COMBINATORICS AND PROBABILITY

PART II: RECURRENCES

Lecture notes, version 1.2 – Oct. 2023

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Contents

- 1 Recurrence equations
 - Homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-linear recurrences

2 Appendix: Jordan normal form

- 1 Recurrence equations
 - Homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-linear recurrences
- 2 Appendix: Jordan normal form

- 1 Recurrence equations
 - Homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-linear recurrences

2 Appendix: Jordan normal form

Linear recurrences with constant coefficients - Introductory example

Example 0 (introductory example): Suppose we have an alphabet Σ consisting of the letters A, B and C. We can construct strings or words with the letters of this alphabet, respecting a single rule: Any non-terminal A has to be immediately followed by a B. What is the number of distinct words of length n that can be constructed, for each $n \ge 0$?

Let us denote by a_n the number of words of length n. We can start by constructing all the admissible words for small values of n:

- For n = 0 there is a single word (the empty word). Hence $a_0 = 1$.
- For n = 1 we have the words A, B and C. Hence $a_1 = 3$.
- For n = 2 we have the words AB, BA, BB, BC, CA, CB and CC. Hence $a_2 = 7$.

Linear recurrences with constant coefficients - Example 0 (continued)

For larger values of *n* it becomes increasingly difficult to enumerate all the admissible words. However, we may reason as follows:

Suppose that n > 2. The initial letter of the word could be A, B or C. If we choose B or C, then the second letter can again be A, B or C. So, we are left with a string of length n-1 that has to follow the same rule.

On the other hand, if we choose A as the first letter, then the second letter must be a B, so we are left with a string of length n-2 that must obey the same rule as before. Considering the two options, we get the equation

$$a_n = 2a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$$
.

This is a **recurrence equation** with initial values $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = 3$.



Linear recurrences with constant coefficients

We define a *recurrence equation* (or simply, a recurrence) as an equation of the form

$$a_n = f(a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_{n-k}),$$

with some initial conditions $a_0 = b_0$, $a_1 = b_1$, ..., $a_{k-1} = b_{k-1}$, where $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_{k-1}$ are constant (in our setting we may assume that $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_{k-1} \in \mathbb{R}$).

A (homogeneous) linear recurrence with constant coefficients is an equation of the form

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

with the initial conditions $a_0 = b_0$, $a_1 = b_1$, ..., $a_{k-1} = b_{k-1}$, where the coefficients $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_{k-1}, c_1, c_2, \ldots c_k$ are real constants.

$$a_n = egin{cases} b & ext{if} & n=0 \ c & ext{if} & n=1 \ p & a_{n-1}+q & a_{n-2} & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 where $b,c,p,q\in\mathbb{R}$.

Now, we can represent the recurrence in matrix form:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

So we have:



$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^2 \begin{pmatrix} a_{n-1} \\ a_{n-2} \end{pmatrix} = \dots = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^k \begin{pmatrix} a_{n-(k-1)} \\ a_{n-k} \end{pmatrix}$$

For k = n we have:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} c \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

In order to compute the powers of the matrix we can try to diagonalize it. First we compute the eigenvalues by solving the equation:

$$\begin{vmatrix} p-x & q \\ 1 & -x \end{vmatrix} = x^2 - px - q = 0$$



whose solutions are

$$\lambda = rac{1}{2} \left(p + \sqrt{p^2 + 4q}
ight), \quad ext{ and } \quad \mu = rac{1}{2} \left(p - \sqrt{p^2 + 4q}
ight).$$

Let us assume that λ and μ are real and different, i.e. $\lambda > \mu$. Then $Q = S \cdot D \cdot S^{-1}$, where

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \mu & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}, \quad S = \begin{pmatrix} \mu & \lambda \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{ and } \quad S^{-1} = \frac{1}{\lambda - \mu} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \lambda \\ 1 & -\mu \end{pmatrix}.$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{pmatrix} p \ q \\ 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}^n = \begin{pmatrix} \mu & \lambda \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu^n \ 0 \\ 0 \ \lambda^n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & \lambda \\ 1 & -\mu \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\lambda - \mu}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} p \ q \\ 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}^n = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\lambda^{n+1} - \mu^{n+1}}{\lambda - \mu} & \frac{\lambda \mu^{n+1} - \mu \lambda^{n+1}}{\lambda - \mu} \\ \frac{\lambda^n - \mu^n}{\lambda - \mu} & \frac{\lambda \mu^n - \mu \lambda^n}{\lambda - \mu} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\lambda^{n+1} - \mu^{n+1}}{\lambda - \mu} & \frac{\lambda \mu^{n+1} - \mu \lambda^{n+1}}{\lambda - \mu} \\ \frac{\lambda^n - \mu^n}{\lambda - \mu} & \frac{\lambda \mu^n - \mu \lambda^n}{\lambda - \mu} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

Finally,

$$a_n = \frac{\lambda^n - \mu^n}{\lambda - \mu} c + \frac{\lambda \mu^n - \mu \lambda^n}{\lambda - \mu} b$$
$$= \alpha \lambda^n + \beta \mu^n.$$

for some constants α and β , which can be determined from the initial conditions.

Exercise: Determine α and β in general.

Second order recurrences – Binet's formula and Fibonacci numbers

In particular, if b = 0 and c = 1 we get Binet's formula:

$$a_n = \frac{\lambda^n - \mu^n}{\lambda - \mu}$$

Example 1 – Fibonnaci numbers: The Fibonacci numbers are given by the recurrence $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$, with $F_0 = 0$ and $F_1 = 1$. The characteristic equation $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$ has two distinct solutions, namely $\lambda = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sqrt{5})$ and $\mu = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \sqrt{5})$, hence by Binet's formula

$$F_n = \frac{\lambda^n - \mu^n}{\lambda - \mu} = \frac{\lambda^n - \mu^n}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Second order recurrences - Fibonacci numbers

Example 1 (Fibonnaci numbers, continued):

The dominant root $\lambda \approx$ 1.618 is usually denoted as φ , and it is known as the golden ratio, or the divine proportion, and it arises in many unexpected scenarios, not only in Mathematics, but also in nature and art.

The other root, $\mu \approx -0.618$, turns out to be $1 - \varphi = -\frac{1}{\varphi}$. Since $|\mu| < 1$

we have $\lim_{n\to\infty}\mu^n=0$. Therefore, F_n is the closest integer to $\frac{\varphi^n}{\sqrt{5}}$.

Note: Our derivation is also valid when λ and μ are complex conjugates. This case gives rise to periodic solutions.

Example 2: Let $a_n = -a_{n-2}$, with $a_0 = 0$ and $a_1 = 1$. The characteristic equation $x^2 + 1 = 0$ has roots $\pm i$. Then $a_n = \alpha i^n + \beta (-i)^n$ for some constants α and β . In order to find α and β we solve the linear system

$$a_0 = \alpha i^0 + \beta (-i)^0 = \alpha + \beta = 0$$

 $a_1 = \alpha i + \beta (-i) = \alpha i - \beta i = 1$,

which yields $\alpha = -\frac{1}{2}i$ and $\beta = \frac{1}{2}i$. Hence, $a_n = -\frac{1}{2}\left(i^{n+1} + (-i)^{n+1}\right)$.

Second order homogeneous linear recurrences – Example 2, continued

Example 2 (continued): By looking at some terms of the sequence we can conclude that

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 2k \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 4k + 1 \\ -1 & \text{if } n = 4k + 3, \end{cases}$$

with $k=0,1,2,\ldots$, which reveals the periodicity of the sequence. Alternatively, if we plot the points we can see that the ensuing graph has a **sinusoidal form**, and we can conclude that $a_n=\sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right)$.

We can also find this compact representation with the aid of the trigonometric form of complex numbers, as follows.



Second order homogeneous linear recurrences – Example 2, continued

Example 2 (continued): We have

$$a_{n} = -\frac{1}{2} \left(i^{n+1} + (-i)^{n+1} \right)$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \left[\cos \frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} + i \sin \frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} \right]$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} \left[\cos \left(-\frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} \right) + i \sin \left(-\frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} \left[\cos \frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} + i \sin \frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} \right]$$

$$-\frac{1}{2} \left[\cos \frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} - i \sin \frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} \right].$$

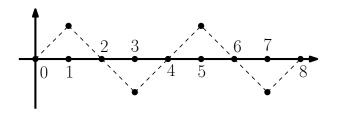
Second order homogeneous linear recurrences – Example 2, continued

Example 2 (continued): So,

$$a_n = -\cos\frac{(n+1)\pi}{2} = -\cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2}\right),$$

because

$$\cos\left(\alpha + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\sin\alpha.$$



Let us now suppose that the characteristic equation $x^2 - px - q = 0$ has a single root of multiplicity 2, i.e. $\lambda = \mu = \frac{p}{2}$. In that case the matrix

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} p & q \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p & -\frac{p^2}{4} \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

is not diagonalizable, but we can still find its Jordan decomposition: $Q = S \cdot J \cdot S^{-1}$, where

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix}, \quad S = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{ and } \quad S^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}.$$

(See Jordan decomposition)



Therefore,

$$\begin{pmatrix} p \ q \\ 1 \ 0 \end{pmatrix}^{n} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda^{n} & n \cdot \lambda^{n-1} \\ 0 & \lambda^{n} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda & n \\ 0 & \lambda \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda(n+1) & -\lambda^{2}n \\ n & \lambda(1-n) \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\lambda = \frac{p}{2}$

Hence,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} (n+1)\lambda^n & -n\lambda^{n+1} \\ n\lambda^{n-1} & (1-n)\lambda^n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ b \end{pmatrix},$$

so that

$$a_n = P_1(n)\lambda^n + P_2(n)\lambda^{n-1} = Q(n)\lambda^n,$$

where $P_1(n)$, $P_2(n)$ and Q(n) are polynomials of degree ≤ 1 in the indeterminate n, whose coefficients can be calculated from b and c. Note that some of these terms may vanish, so that the actual result may be simpler. For example, if b=0 and c=1 we get

$$a_n = n\lambda^{n-1}$$
.



Cassini's identity

The matrix representation of recurrence relations is useful for obtaining other identities, e.g. Cassini's identity of Fibonacci numbers. Recall that

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_n \\ F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}, \text{ hence}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} F_1 \\ F_0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Thus}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{n+1} & F_n \\ F_n & F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}^n$$

Taking determinants on both sides we get Cassini's identity:

$$F_{n+1}F_{n-1}-F_n^2=(-1)^n$$

Homogeneous linear recurrences of arbitrary order

More generally, the characteristic equation associated with the linear recurrence

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

is

$$z^{k} - c_{1}z^{k-1} - c_{2}z^{k-2} - \cdots - c_{k-1}z - c_{k} = 0$$

The most general case is

$$c_0 a_n + c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k} = 0$$

whose characteristic equation is

$$c_0 z^k + c_1 z^{k-1} + c_2 z^{k-2} + \cdots + c_k = 0.$$



Homogeneous linear recurrences of arbitrary order

Theorem (Lueker, 1980)

Let p(z) be the characteristic polynomial of the above equation, having roots r_1, \ldots, r_t , with respective multiplicities m_1, \ldots, m_t . Then, any solution of the general homogeneous recurrence is of the form

$$a_n = \sum_{i=1}^t \left(r_i^n \sum_{j=0}^{m_i-1} c_{ij} n^j \right),\,$$

where the c_{ii} are constants that can be determined from the initial conditions.

Example 3: 2nd order equation with double root

$$a_n = \begin{cases} b & \text{if } n = 0 \\ c & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 4 & a_{n-1} - 4 & a_{n-2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The characteristic equation $z^2 - 4z + 4 = 0$ has a single root z = 2 of multiplicity two. Then by the previous theorem, the general solution is of the form $a_n = (c_1n + c_2)2^n$. The solutions for some particular values of b and c are:

If
$$b = 0$$
, $c = 1$ we get: $a_n = \frac{1}{2}n2^n = n2^{n-1}$
If $b = 1$, $c = 0$ we get: $a_n = (1 - n)2^n$
If $b = 1$, $c = 1$ we get: $a_n = \frac{1}{2}(2 - n)2^n = (2 - n)2^{n-1}$

Go to Example 4



- 1 Recurrence equations
 - Homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-linear recurrences

2 Appendix: Jordan normal form

Non-homogeneous linear recurrences

A non-homogeneous linear recurrence with constant coefficients is an equation of the form

$$c_0a_n+c_1a_{n-1}+c_2a_{n-2}+\cdots+c_ka_{n-k}=f(n),$$

with the corresponding initial conditions $a_0 = b_0, a_1 = b_1, \ldots, a_{k-1} = b_{k-1}$, where the coefficients $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_{k-1}, c_0, c_1, c_2, \ldots c_k$ are real constants, and f(n) is a non-zero function of n.

Non-homogeneous linear recurrences

Any sequence a_n which satisfies the above non-homogeneous recurrence is called a *particular solution*. On the other hand, any sequence a_n which satisfies the corresponding homogeneous recurrence

$$c_0a_n+c_1a_{n-1}+c_2a_{n-2}+\cdots+c_ka_{n-k}=0.$$

is called a homogeneous solution

Theorem (Lueker, 1980)

If we start with any particular solution a_n and add any homogeneous solution we obtain another particular solution. Moreover the difference between any two particular solutions is always a homogeneous solution.

Let us again consider the non-homogeneous linear recurrence

$$c_0 a_n + c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k} = f(n),$$
 (1)

and its corresponding homogeneous recurrence

$$c_0a_n+c_1a_{n-1}+c_2a_{n-2}+\cdots+c_ka_{n-k}=0.$$
 (2)

Then we have



Theorem (Lueker, 1980, reformulated)

The general solution $\langle a_n \rangle$ of Equation (1) must have the form

$$a_n = h(n) + p(n),$$

where h(n) is the general solution of the homogeneous equation, i.e. Equation (2), and p(n) is a particular solution of Equation (1).

The particular solution p(n) can be found by judicious guessing, taking into account the form of the term f(n).



Case 1:

f(n) is a polynomial of degree t, i.e.

$$f(n) = b_t n^t + b_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + b_1 n + b_0$$

Try with

$$p(n) = c_t n^t + c_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + c_1 n + c_0,$$

where c_0, \ldots, c_t are constants to be determined.

Case 2.1:

 $f(n) = B\alpha^n$, where α is **not** a root of the characteristic polynomial of Equation (2). In this case we can try with $p(n) = C\alpha^n$, where C is a constant to be determined.

Case 2.2:

 $f(n) = B\alpha^n$, where α is a root of multiplicity m of the characteristic polynomial of Equation (2). In this case try with $p(n) = Cn^m \alpha^n$, where C is a constant to be determined.

Method of undetermined coefficients – Example 4

Example 4 – Sequel of Example 3 and Case 2.2:

Find the general solution of the recurrence

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \text{ or } n = 1 \\ 4 & a_{n-1} - 4 & a_{n-2} + 2^n \end{cases}$$
 otherwise

The characteristic equation is $z^2 - 4z + 4 = 0$, which has a single root z = 2 with multiplicity 2. In a previous example we saw that $h(n) = 2^n - n2^{n-1}$. Now, $p(n) = Cn^2 2^n$ for some constant C. In order to determine C we plug p(n) into the recurrence, simplify and solve for C. as follows:

Method of undetermined coefficients – Example 4

$$\begin{split} p(n) &= 4p(n-1) - 4p(n-2) + 2^n \\ Cn^22^n &= 4C(n-1)^22^{n-1} - 4C(n-2)^22^{n-2} + 2^n \\ 4Cn^22^{n-2} &= 8C(n^2 - 2n + 1)2^{n-2} - 4C(n^2 - 4n + 4)2^{n-2} + 4 \cdot 2^{n-2} \\ 8C2^{n-2} &= 42^{n-2} \\ \text{whence } C &= \frac{1}{2}. \end{split}$$

Thus,

$$a_n = h(n) + p(n) = 2^n - n2^{n-1} + n^22^{n-1}$$
.



Method of undetermined coefficients – Generalization of Case 2.2

Suppose that the particular solution that we want to try has the form $p(n) = p_1(n) + p_2(n) + \cdots + p_s(n)$, and suppose further that one of the terms, say $p_i(n)$, is already a solution of the associated homogeneous equation, i.e. Equation (2). In this case we have to multiply $p_i(n)$ by n^m , where m is the smallest integer such that $n^m p_i(n)$ is not a solution of Equation (2).

Note: If f(n) is not among the cases considered above, then the method of undetermined coefficients may not be applicable.

Method of undetermined coefficients – Principle of superposition

Principle of superposition:

If f(n) is the sum (or product) of the cases considered before, then try with a p(n) that is a sum (resp. product) of the corresponding candidate particular solutions.

Example 5: Let $f(n) = n^2 3^n$, i.e. the product of a second-degree polynomial and the exponential 3ⁿ (where 3 is not a solution of the characteristic equation). Then our candidate particular solution p(n)will have the form $(c_2 n^2 + c_1 n + c_0)3^n$.

General strategy for solving non-homogeneous linear recurrences

Apply transformations on both sides of the equation

$$c_0a_n + c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ka_{n-k} = f(n),$$

so that f(n) vanishes. Then solve the resulting homogeneous equation.

Example 6: Solve $a_n - 2a_{n-1} = 2^{n+1}$, with $a_0 = 2$. From the equation we can find that $a_1 = 8$. Now we can add

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

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

to get the homogeneous equation

$$a_n - 4a_{n-1} + 4a_{n-2} = 0.$$



Annihilators for various types of sequences

We define the operators $\mathbb{E}\langle a_n\rangle=\langle a_{n+1}\rangle$, and $c\langle a_n\rangle=\langle ca_n\rangle$, and we define addition and multiplication of operators as

$$(A+B)\langle a_n \rangle = A\langle a_n \rangle + B\langle a_n \rangle \ (AB)\langle a_n \rangle = A(B\langle a_n \rangle)$$

Then we have

Sequence	Annihilator
$\langle c \rangle$	$\mathbb{E}-1$
\langle poly. in <i>n</i> of degree <i>k</i> \rangle	$(\mathbb{E}-1)^{k+1}$
$\langle c^n \rangle$	$\mathbb{E}-c$
$\langle c^n \times \text{ poly. in } n \text{ of degree } k \rangle$	$(\mathbb{E}-c)^{k+1}$

Example 7: 2nd order non-homogeneous recurrence

$$a_n = \begin{cases} 5 & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 7 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 5 & a_{n-1} - 6 & a_{n-2} + 4 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The characteristic equation $z^2 - 5z + 6 = 0$ has roots z = 2 and z = 2. In the notation of annihilators the equation $a_n - 5a_{n-1} + 6a_{n-2} = 4$ can be written as

$$(\mathbb{E}^2 - 5\mathbb{E} + 6)\langle a_n \rangle = \langle 4 \rangle, \text{ or }$$

 $(\mathbb{E} - 2)(\mathbb{E} - 3)\langle a_n \rangle = \langle 4 \rangle$

Now we apply $(\mathbb{E} - 1)$ on both sides to annihilate the 4, and we get

$$(\mathbb{E}-1)(\mathbb{E}-2)(\mathbb{E}-3)\langle a_n\rangle=\langle 0\rangle.$$

The new homogeneous recurrence has solution $a_n = 2 + 4 \cdot 2^n - 3^n$.

- 1 Recurrence equations
 - Homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-homogeneous linear recurrences with constant coefficients
 - Non-linear recurrences

2 Appendix: Jordan normal form

Non-linear recurrences: range transformation

Example 8: Solve the equation $a_n = 3a_{n-1}^2$ with $a_0 = 1$. We can define the sequence $b_n = \log_2 a_n$, so that

$$b_n = 2b_{n-1} + \log_2 3,$$

 $b_0 = 0.$

The latter recurrence is linear; its solution is

$$b_n = (2^n - 1) \log_2 3$$
, whence $a_n = 2^{(2^n - 1) \log_2 3}$ $= \left(2^{\log_2 3}\right)^{2^n - 1} = 3^{2^n - 1}$

Non-linear recurrences: domain transformation

Example 9: Solve the equation

$$T_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ 2T_{\frac{n}{2}} + n - 1 & \text{for } n = 2^k, \ k \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

Here we may define $a_k = T_n = T_{2^k}$, so we get the recurrence

$$a_k = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = 0, \\ 2a_{k-1} + 2^k - 1 & \text{for } k \ge 1. \end{cases}$$

The latter is a linear recurrence whose solution is

$$a_k = (k-1)2^k + 1$$
, whence $T_n = (\log_2 n - 1)n + 1$



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- Recurrence equations
- 2 Appendix: Jordan normal form

Jordan normal form

A Jordan matrix is a block-diagonal matrix J of the form

$$J = egin{bmatrix} J_1 & & & & \ & \ddots & & \ & & J_p \end{bmatrix}$$

where each block J_i is associated with a particular eigenvalue λ_i , and has the form

$$J_i = egin{bmatrix} \lambda_i & 1 & & & & \ & \lambda_i & \ddots & & \ & & \ddots & 1 \ & & & \lambda_i \end{bmatrix}$$

Jordan normal form

Every square matrix M with real (or complex) coefficients is similar to a matrix J in Jordan form, i.e. there exists an invertible matrix S such that

$$M = S \cdot J \cdot S^{-1}$$

- The Jordan normal form of *M* is unique up to the reordering of the Jordan blocks.
- A diagonal matrix is a special case of the Jordan normal form. Note that the Jordan matrix is either diagonal or almost diagonal.
- If we know the Jordan form decomposition of a matrix M, it is now feasible to compute the powers of M, as well as other functions of M. In particular,

$$M^n = S \cdot J^n \cdot S^{-1}$$



Jordan normal form - Computing powers

Given a Jordan block B, associated with the eigenvalue λ , its n-th power can be calculated as follows:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda & \mathbf{1} & & \\ & \lambda & \ddots & \\ & & \ddots & \mathbf{1} \\ & & & \lambda \end{bmatrix}^n = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda^n \binom{n}{1} \lambda^{n-1} \binom{n}{2} \lambda^{n-2} \cdot \dots \cdot \binom{n}{k-1} \lambda^{n-k+1} \\ & \lambda^n & \binom{n}{1} \lambda^{n-1} \cdot \dots \cdot \binom{n}{k-2} \lambda^{n-k+2} \\ & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ & & & \lambda^n & \binom{n}{1} \lambda^{n-1} \\ & & & \lambda^n \end{bmatrix}$$

Now, the n-th power of the Jordan matrix J can be calculated blockwise.

Jordan normal form - Example

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -10 & 1 & 7 \\ -7 & 2 & 3 \\ -16 & 2 & 12 \end{pmatrix}}_{M} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}}_{S} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}}_{J} \cdot \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}}_{S^{-1}}$$

Now,

$$M^{n} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} (-2)^{n} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3^{n} & n \cdot 3^{n-1} \\ 0 & 0 & 3^{n} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ -3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Back to second-order linear recurrences.

