

# Sections 3.2: Recurrence Relations

February 23, 2022

## Abstract

Recurrence relations are defined recursively, and solutions can sometimes be given in “closed-form” (that is, without recourse to the recursive definition). We will solve one type of linear recurrence relation to give a general closed-form solution, the solution being verified by induction.

We’ll be getting some practice with summation notation in this section. Have you seen it before?

## 1 Solving Recurrence Relations

### Vocabulary:

- **linear recurrence relation:**  $S(n)$  depends linearly on previous  $S(r)$ ,  $r < n$ :

$$S(n) = \overbrace{f_1(n)S(n-1)} + \cdots + \overbrace{f_k(n)S(n-k)} + \overbrace{g(n)}$$

That means no powers on  $S(r)$ , or any other functions operating on  $S(r)$ . The relation is called **homogeneous** if  $g(n) = 0$ . (Both Fibonacci and factorial are examples of homogeneous linear recurrence relations.)

Factorial

$$F(n) = n \cdot F(n-1)$$

- **first-order:**  $S(n)$  depends only on  $S(n-1)$ , and not previous terms. (Factorial is first-order, while Fibonacci is second-order, depending on the two previous terms.)

$$Fib(n) = Fib(n-1) + Fib(n-2)$$

- **constant coefficient:** In the linear recurrence relation, when the coefficients of previous terms are constants. (Fibonacci is constant coefficient; factorial is not.)

- **closed-form solution:**  $S(n)$  is given by a formula which is simply a function of  $n$ , rather than a recursive definition of itself. (Both Fibonacci and factorial have closed-form solutions.)

$$T(n) = c^{n-1} \cdot T(1) + \sum_{i=2}^n c^{n-i} g(i)$$

$$= 1 + \sum_{i=2}^n 3 = 1 + (n-1) \cdot 3 = 1 + 3n - 3 = 3n - 2$$

The author suggests an “expand, guess, verify” method for solving recurrence relations.

$$\sum_{i=2}^n 3 = 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 + 3 = 9 \cdot 3 = (10-1) \cdot 3$$

**Example:** The story of  $T$

$T(n) = 3n - 2$

(a) Practice 1, p. 159 (from the previous section):

$T(1) = 1$   
 $T(n) = T(n-1) + 3, \text{ for } n \geq 2$

1st order, constant coeff. non-homogeneous

- $T(1) = 1$
- $T(2) = 4$
- $T(3) = 7$
- $T(4) = 10$
- $T(5) = 13$
- $T(6) = 16$

(b) Practice 9, p. 168: Here is the recurrence relation for Example 11, p. 130, in lisp:

```
(defun Tee(n)
  (if (integerp n)
      (cond
        ((>= n 2)
         (+ (Tee (- n 1)) 3))
        ((= n 1)
         1)
        (t (error "Tilt! Only positive ints allowed in function tee...")))
      )
      (error "Tilt! Only positive integers allowed in function tee..."))
)
> (tee 2)
4
> (mapcar #'tee (iseq 1 10))
(1 4 7 10 13 16 19 22 25 28)
```

(c) Practice 11, p. 181: Find a closed-form solution for the recurrence relation for sequence T of part (a).



**Example:** general linear first-order recurrence relations with constant coefficients.

$S(1) = a$   
 $S(n) = cS(n-1) + g(n), n \in \{2, 3, 4, \dots\}$

$S(1) = a$   
 $S(2) = cS(1) + g(2) = c \cdot a + g(2)$

“Expand, guess, verify” (then prove by induction!):

$S(n) = c^{n-1}S(1) + \sum_{i=2}^n c^{n-i}g(i)$

$S(3) = cS(2) + g(3) = c(c \cdot a + g(2)) + g(3)$   
 $S(4) = cS(3) + g(4) = c(c(c \cdot a + g(2)) + g(3)) + g(4)$   
 $= c^3 \cdot a + c^2 g(2) + c g(3) + g(4)$

Now check that this formula works for  $T(n)$  from above.

$\sum$  - sum, running from  $i=2$  to  $i=n$

## 2 Counting Using Recurrence Relations

Algorithm *BinarySearch* (which is discussed in the previous section) is recursive: it calls itself. Starting from a list of length  $n$  it makes one comparison and then calls itself with a list of half its initial length. Hence the number of comparisons for the list of length  $n$ ,  $C(n)$ , would be (in the worst case)

$$C(n) = C(\text{floor}(n/2)) + 1 :$$

that is, you'd need to check the middle element, then do a binary search of the sorted list to the left or right, of half the length (or so) of the original list. For a list of length 1, we have our base case:  $C(1) = 1$ .

That floor function in the inductive step is a pain, but is necessary since  $n$  may be odd.

Forgetting the floor for the moment, use the "expand, guess, and verify" approach: in the worst-case scenario, the algorithm will find the element (or not) on its last check (when it's down to a list of length 1).

$$C(n) = C(n/2) + 1 = (C(n/4) + 1) + 1 = ((C(n/8) + 1) + 1) + 1 = \dots$$

Obviously this is only going to work easily (in the sense that  $C(n/8)$ , etc., make sense) if  $n$  is a power of 2. Assume therefore that  $n = 2^m$ , for integer  $m$ . This allows us to throw away the floor function, and makes all quotients reasonable.

Before we begin, can you guess how many comparisons we make in the worst case, for  $C(n)$ ?

Let's consider a change of variable. First of all, we replace  $n$  by  $2^m$ :

$$C(2^m) = C(2^m/2) + 1 = C(2^{m-1}) + 1.$$

Then we define  $T(m) = C(2^m)$  (think of  $T$  as a composition of functions,  $C(x)$  and  $2^x$ ); hence

$$T(m) = T(m-1) + 1$$

Note that  $T(0) = C(1) = 1$ . We can solve easily to get a closed-form solution:

$$T(m) = m + 1$$

Let's now re-express that in terms of  $C$  and  $n$ . Since  $n = 2^m$ , we can equally well write  $m = \log_2(n)$ . Hence,  $C(n) = C(2^m) = T(m) = m + 1 = \log_2(n) + 1$ . This compares quite favorably with the worst-case estimate from *SequentialSearch*, which would be  $n$  (linear in  $n$ ).

(For those of you who've forgotten, the log function grows much more slowly than a linear function does.)

Let's look at the general recurrence relation of the "divide and conquer" variety: given

$$\begin{aligned} S(1) &= a \\ S(n) &= cS(n/2) + g(n) \end{aligned}$$

$$S(5) = c^4 a + c^3 g(2) + c^2 g(3) + c g(4) + g(5)$$

Checked base cases.

Assume  $P(k)$ .

Consider the LHS of  $P(k+1)$ :

$$S(k+1) = cS(k) + g(k)$$

$$= c \left[ c^{k-1} a + \sum_{i=2}^k c^{k-i} g(i) \right]$$

$$+ g(k+1)$$

$$= c^k a + \sum_{i=2}^k c^{k+1-i} g(i) + g(k+1)$$

$$= c^{(k+1)-1} a + \sum_{i=2}^{k+1} c^{(k+1)-i} g(i)$$

RHS of  $P(k+1)$

Assume  $n = 2^m$  for some integer  $m$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} S(2^0) &= a \\ S(2^m) &= cS(2^{m-1}) + g(2^m) \end{aligned}$$

Now we perform the change of variables: let  $T(m) = S(2^m)$ , so that

$$\begin{aligned} T(0) &= a \\ T(m) &= cT(m-1) + g(2^m) \end{aligned}$$

Using formula (8), p. 183, we get

$$T(m) = c^{m-1}T(1) + \sum_{i=2}^m c^{m-i}g(2^i)$$

Then reindexing, since we start with 0 rather than 1, we get

$$T(m) = c^m T(0) + \sum_{i=1}^m c^{m-i} g(2^i)$$

Finally, substituting back in  $S$  and  $n$ , we get

$$S(n) = c^{\log_2 n} a + \sum_{i=1}^{\log_2 n} c^{\log_2 n - i} g(2^i)$$

Whew!

**Example: Exercise #46, p. 202 (using variable  $S$  rather than the  $T$  that they used)**

$$\begin{aligned} S(1) &= 3 \quad \leftarrow a = 3 \\ S(n) &= S\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n \quad \text{for } n \geq 2, n = 2^m \quad \leftarrow m = \log_2 n \end{aligned}$$

"Solve the recurrence relation subject to the base case."

$$c = 1 \quad g(n) = n$$

$$S(n) = 1^m \cdot 3 + \sum_{i=1}^m 1^{m-i} g(2^i)$$

$$= 3 + \sum_{i=1}^m 2^i$$

$$= 3 + (2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^m)$$

$$= 3 + 2 [1 + 2^1 + \dots + 2^{m-1}] = 3 + 2 \cdot \frac{2^m - 1}{2 - 1}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g(2^i) &= 2^i \\ &= \frac{1 + 2n}{\log_2 n} - 2 \\ &= 3 + 2 \cdot 2^{\log_2 n - 1} \\ &= 3 + 2(2^{m-1}) \end{aligned}$$