CHAPTER

8 Advanced Counting Techniques

Many counting problems cannot be solved easily using the methods discussed in Chapter 6. One such problem is: How many bit strings of length n do not contain two consecutive zeros? To solve this problem, let a_n be the number of such strings of length n. An argument can be given that shows that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the recurrence relation $a_{n+1} = a_n + a_{n-1}$ and the initial conditions $a_1 = 2$ and $a_2 = 3$. This recurrence relation and the initial conditions determine the sequence $\{a_n\}$. Moreover, an explicit formula can be found for a_n from the equation relating the terms of the sequence. As we will see, a similar technique can be used to solve many different types of counting problems.

We will discuss two ways that recurrence relations play important roles in the study of algorithms. First, we will introduce an important algorithmic paradigm known as dynamic programming. Algorithms that follow this paradigm break down a problem into overlapping subproblems. The solution to the problem is then found from the solutions to the subproblems through the use of a recurrence relation. Second, we will study another important algorithmic paradigm, divide-and-conquer. Algorithms that follow this paradigm can be used to solve a problem by recursively breaking it into a fixed number of nonoverlapping subproblems until these problems can be solved directly. The complexity of such algorithms can be analyzed using a special type of recurrence relation. In this chapter we will discuss a variety of divide-and-conquer algorithms and analyze their complexity using recurrence relations.

We will also see that many counting problems can be solved using formal power series, called generating functions, where the coefficients of powers of x represent terms of the sequence we are interested in. Besides solving counting problems, we will also be able to use generating functions to solve recurrence relations and to prove combinatorial identities.

Many other kinds of counting problems cannot be solved using the techniques discussed in Chapter 6, such as: How many ways are there to assign seven jobs to three employees so that each employee is assigned at least one job? How many primes are there less than 1000? Both of these problems can be solved by counting the number of elements in the union of sets. We will develop a technique, called the principle of inclusion–exclusion, that counts the number of elements in a union of sets, and we will show how this principle can be used to solve counting problems.

The techniques studied in this chapter, together with the basic techniques of Chapter 6, can be used to solve many counting problems.

8.1 Applications of Recurrence Relations

8.1.1 Introduction

Recall from Chapter 2 that a recursive definition of a sequence specifies one or more initial terms and a rule for determining subsequent terms from those that precede them. Also, recall that a rule of the latter sort (whether or not it is part of a recursive definition) is called a **recurrence relation** and that a sequence is called a *solution* of a recurrence relation if its terms satisfy the recurrence relation.

In this section we will show that such relations can be used to study and to solve counting problems. For example, suppose that the number of bacteria in a colony doubles every hour. If a colony begins with five bacteria, how many will be present in n hours? To solve this problem, let a_n be the number of bacteria at the end of n hours. Because the number of bacteria doubles every hour, the relationship $a_n = 2a_{n-1}$ holds whenever n is a positive integer. This recurrence relation, together with the initial condition $a_0 = 5$, uniquely determines a_n for all nonnegative integers n. We can find a formula for a_n using the iterative approach followed in Chapter 2, namely that $a_n = 5 \cdot 2^n$ for all nonnegative integers n.

Some of the counting problems that cannot be solved using the techniques discussed in Chapter 6 can be solved by finding recurrence relations involving the terms of a sequence, as was done in the problem involving bacteria. In this section we will study a variety of counting problems that can be modeled using recurrence relations. In Chapter 2 we developed methods for solving certain recurrence relation. In Section 8.2 we will study methods for finding explicit formulae for the terms of sequences that satisfy certain types of recurrence relations.

We conclude this section by introducing the algorithmic paradigm of dynamic programming. After explaining how this paradigm works, we will illustrate its use with an example.

8.1.2 Modeling With Recurrence Relations

Assessment

We can use recurrence relations to model a wide variety of problems, such as finding compound interest (see Example 11 in Section 2.4), counting rabbits on an island, determining the number of moves in the Tower of Hanoi puzzle, and counting bit strings with certain properties.

Extra Examples

Example 1 shows how the population of rabbits on an island can be modeled using a recurrence relation.

EXAMPLE 1 **Rabbits and the Fibonacci Numbers** Consider this problem, which was originally posed by Leonardo Pisano, also known as Fibonacci, in the thirteenth century in his book *Liber abaci*. A young pair of rabbits (one of each sex) is placed on an island. A pair of rabbits does not breed until they are 2 months old. After they are 2 months old, each pair of rabbits produces another pair each month, as shown in Figure 1. Find a recurrence relation for the number of pairs of rabbits on the island after n months, assuming that no rabbits ever die.

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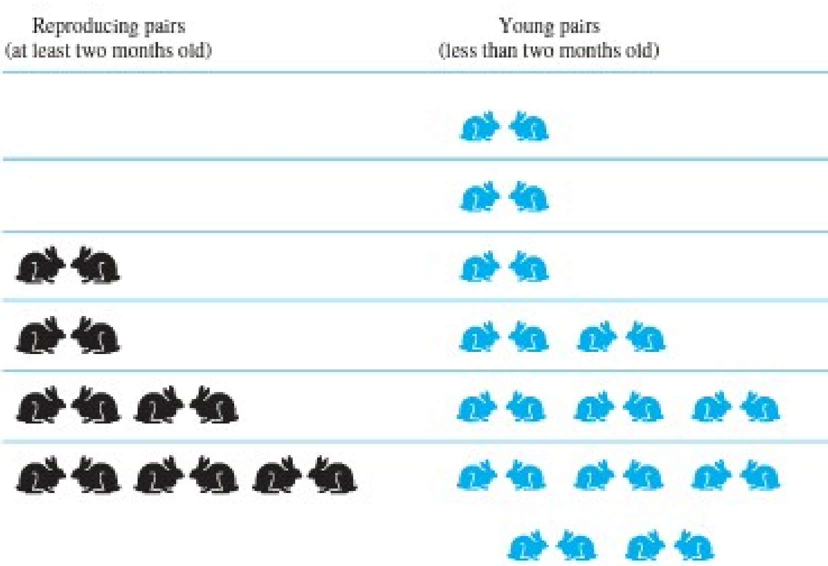

Month	Reproducing pairs	Young pairs	Total pairs
1	0	1	1
2	0	1	1
3	1	1	2
4	1	2	3
5	2	3	5
6	3	5	8

FIGURE 1 **Rabbits on an island.**

Solution: Denote by f_n the number of pairs of rabbits after n months. We will show that f_n, $n = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$, are the terms of the Fibonacci sequence.

The rabbit population can be modeled using a recurrence relation. At the end of the first month, the number of pairs of rabbits on the island is $f_1 = 1$. Because this pair does not breed during the second month, $f_2 = 1$ also. To find the number of pairs after n months, add the number on the island the previous month, f_{n-1}, and the number of newborn pairs, which equals f_{n-2}, because each newborn pair comes from a pair at least 2 months old.

The Fibonacci numbers appear in many other places in nature, including the number of petals on flowers and the number of spirals on seedheads.

Consequently, the sequence $\{f_n\}$ satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$$

for $n \geq 3$ together with the initial conditions $f_1 = 1$ and $f_2 = 1$. Because this recurrence relation and the initial conditions uniquely determine this sequence, the number of pairs of rabbits on the island after n months is given by the nth Fibonacci number. ◀

Demo

Example 2 involves a famous puzzle.

EXAMPLE 2 **The Tower of Hanoi Puzzle** A popular puzzle of the late nineteenth century invented by the French mathematician Édouard Lucas, called the Tower of Hanoi, consists of three pegs mounted on a board together with disks of different sizes. Initially these disks are placed on the first peg in order of size, with the largest on the bottom (as shown in Figure 2). The rules of the puzzle allow disks to be moved one at a time from one peg to another as long as a disk is never placed on top of a smaller disk. The goal of the puzzle is to have all the disks on the second peg in order of size, with the largest on the bottom.

Links

Let H_n denote the number of moves needed to solve the Tower of Hanoi puzzle with n disks. Set up a recurrence relation for the sequence $\{H_n\}$.

Solution: Begin with n disks on peg 1. We can transfer the top $n - 1$ disks, following the rules of the puzzle, to peg 3 using H_{n-1} moves (see Figure 3 for an illustration of the pegs and disks at this point). We keep the largest disk fixed during these moves. Then, we use one move to transfer the largest disk to the second peg. Finally, we transfer the $n - 1$ disks on peg 3 to peg 2 using H_{n-1} moves, placing them on top of the largest disk, which always stays fixed on the bottom of peg 2. This shows that we can solve the Tower of Hano puzzle for n disks using $2H_{n-1} + 1$ moves.

Schemes for efficiently backing up computer files on multiple tapes or other media are based on the moves used to solve the Tower of Hanoi puzzle.

We now show that we cannot solve the puzzle for n disks using fewer that $2H_{n-1} + 1$ moves. Note that when we move the largest disk, we must have already moved the $n - 1$ smaller disks onto a peg other than peg 1. Doing so requires at least H_{n-1} moves. Another move is needed to

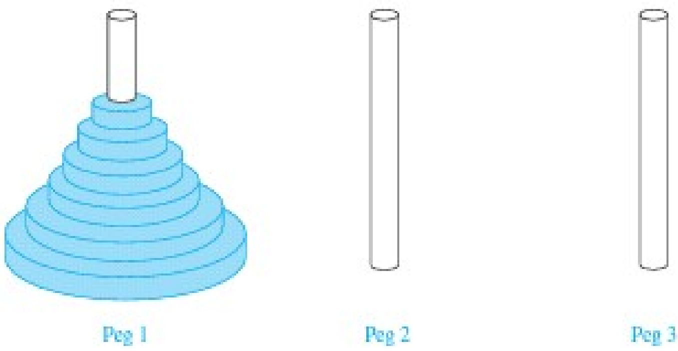

FIGURE 2 The initial position in the Tower of Hanoi.

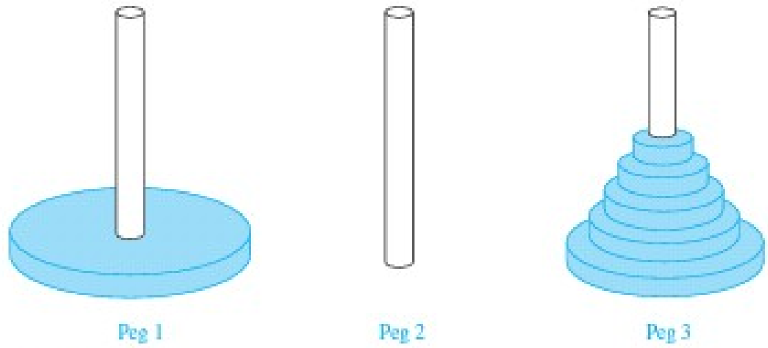

FIGURE 3 An intermediate position in the Tower of Hanoi.

transfer the largest disk. Finally, at least H_{n-1} more moves are needed to put the $n - 1$ smallest disks back on top of the largest disk. Adding the number of moves required gives us the desired lower bound.

We conclude that

$$H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1.$$

The initial condition is $H_1 = 1$, because one disk can be transferred from peg 1 to peg 2, according to the rules of the puzzle, in one move.

We can use an iterative approach to solve this recurrence relation. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} H_n &= 2H_{n-1} + 1 \\ &= 2(2H_{n-2} + 1) + 1 = 2^2H_{n-2} + 2 + 1 \\ &= 2^2(2H_{n-3} + 1) + 2 + 1 = 2^3H_{n-3} + 2^2 + 2 + 1 \\ &\vdots \\ &= 2^{n-1}H_1 + 2^{n-2} + 2^{n-3} + \cdots + 2 + 1 \\ &= 2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2} + \cdots + 2 + 1 \\ &= 2^n - 1. \end{aligned}$$

We have used the recurrence relation repeatedly to express H_n in terms of previous terms of the sequence. In the next to last equality, the initial condition $H_1 = 1$ has been used. The last equality is based on the formula for the sum of the terms of a geometric series, which can be found in Theorem 1 in Section 2.4.

The iterative approach has produced the solution to the recurrence relation $H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$ with the initial condition $H_1 = 1$. This formula can be proved using mathematical induction. This is left for the reader as Exercise 1.

A myth created to accompany the puzzle tells of a tower in Hanoi where monks are transferring 64 gold disks from one peg to another, according to the rules of the puzzle. The myth says that the world will end when they finish the puzzle. How long after the monks started will the world end if the monks take one second to move a disk?

From the explicit formula, the monks require

$$2^{64} - 1 = 18{,}446{,}744{,}073{,}709{,}551{,}615$$

moves to transfer the disks. Making one move per second, it will take them more than 500 billion years to complete the transfer, so the world should survive a while longer than it already has. ◂

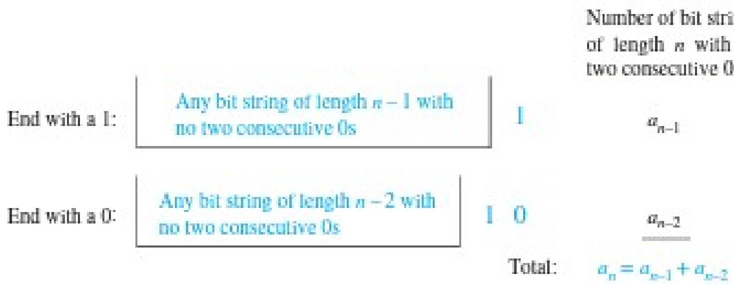

FIGURE 4 **Counting bit strings of length n with no two consecutive 0s.**

Links

Remark: Many people have studied variations of the original Tower of Hanoi puzzle discussed in Example 2. Some variations use more pegs, some allow disks to be of the same size, and some restrict the types of allowable disk moves. One of the oldest and most interesting variations is the **Reve's puzzle**,* proposed in 1907 by Henry Dudeney in his book *The Canterbury Puzzles*. The Reve's puzzle involves pilgrims challenged by the Reve to move a stack of cheese wheels of varying sizes from the first of four stools to another stool without ever placing a cheese wheel on one of smaller diameter. The Reve's puzzle, expressed in terms of pegs and disks, follows the same rules as the Tower of Hanoi puzzle, except that four pegs are used. Similarly, we can generalize the Tower of Hanoi puzzle where there are p pegs, where p is an integer greater than three. You may find it surprising that no one has been able to establish the minimum number of moves required to solve the generalization of this puzzle for p pegs. (Note that there have been some published claims that this problem has been solved, but these are not accepted by experts.) However, in 2014 Thierry Bousch showed that the minimum number of moves required when there are four pegs equals the number of moves used by an algorithm invented by Frame and Stewart in 1939. (See Exercises 38–45 and [St94] and [Bo14] for more information.)

Example 3 illustrates how recurrence relations can be used to count bit strings of a specified length that have a certain property.

EXAMPLE 3 Find a recurrence relation and give initial conditions for the number of bit strings of length n that do not have two consecutive 0s. How many such bit strings are there of length five?

Solution: Let a_n denote the number of bit strings of length n that do not have two consecutive 0s. We assume that $n \geq 3$, so that the bit string has at least three bits. Strings of this sort of length n can be divided into those that end in 1 and those that end in 0. The bit strings of length n ending with 1 that do not have two consecutive 0s are precisely the bit strings of length $n-1$ with no two consecutive 0s with a 1 added at the end. Consequently, there are a_{n-1} such bit strings.

Bit strings of length n ending with a 0 that do not have two consecutive 0s must have 1 as their $(n-1)$st bit; otherwise they would end with a pair of 0s. Hence, the bit strings of length n ending with a 0 that have no two consecutive 0s are precisely the bit strings of length $n-2$ with no two consecutive 0s with 10 added at the end. Consequently, there are a_{n-2} such bit strings.

We conclude, as illustrated in Figure 4, that

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$$

for $n \geq 3$.

***Reve*, more commonly spelled *reeve*, is an archaic word for *governor*.

The initial conditions are $a_1 = 2$, because both bit strings of length one, 0 and 1 do not have consecutive 0s, and $a_2 = 3$, because the valid bit strings of length two are 01, 10, and 11. To obtain a_5, we use the recurrence relation three times to find that

$$\begin{aligned} a_3 &= a_2 + a_1 = 3 + 2 = 5, \\ a_4 &= a_3 + a_2 = 5 + 3 = 8, \\ a_5 &= a_4 + a_3 = 8 + 5 = 13. \end{aligned}$$

◀

Remark: Note that $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the same recurrence relation as the Fibonacci sequence. Because $a_1 = f_3$ and $a_2 = f_4$ it follows that $a_n = f_{n+2}$.

Example 4 shows how a recurrence relation can be used to model the number of codewords that are allowable using certain validity checks.

EXAMPLE 4 **Codeword Enumeration** A computer system considers a string of decimal digits a valid codeword if it contains an even number of 0 digits. For instance, 1230407869 is valid, whereas 120987045608 is not valid. Let a_n be the number of valid n-digit codewords. Find a recurrence relation for a_n.

Solution: Note that $a_1 = 9$ because there are 10 one-digit strings, and only one, namely, the string 0, is not valid. A recurrence relation can be derived for this sequence by considering how a valid n-digit string can be obtained from strings of $n - 1$ digits. There are two ways to form a valid string with n digits from a string with one fewer digit.

First, a valid string of n digits can be obtained by appending a valid string of $n - 1$ digits with a digit other than 0. This appending can be done in nine ways. Hence, a valid string with n digits can be formed in this manner in $9a_{n-1}$ ways.

Second, a valid string of n digits can be obtained by appending a 0 to a string of length $n - 1$ that is not valid. (This produces a string with an even number of 0 digits because the invalid string of length $n - 1$ has an odd number of 0 digits.) The number of ways that this can be done equals the number of invalid $(n - 1)$-digit strings. Because there are 10^{n-1} strings of length $n - 1$, and a_{n-1} are valid, there are $10^{n-1} - a_{n-1}$ valid n-digit strings obtained by appending an invalid string of length $n - 1$ with a 0.

Because all valid strings of length n are produced in one of these two ways, it follows that there are

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= 9a_{n-1} + (10^{n-1} - a_{n-1}) \\ &= 8a_{n-1} + 10^{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

valid strings of length n. ◀

Example 5 establishes a recurrence relation that appears in many different contexts.

EXAMPLE 5 Find a recurrence relation for C_n, the number of ways to parenthesize the product of $n + 1$ numbers, $x_0 \cdot x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot x_n$, to specify the order of multiplication. For example, $C_3 = 5$ because there are five ways to parenthesize $x_0 \cdot x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot x_3$ to determine the order of multiplication:

$$((x_0 \cdot x_1) \cdot x_2) \cdot x_3 \qquad (x_0 \cdot (x_1 \cdot x_2)) \cdot x_3 \qquad (x_0 \cdot x_1) \cdot (x_2 \cdot x_3)$$
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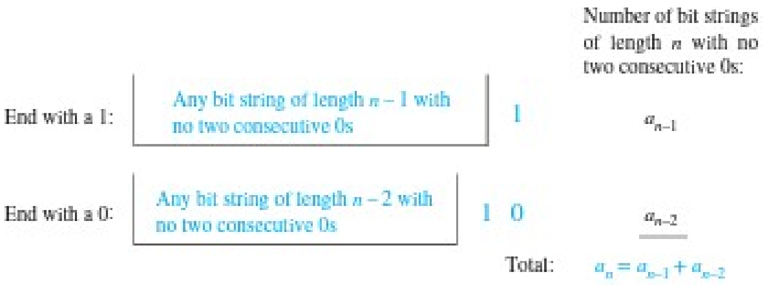

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$$x_0 \cdot ((x_1 \cdot x_2) \cdot x_3) \qquad x_0 \cdot (x_1 \cdot (x_2 \cdot x_3)).$$

Solution: To develop a recurrence relation for C_n, we note that however we insert parentheses in the product $x_0 \cdot x_1 \cdot x_2 \cdot \cdots \cdot x_n$, one "$\cdot$" operator remains outside all parentheses, namely, the operator for the final multiplication to be performed. [For example, in $(x_0 \cdot (x_1 \cdot x_2)) \cdot x_3$, it is the final "$\cdot$", while in $(x_0 \cdot x_1) \cdot (x_2 \cdot x_3)$ it is the second "$\cdot$".] This final operator appears between two of the $n + 1$ numbers, say, x_k and x_{k+1}. There are $C_k C_{n-k-1}$ ways to insert parentheses to determine the order of the $n + 1$ numbers to be multiplied when the final operator appears between x_k and x_{k+1}, because there are C_k ways to insert parentheses in the product $x_0 \cdot x_1 \cdot \cdots \cdot x_k$ to determine the order in which these $k + 1$ numbers are to be multiplied and C_{n-k-1} ways to insert parentheses in the product $x_{k+1} \cdot x_{k+2} \cdot \cdots \cdot x_n$ to determine the order in which these $n - k$ numbers are to be multiplied. Because this final operator can appear between any two of the $n + 1$ numbers, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} C_n &= C_0C_{n-1} + C_1C_{n-2} + \cdots + C_{n-2}C_1 + C_{n-1}C_0 \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} C_kC_{n-k-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Note that the initial conditions are $C_0 = 1$ and $C_1 = 1$. ◂

The recurrence relation in Example 5 can be solved using the method of generating functions, which will be discussed in Section 8.4. It can be shown that $C_n = C(2n, n)/(n + 1)$ (see Exercise 43 in Section 8.4) and that $C_n \sim \frac{4^n}{n^{3/2}\sqrt{\pi}}$ (see [GrKnPa94]). The sequence $\{C_n\}$ is the sequence of **Catalan numbers**, named after Eugène Charles Catalan. This sequence appears as the solution of many different counting problems besides the one considered here (see the chapter on Catalan numbers in [MiRo91] or [RoTe03] for details).

Links

8.1.3 Algorithms and Recurrence Relations

Recurrence relations play an important role in many aspects of the study of algorithms and their complexity. In Section 8.3, we will show how recurrence relations can be used to analyze the complexity of divide-and-conquer algorithms, such as the merge sort algorithm introduced in Section 5.4. As we will see in Section 8.3, divide-and-conquer algorithms recursively divide a problem into a fixed number of nonoverlapping subproblems until they become simple enough to solve directly. We conclude this section by introducing another algorithmic paradigm known as **dynamic programming**, which can be used to solve many optimization problems efficiently.

An algorithm follows the dynamic programming paradigm when it recursively breaks down a problem into simpler overlapping subproblems, and computes the solution using the solutions of the subproblems. Generally, recurrence relations are used to find the overall solution from the solutions of the subproblems. Dynamic programming has been used to solve important problems in such diverse areas as economics, computer vision, speech recognition, artificial intelligence, computer graphics, and bioinformatics. In this section we will illustrate the use of dynamic programming by constructing an algorithm for solving a scheduling problem. Before doing so, we will relate the amusing origin of the name *dynamic programming*, which was introduced by the mathematician Richard Bellman in the 1950s. Bellman was working at the RAND Corporation on projects for the U.S. military, and at that time, the U.S. Secretary of Defense was hostile to mathematical research. Bellman decided that to ensure funding, he needed a name not containing the word mathematics for his method for solving scheduling and planning problems. He decided to use the adjective *dynamic* because, as he said "it's impossible to use the word dynamic in a pejorative sense" and he thought that dynamic programming was "something not even a Congressman could object to."

Links

*57. Dynamic programming can be used to develop an algorithm for solving the matrix-chain multiplication problem introduced in Section 3.3. This is the problem of determining how the product $\mathbf{A}_1\mathbf{A}_2\cdots\mathbf{A}_n$ can be computed using the fewest integer multiplications, where $\mathbf{A}_1, \mathbf{A}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{A}_n$ are $m_1 \times m_2, m_2 \times m_3, \ldots, m_n \times m_{n+1}$ matrices, respectively, and each matrix has integer entries. Recall that by the associative law, the product does not depend on the order in which the matrices are multiplied.

a) Show that the brute-force method of determining the minimum number of integer multiplications needed to solve a matrix-chain multiplication problem has exponential worst-case complexity. [*Hint:* Do this by first showing that the order of multiplication of matrices is specified by parenthesizing the product. Then, use Example 5 and the result of part (c) of Exercise 43 in Section 8.4.]

b) Denote by $\mathbf{A}_{ij}$ the product $\mathbf{A}_i\mathbf{A}_{i+1}\ldots,\mathbf{A}_j$, and $M(i,j)$ the minimum number of integer multiplications required to find $\mathbf{A}_{ij}$. Show that if the least number of integer multiplications are used to compute $\mathbf{A}_{ij}$, where $i < j$, by splitting the product into the product of $\mathbf{A}_i$ through $\mathbf{A}_k$ and the product of $\mathbf{A}_{k+1}$ through $\mathbf{A}_j$, then the first k terms must be parenthesized so that $\mathbf{A}_{ik}$ is computed in the optimal way using $M(i,k)$ integer multiplications, and $\mathbf{A}_{k+1,j}$ must be parenthesized so that $\mathbf{A}_{k+1,j}$ is computed in the optimal way using $M(k+1,j)$ integer multiplications.

c) Explain why part (b) leads to the recurrence relation $M(i,j) = \min_{i\le k<j}(M(i,k) + M(k+1,j) + m_i m_{k+1} m_{j+1})$ if $1 \le i \le j < j \le n$.

d) Use the recurrence relation in part (c) to construct an efficient algorithm for determining the order the n matrices should be multiplied to use the minimum number of integer multiplications. Store the partial results $M(i,j)$ as you find them so that your algorithm will not have exponential complexity.

e) Show that your algorithm from part (d) has $O(n^3)$ worst-case complexity in terms of multiplications of integers.

8.2 Solving Linear Recurrence Relations

8.2.1 Introduction

Links

A wide variety of recurrence relations occur in models. Some of these recurrence relations can be solved using iteration or some other ad hoc technique. However, one important class of recurrence relations can be explicitly solved in a systematic way. These are recurrence relations that express the terms of a sequence as linear combinations of previous terms.

Definition 1 A *linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree k with constant coefficients* is a recurrence relation of the form

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k},$$

where $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k$ are real numbers, and $c_k \neq 0$.

The recurrence relation in the definition is **linear** because the right-hand side is a sum of previous terms of the sequence each multiplied by a function of n. The recurrence relation is **homogeneous** because no terms occur that are not multiples of the a_js. The coefficients of the terms of the sequence are all **constants**, rather than functions that depend on n. The **degree** is k because a_n is expressed in terms of the previous k terms of the sequence.

A consequence of the second principle of mathematical induction is that a sequence satisfying the recurrence relation in the definition is uniquely determined by this recurrence relation and the k initial conditions

$$a_0 = C_0, a_1 = C_1, \ldots, a_{k-1} = C_{k-1}.$$

EXAMPLE 1 The recurrence relation $P_n = (1.11)P_{n-1}$ is a linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree one. The recurrence relation $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ is a linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree two. The recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-5}$ is a linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree five. ◀

To help clarify the definition of linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients, we will now provide examples of recurrence relations each lacking one of the defining properties.

EXAMPLE 2 The recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}^2$ is not linear. The recurrence relation $H_n = 2H_{n-1} + 1$ is not homogeneous. The recurrence relation $B_n = nB_{n-1}$ does not have constant coefficients. ◀

Linear homogeneous recurrence relations are studied for two reasons. First, they often occur in modeling of problems. Second, they can be systematically solved.

8.2.2 Solving Linear Homogeneous Recurrence Relations with Constant Coefficients

Recurrence relations may be difficult to solve, but fortunately this is not the case for linear homogenous recurrence relations with constant coefficients. We can use two key ideas to find all their solutions. First, these recurrence relations have solutions of the form $a_n = r^n$, where r is a constant. To see this, observe that $a_n = r^n$ is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ka_{n-k}$ if and only if

$$r^n = c_1r^{n-1} + c_2r^{n-2} + \cdots + c_kr^{n-k}.$$

When both sides of this equation are divided by r^{n-k} (when $r \neq 0$) and the right-hand side is subtracted from the left, we obtain the equation

$$r^k - c_1r^{k-1} - c_2r^{k-2} - \cdots - c_{k-1}r - c_k = 0.$$

Consequently, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with $a_n = r^n$ where $r \neq 0$ is a solution if and only if r is a solution of this last equation. We call this the **characteristic equation** of the recurrence relation. The solutions of this equation are called the **characteristic roots** of the recurrence relation. As we will see, these characteristic roots can be used to give an explicit formula for all the solutions of the recurrence relation.

The other key observation is that a linear combination of two solutions of a linear homogeneous recurrence relation is also a solution. To see this, suppose that s_n and t_n are both solutions of $a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ka_{n-k}$. Then

$$s_n = c_1s_{n-1} + c_2s_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ks_{n-k}$$

and

$$t_n = c_1t_{n-1} + c_2t_{n-2} + \cdots + c_kt_{n-k}.$$

Now suppose that b_1 and b_2 are real numbers. Then

$$\begin{aligned} b_1s_n + b_2t_n &= b_1(c_1s_{n-1} + c_2s_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ks_{n-k}) + b_2(c_1t_{n-1} + c_2t_{n-2} + \cdots + c_kt_{n-k}) \\ &= c_1(b_1s_{n-1} + b_2t_{n-1}) + c_2(b_1s_{n-2} + b_2t_{n-2}) + \cdots + c_k(b_1s_{n-k} + b_kt_{n-k}). \end{aligned}$$

This means that $b_1s_n + b_2t_n$ is also a solution of the same linear homogeneous recurrence relation.

Using these key observations, we will show how to solve linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients.

THE DEGREE TWO CASE We now turn our attention to linear homogeneous recurrence relations of degree two. First, consider the case when there are two distinct characteristic roots.

THEOREM 1 Let c_1 and c_2 be real numbers. Suppose that $r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0$ has two distinct roots r_1 and r_2. Then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}$ if and only if $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, where α_1 and α_2 are constants.

Proof: We must do two things to prove the theorem. First, it must be shown that if r_1 and r_2 are the roots of the characteristic equation, and α_1 and α_2 are constants, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ is a solution of the recurrence relation. Second, it must be shown that if the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution, then $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ for some constants α_1 and α_2.

We now show that if $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation. Because r_1 and r_2 are roots of $r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0$, it follows that $r_1^2 = c_1 r_1 + c_2$ and $r_2^2 = c_1 r_2 + c_2$.

From these equations, we see that

$$\begin{aligned} c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} &= c_1(\alpha_1 r_1^{n-1} + \alpha_2 r_2^{n-1}) + c_2(\alpha_1 r_1^{n-2} + \alpha_2 r_2^{n-2}) \\ &= \alpha_1 r_1^{n-2}(c_1 r_1 + c_2) + \alpha_2 r_2^{n-2}(c_1 r_2 + c_2) \\ &= \alpha_1 r_1^{n-2} r_1^2 + \alpha_2 r_2^{n-2} r_2^2 \\ &= \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n \\ &= a_n. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ is a solution of the recurrence relation.

To show that every solution $\{a_n\}$ of the recurrence relation $a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}$ has $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, for some constants α_1 and α_2, suppose that $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation, and the initial conditions $a_0 = C_0$ and $a_1 = C_1$ hold. It will be shown that there are constants α_1 and α_2 such that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ satisfies these same initial conditions. This requires that

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= C_0 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2, \\ a_1 &= C_1 = \alpha_1 r_1 + \alpha_2 r_2. \end{aligned}$$

We can solve these two equations for α_1 and α_2. From the first equation it follows that $\alpha_2 = C_0 - \alpha_1$. Inserting this expression into the second equation gives

$$C_1 = \alpha_1 r_1 + (C_0 - \alpha_1) r_2.$$

Hence,

$$C_1 = \alpha_1 (r_1 - r_2) + C_0 r_2.$$

This shows that

$$\alpha_1 = \frac{C_1 - C_0 r_2}{r_1 - r_2}$$

and

$$\alpha_2 = C_0 - \alpha_1 = C_0 - \frac{C_1 - C_0 r_2}{r_1 - r_2} = \frac{C_0 r_1 - C_1}{r_1 - r_2},$$

where these expressions for α_1 and α_2 depend on the fact that $r_1 \neq r_2$. (When $r_1 = r_2$, this theorem is not true.) Hence, with these values for α_1 and α_2, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with $\alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ satisfies the two initial conditions.

We know that $\{a_n\}$ and $\{\alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n\}$ are both solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}$ and both satisfy the initial conditions when $n = 0$ and $n = 1$. Because there is a unique solution of a linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree two with two initial conditions, it follows that the two solutions are the same, that is, $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$ for all nonnegative integers n. We have completed the proof by showing that a solution of the linear homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients of degree two must be of the form $a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n$, where α_1 and α_2 are constants. ◁

The characteristic roots of a linear homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients may be complex numbers. Theorem 1 (and also subsequent theorems in this section) still applies in this case. Recurrence relations with complex characteristic roots will not be discussed in the text. Readers familiar with complex numbers may wish to solve Exercises 38 and 39.

Examples 3 and 4 show how to use Theorem 1 to solve recurrence relations.

EXAMPLE 3 What is the solution of the recurrence relation

Extra Examples

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$$

with $a_0 = 2$ and $a_1 = 7$?

Solution: Theorem 1 can be used to solve this problem. The characteristic equation of the recurrence relation is $r^2 - r - 2 = 0$. Its roots are $r = 2$ and $r = -1$. Hence, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution to the recurrence relation if and only if

$$a_n = \alpha_1 2^n + \alpha_2(-1)^n,$$

for some constants α_1 and α_2. From the initial conditions, it follows that

$$a_0 = 2 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2,$$
$$a_1 = 7 = \alpha_1 \cdot 2 + \alpha_2 \cdot (-1).$$

Solving these two equations shows that $\alpha_1 = 3$ and $\alpha_2 = -1$. Hence, the solution to the recurrence relation and initial conditions is the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with

$$a_n = 3 \cdot 2^n - (-1)^n.$$

◀

EXAMPLE 4 Find an explicit formula for the Fibonacci numbers.

Solution: Recall that the sequence of Fibonacci numbers satisfies the recurrence relation $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$ and also satisfies the initial conditions $f_0 = 0$ and $f_1 = 1$. The roots of the characteristic equation $r^2 - r - 1 = 0$ are $r_1 = (1 + \sqrt{5})/2$ and $r_2 = (1 - \sqrt{5})/2$. Therefore, from Theorem 1 it follows that the Fibonacci numbers are given by

$$f_n = \alpha_1 \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n + \alpha_2 \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n,$$

for some constants α_1 and α_2. The initial conditions $f_0 = 0$ and $f_1 = 1$ can be used to find these constants. We have

$$f_0 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 = 0,$$
$$f_1 = \alpha_1 \left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) + \alpha_2 \left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right) = 1.$$

The solution to these simultaneous equations for α_1 and α_2 is

$$\alpha_1 = 1/\sqrt{5}, \qquad \alpha_2 = -1/\sqrt{5}.$$

Consequently, the Fibonacci numbers are given by

$$f_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left(\frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n - \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)^n.$$

◀

Theorem 1 does not apply when there is one characteristic root of multiplicity two. If this happens, then $a_n = nr_0^n$ is another solution of the recurrence relation when r_0 is a root of multiplicity two of the characteristic equation. Theorem 2 shows how to handle this case.

THEOREM 2 Let c_1 and c_2 be real numbers with $c_2 \neq 0$. Suppose that $r^2 - c_1 r - c_2 = 0$ has only one root r_0. A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2}$ if and only if $a_n = \alpha_1 r_0^n + \alpha_2 n r_0^n$, for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, where α_1 and α_2 are constants.

The proof of Theorem 2 is left as Exercise 10. Example 5 illustrates the use of this theorem.

EXAMPLE 5 What is the solution of the recurrence relation

$$a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 9a_{n-2}$$

with initial conditions $a_0 = 1$ and $a_1 = 6$?

Solution: The only root of $r^2 - 6r + 9 = 0$ is $r = 3$. Hence, the solution to this recurrence relation is

$$a_n = \alpha_1 3^n + \alpha_2 n 3^n$$

for some constants α_1 and α_2. Using the initial conditions, it follows that

$$a_0 = 1 = \alpha_1,$$
$$a_1 = 6 = \alpha_1 \cdot 3 + \alpha_2 \cdot 3.$$

Solving these two equations shows that $\alpha_1 = 1$ and $\alpha_2 = 1$. Consequently, the solution to this recurrence relation and the initial conditions is

$$a_n = 3^n + n3^n.$$

◀

THE GENERAL CASE We will now state the general result about the solution of linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients, where the degree may be greater than two, under the assumption that the characteristic equation has distinct roots. The proof of this result will be left as Exercise 16.

THEOREM 3 Let $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k$ be real numbers. Suppose that the characteristic equation

$$r^k - c_1 r^{k-1} - \cdots - c_k = 0$$

has k distinct roots $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_k$. Then a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k}$$

if and only if

$$a_n = \alpha_1 r_1^n + \alpha_2 r_2^n + \cdots + \alpha_k r_k^n$$

for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, where $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_k$ are constants.

We illustrate the use of the theorem with Example 6.

EXAMPLE 6 Find the solution to the recurrence relation

$$a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 11a_{n-2} + 6a_{n-3}$$

with the initial conditions $a_0 = 2$, $a_1 = 5$, and $a_2 = 15$.

Solution: The characteristic polynomial of this recurrence relation is

$$r^3 - 6r^2 + 11r - 6.$$

The characteristic roots are $r = 1$, $r = 2$, and $r = 3$, because $r^3 - 6r^2 + 11r - 6 = (r-1)(r-2)(r-3)$. Hence, the solutions to this recurrence relation are of the form

$$a_n = \alpha_1 \cdot 1^n + \alpha_2 \cdot 2^n + \alpha_3 \cdot 3^n.$$

To find the constants α_1, α_2, and α_3, use the initial conditions. This gives

$$a_0 = 2 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 + \alpha_3,$$
$$a_1 = 5 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot 2 + \alpha_3 \cdot 3,$$
$$a_2 = 15 = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2 \cdot 4 + \alpha_3 \cdot 9.$$

When these three simultaneous equations are solved for α_1, α_2, and α_3, we find that $\alpha_1 = 1$, $\alpha_2 = -1$, and $\alpha_3 = 2$. Hence, the unique solution to this recurrence relation and the given initial conditions is the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with

$$a_n = 1 - 2^n + 2 \cdot 3^n.$$ ◀

We now state the most general result about linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients, allowing the characteristic equation to have multiple roots. The key point is that for each root r of the characteristic equation, the general solution has a summand of the form $P(n)r^n$, where $P(n)$ is a polynomial of degree $m-1$, with m the multiplicity of this root. We leave the proof of this result as Exercise 51.

THEOREM 4 Let $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k$ be real numbers. Suppose that the characteristic equation

$$r^k - c_1 r^{k-1} - \cdots - c_k = 0$$

has t distinct roots $r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_t$ with multiplicities $m_1, m_2, \ldots, m_t$, respectively, so that $m_i \geq 1$ for $i = 1, 2, \ldots, t$ and $m_1 + m_2 + \cdots + m_t = k$. Then a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k}$$

if and only if

$$\begin{aligned} a_n = & (\alpha_{1,0} + \alpha_{1,1} n + \cdots + \alpha_{1,m_1-1} n^{m_1-1}) r_1^n \\ & + (\alpha_{2,0} + \alpha_{2,1} n + \cdots + \alpha_{2,m_2-1} n^{m_2-1}) r_2^n \\ & + \cdots + (\alpha_{t,0} + \alpha_{t,1} n + \cdots + \alpha_{t,m_t-1} n^{m_t-1}) r_t^n \end{aligned}$$

for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$, where $\alpha_{i,j}$ are constants for $1 \leq i \leq t$ and $0 \leq j \leq m_i - 1$.

Example 7 illustrates how Theorem 4 is used to find the general form of a solution of a linear homogeneous recurrence relation when the characteristic equation has several repeated roots.

EXAMPLE 7 Suppose that the roots of the characteristic equation of a linear homogeneous recurrence relation are 2, 2, 2, 5, 5, and 9 (that is, there are three roots, the root 2 with multiplicity three, the root 5 with multiplicity two, and the root 9 with multiplicity one). What is the form of the general solution?

Solution: By Theorem 4, the general form of the solution is

$$(\alpha_{1,0} + \alpha_{1,1} n + \alpha_{1,2} n^2) 2^n + (\alpha_{2,0} + \alpha_{2,1} n) 5^n + \alpha_{3,0} 9^n.$$

◂

We now illustrate the use of Theorem 4 to solve a linear homogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients when the characteristic equation has a root of multiplicity three.

EXAMPLE 8 Find the solution to the recurrence relation

$$a_n = -3a_{n-1} - 3a_{n-2} - a_{n-3}$$

with initial conditions $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = -2$, and $a_2 = -1$.

Solution: The characteristic equation of this recurrence relation is

$$r^3 + 3r^2 + 3r + 1 = 0.$$

Because $r^3 + 3r^2 + 3r + 1 = (r+1)^3$, there is a single root $r = -1$ of multiplicity three of the characteristic equation. By Theorem 4 the solutions of this recurrence relation are of the form

$$a_n = \alpha_{1,0}(-1)^n + \alpha_{1,1} n(-1)^n + \alpha_{1,2} n^2 (-1)^n.$$

To find the constants $\alpha_{1,0}$, $\alpha_{1,1}$, and $\alpha_{1,2}$, use the initial conditions. This gives

$$a_0 = 1 = \alpha_{1,0},$$
$$a_1 = -2 = -\alpha_{1,0} - \alpha_{1,1} - \alpha_{1,2},$$
$$a_2 = -1 = \alpha_{1,0} + 2\alpha_{1,1} + 4\alpha_{1,2}.$$

The simultaneous solution of these three equations is $\alpha_{1,0} = 1$, $\alpha_{1,1} = 3$, and $\alpha_{1,2} = -2$. Hence, the unique solution to this recurrence relation and the given initial conditions is the sequence $\{a_n\}$ with

$$a_n = (1 + 3n - 2n^2)(-1)^n.$$ ◀

8.2.3 Linear Nonhomogeneous Recurrence Relations with Constant Coefficients

We have seen how to solve linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients. Is there a relatively simple technique for solving a linear, but not homogeneous, recurrence relation with constant coefficients, such as $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2n$? We will see that the answer is yes for certain families of such recurrence relations.

The recurrence relation $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2n$ is an example of a **linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients**, that is, a recurrence relation of the form

$$a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ka_{n-k} + F(n),$$

where $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k$ are real numbers and $F(n)$ is a function not identically zero depending only on n. The recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ka_{n-k}$$

is called the **associated homogeneous recurrence relation**. It plays an important role in the solution of the nonhomogeneous recurrence relation.

EXAMPLE 9 Each of the recurrence relations $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2^n$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + n^2 + n + 1$, $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + n3^n$, and $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + a_{n-3} + n!$ is a linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients. The associated linear homogeneous recurrence relations are $a_n = a_{n-1}$, $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$, $a_n = 3a_{n-1}$, and $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + a_{n-3}$, respectively. ◀

The key fact about linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients is that every solution is the sum of a particular solution and a solution of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation, as Theorem 5 shows.

THEOREM 5 If $\{a_n^{(p)}\}$ is a particular solution of the nonhomogeneous linear recurrence relation with constant coefficients

$$a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ka_{n-k} + F(n),$$

then every solution is of the form $\{a_n^{(p)} + a_n^{(h)}\}$, where $\{a_n^{(h)}\}$ is a solution of the associated homogeneous recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_ka_{n-k}.$$

Proof: Because $\{a_n^{(p)}\}$ is a particular solution of the nonhomogeneous recurrence relation, we know that

$$a_n^{(p)} = c_1 a_{n-1}^{(p)} + c_2 a_{n-2}^{(p)} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k}^{(p)} + F(n).$$

Now suppose that $\{b_n\}$ is a second solution of the nonhomogeneous recurrence relation, so that

$$b_n = c_1 b_{n-1} + c_2 b_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k b_{n-k} + F(n).$$

Subtracting the first of these two equations from the second shows that

$$b_n - a_n^{(p)} = c_1(b_{n-1} - a_{n-1}^{(p)}) + c_2(b_{n-2} - a_{n-2}^{(p)}) + \cdots + c_k(b_{n-k} - a_{n-k}^{(p)}).$$

It follows that $\{b_n - a_n^p\}$ is a solution of the associated homogeneous linear recurrence, say, $\{a_n^{(h)}\}$. Consequently, $b_n = a_n^{(p)} + a_n^{(h)}$ for all n. ◁

By Theorem 5, we see that the key to solving nonhomogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients is finding a particular solution. Then every solution is a sum of this solution and a solution of the associated homogeneous recurrence relation. Although there is no general method for finding such a solution that works for every function $F(n)$, there are techniques that work for certain types of functions $F(n)$, such as polynomials and powers of constants. This is illustrated in Examples 10 and 11.

EXAMPLE 10 Find all solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2n$. What is the solution with $a_1 = 3$?

Solution: To solve this linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation with constant coefficients, we need to solve its associated linear homogeneous equation and to find a particular solution for the given nonhomogeneous equation. The associated linear homogeneous equation is $a_n = 3a_{n-1}$. Its solutions are $a_n^{(h)} = \alpha 3^n$, where α is a constant.

We now find a particular solution. Because $F(n) = 2n$ is a polynomial in n of degree one, a reasonable trial solution is a linear function in n, say, $p_n = cn + d$, where c and d are constants. To determine whether there are any solutions of this form, suppose that $p_n = cn + d$ is such a solution. Then the equation $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2n$ becomes $cn + d = 3(c(n-1) + d) + 2n$. Simplifying and combining like terms gives $(2 + 2c)n + (2d - 3c) = 0$. It follows that $cn + d$ is a solution if and only if $2 + 2c = 0$ and $2d - 3c = 0$. This shows that $cn + d$ is a solution if and only if $c = -1$ and $d = -3/2$. Consequently, $a_n^{(p)} = -n - 3/2$ is a particular solution.

By Theorem 5 all solutions are of the form

$$a_n = a_n^{(p)} + a_n^{(h)} = -n - \frac{3}{2} + \alpha \cdot 3^n,$$

where α is a constant.

To find the solution with $a_1 = 3$, let $n = 1$ in the formula we obtained for the general solution. We find that $3 = -1 - 3/2 + 3\alpha$, which implies that $\alpha = 11/6$. The solution we seek is $a_n = -n - 3/2 + (11/6)3^n$. ◀

EXAMPLE 11 Find all solutions of the recurrence relation

Extra Examples

$$a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2} + 7^n.$$

Solution: This is a linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation. The solutions of its associated homogeneous recurrence relation

$$a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}$$

are $a_n^{(h)} = \alpha_1 \cdot 3^n + \alpha_2 \cdot 2^n$, where α_1 and α_2 are constants. Because $F(n) = 7^n$, a reasonable trial solution is $a_n^{(p)} = C \cdot 7^n$, where C is a constant. Substituting the terms of this sequence into the recurrence relation implies that $C \cdot 7^n = 5C \cdot 7^{n-1} - 6C \cdot 7^{n-2} + 7^n$. Factoring out 7^{n-2}, this equation becomes $49C = 35C - 6C + 49$, which implies that $20C = 49$, or that $C = 49/20$. Hence, $a_n^{(p)} = (49/20)7^n$ is a particular solution. By Theorem 5, all solutions are of the form

$$a_n = \alpha_1 \cdot 3^n + \alpha_2 \cdot 2^n + (49/20)7^n.$$

◀

In Examples 10 and 11, we made an educated guess that there are solutions of a particular form. In both cases we were able to find particular solutions. This was not an accident. Whenever $F(n)$ is the product of a polynomial in n and the nth power of a constant, we know exactly what form a particular solution has, as stated in Theorem 6. We leave the proof of Theorem 6 as Exercise 52.

THEOREM 6 Suppose that $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation

$$a_n = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \cdots + c_k a_{n-k} + F(n),$$

where $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k$ are real numbers, and

$$F(n) = (b_t n^t + b_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + b_1 n + b_0) s^n,$$

where $b_0, b_1, \ldots, b_t$ and s are real numbers. When s is not a root of the characteristic equation of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation, there is a particular solution of the form

$$(p_t n^t + p_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + p_1 n + p_0) s^n.$$

When s is a root of this characteristic equation and its multiplicity is m, there is a particular solution of the form

$$n^m (p_t n^t + p_{t-1} n^{t-1} + \cdots + p_1 n + p_0) s^n.$$

Note that in the case when s is a root of multiplicity m of the characteristic equation of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation, the factor n^m ensures that the proposed particular solution will not already be a solution of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation. We next provide Example 12 to illustrate the form of a particular solution provided by Theorem 6.

EXAMPLE 12 What form does a particular solution of the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation $a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 9a_{n-2} + F(n)$ have when $F(n) = 3^n$, $F(n) = n3^n$, $F(n) = n^2 2^n$, and $F(n) = (n^2 + 1)3^n$?

Solution: The associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation is $a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 9a_{n-2}$. Its characteristic equation, $r^2 - 6r + 9 = (r-3)^2 = 0$, has a single root, 3, of multiplicity two. To apply Theorem 6, with $F(n)$ of the form $P(n)s^n$, where $P(n)$ is a polynomial and s is a constant, we need to ask whether s is a root of this characteristic equation.

Because $s = 3$ is a root with multiplicity $m = 2$ but $s = 2$ is not a root, Theorem 6 tells us that a particular solution has the form $p_0 n^2 3^n$ if $F(n) = 3^n$, the form $n^2(p_1 n + p_0)3^n$ if $F(n) =$

$n3^n$, the form $(p_2n^2 + p_1n + p_0)2^n$ if $F(n) = n^2 2^n$, and the form $n^2(p_2n^2 + p_1n + p_0)3^n$ if $F(n) = (n^2 + 1)3^n$. ◀

Care must be taken when $s = 1$ when solving recurrence relations of the type covered by Theorem 6. In particular, to apply this theorem with $F(n) = b_t n_t + b_{t-1}n_{t-1} + \cdots + b_1 n + b_0$, the parameter s takes the value $s = 1$ (even though the term 1^n does not explicitly appear). By the theorem, the form of the solution then depends on whether 1 is a root of the characteristic equation of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation. This is illustrated in Example 13, which shows how Theorem 6 can be used to find a formula for the sum of the first n positive integers.

EXAMPLE 13 Let a_n be the sum of the first n positive integers, so that

$$a_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n} k.$$

Note that a_n satisfies the linear nonhomogeneous recurrence relation

$$a_n = a_{n-1} + n.$$

(To obtain a_n, the sum of the first n positive integers, from a_{n-1}, the sum of the first $n - 1$ positive integers, we add n.) Note that the initial condition is $a_1 = 1$.

The associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation for a_n is

$$a_n = a_{n-1}.$$

The solutions of this homogeneous recurrence relation are given by $a_n^{(h)} = c(1)^n = c$, where c is a constant. To find all solutions of $a_n = a_{n-1} + n$, we need find only a single particular solution. By Theorem 6, because $F(n) = n = n \cdot (1)^n$ and $s = 1$ is a root of degree one of the characteristic equation of the associated linear homogeneous recurrence relation, there is a particular solution of the form $n(p_1n + p_0) = p_1n^2 + p_0n$.

Inserting this into the recurrence relation gives $p_1n^2 + p_0n = p_1(n-1)^2 + p_0(n-1) + n$. Simplifying, we see that $n(2p_1 - 1) + (p_0 - p_1) = 0$, which means that $2p_1 - 1 = 0$ and $p_0 - p_1 = 0$, so $p_0 = p_1 = 1/2$. Hence,

$$a_n^{(p)} = \frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{n}{2} = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

is a particular solution. Hence, all solutions of the original recurrence relation $a_n = a_{n-1} + n$ are given by $a_n = a_n^{(h)} + a_n^{(p)} = c + n(n+1)/2$. Because $a_1 = 1$, we have $1 = a_1 = c + 1 \cdot 2/2 = c + 1$, so $c = 0$. It follows that $a_n = n(n+1)/2$. (This is the same formula given in Table 2 in Section 2.4 and derived previously.) ◀

Exercises

1. Determine which of these are linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients. Also, find the degree of those that are.

a) $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 4a_{n-2} + 5a_{n-3}$
b) $a_n = 2na_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$
c) $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-4}$
d) $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2$
e) $a_n = a_{n-1}^2 + a_{n-2}$
f) $a_n = a_{n-2}$
g) $a_n = a_{n-1} + n$

2. Determine which of these are linear homogeneous recurrence relations with constant coefficients. Also, find the degree of those that are.

a) $a_n = 3a_{n-2}$
b) $a_n = 3$
c) $a_n = a_{n-1}^2$
d) $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-3}$
e) $a_n = a_{n-1}/n$
f) $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} + n + 3$
g) $a_n = 4a_{n-2} + 5a_{n-4} + 9a_{n-7}$

3. Solve these recurrence relations together with the initial conditions given.

a) $a_n = 2a_{n-1}$ for $n \geq 1$, $a_0 = 3$
b) $a_n = a_{n-1}$ for $n \geq 1$, $a_0 = 2$
c) $a_n = 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 0$
d) $a_n = 4a_{n-1} - 4a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 6$, $a_1 = 8$
e) $a_n = -4a_{n-1} - 4a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 1$
f) $a_n = 4a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 0$, $a_1 = 4$
g) $a_n = a_{n-2}/4$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 1$, $a_1 = 0$

4. Solve these recurrence relations together with the initial conditions given.

a) $a_n = a_{n-1} + 6a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 3$, $a_1 = 6$
b) $a_n = 7a_{n-1} - 10a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 2$, $a_1 = 1$
c) $a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 8a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 4$, $a_1 = 10$
d) $a_n = 2a_{n-1} - a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 4$, $a_1 = 1$
e) $a_n = a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 5$, $a_1 = -1$
f) $a_n = -6a_{n-1} - 9a_{n-2}$ for $n \geq 2$, $a_0 = 3$, $a_1 = -3$
g) $a_{n+2} = -4a_{n+1} + 5a_n$ for $n \geq 0$, $a_0 = 2$, $a_1 = 8$

5. How many different messages can be transmitted in n microseconds using the two signals described in Exercise 19 in Section 8.1?

6. How many different messages can be transmitted in n microseconds using three different signals if one signal requires 1 microsecond for transmittal, the other two signals require 2 microseconds each for transmittal, and a signal in a message is followed immediately by the next signal?

7. In how many ways can a $2 \times n$ rectangular checkerboard be tiled using 1×2 and 2×2 pieces?

8. A model for the number of lobsters caught per year is based on the assumption that the number of lobsters caught in a year is the average of the number caught in the two previous years.

a) Find a recurrence relation for $\{L_n\}$, where L_n is the number of lobsters caught in year n, under the assumption for this model.
b) Find L_n if 100,000 lobsters were caught in year 1 and 300,000 were caught in year 2.

9. A deposit of \$100,000 is made to an investment fund at the beginning of a year. On the last day of each year two dividends are awarded. The first dividend is 20% of the amount in the account during that year. The second dividend is 45% of the amount in the account in the previous year.

a) Find a recurrence relation for $\{P_n\}$, where P_n is the amount in the account at the end of n years if no money is ever withdrawn.
b) How much is in the account after n years if no money has been withdrawn?

***10.** Prove Theorem 2.

11. The **Lucas numbers** satisfy the recurrence relation

Links

$$L_n = L_{n-1} + L_{n-2},$$

and the initial conditions $L_0 = 2$ and $L_1 = 1$.

a) Show that $L_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n+1}$ for $n = 2, 3, \ldots$, where f_n is the nth Fibonacci number.
b) Find an explicit formula for the Lucas numbers.

12. Find the solution to $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + a_{n-2} - 2a_{n-3}$ for $n = 3, 4, 5, \ldots$, with $a_0 = 3$, $a_1 = 6$, and $a_2 = 0$.

13. Find the solution to $a_n = 7a_{n-2} + 6a_{n-3}$ with $a_0 = 9$, $a_1 = 10$, and $a_2 = 32$.

14. Find the solution to $a_n = 5a_{n-2} - 4a_{n-4}$ with $a_0 = 3$, $a_1 = 2$, $a_2 = 6$, and $a_3 = 8$.

15. Find the solution to $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + 5a_{n-2} - 6a_{n-3}$ with $a_0 = 7$, $a_1 = -4$, and $a_2 = 8$.

***16.** Prove Theorem 3.

17. Prove this identity relating the Fibonacci numbers and the binomial coefficients:

$$f_{n+1} = C(n, 0) + C(n-1, 1) + \cdots + C(n-k, k),$$

where n is a positive integer and $k = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$. [*Hint:* Let $a_n = C(n, 0) + C(n-1, 1) + \cdots + C(n-k, k)$. Show that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the same recurrence relation and initial conditions satisfied by the sequence of Fibonacci numbers.]

18. Solve the recurrence relation $a_n = 6a_{n-1} - 12a_{n-2} + 8a_{n-3}$ with $a_0 = -5$, $a_1 = 4$, and $a_2 = 88$.

19. Solve the recurrence relation $a_n = -3a_{n-1} - 3a_{n-2} - a_{n-3}$ with $a_0 = 5$, $a_1 = -9$, and $a_2 = 15$.

20. Find the general form of the solutions of the recurrence relation $a_n = 8a_{n-2} - 16a_{n-4}$.

21. What is the general form of the solutions of a linear homogeneous recurrence relation if its characteristic equation has roots 1, 1, 1, 1, −2, −2, −2, 3, 3, −4?

22. What is the general form of the solutions of a linear homogeneous recurrence relation if its characteristic equation has the roots −1, −1, −1, 2, 2, 5, 5, 7?

23. Consider the nonhomogeneous linear recurrence relation $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2^n$.

a) Show that $a_n = -2^{n+1}$ is a solution of this recurrence relation.
b) Use Theorem 5 to find all solutions of this recurrence relation.
c) Find the solution with $a_0 = 1$.

24. Consider the nonhomogeneous linear recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + 2^n$.

a) Show that $a_n = n2^n$ is a solution of this recurrence relation.
b) Use Theorem 5 to find all solutions of this recurrence relation.
c) Find the solution with $a_0 = 2$.

25. a) Determine values of the constants A and B such that $a_n = An + B$ is a solution of recurrence relation $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + n + 5$.
b) Use Theorem 5 to find all solutions of this recurrence relation.
c) Find the solution of this recurrence relation with $a_0 = 4$.

Links person answers each query truthfully, we can find x using $\log n$ queries by successively splitting the sets used in each query in half. Ulam's problem, proposed by Stanislaw Ulam in 1976, asks for the number of queries required to find x, supposing that the first person is allowed to lie exactly once.

a) Show that by asking each question twice, given a number x and a set with n elements, and asking one more question when we find the lie, Ulam's problem can be solved using $2 \log n + 1$ queries.

b) Show that by dividing the initial set of n elements into four parts, each with $n/4$ elements, 1/4 of the elements can be eliminated using two queries. [*Hint:* Use two queries, where each of the queries asks whether the element is in the union of two of the subsets with $n/4$ elements and where one of the subsets of $n/4$ elements is used in both queries.]

c) Show from part (b) that if $f(n)$ equals the number of queries used to solve Ulam's problem using the method from part (b) and n is divisible by 4, then $f(n) = f(3n/4) + 2$.

d) Solve the recurrence relation in part (c) for $f(n)$.

e) Is the naive way to solve Ulam's problem by asking each question twice or the divide-and-conquer method based on part (b) more efficient? The most efficient way to solve Ulam's problem has been determined by A. Pelc [Pe87].

In Exercises 29–33, assume that f is an increasing function satisfying the recurrence relation $f(n) = af(n/b) + cn^d$, where $a \geq 1$, b is an integer greater than 1, and c and d are positive real numbers. These exercises supply a proof of Theorem 2.

***29.** Show that if $a = b^d$ and n is a power of b, then $f(n) = f(1)n^d + cn^d \log_b n$.

30. Use Exercise 29 to show that if $a = b^d$, then $f(n)$ is $O(n^d \log n)$.

***31.** Show that if $a \neq b^d$ and n is a power of b, then $f(n) = C_1 n^d + C_2 n^{\log_b a}$, where $C_1 = b^d c/(b^d - a)$ and $C_2 = f(1) + b^d c/(a - b^d)$.

32. Use Exercise 31 to show that if $a < b^d$, then $f(n)$ is $O(n^d)$.

33. Use Exercise 31 to show that if $a > b^d$, then $f(n)$ is $O(n^{\log_b a})$.

34. Find $f(n)$ when $n = 4^k$, where f satisfies the recurrence relation $f(n) = 5f(n/4) + 6n$, with $f(1) = 1$.

35. Give a big-O estimate for the function f in Exercise 34 if f is an increasing function.

36. Find $f(n)$ when $n = 2^k$, where f satisfies the recurrence relation $f(n) = 8f(n/2) + n^2$ with $f(1) = 1$.

37. Give a big-O estimate for the function f in Exercise 36 if f is an increasing function.

8.4 Generating Functions

8.4.1 Introduction

Links Generating functions are used to represent sequences efficiently by coding the terms of a sequence as coefficients of powers of a variable x in a formal power series. Generating functions can be used to solve many types of counting problems, such as the number of ways to select or distribute objects of different kinds, subject to a variety of constraints, and the number of ways to make change for a dollar using coins of different denominations. Generating functions can be used to solve recurrence relations by translating a recurrence relation for the terms of a sequence into an equation involving a generating function. This equation can then be solved to find a closed form for the generating function. From this closed form, the coefficients of the power series for the generating function can be found, solving the original recurrence relation. Generating functions can also be used to prove combinatorial identities by taking advantage of relatively simple relationships between functions that can be translated into identities involving the terms of sequences. Generating functions are a helpful tool for studying many properties of sequences besides those described in this section, such as their use for establishing asymptotic formulae for the terms of a sequence.

We begin with the definition of the generating function for a sequence.

Definition 1 The *generating function for the sequence* $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_k, \ldots$ of real numbers is the infinite series

$$G(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_k x^k + \cdots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k.$$

Remark: The generating function for $\{a_k\}$ given in Definition 1 is sometimes called the **ordinary generating function** of $\{a_k\}$ to distinguish it from other types of generating functions for this sequence.

EXAMPLE 1 The generating functions for the sequences $\{a_k\}$ with $a_k = 3, a_k = k + 1$, and $a_k = 2^k$ are $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 3x^k$, $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}(k+1)x^k$, and $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k x^k$, respectively. ◀

Extra Examples

We can define generating functions for finite sequences of real numbers by extending a finite sequence $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$ into an infinite sequence by setting $a_{n+1} = 0, a_{n+2} = 0$, and so on. The generating function $G(x)$ of this infinite sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a polynomial of degree n because no terms of the form $a_j x^j$ with $j > n$ occur, that is,

$$G(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n.$$

EXAMPLE 2 What is the generating function for the sequence 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1?

Solution: The generating function of 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1 is

$$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5.$$

By Theorem 1 of Section 2.4 we have

$$(x^6 - 1)/(x - 1) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5$$

when $x \neq 1$. Consequently, $G(x) = (x^6 - 1)/(x - 1)$ is the generating function of the sequence 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1. [Because the powers of x are only place holders for the terms of the sequence in a generating function, we do not need to worry that $G(1)$ is undefined.] ◀

EXAMPLE 3 Let m be a positive integer. Let $a_k = C(m, k)$, for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, m$. What is the generating function for the sequence $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m$?

Solution: The generating function for this sequence is

$$G(x) = C(m, 0) + C(m, 1)x + C(m, 2)x^2 + \cdots + C(m, m)x^m.$$

The binomial theorem shows that $G(x) = (1 + x)^m$. ◀

8.4.2 Useful Facts About Power Series

When generating functions are used to solve counting problems, they are usually considered to be **formal power series**. As such, they are treated as algebraic objects; questions about their convergence are ignored. However, when formal power series are convergent, valid operations carry over to their use as formal power series. We will take advantage of the power series of particular functions around $x = 0$. These power series are unique and have a positive radius of convergence. Readers familiar with calculus can consult textbooks on this subject for details about power series, including the convergence of the series we use here.

We will now state some widely important facts about infinite series used when working with generating functions. These facts can be found in calculus texts.

EXAMPLE 4 The function $f(x) = 1/(1 - x)$ is the generating function of the sequence $1, 1, 1, 1, \ldots$, because

$$1/(1 - x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots$$

for $|x| < 1$. ◀

EXAMPLE 5 The function $f(x) = 1/(1 - ax)$ is the generating function of the sequence $1, a, a^2, a^3, \ldots$, because

$$1/(1 - ax) = 1 + ax + a^2x^2 + \cdots$$

when $|ax| < 1$, or equivalently, for $|x| < 1/|a|$ for $a \neq 0$. ◀

We also will need some results on how to add and how to multiply two generating functions. Proofs of these results can be found in calculus texts.

THEOREM 1 Let $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$ and $g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k x^k$. Then

$$f(x) + g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k) x^k \quad \text{and} \quad f(x)g(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{k} a_j b_{k-j} \right) x^k.$$

Remark: Theorem 1 is valid only for power series that converge in an interval, as all series considered in this section do. However, the theory of generating functions is not limited to such series. In the case of series that do not converge, the statements in Theorem 1 can be taken as definitions of addition and multiplication of generating functions.

We will illustrate how Theorem 1 can be used with Example 6.

EXAMPLE 6 Let $f(x) = 1/(1 - x)^2$. Use Example 4 to find the coefficients $a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots$ in the expansion $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$.

Solution: From Example 4 we see that

$$1/(1 - x) = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots.$$

Hence, from Theorem 1, we have

$$1/(1 - x)^2 = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=0}^{k} 1 \right) x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k + 1) x^k.$$

◀

Remark: This result also can be derived from Example 4 by differentiation. Taking derivatives is a useful technique for producing new identities from existing identities for generating functions.

To use generating functions to solve many important counting problems, we will need to apply the binomial theorem for exponents that are not positive integers. Before we state an extended version of the binomial theorem, we need to define extended binomial coefficients.

Definition 2 Let u be a real number and k a nonnegative integer. Then the *extended binomial coefficient* $\binom{u}{k}$ is defined by

$$\binom{u}{k} = \begin{cases} u(u-1)\cdots(u-k+1)/k! & \text{if } k > 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } k = 0. \end{cases}$$

EXAMPLE 7 Find the values of the extended binomial coefficients $\binom{-2}{3}$ and $\binom{1/2}{3}$.

Solution: Taking $u = -2$ and $k = 3$ in Definition 2 gives us

$$\binom{-2}{3} = \frac{(-2)(-3)(-4)}{3!} = -4.$$

Similarly, taking $u = 1/2$ and $k = 3$ gives us

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{1/2}{3} &= \frac{(1/2)(1/2-1)(1/2-2)}{3!} \\ &= (1/2)(-1/2)(-3/2)/6 \\ &= 1/16.\end{aligned}$$

◀

Example 8 provides a useful formula for extended binomial coefficients when the top parameter is a negative integer. It will be useful in our subsequent discussions.

EXAMPLE 8 When the top parameter is a negative integer, the extended binomial coefficient can be expressed in terms of an ordinary binomial coefficient. To see that this is the case, note that

$$\begin{aligned}\binom{-n}{r} &= \frac{(-n)(-n-1)\cdots(-n-r+1)}{r!} && \text{by definition of extended binomial coefficient} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^r n(n+1)\cdots(n+r-1)}{r!} && \text{factoring out } -1 \text{ from each term in the numerator} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^r (n+r-1)(n+r-2)\cdots n}{r!} && \text{by the commutative law for multiplication} \\ &= \frac{(-1)^r (n+r-1)!}{r!(n-1)!} && \text{multiplying both the numerator and denominator by } (n-1)! \\ &= (-1)^r \binom{n+r-1}{r} && \text{by the definition of binomial coefficients} \\ &= (-1)^r C(n+r-1, r) && \text{using alternative notation for binomial coefficients.}\end{aligned}$$

◀

We now state the extended binomial theorem.

THEOREM 2 **THE EXTENDED BINOMIAL THEOREM** Let x be a real number with $|x| < 1$ and let u be a real number. Then

$$(1+x)^u = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{u}{k} x^k.$$

Theorem 2 can be proved using the theory of Maclaurin series. We leave its proof to the reader with a familiarity with this part of calculus.

Remark: When u is a positive integer, the extended binomial theorem reduces to the binomial theorem presented in Section 6.4, because in that case $\binom{u}{k} = 0$ if $k > u$.

Example 9 illustrates the use of Theorem 2 when the exponent is a negative integer.

EXAMPLE 9 Find the generating functions for $(1+x)^{-n}$ and $(1-x)^{-n}$, where n is a positive integer, using the extended binomial theorem.

Solution: By the extended binomial theorem, it follows that

$$(1+x)^{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{k} x^k.$$

Using Example 8, which provides a simple formula for $\binom{-n}{k}$, we obtain

$$(1+x)^{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k C(n+k-1, k) x^k.$$

Replacing x by $-x$, we find that

$$(1-x)^{-n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C(n+k-1, k) x^k.$$

◀

Table 1 presents a useful summary of some generating functions that arise frequently.

Remark: Note that the second and third formulae in this table can be deduced from the first formula by substituting ax and x^r for x, respectively. Similarly, the sixth and seventh formulae can be deduced from the fifth formula using the same substitutions. The tenth and eleventh can be deduced from the ninth formula by substituting $-x$ and ax for x, respectively. Also, some of the formulae in this table can be derived from other formulae using methods from calculus (such as differentiation and integration). Students are encouraged to know the core formulae in this table (that is, formulae from which the others can be derived, perhaps the first, fourth, fifth, eighth, ninth, twelfth, and thirteenth formulae) and understand how to derive the other formulae from these core formulae.

TABLE 1 Useful Generating Functions.

$G(x)$	a_k
$(1+x)^n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} C(n,k)x^k = 1 + C(n,1)x + C(n,2)x^2 + \cdots + x^n$	$C(n,k)$
$(1+ax)^n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} C(n,k)a^k x^k = 1 + C(n,1)ax + C(n,2)a^2x^2 + \cdots + a^n x^n$	$C(n,k)a^k$
$(1+x^r)^n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} C(n,k)x^{rk} = 1 + C(n,1)x^r + C(n,2)x^{2r} + \cdots + x^{rn}$	$C(n,k/r)$ if $r \mid k$; 0 otherwise
$\frac{1-x^{n+1}}{1-x} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} x^k = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots + x^n$	1 if $k \le n$; 0 otherwise
$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^k = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots$	1
$\frac{1}{1-ax} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a^k x^k = 1 + ax + a^2x^2 + \cdots$	a^k
$\frac{1}{1-x^r} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x^{rk} = 1 + x^r + x^{2r} + \cdots$	1 if $r \mid k$; 0 otherwise
$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (k+1)x^k = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \cdots$	$k+1$
$\frac{1}{(1-x)^n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C(n+k-1,k)x^k = 1 + C(n,1)x + C(n+1,2)x^2 + \cdots$	$C(n+k-1,k) = C(n+k-1,n-1)$
$\frac{1}{(1+x)^n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C(n+k-1,k)(-1)^k x^k = 1 - C(n,1)x + C(n+1,2)x^2 - \cdots$	$(-1)^k C(n+k-1,k) = (-1)^k C(n+k-1,n-1)$
$\frac{1}{(1-ax)^n} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} C(n+k-1,k)a^k x^k = 1 + C(n,1)ax + C(n+1,2)a^2x^2 + \cdots$	$C(n+k-1,k)a^k = C(n+k-1,n-1)a^k$
$e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$	$1/k!$
$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} x^k = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots$	$(-1)^{k+1}/k$

Note: The series for the last two generating functions can be found in most calculus books when power series are discussed.

8.4.3 Counting Problems and Generating Functions

Generating functions can be used to solve a wide variety of counting problems. In particular, they can be used to count the number of combinations of various types. In Chapter 6 we developed techniques to count the r-combinations from a set with n elements when repetition is allowed and additional constraints may exist. Such problems are equivalent to counting the solutions to equations of the form

$$e_1 + e_2 + \cdots + e_n = C,$$

where C is a constant and each e_i is a nonnegative integer that may be subject to a specified constraint. Generating functions can also be used to solve counting problems of this type, as Examples 10–12 show.

EXAMPLE 10 Find the number of solutions of

Extra Examples

$$e_1 + e_2 + e_3 = 17,$$

where e_1, e_2, and e_3 are nonnegative integers with $2 \le e_1 \le 5$, $3 \le e_2 \le 6$, and $4 \le e_3 \le 7$.

Solution: The number of solutions with the indicated constraints is the coefficient of x^{17} in the expansion of

$$(x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5)(x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6)(x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7).$$

This follows because we obtain a term equal to x^{17} in the product by picking a term in the first sum x^{e_1}, a term in the second sum x^{e_2}, and a term in the third sum x^{e_3}, where the exponents e_1, e_2, and e_3 satisfy the equation $e_1 + e_2 + e_3 = 17$ and the given constraints.

It is not hard to see that the coefficient of x^{17} in this product is 3. Hence, there are three solutions. (Note that the calculating of this coefficient involves about as much work as enumerating all the solutions of the equation with the given constraints. However, the method that this illustrates often can be used to solve wide classes of counting problems with special formulae, as we will see. Furthermore, a computer algebra system can be used to do such computations.) ◀

EXAMPLE 11 In how many different ways can eight identical cookies be distributed among three distinct children if each child receives at least two cookies and no more than four cookies?

Solution: Because each child receives at least two but no more than four cookies, for each child there is a factor equal to

$$(x^2 + x^3 + x^4)$$

in the generating function for the sequence $\{c_n\}$, where c_n is the number of ways to distribute n cookies. Because there are three children, this generating function is

$$(x^2 + x^3 + x^4)^3.$$

We need the coefficient of x^8 in this product. The reason is that the x^8 terms in the expansion correspond to the ways that three terms can be selected, with one from each factor, that have exponents adding up to 8. Furthermore, the exponents of the term from the first, second, and third factors are the numbers of cookies the first, second, and third children receive, respectively. Computation shows that this coefficient equals 6. Hence, there are six ways to distribute the cookies so that each child receives at least two, but no more than four, cookies. ◀

EXAMPLE 12 Use generating functions to determine the number of ways to insert tokens worth \$1, \$2, and \$5 into a vending machine to pay for an item that costs r dollars in both the cases when the order in which the tokens are inserted does not matter and when the order does matter. (For example, there are two ways to pay for an item that costs \$3 when the order in which the tokens are inserted does not matter: inserting three \$1 tokens or one \$1 token and a \$2 token. When the order matters, there are three ways: inserting three \$1 tokens, inserting a \$1 token and then a \$2 token, or inserting a \$2 token and then a \$1 token.)

Solution: Consider the case when the order in which the tokens are inserted does not matter. Here, all we care about is the number of each token used to produce a total of r dollars. Because we can use any number of \$1 tokens, any number of \$2 tokens, and any number of \$5 tokens, the answer is the coefficient of x^r in the generating function

$$(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots)(1 + x^2 + x^4 + x^6 + \cdots)(1 + x^5 + x^{10} + x^{15} + \cdots).$$

(The first factor in this product represents the \$1 tokens used, the second the \$2 tokens used, and the third the \$5 tokens used.) For example, the number of ways to pay for an item costing \$7 using \$1, \$2, and \$5 tokens is given by the coefficient of x^7 in this expansion, which equals 6.

When the order in which the tokens are inserted matters, the number of ways to insert exactly n tokens to produce a total of r dollars is the coefficient of x^r in

$$(x + x^2 + x^5)^n,$$

because each of the r tokens may be a \$1 token, a \$2 token, or a \$5 token. Because any number of tokens may be inserted, the number of ways to produce r dollars using \$1, \$2, or \$5 tokens, when the order in which the tokens are inserted matters, is the coefficient of x^r in

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + (x + x^2 + x^5) + (x + x^2 + x^5)^2 + \cdots &= \frac{1}{1 - (x + x^2 + x^5)} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - x - x^2 - x^5}, \end{aligned}$$

where we have added the number of ways to insert 0 tokens, 1 token, 2 tokens, 3 tokens, and so on, and where we have used the identity $1/(1 - x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \cdots$ with x replaced with $x + x^2 + x^5$. For example, the number of ways to pay for an item costing \$7 using \$1, \$2, and \$5 tokens, when the order in which the tokens are used matters, is the coefficient of x^7 in this expansion, which equals 26. [*Hint:* To see that this coefficient equals 26 requires the addition of the coefficients of x^7 in the expansions $(x + x^2 + x^5)^k$ for $2 \le k \le 7$. This can be done by hand with considerable computation, or a computer algebra system can be used.] ◀

Example 13 shows the versatility of generating functions when used to solve problems with differing assumptions.

EXAMPLE 13 Use generating functions to find the number of k-combinations of a set with n elements. Assume that the binomial theorem has already been established.

Solution: Each of the n elements in the set contributes the term $(1 + x)$ to the generating function $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k x^k$. Here $f(x)$ is the generating function for $\{a_k\}$, where a_k represents the number of k-combinations of a set with n elements. Hence,

$$f(x) = (1 + x)^n.$$

But by the binomial theorem, we have

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} x^k,$$

where

$$\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

Hence, $C(n, k)$, the number of k-combinations of a set with n elements, is

$$\frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

◀

Remark: We proved the binomial theorem in Section 6.4 using the formula for the number of r-combinations of a set with n elements. This example shows that the binomial theorem, which can be proved by mathematical induction, can be used to derive the formula for the number of r-combinations of a set with n elements.

EXAMPLE 14 Use generating functions to find the number of r-combinations from a set with n elements when repetition of elements is allowed.

Solution: Let $G(x)$ be the generating function for the sequence $\{a_r\}$, where a_r equals the number of r-combinations of a set with n elements with repetitions allowed. That is, $G(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} a_r x^r$. Because we can select any number of a particular member of the set with n elements when we form an r-combination with repetition allowed, each of the n elements contributes $(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots)$ to a product expansion for $G(x)$. Each element contributes this factor because it may be selected zero times, one time, two times, three times, and so on, when an r-combination is formed (with a total of r elements selected). Because there are n elements in the set and each contributes this same factor to $G(x)$, we have

$$G(x) = (1 + x + x^2 + \cdots)^n.$$

As long as $|x| < 1$, we have $1 + x + x^2 + \cdots = 1/(1 - x)$, so

$$G(x) = 1/(1 - x)^n = (1 - x)^{-n}.$$

Applying the extended binomial theorem (Theorem 2), it follows that

$$(1 - x)^{-n} = (1 + (-x))^{-n} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{r} (-x)^r.$$

The number of r-combinations of a set with n elements with repetitions allowed, when r is a positive integer, is the coefficient a_r of x^r in this sum. Consequently, using Example 8 we find that a_r equals

$$\binom{-n}{r}(-1)^r = (-1)^r C(n + r - 1, r) \cdot (-1)^r$$
$$= C(n + r - 1, r).$$

◀

Note that the result in Example 14 is the same result we stated as Theorem 2 in Section 6.5.

EXAMPLE 15 Use generating functions to find the number of ways to select r objects of n different kinds if we must select at least one object of each kind.

Solution: Because we need to select at least one object of each kind, each of the n kinds of objects contributes the factor $(x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots)$ to the generating function $G(x)$ for the sequence $\{a_r\}$, where a_r is the number of ways to select r objects of n different kinds if we need at least one object of each kind. Hence,

$$G(x) = (x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots)^n = x^n(1 + x + x^2 + \cdots)^n = x^n/(1 - x)^n.$$

Using the extended binomial theorem and Example 8, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(x) &= x^n/(1 - x)^n \\ &= x^n \cdot (1 - x)^{-n} \\ &= x^n \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \binom{-n}{r} (-x)^r \\ &= x^n \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} (-1)^r C(n + r - 1, r)(-1)^r x^r \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} C(n + r - 1, r) x^{n+r} \\ &= \sum_{t=n}^{\infty} C(t - 1, t - n) x^t \\ &= \sum_{r=n}^{\infty} C(r - 1, r - n) x^r. \end{aligned}$$

We have shifted the summation in the next-to-last equality by setting $t = n + r$ so that $t = n$ when $r = 0$ and $n + r - 1 = t - 1$, and then we replaced t by r as the index of summation in the last equality to return to our original notation. Hence, there are $C(r - 1, r - n)$ ways to select r objects of n different kinds if we must select at least one object of each kind. ◀

8.4.4 Using Generating Functions to Solve Recurrence Relations

We can find the solution to a recurrence relation and its initial conditions by finding an explicit formula for the associated generating function. This is illustrated in Examples 16 and 17.

EXAMPLE 16 Solve the recurrence relation $a_k = 3a_{k-1}$ for $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ and initial condition $a_0 = 2$.

Extra Examples

Solution: Let $G(x)$ be the generating function for the sequence $\{a_k\}$, that is, $G(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$. First note that

$$xG(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^{k+1} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{k-1} x^k.$$

Using the recurrence relation, we see that

$$\begin{aligned}G(x) - 3xG(x) &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k - 3\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_{k-1}x^k \\ &= a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty}(a_k - 3a_{k-1})x^k \\ &= 2,\end{aligned}$$

because $a_0 = 2$ and $a_k = 3a_{k-1}$. Thus,

$$G(x) - 3xG(x) = (1 - 3x)G(x) = 2.$$

Solving for $G(x)$ shows that $G(x) = 2/(1 - 3x)$. Using the identity $1/(1 - ax) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a^k x^k$, from Table 1, we have

$$G(x) = 2\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 3^k x^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2 \cdot 3^k x^k.$$

Consequently, $a_k = 2 \cdot 3^k$. ◂

EXAMPLE 17 Suppose that a valid codeword is an n-digit number in decimal notation containing an even number of 0s. Let a_n denote the number of valid codewords of length n. In Example 4 of Section 8.1 we showed that the sequence $\{a_n\}$ satisfies the recurrence relation

$$a_n = 8a_{n-1} + 10^{n-1}$$

and the initial condition $a_1 = 9$. Use generating functions to find an explicit formula for a_n.

Solution: To make our work with generating functions simpler, we extend this sequence by setting $a_0 = 1$; when we assign this value to a_0 and use the recurrence relation, we have $a_1 = 8a_0 + 10^0 = 8 + 1 = 9$, which is consistent with our original initial condition. (It also makes sense because there is one code word of length 0—the empty string.)

We multiply both sides of the recurrence relation by x^n to obtain

$$a_n x^n = 8a_{n-1}x^n + 10^{n-1}x^n.$$

Let $G(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ be the generating function of the sequence $a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots$. We sum both sides of the last equation starting with $n = 1$, to find that

$$\begin{aligned}G(x) - 1 = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}(8a_{n-1}x^n + 10^{n-1}x^n) \\ &= 8\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n-1}x^n + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 10^{n-1}x^n \\ &= 8x\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + x\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 10^{n-1}x^{n-1} \\ &= 8x\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n + x\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 10^n x^n \\ &= 8xG(x) + x/(1 - 10x),\end{aligned}$$

where we have used Example 5 to evaluate the second summation. Therefore, we have

$$G(x) - 1 = 8xG(x) + x/(1 - 10x).$$

Solving for $G(x)$ shows that

$$G(x) = \frac{1 - 9x}{(1 - 8x)(1 - 10x)}.$$

Expanding the right-hand side of this equation into partial fractions (as is done in the integration of rational functions studied in calculus) gives

$$G(x) = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{1 - 8x} + \frac{1}{1 - 10x}\right).$$

Using Example 5 twice (once with $a = 8$ and once with $a = 10$) gives

$$\begin{aligned} G(x) &= \frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 8^n x^n + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 10^n x^n\right) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2}(8^n + 10^n)x^n. \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, we have shown that

$$a_n = \frac{1}{2}(8^n + 10^n).$$

◀

8.4.5 Proving Identities via Generating Functions

In Chapter 6 we saw how combinatorial identities could be established using combinatorial proofs. Here we will show that such identities, as well as identities for extended binomial coefficients, can be proved using generating functions. Sometimes the generating function approach is simpler than other approaches, especially when it is simpler to work with the closed form of a generating function than with the terms of the sequence themselves. We illustrate how generating functions can be used to prove identities with Example 18.

EXAMPLE 18 Use generating functions to show that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} C(n, k)^2 = C(2n, n)$$

whenever n is a positive integer.

Solution: First note that by the binomial theorem $C(2n, n)$ is the coefficient of x^n in $(1 + x)^{2n}$. However, we also have

$$\begin{aligned} (1 + x)^{2n} &= [(1 + x)^n]^2 \\ &= [C(n, 0) + C(n, 1)x + C(n, 2)x^2 + \cdots + C(n, n)x^n]^2. \end{aligned}$$

The coefficient of x^n in this expression is

$$C(n,0)C(n,n) + C(n,1)C(n,n-1) + C(n,2)C(n,n-2) + \cdots + C(n,n)C(n,0).$$

This equals $\sum_{k=0}^{n} C(n,k)^2$, because $C(n,n-k) = C(n,k)$. Because both $C(2n,n)$ and $\sum_{k=0}^{n} C(n,k)^2$ represent the coefficient of x^n in $(1+x)^{2n}$, they must be equal. ◀

Exercises 44 and 45 ask that Pascal's identity and Vandermonde's identity be proved using generating functions.

Exercises

1. Find the generating function for the finite sequence 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2.

2. Find the generating function for the finite sequence 1, 4, 16, 64, 256.

In Exercises 3–8, by a **closed form** we mean an algebraic expression not involving a summation over a range of values or the use of ellipses.

3. Find a closed form for the generating function for each of these sequences. (For each sequence, use the most obvious choice of a sequence that follows the pattern of the initial terms listed.)

a) 0, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, …
b) 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, …
c) 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, …
d) 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64, 128, 256, …
e) $\binom{7}{0}, \binom{7}{1}, \binom{7}{2}, \ldots, \binom{7}{7}$, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, …
f) 2, −2, 2, −2, 2, −2, 2, −2, …
g) 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, …
h) 0, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, …

4. Find a closed form for the generating function for each of these sequences. (Assume a general form for the terms of the sequence, using the most obvious choice of such a sequence.)

a) −1, −1, −1, −1, −1, −1, −1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, …
b) 1, 3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729, …
c) 0, 0, 3, −3, 3, −3, 3, −3, …
d) 1, 2, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, …
e) $\binom{7}{0}, 2\binom{7}{1}, 2^2\binom{7}{2}, \ldots, 2^7\binom{7}{7}$, 0, 0, 0, 0, …
f) −3, 3, −3, 3, −3, 3, …
g) 0, 1, −2, 4, −8, 16, −32, 64, …
h) 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, …

5. Find a closed form for the generating function for the sequence $\{a_n\}$, where

a) $a_n = 5$ for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
b) $a_n = 3^n$ for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
c) $a_n = 2$ for $n = 3, 4, 5, \ldots$ and $a_0 = a_1 = a_2 = 0$.
d) $a_n = 2n + 3$ for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
e) $a_n = \binom{8}{n}$ for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
f) $a_n = \binom{n+4}{n}$ for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.

6. Find a closed form for the generating function for the sequence $\{a_n\}$, where

a) $a_n = -1$ for all $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
b) $a_n = 2^n$ for $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \ldots$ and $a_0 = 0$.
c) $a_n = n - 1$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
d) $a_n = 1/(n+1)!$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
e) $a_n = \binom{n}{2}$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.
f) $a_n = \binom{10}{n+1}$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$.

7. For each of these generating functions, provide a closed formula for the sequence it determines.

a) $(3x-4)^3$
b) $(x^3+1)^3$
c) $1/(1-5x)$
d) $x^3/(1+3x)$
e) $x^2 + 3x + 7 + (1/(1-x^2))$
f) $(x^4/(1-x^4)) - x^3 - x^2 - x - 1$
g) $x^2/(1-x)^2$
h) $2e^{2x}$

8. For each of these generating functions, provide a closed formula for the sequence it determines.

a) $(x^2+1)^3$
b) $(3x-1)^3$
c) $1/(1-2x^2)$
d) $x^2/(1-x)^3$
e) $x - 1 + (1/(1-3x))$
f) $(1+x^3)/(1+x)^3$
*__g)__ $x/(1+x+x^2)$
h) $e^{3x^2} - 1$

9. Find the coefficient of x^{10} in the power series of each of these functions.

a) $(1 + x^5 + x^{10} + x^{15} + \cdots)^3$
b) $(x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7 + \cdots)^3$
c) $(x^4 + x^5 + x^6)(x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + x^7)(1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \cdots)$
d) $(x^2 + x^4 + x^6 + x^8 + \cdots)(x^3 + x^6 + x^9 + \cdots)(x^4 + x^8 + x^{12} + \cdots)$
e) $(1 + x^2 + x^4 + x^6 + x^8 + \cdots)(1 + x^4 + x^8 + x^{12} + \cdots)(1 + x^6 + x^{12} + x^{18} + \cdots)$

10. Find the coefficient of x^9 in the power series of each of these functions.

a) $(1 + x^3 + x^6 + x^9 + \cdots)^3$
b) $(x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6 + \cdots)^3$
c) $(x^3 + x^5 + x^6)(x^3 + x^4)(x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \cdots)$
d) $(x + x^4 + x^7 + x^{10} + \cdots)(x^2 + x^4 + x^6 + x^8 + \cdots)$
e) $(1 + x + x^2)^3$

61. Let m be a positive integer. Let X_m be the random variable whose value is n if the mth success occurs on the $(n + m)$th trial when independent Bernoulli trials are performed, each with probability of success p.

a) Using Exercise 32 in the Supplementary Exercises of Chapter 7, show that the probability generating function G_{X_m} is given by $G_{X_m}(x) = p^m/(1 - qx)^m$, where $q = 1 - p$.

b) Find the expected value and the variance of X_m using Exercise 59 and the closed form for the probability generating function in part (a).

62. Show that if X and Y are independent random variables on a sample space S such that $X(s)$ and $Y(s)$ are nonnegative integers for all $s \in S$, then $G_{X+Y}(x) = G_X(x)G_Y(x)$.

8.5 Inclusion–Exclusion

8.5.1 Introduction

A discrete mathematics class contains 30 women and 50 sophomores. How many students in the class are either women or sophomores? This question cannot be answered unless more information is provided. Adding the number of women in the class and the number of sophomores probably does not give the correct answer, because women sophomores are counted twice. This observation shows that the number of students in the class that are either sophomores or women is the sum of the number of women and the number of sophomores in the class minus the number of women sophomores. A technique for solving such counting problems was introduced in Section 6.1. In this section we will generalize the ideas introduced in that section to solve problems that require us to count the number of elements in the union of more than two sets.

8.5.2 The Principle of Inclusion–Exclusion

How many elements are in the union of two finite sets? In Section 2.2 we showed that the number of elements in the union of the two sets A and B is the sum of the numbers of elements in the sets minus the number of elements in their intersection. That is,

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|.$$

As we showed in Section 6.1, the formula for the number of elements in the union of two sets is useful in counting problems. Examples 1–3 provide additional illustrations of the usefulness of this formula.

EXAMPLE 1 In a discrete mathematics class every student is a major in computer science or mathematics, or both. The number of students having computer science as a major (possibly along with mathematics) is 25; the number of students having mathematics as a major (possibly along with computer science) is 13; and the number of students majoring in both computer science and mathematics is 8. How many students are in this class?

Solution: Let A be the set of students in the class majoring in computer science and B be the set of students in the class majoring in mathematics. Then $A \cap B$ is the set of students in the class who are joint mathematics and computer science majors. Because every student in the class is majoring in either computer science or mathematics (or both), it follows that the number of students in the class is $|A \cup B|$. Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}|A \cup B| &= |A| + |B| - |A \cap B|\\ &= 25 + 13 - 8 = 30.\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, there are 30 students in the class. This computation is illustrated in Figure 1. ◀

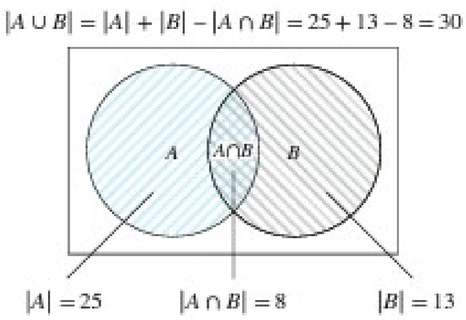


FIGURE 1 The set of students in a discrete mathematics class.

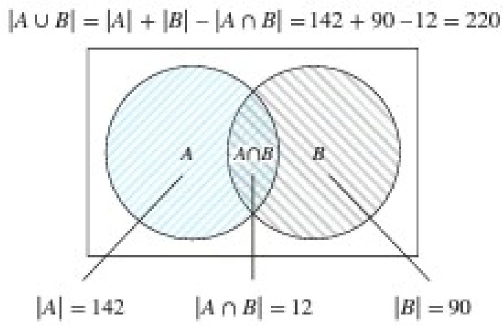


FIGURE 2 The set of positive integers not exceeding 1000 divisible by either 7 or 11.

EXAMPLE 2 How many positive integers not exceeding 1000 are divisible by 7 or 11?

Solution: Let A be the set of positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by 7, and let B be the set of positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by 11. Then $A \cup B$ is the set of integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by either 7 or 11, and $A \cap B$ is the set of integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by both 7 and 11. From Example 2 of Section 4.1, we know that among the positive integers not exceeding 1000 there are $\lfloor 1000/7 \rfloor$ integers divisible by 7 and $\lfloor 1000/11 \rfloor$ divisible by 11. Because 7 and 11 are relatively prime, the integers divisible by both 7 and 11 are those divisible by $7 \cdot 11$. Consequently, there are $\lfloor 1000/(11 \cdot 7) \rfloor$ positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by both 7 and 11. It follows that there are

$$\begin{aligned} |A \cup B| &= |A| + |B| - |A \cap B| \\ &= \left\lfloor \frac{1000}{7} \right\rfloor + \left\lfloor \frac{1000}{11} \right\rfloor - \left\lfloor \frac{1000}{7 \cdot 11} \right\rfloor \\ &= 142 + 90 - 12 = 220 \end{aligned}$$

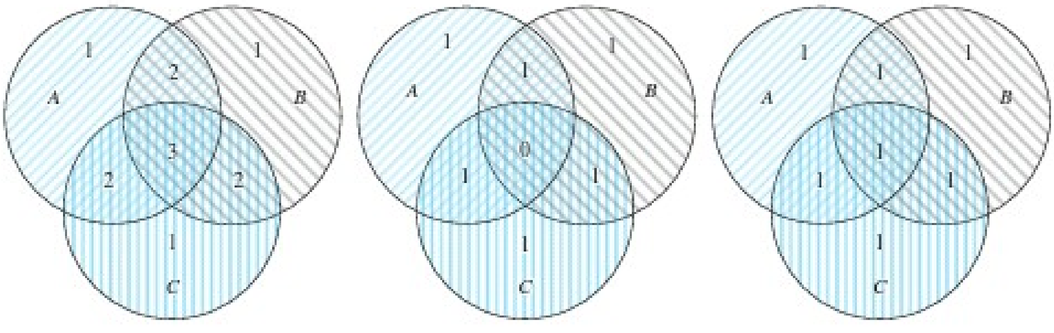
positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are divisible by either 7 or 11. This computation is illustrated in Figure 2. ◀

Example 3 shows how to find the number of elements in a finite universal set that are outside the union of two sets.

EXAMPLE 3 Suppose that there are 1807 freshmen at your school. Of these, 453 are taking a course in computer science, 567 are taking a course in mathematics, and 299 are taking courses in both computer science and mathematics. How many are not taking a course either in computer science or in mathematics?

Solution: To find the number of freshmen who are not taking a course in either mathematics or computer science, subtract the number that are taking a course in either of these subjects from the total number of freshmen. Let A be the set of all freshmen taking a course in computer science, and let B be the set of all freshmen taking a course in mathematics. It follows that $|A| = 453$, $|B| = 567$, and $|A \cap B| = 299$. The number of freshmen taking a course in either computer science or mathematics is

$$|A \cup B| = |A| + |B| - |A \cap B| = 453 + 567 - 299 = 721.$$



(a) Count of elements by $|A| + |B| + |C|$

(b) Count of elements by $|A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C|$

(c) Count of elements by $|A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|$

FIGURE 3 Finding a formula for the number of elements in the union of three sets.

Consequently, there are $1807 - 721 = 1086$ freshmen who are not taking a course in computer science or mathematics. ◀

We will now begin our development of a formula for the number of elements in the union of a finite number of sets. The formula we will develop is called the **principle of inclusion–exclusion**. For concreteness, before we consider unions of n sets, where n is any positive integer, we will derive a formula for the number of elements in the union of three sets A, B, and C. To construct this formula, we note that $|A| + |B| + |C|$ counts each element that is in exactly one of the three sets once, elements that are in exactly two of the sets twice, and elements in all three sets three times. This is illustrated in the first panel in Figure 3.

To remove the overcount of elements in more than one of the sets, we subtract the number of elements in the intersections of all pairs of the three sets. We obtain

$$|A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C|.$$

This expression still counts elements that occur in exactly one of the sets once. An element that occurs in exactly two of the sets is also counted exactly once, because this element will occur in one of the three intersections of sets taken two at a time. However, those elements that occur in all three sets will be counted zero times by this expression, because they occur in all three intersections of sets taken two at a time. This is illustrated in the second panel in Figure 3.

To remedy this undercount, we add the number of elements in the intersection of all three sets. This final expression counts each element once, whether it is in one, two, or three of the sets. Thus,

$$|A \cup B \cup C| = |A| + |B| + |C| - |A \cap B| - |A \cap C| - |B \cap C| + |A \cap B \cap C|.$$

This formula is illustrated in the third panel of Figure 3.

Example 4 illustrates how this formula can be used.

EXAMPLE 4 A total of 1232 students have taken a course in Spanish, 879 have taken a course in French, and 114 have taken a course in Russian. Further, 103 have taken courses in both Spanish and French, 23 have taken courses in both Spanish and Russian, and 14 have taken courses in both

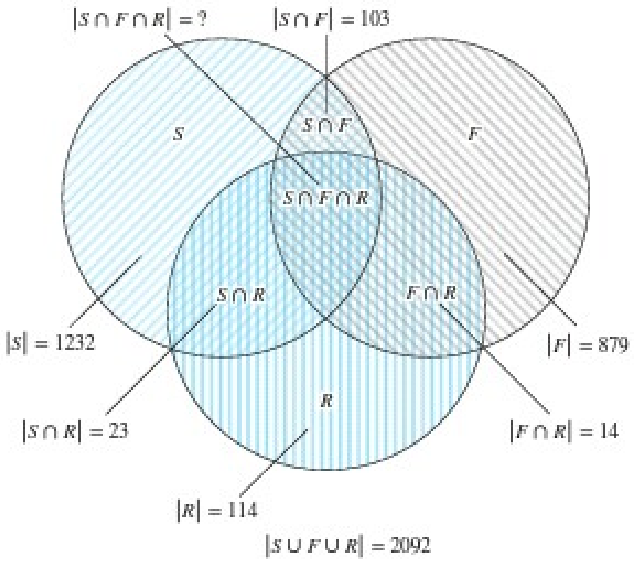


FIGURE 4 The set of students who have taken courses in Spanish, French, and Russian.

French and Russian. If 2092 students have taken at least one of Spanish, French, and Russian, how many students have taken a course in all three languages?

Solution: Let S be the set of students who have taken a course in Spanish, F the set of students who have taken a course in French, and R the set of students who have taken a course in Russian. Then

$$|S| = 1232,\quad |F| = 879,\quad |R| = 114,$$
$$|S \cap F| = 103,\ |S \cap R| = 23,\ |F \cap R| = 14,$$

and

$$|S \cup F \cup R| = 2092.$$

When we insert these quantities into the equation

$$|S \cup F \cup R| = |S| + |F| + |R| - |S \cap F| - |S \cap R| - |F \cap R| + |S \cap F \cap R|$$

we obtain

$$2092 = 1232 + 879 + 114 - 103 - 23 - 14 + |S \cap F \cap R|.$$

We now solve for $|S \cap F \cap R|$. We find that $|S \cap F \cap R| = 7$. Therefore, there are seven students who have taken courses in Spanish, French, and Russian. This is illustrated in Figure 4. ◀

We will now state and prove the **inclusion–exclusion principle** for n sets, where n is a positive integer. This priniciple tells us that we can count the elements in a union of n sets by adding the number of elements in the sets, then subtracting the sum of the number of elements in all intersections of two of these sets, then adding the number of elements in all intersections of three of these sets, and so on, until we reach the number of elements in the intersection of all the sets. It is added when there is an odd number of sets and added when there is an even number of sets.

THEOREM 1 **THE PRINCIPLE OF INCLUSION–EXCLUSION** Let $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ be finite sets. Then

$$|A_1 \cup A_2 \cup \cdots \cup A_n| = \sum_{1 \le i \le n} |A_i| - \sum_{1 \le i < j \le n} |A_i \cap A_j| + \sum_{1 \le i < j < k \le n} |A_i \cap A_j \cap A_k| - \cdots + (-1)^{n+1} |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \cdots \cap A_n|.$$

Proof: We will prove the formula by showing that an element in the union is counted exactly once by the right-hand side of the equation. Suppose that a is a member of exactly r of the sets $A_1, A_2, \ldots, A_n$ where $1 \le r \le n$. This element is counted $C(r, 1)$ times by $\Sigma|A_i|$. It is counted $C(r, 2)$ times by $\Sigma|A_i \cap A_j|$. In general, it is counted $C(r, m)$ times by the summation involving m of the sets A_i. Thus, this element is counted exactly

$$C(r, 1) - C(r, 2) + C(r, 3) - \cdots + (-1)^{r+1} C(r, r)$$

times by the expression on the right-hand side of this equation. Our goal is to evaluate this quantity. By Corollary 2 of Section 6.4, we have

$$C(r, 0) - C(r, 1) + C(r, 2) - \cdots + (-1)^r C(r, r) = 0.$$

Hence,

$$1 = C(r, 0) = C(r, 1) - C(r, 2) + \cdots + (-1)^{r+1} C(r, r).$$

Therefore, each element in the union is counted exactly once by the expression on the right-hand side of the equation. This proves the principle of inclusion–exclusion. ◁

The inclusion–exclusion principle gives a formula for the number of elements in the union of n sets for every positive integer n. There are terms in this formula for the number of elements in the intersection of every nonempty subset of the collection of the n sets. Hence, there are $2^n - 1$ terms in this formula.

EXAMPLE 5 Give a formula for the number of elements in the union of four sets.

Extra Examples

Solution: The inclusion–exclusion principle shows that

$$\begin{aligned} |A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 \cup A_4| = {} & |A_1| + |A_2| + |A_3| + |A_4| \\ & - |A_1 \cap A_2| - |A_1 \cap A_3| - |A_1 \cap A_4| - |A_2 \cap A_3| - |A_2 \cap A_4| \\ & - |A_3 \cap A_4| + |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3| + |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_4| + |A_1 \cap A_3 \cap A_4| \\ & + |A_2 \cap A_3 \cap A_4| - |A_1 \cap A_2 \cap A_3 \cap A_4|. \end{aligned}$$

Note that this formula contains 15 different terms, one for each nonempty subset of $\{A_1, A_2, A_3, A_4\}$. ◀

Exercises

1. How many elements are in $A_1 \cup A_2$ if there are 12 elements in A_1, 18 elements in A_2, and
   a) $A_1 \cap A_2 = \emptyset$?
   b) $|A_1 \cap A_2| = 1$?
   c) $|A_1 \cap A_2| = 6$?
   d) $A_1 \subseteq A_2$?
2. There are 345 students at a college who have taken a course in calculus, 212 who have taken a course in discrete mathematics, and 188 who have taken courses in both calculus and discrete mathematics. How many students have taken a course in either calculus or discrete mathematics?
3. A survey of households in the United States reveals that 96% have at least one television set, 98% have telephone service, and 95% have telephone service and at least one television set. What percentage of households in the United States have neither telephone service nor a television set?
4. A marketing report concerning personal computers states that 650,000 owners will buy a printer for their machines next year and 1,250,000 will buy at least one software package. If the report states that 1,450,000 owners will buy either a printer or at least one software package, how many will buy both a printer and at least one software package?
5. Find the number of elements in $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$ if there are 100 elements in each set and if
   a) the sets are pairwise disjoint.
   b) there are 50 common elements in each pair of sets and no elements in all three sets.
   c) there are 50 common elements in each pair of sets and 25 elements in all three sets.
   d) the sets are equal.
6. Find the number of elements in $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3$ if there are 100 elements in A_1, 1000 in A_2, and 10,000 in A_3 if
   a) $A_1 \subseteq A_2$ and $A_2 \subseteq A_3$.
   b) the sets are pairwise disjoint.
   c) there are two elements common to each pair of sets and one element in all three sets.
7. There are 2504 computer science students at a school. Of these, 1876 have taken a course in Java, 999 have taken a course in Linux, and 345 have taken a course in C. Further, 876 have taken courses in both Java and Linux, 231 have taken courses in both Linux and C, and 290 have taken courses in both Java and C. If 189 of these students have taken courses in Linux, Java, and C, how many of these 2504 students have not taken a course in any of these three programming languages?
8. In a survey of 270 college students, it is found that 64 like Brussels sprouts, 94 like broccoli, 58 like cauliflower, 26 like both Brussels sprouts and broccoli, 28 like both Brussels sprouts and cauliflower, 22 like both broccoli and cauliflower, and 14 like all three vegetables. How many of the 270 students do not like any of these vegetables?
9. How many students are enrolled in a course either in calculus, discrete mathematics, data structures, or programming languages at a school if there are 507, 292, 312, and 344 students in these courses, respectively; 14 in both calculus and data structures; 213 in both calculus and programming languages; 211 in both discrete mathematics and data structures; 43 in both discrete mathematics and programming languages; and no student may take calculus and discrete mathematics, or data structures and programming languages, concurrently?
10. Find the number of positive integers not exceeding 100 that are not divisible by 5 or by 7.
11. Find the number of positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are not divisible by 3, 17, or 35.
12. Find the number of positive integers not exceeding 10,000 that are not divisible by 3, 4, 7, or 11.
13. Find the number of positive integers not exceeding 100 that are either odd or the square of an integer.
14. Find the number of positive integers not exceeding 1000 that are either the square or the cube of an integer.
15. How many bit strings of length eight do not contain six consecutive 0s?

*16. How many permutations of the 26 letters of the English alphabet do not contain any of the strings *fish*, *rat* or *bird*?

17. How many permutations of the 10 digits either begin with the 3 digits 987, contain the digits 45 in the fifth and sixth positions, or end with the 3 digits 123?
18. How many elements are in the union of four sets if each of the sets has 100 elements, each pair of the sets shares 50 elements, each three of the sets share 25 elements, and there are 5 elements in all four sets?
19. How many elements are in the union of four sets if the sets have 50, 60, 70, and 80 elements, respectively, each pair of the sets has 5 elements in common, each triple of the sets has 1 common element, and no element is in all four sets?
20. How many terms are there in the formula for the number of elements in the union of 10 sets given by the principle of inclusion–exclusion?
21. Write out the explicit formula given by the principle of inclusion–exclusion for the number of elements in the union of five sets.
22. How many elements are in the union of five sets if the sets contain 10,000 elements each, each pair of sets has 1000 common elements, each triple of sets has 100 common elements, every four of the sets have 10 common elements, and there is 1 element in all five sets?
23. Write out the explicit formula given by the principle of inclusion–exclusion for the number of elements in the union of six sets when it is known that no three of these sets have a common intersection.