

CS201 DISCRETE MATHEMATICS FOR COMPUTER SCIENCE

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The Euclidean algorithm in pseudocode

```
Procedure gcd(a, b): positive integers)

x := a

y := b

while y \neq 0

r := x \mod y

x := y

y := r

return x\{gcd(a, b) \text{ is } x\}
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The number of divisions required to find gcd(a, b) is $O(\log b)$, where $a \ge b$. (this will be proved later.)



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The number of divisions required to find gcd(a, b) is $O(\log b)$, where $a \ge b$. (this will be proved later.)

Why?



Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

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egin{array}{lll} r_0 &= r_1 q_1 + r_2 & 0 \leq r_2 < r_1, \\ r_1 &= r_2 q_2 + r_3 & 0 \leq r_3 < r_2, \\ & \cdot & \\ & \cdot & \\ & \cdot & \\ r_{n-2} &= r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n & 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1}, \\ r_{n-1} &= r_n q_n \ . \end{array}
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Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

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r_0 = r_1q_1 + r_2 0 \le r_2 < r_1, r_1 = r_2q_2 + r_3 0 \le r_3 < r_2, 0 \le r_3 < r_3, 0 \le r_3 < r_3
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Observation:

$$r_{i+2} = r_i \mod r_{i+1}$$

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Case (i):
$$r_{i+1} \leq \frac{1}{2}r_i$$
: $r_{i+2} < r_{i+1} \leq \frac{1}{2}r_i$.

Case (ii):
$$r_{i+1} > \frac{1}{2}r_i$$
: $r_{i+2} = r_i \mod r_{i+1} = r_i - r_{i+1} < \frac{1}{2}r_i$.

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3 - 5

■ **Definition** A *linear homogeneous relation of degree k* with constant coefficients is a recurrence relation of the form

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where c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k are real numbers, and $c_k \neq 0$.

♦ linear: it is a linear combination of previous terms



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By induction, such a recurrence relation is uniquely determined by this recurrence relation, and k initial conditions $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_{k-1}$.

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where c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k are real numbers, and $c_k \neq 0$.

Examples

$$P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$$
 $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$
 $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}^2$
 $H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$
 $B_n = nB_{n-1}$



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 $P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$ linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 1

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$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$

 $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 2

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 linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 1 $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 2 $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}^2$ NOT linear $H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$ $B_n = nB_{n-1}$



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 linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 2

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 NOT linear

$$H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$$
 NOT homogeneous

$$B_n = nB_{n-1}$$
 coefficients are not constants



Example Consider the recurrence relation

$$a_n = 2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$$

Which of the following are solutions?

$$\diamond a_n = 3n$$
:

$$\diamond a_n = 2^n$$
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$$\diamond a_n = 5$$
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Basic idea: Look for solutions of the form $a_n = r^n$, where r is a constant.



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 \diamond Bring $a_n = r^n$ back to the recurrence relation:

i.e.,
$$r^n = c_1 r^{n-1} + c_2 r^{n-2} + \dots + c_k r^{n-k}$$
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♦ The solutions to the *characteristic equation* can yield an explicit formula for the sequence.

$$(r^k - c_1 r^{k-1} - \cdots - c_k) = 0$$

Recall: Problem IV

■ Fibonacci number

$$F_0 = 0$$
, $F_1 = 1$, $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ for $n \ge 2$



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Fibonacci number

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 \diamond What is the closed-form expression of F_n ?

Consider $x^n = x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}$, with $x \neq 0$. There are two different roots

$$\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}, \quad \psi = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$$

Then F_n can be the form of $a\phi^n + b\psi^n$. By $F_0 = 0$ and $F_1 = 1$, we have a + b = 0 and $\phi a + \psi b = 1$, leading to $a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$, b = -a. Therefore,

$$F_n = \frac{\phi^n - \psi^n}{\sqrt{5}}$$



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Theorem If this CE has 2 roots $r_1 \neq r_2$, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation if and only if $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ for $n \geq 0$ and constants α_1, α_2 .



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See [Theorem 1 p. 515].



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Two roots are 2 and -1. So, assume that

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We get $\alpha_1 = 3$ and $\alpha_2 = -1$. Thus, $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n - (-1)^n$



Example 2 $a_n = 7a_{n-1} - 10a_{n-2}$, with $a_0 = 2$, $a_1 = 1$



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Example
$$a_n = 2a_{n-1} + 5a_{n-2} - 6a_{n-3}$$



Theorem If the CE $r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0$ has only 1 root r_0 , then

$$a_n = \alpha_1 r_0^n + \alpha_2 n r_0^n,$$

for all $n \geq 0$ and two constants α_1 and α_2 .



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Proof?

Exercise.



Example $a_n = 4a_{n-1} - 4a_{n-2}$, with $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 0$



Example $a_n = 4a_{n-1} - 4a_{n-2}$, with $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 0$

The characteristic equation is

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We get
$$\alpha_1 = 1$$
 and $\alpha_2 = -1$. Thus, $a_n = 2^n - n2^n$



The Case of Degenerate Roots in General

Theorem [Theorem 4, p.519] Suppose that there are t roots r_1, \ldots, r_t with multiplicities m_1, \ldots, m_t . Then

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^t \left(\sum_{j=0}^{m_i-1} \alpha_{i,j} n^j \right) r_i^n,$$

for all $n \geq 0$ and constants $\alpha_{i,j}$.



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Example

$$a_n = -3a_{n-1} - 3a_{n-2} - a_{n-3}$$
 with $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = -2$, $a_2 = -1$



■ **Definition** A *linear nonhomogeneous relation* with constant coefficients may contain some terms F(n) that depend only on n

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k} + F(n)$$
.

The recurrence relation

 $a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k}$ is called the associated homogeneous recurrence relation.



Theorem If $a_n = p(n)$ is any particular solution to the linear nonhomogeneous relation with constant coefficients,

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k} + F(n),$$

Then all its solutions are of the form

$$a_n = p(n) + h(n),$$

where $a_n = h(n)$ is any solution to the associated homogeneous recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k}$$



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Let
$$p(n) = cn + d$$
, then $cn + d = 3(c(n-1) + d) + 2n$, which means $(2c + 2)n + (2d - 3c) = 0$.



Example $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2n$. Which solution has $a_1 = 3$?

The *characteristic equation* of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation is $r^2 - 3r = 0$. Thus, the solution to the original problem are all of the form $a_n = \alpha 3^n + p(n)$.

We try a degree-t polynomial as the particular solution p(n).

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We get
$$c = -1$$
 and $d = -3/2$. Thus, $p(n) = -n - 3/2$
18 - 5



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Definition The *generating funciton* for the sequence $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_k, \ldots$ of real numbers is the infinite series

$$G(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_k x^k$$



Generating Functions for Finite Sequences

■ A finite sequence a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_n can be easily extended by setting $a_{n+1} = a_{n+2} = \cdots = 0$



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$$\phi G(x) = 1/(1-x) \text{ for } |x| < 1$$



$$\Leftrightarrow G(x) = 1/(1-x) \text{ for } |x| < 1$$

 $1, 1, 1, 1, 1, \dots$



$$\Rightarrow G(x) = 1/(1-x) \text{ for } |x| < 1$$

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$$\diamond G(x) = 1/(1 - ax)$$
 for $|ax| < 1$



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- $\Rightarrow G(x) = 1/(1-x)^2 \text{ for } |x| < 1$ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, ...



$$f(x) + g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k) x^k$$

$$f(x)g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{k} a_j b_{k-j}\right) x^k$$



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$$f(x) = 1/(1-x), g(x) = 1/(1-x)$$

$$G(x) = f(x)g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{k} 1\right) x^{k} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1)x^{k}$$



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$$(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n C(n,k)x^k$$
$$(1+ax)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n C(n,k)a^kx^k$$
$$(1+x^r)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n C(n,k)x^{rk}$$



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$$\frac{1}{(1+x)^n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C(n+k-1,k)(-1)^k x^k$$

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$$e^{x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{k!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \cdots$$

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}x^k}{k} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots$$



Problem 1 How many solutions are there to the equation

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 17$$
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where x_1, x_2, x_3 are nonnegative integers?



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$$C(n+r-1,r)=C(19,17)=C(19,2)$$



Problem 2 Find the number of solutions of

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 17$$
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where x_1, x_2, x_3 are nonnegative integers with $2 \le x_1 \le 5$, $3 \le x_2 \le 6$, $4 \le x_3 \le 7$.



Problem 2 Find the number of solutions of

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Using generating functions, the number is the coefficient of x^{17} in the expansion of

$$(x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5)(x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6)(x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7)$$



Problem 3 In how many ways can eight identical cookies be distributed among three distinct children if each child receives at least two cookies and no more than four cookies?



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The coefficient of x^8 in the expansion

$$(x^2 + x^3 + x^4)^3$$



Problem 4 Use generating functions to find the number of k-combinations of a set with n elements, C(n, k).



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Each of the n elements in the set contributes the term (1+x) to the generating function $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a^k x^k$. Hence, $f(x) = (1+x)^n$.

Then by the binomial theorem, we have $a_k = \binom{n}{k}$.



Next Lecture

relation ...

