

CMPS 102: Homework #1

Due on Tuesday, April 7, 2015

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Problem 1

In a binary tree all nodes are either internal or they are leaves. In our definition, internal nodes always have two children and leaves have zero children. Prove that for such trees, the number of leaves is always one more than the number of internal nodes. There are many possible proofs based on induction, but there might be others.

Let T be a binary tree subject to the definition above, T_I be the number of internal nodes, and T_L the number of leaves in T . Let $P(n)$ be the statement ‘Given a binary tree T on n internal nodes, $T_L = T_I + 1 = n + 1$ ’.

Base Case

$P(n = 0)$: A tree with no internal nodes consists of only a root node, which would be a leaf. Thus

$$T_L = 1, T_I = 0, T_L = T_I + 1$$

Thus the base case is confirmed.

Inductive Case

Assume for any binary tree T on $n \geq 1$ internal nodes that $P(n)$ is true, i.e. $T_L = T_I + 1 = n + 1$. Now, pick an arbitrary binary tree on $n + 1$ internal nodes, call it T . Note that because $T_I = n + 1 \geq 1$, at least one internal node with 2 leaves as children must exist. Select any of these internal nodes, label that node k . Take a new leaf node, and put it in place of the internal node k . This exchange has two effects, it reduces the number of internal nodes by one (removal of k), and reduces the number of leaves by one (remove the two leaf-children of k , place a new leaf in place of k , $-2 + 1 = -1$). Label this new tree T' .

$$T'_I = T_I - 1$$

Because T was a binary tree on $n + 1$ internal nodes :

$$T_I = n + 1$$

$$T'_I = (n + 1) - 1$$

$$T'_I = n$$

Since T' is on n internal nodes, we can apply our inductive hypothesis, $T'_L = T'_I + 1$

$$T'_L = T'_I + 1$$

$$T'_L = (n) + 1$$

To get from T to T' , we removed one leaf node in the process. Thus :

$$T_L = T'_L + 1$$

$$T_L = (n + 1) + 1 = n + 2$$

$$T_L = n + 2 = (n + 1) + 1 = (T_I) + 1$$

Which is exactly $P(n + 1)$.

Problem 2

For $n \geq 0$ consider $2^n \times 2^n$ matrices of 1s and 0s in which all elements are 1, except one which is 0 (The 0 is at an arbitrary position).

Operation: At each step, we can replace three 1s forming an L with three 0s (The Ls can have an arbitrary orientation).

Prove that for such matrices there always is a sequence of operations that transforms the matrix to the all 0 matrix.

Let M_n designate the $2^n \times 2^n$ matrix of all ones except a single zero as described above for $n \geq 0$.

Let $P(n)$ be the statement 'Given a matrix M_n for $n \geq 0$, M_n can be reduced to the all-zero matrix by a sequence of L-removal operations which changes 3 ones to zeros in an L pattern of arbitrary orientation'.

Base Case

$P(n = 0)$: If $n = 0$, then M_n is a $2^0 \times 2^0 = 1 \times 1$ matrix. Because all matrices of the above form must have a single 0, and a 1×1 matrix has only one component, the entire matrix is zero and thus we need no operations to reduce it to the zero matrix. Thus the base case is confirmed.

Inductive Case

Assume for any given $n \geq 1$ that $P(n)$ holds, i.e. that the matrix M_n can be reduced to the zero matrix via a sequence of L-removal operations. Construct a matrix of the form M_{n+1} (all ones except a single zero placed anywhere). M_{n+1} must be square and have sides that are a power of two, by its very definition (M_k is size $2^k \times 2^k$). This means we can divide it into four equal quadrants by dividing along the vertical and horizontal gaps between the middle rows and columns. Each quadrant will have sides of length 2^n , since M_{n+1} had sides of length 2^{n+1} and we divided each side-length in half to get M_n .

Now, regardless of where the single zero was initially placed, it must be in one and only one of these quadrants. Pick the other three quadrants that do not have a zero (consist of all ones). Place a single zero in the innermost component for each of the three quadrants that consist of all ones. What I mean by innermost are pieces touching the center of the matrix M_{n+1} , these 3 pieces form an L shape and thus this is a valid operation to perform.

Now, all of the 4 quadrants are of size $2^n \times 2^n$ and consist of all ones except a single zero, so we can apply $P(n)$. This means that each quadrant can be reduced to a zero matrix in a finite sequence of remove-L operations. Because it took us only a finite (single) valid operation (removing the L in the 3 one-filled quadrants) to get to this step from M_{n+1} , then the matrix M_{n+1} can also be reduced to the zero matrix in a finite sequence of steps. Thus we assumed $P(n)$ and showed that this implies $P(n + 1)$, concluding the proof.

Problem 3

Suppose you are given an array A of n distinct integers with the following property: There exists a unique index p such that the values of $A[1..p]$ are increasing and the values of $A[p..n]$ are decreasing.

For instance, in the example below we have $n = 10$ and $p = 4$.

$$A = [2, 5, 12, 17, 15, 10, 9, 4, 3, 1]$$

Design a $O(\log n)$ algorithm to find p given an array A with the above property.

I applied a slight change to the typical binary search algorithm to accomplish this task. My algorithm looks not for a specific key, but instead how the two elements compare to one another. If they are increasing (low to high index), then I recurse on the right half of the array, if they are decreasing I recurse on the left half. When I have only one element, I know that I have found the index of the number where the numbers change from increasing to decreasing.

```
// A = array of n elements, l = left element to sub-search, r = right
// element to subsearch
findp(A, l, r)
    if l == r : // we found it
        return r
    i = (r-l)/2 // get middle element
    if A[i] > A[i-1] // if increasing
        return findp(A, i, r) // must be in right half
    else
        findp(A, l, i) // must be in left half
```