

## Geometric Distribution

(from last time)

- Def. A r.v.  $X$  has the geometric distribution with parameter  $p$ ,  $0 < p \leq 1$ , if  $P(X=k) = (1-p)^{k-1}p$ ,  $k = 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots$
- Example:  $X$  could be the number of times you have to flip a coin before getting an H, if  $P(H) = p$  on any flip.
- Note: the geometric distribution has infinitely many values, but is discrete.
- Theorem. If  $X$  is geometric with parameter  $p$ , then  $E(X) = 1/p$ ,  $V(X) = (1-p)/p^2$

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## Geometric Distribution

- let  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = (1-x)^{-1}$ . Then:
  1.  $f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^{n-1} = (1-x)^{-2}$ , and
  2.  $f''(x) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)x^{n-2} = 2(1-x)^{-3}$ .
- $E(X) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nP(X=n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(1-p)^{n-1}p = p(1-(1-p))^{-2} = 1/p$ , using 1.
- $V(X) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n-p)^2 P(X=n)$ 

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n-p)^2 (1-p)^{n-1}p$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n^2 - 2np + p^2)(1-p)^{n-1}p$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n(n-1) + n - 2np + p^2)(1-p)^{n-1}p$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n(n-1) + n(1-2p) + p^2)(1-p)^{n-1}p$$

$$= (1-p)p \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} n(n-1)(1-p)^{n-2} + (1-2p)p \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n(1-p)^{n-1} + p^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-p)^{n-1}$$

$$= (1-p)p2p^{-3} + (p-2)p^2 + p^2$$
, using 2, 1, & sum of all probs.
 
$$= p^{-2}(1-p)$$

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## Chebyshev's Inequality

- Chebyshev's Inequality gives a bound on the probability that a random variable  $X$ , with sample space  $S$ , probability function  $p$ , takes on a value far from the mean,  $E(X)$ .
- Theorem (p 491) (p 439 in 6<sup>th</sup> edition)
- $p(\{s : |X(s) - E(X)| \geq r\}) \leq V(X)/r^2$

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- Proof: Let  $A = \{s : |X(s) - E(X)| \geq r\}$
- We need to show  $p(A) \leq V(X)/r^2$
- Now,  $V(X) = \sum_{s \in S} (X(s) - E(X))^2 p(s)$
- $= \sum_{s \in A} (X(s) - E(X))^2 p(s) + \sum_{s \notin A} (X(s) - E(X))^2 p(s)$
- $\geq \sum_{s \in A} (X(s) - E(X))^2 p(s)$
- $\geq r^2 \sum_{s \in A} p(s) = r^2 p(A)$
- since  $|X(s) - E(X)| \geq r$  in  $A$ .

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Now it's Time for...

## Advanced Counting Techniques

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## Recurrence Relations

•A **recurrence relation** for the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is an equation that expresses  $a_n$  in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely,  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}$ , for all integers  $n$  with  $n \geq n_0$ , where  $n_0$  is a nonnegative integer.

•A sequence is called a **solution** of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation.

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## Recurrence Relations

•In other words, a recurrence relation is like a recursively defined sequence, but **without specifying any initial values (initial conditions)**.

•Therefore, the same recurrence relation can have (and usually has) **multiple solutions**.

•If **both** the initial conditions and the recurrence relation are specified, then the sequence is **uniquely** determined.

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## Recurrence Relations

### •Example:

Consider the recurrence relation  
 $a_n = 2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$  for  $n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$

•Is the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  with  $a_n = 3n$  a solution of this recurrence relation?

•For  $n \geq 2$  we see that  
 $2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2} = 2(3(n-1)) - 3(n-2) = 3n = a_n$ .

•Therefore,  $\{a_n\}$  with  $a_n = 3n$  is a solution of the recurrence relation.

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### Recurrence Relations

- Is the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  with  $a_n=5$  a solution of the same recurrence relation?
- For  $n \geq 2$  we see that  $2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2} = 2 \cdot 5 - 5 = 5 = a_n$ .
- Therefore,  $\{a_n\}$  with  $a_n=5$  is also a solution of the recurrence relation.

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### Modeling with Recurrence Relations

#### •Example:

- Someone deposits \$10,000 in a savings account at a bank yielding 5% per year with interest compounded annually. How much money will be in the account after 30 years?

#### •Solution:

- Let  $P_n$  denote the amount in the account after  $n$  years.
- How can we determine  $P_n$  on the basis of  $P_{n-1}$ ?

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### Modeling with Recurrence Relations

- We can derive the following **recurrence relation**:
- $P_n = P_{n-1} + 0.05P_{n-1} = 1.05P_{n-1}$ .
- The initial condition is  $P_0 = 10,000$ .
- Then we have:
- $P_1 = 1.05P_0$
- $P_2 = 1.05P_1 = (1.05)^2P_0$
- $P_3 = 1.05P_2 = (1.05)^3P_0$
- ...
- $P_n = 1.05P_{n-1} = (1.05)^nP_0$
- We now have a **formula** to calculate  $P_n$  for any natural number  $n$  and can avoid the iteration.

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### Modeling with Recurrence Relations

- Let us use this formula to find  $P_{30}$  under the initial condition  $P_0 = 10,000$ :

$$P_{30} = (1.05)^{30} \cdot 10,000 = 43,219.42$$

•

After 30 years, the account contains \$43,219.42.

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### Modeling with Recurrence Relations

•**Another example:**

•Let  $a_n$  denote the number of bit strings of length  $n$  that do not have two consecutive 0s ("valid strings"). Find a recurrence relation and give initial conditions for the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ .

•**Solution:**

•Idea: The number of valid strings equals the number of valid strings ending with a 0 plus the number of valid strings ending with a 1.

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### Modeling with Recurrence Relations

•Let us assume that  $n \geq 3$ , so that the string contains at least 3 bits.

•Let us further assume that we know the number  $a_{n-1}$  of valid strings of length  $(n-1)$  and the number  $a_{n-2}$  of valid strings of length  $(n-2)$ .

•Then how many valid strings of length  $n$  are there, if the string ends with a 1?

•There are  $a_{n-1}$  such strings, namely the set of valid strings of length  $(n-1)$  with a 1 appended to them.

•**Note:** Whenever we append a 1 to a valid string, that string remains valid.

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### Modeling with Recurrence Relations

•Now we need to know: How many valid strings of length  $n$  are there, if the string ends with a **0**?

•Valid strings of length  $n$  ending with a 0 **must have a 1 as their  $(n-1)$ st bit** (otherwise they would end with 00 and would not be valid).

•And what is the number of valid strings of length  $(n-1)$  that end with a 1?

•We already know that there are  $a_{n-1}$  strings of length  $n$  that end with a 1.

•Therefore, there are  $a_{n-2}$  strings of length  $(n-1)$  that end with a 1.

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### Modeling with Recurrence Relations

•So there are  $a_{n-2}$  valid strings of length  $n$  that end with a 0 (all valid strings of length  $(n-2)$  with 10 appended to them).

•As we said before, the number of valid strings is the number of valid strings ending with a 0 plus the number of valid strings ending with a 1.

•That gives us the following **recurrence relation**:

$$\bullet a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$$

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## Modeling with Recurrence Relations

•What are the **initial conditions**?

- $a_1 = 2$  (0 and 1)
- $a_2 = 3$  (01, 10, and 11)
- $a_3 = a_2 + a_1 = 3 + 2 = 5$
- $a_4 = a_3 + a_2 = 5 + 3 = 8$
- $a_5 = a_4 + a_3 = 8 + 5 = 13$
- ...

•This sequence satisfies the same recurrence relation as the **Fibonacci sequence**.

•Since  $a_1 = f_3$  and  $a_2 = f_4$ , we have  $a_n = f_{n+2}$ .

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## Solving Recurrence Relations

•In general, we would prefer to have an **explicit formula** to compute the value of  $a_n$  rather than conducting  $n$  iterations.

•For one class of recurrence relations, we can obtain such formulas in a systematic way.

•Those are the recurrence relations that express the terms of a sequence as **linear combinations** of previous terms.

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## Solving Recurrence Relations

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

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

•Where  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  are real numbers, and  $c_k \neq 0$ .

•A sequence satisfying such a recurrence relation is uniquely determined by the recurrence relation and the  $k$  initial conditions

$$a_0 = C_0, a_1 = C_1, a_2 = C_2, \dots, a_{k-1} = C_{k-1}.$$

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## Solving Recurrence Relations

•Why are they called linear?

If  $\{x_n\}$  &  $\{y_n\}$  are solutions of

$$a_n = \sum_{j=1}^k c_j a_{n-j} \text{ then}$$

$\{ux_n + vy_n\}$  is a solution, for  $u, v$  real.

• $ux_n = u \sum_{j=1}^k c_j x_{n-j} = \sum_{j=1}^k c_j ux_{n-j}$ ,  
and more generally,

$$\begin{aligned} ux_n + vy_n &= u \sum_{j=1}^k c_j x_{n-j} + v \sum_{j=1}^k c_j y_{n-j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^k c_j (ux_{n-j} + vy_{n-j}) \end{aligned}$$

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

•**Examples:**

- The recurrence relation  $P_n = (1.05)P_{n-1}$  is a linear homogeneous recurrence relation of **degree one**.
- The recurrence relation  $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$  is a linear homogeneous recurrence relation of **degree two**.
- The recurrence relation  $a_n = a_{n-5}$  is a linear homogeneous recurrence relation of **degree five**.

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

•Basically, when solving such recurrence relations, we try to find solutions of the form  $a_n = r^n$ , where  $r$  is a constant.

• $a_n = r^n$  is a solution of the recurrence relation  $a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \dots + c_k a_{n-k}$  if and only if

• $r^n = c_1 r^{n-1} + c_2 r^{n-2} + \dots + c_k r^{n-k}$ .

•Divide this equation by  $r^{n-k}$  and subtract the right-hand side from the left:

• $r^k - c_1 r^{k-1} - c_2 r^{k-2} - \dots - c_{k-1} r - c_k = 0$

•This is called the **characteristic equation** of the recurrence relation.

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

•The solutions of this equation are called the **characteristic roots** of the recurrence relation.

•Let us consider linear homogeneous recurrence relations of **degree two**.

•**Theorem:** Let  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  be real numbers. Suppose that  $r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0$  has two distinct roots  $r_1$  and  $r_2$ .

•Then the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is a solution of the recurrence relation  $a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}$  if and only if  $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$  for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , where  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are constants.

•See page 515 (6<sup>th</sup> Edition: pp. 414 and 415) for the proof.

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

•**Example:** What is the solution of the recurrence relation  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$  with  $a_0 = 2$  and  $a_1 = 7$  ?

•**Solution:** The characteristic equation of the recurrence relation is  $r^2 - r - 2 = 0$ .

•Its roots are  $r = 2$  and  $r = -1$ .

•Hence, the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is a solution to the recurrence relation if and only if:

• $a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 (-1)^n$  for some constants  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

• Given the equation  $a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 (-1)^n$  and the initial conditions  $a_0 = 2$  and  $a_1 = 7$ , it follows that

- $a_0 = 2 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$
- $a_1 = 7 = \alpha_1 \cdot 2 + \alpha_2 \cdot (-1)$

• Solving these two equations gives us  $\alpha_1 = 3$  and  $\alpha_2 = -1$ .

• Therefore, the solution to the recurrence relation and initial conditions is the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  with

$$\bullet a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n - (-1)^n.$$

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

• **Another Example:** Give an explicit formula for the Fibonacci numbers.

• **Solution:** The Fibonacci numbers satisfy the recurrence relation  $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$  with initial conditions  $f_0 = 0$  and  $f_1 = 1$ .

• The characteristic equation is  $r^2 - r - 1 = 0$ .

• Its roots are

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

• Therefore, the Fibonacci numbers are given by

for some constants  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .

We can determine values for these constants so that the sequence meets the conditions  $f_0 = 0$  and  $f_1 = 1$ :

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

• The unique solution to this system of two equations and two variables is

So finally we obtained an explicit formula for the Fibonacci numbers:

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

- But what happens if the characteristic equation has only one root?
- How can we then match our equation with the initial conditions  $a_0$  and  $a_1$ ?
- Theorem:** Let  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  be real numbers with  $c_2 \neq 0$ . Suppose that  $r^2 - c_1r - c_2 = 0$  has only one root  $r_0$ . A sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is a solution of the recurrence relation  $a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2}$  if and only if  $a_n = \alpha_1r_0^n + \alpha_2nr_0^n$ , for  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ , where  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are constants. (Theorem 2, page 517)

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### Solving Recurrence Relations

- Example:** What is the solution of the recurrence relation  $a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 9a_{n-2}$  with  $a_0 = 1$  and  $a_1 = 6$ ?
- Solution:** The only root of  $r^2 - 6r + 9 = 0$  is  $r_0 = 3$ . Hence, the solution to the recurrence relation is  $a_n = \alpha_13^n + \alpha_2n3^n$  for some constants  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .
- To match the initial condition, we need
  - $a_0 = 1 = \alpha_1$
  - $a_1 = 6 = \alpha_1 \cdot 3 + \alpha_2 \cdot 3$
- Solving these equations yields  $\alpha_1 = 1$  and  $\alpha_2 = 1$ .
- Consequently, the overall solution is given by  $a_n = 3^n + n3^n$ .

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### Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences

- Some algorithms take a problem and **successively divide** it into one or more smaller problems until there is a **trivial solution** to them.
- For example, the **binary search** algorithm recursively divides the input into two halves and eliminates the irrelevant half until only one relevant element remained.
- This technique is called “**divide and conquer**”.
- We can use **recurrence relations** to analyze the complexity of such algorithms.

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### Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences

- Suppose that an algorithm divides a problem (input) of size  $n$  into  $a$  subproblems, where each subproblem is of size  $n/b$ . Assume that  $g(n)$  operations are performed for such a division of a problem.
- Then, if  $f(n)$  represents the number of operations required to solve the problem, it follows that  $f$  satisfies the recurrence relation
  - $f(n) = af(n/b) + g(n)$ .
- This is called a **divide-and-conquer recurrence relation**.

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### Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences

•**Example:** The binary search algorithm reduces the search for an element in a search sequence of size  $n$  to the binary search for this element in a search sequence of size  $n/2$  (if  $n$  is even).

•**Two** comparisons are needed to perform this reduction.

•Hence, if  $f(n)$  is the number of comparisons required to search for an element in a search sequence of size  $n$ , then

• $f(n) = f(n/2) + 2$  if  $n$  is even.