

# MA210 Discrete Mathematics

## Notes 2

30 January and 6 February 2022

## Introduction to Recurrence Relations and Generating Functions

### Recurrence Relations

An (infinite) *sequence* is a function  $f$  that maps natural numbers (or non-negative integers) to the set of real numbers. Instead of working with  $f$  itself, we write  $a_n = f(n)$  and use the notation  $(a_n)_{n \geq 1}$  or  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ . We will mainly use the latter. We write  $\mathbb{N}_0$  for the set of natural numbers together with 0 (i.e. the set  $\{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ ).

**Definition 2.1** (Recurrence relation, initial conditions, solution, closed form). A recurrence relation is an equation of the form

$$a_n = \varphi_n(n, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_0),$$

which holds for all  $n \geq N$  (for some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ ) for a sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ . Here  $\varphi_n$  can be any function. It doesn't have to be given by a simple formula. It can depend on any number of the previous terms, and there doesn't have to be any similarity between (say)  $\varphi_n$  and  $\varphi_{n+1}$ .

But in these notes we will (almost always) stick to recurrence relations where  $\varphi_n$  does not depend on  $n$  and only depends on the last few terms of the recurrence. So we will consider recurrence relations of the form

$$a_n = \varphi(n, a_{n-1}, a_{n-2}, \dots, a_{n-N}).$$

We typically consider situations where the initial conditions  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{N-1}$  are given with the recurrence relation. Together they define a unique sequence.

A solution of a recurrence relation with initial conditions, or a closed form of a sequence, is a function  $F(n)$ , depending only on  $n$ , such that for all  $n \geq 0$  we have  $a_n = F(n)$ .

**Example 2.2.** Show that the recurrence relation given by  $a_n = 2a_{n-1}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , and  $a_0 = 1$ , has a closed form  $a_n = F(n) = 2^n$ .

## Homogeneous Linear Recursions of Order 1 or 2

**Definition 2.3.** A recurrence relation

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= c, \\ a_n &= \alpha a_{n-1} \quad \text{for } n \geq 1, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha, c$  are real-valued constants, is called a homogeneous linear recursion of order 1 with constant coefficients.

**Proposition 2.4.** A homogeneous linear recursion of order 1 with constant coefficients  $a_n = \alpha a_{n-1}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,  $a_0 = c$ , has the unique solution

$$a_n = c \cdot \alpha^n \quad \text{for } n \geq 0.$$

**Example 2.5.** Find a solution of the recurrence relation  $a_0 = 1$ ,  $a_n = 7a_{n-1} - 3$  for  $n \geq 1$ .

**Definition 2.6.** A recurrence relation

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= c_0, \\ a_1 &= c_1, \\ a_n &= \alpha a_{n-1} + \beta a_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n \geq 2, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha, \beta, c_0, c_1$  are real-valued constants, is called a homogeneous linear recursion of order 2 with constant coefficients.

**Proposition 2.7.** Suppose we have a homogeneous linear recursion of order 2 with constant coefficients:

$$a_0 = c_0, \quad a_1 = c_1, \quad \text{and} \quad a_n = \alpha a_{n-1} + \beta a_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n \geq 2, \quad \text{where } \beta \neq 0.$$

Let  $r_1, r_2$  be the roots of the equation  $x^2 = \alpha x + \beta$ .

(a) If these roots are distinct ( $r_1 \neq r_2$ ), then the recurrence relation has a solution

$$a_n = k_1 \cdot r_1^n + k_2 \cdot r_2^n, \quad \text{for } n \geq 0,$$

where  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are constants depending on the initial conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= a_0 = k_1 \cdot r_1^0 + k_2 \cdot r_2^0 = k_1 + k_2, \\ c_1 &= a_1 = k_1 \cdot r_1^1 + k_2 \cdot r_2^1 = k_1 r_1 + k_2 r_2. \end{aligned}$$

(b) If these roots are equal ( $r_1 = r_2 = r$ ), then the recurrence relation has a solution

$$a_n = (k_1 + k_2 \cdot n)r^n, \quad \text{for } n \geq 0,$$

where  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are constants depending on the initial conditions:

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= a_0 = (k_1 + k_2 \cdot 0)r^0 = k_1, \\ c_1 &= a_1 = (k_1 + k_2 \cdot 1)r^1 = (k_1 + k_2)r. \end{aligned}$$

Note that it is possible that the roots  $r_1, r_2$  are **complex numbers** (since the quadratic equation  $x^2 = \alpha x + \beta$  may have complex roots), even though all values  $a_n$  in the sequence are real numbers. It is (as a result) also possible that  $k_1, k_2$  can be complex numbers.

**Example 2.8.** Find a solution of the recurrence relation  $a_0 = a_1 = 1$  and  $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

## Generating Functions

**Definition 2.9.** Given a sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ , we associate with it the formal power series

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots$$

The function  $f(x)$  is called the generating function of the sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ . We also say that “ $f(x)$  generates the sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$ ” or “the sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  is generated by the function  $f(x)$ ”.

**Note** that we do not make any assumptions on the convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ . It may not converge for some values of  $x$ ; perhaps it even converges only if  $x = 0$ .

The main underlying principle of these formal power series we will use is the following.

**Property 2.10.** Let  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  be two generating functions:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n.$$

Then  $f(x) = g(x)$  if and only if  $a_n = b_n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .

**Example 2.11.** The generating function of the sequence  $\left(\binom{k}{n}\right)_{n \geq 0}$  is  $(1+x)^k$ .

**Example 2.12.** The generating function of the sequence  $(1)_{n \geq 0}$  is  $\frac{1}{1-x}$ .

**Example 2.13.** What sequence is generated by  $\frac{4x}{1-x^2}$ ?

**Example 2.14.** The function  $e^x$  is the generating function of  $\left(\frac{1}{n!}\right)_{n \geq 0}$ .

**Example 2.15.** Using  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} x^n$  only, prove that  $\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$ .

**Example 2.16.** Use generating functions to find the closed form of the recurrence relation  $a_n = 2a_{n-1}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,  $a_0 = 1$ .

**Example 2.17.** Find a solution of the recurrence relation  $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,  $a_0 = 1$ .

## More on Generating Functions

The following theorem gives a list of possible ways that generating functions can be manipulated in general, so as to get new generating functions. Since we never discussed in detail what it means to be a formal power series, we can't prove the theorem. Nevertheless, the statements look acceptable if you believe that manipulations with infinite series are allowed.

**Theorem 2.18.** Suppose that the sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  has generating function  $f(x)$ , the sequence  $(b_n)_{n \geq 0}$  has generating function  $g(x)$ . Then we have:

- (a)  $f(x) + g(x)$  generates  $(a_n + b_n)_{n \geq 0}$ ;
- (b) for any integer  $m \geq 0$ ,  $x^m f(x)$  generates  $\underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_m, a_0, a_1, \dots$ ;
- (c) for any real number  $c$ ,  $cf(x)$  generates  $(ca_n)_{n \geq 0}$ ;
- (d) for any real number  $c$ ,  $f(cx)$  generates  $(c^n a_n)_{n \geq 0} = a_0, ca_1, \dots, c^n a_n, \dots$ ;
- (e) for any integer  $m \geq 0$ ,  $f(x^m)$  generates  $a_0, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{m-1}, a_1, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{m-1}, a_2, \dots$ ;
- (f)  $\frac{d}{dx} f(x)$  generates  $a_1, 2a_2, 3a_3, \dots$ ;
- (g)  $\int_0^x f(t) dt$  generates  $0, a_0, \frac{1}{2}a_1, \frac{1}{3}a_2, \frac{1}{4}a_3, \dots$ .

**Theorem 2.19.** Suppose  $f(x)$  is a formula for a formal power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ , for example  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$ . If  $g(x)$  is a formal power series (or a polynomial) **with constant term 0** then it is valid to write

$$f(g(x)) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n (g(x))^n.$$

So for example we can write

$$\frac{1}{1 - (x^2 + 2x^3)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x^2 + 2x^3)^n.$$

On the other hand, we should **NEVER EVER** do something like

$$\frac{1}{-1 - x} = \frac{1}{1 - (x + 2)} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x + 2)^n,$$

because the constant term of  $x + 2$  is  $2 \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 2.20** (Convolution Theorem). Suppose that the sequence  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  has generating function  $f(x)$  and the sequence  $(b_n)_{n \geq 0}$  has generating function  $g(x)$ . Then the product  $f(x)g(x)$  generates the sequence  $(c_n)_{n \geq 0}$ , where  $c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}$ .

**Example 2.21.** Suppose  $k \geq 0$ . Show that

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

## Partial Fractions

Suppose that we have a sequence (whose terms we do not know)  $(a_n)_{n \geq 0}$  whose generating function is  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ . Suppose we find

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

where  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are polynomials whose coefficients we *do* know (as in Example 2.17). How can we find a formula for  $a_n$  for each  $n \geq 0$ ?

**Proposition 2.22.** *Suppose  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are polynomials. Then we can write*

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = a(x) + \frac{p^*(x)}{q(x)}$$

where  $a(x)$  is a polynomial and  $p^*(x)$  has degree less than  $q(x)$ .

**Theorem 2.23.** *Suppose  $q(x)$  is any polynomial. We can write*

$$q(x) = \alpha(r_1 - x)^{m_1}(r_2 - x)^{m_2} \dots (r_k - x)^{m_k}$$

where the (possibly complex) numbers  $r_1, \dots, r_k$  are the roots of the equation  $q(x) = 0$  and for each  $1 \leq i \leq k$  the positive integer  $m_i$  is the multiplicity of the root  $r_i$ .

Suppose  $p^*(x)$  is any polynomial whose degree is smaller than that of  $q(x)$ . Then there are numbers  $A_{1,1}, A_{1,2}, \dots, A_{1,m_1}, A_{2,1}, A_{2,2}, \dots, A_{2,m_2}, \dots, A_{k,1}, A_{k,2}, \dots, A_{k,m_k}$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{p^*(x)}{q(x)} &= \frac{A_{1,1}}{r_1 - x} + \frac{A_{1,2}}{(r_1 - x)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_{1,m_1}}{(r_1 - x)^{m_1}} \\ &\quad + \frac{A_{2,1}}{r_2 - x} + \frac{A_{2,2}}{(r_2 - x)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_{2,m_2}}{(r_2 - x)^{m_2}} \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\quad + \frac{A_{k,1}}{r_k - x} + \frac{A_{k,2}}{(r_k - x)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_{k,m_k}}{(r_k - x)^{m_k}}. \end{aligned}$$

To calculate the  $A_{i,j}$  you need to solve a system of linear equations. This gets rapidly more difficult as the system gets bigger: so it is a good idea to cancel any common factors of  $p^*(x)$  and  $q(x)$ .

**Proposition 2.24.** *We have*

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

**Example 2.25.** Let  $(u_n)_{n \geq 0}$  be given by  $u_0 = 0$ ,  $u_1 = 1$  and  $u_n = u_{n-1} + 6u_{n-2} + n - 2$ ,  $n \geq 2$ . Find a closed form for  $u_n$ .

## The Binomial Theorem for Negative Exponents

The binomial coefficient  $\binom{k}{r}$  is defined as the number of ways to choose  $r$  objects from  $k$  possible choices, without repetition and where order does not matter. In other words,  $\binom{k}{r}$  is the number of  $r$ -element subsets of an  $n$ -element set. From this we deduced that

$$\binom{k}{r} = \frac{k!}{r!(k-r)!} = \frac{k(k-1)\cdots(k-(r-1))}{r!}.$$

**Definition 2.26.** For a real number  $\alpha$  and a natural number  $r$ , we define

$$\binom{\alpha}{r} := \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)\cdots(\alpha-(r-1))}{r!}.$$

For  $r = 0$ , we set  $\binom{\alpha}{0} := 1$ .

**Fact 2.27.** If  $k \geq 0$  is an integer, we have

$$\binom{-k}{r} = (-1)^r \binom{k+r-1}{r}.$$

**Theorem 2.28** (Binomial Theorem for negative exponents). For any natural number  $k$  we have as a formal power series

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

**Example 2.29.** Use the Convolution Theorem for the product of two power series, to prove that

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

## Additional reading and exercises

From Biggs, *Discrete Mathematics*

– **Reading:** Sections 4.5, 19.2, 25.1–25.6.

– **Exercises:** Section 4.5: 1–4; Section 19.2: 1–5; Section 19.7: 1–2;  
 Section 25.2: 1–2; Section 25.3: 1–4; Section 25.4: 1–4;  
 Section 25.5: 1–3; Section 25.6: 1–3; Section 25.7: 2–4, 8–18.

From Cameron, *Combinatorics*

– **Reading:** Sections 4.1–4.3.

## Exercises

1. Solve the following recurrence relation:

$$\begin{aligned}a_n &= 4a_{n-1} - 4a_{n-2}, & \text{for } n \geq 2; \\a_0 &= 1; \\a_1 &= 3.\end{aligned}$$

2. Solve the following recurrence relation:

$$\begin{aligned}b_n &= b_{n-1} + 6b_{n-2} + 6n, & \text{for } n \geq 2; \\b_0 &= 1; \\b_1 &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

(Hint: you may want to write  $b_n = a_n + \alpha n + \beta$  and choose suitable  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  first.)

3. Let  $a_n$  denote the number of  $n$ -digit sequences in which each digit is either 0 or 1, and no two consecutive 0's are allowed.

(a) Show that  $a_1 = 2$  and  $a_2 = 3$ . What would you say  $a_0$  is?

(b) Show that for  $n \geq 3$  we have  $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$ .

(c) Give a closed form expression for  $a_n$ .

4. Define the sequence  $(b_n)_{n \geq 1}$  by  $b_n = \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n-1}{1} + \binom{n-2}{2} + \dots$ . (Remember that  $\binom{k}{\ell} = 0$  if  $\ell > k$ .)

(a) Verify that  $b_1 = 1$ ,  $b_2 = 2$ , and that, for every  $n \geq 3$ , we have  $b_n = b_{n-1} + b_{n-2}$ .

(b) Find a closed form expression for  $b_n$ .

5. Let  $f_n$  denote the  $n$ -th *Fibonacci number*, i.e.,  $f_0 = f_1 = 1$  and  $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

Prove that for every  $n \geq 2$  we have  $f_n^2 - f_{n-1} \cdot f_{n+1} = (-1)^n$ .

6. For  $n \geq 1$ , let  $a_n$  denote the number of  $n$ -digit sequences in which each digit is 0, 1, or  $-1$ , and no two consecutive 0's or two consecutive 1's are allowed.

(a) Show that  $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 3$ .

(b) Determine  $a_1$  and  $a_2$ .

(c) Find a closed form expression for  $a_n$ .

7. On working through a problem, a student is said to be at the  $n$ -th stage if she or he is  $n$  steps from the solution. At any stage the student has five choices how to proceed. Two of these choices result in the student going to the  $(n-1)$ -th stage, and the remaining three of them are better and they take her or him directly to the  $(n-2)$ -th stage.

Let  $s_n$  be the number of ways the student can reach the solution if she or he starts from the  $n$ -th stage.

- (a) If  $s_1 = 2$ , verify that  $s_2 = 7$ .
- (b) Give a recurrence relation for  $s_n$ .
- (c) Deduce that  $s_n = \frac{1}{4}(3^{n+1} + (-1)^n)$ .

**8. Use generating functions** to solve the following recurrence relation:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= 5a_{n-1} - 6a_{n-2}, \quad \text{for } n \geq 2; \\ a_0 &= 0; \\ a_1 &= 3. \end{aligned}$$

**9.** Suppose that  $f(x)$  generates the sequence  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$ . Give expressions, in terms of  $f$ , for the generating functions of the following sequences:

- (a)  $0, a_0, 0, a_1, 0, a_2, 0, \dots$ ;
- (b)  $1, a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$ ;
- (c)  $a_0, -a_1, a_2, -a_3, a_4, \dots$ .

**10.** Show that the generating function of the sequence  $a_n = n$ ,  $n \geq 0$ , is  $f(x) = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$ .

**11.** Find the generating function for the sequence  $b_n = n^2$ ,  $n \geq 0$ .  
(Hint: differentiation.)

**12.** Find the sequences generated by the following functions:

- (a)  $f(x) = \frac{x^3}{1+x}$ ;
- (b)  $g(x) = \frac{x}{1-7x+12x^2}$ ;
- (c)  $h(x) = \frac{x^7}{2-x^7}$ ;
- (d)  $k(x) = e^{-2x}$ .

**13.** Let  $a_n$  be the number of  $n$ -letter words formed from the 26 letters of the alphabet, in which the five vowels A, E, I, O, U together occur an even number of times. (By a word we mean simply any string of letters.) For example, when  $n = 8$ , such a word is APQIITOW since four (an even number) of the positions contain vowels.

- (a) Show that  $a_1 = 21$  and that, for  $n \geq 2$ , we have

$$a_n = 16a_{n-1} + 5 \cdot 26^{n-1}.$$

What would you say that  $a_0$  is?

- (b) Find the generating function for the sequence  $a_0, a_1, \dots$ .



(c) Use this generating function to find a closed form expression for  $a_n$ .

**14.** The language of Verwegistan has words consisting of the letters A,E,O,U,B,P, and X. Words are formed according to the following rules: the vowels (A,E,O,U) always appear in pairs of the form AA, EE, OO, or UU, and they appear in a word before all non-vowels (if any). For instance, AAEEPXP and AAAA are words, but UUUB, AAXBAAAX, and AEXX are not.

Let  $a_n$  denote the number of words of length  $n$  in the language.

(a) Show that  $a_0 = 1$ ,  $a_1 = 3$ , and

$$a_n = 4a_{n-2} + 3^n, \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

(b) Let  $f(x)$  be the generating function of the sequence  $a_0, a_1, \dots$ . Show that  $f(x) = \frac{1}{(1-3x)(1-4x^2)}$ .

(c) Use this generating function to find a general expression for  $a_n$ .

**15.** Let  $f(x)$  be the generating function for the sequence  $a_0, a_1, \dots$ .

Find the sequences whose generating functions are  $(1+x)f(x)$  and  $\frac{f(x)}{1-4x^2}$ .

**16.** Let  $d_n$  denote the number of selections of  $n$  letters from  $\{a, b, c\}$ , with repetitions allowed, in which the letter  $a$  is selected an even number of times. (Note that these selections are unordered.)

(a) Show that the total number of unordered selections of  $n$  letters from  $\{a, b, c\}$  with repetitions allowed is  $\binom{n+2}{2}$ .

(b) Use the result in (a) to prove that for  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$d_n = \binom{n+2}{2} - d_{n-1} = \frac{1}{2}(n+2)(n+1) - d_{n-1}.$$

(c) Show that the sequence  $d_0, d_1, \dots$  has the generating function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x^2)(1-x)^2} = \frac{1}{(1+x)(1-x)^3}.$$

(d) Use this generating function to prove that

$$d_n = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{4}(n+2)^2, & \text{if } n \text{ is even;} \\ \frac{1}{4}(n+1)(n+3), & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

**17.** (a) Suppose we roll a six-sided die (English: one die, many dice... even if not all native speakers know this). Let  $d_n$  be the number of possible ways to roll a die so that the outcome is  $n$ .

Explain why the generating function of the sequence  $d_0, d_1, \dots$  is given by

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

- (b) Suppose that we roll four (distinguishable) dice. Let  $a_n$  be the number of throws such that the sum of outcomes is equal to  $n$ .

Explain why the generating function of the sequence  $a_0, a_1, \dots$  is given by

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

- (c) Now let  $b_n$  be the number of throws with any number of (distinguishable) dice such that the sum of outcomes is equal to  $n$ .

Explain why the generating function of the sequence  $b_0, b_1, \dots$  is given by

$$h(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + x^5 + x^6)^n.$$

Prove that  $h(x) = (1 - x - x^2 - x^3 - x^4 - x^5 - x^6)^{-1}$ .

**18.** The British coin system has 1p, 2p, 5p, 10p, 20p, 50p, £1 = 100p, and £2 = 200p coins.

- (a) Let  $a_n$  count the number of different ways that you can pay a sum of  $n$  pennies with 10p coins.

Find the generating function of the sequence  $a_0, a_1, \dots$ .

- (b) Let  $b_n$  count the number of different ways that you can pay a sum of  $n$  pennies with 1p and 2p coins.

Find the generating function of the sequence  $b_0, b_1, \dots$  and determine the closed formula for  $b_n$ .

- (c) Let  $c_n$  count the number of different ways that you can pay a sum of  $n$  pennies.

Find the generating function of the sequence  $c_0, c_1, \dots$ .