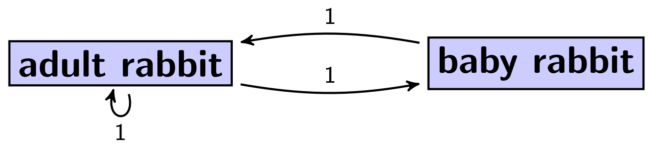
Preview: A system of recurrence equations equivalent to the Fibonacci recurrence

Example 54. 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 $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = \begin{bmatrix} F_{n+2} \\ F_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} + F_n \\ F_{n+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} F_{n+1} \\ F_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{a}_n$.

Systems of recurrence equations

Example 55. (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 56. 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 57. 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. Given a first-order system $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$, it is clear that the solution satisfies $\boldsymbol{a}_n = M^n \boldsymbol{a}_0$. If you know how to compute matrix powers M^n, this means you can solve recurrences! On the other hand, we will proceed the other way around. We solve the recurrence and then use that to determine M^n.

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Solving systems of recurrence equations

The following summarizes how we can solve systems of recurrence equations using eigenvectors. As a bonus, we obtain a way to compute matrix powers.

Each step is spelled out in Example 58 below.

(solving systems of REs) 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.

  In that case, we get a **fundamental matrix (solution)** Φ_n by placing each solution vector into one column of Φ_n.
- If desired, we can compute the **matrix powers** M^n using any fundamental matrix Φ_n as

$$M^n = \Phi_n \Phi_0^{-1}.$$

Note that M^n is the unique matrix solution to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$ with $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = I$ (the identity matrix).

Application: the unique solution to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$, $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = \boldsymbol{c}$ is given by $\boldsymbol{a}_n = M^n\boldsymbol{c}$.

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.

Not enough eigenvectors? In that case, 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.

Matrix solutions. 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**.

Why can we compute matrix powers this way? Recall that, given a first-order system $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$, it is clear that the solution satisfies $\boldsymbol{a}_n = M^n\boldsymbol{a}_0$. Likewise, a fundamental matrix solution Φ_n to the same recurrence satisfies $\Phi_n = M^n\Phi_0$. Multiplying both sides by Φ_0^{-1} (on the right!) we conclude that $\Phi_n\Phi_0^{-1} = M^n$.

Already know how to compute matrix powers? If you have taken linear algebra classes, you may have learned that matrix powers M^n can be computed by diagonalizing the matrix M. The latter hinges on computing eigenvalues and eigenvectors of M as well. Compare the two approaches!

Example 58. Let $M = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -10 \\ 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$.

(a) Determine the general solution to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$.

(b) Determine a **fundamental matrix solution** to $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$.

(c) Compute M^n.

(d) Solve $\boldsymbol{a}_{n+1} = M\boldsymbol{a}_n$, $\boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Solution.

(a) Recall that each λ-eigenvector $\boldsymbol{v}$ of M provides us with a solution: $\boldsymbol{a}_n = \boldsymbol{v}\lambda^n$

We computed in Example 52 that $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector for $\lambda = 3$, and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector for $\lambda = -2$.

Hence, the general solution is $C_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} 3^n + C_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} (-2)^n$.

(b) Note that we can write the general solution as

$\boldsymbol{a}_n = C_1 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} 3^n + C_2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} (-2)^n = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 3^n & (-2)^n \\ 3^n & (-2)^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

We call $\Phi_n = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 3^n & (-2)^n \\ 3^n & (-2)^n \end{bmatrix}$ the corresponding **fundamental matrix (solution)**.

Note that our general solution is precisely $\Phi_n \boldsymbol{c}$ with $\boldsymbol{c} = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Observations.

(a) The columns of Φ_n are (independent) solutions of the system.

(b) Φ_n solves the RE itself: $\Phi_{n+1} = M\Phi_n$.
[Spell this out in this example! That Φ_n solves the RE follows from the definition of matrix multiplication.]

(c) It follows that $\Phi_n = M^n \Phi_0$. Equivalently, $\Phi_n \Phi_0^{-1} = M^n$. (See next part!)

(c) Note that $\Phi_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$, so that $\Phi_0^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$. It follows that

$$M^n = \Phi_n \Phi_0^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 3^n & (-2)^n \\ 3^n & (-2)^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 3^n - (-2)^n & -2 \cdot 3^n + 2(-2)^n \\ 3^n - (-2)^n & -3^n + 2(-2)^n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Check. Let us verify the formula for M^n in the cases $n = 0$ and $n = 1$:

$M^0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2-1 & -2+2 \\ 1-1 & -1+2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

$M^1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 3 - (-2) & -2 \cdot 3 + 2(-2) \\ 3 - (-2) & -3 + 2(-2) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -10 \\ 5 & -7 \end{bmatrix}$

(d) $\boldsymbol{a}_n = M^n \boldsymbol{a}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 3^n - (-2)^n & -2 \cdot 3^n + 2(-2)^n \\ 3^n - (-2)^n & -3^n + 2(-2)^n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \cdot 3^n + 3(-2)^n \\ -3^n + 3(-2)^n \end{bmatrix}$

Sage. Once we are comfortable with these computations, we can let Sage do them for us.

```
>>> M = matrix([[8,-10],[5,-7]])
```

```
>>> M^2
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 14 & -10 \\ 5 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Verify that this matrix matches what our formula for M^n produces for $n = 2$. In order to reproduce the general formula for M^n, we need to first define n as a symbolic variable:

```
>>> n = var('n')
```

```
>>> M^n
```

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \cdot 3^n - (-2)^n & -2 \cdot 3^n + 2\,(-2)^n \\ 3^n - (-2)^n & -3^n + 2\,(-2)^n \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that this indeed matches our earlier formula. Can you see how we can read off the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of M from this formula for M^n? Of course, Sage can readily compute these for us directly using, for instance, `M.eigenvectors_right()`. Try it! Can you interpret the output?