

Loop Invariants: (1)

- An assertion that remains true each time the statements of a loop are executed
 - Tells us something about the values of the loop variables while executing a loop.
 - •Should be true at the beginning of each iteration, including the first!

$\{p\}$ while C do S $\rightarrow \{p \land \neg C\}$

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Bubble Sort Algorithm (1)

Algorithm Bubblesort(*sequence*):

Input: sequence of integers sequence

Postcondition: sequence is sorted & contains the same integers as the original sequence

length = length of *sequence*

for i = 0 to length - 1 do
for j = 0 to length - i - 2 do
if jth element of sequence >
 (j+1)th element of sequence
then
 swap jth and (j+1)th element
 of sequence

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Bubble Sort Algorithm (2)

- Loop Invariant Outer Loop:
 - •Last i elements of *sequence* are sorted and are all greater or equal to the other elements of the sequence.
- Loop Invariant Inner Loop:
 - •Same as outer loop and the jth element of *sequence* is greater or equal to the first j elements of *sequence*.

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Mathematical Induction: (1)

- Can be used only to prove results obtained some some other way:
 - •Not a tool for discovering formulas or theorems!
- Many theorems state P(n) is true for all positive integers n
 - Mathematical induction is used to prove assertions (propositions) of this kind.

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Mathematical Induction: (2)

- Used top prove statements of the form ∀nP(n), for all positive integers.
- A proof by mathematical induction that P(n) is true for all positive integers consists of two steps
 - Basis Step: show P(1) (or n = some other finite value) is true.
 - 2. Inductive Step: Show $P(n) \rightarrow P(n+1)$ is true for every positive integer n.

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Mathematical Induction: (3)

P(n) is called the *inductive hypothesis*. When both steps are done, then we have shown ∀nP(n).

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

- To prove the inductive step for every n, we need to show P(n) cannot be false when P(n) is true.
 - ★ Assume P(n) is true & show that under this assumption, P(n+1) must be true.

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Mathematical Induction: (4)

- **Remark**: It is not assumed P(n) is true for all positive integers! Only shown that if it is assumed P(n) is true then P(n+1) is also true.
- When using induction, we show that P(1) is true. Then since P(1) implies P(2), P(2) must be true. Then P(3) is true because P(2) implies P(3). Continuing along these lines, P(k) is true for any positive integer k.

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Mathematical Induction: (5)

- Useful Illustration:
 - Consider a line of people, person 1, person 2 etc. A secret is told to the first person and each person tells the secret to the next person in line.
 - Let P(n) be the statement that person n knows the secret.
 - ★ P(1) is true since it was told to first person.
 - ★ P(2) is true since person 1 tells person 2 and so on...
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Mathematical Induction: (6)

- Another Illustration:
 - Infinite row of dominos, labeled 1,2,3,...,n & each domino is standing up.
 - Let P(n) be the statement that domino n is knocked over.
 - If the first domino is knocked over, P(1) is true.
 - If whenever first domino is knocked over – P(1) is true, it knocks the (n+1)th domino over – P(n) → P(n+1) is true, then all dominos are knocked over!

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Mathematical Induction: (7)

- Sometimes we need to show P(n) is true for n=k, k+1, k+2... where k is an integer other than 1.
 - Can still use induction as long as we change the *Basis Step*.
 - Show P(k) is true and then show P(n) P(n+1) is true for n = k, k+1, k+2...
 - K can be negative, positive or zero.

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Recursive Methods (1):

- Sometimes we can reduce the solution to a problem with a particular input to the solution of the same problem with smaller input.
 - Solution to the original problem can be found with a sequence of *reductions* until problem is reduced to some initial case where solution is known.

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Recursion (Math): (2):

- Definition (Mathematical):
 - When an object is defined in terms of itself.
- Can be Used to Define:
 - Sequences, functions sets.
- Example:
 - Sequence of powers of 2 is given by a_n = 2ⁿ
 - Can also be defined as:

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★ Give the first term of the sequence: $a_0 = 1$

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Recursion (Math): (4):Example:

- *f* is defined recursively as:
 f(0) = 3
 - f(n + 1) = 2f(n) + 3
- $f(1) = 2f(0) + 3 = (2 \times 3) + 3 = 9$
- $f(2) = 2f(1) + 3 = (2 \times 9) + 3 = 21$
- $f(3) = 2f(2) + 3 = (2 \times 21) + 3 = 45$
 - Question:
 - Give an inductive definition of the factorial function: f(n) = n!
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Recursion (Math): (5):

• Solution:

• Initial value:

f(0) = 1

- Rule for finding f(n+1):
 - ★ (n+1)! is computed by multiplying n! by (n+1)

 $f(n+1) = f(n) \times (n+1)$

- Determining the Value of the Factorial Function:
 - Use the rule that shows how to express *f*(n+1)

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Recursion (Math): (6):

- In terms of *f*(n) several times:
- Example of f(4) = 4!

 $f(4) = 4f(3) = 4 \times 3f(2) = 4 \times 3 \times 2f(1) = 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 \times f(0) = 4 \times 3 \times 2 \times 1 \times 1 = 24$

• When *f*(0) is the only function that occurs, no more reductions are necessary.

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* Only thing to do is insert f(0) into formula.

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- A method is called *recursive* if it solves a problem by reducing it to an instance of the same problem with smaller input.
 - A Recursive Method calls itself as a subroutine with.
 - Each time it calls itself, the problem is "reduced" until we reach a point where the problem is small enough to be easily solved.

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Recursive Methods (2):

- Candidate Problems for Recursion Have the Following Characteristics:
 - One or more simple cases of the problem have simple non-recursive solution (*base cases*).
 - For other cases there is a process for substituting one or more reduced cases of the problem that are closer to the base case.

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Recursive Methods (3): Eventually the problem can be reduced to base cases only, all of which are easy to solve! Recursive algorithms we will encounter will generally be of the form: If base case reached then solve it else reduce problem using recursion COSC 2011 23 Section

Recursive Methods (4): Recursive Factorial: public static long factorial(long n){ if (n <= 1) return 1; else return n * factorial(n - 1); Method calls itself recursively to compute factorial of n-1. When recursive call terminates, returns (n-1)!

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Recursive Methods (6):

- Important Properties Every Recursive Methods Should Possess:
 - Method must terminate!
 - ★ Base case
 - ★ Even infinite recursive method will terminate!
 - Always perform the recursive call on a smaller input value.
 - * Reduce the problem at every recursive call.

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Recursion & Induction: Notice the Similarity Between Recursion and Induction!

- Induction can be used to prove the correctness of many recursive formulas & functions!
- Problem with Recursion:
 - Usually require more computation and space over an iterative approach

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