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Asymptotics of Some Convolutional Recurrences

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Abstract

We study the asymptotic behavior of the terms in sequences satisfying recurrences of the form $a_n = a_{n-1} + \sum_{k=d}^{n-d} f(n,k) a_k a_{n-k}$ where, very roughly speaking, f(n,k) behaves like a product of reciprocals of binomial coefficients. Some examples of such sequences from map enumerations, Airy constants, and Painlevé I equations are discussed in detail.

1 Main results

There are many examples in the literature of sequences defined recursively using a convolution. It often seems difficult to determine the asymptotic behavior of such sequences. In this note we study the asymptotics of a general class of such sequences. We prove

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subexponential growth by using an iterative method that may be useful for other recurrences. By subexponential growth we mean that, for every constant D > 1, $a_n = o(D^n)$ as $n \to \infty$. Thus our motivation for this note is both the method and the applications we give.

Let d > 0 be a fixed integer and let $f(n, k) \ge 0$ be a function that behaves like a product of some powers of reciprocals of binomial coefficients, in a general sense to be specified in Theorem 1. We deal with the sequence a_n for $n \ge d$ where $a_d, a_{d+1}, \dots, a_{2d-1} \ge 0$ are arbitrary and, when $n \ge 2d$,

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + \sum_{k=d}^{n-d} f(n,k) a_k a_{n-k}.$$
 (1)

Without loss of generality,

we assume that
$$f(n,k) = f(n,n-k)$$

since we can replace f(n,k) and f(n,n-k) in (1) with $\frac{1}{2}(f(n,k)+f(n,n-k))$.

Theorem 1 proves subexponential growth. Theorem 2 provide more accurate estimates under additional assumptions. In Section 2, we apply the corollary to some examples.

Theorem 1 (Subexponential growth) Let a_n be defined by recursion (1) with $a_d > 0$. Suppose there is a function R(x) defined on (0, 1/2], an $\alpha > 0$ and an r such that

- (a) 0 < R(x) < r < 1,
- (b) $\lim_{x\to 0+} R(x) = 0$,
- (c) $0 \le f(n,k) = O\left(n^{-\alpha}R^{k-d}(k/n)\right)$ uniformly for $d \le k \le n/2$.

Then a_n grows subexponentially; in fact,

$$a_n = (1 + O(n^{-\alpha})) a_{n-1}.$$
 (2)

Proof: We first note that the a_n are non-decreasing when $n \ge 2d - 1$.

Our proof is in three steps. We first prove that $a_n = O(C^n)$ for some constant C > 2. We then prove that C can be chosen very close to 1. Finally we deduce (2) and subexponential growth.

First Step: Since the bound in (c) is bounded by some constant times the geometric series $n^{-\alpha}r^{k-d}$ with ratio less than 1, $\sum_{k=d}^{n-d} f(n,k) = O(n^{-\alpha})$. Hence we can choose M so large that $\sum_{k=d}^{n-d} f(n,k) < 1/4$ when n > M. Next choose $C \ge 2$ so large $(C = \max\{a_d, a_{d+1}, ..., a_{2d-1}, a_M, 2\}$ will do) that $a_n < 2C^n$ for $n \le M$. By induction, using the recursion (1), we have for n > M

$$a_n < 2C^{n-1} + (1/4)4C^n \le C^n + C^n = 2C^n.$$

Second Step: By (b) there is a λ in (0, 1/2) such that $R(x) < \frac{1}{2C}$ for $0 < x < \lambda$. Fix any $D \leq C$ such that $a_n = O(D^n)$, which is true for D = C by the First Step.

Split the sum in (1) into $\lambda n \leq k \leq (1 - \lambda)n$ and the rest, calling the first range of k the "center" and the rest the "tail". Noting r < 1, the center sum is bounded by

$$2\sum_{k=\lambda n+1}^{n/2} f(n,k) a_k a_{n-k} = O\left(D^n \sum_{k=\lambda n+1}^{n/2} r^{k-d}\right) = O\left((r^{\lambda} D)^n\right).$$
 (3)

Since a_i are increasing, the tail sum is bounded by

$$2\sum_{k=d}^{\lambda n} f(n,k)a_k a_{n-k} = O(n^{-\alpha})a_{n-1} \sum_{k=d}^{\lambda n} R(x)^{k-d} D^k$$

$$= O(n^{-\alpha})a_{n-1} \sum_{k=d}^{\lambda n} (DR(x))^{k-d} = O(n^{-\alpha}a_{n-1}),$$
(4)

where the last equality follows from the fact that DR(x) < 1/2. Combining (3) and (4),

$$a_n = (1 + O(n^{-\alpha})) a_{n-1} + O((r^{\lambda}D)^n).$$
 (5)

When $r^{\lambda}D > 1$, induction on n easily leads to $a_n = O((r^{\lambda}D')^n)$ for any D' > D, an exponential growth rate no larger than $r^{\lambda}D'$.

Since r^{λ} has a fixed value less than one, we can iterate this process, replacing D by $r^{\lambda}D'$ at the start of the Second Step. We finally obtain a growth rate D > 1 with $r^{\lambda}D < 1$. This completes the second step.

Third Step: With the value of D just obtained, the last term in (5) is exponentially small and hence is $O(n^{-\alpha}a_{n-1})$. Thus we obtain (2) which immediately implies subexponential growth of a_n , since $1 + O(n^{-\alpha}) < D$ for any D > 1 and sufficiently large n.

To say more than (2), we need additional information about the behavior of the f(n, k). When f(n, k)/f(n, d) is small for each k in the range $d + 1 \le k \le n - d - 1$, the first and last terms dominate the sum. The following theorem is based on this observation.

Theorem 2 (Asymptotic behavior) Assume (a)–(c) of Theorem 1 hold. Suppose further that there is a $\beta > 0$ such that

$$\frac{f(n,k)}{f(n,d)} = O(n^{-\beta}r^{k-d-1}) \quad uniformly for \quad d+1 \le k \le n/2.$$
 (6)

Then

$$\log a_n = 2a_d \sum_{k=2d+1}^n f(k,d) + O\left(\sum_{k=2d}^n f(k,d) \left(k^{-\alpha} + k^{-\beta}\right)\right).$$
 (7)

Proof: We assume n > 2d. Remove the k = d and k = n - d terms from the sum in (1). We first deal with the remaining sum. Theorem 1 gives $a_k = O(D^k)$ for all D > 1, so we can assume D < 1/r. Using (6)

$$\sum_{k=d+1}^{n-d-1} f(n,k) a_k a_{n-k} = O\left(f(n,d) n^{-\beta} a_{n-1}\right) \sum_{k=d+1}^{n/2} r^{k-d-1} D^k$$
$$= O\left(f(n,d) n^{-\beta} a_{n-1}\right).$$

Combining this with (1), we obtain

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_d f(n, d) a_{n-d} + f(n, d) O(n^{-\beta}) a_{n-1}$$

= $a_{n-1} \Big(1 + 2a_d f(n, d) + \{ O(n^{-\alpha}) + O(n^{-\beta}) \} f(n, d) \Big),$

Taking logarithms and noting for expansion purposes that $f(n,d) = O(n^{-\alpha})$, we obtain

$$\log a_n - \log a_{n-1} = 2a_d f(n, d) + O((n^{-\alpha} + n^{-\beta}) f(n, d)).$$

Sum over n starting with n = 2d + 1. The theorem follows immediately when we note that the constant terms can be incorporated into the O() in (7) since the sum therein is bounded below by a nonzero constant.

Corollary 1 Assume the conditions of Theorem 2 hold and $f(n,d) = \Theta(n^{-\alpha})$.

- If $\alpha < 1$, then $a_n = \exp(\Theta(n^{1-\alpha}))$.
- If $\alpha > 1$, then $a_n = K + O(n^{1-\alpha})$ for some constant K.
- If f(n,d) A/n are the terms of a convergent series, then $a_n \sim Cn^{2Aa_d}$ for some positive constant C.

Proof: Since $\alpha > 0$ and $\beta > 0$, (7) gives $\log a_n = \Theta(\sum_{k=2d+1}^n k^{-\alpha})$. The case $\alpha < 1$ follows immediately; for $\alpha > 1$, we see that a_n is bounded and nondecreasing and therefore has a limit K. For m > n, (2) gives $\log(a_m/a_n) = O(n^{1-\alpha})$ uniformly in m. Letting $m \to \infty$, we obtain the claim regarding $\alpha > 1$.

For $\alpha = 1$, the first sum in (7) is $A \log n + B + o(1)$ for some constant B, and the last sum in (7) converges.

2 Examples

We apply Theorem 2 and Corollary 1 to some recursions which arise from combinatorial applications. In our examples, f(n, k) behaves like a product of the reciprocal of binomial coefficients, which satisfies the conditions of Theorems 1 and 2. A more general case of interest is when f(n, k) takes the form of the product of functions like

$$g(n,k) = \frac{[a]_k [a]_{n-k}}{[a]_n}$$

for some constant a > 0, where $[x]_k = x(x+1)\cdots(x+k-1) = \frac{\Gamma(x+k)}{\Gamma(k)}$, the rising factorial. We note that when a = 1, $g(n,k) = \binom{n}{k}^{-1}$.

We begin with some useful bounds. When a > 0 and $1 \le k \le n/2$,

$$g(n,k) = \prod_{j=0}^{k-1} \frac{a+j}{a+n-k+j} < \left(\frac{a+k}{a+n}\right)^k$$

$$\leq (k/n)^k \left(\frac{1+a/k}{1+a/n}\right)^k = O\left((k/n)^k\right) = O\left(n^{-1}(3k/2n)^{k-1}\right)$$
(8)

since $k(2/3)^{k-1}$ is bounded. So g satisfies the condition on f in Theorem 1(c), with $\alpha = 1$. Similarly, when a > 0 and $d \le k \le n/2$,

$$\frac{g(n,k)}{g(n,d)} = \prod_{j=0}^{k-d-1} \frac{a+d+j}{a+n-k+d+j} = O\left(n^{-1}(3k/2n)^{k-d-1}\right). \tag{9}$$

This is in accordance with (6) with $\beta = 1$.

Example 1 (Map enumeration constants) There are numbers t_n appearing in the asymptotic enumeration of maps in an orientable surface of genus n, whose value does not concern us here. Define u_n by

$$t_n = 8 \frac{[1/5]_n [4/5]_{n-1}}{\Gamma(\frac{5n-1}{2})} \left(\frac{25}{96}\right)^n u_n.$$

Then $u_1 = 1/10$ and u_n satisfies the following recursion [3]

$$u_n = u_{n-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f(n,k)u_k u_{n-k} \quad \text{for} \quad n \geqslant 2,$$
 (10)

where

$$f(n,k) = \frac{[1/5]_k [1/5]_{n-k}}{[1/5]_n} \frac{[4/5]_{k-1} [4/5]_{n-k-1}}{[4/5]_{n-1}}.$$

From the observations above, the conditions of Theorem 2 are satisfied with d=1, $R(\lambda)=(3\lambda/2)^2$ and $\alpha=\beta=2$. Hence, $u_n\sim K$ for some constant K. Unlike the proof in [3], this does not depend on the value of u_1 .

Example 2 (Airy constants) The Airy constants Ω_n are determined by $\Omega_1 = 1/2$ and the recurrence [7]

$$\Omega_n = (3n-4)n\Omega_{n-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} \Omega_k \Omega_{n-k} \quad \text{for} \quad n \geqslant 2.$$

Let $\Omega_n = n! [2/3]_{n-1} 3^n a_n$. Then a_n satisfies (1) with d = 1 and

$$f(n,k) = \frac{[2/3]_{k-1} [2/3]_{n-k-1}}{[2/3]_{n-1}}.$$

Theorem 2 applies with d=1, $R(\lambda)=3\lambda/2$ and $\alpha=\beta=1$. Since

$$f(n,1) = \frac{1}{n-4/3} = \frac{1}{n} + \frac{4/3}{n(n-4/3)}$$

and $a_1 = 1/6$, we have $a_n \sim C n^{1/3}$ for some constant C.

We note that it is possible to apply the result of Olde Daalhuis [13] to obtain a full asymptotic expansion for Ω_n . Let

$$A_n = \frac{\Omega_n}{3^n n!}.$$

Then the recursion for Ω_n becomes

$$A_n = (n - 4/3) A_{n-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} A_k A_{n-k}, \ n \geqslant 2.$$

It follows that the formal series

$$F(z) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \frac{A_n}{z^n}$$

satisfies the Riccati equation

$$F'(z) + \left(1 + \frac{1}{3z}\right)F(z) - F^2(z) - \frac{1}{6z} = 0.$$

It then follows from the result of Olde Daalhuis [13] that

$$A_n \sim \frac{1}{2\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k \Gamma(n-k)$$
, as $n \to \infty$,

where $b_0 = 1$ and b_k can be computed using the recursion

$$b_k = \frac{-2}{k} \sum_{j=2}^{k+1} b_{k+1-j} A_j, \quad k \geqslant 1.$$

In particular, we have

$$\Omega_n \sim \frac{1}{2\pi} \Gamma(n) 3^n n! = \frac{1}{2\pi n} (n!)^2 3^n$$
, as $n \to \infty$.

It is well known that solutions to the Riccati equation have infinitely many singularities, hence F(z) (via its Borel transform [2]) cannot satisfy a linear ODE with polynomial coefficients. This implies that the sequence A_n (and hence Ω_n) is not holonomic.

Example 3 The following recursion, with $\ell > 0$ and $\ell \neq 1/2$, appeared in [6]. The Airy constants are the special case $\ell = 1$. The case $\ell = 2$ corresponds to the recursion studied in [9, 10], which arises in the study of the Wiener index of Catalan trees. We have $C_1 = \frac{\Gamma(\ell-1/2)}{\sqrt{\pi}}$ and, for $n \geqslant 2$,

$$C_n = n \frac{\Gamma(n\ell + (n/2) - 1)}{\Gamma((n-1)\ell + (n/2) - 1)} C_{n-1} + \frac{1}{4} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} C_k C_{n-k}.$$
 (11)

Define a_n by $C_n = n! g(n)a_n$ where g(1) = 1 and

$$g(m) = \prod_{k=2}^{m} \frac{\Gamma(k\ell + (k/2) - 1)}{\Gamma((k-1)\ell + (k/2) - 1)}.$$

Then (11) becomes

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{g(k)g(n-k)}{4g(n)} a_k a_{n-k},$$

so f(n,k) = g(k)g(n-k)/4g(n).

With a fixed and $x \to \infty$ and using 6.1.47 on p.257 of [1] (or using Stirling's formula), we have

$$\frac{\Gamma(x+a)}{\Gamma(x)} = x^a \left(1 + \frac{a(a-1)}{2x} + O(1/x^2) \right)
= x^a \left(1 + \frac{a-1}{2x} \right)^a \left(1 + O(1/x^2) \right)
= \left(x + \frac{a-1}{2} \right)^a \left(1 + O(1/x^2) \right).$$
(12)

When m > 1, (13) gives us

$$\begin{split} g(m) &= \prod_{k=2}^m \left(\frac{(2\ell+1)k - \ell - 3}{2} \right)^\ell \left(1 + O(1/k^2) \right) \\ &= \Theta(1) \left((\ell+1/2)^m \prod_{k=2}^m \left(k - \frac{\ell+3}{2\ell+1} \right) \right)^\ell \\ &= \Theta(1) \left((\ell+1/2)^m \left[a \right]_{m-1} \right)^\ell, \text{ where } a = \frac{3\ell-1}{2\ell+1}. \end{split}$$

Hence

$$f(n,k) = \Theta(1) \left| \frac{[a]_{k-1} [a]_{n-k-1}}{[a]_{n-1}} \right|^{\ell}.$$

where the absolute values have been introduced to allow for a < 0. A slight adjustment of the argument leading to (8) and (9) leads to

$$f(n,k) = O(n^{-\ell}(3k/2n)^{\ell(k-1)})$$
 and $\frac{f(n,k)}{f(n,1)} = O(n^{-\ell}(3k/2n)^{\ell(k-d-1)})$

for $1 \le k \le n/2$. Hence Theorem 2 applies with $\alpha = \beta = \ell$, and a_n converges to a constant when $\ell > 1$ by Corollary 1.

It is interesting to note that there is a simple relation between the sequence u_n in Example 1 and the sequence a_n in Example 3 with $\ell = 2$. It is not difficult to check that the f(n,k) defined in Example 3 is exactly five times the f(n,k) in Example 1: since $a_1 = 5u_1$, we have $a_n = 5u_n$ for all $n \ge 1$. This simple relation suggests a relationship between the number of maps on an orientable surface of genus g and the gth moment of a particular toll function on a certain type of trees. Using a bijective approach, Chapuy [4] recently found an expression for t_g as the gth moment of the labels in a random well-labelled tree.

3 A convolutional recursion arising from Painlevé I

The following is recursion (44) in [11].

$$\alpha_n = (n-1)^2 \alpha_{n-1} + \sum_{k=2}^{n-2} \alpha_k \alpha_{n-k}, \ n \geqslant 1, \ n \geqslant 3.$$
 (14)

It follows from Proposition 14 of [11] that, for $0 < \alpha_1 < 1$ and $\alpha_2 = \alpha_1 - \alpha_1^2$,

$$\alpha_n = c(\alpha_1)((n-1)!)^2 \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha_2(n-3)}{3(n-1)^2(n-2)^2} + \delta_n\right),\tag{15}$$

where $c(\alpha_1)$ depends only on α_1 , and

$$\delta_n = O(1/n^4).$$

We note that α_n for $n \ge 3$ depends only on α_2 . The proof of (15) relies on the fact that $0 < \alpha_2 < 1/4$ for $0 < \alpha_1 < 1$. It is conjectured in [11] that the asymptotic expression (15) actually holds for a wider range of values of α_1 .

For $n \geqslant 1$, let

$$p_n = \frac{\alpha_n}{((n-1)!)^2}.$$

Then, as shown in [11], p_n satisfies recursion (1) with d=2 and

$$f(n,k) = \left(\frac{(n-k-1)!(k-1)!}{(n-1)!}\right)^{2}.$$

We note here $f(n,2) = O(n^{-4})$. It follows from Theorem 2 that

$$p_n = p(1 + \epsilon_n)$$
 for any $\alpha_2 > 0$,

where $p = p(\alpha_2)$ is a positive constant and $\epsilon_n = O(1/n^3)$.

It is also interesting to note that, with $\alpha_1 = 1/50$, $\alpha_2 = 49/2500$, the sequence α_n is related to the sequence u_n in Example 1 by

$$\alpha_n = [1/5]_n [4/5]_{n-1} u_n.$$

As mentioned in [11], the formal series $v(t) = \sum_{n \ge 1} \alpha_n t^{-n}$ satisfies

$$t^{2}v'' + tv' - (t + 2\alpha_{1})v + tv^{2} + \alpha_{1} = 0,$$
(16)

and hence, with

$$t = \frac{8\sqrt{6}}{25}x^{5/2},$$

 $y(x) = (x/6)^{1/2}(1-2v(t))$ satisfies the following Painlevé I:

$$y'' = 6y^2 - x.$$

This connection with Painlevé I is used in [8] to show that the sequence α_n is not holonomic (It follows that u_n and t_n in Example 1 are also not holonomic). The proof uses the fact that solutions to Painlevé I have infinitely many singularities and hence cannot satisfy a linear ODE with polynomial coefficients.

In the following we apply the techniques of [14] to prove that (15) holds for any complex constant α_1 . It is convenient to introduce the formal series

$$u_0(z) = v(z^2) = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} b_n z^{-n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n z^{-2n}.$$

It follows from (16) that $u = u_0(z)$ is a formal solution to the differential equation

$$\frac{1}{4}u'' + \frac{1}{4z}u' - \left(1 + \frac{2\alpha_1}{z^2}\right)u + u^2 + \frac{\alpha_1}{z^2} = 0.$$

The Stokes lines for this differential equation are the positive and the negative real axes. When the negative real axis is crossed the Stokes phenomenon switches on a divergent series

$$u_1(z) = Ke^{2z}z^{-1/2}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n z^{-n},$$

in which the Stokes multiplier K is a constant (depending on the constant α_1). To determine the coefficients c_n we observe that u_1 is a solution of the linear differential equation

$$\frac{1}{4}u_1'' + \frac{1}{4z}u_1' - \left(1 + \frac{2\alpha_1}{z^2} - 2u_0\right)u_1 = 0.$$

Hence, for the coefficients c_n we can take $c_0 = 1$ and for the others we have

$$nc_n = \frac{1}{4} \left(n - \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 c_{n-1} + 2 \sum_{k=4}^{n+1} b_k c_{n+1-k}, \quad n \geqslant 1.$$

The first five coefficients are

$$c_0 = 1$$
, $c_1 = \frac{1}{16}$, $c_2 = \frac{9}{512}$, $c_3 = \frac{75}{8192} + \frac{2}{3}\alpha_2$, $c_4 = \frac{3675}{524288} + \frac{13}{24}\alpha_2$.

In a similar manner it can be shown that when the positive real axis is crossed the Stokes phenomenon switches on a divergent series

$$u_2(z) = iKe^{-2z}z^{-1/2}\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n c_n z^{-n}.$$

This is all the information that is needed to conclude that

$$\alpha_n = b_{2n} \sim \frac{K}{\pi} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k c_k \frac{\Gamma(2n - k - \frac{1}{2})}{2^{2n - k - (1/2)}}, \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.$$

By taking the first 4 terms in this expansion we can verify that (15) holds for any complex constant α_1 .

For more details see [12], [13] and [14]. (It's best to get the version of the first reference on the website http://www.maths.ed.ac.uk/ adri/public.htm.)

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