

Math 55 - Spring 2004 - Lecture notes # 12 - Mar 2 (Tuesday)

Keep Reading Sections 3.1 - 3.5 (not 3.6)

(we will not cover 3.5 in detail, since it appears elsewhere in EECS curriculum, but just do a few examples; you don't have to know sorting algorithms)

Homework, due Mar 10

- (1) Let  $f(0)=0$ ,  $f(1)=1$ ,  $f(n)=f(n-1)+f(n-2)$  for  $n \geq 2$ .  
Let  $r_1 = (1+\sqrt{5})/2$ ,  $r_2 = (1-\sqrt{5})/2$ .  
Prove by induction that  $f(n) = (r_1^n - r_2^n)/\sqrt{5}$
- (2) Let  $\text{cost}(n)$  be the number of additions needed to compute  $f(n)$  by the following recursive algorithm:

```
func f(n)
  if n=0 return(1)
  else if n=1 return(1)
  else return(f(n-1)+f(n-2))
```

Use induction to prove that  $\text{cost}(n) = f(n)-1$ , which means that the cost of the recursive algorithm grows very fast,  $O(r_1^n)$ , i.e. about  $O(1.62^n)$

- (3) Suppose  $g(1) = 7$ ,  $g(2) = 8$ , and  $g(n)=2*g(n-1)-2*g(n-2)$  for  $n>2$ .  
Derive a closed form formula for  $g(n)$ .
- (4) 3.3-16, 18, 50, 60, 62
- (5) 3.4- 8, 14, 38, 48, 50, 62

Goals for today: Continue induction proofs  
Recursive functions

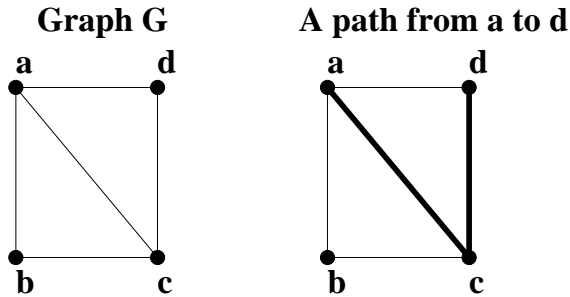
EX: So far we have been doing induction on numbers, showing  $P(n)$  is true if  $P(k)$  is true for numbers  $k$  smaller than  $n$ . But we can also do induction on other structures besides numbers, such as data structures that come up in programs. We illustrate with a structure called a tree, which is a special case of a graph.

DEF A graph  $G = (V,E)$  consists of a nonempty set  $V$  of vertices, and a set  $E$  of edges connecting them. More formally, if  $a$  in  $V$  and  $b$  in  $V$  are vertices, then  $(a,b)$  in  $E$  means that there is an edge connecting  $a,b$

EX:  $G = (V,E)$ ,  $V = \{a,b,c,d\}$ ,  $E = \{(a,b),(b,c),(c,d),(d,a),(a,c)\}$

DEF a path from node a to node c is a set of edges connected end to end starting at a and ending at c

EX: G as before, path from a to d consists of edges (a,c),(c,d)

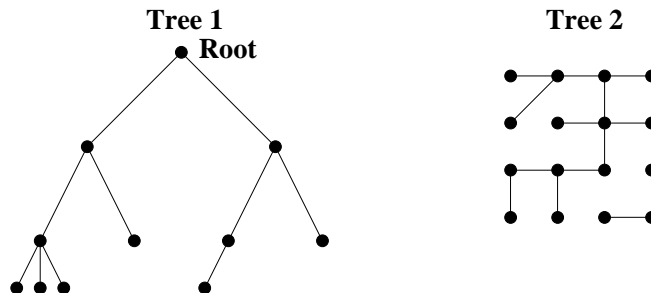


EX: Other common graphs, questions people ask about them  
 $V = \{\text{cities}\}$ ,  $E = \{\text{roads connecting them}\}$ ;  
 what are shortest paths from one city to another?  
 $V = \{\text{computers}\}$ ,  $E = \{\text{networks connecting them}\}$ ,  
 what is available bandwidth for any two computers to communicate?  
 $V = \{\text{web pages}\}$ ,  $E = \{\text{Whether one points to another}\}$   
 what is best answer to a web search?  
 $V = \{\text{people}\}$ ,  $E = \{\text{Whether one person has met another}\}$   
 what is likely path of spread of disease?

ASK&WAIT: Other examples?

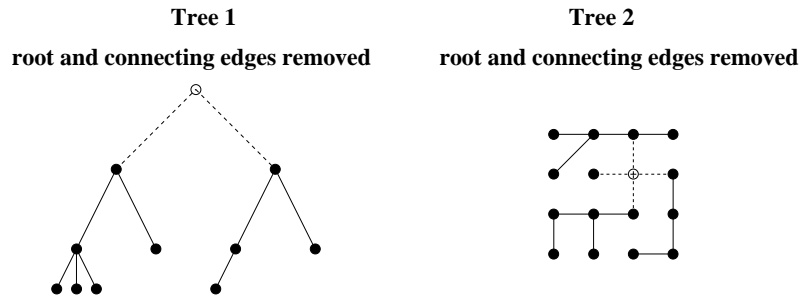
DEF A tree is a graph with exactly one path between any two nodes.  
 A rooted tree is a tree with a distinguished node called a root

ASK&WAIT: Is G a tree?



ASK&WAIT: Where is the root of Tree 2 above?

Fact: if I remove the root from a tree T, and its k connecting edges, I am left with k unconnected subtrees  $T_1, \dots, T_k$  (ie there is no path from any node in  $T_i$  to any node in  $T_j$ )



ASK&WAIT: what are  $k$  connected subtrees in figure above?

Proof: let  $r_1, \dots, r_k$  be the nodes connected to the root.

I need to show 2 things: that each  $T_i$  is unconnected to any other, and each  $T_i$  is a tree.

I use proof by contradiction: suppose node  $a$  in  $T_i$  and node  $b$  in  $T_j$  were connected; I will find a contradiction. Since  $a$  is connected to  $r$  and  $b$  is connected to  $r$  in  $T$ , there must be two paths from  $a$  to  $r$  in  $T$  (the one directly from  $a$  to  $r$  and the one via  $b$ ); this contradicts the fact that  $T$  is a tree.

Now suppose that  $T_i$  is not a tree; I will find another contradiction.  $T_i$  not a tree means there are two nodes  $c$  and  $d$  in  $T_i$  with either 0 or  $>1$  paths connecting them. If there are  $>1$  paths connecting them in  $T_i$ , the same paths exist in  $T$ , so  $T$  must not be a tree. If there are no paths connecting them in  $T_i$ , then there are in particular no paths connecting them both to  $r_i$ , and hence no paths in  $T$  connecting both to root; contradicting the fact that  $T$  was a tree.

Thm: Let  $T$  be any tree. Let  $E$  be the number of edges of  $T$  and  $N$  be the number of nodes. Then  $E = N-1$ .

Proof: We do two slightly different proofs.

First we do induction on trees,

or more precisely the height  $H$  of a tree,

the length of the longest path from the root to a leaf.

Base case: height  $H = 0$  means that the tree consists of the root by itself ( $N=1$ ) and no edges ( $E=0$ ). Clearly  $E = N-1$ .

Induction step: Assume the result is true for trees up to a certain height  $H$ , and consider a tree  $T$  of height  $H+1$ .

By the lemma, if we remove the root  $r$  we get  $k$  unconnected subtrees  $T_1, \dots, T_k$ , whose roots are the vertices that were directly connected to  $r$ . The heights of these trees is at most  $H$ , so by the induction hypothesis

$$\#nodes(T_i) = \#edges(T_i) + 1$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \#nodes(T) &= \sum_{i=1}^k \#nodes(T_i) + 1 \\ &\quad \dots \text{the "+1" is to count the root } r \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k (\#edges(T_i) + 1) + 1 \\ &\quad \dots \text{by induction hypothesis} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \#edges(T_i) + k + 1 \\ &= \#edges(T) + 1 \\ &\quad \dots \text{since the edges in } T \text{ include the} \\ &\quad \text{edges in } T_1, \dots, T_k \text{ and the } k \text{ edges} \\ &\quad \text{connecting } T_1, \dots, T_k \text{ to } r \end{aligned}$$

In the second proof, we do induction on  $N$ , the number of nodes in the tree.

Base case:  $N=1$  means there is one node, and no edges, so  $E=0$  as desired. (This is the same base case as before.)

Induction step: Assume the result is true for trees of up to  $N$  nodes, and consider a tree with  $N+1$  nodes.

Remove any node  $r$  from  $T$  and its  $k$  adjacent edges, leaving trees  $T_1, \dots, T_k$ . The number of nodes in any  $T_i$  is at most  $N$ , since we removed  $r$ , so the induction hypothesis applies, and  $\#nodes(T_i) - 1 = \#edges(T_i)$ . Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \#nodes(T) &= \sum_{i=1}^k \#nodes(T_i) + 1 \\ &\quad \dots \text{the "+1" is to count the node } r \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k (\#edges(T_i) + 1) + 1 \\ &\quad \dots \text{by induction hypothesis} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \#edges(T_i) + k + 1 \\ &= \#edges(E) + 1 \text{ as desired.} \\ &\quad \dots \text{since the edges in } T \text{ include the} \\ &\quad \text{edges in } T_1, \dots, T_k \text{ and the } k \text{ edges} \\ &\quad \text{connecting } T_1, \dots, T_k \text{ to } r \end{aligned}$$

Here is a Bogus proof: Why is it bogus?

"Thm": All Berkeley students have the same color eyes.

proof: We will use induction on  $n$  to prove that that if  $S$  is a set of  $n$  Berkeley students, then all students in  $S$  have the same color eyes.

Base case ( $n=1$ ): then any set  $S = \{\text{student}\}$  consisting of one student has the property that all students in  $S$  have the same color eyes

Induction step: Assume the result is true for  $n$ .

Let  $S$  be any set of  $n+1$  students:

$$\begin{aligned}
S &= \{s(1), s(2), \dots, s(n+1)\} \\
&= S_1 \cup S_2 \text{ where} \\
S_1 &= \{s(1), s(2), \dots, s(n)\} \text{ and} \\
S_2 &= \{s(2), s(3), \dots, s(n+1)\}
\end{aligned}$$

By induction all students in  $S_1$  have the same eye color, since  $S_1$  has  $n$  members. Similarly all students in  $S_2$  have the same eye color. In particular, they all have the same eye color as  $s(2)$ , say, since  $s(2)$  is in  $S_1$  and in  $S_2$ . So all students in  $S$  have the same eye color.

A function  $f(n)$  where  $n$  is a nonnegative integer is defined recursively if

- 1) we give the value of  $f(0)$
- 2) we give a rule for computing  $f(n)$  from  $f(n-1)$ , when  $n \geq 1$

EX:  $f(0) = 1, f(n) = n \cdot f(n-1)$

ASK&WAIT: what is a closed form formula for  $f(n)$ ? proof by induction

Analogous program:

```

func f(n)
  if n=0
    return(1)
  else
    return n*f(n-1)
  endif

```

What does it mean for a program to call itself?

Ex: if  $n=3$ ,  $f(3)$  computes  $3 \cdot f(2) = 3 \cdot (2 \cdot f(1)) = 3 \cdot (2 \cdot 1) = 3 \cdot 2 = 6$

ASK&WAIT: how many times is  $f()$  called when you call  $f(10)$ ?

EX:  $f(0) = 1, f(n) = a \cdot f(n-1) = a^n$ , proof by induction

Analogous program: `func f(n) if n=0 return(1) else return a*f(n-1)`

We can also define  $f(n)$  recursively via

- 1) we give the value of  $f(0), f(1), \dots, f(k)$
- 2) for  $n > k$ , we give a rule for computing  $f(n)$  from  $f(0), \dots, f(n-1)$

EX: Fibonacci numbers:  $f(0)=0, f(1) = 1, f(n)=f(n-1)+f(n-2)$

$n=$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	...
$f(n)=$	0	1	1	2	3	5	8	13	21	34	55	...

Analogous program:

```

func f(n)
  if n=0 return(1)
  else if n=1 return(1)
  else return f(n-1)+f(n-2)

```

How much does it cost to compute  $f(n)$ ?

Via loop:

```
array g(n)
g(0)=0, g(1)=1, for i=2 to n, g(i)=g(i-1)+g(i-2), end for
Then g(i) = f(i)
cost = # additions = n-1
```

Via recursive program above:

EX: what happens when you call f(4)? (show call tree)

cost(n) = # additions to compute f(n) using recursion

cost(0) = cost(1) = 0

Otherwise, cost(n) = cost(n-1) + cost(n-2) + 1

n = 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 ...

cost(n) = 0 0 1 2 4 7 12 20 33 54 ...

cost(n)+1 = 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34 55 ... = f(n)

(you will prove this by induction in homework)

Just how big is f(n)? Is it O(n)? To decide we use formula for f(n):

Via formula

Define  $r_1 = (1+\sqrt{5})/2 \sim 1.62$  and

$r_2 = (1-\sqrt{5})/2 \sim -.62$

Then  $f(n) = (r_1^n - r_2^n)/\sqrt{5}$

(you will prove this on homework, by induction)

In other words, f(n) grow like  $O(1.62^n)$ , exponentially

ASK&WAIT: How much does evaluating this formula cost, compared to other ways?

Evaluating formula cleverly MUCH cheaper than either O(n) or  $O(1.62^n)$

Derivation of formula for f(n)

(1) "Guess" that there is a solution of  $f(n)=f(n-1)+f(n-2)$  of form  $r^n$  for some constant r. We know there is, We only need to find r.

Plug in to get  $r^n = r^{(n-1)} + r^{(n-2)}$ , and solve for r.

$r=0$  is one possibility; otherwise divide by  $r^{(n-2)}$  to get

$r^2 = r + 1$ , a quadratic equation with solutions

$r_1 = (1+\sqrt{5})/2$  and  $r_2 = (1-\sqrt{5})/2$

(2) So  $r_1^n$  and  $r_2^n$  are solutions but neither satisfies  $f(0)=0, f(1)=1$ .

But note that  $\alpha r_1^n$  and  $\beta r_2^n$  are also solutions for any  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , as is their sum  $\alpha r_1^n + \beta r_2^n$ .

So seek  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  such that

$\alpha r_1^0 + \beta r_2^0 = \alpha + \beta = 0$  and

$\alpha r_1^1 + \beta r_2^1 = 1$

2 linear equations in 2 unknowns: solve them for  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  to get

$-r_1(\alpha+\beta) + (\alpha r_1 + \beta r_2) = \beta(r_2 - r_1) = 1$ ,

so  $\beta = 1/(r_2 - r_1) = -1/\sqrt{5}$  and  $\alpha = -\beta = 1/\sqrt{5}$

and  $f(n) = (r_1^n - r_2^n)/\sqrt{5}$

Formulas like this exist for any linear recurrence like

$$h(n) = a*h(n-1) + b*h(n-2) + c*h(n-3),$$

where a,b,c are constants and h(0),h(1),h(2) known; see chapter 5

EX: We can also describe "well-formed formulas (WFF)" or "arithmetic expressions" recursively:

Well-formed:  $a+b$ ,  $(a+b)/c$ ,  $(a+b)/c + a^d$ ,  $((a+b)/c + a^d)/(a-d)$ , ...

Not well-formed:  $a-$ ,  $(ab+*($ , ...

$(a-a)/(a-a)$  is "well-formed", since we only care about the "syntax", not the value of the formula

We can define these recursively as follows:

- (1) Any single variable (a,b,c,...) or number (7, 3.1416,...) is a WFF
- (2) If E is a WFF, so is (E)
- (3) If E is a WFF, so is -E
- (4) If E1 and E2 are WFF, so is E1+E2
- (5) If E1 and E2 are WFF, so is E1-E2
- (6) If E1 and E2 are WFF, so is E1\*E2
- (7) If E1 and E2 are WFF, so is E1/E2
- (8) If E1 and E2 are WFF, so is E1^E2

EX: Shorthand notation:

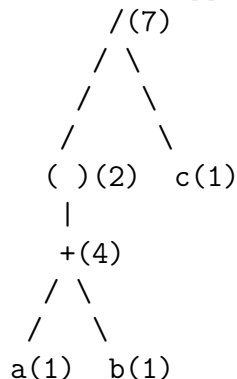
$E \rightarrow$  variable | number | (E) | -E | E+E | E-E | E\*E | E/E | E^E

This is called a "grammar", and is used by compilers (CS164)

EX:  $(a+b)/c$  is WFF because it is gotten by applying the rules

- (1) to a, (1) to b, (4) to  $a+b$ , (2) to  $(a+b)$ , (1) to c, (7) to  $(a+b)/c$

Order in which we apply rules is usually represented by a "parse tree":



EX: 1 goal of the compiler (parser) is to take an expression  $(a+b)/c$  and either

- 1) produce the parse tree, and the corresponding rules for each part, or
- 2) decide there is no parse tree, and print a "syntax error" message

Use this to prove (by induction) that any WFF has as many "("s as ")"s.

Proof: Base case: a variable or number has 0 parentheses

Induction case: take each rule (2)-(8) and confirm that the number of "("s and ")"s stays equal:

Rule (2): Number of "("s is number of "("s in  $E + 1$ , and number of ")"s is number of ")"s in  $E + 1$ , so if  $E$  had equal numbers of each, so does  $(E)$

Rule (3): numbers of parentheses does not change

Rules (4)-(8): numbers of parentheses is the sum of those in  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , so if there were equally many "(" and ")" in  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ , the same is true when you combine them

EX: Analysis of Euclidean Algorithm:

```
x=a,y=b, ... assume x >= y, swap them otherwise
while y != 0
  r = x mod y
  x = y
  y = r ... still true that x >= r
end while
return gcd = x
```

Recursive version of same algorithm:

```
func gcd(x,y)
  if x<y, swap x and y
  if y = 0 then return(x)
  else return( gcd( y, x mod y ) )
```

How many times is the while loop executed?

Def: Let  $N(x)$  denote the number of bits needed to represent the nonnegative integer  $x$  ( $N(x) = \text{floor}(\log_2 x) + 1$  for  $x > 0$ ,  $N(0)=1$ ).

Theorem: The number of times the loop in the Euclidean Algorithm is executed is bounded by  $N(a)+N(b) \leq \log_2 a + \log_2 b + 2$

Proof: We will use induction on  $N(x)+N(y)$ , showing it decreases by at least one after each pass through the loop, so it must stop by the time  $N(x)+N(y)=2$  if not sooner.

ASK&WAIT: Base case: What are  $x$  and  $y$  if  $N(x)+N(y)$  reaches 2?

Induction step:

Let  $x_0$  and  $y_0$  denote the (old) values of  $x$  and  $y$  at the beginning of the loop, and  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  denote the (new) values of  $x$  and  $y$  at the end. We need to show that  $N(x_n)+N(y_n) \leq N(x_0)+N(y_0)-1$ , because then by induction the number of passes through the loop to compute  $\text{gcd}(x_0,y_0)$  will be bounded by

$(N(x_n)+N(y_n)) + 1 = (N(x_0)+N(y_0)-1) + 1 = N(x_0) + N(y_0)$  as desired.

Case 1: Suppose that  $N(x_0)=N(y_0)$ , neither  $x_0$  nor  $y_0 = 0$ .



ASK&WAIT: When we divide  $x_0 = q \cdot y_0 + r$  using the Division Algorithm, what is  $q$ ?

Then  $r = x_0 - q \cdot y_0$  has at most  $N(x_0) - 1$  bits since the leading bit cancels, and so

$N(x_n) + N(y_n) = N(y_0) + N(r) \leq N(y_0) + N(x_0) - 1$  as desired.

Case 2: Suppose that  $N(x_0) > N(y_0)$ . Then  $r < y_0$  has at most  $N(y_0)$  bits, so

$N(x_n) + N(y_n) = N(y_0) + N(r) \leq N(y_0) + N(y_0) < N(x_0) + N(y_0)$   
 $\leq N(x_0) + N(y_0) - 1$  as desired.

Note: Lamé's Theorem in book has slightly different bound, but same idea