# Discrete Mathematics in Computer Science D2. Advanced Methods for Recurrences

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## Discrete Mathematics in Computer Science

— D2. Advanced Methods for Recurrences

D2.1 Fibonacci Series - Generating Functions

D2.2 Master Theorem for Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences

# D2.1 Fibonacci Series – Generating Functions

# Revisiting the Fibonacci Series

- In this section we study generating functions, a powerful method for solving recurrences.
- Generating functions allow us to directly derive closed-form expressions for recurrences.
- Full mastery of generating functions requires solid knowledge of calculus, in particular power series.
- Rather than develop the topic in its full depth, we will look at it within the context of a case study, proving the closed form of the Fibonacci series again.
- We leave out some of the more subtle mathematical aspects, such as the question of convergence of the power series used.

### **Power Series**

#### Definition (power series)

Let  $(a_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}_0}$  be a sequence of real numbers.

The power series with coefficients  $(a_n)$  is the (possibly partial) function  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$
 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

German: Potenzreihe

Notes: more general definitions exist, for example

- ▶ using  $(x c)^n$  instead of  $x^n$  for some  $c \in \mathbb{R}$
- using complex instead of real numbers
- using multiple variables

# Power Series - Examples

Reminder:  $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ 

#### Examples:

▶ 
$$a_n = 1$$
  
 $\Rightarrow g(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$  (only defined for  $|x| < 1$ )

▶ 
$$a_n = z^n$$
 for some  $z \in \mathbb{R}$   
 $\leadsto g(x) = \frac{1}{1-zx}$  (only defined for  $|x| < 1/|z|$ )

► 
$$a_n = \frac{1}{n!}$$
  
 $\rightsquigarrow g(x) = e^x$  (defined for all  $x$ )

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 0 & n \text{ is even} \\ \frac{(-1)^{(n-1)/2}}{n!} & x \text{ is odd} \\ & g(x) = \sin x \text{ (defined for all } x) \end{cases}$$

# Uniqueness of Power Series Representation

#### **Theorem**

Let g and h be power series with coefficients  $(a_n)$  and  $(b_n)$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that for all  $|x| < \varepsilon$ :

- g and h converge, and

Then  $a_n = b_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ .

## Generating Functions

#### Definition (generating function)

Let  $f: \mathbb{N}_0 \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function over the natural numbers.

The generating function for f is the power series with coefficients  $(f(n))_{n\in\mathbb{N}_0}$ .

German: erzeugende Funktion

We are particularly interested in the case where f is defined by a recurrence.

## Generating Functions for Solving Recurrences

General approach for deriving closed-form expressions for a recurrence f using generating functions:

- **1** Let g be the generating function of f.
- ② Use the recurrence to derive an equation for g.
- Use algebra and calculus to solve the equation, i.e., derive a closed-form expression for g.
- ① Use calculus to derive a power series representation  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for g.
- We get  $f(n) = a_n$  as the closed-form expression of the recurrence.

# Case Study: Fibonacci Numbers

We now illustrate the approach using the Fibonacci numbers F as an example for the recurrence f.

As a reminder, the Fibonacci numbers are defined as follows:

- F(0) = 0
- F(1) = 1
- ► F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2) for all  $n \ge 2$

# Case Study: 1. Generating Function

1. Let g be the generating function of f.

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F(n)x^n$$
 for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ 

Note: The series does not converge for all x, but it converges for  $|x| < \varepsilon$  for sufficiently small  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We omit details.

# Case Study: 2. Equation for g from Recurrence

$$F(0) = 0$$
  $F(1) = 1$   $F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2)$  for all  $n \ge 2$ 

2. Use the recurrence to derive an equation for g.

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F(n)x^{n} = 0 \cdot x^{0} + 1 \cdot x^{1} + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (F(n-1) + F(n-2))x^{n}$$

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

$$= x + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n)x^{n+1} + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F(n)x^{n+2}$$

$$= x + x \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} F(n)x^{n} + x^{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F(n)x^{n}$$

$$= x + x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F(n)x^{n} + x^{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} F(n)x^{n}$$

$$= x + x g(x) + x^{2}g(x)$$

# Case Study: 3. Solve Equation for g

3. Use algebra and calculus to solve the equation, i.e., derive a closed-form expression for *g*.

$$g(x) = x + x g(x) + x^{2}g(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow g(x) - x g(x) - x^{2}g(x) = x$$

$$\Rightarrow g(x)(1 - x - x^{2}) = x$$

$$\Rightarrow g(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x - x^{2}}$$

# Case Study: 4. Power Series Representation for g (1)

4. Use calculus to derive a power series representation  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for g.

$$g(x) = \frac{x}{1 - x - x^2} = xh(x)$$
 with  $h(x) = \frac{1}{1 - x - x^2}$ 

Idea: partial fraction decomposition, i.e.,

find  $a, b, \alpha, \beta$  such that  $h(x) = \frac{a}{1-\alpha x} + \frac{b}{1-\beta x}$ .

$$\frac{a}{1-\alpha x} + \frac{b}{1-\beta x} = \frac{a(1-\beta x) + b(1-\alpha x)}{(1-\alpha x)(1-\beta x)}$$
$$= \frac{a-a\beta x + b-b\alpha x}{1-\alpha x - \beta x + \alpha \beta x^2}$$
$$= \frac{(a+b) + (-a\beta - b\alpha)x}{1+(-\alpha - \beta)x + \alpha \beta x^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
  $a + b = 1$ ,  $-a\beta - b\alpha = 0$ ,  $-\alpha - \beta = -1$ ,  $\alpha\beta = -1$ 

# Case Study: 4. Power Series Representation for g (2)

4. Use calculus to derive a power series representation  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for g.

(1) 
$$a + b = 1$$
, (2)  $-a\beta - b\alpha = 0$ , (3)  $-\alpha - \beta = -1$ , (4)  $\alpha\beta = -1$ 

- ► From (3): (5)  $\beta = 1 \alpha$
- ► Substituting (5) into (4):

$$\alpha(1 - \alpha) = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \alpha - \alpha^2 = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \alpha^2 - \alpha - 1 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + 1} = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{5}{4}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \alpha = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

 $\sim$  The solutions are  $\alpha = \varphi$  or  $\alpha = \psi$  from the previous chapter. Continue with (6)  $\alpha = \varphi$ .

# Case Study: 4. Power Series Representation for g (3)

- 4. Use calculus to derive a power series representation  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for g.
- (1) a + b = 1, (2)  $-a\beta b\alpha = 0$ , (3)  $-\alpha \beta = -1$ , (4)  $\alpha\beta = -1$ ,
- (5)  $\beta = 1 \alpha$ , (6)  $\alpha = \varphi$ 
  - Substituting (6) into (5): (7)  $\beta = 1 \alpha = 1 \varphi = \psi$ .
  - From (1): (8) b = 1 a
  - ► Substituting (6), (7), (8) into (2):

$$-a(1-\varphi) - (1-a)\varphi = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow -a + a\varphi - \varphi + a\varphi = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a(2\varphi - 1) = \varphi$$

$$\Rightarrow a = \frac{\varphi}{2\varphi - 1} = \frac{\varphi}{2 \cdot \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5}) - 1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\varphi$$

# Case Study: 4. Power Series Representation for g (4)

- 4. Use calculus to derive a power series representation  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for g.
- (8) b = 1 a, (9)  $a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\varphi$ 
  - ► Substituting (9) into (8):

$$b = 1 - a$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\varphi$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{5}}{\sqrt{5}} - \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(-\sqrt{5} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5})$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{5})$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\psi$$

# Case Study: 4. Power Series Representation for g (5)

4. Use calculus to derive a power series representation  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for g.

$$g(x) = xh(x), \quad h(x) = \frac{a}{1-\alpha x} + \frac{b}{1-\beta x},$$
  
 $\alpha = \varphi, \quad \beta = \psi, \quad a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}\varphi, \quad b = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}\psi$ 

Plugging everything in:

$$g(x) = x \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \varphi \frac{1}{1 - \varphi x} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \psi \frac{1}{1 - \psi x} \right) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \varphi \frac{1}{1 - \varphi x} - \psi \frac{1}{1 - \psi x} \right)$$

$$= \frac{x}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \varphi \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \varphi^n x^n - \psi \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi^n x^n \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \varphi^{n+1} x^{n+1} - \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \psi^{n+1} x^{n+1} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \varphi^n x^n - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \psi^n x^n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\varphi^n - \psi^n) x^n$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\varphi^n - \psi^n) x^n$$

## Case Study: 5. Extract Closed Form of Recurrence

- 4. Use calculus to derive a power series representation  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  for g.
- 5. We get  $f(n) = a_n$  as the closed-form expression of the recurrence.

From

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\varphi^n - \psi^n) x^n$$

we conclude:

$$F(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\varphi^n - \psi^n)$$
 for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ 

# Concluding Remarks

- ► The approach requires analytical skill, but once understood, it can be applied to many similar recurrences.
- ► The same basic idea can be used to solve all recurrences of the form
  - $ightharpoonup f(0) = a_0$
  - ...
  - $f(k-1) = a_{k-1}$
  - $f(n) = c_1 f(n-1) + \cdots + c_k f(n-k) \quad \text{ for all } n \ge k$
- The Fibonacci numbers are the special case where k = 2,  $a_0 = 0$ ,  $a_1 = 1$ ,  $c_1 = 1$ ,  $c_2 = 1$ .

# D2.2 Master Theorem for Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences

## Divide-and-Conquer Algorithms

- Recurrences frequently arise in the run-time analysis of divide-and-conquer algorithms.
- Examples:
  - Mergesort: sort a sequence by recursively sorting two smaller sequences, then merging them
  - Binary search: find an element in a sorted sequence by identifying which half of the sequence must contain the element, then recursively searching it
  - Quickselect: find the k-th smallest element in a sequence by recursive partitioning

# Asymptotic Growth

- Run-time analysis usually focuses on the asymptotic growth rate of run-time.
- For example, we say "run-time grows at most quadratically" rather than saying that run-time for inputs of size n is  $3n^2 + 17n + 8$ .

#### advantages:

- much simpler to study
- can abstract from minor implementation details

# Big-O, Big-Ω, Big-Θ

### Definition $(O, \Omega, \Theta)$

Let  $g: \mathbb{R}_0^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function.

The sets of functions  $O(g), \Omega(g), \Theta(g)$  are defined as follows:

- $O(g) = \{ f : \mathbb{R}_0^+ \to \mathbb{R} \mid \text{there exist } C, n_0 \in \mathbb{R} \\ \text{s.t. } |f(n)| \le C \cdot g(n) \text{ for all } n \ge n_0 \}$
- $\Omega(g) = \{ f : \mathbb{R}_0^+ \to \mathbb{R} \mid \text{there exist } C, n_0 \in \mathbb{R} \\ \text{s.t. } |f(n)| \ge C \cdot g(n) \text{ for all } n \ge n_0 \}$

#### Notation:

- ▶ It is convention to say " $5n^2 + 7n \log_2 n = \Theta(n^2)$ " instead of " $f \in \Theta(g)$  for the functions f, g with  $f(n) = 5n^2 + 7n \log_2 n$  and  $g(n) = n^2$ ".
- ightharpoonup ditto for O,  $\Omega$

## Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences

A common instantiation of the divide-and-conquer algorithm scheme works as follows:

- For inputs of small size n < C, solve the problem directly.
- Otherwise:
  - **1** Construct A smaller inputs of size n/B.
  - Recursively solve these inputs using the same algorithm.
  - **3** Compute the result from the recursively computed results.

If 1.+3. take time f(n), the overall run-time for n > C can be expressed as  $T(n) = A \cdot T(n/B) + f(n)$ .

- ► We call this a divide-and-conquer recurrence.
- We do not care about run-time for  $n \le C$  because it does not affect asymptotic analysis.

## Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences – Examples

#### Reminder:

- ① Construct A smaller inputs of size n/B.
- 2 Recursively solve these inputs using the same algorithm.
- Ompute the result from the recursively computed results.

divide-and-conquer recurrence:  $T(n) = A \cdot T(n/B) + f(n)$ 

#### Examples:

- ► Mergesort: A = 2, B = 2,  $f(n) = \Theta(n)$
- ▶ Binary Search: A = 1, B = 2,  $f(n) = \Theta(1)$

## Master Theorem for Divide-and-Conquer Recurrences

#### **Theorem**

Let  $A \ge 1$ ,  $B \ge 1$ , and let T satisfy the divide-and-conquer recurrence  $T(n) = A \cdot T(n/B) + f(n)$ . Then:

- ► If  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_B A \varepsilon})$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A})$ .
- If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A})$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A} \log_2 n)$ .
- ▶ If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_B A + \varepsilon})$  for some  $\varepsilon > 0$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ .

We do not prove the theorem.

# Application: Mergesort

Reminder: 
$$T(n) = A \cdot T(n/B) + f(n)$$

- $f(n) = O(n^{\log_B A \varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A})$
- $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A} \log_2 n)$
- $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_B A + \varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Mergesort: 
$$A = 2$$
,  $B = 2$ ,  $f(n) = \Theta(n)$   
 $\Rightarrow \log_B A = \log_2 2 = 1$ 

- $\blacktriangleright$   $f(n) = O(n^{1-\varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^1)$
- $f(n) = \Theta(n^1) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^1 \log_2 n)$
- $f(n) = \Omega(n^{1+\varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$$

# Application: Binary Search

Reminder: 
$$T(n) = A \cdot T(n/B) + f(n)$$

- $f(n) = O(n^{\log_B A \varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A})$
- $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_B A} \log_2 n)$
- $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_B A + \varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Binary Search: 
$$A = 1$$
,  $B = 2$ ,  $f(n) = \Theta(1)$   
 $\Rightarrow \log_B A = \log_2 1 = 0$ 

- $f(n) = O(n^{0-\varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^0)$
- $f(n) = \Theta(n^0) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^0 \log_2 n)$
- $f(n) = \Omega(n^{0+\varepsilon}) \rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(n) = \Theta(\log n)$$

# More Complex Cases

Some divide-and-conquer algorithms have more complicated recurrences because they do not split into even-sized pieces of predictable size.

### Example:

- ▶ Quicksort with random pivotization:  $f(n) = \Theta(n)$ ; split n uniformly randomly into  $1 \le k \le n$  and n 1 k  $\rightsquigarrow$  expected runtime  $\Theta(n \log n)$
- ▶ Quickselect with median-of-median pivotization:  $f(n) = \Theta(n)$ ; one recursion on input size n/5, one recursion on input size at most  $n \cdot \frac{7}{10}$   $\rightsquigarrow$  runtime  $\Theta(n)$

Here, we can try to use the Master theorem to derive hypotheses and then prove them by mathematical induction.