

6 Recurrences

Algorithm 2 mergesort(list L)

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1:  $n \leftarrow \text{size}(L)$ 
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: mergesort( $L_1$ )
6: mergesort( $L_2$ )
7:  $L \leftarrow \text{merge}(L_1, L_2)$ 
8: return  $L$ 
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This algorithm requires

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

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

How do we bring the expression for the number of comparisons (\approx running time) into a **closed form**?

Recurrences

How do we bring the expression for the number of comparisons (\approx running time) into a **closed form**?

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.

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.

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

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

Informal way:

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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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if we choose $d \geq c$.

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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

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

- Note that this proves the statement for $n = 2^k$, $k \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 1}$, 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 $d \geq c$.

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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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$$\boxed{\log \frac{9}{16}n = \log n + (\log 9 - 4)} = dn \log n + (\log 9 - 4)dn + 2d \log n + cn$$

$$\boxed{\log n \leq \frac{n}{4}} \leq dn \log n + (\log 9 - 3.5)dn + cn$$

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$$\leq dn \log n - 0.33dn + cn$$

$$\leq dn \log n$$

for a suitable choice of d .

6.2 Master Theorem

Note that the cases do not cover all possibilities.

Lemma 1

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
 $af\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) \leq cf(n)$ 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:

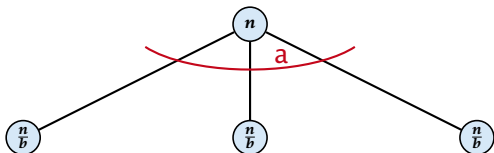
The Recursion Tree

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



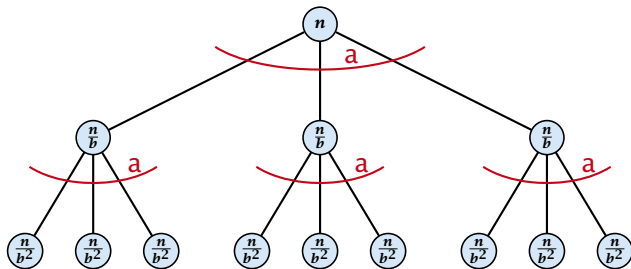
The Recursion Tree

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



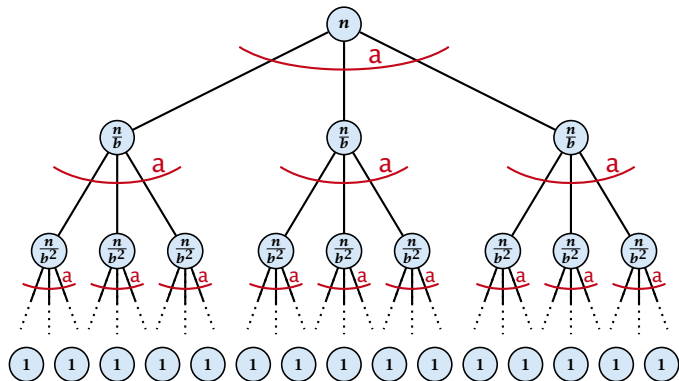
The Recursion Tree

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



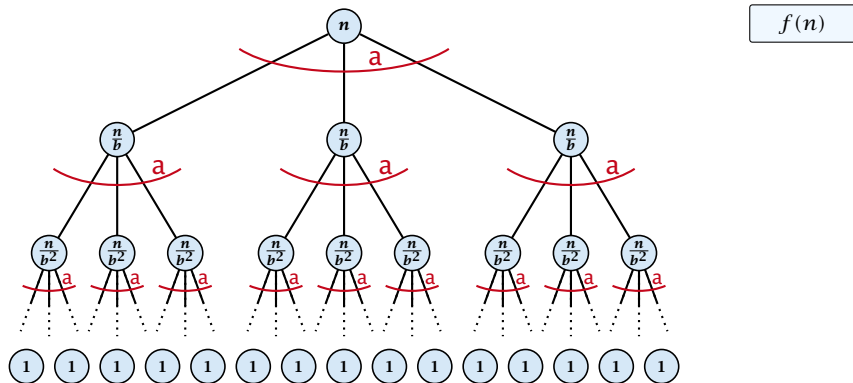
The Recursion Tree

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



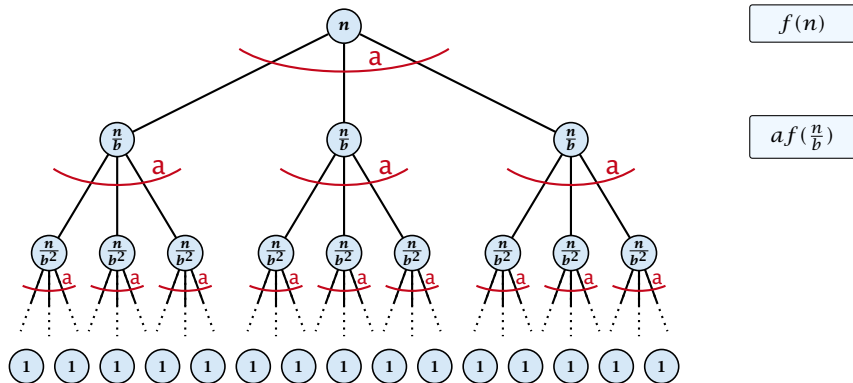
The Recursion Tree

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



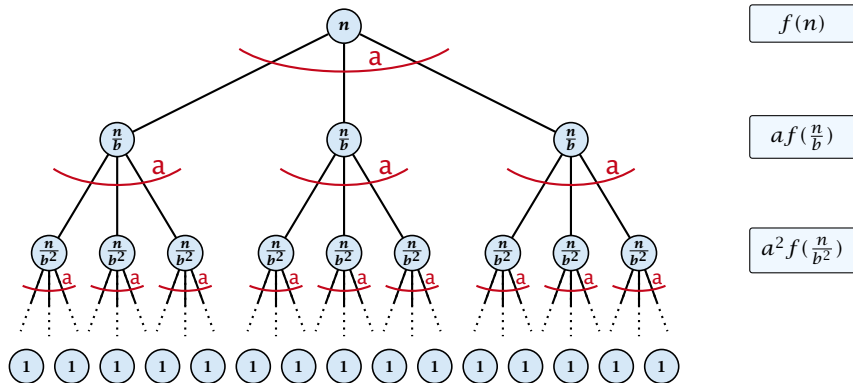
The Recursion Tree

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



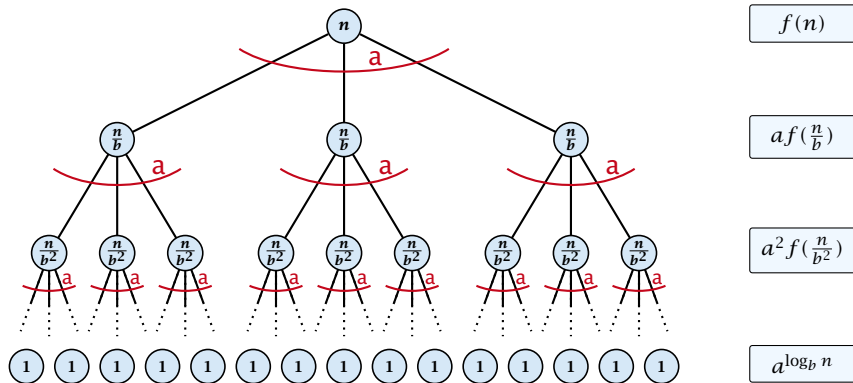
The Recursion Tree

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:



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 $f(n) \leq cn^{\log_b a - \epsilon}$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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Hence,

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

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

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

Hence,

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

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

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Hence,

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

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Hence,

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

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

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Hence,

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

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Hence,

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

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

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$$n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n$$

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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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$$n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n$$

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

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$$n = b^\ell \Rightarrow \ell = \log_b n$$

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

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

$$= cn^{\log_b a} \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} i^k \approx \frac{1}{k} \ell^{k+1}$$

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

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 $c < 1$.

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

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.

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

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Hence,

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

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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.

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

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

Hence,

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

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n)).$$

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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$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ A \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ B \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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

The diagram shows two 9-bit integers, A and B, aligned for addition. Integer A is represented by the red bits 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1, and integer B is represented by the blue bits 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1. A horizontal line is drawn under the bits of B. A vertical light blue box highlights the rightmost bit of A (the least significant bit) and the bit of B directly below it, indicating the starting point of the addition process.

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.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
								1	
								0	

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>								1	
									0

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>								0	0

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B. The bits of A are 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1, and the bits of B are 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1. A horizontal line is drawn under the 7th bit of B. The 8th bit of the result is 0, and the 9th bit is 0. A vertical box highlights the 8th and 9th bits of the result, which are 0 and 0. There are two small '1' characters below the 7th and 8th bits of the result, indicating carry bits.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & B \\ \hline & & & & & & 1 & 1 & & \\ & & & & & & & 0 & 0 & \end{array}$$

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & B \\ \hline & & & & & & 0 & 0 & 0 & \end{array}$$

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B. The bits of A are 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 and the bits of B are 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1. A horizontal line is drawn under the bits of B. The result of the addition is shown below the line, with the bits 0 0 0. A vertical box highlights the bits 1 0 1 of B and the bits 0 0 0 of the result, indicating a carry propagation.

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.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
					1	1	1		
						0	0	0	

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

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
					0	1	1	1	
					1	0	0	0	

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

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
				0	1	1	1		
					1	0	0	0	

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.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & B \\ \hline & & & & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \end{array}$$

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B, to produce a 9-bit result. The bits of A are 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 and the bits of B are 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1. A horizontal line is drawn under the bits of B. The result is 0 1 0 0 0. A vertical box highlights the 5th bit of the result, which is 0. This bit is the result of adding the 5th bits of A and B (1 + 1) and the carry-in from the 4th bit (1). The carry-out from the 5th bit is 1, which is the carry-in for the 6th bit.

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

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
			1	0	1	1	1		
			0	1	0	0	0		

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.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccc} 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & A \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & B \\ \hline & & & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \end{array}$$

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B, to produce their sum. The bits of A are 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1 and the bits of B are 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1. The sum is 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0. A vertical box highlights the carry propagation from the 4th bit to the 5th bit.

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.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
<hr/>									
			0	0	1	0	0	0	

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B. The bits of A are 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1. The bits of B are 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1. A vertical box highlights the third bit (0) of A and the third bit (0) of B. Below the horizontal line, the result of the addition is shown as 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0. Small subscripts are present under the bits of the result: '1' under the third bit, '1' under the fourth bit, '0' under the fifth bit, '1' under the sixth bit, '1' under the seventh bit, and '1' under the eighth bit.

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.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
		0	1	1	0	1	1	1		
			1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

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For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	0	1	A
	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
	<hr/>									
	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	

The diagram illustrates the addition of two 9-bit integers, A and B. The bits of A are 1 1 0 1 1 0 1 0 1 and the bits of B are 1 0 0 0 1 0 0 1 1. The result of the addition is 1 1 0 0 1 0 0 0 0. A vertical box highlights the first two bits of the result, 1 1, which correspond to the carry bits from the addition of the first two bits of A and B.

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.

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

	1	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		
		1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

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	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	1	B
1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	1		
	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	

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

For this we first need to be able to add two integers A and B :

$$\begin{array}{r} 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 1\ A \\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\ B \\ \hline 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 1\ 0\ 0\ 0 \end{array}$$

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 ($m \leq n$).

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \\ \times 1011 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \\ \times 101 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

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

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

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

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \times 1011 \\ \hline 10001 \\ 00000 \\ 00000 \\ 10001 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \times 1011 \\ \hline 10001 \\ 100010 \\ 0000000 \\ 00000000 \end{array}$$

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

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

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

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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

$$\begin{array}{r} 10001 \times 1011 \\ \hline 10001 \\ 100010 \\ 0000000 \\ 00001000 \\ \hline 10111011 \end{array}$$

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

Time requirement:

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

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

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

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

Time requirement:

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

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

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

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

Time requirement:

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

A recursive approach:

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

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$$\boxed{b_{n-1} \quad \dots \quad b_0} \times \boxed{a_{n-1} \quad \dots \quad a_0}$$

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

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

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



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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A recursive approach:

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



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,

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

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

```
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:  $Z_1 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_1, B_0) + \text{mult}(A_0, B_1)$   
7:  $Z_0 \leftarrow \text{mult}(A_0, B_0)$   
8: return  $Z_2 \cdot 2^n + Z_1 \cdot 2^{\frac{n}{2}} + Z_0$ 
```

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

```
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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Example: Multiplying Two Integers

Algorithm 3 $\text{mult}(A, B)$

1: **if** $|A| = |B| = 1$ **then**

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2: **return** $a_0 \cdot b_0$

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3: **split** A into A_0 and A_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: $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- ▶ Case 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$ $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^{k+1} n)$
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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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⇒ Not better than the “school method”.

Example: Multiplying Two Integers

We can use the following identity to compute Z_1 :

A more precise
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Again we are in Case 1. We get a running time of $\Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) \approx \Theta(n^{1.59})$.

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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”.

6.3 The Characteristic Polynomial

Consider the recurrence relation:

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Note that we ignore **boundary conditions** for the moment.

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Approach:

- ▶ 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

$$S = \{ \mathcal{T} = T[1], T[2], T[3], \dots \mid \mathcal{T} \text{ fulfills recurrence relation} \}$$

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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

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

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

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

is a solution for arbitrary values α_i .

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Lemma 2

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

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Proof.

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

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

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

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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 $n\lambda_i^{n-1}$.

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To see this consider the polynomial

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

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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

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

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Doing this again gives

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We can continue $j-1$ times.

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

Doing this again gives

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

We can continue $j-1$ times.

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

The Homogeneous Case

Lemma 3

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

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

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

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

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

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

Example: Fibonacci Sequence

Hence, the solution is of the form

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

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

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.

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.

The Inhomogeneous Case

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

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Subtracting the first from the second equation gives,

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

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

The Inhomogeneous Case

Example: Characteristic polynomial:

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

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

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Shift:

$$T[n - 1] = 2T[n - 2] - T[n - 3] + 2(n - 1) - 1$$

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

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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$$T[n] = 3T[n - 1] - 3T[n - 2] + T[n - 3] + 2$$

and so on...

6.4 Generating Functions

Definition 4 (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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- ▶ **generating function** (**Erzeugendenfunktion**) is

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

- ▶ **exponential generating function** (**exponentielle Erzeugendenfunktion**) is

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

6.4 Generating Functions

Example 5

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

$$F(z) = 1.$$

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2. The generating function of the sequence $(1, 1, 1, \dots)$ is

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There are no convergence issues here.

6.4 Generating Functions

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

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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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Suppose we are given the generating function

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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 $\sum_{n \geq 0} n a_n z^{n-1}$.

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.

6.4 Generating Functions

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Derivative:

$$\sum_{n \geq 1} n(n + 1)z^{n-1} = \frac{2}{(1 - z)^3}$$

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Hence, the generating function of the sequence

$$a_n = (n+1)(n+2) \text{ is } \frac{2}{(1-z)^3} .$$

6.4 Generating Functions

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

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

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Hence:

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Hence:

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

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

6.4 Generating Functions

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

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$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{n \geq 0} n z^n &= \sum_{n \geq 0} (n+1) z^n - \sum_{n \geq 0} z^n \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-z)^2} - \frac{1}{1-z}\end{aligned}$$

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

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Hence,

$$\sum_{n \geq 0} a^n z^n = \frac{1}{1-az}$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}A(z) &= \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n z^n \\&= a_0 + \sum_{n \geq 1} (a_{n-1} + 1) z^n \\&= 1 + z \sum_{n \geq 1} a_{n-1} z^{n-1} + \sum_{n \geq 1} z^n \\&= z \sum_{n \geq 0} a_n z^n + \sum_{n \geq 0} z^n \\&= zA(z) + \sum_{n \geq 0} z^n \\&= zA(z) + \frac{1}{1-z}\end{aligned}$$

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Hence, $a_n = n + 1$.

Some Generating Functions

<i>n</i> -th sequence element	generating function

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$\frac{1}{n!}$	e^z

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

Example: $a_n = 2a_{n-1}$, $a_0 = 1$

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$$\frac{z^2 - z + 1}{(1 - 3z)(1 - z)^2} \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{A}{1 - 3z} + \frac{B}{1 - z} + \frac{C}{(1 - z)^2}$$

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$$z^2 - z + 1 = A(1 - z)^2 + B(1 - 3z)(1 - z) + C(1 - 3z)$$

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This leads to the following conditions:

$$A + B + C = 1$$

$$2A + 4B + 3C = 1$$

$$A + 3B = 1$$

which gives

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

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$$A(z) = \frac{7}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1-3z} - \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{1-z} - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-z)^2}$$

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

6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

Example 6

$$f_0 = 1$$

$$f_1 = 2$$

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

6.5 Transformation of the Recurrence

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Define

$$g_n := \log f_n .$$

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Let $n = 2^k$:

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