n grows, an algorithm running in time n^2 will quickly outperform an algorithm running in time 2^n



Strong induction

- For our coins problem, needed not just $P(k-1)$, but $P(k-3)$, and to look at three cases.
- **Mathematical Induction** principle:
 - $(P(0) \wedge \forall k \in \mathbb{N} P(k) \rightarrow P(k+1)) \rightarrow \forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$
- **Strong Induction** principle:
 - $(\exists b \in \mathbb{N} \forall c \in \mathbb{N} (0 \leq c \wedge c \leq b \rightarrow P(c)))$
 $\wedge \forall k > b (\forall i \in \{0, \dots, k-1\} P(i)) \rightarrow P(k)$
 $\rightarrow \forall x \in \mathbb{N} P(x)$

Strong induction



- Strong induction seems stronger...
 - But in fact, **mathematical induction**, **strong induction** and **well-order principles** are equivalent to each other.
 - So choose the most convenient one.



Puzzle: coins



- A not-too-far-away country recently got rid of a penny coin, and now everything needs to be rounded to the nearest multiple of 5 cents...
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 - Like British three pence.
 - What is the largest amount that cannot be paid by using only existing coins (5, 10, 25) and a 3c coin?

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Any number $n > 7$ can be paid with 3,5,10,25 coins (even just 3 and 5).



Strong induction



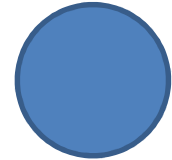
- **Strong Induction** principle (general form):
 - $(\exists b \in \mathbb{N} \forall c \in \mathbb{N} (a \leq c \wedge c \leq b \rightarrow P(c)) \wedge \forall k > b (\forall i \in \{a, \dots, k-1\} P(i)) \rightarrow P(k)) \rightarrow \forall x \in \mathbb{N} (x \geq a \rightarrow P(x))$
- **Coins:** $\forall x \in \mathbb{N}$, if $x > 7$ then $\exists y, z \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x = 3y + 5z$.
 - $P(n)$: $\exists y, z \in \mathbb{N} n = 3y + 5z$. Also, $a=8$.
 - **Base cases:** $b = 10$, so $c \in \{8, 9, 10\}$
 - $n=8$. $8 = 3 \cdot 1 + 5 \cdot 1$, so $y=1, z=1$.
 - $n=9$. $9 = 3 \cdot 3$, $y=3, z=0$
 - $n=10$. $10 = 5 \cdot 2$, $y=0, z=2$.
 - **Induction hypothesis:** Let k be an arbitrary integer such that $k > 10$. Assume that for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $8 \leq i < k$ $\exists y_i, z_i \in \mathbb{N} i = 3y_i + 5z_i$
 - **Induction step.** Show that induction hypothesis implies that $\exists y, z \in \mathbb{N} k = 3y + 5z$
 - Since $k \geq b$, $k - 3 \geq a$. So by induction hypothesis $\exists y_{k-3}, z_{k-3} \in \mathbb{N} k - 3 = 3y_{k-3} + 5z_{k-3}$. Now take $z = z_{k-3}$ and $y = y_{k-3} + 1$. Then $k = 3y + 5z$.
 - **By strong induction**, get that for all $x > 7$, $\exists y, z \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x = 3y + 5z$.



Puzzle: all horses are white



- Claim: all horses are white.
- Proof (by induction):
 - $P(n)$: any n horses are white.
 - Base case: $P(0)$ holds vacuously
 - Induction hypothesis: any k horses are white.
 - Induction step: if any k horses are white, then any $k+1$ horses are white.
 - Take an arbitrary set of $k+1$ horses. Take a horse out.
 - The remaining k horses are white by induction hypothesis.
 - Now put that horse back in, and take out another horse.
 - Remaining k horses are again white by induction hypothesis.
 - Therefore, all the $k+1$ horses in that set are white.
 - By induction, all horses are white.



What's wrong here?