



# CS215 DISCRETE MATH

Dr. QI WANG

Department of Computer Science and Engineering

Office: Room413, CoE South Tower

Email: [wangqi@sustech.edu.cn](mailto:wangqi@sustech.edu.cn)

# $k$ -Element Permutations/Combinations of a Set

- *$k$ -element permutation of  $N$* : a **list** of  $k$  distinct elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . How many are there?

# $k$ -Element Permutations/Combinations of a Set

- *$k$ -element permutation of  $N$* : a **list** of  $k$  distinct elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . How many are there?

$$P(n, k) = n(n - 1)(n - 2) \cdots (n - k + 1), \quad 1 \leq k \leq n$$

# $k$ -Element Permutations/Combinations of a Set

- *$k$ -element permutation of  $N$* : a **list** of  $k$  distinct elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . How many are there?

$$P(n, k) = n(n - 1)(n - 2) \cdots (n - k + 1), \quad 1 \leq k \leq n$$

- *$k$ -element combination of  $N$* : a **set** of  $k$  distinct elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . How many are there?

# $k$ -Element Permutations/Combinations of a Set

- *$k$ -element permutation of  $N$* : a **list** of  $k$  distinct elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . How many are there?

$$P(n, k) = n(n - 1)(n - 2) \cdots (n - k + 1), \quad 1 \leq k \leq n$$

- *$k$ -element combination of  $N$* : a **set** of  $k$  distinct elements from  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ . How many are there?

$$\binom{n}{k} = C(n, k) = \frac{P(n, k)}{k!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n - k)!}.$$

# Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients

- $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$  is the number of  $k$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set.

$\binom{n}{0} = 1$  only one set of size 0.

$\binom{n}{n} = 1$  only one set of size  $n$ .

$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n}{n-k}$  Obvious from equation. Can you think of a simple bijection that explains this?

# Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients (cont.)

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

# Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients (cont.)

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

Use Sum Rule

Let  $P$  = set of all subsets of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$S_i$  = set of all  $i$ -subsets of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

# Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients (cont.)

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

Use Sum Rule

Let  $P$  = set of all subsets of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$S_i$  = set of all  $i$ -subsets of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$

$$\Rightarrow |P| = \sum_{i=0}^n |S_i| = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i}$$

# Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients (cont.)

- Let  $L = L_1 L_2 \dots L_n$  be a list of size  $n$  from  $\{0, 1\}$

If  $\mathcal{L} = \text{set of all such lists} \Rightarrow |\mathcal{L}| = 2^n$

There is a *bijection* between  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $P$  so

$|P| = 2^n$  and we are done.

## Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients (cont.)

- Let  $L = L_1 L_2 \dots L_n$  be a list of size  $n$  from  $\{0, 1\}$

If  $\mathcal{L} = \text{set of all such lists} \Rightarrow |\mathcal{L}| = 2^n$

There is a *bijection* between  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $P$  so  
 $|P| = 2^n$  and we are done.

Define the following function  $f : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow P$

If  $L \in \mathcal{L}$  then  $f(L)$  is the set  $S \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  defined by

$$i \in S \Leftrightarrow L_i = 1$$

## Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients (cont.)

- Let  $L = L_1 L_2 \dots L_n$  be a list of size  $n$  from  $\{0, 1\}$

If  $\mathcal{L} = \text{set of all such lists} \Rightarrow |\mathcal{L}| = 2^n$

There is a *bijection* between  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $P$  so  $|P| = 2^n$  and we are done.

Define the following function  $f : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow P$

If  $L \in \mathcal{L}$  then  $f(L)$  is the set  $S \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  defined by

$$i \in S \Leftrightarrow L_i = 1$$

$f$  is a *bijection* between  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $P$  (why?) so  $|\mathcal{L}| = |P|$

# Some Properties of Binomial Coefficients (cont.)

- Let  $L = L_1 L_2 \dots L_n$  be a list of size  $n$  from  $\{0, 1\}$

If  $\mathcal{L} = \text{set of all such lists} \Rightarrow |\mathcal{L}| = 2^n$

There is a *bijection* between  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $P$  so  $|P| = 2^n$  and we are done.

Define the following function  $f : \mathcal{L} \rightarrow P$

If  $L \in \mathcal{L}$  then  $f(L)$  is the set  $S \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  defined by

$$i \in S \Leftrightarrow L_i = 1$$

$f$  is a *bijection* between  $\mathcal{L}$  and  $P$  (why?) so  $|\mathcal{L}| = |P|$

Ex:  $n = 5$

$$f(10101) = \{1, 3, 5\}, \quad f(11101) = \{1, 2, 3, 5\}, \quad f(00000) = \emptyset$$

# Binomial Coefficients

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

# Binomial Coefficients

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

Each row begins with a 1  
because  $\binom{n}{0} = 1$

# Binomial Coefficients

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

Each row begins with a 1  
because  $\binom{n}{0} = 1$

Each row ends with a 1  
because  $\binom{n}{n} = 1$ .

# Binomial Coefficients

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

Each row begins with a 1 because  $\binom{n}{0} = 1$

Each row ends with a 1 because  $\binom{n}{n} = 1$ .

Each row increases at first then decreases.

# Binomial Coefficients

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

Each row begins with a 1 because  $\binom{n}{0} = 1$

Each row ends with a 1 because  $\binom{n}{n} = 1$ .

Each row increases at first then decreases.

Second half of each row is the reverse of the first half.

# Binomial Coefficients

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

Each row begins with a 1 because  $\binom{n}{0} = 1$

Each row ends with a 1 because  $\binom{n}{n} = 1$ .

Each row increases at first then decreases.

Second half of each row is the reverse of the first half.

Sum of items on  $n$ -th row is  $2^n$

# Pascal's Triangle

Take the table

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

# Pascal's Triangle

Take the table

and shift each row slightly so that middle element is in middle

$n \backslash k$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
0	1						
1	1	1					
2	1	2	1				
3	1	3	3	1			
4	1	4	6	4	1		
5	1	5	10	10	5	1	
6	1	6	15	20	15	6	1

$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} & & & & & & 1 & \\ & & & & & & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ & & & & & & 1 & 2 & 1 \\ & & & & & & 1 & 3 & 3 & 1 \\ & & & & & & 1 & 4 & 6 & 4 & 1 \\ & & & & & & 1 & 5 & 10 & 10 & 5 & 1 \\ & & & & & & 1 & 6 & 15 & 20 & 15 & 6 & 1 \end{array}$$

# Pascal's Triangle

							1
						1	1
				1	2	1	
			1	3	3	1	
		1	4	6	4	1	
	1	5	10	10	5	1	
1	6	15	20	15	6	1	

# Pascal's Triangle

							1	
						1	1	
			1	2	1			
		1	3	3	1			
	1	4	6	4	1			
1	5	10	10	5	1			
1	6	15	20	15	6	1		

What is the next row in the table?

# Pascal's Triangle

			1				
			1	1	1		
		1	2	1			
	1	3	3	1			
1	4	6	4	1			
1	5	10	10	5	1		
1	6	15	20	15	6	1	
1	7	21	35	35	21	7	1

# Pascal's Triangle

			1					
		1	1	1				
	1	1	2	1				
	1	3	3	1				
	1	4	6	4	1			
	1	5	10	10	5	1		
	1	6	15	20	15	6	1	
1	7	21	35	35	21	7	1	

## 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).

# Pascal's Triangle

			1					
			1	1	1			
		1	1	2	1			
	1	3	3	1				
1	4	6	4	1				
1	5	10	10	5	1			
1	6	15	20	15	6	1		
1	7	21	35	35	21	7	1	

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

## 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).

# Pascal's Identity

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

# Pascal's Identity

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

A purely *algebraic* proof (manipulating formulas) is possible.

# Pascal's Identity

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

A purely *algebraic* proof (manipulating formulas) is possible.

We will use a *combinatorial proof*.

# A Combinatorial Proof

- $\binom{n}{k}$  is the number of  $k$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set.

# A Combinatorial Proof

- $\binom{n}{k}$  is the number of  $k$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set.

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

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

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

Number of  $k$ -subsets of an  $n$ -element set.

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

Number of  $k$ -subsets of an  $n$ -element set.

Number of  $(k-1)$ -subsets of an  $(n-1)$ -element set.

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

Number of  $k$ -subsets of an  $n$ -element set.

Number of  $(k-1)$ -subsets of an  $(n-1)$ -element set.

Number of  $k$ -subsets of an  $(n-1)$ -element set.

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

Number of  $k$ -subsets of an  $n$ -element set.

Number of  $(k-1)$ -subsets of an  $(n-1)$ -element set.

Number of  $k$ -subsets of an  $(n-1)$ -element set.

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

Example:  $n = 5, k = 2$

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

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

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

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

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

Set  $S_1$  of 2-subsets of  $S$

$$S_1 = \{\{A, B\}, \{A, C\}, \{A, D\}, \{A, E\}, \{B, C\}, \\ \{B, D\}, \{B, E\}, \{C, D\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, E\}\}.$$

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

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  $E$ .

$$S_1 = \{\{A, B\}, \{A, C\}, \{A, D\}, \{A, E\}, \{B, C\}, \\ \{B, D\}, \{B, E\}, \{C, D\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, E\}\}.$$

# A Combinatorial Proof

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

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  $E$ .

$$S_1 = \{\{A, B\}, \{A, C\}, \{A, D\}, \{A, E\}, \{B, C\}, \\ \{B, D\}, \{B, E\}, \{C, D\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, E\}\}.$$

$$S_1 = \{\{A, B\}, \{A, C\}, \{A, D\}, \{A, E\}, \{B, C\}, \\ \{B, D\}, \{B, E\}, \{C, D\}, \{C, E\}, \{D, E\}\}.$$

# A Combinatorial Proof

- If  $n$  and  $k$  are integers satisfying  $0 < k < n$ , then

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

# A Combinatorial Proof

- If  $n$  and  $k$  are integers satisfying  $0 < k < n$ , then

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

**Proof:** Apply sum rule.

# A Combinatorial Proof

- If  $n$  and  $k$  are integers satisfying  $0 < k < n$ , then

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

**Proof:** Apply sum rule.

Let  $S_1$  be set of all  $k$ -element subsets.

# A Combinatorial Proof

- If  $n$  and  $k$  are integers satisfying  $0 < k < n$ , then

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

**Proof:** Apply sum rule.

Let  $S_1$  be set of all  $k$ -element subsets.

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



# The Binomial Theorem

$$(x + y) = \binom{1}{0}x + \binom{1}{1}y$$

# The Binomial Theorem

$$(x + y) = \binom{1}{0}x + \binom{1}{1}y$$

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

# The Binomial Theorem

$$(x+y) = \binom{1}{0}x + \binom{1}{1}y$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}(x+y)^3 &= x^3 + 3x^2y + 3xy^2 + y^3 \\&= \binom{3}{0}x^3 + \binom{3}{1}x^2y + \binom{3}{2}xy^2 + \binom{3}{3}y^3\end{aligned}$$

# The Binomial Theorem

- Number of  $k$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set is called a **binomial coefficient** because of its role in the algebraic expansion of a binomial  $(x + y)^n$ .

# The Binomial Theorem

- Number of  $k$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set is called a **binomial coefficient** because of its role in the algebraic expansion of a binomial  $(x + y)^n$ .

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

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0}x^n + \binom{n}{1}x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2}x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1}xy^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n}y^n$$

# The Binomial Theorem

- Number of  $k$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set is called a **binomial coefficient** because of its role in the algebraic expansion of a binomial  $(x + y)^n$ .

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

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0}x^n + \binom{n}{1}x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2}x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1}xy^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n}y^n$$

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

# The Binomial Theorem

- Number of  $k$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set is called a **binomial coefficient** because of its role in the algebraic expansion of a binomial  $(x + y)^n$ .

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

$$(x+y)^n = \binom{n}{0}x^n + \binom{n}{1}x^{n-1}y + \binom{n}{2}x^{n-2}y^2 + \dots + \binom{n}{n-1}xy^{n-1} + \binom{n}{n}y^n$$

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

**Proof?**

# Application of the Binomial Theorem

- We may use the Binomial Theorem to prove

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

# Labelling and Trinomial Coefficients

- 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?

# Labelling and Trinomial Coefficients

- 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

# Labelling and Trinomial Coefficients

- 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

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

# Labelling and Trinomial Coefficients

- 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.

# Labelling and Trinomial Coefficients

- 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.

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

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{n}{k_1} \binom{n - k_1}{k_2} &= \frac{n!}{k_1!(n - k_1)!} \frac{(n - k_1)!}{(k_2)!(n - k_1 - k_2)!} \\ &= \frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!(n - k_1 - k_2)!} = \frac{n!}{k_1!k_2!k_3!}\end{aligned}$$

# Labelling and Trinomial Coefficients

- 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

$$\binom{n}{k_1 \ k_2 \ k_3}$$

# Labelling and Trinomial Coefficients

- 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

$$\binom{n}{k_1 \ k_2 \ k_3}$$

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

# The Birthday Paradox

- Suppose that 25 students are in a room. What is the probability that at least two of them share a birthday?

# The Birthday Paradox

- Suppose that 25 students are in a room. What is the probability that at least two of them share a birthday?

It's greater than  $1/2$ ! (only need 23)

# The Birthday Paradox

- Suppose that 25 students are in a room. What is the probability that at least two of them share a birthday?

It's greater than  $1/2$ ! (only need 23)

$A_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and at least two of them share a birthday.”

# The Birthday Paradox

- Suppose that 25 students are in a room. What is the probability that at least two of them share a birthday?

It's greater than  $1/2$ ! (only need 23)

$A_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and at least two of them share a birthday.”

We may assume that a year has 365 days and there are no twins in the room.

# The Birthday Paradox

- Suppose that 25 students are in a room. What is the probability that at least two of them share a birthday?

It's greater than  $1/2$ ! (only need 23)

$A_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and at least two of them share a birthday.”

We may assume that a year has 365 days and there are no twins in the room.

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

# The Birthday Paradox

- $A_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and at least two of them share a birthday.”

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

# The Birthday Paradox

- $A_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and at least two of them share a birthday.”

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

$B_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and none of them share a birthday.”

# The Birthday Paradox

- $A_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and at least two of them share a birthday.”

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

$B_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and none of them share a birthday.”

$$\#B_n = 365 \times 364 \times \cdots \times (365 - (n - 1))$$

# The Birthday Paradox

- $A_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and at least two of them share a birthday.”

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

$B_n$  – “there are  $n$  students in a room and none of them share a birthday.”

$$\#B_n = 365 \times 364 \times \cdots \times (365 - (n - 1))$$

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

# The Birthday Paradox

$n$	$A_n$	$B_n$	$n$	$A_n$	$B_n$
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

# “Birthday” attacks

- 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

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

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

$$\Pr[A] = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right)$$

# “Birthday” attacks

- 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

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

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

$$\Pr[A] = 1 - \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{365}\right)$$

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

# “Birthday” attacks

- Since  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$ , for  $|x| \ll 1$ ,  $e^x \approx 1 + x$

# “Birthday” attacks

Since  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$ , for  $|x| \ll 1$ ,  $e^x \approx 1 + x$

Thus, we have  $e^{-i/H} \approx 1 - \frac{i}{H}$ .

# “Birthday” attacks

- Since  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$ , for  $|x| \ll 1$ ,  $e^x \approx 1 + x$

Thus, we have  $e^{-i/H} \approx 1 - \frac{i}{H}$ .

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

This probability can be approximated as

$$p(n; H) \approx 1 - e^{-n(n-1)/2H} \approx 1 - e^{-n^2/2H}.$$

# “Birthday” attacks

- Since  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots$ , for  $|x| \ll 1$ ,  $e^x \approx 1 + x$

Thus, we have  $e^{-i/H} \approx 1 - \frac{i}{H}$ .

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

This probability can be approximated as

$$p(n; H) \approx 1 - e^{-n(n-1)/2H} \approx 1 - e^{-n^2/2H}.$$

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

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

# Euclidean Algorithm

## ■ The Euclidean algorithm in pseudocode

### ALGORITHM 1 The Euclidean Algorithm.

```
procedure  $gcd(a, b:$  positive integers)
```

```
     $x := a$ 
```

```
     $y := b$ 
```

```
    while  $y \neq 0$ 
```

```
         $r := x \bmod y$ 
```

```
         $x := y$ 
```

```
         $y := r$ 
```

```
    return  $x\{gcd(a, b) \text{ is } x\}$ 
```

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

# Euclidean Algorithm

## ■ The Euclidean algorithm in pseudocode

### ALGORITHM 1 The Euclidean Algorithm.

```
procedure  $gcd(a, b:$  positive integers)
```

```
     $x := a$ 
```

```
     $y := b$ 
```

```
    while  $y \neq 0$ 
```

```
         $r := x \bmod y$ 
```

```
         $x := y$ 
```

```
         $y := r$ 
```

```
    return  $x\{gcd(a, b) \text{ is } x\}$ 
```

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

Why ?

# Euclidean Algorithm

- Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1,$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2,$$

.

.

.

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1},$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_n .$$

# Euclidean Algorithm

- Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1,$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2,$$

.

.

.

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1},$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_n .$$

**Observation:**

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

# Euclidean Algorithm

## ■ Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1,$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2,$$

.

.

.

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1},$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_n.$$

## Observation:

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

We claim that  $r_{i+2} < \frac{1}{2} r_i$

# Euclidean Algorithm

## ■ Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1,$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2,$$

.

.

.

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1},$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_n.$$

## Observation:

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

We claim that  $r_{i+2} < \frac{1}{2} r_i$

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):  $r_{i+1} > \frac{1}{2} r_i$ :  $r_{i+2} = r_i \bmod r_{i+1} = r_i - r_{i+1} < \frac{1}{2} r_i$ .

# Euclidean Algorithm

## ■ Key steps in the Euclidean algorithm

$$r_0 = r_1 q_1 + r_2 \quad 0 \leq r_2 < r_1,$$

$$r_1 = r_2 q_2 + r_3 \quad 0 \leq r_3 < r_2,$$

.

.

.

$$r_{n-2} = r_{n-1} q_{n-1} + r_n \quad 0 \leq r_n < r_{n-1},$$

$$r_{n-1} = r_n q_n.$$

See [Theorem 1 p. 347].

## Observation:

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

We claim that  $r_{i+2} < \frac{1}{2} r_i$

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):  $r_{i+1} > \frac{1}{2} r_i$ :  $r_{i+2} = r_i \bmod r_{i+1} = r_i - r_{i+1} < \frac{1}{2} r_i$ .

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

- ◊ **linear**: it is a linear combination of previous terms

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

- ◊ **linear**: it is a linear combination of previous terms
- ◊ **homogeneous**: all terms are multiples of  $a_j$ 's

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

- ◊ **linear**: it is a linear combination of previous terms
- ◊ **homogeneous**: all terms are multiples of  $a_j$ 's
- ◊ **degree  $k$** :  $a_n$  is expressed by the previous  $k$  terms

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

- ◊ **linear**: it is a linear combination of previous terms
- ◊ **homogeneous**: all terms are multiples of  $a_j$ 's
- ◊ **degree  $k$** :  $a_n$  is expressed by the previous  $k$  terms
- ◊ **constant coefficients**: coefficients are constants

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

- ◊ **linear**: it is a linear combination of previous terms
- ◊ **homogeneous**: all terms are multiples of  $a_j$ 's
- ◊ **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**  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1}$ .

# Examples of Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

## Examples

$$P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$$

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

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

$$H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$$

$$B_n = nB_{n-1}$$

# Examples of Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

## Examples

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

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

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

$$H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$$

$$B_n = nB_{n-1}$$

# Examples of Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

## Examples

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

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

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

$$H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$$

$$B_n = nB_{n-1}$$

# Examples of Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

## Examples

$$P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$$
 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

$$H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$$

$$B_n = nB_{n-1}$$

# Examples of Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

## Examples

$P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$  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

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

$B_n = nB_{n-1}$

# Examples of Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

## Examples

$P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$  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

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

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

- **Example** Consider the recurrence relation

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

Which of the following are solutions?

◊  $a_n = 3n$ :

◊  $a_n = 2^n$ :

◊  $a_n = 5$ :

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

- **Example** Consider the recurrence relation

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

Which of the following are solutions?

◊  $a_n = 3n$ : YES

◊  $a_n = 2^n$ : NO

◊  $a_n = 5$ : YES

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

**Fact:** Assume that the sequences  $a_n$  and  $a'_n$  both satisfy the recurrence, then  $b_n = a_n + a'_n$ ,  $d_n = \alpha a_n$  also satisfy the recurrence, where  $\alpha$  is a constant.

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

**Fact:** Assume that the sequences  $a_n$  and  $a'_n$  both satisfy the recurrence, then  $b_n = a_n + a'_n$ ,  $d_n = \alpha a_n$  also satisfy the recurrence, where  $\alpha$  is a constant.

This means: If we find some solutions to a linear homogeneous recurrence, then **any linear combination** of them will also be a solution.

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

**Fact:** Assume that the sequences  $a_n$  and  $a'_n$  both satisfy the recurrence, then  $b_n = a_n + a'_n$ ,  $d_n = \alpha a_n$  also satisfy the recurrence, where  $\alpha$  is a constant.

This means: If we find some solutions to a linear homogeneous recurrence, then **any linear combination** of them will also be a solution.

So, try to find any solution of the form  $a_n = r^n$  that satisfies the recurrence.

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

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

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

$$\text{i.e., } r^n = c_1 r^{n-1} + c_2 r^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k r^{n-k},$$

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

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

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

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

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

- ◊ Bring  $a_n = r^n$  back to the recurrence relation:

$$\text{i.e., } r^n = c_1 r^{n-1} + c_2 r^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k r^{n-k},$$

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

- ◊ 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  $n \geq 2$

# Recall: Problem IV

## ■ Fibonacci number

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

◊ What is the closed-form expression of  $F_n$ ?

# Recall: Problem IV

## ■ Fibonacci number

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

◇ 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,

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree 2 with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree 2 with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}.$$

The characteristic equation (CE) is:

$$r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree 2 with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}.$$

The characteristic equation (CE) is:

$$r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0.$$

**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  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ .

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree 2 with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}.$$

The characteristic equation (CE) is:

$$r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0.$$

**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  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ .

Proof?

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree 2 with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}.$$

The characteristic equation (CE) is:

$$r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0.$$

**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  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ .

**Proof?**

See [Theorem 1 p. 515].

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - r - 2 = 0.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - r - 2 = 0.$$

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

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 (-1)^n.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - r - 2 = 0.$$

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

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 (-1)^n.$$

By the two initial conditions, we have

$$a_0 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 2$$

$$a_1 = 2\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 = 7$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - r - 2 = 0.$$

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

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 (-1)^n.$$

By the two initial conditions, we have

$$a_0 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 2$$

$$a_1 = 2\alpha_1 - \alpha_2 = 7$$

We get  $\alpha_1 = 3$  and  $\alpha_2 = -1$ . Thus,

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 7r + 10 = 0.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 7r + 10 = 0.$$

Two roots are 2 and 5. So, assume that

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 5^n.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 7r + 10 = 0.$$

Two roots are 2 and 5. So, assume that

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 5^n.$$

By the two initial conditions, we have

$$a_0 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 2$$

$$a_1 = 2\alpha_1 + 5\alpha_2 = 1$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree 2

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 7r + 10 = 0.$$

Two roots are 2 and 5. So, assume that

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 5^n.$$

By the two initial conditions, we have

$$a_0 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 2$$

$$a_1 = 2\alpha_1 + 5\alpha_2 = 1$$

We get  $\alpha_1 = 3$  and  $\alpha_2 = -1$ . Thus,

$$a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n - 5^n$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree $k$

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree  $k$  with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i a_{n-i}.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree $k$

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree  $k$  with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i a_{n-i}.$$

The characteristic equation (CE) is:

$$r^k - \sum_{i=1}^k c_i r^{k-i} = 0.$$

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree $k$

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree  $k$  with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i a_{n-i}.$$

The characteristic equation (CE) is:

$$r^k - \sum_{i=1}^k c_i r^{k-i} = 0.$$

**Theorem** If this CE has  $k$  distinct roots  $r_i$ , then the solutions to the recurrence are of the form

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i r_i^n$$

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

# Solving Linear Recurrence Relations of degree $k$

- Consider an arbitrary linear homogeneous relation of degree  $k$  with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i a_{n-i}.$$

The characteristic equation (CE) is:

$$r^k - \sum_{i=1}^k c_i r^{k-i} = 0.$$

**Theorem** If this CE has  $k$  distinct roots  $r_i$ , then the solutions to the recurrence are of the form

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i r_i^n$$

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

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

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

- **Theorem** If the CE  $r^2 - c_1r - c_2 = 0$  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  $\alpha_2$ .

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

- **Theorem** If the CE  $r^2 - c_1r - c_2 = 0$  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  $\alpha_2$ .

**Proof?**

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

- **Theorem** If the CE  $r^2 - c_1r - c_2 = 0$  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  $\alpha_2$ .

## Proof?

Exercise.

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

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

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 4r + 4 = 0.$$

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 4r + 4 = 0.$$

The only root is 2. So, assume that

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 n 2^n.$$

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 4r + 4 = 0.$$

The only root is 2. So, assume that

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 n 2^n.$$

By the two initial conditions, we have

$$a_0 = \alpha_1 = 1$$

$$a_1 = 2\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 = 0$$

# The Case of Degenerate Roots

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

The *characteristic equation* is

$$r^2 - 4r + 4 = 0.$$

The only root is 2. So, assume that

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2 n 2^n.$$

By the two initial conditions, we have

$$a_0 = \alpha_1 = 1$$

$$a_1 = 2\alpha_1 + 2\alpha_2 = 0$$

We get  $\alpha_1 = 1$  and  $\alpha_2 = -1$ . Thus,

$$a_n = 2^n - n 2^n$$

# The Case of Degenerate Roots in General

- **Theorem** [Theorem 4, p.519] Suppose that there are  $t$  roots  $r_1, \dots, r_t$  with **multiplicities**  $m_1, \dots, m_t$ . 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  $\alpha_{i,j}$ .

# The Case of Degenerate Roots in General

- **Theorem** [Theorem 4, p.519] Suppose that there are  $t$  roots  $r_1, \dots, r_t$  with **multiplicities**  $m_1, \dots, m_t$ . 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  $\alpha_{i,j}$ .

## Example

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

# Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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*.

# Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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*.

**Fact:** Assume that the sequence  $b_n$  satisfies the recurrence. Then another sequence  $a_n$  satisfies the *non-homogeneous* recurrence if and only if  $h_n = a_n - b_n$  is a sequence that satisfies the *associated homogeneous recurrence*.

# Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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*.

**Fact:** Assume that the sequence  $b_n$  satisfies the recurrence. Then another sequence  $a_n$  satisfies the **non-homogeneous** recurrence **if and only if**  $h_n = a_n - b_n$  is a sequence that satisfies the **associated homogeneous recurrence**.

**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.

# Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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

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

# Solving Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

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

# Solving Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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  $a_n = \alpha 3^n + p(n)$ .

# Solving Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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  $p(n)$ .

# Solving Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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  $p(n)$ .

Let  $p(n) = cn + d$ , then

$$cn + d = 3(c(n-1) + d) + 2n, \text{ which means}$$
$$(2c + 2)n + (2d - 3c) = 0.$$

# Solving Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations

- **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  $p(n)$ .

Let  $p(n) = cn + d$ , then

$$cn + d = 3(c(n-1) + d) + 2n, \text{ which means}$$
$$(2c + 2)n + (2d - 3c) = 0.$$

We get  $c = -1$  and  $d = -3/2$ . Thus,

$$p(n) = -n - 3/2$$

# Solving Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations



"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 ...

