

# On $k$ -periodic binary recurrences

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## Abstract

We apply a new approach, namely the fundamental theorem of homogeneous linear recursive sequences, to  $k$ -periodic binary recurrences which allows us to determine Binet's formula of the sequence if  $k$  is given. The method is illustrated in the cases  $k = 2$  and  $k = 3$  for arbitrary parameters. Thus we generalize and complete the results of Edson-Yayenie, and Yayenie linked to  $k = 2$  hence they gave restrictions either on the coefficients or on the initial values. At the end of the paper we solve completely the constant sequence problem of 2-periodic sequences posed by Yayenie.

*Keywords:* linear recurrences,  $k$ -periodic binary recurrences

*MSC:* 11B39, 11D61

## 1. Introduction

Let  $a, b, c, d$ , and  $q_0, q_1$  denote arbitrary complex numbers, and consider the following construction of the sequence  $(q_n)$ . For  $n \geq 2$ , the terms  $q_n$  are defined by

$$q_n = \begin{cases} aq_{n-1} + bq_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \text{ is even;} \\ cq_{n-1} + dq_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases} \quad (1.1)$$

The sequence  $(q_n)$  is called 2-periodic binary recurrence, and it was described first by Edson and Yayenie [2]. The authors discussed the specific case  $q_0 = 0$ ,  $q_1 = 1$  and  $b = d = 1$ , gave the generating function and Binet-type formula of

$(q_n)$ , further they proved several identities among the terms of  $(q_n)$ . In the same paper the sequence  $(q_n)$  was investigated for arbitrary initial values  $q_0$  and  $q_1$ , but  $b = d = 1$  were still assumed.

Later Yayenie [6] took one more step by determining the Binet's formula for  $(q_n)$ , where  $b$  and  $d$  were arbitrary numbers, but the initial values were fixed as  $q_0 = 0$  and  $q_1 = 1$ .

The main tool in the papers [2, 6] is to work with the generating function. In this paper we suggest a new approach, namely to apply the fundamental theorem of homogeneous linear recurrences (see Theorem 1.1). This powerful method allows us to give the Binet's formula of  $(q_n)$  for any  $b$  and  $d$  and for arbitrary initial values. Moreover, we can also handle the case when the zeros of the quadratic polynomial

$$p_2(x) = x^2 - (ac + b + d)x + bd$$

coincide. Note, that  $p_2(x)$  plays an important role in the aforesaid papers, but the sequence  $(q_n)$  has not been discussed yet when  $p_2(x)$  has a zero with multiplicity 2. We will see that the application of the fundamental theorem of linear recurrences is very effective and it can even be used at  $k$ -periodic sequences generally. At the end of the paper we solve an open problem concerning constant subsequences (see 2.2.2 in [6]).

The  $k$ -periodic second order linear recurrence

$$q_n = \begin{cases} a_0q_{n-1} + b_0q_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \equiv 0 \pmod{k}; \\ a_1q_{n-1} + b_1q_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{k}; \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{k-1}q_{n-1} + b_{k-1}q_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \equiv k-1 \pmod{k}. \end{cases} \quad (1.2)$$

was introduced by Cooper in [1], where mainly the combinatorial interpretation of the coefficients  $A_k$  and  $B_k$  appearing in the recurrence relation  $q_n = A_kq_{n-k} + B_kq_{n-2k}$  was discussed. Note that Lemma 4 of the work of Shallit [4] also describes an approach to compute the coefficients for  $q_n$ . Edson, Lewis and Yayenie [3] also studied the  $k$ -periodic extension, again with  $q_0 = 0$ ,  $q_1 = 1$  and with the restrictions  $b_0 = b_1 = \dots = b_{k-1} = 1$ .

At the end of the first section we recall the fundamental theorem of linear recurrences. A homogeneous linear recurrence  $(G_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  of order  $k$  ( $k \geq 1, k \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is defined by the recursion

$$G_n = A_1G_{n-1} + A_2G_{n-2} + \dots + A_kG_{n-k} \quad (n \geq k), \quad (1.3)$$

where the initial values  $G_0, \dots, G_{k-1}$  and the coefficients  $A_1, \dots, A_k$  are complex numbers,  $A_k \neq 0$  and  $|G_0| + \dots + |G_{k-1}| > 0$ . The characteristic polynomial of the sequence  $(G_n)$  is the polynomial

$$g(x) = x^k - A_1x^{k-1} - \dots - A_k.$$

Denote by  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t$  the distinct zeros of the characteristic polynomial  $g(x)$ , which can there be written in the form

$$g(x) = (x - \alpha_1)^{e_1} \cdots (x - \alpha_t)^{e_t}. \quad (1.4)$$

The following result (see e.g. [5]) plays a basic role in the theory of recurrence sequences, and here in our approach.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $(G_n)$  be a sequence satisfying the relation (1.3) with  $A_k \neq 0$ , and  $g(x)$  its characteristic polynomial with distinct roots  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t$ . Let  $K = \mathbb{Q}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_t, A_1, \dots, A_k, G_0, \dots, G_{k-1})$  denote the extension of the field of rational numbers and let  $g(x)$  be given in the form (1.4). Then there exist uniquely determined polynomials  $g_i(x) \in K[x]$  of degree less than  $e_i$  ( $i = 1, \dots, t$ ) such that*

$$G_n = g_1(n)\alpha_1^n + \cdots + g_t(n)\alpha_t^n \quad (n \geq 0).$$

## 2. $k$ -periodic binary recurrences

Let  $k \geq 2$  be an integer, further let  $q_0, q_1$  and  $a_i, b_i, i = 0, \dots, k-1$  denote arbitrary complex numbers with  $|q_0| + |q_1| \neq 0$  and  $b_0 b_1 \cdots b_{k-1} \neq 0$ .

Consider the sequence  $(q_n)$  defined by (1.2). By [1] it is known that the terms of  $(q_n)$  satisfy the recurrence relation

$$q_n = A_k q_{n-k} - (-1)^k b_0 b_1 \cdots b_{k-1} q_{n-2k} \quad (2.1)$$

of order  $2k$ , where the coefficient  $A_k$  is also described in [1]. Put  $D = A_k^2 - 4(-1)^k b_0 b_1 \cdots b_{k-1}$ , and let

$$p_k(x) = x^2 - A_k x + (-1)^k b_0 b_1 \cdots b_{k-1}$$

denote the polynomial determined by the characteristic polynomial  $z^{2k} - A_k z^k + (-1)^k b_0 b_1 \cdots b_{k-1}$  of the recurrence (2.1) by the substitution  $x = z^k$ . The not necessarily distinct zeros of  $p_k(x)$  are

$$\kappa = \frac{A_k + \sqrt{D}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu = \frac{A_k - \sqrt{D}}{2}.$$

At this point we would like to use Theorem 1.1, therefore we must distinguish two cases.

### 2.1. Case $D \neq 0$

If  $D$  is nonzero, then  $\kappa$  and  $\mu$  are distinct. From Theorem 1, we deduce that there exist complex numbers  $\kappa_j$  and  $\mu_j$  ( $j = 1, \dots, k$ ) such that

$$q_n = \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^k \kappa_j \varepsilon^{(j-1)n} \kappa^{n/k}}_{K_n} + \underbrace{\sum_{j=1}^k \mu_j \varepsilon^{(j-1)n} \mu^{n/k}}_{M_n}, \quad (2.2)$$

where  $\varepsilon = \exp(2\pi i/k)$  is a primitive root of unity of order  $k$ . If one claims to determine the coefficients  $\kappa_j$  and  $\mu_j$ , it is sufficient to replace  $n$  by  $0, 1, \dots, 2k-1$  in (2.2) and, after evaluating  $q_2, \dots, q_{2k-1}$  by (1.2), to solve the system of  $2k$  linear equations. Instead, we can shorten the calculations since, as we will see soon, only certain linear combinations of  $\kappa_1, \dots, \kappa_k$  and  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k$  are needed, respectively.

Now, by (2.2), for any non-negative integer  $t$ , we have  $q_t = K_t + M_t$ . Moreover,

$$q_{t+k} = \sum_{j=1}^k \kappa_j \varepsilon^{(j-1)(t+k)} \kappa^{(t+k)/k} + \sum_{j=1}^k \mu_j \varepsilon^{(j-1)(t+k)} \mu^{(t+k)/k} = \kappa K_t + \mu M_t. \quad (2.3)$$

Since the determinant  $\mu - \kappa$  of the system of two linear equations

$$\begin{cases} K_t + M_t = q_t \\ \kappa K_t + \mu M_t = q_{t+k} \end{cases} \quad (2.4)$$

is non-zero, therefore (2.4) possesses the unique solution

$$K_t = \frac{q_{t+k} - \mu q_t}{\kappa - \mu}, \quad M_t = -\frac{q_{t+k} - \kappa q_t}{\kappa - \mu}.$$

To give the explicit formula for the term of the sequence  $(q_n)$ , we use the technique described in (2.3) for  $n = sk + t$  and  $t$  with  $0 \leq t < k$ . It is easy to see that  $q_n = q_{sk+t} = \kappa^s K_t + \mu^s M_t$ . Hence we proved the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.1.** *In the case  $D \neq 0$ , the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term of the sequence  $(q_n)$  satisfies*

$$q_n = \frac{q_{k+(n \bmod k)} - \mu q_{n \bmod k}}{\kappa - \mu} \kappa^{\lfloor n/k \rfloor} - \frac{q_{k+(n \bmod k)} - \kappa q_{n \bmod k}}{\kappa - \mu} \mu^{\lfloor n/k \rfloor}.$$

## 2.2. Case $D = 0$

If  $D$  is zero, then  $\kappa$  and  $\mu$  coincide with  $A_k/2$ . By Theorem 1, there exist complex numbers  $u_j$  and  $v_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, k$  such that

$$q_n = \sum_{j=1}^k (u_j n + v_j) \varepsilon^{(j-1)n} \kappa^{n/k} = nU_n + V_n, \quad (2.5)$$

where

$$U_n = \sum_{j=1}^k u_j \varepsilon^{(j-1)n} \kappa^{n/k}, \quad V_n = \sum_{j=1}^k v_j \varepsilon^{(j-1)n} \kappa^{n/k}. \quad (2.6)$$

Then  $q_t = tU_t + V_t$ , together with (2.5) and (2.6) provides  $q_{t+k} = \kappa((t+k)U_t + V_t)$ . The unique solution of the system

$$\begin{cases} tU_t + V_t = q_t \\ \kappa(t+k)U_t + \kappa V_t = q_{t+k} \end{cases}$$

is

$$U_t = \frac{q_{t+k} - \kappa q_t}{\kappa k}, \quad V_t = -\frac{tq_{t+k} - (t+k)\kappa q_t}{\kappa k}.$$

Consequently, if  $n = sk + t$  with  $0 \leq t < k$  then, clearly,  $q_n = \kappa^s(U_t n + V_t)$ , and by the notation

$$\omega = q_{t+k} - \kappa q_t, \quad \nu = tq_{t+k} - (t+k)\kappa q_t,$$

the following theorem holds.

**Theorem 2.2.** *If  $D = 0$  then*

$$q_n = \frac{1}{k} (\omega n + \nu) \kappa^{\lfloor n/k \rfloor - 1},$$

where  $\omega = q_{k+(n \bmod k)} - \kappa q_{n \bmod k}$  and  $\nu = -(n \bmod k)q_{k+(n \bmod k)} + (k + (n \bmod k))\kappa q_{n \bmod k}$ .

Note, that the application of Theorems 2.1 and 2.2 results a more precise formula for the term  $q_n$  if  $k$  is fixed. In the next two sections, we go into details in the cases  $k = 2$  and  $k = 3$ . We derive Theorem 5 in [2] as a corollary of Theorem 2.1 with  $k = 2$ .

### 3. The 2-periodic binary recurrences

Suppose that  $bd \neq 0$  and  $|q_0| + |q_1| \neq 0$  hold in (1.1). It is known, that the terms of the recurrence  $(q_n)$  satisfy the recurrence relation

$$q_n = (ac + b + d)q_{n-2} - bdq_{n-4}, \quad n \geq 4$$

of order four, where the initial values are, obviously,  $q_0, q_1, q_2 = aq_1 + bq_0$  and  $q_3 = (ac + d)q_1 + bcq_0$ . Put  $D = (ac + b + d)^2 - 4bd$ . Thus the zeros of the polynomial  $p_2(x) = x^2 - (ac + b + d)x + bd$  are

$$\kappa = \frac{ac + b + d + \sqrt{D}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu = \frac{ac + b + d - \sqrt{D}}{2}.$$

#### 3.1. Case $D \neq 0$

First assume that  $n$  is even, i.d.,  $t = (n \bmod 2) = 0$  holds in Theorem 2.1. Thus we obtain

$$q_n = \frac{q_2 - \mu q_0}{\kappa - \mu} \kappa^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} - \frac{q_2 - \kappa q_0}{\kappa - \mu} \mu^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}.$$

Clearly,  $q_2 - \mu q_0 = aq_1 + (b - \mu)q_0$ , further  $q_2 - \kappa q_0 = aq_1 + (b - \kappa)q_0$ .

Suppose now, that  $n$  is odd, i.d.,  $t = 1$ . Now Theorem 2.1 results

$$q_n = \frac{q_3 - \mu q_1}{\kappa - \mu} \kappa^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} - \frac{q_3 - \kappa q_1}{\kappa - \mu} \mu^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}.$$

Obviously,  $q_3 - \mu q_1 = (ac + d - \mu)q_1 + (bc)q_0 = (\kappa - b)q_1 + (bc)q_0$ , similarly  $q_3 - \kappa q_1 = (\mu - b)q_1 + (bc)q_0$ .

To join the even and odd cases together, we introduce

$$e_\kappa = a^{1-\xi(n)}(\kappa - b)^{\xi(n)}q_1 + (b - \mu)^{1-\xi(n)}(bc)^{\xi(n)}q_0$$

and

$$e_\mu = a^{1-\xi(n)}(\mu - b)^{\xi(n)}q_1 + (b - \kappa)^{1-\xi(n)}(bc)^{\xi(n)}q_0,$$

where  $\xi(n) = (n \bmod 2)$  is the parity function. Thus

$$q_n = \frac{e_\kappa \kappa^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} - e_\mu \mu^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor}}{\kappa - \mu}. \quad (3.1)$$

Observe that (3.1) returns with the explicit formula given in Theorem 5 of [2] if  $b = d = 1$  and  $q_0 = 0, q_1 = 1$ . Indeed, now  $e_\kappa = a^{1-\xi(n)}(\kappa - 1)^{\xi(n)}$ ,  $e_\mu = a^{1-\xi(n)}(\mu - 1)^{\xi(n)}$ , which together with  $a\kappa = (\kappa - 1)^2$  and  $a\mu = (\mu - 1)^2$  provide

$$q_n = \frac{a^{1-\xi(n)} (\kappa - 1)^n - (\mu - 1)^n}{(ac)^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor} (\kappa - 1) - (\mu - 1)}. \quad (3.2)$$

Clearly, by  $\alpha = \kappa - 1$  and  $\beta = \mu - 1$ , (3.2) coincides with the statement of Theorem 5 in [2].

### 3.2. Case $D = 0$

Note, that neither [2] nor [6] worked this subcase out. Observe, that  $D = 0$  is possible, for example, let  $b = rs^2, d = rt^2$ , further  $a = r$  and  $c = 4st - s^2 - t^2$ . Clearly,  $\kappa = \mu = (ac + b + d)/2$ .

Assume first that  $n$  is even, or equivalently  $t = 0$ . Then  $\omega = q_2 - \kappa q_0 = aq_1 + (b - \kappa)q_0$ , while  $\nu = 2\kappa q_0$ .

Supposing  $t = 1$ , it gives  $\omega = q_3 - \kappa q_1 = (ac + d - \kappa)q_1 + (bc)q_0 = (\kappa - b)q_1 + (bc)q_0$  and  $\nu = -(q_3 - 3\kappa q_1) = (\kappa + b)q_1 - (bc)q_0$ .

Henceforward,

$$q_n = \frac{1}{2}(\omega n + \nu)\kappa^{\lfloor n/2 \rfloor - 1}$$

describes the general case, where  $\omega = a^{1-\xi(n)}(\kappa - b)^{\xi(n)}q_1 + (b - \kappa)^{1-\xi(n)}(bc)^{\xi(n)}q_0$  and  $\nu = \xi(n)(\kappa + b)q_1 + (-1)^{\xi(n)}(2\kappa)^{1-\xi(n)}(bc)^{\xi(n)}q_0$ .

## 4. The 3-periodic binary recurrences

This section follows the structure of the previous one. Let  $a, b, c, d, e, f$  and  $q_0, q_1$  are arbitrary complex numbers with  $bd \neq 0$  and  $|q_0| + |q_1| \neq 0$ . For  $n \geq 2$ , the terms of the sequence  $(q_n)$  are defined by

$$q_n = \begin{cases} aq_{n-1} + bq_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \equiv 0 \pmod{3}; \\ cq_{n-1} + dq_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \equiv 1 \pmod{3}; \\ eq_{n-1} + fq_{n-2}, & \text{if } n \equiv 2 \pmod{3}. \end{cases}$$

It is known, that recurrence  $(q_n)$  satisfies the recurrence relation

$$q_n = (ace + bc + de + af) q_{n-3} + bdf q_{n-6}$$

of order six, where the initial values are

$$\begin{aligned} q_0, q_1, q_2 &= eq_1 + fq_0, \\ q_3 &= (ae + b)q_1 + afq_0, \\ q_4 &= (ace + bc + de)q_1 + (acf + df)q_0, \\ q_5 &= (ace^2 + bce + de^2 + aef + bf)q_1 + (acef + def + af^2)q_0. \end{aligned}$$

Put  $D = (ace + bc + de + af)^2 + 4bdf$ . Thus, the roots of the polynomial

$$p_3(x) = x^2 - (ace + bc + de + af)x - bdf$$

are

$$\kappa = \frac{(ace + bc + de + af) + \sqrt{D}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \mu = \frac{(ace + bc + de + af) - \sqrt{D}}{2}.$$

In the sequel, we need the sequence  $(a_n)$  defined by  $a_n = 1$  if 3 divides  $n$ , and  $a_n = 0$  otherwise.

#### 4.1. Case $D \neq 0$

The consequence of Theorem 2.1 is the nice formula

$$q_n = \frac{e_\kappa \kappa^{\lfloor n/3 \rfloor} - e_\mu \mu^{\lfloor n/3 \rfloor}}{\kappa - \mu},$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} e_\kappa &= (ae + b)^{a_n} (\kappa - af)^{a_{n+2}} (e\kappa + fb)^{a_{n+1}} q_1 \\ &\quad + (af - \mu)^{a_n} (f(ac + d))^{a_{n+2}} (f(\kappa - bc))^{a_{n+1}} q_0, \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} e_\mu &= (ae + b)^{a_n} (\mu - af)^{a_{n+2}} (e\mu + fb)^{a_{n+1}} q_1 \\ &\quad + (af - \kappa)^{a_n} (f(ac + d))^{a_{n+2}} (f(\mu - bc))^{a_{n+1}} q_0. \end{aligned}$$

Indeed, for  $t = 0, 1, 2$

$$q_{t+3} - \mu q_t = \begin{cases} (ae + b)q_1 + (af - \mu)q_0, & \text{if } t = 0; \\ (\kappa - af)q_1 + (ac + d)fq_0, & \text{if } t = 1; \\ (e\kappa + fb)q_1 + (\kappa - bc)fq_0, & \text{if } t = 2, \end{cases} \quad (4.1)$$

and  $q_{t+3} - \kappa q_t$  can similarly be obtained from (4.1) by switching  $\kappa$  and  $\mu$ .

## 4.2. Case $D = 0$

When  $t = 0$  we obtain  $\omega = (ae + b)q_1 + (af - \kappa)q_0$ ,  $\nu = 3\kappa q_0$ . Secondly,  $t = 1$  yields  $\omega = (\kappa - af)q_1 + (ac + d)f q_0$  and  $\nu = (2\kappa + af)q_1 - (ac + d)f q_0$ . Finally,  $\omega = (\kappa e + bf)q_1 + (\kappa - bc)f q_0$  and  $\nu = (\kappa e - 2bf)q_1 + (\kappa + 2bc)f q_0$  when  $t = 2$ .

So, we obtain

$$q_n = \frac{1}{3}(\omega n + \nu) \kappa^{\lfloor n/3 \rfloor - 1},$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} w &= (ae + b)^{a_n} (\kappa - af)^{a_{n+2}} (\kappa e - bf)^{a_{n+1}} q_1 \\ &\quad + (af - \kappa)^{a_n} ((ac + d)f)^{a_{n+1}} ((\kappa - bc)f)^{a_{n+2}} q_0 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \nu &= (1 - a_n) (2\kappa + af)^{a_{n+2}} (\kappa e - 2bf)^{a_{n+1}} q_1 \\ &\quad + (3\kappa)^{a_n} (-(ac + d)f)^{a_{n+2}} ((\kappa + 2bc)f)^{a_{n+1}} q_0. \end{aligned}$$

## 5. Constant subsequences in 2-periodic binary recurrences

In the last section we solve the problem posed in 2.2.2 of [6]. There, after pointing on few examples, the author claim a general sufficiency condition for the sequence (1.1) to be constant from a term  $q_\nu$  (actually,  $\nu = 1$  was asked in [6]). The forthcoming theorem describes the complete answer.

**Theorem 5.1.** *The sequence  $(q_n)$  takes the constant value  $q \in \mathbb{C}$  from the  $\nu^{\text{th}}$  terms ( $\nu \geq 0$ ) if and only if one of the following cases holds.*

1.  $q_0 = q_1 = 0$ , further  $a, b, c, d$  are arbitrary, ( $\nu = 0, q = 0$ ),
2.  $q_0 = q_1 = q \neq 0$ ,  $a + b = 1, c + d = 1$ , ( $\nu = 0, q \neq 0$ ),
3.  $q_0 \neq 0$  is arbitrary,  $q_1 = 0, b = 0$ , moreover  $a, c, d$  are arbitrary, ( $\nu = 1, q = 0$ ),
4.  $q_0 \neq q$  is arbitrary and  $q_1 = q$  with  $q \neq 0$ , and  $a = 1, b = 0, c + d = 1$ , ( $\nu = 1, q \neq 0$ ),
5.  $q_0$  and  $q_1 \neq 0$  are arbitrary,  $b, c$  are arbitrary,  $a = -bq_0/q_1, d = 0$ , ( $\nu = 2, q = 0$ ),
6.  $q_0$  and  $q_1 \neq q$  are arbitrary with  $q_1 \neq q_0$  and  $q = aq_1 + bq_0$ , where  $a + b = 1, a \neq 1, c = 1, d = 0$ , ( $\nu = 2, q \neq 0$ ),
7.  $q_0$  and  $q_1 \neq 0$  are arbitrary,  $a \neq 0$  and  $c$  are arbitrary,  $b = 0, d = -ac$ , ( $\nu = 3, q = 0$ ),

8.  $q_0$  and  $q_1 \neq cq_0$  are arbitrary, where  $a \neq 0$  and  $c \neq 0$  are arbitrary,  $b = -ac$ ,  $d = 0$ , ( $\nu = 4$ ,  $q = 0$ ).

*Proof.* Obviously, each of the conditions appearing in Theorem 5.1 is sufficient. We are going to show that one of them is necessary. Suppose that the sequence  $(q_n)$  takes the constant value  $q \in \mathbb{C}$  from the  $\nu^{\text{th}}$  terms.

I. First assume that  $\nu \geq 5$  is an integer. We introduce the notation  $(u, v) = (a, b)$  and  $(\check{u}, \check{v}) = (c, d)$  if  $\nu$  is odd, while  $(u, v) = (c, d)$  and  $(\check{u}, \check{v}) = (a, b)$  if  $\nu$  is even. Then the equations

$$\begin{aligned} q_{\nu-3} &= uq_{\nu-4} + vq_{\nu-5} & q_{\nu-2} &= \check{u}q_{\nu-3} + \check{v}q_{\nu-4} \\ q_{\nu-1} &= uq_{\nu-2} + vq_{\nu-3} & q &= \check{u}q_{\nu-1} + \check{v}q_{\nu-2} \\ q &= uq + vq_{\nu-1} & q &= \check{u}q + \check{v}q \\ q &= uq + vq \end{aligned}$$

hold, where  $q \neq q_{\nu-1}$ . The last two equations in the left column imply  $v(q_{\nu-1} - q) = 0$ . Therefore  $v = 0$  follows, and it simplifies the whole left column.

If  $q \neq 0$  then  $u = 1$  and  $\check{u} + \check{v} = 1$  fulfill. Hence  $q_{\nu-1} = q_{\nu-2}$ , consequently  $q = \check{u}q_{\nu-1} + \check{v}q_{\nu-2}$  leads to  $q = q_{\nu-1}$  and we arrived at a contradiction.

Consider now the case  $q = 0$ . Thus  $q_{\nu-1} \neq 0$ , and then we have the system

$$\begin{aligned} q_{\nu-3} &= uq_{\nu-4} & q_{\nu-2} &= \check{u}q_{\nu-3} + \check{v}q_{\nu-4} \\ q_{\nu-1} &= uq_{\nu-2} & 0 &= \check{u}q_{\nu-1} + \check{v}q_{\nu-2} \end{aligned}$$

to examine. Clearly,  $uq_{\nu-2} \neq 0$ . The equalities in the second row provide  $0 = u\check{u}q_{\nu-2} + \check{v}q_{\nu-2}$ , subsequently  $(u\check{u} + \check{v})q_{\nu-2} = 0$ , and then  $u\check{u} + \check{v} = 0$ . Insert it to  $q_{\nu-2} = u\check{u}q_{\nu-4} + \check{v}q_{\nu-4}$  (coming from the first row), and we obtain  $q_{\nu-2} = 0$ , which is impossible.

Hence, we have shown that if the constant subsequence of  $(q_n)$  starts at the term  $q_\nu$ , then necessarily  $\nu \leq 4$ .

II. In the second place we assume that  $\nu \leq 4$  and distinguish five cases. Note, that for the subscript  $k \geq \nu$  the equalities  $q_{k+2} = aq_{k+1} + bq_k$ ,  $q_{k+2} = cq_{k+1} + dq_k$  simplify to

$$q = aq + bq, \quad q = cq + dq, \quad (5.1)$$

respectively.

$\nu = 0$ . If  $q = 0$  then  $q_0 = q_1 = 0$  and, trivially, all the coefficients  $a, b, c$  and  $d$  are arbitrary. If  $q \neq 0$  then  $q_0 = q_1 = q$  and (5.1) must hold. Consequently,  $a + b = 1$  and  $c + d = 1$  follow.

$\nu = 1$ . Here  $q_0 \neq q$ . Further,  $q = aq + bq_0$ , together with the first equality of (5.1) provides  $b(q_0 - q) = 0$ . Thus  $b = 0$ .

Clearly,  $q = 0$  satisfies both (5.1) and  $q = aq + bq_0$  without further restrictions on  $a, b$  and  $c$ .

If  $q$  is non-zero, then (5.1) and  $b = 0$  imply  $a = 1$  and  $c + d = 1$ .

$\nu = 2$ . Besides (5.1), we also have

$$q = aq_1 + bq_0, \quad q = cq + dq_1 \quad (5.2)$$

with  $q_1 \neq q$ . The last equality and the second property of (5.1) give  $d = 0$  via  $d(q_1 - q) = 0$ .

Assume first  $q = 0$ . Then, except  $0 = aq_1 + bq_0$ , all the equalities in (5.1) and (5.2) are fulfilled. Since  $q_1 \neq 0$ , we can write  $a = -bq_0/q_1$ . Obviously  $b$  and  $c$  are arbitrary.

If  $q \neq 0$  then  $c = 1$  and  $a + b = 1$  follow. The value of the constant  $q$  is  $aq_1 + bq_0$ . Observe, that  $a \neq 1$  otherwise  $b = 0$ , and then  $q_1 = q$  would come.

$\nu = 3$ . Now  $q_2 \neq q$ . The conditions  $q_2 = aq_1 + bq_0$ ,  $q = cq_2 + dq_1$ ,  $q = aq + bq_2$  and (5.1) are valid. Thus  $b(q_2 - q)$  vanish, i.e.  $b = 0$ . Hence we obtain the system

$$\begin{array}{ll} q_2 & = aq_1 & q & = cq_2 + dq_1 \\ q & = aq & q & = cq + dq \end{array}$$

Suppose first that  $q = 0$ . Then  $q_2 = aq_1$  and  $0 = cq_2 + dq_1$  provide  $0 = (ac + d)q_1$ . Since  $q_1 = 0$  would give  $q_2 = 0$  therefore  $ac + d$  must be zero, so  $d = -ac$ . Also  $a \neq 0$  holds, otherwise  $q_2 = 0$  leads to a contradiction. Clearly,  $c$  is arbitrary.

Assume now that  $q$  is non-zero. Thus, from the last system above, we conclude  $a = 1$ ,  $c + d = 1$  and  $q_2 = q_1$ . Hence, the remaining equation  $q = cq_2 + dq_1$  becomes  $q = cq_2 + (1 - c)q_2$ , and we arrived at a contradiction by  $q \neq q_2$ . Subsequently,  $q \neq 0$  does not provide a constant sequence from the third term.

$\nu = 4$ . The technique we apply resembles us to the previous cases. Here  $q_3 \neq q$ . We have  $q_2 = aq_1 + bq_0$ ,  $q_3 = cq_2 + dq_1$ ,  $q = aq_3 + bq_2$ ,  $q = cq + dq_3$  and (5.1). Similarly,  $d(q_3 - q)$  implies  $d = 0$ . Thus

$$\begin{array}{ll} q_2 & = aq_1 + bq_0 & q_3 & = cq_2 \\ q & = aq_3 + bq_2 & q & = cq \\ q & = aq + bq & & \end{array}$$

If  $q = 0$  then  $q_3 = cq_2 \neq 0$ , further  $0 = aq_3 + bq_2$  and  $q_3 = cq_2$  yield  $ac + b = 0$ . Clearly,  $c \neq 0$ . Moreover  $a \neq 0$  holds, otherwise  $b = 0$  and  $q_2 = 0$  and  $q_3 = 0$  follow. Finally,  $q_1 \neq cq_0$  since  $q_2 \neq 0$ .

The assertion  $q \neq 0$ , similarly to the case  $\nu = 3$ , leads to a contradiction.  $\square$

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