

A SUPPLEMENT TO POINCARÉ'S THEOREM ON DIFFERENCE EQUATIONS

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Abstract: The second-order linear difference equation of Poincaré type

$$u(n+2) + (a + \alpha(n))u(n+1) + (b + \beta(n))u(n) = 0, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots,$$

with Buslaev's restrictions on coefficients

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|\alpha(n)|} \leq q < 1, \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|\beta(n)|} \leq q < 1$$

is considered. It is assumed that the characteristic roots of the equation have the same modulus. The set \mathcal{A} of all accumulation points for the sequence $\{\frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)}\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ for any nontrivial solutions of the equation is described.

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1. Introduction and Preliminaries

We consider the second-order linear difference equation of Poincaré type

$$u(n+2) + (a + \alpha(n))u(n+1) + (b + \beta(n))u(n) = 0, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots, \quad (1)$$

where $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$, $\alpha(n), \beta(n)$ are complex sequences, and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha(n) = 0$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta(n) = 0$. The polynomial $\lambda^2 + a\lambda + b$ is called *the characteristic polynomial* and its roots λ_1, λ_2 are *the characteristic roots* of equation (1).

The fundamental result in the asymptotic theory of equation (1) is Poincaré’s theorem which states that, if $|\lambda_1| \neq |\lambda_2|$, then for any solution $\{u(n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ of equation (1) either $u(n) = 0$ for all sufficiently large n or there exists $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)}$, and this limit is equal to one of the characteristic roots λ_1, λ_2 . The theorem is also true for the higher-order equations (see, e.g., [1, Ch.8]). Simple examples show that the statement of the theorem becomes false if $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2|$.

The purpose of this paper is to study the asymptotic behavior of the sequence $\{\frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)}\}_{n=0}^\infty$ in the case of $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2| \neq 0$ and to obtain the description for the set \mathcal{A} of all accumulation points of this sequence under some additional assumptions on $\alpha(n), \beta(n)$.

The solution $\{u(n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ of equation (1) such that $u(n) = 0$ for all sufficiently large n will be called *trivial*. We will further consider only nontrivial solutions. Hence for all n at least one of the numbers $u(n), u(n + 1)$ does not vanish. If there exists subsequence n_k such that $u(n_k) = 0$, then we put $0, \infty \in \mathcal{A}$. For example, we have $\mathcal{A} = \{0, \infty\}$ for the solution of the equation $u(n+2) - u(n) = 0$ with initial conditions $u(0) = 0, u(1) = 1$.

For a nontrivial solution $\{u(n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ let us introduce its generating function $U(z) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty u(n)z^n$. It is known that for any nontrivial solution $\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|u(n)|}$ is equal to the modulus of one of the characteristic roots [2, 3]. Hence in our case the generating function $U(z)$ for any nontrivial solutions is analytic in the disk $|z| < R_0$, where $R_0 = |\lambda_1|^{-1}$.

We will assume that the following additional restrictions are fulfilled:

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|\alpha(n)|} \leq q < 1, \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|\beta(n)|} \leq q < 1. \tag{2}$$

Conditions (2) were introduced by V.I. Buslaev and S.F. Buslaeva [4]. It turns out that (2) guarantee that the function $U(z)$ can be meromorphically continued to the disk $|z| < R$, where $R = q^{-1}R_0$, and all poles of $U(z)$ belong to the set $\{\lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_2^{-1}\}$ [4, Theorem 1, item 2]. Thus, in our case the meromorphic function $U(z)$ have in the disk $|z| < R$ either one pole λ_1^{-1} or λ_2^{-1} , or two poles $\lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_2^{-1}$.

Statements on the asymptotic behavior of the sequence $\{\frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)}\}_{n=0}^\infty$ can be formulated as statements on the asymptotic behavior of poles of the first row of a Padé table for the power series $U(z)$.

Recall a definition of Padé approximants in the Frobenius form.

Definition 1. (see Frobenius, [5]) Let $f(z) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty f_n z^n$. The rational function $\pi_{n,m}(z) = \frac{P_{n,m}(z)}{Q_{n,m}(z)}$ such that $Q_{n,m}(z) \not\equiv 0, \deg Q_{n,m}(z) \leq m, \deg P_{n,m}(z) \leq n$, and

$$f(z)Q_{n,m}(z) - P_{n,m}(z) = R_{n+m+1}z^{n+m+1} + R_{n+m+2}z^{n+m+2} + \dots, \tag{3}$$

is called the Padé approximant of order (n, m) for a power series $f(z)$.

Let us consider the approximants $\pi_{n,1}(z)$, $n = 0, 1, \dots$ (the first row of the Padé table). It is easy to obtain from equation (3) that $Q_{n,1}(z) = f_n - f_{n+1}z$, and $P_{n,1}(z) = f_0f_n + (f_1f_n - f_0f_{n+1})z + \dots + (f_nf_n - f_{n-1}f_{n+1})z^n$. Thus, a pole ξ_n of $\pi_{n,1}(z)$ coincides with f_n/f_{n+1} . If $f_{n+1} = 0$, we put $\xi_n = \infty$. To study the asymptotic behavior of f_n/f_{n+1} we must know the asymptotic behavior of ξ_n . A complete description of the set of accumulation points of the sequence $\{\xi_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ for the first row was obtained only for a meromorphic function $f(z)$ having in the disk $|z| < R$ one pole (de Montessus de Ballore's theorem [5], Ch.6) or two poles [6]. For this reason in this paper we consider only a second-order difference equation of Poincaré type.

Our main results are Theorem 1 and Theorem 2. Two illustrative examples are given.

2. Main Results

First, we study the case of $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \neq 0$.

Theorem 1. *Suppose $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 \neq 0$ and conditions (2) are fulfilled. If $\{u(n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ is any nontrivial solution of equation (1), then there exists*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = \lambda_1.$$

Proof. Let $U(z)$ be the generating function of the solution $\{u(n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$. By virtue of (2) $U(z)$ is meromorphic in the disk $|z| < R$.

First, we suppose $U(z)$ has a simple pole (coinciding with λ_1^{-1}) in this disk. Then for the first row of the Padé table for $U(z)$ de Montessus de Ballore's theorem holds. Hence $u(n+1) \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large n and the monic denominator $\widehat{Q}_{n,1}(z) = z - u(n)/u(n+1)$ of the Padé approximant $\pi_{n,1}(z)$ converge to $z - \lambda_1^{-1}$. This means that exists $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = \lambda_1$.

Now let λ_1^{-1} be the pole of $U(z)$ with multiplicity 2. Thus, the meromorphic function $U(z)$ has in the disk $|z| < R$ two poles and the first row of Padé table for $U(z)$ is the so-called last intermediate row. Therefore we can use the convergence theory for this row developed in [6]. In our case the pole λ_1^{-1} is the unique *dominant pole* of $U(z)$ and by Theorem 2.4 [6, p.166, p. 199] the sequence of the normalized denominators $\widehat{Q}_{n,1}(z) = z - u(n)/u(n+1)$ has the limit $z - \lambda_1^{-1}$. \square

Note that without assumption (2) the statement of the theorem is false in general. The corresponding example can be found in [7].

The case of $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2| \neq 0, \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, demonstrates more interesting asymptotic behavior of the sequence $\{\frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)}\}_{n=0}^\infty$.

Theorem 2. *Suppose $|\lambda_1| = |\lambda_2| \neq 0, \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$, and conditions (2) are fulfilled. Let $\{u(n)\}_{n=0}^\infty$ be any nontrivial solution of equation (1). Denote by A_k the residue of the generating function $U(z)$ at the point $\lambda_k^{-1}, k = 1, 2$, and $\rho = |A_2/A_1|, 0 \leq \rho \leq \infty$. Then the following statements hold:*

1. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u(n+1) - \lambda_1 u(n)}{u(n+1) - \lambda_2 u(n)} \right|$ exists and is equal to ρ .
2. If $\rho = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = \lambda_1$.
3. If $\rho = \infty$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = \lambda_2$.
4. If $0 < \rho < \infty$, and λ_1/λ_2 is a primitive σ th root of unity, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = \frac{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+2} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+2}}{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+1} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+1}}, \quad n \equiv j \pmod{\sigma}.$$

The set \mathcal{A} consists of σ accumulation points $\alpha_j := \frac{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+2} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+2}}{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+1} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+1}}, j = 0, 1, \dots, \sigma - 1$, lying on the Apollonian circle $\left| \frac{z - \lambda_1}{z - \lambda_2} \right| = \rho$.

The point ∞ belongs to \mathcal{A} if the condition $A_1 \lambda_1^{j_0+1} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j_0+1} = 0$ is fulfilled for some $j_0 \in \{0, \dots, \sigma - 1\}$. In this case $\rho = 1$ (the Apollonian circle is a straight line), and $0 \in \mathcal{A}$.

5. If $0 < \rho < \infty$, and λ_1/λ_2 is not a root of unity, then \mathcal{A} coincides with the Apollonian circle $\left| \frac{z - \lambda_1}{z - \lambda_2} \right| = \rho$.

Proof. Evidently, $\rho = 0$ if and only if $U(z)$ has one pole λ_1^{-1} in the disk $|z| < R$. As in Theorem 1 by virtue of de Montessus de Ballore’s theorem we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = \lambda_1$. Then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{u(n+1) - \lambda_1 u(n)}{u(n+1) - \lambda_2 u(n)} \right| = 0$. The case of $\rho = \infty$ can be considered similarly. Thus, for $\rho = 0, \infty$ the theorem is true.

Let now $0 < \rho < \infty$. Then $U(z)$ has in the disk $|z| < R$ two simple poles $z_1 = \lambda_1^{-1}, z_2 = \lambda_2^{-1}$, lying on the circle $|z| = R_0$, the first row of Padé table for $U(z)$ is the last intermediate row, and z_1, z_2 are the dominant poles. Hence, we can use Theorem 2.2, Theorem 2.5, and Theorem 2.7 from [6].

Let us consider the first case, when $z_2/z_1 = \lambda_1/\lambda_2$ is a primitive σ th root of unity, i.e. z_1, z_2 are vertices of a regular σ -gon with the lowest possible σ .

Define the numbers $C_k = (z_2 - z_1)^{-2} A_k^{-1}$, $k = 1, 2$, by formula 4.14 from [6]. Suppose that $S_0(j) := C_1 z_1^{j+2} + C_2 z_2^{j+2} \neq 0$ for given $j \in \{0, 1, \dots, \sigma - 1\}$.

Then, by Theorem 2.2 and Theorem 2.7 from [6], we have $u(n + 1) \neq 0$ for all sufficiently large $n \equiv j \pmod{\sigma}$, the denominator $Q_{n,1}(z) = u(n) - u(n + 1)z$ can be 1-normalized, and the 1-normalized denominator $\hat{Q}(z) = z - u(n)/u(n + 1)$ tends to the polynomial $\hat{\omega}_j(z) = \frac{C_1(z-z_2)z_1^{j+2} + C_2(z-z_1)z_2^{j+2}}{C_1z_1^{j+2} + C_2z_2^{j+2}}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ in the residue class $n \equiv j \pmod{\sigma}$. This means that there exists a finite limit

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n)}{u(n + 1)} &= \frac{C_1 z_2 z_1^{j+2} + C_2 z_1 z_2^{j+2}}{C_1 z_1^{j+2} + C_2 z_2^{j+2}} \\ &= \frac{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+1} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+1}}{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+2} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+2}}, \quad n \equiv j \pmod{\sigma}. \end{aligned}$$

If $A_1 \lambda_1^{j+1} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+1} \neq 0$, then there exists a finite limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n + 1)}{u(n)} = \frac{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+2} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+2}}{A_1 \lambda_1^{j+1} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j+1}}.$$

If $A_1 \lambda_1^{j_0+1} + A_2 \lambda_2^{j_0+1} = 0$ for some (unique) $j_0 \in \{0, 1, \dots, \sigma - 1\}$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = \infty$, $n \equiv j_0 \pmod{\sigma}$, and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} = 0$, $n \equiv j_0 - 1 \pmod{\sigma}$.

It is not difficult to verify that the finite accumulation points α_j lie on the Apollonian circle. It follows from this that in the first case the statement of item 1 is true also.

The statement of item 5 is an immediate consequence of Theorem 2.5 from [6]. □

Let us illustrate Theorem 2 by the following examples. All calculations were made with the help of Maple.

Example 1. Consider the solution of the equation

$$u(n + 2) - (2\sqrt{3} + n/3^n)u(n + 1) + (4 + 1/2^n)u(n) = 0$$

with the initial values $u(0) = 1$, $u(1) = 1 - i$. Here $\lambda_1 = \sqrt{3} - i$, $\lambda_2 = \sqrt{3} + i$, λ_1/λ_2 is a primitive σ th root of unity, $\sigma = 6$. Conditions (2) are fulfilled with $q = 1/2$.

We can use the partial fractions of the Padé approximants $\pi_{100,2}(z)$ for the series $U(z)$ to find approximately the residue A_k of the continuation of $U(z)$ at the point λ_k^{-1} . In this way we obtain the following value

$$A_1 = -0.7402 - 0.1784i, \quad A_2 = -0.3614 - 0.2275i, \quad \rho = 0.5609.$$

Then we can calculate the accumulation points according to the formula $\alpha_j = \frac{A_1\lambda_1^{j+2} + A_2\lambda_2^{j+2}}{A_1\lambda_1^{j+1} + A_2\lambda_2^{j+1}}$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, 5$, from item 5 of Theorem 2:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_0 &= 1.0157 - 0.4463i, & \alpha_1 &= 0.1634 - 1.4503i, \\ \alpha_2 &= 3.1571 - 2.7233i, & \alpha_3 &= 2.7376 - 0.6266i, \\ \alpha_4 &= 2.0757 - 0.3177i, & \alpha_5 &= 1.5812 - 0.2882i. \end{aligned}$$

These values coincide with $u(6k + j + 1)/u(6k + j)$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, 5$, even for $k = 39$. As shown in Figure 1, all accumulation points α_j lie on the Apollonian circle $\left| \frac{z - \lambda_1}{z - \lambda_2} \right| = 0.5609$.

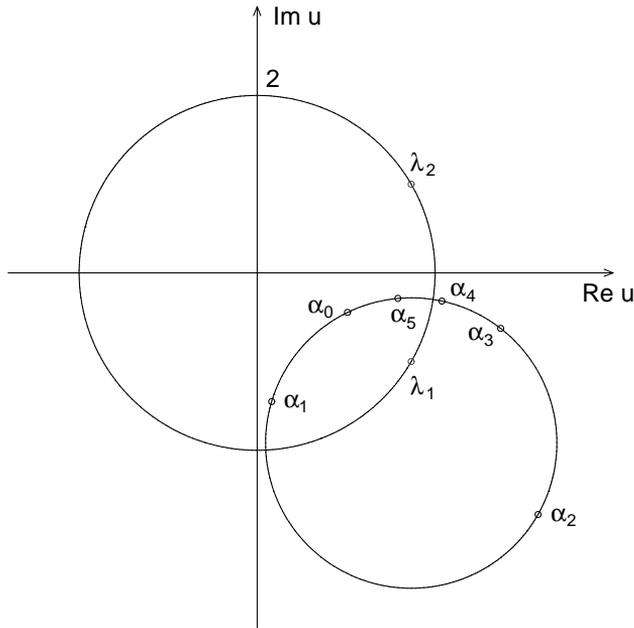


Figure 1: Example 1. Accumulation points of $\{u(n+1)/u(n)\}$ if λ_1/λ_2 is a primitive 6th root of unity.

Example 2. For the equation

$$u(n + 2) = (1 + e^{2\pi i\sqrt{2}} + 1/2^n)u(n + 1) + (1/3^n - e^{2\pi i\sqrt{2}})u(n)$$

we have $\lambda_1 = 1$, $\lambda_2 = e^{2\pi i\sqrt{2}}$, and λ_1/λ_2 is not a root of unity. Hence the accumulation points of the sequence $\left\{ \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} \right\}_{n=0}^\infty$ for any solution of the equation must fill out the whole corresponding Apollonian circle.

In order to calculate ρ let us use the formula from item 1 of Theorem 2. The calculation show that the sequence $\rho_n := \left| \frac{u(n+1) - \lambda_1 u(n)}{u(n+1) - \lambda_2 u(n)} \right|$ is stabilized for $n \geq 200$. We put $\rho \approx \rho_{200}$ and obtain the following result for some initial values:

$u(0) = 1,$	$u(1) = i,$	$\rho = 0.2298,$
$u(0) = 1 + i,$	$u(1) = -2,$	$\rho = 0.5088,$
$u(0) = -2.0 + 1.i,$	$u(1) = 1.0 - 1.i,$	$\rho = 0.8808,$
$u(0) = -1.05 + 1.i,$	$u(1) = 1 - i,$	$\rho = 1.1468,$
$u(0) = -1.35 + 1.i,$	$u(1) = 1. - 1.1i,$	$\rho = 2.0710,$
$u(0) = -1.3 + 1.i,$	$u(1) = 1. - 1.3i,$	$\rho = 4.7284.$

As shown in Figure 2 the points $\frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)}$, even for $n = 50, \dots, 200$, lie on the corresponding Apollonian circle and they sufficiently densely fill out this circle.

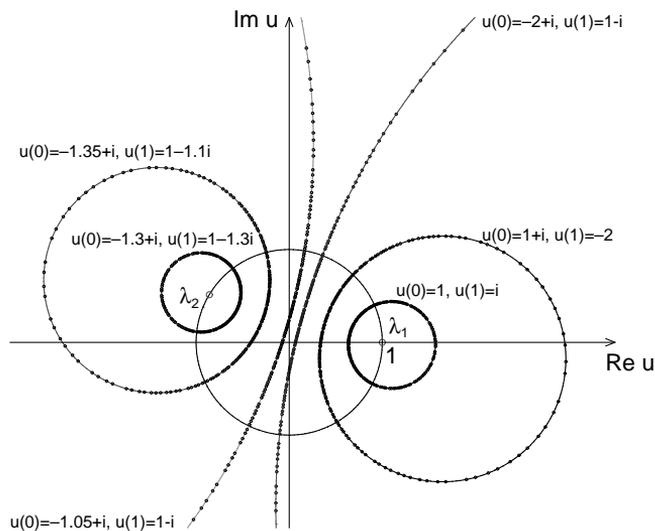


Figure 2: Example 2. The points $\frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)}$, $n = 50, \dots, 200$, for some initial conditions, when λ_1/λ_2 is not a root of unity.

3. Conclusion

Under Buslaev's condition (2) the asymptotic behavior of the sequence

$$\left\{ \frac{u(n+1)}{u(n)} \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$$

for any nontrivial solution $\{u(n)\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ of equation (1) is completely determined by the residue A_1, A_2 of the generating function $U(z)$ at the points $\lambda_1^{-1}, \lambda_1^{-1}$, and the arithmetic nature of λ_1/λ_2 . All accumulation points of this sequence lie on the Apollonian circle $\left| \frac{z-\lambda_1}{z-\lambda_2} \right| = |A_2/A_1|$. Numerical experiments show that probably the similar asymptotic behavior holds without restrictions (2).

Unfortunately, a dependence of A_1, A_2 (or $\rho = |A_2/A_1|$) on the initial values $u(0), u(1)$ still remains unknown; we can calculate A_1, A_2 only approximately. If $b + \beta(n) = 0$ for some n , then it is not difficult to prove that ρ equals the unique value for any $u(0), u(1)$.

Open Problem. In what cases will the function $\rho(u(0), u(1))$ take all values from $[0, \infty]$ or at least take values $0, \infty$?

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