Notes for Lecture 1

A crash course in linear algebra

Example 1. A typical 2×3 matrix is $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$.

It is composed of column vectors like $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$ and row vectors like $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Matrices (and vectors) of the same dimensions can be added and multiplied by a scalar:

For instance, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 5 \\ 6 & 8 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$ or $3\cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 & 9 \\ 12 & 15 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$.

Remark. More generally, a **vector space** is an abstraction of a collection of objects that can be added and scaled: numbers, lists of numbers (like the above row and column vectors), arrays of numbers (like the above matrices), arrows, functions, polynomials, differential operators, solutions to homogeneous linear differential equations, $\ldots$

Example 2. The **transpose** A^T of A is obtained by interchanging roles of rows and columns.

For instance. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

Example 3. Matrices of appropriate dimensions can also be **multiplied**.

This is based on the multiplication $\begin{bmatrix} a & b & c \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = ax + by + cz$ of row and column vectors.

For instance. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -3 \\ 7 & -5 \end{bmatrix}$

In general, we can multiply a $m\times n$ matrix A with a $n\times r$ matrix B to get a $m\times r$ matrix AB.

Its entry in row i and column j is defined to be $(AB)_{ij} = (\text{row } i \text{ of } A) \begin{bmatrix} \text{column} \\ j \\ \text{of } B \end{bmatrix}$.

Comment. One way to think about the multiplication $A\boldsymbol{x}$ is that the resulting vector is a linear combination of the columns of A with coefficients from $\boldsymbol{x}$. Similarly, we can think of $\boldsymbol{x}^T A$ as a combination of the rows of A.

Some nice properties of matrix multiplication are:

- There is an $n\times n$ identity matrix I (all entries are zero except the diagonal ones which are 1). It satisfies $AI = A$ and $IA = A$.
- The associative law $A(BC) = (AB)C$ holds. Hence, we can write ABC without ambiguity.
- The distributive laws including $A(B+C) = AB + AC$ hold.

Example 4. $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, so we have no commutative law.

Example 5. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

On the RHS we have the **identity matrix**, usually denoted I or I_2 (since it's the 2×2 identity matrix here).

Hence, the two matrices on the left are inverses of each other: $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

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The **inverse** A^{-1} of a matrix A is characterized by $A^{-1}A=I$ and $AA^{-1}=I$.

Example 6. The following formula immediately gives us the inverse of a 2×2 matrix (if it exists). It is worth remembering!

$$\boxed{\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad-bc}\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{provided that } ad-bc\neq 0}$$

Let's check that! $\frac{1}{ad-bc}\begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{ad-bc}\begin{bmatrix} ad-bc & 0 \\ 0 & -cb+ad \end{bmatrix} = I_2$

In particular, a 2×2 matrix $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$ is invertible $\iff ad-bc\neq 0$.

Recall that this is the **determinant**: $\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}\right) = ad-bc$.

$$\boxed{\det(A)=0 \quad\iff\quad A \text{ is not invertible}}$$

Example 7. The system $\begin{aligned} 7x_1-2x_2 &= 3 \\ 2x_1+x_2 &= 4 \end{aligned}$ is equivalent to $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Solve it.

Solution. Multiplying (from the left!) by $\begin{bmatrix} 7 & -2 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{11}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}$ produces $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{11}\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ -2 & 7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$, which gives the solution of the original equations.

Example 8. **(homework)** Solve the system $\begin{aligned} x_1+2x_2 &= 1 \\ 3x_1+4x_2 &= -1 \end{aligned}$ (using a matrix inverse).

Solution. The equations are equivalent to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Multiplying by $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = -\frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ produces $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Example 9. **(homework)** Solve the system $\begin{aligned} x_1+2x_2 &= 1 \\ 3x_1+4x_2 &= 2 \end{aligned}$ (using a matrix inverse).

Solution. The equations are equivalent to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Multiplying by $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = -\frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ produces $\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -3 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{2}\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Comment. In hindsight, can you see this solution by staring at the equations?

Comment. Note how we can reuse the matrix inverse from the previous example.

The **determinant** of A, written as $\det(A)$ or $|A|$, is a number with the property that:

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A)\neq 0 &\iff A \text{ is invertible} \\ &\iff A\boldsymbol{x}=\boldsymbol{b} \text{ has a (unique) solution } \boldsymbol{x} \text{ for all } \boldsymbol{b} \\ &\iff A\boldsymbol{x}=0 \text{ is only solved by } \boldsymbol{x}=0 \end{aligned}$$

Example 10. $\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}\right) = ad-bc$, which appeared in the formula for the inverse.

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Example 11. (review) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 14 \end{bmatrix}$ whereas $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$.

Review: Examples of differential equations we can solve

Let's start with one of the simplest (and most fundamental) differential equations (DE). It is **first-order** (only a first derivative) and **linear** with constant coefficients.

Example 12. Solve $y' = 3y$.

Solution. $y(x) = Ce^{3x}$

Check. Indeed, if $y(x) = Ce^{3x}$, then $y'(x) = 3Ce^{3x} = 3y(x)$.

Comment. Recall we can always easily check whether a function solves a differential equation. This means that (although you might be unfamiliar with the techniques for solving) you can use computer algebra systems like Sage to solve differential equations without trust issues.

To describe a unique solution, additional constraints need to be imposed.

Example 13. Solve the **initial value problem** (IVP) $y' = 3y$, $y(0) = 5$.

Solution. This has the unique solution $y(x) = 5e^{3x}$.

The following is a **nonlinear** differential equation. In general, such equations are much more complicated than linear ones. We can solve this particular one because it is **separable**.

Example 14. Solve $y' = xy^2$.

Solution. This DE is separable: $\frac{1}{y^2}\mathrm{d}y = x\,\mathrm{d}x$. Integrating, we find $-\frac{1}{y} = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + C$.

Hence, $y = -\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}x^2 + C} = \frac{2}{D - x^2}$.

[Here, $D = -2C$ but that relationship doesn't matter; it only matters that the solution has a free parameter.]

Note. Note that we did not find the solution $y = 0$ (lost when dividing by y^2). It is called a **singular solution** because it is not part of the **general solution** (the one-parameter family found above). [Although, we can obtain it from the general solution by letting $D \to \infty$.]

Check. Compute y' and verify that the DE is indeed satisfied.

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Review: Linear DEs

Linear DEs of order n are those that can be written in the form

$$y^{(n)} + P_{n-1}(x)\, y^{(n-1)} + \ldots + P_1(x) y' + P_0(x) y = f(x).$$

The corresponding **homogeneous linear DE** is the DE

$$y^{(n)} + P_{n-1}(x)\, y^{(n-1)} + \ldots + P_1(x) y' + P_0(x) y = 0,$$

and it plays an important role in solving the original linear DE.

Important. Note that a linear DE is **homogeneous** if and only if the zero function $y(x) = 0$ is a solution.

In terms of $D = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}$, the original DE becomes: $Ly = f(x)$ where L is the **differential operator**

$$L = D^n + P_{n-1}(x) D^{n-1} + \ldots + P_1(x) D + P_0(x).$$

The corresponding homogeneous linear DE is $Ly = 0$.

Linear DEs have a lot of structure that makes it possible to understand them more deeply. Most notably, their general solution always has the following structure:

(general solution of linear DEs) For a linear DE $Ly = f(x)$ of order n, the general solution always takes the form

$$y(x) = y_p(x) + C_1 y_1(x) + \ldots + C_n\, y_n(x),$$

where y_p is any single solution (called a **particular solution**) and $y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n$ are solutions to the corresponding **homogeneous** linear DE $Ly = 0$.

Comment. If the linear DE is already homogeneous, then the zero function $y(x) = 0$ is a solution and we can use $y_p = 0$. In that case, the general solution is of the form $y(x) = C_1 y_1 + C_2 y_2 + \cdots + C_n y_n$.

Why? The key to this is that the differential operator L is **linear**, meaning that, for any functions $f_1(x), f_2(x)$ and any constants c_1, c_2, we have

$$L(c_1 f_1(x) + c_2 f_2(x)) = c_1 L(f_1(x)) + c_2 L(f_2(x)).$$

If this is not clear, consider first a case like $L = D^n$ or work through the next example for the order 2 case.

Example 15. (extra) Suppose that $L = D^2 + P(x) D + Q(x)$. Verify that the operator L is linear.

Solution. We need to show that the operator L satisfies

$$L(c_1 f_1(x) + c_2 f_2(x)) = c_1 L(f_1(x)) + c_2 L(f_2(x))$$

for any functions $f_1(x), f_2(x)$ and any constants c_1, c_2. Indeed:

$$\begin{aligned} L(c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2) &= (c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2)'' + P(x)(c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2)' + Q(x)(c_1 f_1 + c_2 f_2) \\ &= c_1 \{ f_1'' + P(x) f_1' + Q(x) f_1 \} + c_2 \{ f_2'' + P(x) f_2' + Q(x) f_2 \} \\ &= c_1 \cdot L f_1 + c_2 \cdot L f_2 \end{aligned}$$

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Example 16. Consider the following DEs. If linear, write them in operator form as $Ly = f(x)$.

(a) $y'' = xy$

(b) $x^2 y'' + xy' = (x^2+4)y + x(x^2+3)$

(c) $y'' = y' + 2y + 2(1 - x - x^2)$

(d) $y'' = y' + 2y + 2(1 - x - y^2)$

Solution.

(a) This is a homogeneous linear DE: $\underbrace{(D^2 - x)}_{L}y = \underbrace{0}_{f(x)}$

Note. This is known as the Airy equation, which we will meet again later. The general solution is of the form $C_1 y_1(x) + C_2 y_2(x)$ for two special solutions y_1, y_2. [In the literature, one usually chooses functions called $\mathrm{Ai}(x)$ and $\mathrm{Bi}(x)$ as y_1 and y_2. See: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Airy_function]

(b) This is an inhomogeneous linear DE: $\underbrace{(x^2 D^2 + xD - (x^2+4))}_{L}y = \underbrace{x(x^2+3)}_{f(x)}$

Note. The corresponding homogeneous DE is an instance of the "modified Bessel equation" $x^2 y'' + xy' - (x^2 + \alpha^2)y = 0$, namely the case $\alpha = 2$. Because they are important for applications (but cannot be written in terms of familiar functions), people have introduced names for two special solutions of this differential equation: $I_\alpha(x)$ and $K_\alpha(x)$ (called modified Bessel functions of the first and second kind).

It follows that the general solution of the modified Bessel equation is $C_1 I_\alpha(x) + C_2 K_\alpha(x)$.

In our case. The general solution of the homogeneous DE (which is the modified Bessel equation with $\alpha = 2$) is $C_1 I_2(x) + C_2 K_2(x)$. On the other hand, we can (do it!) easily check (this is coming from nowhere at this point!) that $y_p = -x$ is a particular solution to the original inhomogeneous DE.

It follows that the general solution to the original DE is $C_1 I_2(x) + C_2 K_2(x) - x$.

(c) This is an inhomogeneous linear DE: $\underbrace{(D^2 - D - 2)}_{L}y = \underbrace{2(1 - x - x^2)}_{f(x)}$

Note. We will recall in Example 17 that the corresponding homogeneous DE $(D^2 - D - 2)y = 0$ has general solution $C_1 e^{2x} + C_2 e^{-x}$. On the other hand, we can check that $y_p = x^2$ is a particular solution of the original inhomogeneous DE. (Do you recall from DE1 how to find this particular solution?)

It follows that the general solution to the original DE is $x^2 + C_1 e^{2x} + C_2 e^{-x}$.

(d) This is not a linear DE because of the term y^2. It cannot be written in the form $Ly = f(x)$.

Homogeneous linear DEs with constant coefficients

Example 17. Find the general solution to $y'' - y' - 2y = 0$.

Solution. We recall from *Differential Equations I* that e^{rx} solves this DE for the right choice of r.
Plugging e^{rx} into the DE, we get $r^2 e^{rx} - r e^{rx} - 2e^{rx} = 0$.
Equivalently, $r^2 - r - 2 = 0$. This is called the **characteristic equation**. Its solutions are $r = 2, -1$.
This means we found the two solutions $y_1 = e^{2x}$, $y_2 = e^{-x}$.
Since this a homogeneous linear DE, the general solution is $y = C_1 e^{2x} + C_2 e^{-x}$.

Solution. (operators) $y'' - y' - 2y = 0$ is equivalent to $(D^2 - D - 2)y = 0$.
Note that $D^2 - D - 2 = (D-2)(D+1)$ is the **characteristic polynomial**.
It follows that we get solutions to $(D-2)(D+1)y = 0$ from $(D-2)y = 0$ and $(D+1)y = 0$.
$(D-2)y = 0$ is solved by $y_1 = e^{2x}$, and $(D+1)y = 0$ is solved by $y_2 = e^{-x}$; as in the previous solution.

Example 18. Solve $y'' - y' - 2y = 0$ with initial conditions $y(0) = 4$, $y'(0) = 5$.

Solution. From the previous example, we know that $y(x) = C_1 e^{2x} + C_2 e^{-x}$.
To match the initial conditions, we need to solve $C_1 + C_2 = 4$, $2C_1 - C_2 = 5$. We find $C_1 = 3$, $C_2 = 1$.
Hence the solution is $y(x) = 3e^{2x} + e^{-x}$.

Set $D = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}$. Every **homogeneous linear DE with constant coefficients** can be written as $p(D)y = 0$, where $p(D)$ is a polynomial in D, called the **characteristic polynomial**.

For instance. $y'' - y' - 2y = 0$ is equivalent to $Ly = 0$ with $L = D^2 - D - 2$.

Example 19. Find the general solution of $y''' + 7y'' + 14y' + 8y = 0$.

Solution. This DE is of the form $p(D)\,y = 0$ with characteristic polynomial $p(D) = D^3 + 7D^2 + 14D + 8$.
The characteristic polynomial factors as $p(D) = (D+1)(D+2)(D+4)$. (Don't worry! You won't be asked to factor cubic polynomials by hand.)
Hence, by the same argument as in Example 17, we find the solutions $y_1 = e^{-x}$, $y_2 = e^{-2x}$, $y_3 = e^{-4x}$. That's enough (independent!) solutions for a third-order DE.
The general solution therefore is $y(x) = C_1\, e^{-x} + C_2\, e^{-2x} + C_3\, e^{-4x}$.

This approach applies to any homogeneous linear DE with constant coefficients!

One issue is that roots might be repeated. In that case, we are currently missing solutions. The following result provides the missing solutions.

Theorem 20. Consider the homogeneous linear DE with constant coefficients $p(D)y = 0$.

- If r is a root of the characteristic polynomial and if k is its multiplicity, then k (independent) solutions of the DE are given by $x^j e^{rx}$ for $j = 0, 1, \ldots, k-1$.
- Combining these solutions for all roots, gives the general solution.

This is because the order of the DE equals the degree of $p(D)$, and a polynomial of degree n has (counting with multiplicity) exactly n (possibly **complex**) roots.

In the complex case. If $r = a \pm bi$ are roots of the characteristic polynomial and if k is its multiplicity, then $2k$ (independent) **real solutions** of the DE are given by $x^j e^{ax}\cos(bx)$ and $x^j e^{ax}\sin(bx)$ for $j = 0, 1, \ldots, k-1$.

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Proof. Let r be a root of the characteristic polynomial of multiplicity k. Then $p(D) = q(D)\,(D-r)^k$.

We need to find k solutions to the simpler DE $(D-r)^k y = 0$.

It is natural to look for solutions of the form $y = c(x)e^{rx}$.

[We know that $c(x) = 1$ provides a solution. Note that this is the same idea as for variation of constants.]

Note that $(D-r)[c(x)e^{rx}] = (c'(x)e^{rx} + c(x)r e^{rx}) - r c(x)e^{rx} = c'(x)e^{rx}$.

Repeating, we get $(D-r)^2[c(x)e^{rx}] = (D-r)[c'(x)e^{rx}] = c''(x)e^{rx}$ and, eventually, $(D-r)^k[c(x)e^{rx}] = c^{(k)}(x)e^{rx}$.

In particular, $(D-r)^k y = 0$ is solved by $y = c(x)e^{rx}$ if and only if $c^{(k)}(x) = 0$.

The DE $c^{(k)}(x) = 0$ is clearly solved by x^j for $j = 0, 1, \ldots, k-1$, and it follows that $x^j e^{rx}$ solves the original DE. □

Example 21. Find the general solution of $y''' = 0$.

Solution. We know from Calculus that the general solution is $y(x) = C_1 + C_2\,x + C_3\,x^2$.

Solution. The characteristic polynomial $p(D) = D^3$ has roots $0, 0, 0$. By Theorem 20, we have the solutions $y(x) = x^j\,e^{0x} = x^j$ for $j = 0, 1, 2$, so that the general solution is $y(x) = C_1 + C_2\,x + C_3\,x^2$.

Example 22. Find the general solution of $y''' - y'' - 5y' - 3y = 0$.

Solution. The characteristic polynomial $p(D) = D^3 - D^2 - 5D - 3 = (D-3)(D+1)^2$ has roots $3, -1, -1$.

By Theorem 20, the general solution is $y(x) = C_1 e^{3x} + (C_2 + C_3 x)e^{-x}$.

Example 23. Find the general solution of $y'' + y = 0$.

Solution. The characteristic polynomials is $p(D) = D^2 + 1 = 0$ which has no solutions over the reals.

Over the **complex numbers**, by definition, the roots are i and $-i$.

So the general solution is $y(x) = C_1\,e^{ix} + C_2\,e^{-ix}$.

Solution. On the other hand, we easily check that $y_1 = \cos(x)$ and $y_2 = \sin(x)$ are two solutions.

Hence, the general solution can also be written as $y(x) = D_1 \cos(x) + D_2 \sin(x)$.

Important comment. That we have these two different representations is a consequence of **Euler's identity**

$$e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i\sin(x).$$

Note that $e^{-ix} = \cos(x) - i\sin(x)$.

On the other hand, $\cos(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{ix} + e^{-ix})$ and $\sin(x) = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{ix} - e^{-ix})$.

[Recall that the first formula is an instance of $\mathrm{Re}(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z})$ and the second of $\mathrm{Im}(z) = \frac{1}{2i}(z - \bar{z})$.]

Example 24. Find the general solution of $y'' - 4y' + 13y = 0$.

Solution. The characteristic polynomial $p(D) = D^2 - 4D + 13$ has roots $2 + 3i, 2 - 3i$.

Hence, the general solution is $y(x) = C_1 e^{2x}\cos(3x) + C_2 e^{2x}\sin(3x)$.

Note. $e^{(2+3i)x} = e^{2x}e^{3ix} = e^{2x}(\cos(3x) + i\sin(3x))$

Example 25. (review) Find the general solution of $y''' - 3y' + 2y = 0$.

Solution. The characteristic polynomial $p(D) = D^3 - 3D + 2 = (D-1)^2(D+2)$ has roots $1, 1, -2$.

By Theorem 20, the general solution is $y(x) = (C_1 + C_2 x)e^x + C_2 e^{-2x}$.

Inhomogeneous linear DEs with constant coefficients

Example 26. ("warmup") Find the general solution of $y'' + 4y = 12x$.

Solution. Here, $p(D) = D^2 + 4$, which has roots $\pm 2i$.

Hence, the general solution is $y(x) = y_p(x) + C_1 \cos(2x) + C_2 \sin(2x)$. It remains to find a particular solution y_p.

Noting that $D^2 \cdot (12x) = 0$, we apply D^2 to both sides of the DE.

We get $D^2(D^2 + 4) \cdot y = 0$, which is a homogeneous linear DE! Its general solution is $C_1 + C_2 x + C_3 \cos(2x) + C_4 \sin(2x)$. In particular, y_p is of this form for some choice of $C_1, \ldots, C_4$.

It simplifies our life to note that there has to be a particular solution of the simpler form $y_p = C_1 + C_2 x$.

[Why?! Because we know that $C_3 \cos(2x) + C_4 \sin(2x)$ can be added to any particular solution.]

It only remains to find appropriate values C_1, C_2 such that $y_p'' + 4y_p = 12x$. Since $y_p'' + 4y_p = 4C_1 + 4C_2 x$, comparing coefficients yields $4C_1 = 0$ and $4C_2 = 12$, so that $C_1 = 0$ and $C_2 = 3$. In other words, $y_p = 3x$.

Therefore, the general solution to the original DE is $y(x) = 3x + C_1 \cos(2x) + C_2 \sin(2x)$.

Example 27. ("warmup") Find the general solution of $y'' + 4y' + 4y = e^{3x}$.

Solution. This is $p(D)y = e^{3x}$ with $p(D) = D^2 + 4D + 4 = (D+2)^2$.

Hence, the general solution is $y(x) = y_p(x) + (C_1 + C_2 x)e^{-2x}$. It remains to find a particular solution y_p.

Note that $(D-3)e^{3x} = 0$. Hence, we apply $(D-3)$ to the DE to get $(D-3)(D+2)^2 y = 0$.

This homogeneous linear DE has general solution $(C_1 + C_2 x)e^{-2x} + C_3 e^{3x}$. We conclude that the original DE must have a particular solution of the form $y_p = C_3 e^{3x}$.

To determine the value of C_3, we plug into the original DE: $y_p'' + 4y_p' + 4y_p = (9 + 4 \cdot 3 + 4)C_3 e^{3x} \overset{!}{=} e^{3x}$. Hence, $C_3 = 1/25$. In conclusion, the general solution is $y(x) = (C_1 + C_2 x)e^{-2x} + \frac{1}{25}e^{3x}$.

Comment. See Example 29 for the same solution in more compact form.

We found a recipe for solving nonhomogeneous linear DEs with constant coefficients.

Our approach works for $p(D)y = f(x)$ whenever the right-hand side $f(x)$ is the solution of some homogeneous linear DE with constant coefficients: $q(D) f(x) = 0$

Theorem 28. (method of undetermined coefficients) To find a particular solution y_p to an inhomogeneous linear DE with constant coefficients $p(D)y = f(x)$:

- Find $q(D)$ so that $q(D) f(x) = 0$. [This does not work for all $f(x)$.]
- Let $r_1, \ldots, r_n$ be the ("old") roots of the polynomial $p(D)$.
  Let $s_1, \ldots, s_m$ be the ("new") roots of the polynomial $q(D)$.
- It follows that y_p solves the **homogeneous** DE $q(D)\, p(D) y = 0$.
  The characteristic polynomial of this DE has roots $r_1, \ldots, r_n$, $s_1, \ldots, s_m$.
  Let $v_1, \ldots, v_m$ be the "new" solutions (i.e. not solutions of the "old" $p(D)y = 0$).
  By plugging into $p(D)y_p = f(x)$, we find (unique) C_i so that $y_p = C_1 v_1 + \ldots + C_m v_m$.

Because of the final step, this approach is often called **method of undetermined coefficients**.

For which $f(x)$ does this work? By Theorem 20, we know exactly which $f(x)$ are solutions to homogeneous linear DEs with constant coefficients: these are linear combinations of exponentials $x^j e^{rx}$ (which includes $x^j e^{ax} \cos(bx)$ and $x^j e^{ax} \sin(bx)$).

Example 29. (again) Determine the general solution of $y'' + 4y' + 4y = e^{3x}$.

Solution. The "old" roots are $-2, -2$. The "new" roots are 3. Hence, there has to be a particular solution of the form $y_p = Ce^{3x}$. To find the value of C, we plug into the DE.

$y_p'' + 4y_p' + 4y_p = (9 + 4 \cdot 3 + 4)Ce^{3x} \overset{!}{=} e^{3x}$. Hence, $C = 1/25$.

Therefore, the general solution is $y(x) = (C_1 + C_2 x)e^{-2x} + \frac{1}{25} e^{3x}$.

Example 30. Determine the general solution of $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 7e^{-2x}$.

Solution. The "old" roots are $-2, -2$. The "new" roots are -2. Hence, there has to be a particular solution of the form $y_p = Cx^2 e^{-2x}$. To find the value of C, we plug into the DE.

$y_p' = C(-2x^2 + 2x)e^{-2x}$

$y_p'' = C(4x^2 - 8x + 2)e^{-2x}$

$y_p'' + 4y_p' + 4y_p = 2Ce^{-2x} \overset{!}{=} 7e^{-2x}$

It follows that $C = 7/2$, so that $y_p = \frac{7}{2} x^2 e^{-2x}$. The general solution is $y(x) = \left(C_1 + C_2 x + \frac{7}{2} x^2\right)e^{-2x}$.

Example 31. Determine a particular solution of $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 2e^{3x} - 5e^{-2x}$.

Solution. Write the DE as $Ly = 2e^{3x} - 5e^{-2x}$ where $L = D^2 + 4D + 4$. Instead of starting all over, recall that in Example 29 we found that $y_1 = \frac{1}{25} e^{3x}$ satisfies $Ly_1 = e^{3x}$. Also, in Example 30 we found that $y_2 = \frac{7}{2} x^2 e^{-2x}$ satisfies $Ly_2 = 7e^{-2x}$.

By linearity, it follows that $L(Ay_1 + By_2) = ALy_1 + BLy_2 = Ae^{3x} + 7Be^{-2x}$.

To get a particular solution y_p of our DE, we need $A = 2$ and $7B = -5$.

Hence, $y_p = 2y_1 - \frac{5}{7} y_2 = \frac{2}{25} e^{3x} - \frac{5}{2} x^2 e^{-2x}$.

Example 32. (homework) Determine the general solution of $y'' - 2y' + y = 5\sin(3x)$.

Solution. Since $D^2 - 2D + 1 = (D-1)^2$, the "old" roots are $1, 1$. The "new" roots are $\pm 3i$. Hence, there has to be a particular solution of the form $y_p = A\cos(3x) + B\sin(3x)$.

To find the values of A and B, we plug into the DE.

$y_p' = -3A\sin(3x) + 3B\cos(3x)$

$y_p'' = -9A\cos(3x) - 9B\sin(3x)$

$y_p'' - 2y_p' + y_p = (-8A - 6B)\cos(3x) + (6A - 8B)\sin(3x) \overset{!}{=} 5\sin(3x)$

Equating the coefficients of $\cos(x)$, $\sin(x)$, we obtain the two equations $-8A - 6B = 0$ and $6A - 8B = 5$.

Solving these, we find $A = \frac{3}{10}$, $B = -\frac{2}{5}$. Accordingly, a particular solution is $y_p = \frac{3}{10}\cos(3x) - \frac{2}{5}\sin(3x)$.

The general solution is $y(x) = \frac{3}{10}\cos(3x) - \frac{2}{5}\sin(3x) + (C_1 + C_2 x)e^x$.

Example 33. (homework) What is the shape of a particular solution of $y'' + 4y' + 4y = x\cos(x)$?

Solution. The "old" roots are $-2, -2$. The "new" roots are $\pm i, \pm i$. Hence, there has to be a particular solution of the form $y_p = (C_1 + C_2 x)\cos(x) + (C_3 + C_4 x)\sin(x)$.

Continuing to find a particular solution. To find the value of the C_j's, we plug into the DE.

$y_p' = (C_2 + C_3 + C_4 x)\cos(x) + (C_4 - C_1 - C_2 x)\sin(x)$

$y_p'' = (2C_4 - C_1 - C_2 x)\cos(x) + (-2C_2 - C_3 - C_4 x)\sin(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} y_p'' + 4y_p' + 4y_p = {} & (3C_1 + 4C_2 + 4C_3 + 2C_4 + (3C_2 + 4C_4)x)\cos(x) \\ & + (-4C_1 - 2C_2 + 3C_3 + 4C_4 + (-4C_2 + 3C_4)x)\sin(x) \overset{!}{=} x\cos(x). \end{aligned}$$

Equating the coefficients of $\cos(x)$, $x\cos(x)$, $\sin(x)$, $x\sin(x)$, we get the equations $3C_1 + 4C_2 + 4C_3 + 2C_4 = 0$, $3C_2 + 4C_4 = 1$, $-4C_1 - 2C_2 + 3C_3 + 4C_4 = 0$, $-4C_2 + 3C_4 = 0$.

Solving (this is tedious!), we find $C_1 = -\frac{4}{125}$, $C_2 = \frac{3}{25}$, $C_3 = -\frac{22}{125}$, $C_4 = \frac{4}{25}$.

Hence, $y_p = \left(-\frac{4}{125} + \frac{3}{25} x\right)\cos(x) + \left(-\frac{22}{125} + \frac{4}{25} x\right)\sin(x)$.

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Example 34. (review) What is the shape of a particular solution of $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 4e^{3x}\sin(2x) - x\sin(x)$?

Solution. The "old" roots are $-2, -2$. The "new" roots are $3 \pm 2i, \pm i, \pm i$.

Hence, there has to be a particular solution of the form

$y_p = C_1 e^{3x}\cos(2x) + C_2 e^{3x}\sin(2x) + (C_3 + C_4 x)\cos(x) + (C_5 + C_6 x)\sin(x)$.

Continuing to find a particular solution. To find the values of $C_1, \ldots, C_6$, we plug into the DE. But this final step is so boring that we don't go through it here. Computers (currently?) cannot afford to be as selective; mine obediently calculated: $y_p = -\frac{4}{841}e^{3x}(20\cos(2x) - 21\sin(2x)) + \frac{1}{125}((-22 + 20x)\cos(x) + (4 - 15x)\sin(x))$

Sage

In practice, we are happy to let a machine do tedious computations. Let us see how to use the open-source computer algebra system **Sage** to do basic computations for us.

Sage is freely available at sagemath.org. Instead of installing it locally (it's huge!) we can conveniently use it in the cloud at cocalc.com from any browser.

[For basic computations, you can also simply use the textbox on our course website.]

Sage is built as a **Python** library, so any Python code is valid. For starters, we will use it as a fancy calculator.

Example 35. To solve the differential equation $y'' + 4y' + 4y = 7e^{-2x}$, as we did in Example 30, we can use the following:

```
>>> x = var('x')
>>> y = function('y')(x)
>>> desolve(diff(y,x,2) + 4*diff(y,x) + 4*y == 7*exp(-2*x), y)
```

$$\frac{7}{2}x^2 e^{(-2x)} + (K_2 x + K_1) e^{(-2x)}$$

This confirms, as we had found, that the general solution is $y(x) = \left(C_1 + C_2 x + \frac{7}{2}x^2\right)e^{-2x}$.

Example 36. Similarly, Sage can solve initial value problems such as $y'' - y' - 2y = 0$ with initial conditions $y(0) = 4$, $y'(0) = 5$.

```
>>> x = var('x')
>>> y = function('y')(x)
>>> desolve(diff(y,x,2) - diff(y,x) - 2*y == 0, y, ics=[0,4,5])
```

$$3\,e^{(2x)} + e^{(-x)}$$

This matches the (unique) solution $y(x) = 3e^{2x} + e^{-x}$ that we derived in Example 18.

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Example 37. We have been factoring differential operators like $D^2+4D+4=(D+2)^2$.

Things become much more complicated when the coefficients are not constant!

For instance, the linear DE $y''+4y'+4xy=0$ can be written as $Ly=0$ with $L=D^2+4D+4x$. However, in general, such operators cannot be factored (unless we allow as coefficients functions in x that we are not familiar with). [On the other hand, any ordinary polynomial can be factored over the complex numbers.]

One indication that things become much more complicated is that x and D do not commute: $xD\neq Dx$!!

Indeed, $(xD)f(x)=xf'(x)$ while $(Dx)f(x)=\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}[xf(x)]=f(x)+xf'(x)=(1+xD)f(x)$.

This computation shows that, in fact, $Dx=xD+1$.

Review. Linear DEs are those that can be written as $Ly=f(x)$ where L is a linear differential operator: namely,

$$L=p_n(x)D^n+p_{n-1}(x)D^{n-1}+\ldots+p_1(x)D+p_0(x). \tag{1}$$

Recall that the operators xD and Dx are not the same: instead, $Dx=xD+1$.

We say that an operator of the form (1) is in **normal form**.

For instance. xD is in normal form, whereas Dx is not in normal form. It follows from the previous example that the normal form of Dx is $xD+1$.

Example 38. Let $a=a(x)$ be some function.

(a) Write the operator Da in normal form [normal form means as in (1)].

(b) Write the operator D^2a in normal form.

Solution.

(a) $(Da)f(x)=\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}[a(x)\,f(x)]=a'(x)f(x)+a(x)f'(x)=(a'+aD)f(x)$
Hence, $Da=aD+a'$.

(b) $(D^2a)f(x)=\frac{\mathrm{d}^2}{\mathrm{d}x^2}[a(x)\,f(x)]=\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}[a'(x)f(x)+a(x)f'(x)]=a''(x)f(x)+2a'(x)f'(x)+a(x)f''(x)$
$=(a''+2a'D+aD^2)f(x)$
Hence, $D^2a=aD^2+2a'D+a''$.

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Example 39. (review) Let $a = a(x)$ be some function.

(a) Write the operator Da in normal form [normal form means as in (1)].

(b) Write the operator D^2a in normal form.

Solution.

(a) $(Da)f(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}[a(x)\,f(x)] = a'(x)f(x) + a(x)f'(x) = (a' + aD)f(x)$
Hence, $Da = aD + a'$.

(b) $(D^2a)f(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}^2}{\mathrm{d}x^2}[a(x)\,f(x)] = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}[a'(x)f(x) + a(x)f'(x)] = a''(x)f(x) + 2a'(x)f'(x) + a(x)f''(x)$
$= (a'' + 2a'D + aD^2)f(x)$
Hence, $D^2a = aD^2 + 2a'D + a''$.
Alternatively. We can also use $Da = aD + a'$ from the previous part and work with the operators directly:
$D^2a = D(Da) = D(aD + a') = DaD + Da' = (aD + a')D + a'D + a'' = aD^2 + 2a'D + a''$.

Example 40. Suppose that a and b depend on x. Expand $(D+a)(D+b)$ in normal form.

Solution. $(D+a)(D+b) = D^2 + Db + aD + ab = D^2 + (bD + b') + aD + ab = D^2 + (a+b)D + ab + b'$

Comment. Of course, if b is a constant, then $b' = 0$ and we just get the familiar expansion.
Comment. At this point, it is not surprising that, in general, $(D+a)(D+b) \neq (D+b)(D+a)$.

Example 41. Suppose we want to factor $D^2 + pD + q$ as $(D+a)(D+b)$. [p, q, a, b depend on x]

(a) Spell out equations to find a and b.

(b) Find all factorizations of D^2. [An obvious one is $D^2 = D \cdot D$ but there are others!]

Solution.

(a) Matching coefficients with $(D+a)(D+b) = D^2 + (a+b)D + ab + b'$ (we expanded this in the previous example), we find that we need

$$p = a + b, \quad q = ab + b'.$$

Equivalently, $a = p - b$ and $q = (p-b)b + b'$. The latter is a nonlinear (!) DE for b. Once solved for b, we obtain a as $a = p - b$.

(b) This is the case $p = q = 0$. The DE for b becomes $b' = b^2$.
Because it is separable (show all details!), we find that $b(x) = \frac{1}{C - x}$ or $b(x) = 0$.
Since $a = -b$, we obtain the factorizations $D^2 = \left(D - \frac{1}{C-x}\right)\left(D + \frac{1}{C-x}\right)$ and $D^2 = D \cdot D$.
Our computations show that there are no further factorizations.

Comment. Note that this example illustrates that factorization of differential operators is not unique!
For instance, $D^2 = D \cdot D$ and $D^2 = \left(D + \frac{1}{x}\right) \cdot \left(D - \frac{1}{x}\right)$ (the case $C = 0$ above).
Comment. In general, the nonlinear DE for b does not have any polynomial or rational solution (or, in fact, any solution that can be expressed in terms of functions that we are familiar with).

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Solving linear recurrences with constant coefficients

Motivation: Fibonacci numbers

The numbers $0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, \ldots$ are called **Fibonacci numbers**.

They are defined by the recursion $F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}$ and $F_0 = 0$, $F_1 = 1$.

How fast are they growing?

Have a look at ratios of Fibonacci numbers: $\frac{2}{1} = 2$, $\frac{3}{2} = 1.5$, $\frac{5}{3} \approx 1.667$, $\frac{8}{5} = 1.6$, $\frac{13}{8} = 1.625$, $\frac{21}{13} = 1.615$, $\frac{34}{21} = 1.619$, ...

These ratios approach the **golden ratio** $\varphi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} = 1.618\ldots$

In other words, it appears that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{F_{n+1}}{F_n} = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}$.

We will soon understand where this is coming from.

We can derive all of that using the same ideas as in the case of linear differential equations. The crucial observation that we can write the recursion in operator form:

$F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}$ is equivalent to $(N^2 - N - 1)F_n = 0$.

Here, N is the shift operator: $Na_n = a_{n+1}$.

Comment. Recurrence equations are discrete analogs of differential equations.

For instance, recall that $f'(x) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{1}{h}[f(x+h) - f(x)]$.

Setting $h = 1$, we get the rough estimate $f'(x) \approx f(x+1) - f(x)$ so that D is (roughly) approximated by $N - 1$.

Example 42. Find the general solution to the recursion $a_{n+1} = 7a_n$.

Solution. Note that $a_n = 7a_{n-1} = 7 \cdot 7a_{n-2} = \cdots = 7^n a_0$.

Hence, the general solution is $a_n = C \cdot 7^n$.

Comment. This is analogous to $y' = 7y$ having the general solution $y(x) = Ce^{7x}$.

Solving recurrence equations

Example 43. ("warmup") Let the sequence a_n be defined by the recursion $a_{n+2} = a_{n+1} + 6a_n$ and the initial values $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 8$. Determine the first few terms of the sequence.

Solution. $a_2 = a_1 + 6a_0 = 14$, $a_3 = a_2 + 6a_1 = 62$, $a_4 = 146$, ...

Comment. In the next example, we get ready to solve this recursion and to find an explicit formula for the sequence a_n.

Example 44. ("warmup") Find the general solution to the recursion $a_{n+2} = a_{n+1} + 6a_n$.

Solution. The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^2 - N - 6 = (N-3)(N+2)$.

Since $(N-3)a_n = 0$ has solution $a_n = C \cdot 3^n$, and since $(N+2)a_n = 0$ has solution $a_n = C \cdot (-2)^n$ (compare previous example), we conclude that the general solution is $a_n = C_1 \cdot 3^n + C_2 \cdot (-2)^n$.

Comment. This must indeed be the general solution, because the two degrees of freedom C_1, C_2 allow us to match any initial conditions $a_0 = A$, $a_1 = B$: the two equations $C_1 + C_2 = A$ and $3C_1 - 2C_2 = B$ in matrix form are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \end{bmatrix}$, which always has a (unique) solution because $\det\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 3 & -2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = -5 \neq 0$.

Notes for Lecture 7

Review. The recurrence $a_{n+1} = 5a_n$ has general solution $a_n = C \cdot 5^n$.

In operator form, the recurrence is $(N - 5)a_n = 0$, where $p(N) = N - 5$ is the characteristic polynomial. The characteristic root 5 corresponds to the solution 5^n.

This is analogous to the case of DEs $p(D)y = 0$ where a root r of $p(D)$ corresponds to the solution e^{rx}.

Example 45. (cont'd) Let the sequence a_n be defined by $a_{n+2} = a_{n+1} + 6a_n$ and $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 8$.

(a) Determine the first few terms of the sequence.

(b) Find a formula for a_n.

(c) Determine $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$.

Solution.

(a) $a_2 = a_1 + 6a_0 = 14$, $a_3 = a_2 + 6a_1 = 62$, $a_4 = 146$, ...

(b) The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^2 - N - 6$ has roots $3, -2$.

Hence, $a_n = C_1\, 3^n + C_2\, (-2)^n$ and we only need to figure out the two unknowns C_1, C_2. We can do that using the two initial conditions: $a_0 = C_1 + C_2 = 1$, $a_1 = 3C_1 - 2C_2 = 8$.

Solving, we find $C_1 = 2$ and $C_2 = -1$ so that, in conclusion, $a_n = 2 \cdot 3^n - (-2)^n$.

Comment. Such a formula is sometimes called a **Binet-like formula** (because it is of the same kind as the Binet formula for the Fibonacci numbers that we can derive in the same manner).

(c) It follows from our formula that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = 3$ (because $|3| > |-2|$ so that 3^n dominates $(-2)^n$).

To see this, we need to realize that, for large n, 3^n is much larger than $(-2)^n$ so that we have $a_n \approx 2 \cdot 3^n$ when n is large. Hence, $\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \approx \frac{2 \cdot 3^{n+1}}{2 \cdot 3^n} = 3$.

Alternatively, to be very precise, we can observe that (by dividing each term by 3^n)

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{2 \cdot 3^{n+1} - (-2)^{n+1}}{2 \cdot 3^n - (-2)^n} = \frac{2 \cdot 3 + 2\left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)^n}{2 \cdot 1 - \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right)^n} \xrightarrow{\text{as } n \to \infty} \frac{2 \cdot 3 + 0}{2 \cdot 1 - 0} = 3.$$

Example 46. ("warmup") Find the general solution to the recursion $a_{n+2} = 4a_{n+1} - 4a_n$.

Solution. The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^2 - 4N + 4$ has roots $2, 2$.

So a solution is 2^n and, from our discussion of DEs, it is probably not surprising that a second solution is $n \cdot 2^n$.

Hence, the general solution is $a_n = C_1 \cdot 2^n + C_2 \cdot n \cdot 2^n = (C_1 + C_2 n) \cdot 2^n$.

Comment. This is analogous to $(D - 2)^2 y' = 0$ having the general solution $y(x) = (C_1 + C_2 x)e^{2x}$.

Check! Let's check that $a_n = n \cdot 2^n$ indeed satisfies the recursion $(N - 2)^2 a_n = 0$.

$(N - 2)n \cdot 2^n = (n + 1)2^{n+1} - 2n \cdot 2^n = 2^{n+1}$, so that $(N - 2)^2 n \cdot 2^n = (N - 2)2^{n+1} = 0$.

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Combined, we obtain the following analog of Theorem 20 for recurrence equations (RE):

Comment. Sequences that are solutions to such recurrences are called **constant recursive** or **C-finite**.

Theorem 47. Consider the homogeneous linear RE with constant coefficients $p(N)a_n = 0$.

- If r is a root of the characteristic polynomial and if k is its multiplicity, then k (independent) solutions of the RE are given by $n^j r^n$ for $j = 0, 1, \ldots, k-1$.
- Combining these solutions for all roots, gives the general solution.

Moreover. If r is the sole largest root by absolute value among the roots contributing to a_n, then $a_n \approx Cr^n$ (if r is not repeated—what if it is?) for large n. In particular, it follows that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = r.$$

Advanced comment. Things can get weird if there are several roots of the same absolute value. Consider, for instance, the case $a_n = 2^n + (-2)^n$. Can you see that, in this case, the limit $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$ doesn't even exist?

Example 48. Find the general solution to the recursion $a_{n+3} = 2a_{n+2} + a_{n+1} - 2a_n$.

Solution. The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^3 - 2N^2 - N + 2$ has roots $2, 1, -1$. (Here, we may use some help from a computer algebra system to find the roots.)
Hence, the general solution is $a_n = C_1 \cdot 2^n + C_2 + C_3 \cdot (-1)^n$.

Example 49. Find the general solution to the recursion $a_{n+3} = 3a_{n+2} - 4a_n$.

Solution. The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^3 - 3N^2 + 4$ has roots $2, 2, -1$. (Again, we may use some help from a computer algebra system to find the roots.)
Hence, the general solution is $a_n = (C_1 + C_2 n) \cdot 2^n + C_3 \cdot (-1)^n$.

Theorem 50. (Binet's formula) $F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left[\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n - \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n\right]$

Proof. The recursion $F_{n+1} = F_n + F_{n-1}$ can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^2 - N - 1$ has roots

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618, \quad \lambda_2 = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \approx -0.618.$$

Hence, $F_n = C_1 \cdot \lambda_1^n + C_2 \cdot \lambda_2^n$ and we only need to figure out the two unknowns C_1, C_2. We can do that using the two initial conditions: $F_0 = C_1 + C_2 \overset{!}{=} 0$, $F_1 = C_1 \cdot \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} + C_2 \cdot \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} \overset{!}{=} 1$.
Solving, we find $C_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ and $C_2 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ so that, in conclusion, $F_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\lambda_1^n - \lambda_2^n)$, as claimed. $\square$

Comment. For large n, $F_n \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\lambda_1^n$ (because λ_2^n becomes very small). In fact, $F_n = \operatorname{round}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n\right)$.

Back to the quotient of Fibonacci numbers. In particular, because λ_1^n dominates λ_2^n, it is now transparent that the ratios $\frac{F_{n+1}}{F_n}$ approach $\lambda_1 = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.618$. To be precise, note that

$$\frac{F_{n+1}}{F_n} = \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\lambda_1^{n+1} - \lambda_2^{n+1})}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(\lambda_1^n - \lambda_2^n)} = \frac{\lambda_1^{n+1} - \lambda_2^{n+1}}{\lambda_1^n - \lambda_2^n} = \frac{\lambda_1 - \lambda_2\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^n}{1 - \left(\frac{\lambda_2}{\lambda_1}\right)^n} \overset{n\to\infty}{\longrightarrow} \frac{\lambda_1 - 0}{1 - 0} = \lambda_1.$$

In fact, it follows from $\lambda_2 < 0$ that the ratios $\frac{F_{n+1}}{F_n}$ approach λ_1 in the alternating fashion that we observed numerically earlier. Can you see that?

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Example 51. Consider the sequence a_n defined by $a_{n+2} = 4a_{n+1} + 9a_n$ and $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 2$. Determine $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$.

Solution. The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^2 - 4N - 9$ has roots $\frac{4 \pm \sqrt{52}}{2} \approx 5.6056$, -1.6056. Both roots have to be involved in the solution in order to get integer values.

We conclude that $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = 2 + \sqrt{13} \approx 5.6056$ (because $|5.6056| > |-1.6056|$).

Example 52. (extra) Consider the sequence a_n defined by $a_{n+2} = 2a_{n+1} + 4a_n$ and $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 1$. Determine $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$.

First few terms of sequence. $0, 1, 2, 8, 24, 80, 256, 832, \ldots$

These are actually related to Fibonacci numbers. Indeed, $a_n = 2^{n-1} F_n$. Can you prove this directly from the recursions? Alternatively, this follows from comparing the Binet-like formulas.

Solution. Proceeding as in the previous example, we find $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = 1 + \sqrt{5} \approx 3.23607$.

Comment. With just a little more work, we find the Binet-like formula $a_n = \frac{(1 + \sqrt{5})^n - (1 - \sqrt{5})^n}{2\sqrt{5}}$.

Example 53. (review) Consider the sequence a_n defined by $a_{n+2} = a_{n+1} + 2a_n$ and $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 8$.

(a) Determine the first few terms of the sequence.

(b) Find a formula for a_n.

(c) Determine $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$.

Solution.

(a) $a_2 = 10$, $a_3 = 26$

(b) The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^2 - N - 2$ has roots $2, -1$.
Hence, $a_n = C_1\, 2^n + C_2\, (-1)^n$ and we only need to figure out the two unknowns C_1, C_2. We can do that using the two initial conditions: $a_0 = C_1 + C_2 = 1$, $a_1 = 2C_1 - C_2 = 8$.
Solving, we find $C_1 = 3$ and $C_2 = -2$ so that, in conclusion, $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n - 2(-1)^n$.

(c) It follows from the formula $a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n - 2(-1)^n$ that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = 2$.

Comment. In fact, this already follows from $a_n = C_1\, 2^n + C_2\, (-1)^n$ provided that $C_1 \neq 0$. Since $a_n = C_2\, (-1)^n$ (the case $C_1 = 0$) is not compatible with $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 8$, we can conclude $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = 2$ without computing the actual values of C_1 and C_2.

Crash course: Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

If $A\boldsymbol{x} = \lambda\boldsymbol{x}$ (and $\boldsymbol{x} \neq \boldsymbol{0}$), then $\boldsymbol{x}$ is an **eigenvector** of A with **eigenvalue** λ (just a number).

Note that, for the equation $A\boldsymbol{x} = \lambda\boldsymbol{x}$ to make sense, A needs to be a square matrix (i.e. $n \times n$).

Key observation:

$$\begin{aligned} & A\boldsymbol{x} = \lambda\boldsymbol{x} \\ \iff\ & A\boldsymbol{x} - \lambda\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0} \\ \iff\ & (A - \lambda I)\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0} \end{aligned}$$

This homogeneous system has a nontrivial solution $\boldsymbol{x}$ if and only if $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

To find eigenvectors and eigenvalues of A:

(a) First, find the eigenvalues λ by solving $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$.

$\det(A - \lambda I)$ is a polynomial in λ, called the **characteristic polynomial** of A.

(b) Then, for each eigenvalue λ, find corresponding eigenvectors by solving $(A - \lambda I)\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$.

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Example 54. Determine the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -10 \\ 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution. The characteristic polynomial is:

$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det\left(\begin{bmatrix} 8-\lambda & -10 \\ 5 & -7-\lambda \end{bmatrix}\right) = (8-\lambda)(-7-\lambda) + 50 = \lambda^2 - \lambda - 6 = (\lambda - 3)(\lambda + 2)$

Hence, the eigenvalues are $\lambda = 3$ and $\lambda = -2$.

- To find an eigenvector for $\lambda = 3$, we need to solve $\begin{bmatrix} 5 & -10 \\ 5 & -10 \end{bmatrix}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$.
  Hence, $\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector for $\lambda = 3$.
- To find an eigenvector for $\lambda = -2$, we need to solve $\begin{bmatrix} 10 & -10 \\ 5 & -5 \end{bmatrix}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$.
  Hence, $\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector for $\lambda = -2$.

Check! $\begin{bmatrix} 8 & -10 \\ 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 8 & -10 \\ 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = -2 \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

On the other hand, a random other vector like $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ is not an eigenvector: $\begin{bmatrix} 8 & -10 \\ 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -12 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix} \neq \lambda \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Example 55. (homework) Determine the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -6 \\ 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution. (final answer only) $\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector for $\lambda = -2$, and $\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector for $\lambda = -1$.

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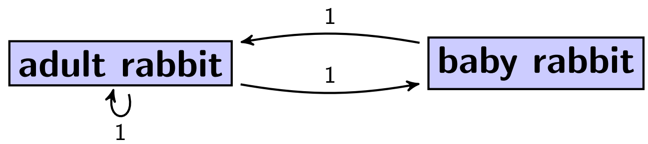
Preview: A system of recurrence equations equivalent to the Fibonacci recurrence

Example 56. We model rabbit reproduction as follows.

Each month, every pair of adult rabbits produces one pair of baby rabbit as offspring. Meanwhile, it takes baby rabbits one month to mature to adults.



Comment. In this simplified model, rabbits always come in male/female pairs and no rabbits die. Though these features might make it sound fairly useless, the model may have some merit when describing populations under ideal conditions (unlimited resources) and over short time (no deaths).

Historical comment. The question how many rabbits there are after one year, when starting out with a pair of baby rabbits is famously included in the 1202 textbook of the Italian mathematician Leonardo of Pisa, known as Fibonacci.

If we start with one baby rabbit pair, how many adult rabbit pairs are there after n months?

Solution. Let a_n be the number of adult rabbit pairs after n months. Likewise, b_n is the number of baby rabbit pairs. The transition from one month to the next is given by $a_{n+1} = a_n + b_n$ and $b_{n+1} = a_n$. Using $b_n = a_{n-1}$ (from the second equation) in the first equation, we obtain $a_{n+1} = a_n + a_{n-1}$.

The initial conditions are $a_0 = 0$ and $a_1 = 1$ (the latter follows from $b_0 = 1$).

It follows that the number b_n of adult rabbit pairs are precisely the Fibonacci numbers F_n.

Comment. Note that the transition from one month to the next is described by in matrix-vector form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ b_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_n + b_n \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Writing $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$, this becomes $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_n$ with $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Consequently, $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^n \boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}^n \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Looking ahead. Can you see how, starting with the Fibonacci recurrence $F_{n+2} = F_{n+1} + F_n$, we can arrive at this same system?

Solution. Set $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} F_{n+2} \\ F_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} + F_n \\ F_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_n$.

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Systems of recurrence equations

Example 57. (review) Consider the sequence a_n defined by $a_{n+2} = 4a_n - 3a_{n+1}$ and $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 2$. Determine $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$.

Solution. The recursion can be written as $p(N)a_n = 0$ where $p(N) = N^2 + 3N - 4$ has roots $1, -4$. Hence, the general solution is $a_n = C_1 + C_2 \cdot (-4)^n$. We can see that both roots have to be involved in the solution (in other words, $C_1 \neq 0$ and $C_2 \neq 0$) because $a_n = C_1$ and $a_n = C_2 \cdot (-4)^n$ are not consistent with the initial conditions. We conclude that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = -4$ (because $|-4| > |1|$).

Example 58. Write the (second-order) RE $a_{n+2} = 4a_n - 3a_{n+1}$, with $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 2$, as a system of (first-order) recurrences.

Solution. Write $b_n = a_{n+1}$.

Then, $a_{n+2} = 4a_n - 3a_{n+1}$ translates into the first-order system $\begin{cases} a_{n+1} = b_n \\ b_{n+1} = 4a_n - 3b_n \end{cases}$.

Let $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ b_n \end{bmatrix}$. Then, in matrix form, the RE is $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_n$, with $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Equivalently. Write $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n+1} \end{bmatrix}$. Then we obtain the above system as

$$\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ 4a_n - 3a_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_n, \quad \boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Comment. It follows that $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix}^n \boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix}^n \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Solving (systems of) REs is equivalent to computing powers of matrices!

Comment. We could also write $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_n \end{bmatrix}$ (with the order of the entries reversed). In that case, the system is

$$\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{n+2} \\ a_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4a_n - 3a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_n, \quad \boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Comment. Recall that the **characteristic polynomial** of a matrix M is $\det(M - \lambda I)$. Compute the characteristic polynomial of both $M = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$ and $M = \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. In both cases, we get $\lambda^2 + 3\lambda - 4$, which matches the polynomial $p(N)$ (also called characteristic polynomial!) in the previous example. This will always happen and explains why both are referred to as the characteristic polynomial.

Example 59. Write $a_{n+3} - 4a_{n+2} + a_{n+1} + 6a_n = 0$ as a system of (first-order) recurrences.

Solution. Write $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \end{bmatrix}$. Then we obtain the system

$$\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \\ a_{n+3} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \\ 4a_{n+2} - a_{n+1} - 6a_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -6 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_n \\ a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -6 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_n.$$

In summary, the RE in matrix form is $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ with M the matrix above.

Important comment. Consequently, $\boldsymbol{a}_n = M^n \boldsymbol{a}_0$.

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Solving systems of recurrence equations

(systems of REs) The unique solution to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$, $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = \boldsymbol{c}$ is $\boldsymbol{a}_n = M^n\boldsymbol{c}$.

We will say that M^n is the **fundamental matrix solution** to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ with $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = I$ (the identity matrix).

Comment. Note that $M^n\boldsymbol{c}$ is a linear combination of the columns of M^n. In other words, each column of M^n is a solution to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ and $M^n\boldsymbol{c}$ is the general solution.

In general, we say that a matrix Φ_n is a **matrix solution** to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ if $\Phi_{n+1} = M\Phi_n$. Φ_n being a matrix solution is equivalent to each column of Φ_n being a normal (vector) solution. If the general solution of $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ can be obtained as the linear combination of the columns of Φ_n, then Φ_n is a **fundamental matrix solution**. Above, we observed that $\Phi_n = M^n$ is a special fundamental matrix solution.

If this is a bit too abstract at this point, have a look at Example 60 below.

However, at this point, it remains to figure out how to compute M^n. We will actually proceed the other way around: we construct the general solution of $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ (see the box below) and then we use that to determine M^n.

To solve $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$, determine the eigenvectors of M.

- Each λ-eigenvector $\boldsymbol{v}$ provides a solution: $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \boldsymbol{v}\lambda^n$ [assuming that $\lambda \neq 0$]
- If there are enough eigenvectors, these combine to the general solution.

Why? If $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \boldsymbol{v}\lambda^n$ for a λ-eigenvector $\boldsymbol{v}$, then $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \boldsymbol{v}\lambda^{n+1}$ and $M\boldsymbol{a}_n = M\boldsymbol{v}\lambda^n = \lambda\boldsymbol{v}\cdot\lambda^n = \boldsymbol{v}\lambda^{n+1}$.

Where is this coming from? When solving single linear recurrences, we found that the basic solutions are of the form cr^n where $r \neq 0$ is a root of the characteristic polynomials. To solve $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$, it is therefore natural to look for solutions of the form $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \boldsymbol{c}r^n$ (where $\boldsymbol{c} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix}$). Note that $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \boldsymbol{c}r^{n+1} = r\boldsymbol{a}_n$.

Plugging into $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ we find $\boldsymbol{c}r^{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{c}r^n$.

Cancelling r^n (just a nonzero number!), this simplifies to $r\boldsymbol{c} = M\boldsymbol{c}$.

In other words, $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \boldsymbol{c}r^n$ is a solution if and only if $\boldsymbol{c}$ is an r-eigenvector of M.

Comment. If there are not enough eigenvectors, then we know what to do as well (at least in principle): instead of looking only for solutions of the type $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \boldsymbol{v}\lambda^n$, we also need to look for solutions of the type $\boldsymbol{a}_n = (\boldsymbol{v}n + \boldsymbol{w})\lambda^n$. Note that this can only happen if an eigenvalue is a repeated root of the characteristic polynomial.

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