

Plug and Play

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1 Introduction

Note: Describe the source of the problem and the group makeup

Given a sequence $0, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3, \dots, n, n$ find the number of ways to arrange the elements in the sequence so that there's exactly one digit between the two 1's, two digits between the two 2's, three digits between the two 3's, so on and so forth, and there are exactly n digits between the two n 's.

For $n = 2$, a possible solution would be 12102. For $n = 5$, a possible solution would be 53141352402.[1]

Note: Reformulate and generalize to plugs on a strip. Pictures of our 3d printed incarnations.

2 Plugs, Strips and Puzzles

Our mathematical model for a plug is a bit string, for example 1011. Our current convention is that there are no leading or trailing 0 bits. (We may want to relax that convention at some time.)

The *length* of a plug is the length of the string; this one has length 4. The *number of prongs* is the number of 1 bits — 3 in this example.

Each plug has a *plugnumber* when we interpret its bit string as a binary integer. So 1011 is number $1 + 4 + 8 = 13$.¹

Since plugs begin and end with 1 bits, the plugs of length n have plugnumbers the odd integers between $2^{n-1} + 1$ and $2^n - 1$.²

¹This convention reads increasing bit significance from left to right, so the first bit is the units bit. We can change our minds and set the plugnumber for 1011 to $1 + 2 + 8 = 11$ if we wish, but let's decide soon and stick to our decision.

²This equivalence will need revision if we allow leading and trailing 0 s in plug bitstrings.

We will want ways to talk about plugs other than specifying their bit strings or plugnumbers. In any context we can give a plug any name we like, or have variables whose values can be plugs.

The Stackexchange question that triggered our project asked about the 2 prong plugs. We'll call those the *classic plugs* and give them their own names: T_k for the two prong plug of length k . It has $k - 2$ 0 bits between its 2 end prongs. T_k has plugnumber $2^{k-1} + 1$. The stackexchange question uses the single prong plug 1 instead of the mathematically more natural length 2 two prong plug T_2 with no gap between the prongs.

A *power strip* (or just a *strip*) models a place to plug in plugs. Think of it as a finite sequence of slots some of which are occupied by the prongs of plugs. So a power strip is a pair consisting of an array of slots and a set of (plug, offset) pairs such that all the plugs can be inserted simultaneously at the specified offsets. It is a *solved* if every slot in the strip is filled.

A *plug puzzle*, or, for us, just a puzzle, specifies the types and numbers of plugs you are allowed to use to fill a strip — something like

$\mathbb{E}(\text{list of allowable plug types, restrictions on numbers of plugs of each type})$

A *solution* of length n is a strip with n slots filled with plugs that are consistent with the restrictions in the puzzle specification.

Given a puzzle we try to understand the number and shape of solutions. often as a function of the size of the strip.

Note: *Remember to say somewhere (perhaps not here) that plugs and solutions have a left to right direction. You can't turn them around. Perhaps add an electric system not quite analogy.*

The stackexchange post posed a sequence of puzzles:

$$\mathbb{T}_k = \mathbb{E}(\{\text{the one prong plug, } T_3, T_4, \dots, T_k\}, \text{exactly 1 of each}).$$

The only possible solutions are strips of length $2k + 1$. The question asks for an efficient algorithm to count them.

3 Anything goes

That puzzle spurred our investigations, but it is much too hard to start out with. In particular, we discovered that restricting the number of plugs of each type is a stumbling block. So for a while we will study just puzzles that specify the allowed plug types, with no limit on the number of each that can appear in a solution.

In the *anything goes* puzzle \mathbb{A} you may use any plugs as often as you wish:

$$\mathbb{A} = \mathbb{E}(\text{all plug types})$$

Counting solutions begins to put us in touch with some classical notions in combinatorics.

Theorem 1. *Length n solutions for the plug puzzle that allows arbitrary many instances of any plug correspond to the partitions of the n -element set $[n] = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.*

Note: Example here — wait until the good L^AT_EX plug representation is done.

The Bell numbers $\{1, 2, 3, 5, 15, 52, \dots\}$ count these.

4 Factoring

There is more information in a solved strip than the shape of the partition that defines it. For example, two copies of 101 solve a strip of length 4. So do two copies of 11. Both solutions correspond to a partition of the four element set of slots into two sets of two slots each, but their geometry is different.

In a power strip of length n there are $n - 1$ gaps between slots. The *thickness* or *thickness array* is a the sequence of integers that counts the number of plugs that cover each of the gaps. A solution (that is, a filled strip) is *prime* or *atomic* if its thickness is never 0. Any solution is a concatenation of prime filled strips: the *factors*.

When a puzzle specifies no restrictions on the number of each kind of plug then factors and products (concatenations) of solutions are themselves solutions. When that happens we can relate the number of prime solutions and the number of solutions.

Let $S(n)$ be the number of solved strips of length n and $S'(n)$ the number of prime solutions of length n .

Let $P(n)$ be the number of solved strips that use n plugs and $P'(n)$ the number of prime solutions that use n plugs.

NOT QUITE RIGHT YET. P and P' must be carefully defined to count the number of prime plugs actually used in solutions of some length or bounded length. To see why, note that for the anything goes puzzle there are infinitely many one plug primes: the plugs with all bits 1.

When necessary we will write $S(\mathbb{E}, n)$ when we need to make clear which puzzle we are counting.

Some of these counts may be 0. Consider the puzzle that uses just the classic plug 11. Then $S(n) = 1$ if n is even, 0 if n is odd. $S'(2) = 1$ and 0 otherwise.

We did a brute force calculation for the number of prime solutions to the anything goes puzzle, and found $\{1, 1, 2, 6, 22, \dots\}$. That sequence seems to be A074664 in The On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences. The comments there about permutations and partitions strongly support

Conjecture 2. *The prime solutions to problem A are characterized by the equivalent conditions defining the OEIS sequence A074664.*

This easy theorem might help prove the conjecture. It shows that each of S and S' (or P and P') determines the other.

Theorem 3. *Suppose that every factor of a solved strip solves its smaller strip and any concatenation of solved strips is a solution.*

Then the first k for which $S(k) > 0$ is the same as the first k for which $S'(k) > 0$. For that k we have $S(k) = S'(k)$ and for all n

$$S(n) = S'(1)S(n-1) + S'(2)S(n-2) + \cdots + S'(n-1)S(1) + S'(n). \quad (4.1)$$

The same assertions hold for the counts $P(n)$ and $P'(n)$.

Proof. Each solved strip begins with a prime solution of length $k \leq n$ which can be chosen $S'(k)$ ways and ends with one of the $S(n-k)$ solved strips of length $n-k$. Replace “length” by “number of plugs” to prove the second assertion. \square

Equation 4.1 is as kind of convolution. It appears in the OEIS discussion of OEIS A074664. In Section 12 we discuss it further.

Note: *So far we’ve used thickness only to find factors. But there is probably more information to exploit. What’s the maximum thickness? What patterns are possible in the thickness vector?*

5 Disallowing the Plug 1

Note: *Also a section by Debbie. Also again, not really a theorem and notation should probably be changed (I just changed S' to B' because we use S' for something else). Table needs to be better labeled. I have similar work for when the plug 1 is allowed that I ran out of time before I put up.*

Note: *Use some letter other than S below since that’s now used for solution counts.*

Theorem 4. *Let $B'(n, k)$ represent the number of set partitions with no singletons, i.e. the number of solutions to the plug problem with k plugs, where the plug 1 is not allowed. Then $B'(n, k) = kB'(n-1, k) + (n-1)B'(n-2, k-1)$, with $B'(2, 1) = 1$ and $B'(n, k) = 0$ when $k > \frac{n}{2}$*

Proof. Consider adding position $n-1$ in a strip of length n (where position numbering starts from 0) to form a solution with k plugs. We can add a prong at position $n-1$ to one of the existing plugs in a solution for a strip of length $n-1$ with k plugs in $kB'(n-1, k)$, which counts all possibilities where position $n-1$ is part of a plug with 3 or more prongs. If position $n-1$ is part of a plug with 2 prongs, then we have $n-1$ choices for the other end of the plug, and we have a total of $(n-1)B'(n-2, k-1)$ solutions. \square

The solutions form a triangle, with n on the vertical axis and k on the horizontal:

1	2	3	4	5
1	0	0	0	0
2	1	0	0	0
3	1	0	0	0
4	1	3	0	0
5	1	10	0	0
6	1	25	15	0
7	1	56	105	0

Theorem 5. Let $B'(n)$ be the sum of the numbers in row n in the table above, i.e. the total number of strips of length n with singletons disallowed. The first few values of $B'(n)$ are 0, 1, 1, 4, 11, 21, 162. Let $B(n)$ be the n th Bell Number, which counts the total number of strips of length n . Then

$$B'(n+1) = B(n) - B'(n),$$

that is, the number of strips of length $n+1$ that do not include a singleton plug is equal to the number strips of length n that do include a singleton plug.

Proof. Let \mathcal{B}'_n and \mathcal{B}''_n be respectively, the sets of all strips of length n without singletons and strips of length n with singletons. We define a map from \mathcal{B}''_n to \mathcal{B}'_{n+1} by considering a strip of length n with at least one singleton, and then creating a new plug by joining all the singletons with prong $n+1$. This plug is not a singleton and together with the non-singleton plugs from the original, creates a new strip in \mathcal{B}'_{n+1} . The map is easily reversible, by taking a strip of length $n+1$ with no singletons, dropping prong $n+1$ and making everything it's connected to into singletons. Thus we've found a bijection. \square

Note: Language above needs cleaning up, and not sure about notation either.

6 Puzzles with just one plug type

Let a plug that solves a single-type puzzle of length be called a component.

Note: Not sure if “component” is the right label for this. -KL

Note: When we do enough of these we may see metapatterns.

- 11...1 This puzzle has just one prime, the plug itself, of length k .
- 100...1 These are the classic plugs.

Conjecture 6. Using just the classic plug of length k , the only prime is the one of length $2k-2$ constructed from $k-1$ copies in the obvious way.

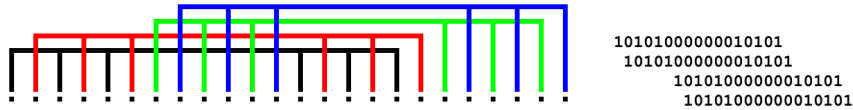
- 1011 This puzzle has no solutions.
- (a, a, b, a, a) tiles an infinite strip, but has no primes. Note that this *block* notation (which maybe we should change) represents a block of ones of length a followed by a block of zeroes of length a , etc. An example is 1100111110011.

- $(k, mk, k, mk, \dots, mk, k)$ The plug formed with n blocks of 1's of length k each and $n - 1$ blocks of zeroes of length mk each, where $k, m \in \mathbb{N}$, then $m + 1$ of these plugs form a prime of length $(m + 1)nk$.

Note: (DB) This is a generalization of Adam's result for the classic plug. The notation probably needs some clean up. I have been using the subset of positions notation to represent plugs. Then if P is the set of prong positions with first prong at 0, we can use P_k to represent the plug that adds k to every number in P (k can be negative, and more generally we don't have to use P_0 in our puzzle solution – I think this will be important if we want to use this notation for puzzles using more than one type of plug) and we are looking for a pairwise disjoint set of these translations that covers an interval. In the case of the above example, we have $P_0 \cup P_k \cup P_{2k} \dots \cup P_{mk}$ covers the interval $[0, (m + 1)nk]$ – someone please check as there are a lot of variables here. I am also thinking about defining a scaling operation on plugs that multiplies the lengths of the blocks of 0's and 1's by the same thing. If we looked at the strips as continuous instead of discrete, then this change really does just change the unit, it doesn't change how the plugs fit together. Maybe there's another operation that would just duplicate aspects of the plug.... thinking about simpler ways to think about what I wrote here.... these are related to the classic plugs if you can just multiply the block sizes by the same thing and then also sort of repeat the same thing....

Conjecture 7. The plugs of the form $(k, mk, k, mk, \dots, mk, k)$ are the only plugs that form primes with only one type of plug.

- Plugs which link together to form "larger" plugs also form finite primes with only one type of plug. See Figure 1 below.



Conjecture 9. *Plugs that tile solutions using only that type of plug have “partner plugs” that necessarily also solely tile solutions to puzzles of the same length.*

Lemma 10. *For strips of finite length n , plugs that solely tile solutions must have binary representations that are factors of $2^n - 1$.*

Proof. If a solution is composed of a group of identical plugs, each plug is essentially translated such that no prongs overlap. When using binary representations of plugs, these translations amount to multiples of the “base” untranslated plug. Since strips filled with one type of plug are sums of those multiples, they must also be multiples of that base plug. Thus, if a base plug is *not* a factor of a full strip, which have numerical representations corresponding to $2^n - 1$ where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ represents the length of the strip, that plug could not possibly solely tile a solution to a strip of length n . Note that plugs corresponding to factors of $2^n - 1$ do not necessarily tile solutions to strips of length n , since addition does not prevent overlapping prongs. \square

Note: *Not sure if this is enough/appropriate “proof” of this lemma. Is an example and/or visual representation necessary? - KL*

Using 10, we know that all plugs which solely tile solutions to a strip must be factors of the full strip. Then, we can consider both members of a working³ factor pair. At this point, it should be noted that not all single-type solutions found this way are prime. For example, $2^n - 1$ and 1 are a factor pair for all filled strips of length n , but the strip tiled with singletons is definitely not prime. To visualize the relationship between the members of a factor pair and prove that both are components, they should be arranged such that the beginnings of the plugs are in a single diagonal.

Note: *Will work on this further -KL*

7 Puzzles with two plug types

8 Puzzles using 2 Prong Plugs

Note: *There seem to be two attempts at this count. Perhaps one from Adam (moved here) or perhaps both from Deb. I’m not sure what is being counted. We should look at this with our codified definitions.*

First attempt:

Using only classic plugs of length 2^k where $k > 0$:

³Where a “working” factor represents a plug that successfully solely tiles a solution.

length	S'	S
2	1	1
4	1	2
6	1	4
8	3	11
10	12	33
12	14	86
14	—	—

Note: *Deb's work:*

In this section we study the two prong plug puzzle

$$\mathbb{T} = (\{T_k | k = 1, 2, \dots\})$$

This is a variant of the stackexchange puzzle, using T_0 instead of the single prong plug (1), with no restrictions on the number of each kind of plug.

Note: *What is below doesn't really warrant a theorem... maybe a proposition or a lemma or just within the text, not sure. Also the $t(n)$ notation is temporary pending my comment in the Specifying Variations section. Also should we use length n for the strip for consistency, which would make all odd lengths 0, or use $2n$ as I did below?*

Theorem 11. *For the puzzle \mathbb{T} there are no solutions of odd length. For each n ,*

$$S(2n) = (2n - 1)!! = (2n - 1) \cdot (2n - 3) \cdots 3 \cdot 1.$$

Proof. Solutions of length $2n$ correspond to partitions of the set of $2n$ slots into subsets of size two. There are $2n - 1$ ways to choose a partner for the plug whose first prong occupies the first slot, $2n - 3$ ways to choose a partner for the plug whose first prong occupies the next empty slot, and so on. \square

Theorem 3 applied to the sequence

$$0, 1, 0, 3, 0, 15, 0, 105, 0, 945, 0, 10395, \dots$$

shows that the number of length n prime plugs for this puzzle is the sequence

$$0, 1, 0, 2, 0, 10, 0, 74, 0, 706, 0, 8162, \dots$$

Conjecture 12. *The nonzero entries in that sequence match A000698 in the OEIS. The comment there explicitly mentions the convolution construction from the Bell numbers*

We obtain the following table with the first few nonzero values of $S(n)$, along with the ratio $\frac{S'(n)}{S(n)}$.

n	$S(n)$	$\frac{S'(n)}{S(n)}$
1	1	1
2	2	0.67
3	10	0.67
4	74	0.70
5	706	0.75
6	8162	0.79

9 Non-crossing solutions

We define a crossing solution as any solution which contains at least one plug that has at least one prong outside another plug and at least one prong inside that same other plug. That is, a crossing solution has plugs that “cross” each other. It follows that a non-crossing solution is one without any such plugs.

Theorem 13. *Let $C(n)$ and $C_{\text{classic}}(n)$ represent the number of non-crossing solutions for a strip of length n involving any type of plug and only classic plugs respectively. Then $C(n) = C_{\text{classic}}(2n)$ where n is any positive integer.*

Proof. There is a bijective function between non-crossing solutions involving only classic plugs and involving any plug. The algorithm to convert between solutions of each type and its inverse follow.

To convert a solution involving any type of plug to a solution of double the length involving only classic plugs, firstly, singletons (1 plugs) are converted to T_2 plugs. Then, all other plugs are converted into a minimum of two classic plugs: one plug that is double the total length of the initial plug, and other plugs that are each double the length of the number of *gaps* between inner prongs. Note that a classic plug (one without inner prongs) will only result in two plugs—one of double the total length and one of double the number of inner gaps, that is $2(n - 1)$, where n is the length of the strip. This can be visualized below, with a single plug in Figure 2 and a full noncrossing solution in Figure 3.



Figure 2: A general plug (left) converted to a group of classic plugs (right), with the outer plug in dark blue and the inner plug in light blue.

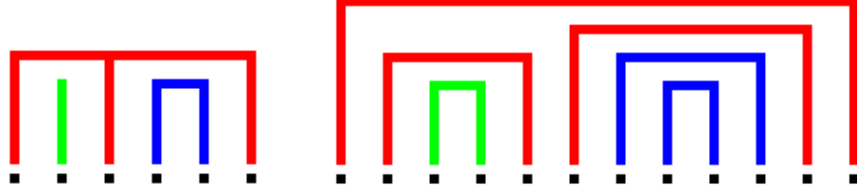


Figure 3: A non-crossing solution as a whole, composed of any kind of plug, converted into groups of non-crossing classic plugs.

For the inverse algorithm, which converts a solution composed of only classic plugs to one that is half the length and involves any kind of plug, first (1), any “loose” T_2 plugs, those that aren’t within any other plug, should be converted to singletons. Then (2), any plugs “containing” others should be paired with each plug *directly* below it. By halving the lengths of each of the inner plugs, the lengths of gaps between inner prongs can be found and added to the overall plug of half the length of the originally overarching classic plug. By repeating (1) and (2) until all plugs have been converted, non-crossing classic solutions can be converted to non-crossing free solutions. Figure 4

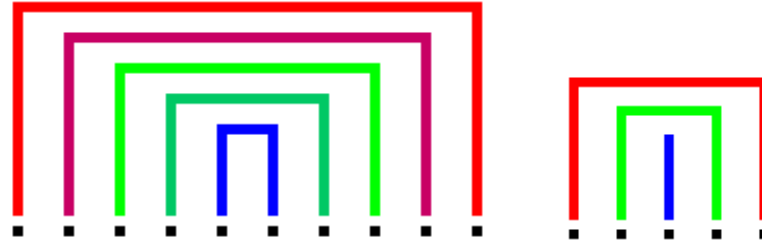


Figure 4: A nesting, non-crossing solution composed of classic plugs paired to create a solution composed of any kind of plug. Corresponding colors (which directly nest) are paired until the innermost T_2 plug is left to become a singleton.

It should be noted that these algorithms can be applied to any solution of the originating type. This is clear for the doubling algorithm, and also must be true for the inverse, because all spaces within larger classic plugs must be filled by an appropriate number of other classic plugs—since they are non-crossing, overlapping plugs are not a problem. Figure 5 displays a case where classic plugs could not be converted to a “regular” plugs—in that case, it is not possible because the group of plugs does not correspond to a solution.

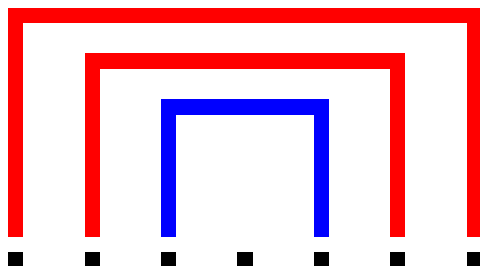


Figure 5: A group of classic plugs that cannot be converted to a group of any kind of plug, because they do not compose a complete solution—there is an unfilled gap.

Then, because each function can be applied to any non-crossing solution of each type, and (as below) the algorithm and its inverse, or vice-versa, applied in succession to a solution results in the original solution.

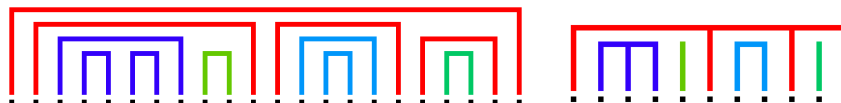


Figure 6: A large example of the conversion of a solution composed of any plug to a solution composed only of classic plugs. It is clear that the algorithms presented allow transformation from the general solution (left) to the classic solution (right) and vice-versa.

□

Recall that *non-crossing* describes solutions in which the plugs do not cross each other at any point (e.g. 64242 and 622 are non-crossing, 332 is not). *Nesting* solutions are both non-crossing and prime (e.g. 642 and 622 are nesting). Since nesting solutions are prime non-crossing solutions, we use $S_\chi(n)$ to count non-crossing solutions of length n and $S'_\chi(n)$ to count nesting solutions.

Note: *Add images of solutions to clarify definitions?*

The non-crossing and nesting solutions to the puzzle using only classic plugs are counted by the Catalan numbers C_k , as shown in the table below.

n	$S_\chi(n)$	$S'_\chi(x)$
2	1	1
4	2	1
6	5	2
8	14	5
10	42	14
12	132	42
14	429	132
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
$2k$	C_k	C_{k-1}

We obtain a similar result counting nesting solutions to the puzzle where the outermost plug is a 3-prong plug and the rest are classics. *Add explanation of constructing convolution.*

n	$S'_\chi(x)$
3	1
5	1
7	2
9	5
11	14
13	42
15	132
\vdots	\vdots
$2k+1$	C_k

Using classic plugs and 3-prong plugs, the non-crossing solutions appear to be counted by A001005, and the nesting solutions appear to be counted by A321197. In this case, the convolution from Thm. 3 doesn't hold. *Why?*

n	$S_\chi(n)$	$S'_\chi(x)$
2	1	1
3	1	1
4	2	1
5	5	3
6	8	4
7	21	10
8	42	20
9	96	42
10	222	98
11	495	210
12	1177	492

A001005 also counts the number of ways of partitioning n points on a circle into subsets only of sizes 2 and 3 (related to Riordan matrices), and A321197 gives the A-sequence for the Riordan matrix $(1/(1+x^2-x^3), x/(1+x^2-x^3))$.

10 Asymptotics

Some of the structure in the preceding section generalizes. A puzzle with no restrictions on the number of allowed plugs of each allowable plug type is determined by the set of allowable plug types. That is just a subset of the countable set P of all possible plug types: the partitions of arbitrary integers. So we can think of growth rate as a function g on the power set $\mathcal{P}(P)$. It's weakly increasing on the partial order determined by set inclusion. Its maximum is the growth rate for the Bell numbers, which come from the anything goes puzzle.

Note: Perhaps it will be useful to think about asymptotics in this general context. We might be able to say something about classes of puzzles when exact answers or estimates for particular puzzles are beyond us.

11 Infinite strips

Note: Placeholder for work on infinite prime strips.

With the plugs $A = 10101$ and $B = 1011101$ you can construct many doubly infinite filled strips since each interlocks with itself and with the other at either end.

The sequence of A 's and B 's can be made aperiodic in many ways. For example, start with the singly infinite

$$ABAABAAABAAAAB\ldots \quad (11.1)$$

then link it to its reverse.

In fact, starting with the Thue Morse sequence ⁴ you can build such an aperiodic strip without ever using three of a kind in a row:

$$ABBABAABBAABABBA\ldots$$

Conjecture 14. *This sequence is clearly aperiodic in A and B . Check that it is also aperiodic in bits.*

12 Convolution

The calculation in Theorem 3 is (potentially) interesting for its own sake, not just for our applications to plug problems. The functions $t2p()$ and $p2t()$ that convert between total counts and prime counts each invert the other, so each is bijective when applied to arbitrary sequences of integers (or sequences of real numbers, or sequences of elements from any ring).

$p2t$ always increases entries. It's a kind of integration, counting products given prime factors. Its inverse is a kind of differentiation.

If you play with interesting sequences you can find interesting results/coincidences. For example

⁴Recursively, start with A . For each sequence of length a power of 2, make a new version swapping A and B and append.

```
> python3.6 convolve.py 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1
input [1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1]
p2t: [1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34]
t2p [1, -1, 2, -3, 5, -8, 13, -21, 34]
```

When you convolve some counting sequence the result may count something related. There are probably theorems lurking here.

The Catalan numbers (1,1,2,5,14,42,132...) convolve almost to themselves under p2t — only the leading 1 is dropped. An interesting application of the Catalan numbers is that the n th Catalan number C_n for $n \geq 0$ counts the number of valid ways to arrange n open parentheses and n closed parentheses.

Suppose we introduce an additional count C'_n for the number of prime arrangements of n open parentheses and n closed parentheses (i.e. arrangements in which the initial open parenthesis and final closed parenthesis are linked). It follows that C'_n is just the number of ways to arrange the parentheses on the interior, of which there are $n-1$ of each. So, $C'_{n+1} = C_n$.

It's easy to see that $C_1 = C'_1 = 1$ and thus $C'_2 = C_1 = 1$. Passing the list $[C'_1, C'_2] = [1, 1]$ to p2t() in convolve.py outputs $[C_1, C_2] = [1, 2]$. This output also tells us $C'_3 = C_2 = 2$ — continuing this process we construct the Catalan numbers (omitting the leading 1) through convolution, as shown in full below:

```
python3.6 convolve.py 1 1 2 5 14 42 132 429 1430
input [1, 1, 2, 5, 14, 42, 132, 429, 1430]
p2t: [1, 2, 5, 14, 42, 132, 429, 1430, 4862]
t2p [1, 0, 1, 2, 6, 18, 57, 186, 622]
```

Under t2p they convolve to OEIS A000957:

Fine's sequence (or Fine numbers):
number of relations of valence ≥ 1 on an n -set;
also number of ordered rooted trees with n edges
having root of even degree.

p2t and t2p each essentially permutes the set of sequences. Is there any global structure that's revealed?

Question 3. *p2t and t2p each essentially permutes the set of sequences. Is there any global structure that's revealed?*

Question 4.

Is there a continuous form of this kind of self convolution? Something like

$$g(x) = \int_0^x f(t)f(x-t)dt$$

Theorem 15. *Let $S(n)$ and $S'(n)$ be defined as in Theorem 3, with $S(0) = 1$ and $S'(0) = 0$. Let*

$$S(x) = S(0) + S(1)x + S(2)x^2 + \dots S(n)x^n + \dots$$

and

$$S'(x) = S'(0) + S'(1)x + S'(2)x^2 + \dots S'(n)x^n + \dots$$

be the ordinary generating functions for $S(n)$ and $S'(n)$ respectively. Then

$$S(x) = \frac{1}{1 - S'(x)}$$

Note: it would be better to use lower case letters for the sequences and upper case for the generating function – less confusing and more standard.

Proof. We rewrite the equation in Theorem 3 as

$$S(x) - 1 = S'(x)S(x)$$

and solve for $S(x)$. See [2], p. 177. □

References

- [1] Number of ways to arrange pairs of integers with distance constraint math.stackexchange.com/questions/4124452/number-of-ways-to-arrange-pairs-of-integers-with-distance-constraint
- [2] Miklós Bóna, *A Walk Through Combinatorics: An Introduction to Enumeration and Graph Theory*, 4th edition, World Scientific, 2017.
- [3] en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cuisenaire_rods