6 Recurrences

Algorithm 2 mergesort(list L)

```
1: $s \leftarrow \mathrm{size}(L)$
2: **if** $s \le 1$ **return** $L$
3: $L_1 \leftarrow L[1 \cdots \lfloor \frac{s}{2} \rfloor]$
4: $L_2 \leftarrow L[\lceil \frac{s}{2} \rceil \cdots n]$
5: $\mathrm{mergesort}(L_1)$
6: $\mathrm{mergesort}(L_2)$
7: $L \leftarrow \mathrm{merge}(L_1, L_2)$
8: **return** $L$
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This algorithm requires

$$T(n) \le 2T\left(\left\lceil \frac{n}{2} \right\rceil\right) + \mathcal{O}(n)$$

comparisons when $n > 1$ and 0 comparisons when $n \le 1$.

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Methods for Solving Recurrences

1. **Guessing+Induction**
   Guess the right solution and prove that it is correct via induction. It needs experience to make the right guess.
2. **Master Theorem**
   For a lot of recurrences that appear in the analysis of algorithms this theorem can be used to obtain tight asymptotic bounds. It does not provide exact solutions.
3. **Characteristic Polynomial**
   Linear homogenous recurrences can be solved via this method.

6.1 Guessing+Induction

First we need to get rid of the $\mathcal{O}$-notation in our recurrence:

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + cn & n \geq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Assume that instead we had

$$T(n) \leq \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \geq 2 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

One way of solving such a recurrence is to guess a solution, and check that it is correct by plugging it in.

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Formally one would make an induction proof, where the above is the induction step. The base case is usually trivial.

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  Hence, statement is true if we choose $d \geq c$.

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If we do not do this we instead consider the following recurrence:

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Note that we can do this as for constant-sized inputs the running time is always some constant (b in the above case).

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&\le dn \log n - 0.33dn + cn
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& &&\le dn\log n - 0.33dn + cn \\
& &&\le dn\log n
\end{aligned}
$$

for a suitable choice of d.

6.2 Master Theorem

Lemma 4

Let $a \geq 1, b \geq 1$ and $\epsilon > 0$ denote constants. Consider the recurrence

$$T(n) = aT\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n) \ .$$

Case 1.

If $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b(a)-\epsilon})$ then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

Case 2.

If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b(a)} \log^k n)$ then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$.

Case 3.

If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b(a)+\epsilon})$ and for sufficiently large n $af(\frac{n}{b}) \leq cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$ then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

6.2 Master Theorem

We prove the Master Theorem for the case that n is of the form b^ℓ, and we assume that the non-recursive case occurs for problem size 1 and incurs cost 1.

The Recursion Tree

The running time of a recursive algorithm can be visualized by a recursion tree:

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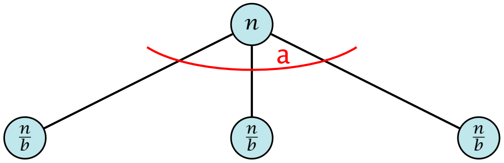

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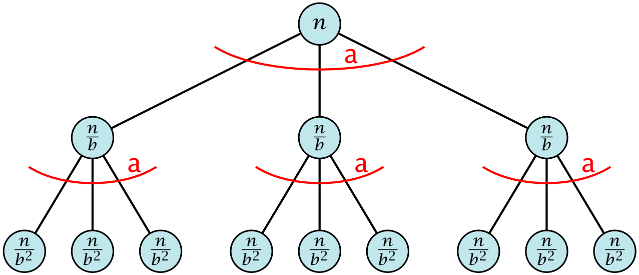

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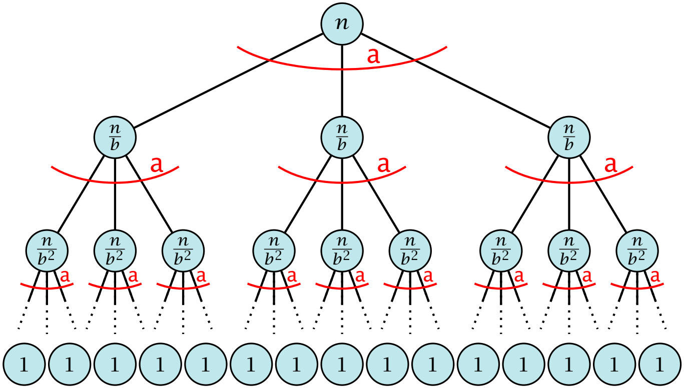

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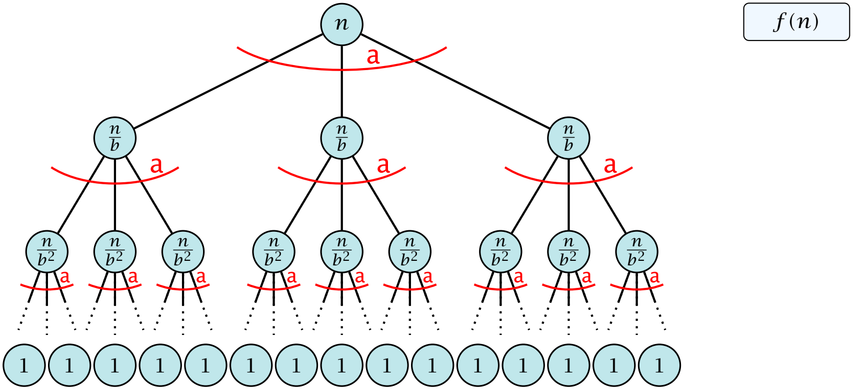

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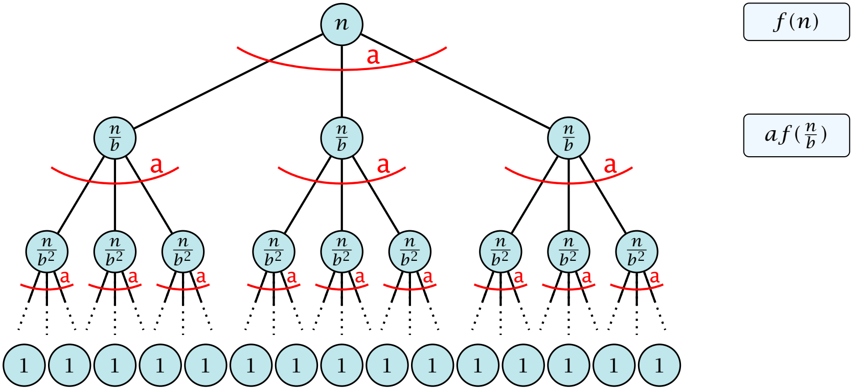

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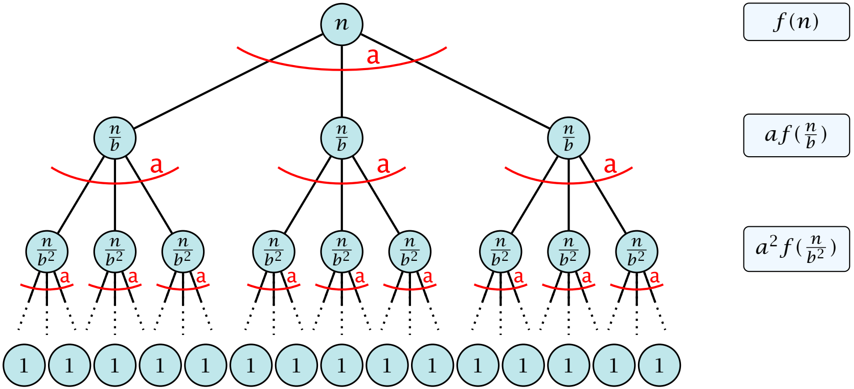

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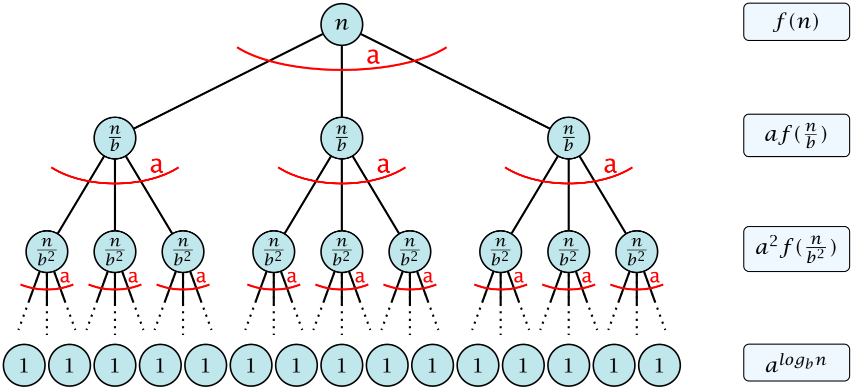

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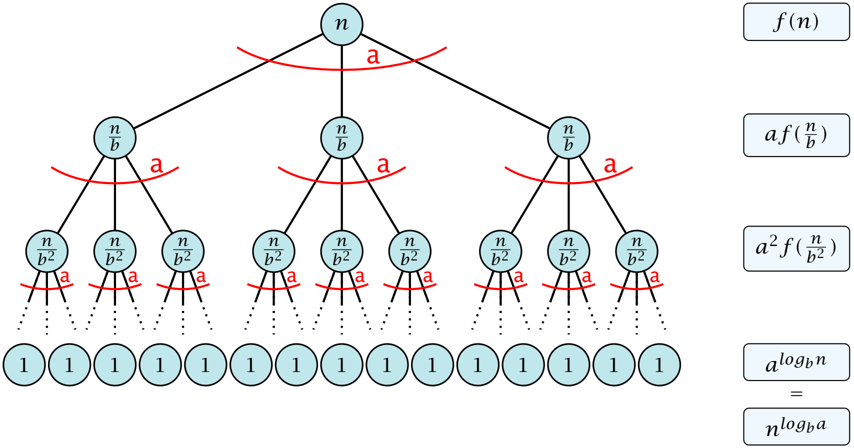

6.2 Master Theorem

This gives

$$T(n) = n^{\log_b a} + \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) .$$

Case 1. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$.

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$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

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$$\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \\ &= cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} \left(b^\epsilon\right)^i \end{aligned}$$

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$$\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}}$$

$$\boxed{\sum_{i=0}^{k} q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}}$$

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\begin{aligned}
T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\
&\le c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \\
\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} \left(b^{\epsilon}\right)^i \\
\boxed{\sum_{i=0}^{k} q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}(b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)
\end{aligned}
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$$\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}} \quad = cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^\epsilon)^i$$

$$\boxed{\textstyle\sum_{i=0}^k q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}} \quad = cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon}(b^{\epsilon\log_b n} - 1)/(b^\epsilon - 1)$$

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\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^\epsilon)^i \\
\boxed{\sum_{i=0}^k q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon}(b^{\epsilon\log_b n} - 1)/(b^\epsilon - 1) \\
&= cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon}(n^\epsilon - 1)/(b^\epsilon - 1) \\
&= \frac{c}{b^\epsilon - 1} n^{\log_b a}(n^\epsilon - 1)/(n^\epsilon)
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&= \frac{c}{b^\epsilon - 1} n^{\log_b a}(n^\epsilon - 1)/(n^\epsilon)
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$T(n) \le \left(\frac{c}{b^\epsilon - 1} + 1\right) n^{\log_b (a)}$$

Case 1. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\
&\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \\
\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a - \epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i} a^{-i}} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} (b^\epsilon)^i \\
\boxed{\textstyle\sum_{i=0}^k q^i = \frac{q^{k+1}-1}{q-1}} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}(b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1)/(b^\epsilon - 1) \\
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\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \left(\frac{c}{b^\epsilon - 1} + 1\right) n^{\log_b (a)} \qquad \boxed{\Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}).}$$

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Hence,

$$T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n)$$

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Hence,

$$T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n) \qquad \boxed{\Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log n).}$$

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Hence,

$$T(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n)$$

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&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} 1 \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \log_b n
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$T(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a} \log_b n) \qquad \boxed{\Rightarrow T(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a} \log n).}$$

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$$\boxed{n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n}$$

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$\boxed{n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n}$

$$= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell - 1} \left(\log_b\left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k$$

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\boxed{n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_b\left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k
\end{aligned}$$

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&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \boxed{\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^k} \approx \frac{1}{k}\ell^{k+1}
\end{aligned}$$

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&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^k \\
&\approx \frac{c}{k} n^{\log_b a} \ell^{k+1}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\Rightarrow T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n).}$$

Case 3. Now suppose that $f(n) \geq dn^{\log_b a+\epsilon}$, and that for sufficiently large n: $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$, for $c < 1$.

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From this we get $a^i f(n/b^i) \leq c^i f(n)$, where we assume that $n/b^{i-1} \geq n_0$ is still sufficiently large.

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$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

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$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a} = \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a})$$

$\boxed{q < 1 : \sum_{i=0}^{n} q^i = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{1-q}}$

Case 3. Now suppose that $f(n) \geq dn^{\log_b a+\epsilon}$, and that for sufficiently large n: $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$, for $c < 1$.

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$$\begin{aligned} T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{1-c} f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

$\boxed{q < 1 : \sum_{i=0}^{n} q^i = \frac{1-q^{n+1}}{1-q} \leq \frac{1}{1-q}}$

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$$= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} c^i f(n) + \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a})$$

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Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \mathcal{O}(f(n))$$

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Hence,

$$T(n) \leq \mathcal{O}(f(n)) \qquad \boxed{\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).}$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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&&&&&&&&0&&
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 & & & & & {}_1 & {}_1 & {}_1 & & & \\
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{\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & & & \\
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 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\
{\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & & & \\
\hline
\boxed{1} & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
\end{array}
$$

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 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\
{\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & & & \\
\hline
1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
\end{array}
$$

This gives that two n-bit integers can be added in time $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n-bit integer A and an m-bit integer B ($m \leq n$).

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 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
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 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
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$$\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & \boxed{0} & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 & & & & & & & & 0 & 0
\end{array}$$

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\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & \boxed{0} & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
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\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
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1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & \boxed{1} & 0 & 1 & 1 \\ \hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
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 & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
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\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0
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\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
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\hline
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\hline
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\end{array}
$$

$$
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
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\hline
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\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline
 & & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}$$

Time requirement:

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Suppose that we want to multiply an n-bit integer A and an m-bit integer B ($m \le n$).

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\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
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Time requirement:

- Computing intermediate results: $\mathcal{O}(nm)$.

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1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
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 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline
 & & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1
\end{array}$$

Time requirement:

- Computing intermediate results: $\mathcal{O}(nm)$.
- Adding m numbers of length $\le 2n$: $\mathcal{O}((m+n)m) = \mathcal{O}(nm)$.

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A recursive approach:

Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k.

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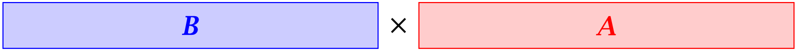

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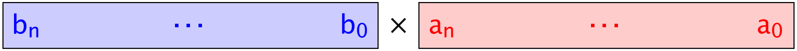

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Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k.

$$\boxed{b_n \quad \cdots \quad b_{\frac{n}{2}} \;\; b_{\frac{n}{2}-1} \quad \cdots \quad b_0} \times \boxed{a_n \quad \cdots \quad a_{\frac{n}{2}} \;\; a_{\frac{n}{2}-1} \quad \cdots \quad a_0}$$

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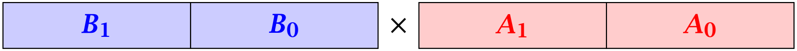

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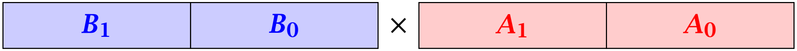

Then it holds that

$$A = A_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 \text{ and } B = B_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + B_0$$

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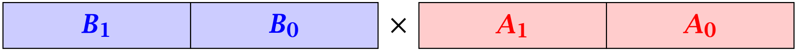

Then it holds that

$$A = A_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 \text{ and } B = B_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + B_0$$

Hence,

$$A \cdot B = A_1 B_1 \cdot 2^n + (A_1 B_0 + A_0 B_1) \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + A_0 \cdot B_0$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

```
Algorithm 3 mult$(A, B)$
1: if $|A| = |B| = 1$ then
2:         return $a_0 \cdot b_0$
3: split $A$ into $A_0$ and $A_1$
4: split $B$ into $B_0$ and $B_1$
5: $Z_2 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_1)$
6: $Z_1 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_0) + \text{mult}(A_0, B_1)$
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8: return $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$
```

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

```
Algorithm 3 mult($A, B$)
1: if $|A| = |B| = 1$ then
2:         return $a_0 \cdot b_0$
3: split $A$ into $A_0$ and $A_1$
4: split $B$ into $B_0$ and $B_1$
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$\mathcal{O}(1)$

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1: if $|A| = |B| = 1$ then                              $\mathcal{O}(1)$
2:     return $a_0 \cdot b_0$                           $\mathcal{O}(1)$
3: split $A$ into $A_0$ and $A_1$                       $\mathcal{O}(n)$
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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 mult(A, B)

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```

We get the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \mathcal{O}(n) \enspace .$$

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Master Theorem: Recurrence: $T[n] = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$.

- Case 1: $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a-\epsilon})$ $\quad T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- Case 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}\log^k n)$ $\quad T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}\log^{k+1} n)$
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In our case $a = 4$, $b = 2$, and $f(n) = \Theta(n)$. Hence, we are in Case 1, since $n = \mathcal{O}(n^{2-\epsilon}) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a-\epsilon})$.

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We get a running time of $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ for our algorithm.

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$\Rightarrow$ Not better then the “school method”.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

We can use the following identity to compute Z_1:

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$$Z_1 = A_1B_0 + A_0B_1$$

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We can use the following identity to compute Z_1:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_1 &= A_1B_0 + A_0B_1 \\ &= (A_0 + A_1) \cdot (B_0 + B_1) - A_1B_1 - A_0B_0 \end{aligned}$$

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Hence,

Algorithm 4 mult(A, B)

```
1: if $|A| = |B| = 1$ then
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8: return $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$          $\mathcal{O}(n)$
```

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

We get the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 3T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \mathcal{O}(n) \enspace .$$

Master Theorem: Recurrence: $T[n] = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$.

- Case 1: $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ $\quad T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
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Again we are in Case 1. We get a running time of $\Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx \Theta(n^{1.59})$.

A huge improvement over the "school method".

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We get the following recurrence:

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6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

Consider the recurrence relation:

$$c_0T(n) + c_1T(n-1) + c_2T(n-2) + \cdots + c_kT(n-k) = f(n)$$

This is the general form of a linear recurrence relation of order k with constant coefficients ($c_0, c_k \neq 0$).

- $T(n)$ only depends on the k preceding values. This means the recurrence relation is of order k.
- The recurrence is linear as there are no products of $T[n]$'s.
- If $f(n) = 0$ then the recurrence relation becomes a linear, homogenous recurrence relation of order k.

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Observations:

- The solution $T[0], T[1], T[2], \ldots$ is completely determined by a set of boundary conditions that specify values for $T[0], \ldots, T[k-1]$.
- In fact, any k consecutive values completely determine the solution.
- k non-concecutive values might not be an appropriate set of boundary conditions (depends on the problem).

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- First determine all solutions that satisfy recurrence relation.
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The Homogenous Case

The solution space

$$S = \Big\{T = T[0], T[1], T[2], \dots \;\Big|\; T \text{ fulfills recurrence relation}\Big\}$$

is a vector space. This means that if $T_1, T_2 \in S$, then also $\alpha T_1 + \beta T_2 \in S$, for arbitrary constants α, β.

How do we find a non-trivial solution?

We guess that the solution is of the form λ^n, $\lambda \neq 0$, and see what happens. In order for this guess to fulfill the recurrence we need

$$c_0\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + c_2 \cdot \lambda^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k \cdot \lambda^{n-k} = 0$$

for all $n \geq k$.

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Dividing by λ^{n-k} gives that all these constraints are identical to

$$c_0\lambda^k + c_1\lambda^{k-1} + c_2 \cdot \lambda^{k-2} + \cdots + c_k = 0$$

This means that if λ_i is a root (Nullstelle) of $P[\lambda]$ then $T[n] = \lambda_i^n$ is a solution to the recurrence relation.

Let $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$ be the k (complex) roots of $P[\lambda]$. Then, because of the vector space property

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The Homogenous Case

Lemma 5
Assume that the characteristic polynomial has k distinct roots $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$. Then all solutions to the recurrence relation are of the form

$$\alpha_1\lambda_1^n + \alpha_2\lambda_2^n + \cdots + \alpha_k\lambda_k^n \ .$$

Proof.
There is one solution for every possible choice of boundary conditions for $T[1], \dots, T[k]$.

We show that the above set of solutions contains one solution for every choice of boundary conditions.

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Proof (cont.).

Suppose I am given boundary conditions $T[i]$ and I want to see whether I can choose the $\alpha_i's$ such that these conditions are met:

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 & & & & \vdots & & & & \\
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We show that the column vectors are linearly independent. Then the above equation has a solution.

The Homogenous Case

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This we show by induction:

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- **base case** ($k = 1$):
  A vector (λ_i), $\lambda_i \neq 0$ is linearly independent.

$\square$

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  assume for contradiction that there exist α_i's with

$$\alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_1^{k-1} \\ \lambda_1^k \end{pmatrix} + \cdots + \alpha_k \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_k \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_k^{k-1} \\ \lambda_k^k \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

and not all $\alpha_i = 0$. □

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and not all $\alpha_i = 0$. **Then all $\boldsymbol{\alpha_i \neq 0}$!** □

The Homogeneous Case

$$\alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_1^2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_1^{k-1} \\ \lambda_1^k \end{pmatrix} + \cdots + \alpha_k \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_k^{k-1} \\ \lambda_k^k \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

The Homogeneous Case

$$\alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} v_1 := \boxed{\begin{matrix}\lambda_1\\ \lambda_1^2\\ \vdots\\ \lambda_1^{k-1}\end{matrix}} \\ \lambda_1^k \end{pmatrix} + \cdots + \alpha_k \begin{pmatrix} v_k := \boxed{\begin{matrix}\lambda_1\\ \lambda_k^2\\ \vdots\\ \lambda_k^{k-1}\end{matrix}} \\ \lambda_k^k \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

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This means that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i v_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i \alpha_i v_i = 0$$

The Homogeneous Case

$$\alpha_1 \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_1^2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_1^{k-1} \\ \lambda_1^k \end{pmatrix} + \cdots + \alpha_k \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_k \\ \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_k^{k-1} \\ \lambda_k^k \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$v_1 :=$ (top k entries of the first vector), $\lambda_1 v_1 =$ (bottom k entries of the first vector); $v_k :=$ (top k entries of the last vector), $\lambda_k v_k =$ (bottom k entries of the last vector)

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$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i v_i = 0 \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i \alpha_i v_i = 0$$

Hence,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \alpha_i v_i + \alpha_k v_k = 0 \text{ and } -\frac{1}{\lambda_k} \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \lambda_i \alpha_i v_i = \alpha_k v_k$$

The Homogeneous Case

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This is a contradiction as the v_i's are linearly independent because of induction hypothesis.

The Homogeneous Case

What happens if the roots are not all distinct?

Suppose we have a root λ_i with multiplicity (Vielfachheit) at least 2. Then not only is λ_i^n a solution to the recurrence but also $n\lambda_i^n$.

To see this consider the polynomial

$$P(\lambda)\lambda^{n-k} = c_0\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + c_2\lambda^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k\lambda^{n-k}$$

Since λ_i is a root we can write this as $Q(\lambda)(\lambda - \lambda_i)^2$. Calculating the derivative gives a polynomial that still has root λ_i.

This means

$$c_0 n\lambda_i^{n-1} + c_1(n-1)\lambda_i^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k(n-k)\lambda_i^{n-k-1} = 0$$

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$$c_0 n\lambda_i^{n-1} + c_1(n-1)\lambda_i^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k(n-k)\lambda_i^{n-k-1} = 0$$

Hence,

$$\underbrace{c_0 n\lambda_i^n}_{T[n]} + \underbrace{c_1(n-1)\lambda_i^{n-1}}_{T[n-1]} + \cdots + \underbrace{c_k(n-k)\lambda_i^{n-k}}_{T[n-k]} = 0$$

The Homogeneous Case

What happens if the roots are not all distinct?

Suppose we have a root λ_i with multiplicity (Vielfachheit) at least 2. Then not only is λ_i^n a solution to the recurrence but also $n\lambda_i^n$.

To see this consider the polynomial

$$P(\lambda)\lambda^{n-k} = c_0\lambda^n + c_1\lambda^{n-1} + c_2\lambda^{n-2} + \cdots + c_k\lambda^{n-k}$$

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(after taking the derivative; multiplying with λ; plugging in λ_i)

Doing this again gives

$$c_0 n^2\lambda_i^n + c_1(n-1)^2\lambda_i^{n-1} + \cdots + c_k(n-k)^2\lambda_i^{n-k} = 0$$

We can continue $j-1$ times.

Hence, $n^\ell\lambda_i^n$ is a solution for $\ell \in 0,\ldots,j-1$.

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Hence, $n^\ell\lambda_i^n$ is a solution for $\ell \in 0,\ldots,j-1$.

The Homogeneous Case

Lemma 6

Let $P[\lambda]$ denote the characteristic polynomial to the recurrence

$$c_0T[n] + c_1T[n-1] + \cdots + c_kT[n-k] = 0$$

Let λ_i, $i = 1, \dots, m$ be the (complex) roots of $P[\lambda]$ with multiplicities ℓ_i. Then the general solution to the recurrence is given by

$$T[n] = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=0}^{\ell_i - 1} \alpha_{ij} \cdot (n^j \lambda_i^n) \enspace .$$

The full proof is omitted. We have only shown that any choice of α_{ij}'s is a solution to the recurrence.

Example: Fibonacci Sequence

$$\begin{aligned} T[0] &= 0 \\ T[1] &= 1 \\ T[n] &= T[n-1] + T[n-2] \text{ for } n \geq 2 \end{aligned}$$

The characteristic polynomial is

$$\lambda^2 - \lambda - 1$$

Finding the roots, gives

$$\lambda_{1/2} = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + 1} = \frac{1}{2}\left(1 \pm \sqrt{5}\right)$$

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$$\alpha\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)+\beta\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)=1\Longrightarrow\alpha-\beta=\frac{2}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Example: Fibonacci Sequence

Hence, the solution is

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

The Inhomogeneous Case

Consider the recurrence relation:

$$c_0T(n) + c_1T(n-1) + c_2T(n-2) + \cdots + c_kT(n-k) = f(n)$$

with $f(n) \neq 0$.

While we have a fairly general technique for solving homogeneous, linear recurrence relations the inhomogeneous case is different.

The Inhomogeneous Case

The general solution of the recurrence relation is

$$T(n) = T_h(n) + T_p(n) \ ,$$

where T_h is any solution to the homogeneous equation, and T_p is one particular solution to the inhomogeneous equation.

There is no general method to find a particular solution.

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The Inhomogeneous Case

Example:

$$T[n] = T[n-1] + 1 \qquad T[0] = 1$$

Then,

$$T[n-1] = T[n-2] + 1 \qquad (n \geq 2)$$

Subtracting the first from the second equation gives,

$$T[n] - T[n-1] = T[n-1] - T[n-2] \qquad (n \geq 2)$$

or

$$T[n] = 2T[n-1] - T[n-2] \qquad (n \geq 2)$$

I get a completely determined recurrence if I add $T[0] = 1$ and $T[1] = 2$.

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$T[1] = 2$ gives $1 + \beta = 2 \Longrightarrow \beta = 1$.

The Inhomogeneous Case

If $f(n)$ is a polynomial of degree r this method can be applied $r+1$ times to obtain a homogeneous equation:

$$T[n] = T[n-1] + n^2$$

Shift:

$$T[n-1] = T[n-2] + (n-1)^2 = T[n-2] + n^2 - 2n + 1$$

Difference:

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Shift:

$$\begin{aligned} T[n-1] &= 2T[n-2] - T[n-3] + 2(n-1) - 1 \\ &= 2T[n-2] - T[n-3] + 2n - 3 \end{aligned}$$

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and so on...

6.4 Generating Functions

Definition 7 (Generating Function)

Let $(a_n)_{n\geq 0}$ be a sequence. The corresponding

- generating function (Erzeugendenfunktion) is

$$F(z) := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n;$$

- exponential generating function (exponentielle Erzeugendenfunktion) is

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6.4 Generating Functions

There are two different views:

A generating function is a formal power series (formale Potenzreihe).

Then the generating function is an algebraic object.

Let $f = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n z^n$ and $g = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n z^n$.

- **Equality:** f and g are equal if $a_n = b_n$ for all n.
- **Addition:** $f + g := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) z^n$.
- **Multiplication:** $f \cdot g := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^n$ with $c = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p b_{n-p}$.

There are no convergence issues here.

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- **Addition:** $f + g := \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n) z^n$.
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It means that the power series $1 - z$ and the power series $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n$ are invers, i.e.,

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Hence, the generating function of the sequence $a_n = n+1$ is $1/(1-z)^2$.

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Hence, the generating function of the sequence $a_n = (n+1)(n+2)$ is $\frac{2}{(1-z)^2}$.

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The generating function of the sequence $a_n = n$ is $\frac{z}{(1-z)^2}$.

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We know

$$\sum_{n\ge 0} y^n = \frac{1}{1-y}$$

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Hence, $a_n = n+1$.

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n-th sequence element	**generating function**
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$n+1$	$\frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$
$\binom{n+k}{n}$	$\frac{1}{(1-z)^{k+1}}$
n	$\frac{z}{(1-z)^2}$
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$$A = \frac{7}{4} \quad B = -\frac{1}{4} \quad C = -\frac{1}{2}$$

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6. This means $a_n = \frac{7}{4}3^n - \frac{1}{2}n - \frac{3}{4}$.

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Example 9

$$\begin{aligned} f_0 &= 1 \\ f_1 &= 2 \\ f_n &= f_{n-1} \cdot f_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2\,. \end{aligned}$$

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