



## SC2001-Analysis-Techniques

Algorithm Design and Analysis (Nanyang Technological University)



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# 8. Analysis Techniques

## ▼ Review of Big Oh, Big Omega, Big Theta

Big Oh: Upper Bound, Growing at same or slower rate as  $g(n)$

- Worst Case

Big Theta: Tight bound, Neither faster nor slower than  $g(n)$ , Growing at same rate as  $g(n)$

- Using Big Theta is more accurate (provides more info)
- But it is hard to prove!

Big Omega: Lower Bound, Growing faster rate than  $g(n)$

- Best Case

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## ▼ Recursive Algorithms

Many problems have recursive solutions. To analyze such solutions, algorithms will involve a recurrence relation that needs to be solved.

### Example 1: Towers of Hanoi

Move all disks from first pole to third pole. Only one disk can be moved at a time and no disk is ever placed on top of a smaller one.

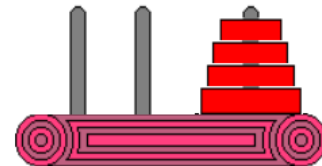
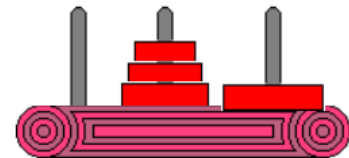
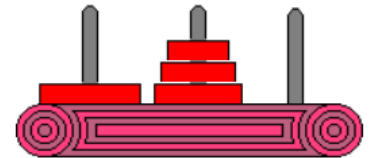
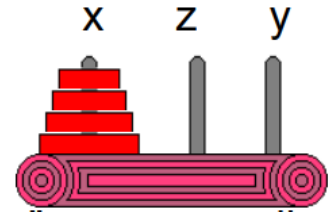
```

void TowersOfHanoi(int n, int x, int y, int z)
{ // Let M(n) be the total no. of disk moves
  if (n == 1)
    cout << "Move disk from " << x << " to " << y << endl;
    // this has one disk move
  else {
    TowersOfHanoi(n-1, x, z, y);
    // this involves M(n-1) disk moves

    cout << "Move disk from " << x << " to " << y << endl;
    // one disk move

    TowersOfHanoi(n-1, z, y, x);
    // another M(n-1) disk moves
  }
}

```



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Let  $M(n)$  = total no. of disk moves

- Base Case:  $M(1) = 1$
- $M(n) = M(n-1) + 1 + M(n-1) = 2M(n-1) + 1$

## Example 2: Merge sort

```

void mergesort(int l, int m)
{
    int mid = (l+m)/2;
    if (m-l > 1) {
        mergesort(l, mid);
        mergesort(mid+1, m);
    }
    merge(l, m);
}

```

Let  $M(n)$  = total no. of comparisons between array elements.  $n$  is a power of 2.

- Base Case:  $M(2) = 1$
- $M(n) = 2M(\frac{n}{2}) + n - 1$

### Solving Recurrences

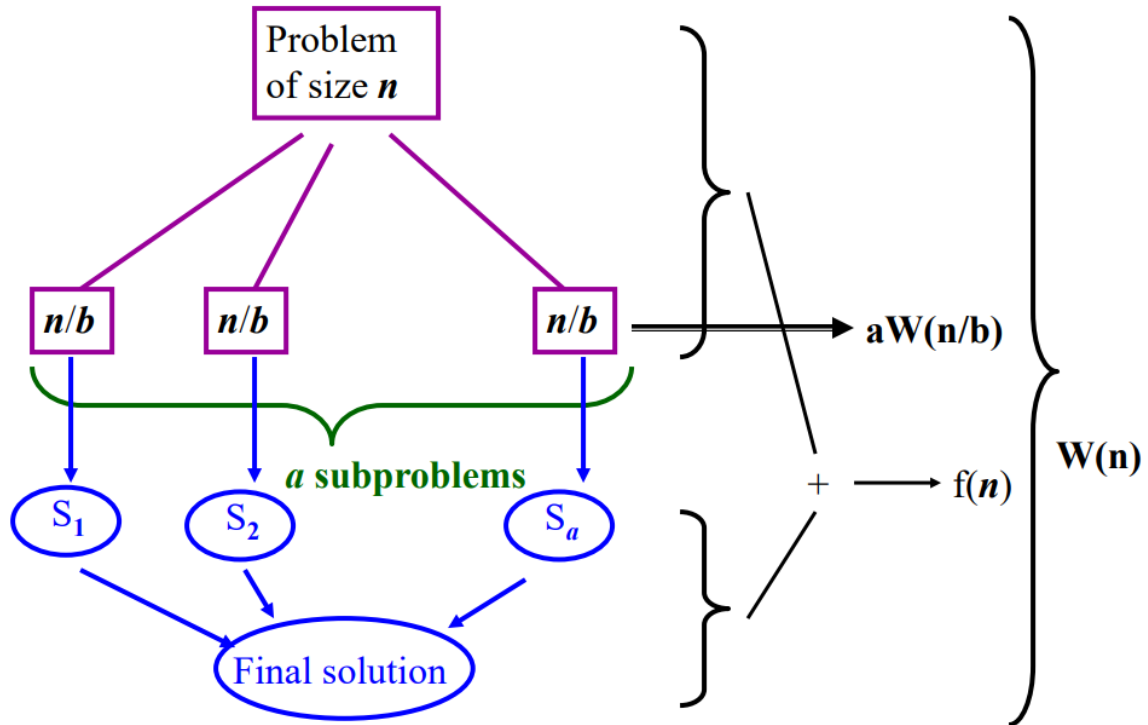
Given the recurrence form

$$W(n) = a \cdot W\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

where  $a \geq 1$  and  $b > 1$  are constants,  $f(n)$  is a function of  $n$ .

- Recurrence describes computational cost of a "divide-and-conquer" algorithm
- $f(n)$ : cost of dividing problem and combining results of subproblems
- Usually a problem of size  $n$  is divided into subproblems of sizes  $\frac{n}{b}$ 
  - This does not change asymptotic behaviour of recurrence

## Visualization of Recurrence Form



## Examples of Recurrences

$W(n) = 2W(n/2) + 2$	Finding the max and min from a sequence
$W(n) = W(n/2) + 2$	Binary search
$W(n) = 3W(n/2) + cn$	Multiplying two $2n$ -bits integers
$W(n) = 2W(n/2) + n - 1$	Merge sort
$W(n) = 7W(n/2) + 15n^2/4$	Multiplying two $n \times n$ matrices

There are 3 main methods used to solve recurrences

### Substitution Method

- A "guess and check" kind of strategy.
- Guess form of solution → use Mathematical Induction to prove
- Powerful method (Easier to prove that a certain bound is valid than to compute the bound)
- Only useful when easy to guess form of solution

### Mathematical Induction

If  $p(a)$  is true and for some integer  $k \geq a$ ,  $p(k+1)$  is true whenever  $p(k)$  is true, then  $p(n)$  is true for all  $n \geq a$ .

#### ▼ An example on Worst Case of Merge Sort, where $n = 2^k$

$$W(2) = 1$$

$$W(n) = 2W\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n - 1$$

$$\text{Guess } W(n) = O(f(n))$$

$$\text{First Guess: } W(n) = O(n^2)$$

Proof by mathematical induction that  $W(n) \leq cn^2$ :

(1) Base case:  $W(2) = 1 \leq 2^2$ ;

(2) Inductive step: assume that  $W(n) = O(n^2)$  for  $n \leq 2^k$ .

Now consider  $n = 2^{k+1}$

$$\begin{aligned} W(2^{k+1}) &= 2W(2^k) + 2^{k+1} - 1 \\ &\leq 2 * (2^k)^2 + 2^{k+1} - 1 \\ &= 2 * (2^k)^2 + 2 * 2^k - 1 \\ &\leq 4 * (2^k)^2 \\ &= (2^{k+1})^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e. } W(2^{k+1}) \leq (2^{k+1})^2$$

A lot is added  
from step 3 to  
step 4

Thus  $W(n) = O(n^2)$ . But is this the best guess?

Second Guess:  $W(n) = O(n)$ , i.e.  $W(n) \leq c \times n$

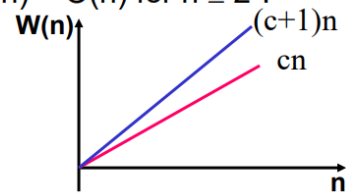
Proof by mathematical induction:

(1) Base case:  $W(2) = 1 \leq 2c$ ;

(2) Inductive step: assume that  $W(n) = O(n)$  for  $n \leq 2^k$ .

Now consider  $n = 2^{k+1}$

$$\begin{aligned} W(2^{k+1}) &= 2W(2^k) + 2^{k+1} - 1 \\ &\leq 2 * c * 2^k + 2^{k+1} - 1 \\ &= c * 2^{k+1} + 2^{k+1} - 1 \end{aligned}$$



Thus  $W(2^{k+1}) \leq (c+1) * 2^{k+1} - 1$  but we cannot say

$W(2^{k+1}) \leq c * 2^{k+1}$  (note:  $2^{k+1} - 1 > 0$  for all  $k \geq 0$ )

Thus  $W(n) \neq O(n)$ .

Third Guess:  $W(n) = O(n \lg n)$

Proof by mathematical induction:

(1) Base case:  $W(2) = 1 \leq 2 \lg 2$ ;

(2) Inductive step: assume that  $W(n) \leq n \lg n$  for  $n \leq 2^k$ .

Now consider  $n = 2^{k+1}$

$$\begin{aligned} W(2^{k+1}) &= 2W(2^k) + 2^{k+1} - 1 \\ &\leq 2 * k * 2^k + 2^{k+1} - 1 \\ &= k * 2^{k+1} + 2^{k+1} - 1 \\ &\leq (k + 1) * 2^{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $W(n) = O(n \lg n)$  is a very close upper bound.

What if the base condition does not hold?

Consider the recurrence ( $n = 2^k$ ) :

$$W(1) = 1$$

$$W(n) = 2 W(n/2) + n - 1$$

Prove that  $W(n) = O(n \lg n)$ :

- (1) Base case:  $W(1) = 1 > c \lg 1$ ;
- (2) Recall the big-O notation: for  $f(n) = O(g(n))$ , we need  $f(n) \leq c * g(n)$  for all  $n > n_0$ .
- (3) Thus to prove  $W(n) = O(n \lg n)$ , we may use another base case.
  - We have  $W(2) = 3 < c * 2 * \lg 2$  for any  $c > 1$ .
  - We can assume that  $W(n) \leq c n \lg n$  for  $n \leq 2^k$  then prove  $W(2^{k+1}) \leq c * (k+1) * 2^{k+1}$

Then  $W(n) = O(n \lg n)$ .

### What can we say about the general case of $n$ ?

The worst case for merge sort :

$$W(2) = 1$$

$$W(n) = W(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + W(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + n - 1$$

Proof<sup>+</sup>:

- (1)  $W(n)$  is a monotonically increasing function. So when  $n$  is not a power of 2, that is,  $2^k < n < 2^{k+1}$ , then  $W(2^k) \leq W(n) \leq W(2^{k+1})$ .
  - (2) We have proved that  $W(n) = O(n \lg n)$  for powers of 2, so,  $W(2^{k+1}) \leq c * (k+1) * 2^{k+1}$ .
  - (3) For any  $n < 2^{k+1}$  for some  $k$ ,  $W(n) \leq W(2^{k+1})$ . Therefore  $W(n) \leq c * (k+1) * 2^{k+1} < c * \lg(2n) * (2 * n) < 4c n \lg n$
- Therefore  $W(n) = O(n \lg n)$ .

$2^k < n$ , so  $2^{k+1} < 2n$  and  $k+1 < \lg(2n)$

### Iteration Method

- Idea is to expand the recurrence by iterating through
- Express it as a summation of terms depending only on  $n$  and the initial condition
- Techniques for evaluating summations can be used to provide bounds on solution
- Leads to lots of algebra



- Focus on how many times the recurrence needs to be iterated to reach boundary condition

▼ **Example on Iteration Method**

$$W(1) = 1, W(2) = 1, W(3) = 1,$$

$$W(n) = 3W\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor\right) + n$$

we expand (iterate) it:

$$\begin{aligned} W(n) &= 3W\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor\right) + n \\ &= 3\left(3W\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^2} \right\rfloor\right) + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor\right) + n \end{aligned}$$

$$= 3^2 W\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^2} \right\rfloor\right) + 3\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor + n$$

$$= 3^2\left(3W\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^3} \right\rfloor\right) + \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^2} \right\rfloor\right) + 3\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor + n$$

$$= 3^3 W\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^3} \right\rfloor\right) + 3^2\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^2} \right\rfloor + 3\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor + n$$

we need to iterate until we reach one of the boundary conditions, i.e  $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^i} \right\rfloor = 1, 2$  or  $3$ .

$$\text{E.g. } n=64, 4^3 \leq 64 < 4^4 \text{ and } \left\lfloor \frac{64}{4^3} \right\rfloor = 1;$$

$$n=255, 4^3 \leq 255 < 4^4 \text{ and } \left\lfloor \frac{255}{4^3} \right\rfloor = 3;$$

This means if  $4^i \leq n < 4^{i+1}$  then  $i = \lfloor \log_4 n \rfloor$ . So

$$\begin{aligned} W(n) &= 3^i W(a) + 3^{i-1} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^{i-1}} \right\rfloor + \dots + 3^2 \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4^2} \right\rfloor + 3 \left\lfloor \frac{n}{4} \right\rfloor + n \\ &\quad a = 1, 2 \text{ or } 3 \end{aligned}$$

$$W(n) = 3^i W(a) + 3^{i-1} \lfloor \frac{n}{4^{i-1}} \rfloor + \dots + 3^2 \lfloor \frac{n}{4^2} \rfloor + 3 \lfloor \frac{n}{4} \rfloor + n$$

$$\leq 3^{\log_4 n} W(a) + 3^{i-1} \frac{n}{4^{i-1}} + \dots + 3^2 \frac{n}{4^2} + 3 \frac{n}{4} + n$$

Let  $x = 3^{\log_4 n}$  then  
 $\log_4 x = \log_4 n \log_4 3$  then  
 $4^{\log_4 x} = 4^{\log_4 n \log_4 3}$  then  
 $x = n^{\log_4 3}$ , i.e.  $3^{\log_4 n} = n^{\log_4 3}$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^i = 4$$

$$W(n) \leq n^{\log_4 3} + n \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^i = O(n)$$

### Master Method

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

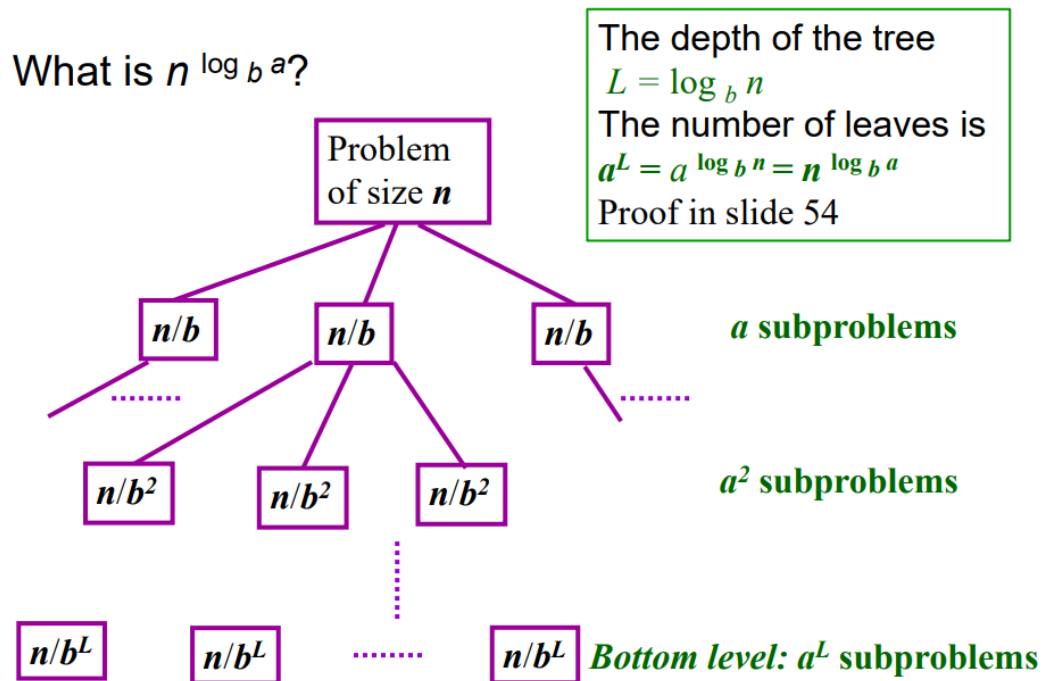
where  $a \geq 1$ ,  $b > 1$  and  $f(n) = \theta(n^k \log^p n)$ ,  $k \geq 0$

case 1: $\log_b a > k$	case 2: $\log_b a = k$	case 3: $\log_b a < k$
$T(n) = \theta(n^{\log_b a})$	(i) If $p > -1$ $T(n) = \theta(n^k \log^{p+1} n)$ (ii) If $p = -1$ $T(n) = \theta(n^k \log(\log n))$ (iii) If $p < -1$ $T(n) = \theta(n^k)$	(i) If $p \geq 0$ $T(n) = \theta(n^k \log^p n)$ (ii) If $p < 0$ $T(n) = \theta(n^k)$

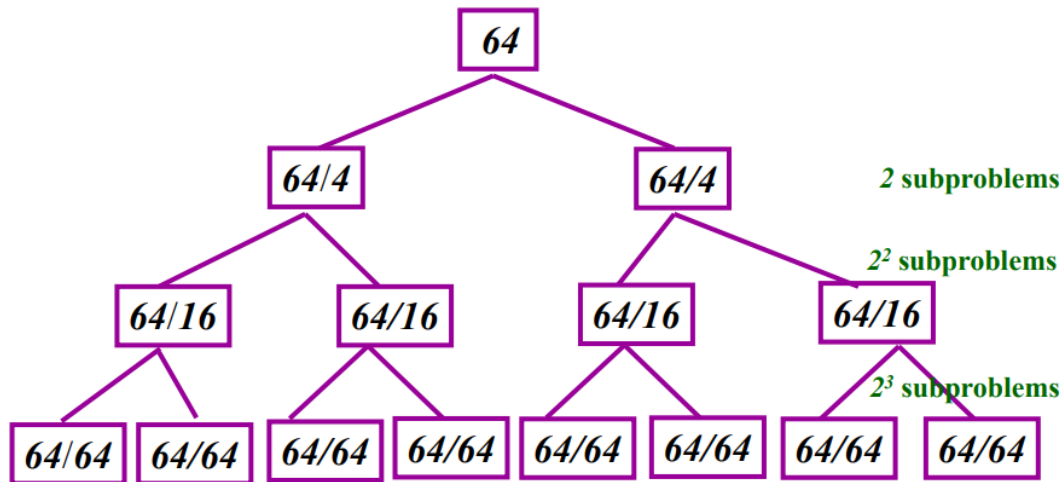
- Provides a "manual" for solving recurrences of the form  $W(n) = a \cdot W(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$  where  $a \geq 1$  and  $b > 1$  are constants
- We can determine the asymptotic tight bound in the following three cases

- If  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$  for some constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , then  $W(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- If  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$ , then  $W(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$
- If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$  for some constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , and if  $a \cdot f(\frac{n}{b}) \leq c \cdot f(n)$  for some constant  $c < 1$  and all sufficiently large  $n$ , then  $W(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

What is  $n^{\log_b a}$



E.g.  $n = 64$ ,  $a = 2$ ,  $b = 4$

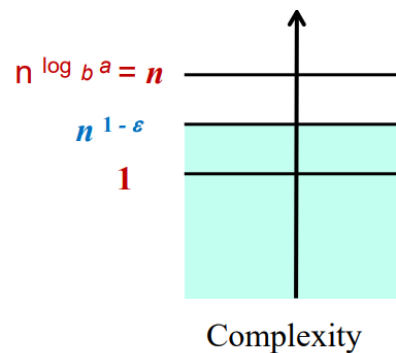


Depth of tree  $L = \log_4 64$ , Number of leaves  $= 8 = 2^{\log_4 64} = 64^{\log_4 2}$   
 $(a^{\log_b n} = n^{\log_b a})$

### ▼ Examples on Master Method

#### Examples

- 1)  $W(n) = 3W(n/3) + 2$ ,  
 so  $a = 3$ ,  $b = 3$ ,  
 $n^{\log_b a} = n^1$   
 $f(n) = 2 = \theta(1) = O(n^1)$



We may let  $\varepsilon = 0.5$  then we confirm  $2 = O(n^{1-0.5})$ ,

i.e.  $f(n) = O(n^{1-\varepsilon})$

$\Rightarrow f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$  (case 1)

thus  $W(n) = \theta(n^{\log_b a})$

$W(n) = \theta(n)$ .

$$2) \quad W(n) = 4W(n/4) + n - 1,$$

$$\text{so } a = 4, b = 4,$$

$$n^{\log_b a} = n^1$$

$$f(n) = n - 1$$

We have

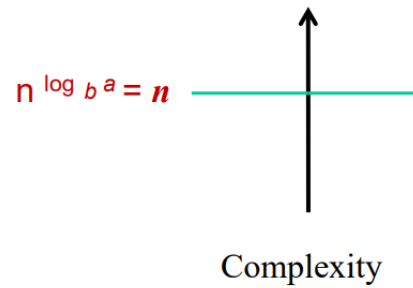
$$f(n) = n - 1$$

$$= \theta(n^1),$$

$$= \theta(n^{\log_b a}), \quad (\text{case 2})$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} W(n) &= \theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n) \\ &= \theta(n \log n) \end{aligned}$$



$$3) \quad W(n) = 2W(n/2) + n \lg n,$$

$$\text{so } a = 2, b = 2,$$

$$f(n) = n \lg n$$

$$n^{\log_b a} = n^1$$

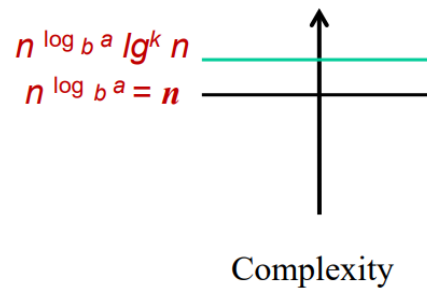
We have

$$f(n) = \theta(n^1 \lg n),$$

$$= \theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n), \quad (\text{case 2: } k = 1)$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} W(n) &= \theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^2 n) \\ &= \theta(n (\lg n)^2) \end{aligned}$$



## Examples

4)  $W(n) = 2W(n/4) + n$ ,

so  $a = 2$ ,  $b = 4$ ,

$$n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_4 2} = n^{0.5}$$

$$f(n) = n = \theta(n)$$

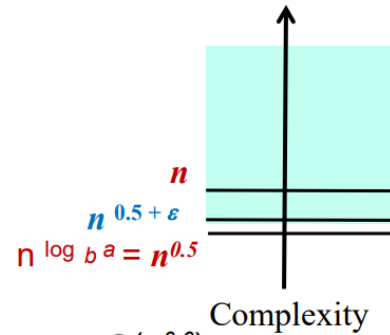
We may let  $\varepsilon = 0.1$  then we have  $n = \Omega(n^{0.6})$

i.e.  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ , and

for all sufficiently large  $n$ , we can find a value for  $c$ , say,  $c = 3/4$ , to show that  $a f(n/b) \leq c f(n)$ . (case 3)

$$a f(n/b) = 2 f(n/4) = n/2 \leq c n$$

$$\text{thus } W(n) = \theta(n).$$



There are times where Master Method cannot apply

Example 2:  $W(n) = W(n/3) + f(n)$

$$\text{where } f(n) = \begin{cases} 3n + 2^{3n} & \text{for } n = 2^i \\ 3n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

so  $a = 1$ ,  $b = 3$  then  $n^{\log_b a} = n^0$

let  $\varepsilon = 1$  then  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{0+1})$ , case 3?

$$a f(n/b) \leq c f(n) \text{ for all sufficiently large } n?$$

When  $n = 3 * 2^i$ ,  $a f(n/b) = f(2^i) = n + 2^n$ , but  $c f(n) = c(3n)$

i.e.  $a f(n/b) > c f(n)$ . E.g. for  $n = 6$  or greater

So the Master Theorem cannot apply.

Notice that when we want to find the order of a recurrence, the initial conditions are not important. This is because the running costs of the terminating conditions are small constants that do not affect the order.

## ▼ Iteration Method

1. Unfold/Expand the Recurrence Repeatedly
2. Look for a pattern
3. Generalize the pattern

### Example

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ob8SM0fz6p0>

## ▼ Recurrence Relations

Definition. A linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree  $k$  with constant coefficients is a recurrent relation of the form

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k}$$

where  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  are real constants and  $c_k \neq 0$ .

**Linear:**  $a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_{n-k}$  appear in separate terms and to the first power

**Homogeneous:** total degree of each term is the same, e.g. no constant term

**Constant coefficients:**  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  are fixed real constants that do not depend on  $n$

**Degree  $k$ :** the expression for  $a_n$  contains the previous  $k$  terms

$$a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_{n-k}, (c_k \neq 0)$$

- Examples

- A linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 2:  $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$
- A linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 1:  $a_n = 1.04a_{n-1}$
- A linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree 3:  $a_n = a_{n-3}$

- Non-examples

- $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + 1$ : non-homogeneous
- $a_n = a_{n-1}a_{n-2}$ : not linear
- $a_n = na_{n-1}$ : coefficient not constant

### Solving Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relation

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

#### Geometric Progression Method

Solve Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relation

Solve:  $a_0 = 1, a_n = 2a_{n-1}, n \geq 1$

$a_n = 2^n$

$a_0 = 1$   
 $a_1 = 2$   
 $a_2 = 4$   
 $a_3 = 8$   
 $a_4 = 16$

$2^1$   
 $2(2) = 2^2$   
 $2(2(2)) = 2^3$   
 $2(2(2)(2)) = 2^4$

$a_n = 2(a_{n-1})$   
 $a_n = 2(2(a_{n-2}))$   
 $a_n = 2(2(2(a_{n-3}))) = 2^3 a_{n-3}$   
 $\vdots$  n terms  
 $a_n = 2^n a_{n-n} = 2^n$   
 $a_n = 2^n$



## Solving Second-Order Linear Homogenous Recurrence Relations

- Write characteristic polynomial (Shift everything to the left, set equal to 0)
- Factor polynomial and find roots
- Determine the form of  $a_n$ 
  - Case 1: Real and distinct roots ( $r_1 \neq r_2$ ):  $a_n = A(r_1)^n + B(r_2)^n$
  - Case 2: Double (or triple, etc.) root ( $r_1 = r_2$ ):  $a_n = A(r_1)^n + Bn(r_2)^n$
  - Case 3: Complex roots ( $r_1 \neq r_2$ )
- Solve for coefficients

Example:  $a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}$ ,  $a_0 = 1$ ,  $a_1 = 1$

Solve the homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients

1. Write characteristic polynomial (Shift everything to the left, set equal to 0)

$$a_n - 5a_{n-1} + 6a_{n-2} = 0$$

- a. Replace all  $a_n$  with  $r^n$

$$r^n - 5r^{n-1} + 6r^{n-2} = 0$$

- b. Divide each term by the LEAST degree of  $r^n$  (in this case it is  $r^{n-2}$ )

$$r^2 - 5r + 6 = 0$$

2. Factor polynomial and find roots

$$(r - 3)(r - 2) = 0$$

3. Determine the form of  $a_n$

$$r = 2, r = 3 \text{ (Two distinct roots) (Form: } a_n = A(r_1)^n + B(r_2)^n)$$

$$a_n = A(2)^n + B(3)^n$$

4. Solve for coefficients (Where  $a_0 = 1, a_1 = 1$ )

$$n = 0, a_0 = A2^0 + B3^0, 1 = A + B$$

$$n = 1, a_1 = A2^1 + B3^1, 1 = 2A + 3B$$

Solve using substitution:  $A = 2, B = -1$

5. Sub  $A$  and  $B$  into  $a_n = A(2)^n + B(3)^n$

$$a_n = 2^{n+1} - 3^n$$

### Solving Second-Order Linear Homogenous Recurrence Relations

- Rewrite it so that it equals 0 (shift everything to the left)
- Replace any initial terms with  $r^m$
- Divide by the least degree of  $r^m$

Handwritten derivation of the characteristic equation for a recurrence relation. The steps shown are:

$$\frac{r^n}{r^{n-2}} = r^{n-(n-2)} = r^2 \quad a_n - 5a_{n-1} + 6a_{n-2} = 0$$
$$r^n - 5r^{n-1} + 6r^{n-2} = 0$$
$$r^{n-2}(r^2 - 5r + 6) = 0$$

Handwritten characteristic equation:

$$r^2 - 5r + 6 = 0$$

## Second-Order Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relations

Solve the linear homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}, \text{ where } a_0 = 1, a_1 = 1$$

2. Factor your characteristic polynomial. Then find the roots.

$$r^2 - 5r + 6 = 0$$

$$(r-2)(r-3) = 0$$

$$r = 2 \quad r = 3$$

$$r-2=0 \quad r-3=0$$

3. Determine the form of  $a_n$ .

Two real, distinct roots. Form:  $a_n = A(r_1)^n + B(r_2)^n$

$$a_n = A 2^n + B 3^n$$

## Second-Order Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relations

Solve the linear homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients:

$$a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}, \text{ where } a_0 = 1, a_1 = 1$$

4. Write and solve the system of equations using your initial values.

$$a_n = A 2^n + B 3^n$$

$$n=0 \quad a_0 = A \cdot 2^0 + B \cdot 3^0$$

$$n=1 \quad a_1 = A \cdot 2^1 + B \cdot 3^1$$

$$1 = A + B$$

$$1 = 2A + 3B$$

$$1 = A + (-1)$$

$$2 = A$$

$$(subst.) \quad A = 1 - B$$

$$1 = 2(1-B) + 3B$$

$$1 = 2 - 2B + 3B$$

$$-1 = B$$

$$\rightarrow a_n = 2 \cdot 2^n + (-1) 3^n$$

$$a_n = 2^{n+1} - 3^n$$

## General Case Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relations

We will use the same steps as we did for second-order recurrence relations for any higher-order recurrence relations:

1. Write the characteristic polynomial (polynomial set equal to zero)
2. Factor the polynomial and find the roots.
3. Determine the form of  $a_n$
4. Solve for the coefficients

### Characteristic Root Technique for Repeated Roots.

Suppose the recurrence relation  $a_n = \alpha a_{n-1} + \beta a_{n-2}$  has a characteristic polynomial with only one root  $r$ . Then the solution to the recurrence relation is

$$a_n = ar^n + bnr^n$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants determined by the initial conditions.

### Characteristic Roots.

#### Characteristic Roots.

Given a recurrence relation  $a_n + \alpha a_{n-1} + \beta a_{n-2} = 0$ , the **characteristic polynomial** is

$$x^2 + \alpha x + \beta$$

giving the **characteristic equation**:

$$x^2 + \alpha x + \beta = 0.$$

If  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are two distinct roots of the characteristic polynomial (i.e., solutions to the characteristic equation), then the solution to the recurrence relation is

$$a_n = ar_1^n + br_2^n,$$

where  $a$  and  $b$  are constants determined by the initial conditions.