6 Recurrences

Algorithm 2 mergesort(list L)

```
1: $n \leftarrow \mathrm{size}(L)$
2: if $n \leq 1$ return $L$
3: $L_1 \leftarrow L[1 \cdots \lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor]$
4: $L_2 \leftarrow L[\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor + 1 \cdots n]$
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

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

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

Recurrences

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For this we need to solve the recurrence.

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.

Methods for Solving Recurrences

4. **Generating Functions**
   A more general technique that allows to solve certain types of linear inhomogenous relations and also sometimes non-linear recurrence relations.
5. **Transformation of the Recurrence**
   Sometimes one can transform the given recurrence relations so that it e.g. becomes linear and can therefore be solved with one of the other techniques.

6.1 Guessing+Induction

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

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

Informal way:

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Informal way:

Assume that instead we have

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

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

6.1 Guessing+Induction

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if we choose $d \geq c$.

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if we choose $d \ge c$.

Formally, this is not correct if n is not a power of 2. Also even in this case one would need to do an induction proof.

6.1 Guessing+Induction

$$T(n) \le \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & n \ge 16 \\ b & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

- Note that this proves the statement for $n = 2^k$, $k \in \mathbb{N}_{\ge 1}$, as the statement is wrong for $n = 1$.
- The base case is usually omitted, as it is the same for different recurrences.

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

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We consider the following recurrence instead of the original one:

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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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\boxed{\log n \le \tfrac{n}{4}} \quad &\le dn\log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn \\
&\le dn\log n - 0.33dn + cn
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\boxed{\log n \leq \tfrac{n}{4}} \quad &\leq dn\log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn \\
&\leq dn\log n - 0.33dn + cn \\
&\leq dn\log n
\end{aligned}
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for a suitable choice of d.

6.2 Master Theorem

Note that the cases do not cover all possibilities.

Lemma 5
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 $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$, $k \geq 0$.

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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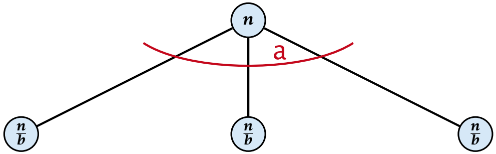

The Recursion Tree

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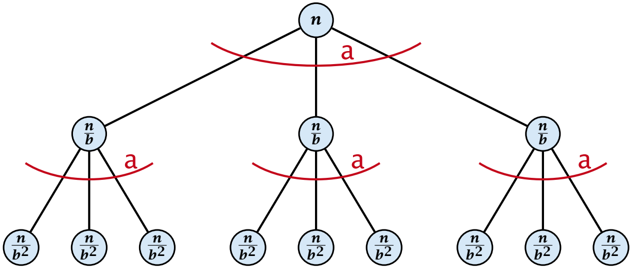

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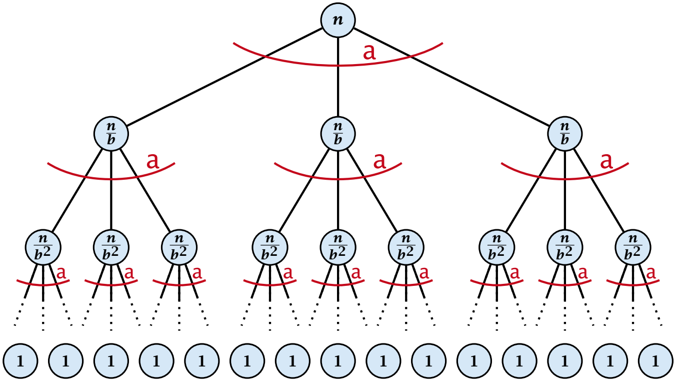
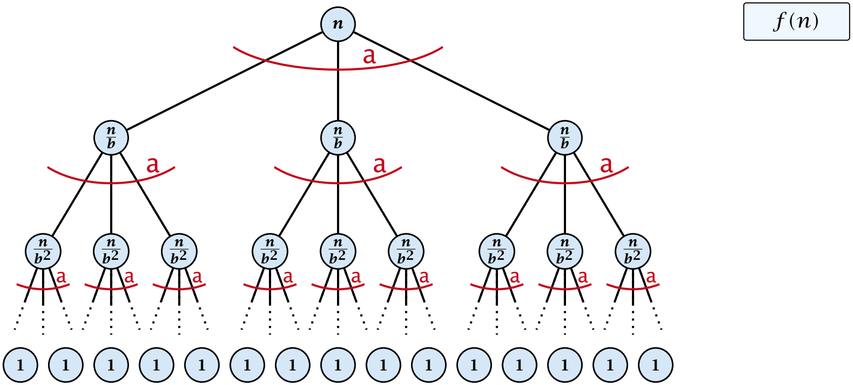


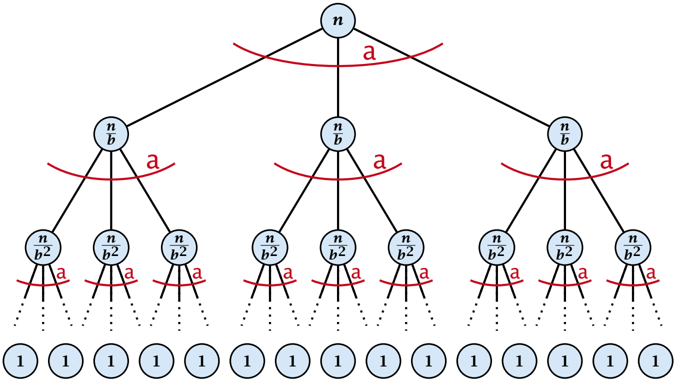
The Recursion Tree

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



The Recursion Tree

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

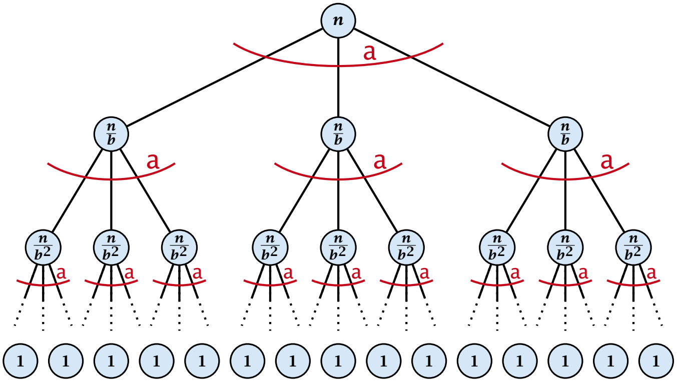


$f(n)$

$af(\frac{n}{b})$

The Recursion Tree

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



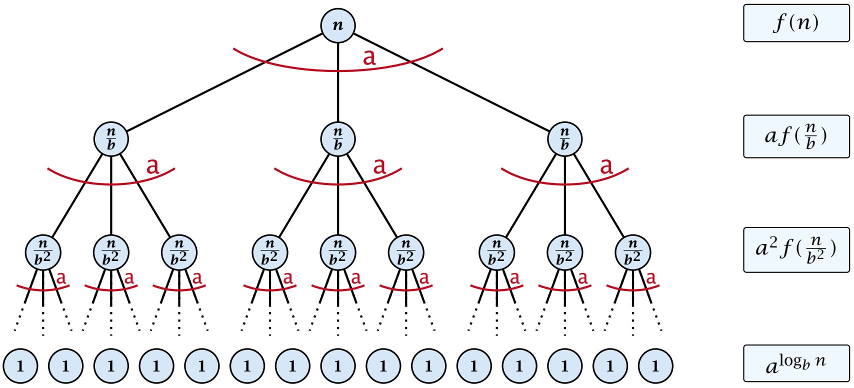
$f(n)$

$af(\frac{n}{b})$

$a^2f(\frac{n}{b^2})$

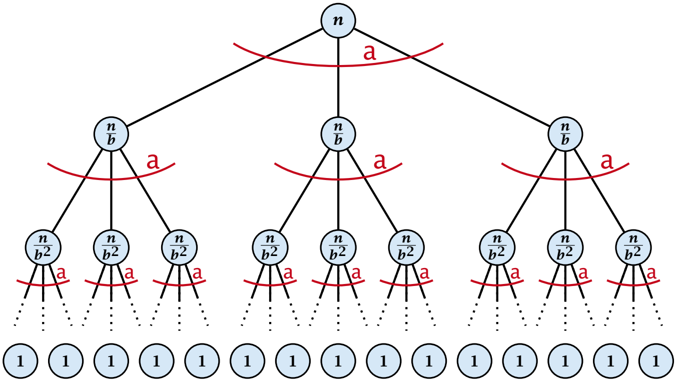
The Recursion Tree

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



The Recursion Tree

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



$f(n)$

$af(\frac{n}{b})$

$a^2 f(\frac{n}{b^2})$

$a^{\log_b n}$

$=$

$n^{\log_b a}$

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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$$T(n) - n^{\log_b a}$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$= cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^\epsilon)^i$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n - 1} (b^{\epsilon})^i$$

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

$$= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}(b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$

$$= cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}(n^{\epsilon} - 1)/(b^{\epsilon} - 1)$$

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

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

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

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

Hence,

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

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

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

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

$$\boxed{b^{-i(\log_b a-\epsilon)} = b^{\epsilon i}(b^{\log_b a})^{-i} = b^{\epsilon i}a^{-i}} \quad = cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon} \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} (b^\epsilon)^i$$

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

$$= cn^{\log_b a-\epsilon}(n^\epsilon - 1)/(b^\epsilon - 1)$$

$$= \frac{c}{b^\epsilon - 1} n^{\log_b a}(n^\epsilon - 1)/(n^\epsilon)$$

Hence,

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

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

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a}$.

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

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

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

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a}$.

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

Hence,

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

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

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

Hence,

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

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \geq cn^{\log_b a}$.

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

Hence,

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

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a}(\log_b(n))^k$.

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

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a}(\log_b(n))^k$.

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

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

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \le cn^{\log_b a}(\log_b(n))^k$.

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

$$\le c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a} \cdot \left(\log_b\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)\right)^k$$

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

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

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

$$= c n^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k$$

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \le cn^{\log_b a}(\log_b(n))^k$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\
&\le c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a} \cdot \left(\log_b\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)\right)^k \\
\boxed{n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_b\left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k \\
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&\leq c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a} \cdot \left(\log_b\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)\right)^k \\
\boxed{n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n} \quad &= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_b\left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \boxed{\sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^k} \approx \tfrac{1}{k}\ell^{k+1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \le cn^{\log_b a}(\log_b(n))^k$.

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

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

Case 2. Now suppose that $f(n) \le cn^{\log_b a}(\log_b(n))^k$.

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

$$\begin{aligned}
T(n) - n^{\log_b a} &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right) \\
&\le c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i \left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)^{\log_b a} \cdot \left(\log_b\left(\frac{n}{b^i}\right)\right)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\log_b\left(\frac{b^\ell}{b^i}\right)\right)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\ell - i)^k \\
&= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^k \\
&\approx \frac{c}{k} n^{\log_b a} \ell^{k+1}
\end{aligned}$$

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

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 $c < 1$.

Where did we use $f(n) \geq \Omega(n^{\log_b a+\epsilon})$?

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 $c < 1$.

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.

Where did we use $f(n) \geq \Omega(n^{\log_b a+\epsilon})$?

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 $c < 1$.

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.

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

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

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

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Hence,

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

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

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Hence,

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

$\boxed{\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).}$

Where did we use $f(n) \geq \Omega(n^{\log_b a+\epsilon})$?

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Suppose we want to multiply two n-bit Integers, but our registers can only perform operations on integers of constant size.

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$$\begin{array}{ccccccccc|c}
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\
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\hline
\end{array}$$

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

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$$\begin{array}{cccccccc|c|c}
1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1_{1} & 1 & B \\
\hline
 & & & & & & & & 0 &
\end{array}$$

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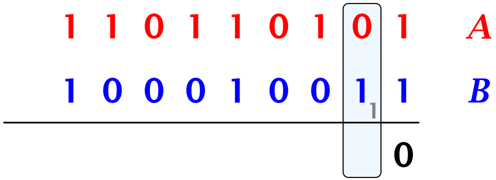

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\hline
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&&&&&{\scriptstyle 1}&{\scriptstyle 1}&{\scriptstyle 1}&&&\\
\hline
&&&&&&0&0&0&&
\end{array}$$

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1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & \boxed{0} & 1 & 0 & 1 & & A \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\
 & & & & & {}_{1} & {}_{1} & {}_{1} & & & \\
\hline
 & & & & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
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 & & & & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & & & \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
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 & & & {}_{1} & {}_{0} & {}_{1} & {}_{1} & {}_{1} & & & \\
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1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\
 & & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & & & \\
\hline
 & & & \boxed{0} & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
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1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\
 & & {}_{1} & {}_{1} & {}_{0} & {}_{1} & {}_{1} & {}_{1} & & & \\
\hline
 & & & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
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 & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 0} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & {\scriptstyle 1} & & & \\
\hline
 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
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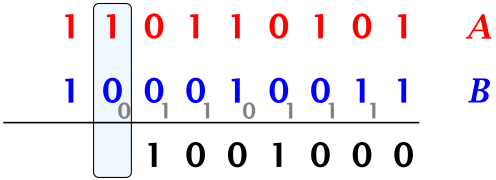

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1 & \boxed{1} & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & & A \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\
{}_0 & {}_0 & {}_1 & {}_1 & {}_0 & {}_1 & {}_1 & {}_1 & & & \\
\hline
 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
\end{array}$$

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 & 1_{0} & 0_{0} & 0_{1} & 0_{1} & 1_{0} & 0_{1} & 0_{1} & 1_{1} & 1 & \quad B \\
\hline
 & & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 &
\end{array}$$

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 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & & B \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & & & \\
\hline
 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
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$$

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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
 & 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
\boxed{1} & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & &
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 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & \quad 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 $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

- This is also nown as the “school method” for multiplying integers.
- Note that the intermediate numbers that are generated can have at most $m + n \le 2n$ bits.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

$$\underline{1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1 \times 1\ 0\ 1\ 1}$$

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\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1
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\begin{array}{r}
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\hline
1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1
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$$
\begin{array}{ccccccccccc}
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & 0 & \boxed{1} & 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & & & & & & & & & & & 0
\end{array}
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Suppose that we want to multiply an n-bit integer A and an m-bit integer B ($m \le n$).

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

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

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

$$
\begin{array}{rrrrrrrrrr}
 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times\ 1 & 0 & 1\ 1 \\
\hline
 & & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
 & & & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
 & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
\hline
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$$

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

$$\begin{array}{r}
1\;0\;0\;0\;1 \times 1\;0\;1\;1 \\
\hline
1\;0\;0\;0\;1 \\
1\;0\;0\;0\;1\;0 \\
0\;0\;0\;0\;0\;0\;0 \\
1\;0\;0\;0\;1\;0\;0\;0 \\
\hline
1\;0\;1\;1\;1\;0\;1\;1
\end{array}$$

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Time requirement:

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

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

- This is also nown as the “school method” for multiplying integers.
- Note that the intermediate numbers that are generated can have at most $m + n \le 2n$ bits.

Time requirement:

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

$$
\begin{array}{cccccccccc}
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & \times & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \\
\hline
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- 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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Suppose that integers A and B are of length $n = 2^k$, for some k.

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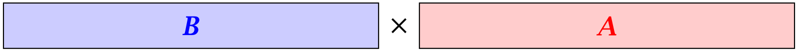

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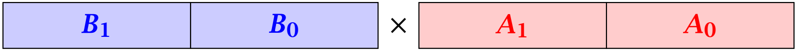

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Then it holds that

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

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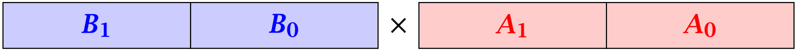

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$\mathcal{O}(1)$

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We get the following recurrence:

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

- Case 1: $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ $\quad T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
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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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$\Longrightarrow$ Not better then the “school method”.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

We can use the following identity to compute Z_1:

A more precise (correct) analysis would say that computing Z_1 needs time $T(\frac{n}{2}+1)+\mathcal{O}(n)$.

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A huge improvement over the “school method”.

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Consider the recurrence relation:

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Note that we ignore boundary conditions for the moment.

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- First determine all solutions that satisfy recurrence relation.
- Then pick the right one by analyzing boundary conditions.
- First consider the homogenous case.

The Homogenous Case

The solution space

$$S = \left\{ \mathcal{T} = T[1], T[2], T[3], \ldots \;\middle|\; \mathcal{T} \text{ fulfills recurrence relation} \right\}$$

is a vector space.

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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 $n \geq k$.

The Homogenous Case

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

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

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

is a solution for arbitrary values α_i.

The Homogenous Case

Lemma 6

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

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

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

Computing the Determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^2 & \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^k & \lambda_k^k \end{vmatrix} =$$

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$$= \prod_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 1 & \lambda_1 & \cdots & \lambda_1^{k-2} & \lambda_1^{k-1} \\ 1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_2^{k-2} & \lambda_2^{k-1} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_k & \cdots & \lambda_k^{k-2} & \lambda_k^{k-1} \end{vmatrix}$$

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Computing the Determinant

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & (\lambda_2-\lambda_1)\cdot 1 & \cdots & (\lambda_2-\lambda_1)\cdot\lambda_2^{k-3} & (\lambda_2-\lambda_1)\cdot\lambda_2^{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & (\lambda_k-\lambda_1)\cdot 1 & \cdots & (\lambda_k-\lambda_1)\cdot\lambda_k^{k-3} & (\lambda_k-\lambda_1)\cdot\lambda_k^{k-2} \end{vmatrix} =$$

$$\prod_{i=2}^{k}(\lambda_i-\lambda_1)\cdot\begin{vmatrix} 1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_2^{k-3} & \lambda_2^{k-2} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & \lambda_k & \cdots & \lambda_k^{k-3} & \lambda_k^{k-2} \end{vmatrix}$$

Computing the Determinant

Repeating the above steps gives:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1} & \lambda_k \\ \lambda_1^2 & \lambda_2^2 & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^2 & \lambda_k^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ \lambda_1^k & \lambda_2^k & \cdots & \lambda_{k-1}^k & \lambda_k^k \end{vmatrix} = \prod_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i \cdot \prod_{i>\ell} (\lambda_i - \lambda_\ell)$$

Hence, if all λ_i's are different, then the determinant is non-zero.

The Homogeneous Case

What happens if the roots are not all distinct?

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To see this consider the polynomial

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

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Since λ_i is a root we can write this as $Q[\lambda] \cdot (\lambda - \lambda_i)^2$. 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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Hence,

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

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We can continue $j-1$ times.

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

The Homogeneous Case

Lemma 7
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, $i = 1, \ldots, m$ be the (complex) roots of $P[\lambda]$ with multiplicities ℓ_i. Then the general solution to the recurrence is given by

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

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

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

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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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Hence, the solution is of the form

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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.

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

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

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Example: Characteristic polynomial:

$$\lambda^2 - 2\lambda + 1 = 0$$

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$T[0] = 1$ gives $\alpha = 1$.

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

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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 8 (Generating Function)

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

- generating function (Erzeugendenfunktion) is

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

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- exponential generating function (exponentielle Erzeugendenfunktion) is
$$F(z) := \sum_{n\geq 0} \frac{a_n}{n!} z^n \ .$$

6.4 Generating Functions

Example 9

1. The generating function of the sequence $(1, 0, 0, \ldots)$ is

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- **Multiplication:** $f \cdot g := \sum_{n\ge 0} c_n z^n$ with $c_n = \sum_{p=0}^{n} a_p b_{n-p}$.

There are no convergence issues here.

6.4 Generating Functions

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We view a power series as a function $f : \mathbb{C} \to \mathbb{C}$.

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Then, it is important to think about convergence/convergence radius etc.

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It means that the power series $1 - z$ and the power series $\sum_{n\geq 0} z^n$ are invers, i.e.,

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This is well-defined.

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

Formally the derivative of a formal power series $\sum_{n\geq 0} a_n z^n$ is defined as $\sum_{n\geq 0} na_n z^{n-1}$.

The known rules for differentiation work for this definition. In particular, e.g. the derivative of $\frac{1}{1-z}$ is $\frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$.

Note that this requires a proof if we consider power series as algebraic objects. However, we did not prove this in the lecture.

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Computing the k-th derivative of $\sum z^n$.

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$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n\geq k} n(n-1)\cdot\ldots\cdot(n-k+1)z^{n-k} &= \sum_{n\geq 0}(n+k)\cdot\ldots\cdot(n+1)z^n \\ &= \frac{k!}{(1-z)^{k+1}}\ .\end{aligned}$$

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Hence:

$$\sum_{n\geq 0}\binom{n+k}{k}z^n = \frac{1}{(1-z)^{k+1}}\ .$$

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$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n\geq k} n(n-1)\cdot\ldots\cdot(n-k+1)z^{n-k} &= \sum_{n\geq 0}(n+k)\cdot\ldots\cdot(n+1)z^n \\ &= \frac{k!}{(1-z)^{k+1}} \ .\end{aligned}$$

Hence:

$$\sum_{n\geq 0}\binom{n+k}{k}z^n = \frac{1}{(1-z)^{k+1}} \ .$$

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

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The generating function of the sequence $f_n = a^n$ is $\frac{1}{1-az}$.

Example: $a_n = a_{n-1} + 1$, $a_0 = 1$

Suppose we have the recurrence $a_n = a_{n-1} + 1$ for $n \geq 1$ and $a_0 = 1$.

$$A(z)$$

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Hence, $a_n = n + 1$.

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6. The coefficients of the resulting power series are the a_n.

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$$\begin{aligned} z^2 - z + 1 &= A(1-z)^2 + B(1-3z)(1-z) + C(1-3z) \\ &= A(1-2z+z^2) + B(1-4z+3z^2) + C(1-3z) \\ &= (A+3B)z^2 + (-2A-4B-3C)z + (A+B+C) \end{aligned}$$

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5. Write $f(z)$ as a formal power series:

This leads to the following conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} A + B + C &= 1 \\ 2A + 4B + 3C &= 1 \\ A + 3B &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

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This leads to the following conditions:

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which gives

$$A = \frac{7}{4} \quad B = -\frac{1}{4} \quad C = -\frac{1}{2}$$

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&= \sum_{n\geq 0} \Big(\frac{7}{4} \cdot 3^n - \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2}(n+1) \Big) z^n
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\end{aligned}$$

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

6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Example 10

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

6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Example 10

$$f_0 = 1$$
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$$f_n = f_{n-1} \cdot f_{n-2} \text{ for } n \geq 2 \,.$$

Define

$$g_n := \log f_n \,.$$

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6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Example 11

$$\begin{aligned} f_1 &= 1 \\ f_n &= 3f_{\frac{n}{2}} + n;\text{ for } n = 2^k,\ k \geq 1\ ; \end{aligned}$$

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Then:

$$\begin{aligned} g_0 &= 1 \\ g_k &= 3g_{k-1} + 2^k,\ k \geq 1 \end{aligned}$$

6 Recurrences

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&= 2^k \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^i \\
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&= 2^k \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{k} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^i \\
&= 2^k \cdot \frac{(\frac{3}{2})^{k+1} - 1}{1/2} = 3^{k+1} - 2^{k+1}
\end{aligned}$$

6 Recurrences

Let $n = 2^k$:

$$g_k = 3^{k+1} - 2^{k+1}, \text{ hence}$$
$$f_n = 3 \cdot 3^k - 2 \cdot 2^k$$

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