

# Math 2603 - Lecture 10

## Section 5.2 & 5.3 Recursively defined sequences

Bo Lin

September 19th, 2019

# Problem-solving strategy: guess the answer, prove by induction

In many cases, we don't know the answer of a sum. However, if we figure it out, it is usually trivial to prove it by induction.

# Problem-solving strategy: guess the answer, prove by induction

In many cases, we don't know the answer of a sum. However, if we figure it out, it is usually trivial to prove it by induction.

## Example

Let  $n$  be a positive integer. For positive integer  $k$ ,  $k!$  is the factorial of  $k$ , which is  $\prod_{i=1}^k i$ . Evaluate the following sum:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (k \cdot k!).$$

## Problem-solving strategy: guess the answer, prove by induction

In many cases, we don't know the answer of a sum. However, if we figure it out, it is usually trivial to prove it by induction.

### Example

Let  $n$  be a positive integer. For positive integer  $k$ ,  $k!$  is the factorial of  $k$ , which is  $\prod_{i=1}^k i$ . Evaluate the following sum:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n (k \cdot k!).$$

### Hint

The first few terms in the sequence: 1, 4, 18, 96. And the corresponding sums for small  $n$ : 1, 5, 23, 119. Any pattern?

# Problem-solving strategy: guess the answer, prove by induction

## Solution

We claim that the sum is  $(n + 1)! - 1$ , and we use induction to prove it. When  $n = 1$ , the sum is 1 and  $(1 + 1)! - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1$ . As for the inductive step, suppose  $m$  is an arbitrary positive integer such that  $\sum_{k=1}^m k \cdot k! = (m + 1)! - 1$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{m+1} k \cdot k! &= \sum_{k=1}^m k \cdot k! + (m + 1) \cdot (m + 1)! \\ &= [(m + 1)! - 1] + (m + 1) \cdot (m + 1)! \\ &= (m + 2) \cdot (m + 1)! - 1 = (m + 2)! - 1. \end{aligned}$$

So the claim is still true when  $n = m + 1$ . We are done.

## Example: a flawed proof using induction

### Example

Here is a "proof" of the false statement "for all integers  $n \geq 1$ ,  $3^n - 2$  is even."

### Proof.

Suppose the statement is true for an arbitrary integer  $k \geq 1$ . Then  $3^k - 2$  is even. We must show that  $3^{k+1} - 2$  is even. But

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

Now  $3^k - 2$  is even by inductive hypothesis and  $2 \cdot 3^k$  is even by definition. Hence their sum is also even. It follows that  $3^{k+1} - 2$  is even, which is what we needed to show.  $\square$

What is the flaw?

# Induction makes no sense without basis step

## Solution

*All steps in the "proof" are correct, but it misses the basis step and in fact the basis step is apparently false.*

# Induction makes no sense without basis step

## Solution

*All steps in the "proof" are correct, but it misses the basis step and in fact the basis step is apparently false.*

## Remark

*Although the inductive step is usually the essential step in a proof by induction, please note that it is only an implication! So if the premise is false, it is an invalid argument and it is useless. As a result, it is vital to make sure that the basis step is done correctly.*



## Example: a hidden flaw

### Example

Here is a "proof" of the false statement "for all nonzero real numbers  $r$  and nonnegative integer  $n$ ,  $r^n = 1$ ."

### Proof.

Fix  $r$ , we use strong induction on  $n$ . Basis step: when  $n = 0$ , since  $r \neq 0$ ,  $r^0 = 1$  is true.

Inductive step: suppose  $k \geq 0$  is an arbitrary integer such that  $r^i = 1$  for all  $0 \leq i \leq k$ . Note that  $r^{k+1} = r^{k+k-(k-1)} = r^k \cdot r^k / r^{k-1}$ . By the inductive hypothesis,  $r^k = r^{k-1} = 1$ , so  $r^{k+1}$  is also 1. The inductive step is done.  $\square$

What is the flaw?

# Mind the range of numbers that the hypothesis applies to

## Solution

*The basis step is absolutely correct. In the inductive step, the formulas are correct. The flaw is that when  $k = 0$ ,  $k - 1 = -1$ , which is no longer between 0 and  $k$ ! So in this particular case we don't have  $r^{k-1} = 1$ !*

# Mind the range of numbers that the hypothesis applies to

## Solution

*The basis step is absolutely correct. In the inductive step, the formulas are correct. The flaw is that when  $k = 0$ ,  $k - 1 = -1$ , which is no longer between 0 and  $k$ ! So in this particular case we don't have  $r^{k-1} = 1$ !*

## Remark

*In this flawed proof, we can see that if we already have that the claim is true for  $k = 0, 1$ , then the proof works. But this is expected - when  $k = 1$ , the claim becomes  $r = 1$ , and if  $r = 1$ , the statement would be true. Otherwise, it's false.*

# Recursively defined sequences

# Sequences

## Definition

A **sequence**  $\{a_n\}$  is a function  $f$  whose domain is an infinite set of integers (often  $\mathbb{N}$ ) and whose range is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . For integer  $m$  in the domain, we usually write  $a_m$  for the value of  $f(m)$ .

# Sequences

## Definition

A **sequence**  $\{a_n\}$  is a function  $f$  whose domain is an infinite set of integers (often  $\mathbb{N}$ ) and whose range is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . For integer  $m$  in the domain, we usually write  $a_m$  for the value of  $f(m)$ .

## Example

$f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $f(n) = n^2$  is the sequence  $1, 4, 9, 16, \dots$ .

## Recurrence relation

### Definition

A **recurrence relation** for a sequence  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$  is a formula that relates each term  $a_k$  to certain of its predecessors  $a_{k-1}, a_{k-2}, \dots, a_{k-i}$ , where  $i$  is an integer such that  $k - i \geq 0$ . The initial conditions for such a recurrence relation specify the values of  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{m-1}$ , where  $m$  is  $i$  or some other positive integer. The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is also called **recursively defined**.

## Recurrence relation

### Definition

A **recurrence relation** for a sequence  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$  is a formula that relates each term  $a_k$  to certain of its predecessors  $a_{k-1}, a_{k-2}, \dots, a_{k-i}$ , where  $i$  is an integer such that  $k - i \geq 0$ . The initial conditions for such a recurrence relation specify the values of  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{m-1}$ , where  $m$  is  $i$  or some other positive integer. The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is also called **recursively defined**.

### Remark

$i$  is usually 1 or 2. The way we define a recurrence relation is very similar to the strong form of mathematical induction.



## Example of recurrence relation

### Example

*The sequence  $a_n = 2^n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  has an alternative description:*

## Example of recurrence relation

### Example

The sequence  $a_n = 2^n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  has an alternative description:

$$a_1 = 2, a_{k+1} = 2 \cdot a_k \forall k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

## Example of recurrence relation

### Example

*The sequence  $a_n = 2^n \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  has an alternative description:*

$$a_1 = 2, a_{k+1} = 2 \cdot a_k \forall k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

### Remark

*Given a recursively defined sequence, it may not be easy to find a direct formula for  $a_n$  with general  $n$ .*

# Some special sequences

## Examples of special sequences

- Arithmetic progression;
- Geometric progression;
- Fibonacci sequence.

# Arithmetic progressions

## Definition

An **arithmetic progression** is a sequence in which the difference of any two consecutive terms is a constant. In other words, it is a sequence of the form  $a, a + d, a + 2d, \dots$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  is called the **initial term** and  $d \in \mathbb{R}$  is called the **common difference**.

# Arithmetic progressions

## Definition

An **arithmetic progression** is a sequence in which the difference of any two consecutive terms is a constant. In other words, it is a sequence of the form  $a, a + d, a + 2d, \dots$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  is called the **initial term** and  $d \in \mathbb{R}$  is called the **common difference**.

## Remark

Alternatively, it is recursively defined as  $a_{n+1} = a_n + d$ . The common difference  $d$  may be zero.

## Example: sum of terms in an arithmetic progression

### Example

(1) Evaluate  $\sum_{k=1}^{100} k$ .

(2) Show that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  for all positive integers  $n$ .



## Example: sum of terms in an arithmetic progression

### Example

(1) Evaluate  $\sum_{k=1}^{100} k$ .

(2) Show that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  for all positive integers  $n$ .

### Solution

(1) We can pair up integers from 1 to 100:

$1 + 100 = 101, 2 + 99 = 101, \dots$ . There are  $100/2 = 50$  pairs in total, and the sum of each pair is 101, so the total sum is  $101 \cdot 50 = 5050$ .

## Example: sum of terms in an arithmetic progression

### Example

(1) Evaluate  $\sum_{k=1}^{100} k$ .

(2) Show that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  for all positive integers  $n$ .

### Solution

(1) We can pair up integers from 1 to 100:

$1 + 100 = 101, 2 + 99 = 101, \dots$ . There are  $100/2 = 50$  pairs in total, and the sum of each pair is 101, so the total sum is  $101 \cdot 50 = 5050$ .

### Remark

As a prodigy, German mathematician Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777-1855) managed to apply this method when he was a young boy.

## Example: sum of terms in an arithmetic progression

### Solution

(2) We use induction on  $n$ . When  $n = 1$ , the claim becomes  $1 = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2}$ , which is trivially true.

## Example: sum of terms in an arithmetic progression

### Solution

(2) We use induction on  $n$ . When  $n = 1$ , the claim becomes  $1 = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2}$ , which is trivially true. For the inductive step, suppose  $m$  is an arbitrary positive integer such that the claim is true when  $n = m$ , then  $\sum_{k=1}^m k = \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$ . Now we consider the case when  $n = m + 1$ .

## Example: sum of terms in an arithmetic progression

### Solution

(2) We use induction on  $n$ . When  $n = 1$ , the claim becomes  $1 = \frac{1 \cdot 2}{2}$ , which is trivially true. For the inductive step, suppose  $m$  is an arbitrary positive integer such that the claim is true when  $n = m$ , then  $\sum_{k=1}^m k = \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$ . Now we consider the case when  $n = m + 1$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^{m+1} k &= \sum_{k=1}^m k + (m+1) \\ &= \frac{m(m+1)}{2} + (m+1) = (m+1)\left(\frac{m}{2} + 1\right) = \frac{(m+1)(m+2)}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

So the claim is still true when  $n = m + 1$ .

## Sum of terms in general arithmetic progressions

### Theorem

For positive integer  $n$  and real number  $d$ , we have:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (a + kd) = na + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}d.$$

We can prove this theorem in both ways: pairs or induction.

## Geometric progressions

### Definition

An **geometric progression** is a sequence in which the ratio of any two consecutive terms is a constant. In other words, it is a sequence of the form  $a, ar, ar^2, \dots$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  is called the **initial term** and  $r \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  is called the **common ratio**.

## Geometric progressions

### Definition

An **geometric progression** is a sequence in which the ratio of any two consecutive terms is a constant. In other words, it is a sequence of the form  $a, ar, ar^2, \dots$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  is called the **initial term** and  $r \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\}$  is called the **common ratio**.

### Remark

Be careful that the common ratio cannot be zero! As a corollary, all terms in a geometric progression may not be zero.



## Sum of terms in general geometric progressions

### Theorem

For positive integer  $n$  and real number  $r \neq 0$ , we have:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} ar^k = \begin{cases} na, & \text{if } r = 1; \\ a \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1}, & \text{if } r \neq 1. \end{cases}$$

## Sum of terms in general geometric progressions

### Theorem

For positive integer  $n$  and real number  $r \neq 0$ , we have:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} ar^k = \begin{cases} na, & \text{if } r = 1; \\ a \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1}, & \text{if } r \neq 1. \end{cases}$$

### Proof.

The case when  $r = 1$  is simple:  $ar^k = a$  for all  $k$ , so the sum equals to  $na$ . Now we assume that  $r \neq 1$ . Let  $S$  be the sum. Then  $rS = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} ar^{k+1} = \sum_{k=1}^n ar^k$ . So

$$\begin{aligned} rS - S &= ar^n - a, \\ S &= a \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1}. \end{aligned}$$

## Example: sum of terms in a geometric progression

### Example

*Evaluate the following sum of terms in a geometric sequence:*

$$\sum_{k=0}^8 2^k.$$

## Example: sum of terms in a geometric progression

### Example

Evaluate the following sum of terms in a geometric sequence:

$$\sum_{k=0}^8 2^k.$$

### Solution

Here we have a geometric sequence with 9 terms. The initial term is  $2^0 = 1$  and the common ratio is 2. By the theorem, the answer is

$$a \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1} = 1 \cdot \frac{2^9 - 1}{2 - 1} = 512 - 1 = 511.$$

## Fibonacci sequence

Leonardo Fibonacci (1180-1228) was a prominent Italian mathematician. He considered the rapid reproduction of rabbit species and introduced the following sequence:

### Definition

The Fibonacci sequence  $F_n$  is defined as follows:

- $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1;$
- $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  for all integers  $n \geq 2$ .

The terms  $F_n$  are called **Fibonacci numbers**.

## Fibonacci sequence

Leonardo Fibonacci (1180-1228) was a prominent Italian mathematician. He considered the rapid reproduction of rabbit species and introduced the following sequence:

### Definition

*The Fibonacci sequence  $F_n$  is defined as follows:*

- $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1;$
- $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  for all integers  $n \geq 2$ .

*The terms  $F_n$  are called **Fibonacci numbers**.*

### Remark

*Fibonacci numbers have a lot of properties, and itself even became a small branch of mathematical research (there is even a research journal Fibonacci Quarterly).*

## How to find $F_n$

### Remark

*The first few terms of  $\{F_n\}$  are*

$$0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, \dots$$

## How to find $F_n$

### Remark

*The first few terms of  $\{F_n\}$  are*

$$0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, \dots$$

### Remark

*We can easily prove that  $\{F_n\}$  is increasing, but it is neither arithmetic nor geometric, so how to find a formula for  $F_n$ ?*



# The characteristic polynomial

## Example: first-order recurrence relation

### Definition

A recurrence relation is called **first order** if  $i = 1$ . In other words, the term  $a_k$  only depends on the value  $a_{k-1}$ .

## Example: first-order recurrence relation

### Definition

A recurrence relation is called **first order** if  $i = 1$ . In other words, the term  $a_k$  only depends on the value  $a_{k-1}$ .

### Example

Let  $a_1 = 1$  and  $a_{k+1} = 2a_k + 1$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Find the value of  $a_n$ .

## Solution to first-order: make it geometric!

### Remark

*The first few terms are 1, 3, 7, 15, 31,  $\dots$*

## Solution to first-order: make it geometric!

### Remark

*The first few terms are 1, 3, 7, 15, 31,  $\dots$ . Each term is approximately twice as the previous term. So our sequence seems not very far from a geometric progression with common ratio 2.*

## Solution to first-order: make it geometric!

### Remark

*The first few terms are 1, 3, 7, 15, 31, ... Each term is approximately twice as the previous term. So our sequence seems not very far from a geometric progression with common ratio 2.*

### Hint

*It would be perfect if we don't have the 1 in the recurrence relation. What if we shift all terms by the same number  $c$ ?*

$$a_{k+1} + c = 2(a_k + c).$$

## Solution to first-order: make it geometric!

### Remark

*The first few terms are 1, 3, 7, 15, 31,  $\dots$ . Each term is approximately twice as the previous term. So our sequence seems not very far from a geometric progression with common ratio 2.*

### Hint

*It would be perfect if we don't have the 1 in the recurrence relation. What if we shift all terms by the same number  $c$ ?*

$$a_{k+1} + c = 2(a_k + c).$$

*If this holds, then  $a_{k+1} = 2(a_k + c) - c = 2a_k + c$ , so  $c$  must be 1.*

## Solution to example

### Solution

Let  $b_n = a_n + 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $b_1 = 2$  and  $b_{k+1} = 2b_k$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .



## Solution to example

### Solution

Let  $b_n = a_n + 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $b_1 = 2$  and  $b_{k+1} = 2b_k$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . So  $\{b_n\}$  is a geometric progression with common ratio  $r = 2$ . Thus  $b_n = b_1 \cdot 2^{n-1} = 2^n$ . Finally

$$a_n = b_n - 1 = 2^n - 1.$$

## Solution to example

### Solution

Let  $b_n = a_n + 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $b_1 = 2$  and  $b_{k+1} = 2b_k$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . So  $\{b_n\}$  is a geometric progression with common ratio  $r = 2$ . Thus  $b_n = b_1 \cdot 2^{n-1} = 2^n$ . Finally

$$a_n = b_n - 1 = 2^n - 1.$$

### Remark

For first-order recurrence relations, we usually modify the sequence such that the new sequence is geometric and we can easily find. Then we recover the original sequence. This is a special case of the general method - characteristic polynomial.

## Solving Fibonacci sequence

### Remark

*Note that in  $\{F_n\}$ , the value of each term depends on previous 2 terms. So it is of **second-order**. Is it still possible that  $\{F_n\}$  is very similar to a geometric progression?*

## Solving Fibonacci sequence

### Remark

Note that in  $\{F_n\}$ , the value of each term depends on previous 2 terms. So it is of **second-order**. Is it still possible that  $\{F_n\}$  is very similar to a geometric progression?

### Hint

Suppose there is  $a, r \neq 0$  such that  $F_n = a \cdot r^n$ , then what property should  $a$  and  $r$  satisfy?

## Solving Fibonacci sequence

### Remark

Note that in  $\{F_n\}$ , the value of each term depends on previous 2 terms. So it is of **second-order**. Is it still possible that  $\{F_n\}$  is very similar to a geometric progression?

### Hint

Suppose there is  $a, r \neq 0$  such that  $F_n = a \cdot r^n$ , then what property should  $a$  and  $r$  satisfy?

$$a \cdot r^{n+2} = a \cdot r^{n+1} + a \cdot r^n.$$

## Solving Fibonacci sequence

### Remark

Note that in  $\{F_n\}$ , the value of each term depends on previous 2 terms. So it is of **second-order**. Is it still possible that  $\{F_n\}$  is very similar to a geometric progression?

### Hint

Suppose there is  $a, r \neq 0$  such that  $F_n = a \cdot r^n$ , then what property should  $a$  and  $r$  satisfy?

$$a \cdot r^{n+2} = a \cdot r^{n+1} + a \cdot r^n.$$

Divided by nonzero  $a \cdot r^n$ , we get

$$r^2 = r + 1.$$

## Solving Fibonacci sequence

Now we know that if a real number  $r$  satisfies  $r^2 = r + 1$ , then  $F_n = a \cdot r^n$  satisfies the recurrence relation, all we need to fix is the values of the initial terms.

## Solving Fibonacci sequence

Now we know that if a real number  $r$  satisfies  $r^2 = r + 1$ , then  $F_n = a \cdot r^n$  satisfies the recurrence relation, all we need to fix is the values of the initial terms.

The quadratic equation  $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$  has 2 real roots  $\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$ , and it turns out that the Fibonacci numbers are a linear combination of these two:



## Solving Fibonacci sequence

Now we know that if a real number  $r$  satisfies  $r^2 = r + 1$ , then  $F_n = a \cdot r^n$  satisfies the recurrence relation, all we need to fix is the values of the initial terms.

The quadratic equation  $x^2 - x - 1 = 0$  has 2 real roots  $\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}$ , and it turns out that the Fibonacci numbers are a linear combination of these two:

### Theorem

$$F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \left[ \left( \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n - \left( \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2} \right)^n \right] \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}, n \geq 0.$$

# The characteristic polynomial

## Definition

If the recurrence relation is  $a_{k+2} = ra_{k+1} + sa_k$  where  $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$ , its **characteristic polynomial** is  $x^2 - rx - s$ .

# The characteristic polynomial

## Definition

If the recurrence relation is  $a_{k+2} = ra_{k+1} + sa_k$  where  $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$ , its **characteristic polynomial** is  $x^2 - rx - s$ .

## Theorem

Let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be the roots of the polynomial  $x^2 - rx - s$ . Then the solution of the recurrence relation  $a_n = ra_{n-1} + sa_{n-2}, n \geq 2$  is

$$a_n = \begin{cases} c_1x_1^n + c_2x_2^n, & \text{if } x_1 \neq x_2; \\ c_1x^n + c_2nx^n, & \text{if } x_1 = x_2 = x. \end{cases}$$

## Example: second-order recurrence relation

### Example

Solve the recurrence relation  $a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$  and  $a_0 = -3, a_1 = -2$ .

## Example: second-order recurrence relation

### Example

Solve the recurrence relation  $a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$  and  $a_0 = -3, a_1 = -2$ .

### Hint

By the theorem above, we solve the characteristic polynomial and know the general form of solutions, with constants  $c_1, c_2$  to be determined.

## Example: second-order recurrence relation

### Example

Solve the recurrence relation  $a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$  and  $a_0 = -3, a_1 = -2$ .

### Hint

*By the theorem above, we solve the characteristic polynomial and know the general form of solutions, with constants  $c_1, c_2$  to be determined. The two initial terms would establish two linear equations for  $c_1, c_2$ , which leads to a unique solution. For more details, see Section 5.3 Exercise 25 in Homework.*

## Example: second-order recurrence relation

### Solution

*Here  $r = 5, s = -6$ . The characteristic polynomial is  $x^2 - 5x + 6 = (x - 2)(x - 3)$ . So the roots are 2 and 3.*

## Example: second-order recurrence relation

### Solution

Here  $r = 5, s = -6$ . The characteristic polynomial is  $x^2 - 5x + 6 = (x - 2)(x - 3)$ . So the roots are 2 and 3. We may write the solution as

$$a_n = c_1 2^n + c_2 3^n.$$



## Example: second-order recurrence relation

### Solution

Here  $r = 5, s = -6$ . The characteristic polynomial is  $x^2 - 5x + 6 = (x - 2)(x - 3)$ . So the roots are 2 and 3. We may write the solution as

$$a_n = c_1 2^n + c_2 3^n.$$

Note that this is also true when  $n = 0, 1$ . We then plug-in  $n = 0, 1$ :

$$-3 = a_0 = c_1 2^0 + c_2 3^0 = c_1 + c_2$$

$$-2 = a_1 = c_1 2^1 + c_2 3^1 = 2c_1 + 3c_2.$$

## Example: second-order recurrence relation

### Solution

Here  $r = 5, s = -6$ . The characteristic polynomial is  $x^2 - 5x + 6 = (x - 2)(x - 3)$ . So the roots are 2 and 3. We may write the solution as

$$a_n = c_1 2^n + c_2 3^n.$$

Note that this is also true when  $n = 0, 1$ . We then plug-in  $n = 0, 1$ :

$$-3 = a_0 = c_1 2^0 + c_2 3^0 = c_1 + c_2$$

$$-2 = a_1 = c_1 2^1 + c_2 3^1 = 2c_1 + 3c_2.$$

Finally, we solve for  $c_1, c_2$ .

$$c_2 = (2c_1 + 3c_2) - 2(c_1 + c_2) = -2 - 2 \cdot (-3) = 4. \text{ And}$$

$$c_1 = -3 - c_2 = -7. \text{ The solution is } a_n = (-7) \cdot 2^n + 4 \cdot 3^n.$$

## HW Assignment #5 - today's sections

Section 5.2 Exercise 5, 6, 33(c)(d),  
48, 51.

Section 5.3 Exercise 2, 11, 25.