

15-251

Great Theoretical Ideas in Computer Science

2

Ancient Wisdom: Unary and Binary

Lecture 8 (Fall 2010)



How to play the 9 stone game?



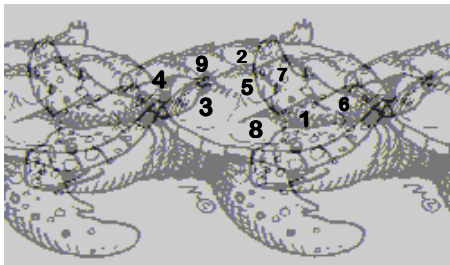
9 stones, numbered 1-9

Two players alternate moves.

Each move a player gets to take a new stone

Any subset of 3 stones adding to 15, wins.

Magic Square: Brought to humanity on the
back of a tortoise from the river Lo in the
days of Emperor Yu in ancient China



Magic Square: Any 3 in a vertical,
horizontal, or diagonal line add up to 15.

4	9	2
3	5	7
8	1	6

Conversely,
any 3 that add to 15 must be on a line.

4	9	2
3	5	7
8	1	6

TIC-TAC-TOE on a Magic Square
Represents The Nine Stone Game

Alternate taking squares 1-9.
Get 3 in a row to win.

4	9	2
3	5	7
8	1	6

Basic Idea of this Lecture

Don't stick with the
representation in which you
encounter problems!

Always seek the more
useful one!

This idea requires a lot
of practice

Prehistoric Unary

1 ○
2 ○○
3 ○○○
4 ○○○○

Consider the problem of
finding a formula for the sum
of the first n numbers

You already used
induction to verify that
the answer is $\frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n-1 + n = S$$

$$n + n-1 + n-2 + \dots + 2 + 1 = S$$

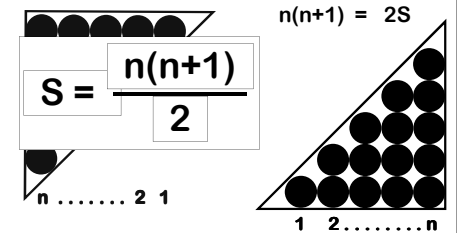
$$n+1 + n+1 + n+1 + \dots + n+1 + n+1 = 2S$$

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

$$S = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n-1 + n = S$$

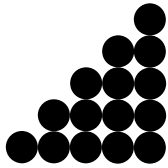
$$n + n-1 + n-2 + \dots + 2 + 1 = S$$



n^{th} Triangular Number

$$\Delta_n = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n-1 + n$$

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

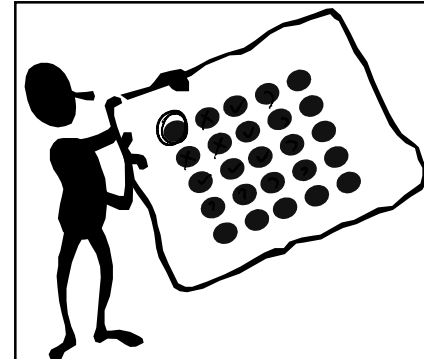
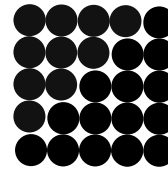


n^{th} Square Number

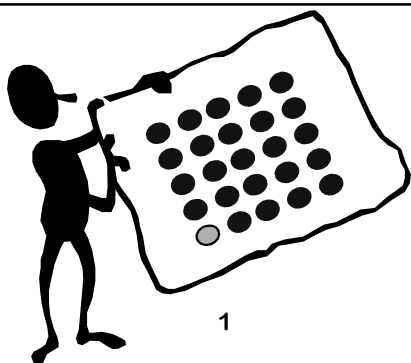
$$\square_n = n^2$$

$$= \Delta_n + \Delta_{n-1}$$

$$n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$$

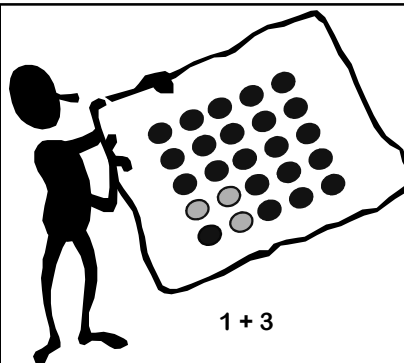


Breaking a square up in a new way



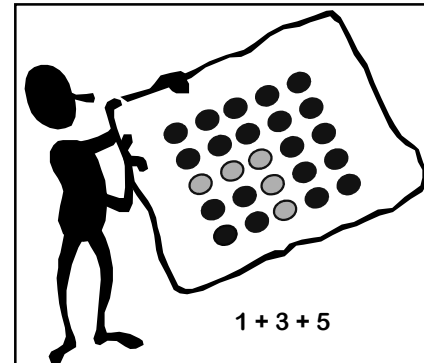
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Breaking a square up in a new way



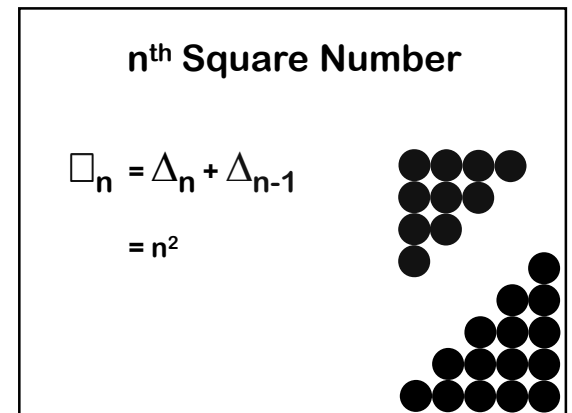
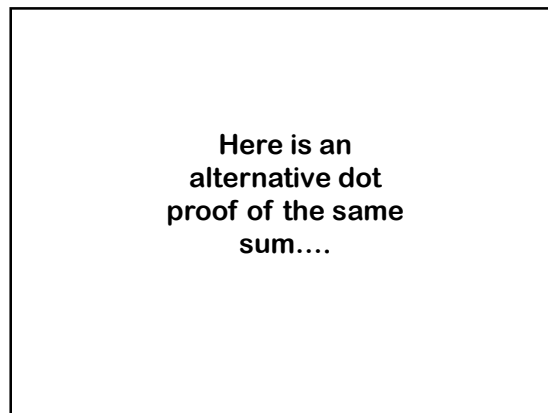
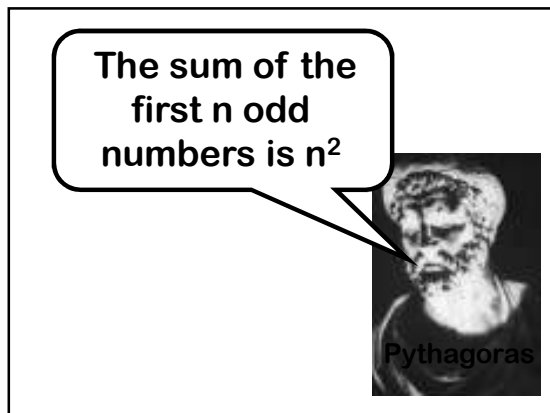
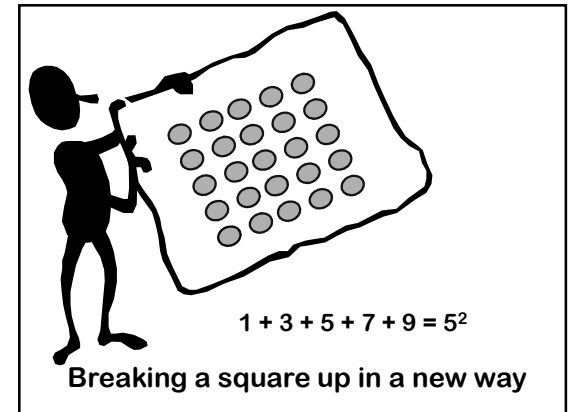
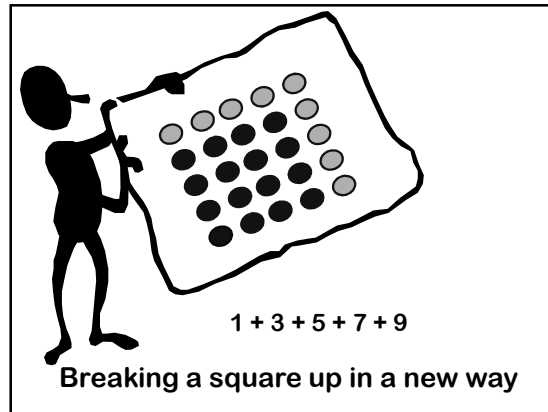
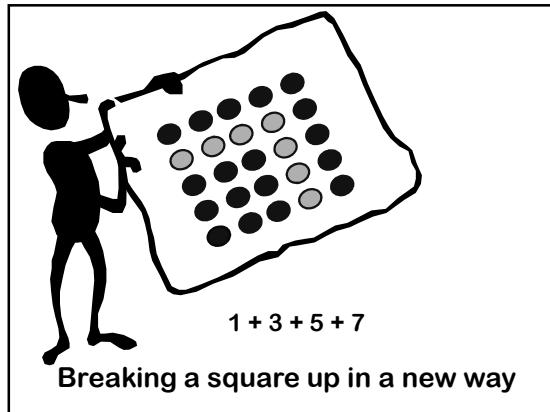
1 + 3

Breaking a square up in a new way



1 + 3 + 5

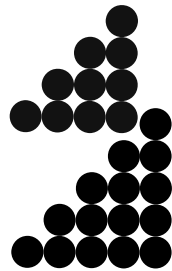
Breaking a square up in a new way



n^{th} Square Number

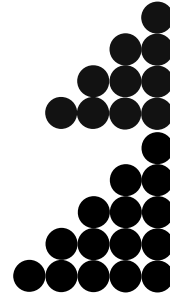
$$\square_n = \Delta_n + \Delta_{n-1}$$

$$= n^2$$



n^{th} Square Number

$$\square_n = \Delta_n + \Delta_{n-1}$$



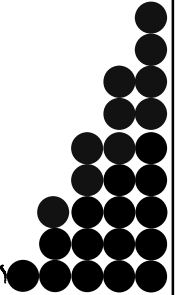
n^{th} Square Number

$$\square_n = \Delta_n + \Delta_{n-1}$$

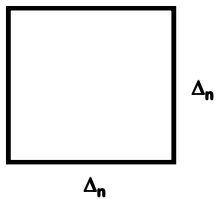
= Sum of first n
odd numbers

$$\Delta_n = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-1) + n$$

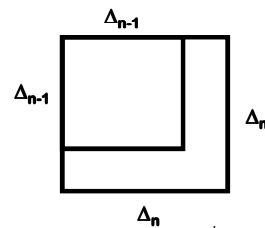
$$\Delta_{n-1} = \frac{1 + 2 + \dots + (n-2) + (n-1)}{1 + 3 + 5 + \dots + (n-2) + (n-1)}$$



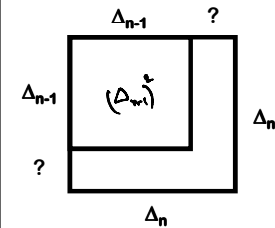
Area of square = $(\Delta_n)^2$

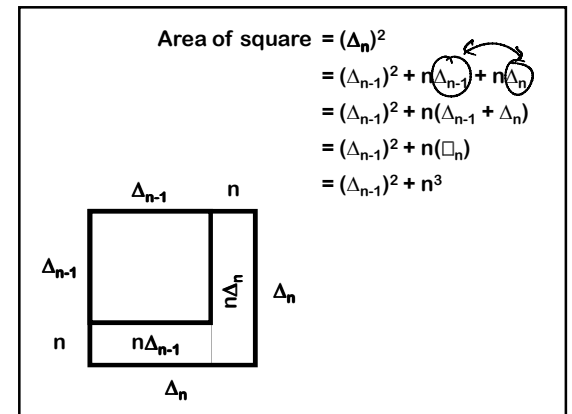
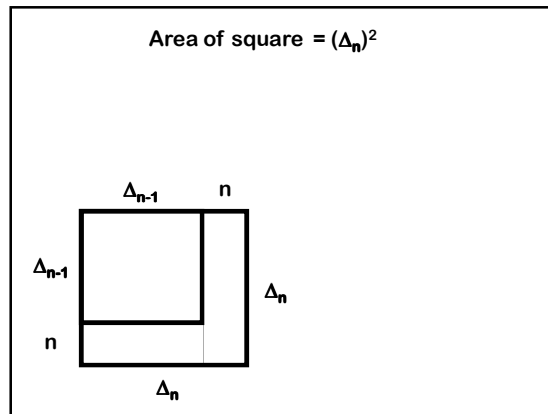
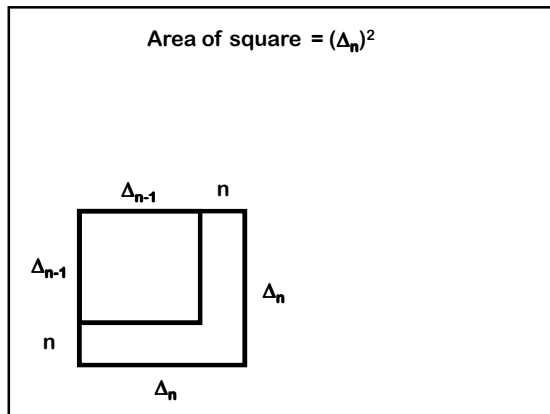


Area of square = $(\Delta_n)^2$



Area of square = $(\Delta_n)^2$





$$\begin{aligned}
 (\Delta_n)^2 &= n^3 + (\Delta_{n-1})^2 \\
 &= n^3 + (n-1)^3 + (\Delta_{n-2})^2 \\
 &= n^3 + (n-1)^3 + (n-2)^3 + (\Delta_{n-3})^2 \\
 &= n^3 + (n-1)^3 + (n-2)^3 + \dots + 1^3
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\Delta_n)^2 &= 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 \\
 &= \left[\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right]^2
 \end{aligned}$$

Can you find a formula for the sum of the first n squares?

$$\frac{1}{6} n(n+1)(n+2)$$

Babylonians needed this sum to compute the number of blocks in their pyramids

Rhind Papyrus

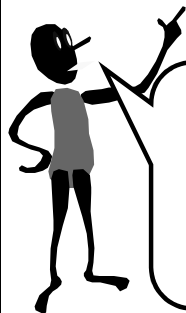
Scribe Ahmes was Martin Gardener of his day!

A man has 7 houses,
Each house contains 7 cats,
Each cat has killed 7 mice,
Each mouse had eaten 7 ears of spelt,
Each ear had 7 grains on it.
What is the total of all of these?

Sum of powers of 7

$$1 + 7 + 7^2 + 7^3 + 7^4 + 7^5 + 7^6 = \frac{7^7 - 1}{6}$$

$$1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-2} + X^{n-1} = \frac{X^n - 1}{X - 1}$$



We'll use this
fundamental sum again
and again:

The Geometric Series

A Frequently Arising Calculation

$$(X-1) (1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-2} + X^{n-1})$$

A Frequently Arising Calculation

$$(X-1) (1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-2} + X^{n-1})$$

$$= \begin{array}{r} \cancel{X^1} + \cancel{X^2} + \cancel{X^3} + \dots + \cancel{X^{n-1}} + X^n \\ - 1 - \cancel{X^1} - \cancel{X^2} - \cancel{X^3} - \dots - \cancel{X^{n-2}} - \cancel{X^{n-1}} \end{array}$$

$$= X^n - 1$$

$$1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-2} + X^{n-1} = \frac{X^n - 1}{X - 1} \quad (\text{when } x \neq 1)$$

Geometric Series for X=2

$$1 + 2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 + \dots + 2^{n-1} = 2^n - 1$$

$$2^1 + 2^2 + 2^3 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 2$$

$$1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-2} + X^{n-1} = \frac{X^n - 1}{X - 1} \quad (\text{when } x \neq 1)$$

Geometric Series for X=1/2

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}^2 + \frac{1}{2}^3 + \dots + \frac{1}{2}^{n-1} = \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^n - 1}{\frac{1}{2} - 1}$$

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

$$1 + X^1 + X^2 + X^3 + \dots + X^{n-2} + X^{n-1} = \frac{X^n - 1}{X - 1} \quad (\text{when } x \neq 1)$$

A Similar Sum

$$a^n + a^{n-1}b + a^{n-2}b^2 + \dots + a^1b^{n-1} + b^n$$

$$= a^n \left(1 + \left(\frac{b}{a}\right) + \frac{b^2}{a^2} + \frac{b^3}{a^3} + \dots + \frac{b^n}{a^n} \right)$$

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

A slightly different one

$$0.2^0 + 1.2^1 + 2.2^2 + 3.2^3 + \dots + n2^n = ?$$

$$S = 0.2^0 + 1.2^1 + 2.2^2 + 3.2^3 + \dots + n2^n$$

$$- 2S = \quad 0.2^1 + 1.2^2 + 2.2^3 + 3.2^4 + \dots + (n-1)2^n + n.2^{n+1}$$

$$-S = 0.2^0 + \underbrace{1.2^1 + 1.2^2 + 1.2^3 + 1.2^4 + \dots + 1.2^n}_{2^{n+1} - 2} - n.2^{n+1}$$

$$-S = 2^{n+1} - 2 - n.2^{n+1} = -2^{n+1}(n-1) - 2$$

$$S = 2^{n+1}(n-1) + 2$$

Check Your Work!

$$0.2^0 + 1.2^1 + 2.2^2 + 3.2^3 + \dots + n2^n = S$$

We're claiming: $S = 2^{n+1}(n-1) + 2$

What is $S + (n+1)2^{n+1}$?

$$2^{n+1}(n-1) + 2 + (n+1)2^{n+1}$$

$$= 2^{n+1}(2n) + 2$$

$$= 2^{n+2}(n) + 2$$

$$= 2^{(n+1)+1}((n+1)-1) + 2$$

Also, for $n=0$
both are 0.

Two Case Studies

Bases and Representation

BASE X Representation

$S = a_{n-1} a_{n-2} \dots a_1 a_0$ represents the number:

$$a_{n-1}X^{n-1} + a_{n-2}X^{n-2} + \dots + a_0X^0$$

Base 2 [Binary Notation]

101 represents: $1(2)^2 + 0(2^1) + 1(2^0)$

$$= \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$$

Base 7

015 represents: $0(7)^2 + 1(7^1) + 5(7^0)$

$$= \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$$

Bases In Different Cultures

Sumerian-Babylonian: 10, 60, 360

Egyptians: 3, 7, 10, 60

Maya: 20

Africans: 5, 10

French: 10, 20

English: 10, 12, 20

BASE X Representation

$S = (a_{n-1} a_{n-2} \dots a_1 a_0)_X$ represents the number:

$$a_{n-1} X^{n-1} + a_{n-2} X^{n-2} + \dots + a_0 X^0$$

Largest number representable in base-X with n “digits”

$$\begin{aligned} &= (X-1 X-1 X-1 X-1 \dots X-1)_X \\ &= (X-1)(X^{n-1} + X^{n-2} + \dots + X^0) \\ &= (X^n - 1) \end{aligned}$$

Fundamental Theorem For Binary

Each of the numbers from 0 to 2^n-1 is uniquely represented by an n-bit number in binary

k uses $\lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor + 1$ digits in base 2

$$= \lceil \log_2(k+1) \rceil$$

Fundamental Theorem For Base-X

Each of the numbers from 0 to X^n-1 is uniquely represented by an n-“digit” number in base X

k uses $\lfloor \log_X k \rfloor + 1$ digits in base X

n has length n in unary,
but has length
 $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1$ in binary

Unary is exponentially
longer than binary

Other Representations: Egyptian Base 3

Conventional Base 3:
Each digit can be 0, 1, or 2

Here is a strange new one:

Egyptian Base 3 uses -1, 0, 1

Example: $(1 -1 -1)_{EB3} = 9 - 3 - 1 = 5$

$$(1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \dots)_{EB3} = 1 \cdot 3^0 + 1 \cdot 3^1 + 1 \cdot 3^2 + \dots = \frac{3^{n+1}-3}{2}$$

We can prove a unique representation theorem

How could this be Egyptian?
Historically, negative
numbers first appear in the
writings of the Hindu
mathematician
Brahmagupta (628 AD)



One weight for each power of 3
Left = “negative”. Right = “positive”

Two Case Studies

Bases and Representation

Solving Recurrences
using a good representation

Example

$$T(1) = 1$$

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

Notice that $T(n)$ is inductively defined only for positive powers of 2, and undefined on other values

$$T(1) = 1 \quad T(2) = 6 \quad T(4) = 28 \quad T(8) = 120$$

Give a closed-form formula for $T(n)$

Technique 1

Guess Answer, Verify by Induction

$$T(1) = 1, T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

Base Case: $G(1) = 1$ and $T(1) = 1$

Induction Hypothesis: $T(x) = G(x)$ for $x < n$

Hence: $T(n/2) = G(n/2) = 2(n/2)^2 - n/2$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 4T(n/2) + n \\ &= 4G(n/2) + n \\ &= 4[2(n/2)^2 - n/2] + n \\ &= 2n^2 - 2n + n \\ &= 2n^2 - n = G(n) \end{aligned}$$

Guess:
 $G(n) = 2n^2 - n$

Technique 2

Guess Form, Calculate Coefficients

$$T(1) = 1, T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

Guess: $T(n) = an^2 + bn + c$
for some a, b, c

Calculate: $T(1) = 1$, so $a + b + c = 1$

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

$$\begin{aligned} an^2 + bn + c &= 4[a(n/2)^2 + b(n/2) + c] + n \\ &= an^2 + 2bn + 4c + n \end{aligned}$$

$$(b+1)n + 3c = 0$$

Therefore: $b = -1 \quad c = 0 \quad a = 2$

Technique 3

The Recursion Tree Approach

$$T(1) = 1, T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

A slight variation

$$T(1) = 1, T(n) = 4 T(n/2) + n^2$$

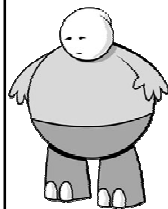
How about this one?

$$T(1) = 1, T(n) = 3 T(n/2) + n$$

... and this one?

$$T(1) = 1, T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n$$

Unary and Binary
Triangular Numbers
Dot proofs



Here's What
You Need to
Know...

$$(1+x+x^2 + \dots + x^{n-1}) = (x^n - 1)/(x - 1)$$

Base-X representations
k uses $\lfloor \log_2 k \rfloor + 1 = \lceil \log_2 (k+1) \rceil$
digits in base 2

Solving Simple Recurrences

Bhaskara's "proof" of Pythagoras' theorem



$$\frac{x}{1-r} = x \frac{(1+r+r^2+\dots)}{1} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Diagram of a right triangle with sides } 1, r, \text{ and } \sqrt{1+r^2} \end{array}$$