# Efficient Algorithms

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# Lecture 2: Mathematical Induction and Recurrence

## What is Mathematical Induction?

- It is a very useful and powerful proof technique.
- It is a proof technique for mathematical/logical claims that involve natural numbers and discrete structures such as trees, graphs, computer programs etc.
- It can prove claims that might be otherwise hard to prove using other proof techniques.

## Mathematical Induction

### The principle of mathematical induction states that

for some property 
$$P(n)$$
, if we have that  $P(n_0)$  and  $\forall k \geq n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \colon P(k) \Rightarrow P(k+1)$  then,  $\forall n \geq n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \colon P(n)$ 

## Mathematical Induction

How induction works *intuitively*:

```
Suppose n_0 = 0.
```

```
It is true for n=0.

If it true for n=0, it is true for n=1.

If it true for n=1, it is true for n=2.

If it true for n=2, it is true for n=3.
```

•••

## The Domino Effect

Imagine an infinitely long line of dominos.

In order to get all the dominos to fall,

1. the *first* domino must fall

2. We must make sure that if **any domino** falls (the  $k^{th}$  one), we know **the next one** (the  $k+1^{th}$  one) will also fall

**Illustration by Courtesy of Wikipedia** 

## Another Way of Thinking: Climbing a ladder

Imagine a ladder with an infinite number of steps.

In order to get climb all the steps of the ladder without falling,

- 1. We must be able to climb to the *first* step
- 2. We must make sure that from an arbitrary  $k^{th}$  step, we can climb to **the next one** (the  $k+1^{th}$  one) without falling

## Mathematical Induction

**Mathematical induction** establishes a statement for **natural numbers**, e.g.,

$$\forall n \geq n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$$
:  $P(n)$ 

- P(n) is called a **predicate**.
- P(n) takes n as input and evaluates to either *True* or *False*.
- Examples:
  - $P(n) \equiv 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  for all  $n \ge 1$
  - $P(n) \equiv 6^n 1$  is divisible by 5 for all  $n \ge 1$
  - $P(n) \equiv n < 2^n \text{ for all } n \ge 0$

## **Proof Template**

Suppose  $\forall n \geq n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ : P(n) is a predicate we want to prove.

#### Step 0 (Preparatory Step):

We define the predicate P(k).

#### Step 1 (Base Case):

We want to show that the base case is true. In other words, we must show that  $P(n_0)$  holds.

#### Step 2 (Induction Hypothesis):

Assume that P(k) holds for any integer n = k.

#### Step 3 (Inductive Step):

We must show that P(k + 1) is also true.

#### Step 4 (Conclusion):

We can now conclude the claim  $\forall n \geq n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ : P(n) is true.

Example I: 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Show that 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
 for all  $n \ge 1$ .

### **Preparatory Step:**

Formulate the claim as a predicate:

$$P(n) \equiv \forall n \ge 1: 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Now, we have to show that P(n) holds for all  $n \ge 1$  using induction.

Example I: 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Show that 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
 for all  $n \ge 1$ .

**Base Case:** 
$$n=1$$

$$L.H.S. = 1$$

$$R.H.S. = \frac{1(1+1)}{2} = 1$$

Therefore, P(0) is (*trivially*) true.

\*\*\*NB: Most base cases of induction proofs are often trivially true.

Example I: 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Show that 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
 for all  $n \ge 1$ .

### **Induction Hypothesis:**

Assume true for n = k.

That is, 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$
 for any  $n = k$ .

Example I: 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Show that 
$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
 for all  $n \ge 1$ .

### **Inductive Step:**

We have to show it is true for n = k + 1.

That is, we have to show that  $1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + k + (k + 1) = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$ .

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + k + 1$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) = \frac{k(k+1) + 2(k+1)}{2}$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1) + 2(k+1)}{2}$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + k + (k+1) = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$$
(Simplifying R.H.S.)

We have just shown that P(k+1) is true.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, we have shown that  $\forall n \geq 1$ :  $P(n) \blacksquare$ 

Show that  $5 \mid 6^n - 1$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

### **Preparatory Step:**

Formulate the claim as a predicate:

$$P(n) \equiv \forall n \geq 1$$
:  $5 \mid 6^n - 1$ 

Now, we have to show that P(n) holds for all  $n \ge 1$  using induction.

Show that  $5 \mid 6^n - 1$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

**Base Case:** n = 1

$$5 \mid 6^1 - 1 = 5$$

Therefore, P(0) is (*trivially*) true.

Show that  $5 \mid 6^n - 1$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

### **Induction Hypothesis:**

Assume true for n = k.

That is,  $5 \mid 6^k - 1 \text{ for any } n = k.$ 

Show that  $5 \mid 6^n - 1$  for all  $n \ge 1$ .

### **Inductive Step:**

```
We have to show it is true for n = k + 1.
```

That is, we have to show that  $5 \mid 6^{k+1}-1$ .

```
5 \mid 6^k - 1
                                                 (I.H.)
6^k - 1 = 5q for some q \in \mathbb{N}
                                                 (Definition of being divisible by 5)
6(6^k - 1) = 30q
                                                 (Multiplying both sides by 6)
6^{k+1} - 6 = 30q
                                                 (Expanding L.H.S.)
6^{k+1} - 1 - 5 = 30q
                                                (-6 = -1 - 5)
6^{k+1} - 1 = 30q + 5
                                                (Adding both sides by 5)
6^{k+1} - 1 = 5(6q + 1)
                                                 (30q + 5 = 5(6q + 1))
5 | 6^{k+1} - 1
                                                 (Definition of being divisible by 5)
```

We have just shown that P(k + 1) is true.

**Conclusion:** Therefore, we have shown that  $\forall n \geq 1$ :  $P(n) \blacksquare$ 

Show that  $n < 2^n$  for all  $n \ge 0$ .

### **Preparatory Step:**

Formulate the claim as a predicate:

$$P(n) \equiv \forall n \ge 0: n < 2^n$$

Now, we have to show that P(n) holds for all  $n \ge 0$  using induction.

Show that  $n < 2^n$  for all  $n \ge 0$ .

**Base Case:** n = 0

R.H.S. = 0

 $L.H.S. = 2^0 = 1$ 

R.H.S. < L.H.S.

Therefore, P(0) is (*trivially*) true.

Show that  $n < 2^n$  for all  $n \ge 0$ .

### **Induction Hypothesis:**

Assume true for n = k.

That is,  $k < 2^k$  for any n = k.

```
Show that n < 2^n \overline{\text{for all } n \ge 0}.
Inductive Step:
We have to show it is true for n = k + 1.
That is, we have to show that k + 1 < 2^{k+1}.
k < 2^k
                                               (I.H.)
k + 1 < 2^k + 1
                                               (Adding 1 to both sides)
2^k + 1 \le 2^k + 2^k
                                               (1 \le 2^k \text{ for any } k \ge 0)
2^k + 1 \le 2 \cdot 2^k
                                               (2^k + 2^k = 2 \cdot 2^k)
                                               (2 \cdot 2^k = 2^{k+1})
k+1 < 2^{k+1}
                                               (Transitivity of \leq and \leq)
We have just shown that P(k + 1) is true.
Conclusion: Therefore, we have shown that \forall n \geq 1: P(n) \blacksquare
```

# Proof of $n \in O(2^n)$

We can now adapt the result of the previous induction proof to show that  $n \in O(2^n)$ .

### **Proof:**

From the previous induction proof, we know that

```
n < 2^n for all n \ge 0

n \le 2^n for all n \ge 0

n \le 1 \cdot 2^n for all n \ge 0
```

Therefore, we can choose  $n_0 = 0$  and c = 1

## Revisiting the Dominos

### Let's revisit the dominos.

- The inductive approach we are using can be sometimes insufficient to prove some claims.
- So far, to show that the  $k+1^{th}$  domino falls, we must show that the  $k^{th}$  one falls.
- Actually, with the knowledge that  $k + 1^{th}$  domino falls, we know much more.
  - We know that the  $1^{th}$ ,  $2^{th}$ , ...  $k^{th}$  dominos fall.
  - This variant of mathematical induction is known as **strong induction** or **complete induction**.
  - The first variant we showed earlier is known as weak induction.

## Strong Mathematical Induction

### The principle of strong mathematical induction states that

for some property P(n), if we have that  $P(n_0) \ \text{ and } \ \forall k \geq n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \colon P(n_0) \land P(n_0+1) \land \cdots \land P(k) \ \Rightarrow P(k+1)$  then,  $\forall n \geq n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \colon P(n)$ 

**Induction Hypothesis** 

First Attempt (using the weak version):

**Base Case:** n=2

2 is a prime number so it can be written as a (trivial) product of primes.

### **Induction Hypothesis:**

Assume true for n=k. That is, an arbitrary integer k can be written as a product of primes.

### **Inductive Step:**

We need to show that k+1 can be written as a product of primes.

First Attempt (using the weak version):

### **Inductive Step:**

We need to show that k + 1 can be written as a product of primes.

We are bound to get stuck at this step, trying to establish P(k + 1) from P(k).

Why? : Because there is no obvious relation between the factorization of k and the factorization of k+1.

How can we make use of knowing that  $14 = 2 \times 7$  to establish the fact that  $15 = 3 \times 5$ ?

**Second Attempt (using the strong version):** 

### **Induction Hypothesis:**

Assume true for n=2,3,...,k. That is, an arbitrary integer  $2 \le k$  can be written as a product of primes.

In other words, we assume  $P(2) \wedge P(3) \wedge \cdots \wedge P(k)$  is true.

### **Inductive Step:**

We need to show that k + 1 can be written as a product of primes.

We split our consideration into two cases as follows.

Case I: k + 1 is a prime.

This is trivially true because a prime can be trivially written as a product of primes.

<u>Case II:</u> k + 1 is a composite number.

Therefore, there exist integers  $1 \le a, b \le k$  such that

$$k + 1 = a \cdot b$$

Since  $1 \le a, b \le k$ , we can invoke our I.H.

Thus,

a and b can be written as a product of primes. (I.H.)

Thus, k + 1 is also a product of primes.

**Conclusion:** Every integer n > 1 can be written as a product of primes.

### **Preparatory Step:**

Let P(n) be the proposition that any integer n=4a+5b for some  $a,b\in\mathbb{N}$  for all  $n\geq 12$ .

### **Base Cases:**

We have **FOUR base cases** to prove, namely, P(12), P(13), P(14) and P(15).

\*\*\*We will explain later why we need *FOUR base cases* towards the end of the proof.

### **Base Cases:**

**Case I:** 
$$n = 12$$

$$12 = 4(3) + 5(0)$$

**Case II:** 
$$n = 13$$

$$13 = 4(2) + 5(1)$$

Case III: 
$$n = 14$$

$$14 = 4(1) + 5(2)$$

*Case IV:* 
$$n = 15$$

$$15 = 4(0) + 5(3)$$

### **Induction Hypothesis:**

Assume the proposition is true for  $12 \le n \le k$ .

That is, k = 4a + 5b for some integers a, b.

### **Inductive Step:**

We must show it is true for k + 1. In other words, k + 1 = 4c + 5d for some integers c, d.

### **Inductive Step:**

```
k-3=4x+5y (I.H.)

k-3+4=4x+5y+4 (Adding 4 to both sides)

k+1=4x+5y+4 (-3+4=1)

k+1=4(x+1)+5y (4x+4=4(x+1))
```

Since x+1 and y are integers, we have found c=x+1, d=y. Thus, P(k+1) is true.

**Conclusion:** n = 4a + 5b for all  $n \ge 12$ .

Why are **FOUR bases cases** needed?

At the start of the inductive step, we chose to invoke our induction hypothesis at k-3.

To make our proof valid, we need to make sure that

$$k - 3 \ge 12$$
$$k \ge 15$$

Therefore, the result of inductive step is valid if and only if  $n \geq 15$ .

Therefore, we need *separate proofs* for n = 12,13,14 and 15.

n=15 is included as a base case as it acts as the entry point during the inductive step.

## Summary

- Mathematical induction is a very powerful tool for proving statements for natural numbers and discrete structures.
  - However, it does not provide any **intuition** as to why the result is true
- We can use other proof techniques to prove statements mathematical induction can be used to prove.
  - ,e.g., direct proof, proof by contradiction, proof by contrapositive
  - These proofs provide *intuition and logic* behind the result.

## Recursion

A *circular* (aka *recursive*) definition is often regarded as not useful.

However, in mathematics, especially in computer science, we always come across *recursive* definitions to define concepts in terms of themselves.

Many algorithms can be expressed *recursively* more naturally than *iteratively*.

We can define the factorial of a number recursively as follows:

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & n=0 \\ n \cdot (n-1)! & n>0 \end{cases}$$

We can see great similarity between *recursion* and *induction*. Actually, they are closely related.

- The base case of a recursive definition is akin to the base case of mathematical induction.
- The recursive case is akin to the inductive step in mathematical induction.

```
1: procedure FACTORIAL(n)

2: if n = 0 then

3: return 0

4: else

5: return n * \text{FACTORIAL}(n-1)
```

We can analyze the time complexity of this recursive algorithm as follows:

The base case:  $T(0) = c_1$ 

The recursive case:  $T(n) = T(n-1) + c_2$ 

We can analyze the time complexity of this recursive algorithm as follows:

The base case:  $T(0) = c_1$ 

The recursive case:  $T(n) = T(n-1) + c_2$ 

 $c_1$  and  $c_2$  are constants.

**Q:** How do we solve the above **recurrence relation**, i.e., express the recurrence as a **closed-form** formula?

A: Many ways !!!

One simple method is to do **backward substitution** and see the unfolding pattern:

```
We start with the time complexity of the outermost call: T(n) = T(n-1) + c_2 Eq.1 Substituting T(n-1) = T(n-2) + c_2 into Eq.1 gives T(n) = (T(n-2) + c_2) + c_2 Eq.2 Substituting T(n-2) = T(n-3) + c_2 into Eq.2 gives T(n) = ((T(n-3) + c_2) + c_2) + c_2 Eq.3 .... Substituting T(n-k) = T(n-k-1) + c_2 into Eq.k gives T(n) = ((T(n-k) + c_2) + c_2) + c_2) + \cdots))
```

We can now see the unfolding pattern:

$$T(n) = T(n-k) + kc_2$$

To reach the base case and terminate the algorithm, we set n - k = 0.

Thus, n = k.

$$T(n) = T(0) + nc_2$$

Since  $T(0) = c_1$ 

$$T(n) = c_1 + nc_2 \in \Theta(n) \blacksquare$$

**NB:** We can use other methods such as using the **generating function** to solve this recurrence.

## The Recursion Tree Method

Suppose there is a recursive algorithm whose time complexity follows the following recurrence relation:

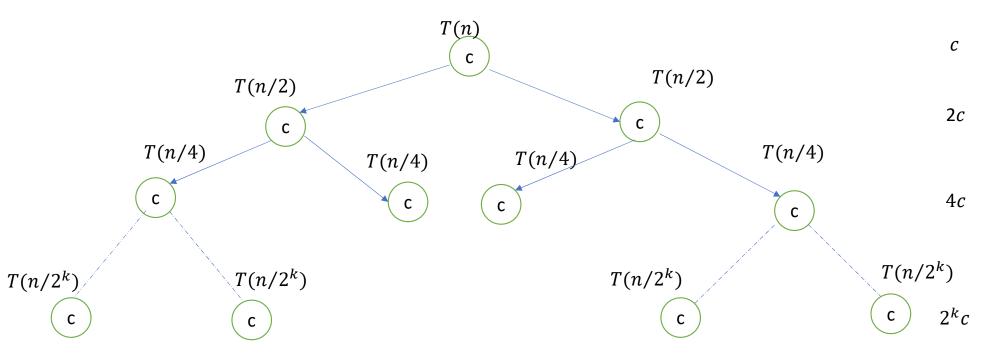
The base case: T(1) = c

The recursive case: T(n) = 2T(n/2) + c

We can also use the *backward substitution* method as we did previously.

## The Recursion Tree Method

### **Total work at each level**



$$T(n) = c(1 + 2 + 4 + \dots + 2^k)$$

## The Recursion Tree Method

The time complexity is the sum of all the work done at every level of the recursion tree:

$$T(n) = c(1+2+4+\dots+2^k) = \frac{c(1)(2^{k+1}-1)}{2-1} = c(2\cdot 2^k-1)$$

The algorithm terminates all the recursive calls at the leaves are done.

That is when the problem size  $n/2^k$  reduces to 1.

$$n/2^k = 1$$

So 
$$n=2^k$$
.

Therefore, 
$$T(n) = c(2 \cdot 2^k - 1) = c(2n - 1) = \Theta(n)$$

## More on solving recurrence relation

We will encounter situations where we need to solve recurrence relations later as we progress through the course.

**Master Theorem** will be introduced when we talk about the **divide and conquer** strategy.

Next time, we will cover *data structures*.