

# Problem 1.

## Honors Data Structures

### Theoretical homework 2

a) Let's create a table to see where our general branch for solving this problem will come from:

$k$	$L$
0	1
1	2
2	4
3	4
4	8
5	8
6	8
7	8
8	16
9	16
10	16
11	16
12	16

From the table to the left we can see easily that  $L$  doubles every time when  $k$  is in the form  $k = 2^x$  for some  $\stackrel{\wedge}{x} \in \mathbb{N}_0$ . From here we can easily const. generalize this observation by induction:

1) Base case:  $k=1, L=2$ .

2) Hypothesis: Every time  $k=2^x$  for some natural number  $x$  (or  $x=0$ )  $L$  doubles.

3) ~~Induction~~ Let's assume that the hypothesis is true for  $1 \leq k \leq 2^s$  for some natural number  $s$ .

4) Proof: If we had doubled  $L$  the last time when  $k=2^s$ , then  $L$  will not need to double for  $k \in [2^s; 2^{s+1}-1]$  because  $L = 2 \times k = 2 \times 2^s = 2^{s+1} \Rightarrow$  If  $k$  becomes  $2^{s+1}$ , then  $L$  needs to double.  $\Rightarrow$  Induction is proved!

Now, let's assume that there is such a constant  $m$  for which  $2^m \leq n < 2^{m+1}$ . It's trivial why we can

always find such a number (i.e.  $n$  will always be between something and something bigger).

Now, for  $n$  pushes, we would need an amount of cost only for the pushing. We would need an additional

$1+2+4+\dots+2^m$  amount of cost for the copying.

Let's say that  $1+2+4+8+\dots+2^m = a$

$$\Rightarrow 2a = 2+4+8+\dots+2^m + 2^{m+1} = 2(1+2+4+\dots+2^m)$$

$$\Rightarrow 2a - a = (2+4+8+\dots+2^{m+1}) - (1+2+4+\dots+2^m) =$$

$$= 2+4+8+16+\dots+(+2^{m+1}) \quad \text{(-1)} \cancel{2}-\cancel{1}-\cancel{4}-\cancel{8}-\cancel{16}-\dots-\cancel{2^m} =$$

$$= \boxed{2^{m+1} - 1} \Rightarrow \boxed{a = 2^{m+1} - 1} \Rightarrow \text{Our total cost}$$

$$\text{would be: } a+n = 2^{m+1} - 1 + n < 2^{m+1} + n$$

However, we know that  ~~$2^m \leq n < 2^{m+1}$~~   $2^m \leq n < 2^{m+1}$

$$n \geq 2^m \Leftrightarrow 2n \geq 2^{m+1} \Rightarrow 2n + n \geq 2^{m+1} + n$$

$$\Rightarrow 3n \geq n + 2^{m+1} > n + 2^{m+1} - 1 = a+n$$

$\Rightarrow 3n \geq$  total cost for  $n$  pushes!

b) We can use the Banker's method to prove what we want. If we "take a coin" of 3 coins every time we push, we can see that we'll always have  $\geq 0$  coins in the bank. That's because we are paying 1 coin for every

Problem 1 continue:

push operation & keeping 2 coins when we don't push operation & keeping 2 coins when we do  
don't have to allocate more memory and we're  
paying this +  $(2k)$  coins when we do have to  
allocate more memory because of the previous  
doublings and this one. This follows from the induction  
from part 1a) since we know that if  $n \in [2^m; 2^{m+1})$   
we'll need  $1+2+4+\dots+2^m = 2^{m+1}-1$  allocations cost  
 $\approx 2^{m+1}$  allocations cost. Thus, when we reach  $k$ , we'll  
need  $(2k)$  coins to cover the allocations up to now.

However, for the  $k$  pushes we've "saved"  $(2k)$  coins  
because for each of the  $k$  pushes we "save" 2 coins.  
Thus, at the worst case, i.e. when we pay the most we'll  
be left with at least  $2k - 2k = 0$  coins.  $\Rightarrow$  We'll always  
have non-negative amount of coins in the bank

c) If we increase the size by a constant  $c$ , then  
we won't have a linear solution because: ~~With extreme~~  
we'll have to do  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{c} \right\rfloor$  doublings and since  $c$   
is just a constant we know that  $O\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{c} \right\rfloor\right) = n$ .  
since we also have  $n$  pushes, then <sup>w</sup> the  
complexity will not be linear. Let's assume that  
~~With  $n$  pushes &  $d$  coins~~  $d \in \mathbb{N}, d \in [0; c)$   
and  $(n-d) : c$

## Problem 2.

We're given a full binary tree of  $N$  nodes.

In order for a tree to be full, we need every node:

I: either to be leaf;

II: or to have exactly 2 children

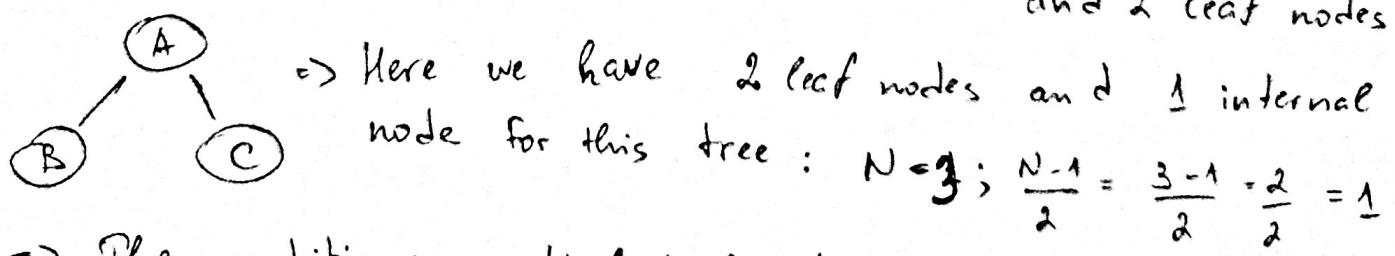
Now, let's look at the "smallest" possible full binary trees:

1) If we have a tree with only 1 node: A

This tree satisfies the condition since it has 1 node and this node is a leaf.  $\Rightarrow$  For this case:  $N=1$ .

$$\frac{N-1}{2} = \frac{1-1}{2} = \frac{0}{2} = 0 ; \text{ since our single node is a leaf node, it's true that we have } 0 \text{ internal nodes.}$$

2) If we have a tree with only 3 nodes  $\rightarrow$  1 root node and 2 leaf nodes



$\Rightarrow$  The condition is satisfied here too.

~~After~~ We can use the above 2 cases as a base case for our proof by induction!

$$\Rightarrow \text{Let } n-d = \cancel{b}c \quad \Rightarrow n = bc + d$$

Every c we have to double:

$$\Rightarrow c + 2c + 3c + \dots + bc =$$

$$= c(1+2+\dots+b) = c \frac{b(b+1)}{2} =$$

$$= \left(\frac{b+1}{2}\right) bc = \left(\frac{b+1}{2}\right) (n-d)$$

However:  $n = bc + d \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{n-d}{c} = b}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{b+1}{2} = \left(\frac{\frac{n-d}{c} + 1}{2}\right)(n-d) = \left(\frac{n-d+c}{2c}\right)(n-d)$$

In this answer we have to include n pushes

$$\Rightarrow \text{The total cost would be now } \left(\frac{n-d}{2c} + \frac{1}{2}\right)(n-d) + n =$$

$$= \frac{(n-d)^2}{2c} + \frac{n-d}{2} + n = \frac{(n-d)^2}{2c} + \frac{3n-d}{2}$$

Since c, d are constants, we know that:

$$O\left(\frac{(n-d)^2}{2c} + \frac{3n-d}{2}\right) = O(n^2) \text{ since } n^2 \text{ is}$$

the highest power  $\Rightarrow$  Not linear!

Statement: A full binary tree of  $N$  nodes has  $\left(\frac{N-1}{2}\right)$  internal nodes.

Base case:  $N=1$  and  $N=3$  shown above

Inductive step:

1) Hypothesis : Assume the statement holds for all odd integers  $1 \leq N \leq 2k+1$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$

2) We need to show that it works for  $\boxed{2k+3}$

Since we know from the hypothesis that the statement holds for  $N=2k+1$ , let's start with a tree that has  $N=2k+1$  nodes and insert 2 more.

For  $N=2k+1$  we have  $\left(\frac{N-1}{2}\right) = \frac{2k+1-1}{2} = k$  internal nodes.

We want to prove that for a tree with  $N=2k+3$  nodes, we would have  $\left(\frac{N-1}{2}\right) = \frac{2k+3-1}{2} = \frac{2k+2}{2} = (k+1)$  internal nodes.

Starting with a tree with  $(2k+1)$  nodes we must add 2 nodes to reach  $(2k+3)$  nodes.

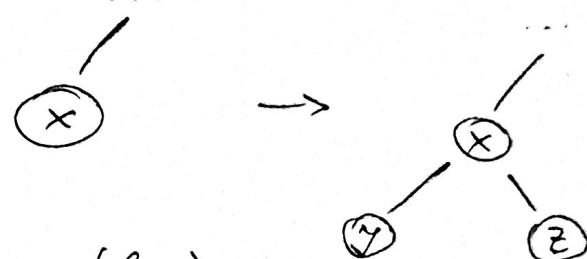
We can add 2 nodes either by:

1) Adding 1 node to 2 leaf nodes

2) Adding 2 nodes to the same leaf node

However, the 1<sup>st</sup> case will ~~fail~~ produce a tree that's not full.  $\Rightarrow$  Only the 2<sup>nd</sup> case can happen.

The ~~2~~ second case will produce 2 new leaf nodes and 1 new internal node:



$\Rightarrow$  Our internal nodes are now  $(k+1)$  and our total number of nodes is  $(2k+1) + 2 = \boxed{2k+3}$   $\Rightarrow$  The induction statement holds for  $N = 2k+3$  too!  $\Rightarrow$  Statement holds for any odd, natural  $N$ !

Note: we did not assess the case where we insert nodes internally, rather than ~~on~~ on the leaf nodes. However, since we used strong induction we can safely assume WLOG that ~~any~~ ~~other~~ tree configurations which have  $N \leq 2k+1$  nodes satisfy the condition. And since we're choosing a randomly selected leaf node to "attach" the 2 new nodes to, this assumption is plausible.

Note 2: We proved the induction only for odd  $N$ . However, if a tree has an even number of nodes, then it cannot be full. We can prove the claim that for every odd  $N$  there exists at least 1 full binary tree. This can be done by simple induction:

1) Base:  $N = 1$ : (A)  $\rightarrow$  works since that's a leaf node

2) Hypothesis: Assume that there exists at least 1 full binary tree for all odd integers  $1 \leq N \leq 2k+1$

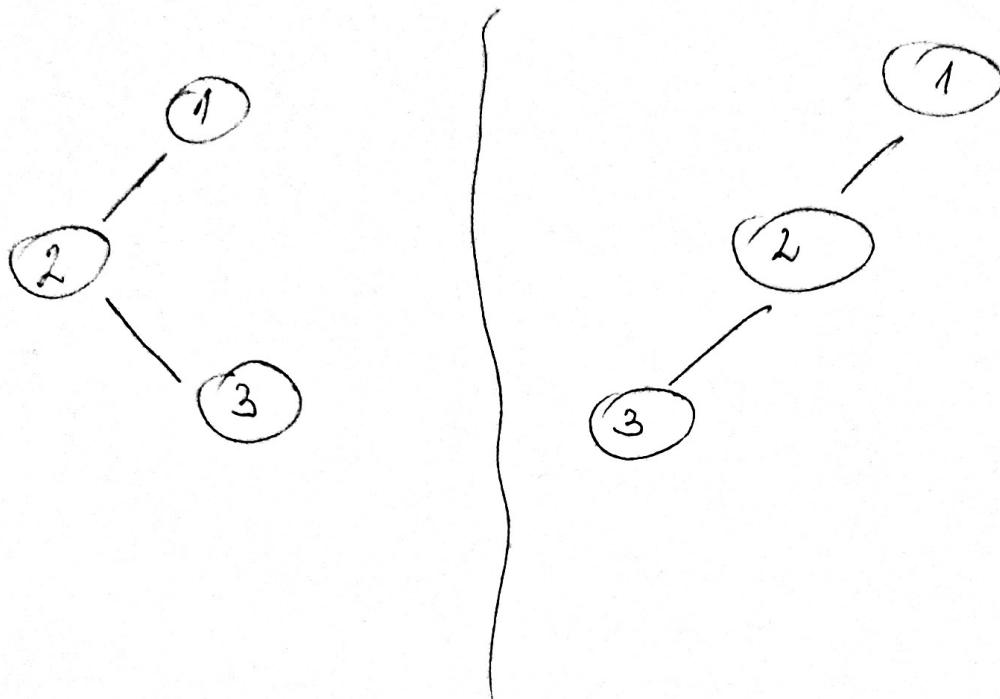
3) We need to show that there exists at least 1 full binary tree with  $N = 2k+3$  nodes. Well, that's easy. Just add a pair of nodes to a random leaf and we're done!  $\Rightarrow$  Induction holds.

However, if we try to take any tree with odd number of nodes and add a single node to ~~to~~ any of its leaves, ~~the~~ the tree will not be full anymore

$\Rightarrow$  Only odd  $N$  trees can be full, thus, completing our analysis for all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ .

### Problem 3.

We're going to provide a proof by contradiction:

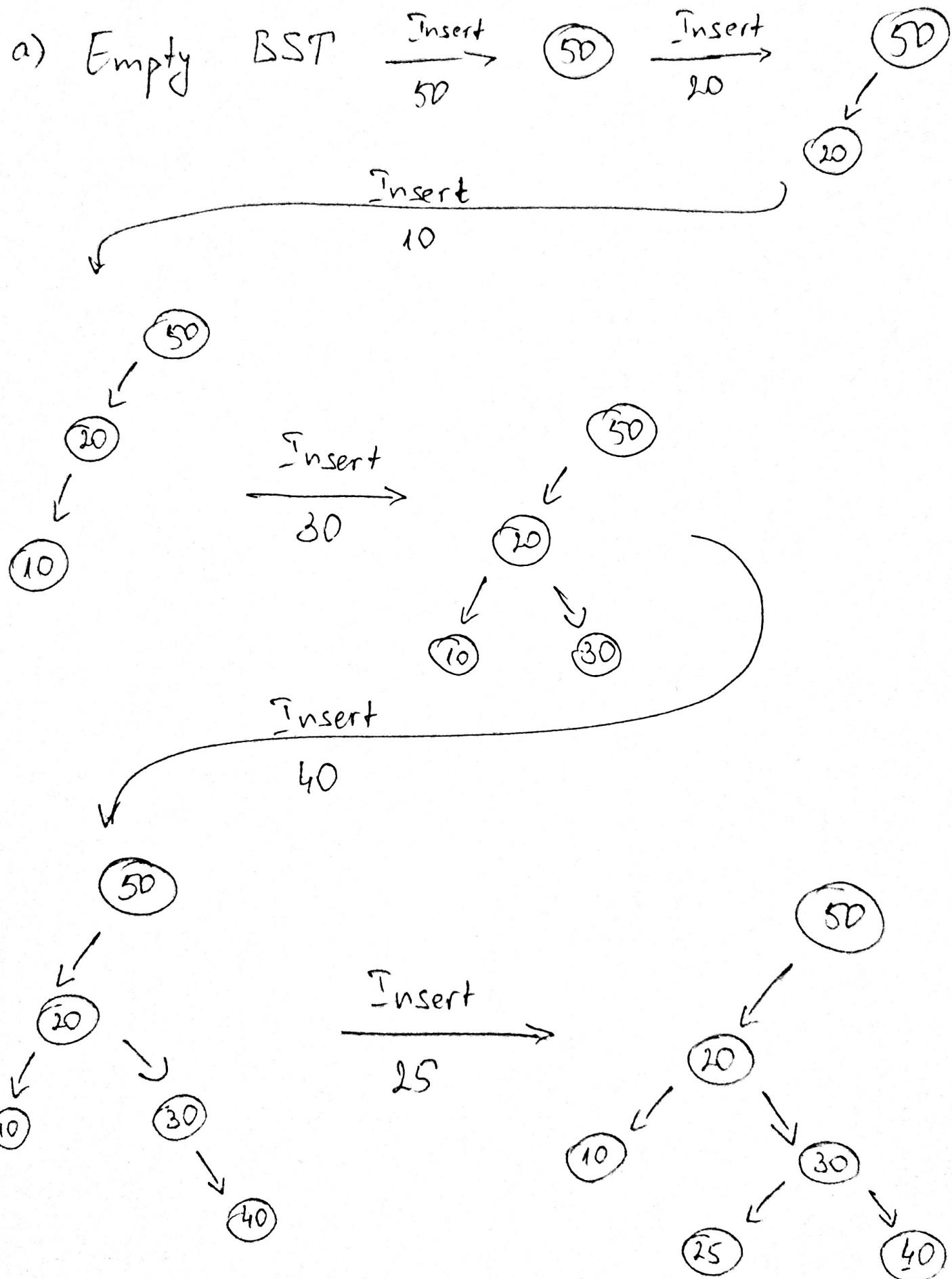


For both trees we can see that:

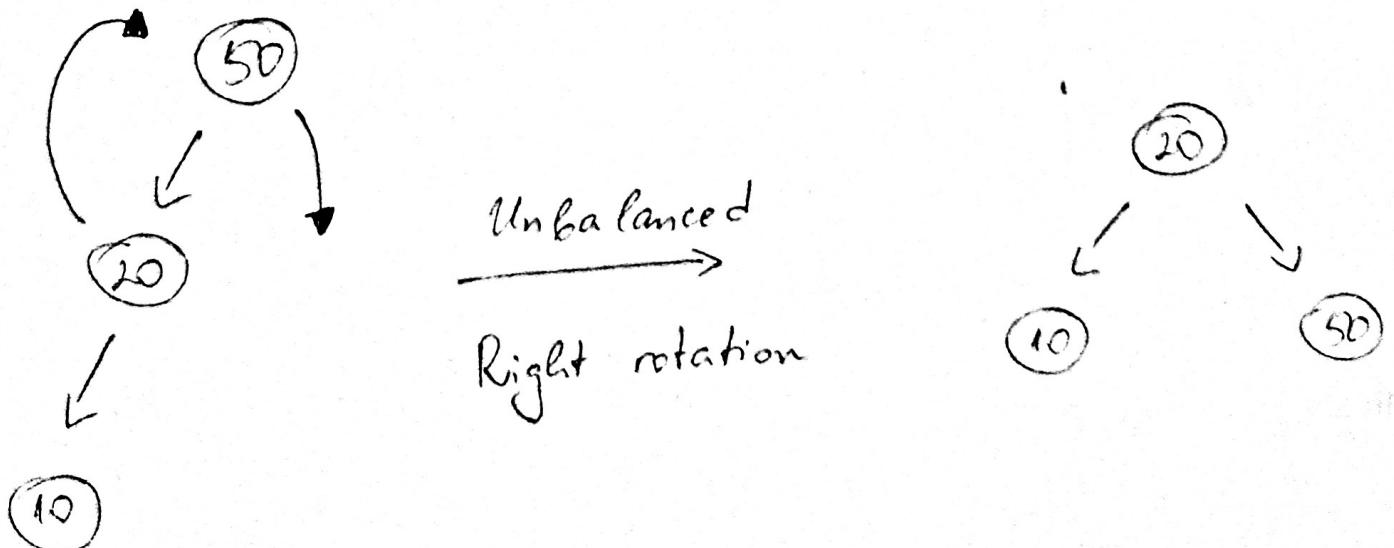
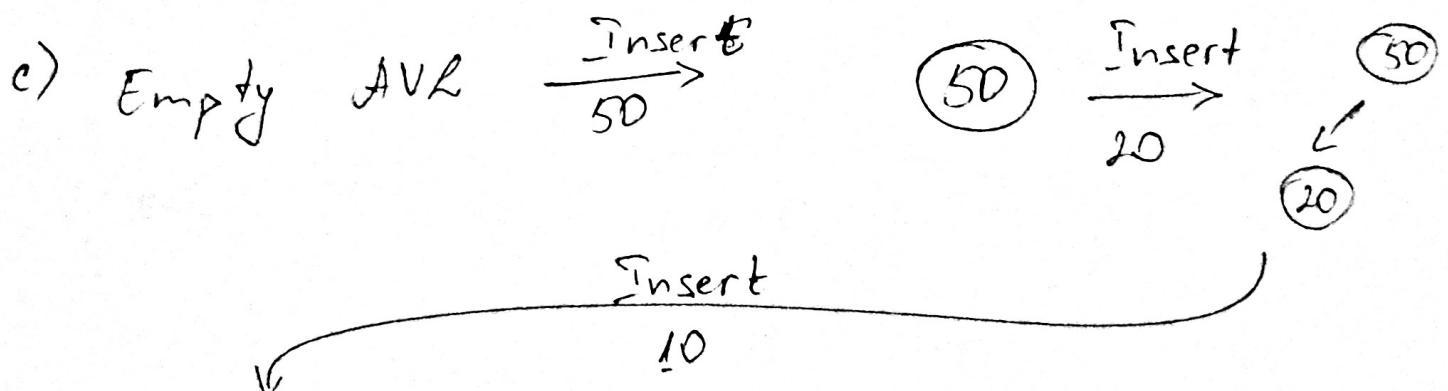
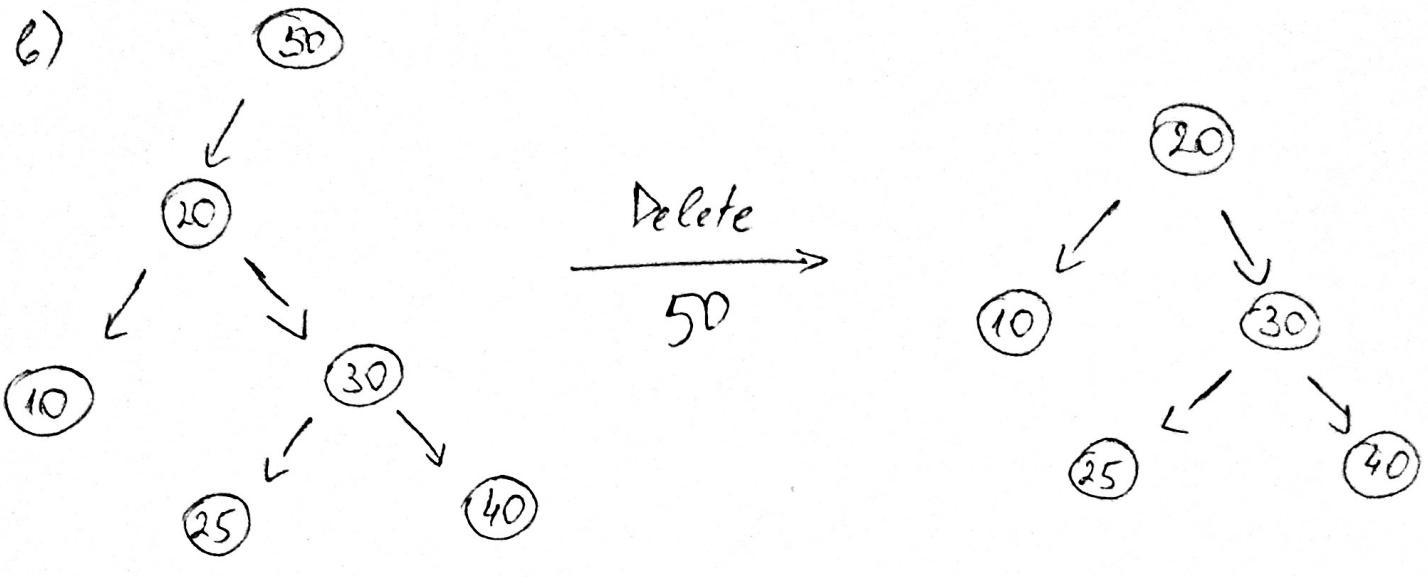
- 1) Preorder: 1 2 3
- 2) Postorder: 3 2 1

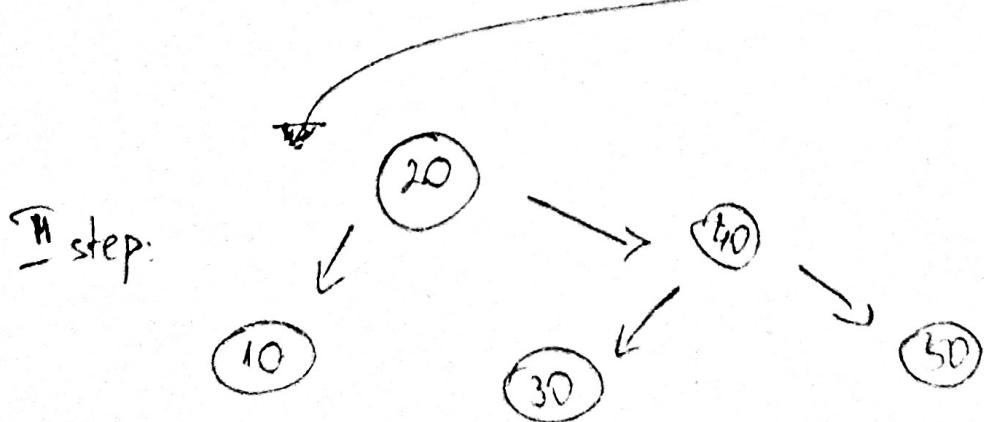
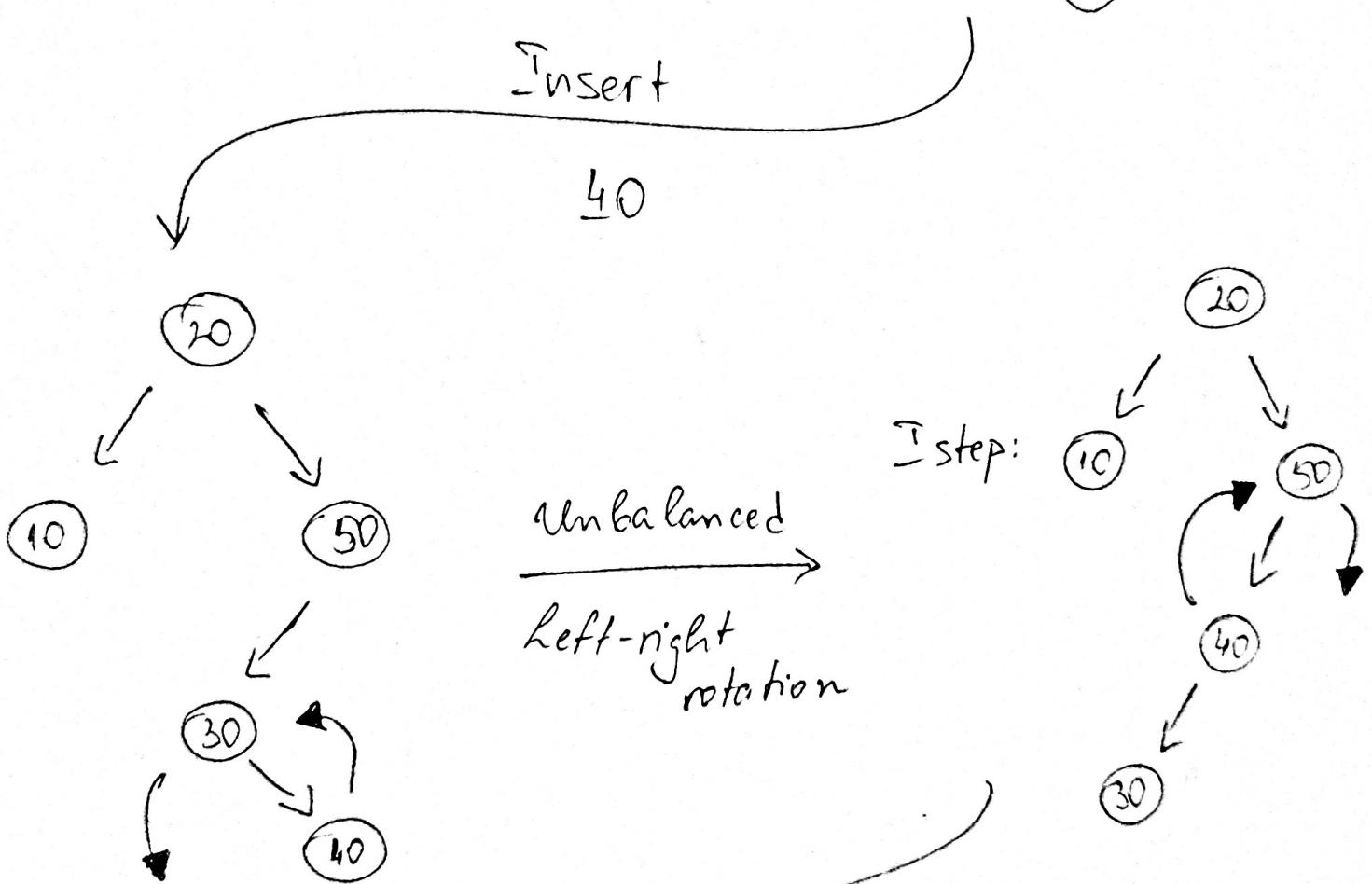
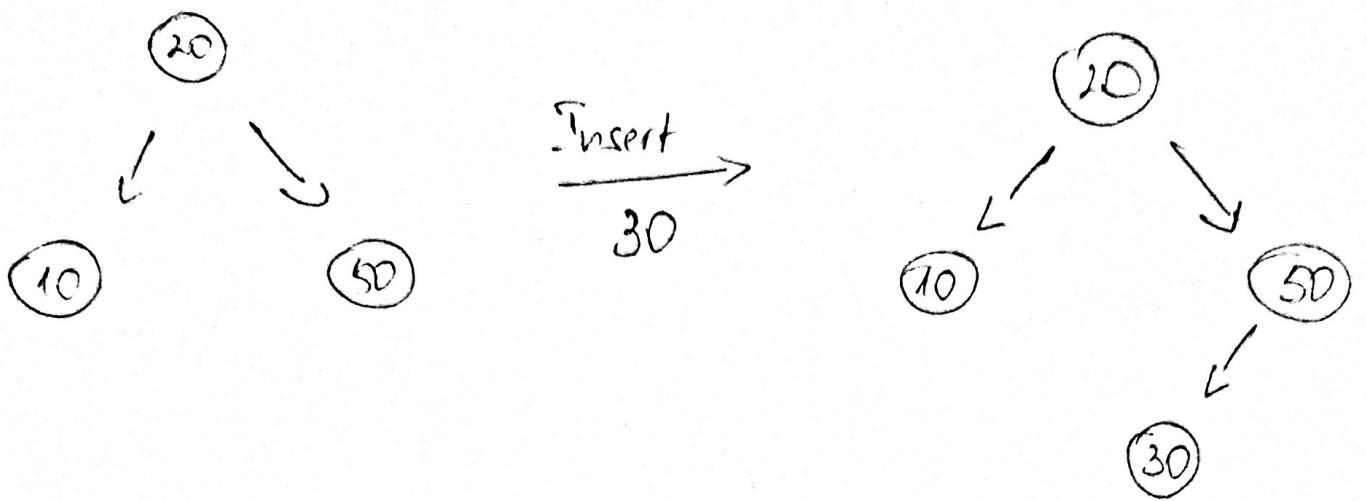
=> Contradiction!

# Problem 5.

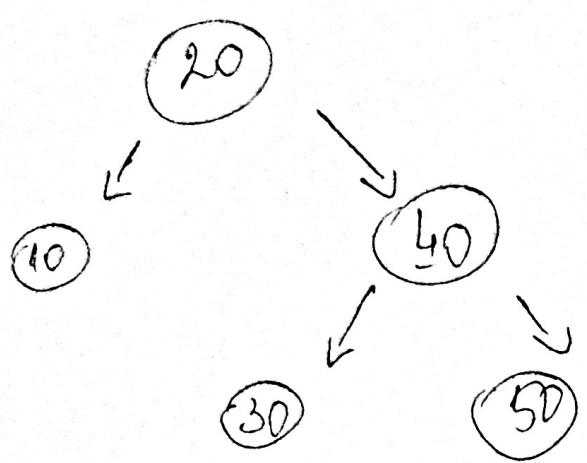


Problem 4:

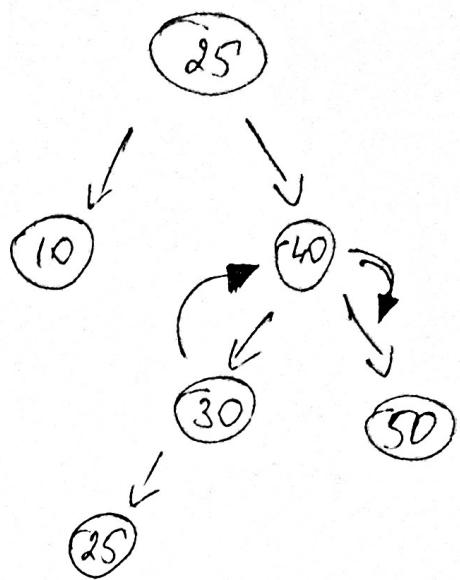




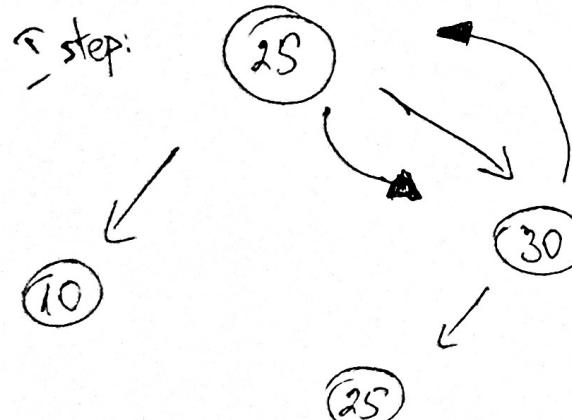
Problem 4c) continue:



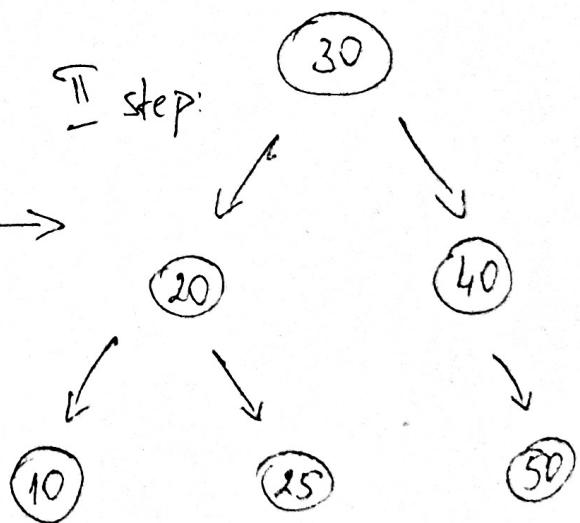
Insert  
25



Unbalanced  
Right-left rotation



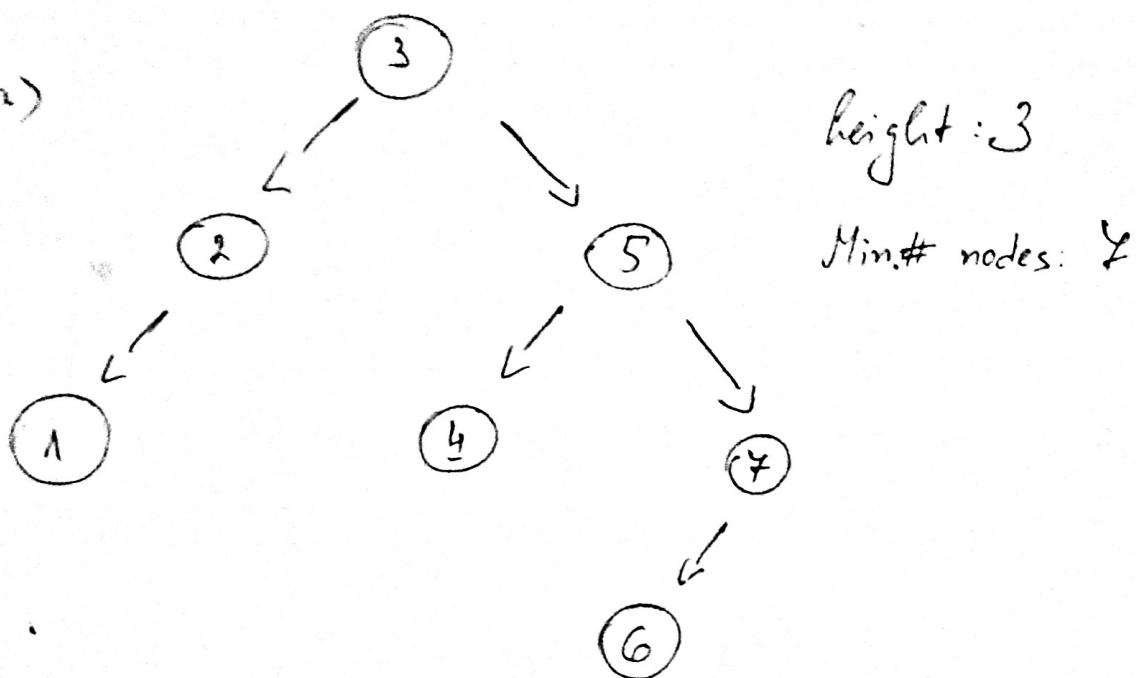
I step:



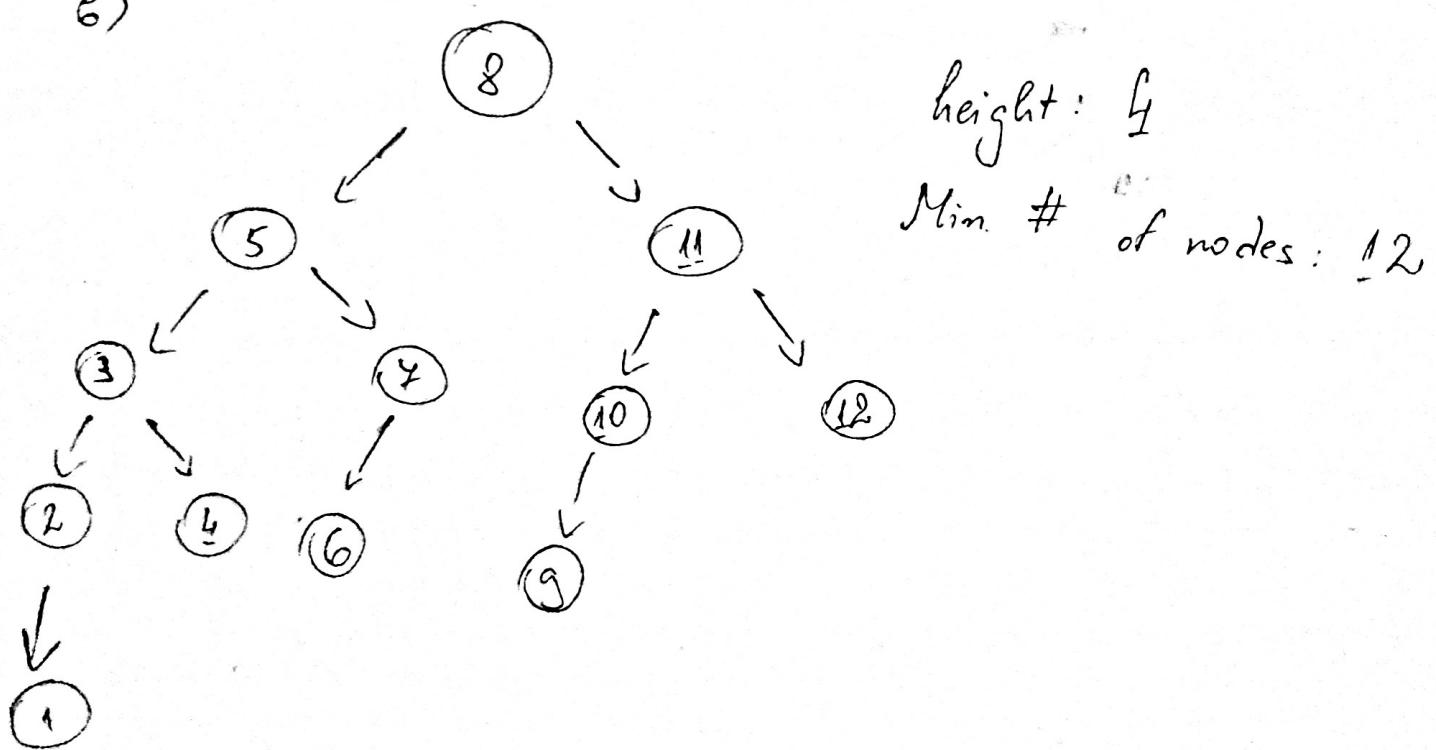
Our final  
balanced AVL tree

# Problem 5

a)

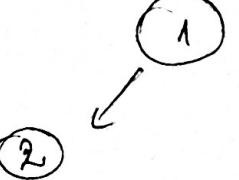


b)



Problem 5. c) To get an AVL tree with the smallest possible number of nodes, we need to make the tree as "unbalanced" as possible.  $\Rightarrow$  This will occur when for every height  $h$  we should have 2 subtrees: one with height  $(h-1)$  and the other with height  $(h-2)$ . This way the tree will gain max. height and will remain AVL.

$\Rightarrow$  We get a recurrence relation:  $f(h) = 1 + f(h-1) + f(h-2)$  (We add one for the root node). For  $h=0$  and  $h=1$  we have

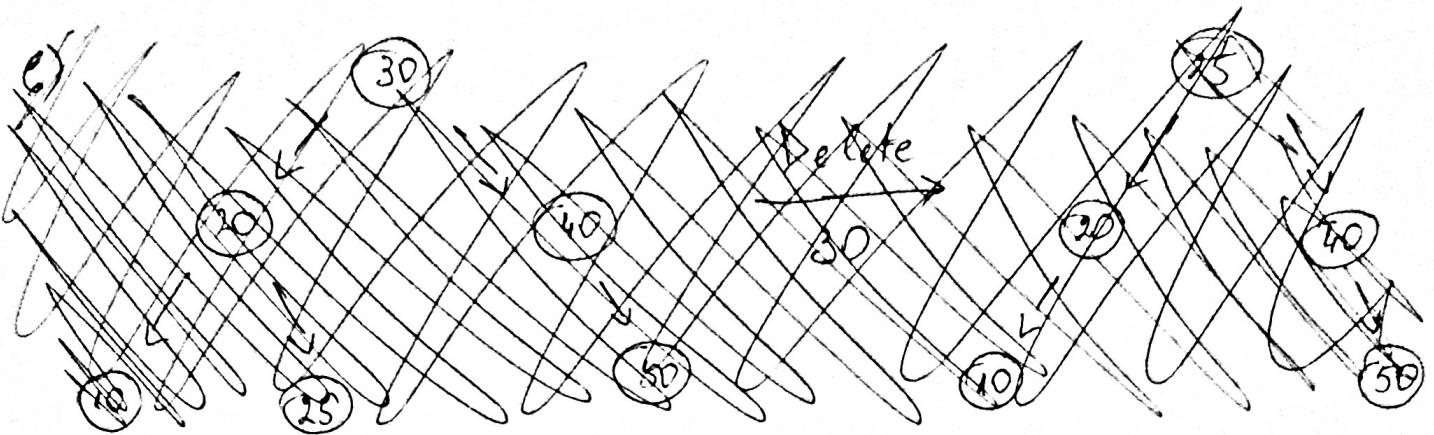
the trees:  and   $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} f(0) = 1 \\ f(1) = 2 \end{cases}$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow f(2) &= f(0) + f(1) + 1 = 1 + 2 + 1 = 4; \quad f(3) = f(2) + f(1) + 1 = \\ &= 4 + 2 + 1 = 7; \quad f(4) = f(3) + f(2) + 1 = 7 + 4 + 1 = 12, \text{ which} \\ &\text{confirms our drawings' correctness. ; since we have a} \\ &\text{recurrence relation, we can set } f(h) = a_n; f(h-1) = a_{n-1}; f(h-2) = \\ &= a_{n-2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + 1; \text{ Now, if we add 1 to both sides:}$$

$$a_n + 1 = (a_{n-1} + 1) + (a_{n-2} + 1); \text{ We can now set } b_n = a_n + 1:$$

$$\Rightarrow b_n = b_{n-1} + b_{n-2}; \text{ It's easy to recognize that this is } \text{the Fibonacci sequence! It's easy to get the characteristic polynomial: } x^2 - x - 1 \text{ and characteristic equation: } x^2 - x - 1 = 0$$



$$x^2 - x - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{4} - 1 = \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{5}{4} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(x - \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) \left(x - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{We have:}$$

$$a_n = a\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + b\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n$$

We know that  $a_0 = f(0) = 1$ ;  $a_1 = f(1) = 2 \Rightarrow b_0 = 2$ ;  $b_1 = 3$

$$b_0 = a + b = 2; b_1 = a\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) + b\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) = 3$$

$$b = 2 - a; b_1 = a\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) + (2-a)\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}a - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2}a + (1+\sqrt{5}) - \frac{a}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2}a = 3$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + \sqrt{5} - \sqrt{5}a = 3 \Rightarrow \sqrt{5} - 2 = \sqrt{5}a \Rightarrow \begin{cases} a = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \\ b = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \end{cases}$$

Finally we get:  $f(n) = a_n = b_n - 1 =$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\right) \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}\right) \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n - 1$$