

# CS215 DISCRETE MATH

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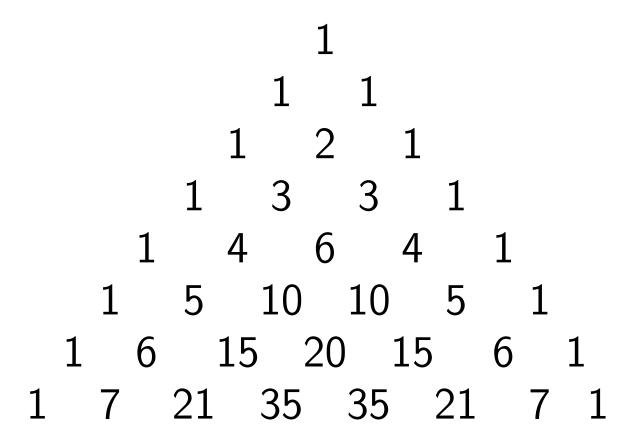


## Pascal's Triangle

```
10 10
      15 20 15
1 7 21 35 35 21
```



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### **Pascal identity**

Each (non-1) entry in Pascal's Triangle is the sum of the two entries directly above it (to left and to right).



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We will use a combinatorial proof.



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$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k}$$

Therefore, each term (left and right) represents the number of subsets of a particular size chosen from an appropriately sized set.



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Try to use sum principle to explain relationship among these three terms.

Example: n = 5, k = 2

$$\binom{5}{2} = \binom{4}{1} + \binom{4}{2}.$$



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Consider  $S = \{A, B, C, D, E\}$ .

Set  $S_1$  of 2-subsets of S can be partitioned into 2 disjoint parts.

 $S_2$ : the 2-subsets that contain E and

 $S_3$ : the set of 2-subsets that do not contain E.

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To apply sum rule, partition  $S_1$  into  $S_2$  and  $S_3$ .

Let  $S_2$  be set of k-element subsets that contain  $x_n$ .

Let  $S_3$  be set of k-element subsets that don't contain  $x_n$ .



### Blaise Pascal

Born 1623; Died 1662

French Mathematician

A Founder of Probability Theory

Inventor of one of the first mechanical calculating machines

Pascal Programming Language named for him



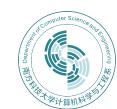


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$$(x+y)^3 = x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3$$
$$= {3 \choose 0}x^3 + {3 \choose 1}x^2y + {3 \choose 2}xy^2 + {3 \choose 3}y^3$$



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**The Binomial Theorem** For any integer  $n \geq 0$ ,

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$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} x^{n-i} y^i.$$

**Proof**?



## Application of the Binomial Theorem

We may use the Binomial Theorem to prove

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} = 2^n$$



Suppose we have k labels of one kind, e.g., red and n-k labels of another, e.g., blue. In how many different ways can we apply these labels to n objects?



Suppose we have k labels of one kind, e.g., red and n-k labels of another, e.g., blue. In how many different ways can we apply these labels to n objects?

Show that if we have  $k_1$  labels of one kind, e.g., red,  $k_2$  labels of a second kind, e.g., blue, and  $k_3 = n - k_1 - k_2$  labels of a third kind, then there are  $\frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!k_3!}$  ways to apply these labels to n objects



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What is the coefficient of  $x^{k_1}y^{k_2}z^{k_3}$  in  $(x+y+z)^n$ ?



There are  $\binom{n}{k_1}$  ways to choose the red items There are then  $\binom{n-k_1}{k_2}$  ways to choose the blue items from the remaining  $n-k_1$ . The remaining  $k_3$  items get labelled a third color.



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Using the *product rule* the total number of labellings is

$$\binom{n}{k_1} \binom{n-k_1}{k_2} = \frac{n!}{k_1!(n-k_1)!} \frac{(n-k_1)!}{(k_2)!(n-k_1-k_2)!}$$

$$= \frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!(n-k_1-k_2)!} = \frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!k_3!}$$



• When  $k_1 + k_2 + k_3 = n$ , we call

$$\frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!k_3!}$$

a trinomial coefficient and denote it as

$$\begin{pmatrix} n \\ k_1 & k_2 & k_3 \end{pmatrix}$$



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This will be very similar to the analysis of hashing *n* keys into a table of size 365.



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Sample space:  $|S| = 365^n$ 



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$$\#A_n + \#B_n = 365^n$$



n	$A_n$	$B_n$	n	$A_{n}$	$B_n$
1	0.00000000	1.00000000	16	0.28360400	0.71639599
2	0.00273972	0.99726027	17	0.31500766	0.68499233
3	0.00820416	0.99179583	18	0.34691141	0.65308858
4	0.01635591	0.98364408	19	0.37911852	0.62088147
5	0.02713557	0.97286442	20	0.41143838	0.58856161
6	0.04046248	0.95953751	21	0.44368833	0.55631166
7	0.05623570	0.94376429	22	0.47569530	0.52430469
8	0.07433529	0.92566470	23	0.50729723	0.49270276
9	0.09462383	0.90537616	24	0.53834425	0.46165574
10	0.11694817	0.88305182	25	0.56869970	0.43130029
11	0.14114137	0.85885862	26	0.59824082	0.40175917
12	0.16702478	0.83297521	27	0.62685928	0.37314071
13	0.19441027	0.80558972	28	0.65446147	0.34553852
14	0.22310251	0.77689748	29	0.68096853	0.31903146
15	0.25290131	0.74709868	30	0.70631624	0.29368375
12 13 14	0.16702478 0.19441027 0.22310251	0.83297521 0.80558972 0.77689748	27 28 29	0.62685928 0.65446147 0.68096853	0.37314071 0.34553852 0.31903146



Event A: at least two people in the room have the same birthday
Event B: no two people in the room have the same birthday

$$Pr[A] = 1 - Pr[B]$$

$$\Pr[B] = \left(1 - \frac{1}{365}\right) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{2}{365}\right) \cdot \dots \cdot \left(1 - \frac{n-1}{365}\right)$$
$$= \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right).$$

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$$p(n; H) := 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} (1 - \frac{i}{H})$$



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Recall that 
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This probability can be approximated as

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Let n(p; H) be the smallest number of values we have to choose, such that the probability for finding a collision is at least p. By inverting the expression above, we have

$$n(p; H) \approx \sqrt{2H \ln \frac{1}{1-p}}.$$



The Euclidean algorithm in pseudocode

#### ALGORITHM 1 The Euclidean Algorithm.

```
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\}
```

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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#### Why?



Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

```
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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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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  $0 \le r_2 < r_1$ ,  $r_1 = r_2q_2 + r_3$   $0 \le r_3 < r_2$ ,  $0 \le r_3 < r_3$ 

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

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- $\diamond$  degree k:  $a_n$  is expressed by the previous k terms
- constant coefficients: coefficients are constants

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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### **Examples**

$$P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$$
 $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ 
 $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}^2$ 
 $H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$ 
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■ **Definition** A *linear homogeneous relation of degree k* with constant coefficients is a recurrence relation of the form

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

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

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 coefficients are not constants



**Example** Consider the recurrence relation

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

Which of the following are solutions?

$$\diamond a_n = 3n$$
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$$\diamond a_n = 2^n$$
:

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$$r^n = c_1 r^{n-1} + c_2 r^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k r^{n-k}$$
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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  $n \ge 2$ 



### Recall: Problem IV

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



### Recall: Problem IV

#### Fibonacci number

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

 $\diamond$  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  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ .



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#### **Proof?**

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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for all  $n \ge 0$ , where the  $\alpha_i$ 's are constants.



# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree k

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for all  $n \ge 0$ , where the  $\alpha_i$ 's are constants.

**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  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$ .



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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

$$r^2 - 4r + 4 = 0$$
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The only root is 2. So, assume that

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### 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.



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**Idea**: We already know how to find  $h_n$ . For many common f(n), a solution  $b_n$  to the non-homogeneous recurrence is similar to f(n). We then need find  $a_n = b_n + h_n$  to the non-homogeneous recurrence that satisfies both recurrence and initial conditions.

**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

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



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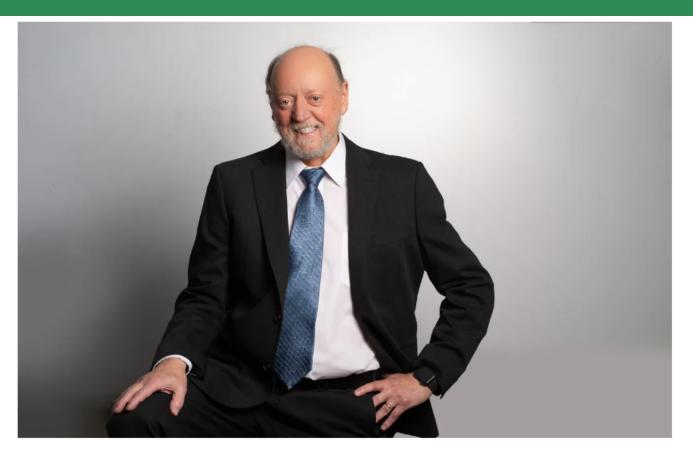
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We get 
$$c = -1$$
 and  $d = -3/2$ . Thus,  $p(n) = -n - 3/2$   
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"Science is driven by simulation," says Dongarra. "It's that match between the hardware capability, and the necessity of the simulations to use that hardware, where my software fits in."

"I'm a mathematician, to me, everything is linear algebra, but the world is seeing that as well," he said. "It's a fabric on which we build other things." Most problems in machine learning and AI, he said, go back to an "eternal computational component" in linear algebra.

### Next Lecture

generating function, relation ...

