Discrete Mathematics

	topic
week 1	Sets
week 2	Functions
week 3	Counting
week 4	Relations
week 5	Sequences
week 6	Modular Arithmetic
week 7	Asymptotic Notation
week 8	Orders

Jonathan Barrett

jonathan.barrett@cs.ox.ac.uk

Material by Andrew Ker
University of Oxford
Department of Computer Science



Discrete Mathematics



Jonathan Barrett

jonathan.barrett@cs.ox.ac.uk

Material by Andrew Ker
University of Oxford
Department of Computer Science

Chapter 5: Sequences

Sequences

A **sequence** is an ordered list of objects (usually infinite):

$$(x_1,x_2,x_3,\ldots)$$

Alternatively, a sequence is a function whose domain is \mathbb{N} or \mathbb{N}_+ .

The whole sequence is denoted

 (x_i)

and the i^{th} term

 x_i

The simplest way to define a sequence is to give a formula for its terms:

$$x_n = 2n$$

$$a_i = i^2$$

Recurrence Relations

Sequences can be defined recursively, such as

$$F_0 = 0$$
, $F_1 = 1$, $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$

(This defines the **Fibonacci sequence**).

Such definitions are called **recurrence relations**.

Recurrence Relations

Sequences can be defined recursively, such as

"boundary conditions"
or "initial conditions"

$$F_0 = 0$$
, $F_1 = 1$, $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$

(This defines the **Fibonacci sequence**).

Such definitions are called **recurrence relations**.

NB: It is necessary to have enough initial conditions to specify a sequence uniquely.

Recurrence Relations

Sequences can be defined **recursively**, such as

"boundary conditions" for "initial conditions"

$$F_0 = 0$$
, $F_1 = 1$, $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$

(This defines the **Fibonacci sequence**).

Such definitions are called **recurrence relations**.

NB: It is necessary to have enough initial conditions to specify a sequence uniquely.

When we are given a recurrence relation, and want to find a nonrecursive formula for the n^{th} term, we speak of **solving** the recurrence.

In this case,
$$F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n$$

If S(n) is a statement involving a natural number n, and we want to prove S(n) for all n, we often use induction:

The Principle of Induction

If we prove $\bullet S(0)$

- if S(k) then S(k+1)

If S(n) is a statement involving a natural number n, and we want to prove S(n) for all n, we often use induction:

The Principle of Induction

```
If we prove \bullet S(0) "the base case" \bullet if S(k) then S(k+1) "the inductive step"
```

If S(n) is a statement involving a natural number n, and we want to prove S(n) for all n, we often use induction:

The Principle of Induction

```
If we prove \bullet S(0) "the base case" \bullet if S(k) then S(k+1) "the inductive step" "the inductive hypothesis" (IH)
```

If S(n) is a statement involving a natural number n, and we want to prove S(n) for all n, we often use induction:

The Principle of Induction

If we prove

- S(0) * "the base case"

"the inductive hypothesis" (IH)

Then we may deduce that S(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Claim For the Fibonacci sequence $F_0 = 0$, $F_1 = 1$, $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$, $2 \mid F_{3n}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Variations

The Principle of Induction (different base case)

```
If we prove \bullet S(1)
```

• if
$$S(k)$$
 then $S(k+1)$

Variations

The Principle of Induction (different base case)

If we prove $\bullet S(1)$

• if S(k) then S(k+1)

Then we may deduce that S(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$.

The Principle of Strong Induction

If we prove $\bullet S(0)$

- if S(j) for all $j \le k$ then S(k+1)

Variations

The Principle of Induction (different base case)

If we prove $\bullet S(1)$

• if S(k) then S(k+1)

Then we may deduce that S(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$.

The Principle of Strong Induction

If we prove $\bullet S(0)$

• if S(j) for all $j \le k$ then S(k+1)

Then we may deduce that S(n) is true for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

<u>Claim</u> Every positive integer can be written as the sum of distinct Fibonacci numbers.

The Minimal Counterexample

A form of proof by contradiction. If we want to prove S(n) for all natural numbers n, we suppose that it is not, and define m to be:

the smallest natural number for which S(m) is false,

and then prove that S(m') must also be false for some smaller natural number m'.

Claim The recurrence $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = 3$, $x_{n+2} = 4x_{n+1} + 3x_n$ generates a sequence of odd numbers.

Sigma Notation

If (a_i) is a sequence, we can write

$$\sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i = a_m + a_{m+1} + \dots + a_n$$

$$\prod_{i=m}^{n} a_i = a_m \cdot a_{m+1} \cdot \dots \cdot a_n$$

Sums and products can even be infinite, but there is no guarantee that an infinite sum or product has a well defined value.

Sigma Notation

If (a_i) is a sequence, we can write

$$\sum_{i=m}^{n} a_i = a_m + a_{m+1} + \dots + a_n$$

$$\prod_{i=m}^{n} a_i = a_m \cdot a_{m+1} \cdot \dots \cdot a_n$$

Sums and products can even be infinite, but there is no guarantee that an infinite sum or product has a well defined value.

Claim For
$$n \in \mathbb{N}_+$$
,
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}.$$

A Recurrence for Derangements

We have already derived the number of **derangements** of n objects:

$$d_n = \frac{n!}{2!} - \frac{n!}{3!} + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{n!}{n!}$$

But we can take another approach using recurrence relations.

Claim The sequence (d_n) satisfies the recurrence $d_1 = 0, \quad d_2 = 1, \quad d_n = (n-1)(d_{n-1} + d_{n-2})$ for n > 2.

A Recurrence for Derangements

We have already derived the number of **derangements** of n objects:

$$d_n = \frac{n!}{2!} - \frac{n!}{3!} + \dots + (-1)^n \frac{n!}{n!}$$

But we can take another approach using recurrence relations.

Claim The sequence
$$(d_n)$$
 satisfies the recurrence $d_1 = 0, \quad d_2 = 1, \quad d_n = (n-1)(d_{n-1} + d_{n-2})$ for $n \ge 2$.

Trivia: the same recurrence, but with different boundary conditions, also generates the sequence of factorials.

A Recurrence for Partitions

How many equivalence relations are there on a set of cardinality n? Equivalently, how many partitions are there of a set of cardinality n?

The number of partitions of a set of cardinality n is written B_n . The sequence (B_n) is known as the **Bell numbers**. It begins (1, 1, 2, 5, 15, ...)

A Recurrence for Partitions

How many equivalence relations are there on a set of cardinality n? Equivalently, how many partitions are there of a set of cardinality n?

The number of partitions of a set of cardinality n is written B_n . The sequence (B_n) is known as the **Bell numbers**. It begins (1, 1, 2, 5, 15, ...)

<u>Claim</u> The Bell numbers satisfy the recurrence

$$B_0 = 1, \quad B_{n+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} B_i.$$

A Recurrence for Partitions

How many equivalence relations are there on a set of cardinality n? Equivalently, how many partitions are there of a set of cardinality n?

The number of partitions of a set of cardinality n is written B_n . The sequence (B_n) is known as the **Bell numbers**. It begins (1, 1, 2, 5, 15, ...)

<u>Claim</u> The Bell numbers satisfy the recurrence

$$B_0 = 1, \quad B_{n+1} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \binom{n}{i} B_i.$$

It is possible to give a formula for B_n :

$$B_n = \frac{1}{e} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{k^n}{k!}$$

but this form (Dobinsky, 1877) is not particularly useful for computing B_n .

To solve a <u>homogeneous linear recurrence</u>,

$$\lambda_m x_n + \lambda_{m-1} x_{n-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 x_{n-m+1} + \lambda_0 x_{n-m} = 0$$
 (1) plus some boundary conditions (usually m of them).

To solve a <u>homogeneous linear recurrence</u>,

$$\lambda_m x_n + \lambda_{m-1} x_{n-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 x_{n-m+1} + \lambda_0 x_{n-m} = 0$$
 (1) plus some boundary conditions (usually m of them).

1. Form the **characteristic polynomial**:

$$\lambda_m r^m + \lambda_{m-1} r^{m-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 r + \lambda_0 = 0 \qquad (2)$$
 and solve it for (potentially complex) r .

To solve a <u>homogeneous linear recurrence</u>,

$$\lambda_m x_n + \lambda_{m-1} x_{n-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 x_{n-m+1} + \lambda_0 x_{n-m} = 0$$
 (1) plus some boundary conditions (usually m of them).

1. Form the **characteristic polynomial**:

$$\lambda_m r^m + \lambda_{m-1} r^{m-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 r + \lambda_0 = 0 \qquad (2)$$
 and solve it for (potentially complex) r .

2. If the roots of (2) are all different, say $r = r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_m$, then the solutions of (1) are

$$x_n = A_1 r_1^n + A_2 r_2^n + \dots + A_m r_m^n$$

and the constants A_1, \ldots, A_m are determined by the boundary conditions.

To solve a <u>homogeneous linear recurrence</u>,

$$\lambda_m x_n + \lambda_{m-1} x_{n-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 x_{n-m+1} + \lambda_0 x_{n-m} = 0$$
 (1) plus some boundary conditions (usually m of them).

1. Form the **characteristic polynomial**:

$$\lambda_m r^m + \lambda_{m-1} r^{m-1} + \dots + \lambda_1 r + \lambda_0 = 0 \qquad (2)$$
 and solve it for (potentially complex) r .

2. If the roots of (2) are all different, say $r = r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_m$, then the solutions of (1) are

$$x_n = A_1 r_1^n + A_2 r_2^n + \dots + A_m r_m^n$$

and the constants A_1, \ldots, A_m are determined by the boundary conditions.

3. If some roots are repeated, then duplicate terms must be multiplied by enough powers of n to make them distinct.

To solve an inhomogeneous linear recurrence,

 $\lambda_m x_n + \lambda_{m-1} x_{n-1} + \cdots + \lambda_1 x_{n-m+1} + \lambda_0 x_{n-m} = f(n)$ plus some boundary conditions (usually m of them).

To solve an inhomogeneous linear recurrence,

 $\lambda_m x_n + \lambda_{m-1} x_{n-1} + \cdots + \lambda_1 x_{n-m+1} + \lambda_0 x_{n-m} = f(n)$ plus some boundary conditions (usually m of them).

1. Find one solution of the recurrence without regard to boundary conditions, by educated guessing-and-trying.

```
f(n) a polynomial of degree \longrightarrow try a polynomial of degree k
f(n) of the form a^n \longrightarrow try Ca^n
```

•••

To solve an inhomogeneous linear recurrence,

$$\lambda_m x_n + \lambda_{m-1} x_{n-1} + \cdots + \lambda_1 x_{n-m+1} + \lambda_0 x_{n-m} = f(n)$$
 plus some boundary conditions (usually m of them).

1. Find one solution of the recurrence without regard to boundary conditions, by educated guessing-and-trying.

```
f(n) a polynomial of degree \longrightarrow try a polynomial of degree k
f(n) of the form a^n \longrightarrow try Ca^n
```

- 2. Solve the corresponding homogeneous recurrence by deleting f(n), still without regard to boundary conditions.
- 3. Add up the answers to parts 1 and 2, and finally use the boundary conditions to determine the missing constants.

Discrete Mathematics



Jonathan Barrett

jonathan.barrett@cs.ox.ac.uk

Material by Andrew Ker
University of Oxford
Department of Computer Science

End of Chapter 5