

2 . ASSUME $p(k) : 1.1! + 2.2! + 3.3! + \dots + k.k!$

$$= (k+1)! - 1 \text{ is true}$$

CLAIM : $p(k+1)$ is true.

$$P(k+1) = 1.1! + 2.2! + 3.3! + \dots + k.k! + (k+1)(k+1)!$$

$$= (k+1)! - 1 + (k+1)(k+1)!$$

$$= (k+1)! [(1+k+1)] - 1$$

$$= (k+1)! (k+2) - 1$$

$$= (k+2)! - 1$$

$$= [(k+1) + 1]! - 1$$

$P(k+1)$ is true.

BY THE PRINCIPLE OF MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION,

$$P(n) : 1.1! + 2.2! + 3.3! + \dots + n.n! = (n+1)! - 1, n \geq 1$$

EXAMPLE 3 : Use mathematical induction , prove that $\sum_{m=0}^n 3^m = \frac{(3^{n+1})-1}{2}$

SOLUTION:

$$\text{Let } p(n): 3^0 + 3^1 + \dots + 3^n = \frac{(3^{n+1})-1}{2}$$

$$1.p(0) : 3^0 = \frac{(3^{0+1})-1}{2} = \frac{2}{2} = 1 \text{ is true .}$$

2.ASSUME

$$P(k) : 3^0 + 3^1 + \dots + 3^k = \frac{(3^{k+1})-1}{2} \text{ is true.}$$

CLAIM : $p(k+1)$ is true.

$$P(k+1) : 3^0 + 3^1 + 3^2 + \dots + 3^k + 3^{k+1}$$

$$= \frac{(3^{k+1})-1}{2} + 3^{k+1} \quad \text{using (1)}$$

$$= \frac{(3^{k+1}) + 2 \cdot (3^{k+1}) - 1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{3(3^{k+1}) - 1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(3^{k+2}) - 1}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(3 \wedge (k+1) + 1) - 1}{2}$$

$P(k+1)$ is true.

By the principle of mathematical induction.

$$P(n): \sum_{m=0}^n 3^m = \frac{(3 \wedge n + 1) - 1}{2} \text{ is true for } n \geq 0$$

EXAMPLE 4 : Use mathematical induction , prove that $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} > \sqrt{n}$, $n \geq 2$

SOLUTION:

$$\text{Let } p(n): \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} > \sqrt{n} , n \geq 2$$

$$1. p(2): \text{that } \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = (1.707) > \sqrt{2} + (1.414) \text{ is true}$$

2. ASSUME

$$P(k): \text{that } \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} > \sqrt{k} \text{ is true } \rightarrow (1)$$

CLAIM : $p(k+1)$ is true.

$$P(k+1) : \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+1}}$$

$$\sqrt{k} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+1}} \quad \text{using (1)}$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{k} \sqrt{k+1} + 1}{\sqrt{k+1}}$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{k(k+1)} + 1}{\sqrt{k+1}}$$

$$> \frac{\sqrt{k \cdot k} + 1}{\sqrt{k+1}}$$

$$> \frac{k+1}{\sqrt{k+1}}$$

$$> \sqrt{k+1}$$

$$P(k+1) > \sqrt{k+1}$$

$P(K+1)$ is true

BY THE PRINCIPLE OF MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION.

$$\text{that } \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} + \dots + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} > \sqrt{n+1}$$

EXAMPLE 5: Using mathematical induction ,prove that $1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + \dots (2n-1)^2 = \frac{n(2n-1)(2n+1)}{3}$

SOLUTION :

$$\text{Let } p(n): 1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + \dots (2n-1)^2 = \frac{1}{3} n(2n-1)(2n+1)$$

$$1.p(1): 1^2 = \frac{1}{3} 1(2-1)(2+1) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 3$$

=1 is true.

2.ASSUME $p(k)$ is true.

$$1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + \dots (2k-1)^2 = \frac{1}{3} n(2k-1)(2k+1) \quad \rightarrow (1) \text{ is true.}$$

CLAIM : $p(k+1)$ is true.

$$\begin{aligned} P(k+1) &= \frac{1}{3} k(2k-1)(2k+1) + (2k+1)^2 && \text{using (1)} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (2k+1) [k(2k-1) + 3(2k+1)] \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (2k+1) (2k^2 + 5k + 3) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (2k+1)(2k+3)(k+1) \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (k+1) [2(k+1)-1][2(k+1)+1] \end{aligned}$$

$P(k+1)$ is true .

BY THE PRINCIPLE OF MATHEMATICAL INDUCTION,

$$P(n) = 1^2 + 3^2 + 5^2 + \dots (2n-1)^2 = \frac{n(2n-1)(2n+1)}{3}$$

EXAMPLE 6: Use mathematical induction to show that $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3. For $n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$

SOLUTION:

Let $p(n): n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3.

1. $p(1): 1^3 - 1$ is divisible by 3, is true.

2. ASSUME $p(k): k^3 - k$ is divisible by 3. $\rightarrow (1)$

CLAIM : $p(k+1)$ is true .

$$\begin{aligned} P(k+1): & (k+1)^3 - (k+1) \\ &= k^3 + 3k^2 + 3k + 1 - k - 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$= (k^3 - k) + 3(k^2 + k) \quad \rightarrow (2)$$

(1) $\Rightarrow k^3 - k$ is divisible by 3 and $3(k^2 + k)$ is divisible by 3, we have equation (2) is divisible by 3

Therefore $P(k+1)$ is true.

By the principle of mathematical induction, $n^3 - n$ is divisible by 3.

STUCOR APP

2.2 Strong Induction

There is another form of mathematics induction that is often useful in proofs. In this form we use the basis step as before, but we use a different inductive step. We assume that $p(j)$ is true for $j=1, \dots, k$ and show that $p(k+1)$ must also be true based on this assumption. This is called strong Induction (and sometimes also known as the second principles of mathematical induction).

We summarize the two steps used to show that $p(n)$ is true for all positive integers n .

Basis Step : The proposition $P(1)$ is shown to be true

Inductive Step: It is shown that

$$[P(1) \wedge P(2) \wedge \dots \wedge P(k)] \rightarrow P(k+1)$$

NOTE:

The two forms of mathematical induction are equivalent that is, each can be shown to be valid proof technique by assuming the other

EXAMPLE 1: Show that if n is an integer greater than 1, then n can be written as the product of primes.

SOLUTION:

Let $P(n)$ be the proposition that n can be written as the product of primes

Basis Step : $P(2)$ is true, since 2 can be written as the product of one prime

Inductive Step: Assume that $P(j)$ is positive for all integer j with $j \leq k$. To complete the Inductive Step, it must be shown that $P(k+1)$ is true under the assumption.

There are two cases to consider namely

- i) When $(k+1)$ is prime
- ii) When $(k+1)$ is composite

Case 1 : If $(k+1)$ is prime, we immediately see that $P(k+1)$ is true.

Case 2: If $(k+1)$ is composite

Then it can be written as the product of two positive integers a and b with $2 \leq a < b \leq k+1$. By the Induction hypothesis, both a and b can be written as the product of primes, namely those primes in the factorization of a and those in the factorization of b .

The Well-Ordering Property:

The validity of mathematical induction follows from the following fundamental axioms about the set of integers.

Every non-empty set of non negative integers has a least element.

The well-ordering property can often be used directly in the proof.

Problem :

What is wrong with this “Proof” by strong induction ?

Theorem :

For every non negative integer n , $5n = 0$

Proof:

Basis Step: $5 - 0 = 0$

Inductive Step: Suppose that $5j = 0$ for all non negative integers j with $0 \leq j \leq k$. Write $k+1 = i+j$ where i and j are natural numbers less than $k+1$. By the induction hypothesis

$$5(k+1) = 5(i+j) = 5i + 5j = 0 + 0 = 0$$

Example 1:

Among any group of 367 people, there must be atleast 2 with same birthday, because there are only 366 possible birthdays.

Example 2:

In any group of 27 English words, there must be at least two, that begins with the same letter, since there are only 26 letters in English alphabet

Example 3:

Show that among 100 people , at least 9 of them were born in the same month

Solution :

Here, No of Pigeon = m = No of People = 100

No of Holes = n = No of Month = 12

Then by generalized pigeon hole principle

$$\{[100-1]/12\}+1 = 9, \text{ were born in the same month}$$

Combinations:

Each of the difference groups of sections which can be made by taking some or all of a number of things at a time is called a combinations.

The number of combinations of 'n' things taken 'r' as a time means the number as groups of 'r' things which can be formed from the 'n' things.

It denoted by nCr .

The value of nCr :

Each combination consists /r/ difference things which can be arranged among themselves in $r!$ Ways. Hence the number of arrangement for all the combination is $nCr \times r!$. This is equal to the permutations of 'n' difference things taken 'r' as a time.

$$nCr \times r! = nPr$$

$$nCr = nPr / r! \text{ -----} \rightarrow (A)$$

$$= n(n-1), (n-2), \dots, (n-r+1) / 1, 2, 3, \dots, r$$

Cor 1 : $nPr = n! / (n-r)! \text{ -----} \rightarrow (B)$

Substituting (B) in (A) we get

$$nCr = n! / (n-r)!r!$$

Cor 2: To prove that $nCr = nCn-r$

Proof :

$$nCr = n! / r!(n-r)! \text{ -----} \rightarrow (1)$$

$$nCn-r = n! / (n-r)! [n-(n-r)]!$$

$$= n! / (n-r)! r! \text{ -----} \rightarrow (2)$$

From 1 and 2 we get

$${}^nC_r = {}^nC_{n-r}$$

Example :

$${}^{30}C_{28} = {}^{30}C_{30-28}$$

$$= {}^{30}C_2$$

$$= 30 \times 29 / 1 \times 2$$

Example 2:

In how many can 5 persons be selected from among 10 persons ?

Sol :

The selection can be done in ${}^{10}C_5$ ways.

$$= 10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7 \times 6 / 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5$$

$$= 9 \times 28 \text{ ways.}$$

Example 5 :

How many ways are there to form a committee, if it consists of 3 educationalists and 4 socialists if there are 9 educationalists and 11 socialists.

Sol : The 3 educationalists can be chosen from 9 educationalists in 9C_3 ways. The 4 socialists can be chosen from 11 socialists in ${}^{11}C_4$ ways.

\therefore By products rule, the number of ways to select the committee is

$$= {}^9C_3 \cdot {}^{11}C_4$$

$$= 9! / 3! 6! \cdot 11! / 4! 7!$$

$$= 84 \times 330$$

27720 ways.

Example 6 :

1. A team of 11 players is to be chosen from 15 members. In how ways can this be done if

- i. One particular player is always included.
- ii. Two such player have always to be included.

Sol : Let one player be fixed the remaining players are 14 . Out of these 14 players we have to select 10 players in ${}^{14}C_{10}$ ways.

$${}^{14}C_4 \text{ ways. [} \therefore nC_r = nC_{n-r} \text{]}$$

$$\rightarrow 14 \times 13 \times 12 \times 11 / 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4$$

$$\rightarrow 1001 \text{ ways.}$$

2. Let 2 players be fixed. The remaining players are 13. Out of these players we have to select a players in ${}^{13}C_9$ ways.

$${}^{13}C_4 \text{ ways [} \therefore nC_r = nC_{n-r} \text{]}$$

$$\rightarrow 13 \times 12 \times 11 \times 10 / 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \text{ ways}$$

$$\rightarrow 715 \text{ ways.}$$

Example 9 :

Find the value of 'r' if ${}^{20}C_r = {}^{20}C_{r-2}$

Sol : Given ${}^{20}C_r = {}^{20}C_{20-(r-2)} \rightarrow r=20-(r+2) \rightarrow (1)$

$$(1) \rightarrow r=20 - r - 2$$

$$2r = 18$$

$$r = 9$$

Example 12 :

From a committee consisting of 6 men and 7 women in how many ways can be select a committee of

- (1) 3 men and 4 women.
- (2) 4 members which has atleast one women.
- (3) 4 persons of both sexes.
- (4) 4 person in which Mr. And Mrs kannan is not included.

Sol :

(a) 3 men can be selected from 6 men is 6C_3 ways. 4 women can be selected from 7 women in 7C_4 ways.

\therefore By product rule the committee of 3 men and 4 women can be selected in

$$\begin{aligned} {}^6C_3 \times {}^7C_4 \text{ ways} &= \frac{6 \times 5 \times 4}{1 \times 2 \times 3} \times \frac{7 \times 6 \times 5 \times 4}{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4} \\ &= 700 \text{ ways.} \end{aligned}$$

(b) For the committee of atleast one women we have the following possibilities

1. 1 women and 3 men
2. 2 women and 2 men
3. 3 women and 1 men
4. 4 women and 0 men

There fore the selection can be done in

$$= {}^7C_1 \times {}^6C_3 + {}^7C_2 \times {}^6C_2 + {}^7C_3 \times {}^6C_1 + {}^7C_4 \times {}^6C_0 \text{ ways}$$

$$= 7 \times 20 + 21 \times 15 + 35 \times 6 + 35 \times 1$$

$$= 140 + 315 + 210 + 35$$

$$= 700 \text{ ways.}$$

(d) For the committee of both sexes we have the following possibilities .

1. 1 men and 3 women
2. 2 men and 2 women
3. 3 men and 1 women

Which can be done in

$$= {}^6C_1 \times {}^7C_3 + {}^6C_2 \times {}^7C_2 + {}^6C_3 \times {}^7C_1$$

$$= 6 \times 35 + 15 \times 21 + 20 \times 7$$

$$= 210 + 315 + 140$$

$$= 665 \text{ ways.}$$

Sol : (1) 4 balls of any colour can be chosen from 11 balls (6+5) in ${}^{11}C_4$ ways.

$$= 330 \text{ ways.}$$

(2) The 2 white balls can be chosen in 6C_2 ways. The 2 red balls can be chosen in 5C_2 ways. Number of ways selecting 4 balls 2 must be red.

$$= {}^6C_2 + {}^5C_2$$

$$= \frac{6 \times 5}{1 \times 2} + \frac{5 \times 4}{1 \times 2}$$

$$= 15 + 10$$

$$= 25 \text{ ways.}$$

Number of ways selecting 4 balls and all Of same colour is $= 6C_4 + 5C_4$

$$= 15 + 5$$

$$= 20 \text{ ways.}$$

Definition

A Linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree K with constant coefficients is a recurrence relation of the form

The recurrence relation in the definition is linear since the right hand side is the sum of multiples of the previous terms of sequence.

The recurrence relation is homogeneous, since no terms occur that are not multiples of the a_j 's.

The coefficients of the terms of the sequence are all constants, rather than function that depends on "n".

The degree is k because an is expressed in terms of the previous k terms of the sequence

Ex:4 The recurrence relation

$$H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$$

Is not homogenous

Ex: 5 The recurrence relation

$$B_n = nB_{n-1}$$

Does not have constant coefficient

Ex:6 The relation $T(k) = 2[T(k-1)]^2 K T(K-3)$

Is a third order recurrence relation &

$T(0), T(1), T(2)$ are the initial conditions.

Ex:7 The recurrence relation for the function

$f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ defined by

$f(x) = 2x, \forall x \in \mathbb{N}$ is given by

$f(n+1) = f(n) + 2, n \geq 0$ with $f(0) = 0$

$f(1) = f(0) + 2 = 0 + 2 = 2$

$f(2) = f(1) + 2 = 2 + 2 = 4$ and so on.

It is a first order recurrence relation.

2.3 Recurrence relations.

Definition

An equation that expresses a_n , the general term of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} , for all integers n with $n \geq 0$, where n_0 is a non -ve integer is called a recurrence relation for $\{a_n\}$ or a difference equation.

If the terms of a recurrence relation satisfies a recurrence relation, then the sequence is called a solution of the recurrence relation.

For example, we consider the famous Fibonacci sequence

$$0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \dots,$$

which can be represented by the recurrence relation.

$$F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}, n \geq 2$$

& $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1$. Here $F_0 = 0$ & $F_1 = 1$ are called initial conditions.

It is a second order recurrence relation.

2.4 Solving Linear Homogenous Recurrence Relations with Constants Coefficients.

Step 1: Write down the characteristics equation of the given recurrence relation. Here, the degree of character equation is 1 less than the number of terms in recurrence relations.

Step 2: By solving the characteristics equation first out the characteristics roots.

Step 3: Depends upon the nature of roots, find out the solution a_n as follows:

Case 1: Let the roots be real and distinct say $r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_n$ then

$$A_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n + \alpha_3 r_3^n + \dots + \alpha_n r_n^n,$$

Where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are arbitrary constants.

Case 2: Let the roots be real and equal say $r_1 = r_2 = r_3 = r_n$ then

$$A_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + n \alpha_2 r_2^n + n^2 \alpha_3 r_3^n + \dots + n^2 \alpha_n r_n^n,$$

Where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n$ are arbitrary constants.

Case 3: When the roots are complex conjugate, then

$$a_n = r^n (\alpha_1 \cos n\theta + \alpha_2 \sin n\theta)$$

Case 4: Apply initial conditions and find out arbitrary constants.

Note:

There is no single method or technique to solve all recurrence relations. There exist some recurrence relations which cannot be solved. The recurrence relation.

$$S(k) = 2[S(k-1)]^2 - kS(k-3) \text{ cannot be solved.}$$

Example 1: If sequence $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n, n \geq 1$, then find the recurrence relation.

Solution:

For $n \geq 1$

$$a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n,$$

$$\text{now, } a_{n-1} = 3 \cdot 2^{n-1},$$

$$= 3 \cdot 2^n / 2$$

$$a_{n-1} = a^n / 2$$

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

$$a_n = 2a_{n-1}, \text{ for } n \geq 1 \text{ with } a_1 = 3$$

Example 2 :

Find the recurrence relation for $S(n) = 6(-5)^n, n \geq 0$

Sol :

$$\text{Given } S(n) = 6(-5)^n$$

$$S(n-1) = 6(-5)^{n-1}$$

$$= 6(-5)^n / -5$$

$$S(n-1) = S(n) / -5$$

$$S_n = -5 \cdot S(n-1), n \geq 0 \text{ with } s(0) = 6$$

Example 5: Find the relation from $Y_k = A \cdot 2^k + B \cdot 3^k$

Sol :

$$\text{Given } Y_k = A \cdot 2^k + B \cdot 3^k \text{ -----} \rightarrow (1)$$

$$Y_{k+1} = A.2^{k+1} + B.3^{k+1}$$

$$= A.2^k . 2 + B.3^k . 3$$

$$Y_{k+1} = 2A.2^k + 3B.3^k \text{ -----} \rightarrow (2)$$

$$Y_{k+2} = 4A.2^k + 9B.3^k \text{ -----} \rightarrow (3)$$

$$(3) - 5(2) + 6(1)$$

$$\rightarrow Y_{k+2} - 5Y_{k+1} + 6Y_k = 4A.2^k + 9B.3^k - 10A.2^k - 15B.3^k + 6A.2^k + 6B.3^k$$

$$= 0$$

$\therefore Y_{k+2} - 5Y_{k+1} + 6Y_k = 0$ in the required recurrence relation.

Example 9 :

Solve the recurrence relation defined by $S_0 = 100$ and $S_k (1.08) S_{k-1}$ for $k \geq 1$

Sol ;

$$\text{Given } S_0 = 100$$

$$S_k = (1.08) S_{k-1}, k \geq 1$$

$$S_1 = (1.08) S_0 = (1.08)100$$

$$S_2 = (1.08) S_1 = (1.08)(1.08)100$$

$$= (1.08)^2 100$$

$$S_3 = (1.08) S_2 = (1.08)(1.08)^2 100$$

$$= (1.08)^3 100$$

$$S_k = (1.08) S_{k-1} = (1.08)^k 100$$

Example 15 : Find an explicit formula for the Fibonacci sequence .

Sol ;

Fibonacci sequence 0,1,2,3,4,..... satisfy the recurrence relation

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$

$$f_n - f_{n-1} - f_{n-2} = 0$$

& also satisfies the initial condition $f_0=0, f_1=1$

Now , the characteristic equation is

$$r^2 - r - 1 = 0$$

Solving we get $r = 1 \pm \sqrt{1+4} / 2$

$$= 1 \pm \sqrt{5} / 2$$

Sol :

$$f_n = \alpha_1 (1 + \sqrt{5} / 2)^n + \alpha_2 (1 - \sqrt{5} / 2)^n \rightarrow (A)$$

given $f_0 = 0$ put $n=0$ in (A) we get

$$f_0 = \alpha_1 (1 + \sqrt{5} / 2)^0 + \alpha_2 (1 - \sqrt{5} / 2)^0$$

$$(A) \rightarrow \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 0 \rightarrow (1)$$

given $f_1 = 1$ put $n=1$ in (A) we get

$$f_1 = \alpha_1 (1 + \sqrt{5} / 2)^1 + \alpha_2 (1 - \sqrt{5} / 2)^1$$

$$(A) \rightarrow (1 + \sqrt{5} / 2)^1 + \alpha_2 (1 - \sqrt{5} / 2)^1 = 1 \rightarrow (2)$$

To solve (1) and (2)

$$(1) \times (1 + 5/2) \Rightarrow (1 + 5/2) \alpha_1 + (1 + 5/2) \alpha_2 = 0 \rightarrow (3)$$

$$(1 + 5/2) \alpha_1 + (1 + 5/2) \alpha_2 = 1 \rightarrow (2)$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} (-) & (-) & (-) \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$1/2 \alpha_2 + 5/2 \alpha_2 - 1/2 \alpha_2 + 5/2 \alpha_2 = -1$$

$$2 \cdot 5 \alpha_2 = -1$$

$$\alpha_2 = -1/5$$

Put $\alpha_2 = -1/5$ in eqn (1) we get $\alpha_1 = 1/5$

Substituting these values in (A) we get

$$\text{Solution } f_n = 1/5 (1 + 5/2)^n - 1/5 (1 + 5/2)^n$$

Example 13 ;

Solve the recurrence equation

$$a_n = 2a_{n-1} - 2a_{n-2}, n \geq 2 \text{ \& } a_0 = 1 \text{ \& } a_1 = 2$$

Sol :

The recurrence relation can be written as

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

The characteristic equation is

$$r^2 - 2r - 2 = 0$$

Roots are $r = 2 \pm 2i / 2$

$$= 1 \pm i$$

LINEAR NON HOMOGENEOUS RECURRENCE RELATIONS WITH CONSTANT COEFFICIENTS

A recurrence relation of the form

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \dots + c_k a_{n-k} + F(n) \dots \dots \dots (A)$$

Where c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k are real numbers and $F(n)$ is a function not identically zero depending only on n , is called a non-homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficient.

Here, the recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \dots + c_k a_{n-k} + F(n) \dots \dots \dots (B)$$

Is called Associated homogeneous recurrence relation.

NOTE:

(B) is obtained from (A) by omitting $F(n)$ for example, the recurrence relation

$a_n = 3 a_{n-1} + 2n$ is an example of non-homogeneous recurrence relation. Its associated

Homogeneous linear equation is

$$a_n = 3 a_{n-1} \quad [\text{By omitting } F(n) = 2n]$$

PROCEDURE TO SOLVE NON-HOMOGENEOUS RECURRENCE RELATIONS:

The solution of non-homogeneous recurrence relations is the sum of two solutions.

1. solution of Associated homogeneous recurrence relation (By considering $RHS=0$).

2. Particular solution depending on the RHS of the given recurrence relation