

## Math 15 - Spring 2017 - Homework 5.6 Solutions

1. (5.6 # 14 ) Consider the merge subroutine of Algorithm 5.11. The goal of this exercise is to prove that this algorithm is correct.

(a) State an appropriate loop invariant. (Hint: It will be similar to [but not the same as] the invariant used to verify the selection sort in Example 5.27.)

ANS: The constant element here is that  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$  contains both  $\{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{i-1}\}$  and  $\{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{j-1}\}$ , and  $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_{k-1}$ , where  $i + j = k + 1$ , and the remaining  $x$ 's and  $y$ 's are larger than  $x_k$ .

(b) Prove that your proposed statement is a loop invariant. (Hint: Your proof can [and should] make use of the preconditions of the algorithm.)

ANS: If  $x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_{k-1}$  and  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$  includes  $\{y_1, y_2, \dots, y_{i-1}\}$  and  $\{z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{j-1}\}$ , and  $i + j = k + 1$ , and the remaining  $y$ 's and  $z$ 's are greater than or equal to  $x_{k-1}$  as a precondition to an iteration of the loop, then what happens on the next loop? For sure,  $k = k + 1$ . Consider the following cases:

- If  $i > l$ , then all the remaining  $y$ 's are in  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$ , so  $x_k = z_j$ , the smallest remaining  $z$ , and  $j = j + 1$ . So  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$  is still in order, but now contains  $z_{j-1}$  too.
- If  $j > m$ , then all the remaining  $z$ 's are in  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$ , so  $x_k = y_i$ , the smallest of the remaining  $y$ 's, and  $i = i + 1$ . So  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$  is still ordered, but now contains  $y_{i-1}$  too.
- Otherwise,  $y_i$  is the smallest of the remaining  $y$ 's and  $z_j$  is the smallest of the remaining  $z$ 's. If  $y_i \leq z_j$ , then  $x_k = y_i$ , the smallest remaining element, and  $i = i + 1$ . So  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$  is still in order, but now contains  $y_{i-1}$  too. Likewise, if  $y_i > z_j$ , then  $x_k = z_j$ , the smallest remaining element, and  $j = j + 1$ . So  $\{x_1, \dots, x_{k-1}\}$  is still in order, and now contains  $z_{j-1}$  too.

In every case, either  $i = i + 1$  or  $j = j + 1$ , but not both, so  $i + j = k + 1$ .

(c) Prove that the Merge algorithm is correct.

ANS: Initially,  $k = i = j = 1$ , so  $i + j = k + 1$ , and the rest of the invariant is true. Thus the invariant stays true until termination, when  $k = l + m + 1$ . Therefore  $i + j = l + m$ , so  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  is in order and contains all the  $y$ 's and  $z$ 's.

ANS: Proof (by induction on  $n$ , the size of  $X$ .)

If  $n = 0$ , then  $X = \emptyset$ , which does not contain  $t$ , and so  $\text{RSearch}(t, X)$  returns false.

The inductive hypothesis assumes that  $\text{RSearch}(t, X)$  returns true if and only if  $t \in X$ , for  $|X| = k - 1$ , for some  $k > 0$ .

Let  $X$  be a set with  $k$  elements. Then  $\text{RSearch}(t, X)$  returns  $(t = x_k) \vee \text{RSearch}(t, X \setminus \{x_k\})$ .

By the inductive hypothesis,  $\text{RSearch}(t, X \setminus \{x_k\})$  will be true if and only if  $t \in X \setminus \{x_k\}$ . Therefore,  $t \in X \Leftrightarrow (t = x_k) \vee (t \in X \setminus \{x_k\}) \Leftrightarrow (t = x_k) \vee \text{RSearch}(t, X \setminus \{x_k\}) \Leftrightarrow \text{RSearch}(t, X)$ , as desired.

2. (5.6 # 16 ) Use an invariant to show that Prim's algorithm (5.9) always produces a tree.

Proof. Suppose  $x|m$  and  $x|(n \bmod m)$ . Then by definition there is some integer  $k$  such that  $m = kx$  and there is some integer  $j$  such that  $r = jx$ , where  $r = n \bmod m$ . By the definition of the  $\bmod$  operation, there is some integer  $q$  such that  $n = qm + r$ . Therefore  $n = qkx + jx = (qk + j)x$ , so  $x|n$ .

3. (5.5 # 22 ) Test Algorithm 5.19 for solving the Towers of Hanoi puzzle in the case of  $n = 3$  disks using a top-down evaluation.

ANS: The invariant is that  $T$

$$\begin{aligned} H(3, 1, 3) &= H(2, 1, 2), (1, 3), H(2, 2, 3) \\ &= H(1, 1, 3), (1, 2), H(1, 3, 2), (1, 3), H(1, 2, 1), (2, 3), H(1, 1, 3) \\ &= (1, 3), (1, 2), (3, 2), (1, 3), (2, 1), (2, 3), (1, 3) \end{aligned}$$

Here's the Python code we produced in class:

---

```
def Hanoi(n, start, goal):
    if n==1:
        return (start, goal)
    else:
        temp = 6-(start+goal)
        return Hanoi(n-1, start, temp), (start, goal), Hanoi(n-1, temp, goal)
```

---

If you then print(Hanoi(3,1,3)), the output is

```
((((1, 3), (1, 2), (3, 2)), (1, 3), ((2, 1), (2, 3), (1, 3))))
```

The extra parentheses add some clarity: First move the top two discs from 1 to 2, then move the bottom disc from 1 to 3, then move the two discs from 2 to 3, using 1 as the temp.

If you print(Hanoi(8,1,3)), the output is longer, but has the same basic flavor:

```
(((((((((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2))),
(1, 3),
(((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)))),
(1, 2),
(((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
(3, 2),
(((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)))))),
(1, 3),
((((((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3))),
(2, 1),
(((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
(2, 3),
((((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2))),
(1, 3),
(((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3))),
(2, 1),
(((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
(2, 3),
((((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2))),
(1, 3),
((((((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3))),
(2, 1),
(((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
(3, 2),
((((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2))),
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(((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
(3, 2),
(((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)))))),
(1, 3),
(((((((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3))),
(2, 1),
(((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
(2, 3),
((((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2))))))
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(2, 3),
(((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2))),
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(((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3))))),
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((((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
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(1, 3),
((((((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3))),
(2, 1),
(((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2)), (3, 1), ((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1))),
(2, 3),
(((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)), (1, 2), ((3, 1), (3, 2), (1, 2))))),
(1, 3),
((((((2, 3), (2, 1), (3, 1)), (2, 3), ((1, 2), (1, 3), (2, 3)))))))))

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4. (5.5 # 24) Use a recurrence relation to show that Algorithm 5.19 (the Towers of Hanoi algorithm) will always return a sequence of  $2^n - 1$  ordered pairs.

ANS: First we want a recurrence relation. Let  $P(n)$  = the number of pairs returned by  $\text{Hanoi}(n, T_1, T_2)$ . If there's only one disc, then  $\text{Hanoi}$  will return one pair  $(\text{start}, \text{goal})$ , so  $\text{Hanoi}(\text{start}, \text{goal}) = (\text{start}, \text{goal})$ . If  $n > 1$ , then we have the recursion  $P(n) = P(n-1) + 1 + P(n-1)$ , given  $2P(n-1) + 1$  pairs. The recurrence relation is,

$$P(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & : n = 1 \\ 2P(n-1) + 1 & : n > 1 \end{cases}$$

We are to prove that  $P(n) = 2^n - 1$ , which we do in the usual manner of induction on  $n$ . If  $n = 1$ ,  $P(1) = 1 = 2^1 - 1$ . The inductive hypothesis has that  $P(k-1) = 2^{k-1} - 1$ , for  $k > 1$ .

Now  $P(k) = 2P(k-1) + 1 = 2 \cdot (2^{k-1} - 1) + 1 = 2^k - 1$ , as desired.

Take a look at MIT OCW for a discussion of this.

As described there, a general homogeneous linear recurrence of order  $d$  has the form

$$P(n) = a_1P(n-1) + a_2P(n-2) + \cdots + a_dP(n-d)$$

We benefit centuries of hindsight. Linear recurrences tend to have exponential solutions. So we guess that

$$P(n) = x^n$$

where  $x$  is a parameter introduced to help make making a good guess. We about how to choose the value for  $x$  later. To further improve our odds, we neglect the boundary conditions,  $P(0) = P_0$  and  $P(1) = P_1$ , for now. Plugging this into the recurrence relation leads to the *characteristic polynomial*,

$$x^n = a_1x^{n-1} + a_2x^{n-2} + \dots + a_dx^{n-d}$$

The characteristic polynomial will have  $n$  (potentially distinct) zeros and any linear combination of these is also a solution to the recurrence relation.

Recall that this is how we found the closed-form solution to the Fibonacci recurrence,  $F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2)$  whose characteristic polynomial equation is  $x^2 = x + 1$  with root  $\alpha = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$  and  $\beta = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$ . Now to find a linear combination that solves the boundary conditions  $F(0) = 1$  and  $F(1) = 1$  we write  $F(0) = a \cdot \alpha^0 + b \cdot \beta^0 = a + b = 1$  and  $F(1) = a \cdot \alpha^1 + b \cdot \beta^1 = a\alpha + b\beta = 1$  we solved this  $s \times 2$  linear system to get  $a = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{5}}$  and  $b = -\frac{\beta}{\sqrt{5}}$  to get

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

The Tower of Hanoi recurrence is not homogeneous, so we need to be a little more ingenious. The general non-homogeneous recurrence relation has the form

$$P(n) = a_1P(n-1) + a_2P(n-2) + \dots + a_dP(n-d) + g(n)$$

where  $g(n)$  is the non-homogeneous term. Here are the steps for solving a non-homogeneous recurrence relation:

1. Replace  $g(n)$  by 0, leaving a homogeneous recurrence.
2. Solve the homogeneous recurrence, but don't impose the boundary conditions yet. This is called the homogeneous part of the solution.
3. Now put back  $g(n)$  and find a single solution to the recurrence, ignoring boundary conditions. This is called the *particular solution*.
4. Add the homogeneous and particular solutions to obtain a *general solution*.
5. Now impose the boundary conditions to determine constants by the usual method of generating and solving a system of equations.

The homogeneous equation for the Towers of Hanoi is  $P(n) = 2P(n-1) \Leftrightarrow x^n = 2x^{n-1} \Rightarrow x = 2$  ( $x = 0$  is just not gonna work.) Our "ansatz" for the non-homogeneous equation here is  $P(n) = an + b$ . Substituting this into the recurrence relation gives  $an + b = 2(a(n-1) + b) + 1 \Leftrightarrow an + b - 2a + 1 = 0$  so  $a = 0$  and  $b = -1$  and the particular solution is  $P(n) = -1$

Now we combine the homogeneous and particular solutions to get

$$P(n) = c2^n - 1$$

and impose the boundary condition,  $P(1) = 1 \Rightarrow c2^1 - 1 = 1 \Leftrightarrow c = 1$  and the solution is, indeed,  $P(n) = 2^n - 1$ .

The last lecture of the MIT OCW course address the problem of gambler's ruin, as applied to Roulette, which I'll recap here.

A gambler goes to Atlantic City with \$ $n$  to gamble. Her plan is to make only \$1 bets shell play until she is broke or she has won \$ $m$ . In the latter case, she will go home with  $w = n + m$ , the money she

started with plus her winnings.

In roulette, the probability of winning a bet is  $p = \frac{9}{19}$  and probability of losing is  $1 - p = \frac{10}{19}$ . We want a recurrence relation for the probability that she wins starting with  $n$  dollars:

$$P(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & : n = w \\ 0 & : n = 0 \\ pP(n+1) + (1-p)P(n-1) & : 0 < n < w \end{cases}$$

This is the homogeneous recurrence  $pP(n+1) - P(n) + (1-p)P(n-1)$  with the characteristic equation

$$px^2 - x + 1 - p = 0 \Leftrightarrow \left(x - \frac{1}{2p}\right)^2 = \frac{p-1}{p} + \frac{1}{4p^2}$$

yielding  $x = \frac{1}{2p} \pm \sqrt{\frac{4p^2 - 4p + 1}{4p^2}} = \frac{1 \pm (2p-1)}{2p} = 1$  or  $\frac{1-p}{p}$ . A linear combination of these gives the general solution,  $P(n) = a \cdot 1^n + b \cdot \left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^n$  and imposing the boundary conditions yields the system

$$\begin{aligned} a + b &= 0 \\ a + \left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^w \cdot b &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

which has the solution  $a = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^w - 1}$ ,  $b = -\frac{1}{\left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^w - 1}$

Thus the solution is

$$\begin{aligned} P(n) &= \left(\frac{1}{\left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^w - 1}\right) \left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^n - \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^w - 1} \\ &= \frac{\left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^n - 1}{\left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^w - 1} \end{aligned}$$

So if our gambler is playing roulette, where  $p = \frac{9}{19}$  so that  $\frac{1-p}{p} = \frac{10}{19} \cdot \frac{19}{9} = \frac{10}{9}$ , and she starts with  $n = 1000$  and wants to gamble until she's broke or wins \$100, then we're computing  $P(1000) = \frac{\left(\frac{10}{9}\right)^{1000} - 1}{\left(\frac{10}{9}\right)^{1100} - 1} \approx \left(\frac{9}{10}\right)^{100} \approx 2.7 \times 10^{-5}$  or 1 in 38000. Not likely!

How does this story change if

- It's a fair game, that is,  $p = \frac{1}{2}$ ?
- You're rolling two dice and there's a payoff/penalty for each of the 11 different sums for the two dice?
- Space is tessellated by some dodecahedral structure and you have a probability distribution determining the likelihood of travelling to an adjacent polyhedron through one of the 12 faces. There are various consequences for reaching various boundaries of your space. Analyze.