Discrete Mathematics in Computer Science D1. Introduction to Recurrences

Malte Helmert, Gabriele Röger

University of Basel

Discrete Mathematics in Computer Science — D1. Introduction to Recurrences

D1.1 Recurrences

D1.2 Examples of Recurrences

D1.3 Fibonacci Series – Mathematical Induction

D1.1 Recurrences

Recursion (1)

The concept of recursion is very common in computer science and discrete mathematics.

- When designing algorithms, recursion relates to the idea of solving a problem by solving smaller subproblems of the same kind.
- Examples:
 - For example, we can sort a sequence by sorting smaller subsequences and then combining the result ~ mergesort
 - ► We can find an element in a sorted sequence by identifying which half of the sequence the element must be located in, and then searching this half ~> binary search
 - We can insert elements into a search tree by identifying which child of the root node the element must be added to, then recursively inserting it there ~> trees as data structures

Recursion (2)

The concept of recursion is very common in computer science and discrete mathematics.

- When designing data structures, it is often helpful to think of a data structures as being composed of smaller data structures of the same kind.
- Examples:
 - A rooted binary tree is either a leaf or an inner node with two children, which are themselves rooted binary trees.
 - A singly linked list is either empty or a head element followed by a tail, which is itself a linked list.
 - A logical formula is either an atomic formula or a composite formula, which consists of one or two formulas connected by logical connectives ("and", "or", "not").



The concept of recursion is very common in computer science and discrete mathematics.

- In combinatorial counting problems, counting things often involves solving smaller counting problems of the same type and combining the results.
- Examples:
 - counting the number of subsets of size k of a set of size n
 - counting the number of permutations of a set of size n
 - counting the number of rooted binary trees with n leaves



In this part of the lecture, we study recurrences, i.e., recursively defined functions $f : \mathbb{N}_0 \to \mathbb{R}$ where f(n) is defined in terms of the values f(m) for m < n.

- Such recurrences naturally arise in all mentioned applications.
- They are particularly useful for studying the runtime of algorithms, especially recursive algorithms.

Learning Objectives

- Recurrences are a wide topic, and in our brief coverage we will only scratch the surface.
- Our aim is to equip you with enough knowledge to
 - understand what recurrences are
 - understand where they arise
 - understand why they are of interest
 - get to know some important examples of recurrences, such as the Fibonacci series
 - get a feeling for some mathematical techniques used to solve recurrences, in particular:
 - mathematical induction
 - generating functions
 - the master theorem for divide-and-conquer recurrences
 - apply the master theorem in practice

D1.2 Examples of Recurrences

Examples of Recurrences

In this section, we look at three recurrences that arise in combinatorics, i.e., when counting things:

- factorials: counting permutations
- binomial coefficients: counting subsets of a certain size
- Catalan numbers: counting rooted binary trees

We also have a first look at the Fibonacci series, perhaps the most famous recurrence in mathematics.

Counting Permutations

Let S be a finite set, and let n = |S|. Question: How many permutations of S exist?

We answer this question by answering the following slightly more general question:

Let X and Y be finite sets, and let n = |X| = |Y|.

Question: How many bijective functions from X to Y exist?

The permutation question is the special case where S = X = Y.

Counting Bijections – Derivation

How many bijective functions from X to Y exist, where n = |X| = |Y|?

Denote this number by f(n).

- We have f(0) = 1: there exists one possible function from X = Ø to Y = Ø (the empty function), and it is bijective.
- For $n \ge 1$, let $x \in X$ be any element of X.
 - ► Every bijection g : X → Y maps x to some element g(x) = y ∈ Y.
 - There are n = |Y| possible choices for y.
- In order to be bijective, g must bijectively map all other elements in X to other elements of Y.
 - ► Hence, g restricted to X \ {x} is a bijective function from X \ {x} to Y \ {y}.
 - Because |X \ {x}| = |Y \ {y}| = n − 1, there are f(n − 1) choices for these mappings.
- This gives us $f(n) = n \cdot f(n-1)$ for all $n \ge 1$.

Counting Bijections – Result

Theorem

The number of bijections between finite sets of size n, or equivalently the number of permutations of a finite set of size n, is given by the recurrence:

$$\begin{aligned} f(0) &= 1\\ f(n) &= n \cdot f(n-1) \end{aligned} \qquad \text{for all } n \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

Closed-form solution:

f(n) = n!

Counting *k*-Subsets

Let S be a finite set, let n = |S|, and let $k \in \{0, ..., n\}$. Question: How many subsets of S of size k exist?

Denote this number by $\binom{n}{k}$.

- We have $\binom{n}{0} = 1$: the only subset of size 0 is \emptyset .
- We have $\binom{n}{n} = 1$: the only subset of size *n* is *S* itself.
- For all other cases, we count proper, nontrivial subsets. Let x ∈ S be any element.
- There are two kinds of subsets of S of size k:
 - ▶ subsets that do not include *x*: Such subsets include *k* elements of the set $S \setminus \{x\}$. Because $|S \setminus \{x\}| = n - 1$, there are $\binom{n-1}{k}$ such subsets.
 - subsets that include x:

Such subsets include k - 1 elements of $S \setminus \{x\}$. Because $|S \setminus \{x\}| = n - 1$, there are $\binom{n-1}{k-1}$ such subsets.

▶ In summary:
$$\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$
 for all $n \ge 1$ and $0 < k < n$.

Counting *k*-Subsets – Result

Theorem Let *S* be a finite set with *n* elements, and let $k \in \{0, ..., n\}$. Then S has $\binom{n}{k}$ subsets of size k, where $\binom{n}{0} = 1$ $\binom{n}{n} = 1$ $\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k} + \binom{n-1}{k-1}$ for all $n \ge 1, 0 < k < n$

Closed-form solution:

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

Counting k-Subsets – Proof of Closed-Form Solution

To prove that the given closed-form solution is correct, it suffices to verify that it satisfies the recurrence:

case
$$k = 0$$
: $\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n!}{0!(n-0)!} = \frac{n!}{1 \cdot n!} = 1 = \binom{n}{0}$.
case $k = n$: $\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n!}{n!(n-n)!} = \frac{n!}{n! \cdot 0!} = \frac{n!}{n! \cdot 1} = 1 = \binom{n}{n}$.
case $0 < k < n$:
$$\frac{(n-1)!}{k!((n-1)-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!((n-1)-(k-1)!)}$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)!}{k!(n-k-1)!} + \frac{(n-1)!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)! \cdot (n-k)}{k!(n-k-1)! \cdot (n-k)} + \frac{(n-1)! \cdot k}{(k-1)! \cdot k \cdot (n-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)! \cdot (n-k)}{k!(n-k)!} + \frac{(n-1)! \cdot k}{k! \cdot (n-k)!}$$

$$= \frac{(n-1)! \cdot ((n-k) + k)}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{(n-1)! \cdot n}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$$

Binary Trees

Definition (binary tree)

A binary tree is inductively defined as a tuple of the following form:

- The empty tree () is a binary tree. Such a tree is called a leaf.
- If L and R are binary trees, then (L, R) is a binary tree. Such a tree is called an inner node with left child L and right child R.

German: Binärbaum

Note: With these kinds of trees, the order of children matters, i.e., (L, R) and (R, L) are different trees (unless L = R).

Counting Binary Trees

Question: How many binary trees with n + 1 leaves exist? (Why n + 1?)

Denote this number by C(n).

- We have C(0) = 1: () is the only tree with one leaf.
- For n ≥ 1, the tree must be an inner node.
 Each child must have between 1 and n leaves.
 The number of leaves of the children must sum to n + 1.
- ▶ Hence, if the left child has k + 1 leaves, the right child has (n + 1) (k + 1) = n k = (n k 1) + 1 leaves.
- We obtain: $C(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C(k)C(n-k-1)$.

D1. Introduction to Recurrences

Counting Binary Trees – Result

Theorem There are C(n) binary trees with n + 1 leaves, where C(0) = 1 $C(n) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C(k)C(n-k-1)$ for all $n \ge 1$

Closed-form solution (without proof):

$$C(n)=\frac{1}{n+1}\binom{2n}{n}$$

Catalan Numbers

The numbers C(n) are called Catalan numbers after 19th century Belgian mathematician Eugène Charles Catalan.

First terms of the Catalan sequence: 1, 1, 2, 5, 14, 42, 132, 429, 1430, 4862, 16796, 58786, 208012, ...



- The last recurrence we consider in this section is the famous Fibonacci series (or Fibonacci sequence).
- We directly introduce it with its definition as a recurrence rather than via an application.

D1. Introduction to Recurrences

Fibonacci Series – Definition

```
Definition (Fibonacci series)

The Fibonacci series F is defined as follows:

F(0) = 0

F(1) = 1

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

German: Fibonacci-Folge

First terms of the Fibonacci series: 0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, 144, 233, ...

Closed-form solution: \rightsquigarrow next section

Fibonacci Series – Trivia

- The Fibonacci series is named after Leonardo of Pisa a.k.a. Fibonacci (son of Bonacci), who introduced it to Western Europe in the 13th century.
- It has been known outside Europe much earlier, dating back to the Indian mathematician Pingala (3rd century BCE).
- The series has many, many applications.
- There exist mathematical journals solely dedicated to it, the most famous one being "Fibonacci Quarterly".

D1.3 Fibonacci Series – Mathematical Induction

Overview

- In this section, we prove a closed-form expression for the Fibonacci series.
- We do this because the result itself is interesting (because of the many applications of the Fibonacci series), but also to practice proving closed-form expressions for recurrences by mathematical induction.
- In the next section, we describe a more advanced technique with which we cannot just prove the given expression but also derive it ourselves.

Golden Ratio

Definition (golden ratio)

The number

$$\varphi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

is called the golden ratio.

German: goldener Schnitt

- Numerically, $\varphi = 1.618034$ (approximately).
- The golden ratio is a famous mathematical constant because it naturally occurs in many contexts and because of its aesthetical properties.

Negative Inverse of the Golden Ratio

Definition (negative inverse of the golden ratio) The $1 - \sqrt{5}$

$$\psi = \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}$$

is called the negative inverse of the golden ratio.

- Numerically, $\psi = -0.618034$ (approximately).
- The name for ψ derives from the fact that ψ = -¹/_φ. However, we do not need this property here, and therefore we do not prove it.

Fibonacci Series - Closed-Form Expression

Theorem

$$F(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left(\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (\varphi^n - \psi^n) \quad \text{for all } n \ge 0$$

Before we prove the theorem, we prove a number of lemmas.

- Note that $|\psi| < 1$ and hence $\psi^n \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.
- With some calculation, we see that we can alternatively compute F(n) by rounding ¹/_{√5}φⁿ to the nearest integer, ignoring the ψⁿ term.

First Lemma

Lemma		
	$\psi = 1 - arphi$	
Proof.		
	$1 - \sqrt{5}$	
	$\psi = -\frac{1}{2}$	
	$=rac{1+1-1-\sqrt{5}}{2}$	
	$2^{2} - (1 + \sqrt{5})$	
	$=\frac{1}{2}$	
	$=\frac{2}{2}-\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$	
	$= \frac{2}{1 - \omega}$	
	- 7	

Second Lemma

Lemma		
$arphi^2 = arphi + 1$		
Proof.		
	$arphi^2 = \left(rac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} ight)^2 = rac{1}{4}(1+\sqrt{5})^2 = rac{1}{4}(1+2\sqrt{5}+5)$	
	$=rac{1}{4}(2+2\sqrt{5}+4)=rac{1}{4}(2+2\sqrt{5})+rac{4}{4}$	
	$=rac{1}{2}(1+\sqrt{5})+1$	
	= arphi + 1	

Third Lemma

Lemma		
	$\psi^2 = \psi + 1$	
Proof		
	$\psi^2 = (1-arphi)^2$	
	$=1-2arphi+arphi^2$	
	=1-2arphi+arphi+1	
	$=1-\varphi+1$	
	=(1-arphi)+1	
	$=\psi+1$	

Main Proof (1)

Reminders:

$$F(0) = 0$$
 $F(1) = 1$
 $F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2)$ for all $n \ge 2$
 $\varphi^2 = \varphi + 1$
 $\psi^2 = \psi + 1$
 Claim: $F(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^n - \psi^n)$

First base case
$$n = 0$$
:
 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^0 - \psi^0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(1 - 1) = 0 = F(0)$
Second base case $n = 1$:
 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^1 - \psi^1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} - \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\frac{1 + \sqrt{5} - 1 + \sqrt{5}}{2})$
 $= \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\frac{2\sqrt{5}}{2}) = 1 = F(1)$

. . .

Main Proof (2)

Reminders: F(0) = 0 F(1) = 1 F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2) for all $n \ge 2$ $\varphi^2 = \varphi + 1$ $\psi^2 = \psi + 1$ Claim: $F(n) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^n - \psi^n)$

Proof (continued). Induction step (*n* building on n-1 and n-2): F(n) = F(n-1) + F(n-2) $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^{n-1}-\psi^{n-1})+\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^{n-2}-\psi^{n-2})$ $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^{n-1}+\varphi^{n-2}-(\psi^{n-1}+\psi^{n-2}))$ $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^{n-2}(\varphi+1)-\psi^{n-2}(\psi+1))$ $=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^{n-2}\cdot\varphi^2-\psi^{n-2}\cdot\psi^2)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\varphi^n-\psi^n)$