# A summary of recursion solving techniques 

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These notes are meant to be a complement to the material on recursion solving techniques in the textbook Discrete Mathematics by Biggs. In particular, Biggs does not explicitly mention the so called Master Theorem, which is much used in the analysis of algorithms. I give some exercises at the end of these notes.

## 1 Linear homogeneous recursions with constant coefficients

A recursion for a sequence $\left(a_{n}\right)$ of the form

$$
a_{n}=c_{k-1} a_{n-1}+c_{k-2} a_{n-2}+\ldots+c_{0} a_{n-k}+f(n)
$$

is called a linear recursion of order $k$ with constant coefficients. If the term $f(n)$ is zero, the recursion is homogeneous.

Linear homogeneous recursions with constant coefficients have a simple explicit general solution in terms of the roots of the characteristic equation:

$$
x^{k}-\left(c_{k-1} x^{k-1}+c_{k-2} x^{k-2}+\ldots+c_{0}\right)=0
$$

Let $P(x)$ be the polynomial in the lefthand part of the equation. Recall that a root $r$ of a polynomial $P(x)$ has multiplicity $m$ if the polynomial factors as $P(x)=(x-r)^{m} Q(x)$ for some polynomial $Q(x)$ and $m$ is the largest such integer.

For example, the polynomial $P(x)=x^{3}-x^{2}=(x-1) x^{2}$ has two roots: $r_{1}=1$ of multiplicity 1 , and $r_{2}=0$ of multiplicity 2 .

Theorem 1 Let $r_{1}, \ldots, r_{j}$ with multiplicities $m_{1}, \ldots, m_{j}$ be the roots of the characteristic equation of a linear recursion of order $k$ with constant coefficients. Then the general solution to the recursion is

$$
a_{n}=P_{1}(n) r_{1}^{n}+P_{2}(n) r_{2}^{n}+\ldots+P_{j}(n) r_{j}^{n}
$$

where $P_{i}$ is an arbitrary polynomial of degree $m_{i}-1$ for each $i=1, \ldots, j$.

### 1.1 Example

We shall solve the recursion

$$
a_{n}=4 a_{n-1}-5 a_{n-2}+2 a_{n-3}, \quad a_{0}=0, \quad a_{1}=2, \quad a_{2}=3 .
$$

This is a linear homogeneous recursion of order 3 with constant coefficients. The characteristic equation is

$$
P(x)=x^{3}-4 x^{2}+5 x-2=0 .
$$

The polynomial $P(x)$ factors as $P(x)=(x-1)^{2}(x-2)$, so we have roots $r_{1}=1$ of multiplicity $m_{1}=2$ and $r_{2}=2$ of multiplicity $m_{2}=1$. An arbitrary polynomial of degree one ( $m_{1}-1$ ) is $A n+B$. An arbitrary polynomial of degree zero $\left(m_{2}-1\right)$ is $C$. Hence, the theorem gives the general solution

$$
a_{n}=(A n+B) 1^{n}+C 2^{n} .
$$

The conditions $a_{0}=0, a_{1}=2$ and $a_{2}=3$ yield three equations for $A, B, C$ :

$$
0=B+C ; \quad 2=A+B+2 C ; \quad 3=2 A+B+4 C .
$$

This is a system of linear equations with the unique solution

$$
A=3, \quad B=1, \quad C=-1 .
$$

Therefore the explicit solution to the recursion is

$$
a_{n}=(3 n+1)-2^{n} .
$$

## 2 Linear inhomogeneous recursions with constant coefficients

Now suppose that we have a linear inhomogeneous recursion with constant coefficients:

$$
a_{n}=c_{k-1} a_{n-1}+c_{k-2} a_{n-2}+\ldots+c_{0} a_{n-k}+f(n),
$$

where $f(n) \neq 0$. In order to solve such a recursion, we need only solve the corresponding homogeneous recursion and then find one particular solution, say $a_{n}^{\text {part }}$, to the inhomogeneous recursion. Then any solution can be written as

$$
a_{n}=a_{n}^{\mathrm{hom}}+a_{n}^{\mathrm{part}},
$$

where $a_{n}^{\text {hom }}$ is a solution to the homogeneous recursion. This result follows easily from linearity: If $a_{n}$ and $a_{n}^{\text {part }}$ both satisfy the inhomogeneous recursion, then subtraction gives

$$
a_{n}-a_{n}^{\mathrm{part}}=c_{k-1}\left(a_{n-1}-a_{n-1}^{\mathrm{part}}\right)+c_{k-2}\left(a_{n-2}-a_{n-2}^{\mathrm{part}}\right)+\ldots+c_{0}\left(a_{n-k}-a_{n-k}^{\mathrm{part}}\right) .
$$

Hence, $a_{n}^{\text {hom }}:=a_{n}-a_{n}^{\text {part }}$ satisfies the homogeneous recursion.
So, how does one find a particular solution to an inhomogeneous recursion? Loosely speaking, one tries with some expression of the same form as $f(n)$. However, if such expressions are already solutions to the homogeneous recursion, one must multiply the expression by a polynomial in $n$.

### 2.1 Example

We shall find the general solution to the recursion

$$
a_{n}=4 a_{n-1}-5 a_{n-2}+2 a_{n-3}+3^{n} .
$$

This is a linear inhomogeneous recursion of order 3 with constant coefficients. The inhomogeneous term is $f(n)=3^{n}$, so we guess that a particular solution of the form $a_{n}^{\text {part }}=A \cdot 3^{n}$ can be found. Plugging this into the recursion gives the equation

$$
A \cdot 3^{n}=4 A \cdot 3^{n-1}-5 A \cdot 3^{n-2}+2 A \cdot 3^{n-3}+3^{n} .
$$

We simplify by dividing by $3^{n-3}$ :

$$
27 A=36 A-15 A+2 A+27,
$$

which has the solution $A=\frac{27}{4}$. Hence a particular solution is $a_{n}^{\text {part }}=\frac{27}{4} 3^{n}$. The general solution to the corresponding homogeneous recursion was found, in the previous example, to be

$$
a_{n}^{\text {hom }}=A n+B+C \cdot 2^{n} .
$$

Hence, the general solution to the inhomogeneous recursion is

$$
a_{n}=a_{n}^{\mathrm{hom}}+a_{n}^{\mathrm{part}}=A n+B+C \cdot 2^{n}+\frac{27}{4} 3^{n} .
$$

### 2.2 Example

We shall find the general solution to the recursion

$$
a_{n}=4 a_{n-1}-5 a_{n-2}+2 a_{n-3}+6 .
$$

This is a linear inhomogeneous recursion of order 3 with constant coefficients. The inhomogeneous term is $f(n)=6$, a constant, so we would guess that a constant particular solution could be found. However, $r_{1}=1$ is a root of the characteristic equation so a constant $A$ is already a solution of the homogeneous recursion. Since $r_{1}=1$ has multiplicity 2 , also $A n$ is a solution of the homogeneous recursion. Hence, we guess a particular solution of the form $A n^{2}$. Plugging this into the recursion gives the equation

$$
A n^{2}=4 A(n-1)^{2}-5 A(n-2)^{2}+2 A(n-3)^{2}+7 .
$$

This equation simplifies to

$$
0=4 A-20 A+18 A+6,
$$

which has the solution $A=-3$. Hence a particular solution is $a_{n}^{\text {part }}=-3 n^{2}$, so the general solution to the inhomogeneous recursion is

$$
a_{n}=a_{n}^{\text {hom }}+a_{n}^{\text {part }}=A n+B+C \cdot 2^{n}-3 n^{2} .
$$

## 3 The Master Theorem

We now come to a result used in algorithm analysis. When analyzing algorithms that use decomposition, one usually gets recursions of the following form:

$$
T(n)=a T(n / b)+F(n), \quad T(1)=d .
$$

The term $a T(n / b)$ stands for the time of solving $a$ subproblems of size $n / b$, to which we add the time $F(n)$ needed to construct the solution to the original problem from the solutions to the subproblems. $T(1)=d$ is the constant time needed to solve a problem of size 1 . In computer science, one is interested only in how fast the time $T(n)$ grows and does not care about the explicit expression for $T(n)$. The desired result is called the Master Theorem:

Theorem 2 (Master Theorem) Suppose that $T(n)$ is given by the recursion $T(n)=a T(n / b)+$ $F(n)$ and $T(1)=d$.

1. If $F(n)$ grows slower than $n^{\log _{b} a}$ then $T(n) \in \Theta\left(n^{\log _{b} a}\right)$.
2. If $F(n) \in \Theta\left(n^{\log _{b} a}\right)$ then $T(n) \in \Theta\left(n^{\log _{b} a} \log n\right)$.
3. If $F(n)$ grows faster than $n^{\log _{b} a}$, then $T(n) \in \Theta(F(n))$.

### 3.1 Example

A version of the merge sort algorithm gives the following recursion:

$$
T(2 n)=2 T(n)+2 n-1, \quad T(2)=1
$$

Here we must apply the Master Theorem with parameters $a=2, b=2$ and $F(n) \in \Theta(n)$. We have $\log _{2} 2=1$, hence we are in case 2 . This tells us that

$$
T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)
$$

### 3.2 Sketch of proof

Assume that $n=b^{k}$, so that $k=\log _{b} n$. The recursion in the Master Theorem then takes the form

$$
T\left(b^{k}\right)=a T\left(b^{k-1}\right)+F\left(b^{k}\right)
$$

Now make the substitutions $t_{k}=T\left(b^{k}\right)$ and $f(k)=F\left(b^{k}\right)$. The recursion now takes the familiar form

$$
t_{k}=a t_{k-1}+f(k)
$$

The solution to the corresponding homogeneous recursion, $t_{k}=a t_{k-1}$, is $t_{k}^{\mathrm{hom}}=A a^{k}$, corresponding to the homogeneous solution $T^{\mathrm{hom}}(n)=A a^{\log _{b} n}=A n^{\log _{b} a}$ of the original recursion. We now have three cases depending on how the inhomogeneous term $F(n)$ relates to the homogeneous solution $T^{\mathrm{hom}}(n)=A n^{\log _{b} a}$.

1. If $F(n)$ grows slower than $n^{\log _{b} a}$, then the latter term will dominate, so that $T(n)$ grows as $n^{\log _{b} a}$.
2. If $F(n)$ grows equally fast as $n^{\log _{b} a}$, then we have asymptotically the situation

$$
T(n)=a T(n / b)+B n^{\log _{b} a}, \quad T(1)=d
$$

which after substitution reads

$$
t_{k}=a t_{k-1}+B a^{k}
$$

This is the case where the homogeneous solution has the same form as the inhomogeneous term, so that the particular solution will be of the form $C k a^{k}$. Substituting backwards, this means $C(\log n) n^{\log _{b} a}$.
3. If $F(n)$ grows faster than $n^{\log _{b} a}$, then $F(n)$ will dominate, so that $T(n)$ will grow as fast as $F(n)$.

## 4 Other recursions

For other recursions than linear recursions with constant coefficients, explicit solutions may be hard to come by. The method of generating functions is always worth trying, though. Briefly, this technique works as follows. Let

$$
A(x)=a_{0}+a_{1} x+a_{2} x^{2}+\ldots=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} x^{n}
$$

be the generating function of the sequence $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots$ If the recursion can be transformed into an equation for $A(x)$, then we can find the sequence by solving the equation for $A(x)$, and then expanding $A(x)$ into a power series.

### 4.1 Example

A simple example is the recursion $a_{n}=a_{n-1} / n$ for $n \geq 1$, and $a_{0}=2$. Multiplying by $x^{n}$ and summing over $n$ gives

$$
A(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} x^{n}=a_{0}+\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n-1} \frac{x^{n}}{n} .
$$

Taking the derivative on both sides yields

$$
A^{\prime}(x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n-1} x^{n-1}=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n} x^{n}=A(x) .
$$

Hence, we have obtained the first-order differential equation $A^{\prime}(x)=A(x)$ with the wellknown solution $A(x)=B e^{x}$. Maclaurin expansion of $e^{x}$ gives

$$
A(x)=B\left(1 / 0!+x / 1!+x^{2} / 2+x^{3} / 3!+\ldots\right)=\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B \frac{x^{n}}{n!},
$$

and the condition $a_{0}=2$ determines the value of $B$ to be 2 . Consequently, we have the solution $a_{n}=2 / n!$. Of course, this could also have been seen directly from the original recursion.

## 5 Exercises

1. Show that if two sequences $\left(a_{n}\right)$ and $\left(a_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ satisfy the same linear recursion, then so does $\left(A a_{n}+A^{\prime} a_{n}^{\prime}\right)$ for arbitrary constants $A$ and $A^{\prime}$.
2. Show that if $r$ is a root to the characteristic equation of a linear recursion with constant coefficients, then the sequence $a_{n}=r^{n}$, for $n=0,1,2, \ldots$, satisfies the recursion.
3. The same question for $a_{n}=n^{i} r^{n}$ if $r$ has multiplicity $m>i$.
4. Solve the recursion $a_{n}=3 a_{n-1}-2 a_{n-2}, a_{0}=0, a_{1}=1$.
5. Solve the recursion $a_{n}=3 a_{n-1}+3^{n}, a_{0}=1$.
6. Solve the recursion $a_{n}=2 a_{n-1}+4 a_{n-2}-8 a_{n-3}+1, a_{0}=a_{1}=a_{2}=0$.
7. Show that $a^{\log _{b} n}=n^{\log _{b} a}$.
8. A decomposition algorithm for multiplying two integers gives a recursion

$$
T(2 n)=3 T(n)+2 c n
$$

for the time $T(n)$ of multiplying two $n$-digit integers. (Here $c$ is some constant.) What is the growth rate of $T(n)$ ?

